

Prevalence of High Blood Pressure in 122,053 Adolescents: A Systematic Review and Meta-Regression

Augusto César Ferreira de Moraes, PhD, Maria Beatriz Lacerda, BSc, Luis A. Moreno, PhD, Bernardo L. Horta, PhD, and Heráclito Barbosa Carvalho, PhD

Abstract: Several studies have reported high prevalence of risk factors for cardiovascular disease in adolescents.

To perform: i) systematically review the literature on the prevalence of high blood pressure (HBP) in adolescents; ii) analyze the possible methodological factors associated with HBP; and iii) compare the prevalence between developed and developing countries.

We revised 10 electronic databases up to August 11, 2013.

Only original articles using international diagnosis of HBP were considered. The pooled prevalence's of HBP were estimated by random

effects. Meta-regression analysis was used to identify the sources of heterogeneity across studies.

Fifty-five studies met the inclusion criteria and total of 122,053 adolescents included. The pooled-prevalence of HBP was 11.2%, 13% for boys, and 9.6% for girls ($P < 0.01$). Method of measurement of BP and year in which the survey was conducted were associated with heterogeneity in the estimates of HBP among boys.

The data indicate that HBP is higher among boys than girls, and that the method of measurement plays an important role in the overall heterogeneity of HBP value distributions, particularly in boys.

(*Medicine* 93(27):e232)

Editor: Luis Mauricio Pinet Peralta.

Received: August 6, 2014; revised: October 1, 2014; accepted: October 2, 2014.

From the School of Medicine of the University of São Paulo (FMUSP)—Department of Preventive Medicine, São Paulo, Brazil (ACFdeM, MBL, HBC); YCARE (Youth/Child and cARdiovascular Risk and Environmental) Research Group, FMUSP/Brazil (ACFdeM, MBL, HBC); Faculty of Health of the University of Zaragoza, GENUd—Growth, Exercise, Nutrition and Development, Zaragoza, Spain (ACFdeM, LAM); Visiting Professor, School of Medicine of the University of São Paulo—Department of Preventive Medicine, São Paulo, Brazil (LAM); and School of Medicine of the Federal University of Pelotas, Pelotas, Brazil (BLH).

Correspondence: Augusto César Ferreira de Moraes, Faculdade de Medicina da USP—Departamento de Medicina Preventiva, 2^o andar, sala 2162—Secretaria de Pós-Graduação, Av. Dr. Arnaldo, 455—Cerqueira César, São Paulo/SP, Brazil (e-mail: augustocesar.demor-

^a “Probability sampling relies on the principle of randomization to ensure that all individuals have a known chance of selection; it requires that members of the target population be identified through a sampling frame or listing of potential respondents. They may all have an equal chance of being selected or, if a stratified sampling method is used, the rate at which individuals from several subsets are sampled can be varied so as to produce greater representation of some classes than of others.” Porta M. A dictionary of epidemiology. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 6th edition. 2014.

Augusto César Ferreira de Moraes and Maria Beatriz Lacerda contributed equally to this work.

Author Contributions: **Augusto César F. de Moraes:** Dr. de Moraes designed the data collection instruments, coordinated and supervised data collection, carried out the initial analyses and the interpreted the data critically, drafted the initial manuscript and reviewed the manuscript, and approved the final manuscript as submitted. **Maria Beatriz Lacerda:** Miss. Lacerda conceptualized and designed the study, drafted the initial manuscript, data collection, carried out the initial analyses and the interpreted the data critically and approved the final manuscript as submitted. **Luis Alberto Moreno:** Dr. Moreno drafted the initial manuscript and reviewed the manuscript, and approved the final manuscript as submitted. **Bernardo L Horta:** Dr. Horta carried out the initial, final analyses and the interpreted the data critically and approved the final manuscript as submitted. **Heráclito Barbosa Carvalho:** Dr. Carvalho designed the data collection instruments, coordinated and supervised data collection, critically reviewed the manuscript, and approved the final manuscript as submitted.

The authors report no conflicts of interest.

Copyright © 2014 Wolters Kluwer Health | Lippincott Williams & Wilkins. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives License 4.0, where it is permissible to download, share and reproduce the work in any medium, provided it is properly cited. The work cannot be changed in any way or used commercially.

ISSN: 0025-7974

DOI: 10.1097/MD.0000000000000232

Abbreviations: 95% CI = confidence interval, BPb = blood pressure, CVD = cardiovascular diseases, HBPh = high blood pressure, PRISMAp = preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses.

INTRODUCTION

Cardiovascular diseases (CVD) are the main sources of disease burden worldwide, and constitute a major public health problem in many countries.¹ High blood pressure (HBP) is an established major risk factor for stroke and coronary heart disease.² Studies have shown that blood pressure (BP) in childhood and adolescence are crucial factors in developing hypertension in adulthood.³

Several studies have reported high prevalence of factors such as abdominal obesity,⁴ inflammation markers,⁵ metabolic syndrome,⁶ and clustered metabolic risk,⁷ among the risk factors for CVD. Between the cardiovascular risk factors, some article highlights increased BP values among adolescents as being particularly noteworthy.^{8,9} Because the prevalence of obesity has been increasing,⁴ we would expect to observe an increase in the prevalence of HBP, since there is a strong association between obesity and hypertension. Freedman et al¹⁰ also found that the prevalence of obesity increased but no increase in BP was observed.

Because of these major discrepancies in the literature and there has not been any systematic review verifying either the prevalence of HBP among adolescents or the for identifying the factors associated with this important aspect of adolescent health, we systematically reviewed the literature to collate the prevalence data of HBP among adolescents. Thus, we hypothesized the: i) the prevalence of HBP is high in adolescents and has increased over the past years; ii) the characteristics of the study are associated with HBP variation; iii) and the prevalence of HBP is different between developed and developing countries.

METHODS

Identification of Studies

This study followed the systematic review methodology proposed in the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic

Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) statement.¹¹ This is a systematic review article and as no data were collected on humans or animals, there was no need to be submitted to ethics committee. The study is registered in the PROSPERO database (CRD42011001422). Searches involved 10 electronic databases: BioMed Central, Cinahl, Embase, ERIC, Medline/PubMed, PsycINFO, Scielo, Scopus, SportDiscus, and Web of Science. Articles listed in the databases through August 11, 2013 were evaluated for inclusion in the analysis. This extended number of databases was used in order to minimize selection bias. The articles identified in the search were reviewed and contact made with the corresponding authors to solicit other relevant details, and studies that may have been missed in our search.

An ethics statement was not required for this work and no funding was received for this work, no funding bodies played any role in the design, writing or decision to publish this manuscript.

Three command groups (according to key words) were used for the database search. Within each group, we used the Boolean operator “OR” and between groups we used the Boolean operator “AND.” In the first group we included terms related to BP: *high blood pressure, blood pressure, and hypertension*. In the second group we included terms related to age: *adolescent, adolescence, young, youth, teenager, and teenage*. Given that the aim of the present review was to verify the prevalence of HBP, in the third group we added a set of commands to restrict study design to cross-sectional studies, because this type of epidemiological study is the most appropriate for studies that attempt to estimate the prevalence. These terms were: *prevalence studies, cross-sectional studies, and survey*.

Inclusion of Studies

We included studies that published original data, in cases of duplicated data, the studies presenting outcomes related to our systematic review were retained and the articles that did not meet the inclusion criteria were excluded. The duplicates were removed using EndNote Web® reference management software, Thomson Reuters, Carlsbad, CA.

Potentially relevant articles were selected by: i) screening the titles; ii) screening the abstracts; iii) and if abstracts were not available or did not provide sufficient data, the entire article was retrieved and screened to determine whether it met the inclusion criteria. Abstracts were reviewed independently by 2 authors (ACdEM and MBL) and were selected based on their consensus according to the same criteria used described below. If consensus was not reached, the abstract was set aside for further evaluation. Full-text articles of abstracts selected were retrieved and reviewed. Inclusion was based on consensus between 2 investigators (ACdEM and MBL). To be included the study the article needed to: 1) have a representative population-based sample that included adolescents (aged between 10 and 19 years old; eg: if some studies had prevalence data of 10–15 yo or 15–19 yo, they were included); 2) be a cross-sectional design (because we are interested in verifying the prevalence of HBP, cross-sectional studies are the kind of epidemiological study more appropriate to check the prevalence, however we know the limitations and were considered); 3) have employed a probabilistic method to sample the population^a; 4) present the HBP prevalence; 5) be an original study presenting the prevalence of HBP for both genders; 6) and have diagnosed HBP according to international guidelines: SBP and/or DBP \geq 95th percentile for gender, age, and height (currently just there are 2 guidelines; one of the American Academy of Pediatrics¹² and

other European Society of Hypertension¹³). We also included those articles that did not present the prevalence per se, but contained an estimation of prevalence by gender. Also included were those articles that contained the confidence interval (95% CI) according to gender. The STROBE checklist for cross-sectional studies was applied by 2 members of the research team in assessing the percentage of items correctly related to the individual articles^{14,15} and, in case of disagreement between the assessors, the article was evaluated by a 3rd member of the team (see Figure 1). We not used the STROBE for to available the quality of the studies, just check the important methodological aspects this type of study.

Assessment, Data Extraction, and Analysis

The evaluation and data extraction were performed independently by 2 members of the research team (ACdEM and MBL). Disagreements were resolved by consultation within the team until consensus was reached.

The data extracted from each study were: author, country, publication year, year of survey, journal in which the article was published, total study sample size, sample size of adolescents, age of subjects in years, proportion of girls, prevalence of HBP, and risk factors associated with HBP. The 95% CI was obtained from the articles^{16–28} whenever possible, or was calculated using Stata 12.0 “cii” command (95% CI exact for binomial distribution).^{29–62}

The outcome of this review is the HPB prevalence’s, diagnosed in the articles included in accordance with international guidelines. The pooled prevalence’s of HBP (total sample and for each gender) were estimated by random effects (estimated pooled-prevalence adjusting variation between levels and the variation within each level). Test of heterogeneity (Q test) was used to evaluate whether the differences in prevalence estimates across studies were higher than expected by chance. Meta-regression analysis was used to identify the sources of heterogeneity across studies by I^2 , initially to assess the contribution of each variable (year of survey; geographic location; characteristic of countries; study population; method of BP measurement) to the overall heterogeneity.⁶³ Those variables that were significantly associated with the heterogeneity ($P < 0.20$) were included in a multivariate hierarchical model.⁶⁴ At the first level, year of survey (1988–1998, 1999–2004, and 2005–2009) was introduced, at the second level were geographic location (North America, Europe, Asia, Latin America, Oceania, Middle East, and Africa), characteristic of countries according International Monetary Fund classification (developed or developing), and study population (community or school); at the third level were the devices used to measure BP (sphygmomanometer or automatic digital monitor). This hierarchical model was constructed following the methodology proposed by Victora et al⁶⁴ where the effect of variables increases as the level increases, approaching the outcome, for example: the year of research theoretically has less influence on the HBP prevalence, the geographic location, and this has less effect that the measuring method of BP. A P value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant in all the analyses. The Stata 12 (Stata Corp., College Station, TX) was used for all statistical calculations.

RESULTS

Literature Search

The literature search yielded 727 titles of potentially relevant articles (see Figure 1 for selection procedure flow diagram). Of

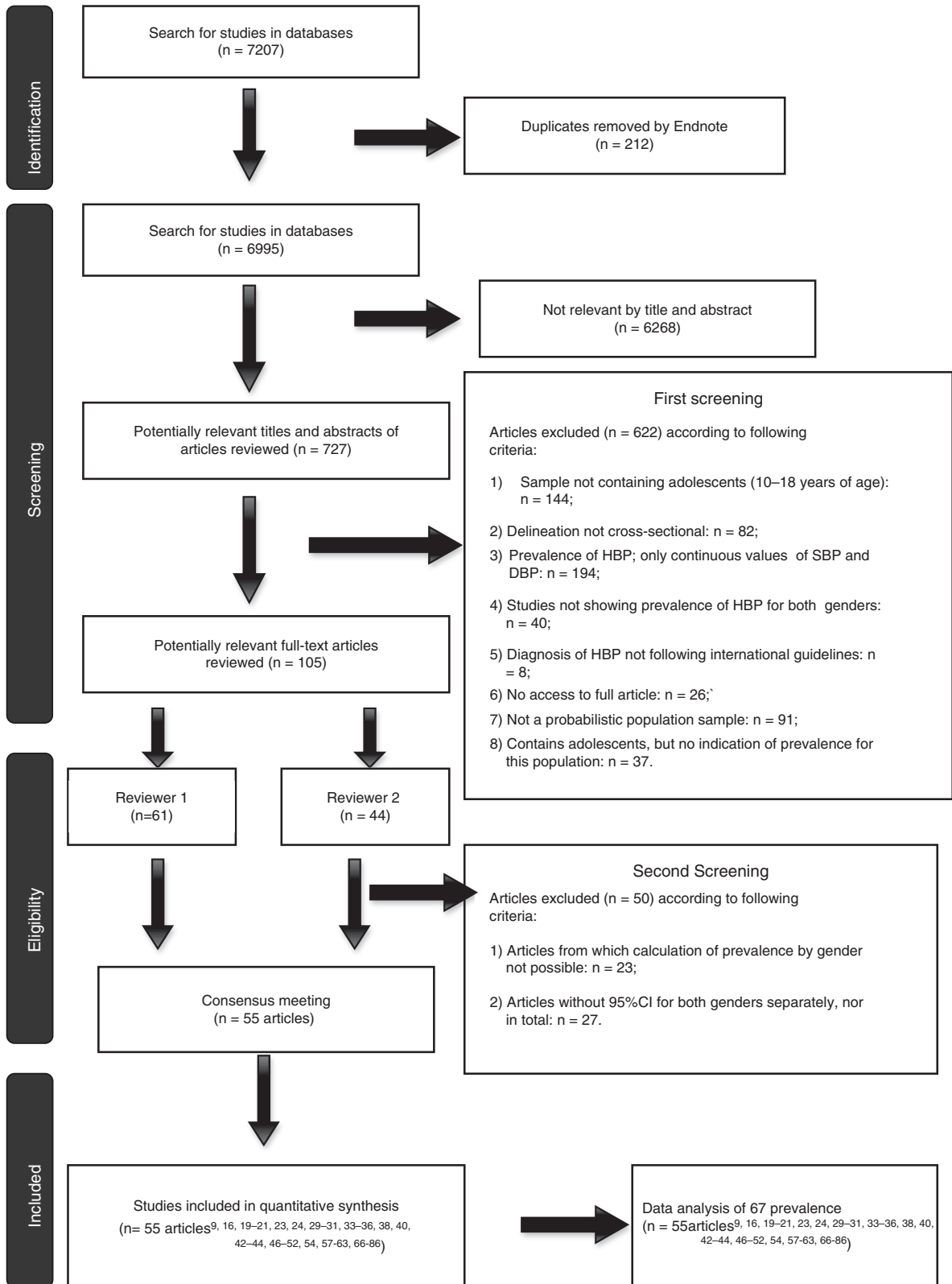


FIGURE 1. Flowchart of search strategy and results. DBP = diastolic blood pressure, HBP = high blood pressure, SBP = systolic blood pressure.

these, 55 articles were eligible according to the inclusion criteria established for this review.^{9,16,19–21,23,24,29–31,33–36,38,40,42–44,46–52,54,56–62,65–85}

The supplement file presents a description of the 55 articles with the relevant inclusion criteria including: lead author, year of publication, country where the study was performed, year of survey, total number of participants in the study, number of adolescents, proportion of girls, age range, study population, method of measurement, overall and gender-based prevalence, and the respective 95% CI.

Among the study that used automatic digital monitors for measuring BP, 77% used Omron BP device (Omron Healthcare Inc., Tokyo, Japan); 22.3% did not describe which model and 0.7% used the Space Labs device.

Five articles evaluated the secular trend of prevalence, 2 of which were from USA. The continents with the highest numbers of studies included in this review were Asia and Latin America ($n = 18$ in each), and only 1 study from Oceania was identified. Of the populations studied, 55.6% were from high-school samples; 75.5% of studies used sphygmomanometer to measure BP; 63.5% of surveys were conducted in low- and middle-income countries (supplementary file, <http://links.lww.com/>

MD/A83). Total of 122,053 adolescents included in this review (61,049 girls).

Prevalence

In the overall sample, the pooled-prevalence estimated by random effects was of HBP was 11.2% (Table 1), 13% for boys, and 9.6% for girls ($P < 0.01$). The analyses revealed significant heterogeneity across studies for all analyses ($P < 0.001$): the overall sample (Table 1), girls (Table 2) and boys (Table 3), rejecting the hypothesis of homogeneity of results.

Table 1 summarizes the associations between HBP prevalence and characteristics of the study in the overall sample. In the overall sample, the significant association of geographical location lost significance in the adjusted model. The year of survey was not significantly associated with the prevalence of HBP while, conversely, the characteristic of countries and method of measuring BP retained their significant associations.

Table 2 depicts the HBP prevalence in the girls in relation to the methodological characteristics. Those studies from Africa showed higher prevalence while the lowest were those studies from Latin America. We found no significant associations

TABLE 1. Association Between Prevalence of High Blood Pressure With Methodological Covariates for Total ($n = 122,053$) of Sample of the Studies

Level**	Independent Variables	Number of Studies	Pooled Prevalence of HBP (95% CI)	Total of Sample		
				Univariate Model P-Value	Metaregression (Multivariate Model)* P-Value	
1	Year of survey			0.138	Referent	
	1988–1998	9	11.8 (7.7–12.4)			
	1999–2004	26	8.3 (5.7–18.7)			
2	2005–2009	20	8.5 (5.3–16.4)	0.001	0.098	
	Geographic location					
	North America	14	7.3 (2.8–8.8)			Referent
	Europe	4	16.2 (10.3–27.1)			0.222
	Asia	15	12.4 (7.7–19.6)			0.177
	Latin America	14	6.2 (3.1–10.6)			0.720
	Oceania	1	24.6 (23.2–26.0)			0.692
	Middle East	4	5.3 (4–16.5)			0.971
	Africa	3	25.5 (10.1–39.1)			0.479
	Characteristic of countries					0.001
Higher income	19	8.3 (3.2–13.8)				
Low- and middle-income	36	9.8 (5.7–17.8)	0.646			
Study population				0.004	Referent	
	School	26	9.3 (4.7–17.5)			
	Community	29	8.3 (6.9–13.8)			
3	Method of measured BP‡			0.041	Referent	
	Sphygmomanometer	34	8.9 (5.7–16.2)			
	Automatic digital monitor	13	12.2 (5.3–21.5)			0.015

Between-study variance assessed by moment-based estimate ($\tau^2 = 5.307$)

95% CI = confidence interval of 95%, HBP = high blood pressure.

* The adjusted analysis was conducted following a theoretical conceptual model that had been previously formulated in three levels: 1) year of survey (1988–1998, 1999–2004, and 2005–2009); 2) geographic location (North America, Europe, Asia, Latin America, Oceania, Middle East, and Africa); characteristic of countries (higher or low- and middle-income); and study population (community or school); 3) method of measured BP (sphygmomanometer or automatic digital monitor).

** The effect of each variable on the outcome was adjusted for other variables in the same model or above in the hierarchical model. Variables with $P > 0.2$ were not included in the subsequent adjusted models. Statistically significant associations are in **bold** type.

‡ Eight articles are not described the method of measured blood pressure.

TABLE 2. Association Between Prevalence of High Blood Pressure With Methodological Covariates for Girls (n = 61,049) of the Studies

Level**	Independent Variables	Number of Studies	Pooled Prevalence of HBP (95% CI)	Girls	
				Univariate Model	Metaregression (Multivariate Model)*
				P-Value	P-Value
1	Year of survey			0.972	
	1988–1998	9	9.0 (5.9–11.5)		Referent
	1999–2004	26	7.8 (3.4–13.8)		0.111
	2005–2009	20	7 (3.1–14.1)		0.450
2	Geographic location			0.214	
	North America	14	5.85 (2.9–8.7)		Referent
	Europe	4	11.2 (7.8–15.2)		0.484
	Asia	15	11.5 (6.7–18.7)		0.536
	Latin America	14	4.8 (2.8–9.2)		0.913
	Oceania	1	24.7 (22.7–26.8)		0.717
	Middle East	4	5.0 (2.3–13.6)		0.751
	Africa	3	29.0 (23.8–33.3)		0.552
	Characteristic of countries			0.679	
	Higher income	19	7.8 (3.4–10.5)		Referent
	Low- and middle-income	36	9.1 (3.3–13.7)		0.755
	Study population			0.746	
	School	26	8.6 (3.4–12.5)		Referent
Community	29	7.8 (3.4–13.8)		0.995	
3	Method of measured BP[‡]			0.897	
	Sphygmomanometer	34	8.6 (3.7–13)		Referent
	Automatic digital monitor	13	10 (5.5–23.8)		0.894
Between-study variance assessed by moment-based estimate (tau² = 2.349)					

HBP = high blood pressure.

*The adjusted analysis was conducted following a theoretical conceptual model that had been previously formulated in three levels: 1) year of survey (1988–1998, 1999–2004, and 2005–2009); 2) geographic location (North America, Europe, Asia, Latin America, Oceania, Middle East, and Africa); characteristic of countries (higher or low- and middle-income); and study population (community or school); 3) method of measured BP (sphygmomanometer or automatic digital monitor).

†The effect of each variable on the outcome was adjusted for other variables in the same model or above in the hierarchical model. Variables with $P > 0.2$ were not included in the subsequent adjusted models. Statistically significant associations are in bold type.

‡Eight articles are not described the method of measured blood pressure.

between prevalence of HBP in girls and methodological characteristics.

Table 3 shows the prevalence in the boys in relation to methodological characteristics. The highest prevalence was observed in Oceania and the lowest in the studies conducted in Middle East/Latin America, and North America.

Among boys, all the variables were associated with heterogeneity in the distributions of HBP in the univariate model, but only the year in which the survey was conducted, the geographical location, and the method of measuring BP maintain the significance in the adjusted model.

DISCUSSION

We conducted a comprehensive systematic review of studies addressing the prevalence of HBP in adolescents, and we used meta-regression to examine the possible sources of heterogeneity in the data presented in the articles. The prevalence of HBP was higher among boys, and the heterogeneity across studies was due to methodological differences, especially method of measuring BP. Further, the prevalence of HBP was

higher among studies from low- and middle-income countries in boys. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first systematic review article analysing the associations between HBP prevalence and studies characteristic's in adolescents, and is the most extensive systematic review on this subject, to date.

Contrary to expectations, the prevalence of HBP was inversely related to the year of the survey. Because the prevalence of obesity has been increasing⁴ we would expect to observe an increase in the prevalence of HBP, since there is a strong association between obesity and hypertension.¹⁰ Freedman et al¹⁰ also found that the prevalence of obesity increased but no increase in BP was observed. The authors emphasized that a possible explanation is the improvement of maternal and child health^{86,87} and increased prevalence of breastfeeding alone⁸⁸ observed over the past 2 decades. These factors, which are inversely associated with adolescent BP levels,⁸⁹ can be responsible for the decrease in HBP prevalence.

Boys had higher pooled prevalence than girls. There are 2 possible explanations for our finding: 1) studies showed that boys has a higher accumulation of visceral fat⁹⁰ and intra-abdominal fat⁹¹ than girls, and visceral fat has been associated

TABLE 3. Association Between Prevalence of High Blood Pressure With Methodological Covariates for Boys (n = 61,004) of the Studies

Level**	Independent Variables	Number of Studies	Pooled Prevalence of HBP (95% CI)	Boys		
				Univariate Model P-Value	Metaregression (Multivariate Model)* P-Value	
1	Year of survey			<0.001		
	1988–1998	9	13.3 (8.7–14.6)		Referent	
	1999–2004	26	10.3 (6.3–18.8)		0.011	
	2005–2009	20	9.4 (5.3–25.1)		0.004	
2	Geographic location			0.004		
	North America	14	7.1 (3.3–10.8)		Referent	
	Europe	4	17.5 (12.6–26.8)		0.334	
	Asia	15	13.9 (10.4–22.8)		0.664	
	Latin America	14	7.4 (4.4–13.5)		0.891	
	Oceania	1	24.7 (22.8–26.7)		0.607	
	Middle East	4	6.4 (3.4–20.0)		0.551	
	Africa	3	24.0 (9–46.1)		0.617	
	Characteristic of countries				0.003	
	Higher income	19	9.0 (4–18.0)			Referent
	Low- and middle-income	36	11.5 (6.4–22.7)			0.007
	Study population				0.001	
School	26	9.4 (5.1–22.8)	Referent			
Community	29	10.8 (6.9–16.2)	0.557			
3	Method of measured BP‡			<0.001		
	Sphygmomanometer	34	9.7 (6.1–19.4)		Referent	
	Automatic digital monitor	13	14.4 (5.1–24.7)		<0.001	
Between-study variance assessed by moment-based estimate ($\tau^2 = 1.305$)						

HBP = high blood pressure.

*The adjusted analysis was conducted following a theoretical conceptual model that had been previously formulated in three levels: 1) year of survey (1988–1998, 1999–2004, and 2005–2009); 2) geographic location (North America, Europe, Asia, Latin America, Oceania, Middle East, and Africa); characteristic of countries (higher or low- and middle-income); and study population (community or school); 3) method of measured BP (sphygmomanometer or automatic digital monitor).

†The effect of each variable on the outcome was adjusted for other variables in the same model or above in the hierarchical model. Variables with $P > 0.2$ were not included in the subsequent adjusted models. Statistically significant associations are in **bold** type.

‡Eight articles are not described the method of measured blood pressure.

with higher sympathetic activity.^{92,93} This activation is a key mechanism underlying the effect of intra-abdominal fat accumulation on the development of hypertension.⁹⁴ For example, increased sympathetic flow may increase sodium re-absorption and subsequent increased peripheral vascular resistance resulting in increased BP.⁹⁵ Also, this increased sympathetic activation can be caused by increased testosterone concentrations in males. Testosterone, acting as a mediator of the androgen receptor gene function,⁹⁶ has been associated not only with increased visceral fat but also with greater vasomotor sympathetic tone and BP in adolescent boys, compared to girls.⁹⁶ However, pubertal stage is not included in the diagnostic criteria of HBP, and it can be a limitation, since the analysis cannot adjust for this variable is not included in the articles described. In our review, is not possible to analyze the influence of the obesity on the HBP prevalence, because the cut-off points to diagnosis the obesity in each article is different, and would introduce a classification bias in the analyses if us carried out.

2) The girls have a higher prevalence of healthy behavior patterns (healthy eating habits⁹⁷; avoidance of tobacco smoking⁹⁸; less alcohol abuse⁹⁹; lower levels of sedentary behavior⁷) than boys, and these healthy life-style choices are associated

with lower levels of BP and HBP prevalence.^{100–102} Additionally, it was not possible to adjust the analysis for other factors potentially associated with BP such as lifestyle, genetic factors, intrauterine development, because these information's is not provided in the articles included.

Of considerable note is that the type of device used to measure BP was associated with heterogeneity in the prevalence of HBP. The pooled prevalence was higher in articles using the automatic “digital” monitors. However, all reported that the monitors used had been validated for measurement of BP in adolescents, according criteria by European Hypertension Society and American Academy of Pediatrics for differences between averages of the measures mercury column and tested monitor for a device to be validated, should be ≤ 5 mmHg and that the standard deviation of the differences of the averages is not larger than 8 mmHg. The differences in the prevalence can introduce differential or non-differential misclassification effects (errors due to disease status or exposure) and may cause underestimation or overestimation of the true prevalence.¹⁰³ Our findings suggest that automatic monitors should not be used for diagnosis of hypertension, but may be used only as an initial assessment of current status of cardiovascular health of the

adolescents and, should the teenager present with HBP, additional analysis with more accurate instruments must be performed. The logistics in epidemiological studies often preclude the measurement of BP with the gold standard; for example ambulatory BP monitoring or repeated office BP measurements. The technique is more difficult to master and is not cost-effective on an epidemiological scale. However, cost-effectiveness becomes evident¹⁰⁴ if HBP diagnosis in adults; and the screening of the HBP in the adolescent can lead to better and more prompt treatment and so increase life expectancy of the adolescent, because HBP this age group is asymptomatic.

On the other hand, recently Thompson et al¹⁰⁵ showed that there is no direct evidence that screening for hypertension in children and adolescents reduces adverse cardiovascular outcomes in adults. Are needed new research's to improve diagnosis and risk stratification of children with elevated BP and to quantify risks and benefits of interventions, because on this review we demonstrated higher prevalence of HBP. Secondary hypertension, although it might occasionally appear in our results, it was not described in any article, therefore disregarded in this review, because it is rare in the pediatric population and interfere little in the final result of the HBP prevalence's.

Another important factor could be influence of the classification of the HBP is the race and ethnicity, because the growth speed is influenced by these factors,¹⁰⁶ but the guidelines (American Academy of Pediatrics¹² and European Society of Hypertension¹³) highlights that newly revised CDC growth charts (www.cdc.gov/growthcharts) should be used for the height percentile classification.

We observed higher HBP prevalence in low- and middle-income countries. Previous studies conducted in these countries reported that the hypertension was associated with low socioeconomic status.^{83,107} However, the nutritional burden is shifting from deficiency to excess energy imbalance in these countries, while awareness of the problem is increasing in developed countries and, as such, the prevalence in higher income countries is becoming stabilized, albeit not as yet normalized.^{108,109} Hence, strategies for changing lifestyles are necessary; the objectives being to decrease the prevalence and to increase early treatment of HBP.

CONCLUSIONS

Our systematic review indicated that HBP prevalence is high among adolescents; higher in boys and adolescents from low- and middle-income countries. The method of measurement plays an important role in HBP prevalence distribution in the overall sample, and especially in boys, but not in girls. Public health programs that aim to reduce HBP should focus primarily on adolescents from low- and middle-income countries.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Augusto César F. de Moraes is in receipt of a PhD scholarship from the São Paulo State Research Foundation (FAPESP: proc. 2011/11137-1 and 2011/20662-2); and **Maria Beatriz Lacerda** is in receipt of an undergraduate research scholarship from the São Paulo State Research Foundation (FAPESP: proc. 2011/17211-9). **Luis A. Moreno** was given scholarship of visiting professor from Brazilian government by Science without Borders Program by CNPq (National Counsel of Technological and Scientific Development) and CAPES (Coordination of Improvement of Higher Education Personnel)

(proc. 007/2012). The GENUD Research Group co-financed by the European Regional Development Fund (MICINN-FEDER).

REFERENCES

1. Beaglehole R, Horton R. Chronic diseases: global action must match global evidence. *Lancet*. 2010;376:1619–1621.
2. Go AS, Mozaffarian D, Roger VL, et al. Executive summary: heart disease and stroke statistics—2013 update: a report from the American Heart Association. *Circulation*. 2013;127:143–152.
3. Lauer RM, Clarke WR. Childhood risk factors for high adult blood pressure: the Muscatine Study. *Pediatrics*. 1989;84:633–641.
4. de Moraes AC, Fadoni RP, Ricardi LM, et al. Prevalence of abdominal obesity in adolescents: a systematic review. *Obes Rev*. 2011;12:69–77.
5. Martinez-Gomez D, Gomez-Martinez S, Ruiz JR, et al. Objectively-measured and self-reported physical activity and fitness in relation to inflammatory markers in European adolescents: the HELENA Study. *Atherosclerosis*. 2012;221:260–267.
6. de Moraes A, Fulaz C, Netto-Oliveira E, Reichert F. [Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in adolescents: a systematic review]. *Cad Saude Publica*. 2009;25:1195–1202.
7. Rey-López JP, Bel-Serrat S, Santaliestra-Pasías A, et al. Sedentary behaviour and clustered metabolic risk in adolescents: the HELENA study. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis*. 2013;23:1017–1024.
8. Muntner P, He J, Cutler JA, et al. Trends in blood pressure among children and adolescents. *JAMA*. 2004;291:2107–2113.
9. Ostchega Y, Carroll M, Prineas RJ, et al. Trends of elevated blood pressure among children and adolescents: data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 1988–2006. *Am J Hypertens*. 2009;22:59–67.
10. Freedman DS, Goodman A, Contreras OA, et al. Secular trends in BMI and blood pressure among children and adolescents: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Pediatrics*. 2012;130:e159–e166.
11. Liberati A, Altman DG, Tetzlaff J, et al. The PRISMA statement for reporting systematic reviews and meta-analyses of studies that evaluate health care interventions: explanation and elaboration. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2009;62:e1–e34.
12. NHBPEP: National High Blood Pressure Education Program Working Group on High Blood Pressure in Children, Adolescents. The fourth report on the diagnosis, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure in children and adolescents. *Pediatrics*. 2004;114:555–576.
13. O'Brien E, Asmar R, Beilin L, et al. European Society of Hypertension recommendations for conventional, ambulatory and home blood pressure measurement. *J Hypertens*. 2003;21:821–848.
14. Vandenberghe J, von Elm E, Altman D, et al. Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE): explanation and elaboration. *PLoS Med*. 2007;4:e297.
15. von Elm E, Altman D, Egger M, et al. The Strengthening the Reporting of Observational Studies in Epidemiology (STROBE) statement: guidelines for reporting observational studies. *PLoS Med*. 2007;4:e296.
16. Duncan GE, Li SM, Zhou XH. Prevalence and trends of a metabolic syndrome phenotype adolescents, 1999–2000. *Diabetes Care*. 2004;27:2438–2443.
17. Esmailzadeh A, Mirmiran P, Azadbakht L, et al. High prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in Iranian adolescents. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2006;14:377–382.
18. Halley Castillo E, Borges G, Talavera J, et al. Body mass index and the prevalence of metabolic syndrome among children and adolescents in two Mexican populations. *J Adolesc Health*. 2007;40:521–526.

19. Daratha KB, Bindler RC. Effects of individual components, time, and sex on prevalence of metabolic syndrome in adolescents. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med.* 2009;163:365–370.
20. Johnson WD, Kroon JJ, Greenway FL, et al. Prevalence of risk factors for metabolic syndrome in adolescents: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), 2001–2006. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med.* 2009;163:371–377.
21. Lambert M, O'Loughlin J, Delvin EE, et al. Association between insulin, leptin, adiponectin and blood pressure in youth. *J Hypertens.* 2009;27:1025–1032.
22. Orth SR, Schroeder T, Ritz E, Ferrari P. Effects of smoking on renal function in patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Nephrol Dial Transplant.* 2005;20:2414–2419.
23. Feliciano-Alfonso JE, Mendivil CO, Ariza IDS, Pérez CE. Cardiovascular risk factors and metabolic syndrome in a population of young students from the national university of Colombia. *Rev Assoc Med Bras.* 2010;56:293–298.
24. Rosa ML, Mesquita ET, da Rocha ER, Fonseca Vde M. Body mass index and waist circumference as markers of arterial hypertension in adolescents. *Arq Bras Cardiol.* 2007;88:573–578.
25. Singh R, Bhansali A, Sialy R, Aggarwal A. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in adolescents from a north Indian population. *Diabet Med.* 2007;24:195–199.
26. Pedrozo W, Rascon MC, Bonneau G, et al. Metabolic syndrome and risk factors associated with life style among adolescents in a city in Argentina. *Pan Am J Public Health.* 2008;24:149–160.
27. Pan Y, Pratt CA. Metabolic syndrome and its association with diet and physical activity in US adolescents. *JAMA.* 2008;108:276–286.
28. Nguyen T, Tang H, Kelly P, et al. Association between physical activity and metabolic syndrome: a cross sectional survey in adolescents in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. *BMC Public Health.* 2010;10:141.
29. Aboul Ella NA, Shehab DI, Ismail MA, Maksoud AA. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance among Egyptian adolescents 10 to 18 years of age. *J Clin Lipidol.* 2010;4:185–195.
30. Addor V, Wietlisbach V, Narring F, Michaud PA. Cardiovascular risk factor profiles and their social gradient from adolescence to age 74 in a Swiss region. *Prev Med.* 2003;36:217–228.
31. Kelishadi R, Sadri G, Tavasoli AA, et al. Cumulative prevalence of risk factors for atherosclerotic cardiovascular diseases in Iranian adolescents: IHHP-HHPC. *J Ped.* 2005;81:447–453.
32. Sadeghi M, Roohafza HR, Kelishadi R. High blood pressure and associated cardiovascular risk factors in Iran: Isfahan Healthy Heart Programme. *Med J Malaysia.* 2004;59:460–467.
33. Harding S, Maynard MJ, Cruickshank K, Teyhan A. Overweight, obesity and high blood pressure in an ethnically diverse sample of adolescents in Britain: the Medical Research Council DASH study. *Int J Obes.* 2008;31:82–90.
34. Juarez-Rojas JG, Cardoso-Saldana GC, Posadas-Sanchez R, et al. Blood pressure and associated cardiovascular risk factors in adolescents of Mexico City. *Arch Cardiol Mex.* 2008;78:384–391.
35. Agyemang C, Oudeman E, Zijlman W, et al. Blood pressure and body mass index in an ethnically diverse sample of adolescents in Paramaribo, Suriname. *BMC Cardiovasc Dis.* 2009;9:19.
36. Azizi F, Farahani ZK, Ghanbarian A, et al. Familial aggregation of the metabolic syndrome: Tehran lipid and glucose study. *Ann Nutr Metabol.* 2009;54:189–196.
37. Vik A, Mathiesen EB, Brox J, et al. Relation between serum osteoprotegerin and carotid intima media thickness in a general population—the Tromsø Study. *J Thromb Haemos.* 2010;8:2133–2139.
38. Pitanga FJG. Anthropometric indicators as predictors of high blood pressure in adolescents. *Arq Bras Cardiol.* 2011;96:126–132.
39. Bibiloni MD, Martínez E, Llull R, et al. Prevalence and risk factors for obesity in Balearic Islands adolescents. *Br J Nutr.* 2010;103:99–106.
40. Uçar B, Kiliç Z, Çolak O, et al. Coronary risk factors in Turkish schoolchildren: randomized cross-sectional study. *Pediatr Int.* 2000;42:259–267.
41. Martínez CA, Ibanez JO, Paterno CA, et al. Overweight and obesity in children and adolescents of Corrientes city. Relationship with cardiovascular risk factors. *Medicina-Buenos Aires.* 2001;61:308–314.
42. Uscategui Penuela RM, Perez Giraldo JA, Aristizabal Rivera JC, Camacho Perez JA. [Excess of weight and their relationship with high blood pressure in schoolchildren and adolescents of Medellín, Colombia]. *Arch Latinoam Nutr.* 2003;53:376–382.
43. Moura AA, Silva MAM, Ferraz MRMT, Rivera IR. Prevalence of high blood pressure in children and adolescents from the city of Maceió, Brazil. *Arq Bras Cardiol.* 2004;80:35–40.
44. Lawlor DA, O'Callaghan MJ, Mamun AA, et al. Socioeconomic position, cognitive function, and clustering of cardiovascular risk factors in adolescence: findings from the Mater University Study of Pregnancy and its outcomes. *Psychosom Med.* 2005;67:862–868.
45. Ramos E, Barros H. Prevalence of hypertension in 13-year-old adolescents in Porto, Portugal. *Rev Port Cardiol.* 2005;24:1075–1087.
46. Monego ET, Jardim PC. [Determinants of risk of cardiovascular diseases in schoolchildren]. *Arq Bras Cardiol.* 2006;87:37–45.
47. Pollex RL, Hanley AJG, Zinman B, et al. Metabolic syndrome in aboriginal Canadians: prevalence and genetic associations. *Atherosclerosis.* 2006;184:121–129.
48. Rodrigues AN, Moyses MR, Bissoli NS, et al. Cardiovascular risk factors in a population of Brazilian schoolchildren. *Braz J Med Biol Res.* 2006;39:1637–1642.
49. Yamamoto-Kimura L, Posadas-Romero C, Posadas-Sanchez R, et al. Prevalence and interrelations of cardiovascular risk factors in urban and rural Mexican adolescents. *J Adolesc Health.* 2006;38:591–598.
50. McNiece KL, Poffenbarger TS, Turner JL, et al. Prevalence of hypertension and pre-hypertension among adolescents. *J Pediatr.* 2007;150:640–644.
51. Ng VWS, Kong APS, Choi KC, et al. BMI and waist circumference in predicting cardiovascular risk factor clustering in Chinese adolescents. *Obesity.* 2007;15:494–503.
52. Ryu SY, Kweon SS, Park HC, et al. Obesity and the metabolic syndrome in Korean adolescents. *J Korean Med Sci.* 2007;22:513–517.
53. Lozada M, Machado S, Manrique M, et al. Risk factors associated with metabolic syndrome in adolescents. *Gac Méd Caracas.* 2008;116:323–329.
54. Nur N, Cetinkaya S, Yilmaz A, et al. Prevalence of hypertension among high school students in a middle anatolian province of Turkey. *J Health Popul Nutr.* 2008;26:88–94.
55. Ostchega Y, Carroll M, Prineas RJ, et al. Trends of elevated blood pressure among children and adolescents: data from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 1988–2006. *Am J Hypertens.* 2009;22:59–67.
56. Park MJ, Boston BA, Oh M, Jee SH. Prevalence and trends of metabolic syndrome among Korean adolescents: from the Korean NHANES survey, 1998–2005. *J Pediatr.* 2009;155:529–534.
57. Lee YJ, Shin YH, Kim JK, et al. Metabolic syndrome and its association with white blood cell count in children and adolescents

- in Korea: the 2005 Korean National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.* 2010;20:165–172.
58. Muller-Riemenschneider F, Nocon M, Willich SN. Prevalence of modifiable cardiovascular risk factors in German adolescents. *Eur J Prev Cardiol.* 2010;17:204–210.
 59. Moreira C, Santos R, Vale S, et al. Metabolic syndrome and physical fitness in a sample of Azorean adolescents. *Metab Syndr Relat Disord.* 2010;8:443–449.
 60. Schwandt P, Kelishadi R, Haas GM. Ethnic disparities of the metabolic syndrome in population-based samples of German and Iranian adolescents. *Metab Syndr Relat Disord.* 2010;8:189–192.
 61. Liang YJLYJ, Xi B, Hu YH, et al. Trends in blood pressure and hypertension among Chinese children and adolescents: China Health and Nutrition Surveys. *Blood Pres.* 2011;20:45–53.
 62. Lin FH, Chu NF, Hsieh AT. The trend of hypertension and its relationship to the weight status among Taiwanese young adolescents. *J Hum Hypertens.* 2012;26:48–55.
 63. Thompson SG, Higgins JP. How should meta-regression analyses be undertaken and interpreted? *Stat Med.* 2002;21:1559–1573.
 64. Victora C, Huttly S, Fuchs S, Olinto M. The role of conceptual frameworks in epidemiological analysis: a hierarchical approach. *Int J Epidemiol.* 1997;26:224–227.
 65. Martínez CA, Ibáñez JO, Paterno CA, et al. Overweight and obesity in children and adolescents of Corrientes city. Relationship with cardiovascular risk factors. *Medicina.* 2001;61:308–314.
 66. Ramos E, Barros H. Prevalence of hypertension in 13-year-old adolescents in Porto, Portugal. *Rev Port Cardiol.* 2005;24:1075–1087.
 67. Esmaillzadeh A, Mirmiran P, Azadbakht L, et al. High prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in Iranian adolescents. *Obesity (Silver Spring, MD).* 2006;14:377–382.
 68. Jago R, Harrell JS, McMurray RG, et al. Prevalence of abnormal lipid and blood pressure values among an ethnically diverse population of eighth-grade adolescents and screening implications. *Pediatrics.* 2006;117:2065–2073.
 69. Castillo EH, Borges G, Talavera JO, et al. Body mass index and the prevalence of metabolic syndrome among children and adolescents in two Mexican populations. *J Adolesc Health.* 2007;40:521–526.
 70. Singh R, Bhansali A, Sialy R, Aggarwal A. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in adolescents from a north Indian population. *Diabetic Med.* 2007;24:195–199.
 71. Pedrozo W, Rascón MC, Bonneau G, et al. Metabolic syndrome and risk factors associated with life style among adolescents in a city in Argentina. *Pan Am J Public Health.* 2008;24:149–160.
 72. Seo SJ, Lee HY, Lee SW. The prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in Korean children and adolescents: comparisons of the criteria of Cook et al., Cruz and Goran, and Ferranti et al. *Yons Med J.* 2008;49:563–572.
 73. Pan Y, Pratt CA. Metabolic syndrome and its association with diet and physical activity in US adolescents. *JAMA.* 2008;300:276–286.
 74. Romanzini M, Reichert FF, Lopes Ada S, et al. [Prevalence of cardiovascular risk factors in adolescents]. *Cad Saude Publica.* 2008;24:2573–2581.
 75. Candido APC, Benedetto R, Castro APP, et al. Cardiovascular risk factors in children and adolescents living in an urban area of Southeast of Brazil: Ouro Preto Study. *Eur J Pediatr.* 2009;168:1373–1382.
 76. Bal C, Yalçın BM, Mazicioğlu MM, et al. Blood pressure percentiles for the children between 11–17 years of age in Kayseri. *Türkiye Klinikleri J Med Sci.* 2009;29:1412–1420.
 77. Bal C, Yalçın BM, Mazicioğlu MM, Öztürk A, Bayat M, Üstünbaş HB, et al. Blood pressure percentiles for the children between 11–17 years of age in Kayseri. *Türkiye Klinikleri J Med Sci.* 2009;29:1412–1420.
 78. Bibiloni MM, Martínez E, Llull R, et al. Metabolic syndrome in adolescents in the Balearic Islands, a Mediterranean region. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.* 2011;21:446–454.
 79. Ejike C, Ugwu C, Ezeanyika L. Variations in the prevalence of point (pre)hypertension in a Nigerian school-going adolescent population living in a semi-urban and an urban area. *BMC Pediatrics.* 2010;10:13.
 80. Nguyen T, Tang H, Kelly P, et al. Association between physical activity and metabolic syndrome: a cross sectional survey in adolescents in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. *BMC Public Health.* 2010;10:141.
 81. Schwandt P, Kelishadi R, Ribeiro RQ, et al. A three-country study on the components of the metabolic syndrome in youths: the BIG Study. *Int J Pediatr Obes.* 2010;5:334–341.
 82. Pérez Fernández GA, Grau Avalo R. Cardiopatía hipertensiva en la adolescencia. resultados preliminares del estudio PESESCAD-HTA. *Hipertens Riesgo Vasc.* 2012;29:75–85.
 83. Aounallah-Skhiri H, Romdhane H, Traissac P, et al. Nutritional status of Tunisian adolescents: associated gender, environmental and socio-economic factors. *Public Health Nutr.* 2008;11:1306–1317.
 84. Durrani AM, Fatima W. Determinants of blood pressure distribution in school children. *Eur J Public Health.* 2012;22:369–373.
 85. Ochoa-Avilés A, Andrade S, Huynh T, et al. Prevalence and socioeconomic differences of risk factors of cardiovascular disease in Ecuadorian adolescents. *Pediatr Obes.* 2012;7:274–283.
 86. Victora CG, Aquino EM, do Carmo Leal M, et al. Maternal and child health in Brazil: progress and challenges. *Lancet.* 2011;377:1863–1876.
 87. Victora CG, Barros AJ, Axelson H, et al. How changes in coverage affect equity in maternal and child health interventions in 35 Countdown to 2015 countries: an analysis of national surveys. *Lancet.* 2012;380:1149–1156.
 88. Cai X, Wardlaw T, Brown DW. Global trends in exclusive breastfeeding. *Int Breastfeed J.* 2012;7:12.
 89. Brion MJ, Lawlor DA, Matijasevich A, et al. What are the causal effects of breastfeeding on IQ, obesity and blood pressure? Evidence from comparing high-income with middle-income cohorts. *Int J Epidemiol.* 2011;40:670–680.
 90. Pausova Z, Mahboubi A, Abrahamowicz M, et al. Sex differences in the contributions of visceral and total body fat to blood pressure in adolescence. *Hypertension.* 2012;59:572–579.
 91. Syme C, Abrahamowicz M, Leonard GT, et al. Intra-abdominal adiposity and individual components of the metabolic syndrome in adolescence. *Arch Pediatr Adol Med.* 2008;162:453–461.
 92. Esler M, Straznicki N, Eikelis N, et al. Mechanisms of sympathetic activation in obesity-related hypertension. *Hypertension.* 2006;48:787–796.
 93. Alvarez GE, Beske SD, Ballard TP, Davy KP. Sympathetic neural activation in visceral obesity. *Circulation.* 2002;106:2533–2536.
 94. Huggert RJ, Burns J, Mackintosh AF, Mary DA. Sympathetic neural activation in nondiabetic metabolic syndrome and its further augmentation by hypertension. *Hypertension.* 2004;44:847–852.
 95. Weise M, Eisenhofer G, Merke DP. Pubertal and gender-related changes in the sympathoadrenal system in healthy children. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2002;87:5038–5043.
 96. Pausova Z, Abrahamowicz M, Mahboubi A, et al. Functional variation in the androgen-receptor gene is associated with visceral

- adiposity and blood pressure in male adolescents. *Hypertension*. 2010;55:706–714.
97. de Moraes AC, Adami F, Falcão MC. Understanding the correlates of adolescents' dietary intake patterns. A multivariate analysis. *Appetite*. 2012;58:1057–1062.
98. Sun W, Andreeva VA, Unger JB, et al. Age-related smoking progression among adolescents in China. *J Adolesc Health*. 2006;39:686–693.
99. Donath C, Grässel E, Baier D, et al. Predictors of binge drinking in adolescents: ultimate and distal factors—a representative study. *BMC Public Health*. 2012;12:263.
100. Khang YH, Lynch JW. Exploring determinants of secular decreases in childhood blood pressure and hypertension. *Circulation*. 2011;124:397–405.
101. Lazarou C, Panagiotakos DB, Kouta C, Matalas AL. Dietary and other lifestyle characteristics of Cypriot school children: results from the nationwide CYKIDS study. *BMC Public Health*. 2009;9:147.
102. Nettlefold L, McKay HA, Naylor PJ, et al. The relationship between objectively measured physical activity, sedentary time, and vascular health in children. *Am J Hypertens*. 2012;25:914–919.
103. Mertens T. Estimating the effects of misclassification. *Lancet*. 1993;342:418–421.
104. Lovibond K, Jowett S, Barton P, et al. Cost-effectiveness of options for the diagnosis of high blood pressure in primary care: a modelling study. *Lancet*. 2011;378:1219–1230.
105. Thompson M, Dana T, Bougatsos C, et al. Screening for hypertension in children and adolescents to prevent cardiovascular disease. *Pediatrics*. 2013;131:490–525.
106. Natale V, Rajagopalan A. Worldwide variation in human growth and the World Health Organization growth standards: a systematic review. *BMJ Open*. 2014;4:e0037358.
107. Barreto SM, Miranda JJ, Figueroa JP, et al. Epidemiology in Latin America and the Caribbean: current situation and challenges. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2012;41:557–571.
108. May AL, Kuklina EV, Yoon PW. Prevalence of cardiovascular disease risk factors among US adolescents. *Pediatrics*. 2012;129:1035–1041.
109. Thomas NE, Jasper M, Williams DRR, et al. Secular trends in established and novel cardiovascular risk factors in Welsh 12–13 year olds: a comparison between 2002 and 2007. *Ann Human Biol*. 2011;38:22–27.