# Hypertension Prevalence, Awareness, and Control Among Parents of School-Aged Children in the United Arab Emirates 

Syed M Shah ${ }^{1,2}$, Layla M AIMarzouqi ${ }^{1,3}$, Romona Devi Govender ${ }^{4}$, Javaid Nauman ${ }^{1,5}$, Moien AB Khan $\mathbb{D}^{4,6}$<br>'Institute of Public Health, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University, Al Ain, United Arab Emirates; ${ }^{2}$ Department of Family Medicine, Aga Khan University, Karachi, Pakistan; ${ }^{3}$ Medical Tourism Centre, Dubai Health Authority, Dubai, United Arab Emirates; ${ }^{4}$ Health and Wellness Research Group, Department of Family Medicine, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University, Al-Ain, United Arab Emirates;<br>${ }^{5}$ Department of Circulation and Medical Imaging, Faculty of Medicine and Health Sciences, Norwegian University of Science and Technology, Trondheim, Norway; ${ }^{6}$ Primary Care, NHS Northwest London, London, TW3 3EB, UK<br>Correspondence: Moien AB Khan, Department of Family Medicine, College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University, P.O. Box I7666, Al-Ain, United Arab Emirates, Email moien.khan@uaeu.ac.ae


#### Abstract

Background: Increased blood pressure (BP) is a major cardiovascular disease risk factor. The study aimed to determine the prevalence and predictors of hypertension and its awareness and control among parents of school-aged children in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Methods: A total of 605 parents participated in this cross-sectional study. Information on socio-demographics, lifestyle factors, and history of chronic disease were collected through an adapted version of the World Health Organization STEPS questionnaire. Fasting blood glucose samples, BP measurements, body mass index (BMI), and waist and hip circumference were obtained using standard measurement protocols. Prevalence of hypertension was identified in the cohorts by defining hypertension using the 2017 American College of Cardiology (ACC) and the American Heart Association (AHA) guidelines ( $\mathrm{BP} \geq 130 / 80 \mathrm{mmHg}$ ) and the World Health Organization-International Society of Hypertension Guidelines Orchid ( $\mathrm{BP} \geq 140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ ) in association with antihypertensive medication use. Results: The mean age of participants was $42.9 \pm 7.9$ years. The prevalence of hypertension was $37.2 \%(95 \%$ CI: 33.5-41.2) and $18.0 \%$ ( $95 \%$ CI: $15.2-21.3$ ), using the 2017 and the previous WHO definitions, respectively. Little over half of the sample (51.5\%) who were aware of having hypertension reported using antihypertensive medications. Of those reporting the use of antihypertensive medications in the past two days, 13 of 33 patients ( $39.4 \%$ ) had their hypertension under control ( $<140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ ). The independent correlates of hypertension included age [(adjusted odds ratio (AOR): 1.09 (1.05-1.13], male sex [AOR: 2.48 (1.41-4.34], college or higher education [AOR: $0.22(0.09-0.56)$ ], family history of hypertension [AOR: 2.03 (1.17-3.53)], obesity [AOR: 3.15 (1.24-7.12)], and moderate or vigorous physical activity [AOR: 0.50 (0.26-0.98)]. Conclusion: Hypertension is prevalent among parents of school-going children. Improving lifestyle, health literacy, and introducing innovative models to raise awareness and education about hypertension are essential to achieve sustainable development goals (SDGs).


Keywords: blood pressure, sustainable development goals, medication adherence, United Arab Emirates, primary care, parents, native population, Arabs

## Introduction

High blood pressure (BP) constitutes a major modifiable risk factor for cardiovascular diseases (CVD) in developed and developing countries and is associated with an estimated substantial cost of $>10 \%$ of all healthcare expenditures. ${ }^{1,2}$ The current American College of Cardiology and the American Heart Association (ACC/AHA) 2017 guidelines define hypertension as systolic BP (SBP) of $\geq 130 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or diastolic BP (DBP) of $\geq 80 \mathrm{mmHg}$. ${ }^{3}$ In adults, an increase of 20 mmHg in SBP or 10 mmHg in DBP is associated with more than a two-fold increase in mortality owing to stroke and other cardiovascular diseases. ${ }^{4}$ Hypertension accounts for $13 \%$ of premature deaths worldwide ${ }^{5,6}$ and is the third leading cause of disability-adjusted life years. ${ }^{7}$

Parents represent a unique group of the adult population as they are responsible for the health and well-being of themselves and their children. Parenting has become more challenging with more demand due to work pressure and parental responsibilities. ${ }^{8}$ With increased stress and multiple responsibilities, less time is spent for lifestyle changes and personal care among parents. ${ }^{9}$ During an index cardiovascular event, many younger and middle-aged people were unaware that they had hypertension or uncontrolled risk factors. ${ }^{10-12}$ This contrasts with improving awareness and medication adherence among the population with cardiovascular risk factors. ${ }^{13}$ According to a systematic review, the trends in hypertension prevalence increased between 2000 and 2010; population awareness increased from $58.2 \%$ to $67.0 \%$, antihypertensive treatment from $44.5 \%$ to $55.6 \%$, and control from $17.9 \%$ to $28.4 \%$ in high-income countries. However, such improvements were much lower in low- and middle-income countries. ${ }^{14,15}$

In 2015, The United Nations member countries adopted a framework of achieving 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs) targeting economic, social, and environmental development through national and global coalitions. ${ }^{16}$ SDG-3 (Good health and well-being) aspired to reduce premature deaths due to non-communicable disease by one-third by 2030.17 Such goals highlight the importance of measuring prevalence, increasing awareness, treatment, and controlling hypertension.

Evidence suggests that hypertension clusters within families and a family history of hypertension are a strong predictor of high BP among the offspring. ${ }^{17,18}$ Multiple opportunities are being missed regarding identification and preventing disability and death due to hypertension. Hypertension prevalence, population awareness, treatment, and control rates vary globally. ${ }^{14}$ Given the asymptomatic nature of hypertension, identifying people with hypertension, providing appropriate treatment, and achieving BP control is a substantial challenge. In this current study, we hypothesized that the prevalence of hypertension is on the rise and could be due to the difference in awareness and control of hypertension with respect to patient sex and other variables. This study aims to determine the prevalence of hypertension using the $2017 \mathrm{ACC} / \mathrm{AHA}$ compared to the previous guidelines and identify correlates of hypertension and the level of awareness, treatment, and control of hypertension among parents of school-aged children in the UAE.

## Methods

This cross-sectional study was conducted on a target population of parents with school-aged children studying in Al Ain, UAE. Prior to collecting data, the study and approval were obtained from Al Ain Medical District Human Research Ethics Committee (Ethical approval number AAMDHREC: 1018). The study was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was obtained from all the study participants before the study, and the study objectives and procedures were clarified to each of the participants.

## Setting

This study was conducted in Al Ain city, the emirates of Abu Dhabi. Abu Dhabi is the largest of the seven emirates that make up the UAE. Study participants included native Emiratis and Arab parents with school-going children. The current study is an ancillary to a primary study examining a random sample of 1186 adolescents aged between 12 and 18 from 114 private and public schools in Al Ain city. There were 114 schools and we selected a random sample of 8 schools. A detailed description of the inclusion and exclusion criteria, measurements, and description of a sampling frame is available elsewhere. ${ }^{19}$

## Data Collection

The sample size of this study was based on the need to explore differences among subgroups. A difference of $1 / 3$ standard deviation in continuous measures such as BP will usually include all levels of public health interest. For a significance level of $5 \%$ and a power of $80 \%$, we would need 144 per group in a two-equal male and female group comparison. We estimated a sample size of 500 to be adequate to address the primary research question on the prevalence of hypertension. Our study questionnaire comprised of an adapted version of the "STEPS Methodology," developed by the World Health Organization (WHO) for the measurement and surveillance of non-communicable disease (NCD) risk factors at the country level. ${ }^{20}$ Out of the 886 parents approached for the study, 604 agreed to participate.

Trained nurses conducted an interview in Muwaiji Primary Health Care Centre in Al Ain city. Information on sociodemographic characteristics; modifiable lifestyle risk factors including physical activity, family, and personal disease history; monthly salary in UAE dirhams (AED; AED $1.00 \approx$ USD 3.67); and history of current and past cigarette
smoking were obtained through a face-to-face interview. All interviewers completed a training program that familiarized them with the study objectives.

Subjects were classified as current smokers if they answered yes to the question, "Do you smoke cigarettes daily?". Former smokers were defined as having smoked at least 100 cigarettes in their lifetime. The variables used for the analysis were smoking and smokeless tobacco consumption during the past year. Information on physical activity was obtained using the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ-short version). ${ }^{21}$ The questionnaire has been validated in several studies. ${ }^{22,23}$ We measured the frequency (days per week) and duration (minutes per day) of moderate- and vigorous-intensity physical activity that the patients indulged in, in the 7 days before carrying out the survey. Physical activity was based on recalling daily activity patterns in the last 7 days. We used the US guideline for physical activity, recommended by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and the American College of Sports Medicine (ACSM). We identified the proportion of participants reporting moderate-intensity physical activity for a minimum of 30 min for 5 days each week or vigorous-intensity physical activity for a minimum of 20 min for 3 days each week. ${ }^{24}$

We used the current 2017 ACC/AHA guidelines ${ }^{25}$ and the previous guidelines by the World Health Organization/ International Society of Hypertension guidelines ${ }^{26}$ to measure BP and identify the prevalence of hypertension in our study population. Resting brachial BP was measured using a calibrated automated device (Omron HEM-705cp) in a sitting position using the right upper arm and an appropriately sized cuff after 5 min of rest. Three measurements were taken, and the average of the last two measures was used for analyses. Hypertension was defined as a mean $\mathrm{SBP} \geq 140$, a mean $\mathrm{DBP} \geq 90$, or current hypertension treatment with prescription medication.

Participants' self-report of any previous hypertension diagnosis by a health care professional was used to define hypertension awareness. Treatment for hypertension was defined as self-reported current use of antihypertensive medication among individuals who had reported being told by a doctor or other health professional that they had high BP. Hypertension was considered controlled among those on treatment if the average BP was $<140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$. The World Health Organization/International Society of Hypertension defined grade 1 hypertension as a mean SBP of 140-159 mmHg and/or a mean DBP of $90-99 \mathrm{mmHg}$. Grade 2 included having a mean SBP of $160-179 \mathrm{mmHg}$ and/or mean DBP of $100-109 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{Hg}$. Grade 3 hypertension included those with mean SBP of $\geq 180 \mathrm{and} /$ or $\mathrm{DBP} \geq 110 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{Hg}$. Based on the 2017 ACC/AHA guidelines, ${ }^{3}$ hypertension was defined as a mean systolic $\mathrm{BP} \geq 130 \mathrm{mmHg}$, mean diastolic $\mathrm{BP} \geq 80$ mmHg , or self-reported current use of antihypertensive medications. Prehypertension was defined as mean systolic BP of $120-129 \mathrm{mmHg}$ and/or mean diastolic BP of $80-89 \mathrm{mmHg} .{ }^{3}$

Body weight was measured to the nearest 0.1 kg using a calibrated electronic scale with a mounted stadiometer to measure height to the nearest 0.1 cm (SECA Hamburg, Germany). Bodyweight and height measurements were completed with the participant wearing light clothing without shoes and standing motionless. Waist and hip circumference were measured using a flexible, non-stretch nylon tape measure (SECA Hamburg) with the subjects wearing light clothing. Waist circumference was measured midway between the lower rib margin and the top of the iliac crest, in cm to the nearest 0.1 cm . Hip circumference was measured at the point of maximal protrusion of the gluteal muscles nearest to 0.1 cm . Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as body weight in kilograms divided by the height in meters squared. World Health Organization cut-offs were used to classify overweight ( $25.0-29.9 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ ) and obese ( $\geq 30.0 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ ) adults. ${ }^{27}$ We used a waist-to-hip ratio (WHR; waist in $\mathrm{cm} / \mathrm{hip}$ circumference in cm ) of $\geq 0.90$ to define central obesity in our study population. ${ }^{28}$ Participants were classified as having diabetes mellitus based on self-reported status and self-reported current use of insulin or oral hypoglycemic agents to lower blood sugar, or if having hemoglobin $\mathrm{A} 1 \mathrm{C}(\mathrm{HbA1C}) \geq 6.5 \%$, or fasting plasma glucose $\geq 126 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ according to the American Diabetes Guidelines. ${ }^{29}$

## Statistical Analysis

Data were entered into a computerized database using the Microsoft Access software and then imported into Stata version 13.0 (Stata Corp LP, College Station, TX, USA) for analysis. Percentages, means, and $95 \%$ confidence intervals were calculated for descriptive purposes. The chi-squared test was used for categorical variables, and $t$-test and analyses of variance were used for continuous variables. First, we evaluated the statistically significant socio-demographic, lifestyle and clinical predictors of hypertension using the chi-squared test in the univariate analysis. We entered, one by one those variables that were statistically significant in the univariable analyses, using the stepwise logistic regression
analysis to examine the association of socio-demographic, lifestyle, and other factors with the odds of hypertension. We did not find any multicollinearity in our analysis. The logistic regression results were expressed as odds ratios (OR) with $95 \%$ confidence intervals (CI). We used multivariable logistic regression to adjust for potential confounding factors. Due to the small sample size, we could not conduct multivariable analysis for treatment and control. Two-tailed p-values $\leq 0.05$ were considered to indicate statistically significant differences.

## Results

Of 886 eligible subjects, 604 ( $68.3 \%$ ) participated in the study. The mean age of participants was $42.9 \pm 7.9$ years. Of 604 participants, 331 ( $54.7 \%$ ) were male. Study subjects included Emirati nationals ( $52.6 \%$ ) and Arabs ( $47.4 \%$ ). Many study subjects had secondary ( $47.2 \%$ ) and post-secondary level ( $45.8 \%$ ) education. In addition, a high proportion of study subjects were overweight ( $35.7 \%$ ), obese ( $50.2 \%$ ), and about one in four study participants were smokers ( $25.2 \%$ ). Of the total 604 study subjects, $113(18.7 \%)$ had type 2 diabetes. In Table 1, we present the socio-demographic characteristics of our study population.

Table I Characteristics of Study Population and Prevalence of Hypertension (N=604)

| Characteristic | Overall N | Hypertension |  | p value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | No n (\%) | Yes n (\%) |  |
| All | 604 | 495 (81.9) | 109 (18.1) |  |
| Age, mean (SD) | 42.9 (7.9) | 41.7 (7.4) | 48.3 (8.2) | <0.001 |
| 23-34 | 84 | 78 (92.9) | 6 (7.1) | <0.001 |
| 35-44 | 259 | 235 (90.7) | 24 (9.3) |  |
| 45-54 | 188 | 136 (72.3) | 52 (27.7) |  |
| 55-64 | 74 | 46 (63.1) | 27 (36.9) |  |
| Sex |  |  |  |  |
| Women | 330 | 292 (88.5) | 38 (11.5) | <0.001 |
| Men | 274 | 203 (74.1) | 71 (25.9) |  |
| Nationality |  |  |  |  |
| Emirati nationals | 317 | 271 (85.5) | 46 (14.5) | 0.018 |
| Arabs | 287 | 224 (78.1) | 63 (21.9) |  |
| Educational level |  |  |  |  |
| Middle or lower | 42 | 24 (57.1) | 18 (42.9) | <0.001 |
| Secondary | 281 | 235 (83.6) | 46 (16.4) |  |
| College or above | 274 | 230 (83.9) | 44 (16.1) |  |
| Employment status |  |  |  |  |
| Not employed | 288 | 236 (81.9) | 52 (18.1) | 0.996 |
| Employed | 316 | 259 (81.9) | 57 (18.1) |  |
| Marital status |  |  |  |  |
| Married | 577 | 472 (81.8) | 105 (18.2) | 0.347 |
| Divorced or widowed | 20 | 18 (90.0) | 2 (10.0) |  |

(Continued)

Table I (Continued).

| Characteristic | Overall N | Hypertension |  | $p$ value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | No $n$ (\%) | Yes n (\%) |  |
| Monthly household income (AED) |  |  |  |  |
| <5000 | 93 | 74 (79.6) | 19 (20.4) | 0.329 |
| 5000-10,000 | 108 | 87 (80.6) | 21 (19.4) |  |
| $>10,000$ | 100 | 87 (87.0) | 13 (13.0) |  |
| Family history of hypertension |  |  |  |  |
| No | 216 | 189 (87.5) | 27 (12.5) | 0.011 |
| Yes | 324 | 256 (79.1) | 68 (20.9) |  |
| Diabetes, fasting plasma glucose (FPG) |  |  |  |  |
| FPG $<100 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ | 264 | 234 (88.6) | 30 (11.4) | <0.001 |
| FPG $100-125 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ | 227 | 184 (81.1) | 43 (18.9) |  |
| FPG $\geq 126 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ | 113 | 77 (68.1) | 36 (31.9) |  |
| BMI categories |  |  |  |  |
| $<25$ | 84 | 76 (90.5) | 8 (9.5) | 0.018 |
| 25.0-29.9 | 213 | 179 (84.1) | 34 (15.9) |  |
| $\geq 30.0$ | 299 | 233 (77.9) | 66 (22.1) |  |
| Waist-to-hip ratio |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & \geq 0.90 \mathrm{~cm} \text { (men). } \\ & \geq 0.85 .0 \mathrm{~cm} \text { (women) } \end{aligned}$ | 366 | 316 (86.3) | 50 (13.7) | <0.001 |
| $\begin{aligned} & <0.90 \mathrm{~cm} \text { (men). } \\ & <0.85 \mathrm{~cm} \text { (women) } \end{aligned}$ | 237 | 179 (75.5) | 58 (24.5) |  |
| Current smoker |  |  |  |  |
| No | 452 | 379 (83.8) | 73 (16.2) | 0.037 |
| Yes | 152 | $116(76.3)$ | 36 (23.7) |  |
| Moderate, vigorous physical activity |  |  |  |  |
| Yes | 128 | 116 (90.6) | 12 (9.4) | 0.004 |
| No | 476 | 379 (79.6) | 97 (20.4) |  |

A high proportion of study participants ( $91.2 \%$ ) had undergone BP check-up in the past. However, more males (93.4\%) had a BP checkup than their female counterparts $(89.4 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.083)$. The prevalence of hypertension, awareness, antihypertensive medication use, types of drugs used, and BP control among males and females are detailed in Table 2. The overall prevalence of hypertension was $37.2 \%$ ( $95 \%$ CI: $33.5-41.2$ ) based on the $2017 \mathrm{ACC} / \mathrm{AHA}$ guidelines and $18.0 \%$ ( $95 \% \mathrm{CI}$ : $15.2-21.3$ ) based on the previous guidelines ( $\mathrm{BP} \geq 140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ ). Compared to the previous guidelines, the new guidelines suggested that more than twice the proportion of study participants will require antihypertensive medications. The prevalence of hypertension using 2017 ACC/AHA was $30.2 \%$ ( $95 \%$ CI: 25.4-35.6) among Emirati nationals and $44.9 \%$ ( $95 \%$ CI: $39.2-$ 50.8) among Arab nationals. Per the previous WHO guidelines, the prevalence of hypertension was much lower in Emiratis (14.5\% [95\% CI: 11.0-18.8]) than Arab nationals (21.9\% [95\% CI: 17.5-27.1]). Among participants with self-reported

Table 2 Blood Pressure Measurement, Population Awareness, Medication Use and Hypertension Control Among Study Participants by Gender ( $\mathrm{n}=604$ )

| Characteristics | Total N (\%) | Men n (\%) | Women n (\%) | p-value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Systolic blood pressure (SBP), mean (SD) | $121.1( \pm 15.7)$ | $127.8( \pm 14.8)$ | $115.5( \pm 14.2)$ | <0.001 |
| Diastolic blood pressure (DBP), mean (SD) | 74.2 (10.5) | 77.6 (9.8) | $71.3( \pm 10.2)$ | <0.001 |
| Measured blood pressure of un-diagnosed ( $\mathrm{n}=52 \mathrm{l}$ ) |  |  |  |  |
| Normal SBP <120 and /or DBP < 80 mm Hg | 372 (71.4) | 127 (57.5) | 245 (81.7) | <0.001 |
| Pre-hypertension, SBP 120-139, DBP $80-89 \mathrm{mmHg}$ | 106 (20.4) | 68 (30.8) | 38 (12.7) |  |
| Grade I, SBP 140-159 and/or DBP 90-99 | 36 (6.9) | 22 (9.9) | 14 (4.7) |  |
| Grade 2, SBP 160-179 and/or DBP 100-109 | $5(0.9$ | 2 (0.9) | 3 (1.0) |  |
| Grade 3, SBP $\geq 180$ and/ or DBP $\geq 110$ | 2 (0.4) | 2 (0.9) |  |  |
| Participants with self-reported hypertension ( $\mathrm{n}=84$ ) |  |  |  |  |
| Normal SBP <120 and /or DBP <80 mm Hg | 25 (29.0) | 10 (17.0) | 15 (50.0) | 0.005 |
| Pre-hypertension, SBP 120-139, DBP $80-89 \mathrm{mmHg}$ | 27 (32.5) | 22 (41.5) | 5 (16.7) |  |
| Grade I, SBP 140-159 and/or DBP 90-99 | 22 (26.5) | 13 (24.5) | 9 (30.0) |  |
| Grade 2, SBP 160-179 and/or DBP 100-109 | 6 (7.2) | 6 (11.3) | 1 (3.3) |  |
| Grade 3, SBP $\geq 180$ and/ or DBP $\geq 110$ | 4 (4.8) | 3 (5.7) |  |  |
| Hypertension ( $\geq 140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or medication) | 109 (18.0) | 71 (25.9) | 38 (11.5) | <0.001 |
| Hypertension ( $\geq 130 / 80 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or medication) | 225 (37.2) | 147 (53.6) | 78 (23.6) | <0.001 |
| History of BP checking in the past |  |  |  |  |
| No | 53 (8.8) | 18 (6.6) | 10 (89.4) | 0.083 |
| Yes | 552 (91.2) | 256 (93.4) | 296 (89.4) |  |
| Aware of hypertension |  |  |  |  |
| No | 46 (40.3) | 29 (39.2) | 17 (56.4) | <0.001 |
| Yes | 68 (59.6) | 45 (60.8) | 22 (55.3) |  |
| Age of hypertension diagnosis, mean (SD) | $41.0( \pm 12.8)$ | 44.1 (13.3) | 34.8 (9.2) | 0.003 |
| Hypertensive persons currently receiving drugs |  |  |  |  |
| No | 35 (51.5) | 19 (42.2) | 16 (69.6) |  |
| Yes | 33 (48.5) | 26 (57.8) | 7 (30.4) | 0.033 |
| Currently receiving medicine |  |  |  |  |
| BP $\geq 140 / 90 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{Hg}$ | 20 (60.6) | 16 (61.5) | 4 (57.1) | 0.833 |
| BP < $140 / 90 \mathrm{~mm} \mathrm{Hg}$ | 13 (39.4) | 10 (38.5) | 3 (42.9) |  |
| Types of medication used |  |  |  |  |
| Angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBS) | 19 (59.4) | 16 (61.5) | 3 (50.0) | 0.852 |
| Angiotensin Converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE) | 7 (21.9) | 5 (19.2) | 2 (33.3) |  |
| Calcium channel blocker (CCB) | 5 (15.6) | 4 (15.4) | 1 (16.7) |  |
| Beta blockers (BB) | 1 (3.1) | 1 (3.9) | 0 |  |

hypertension and those with measured hypertension, a significant proportion of the participants had stage 1 and stage 2 hypertension.

A high proportion of males compared to females, were aware of their hypertensive status, used antihypertensive medications, and had better control of hypertension ( $\mathrm{BP}<140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ ) among those who reported the use of antihypertensive medications in the past 2 days.

Among those who reported various classes of antihypertensive medications, a high proportion (59.4\%) reported using angiotensin receptor blockers (ARB), followed by angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE) ( $21.9 \%$ ), calcium channel blockers (CCB) (15.6\%), and beta-blockers (BB) (3.1\%). We also classified the prevalence of hypertension by patient sex with respect to various characteristics of the study participants. The prevalence of hypertension was significantly higher among men than women. The prevalence increased with increasing age, and it was higher in Arabs than in their Emirati counterparts in men and women. The prevalence of hypertension was also higher among those with low or medium education level. Those with a family history of hypertension had a higher prevalence of hypertension. In addition, participants with hypertension were more likely to have prediabetes and/or diabetes than those without. People with hypertension were more likely to be current smokers and have central obesity. Women with diabetes and men with central obesity were more likely to have a higher prevalence of hypertension than others. By contrast, participants reporting moderate or vigorous physical activity in the past week were less likely to be hypertensive.

In Table 3, we present the results of our multivariable logistic regression analysis. After adjusting for several sociodemographic and other factors, we found that increasing age by year (adjusted OR [AOR]: 1.09 [1.05-1.13]), male sex (AOR: 2.48 [1.41-4.30]), higher education (AOR: 0.22 [0.09-0.56]), family history of hypertension (AOR: 2.03 [1.17-3.53]), obesity

Table 3 Independent Correlates for Hypertension Based on Multivariable Logistic Regression Analysis

| Characteristic | Hypertension <br> Adjusted OR (95\% CI) | $p$ value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age, years | 1.09 (1.05-1.13) | <0.001 |
| Sex |  |  |
| Women | Reference | <0.001 |
| Men | 2.48 (1.41-4.34) |  |
| Nationality |  |  |
| Emirati nationals | Reference | 0.536 |
| Arabs | 1.18 (0.69-2.01) |  |
| Educational level |  |  |
| Middle or lower | Reference |  |
| Secondary | 0.26 (0.10-0.65) | <0.004 |
| College or above | 0.22 (0.09-0.56) | <0.001 |
| Family history of hypertension |  |  |
| No | Reference |  |
| Yes | 2.03 (1.17-3.53) | 0.012 |
| Diabetes, fasting plasma glucose (FPG) |  |  |
| FPG $<100 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ | Reference |  |
| FPG $100-125 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ | 1.05 (0.59-1.85) | 0.856 |
| FPG $\geq 126 \mathrm{mg} / \mathrm{dL}$ | 1.37 (0.71-2.66) | 0.349 |

(Continued)

Table 3 (Continued).

| Characteristic | Hypertension <br> Adjusted OR (95\% Cl) | p value |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| BMI categories |  |  |
| $<25$ | $2.22(0.85-5.81)$ |  |
| $25.0-29.9$ | $3.15(1.24-7.12)$ | 0.102 |
| $\geq 30.0$ |  | Reference |
| Waist-to-hip ratio |  |  |
| $<0.90$ cm (men); <0.85 cm (women) | $1.29(0.66-2.50)$ | 0.016 |
| $\geq 0.90$ cm (men); $\geq 0.85 .0$ cm (women) | $0.50(0.26-0.98)$ |  |
| Moderate or vigorous physical activity versus none |  |  |
| Current smoker |  |  |
| No |  |  |
| Yes | $0.79(0.72-2.28)$ |  |

(AOR: 3.15 [1.24-7.12]), and moderate or vigorous physical activity (AOR: 0.50 [0.66-2.50]) were independent correlates of hypertension in our study population.

## Discussion

We found a relatively high prevalence of hypertension in a cohort of parents of school-aged children in the UAE. A considerably high proportion of hypertensive individuals remained untreated and/or had uncontrolled disease despite the high proportion of the population having been screened for hypertension. In addition, we observed significant differences between men and women regarding hypertension screening, treatment, and control. Using multivariable-adjusted logistic regression models, we verified that well-known predictors of hypertension had significant associations in our study population.

The prevalence of hypertension among Arabs and Emiratis were lower than South Asian male migrants (30.5\%) in Al Ain city, UAE. ${ }^{30}$ In our current research, $91.2 \%$ of the study sample ( $93.4 \%$ men and $89.4 \%$ women) had their BP measured. Male Emiratis of older age, with lower educational level, increased waist circumference and/or obesity, and family history of hypertension were more likely to have hypertension. Further, in this study, more women (56.4\%) were unaware of their hypertensive status than men (39.2\%), and this disparity in hypertension awareness was statistically significant ( $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). Hypertension in the adult population was $37.2 \%$ based on the 2017 ACC/AHA guidelines ( $\mathrm{BP} \geq 130 / 80 \mathrm{mmHg}$ ), as compared to $18.0 \%$ using the previous hypertensive guidelines ( $\mathrm{BP} \geq 140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ ). Most individuals with high BP were younger and deemed to have a normal BP using the previous BP thresholds.

Our findings of a high prevalence of hypertension in the UAE is consistent with previous reports from the UAE and neighbouring countries. A cross-sectional household survey done by Mamdouh et al in the nearby Dubai Emirate revealed that $>33 \%$ of the residents had high BP. ${ }^{31}$ In another study in the Middle East countries, the crude prevalence of hypertension was $31 \% .^{32}$ In a US-based National Health and Nutrition Examination cross-sectional survey, the prevalence of hypertension rose from $32 \%$ to $46 \%$ among US adults, wherein BP was defined as BP $\geq 130 / 80 \mathrm{mmHg}$. ${ }^{33}$

In our study, for several reasons, we estimated the prevalence of hypertension using the ACCA/AHA guidelines instead of the other available European Society of Cardiology and European Society of Hypertension (ESC/ESH) ${ }^{34}$ and the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. ${ }^{35}$ First, we assumed our cohort population of parents with school-aged children to be middleaged adults who will need to be identified earlier to prevent cardiovascular disease (CVD) with a lower definition of hypertension than other guidelines. Furthermore, using a lower cut-off BP will further increase awareness of hypertension among the
participants, encourage lifestyle changes, and initiate treatment to intensify management to reduce CVD risk. ${ }^{33}$ Nevertheless, applying the 2017 ACC/AHA hypertension guidelines will substantially increase the proportion of participants defined as hypertensive. Moreover, intensive treatment for BP would be required to achieve the 2017 ACC/AHA guideline BP goal for those individuals who have already been diagnosed with hypertension. Thus, lower BP thresholds, as proposed by the ACCA/ AHA guidelines, would have major public health consequences and lead to a significant impact on clinical care in the UAE.

More than half the study participants were aware of their hypertensive status and received antihypertensive medications, but there was a sex-based disparity, given that a significantly higher proportion of women ( $69.6 \%$ ) did not take antihypertensive medications despite being aware of having hypertension. All of the study participants were using newer classes of antihypertensive medications including ARBs. Despite clinical trials documenting beneficial effects of cheaper drudrugs, such thiazide and BBs, very few participants reported using these drugs. ${ }^{36}$

In this study, the mean age of male parents diagnosed with hypertension with school-aged children was 41 years, and that of women was $\sim 35$ years old. This is in line with similar findings from Saudi Arabia. ${ }^{37}$ Similar findings were reported in Europe, whereas Central Asia had a lower mean age (36 years) of hypertensive adults. Participants from East Asia, the Pacific, ${ }^{38}$ and Latin American countries were slightly older ( 52 years) at the time of hypertension diagnosis. ${ }^{39}$

In our study, hypertension was undertreated and poorly controlled, although $91 \%$ had their BP checked in the past. This phenomenon is not unique to the UAE. This trend was noted across both developed and developing countries., ${ }^{39-42}$ with some countries showing improved hypertension management over time. ${ }^{39}$ Intensive education, lifestyle changes, population awareness, and treatment optimization contributed to this improvement. ${ }^{39}$ Our results indicate an urgent need to aggressively introduce such public health interventions in our region. The proportion of individuals aware of hypertension varies over different geographical areas. The reported proportions in Latin America and Korea are $60 \%{ }^{41}$ and $65 \%{ }^{42}$ respectively. Awareness was higher in Saudi Arabia (76\%) ${ }^{37}$ and Canada ( $83 \%$ ), ${ }^{39}$ while it was much lower in Laos $(29 \%) .{ }^{43}$ Interestingly, our current rates of population awareness are quite similar to the data reported in the US about 40 years ago (69\%). ${ }^{44}$ However, this is somewhat disconcerting; in our study, $39 \%$ of the cohort that received antihypertensive medication had their BP controlled which was lower than that in a Canadian cohort ( $64.6 \%$ ), ${ }^{39}$ while it differed from the neighboring Iran $(37.4 \%),{ }^{40}$ and Laos $(16.7 \%) .{ }^{43}$ This is encouraging because it suggests that targeting antihypertensive therapy and achieving hypertension control constitutes a reasonable goal with significant public health benefits for individuals compliant with current medical management guidelines.

Our findings of a positive association of hypertension with age, BMI, educational attainment, and family history of hypertension align with previous studies. ${ }^{45-48}$ In a prospective cohort of 1298 participants from the Framingham Heart Study, Vasan et al reported a significant association of hypertension with age. ${ }^{3,46}$ The prevalence and incidence of hypertension increased with increasing BMI in both sexes of different ethnic groups, both in children and adults. ${ }^{3,49,50}$ We also observed significant differences in the prevalence of hypertension based on educational attainment. It has been suggested that increased educational attainment is associated with an increased awareness of health status and wellness, and education may exert its influence through lifestyle and dietary habits. ${ }^{3,45,47}$ Furthermore, previous studies have shown a positive association between hypertension and plasma glucose levels, and hypertension often co-exists with type 2 diabetes mellitus. ${ }^{51-53}$ The association between physical activity and hypertension has been well-documented. ${ }^{54-57}$ Our results show that people engaging in moderate-to-vigorous-intensity physical activity have a $50 \%$ lower risk of having hypertension than inactive people. Recent meta-analyses suggested a linear inverse dose-response relationship between physical activity and hypertension, and moderate-to-vigorous physical activity was associated with a $6-33 \%$ lower risk of hypertension across studies. ${ }^{56,58}$ Our findings of no significant associations of hypertension with fasting plasma glucose levels and smoking status might reflect a lack of statistical power for these sub-group analyses.

Further research is required to understand the impact of parental health problems that can influence children. There are many ways by which such practices of poor control of hypertension can be transmitted to children, such as through parental modelling, family socialization practices, and family influences of behaviors and lifestyles. ${ }^{59}$ We propose further research to identify factors that could enhance the early identification of parental health problems. Evidence suggests that parental health literacy as an interventional tool has been used to manage obesity in children and reduce medication errors. ${ }^{60}$

The current study has several implications. Having hypertension at a younger age reflects the current lifestyle changes adopted in the UAE. ${ }^{61-63}$ Increased BP can cause death or disability due to CVD, which may have profound economical
and social effects on these families with school-aged children. The stakeholders must bring in multiple strategies, such as dietary regulation of salt, ${ }^{64}$ reduction in trans-fats, policies to reduce consumption of dense caloric fast foods, smoking cessation, increasing physical activity, reducing body weight, and reducing stress. Creating policies to curtail lifestyle factors will effectively control BP. ${ }^{65,66}$ Furthermore, implementing policies to address barriers relating to poor medication adherence are essential to control BP. ${ }^{67-69}$

The current coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic ${ }^{70}$ has brought in many challenges with increased stress altered lifestyle behaviour, which may have a further impact on the increase in the prevalence of poor control of hypertension. ${ }^{71,72}$ Our study also shows that many of the younger parents have been unaware or undiagnosed or do not meet the targets of controlled BP. In contrast, evidence suggests that only one-third patients with high BP can have controlled BP even with appropriate treatment. Hence, promoting health literacy and other lifestyle interventions are paramount and shown to be effective in controlling BP. ${ }^{73}$

Designing and implementation of innovative strategies within the school and the community for both school children and parents for healthy living through improved public health interventions and education are essential. One innovative way is the use of digital technology. A study conducted in India found using mobile health to be an effective educational resource to improve health literacy among the vulnerable population. ${ }^{74}$ Similarly, home monitoring of $\mathrm{BP}^{75}$ along with the utilization of other technologies, such as artificial intelligence, machine learning, and use of Big Data will aid in early identification and management of BP. ${ }^{76}$ One of the successful ways of identifying and managing BP is the implementation of programs similar to the highly successful Canadian Hypertension Education Program (CHEP), which focuses on improving the awareness, treatment, and control of hypertension through education and practice. ${ }^{77}$ The developed models should encompass core principles such as involving the participants with a baseline assessment, health literacy, and educational interventions so that the parents can understand the associated risk factors for BP, perceived benefits and barriers of BP control, and how they can be modified. Furthermore, controlling hypertension will go a long way in achieving not only SDG 3 (Health and healthybeing) but also SDG1 (No poverty) and SDG 8 (Decent work and economic growth).

## Strengths and Limitations

To our knowledge, this is the first study to review the prevalence, predictors, and control of hypertension among parents of school-aged children in the UAE. Our investigation identifies an increased prevalence of BP in younger populations within the UAE. Furthermore, those with raised BP have poor control of hypertension. The study calls policymakers for public health interventions that can address both children's and parents' health, thereby creating a healthy family.

Our study has some limitations. First, the cross-sectional study design does not permit to comment on potential causal associations between evaluated risk factors and hypertension. Second, our sample size was relatively small to undertake further specific subgroup analyses. Hence with the small sample size the results with regard to the awareness and control needs to be interpreted with caution. In addition, the definition of diabetes was based on self-reports with associated reliability issues. Third, using a convenience sample of adults could not allow us to exclude potential selection bias; however, the point estimates of hypertension prevalence are less likely to be affected.

## Conclusions

Our study findings suggest that the prevalence of hypertension is relatively high in the UAE and could be even higher if applying the newer 2017 ACC/AHA guidelines. In addition, we have found significant differences in screening and management of hypertension between men and women, which is worthy of further attention. Furthermore, our study highlights the importance of targeting major cardiovascular disease risk factors in the population, which is significantly correlated with hypertension. These findings validate the current need for innovative policies, clinical guidelines, and healthcare models to identify and manage hypertension among the public so that CVD and other similar catastrophic sequelae are prevented. Further research is needed to target the younger population in identifying and managing the early stages of hypertension and to improve medication adherence.

## Abbreviations

AED, Emirati dirham; AOR, adjusted odds ratio; BMI, body mass index; BP, blood pressure; CI, confidence interval; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; DPSC, disease prevention and screening center; HbA1c, glycated hemoglobin; IPAQ, International Physical Activity Questionnaire; NCD, non-communicable chronic diseases; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SDG, sustainable development goal; UAE, United Arab Emirates; USA, United States of America; USD, United States Dollar; WHO, World Health Organization; WC, waist circumference; WHR, waist-to-hip ratio.

## Acknowledgments

We thank the participants for their contribution to the study. This study was supported by College of Medicine and Health Sciences, United Arab Emirates University faculty grant (No. NP09-30). The funders had no role in the study design, data collection, and analysis, decision to publish, or manuscript preparation.

## Author Contributions

All authors made a significant contribution to the work reported, whether that is in the conception, study design, execution, acquisition of data, analysis and interpretation, or in all these areas; took part in drafting, revising or critically reviewing the article; gave final approval of the version to be published; have agreed on the journal to which the article has been submitted; and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

## Disclosure

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest in relation to this work.

## References

1. Mills KT, Stefanescu A, He J. The global epidemiology of hypertension. Nat Rev Nephrol. 2020;16(4):223-237. doi:10.1038/s41581-019-0244-2
2. Narayan KMV, Ali MK, Koplan JP. Global Noncommunicable Diseases — where Worlds Meet. N Engl J Med. 2010;363(13):1196-1198. doi:10.1056/NEJMp1002024
3. Whelton PK, Carey RM, Aronow WS, et al. 2017 ACC/AHA/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/AGS/APhA/ASH/ASPC/NMA/PCNA Guideline for the Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Management of High Blood Pressure in Adults: a Report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines. Hypertension. 2018;71(6):e13-e115. doi:10.1161/HYP.0000000000000065
4. Wolf-Maier K, Cooper RS, Banegas JR, et al. Hypertension Prevalence and Blood Pressure Levels in 6 European Countries, Canada, and the United States. JAMA. 2003;289(18):2363-2369. doi:10.1001/jama.289.18.2363
5. Banegas JR. Age-specific relevance of usual blood pressure to vascular mortality: a meta-analysis of individual data for one million adults in 61 prospective studies. Lancet. 2002;360(9349):1903-1913. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(02)11911-8
6. Guilbert JJ. The world health report 2002 - reducing risks, promoting healthy life. Educ Health. 2003;16(2):230. doi:10.1080/ 1357628031000116808
7. Ezzati M, Lopez AD, Rodgers A, Vander Hoorn S, Murray CJL. Selected major risk factors and global and regional burden of disease. Lancet. 2002;360(9343):1347-1360. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(02
8. Christensen K, Schneider B, Butler D. Families with school-age children. Future Child. 2011;21(2):69-90. doi:10.1353/foc.2011.0016
9. Taylor JY, Washington OGM, Artinian NT, Lichtenberg P. Parental stress among African American parents and grandparents. Issues Ment Health Nurs. 2007;28(4):373-387. doi:10.1080/01612840701244466
10. George MG, Tong X, Bowman BA. Prevalence of Cardiovascular Risk Factors and Strokes in Younger Adults. JAMA Neurol. 2017;74(6):695-703. doi:10.1001/jamaneurol.2017.0020
11. O' Donnell M, Hankey GJ, Rangarajan S, et al. Variations in knowledge, awareness and treatment of hypertension and stroke risk by country income level. Heart. 2021;107(4):282. doi:10.1136/heartjnl-2019-316515
12. Yandrapalli S, Nabors C, Goyal A, Aronow WS, Frishman WH. Modifiable Risk Factors in Young Adults With First Myocardial Infarction. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2019;73(5):573-584. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2018.10.084
13. Sun X, Du T. Trends in cardiovascular risk factors among U.S. men and women with and without diabetes, 1988-2014. BMC Public Health. 2017;17(1):893. doi:10.1186/s12889-017-4921-4
14. Mills KT, Bundy JD, Kelly TN, et al. Global Disparities of Hypertension Prevalence and Control. Circulation. 2016;134(6):441-450. doi:10.1161/ CIRCULATIONAHA.115.018912
15. Palafox B, McKee M, Balabanova D, et al. Wealth and cardiovascular health: a cross-sectional study of wealth-related inequalities in the awareness, treatment and control of hypertension in high-, middle- and low-income countries. Int J Equity Health. 2016;15(1):199. doi:10.1186/s12939-016-0478-6
16. United Nations. Transforming Our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. 2015. Available from: www.refworld.org/docid/ 57b6e3e44.html. Accessed November 12, 2021.
17. Lascaux-Lefebvre V, Ruidavets J, Arveiler D, et al. Influence of parental history of hypertension on blood pressure. J Hum Hypertens. 1999; 13 (9):631-636. doi:10.1038/sj.jhh. 1000884
18. Wang NY, Young JH, Meoni LA, Ford DE, Erlinger TP, Klag MJ. Blood Pressure Change and Risk of Hypertension Associated With Parental Hypertension: the Johns Hopkins Precursors Study. Arch Intern Med. 2008;168(6):643-648. doi:10.1001/archinte.168.6.643
19. Shah SM, Al Dhaheri F, Albanna A, et al. Self-esteem and other risk factors for depressive symptoms among adolescents in United Arab Emirates. PLoS One. 2020;15(1):e0227483-e0227483. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0227483
20. Riley L, Guthold R, Cowan M, et al. The World Health Organization STEPwise Approach to Noncommunicable Disease Risk-Factor Surveillance: methods, Challenges, and Opportunities. Am J Public Health. 2016;106(1):74-78. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2015.302962
21. Ainsworth B, Bauman A. Guidelines for Data Processing and Analysis of the International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ)-Short and Long Forms; 2005. Available from: http://www.ipaq.ki.se/scoring.pdf. Accessed October 6, 2021.
22. Alomari MA, Keewan EF, Qhatan R, et al. Blood Pressure and Circulatory Relationships with Physical Activity Level in Young Normotensive Individuals: IPAQ Validity and Reliability Considerations. null. 2011;33(5):345-353. doi:10.3109/10641963.2010.531848
23. Helou K, El Helou N, Mahfouz M, Mahfouz Y, Salameh P, Harmouche-Karaki M. Validity and reliability of an adapted Arabic version of the long international physical activity questionnaire. BMC Public Health. 2017;18(1):49. doi:10.1186/s12889-017-4599-7
24. Haskell WL, Lee IM, Pate RR, et al. Physical activity and public health: updated recommendation for adults from the American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart Association. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2007;39(8):1423-1434. doi:10.1249/mss.0b013e3180616b27
25. Martínez-Rueda AJ, Olivas-Martínez A, Vega-Vega O, Fonseca-Correa JI, Correa-Rotter R. New 2017 American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association High Blood Pressure Guideline. Hypertension. 2019;73(1):142-147. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.118.11827
26. Chalmers J. 1999 World Health Organization-International Society of Hypertension Guidelines for the Management of Hypertension. null. 1999;21 (5-6):1009-1060. doi:10.3109/10641969909061028
27. World Health Organization. Obesity: preventing and Managing the Global Epidemic. Report of a WHO Consultation; 2000. Available from: https:// apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/42330. Accessed October 12, 2021.
28. World Health Organization. Waist circumference and waist-Hip ratio: report of a WHO expert consultation, Geneva, 8-11 December 2008. Available from: https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/44583. Accessed December 15, 2021.
29. American Diabetes Association. 2. Classification and Diagnosis of Diabetes: standards of Medical Care in Diabetes-2020. Diabetes Care. 2019;43 (Supplement_1):S14-S31. doi:10.2337/dc20-S002
30. Shah SM, Loney T, Sheek-Hussein M, et al. Hypertension prevalence, awareness, treatment, and control, in male South Asian immigrants in the United Arab Emirates: a cross-sectional study. BMC Cardiovasc Disord. 2015;15(1):30. doi:10.1186/s12872-015-0024-2
31. Mamdouh H, Alnakhi WK, Hussain HY, et al. Prevalence and associated risk factors of hypertension and pre-hypertension among the adult population: findings from the Dubai Household Survey, 2019. BMC Cardiovasc Disord. 2022;22(1):18. doi:10.1186/s12872-022-02457-4
32. Yusufali AM, Khatib R, Islam S, et al. Prevalence, awareness, treatment and control of hypertension in four Middle East countries. J Hypertens. 2017;35(7):1457-1464. doi:10.1097/HJH.0000000000001326
33. Paul M, Carey Robert M, Samuel G, et al. Potential U.S. Population Impact of the 2017 ACC/AHA High Blood Pressure Guideline. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2018;71(2):109-118. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2017.10.073
34. Williams B, Mancia G, Spiering W, et al. 2018 ESC/ESH Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension: the Task Force for the management of arterial hypertension of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC) and the European Society of Hypertension (ESH). Eur Heart J. 2018;39(33):3021-3104. doi:10.1714/3026.30245
35. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Hypertension in Adults: diagnosis and Management NG136. 2019. Royal College of Physicians London, UK; 2019. Available from: https://www.niceorg.uk/guidance/ng136. Accessed November 6, 2021.
36. Quinn AE, Ronksley PE, Bresee L, et al. Antihypertensive Prescribing for Uncomplicated, Incident Hypertension: opportunities for Cost Savings. CJC Open. 2021;3(6):703-713. doi:10.1016/j.cjco.2020.12.026
37. Al Duraihim H, Alghamdi G, AlNemer M, Abdulaal AE, Al Sayyari A. Blood pressure control, lifestyle and disease awareness of Saudi hypertensive patients. Saudi J Kidney Dis Transplantation. 2019;30(1):33-38.
38. Sarki AM, Nduka CU, Stranges S, Kandala NB, Uthman OA. Prevalence of Hypertension in Low- and Middle-Income Countries: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Medicine. 2015;94(50):e1959. doi:10.1097/MD.0000000000001959
39. McAlister FA, Wilkins K, Joffres M, et al. Changes in the rates of awareness, treatment and control of hypertension in Canada over the past two decades. Cmaj. 2011;183(9):1007-1013. doi:10.1503/cmaj. 101767
40. Afsargharehbagh R, Rezaie-Keikhaie K, Rafiemanesh H, Balouchi A, Bouya S, Dehghan B. Hypertension and pre-hypertension among Iranian adults population: a meta-analysis of prevalence, awareness, treatment, and control. Curr Hypertens Rep. 2019;21(4):27. doi:10.1007/s11906-019-0933-z
41. Lamelas P, Diaz R, Orlandini A, et al. Prevalence, awareness, treatment and control of hypertension in rural and urban communities in Latin American countries. J Hypertens. 2019;37(9):1813-1821. doi:10.1097/HJH.0000000000002108
42. Park JE, Park JH, Chang SJ, Lee JH, Kim SY. The determinants of and barriers to awareness and treatment of hypertension in the Korean population. Asia Pacific J Public Health. 2019;31(2):121-135.
43. Pengpid S, Vonglokham M, Kounnavong S, Sychareun V, Peltzer K. The prevalence, awareness, treatment, and control of hypertension among adults: the first cross-sectional national population-based survey in Laos. Vasc Health Risk Manag. 2019;15:27-33. doi:10.2147/VHRM.S199178
44. Burt VL, Cutler JA, Higgins M, et al. Trends in the Prevalence, Awareness, Treatment, and Control of Hypertension in the Adult US Population. Hypertension. 1995;26(1):60-69. doi:10.1161/01.HYP.26.1.60
45. Kishore J, Gupta N, Kohli C, Kumar N. Prevalence of Hypertension and Determination of Its Risk Factors in Rural Delhi. Int J Hypertens. 2016;2016:7962595. doi:10.1155/2016/7962595
46. Vasan RS, Beiser A, Seshadri S, et al. Residual Lifetime Risk for Developing Hypertension in Middle-aged Women and MenThe Framingham Heart Study. JAMA. 2002;287(8):1003-1010. doi:10.1001/jama.287.8.1003
47. Wang Y, Chen J, Wang K, Edwards CL. Education as an important risk factor for the prevalence of hypertension and elevated blood pressure in Chinese men and women. J Hum Hypertens. 2006;20(11):898-900. doi:10.1038/sj.jhh. 1002086
48. Brown CD, Higgins M, Donato KA, et al. Body Mass Index and the Prevalence of Hypertension and Dyslipidemia. Obes Res. 2000;8(9):605-619. doi:10.1038/oby. 2000.79
49. Gillum RF, Taylor HL, Brozek J, Polansky P, Blackburn H. Indices of obesity and blood pressure in young men followed 32 years. J Chronic Dis. 1982;35(3):211-219. doi:10.1016/0021-9681(82)90142-4
50. Must A, Spadano J, Coakley EH, Field AE, Colditz G, Dietz WH. The Disease Burden Associated With Overweight and Obesity. JAMA. 1999;282 (16):1523-1529. doi:10.1001/jama.282.16.1523
51. Lv Y, Yao Y, Ye J, et al. Association of Blood Pressure with Fasting Blood Glucose Levels in Northeast China: a Cross-Sectional Study. Sci Rep. 2018;8(1):7917. doi:10.1038/s41598-018-26323-6
52. Henry P, Thomas F, Benetos A, Guize L. Impaired fasting glucose, blood pressure and cardiovascular disease mortality. Hypertension. 2002;40(4):458-463.
53. Lee WY, Kwon CH, Rhee EJ, et al. The effect of body mass index and fasting glucose on the relationship between blood pressure and incident diabetes mellitus: a 5-year follow-up study. Hypertension Res. 2011;34(10):1093-1097. doi:10.1038/hr.2011.89
54. You Y, Teng W, Wang J, et al. Hypertension and physical activity in middle-aged and older adults in China. Sci Rep. 2018;8(1):16098. doi:10.1038/ s41598-018-34617-y
55. Piercy KL, Troiano RP, Ballard RM, et al. The Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans. JAMA. 2018;320(19):2020-2028. doi:10.1001/ jama.2018.14854
56. Huai P, Xun H, Reilly KH, Wang Y, Ma W, Physical Activity XB. Risk of Hypertension. Hypertension. 2013;62(6):1021-1026. doi:10.1161/ HYPERTENSIONAHA.113.01965
57. Diaz KM, Shimbo D. Physical activity and the prevention of hypertension. Curr Hypertens Rep. 2013;15(6):659-668.
58. Liu X, Zhang D, Liu Y, et al. Dose-Response Association Between Physical Activity and Incident Hypertension. Hypertension. 2017;69 (5):813-820. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.116.08994
59. Drotar D. Impact of Parental Health Problems on Children: concepts, Methods, and Unanswered Questions1. J Pediatr Psychol. 1994;19 (5):525-536. doi:10.1093/jpepsy/19.5.525
60. Morrison AK, Glick A, Yin HS. Health Literacy: implications for Child Health. Pediatrics Rev. 2019;40(6):263-277. doi:10.1542/pir.2018-0027
61. Bairapareddy KC, Kamcheh MM, Itani RJ, et al. Low Physical Activity Levels Are Linked to Early Hypertension Risk in College-Going Young Adults. Healthcare. 2021;9:10. doi:10.3390/healthcare9101258
62. Baynouna LM, Neglekerke NJD, Ali HE, ZeinAlDeen SM, Al Ameri TA. Audit of healthy lifestyle behaviors among patients with diabetes and hypertension attending ambulatory health care services in the United Arab Emirates. Glob Health Promot. 2014;21(4):44-51. doi:10.1177/1757975914528248
63. Musaiger AO, Al-Hazzaa HM. Prevalence and risk factors associated with nutrition-related noncommunicable diseases in the Eastern Mediterranean region. Int J Gen Med. 2012;5:199-217. doi:10.2147/IJGM.S29663
64. Gakidou E, Afshin A, Abajobir AA, et al. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 84 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks, 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. Lancet. 2017;390(10100):1345-1422.
65. GBD 2016 Risk Factors Collaborators. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 84 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks, 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. Lancet. 2017;390(10100):1345-1422. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(17)32366-8
66. Mills KT, Obst KM, Shen W, et al. Comparative effectiveness of implementation strategies for blood pressure control in hypertensive patients: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Ann Intern Med. 2018;168(2):110-120. doi:10.7326/M17-1805
67. Nauman J, Soteriades ES, Hashim MJ, et al. Global Incidence and Mortality Trends due to Adverse Effects of Medical Treatment, 1990-2017: a Systematic Analysis from the Global Burden of Diseases, Injuries and Risk Factors Study. Cureus. 2020;12(3):e7265. doi:10.7759/cureus.7265
68. Ampofo AG, Khan E, Ibitoye MB. Understanding the role of educational interventions on medication adherence in hypertension: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Heart Lung. 2020;49(5):537-547. doi:10.1016/j.hrtlng.2020.02.039
69. Abboud M, Karam S. Hypertension in the Middle East: current state, human factors, and barriers to control. J Hum Hypertens. $2021 ; 1: 587$. doi:10.1038/s41371-021-00554-z
70. Ismail L, Materwala H, Znati T, Turaev S, Khan MAB. Tailoring time series models for forecasting coronavirus spread: case studies of 187 countries. Comput Struct Biotechnol J. 2020;18:2972-3206. doi:10.1016/j.csbj.2020.09.015
71. Al Falasi RJ, Khan M. The impact of COVID-19 on Abu Dhabi and its primary care response. Australian $j$ General Practice. $2020 ; 1: 49$. doi:10.31128/AJGP-COVID-35
72. Khan MA, Menon P, Govender R, et al. Systematic review of the effects of pandemic confinements on body weight and their determinants. Br J Nutrition. 2022;127(2):298-317. doi:10.1017/S0007114521000921
73. Gorina M, Limonero JT, Álvarez M. Effectiveness of primary healthcare educational interventions undertaken by nurses to improve chronic disease management in patients with diabetes mellitus, hypertension and hypercholesterolemia: a systematic review. Int J Nurs Stud. 2018;86:139-150. doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2018.06.016
74. Garner SL, George CE, Young P, et al. Effectiveness of an mHealth application to improve hypertension health literacy in India. Int Nurs Rev. 2020;67(4):476-483. doi:10.1111/inr. 12616
75. Monahan M, Jowett S, Nickless A, et al. Cost-Effectiveness of Telemonitoring and Self-Monitoring of Blood Pressure for Antihypertensive Titration in Primary Care (TASMINH4). Hypertension. 2019;73(6):1231-1239. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.118.12415
76. Padmanabhan S, Tran TQB, Dominiczak AF. Artificial Intelligence in Hypertension. Circ Res. 2021;128(7):1100-1118. doi:10.1161/ CIRCRESAHA.121.318106
77. Tobe SW, Touyz RM, Campbell NRC. The Canadian Hypertension Education Program - a unique Canadian knowledge translation program. Canadian J Cardiol. 2007;23(7):551-555. doi:10.1016/S0828-282X(07

Patient Preference and Adherence

## Dovepress

## Publish your work in this journal

Patient Preference and Adherence is an international, peer-reviewed, open access journal that focusing on the growing importance of patient preference and adherence throughout the therapeutic continuum. Patient satisfaction, acceptability, quality of life, compliance, persistence and their role in developing new therapeutic modalities and compounds to optimize clinical outcomes for existing disease states are major areas of interest for the journal. This journal has been accepted for indexing on PubMed Central. The manuscript management system is completely online and includes a very quick and fair peer-review system, which is all easy to use. Visit http://www.dovepress.com/testimonials.php to read real quotes from published authors.

Submit your manuscript here: https://www.dovepress.com/patient-preference-and-adherence-journal

