# INSTITUTE OF TROPICAL INFECTIOUS DISEASES 

 UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBITO DETERMINE THE SIGNIFICANT RISK FACTORS OF HYPERTENSION AMONG TYPE 2 DIABETES PATIENTS: A CASE STUDY OF KENYATTA NATIONAL HOSPITAL

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A Research Project report submitted in partial fulfilment for the Masters of Science in Medical Statistics

## DECLARATION

I.............................................................................. has not been presented before to any institution for the purpose of obtaining any award.

Signed...................................

Date.

## APPROVAL

This project has been submitted as a part fulfillment for the Masters of Science in Medical Statistics (Msc. MedStat) of the University of Nairobi with the approval of:

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Signed.

Date

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| ABBREVIATIONS |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| ACEIs | Angiotensin Converting Enzyme Inhibitors |
| ADVANCE | Action in Diabetes and Vascular Disease: Preterax and Diamicron MR Controlled |
|  | Evaluation |
| BMI | Body Mass Index |
| BP | Blood pressure |
| CHD | Coronary Heart Disease |
| CKD | Chronic Kidney Disease |
| IDF | International Diabetes Federation |
| DM | Diabetes |
| GLM | Generalized linear models |
| HDL | High Density Lipoprotein |
| HTN | Hypertension |
| KNH | Kenyatta National Hospital |
| LDL | Low density lipoprotein |
| LUTS | lower urinary tract symptoms |
| NCDs | Non-communicaable diseases |
| NSAIDs | Non-steroidal Anti-inflammatory Drugs |
| OHAs | Oral hypoglycemic agents |

OR Odds ratio

PCI Percutaneous Coronary Intervention

UKPDS United Kingdom Prospective Diabetes Study

UTI Urinary Tract Infections

WHO World Health Organization

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#### Abstract

Hypertension among type 2 Diabetes patients has grown and it is a public problem in Kenya, Africa and worldwide. My study was done to explore the risk factors associated with Hypertension among Type 2 Diabetes patients at Kenyatta National Hospital Diabetes Outpatient Clinics.

A hospital based cross-sectional survey was conducted among type 2diabetes patients over a six-month period . A total of 200 patients were recruited based on inclusion criteria. The associations between binary outcome variable and demographic and clinical explanatory variables was done by use of binary logistic regression analysis. Among risk factors consider are age, gender, marital status, obesity, blood pressure, lower urinary tract infections , highest education level and smoking status.

Both univariate and multivariate logistic regression analyses revealed that age had a significant positive influence on hypertension status $(\mathrm{p}$-value $<0.01$ ). A type 2 diabetes patient is $7 \%$ more likely to develop hypertension for every additional year in age after adjusting for all other risk factors.


### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Non-communicable diseases (NCDs) kill 38 million people each year. Seventy five percent of these deaths, approximately 28 million deaths, occur in countries designated as low- and middleincome countries. NCDs are caused primarily by chronic respiratory diseases, diabetes (DM), cancer, and cardiovascular diseases,(1). Eighty two percent of deaths due to NCDs are caused primarily by these four diseases. In Africa, NCDs are rising rapidly and are expected to surpass communicable, perinatal and maternal diseases as the most common cause of death by the year 20130.(1). The leading cause of diabetes seen worldwide is Type 2 diabetes(2).By definition, diabetes is characterized as a metabolic disease with hyperglycemia occurring due to defects in insulin secretion, insulin action or both(3)

The term cardiovascular disease as a diagnostic category consisting of the following four major diseases: coronary heart disease (CHD), cerebrovascular disease, peripheral artery disease, and aortic atherosclerosis/thoracic or abdominal aortic aneurysm. CHD accounts for upto one-half of the total cases of cardiovascular disease worldwide (4).

The INTERHEART study of patients done from 52 countries, 9(nine) modifiable actors accounted for over 90 per cent of the population-attributable risk of a first myocardial infarction: dyslipidemia, psychosocial factors, smoking, hypertension, regular alcohol consumption, abdominal obesity, diabetes, daily consumption of fruits, vegetables, and regular physical activity (5).

Hypertension occurs twice as frequently type 2 DM patients as compared to normal people. (6). Macro and microvascular disease of DM accelerate presence of HTN (7). Early detection and treatment of HTN and DM has been recommended. (8).

The prevalence of diabetes in Kenya is estimated to be $4.2 \%$ (9).
In a recent study conducted in Nairobi, the estimates of Hypertension in an urban setting were found to be $22.8 \%(10)$.

The diabetes epidemic has increased worldwide due to a rise in obesity as a result of rapid urbanization, nutrition transition and increasing sedentary lifestyles(11). The greatest percentage increase in the prevalence of diabetes will occur within developing nations (12). According to a report by the International Diabetes Federation (IDF), 366 million people worldwide have diabetes and this number is expected to grow to552 million by the year 2030 (13). The vast majority of diabetic population live in the least developed and developing countries with the largest proportion being between the ages of $40-59$ years. It has been estimated that $11 \%$ of total healthcare expenditure in adults is related to management of diabetes(14). The management of the complications of diabetes is putting a strain on the health budgets of resource-poor countries.For example a recent estimate in Tanzania showed that treatment of diabetes complications represented $31 \%$ of total outpatient costs in the main hospital in Dar es Salaam; with a yearly cost of $\$ 138$ per person. This was 19 times more than the average outpatient costs perperson(15).

### 1.2 Statement of Problem

Itis known that there is coexistence between diabetes and hypertension. The frequency of hypertension in patients with diabetes is twice as much, compared to non-diabetic individuals (18). Therefore due to increased evidence of prevalence of hypertension in diabetic persons and overwhelming burden of coexistence of these diseases then if interventions are put in place as regards modifiable risk factors like BMI, literacy level, smoking status, blood pressure control, glycaemic control,the morbidity and mortality of this conditions can be alleviated.

### 1.3 Study Justification

Data concerning hypertension prevalence in type 2 diabetes patients is of importance in planning a well-coordinated management of these patients.

Early detection of hypertension in patients with type 2 diabetes will help in the design and implementation of appropriate interventions to arrest the progression of hypertension among patients with type 2 DM and also reduce morbidity and mortality from cardiovascular disease.

It's important also to identify associated risk factors especially the ones which are easily identified in our local health delivery system, and more so those that are modifiable.

Public health interventions can be put in place to try to ameliorate the effect of these modifiable risk factors.

Internal audit of an aspect of a disease at repeated intervals will help in detecting emerging trends.

### 1.4Objectives of The Study

## Broad objectives

To identify the significant risk factors associated with hypertension among type 2 diabetes patients.

## Specific objectives

(i) To test if there is association between hypertension status and each of risk factors to be considered.
(ii) To fit a multiple logistic model to determine which of the risk factors are statistically significant.

### 1.5 Research Hypothesis

The following hypotheses were created in order to aid achieve the above objectives: $\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - there is no statistical association between having hypertension among type 2 diabetes and factors like age, gender, lower urinary tract infections, education, marital, and smoking status, blood sugar, BMI, systolic BP and diastolic BP versus
$\boldsymbol{H}_{1}$ - there is statistical association between having hypertension among type 2 diabetes and factors like age, gender, lower urinary tract infections, education, marital, and smoking status, blood sugar, BMI, systolic BP and diastolic BP. To test those hypotheses the chi- square test of independence and logistic regression model were used.

### 2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Introduction

Hypertension and diabetes frequently coexist(16). The frequency of hypertension in diabetic population is almost twice that of the non-diabetic general population (17). There is considerable evidence for an increased prevalence of hypertension in diabetic persons (18).

Hypertension in patients with diabetes is a recognized cardiovascular risk factor. HTN prevalence type 2 diabetes patients is between 1.5 and 2.3 times greater than for those with no diabetes (19).

The state of the coexistence of diabetes and HTN are greater than those caused by each condition independently. Between $70 \%$ and $80 \%$ of people with DM die due to cardiovascular complications, and $75 \%$ can be attributed to HTN (20).

Joint National Committe(JNC 7) $7^{\text {th }}$ report suggested the following definitions for hypertension where properly measured(21):

Normal BP: systolic BP less than 120 mmHg and diastolic BP less than 80 mmHg Pre hypertension: systolic BP between $120-139 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or diastolic BP $80-89 \mathrm{mmHg}$ Hypertension:

Stage 1: systolic BP $140-159 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or diastolic BP $90-99 \mathrm{mmHg}$

Stage 2: systolic BP greater than or equal to 160 mmHg

Or Diastolic BP greater than or equal to 100 mmHg

The systolic pressure is the greatest predictor of risk in patients over the age of 50-60 years(22).

Factors associated with the pathogenesis of hypertension in diabetes include nephropathy, hyperinsulinemia, extracellular fluid volume expansion, and increased arterial stiffness.

Hyperinsulinemia may incease systemic BP. This effect may be mediated by concurrent weight gain and by the prohypertensive effect of insulin(23). Also insulin can increase sympathetic activity and promote renal sodium retention(24).

DM patients have increased stiffness in their vascular, and this is thought to be due to consequence of high protein glycation atheromatous disease in later stages. This can contribute to the increased systolic BP and risk of death (25).

### 2.2 Pathogenesis of cardiovascular disease

Atherosclerosis is the underlying disease process that affects medium-sized and large arteries in the peripheral circulation (26).

The pathogenesis of atherosclerosis is dependent on an overlap between dyslipidemia, inflammatory and immunological dysregulation, endothelial dysfunction, smoking and plaque disintegration. Many of the traditional risk factors of cardiovascular disease such as hypercholesterolemia, diabetes, hypertension, cigarette smoking, result in endothelial dysfunction. It can be improved by correction of dyslipidemia by dietary means or therapy with a statin and angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors(ACEIs)(27).

The development of atherosclerosis is strongly associated with lipid anomalies (dyslipidemia). High levels LDL cholesterol and low levels HDL cholesterol are associated with high risk of atherosclerosis (28).

Development of atherosclerosis can be caused by hypertension, especially cerebral vascular beds and bed of coronary arteries (29)

Diabetes is the other major CVD risk factor due to the atherogenic effects of diabetes related dyslipidemia i.e. elevated triglycerides, low level of HDL-C, and small/dense LDL particles. In addition many clinical and experimental studies reveal that high levels of insulin precede development of arterial diseases(30).

### 2.3 Benefits of Treatment of Hypertension In Diabetes

Early treatment of hypertension is important in diabetes patients to prevent cardiovascular disease and minimize progression of renal disease. Among patients with type 2 diabetes, the benefits of tight blood pressure control may be as great or greater than the benefit of strict glycemic control(31). Since hypertension places diabetes patients at a high risk for cardiovascular complications, all diabetes patients with persistent blood pressures above 140/90 mmHg should be started on anti-hypertensive drug therapy. In the UKPDS trial, type 2 diabetes treated to lower targets of blood pressure had a $24 \%$ reduction in diabetes related end-points (32). The ADVANCE trial demonstrated that lowering blood pressure targets was associated with reduced events of cardiovascular disease in type 2 diabetes (33).

## 3. 0 METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

Ideally the sampling should have included several level 5 hospitals in the country to strengthen the quality of the results. Kenyatta National Hospital was the only institution sampled for the study.

### 3.1.1 Study Site

Secondary data was used for this study. The data was collected during a previous study that was conducted at the Kenyatta National Hospital Diabetes Outpatient clinics.

Kenyatta National Hospital is situated in Nairobi, Kenya. It is the largest referral and teaching hospital in Kenya. Between Monday and Thursday, a total of between 20 to 40 patients are seen at the diabetes mini-clinic which is located in clinic number 17. This clinic is conducted by trained clinical officers, nurses, podiatrists and nutritionists. On Friday mornings there is a main diabetes clinic which is conducted by the Endocrinologists with the assistance of the residents in the department of clinical medicine and therapeutics. This clinic sees between 80 to120 patients on every clinic day.

### 3.1.2Study Design

The study was a hospital-based cross-sectional descriptive study.

### 3.1.3 Study Population

The target population was patients suffering from type 2 diabetes .

### 3.1.4 Case definition

1. Type 2 diabetes - file diagnosis of type 2 diabetes
2. Hypertension - average of two readings of systolic BP of $>140$ and diastolic BP of $>90$ mmHg

### 3.5 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

### 3.1.5.1 Inclusion Criteria

All patients diagnosed as type 2 diabetes patients who were ambulant.
An informed written consent from the patient was obtained for inclusion in the study

### 3.1.5.2 Exclusion criteria

Refusal of consent.

Patients known to have CKD or on follow-up in the renal clinic.

### 3.1.6 Sampling technique

Systematic random sampling was used to recruit patients who satisfied the inclusion criteria during the study period. After perusal of all the files at the beginning of the clinic, the principal investigator and his assistants would select those that satisfied the inclusion criteria. These files were allocated numbers such that every third patient was selected for inclusion in the study.

### 3.1.7 Sample Size

gggThe sample size was determined by the following formula:
$n=z^{2} p(1-p)$
$d^{2}$
Where $n=$ desired minimum sample size;
$z=$ standard normal distribution value (1.96)
$p=$ known prevalence rate for the factor of interest under study
$d=$ the level of desired precision (0.05).
Prevalence of $15 \%$ for diabetic nephropathy as was used as prevalence rate estimated as reported in the 1989 study by Ngugi P (33)

When this formula was applied at $\mathrm{d}=0.05, \mathrm{z}=1.96, \quad \mathrm{p}=0.85 \quad 1-\mathrm{p}=0.15$ $\mathrm{n}=196$.

### 3.1.8 Study period

Patients were recruited over a six-month period between September 2013 and February 2014.

### 3.1.9 Screening and recruitment

The study was conducted at the diabetes mini- and outpatient clinic. The principal investigator and his assistants perused all the files at the beginning of the clinic and selected those diagnosed with type 2 diabetes and not on follow-up in the renal clinic. Systematic random sampling was used in selecting the cases for inclusion in the study. Patients identified were then called
individually to the consultation room for explanation of the study procedure. Signed informed consent was then sought from the patient.


Figure 1: Flow chart of Screening and Recruitment

### 3.1.10 Ethical considerations

Permission to carry out the study had been granted by the Kenyatta National Hospital-University of Nairobi Scientific and Ethical Review Committee.

Patients were enrolled after prior explanation as to the nature of the study and tests to be carried out.

The patients were informed that the study is entirely voluntary in nature and no treatment was to be denied those who declined to enroll in the study.

Consent was duly witnessed and signed.
Patient usual care was not interrupted and where necessary it was facilitated.
Patient confidentiality was maintained at all times.
Data was entered into a password protected data base under the custody of the principal investigator.

Results obtained were made available in the patient records and appropriate interventions recommended where need arose.

### 3.2 Data Collection

## Clinical Methods

A study proforma was used to obtain demographic data and a complete medical history.
Presence of lower urinary tract symptoms including frequency, nocturia, urgency, feeling of incomplete emptying, intermittency, straining, weak stream was recorded.

## Blood pressure

The blood pressure was then measured with the patient having rested for 5 minutes.
It was measured in the supine position using a mercury sphygmomanometer with the standard adult cuff. Systolic blood pressure was recorded on appearance of the first sounds (Korotkoffs phase 1) while diastolic pressure corresponded to the disappearance of the sounds. Two readings were taken from the top of the meniscus and to the nearest 5 mmHg . The blood pressure was then recorded as the mean of the 2 readings.

## Weight

Measured with the patient in light clothing and wearing no shoes using a standard weighing machine in the clinic. Half a kilogram was recorded.

## Height

Measured using a vertical scale and recorded to the nearest half a centimeter(cm).

## Body Mass Index

The World Health Organization(WHO) formula was used to calculate the Body Mass Index (BMI).

## Waist circumference

Waist circumference was assessed between the subcostal margin and iliac crest to the nearest centimeter.

## Examination of the pulses

The peripheral pulses were then examined. This included the carotid arteries, femoral, popliteal, posterior tibial and dorsalis pedis. It was then recorded whether the pulses were felt or not. The carotid, renal and femoral arteries were then auscultated for the presence of bruits. Any anomaly detected was taken as evidence for the presence clinically of peripheral arterial disease.

### 3.3 Laboratory Methods

The patient provided 10 mls of a midstream specimen of urine in a sterile bottle. Dipstick urinalysis was then carried out on the specimen. If urinalysis detected leucocytes and nitrites then these were considered as indices for infection and subsequently the albuminuria test would be invalidated. The patient suspected to have urinary tract infection(UTI) would be offered empiric treatment in addition to referral to the laboratory for culture of the urine specimen.

If the sample was acceptable, calculation of urinary albumin to creatinine ratio was done by Clinitek ${ }^{\circledR}$ Microalbumin Analyzer in the University of Nairobi Clinical Chemistry department. 2 mls of venous blood was drawn into an plain specimen bottle and taken to the clinical chemistry department for determination of creatinine levels using the Mindray ${ }^{\circledR}$ Clinical Chemistry Analyzer

### 3.4 Quality Control Measures

The recommended procedures for specimen collection were adhered to at all times, including proper phlebotomy site cleaning and the use of appropriate vacutainers. Proper labelling of the specimens and storage ensured minimal pre-analytical sources of errors. The Mindray® Clinical Chemistry Analyzer and ClinitekMicroalbumin Analyzer were calibrated according to manufacturer's recommendations. The University of Nairobi Department of Clinical Chemistry laboratory runs daily internal quality control on all tests before sample analysis to validate the results obtained.

### 3.5 Study Variables:

The variables considered in the study include:
Blood pressure
Age
Gender
Obesity
Level of education
BMI
Lower urinary tract symptoms (LUTS)
Smoking status

### 3.6 Categorical variables

These are variables that place an individual into categories and cannot be qualified in a meaningful way. Example would be like diseases like HTN, DM etc.

To analyse categorical data requires one to use a two way table.

### 3.7 Logistic regression models

### 3.7.1 Introduction

It is the mathematical equation used to determine if relationship exists between a binary categorical outcome and a set of predictor variables. Logistic regression combines a set of predictor variables to estimate the probability that a particular event will occur. It estimates the likelihood of a subject being a member of the category of interest. It also gives information on how much an increment in a given predictor variable affects the odds of the response variable. Logistic regression analysis is handy in its application to medical research because it can measure associations, predict outcomes, and control for confounding variable effects.

Logistic regression methods have become an integral component of any data analysis concerned with description of relationship between a response and explanatory variables

This model can handle more complicated situations and analyse the simultaneous effect of multiple variables, including combination of both categorical and continuous variables. The difference between logistic and linear regression is described in the choice of parametric models and its assumptions. In all regression cases the key quantity is the mean value of the
outcome variable, given independent variables. This quantity is known as conditional mean (expressed as $\mathrm{E}(\mathrm{Y} / \mathrm{x})$.

Where Y is outcome variable and x is independent variable.

### 3.7.2 Response and predictor variables

For logistic regression model, response is binary categorical variable, and the predictor variable can be either categorical are continuous. Predictor variables include exposure variables and potential confounders. Predictor variables are also called risk factors in medical research.

### 3.7.3 Odds ratio

It is a measure of the odds of an event happening in one group compared to the odds of the same event happening in another group. Example lets say A and B ,the odds ratio is given by:

$$
O \cdot R=\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { odds of event } & \text { for group } & A \\
\text { odds of event for group } & \text { B }
\end{array} \text { or } O . R=\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { odds of event } & \text { for group } & B \\
\hline \text { odds of event for group } & A
\end{array}
$$

Odds ratio(O.R.):

$$
O . R=\frac{\text { odds of event for exposed group }}{\text { odds of event for unexposed group }}
$$

### 3.7.3.1 Interpreting the odds ratio

An odds ratio of less than one means that the event of interest is less likely to occur for those in group A compared to those in group B.

An odds ratio of more than one means that the event of interest is more likely to occur for those in group A compared to those in group B.

An odds ratio of one means that both groups had the same odds of the event of interest occurring.

### 3.7.4 Binary logistic regression

Binary logistic model can either be simple or multiple. Simple logistic model is used to explain association between one response variable and one predictor variable.

Simple model is of the form:

$$
\ln \left(\frac{\mathrm{p}}{1-\mathrm{p}}\right)=\ln (\text { odds of event })=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X
$$

$\beta_{0}$ and $\beta_{1}$ are regression coefficients.
$\mathrm{p}=$ probability of event occuring
$1-\mathrm{p}=$ probability of event not occurring
The multiple logistic regression model is used to explore associations between one response variable and more than one predictor variable simultaneously.

The model is of the form:

$$
\ln \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1} X_{1}+\beta_{2} X_{2}+\ldots . .+\beta_{k} X_{k}
$$

### 3.7.5 Interpretation of regression coefficients

Regression coefficients represent the mean change in the response variable for one unit of change in the predictor variable while holding other predictors in that model constant. The statistical control that is provided by the regression is important because it isolates the role of one variable from all the other from the model. Sometimes the key variable of understanding the coefficients is to think of them as slope coefficients.

When doing interprtation or more than one coefficient in regression equation, we us appropriate methods for multiple inference, rather than using just the individual confidence intervals. One technique for multiple inferences in regression is using confidence regions.

### 4.0 DATA MANAGEMENT AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data used for this study was entered into MS access computer data base. The data was cleaned and verified. Statistical analysis was done using STATA version 12. Descriptive statistics was presented using percentages and frequencies for categorical or nominal data while mean, standard deviation, median, minimum and maximum for continuous/discrete variables. Logistic regression analysis was carried out to determine if hypertension can be predicted based on age, gender, BMI, smoking status, marital status, blood sugar, diastolic and systolic blood pressure.

### 5.0 DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

### 5.1 Introduction

Between February 2013 and August 2013, 200 ambulant diabetic patients at KNH were enrolled in a prevalence study and screened for hypertension. This study research data consist of 11 variables i.e. age, gender, obesity, lower urinary tract infections education, marital status, smoking status, systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure, blood sugar

The characteristics of participating patients are summarized in Table 1below. Of the 200 patients 122 ( $61 \%$ ) were female. The mean age of ambulatory diabetic patients was 59.4 years (SD 10.6). Most patients were aged 50 years and above with $33.5 \%$ in the age group $50-59$ years and $31 \%$ aged between 60 and 69 years (Table 1). Three-quarters of the patients were married and most had primary, secondary or tertiary education $(39 \%, 26.5 \%$ and $22 \%$, respectively).

Table 1: Characteristics of ambulant type 2 diabetes patients attending KNH clinic

|  | $\mathbf{N}$ | $\mathbf{\%}$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| Age category |  |  |  |
| $30-39$ years | 6 | 3.0 |  |
| $40-49$ years | 30 | 14.5 |  |
| $50-59$ years | 67 | 33.5 |  |
| $60-69$ years | 35 | 31.0 |  |
| 70 years and above |  |  |  |
| Gender | 23 |  |  |


| Male | 78 | 39.0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Female | 122 | 61.0 |
| Education |  |  |
| None | 21 | 10.5 |
| Primary | 78 | 39.0 |
| Secondary | 44 | 26.5 |
| Tertiary | 4 | 22.0 |
| Adult education |  | 2.0 |
| Marital status | 15 | 7.5 |
| Single | 150 | 75.0 |
| Married | 3 | 1.5 |
| Divorced | 25 | 13.0 |
| Widowed | 6 | 3.0 |
| Separated |  |  |

### 5.2 Medical history of ambulatory diabetic patients

Table 2: presents the history of diabetes illness among the ambulatory patients in the study. On average patients were diagnosed with diabetes at 50 years, and the mean duration of diabetes among patients was 9.3 years $(\mathrm{SD}=7.3)$. Seventy-eight percent of patients were on OHAs, and 78 (39\%) were on both OHA and insulin. Lipid lowering agents were being administered to 59 (29.5\%) patients and diuretics in 63 (31.5\%) patients.

[^0]| morbid conditions in patients attending <br> diabetic clinic at KNH |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Age at diagnosis (years) |  | |  |
| :--- |
| Diabetes duration (years) |
| Anti-hyperglycemic treatment, n (\%) |
| OHA, n (\%) |
| Metformin |
| Sulfonyureas |
| OHA + insulin |
| Insulin |
| Other treatment, n (\%) |
| Lipid lowering agents |
| Herbal treatments |
| Antihypertensives |
| Diuretic |

Figure 2:presents key findings in patient medial history related to hypertension. Fifty-four (27\%) patients had already been diagnosed with hypertension by a clinician, and $2 \%$ and $4 \%$ had suffered myocardial infarction and stroke, respectively. Thirteen (6.5\%) patients had a family history of kidney disease and of 13 these patients, 4 reported that a single parent had kidney disease, 3 reported renal disease in a sibling and the remaining 6 were in other relatives.


Figure 2: Medical and family history of ambulatory type 2 diabetes patients at KNH

### 5.3 Smoking habits

Fifty ( $25 \%$ ) patients were either current (10, 5\%) or former (40, 20\%) smokers (Table 3). Among the current smokers 4 (16.7\%) were heavy smokers at least 12 cigarettes per day compared to 10 $(35.7 \%)$ former smokers who also reported that they were former heavy smokers.

Table 3: Ambulatory diabetic patients self-reported lifetime smoking habits

|  | $\mathbf{N}$ | \% |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Smoking habits |  |  |
| Never been a smoker | 150 | 75.0 |
| Current smoker | 10 | 5.0 |


| Former smoker | 40 | 20.0 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Cigarettes smoked per day |  |  |
| Current smokers (n = 10) |  |  |
| $<4$ | 1 | 4.2 |
| 4 to 12 | 4 | 50.0 |
| $>12$ | 4 | 16.7 |
| Former smokers (n = 40) | 10 | 14.3 |
| $<4$ | 10 | 35.7 |
| 4 to 12 |  | 35.7 |
| $>12$ |  |  |

### 5.4 Summary of continuous variables

Table 4: summary of continuous

| Variable | Obs | Mean | Std. Dev. | Min | Max |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Age | 200 | 61.36 | 10.60721 | 36 | 90 |
| Blood <br> sugar | 170 | 8.954118 | 3.935021 | 3.3 | 28.4 |

### 5.5 Chi-square test for independence

Tests for statistical association between hypertension status and each of the risk factors (where applicable) were carried out and results obtained are given below:

## Gender:

Table5

| gender | dxhbp <br> 0 |  | 1 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |$|$| Total |
| ---: |
|  |
| 1 |

$\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - There is no statistical association between having hypertension and gender
$\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathbf{1}}$ _ There is statistical association between having hypertension and gender gender

These results indicate that there is no relationship between hypertension among type diabetes and gender $(p$-value $=0.226)$.

## Obesity status:

Table6

| obesity | dxhbp |  | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 18 | 24 | 42 |
|  | 12.0 | 30.0 | 42.0 |
|  | 42.86 | 57.14 | 100.00 |
| 1 | 39 | 119 | 158 |
|  | 45.0 | 113.0 | 158.0 |
|  | 24.68 | 75.32 | 100.00 |
| Total | 57 | 143 | 200 |
|  | 57.0 | 143.0 | 200.0 |
|  | 28.50 | 71.50 | 100.00 |
| Pearson chi2(1) |  | 5.37 | $\operatorname{Pr}=0$ |

$\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - There is no statistical association between having hypertension and obesity
$\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathbf{1}}$ _ There is statistical association between having hypertension and obesity

These results indicate that there is a relationship between hypertension among type diabetes and obesity $(\mathrm{p}-$ value $=0.020)$.

## Lower urinary tract infections:

Table7

| luts | dxhbp |  | 1 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  | 0 | Total |  |
| 1 | 12 | 34 | 46 |
|  | 13.1 | 32.9 | 46.0 |
|  | 26.09 | 73.91 | 100.00 |
| 2 | 45 | 109 | 154 |
|  | 43.9 | 110.1 | 154.0 |
|  | 29.22 | 70.78 | 100.00 |
|  | 57.0 | 143.0 | 200.0 |
|  | 58.50 | 71.50 | 100.00 |

$$
\text { Pearson chi2 }(1)=0.1707 \quad \operatorname{Pr}=0.679
$$

$\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - There is no statistical association between having hypertension and lower urinary tract infections.
$\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathbf{1}}$ - There is statistical association between having hypertension and lower urinary tract infections.

These results indicate that there is no relationship between hypertension among type 2 diabetes and lower urinary tract infections $(p-v a l u e=0.679)$.

## Education level:

## Table 8

| education |  | 1 | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 5 | 16 | 21 |
|  | 6.0 | 15.0 | 21.0 |
|  | 23.81 | 76.19 | 100.00 |
| 2 | 18 | 59 | 77 |
|  | 21.9 | 55.1 | 77.0 |
|  | 23.38 | 76.62 | 100.00 |
| 3 | 20 | 34 | 54 |
|  | 15.4 | 38.6 | 54.0 |
|  | 37.04 | 62.96 | 100.00 |
| 4 | 13 | 30 | 43 |
|  | 12.3 | 30.7 | 43.0 |
|  | 30.23 | 69.77 | 100.00 |
| 5 | 1 | 4 | 5 |
|  | 1.4 | 3.6 | 5.0 |
|  | 20.00 | 80.00 | 100.00 |
| Total | 57 | 143 | 200 |
|  | 57.0 | 143.0 | 200.0 |
|  | 28.50 | 71.50 | 100.00 |

$\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - There is no statistical association between having hypertension and education $\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathbf{1}}$ - There is statistical association between having hypertension and education

These results indicate that there is no relationship between hypertension among type 2 diabetes and education $(\mathrm{p}$-value $=0.495)$.

## Marital status:

Table 9

| marital | dxhbp |  | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 8 | 7 | 15 |
|  | 4.3 | 10.7 | 15.0 |
|  | 53.33 | 46.67 | 100.00 |
| 2 | 40 | 110 | 150 |
|  | 42.8 | 107.3 | 150.0 |
|  | 26.67 | 73.33 | 100.00 |
| 3 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
|  | 0.9 | 2.1 | 3.0 |
|  | 66.67 | 33.33 | 100.00 |
| 4 | 5 | 21 | 26 |
|  | 7.4 | 18.6 | 26.0 |
|  | 19.23 | 80.77 | 100.00 |
| 5 | 2 | 4 | 6 |
|  | 1.7 | 4.3 | 6.0 |
|  | 33.33 | 66.67 | 100.00 |
| Total | 57 | 143 | 200 |
|  | 57.0 | 143.0 | 200.0 |
|  | 28.50 | 71.50 | 100.00 |

$$
\text { Pearson chi2 }(4)=8.0965 \quad \operatorname{Pr}=0.088
$$

$\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - There is no statistical association between having hypertension and marital status $\boldsymbol{H}_{\mathbf{i}}$ - There is statistical association between having hypertension and marital status

These results indicate that there is no relationship between hypertension among type 2 diabetes and marital status $(\mathrm{p}$-value $=0.088)$.

## Smoking status

## Table 10

| smoker1 | dxhbp |  | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 40 | 111 | 151 |
|  | 43.0 | 108.0 | 151.0 |
|  | 26.49 | 73.51 | 100.00 |
| 1 | 17 | 32 | 49 |
|  | 14.0 | 35.0 | 49.0 |
|  | 34.69 | 65.31 | 100.00 |
| Total | 57 | 143 | 200 |
|  | 57.0 | 143.0 | 200.0 |
|  | 28.50 | 71.50 | 100.00 |
| Pearson chi2 $(1)=1.22$ |  |  | $\mathrm{Pr}=0$. |

$\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - There is no statistical association between having hypertension and smoking status
$\boldsymbol{H}_{0}$ - There is statistical association between having hypertension and smoking status

These results indicate that there is no relationship between hypertension among type 2 diabetes and smoking status, $(p-$ value $=0.269)$.

### 5.6 Logistic modelling of hypertension among type 2 diabetes patients with categorical

 predictors and Analysis of MLE for modelEleven predictor variables namely age, gender, blood sugar, obesity, lower urinary tract infections, education, marital status, smoking status, Diastolic BP and systolic BP. The response variable was hypertension.

## Table 11

|  |  |  |  | no. of obs $=170$ |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  | LR chi2 $(16)=33.28$ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | Prob>chi2 $=0.0068$ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | pseudoR2 $=0.1590$ |  |  |  |
| Log likelihood =-88.039259 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Dxhbp | Odds | Coef. | Std. Err. | Z | P>z | $[95 \%$ | Interval] |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Age | 1.067377 | 0.0652047 | 0.0222411 | 2.93 | 0.003 | 0.021613 | 0.108797 |
| Gender | 1.69897 | 0.5300224 | 0.5429769 | 0.98 | 0.329 | -0.53419 | 1.594238 |
| Obesity | 2.067324 | 0.7262551 | 0.4486873 | 1.62 | 0.106 | -0.15316 | 1.605666 |
| smoker1 | 0.449855 | -0.79883 | 0.5330479 | -1.5 | 0.134 | -1.84359 | 0.245925 |
| bloodsugar | 0.9408509 | -0.060971 | 0.0483618 | -1.26 | 0.207 | -0.15576 | 0.033817 |
| Luts | 1.05988 | 0.0581554 | 0.4775231 | 0.12 | 0.903 | -0.87777 | 0.994084 |
| sbp11 | 1.736288 | 0.5517494 | 0.4239271 | 1.3 | 0.193 | -0.27913 | 1.382631 |
| dbp11 | 1.043017 | 0.0421179 | 0.4773163 | 0.09 | 0.93 | -0.8934 | 0.977641 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Education |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 1.808803 | 0.5926653 | 0.7199496 | 0.82 | 0.41 | -0.81841 | 2.003741 |
| 3 | 1.336716 | 0.2902161 | 0.7343463 | 0.4 | 0.693 | -1.14908 | 1.729508 |
| 4 | 3.762156 | 1.324992 | 0.8121632 | 1.63 | 0.103 | -0.26682 | 2.916803 |
| 5 | 0.7661955 | -0.266318 | 1.357977 | -0.2 | 0.845 | -2.9279 | 2.395268 |
| Marital |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | 5.086637 | 1.626617 | 0.7778767 | 2.09 | 0.037 | 0.102007 | 3.151227 |
| 3 | 0.5989918 | -0.512507 | 1.469817 | -0.35 | 0.727 | -3.3933 | 2.368281 |
| 4 | 4.575252 | 1.520662 | 0.9362548 | 1.62 | 0.104 | -0.31436 | 3.355687 |
| 5 | 4.82167 | 1.57312 | 1.277186 | 1.23 | 0.218 | -0.93012 | 4.076359 |
| cons | 0.0021879 | -6.124804 | 2.357757 | -2.6 | 0.009 | -10.7459 | -1.50369 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

LR chi $2=33.28$ with a p-value 0.0068 and this means that the model is statistically significant and the variables included in the model are better.

Age - there is a statistically significant relationship between age and hypertension. From the above model. All other variables showed statistically non-significant relationship with hypertension.

Estimated parameters are shown in table 11 above. Coef. Column has the exponentiated estimated parameters. These values from Coef. Column may represent the odds ratio for the corresponding predictor variables. Estimates of odds ratio are represented in the same table 11.

In this study, age was a significant predictor $(\mathrm{p}$-value $=0.003)$.

Table 12

| Number of obs $=170$ |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Prob >chi2 $=0.0003$ |  |
| LR chi2 $(1)=12.80$ |  |
| Log likelihood $=-98.281225$ | Pseudo R2 $=0.0611$ |


| Dxhbp | Coef. | Std. Err. | Z | P>z $[95 \%$ Conf. | Interval] |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| age | .0596454 | .017701 | 3.37 | 0.001 | .024952 | .0943388 |
| _cons | 2.764863 | 1.058196 | -2.61 | 0.009 | -4.83889 | -.6908358 |

Chi-square is 20.48 and it is not significant. In this case the removed variable produced a reduced model giving a model which is a good fit and therefore should not be included in the model.

Dropping all non-significant factors from model fit using stepwise regression technique, a better fitting model with age only as risk factor was obtained. The results of the fit are given in Table 12.

Likelihood ratio test is LRchi2 $(15)=20.48$, and its assumed that the full model which is nested $=0.1541$

## Multiple Logistic Regressions

This is the formula for the model:

For hypertension among type 2 diabetes, let Yi be the binary outcome hypertension among type 2 DM, (yes/no) for individual

Yi ~Bernoulli ( ( i )

Logit $(\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=1 / \mathrm{X}))=\beta_{0}+\beta_{1}$ age $+\beta_{2}$ gender $+\beta_{3}$ obesity $+\beta_{4}$ smokerl $+\beta_{5}$ bloodsugar $+\beta_{6}$ luts + $\beta_{7} \mathrm{sbp}+\beta_{8} \mathrm{dbp}+\beta_{9}$ education $+\beta_{910}$ marital.
and fitted model is:

Logit $(\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{Y}=1 / \mathrm{X}))=-11.1607$ +0.0673age+1.6989gender+ 2.0673 obesity $+0 . \quad+$
0.4498 smoker $1+0.9409$ bloodsugar +1.0599 luts $+1.7363 \mathrm{sbp}+1.0430 \mathrm{dbp}$

The fitted model with significant factors only yielded the following fit:

Logit $(P(Y=1 / X))=-6.1248+1.0674$ age

A type 2 diabetes patient is $7 \%$ more likely to develop hypertension for every additional year in age after adjusting for all other risk factors.

### 6.0 CONCLUSION

I studied the risk factors of hypertension using logistic regression. The risk factors used were gender, age, BMI, glycaemic control, systolic and diastolic BP, marital status, education status and smoking status. Probability of presence of hypertension was estimated using binary logistic regression. Chi-square test of association between hypertension and predictor variables showed that obesity and hypertension had statistically significant relationship. This correlates with a study conducted by Hillier TA et al (35).

Secondly, logistic coefficient significance testing showed that age and hypertension were statistically significant. To assess for fitness of model, the maximum likelihood test was used. The fitted model showed that developing HTN in type 2 DM individuals did not depend on gender, education, smoking history, marital status, the presence of LUTs, and glycaemic control. This is contrary with findings reported by Tsai et al which reported non-significant relationship between hypertension and smoking status (36).

### 7.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

Since obesity is a modifiable risk factor associated with HTN in type 2 diabetes, it is important that measures to manage BMI are incorporated in the treatment of DM patients. The high number of individuals found to have elevated systolic BPs and yet were not on any treatment is an indicator that healthcare providers should be keen to optimize BP management in these patients. This would have an impact on the burden of CVD in this community of patients. Longitudinal studies to identify causative associations of CVD and DM would provide useful information for health policy formulation.

### 8.0 STUDY LIMITATIONS

This study was limited due to finances and time which necessitated the use of secondary data which I had no control over.

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[^0]:    Table 2: History of diabetes illness and co- $\mathbf{n ( \% ) *}$

