

British Journal of Medicine & Medical Research 4(28): 4742-4750, 2014



SCIENCEDOMAIN international www.sciencedomain.org

Dyslipidaemia in Hypertensives in South-South Nigeria

J. O. Idemudia^{1*}

¹Department of Chemical Pathology, College of Medicine, University of Benin, Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria.

Author's contribution

This whole work was carried out by author JOI.

Original Research Article

Received 3rd April 2014 Accepted 18th May 2014 Published 24th June 2014

ABSTRACT

Background: There is a strong relationship between hypertension and dyslipidaemia, and both can increase the risk of developing coronary heart disease.

Methods: A total of One hundred and eighty (180) participants were recruited for this study; out of which, there was one hundred and fifty (150) hypertensive patients and thirty (30) control subjects that were age- and socio-economically matched with the hypertensive patients. Lipid profile test was carried out for them using standard laboratory techniques.

Results: Fifty-four percent (n=69) of the hypertensive patients were females; majority of the female hypertensive patients were within the age bracket of 50-59years (45.7%) while majority of the male hypertensive patients were within the age bracket of 40-49 years (53.6%). With the exception of HDL-cholesterol values which were comparable with the Normotensive controls, the hypertensive patients had significantly higher lipid profiles (triglyceride, total cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol). There was positive correlation between total cholesterol (r=0.866, p<0.05) among the hypertensive patients, also, HDL-cholesterol positively correlated with LDL-cholesterol (r=0.218, p<0.05) but in the normotensive patients, LDL-cholesterol negatively correlated with triglyceride (r=-0.409, p<0.05) and positively correlated with total cholesterol (r=0.876, p<0.05).

Conclusion: Hypertensive Nigerians have significantly higher lipid profile except the HDL-cholesterol which is comparable in both hypertensive and Normotensive Nigerians.

^{*}Corresponding author: Email: osagiep2001@yahoo.com;

This shows that the dyslipidaemia in hypertensive Nigerians majorly involve plasma total cholesterol, triglyceride and LDL-cholesterol.

Keywords: Dyslipidaemia; hypertension; normotensives; coronary heart disease; Nigerians.

1. INTRODUCTION

Dyslipidaemia is a common disorder but most patients are not diagnosed and therefore not treated [1]. The burden of the condition is very high in terms of morbidity, mortality, and medical costs. Dyslipidaemia is the second most prevalent cardiovascular risk factor [2]. Hypertriglyceridaemia when associated with high LDL cholesterol significantly increases the risk of coronary heart disease (CHD) [3]. Hypertension has for long been recognized globally as the most common cardiovascular disease and is an acknowledged potent risk factor in the development of coronary heart disease, stroke, congestive heart failure and renal insufficiency [4].

Hypertension is defined as blood pressure of equal to or greater than 140/90mmHg [5,6] from previous surveys therefore, the prevalence of hypertension in Nigeria was found to be 17-20percent [7,8] or more [9]. The prevalence of hypertension in Nigeria is said to be low compared to that of United States of America but the mortality associated with it in Nigeria remains high [10]. Some of the reasons advanced for this include high cost of newer antihypertensive drugs and even attitude of key players such as drug prescription pattern [11,12] in the management of hypertension. Hypertension is a powerful risk factor for cardiovascular disease and it remains one of the biggest health and economic issues facing the world [13,14]. The mortality associated with hypertension is higher in blacks, especially among Nigerians [7,8] than Caucasians despite the fact that the prevalence of hypertension is higher in the whites than the black populations [5] and increases with age in both races [8]. It has been found that men have a higher prevalence of hypertension than women although this changes later in life with substantial increase in the number of females with hypertension after the age of 50 years [8]. Hypertension is known to be associated with alterations in lipid metabolism which gives rise to abnormalities in serum lipid and lipoprotein levels. It has been documented that the presence of hyperlipidaemia substantially worsens the prognosis of hypertension [15]. The risk factors that have been associated with hypertension include increased salt intake, obesity, diabetes mellitus, cigarette smoking, elevated serum lipids, sedentary lifestyle and diets rich in saturated fats, genetic factors and stress [11]. Dyslipidaemia which is associated with hypertension, has been recognised as independent risk factor for cardiovascular disease, a leading diagnosis for visits to physicians10 and cause of death [12]. There is a strong association between hypertension and dyslipidaemia, and these may synergistically increase the risk of developing coronary heart disease. Dyslipidaemias vary significantly in various population groups due to difference in geographical, cultural [11], economical, social conditions14 dietary habits and genetic makeup. Age and gender differences also affect serum lipids considerably [13,14,15].

The main goal of treatment of hypertension is to reduce the cardiovascular morbidity and mortality, and influence the known modifiable risk factors that interact with the hypertension to increase cardiovascular risk [11,16,17]. This study was conducted to assess dyslipidaemia in hypertensive patients living in south-south Nigeria.

2. PATIENTS AND METHODS

2.1 Study Population

This study was conducted in South-South Nigeria in the Department of Chemical Pathology, University of Benin Teaching Hospital, Benin City. The Research and Ethics Committee of the University of Benin Teaching Hospital approved the protocol for the study. One hundred and fifty known hypertensive patients were recruited for this study, most of the hypertensive patients were between the ages of 30 and 59years. The inclusion criteria used in recruiting the hypertensive patients include being hypertensive for ≥one year, use of neutral antihypertensive agents such as calcium channel blockers, angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors, and angiotensin II receptor blockers while the exclusion criteria were patients with diabetes mellitus, on oral contraceptives, on thiazide and/or beta-blockers, and any patients on lipid lowering drugs. Thirty age and socioeconomically matched normotensive control subjects were also recruited for the study; Socio-demographic data were obtained by semistructural questionnaire.

2.2 Sample Collection

A total of one hundred and eighty (180) participants were recruited for this study; one hundred and fifty (150) were hypertensive patients aged 30-59 years and thirty (30) age- and socio-economically matched normotensive controls. Height and weight were measured and BMI was calculated by dividing the weight in kilogram by the square of the height in meters. Five milliliters (5ml) of venous blood were obtained between 8.00 and 9.00am after 10-12hour overnight fast and dispensed into EDTA bottles. The plasma was then separated from the whole blood after centrifuging for 5minutes at 3000rpm and kept in plain bottle after which it was refrigerated at -20°C prior to analyse s.

2.3 Biochemical Assay

Plasma total cholesterol and triglyceride concentrations were determined by enzymatic colorimetric assay as described previously [18] and modified by Richmond [19] and HDL-cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol were determined enzymatically after precipitation of other lipoprotein as described by Burstein et al. [20] and Assmann et al. [21] respectively, using kits from Biosystem Laboratories (Spain). All samples were analysed in duplicates after which the mean was determined.

2.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis was conducted using the general linear model of SAS (statistical for agric and sciences) 2004 model. All results were expressed as mean±standard error of mean. Multiple group comparison was performed by one way ANOVA followed by Duncan test.

Pearson correlation coefficient was employed to determine the association between various parameters.

Chi–Square test with one degree of freedom (for dichotomous variables and unpaired t-test (for continuous variable) were used for the evaluation of differences between groups.

3. RESULTS

The sociodemographic data of hypertensive and normotensive patients are shown in (Table 1). Most of the hypertensive patients were business men and they were significantly older than the Normotensive controls (46.8 ± 8.2 vs. 38.8 ± 13.2). fifty-four percent54% (n=81) of the hypertensive patient were females with majority (45.7%) in the age range 50-59 years, while majority (53.6%) of the male hypertensive patients were in the age group 40-49 years (Table 2).

Patients characteristics	Hypertensive n-150	Normotensive n=30	
Age (years)	46.8±8.2	38.8±13.2	
Occupation			
Artisan	13(8.7)	5(16.7)	
Civil servants	43(28.7)	7(23.3)	
Business/trading	53(35.3)	6(20)	
High skilled professionals	22(14.7)	10(33.3)	
Clergy	7(4.2)	1(3.3)	
Farming	12(8)	1(3.3)	
Marital status			
Married	138(92)	20(66.7)	
Single	9(6)	10(33.3)	
Widowed	2(1.3)	-	
Divorced	1(0.7)	-	
Educational level			
Nill	13(8.7)	-	
Primary	36(24)	4(13.3)	
Secondary	52(34.7)	10(33.3)	
Tertiary	49(32.7)́	16(53.3)	

Table 1. Characteristics of hypertensive and normotensive patients (percentage in parenthesis)

However, incidences of hypertension were generally low in the younger age group for both sexes. In (Table 3), the hypertensive patients had significantly (p<0.05) higher BMI than the normotensive patients (28.34 ± 4.40 kg/m2 vs. 25.79 ± 2.91 kg/m2), with the exception of HDL-cholesterol, the hypertensive patients also had significantly higher lipid profile (triglyceride, total cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol).

Table 2. Age distribution of hypertensive and normotensive patients (percentage in
parenthesis)

Age	ge Hypertensive)	Normotensive			
groups (years)	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
30-39	11(15.9)	14(17.3)	25(16.7)	9(56.3)	10(71.4)	19(63.3)	
40-49	37(53.6)	30(37)	67(44.7)	6(37.5)	1(7.1)	7(23.3)	
50-59	21(30.4)	37(45.7)	58(38.7)	1(33.3)	3(21.5)	4(13.3)	
Total	69(46)	81(54)	15Ò(10Ó)	16(53.3)	14(46.7)	30(100)	

	Hypertensive (n=150)	Non-hypertensive (n=30)	p-value
BMI(KG/M2)	28.34±4.40	25.79±2.91	0.003*
Total cholesterol (mmol/1)	4.67±1.26	3.69±0.67	<0.0001*
Triglyceride (mmol/1)	1.65±0.67	1.40±0.43	0.010*
HDL-Cholesterol (mmol/1)	1.31±0.51	1.22±0.27	0.174
LDL-Cholesterol (mmol/1)	2.61±0.96	1.79±0.81	<0.0001*

Table 3. BMI and lipid profiles of hypertensive and normotensive patients

In (Table 4), the female hypertensive patients had significantly higher total cholesterol (4.86 ± 1.29 mmol/l vs. 4.45 ± 1.19 mmol/l) and BMI (29.29 ± 4.79 kg/m2 vs. 27.24 ± 3.62 kg/m2) than their male counterparts.

Table 4. Comparison	of BMI and lipid profile in	n male and female hypertensive patients	S
			-

	Male (n=69)	Female (n=81)	p-value
BMI(Kg/M2)	27.24±3.62	29.29±4.79	<0.05*
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	4.45±1.19	4.86±1.29	<0.05*
Triglyceride (mmol/L)	1.61±0.71	1.69±0.63	>0.05
HDL-Cholesterol (mmol/L)	1.23±0.48	1.38±0.53	>0.05
LDL-Cholesterol (mmol/L)	2.49±0.93	2.71±0.98	>0.05

Pearson correlation analyses showed that there was positive correlation between total cholesterol, triglyceride (r=0.399, p<0.05), LDL-cholesterol (r=0.609, p<0.05) and HDL-cholesterol (r=0.866, p<0.05) among the hypertensive patients. Also, HDL-cholesterol positively correlated with LDL-cholesterol (r=0.218, p<0.05). This trend differs in the Normotensive subjects, where there is a significant negative correlation between LDL-cholesterol and triglyceride (r=-0.409, p<0.05) but positive significant correlation between total cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol (r=0.876, p<0.05).

4. DISCUSSION

In this present study, the prevalence of hypertension was highest in age group 40-49years in males and 50-59 years in females respectively. This is similar to observations from other subsahara African countries [16,22,23]. Several studies in both developed and developing countries have consistently shown a positive relationship between age and blood pressure [24,25,26,27,28]. In this study, majority of the hypertensive patients were businessmen and civil servants this could be partly attributed to higher BMI in these groups due to increased calorie intake which lead to overweight and obesity which are known risk factors for hypertension15, in addition to environmental factors such as stress and physical inactivity. More also, these groups are highly enlightened and the high prevalence of hypertension recorded could be as a result of their awareness to seek and be able to afford the cost of Medicare. This present study showed a significantly higher plasma total cholesterol, triglycerides and LDL-cholesterol in the hypertensive than in the normotensive patients, this is in agreement with the findings of Osuji et al and other earlier studies in sub-sahara Africa [25,29,30,31,32,33,34]. Again, studies in non-blacks have equally demonstrated similar trends of hypercholesterolaemia in hypertensives compared to normotensive controls [35,36].

The American Heart Association estimates in 2006 showed that a third of all Americans (100 million people) have total cholesterol levels greater than 5.18mmol/L (moderately high), while 34million adult Americans have total cholesterol greater than 6.22mmol/L (high levels necessitating treatment) [37]. Goff et al. [38] in their multi ethnic study of atherosclerosis (MESA) which focused on dyslipidaemia prevalence, treatment and control and which involved a multi-center cohort of 6814 persons, aged 45-84years, free of clinical cardiovascular disease, reported an overall dyslipidaemia prevalence of 29.3%; Non-Hispanic whites (males 36.9%, females 24.4%) recorded higher prevalence compared to blacks (males 31.2%, females 29.1%). In this study, the hypertensive patients had a mean plasma total cholesterol level of 4.67mmol/L which is low compared to the values above but this value was significantly higher than that of the normotensive controls, this finding is further supported by a study carried out in South Africa [34], in which adult white males had higher mean serum cholesterol than blacks (5.27mmol/L vs. 4.29mmol/L). However, some researchers have argued that the desired range of plasma total cholesterol concentrations as advocated for developed countries may have to be reviewed for developing countries based on the suspicion that subjects in developing countries could be prone to developing CHD at a lower plasma cholesterol level [39]. There was statistically significant higher triglycerides in the hypertensive patients than in non-hypertensive control in the present work, this is of particular importance since some workers are of the opinion that serum triglycerides is an independent risk factor for coronary heart disease [40]. Also high plasma triglyceride level has been found to be more predictive of heart disease in women than men but in this study there was no significant difference in plasma triglycerides level in the male and female hypertensive patients. On the other hand, Olusi et al showed that hypertriglyceridaemia and not hypercholesterolaemia was associated with myocardial infarction [41].

The female hypertensive patients in this study had significantly higher mean plasma total cholesterol than their male counterparts, suggesting that hypercholesterolaemia rather than hypertriglyceridaemia may be more associated with CHD in female than males in this population. There was no statistically significant difference in the plasma concentration of HDL-Cholesterol in the hypertensive patients and Normotensive controls in this study, this is in agreement with the findings of Kesteloot et al. [42] and other studies else where [17,25,26,29,43,44]. It suggests that the hypertensives in our population are relatively protected from CHD; this finding is further supported by Timothy [43], who in an earlier prospective study of coronary heart disease showed that adult blacks have higher mean levels of HDL-Cholesterol than whites. However, in this present study, there was no significant difference in the plasma HDL-Cholesterol concentration between hypertensive male and females, this is at variance with some other studies [45,46] which showed increase HDL-C levels in premenopausal women who enjoy relative immunity from CHD while others showed a significant increase in plasma HDL-C even in elderly women.

5. CONCLUSION

Hypertensive Nigerians have significantly higher lipid profile except the HDL-cholesterol which is comparable in both hypertensive and Normotensive Nigerians. This shows that the dyslipidaemia in hypertensive Nigerians majorly involve plasma total cholesterol, triglyceride and LDL-cholesterol. Hypercholesterolaemia rather than hypertriglyceridaemia may be a better predictor of CHD in Nigerian female hypertensives.

CONSENT

All the participants were properly briefed about the study and an informed consent was obtained from them before venous blood was collected.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

The study was approved by the Research and Ethics Committee of the University of Benin Teaching Hospital.

COMPETING INTERESTS

Author has declared that no competing interests exist.

REFERENCES

- 1. World Health Organization (WHO). Familial hypercholesterolaemia (FH): Report of a WHO consultation: WHO/HGN/CONS/98.7.
- 2. Tekes-Manova D, Israeli E, Shochat T, Swartzon M, Gordon S, Heruti R, et al. The prevalence of reversible cardiovascular risk factors in Israelis aged 25–55years.IMAJ. 2006;8:527-31.
- 3. Cullen P, Schulte H, Assmann G. The munster heart study (PROCAM). Total mortality in middle aged men is increased at low total cholesterol and LDL- cholesterol in smokers but not in non-smokers. Circulation. 1997;96:2128-36.
- 4. Akinkugbe OO. High blood pressure in the Africans. Edinburgh: Churchill Living Stone. 1972:86.
- 5. Hypertension prevalence and the status of awareness, treatment and control in the United States. Final report of the subcommittee on definition and prevalence of the 1984 Joint National Committee. Hypertension. 1985;7:457-468.
- 6. The sixth Reports of the Joint National Committee on Detection, Evaluation and Treatment of High Blood Pressure (JNC VI). Arch Intern Med 1997;157:2413-2446.
- 7. Salako BL. Blood pressure control in Sub-Sahara Africans: a physician's perspective. Postgraduate Doctor Africa. 2003;25:4-7.
- 8. Bangladesh Health Services Report. Cause of death and morbidity profile. Directorate General Health Services, Government of Bangladesh; 1998.
- 9. Kaufman JS, Rotimi CN, Brieger WR. The mortality risk associated with hypertension: Preliminary results of a prospective study in rural Nigeria. J Hum Hypertens 1996;10:461-464.
- 10. Burt VL, Whelton P, Rocella EJ. Prevalence of hypertension in the US adult population. Results from the third National Health and Nutritional Examination Survey, 1988-1991. Hypertension. 1995;225:305-313.
- 11. Kadiri S. Current concepts in the management of hypertension. Dokita 1999;26:93-96.
- 12. Vartiainen E, Pekkanen J, Koskinen S, Jousilahti P, Salomma V, Puska P. Do changes in cardiovascular risk factors explain the increasing socioeconomic difference in mortality from ischaemic heart disease in Finland? J Epidemiol Community Health. 198I;52:416-9.
- 13. World Health Organization. Global Health Risk; Mortality and burden of disease attributable to selected major risk. Geneva Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2009.

- 14. Gaziano TA, Bitton A, Anand S, Weinstein MC. The global cost of nonoptimal blood pressure. J Hypertens. 2009;27(7):1472-1477.
- 15. Harvey JM, Beevers DG. Biochemical investigation of hypertension. Ann Cli Biochem. 1990;27(4):287-296.
- 16. Idemudia JO, Ugwuja EI, Afonja O, Idogun ES, Ugwu NC. C- reactive protein and cardiovascular risk indices in hypertensive Nigerians. IJCR. 2009;6(2):10.5580/fa9.
- 17. Idemudia JO, Idogun ES. High sensitivity c-reactive protein (HsCRP) as a cardiovascular risk factor in hypertensive Nigerians. NPMJ. 2012;19(3):163-166.
- 18. Tinder P. Determination of glucose in blood using glucose oxidase with an alternative oxygen acceptor. Ann Clin. Biochem. 1969;6:24-27.
- Richmond N. Methodology for determination of cholesterol: Clin. Chem. 1973;19:1350-1356.
- Burstein M, Scholnick HR, Morfin R: Rapid method for the isolation of lipoproteins from human serum by precipitation with polyanions. Scand. J. Clin. Lab. Invest. 1980;40:583-595.
- 21. Assmann G, Jabs HU, Kohnert U, Nolte W, Schriewer H: LDL-cholesterol determination in blood serum following precipitation of LDL with polyvinylsulfate Clin. Chem. Acta. 1984;140:77-83.
- Akinkugbe OO. Hypertensive disease in Ibadan, Nigeria. East Afr Med J. 1969;46:313-320.
- 23. Idemudia JO, Ugwuja EI. Plasma lipid profiles in hypertensive Nigerians. IJCR. 2009;6(2):10.5580/117f
- 24. Singh RB, Beegom R, Ghosh S, Niaz MA, Rastogi V. Epidemiological study of hypertension and its determinants in an urban population of North India. J Hum Hypertens. 1997;11:679-685.
- 25. Whelton PK. Epidemiology of hypertension. Lancet. 1994;344:101-106.
- 26. Updated Guidelines for Management of High Blood Pressure; Recommendations, Review, and Responsibility. JAMA. 2014;311(5):507-520.
- 27. Youmbissi TJ, Djoumessi S, Nouedoui C. Profile lipidique d'un group d'hypertendus camerounais noir Africains. Medicine d'Afrique Noire. 2001;31:114-118.
- Ahaneku JE, Nwosu MC, Ahaneku GI, Okugba PC. Utilisation of Clinical chemistry tests with special reference to lipid profile in disease management in a Nigeria setting. East Afr Med J. 1999;76:172-175.
- 29. Mgonda YM, Ramaiya KL, Swai ABM, Mc-Larty DG, George KM, Alberti M. Insulin resistance and hypertension in non-obese Africans in Tanzania. Hypertension. 1998;31:114-118.
- 30. Jarikre AE, Dim DC, Ajuluchukwu JNA. Plasma lipid levels in Nigerian hypertensives: The gender faaactor. Nig Qtr J Hosp Med. 1996;6:293-298.
- 31. Oguejiofor OC, Onwukwe CH, Odenigbo CU. Dyslipidaemia in Nigeria: Prevalence and Pattern. Ann Afr Med. 2012;11:197- 202.
- 32. Osuji CU, Omejua EG, Onwubuya EI, Ahaneku GI. Serum lipid profile of newly diagnosed hypertensive patients in Nnewi, South-East, Nigeria. Int J Hypertens. 2012;2012:710486.
- Jovanovic J, Jovanovic M, Vukovic N. Characteristics of arterial hypertension in industrial workers. Facta Univ. 2000;7:107-115.
- 34. Krisela S, Benade AJS, Langenhoven ML. Hypercholesterolaemia in the coloured population of the Cape Peninsula (CRISIC Study). S Afr Med J. 1987;71:483-486.
- 35. Reaven GM. Are triglycerides important as risk factor for coronary heart disease? Heart Dis Stroke. 1993;2:44-48.

- 36. McKeigue PM, Shah B, Marmot MG. Relationship of central obesity and insulin resistance with high diabetes prevalence and cardiovascular risks in South Asians. Lancet. 1991;338:842-847.
- American Heart Association. Cholesterol statistics. Available from: <u>http://www.americanheart.org/presenter.jhtm?identifier=536</u>.
- 38. Goff DC, Bertoni AG, Kramer H, Bonds D, Blumenthal RS, et al. Dyslipidaemia prevalence, treatment and control in the multi-ethnic study of atherosclerosis: Gender, Ethnicity and Coronary Artery Disease. Circulation. 2006;113:647-656.
- 39. Singh RB, Rastogi V, Ghosh S. Serum cholesterol and coronary artery disease in population with low cholesterol levels: The Indian paradox. Int J Cardiol. 1998;65:81-90.
- 40. Bainton D, Miller NF, Bottom CH. Plasma triglyceride and high density lipoprotein cholesterol as predictors of ischaemic heart disease in British Men. Br Heart J. 1992;68:60-66.
- 41. Olusi SO, Prabha K, Sugathan TN. Biochemical risk factors for myocardial infarction among south Asian immigrants and Arabs. Annual Saudi Med. 1999;19:147-149.
- 42. Kesteloot H, Oviasu VO, Obasohan AO, Olomu A, Cobbaert C, Lissens W. Serum lipids and apoprotein levels in a Nigerian population sample. Atherosclerosis. 1989;78:33-38.
- 43. Timothy CW, Peter OK, Charles JG. Dyslipoproteinaemia in black participant. The lipid research clinics program prevalence study. Circulation. 1986;73:1-119.
- 44. Gartside PS, Khoury P, Glueek CJ. Determinants of high density lipoprotein cholesterol in blacks and whites: The Second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. Am Heart J. 1984;108:641-653.
- 45. Albers JJ, Wahl PW, Cabana VG, Hazzard WR. Quantitation of apolipoprotein A-1 of human plasma high density lipoprotein. Metabolism. 1976;25:633-644.
- 46. Carlson LA, Ericsson M. Quantitative and qualitative serum lipoprotein analysis. Part 1. Studies in healthy men and women. Atherosclerosis. 1975;21:417-433.

© 2014 Idemudia; This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Peer-review history:

The peer review history for this paper can be accessed here: http://www.sciencedomain.org/review-history.php?iid=579&id=12&aid=5051