

Systemic Hypertension and the Eye: Highlighting a Comorbidity

Marianne Shahsuvaryan^{*}

Medical University, Yerevan, Armenia

Corresponding author: Marianne Shahsuvaryan, Medical University, Yerevan, Armenia, Tel: (37410) 523468; E-mail: mar_shah@hotmail.com

Received date: February 5, 2016; Accepted date: May 11, 2016; Published date: May 22, 2016

Copyright: © 2016 Shahsuvaryan M. This is an open -access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

Purpose: To identify ocular comorbidity in systemic hypertension.

Methods: Research findings include data of 566 patients with RVO (retinal vein occlusion) 408 and 158 patients with the central retinal vein occlusion (CRVO) and branch retinal vein occlusion (BRVO) respectively, representing a cases and and 566 controls, all aged 31 years and older. Excluded from case and control group were persons with degenerative changes of retina and ocular inflammation. At the baseline examination blood pressures was measured and were tested fibrinogen, recalcification time, plasma tolerance to heparin, prothrombin ratio for evaluation of blood coagulability. A statistical analysis was conducted by a commercially available statistical software package.

Results: Among our cases hypertension was more prevalent with an elevated systolic and diastolic blood pressures comparing to controls.

Hypercoagulability represented by elevated prothrombin ratio has shown a close association with age and RVO, evidencing higher risk of vasoocclusion in older persons with hypercoagulability. It was found that higher blood pressure: systolic blood pressure (OR, 8.49; 95% CI, 4.81 to 15.13) and diastolic blood pressure (OR, 9.37; 95% CI, 6.34 to 13.89); prothrombin ratio (OR, 4.0; 95% CI, 2.17 to 7.7) after adjusting for age and sex, plays a significant role in the development of RVO. Assessing an impact of systemic hypertension duration on RVO frequency it was evidenced direct relationship indicating increased cases of RVO in patients suffering from systemic hypertension 5-10 years and more obvious impact in case of longer duration–more than 10 years.

Conclusions: The study emphasized the need for enhanced collaboration between specialties to ensure appropriate management of patients with systemic hypertension and ocular comorbidity in order to prevent occurrence of retinal vein occlusion.

Keywords: Systemic hypertension; Duration of hypertension; Systolic blood pressure; Diastolic blood pressure; Retina; Retinal vein occlusion

Introduction

Accumulating evidence based on aging population suggests a worldwide epidemic of systemic hypertension, which represents a major risk factor for cardial, cerebral vascular disease. In the United States approximately 75 million adults are affected by systemic hypertension [1].

According to a new analysis of data from the Nationwide Emergency Department Sample [2] it was evidenced increase by quarter emergency rooms visits for essential hypertension during 2006-2011 years. The prevalence of systemic hypertension dramatically increases in patients older than 60 years [3], reaching 50% in many countries. It is recognized that there is a drive towards increased cases worldwide up to 20% of adult population. Present definition of hypertension is a systolic blood pressure (SBP) of 140 mm Hg or higher, or a diastolic blood pressure (DBP) of 90 mm Hg or higher, or taking antihypertensive medication [4]. Report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure [5] highlights that in persons older than 50 SBP serves as an important cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factor in case of more than 140 mm Hg comparing to diastolic BP. Systemic hypertension starts from asymptomatic silent period, which converts into clinically evidenced hypertension with secondary involvement of different organs, such as heart, kidneys, retina and brain. The results from the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) study [6,7] based on findings of 2907 hypertensive patients suggest that retinal changes due to hypertension as predictive for stroke, even in case of compensated BP and directly corresponds to severity of hypertensive retinopathy reaching 1.35 and 2.37 for mild and moderate/severe cases respectively.

Retinal vein occlusion (RVO) is the most common retinal disease, second in prevalence only after diabetic retinopathy, in which arterial risk factors play a dominant role comparing to venous factors. [8,9] representing a major cause of visual disability [10].

A recent study assessing worldwide finding indicated 0.52% RVO prevalence, translating to approximately 16 million persons suffered from RVO [11].

Despite being recognized in the 19th century (first central retinal vein occlusion (CRVO) report by Richard Liebreich in 1855 [12], first

Shahsuvaryan M (2016) Systemic Hypertension and the Eye: Highlighting a Comorbidity. J Clin Exp Cardiolog 7: 442. doi:

branch retinal vein occlusion (BRVO) report by Theodor Leber in 1877 [13]) occlusion of the central retinal vein and its branches still requires an understanding of pathophysiological mechanisms, taken into account complicated and multifactorial process of occlusion. The clinical features and risk factors for RVO were examined in multiple case-control studies [14-20].

10.4172/2155-9880.1000442

It is recognized that systemic vascular disease, hypertension, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia and glaucoma are the risk factors for RVO [10]. Primary hypercoagulable states with a defect in the physiological anticoagulant mechanism [21-24] and secondary hypercoagulable states, which are conditions, also are associated with an increased risk of thrombosis [25-30].

Retinal vein occlusion is classified as either central retinal vein occlusion (CRVO), branch retinal vein occlusion (BRVO), based on the specific occlusion site.

CRVO is caused by obstruction of the central retinal vein that leads to a backup of blood and fluid in the retina. Central retinal artery and central retinal vein are surrounded by common fibrotic sheath, and in case of sclerotic arterial changes associated with systemic hypertension or arteriosclerosis, artery causes a pressure on vein, which predisposes to thrombus formation. If thrombus is formatted into any of branches of central retinal vein it is diagnosed as a BRVO.

Taking into consideration the high prevalence of hypertension in the population and potentially linked pathologies, the aim of this study was to identify an ocular comorbidity in systemic hypertension.

Methods

Citation:

Research findings include data of 566 patients with RVO (retinal vein occlusion)-408 and 158 patients with the central retinal vein occlusion (CRVO) and branch retinal vein occlusion (BRVO) respectively, representing a cases and and 566 controls, all aged 31 years and older. Diagnosis of CRVO and BRVO was established by ophthalmologist direct ophthalmoscope using and ophthalmobiomicroscopy with 90 D Fundus lens at the initial visit of patient. CRVO was diagnosed if fundus examination revealed flameshaped, dot, or punctuate retinal hemorrhages in all four quadrants of the retina, dilated and tortuous retinal veins, and optic disc swelling. The same findings in one quadrant corresponded to the branch of central retinal vein indicated the BRVO. Excluded from case and control group were persons with degenerative changes of retina and ocular inflammation. A person qualified as a control if he or she was free of retinal vascular disease. Patients with corneal disorders or cataract among controls were eligible if the fundus could be explored and was considered normal despite the anterior segment problems. The most common diagnoses among controls (n=566) were as follows: corneal disorders (n=261; 46%), cataract (n=164; 29%), refractive error (n=124; 22%), and other (n=17; 3%). The age and sex profile of the cases and controls is shown in Table 1. At the baseline examination blood pressure was measured and was tested fibrinogen, prothrombin time, recalcification time, plasma tolerance to heparin, for evaluation of blood coagulability.

| Age, years | RVO, n (%) | Controls, n (%) |
|------------|------------|-----------------|
| 21-30 | 6 (0.9) | 163 (28.8) |
| 31-40 | 47 (8.3) | 71 (12.5) |
| 41-50 | 48 (8.6) | 64 (11.3) |

| 51-60 | 136 (24) | 88 (15.6) | |
|------------------------------|------------|------------|--|
| 61-70 | 232 (41) | 94 (16.6) | |
| 70 or older | 97 (17.2) | 86 (15.2) | |
| Sex | | | |
| М | 280 (49.5) | 346 (61.1) | |
| F | 286 (50.5) | 220 (38.9) | |
| RVO = Retinal vein occlusion | | | |

Table 1: Age and sex distribution of RVO cases and controls.

The prothrombin time test belongs to a group of blood tests that assess the clotting ability of blood. The prothrombin test specifically evaluates the presence of factors VIIa, V, and X, prothrombin, and fibrinogen. Prothrombin is a protein in the plasma that is converted to thrombin as part of the clotting process. Fibrinogen is a type of blood protein called a globulin; it is converted to fibrin during the clotting process. Recalcification time is a measure of the time taken for clot formation in recalcified blood. Plasma tolerance to heparin represents the patient's clotting response to graded doses of heparin solution.

Statistical analyses were conducted by a commercially available statistical software package.

Results

Several risk factors were significantly associated with RVO in the screening analyses (Table 2).

| Factor | Association with RVO, direction (p)* | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| Age, years | | |
| 21-30 | ↓ (<0.001) | |
| 31-40 | ↓ (<0.05) | |
| 41-50 | (0.13) | |
| 51-60 | (0.13) | |
| 61-70 | ↑ (<0.001) | |
| Sex | | |
| F | ↑ (0.001) | |
| Systemic disease | | |
| Systemic hypertension (yes/no) & | ↑ (0.001) | |
| Systolic blood pressure, mmHg | ↑ (<0.001) | |
| Diastolic blood pressure, mmHg | ↑ (<0.001) | |
| Kidney disease | ↑ (0.001) | |
| Diabetes history (yes/no) | ↑ (0.001) | |
| Biochemical data | | |
| Fibrinogen, g/L | ↑ (<0.05) | |
| Recalcification time, sec | ↓ (<0.05) | |

| Plasma tolerance to heparin, min | ↓ (<0.05) |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| Prothrombin ratio, % | ↑ (<0.001) |
| Urine analysis | |
| Proteinuria (yes/no) | ↑ (<0.01) |
| * Each factor was applyzed in a logi | atia regression. Direction of acceptation |

Each factor was analyzed in a logistic regression. Direction of association shown only for p<0.05 & Systolic pressure of 160 mmHg or more, or diastolic pressure of 90 mm Hg or more, or taking antihypertensive medication, RVO = Retinal vein occlusion. \uparrow = Direct relationship, \downarrow = Inverse relationship

Table 2: risk factors included in the analysis of RVO and results from the screening analysis.

We calculated odds ratios to assess the magnitude of these associations (Table 3).

| Factor | RVO/ controls, OR (95% CI) |
|------------------------|----------------------------|
| Age, years | |
| 21-30 | 0.03 (0.00-0.18) |
| 31-40 | 0.59 (0.34-1.02) |
| 41-50 | 0.67 (0.39-1.17) |
| 51-60 | 1.38 (0.88-2.17) |
| 61-70 | 2.21 (1.44-3.38) |
| 70 and older | 1 |
| Sex | · · · · |
| М | 1 |
| F | 1.55 (1.19-2.03) |
| Systemic disease | |
| Systemic hypertensior | 1 |
| No | 1 |
| Yes | 8.6 (4.12-17.85) |
| Systolic blood pressur | e, mmHg |
| <120 | 0.27 (0.14-0.51) |
| 120-140 | 1 |
| 150 | 5.71 (3.38-9.69) |
| 160 | 8.49 (4.81-15.13) |
| 170 | 7.84 (3.41-18.49) |
| 180 | 10.78 (4.62-26.04) |
| >180 | 11.43 (4.93-27.49) |
| Factor | RVO/controls, OR (95% CI) |
| Diastolic blood pressu | re, mmHg |
| ≤ 70 | 0.26 (0.14-0.47) |
| 71-89 | 1 |

| 90-100 | 9.37 (6.34-13.89) | |
|---|--------------------|--|
| >100 | 11.47 (5.18-26.17) | |
| Kidney disease | | |
| No | 1 | |
| Yes | 13.57 (4.57-45.27) | |
| Diabetes | | |
| No | 1.0 | |
| Yes | 13.57 (4.57-45.27) | |
| Prothrombin ratio, % | | |
| 60-75 | 1.0 | |
| 80-100 | 4.0 (2.17-7.7) | |
| Proteinuria | | |
| No | 1 | |
| Yes | 2.39 (1.01-5.60) | |
| RVO = Retinal vein occlusion; OR = Odds ratio; CI = Confidence interval | | |

Table 3: Odds ratios to assess the magnitude (95%CI) for RVO.

Among our cases hypertension was more prevalent with an elevated systolic and diastolic blood pressures comparing to controls. Majority of RVO patients 340 (60%) suffered from systemic hypertension. Simultaneous comorbidities were revealed in 11.3% of cases (52 patients), with 2 diseases in 8.9% (41 patients) and 3 diseases in 2.4% (11 patients) respectively.

Two component comorbidity was manifested by systemic hypertension in all cases combined with diabetes mellitus, or kidney disease, or stroke.

Three component comorbidity was presented by systemic hypertension combined with diabetes and stroke, or diabetes and kidney disease respectively.

In conclusion, in the subgroup of RVO patients with multiple systemic conditions the main association was systemic hypertension.

Hypercoagulability represented by elevated prothrombin ratio has shown a close association with age and RVO, evidencing higher risk of vasoocclusion in older persons with hypercoagulability. It was found that higher blood pressure: systolic blood pressure (OR, 8.49; 95% CI, 4.81 to 15.13) and diastolic blood pressure (OR, 9.37; 95% CI, 6.34 to 13.89); prothrombin ratio (OR, 4.0; 95% CI, 2.17 to 7.7) after adjusting for age and sex, plays a significant role in the development of RVO.

Patients 70 years and older represent the selected population with less likelihood of active vascular event, compared with the 61 to 70 year old group (in our population, average life expectancy varies between 50 and 60 years).

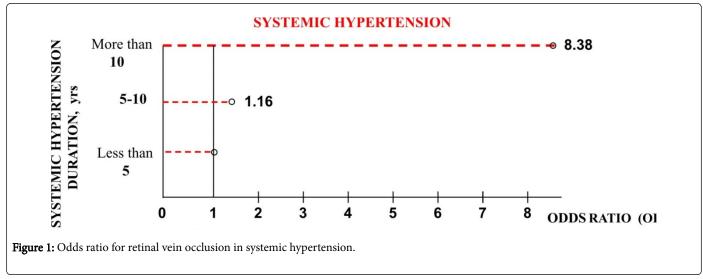
The current study extends the earlier data by examining the association of RVO with systemic hypertension duration. Assessing an impact of systemic hypertension duration on RVO frequency it was evidenced direct relationship indicating increased cases of RVO in patients suffering from systemic hypertension 5-10 years and more

J Clin Exp Cardiolog

Page 3 of 5

Page 4 of 5

obvious impact in case of longer duration more than 10 years (Figure 1).



Discussion

A large body of evidence suggests that systemic conditions like hypertension, arteriosclerosis, diabetes mellitus, hyperlipidemia, vascular cerebral stroke, blood hyper viscosity, and thrombophilia have been associated with vasooclusion of the retinal vein [8,10]. It is recognized that hypertension is the trigger factor in the development of RVO, and that RVO often provide the first indications of an undiagnosed hypertension [8].

Our findings are consistent with previous data suggested cardiovascular risk profile for persons with CRVO [16-34].

The strong association between hypertension and RVO was evidenced by Goldacre et al. and is consistent with previous studies [35]. In particular, a systematic review of 21 studies (comprising 2916 cases of any form of RVO, and 28 646 controls) generated a pooled OR of 3.5 (95% CI 2.5 to 5.1). As in a previous studies [18,28,36] significantly higher levels of systolic and diastolic blood pressure were noted in our patients. Patients with a history of systemic hypertension had a more than five-fold increase in risk of RVO. In previously conducted clinic-based studies [14-19] with control groups, systemic hypertension was significantly more common in patients with retinal vein occlusion than in controls.

The latest study of patients through America conducted by Stem et al. evidenced that individuals with end-organ damage from hypertension had a 92% (hazard risk (HR) 1.92; 95% CI, 1.52-2.42) increased risk of CRVO and confirms that hypertension and vascular diseases are important risk factors for CRVO [37]. Assessment of risk factors in patients younger than 60 years also found hypertension association with CRVO in 23% of cases and arterial hypertension and hypercholesterolemia (46.2% and 38.5%, respectively in case of BRVO). Findings from the study of Korean patients confirm the strong association of hypertension with BRVO. Population-based study in Japan [18] found that after adjustment for age and sex systolic and diastolic blood pressures, hypertension, and hematocrit were significantly associated with RVO. In multivariate analysis, age (per 10 years; odds ratio [OR], 1.47; 95% confidence interval [CI], 1.04-2.08), hypertension (OR, 4.25; 95% CI, 1.82-9.94), and hematocrit (per 10%; OR, 3.09; 95% CI, 1.10-1.22) remained independently significant risk

factors for RVO. A hospital-based case-control study conducted in Nepal also confirmed a hypertension as a risk factor for RVO [37-41].

The general consensus is that retinal vein occlusion represents an ocular comorbidity in systemic hypertension, but data about specific impact of selectively elevated systolic and diastolic blood pressures and also duration of hypertension on frequency of retinal vein occlusion is not available.

Conclusions

The study emphasized the need for enhanced collaboration between specialties to ensure appropriate management of patients with systemic hypertension and ocular comorbidity in order to prevent occurrence of retinal vein occlusion.

References

- 1. Qureshi AI, Suri MF, Kirmani JF, Divani AA (2005) Prevalence and trends of prehypertension and hypertension in United States: National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys 1976 to 2000. Med Sci Monit 11: 403-409.
- 2. Harrison L (2014) Hypertension ER Visits Surge 25% in Five Years. Medscape.
- 3. http://emedicine.medscape
- Roger VL, Go AS, Lloyd-Jones DM, Benjamin EJ, Berry JD, et al. (2012) Heart disease and stroke statistics--2012 update: a report from the American Heart Association. Circulation 125: 2-220.
- Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, Cushman WC, Green LA, et al. (2003) Seventh report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure. Hypertension 42: 1206-1252.
- 6. Ong YT, Wong TY, Klein R, Klein BE, Mitchell P, et al. (2013) Hypertensive retinopathy and risk of stroke. Hypertension 62: 706-711.
- 7. Brooks M (2013) Hypertensive Retinopathy Linked to Increased Stroke Risk. Medscape.
- Martínez F, Furio E, Fabia MJ, Perez AV, Gonzalez-Albert V, et al. (2014) Risk factors associated with retinal vein occlusion. Int J Clin Pract 68: 871-881.

- 9. Lin LL, Dong YM, Zong Y, Zheng QS, Fu Y, et al. (2016) Study of retinal vessel oxygen saturation in ischemic and non-ischemic branch retinal vein occlusion. Int J Ophthalmol 9: 99-107.
- 10. Kolar P (2014) Risk factors for central and branch retinal vein occlusion: a meta-analysis of published clinical data. J Ophthalmol 2014: 724780.
- Rogers S, McIntosh RL, Cheung N, Lim L, Wang JJ, et al. (2010) The prevalence of retinal vein occlusion: pooled data from population studies from the United States, Europe, Asia, and Australia. Ophthalmology 117: 313-319.
- 12. Liebreich R (1885) OphthalmoskopischeNotizen: Ueber die Farbe des Augengrundes. Albrecht Von Graefes Arch Ophthalmol 1: 333-343.
- Leber T (1877) Graefe-Saemisch. Handbuch der Gesamten AugenheikundeLeipzig: Verlag von Wilhelm Engelmann. Die Krankheite der Netzhaut und des Sehnerven; p. 531.
- 14. Sperduto RD, Hiller R, Chew E, Seigel D, Blair N, et al. (1998) Risk factors for hemiretinal vein occlusion: comparison with risk factors for central and branch retinal vein occlusion: the eye disease case-control study. Ophthalmol 105: 765-771.
- 15. Koizumi H, Ferrara DC, Brue C, Spaide RF (2007) Central retinal vein occlusion case-control study. Am J Ophthalmol 144: 858-863.
- (1996) Risk factors for central retinal vein occlusion. The Eye Disease Case-Control Study Group. Arch Ophthalmol 114: 545-554.
- 17. Lang GE, Spraul CW (1997) Risk factors for retinal occlusive diseases. Klin Monbl Augenheilkd 211: 217-226.
- Arakawa S, Yasuda M, Nagata M, Ninomiya T, Hirakawa Y, et al. (2011) Nine-year incidence and risk factors for retinal vein occlusion in a general Japanese population: the Hisayama Study. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci 52: 5905-5909.
- Zhou JQ, Xu L, Wang S, Wang YX, You QS, et al. (2013) The 10-year incidence and risk factors of retinal vein occlusion: the Beijing eye study. Ophthalmology 120: 803-808.
- 20. Rim TH, Kim DW, Han JS, Chung EJ (2015) Retinal vein occlusion and the risk of stroke development: a 9-year nationwide population-based study. Ophthalmology 122: 1187-1194.
- 21. Nyberg P, Dahlback B, García de Frutos P (1998) The SHBG-like region of protein S is crucial for factor V-dependent APC-cofactor function. FEBS Lett 433: 28-32.
- 22. Gottlieb JL, Blice JP, Mestichelli B, Konkle BA, Benson WE (1998) Activated protein C resistance, factor V Leiden, and central retinal vein occlusion in young adults. Arch Ophthalmol 116: 577-579.
- 23. Williamson TH, Rumley A, Lowe GD (1996) Blood viscosity, coagulation, and activated protein C resistance in central retinal vein occlusion: a population controlled study. Br J Ophthalmol 80: 203-208.
- 24. Larsson J, Olafsdottir E, Bauer B (1996) Activated protein C resistance in young adults with central retinal vein occlusion. Br J Ophthalmol 80: 200-202.
- 25. Sodi A, Giambene B, Marcucci R, Sofi F, Fedi S, et al. (2011) Atherosclerotic and thrombophilic risk factors in patients with ischemic central retinal vein occlusion. Retina 31: 724-729.

- 26. Imasawa M, Iijima H (2002) Multiple retinal vein occlusions in essential thrombocythemia. Am J Ophthalmol 133: 152-155.
- 27. Al-Abdulla NA, Thompson JT, La Borwit SE (2001) Simultaneous bilateral central retinal vein occlusion associated with anticardiolipin antibodies in leukemia. Am J Ophthalmol 132: 266-268.
- Lip PL, Blann AD, Jones AF, Lip GY (1998) Abnormalities in haemorheological factors and lipoprotein (a) in retinal vascular occlusion: implications for increased vascular risk. Eye (Lond) 12: 245-251.
- 29. Fegan CD (2002) Central retinal vein occlusion and thrombophilia. Eye (Lond) 16: 98-106.
- Brown BA, Marx JL, Ward TP, Hollifield RD, Dick JS, et al. (2002) Homocysteine: a risk factor for retinal venous occlusive disease. Ophthalmology 109: 287-290.
- Marcucci R, Bertini L, Giusti B, Brunelli T, Fedi S, et al. (2001) Thrombophilic risk factors in patients with central retinal vein occlusion. Thromb Haemost 86: 772-776.
- 32. Boyd S, Owens D, Gin T, Bunce K, Sherafat H, et al. (2001) Plasma homocysteine, methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase C677T and factor II G20210A polymorphisms, factor VIII, and VWF in central retinal vein occlusion. Br J Ophthalmol 85: 1313-1315.
- Kadayifcilar S, Ozatli D, Ozcebe O (2001) Sener EC. Is activated factor VII associated with retinal vein occlusion? Br J Ophthalmol 85: 1174-1178.
- 34. Calugaru D (2011) Risk factors in central retinal vein occlusion. Oftalmologia 55: 27-37.
- Goldacre MJ, Wotton CJ, Keenan TD (2012) Risk of Selected Eye Diseases in People Admitted to Hospital for Hypertension or Diabetes Mellitus. Br J Ophthalmol 96: 872-876.
- O'Mahoney PR, Wong DT, Ray JG (2008) Retinal vein occlusion and traditional risk factors for atherosclerosis. Arch Ophthalmol 126: 692-699.
- Stem MS, Talwar N, Comer GM, Stein JD (2013) A longitudinal analysis of risk factors associated with central retinal vein occlusion. Ophthalmology 2: 362-370.
- Salaun N, Delyfer MN, Rougier MB, Korobelnik JF (2007) Assessment of risk factors for retinal vein occlusions in patients under 60 years of age. J Fr Optholmol 9: 918-923.
- 39. Lee JY, Yoon YH, Kim HK, Yoon HS, Kang SW (2013) Korean RVO Study: Baseline characteristics and risk factors of retinal vein occlusion: a study by the Korean RVO Study Group. J Korean Med Sci 1:136-144.
- 40. Thapa R, Paudyal G, Bernstein PS (2010) Demographic characteristics, patterns and risk factors for retinal vein occlusion in Nepal: a hospital-based case-control study. Clin Experiment Ophthalmol 6: 583-590.
- Shrestha N, Byanju RN, Bhattarai B, Bajracharya K, Shrestha R (2014) Clinico-epidemiological characteristics of central retinal vein occlusion in a tertiary level eye care center of Nepal. Nepal J Ophthalmol 11: 39-45.