Relation of Arterial Structure and Function to Left Ventricular Geometric Patterns in Hypertensive Adults

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Objectives. The present study sought to determine whether conduit artery structure and function vary according to the pattern of left ventricular adaptation to hypertension.

Background. Although left ventricular geometric pattern has been shown to predict cardiovascular events in hypertension, the arterial status in patients with the different patterns is unknown.

Methods. We evaluated arterial structure and function by carotid ultrasound and applanation tonometry in 271 unmedicated hypertensive patients classified by echocardiography as having normal ventricular geometry (n = 176), concentric remodeling (n = 54), concentric hypertrophy (n = 16) or eccentric hypertrophy (n = 25).

Results. All groups were similar in age, gender distribution and body size. Patients with concentric and eccentric hypertrophy had similar blood pressures (mean 173/100 and 171/99 mm Hg, respectively) and left ventricular mass, but compared with patients with normal left ventricular geometry and concentric remodeling, only those with concentric hypertrophy had increased arterial wall thickness $(0.96 \pm 0.20 \text{ vs.} 0.80 \pm 0.18 \text{ mm, p} < 0.05)$,

end-diastolic diameter (6.38 \pm 0.97 vs. 5.76 \pm 0.87 mm, p < 0.05), cross-sectional area (22.1 \pm 5.71 vs. 16.6 \pm 5.4 mm², p < 0.05) and elastic modulus (713 \pm 265 vs. 471 \pm 241 dynes/cm² \times 10 $^{-6}$, p < 0.05). Patients with concentric remodeling and eccentric hypertrophy had similar values for these measures (0.85 \pm 0.22 and 0.89 \pm 0.21 mm, 5.67 \pm 0.77 and 6.04 \pm 0.44 mm, 17.2 \pm 5.4 and 19.7 \pm 5.9 mm², 558 \pm 263 and 614 \pm 257 dynes/cm² \times 10 $^{-6}$, respectively), despite lower systolic blood pressures in the former group (156/94 mm Hg, p < 0.001). The prevalence of plaque was comparable in patients with concentric (56%) and eccentric (42%) hypertrophy and significantly greater in those with normal geometry (21%).

Conclusions. Among patients with generally mild, uncomplicated systemic hypertension, arterial structure and function are most abnormal when concentric left ventricular hypertrophy is present and may contribute to the more adverse outcome associated with this geometric pattern.

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Recent studies have challenged the traditional concept that the heart consistently responds to systemic hypertension by developing concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and have demonstrated a wider spectrum of left ventricular geometric patterns in hypertensive patients (1–7). Classification of patients based on whether left ventricular muscle mass and the left ventricular wall thickness/chamber radius ratio ("relative wall thickness" [8]) are normal or abnormal yields four groups with different left ventricular geometric patterns: normal geometry (normal mass and relative wall thickness), concentric hypertrophy (an increase in both left ventricular mass with normal relative wall thickness), eccentric hypertrophy (increased left ventricular mass with normal wall thickness) and the recently

identified pattern of concentric left ventricular remodeling (increased relative wall thickness with normal mass [1]). Studies that have grouped hypertensive patients by these geometric patterns have revealed distinctive profiles of systemic hemodynamics (1,5), ambulatory blood pressure (3), plasma volume (9), myocardial performance (5) and prognosis (2,7).

However, no information is currently available on whether hypertensive patients with different left ventricular geometric patterns also differ with regard to the structure and function of their systemic arterial tree. Indirect support for this possibility is provided by evidence from several laboratories of relations between arterial geometry and function and left ventricular structure, which remain significant after adjustment for the effects of age, gender and arterial pressure (10-14). Accordingly, the present study was undertaken to examine arterial structure and function by ultrasound and applanation tonometry of the extracranial carotid arteries in unmedicated hypertensive adults with echocardiographically classified left ventricular geometric patterns. In addition, the relation of left ventricular geometric pattern to carotid atherosclerosis was determined in view of the recent observations of increasing risk of stroke with increasing quartile of left ventricular mass (15)

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and the independent association of increased left ventricular mass with the presence of carotid atherosclerosis (14,16).

Methods

Patients. Hypertensive patients were eligible for the study if they 1) had no clinical evidence of cardiac or cerebrovascular disease; 2) had no evidence of valvular heart disease on imaging and Doppler echocardiography; 3) were either previously unmedicated or had been free of antihypertensive medications for at least 3 weeks (with periods ranging up to 6 years); and 4) had technically satisfactory echocardiograms and carotid ultrasound studies. Hypertension was documented by systolic arterial blood pressure >140 mm Hg (>160 mm Hg in subjects ≥65 years old) or diastolic arterial blood pressure 90 mm Hg, or both, on the average of multiple determinations by arm-cuff and mercury manometry. Subjects consisted of hypertensive members of a work site-based sample of employed adults or patients undergoing diagnostic evaluation of their hypertension at The New York Hospital-Cornell Medical Center, as previously described in part (14,17).

Echocardiographic methods. M-mode and two-dimensional echocardiograms were performed by a skilled research technician using previously described methods (18). M-mode stripchart recordings of the left ventricle on up to six high quality cycles were coded and read blindly by a single investigator (M.J.R.) using a digitizing tablet. Penn convention measurements were used to calculate left ventricular mass (19,20), which was indexed for body surface area. American Society of Echocardiography measurements (21) were used for left ventricular chamber diameter, wall thickness and relative wall thickness. When the M-mode beam could not be oriented along the left ventricular minor axis from available chest wall acoustic windows, measurements made by the American Society of Echocardiography recommendations for twodimensional echocardiography (22) were substituted. Brachial blood pressure was taken at the end of the echocardiographic examination.

Partition values used to classify left ventricular geometric patterns were the same as those previously used for comparison with ambulatory blood pressures (3). Patients were classified as abnormal if the left ventricular relative wall thickness exceeded 0.41 (1) or if the left ventricular mass index exceeded 108 g/m² in women or 118 g/m² in men (23).

Carotid ultrasound. As previously described (10,14), a 7.5-MHz duplex transducer was used to scan the common, internal and external carotid arteries for discrete atherosclerotic plaques (24). Two-dimensionally guided M-mode recordings of the distal common carotid artery were recorded on videotape and subsequently digitized using a frame grabber and customized software (ARTSS Cornell Research Foundation). Electronic calipers were used to measure the internal diameter (D_d) and far wall intimal-medial thickness (IMT_d) (25) at end-diastole, recognized from the nadir of the simultaneous arterial pressure waveform or the minimal arterial diameter, as well as the diameter at peak systole (D_s). Arterial

geometry was further characterized by calculation of the arterial relative wall thickness (RWT_{art}) as

$$RWT_{art} = 2 * IMT_d/D_d$$

and of the arterial cross-sectional area (CSA) as

$$CSA = \pi * (IMT_d + [D_d/2])^2 - \pi * (D_d/2)^2.$$

Arterial function assessment. A high fidelity arterial pressure waveform was recorded noninvasively by placing a solid-state Millar transducer over the right common carotid artery while recording M-mode images of the left common carotid artery, as previously described (26). Orientation and pressure applied to the transducer were adjusted to achieve applanation of the artery between the transducer and the underlying tissue, as has been validated to yield accurate estimates of intraarterial pulse pressure by comparison with simultaneous invasive pressure recordings (27,28). Systolic and diastolic carotid artery pressures were derived by calibrating the electronic mean of the carotid artery pressure waveform using the mean brachial artery pressure derived from the arm-cuff and mercury manometer measurements (26).

Arterial strain, the percent systolic expansion of the arterial lumen, was calculated as

Strain =
$$([D_s - D_d]/D_d) * 100$$
.

Carotid pressures, D_d , D_s and IMT_d were used to calculate several measures of arterial stiffness. Peterson's elastic modulus (E_p) (29) was calculated as

$$E_p = ([P_s - P_d]/[D_s - D_d]) * D_d,$$

where P_s and P_d are the carotid systolic and diastolic pressures, respectively. Young's modulus (E) (30) was calculated as

$$E = ([P_s - P_d]/[D_s - D_d]) * ([D_d + D_s]/[IMT_d]).$$

Carotid artery stiffness was also calculated using a pressure-independent measure (β) (31,32):

$$\beta = (\ln[P_s - P_d]) * ([D_s - D_d]/D_d).$$

These measures provide indexes of regional arterial stiffness under the vessel's usual loading conditions (E_p) or which adjust for the effects of arterial wall thickening (E) and distending pressure (β) .

Statistical methods. Statistical analyses were performed using SPSS, Release 6.1. Data are presented as the mean value \pm SD. Continuous variables were compared by one-way analysis of variance followed by the Scheffé post hoc test for multiple comparisons. The normality of distribution of variables was assessed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov or Shapiro-Wilks test; variables found to deviate from normality were log-transformed before application of statistical tests. Proportions were compared among groups by the chi-square statistic. The null hypothesis was rejected at p < 0.05.

Results

Patient characteristics (Table 1). The 271 subjects had a mean age of 55 ± 12 years (range 25 to 88). Patients in the four

Table 1. Demographic and Clinical Variables

| | Normal Geometry | Concentric Remodeling | Eccentric Hypertrophy | Concentric | Overall |
|-------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|------------|
| Variable | (n = 176) | (n = 54) | (n = 25) | Hypertrophy $(n = 16)$ | p Value |
| Age (yr) | 53.5 ± 11.3 | 57.3 ± 12.7 | 57.5 ± 10.6 | 58.2 ± 12.7 | 0.07 |
| Gender (% male) | 61 | 65 | 64 | 69 | 0.91 |
| Race (% white) | 71 | 57 | 64 | 38 | 0.18 |
| BSA (m ²) | 1.89 ± 0.22 | 1.88 ± 0.23 | 1.90 ± 0.25 | 1.89 ± 0.27 | 0.99 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 26.5 ± 3.8 | 27.1 ± 4.9 | 27.6 ± 4.1 | 27.4 ± 4.9 | 0.47 |
| Blood pressure (mm Hg) | | | | | |
| Systolic | 151 ± 18 | 156 ± 20 | 171 ± 30*† | $173 \pm 21*\dagger$ | < 0.0001 |
| Diastolic | 91 ± 9 | 94 ± 12 | 99 ± 13‡ | $100 \pm 16 \ddagger$ | < 0.0001 |
| Total cholesterol (mg/dl) | 222 ± 42 | 223 ± 42 | 237 ± 53 | 224 ± 51 | 0.55 |
| HDL cholesterol (mg/dl) | 55 ± 16 | 55 ± 16 | 54 ± 17 | 50 ± 18 | 0.75 |
| Serum creatinine (mg/dl) | 1.0 ± 0.2 | 1.1 ± 0.2 | 1.0 ± 0.2 | 1.0 ± 0.2 | 0.17 |
| Smoking (% former or current) | 44 | 47 | 48 | 25 | 0.44 |

^{*}p < 0.001 versus normal geometry. †p < 0.001 versus concentric remodeling. ‡p < 0.05 versus normal geometry. Data are presented as mean value \pm SD or percent of patients. BSA = body surface area; BMI = body mass index; HDL = high density lipoprotein.

groups characterized by different left ventricular geometric patterns were similar regarding gender distribution, body size, serum lipids and smoking history. Although race did not significantly differ among the groups, patients with concentric hypertrophy were predominantly African-American or African-Caribbean. Likewise, there were no differences in serum creatinine in this healthy group. Patients with either pattern of left ventricular hypertrophy had substantially elevated brachial systolic and diastolic pressures.

Left ventricular structure (Table 2). By definition, left ventricular mass was increased in the groups with concentric and eccentric hypertrophy, whereas relative wall thickness was increased in the groups with the two concentric patterns. Left ventricular end-diastolic diameter was significantly reduced in the concentric remodeling group in comparison with the three other groups, whereas left ventricular end-diastolic diameter was significantly increased in the eccentric hypertrophy group in comparison with all the other groups.

Carotid artery structure (Table 3, Fig. 1). Compared with patients with normal left ventricular geometry, only patients with concentric hypertrophy demonstrated significant increases in carotid artery size, as evidenced by end-diastolic diameter, cross-sectional area and intimal-medial thickness.

Patients with concentric hypertrophy, likewise, had significant increases in arterial diameter and cross-sectional area compared with those with concentric remodeling. Despite substantially higher systolic and diastolic pressures, arterial structure in patients with eccentric hypertrophy was similar to that in patients with normal geometry and concentric remodeling. The prevalence of plaque was significantly increased in the two hypertrophy groups.

Arterial function (Table 4). Vascular strain was lowest and elastic modulus highest in patients with concentric hypertrophy. However, when structural adaptation (wall thickening) and distending pressure were considered by Young's modulus and β , respectively, differences between the four groups were no longer statistically significant.

Discussion

Left ventricular geometry and carotid hypertrophy. Although classification of left ventricular geometric patterns in patients with hypertension strongly predicts the incidence of subsequent vascular events (2,7,33,34), little is known about arterial structure and function in patients with different left ventricular geometric adaptations. The principal new findings

Table 2. Left Ventricular Structure and Function

| Variable | Normal Geometry (n = 176) | Concentric Remodeling $(n = 54)$ | Eccentric Hypertrophy $(n = 25)$ | Concentric Hypertrophy $(n = 16)$ | Overall p Value |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| End-diastolic diameter (cm) | 5.03 ± 0.43* | 4.54 ± 0.33 | 5.63 ± 0.45*†‡ | 5.21 ± 0.37* | < 0.0001 |
| Fractional shortening (%) | 38 ± 5 | 39 ± 6 | 34 ± 7§∥ | 38 ± 5 | < 0.005 |
| Septal thickness (cm) | 0.93 ± 0.11 | $1.06 \pm 0.10 \dagger$ | $1.08 \pm 0.13 \dagger$ | $1.21 \pm 0.14 \dagger * \P$ | < 0.0001 |
| Posterior wall thickness (cm) | 0.87 ± 0.09 | $1.02 \pm 0.07 \dagger$ | $1.01 \pm 0.10 \dagger$ | $1.15 \pm 0.10 \dagger * \P$ | < 0.0001 |
| Relative wall thickness | 0.35 ± 0.03 | $0.45 \pm 0.04 \dagger \#$ | 0.36 ± 0.04 | $0.44 \pm 0.02 \dagger \#$ | < 0.0001 |
| Mass (g) | 161.6 ± 38.3 | 164.8 ± 28.6 | $236.7 \pm 47.5*\dagger$ | 246.8 ± 55.1*† | < 0.0001 |
| Mass index (g/m ²) | 85.1 ± 15.3 | 87.6 ± 11.2 | 123.6 ± 11.8*† | 129.1 ± 13.2*† | < 0.0001 |

^{*}p < 0.001 versus concentric remodeling. †p < 0.001 versus normal geometry. ‡p < 0.05 versus concentric hypertrophy. \$p < 0.01 versus normal geometry. |p| < 0.005 versus concentric hypertrophy. Data are presented as mean value \pm SD.

Table 3. Carotid Artery Structure

| Variable | Normal Geometry $(n = 176)$ | Concentric Remodeling (n = 54) | Eccentric Hypertrophy (n = 25) | Concentric Hypertrophy $(n = 16)$ | Overall p Value |
|---|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| End-diastolic diameter (mm) | 5.76 ± 0.87 | 5.67 ± 0.77 | 6.04 ± 0.44 | 6.38 ± 0.97*† | < 0.01 |
| Intimal-medial thickness (mm) | 0.80 ± 0.18 | 0.85 ± 0.22 | 0.89 ± 0.21 | $0.96 \pm 0.20*$ | < 0.005 |
| Relative wall thickness | 0.28 ± 0.06 | 0.30 ± 0.08 | 0.30 ± 0.07 | 0.31 ± 0.11 | 0.15 |
| Cross-sectional area (mm ²) | 16.64 ± 5.41 | 17.20 ± 5.44 | 19.65 ± 5.88 | $22.10 \pm 5.71*\dagger$ | < 0.0005 |
| Plaque (%) | 21 | 31 | 44* | 56* | < 0.005 |

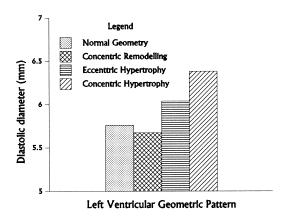
^{*}p < 0.05 versus normal geometry. †p < 0.05 versus concentric remodeling. Data are presented as mean value ± SD or percent of patients.

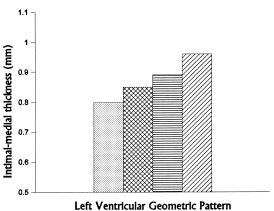
in the present study are that hypertensive patients with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy have a greater increase in arterial wall thickness, cross-sectional area and stiffness at the operating level of distending pressure than hypertensive patients with other left ventricular geometric patterns, despite similarities between the groups in age, gender distribution and body size.

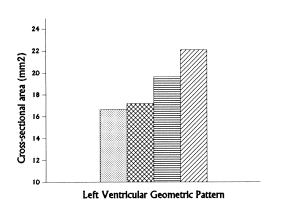
The concentration of arterial abnormalities in patients with

Figure 1. Relation of left ventricular geometric pattern to common carotid artery structure and prevalence of atherosclerosis.

concentric left ventricular hypertrophy is particularly notable because our patients with eccentric hypertrophy had equivalent blood pressures. Although there was a trend toward higher mean values of arterial wall thickness, diameter and cross-sectional area in the eccentric hypertrophy group, the values were statistically indistinguishable from those in patients with normal left ventricular geometry and concentric remodeling, despite considerably lower blood pressures in the latter two groups. The previous observation (3) that ambulatory pressures are highest in patients with concentric hypertrophy and are similar in groups with eccentric hypertrophy and concentric







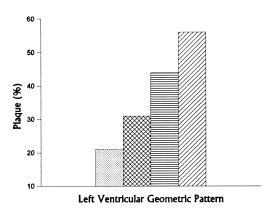


Table 4. Carotid Artery Function

| Variable | Normal Geometry (n = 176) | Concentric Remodeling (n = 54) | Eccentric Hypertrophy (n = 25) | Concentric Hypertrophy (n = 16) | Overall p Value |
|---|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Vascular strain (%) | 12.4 ± 3.7 | 12.0 ± 4.7 | 10.8 ± 3.8 | 9.5 ± 2.2* | < 0.005 |
| Elastic modulus (dynes/cm $^2 * 10^{-6}$) | 471 ± 241 | 558 ± 263 | 614 ± 257 | 713 ± 265* | < 0.0005 |
| Young's modulus (dynes/cm ² per mm $* 10^{-6}$) | 601 ± 296 | 699 ± 373 | 683 ± 262 | 777 ± 219 | < 0.05 |
| Stiffness index (β) | 5.79 ± 3.44 | 6.75 ± 3.23 | 6.80 ± 3.55 | 6.38 ± 1.40 | 0.08 |

^{*}p < 0.05 versus normal geometry. Data are presented as mean value \pm SD.

remodeling may provide an explanation for these results. However, among the 173 patients in the current study group who had ambulatory blood pressure monitoring, awake systolic but not diastolic pressures were significantly increased in both the concentric and eccentric hypertrophy groups versus in those with normal geometry (164/101 and 160/96 mm Hg, respectively, vs. 146/92 mm Hg, p < 0.05, for systolic pressure).

Alternatively, nonhemodynamic stimuli may be important. Although it has recently been reported that the angiotensin I-converting enzyme *DD* genotype is associated with both an increase in common carotid artery intimal-medial thickness (35) and electrocardiographic evidence of left ventricular hypertrophy (36), it remains to be determined whether there is more likely to be underlying concentric ventricular hypertrophy. The tendency toward a racial difference between the groups also supports the possibility of a genetic contribution to the differences in arterial structure.

Left ventricular geometry and carotid atherosclerosis. The prevalence of plaque was highest in the group with concentric hypertrophy (56%), particularly in comparison with the normal geometry and concentric remodeling groups, despite similarity among groups in age, serum lipids and smoking history. In fact, the percentage of current or former smokers was nearly half as much in the concentric hypertrophy group, although the difference was not statistically significant by the chi-square test. The higher prevalence of plaque in both the concentric and eccentric hypertrophy groups is in keeping with our previous observation of an association between carotid atherosclerosis and increasing left ventricular mass index in both normotensive and hypertensive subjects (14). The explanation for the current finding, and dissociation from the other arterial structural findings, is uncertain but may be at least partially explained by higher levels of both distending pressure and pulsatile forces resulting in greater susceptibility to endothelial damage.

Left ventricular geometry and arterial function. Measures of arterial function generally tended to be more abnormal in hypertensive patients with other geometric adaptations than in those with normal left ventricular geometry, but these differences mostly did not attain statistical significance, possibly because of wide scatter in the data as well as the modest size of some subgroups. The elastic modulus, a measure of vascular stiffness at its operating level of distending pressure, was significantly elevated in the concentric hypertrophy group. This finding is comparable to the earlier observation of Boutouyrie et al. (37), that left ventricular mean wall thickness and

mass/volume ratio were inversely related to carotid artery distensibility and compliance in a group of 86 hypertensive patients. Their study did not include measurement of wall thickness or isobaric measures of arterial function; thus, it is uncertain whether their findings are predominantly related to distending pressure, as would appear to be the case in our study group.

Left ventricular geometry and arteriolar disease. Our findings in the carotid artery, representative of the large conduit arteries, are complemented by recent findings in the arteriolar system. In a recent study (38) of 140 Japanese patients with essential hypertension, 57 (41%) of whom were studied on medications, the patients with concentric hypertrophy (n = 20[14%]) had the highest prevalence of grade III or IV retinopathy (53%) compared with those with normal geometry (0%), concentric remodeling (0%) and eccentric hypertrophy (29%, p < 0.05 for all comparisons). Serum creatinine was likewise highest in the group with concentric hypertrophy. Left ventricular mass was the strongest multivariate predictor of fundoscopic grade and serum creatinine. These findings are similar to those in our earlier report of a subgroup of hypertensive patients characterized by increased left ventricular chamber function, more marked concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and greater degrees of fundoscopic abnormalities and proteinuria (39). In the present study of otherwise healthy hypertensive patients, we detected no differences in serum creatinine among the four groups and did not systematically acquire data on arteriolar disease.

Study limitations. The present study group consisted overwhelmingly of patients with relatively mild hypertension, reducing the proportion of patients with either concentric or eccentric left ventricular hypertrophy, in contrast to previous studies (1–3,5,6,33). Whether study of hypertensive patients with more pronounced elevations in blood pressure and increases in left ventricular mass or with symptoms of cardiovascular disease would yield similar or even more pronounced results is uncertain. It is also possible that studying larger populations would reveal significant abnormalities of arterial geometry and stiffness in patients with eccentric left ventricular hypertrophy.

Clinical implications. Ultrasound imaging of the left ventricle and the extracranial carotid arteries reveals that the spectrum of geometric patterns seen in the heart in hypertension is partially paralleled by structural and functional changes in the arterial tree. In particular, patients with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy had the most marked degrees of arterial hypertrophy, the least arterial expansion and the greatest arterial stiffness at the operating level of blood pressure. These findings lend further support to the importance of left ventricular geometry as a marker of target-organ damage and a means of risk stratification.

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