The Predictors of Hypertension in Children: Palestinian Perspective

Ahmad Batran, PharmD1, Nawras Fashafsheh, MSN2, Ahmad Ayed, PharmD1, and Basma Salameh, PharmD1

Abstract
Children with high blood pressure are much more likely than children with lower blood pressure to experience hypertension in adulthood. The purpose of this study was to determine the prevalence of hypertension and predictors of hypertension in Palestinian children.

Method: Cross-sectional study was performed on five hundred and nine (10–13) year old students from governmental schools in Jenin and Tubas. Anthropometric measures consist of body mass index, hip circumference (HC), waist circumference (WC), the ratio of waist to hip (WHR), and the ratio of waist to height (WHtR) were measured. Blood pressure was assessed including systolic (SBP) and diastolic (DBP) utilizing a (Dynamap) vital signs monitor.

Results: Approximately 38.7% of participants (38.8% females and 38.63% males) were considered pre-hypertensive and 7.3% of the participants (7.4% females and 7.1% males) were hypertensive. Additionally, there was a weak to moderate relationship between mean blood pressure (systolic and diastolic) and the anthropometric measurements. Most predictors with significant effects on early childhood hypertension were body mass index (OR 1.16, 95% CI 1.09–1.23).

Conclusions: Hypertension and prehypertension are present in Palestinian children. Waist hip ratio is the greatest predictor of BP, followed by body mass index. Hence, weight-reduction strategies to at-risk children are crucial to minimizing the prevalence of Palestinian childhood hypertension.

Keywords
hypertension, child, Palestine, obesity, body mass index

Received 13 October 2020; Revised 15 November 2020; accepted 19 December 2020

Introduction
Hypertension during childhood and adolescence is often more frequent than commonly thought. In fact, blood pressure (BP) in childhood is linked with BP in adulthood (Chen & Wang, 2008); thus, children with increased BP are more prone to experience adult hypertension than children with normal or lower BP. Nevertheless, the utility of routine child BP screening continues argued based on only screening of the moderate BP relationship between childhood and adulthood (Chen & Wang, 2008; Kelly et al., 2015; Toschke et al., 2010; Lurbe et al., 2016).

Increased childhood hypertension prevalence is joined with higher cardiovascular risk causes in adolescents and adults. (Lurbe et al., 2016) Childhood hypertension can result in increasing tissue damage like heart failure, stroke, pulmonary edema, eye damage, and kidney failure (Alkahtani, 2015; Kim et al., 2013). Hypertension has also been related to adolescent obesity (Sun et al., 2007). Hypertension risk assessment is important for the implementation of effective prevention and control measures. To address the adulthood hypertension, it may be determined using some predictors in various age groups (Berenson et al., 1998). As the predicting influences of hypertension of adult across adolescent ages are uncertain and have not been evidently identified, therefore, the purpose of the study was to determine the prevalence of hypertension and predictors of blood pressure (BP) in Palestinian children.

1Faculty of Nursing, Arab American University, Jenin, Palestine
2Department of Nursing, Al-Quds University, Jerusalem, Palestine

Corresponding Author:
Ahmad Ayed, Arab American University, Jenin, Palestine.
Email: ahmad.juma@aaup.edu
Methods

Study Design and Participants

A cross-sectional study was undertaken in the period from 10 March to 10 May 2019 among children between the ages of 10 and 13 years old recruited from Jenin and Tubas Governmental schools for both males and females. Convenience sample consisted of five hundred nine (10-13) year old students. Students who have taken insulin, glucocorticoids, anticonvulsants, or have previous experience of medical or surgical heart problems were excluded. Approval was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee of the Arab American University (Opinion 097/2019). In addition, the permission was given from the Ministry of Education.

Parents of participants completed informed consent to join in the study. A second meeting was arranged after the initial meeting to gather data. Measurements were performed in the morning after 8 hours of fasting with no intake of beverages or food, as well as 24 hours with no participation in exercise, restricted to conditions of rest. Parents and their children were given instructions the day before the measurements were obtained.

Measurements

Included were the anthropometric variables like height, HC, WC, WHR, and WHtR. For measuring height a Harpenden stadio-meter (Harpenden 602 VR, Holtain, Wales, UK®) was utilized. Each student was notified to stay in an erect position with his/her back, knees, and heels in constantly touching the vertical height rod of the stadio meter’s and head oriented in the Frankfurt plane. To determine his/her height, the horizontal head piece was then put over the head of the participant. Height was checked twice to the nearest 0.5 cm, without shoes. The waist circumference was assessed two times with an automatic Seca roll-up metal tape (1 mm precision) using the horizontal plane halfway between the upper border of the iliac crest and the lowest rib at the end of expiration. The hip circumference as seen from the right side was measured two times at the maximum extension of the buttocks; and averages of the two measurements obtained. The BMI was calculated as body weight in kilograms divided by square height in meters, and the international standards specified overweight and obesity, corresponding to values higher than the 85th and 95th percentiles, respectively, for BMI and for age and sex (Cole et al., 2000). According to the International Society for the Advancement of Kinanthropometry, the anthropometric measurements reported by a protocol guideline maintaining interobserver reliability and were assessed by the same anthropometrist (Marfell-Jones et al., 2012).

Blood Pressure

Dynamap Vital Signs Monitor (Model BP 8800, Critikon, Inc., Tampa, FL.) was applied to measure systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) by adopting instructions from the European Heart Society (after 10 min of rest, student in supine position, on the right arm at the level of the heart, in a semi-flexed posture).

Childhood hypertension was specified as ≥95th percentile value of SBP or DBP. In childhood, blood pressure ≥90th percentile but <95th percentile is referred to as prehypertension (Flynn et al., 2017).

Statistical Analysis

All the data were analyzed using version 23 of SPSS. The study participants’ baseline characteristics were described using mean, standard deviation, and percentage. Inferential statistical analysis (An independent t-test, and Pearson r) and logistic regression were also used.

Results

A total of 509 children aged 10 and 13 years studying in Grade 5, 6, 7, and 8 consented to the study. Approximately 52.5% were males and 47.5% were females with 1:1.105 female and male sex ratio.

The average age of participants was 11.5 ± 1.1 years. There were no differences between males and females regarding weight, height, and body mass index. However, Females had significantly had less waist circumference and more hip circumference than the males (Table 1).

Using Pearson’s correlation coefficients the relationship between SBP/DBP and various anthropometric measurements were established. In females the relationship between mean SBP and BMI (r = 0.316), WC

Table 1. Children’s Demographic Information and the Anthropometric Measurements (n=509).

| Variable       | Males M(SD) | Females M(SD) | Total M(SD) |
|----------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| Age            | 11.4 ± 1.1  | 11.5 ± 1.1    | 11.5 ± 1.1  |
| Height         | 151.7 ± 11.4| 152.7 ± 9.5   | 152.2 ± 10.5|
| Weight         | 43.1 ± 13.4 | 43.7 ± 12.3   | 43.4 ± 12.9 |
| Waist circumference | 73.5 ± 11.4 | 70.7 ± 8.9   | 72.2 ± 10.3 |
| Hip circumference | 77.50 ± 14.3 | 83.83 ± 10.0 | 80.5 ± 12.8 |
| BMI            | 18.5 ± 4.0  | 18.5 ± 3.84   | 18.5 ± 3.9  |
| WHR            | 1.0 ± 0.2   | 0.9 ± 0.1     | 0.91 ± 0.2* |
| WHtR           | 0.5 ± 0.1   | 0.5 ± 0.1     | 0.5 ± 0.1*  |

Note. BMI = body mass index; WC = waist circumference; HC = height; WHR = hip circumference; WHtR = waist-to-hip ratio; WHtR = waist-to-height ratio. *p < 0.05.
(r = 0.259), and HC (r = 0.251) were moderate and statistically significant. However, there was weak and statistically significant relationship between mean SBP and WHtR (r = 0.172). Mean DBP also correlated significantly but weak with BMI (r = 0.239), WC (r = 0.129) and HC (r = 0.225). In males the relationship between mean SBP and BMI (r = 0.252), WC (r = 0.205), HC (r = 0.124), and WHtR (r = 0.180) was weak yet statistically significant. Mean DBP was also significant but with a weak relationship to BMI (r = 0.144), WC (r = 0.168), WHR (r = 0.155), and WHtR (r = 0.155), as shown in (Table 2).

More than half of the sample (54.0%) are listed as normotensive. Table 3 indicates that 54.3% of the children were males and 53.7% were females with normal pressure while 38.6% males and 38.8% females of children were pre-HTN participants. Unfortunately, 7.3% of the participants (7.1% males and 7.4% females) were hypertensive.

In Table 4 appears the differences in anthropometric measurements between normotensive and pre-hypertensive participants. Hypertensive and pre-hypertensive participants were somewhat older than normotensive participants. There was no a significant difference in WHR (P = 0.267) between hypertensive/pre-hypertensive and normative participants. Significantly higher were hypertensive and prehypertensive participants. There was no a significant difference in WHR (P = 0.267) between hypertensive/pre-hypertensive and normative participants. Significantly higher were hypertensive and pre-hypertensive participants. However, there was weak and statistically significant relationship between obesity and SBP markers in the range of 0.124 to 0.316 and for DBP in the range of 0.129 to 0.239 for both genders, which was in agreement with previous findings that higher for SBP than for DBP (Chen & Wang, 2008; Kelly et al., 2015; Toschke et al., 2010). It was, however, lower when compared to the (Chen & Wang, 2008) meta-analysis which found correlation of 0.38 for SBP and 0.28 for DBP.

Overall, approximately 7.3% of children (10–13 years) suffered from hypertension in the study population. A study in Saudi Arabia showed that fewer than 10% of participants, consistent with the current study, among independent variables, body mass index (OR 1.16, 95% CI 1.09-1.23) was the most relevant with major effects on early childhood hypertension. Among anthropometric measurements, the increase of BMI by 1 unit raises the risk of hypertension by 16% in the model (Table 5).

### Table 2. Partial Correlation Coefficients Between Anthropometric Indicators and Blood Pressure (n=509).

|          | SBP Males | SBP Females | DBP Males | DBP Females |
|----------|-----------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
| Variable | r         | r           | r         | r           |
| BMI      | 0.252**   | 0.316**     | 0.144*    | 0.239**     |
| WC       | 0.205**   | 0.259**     | 0.144*    | 0.129*      |
| HC       | 0.124*    | 0.251**     | 0.009     | 0.225**     |
| WHR      | 0.044     | 0.051       | 0.155*    | 0.114       |
| WHtR     | 0.180**   | 0.172***    | 0.155*    | 0.506       |

Note. HC = hip circumference; WC = waist circumference; BMI = body mass index; SBP = systolic blood pressure; DBP = diastolic blood pressure; WHR = Waist Hip Ratio; WHtR = Waist Height Ratio. *p < 0.05. **p < 0.01.

### Table 3. Prevalence of HT and pre-HT (n=509).

|         | Males | Females | Total |
|---------|-------|---------|-------|
| Normotensive | 145 (54.3%) | 130 (53.7%) | 275 (54.0%) |
| Prehypertension | 103 (38.6%) | 94 (38.8%) | 197 (38.7%) |
| Hypertension  | 19 (7.1%) | 18 (7.4%)  | 37 (7.3%) |

Logistic regression with enter step showed that among independent variables, body mass index (OR 1.16, 95% CI 1.09-1.23) was the most relevant with major effects on early childhood hypertension. Among anthropometric measurements, the increase of BMI by 1 unit raises the risk of hypertension by 16% in the model (Table 5).

### Table 4. Comparison of Anthropometric Data Between Normotensive and HT Subjects (n=509).

|          | Normotensive | Prehypertension/ hypertension | p-value |
|----------|--------------|------------------------------|---------|
| Age (yrs) | 11.4 ± 1.1   | 11.5 ± 1.1                   | 0.273   |
| BMI (kg/m²) | 17.5 ± 3.1  | 19.7 ± 4.4                   | <0.01   |
| WC (cm)   | 69.8 ± 9.7   | 75.0 ± 10.3                  | <0.01   |
| HC (cm)   | 78.4 ± 11.6  | 83.0 ± 13.8                  | <0.01   |
| WHR       | 0.9 ± 0.2    | 0.9 ± 0.7                    | 0.267   |
| WHtR      | 0.5 ± 0.06   | 0.5 ± 0.07                   | <0.01   |

Note. HC = hip circumference; WC = waist circumference; BMI = body mass index; WHR = Waist Hip Ratio; WHtR = Waist Height Ratio.

### Table 5. Predictors for Hypertension (n=509).

| Independent variable | OR [95% CI] | p-value |
|----------------------|-------------|---------|
| Age                  | 0.978 [0.82, 1.164] | 0.805 |
| BMI                  | 1.160 [1.09, 1.23] | 0.001 |
| Gender               | 0.941 [0.63, 1.40] | 0.941 |
| WHR                  | 0.992 [0.61, 1.62] | 0.973 |
| WHtR                 | 0.732 [0.43, 1.24] | 0.246 |

Note. BMI = body mass index; WHR = Waist Hip Ratio; WHtR = Waist Height Ratio.
were adolescents with SBP and DBP at the ≥95th percentile (Mahfouz et al., 2012).

On the other hand, the prevalence of hypertension was reported in Australian children at 12.6% and the BMI was the most significant predictor of BP (Larkins et al., 2018).

In the current study, females had a slightly greater percentage of high BP than males. These results were unsupported by other studies that indicates that being male is an important risk factor for high BP development (Mahfouz et al., 2012).

Our findings reinforce earlier reports that adult risk factors for hypertensive BP may be recognized in children and adolescent (Huang et al., 2015; Kelly et al., 2015). The relationships were nevertheless small to moderate.

The current study revealed that BMI and WHR were predictors of hypertension among children. These results were supported a study in Saudi Arabia which indicated an increase in hypertension among children. Additionally, the study revealed that several factors increase hypertension such as physical inactivity (Koura et al., 2012) and obesity (Al-Hariri et al., 2014).

Children aged 10 to 13 years with hypertension were more likely to have hypertension later on than children of the same age range with normal BP (OR 1.16, 95% CI 1.09-1.23) after controlling different risk factors of hypertension involving overweight/obesity. Various studies (Din-Dzietham et al., 2007; Falkner et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2015) reported the correlation between overweight/obesity and hypertension in children. Our study found that increased BMI among children 10-13 years of age are more likely to have a hypertensive BP that shows a probable answer for adult hypertension prevention. In this context, various studies have found that children with higher BMI have transformed the standard BP deviation scores from initial standard to high BP values at follow-up (Miersch et al., 2013). Furthermore, changes in BMI during periods of growth have been found to predict BP levels during adolescence (Kollias et al., 2012); for example, Kelly et al. (2015) revealed that the resolution of increased BP during the transition from childhood to adulthood may be partly clarified by increases in related variables such as decreasing the BMI z-score between childhood and adulthood. Contrary to the literature (Neuhauser et al., 2015; Sarganas & Neuhauser, 2016; Wolf-Maier et al., 2003) the current study results did not indicated probability regarding gender for having hypertension as reported an OR = 0.941 (95% CI 0.63–1.40) for 10- to 13-year-old.

Acknowledgements
The authors would like to express their thanks to the children who participated in the study

Declaration of Conflicting Interests
The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

Funding
The author(s) received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

ORCID iDs
Ahmad Ayed https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2164-8183
Basma Salameh https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1372-7199

References
Al-Hariri, M. T., Alkahtani, S. A., & Abdelgayed, A. M. (2014). Impact of life behavior on students physical fitness at university of Dammam in Saudi Arabia. Academic Research International, 5(3), 87.
Alkahtani, S. A. (2015). Pediatric hypertension in the eastern province of Saudi Arabia. Saudi Medical Journal, 36(6), 713.
Berenson, G. S., Srinivasan, S. R., Bao, W., Newman, W. P., Tracy, R. E., & Wattigney, W. A. (1998). Association between multiple cardiovascular risk factors and atherosclerosis in children and young adults. New England Journal of Medicine, 338(23), 1650–1656.
Chen, X., & Wang, Y. (2008). Tracking of blood pressure from childhood to adulthood: A systematic review and meta-regression analysis. Circulation, 117(25), 3171.
Cole, T. J., Bellizzi, M. C., Flegal, K. M., & Dietz, W. H. (2000). Establishing a standard definition for child overweight and obesity worldwide: International survey. British Medical Journal, 320(7244), 1240.
Din-Dzietham, R., Liu, Y., Bielo, M. V., & Shamsa, F. (2007). High blood pressure trends in children and adolescents in national surveys, 1963 to 2002. Circulation, 116(13), 1488–1496.
Falkner, B., Gidding, S. S., Ramirez-Garnica, G., Wiltz, S. A., West, D., & Rappaport, E. B. (2006). The relationship of body mass index and blood pressure in primary care pediatric patients. The Journal of Pediatrics, 148(2), 195–200.
Flynn, J. T., Kaelber, D. C., Baker-Smith, C. M., Blowey, D., Carroll, A. E., Daniels, S. R., de Ferranti, S. D., Dionne, J. M., Falkner, B., Flinn, S. K., Gidding, S. S., Goodwin, C., Leu, M. G., Powers, M. E., Rea, C., Samuels, J., Simek, M., Thaker, V. V., & Urbina, E. M. (2017). Clinical practice guideline for screening and management of high blood pressure in children and adolescents. Pediatrics, 140(3), 1–74.
Huang, R. C., Burrows, S., Mori, T. A., Oddy, W. H., & Beilin, L. J. (2015). Lifecourse adiposity and blood pressure between birth and 17 years old. American Journal of Hypertension, 28(8), 1056–1063.
Kelly, R. K., Thomson, R., Smith, K. J., Dwyer, T., Venn, A., & Magnussen, C. G. (2015). Factors affecting tracking of blood pressure from childhood to adulthood: The childhood determinants of adult health study. The Journal of Pediatrics, 167(6), 1422–1428.
Kim, N. Y., Hong, Y. M., Jung, J. W., Kim, N. S., Noh, C. I., & Song, Y. H. (2013). The relationships of body mass index, waist-to-height ratio, and body fat percentage with blood pressure and its hemodynamic determinants in Korean adolescents: A school-based study. *Korean Journal of Pediatrics, 56*(12), 526.

Kolliai, A., Pantziotou, K., Karpettas, N., Roussias, L., & Stergiou, G. S. (2012). Tracking of blood pressure from childhood to adolescence in a Greek cohort. *The European Journal of Public Health, 22*(3), 389–393.

Koura, M. R., Al Dabal, B. K., Rasheed, P. A. R. V. E. N., Al Sowielem, L. S., & Makki, S. M. (2012). Prehypertension among young adult females in Dammam, Saudi Arabia. *EMHJ-Eastern Mediterranean Health Journal, 18*(7), 728–734.

Larkins, N. G., Teixeira-Pinto, A., & Craig, J. C. (2018). The prevalence and predictors of hypertension in a National Survey of Australian children. *Blood Pressure, 27*(1), 41–47.

Lurbe, E., Agabiti-Rosei, E., Cruickshank, J. K., Dominiczak, A., Erdine, S., Hirth, A., ... Rascher, W. (2016). 2016 European Society of Hypertension guidelines for the management of high blood pressure in children and adolescents. *Journal of Hypertension, 34*(10), 1887–1920.

Mahfouz, A. A., Shatoor, A. S., Hassanein, M. A., Mohamed, A., & Farheen, A. (2012). Gender differences in cardiovascular risk factors among adolescents in Aseer Region, southwestern Saudi Arabia. *Journal of the Saudi Heart Association, 24*(2), 61–67.

Marfell-Jones, M. J., Stewart, A. D., & De Ridder, J. H. (2012). International standards for anthropometric assessment. Wellington, New Zealand: International Society for the Advancement of Kinathropometry.

Miersch, A., Vogel, M., Gausche, R., Siekmeyer, W., Pfaffle, R., Dittrich, K., & Kiess, W. (2013). Blood pressure tracking in children and adolescents. *Pediatric Nephrology, 28*(12), 2351–2359.

Neuhausser, H. K., Adler, C., Rosario, A. S., Diederichs, C., & Ellert, U. (2015). Hypertension prevalence, awareness, treatment and control in Germany 1998 and 2008–11. *Journal of Human Hypertension, 29*(4), 247–253.

Sarganas, G., & Neuhäuser, H. K. (2016). The persisting gender gap in hypertension management and control in Germany: 1998 and 2008–2011. *Hypertension Research, 39*(6), 457–466.

Sun, S. S., Grave, G. D., Siervogel, R. M., Pickoff, A. A., Arslanian, S. S., & Daniels, S. R. (2007). Systolic blood pressure in childhood predicts hypertension and metabolic syndrome later in life. *Pediatrics, 119*(2), 237–246.

Toschke, A. M., Kohl, L., Mansmann, U., & Von Kries, R. (2010). Meta-analysis of blood pressure tracking from childhood to adulthood and implications for the design of intervention trials. *Acta Paediatrica, 99*(1), 24–29.

Wolf-Maier, K., Cooper, R. S., Banegas, J. R., Giampaoli, S., Hense, H. W., Joffres, M., ... Stegmayr, B. (2003). Hypertension prevalence and blood pressure levels in 6 European countries, Canada, and the United States. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 289*(18), 2363–2369.