

Latin American consensus on hypertension in patients with diabetes type 2 and metabolic syndrome

Patricio López-Jaramillo^a, Ramiro A. Sánchez^b, Margarita Díaz^c, Leonardo Cobos^d, Alfonso Bryce^e, Jose Z. Parra Carrillo^f, Fernando Lizcano^g, Fernando Lanas^h, Isaac Sinayⁱ, Iván D. Sierra^j, Ernesto Peñaherrera^k, Mario Bendersky^l, Helena Schmid^m, Rodrigo Boteroⁿ, Manuel Urina^o, Joffre Lara^p, Milton C. Foss^q, Gustavo Márquez^r, Stephen Harrap^s, Agustín J. Ramírez^b, Alberto Zanchetti^t, on behalf of the Latin America Expert Group

The present document has been prepared by a group of experts, members of cardiology, endocrinology and diabetes societies of Latin American countries, to serve as a guide to physicians taking care of patients with diabetes, hypertension and comorbidities or complications of both conditions. Although the concept of 'metabolic syndrome' is currently disputed, the higher prevalence in Latin America of that cluster of metabolic alterations has suggested that 'metabolic syndrome' is a useful nosographic entity in the context of Latin American medicine. Therefore, in the present document, particular attention is paid to this syndrome in order to alert physicians on a particularly high-risk population, usually underestimated and undertreated. These recommendations result from presentations and debates by discussion panels during a 2-day conference held in Bucaramanga, in October 2012, and all the participants have approved the final conclusions. The authors acknowledge that the publication and diffusion of guidelines do not suffice to achieve the recommended changes in diagnostic or therapeutic strategies, and plan suitable interventions overcoming knowledge, attitude and behavioural barriers, preventing both physicians and patients from effectively adhering to guideline recommendations.

Keywords: arterial hypertension, diabetes, Latin American consensus, metabolic syndrome

Abbreviations: ABPM, Twenty-four-hour ambulatory blood pressure monitoring; ACCOMPLISH, Avoiding Cardiovascular Events through Combination Therapy in Patients Living with Systolic Hypertension; ACCORD, Action to Control Cardiovascular Risk in Diabetes Study; ACEI, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors; ADA, American Diabetes Association; ADVANCE, Action in diabetes and vascular disease# preterax and diamicron mr controlled evaluation Study; ALTITUDE, Aliskiren Trial in Type 2 Diabetes Using Cardio-Renal Endpoints; ARB, angiotensin receptor blockers; ATP III, Adult Treatment Panel III; BP, blood pressure; CCB, calcium channel blockers; CHD, coronary heart disease; CI, confidence interval; CKD-EPI, Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration; EMEA, European Medicines Agency; ESH-ESC, European Society of Hypertension-European Society of Cardiology; ESRD,

end-stage renal disease; FDAU.S., US Food and Drug Administration; GFR, glomerular filtration rate; Hb A1c, glycosylated haemoglobin; HIC, high-income countries; HOPE, Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation; HOT, Hypertension Optimal Treatment Study; IDF, International Diabetes Federation; IFG, impaired fasting glucose; IGTT, impaired glucose tolerance test; LIC, low-income countries; MDRD, Modification of Diet in Renal Disease; OGTT, oral glucose tolerance test; ONTARGET, Ongoing Telmisartan Alone and in Combination with Ramipril Global Endpoint Trial; PAHO, Pan American Health Organization; PURE, Prospective Urban Rural Epidemiology study; RAAS, renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system; UAE, urinary albumin excretion; UKPDS, United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study; UMIC & LMIC, upper middle and low middle income; VO_{2 max}, aerobic capacity; WHO-ISH, WHO-International Society of Hypertension

Journal of Hypertension 2013, 31:223–238

^aFundación Oftalmológica de Santander FOSCAL, Universidad de Santander UDES, Bucaramanga, Colombia, ^bArterial Hypertension and Metabolic Unit, Hospital Universitario, Fundación Favaloro, Buenos Aires, Argentina, ^cClínica Platinum, Montevideo, Uruguay, ^dColegio Panamericano del Endotelio, Santiago, Chile, ^eClínica del Golf, Lima, Peru, ^fUniversidad de Guadalajara, Guadalajara, Mexico, ^gAsociación Colombiana de Endocrinología, Universidad de La Sabana, Bogotá, Colombia, ^hUniversidad de la Frontera, Temuco, Chile, ⁱInstituto Cardiologico de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, Argentina, ^jAsociacion Latinoamericana de Diabetes, Bogota, Colombia, ^kHospital Luis Vernaza, Guayaquil, Ecuador, ^lUniversidad de Cordoba, Cordoba, Argentina, ^mUniversidad Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, Brazil, ⁿCentro Medico, Medellin, Colombia, ^oSociedad Colombiana de Cardiología, Bogotá, Colombia, ^pSociedad Ecuatoriana de Aterosclerosis, Guayaquil, Ecuador, ^qUniversidad de Sao Paulo, Ribeirao Preto, Brazil, ^rFederation Diabetologica Colombiana, Corozal, Colombia, ^sUniversity of Melbourne, Melbourne, Australia and ^tInstituto Auxologico Italiano, Milan, Italy

Correspondence to Patricio López-Jaramillo, MD, Clínica de Síndrome Metabólico, Prediabetes y Diabetes, Departamento de Investigación, Fundación Oftalmológica de Santander (FOSCAL), Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de Santander (UDES), Calle 155 A No. 23-09, Floridablanca, Santander, SA, Colombia. E-mail jlopezj@gmail.com

Received 6 November 2012 Accepted 6 November 2012

J Hypertens 31:223–238 © 2013 Wolters Kluwer Health | Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.

DOI:10.1097/HJH.0b013e32835c5444

INTRODUCTION

Hypertension, diabetes and that cluster of metabolic alterations often referred to as the metabolic syndrome are highly prevalent in Latin America and occur frequently as associated conditions. The development of diagnostic and therapeutic recommendations prepared through the joint work of experts in different areas of medicine is desirable, considering the low rates of control achieved in the real world, and the benefits that can be expected when reasonable objectives are met. Healthcare resources and priorities, the socioeconomic status of the population and the prevalence of hypertension, diabetes mellitus and other related diseases vary considerably in different regions of the world and also in different countries within each region, and even in different areas of individual countries. Recommendations to be usefully translated into practice should consider the particular medical and social features of the region where they should be applied and be cost-effective in terms of local needs and possibilities. For these reasons, the WHO-International Society of Hypertension (WHO-ISH) [1] and European Society of Hypertension-European Society of Cardiology (ESH-ESC) [2] documents have encouraged the development of regional guidelines. Furthermore, acceptance and usage are likely to be greater if local physicians and experts are involved in their development and subsequent diffusion and implementation [3,4].

That is why this document has been prepared by a group of experts, members of cardiology, endocrinology and diabetes societies of Latin American countries, to serve as a guide to physicians taking care of patients with diabetes, hypertension and comorbidities or complications of both conditions. Although the concept of 'metabolic syndrome' is currently disputed, the higher prevalence in Latin America of that cluster of metabolic alterations has suggested that 'metabolic syndrome' is a useful nosographic entity in the context of Latin American medicine. Therefore, in the present document, particular attention is paid to this syndrome in order to alert physicians on a particularly high-risk population, usually underestimated and undertreated.

These recommendations result from presentations and debates by discussion panels during a 2-day conference held in Bucaramanga, in October 2012. Chairs and moderators of the plenary session were Dr Stephen Harrap and Dr Alberto Zanchetti, and all the participants have approved the final conclusions.

The authors acknowledge that the publication and diffusion of guidelines do not suffice to achieve the recommended changes in diagnostic or therapeutic strategies, and plan suitable interventions overcoming knowledge, attitude and behavioural barriers preventing both physicians and patients from effectively adhering to guideline recommendations [5,6].

A great diversity in socioeconomic characteristics is found in Latin American countries, and this is reflected in differences in cardiovascular mortality and morbidity. At variance with what has occurred in the United States and Western Europe, in most Latin American countries, cardiovascular mortality rate has increased during the last decades of the twentieth century and the beginning of the twenty-

first century, with the exception of Argentina and Uruguay. Even in the latter countries, however, cardiovascular morbidity and prevalence of cardiovascular risk factors have persisted unchanged or have increased, what has particularly occurred for arterial hypertension, obesity, metabolic syndrome and diabetes [7,8]. Indeed, years before the current increase of cardiovascular illness, lifestyle changes have appeared in the region with changes away from traditional alimentary habits and access to westernized models of nutrition that are likely to have facilitated the genetic expression of these diseases [9]. The pattern of morbidity is further complicated by the phenomenon of a progressive migration of rural inhabitants to urban areas, which increases the urban periphery with low resource individuals, favouring emergent risk factors as acculturation, violence, stress and malnutrition [7].

PREVALENCE OF ARTERIAL HYPERTENSION IN LATIN AMERICA

Cardiovascular risk factors are defined as biological characteristics or lifestyles increasing the probability (risk) of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality [10]. As a cardiovascular risk factor, hypertension usually integrates a cluster of risk factors defined, operationally, as the metabolic syndrome. Among these risk factors, arterial hypertension ranks as the first cause of mortality worldwide, and the third cause of illness-induced disability after malnutrition and risky sex [11].

Table 1 shows prevalence, awareness, treatment and control of arterial hypertension in Latin America. Prevalence of hypertension [12–14] was similar in Argentina (25–36%), Uruguay (30%), Paraguay (21–30%) and the south of Brazil (31–33%). In Chile [15], differences were found depending on socioeconomic level (lower: 24.5%, higher 17.9%). Differences depending on the living areas were observed in Mexico, when urban (30%) or rural areas (11.7%) were compared [16]. A recent study [17 and Chow *et al.* in preparation], the Prospective Urban Rural Epidemiology (PURE) study, included 153 996 adults (35–70 years) from 628 rural and urban communities from three high-income countries (HICs), 10 upper middle and low middle income (UMIC and LMIC) and four low-income countries (LIC) in various parts of the world. Hypertension was defined when individuals reported treatment for hypertension or had an average blood pressure (BP) greater than 140/90 mmHg from two measures of resting sitting BP using an automated digital device. Overall, 40.7% of participants were found to have hypertension, with 13.3% having a BP of at least 160/100 mmHg and 4.4% a BP of at least 180/110 mmHg. Of those with hypertension, 46.4% were aware of this condition, 40.6% were on pharmacological treatment, but only 13.1% had BP controlled (<140/90 mmHg). The prevalence of hypertension was similar in UMIC (49.6%), HIC (40.7%) and LMIC (39.6%), but lowest in LIC (32.2%). The percentages of awareness (HIC: 49.1%, UMIC: 52.4%, LMIC: 43.5% and LIC: 40.8%; trend = $P < 0.001$), treatment (46.8, 48.3, 36.8 and 31.7%, respectively; trend = $P < 0.001$) and controlled (19, 15.5, 9.9 and 12.7%, respectively; trend = $P < 0.001$) were inversely related to the economic level of the country. Prevalence,

TABLE 1. Awareness, treatment and control rates of arterial hypertension in Latin America

Country	Place	Year of publication	Age (years)	Total number	Hypertensive patients (%)	% Awareness	% Treated	% Controlled
Argentina	La Plata	1988–1989	15–75	6386	32.3	44.0 (42.8–45.2)	33.1 (31.0–35.2)	5.0 (4.3–5.4)
	Rauch	1992	15–75	1523	35.7	36.5 (35.5–37.5)	32.7 (31.1–32.9)	4.0 (2.6–6.0)
	Lujan	1995	18–79	2475	24.6	56.9 (55.7–58.1)	54.2 (53.0–55.4)	23.0 (22.0–24.0)
	Cordoba	1999	15–85	6875	29.9	54.9 (52.4–57.4)	43.0 (40.5–45.5)	13.0 (11.3–14.8)
	Dean Funes	1999	20–70	750	29.7	19.3 (14.4–25.1)	6.7 (3.8–10.8)	–
	Rosario	1999	21–65	2071	31.3	79.7 (78.1–81.3)	47.8 (45.8–49.8)	25.3 (23.3–26.8)
Brazil	Rural/Urban	NP	19–99	10415	26.0	50.8 (48.6–53.0)	41.7 (39.6–43.8)	13.0 (11.3–14.8)
	Buenos Aires	2005	25–64	1482	29.0	64.1 (59.9–68.2)	41.6 (37.9–45.8)	18.0 (14.8–21.2)
Brazil	Porto Alegre	1994	>18	1091	29.7	39.1 (33.7–44.6)	13.8 (10.3–18.1)	–
	Sao Paulo (NE)	2001	>18	688	31.5	77.0 (70.7–82.4)	61.8 (54.9–68.3)	17.0 (12.3–22.7)
Colombia	Bogota	2005	25–64	1553	13.5	68.8 (62.5–75.5)	55.0 (48.2–61.8)	30.6 (25.8–35.5)
Chile	Concepción	1988	>14	10139	18.6	65.7 (63.5–67.8)	30.0 (27.9–32.2)	7.5 (6.4–8.7)
	Concepción	2004	>15	8472	21.6	66.6 (NR)	59.9 (NR)	30.7 (NR)
	Valparaíso	1999	25–69	3120	11.0	44.0 (42.2–45.8)	22.0 (20.5–23.5)	–
	Santiago	2005	25–69	1655	23.8	61.1 (55.4–64.7)	43.0 (38.8–47.7)	20.3 (16.4–24.2)
Cuba	National	NR	NR	102235	39.7	70.2 (NR)	–	39.7 (39.2–40.2)
Ecuador	National	1999	>18	10605	28.6	41.0 (37.7–43.4)	23.0 (22.3–23.8)	7.0 (6.5–7.5)
	Quito	2005	25–64	1638	8.6	67.6 (60.2–74.9)	51.8 (43.9–59.8)	28.0 (19.9–36.1)
Mexico	Guadalajara	1980	>16	4031	21.5	51.3 (47.9–54.7)	45.6 (42.3–49.1)	7.6 (6.0–9.6)
	Aguas Calientes	1997	>25	6128	26.8	75.0 (73.9–76.1)	37.0 (35.8–39.2)	–
	Durango	1998	>20	5802	21.9	69.1 (67.9–70.3)	–	–
	North (Rural)	2000	25–64	815	6.8	41.0 (37.5–44.5)	–	–
	National	2000	25–64	38377	31.3	43.0 (42.1–43.9)	20.3 (17.9–22.9)	4.9 (3.7–6.3)
	Mexico DF	2005	25–64	1722	11.6	75.7 (70.1–81.2)	65.7 (60.4–70.9)	41.0 (36.2–45.8)
Paraguay	National	1995	18–74	9880	30.4	11.0 (10.4–11.7)	5.5 (5.1–6.0)	0.0
Peru	Lima	2005	25–64	1652	12.5	53.1 (46.5–59.6)	28.8 (24.0–33.5)	12.0 (8.4–15.7)
Uruguay	Minas	NR	>18	560	37.3	78.5 (72.2–83.9)	47.4 (40.4–54.3)	16.3 (11.5–22.0)
Venezuela	Barquisimeto	1994	>20	15000	23.5	61.3 (60.5–62.1)	46.0 (44.4–47.6)	20.6 (19.2–22.0)
	Barquisimeto	2000	≥20	7424	36.8	45.7 (44.7–46.8)	22.9 (21.9–23.9)	4.5 (4.0–5.0)
	Maracaibo	2005	25–64	1848	24.6	72.0 (67.8–76.2)	48.9 (44.2–53.5)	20.7 (17.4–24)

Awareness, treated and controlled refers to patients who are aware of arterial hypertension, under treatment and reached values $\leq 140/90$ mmHg. Data, in these cases, are given as percentual of the hypertensive population (95% CI). CI, confidence interval; NR, not referred.

awareness, treatment and control were higher in urban than in rural communities in LIC and in LMIC, but this did not occur in HIC and UMIC. Overall, 12.5% of treated hypertensive patients received two or more BP lowering medications, with a decreasing trend from wealthier to poorer countries (HIC, 18.1%, UMIC 14.5%, LMIC 14.1%, LIC 1.6%; $P < 0.0001$). Lower level of education was strongly associated with lower rates of awareness, treatment and control in countries of lower economic status, but this was less evident in other countries. Hypertension prevalence was highest in participants with diabetes (63%), and even though awareness was 74.4%, and the percentage of those who received treatment 69.3%, the control rate was only 23.3%. Analysis by region indicated that prevalence of hypertension was highest in Africa (56.6%), followed by Malaysia (46.5%) and South America (46.5%). The South American countries included in the PURE study were Argentina, Brazil, Chile and Colombia. Table 2 shows the characteristics of the individuals studied by country. Awareness, treatment and control of hypertension in the four South America countries averaged 57.0, 52.8 and 18.3%, respectively [Chow *et al.* in preparation].

From the data reviewed, it can be concluded that, all over the world, hypertension detection and treatment are poor, and that even the majority of the patients being treated have poor BP control. These findings were common to all countries with different economic levels, although

treatment and control were markedly worse in LIC. Thus, systematic efforts for community-wide screening and implementation of simple algorithm based strategies are crucial to reduce the burden of hypertension-related disease.

PREVALENCE OF METABOLIC SYNDROME IN LATIN AMERICA

In Latin America the prevalence of metabolic syndrome components, including arterial hypertension, appears to be increasing. A large body of local studies [18–41] has reported that the prevalence in adults range from 25 to 45%, with important differences between urban and rural areas, but comparisons are difficult because different definitions of metabolic syndrome were used. In patients with myocardial infarction or stroke [27], the prevalence was as high as 75%, regardless of the diagnosed criteria used (International Diabetes Federation, IDF, or Adult Treatment Panel III, ATP III.). In a recent meta-analysis, which included 12 cross-sectional studies in Latin American countries [42], the general prevalence (weighted mean) of metabolic syndrome using the ATP III criteria was 24.9% (range: 18.8–43.3%). The metabolic syndrome was slightly more frequent in women (25.3%) than in men (23.2%), and the age group with the highest prevalence was that over 50 years. The most frequent components of metabolic syndrome were low high-density lipoprotein

TABLE 2. Characteristics of South America participants by country

Country	Number	Recruited (years)	Rural [n = (%)]	Female [n = (%)]	Age (years, SD)	SBP (mmHg, SD)	DBP (mmHg, SD)	BP ≥140/90 mmHg [n = (%)]	BP ≥160/100 mmHg [n = (%)]
Argentina	7483	2006–2009	3894 (52.0)	4603 (61.5)	51 (10.0)	135.6 (21.7)	82.75 (12.5)	3804 (50.8)	2455 (32.6)
Brasil	5566	2005–2009	1300 (23.4)	3076 (55.3)	52 (9.4)	132.33 (23.8)	86.63 (38.0)	2928 (52.6)	2274 (37.5)
Chile	3212	2006–2009	643 (20.0)	2135 (66.5)	52 (9.8)	130.80 (22.2)	82.11 (20.4)	1499 (46.7)	1058 (30.7)
Colombia	7417	2005–2009	3964 (53.4)	4759 (64.2)	51 (9.7)	128.77 (23.3)	81.05 (16.9)	2781 (37.5)	1737 (23.3)

BP ≥140/90 mmHg: self-reported hypertension or values ≥140/90 mmHg; BP ≥160/100 mmHg: self-reported hypertension or values ≥160/100 mmHg. BP, blood pressure. Adapted from Chow et al. in preparation.

(HDL)-cholesterol levels (62.9%) and abdominal obesity (45.8%). Similar findings were reported in the multicentre CARMELA study on Latin American cities [21].

PREVALENCE OF DIABETES TYPE 2 IN LATIN AMERICA

In the Latin American urban population, the prevalence of diabetes is between 4 and 8%, being higher in countries or areas with a lower or medium socioeconomic level (Table 3). However, data are scanty and the percentage of patients without confirmation of the diagnosis is around 30–50% and can be higher in rural areas. The CARMELA study [12] conducted in seven Latin American cities during 2005 found that the prevalence of diabetes had almost doubled from values previously reported. Diabetes prevalence was 6.0% in Barquisimeto (Venezuela), 8.0% in Bogotá (Colombia), 6.2% in Buenos Aires (Argentina), 8.9% in Mexico and 7.2% in Santiago (Chile). As in other areas of the world, the growing prevalence of diabetes in Latin America is due, mainly, to changes in lifestyle: lower physical activity, higher caloric intake and increased prevalence of overweight/obesity as well as urbanization.

In diabetic populations, the prevalence of arterial hypertension is 1.5–3 times higher than in nondiabetic individuals with similar age, with a particularly high association in medium and low-income countries [12,43–48].

PREVALENCE OF OVERWEIGHT AND OBESITY IN LATIN AMERICA

The important proportion of individuals with overweight (BMI 25–29.9 kg/m²) and obesity (BMI ≥30 kg/m²) can be

appreciated in different surveys in Latin America [44–61]. In Rosario, Argentina [48], the prevalence of overweight was 40% and that of obesity 29%. In the city of Rio de Janeiro [55], overweight was present in 40% and obesity in 21% of the population studied. In Mexico [43,49], the overweight prevalence ranged from 37% in rural areas to 48% in Mexico DF, and obesity was around 21% (rural: 7%, DF: 29%). In Cuba [54], overweight and obesity together were around 22%. In many studies, obesity and arterial hypertension were strongly associated with a proportion of 40% of individuals with both arterial hypertension and obesity.

Estimates of the specific prevalence of obesity have shown a great variability among Latin American populations, ranging from 9.9 to 35.7% [57]. Women [23,33,37,51] and individuals living in urban areas [41] have been identified as the groups predominantly affected. In addition, obesity has been independently associated with low socioeconomic status and poorer educational level [49,53], thus contributing to health inequalities in the region [59,60]. However, there is evidence of a secular trend towards an increase in obesity prevalence in the most economically developed Latin American countries [61].

As with adults, obesity has also become a health problem with children in Latin America, because a high risk of obesity persistence in adult age is associated with development of arterial hypertension [22,50,51].

METABOLIC SYNDROME, DIABETES AND HYPERTENSION: DEFINITION, DIAGNOSIS AND CLINICAL EVALUATION

Metabolic syndrome

As mentioned above, the concept of metabolic syndrome is disputed mostly because it is hard to prove that the syndrome cardiovascular risk is higher than that attributable to the sum of the risks attributed to each of its component. However, metabolic syndrome is a clinical pattern with easily detectable features, yet largely under-detected, and indicates, under a simple term, a cluster of metabolic alterations highly prevalent in Latin America. Thus, it is a useful instrument to identify individuals at a higher risk of cardiovascular disease (CVD) as well as of diabetes. It is commonly accepted that all components of metabolic syndrome are associated with insulin resistance [26,62,63].

The recent consensus of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention, the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute, the American Heart Association, the World Heart

TABLE 3. Prevalence of diabetes mellitus in Latin America

Country	%
Argentina	5.0 ^a
Bolivia	7.2 ^b
Brasil	7.6 ^c
Colombia	7.3 ^b
Cuba	4.5
Chile	3.9 ^b
Jamaica	13.4 ^a
México	8.6 ^b
Paraguay	6.2 ^b
Uruguay	7.0 ^b
Venezuela	4.4 ^b

% = Population studies published until 2010.

^aWHO 1980.

^bWHO 1985.

^cADA-WHO 1997.

Federation, the International Atherosclerosis Society and the International Association for the Study of Obesity [62] has proposed that the presence of three of the five following criteria make the diagnosis of metabolic syndrome:

- (1) Elevated waist circumference, the definition of which is population and country specific;
- (2) Elevated triglycerides at least 150 mg/dl, or drug treatment for elevated triglycerides;
- (3) Reduced HDL-cholesterol less than 40 mg/dl in men and less than 50 mg/dl in women. (Drug treatment for reduced HDL-cholesterol is an alternative indicator, such as nicotinic acid);
- (4) BP in the high-normal or hypertensive range (SBP \geq 130 mmHg and/or DBP \geq 85 mmHg or current antihypertensive drug treatment); and
- (5) Elevated fasting glucose at least 100 mg/dl or drug treatment for elevated glucose plasma levels.

Several authors consider that central (abdominal) obesity is the main factor in metabolic syndrome and should be included in the diagnosis. To define abdominal obesity in Latin America, a recent study [64], which has included capital cities of various countries, has recommended cut-off values of waist circumference of 94 cm for men and 88 cm for women. However, a number of independent studies have indicated that the cut-off points suggested by the IDF (90 cm for men and 80 cm for women) are better related with the presence of the other components of the metabolic syndrome in the Latin American population [27,28,30,34,36]. Although no cohort studies are available in Latin America evaluating the relation of waist circumference cut-off points with future development of diabetes or CVD, it is expected that, as with most risk factors, the relation is continuous, and any cut-off is based on arbitrary conventions. The choice of the authors of this consensus document is to use the IDF cut-off values. The risk factors that are associated with a higher risk of metabolic syndrome are listed as follows:

- (1) Family history of type 2 diabetes mellitus;
- (2) Gestational diabetes mellitus;
- (3) Macrosomy
- (4) Low birth weight
- (5) Childhood undernutrition
- (6) High perinatal mortality and/or early CVD in first-order relatives;
- (7) Sedentary habit;
- (8) Diet rich in animal fat;
- (9) Ethnicity;
- (10) Low socioeconomic status;
- (11) History of dislipidemia, obesity and hypertension;
- (12) Hyperandrogenism in women; and
- (13) Achantosis nigricans.

The diagnosis of metabolic syndrome may be helpful in primary prevention of diabetes mellitus, hypertension and CVD. Detection is expected to increase awareness of cardiometabolic risk in both physicians and patients and consequently to reinforce motivation, for adequate changes

in lifestyle and weight reduction. Evidence for drug treatment is lacking, but when BP and plasma glucose are above the accepted threshold defining hypertension and, respectively, diabetes, antihypertensive and antidiabetic treatments should be initiated.

Type 2 diabetes

The criteria for diagnosis of type 2 diabetes mellitus, adopted and recommended by the Latin American Consensus, are listed as follows:

- (1) Fasting glucose at least 126 mg/dl in two successive readings
- (2) At least 200 mg/dl 120 min after oral glucose tolerance test
- (3) At least 200 mg/dl at any time in the presence of symptoms

The American Diabetes Association (ADA) criteria for diabetes diagnosis [65] were adopted, but the importance of the oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) as a more specific diagnostic tool was considered. The recently revived term 'prediabetes', and a lower threshold for glucose intolerance [an impaired fasting glucose (IFG: 100–125 mg/dl) and/or impaired glucose tolerance test (IGTT: 140–199 mg/dl)] may improve diabetes detection [66,67], but cost-effectiveness of this strategy in terms of treatment implementation and prevention of complications is yet unknown [68], and therefore, the ADA classification has been preferred [65].

Hypertension: classification and diagnosis

After considering the classifications proposed by the Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure [69], the 2007 ESH-ESC guidelines on hypertension management [70], the 2009 Reappraisal of the European guidelines [71] and the previous Latin American Consensus on Arterial Hypertension [10], it was decided, as shown in Table 4, to maintain the concept that hypertension is diagnosed when BP values are at least 140 or 90 mmHg in the physician's office or health clinic. Above this value, hypertension can be subdivided in grade 1, 2 or 3. This classification also applies to isolated systolic hypertension, which must be diagnosed and treated especially in older patients. Elderly patients aged over 80 years should be diagnosed as hypertensive when BP is at least 150/90 mmHg. In elderly patients, BP should also be measured in the upright position to detect a possible excessive orthostatic decline.

TABLE 4. Classification of blood pressure and hypertension recommended by the Latin American Consensus

Blood pressure	Value (mmHg)
Optimal	<120/80
Normal	120/80–129/84
High normal	130/85–139/89
Grade 1 hypertension	140/90–159/99
Grade 2 hypertension	160/100–179/109
Grade 3 hypertension	\geq 180/110
Isolated systolic hypertension	\geq 140/<90

TABLE 5. Hypertension, blood pressure criteria

Hypertension	Office or clinic blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg (average of three measurements/visit, three visits) 24-h ABP $\geq 130/80$ mmHg, daytime ABP $\geq 135/85$ mmHg Home or self-measurement BP $\geq 135/85$ mmHg
White-coat hypertension	Office or clinic hypertension and home or ambulatory normotension
Masked hypertension	Office or clinic normotension with home or ambulatory hypertension

ABP, ambulatory blood pressure.

Arterial hypertension is actually classified as primary, essential or idiopathic, when BP is consistently higher than normal with no known underlying cause. It represents over 90% of all cases of hypertension. Hypertension is defined as secondary, when BP is elevated as a result of an underlying, identifiable and often correctable cause (the remaining 10% of the hypertensive patients).

Diagnosis of hypertension should be based on at least three different BP measurements, taken on, at least, two separate office or clinic visits. Arterial hypertension should be diagnosed when BP is at least 140 and/or 90 mmHg. Although office or clinic values are those upon which diagnosis and treatment should be usually based, there are additional methods of BP measurement that are useful in several cases. Twenty-four-hour ambulatory BP monitoring (ABPM) is more closely related to prognosis than office BP [72,73], and two subgroups of hypertensive patients can be detected, when office and ambulatory BP are found divergent: white-coat hypertensive patients (office hypertension and ambulatory normotension) and masked hypertensive patients (office normotension along with ambulatory hypertension). Upper cut-off values for hypertension diagnosis by ABPM are indicated in Table 5.

There are clinical situations in which ABPM may be helpful for the diagnosis of hypertension, for example when white-coat hypertension is suspected, when patients with marked hypertension have no signs of target organ damage and when there are marked differences in BP values measured at different visits. There are also indications for home BP measurements, which are known to increase treatment compliance. Only validated automatic devices should be used, and the patient instructed to do the measurements in the seated position, after several minutes of rest, ideally both in the morning and evening. During treatment, measurements should be

done before antihypertensive drugs are taken in the morning.

To manage a hypertensive patient, not only BP levels should be considered but also total cardiovascular risk. In order to stratify total cardiovascular risk, the number of cardiovascular risk factors, the absence or presence of target organ damage and of previous or concurrent clinical conditions or outcomes, including the metabolic syndrome and diabetes, should be taken into account together with BP grading, as summarized in Table 6.

Hypertension in patients with diabetes

As a result of impaired autonomic function and extensive organ damage, higher BP variability, marked orthostatic responses and impaired nocturnal BP reductions are common features in diabetic individuals [72]. These features have diagnostic, prognostic and therapeutic implications: the number of BP measurements for decision-making should be higher, detection of orthostatic hypotension should be a routine procedure, and home and, especially, ambulatory BP measurements are strongly recommended in diabetic individuals, whenever possible. Updated information on this topic is available [73], and training in the interpretation of data is advisable.

Recommendations on diagnostic evaluation in patients with hypertension and diabetes are summarized in Table 7. The diagnostic follow-up recommendations are listed as follows:

- (1) HbA1c (every 4 months)
- (2) Blood glucose self-monitoring (every 24–48 h)
- (3) Yearly: fundus, ECG, microalbuminuria, basic laboratory tests
- (4) Every 2 years: echocardiogram and ECG stress test (possible silent ischemia)

TABLE 6. Risk stratification in patients with metabolic syndrome, hypertension and diabetes type 2

Other risk factors or diseases	Normotension			Hypertension		
	Optimal	Normal	High normal	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3
No RF	Mean risk	Mean risk	Mean risk	Low added risk	Moderate added risk	High added risk
1–2 RF or social conditions of risk	Low added risk	Low added risk	Low added risk	Moderate added risk	Moderate added risk	Very high added risk
≥ 3 RFs or social conditions of risk, TOD or MS/DM	Moderate added risk	Moderate added risk	High added risk	High added risk	High added risk	Very high added risk
Clinical-associated condition	High added risk	High added risk	Very high added risk	Very high added risk	Very high added risk	Very high added risk

DM, diabetes mellitus; MS, metabolic syndrome; RF, risk factor; TOD, target organ damage.

TABLE 7. Recommended diagnostic evaluation of hypertensive patients with diabetes mellitus

Basic or minimal investigations	Clinical history and physical examination
	Blood pressure measurement (according to AHA)
	ECG
	Laboratory tests: fasting glucose and HbA1C, serum creatinine, lipid profile, liver enzymes, Na ⁺ , K ⁺
Optional investigations	Microalbuminuria (according to ADA)
	Fundoscopy (when abnormal consult an ophthalmologist)
	ABPM
	ECG stress test (men >40 years, postmenopausal women)
	Doppler echocardiogram

ABPM, ambulatory blood pressure monitoring; ADA, American Diabetes Association.

In terms of total cardiovascular risk (see Table 6), the presence of diabetes is usually considered to imply a high level of risk, but it is reasonable to believe that cardiovascular risk is different in recent or long-term diabetes, in absence or in presence of complications. In normotensive patients with diabetes, there is no evidence that BP-lowering drugs are of any benefit.

RENAL AND CARDIOVASCULAR COMPLICATIONS IN DIABETIC HYPERTENSIVE PATIENTS

Patients with diabetes and hypertension are at an increased risk of renal disease, coronary heart disease (CHD), stroke and heart failure. The association with comorbidities such as dyslipidemia, prothrombotic state and autonomic dysfunction [74] contributes to an increase in morbidity and mortality.

Diabetic nephropathy

The prevalence of nephropathy in patients with type 2 diabetes is 30–50% [75]. Three stages are described [76], which are reported as follows:

- (1) Incipient nephropathy, lasting about 10 years with supranormal glomerular filtration rate (GFR), accompanied after about 5 years by increased urinary albumin excretion (UAE: 30–300 mg/day for microalbuminuria). The presence of increased UAE identifies diabetic patients at a higher risk of developing progressive kidney damage and CVD.
- (2) Clinical evident nephropathy, characterized by a UAE over 300 mg/day (overt proteinuria), a normal or moderately reduced GFR and hypertension. If untreated, these patients are at a high risk of progressing to end-stage renal disease (ESRD). Without intervention, this condition may progress faster, and 50% of patients could reach ESRD in 10 years and 75% in 20 years. Conversely, therapeutic interventions in both types of diabetes slow the rate of GFR decline. It has been reported that 20–40% of individuals with UAE could progress to macroalbuminuria and 20% of them to ESRD.
- (3) Progressive renal insufficiency with overt proteinuria (300 mg/day) and a markedly reduced GFR (<30 ml/min). Macroalbuminuria identifies diabetic

patients with substantial histological kidney damage and predicts a linear decline in GFR.

For screening the onset and progression of diabetic nephropathy, it is mandatory to test UAE every year at the onset of diabetes 2 and to estimate GFR from serum creatinine by using one of the current validated formulae [Modification of Diet in Renal Disease (MDRD) or Chronic Kidney Disease Epidemiology Collaboration (CKD-EPI)].

Coronary heart disease

Type 2 diabetic patients with hypertension have a 1.9 times higher risk of CVD than hypertensive patients without diabetes [77]. Factors such as elevated fibrinogen levels, particularly during poor glycaemic control, elevated levels of plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 and increased platelet aggregation may be responsible [78]. These diabetes-related alterations may increase the risk of thrombosis at the site of plaque disruption and also the risk of reinfarction after thrombolytic therapy or revascularization. Furthermore, cardiac arrhythmias are frequently seen as a consequence of the autonomic dysfunction. Evaluation of CHD should include an exercise stress test followed, if positive, by a myocardial perfusion study (Single-photon emission computed tomography).

Left ventricular dysfunction and heart failure

Diabetes is a major risk factor for left ventricular dysfunction and heart failure. In the Glasgow Monica study, the incidence of left ventricular dysfunction was higher in diabetic patients (29%) than in nondiabetic individuals (7%) [79]. In the Framingham Study, relative risks for clinical heart failure were 3.8 in men and 5.5 in women with diabetes compared with those without diabetes [80]. In diabetic patients with glycosylated haemoglobin (HbA1c) less than 7.0% the rate of heart failure was 4.2 per 1000 patient years, and this rate increased to 9.2 per 1000 patients yearly when HbA1c was over 10% [80]. The poor prognosis of these patients has been explained by an underlying diabetic cardiomyopathy exacerbated by hypertension and ischaemic heart disease [81].

The high prevalence and significant morbidity and mortality of heart failure dictate early identification of risk factors and clinical signs. A careful history may help in detection of symptoms of heart failure (dyspnoea on effort, orthopnoea, nocturnal cough and easy fatigability), although patients with left ventricular systolic dysfunction may not report symptoms [82]. Therefore, the diagnosis of

heart failure in the diabetic and hypertensive patient may require further testing. Although an electrocardiogram and a radiograph may be helpful, Doppler echocardiography is needed to visualize the cardiac structural and functional changes underlying heart failure and is the recommended test whenever heart failure is suspected. As heart failure is a predictor of sudden cardiac death, 24-h Holter ECG is recommended to screen for arrhythmias.

Stroke

The rates of stroke and stroke-related disability are higher in diabetic patients than in nondiabetic individuals [83]. The risk of fatal versus nonfatal stroke is higher, the higher the level of HbA1c even many years before the outcome [83–85].

TREATMENT OF HYPERTENSION IN DIABETIC PATIENTS

Nonpharmacological treatment of hypertension in diabetes mellitus

Dietary plan

Carbohydrates will account for 55–60% of the total calories intake (TCI), minimizing refined simple carbohydrates (sugar, honey, fructose, molasses, and so on), while increasing complex carbohydrates (vegetables, fruits and whole grains). The use of noncaloric sweeteners is allowed, but those with low sodium content should be selected.

Proteins will account for 0.8–1 g/kg of ideal body weight. Animal proteins are to be preferred due to their high biological value, but legumes and cereals should be included to add proteins and fibre.

Fibre should be taken approximately 30 g/day, preferably soluble fibre.

Fat will account for no more than 30% of the TCI, with saturated (dairy fat and by-products) 10% or less, polyunsaturated (vegetable oils, dried fruits, fish) 10% and monounsaturated (avocado, olives, chicken, pork) greater than 10%.

Vitamins and trace elements should be taken as recommended for the general population.

Minerals should include sodium 2–3 g (4–6 g sodium chloride), and convenience foods should be avoided. It is advisable to know the sodium content of drinking water in the region, as it may vary widely, as it does in bottled water. Efforts should be made to meet the recommended intake of calcium, especially in hypocaloric diets, through an adequate choice of foods. Consider circumstances that may interfere with calcium absorption (malabsorption syndrome, foods rich in phytohaemagglutinins, drugs, and so on). Potassium needs can usually be met by increasing dietary vegetables and fruits.

There is no consistent evidence of the risks or benefits of moderate chronic coffee consumption (2 cups/day).

Alcohol consumption is directly related to BP levels and the prevalence of hypertension in different populations. There is also evidence that alcohol abuse blunts the effect of antihypertensive drugs. Alcohol consumption by diabetic

patients should be discouraged, or a maximum of 30 g/day allowed to men and 15 g/day to women.

Meals should be distributed as three or four meals, and one or two snacks during the day should be preferred, depending on the patient's schedule and pharmacological treatment of diabetes mellitus. Ethnical preferences and socioeconomic status should also be considered.

Physical activity

A sedentary lifestyle and the lack of physical activity are strong predictors of cardiovascular mortality, independent of BP and other risk factors. The intensity of the recommended exercise should be individualized according to the clinical condition. When the planned activity does not exceed 60% of maximum oxygen consumption (VO₂ max, e.g. walking), a clinical examination will suffice. When a more intense activity is planned, a more extensive screening of possible diabetic complications should be carried out. Special attention must be paid to silent (or compensated at rest) heart disease, proliferative retinopathy, incipient nephropathy, peripheral vascular disease, peripheral and autonomic neuropathy and osteoarthropathy, especially of the lower limbs, which may cause feet lesions. An individual, three-times-a-week-programme must be prepared, including moderate intensity recreational-like aerobic activity (equivalent to 3–5 Metabolic equivalents) in the form of sports or domestic exercise, lasting from 20–60 min per session, preceded by a previous 5 to 10-min warm-up, and followed by 5 to 10-min relaxation. The patient must be instructed on the appropriate clothing to prevent feet lesions, such as cotton socks and sport shoes. Self-monitoring of blood glucose before and after exercise may help preventing hypoglycemia and allow the patient to verify the beneficial effects of exercise on glycaemic control [86–88]. Intense exercise is contraindicated for patients with active proliferative retinopathy, clinical nephropathy or neuropathy.

Pharmacological treatment

The benefits of reducing BP in diabetic patients have been clearly shown by the results of the Hypertension Optimal Treatment (HOT) [89] and United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study (UKPDS) [90] studies among others [91–95]. Diabetic patients may require more intense treatment to achieve the same BP levels as nondiabetic individuals. Thus, almost every diabetic patient will need, in addition to nonpharmacological measures, a combination treatment to achieve BP treatment goals, as earlier as possible.

The target SBP to be achieved to guarantee an optimal protection from cardiovascular outcomes to hypertensive patients with diabetes has been an issue of intense debate, recently. Although a number of guidelines in the past [1,2,69,70] had recommended a lower target of less than 130/80 mmHg in diabetic patients (and generally in high-risk patients) than in low–moderate risk hypertensive patients (<140/90 mmHg), a recent reappraisal of the available evidence [71,96] has demonstrated that no one of the randomized trials of antihypertensive treatment in diabetic patients with hypertension has ever achieved mean SBP

values below 130 mmHg, and the recent Action to Control Cardiovascular Risk in Diabetes (ACCORD) [97] trial has shown no further reduction of cardiovascular outcomes but a higher incidence of adverse effects in the diabetic patients randomized to achieve an SBP of less than 120 as compared with an SBP of less than 140 mmHg (average values actually achieved 119 and 133 mmHg). A number of meta-analyses [98,99] have attempted to correlate cardiovascular outcomes with achieved BPs and have found no further benefit or worsening of cardiovascular outcome incidence at lower BP, with the possible exception of the incidence of stroke [99].

In summary, it appears that in hypertensive patients with diabetes, an SBP target of less than 140 mmHg can be recommended as in nondiabetic hypertensive individuals. However, values just above 130 mmHg (as achieved in ACCORD [97] and ADVANCE [100]) appear safe and may be more effective in reducing or preventing microalbuminuria [100]. As to target DBP, the results of the HOT [89] and UKPDS [90] studies indicate that values between 80 and 85 mmHg are beneficial.

As to patients with diabetic nephropathy, previous guidelines have commonly recommended BP targets 130/80 and less than 120/75 mmHg in case of proteinuria. A recent review [101] has shown that these recommendations are not supported by trial results and are only based on findings from long-term, nonrandomized follow-up of trials. It appears prudent, therefore, to recommend the same BP targets to diabetic patients with and without nephropathy.

Five classes of antihypertensive agents [diuretics, beta-blockers, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEIs), angiotensin receptor blockers (ARBs) and calcium channel blockers (CCBs)] have been used in randomized trials that have shown that BP lowering significantly reduces cardiovascular, cerebrovascular and renal outcomes in hypertensive patients with diabetes as well as without diabetes [102], and therefore, all of them can be chosen in patients with hypertension and type 2 diabetes. However, when selecting to initiate treatment with monotherapy, drugs blocking the renin–angiotensin–aldosterone system (RAAS), ACEIs or ARBs, should be preferred because of their greater antiproteinuric effect. ARBs are commonly better tolerated, and this is a relevant issue in patients with hypertension in whom adherence is essential. As a general rule, a long-acting agent providing BP reduction over the 24 h should be indicated in order to use possibly a single daily administration. Recently, regulatory agencies [US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) and European Medicines Agency (EMA)] have approved ramipril as ACEI and telmisartan as ARB for patients with high cardiovascular risk (i.e. hypertensive patients with type 2 diabetes) on the basis of Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation (HOPE) [94] and Ongoing Telmisartan Alone and in Combination with Ramipril Global Endpoint (ONTARGET) [103] trials.

In most patients with type 2 diabetes and hypertension, the desirable BP target cannot be achieved with monotherapy and treatment must include two or more agents. If before treatment SBP/DBP is far from target values, it is recommended to initiate with a two-drug combination, a

fixed combination of an ACEI or ARB with a dihydropyridine CCB or a diuretic. The Avoiding Cardiovascular Events through Combination Therapy in Patients Living with Systolic Hypertension (ACCOMPLISH) trial [104] has shown greater benefits with an ACEI/CCB rather than an ACEI/diuretic combination, but these interesting data need to be confirmed. When three drugs are needed, an ACEI or ARB along with a CCB as well as either a thiazide or indapamide diuretic should be used. In patients with a GFR less than 30 ml/min, thiazide diuretics should be replaced by a loop diuretic (such as furosemide) at appropriate doses. The association of ACEI and ARB, as well that of an ACEI or ARB with a renin inhibitor (aliskiren) have a greater antiproteinuric effect, but the association of ACEI and ARB failed to show greater outcome reduction in ONTARGET [103] and actually had more adverse effects, and ALTITUDE [105], a trial in diabetic patients testing the association of aliskiren with an ACEI or ARB, was prematurely interrupted for more adverse effects of the association. Therefore, the association of two different drugs interfering with the renin–angiotensin system, at full doses, is at present discouraged.

Diuretics and beta-blockers, particularly in association, increase insulin resistance and may facilitate onset of diabetes in predisposed individuals, and therefore this association should possibly be avoided in hypertensive patients with prediabetes or the metabolic syndrome. Vasodilating beta-blockers, such as nebivolol and carvedilol, appear not to impair insulin sensitivity, and nebivolol has recently been shown not to worsen glucose tolerance even when added to a thiazide diuretic [106]. Therefore, vasodilating beta-blockers should be preferred in those conditions in which there are compelling reasons for administering a beta blocker (ischaemic heart disease, heart failure, tachyarrhythmia, and so on).

In patients with renal and/or cardiac dysfunction, cardiac function may be improved by the administration of mineralocorticoid receptor antagonists (spironolactone, eplerenone), which have been shown to be effective in resistant hypertension. However, serum levels of potassium and GFR should be closely monitored in patients with renal disease using a RAAS inhibitor and an aldosterone antagonist.

Alpha blockers have been shown to improve insulin resistance and might be used as an additional agent in hypertensive patients with type 2 diabetes, not achieving BP target, although they are not recommended as monotherapy except in hypertensive patients with prostatic hypertrophy. Table 8 indicates antihypertensive agents to be preferred for drug management of hypertensive patients with type 2 diabetes and special conditions.

SPECIAL POPULATIONS

Hypertension and diabetes in Afro-Latin Americans

People in Latin America belong to different ethnicities [107]. The prevalence of the various ethnicities in each Latin American country is characterized by a mixture of races, ethnicities and cultures as in no other continent.

Despite the large number of black people in Latin America, there is no epidemiologic study on the prevalence

TABLE 8. Drug use recommendations for hypertensive patients with diabetes type 2 and special conditions

Coronary heart disease and/or left ventricular dysfunction	ACEI/ARBs, beta-blockers, aldosterone antagonists
Isolated systolic hypertension in the elderly	Calcium channel blockers, diuretics, ARBs
Angina pectoris	Calcium channel blockers, beta-blockers often in association
Chronic renal disease	ACEI or ARBs, especially in presence of microalbuminuria or overt proteinuria
Peripheral artery disease	Calcium channel blockers
Patients with atrial fibrillation	Beta-blockers, ARBs, ACEIs, nondihydropyridine calcium channel blockers
Left ventricular hypertrophy	ACEI, ARBs, CCBs
Benign prostatic hypertrophy	Alpha blockers

ACEI, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor; ARBs, angiotensin receptor blockers; CCB, calcium channel blocker.

of hypertension and diabetes in this population, and no studies have investigated dietary intake, physical activity, body build associated with hypertension and diabetes in a sufficiently large sample of this racial group using consistent methodologies. Most of the information results from studies conducted in the USA including black people who had migrated from Latin America and the Caribbean to USA [108,109] or USA-born youth of Latin and Caribbean origin [32].

Thus, the first recommendation of the Latin American Consensus is to encourage academic and governmental organizations in Latin America to support epidemiological, clinical and therapeutic research in African-Latin American people to investigate whether the results of USA studies also apply to African descendants living in Latin America. Up to now, the only available study assesses the importance of arterial hypertension in a rural district of black people living in the province of Esmeraldas in Ecuador [110], where 4284 of the 8876 adults living in the area were screened. Hypertension was found in 1542 (36%) of them, only four (0.3%) of whom were well controlled by treatment. In the 2.5 years of follow-up, CVD was the major cause of death in the adult population. Furthermore, four of five of the individuals who died by CVD had a history of hypertension. Thus, the prevalence of uncontrolled hypertension in this study was much higher than that reported in the USA studies.

Until a suitable number of data are collected in Latin America, the Consensus recommends adopting the recent recommendations of the International Society of Hypertension in Blacks [111]. According to the latter document among black people, there is a clear geographical difference in the prevalence of hypertension: 14% in Western Africa, 26% in Caribbean and 33% in USA. These differences are tentatively attributed to differences in diet and lifestyle. In USA, black women are more sedentary, have a high caloric intake and are more obese already in the preadult period [112,113]. Genetic and environmental factors, such as low socioeconomic status, high dietary sodium and/or low dietary potassium intake, and low birth weight because of maternal malnutrition, have been associated with poor renal development and lower number of nephrons, predisposing to arterial hypertension and early kidney dysfunction [114,115].

The cardiorenal complications related to arterial hypertension and type 2 diabetes (stroke, left ventricular hypertrophy, cardiac failure, chronic or end-stage renal failure) occur more often in black than in white people. Hypertensive blacks have 4–20 times higher risk of progressing to

dialysis than whites with similar BP levels, and mortality in African-American men is three times higher (49%) than in non-Hispanic whites in USA (16%), and two and a half times higher in black women (37%) than in non-Hispanic (14%) white women [116].

The choice between antihypertensive monotherapy and drug combination depends on the presence or absence of comorbidities, and the specific efficacy of the drugs to be used. Comparative studies have shown that black hypertensive patients have a better response to thiazide diuretics (hydrochlorothiazide or chlorthalidone) and CCBs than to ACE inhibitors, angiotensin II receptor blockers or beta-blockers [117,118]. The best control is always obtained if sodium intake is reduced. Furthermore, blacks are more prone to present angioneurotic oedema in response to ACEIs than white people [119]. Therefore, in blacks, monotherapy should be based on either a diuretic or a CCB, and when combination therapy is decided, this should include a CCB and/or a diuretic along with a RAAS blocker, preferably an ARB.

Hypertension and diabetes in the Andes population

The Latin American populations living in the Andes Mountains share similar characteristics and historic patterns of colonization as native Indians living at lower altitudes, being mostly Amerindians or mestizos. Those people living at a high altitude (over 3000 m above sea level) represent a special group in whom the prevalence of hypertension and diabetes is scarcely known. A population-based study [120] included 1878 adults living in the Peruvian Andes. The prevalence of hypertension was 15.7% [95% confidence interval (CI), 14.0–17.4], did not differ by sex and increased steeply with age, particularly in women. Awareness, treatment and control rates were 47.9, 39.5, and 14%, respectively. DBP increased until age 50 years and reached a plateau thereafter, whereas mean arterial pressure continued to increase with age even after age 50. The predominant type of hypertension was systolic-diastolic (41.7%; 95% CI, 35.1–48.5) or isolated diastolic. Isolated systolic hypertension accounted for only 29.3% of cases (95% CI, 23.9–35.4) and was responsible for a minority of cases in all age groups before age 70. That diastolic hypertension is predominant in the Andes Mountains over 3000 m above sea level has recently been confirmed in another study [121], which has found that more than 50% of this population was unaware of their hypertensive condition. This study also showed that the prevalence of

hypertension was similar in the coast, sierra and jungle areas of Peru [120,121].

Hypertension and diabetes in the elderly

The PanAmerican Health Organization (PAHO)/WHO report on demographic data from Latin America [122] has shown that people older than 60 years represent 14% of the total population in Argentina, 10% in Brazil, 13% in Chile, 8% in Colombia, 9% in Ecuador, 7% in Paraguay, 8% in Peru, 18% in Uruguay, 8% in Venezuela and 8% in Mexico.

Elderly people, defined as individuals older than 65 years, have an increased risk of arterial hypertension, specially isolated systolic hypertension [123,124], implying an additional cardiovascular risk because pulse pressure higher than 65 mmHg is associated with greater stiffness of the large arteries wall and increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality [124]. ABPM during 24 h is considered a useful tool to optimize the clinical evaluation of elderly hypertensive patients [125,126], in whom abnormal nocturnal BP falls and morning BP surges have been claimed to be associated with cerebrovascular disease [127,128], although these findings have been recently disputed [129].

All trials that have demonstrated the benefits of BP lowering in the elderly have aimed at an SBP target of less than 150 mmHg [96], and this should be considered as the evidence-based target for elderly hypertensive patients, but in the otherwise healthy elderly a target similar to that recommended for younger hypertensive patients (≤ 140 mmHg) can be considered. There is also evidence of benefits in reducing SBP to less than 150 mmHg in hypertensive patients aged 80 years and older [130]. Frail or complicated individuals should be treated with particular attention not to worsen their general health conditions.

In the elderly individuals, the pharmacological treatment must be initiated gradually to guarantee good tolerability and quality of life. Sexuality (sexual dysfunction), sleep and functional status must be considered in the clinical evaluation of this population [10].

Various clinical trials have demonstrated the benefits of reducing isolated systolic hypertension [131–133], by using diuretics or CCBs. Other trials in elderly hypertensive patients, a number of whom with isolated systolic hypertension, have also used ACE inhibitors and angiotensin receptor inhibitors, and these classes of drugs can also be used in the elderly, both as monotherapy and in combination.

In those patients with associated cardiovascular risk or comorbidities, the drug of choice must be selected in accordance with the concomitant illness, as indicated in Table 8. Long-lasting acting drugs are preferable in face of a better compliance and a sustained 24-h antihypertensive action.

THE ROLE OF ENVIRONMENT AND EPIGENETICS IN METABOLIC SYNDROME, HYPERTENSION AND DIABETES IN LATIN AMERICA

The increasing incidence of metabolic syndrome, diabetes type 2 and CVDs in Latin America seems to be associated to

environmental influences and ethnic characteristics [134]. This raises the possibility that genetic predisposition associated with particular ethnic groups might interact with environmental factors to explain different incidence of disease. There has been considerable interest in the special influence of in-utero and early-life environmental exposure. This is represented in the Developmental Origins of Disease hypothesis that emphasizes the critical periods in early life during which body structure and function can be set for life. More recently, the early effects of environment have been conceived in terms of epigenetics.

Epigenetics is the science that explains the variation of gene expression in response to changes in environmental conditions. This term includes any process that alters gene activity without changing the DNA sequences and leads to rapid but reversible modifications of DNA (e.g. methylation) or chromatin that can be transmitted to daughter cells. DNA methylation of a regulatory region for a specific gene can inhibit gene expression. Chromatin is the nuclear complex consisting of DNA wrapped around histone proteins that can be modified by acetylation to influence gene expression [135].

The mechanisms that control epigenetic processes are not yet completely understood, but it is clear that heritable DNA variation might alter the sensitivity to certain environmental triggers or change the nature of the epigenetic responses to a given exposure. In the Latin American context, the question is whether regional and ethnic variation in epigenetic processes or simply differences in the environmental exposures explain diversity in the metabolic syndrome.

It is well known that in Latin America, the maternal and childhood undernutrition has been an important problem that not yet has been resolved in an important percentage of the poor populations [136]. In Latin America, a high prevalence of arterial hypertension has been found in children, adolescents and adults with nutritional stunting [137–144]. One study in Brazil [137] that investigated arterial pressure in a random sample of adolescent slum residents with stunting (10–16 years, $n=56$) showed an elevated percentage of these individuals to have an arterial pressure above the 90th and 95th percentiles, adjusted for height, and were at a risk for hypertension. Considering the group of patients as a whole, the prevalence of diastolic arterial hypertension was 21% (95% CI, 10–32%). The prevalence of cases with a systolic or diastolic arterial pressure above the 90th percentile was 51% (95% CI, 37–65). Another study done in the northeast of Brazil [138] with 416 adults (18–60 years), also slum residents, showed that arterial hypertension was prevalent in 28.5% of the population (women, 38.5%; men, 18.4%). The SBP and DBP increased according to the reduction in stature, and hypertension was more prevalent in women who were obese and short (50%) than in those who were obese but not short [odds ratio (OR), 1.98; 95% CI, 1.22–2.96]. Recently, another survey [139] investigated whether the health conditions of mothers who had a short stature were different from those without stunting or that of their offspring. A short maternal stature was independently associated with obesity, abdominal

obesity and increased arterial pressure. Furthermore, short maternal stature was associated with a low birth weight and stunting in children. In Colombia, it was demonstrated that children 11 years old with a medium BMI of 21 kg/m², the higher tertile, presented an increase of 10 mmHg in relation to children with a medium BMI of 15 kg/m², the lower tertile [140]. Also in Brazil, Franco *et al.* [141] reported changes in the sympathoadrenal and renin–angiotensin systems in children small for their gestational age. They investigated the plasma levels of ACE, angiotensin and catecholamines in 8 to 13-year-old children to determine correlations between the plasma levels and both birth weight and BP. Circulating noradrenaline levels were significantly elevated in small gestational age girls compared with girls born with a weight appropriate for their gestational age. In addition, angiotensin II and ACE activity were higher in small gestational age boys. There was a significant association between the circulating levels of both angiotensin II and ACE activity and SBP. Another study in Brazil [142] showed that ACE activity is increased, together with an increase in systolic and diastolic pressure in children with stunting independent of birth weight.

Although in Latin America the prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus in individuals who were undernourished in early life is not known, it is known that poor countries with an accelerated process of urbanization are particularly vulnerable and have been experiencing a considerable increase in diabetes prevalence [143]. Deteriorous changes have been reported in glucose metabolism in Mexican children suffering from undernutrition in infancy. The study examined the effects of undernutrition in the first year of life on glucose tolerance and plasma insulin and found that early undernutrition in the extra-uterine period, independent of the birth weight, was associated with hyperinsulinemia and a reduced sensitivity to insulin, which worsened as BMI increased in adult life [143].

So, it is interesting to speculate that the increased rates of hypertension, metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes mellitus, observed in Latin America, could be the result of the discrepancy between the nutritional environment during foetal and early life and the adult environment. This discrepancy causes a mismatch between the foetal programming of the subject and the adult circumstances created by the imposition of new lifestyles [144]. The conflict between the earlier programming and the later presence of abdominal obesity may have produced a higher sensitivity of this population to develop a state of low-degree inflammation, insulin resistance and, consequently, an epidemic of hypertension, metabolic syndrome and diabetes. The relative roles played by genetic and environmental factors and the interaction between the two are still the subjects of great debate and merit further research.

The recommendation of the Latin American Consensus is to stimulate academia to develop research aimed to establish the epigenetic mechanisms explaining the relationship between maternal malnutrition, early growth restriction and the later occurrence of abdominal obesity and CVD in Latin America.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Participants on the Consensus

Chairs: Patricio López-Jaramillo (Colombia); Ramiro Sánchez (Argentina).

Coordinators: Agustin J. Ramirez (Argentina); Helena Schmid (Brazil).

Advisors: Alberto Zanchetti (Italy); Stephen Harrap (Australia).

Participants: Jose L. Accini (Colombia); Sergio Alvernia (Colombia); Edgar Arcos (Colombia); Myrian Ayala (Paraguay); Mario Bendersky (Argentina); Fabio Bolívar (Colombia); Rodrigo Botero (Colombia); Alfonso Bryce (Peru); Jannes Buelvas (Colombia); Carlos Calderón (Colombia); Juan Mauricio Cárdenas (Colombia); Maria E. Casanova (Colombia); Gilberto Castillo (Colombia); Leonardo Cobos (Chile); Carlos Cure (Colombia); Margarita Díaz (Uruguay); Yan C. Duarte (Ecuador); John Duperly (Colombia); Luís Echeverría (Colombia); Tatiana Espinosa (Colombia); Jhon Feliciano (Colombia); Milton C. Foss (Brazil); Peggy Freire (Ecuador); Henry García (Colombia); Luís H. García (Colombia); Santiago García (Ecuador); Diego Gómez-Arbeláez (Colombia); Erick Hernández (Colombia); Juan D. Higuera (Colombia); Diego Huertas (Colombia); Sergio Jaramillo (Colombia); Isabel Jáuregui (Colombia); Fernando Lanás (Chile); Joffre Lara (Ecuador); Fernando Lizcano (Colombia); Livia Machado (Venezuela); Helard Manrique (Peru); Fernando Manzur (Colombia); Álvaro Márquez (Colombia); Gustavo Márquez (Colombia); Javier Martínez (Colombia); Luz X. Martínez (Colombia); Félix Medina (Perú); Roberto Medina (México); Enrique Melgarejo (Colombia); Alonso Merchán (Colombia); **Harold Miranda (Colombia)**; Dora I. Molina (Colombia); Solon Navarrete (Colombia); Gustavo Parra (Colombia); Jose Z. Parra Carrillo (México); Miguel Pasquel (Ecuador); Jesus A. Peña (Colombia); Ernesto Peñaherrera (Ecuador); Maritza Perez (Colombia); Belkis Pineda (Colombia); Daniel Piskorz (Argentina); Carlos Ponte (Colombia); Hernán Prat (Chile); Juan J. Rey (Colombia); Jesus Rodriguez (Colombia); Patricia Rodriguez (Colombia); Gregorio Sánchez (Colombia); Iván D. Sierra (Colombia); Aristides Sotomayor (Colombia); Isaac Synay (Argentina); Juan C. Uribe (Colombia); Manuel Urina (Colombia); Ricardo Vargas (Chile); Boris Vesga (Colombia); Carlos Velandia-Carrillo (Colombia); Raúl Villar (Chile); Eduardo Villarreal (Colombia); Alejandro Yenes (Chile).

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

1. World Health Organization, International Society of Hypertension Writing Group. 2003 World Health Organization (WHO)/International Society of Hypertension (ISH) statement on management of hypertension. *J Hypertens* 2003; 21:1983–1992.
2. European Society of Hypertension-European Society of Cardiology Guidelines Committee. 2003 European Society of Hypertension-European Society of Cardiology guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension. *J Hypertens* 2003; 21:1011–1053.
3. Delamothe T. Wanted: guidelines that doctors will follow. *BMJ* 1993; 307:218.

4. McColl A, Smith H, White P, Field J. General practitioners' perceptions of the route to evidence based medicine: a questionnaire survey. *BMJ* 1998; 316:361–365.
5. Woolf SH. Practice guidelines, a new reality in medicine. II. Methods of developing guidelines. *Arch Intern Med* 1992; 152:946–952.
6. Cabana MD, Rand CS, Powe NR, Wu AW, Wilson MH, Abboud PA, Rubin HR. Why don't physicians follow clinical practice guidelines? A framework for improvement. *JAMA* 1999; 282:1458–1465.
7. World Health Organization. Preventing chronic diseases: a vital investment: WHO global report. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2005. pp. 1–13. http://www.who.int/chp/chronic_disease_report/en/. [Accessed 12 June 2012]
8. Americas: a growing urban population that is growing old.. Washington: OPS; 2002. http://www.paho.org/Spanish/DBI/MDS/Press1_SEA_2002.htm. [Accessed 12 June 2012]
9. Health in the Americas 2007. Washington: OPS; 2007. <http://www.paho.org/hia/home.html>. [Accessed 12 June 2012].
10. Sánchez RA, Ayala M, Baglivo H, Velázquez C, Burlando G, Kolmann O, *et al.*, on behalf of the Latin American expert Group. Latin American guidelines on hypertension. *J Hypertens* 2009; 27:905–922.
11. Ezzati M, Lopez AD, Rodgers A, Van der Hoorn S, Murray CJ, Comparative Risk Assessment Collaborating Group. Selected major risk factors and global and regional burden of disease. *Lancet* 2002; 360:1347–1360.
12. Schargrodsky H, Hernández-Hernández R, Champagne BM, Silva H, Vinuesa R, Silva-Aycaguer LC, *et al.*, for the CARMELA study. CARMELA: assessment of the CV risk in seven Latin American cities. *Am J Med* 2008; 121:58–65.
13. Barreto S, Azeredo V, Oliveira J, Guerra H, Guati-Mosim P, Furtado M. Hypertension and clustering of cardiovascular risk factors in a community in southeast Brazil. The Bambuí Health and Ageing Study. *Arq Bras Cardiol* 2001; 77:576–581.
14. Jiménez J, Palacios M, Cañete F, Barriocanal L, Medina U, Figueredo R, *et al.* Prevalence of diabetes mellitus and associated cardiovascular risk factors in an adult urban population in Paraguay. *Diabetic Med* 1998; 15:334–338.
15. Fasce E, Campos I, Ibañez P, Flores M, Zarate H, Román O, Fasce F. Trends in prevalence, awareness, treatment and control of hypertension in urban communities in Chile. *J Hypertens* 2007; 25:1807–1811.
16. Guerrero-Romero F, Rodríguez M. Prevalence of hypertension and associated factors in a rural poor population. *Salud Pública México* 1998; 40:339–346.
17. Teo K, Chow CK, Vaz M, Rangarajan S, Yusuf S; PURE Investigators-Writing Group. The Prospective Urban Rural Epidemiology (PURE) study: examining the impact of societal influences on chronic non-communicable diseases in low-, middle-, and high-income countries. *Am Heart J* 2009; 158:1–7.
18. Sempértegui F, Estrella B, Tucker KL, Hamer DH, Narvaez X, Sempértegui M, *et al.* Metabolic syndrome in the elderly living in marginal peri-urban communities in Quito, Ecuador. *Public Health Nutr* 2011; 14:758–767.
19. Alvarez C, Salazar R, Galindez J, Rangel F, Castañeda ML, Lopardo G, *et al.* Metabolic syndrome in HIV-infected patients receiving antiretroviral therapy in Latin America. *Braz J Infect Dis* 2010; 14:256–263.
20. Bermúdez V, Marcano RP, Cano C, Arráiz N, Amell A, Cabrera M, *et al.* The Maracaibo city metabolic syndrome prevalence study: design and scope. *Am J Ther* 2010; 17:288–294.
21. Escobedo J, Schargrodsky H, Champagne B, Silva H, Boissonnet CP, Vinuesa R, *et al.* Prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in Latin America and its association with sub-clinical carotid atherosclerosis: the CARMELA cross sectional study. *Cardiovasc Diabetol* 2009; 26:8–52.
22. Caceres M, Teran CG, Rodríguez S, Medina M. Prevalence of insulin resistance and its association with metabolic syndrome criteria among Bolivian children and adolescents with obesity. *BMC Pediatr* 2008; 8:31.
23. Royer M, Castelo-Branco C, Blümel JE, Chedraui PA, Danckers L, Bencosme A, *et al.*, Collaborative Group for Research of the Climacteric in Latin America. The USA National Cholesterol Education Programme Adult Treatment Panel III (NCEP ATP III): prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in postmenopausal Latin American women. *Climacteric* 2007; 10:164–170.
24. Bustos P, da Silva AA, Amigo H, Bettoli H, Barbieri MA. Metabolic syndrome in young adults from two socio-economic Latin American settings. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis* 2007; 17:581–589.
25. Rueda-Clausen C, Silva F, López-Jaramillo P. Epidemic of obesity and overweight in Latin America and the Caribbean. *Int J Cardiol* 2008; 123:111–112.
26. García RG, Pérez M, Maas R, Schwedhelm E, Böger RH, López-Jaramillo P. Plasma concentrations of asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA) in metabolic syndrome. *Int J Cardiol* 2007; 122:176–178.
27. López-Jaramillo P, Rueda-Clausen C, Silva FA. The utility of different definitions of metabolic syndrome in Andean population. *Int J Cardiol* 2007; 116:421–422.
28. García RG, Gifuentes AE, Caballero RS, Sánchez L, López-Jaramillo P. A proposal for an appropriate central obesity diagnosis in Latin American population. *Int J Cardiol* 2005; 110:263–264.
29. Pérez M, Casas JP, Cubillos LA, Serrano NC, Silva FA, Morillo CA, *et al.* Using waist circumference as screening tool to identify Colombian subjects at cardiovascular risk. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehab* 2003; 10:328–335.
30. Pinzón JB, Serrano NC, Díaz LA, Mantilla G, Velasco HM, Martínez LX, *et al.* Impact of the new definitions in the prevalence of the metabolic syndrome in an adult population at Bucaramanga, Colombia. *Bio-médica* 2007; 27:172–179.
31. Piegas LS, Avenzum A, Pereira JC, Neto JM, Hoepfner C, Farran JA, *et al.* Risk factors for myocardial infarction in Brazil. *Am Heart J* 2003; 146:331–338.
32. Messiah SE, Carrillo-Iregui A, Garibay-Nieto N, López-Mitnik G, Cossio S, Arheart KL. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome in US-born Latin and Caribbean youth. *J Immigr Minor Health* 2009; 11:366–371.
33. Velásquez-Meléndez G, Kac G, Valente JG, Tavares R, Silva CQ, García ES. Evaluation of waist circumference to predict general obesity and arterial hypertension in women in Greater Metropolitan Belo Horizonte, Brazil. *Cad Saude Publica* 2002; 18:765–771.
34. Berber A, Gómez Santos R, Fanghanel G, Sanchez-Reyes L. Anthropometric indexes in the prediction of type 2 diabetes mellitus, hypertension and dyslipidaemia in a Mexican population. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 2001; 25:1794–1799.
35. Kabagambe EK, Baylin A, Campos H. Nonfatal acute myocardial infarction in Costa Rica: modifiable risk factors, population attributable risk, and adherence to dietary guidelines. *Circulation* 2007; 115:1075–1081.
36. Manzur F, Alvear C, Alayón A. Phenotypic and metabolic characterization of the metabolic syndrome in Cartagena de Indias. *Rev Colomb Cardiol* 2008; 15:97–101.
37. Sánchez F, Jaramillo N, Vanegas A, Echeverría JG, León AC, Echeverría E, *et al.* Prevalence and behaviour of risk factors in metabolic syndrome according to different age intervals, in a female cohort of the area of influence of the Clínica de las Américas in Medellín, Colombia. *Rev Colomb Cardiol* 2008; 15:102–110.
38. Villegas A, Botero J, Arango I, Arias S, Toro M. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome on El Retiro, Antioquia, Colombia. *Iatreia* 2003; 16:291–297.
39. Merchán A. Metabolic syndrome and cardiovascular risk. *Acta Med Colomb* 2005; 30:150–154.
40. Lombo B, Villalobos C, Tique C, Satizábal C, Franco C. Metabolic syndrome prevalence in patients attending the hypertension clinic at the Fundación Santa Fe de Bogotá. *Rev Colomb Cardiol* 2006; 12:472–478.
41. Aschner P. Metabolic síndrome in a rural and urban population in the Colombian región of the Andes. *Rev Med* 2007; 15:154–162.
42. Márquez-Sandoval F, Macedo-Ojeda G, Viramontes-Hörner D, Fernández-Ballart JD, Salas Salvadó J, Vizmanos B. The prevalence of metabolic syndrome in Latin America: a systematic review. *Public Health Nutr* 2011; 14:1702–1713.
43. Guerrero-Romero F, Rodríguez M, Sandoval F, Alvarado R. Prevalence of hypertension in indigenous inhabitants of traditional communities from north of Mexico. *J Hum Hypertens* 2000; 14:555–559.
44. Sichieri R. Dietary patterns and their association with obesity in the Brazilian city of Rio de Janeiro. *Obes Res* 2002; 10:42–48.
45. Arroyo P, Loria A, Fernandez V, Flegal KM, Kuri P. Prevalence of preobesity in urban adult Mexicans in comparison with other large surveys. *Obes Res* 2000; 8:179–185.

46. Sereday M, Gonzalez C, Giorgini P, De Loreda L, Braguinsky J, Cobeñas C, et al. Prevalence of diabetes and obesity in the central area of Argentina. *Diabetes Metab* 2003; 29:528–15S.
47. Wilks R, Rotimit C, Bennet F, McFarlane-Anderson N, Kaufmant JS, Anderson SG, et al. Diabetes in the Caribbean: results of a population survey from Spanish Town, Jamaica. *Diab Med* 1999; 16:875–883.
48. Piskorz D. Risk factors in Rosario city. Results of FAROS study. *Revista de la Federación Argentina de Cardiología* 1999; 64:245–251.
49. Avila Curiel A, Shamah-Levy T, Chávez-Villasana A, Galindo Gómez C. Urban survey of nutrition and food in the metropolitan area of Mexico city 2002. México DF: Instituto Nacional de Ciencias Médicas y Nutrición Salvador Zubirán, Instituto Nacional de Salud Pública; 2003.
50. De Onis M, Blössner M. Prevalence and trends of overweight among preschool children in developing countries. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2000; 72:1032–1039.
51. Martorell R, Kettel Khan L, Hughes M, Grummer-Strawn LM. Obesity in Latin American women and children. *J Nut* 1998; 128:1464–1473.
52. Monteiro CA. Epidemiologia da Obesidade. In: Halpern A, Matos AFG, Suplicy H, Mancini MC, Zanella MT, editors. *Obesidade*. São Paulo: Editorial Lemos; 1998. pp.15–30.
53. Pisabarro R, Gutiérrez M, Bermúdez C, Préndez D, Recalde A, Chafare Y, Manfredi A. Second National survey of obesity and over-weight (ENSO) in adults. *Rev Med Urug* 2009; 25:14–26.
54. Orduñez P, Espinosa A, Cooper R, Kaufman J, Nieto F. Hypertension in Cuba: evidence of narrow black-white difference. *J Hum Hypertens* 1998; 12:111–116.
55. Magalhães N, Pozzan R, Brandão AA, Cerqueira R, Rousoulières A, Szwarcwald C, Brandão A. Early blood pressure level as a mark of familial aggregation of metabolic cardiovascular risk factors. The Rio de Janeiro Study. *J Hypertens* 1998; 6:1885–1889.
56. Díaz ME. Hypertension and obesity. *J Hum Hypertens* 2002; 16 (Suppl 1):S18–S22.
57. Filozof C, Gonzalez C, Sereday M, Mazza C, Braguinsky J. Obesity prevalence and trends in Latin American countries. *Obes Rev* 2001; 2:99–106.
58. Samper-Ternent R, Michaels-Obregon A, Wong R. Coexistence of obesity and anemia in older Mexican adults. *Ageing Int* 2011; 37:104–117.
59. Monteiro CA, Moura EC, Conde WL, Popkin BM. Socioeconomic status and obesity in adult populations of developing countries: a review. *Bull World Health Organ* 2004; 82:940–946.
60. Monteiro CA, Conde WL, Lu B, Popkin BM. Obesity and inequities in health in the developing world. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 2004; 28:1181–1186.
61. Williams K, Stern MP, Gonzalez-Villalpando C. Secular trends in obesity in Mexico City and in San Antonio. *Nutr Rev* 2004; 62:S158–S162.
62. Alberti KG, Eckel RH, Grundy SM, Zimmet PZ, Cleeman JI, Donato KA, et al. Harmonizing the metabolic syndrome. A Joint Interim Statement of the International Diabetes Federation Task Force on Epidemiology and Prevention; National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; American Heart Association; World Heart Federation; International Atherosclerosis Society; and International Association for the Study of Obesity. *Circulation* 2009; 120:1640–1645.
63. Reaven GM. Insulin resistance/compensatory hyperinsulinemia, essential hypertension, and cardiovascular disease. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2003; 88:2399–2403.
64. Aschner P, Buendía R, Brajkovich I, Gonzalez A, Figueredo R, Juarez XE, et al. Determination of the cut-off point for waist circumference that establishes the presence of abdominal obesity in Latin American men and women. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2011; 93:243–247.
65. American Diabetes Association. Executive summary: standards of medical care in diabetes. 2010. *Diabetes Care* 2010; 33(Suppl 1):S4–S10.
66. Schriger DL, Lorber B. Lowering the cut point for impaired fasting glucose: where is the evidence? Where is the logic? *Diabetes Care* 2004; 27:592–601.
67. Rutter MK, Nesto RW. Blood pressure, lipids and glucose in type 2 diabetes: how low should we go? Re-discovering personalized care. *Eur Heart J* 2011; 32:2247–2255.
68. Jonsson B. Revealing the cost of Type II diabetes in Europe. *Diabetologia* 2002; 45:S5–S12.
69. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, Cushman WC, Green LA, Izzo JL Jr, et al. The Seventh Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure. The JNC 7 report. *JAMA* 2003; 289:2560–2572.
70. Mancia G, De Backer G, Dominiczak A, Cifkova R, Fagard R, Germano G, et al. 2007 ESH-ESC Practice Guidelines for the Management of Arterial Hypertension: ESH-ESC Task Force on the Management of Arterial Hypertension. *J Hypertens* 2007; 25:1105–1187.
71. Mancia G, Laurent S, Agabiti-Rosei E, Ambrosioni E, Burnier M, Caufield MJ, et al. Reappraisal of European guidelines on hypertension management: a European Society of Hypertension Task Force document. *J Hypertens* 2009; 27:2121–2158.
72. Staessen JA, Asmar R, De Buyzere M, Imai Y, Parati G, Shimada K, et al. Participants of the 2001 Consensus Conference on Ambulatory Blood Pressure Monitoring. Task Force II. Blood pressure measurement and cardiovascular outcome. *Blood Press Monit* 2001; 6:355–370.
73. O'Brien E, Asmar R, Beilin L, Imai Y, Mallion JM, Mancia G, et al. European Society of Hypertension Working Group on Blood Pressure Monitoring. European Society of Hypertension recommendations for conventional, ambulatory and home blood pressure measurement. *J Hypertens* 2003; 21:821–848.
74. Bonow RO, Mitch WE, Nesto RW, O'Gara PT, Becker RC, Clark LT, et al. Prevention conference VI. Diabetes and cardiovascular disease. Writing Group V: management of cardiovascular-renal complications. *Circulation* 2002; 105:159–164.
75. Bakris GL, Williams M, Dworkin L, Elliott WJ, Epstein M, Toto R, et al. Preserving renal function in adults with hypertension and diabetes: a consensus approach. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2000; 36:646–661.
76. DeFronzo RA. Diabetic nephropathy: etiologic and therapeutic considerations. *Diabetes Rev* 1995; 3:510–564.
77. Malmberg K, Norhammar A, Wedel H, Ryden L. Glycometabolic state at admission: important risk marker of mortality in conventionally treated patients with diabetes mellitus and acute myocardial infarction: long term results from the Diabetes and Insulin-glucose Infusion in Acute Myocardial Infarction (DIGAMI study). *Circulation* 1999; 99:2626–2632.
78. Colwell JA. Aspirin therapy in diabetes (technical review). *Diabetes Care* 1997; 20:1767–1771.
79. McDonagh TA, Morrison CE, Lawrence A, Ford I, Tunstall-Pedoe H, McMurray JJ, Dargie HJ. Symptomatic and asymptomatic left ventricular systolic dysfunction in an urban population. *Lancet* 1997; 350:829–833.
80. Iribarren C, Karter AJ, Go AS, Ferrara A, Liu JY, Sidney S, Selby JV. Glycaemic control and HF among adult patients with diabetes. *Circulation* 2001; 103:2668–2673.
81. Bell DS. Heart failure: the frequent, forgotten and often fatal complication of diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2003; 26:2433–2441.
82. Marantz PR, Tobin JN, Wassertheil-Smoller S, Steingart RM, Wexler JP, Budner N, et al. The relationship between left ventricular function and congestive HF diagnosed by clinical criteria. *Circulation* 1988; 77:607–612.
83. Kasrapanayiotides T, Piechowski-Jozwiak B, Van Melle G, Bogouslavsky J, Devuyst G. Stroke patterns, etiology and prognosis in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Neurology* 2004; 62:1558–1562.
84. Megherbi SE, Milan C, Minier D, Couvreur G, Osseby GV, Tilling K, et al. Association between diabetes and stroke subtype on survival and functional outcome 3 months after stroke: data from the European BIOMED Stroke Project. *Stroke* 2003; 34:688–694.
85. Stevens RJ, Coleman RL, Adler AI, Stratton IM, Matthews DR, Holman RR. Risk factors for myocardial infarction case fatality and stroke case fatality in type 2 diabetes: UKPDS 66. *Diabetes Care* 2004; 27:201–207.
86. Shepard R, Balady G. Exercise as cardiovascular therapy. *Circulation* 1999; 99:963–972.
87. American Diabetes Association. Position statement. Diabetes mellitus and exercise. *Diabetes Care* 2000; 23(Suppl 1):S50–S54.
88. Walker KZ, Piers LS, Putt RS, Jones JA, O'Dea K. Effects of regular walking on cardiovascular risk factors and body composition in normoglycaemic woman and woman with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 1999; 22:555–561.
89. Hansson L, Zanchetti A, Carruthers SG, Dahlöf B, Elmfeldt D, Julius S, et al. Effects of intensive blood-pressure lowering and low-dose aspirin in patients with hypertension: principal results of the Hypertension Optimal Treatment (HOT) randomised trial. *Lancet* 1998; 351:1755–1762.

90. UK Prospective Diabetes Study Group. Tight blood pressure control and risk of macrovascular and microvascular complications in type 2 diabetes: UKPDS 38. *BMJ* 1998; 317:703–713.
91. Curb JD, Pressel SL, Cutler JA, Savage PJ, Applegate WB, Black H, *et al.* Effect of diuretic-based antihypertensive treatment on cardiovascular disease risk in older diabetic patients with isolated systolic hypertension. Systolic Hypertension in the Elderly Program Cooperative Research Group. *JAMA* 1996; 276:1886–1892.
92. Tuomilehto J, Rastenyte D, Birkenhäger WH, Thijs L, Antikainen R, Bulpitt CJ, *et al.* Effects of calcium-channel blockade in older patients with diabetes and systolic hypertension. Systolic Hypertension in Europe Trial Investigators. *N Engl J Med* 1999; 340:677–684.
93. Estacio RO, Jeffers BW, Gifford N, Schrier RW. Effect of blood pressure control on diabetic microvascular complications in patients with hypertension and type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Care* 2000; 23 (Suppl 2):S54–S64.
94. Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation (HOPE) Study investigators. Effects of ramipril on cardiovascular and microvascular outcomes in people with diabetes mellitus: results of the HOPE study and MICROHOPE substudy. *Lancet* 2000; 355:253–259.
95. Cooper-DeHoff RM, Gong Y, Handberg EM, Bavry AA, Denardo SJ, Bakris GL, Pepine CJ. Tight blood pressure control and cardiovascular outcomes among hypertensive patients with diabetes and coronary artery disease. *JAMA* 2010; 304:61–68.
96. Zanchetti A, Grassi G, Mancia G. When should antihypertensive drug treatment be initiated and to what levels should systolic blood pressure be lowered? A critical reappraisal. *J Hypertens* 2009; 27:923–934.
97. ACCORD Study group. Effects of intensive blood-pressure control in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med* 2010; 362:1575–1585.
98. Bangalore S, Kumar S, Lobach I, Messerli FH. Blood pressure targets in subjects with type 2 diabetes mellitus/impaired fasting glucose: observation from traditional and Bayesian random-effects meta-analysis of randomized trials. *Circulation* 2011; 123:2799–2810.
99. Reboldi G, Gentile G, Angeli F, Ambrosio G, Mancia G, Verdecchia P. Effects of intensive blood pressure reduction on myocardial infarction and stroke in diabetes: a meta-analysis in 73,913 patients. *J Hypertens* 2011; 29:1169–1253.
100. Patel A, MacMahon S, Chalmers J, Neal B, Woodward M, *et al.* ADVANCE Collaborative Group. Effects of a fixed combination of perindopril and indapamide on macrovascular and microvascular outcomes in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus (the ADVANCE trial). *Lancet* 2007; 370:829–840.
101. Lewis JB. Blood pressure control in chronic kidney disease: is less really more? *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2010; 21:1086–1092.
102. Turnbull F, Neal B, Ninomiya T, Algert C, Arima H, *et al.*, Blood Pressure Lowering Treatment Trialists' Collaboration. Effects of different blood pressure-lowering regimens on major cardiovascular events in individuals with and without diabetes mellitus: results of prospectively designed overviews of randomized trials. *Arch Intern Med* 2005; 165:1410–1419.
103. Yusuf S, Teo KK, Pogue J, Dyal L, Copland I, *et al.*, ONTARGET Investigators. Telmisartan, ramipril, or both in patients at high risk for vascular events. *N Engl J Med* 2008; 358:1547–1559.
104. Jamerson K, Weber MA, Bakris GL, Dahlöf B, Pitt B, Shi V, *et al.* Benazepril plus amlodipine or hydrochlorothiazide for hypertension in high-risk patients. *N Engl J Med* 2008; 359:2417–2428.
105. Parving HH, Brenner BM, McMurray JJC, de Zeeuw D, Haffner SM, Solomon SD, *et al.* Cardiorenal endpoints in a trial of Aliskiren for type-2 diabetes. *N Engl J Med* 2012; 367:2204–2213.
106. Stears AJ, Woods SH, Watts M, Burton TJ, Graggaber J, Mir FA, Brown MJ. A double-blind, placebo-controlled, crossover trial comparing the effects of amiloride and hydrochlorothiazide on glucose tolerance in patients with essential hypertension. *Hypertension* 2012; 59:934–942.
107. Central Intelligence Agency-CIA. *The World factbook*. Washington, DC: Central Intelligence Agency-CIA; 2012. https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/wfbExt/region_soa.html. [Accessed 10 August 2012].
108. Sanchez-Johnsen LA, Fitzgibbon ML, Martinovich Z, Stolley MR, Dyer AR, Van Horn L. Ethnic differences in correlates of obesity between Latin-American and black women. *Obes Res* 2004; 12:652–660.
109. Barcelo A, Gregg EW, Partor-Valero M, Robles SC. Waist circumference, BMI and the prevalence of self-reported diabetes among the elderly of the United States and six cities of Latin American and the Caribbean. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* 2007; 78:418–427.
110. Anselmi M, Avanzini F, Moreira JM, Montalvo G, Armani D, Prandi R, *et al.* Treatment and control of arterial hypertension in a rural community in Ecuador. *Lancet* 2003; 36:1186–1187.
111. Flack JM, Sica DA, Bakris G, Brown AL, Ferdinand KC, Grimm RH Jr, *et al.* Management of High Blood Pressure in Blacks. An Update of the International Society on Hypertension in Blacks Consensus Statement on behalf of the International Society on Hypertension in Blacks. *Hypertension* 2010; 56:780–800.
112. Burke GL, Savage PJ, Manolio TA, Sprafka JM, Wagenknecht LE, Sidney S, *et al.* Correlates of obesity in young black and white women: the CARDIA Study. *Am J Public Health* 1992; 82:1621–1625.
113. Sharp TA, Bell ML, Grunwald GK, Schmitz KH, Sidney S, Lewis CE, *et al.* Differences in resting metabolic rate between white and African-American young adults. *Obes Res* 2002; 10:726–732.
114. McViegan W, Tuttle E, Issa A. Racial differences in the incidence of hypertensive end-stage renal disease. *Am J Kidney Dis* 1998; 12:285–290.
115. Lopes AA, Port FK. The low birth weight hypothesis as a plausible explanation for the black/white differences in hypertension, non-insulin-dependent diabetes, and end-stage renal disease. *Am J Kidney Dis* 1995; 25:350.
116. Roger VL, Go AS, Lloyd-Jones DM, Adams RJ, Berry JD, Brown TM, *et al.* Heart diseases and stroke statistics: 2011 update a report from the American Heart Association. *Circulation* 2011; 123:18–1209.
117. Sareli P, Radevski IV, Valtchanova ZP, Libhaber E, Candy GP, Den Hond E, *et al.* Efficacy of different drug classes used to initiate antihypertensive treatment in black subjects: results of a randomized trial in Johannesburg, South Africa. *Arch Intern Med* 2001; 161:965–971.
118. Wright JT Jr, Dunn JK, Cutler JA, Davis BR, Cushman WC, Ford CE, *et al.* Outcomes in hypertensive black and nonblack patients treated with chlorthalidone, amlodipine, and lisinopril. *JAMA* 2005; 293:1595–1608.
119. Brown NJ, Ray WA, Snowden M, Griffin MR. Black Americans have an increased rate of angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitor-associated angioedema. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1996; 60:8–13.
120. Medina-Lezama J, Zea-Diaz H, Morey-Vargas OL, Bolaños-Salazar JF, Postigo-Macdonald M, Paredes-Diaz S, *et al.* Prevalence and patterns of hypertension in Peruvian Andean Hispanics: the PREVENCIÓN study. *J Am Soc Hypertens* 2007; 1:216–225.
121. Agusti R. Epidemiology of hypertension in Peru. *Acta Med Per* 2006; 23:69–75.
122. Organización Panamericana de la Salud. OPS data base of basic indicators of health http://www.paho.org/spanish/dd/ais/cp_152.htm. [Accessed 10 September 2012].
123. Vasan RS, Beiser A, Seshadri S, Larson MG, Kannel WB, D'Agostino RB, Levy D. Residual lifetime risk for developing hypertension in middle-aged women and men: the Framingham Heart Study. *JAMA* 2002; 287:1003–1010.
124. Benetos A, Safar M, Rudnichi A, Smulyan H, Richard JL, Ducimetière P, Guize J. Pulse pressure: a predictor of long-term cardiovascular mortality in a French male population. *Hypertension* 1997; 30:1410–1415.
125. Silagy CA, McNeil JJ, Farish S, Mc Grath BP. Comparison of repeated measurement of ambulatory and clinic blood pressure readings in isolated systolic hypertension. *Clin Exp Hypertens* 1995; 15:895–909.
126. Wiinberg N, Hoegholm A, Christensen HR, Bang LE, Mikkelsen KL, Nielsen PE, *et al.* 24-h-ambulatory blood pressure in 352 normal Danish subjects, related to age and gender. *Am J Hypertens* 1995; 8:978–986.
127. Kario K, Pickering TG, Matsuo T, Hoshide S, Schwartz JE, Shimada K. Stroke prognosis and abnormal nocturnal blood pressure falls in older hypertensive. *Hypertension* 2001; 38:852–857.
128. Kario K, Pickering TG, Umeda Y, Hoshide S, Hoshide Y, Morinari M, *et al.* Morning surge in blood pressure as a predictor of silent and clinical cerebrovascular disease in elderly hypertensives: a prospective study. *Circulation* 2003; 107:1401–1406.
129. Verdecchia P, Angeli F, Mazzotta G, Garofoli M, Ramundo E, Gentile G, *et al.* Day-night dip and early-morning surge in blood pressure in hypertension: prognostic implications. *Hypertension* 2012; 60:34–42.
130. Beckett NS, Peters R, Fletcher AE, Staessen JA, Liu L, Dumitrascu D, *et al.*, HYVET Study Group. Treatment of hypertension in patients 80 years of age or older. *N Engl J Med* 2008; 358:1887–1898.

131. SHEP Cooperative Research Group. Prevention of stroke by anti-hypertensive drug treatment in older persons with isolated systolic hypertension. Final results of the Systolic Hypertension in the Elderly Program (SHEP). *JAMA* 1991; 265:3255–3264.
132. Staessen JA, Fagard R, Thijs L, Celis H, Arabidze GG, Birkenhager WH, et al. Randomised double-blind comparison of placebo and active treatment for older patients with isolated systolic hypertension. The Systolic Hypertension in Europe (Syst-Eur) Trial Investigators. *Lancet* 1997; 350:757–764.
133. Liu L, Wang JG, Gong L, Liu G, Staessen JA. Comparison of active treatment and placebo in older Chinese patients with isolated systolic hypertension, Systolic Hypertension in China (SYST-CHINA) Collaborative Group. *J Hypertension* 1998; 16:1823–1829.
134. Lopez-Jaramillo P, Lahera V, Lopez-Lopez J. Epidemic of cardiometabolic diseases: a Latin American point of view. *Ther Adv Cardiovasc Dis* 2011; 5:119–131.
135. López-Jaramillo P, Silva SY, Rodríguez Salamanca N, Duran A, Mosquera W, Castillo V. Are nutrition-induced epigenetic changes the link between socioeconomic pathology and cardiovascular diseases? *Am J Therap* 2008; 15:362–372.
136. López-Jaramillo P. Cardio-metabolic disease in Latin America: the role of fetal programming in response to maternal malnutrition. *Rev Esp Cardiol* 2009; 62:670–676.
137. Fernandes MT, Sesso R, Martins PA, Sawaya AL. Increased blood pressure in adolescents of socioeconomic status with short stature. *Pediatr Nephrol* 2003; 18:435–439.
138. Florêncio TT, Ferreira HS, Cavalcante JC, Sawaya AL. Short stature, obesity and arterial hypertension in a very low income population in North-eastern Brazil. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis* 2004; 14:26–33.
139. Ferreira HS, Moura FA, Cabral CR Jr, Florêncio TM, Vieira RC, de Assunção ML. Short stature of mothers from an area endemic for under-nutrition is associated with obesity, hypertension and stunted children: a population-based study in the semi-arid region of Alagoas, Northeast Brazil. *Br J Nutr* 2009; 101:1239–1245.
140. López-Jaramillo P, Herrera E, García RG, Camacho PA, Castillo VR. Inter-relationships between body mass index, C-reactive protein and blood pressure in a Hispanic pediatric population. *Am J Hypertens* 2008; 21:527–532.
141. Franco MC, Casarini DE, Carneiro-Ramos MS, Sawaya AL, Barreto-Chaves ML, Sesso R. Circulating renin-angiotensin system and catecholamines in childhood: is there a role for birth weight? *Clin Sci (Lond)* 2008; 114:375–380.
142. Febba A, Sesso R, Barreto GP, Liboni CS, Franco MC, Casarini DE. Stunting growth: association of the blood pressure levels and ACE activity in early childhood. *Pediatr Nephrol* 2009; 24:379–386.
143. González-Barranco J, Ríos-Torres JM, Castillo-Martínez L, López-Alvarenga JC, Aguilar-Salinas CA, Bouchard C, et al. Effect of malnutrition during the first year of life on adult plasma insulin and glucose tolerance. *Metabolism* 2003; 52:1005–1011.
144. Lopez-Jaramillo P. Defining the research priorities to fight the burden of cardiovascular diseases in Latin America. *J Hypertens* 2008; 26:1886–1889.