

PERIPHERAL ARTERIAL DISEASE IN CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE PATIENT

Md Abdul Hamid¹ Sujat Paul² Pradip Kumar Dutta^{3*}

Abstract

Among the different complications of chronic kidney diseases, Peripheral Arterial Disease (PAD) is not uncommon which is an indicator of wide spread atherosclerosis in other vascular territories, such as the cerebral and coronary circulations. Traditional cardiovascular risk factors, such as black race, male gender, age, tobacco use, diabetes, hyperlipidemia, and hypertension are also associated with PAD. But in kidney patients this disease is sometimes neglected. This present review tends to describe epidemiology, risk factors and necessities for screening of PAD in chronic kidney disease patients.

Key words

Chronic kidney disease; Peripheral arterial disease; Atherosclerosis.

Introduction

Cardiovascular disease in patients with Chronic Kidney Disease (CKD) is common and has major implications in terms of both human suffering and health economics. Individuals with CKD are at increased risk for Cardio Vascular Diseases (CVD) which include specific conditions such as Coronary Artery Disease (CAD) Congestive heart failure and PAD. Among the different localizations of CVD, PAD affecting the lower limbs has a higher morbidity. This is an indicator of wide spread atherosclerosis¹. There is also considerable

overlap between PAD, Cerebro Vascular Disease (CBVD) and CAD with the presence of PAD being associated²⁻⁴. PAD is measured by an Ankle-Brachial Index (ABI). The population with CKD is particularly at risk for PAD, that accounts for significant morbidity and mortality among End Stage Renal Disease (ESRD) patients with a prevalence of 24% in one cross-sectional analysis^{5,6}. Due to a lack of consensus regarding treatment options and the poor outcomes associated with traditional surgical revascularization and amputation for the ESRD population, screening for PAD remains a controversial topic⁷. However, there is evidence that supports aggressive screening, diagnosis, medical treatment, and revascularization prior to amputation to reduce mortality. Non-surgical interventions are available to re-establish circulation to the lower extremities, thereby decreasing or resolving symptoms associated with PAD such as claudication and skin ulceration⁸. Nephrology professionals understand how an amputation can impact the prognosis for effective dialysis. Therefore, nephrologists must have knowledge about screening, diagnosis, and treatment strategies for this condition. The latest Inter-Society Consensus for the Management of PAD (TASC II) guidelines recognized CKD as a risk factor for PAD⁹. This was largely based on findings of the Heart and Estrogen/Progestin Replacement Study (HERS) in which CKD was found to be independently associated with PAD in postmenopausal women. For the nondialysis patient with PAD, 1 to 3% with claudication will undergo an amputation in 5 yr⁹. Among patients with ESRD, amputation for PAD is more prevalent compared with the general population¹⁰. The incidence of PAD increases with age. Data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) reveals that the prevalence of PAD in the age group 50 to 59 yrs is 2.5% and increases to 14.5% in the age group of 70 yrs. Patients with impaired renal function have a greater than two-fold risk for developing PAD¹¹.

-
1. Registrar of Medicine
Chittagong Medical College Hospital, Chittagong.
 2. Professor of Medicine
Chittagong Medical College, Chittagong.
 3. Professor of Nephrology
Chittagong Medical College, Chittagong.

***Correspondence: Dr. Pradip Kumar Dutta**

*Email : duttaprd@gmail.com
Cell : 01819 314623*

Received on : 07.01.2018

Accepted on : 13.01.2018

The NHANES 1999–2000 found 24% of adults who were older than 40 yrs and had a creatinine clearance ≥ 60 ml/min per 1.73 m² to have an ABI of ≥ 0.9 ⁹. In the dialysis population, according to United States Renal Data System report, the incidence of clinical PAD is 15%¹².

Traditional cardiovascular risk factors, such as tobacco use, diabetes, hyperlipidaemia, and hypertension, are also associated with PAD. Unmodifiable risk factors that are associated with PAD include black race, male gender, and age. Of the modifiable risk factors for PAD in the general population, tobacco abuse is likely the most important¹³. The prevalence of PAD among those with diabetes is high, and many people's diabetes is undiagnosed¹⁴. Dyslipidemia plays an important role in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis and is strongly associated with PAD. Recently, the Ankle–Brachial Index (ABI) has been recognized as an accurate and reliable marker of sub-clinical or clinical PAD¹⁵. ABI is a non-invasive test to screen for PAD, measured by a hand-held Doppler probe, and is the ratio between systolic Blood Pressure (BP) in the ankle and systolic BP in the arm. Measurement of ABI has shown high sensitivity (95%) and specificity (100%) for the diagnosis of PAD in comparison with arteriography, the gold standard¹⁶. The normal value of the ABI ranges from 0.9 to 1.4. On the basis of epidemiological evidence, current guidelines recommend a cut-off of 0.9 for the diagnosis of PAD¹⁷.

The study regarding evaluation of peripheral arterial disease in CKD patient in developing country is even scarce. So this present study is aimed to evaluate the prevalence and pattern of peripheral arterial disease globally as well as some data in developing country.

Search Strategy

PubMed search with clinical query was done with key words (PAD AND CKD) AND Atherosclerosis AND Developing country. References of the main articles were also searched.

Discussion

Despite the high prevalence of PAD and the increased risk of mortality and morbidity of cardiovascular diseases in individuals with PAD, it is still under diagnosed and undertreated because of lack of symptoms, subtly of clinical findings, and lack of awareness. Three out of four people are not aware of PAD and few Americans know

that having PAD significantly increases the risk for heart attack and stroke¹⁸. Diagnosis of PAD is essential to improve quality of life, prevent further functional impairment, and to reduce cardiovascular disease mortality and morbidity.

Epidemiology

The prevalence of PAD differs widely depending on the population, the diagnostic tool used and the methods of the study. In general PAD affects 4% to 12% of people aged 55-70 years and 15-20% of people aged over 70 years¹⁹. In the United States, PAD affects approximately 8 million adults over the age of 40. The incidence of PAD increases substantially with age in both sexes at a rate of 1.5 to 2 fold for every 10 year increase in age. PAD affects 4 percent of people 40 years of age or older, however, the prevalence increases to 14.5 percent at age 70¹⁹. The prevalence of PAD is 25 to 30% among people with multiple risk factors in primary care settings²⁰. There is no substantial difference in PAD incidence between men and women, never the less, African-Americans have a 2.4 fold increase in prevalence than the non-Hispanic white population^{19,20}. Individuals with PAD are at a 3 times increased risk for all cause mortality compared with the general population.

Also, they are 6 times more likely to have a heart attack and 2 to 3 times more likely to have a stroke with in the next 10 years²¹. The cost of PAD-related treatment was 4.37 billion dollars in the medicare population, however, this is not including the undiagnosed people²². According to a report published in 2004 by the Sage Group out of Atlanta, approximately 160,000 amputations are performed annually in the United States because of PAD²³. Depending on the patient population, procedural mortality rates range from 4% to 30% and morbidity from 20% to 37%. In developint countries data is incomplete⁵.

Risk Factors

Smoking

Smoking is probably the most important risk factor for PAD. Cigarette smoking increases the risk of PAD by 7 fold. Smoking is associated with PAD more strongly than CAD. Smoking also reduces the effectiveness of anti-platelet medication in such patients^{24,25}. CRP, fibrinogen and homocysteine are novel risk factors in both white and non-white ethnic groups²⁶.

Diabetes

Diabetes is another major risk factor for PAD and its complications. PAD is twice more common among patients with diabetes than non-diabetic patients. Because it is accompanied with peripheral neuropathy (Decreased sensation in the extremities especially legs and feet) the symptoms of PAD among patients with diabetes are often more subtle and the classic intermittent claudication (Pain that occurs with walking and usually improves with rest) is less common. Foot ulcerations, infection, and gangrene may be the initial presentation of peripheral arterial disease among patients with diabetes. PAD in patients with diabetes are usually more diffuse and distal²⁷. Insulin resistance is also a risk factor for PAD even in individuals without diabetes²⁸.

Dyslipidaemia

The ratio of Total Cholesterol (TC): High Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol (HDL-C) is the strongest lipid predictor of PAD risk²⁹. The most frequent dyslipidaemia associated with PAD is elevated triglycerides and low HDL-C³⁰. LDL should be the primary target for lipid control with value of 1.8 mmol (Or 50% reduction from the initial value in very high risk patients) and 2.6 mmol/l in high risk patients. According to the ESC Guidelines 2016 every CKD with GFR 30-59 ml/min/1.73 m² or PAD is a high risk patient. Very high risk patient is the one with GFR <30 ml/min/1.73 m² or CKD with history or documentation of PAD or coronary artery disease³¹.

Hypertension

Hypertension is a major risk factor for all vascular disorders and is associated with a 2- to 3-fold risk for PAD¹. 2 to 5% of hypertensive patients have intermittent claudication, while 35 to 55% of patients with PAD at presentation have hypertension. Low HDL-C is closely linked to the development of PAD^{1,32}.

Homocysteine

Clarke et al were the first to report that hyperhomocysteinaemia could be an independent risk factor for atherosclerosis³³. Homocysteine has been thought to be associated with thrombotic events although the precise mechanisms by which elevated homocysteine levels contribute to the pathogenesis of vascular disease are unknown.

Obesity

Obesity is also an important risk factor for developing PAD. Increased waist to hip ratio of more than 0.966 (Median value) was found to be independently associated with PAD. In studies, it was found that Body Mass Index (BMI) did not correlate with PAD after controlling for smoking, diabetes, hypertension, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, and triglycerides³⁴. Obesity leads to worsening of intermittent claudication, physical function, and health-related quality of life in the individuals with PAD.

The fontaine classification describes PAD as follows²⁹ :

Stage I -Asymptomatic

Stage II -Intermittent claudication

Stage III -Rest pain / Nocturnal pain

Stage IV -Necrosis / Gangrene

Establishing the diagnosis of PAD in CKD

The main method to confirm the diagnosis is Doppler ultrasonography (Duplex scanning). The ratio of systolic blood pressure at the ankle and in the arm Ankle-Brachial Pressure Index (ABPI) provides a measure of blood flow at the level of the ankle. The ABPI is a strong marker of cardiovascular disease and is predictive of cardiovascular events and mortality³⁵.

Status of peripheral artery according to ABI

Range of ABI	Condition of Artery
> 1.4	Calcification/ Vessel Hardening
1-1.4	Normal
0.9-1	Border Line
0.8-0.9	Some Arterial Disease
0.5-0.8	Moderate Arterial Disease
< 0.5	Severe Arterial Disease

Duplex ultrasonography is also able to determine the site of disease and indicate the degree of stenosis and length of an occlusion. Other methods of investigation now include MR angiography and CT angiography. MR angiography may be offered prior to revascularization³⁶. Digital subtraction arteriography is not recommended as the primary

imaging modality and is essentially a pre-operative investigation. Its use is limited to an adjuvant of endovascular management, surgical planning or the management of an acute ischaemic limb.

Box 1 : Screening for peripheral arterial disease in CKD³⁷
 Recommendations for detection of PAD in clinical practice KDOQI

- At the time of dialysis therapy initiation, all patients should be evaluated for the presence of PAD
- Evaluation should include physical examination, including assessment of arterial pulse
- Further specialized studies, such as duplex studies or invasive testing, should be undertaken if abnormalities are detected upon physical examination and if interventions are considered.

TASC II

Recommend screening for PAD in:

- Patients with exertional leg symptoms
- Patients aged 50–69 years with cardiovascular risk factors
- All patients aged ≥70 years
- Pts with a 10-y risk of a cardiovascular event of 10-20%, determined by SCORE / Framingham

ACC/AHA

Recommend screening for PAD in:

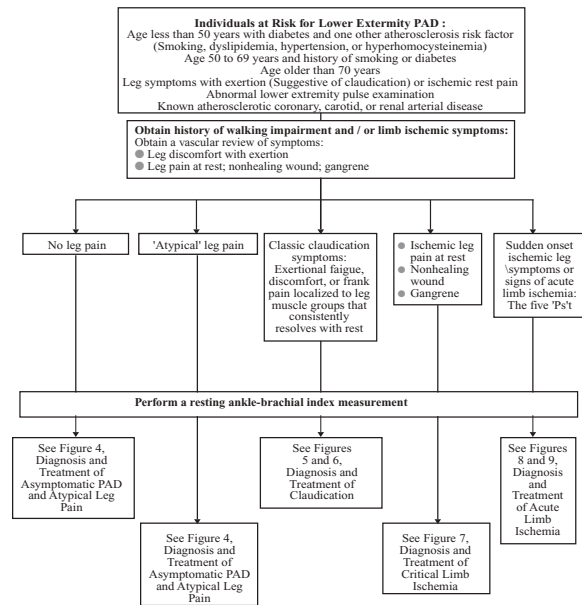
- Patients aged <50 y with diabetes and additional CVD risk factor
- Patients 50 years with any CVD risk factor (Smoking, diabetes, hypertension, elevated cholesterol)
- Patients 65 ≥ years.

KDOQI= National Kidney Foundation
TASC=Inter-Society Consensus of Treatment of PAD
ACC=American College of Cardiology
AHA=American Heart Association

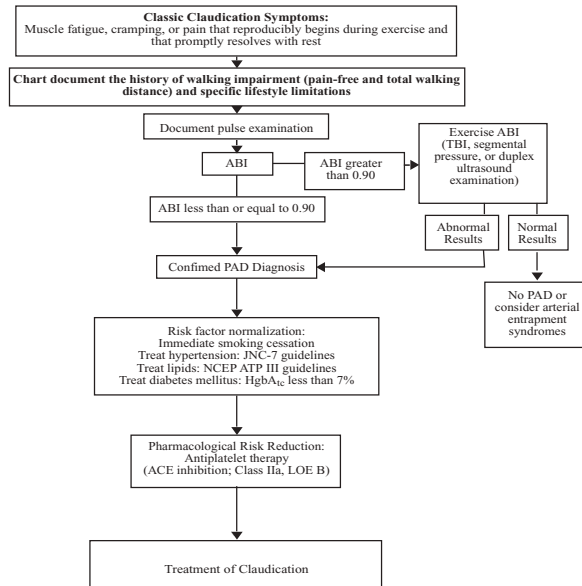
Combined effect of chronic kidney disease and peripheral arterial disease on mortality in a high-risk population

CKD and PAD are independent predictors of mortality. The overall 6 years mortality rate in a study of peripheral arterial disease and the CKD Patient. The case for early screening, diagnosis and minimally invasive revascularization in USA was 28% (n = 284). Patients with PAD and CKD had the highest 6 years mortality rate at 45%. Patients with CKD alone had a 28% mortality rate. Patients with PAD alone had a 26% rate. Patients with neither condition had an 18% mortality rate³⁸.

Algorithm 1: ACC-AHA PAD Guideline algorithm defining the key clinical PAD syndromes that define subsequent care pathways³⁹



Algorithm 2: The ACC-AHA PAD Guideline algorithm for the treatment of claudication³⁹



Current KDIGO guidelines recommend that adults with CKD at risk for atherosclerotic events be offered treatment with an antiplatelet medication (Usually low dose aspirin or clopidogrel) unless there is an increased bleeding risk that needs to be balanced against the possible cardiovascular benefit.

Secondary prevention of CVD in patients with PAD (With or without CKD)³⁹

Recent KDOQI Guidelines on the management of diabetes in CKD have however recommended a goal HbA1C of 7% in persons with CKD and higher goals in those at risk of hypoglycemia or those with significant co-morbidities and limited life expectancy.

Due to their cardio-protective benefit, ACE-I and ARB medications are considered indicated for patients with PAD in current care guideline Beta-blocker use is not contraindicated in persons with CKD or claudication, as there is no detrimental impact on claudication symptoms or limb outcome given the high PAD and CAD disease burden in patients with kidney disease, statin use may be reasonable until conclusive evidence suggests otherwise.

Collaborative care opportunities to improve PAD-CKD care delivery³⁹

Focus Area	Suggestions for Nephrologists	Suggestions for Vascular Specialists
Claudication Care Improvement	<p>Recognize both classic claudication and atypical leg pain symptoms in patients with CKD.</p> <p>Become adept at interpretation of PAD non-invasive vascular laboratory diagnostic tests.</p> <p>Utilize the claudication medication, cilostazol, with appropriate dose adjustment in patients with PAD and claudication (No PAD anatomic imaging required)</p> <p>Create and utilize supervised exercise as a primary claudication therapy in individuals with PAD and CKD (no PAD anatomic imaging required)</p> <p>Referral to vascular specialist when revascularization is required (Failure of medical claudication therapies).</p>	<p>Provide full range of claudication therapies to individuals with PAD and CKD and claudication.</p> <p>Provide appropriate dose adjustment of cilostazol for patients with CKD and ESRD.</p> <p>Co-lead creation of PAD claudication supervised exercise programs to assure that this modality is available</p> <p>Co-manage diabetes, lipids and hypertension, promote smoking cessation, antiplatelet therapy.</p>
Amputation Prevention (CLI care) Improvement	<p>Active surveillance for PAD and CLI, via provision of foot examinations and evaluations for neuropathy, pedal perfusion, and foot deformities, especially in dialysis patients.</p> <p>Engagement of wound care nurse or podiatry services in dialysis unit on a scheduled basis.</p>	<p>Promote appropriate use of the noninvasive vascular laboratory, and use of physiologic (Non-contrast) testing, and TBI/duplex techniques in patients with normal or supranormal ABI values, especially when clinical suspicion is high.</p> <p>Co-develop an amputation prevention program to assess feet and wounds at regular intervals at affiliated renal clinics and dialysis units.</p>
Clinical Research Improvement	<p>Build health system, regional or national registries of CKD patients with PAD in order to define real world outcomes, clinical failures, and to provide a platform to objectively test new care strategies.</p> <p>Use this platform to provide pilot data to inform PAD-CKD observational studies and prospective randomized clinical trials.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Create a new PAD risk model to help identify CKD patients at high risk ● Evaluate the accuracy of current PAD diagnostic testing strategies in CKD cohorts ● Prospectively test the impact of diagnostic testing, medical, and invasive care strategies to prevent adverse CVD and limb outcomes ● Refer to and enroll patients with CKD into current clinical trials of PAD treatment. 	
Health Policy and Advocacy Improvement	<p>Develop multidisciplinary teams of vascular specialists and nephrologists to create evidence based guidelines for management of PAD in CKD patients.</p> <p>Assure nephrology representation in all current amputation prevention clinical trials, health policy initiatives, and healthcare home initiatives.</p> <p>Create a "Call to Action" to utilize interdisciplinary health professional society leadership to foster creation of a national "PAD competent" workforce (PAD awareness would be provided to healthcare providers and patients). Such work is best initiated in concert with nephrology leadership.</p>	

Prognosis

The mortality rate in people with PAD is approximately 50% at 5 years and 70% at 10 years⁴⁰. Patients with PAD are at increased risk for all-cause mortality and from cardiovascular mortality⁴¹. Coronary heart disease is present in about 90% of people with severe PAD. The course of PAD is variable from gradual progression to more sudden deterioration. For people with intermittent claudication over a five-years period. Most people continue to have stable claudication. 10-20% develop worsening symptoms .5-10% develop critical limb ischaemia. Amputation is eventually required in 1-2% but this increases to 5% in people with diabetes⁴⁰. Critical limb ischaemia is also a marker for generalized, severe atherosclerosis, with a three-fold risk excess of future myocardial infarction, stroke, and vascular death compared with patients with intermittent claudication⁴². Critical limb ischaemia requires a major lower-limb amputation in about 30% of people within one year of diagnosis. Acute limb ischaemia has a poor prognosis, especially if diagnosis and treatment are delayed. Amputation may be necessary in up to 40% of people and the 30-days mortality can be up to 30%. Lower-limb artery bypass surgery is associated with up to 3% perioperative mortality and a mortality rate of almost 20% at one year. The prognosis following amputation is poor. Two years following a below-knee amputation, 30% are dead, 15% have an above-knee amputation, 15% have a contralateral amputation and only 40% have full mobility⁴².

Prevalence in Bangladesh

Out of 100 patients 18 patients suffered from PAD, there was no age preponderance. Median age 50 yrs. 14 male and 4 female. Most (12 patients) patients in CKD stage V. 10 patients (56%) were asymptomatic. ABI score varies between 0.76-0.88. Distribution of risk factors among the PAD patients showing, among 18 patients 38.9% have DM, 72.2% have HTN, 33.3% have both DM & HTN, 44.4% have other vascular events, 55.6% are smokers, 33.3% have dyslipidemia & 22.2% have family history of PAD⁴³.

In a study on PAD in our country shows most of the patients were male (69 out of 89) patients⁴⁴.

The mean age was 54.49 ±18.36 yrs in male and 49.45 ±17.89 yrs for female in a study of NICVD on PAD⁴⁴. Most of the patients of this series were more than 50 yrs of age (61.7%). In our contrast this male predominance may be due to lack of health checking behavior among the female.

Global prevalence

A predominance of the male gender with CKD is found in stages IV and V by Department of Nephrology and Neurology of University Hospital Virgen del Rocío, Seville, Spain in 2006⁴⁵. Another study regarding the same topic shows 63.9% were male⁴⁶.

In a Kenyan study 35% pt is in 30-44 years range, 32% is in 45-59 year range and another 32% is above 59 years⁴⁷. In the 2003–2006 NHANES study, the prevalence of CKD in people ages 60 was 24.5 percent. And in people between the ages of 20 and 39 was below 0.5 percent, that signifies the age related renal dysfunction⁴⁸. Another study of NHANES on 2229 patients, a 24% PAD prevalence rate was observed in patients with estimated GFR <60 ml/min/1.73m²⁴⁹. Another study including younger patients (55.7± 11.4 years) with a mean GFR of 30 ml/min has shown a prevalence rate of 22%⁵⁰.

In the Spanish study 30% of the PAD patients had intermittent claudication⁵¹.

In another study, among the CKD patient who are positive for PAD 26% were diabetics, 10% active smokers, 48% ex-smokers, and 29% had a diagnosis of Coronary Heart Disease (CHD). 15% had been previously diagnosed of stroke, and 17% had signs and symptoms compatible with intermittent claudication⁵².

A study done by Pakistan Institute of Medical Sciences shows twenty-five patients (34.7%) were in stage 3 CKD, 20 patients (27.8%) were in stage 4 CKD and 27 patients (37.5%) were in stage 5 CKD⁴⁶. Another study had the study population with 2.1%, 16.5%, 34.5%, 22.2% and 24.7% in CKD stage 1,2,3,4 and 5 respectively⁴⁷.

Conclusions

Proportion of PAD among CKD patients is not low. Majority of the PAD patients had mild to moderate PAD and were in advanced CKD stage 4 – 5. There is need to actively look for PAD using ABI in patients with CKD without relying on symptoms as more than half are asymptomatic. Patients with diabetes, male gender and those with CKD stage 3 should have regular ABI measurement. Early aggressive management including risk factor modification should be done to improve outcome in this high-risk group by a multidisciplinary team approach including vascular medicine specialists, wound specialists, nephrologist and cardiologist. Further population-based studies are required to determine the proportion of PAD in the general population in our country.

Disclosure

All authors declare no competing interest.

References

1. Norgren L, Hiatt WR, Dormandy JA, Nehler MR, Harris KA, Fowkes FGR. On behalf of the TASC II working group. Inter-society consensus for the management of peripheral arterial disease (TASC II). *Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg.* 2007; 33:S1–75.
2. CAPRIE Steering Committee: A randomized, blinded, trial of Clopidogrel versus Aspirin in Patients at Risk of Ischaemic Events (CAPRIE). *Lancet.* 1996;348:1329–1339.
3. Pasternak RC, Criqui MH, Benjamin EJ, Fowkes GR, Isselbacher EM, McCullough PA et al. Atherosclerosis vascular disease conference: writing group i: Epidemiology. *Circulation.* 2004; 109:2605–2612.
4. Golomb BA, Dang TT, Criqui MH. Peripheral arterial disease: Morbidity and mortality implications. *Circulation.* 2006; 114:688–699.
5. Raja gopalan S. Peripheral artery disease ‘catastrophic’ for dialysis patients. Ohio State Medical Center. 2006.
6. O’Hare AM: High prevalence of peripheral arterial disease in persons with renal insufficiency: Results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *Circulation.* 2004; 109: 320–323.
7. Yost ML. Peripheral Arterial Disease (PAD): Related amputations cost an estimated \$10 billion. The Sage Group. Available at <http://thesagegroup.us>. Published September 9, 2004. Accessed September 24, 2010.
8. American Heart Association. Prevention and Treatment of PAD. American Heart Association, July 2010. Vascular Access Centers, LP. PAD for CKD Patient Protocol. 2010.
9. O’Hare AM, Vittinghoff E, Hsia J, Shilpak MG: Renal insufficiency and the risk of lower extremity peripheral arterial disease: Results from the Heart and Estrogen/Progestin Replacement. *Jam SOC Nephrol* 15. 2004;1046-1051.
10. Eggers PW, Gohdes D, Pugh J: Nontraumatic lower extremity amputations in the Medicare end-stage renal disease population. *Kidney Int.* 1999;56:1524-1533.
11. Leskinen Y, Salenius JP, Lehtimaki T, Huhtala H, Saha H: The prevalence of peripheral arterial disease and medial artery calcification in patients with chronic renal failure: Requirements for diagnostics. *Am J Kidney Dis.* 2002; 40: 472–479.
12. USRDS: United States Renal Data System Annual Data Report, Bethesda, National Institutes of Health, National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases, Division of Kidney Urologic and Hematologic Diseases. 2000; 339–348.
13. Meijer WT, Grobbee DE, Hunink MGM, Hofman A, Hoes AW: Determinants of peripheral arterial disease in the elderly: The Rotterdam Study. *Arch Intern Med.* 2000;160: 2934–2938.
14. Hirsch AT, Criqui MH, Treat-Jacobson D: Peripheral arterial disease detection, awareness, and treatment in primary care. *JAMA.* 2001; 286: 1317–1324.
15. Diehm C, Lange S, Darius H et al. Association of low ankle brachial index with high mortality in primary care. *Eur Heart J.* 2006; 27:1743-1749.
16. Ix JH, Katz R, De Boer IH et al. Association of chronic kidney disease with the spectrum of ankle brachial index the CHS (Cardiovascular Health Study). *J Am CollCardiol.* 2009;54:1176-1184.
17. Levey AS, Green T, Kusek J, Beck GJ, Group MS. A simplified equation to predict glomerular filtration rate from serum creatinine. *J Am SocNephrol.* 2000;11:828. Study. *J Am SocNephrol.* 2004;15: 1046–1051.
18. Hirsch A et al. Gaps in Public Knowledge of Peripheral Arterial Disease the First National PAD Public Awareness Survey. *Circulation.* 2007;116:2086-2094.
19. Elizabeth Selvin, Thomas P. Erlinger. Results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. 1999–2000. *Circulation.* 2004; 110: 643.

20. Criqui M et. Ethnicity and Peripheral Arterial Disease. The San Diego Population Study. *Circulation*. 2005;112:2703-2707.
21. Criqui MH, Langer RD, Fronek A, Feigelson HS, Klauber MR, McCann TJ, Browner D. Mortality over a period of 10 years in patients with peripheral arterial disease. *N Engl J Med*. 1992; 326:381–386.
22. Hirsch A. National health care costs of peripheral arterial disease in the Medicare population *Vascular Medicine*. 2008;13(3):209-215.
23. Yost ML. Peripheral Arterial Disease (PAD): Related amputations cost an estimated \$10 billion. The Sage Group. Available at <http://thesagegroup>. Us. Published September 9, 2004. Accessed September 24, 2010.
24. Leng GC, Lee AJ, Fowkes FG, Lowe GD, Housley E. The relationship between cigarette smoking and cardiovascular risk factors in peripheral arterial disease compared with ischaemic heart disease. *The Edinburgh Artery Study*. *Eur Heart J*. 1995; 16(11):1542-1548.
25. Lepantalo M, Lassila R. Smoking and occlusive peripheral arterial disease: Clinical review. *Eur L Surg*. 1991; 157:83-87.
26. Bazzano LA, He J, Muntner P, Vupputuri S, Whelton PK. Relationship between cigarette smoking and novel risk factors for cardiovascular disease in the United States. *Ann Intern Med*. 2003;138:891-898.
27. American Diabetes Association. Peripheral Arterial Disease in People with Diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2003;26(12):333.
28. He Y, Jiang B, Wang J, Feng K, Chang Q, Zhu S, Fan L, Li X, Hu FB. BMI versus the metabolic syndrome in relation to cardiovascular risk in elderly Chinese individuals *Diabetes Care*. 2007; 30(8):2128-2134. Epub 2007 Apr 27. *Ann Intern Med*. 2003; 138:891–898.
29. Ridker PM, Stampfer MJ, Rifai N. Novel risk factors for systemic atherosclerosis: A comparison of C-reactive protein, fibrinogen, homocysteine, lipoprotein (a) and standard cholesterol screening as predictors of peripheral arterial disease. *JAMA*. 2001;285:2481-2485.
30. Smith SC, Milani RV, Arnett DK, Crouse JR, McGrae McDermot M, Ridker PM et al. Atherosclerosis Vascular Disease Conference: Writing Group II: Risk Factors. *Circulation*. 2004; 109:2613–2616.
31. Authors/Task Force Members: Catapano AL, Graham I, De Backer G, Wiklund O, Chapman MJ, Drexel H, Hoes AW, Jennings CS, Landmesser U, Pedersen TR, Reiner Z, Riccardi G, Taskinen MR, Tokgozoglu L, Verschuren WM, Vlachopoulos C, Wood DA, Zamorano JL. 2016 ESC/EAS Guidelines for the Management of Dyslipidaemias: The Task Force for the Management of Dyslipidaemias of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and European Atherosclerosis Society (EAS) Developed with the special contribution of the European Association for Cardiovascular Prevention & Rehabilitation (EACPR).
32. Murabito JM, D'Agostino RB, Silberhatz H, Wilson WF. Intermittent claudication: A risk profile from the Framingham Heart Study. *Circulation*. 1997; 96:44–49.
33. Clarke R, Daly L, Robinson K. Hyperhomocysteinaemia: An independent risk factor for vascular disease. *N E J Med*. 1999; 324:1149–1155.
34. A Planas, A Clará, J-M Pou, F Vidal-Barraquer, A Gasol, A de Moner, C Contreras and J Marrugat. Relationship of obesity distribution and peripheral arterial occlusive disease in elderly men. *International Journal of Obesity*. 2001; 25: 1068-107.
35. Peach G, Griffin M, Jones KG et al. Diagnosis and management of peripheral arterial disease. *BMJ*. 2012; 14:345.
36. Lower limb peripheral arterial disease: NICE Clinical Guideline (August 2012).
37. Bosevski M. Peripheral Arterial Disease and Chronic Kidney Disease. *Pril (Makedon Akad Nauk Umet Odd Med Nauki)*. 2017 Sep 1;38(2):29-33. doi: 10.1515/prilozi-2017-0019.
38. Liew JP, Bartholomew JR, Demirjian S, Michaels J, Schreiber MJ Jr. Combined effect of chronic kidney disease and peripheral arterial disease on all-cause mortality in a high-risk population. *Clin J Am Soc Nephrol*. 2008;3:1084-1089.

- 39.** Pranav S. Garimella, and Alan T. Hirsch. Peripheral Artery Disease and Chronic Kidney Disease: Clinical Synergy to Improve Outcomes *Adv Chronic Kidney Dis.* 2014 Nov; 21(6): 460–471. Published online 2014 Oct 24. doi: 10.1053/j.ackd.2014.07.005.
- 40.** Peripheral Arterial Disease: NICE CKS. April 2014.
- 41.** Aronow WS; Office management of peripheral arterial disease. *Am J Med.* 2010;123(9):790-792.
- 42.** Diagnosis and Treatment of Peripheral Artery Diseases. European Society of Cardiology (2011).
- 43.** Hamid MA. Proportion of peripheral arterial disease in chronic kidneydisease patient (Dissertation). Department of Medicine, Chittagong Medical College Hospital, Chittagong: BCPS Dhaka : 2015.
- 44.** M Faruque, AEMM Islam et al. Study of 89 Cases of Peripheral Vascular Diseaseby CT Angiography in a Centre of Bangladesh. *Cardiovasc. J.* 2009; 1(2) : 193-200.
- 45.** Angeles Guerrer , Rafael Montes, Jose´ Mun˜ozTerol, Alberto Gil-Peralta J et al. Peripheral arterial disease in patients with stages IV and V chronicrenal failure ,*Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2006; 21: 3525–3531.
- 46.** LaghariSaeed ,UllahKifayat ,MasroorImtiaz. et al. Prevalence of Peripheral Arterial Disease Diagnosed by Ankle Brachial Index among Chronic Kidney Disease Patients in a Tertiary Care Unit,*Saudi J Kidney Dis Transpl.* 2015;26(5):924-930.
- 47.** Cherono Marybeth itim. PREVALENCE OF PERIPHERAL ARTERIAL DISEASE AMONG CHRONIC KIDNEY DISEASE PATIENTS AT KENYATTA NATIONAL HOSPITAL,M. Med Dissertation, University of Nairobi. 2007.
- 48.** Kidney Disease Statistics for the United States, U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES National Institutes of Health NIH Publication No. 12–3895 June 2012.
- 49.** O’hare A, Gliden DV, Fox CS, Hsu Y. High prevalence of peripheral arterial disease in persons with renal insufficiency. Results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. 1999-2000. *Circulation.* 2004; 109: 320-323.
- 50.** LeskinenY,Salenium JP, Lehtimakit T et al. The prevalence of peripheral arterial disease and medial arterial calcification in patients with chronic renal failure: Requirements for diagnostics. *Am J Kidney Ois.*2002; 40:472-479.
- 51.** Garcia de Vinuesa S, Ortega M, Martinez P et al. Subclinical peripheral arterial disease in patients with chronic kidney disease: Prevalence and related risk factors. *Kidney Int.* 2005; 67:S44-S47.
- 52.** Soledad Garcia De Vinuesa, Mayra Ortega, Patricia Martinez, Marian GoicoecheA et al. Subclinical peripheral arterial disease in patients with chronic kidney disease: Prevalence and related risk factors *Kidney International.* Madrid, Spain. 2005; 67: S44–S47.