



Current hypertension care practice in Sub-Saharan Africa and need for creating hypertension care ecosystem: An explanatory Review



Mende Mensa Sorato^{1*}, Majid Davari², Abbas Kebriaeezadeh³

1. *Ph.D. Arba Minch University College of Medicine and Health Sciences, Department of Pharmacy and Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Faculty of Pharmacy, Department of Pharmacoconomics and Pharmaceutical Administration. *Corresponding Author. mendemensa@gmail.com*
2. *PharmD, Ph.D. in Health/Pharmacoconomics, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Faculty of Pharmacy, Department of Pharmacoconomics and Pharmaceutical Administration*
3. *PharmD, Ph.D. in Pharmacology, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Faculty of Pharmacy, Department of Pharmacoconomics and Pharmaceutical Administration*

Use your device to scan and read the article online



Citation Sorato. M.M, Davari. M, Kebriaeezadeh. A. Current hypertension care practice in Sub-Saharan Africa and need for creating hypertension care ecosystem: An explanatory Review, Journal of Pharmacoconomics and Pharmaceutical Management. 2022; 8(3):23-36

Running Title Need for creating hypertension care ecosystem

Article Type Review Article

Article info:

Received: 10.09.2021

Revised: 15.01.2022

Accepted: 28.09.2022

License Statement

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution NonCommercial 4.0 International license

(<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>).

Non-commercial uses of the work are permitted, provided the original work is properly cited
Copyright © 2022 The Authors.

Publisher

Tehran University of Medical Sciences

ABSTRACT

Background: A comprehensive ecosystem for hypertension care is needed, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), to address disproportionately increasing hypertension prevalence and poor blood pressure (BP) control. Therefore, this explanatory review was conducted to present the ecosystem for providing hypertension care in resource-limited settings from a sub-Saharan African perspective.

Methods: We searched articles written in the English language from January 2000 to January 2020 from the following databases: PubMed, Embase, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar with a systematic search query.

Results: We identified 3,451 articles, abstracted 143 articles, read full text 101 articles, and included 97 articles in the final Review. Hypertension control in SSA is poor due to the interaction of a complex network of factors involving patients (lack of awareness, poor treatment adherence), the healthcare system (lack of early screening, lack of access to medicines, under treatment, poor research involvement), community (inequities), environment (air pollution), economy (poverty), poor political commitment, lack of strong policies and leadership support, and weak networking and collaboration. The Healthcare system in SSA needs strengthening concerning; health promotion and hypertension prevention, scale-up of cost-effective screening approaches, aggressive treatment of hypertension, and



researching country-specific approaches for managing hypertension.

Conclusion: Hypertension control in SSA needs a comprehensive ecosystem view involving all relevant stakeholders. Therefore, improving health promotion and disease prevention activities to improve patient and public awareness of hypertension prevention and control; restructuring hypertension care approach to environmentally appropriate and cost-efficient methods; introducing cost-effective FDC medications in the national drug lists to improve treatment adherence; designing strategies to address SDH health and reducing health inequities, strengthening implementation of HiAP with due consideration to determinants of hypertension control, and improving collaboration and networking of existing cardiovascular societies, an international society of hypertension and world hypertension league, and other funding agencies are critical success factors for improving hypertension control in SSA.

Keywords: Hypertension care ecosystem, cardiovascular disease care continuum, Social determinants of health, Hypertension, Sub-Saharan Africa, An explanatory Review.

Introduction

Hypertension is responsible for at least 45% and 51% of deaths due to heart disease, and stroke, respectively (1). There is a huge disparity among global regions concerning hypertension prevalence. The estimated global age-standardized prevalence of hypertension in adults aged ≥ 20 years in 2010 was 28.5% and 31.5% in high-income and low and middle-income countries, respectively (2). A study conducted to evaluate long-term and recent trends in hypertension awareness, treatment, and control in 12 high-income countries involving people aged 40-79 years showed that treatment coverage was 80%, and control rates were less than 70% (3). In reality, BP targets can be achieved in about 70 - 80% of patients by improving adherence and/or intensifying therapy (4, 5).

Africa is facing an epidemic of cardiovascular disease (CVD), with surprising morbidity and mortality (6). In contrast to many countries worldwide where high BP rates are slowly decreasing, the prevalence of hypertension is increasing in most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (7). About 18% of people with hypertension were receiving appropriate hypertension treatment and 7% (5 - 8%) hypertensive population in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have controlled their blood pressure (8-12).

Comprehensive care based on the total CV risk approach is more effective and less costly than the single-risk-factor approach because treatment is limited to individuals with a high total CV risk (13, 14). The World Health Organization and the International Society of Hypertension (ISH) recently developed a set of CV risk prediction charts for use in all regions of the world (15). Adopting a total risk approach

and WHO guidelines recommendations would restrict unnecessary drug treatment and reduce the drug costs significantly. Therefore, limited resources can be more efficiently used to target high-risk people who will benefit the most (16).

A comprehensive hypertension care ecosystem is looking beyond clinical care to address all visible and invisible risk factors of poor blood pressure control (17). The reasons why we need a comprehensive ecosystem for hypertension care particularly in SSA were prevalence of hypertension is disproportionately increasing; hypertension control is the worst; hypertension is a risk factor for several CVDs and non-cardiovascular diseases; the current antihypertensive drug treatment failed to control about five to 20% of the hypertensive population (18, 19); and social determinants are contributing to the significant share of population health outcomes. Therefore, this explanatory review was conducted to present the ecosystem for providing hypertension care in resource-limited settings from the SSA perspective.

Materials and Method

Methods

We used the following eight approaches to develop hypertension care ecosystem. Reviewing cardiovascular and non-cardiac diseases that are associated with hypertension; reviewing continuum of cardiovascular disease risk factors for the development of ischemic heart disease and the role of hypertension; exploring the reasons of poor blood pressure control in SSA; exploring factors visible and invisible for clinicians during hypertension management in clinics; exploring the evidence on the role of social determinants of health on

hypertension prevention and control in SSA; exploring health inequities in cardiovascular disease care in SSA; and identifying evidence on political commitment, policy support, and collaboration. Finally, we mapped hypertension prevention and control from an ecosystem perspective.

Source of evidence

We searched articles written in English language from January 2000 to January 2020 from the following databases: Pubmed/Medline, Embase, Scopus, Web of Science, and Google Scholar with a systematic search query. Key search terms used were Hypertension AND Hypertension care ecosystem AND cardiovascular disease care continuum AND social determinants of health AND blood pressure control AND sub-Saharan Africa (available in supplementary file).

Study types

Randomized controlled trials, cohort studies, cross-sectional studies addressing cardiovascular and non-cardiac diseases that are associated with hypertension; a continuum of cardiovascular disease risk factors for the development of ischemic heart disease and the role of hypertension; the reasons of poor blood pressure control in SSA; factors visible and invisible for clinicians during hypertension management; the role of social determinants of health on hypertension prevention and control in SSA; exploring health inequities in cardiovascular disease care in SSA; and political commitment, policy support, and collaboration.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Randomized controlled trials, cohort studies, cross-sectional studies addressing cardiovascular and non-cardiac diseases that are associated with hypertension; a continuum of cardiovascular disease risk factors for the development of ischemic heart disease and the role of hypertension; the reasons for poor blood pressure control in sub-Saharan Africa; factors visible and invisible for clinicians during hypertension management in clinics; the role of social determinants of health on hypertension prevention and control in SSA; exploring health inequities in cardiovascular disease care in SSA; and political commitment, policy support, and collaboration are included. Studies conducted before January 2000, systematic reviews, guidelines, short communications, and conference proceedings, and articles that don't meet quality evaluation criteria are excluded.

Study selection and data abstraction

From a total of 3,451 articles identified by literature search 143 potentially relevant articles were selected. After applying the inclusion-

exclusion criteria listed above only 97 articles were found to be relevant. These 97 articles were included in the final review (20) (figure 1).

Data analysis

Evidence synthesis

We qualitatively described and summarized the evidence on the ecosystem for providing hypertension care in resource-limited settings from the sub-Saharan Africa perspective. We stratified results by cardiovascular and non-cardiac diseases that are associated with hypertension; a continuum of cardiovascular disease risk factors for the development of ischemic heart disease and the role of hypertension; the reasons of poor blood pressure control in SSA; factors visible and invisible for clinicians during hypertension management; the role of social determinants of health on hypertension prevention and control in SSA; exploring health inequities in cardiovascular disease care in SSA; and political commitment, policy support, and collaboration. Finally, appropriate conclusions and recommendations will be made based on the results of the included studies.

Results

Description of studies

We identified 3,451 articles, abstracted 143 articles, read full text 101 articles, and included 97 articles in the final Review. We used the following five approaches to develop a hypertension care ecosystem. Reviewing cardiovascular and non-cardiac diseases that are associated with hypertension (21-30); reviewing continuum of cardiovascular disease risk factors for the development of ischemic heart disease and the role of hypertension (14, 31-49); exploring the reasons for poor blood pressure control in sub-Saharan Africa; exploring factors visible and invisible for clinicians during hypertension management in clinics (50, 51); exploring the evidence on the role of social determinants of health on hypertension prevention and control in SSA (52-67); exploring health inequities in cardiovascular disease care in SSA (68-75); and identifying evidence on political commitment, policy support, and collaboration (6, 76-80).

Hypertension care continuum and complications

Hypertension is a risk factor for coronary heart disease and stroke-related deaths, non-fatal stable angina, non-fatal unstable angina, heart failure, nonfatal myocardial infarction, non-fatal ischemic stroke, subarachnoid hemorrhage, intracranial hemorrhage, transient ischemic attack, peripheral arterial disease, and



abdominal aortic aneurism (21-23); chronic kidney disease (24), heart failure (25), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (26), diabetes (27), rheumatic diseases(28) and psychiatric diseases (29, 30).

Understanding the continuum of cardiovascular disease risk factors for the development of ischemic heart disease is important (31). Before the development of fatal and debilitating complications of cardiovascular disease (CVD), there is a long latency period. This is because atherosclerosis which is the main pathological process leading to coronary artery disease, cerebral artery disease, and peripheral artery disease begins early in life and progresses gradually through adolescence and early adulthood with no symptoms (32-35).

Most of the known risk factors for raised blood pressure are modifiable (tobacco use and/or secondhand smoke, alcohol use, poor nutrition, physical inactivity, obesity, sedentary lifestyle, pollution, and low socioeconomic status) (36, 37). Therefore, designing the primary healthcare system to provide comprehensive care based on a total risk approach is an important policy level response to control and prevent hypertension and related complications (14, 32-35, 38-40). The comprehensive hypertension care approach should include the following technical packages; tobacco control, increasing physical activity, salt reduction and eliminating industrially-produced trans-fat from the food supply, screening high-risk population and strengthening the management of CVDs in primary health care (36, 41-45). Provision of comprehensive primary care could be influenced by limited access and capacity to primary care providers; lack of access to medicines; poor financial protection; lack of community awareness; poor political environment; healthcare budget constraint; poor quality healthcare; inefficient health systems; poor care coordination; poor integration of technology and lack of community involvement (46-49).

Iceberg for hypertension care

Clinicians are dealing with an iceberg of hypertension in which visible and invisible factors are driving disease development and progression (50, 51). Factors that are visible for clinicians during the management of hypertension include raised blood pressure, dyslipidemia, blood glucose, serum electrolytes, serum creatinine, estimated glomerular filtration rate, heart rate, atrial fibrillation, left ventricular hypertrophy, ischemic heart disease; atherosclerosis, stenosis; renal disease, adrenal lesions, other abdominal pathology;

retinal changes, hemorrhages, papilledema, ischemic or hemorrhagic brain injury, peripheral artery disease; aldosterone-renin ratio, plasma free metanephrines, salivary or blood cortisol level; urinary albumin/creatinine ratio; serum uric acid levels, and patient behavior-related factors (50, 51). However, socioeconomic conditions, lack facilities for physical activity, food insecurity, family or social responsibility, daily living conditions (housing, employment, education, social support, crime, and safety) are mainly visible to patients. Similarly, clinicians and patients have little influence on access to medicines and essential technologies, health workforce capacity, CVD prevention, and control policies, government commitment to implement policies, transparency in leadership and health governance structure, ecological, economic, and social structures, power & wealth distribution (i.e. equity) (figure 2) (50, 51).

Social determinants of hypertension control

Social determinants of health (SDH) influence a person's opportunity to be healthy, risk of illness, and life expectancy. These SDH includes income level, educational opportunities, occupation, employment status, and workplace safety, gender inequity, ethnic inequality, food insecurity and inaccessibility of nutritious food choices, access to housing and utility services, early childhood experiences and development, social support, and community inclusivity, crime rates and exposure to violent behavior and availability of transport. The SDH can be grouped into five areas: economic stability (unemployment, food insecurity, housing instability, and poverty); education and literacy; social and community context (civic participation, discrimination, imprisonment, and social cohesion); health and health care; neighborhood and environment (access to foods that support healthy eating patterns, access to clean water, crime and violence, environmental conditions, quality of housing, clean air) (52-54). The relative contribution of the determinants of health includes; health behaviors 30% (smoking 10%, diet and exercise 10%, alcohol 5%, and poor sexual health 5%); socioeconomic factors 40% (education 10%, employment 10%, income 10%, family/social support 5%, and community safety 5%); clinical care 20% (access to care 10% and quality of care 10%); and environment 10% (environmental quality 5% and built environment 5%) (55).

Poverty is directly related to poor governance and the inequitable distribution of public wealth. It is cause and consequence of poor health. For example, poverty is directly related to food insecurity, and food insecurity is related to

childhood obesity which future risk factor of cardiovascular diseases (63, 64). In 2018, African account for two-thirds of the more than 643 million people across the world living in extreme poverty. The worst affected countries are Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Ethiopia, Tanzania, Mozambique, Kenya, and Uganda (56-60). Tackling the structural causes of poverty and poor health requires measures to tackle inequality and injustices (58, 61). Quality education can reduce poverty. For example, if every adult received two or more years of education or completed secondary school, it could alleviate 60 million people from poverty. However, prioritizing education in a resource-limited setting has another challenge (i.e. education fever). Education is a solution to poverty, but it can't function properly with societal setbacks, that is why it is so important to understand the relationship between education and poverty (62).

The environment should be viable, sustainable, and livable to ensure health system performance. A study conducted to summarize evidence on the cardiovascular effects of indoor air pollution (IAP) from solid fuel in low and middle-income countries showed that the proportion of households using solid fuels (biomass) was the highest in sub-Saharan Africa. Premature CVD deaths and disability can be averted in SSA by addressing biomass fuel usage by disadvantaged populations (65). Another review showed that SSA cities exhibit higher ambient air pollution (AAP) than WHO standards (i.e. 10-20 fold higher levels). People from low and middle-income countries are disproportionately affected by the global burden of adverse health effects caused by ambient air pollution (AAP). Efforts are needed to monitor AAP in African cities, identify its main sources, and reduce adverse health effects by enforcing legislation (66). Climate change vulnerabilities are key environmental and SDH in SSA. NCDs like, cardiovascular disease and diabetes are on the increase in sub-Saharan African urban areas and can be further aggravated by climate change (67).

Inequities in healthcare and hypertension prevention and control

The study published on the Lancet commission about the future potential of SSA to improve health on its terms, and largely with its resources showed that major health inequities exist and that health outcomes are worst in fragile countries, rural areas, urban slums, and conflict zones, and among the poor, disabled, and marginalized. The future of health in Africa is bright, but only if no one is left behind (68). According to various indicators, the main factors

influencing health inequalities are wealth, spatial location (rural/urban), and mothers' education level (69-72). Various governments have developed policies to address health inequality and its determinants. However, socioeconomic issues that aggravate health inequalities, striking disparities in health status still exist within and among countries in SSA (73, 74). A review conducted to assess operational difficulties of community health insurance (CHI) in SSA showed the following major difficulties faced by CHI: lack of clear legislative and regulatory framework; insufficient risk management measures; weak managerial capacity; and high overhead costs. Greater commitment towards the development of adequate legislation; increasing uptake of measures to expand equitable enrolment; adoption of adequate risk management measures in all schemes; improving managerial capacity; and collective efforts to contain overhead costs are recommended (75).

Political commitment, policy support, and collaboration

Available national policies have failed to stop the increasing prevalence of chronic diseases due to political/policy level failure to implement low-cost and highly effective solutions for the prevention of chronic diseases (76). During the third high-level meeting of the General Assembly on the prevention and control of NCDs held on September 27, 2018, the following obstacles for the implementation of proven interventions for NCDs were identified in developing countries like sub-Saharan Africa. These major obstacles include lack of political will, commitment, capacity, and action; lack of policies and plans for NCDs; difficulty in priority-setting; the impact of economic, commercial, and market factors; insufficient technical and operational capacity; insufficient financing to scale up national NCD responses; and lack of accountability (77, 78). Age-specific mortality rates from chronic diseases as a whole are higher in SSA than in virtually all other regions of the world. Africa faces significant challenges in chronic disease research, practice, and policy due to constrained health budgets and the prioritization of infectious diseases (79). To improve this, close collaboration between the health and higher education sectors is needed and comprehensive competency-based capacity building plans for various health worker cadres along the education and training continuum, and researching governance and policy; education, training, and management and service delivery are required (80).

Hypertension care ecosystem



Blood pressure control, and reducing cardiac and non-cardiac complications of hypertension requires the interplay between the healthcare system (prevention, screening, diagnosis and treatment, and research), community (livable, convivial and equitable), environment (livable, viable, and sustainable), economy (sustainable and equitable), Political commitment, policy and leadership support, and network and collaboration. Equity, conviviality, viability, and sustainability (3, 6, 14, 21-114). Involvement of all stakeholders in hypertension care decision making will improve policy, politically doable solutions, provides reassurance, creates support for change, saves money, makes policies work, create long-lasting change, supports vision, generates political capital and provides more options for action, improved blood pressure control and reduce complications (figure 3) (115, 116).

Discussion

In this explanatory review, we described the importance of a comprehensive hypertension care ecosystem to improve the prevention and control of hypertension and related complications in SSA. The prevalence of hypertension and age-adjusted mortality are disproportionately increasing in this region. This increase can be explained by a complex network of factors involving patients (lack of awareness, poor treatment adherence), healthcare system (poor awareness creation, lack of early screening, lack of access to medicines, under treatment, poor research involvement), community (lack of peace and security and inequities), environment (air pollution), economy (poverty, inequity), poor political commitment, lack of strong policies and leadership support, and weak within the country and between country networking and collaboration (3, 6, 14, 21-114).

National health systems in SSA need strengthening to meet the growing challenge of hypertension in the region. Factors that limit countries' capacity to implement proven strategies for chronic diseases involves constraints in health financing, governance, health workforce, health information, health promotion, screening of the high-risk population, access to medicines and technologies, poor coordination of care delivery, social determinants, political commitment, and policy and leadership support (44, 117-122). Therefore, implementing health in all policies (HiAP) and health for all policies with due consideration of determinants of hypertension control is a critical success factor for hypertension prevention and control in SSA

(123, 124). However, the level of understanding and implementation of HiAP in SSA was poor. For example, health policy analysis on Kenya's HiAP showed that on the policy level, little is known about HiAP in other government ministries and HiAP is still perceived by many stakeholders as the business of the health sector, rather than a policy for the whole government and beyond (125). Implementing cost-efficient screening strategies and investing in active detection, prevention, and control of CVD can reduce screening and large-scale healthcare expenses on hospitalizations related to cost in SSA (126).

Another important issue is adherence to antihypertensive medications. A great majority of hypertensive patients in SSA were non-adherent to medications. For example, 94.9%, 78%, and 82.0% were not taking antihypertensive medications in Malawi, Rwanda, and Zambia respectively (86-104). Barriers to medication adherence are related to out-of-pocket expenses for medical care and medications, medication availability, healthcare availability, the complexity of medical regimens, patient knowledge, patient motivation, and variation in physician practice (127, 128). Improving medication adherence for hypertensive patients is important for improving BP control and reducing hypertension-associated complications and confirming the diagnosis of treatment-resistant hypertension (129, 130). Today, FDCs are recommended by most hypertension management guidelines (30, 48, 131). FDCs can be cost-effective, improve medication adherence, and may improve clinical outcomes and improve health system efficiency for hypertension management by simplifying drug supply and procurement logistics (132-135). Inclusion of affordable FDCs in essential medicines lists and creating and implementing simple, practical, hypertension treatment protocols incorporating FDCs combinations as a core medication is an effective and resource-efficient BP control approach (136). However, lack of access to FDCs may challenge the introduction of these medicines in national drug lists and formularies in developing countries like East Africa. Access to medicines can be improved through several strategies including improving the regulatory process, and capacity of regulatory agencies (137).

Inadequate healthcare financing is one of the reasons for constrained access to essential medicines in developing countries. In contrast to this inadequacy, approximately 20-40% of all resources spent on healthcare were wastage (138, 139). Major reasons for wastage include

inappropriate medicine use, inappropriate health task force mix, medication errors, suboptimal quality of care, corruption, and poor integration of health facilities (138, 140). The availability of a system for monitoring CVD prevention and control programs is important for improving system efficiency, quality of care, and patient outcomes (141). Therefore, working on leadership and system governance to improve transparency and accountability can contribute significantly to reduce the wastage of healthcare resources.

Many of the SDH have social, environmental, and economic origins that extend beyond the direct influence of the health sector and health policies (142-144). Addressing SDH is a critical success factor for improving hypertension prevention and control. Addressing the social determinants of health through multi-sectoral collaboration and reducing health inequalities requires action on; giving every child the best start in life, enabling all children, youths, and adults to control their overall health, creating fair employment and good work for all, ensuring the healthy standard of living for all, creating and developing healthy and sustainable places and communities, and strengthening the role and impact of ill-health prevention (58, 145).

There are major health inequities in Africa and health outcomes are worst in fragile countries, rural areas, urban slums, and conflict zones, and among poor, disabled, and marginalized people (68). Opportunities to reduce health inequalities include: improving the socioeconomic position of people; improving participation of people with health problems; improving living and working conditions and lifestyle; and accessibility and quality of care (146). The key challenge is how to translate research on the SDH into public health practice. The research agenda needs to move beyond documenting health inequalities to include efforts to support policy development to reduce inequality and improve healthy living conditions for the most vulnerable populations. Community-based health promotion, improving access to health services, implementing pro-poor activities like cash transfers to minimize social disparities (147).

Several opportunities exist to alter the increasing prevalence of hypertension in SSA but require committed policymakers, functional health systems, restructuring of our typical approach to hypertension management into one that is more appropriately aligned with the local environment involving all relevant stakeholders (114). During the third high-level meeting of the General Assembly on the prevention and

control of NCDs held on September 27, 2018, the following obstacles for the implementation of proven interventions for NCDs were identified in developing countries like sub-Saharan Africa. These major obstacles include lack of political will, commitment, capacity, and action; lack of policies and plans for NCDs; difficulty in priority-setting; the impact of economic, commercial, and market factors; insufficient technical and operational capacity; insufficient financing to scale up national NCD responses; and lack of accountability (77, 78). Reversal of the increasing burden of hypertension in SSA requires improving health leadership, partnership, network and collaboration of existing cardiovascular societies, strategic planning, learning from and sharing best practices and experiences, advocacy of health promotion, and preventive actions (121, 122).

Conclusion

Hypertension control in SSA is poor due to the interaction of a complex network of factors involving patients, healthcare system, community, environment economy, and poor political commitment, lack of strong policies and leadership support, and weak within the country and between country networking and collaboration. Therefore, based on our hypertension care ecosystem perspective, we recommend the following actions to improve hypertension prevention and control in SSA. These include: designing a comprehensive ecosystem-based care approach that is appropriate to a local environment; Integration of hypertension care based on the total risk approach at all levels; Implementation of cost-effective screening methods to improve early detection and reduce costs of hospitalization; Inclusion of cost-effective FDCs approved by WHO; addressing social determinants of health; Improving understanding of relevant stakeholders on principles of HiAP, and Improving investment in health research to design locally appropriate health policies to improve hypertension control since one size does not fit for all.



Figures

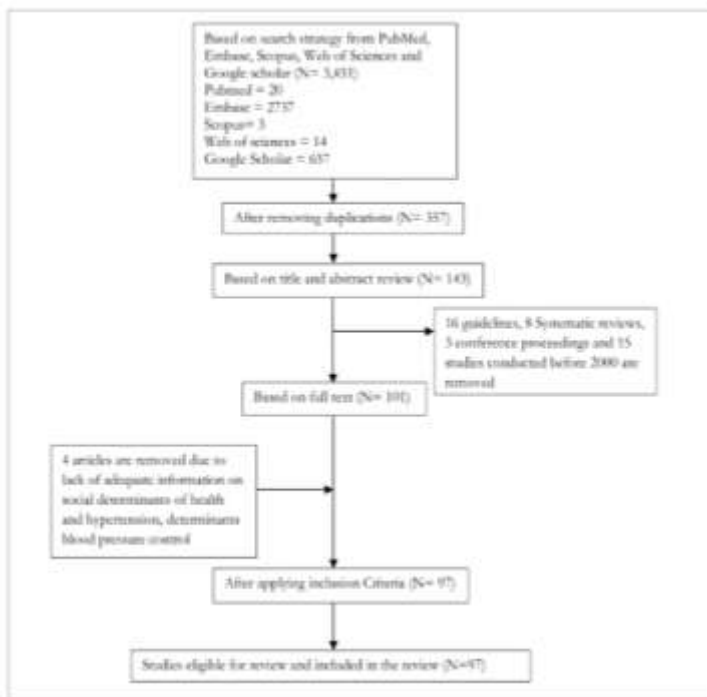
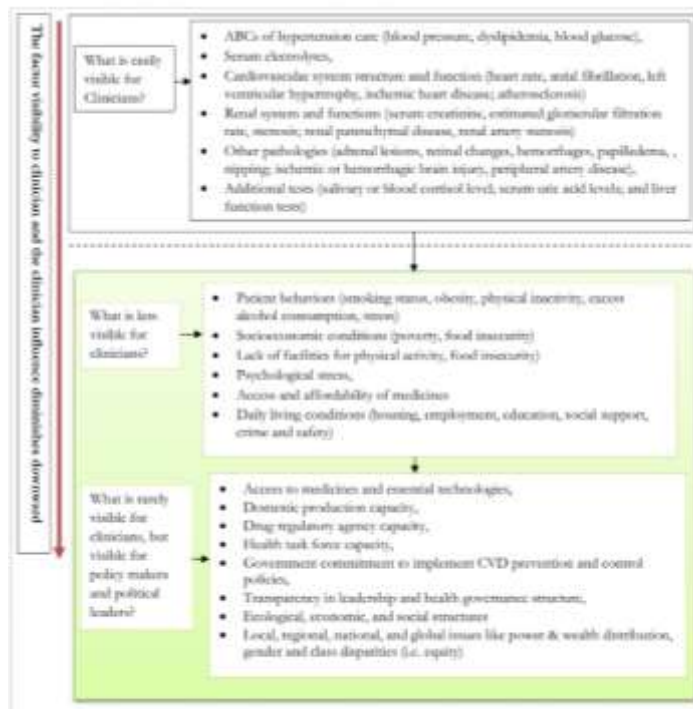


Figure 3. PRISMA Flowchart representing the result of search and the number of articles excluded in explanatory Review of hypertension care ecosystem



Abbreviations: ABCs (Blood pressure, Blood cholesterol, Blood glucose); CVD (Cardiovascular Disease)

Figure 2. Hypertension care Iceberg: Source Authors

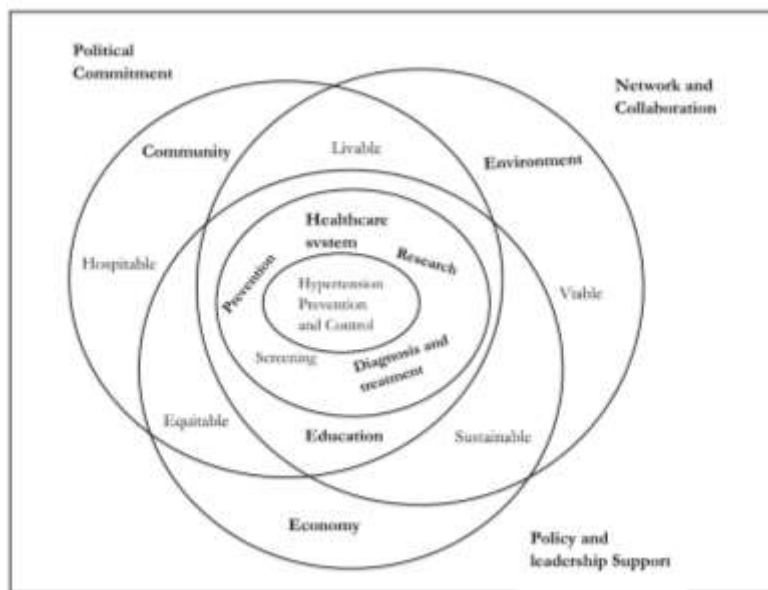


Figure 1. Hypertension care ecosystem: Source Authors

Reference

- [1] Region WSEA. Special Issue on Blood Pressure-take control. India2013 World Health Day.
- [2] Mills KT, Bundy JD, Kelly TN, Reed JE, Kearney PM, Reynolds K, et al. Global disparities of hypertension prevalence and control: a systematic analysis of population-based studies from 90 countries. *Circulation*. 2016;134(6):441-50.
- [3] Zhou B, Danaei G, Stevens GA, Bixby H, Taddei C, Carrillo-Larco RM, et al. Long-term and recent trends in hypertension awareness, treatment, and control in 12 high-income countries: an analysis of 123 nationally representative surveys. *The Lancet*. 2019;394(10199):639-51.
- [4] Volpe M, Savoia C. Natural History of Treated and Untreated Hypertension. In: Berbari AE, Mancia G, editors. *Disorders of Blood Pressure Regulation: Phenotypes, Mechanisms, Therapeutic Options*. Cham: Springer International Publishing; 2018. p. 33-44.
- [5] Elliott WJ. What factors contribute to the inadequate control of elevated blood pressure? *The Journal of Clinical Hypertension*. 2008;10:20-6.
- [6] Zühlke L, Sliwa K, Naidoo P, Ntsinjana H, Ntsekhe M, Hellig F, et al. Cardiovascular medicine and research in sub-Saharan Africa: challenges and opportunities. *Nature Reviews Cardiology*. 2019;16(11):642-4.
- [7] GLOBALLY IBIET. High blood pressure in sub-Saharan Africa: why prevention, detection, and control are urgent and important. *The Journal of Clinical Hypertension*. 2015;17(9):663.
- [8] Collaborators. GRF. Risk Factors Collaborators. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 84 behavioral, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks for 195 countries and territories, 1990–2017: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. *Lancet* 2018;392:1923-94.
- [9] Campbell NR, Bovet P, Schutte AE, Lemogoum D, Nkwescheu AS. High blood pressure in sub-Saharan Africa: why prevention, detection, and control are urgent and important. *The Journal of Clinical Hypertension*. 2015;17(9):663-7.
- [10] Samuel O Oti, Steven JM van de Vijver, Lange J. A community-based intervention for primary prevention of cardiovascular diseases in the slums of Nairobi: the SCALE UP study protocol for a prospective quasi-experimental community-based trial. *Trials* 2013;14(409).
- [11] WHO. Global Health Estimates 2016: Deaths by Cause, Age, Sex, by Country and by Region, 2000–2016. . 2018.
- [12] Ataklte F, Erqou S, Kaptoge S, Taye B, Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Kengne AP. Burden of undiagnosed hypertension in sub-saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Hypertension*. 2015;65(2):291-8.
- [13] Organization WH. Prevention of cardiovascular disease: guidelines for assessment and management of total cardiovascular risk: World Health Organization; 2007.
- [14] Organization WH. Hearts: technical package for cardiovascular disease management in primary health care. 2020.
- [15] Ndindjock R, Gedeon J, Mendis S, Paccaud F, Bovet P. Potential impact of single-risk-factor versus total risk management for the prevention of cardiovascular events in Seychelles. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*. 2011;89:286-95.
- [16] Mendis S, Lindholm LH, Anderson SG, Alwan A, Koju R, Onwubere BJC, et al. Total cardiovascular risk approach to improve efficiency of cardiovascular prevention in resource constrain settings. *Journal of clinical epidemiology*. 2011;64(12):1451-62.
- [17] Kishore SP, Heller DJ, Vasan A. Beyond hypertension: integrated cardiovascular care as a path to comprehensive primary care. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*. 2018;96(3):219.
- [18] Dudenbostel T, Siddiqui M, Gharpure N, Calhoun DA. Refractory versus resistant hypertension: Novel distinctive phenotypes. *Journal of nature and science*. 2017;3(9).
- [19] Bomfim GF, Cau SBA, Bruno AS, Fedoce AG, Carneiro FS. Hypertension: a new treatment for an old disease? Targeting the immune system. *British Journal of Pharmacology*. 2019;176(12):2028-48.
- [20] Moher D, Shamseer L, Clarke M, Ghersi D, Liberati A, Petticrew M. Preferred reporting items for systematic review and meta-analysis protocols (PRISMA-P) 2015 statement. *Syst Rev*. [Internet]. 2015; 4: 1.
- [21] Rapsomaniki E, Timmis A, George J, Pujades-Rodriguez M, Shah AD, Denaxas S, et al. Blood pressure and incidence of twelve cardiovascular diseases: lifetime risks, healthy life-years lost, and age-specific associations in 1· 25 million people. *The Lancet*. 2014;383(9932):1899-911.
- [22] Lamprea-Montealegre JA, Zelnick LR, Hall YN, Bansal N, de Boer IH. Prevalence of Hypertension and Cardiovascular Risk According to Blood Pressure Thresholds Used for Diagnosis. *Hypertension*. 2018;72(3):602-9.
- [23] Lewsey JD, Lawson KD, Ford I, Fox KAA, Ritchie LD, Tunstall-Pedoe H, et al. A cardiovascular disease policy model that predicts life expectancy taking into account socioeconomic deprivation. *Heart*. 2015;101(3):201.



- [24] Drawz PE, Alper AB, Anderson AH, Brecklin CS, Charleston J, Chen J, et al. Masked hypertension and elevated nighttime blood pressure in CKD: prevalence and association with target organ damage. *Clinical Journal of the American Society of Nephrology*. 2016;11(4):642-52.
- [25] Di Palo KE, Barone NJ. Hypertension and heart failure: prevention, targets, and treatment. *Heart failure clinics*. 2020;16(1):99-106.
- [26] Farsang C, Kiss I, Tykarski A, Narkiewicz K. Treatment of hypertension in patients with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). *European Society of Hypertension Scientific Newsletter*. 2016;17:62.
- [27] Marathe PH, Gao HX, Close KL. American Diabetes Association Standards of Medical Care in Diabetes 2017. *Journal of diabetes*. 2017;9(4):320-4.
- [28] Agca R, Heslinga S, Rollefstad S, Heslinga M, McInnes I, Peters M, et al. EULAR recommendations for cardiovascular disease risk management in patients with rheumatoid arthritis and other forms of inflammatory joint disorders: 2015/2016 update. *Annals of the rheumatic diseases*. 2017;76(1):17-28.
- [29] Patten SB, Williams JV, Lavorato DH, Campbell NR, Eliasziw M, Campbell TS. Major depression as a risk factor for high blood pressure: epidemiologic evidence from a national longitudinal study. *Psychosomatic medicine*. 2009;71(3):273-9.
- [30] Unger T, Borghi C, Charchar F, Khan NA, Poulter NR, Prabhakaran D, et al. 2020 International Society of Hypertension global hypertension practice guidelines. *Hypertension*. 2020;75(6):1334-57.
- [31] Sorato MM, Davari M, Kebriaeezadeh A. Health Care System Response to Cardiovascular Diseases, Trends from 2010-2018: Can Ethiopia Achieve 2025 Global voluntary targets for Non-communicable diseases from cardiovascular diseases perspective? Explanatory Review of available literatures. *Research & Reviews: Journal of Medical and Health Sciences*. 2019;9(1):1-13.
- [32] Organization. WH. Prevention of Cardiovascular Disease: Guidelines for assessment and management of cardiovascular risk 2007.
- [33] al. SHe. ATS Documents Development and Implementation Committee. An official ATS statement: grading the quality of evidence and strength of recommendations in ATS guidelines and recommendations. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2006;174(5):605-14.
- [34] Organization. WH. Commission on Social Determinants of Health. Closing the gap in a generation: health equity through action on the social determinants of health. 2008.
- [35] practice. EGocdpic. The Sixth Joint Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and Other Societies on Cardiovascular Disease Prevention in Clinical Practice (constituted by representatives of 10 societies and by invited experts). *European Heart Journal*. 2016(37):2315-81.
- [36] Whelton PK CR, Aronow WS, Casey DE Jr, Collins KJ, Dennison Himmelfarb C, DePalma SM, Gidding S, Jamerson KA, Jones DW, MacLaughlin EJ, Muntner P, Ovbigele B, Smith SC Jr, Spencer CC, Stafford RS, Taler SJ, Thomas RJ, Williams KA Sr, Williamson JD, Wright JT Jr. 2017 ACC/AHA/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/AGS/APhA/ASH/ASPC/NMA/PCNA guideline for the prevention, detection, evaluation, and management of high blood pressure in adults: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice Guidelines. *Hypertension (Dallas, Tex : 1979)*. 2018;71:e13-e115.
- [37] Gareth Beevers GYHL, Eoin O'Brien. ABC of Hypertension. Sixth edition ed. Series A, editor 2014.
- [38] Group. WCRWCW. World Health Organization cardiovascular disease risk charts: revised models to estimate risk in 21 global regions. *The Lancet Global health*. 2019;7(10):e1332-e45.
- [39] Kuhlmann E, Groenewegen PP, Bond C, Burau V, Hunter DJ. Primary care workforce development in Europe: An overview of health system responses and stakeholder views. *Health Policy*. 2018;122(10):1055-62.
- [40] Organization WH. Health System Transformation: Making it Happen. Copenhagen: World Health Organization. 2016.
- [41] WHO. Tackling NCDs "Best buys" and other recommended interventions for the prevention and control of non-communicable diseases. 2017.
- [42] Organization. WH. Global action plan for the prevention and control of non-communicable diseases 2013–2020. 2013.
- [43] Suchard MA, Schuemie MJ, Krumholz HM, You SC, Chen R, Pratt N, et al. Comprehensive comparative effectiveness and safety of first-line antihypertensive drug classes: a systematic, multinational, large-scale analysis. *Lancet*. 2019;394(10211):1816-26.
- [44] Alma J. Adler DP, Pascal Bovet, Dhruv S. Kazi, Giuseppe Mancina, Vash Mungal-Singh, Neil Poulter. Reducing cardiovascular mortality through prevention and management of raised blood pressure. A world heart federation road map. *Global Heart* 2015;10(2):111-22.
- [45] Hood CM, Gennuso KP, Catlin BB. County health rankings: Relationships between determinant factors and health outcomes.

- American Journal of Preventive Medicine 2016;50(2):7.
- [46] Alma J. Adler DP, Pascal Bovet, Dhruv S. Kazi, Giuseppe Mancina, Vash Mungal-Singh, Neil Poulter. . Reducing cardiovascular mortality through prevention and management of raised blood pressure. A world heart federation road map. . Global Heart. 2017;10(2):111-22.
- [47] Pascal Geldsetzer J-G, Maja-Emilia Marcus, Cara Ebert, Prof Zhaxybay Zhumadilov, Chea SWesseh, Lindiwe Tsabedze, Adil Supiyev, Lela Sturua, Silver KBahendeka, Prof Abla MSibai, Sarah Quesnel-Crooks, Bolormaa Norov, Kibachio JMwangi, Omar Mwalim, Roy Wong-McClure, Mary T Mayige, Joao S Martins, Lindsay M Jaacks. The state of hypertension care in 44 low-income and middle-income countries: a cross-sectional study of nationally representative individual-level data from 1.1 million adults. *Lancet*. 2019;6736(19):30955-9.
- [48] health Wh. HEARTS: Technical package for cardiovascular disease management in primary health care. Geneva: World Health Organization. 2016.
- [49] Kilama WL. The 10/90 gap in sub-Saharan Africa: Resolving inequities in health research. *Acta Tropica*. 2009;112:S8-S15.
- [50] Brown C, Harrison D, Burns H, Ziglio E. Governance for health equity: WHO Regional Office for Europe; 2013.
- [51] Labonté R, Schrecker T. Globalization and social determinants of health: Promoting health equity in global governance (part 3 of 3). *Globalization and health*. 2007;3(1):7.
- [52] Fielding JE, Kumanyika S, Manderscheid RW. A perspective on the development of the Healthy People 2020 framework for improving US population health. *Public Health Reviews*. 2013;35(1):3.
- [53] Health Do, Human Services W, DC., People H, Office USGP. Healthy people 2010: Understanding and improving health: US Department of Health and Human Services; 2000.
- [54] Artiga S, Hinton E. Beyond health care: the role of social determinants in promoting health and health equity. *Health*. 2019;20(10):1-13.
- [55] Remington PL, Catlin BB, Gennuso KP. The county health rankings: rationale and methods. *Population health metrics*. 2015;13(1):11.
- [56] Adebayo B. Nigeria overtakes India in extreme poverty ranking. CNN, June. 2018;26.
- [57] Kharas H, Hamel K, Hofer M. The start of a new poverty narrative. Brookings Institution. 2018.
- [58] Action. HP. Key facts: poverty and poor health. 2018.
- [59] Anyangwe SC, Mtonga C, Chirwa B. Health inequities, environmental insecurity and the attainment of the millennium development goals in sub-Saharan Africa: the case study of Zambia. *International journal of environmental research and public health*. 2006;3(3):217-27.
- [60] Peters DH, Garg A, Bloom G, Walker DG, Brieger WR, Hafizur Rahman M. Poverty and access to health care in developing countries. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*. 2008;1136(1):161-71.
- [61] O'Neill MS, McMichael AJ, Schwartz J, Wartenberg D. Poverty, Environment, and Health: The Role of Environmental Epidemiology and Environmental Epidemiologists. *Epidemiology*. 2007;18(6).
- [62] Awan MS, Malik N, Sarwar H, Waqas M. Impact of education on poverty reduction. 2011.
- [63] Chokshi DA. Income, Poverty, and Health Inequality. *JAMA*. 2018;319(13):1312-3.
- [64] McCurdy K, Gorman KS, Metallinos-Katsaras E. From Poverty to Food Insecurity and Child Overweight: A Family Stress Approach. *Child Development Perspectives*. 2010;4(2):144-51.
- [65] Mocumbi AO, Stewart S, Patel S, Al-Delaimy WK. Cardiovascular Effects of Indoor Air Pollution from Solid Fuel: Relevance to Sub-Saharan Africa. *Current Environmental Health Reports*. 2019;6(3):116-26.
- [66] Katoto PDMC, Byamungu L, Brand AS, Mokaya J, Strijdom H, Goswami N, et al. Ambient air pollution and health in Sub-Saharan Africa: Current evidence, perspectives and a call to action. *Environmental Research*. 2019;173:174-88.
- [67] Rother H-A, Sabel CE, Vardoulakis S. A collaborative framework highlighting climate-sensitive non-communicable diseases in urban sub-Saharan Africa. *Africa and the Sustainable Development Goals: Springer*; 2020. p. 267-78.
- [68] Agyepong IA, Sewankambo N, Binagwaho A, Coll-Seck AM, Corrah T, Ezeh A, et al. The path to longer and healthier lives for all Africans by 2030: the Lancet Commission on the future of health in sub-Saharan Africa. *The Lancet*. 2017;390(10114):2803-59.
- [69] Adesina JO. 18. Inequality in sub-Saharan Africa: dimensions and drivers. *World Social Science Report*. 2016:96.
- [70] Cissé B, Luchini S, Moatti JP. Progressivity and horizontal equity in health care finance and delivery: What about Africa? *Health Policy*. 2007;80(1):51-68.
- [71] Schutte AE. Urgency for South Africa to prioritise cardiovascular disease management. *The Lancet Global Health*. 2019;7(2):e177-e8.
- [72] Akazili J, Welaga P, Bawah A, Achana FS, Oduro A, Awoonor-Williams JK, et al. Is



- Ghana's pro-poor health insurance scheme really for the poor? Evidence from Northern Ghana. *BMC Health Services Research*. 2014;14(1):637.
- [73] Ataguba JE, Akazili J, McIntyre D. Socioeconomic-related health inequality in South Africa: evidence from General Household Surveys. *International journal for equity in health*. 2011;10(1):48.
- [74] Okoi O, Bwawa T. How health inequality affect responses to the COVID-19 pandemic in Sub-Saharan Africa. *World Development*. 2020;135:105067.
- [75] De Allegri M, Sauerborn R, Kouyaté B, Flessa S. Community health insurance in sub-Saharan Africa: what operational difficulties hamper its successful development? *Tropical Medicine & International Health*. 2009;14(5):586-96.
- [76] Geneau R, Stuckler D, Stachenko S, McKee M, Ebrahim S, Basu S, et al. Raising the priority of preventing chronic diseases: a political process. *The Lancet*. 2010;376(9753):1689-98.
- [77] Nishtar S, Niinistö S, Sirisena M, Vázquez T, Skvortsova V, Rubinstein A, et al. Time to deliver: report of the WHO Independent High-Level Commission on NCDs. *The Lancet*. 2018;392(10143):245-52.
- [78] Organization WH. Time to deliver: report of the WHO independent high-level commission on noncommunicable diseases. 2018.
- [79] de-Graft Aikins A, Unwin N, Agyemang C, Allotey P, Campbell C, Arhinful D. Tackling Africa's chronic disease burden: from the local to the global. *Globalization and Health*. 2010;6(1):5.
- [80] Rabkin M, de Pinho H, Michaels-Strasser S, Naitore D, Rawat A, Topp SM. Strengthening the health workforce to support integration of HIV and noncommunicable disease services in sub-Saharan Africa. *AIDS*. 2018;32.
- [81] Geldsetzer P, Manne-Goehler J, Marcus M-E, Ebert C, Zhumadilov Z, Wesseh CS, et al. The state of hypertension care in 44 low-income and middle-income countries: a cross-sectional study of nationally representative individual-level data from 1.1 million adults. *The Lancet*. 2019;394(10199):652-62.
- [82] Brown MT, Bussell JK. Medication Adherence: WHO Cares? *Mayo Clinic Proceedings*. 2011;86(4):304-14.
- [83] Oliveira-Filho AD, Barreto-Filho JA, Neves S, Lyra Junior DD. Association between the 8-item Morisky Medication Adherence Scale (MMAS-8) and blood pressure control. *Arquivos brasileiros de cardiologia*. 2012;99(1):649-58.
- [84] Pladevall M, Brotons C, Gabriel R, Arnau A, Suarez C, de la Figuera M, et al. Multicenter cluster-randomized trial of a multifactorial intervention to improve antihypertensive medication adherence and blood pressure control among patients at high cardiovascular risk (the COM99 study). *Circulation*. 2010;122(12):1183-91.
- [85] Lemstra M, Alsabbagh MW. Proportion and risk indicators of nonadherence to antihypertensive therapy: a meta-analysis. *Patient Prefer Adherence*. 2014;8:211-8.
- [86] Institute. EPH. Ethiopia steps report on risk factors for chronic non-communicable diseases and prevalence of selected NCDs. 2016.
- [87] Dadi AF, Desyibelew HD. Undernutrition and its associated factors among pregnant mothers in Gondar town, Northwest Ethiopia. *PLoS one*. 2019;14(4):e0215305-e.
- [88] Birlew T, Alemseged F. Risk factors for hypertension among adults. An analysis of survey data on chronic non-communicable disease at Gilgel gibe field research center, south west Ethiopia. *Science*. 2015;3(2):281-90.
- [89] Organization WH. Noncommunicable diseases country profiles 2018. 2018.
- [90] Salam RA, Syed B, Syed S, Das JK, Zagre NM, Rayco-Solon P, et al. Maternal nutrition: how is Eastern and Southern Africa faring and what needs to be done? *African health sciences*. 2015;15(2):532-45.
- [91] Msyamboza KP, Ngwira B, Dzowela T, Mvula C, Kathyola D, Harries AD, et al. The burden of selected chronic non-communicable diseases and their risk factors in Malawi: nationwide STEPS survey. *PLoS one*. 2011;6(5).
- [92] Mwenda V, Mwangi M, Nyanjau L, Gichu M, Kyobutungi C, Kibachio J. Dietary risk factors for non-communicable diseases in Kenya: findings of the STEPS survey, 2015. *BMC public health*. 2018;18(3):1218.
- [93] Olack B, Wabwire-Mangen F, Smeeth L, Montgomery JM, Kiwanuka N, Breiman RF. Risk factors of hypertension among adults aged 35–64 years living in an urban slum Nairobi, Kenya. *BMC public health*. 2015;15(1):1251.
- [94] surveillance WSndrf. NON COMMUNICABLE DISEASES RISK FACTORS STEPS SURVEY KENYA, FACT SHEET. 2015.
- [95] Silva-Matos C, Beran D. Non-communicable diseases in Mozambique: risk factors, burden, response and outcomes to date. *Globalization and health*. 2012;8(1):37.
- [96] Nahimana M-R, Nyandwi A, Muhimpundu MA, Olu O, Condo JU, Rusanganwa A, et al. A population-based national estimate of the prevalence and risk factors associated with hypertension in Rwanda: implications for prevention and control. *BMC public health*. 2018;18(1):2.
- [97] Bovet P, Viswanathan B, Louange M, Gedeon J. National Survey of

- Noncommunicable Diseases in Seychelles, 2013-2014 (Seychelles Heart Study IV): methods and main findings. Ministry of Health, Republic of Seychelles; 2015.
- [98] Mayige M, Kagaruki G. Tanzania STEPS survey report. Dar es Salaam: National Institute of Medical Research. 2013.
- [99] Wesonga R, Guwatudde D, Bahendeka SK, Mutungi G, Nabugoomu F, Muwonge J. Burden of cumulative risk factors associated with non-communicable diseases among adults in Uganda: evidence from a national baseline survey. *International journal for equity in health*. 2016;15(1):195.
- [100] Musinguzi G, Nuwaha F. Prevalence, awareness and control of hypertension in Uganda. *PLoS one*. 2013;8(4):e62236-e.
- [101] Mukanu MM, Zulu JM, Mweemba C, Mutale W. Responding to non-communicable diseases in Zambia: a policy analysis. *Health research policy and systems*. 2017;15(1):34.
- [102] Mukanu MM. Government's Health Policy Response to Non-Communicable Diseases in Zambia: The University of Zambia; 2016.
- [103] Hakim J, Mujuru N, Rusakaniko S, Gomor Z. National Survey Zimbabwe Non-Communicable Disease Risk Factors-(ZINCoDs) Preliminary Report Using The WHO STEPwise Approach to Surveillance of Non-Communicable Diseases (STEPS). Harare, Zimbabwe: Ministry of Health & Child Welfare and The University of Zimbabwe; 2005.
- [104] Mutowo MP, Mangwiro JC, Lorgelly PK, Owen AJ, Renzaho A. Hypertension in Zimbabwe: a meta-analysis to quantify its burden and policy implications. *World Journal of Meta-Analysis*. 2015;3(1):54-60.
- [105] Ataklte F, Erqou S, Kaptoge S, Taye B, Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Kengne AP. Burden of Undiagnosed Hypertension in Sub-Saharan Africa. A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. 2014.
- [106] Ataklte F, Erqou S, Kaptoge S, Taye B, Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Kengne AP. Burden of undiagnosed hypertension in sub-saharan Africa: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Hypertension (Dallas, Tex : 1979)*. 2015;65(2):291-8.
- [107] Carson AP, Howard G, Burke GL, Shea S, Levitan EB, Muntner P. Ethnic differences in hypertension incidence among middle-aged and older adults: the multi-ethnic study of atherosclerosis. *Hypertension*. 2011;57(6):1101-7.
- [108] Howard G, Lackland DT, Kleindorfer DO, Kissela BM, Moy CS, Judd SE, et al. Racial differences in the impact of elevated systolic blood pressure on stroke risk. *JAMA internal medicine*. 2013;173(1):46-51.
- [109] van Rijn-Bikker PC, Mairuhu G, van Montfrans GA, Sijbrands EJJ, Zwinderman AH, Guchelaar H-J, et al. Genetic Factors Are Relevant and Independent Determinants of Antihypertensive Drug Effects in a Multiracial Population. *American journal of hypertension*. 2009;22(12):1295-302.
- [110] Brewster LM, Seedat YK. Why do hypertensive patients of African ancestry respond better to calcium blockers and diuretics than to ACE inhibitors and β -adrenergic blockers? A systematic review. *BMC medicine*. 2013;11(1):141.
- [111] Bakris GL, Fonseca V, Katholi RE, McGill JB, Messerli FH, Phillips RA, et al. Metabolic effects of carvedilol vs metoprolol in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus and hypertension: a randomized controlled trial. *Jama*. 2004;292(18):2227-36.
- [112] Brewster LM, Van Montfrans GA, Kleijnen J. Systematic review: antihypertensive drug therapy in black patients. *Annals of Internal Medicine*. 2004;141(8):614-27.
- [113] Brewster LM, van Montfrans GA, Seedat YK. Antihypertensive Drug Therapy in Patients of African and South Asian Ethnicity: A Systematic Review. *Ethnic Diversities, Hypertension and Global Cardiovascular Risk*: Springer; 2018. p. 243-69.
- [114] Yoruk A, Boulous PK, Bisognano JD. The State of Hypertension in Sub-Saharan Africa: Review and Commentary. *American Journal of Hypertension*. 2017;31(4):387-8.
- [115] Lees-Marshment J. The ministry of public input: Integrating citizen views into political leadership: Springer; 2015.
- [116] Hendriks CM, Lees-Marshment J. Political leaders and public engagement: The hidden world of informal elite-citizen interaction. *Political Studies*. 2019;67(3):597-617.
- [117] Samb B, Desai N, Nishtar S, Mendis S, Bekedam H, Wright A, et al. Prevention and management of chronic disease: a litmus test for health-systems strengthening in low-income and middle-income countries. *The Lancet*. 2010;376(9754):1785-97.
- [118] Corinne V. Evans, Brittany U. Burda, Karen L. Margolis, Elizabeth O'Connor, Ning Smith, Elizabeth Webber, et al. Screening for High Blood Pressure in Adults: A Systematic Evidence Review for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Evidence Synthesis. In: Quality AfHRA, editor. US: AHRQ Publication; 2014.
- [119] Kaczorowski J, Chambers LW, Dolovich L, Paterson JM, Karwalajtys T, Gierman T, et al. Improving cardiovascular health at population level: 39 community cluster randomised trial of Cardiovascular Health Awareness Program (CHAP). *BMJ (Clinical research ed)*. 2011;342:d442-d.
- [120] Sorato MM, Davari M, Nikfar S. Cost-Effectiveness of Comprehensive Screening of General Population for Hypertension: Can it Save Money and Life? Systematic Review



- of Pharmacoeconomic Studies. *EC Diabetes and Metabolic Research*. 2020;4:13-25.
- [121] Campbell NRC, Lemogoum D. Hypertension in sub-Saharan Africa: a massive and increasing health disaster awaiting solution. *Cardiovasc J Afr*. 2015;26(4):152-4.
- [122] Sampson UKA, Amuyunzu-Nyamongo M, Mensah GA. Health Promotion and Cardiovascular Disease Prevention in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Progress in Cardiovascular Diseases*. 2013;56(3):344-55.
- [123] Organization WH. Health in all policies: Helsinki statement. Framework for country action. 2014.
- [124] Greer SL, Falkenbach M, Siciliani L, McKee M, Wismar M, Figueras J. From health in all policies to health for all policies. *The Lancet Public Health*. 2022;7(8):e718-e20.
- [125] Mauti J, Gautier L, De Neve J-W, Beiersmann C, Tosun J, Jahn A. Kenya's Health in All Policies strategy: a policy analysis using Kingdon's multiple streams. *Health Research Policy and Systems*. 2019;17(1):15.
- [126] Davari M, Sorato MM, Nikfar S. Cost-effectiveness of Comprehensive screening of general population for hypertension: Can it save money and Life? *Systematic review of Pharmacoeconomic Studies*. 2020.
- [127] Banerjee A, Khandelwal S, Nambiar L, Saxena M, Peck V, Moniruzzaman M, et al. Health system barriers and facilitators to medication adherence for the secondary prevention of cardiovascular disease: a systematic review. *Open Heart*. 2016;3(2):e000438.
- [128] Khatib R, Schwalm J-D, Yusuf S, Haynes RB, McKee M, Khan M, et al. Patient and healthcare provider barriers to hypertension awareness, treatment and follow up: a systematic review and meta-analysis of qualitative and quantitative studies. *PloS one*. 2014;9(1):e84238.
- [129] Mensa Sorato M, Davari M, Kebriaeezadeh A, Naderi N, Sarrafzadegan N, Shibru T, et al. Cost-effectiveness of Interventional therapies for management of Treatment-resistant hypertension: systematic review of pharmacoeconomic studies. *Journal of Pharmaceutical Health Services Research*. n/a(n/a).
- [130] Martin U. What to do about difficult hypertension? *Postgraduate medical journal*. 2018;94(Suppl 1):A2-A.
- [131] Sorato MM, Davari M, AbdollahiAsl A. Descriptive Evaluation of National and International Hypertension Treatment Guidelines: The Guideline Quality and Comprehensiveness to provide Care to Adult with Hypertension. *Clinical Medical Reviews and Case Reports*. 2020;7(5):307.
- [132] Benjamin IJ, Kreutz R, Olsen MH, Schutte AE, Lopez-Jaramillo P, Frieden TR, et al. Fixed-dose combination antihypertensive medications. *The Lancet*. 2019;394(10199):637-8.
- [133] Salam A, Kanukula R, Esam H, Bahiru E, Sharma A, Heller D, et al. An application to include blood pressure lowering drug fixed dose combinations to the model list of essential medicines lists for the treatment of essential hypertension in adults. 2019.
- [134] Kjeldsen SE, Narkiewicz K, Burnier M, Oparil S. The International Society of Hypertension Guidelines 2020 – a new drug treatment recommendation in the wrong direction? *Blood pressure*. 2020:1-3.
- [135] Ram CV. Antihypertensive efficacy of olmesartan medoxomil or valsartan in combination with amlodipine: a review of factorial-design studies. *Current medical research and opinion*. 2009;25(1):177-85.
- [136] DiPette DJ, Skeete J, Ridley E, Campbell NR, Lopez-Jaramillo P, Kishore SP, et al. Fixed-dose combination pharmacologic therapy to improve hypertension control worldwide: Clinical perspective and policy implications. *Journal of clinical hypertension (Greenwich, Conn)*. 2019;21(1):4.
- [137] Giaquinto AR, Grignolo A, Liberti L, Lim JC, Salmonson T, Sauer F, et al. Improving access to quality medicines in East Africa: An independent perspective on the East African Community Medicines Regulatory Harmonization initiative. *PLoS medicine*. 2020;17(8):e1003092.
- [138] Evans DCaDB. Improving health system efficiency as a means of moving towards universal coverage. *World health report 2010 background paper, no. 28*. 2010.
- [139] Shrank WH, Rogstad TL, Parekh N. Waste in the US Health Care System: Estimated Costs and Potential for Savings. *Jama*. 2019.
- [140] World Health Organization. National Health Accounts [online database]. 2010.
- [141] Organization. WH. Monitoring the building blocks of health systems: a handbook of indicators and their measurement strategies. In: Organization WH, editor. Geneva, Switzerland 2010.
- [142] WHO. World Health Organization, Regional Office for South-East Asia. Meeting Report: Reaching those who are left behind. For: Regional Consultation on Health, the SDGs and the role of Universal Health Coverage: next steps in South-East Asia Region. New Delhi. 2016.
- [143] Organization WH. World Health Statistics: Monitoring health for Sustainable development goals/SDGs. 2016.
- [144] Khetrpal S, Bhatia R. Impact of COVID-19 pandemic on health system & sustainable development goal 3. *Indian Journal of Medical Research*. 2020;151(5):395.

- [145] Association LG. Health in All Policies: a manual for local government. Local Government Association: London, UK. 2016.
- [146] Storm I, Aarts M-J, Harting J, Schuit AJ. Opportunities to reduce health inequalities by 'Health in All Policies' in the Netherlands: An explorative study on the national level. Health Policy. 2011;103(2):130-40.
- [147] Masseria C, Hernández-Quevedo C, Allin S. Health inequality: what does it mean and how can we measure it? Expert review of pharmacoeconomics & outcomes research. 2010;10(2):177-86.

