EDITORIAL



The heart in hypertension

Sunil K. Nadar 10 · Gregory Y. H. Lip 10 2,3

Received: 6 September 2020 / Revised: 22 September 2020 / Accepted: 1 October 2020 / Published online: 12 October 2020 © Springer Nature Limited 2020

Hypertension (HT) is a leading cause of mortality and morbidity affecting over a quarter of the world's adult population (estimated to be around one billion adults worldwide) and this number is forecast to increase to over 1.5 billion by 2025 [1]. It is estimated that there were in excess of 10 million deaths annually related to HT [2]. HT affects practically every organ of the body both at the micro and macrovascular level and these effects are responsible for the increased mortality and morbidity associated with HT. There are many organ-specific changes caused by HT and these have been referred to as "hypertension mediated organ damage (HMOD)", and specific examples of HMOD include hypertensive retinopathy, nephropathy, left ventricular hypertrophy (LVH) and neurovascular changes including stroke and dementia [3].

The heart is a major organ that is affected by HT, being directly exposed to the high blood pressure (BP). One of the most striking and perhaps the earliest effect of HT on the heart is LVH. It has been suggested that around 36–41% of all hypertensives have LVH [4]. The extent of LVH is related predominantly to the duration of HT and the levels of elevated BP. LVH initially occurs as a compensatory process that represents an adaptation to increased ventricular wall stress. Besides this raised BP, many other pathophysiological processes such as sympathetic overdrive [5] activation of the renin angiotensin aldosterone system (RAAS) [6], insulin resistance [7], tissue-related factors such as endothelins [8], genetic and racial predisposition [9] and levels of dietary salt intake [10] have all been

implicated in the causation and progression of LVH in patients with HT.

There are extensive data demonstrating the poor prognosis of patients with hypertensive LVH with increased cardiovascular events and death [11]. Indeed, patients with LVH have been shown to have a twofold to fourfold higher rate of cardiovascular events independent of other risk factors such as age, hypercholesterolaemia, diabetes, etc. [12]. Patients with LVH are also at a higher risk of developing strokes [13], cognitive impairment [14], atrial fibrillation [15], ventricular arrhythmias [16] and sudden cardiac death [17]. It is likely that LVH is simply a surrogate for the severity of HT, given that the extent of LVH depends on the BP control and duration of HT. However, the changes in the left ventricle at the macro and microscopic level would by themselves lead to some of the other complications such as arrhythmias, AF-related strokes, etc.

There are other changes that occur in the heart secondary to LVH. The stiff hypertrophic LV increases the diastolic pressure within the LV and can lead to diastolic dysfunction. HT and LVH are major risk factors for the development of heart failure with preserved ejection fraction (HFpEF) [18]. HT is also a major risk factor for heart failure with reduced ejection fraction (HFrEF). Patients with a concentric hypertrophy usually develop HFpEF, whereas those with an eccentric (dilated) phenotype develop HFrEF, reflecting the different pathological processes in both these types of heart failure. In the Framingham study, the presentation of 91% of patients with new heart failure was preceded by the development of HT [19]. Nevertheless, it should be noted that not all patients with HFpEF have evidence of LVH and many elderly patients with LVH do not have signs and symptoms of HFpEF [20].

The diastolic dysfunction and raised diastolic pressures can also lead to increase in left atrial pressure and over time results in enlargement of the left atrium and other structural changes in the left atrial wall [21]. The structural remodelling and deposition of fibrous tissue in the left atrium cause disruption between the myocytes and electrical bundles and potentiate the formation of multiple micro

[⊠] Sunil K. Nadar sunilnadar@gmail.com

Department of Medicine, Sultan Qaboos University Hospital, Muscat, Oman

² Liverpool Centre for Cardiovascular Science, University of Liverpool and Liverpool Heart & Chest Hospital, Liverpool, UK

Department of Clinical Medicine, Aalborg University, Aalborg, Denmark

384 S. K. Nadar, G. Y. H. Lip

re-entrant circuits that are pathognomonic of AF [22]. All these changes, along with the activation of the RAAS and heightened sympathetic activity in HT, create the substrate required for the initiation of atrial fibrillation and HT is indeed a major risk factor for atrial fibrillation [23]. The severity of LVH also contributes to the formation of AF. For example, it has been shown that for every 1 standard deviation increase in LV mass, the risk of atrial fibrillation increased by 1.2-fold [15].

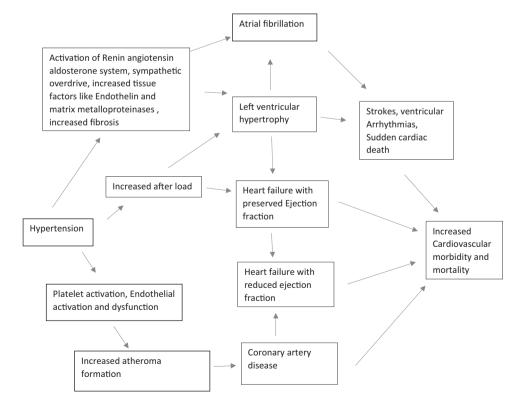
On a microvascular level, the increased shearing forces of HT can lead to endothelial activation and dysfunction [24]. The endothelial activation is both a cause and an effect of HT. Conditions such as diabetes, hyperlipidemia, smoking, etc. can cause endothelial dysfunction, which leads to defective nitric oxide production by the endothelium which, in turn, can lead to impaired vasodilatation and hence HT. HT on its own can also lead to endothelial dysfunction due to the increased shear force exerted on the vessel wall that the endothelium is exposed to. This can promote the formation of atheroma and indeed HT is a major risk factor for myocardial infarctions and cerebrovascular accidents [25]. Studies have shown that even modest increases in BP (stage 1 HT) are associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular events [26].

HT is associated with platelet activation and platelets from patients with HT have been shown to demonstrate increased adhesiveness [27, 28]. The level of platelet activation has been demonstrated to correlate with HMOD

[27, 29]. The changes in HT also fulfil the criteria of the Virchow's triad leading to a hypercoagulable state. This explains the preponderance of thrombotic strokes rather than haemorrhagic strokes in patients with HT, although the vessels are exposed to high pressures and this has been referred to as the "thrombotic paradox of HT" [30].

Strict BP control has been demonstrated to reduce cardiovascular mortality and morbidity. It has been shown that lowering BP reduces risk of a myocardial infarction by 20-25%, of stroke by 35-40% and by 50% for heart failure [31]. Many of the HT-related changes have been shown to be reduced or even completely reversed by lowering BP [3]. In the heart, regression of LVH has been shown to occur with BP reduction. Patients who demonstrate greater LVH reduction have been shown to have much better prognosis and fewer cardiovascular events than those whose LVH remained the same with the worst prognosis in those where new LVH developed or where the LVH worsened on treatment [32]. Some group of antihypertensive medications such as angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEI) have been shown to cause more LVH regression than other classes of drugs [33]. Treating HT has also been shown to improve endothelial function and reduce platelet activation, which could also explain the improved cardiovascular outcomes [34]. Treating HT has also been shown to significantly reduce the risk of heart failure and the incidence of new onset AF [35, 36]. Blockers of the RAAS such as ACEI and angiotensin receptor blockers have been shown

Fig. 1 Effects of Hypertension on the heart and cardiovascular system. The various pathophysiological effects of hypertension on the heart leading to increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality.



The heart in hypertension 385

to be superior to other classes of antihypertensive drugs in reducing the incidence of new onset AF in some subgroups of hypertensive patients such as those with LVH [37].

The heart is one of the major organs that is affected by HT. Figure 1 shows the various inter-connected pathophysiological processes at play, as a result of HT which ultimately results in increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality. Strict BP control can reverse many of the deleterious effects of HT on the heart. Early detection is therefore a key in picking up these changes such as LVH at an early stage. Convincing asymptomatic hypertensive patients to strictly adhere to medications is challenging but is worthwhile spending that time and energy to persuade them about the importance of lowering BP as it can significantly improve their overall prognosis.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

References

- Kearney PM, Whelton M, Reynolds K, Muntner P, Whelton PK, He J. Global burden of hypertension: analysis of worldwide data. Lancet. 2005;365:217–23.
- GBD2017 Risk factor collaborators. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 84 behavioural, 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.
- Nadar SK, Tayebjee MH, Messerli F, Lip GY. Target organ damage in hypertension: pathophysiology and implications for drug therapy. Curr Pharm Des. 2006;12:1581–92.
- Cuspidi C, Sala C, Negri F, Mancia G, Morganti A. Prevalence of left-ventricular hypertrophy in hypertension: an updated review of echocardiographic studies. J Hum Hypertens. 2012;26:343–9.
- Schlaich MP, Kaye DM, Lambert E, Sommerville M, Socratous F, Esler MD. Relation between cardiac sympathetic activity and hypertensive left ventricular hypertrophy. Circulation. 2003;108: 560–5.
- Dzau VJ. Tissue renin-angiotensin system in myocardial hypertrophy and failure. Arch Intern Med. 1993;153:937–42.
- Nkum BC, Micah FB, Ankrah TC, Nyan O. Left ventricular hypertrophy and insulin resistance in adults from an urban community in The Gambia: cross-sectional study. PLoS ONE. 2014;9: e93606
- Ichikawa KI, Hidai C, Okuda C, Kimata SI, Matsuoka R, Hosoda S, et al. Endogenous endothelin-1 mediates cardiac hypertrophy and switching of myosin heavy chain gene expression in rat ventricular myocardium. J Am Coll Cardiol. 1996;27:1286–91.
- Correll RN, Eder P, Burr AR, Despa S, Davis J, Bers DM, et al. Overexpression of the Na+/K+ ATPase alpha2 but not alpha1 isoform attenuates pathological cardiac hypertrophy and remodeling. Circ Res. 2014;114:249–56.

 Nista F, Gatto F, Albertelli M, Musso N. Sodium intake and target organ damage in hypertension—an update about the role of a real villain. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2020;17:2811.

- Rautaharju PM, Soliman EZ. Electrocardiographic left ventricular hypertrophy and the risk of adverse cardiovascular events: a critical appraisal. J Electrocardiol. 2014;47:649–54.
- Bang CN, Soliman EZ, Simpson LM, Davis BR, Devereux RB, Okin PM. Electrocardiographic left ventricular hypertrophy predicts cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in hypertensive patients: the ALLHAT Study. Am J Hypertens. 2017;30:914–22.
- O'Neal WT, Almahmoud MF, Qureshi WT, Soliman EZ. Electrocardiographic and echocardiographic left ventricular hypertrophy in the prediction of stroke in the elderly. J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis. 2015;24:1991–7.
- Restrepo C, Patel SK, Rethnam V, Werden E, Ramchand J, Churilov L, et al. Left ventricular hypertrophy and cognitive function: a systematic review. J Hum Hypertens. 2018;32:171–9.
- Verdecchia P, Reboldi G, Gattobigio R, Bentivoglio M, Borgioni C, Angeli F, et al. Atrial fibrillation in hypertension: predictors and outcome. Hypertension. 2003;41:218–23.
- Mammarella A, Paradiso M, Basili S, De MA, Cardarello CM, Di FM, et al. Morphologic left ventricular patterns and prevalence of high-grade ventricular arrhythmias in the normotensive and hypertensive elderly. Adv Ther. 2000;17:222–9.
- Okin PM, Bang CN, Wachtell K, Hille DA, Kjeldsen SE, Dahlof B, et al. Relationship of sudden cardiac death to new-onset atrial fibrillation in hypertensive patients with left ventricular hypertrophy. Circ Arrhythm Electrophysiol. 2013;6:243–51.
- 18. Teo LY, Chan LL, Lam CS. Heart failure with preserved ejection fraction in hypertension. Curr Opin Cardiol. 2016;31:410–6.
- Levy D, Larson MG, Vasan RS, Kannel WB, Ho KK. The progression from hypertension to congestive heart failure. JAMA. 1996;275:1557–62.
- Tam MC, Lee R, Cascino TM, Konerman MC, Hummel SL. Current perspectives on systemic hypertension in heart failure with preserved ejection fraction. Curr Hypertens Rep. 2017;19:12.
- Vaziri SM, Larson MG, Lauer MS, Benjamin EJ, Levy D. Influence of blood pressure on left atrial size. The Framingham Heart Study. Hypertension. 1995;25:1155–60.
- Spach MS, Boineau JP. Microfibrosis produces electrical load variations due to loss of side-to-side cell connections: a major mechanism of structural heart disease arrhythmias. Pacing Clin Electrophysiol. 1997;20:397–413.
- Gumprecht J, Domek M, Lip GYH, Shantsila A. Invited review: hypertension and atrial fibrillation: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and implications for management. J Hum Hypertens. 2019;33:824–36.
- Nadar S, Blann AD, Lip GY. Endothelial dysfunction: methods of assessment and application to hypertension. Curr Pharm Des. 2004;10:3591–605.
- Cui X, Zhao Q, Yu J, Zhang R, Li W, Song L, et al. Cumulative mean arterial pressure and risks of adverse cardiac and cerebrovascular events: a prospective cohort study of 53,813 adults. J Hum Hypertens. 2018;32:585–93.
- Critselis E, Chrysohoou C, Kollia N, Georgousopoulou EN, Tousoulis D, Pitsavos C, et al. Stage 1 hypertension, but not elevated blood pressure, predicts 10-year fatal and non-fatal CVD events in healthy adults: the ATTICA Study. J Hum Hypertens. 2019;33:308–18.
- Nadar S, Blann AD, Lip GY. Platelet morphology and plasma indices of platelet activation in essential hypertension: effects of amlodipine-based antihypertensive therapy. Ann Med. 2004;36:552–7.
- Nadar SK, Caine GJ, Blann AD, Lip GY. Platelet adhesion in hypertension: application of a novel assay of platelet adhesion. Ann Med. 2005;37:55–60.

S. K. Nadar, G. Y. H. Lip

 Nadar SK, Blann AD, Kamath S, Beevers DG, Lip GY. Platelet indexes in relation to target organ damage in high-risk hypertensive patients: a substudy of the Anglo-Scandinavian Cardiac Outcomes Trial (ASCOT). J Am Coll Cardiol. 2004;44:415–22.

- Lip GY. Hypertension and the prothrombotic state. J Hum Hypertens. 2000;14:687–90.
- Patel P, Ordunez P, DiPette D, Escobar MC, Hassell T, Wyss F, et al. Improved blood pressure control to reduce cardiovascular disease morbidity and mortality: the Standardized Hypertension Treatment and Prevention Project. J Clin Hypertens. 2016;18:1284–94.
- 32. Okin PM, Hille DA, Kjeldsen SE, Dahlof B, Devereux RB. Persistence of left ventricular hypertrophy is associated with increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in hypertensive patients with lower achieved systolic pressure during antihypertensive treatment. Blood Press. 2014;23:71–80.
- 33. Fagard RH, Celis H, Thijs L, Wouters S. Regression of left ventricular mass by antihypertensive treatment: a meta-analysis

- of randomized comparative studies. Hypertension. 2009;54: 1084–91.
- Miyamoto M, Kotani K, Ishibashi S, Taniguchi N. The effect of antihypertensive drugs on endothelial function as assessed by flow-mediated vasodilation in hypertensive patients. Int J Vasc Med. 2012;2012:453264.
- Zhang Y, Liang M, Sun C, Qu G, Shi T, Min M, et al. Effect of intensive lowering of systolic blood pressure treatment on heart failure events: a meta-analysis of randomized controlled studies. J Hum Hypertens. 2019;33:648–57.
- 36. Verdecchia P, Angeli F, Gentile G, Reboldi G. More versus less intensive blood pressure-lowering strategy: cumulative evidence and trial sequential analysis. Hypertension. 2016;68:642–53.
- Schneider MP, Hua TA, Bohm M, Wachtell K, Kjeldsen SE, Schmieder RE. Prevention of atrial fibrillation by Renin-Angiotensin system inhibition a meta-analysis. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2010;55:2299–307.