Turkish Journal of Geriatrics
2013; 16 (2) 142-149

Hasan Hüseyin ÇELİK
Ruhuşen KUTLU
Selma ÇíVİ

## İletişim (Correspondance)

[^0]Konya Üniversitesi Meram Tıp Fakültesi, Aile Hekimliği Anabilim Dalı KONYA

Research

## IS ANKLE BRACHIAL INDEX AND FRAMINGHAM RISK SCORE A PREDICTOR OF CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASES IN PEOPLE AGED $\geq 50$ YEARS?


#### Abstract

Introduction: Ankle-Brachial Index (ABI) has been shown to be a strong predictor of the extent and severity of cardiovascular diseases (CVD). We aimed to determine the early risk estimation of CVD by using ABI and Framingham risk score (FRS) in this study.

Materials and Method: In this study, 250 people aged $\geq 50$ years were included. We calculated FRS of the participants using an automatic calculator. We calculated ABI by using the blood pressure data of the four extremities.

Results: The mean value of $A B I$ was $1.13 \pm 0.12$ ( $\min =0.80, \max =1.96$ ). Of the participants, nine ( $3.6 \%$ ) had low ABI ( $\leq 0.95$ ). There were significant negative correlations between $A B I$ and age, cigarette smoking, high blood pressure and FRS. In the people aged $\geq 60$ years, ABI risk increase ( $\leq 0.95$ ) was found to be 3.878 times greater compared with people aged $<60$ years. Among diabetics, the value for FRS1 was found to be 16.349 times greater compared to non-diabetics.

Conclusion: The prevalences of the main risk factors of CVD are quite high in the population. Screening the individuals aged 50 or more is necessary for the early diagnosis and management of main risk factors of CVD. Low ABI ( $\leq 0.95$ ) and FRS can be used to estimate the risk of future cardiovascular events.


Key Words: Ankle Brachial Index; Cardiovascular Diseases/Epidemiology; Risk Factors.

## Araştirma

# ANKE BRAKİAL İNDEKS VE FRAMINGHAM RISK SKORU 50 YAŞ VE ÜZERİNDE KARDİYOVASKÜLER HASTALIKLARIN BİR BELIRLEYICISI MIDIR? 

## Öz

Giriş: Anke Brakial İndeks (ABi) kardiyovasküler hastalıkların boyutunu ve şiddetini gösteren güçlü bir belirleyicidir. Bu çalışmada ABI ve Framingham Risk Skoru (FRS) kullanarak kardiyovasküler hastalıkların erken risk tahminini tespit etmeyi amaçladık.

Gereç ve Yöntem: Bu çallşmaya 50 yaş ve üzerinde 250 kişi dahil edildi. Katılanların FRS değerleri otomatik olarak hesaplandı. Dört ekstremiteden alınan kan basınçlarını kullanarak ABI değeri belirlendi.

Bulgular: ABí ortalaması $1.13 \pm 0.12$ ( $\min =0.80$, $\max =1.96$ ) idi. Katılanların 9 'unda (\%3.6) $A B i$ değeri $\leq 0.95$ idi. ABi ile yaş, sigara içme, yüksek kan basıncı ve FRS arasında önemli derecede negatif korelasyon vardı. 60 yaş ve üzerindeki bireylerde 60 yaş altındakilere göre ABi'deki risk artımı $(\leq 0.95) 3.878$ kez daha fazla idi. Diyabetiklerde FRS1 değeri diyabetik olmayanlara göre 16.349 kez daha fazla idi.

Sonuç: Kardiyovasküler hastalıkların temel risk faktörlerine toplumda oldukça sık rastlanır. Kardiyovasküler hastalıkların temel risk faktörlerinin erken tanı ve tedavisi için 50 yaş ve üzerindeki kişilerin taranması gereklidir. Düşük ABi ( $\leq 0.95$ ) ve FRS gelecekte oluşabilecek kardiyovasküler hastalıkların risk tahmininde kullanılabilir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Ankle Brakial İndeks; Kardiyovasküler hastallk/epidemiyoloji; Risk Faktörleri.

## Introduction

Atherosclerotic vascular disease is a diffuse progressive condition that usually affects multiple vascular territories at the same time (1). Its manifestations are coronary heart disease (CHD), cerebrovascular disease (CVD), and peripheral arterial disease (PAD), which, taken together, have been the leading causes of death in adults for many decades (2). Cardiovascular disease is the first leading cause of death in all developed nations. As the population ages, the burden of cardiovascular disease is expected to increase (3).

Major cardiovascular and cerebrovascular events including myocardial infarction and stroke often occur in individuals without known pre-existing cardiovascular disease. The prevention of such events, including the accurate identification of those at risk, remains a serious public health challenge $(4,5)$.

The ankle-brachial index (ABI) is the ratio of the ankle to brachial systolic blood pressure (3).

The ankle-brachial index (ABI) is a simple, inexpensive and non-invasive test used for the assessment of lower extremity arterial obstruction and for screening of patients with suspected PAD (6). ABI has been shown to be a strong predictor of subsequent cardiovascular events in patients with peripheral vascular disease in the middle-aged population and in older subjects $(7,8)$. Major declines in resting and postexercise ABI values are significantly associated with increased long-term mortality, and cardiac events (6).

Framingham Risk Score (FRS) is increasingly used in early risk identification of cardiovascular diseases. We calculated Framingham Risk Scores of the participants using an automatic calculator. The Framingham risk score includes the following items; age, sex, systolic blood pressure, total and high density lipoprotein cholesterol, LDL, diabetes mellitus, and smoking. We assigned participants to high risk, intermediate risk, and low risk groups based on tertiles of the calculated Framingham risk scores $(4,9)$.

In this study, we aimed to study the relationship between Framingham Risk Score and Ankle-Brachial Index as a predictor of cardiovascular diseases in the middle-aged and older population.

## Materials and Method

## Study Design, Setting and Population

This cross-sectional study was conducted between 1st December 2009 and 31st August 2010. As the population
ages, the burden of cardiovascular disease is expected to increase. Because of this reason, priority was given to a particular risk group (people aged $\geq 50$ years). The research population of this study was comprised of 250 unselected people aged $\geq 50$ years who presented with any problem to the Family Medicine Outpatient Clinic of the Meram Medical Faculty of Konya University. The study was approved by the ethical committee of Meram Medical Faculty of Konya University. An informed written consent was obtained from the participants. All participants responded to a questionnaire in a face-to-face manner. This questionnaire included the following items; sociodemografic characteristics, age, gender, marital status, education, chronic diseases, and the status of cigarette smoking. We excluded all participants with a history of cardiovascular disease, including myocardial infarction, stroke, peripheral arterial disease (intermittent claudication or surgery for noncardiac arterial disease), angina pectoris, or heart failure.

## Systolic and Diastolic Blood Pressures

All patients were evaluated in the supine position after at least 5 minutes of resting. Systolic and diastolic blood pressures (DBP) of four extremities (right-left arms and legs) were measured with OMRON M2 sphygmomanometer. The mean value of the measured systolic blood pressures (SBP) was used for the analyses. The diagnosis of arterial hypertension was based on SBP $\geq 140 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or DBP $\geq 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or the use of antihypertensive medications (10).

## Ankle-Brachial Index

We calculated the Ankle-Brachial Index (ABI) by using systolic blood pressure data. The resting ABI was determined by dividing the mean of systolic blood pressure at the ankle by the mean of the brachial systolic blood pressure. A low ankle brachial index is an indicator of atherosclerosis and has the potential to improve prediction. Some previous studies showed that patients with an $\mathrm{ABI}<0.95$ were at higher risk for cardiovascular events, compared with participants with an ABI $>0.95$ (11,12). In our study, the cut-off point of ABI was taken as 0.95 after Hooi and his colleagues (11).

## Framingham Risk Score

Ten-year cardiovascular risk was calculated by using the Framingham risk scoring. The risk factors included in the Framingham calculation are age, gender, total cholesterol,

HDL cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, hypertension and the history of diabetes mellitus and smoking (4,9). We calculated Framingham Risk Scores (FRS) of the participants by using an automatic calculator (Figure 1) (4). FRS-1 was calculated by using total cholesterol and FRS2 was calculated by using LDL-c. According to the NCEP/ATP III guidelines, subjects are considered to be at low risk if the estimated 10 -year event rate is $<10 \%$, at high risk if the 10 -year event rate is $>20 \%$, and at intermediate risk if the 10 -year event rate is between $10 \%$ and $20 \%$ (13).

## Smoking Status

Smoking is the most important preventable cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide (14). All participants were interviewed about present and past smoking habits. Current smokers were defined as those who had smoked 100 cigarettes and now smoking either everday (i.e., daily smokers) or irregularly (i.e., someday smokers). Ex-smokers had smoked at least 100 cigarettes in their lives but are not smoking currently. The minimum quitting period for the exsmokers was accepted as 6 months. Never-smokers were defined as those who had never smoked (15).

## Anthropometric Measurements

We measured the weight and height of the participants. Height was measured, to the nearest 0.5 cm , without shoes, back squared against the wall tape, eyes looking straight ahead. Weight was measured with a balance, to the nearest 100 grams, without shoes, in light undergarments. All measurements were taken twice. If the variation between the measurements was greater than 2 cm , a third measurement was taken. The mean of the two closest measurements was calculated. BMI was calculated as weight (in kilograms) divided by height (in meters) squared based on the World Health Organization classification (16). A body mass index (BMI) lower or equal to $18.5 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ was defined as underweight, between $18.5 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ and $24.9 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ was considered as ideal weight (normal) for individuals. Overweight was defined as BMI between $25-29.9 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$, and obesity was defined as body mass index above $30 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ (16).

## Biochemical Studies

In all subjects, a fasting blood sample was collected in the morning after fasting for at least ten hours for analysis of the following biochemical parameters using standard techniques:

FRS1


Figure 1- Linear regression analysis between age and FRS1. $r^{2}=$ Adjusted $R$ square ( $r^{2}=0.119, \mathbf{p}=\mathbf{0 . 0 0 0}$ )
total cholesterol (TC), triglycerides (TG), high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-c) low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-c), fasting blood glucose. We calculated Framingham Risk Scores of the participants using an automatic calculator by using the other risk factors together with LDL, HDL and total cholesterol. Diabetes was defined as fasting glycemia $\geq 126 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ or treatment with insulin or hypoglycemic agents oral drugs (defined on the basis of the American Diabetes Association (ADA) guidelines 2007) $(17,18)$. Dyslipidemia (DLP) was defined as TC $\geq 200 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ or LDL-c $\geq 130 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$, or HDL-c $\leq 40 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$, or $\mathrm{TG} \geq 150$ $\mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ (17).

## Ethical Considerations

The study protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of Meram Medical Faculty of Konya University and an informed written consent was obtained from the participants.

## Statistical Analysis

The SPSS 13.0 statistical software package was used in data entry and analysis. The statistical analysis and evaluations were conducted by the authors. The minimum, maximum, mean, standard deviation, median and percentage values were used in the analysis of the data and chi-square test was used as the significance test. The significance level was taken as $\mathrm{p}<0.05$. We used the Pearson's correlation coefficient and adjusted R square.

## Results

## General Findings

Two hundred and fifty patients were included in the study. Of all the participants, 116 ( $46.4 \%$ ) were male, 134 ( $53.6 \%$ ) were female, the mean age was $58 \pm 7.35$. The rate of cigarette smoking was $26.4 \%$ ( $46.9 \%$ among males, $9.0 \%$ among females).

## Obesity

Obesity prevalence was found as $\mathbf{6 4 . 9 \%}$ in females, $31.0 \%$ in males. Obesity rate was significantly higher in women than men ( $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ).

## Blood Pressure

According to JNC-7 criteria, $12.0 \%$ of the participants were found as normotensive, $39.6 \%$ pre-hypertensive, $38.0 \%$ stage- 1 hypertensive, $10.4 \%$ stage- 2 hypertensive.

## Diabetes Mellitus

According to the basis of the American Diabetes Association Guidelines (ADA 2007), 55.6\% were found as normoglycemic, $31.6 \%$ had impaired fasting blood glucose, and $12.8 \%$ had diabetes mellitus ( $11.2 \%$ in females, $14.6 \%$ in males). There was no significant difference in terms of manifest diabetes mellitus prevalence between males and females ( $\chi^{2}=0.087, \mathrm{p}=0.768$ ).

## Dyslipidemia

According to NCEP ATP III, $48.0 \%$ of the participants had high LDL-c ( $\geq 130 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ ), $46.0 \%$ high total cholesterol ( $\geq 200 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ ), $18.4 \%$ high triglycerides $(\geq 150 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL})$ and $54.0 \%$ low HDL-c ( $<40 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ ). Statistically, total cholesterol and LDL-c levels were significantly higher among females than males, [OR=2.032, \%95CI; (1.223-3.375)], ( $\mathrm{p}=0.016$ ), [OR=1.541, \%95CI; $(0.934-2.543)],(\mathrm{p}=0.034)$ respectively. HDL-c level was statistically lower in males than females [OR=3.192, \%95CI; (1.893-5.383)], ( $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). No difference was found between females and males in triglyceride levels $(\mathrm{p}=0.560)$.

## Ankle-Brachial Index

The mean value of ABI was $1.13 \pm 0.12(\min =0.80$, $\max =1.96)$. Of the participants, nine $(3.6 \%)$ had low ABI $(\leq 0.95)$. ABI levels were found to be significantly lower in smokers ( $\mathrm{p}=0.006$ ), $\geq 60$-year-old participants ( $\mathrm{p}=0.0045$ )
and hypertensive patients ( $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). ABI was inversely and independently associated with age, cigarette smoking, and blood pressure. Gender, body mass index, total cholesterol, triglycerides, HDL-c and LDL-c were not significantly related to ABI (Table 1). In people aged $\geq 60$ years, ABI risk increase $(\leq 0.95)$ was found to be 3.878 times more compared with people aged $<60$ years $[\mathrm{OR}=3.878$, \%95 CI; (0.94615.905)].

In males, ABI risk increase $(\leq 0.95)$ was found to be 1.4 times higher compared with females $[\mathrm{OR}=1.464, \% 95 \mathrm{CI}$; ( $0.384-5.585$ )]. Furthermore, among male individuals, $\geq 10 \%$ FRS was found to be 1.971 times more compared with females $[\mathrm{OR}=1.971$, \%95 CI; (1.072-3.623)].

## Framingham Risk Score

Mean values of FRS-1 and FRS-2 were found as $0.151 \pm 0.086$ and $0.158 \pm 0.085$ respectively. According to FRS- $1,36.8 \%$ of the participants had low, $34.8 \%$ had medium and $28.4 \% \mathrm{had}$ high risk. On evaluation of the FRS-2 findings, we determined that $28.0 \%$ had low, $43.6 \%$ had medium, and $28.4 \%$ had high risk. Among the smokers, $\geq 10$ FRS was found to be 2.780 times greater compared with non-smokers $[\mathrm{OR}=2.780, \% 95 \mathrm{CI} ;(1.241-6.228)]$. The estimated 10 -year event rate is was found to be 3.256 times more in the individuals having HDL-c $\leq 40[\mathrm{OR}=3.256$, \%95 CI; (1.7546.044)].

There was a significant relation between diabetes mellitus, FRS1 and FRS2 ( $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). Among the diabetic people, FRS1 was found to be 16.349 times greater compared to non-diabetics. [OR=16.349, \%95 CI; (2.199-121.558)], and FRS2 was found to be 6.103 times greater compared to non-diabetics $\{\mathrm{OR}=6.103, \% 95 \mathrm{CI}$; (1.821-20.455)].

A mild but highly significant positive correlation existed between FRS1 and age ( $\mathrm{r}=0.344, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). When linear regression analysis was done, FRS1 increase was attributed to age with $11.9 \%$ ( $\mathrm{r} 2=0.119$ ) (Figure 1).

A mild but highly significant positive correlation existed between FRS2 and age ( $\mathrm{r}=0.355, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). When linear regression analysis was done, FRS2 increase was attributed to age with $12.6 \% ~(r 2=0.126,(\mathrm{p}<0.001)$. (Figure 2).

## Comparison of ABI and Framingham Risk Scoring

ABI was inversely and independently associated with FRS-1 and FRS-2 ( $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). Most of the patients having low ABI ( $88.9 \%$ ) were also in the high risk group determined according to FRS (Table 2).

IS ANKLE BRACHIAL INDEX AND FRAMINGHAM RISK SCORE A PREDICTOR OF CARDIOVASCULAR DISEASES IN PEOPLE AGED $\geq 50$ YEARS?

Table 1-Comparison of ABI and Cardiovascular Risk Factors

| Parameter | ABI $\leq 0.95$ ( $\mathrm{n}=9$ ) |  | ABI >0.95 ( $\mathrm{n}=241$ ) |  | Total ( $\mathrm{n}=250$ ) |  | Mean | $p$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | n | \% | n | \% | n | \% |  |  |
| Age |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <60 | 3 | 1.9 | 159 | 98.1 | 162 | 100.0 | 4.037 | 0.045 |
| $\geq 60$ | 6 | 6.8 | 82 | 93.2 | 88 | 100.0 |  |  |
| Gender |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Male | 5 | 4.3 | 111 | 95.7 | 116 | 100.0 | 0.313 | 0.576 |
| Female | 4 | 3.0 | 130 | 97.0 | 134 | 100.0 |  |  |
| Smoking status |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Current smoker | 6 | 9.1 | 60 | 90.9 | 66 | 100.0 | 7.674 | 0.006 |
| Never smoker | 3 | 1.6 | 181 | 98.4 | 184 | 100.0 |  |  |
| Blood pressure ( mmHg ) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <120/80 (normotensive) | - | - | 30 | 100.0 | 30 | 100.0 | 12.720 | 0.001 |
| 120-139/80-89 (pre-hypertensive) | - | - | 99 | 100.0 | 99 | 100.0 |  |  |
| 140-159/90-99 (Stage-1 HT) | 5 | 5.3 | 90 | 94.7 | 95 | 100.0 |  |  |
| $\geq 160 / \geq 100$ (Stage-2 HT) | 4 | 15.4 | 22 | 84.6 | 26 | 100.0 |  |  |
| Body mass index (BMI) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <18.5 (underweight) | - | - | 2 | 100.0 | 2 | 100.0 | 1.590 | 0.207 |
| 18.5-24.9 (normal) | 3 | 7.5 | 37 | 92.5 | 40 | 100.0 |  |  |
| 25-29.9 (overweight) | 3 | 3.5 | 82 | 96.5 | 85 | 100.0 |  |  |
| $\geq 30$ (obesity) | 3 | 2.4 | 120 | 97.6 | 123 | 100.0 |  |  |
| LDL-c (mg/dl) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <130 (normal) | 2 | 1.5 | 28 | 98.5 | 130 | 100 | 1.679 | 0.195 |
| 130-159 (borderline) | 4 | 5.8 | 65 | 94.2 | 69 | 100 |  |  |
| 160-189 (high) | 3 | 7.7 | 36 | 92.3 | 39 | 100 |  |  |
| $\geq 190$ (very high) | - | - | 12 | 100.0 | 12 | 100 |  |  |
| TG (mg/dl) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <150 (normal) | 6 | 3.8 | 153 | 96.2 | 159 | 100.0 | 0.162 | 0.687 |
| 150-199 (borderline) | 2 | 4.4 | 43 | 95.6 | 45 | 100.0 |  |  |
| $\geq 200$ (high) | 1 | 2.2 | 45 | 97.8 | 46 | 100.0 |  |  |
| Total cholesterol (mg/di) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <200 | 4 | 3.0 | 131 | 97.0 | 135 | 100.0 | 0.752 | 0.386 |
| 200-239 (borderline) | 3 | 3.5 | 82 | 96.5 | 85 | 100.0 |  |  |
| $\geq 240$ (high) | 2 | 6.7 | 28 | 93.3 | 30 | 100.0 |  |  |
| HDL-c (mg/dl) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <40 (low) | 7 | 59.3 | 128 | 40.7 | 135 | 100.0 | 2.116 | 0.146 |
| $\geq 40$ (normal) | 2 | 36.0 | 113 | 79.0 | 115 | 100.0 |  |  |
| Fasting blood glucose (mg/dl) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <100 (normal) | 3 | 2.2 | 136 | 97.8 | 139 | 100.0 | 1.864 | 0.172 |
| 100-125 (impaired fasting glucose) | 4 | 5.1 | 75 | 94.9 | 79 | 100.0 |  |  |
| $\geq 126$ (manifest diabetes mellitus) | 2 | 6.3 | 30 | 93.8 | 32 | 100.0 |  |  |



Figure 2- Linear regression analysis between age and FRS2. $r^{2}=$ Adjusted $R$ square ( $r^{2}=0.126, \mathbf{p}=\mathbf{0 . 0 0 0}$ )

## Discussion

Before concluding, the limitations of the study should be addressed. As the population ages, the burden of cardiovascular disease is expected to increase. The early risk estimation of CVD by using ABI and FRS is vital. Although the overall sample was relatively large, we could reach only a small group. In addition, although a quite close match, this study group is not entirely representative of the Turkish population. The study includes only the inhabitants of Konya.

Measuring the ABI is a valid procedure to confirm the diagnosis of PAD when this diagnosis is suspected on clinical
grounds. Our current study shows that patients with a low ABI have a poorer prognosis with regard to cardiovascular morbidity and mortality. Thus, apart from being a diagnostic tool, the ABI can be used to detect those PAD patients who are at high risk for a future cardiovascular event. In those patients, preventive efforts should be focused on modification of risk factors such as hypertension, diabetes, smoking and hypercholesterolemia.

In this study, 250 unselected people aged $\geq 50$ years were included. Ankle-Brachial Index (ABI) has been shown to be a strong predictor of extend and severity of cardiovascular diseases. Recent studies have presented the increase in total and cardiovascular risk associated with low ABI. In our study, the cut-off point of ABI was taken as 0.95 after Hooi et al. (11) and the mean value of ABI was $1.13 \pm 0.12$ ( $\mathrm{min}=0.80$, $\max =1.96$ ). Of the participants, nine (\%3.6) had low ABI $(\leq 0.95)$. A significantnegative correlation existed between ABI and age, cigarette smoking and blood pressure. A significant correlation was observed between low ABI and Framingham Risk Scores. This result shows that low AnkleBrachial Index $(\leq 0.95)$ can be used to estimate the risk of future cardiovascular events.

In the previous studies, different ABI cut-off points were taken. These values were 1.1 (Diehm and his colleagues), 1.4 (Resnick), 1.01 (Hollander), 0.97 (van der meeer), 0.95 (Hooi), 0.9 (Papamichael, Feringa, Murabito, Lee, Leng Doobay) (2,3,6,7,11,19-24).

In their monitored prospective observational study, Diehm et al. found that the risk of mortality increased linearly in the lower ABI categories compared with an $\mathrm{ABI} \geq 1.1$. Patients with a low ABI , who can be readily identified in a primary care setting, have a substantially

Table 2-Comparison of ABI and Framingham Risk Scoring


Framingham risk score (FRS)-1

## (According to total cholesterol)

| <10 (low risk) | - | - | 92 | 100.0 | 92.0 | 100.0 | 13.647 | 0.001 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 10-19 (middle risk) | 1 | 1.1 | 86 | 98.9 | 87 | 100.0 |  |  |
| $\geq 20$ (high risk) | 8 | 11.3 | 63 | 88.7 | 71 | 100.0 |  |  |
| Framingham risk score (FRS)-2 (According to LDL-c) |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| <10 (low risk) | - | - | 70 | 100.0 | 70 | 100.0 | 12.910 | 0.001 |
| 10-19 (middle risk) | 1 | 0.9 | 108 | 99.1 | 109 | 100.0 |  |  |
| $\geq 20$ (high risk) | 8 | 11.3 | 63 | 88.7 | 71 | 100.0 |  |  |

increased risk of mortality and severe vascular events. Patients with an ABI between 1.1 and 0.9 should be considered and followed up as borderline PAD cases. Particular attention should be paid to patients with PAD and previous vascular events as their risk is markedly increased (2).

Resnick et al. showed that the patients with low ABI were significantly older and more frequently had hypertension, higher triglycerides, total and LDL cholesterol, and lower HDL cholesterol compared to participants with normal ABI at baseline (19). Their results for age and blood pressure were similar to our study.

In Van der Meer's population-based cohort study, measurement of the ABI was suggested to be useful in people 50 years old or people are at high risk. The value of ABI $<0.97$ was found to be associated with increased risk of CHD (21).

Comparable to our results, Hooi et al. stated that the risk of cardiovasculer morbidity and mortality is increased in patients having a value of $\mathrm{ABI}<0.95$ (11).

Papamichael et al. revealed that the value of ABI $<0.90$ was an independent predictor for cardiovascular events after adjustment for age, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, carotid and femoral intima-media thickness, and Gensini score in their study on 165 consecutive patients who were referred to an institution for elective coronary angiography (7). In this study, smoking and diabetes mellitus were found to be independently related to ABI.

Doobay et al. detected that the sensitivity and specificity of a low ankle-brachial index to predict incident coronary heart diseases were $16.5 \%$ and $92.7 \%$ and cardiovascular mortality were $41.0 \%$ and $87.9 \%$, respectively (3). FRS estimates the risk of having a heart attack or dying from heart disease within 10 years. We found significant correlation between low ABI and Framingham Risk Scores.

Fowkes et al. investigated 10 -year total mortality, cardiovascular mortality and major coronary event rates in men and women using Framingham Risk Category and ABI at baseline for sixteen cohort studies combined in the ABI Collaboration. The results showed that a low ABI ( 0.90 or less) predicted vastly increased risks of 10-year cardiovascular mortality in both men and women. They found that the ABI provided independent risk information as compared with the FRS and, when combined with the FRS, a low ABI ( $\leq 0.9$ ) approximately doubled the risk of total mortality, cardiovascular mortality and major coronary events across all Framingham risk categories (4).

## Conclusion

The ABI is a relatively simple noninvasive procedure and is appropriate for use in a primary care setting. Framingham Risk Score shows the 10 -year mortality, cardiovasculer mortality and major coronary event rate. In conclusion, ABI is a simple index related to the extent of atherosclerosis in coronary and noncoronary arterial beds, reflecting generalized atherosclerosis (25). Using ABI and FRS could be useful in assessing the risk for cardiovascular events in patients with coronary artery disease. FRS has shown to significantly underestimate the risk in population because of the exclusion of significant risk factors such as insulin resistance, obesity and family history. 10-year global risk of $20 \%$ or greater by FRS is considered to be a high risk and suitable for secondary prevention (25).

We could not find any study comparing Ankle Brachial Index with Framingham risk score in the literature. Our study directly shows the relationship between these methods. We emphasize in this study that using Framingham Risk Scoring and Ankle Brachial Index are important predictors of early risk estimation of cardiovascular diseases. We expect that our study which emphasizes the importance of early recognition in the primary care settings will contribute to the literature .

## Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Zübeyde Gözde Kutlu and Mustafa Tasbent for their support in English language editing. Thanks to all of the participants. Konya University Scientific Research Coordination Center (BAP) is acknowledged for its contribution to the financial support of this study.

## References

1. Tekin N, Baskan M, Yesilkayali T, Karabay O. Prevalence of peripheral arterial disease and related risk factors in Turkish elders. BMC Fam Pract 2011;12:96-101. (PMID:21929797).
2. Diehm C, Lange S, Darius H, et al. Association of low ankle brachial index with high mortality in primary care. Eur Heart J 2006;27:1743-9. (PMID:16782720).
3. Doobay AV, Anand SS. Sensitivity and specificity of the anklebrachial index to predict future cardiovascular outcomes: a systematic review. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 2005;25:1463-69. (PMID:15879302).
4. Fowkes FG, Murray GD, Butcher I. Ankle brachial index combined with Framingham Risk Score to predict cardiovascular events and mortality: a meta-analysis. JAMA 2008;300:197-208. (PMID:18612117).
5. Heitzer T, Schlinzig T, Krohn K, Meinertz T, Münzel T. Endothelial dysfunction, oxidative stress, and risk of cardiovascular events in patients with coronary artery disease Circulation 2001;104:2673-78. (PMID:11723017).
6. Feringa HH, Karagiannis SE, Schouten O, Vidakovic R, van Waning VH, Boersma E, Welten G, Bax JJ, Poldermans D. Prognostic significance of declining ankle-brachial index values in patients with suspected or known peripheral arterial disease. Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg 2007;34:206-13. (PMID:17481930).
7. Papamichael CM, Lekakis JP, Stamatelopoulos KS, et al. Ankle-brachial index as a predictor of the extent of coronary atherosclerosis and cardiovascular events in patients with coronary artery disease. Am J Cardiol 2000;86:615-8. (PMID:10980210).
8. Zheng ZJ, Sharrett AR, Chambless LE, et al. Associations of ankle-brachial index with clinical coronary heart disease, stroke andpreclinical carotid and popliteal atherosclerosis: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study. Atherosclerosis 1997;131:115-25. (PMID:9180252).
9. de Ruijter W, Westendorp RG, Assendelft WJ, et al. Use of Framingham risk score and new biomarkers to predict cardiovascular mortality in older people: population based observational cohort study. BMJ 2009;338:a3083. (PMID:19131384).
10. Joint National Committee on Prevention, Evaluation and Treatment of High Blood Pressure. The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation and Treatment of High Blood Pressure (JNC 7 Report). National Institutes of Health; National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute. JAMA 2003;289:2560-72. (PMID:12748199).
11. Hooi JD, Kester AD, Stoffers HE, Rinkens PE, Knottnerus JA, van Ree JW. Asymptomatic peripheral arterial occlusive disease predicted cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in a 7 -year follow-up study. J Clin Epidemiol 2004;57:294-300. (PMID:15066690).
12. Heald CL, Fowkes FG, Murray GD, Price JF; Ankle Brachial Index Collaboration. Risk of mortality and cardiovascular disease associated with the ankle-brachial index: Systematic review. Atherosclerosis 2006;189:61-9. (PMID:16620828).
13. Grundy SM, Cleeman JI, Merz CN, et al, National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American College of Cardiology Foundation; American Heart Association. Implications of recent clinical trials for the National Cholesterol Education Program Adult Treatment Panel III guidelines. Circulation 2004;110:227-39. (PMID:15249516).
14. He J, Vupputuri S, Allen K, Prerost MR, Hughes J, Whelton PK. Passive smoking and risk of coronary heart disease: A metaanalysis of epidemiologic studies. N Eng J Med 1999;340:9206. (PMID:10089185).
15. US Department of Health and Human Services. The health benefits of smoking cessation. A report of the Surgeon General, Rockville, Maryland: Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control, Office on Smoking and Health 1990. [Internet] Available from: http://profiles.nlm.nih.gov/NN/B/B/C/V/_/ nnbbcv.pdf. Accessed: 25.06.2010.
16. WHO: Obesity: preventing and managing the global epidemic. Report of a WHO consultation. World Health Organ Tech Rep Ser.2000;894:i-xii, 1-253. (PMID:11234459).
17. Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III) final report. National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). Circulation 2002 Dec 17;106:3143-421. (PMID:12485966).
18. American Diabetes Association. Diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Care 2004;27:5-10. (PMID:14693921).
19. Resnick HE, Lindsay RS, McDermott MM, Devereux RB, Jones KL, Fabsitz RR, Howard BV. Relationship of high and low ankle brachial index to all-cause and cardiovascular disease mortality: the Strong Heart Study. Circulation 2004;109: 7339. (PMID:14970108).
20. Hollander M, Hak AE, Koudstaal PJ, et al. Comparison between measures of atherosclerosis and risk of stroke: the Rotterdam Study. Stroke 2003;34:2367-72. (PMID:12958327).
21. van der Meer IM, Bots ML, Hofman A, del Sol AI, van der Kuip DA, Witteman JC. Predictive value of noninvasive measures of atherosclerosis for incident myocardial infarction: the Rotterdam Study. Circulation 2004;109:1089-94. (PMID:14993130).
22. Murabito JM, Evans JC, Larson MG, Nieto K, Levy D, Wilson PW. The ankle-brachial index in the elderly and risk of stroke, coronary disease, and death: the Framingham Study. Arch Intern Med 2003;163:1939-42. (PMID:12963567).
23. Lee AJ, Price JF, Russell MJ, Smith FB, van Wijk MC, Fowkes FG. Improved prediction of fatal myocardial infarction using the ankle brachial index in addition to conventional risk factors: The Edinburgh Artery Study. Circulation 2004;110:3075-80. (PMID:15477416).
24. Leng GC, Fowkes FG, Lee AJ, Dunbar J, Housley E, Ruckley CV. Use of ankle brachial pressure index to predict cardiovascular events and death: A cohort study. BMJ 1996;313:1440-4. (PMID:8973232).
25. Lee LV, Foody JM. Women and heart disease. Cardiol Clin 2011;29:35-45. (PMID:21257099).

[^0]:    Ruhuşen KUTLU
    Konya Üniversitesi Meram Tıp Fakültesi, Aile Hekimliği Anabilim Dalı KONYA

    TIf: 03322236601
    e-posta: ruhuse@yahoo.com
    Geliş Tarihi: 31/01/2012
    (Received)
    Kabul Tarihi: 05/03/2012
    (Accepted)

