

Reviewing the strategies of hypertension control in patients with diabetes in primary care

Anfal Marzouq Alanazi, Hajar rida almoqbel, Jafar Radhi Albumijdad, Somaya Ibrahim Alghamdi, Abrar Ali Wazqar, Khalid Abdullah Alshehab, Mohamed Ahmed Mohamed, Arwa Atiah Almalki, Mohammed Lafi Alanazi, Ohoud Salman haya Alenazi

Abstract:

In this review we will discuss the effective pharmacological and nonpharmacological quality-improvement interventions, we will highlight the BP control methods and epidemiology to better to give more information about this condition. PubMed, Embase, and Google scholar databases were searched up to November, 2017 for published studies with English language and human subjects discussing hypertension control in patients with diabetes in primary care. Detecting and managing hypertension in people with diabetes is one of the most effective measures to prevent adverse events, and pharmacotherapy is one of the most effective methods to maintain target BP levels in primary care. Further evidence is needed to support treating patients to BP goals lower than current suggestions.

Introduction:

Patients with diabetes who also have high blood pressure are at increased risk of morbidity and mortality from cardiovascular events. Nevertheless, blood pressure control is frequently

suboptimal in the primary care setup. Large clinical trials sustain making use of antihypertensive medications in these patients to decrease the threat of cardiovascular disease and death.

Hypertension is one of the most common diagnosis in primary care patients. The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure specifies hypertension as a systolic blood pressure (BP) ≥ 140 mmHg or diastolic BP ≥ 90 mmHg for grownups ≥ 18 years of age. These thresholds are lowered to systolic BP ≥ 130 mmHg or diastolic BP ≥ 80 mmHg for individuals with diabetes or renal condition [1].

More than 74 million grownups were estimated to have elevated BP from U.S. population-based studies in 2006 [2], with equal prevalence amongst males and females [2]. African Americans have the highest possible condition burden, with $> 40\%$ of adults being influenced [2]. In addition, the occurrence of hypertension raises with age, approaching 75% in people ≥ 80 years old [3].

In this review we will discuss the effective pharmacological and nonpharmacological quality-improvement interventions, we will highlight the BP control methods and epidemiology to better to give more information about this condition.

Methodology:

PubMed, Embase, and Google scholar databases were searched up to November, 2017 for published studies with English language and human subjects discussing hypertension control in patients with diabetes in primary care. Moreover, we included reviews and randomized

control studies, we excluded all case reports, in our search strategy we scanned the references list of our included studies for more relevant articles.

Discussion:

• Epidemiology of Hypertension among those with Diabetes

The estimated prevalence of high blood pressure in adults with diabetes is 20- 60%, which is 1.5- 3 times higher than that in age-matched people without diabetes [4]. The start of hypertension differs for people with kind 1 versus those with type 2 diabetes. People with type 1 diabetes normally establish hypertension because of diabetic nephropathy, with 30% eventually being influenced [5]. By comparison, hypertension could exist when type 2 diabetes is detected or could predate the beginning of hyperglycemia [5]. Type 2 diabetes is frequently accompanied by advanced age or obesity, both which enhance the threat of high blood pressure and thereby make it difficult to refer raised BP solely to diabetes [5].

The existence of high blood pressure in individuals with diabetes doubles the danger for cardiovascular disease (CVD) [6]. With uncontrolled hypertension, there is a constant positive relationship in between raised systolic BP and increased danger for micro- and macrovascular illness. As necessary, > 65% of deaths in patients with diabetes are from CVD.

In addition, hypertension is two times as common in persons with diabetes as it remains in others [6]. Obesity may be an usual link between the two disorders, yet other factors such as insulin resistance and autonomic dysfunction [7] might additionally be involved. Excess weight with

truncal obesity, hypertension, damaged glucose resistance, insulin resistance, and dyslipidemia are amongst the components of the metabolic syndrome, which has been associated with an enhanced danger of coronary cardiovascular disease [9].

In general, just 25 percent of patients with hypertension have adequate control of their blood pressure. Blood pressure objectives are reduced, and hence harder to attain, in patients who additionally have diabetes. Elevated blood pressure is understood to contribute to diabetic person microvascular and macrovascular problems (**Table 1**). [7], [10], [9]. Luckily, reductions in blood pressure can decrease the threat of these difficulties [10].

Table1 .Microvascular and Macrovascular Complications of Hypertension in Patients with Diabetes

Microvascular complications:
Renal disease—hypertension contributes to the risk of renal disease in patients with diabetes.
Autonomic neuropathy
Sexual dysfunction—hypertension and antihypertensive therapies may independently contribute to autonomic-associated sexual dysfunction in diabetes.
Orthostatic hypotension—supine hypertension with orthostatic hypotension can occur in persons with diabetes because of autonomic dysfunction. Blood pressure should be measured in the supine, sitting, and standing positions.
Eye disease—hypertension increases the risk of eye disease in patients with diabetes, including glaucoma and diabetic retinopathy with potential blindness.
Macrovascular complications:
Cardiac disease—hypertension in patients with diabetes increases the risk of coronary

artery disease, congestive heart failure, and cardiomyopathy.
Cerebrovascular disease—hypertension increases the incidence of stroke in patients with diabetes.
Survival rates and recovery from stroke are reduced in patients with diabetes compared with patients without diabetes.
Peripheral vascular disease—hypertension increases the risk of peripheral vascular disease and subsequent foot ulcers and amputations in patients with diabetes.

To reduce this risk, hypertension must be detected accurately and quickly, and the patient needs to get adequate treatment. To confirm the medical diagnosis of hypertension, blood pressures gauged with standard methods should rise on two separate events [7]. Because patients with diabetes and high blood pressure are at high threat for complications, consensus statements from the 6th report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure (JNC VI) [7] the American Diabetes Association (ADA), and the National Kidney Foundation (NKF) Hypertension and Diabetes Executive Committees Working Group [11] recommend lower blood pressure goals for patients with diabetes compared to for the general population.

The most recent guidelines from the ADA and NKF advise that blood pressure be lowered to less than 130/80 mm Hg, with an ideal target of listed below 120/80 mm Hg, especially in patients with proteinuria or renal insufficiency [11]. Strategies to attain this goal consist of lifestyle alterations and pharmacologic therapy.

- **Effectiveness of BP Control: Real-World Practice**

There are multiple barriers to getting to BP objectives in primary care. These consist of patient factors (social, financial, physiological, and treatment-related aspects), provider factors (clinical inertia, polypharmacy, and time restraints), and system factors. Additionally, the suggested modifications to diet and lifestyle are challenging for patients, and the lack of understanding regarding health outcomes from improperly managed high blood pressure can be a barrier to therapy [12]. Medical care providers could not apply treatment standards or to recognize the therapeutic options, may differ with the standards, may not know how to aid their patients with self-management, or could fail to identify the possibility to magnify medications when BP is uncontrolled [13]. System factors- those that impact the delivery of high-quality health care- may include insurance protection, drug co-payments, access to primary care, self-management programs, and compensation schemes [14]. Additionally, the means patients and doctors connect could affect BP control. Collective decision making and positive interaction has been associated with much better hypertension control.

Various studies have examined the impact of multicomponent interventions on BP control in a selection of patient populations and settings. Solitary studies of treatments aimed at both patients and service providers have generated mixed outcomes with respect to boosting BP control in patients with diabetic issues. Nonetheless, systematic reviews and meta-analyses have demonstrated reductions in BP related to group-based or specific patient education and team-based care entailing nurses and pharmacologists [15].

- **Lifestyle Modifications**

In the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension trial, life-style adjustments such as physical exercise and a diet reduced in salt and high in potassium have plainly been shown to lower blood pressure [16]. Extreme sodium intake is particularly deleterious in patients with diabetes since it

could lower the antihypertensive results of medicines and their beneficial effects on proteinuria [17]. Weight loss and workout could assist to reduced blood pressure and may also boost glycemic control and insulin sensitivity.

Although the benefits of lifestyle alteration are clear, couple of patients have the ability to attain blood pressure control with these interventions alone. The JNC VI guidelines advise that patients with diabetes be started on both antihypertensive drug and lifestyle modifications when high blood pressure is identified. JNC VI suggests angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors as preferred agents, with calcium channel blockers (CCBs) and low-dose diuretics as alternatives [7].

Angiotensin II receptor blockers also reveal assurance in the treatment of hypertension in diabetes. In several patients, a mix of 2 or more of these representatives is essential to get to blood pressure goals. Beta blockers have been shown to decrease cardiovascular risk; nonetheless, because of their diabetogenic potential, JNC VI categorizes beta blockers as representatives that "could have negative results" in patients with diabetes. Regardless of the representatives picked, a reduction in blood pressure helps to prevent diabetic person complications [10].

- **Pharmacologic Therapy**

ACE inhibitors

ACE inhibitors have proved beneficial in patients who have had a myocardial infarction or congestive heart failure, or that have diabetic renal disease (very early or established) [8]. These agents are thought about favored treatment in patients with high blood pressure and diabetes, according to guidelines from the ADA, the NKF, the World Health Organization, and the JNC VI [8]. Searchings for from the Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation (HOPE) research likewise

support the above suggestions [18]. This trial showed a decrease in cardiovascular events in patients taking an optimum dosage of ACE preventions.

Recently, a meta-analysis of tests assessing using antihypertensives in risky patients, consisting of those with diabetes, revealed that ACE prevention treatment caused a 20 to 30 percent decrease in the risk of stroke, coronary heart disease, and major cardiovascular occasions [19].

A 2nd meta-analysis compared ACE inhibitors with various other antihypertensive representatives in patients with diabetes. Three of the 4 studies reviewed revealed ACE inhibitors to be of dramatically greater advantage when compared to various other antihypertensives in the reduction of acute myocardial infarction, cardio events, and all-cause death. The one exception was the United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS), which compared captopril with atenolol and found the two representatives to be similar in terms of reduction in microvascular and macrovascular problems [10]

ACE inhibitors might supply additional benefits in patients with diabetes. These patients may have damaged fibrinolysis and endothelial dysfunction, which increase their danger of cardiovascular disease. ACE inhibitors have been revealed to improve fibrinolysis and endothelial dysfunction. ACE inhibitors have likewise been revealed to boost insulin sensitivity.

Diuretics

Thiazide diuretics have been shown to profit patients with diabetes and systolic hypertension. The Systolic Hypertension in the Elderly Program trial was started to analyze the result of low-dose, diuretic-based antihypertensive therapy on the rates of significant cardiovascular events in older patients with isolated systolic hypertension and diabetes [20]. The study revealed that low-dose chlorthalidone treatment worked in avoiding significant cerebrovascular and cardiovascular events in older non-- insulin-treated patients with diabetes and separated systolic hypertension.

Lower doses of thiazides (e.g., hydrochlorothiazide [Esidrix], 12.5 mg per day) are generally well endured and not related to unfavorable metabolic impacts [21]. Thiazide diuretics are not as reliable in patients with kidney insufficiency; in such patients, loop diuretics are chosen. Generally, diuretics are effective in the treatment of high blood pressure. Additionally, several less-expensive common diuretics are available.

Calcium channel blockers

Controversy exists regarding the use of CCBs, particularly the dihydropyridines (e.g., amlodipine [Norvasc], nifedipine [Procardia] in treating hypertension in patients with diabetes. Five studies [22]-[26] have evaluated cardiovascular outcomes in patients with hypertension and diabetes who were treated with dihydropyridine CCBs. Both the Appropriate Blood Pressure Control in Diabetes (ABCD) [22] trial and the Fosinopril versus Amlodipine Cardiovascular Events Randomized Trial (FACET) [23] demonstrated no significant reduction in cardiovascular events with a dihydropyridine CCB compared with an ACE inhibitor [23].

Conversely, the Hypertension Optimal Treatment (HOT) trial [24], the Systolic Hypertension in Europe trial, and the Isolated Systolic Hypertension in China study [26] concluded that the use of dihydropyridine CCBs, as monotherapy or in combination with another agent, was associated with a reduction in cardiovascular risk [24], [25]. In these trials, the decreased cardiovascular risk appeared to result from achievement of target blood pressure, rather than from intrinsic characteristics of the agent(s) used. In all three trials, many patients required the addition of an ACE inhibitor or other antihypertensive to the dihydropyridine CCB to achieve target blood pressure goals. The combination of an ACE inhibitor and a dihydropyridine CCB has been shown to reduce proteinuria.

Angiotensin II receptor blockers

The Candesartan and Lisinopril Microalbuminuria (CALM) research compared candesartan with lisinopril in patients with kind 2 diabetes, high blood pressure, and microalbuminuria [27]. Results of the CALM research showed that candesartan was as reliable as lisinopril in blood pressure decrease and minimization of microalbuminuria.

Lately, the Reduction of Endpoints in Non- Insulin-Dependent Diabetes Mellitus with the Angiotensin II Antagonist Losartan study was accomplished [28]. The investigators found that losartan treatment produced a renoprotective effect independent of its blood-pressure- reducing impact in patients with type 2 diabetes and nephropathy. In addition, the Irbesartan Microalbuminuria Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus in Hypertensive Patients research study recently discovered irbesartan to be renoprotective in patients with kind 2 diabetes who have microalbuminuria. The latest study to have been completed, the MicroAlbuminuria Reduction with VALsartan (MARVAL) test, found that valsartan lowered urine albumin discharging better than amlodipine in kind 2 diabetic patients with microalbuminuria. This outcome was likewise seen in a subset of the research study patients that were not hypertensive, which demonstrated valsartan to have a blood-pressure- independent antiproteinuric effect.

Beta blockers

Generally, the use of beta blockers in patients with diabetes has been dissuaded as a result of unfavorable metabolic results and the masking of hypoglycemic signs. Information from the UKPDS 39 study revealed no difference in hypoglycemic episodes in patients treated with atenolol compared to captopril, yet the mean weight gain in the atenolol team was greater. This research also demonstrated comparable danger decrease in microvascular and macrovascular illness in the groups treated with captopril and atenolol.

Cardioselective beta blockers are preferred over the non-selective kind because the former are connected with less blunting of hypoglycemic recognition and less elevation of lipid and glucose degrees. Another option in the hypertensive patient with diabetes is the alpha1 beta blocker carvedilol, which has been shown to trigger less modifications in lipid and glucose levels compared with traditional beta blockers. Beta-blocker therapy can be beneficial in lots of patients with diabetes as a result of its shown capability to lower cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in persons with atherosclerotic heart disease [8].

Alpha blockers

Alpha-adrenergic blockers are not considered first-line agents in the therapy of high blood pressure in patients with diabetes. These agents could be integrated with other representatives to treat badly controlled blood pressure.

- **Combination therapy**

A lot of patients with concomitant hypertension and diabetes need more than one agent to achieve adequate blood pressure control. In the HOT trial [24], 68 percent of patients were kept on combination antihypertensive treatment. The mix of ACE inhibitors and CCBs (dihydropyridine or nondihydropyridine) is related to a reduction in cardiovascular occasions and protein-uria [23]. The combination of a dihydropyridine and a nondihydropyridine CCB has been revealed to have a synergistic blood-pressure- decreasing capacity.

Caution must be used with the mix of nondihydropyridine CCBs and beta blockers because of the capacity for additive adverse cardiac inotropic effects. Combinations of beta blockers and ACE preventions have shown few additive effects on blood pressure when applied in patients with a pulse rate of less than 84 beats each minute. The final stage of the CALM research study [27]

analyzed mix treatment with candesartan and lisinopril. Research study individuals showed good tolerance for the two agents together and an extra efficient reduction in blood pressure.

Conclusion:

Hypertension and diabetes are two typical diseases. Increasing age, the presence of obesity, and intensifying renal function all contribute to a raised possibility of hypertension in people with diabetes. With enhancing obesity, physical inactivity, and the aging of the populace, diabetes and hypertension are important public health problems for the 21st century. Control of BP amongst patients with diabetes could influence important CVD outcomes because the relationship between BP and risk of CVD occasions is continual, consistent, and independent of other risk factors. Detecting and managing hypertension in people with diabetes is one of the most effective measures to prevent adverse events, and pharmacotherapy is one of the most effective methods to maintain target BP levels in primary care. Further evidence is needed to support treating patients to BP goals lower than current suggestions.

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