

Short report: Ambulatory blood pressure in normotensive compared with hypertensive subjects

Jan A. Staessen, Eoin T. O'Brien*, Neil Atkins* and
Antoon K. Amery, on behalf of the Ad-Hoc Working Group†

Objective: To delineate more precisely an operational threshold for making clinical decisions based on ambulatory blood pressure (ABP) measurement by studying the ABP in subjects who were diagnosed as either normotensive or hypertensive by conventional blood pressure (CBP) measurement.

Subjects: Twenty-four research groups recruited 7069 subjects. Of these, 4577 were normotensive (CBP $\leq 140/90$ mmHg), 719 were borderline hypertensive (systolic CBP 141–159 mmHg or diastolic CBP 91–94 mmHg) and 1773 were definitely hypertensive. Of the subjects in the last of these categories, 1324 had systolic hypertension (systolic CBP ≥ 160 mmHg) and 1310 had diastolic hypertension (diastolic CBP ≥ 95 mmHg). Hypertension had been diagnosed from the mean of two to nine (median two) CBP measurements obtained at one to three (median two) visits.

Results: The 95th centiles of the 24-h ABP distributions in the normotensive subjects were (systolic and diastolic, respectively) 133 and 82 mmHg. Of the subjects with systolic hypertension, 24% had 24-h systolic ABP < 133 mmHg. Similarly, 30% of those with diastolic hypertension had 24-h diastolic ABP < 82 mmHg. The probability that hypertensive subjects had 24-h ABP below these thresholds tended to increase with age and was two- to fourfold greater if the CBP of the subject had been measured at only one visit and if fewer than three CBP measurements had been averaged for establishing the diagnosis of hypertension. By contrast, for each 10-mmHg increment in systolic CBP, this

From Hypertensie en Cardiovasculaire Revalidatie Eenheid, Departement Pathofysiologie, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Leuven, Belgium, and the *Blood Pressure Unit, Beaumont Hospital, Dublin, Ireland.

†Peter Baumgart, Medizinische Poliklinik, Westfälische Wilhelms-Universität, Münster, Germany; Paul De Cort, Hypertensie en Cardiovasculaire Revalidatie Eenheid, Departement Pathofysiologie and the Academisch Centrum voor Huisartsgeneeskunde, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; Jean-Paul Degaute, Hôpital Erasme, Université Libre de Bruxelles, Brussels, Belgium; Primož Dolenc, Department of Internal Medicine, Bolnica 'Dr Petra Drzaja', Ljubljana, Slovenia; Régis de Gaudemaris, Centre Hospitalier Régional et Universitaire de Grenoble, Grenoble, France; Inger Enström, Vårdcentralen, Kävlinge, Sweden; Robert Fagard, Hypertensie en Cardiovasculaire Revalidatie Eenheid, Departement Pathofysiologie, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; Philippe Gosse, Centre Hospitalier Régional de Bordeaux, Bordeaux, France; Steve Gourlay, Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, Monash Medical School, Melbourne, Australia; Hiroshi Hayashi, First Department of Internal Medicine, Nagoya University, Nagoya, Japan; Yutaka Imai, Second Department of Internal Medicine, Tohoku University School of Medicine, Sendai, Japan; Gary James, Cardiovascular Center, New York Hospital–Cornell Medical Center, New York, USA; Terukazu Kawasaki, Institute of Health Science, Kyusho University, Fukuoka, Japan; Emilio Kuschner, Division of Clinical Research, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Córdoba, Argentina; Iwao Kuwajima, Tokyo Metropolitan Geriatric Hospital, Tokyo, Japan; Lars Lindholm, Health Sciences Centre, Lund University, Dalby, Sweden; Lisheng Liu, Fu Wai Hospital and Cardiovascular Institute, Beijing, People's Republic of China; Franco Macor, Istituto di Medica Clinica, Università di Padua, Padua, Italy; Giuseppe Mancini, Istituto di Clinica Medica Generale e Terapia Medica, Università degli Studi di Milano, Milan, Italy; Barry McGrath, Department of Social and Preventive Medicine, Monash Medical School, Melbourne, Australia; Martin Middeke, Medizinische Poliklinik, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München, Munich, Germany; Jian Ming, Fu Wai Hospital and Cardiovascular Institute, Beijing, People's Republic of China; Stefan Omboni, Istituto di Clinica Medica Generale e Terapia Medica, Università degli Studi di Milano, Milan, Italy; Kuniaki Otsuka, Daini Hospital Department of Medicine, Tokyo Women's Medical College, Tokyo, Japan; Paolo Palatini, Istituto di Medica Clinica, Università di Padua, Padua, Italy; Gianfranco Parati, Istituto di Clinica Medica Generale e Terapia Medica, Università degli Studi di Milano, Milan, Italy; Carl Pieper, Center for the Study of Aging and Human Development, Duke University Medical Center, Durham, North Carolina, USA; Paolo Verdecchia, Sede Ospedaliera 'R. Silvestrini', Perugia, Italy; Prince Zachariah, Mayo Clinic Jacksonville, Jacksonville, Florida, USA; and Weizhong Zhang, Shanghai Institute of Hypertension, Shanghai, People's Republic of China.

The full supporting paper from which this short report is derived will appear in *J Hypertens* 1994, 12 (suppl 7):S1–S12.

Requests for reprints to: Dr J.A. Staessen, Klinisch Laboratorium Hypertensie, Inwendige Geneeskunde-Cardiologie, UZ Gasthuisberg, Herestraat 49, B-3000 Leuven, Belgium.

Date of receipt: 4 February 1993; revised: 20 July 1993; accepted: 23 July 1993.

probability decreased by 54% for 24-h systolic ABP and by 26% for 24-h diastolic ABP, and for each 5-mmHg increment in diastolic CBP it decreased by 6 and 9%, respectively.

Conclusions: The ABP distributions of the normotensive subjects included in the present international database were not materially different from those in previous reports in the literature. One-fifth to more than one-third of hypertensive subjects had an ABP which was below the 95th centile of the ABP of normotensive subjects, but this proportion decreased if the hypertensive subjects had shown a higher CBP upon repeated measurement. The prognostic implications of elevated CBP in the presence of normal ABP remain to be determined.

Journal of Hypertension 1993, 11:1289-1297

Keywords: Ambulatory blood pressure, conventional blood pressure.

Introduction

The widespread clinical application of ambulatory blood pressure (ABP) monitoring requires the definition of operational thresholds [1-3]. Preliminary proposals [4-10] have been published, but continuing research has not yet reached a widely endorsed consensus [3]. A recent meta-analysis [7] pooled statistics from 23 published studies of 3476 normotensive subjects. The ABP measurements in those studies had been processed using different mathematical techniques, various definitions of day and night, and different editing criteria for the exclusion of invalid readings.

In an attempt to delineate more precisely an operational threshold for ABP monitoring, the objective of the present study was to constitute and analyse an international database of ABP recordings. The perceived advantage of studying recordings from individual subjects, rather than the summary statistics of published reports, was that the same mathematical approach [11], the same quality standards and a uniform definition of day and night could be applied to 7069 recordings from 24 clinical research units. The database also provided the means to contrast the distributions of the ABP measurements from subjects who were either normotensive or hypertensive according to conventional sphygmomanometry [12,13] and to examine how many hypertensive subjects would have ABP within the normotensive range if certain thresholds were applied.

Methods

Experts in ABP monitoring were identified from the list of attendants of the Second International Consensus Meeting on 24-Hour Ambulatory Blood Pressure Measurement (Dublin, 23 September 1991; organized by Professor E.T. O'Brien), from computer

searches of the English, French and German literature from January 1980 to June 1991 using the Medical Literature Analysis and Retrieval System, and through contacts at international meetings. A total of 33 research groups were invited to make available for analysis ABP recordings and relevant clinical information. Twenty-four centres co-operated, six units did not have suitable data and three either did not reply or decided not to take part.

Unedited ABP recordings were available from 7595 people. Of these, 526 subjects were excluded because there was no record of their CBP, because their ABP recording covered <20 h, because fewer than 10 readings were available for the computation of average daytime blood pressure or because fewer than five readings were available for nighttime blood pressure. The study group thus totalled 7069 subjects.

In agreement with current medical practice [12,13], normotension and hypertension were defined solely on the basis of CBP measurements. Normotension was defined as CBP $\leq 140/90$ mmHg. Borderline hypertension was present if either systolic CBP was 141-159 mmHg or diastolic CBP was 91-94 mmHg, or both. Definite hypertension was defined as systolic CBP ≥ 160 mmHg or diastolic CBP ≥ 95 mmHg, or both.

The vast majority of the hypertensive subjects had been examined on several occasions. However, the number of visits for which CBP readings could be made available for the present analysis varied from one to three. The CBP was the average of at least two measurements in all subjects with borderline or definite hypertension. By contrast, some normotensive subjects had been examined once only and, in a few normotensive subjects, one blood pressure reading within the normotensive range had been deemed sufficient to exclude hypertension.

In all subjects ABP had been recorded non-invasively either with auscultatory (Accutacker II [14],

Del Mar Avionics Pressurometer P4 [15], Novacor DIASYS 200R [16], Oxford Medilog [17], SpaceLabs 5200 [18] or Takeda A & D TM-2420 [19]) or oscillometric (SpaceLabs 90202 [20] or 90207 [20]) devices. Whenever the ABP had been recorded with both techniques (using the Colin Medical ABPM-630 [21]) only the oscillometric measurements were used for the present analysis. All ABP recordings were truncated so that their total duration did not exceed 24 h. In order to eliminate the transition periods between daytime activity and sleep, during which blood pressure often changes rapidly, daytime was defined as 1000–2000 h and night-time as 0000–0600 h [6,11]. To contrast the distributions of ABP among normotensive and hypertensive subjects, subjects with definite hypertension were subdivided into two partially overlapping groups: subjects with systolic hypertension (systolic CBP ≥ 160 mmHg)

and subjects with diastolic hypertension (diastolic CBP ≥ 95 mmHg).

DBMS/COPY (Conceptual Software Inc., Houston, Texas, USA) was used to convert the available data to a database compatible with the SAS format (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, North Carolina, USA). After conversion all ABP recordings were processed by the same computer program, using SAS software. The ABP recordings were not edited. Within-subject means of the ABP measurements were weighted for the interval between successive blood pressure readings [11]. Exact confidence intervals for proportions were computed using STATXACT software (CYTEL Software Corporation, Cambridge, Massachusetts, USA). Group means were compared using Student's *t*-test, and proportions were compared using a standardized normal deviate. Mul-

Table 1. Characteristics of the study population.

| Investigator | n | Subjects | Age (years) | Men (%) | NBP (%) | Device(s) used | Visits | CBP |
|----------------|-----|-----------|-------------|---------|---------|--|----------|-------|
| Baumgart | 103 | S (r) | 24 (20–29) | 50 | 92 | S ₂ , S ₇ | C 2 (6) | S (4) |
| De Gaudemaris | 158 | E (v,d,n) | 41 (15–75) | 49 | 100 | S ₅ , ND ₂ | S 1 (3) | S (3) |
| De Cort | 352 | P (v) | 72 (59–97) | 42 | 49 | S ₇ | P 2 (12) | S (3) |
| Degaute | 45 | E,S (v) | 35 (19–72) | 100 | 76 | OM | C 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Enström | 159 | C (r,d) | 52 (40–64) | 100 | 45 | S ₅ | P 3 (1) | R (3) |
| Fagard | 37 | P (v,h) | 41 (26–56) | 62 | 3 | S ₅ | C 2 (10) | R (5) |
| Gosse | 231 | E (v,n) | 39 (21–74) | 61 | 79 | S ₅ , ND ₂ | S 1 (1) | S (1) |
| Gourlay | 76 | C (r) | 47 (21–68) | 59 | 64 | A ₁₁ | S 1 (2) | S (2) |
| Hayashi | 311 | ? (v,d,n) | 40 (15–86) | 60 | 87 | CM ₆ | S 3 (1) | S (3) |
| Imai | 429 | C (r) | 55 (12–72) | 31 | 77 | CM ₆ | S 1 (2) | S (2) |
| James | 80 | E (v,d,n) | 30 (21–50) | 0 | 100 | S ₅ , S ₇ | S 1 (5) | S (5) |
| Kawasaki | 700 | ? (v,d) | 54 (12–72) | 57 | 78 | CM ₆ | S 2 (6) | S (3) |
| Kuschnir | 110 | P (h) | 55 (39–74) | 45 | 0 | T | C 3 (9) | S (9) |
| Kuwajima | 99 | P (v) | 78 (62–99) | 56 | 43 | CM ₆ | S 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Liu Lisheng | 26 | E (v,d,n) | 65 (44–76) | 85 | 100 | S ₂ | C 3 (1) | S (3) |
| Middeke | 82 | P (v) | 39 (16–77) | 46 | 50 | S ₂ , S ₇ | C 1 (5) | S (5) |
| O'Brien | 896 | E (v) | 46 (29–51) | 48 | 90 | S ₂ , S ₇ | S 2 (2) | S (2) |
| O'Brien | 938 | P (v,h) | 50 (16–81) | 49 | 0 | S ₂ , S ₇ | C 2 (2) | S (2) |
| Omboni | 9 | P (v) | 43 (21–64) | 44 | 100 | S ₇ | C 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Otsuka | 321 | C (v,d,n) | 38 (16–89) | 41 | 90 | CM ₆ | S 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Otsuka | 151 | S (v,d,n) | 20 (18–27) | 0 | 99 | CM ₆ | S 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Otsuka | 122 | P (v) | 52 (15–81) | 45 | 0 | CM ₆ | C 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Palatini | 214 | P (v) | 31 (10–81) | 86 | 17 | S ₅ , D, T | C 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Pieper | 159 | E (v) | 43 (30–60) | 89 | 99 | S ₅ | S 2 (6) | S (4) |
| Staessen | 739 | C (r) | 50 (20–87) | 48 | 79 | S ₂ | H 2 (10) | S (3) |
| Staessen | 36 | P (v,h) | 50 (19–69) | 58 | 14 | S ₂ , S ₇ | C 2 (10) | S (5) |
| Staessen | 161 | E,S (v,d) | 34 (19–62) | 52 | 76 | S ₂ , S ₇ | C 2 (10) | S (5) |
| Verdecchia | 145 | E (v,d,n) | 46 (16–91) | 53 | 100 | S ₂ , S ₅ , S ₇ | C 1 (3) | S (3) |
| Weizhong Zhang | 54 | E (v,d,n) | 47 (22–76) | 50 | 100 | S ₂ | C 1 (2) | S (2) |
| Zachariah | 126 | C (v,d,n) | 49 (21–84) | 44 | 95 | D | S 2 (2) | S (2) |

Subjects: C, community; E, employees (white- or blue-collar); P, patients; S, students. Selection criteria are given in parentheses: d, subjects with concomitant disease excluded; h, borderline hypertension, i.e. $140 < \text{systolic blood pressure} < 160$ mmHg or $90 < \text{diastolic blood pressure} < 95$ mmHg or definite hypertension, i.e. systolic blood pressure ≥ 160 mmHg or diastolic blood pressure ≥ 95 mmHg; n, normotension, i.e. systolic blood pressure ≤ 140 mmHg and diastolic blood pressure ≤ 90 mmHg; r, random sample; v, volunteers. **Age:** mean (range). **NBP,** percentage of subjects with normal blood pressure upon conventional measurement. **Devices:** A₁₁, Accutracker II; CM₆, Colin Medical ABPM-630; D, Del Mar Avionics Pressurometer P4; OM, Oxford Medilog; ND₂, Novacor DIASYS 200R; S₅, S₂ and S₇, SpaceLabs 5200, 90202 and 90207; T, Takeda A & D TM-2420. **Visits:** the number of visits (total number of conventional blood pressure readings) available for analysis for each subject. The letter indicates where the blood pressure readings were obtained: S, special centre; C, clinic; H, home; P, surgery of general practitioner. **CBP,** conventional blood pressure readings (n): R, recumbent, S, sitting; within parentheses the number of readings averaged for the present analysis.

multiple logistic regression [22] was used to identify the factors determining the probability that hypertensive subjects had ABP below the 95th centile of the corresponding distribution in normotensive subjects.

Results

Characteristics of the study population

The study population included 7069 subjects (3600 male, 3469 female; mean \pm SD age 48 ± 16 years, range 10–99). Body mass index was available in 5052 subjects (mean \pm SD 24.6 ± 4.1 kg/m², range 14.0–52.7). The number of subjects for whom data were contributed by each investigator, the criteria by which these participants had been recruited, and their age and sex distributions are summarized in Table 1.

Blood pressure measurements

The median number of visits for which CBP readings had been made available for the present analysis was two throughout the database and two among the 1776 subjects with definite hypertension. CBP was the average of two readings in 2519 persons, three readings in 3551, four in 262, five in 396 and nine in 110 subjects (Table 1). In 231 subjects only one sphygmomanometric blood pressure reading had been obtained, which was found to be normal. The median number of CBP readings averaged for the present analysis was three in all 7069 subjects, and two in the 1776 subjects with definite hypertension.

The technique of ABP measurement used was oscillometric in 5572 subjects, auscultatory in 1417 and either auscultatory (using the SpaceLabs 5200) or oscillometric (using the SpaceLabs 90202) in 80 (those data contributed by James G; Table 1).

A total of 4577 subjects had CBP within the normotensive range (Table 2), 582 of whom (Staessen JA, Table 1) had had their CBP measured in the relaxed home environment. However, excluding these subjects from the database did not substantially alter the distributions of ABP measurements among the normotensive subjects. These distributions were also unchanged by the exclusion of 44 adolescents (aged <18 years).

The database included 2492 hypertensive subjects, of whom 719 had a borderline elevation of systolic or diastolic CBP, or both, and 1773 were definitely hypertensive (Table 2). Of the latter, 1324 had systolic and 1310 had diastolic hypertension. Both systolic and diastolic hypertension were present in 861 subjects, 463 subjects had isolated systolic hypertension and 449 had isolated diastolic hypertension (Table 3).

Table 2. Blood pressure in normotensive subjects and in those with borderline and definite hypertension.

| | Normotensive | Borderline hypertensive | Definite hypertensive |
|---------------------------------|----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| n | 4577 | 719 | 1773 |
| Men (%) | 48.6 | 61.6 | 52.7 |
| Age (years) | $45 \pm 15^*$ | 53 ± 18 | 52 ± 15 |
| Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) | | | |
| Conventional | $119 \pm 12^*$ | 146 ± 7 | 169 ± 18 |
| 24-h Ambulatory | $116 \pm 10^*$ | 128 ± 11 | 143 ± 17 |
| Daytime | $122 \pm 11^*$ | 134 ± 12 | 149 ± 18 |
| Night-time | $106 \pm 11^*$ | 117 ± 14 | 130 ± 19 |
| Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg) | | | |
| Conventional | $73 \pm 9^*$ | 83 ± 9 | 102 ± 15 |
| 24-h Ambulatory | $70 \pm 7^*$ | 76 ± 8 | 86 ± 11 |
| Daytime | $75 \pm 8^*$ | 81 ± 9 | 91 ± 12 |
| Night-time | $61 \pm 8^*$ | 68 ± 9 | 77 ± 12 |

Age and blood pressure are expressed as means \pm SD. * $P < 0.05$, versus borderline and definite hypertensive.

Table 3. Blood pressure measurements in three subgroups of subjects with definite hypertension.

| | Hypertensive | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|------------------------|
| | Isolated systolic | Isolated diastolic | Systolic and diastolic |
| n | 463 | 449 | 861 |
| Men (%) | 50.3 | 65.3 | 47.4 |
| Age (years) | 58 ± 18 | 43 ± 13 | 52 ± 13 |
| Systolic blood pressure (mmHg) | | | |
| Conventional | 173 ± 13 | 148 ± 8 | 178 ± 16 |
| 24-h Ambulatory | 141 ± 14 | 135 ± 17 | 147 ± 17 |
| Daytime | 147 ± 15 | 141 ± 18 | 154 ± 18 |
| Night-time | 130 ± 18 | 122 ± 18 | 135 ± 19 |
| Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg) | | | |
| Conventional | 83 ± 10 | 104 ± 7 | 111 ± 11 |
| 24-h Ambulatory | 80 ± 10 | 85 ± 10 | 90 ± 11 |
| Daytime | 85 ± 12 | 91 ± 11 | 95 ± 12 |
| Night-time | 72 ± 11 | 75 ± 11 | 81 ± 12 |

Values are expressed as means \pm SD. Hypertension was defined as blood pressure $\geq 160/95$ mmHg upon conventional blood pressure measurement.

As expected, ABP was, on average, higher in the hypertensive than in the normotensive subjects (Table 2). The 95th centiles of the ABP distributions in the normotensive subjects were (systolic and diastolic, respectively) 133 and 82 mmHg for 24-h blood pressures, 140 and 88 mmHg for daytime blood pressures and 125 and 76 mmHg for night-time blood pressures (Table 4).

Ambulatory blood pressure in normotensive compared with hypertensive subjects

By definition there was a difference of ≥ 20 mmHg in systolic CBP between the 4577 normotensive subjects and the 1324 subjects with systolic hypertension. Indeed, in the former the distribution had been truncated at 140 mmHg and in the latter at 160 mmHg. Similarly, diastolic CBP was ≥ 5 mmHg

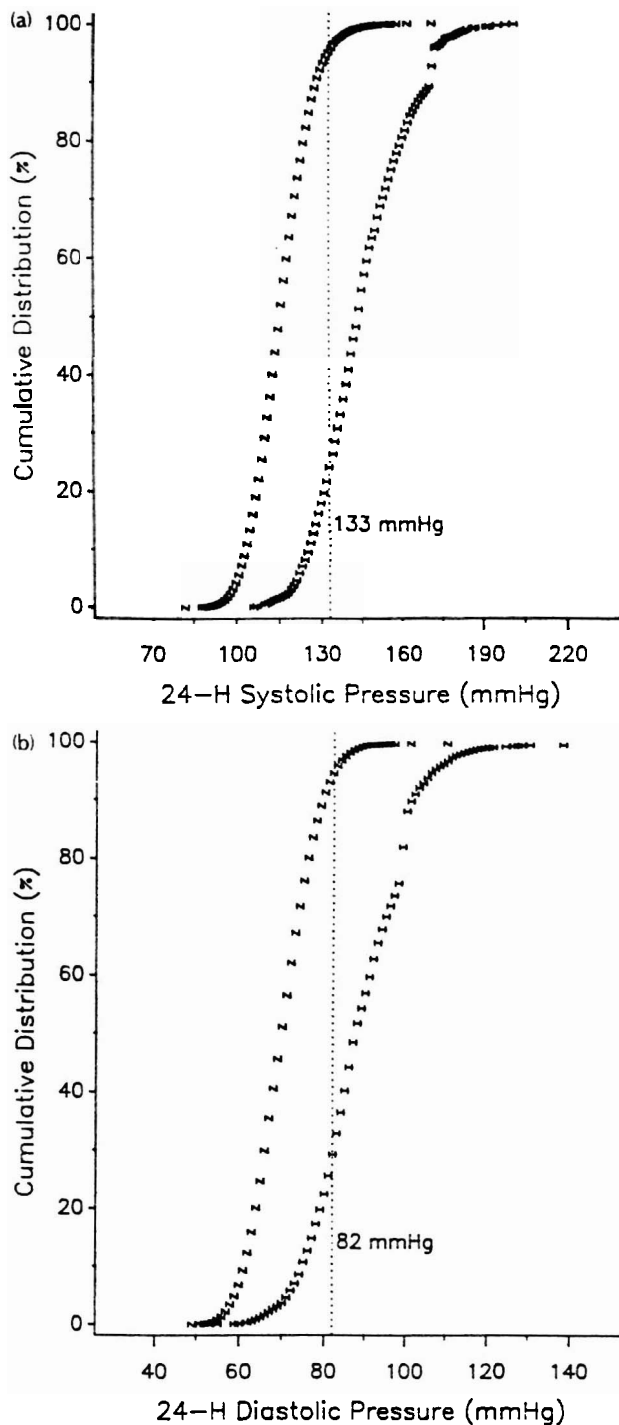


Fig. 1. The cumulative distributions of the 24-h (a) systolic and (b) diastolic ambulatory blood pressures in normotensive (N; $n = 4577$) and hypertensive subjects (H; systolic $n = 1324$, diastolic $n = 1310$). The dotted vertical lines indicate the 95th centiles of these blood pressures in normotensive subjects. Patients with borderline hypertension ($n = 719$) were excluded from this analysis.

higher in the subjects with diastolic hypertension ($n = 1310$) than in the normotensive subjects. Nevertheless, there was considerable overlap between the normotensives and hypertensives when their ABP distributions were analysed (Fig. 1, Table 4). For instance, the 95th centile of 24-h systolic

ABP in normotensive subjects (133 mmHg) was not exceeded by 24% of the subjects with systolic hypertension upon conventional sphygmomanometry (Fig. 1, Table 4). Similarly, 30% of the subjects with diastolic hypertension upon conventional measurement had 24-h diastolic ABP below the 95th centile (82 mmHg) of the subjects with normal CBP.

Table 4. Percentages of hypertensive subjects with conventional blood pressure above and ambulatory blood pressure below specified thresholds.

| Threshold (mmHg) | Hypertensive subjects (%) | |
|---|---|---|
| | Conventional systolic blood pressure ≥ 160 mmHg ($n = 1324$) | Conventional diastolic blood pressure ≥ 95 mmHg ($n = 1310$) |
| 24-h Ambulatory blood pressure | | |
| Systolic | | |
| 90th Centile | <129 | 15 |
| 95th Centile | <133 | 24 |
| Mean + 2SD | <136 | 31 |
| Diastolic | | |
| 90th Centile | <79 | 27 |
| 95th Centile | <82 | 37 |
| Mean + 2SD | <84 | 44 |
| Daytime ambulatory blood pressure | | |
| Systolic | | |
| 90th Centile | <136 | 18 |
| 95th Centile | <140 | 26 |
| Mean + 2SD | <143 | 34 |
| Diastolic | | |
| 90th Centile | <85 | 32 |
| 95th Centile | <88 | 41 |
| Mean + 2SD | <91 | 47 |
| Night-time ambulatory blood pressure | | |
| Systolic | | |
| 90th Centile | <120 | 27 |
| 95th Centile | <125 | 37 |
| Mean + 2SD | <128 | 44 |
| Diastolic | | |
| 90th Centile | <72 | 36 |
| 95th Centile | <76 | 47 |
| Mean + 2SD | <78 | 52 |

Thresholds were determined from ambulatory blood pressure in 4577 normotensive subjects.

Using a multivariate approach, logistic regression was subsequently employed to identify the factors determining the overlap in ABP measurements between the normotensive and the hypertensive subjects (Table 5). The probability that the hypertensive subjects had 24-h systolic ABP below the 95th centile of ABP in the normotensive subjects was described by the following logistic function:

$$12.1 + (0.65 \times \text{sex}) + (0.0092 \times \text{age}) \\ - (0.078 \times \text{systolic CBP}) \\ - (0.013 \times \text{diastolic CBP}) \\ + (0.82 \times n_v) + (0.78 \times n_{\text{CBP}})$$

where the sex term is scored as 1 for women and 0 for men, n_v is the number of visits (one visit scored as 1, more than one scored as 0) and n_{CBP} is the number of CBP readings (two readings scored as 1, more than two scored as 0).

For 24-h diastolic ABP the equivalent logistic function was:

$$4.2 + (0.32 \times \text{sex}) + (0.0109 \times \text{age}) \\ - (0.030 \times \text{systolic CBP}) \\ - (0.018 \times \text{diastolic CBP}) \\ + (1.36 \times n_v) + (1.41 \times n_{CBP})$$

Thus, multiple logistic regression demonstrated that the probability that the subjects with definite hypertension upon conventional sphygmomanometry had 24-h ABP below the 95th centile of the normotensive subjects was nearly 40% (diastolic) to 90% (systolic) greater in women than in men (Table 5). For both 24-h systolic and diastolic ABP this probability rose by approximately 10% for each 10-year increase in age. By contrast, for each 10-mmHg increment in systolic CBP this probability decreased by 54% for 24-h systolic ABP and by 26% for 24-h diastolic ABP, and for each 5-mmHg increment in diastolic CBP this probability decreased by 6 and 9%, respectively (Fig. 2, Table 5). If a blood pressure record of only one visit (rather than two or three visits) had been made available, and if the subjects had been classified on the basis of two CBP readings only (rather than three or more), the probability that hypertensive subjects had 24-h systolic or diastolic ABP below the 95th centile of the normotensive subjects rose by between two- and fourfold (Table 5).

In comparison with 24-h ABP, the overlap in the daytime and night-time blood pressures between the normotensive and the hypertensive subjects was of similar magnitude (Table 4) and was influenced by the same factors.

Discussion

Ambulatory blood pressure in normotensive subjects

An operational threshold for making clinical decisions based on ABP measurements is urgently needed [3]. This requires that the relationship between these measurements and the incidence of cardiovascular complications be clarified further [23]. Moreover, the benefits of using ABP monitoring as an accessory to conventional sphygmomanometry must be established in prospective clinical trials [24–26], although prospective studies alone are unlikely to establish an operational threshold for ABP monitoring. Indeed, studies of intermediate end-

Table 5. Probabilities that hypertensive subjects had a 24-h ambulatory blood pressure below the 95th centile of that of the normotensive subjects.

| | Systolic blood pressure (n = 1324) | Diastolic blood pressure (n = 1310) |
|---|---------------------------------------|--|
| Female versus male | 1.92 (1.45, 2.54) | 1.38 (1.06, 1.79) |
| 10 years older | 1.10 (0.99, 1.21) | 1.12 (1.01, 1.24) |
| 10-mmHg higher conventional systolic blood pressure | 0.46 (0.39, 0.54) | 0.74 (0.68, 0.81) |
| 5-mmHg higher conventional diastolic blood pressure | 0.94 (0.89, 0.98) | 0.91 (0.85, 0.98) |
| One versus more visits | 2.29 (1.55, 3.38) | 3.89 (2.65, 5.70) |
| Two versus more conventional pressure readings | 2.19 (1.55, 3.09) | 4.11 (2.91, 5.81) |

Values are expressed as odds ratio (95% confidence limits), determined by multiple logistic regression; the odds ratio for each variable is adjusted for possible confounding by all other variables in the table.

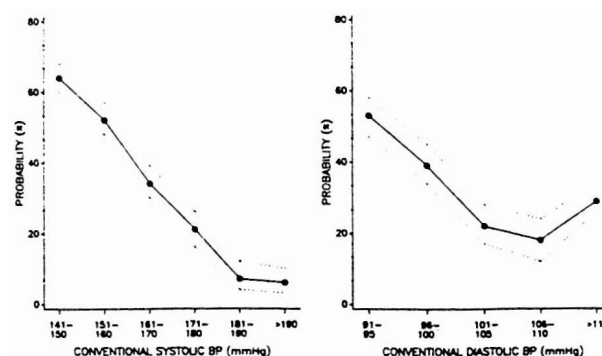


Fig. 2. The probability that hypertensive subjects would have 24-h ambulatory blood pressure (BP) below the 95th centile of that of the normotensive subjects, as a function of their conventional blood pressure. This analysis includes 719 subjects with borderline hypertension and 1773 with definite hypertension. Probabilities are unadjusted for other confounding variables., 95% Confidence interval.

points, such as left ventricular hypertrophy [27–29], and a previous study of daytime blood pressure only [23] have shown that the relationship between ABP measurements and cardiovascular complications is continuous, without a threshold level at which the risk rises suddenly.

It is becoming increasingly evident that to define an operational threshold for ABP monitoring an arbitrary judgement is inevitable, as it has proved to be for conventional sphygmomanometry [12,13]. Although arbitrary, an operational threshold must be based on factual observations and at least two other approaches are likely to be helpful: insight into the distributions of ABP measurements in subjects who are normotensive or hypertensive according to the current definitions of these conditions [12,13], and

a description of the distributions of ABP measurements in unselected populations [6,30]. The former approach, followed in the present study, constitutes a link between ABP monitoring and the vast experience accrued in the past using conventional sphygmomanometry. Indeed, observational studies and clinical outcome trials have established unequivocally that normotensive subjects, in the absence of other risk factors, have a lower cardiovascular risk profile than hypertensive subjects [31].

Preliminary proposals for an operational threshold for ABP monitoring have been published [4–10]. In a meta-analysis of 23 studies the pooled estimate of the average 24-h ABP + 2SD in 3476 normotensive people was 139/87 mmHg [7]. The ABP measurements in the studies referenced for this meta-analysis had been processed using different mathematical techniques, various definitions of daytime and night-time and different editing criteria for the exclusion of invalid readings. In the present study 7069 individual recordings contributed by 24 clinical research groups were pooled and analysed. The advantage of analysing recordings from individuals rather than the summary statistics of published reports was that the same mathematical approach [6,11], the same quality standards and uniform definitions of daytime and night-time could be applied. Both the present study and the previously published meta-analysis [7], despite differences in the databases and statistical approaches used, found very similar distributions of ABP in normotensive subjects.

Comparison of normotensive and hypertensive subjects

The present database provided the means to compare ABP measurements among subjects who were either normotensive or hypertensive according to conventional sphygmomanometry [12,13]. If no confounding variables were considered, one-fifth to more than one-third of the hypertensive subjects appeared to have ABP below the 95th centiles of ABP in the normotensive subjects. However, further analyses showed that for systolic blood pressure this overlap tended to be greater in women than in men. The overlap also increased with advancing age. By contrast, the overlap diminished if the subjects had shown higher blood pressure upon conventional sphygmomanometry or if the diagnosis of hypertension had been reached after a greater number of visits and CBP measurements, or both. Nevertheless, even if these confounding variables were considered, the overlap remained substantial. For instance, the multiple logistic model derived in the present study predicted that a 70-year-old man who, upon repeated measurements at two or more visits, maintained a CBP of 180/100 mmHg, had a 7% chance of having a 24-h systolic ABP below the 95th centile of that of the normotensive subjects, whereas for diastolic blood pressure the probability would

be 22%. On the assumption that in the same man only two blood pressure readings had been obtained at a single visit, a CBP of 180/100 mmHg would be associated with a 27% chance of the 24-h systolic ABP being below the 95th centile of that of the normotensive subjects, the probability rising to 82% for 24-h diastolic ABP.

The prevalence of white-coat hypertension has been evaluated in a few smaller cohorts of selected patients [4,8,29,32–35] and has been reported to be approximately 40% in some studies [32,33,35], although, in keeping with the present findings, estimates varied from as low as 5% [4] to more than 70% [34], depending on how the patients had been selected, how the blood pressure had been measured and which thresholds had been applied to diagnose hypertension based on CBP and ABP measurements. Many experts would agree that ABP measurements reflect the true blood pressure of a subject more closely than CBP readings [1–3]. Thus, both the present study and previous reports [4,8,29,32–35] suggest that the current practice of CBP measurement may lead to the misclassification of subjects if only the CBP level is considered.

At present, the definitions of normotension and hypertension are based entirely on conventional sphygmomanometry [12,13]. The present findings do not suggest that this standard procedure, long established in clinical practice, should be abandoned. However, practising physicians need additional guidelines to maximize the reproducibility of their CBP measurements, to minimize the white-coat effect [36,37] and to diagnose white-coat hypertension. ABP monitoring could be a very useful accessory to conventional sphygmomanometry in these respects.

A fundamental question which remains is how the risk profile of white-coat hypertensive patients [36,37] differs from that of normotensive subjects and from the prognosis of patients in whom both CBP and ABP are elevated. Normotensive subjects were recently compared with hypertensive patients with concentric left ventricular hypertrophy [38] (the left ventricular pattern most commonly associated with hypertension [39] and, possibly, with the worst prognosis). The findings suggested that awake ABP <139/86 mmHg might be considered normal, whereas values >149/95 mmHg might be regarded as being elevated [38]. By comparison, the 95th centile of the daytime ABP in the present study was 140/88 mmHg, whereas in the previously published meta-analysis [7] the average daytime ABP + 2SD was 146/91 mmHg. However, even at the latter level of daytime ABP, the late-diastolic transmittal peak flow velocity and its ratio to the early peak flow velocity may be abnormally increased in 9% of subjects [9]. Thus, it has been suggested that until these issues are clarified further by prospective studies, conser-

vative estimates should be used to define normality of ABP [9].

Conclusions

The ABP distributions of the normotensive subjects included in the present international database were not materially different from those reported in the literature [4–10]. One-fifth to more than one-third of hypertensive subjects had ABP within the normotensive range. The latter was arbitrarily defined as ABP below the 95th centile of the ABP of normotensive subjects. In agreement with current clinical experience, the overlap in ABP among normotensive and hypertensive subjects decreased if CBP was more elevated or if the hypertensive subject had repeatedly shown an elevated CBP, or both. The prognostic implications of elevated CBP in the presence of normal ABP remain to be elucidated.

Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge the secretarial and technical assistance of L. Pira, J. Polfliet, I. Tassens and S. Van Hulle.

References

1. THE SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE: Consensus document on non-invasive ambulatory blood pressure monitoring. *J Hypertens* 1990, 8 (suppl 6):S135–S140.
2. PICKERING TG, O'BRIEN E: Second international consensus meeting on twenty-four-hour ambulatory blood pressure measurement: consensus and conclusions. *J Hypertens* 1991, 9 (suppl 8):S2–S6.
3. PICKERING TG: The ninth Sir George Pickering memorial lecture. Ambulatory monitoring and definition of hypertension [editorial review]. *J Hypertens* 1992, 10:401–409.
4. PICKERING TG, JAMES GD, BODDIE C, HARSHFIELD GA, BLANK S, LARAGH JH: How common is white coat hypertension? *JAMA* 1988, 259:225–228.
5. O'BRIEN E, MURPHY J, TYNDALL A, ATKINS N, MEE F, MCCARTHY G, ET AL.: Twenty-four-hour ambulatory blood pressure in men and women aged 17 to 80 years: the Allied Irish Bank Study. *J Hypertens* 1991, 9:355–360.
6. STAESSEN J, BULPITT CJ, FAGARD R, LIJNEN P, MANCIA G, O'BRIEN ET, ET AL.: Reference values for the ambulatory blood pressure and the blood pressure measured at home: a population study. *J Hum Hypertens* 1991, 5:355–361.
7. STAESSEN J, FAGARD R, LIJNEN P, THIJS L, VAN HOOFF R, AMERY A: The mean and range of the ambulatory blood pressure in normotensive subjects from a meta-analysis of 23 studies. *Am J Cardiol* 1991, 67:723–727.
8. HOEGHOLM A, KRISTENSEN KS, MADSEN NH, SVENDSEN TL: White coat hypertension diagnosed by 24-h ambulatory monitoring. Examination of 159 newly diagnosed hypertensive patients. *Am J Hypertens* 1992, 5:64–70.
9. VERDECCHIA P, SCHILLACI G, BOLDRINI F, ZAMPI I, PORCELLI C: Variability between current definitions of 'normal' ambulatory blood pressure. Implications in the assessment of white coat hypertension. *Hypertension* 1992, 20:555–562.
10. FAGARD R, BIELEN E, STAESSEN J, THIJS L, AMERY A: Response of ambulatory blood pressure to antihypertensive therapy guided by clinic pressure. *Am J Hypertens* 1993, 6:648–653.
11. THIJS L, STAESSEN J, FAGARD R: Analysis of the diurnal blood pressure curve. *High Blood Pressure Cardiovasc Prev* 1992, 1:17–28.
12. WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION: *Arterial Hypertension: report of a WHO expert committee*. WHO Technical Report Series, vol 628. Geneva: WHO; 1978.
13. THE WORLD HEALTH ORGANIZATION/INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY OF HYPERTENSION MILD HYPERTENSION LIAISON COMMITTEE: 1989 Guidelines for the management of mild hypertension: memorandum from a WHO/ISH meeting. *Bull WHO* 1989, 67:493–498.
14. WHITE WB, SCHULMAN P, MCCABE EJ, NARDONE MB: Clinical validation of the Accutrack, a novel inhibitory blood pressure monitor, using R-wave gating for Korotkoff sounds. *J Clin Hypertens* 1987, 3:500–509.
15. O'BRIEN E, MEE F, ATKINS N, O'MALLEY K: Accuracy of the Del Mar Avionics Pressurometer IV determined by the British Hypertension Society Protocol [short report]. *J Hypertens* 1991, 9:567–568.
16. O'BRIEN E, MEE F, ATKINS N, O'MALLEY K: Accuracy of the Novacor DIASYS 200 determined by the British Hypertension Society Protocol [short report]. *J Hypertens* 1991, 9:569–570.
17. RADAELLI A, COATS AJS, CLARK SJ, BIRD R, SLEIGHT P: The effects of posture and activity on the accuracy of ambulatory blood pressure recording: a validation of the Oxford Medilog system. *J Ambul Monit* 1990, 3:155–161.
18. CASADEI R, PARATI G, POMIDossi G, GROPELLI A, TRAZZI S, DI NUNZO M, ET AL.: 24-Hour blood pressure monitoring: evaluation of Spacelabs 5300 monitor by comparison with intra-arterial blood pressure recording in ambulant subjects. *J Hypertens* 1988, 6:797–803.
19. O'BRIEN E, MEE F, ATKINS N, O'MALLEY K: Accuracy of the Takeda TM-2420/TM-2020 determined by the British Hypertension Society Protocol [short report]. *J Hypertens* 1991, 9:571–572.
20. GROPELLI A, OMBONI S, PARATI G, MANCIA G: Evaluation of noninvasive blood pressure monitoring devices Spacelabs 90202 and 90207 versus resting and ambulatory 24-hour intra-arterial blood pressure. *Hypertension* 1992, 20:227–232.
21. WHITE WB, LUND-JOHANSEN P, MCCABE EJ: Clinical evaluation of the Colin ABPM 630 at rest and during exercise: an ambulatory blood pressure monitor with gas-powered cuff inflation. *J Hypertens* 1989, 7:477–483.
22. SAS INSTITUTE: *SAS Technical Report P-179: Additional SAS-STAT Procedures. Release 6.03*. Cary, North Carolina: SAS Institute Inc.; 1988:149–170.
23. PERLOFF D, SOKOLOW M, COWAN RM, JUSTER RP: Prognostic value of ambulatory blood pressure measurements: further analyses. *J Hypertens* 1989, 7 (suppl 3):S3–S10.
24. CLEMENT DL, ON BEHALF OF THE STEERING COMMITTEE: Home versus office monitoring of blood pressure: a European multicentre study of high blood pressure. *J Hypertens* 1989, 7 (suppl 3):S49–S51.
25. STAESSEN J, AMERY A, CLEMENT D, COX J, DE CORT P, FAGARD R, ET AL.: Twenty-four hour blood pressure monitoring in the Syst-Eur trial. *Aging* 1992, 4:85–91.
26. STAESSEN J, AMERY A, ON BEHALF OF THE ADVISORY BOARD: APT-H—a trial on ambulatory blood pressure monitoring and the treatment of hypertension: objectives and protocol. *Acta Cardiol* 1993, 48:25–42.
27. VERDECCHIA P, SCHILLACI G, BOLDRINI F, GUERRIERI M, GATTESCHI C, BENERNIO G, ET AL.: Risk stratification of left ventricular hypertrophy in systemic hypertension using non-invasive ambulatory blood pressure monitoring. *Am J Cardiol* 1990, 66:583–590.
28. FAGARD R, BIELEN E, AMERY A: Automated versus observer blood pressure as determinants of left ventricular structure. *Eur Heart J* 1992, 13:1373–1379.
29. THIJS L, AMERY A, CLEMENT D, COX J, DE CORT P, FAGARD R, ET AL.: Ambulatory blood pressure monitoring in elderly patients with isolated systolic hypertension. *J Hypertens* 1992, 10:693–699.
30. CESANA G, DE VITO G, FERRARIO M, LIBRETTI A, MANCIA G, MOCARELLI P, ET AL.: Ambulatory blood pressure normalcy: the PAMELA Study. *J Hypertens* 1991, 9 (suppl 3):S17–S23.

31. COLLINS R, PETO R, MACMAHON S, HEIBERT P, FIEBACH NH, EIDERLEIN KA, *ET AL.*: Blood pressure, stroke, and coronary heart disease. Part 2. Short-term reductions in blood pressure: overview of randomised drug trials in their epidemiological context. *Lancet* 1990, 335:827-838.
32. KRAKOFF LR, EISON H, PHILLIPS RH, LEIMAN SJ, LEV S: Effect of ambulatory blood pressure monitoring on the diagnosis and cost of treatment for mild hypertension. *Am Heart J* 1988, 116:1152-1154.
33. LERMAN CE, BRODY DS, HUI T, LAZARO C, SMITH DG, BLUM MJ: The white-coat hypertension response. Prevalence and predictors. *J Gen Intern Med* 1989, 4:226-231.
34. MYERS MG, REEVES RA: White coat phenomenon in patients receiving antihypertensive therapy. *Am J Hypertens* 1991, 4:844-849.
35. RUDDY MC, BIALY GB, MALKA ES, LACY CR, KOSTIS JB: The relationship of plasma renin activity to clinic and ambulatory blood pressure in elderly people with isolated systolic hypertension. *J Hypertens* 1988, 6 (suppl 4):S412-S415.
36. MANCIA G, BERTINIERI G, GRASSI G, PARATI G, POMIDDOSSI G, FERRARI A, *ET AL.*: Effects of blood pressure measurement by the doctor on patient's blood pressure and heart rate. *Lancet* 1983, ii:695-698.
37. PARATI G, POMIDDOSSI G, CASADEI R, MANCIA G: Lack of alerting reactions to intermittent cuff inflations during non-invasive blood pressure monitoring. *Hypertension* 1985, 7:597-601.
38. DEVEREUX RB, JAMES GD, PICKERING T: What is 'normal' blood pressure? Comparison of ambulatory pressure level and variability in patients with normal and abnormal left ventricular geometry. *Am J Hypertens* 1993, 6 (suppl):211s-215s.
39. FAGARD R: Hypertensive heart disease: pathophysiology and clinical and prognostic consequences. *J Cardiovasc Pharmacol* 1992, 19 (suppl 5):S59-S66.