Evidence Synthesis Number 165

Screening for Peripheral Artery Disease Using the Ankle-Brachial Index: An Updated Systematic Review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force

Prepared for:

Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 5600 Fishers Lane Rockville, MD 20857 www.ahrq.gov

Contract No. HHSA-290-2015-00007-I, Task Order No. 2

Prepared by:

Kaiser Permanente Research Affiliates Evidence-based Practice Center Kaiser Permanente Center for Health Research Portland, OR

Investigators:

Janelle M. Guirguis-Blake, MD Corinne V. Evans, MPP Nadia Redmond, MSPH Jennifer S. Lin, MD, MCR

AHRQ Publication No. 18-05237-EF-1 July 2018 This report is based on research conducted by the Kaiser Permanente Research Affiliates Evidence-based Practice Center (EPC) under contract to the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ), Rockville, MD (Contract No. HHSA-290-2015-00007-I, Task Order No. 2). The findings and conclusions in this document are those of the authors, who are responsible for its contents, and do not necessarily represent the views of AHRQ. Therefore, no statement in this report should be construed as an official position of AHRQ or of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

The information in this report is intended to help health care decisionmakers—patients and clinicians, health system leaders, and policymakers, among others—make well-informed decisions and thereby improve the quality of health care services. This report is not intended to be a substitute for the application of clinical judgment. Anyone who makes decisions concerning the provision of clinical care should consider this report in the same way as any medical reference and in conjunction with all other pertinent information (i.e., in the context of available resources and circumstances presented by individual patients).

This report may be used, in whole or in part, as the basis for development of clinical practice guidelines and other quality enhancement tools, or as a basis for reimbursement and coverage policies. AHRQ or U.S. Department of Health and Human Services endorsement of such derivative products may not be stated or implied.

None of the investigators have any affiliations or financial involvement that conflicts with the material presented in this report.

Acknowledgments

The authors gratefully acknowledge the following individuals for their contributions to this project: Elisabeth U. Kato, MD, MRP, formerly of AHRQ; current and former members of the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force who contributed to topic deliberations; Smyth Lai, MLS, for creating and conducting literature searches; Selvi B. Williams, MD, MPH, for assistance with abstract review; Diane Reid, MD, for providing federal partner review of the draft report; Gerry Fowkes, MD, Mary McDermott, MD, and Joshua Beckman, MD, MSc, who provided expert review of the draft report; and Erin L. Coppola, MPH, and Katherine Essick, BS, for technical and editorial assistance at the Center for Health Research.

Structured Abstract

Objective: We conducted this systematic review to support the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) in updating its recommendation on screening for peripheral artery disease (PAD). Our review addressed five key questions: 1) Is screening for PAD in generally asymptomatic adults with the ankle-brachial index (ABI) effective in reducing cardiovascular disease (CVD) or PAD morbidity (e.g., impaired ambulation or amputation) or mortality? 2) What is the diagnostic accuracy of the ABI as a screening test for PAD in generally asymptomatic adults? 3) What are the harms of screening for PAD with the ABI? 4) Does treatment of screen-detected or generally asymptomatic adults with PAD or an abnormal ABI lead to improved patient health outcomes? 5) What are the harms of treatment of screen-detected or generally asymptomatic adults with PAD or an abnormal ABI?

Data Sources: We searched MEDLINE, PubMed publisher-supplied records, and the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials (CENTRAL) for relevant English-language literature published between January 2012 and May 2, 2017. One ongoing screening trial was published after the search date and was formally evaluated for inclusion. Additionally, we re-evaluated all studies included in the 2013 review. We supplemented our searches with reference lists from relevant existing systematic reviews, suggestions from experts, and ClinicalTrials.gov to identify ongoing trials.

Study Selection: Two researchers reviewed 4,194 titles and abstracts and 105 full-text articles applying prespecified inclusion criteria. Eligible studies included: randomized controlled or clinically controlled trials and systematic reviews on the effectiveness of PAD screening and early treatment of screen-detected PAD to prevent CVD and PAD morbidity and mortality and quality of life; observational diagnostic accuracy studies and systematic reviews on the accuracy of the ABI to diagnose PAD; and randomized or clinically controlled trials, cohort studies, observational studies, and case-control studies on the harms of screening and treatment.

Data Analysis: One investigator abstracted data into an evidence table and a second investigator confirmed these data. Two investigators independently assessed study quality using methods developed by the USPSTF. We qualitatively synthesized the data for each key question.

Results: No population-based screening trials evaluated the direct benefits or harms of ABI screening alone. We identified a total of five trials (n=5,864 total) examining indirect evidence for the effectiveness and harms of screening and treatment of screen-detected PAD. A single diagnostic accuracy study in a screen-detected older population of adults (n=306) showed that the ABI has low sensitivity (confidence intervals ranging from 7 to 34% in individual limbs) and high specificity (96 to 100%) characteristics compared with MRA gold standard imaging; false negative rates were high (>80%). Overall, data are limited but suggest that the ABI may not be a sufficiently sensitive screening test to detect PAD in generally asymptomatic adults. Two adequately powered trials (n=4,626) in asymptomatic populations with a low ABI but not meeting typical PAD thresholds (≤ 0.95 or ≤ 0.99) with and without diabetes showed no statistically significant effect of aspirin 100 mg daily for composite CVD outcomes (adjusted HR 1.00 [95% CI, 0.81 to 1.23] and HR 0.98 [95% CI, 0.76 to 1.26]); there were no differences seen in individual CVD outcomes or all-cause mortality compared with placebo control after 6 to 8

years of followup. There is no compelling evidence to support a differential treatment effect by age, sex, or diabetes status. Limited evidence from one trial demonstrates a trend toward higher risk for major bleeding events with the use of aspirin; the same trial showed no effect on major GI bleeding. Two trials reported conflicting results on total or fatal hemorrhagic CVA risk with wide confidence intervals due to a rare event rate. Two exercise trials (n=932) in populations that were screen-detected or oversampled for no or atypical symptoms reported no differences in quality of life (QOL), the Walking Impairment Questionnaire (WIQ) walking distance, or symptoms at 12 and 52 weeks. No harms were reported in the exercise trials.

Limitations: Our search was limited to English-language literature. We excluded trials specifically recruiting participants from vascular laboratories for screening accuracy studies and treatment trials of symptomatic populations that would not be generalizable to screen-detected or generally asymptomatic populations. Our review protocol prioritized hard health outcomes (PAD and CVD morbidity and mortality; quality of life) and did not include changes in functional testing (e.g., 6-minute walk, lower-extremity strength), changes in the ABI, behavioral changes (e.g., physical activity levels, smoking cessation), or intermediate cardiovascular outcomes (e.g., blood pressure, lipid levels).

Conclusions: The current evidence base for screening for PAD is limited, with no direct evidence examining the effectiveness of ABI screening alone. Indirect evidence is scant and includes a single diagnostic accuracy study of the ABI in an unselected population showing poor sensitivity; two aspirin trials in screen-detected populations (with and without diabetes) with a low ABI defined as ≤ 0.95 or ≤ 0.99 show no benefit for primary composite cardiovascular outcomes. Two underpowered exercise trials in screen-detected or atypical and asymptomatic populations show no statistically significant effect on hard health outcomes.

Table of Contents

Condition Definition 1 Prevalence. 1 Burden and Natural History 2 Rationale for Screening and Screening Strategies 5 Treatment Approaches 6 Current Clinical Practice in the United States 6 Previous USPSTF Recommendation 7 Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches. 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Data Sources and Searches. 9 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?<	Chapter 1. Introduction	1
Prevalence 1 Burden and Natural History 2 Rationale for Screening and Screening Strategies 5 Treatment Approaches 6 Current Clinical Practice in the United States 6 Previous USPSTF Recommendation 7 Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches. 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 11 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter J. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Text for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15	Condition Definition	1
Burden and Natural History 2 Rationale for Screening and Screening Strategies 5 Treatment Approaches 6 Current Clinical Practice in the United States 6 Previous USPSTF Recommendation 7 Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches. 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Data Sources and Searches. 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? May Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Cha	Prevalence	1
Rationale for Screening and Screening Strategies 5 Treatment Approaches 6 Current Clinical Practice in the United States 6 Previous USPSTF Recommendation 7 Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Ter ADI mechanits 16 Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 <	Burden and Natural History	2
Treatment Approaches 6 Current Clinical Practice in the United States 6 Previous USPSTF Recommendation 7 Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Quality Assessment and Public Comment 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? Study Characteristics	Rationale for Screening and Screening Strategies	5
Current Clinical Practice in the United States 6 Previous USPSTF Recommendation 7 Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15	Treatment Approaches	6
Previous USPSTF Recommendation 7 Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectivees of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Population C	Current Clinical Practice in the United States	6
Chapter 2. Methods 8 Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involve ment 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 <	Previous USPSTF Recommendation	7
Scope and Purpose 8 Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 9 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 5 Study Characteristics 16 16 Intervention Details 16 16 Study Quality 16 16 Results 17 16 Results 17 17 Summary of Results	Chapter 2. Methods	8
Key Questions and Analytic Framework 8 Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of	Scope and Purpose	
Review Terminology 8 Data Sources and Searches 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involve ment 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Nutly Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of	Key Questions and Analytic Framework	
Data Sources and Searches. 9 Study Selection 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review. 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction. 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Nudy Characteristics 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17	Review Terminology	
Study Selection. 9 Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Nesults 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17	Data Sources and Searches	9
Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review 11 Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involve ment 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an <td>Study Selection</td> <td>9</td>	Study Selection	9
Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction 11 Data Synthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Nutry Outlity 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectivene	Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review	11
Data Šynthesis and Analysis 12 Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 Description of Included Studies 15 Quality 15 Quality 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Network 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an 17 Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcome	Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction	11
Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence 13 Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in 16 Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With P	Data Synthesis and Analysis	12
Expert Review and Public Comment 14 USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Nutl XQ2. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? <t< td=""><td>Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence</td><td>13</td></t<>	Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence	13
USPSTF Involvement 14 Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Nutrevention Details 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18	Expert Review and Public Comment	14
Chapter 3. Results 15 Description of Included Studies 15 KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Nutly Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18	USPSTF Involvement	14
Description of Included Studies	Chapter 3. Results	
KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Results 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an 17 Results 17 KQ4. Does the Effectiveness of 18 Summary of Results 18 Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 <td>Description of Included Studies</td> <td>15</td>	Description of Included Studies	15
Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 15 Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Study Quality 16 Study Quality 16 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of	KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective	e in
for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Scre	ening
KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? Summary of Results Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise	for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	15
Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? Summary of Results Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise	KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Gen	erally
by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the Al	BI Vary
Summary of Results 15 Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? Summary of Results 17 Results 17 Results 17 Summary of Results 17 Results 17 Results 17 Summary of Results 17 Results 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trial	by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	
Study Characteristics 16 Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an 17 Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	Summary of Results	15
Population Characteristics 16 Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an 17 Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	Study Characteristics	16
Intervention Details 16 Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	Population Characteristics	16
Study Quality 16 Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an 17 Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of 18 Summary of Results 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	Intervention Details	16
Results 17 KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of 17 Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an 17 Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of 18 Summary of Results 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	Study Quality	16
KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise	Results	17
Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 17 Summary of Results 17 Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	KO3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KO3a. Do the Harms	of
Summary of Results 17 Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	
Results 17 KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD? 18 Summary of Results 18 Aspirin Trials 18 Exercise 20	Summary of Results	17
KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	Results	
Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	KO4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PA	D or an
Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KO4a. Does the Effective	ness of
Summary of Results	Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	18
Aspirin Trials	Summary of Results	10
Exercise	Aspirin Trials	
	Exercise	

KQ5. What Are the Harms of Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic	
Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI? KQ5a. Do the Harms of Treatment Vary by	
Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?	23
Summary of Results	23
Results	23
Chapter 4. Discussion	.24
Summary of Evidence	24
Targeting High-Prevalence Subpopulations	25
Lower-Extremity Treatment Benefit in Screen-Detected Populations	26
Use of the ABI to Improve CVD Risk Prediction and Subsequent Medical Management	26
Limitations of the Review	27
Population-Based Multicomponent Screening Trials	28
Future Research Needs	29
Conclusion	29
References	.30

Figure

Figure 1. Analytic Framework

Tables

Table 1. Recommendations of Other Organizations for Screening for PAD With ABI in Individuals Without History or Physical Examination Findings Suggestive of PAD Table 2. Comparison of Studies Included in Previous and Present USPSTF Reviews Table 3. Study and Participant Characteristics for KQ2: What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? Table 4. Results for KQ2: What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for

PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults?

Table 5. Methodological and Intervention Characteristics for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 6. Participant Characteristics for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 7. Composite and Mortality Outcomes for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 8. Myocardial Infarction and Cerebrovascular Accident Outcomes for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 9. PAD-Specific Outcomes for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 10. Age Subgroup Analyses for Reported Outcomes in Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 11. Sex Subgroup Analyses for Reported Outcomes in Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 12. Participant Characteristics for Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 13. Intervention Details for Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 14. Quality of Life Outcomes in Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 15. Walking Impairment Questionnaire Outcomes in Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Table 16. Proportion of Participants With Symptoms at Baseline and Followup in Exercise Studies Included for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? Table 17. Harms in Included Aspirin Studies for KQ5: What Are the Harms of Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI? Table 18. Summary of Evidence Table

Appendixes

Appendix A. Detailed Methods Appendix B. Included Studies Appendix C. Excluded Studies Appendix D. Ongoing Studies

Chapter 1. Introduction

Condition Definition

Peripheral artery disease (PAD) is atherosclerotic occlusive disease manifesting in the lower extremities.¹ While the term PAD is also used more broadly to encompass a larger range of noncoronary arterial diseases,² this review limits the definition of PAD to lower-extremity PAD. Currently, United States Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) recommendations and associated systematic reviews on other peripheral arterial diseases include carotid artery stenosis and abdominal aortic aneurysm.^{3, 4}

The resting ankle-brachial index (ABI) is the most commonly used screening and diagnostic test for PAD. It is defined as the ratio of systolic blood pressure at the ankle to the systolic blood pressure at the brachial artery.⁵ While the term "abnormal ABI" is often used interchangeably with "PAD" in clinical practice and research, this review will differentiate an abnormal ABI from PAD diagnosed by a confirmatory imaging study (i.e., digital subtraction angiography [DSA], computed tomography angiography [CTA], magnetic resonance angiography [MRA], and duplex ultrasound). Terminology definitions are discussed further in the methods section of this report.

Prevalence

PAD

Studies on the prevalence of PAD among general populations or unselected primary care populations use a low ABI as a surrogate for PAD. However, since the ABI does not have 100 percent sensitivity and specificity, the true prevalence of PAD in the general population is not known.

Abnormal ABI

The definition of a low ABI varies across epidemiologic studies, with some studies using a cutoff of less than 0.9 and others using a cutoff of less than or equal to 0.9. The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) identified the prevalence of a low ABI (\leq 0.9) from 1999 to 2004; 5.9 percent of the U.S population age 40 years or older had a low ABI, which amounts to 7.1 million people.⁶ Excluding individuals with known coronary artery or cerebrovascular disease, 4.7 percent of the adult U.S. population had a low ABI.⁶NHANES population screening from 1999–2002 identified asymptomatic disease in two-thirds of U.S. adults age 40 or older with an ABI <0.9.⁷ Among a self-pay vascular screening cohort of over 3.5 million individuals with a mean age of 64 years, the prevalence of a low ABI (<0.9) was 4.1 percent; 54 percent of these individuals reported no intermittent claudication.⁸

The prevalence of a low ABI (<0.9) varies with age, cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors,

and race/ethnicity. About 1.9 percent of individuals ages 40 to 59 years have a low ABI, 8.1 percent among those ages 60 to 74 years have a low ABI, and 17.5 percent among those ages 75 years or older have a low ABI.⁹ Prevalence increases dramatically with older age and increased cardiovascular risk factors. For example, the prevalence of a low ABI was 29 percent in a sample of 6,979 people who were age 70 years or older or ages 50 to 69 years with a history of smoking or diabetes for U.S. primary care practices.¹⁰ Prevalence of asymptomatic low ABI was nearly 18 percent in the PANDORA study, which recruited adults with one or more cardiovascular risk factors in addition to age (adults with diabetes were excluded from this study).¹¹ Although women have a slightly lower ABI compared with men,^{12, 13} the prevalence of a low ABI.^{9, 14, 16-19} Further discussion of risk factors independently associated with a low ABI in multivariate analysis appears below (see risk factor section).

The prevalence of noncompressible arteries (ABI >1.30 or >1.40) is generally low. Among the NHANES cohort, 3.6 percent had an ABI greater than 1.30 and 1.5 percent had an ABI greater than 1.40.⁶ In other community-based cohorts, 3.9 to 5.5 percent had an ABI greater than 1.30 and 1.1 to 1.2 percent had an ABI greater than $1.4.^{20-22}$ The prevalence of noncompressible arteries also increases with age and CVD risk factors. For example, in the United States, 6.3 percent of clinic patients who were older than age 70 years, or those ages 50 to 69 years with CVD risk factors, had an ABI greater than $1.40.^{22}$ While the clinical implications of a high ABI (>1.30 or >1.40) are uncertain, persons with a high ABI are generally older and more likely to have CVD risk factors, particularly diabetes and hypertension.²¹⁻²³ Persons with noncompressible arteries who are suspected of having PAD usually go on to additional diagnostic testing.

The most contemporary prevalence data available are baseline data from two Danish populationbased screening trials.^{24, 25} The Viborg Vascular (VIVA) screening trial of Danish men ages 65 to 74 years identified a PAD prevalence of 11 percent in the screening population, where PAD was defined as an ABI <0.9 or >1.4. Two-thirds of identified patients reported no intermittent claudication.²⁴ The DANCAVAS screening trial of Danish men and women ages 65 to 74 years reported a PAD prevalence of 19 percent in men and 11 percent in women where PAD was defined as an ABI ≤0.9 or ≥1.4; the proportion reporting symptoms was not reported.²⁵

Burden and Natural History

Burden

The global burden of PAD has been estimated to be high.²⁶ Research has shown that PAD is associated with substantial and statistically significant decrements in health-related quality of life as well as work-related impairments such as absenteeism.²⁷ While rates of PAD-related amputations have declined over time,²⁸ major lower-extremity amputations are associated with extremely high mortality risk, with about half of patients dying within 1 year.²⁹

Clinical Presentation

PAD may be classified according to its clinical presentation using a Rutherford category or Fontaine staging ranging from asymptomatic PAD to severe disease with associated ulceration or gangrene.³⁰ While intermittent claudication is the classically described PAD symptom of calf pain associated with walking and relieved by rest,³¹ other signs and symptoms of PAD include foot pain at rest; numbness, tingling, cyanosis, hair loss, nonhealing ulcers, or gangrene of the lower extremity; functional impairment (e.g., poor walking endurance, poor standing balance, difficulty rising from a seated position); and erectile dysfunction.^{2, 30, 32} It is now understood that the majority of patients with a low ABI may not have classical symptoms of intermittent claudication but may be either asymptomatic or have atypical symptoms.³³ Atypical symptoms may include leg pain on exertion that sometimes starts at rest and exertional leg pain that does not cause the patient to stop walking (i.e., "leg pain/carry on").

In studies of community-dwelling populations, of those identified with PAD or a low ABI, approximately 10 percent have symptoms of intermittent claudication, 60 percent are asymptomatic, and 30 percent have atypical symptoms (exertional leg symptoms other than intermittent claudication). In studies of primary care populations, approximately 10 percent have symptoms of intermittent claudication, 30 to 60 percent are asymptomatic, and 50 percent have atypical symptoms.³³ Consistent with the large proportion of patients who are asymptomatic, an abnormal ABI is underdiagnosed; a community-based PAD detection program found that about half of people found to have an abnormal ABI in primary care were not previously diagnosed. ¹⁰

Lower-Extremity Outcomes

The extent of atherosclerosis, acuity of limb ischemia, and ability to restore arterial circulation determine the prognosis of the lower extremity in patients with PAD.² For patients with chronic atherosclerosis and progression to symptoms of critical limb ischemia, for example, prognosis for viability of the affected limb is very poor unless it can be revascularized. For patients with acute occlusive events (i.e., thromboembolic occlusion with little underlying atherosclerosis), on the other hand, the prognosis for viability of the limb is related to the rapidity and completeness of revascularization before the onset of irreversible ischemic tissue damage.² A 2016 systematic review found that over 5 years of followup, approximately 7 percent (95% CI, 4 to 11) of patients with asymptomatic PAD developed intermittent claudication and approximately 21 percent (95% CI, 12 to 29) of patients with intermittent claudication progressed to critical limb ischemia.³⁴ Recent investigators have posited that patients with PAD may reduce activity levels as a means to manage symptoms, thus the perceived stability of leg symptoms in many patients may conceal objectively measured functional decline associated with PAD.³⁵ One cohort study demonstrated that about half of those with asymptomatic low ABI remained asymptomatic over 2 years of followup; however, asymptomatic individuals with a low ABI experienced a dramatically greater annual decline in ambulatory function as measured by the 6-minute walk test compared with those with a normal ABI (-76.8 vs. -8.67 feet).³⁵

CVD Outcomes

Because PAD is a manifestation of systemic atherosclerosis, it is associated with the presence of other CVD (e.g., coronary artery disease [CAD], cerebrovascular disease) and CVD events such as myocardial infarction (MI), cerebrovascular accident (CVA), and death.¹⁸ Both CAD and cerebrovascular disease are significantly associated with a low ABI (<0.9).^{36, 37} Analysis from the ABI Collaboration individual-patient data meta-analysis of 16 cohorts demonstrated that within each Framingham risk category, those with a low ABI (\leq 0.90) had about double the 10-year all-cause mortality, cardiovascular mortality, and major coronary event rate compared with the overall rate in a given Framingham risk category.³⁸ In general, the risk of mortality due to CVD events in persons with a low ABI and/or claudication is similar to that of persons with a history of CAD or cerebrovascular mortality in asymptomatic patients with a low ABI (95% CI, 9 to 17); this is compared with an incidence of 5 percent (95% CI, 4 to 6) among patients with a normal ABI.³⁴

The presence of PAD confers a high risk for cardiovascular events even in the absence of symptoms.³⁹⁻⁴² Analyses in several general population cohorts with 5 to 7 years of followup that define asymptomatic PAD by an ABI < 0.9 or < 0.95 suggest that risk for cardiovascular events may be reasonably similar between symptomatic and asymptomatic PAD. An analysis of 6,880 unselected adults age 65 years or older in Germany showed that among those with PAD, the risk of a composite of all-cause death, MI, and CVA was not statistically significantly different for those with and without symptoms (HR 1.18 [95% CI, 0.92 to 1.52]).⁴⁰ However, risk of a composite outcome additionally including lower-extremity peripheral vascular events or any revascularization was statistically significantly higher in those with symptoms (HR 1.48 [95% CI, 1.21 to 1.80]). This composite outcome was driven by peripheral revascularizations, which may have been triggered by symptoms. The presence of PAD conferred high risk for cardiovascular events or all-cause mortality, regardless of symptoms, when compared with adults with no PAD (symptomatic adults HR 1.85 [95% CI, 1.57 to 2.17]; asymptomatic adults HR 1.72 [95% CI, 1.41 to 2.10]). Similarly, an analysis of a Dutch general population cohort of adults ages 40 to 78 years with over 7 years of followup suggests that compared with adults without PAD, asymptomatic PAD is associated with a much higher incidence of fatal cardiovascular disease (35.8 vs 2.3 per 1000 person-years).⁴¹ Additionally, the prognosis for fatal and nonfatal events was similar in those with symptomatic PAD and those with asymptomatic PAD. For example, compared with those with no PAD, the hazard ratio for fatal CVD was 1.6 (95% CI, 1.0 to 2.5) for those with asymptomatic PAD and 1.5 (95% CI, 1.1 to 2.2) for those with symptomatic PAD. The Edinburgh Artery Study, which is an older study consisting of a Scottish general practice cohort of adults ages 55 to 74 years with 5 years of followup, was generally confirmatory; the relative risk for cardiovascular events was highest among adults with intermittent claudication, but confidence intervals overlapped with individuals categorized as having both major and minor symptomatic PAD.³⁹

Risk Factors

In addition to increasing age, major risk factors for PAD include diabetes, smoking, hypertension, high cholesterol, obesity, and physical inactivity.^{43, 44 45 11, 14, 36, 46-49} Smoking and

diabetes show the strongest association with a low ABI in most multivariable analyses; smoking has odds ratios (ORs) ranging from 1.55 (95% confidence interval [CI], 1.34 to 1.79)¹¹ to 5.35 (95% CI, 1.77 to 16.22)⁴⁶ and diabetes has ORs ranging from 1.59 (95% CI, 1.00 to 2.51)⁴⁹ to 3.8 (95% CI, 1.6 to 9.0).⁴⁷ Among the Lifeline self-pay vascular screening cohort of over 3.5 million individuals, hypertension (OR 2.26 [95% CI, 2.23 to 2.36]), hyperlipidemia (OR 1.35 [95% CI, 1.34 to 1.37]), and sedentary lifestyle (OR 1.38 [95% CI, 1.37 to 1.39]) were all associated with an increased risk of a low ABI (<0.9) in addition to smoking status and diabetes.⁵⁰

Rationale for Screening and Screening Strategies

There are two potential reasons to consider PAD screening. First, screening for PAD may lead to early detection and treatment of PAD before clinical presentation, which may slow the progression of atherosclerosis and resultant functional decline. Second, because PAD is considered an important manifestation of systemic atherosclerosis, screening for PAD in asymptomatic persons may lead to early CVD risk-factor modification in persons with undiagnosed atherosclerosis. In addition to its ability to detect PAD, an abnormal ABI may be useful for improving upon the calibration or discrimination of traditional risk-factor models to predict CVD and may appropriately reclassify risk in some individuals, leading to more aggressive medical management.

DSA demonstrating 50 percent or more stenosis is used as the gold standard for evaluating the accuracy of other tests to diagnose PAD.⁵¹ As an invasive procedure, DSA carries risks for nephrotoxic and hypersensitivity reactions to the contrast medium, as well as for complications from arterial catheter access.^{52, 53} Because of these risks, less invasive angiography (i.e., MRA and CTA) is used in clinical practice for anatomic localization and estimation of degree of stenosis in patients who are candidates for revascularization^{54, 55} The resting ABI is the most commonly used test to screen and detect PAD in clinical settings and is often considered synonymous with PAD.⁵⁶

Resting ABI

The resting ABI, the ratio of the systolic blood pressure measured over the ankle to the systolic blood pressure measured over the brachial artery,⁵⁷ is the most commonly used screening test for PAD. The systolic blood pressure is measured after the patient has rested for 5 to 10 minutes and is in the supine position,⁵⁸ using a manual sphygmomanometer and a handheld Doppler ultrasound probe,⁵⁹ although specific techniques vary. This variation in measurement protocols (e.g., use of mean vs. highest recorded pressures; manual vs. automated devices) may lead to differences in ABI results.⁶⁰⁻⁶² AHA guidance recommends using the highest of the two ankle pressures (dorsalis pedis vs. posterior tibial) in each leg divided by the highest of the brachial pressures (right versus left).⁶³ Overall, the ABI is considered to have good reproducibility (variance of about 0.10).²

Traditionally, ABI values of 1.00 to 1.3 are considered normal. ABI values of 0.00 to 0.40 indicate severe PAD and 0.41 to 0.90 indicate mild to moderate PAD, values of 0.91 to 0.99 are considered borderline, and values greater than 1.30 indicates noncompressible arteries.² More

recent recommendations state that ABI values greater than 1.40 indicate noncompressible arteries and that 1.00 to 1.40 should be considered normal.³² While the ABI threshold of ≤ 0.90 has been widely accepted in clinical practice, the data supporting this single threshold are scant and have been based on different reference criteria in different populations.⁶³

Other Noninvasive Screening or Diagnostic Modalities

Other noninvasive tools used to diagnose or screen for PAD include the postexercise ABI, toebrachial index, duplex ultrasound, exercise treadmill testing, segmental pressure measurements, pulse volume recordings, and pulse oximetry.⁶⁴

PAD Symptom Questionnaires

In many epidemiologic surveys, population-based diagnosis and classification have used standardized, symptom-based questionnaires, most commonly the World Health Organization Rose questionnaire or the Edinburgh Modification of the Rose questionnaire. The Walking Impairment Questionnaire and the San Diego claudication questionnaire are more recently developed questionnaires designed for PAD patients to measure their walking limitations.²

Treatment Approaches

The primary aims of treating PAD as a lower extremity disease or treating PAD as a manifestation of systemic atherosclerosis, are to reduce overall CVD morbidity (e.g., MI, CVA), decrease PAD morbidity (e.g., increase walking distance and quality of life by improving symptoms of intermittent claudication and reducing walking impairment, prevent or reduce limb complications, preserve limb viability), and decrease mortality, while minimizing the harms of treatment.^{56, 65} Treatment can be categorized into measures to reduce CVD risk or to improve lower-extremity dysfunction or symptoms. CVD risk reduction includes smoking cessation, cholesterol lowering, blood pressure control, and antiplatelet therapy. Medical treatment of symptoms includes pharmacologic (i.e., cilostazol) and nonpharmacologic (i.e., exercise therapy) interventions, but medications approved by the FDA for PAD are all based on trials of symptomatic patients. Revascularization by angioplasty, thrombolysis, stenting, or bypass surgery is reserved for persons with severe symptomatic PAD.^{53, 66}

Current Clinical Practice in the United States

Administering the ABI takes about 15 minutes in primary care practices,² although it is often performed in specialty settings (e.g., radiology, vascular labs). A survey of primary care practices across the United States found that nearly 70 percent of providers reported never using the ABI in their practice settings, 6 to 8 percent reported using the ABI annually, and 12 to 13 percent reported using the ABI weekly or monthly.⁶⁷ A recent analysis of Medicare administrative data shows that noninvasive testing (the ABI, pulse volume recordings, segmental BP, bidirectional Doppler) and duplex ultrasound rates increased from 2001 to 2013 by 63

percent and 88 percent, respectively, with the greatest growth in specialty settings, although indication for testing was not specified.⁶⁸

Professional Organization Guidelines

Based on evidence from a 2015 systematic review,⁶⁹ the Society for Vascular Surgery recommended against routine screening for lower-extremity PAD in the absence of risk factors, history, or signs or symptoms of PAD. However, the guidelines state that for asymptomatic individuals at elevated risk (i.e., those over age 70, smokers, diabetic patients, those with an abnormal pulse examination or other established CVD), screening for PAD may be reasonable if used to improve risk stratification, preventive care, and medical management.⁵⁶ Similarly, joint recommendations from the American Heart Association and American College of Cardiology Foundation in 2016 recommended against PAD screening in adults who are not at increased risk and do not have a history or physical examination findings suggestive of PAD, but stated that such screening is reasonable in patients at increased risk of PAD (defined as those 65 years or older; those ages 50 to 64 years with risk factors for atherosclerosis, to include diabetes, history of smoking, hyperlipidemia, hypertension, or family history of PAD; those younger than 50 years old with diabetes and one other risk factor for atherosclerosis; or those with known atherosclerotic disease in another vascular bed)^{65, 70} (**Table 1**).

The 2013 joint AHA/ACC guideline on assessment of cardiovascular risk stated that the use of the ABI could be considered to inform decisionmaking if a risk-based treatment decision was uncertain after quantitative risk assessment. This recommendation was based on expert opinion.⁷¹ The American Academy of Family Physicians (AAFP) adopted the 2013 Task Force recommendation that current evidence was insufficient to assess the balance of benefits and harms of screening for PAD and CVD risk assessment with the ABI in adults.⁷²

Previous USPSTF Recommendation

In 2013, the USPSTF concluded that evidence was insufficient to assess the balance of benefits and harms of screening for PAD and CVD risk assessment with the ABI in asymptomatic adults. (I statement)⁷³

Chapter 2. Methods

Scope and Purpose

This report will be used by the USPSTF to update its 2013 recommendation on Screening for Peripheral Artery Disease and Cardiovascular Disease Risk Assessment with the Ankle-Brachial Index in Adults.⁷³ A concurrent systematic review will be used to address questions pertaining to the ability of the ABI to improve risk prediction when added to traditional CVD risk assessment.⁷⁴

Key Questions and Analytic Framework

We developed an Analytic Framework (**Figure 1**) and five Key Questions (KQs) to guide the literature search, data abstraction, and data synthesis.

KQs

- 1. Is screening for PAD in generally asymptomatic adults* with the ABI effective in reducing CVD or PAD morbidity (e.g., impaired ambulation or amputation) or mortality?
 - a. Does the effectiveness of screening for PAD vary by subpopulations at greater risk for PAD?
- 2. What is the diagnostic accuracy of the ABI as a screening test for PAD in generally asymptomatic adults*?
 - a. Does the diagnostic accuracy of screening with the ABI vary by subpopulations at greater risk for PAD?
- 3. What are the harms of screening for PAD with the ABI?
 - a. Do the harms of screening for PAD vary by subpopulations at greater risk for PAD?
- 4. Does treatment of screen-detected or generally asymptomatic adults* with PAD or an abnormal ABI[†] lead to improved patient health outcomes?
 - a. Does the effectiveness of treatment vary by subpopulations at greater risk for PAD?
- 5. What are the harms of treatment of screen-detected or generally asymptomatic adults* with PAD or an abnormal ABI†?
 - a. Do the harms of treatment vary by subpopulations at greater risk for PAD?

* Adults without lower-extremity symptoms clinically considered suspicious for PAD † Defined as ABI of ≤ 0.90 or >1.40.

Review Terminology

For the purposes of this review, we will use the following terminology:

• PAD: Patients with confirmed PAD diagnosed by a confirmatory imaging study (e.g.,

DSA, CTA, MRA)

- Low ABI: Patients with a resting ABI $\leq 0.9^*$
- Abnormal ABI: Patients with a resting $ABI \le 0.9$ or $>1.3^*$
- Atypical lower-extremity symptoms: Patients with lower-extremity symptoms associated with PAD other than classic intermittent claudication. Two common types of atypical symptoms are: 1) leg pain occurring with exertion and rest and 2) exertional leg pain that does not cause the patient to stop walking ("leg pain with carry on")³³
- Generally asymptomatic: Patients with no lower-extremity symptoms or without symptoms clinically considered suspicious for PAD

* Some studies may use a cutoff of low or abnormal ABI of <0.9 or ≥ 1.3 or 1.4.

Data Sources and Searches

This review was designed as an update of the screening, diagnostic accuracy, treatment, and harms KQs of our prior systematic review.⁷⁵ As such, we evaluated all of the previously included studies from this review for potential inclusion. We then searched for new, primary, published literature from January 2012 to May 2, 2017. We searched the following databases: CENTRAL, Ovid Medline, and PubMed (publisher-supplied records only). We worked with a research librarian to develop our search strategy (**Appendix A**). One ongoing screening trial was published after the search date and was formally evaluated for inclusion. Additionally, due to an expansion in the scope of the current review to include individuals with diabetes as well as exercise or physical therapy interventions aimed at improving lower limb function, we performed a targeted search of the bibliographic database for the previous review for these terms; this database included results of a comprehensive literature search from 1996 to September 2012, as well as outside sources (**Appendix A**).

We also examined the reference lists of recent systematic reviews to identify any potential studies for inclusion.^{69, 76-83} We supplemented our searches with articles identified through news and table-of-content alerts such as those produced by the USPSTF Scientific Resource Center LitWatch activity.⁸⁴ On January 24, 2017, we searched Clinicaltrials.gov for interventional studies on PAD restricted to adult and senior populations that accepted healthy volunteers. One reviewer scanned titles of the 66 records, and 10 were reviewed in more detail. When the trial description provisionally met criteria, we "matched" the record with the publication. We managed the literature search results using version X7 of EndNote® (Thomson Reuters, New York, NY), a bibliographic management software database.

Study Selection

Our review focuses on the clinical utility of the resting ABI as the primary screening modality because it is the most commonly used screening modality in clinical practice, does not require advanced technical skills or expensive equipment, and is able to detect asymptomatic individuals. Therefore, our review excluded other methods of screening (e.g., questionnaires, the exercise ABI, toe-brachial measurement, pulse oximetry, duplex ultrasound, MRA). Consistent

with the scope of the USPSTF, our review focuses on screen-detected and/or generally asymptomatic adults and thus we excluded studies whose subjects primarily had known intermittent claudication. However, PAD is frequently associated with atypical symptoms not consistent with classic intermittent claudication; two common presentations of atypical symptoms are leg pain on exertion and rest and leg pain with carry on.³³ Even trials primarily recruiting patients with atypical PAD symptoms include a heterogeneous group of individuals in terms of symptom severity: some of these patients will fall in a minimally symptomatic category expected to be detected by screening unselected populations, and others will be on the more severe end of symptom spectrum, where they would clinically present for diagnosis (not screening). Thus, for the purposes of this review, while studies of screen-detected PAD were the ideal; it was not possible to operationalize the clinically relevant concept of "generally asymptomatic" (i.e., those with no lower-extremity symptoms or without high clinical suspicion for PAD). In order to be inclusive, this review included studies with both asymptomatic participants and those with atypical symptoms. We acknowledge that even the trials of patients with atypical symptoms may not entirely represent a screen-detected group, so we examined the mean baseline ABI and WIQ scores to include trials that would be closest to a screen-detected group. We excluded studies conducted exclusively in individuals with known CVD or severe chronic kidney disease (stages 4 and 5). We excluded studies conducted in hospital or specialty settings or that recruited from these settings (i.e., vascular clinics or laboratories), as these settings typically represented populations selected for known or highly suspected PAD.

Our primary outcomes of interest are: cardiovascular morbidity (i.e., MI and CVA), PAD morbidity (e.g., ambulation impairment, amputation), mortality, health-related quality of life, diagnostic accuracy of the resting ABI, adverse outcomes related to the ABI test, and serious adverse events related to treatment. For ambulation impairment, we accepted outcomes from the Walking Impairment Questionnaire (WIQ), a validated, disease-specific questionnaire for individuals with PAD.⁸⁵ This questionnaire captures self-reported ambulatory ability for three domains: stair climbing, walking speed, and walking distance; each domain is scored from 0 to 100 where 0 represents an inability to perform the task and 100 indicates no difficulty performing the task. Research has suggested that lower WIQ stair-climbing scores are associated with higher all-cause and cardiovascular mortality among adults with PAD;⁸⁶ WIQ distance and speed scores were not associated with mortality in this study. In included studies reporting WIQ outcomes (which were exclusively exercise trials), we also abstracted and present proportions of the population with symptoms at baseline and followup. Consistent with USPSTF methods of focusing on hard health outcomes, we excluded intermediate outcomes of ambulation (e.g., 6-minute walk test, time or distance to claudication, maximum walking distance).

Included treatments were pharmacologic or lifestyle interventions primarily aimed at CVD risk reduction, such as: interventions for smoking cessation, cholesterol-lowering therapy, diet and exercise (with or without weight loss), blood pressure control, and antiplatelet therapy. Newly included in this update were exercise and physical therapy interventions aimed at improving lower limb function. Interventions aimed only at symptomatic adults or adults with critical limb ischemia were excluded. These include pharmacologic symptom management (e.g., cilostazol, prostaglandins), nonpharmacologic symptom management, and revascularization (e.g., angioplasty, thrombolytics, stenting, bypass).

For KQ 1, we considered randomized controlled trials (RCTs), controlled clinical trial (CCTs), and systematic reviews that compared ABI screening to no screening and reported cardiovascular morbidity, PAD morbidity, mortality, or health-related quality of life. For KQ 2, we considered prospectively conducted diagnostic accuracy studies and well-conducted systematic reviews of diagnostic accuracy. We excluded case-control studies in which cases were selected based on individuals having known PAD. Distorted selection of subjects in recruitment or case-control designs has repeatedly been shown to overestimate sensitivity.⁸⁷⁻⁹¹ A distorted selection of subjects directly affects the applicability of the study findings and threatens its validity (i.e., spectrum bias). Spectrum bias refers to the phenomenon that diagnostic test performance may change between clinical settings due to changes in the patient case-mix. For KQ 2, diagnostic accuracy studies had to compare the resting ABI with a reference standard. Because the gold standard, DSA, is an invasive test that presents known risks, it is not ethical to administer this test in asymptomatic individuals. Therefore, we considered any diagnostic test that could image the degree of atherosclerosis (e.g., MRA, CTA) or degree of impaired blood flow (e.g., duplex ultrasound) to be a reasonable diagnostic reference standard. We accepted all measures of diagnostic accuracy (e.g., sensitivity, specificity, positive or negative predictive values, positive or negative likelihood ratios). For KQ 4, we included any trial (RCT or CCT) and systematic review with at least 12 weeks of followup that compared treatment of PAD with no treatment, with placebo treatment, or with delayed treatment. Treatment trials needed to report one of the following outcomes: cardiovascular morbidity (i.e., MI or CVA), PAD morbidity (e.g., ambulation impairment, amputation), mortality, or health-related quality of life. While we included reviews, trials, cohort studies, and case-control studies for evaluation of harms (KQs 3 and 5), we excluded case series or case reports.

Comparison of 2013 Review and This Review

While this review was designed as an update of the screening, diagnostic accuracy, treatment, and harms KQs of our prior systematic review,⁷⁵ a few changes were made to the inclusion criteria used to guide study selection (**Appendix A Table 1**). One of these changes was an expansion of the eligible population to include individuals with diabetes, who are a subpopulation at higher risk for PAD. Additionally, the scope was expanded to include early treatment trials aimed at improving lower-extremity function in screen-detected or asymptomatic persons with PAD or an abnormal ABI. This type of trial was included based on feedback from experts who stated that there is some evidence of lower-extremity impairment and functional limitation in individuals who do not report classical symptoms of intermittent claudication. Finally, intermediate outcomes (e.g., blood pressure, lipid levels) were removed, and the review focused on hard patient-centered health outcomes; USPSTF methods give greater weight to evidence of an effect on health outcomes than intermediate outcomes.⁸⁴

Quality Assessment and Data Abstraction

Two reviewers applied USPSTF design-specific criteria to assess the methodological quality of all eligible trials (**Appendix A Table 2**),⁸⁴ and QUADAS-2 was used to evaluate studies of diagnostic accuracy (**Appendix A Table 2**).⁹² Articles were rated as good, fair, or poor quality.

In general, a good-quality study met all criteria well. A fair-quality study did not meet (or it was unclear whether it met) at least one criterion but also had no known important limitation that could invalidate its results. A poor-quality study had a single fatal flaw or multiple important limitations. Flaws leading to a poor-quality rating in the one poor-quality diagnostic accuracy study were concern about the blinding of results between tests and the absence of information on personnel, training, or timing of index and reference standard tests.⁹³ Treatment trials were rated poor if there were baseline differences between groups, high differential attrition, and no blinding of outcome assessors⁹⁴ and for a post-hoc subgroup comparison with scant reported information on the PAD subgroup of interest.⁹⁵ We excluded poor-quality studies from this review.

For all of the included studies, one reviewer extracted key elements into standardized abstraction forms and a second reviewer checked the data for accuracy. For diagnostic accuracy studies, we abstracted general characteristics of the study (e.g., author, year, sample size), recruitment setting and method, clinical and demographic characteristics of the sample (e.g., age, cardiovascular risk factors), analytic methods, and results. We abstracted similar information for treatment trials and additionally captured intervention details (e.g., pharmacotherapy dose and duration where applicable; intervention format, provider, duration, and number of sessions where applicable).

Data Synthesis and Analysis

We synthesized data separately for each KQ. The number of contributing studies was not sufficient for quantitative pooling for each one, so we summarized these data in tables and narratively.

For diagnostic accuracy studies (KQ 2), we calculated false positive rates (positive test given the absence of the disease [1 – specificity]) and false negative rates (negative test result given the presence of the disease [1 – sensitivity]) and calculated confidence intervals using the Agresti-Coull method.⁹⁶ For the aspirin treatment trials in KQ 4, there was some heterogeneity of trial-defined primary outcome measures, so we used the approach from the 2015 systematic review of aspirin for the primary prevention of cardiovascular events commissioned by the USPSTF.⁹⁷ We constructed our own fatal composite outcome (defined as fatal MI/coronary event + fatal CVA + CVD death) and nonfatal composite outcome (defined as nonfatal MI/coronary event + nonfatal CVA). When this outcome was not reported in primary studies, we combined individual component outcomes. When measures of association were not reported, we calculated these measures using the number of individuals and the numbers of events in each randomized group. For the multifactorial trial with additional randomization to antioxidants or placebo, we report results as aspirin versus no aspirin, as there was no evidence of interaction between interventions.⁹⁸

For continuous outcomes reported in exercise trials (KQ 4), we converted standard deviations to 95% confidence intervals using the following standard calculation:

95% CI = mean difference \pm (1.96 * SD_{mean difference} / sqrt(n))

We estimated the standard deviation for between-group differences using a conservative correlation coefficient (r) of 0.5.⁹⁹ We selected a conservative default correlation coefficient in the absence of a trial with a similar population reporting mean and SD changes from baseline for SF-36 and WIQ outcomes. We calculated standard deviation between-group differences using the following formula:

 $SD_{change} = \sqrt{SD^2_{baseline} + SD^2_{followup} - (2 * r * SD_{baseline} * SD_{followup})}$

For the proportion of participants with symptoms at baseline and followup in exercise trials, we calculated between-group p-values from the test of proportions (using the prtest command in version 13.1 of Stata [Stata Corp LP, College Station, TX]).

Stata was applied for all quantitative analyses.

Grading the Strength of the Body of Evidence

We graded the strength of the overall body of evidence for each KQ. We adapted the Evidencebased Practice Center approach,¹⁰⁰ which is based on a system developed by the Grading of Recommendations Assessment, Development and Evaluation (GRADE) Working Group.¹⁰¹ Our method explicitly addresses four of the five Evidence-based Practice Center-required domains: consistency (similarity of effect direction and size), precision (degree of certainty around an estimate), reporting bias (potential for bias related to publication, selective outcome reporting, or selective analysis reporting), and study quality (i.e., study limitations). We did not address the fifth required domain—directness—as it is implied in the structure of the KQs (i.e., pertains to whether the evidence links the interventions directly to a health outcome).

Consistency was rated as reasonably consistent, inconsistent, or not applicable (e.g., single study). Precision was rated as reasonably precise, imprecise, or not applicable (e.g., no evidence). Reporting bias was rated as suspected, undetected, or not applicable (e.g., when there is insufficient evidence for a particular outcome). Study quality reflects the quality ratings of the individual trials and indicates the degree to which the included studies for a given outcome have a high likelihood of adequate protection against bias. The body-of-evidence limitations field highlights important restrictions in answering the overall KQ).

We graded the overall strength of evidence as high, moderate, or low. "High" indicates high confidence that the evidence reflects the true effect and that further research is very unlikely to change our confidence in the estimate of effects. "Moderate" suggests moderate confidence that the evidence reflects the true effect and that further research may change our confidence in the estimate of effect and may change the estimate. "Low" indicates low confidence that the evidence reflects the true effect and that further research is likely to change our confidence in the estimate of effect and is likely to change the estimate. A grade of "insufficient" indicates that evidence is either unavailable or does not permit estimate of an effect. Two independent reviewers rated each KQ according to consistency, precision, reporting bias, and overall strength of evidence grade. We resolved discrepancies through consensus discussion involving more reviewers.

Expert Review and Public Comment

A draft research plan was posted on the USPSTF Web site for public comment from March 24 to April 20, 2016. Based on the comments it received about the research plan, the USPSTF clarified that this review will address screening in unselected populations according to USPSTF methodology and will also review the evidence for subpopulations at greater risk for PAD based on age (particularly ≥ 65 years), sex, race/ethnicity, diabetes, smoking, and hypertension status. Eligibility criteria for this update were expanded to include studies in adults with diabetes. The draft version of this report was reviewed by three invited experts and one USPSTF Federal Partner. Experts were selected based on their expertise on fundamental content aspects of the review (i.e., cardiovascular epidemiology, the ABI, aspirin interventions, exercise interventions) and were selected to obtain diverse informed perspectives, including guideline developers, trialists, specialists, and practicing clinicians. All expert comments were considered, and selected comments from experts were used to clarify and extend the synthesis of evidence to ensure accuracy and address scientifically relevant concerns. All comments were shared with members of the USPSTF and AHRO. Additionally, a draft of the full report was posted on the USPSTF Web site from January 16, 2018 to February 12, 2018. Based on the public comments received, additional descriptive text was added to the discussion of selected included and excluded studies and minor revisions were made to text distinguishing abnormal ABI and PAD.

USPSTF Involvement

We worked with three USPSTF members at key points throughout this review, particularly when determining the scope and methods and developing the Analytic Framework and KQs. After revisions reflecting the public comment period, the USPSTF members approved the final analytic framework, KQs, and inclusion and exclusion criteria. AHRQ funded this review under a contract to support the work of the USPSTF. An AHRQ Medical Officer provided project oversight, reviewed the draft report, and assisted in the external review of the report.

Chapter 3. Results

Description of Included Studies

Our literature search yielded 4,194 unique citations. From these, we provisionally accepted 105 articles for review based on titles and abstracts (**Appendix A Figure 1**). After reviewing the full-text articles and performing quality rating, we included five trials that were reported in six publications.^{98, 102-106} **Appendix B** contains a full list of included studies. We carried forward two trials (reported in three articles)¹⁰²⁻¹⁰⁴ from the previous review⁷⁵ and added three trials.^{98, 105, 106} A comparison of trials included in this systematic review and previous USPSTF evidence reviews is provided in **Table 2**.

For the 105 articles that we reviewed in full, the most common reasons for exclusion were aim (i.e., not a study of screening or treatment for PAD), population (e.g., inclusion of symptomatic patients), absence of a reference standard (for accuracy studies), and absence of relevant health outcomes. **Appendix C** contains a list of all excluded trials and their reasons for exclusion.

KQ1. Is Screening for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults With the ABI Effective in Reducing CVD or PAD Morbidity or Mortality? KQ1a. Does the Effectiveness of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?

No population-based randomized trials of PAD screening were identified that reported results for ABI screening alone. There are two in-progress multicomponent screening trials, one in Denmark and one in Spain, that include PAD screening as part of a combined vascular screening program.^{107, 108} None of these trials tests the independent effectiveness of ABI screening. See the Discussion section for results of the Viborg Vascular (VIVA) multicomponent screening trial.¹⁰⁹

KQ2. What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults? KQ2a. Does the Diagnostic Accuracy of Screening With the ABI Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?

Summary of Results

A single diagnostic accuracy study^{103, 104} in a screen-detected older population of adults (N=306) showed that the ABI has low sensitivity (7-34%) and high specificity (95-100%) characteristics compared with MRA gold standard imaging. Overall, these data are limited but suggest that the ABI may not be a sufficiently sensitive screening test to detect PAD in unselected populations.

Study Characteristics

No new trials of diagnostic accuracy in screen-detected or generally asymptomatic populations were identified. In the last review,⁷⁵ we identified one fair-quality Swedish diagnostic accuracy study (N=306) examining the accuracy of the ABI for the diagnosis of MRA-confirmed PAD.^{103, 104} This study reported the sensitivity, specificity, and negative and positive predictive values of the ABI.

Population Characteristics

The study recruited older adults age 70 years at study entry from a random subset of the population-based Prospective Investigation of the Vasculature in Uppsala Seniors (PIVUS) cohort study (n=1,016) (**Table 3**).¹¹⁰ Nearly half (47.4%) were women, and all were white. A small number of participants had a history of CVD (6.9% with history of MI and 3.9% with history of CVA), and 10.6 percent had diabetes. One-third of participants were taking antihypertensive medications, and 7.8 percent were current smokers. Prevalence of PAD symptoms (intermittent claudication or atypical leg pain) was not reported.

Intervention Details

ABI

All measurements were performed in the supine position after 30 minutes of rest. Brachial artery systolic measurements were made with a manual sphygmomanometer using an average of three recordings. Posterior tibial artery systolic blood pressure was measured bilaterally using Doppler. The ABI was calculated for each leg by dividing the posterior tibial artery systolic pressure by the brachial artery systolic pressure. The threshold for a low ABI was <0.9.

MRA

The gold standard was whole-body MRA. This test was performed on all subjects in four anatomic locations: supra-aortic arteries and thoracic aorta, abdominal aorta, external iliac arteries continuing to the popliteal arteries, and below the ankle. Gadodiamide contrast was used, and scan time for each of the four stations was 17 s. The threshold for PAD diagnosis was \geq 50% stenosis on MRA.

The mean interval between the ABI test and MRA was 16 months (range 3-24 months). Authors did not report whether the personnel performing the MRA were blinded to ABI results.

Study Quality

This publication is a substudy of a population-based screening study of 70-year-old Swedish men and women; therefore, results reflect screening accuracy in older adults who have a higher PAD prevalence. Time lag between the ABI and MRA could have resulted in a lower ABI sensitivity, but it is unlikely that substantial interim development of atherosclerotic lesions would occur; reported sensitivity analyses by time lag showed similar sensitivity and specificity results. Lack of reporting on blinding of MRA technicians to ABI results is a study limitation.

Results

In this study, ABI recordings and interpretable MRAs were obtained in 268 right limbs and 265 left limbs from the 306 participants. The prevalence of an ABI <0.9 was 4.5 percent in the right leg and 4.2 percent in the left leg (**Table 4**). The prevalence of MRA-confirmed PAD defined as 50 percent or greater stenosis was 19.0 and 23.0 percent in the right and left legs, respectively. One-hundred percent stenosis was detected by MRA in 12.7 and 14.0 percent of right and left legs, respectively.

Based on gold standard MRA-detected stenosis of 50 percent or greater, 20 percent (95% CI, 10 to 34%) and 15 percent (95% CI, 7 to 27%) sensitivity was reported in the right and left legs, respectively. Specificity was 99 percent (95% CI, 96 to 100%) in both limbs. PPV was 83 percent (95% CI, 51 to 97%) and 82 percent (95% CI, 48 to 97%) in the right and left legs, respectively. NPV was 84 percent (95% CI, 79 to 88%) and 80 percent (95% CI, 74 to 84%) in the right and left legs, respectively.

There were no subgroup analyses to examine whether the accuracy results vary by subpopulation.

KQ3. What Are the Harms of Screening for PAD With the ABI? KQ3a. Do the Harms of Screening for PAD Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?

Summary of Results

The included diagnostic accuracy study reported a high false-negative rate (>80%), reflecting the low sensitivity of ABI in screening for PAD. This single study suggests that screening ABI misses a large proportion of patients with PAD. No other studies addressing screening harms (e.g., anxiety, further diagnostic testing) were identified.

Results

The aforementioned diagnostic accuracy study provided data for the calculation of false positive and false negative rates (**Table 4**). The false positive rate is 0.9 percent (95% CI, 0.0% to 3.5%) and 1.0 percent (0.0% to 3.7%), and the false negative rate is 80.4 percent (67.4% to 89.2%) and 85.2 percent (74.0% to 92.3%) in the right and left legs, respectively. A single participant had a vasovagal attack prior to contrast injection for MRA and was excluded from the study but this adverse event was not due to the ABI. No other harms were reported in this trial and no additional trials were identified examining the harms of screening for PAD with the ABI.

KQ4. Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes? KQ4a. Does the Effectiveness of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?

Summary of Results

We included two trials of aspirin, one new⁹⁸ and one from the previous review.¹⁰² The newly included trial exclusively recruited participants with diabetes, thus was not eligible for inclusion in the previous review excluding this population. These two trials powered for composite outcomes in asymptomatic populations with a low ABI with and without diabetes showed no statistically significant effect of aspirin for those composite CVD outcomes or individual CVD outcomes compared with placebo control after 6 to 8 years of followup. There is no compelling evidence to support a differential treatment effect by age, sex, or diabetes status.

Two new trials of exercise therapy were included;^{105, 106} supervised exercise and physical therapy were an excluded intervention type in the previous review, although exercise interventions were allowed if their primary aim was to reduce CVD risk or treat CVD risk factors. These exercise trials in participants with a low ABI showed no statistically significant differences in their primary outcomes of walking distance or secondary outcomes of quality of life or self-reported symptoms (intermittent claudication or atypical). One trial was an underpowered 12-week RCT of veterans with atypical or no symptoms; the other was an adequately powered 52-week RCT that recruited participants from an Australian population-based screening trial. Overall, there is inadequate evidence to assess whether exercise interventions improve health outcomes in screendetected populations with a low ABI.

Aspirin Trials

Study Characteristics

We identified two good-quality Scottish trials (N=4,626) examining the effectiveness of aspirin in populations with a low ABI.^{98, 102} The Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis (AAA) trial¹⁰² (N=3,350) was a placebo-controlled randomized trial, and the Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes (POPADAD) trial⁹⁸ (N=1,276) was a factorial-designed RCT of aspirin and antioxidants (**Table 5**). Primary outcomes were composite cardiovascular endpoints. Both trials included fatal and nonfatal MI and CVA in this composite; in addition, the AAA trial included revascularization in the composite, while POPADAD included above-the-ankle amputation for critical limb ischemia in its composite. A second primary endpoint in POPADAD was CVD mortality (due to MI or CVA). Other reported outcomes included fatal and nonfatal MI and CVA, angina, intermittent claudication, TIA, and all-cause mortality. Mean followup was 8.2 years in AAA, which was terminated early due to futility, and median followup was 6.7 years in POPADAD.

Population Characteristics

The AAA trial recruited men and women ages 50 to 75 years with an ABI ≤ 0.95 and no history of vascular disease; those recruited were from a community health registry and community volunteers. The POPADAD trial recruited men and women ages ≥ 40 years with an ABI ≤ 0.99 , diabetes, and no symptomatic CVD from diabetes clinics. Mean age was 62.0 and 60.3 years in the two trials. Approximately half (55.9%) and nearly three-quarters (71.5%) of participants were female in the POPADAD and AAA trials, respectively. All participants had diabetes in the POPADAD trial and 2.6 percent had diabetes in the AAA trial. The mean ABI was 0.86 in AAA and the median ABI was 0.90 in POPADAD. Nearly one-third were current smokers in both trials. Mean HgbA1c was 8.0 in the POPADAD trial. Calculated annual CVD events in the control groups were 0.99 and 2.53 percent in the AAA and POPADAD trials, respectively, indicating that POPADAD participants had higher baseline CVD risk. All participants were asymptomatic in terms of PAD in both trials. Statin use was reported in AAA to be 4.2 percent at baseline and 25 percent at 5 years of followup. Cholesterol and blood pressure values in each trial are reported in **Table 6**.

Intervention Details

The intervention group in both trials received 100 mg daily of enteric (AAA) or nonenteric (POPADAD) coated aspirin orally. The control group in the AAA trial was placebo, and the 2x2 factorial-designed POPADAD trial also included an antioxidant tablet. The intervention groups received aspirin plus placebo or antioxidant plus placebo, compared with the control group which received two placebo tablets. Authors reported no evidence of an interaction between aspirin and antioxidants, so results below are presented for the group taking aspirin (intervention group) compared with the group not taking aspirin (control group).

Study Quality

Both trials had robust reporting, baseline comparability, adjustment for confounders, and outcome ascertainment using multiple data sources (clinic, hospital records, NHS records, death records, patient diary; outcomes adjudication committees). Additionally, both AAA and POPADAD used intent-to-treat (ITT) analyses and had minimal loss to followup (0.3% and 0.5%, respectively). AAA reported that adherence was 60 percent of patient years of followup and that the primary end point did not differ in those taking and not taking the medication at 5 years of followup. POPADAD reported that 14 percent of participants stopped taking trial drugs at 1 year and cumulatively 50 percent of participants withdrew from trial therapy at 5 years of followup.

Both AAA and POPADAD were powered for composite CVD outcomes. This was true despite the fact that the AAA event rate was 60 percent lower than expected, which was reflective of a national reduction in CVD events during the trial period.

Results

Both trials reported no difference between the aspirin and control groups in trial-defined

composite cardiovascular outcomes. In the AAA trial, the adjusted hazard ratio (HR) was 1.00 (95% CI, 0.81 to 1.23) for the primary composite outcome of initial fatal or nonfatal coronary event, CVA, or revascularization. Similarly, in the POPADAD trial the HR was 0.98 (95% CI, 0.76 to 1.26) for the primary composite outcome of death from CHD or CVA, nonfatal MI or CVA, and above-the-ankle amputation for critical leg ischemia. There was no statistically significant difference in fatal CVD events [RR 1.17 (95% CI, 0.72 to 1.89) and HR 1.23 (95% CI, 0.79 to 1.93)] or all-cause mortality [HR 0.95 (95% CI, 0.77 to 1.16) and HR 0.93 (95% CI, 0.71 to 1.24)] (**Table 7**). Examining individual CVD outcomes (e.g., MI, CVA) likewise showed no statistically significant difference between the aspirin and control groups (**Table 8**). The development of intermittent claudication and need for peripheral arterial revascularization or above-the-ankle amputation procedures were similar between the aspirin and control groups (**Table 9**).

In terms of subgroups, there was no compelling evidence to support a differential treatment effect by age or sex. Within-trial comparisons revealed overlapping confidence intervals, and the single trial (POPADAD) with heterogeneity testing for CVD outcomes by age and sex reported nonstatistically significant interaction testing (**Tables 10** and **11**).

Exercise

Study Characteristics

The two exercise trials were new to this update because supervised exercise and physical therapy was not an included intervention type in the prior review. We identified one small, fair-quality U.S. trial by Collins and colleagues (n=50)¹⁰⁵ and one good-quality Australian trial by Fowler and colleagues (n=882)¹⁰⁶ examining the effectiveness of exercise in populations with a low ABI. The U.S. RCT included participants with a low ABI (<0.9) and no intermittent claudication who were referred to a vascular lab, while the Australian trial recruited participants from the population-based, Western Australian abdominal aortic aneurysm-screening trial; participants who screened positive for PAD using either the ECQ or ABI were then randomized to the intervention or control group. Primary outcomes were the change from baseline to followup in walking ability (WIQ walking distance score¹⁰⁵ or ability to walk 100 to 400 yards before onset of intermittent claudication¹⁰⁶). Secondary outcomes were WIQ-measured speed and stair climbing, the ABI, HgbA1c, lipid values, and PACE scores;¹⁰⁵ HrQOL,^{105, 106} physical activity,¹⁰⁶ intermittent claudication based on the ECQ,¹⁰⁶ and smoking.¹⁰⁶ Outcomes were ascertained at 12¹⁰⁵ and 52 weeks¹⁰⁶ of followup.

Population Characteristics

The Collins trial recruited participants who were referred to a Veterans Administration vascular lab with an ABI of 0.5 to <0.9 and without intermittent claudication; participants were almost exclusively men (98%) (**Table 12**). The Fowler trial recruited exclusively men ages 65 to 79 years who screened positive for PAD using the ECQ and/or ABI. Mean age was 69.1 and 73.1 in the trials, respectively. The Collins trial included a majority of white participants (white 64%, black 26%, Hispanic 10%), while the Fowler trial did not report race or ethnicity. Most participants in the Collins trial had hypertension (86%); mean BP was 161/87 mm Hg in the

Fowler trial. Mean total cholesterol was 189 mg/dL in the Collins trial, with approximately 60 percent of participants having an LDL greater than 100 mg/dL and HDL less than 40 mg/dL. Cholesterol levels were not reported in the Fowler trial. The Collins trial had more participants with diabetes (40%), compared with the Fowler trial (17.2%). More than half of the Collins participants were asymptomatic for PAD (56% were asymptomatic and 44% had atypical symptoms) which was intentional as the trial researchers selected participants for asymptomatic and atypical PAD using a telephone administered San Diego Claudication Questionnaire, while the Fowler screen-detected population recruited 27.4 percent asymptoms. The mean ABI was 0.74 and 0.79 in the trials, respectively. Thirty percent and 18.7 percent of participants were smokers in the two trials. Nearly one-third of participants in the Fowler trial had angina and one-quarter had history of MI.

Intervention Details

The intervention in the Collins trial included two individual, nurse-delivered components: risk-factor modification and improvement in physical activity (**Table 13**). The risk-modification component included a "recognize, identify, and manage" approach whereby a nurse completed an initial 5-minute assessment of medication adherence followed by dietary advice and metabolic goals (HbA1c, LDL cholesterol). The physical activity component used the Patient-Centered Assessment and Counseling for Exercise (PACE) protocol,¹¹¹ which included a readiness-for-change-stage assessment related to physical activity and a tailored handout identifying ways to increase physical activity; followup discussions encouraged regular physical activity. The intervention occurred during an initial, individual, face-to-face session followed by five phone visits lasting less than 30 minutes each which were conducted over 10 weeks. Control group participants were advised to continue routine care with their primary care physicians.

The intervention in the Fowler trial included a smoking cessation intervention and physical therapy (PT) referral. The initial, individual, face-to-face session included an explanation of the PAD screening test results and provision of an educational packet with information about PAD, a brochure about the community PT service, smoking-cessation information if applicable, and a copy of the letter sent to their general practitioner. Participants in the intervention group were advised to discuss PAD with their physician. General practitioners were advised to discuss smoking cessation and refer each participant to the community PT service, which then contacted each participant in the intervention group (the length of this initial session is not reported). The community PT service goal was to increase physical activity and included either weekly, 45-minute supervised sessions for 49 sessions or an individually designed, home-based physical activity program. In addition, all men were advised to walk for 30 minutes or more each day (or water therapy classes or special sessions for those with disabilities). The control group received usual care; nurses briefly disclosed results of diminished flow to lower extremities but stated there was no evidence for any intervention.

Study Quality

The Collins trial was conducted as a small, short-term feasibility study to calculate effect size and estimate power for subsequent trials, so it was not intended to be large enough to detect

differences in the primary outcome (WIQ walking distance). There were large, statistically significant baseline differences in physical functioning scores as measured by the MOS SF-36, with the intervention group having greater (better) physical functioning scores, which may bias against finding a benefit from the intervention (IG 55.0, CG 39.4; p<0.009).

The Fowler trial was powered to detect differences in walking distance (e.g., 90% power to detect a 7.9% between-group difference in the proportion of men able to walk 100–400 yards before onset of intermittent claudication).

In both trials, ITT analyses were used and followup was good to excellent (greater than 80%). The Collins trial did not report whether outcome assessors were blinded. Adherence to the physical activity component differed widely in the two trials. The 12-week Collins trial reported high adherence to the physical activity recommendation of 30 minutes three times per week (40% at baseline and 82% by the fifth [final] phone call), while adherence over the longer Fowler trial was relatively low (only 16.5% of the intervention group attended classes at the 1-year followup).

Results

QOL

Quality-of-life changes from baseline as measured by the MOS SF-36 and Rosser HrQOL instruments were similar between the intervention and control groups in both trials (**Table 14**). For example, in the Fowler trial, the MOS SF-36 component score mean differences between the exercise intervention and control groups ranged from -1.8 to 18.2 without any statistically significant differences between baseline and followup.¹⁰⁶ In the Collins trial, the followup HrQOL scores were nearly identical in the exercise intervention and control groups.¹⁰⁵

WIQ

The Collins trial reported no difference in the primary outcome of mean walking distance score on the WIQ or walking speed but did report a statistically significantly larger improvement in the stair-climbing component of the WIQ in the intervention group compared with the control group (mean difference 15.1 [95% CI, 2.4 to 32.6]; p=0.02) (**Table 15**).

Symptoms

The Collins trial showed that neither the intervention nor control groups had statistically significant changes in the proportion of participants with symptoms (atypical symptoms or intermittent claudication) over the trial duration; there was no difference between the intervention and control groups (**Table 16**). The Fowler trial reported statistically significant improvements in symptoms in both the intervention and control groups but no difference in proportions of participants with symptoms when comparing the groups. For example, 45.6 and 43.5 percent of the intervention and control groups, respectively, had intermittent claudication at baseline; these proportions decreased to 28.5 and 30.9 percent at 52 weeks (between-group p-value of 0.50). The proportion of participants with atypical symptoms showed a similar pattern,

although it was experienced by fewer participants.

In terms of subgroups, there was no evidence to address whether a differential treatment effect exists in subpopulations at greater risk for PAD.

KQ5. What Are the Harms of Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI? KQ5a. Do the Harms of Treatment Vary by Subpopulations at Greater Risk for PAD?

Summary of Results

Limited evidence from one trial demonstrates a trend toward higher risk for major bleeding events with the use of aspirin. There was no effect on major GI bleeding in one trial. Two trials reported relative risks for total or fatal hemorrhagic CVA less than and greater than 1 with wide overlapping confidence intervals due to rare events. The two exercise trials did not report measuring harms.

Results

The two trials, AAA and POPADAD, report bleeding harms associated with 100 mg daily aspirin use (enteric coated in AAA and nonenteric coated in POPADAD) (Table 17). Major GI bleeding, major hemorrhage, and total hemorrhagic CVA were outcomes reported in AAA (N=3,350). Major GI bleeding requiring hospital admission was similar in the aspirin and control groups (0.5% versus 0.5%; relative risk (RR) 1.13 [95% CI, 0.44 to 2.91]). Major hemorrhage (defined as nonfatal or fatal hemorrhagic CVA, fatal or nonfatal subarachnoid/subdural hemorrhage, GI bleed requiring admission, and other bleeding requiring hospital admission) did not reach statistical significance but was higher in the aspirin group (2.0% vs. 1.2%; HR 1.71 [95% CI, 0.99 to 2.97]). There was a trend for increased total hemorrhagic CVA associated with aspirin use; however, confidence intervals were wide due to the rare event rate and crossed one (0.3% vs. 0.2%; RR 1.25 [95% CI, 0.34 to 4.65]); five hemorrhagic CVAs occurred in the aspirin group and four occurred in the control group. POPADAD reported a nonsignificant reduction in fatal hemorrhagic CVA in the aspirin group, but again, confidence intervals were wide due to rare events (0.3% versus 0.5%; RR 0.67 [95% CI, 0.11 to 3.98]); two hemorrhagic CVAs occurred in the aspirin group and three occurred in the control group. POPADAD reported gastrointestinal bleeding without indication of severity, so these results were not included.

There are no subgroup analyses published from the two included trials reporting bleeding harms associated with aspirin in subpopulations at greater risk for PAD.

Chapter 4. Discussion

Summary of Evidence

There is no direct evidence addressing the effectiveness of screening for PAD with the ABI to reduce PAD- or CVD-related morbidity or mortality. We are aware of three in-progress trials that include PAD screening as part of combination vascular screening (Appendix D Table 1);^{107,} ¹¹² however, the multicomponent nature of the screening intervention will preclude definitive conclusions about the effectiveness of screening with the ABI alone. The indirect chain of evidence presented in this review is limited. A single diagnostic accuracy study demonstrates that the ABI has poor sensitivity for detecting PAD in unselected populations. In contrast, other systematic reviews of largely symptomatic populations have reported much higher diagnostic accuracy compared with our review.^{69, 76, 77, 83} For example, pooled sensitivities and specificities for an ABI ≤ 0.9 compared with an angiographic gold standard have been reported at 75 percent (95% CI, 71% to 79%) and 86 percent (95% CI, 83% to 90%), respectively, with significant heterogeneity.⁸³ The far lower sensitivity in our single included study compared with the larger literature in symptomatic populations is likely due to an expected poorer accuracy in screening populations. These populations have lower pretest probability of disease compared with symptomatic populations, as well as issues of study quality in a single study population. One recent diagnostic accuracy study comparing two algorithms for targeted screening in high-risk populations as defined per AHA guidelines⁶⁵ (>65 years; 50 to 64 years with a traditional CVD risk factor or family history of PAD; <50 years with diabetes and a traditional CVD risk factor) reported a sensitivity of 49 percent and specificity of 94 percent; this study used the TBI in place of the ABI as the diagnostic test in those with an ABI above 1.4, and was thus excluded from our review.¹¹³ For treatment benefit, our review identified two primary prevention trials of aspirin that recruited asymptomatic individuals with a low ABI. These trials demonstrate that aspirin is not effective in reducing composite CVD morbidity or mortality over 6 to 8 years of followup. Both trials defined a low ABI using higher thresholds than in standard clinical practice (i.e., ≤ 0.95 or ≤ 0.99); the aim was to use the ABI as a nontraditional risk factor and identify a population with a higher risk for CVD events that might potentially benefit from aspirin, not to diagnose PAD in a screening population. With a median baseline ABI of 0.90 in POPADAD, half of the population did not have PAD by traditional definitions, and this may have reduced the observed benefit of aspirin; however, subgroup analyses by baseline ABI did not show heterogeneity of treatment effect (p for interaction of 0.17). Similarly, in AAA which had a mean baseline ABI of 0.86, post hoc subgroup analyses did not show different results for the primary composite outcome by baseline ABI. Other systematic reviews of antiplatelet therapy have similarly reported no overall reduction in CVD events with aspirin, compared with control in populations with a low ABI.^{69, 81, 82} Our review did not identify any other pharmacologic trials in screen-detected PAD populations reporting patient health outcomes; observational studies suggest both functional and mortality benefits of statins, but confidence in results is substantially limited by the nonrandomized nature of study designs.^{69, 114-117} In our review, two underpowered, short-term exercise trials in participants recruited through screening or oversampling of individuals without symptoms or with atypical symptoms show no statistically significant treatment effect on quality of life or development of symptoms at 3 and 12 months of followup, with the exception of one trial showing an improvement in the stair-climbing component of the

WIQ. In contrast, several systematic reviews of exercise therapy in largely symptomatic populations have concluded that exercise programs are associated with improved maximum walking distance and time, pain-free walking distance, 6-minute walk, WIQ scores, and quality of life.^{69, 78-80} Consistent with this evidence, the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services recently approved coverage of supervised exercise therapy in beneficiaries with intermittent claudication for the treatment of symptomatic PAD.¹¹⁸

Evidence is summarized in the Summary of Evidence (Table 18).

Targeting High-Prevalence Subpopulations

Overall, the evidence base addressing screening for PAD in either general or high-risk asymptomatic populations remains scant. While universal screening in primary care populations is inefficient,¹¹⁹ there is much interest in targeted screening in subpopulations with higher PAD prevalence, such as older adults and patients with diabetes, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, and increased global CVD risk.¹²⁰ Screening guidance provided by several professional organizations targets these subpopulations (**Table 1**).^{56, 65} In particular, older age, diabetes, and cigarette smoking have been highlighted as risk factors associated with the highest risk for PAD in high-income countries.¹⁵ Several groups have derived models to predict prevalent PAD from population-based cohorts, and some have externally validated these models in non-U.S. populations, demonstrating reasonable sensitivity but low specificity (e.g., sensitivity 85%, specificity 47%);^{37, 45, 120, 121} there remains an inadequate evidence base to apply any models in U.S. clinical practice.

The argument in favor of screening follows a logic that these high-prevalence populations can be easily identified based on established risk factors for PAD; that the ABI is relatively accurate based on studies in symptomatic patients; and that cardiovascular risk-factor modification is appropriate because CVD morbidity and mortality are high in adults with PAD regardless of symptoms.⁵⁶ Conversely, even when higher-prevalence populations are identified for screening, the missing link in the indirect evidence chain remains the effectiveness of screening in identifying individuals who are not already candidates for pharmacologic and exercise treatment based on their global CVD risk.¹²² While there is a robust evidence base supporting treatment benefit in patients with intermittent claudication (exercise, statins, and cilostazol improve walking performance measures; antiplatelet agents reduce revascularization and cardiovascular and all-cause mortality),¹²³⁻¹²⁷ some treatments will be recommended regardless of the ABI (exercise, statins, antiplatelet drugs) based on global CVD risk, while other treatments are only for symptomatic PAD (cilostazol).

Diabetes is a classic example of a disease where early detection is particularly desirable to halt lower-extremity disease progression because PAD outcomes (amputation and mortality) are substantially worse.¹²⁸ However, screening considerations in individuals with diabetes have added complexity as an abnormal ABI (both low and high ABI) is quite prevalent;^{19, 50, 129-131} the presence of peripheral neuropathy confounds both clinical presentation and ABI accuracy;^{76, 132} and most importantly, medical management of CVD risk with tight blood-pressure control, aspirin, statins, and exercise recommendations along with routine foot examination has become the standard of diabetes clinical practice guidelines.¹³³ It is unclear how screening for PAD

would change clinical management in persons with diabetes. This logic holds for other PAD risk factors as well: since the risk factors for PAD (one manifestation of atherosclerotic disease) overlap with the major risk factors for global CVD risk,⁷¹ it is not clear how detection of PAD would alter medical decisionmaking.⁷³

Lower-Extremity Treatment Benefit in Screen-Detected Populations

On one hand, expecting unselected, generally asymptomatic populations to achieve improvements in PAD-related morbidity seems unreasonable; on the other hand, if patients unaware of symptoms because of limited activity underwent treatment, there could be potential to improve overall function, ability to ambulate, and quality of life. Supporting this theory is evidence that patients with a low ABI have worse lower-extremity function and quality of life than those with intermittent claudication, positing that perhaps those with asymptomatic PAD reduce their walking to avoid symptoms with subsequent development of muscle wasting and questioning the traditional thinking that presence of symptoms or their severity directly correlates to atherosclerotic occlusive disease severity.¹³⁴ Several observational studies of screen-detected or asymptomatic populations demonstrated that those with a low ABI have statistically significantly worse subjective and objective measures of function (6-minute walk distance, 4-meter walking velocity, 400-meter walk time, SF-36 physical functioning subscale scores, WIQ distance and speed scores) compared with those with a normal ABI.¹³⁴⁻¹³⁹ Two notable exercise-based intervention trials in patients with PAD or a low ABI have shown improved lower-extremity functional outcomes.^{140, 141} The GOALS trial demonstrated that a home-based walking program incorporating a group-mediated cognitive behavioral intervention was associated with statistically significant improvements in 6-minute walk, WIQ distance, and speed scores at 6 months, and short physical performance battery and mobility loss at 12 months.^{140, 142, 143} Another trial of supervised treadmill exercise and lower-extremity resistance training with similar recruitment to the GOALS trial showed improved 6-minute walk and QOL at 6 months.¹⁴¹ Both of these trials were not included in our systematic review because although the recruitment approach solicited community as well as clinical referrals with a minority of patients with classic intermittent claudication, the baseline ABIs and WIO distance and speed scores reflect a more severe functional impairment and disease severity than would be expected in an unselected primary care population. Replication of these findings in screened populations is needed.

Use of the ABI to Improve CVD Risk Prediction and Subsequent Medical Management

Aside from lower-extremity function improvement as a potential benefit from early identification of PAD, a common argument in support of early case-finding is that the detection of PAD signals the presence of widespread atherosclerotic disease, where its detection may lead to CVD risk reclassification and intensive medical management.³⁸ In this case, the sensitivity and specificity of the ABI in detecting PAD is not relevant as the ABI would be used as a nontraditional CVD risk marker. This critically important question is addressed in a concurrent

systematic review evaluating whether the addition of the ABI and other nontraditional risk factors to traditional cardiovascular risk assessment could improve risk prediction in terms of calibration, discrimination, and risk reclassification.⁷⁴ This systematic review identified a large body of evidence from 21 unique cohorts, including one IPD meta-analysis of 18 cohorts for the ABI as a nontraditional risk factor.¹⁴⁴ The extension of the Framingham risk prediction model to include the ABI in the IPD MA was performed in a development/internal validation data set of over 27,000 participants and evaluated in an external validation dataset of over 20,000 participants.

Collectively, evidence suggests that the addition of the ABI to traditional risk factors can improve risk prediction in some subpopulations. Results are more robust for discrimination and reclassification (as opposed to calibration), and point to a larger improvement in predictive accuracy for women, particularly those at intermediate risk. The ability of the ABI to improve risk prediction is particularly notable when the performance of traditional cardiovascular risk prediction models is poor (for example, in women) or when clinical action is uncertain (e.g., intermediate risk individuals). While the ABI added to traditional cardiovascular risk assessment may improve predictive accuracy in some subpopulations, the clinical impact of such changes is unknown, limiting application to clinical practice.

Limitations of the Review

Our review captured a single trial of ABI accuracy because this was the only accuracy trial in which the ABI was used in an unselected population applicable for screening. Trials using convenience samples from vascular labs were excluded as they would represent an enriched sample and such studies are subject to spectrum bias when applying them to screening populations.⁸⁷⁻⁹¹ We recognize that there is much broader and higher-quality literature reporting ABI accuracy, with sensitivities and specificities ranging from 17 to 100 percent and 80 to 100 percent.^{56, 63} We also recognize that in clinical practice, an abnormal ABI is often considered diagnostic of PAD, and that duplex, CTA, MRA, and DSA are used for localization of stenoses for the purpose of surgical intervention rather than for confirmation of PAD. The scope of this review did not include diagnostic accuracy of other screening methods or modalities such as automated oscillometric ABI measurement methods,^{145, 146} the postexercise ABI (which may be relevant in clinically "asymptomatic" populations that self-limit exertion), and the toe-brachial index.

For treatment trials, our review's requirement that the treated population could be considered an unselected population with population-based or primary care recruitment could be considered unnecessarily limiting. However, in order to develop an indirect chain of evidence in support of screening, it is critical that treatment trials are applicable to a population that reflects the screen-detected population in terms of disease severity and treatment effectiveness. The prespecified hard health outcomes abstracted in this review include CVD and PAD morbidity or mortality or quality of life with the exclusion of intermediate outcomes (behavior changes, intermediate measures of lower limb function [6-minute walk test or lower-extremity strength], the ABI, or intermediate cardiovascular risk factors). We did exclude a 12-month study of 355 adults with PAD or a low ABI that evaluated a telephone counseling intervention designed to motivate

patients to request more intensive cholesterol-lowering therapy from their physician.¹⁴⁷ This study found that LDL-cholesterol reduction was not statistically significantly greater in the intervention compared with the usual care group (mean between-group difference of 5.1 mg/dL (95% CI, -2.9 to 13.1]). No studies of asymptomatic populations were excluded on the basis of reporting the 6-minute walk but not CVD or PAD morbidity and mortality. The included treatment trials reporting QOL most commonly used the SF-36, and none of the included studies used the Vasculo-QOL questionnaire, which is better able to discriminate between severe and mild disease at baseline and between large and small change in disease severity after followup;¹⁴⁸

Population-Based Multicomponent Screening Trials

There are three population-based screening trials that examine the effectiveness of the combination of multiple vascular screening tests on all-cause mortality and/or cardiovascular morbidity and mortality at 10 to 15 years of followup; one trial has reported results and two are in progress. The Viborg Vascular (VIVA) screening trial enrolled 50,156 men ages 65 to 74 years from 2008–2011.¹⁰⁹ Participants were randomized to screening versus no screening for hypertension, PAD, and abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA). After screening, VIVA participants who had confirmed AAA or PAD were counseled on the need to initiate preventive interventions including walking, smoking cessation, a low-fat diet, and cholesterol testing, with aspirin and statin therapy prescribed to those meeting a total cholesterol threshold value. An interim analysis at median 4.4 years of followup reported a 0.006 (95% CI, 0.001 to 0.011) absolute decrease in all-cause mortality (hazard ratio, 0.93 [95% CI, 0.88 to 0.98]) in the screened group and a reduction in PAD-specific hospital days (HR 0.81 [95% CI, 0.76-0.87]). Based on post-hoc sensitivity analyses removing smokers or those initiating hypertensive therapy, which did not alter the results, authors hypothesize that the benefit was largely seen from preventive measures including statin and aspirin use. Applicability of such findings in the context of current treatment thresholds for pharmacotherapy based on global CVD risk¹⁴⁹⁻¹⁵¹ is uncertain as nearly all participants would have $\geq 10\%$ 10-year CVD risk based on age and male sex alone,¹⁵² thus would already be candidates for consideration of statins or aspirin. Secondary analyses including costeffectiveness analyses to isolate the effect of ABI screening are planned, but these analyses would be considered exploratory; it is unlikely that such analyses would definitively demonstrate ABI screening effectiveness given the aforementioned considerations. The second trial, the Danish Cardiovascular Screening Trial (DANCAVAS), has an estimated enrollment of 45,000 men ages 65 to 74 years who are randomized to no screening or screening including the following components: brachial and ankle blood-pressure index to detect PAD and hypertension, low-dose CT scan to detect coronary artery calcification and aortic/iliac aneurysms, telemetric assessment of heart rhythm, and measurement of cholesterol and plasma glucose levels.¹⁰⁷ The primary outcome of this study is overall mortality. Enrollment began in October 2014 and 10 years of followup is planned. An interim publication is planned for mid-2018.¹⁵³ The third trial, the ILERVAS project in Spain, is currently enrolling adults ages 45 to 70 years with at least one cardiovascular risk factor, recruited from primary health care centers; the planned N is 19,800.¹⁰⁸ The intervention group will receive multicomponent screening for subclinical arterial disease (including ABI assessment) and chronic kidney disease. Ten years of followup for cardiovascular disease is planned.

Future Research Needs

Given the paucity of included studies and the high prevalence of undetected PAD—particularly in high-risk populations—there is opportunity for future research to clarify the role of PAD screening in primary care. First, a population-based screening trial of ABI screening versus no screening with robust subpopulation analyses ideally would answer this question definitively. The VIVA trial, as well as two ongoing trials,^{107, 108} include the ABI in addition to other vascular screening tests, so it will not be possible to estimate the independent effect of the ABI. Nonetheless, population-based trials of screening ABI alone compared with no screening would represent the highest-quality evidence examining the effectiveness of screening. In the absence of direct evidence, additional studies of ABI accuracy against a duplex ultrasound gold standard in unselected populations would be useful to estimate accuracy in a population with a spectrum of disease reflective of a screened population. Exercise and statin trials specifically recruiting screen-detected populations may support screening, and inclusion of populations at clinically accepted diagnostic thresholds (i.e., <0.9) would enhance the applicability of evidence. If treatment effectiveness has been established in this population, then validated risk models would be useful to identify individuals for targeted screening in primary care.

Conclusion

The current evidence base is limited, with no direct evidence examining the effectiveness of ABI screening alone for PAD. Indirect evidence is scant and includes a single ABI accuracy study in an unselected population showing poor sensitivity; two aspirin trials in screen-detected populations (with and without diabetes) with a low ABI defined as ≤ 0.95 or ≤ 0.99 show no benefit for primary composite cardiovascular outcomes. Two underpowered exercise trials in screen-detected, atypical, or asymptomatic populations show no statistically significant effect on hard health outcomes.
References

- 1. Hiatt WR, Goldstone J, Smith SC, Jr., et al. Atherosclerotic Peripheral Vascular Disease Symposium II: nomenclature for vascular diseases. *Circulation*. 2008;118(25):2826-9. PMID: 19106403. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.108.191171</u>
- 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 Cardiovascular Angiography and Interventions, 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): endorsed by the American Association of Cardiovascular and Pulmonary Rehabilitation; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; Society for Vascular Nursing; TransAtlantic Inter-Society Consensus; and Vascular Disease Foundation. *Circulation*. 2006;113(11):e463-654. PMID: 16549646. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.106.174526
- LeFevre ML, U. S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for asymptomatic carotid artery stenosis: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2014;161(5):356-62. PMID: 25003392. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M14-1333</u>
- LeFevre ML, U. S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for abdominal aortic aneurysm: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med*. 2014;161(4):281-90. PMID: 24957320. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.7326/M14-1204</u>
- Hiatt WR. Medical treatment of peripheral arterial disease and claudication. N Eng J Med. 2001;344(21):1608-21. PMID: 11372014. http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJM200105243442108
- Pande RL, Perlstein TS, Beckman JA, et al. Secondary prevention and mortality in peripheral artery disease: National Health and Nutrition Examination Study, 1999 to 2004. *Circulation*. 2011;124(1):17-23. PMID: 21690489. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.110.003954</u>
- 7. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Lower extremity disease among persons aged > or =40 years with and without diabetes--United States, 1999-2002. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2005;54(45):1158-60. PMID: 16292250.
- Razzouk L, Rockman CB, Patel MR, et al. Co-existence of vascular disease in different arterial beds: Peripheral artery disease and carotid artery stenosis--Data from Life Line Screening(). *Atherosclerosis*. 2015;241(2):687-91. PMID: 26122189. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2015.06.029
- 9. Menke A, Muntner P, Wildman RP, et al. Relation of borderline peripheral arterial disease to cardiovascular disease risk. *Am J Cardiol*. 2006;98(9):1226-30. PMID: 17056334. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2006.05.056
- 10. Hirsch AT, Criqui MH, Treat-Jacobson D, et al. Peripheral arterial disease detection, awareness, and treatment in primary care. *JAMA*. 2001;286(11):1317-24. PMID: 11560536. http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.286.11.1317

- Cimminiello C, Kownator S, Wautrecht JC, et al. The PANDORA study: peripheral arterial disease in patients with non-high cardiovascular risk. *Intern Emerg Med*. 2011;6(6):509-19. PMID: 21298363. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11739-011-0511-0</u>
- 12. Hiatt WR, Hoag S, Hamman RF. Effect of diagnostic criteria on the prevalence of peripheral arterial disease. The San Luis Valley Diabetes Study. *Circulation*. 1995;91(5):1472-9. PMID: 7867189. https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.91.5.1472
- Aboyans V, Criqui MH, McClelland RL, et al. Intrinsic contribution of gender and ethnicity to normal ankle-brachial index values: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA). *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 2007;45(2):319-27. PMID: 17264011. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2006.10.032</u>
- Hiramoto JS, Katz R, Ix JH, et al. Sex differences in the prevalence and clinical outcomes of subclinical peripheral artery disease in the Health, Aging, and Body Composition (Health ABC) study. *Vascular*. 2014;22(2):142-8. PMID: 23512905. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1708538113476023
- Fowkes FG, Rudan D, Rudan I, et al. Comparison of global estimates of prevalence and risk factors for peripheral artery disease in 2000 and 2010: a systematic review and analysis. *Lancet*. 2013;382(9901):1329-40. PMID: 23915883. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(13)61249-0</u>
- 16. 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(4):583-9. PMID: 17397438. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1532-5415.2007.01123.x
- 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(6):738-43. PMID: 15262830. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000137913.26087.F0
- 18. Allison MA, Ho E, Denenberg JO, et al. Ethnic-specific prevalence of peripheral arterial disease in the United States. *Am J Prev Med*. 2007;32(4):328-33. PMID: 17383564. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2006.12.010
- Eraso LH, Fukaya E, Mohler ER, III, et al. Peripheral arterial disease, prevalence and cumulative risk factor profile analysis. *Eur J Prev Cardiol*. 2012;21(6):704-11. PMID: 22739687. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/2047487312452968</u>
- O'Hare AM, Katz R, Shlipak MG, et al. Mortality and cardiovascular risk across the anklearm index spectrum: results from the Cardiovascular Health Study. *Circulation*. 2006;113(3):388-93. PMID: 16432070. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.105.570903
- 21. Wattanakit K, Folsom AR, Duprez DA, et al. Clinical significance of a high ankle-brachial index: insights from the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study. *Atherosclerosis*. 2007;190(2):459-64. PMID: 16574125. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2006.02.039
- 22. Allison MA, Hiatt WR, Hirsch AT, et al. A high ankle-brachial index is associated with increased cardiovascular disease morbidity and lower quality of life. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*. 2008;51(13):1292-8. PMID: 18371562. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2007.11.064
- 23. Signorelli SS, Fiore V, Catanzaro S, et al. Prevalence of high ankle-brachial index (ABI) in general population of Southern Italy, risk factor profiles and systemic cardiovascular co-

morbidity: an epidemiological study. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr*. 2011;53(1):55-9. PMID: 20591512. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.archger.2010.05.020</u>

- 24. Grondal N, Sogaard R, Lindholt JS. Baseline prevalence of abdominal aortic aneurysm, peripheral arterial disease and hypertension in men aged 65-74 years from a population screening study (VIVA trial). *Br J Surg*. 2015;102(8):902-6. PMID: 25923784. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/bjs.9825
- Kvist T, Lindholt J, Rasmussen L, et al. The DanCavas Pilot Study of Multifaceted Screening for Subclinical Cardiovascular Disease in Men and Women Aged 65-74 Years. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 2017;53(1):123-31. PMID: 27890524. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejvs.2016.10.010</u>
- 26. Fowkes FG, Aboyans V, Fowkes FJ, et al. Peripheral artery disease: epidemiology and global perspectives. *Nat Rev Cardiol*. 2017;14(3):156-70. PMID: 27853158. http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nrcardio.2016.179
- Marrett E, DiBonaventura M, Zhang Q. Burden of peripheral arterial disease in Europe and the United States: a patient survey. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2013;11:175. PMID: 24148832. http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1477-7525-11-175
- Jones WS, Patel MR, Dai D, et al. Temporal trends and geographic variation of lowerextremity amputation in patients with peripheral artery disease: results from U.S. Medicare 2000-2008. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2012;60(21):2230-6. PMID: 23103040. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2012.08.983
- Jones WS, Patel MR, Dai D, et al. High mortality risks after major lower extremity amputation in Medicare patients with peripheral artery disease. *Am Heart J*. 2013;165(5):809-15, 15 e1. PMID: 23622919. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ahj.2012.12.002</u>
- 30. Dynamed. *Peripheral arterial disease (PAD) of lower extremities*. EbscoHOST; 2015. Available from: <u>http://web.a.ebscohost.com/dynamed/detail?vid=3&sid=52046c47-c49b-4781-9e74-841cf55b9743%40sessionmgr4001&hid=4212&bdata=JnNpdGU9ZHluYW1IZC1saXZlJnNjb3BIPXNpdGU%3d.</u>
- 31. Criqui MH, Aboyans V. Epidemiology of peripheral artery disease. *Circ Res*. 2015;116(9):1509-26. PMID: 25908725. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.116.303849
- 32. Rooke TW, Hirsch AT, Misra S, et al. 2011 ACCF/AHA Focused Update of the Guideline for the Management of Patients With Peripheral Artery Disease (updating the 2005 guideline): a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2011;58(19):2020-45. PMID: 21963765. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2011.08.023
- McDermott MM. Lower extremity manifestations of peripheral artery disease: the pathophysiologic and functional implications of leg ischemia. *Circ Res*. 2015;116(9):1540-50. PMID: 25908727. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.114.303517</u>
- Sigvant B, Lundin F, Wahlberg E. The Risk of Disease Progression in Peripheral Arterial Disease is Higher than Expected: A Meta-Analysis of Mortality and Disease Progression in Peripheral Arterial Disease. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 2016;51(3):395-403. PMID: 26777541. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ejvs.2015.10.022</u>
- 35. McDermott MM, Liu K, Greenland P, et al. Functional decline in peripheral arterial disease: associations with the ankle brachial index and leg symptoms. *JAMA*. 2004;292(4):453-61. PMID: 15280343. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.292.4.453</u>

- 36. Bendermacher BL, Teijink JA, Willigendael EM, et al. A clinical prediction model for the presence of peripheral arterial disease--the benefit of screening individuals before initiation of measurement of the ankle-brachial index: an observational study. *Vasc Med*. 2007;12(1):5-11. PMID: 17451087.
- Ramos R, Baena-Diez JM, Quesada M, et al. Derivation and validation of REASON: a risk score identifying candidates to screen for peripheral arterial disease using ankle brachial index. *Atherosclerosis*. 2011;214(2):474-9. PMID: 21167488. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2010.11.015
- 38. Fowkes FG, Murray GD, Butcher I, et al. Ankle brachial index combined with Framingham Risk Score to predict cardiovascular events and mortality: a meta-analysis. *JAMA*. 2008;300(2):197-208. PMID: 18612117. http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.300.2.197
- 39. Leng GC, Lee AJ, Fowkes FG, et al. Incidence, natural history and cardiovascular events in symptomatic and asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease in the general population. *Int J Epidemiol.* 1996;25(6):1172-81. PMID: 9027521.
- Diehm C, Allenberg JR, Pittrow D, et al. Mortality and vascular morbidity in older adults with asymptomatic versus symptomatic peripheral artery disease. *Circulation*. 2009;120(21):2053-61. PMID: 19901192. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.109.865600
- Hooi JD, Kester AD, Stoffers HE, et al. Asymptomatic peripheral arterial occlusive disease predicted cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in a 7-year follow-up study. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2004;57(3):294-300. PMID: 15066690. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2003.09.003</u>
- 42. Criqui MH, Langer RD, Fronek A, et al. Mortality over a period of 10 years in patients with peripheral arterial disease. *N Engl J Med*. 1992;326(6):381-6. PMID: 1729621. http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJM199202063260605
- 43. Hirsch AT, Hartman L, Town RJ, et al. National health care costs of peripheral arterial disease in the Medicare population. *Vasc Med*. 2008;13(3):209-15. PMID: 18687757. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1358863X08089277
- 44. Cassar K. Peripheral arterial disease. BMJ Clin Evid. 2011;2011. PMID: 21477401.
- 45. Bali V, Yermilov I, Coutts K, et al. Novel screening metric for the identification of at-risk peripheral artery disease patients using administrative claims data. *Vasc Med*. 2015. PMID: 26608733. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1358863x15616687</u>
- 46. Taylor-Piliae RE, Fair JM, Varady AN, et al. Ankle brachial index screening in asymptomatic older adults. *Am Heart J*. 2011;161(5):979-85. PMID: 21570532. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ahj.2011.02.003
- 47. Eason SL, Petersen NJ, Suarez-Almazor M, et al. Diabetes mellitus, smoking, and the risk for asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease: whom should we screen? *J Am Board Fam Pract*. 2005;18(5):355-61. PMID: 16148245.
- 48. Alzamora MT, Fores R, Baena-Diez JM, et al. The peripheral arterial disease study (PERART/ARTPER): prevalence and risk factors in the general population. *BMC Public Health*. 2010;10:38. PMID. 10.1186/1471-2458-10-38
- 49. Ramos R, Quesada M, Solanas P, et al. Prevalence of symptomatic and asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease and the value of the ankle-brachial index to stratify cardiovascular risk. *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg*. 2009;38(3):305-11. PMID. 10.1016/j.ejvs.2009.04.013

- Berger JS, Hochman J, Lobach I, et al. Modifiable risk factor burden and the prevalence of peripheral artery disease in different vascular territories. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 2013;58(3):673-81.e1. PMID: 23642926. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2013.01.053</u>
- Collins R, Burch J, Cranny G, et al. Duplex ultrasonography, magnetic resonance angiography, and computed tomography angiography for diagnosis and assessment of symptomatic, lower limb peripheral arterial disease: systematic review. *BMJ*. 2007;334(7606):1257. PMID: 17548364. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.39217.473275.55</u>
- 52. Abramson BL, Huckell V, Anand S, et al. Canadian Cardiovascular Society Consensus Conference: peripheral arterial disease - executive summary. *Can J Cardiol.* 2005;21(12):997-1006. PMID: 16234879.
- 53. Mohler E, 3rd, Giri J, Acc, et al. Management of peripheral arterial disease patients: comparing the ACC/AHA and TASC-II guidelines. *Curr Med Res Opin*. 2008;24(9):2509-22. PMID: 18664318. http://dx.doi.org/10.1185/03007990802274379
- Menke J, Larsen J. Meta-analysis: Accuracy of contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance angiography for assessing steno-occlusions in peripheral arterial disease. *Ann Intern Med*. 2010;153(5):325-34. PMID: 20820041. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-153-5-</u> 201009070-00007
- 55. Met R, Bipat S, Legemate DA, et al. Diagnostic performance of computed tomography angiography in peripheral arterial disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA*. 2009;301(4):415-24. PMID: 19176443. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.301.4.415</u>
- 56. Society for Vascular Surgery Lower Extremity Guidelines Writing Group, Conte MS, Pomposelli FB, et al. Society for Vascular Surgery practice guidelines for atherosclerotic occlusive disease of the lower extremities: management of asymptomatic disease and claudication. *J Vasc Surg*. 2015;61(3 Suppl):2S-41S. PMID: 25638515. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2014.12.009
- 57. Hiatt WR. Medical treatment of peripheral arterial disease and claudication. *N Engl J Med*. 2001;344(21):1608-21. PMID. 10.1056/NEJM200105243442108
- 58. Gornik HL, Garcia B, Wolski K, et al. Validation of a method for determination of the ankle-brachial index in the seated position. *J Vasc Surg*. 2008;48(5):1204-10. PMID: 18829231. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2008.06.052
- 59. Hamel JF, Foucaud D, Fanello S. Comparison of the automated oscillometric method with the gold standard Doppler ultrasound method to access the ankle-brachial pressure index. *Angiology*. 2010;61(5):487-91. PMID: 20211935. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0003319709360522
- 60. Reed JF, 3rd, Eid S, Edris B, et al. Prevalence of peripheral artery disease varies significantly depending upon the method of calculating ankle brachial index. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehabil*. 2009;16(3):377-81. PMID: 19369879. http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/HJR.0b013e32832955e2
- Allison MA, Aboyans V, Granston T, et al. The relevance of different methods of calculating the ankle-brachial index: the multi-ethnic study of atherosclerosis. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2010;171(3):368-76. PMID: 20042436. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwp382</u>
- 62. Lange SF, Trampisch HJ, Pittrow D, et al. Profound influence of different methods for determination of the ankle brachial index on the prevalence estimate of peripheral arterial disease. *BMC Public Health*. 2007;7:147. PMID.
- 63. Aboyans V, Criqui MH, Abraham P, et al. Measurement and interpretation of the anklebrachial index: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*.

2012;126(24):2890-909. PMID: 23159553. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIR.0b013e318276fbcb

- 64. Andras A, Ferket B. Screening for peripheral arterial disease. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2014;7(4). PMID: 24711093. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD010835.pub2
- 65. Gerhard-Herman MD, Gornik HL, Barrett C, et al. 2016 AHA/ACC Guideline on the Management of Patients With Lower Extremity Peripheral Artery Disease: A Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines. *Circulation*. 2016;135(12):e726-e79. PMID: 27840333. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIR.000000000000471
- 66. Rosero EB, Kane K, Clagett GP, et al. A systematic review of the limitations and approaches to improve detection and management of peripheral arterial disease in Hispanics. *J Vasc Surg*. 2010;51(4 Suppl):27S-35S. PMID: 19939610. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2009.08.085
- 67. Mohler ER, III, Treat-Jacobson D, Reilly MP, et al. Utility and barriers to performance of the ankle-brachial index in primary care practice. *Vasc Med*. 2004;9(4):253-60. PMID: 15678616. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1191/1358863x04vm559oa</u>
- Levin DC, Gardiner GA, Jr., Parker L, et al. Vascular Ultrasound and Noninvasive Physiological Testing for Peripheral Arterial Disease: Are These Tests Being Overused? J Am Coll Radiol. 2015. PMID: 26603096. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacr.2015.08.024</u>
- Alahdab F, Wang AT, Elraiyah TA, et al. A systematic review for the screening for peripheral arterial disease in asymptomatic patients. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 2015;61(3 Suppl):42S-53S. PMID: 25721066. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2014.12.008</u>
- 70. Rooke TW, Hirsch AT, Misra S, et al. Management of patients with peripheral artery disease (compilation of 2005 and 2011 ACCF/AHA Guideline Recommendations): a report of the American College of Cardiology Foundation/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2013;61(14):1555-70. PMID: 23473760. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2013.01.004
- 71. Goff DC, Jr., Lloyd-Jones DM, Bennett G, et al. 2013 ACC/AHA guideline on the assessment of cardiovascular risk: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2014;63(25 Pt B):2935-59. PMID: 24239921. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2013.11.005
- 72. American Academy of Family Physicians. *Peripheral Arterial Disease*. Leawood, KS: American Academy of Family Physicians; 2015. Available from: http://www.aafp.org/patient-care/clinical-recommendations/all/pad.html.
- Moyer VA, U. S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for peripheral artery disease and cardiovascular disease risk assessment with the ankle-brachial index in adults: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. [Summary for patients in Ann Intern Med. 2013 Sep 3;159(5):I-28; PMID: 24026333]. *Annals of Internal Medicine*. 2013;159(5):342-8. PMID: 24026320. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-159-5-201309030-00008</u>
- 74. Lin JS, Evans CV, Johnson E, et al. *Nontraditional Risk Factors in Cardiovascular Disease Risk Assessment: A Systematic Evidence Report for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force*. Rockville, MD.: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2017.

- 75. Lin JS, Olson CM, Johnson ES, et al. *The Ankle Brachial Index for Peripheral Artery Disease Screening and Cardiovascular Disease Prediction in Asymptomatic Adults: A Systematic Evidence Review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force*. Rockville (MD): Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (US); 2013. 12-05162-EF-1.
- 76. Brownrigg JR, Hinchliffe RJ, Apelqvist J, et al. Effectiveness of bedside investigations to diagnose peripheral artery disease among people with diabetes mellitus: a systematic review. *Diabetes/MetabolismResearchReviews*. 2016;32 Suppl 1:119-27. PMID: 26342170. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/dmrr.2703
- 77. Crawford F, Welch K, Andras A, et al. *Ankle brachial index for the diagnosis of lower limb peripheral arterial disease*. 2016. 1465-1858. Available from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD010680.pub2.
- 78. Lane R, Ellis B, Watson L, et al. Exercise for intermittent claudication. Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews. 2014;7:CD000990. PMID: 25037027. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD000990.pub3
- Lyu X, Li S, Peng S, et al. Intensive walking exercise for lower extremity peripheral arterial disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Diabetes*. 2016;8(3):363-77. PMID: 25940390. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1753-0407.12304</u>
- Parmenter BJ, Dieberg G, Phipps G, et al. Exercise training for health-related quality of life in peripheral artery disease: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Vascular Medicine*. 2015;20(1):30-40. PMID: 25432991. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1358863X14559092</u>
- Qian J, Yang XH. A Meta-Analysis of Randomized Controlled Trials on Antiplatelet Agents Versus Placebo/Control for Treating Peripheral Artery Disease. *Medicine*. 2015;94(31):e1293. PMID: 26252306. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1097/MD.00000000001293</u>
- 82. Raparelli V, Proietti M, Napoleone L, et al. Asymptomatic peripheral artery disease and antiplatelet management. *Vasa*. 2014;43(5):309-25. PMID: 25147008. http://dx.doi.org/10.1024/0301-1526/a000369
- 83. Xu D, Zou L, Xing Y, et al. Diagnostic value of ankle-brachial index in peripheral arterial disease: a meta-analysis. *Canadian Journal of Cardiology*. 2013;29(4):492-8. PMID: 22926041. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.cjca.2012.06.014
- 84. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Procedure Manual. Rockville, MD: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force; 2015. Available from: http://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/Page/Name/methods-and-processes
- 85. Regensteiner JG, Steiner JF, Hiatt WR. Exercise training improves functional status in patients with peripheral arterial disease. *J Vasc Surg*. 1996;23(1):104-15. PMID: 8558725.
- 86. Jain A, Liu K, Ferrucci L, et al. The Walking Impairment Questionnaire stair-climbing score predicts mortality in men and women with peripheral arterial disease. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 2012;55(6):1662-73.e2. PMID: 22608041. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2011.12.010
- 87. Ransohoff DF, Feinstein AR. Problems of spectrum and bias in evaluating the efficacy of diagnostic tests. *N Engl J Med*. 1978;299(17):926-30. PMID: 692598. http://dx.doi.org/10.1056/NEJM197810262991705
- 88. Lijmer JG, Mol BW, Heisterkamp S, et al. Empirical evidence of design-related bias in studies of diagnostic tests. *JAMA*. 1999;282(11):1061-6. PMID: 10493205. http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.282.11.1061

- Whiting P, Rutjes AW, Reitsma JB, et al. Sources of variation and bias in studies of diagnostic accuracy: a systematic review. *Ann Intern Med*. 2004;140(3):189-202. PMID: 14757617. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-140-3-200402030-00010</u>
- 90. Rutjes AW, Reitsma JB, Di Nisio M, et al. Evidence of bias and variation in diagnostic accuracy studies. *CMAJ*. 2006;174(4):469-76. PMID: 16477057. http://dx.doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.050090
- Leeflang MM, Bossuyt PM, Irwig L. Diagnostic test accuracy may vary with prevalence: implications for evidence-based diagnosis. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2009;62(1):5-12. PMID: 18778913. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2008.04.007</u>
- 92. Whiting PF, Rutjes AW, Westwood ME, et al. QUADAS-2: a revised tool for the quality assessment of diagnostic accuracy studies. *Ann Intern Med*. 2011;155(8):529-36. PMID: 22007046. http://dx.doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-155-8-201110180-00009
- Lewis JE, Owens DR. The pulse volume recorder as a measure of peripheral vascular status in people with diabetes mellitus. *Diabetes Technol Ther*. 2010;12(1):75-80. PMID: 20082588. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1089/dia.2009.0061</u>
- 94. McDermott MM, Tiukinhoy S, Greenland P, et al. A pilot exercise intervention to improve lower extremity functioning in peripheral arterial disease unaccompanied by intermittent claudication. *J Cardiopulm Rehabil*. 2004;24:187-96. PMID: 15235301.
- 95. Mehler PS, Coll JR, Estacio R, et al. Intensive blood pressure control reduces the risk of cardiovascular events in patients with peripheral arterial disease and type 2 diabetes. *Circulation*. 2003;107(5):753-6. PMID: 12578880. <u>https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000049640.46039.52</u>
- 96. Agresti A, Coull BA. Approximate is Better than "Exact" for Interval Estimation of Binomial Proportions. *The American Statistician*. 1998;52(2):119-26. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2685469
- 97. Guirguis-Blake JM, Evans CV, Senger CA, et al. Aspirin for the Primary Prevention of Cardiovascular Events: A Systematic Evidence Review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Evidence Synthesis No. 131. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2015. 13-05195-EF-1. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26491760.
- 98. Belch J, MacCuish A, Campbell I, et al. The prevention of progression of arterial disease and diabetes (POPADAD) trial: factorial randomised placebo controlled trial of aspirin and antioxidants in patients with diabetes and asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease. *BMJ*. 2008;337:a1840. PMID: 18927173. <u>https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.a1840</u>
- 99. Abrams KR, Gillies CL, Lambert PC. Meta-analysis of heterogeneously reported trials assessing change from baseline. *Stat Med*. 2005;24(24):3823-44. PMID: 16320285. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/sim.2423
- 100. Berkman N, Lohr K, Ansari M, et al. Grading the Strength of a Body of Evidence When Assessing Health Care Interventions for the Effective Health Care Program of the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality: An Update. Methods Guide for Effectiveness and Comparative Effectiveness Reviews. AHRQ Publication No. 10(14)-EHC063-EF. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2014. p. 314-49.
- 101. Atkins D, Eccles M, Flottorp S, et al. Systems for grading the quality of evidence and the strength of recommendations I: critical appraisal of existing approaches The GRADE Working Group. *BMC Health Serv Res*. 2004;4(1):38. PMID: 15615589. http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1472-6963-4-38

- 102. Fowkes FG, Price JF, Stewart MC, et al. Aspirin for prevention of cardiovascular events in a general population screened for a low ankle brachial index: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2010;303(9):841-8. PMID: 20197530. <u>https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2010.221</u>
- 103. Wikstrom J, Hansen T, Johansson L, et al. Ankle brachial index <0.9 underestimates the prevalence of peripheral artery occlusive disease assessed with whole-body magnetic resonance angiography in the elderly. *Acta Radiol*. 2008;49(2):143-9. PMID: 18300136. https://doi.org/10.1080/02841850701732957
- 104. Wikstrom J, Hansen T, Johansson L, et al. Lower extremity artery stenosis distribution in an unselected elderly population and its relation to a reduced ankle-brachial index. *J Vasc Surg.* 2009;50(2):330-4. PMID: 19446989. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2009.03.008</u>
- 105. Collins TC, Johnson SL, Souchek J. Unsupervised walking therapy and atherosclerotic riskfactor management for patients with peripheral arterial disease: a pilot trial. *Ann Behav Med*. 2007;33(3):318-24. PMID: 17600459. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/08836610701360181</u>
- 106. Fowler B, Jamrozik K, Norman P, et al. Improving maximum walking distance in early peripheral arterial disease: randomised controlled trial. *Aust J Physiother*. 2002;48(4):269-75. PMID: 12443521. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0004-9514(14)60166-5</u>
- 107. Diederichsen AC, Rasmussen LM, Sogaard R, et al. The Danish Cardiovascular Screening Trial (DANCAVAS): study protocol for a randomized controlled trial. *Trials*. 2015;16:554.
 PMID: 26637993. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13063-015-1082-6</u>
- 108. Betriu A, Farras C, Abajo M, et al. Randomised intervention study to assess the prevalence of subclinical vascular disease and hidden kidney disease and its impact on morbidity and mortality: The ILERVAS project. *Nefrologia*. 2016;36(4):389-96. PMID: 27044887. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.nefro.2016.02.008
- 109. Lindholt JS, Søgaard R. Population screening and intervention for vascular disease in Danish men (VIVA): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2017;390(10109):2256-65. PMID: 28859943. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(17)32250-X</u>
- 110. Lind L, Fors N, Hall J, et al. A comparison of three different methods to evaluate endothelium-dependent vasodilation in the elderly: the Prospective Investigation of the Vasculature in Uppsala Seniors (PIVUS) study. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.* 2005;25(11):2368-75. PMID: 16141402. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/01.ATV.0000184769.22061.da
- 111. Calfas KJ, Long BJ, Sallis JF, et al. A controlled trial of physician counseling to promote the adoption of physical activity. *Prev Med*. 1996;25(3):225-33. PMID: 8780999. http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/pmed.1996.0050
- 112. Grondal N, Sogaard R, Henneberg EW, et al. The Viborg Vascular (VIVA) screening trial of 65-74 year old men in the central region of Denmark: study protocol. *Trials* [Electronic *Resource*]. 2010;11:67. PMID: 20507582. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1745-6215-11-67</u>
- 113. Tehan PE, Chuter VH. A targeted screening method for non-invasive vascular assessment of the lower limb. *J Foot Ankle Res*. 2016;9:48. PMID: 27980685. <u>https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s13047-016-0181-2</u>
- 114. McDermott MM, Guralnik JM, Greenland P, et al. Statin use and leg functioning in patients with and without lower-extremity peripheral arterial disease. *Circulation*. 2003;107(5):757-61. PMID: 12578881. <u>https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000050380.64025.07</u>
- 115. Vidula H, Tian L, Liu K, et al. Comparison of effects of statin use on mortality in patients with peripheral arterial disease with versus without elevated C-reactive protein and d-dimer

levels. *Am J Cardiol*. 2010;105(9):1348-52. PMID: 20403491. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.amjcard.2009.12.054

- 116. Sander K, Bickel H, Schulze Horn C, et al. [Peripheral arterial disease: predictors and treatment intensity. Two-years of data from the population-based INVADE project]. Dtsch Med Wochenschr. 2008;133(10):455-9. PMID: 18302095. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1055/s-2008-1046731</u>
- 117. Ramos R, García-Gil M, Comas-Cufí M, et al. Statins for Prevention of Cardiovascular Events in a Low-Risk Population With Low Ankle Brachial Index. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2016;67(6):630-40. PMID: 26868687. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2015.11.052</u>
- 118. Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services. Decision Memo for Supervised Exercise Therapy (SET) for Symptomatic Peripheral Artery Disease (PAD) (CAG-00449N). <u>https://www.cms.gov/medicare-coverage-database/details/nca-decision-</u> memo.aspx?NCAId=287. Accessed: August 25, 2017.
- 119. Davies JH, Richards J, Conway K, et al. Primary care screening for peripheral arterial disease: a cross-sectional observational study. *Br J Gen Pract*. 2017;67(655):e103-e10. PMID: 28126882. http://dx.doi.org/10.3399/bjgp17X689137
- 120. Grau M, Baena-Diez JM, Felix-Redondo FJ, et al. Estimating the risk of peripheral artery disease using different population strategies. *Preventive Medicine*. 2013;57(4):328-33. PMID: 23769902. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ypmed.2013.06.007</u>
- 121. Zhan Y, Zhuang J, Dong Y, et al. Predicting the prevalence of peripheral arterial diseases: modelling and validation in different cohorts. *Vasa*. 2016;45(1):31-6. PMID: 26986707. http://dx.doi.org/10.1024/0301-1526/a000492
- 122. Shah S, Antoniou GA, Torella F. Evidence-based analysis of peripheral arterial disease screening based on the WHO criteria. *Int Angiol.* 2015;4:4. PMID: 26344513. http://dx.doi.org/10.23736/S0392-9590.17.03468-X
- 123. Bedenis R, Stewart M, Cleanthis M, et al. Cilostazol for intermittent claudication. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2014;10:CD003748. PMID: 25358850. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD003748.pub4
- 124. Salhiyyah K, Senanayake E, Abdel-Hadi M, et al. Pentoxifylline for intermittent claudication. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2012;1:CD005262. PMID: 22258961. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD005262.pub2</u>
- 125. Wong PF, Chong LY, Mikhailidis DP, et al. Antiplatelet agents for intermittent claudication. *Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews*. 2011;11:CD001272. PMID: 22071801. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD001272.pub2</u>
- 126. Aung PP, Maxwell HG, Jepson RG, et al. Lipid-lowering for peripheral arterial disease of the lower limb. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2007(4):CD000123. PMID: 17943736. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD000123.pub2
- 127. Lauret GJ, Fakhry F, Fokkenrood HJ, et al. Modes of exercise training for intermittent claudication. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2014(7):CD009638. PMID: 24993079. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD009638.pub2
- 128. Jude EB, Oyibo SO, Chalmers N, et al. Peripheral arterial disease in diabetic and nondiabetic patients: a comparison of severity and outcome. *Diabetes Care*. 2001;24(8):1433-7. PMID: 11473082. https://doi.org/10.2337/diacare.24.8.1433
- 129. Faglia E, Caravaggi C, Marchetti R, et al. Screening for peripheral arterial disease by means of the ankle-brachial index in newly diagnosed Type 2 diabetic patients. *Diabetic Medicine*. 2005;22(10):1310-4. PMID: 16176188. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-5491.2005.01612.x</u>

- 130. Criqui MH, McClelland RL, McDermott MM, et al. The ankle-brachial index and incident cardiovascular events in the MESA (Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis). J Am Coll Cardiol. 2010;56(18):1506-12. PMID: 20951328. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2010.04.060
- 131. Murabito JM, Evans JC, Nieto K, et al. Prevalence and clinical correlates of peripheral arterial disease in the Framingham Offspring Study. *Am Heart J*. 2002;143(6):961-5. PMID: 12075249. https://doi.org/10.1067/mhj.2002.122871
- 132. Faglia E. Characteristics of peripheral arterial disease and its relevance to the diabetic population. *Int J Low Extrem Wounds*. 2011;10(3):152-66. PMID: 21856972. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1534734611417352
- 133. American Diabetes Association. Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes-2017. *Diabetes Care*. 2017;40(Suppl 1):S1-S135. PMID: 27979887. http://dx.doi.org/10.2337/dc17-S003
- 134. McDermott MM, Guralnik JM, Ferrucci L, et al. Asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease is associated with more adverse lower extremity characteristics than intermittent claudication. *Circulation*. 2008;117(19):2484-91. PMID: 18458172. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.107.736108
- 135. McDermott MM, Applegate WB, Bonds DE, et al. Ankle brachial index values, leg symptoms, and functional performance among community-dwelling older men and women in the lifestyle interventions and independence for elders study. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2013;2(6):e000257. PMID: 24222666. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/JAHA.113.000257
- 136. McDermott MM, Kerwin DR, Liu K, et al. Prevalence and significance of unrecognized lower extremity peripheral arterial disease in general medicine practice*. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2001;16(6):384-90. PMID: 11422635 <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1046/j.1525-1497.2001.016006384.x</u>
- 137. Wassel CL, Allison MA, Ix JH, et al. Ankle-brachial index predicts change over time in functional status in the San Diego Population Study. *J Vasc Surg*. 2016;64(3):656-62e1. PMID: 27139783. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2016.02.066</u>
- 138. McDermott MM, Fried L, Simonsick E, et al. Asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease is independently associated with impaired lower extremity functioning: the women's health and aging study. *Circulation*. 2000;101(9):1007-12. PMID: 10704168. https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.101.9.1007
- 139. Collins TC, Petersen NJ, Suarez-Almazor M, et al. The prevalence of peripheral arterial disease in a racially diverse population. *Arch Intern Med*. 2003;163(12):1469-74. PMID: 12824097. http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/archinte.163.12.1469
- 140. McDermott MM, Liu K, Guralnik JM, et al. Home-based walking exercise intervention in peripheral artery disease: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA*. 2013;310(1):57-65. PMID: 23821089. http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.7231
- 141. McDermott MM, Ades P, Guralnik JM, et al. Treadmill exercise and resistance training in patients with peripheral arterial disease with and without intermittent claudication: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA*. 2009;301(2):165-74. PMID: 19141764. http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2008.962
- 142. McDermott MM, Guralnik JM, Criqui MH, et al. Home-based walking exercise in peripheral artery disease: 12-month follow-up of the GOALS randomized trial. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2014;3(3):e000711. PMID: 24850615. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/JAHA.113.000711</u>
- 143. Rejeski WJ, Spring B, Domanchuk K, et al. A group-mediated, home-based physical activity intervention for patients with peripheral artery disease: effects on social and

psychological function. *J Transl Med*. 2014;12:29. PMID: 24467875. http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1479-5876-12-29

- 144. Fowkes FG, Murray GD, Butcher I, et al. Development and validation of an ankle brachial index risk model for the prediction of cardiovascular events. *Eur J Prev Cardiol*. 2014;21(3):310-20. PMID: 24367001. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/2047487313516564
- 145. Campens L, Backer T, Simoens S, et al. Accuracy of oscillometric determination of the anklebrachial index as screening method for peripheral artery disease. *Acta Cardiol*. 2012;67(1):136-7.
- 146. Kollias A, Xilomenos A, Protogerou A, et al. Automated determination of the ankle-brachial index using an oscillometric blood pressure monitor: validation vs. Doppler measurement and cardiovascular risk factor profile. *Hypertens Res*. 2011;34(7):825-30. PMID: 21593742. http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/hr.2011.53
- 147. McDermott MM, Reed G, Greenland P, et al. Activating peripheral arterial disease patients to reduce cholesterol: a randomized trial. *Am J Med*. 2011;124(6):557-65. PMID: 21605733. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amjmed.2010.11.032
- 148. de Vries M, Ouwendijk R, Kessels AG, et al. Comparison of generic and disease-specific questionnaires for the assessment of quality of life in patients with peripheral arterial disease. J Vasc Surg. 2005;41(2):261-8. PMID: 15768008. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2004.11.022
- 149. U. S. Preventive Services Task Force, Bibbins-Domingo K, Grossman DC, et al. Statin Use for the Primary Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease in Adults: US Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement. *JAMA*. 2016;316(19):1997-2007. PMID: 27838723. <u>https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2016.15450</u>
- 150. Stone NJ, Robinson JG, Lichtenstein AH, et al. 2013 ACC/AHA guideline on the treatment of blood cholesterol to reduce atherosclerotic cardiovascular risk in adults: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2014;63(25 Pt B):2889-934. PMID: 24239923. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2013.11.002
- 151. Bibbins-Domingo K, Force USPST. Aspirin Use for the Primary Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease and Colorectal Cancer: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation Statement. *Ann Intern Med.* 2016. PMID. 10.7326/M16-0577
- 152. Dehmer SP, Maciosek MV, Flottemesch TJ. Aspirin Use to Prevent Cardiovascular Disease and Colorectal Cancer: A Decision Analysis: Technical Report. Rockville (MD)2015.
- 153. The Danish Cardiovascular Screening Trial (DANCAVAS). ISRCTN12157806. . http://www.isrctn.com/ISRCTN12157806. Accessed.
- 154. Aboyans V, Ricco JB, Bartelink MEL, et al. 2017 ESC Guidelines on the Diagnosis and Treatment of Peripheral Arterial Diseases, in collaboration with the European Society for Vascular Surgery (ESVS): Document covering atherosclerotic disease of extracranial carotid and vertebral, mesenteric, renal, upper and lower extremity arteriesEndorsed by: the European Stroke Organization (ESO)The Task Force for the Diagnosis and Treatment of Peripheral Arterial Diseases of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and of the European Society for Vascular Surgery (ESVS). *Eur Heart J*. 2018;39(9):763-816. PMID: 28886620. <u>https://doi.org/10.1093/eurheartj/ehx095</u>
- 155. American Academy of Family Physicians. *Summary of Recommendations for Clinical Preventive Services*. Leawood, Kansas: American Academy of Family Physicians; 2017. Available from:

https://www.aafp.org/dam/AAFP/documents/patient_care/clinical_recommendations/cps-recommendations.pdf.

- 156. Layden J, Michaels J, Bermingham S, et al. Diagnosis and management of lower limb peripheral arterial disease: summary of NICE guidance. *BMJ*. 2012;345:e4947. PMID: 22875949. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmj.e4947</u>
- 157. Lim LS, Haq N, Mahmood S, et al. Atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease screening in adults: American College Of Preventive Medicine position statement on preventive practice. *Am J Prev Med*. 2011;40(3):381-10. PMID: 21335273. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2010.11.021
- 158. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Guide to Clinical Preventive Services: Report of the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Baltimore, MD: Williams & Wilkins; 1996. 9780683085082.
- 159. Screening for Peripheral Arterial Disease: A Brief Evidence Update for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2005.
- 160. Vogt MT, Cauley JA, Newman AB, et al. Decreased ankle/arm blood pressure index and mortality in elderly women. *JAMA*. 1993;270(4):465-9. PMID: 8320785. http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.1993.03510040069031
- 161. Moneta GL, Strandness DE, Jr. Peripheral arterial duplex scanning. *J Clin Ultrasound*. 1987;15(9):645-51. PMID: 3119669.
- 162. Strandness DE, Didisheim P, Clowes AW, et al. Vascular Diseases: Current Research and Clinical Applications. 1987.
- 163. Criqui MH, Fronek A, Klauber MR, et al. The sensitivity, specificity, and predictive value of traditional clinical evaluation of peripheral arterial disease: results from noninvasive testing in a defined population. *Circulation*. 1985;71(3):516-22. PMID: 3156007. https://doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.71.3.516
- 164. Barnes RW. Noninvasive diagnostic techniques in peripheral vascular disease. Am Heart J. 1979;97(2):241-58. PMID: 153709.
- 165. Hanssen NM, Huijberts MS, Schalkwijk CG, et al. Associations Between the Ankle-Brachial Index and Cardiovascular and All-Cause Mortality Are Similar in Individuals Without and With Type 2 Diabetes: Nineteen-year follow-up of a population-based cohort study. *Diabetes Care*. 2012;35(8):1731-5. PMID: 22699294. http://dx.doi.org/10.2337/dc12-0178
- 166. Kavousi M, Elias-Smale S, Rutten JH, et al. Evaluation of newer risk markers for coronary heart disease risk classification: a cohort study. *Ann Intern Med*. 2012;156(6):438-44. PMID: 22431676. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-156-6-201203200-00006</u>
- 167. Murphy TP, Dhangana R, Pencina MJ, et al. Ankle-brachial index and cardiovascular risk prediction: An analysis of 11,594 individuals with 10-year follow-up. *Atherosclerosis*. 2012;220(1):160-7. PMID: 22099055. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2011.10.037
- 168. Yeboah J, McClelland RL, Polonsky TS, et al. Comparison of novel risk markers for improvement in cardiovascular risk assessment in intermediate-risk individuals. *JAMA*. 2012;308(8):788-95. PMID: 22910756. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1001/jama.2012.9624</u>
- 169. Rodondi N, Marques-Vidal P, Butler J, et al. Markers of atherosclerosis and inflammation for prediction of coronary heart disease in older adults. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2010;171(5):540-9. PMID: 20110287. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwp428

- 170. Sutton-Tyrrell K, Venkitachalam L, Kanaya AM, et al. Relationship of ankle blood pressures to cardiovascular events in older adults. *Stroke*. 2008;39(3):863-9. PMID: 18258843. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/STROKEAHA.107.487439</u>
- 171. Price JF, Tzoulaki I, Lee AJ, et al. Ankle brachial index and intima media thickness predict cardiovascular events similarly and increased prediction when combined. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2007;60(10):1067-75. PMID: 17884603. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2007.01.011</u>
- 172. Weatherley BD, Nelson JJ, Heiss G, et al. The association of the ankle-brachial index with incident coronary heart disease: the Atherosclerosis Risk In Communities (ARIC) study, 1987-2001. BMC Cardiovasc Disord. 2007;7:3. PMID: 17227586. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2261-7-3</u>
- 173. Lee AJ, Price JF, Russell MJ, et al. Improved prediction of fatal myocardial infarction using the ankle brachial index in addition to conventional risk factors: the Edinburgh Artery Study. *Circulation*. 2004;110(19):3075-80. PMID: 15477416. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000143102.38256.DE
- 174. van der Meer IM, Bots ML, Hofman A, et al. Predictive value of noninvasive measures of atherosclerosis for incident myocardial infarction: the Rotterdam Study. *Circulation*. 2004;109(9):1089-94. PMID: 14993130. http://dx.doi.org/10.1161/01.CIR.0000120708.59903.1B
- 175. Abbott RD, Rodriguez BL, Petrovitch H, et al. Ankle-brachial blood pressure in elderly men and the risk of stroke: the Honolulu Heart Program. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2001;54(10):973-8. PMID: 11576807. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0895-4356(01)00373-0</u>
- 176. Abbott RD, Petrovitch H, Rodriguez BL, et al. Ankle/brachial blood pressure in men >70 years of age and the risk of coronary heart disease. *Am J Cardiol*. 2000;86(3):280-4. PMID: 10922433. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0002-9149(00)00914-0</u>
- 177. Tsai AW, Folsom AR, Rosamond WD, et al. Ankle-brachial index and 7-year ischemic stroke incidence: the ARIC study. *Stroke*. 2001;32(8):1721-4. PMID: 11486096. https://doi.org/10.1161/01.STR.32.8.1721
- 178. Tornwall M, Virtamo J, Haukka JK, et al. Effect of alpha-tocopherol (vitamin E) and betacarotene supplementation on the incidence of intermittent claudication in male smokers. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 1997;17(12):3475-80. PMID: 9437195. <u>https://doi.org/10.1161/01.ATV.17.12.3475</u>
- 179. Berger JS, Lala A, Krantz MJ, et al. Aspirin for the prevention of cardiovascular events in patients without clinical cardiovascular disease: a meta-analysis of randomized trials. Am Heart J. 2011;162(1):115-24 e2. PMID: 21742097. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ahj.2011.04.006
- 180. McDermott MM, Liu K, Guralnik JM, et al. Measurement of walking endurance and walking velocity with questionnaire: validation of the walking impairment questionnaire in men and women with peripheral arterial disease. J Vasc Surg. 1998;28(6):1072-81. PMID: 9845659. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/S0741-5214(98)70034-5</u>



Abbre viations: ABI = ankle-brachial index; PAD = peripheral artery disease

Table 1. Recommendations of Other Organizations for Screening for PAD With the ABI in Individuals Without History or Physical Examination Findings Suggestive of PAD

		ESC 2017 ¹⁵⁴	AHA/ACC 2016 ⁶⁵	SVS 2015 ⁵⁶	USPSTF 2013 ⁷³	AAFP 2017 ¹⁵⁵	NICE 2012 ¹⁵⁶	ACPM 2011 ¹⁵⁷
otomatic th no risks	Population	NA	Adults not at increased risk of PAD and without history or physical examination findings suggestive of PAD	Adults with the absence of risk factors, history, signs, or symptoms of PAD	Adults w ith no know n diagnosis of PAD, CVD, severe CKD, or DM	Endorses USPSTF 2013	NA	Adults
Asymp adults wi	Recommendation (Grade)	NA	No (Class III: No benefit; B-NR)*	No (2;C)†	No (I statement)‡	No (I statement)‡	NA	No (NA)
ymptomatic adults with elevated risks	Population	Aged >65 y; Aged <65 y classified at high CVD risk according to ESC guidelines; aged >50 y with family history; know n atherosclerotic disease (CAD, any PAD), AAA, CKD, heart failure	Aged ≥65 y; Age 50-64 y with risk factors for atherosclerosis (e.g., DM, history of smoking, hyperlipidemia, hypertension) or family history of PAD; Age <50 y with DM and 1 other risk factor for atherosclerosis; know n atherosclerosis; know n atherosclerosic disease in another vascular bed (e.g., coronary, carotid, subclavian, renal, mesenteric artery stenosis, or AAA)	Aged >70 y, smokers, DM; abnormal pulse examination; or other established CVD	NA	Endorses USPSTF 2013	Adults ≥18 y; symptoms suggestive of PAD or DM, nonhealing w ounds on legs or feet or unexplained leg pain or considered for interventions to the leg or foot or need to use compression hosiery	>50 y, smokers, and DM and with clinical evidence of vascular disease
Asi	Recommendation	NR	Yes, reasonable (Class Ila, B-NR)&	Yes, reasonable	NA	No (l statement)+	Yes, suspected	NA
-	(Grade)		B-NK)§	(2; C)†		statement)‡	PAD (NA)	

*Class of recommendation: Class III indicates no benefit where benefit=risk (moderate strength) and level B quality of evidence (nonrandomized designs)

[†]Defined as weak recommendation based on low-quality or very-low-quality evidence

‡I statement is insufficient to assess the balance of benefits and harms of service

\$Class of recommendation: Class IIa indicates moderate benefit where benefit >>risk (moderate strength) and level B quality of evidence (nonrandomized designs)

Abbreviations: AAA = abdominal a ortic aneurysm; ABI = ankle-brachial index; ACMP = American College of Preventive Medicine; AHA/ACC = American Heart Association and American College of Cardiology; CKD = chronic kidney disease; CVD = cardiovascular disease; AAFP = American Academy of Family Physicians; DM = diabetes mellitus; ESC = European Society of Cardiology; NA = not applicable; NR = not reported; SVS = Society for Vascular Surgery; USPSTF = United States Preventive Services Task Force; y = year(s)

		US	PSTF Reviewsa	nd Recommendations	
		D* for routine	D* for routine	I† for screening a	andrisk
USPSTF F	Recommendation	screening	screening	assessment with	the ABI
KQ	Study	1996 ¹⁵⁸	2005 ¹⁵⁹	2012 ⁷⁵	Current
KQ1	Fow ler 2002 ¹⁰⁶		Х		
Morbidity					
KQ2	Wikstrom 2009 ¹⁰⁴			Х	Х
Diagnostic	Wikstrom 2008 ¹⁰³			Х	Х
Accuracy	Vogt 1993 ¹⁶⁰	Х			
	Moneta 1987 ¹⁶¹	Х			
	Strandness 1987 ¹⁶²	Х			
	Criqui 1985 ¹⁶³	Х			
	Barnes 1979 ¹⁶⁴	Х			
KQ3	Wikstrom 2009 ¹⁰⁴				Х
Screening	Wikstrom 2008 ¹⁰³				Х
Harms					
Risk	Hoorn 2012 ¹⁶⁵			Х	
Prediction*	Kavousi 2012 ¹⁶⁶			Х	
	Murphy 2012 ¹⁶⁷			Х	
	Yeboah 2012 ¹⁶⁸			Х	
	Rodondi 2010 ¹⁶⁹			Х	
	Fow kes 2008 ³⁸			Х	
	Sutton-Tyrrell 2008 ¹⁷⁰			Х	
	Price 2007 ¹⁷¹			Х	
	Weatherley 2007 ¹⁷²			Х	
	O'Hare 2006 ²⁰			Х	
	Lee 2004 ¹⁷³			Х	
	Van der Meer 2004 ¹⁷⁴			Х	
	Abbott 2001 ¹⁷⁵			Х	
	Abbott 2000 ¹⁷⁶			Х	
	Tsai 2001 ¹⁷⁷			Х	
	Vogt 1993 ¹⁶⁰	Х			
KQ4	McDermott 2011 ¹⁴⁷			Х	
Treatment	Fow kes 2010 ¹⁰²			Х	Х
Benefit	Belch 2008 ⁹⁸				Х
	Collins 2007 ¹⁰⁵				Х
	McDermott 2003 ¹¹⁴		Х		
	Fow ler 2002 ¹⁰⁶				Х
	Tornw all 1997 ¹⁷⁸		Х		
KQ5	Fow kes 2010 ¹⁰²			Х	Х
Treatment	Belch 2008 ⁹⁸				Х
Harms					

Table 2. Comparison of Studies Included in Previous and Present USPSTF Reviews

*A D Recommendation is defined as: "The USPSTF recommends against the service. There is moderate or high certainty that the service has no net benefit or that the harms outweigh the benefits."

[†] An I Statement is defined as: "The USP STF concludes that the current evidence is insufficient to assess the balance of benefits and harms of the service. Evidence is lacking, of poor quality, or conflicting, and the balance of benefits and harms cannot be determined."

Abbreviations: ABI = ankle-brachial index; KQ = key question; USPSTF = United States Preventive Service Task Force

Table 3. Study and Participant Characteristics for KQ2: What Is the Diagnostic Accuracy of the ABI as a Screening Test for PAD in Generally Asymptomatic Adults?

Study name Author, Year	Quality	Country	N Analyzed	Recruitment setting and method	ABI cutoff	Reference standard	Mean age, years	% Women	% White	% Risk factor
PIVUS	Fair	Sw eden	306 (analyzed	Community;	<0.9	MRA	70	47.4	100†	Current
			as 268* right	Population-based						smoker: 7.8
Wikstrom,			and 265* left							
2008 ¹⁰³			limbs)							Hx MI: 6.9
										Hx CVA: 3.9
Wikstrom,										HTN meds: 33
2009 ¹⁰⁴										Hx DM: 10.6

*Number for whom ABI recordings and assessable MRA examinations were obtained †Assumed

Abbreviations: ABI = ankle-brachial index; DM = diabetes mellitus; HTN meds = anti-hypertensive medications; Hx = history; KQ = key question; MI = myocardial infarction; MRA = magnetic resonance angiography; N = sample size; PAD = peripheral artery disease; PIVUS = Prospective Investigation of the Vasculature in Uppsala Seniors

Study name	% with ABI		% Sensitivity/Specificity	% PPV/NPV	FPR/FNR
Author, Year	<0.9	% Stenosis on MRA	(95% CI)	(95% CI)	(95% CI)
PIVUS	Right leg	≥ 50% stenosis	Right leg	Right leg	Right leg
	12/268=4.5%		Sensitivity: 20 (10 to 34)	PPV: 83 (51 to 97)	FPR: 0.9% (0.0% to 3.5%)
Wikstrom,		Right leg	Specificity: 99 (96 to 100)	NPV: 84 (79 to 88)	FNR: 80.4% (67.4% to 89.2%)
2008 ¹⁰³	Left leg	51/268 =19.0%	,		
	11/265=4.2%		Left leg	Left leg	Left leg
Wikstrom,		Left leg	Sensitivity: 15 (7 to 27)	PPV: 82 (48 to 97)	FPR: 1.0% (0.0% to 3.7%)
2009 ¹⁰⁴		61/265= 23.0%	Specificity: 99 (96 to 100)	NPV: 80 (74 to 84)	FNR: 85.2% (74.0% to 92.3%)
		100% stenosis	Right leg	Right leg	Not calculated
			Sensitivity: 24 (11 to 42)	PPV: 67 (35 to 89)	
		Right leg	Specificity: 98 (95 to 99)	NPV: 90 (85 to 93)	
		34/268 =12.7%			
			Left leg	Left leg	
		Left leg	Sensitivity: 16 (7 to 33)	PPV: 55 (25 to 82)	
		37/265=14.0%	Specificity: 98 (95 to 99)	NPV: 88 (83 to 91)	

Abbreviations: ABI = ankle-brachial index; CI = confidence interval; FNR = false negative rate; FPR= false positive rate; KQ = key question; MRA = magnetic resonance angiography; NPV = negative predictive value; PAD = peripheral artery disease; PIVUS = Prospective Investigation of the Vasculature in Uppsala Seniors; PPV = positive predictive value

Table 5. Methodological and Intervention Characteristics for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Trial name Author, Year	N	Study design	Inclusion	Recruitment	ASA dose & formulation	ASA duration & mean follow up	Primary endpoint	Secondary endpoints	Adherence & crossover
AAA Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²	3,350	RCT	Men and women ages 50-75 years with no history of vascular disease and an ABI ≤0.95	Community health registry and community volunteer	100 mg daily, tablet, enteric coated	8.2 years*	Composite outcome: initial fatal or nonfatal coronary event or CVA or revascularization	 All initial vascular events, defined as a composite outcome: primary end point event or angina, intermittent claudication, or TIA; all-cause mortality 	Participants adhered to study medication for 60% of p-y of F/U. Effect on primary end point did not differ betw een those taking and not taking medication at 5 years
POPADAD Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	1,276	2x2 RCT, Antioxidant	Men and w omen age ≥40 years w ith diabetes, no symptomatic CVD, and an ABI ≤0.99	Diabetes clinics	100 mg daily, tablet, not enteric coated	6.7 years†	2 composite end points: 1) death from CHD or CVA, nonfatal MI or CVA, above ankle amputation for critical limb ischemia; 2) death from CHD or CVA	All-cause mortality; nonfatal Ml; and occurrence of other individual vascular events	At 1 year, 14% of participants stopped taking trial drugs; at 5 years, 50% (cumulative) of patients w ithdrew from trial therapy

*Terminated early

†Median

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis; ABI = ankle-brachial index; ASA = aspirin; CHD = coronary heart disease; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; F/U = followup; MI = myocardial infarction; N = number; PAD = peripheral arterial disease; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; RCT = randomized controlled trial; p-y = patient years; TIA = transient ischemic attack

Table 6. Participant Characteristics for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?**

Trial name Author,				Age, years	%	SBP/DBP, mmHg	TC, mg/dL	LDL,	HDL,	% with	% with	%	ABI	% Current	Annual risk of CVD
Year	Quality	Country	Ν	(mean)	Female	(mean)*	(mean)	mg/dL	mg/dL	DM†	Low ABI	Asymptomatic	(mean)	smokers	events (%)‡
AAA Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²	Good	Scotland	3,350	62.0	71.5	148/84	238 §	NR	NR	2.6	100.00 w ith an ABI ≤0.95II	100.0	0.86	33.0	0.99
POPADAD Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	Good	Scotland	1,276	60.3	55.9	145/79	213.3 ¶	120¶	47¶	100.0	100.0 w ith an ABI ≤0.99#	100.0	0.901	31.1	2.53

* Percent with hypertension not reported in either trial. In AAA, 15.2% were treated with a diuretic, 6.4% were treated with a nitrate or calcium channel blocker, 6.2% were treated with an angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor or angiotensin II receptor blocker, and 9.8% were treated with a beta blocker. Hypertension treatment was not reported in POPADAD.

†Mean fasting plasma glucose not reported; mean HbA1c was 8.0% in POPADAD and was not reported in AAA

[‡]Data are from Berger 2011 meta-analysis;¹⁷⁹ calculated as percent with cardiovascular events in control group/years followup

\$4.2% were on lipid-lowering treatment at baseline and 25% were treated at 5 years; use of lipid-lowing treatment was not reported in POPADAD.

Referred to as low ABI (not PAD)

¶ Median

Referred to as asymptomatic PAD

** Mean CVD risk score was not reported in either trial; no participants in either trial had prior CVD. Median body mass index in POPADAD was 29.2 and was not reported in AAA.

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis; <math>ABI = ankle-brachial index; CVD = cardiovascular disease; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; HbA1c = glycated hemoglobin; HDL = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; N = number; NR = not reported; PAD = peripheral arterial disease; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; SBP = systolic blood pressure; TC = total cholesterol

Table 7. Composite and Mortality Outcomes for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

	Trial name	Mean F/U,	IG	IG	CG	CG	IG vs. CG
Outcome	Author, Year	years	N Analyzed	N Events (%)	N Analyzed	N Events (%)	HR (95% CI)
Primary Composite	AAA	8.2	1,675	181 (10.8%)	1,675	176 (10.5%)	1.00 (0.81 to 1.23)†
CVD Outcome*	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	116 (18.2%)	638	117 (18.3%)	0.98 (0.76 to 1.26)
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Composite Fatal	AAA	8.2	1,675	35 (2.1%)§	1,675	30 (1.8%)§	1.17 (0.72 to 1.89)§I
Coronary Events +	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
CVA + CVD Death	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	43 (6.7%)	638	35 (5.5%)	1.23 (0.79 to 1.93)
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Composite Nonfatal	AAA	8.2	1,675	99 (5.9%)§	1,675	106 (6.3%)§	0.93 (0.72 to 1.22)§I
MI + CVA	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	84 (13.2%)§	638	97 (15.2%)§	0.87 (0.66 to 1.14)§I
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
All-Cause Mortality	AAA	8.2	1,675	176 (10.5%)	1,675	186 (11.1%)	0.95 (0.77 to 1.16)
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	94 (14.7%)	638	101 (15.8%)	0.93 (0.71 to 1.24)
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						

* Defined in AAA as: initial fatal or nonfatal coronary event or CVA or revascularization; defined in POPADAD as death from CHD or CVA, nonfatal MI or CVA, above ankle amputation for critical limb ischemia

† HR adjusted for baseline age, ankle-brachial index, cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, smoking, and socioeconomic status; unadjusted HR 1.03 (95% CI, 0.84 to 1.27) † Median

§ Calculated

| RR

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis Trial; Adj = adjusted; CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; CVD = cardiovascular disease; HR = hazard ratio; IG = intervention group; MI = myocardial infarction; N = sample size; NR = not reported; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; RR = relative risk

Table 8. Myocardial Infarction and Cerebrovascular Accident Outcomes for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

	Trial name	Mean	IG	IG	CG	CG	IG vs. CG
Outcome	Author, Year	F/U,yrs	N Analyzed	N Events (%)	N Analyzed	N Events (%)	HR (95% CI)
Nonfatal MI + coronary	AAA	8.2	1,675	90 (5.4%)*	1,675	86 (5.1%)*	1.05 (0.78 to 1.40)*†
death	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	90 (14.1%)*	638	82 (12.9%)*	1.10 (0.83 to 1.45)*†
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Fatal coronary event	AAA	8.2	1,675	28 (1.7%)	1,675	18 (1.1%)	1.56 (0.86 to 2.80)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	35 (5.5%)	638	26 (4.1%)	1.35 (0.81 to 2.25)
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Nonfatal MI	AAA	8.2	1,675	62 (3.7%)	1,675	68 (4.1%)	0.91 (0.65 to 1.28)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	55 (8.6%)	638	56 (8.8%)	0.98 (0.68 to 1.43)
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Total CVA	ААА	8.2	1,675	44 (2.6%)*	1,675	50 (3.0%)*	0.88 (0.59 to 1.31)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	37 (5.8%)*	638	50 (7.8%)*	0.74 (0.49 to 1.12)*†
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Fatal CVA	AAA	8.2	1,675	7 (0.4%)	1,675	12 (0.7%)	0.58 (0.23 to 1.48)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	8 (1.3%)	638	9 (1.4%)	0.89 (0.34 to 2.30)
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Nonfatal CVA	AAA	8.2	1,675	37 (2.2%)	1,675	38 (2.3%)	0.97 (0.62 to 1.52)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	29 (4.6%)	638	41 (6.4%)	0.71 (0.44 to 1.14)
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸						
Total ischemic CVA	AAA	8.2	1,675	30 (1.8%)*	1,675	37 (2.2%)*	0.81 (0.50 to 1.31)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
Fatal ischemic CVA	AAA	8.2	1,675	2 (0.1%)	1,675	7 (0.4%)	0.29 (0.06 to 1.37)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						
	POPADAD	6.7‡	638	3 (0.5%)	638	5 (0.8%)	0.60 (0.14 to 2.50)*†
	Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	-					
Nonfatal ischemic CVA	AAA	8.2	1,675	28 (1.7%)	1,675	30 (1.8%)	0.93 (0.56 to 1.56)*†
	Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²						

* Calculated.

† RR

‡ Median.

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis Trial; CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; HR = hazard ratio; IG = intervention group; N = population; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; RR = relative risk

Table 9. PAD-Specific Outcomes for Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Trial name Author, Year	Mean F/U, years	Outcome	IG N Analyzed	IG N Events (%)	CG N Analyzed	CG N Events (%)	IG vs.CG HR (95% CI)
AAA Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²	8.2	Development of IC	1,675	53 (3.2%)	1,675	53 (3.2%)	1.00 (1.00 to 1.00)*†
POPADAD Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	6.7‡	Development of IC	638	97 (15.2%)	638	107 (16.8%)	0.89 (0.68 to 1.18)
AAA Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²	8.2	Peripheral revascularization	1,675	23 (1.4%)	1,675	20 (1.2%)	1.15 (0.63 to 2.09)*†
POPADAD Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	6.7‡	Peripheral arterial bypass surgery	638	7 (1.1%)	638	5 (0.8%)	1.41 (0.45 to 4.43)
POPADAD Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	6.7‡	Peripheral arterial angioplasty	638	11 (1.7%)	638	13 (2.0%)	0.85 (0.38 to 1.89)
POPADAD Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	6.7‡	Above ankle amputation for critical limb ischemia	638	11 (1.7%)	638	9 (1.4%)	1.23 (0.51 to 2.97)

* Calculated

† RR

‡ Median

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis Trial; CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; HR = hazard ratio; IC = intermittent claudication; IG = intervention group; N = population; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; RR = relative risk.

Table 10. Age Subgroup Analyses for Reported Outcomes in Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Trial name Author, Year	Mean F/U, years	Type of analysis	Outcome	Age, years	IG N Analyzed	IG N Events (%)	CG N analyzed	CG N Events (%)	IG vs. CG HR (95% CI)	P-Value for interaction
AAA Fow kes,	8.2	A priori	Primary composite: Initial	<62	NR	57 (NR)*	NR	70 (NR) [†]	0.85 (0.60 to 1.20)	NR
2010 ¹⁰²			fatal or nonfatal coronary event, CVA or revascularization	≥62	NR	124 (NR)‡	NR	106 (NR) [§]	1.13 (0.87 to 1.47)	
POPADAD	6.7∥	Specification	Fatal Coronary	<60	297	10 (3.4%)	315	10 (3.2%)	1.07 (0.44 to 2.56)	0.44
Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸		unclear	Events + Fatal CVA	≥60	341	33 (9.7%)	323	25 (7.7%)	1.24 (0.74 to 2.09)	
POPADAD Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸	6.7 [∎]	Specification unclear	Primary composite: death from CHD or	<60	297	38 (12.8%)	315	36 (11.4%)	1.11 (0.70 to 1.75)	0.77
			CVA, nonfatal MI or CVA, or above ankle amputation for critical limb ischemia	≥60	341	78 (22.9%)	323	81 (25.1%)	0.89 (0.65 to 1.21)	

*8.6 per 1,000 p-y (95% CI, 6.5 to 11.2)

[†]10.2 per 1,000 p-y (95% CI, 8.0 to 12.9)

[‡]18.8 per 1,000 p-y (95% CI, 15.6 to 22.4)

[§]16.6 per 1,000 p-y (95% CI, 13.6 to 20.1)

Median.

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis Trial; CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; CHD = coronary heart disease; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; HR = hazard ratio; IG = intervention group; MI = myocardial infarction; NR = not reported; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; p-y: person-years

Table 11. Sex Subgroup Analyses for Reported Outcomes in Included Aspirin Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Trial name Author, Year	Mean F/U, years	Type of analysis	Outcome	Sex	IG N Analyzed	IG N Events (%)	CG N Analyzed	CG N Events (%)	IG vs. CG HR (95% CI)	P-Value for interaction
AAA Fow kes,	8.2	A priori	Primary composite: initial (earliest) fatal	Men	481	96 (20.0%)	473	83 (17.5%)	1.15 (0.86 to 1.54)*†	NR
2010102			or nonfatal coronary event or CVA or revascularization	Women	1,194	85 (7.1%)	1,202	93 (7.7%)	0.92 (0.68 to 1.23)*†	NR
POPADAD Belch,	6.7‡	Specification unclear	Fatal coronary events + fatal CVA +	Men	286	26 (9.1%)	277	19 (6.9%)	1.33 (0.73 to 2.40)	0.68
2008 ⁹⁸			CVD death	Women	352	17 (4.8%)	361	16 (4.4%)	1.09 (0.55 to 2.16)	
POPADAD Belch,	6.7‡	Specification unclear	Primary Composite: death from CHD or	Men	286	68 (23.8%)	277	62 (22.4%)	1.04 (0.74 to 1.47)	0.54
2008 ⁹⁸			CVA, nonfatal MI or CVA, or above ankle amputation for critical limb ischemia	Women	352	48 (13.6%)	361	55 (15.2%)	0.89 (0.60 to 1.31)	

* Calculated

† RR

‡ Median

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis Trial; CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; CHD = coronary heart dise ase; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; RR = Relative Risk; HR = hazard ratio; IG = intervention group; MI = myocardial infarction; NR = not reported; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; p-y: person-years

Table 12. Participant Characteristics for Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?*

				Population description	Mean		Race/	% HTN (mean	тс						
Study name				Recruitment	years	%	Ethnicity,	SBP/DBP)	mg/dL	mg/dL	mg/dL	%	%	ABI	%
Author, Year	Quality	Country	Ν	method/setting	(range)	Female	%	BP Meds	(mean)	(mean)	(mean)	DM	Symptoms	(mean)	Smoking
Collins, 2007 ¹⁰⁵	Fair	U.S.	50	Patients with PAD based on an ABI of 0.50 to <0.9 and without symptoms of IC Patients referred to vascular lab	69.1 (range NR)	2	White: 64 Black: 26 Hispanic: 10	86 (NR) Use of ACEI: 56 Use of BB: 34	188.6 † 10% >240 mg/d L	117.6† 60% >100 mg/dL	36.8* 62% <40 mg/dL	40	None: 56 Atypical: 44 IC: 0	0.74	30
Western Australia Trial of Screening for Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms Fow ler, 2002 ¹⁰⁶	Good	Australia	882	Men aged 65-79 w ho screened positive for PAD using the ECQ and ABI Population- based screening using the ECQ and ABI (the ABI conducted in 2 of 3 clinics)	73.1 (65-79)	0	NR	NR (160.6/8 6.9) Meds NR	NR†	NR†	NR*	17.2	None: 27.4 Atypical: 9.2 IC: 44.6	0.79	18.7

* Mean CVD risk score was not reported in either trial. In the Fowler trial, 32.4% of the population had a history of angina, 24.0% had a history of MI, and 12.8% had a history of CVA. Mean body mass index in the Fowler trial was 26.4 and was not reported in the Collins trial.

[†]Use of lipid-lowering treatment is not reported

Abbreviations: ABI = ankle-brachial index; ACE = angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor; BB = beta blocker; BMI=body mass index; BP = blood pressure; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; CVD = cardiovascular disease; ECQ = Edinburgh Claudication Questionnaire; HDL-C = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; HTN = hypertension; IC = intermittent claudication; LDL-C = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; mg/dL = milligrams per deciliter; MI = myocardial infarction; NR = not reported; PAD = peripheral artery disease; TC = total cholesterol

Table 13. Intervention Details for Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Author, Year	IG Description	CG Description	Format	Delivered by	Duration, weeks	# Sessions	Session length, min
Collins, 2007 ¹⁰⁵	Advice to continue routine care with primary care physician, plus 2 intervention components: risk factor modification and improvement in physical activity (PA). Risk factor modification: "Recognize, identify, and manage" (RIM) approach used to assess risk factors. During initial 5- minute assessment, nurse used RIM to assess medication adherence. Nurse then assessed dietary needs specific to risk-factor profile, advised about HbA1c and LDL-C goals, and counseled on reading food labels, increasing fiber, and reducing calories. Participants were asked to share examples of appropriate behavior change related to their specific risk factors PA: PACE protocol, which included PA assessment of stage of readiness to change and handout tailored to help patient identify ways to increase PA based on stage of change, follow ed by "extensive discussion" with nurse to encourage regular PA	Usual care: patients advised to continue routine care with their primary care physician	Individual, in- person with phone F/U Unsupervised PA	Nurse	12	6 (Initial session + 5 F/U phone visits)	Initial session: NR F/U sessions: <30
Fow ler, 2002 ¹⁰⁶	"Stop smoking and keep walking" Intervention components included: 1) education, 2) letter to GP recommending smoking cessation, and 3) referral to a community PT intervention. Participants told that "your ABI or ECQ test show ed a reduced blood flow to the muscles in your leg or legs caused by partial blockage of the arteries and this often results in pain on walking." Participants provided with educational package including information on PAD, a brochure on the community PT service, information on smoking cessation (if applicable), and a copy of the letter from the clinic to their GP, and were advised to consult GP about management. GP sent a package of written materials about smoking cessation, notes on obtaining optimal results from nicotine replacement products, and a fact sheet on PAD. GP asked to discuss smoking and to refer each man with early PAD to community PT service. The community PT contacted each referred man within approximately three weeks of screening exam. The community PT intervention offered options to increase PA either independently or through an organized program. Participants could attend a weekly mixed-gender group session as part of the established program, a men-only session, or a home-based PA program devised specifically for him by the senior PT. Additionally, all men in IG advised by PT to walk for≥30 minutes/day. In certain cases, men were	Usual care: patients told by nurse at screening clinic that "the blood flow to your feet and legs is low er than normal. This is not uncommon for men of your age but there is presently no evidence to suggest you should do anything about it at this time." ABI and ECQ results w ere not mentioned in letters to the patient or GP regarding results of the AAA screening.	Individual initial session with print materials, PA w as participants' choice of individual home-based PA or w eekly group sessions	Nurse, GP, PT	52	For participants choosing group format: 51 (initial session with nurse, initial session with PT + 49 supervised PA sessions [52 w eeks-3 w eek lead time])* For participants choosing home-based PA: 2 (initial session with nurse, initial session with PT)	Initial session with nurse: NR Initial session with PT NR Group PA sessions: 45

Table 13. Intervention Details for Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Author,	IO Decemintien		Format	Delivered	Duration,	# Coopiers	Session length,
rear	IG Description	CG Description	Format	Dy	weeks	# Sessions	min
	referred to hydrotherapy classes or special exercise sessions						
	for those with disabilities.						

* Based on Table 4, 16.5% of IG reported being in exercise group at 12 months

Abbreviations: AAA = abdominal a ortic aneurysm; ECQ = Edinburgh Claudication Questionnaire; F/U = followup; GP = general practitioner; HbA1c = glycated hemoglobin; LDL-C = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; NR = not reported; PA = physical activity; PACE = Physician-based Assessment and Counseling for Exercise; PAD = peripheral artery disease; PT = physical therapy/physical therapist

Table 14. Quality of Life Outcomes in Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Author.		Outcome/Instrument (except where noted, 0-100, where higher		IG	IG	IG		CG	CG	CG	Between-group
Year Quality	F/U, Wks	score indicates better function)	IG N*	Mean (SD) baseline	Mean (SD) F/U†	Mean change (95% Cl)‡	CG N*	Mean (SD) baseline	Mean (SD) F/U†	Mean change (95% CI)‡	difference Mean (95% CI)§
Collins, 2007 ¹⁰⁵	12	MOS SF-36: Physical functioning	23	55.0 (18.5)	64.1 (25.3)	9.1 (-0.2 to 18.4)	25	39.4 (22.4)	45.4 (28.3)	6.0 (-4.1 to 16.1)	3.1 (-10.6 to 16.8); p>0.20
Fair		MOS SF-36: Role-physical	23	36.0 (36.1)	52.2 (41.9)	16.2 (0.1 to 32.3)	25	35.0 (42.7)	33.0 (38.7)	-2.0 (-18.0 to 14.0)	18.2 (-4.5 to 40.9); p=0.11
		MOS SF-36: Bodily pain	23	40.9 (19.1)	49.0 (27.3)	8.1 (-1.8 to 18.0)	25	54.2 (28.2)	61.4 (29.0)	7.2 (-4.0 to 18.4)	0.9 (-14.1 to 15.9); p>0.20
		MOS SF-36: General health	23	55.4 (19.0)	56.3 (22.5)	0.9 (-7.7 to 9.5)	25	55.7 (23.8)	48.2 (19.1)	-7.5 (-16.1 to 1.1)	8.4 (-3.7 to 20.5); p=0.15
		MOS SF-36: Vitality	23	46.5 (18.9)	51.1 (23.6)	4.6 (-4.2 to 13.4)	25	45.9 (22.2)	41.8 (24.0)	-4.1 (-13.2 to 5.0)	8.7 (-4.0 to 21.4); p=0.12
		MOS SF-36: Social functioning	23	76.5 (24.3)	77.7 (26.4)	1.2 (-9.2 to 11.6)	25	75.0 (23.4)	78.0 (28.5)	3.0 (-7.3 to 13.3)	-1.8 (-16.4 to 12.8); p>0.20
		MOS SF-36: Role-emotional	23	45.3 (42.9)	65.2 (44.4)	19.9 (2.1 to 37.7)	25	53.3 (44.1)	70.7 (37.7)	17.4 (1.2 to 33.6)	2.5 (-21.6 to 26.6); p>0.20
		MOS SF-36: Mental health	23	71.2 (17.4)	76.5 (17.7)	5.3 (-1.9 to 12.5)	25	75.8 (17.1)	76.7 (14.8)	0.9 (-5.4 to 7.2)	4.4 (-5.1 to 13.9); p>0.20
Fow ler, 2002 ¹⁰⁶ Good	52	Health-related quality of life; Rosser instrument (-1.2 to 1.0; higher indicates better)	3611	NR	0.83 (0.13)	NR	336	NR	0.84 (0.14)	NR	p=0.13

* N analyzed at followup

† Adjusted for baseline values

‡ Calculated

§ Study reported p-values. Calculated between-group mean difference and 95% CI (see methods for more detail).

N analyzed unclear from outcomes table; this is the number of participants returning a complete questionnaire

Abbreviations: CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; F/U = followup; IG = intervention group; MOS SF-36 = Medical Outcomes Study Short-Form Health Survey; NR = not reported; SD = standard deviation

Table 15. Walking Impairment Questionnaire Outcomes in Included Exercise Studies for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

		Outcome (Range: 0-				IG					
Author,		100, where higher		IG	IG	Mean		CG	CG	CG	Between-group
Year	FU,	score indicates	IG	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	change	CG	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)	Mean change	difference
Quality	Wks	better function) ¹⁸⁰	N*	baseline	F/U†	(95% CI) ‡	N*	baseline	F/U†	(95% CI) ‡	Mean (95% CI) §
Collins,	12	WIQ:	23	43.2 (28.2)	62.3 (33.0)	19.1 (6.5 to	25	30.9 (34.2)	40.1 (35.7)	9.2 (-4.5 to 22.9)	9.9 (-8.7 to 28.5);
2007 ¹⁰⁵		Walking distance				31.7)					p=0.18
		WIQ:	23	40.5 (24.9)	41.4 (21.4)	0.9 (-8.6 to	25	33.1 (31.4)	28.3 (24.5)	-4.8 (-16.0 to 6.4)	5.7 (-9.0 to 20.4);
Fair		Walking speed				10.4)					p=0.09
		WIQ:	23	43.7 (30.7)	61.2 (32.8)	17.5 (4.5 to	25	37.8 (29.8)	40.2 (30.2)	2.4 (-9.4 to 14.2)	15.1 (2.4 to 32.6);
		Stair climbing				30.5)					p=0.02

* N analyzed at followup

† Adjusted for baseline values

‡ Calculated

§ Study reported p-values. Calculated between group mean difference and 95% CI (see methods for more detail).

Abbreviations: CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; F/U = followup; IG = intervention group; MOS SF-36 = Medical Outcomes Study Short-Form Health Survey; NR = not reported; SD = standard deviation; WIQ = Walking Impairment Questionnaire

Table 16. Proportion of Participants With Symptoms at Baseline and Followup in Exercise Studies Included for KQ4: Does Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI Lead to Improved Patient Health Outcomes?

Outcome	Author, Year	FU, Wks	IG Baseline	IG F/U	IG Change p-value*	CG Baseline	CG F/U	CG Change p-value*	Calculated between-group difference, p-value*
N (%) w ith	Collins, 2007 ¹⁰⁵	12	12/25 (48.0)	12/23 (52.2)	0.69	10/25 (40.0)	9/25 (36.0)	0.68	0.26
atypical	Fow ler, 2002 ¹⁰⁶	52	35/441 (7.9)†	7/347 (2.0)†	<0.001	46/441 (10.4)†	13/327 (4.0)†	<0.001	0.13
symptoms									
N (%) w ith IC	Collins, 2007 ¹⁰⁵	12	0/25 (0.0)	1/23 (4.3)	Not	0/25 (0.0)	1/25 (4.0)	Not	0.95
					calculable			calculable	
	Fow ler, 2002 ¹⁰⁶	52	201/441 (45.6)‡	99/347 (28.5)‡	<0.001	192/441 (43.5)‡	101/327 (30.9)‡	<0.001	0.50

* p-value calculated from test of proportions

† Edinburgh Claudication Questionnaire Atypical IC Grade 1 and Grade 2 combined

‡ Edinburgh Claudication Questionnaire Definite IC Grade 1 and Grade 2 combined

Abbreviations: CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; F/U = followup; IG = intervention group; NR = not reported

Table 17. Harms in Included Aspirin Studies for KQ5: What Are the Harms of Treatment of Screen-Detected or Generally Asymptomatic Adults With PAD or an Abnormal ABI?

Trial name	Mean F/U.		IG	IG	CG N	CG	IG vs. CG
Author, Year	years	Outcome	N Analyzed	N Events (%)	Analyzed	N Events (%)	HR (95% CI)
AAA	8.2	Major Hemorrhage*	1,675	34 (2.0%)	1,675	20 (1.2%)	1.71 (0.99 to 2.97)
Fow kes, 2010 ¹⁰²	8.2	Major GI Bleeding†	1,675	9 (0.5%)‡	1,675	8 (0.5%)‡	1.13 (0.44 to 2.91)‡§
	8.2	Total Hemorrhagic CVA	1,675	5 (0.3%)‡	1,675	4 (0.2%)‡	1.25 (0.34 to 4.65)‡§
	8.2	Fatal Hemorrhagic CVA	1,675	3 (0.2%)	1,675	3 (0.2%)	1.00 (0.20 to 4.95)‡§
	8.2	Nonfatal Hemorrhagic CVA	1,675	2 (0.1%)	1,675	1 (0.1%)	2.00 (0.18 to 22.04)‡§
	8.2	Intracranial BleedingII	1,675	6 (0.4%)‡§	1,675	3 (0.2%)‡§	2.00 (0.50 to 7.98)‡§
POPADAD	6.7¶	Fatal Hemorrhagic CVA	638	2 (0.3%)	638	3 (0.5%)	0.67 (0.11 to 3.98)‡§
Belch, 2008 ⁹⁸							

* Defined as nonfatal or fatal hemorrhagic CVA, fatal or nonfatal subarachnoid/subdural hemorrhage, GI bleed requiring admission, and other bleeding requiring hospital admission

† Defined as requiring admission to hospital to control bleeding; admission only to investigate bleeding not included

‡ Calculated.

§ RR

| Defined as fatal or nonfatal subarachnoid/subdural hemorrhage

¶ Median

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis Trial; CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; GI = gastrointestinal; IG = intervention group; n = population; NR = not reported; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; RR = relative risk; HR = Hazard Ratio

KQ	No. of studies (k), No. of participants randomized (n)	Outcome	No. of trials (k), number of participants analyzed (n)	Summary of findings by outcome	Consistency/ Precision	Reporting bias	EPC assessment of strength of evidence	Study quality	Body of evidence limitations	Applicability
KQ1: Direct evidence for screening	k=0	Morbidity or mortality	0	NA				NA		
KQ2: Diagnostic accuracy	k=1 (0 new), n=307	Sensitivity, specificity, PPV, NPV	k=1, n=306	The ABI has low sensitivity (7-34%) and high specificity (96-100%) compared to MRA gold standard imaging	Consistency- NA (single study) Imprecise	Not detected	Insufficient	1 Fair	Single study, not clear if MRA interpreters w ere blind to ABI results; harms (aside	Screening population of older adults (age 70) in Sw eden. The low sensitivity reported in this
KQ3: Harms	k=1 (0 new), n=307	Harms	k=1, n=306	The ABI has a high false negative rate (>80%) reflecting the low sensitivity in screening for PAD.	Consistency- NA (single study) Imprecise	Not detected	Insufficient	1 Fair	from FP and FN) not reported other than single vasovagal episode	single study is w ell below the sensitivities reported in symptomatic populations.
KQ4: Treatment benefit	Aspirin k=2 (1 new), n=4,626	CV D composite, ACM, individual CV D outcomes	k=2, n=4,626	Aspirin 100 mg daily show ed no effect on CVD composite events in the tw o trials: Adj HR (95% Cl): 1.00 (0.81 to 1.23) HR (95% Cl): 0.98 (0.76 to 1.26) No effect on ACM : HR (95% Cl): 0.95 (0.77 to 1.16) HR (95% Cl): 0.93 (0.71 to 1.24) No statistically significant difference in individual CVD outcomes including: MI, CVA, development of intermittent	Reasonably consistent Imprecise	Not detected	Low -to- Moderate	2 Good	Studies designed to detect differences in CVD composites but not individual CVD outcomes.	Tw o Scottish trials in asymptomatic patients w ith a low ABI defined as ≤0.95 and ≤0.99 (thresholds not typically used to define an abnormal ABI in clinical practice). 1 trial exclusively in patients w ith diabetes. Populations at intermediate to high CVD risk.

KQ	No. of studies (k), No. of participants randomized (n)	Outcome	No. of trials (k), number of participants analyzed (n)	Summary of findings by outcome	Consistency Precision	Reporting bias	EPC assessment of strength of evidence	Study quality	Body of evidence limitations	Applicability
				claudication and need for peripheral arterial revascularization or above the ankle amputation procedures						
	Exercise k=2 (2 new), n=932	Quality of Life	k=2, n=745	No difference in quality of life changes from baseline (as measured by MOS SF-36 and Rosser HrQOL questionnaire)	Reasonably consistent Imprecise	Not detected	Insufficient	1 Good, 1 Fair	One feasibility trial in almost exclusively men w as short (12 w eeks) and underpow ered (n=50) to dotoct	Unclear w hether population representative of screen- detected population; included participants almost 100% male
		WIQ	k=1; n=48	No difference in WIQ score change from baseline for distance or speed components; statistically significant improvement in stair climbing component in IG compared to CG	NA	Not detected	Insufficient	1 Fair	detect difference in primary or secondary outcomes. Second trial (N=882) pow ered to detect w alking ability before onset of	
		Proportion of participants with symptoms	k=2, n=722	No change in proportion of participants w ho develop IC or atypical symptoms	Reasonably consistent Imprecise	Not detected	Insufficient	1 Good, 1 Fair	symptoms	
KQ4a: Treatment benefit by subgroup	Aspirin k=2 (1 new), n=4,626	CVD composite, individual CVD outcomes, fatal CVD events, ACM	k=2, n=4,626	No compelling evidence to support a differential treatment effect by age, sex, or diabetes status. Within trial comparisons	Inconsistent (age) Reasonably consistent (sex) Imprecise (age, sex)	Not detected	Insufficient	2 Good	Only 1 trial performed interaction testing by age, sex and unclear if a priori planned analysis. Other trial	Both Scottish trials in asymptomatic patients with a low ABI defined as ≤0.95 and ≤0.99 (thresholds not

Table 18. Summary of Evidence

1/0	No. of studies (k), No. of participants	Outcome	No. of trials (k), number of participants	Summary of findings by	Consistency/	Reporting	EPC assessment of strength	Study	Body of evidence	Annlinghilite
KQ	random ized (n)	Outcome	analyzed (n)	revealed overlapping Cls and the single trial (POPADAD) reporting heterogeneity testing for CVD outcomes by age and sex reported nonstatistically significant interaction testing. Results exclusively in participants with diabetes (POPADAD) show ing similar outcomes to those almost exclusively w ithout diabetes	Precision	bias	of evidence	quality	Imitations prespecified subgroup analysis but did not perform interaction testing. No available data for within- group comparisons by diabetes status. Cls wide and overlapping across subgroups analyzed.	Applicability typically used to define an abnormal ABI in clinical practice). One trial exclusively in patients with diabetes. Populations at intermediate to high CVD risk.
	Exercise: k=0	-	-	No exercise trials examine the differential treatment effect by subpopulation.	-	-	-	-	-	-
KQ5: Treatment harms	Aspirin k=2 (1 new), n=4,626	Major Gl bleeding requiring admission	k=1, n=3,350	Major GI bleeding requiring hospital admission was similar in one reporting trial (AAA) of 100 mg enteric coated aspirin at 8.2 year follow up: 0.5% versus 0.5%; RR (95% CI): 1.13 (0.44 to 2.91)). Limited evidence from this trial	Consistency- NA (single study) Imprecise	Not detected	Low	1 Good	Rare events, wide Cls	Asymptomatic patients with a low ABI defined as ≤0.95 with intermediate CVD risk
Table 18. Summary of Evidence

	No. of studies		No. of trials (k),	Summony of			EPC		Pady of	
	(K), NO. OI		narticinants	findings by	Consistency	Renorting	of strength	Study	evidence	
кQ	randomized (n)	Outcome	analyzed (n)	outcome	Precision	bias	of evidence	quality	limitations	Applicability
		Major	K=1, n=3,350	demonstrates a trend tow ards higher risk for major bleeding events with the use of aspirin. Tw o trials reported conflicting results on total or fatal hemorrhagic CVA risk with wide confidence intervals due to rare event rate.	Consistency-	Not	Low	1 Good	Single trial,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
		hemorrhage (defined as nonfatal or fatal hemorrhagic CVA, fatal or nonfatal subarachnoid subdural hemorrhage, GI bleed requiring admission, and other bleeding requiring hospital admission)		did not reach statistical significance but w as slightly higher in the aspirin group: 2.0% vs. 1.2%; HR (95% Cl): 1.71 (0.99 to 2.97)	NA (single study) Imprecise	detected			relatively rare event w ith w ide Cls	
		Hemorrhagic CVA	k=2, n=4,626	Trend of higher risk for total hemorrhagic CVA w ith aspirin in AAA (0.3% v 0.2%; RR 1.25 (95% Cl, 0.34 to 4.65) and a	Inconsistent, Imprecise	Not detected	Low / insufficient	2 Good	Somew hat conflicting results w hen comparing total and fatal hemorrhagic across 2 trials	

KQ	No. of studies (k), No. of participants randomized (n)	Outcome	No. of trials (k), number of participants analyzed (n)	Summary of findings by outcome	Consistency/ Precision	Reporting bias	EPC assessment of strength of evidence	Study quality	Body of evidence limitations	Applicability
				low er risk for fatal hemorrhagic CVA in POPADAD (0.3% vs. 0.5%; RR 0.67 [95% Cl, 0.11 to 3.98]) but Cls w ere w ide due to rare events					w hich recruited different populations (diabetic and nondiabetic trials)	
	Exercise	-	No trials reporting harms	-	-	-	No evidence	-	-	-

Abbreviations: AAA = Aspirin for Asymptomatic Atherosclerosis Trial; ACM = all-cause mortality; Adj = adjusted; CG = control group; CI = confidence interval; CVA = cerebrovascular accident; CVD = cardiovascular disease; EPC = Evidence-based Practice Center; GI = gastrointestinal; HR = hazard ratio; IG = intervention group; KQ = key question; MI = myocardial infarction; NA = not applicable; NPV: negative predictive value; NR = not reported; PPV = positive predictive value; POPADAD = Prevention of Progression of Arterial Disease and Diabetes; RR = relative risk

Literature Search Strategies for Primary Literature

Key: / = MeSH subject heading \$ = truncation * = truncation ? = wildcard ab = word in abstract adj# = adjacent within x number of words ae = adverse effects kw = keyword near/# = adjacent within x number of words ti = word in title

CENTRAL

- #1 ((peripheral next arter*) near/2 disease*):ti,ab,kw
- #2 (lower next (limb or extremity) near/2 disease*):ti,ab,kw
- #3 (leg next artery next disease*):ti,ab,kw
- #4 (ankle near/1 (brachial or arm) near/4 (index* or indices or ratio or gradient or pressure)):ti,ab,kw
- #5 (ankle next (index* or indices)):ti,ab,kw
- #6 ABPI:ti,ab,kw
- #7 #1 or #2 or #3 or #4 or #5 or #6 Publication Year from 2012 to May 2, 2017, in Trials

MEDLINE (via Ovid)

Screening

Database: Ovid MEDLINE(R) Epub Ahead of Print <May 2, 2017>, Ovid MEDLINE(R) <1946 to May Week 1 2017>, Ovid MEDLINE(R) In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations <May 2, 2017>, Ovid MEDLINE(R) Daily Update <May 2, 2017>

- 1 Peripheral Arterial Disease/
- 2 Arterial Occlusive Diseases/
- 3 Peripheral Vascular Diseases/
- 4 peripheral arter\$ disease\$.ti,ab.
- 5 peripheral arter\$ occlusive disease\$.ti,ab.
- 6 (lower adj (limb or extremity) adj2 disease\$).ti,ab.
- 7 leg artery disease\$.ti,ab.
- 8 or/1-7
- 9 Ankle Brachial Index/
- 10 (brachial adj1 ankle adj4 (ratio\$ or index\$ or indices or gradient\$ or pressure)).ti,ab.
- 11 (arm adj1 ankle adj4 (ratio\$ or index\$ or indices or gradient\$ or pressure)).ti,ab.
- 12 (ankle adj (index\$ or indices)).ti,ab.
- 13 Ankle/bs [Blood Supply]
- 14 Brachial Artery/ph, pp, us [Physiology, Physiopathology, Ultrasonography]
- 15 Blood pressure/
- 16 Ankle/
- 17 15 and 16
- 18 9 or 10 or 11 or 12 or 13 or 14 or 17
- 19 Mass Screening/
- 20 screen\$.ti,ab.
- 21 (detect\$ or predict\$ or diagnos\$ or identif\$).ti.

Appendix A. Detailed Methods

- 22 or/19-21
- 23 8 and 18 and 22
- 24 clinical trials as topic/ or controlled clinical trials as topic/ or randomized controlled trials as topic/ or meta-analysis as topic/
- 25 (clinical trial or controlled clinical trial or meta analysis or randomized controlled trial).pt.
- 26 Random\$.ti,ab.
- 27 control groups/ or double-blind method/ or single-blind method/
- 28 clinical trial\$.ti,ab.
- 29 controlled trial\$.ti,ab.
- 30 meta analy\$.ti,ab.
- 31 or/24-30
- 32 23 and 31
- 33 "Sensitivity and Specificity"/
- 34 "Predictive Value of Tests"/
- 35 ROC Curve/
- 36 False Negative Reactions/
- 37 False Positive Reactions/
- 38 Diagnostic Errors/
- 39 "Reproducibility of Results"/
- 40 Reference Values/
- 41 Reference Standards/
- 42 Observer Variation/
- 43 Receiver operat\$.ti,ab.
- 44 ROC curve\$.ti,ab.
- 45 sensitivit\$.ti,ab.
- 46 specificit\$.ti,ab.
- 47 predictive value.ti,ab.
- 48 accuracy.ti,ab.
- 49 false positive\$.ti,ab.
- 50 false negative\$.ti,ab.
- 51 miss rate\$.ti,ab.
- 52 error rate\$.ti,ab.
- 53 33 or 34 or 35 or 36 or 37 or 38 or 39 or 40 or 41 or 42 or 43 or 44 or 45 or 46 or 47 or 48 or 49 or
- 50 or 51 or 52
- 54 18 and 53
- 55 32 or 54
- 56 limit 55 to (english language and yr="2012 -Current")
- 57 remove duplicates from 56

Treatment

Database: Ovid MEDLINE(R) Epub Ahead of Print <May 2, 2017>, Ovid MEDLINE(R) <1946 to May Week 1 2017>, Ovid MEDLINE(R) In-Process & Other Non-Indexed Citations <May 2, 2017>, Ovid MEDLINE(R) Daily Update <June 21, 2016>

- 1 Peripheral Arterial Disease/
- 2 Arterial Occlusive Diseases/
- 3 Peripheral Vascular Diseases/
- 4 peripheral arter\$ disease\$.ti,ab.
- 5 peripheral arter\$ occlusive disease\$.ti,ab.
- 6 (lower adj (limb or extremity) adj2 disease\$).ti,ab.
- 7 leg artery disease\$.ti,ab.

Appendix A. Detailed Methods

8 or/1-7

9 ((abnormal\$ or low) adj4 (brachial adj1 ankle adj4 (ratio\$ or index\$ or indices or gradient\$ or pressure))).ti,ab.

10 ((abnormal\$ or low) adj4 (arm adj1 ankle adj4 (ratio\$ or index\$ or indices or gradient\$ or pressure))).ti,ab.

- 11 ((abnormal\$ or low) adj4 (ankle index\$ or ankle indices)).ti,ab.
- 12 ((abnormal\$ or low) adj ABI).ti,ab.
- 13 or/9-12
- 14 "tobacco use cessation"/ or smoking cessation/
- 15 smoking cessation.ti,ab.
- 16 Hypercholesterolemia/dh, dt, pc, rh, th [Diet Therapy, Drug Therapy, Prevention & Control, Rehabilitation, Therapy]
- 17 Hyperlipidemias/dh, dt, pc, rh, th [Diet Therapy, Drug Therapy, Prevention & Control, Rehabilitation, Therapy]
- 18 Anticholesteremic Agents/
- 19 (lower\$ adj3 cholesterol).ti,ab.
- 20 (reduc\$ adj3 cholesterol).ti,ab.
- 21 Diabetes Mellitus/dh, dt, pc, rh, th [Diet Therapy, Drug Therapy, Prevention & Control,
- Rehabilitation, Therapy]
- 22 Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2/dh, dt, pc, rh, th [Diet Therapy, Drug Therapy, Prevention & Control, Rehabilitation, Therapy]
- 23 Hypoglycemic Agents/
- 24 Hemoglobin A, Glycosylated/
- 25 Blood Glucose/an, me [Analysis, Metabolism]
- 26 Glycemic Index/
- 27 glycemic control\$.ti,ab.
- 28 glycaemic control\$.ti,ab.
- 29 glucose control\$.ti,ab.
- 30 body weight changes/ or weight loss/
- 31 weight loss.ti,ab.
- 32 Hypertension/dh, dt, pc, rh, th [Diet Therapy, Drug Therapy, Prevention & Control, Rehabilitation, Therapy]
- 33 Antihypertensive Agents/
- 34 blood pressure control\$.ti,ab.
- 35 (hypertension adj2 control\$).ti,ab.
- 36 Platelet Aggregation Inhibitors/
- 37 Blood Platelets/de [Drug Effects]
- 38 ((anti platelet or antiplatelet) adj2 (therapy or treatment\$)).ti,ab.
- 39 physical activit\$.ti,ab.
- 40 Exercise/
- 41 exercis\$.ti.
- 42 Physical Fitness/
- 43 Walking/
- 44 walking.ti.
- 45 treadmill.ti,ab.
- 46 Resistance Training/
- 47 Motor Activity/
- 48 Physical Therapy Modalities/
- 49 Exercise Therapy/
- 50 Exercise Movement Techniques/
- 51 physical therap\$.ti,ab.

Appendix A. Detailed Methods

- 52 physiotherapy\$.ti,ab.
- 53 or/14-52
- 54 (8 or 13) and 53

55 clinical trials as topic/ or controlled clinical trials as topic/ or randomized controlled trials as topic/ or meta-analysis as topic/

- 56 (clinical trial or controlled clinical trial or meta analysis or randomized controlled trial).pt.
- 57 Random\$.ti,ab.
- 58 control groups/ or double-blind method/ or single-blind method/
- 59 clinical trial\$.ti,ab.
- 60 controlled trial\$.ti,ab.
- 61 meta analy\$.ti,ab.
- 62 or/55-61
- 63 54 and 62
- 64 "Drug-Related Side Effects and Adverse Reactions"/
- 65 harm\$.ti,ab.
- 66 toxicity.ti,ab.
- 67 complication\$.ti,ab.
- 68 (adverse adj2 (interaction\$ or response\$ or effect\$ or event\$ or reaction\$ or outcome\$)).ti,ab.
- 69 adverse effects.fs.
- 70 toxicity.fs.
- 71 mortality.fs.
- 72 Safety/
- 73 safety.ti,ab.
- 74 product surveillance, postmarketing/
- 75 side effect\$.ti,ab.
- 76 Emergency Service, Hospital/
- 77 Hospitalization/
- 78 (unexpected\$ adj3 (emergency or hospital\$ or medical attention)).ti,ab.
- 79 or/64-78
- 80 54 and 79
- 81 63 or 80
- 82 limit 81 to (english language and yr="2012 -Current")
- 83 remove duplicates from 82

PUBMED, publisher-supplied records

- #7 Search (((#6) AND publisher[sb]) AND English[Language]) AND ("2012/01/01"[Date Publication] : "3000"[Date - Publication])
- <u>#6</u> Search #1 OR #4 OR #5
- #5 Search (ankle[tiab] AND (brachial[tiab] OR arm[tiab]) AND (index*[tiab] OR indices[tiab] OR ratio*[tiab] OR gradient*[tiab] OR pressure[tiab]) OR ankle index*[tiab])
- #4 Search #2 AND #3
- #3 Search ((control[tiab] OR controls[tiab] OR controlled[tiab] OR controled[tiab]) AND (trial[tiab] OR trials[tiab])) OR clinical trial[tiab] OR clinical trials[tiab] OR random*[tiab] OR systematic review[sb] OR metaanaly*[tiab] OR meta analysis[tiab]
- #2 Search (peripheral artery disease [tiab] OR peripheral arterial disease [tiab] OR low er extremity disease[tiab] OR leg artery disease[tiab] OR abnormal ABI[tiab] OR low ABI[tiab]) AND (cholesterol[tiab] OR smoking[tiab] OR glycemic[tiab] OR glycaemic[tiab] OR glucose[tiab] OR weight loss[tiab] OR blood pressure[tiab] OR hypertension[tiab] OR anti hypertensive[tiab] OR antihypertensive[tiab] OR antihypertensive[tiab] OR antihypertensive[tiab] OR weight loss [tiab] OR weight loss [tiab] OR blood pressure[tiab] OR hypertension[tiab] OR antihypertensive[tiab] OR exercis*[tiab] OR walking[tiab] OR treadmill[tiab] OR physical therap*[tiab])

<u>#1</u> Search (peripheral artery disease[tiab] OR peripheral arterial disease[tiab] OR lower extremity disease[tiab] OR leg artery disease[tiab]) AND screen*[tiab]

Terms used in targeted search of previous Reference Manager bibliographic database for diabetes and exercise or physical therapy

Connector	Field	Parameter	Results
	All Non-Indexed Fields	diab	1020
OR	Keyw ords	diab*	1066
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	abnormal glucose	1069
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	impaired glucose	1072
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	uncontrolled glucose	1072
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	insulin resistance	1112
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	prediab	1112
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	exercise	1527
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	w alking	1753
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	physical activity	1775
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	physical therap	1781
OR	All Non-Indexed Fields	motor activity	1781
OR	Keyw ords	Exercise Therapy	1784
OR	Keyw ords	Physical Activity	1784
OR	Keyw ords	Physical Therapy Modalities	1785



	Included	Excluded
Population	KQs 1–3: Unselected or community-dwelling,	Symptomatic adults; study populations consisting
	generally asymptomatic adults*	exclusively of adults with know n CVD or severe
		chronic kidney disease (stages 4 and 5)
	KQs 4, 5: Screen-detected or generally	
	asymptomatic adults with PAD of an	
	A priori subpopulations, at greater risk for	
	PAD will be examined based on the following	
	factors: age (particularly ≥65 years), sex,	
	race/ethnicity, diabetes, smoking, and	
	hypertension status	
Setting	Primary care and outpatient settings (i.e.,	Vascular surgery clinics (KQs 1, 2); hospital/inpatient
Discoss	ambulatory care)	settings
Disease/	Low er-extremity PAD secondary to	Other anatomic locations for vascular disease (e.g.,
Condition		
Screening	Resting ABI	History taking physical examination questionnaires
Corconing		digital subtraction arteriography (DSA), duplex
		ultrasonography, magnetic resonance angiography
		(MRA), computed tomographic angiography (CTA),
		toe pressure measurement, treadmill testing
		(exercise ABI), pulse oximetry, near-infrared
		spectroscopy, and all invasive diagnostic testing
Treatment or	Pharmacologic or lifestyle interventions	Vitamins or nutritional or herbal supplements
management	primarily almed at CVD reduction:	interventions almed only at symptomatic adults or
	cholesterol-low ering therapy, diet and	symptom management (neptoxyfylline cilostazol
	exercise (with or without weight loss) blood	prostaglandins) nonpharmacologic symptom
	pressure control, and antiplatelet therapy	management, and revascularization (angioplasty.
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	thrombolytics, stenting, bypass)
	Exercise or physical therapy interventions	
	aimed at improving low er limb function	
Comparisons	KQ 1: No screening	
	KO 2: Reference standard (DSA diagnostic	
	imaging of atherosclerosis [e.g. MRA_CTA])	
	or degree of impaired blood flow (e.g., duplex	
	ultrasonography)	
	5 1 57	
	KQ 4: True control group (receives placebo,	
	no intervention, or usual care);	
	intervention/treatment at later or symptomatic	
	stage or disease (vs. earlier or asymptomatic stage)	
Outcomes	KQ 1: Cardiovascular morbidity (myocardial	Surrogate markers for atherosclerosis including
541001100	infarction, cerebrovascular accident). PAD	imaging (e.g., carotid intima-media thickness) or
	morbidity (ambulation impairment,	biochemical markers (e.g., high-sensitivity C-reactive
	amputation) or mortality (all-cause, PAD-	protein)
	related, or CVD-related), and health-related	Patient satisfaction
	quality of life	Cost-related outcomes (for screening and treatment)
		Intermediate cardiovascular outcomes (e.g., blood
	nu 2: Sensitivity, specificity, positive and	pressure, cholesterol); benavior changes (e.g.,
	incidence or prevalence	intermediate measures of lower limb function (e.g.
		6-minute walking test, low er-extremity strength)
	KQ 4: Patient health outcomes (listed above	Change in ABI
	for KQ 1)	
P	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	-

Appendix A Table 1. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

	Included	Excluded
Harms	 KQ 3: Adverse outcomes related to ABI test (diagnostic inaccuracy) or harms of subsequent testing KQ 5: Serious adverse events (e.g., death, serious adverse drug reactions) and unexpected medical attention (e.g., emergency department visits, hospitalizations) 	Patient satisfaction
Study designs	KQs 1, 4: Good-quality systematic reviews and randomized or clinically controlled trialsKQ 2: Good-quality systematic reviews and diagnostic accuracy studiesKQs 3, 5: Good-quality systematic reviews, randomized or clinically controlled trials, and cohort or case-control studies	Poor-quality studies based on established design- specific quality criteria KQ 2: Case-control studies of diagnostic accuracy KQ 4: Studies with less than 3 months of follow up
Countries	Economically developed countries, defined as member countries of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2015): Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norw ay, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sw eden, Sw itzerland, Turkey, United Kingdom, and United States	Studies performed in countries with populations not similar to the United States Countries that are not a member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
Language	English only	Non-English languages

* Adults without lower extremity symptoms or with vague symptoms not attributed to PAD.

† Defined as an ABI of ≤ 0.90 or > 1.40.

[±] The condition definition for PAD would ideally be confirmed by diagnostic imaging (MRA, CTA, or DSA); however, the review will include trials that recruit participants with an abnormal ABI.

Abbreviations: ABI = ankle-brachial index; CTA = computed tomographic angiography; CVD = cardiovascular disease; DSA = digital subtraction arteriography; MRA = magnetic resonance angiography; PAD = peripheral artery disease

USPSTF quality rating criteria for trials ⁸⁴
Initial assembly of comparable groups
• Employs adequate randomization, including first concealment and whether potential confounders were
distributed equally among groups
Maintenance of comparable groups (includes attrition, crossovers, adherence, contamination)
 Important differential loss to follow up or overall high loss to follow up
Measurements: equal, reliable, and valid (includes masking of outcome assessment)
Clear definition of the interventions
All important outcomes considered
Intention-to-treat analysis
Quality criteria from QUADAS-2 ⁹²
Were tests clearly described (or referenced)?
Domain 1: Patient Selection (Could the selection of patients have introduced bias?)*
 Was the spectrum of patients representative of the patients who will receive the test in primary care?
 Was the selection process clearly defined?
 Are there concerns that the included patients and setting do not match the review question?
• Domain 2: Index Test (Could the conduct or interpretation of the index test have introduced bias?)
 Was the index test interpreted without know ledge of the reference standard results?
○ If a threshold w as used, w as it prespecified?
 Are there concerns that the index test, its conduct, or its interpretation differ from the review question?
• Domain 3: Reference Standard (Could the conduct or interpretation of the reference standard have introduced
bias?)
 Is the reference standard acceptable for correctly classifying the target condition?
 Was the reference standard interpreted without know ledge of the index test results?
 Are there concerns that the target condition as defined by the reference standard does not match the review question?
 Did the whole or partial selection of patients receive the reference standard?
• Domain 4: Flow and Timing (Could the patient flow have introduced bias?)
 Was there an appropriate interval between the index test and reference standard?
 Did all patients receive the same reference standard?
 Were all patients included in the analysis?
* Domain 1 questions minimally adapted

Appendix B. Included Studies

Below is a list of included studies and their ancillary publications (indented below the main results publication):

- Belch J, MacCuish A, Campbell I, et al. The prevention of progression of arterial disease and diabetes (POPADAD) trial: factorial randomised placebo controlled trial of aspirin and antioxidants in patients with diabetes and asymptomatic peripheral arterial disease. BMJ. 2008;337:a1840. PMID: 18927173. https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.a1840
- 2. Collins TC, Johnson SL, Souchek J. Unsupervised walking therapy and atherosclerotic risk-factor management for patients with peripheral arterial disease: a pilot trial. Ann Behav Med. 2007;33(3):318-24. PMID: 17600459. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/08836610701360181</u>
- Fowkes FG, Price JF, Stewart MC, et al. Aspirin for prevention of cardiovascular events in a general population screened for a low ankle brachial index: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA. 2010;303(9):841-8. PMID: 20197530. <u>https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2010.221</u>
- 4. Fowler B, Jamrozik K, Norman P, et al. Improving maximum walking distance in early peripheral arterial disease: randomised controlled trial. Aust J Physiother. 2002;48(4):269-75. PMID: 12443521.
- 5. Wikstrom J, Hansen T, Johansson L, et al. Ankle brachial index <0.9 underestimates the prevalence of peripheral artery occlusive disease assessed with whole-body magnetic resonance angiography in the elderly. Acta Radiol. 2008;49(2):143-9. PMID: 18300136. https://doi.org/10.1080/02841850701732957

Wikstrom J, Hansen T, Johansson L, et al. Lower extremity artery stenosis distribution in an unselected elderly population and its relation to a reduced ankle-brachial index. J Vasc Surg. 2009;50(2):330-4. PMID: 19446989. <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvs.2009.03.008</u>

Appendix C. Excluded Studies

Reaso	n for Exclusion				
E1.	Aim				
E2.	Population				
E2a.	Patients with symptomatic PAD				
E2b.	Exclusively persons with known CVD				
E3.	Outcomes				
E4.	Poor quality				
*E4c.	Poor quality: Does not use reference standard				
E5.	Setting (hospital, inpatient, long-term care, vascular clinics)				
E6.	Not an included study design				
*E6a.	Study design: case control (applies to KQ2 only)				
†E6b.	Study design: followup from baseline < 3 months (12 weeks)				
E7.	Intervention				
*E7a.	Not a study of the ABI				
†E7b.	Not an included treatment				
†E7c.	Comparative effectiveness				
* Screening-specific exclusion codes					

† Treatment-specific exclusion codes

Abbreviations: ABI = ankle-brachial index; CVD = cardiovascular disease; PAD = peripheral artery disease

- Aerden D, Massaad D, von KK, et al. The anklebrachial index and the diabetic foot: a troublesome marriage. Ann Vasc Surg. 2011;25(6):770-7. PMID: 21514102. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Alavi A, Sibbald RG, Nabavizadeh R, et al. Audible handheld Doppler ultrasound determines reliable and inexpensive exclusion of significant peripheral arterial disease. Vascular. 2015;23(6):622-9. PMID: 25628222. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 3. Allen J, Oates CP, Henderson J, et al. Comparison of lower limb arterial assessments using color-duplexultrasound and ankle/brachial pressure indexmeasurements. Angiology. 1996;47(3):225-32. PMID: 8638864. **KQ1E1**, **KQ2E2**, **KQ3E2**, **KQ4E1**, **KQ5E1**.
- Alnaeb ME, Crabtree VP, Boutin A, et al. Prospective assessment of lower-extremity peripheral arterial disease in diabetic patients using a novel automated optical device. Angiology. 2007;58(5):579-85. PMID: 18024941. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Aronow WS, Nayak D, Woodworth S, et al. Effect of simvastatin versus placebo on treadmill exercise time until the onset of intermittent claudication in older patients with peripheral arterial disease at sixmonths and at one year after treatment. AmJ Cardiol. 2003;92(6):711-2. PMID: 12972114. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.

- Aubert CE, Cluzel P, Kemel S, et al. Influence of peripheral vascular calcification on efficiency of screening tests for peripheral arterial occlusive disease in diabetes--a cross-sectional study. Diabet Med. 2014;31(2):192-9. PMID: 23952656. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Auteri A, Angaroni A, Borgatti E, et al. Triflusal in the treatment of patients with chronic peripheral arteriopathy: multicentre double-blind clinical study vs placebo. Int J Clin Pharmacol Res. 1995;15(2):57-63. PMID: 8593974.
 KO1E1, KO2E1, KO3E1, KO4E2a, KO5E2a.
- Baltic A, Baljic R, Radjo I, et al. Health Effects of the Programmed Physical Activities on Lipid Profile in Peripheral Arterial Disease of the Lower Extremities. Med Arh. 2015;69(5):311-4. PMID: 26622083. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E5, KQ5E5.
- Barone Gibbs B, Dobrosielski DA, Althouse AD, et al. The effect of exercise training on ankle-brachial indexin type 2 diabetes. Atherosclerosis. 2013;230(1):125-30. PMID: 23958264. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E3, KQ5E3.
- Burton NW, Ademi Z, Best S, et al. Efficacy of brief behavioral counselling by allied health professionals to promote physical activity in people with peripheral arterial disease (BIPP): study protocol for a multi-center randomized controlled trial. BMC Public Health. 2016;16(1):1148. PMID: 27829449. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2, KQ5E2.

- Campens L, Backer T, Simoens S, et al. Accuracy of os cillometric determination of the anklebrachial index as screening method for peripheral artery disease. Acta cardiologica. 2012;67(1):136-7. PMID: None. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Catalano M, Born G, Peto R. Prevention of serious vascular events by aspirin amongst patients with peripheral arterial disease: randomized, double-blind trial. J Intern Med. 2007;261(3):276-84. PMID: 17305650. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- Clairotte C, Retout S, Potier L, et al. Automated ankle-brachial pressure index measurement by clinical staff for peripheral arterial disease diagnosis in nondiabetic and diabetic patients. Diabetes Care. 2009;32(7):1231-6. PMID: 19366974. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Coe ER. Screening for peripheral arterial disease in a rural community health setting. J Vasc Nurs. 2014;32(4):137-8. PMID: 25455318. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Collins EG, O'Connell S, McBurney C, et al. Comparison of walking with poles and traditional walking for peripheral arterial disease rehabilitation. J Cardiopulm Rehabil Prev. 2012;32(4):210-8. PMID: 22595894. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E7c, KQ5E7c.
- 16. Collins T, editor. Home-based walking therapy improves walking ability and quality of life in patients with diabetes mellitus and peripheral arterial disease. 33rd Annual Meeting of the Society of General Internal Medicine; 2010 Apr 28-May 1; Minneapolis, MN (US). PREVDB Targeted Search: J Gen Intern Med; ABSTRACT ONLY. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- Collins TC, Krueger PN, Kroll TL, et al. Faceto-face interaction compared with video watching on use of physical activity in peripheral arterial disease: a pilot trial. Angiology.
 2009;60:21-30. PMID: 18586757. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E7c, KQ5E7c.
- Collins TC, Lunos S, Carlson T, et al. Effects of a home-based walking intervention on mobility and quality of life in people with diabetes and peripheral arterial disease: a randomized controlled trial. Diabetes Care.
 2011;34(10):2174-9. PMID: 21873560. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.

- Dedes H, Figoni SF, Kalioundji G, et al. Prospective Trial of Calf Ergometry Training on Walking Ability in Peripheral Arterial Disease. Phys Med Rehab. 2010;2(9 (Suppl 1)):S26. PMID: None. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- Domanchuk K, Ferrucci L, Guralnik JM, et al. Progenitor cell release plus exercise to improve functional performance in peripheral artery disease: the PROPEL Study. Contemp Clin Trials. 2013;36(2):502-9. PMID: 24080099. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E3, KQ5E3.
- Elam MB, Hunninghake DB, Davis KB, et al. Effect of niacin on lipid and lipoprotein levels and glycemic control in patients with diabetes and peripheral arterial disease: the ADMIT study: A randomized trial. Arterial Disease Multiple Intervention Trial. JAMA. 2000;284(10):1263-70. PMID: 10979113. KO1E1, KO2E1, KO3E1, KO4E3, KO5E2a.
- 22. Esteghamati A, Aflatoonian M, Rad MV, et al. Association of osteoprotegerin with peripheral artery disease in patients with type 2 diabetes. Arch Cardiovasc Dis. 2015;108(8-9):412-9. PMID: 26184866. **KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.**
- Feigelson HS, Criqui MH, Fronek A, et al. Screening for peripheral arterial disease: the sensitivity, specificity, and predictive value of noninvasive tests in a defined population. AmJ Epidemiol. 1994;140(6):526-34. PMID: 8067346. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 24. Fowler B, Jamrozik K, Norman P, et al. Prevalence of peripheral arterial disease: persistence of excess risk in former smokers. Aust NZ J Public Health. 2002;26(3):219-24. PMID: 12141616. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Franz RW, Garwick T, Haldeman K. Initial results of a 12-week, institution-based, supervised exercise rehabilitation program for the management of peripheral arterial disease. Vascular. 2010; 18(6):325-35. PMID: 20979920. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- 26. Girleanu I, Alexandrescu DM, Petris A, et al. Barriers of antiaggregant treatment. Rev Med Chir Soc Med Nat Iasi. 2014;118(2):333-8. PMID: 25076696. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E2.

- Gouveri E, Papanas N, Marakomichelakis G, et al. Post-exercise ankle-brachial indexis not an indispensable tool for the detection of peripheral arterial disease in an epidemiological survey. A post-hoc analysis of the Athens Study. International angiology : a journal of the International Union of Angiology. 2013;32(5):518-25. PMID: 23903312. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Guidon M, McGee H. One-year effect of a supervised exercise programme on functional capacity and quality of life in peripheral arterial disease. Disabil Rehabil. 2013;35(5):397-404.
 PMID: 22804715. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- 29. 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(9326):7-22. PMID: 12114036. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- Heikkila A, Venermo M, Kautiainen H, et al. Physical Activity Improves Borderline Ankle-Brachial Index Values in a Cardiovascular Risk Population. Ann Vasc Surg. 2016;32:50-6. PMID: 26806230. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E6, KQ5E6.
- Herraiz-Adillo A, Martinez-Vizcaino V, Cavero-Redondo I, et al. Diagnostic Accuracy Study of an Oscillometric Ankle-Brachial Indexin Peripheral Arterial Disease: The Influence of Oscillometric Errors and Calcified Legs. PLoS ONE. 2016;11(11):e0167408. PMID: 27898734. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Hiatt WR, Rogers RK, Brass EP. The treadmill is a better functional test than the 6-minute walk test in therapeutic trials of patients with peripheral artery disease. Circulation. 2014;130(1):69-78. PMID: 24982118. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 33. Hope Study I. The HOPE (Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation) Study: the design of a large, simple randomized trial of an angiotensinconverting enzyme inhibitor (ramipril) and vitamin E in patients at high risk of cardiovascular events. The HOPE study investigators. Can J Cardiol. 1996;12(2):127-37. PMID: 8605634. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.

- 34. Ichihashi S, Hashimoto T, Iwakoshi S, et al. Validation study of automated oscillometric measurement of the ankle-brachial index for lower arterial occlusive disease by comparison with computed tomography angiography. Hypertens Res. 2014;37(6):591-4. PMID: 24599013. KQ1E1, KQ2E2a, KQ3E2a, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Igari K, Kudo T, Uchiyama H, et al. Intraarterial injection of indocyanine green for evaluation of peripheral blood circulation in patients with peripheral arterial disease. Ann Vasc Surg. 2014;28(5):1280-5. PMID: 24583370. KQ1E1, KQ2E2a, KQ3E2a, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 36. Jahn J, Zimmermann W, Moysidis T, et al. Ankle brachial index and pneumoplethysmographic pulse-volume recordings for detection of peripheral arterial disease. Vasa. 2014;43(3):202-8. PMID: 24797052. KQ1E1, KQ2E2a, KQ3E2a, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Jamrozik K, Norman PE, Spencer CA, et al. Screening for abdominal aortic aneurysm: lessons from a population-based study. Med J Aust. 2000;173(7):345-50. PMID: 11062788. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Jeevanantham V, Chehab B, Austria E, et al. Comparison of accuracy of two different methods to determine ankle-brachial index to predict peripheral arterial disease severity confirmed by angiography. AmJ Cardiol. 2014;114(7):1105-10. PMID: 25129876. KO1E1, KO2E2a, KO3E2a, KO4E1, KO5E1.
- Jeon CH, Han SH, Chung NS, et al. The validity of ankle-brachial index for the differential diagnosis of peripheral arterial disease and lumbar spinal stenosis in patients with atypical claudication. Eur Spine J. 2012;21(6):1165-70. PMID: 22105308. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Johnsen MC, Landow WJ, Sonnefeld J, et al. Evaluation of Legs For Life National Screening and Awareness Program for Peripheral Vascular Disease: results of a follow-up survey of screening participants. J Vasc Interv Radiol. 2002;13(1):25-35. PMID: 11788690. KQ1E3, KQ2E3, KQ3E3, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 41. Kumbhani DJ, Steg PG, Cannon CP, et al. Adherence to secondary prevention medications and four-year outcomes in outpatients with atherosclerosis. AmJ Med. 2013;126(8):693-700.e1. PMID: 23800583. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E6, KQ5E3.

- Kvist T, Lindholt J, Rasmussen L, et al. The DanCavas Pilot Study of Multifaceted Screening for Subclinical Cardiovascular Disease in Men and Women Aged 65-74 Years. Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg. 2017;53(1):123-31. PMID: 27890524. KQ1E3, KQ2E1, KQ3E3, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 43. Kwon JN, Lee WB. Utility of digital pulse oximetry in the screening of lower extremity arterial disease. J Korean Surg Soc. 2012;82(2):94-100. PMID: 22347711. KQ1E1, KQ2E2a, KQ3E2a, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 44. Lewis JE, Owens DR. The pulse volume recorder as a measure of peripheral vascular status in people with diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Technol Ther. 2010;12(1):75-80. PMID: 20082588. KQ1E1, KQ2E4, KQ3E4, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Lewis JE, Williams P, Davies JH. Non-invasive assessment of peripheral arterial disease: Automated ankle brachial index measurement and pulse volume analysis compared to duplex scan. SAGE Open Med. 2016;4:2050312116659088. PMID: 27493755.
 - **KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.**
- Lindholt JS, Søgaard R. Population screening and intervention for vascular disease in Danish men (VIVA): a randomised controlled trial. Lancet. 2017; [Epub ahead of print]. PMID: 28859943. KQ1E7, KQ2E1, KQ3E7, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 47. Londero LS, Lindholt JS, Thomsen MD, et al. Pulse palpation is an effective method for population-based screening to exclude peripheral arterial disease. J Vasc Surg. 2016;63(5):1305-10. PMID: 26947795. KQ1E3, KQ2E4c, KQ3E3, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Lyu X, Li S, Peng S, et al. Intensive walking exercise for lower extremity peripheral arterial disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. J Diabetes. 2016;8(3):363-77. PMID: 25940390. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E6, KQ5E6.
- 49. Mancera-Romero J, Rodriguez-Morata A, Angel Sanchez-Chaparro M, et al. Role of an intermittent claudication questionnaire for the diagnosis of PAD in ambulatory patients with type 2 diabetes. Int Angiol. 2013;32(5):512-7. PMID: 23903311. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Mancini M, Di DO, Saldalamacchia G, et al. Contrast-enhanced ultrasound evaluation of peripheral microcirculation in diabetic patients: effects of cigarette smoking. Radiol Med. 2013;118(2):206-14. PMID: 22580811. KQ1E1, KQ2E2a, KQ3E2a, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.

- Mani V, Wong SK, Sawit ST, et al. Relationship between particulate matter exposure and atherogenic profile in "Ground Zero" workers as shown by dynamic contrast enhanced MR imaging. Int J Cardiovasc Imaging. 2013;29(4):827-33. PMID: 23179748. KQ1E2, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E2, KQ5E2.
- Mannarino E, Pasqualini L, Menna M, et al. Effects of physical training on peripheral vascular disease: a controlled study. Angiology. 1989;40(1):5-10. PMID: 2642671. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- 53. McDermott M, Criqui M, Domanchuk K, et al. A home-based exercise intervention significantly improves walking performance in peripheral arterial disease: One-year follow-up from a randomized controlled trial. Circulation. 2013;128(22 suppl. 1). PMID: None. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- 54. McDermott M, Criqui M, Domanchuk K, et al. Home-based exercise improves walking speed and prevents mobility loss in peripheral artery disease: A randomized controlled trial. Circulation. 2014;130. PMID: None. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- 55. McDermott MM, Ades P, Guralnik JM, et al. Treadmill exercise and resistance training in patients with peripheral arterial disease with and without intermittent claudication: a randomized controlled trial. JAMA. 2009;301(2):165-74. PMID: 19141764. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- 56. McDermott MM, Carroll TJ, Kibbe M, et al. Proximal superficial femoral artery occlusion, collateral vessels, and walking performance in peripheral artery disease. JACC Cardiovasc Imaging. 2013;6(6):687-94. PMID: 23647796. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 57. McDermott MM, Domanchuk K, Liu K, et al. The Group Oriented Arterial Leg Study (GOALS) to improve walking performance in patients with peripheral arterial disease. Contemp Clin Trials. 2012;33(6):1311-20. PMID: 23158112. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- McDermott MM, Guralnik JM, Criqui MH, et al. Unsupervised exercise and mobility loss in peripheral artery disease: a randomized controlled trial. J Am Heart Assoc. 2015;4(5). PMID: 25994445. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.

- McDermott MM, Guralnik JM, Criqui MH, et al. Home-based walking exercise in peripheral artery disease: 12-month follow-up of the GOALS randomized trial. J Am Heart Assoc. 2014;3(3):e000711. PMID: 24850615. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- McDermott MM, Guralnik JM, Greenland P, et al. Statin use and leg functioning in patients with and without lower-extremity peripheral arterial disease. Circulation. 2003;107(5):757-61. PMID: 12578881. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E6, KQ5E6.
- McDermott MM, Liu K, Carroll TJ, et al. Superficial femoral artery plaque and functional performance in peripheral arterial disease: walking and leg circulation study (WALCS III). JACC Cardiovasc Imaging. 2011;4(7):730-9. PMID: 21757163. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- McDermott MM, Liu K, Guralnik JM, et al. Home-based walking exercise intervention in peripheral artery disease: a randomized clinical trial. JAMA. 2013;310(1):57-65. PMID: 23821089. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- McDermott MM, Mazor KM, Reed G, et al. Attitudes and behavior of peripheral arterial disease patients toward influencing their physician's prescription of cholesterol-lowering medication. Vasc Med. 2010;15(2):83-90. PMID: 20118170. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E3, KQ5E3.
- 64. McDermott MM, Reed G, Greenland P, et al. Activating peripheral arterial disease patients to reduce cholesterol: a randomized trial. Am J Med. 2011;124(6):557-65. PMID: 21605733. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E3, KQ5E3.
- McDermott MM, Tiukinhoy S, Greenland P, et al. A pilot exercise intervention to improve lower extremity functioning in peripheral arterial disease unaccompanied by intermittent claudication. J Cardiopulm Rehabil.
 2004;24:187-96. PMID: 15235301. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E4, KQ5E4.
- 66. Meade T, For the British Medical Research Council General Practice Research Framework and participating vascular clinics. Design and intermediate results of the Lower Extremity Arterial Disease Event Reduction (LEADER)* trial of bezafibrate in men with lower extremity arterial disease. Curr Control Tials Cardiovasc Med. 2001;2(4):195-204. PMID: 11806795. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.

- Meade T, Zuhrie R, Cook C, et al. Bezafibrate in men with lower extremity arterial disease: randomised controlled trial. BMJ. 2002;325(7373):1139. PMID: 12433762. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- Mehler PS, Coll JR, Estacio R, et al. Intensive blood pressure control reduces the risk of cardiovascular events in patients with peripheral arterial disease and type 2 diabetes. Circulation. 2003;107(5):753-6. PMID: 12578880. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E4, KQ5E4.
- Mehlsen J, Wiinberg N, Bruce C. Oscillometric blood pressure measurement: a simple method in screening for peripheral arterial disease. Clin Physiol Funct Imaging. 2008;28(6):426-9.
 PMID: 18803641. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Mohler ER, III, Bundens W, Denenberg J, et al. Progression of asymptomatic peripheral artery disease over 1 year. Vasc Med. 2012;17(1):10-6. PMID: 22363014. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Mohler ER, 3rd, Hiatt WR, Gornik HL, et al. Sodiumnitrite in patients with peripheral artery disease and diabetes mellitus: safety, walking distance and endothelial function. Vasc Med. 2014; 19(1):9-17. PMID: 24363302. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- MuntendamP, McCall C, Sanz J, et al. The BioImage Study: novel approaches to risk assessment in the primary prevention of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease--study design and objectives. AmHeart J. 2010;160(1):49-57.e1. PMID: 20598972. KO1E3, KO2E1, KO3E1, KO4E1, KO5E1.
- 73. Niazi K, Khan T, Easley K. Diagnostic utility of the two methods of ankle brachial indexin the detection of peripheral arterial disease of lower extremities. Catheter Cardiovasc Interv. 2006;68(5):788-92. PMID: 17039537. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 74. Oesterling C, Kalia A, Chetcuti T, et al. Atypical leg symptoms: does routine measurement of the ankle brachial pressure index (ABPI) in primary care benefit patients? London J Prim Care (Abingdon). 2015;7(5):97-102. PMID: 26681981. KQ1E3, KQ2E3, KQ3E3, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 75. Oka RK, Conte MS, Owens CD, et al. Efficacy of optimal long-term management of multiple cardiovascular risk factors (CVD) on walking and quality of life in patients with peripheral artery disease (PAD): protocol for randomized controlled trial. Vasc Med. 2012;17(1):17-28. PMID: 22363015. **KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E3, KQ5E3.**

- 76. Patel M, Jones W. Peripheral Artery Disease Therapies May Perform Differently in Practice Than in Randomized Trials the Need for Learning Health Systems. JACC Cardiovascular interventions. 2016. PMID: 27056312. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Patru S, Bighea AC, Popescu R. Remission of Walking Parameters in Peripheral Arterial Disease through Association of Galvanic Baths and Kinesytherapy. Curr Health Sci J. 2014;40(1):51-6. PMID: 24791206. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E5, KQ5E5.
- Premanath M, Raghunath M. Ankle-Brachial index by oscillometry: A very useful method to assess peripheral arterial disease in diabetes. Int J Diabetes Dev Ctries. 2010;30(2):97-101. PMID: 20535314. KQ1E1, KQ2E5, KQ3E5, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 79. Prevost A, Lafitte M, Pucheu Y, et al. Education and home based training for intermittent claudication: functional effects and quality of life. Eur J Prev Cardiol. 2015;22(3):373-9.
 PMID: 24177266. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KO4E2a, KO5E2a.
- Quirk F, Dickinson C, Baune B, et al. Pilot trial of motivational interviewing in patients with peripheral artery disease. International angiology : a journal of the International Union of Angiology. 2012;31(5):468-73. PMID: 22990510. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- Ramos R, García-Gil M, Comas-Cufí M, et al. Statins for Prevention of Cardiovascular Events in a Low-Risk Population With Low Ankle Brachial Index. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2016;67(6):630-40. PMID: 26868687. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E6, KQ5E6.
- Rejeski WJ, Spring B, Domanchuk K, et al. A group-mediated, home-based physical activity intervention for patients with peripheral artery disease: effects on social and psychological function. J Transl Med. 2014; 12:29. PMID: 24467875. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KO5E2a.
- Ren S, Qian S, Wang W, et al. Prospective study of sarpogrelate hydrochloride on patients with arterios clerosis obliterans. Ann Thorac Cardiovas Surg. 2013;19(1):30-4. PMID: 23364237. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2, KQ5E2.

- 84. Ro du H, Moon HJ, Kim JH, et al. Photoplethysmography and continuous-wave Doppler ultras ound as a complementary test to ankle-brachial indexin detection of stenotic peripheral arterial disease. Angiology.
 2013;64(4):314-20. PMID: 23162005. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 85. Roitman JL. Literature Update-Selected abstracts from recent publications in cardiopulmonary disease prevention and rehabilitation: Treadmill exercise and resistance training in patients with peripheral arterial disease with and without in intermittent claudication: A randomized controlled trial. J Cardiopulm Rehabil Prev. 2010;30:62. PMID: None. KQ1E6, KQ2E6, KQ3E6, KQ4E6, KQ5E6.
- 86. Ruiz-Canela M, Estruch R, Corella D, et al. Association of Mediterranean diet with peripheral artery disease: The PREDIMED randomized trial. JAMA. 2014;311(4):415-7. PMID: 24449321. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 87. Schroder F, Diehm N, Kareem S, et al. A modified calculation of ankle-brachial pressure index is far more sensitive in the detection of peripheral arterial disease. J Vasc Surg. 2006;44(3):531-6. PMID: 16950430. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Shirasu T, Hoshina K, Akagi D, et al. Pulse volume recordings to identify falsely elevated ankle brachial index. Asian Cardiovasc Thorac Ann. 2016. PMID: 27230517. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Soejima H, Morimoto T, Saito Y, et al. Aspirin for the primary prevention of cardiovascular events in patients with peripheral artery disease or diabetes mellitus. Analyses from the JPAD, POPADAD and AAA trials. Thromb Haemost. 2010;104(6):1085-8. PMID: 20941462. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E6, KQ5E6.
- 90. SoRelle R. Keeping the pressure down in patients with type 2 diabetes and peripheral artery disease. Circulation. 2003;107(5):E9008-E9. PMID: 12578895. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E6, KQ5E6.
- 91. Span M, Gersak G, Millasseau SC, et al. Detection of peripheral arterial disease with an improved automated device: comparison of a new oscillometric device and the standard Doppler method. Vasc Health Risk Manag. 2016;12:305-11. PMID: 27536125. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E4c, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.

- 92. Suzuki E, Egawa K, Nishio Y, et al. Prevalence and major risk factors of reduced flow volume in lower extremities with normal ankle-brachial index in Japanese patients with type 2 diabetes. Diabetes Care. 2003;26(6):1764-9. PMID: 12766107. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- Tehan P, Bray A, Keech R, et al. Sensitivity and Specificity of the Toe-Brachial Index for Detecting Peripheral Arterial Disease: Initial Findings. J Ultrasound Med. 2015;34(10):1737-43. PMID: 26307119. KQ1E1, KQ2E5, KQ3E5, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 94. Tehan PE, Bray A, Chuter VH. Non-invasive vascular as sessment in the foot with diabetes: sensitivity and specificity of the ankle brachial index, toe brachial index and continuous wave Doppler for detecting peripheral arterial disease. J Diabetes Complications. 2016;30(1):155-60. PMID: 26281971. KQ1E1, KQ2E5, KQ3E5, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 95. Tehan PE, Chuter VH. A targeted screening method for non-invasive vascular as sessment of the lower limb. J Foot Ankle Res. 2016;9:48. PMID: 27980685. **KQ1E1, KQ2E7, KQ3E7, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.**

- 96. Wang J, Zhou S, Bronks R, et al. Supervised exercise training combined with ginkgo biloba treatment for patients with peripheral arterial disease. Clin Rehabil. 2007;21:579-86. PMID: 17702699. KQ1E1, KQ2E1, KQ3E1, KQ4E2a, KQ5E2a.
- 97. Williams DT, Harding KG, Price P. An evaluation of the efficacy of methods used in screening for lower-limb arterial disease in diabetes. Diabetes Care. 2005;28(9):2206-10.
 PMID: 16123491. KQ1E1, KQ2E2, KQ3E2, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 98. Wukich DK, Shen W, Raspovic KM, et al. Noninvasive Arterial Testing in Patients With Diabetes : A Guide for Foot and Ankle Surgeons. Foot Ankle Int. 2015;36(12):1391-9. PMID: 26194106. KQ1E1, KQ2E4c, KQ3E1, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.
- 99. Zainuer A, Inoue Y, Kudo T, et al. Usefulness of the transfer function index for diagnosing peripheral arterial disease in patients with arterial calcification. J Med Dent Sci. 2016;63(1):29-35. PMID: 27181488. KQ1E1, KQ2E2a, KQ3E2a, KQ4E1, KQ5E1.

Study Reference	Of south a Name a	1	Estimated	Description	2017
I rial identifier	Study Name	Location	N	Description	Status
<u>ISKCTN12157600</u>	Screening Trial (DANCAVAS)	Denmark	(men)	benefits and cost-effectiveness of using noncontrast computer tomography scans (to measure coronary artery calcification (CAC) and identify aortic/iliac aneurysms) and	Est Interim Publication Date 2018;
				measurements of the ankle-brachial blood pressure index (ABI) as part of a multifocal screening and intervention program for CVD in men aged 65 to 74 years.	Completion Date Jan 2026
NCT03228459 (Protocol) (project page)	Randomized intervention study to assess the prevalence of subclinical vascular disease and hidden kidney disease and its impact on morbidity and mortality: The ILERVAS project	Spain	14,600	Adults 45 to 70 years w ithout previous history of CVD and w ith ≥1 CVD risk factor w ill be randomly selected from the primary health care centers across the province of Lérida. The follow ing baseline tests w ill be given to the intervention group in a mobile screening unit: artery ultrasound (carotid, femoral, transcranial and abdominal aorta); the ABI; spirometry; determination of advanced glycation end products; dried blood spot and urine spot tests.	Ongoing: Est Data Collection Completion Date 2017; Follow up through 2027
ACTRN 12614000592640 (Protocol)	Effect of a brief behavioural counselling intervention on physical activity behaviour in people with peripheral artery disease.	Australia	200	Multicenter RCT in four cities across Australia; participants (N=200) will be recruited from specialist vascular clinics, general practitioners and research databases. This trial will assess the efficacy of a brief behavioral counselling intervention delivered by allied health professionals to improve physical activity in persons with PAD.	Ongoing: Est Data Collection Completion Date NR
NCT01321086	Motivational Interview ing (MI) for African Americans With Peripheral Arterial Disease (PAD)	U.S.	174	Clinical research trial to determine the role of motivational interviewing on promoting home-based walking therapy to improve walking ability in African Americans with PAD (ABI <0.995). Quality of life, measured with the SF-12 and VascQOL questionnaires, is a prespecified secondary outcome.	Completed Nov 2016; not yet published
NCT00537225	Multifactor Risk Reduction for Optimal Management of PAD (VIGOR2)	U.S.	300	To examine effectiveness of a long-term multifactor CVD risk reduction program (HEAR2T) vs. enhanced standard care on walking and quality of life in patients with PAD.	Ongoing: Est Completion Date Jun 2018
NCT02622282	Text Messaging to Promote Walking Among Latino Adults at Risk for Peripheral Arterial Disease	U.S.	69	The purpose of this study is to learn about the impact of text messaging on physical activity in persons with risk factors for PAD. Quality of life is a prespecified secondary outcome.	Completed Dec 2016; not yet published

Abbreviations: Est = estimated; Jan = January; Jul = July; Jun = June, Nov=November, Dec=December; PAD = peripheral artery disease; RCT = randomized controlled trial; Sept = September; U.S. = United States