

# Non-Invasive Management of Peripheral Arterial Disease

K.J. Williams, A. Babber, R. Ravikumar, and A.H. Davies

## Abstract

### Background

Peripheral arterial disease (PAD) is common and symptoms can be debilitating and lethal. Risk management, exercise, radiological and surgical intervention are all valuable therapies, but morbidity and mortality rates from this disease are increasing. Circulatory enhancement can be achieved using simple medical electronic devices, with claims of minimal adverse side effects. The evidence for these is variable, prompting a review of the available literature.

### Methods

Embase and Medline were interrogated for full text articles in humans and written in English. Any external medical devices used in the management of peripheral arterial disease were included if they had objective outcome data.

### Results

Thirty-one papers met inclusion criteria, but protocols were heterogenous. The medical devices reported were intermittent pneumatic compression (IPC), electronic nerve (NMES) or muscle stimulators (EMS), and galvanic electrical dressings.

In patients with intermittent claudication, IPC devices increase popliteal artery velocity (49–70 %) and flow (49–84 %). Gastrocnemius EMS increased superficial femoral artery flow by 140 %. Over 4.5–6 months IPC increased intermittent claudication distance (ICD) (97–150 %) and

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34 absolute walking distance (AWD) (84–112 %), with an associated  
 35 increase in quality of life. NMES of the calf increased ICD and AWD  
 36 by 82 % and 61–150 % at 4 weeks, and 26 % and 34 % at 8 weeks.

37 In patients with critical limb ischaemia IPC reduced rest pain in  
 38 40–100 % and was associated with ulcer healing rates of 26 %. IPC had  
 39 an early limb salvage rate of 58–83 % at 1–3 months, and 58–94 % at  
 40 1.5–3.5 years. No studies have reported the use of EMS or NMES in the  
 41 management of CLI.

## 42 **Conclusion**

43 There is evidence to support the use of IPC in the management of  
 44 claudication and CLI. There is a building body of literature to support  
 45 the use of electrical stimulators in PAD, but this is low level to date.  
 46 Devices may be of special benefit to those with limited exercise capacity,  
 47 and in non-reconstructable critical limb ischaemia. Galvanic stimulation  
 48 is not recommended.

## 49 **Keywords**

50 Chronic venous disease • Thrombosis • DVT • Pulmonary embolism •  
 51 Electrical stimulation • NMES

## 52 **1 Background**

53 Peripheral arterial disease (PAD) is common,  
 54 and often co-exists with cardio-respiratory dis-  
 55 ease, stroke, and diabetes [1]. Its incidence is  
 56 estimated at 7–14 % in the general population  
 57 [1, 2], increasing with age to approximately 20 %  
 58 in the over-seventies [3]. It is associated with  
 59 progressive and profound effects on mobility,  
 60 skin integrity and quality of life [4]. Significant  
 61 clinical manifestations include intermittent clau-  
 62 dication, rest pain, gangrene, and limb loss. Risk  
 63 management, exercise, radiological and surgical  
 64 intervention are all valuable therapies, but mor-  
 65 bidity and mortality rates from this disease are  
 66 increasing [3, 5, 6]. Due to the nature of the  
 67 disease, exercise tolerance can be limited by  
 68 performance status. Invasive procedures carry  
 69 with them significant risks, and patients with  
 70 diffuse disease are often not suitable for  
 71 revascularisation [7].

72 Maximal medical and surgical therapy has  
 73 been shown in the past to be augmented by the  
 74 use of medical devices such as intermittent

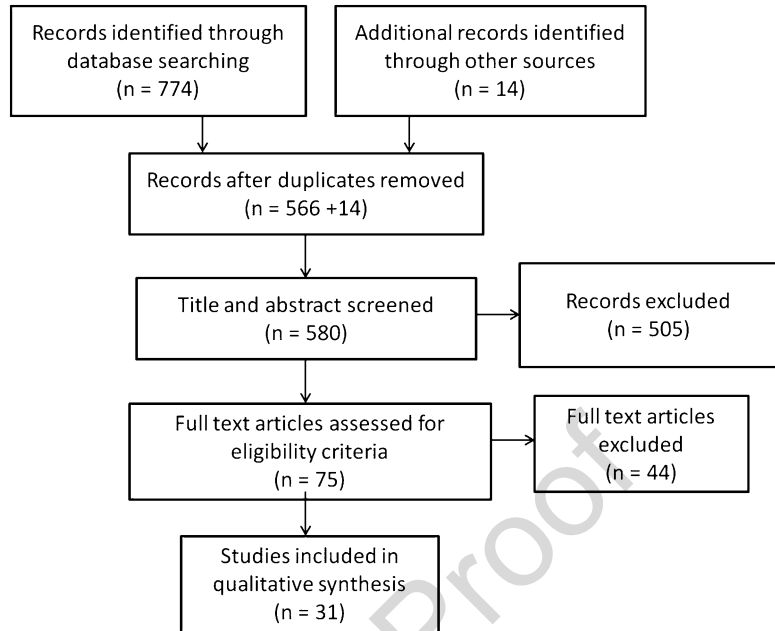
pneumatic compression [8]. Electronic muscular 75  
 stimulation (EMS) and neuromuscular stimula- 76  
 tion (NMES) devices can cause contraction of 77  
 the leg muscles in similar ways to IPC, and may 78  
 have similar beneficial effects. The supporting 79  
 evidence for neuromuscular stimulation in 80  
 peripheral arterial disease is variable in scientific 81  
 and clinical content or relevance, and prompted 82  
 further exploration. 83

This review aims to identify and analyse 84  
 studies of non-invasive haemodynamic devices 85  
 applicable to this cohort, and extrapolate evi- 86  
 dence with a view to modulating current 87  
 clinical practice. This is also relevant in the 88  
 light of recent technological advances of 89  
 electrical stimulation devices, becoming more 90  
 portable, affordable, and accessible to health 91  
 professionals. 92

## 93 **2 Methods**

A systematic review of Embase and Medline was 94  
 undertaken, with the search string: 95

**Fig. 1** PRISMA diagram



96 (“device” OR “electric” OR “stimulation” OR  
 97 “pneumatic” OR “compression” OR “IPC”)  
 98 AND (“peripheral arterial diseases\*” OR  
 99 “isch\*” OR “peripheral vascular diseases\*”  
 100 OR “claudication”) AND (“leg” OR “limb”  
 101 OR “foot”) (No Related Terms)

102  
 103 The search was performed on 8th July 2013  
 104 and repeated by the Royal College of Surgeons of  
 105 England library. A PRISMA diagram shows the  
 106 paper selection process (Fig. 1).

107 Abstracts were screened and included or  
 108 eliminated by title, abstracts and full texts were  
 109 screened for the peripheral use of non-invasive  
 110 medical devices in humans for the management  
 111 of lower limb peripheral arterial disease.

112 Inclusion criteria were clinical or haemo-  
 113 dynamic data related to the device use. Exclusion  
 114 criteria were animal studies, studies pertaining  
 115 to epidemiology, diagnosis or pure imaging.  
 116 Non-electrical devices were excluded (e.g. vas-  
 117 cular closure devices), as were invasive therapies  
 118 such as endovascular intervention, spinal cord/  
 119 epidural stimulation, and extracorporeal limb  
 120 perfusion. Functional electric stimulation for  
 121 spinal cord injury was excluded.

**3 Results**

122  
 123 Thirty-one papers met criteria for inclusion and  
 124 were grouped according to indication for use.  
 125 Despite multiple devices, protocols and trial  
 126 designs, inferences have been drawn. Table 1  
 127 details the studies, with numerical results data  
 128 given where possible. Meta-analysis has not  
 129 been performed.

**4 Devices**

**4.1 Intermittent Pneumatic/External Compression**

130  
 131 Six external compression devices were reported:  
 132  
 133 five pneumatic (Circulator Boot, Circulator Boot  
 134 Company, the AV Impulse, Novamedix Ltd, the  
 135 DVT-30, Huntleigh Healthcare, the Art Assist  
 136 1000, ACI Medical, the ArterialFlow, DJO),  
 137 and one which uses an external compressive  
 138 band (FM220<sup>TM</sup>, FlowMedic, Israel). Pressure  
 139 settings varied from very low (55 mmHg in Cir-  
 140 culation Boot) to high (120 mmHg in ArtAssist).  
 141





t.20 **Table 1** (continued)

t.21	Device	Paper	Year	Setting/program	Subject profile	N (PAD/control)	Outcome measure	Outcome time period	Finding
t.19	ArtAssist	Delis [14]	2002	Sitting position, IPC calf/ft/combination, 1–120 mmHg, 4 s, 3/min, 5 mins stim, 10 min rest, 5 min stim etc.	Stable claudicants	22 IC, 36 bypass	Laser Doppler great toe	Minutes, unspecified	ABPI (pe) significantly greater than control group at 4.5 and 12 m. Significant benefit over controls persisted at 12 m
t.20									IPC increases limb skin blood flux in controls and claudicants
t.21									IPC combination and IPC foot produced the biggest flux differences over IPC calf ( $p < 0.004$ )
t.23	ArtAssist	Ramaswami [15]	2005	Device versus no device Sitting, IPC foot + calf, 120 mmHg, 3/min, 1 h twice a day	Stable claudicants (matched for smoking, diabetes)	15/15	ICD, AWD, ABPI	12 months	ICD compared to baseline (device/no device) at 4, 6 and 12 months was 237/102 %, 241/103 %, and 250/104 % AWD was 184/102 %, 196/105 %, and 201/106 % (difference $p < 0.01$ for all)
t.22									No significant change in ABPI shown in either group

ArrAssist	Delis [16]	2005	Device versus no device	Stable claudicants (AWD 35–350 m)	20/21	ICD	17 months	ICD IPC at 5 months 197 % ( $p < 0.005$ ), BMT no significant difference AWD IPC at 5 months 212 % ( $p < 0.005$ ), BMT no difference Resting ABPIs not changed either group pe-ABPI IPC higher at 5 months ( $P < 0.005$ ), BMT no difference No significant resting artery flow volume changes either group Improved quality of life in IPC group at 5 months, BMT unchanged All reported gains with IPC sustained 12 months after treatment 85 % compliance with home IPC (defined as $\geq 2.5$ h/day)
t.26			Sitting, IPC foot and calf, 1–120 mmHg, 4 s, 3/min, 3+ h/day			AWD		
t.27						ABPI (rest and post- exercise)		
t.28						US popliteal artery volume flow		
t.29						QoL (SF-36)		
t.30						Compliance		
t.31								
t.32								
t.33	DVT-30	2002	Supine, unilateral, thigh and calf, 60 mmHg, 10 s, 1/min	Stable claudicants	11/18	Duplex common femoral artery frequency	10 min	PAD subjects arterial frequency 94 %/129 % of baseline during compression/deflation. Controls 85 %/121 % of baseline
t.34						Temperature limb		Hallux temperature changes $-0.1$ °C for controls and $+2.2$ °C PAD
t.35								

(continued)





t.50	NMES (Medicompex)	Tsang [22]	1994	NMES versus sham (TENS)  Popliteal and anterior tibial nerves, 8 Hz, 350 microsecs	Stable claudicants, ABPI < 0.9, AWD < 500 m, pe-ABPI drop > 30 mmHg	13/13 sham	Treadmill ICD/AWD	8 weeks	ICD with NMES 126 % of baseline ( $p < 0.003$ ), control 122 %, at 8 weeks AWD with NMES 134 % ( $p < 0.004$ ), control 127 % at 8 weeks Differences between control and IPC not significant after 4 weeks therapy cessation Neither group improved ABPI Fatigue index improved in both groups, NMES more than sham, but returned to baseline after treatment cessation
t.51									
t.52									
t.53									
t.54	NMES (Medicompex)	Hudlicka [23]	1994	Unilateral, tibialis anterior and gastrocnemius muscles  8 Hz, 330 microsecs, voltage to produce muscle contraction. 20 mins, 3/day, 28 days	Claudicants	12/12 sham	AWD	4 weeks	AWD with 4 weeks NMES 161 % baseline ( $p < 0.05$ ), sham 102 % (ns) Fatigue index NMES 200 % baseline ( $p < 0.05$ ), sham 111 % (ns) ABPI did not change significantly in either group
t.55									
t.56									
t.57	EMS (MediCompex)	Anderson [24]	2004	EMS versus sham (TENS)  Unilateral gastrocnemius	Stable claudicants, pe-ABPI < 0.8, AWD 50–350 m	15	Leucocyte activation, vascular permeability,  ICD/AWD	4 weeks	No evidence of activated neutrophils, increased vascular permeability, or increased cardiovascular event incidence ICD EMS/sham 182 %/ 208 % of baseline ( $p < 0.01$ )
t.58									
t.59									

(continued)



t.71	Circulator boot (then home programme)	Vella [28]	2000	No unified protocol. Circulator boot – 55–80 mmHg timed with end-diastole, 45 mins, 1–2/day Home boot – foot +/- leg, 100 mmHg 3 s, 3/min, 2–6 h/day, mean duration 8 weeks	CLI, non-reconstructable with ischaemic ulcers	98/0	Ulcer healing, ulcer size (static or smaller), amputation rate, mortality	Average 40 days	79 % “favourable outcome” (ulcer decrease in size, complete healing, revascularised) 83 % limb salvage (15 major amputations, 2 deaths) Authors claim can be used to bridge to revascularisation or skin grafting
t.72									
t.73									
t.74	ArtAssist	Louridas [29]	2002	Not specified	CLI	25/0	Ulcer healing Rest pain Amputation rate Toe pressures Mortality	Mean 3 month	26 % ulcers healed Rest pain improved in 40 % 58 % limb salvage Toe pressures improved $p = 0.03$ Mortality rate 12 %
t.75									
t.76									
t.77									
t.78									
t.79									
t.80									
t.81									
t.82									
t.83	ArtAssist	Labropoulos [30]	2005	Foot and calf IPC. Semi-erect, 120 mmHg, 3 s, 3/min	CLI (fontaine 3–4)	20/0	Duplex flow volume popliteal, medial gastrocnemius, genicular collateral artery Laser doppler foot	5 IPC cycles	Popliteal – 205 % of baseline ( $p < 0.01$ ) Gastrocnemial–170 % of baseline ( $p < 0.01$ )
t.84									
t.85									
t.86									
t.87	ArtAssist	Sultan [31]	2011	Upright. 0–120 mmHg, 4 s, 3/min, 2 × 3 h/day, 3 months Protocol repeated if of significant benefit	CLI (Rutherford $\geq 4$ )	171/0	Ulcer healing	3 months, repeated for 18 %	Collateral – 156 % of baseline ( $p < 0.01$ ) Laser Doppler flux increased significantly with IPC use ( $p < 0.03$ ) 94 % clinical improvement (Rutherford 4 -- > 3), 30 % at 3 years
t.88									
t.89									

(continued)



t.97	IPC (unspecified)	Montori [33]	2002	Home use, 6 h/day	CLI non-healing wounds	107/0	Wound healing, amputation rate	Median 6 m	Wound healing seen with 40 % patients TcPO <sub>2</sub> < 20, 48 % in osteomyelitis/active infection, 46 % in IDDM, 28 % with a previous amputation 7 patients discontinued use due to pain	
t.98	IPC (unspecified)	Beime [34]	2009	Not specified	CLI	149/0	Limb salvage, mortality. Limb digital pressure measurement	30 days, 90 days, 6 m intervals (mean 18 m)	72 % "Sustained clinical improvement" 3 % amputation rate 21 % mortality	
t.99	NeuroTrac 3 TENS (Verity Medical, UK)	Seenan [35]	2012	TENS versus sham	Tourniquet induced ischaemic pain in healthy legs	13	Time to pain threshold, pain tolerance, total pain endurance	To maximal pain able to be endured	Time to pain threshold ( $p < 0.05$ ), tolerance ( $p = 0.002$ ) and total endurance ( $p = 0.003$ ) increased with device compared to sham controls	
t.100				Unilateral			Reported pain (21-NRS, McGill Pain Questionnaire)		Reported pain lower with device compared to sham	
t.101				Gastrocnemius						
t.102				200 msecs biphasic pulses, 120 Hz, in a continuous pattern						
t.103										
t.105										
t.106	<b>Post revascularisation</b>									
	AV impulse	White [36]	1996	IPC foot, 50–200 mmHg, 3 s, 3/min. 7 post-operative days, 4–6 h/day	Post ischaemic leg reconstruction (femorotibial bypass)	5/5	Calf and ankle circumference	7 days	Significantly less swelling in experimental patients compared to controls, which peaked on day 5 (no figure given)	
t.107							Duplex femoral/popliteal venous velocity		Significant increase in experimental patients' femoral and popliteal	

(continued)



	Peters [38]	2001	Device to placebo	Diabetics with foot ulcers	20/20	Healing rate	12 weeks	No significant differences in wound healing rate between groups
t.115	Galvanic electrical stimulation (Micro Z)		50 V, twin peak monophasic pulses; pulse width 100 microseconds, delivered via a silver nylon mesh stocking. 8 h, delivered at night. Alternating 10 min 80 Hz, 10 min 8 Hz, 40 min no stimulation	(TcO <sub>2</sub> > 30 mmHg)		Complete wound healing		Device/sham total wound surface area healed 86.2%/71.4% (ns)
t.116						Complications		Complete healing 13/7 subjects (ns)
t.117						Compliance (>20 h/week)		Time to complete healing 6.8/6.9 weeks (ns)
t.118								One amputation, in sham group
t.119								70% device compliance
t.120								

t.121 PAD peripheral arterial disease, ICD intermittent claudication distance, AWD absolute walking distance, TcPO<sub>2</sub> transcutaneous oxygen, SFA superficial femoral artery, IPC intermittent pneumatic compression, ABPI ankle brachial pressure index, pe post-exercise, US ultrasound, NIRS near-infrared spectroscopy, CLI critical limb ischaemia, DM diabetes mellitus

142 All applied pressure anatomically to the calf,  
143 some additionally to the foot or thigh.

## 144 4.2 Electrical Stimulators

145 A mixture of transcutaneous electrical  
146 stimulators were reported. The Veinoplus<sup>TM</sup>  
147 (Adrem Tech, France) delivers electricity to the  
148 gastrocnemius muscle (1–250 Hz, 50 V, pulse  
149 width 240 ms), whilst the three NMES/TENS  
150 machines can operate at variable settings and be  
151 placed over muscles or nerves (Medicompex<sup>TM</sup>,  
152 Medicompex SA, NeuroTrac<sup>TM</sup> TENS, Verity  
153 Medical Ltd, TENS SM1, Schwa-Medico). The  
154 Micro-Z<sup>TM</sup>, Prizm Medical Inc is a galvanic  
155 electrical stimulator (50 V, pulse width 100  $\mu$ s,  
156 sub-threshold for sensation and muscle contrac-  
157 tion). Direct current is applied to a specific body  
158 area by a conducting garment, with contact aided  
159 by an electrolyte solution.

## 160 5 Evidence by Indication

### 161 5.1 Intermittent Claudication 162 (Also Described as “Stable 163 Claudicants”, or Fontaine 164 Stage 2)

165 The immediate effect of IPC devices is to  
166 increase popliteal artery velocity (49–70 %)  
167 [11, 12] and flow (49–84 %) [10–12, 18, 20]  
168 when compared to baseline levels. When used  
169 for a prolonged period of time they have also  
170 been shown to improve popliteal artery flow by  
171 3–36 % [13, 16]. Electrical stimulation of the  
172 gastrocnemius has been shown to increase super-  
173 ficial femoral artery flow by 140 %, although  
174 there were a wide range of flow changes in the  
175 small cohort study [25].

176 There were a wide variety of protocols, how-  
177 ever over the course of 4.5–6 months IPC was  
178 shown to increase ICD (97–150 %) and AWD  
179 (84–112 %) by clinically significant distances,  
180 with the benefits persisting over 12 months  
181 [13, 15, 16]. External compression of the calf

182 achieved an increase of 85 % and 76 % in ICD 182  
183 and AWD, which was significant when compared 183  
184 to negative controls, and sustained at 3 months 184  
185 [19]. NMES of the calf muscles, using the 185  
186 Medicompex, increased ICD and AWD by 186  
187 82 % and 61–150 % over 4 weeks [23, 24], and 187  
188 26 % and 34 % over 8 weeks [22]. These trials 188  
189 were small, but results were significant when 189  
190 compared to a sham device group. 190

191 Delis et al. showed an increase in quality of 191  
192 life at 5 months with IPC therapy, whilst the best 192  
193 medical therapy groups scores were unchanged 193  
194 [16]. These gains were sustained at 12 months 194  
195 post-treatment. 195

## 196 5.2 Critical Limb Ischaemia

197 Studies suggest that IPC reduces rest pain in 197  
198 40–100 % [29, 31]. One trial evaluated the effect 198  
199 of high frequency TENS on the relief of 199  
200 laboratory-induced tourniquet ischaemic pain 200  
201 [35]. The blinded use of the TENS machine 201  
202 delayed the onset of pain, reduced pain levels, 202  
203 and increased endurance of pain over a period 203  
204 of several minutes. This was significant when 204  
205 compared to sham-placebo. However, the 205  
206 feasibility of clinical use of TENS in peripheral 206  
207 arterial disease does not appear to have been 207  
208 explored. 208

209 IPC treatment was shown to have ulcer 209  
210 healing rates of 26 % [29]. Vella et al. offer a 210  
211 79 % “favourable outcome” at 40 days, a loose 211  
212 term which covers decreased ulcer size, complete 212  
213 healing, or improved sufficiently to allow 213  
214 revascularisation [28]. Blood flux to the skin of 214  
215 the foot, as evidenced by laser Doppler, was 215  
216 increased significantly over 5 IPC cycles in a 216  
217 cohort of 20 subjects [30]. 217

218 IPC had an early limb salvage rate of 58–83 % 218  
219 at 1–3 months, and 58–94 % at 1.5–3.5 years 219  
220 [28, 29, 31, 32, 39]. Beirne et al. quoted an 220  
221 amputation rate of 3 % at 18 months, and a 221  
222 mortality rate of 21 %, but do not compare to 222  
223 controls [34]. 223

224 No studies have reported the use of EMS or 224  
225 NMES in the management of CLI. 225



### 226 **5.3 Post Revascularisation**

227 Two IPC devices have been investigated for their  
 228 utility in circulatory support after surgical  
 229 revascularisation. Application to the foot for  
 230 7 days after femorodistal bypass in 5 subjects led  
 231 to reduced swelling and increased haemodynamic  
 232 parameters in the femoral and popliteal vessels  
 233 over controls not treated with IPC [36]. No numer-  
 234 ical data to support this is given, and conflicts of  
 235 interest have not been declared. The 2002 paper  
 236 looks at grafted arteriopathies (femoropopliteal and  
 237 femorodistal bypass) approximately 18 months  
 238 post-operation, and shows that a single treatment  
 239 with IPC increases foot skin blood flux from  
 240 baseline equally to controls, during device  
 241 operation [14].

### 242 **5.4 Galvanic stimulation - a special** 243 **mention**

244 There were few published clinical studies  
 245 using galvanic electrical stimulation in periph-  
 246 eral arterial disease. Peter et al. investigated  
 247 subjects who had impaired peripheral perfusion  
 248 and microvascular insufficiency, as measured by  
 249 laser Doppler and transcutaneous oximeter  
 250 [37]. He demonstrated an increase in skin blood  
 251 flux and oxygen tension in 11 diabetic patients  
 252 with impaired microcirculation after 5 mins of  
 253 stimulation, which dropped back to baseline  
 254 after stimulation ceased. Another study of  
 255 40 randomised and controlled subjects looked at  
 256 the healing of diabetic neuropathic foot ulcers  
 257 when subjected to a nocturnal program of gal-  
 258 vanic skin stimulation over 12 weeks [38]. There  
 259 was no significant difference in wound healing  
 260 rate, time to complete healing, or limb salvage  
 261 between test and control groups.

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## 262 **6 Discussion**

263 There is evidence to support the use of IPC in  
 264 the management of intermittent claudication,  
 265 with clinically important changes in treadmill

distances seen with regular use. The greatest 266  
 volume of published supporting research lies 267  
 behind the ArtAssist device. The benefit of 268  
 linking compressions to cardiac cycle, such as 269  
 with the Circulator Boot, has not been shown to 270  
 be clinically important at this point in time. 271

This review suggests that long term EMS or 272  
 NMES can positively affect clinical parameters 273  
 of symptomatic peripheral arterial disease. It 274  
 remains to be seen how effective long term 275  
 NMES is for treating symptomatic intermittent 276  
 claudication, and if this is equivalent to 277  
 supervised exercise training, or a useful adjunct. 278  
 NMES may have additional benefits over exer- 279  
 cise alone. There is evidence in animal models 280  
 that changes in muscle stimulation can affect 281  
 muscle fibre differentiation, although this has 282  
 not been replicated in adult humans [40]. Nerve 283  
 cross-union experiments have shown the 284  
 ability of fast and slow twitch muscles to 285  
 change their contraction times and metabolic 286  
 activity, according to changes in innervation 287  
 [40, 41]. Forst et al. showed a positive effect on 288  
 diabetic microvascular disease, with NMES able 289  
 to increase foot temperature, but this was blunted 290  
 in cases of peripheral neuropathy [42]. High level 291  
 evidence will only be provided by an adequately 292  
 powered comparative clinical trial. 293

The evidence presented here suggests that IPC 294  
 reduces pain and increases limb salvage in criti- 295  
 cal limb ischaemia, and that this would be 296  
 directly applicable to the clinical management 297  
 of these patients were revascularisation is not 298  
 possible. 299

Electrical stimulation devices have evolved 300  
 significantly since their initial introduction as a 301  
 simple pair of electrodes attached to a generator 302  
 box, with significant safety concerns – they had 303  
 been known to cause burns at the interface site, 304  
 or explode in the operating theatre [43]. They are 305  
 decreasing in size and cost, some are portable 306  
 and do not interfere with mobilisation. The dura- 307  
 tion and length of NMES protocol remains con- 308  
 tentious, with some advocating three 20 min 309  
 stimulation sessions per day, others 1 h contin- 310  
 uous stimulation per day. However, results in 311  
 these small studies do appear to be both benefi- 312  
 cial and similar [44]. There is no general 313

314 consensus as to an ideal protocol, which may be  
315 best explored in a combination of laboratory and  
316 clinical trials.

317 TENS machines have been used in the man-  
318 agement of pain, and are thought to work through  
319 a gating mechanism, effectively switching off  
320 downstream pain signals by providing an alter-  
321 native stimulus. This can be used in the treatment  
322 of pain symptoms of any cause, and do appear to  
323 be effective in the short-term treatment of  
324 ischaemic pain. Conclusions beyond this are not  
325 supported by the literature.

326 There is little evidence to support the use of  
327 galvanic stimulation in this patient cohort.

## 328 7 Conclusion

329 There are many devices that are clinically rele-  
330 vant to the vascular specialist managing patients  
331 with peripheral arterial disease. A working  
332 knowledge of available devices, especially IPC  
333 and NMES, expands the range of therapies avail-  
334 able for management of symptomatic disease,  
335 and may be of special benefit to those with lim-  
336 ited exercise capacity. The use of IPC in  
337 non-reconstructable critical limb ischaemia is  
338 particularly useful for limb salvage.

339 Medical devices for the assistance in manage-  
340 ment of all forms of PAD are emerging as impor-  
341 tant non-invasive tools. If they are to cement  
342 their roles in this management strategy, more  
343 robust research in the form of randomised con-  
344 trolled studies will be required to add to their  
345 evidence base.

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Uncorrected Proof