

Preprints are preliminary reports that have not undergone peer review. They should not be considered conclusive, used to inform clinical practice, or referenced by the media as validated information.

Evaluation of arterial stiffness and carotid intima-media thickness in children with primary and renal hypertension

Emine Altay (Saltayemine@gmail.com)

Eskisehir Osmangazi University

Hikmet Kıztanır

Recep Tayyip Erdogan University Training and Research Hospital

Pelin Kosger

Eskisehir Osmangazi University

Nuran Cetin

Eskisehir Osmangazi University

Ayse Sulu

Eskisehir Osmangazi University

Aslı Kavaz Tufan

Eskisehir Osmangazi University

Hulya Ozen

University of Health Sciences

Birsen Ucar

Eskisehir Osmangazi University

Article

Keywords: Arterial stiffness, carotid intima-media thickness, hypertension, pulse wave analysis, target organ damage

Posted Date: July 25th, 2022

DOI: https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-1865425/v1

License: 🐵 🛈 This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License. Read Full License

Abstract

Hypertension is an increasing disease in children and the risk of endothelial damage and target organ damage increases in the presence of additional risk factors such as obesity. In our study, early atherosclerotic changes and target organ damage were investigated in hypertensive children. Twenty four-hour ambulatory pulse wave analysis was performed by oscillometric method in 17 patients with primary hypertension, 18 obese patients with primary hypertension, and 16 patients with renal hypertension. Carotid intima- media thickness and left ventricular mass index were measured. The control group included 20 age- and sex-matched healthy children. Central systolic blood pressure, central diastolic blood pressure, systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure were higher in the primary hypertension group compared to controls (p = 0.001, p = 0.005, p = 0.001, p = 0.009, respectively), central systolic blood pressure was higher in the renal hypertension group than the control group (p = 0.018). There was no difference between the two groups in terms of pulse wave analysis parameters, carotid intima-media thickness, or left ventricular mass index (p > 0.05). Pulse wave velocity was positively correlated with systolic blood pressure, central diastolic blood pressure (p < 0.001). Augmentation index was positively correlated with DBP and cDBP (p = 0.01, p = 0.002, respectively). Our findings show that high blood pressure is associated with arterial stiffness and target organ damage. Pulse wave analysis is a reliable and non-invasive method that can be used to prevent target organ damage in hypertensive children by detecting early atherosclerotic changes and thus allowing to take necessary precautions such as lifestyle changes.

Introduction

Hypertension has an increasing prevalence in children and adolescents. Childhood hypertension is an important risk factor for cardiovascular system diseases, chronic renal failure, and cerebrovascular diseases in adulthood [1]. In the etiology of hypertension, secondary causes are more common in the first years of life, although primary hypertension is observed more frequently in the following years [2]. Renal parenchymal diseases are the most common cause of secondary hypertension in children [3].

Hypertension causes target organ damage by changing the structural and functional properties of arteries. Although morbid cardiovascular events are rare in pediatric patients, it is important to identify hypertensive children at risk for complications later in life. Some target organ damage markers are used for this purpose, such as left ventricular hypertrophy and increased carotid intima-media thickness (CIMT) [4]. Research on children with hypertension has reported that CIMT is increased compared to healthy controls and this increase is much more pronounced in the association of hypertension and obesity [5].

Arterial stiffness is an indicator of atherosclerosis and occurs due to thickening and loss of elasticity of the arterial wall. It is a precursor to target organ damage and increased cardiovascular events [6]. The measurement of pulse wave velocity (PWV) was first proposed by the European Society of Hypertension-European Society of Cardiology (ESH-ESC) in 2003 to determine arterial stiffness [7]. A small number of studies have shown that PWV is increased in children with obesity and hypertension [7–9].

Evaluation of subclinical end organ damage caused by hypertension in children will enable to identify future cardiovascular diseases and to reduce the possibility of end organ damage by taking lifestyle precautions in these individuals. Therefore, in our study, it was planned to measure PWV, augmentation index (Alx), central and peripheral blood pressure values by 24-hour ambulatory pulse wave analysis with oscillometric method, CIMT by ultrasonographic method, and left ventricular mass index (LVmass index) by M-mode echocardiography (ECHO) in children with primary and renal hypertension and to investigate whether these variables differ from an age- and sex-matched healthy control group.

Materials And Method

The study included 35 patients who were followed up with the diagnosis of primary hypertension in the Department of Pediatric Cardiology and 16 patients with the diagnosis of renal hypertension in the Department of Pediatric Nephrology, Faculty of Medicine, Eskisehir Osmangazi University. The control group consisted of 20 healthy children who applied to the Department of Pediatric Cardiology with nonspecific chest pain.

The study was conducted prospectively. The families of the children were informed about the purpose and method of the study and their written consent was obtained regarding their voluntary participation. The study protocol was approved by the Faculty of Medicine Ethics Committee at Eskisehir Osmangazi University with the decision numbered 80558721/59 and dated 27.06.2019.

The children were divided into 4 groups as non-obese subjects with primary hypertension (PH group, n: 17), obese subjects with primary hypertension (OPH group, n: 18), subjects with renal hypertension (RH group, n: 16), and healthy subjects (control group, n: 20). The children's medical history, background, and family history were questioned and physical examinations were performed. Children with a history of congenital heart disease, diabetes, or any other chronic disease and those who had a condition that required medication other than antihypertensive treatment were excluded.

Echocardiographic examinations were performed by an experienced pediatric cardiologist in the Department of Pediatric Cardiology using a Philips Epiq 3D ultrasound device. Left ventricular mass (LVmass) was calculated by Penn-Cube formula (LVmass = 1.04 [(LVEDd + IVSD + LVPWd)3- (LVEDd)3]-13.6) [10]. LVmass index was calculated by dividing LVmass by the body surface area. Relative wall thickness (RWTh) was calculated using the formula RWTh = 2xPWd/LVEDd [11].

CIMT measurement was performed in all patients using a Vivid I color Doppler ultrasonography device with a 12 MHz linear probe. The subjects were placed on supine position and a thin pillow was placed under their necks and then, their necks were turned to the opposite side. A 1 cm segment was determined within the first 2 cm distal region from the common carotid artery bulb and the images were transferred to the computer environment. Based on the far wall measurement method with a special CIMT measurement software, the mean, maximum, and minimum values of the segments were determined [12]. These measurements were repeated for both main carotid arteries and mean values were obtained. The patients were weighed on a calibrated electronic scale (SECA digital scale, sensitive to 0.1 kg) with thin clothes and no shoes. Height measurements were made with a Harpenden stadiometer (sensitivity to 0.1 cm) in standing upright position, with bare feet and feet adjacent and parallel, and shoulders and the gluteal region in contact with the wall. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated using height and weight measurements [weight (kg)/height² (m²)]. According to the percentile curves determined by the World Health Organization, those with a body mass index in the 95th percentile and above were considered obese [13].

Serum glucose, insulin, low density lipoprotein-cholesterol (LDL-C), high density lipoprotein-cholesterol (HDL-C), total cholesterol, triglyceride, uric acid, and Creactive protein (CRP) levels were measured after 12 hours of fasting. Spot urine microalbumin/creatinine ratio was measured. Glomerular filtration rate (GFR) was calculated using the Schwartz formula (Schwartz formula: κ x height/serum creatinine). κ was determined as 0.55 in children and adolescent girls and 0.7 in adolescent boys [14]. Homa-IR was calculated as fasting glucose (mg/dL) x fasting insulin (uIU/mL)/405 [15].

Mobil-O-Graph (IEM, Industrielle Entwicklung Medizintechnik und Vertriebsgesellschaft mbH, Stolberg, Germany) pulse wave analysis monitor was used for 24hour automatic pulse wave analysis monitoring by the oscillometric method. The children were recommended not to do heavy exercise before monitoring and not to take any caffeinated beverages or medical treatment the day before. A cuff of the appropriate size for the children's age and upper arm circumference was tied. The device was set at a protocol to measure every 20 minutes during daytime (when the children are awake) and once every 30 minutes during night time (when the children are asleep). The Hypertension Management Software Client Server (HMS-CS) version 2.0 was used for the transfer and analysis of the measurements.

Data analysis was done with IBM SPSS 21 software. Data with normal distribution are shown as mean ± standard deviation and data with non-normal distribution are shown as median (Q1-Q3). The conformity of quantitative variables to normal distribution was evaluated with the Shapiro Wilk test. Four groups with normal distribution were compared with one-way analysis of variance. For values that differed significantly according to one-way analysis of variance, pairwise comparisons were performed with the Tukey test. Comparisons of four groups with non-normal distribution were evaluated with the Kruskal Wallis H test. For values that differed significantly according to the Kruskal Wallis H test. For values that differed significantly according to the Kruskal Wallis H test, pairwise comparisons were done with Dunn's test. Pearson chi-squared analysis was used to analyze the cross tables. Spearman correlation analysis was used for variables with non-normal distribution to determine the strength and direction of the correlations between the variables. P < 0.05 was considered significant in all analyses.

Results

Our study was carried out with a total of 71 children aged 8–18 years, 17 of whom had primary hypertension, 18 had both primary hypertension and obesity, and 16 had renal hypertension. Twenty healthy normotensive children were included as the control group. The demographic characteristics of the groups are given in Table 1. The OPH group had a statistically higher median weight than the control and PH groups (p = 0.016, p = 0.002, respectively) and higher mean BMI than the control, PH, and RH groups (p < 0.001 for all). There was no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of age, sex, height, fasting blood glucose, insulin, HOMA-IR, total cholesterol, triglyceride, HDL-C, LDL-C, CRP, uric acid, microalbumin/creatinine ratio in spot urine, or GFR. (p > 0.05).

Demographic and biochemical data											
		PH	OPH	RH	Control	р					
		(n = 17)	(n = 18)	(n = 16)	(n = 20)						
Sex	Female	8 (%47.1)	5 (%27.8)	4 (%25)	11 (%55)	0.42					
	Male	9 (%52.9)	13 (%72.2)	12 (%75)	9 (%45)						
Age (year)		13.9 (11.8–15.9)	14 (10.6–14.4)	15 (12–16)	14.6 (13.3–16)	0.42					
Height (cm)		162 (157–165)	165 (152–174)	161 (157–174)	165 (160–169)	0.84					
Weight (kg)		53 (46-55) ^a	81.5 (64-97) ^{a,b}	62 (50.5-68.5)	58.2 (43.5-65.5) ^b	0.002					
BMI (kg/m²)		20.4 ± 2.6 ^c	29.2 ± 4 ^{c,d,e}	22.5 ± 3.1 ^d	20.8 ± 5.1 ^e	⊠0.001					
Fasting blood glucose (mg/dL)		88 (82-90)	82.5 (81-86)	82.5(78-88)	84.5 (79.5-87.5)	0.43					
Insulin (uIU/mL	.)	15.2 (13.2-19.3)	19.2 (9-37)	10.4 (7.6–18.7)	12.8 (7.8–20.3)	0.21					
Homa-IR (uIU/n	nL)	3.1 (2.5-4.6)	3.74 (2.46-6.71)	2.26 (1.5-4)	2.55 (1.63-3.96)	0.25					
Total cholester	ol (mg/dL)	153 (140–172)	148 (130–162)	145 (127–158)	143.5 (123–157)	0.35					
Triglyceride (mg	g/dL)	101 (74–130)	109 (83-118)	90 (66.5-128)	84.5 (62-136)	0.79					
HDL-C (mg/dL)		51 (42-60)	44 (41–49)	42.5 (41-47)	49 (41-55)	0.15					
LDL-C (mg/dL)		96.1 (88.4–114)	95 (83-110)	89.6 (80.1-98.6)	77 (66.7–105)	0.17					
CRP (mg/L)		0.4 (0.3-0.9)	1.75 (0.4-3)	1.15 (0.3-5.5)	0.4 (0.3-1.6)	0.2					
Uric acid (mg/d	IL)	4.7 ± 1	4.9 ± 2	5.2 ± 1.56	4.6±1.2	0.65					
Microalbumin/0	creatinine	7.5 (3.6–15)	6.5 (2.4–9.4)	7.6 (4.5-25.8)	6.8 (4-16.8)	0.67					
(mg/g)											
GFR (mL/min)		166 (143–175)	160 (139–181)	135 (113–165)	162 (148–185)	0.58					
Normally distributed parameters are given as mean ± SD and non-normally distributed parameters are given as median (25%-75%). PH: primary hypertension, OPH: obesity and primary hypertension, RH: renal hypertension, BMI: body mass index, homa-IR: homeostatic model assessment-insulin resistance, HDL-C: high-density lipoprotein-cholesterol, LDL-C: low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol, CRP: C-reactive protein, GFR: glomerular filtration rate. For values that differed significantly according to analysis of variance, pairwise comparisons were performed with the Tukey test. For values that differed significantly according to the Kruskal Wallis H test, pairwise comparisons were done with Dunn's test.											
a PH group and	l OPH group p = 0.002										
b OPH group ar	nd control group p = 0.01	6									
c PH group and	l OPH group p < 0.001										
d OPH group ar	nd RH group p < 0.001										
e OPH group ar	nd control group p < 0.001										

Table 1

Mean duration after the diagnosis of hypertension was 22.2 ± 21.8 months in the PH group, 17.5 ± 22.8 months in the OPH group, and 26.3 ± 27 months in the RH group, with no statistically significant difference (p > 0.05). Evaluating all study groups together, no significant correlation was found between the duration of hypertension and pulse wave analysis parameters or CIMT values (p > 0.05).

In the PH group, 8 patients (47%) were using angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitors, 5 (29.4%) calcium channel blockers (CCB), and 4 (23.5%) no medication. In the OPH group, 4 patients (22.2%) were using ACE inhibitors, 4 (22.2%) CCB, and 10 (55.5%) no medication. In the RH group, 7 patients (43.7%) were using CCB, 2 (12.5%) ACE inhibitors, 4 (25%) dual antihypertensive therapy (CCB and ACE inhibitors), and 3 (18.7%) no medication.

In the RH group, 8 patients had unilateral kidney atrophy, 1 had multicystic dysplastic kidney, 1 had Alport syndrome, 1 had nephrolithiasis and hydronephrosis, 4 had reflux nephropathy, and 1 had renal artery stenosis.

Fundus examinations revealed stage 1 retinopathy in 1 patient and stage 2 retinopathy in 2 patients in the OPH group, stage 1 retinopathy in 2 patients in the PH group, and stage 1 retinopathy in 2 patients in the RH group.

Renal function tests, renal ultrasonography, and renal Doppler ultrasonography findings were normal in the PH and OPH groups.

LVmass index, IVSDd, LVEDd, and LVPWd measurements were within normal limits according to body surface area in all study and control subjects. Two patients in the OPH group, 3 in the PH group, and 1 in the RH group had an RWT value above 0.42. Ejection fraction and shortening fraction values were above

normal in 2 patients in the RH group and shortening fraction was above normal in 1 patient in the PH group. No cardiomyopathy was observed in any subject of the all groups.

Pulse wave analysis parameters were statistically compared between the study and control groups (Table 2). Systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), and mean arterial pressure (MAP) were statistically higher in the PH group than the control group (p = 0.001, p = 0.009, p = 0.002, respectively). MAP was statistically higher in the RH group compared to controls (p = 0.038). Central systolic blood pressure (cSBP) was found to be statistically higher in the PH and RH groups compared to the control group (p = 0.001, p = 0.001, p

Table 2										
	DLI	Comparison of pulse wa	ve analysis parameters	CONTROL	P					
				CONTROL	F					
	(n = 17)	(n = 18)	(n = 16)	(n = 20)						
SBP (mmHg)	123.2 ± 10.5ª	118.7 ± 7.8	119.8 ± 8.2	112.6±6.4ª	0.002					
DBP (mmHg)	73 (65–75) ^b	66.5 (64–71)	68 (65–71)	64 (61.5-68.5) ^b	0.01					
MAP (mmHg)	94.8 ± 6.9 ^c	90.3 ± 6.9	92.7 ± 6.6^{d}	86.9 ± 4.7 ^{c,d}	0.002					
HR (beat/min)	85.8 ± 13	81.2 ± 7.1	77.7±8	80.5 ± 8.3	0.1					
PP (mmHg)	51 (45-61)	51 (50-53)	49.5 (43-56.5)	46.5 (42-51)	0.06					
cSBP (mmHg)	107.3 ± 7.2 ^e	104 ± 6.6	105.4 ± 7.1^{f}	98.8 ± 4.8 ^{e,f}	0.001					
cDBP (mmHg)	76 (67–78) ^g	69 (66-75)	70.5 (66.5–72)	65.5 (63.5–70) ^g	0.01					
Alx (%)	23.2 ± 8.5	18.3 ± 5.9	17.3 ± 6.1	19.1 ± 6.3	0.07					
PR (s.mmHg/mL)	1.1 (1.1–1.2)	1.1 (1-1.1)	1.1 (1-1.2)	1.1 (1-1.1)	0.2					
RM (%)	56.6 ± 6.7	57.7 ± 6.4	57.4 ± 6.2	56.3 ± 5.7	0.8					
PWV (m/sec)	4.9 (4.7-5.1)	4.8 (4.6-5)	4.8 (4.6-5)	4.6 (4.4-4.9)	0.4					
Normally distributed para hypertension, OPH: obese arterial pressure, HR: hear PR: peripheral resistance, pairwise comparisons we comparisons were done v	Normally distributed parameters are given as mean ± SD and non-normally distributed parameters are given as median (25%-75%). PH: primary hypertension, OPH: obese and primary hypertension, RH: renal hypertension, SBP: systolic blood pressure, DBP: diastolic blood pressure, MAP: mean arterial pressure, HR: heart rate, PP: pulse pressure, cSBP: central systolic blood pressure, cDBP: central diastolic blood pressure, Alx: augmentation index, PR: peripheral resistance, RM: reflection magnitude, PWV: pulse wave velocity. For values that differed significantly according to analysis of variance, pairwise comparisons were performed with the Tukey test. For values that differed significantly according to the Kruskal Wallis H test, pairwise									

PH group and control group p = 0.001
PH group and control group p = 0.009
PH group and control group p = 0.002
RH group and control group p = 0.038
PH group and control group p = 0.001
H group and control group p = 0.018
PH group and control group p = 0.005

CIMT and ECHO parameters were statistically compared between the study and control groups (Table 3). IVSDd was statistically higher in the OPH and RH groups than the control group (p = 0.02, p = 0.014, respectively). Mean LVmass was statistically higher in the OPH group compared to the controls (p = 0.016). There was no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of the other echocardiographic parameters or CIMT values (p > 0.05).

Table 3 Comparison of ECHO parameters and CIMT measurements											
	PH	OPH	RH	CONTROL	Р						
	(n = 17)	(n = 18)	(n = 16)	(n = 20)							
IVSDd (mm)	8.26 ± 0.95	8.57 ± 1.67 ^a	8.71 ± 1.22 ^b	7.39 ± 1.11 ^{a,b}	0.01						
LVEDd (mm)	43.35 ± 3.94	45.47 ± 3.56	44.38 ± 3.88	42.91 ± 4.73	0.23						
LVPWd (mm)	7.79 ± 1.57	8.0 ± 1.60	7.93 ± 0.76	7.18 ± 1.25	0.2						
LV mass (g)	108.65 ± 25.78	124.89 ± 37.35 ^c	117.56 ± 21.17	95.80 ± 28.64 ^c	0.02						
LVmass index (g/m²)	70.21 ± 14.23	66.44 ± 15.27	71.75 ± 9.91	60.60 ± 11.78	0.54						
RWT	0.34 (0.29–0.4)	0.34 (0.31-0.37)	0.36 (0.33-0.37)	0.32 (0.30-0.38)	0.68						
CIMT right (mm)	0.41 (0.4–0.44)	0.44 (0.41-0.45)	0.41 (0.4–0.44)	0.41 (0.4-0.43)	0.35						
CIMT left (mm)	0.42 (0.4–0.44)	0.44 (0.41-0.46)	0.42 (0.4-0.46)	0.42 (0.4-0.44)	0.68						
Normally distributed parameters are given as mean ± SD, and non-normally distributed parameters are given as median (25%-75%). IVSDd: interventricular septum end-diastolic thickness, LVEDd: left ventricular end-diastolic thickness, LVEDd: left ventricular end-diastolic diameter, LVPWd: left ventricular end-diastolic posterior wall thickness, LVmass: left ventricular mass, RWT: relative wall thickness, CIMT: carotid intima-media thickness. For values that differed significantly according to analysis of variance, pairwise comparisons were performed with the Tukey test. For values that differed significantly according to the Kruskal Wallis H test, pairwise comparisons were done with Dunn's test.											
a OPH group and control group p	0 = 0.02										
b RH group and control group p =	0.014										
c OPH group and control group p	= 0.016										

Regarding the correlations between pulse wave analysis parameters and anthropometric measurements across all groups (n = 71) (Table 4), SBP was positively correlated with age, height, and BMI (p = 0.05, p = 0.01, p < 0.001, p = 0.004, respectively). MAP was positively correlated with age, height, and weight (p = 0.04, p = 0.05, p = 0.02, respectively). PP was found to be positively correlated with height, weight, and BMI (p = 0.02, p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p = 0.02, p = 0.002, p = 0.003, respectively). Alx was negatively correlated with age, height, and BMI (p = 0.02, p = 0.004, p = 0.002, p = 0.008, respectively). Alx was negatively correlated with age, height, and weight (p = 0.02, p < 0.001, p = 0.04, p = 0.002, p = 0.008, respectively). Alx was negatively correlated with age, height, and weight (p = 0.02, p < 0.001, p = 0.04, respectively). PR was negatively correlated with height (p = 0.01), as was RM (p = 0.01). Finally, PWV was found to be positively correlated with height, weight, and BMI (p = 0.003, p = 0.001, p = 0.003, respectively).

Table 4 Correlations between pulse wave analysis parameters and anthropometric measurements

	Age		Height	Height Weight			BMI		
	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	
SBP	0.23	0.05	0.29	0.01	0.40	< 0.001	0.33	0.004	
(mmHg)									
DBP	0.21	0.07	0.14	0.23	0.09	0.46	0.01	0.93	
(mmHg)									
MAP	0.24	0.04	0.23	0.05	0.27	0.02	0.21	0.08	
(mmHg)									
HR (beat/min)	-0.20	0.09	-0.20	0.08	-0.04	0.76	0.10	0.40	
PP (mmHg)	0.09	0.43	0.25	0.03	0.49	< 0.001	0.49	< 0.001	
cSBP	0.26	0.02	0.23	0.04	0.36	0.002	0.31	0.008	
(mmHg)									
cDBP	0.17	0.13	0.08	0.46	0.09	0.45	0.04	0.74	
(mmHg)									
Alx(%)	-0.26	0.02	-0.45	< 0.001	-0.24	0.04	-0.06	0.61	
PR	-0.08	0.52	-0.29	0.01	-0.21	0.07	-0.17	0.15	
(s.mmHg/mL)									
RM (%)	-0.11	0.33	-0.29	0.01	-0.15	0.21	-0.03	0.83	
PWV (m/sec)	0.22	0.06	0.34	0.003	0.40	0.001	0.34	0.003	
					ID. I				

SBP: systolic blood pressure, DBP: diastolic blood pressure, MAP: mean arterial pressure, HR: heart rate, PP: pulse pressure, cSBP: central systolic blood pressure, cDBP: central diastolic blood pressure, Alx: augmentation index, PR: peripheral resistance, RM: reflection magnitude, PWV: pulse wave velocity. BMI: body mass index.

Regarding the correlations between SBP, DBP, MAP, HR, PP, cSBP, cDBP values and Alx, PR, RM, and PWV (Table 5), SBP was positively correlated with both PR and PWV (p = 0.04, p < 0.001, respectively). DBP was positively correlated with Alx, PR, and PWV (p = 0.01, p < 0.001, p < 0.001, respectively). MAP was found to be positively correlated with Alx, PR, and PWV (p = 0.01, p < 0.001, p < 0.001, respectively). MAP was found to be positively correlated with Alx, PR, and PWV (p = 0.01, p < 0.001, p < 0.001) and negatively correlated with RM (p = 0.03). PP was negatively correlated with both PR and RM (p = 0.01, p = 0.01, respectively) and positively correlated with PWV (p < 0.001). cSBP was found to be positively correlated with both PR and PWV (p = 0.002, p < 0.001, respectively). Finally, a positive correlation was found between mDBP and Alx, PR, and PWV (p = 0.002, p < 0.001, respectively).

Correlations of SBP, DBP, MAP, HR, PP, cSBP, and cDBP with Alx, PR, RM, and PWV											
	Alx		PR		RM		PWV				
	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р			
SBP	0.17	0.15	0.24	0.04	-0.21	0.07	0.81	< 0.001			
(mmHg)											
DBP	0.29	0.01	0.58	< 0.001	0.01	0.91	0.6	< 0.001			
(mmHg)											
MAP	0.25	0.02	0.45	< 0.001	-0.10	0.37	0.78	< 0.001			
(mmHg)											
HR (beat/min)	0.71	< 0.001	0.04	0.68	-0.25	0.03	0.09	0.41			
PP (mmHg)	-0.09	0.45	-0.29	0.01	-0.3	0.01	0.48	< 0.001			
cSBP	0.23	0.05	0.35	0.002	0.07	0.55	0.75	< 0.001			
(mmHg)											
cDBP	0.36	0.002	0.5	< 0.001	-0.009	0.94	0.58	< 0.001			
(mmHg)						-					
SBP: systolic blood pressure pressure, cDBP: central diast	SBP: systolic blood pressure, DBP: diastolic blood pressure, MAP: mean arterial pressure, HR: heart rate, PP: pulse pressure, cSBP: central systolic blood pressure, cDBP: central diastolic blood pressure. Alx: augmentation index. PR: peripheral resistance. RM: reflection magnitude. PWV: pulse wave velocity										

Table 5

Concerning the correlations between echocardiographic parameters, CIMT measurements and anthropometric measurements (Table 6), IVSDd, LVEDd, LVPWd, and LVmass were positively correlated with age, height, weight, and BMI. However, age and anthropometric measurements were not correlated with the other echocardiographic parameters or CIMT measurements.

Table 6												
Correra	Age	metric measure	Height	locardiographic	Weight	ind Clivit measu	BMI					
	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р				
IVSDd (mm)	0.31	0.007	0.38	0.001	0.51	< 0.001	0.44	< 0.001				
LVEDd (mm)	0.39	0.001	0.53	<0.001	0.56	< 0.001	0.36	0.002				
LVPWd (mm)	0.28	0.01	0.31	0.008	0.42	< 0.001	0.36	0.002				
LVmass (g)	0.46	< 0.001	0.53	< 0.001	0.64	< 0.001	0.49	< 0.001				
LVmass index (g/m²)	0.10	0.37	0.06	0.62	0.04	0.75	-0.01	0.92				
RWT (mm)	0.12	0.31	0.02	0.84	0.13	0.25	0.19	0.10				
CIMT right (mm)	-0.20	0.86	-0.05	0.64	0.07	0.55	0.18	0.13				
CIMT left (mm)	-0.03	0.81	-0.11	0.35	0.03	0.78	0.12	0.30				
IVSDd: interventricular septum	end-diastolic thic	kness I VEDd: I	eft ventricular	end-diastolic dia	ameter, I VPW	d: left ventricula	r end-diastolio	posterior wall				

IVSDd: interventricular septum end-diastolic thickness, LVEDd: left ventricular end-diastolic diameter, LVPWd: left ventricular end-diastolic posterior wall thickness, LVmass: left ventricular mass, RWT: relative wall thickness, CIMT: carotid intima-media thickness, BMI: body mass index.

Considering the correlations between pulse wave analysis parameters and biochemical parameters (Table 7), SBP was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p = 0.009, respectively). DBP was negatively correlated with CRP levels (p = 0.01). MAP was positively correlated with serum insulin and homa-IR levels (p = 0.01, p = 0.02, respectively). PP was found to be positively correlated with fasting blood glucose, homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.002, p < 0.001, p = 0.001, p = 0.001, respectively). cSBP was positively correlated with both homa-IR and serum insulin levels (p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p = 0.001, respectively). cSBP was positively correlated with serum total cholesterol levels (p < 0.001, p < 0.001, respectively). cDKB was negatively correlated with CRP (p = 0.02). Alx was positively correlated with serum total cholesterol levels and negatively correlated with uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correlated with homa-IR, serum insulin, and uric acid levels (p = 0.04, p = 0.001, respectively). PWV was positively correla

levels (p = 0.007, p = 0.005, p = 0.02, respectively). However, pulse wave analysis parameters were not correlated with serum HDL-C, LDL-C, triglyceride, spot urine microalbumin/creatinine ratio, or GFR (p > 0.05). Again, no correlation was found between CIMT measurements and any of the biochemical parameters, except for a weak positive correlation between CIMT right and fasting blood glucose (r = 0.25, p = 0.03).

	Table 7 Correlations between pulse wave analysis parameters and biochemical parameters																																		
	Fastir gluco:	Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		Fasting blood glucose		n	Homa	-IR	Total cholest	erol	HDL-C	;	LDL-C		Triglyce	eride	CRP		Uric
	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r																		
SBP (mmHg)	0.21	0.08	0.41	< 0.001	0.42	< 0.001	-0.002	0.98	-0.08	0.51	0.03	0.78	0.08	0.51	-0.14	0.21	0.30																		
DBP (mmHg)	-0.11	0.34	0.07	0.53	0.05	0.65	0.08	0.51	0.12	0.31	0.10	0.38	-0.13	0.27	-0.30	0.01	-0.01																		
MAP (mmHg)	0.04	0.71	0.28	0.01	0.27	0.02	0.07	0.58	0.03	0.77	0.10	0.39	-0.002	0.98	-0.22	0.06	0.15																		
HR (beat/min)	0.09	0.47	0.10	0.38	0.10	0.41	0.21	0.72	0.06	0.61	0.19	0.1	0.16	0.16	-0.12	0.28	-0.19																		
PP (mmHg)	0.35	0.002	0.48	< 0.001	0.51	< 0.001	-0.07	0.53	-0.18	0.11	-0.03	0.81	0.13	0.28	0.11	0.32	0.40																		
cSBP (mmHg)	0.16	0.17	0.40	< 0.001	0.40	< 0.001	-0.02	0.85	-0.01	0.91	0.04	0.69	-0.03	0.75	-0.19	0.09	0.22																		
cDBP (mmHg)	-0.02	0.84	0.14	0.23	0.12	0.29	0.04	0.71	0.10	0.39	0.10	0.39	-0.18	0.11	-0.26	0.02	-0.01																		
Alx(%)	0.03	0.81	0.10	0.38	0.09	0.45	0.25	0.04	0.22	0.06	0.19	0.09	0.006	0.96	-0.17	0.14	-0.38																		
PR (s.mmHg/m)	-0.10	0.36	0.01	0.92	-0.10	0.93	0.22	0.06	0.22	0.06	0.19	0.1	-0.03	0.76	-0.18	0.11	-0.21																		
RM (%)	-0.14	0.21	0.03	0.79	0.01	0.88	0.01	0.94	0.12	0.28	0.02	0.86	-0.07	0.56	0.05	0.67	-0.21																		
PWV (m/sec)	0.05	0.69	0.32	0.005	0.31	0.007	-0.08	0.48	-0.12	0.28	-0.04	0.72	0.01	0.88	-0.18	0.12	0.26																		

SBP: systolic blood pressure, DBP: diastolic blood pressure, MAP: mean arterial pressure, HR: heart rate, PP: pulse pressure, cSBP: central systolic blood press Alx: augmentation index, PR: peripheral resistance, RM: reflection magnitude, PWV: pulse wave velocity, homa-R: homeostatic model assessment-insulin res cholesterol, LDL-C: low-density lipoprotein-cholesterol, CRP: C-reactive protein, GFR: glomerular filtration rate. Correlations between variables with non-normal correlation analysis.

Concerning the correlations between pulse wave analysis parameters and both ECHO and CIMT measurements (Table 8), SBP was positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, and RWT (p < 0.001, p = 0.001, p = 0.007 respectively). DBP was positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, and LVmass index (p = 0.01, p = 0.003, p = 0.02, p = 0.002 respectively). MAP was found to be positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, LVmass index, and RWT (p < 0.001, p = 0.006, p = 0.009 respectively). PP was positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, and RWT (p < 0.001, p = 0.001, p = 0.005, p = 0.03 respectively). cSBP was positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, and RWT (p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p = 0.02, p = 0.008 respectively). cDBP was found to be positively correlated with IVSDd, LVmass index, and RWT (p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p = 0.02, p = 0.008 respectively). cDBP was found to be positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, and RWT (p < 0.001, p = 0.02, p = 0.008 respectively). cDBP was found to be positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, and LVmass index (p = 0.009, p = 0.01, p = 0.02, p = 0.008 respectively). Alx was positively correlated with LVEDd, CIMT (right) and CIMT (left) (p = 0.02, p = 0.02, p = 0.05 respectively) and negatively correlated with LVmass (p = 0.01). RM was positively correlated with CIMT (right) and CIMT (sol) (p = 0.007, p = 0.01 respectively). PWV was found to be positively correlated with IVSDd, LVPWDd, LVmass, and RWT (p < 0.001, p = 0.001. Finally, a

Table 8 Correlations of pulse wave analysis parameters with ECHO and CIMT measurements

	IVSDd		LVEDd		LVPW	ł	LVmas	s	LVmas	s index	RWT		CIN	//T(right)	CII	VIT(left)
	r	Р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р	r	р
SBP (mmHg)	0.48	< 0.001	0.11	0.35	0.41	< 0.001	0.39	0.001	0.22	0.06	0.31	0.007	-0.30	0.8	-0.05	0.63
DBP (mmHg)	0.29	0.01	0.13	0.26	0.31	0.008	0.26	0.02	0.35	0.002	0.19	0.1	-0.03	0.77	0.02	0.83
MAP (mmHg)	0.44	< 0.001	0.12	0.30	0.41	< 0.001	0.37	0.001	0.32	0.006	0.31	0.009	-0.03	0.78	-0.04	0.69
HR (beat/min)	-0.08	0.5	-0.16	0.17	-0.2	0.08	-0.18	0.11	-0.22	0.06	-0.17	0.15	0.17	0.13	0.02	0.85
PP (mmHg)	0.37	0.001	0.06	0.59	0.29	0.01	0.33	0.005	0.0	0.99	0.25	0.03	0.02	0.85	-0.03	0.78
cSBP (mmHg)	0.5	< 0.001	0.12	0.31	0.41	< 0.001	0.4	< 0.001	0.27	0.02	0.31	0.008	0.06	0.61	0.03	0.79
cDBP (mmHg)	0.3	0.009	0.12	0.38	0.3	0.01	0.27	0.02	0.35	0.002	0.21	0.07	0.008	0.95	-0.01	0.89
Alx (%)	-0.12	0.28	0.26	0.02	-0.21	0.07	-0.29	0.01	-0.13	0.25	-0.14	0.24	0.27	0.02	0.22	0.05
PR (s.mmHg/ml)	0.06	0.61	-0.13	0.27	0.10	0.38	-0.48	0.69	0.20	0.09	0.14	0.22	0.10	0.36	0.19	0.09
RM (%)	0.03	0.76	-0.09	0.44	-0.06	0.57	-0.07	0.53	0.03	0.75	-0.05	0.65	0.31	0.007	0.29	0.01
PWV (m/sec)	0.41	< 0.001	0.17	0.13	0.38	0.001	0.36	0.002	0.21	0.07	0.28	0.01	-0.15	0.2	-0.2	0.08
CIMT(right)	0.19	0.1	0.03	0.8	0.02	0.8	0.08	0.46	0.05	0.67	0.28	0.01	•	•		•
CIMT(left)	0.23	0.06	-0.05	0.66	0.11	0.35	0.05	0.65	0.10	0.38	0.08	0.47	•	•	•	

SBP: systolic blood pressure, DBP: diastolic blood pressure, MAP: mean arterial pressure, HR: heart rate, PP: pulse pressure, cSBP: central systolic blood pressure, cDBP: central diastolic blood pressure, Alx: augmentation index, PR: peripheral resistance, RM: reflection magnitude, PWV: pulse wave velocity, IVSDd: interventricular septum end-diastolic thickness, LVEDd: left ventricular end-diastolic diameter, LVPWd: left ventricular end-diastolic posterior wall thickness, LVmass: left ventricular mass, RWT: relative wall thickness, CIMT: carotid intima-media thickness. Correlations between variables with non-normal distribution were analyzed using Spearman correlation analysis.

Discussion

Childhood hypertension is an important risk factor for cardiovascular system diseases, chronic renal failure, and cerebrovascular diseases in adulthood [1]. Endothelial dysfunction and atherosclerosis are largely responsible for the development of hypertensive end organ damage. In cases who have hypertension associated with obesity and dyslipidemia, atherosclerosis findings in the aorta and coronary arteries have been reported to begin in childhood [16, 17]. In our study, the presence of early atherosclerosis and arterial dysfunction findings in hypertensive pediatric patients was investigated by examining the parameters of arterial stiffness and CIMT.

In the present study, the BMI of obese hypertensive children was found to be higher compared to primary and renal hypertensive patients and healthy controls. However, peripheral and central blood pressure values were similar to other patients and healthy children. It has been reported that obese children have higher mean systolic and diastolic blood pressure levels in comparison to those with normal weight [18, 19]. Moore et al. [20] found a relationship between increased BMI and high blood pressure in children. Sorof et al. [21] found the rate of hypertension to be 2-3% among children with normal BMI and 11% among those with BMI \geq 95th percentile. The lack of a significant difference in blood pressure values in obese hypertensive children despite high BMI values may be related to the low mean age of our patients and the low number of subjects. Also, 44.4% of the patients in the OPH group were receiving antihypertensive treatment and strict diet control, resulting in an increased number of patients whose blood pressure values are under control. But, although the rate of antihypertensive drug use was higher in the PH and RH groups, peripheral MAP and cSBP values in both groups, and additionally peripheral SBP, DBP, and cDBP values in the PH group were higher compared to healthy children. Regarding the higher blood pressure values in the PH group, it was thought that their familial tendency to hypertension and less emphasis on dietary controls due to their normal BMI values may have played a role in the detection of higher blood pressure values in those children. However, in hypertension due to chronic renal diseases, blood pressure control is very difficult and often requires multiple antihypertensive therapy [22].

Pulse wave analysis by the oscillometric method is a very useful and reliable method in the evaluation of arterial stiffness especially in adults, and its use in children is becoming increasingly common. In children with hypertension, especially in the presence of obesity, the increase in PWV supports the increase in arterial stiffness [7–9, 23]. Meng et al. [24] examined hypertensive and normotensive children and found PWV to be higher in the hypertensive group. Kulsum-Mecci et al. [9] compared normotensive obese, hypertensive, and hypertensive obese children with a healthy control group and found PWV to be significantly higher in all patient groups than the control group. They also stated that PWV increased with age and did not differ according to sex or race. Sakuragi et al. [25] reported that PWV showed a significant positive correlation with BMI, body fat ratio, and waist circumference in children. Dangart et al. [26] found a higher increase in PWV and DBP in obese children compared to controls at the end of a 5-year follow-up. Niboshi et al. [27] found that age, blood pressure, and heart rate were key determinants of PWV in healthy Japanese children, although obesity and PWV did not correlate.

The augmentation index is another frequently used measure of arterial stiffness along with PWV (28). Although increased Alx values has been associated with target organ damage such as left ventricular hypertrophy and increased intima-media thickness in the arteries in adults, long-term studies are not yet available in children [29, 30]. The fact that the shorter aortic length in young children causes the reflected wave to return early causes Alx to decrease gradually with age [29]. Wójtowicz et al. [31] compared obese/overweight children with or without primery hypertension with a healthy control group and reported that obese children with arterial hypertension showed the highest values of PWV, with no difference in terms of Alx, RM, or PR. Tokgöz et al. [32] reported that PWV and Alx were higher in children with primary and white coat hypertension compared to healthy controls and this was associated with the duration of hypertension. In our study, there was no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of arterial stiffness parameters such as Alx, RM, PR, and PWV (p > 0.05). No correlation was found between duration of hypertension and PWV, Alx, RM, or CIMT. However, in accordance with the literature, PWV was positively correlated with height, weight, BMI, SBP, DBP, MAP, PP, cSBP, and cDBP; Alx was negatively correlated with age, height, and weight and positively correlated with DBP, MAP, HR, and cDBP. Also, CIMT values were positively correlated with Alx and RM. In our study, most of the patients were diagnosed with hypertension recently, which suggests that exposure to high blood pressure was short-lived. Besides, the low mean age of our study group and the low number of subjects might have been effective in the lack of difference in terms of endothelial damage findings and the lack of correlation between duration of hypertension and atherosclerosis markers.

Measurement of central (aortic) blood pressure in hypertensive patients has gained more importance as it gives a clearer idea about cardiovascular events than peripheral (arm) measurement. Central blood pressure is more sensitive in evaluating target organ damage and response to antihypertensive therapy, since central blood pressure directly affects the organs and peripheral blood pressure does not always reflect central blood pressure [33]. Litwin et al. [34] found central blood pressure to be normal in all patients with white coat hypertension and in 93% of the prehypertensive group. In the severe hypertension group, mean cSBP, PP, PWV, and the prevalence of left ventricular hypertrophy was found to be significantly higher than in children with white coat hypertension, prehypertensive, and hypertensive children. They also found that LVmass index and CIMT correlated with both cSBP and PP. Totaro et al. [35] found CIMT, LVmass, Alx, and PWV to be higher in normotensive cases with high central blood pressure. In our study, there was no significant correlation between LVmass index and peripheral SBP, but a significant positive correlation with cSBP (p = 0.02). Moreover, a positive correlation was found between both peripheral and central DBP and LVmass index (p = 0.002). This finding supports that central blood pressure values may be more significant than peripheral measurements for determining target organ damage due to hypertension in hypertensive pediatric patients, as in adult patients.

Hypertension is an important risk factor for atherosclerosis. Especially in patients with additional risk factors such as diabetes, hyperlipidemia, and obesity, endothelial dysfunction caused by hypertension considerably increases the risk of developing atherosclerosis. Pathological studies have shown that atherosclerosis begins in childhood and continues, and fatty streaks can be observed in the coronary and carotid arteries of children and adolescents [36, 37]. Lande et al. [38] reported that CIMT was increased in hypertensive children and was correlated with SBP. Di Salvo et al. [39], Morrison et al. [40], and Pandit et al. [41] found that CIMT did not differ between normotensive obese children and healthy controls. Similarly, we found no statistical difference between the groups in terms of CIMT, despite including non-obese primary hypertensive patients and those with additional risk factors like obesity and chronic renal disease (p > 0.05). Also, CIMT measurements were not significantly correlated with blood pressure parameters or anthropometric measurements. This was again associated with the low mean age of our patients and the fact that hypertension was under control.

Cardiac remodeling caused by hypertension is the most prominent form of target organ damage and is associated with increased cardiovascular mortality and morbidity. It has been shown that increased left ventricular mass and concentric hypertrophy in hypertensive adult patients increase the risk of cardiovascular events [42]. DeSimone et al. [43] reported that the risk of cardiovascular events increased fourfold if the LVmass index was above 51 gr/m^{2.7}. Although hypertension-related left ventricular hypertrophy can be seen in children, it is more common, particularly in late adolescent and young adult age groups [44, 45]. Celik et al. [46] found LVEDd, IVSDd, LVPWd, and LVmass indexes to be significantly higher in obese children compared to the controls. Sorof et al. [47] found that LVmass index showed a strong correlation with ambulatory systolic blood pressure but not with age, weight, or ambulatory DBP in 37 untreated hypertensive children. Di Bonito et al. [48], on the other hand, found that high blood pressure, rather than BMI, was an independent predictor of concentric left ventricular hypertrophy in children. In our study, IVSDd and LVmass were statistically significantly increased in the OPH group compared to the control group (p = 0.02 and p = 0.016, respectively). There was no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of LVmass index and RWT. The fact that IVSDd was statistically significantly higher (p = 0.014) in the RH group as well as OPH group than the control group suggests the potential role of the pressure overload effect of hypertension, along with hypertrophy caused by obesity, in the formation of cardiac target organ damage. Besides, despite the lack of a significant correlation between LVmass index and BMI, high blood pressure is considered a more important predictor of left ventricular hypertrophy than BMI, since LVmass index was positively correlated with peripheral diastolic and mean blood pressures, PP, or central systolic and diastolic blood pressures.

Various risk factors such as smoking, hypertension, and hyperlipidemia initiate an inflammatory response by disrupting the endothelial structure. C-reactive protein is a parameter used to assess inflammation and is a risk factor for cardiovascular events and increased arterial stiffness [49]. The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey showed that adiposity and high SBP were associated with CRP [50, 51]. Noronha et al. [52] found that CRP was associated with obesity and high blood pressure in children. Rondò et al. [53] reported that CRP was positively correlated with SBP and waist circumference and negatively correlated with HDL-C levels. Mohamed et al. [54] found that CRP was positively correlated with BMI but not with blood pressure values. In our study, however, no correlation was found between CRP and blood pressure, pulse wave analysis parameters, or CIMT values, except for a weak negative correlation with peripheral and central DBP values.

In humans, uric acid is the main product of the catabolism of purine nucleotides (adenosine and guanosine). Hyperuricemia is associated with hypertension, vascular disease, renal disease, and cardiovascular events. The Bogalusa Heart Study [55], the Moscow Pediatric Hypertension Study [56], and the 3rd National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey [57] reported that serum uric acid levels are associated with hypertension in children. In our study, however, there was no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of serum uric acid values. But, serum uric acid values were found to be positively

correlated with peripheral SBP, PP, and PWV values (p = 0.009, p = 0.001, p = 0.02, respectively) and negatively correlated with Alx (p = 0.001). This finding suggests that, even when uric acid values are not high, they might be correlated with pulse wave analysis parameters.

Urinary albumin excretion reflects glomerular permeability and increased urinary albumin excretion is indicative of increased renal damage [58]. Microalbuminuria is associated with early target organ damage, left ventricular hypertrophy, and increased CIMT in nondiabetic hypertensive patients [59]. Parving et al. [60] reported that microalbuminuria was significantly increased in non-diabetic patients with primary hypertension compared to controls. Nguyen et al. [61] found a significant relationship between hypertension and microalbuminuria in obese adolescents. On the other hand, Göknar et al. [62] found no difference in terms of microalbuminuria between obese children and healthy controls. Similarly, we found no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of microalbumin/creatinine in spot urine and microalbumin/creatinine ratio was not correlated with any of the study parameters. Considering that the urine samples were studied at different times of the day, the fact that we could not exclude factors like orthostatic proteinuria may have led to the lack of difference between the groups.

Dyslipidemias are known to play a role in cardiovascular events such as hypertension and obesity in adults. There is evidence indicates that high serum total cholesterol, LDL-C, glucose, and insulin levels in childhood are associated with atherosclerotic outcomes in young adults [63–66]. Bjelakovic et al. [67] found that triglyceride/HDL-C ratio was positively correlated with eccentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy and both BMI and insulin levels were positively correlated with adult CIMT was associated with childhood LDL-C, SBP, and BMI. In our study, serum fasting glucose levels were positively correlated with PP and CIMT right (p = 0.002, p = 0.03, respectively). Also, serum insulin levels were found to correlate with SBP, MAP, PP, cSBP, PWV, IVSDd, LVPWd, LVmass, and RWT (p < 0.001, p = 0.02, p < 0.001, p < 0.001, p = 0.002, p = 0.001, p = 0.002, p = 0.001, p = 0.002, p = 0.001, p = 0.003, p = 0.002, p = 0.003,

In conclusion, the ambulatory 24-hour pulse wave analysis by the oscillometric method revealed that children with primary hypertension had higher SBP, DBP, MAP cSBP, and cDBP values and those with renal hypertension had higher MAP and cSBP values compared to healthy controls. Especially, the positive correlations of central blood pressure values with PWV, Alx, and BMI supports that hypertension has a key role in the formation of arterial stiffness and that obesity is associated with blood pressure and arterial stiffness. LVmass index was found to have no significant correlation with peripheral SBP, although its significant positive correlation with cSBP and cDBP supports that central blood pressure is a better predictor of target organ damage. We believe that using pulse wave analysis and central blood pressure measurement to determine deterioration in arterial structure and functions due to hypertension, is an effective and reliable method in children. This can help prevent the development of cardiovascular disease and target organ damage by enabling necessary lifestyle measures to be taken.

Declarations

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

References

- 1. Mavrakanas TA, Konsoula G, Patsonis I, Merkouris BP. Childhood obesity and elevated blood pressure in a rural population of northern Greece. Rural and Remote Health. 2009;9(2):1150.
- 2. McNiece KL, Poffenbarger TS, Turner JL, Franco KD, Sorof JM, PortmanRJ. Prevalence of hypertension and pre-hypertension among adolescents. The Journal of Pediatrics. 2007;150(6):640–4.
- 3. Rimoldi SF, Scherrer U, Messerli FH. Secondary arterial hypertension: when, who, and how to screen? European Heart Journal. 2014;35(19):1245-54.
- 4. Stabouli S, Kotsis V, Zakopoulos N. Ambulatory blood pressure monitoring and target organ damage in pediatrics. Journal of Hypertension. 2007;25(10):1979–86.
- 5. Pall D, Settakis G, Katona E, Csiba L, Kakuk G, Limburg M, Bereczki D, Fülesdi B. Increased common carotid artery intima media thickness in adolescent hypertension. Cerebrovascular Diseases. 2003;15(3):167–72.
- 6. Lyle AN, Raaz U. Killing me unsoftly: causes and mechanisms of arterial stiffness. Arteriosclerosis Thrombosis and Vascular Biology. 2017;37(2):e1-e11.
- 7. Mancia G, Fagard R, Narkiewicz K, Redon J, Zanchetti A, Böhm M, Christiaens T, Cifkova R, Backer GD, Dominiczak A, Galderisi M, Grobbee DE, Jaarsma T, Kirchhof P, Kjeldsen SE, Laurent S, Manolis AJ, Nilsson PM, Ruilope LM, Schmieder RE, Sirnes PA, Sleight P, Viigimaa M, Waeber B, Zannad F. 2013 ESH/ESC guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension: the task force for the management of arterial hypertension of the European Society of Hypertension (ESH) and of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC). European Heart Journal. 2013;34(28):2159–219.
- 8. Urbina EM, Khoury PR, McCoy CE, Dolan LM, Daniels SR, Kimball TR. Triglyceride to HDL-C ratio and increased arterial stiffness in children, adolescents, and young adults. Pediatrics. 2013;131(4):e1082-90.
- 9. Kulsum-Mecci N, Goss C, Kozel BA, Garbutt JM, Schechtman KB, Dharnidharka VR. Effects of obesity and hypertension on pulse wave velocity in children. Journal of Clinical Hypertension. 2017;19(3):221–6.

- 10. Devereux RB, Alonso DR, Lutas EM, Gottlieb GJ, Campo E, Sachs I, Reichek N. Echocardiographic assessment of left ventricular hypertrophy: comparison to necropsy findings. The American Journal of Cardiology. 1986;57(6):450–8.
- Lang RM, Badano LP, Mor-Avi V, Afilalo J, Armstrong A, Ernande L, et al. Recommendations for cardiac chamber quantification by echocardiography in adults: an update from the American Society of Echocardiography and the European Association of Cardiovascular Imaging. European Heart Journal-Cardiovascular Imaging. 2015;16(3):233–71.
- 12. Stein JH, Korcarz CE, Hurst RT, Lonn E, Kendall CB, Mohler ER, Najjar SS, Rembold CM, Post WS. Use of carotid ultrasound to identify subclinical vascular disease and evaluate cardiovascular disease risk: a consensus statement from the American Society of Echocardiography Carotid Intima-Media Thickness Task Force endorsed by the Society for Vascular Medicine. Journal of the American Society of Echocardiography. 2008;21(2):99–100
- 13. World Health Organization. WHO child growth standards: length/height-for-age, weight-for-age, weight-for-length, weight-for-height and body mass indexfor-age: Methods and development. 2006.
- 14. Schwartz GJ, Brion LP, Spitzer A. The use of plasma creatinine concentration for estimating glomerular filtration rate in infants, children, and adolescents. Pediatric Clinics of North America. 1987;34(3):571–90.
- 15. Werneck AO, Agostinete RR, Cayres SU, Urban JB, Wigna A, Chagas LGM, Torres W, Fernandes RA. Association between cluster of lifestyle behaviors and homa-IR among adolescents: ABCD growth study. Medicina. 2018;54(6):96.
- 16. Boren J, Chapman MJ, Krauss RM, Packard CJ, Bentzon JF, Binder CJ, et al. Low-density lipoproteins cause atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease: pathophysiological, genetic, and therapeutic insights: a consensus statement from the European Atherosclerosis Society Consensus Panel. European Heart Journal. 2020;41(24): 2313–30.
- 17. Lamotte C, lliescu C, Libersa C, Gottrand F. Increased intima-media thickness of the carotid artery in childhood: a systematic review of observational studies. European Journal of Pediatrics. 2011;170(6):719–29.
- 18. Flynn J. The changing face of pediatric hypertension in the era of the childhood obesity epidemic. Pediatric Nephrology. 2013;28(7):1059-66.
- 19. Becton LJ, Shatat IF, Flynn J. Hypertension and obesity: epidemiology, mechanisms and clinical approach. The Indian Journal of Pediatrics. 2012;79(8):1056–61.
- 20. Moore WE, Stephens A, Wilson T, Wilson W, Eichner J. Peer reviewed: body mass index and blood pressure screening in a rural public school system: the healthy kids project. Preventing Chronic Disease. 2006;3(4). A114.
- 21. Sorof JM, Lai D, Turner J, Poffenbarger T, Portman RJ. Overweight, ethnicity, and the prevalence of hypertension in school-aged children. Pediatrics. 2004;113(3):475–82.
- Tullus K, Brennan E, Hamilton G, Lord R, McLaren CA, Marks SD, Roebuck DJ. Renovascular hypertension in children. The Lancet. 2008;371(9622):1453–63.
- 23. Papaioannou TG, Argyris A, Protogerou AD, Vrachatis D, Nasothimiou EG, Sfikakis PP, Stergiouc GS, Stefanadiset CI. Non-invasive 24 hour ambulatory monitoring of aortic wave reflection and arterial stiffness by a novel oscillometric device: the first feasibility and reproducibility study. International Journal of Cardiology. 2013;169(1):57–61.
- 24. Meng L, Hou D, Zhao X, Hu Y, Liang Y, Liu J, Yan Y, Mi J. Cardiovascular target organ damage could have been detected in sustained pediatric hypertension. Blood Pressure. 2015;24(5):284–92.
- 25. Sakuragi S, Abhayaratna K, Gravenmaker KJ, O'Reilly C, Srikusalanukul W, Budge MM, Telford RD, Abhayaratnaet WP. Influence of adiposity and physical activity on arterial stiffness in healthy children: the lifestyle of our kids study. Hypertension. 2009;53(4):611–6.
- 26. Dangardt F, Chen Y, Berggren K, Osika W, Friberg P. Increased rate of arterial stiffening with obesity in adolescents: a five-year follow-up study. PloS one. 2013;8(2):e57454.
- 27. Niboshi A, Hamaoka K, Sakata K, Inoue F. Characteristics of brachial–ankle pulse wave velocity in Japanese children. European Journal of Pediatrics. 2006;165(9):625–9.
- 28. Van Bortel LM, Laurent S, Boutouyrie P, Chowienczyk P, Cruickshank J, De Backer T, Jane F, Sofiea H, Francesco MR, Athanase P, Giuseppeh S, Patricki S, Sebastiana V, Thomas W. Expert consensus document on the measurement of aortic stiffness in daily practice using carotid-femoral pulse wave velocity. Journal of hypertension. 2012;30(3):445–8.
- 29. Panchangam C, Merrill ED, Raghuveer G. Utility of arterial stiffness assessment in children. Cardiology in The Young. 2018;28(3):362-76.
- McEniery CM, Cockcroft JR, Roman MJ, Franklin SS, Wilkinson IB. Central blood pressure: current evidence and clinical importance. European Heart Journal. 2014;35(26):1719–25.
- 31. Wójtowicz J, Łempicka A, Łuczyński W, Szczepański W, Zomerfeld A, Semeran K, Bossowski A. Central aortic pressure, arterial stiffness and echocardiographic parameters of children with overweight/obesity and arterial hypertension. Advances in Clinical and Experimental Medicine: Official Organ Wroclaw Medical University. 2017;26(9):1399–404.
- 32. Tokgöz ST, Yılmaz D, Tokgöz Y, Çelik B, Bulut Y. The evaluation of arterial stiffness of essential hypertension and white coat hypertension in children: a case-control study. Cardiology in The Young. 2018;28(3):403–8.
- 33. Hirata K, Kawakami M, O'Rourke MF. Pulse wave analysis and pulse wave velocity a review of blood pressure interpretation 100 years after Korotkov. Circulation Journal. 2006;70(10):1231–9.
- 34. Litwin M, Obrycki Ł, Niemirska A, Sarnecki J, Kułaga Z. Central systolic blood pressure and central pulse pressure predict left ventricular hypertrophy in hypertensive children. Pediatric Nephrology. 2019;34(4):703–12.
- Totaro S, Khoury PR, Kimball TR, Dolan LM, Urbina EM. Arterial stiffness is increased in young normotensive subjects with high central blood pressure. Journal of the American Society of Hypertension. 2015;9(4):285–92.

- 36. Berenson GS. Childhood risk factors predict adult risk associated with subclinical cardiovascular disease: The Bogalusa Heart Study. The American Journal of Cardiology. 2002;90(10C):3L-7L.
- 37. Bland J, Skordalaki A, Emery JL. Early intimal lesions in the common carotid artery. Cardiovascular Research. 1986;20(11):863–8.
- 38. Lande MB, Carson NL, Roy J, Meagher CC. Effects of childhood primary hypertension on carotid intima media thickness: a matched controlled study. Hypertension. 2006;48(1):40-4.
- 39. Di Salvo G, Pacileo G, Del Giudice EM, Natale F, Limongelli G, Verrengia M, et al. Abnormal myocardial deformation properties in obese, non-hypertensive children: an ambulatory blood pressure monitoring, standard echocardiographic, and strain rate imaging study. European Heart Journal2006;27(22):2689–95.
- 40. Morrison K, Dyal L, Conner W, Helden E, Newkirk L, Yusuf S, Lonn E. Cardiovascular risk factors and non-invasive assessment of subclinical atherosclerosis in youth. Atherosclerosis. 2010;208(2):501–5.
- Pandit D, Kinare A, Chiplonkar S, Khadilkar A, Khadilkar V. Carotid arterial stiffness in overweight and obese Indian children. Journal of Pediatric Endocrine Metabolism. 2011;24(1–2):97–102.
- 42. Drazner MH. The progression of hypertensive heart disease. Circulation. 2011;123(3):327-34.
- 43. De Simone G, Devereux RB, Daniels SR, Koren MJ, Meyer RA, Laragh JH. Effect of growth on variability of left ventricular mass: assessment of allometric signals in adults and children and their capacity to predict cardiovascular risk. Journal of the American College of Cardiology. 1995;25(5):1056–62.
- 44. Kishi S, Armstrong AC, Gidding SS, Jacobs Jr DR, Sidney S, Lewis CE, et al. Relation of left ventricular mass at age 23 to 35 years to global left ventricular systolic function 20 years later (from the Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults study). The American Journal of Cardiology. 2014;113(2):377–83.
- 45. Kishi S, Teixido-Tura G, Ning H, Venkatesh BA, Wu C, Almeida A, et al. Cumulative blood pressure in early adulthood and cardiac dysfunction in middle age: the CARDIA study. Journal of the American College of Cardiology. 2015;65(25):2679–87.
- Çelik A, Özçetin M, Yerli Y, Damar İH, Kadı H, Koç F, Ceyhan K. Increased aortic pulse wave velocity in obese children. Türk Kardiyoloji Derneği Arşivi. 2011;39(7):557–62.
- 47. Sorof JM, Cardwell G, Franco K, Portman RJ. Ambulatory blood pressure and left ventricular mass index in hypertensive children. Hypertension. 2002;39(4):903–8.
- 48. Di Bonito P, Moio N, Scilla C, Cavuto L, Sibilio G, Sanguigno E, et al. Usefulness of the high triglyceride-to-HDL cholesterol ratio to identify cardiometabolic risk factors and preclinical signs of organ damage in outpatient children. Diabetes Care. 2012;35(1):158–62.
- 49. Johns I, Moschonas KE, Medina J, Ossei-Gerning N, Kassianos G, Halcox JP. Risk classification in primary prevention of CVD according to QRISK2 and JBS3 'heart age', and prevalence of elevated high-sensitivity C reactive protein in the UK cohort of the EURIKA study. Open Heart. 2018;5(2).
- 50. De Ferranti SD, Gauvreau K, Ludwig DS, Newburger JW, Rifai N. Inflammation and changes in metabolic syndrome abnormalities in US adolescents: findings from the 1988–1994 and 1999–2000 National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys. Clinical Chemistry. 2006;52(7):1325–30.
- 51. Ford ES, Giles WH, Myers GL, Rifai N, Ridker PM, Mannino DMJCc. C-reactive protein concentration distribution among US children and young adults: findings from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1999–2000. Clinical Chemistry. 2003;49(8):1353–7.
- 52. Noronha JAF, Medeiros CCM, Cardoso AdS, Gonzaga NC, Ramos AT, Ramos ALC. C-reactive protein and its relation to high blood pressure in overweight or obese children and adolescents. Revista Paulista de Pediatria. 2013;31(3):331–7.
- 53. Rondó P, Pereira J, Lemos JO. High sensitivity C-reactive protein concentrations, birthweight and cardiovascular risk markers in Brazilian children. European Journal of Clinical nutrition. 2013;67(6):664–9.
- 54. Mohamed NS, Maher SE, Abozaid SMM, Moenes HM. Anthropometric and metabolic pattern in obese Egyptian children: its association with C-reactive protein. Egyptian Pediatric Association Gazette. 2020;68(1):17.
- 55. Alper Jr AB, Chen W, Yau L, Srinivasan SR, 131 GS, Hamm LL. Childhood uric acid predicts adult blood pressure: the Bogalusa Heart Study. Hypertension. 2005;45(1):34–8.
- Rovda I, Kazakova L, Plaksina EA. Parameters of uric acid metabolism in healthy children and in patients with arterial hypertension. Pediatriia. 1990; (8):19–22.
- 57. Goldstein HS, Manowitz P. Relation between serum uric acid and blood pressure in adolescents. Annals of Human Biology. 1993;20(5):423-31.
- 58. Erdmann E. Microalbuminuria as a marker of cardiovascular risk in patients with type 2 diabetes. International Journal of Cardiology. 2006;107(2):147– 53.
- 59. Pedrinelli R, Dell'Omo G, Di Bello V, Pontremoli R, Mariani M. Microalbuminuria, an integrated marker of cardiovascular risk in essential hypertension. Journal of Human Hypertension. 2002;16(2):79–89.
- 60. Parving H-H, Mogensen C, Evrin P.E. Increased urinary albumin-excretion rate in benign essential hypertension. The Lancet. 1974;303(7868):1190-2.
- 61. Nguyen S, McCulloch C, Brakeman P, Portale A, Hsu C-yJP. Being overweight modifies the association between cardiovascular risk factors and microalbuminuria in adolescents. Pediatrics. 2008;121(1):37–45.
- 62. Goknar N, Oktem F, Ozgen IT, Torun E, Kuçukkoc M, Demir AD, Cesur Y. Determination of early urinary renal injury markers in obese children. Pediatric Nephrology. 2015;30(1):139–44.
- 63. Magnussen CG, Raitakari OT, Thomson R, Juonala M, Patel DA, Viikari JS, et al. Utility of currently recommended pediatric dyslipidemia classifications in predicting dyslipidemia in adulthood: evidence from the Childhood Determinants of Adult Health (CDAH) study, Cardiovascular Risk in Young Finns Study, and Bogalusa Heart Study. Circulation. 2008;117(1):32–42.

- 64. Magnussen CG, Venn A, Thomson R, Juonala M, Srinivasan SR, Viikari JS, et al. The association of pediatric low- and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol dyslipidemia classifications and change in dyslipidemia status with carotid intima-media thickness in adulthood evidence from the cardiovascular risk in Young Finns study, the Bogalusa Heart study, and the CDAH (Childhood Determinants of Adult Health) study. Journal of the American College of Cardiology. 2009;53(10):860–9.
- 65. Gomes É IL, Zago VHS, Faria EC. Evaluation of Lipid Profiles of Children and Youth from Basic Health Units in Campinas, SP, Brazil: A Cross-Sectional Laboratory Study. Arquivos Brasileiros de Cardiologia. 2020;114(1):47–56.
- 66. Yajnik CS, Katre PA, Joshi SM, Kumaran K, Bhat DS, Lubree HG, et al. Higher glucose, insulin and insulin resistance (homa-IR) in childhood predict adverse cardiovascular risk in early adulthood: the Pune Children's Study. Diabetologia. 2015;58(7):1626–36.
- 67. Bjelakovic B, Stefanutti C, Vukovic V, Kavaric N, Saranac L, Klisic A, et al. Lipid profile and left ventricular geometry pattern in obese children. Lipids in health and disease. Lipids in Health and Disease. 2020;19(1):109.
- 68. Sierakowska-Fijałek A, Kaczmarek P, Pokoca L, Smorag I, Wosik-Erenbek M, Baj Z. Homocystein serum levels and lipid parameters in children with atherosclerosis risk factors. Polski Merkuriusz lekarski: Organ Polskiego Towarzystwa Lekarskiego. 2007;22(128):146–9.
- 69. Raitakari OT, Juonala M, Kähönen M, Taittonen L, Laitinen T, Mäki-Torkko N, et al. Cardiovascular risk factors in childhood and carotid artery intima-media thickness in adulthood: the Cardiovascular Risk in Young Finns Study. Jam. 2003;290(17):2277–83.