# Predictors of Hypertension among Rural Women The Case of Amagoro in Western Kenya 

*Rebecca. A. Ebere ${ }^{1}$, Violet. N. Kimani ${ }^{2}$, Jasper. K. Imungi ${ }^{3}$<br>1 Department of Food Science, Meru University of Science and Technology, Kenya P.O Box 972-60200 Meru. 2. School of Public Health, University of Nairobi, Kenya P.O Box 19676-00202, Nairobi.<br>3. Department of Food Science, Nutrition and Technology, University of Nairobi P.O Box 29053-00625, Nairobi.<br>Corresponding Author; Rebecca. A. Ebere, Lecturer Department of Food Science, Meru University of Science and Technology, Kenya P.O Box 972-60200 Meru. Email: rebekaebere@yahoo.com

## Summary

## BACKGROUND

Hypertension's association with other chronic illnesses such as cardiovascular diseases, Diabetes, cause common health burden to individuals and societies resulting to a significant loss of quality life-years. It is becoming a major health hazard with a national prevalence of $\mathbf{2 4 . 5 \%}$ and a rural prevalence of $\mathbf{2 1 . 4 \%}$. In 2017, WHO ranked hypertension as the $12^{\text {th }}$ leading cause of death in Kenya [3-7]

## OBJECTIVE

Investigations to establish the predictors of hypertension amongst rural women, informed the researhers to interview residents of Amagoro Division, Busia County, in Western Kenya.

## METHODOLOGY

A descriptive survey involving 260 women aged 15-90 years drawn from various households in Amagoro Division predominantly Tesos. Cluster and proportional sampling was employed. Data was collected using a pre-tested structured questionnaire through face-to-face interviews. Weight, height, Waist Circumference (WC) and Hip Circumference (HC) measurements were taken. Body mass index was then computed as weight (kg)/height 2 and waist-to-hip ratio was computed as WC/HC. Blood pressure measurements were taken twice and average recorded. Hypertension was defined by blood pressure $\geq 140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or taking anti-hypertensive drugs.

## RESULTS

The prevalence of hypertension was $\mathbf{2 2 . 3} \%$. Age and household income emerged as the strongest independent risk factors ( $\mathbf{p}<0.05$ ). increased prevalence of hypertension with increasing BMI despite the fact that majority of participants had BMI below normal [28], marital status, gender, ethnicity, scarcity of formal employment, work frustrations, such as meger renumerations were all strongly associated. Suggestion that being disadvantaged in early and adult life may be associated with hypertension [40] was a reality. The concentrations of homocysteine including its metabolites were significantly higher in the hypertensive patients $(\mathbf{p}<0.01)$.

## CONCLUSSION

All other factors being constant, aging and household income can predict the risk of hypertension in a population. The increasing prevalence with age could be due to elevated homocysteine levels which have been found to increase gradually with age. The concentrations of High homocystein level and stiffening of the arteries during ageing [10] could be used to explain the increasing prevalence of hypertension with age in this study. Those who spent $\mathbf{6}$ hours or more
resting are more likely to suffer from hypertension as opposed to those spending 1 to 3 hours ( $\mathrm{OR}=3.74, \mathrm{p}=0.354$ ). Beside enthinicity being a factor, there was no association due to the fact that 91\% came from the same ethnic grouping.

## RECOMMENDATION

With rising life expectancy, hypertension intervention strategies should not target only the elderly but also young people to encourage them modify their lifestyle.

Key words: blood pressure, hypertension, elderly, women, Kenya
[Afr. J. Health Sci. 2020, 33 (4):1-18]

## Introduction

Hypertension is an elevated blood pressure characterized by a systolic blood pressure greater than $(\geq) 140 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or a diastolic blood pressure greater than $(\geq) 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or being on antihypertensive drugs [1]. Normal blood pressure is defined by a systolic blood pressure less or equals to $(\leq) 120 \mathrm{mmHg}$ and a diastolic blood pressure less or equals to $(\leq) 80 \mathrm{mmHg}$ [2]. This is usually shown as $120 / 80$.

Hypertension or High blood pressure condition places a considerable health burden to individuals and society leading to a significant loss of quality life-years. It is also associated with other chronic illnesses such as cardiovascular diseases [3-5].

In Kenya, hypertension was becoming a major health problem with a national prevalence of $24.5 \%$ [6] and a rural prevalence of $21.4 \%$. In 2017, WHO ranked hypertension the $12^{\text {th }}$ leading cause of death in Kenya. A rural village in Madagascar reported a prevalence of $49.1 \%$ striking the authors to recommend an investigation into the predictors of hypertension in rural communities worldwide [7-9].

The onset of hypertension has been previously associated with both genetic and environmental factors. Physical activities, body weight or use of tobacco increased salt sensitivity and alcohol consumption, have all been linked to increased risk of the condition. Some studies have reported increased risk of hypertension in women especially those above 30 years of age while other studies suggest a higher prevalence in men [2-6, 11-14, 16 -18].

Other factors associated with hypertension include marital status, gender and ethnicity. In Kenya where the population was predominantly African, differences have been reported among ethnic groups.

For example, the Kikuyus recorded higher prevalence of hypertension compared to Kalenjins. Excessive consumption of alcohol, employment status whereby there was scarcity of formal jobs and whenver one gets a formal employment, frustrations such as meger renumerations take tall oder. Level of education, higher body mass index (BMI) have all been strongly associated with hypertension.

Although recommended standards for a healthy lifestyle was established for certain risk factors, not all are applicable to every population. For instance a study conducted in rural western Kenya setting. showed increased prevalence of hypertension with increasing BMI despite the fact that majority of participants had BMI below normal [28]. A rural village in Madagascar reported a prevalence of $49.1 \%$ in a study that recommended worldwide investigation into the drivers of hypertension in rural communities [9].

The impact of the various risk factors was becoming complicated by emerging demographic trends in the world. Global improvement in the quality of life has led an increment in longevity [2]. The WHO stastics of 2018, placed an average life expectancy in Kenya at 66.7 years compared to 51 years in the year 2000. Life expectancy was in fact higher in female at (68.9 years) as opposed to their male counterparts at (64.4 years). Thus aging is becoming a major risk factor whose impact on world health is becoming a challenge $[5,14,17,29-31]$

In assumption of a report that, the impact of various risk factors could be in relation to ethnicity [23] and gender $[14,15,18]$ among other moderating factors it was important to establish whether age was posing as a key predictor of hypertension in rural women now that Kenyans are experiencing higher longevity than ever before [29]. This study therefore investigated
the prevalence of hypertension and its associated risk factors among rural women of Amagoro Division in Western Kenya.

## Materials and Methodology Study Design

A descriptive survey was conducted in Amagoro division in Busia County, Western Kenya where quantitative data was collected from the participants. The dependent variable was hypertension and the independent variable was predictors for hypertension

## Sample Frame

The sample frame for the survey was the households of Amogoro Division. In total, Amagoro Division has 12,478 households. Its administrative headquarters is in Amagoro town. The division has nine administrative locations, namely; Okuleu, Kokare, Amoni, Osajai, Kocholia, Kamolo, Kamuriai, Amagoro and Akadetewai. The inhabitants of Amagoro division were predominantly Tesos. The division had a population of 56,207 ( 29,843 female and 26, 364 male) and an area of 114.3 square kilometers. It had a total of 12, 478 households [32].

## Sample Size

The study involved a survey in which 260 women aged 15 to 90 years participated. The women were drawn from various households in Amagoro Division. For the fact that a number of risk factors are diet related, only one female volunteer was sampled in each household as this would have provided a survey on how these risk factors are distributed per household since it is women who prepare food for their respective households.

The sample size was calculated according to the formula adopted from Fox, Hunn and Mathers [33] namely:
$\mathrm{N}=\mathrm{P}(100 \%-\mathrm{P}) /(\mathrm{SE}) 2$.
$\mathrm{N}=$ Desired sample size;
$\mathrm{P}=$ Prevalence of hypertension in rural Kenya of $21.4 \%$.
SE = the confidence interval of $5 \%$ divided by 1.96.

In this case the $\mathrm{SE}=2.55$
and therefore $\mathrm{N}=259$.
A total of 260 households participated in the study.

## Sampling Procedure

Clustered and proportional sampling procedures were employed. Initially, Amagoro was clustered into nine locations. Out of the nine locations, three locations were selected on the basis of their geographical distribution. Osajai is located in the far northern part of Amagoro Division. Amagoro location is in the central part while Kamolo is in the southern part whereas the northern part tends to be hilly, largely rural and inhabited by the Tesos and neighbouring the Sabaot ethnic communities.

The villages in the central part are much closer to administrative and commercial urban centres with a cosmopolitan lifestyle. This central part is largely inhabited by the Teso community. The southern part comprises plains. Just like the northern part, it is generally inhabited by the Teso and the neighboring Luhya community. The sampling process took into the account that ethnic differences in the north and south as well as the cosmopolitan composition of the central parts of Amagoro generated some slight variations in lifestyle which in turn could affect risk for hypertension posed by lifestyle.

Once respective locations had been identified, proportional sampling was applied to select the respective households per location for inclusion in the study. This was justified by the fact that some locations had more households than others. The final distribution of the 260 households relative to the population of households across the three locations was as follows.

The total population of households in the three locations selected for the study was 4470 constituted as follows:

1. Osajai had 1125 households
2. Kamolo 1589 households
3. Amagoro 1753 households respectively.

Consequently, out of the 260 households in the sample, 65 households were selected from Osajai with another 102 and 93 from Amagoro and Kamolo respectively. From each household, only one female participant was selected.

## Data collection tools

Data was collected using a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire had two sections. The first section targeted demographic information such as age, ethnicity,
marital status, educational background, socio-economic status, employment status and whether the participant had already been diagnosed with hypertension among others.

The BMI status was computed as weight (kg) divided by height $(\mathrm{m}) 2$. The weight was measured using a balance scale (Camry Model: BR 9012, Germany). Height was measured using a tape measure in centimeters then converted into metres. The WHR is the ratio of waist circumference to the hip circumference. The circumference of the waist and hip measurements were taken using a non-stretchable tape (Gessate, Milan, Italy). Blood pressure was measured using an automatic blood pressure monitor (Omron M2 device; Omron Healthcare Co. Bing Duong Province, Vietnam).

## Data collection

A structured questionnaire was used to collect data by way of face-to-face structured interviews between the participant and the research assistants. Trained research assistants visited participants in their homes from where they interviewed them and took measurement for weight, height, waist circumference, hip circumference and blood pressure.

## Anthropometric Measurements

Height was measured using a tape measure that was stuck on a flat wall. The respondent was requested to stand on a flat surface and a wooden headrest placed on the head to allow measurement to be taken at the point perpendicular to the top of her head. Height was then recorded to the nearest cm with the respondent's feet together, heels against the wall and knees straight. Participants were requested to step onto the scale with the feet a stride, standing still with face forward and arms straight on the side. Weight was taken after the respondent took off excessive clothing using a bathroom scale after calibrating to zero. The weighing scale was placed of a firm horizontal surface.

## WHR

Waist circumference was taken at the point of umbilicus using a non-stretchable tape measure tired around the waist. The waist circumference was recorded to the nearest 0.5 cm . a reading above 88 cm was considered abnormal. Hip circumference was taken using a non-stretchable tape around the widest part to of
bottom and hips and recorded to the nearest 0.5 cm .

## Blood Pressure Measurement

Blood pressure measurements were taken twice: one at the beginning of the interview and one at the end.

## Data Analysis

For the purposes of data analysis, age was categorized into four ( $\leq 24$ years, 25-44 years, 45-64 years, $\geq 65$ years), marital status into five (single/never married, married monogamous, married polygamous, divorced/separated and widowed), ethnicity into three (Teso, Luhya, others), highest education level into five (never gone to school, primary incomplete, primary complete, secondary incomplete, secondary complete, college), employment status into four (unemployed, selfemployed, informally employed, formally employed), household size into three ( 1 to 3 members, 4 to 6 members and $\geq 7$ members), time lived in Amagoro division into five ( $\leq 5$ years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years, 16-19 years, $\geq 20$ years), household average monthly income into three (KES $\leq 3000,3001-6000,>6000$ ), type of the house of the respondent into three (grass thatched; iron sheet roofed, block or brick wall; iron sheet roofed, mud wall), main fuel type used for cooking into three (firewood, charcoal, gas), main fuel used for lighting into two (kerosene, electricity/solar), main water source for domestic use into three (river or dams, boreholes or wells, tap water), time spent reclining into three (1-3 hours, 4-6 hours, 7-10 hours), total physical activity (< 20 MET hours/day, 21-40 MET hours/day, $\geq 41 \mathrm{MET}$ hours/day), body mass index into two (18.50-24.99 kgm-2, $\geq 25 \mathrm{kgm}-2$ ), waist circumference into two ( $\leq 88$ $\mathrm{cm},>88 \mathrm{~cm}$ ), waist to hip ratio into two ( $\leq 0.80 \mathrm{~cm},>$ 0.80 cm ).

Body mass index (BMI) as a measure of nutritional allowing participants to be classified as

1. Underweight $(\mathrm{BMI}<18.5)$
2. Normal weight (BMI of 18.5-24.9)
3. Overweight (BMI of 25.0-29.9)
4. Obesity $(\mathrm{BMI} \geq 30)[6]$.

Waist-to-hip ratio was then computed by dividing the waist circumference by the hip circumference and WHR $>0.80$ was considered abnormal. Blood pressure was computed by calculating the average of the measurement that had been taken at the start of
the interviews and at the end of it. Individuals with a blood pressure $\geq 140 / 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or on drugs to treat hypertension were considered hypertensive.

Data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 23.0. The data was characterized using descriptive statistics and results presented in absolute frequencies, percentage and mean including standard deviation. Blood pressure was compared with independent variables using a chi-square analysis and the magnitude of the associations analyzed using the Bivariate and Multivariate logistic regression. The adopted level of significance was $5 \%$.

## Ethical Approval

This study was conducted with the approval of Kenyatta National Hospital and University of Nairobi Ethics, Research and Standards Committee. Informed consent was sought from each participant. Participation was on voluntary basis and women, residing permanently in the household who understood the questions and agreed to participate were included. The exclusion criteria were being ill and inability to communicate.

## Results

A total of 260 female participants aged between 15 to 90 years drawn from Amagoro division participated in this study. The mean age of the participants was $37.08 \pm 14.83$ years with only 7 participants being 15 and 17 years of age.

## Prevalence of Hypertension

The overall prevalence of hypertension in this population was $22.3 \%$ ( 58 participants). The remaining $39.2 \%$ (102 participants) had normal blood pressure whereas $38.5 \%$ ( 100 participants) were pre-hypertensive.

The systolic blood pressure of the population ( $\mathrm{n}=260$ ) ranged between 91 and 216 mmHg with a mean of $125.91 \pm 17.94 \mathrm{mmHg}$ while the diastolic blood pressure ranged between 59 and 132 mmHg with a mean of $79.33 \pm 11.05$.

## Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

From the participants sampled about a half (51.5\%) were aged between 25 and 44 years, $23.1 \%$ aged 45 to 64 years while $18.8 \%$ aged 24 years and below (Table 1). Almost 3\% aged below 18 years while $6.5 \%$ aged 65 years and above. Most ( $57.3 \%$ ) of these women had lived in Amagoro for 20 years or more.

Majority (75\%) of women sampled were in a monogamous relationship, $15.5 \%$ polygamous marriage while those never married at all were $6.2 \%$. Divorced or separated and those widowed each formed $1.9 \%$ of the sampled women.

Most (91.2\%) of these women were from the Teso community while other communities including Luhya formed the remaining $8.8 \%$. Majority $63.5 \%$ of these women never went to school or went but never completed primary school. Although about $17.7 \%$ of the women completed primary school, this figure reduced as they transited to secondary and tertiary level.

Majority (54.2\%) of women sampled belonged to household comprising of 4-6 members. About 29.5\% belonged to households with seven members while $16.2 \%$ belonged to households with 1-3 members. Majority of these women lived in grass thatched houses (50.4\%), cook mainly using firewood (96.9\%), used kerosene as the main fuel for lighting (96.\%) and fetched water from boreholes or wells ( $67.3 \%$ ).

Table 1: Description of the Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

| Variable | Categories | Frequency n (\%) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Age | $\leq 24$ years | $49(18.8)$ |
|  | $25-44$ years | $134(51.5)$ |
|  | 45 to 64 years | $60(23.1)$ |
|  | $\geq 65$ years | $17(6.5)$ |

Table 1: Description of the Socio-Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

| Variable | Categories | Frequency n (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Duration lived in Amagoro | 5 years and below | 35 (13.8) |
|  | 6 to 10 years | 32 (12.3) |
|  | 11 to 15 years | 24 (9.2) |
|  | 16 to 20 years | 19 (7.3) |
|  | 20 years and above | 149 (57.3) |
| Marital status | Single (never married) | 16 (6.2) |
|  | Married (monogamous) | 195 (75) |
|  | Married (polygamous) | 39 (15.5) |
|  | Divorced/Separated | 5 (1.9) |
|  | Widowed | 5 (1.9) |
| Ethnicity | Teso | 237 (91.2) |
|  | Luhya | 17 (6.5) |
|  | Others (Kikuyu, Sabaot, Nubi, Luo,Ugandan) | 6 (2.3) |
| Highest level of education | Never gone to school | 35 (13.5) |
|  | Primary incomplete | 130 (50) |
|  | Primary complete | 46 (17.7) |
|  | Secondary incomplete | 18 (6.9) |
|  | Secondary complete | 28 (10.8) |
|  | College | 3 (1.2) |
| Number of household members | 1 to 3 members | 42 (16.2) |
|  | 4 to 6 members | 141 (29.6) |
|  | More than 6 members | 77 (29.6) |

## Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

Approximately $51.9 \%$ of the sampled women were unemployed, $25 \%$ self-employment, $22.7 \%$ informally employed and only $0.4 \%$ were formally employed (Table 2). Consequently, the household average monthly income was found to be relatively low with majority ( $77.3 \%$ ) earning not more than KES $3,000,15.0 \%$ earning KES 3001 to 6,000 while only a few ( $7.7 \%$ ) had an average household income above KES 6,000.

Approximately one half (50.4\%) of the population lived in grass-thatched houses, $13.8 \%$ in iron sheet roofed, block or brick wall and $35.8 \%$ in iron sheet roofed with mud walls. Their main source of fuel for cooking was firewood which was used by $96.9 \%$ of the participants, $2.3 \%$ used charcoal while $0.8 \%$ gas. Majority used kerosene for lighting ( $96.5 \%$ ), boreholes and wells were the main source of water for domestic use ( $67.3 \%$ ). About twenty percent ( $21.9 \%$ ) fetched their water from rivers or dams while $10.8 \%$ relied in tap water.

Table 2: Description of the Economic Characteristics of the Respondents

| Variable | Categories | Frequency n (\%) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Employment status | Unemployed | $135(51.9)$ |
|  | Self employed | $65(25)$ |
|  | Informally employed | $59(22.7)$ |
|  | Formally employed | $1(0.4)$ |
| Household average <br> monthly income | 3000 and above | $201(77.3)$ |
|  | 3001 to 6000 | $39(15.0)$ |
|  | 6001 and more | $20(7.7)$ |
|  | Grass thatched | Iron sheet roofed, block or |
| brick wall | $36(13.8)$ |  |
|  | Iron sheet roofed, mud wall | $93(35.8)$ |
| Main fuel type used for <br> cooking | Firewood | $252(96.9)$ |
|  | Charcoal | $6(2.3)$ |
|  | Gas | $2(0.8)$ |
| Main fuel used for <br> lighting | Kerosene | $251(96.5)$ |
|  | Electricity/solar | $9(3.5)$ |
| Main water source for <br> domestic use | River or dams | $57(21.9)$ |
|  | Boreholes or wells | $175(67.3)$ |
|  | Tap water | $28(10.8)$ |

## Distribution of Participants According to Lifestyle-related Factors and Nutritional Status

With regard to sedentary behavior, majority (59.6) of the sampled women spent less than four hours resting, $25.8 \%$ four to six hours while $14.6 \%$ more than six hours resting (Table 3). All the women were physically active, $26.5 \%$ reporting less than 20 MET hours/day, $45.4 \%$ at 21 to 40 while $28.1 \%$ reported 41
and above. Majority never consumed alcohol (66.9\%) nor smoked cigarettes (99.2\%).

Nutritional status varied among women, majority ( $76.9 \%$ ) had a normal body mass index while $23.1 \%$ had excessive weight (overweight/obese). Amongst the women sampled, $85.8 \%$ had a normal waist circumference although majority ( $69.6 \%$ ) had an abnormal waist to hip ratio while $30.4 \%$ recorded a normal ratio. In addition, 76.9\% of women maintained a normal body weight.

Table 3: Respondents Lifestyle and Nutritional Status

| Variable | Categories | Frequency n (\%) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sedentary behavior (hours) | 1 to 3 | 155 (59.6) |
|  | 4 to 6 | 67 (25.8) |
|  | 7 to 10 | 38 (14.6) |
| Total physical activity (MET hours/day) | $<20$ | 69 (26.5) |
|  | 21 to 40 | 118 (45.4) |
|  | $\geq 41$ | 73 (28.1) |
| Alcohol consumption | Yes | 86 (33.1) |
|  | No | 174 (66.9) |
| Cigarette smoking | Yes | 2 (0.8) |
|  | No | 258 (99.2) |
| Body mass index (kgm-2 ) | 18.50 to 24.99 | 200 (76.9) |
|  | $\geq 25.00$ | 60 (23.1) |
| Waist circumference (cm) | $\leq 88 \mathrm{~cm}$ | 223 (85.8) |
|  | $>88 \mathrm{~cm}$ | 37 (14.2) |
| Waist to hip ratio | $\leq 0.80$ | 79 (30.4) |
|  | $>0.80$ | 181 (9.6) |

## Relation Between Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of The Participants With Hypertension.

Age, duration lived in Amagoro division and level education showed a significant relationship with
hypertension ( $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ) while marital status, ethnicity, employment status, household size, type of the house lived in, main fuel for cooking, main fuel for lighting and main source of water for domestic use showed no significant relationship with hypertension ( $\mathrm{p}>0.05$ ) (Table 4).

Table 4: Respondent's Socio-Demographic Factors in Association with Hypertension

| Variable | Categories | Blood pressure status |  | Chisquare |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Non-hypertensive | Hypertensive |  |
| Age | $\leq 24$ years | 48 | 1 | 0.000s |
|  | 25 to 44 years | 107 | 27 |  |
|  | 45 to 64 years | 40 | 20 |  |
|  | $\geq 65$ years | 7 | 10 |  |
| Duration lived in Amagoro | < 20 years | 97 | 14 | 0.001s |
|  | $\geq 20$ years | 105 | 44 |  |
| Marital status | Never married | 14 | 2 | 0.26 |
|  | Married | 182 | 52 |  |
|  | Divorced/widowed/ separated | 6 | 4 |  |
| Ethnicity | Teso | 186 | 51 | 0.397 |
|  | Luhya | 11 | 6 |  |
|  | Others | 5 | 1 |  |
| Level of education | Never been to school | 21 | 14 | 0.028s |
|  | Primary incomplete | 104 | 26 |  |
|  | Primary complete | 40 | 6 |  |
|  | Secondary/college | 37 | 12 |  |
| Number of household members | 1 to 3 members | 28 | 14 | 0.119 |
|  | 4 to 6 members | 110 | 31 |  |
|  | $\geq 7$ members | 64 | 13 |  |

## Relation between Economic

 Characteristics of the Participants with HypertensionThe variables that showed significant relationship with hypertension was average household monthly
income ( $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ). Employment status, type of house lived in, main fuel for cooking, main fuel for lighting and main source of water for domestic use showed no significant association with hypertension ( $\mathrm{p}>0.05$ ) (Table 5).

Table 5: Respondents Economic Factors in Relation to Hypertension

| Variable | Categories | Blood Pressure status |  | Chisquare |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Non-hypertensive | Hypertensive |  |
| Employment status | Unemployed | 109 | 26 | 0.454 |
|  | Self employed | 49 | 16 |  |
|  | Formally/informally employed | 44 | 16 |  |
| Monthly income | KES 3000 and below | 163 | 38 | 0.038s |
|  | KES 3001 to 6000 | 27 | 12 |  |
|  | KES 6001 and above | 12 | 8 |  |
| Type of house | Grass thatched | 107 | 24 | 0.289 |
|  | Iron sheet roof, brick/ block wall | 26 | 10 |  |
|  | Iron sheet roof, mud wall | 69 | 24 |  |
| Main fuel for cooking | Firewood | 197 | 55 | 0.512 |
|  | Charcoal/gas | 5 | 3 |  |
| Main fuel for lighting | Kerosene | 195 | 56 | 0.693 |
|  | Solar/electricity | 7 | 2 |  |
| Main source of water for domestic use | River/dams | 44 | 13 | 0.836 |
|  | Boreholes/wells | 135 | 40 |  |
|  | Tap water | 23 | 5 |  |

## Relationship between Lifestyle and Nutritional Status with Hypertension

Sedentary behavior showed significant association with hypertension ( $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ) (Table 6). Physical activity,

BMI, waist circumference and waist-to-hip ratio did not show any significant relationship with hypertension ( $\mathrm{p}>0.05$ ).

Table 6: Respondent's Lifestyle and Nutritional Status' Relationship with Hypertension

| Variable | Categories | Blood Pressure status |  | Chisquare |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Non-hypertensive | Hypertensive |  |
| Sedentary behavior | 1 to 3 hours | 129 | 26 | 0.007 s |
|  | 4 to 6 hours | 43 | 24 |  |
|  | 7 to 10 hours | 30 | 8 |  |
| Physical activity (MET hours/day) | $\leq 20$ | 90 | 28 | 0.869 |
|  | 21 to 40 | 54 | 15 |  |
|  | $\geq 41$ | 58 | 15 |  |
| BMI (kg/m2) | Normal | 151 | 49 | 0.121 |
|  | Overweight / obesity | 51 | 9 |  |
| Waist circumference (WC) | $\leq 88 \mathrm{~cm}$ | 177 | 46 | 0.110 |
|  | > 88 cm | 25 | 12 |  |
| Waist to hip ratio (WHR) | $\leq 0.80 \mathrm{~cm}$ | 62 | 17 | 0.840 |
|  | $>0.80 \mathrm{~cm}$ | 140 | 41 |  |
| Alcohol consumption | Yes | 68 | 18 | 0.710 |
|  | No | 134 | 40 |  |
| Cigarette smoking | Yes | 1 | 1 | 0.340 |
|  | No | 201 | 57 |  |

## Effects of Respondents

Social-Economic Factors on Hypertension
Binary logistic regression analysis showed that older participants were more likely to suffer from hypertension than the young (Table 7). Respondents aged 24 years and below were less likely to suffer from hypertension as opposed to those aged between 25 to 44 years who were 12 times more likely to suffer from hypertension. Respondents aged between 45 to 64 years were 24 times more like while those 65 years and over were 68.6 times more likely to suffer from hypertension as compared to those aged below 24 years. Respondents above 64 years of age were almost three times likely to suffer from hypertension $(\mathrm{OR}=2.86)$ compared to those
aged between 25 and 44 years. Similarly, respondents who had lived in Amagoro for over 20 years were almost three times $(\mathrm{OR}=2.90, \mathrm{p}=0.002)$ likely to suffer from hypertension that those who had been there for fewer number of years. Although the association was not significant, those participants who went to secondary school and above were two times less likely to suffer from hypertension compared to those who never went to school. Participants with household average monthly income above KES 6000 per month were more likely $(\mathrm{OR}=2.86, \mathrm{p}=0.032)$ to suffer from hypertension as opposed to those with an income of KES 3000 and below.

Those who spent 6 hours or more resting are more likely to suffer from hypertension as opposed to those spending 1 to 3 hours ( $\mathrm{OR}=3.74, \mathrm{p}=0.354$ ).

Table 7: Binary Logistic Regression for Social-Demo-Economic Factors and Hypertension

| Variable | Categories | p-value | Odds Ratio (95\% CI) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age | 24 years and below (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | 25 to 44 | 0.016 | 12.11(1.6-97.74) |
|  | 45 to 64 | 0.002 | 24.00 (3.08-186.75) |
|  | 65 years and above | 0.000 | 68.57 (7.57-620.89) |
| Duration lived in Amagoro | Below 20 years (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | 20 years and above | 0.002 | 2.90 (1.50-5.63) |
| Level of education | Never been to school | 0.132 | 2.06 (0.80-5.26) |
|  | Primary incomplete | 0.513 | 0.77 (0.35-1.68) |
|  | Primary complete | 0.161 | 0.46 (0.19-1.36) |
|  | Secondary/college (reference) | - | 1.00 |
| Household average monthly income | KES 3000 and below (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | KES 3001 to 6000 | 0.099 | 1.91 (0.89-4.10) |
|  | KES 6001 and above | 0.032 | 2.86 (1.09-7.48) |
| Sedentary behavior | 1 to 5 hours (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | 6 hours and above | 0.354 | 3.74 (0.23-60.72) |

Variables that showed significant association ( $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ) with hypertension at bivariate analysis were subjected to a multivariate logistic regression analysis [12].
Multivariate Logistic Regression Analysis with Regard to Hypertension

Age and a higher household average monthly income showed significant association with hypertension ( $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ) (Table 8). Respondents aged 65 years and above were 96 times ( $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ) more likely to suffer from hypertension than those aged 24 years and below. Respondents with average household income of KES 6000 per month were almost four times ( $\mathrm{OR}=3.88$, $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ ) more likely to suffer from hypertension as opposed to those with KES 3000 or less.

Table 8: Multivariate Logistic Regression in Relation to Hypertension

| Variables | Categories | p-value | Adjusted Odds <br> Ratio (95\% CI) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age | $\leq 24$ years (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | 25 to 44 | 0.023 | 11.19 (1.39-90.32) |
|  | 45 to 64 | 0.006 | 20.07 (2.34-172.31) |
|  | $\geq 65$ years | 0.001 | 96.32 (7.17-1294.52) |
| Duration lived in Amagoro | < 20 years (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | $\geq 20$ years | 0.144 | 1.86 (0.81-4.26) |
| Level of education | Never been to school | 0.458 | 0.58 (0.13-2.47) |
|  | Primary incomplete | 0.871 | 0.93 (0.37-2.32) |
|  | Primary complete | 0.510 | 0.65 (0.19-2.32) |
|  | Secondary/college (reference) | - | 1.00 |
| Average monthly income of the household | $\leq$ KES 3000 (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | KES 3001 to 6000 | 0.159 | 1.88 (0.78-4.54) |
|  | $\geq$ KES 6000 | 0.029 | 3.88 (1.15-13.02) |
| Sedentary behavior | 1 to 5 hours (reference) | - | 1.00 |
|  | $\geq 6$ hours | 0.271 | 5.13 (0.28-94.13) |

## Discussion <br> Prevalence of Hypertension and Associated Factors

The prevalence of hypertension among women of Amagoro was $22.3 \%$. A prevuois national survey conducted among the 47 counties in Kenya reported an overall hypertension prevalence of $24.5 \%$ [6]. A prevalence of $29.4 \%$ was reported in an urban slum of Kibera [34], among rural women $44.5 \%$ was recorded [16].

## Socio-Demographic and Economic Characteristics of the Participants in Relation to Hypertension

In the study $36.6 \%$ of the women had completed basic primary school education and above as opposed to approximately $60 \%$ of the respondents in a nationwide survey [6]. However that nationwide survey included both male and female respondents [6]. The women were generally active above the threshold set by the World Health Organization (WHO) minimum of 150 minutes throughout the week of moderate-intensive activity [35]. Majority accumulating more than 20, MET hours per day. This high level of activity was attributed to the fact that farming was the main economic activity in the area and women spent most of their time in the farms digging [36].

Previous reports regarding marital status and hypertension remain inconsistent and dependent on gender [37]. For instance a study on African-Americans found that men who were never married had a higher risk [20] while another study reported a higher prevalence among single women and less common among single men as opposed to the married [22]. Married, cohabiting and previously married women were reported to be vulnerable to hypertension [37].

This study showed no association between ethnicity and hypertension risk possibly due to the fact that about $91 \%$ came from the same ethnic grouping. A separate study conducted in Kenya found differences in prevalence of hypertension among Kikuyus and Kalenjins [23]. Other studies have also reported some association between ethnicity and hypertension [17, 21, 22].

Despite lack of association among women of Amagoro, a previous study showed that employed women were less likely to develop hypertension than the homemakers [25]. Additionally, job constraints had been showed to increase the risk of hypertension in women [38]. Lack of association between hypertension and employment among women of Amagoro could possibly be because most of them were unemployed [36].

This study reported similar findings with regard to the level of education $[26,27]$ although some study found no association [18]. Other studies reported association only in women and not men [26, 27].

## Lifestyle and Nutritional Status in Relation to Hypertension

In a study conducted in Southern India [17] did not find any association between physical activity and hypertension. Other studies recorded contrary findings as regards to BMI $[6,12,18,28]$, alcohol consumption and use of cigarette [6] although nearly all women did not smoke cigarettes in this study.

## Independent Risk Factors for Hypertension among Women of Amagoro

The strongest independent risk factors associated with hypertension among women of Amagoro was;

1. Households' average monthly income
2. Age.

Respondents who earned the highest (KES $\geq 6000$ ) were more likely to suffer from hypertension than those earning the least ( $\leq$ KES 3000).

A previous national survey reported that, hypertension prevalence increased with improved wealth status; individuals from the richest households had higher hypertension $29.0 \%$ compared with those from the poorest households $19.4 \%$ [6].

Material resources which could be linked to income have been found to be positively associated with hypertension [39]. It was suggested that being disadvantaged in early and adult life may be associated with high blood pressure [40]. On the contrary other studies have associated low income levels to higher
prevalence of hypertension [41, 42]. Khan and Manzoor [43] did not find as significant relationship and a separate study found elevated blood pressure levels in low as well as in high-income groups [44].

The elderly ( $\geq 65$ years) women were found to be more likely to suffer from hypertension that the young ( $\leq 24$ years). This finding is in agreement with similar studies linking advancing age with increased prevalence of hypertension $[2,5,10,18,30,31]$ although a separate study conducted in Kenya showed a higher prevalence among younger age groups compared to the older groups [16]

The increasing prevalence with age could be due to elevated homocysteine levels which have been found to increase gradually with age [31, 45] but much more in patients aged 65 years and above [31]. The concentrations of homocysteine including its metabolites were significantly higher in hypertensive patients ( $\mathrm{p}<0.01$ ). High homocystein level [45] and stiffening of the arteries during ageing [10] could be used to explain the increasing prevalence of hypertension with age in this study.

In a society where life expectancy is rising, hypertension intervention strategies should be targeted not only on the elderly but also on young people to encourage them modify their lifestyle in order to prevent age-related risks that trigger hypertension [5]. For instance, home-based health education and restricting dietary salt intake have been proposed to prevent development of hypertension [46]. More resources should also be allocated to cater for the ageing population. Regular screening, management and treatment of hypertension should specifically be targeted to this vulnerable group of women.

## Conclusion

Ageing and higher income were the strongest independent risk factors for hypertension among rural women of Kenya. With rising life expectancy, hypertension intervention strategies should target the elderly. More resources should therefore be allocated to cater for the ageing population. Strategies such as regular screening, management and treatment of hypertension should specifically be targeted to this vulnerable group of women. In addition lifestyle modifications should also be advocated among young people in order to prevent age-related risks that trigger
hypertension. Health education should be offered to the women in order to sensitize them on the risk factors and the need for lifestyle change.

## References

1. Kim J and J. 0 I. Age-Dependent Association between Sleep Duration and Hypertension in the Adult Korean Population. American Journal of Hypertension. 2010; 23(12): 1286-1291 doi:10.1038/ ajh.2010.166.
2. Lionakis N., Mendrinos D., Sanidas E, Favatas G, and Georgopoulou M. Hypertension in the elderly. World Journal of Cardiology; 2012; 4(5): 135-147.
3. Alcocer L and Cueto L. Hypertension, a health economics perspective. Therapeutic Advances in Cardiovascular Disease. 2008; 2(3): 147-155. DOI: 10.1177/ 1753944708090572.
4. Datta B. K, Husain M. J and Asma S. Assessing the relationship between out-of-pocket spending on blood pressure and diabetes medication and household catastrophic health expenditure: evidence from Pakistan. International Journal of Equity Health. 2019; 18, 9. https://doi.org/10.1186/ s12939-018-0906-x.
5. Oliveros E., Patel H., Kyung S., Fugar S., Goldberg A., Madan N. and Williams K..A. Hypertension in older adults: Assessment, management, and challenges. Clinical cardiology. 2020; 43(2): 99-107. https://doi.org/10.1002/ clc. 23303 .
6. Mohamed S.F, Mutua M.K, Wamai R, Wekesah F, Haregu T, Juma P, Nyanjau L, Kyobutungi C. and Ogola E. Prevalence, awareness, treatment and control of hypertension and their determinants: results from a national survey in Kenya. BMC Public Health. 2018; 18 (Suppl 3), 1219doi: 10.1186/s12889-018-6052-y.
7. Hendriks M.E, Wit, F.W.N.M., Roos M.T.L, Brewster L.M, Akande T.M, de Beer I.H, Mfinanga SG, Kahwa AM, Gatongi P, Van Rooy G, Janssens W, Lammers J, Berber KB, Bonfrer I, Gaeb E, van der Gaag J, de Wit TFR,

Lange JMA and Schultsz C. Hypertension in SubSaharan Africa: Cross-Sectional Surveys in Four Rural and Urban Communities. Plos One. 2012. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone. 0032638.
8. WHO. World Health Statistics 2017: Monitoring health for the SDGs. 2017. https://www.who.int/ gho/publications/world_health_statistics/2017/en/. Accessed on 10th March, 2020.
9. Manus M.B, Bloomfield G.S, Leonard A.S, Guidera L.D, Samson D.R and Nunn C.L. High prevalence of hypertension in an agricultural village in Madagascar. PLoS One. 2018; 16: 13(8):e0201616. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone. 0201616. eCollection 2018.
10. Sun Z. Aging, Arterial Stiffness and Hypertension. Hypertension. 2015 ; 65(2) : 252-256 doi : 10.1161/ HYPERTENSIONAHA.114.03617.
11. Diaz K.M and Shimbo D. Physical Activity and the Prevention of Hypertension. Current Hypertension Reports. 2013 ; 15(6) : $659-668$. https : //doi : 10.1007/s11906-013-0386-8.
12. Onyango M.J, Kombe I, Nyamongo D.S, and Mwangi M. A study to determine the prevalence and factors associated with hypertension among employees working at a call centre Nairobi Kenya. The Pan African medical journal. 2017; 27: 178. https://doi.org/10.11604/pamj.2017.27.178.13073.
13. Laxmaiah A, Meshram II, Arlappa N, Balakrishna N, Rao MK, Reddy CG, Ravindranath M, Kumar S, Kumar H and Brahmam GNV. Socio-economic \& demographic determinants of hypertension \& knowledge, practices \& risk behaviour of tribals in India. Indian Journal of Medical Research. 2015; 141(5): 697-708.doi: 10.4103/0971-5916.159592.
14. Mkuu RS, Gilreath TD, Wekullo C, Reyes GA, Harvey IS. Social determinants of hypertension and type-2 diabetes in Kenya: A latent class analysis of a nationally representative sample. PLoS One. 2019; 14(8): e0221257. https://doi. org/10.1371/journal.pone. 0221257.
15. Vijver S, Oti S, Agyemang C, Gomez G and

Kyobutungi K. Prevalence, awareness, treatment and control of hypertension among slum dwellers in Nairobi, Kenya. Journal of Hypertension. 2013; 31(5) DOI: 10.1097/HJH.0b013e32835e3a56.
16. Messer LH, McFann K, Kennedy K and Hokanson J.E. High Prevalence of Hypertension in Rural and Urban Populations in Kenya. Conference Paper, November 2010 Conference: 138st APHA Annual Meeting and Exposition 2010.
17. Singh M, Kotwal A, Mittal C, Babu SR, Bharti S and Ram CVS. Prevalence and correlates of hypertension in a semi-rural population of Southern India. Journal of Hypertension. 2018; 32: 66-74.
18. Cuschieri S, Vassallo J, Calleja N, Pace $\mathbf{N}$ and Mamo J. The Effects of Socioeconomic Determinants on Hypertension in a Cardiometabolic At-Risk European Country. International Journal of Hypertension. 2017; Volume 2017|Article ID 7107385 | 7 pages | https:// doi.org/10.1155/2017/7107385.
19. Acheampong K, Nyamari JM, Ganu D, Appiah S, Pan X, Kaminga A and Liu A. Predictors of Hypertension among adult female population in Kpone-Katamanso District, Ghana. International Journal of Hypertension. 2019; Article ID 1876060, 9 pages. https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/1876060.
20. Ramezankhani A, Azizi F and Hadaegh F. Associations of marital status with diabetes, hypertension, cardiovascular disease and allcause mortality: A long term follow-up study; PlosOne. 2019. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal. pone. 0215593.
21. Covassin N, Greene, EL, Singh P and Somers VK. Disparities in Hypertension among AfricanAmericans: Implications of Insufficient Sleep. Current Hypertension Reports. 2018; 8(7): 57. doi: 10.1007/s11906-018-0855-1.
22. Schwandt HM, Coresh J and Hindin MJ. Marital Status, Hypertension, Coronary Heart Disease, Diabetes, and Death among African American Women and Men: Incidence and Prevalence in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC)

Study Participants. Journal of Family Issues. 2010; 31(9): 1211-1229.doi: 10.1177/0192513X10365487.
23. Mathenge W, Foster $\mathbf{A}$ and Kuper H. Urbanization, ethnicity and cardiovascular risk in a population in transition in Nakuru, Kenya: a population-based survey. BMC Public Health. 2010; 10: 569. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-10-569.
24. Zagożdżon P, Parszuto M, Wrotkowska D and Dydjow-Bendek D. Effect of unemployment on cardiovascular risk factors and mental health. Occupational Medicine. 2014; 64 (6): 436-441, https://doi.org/10.1093/occmed/kqu044.
25. Rose KM, Newman B, Tyroler HA, Szklo M, Arnett D and Srivastava N. Women, employment status, and hypertension: cross-sectional and prospective findings from the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) Study. Annals of Epidemiology. 1999; 9(6): 374-82.
26. Jaramillo PL, Lopez PAC., Arbelaez, DG, Alvarado L, Molina DI, Sanchez G, Arcos E, Narvaez C, Garcia H, Perez M, Cañon W, Cure C, Sotomayor A, Rico A, David T, Rangarajan S, Yusuf S. Educational Level Influence in the Prevalence, Awareness, Treatment and Control of Hypertension in Colombia. Journal of Hypertension. 2015; 33: 392-393. doi: 10.1097/01. hjh.0000468603.20917.d5.
27. Kautzky-Willer A, Dorner T, Jensby A, Rieder A. Women show a closer association between educational level and hypertension or diabetes mellitus than males: a secondary analysis from the Austrian HIS. BMC Public Health. 2012; 12: 392. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-12-392.
28. Chege P. Multiple cardiovascular disease risk factors in rural Kenya: evidence from a health and demographic surveillance system using the WHO STEP-wise approach to chronic disease risk factor surveillance. South African Family Practice. 2016; 58: 54-61. https://doi.org/10.1080/20786190 .2015.1114703.
29. WHO. World health statistics 2018: monitoring health for the SDGs, sustainable development goals. Geneva: World Health Organization;
2018..https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/hand le/10665/272596/9789241565585-eng.pdf.
30. Liew SJ, Lee JT, Tan CS, Koh CGG, Dam RV and Müller-Riemenschneider F. Sociodemographic factors in relation to hypertension prevalence, awareness, treatment and control in a multi-ethnic Asian population: a cross-sectional study. BMJ Open. 2019; 9(5): 1-10. doi: 10.1136/ bmjopen-2018-025869.
31. Yao Y, Gao L.J, Zhou Y, Zhao J.H, Lv Q, Dong $\mathbf{J Z}$ and Shang M.S. Effect of advanced age on plasma homocysteine levels and its association with ischemic stroke in non-valvular atrial fibrillation. Journal of Geriatric Cardiology: JGC. 2017; 14(12): 743-749. https://doi.org/10.11909/j. issn.1671-5411.2017.12.004.
32. Kenya National Bureau of Statistics. Population and housing census of Kenya, 2009. https:// kenya.opendataforafrica.org/KEPOPHUS2015/ population-and-housing-census-of-kenya-2009
33. Fox N, Hunn A and Mathers N. Sampling and sample size calculation. Leeds: The National Institute for Health Research- Research Design Service for the East Midlands / Yorkshire and the Humber. 2009. http://www.webpages.uidaho. edu/ed571/571-Modules/M3/NIHS-Sampling_ Sample_Size_calculation.pdf.
34. Olack B, Wabwire-Mangen F, Smeeth L, Montgomery JM, Kiwanuka,K, and Breiman RF. Risk factors of hypertension among adults aged 35-64 years living in an urban slum Nairobi, Kenya. BMC Public Health. 2015; 17:15, 1251. doi: 10.1186/s12889-015-2610-8.
35. World Health Organization (WHO). Global recommendations on physical activity for health. 2010. Retrieved on 20th March, 2020 from http:// www.who.int/dietphysicalactivity/factsheet_ adults/en/.
36. Ebere R.A, Kimani V.K and Imungi J.K. (2017). Dietary patterns of the Iteso community living in Amagoro Division in Western Kenya. IOSR Journal of Nursing and Health Science. 2017; 6(3) Ver. VII: 1-9. DOI: 10.9790/1959-0603070109.
37. Yuoyire DA and Ayetey H. Gender Differences in the Association between Marital Status and Hypertension in Ghana. Journal of Biosocial Science. 2018; 51(3): 1 - 22 .Doi: 10.1017 / S0021932018000147.
38. Radi S, Lang T, Lauwers-Cancès V, Diène E, Chatellier G, Larabi L and De Gaudemaris R. Job constraints and arterial hypertension: different effects in men and women: the IHPAF II case control study. Occupational and Environmental Medicine. 2005; 62: 711-717.
39. Ploubidis GB, Mathenge W, De Stavola B, Grundy E, Foster A. and Kuper H. Socioeconomic position and later life prevalence of hypertension, diabetes and visual impairment in Nakuru, Kenya. International Journal of public health. 2013; 58(1): 133-41.doi: 10.1007/s00038-012-0389-2.
40. Bann D, Fluharty M, Hardy R and Scholes S. Socio-economic inequalities in blood pressure: co-ordinated analysis of 147,775 participants from repeated birth cohort and cross-sectional datasets, 1989 to 2016. A preprint article; 2019; doi: https:// doi.org/10.1101/2019.12.19.19015313.
41. Shaun S, Anne C, and Jennifer AM. Income - based inequalities in hypertension and in undiagnosed hypertension analysis of Health Survey for England data; Journal of Hypertension. 2020 (volume published ahead of print, downloaded on 26-02-2020). doi: 10.1097/ HJH. 0000000000002350.
42. Anstey DE, Christian J and Shimbo D. Income Inequality and Hypertension Control. Journal of the American Heart Foundation. 2019; 8(5). https://doi.org/10.1161/JAHA.119.013636.
43. Khan T.H and Manzoor U. The relationship with family income, family size, age and circumferences with blood pressure in the female students of the Bahaudd in Zakariya University, Multan, Pakistan. Anthropol Anz 2002; 60(3): 2938.
44. Mendez MA, Cooper R, Wilks R, Luke A and Forrester T. Income, education, and blood pressure in adults in Jamaica, a middle-income developing country. Great Britain International Journal of Epidemiology. 2003; 32:400-408 DOI: 10.1093/ije/dyg083.
45. Mendis S, Athauda SBP, Naser M, and Takahashi K. Association between Hyperhomocysteinaemia and Hypertension in Sri Lankans. The Journal of International Medical Research. 2017; 27: 38-44.
46. Saif-Ur-Rahman K.M, Islam S.S, Hasan M., Hossain S., Mamun R., Shafique S., Mamun A., Khalequzzaman M, Haseen A and Anwar I. Non pharmacological interventions for the prevention of hypertension in low- and middleincome countries: a systematic review and metaanalysis. Journal of Human Hypertension. 2019; 33, 786-794.

