

Understanding short-term blood-pressure-variability phenotypes: from concept to clinical practice

Veerendra Melagireppa
Chadachan¹
Min Tun Ye²
Jam Chin Tay¹
Kannan Subramaniam³
Sajita Setia⁴

¹Department of General Medicine, Tang Tock Seng Hospital, ²Department of Pharmacy, National University of Singapore, Singapore; ³Global Medical Affairs, Asia-Pacific Region, Pfizer Australia, Sydney, NSW, Australia; ⁴Medical Affairs, Pfizer, Singapore

Abstract: Clinic blood pressure (BP) is recognized as the gold standard for the screening, diagnosis, and management of hypertension. However, optimal diagnosis and successful management of hypertension cannot be achieved exclusively by a handful of conventionally acquired BP readings. It is critical to estimate the magnitude of BP variability by estimating and quantifying each individual patient's specific BP variations. Short-term BP variability or exaggerated circadian BP variations that occur within a day are associated with increased cardiovascular events, mortality and target-organ damage. Popular concepts of BP variability, including “white-coat hypertension” and “masked hypertension”, are well recognized in clinical practice. However, nocturnal hypertension, morning surge, and morning hypertension are also important phenotypes of short-term BP variability that warrant attention, especially in the primary-care setting. In this review, we try to theorize and explain these phenotypes to ensure they are better understood and recognized in day-to-day clinical practice.

Keywords: hypertension, BPV, HBPM, ABPM, morning surge, nocturnal dipping

Background

Hypertension, one of the most important preventable causes of death globally, accounts for more than 12.8% of all deaths annually.^{1,2} Elevated blood pressure (BP) is one of the major modifiable contributing factors to cardiovascular risk; however, there is often uncertainty as to the “true underlying BP”, as patients often present with discrepant BP readings.³ This is because BP is a continuous variable that fluctuates constantly in response to various changes in physical and mental activities, sleep, and autonomic, humoral, mechanical, myogenic and environmental stimuli.⁴ It is characterized by marked spontaneous oscillations over short- and long-term periods.⁵ As such, clinic BP or home BP (HBPM) in an individual at one time can be considerably different from his/her average day and nighttime BP.⁴ This presents a challenge in diagnosing and prescribing treatments for patients correctly.

Physiology of relationship between sleep and BP regulation

Sleep usually involves calmness and detachment from the external environment, and hence generally causes a reduction in BP at night.⁶ This decrease does not occur under conditions of total sleep deprivation. Sleep disturbances, including sleep restriction, sleep apnea, insomnia, and shift work, have also been found to induce stress on the cardiovascular system and play a role in the development of cardiovascular disorders.⁷ The sleep-dependent changes in BP are specific to each sleep state, and

Correspondence: Sajita Setia
Medical Affairs, Pfizer, 80 Pasir Panjang
Road – 16-81/82, Mapletree Business
City, Singapore 117372
Tel +65 6403 8754
Fax +65 6722 4188
Email sajita.setia@pfizer.com

result from the integration between cardiovascular reflexes (which modulate heart rate in response to changes in BP) and central autonomic commands to heart and resistance vessels.^{6,8} The pathophysiological mechanisms behind these clinical associations probably alter the integration of these cardiovascular reflexes and central autonomic commands.⁶ A positive beneficial association has been found between “close relationships” and BP dipping, while posttraumatic stress disorder and obstructive sleep apnea have been associated with diminished nocturnal BP fall.^{9–11}

Blood-pressure variability

Even though average clinic BP values remain the gold standard for the diagnosis and treatment of hypertension, recent studies in hypertensive subjects have demonstrated that the assessment and quantification of BP variability (BPV) in addition to normal BP values, is of both pathophysiological and prognostic importance.^{2,12} For instance, there is strong evidence to show that increased BPV is independently associated with higher risk of target-organ damage, cardiovascular events, and mortality.^{2,5,13} It follows that controlling BPV in addition to reducing absolute BP levels may contribute to optimal cardiovascular protection in hypertensive patients.¹⁴

Continuous intra-arterial BP recordings are used to assess very short-term beat-to-beat changes in BPV, whereas continuous monitoring systems, such as ambulatory BP monitoring (ABPM), are used for assessing short-term BP fluctuations within a day (24 hours). On the other hand, home BP monitoring (HBPM) or office BP monitoring (OBPM) over lengthy time periods are used to detect long-term changes in BP stretching over days or visits.^{2,15}

Some studies have observed that the extent of BPV is directly proportional to mean BP values, and hence BPV is generally higher in hypertensive subjects compared to normotensive subjects.¹⁶ It is also noted that a reduction in mean BP values leads to a proportional reduction in BPV, and thus it has been suggested that employment of longer-acting BP-lowering drugs might be particularly beneficial in controlling BPV in addition to BP control.¹⁶ However, setting the optimal therapeutic target for BPV control with antihypertensive therapy remains a challenge.¹⁴

Different types of BPV

Popular concepts of BPV, such as “white-coat hypertension” and “masked hypertension”, are well recognized in clinical practice, and have been studied extensively for their prognostic relevance.¹³ White-coat hypertension or isolated office hypertension is characterized by elevated office BP

(OBP) with normal ambulatory BP (ABP) or HBP, and might be caused by anxiety or in response to an unusual clinical setting.^{17,18} Masked hypertension, on the other hand, is characterized by normal OBP, even though ABP or HBP levels are elevated.¹⁹ However, it is important to recognize that BPV is a complex phenomenon that expands beyond such popular concepts, and is influenced by fluctuations in both the short term, ranging from seconds to hours, and the long term, ranging from days to months.^{2,5,14} In general, BPV can be divided into three different types, based on the time frame it occurs: very short-term BPV, short-term BPV and long-term BPV.^{2,15} Depending on the method and time interval considered for its assessment, the clinical significance and prognostic implications of a given measure of BPV differ.^{2,14}

Very short-term BPV

Very short-term BPV refers to beat-to-beat fluctuations in BP due to the interplay of different cardiovascular control systems, such as the baroreceptor reflex, the renin–angiotensin system, the vascular myogenic response, and the release of nitric oxide from the endothelium, as well as changes in behavioral and emotional mechanisms.^{2,5,20} It is usually assessed in a laboratory via intra-arterial recording or under ambulatory conditions by noninvasive finger cuffs that continuously track finger-BP levels through infrared photoplethysmography.^{2,15} Standard deviations of BP values or fluctuations in BP obtained from spectral analyses at various frequency bands are often used as the main indices for assessing very short-term BPV.²

Even though its usefulness and reliability in practical usage is questionable, very short-term BPV has been used as a tool in diagnosing and treating patients with cardiovascular disease, as well as to study the mechanism of action of antihypertensive drugs.^{2,20–22} Detecting changes in beat-to-beat BPV can also help in rationally selecting antihypertensive drugs.⁵ For instance, hypertensive patients with elevated low-frequency BPV may present with enhanced sympathetic modulation of vascular tone, and hence may respond well to sympatholytic antihypertensive drugs.²⁰

Short-term BPV

Short-term BPV refers to the BP changes that occur within a day (24 hours), and is characterized by normal circadian variations, such as nocturnal BP dipping and morning BP surge.^{2,14,15,23} It is mainly influenced by central neural factors, reflex autonomic modulation, and changes in the elastic properties of arteries and humoral systems and rheological and mechanical factors.^{15,24–29} However, all these factors are

often inextricably intertwined with each other.¹⁴ Various studies have demonstrated that higher 24-hour BPV independently of mean BP values is clinically important, as this can increase cardiovascular (CV) events, mortality, and target-organ damage.^{30–37}

Short-term BPV can be measured in two ways: using either ABPM to measure BP every 15–30 minutes over a 24-hour period or special HBPM devices that can measure BP while sleeping.^{2,14,38,39} Some common indices of measurement for short-term BPV include standard deviation (SD) of BP values measured over the whole 24-hour period, waking hours, or sleeping hours.² Other indices include coefficient of variation (CoV), 24-hour weighted SD, and average real variability (ARV).^{2,40–42} These indices are covered in detail in “Understanding indices of short-term BPV” section. The main advantages of short-term BPV monitoring are that it can provide extensive information on BP changes over a day and detect important circadian BP changes, such as morning BP surge and nocturnal dipping, that may have important prognostic implications.^{43–47}

Long-term BPV

Long-term BPV refers to day-to-day, visit-to-visit, and season-to-season BP changes.^{2,15} Factors contributing to long-term BPV remain relatively unclear.² Long-term BPV could be a consequence of poor BP control in treated patients, such as inadequate treatment by the physician, poor patient adherence, or improper BP-measurement methods.^{2,15} It may also be influenced by behavioral changes in an individual, as well as environmental factors, such as outdoor temperature and daylight-hour differences between different seasons.^{2,4,15} For instance, BPV was found to be greater during winter than in summer, possibly due to increased sodium retention and vascular resistance caused by augmented sympathetic activity.⁴ Some studies have also suggested that increased arterial stiffness contributes to the pathogenesis of long-term BPV.^{5,48}

Day-to-day BPV can be assessed by ABPM over 48 hours or HBPM data collected over several days, weeks, or months, while visit-to-visit BPV is usually assessed by ABPM or OBPM that is usually spaced by visits over weeks, months, and years.^{2,15} However, the reliability of using OBPM to assess long-term BPV has been questioned, as it does not take into account the patient’s normal activities and requires frequent visits to the physician for BP measurements.^{2,15} A recent single-center cross-sectional study showed significant differences between single OBPM and means of consecutive BP measurements.⁴⁹ In-office measurements are also sometimes inaccurate, mainly because of the white-coat

effect, inadequate or uncalibrated devices, and suboptimal measurement techniques (eg, incorrect cuff size, no rest before measurement).^{50,51} Although a large number of recommendations on correct OBPM techniques have been published (Table 1), these guidelines are generally not translated into primary-care practice.^{51,52}

There is strong evidence to suggest that increased long-term BPV is associated with higher risk of stroke, cardiovascular events, and mortality, including all-cause mortality.^{53–57} Therefore, measuring long-term BPV might be clinically important, as it can provide useful insights into the long-term control of the patient’s BP and effectiveness of the patient’s current antihypertensive therapy.²

Understanding short-term BP variability

Nocturnal dipping and nocturnal hypertension

BP generally dips about 10%–20% during sleep in normotensive patients, due to a phenomenon known as nocturnal dipping.^{14,15} However, in hypertensive patients, the extent of BP dipping can differ significantly, and individuals can be categorized into four groups based on the extent of fall in nighttime BP. These include extreme dippers, dippers, nondippers, and reverse dippers.¹⁵ In general, individuals whose BP falls in the range of 10%–20% are known as dippers.⁵⁸ Those who dip >20% are known as extreme dippers, while those exhibit <10% dip in BP are called nondippers. On the other hand, those who have an increase in nocturnal BP, instead of a fall, are known as “risers” or “reverse dippers”.⁵⁸ Various causes for the absence of dipping have been proposed including sleep disturbance, depression, obesity, obstructive sleep apnea, orthostatic hypotension, autonomic dysfunction, chronic kidney disease, diabetic neuropathy, and old age.^{23,59–61}

There is strong evidence indicating that such circadian variations have prognostic significance in both hypertensive and normotensive patients. For instance, blunted or reverse nocturnal BP dipping and exaggerated morning BP surge are independently associated with increased cardiovascular events, stroke, and target-organ damage.^{4,37,43,62–77} These circadian variations within 24 hours can also give rise to other phenotypes of short-term BP variations, such as nocturnal hypertension and morning hypertension.^{78,79}

Nocturnal hypertension is defined as having an average of nocturnal BP values of $\geq 120/70$ mmHg and is generally caused by a failure in nocturnal dipping and hence usually observed in nondippers or reverse dippers.⁵⁹ It is especially important to control nocturnal BP, as it is more likely to

Table 1 Recommendations for OBP monitoring from key guidelines on hypertension

	JSH 2014 ³⁹	NICE 2011 ¹⁴²	ESH/ESC 2013 ³⁴	CHEP 2015 ¹⁴³	AHA 2017 ¹⁰⁵
Measurement devices	Auscultation using mercury/ aneroid sphygmomanometry should be used. Electronic sphygmomanometry may also be used. Measuring devices should be properly validated, maintained, and regularly recalibrated. Cuff sizes appropriate for the patient's arm circumference should be used.	Direct auscultation over the brachial artery using mercury/ aneroid sphygmomanometry should be used. Aneroid sphygmomanometry may be less accurate than mercury-operated sphygmomanometry. Automated devices may also be used, except if there is pulse irregularity. Measuring devices should be properly validated, maintained, and regularly recalibrated. Cuff sizes appropriate for the patient's arm circumference should be used.	Auscultatory/oscillometric semiautomatic sphygmomanometry is recommended, since mercury sphygmomanometry is no longer used in European countries. Measuring devices should be properly validated, maintained, and regularly recalibrated. Bladder dimensions should be suited to the arm circumference of the patient. An automated recording of clinic BP readings with the patient seated alone in an isolated room (AOBP) might produce more reliable readings than traditional OBP readings.	Measurements should be taken with electronic sphygmomanometry. If not available, a recently calibrated aneroid device may be used. Measuring devices should be properly validated, maintained, and regularly recalibrated. Choose a cuff with an appropriate bladder size. An automated recording of clinic BP readings with the patient seated alone in an isolated room (AOBP) is preferred over traditional OBP.	A validated and recently calibrated BP-measurement device should be used. Appropriate cuff size, such that the bladder covers 80% of the arm circumference, should be used.
Measurement conditions	BP should be measured in a quiet environment at room temperature after resting for a few minutes in a seated position on a chair with support for the back with the legs uncrossed. Talking during measurement should be avoided. Smoking and alcohol/caffeine consumption should be avoided before measurement. The arm cuff should be maintained at the heart level of the patient. The cuff should not be placed over thick clothing or on the elbow. Avoid tight compression of the measuring arm by folded sleeves.	A quiet and comfortable environment at normal room temperature is ideal. The patient should not have the need to pass urine or have eaten recently. Smoking or consumption of caffeine or exercise should be avoided prior to the measurement. Patient should be allowed to rest for at least 5 minutes before measurement. It is recommended that measurements be taken while seated. The patient's arm should be out-stretched and rested on a table level with their heart and in line with their midsternum.	The patient should be allowed to sit for 3–5 minutes before BP measurements. The cuff should be at the heart level, regardless of the position of the patient. BP to be measured in both arms initially to spot possible variability between arms, after which the arm with the higher BP reading should be used.	The patient should be allowed to rest for about 5 minutes before the measurement. Patient should be in a seated position with back support with legs uncrossed. The measuring arm should be bare and supported at the heart level. The lower edge of the cuff should be 3 cm above the elbow crease and centered over the brachial artery. There should be no talking during the measurement.	The patient should be relaxed and seated in a chair with feet on floor and back supported for >5 min. Ensure that the patient has emptied his/her bladder. Avoid consumption of caffeine, physical activity, and smoking for at least 30 minutes before measurement. Patient and observer should not talk during the measurement. Patient's measuring arm should be supported on a table. The location of cuff placement on the arm should have all clothing or covering removed. The middle of the cuff should be placed on the patient's upper arm at the level of the midpoint of the sternum.

Measurement method	<p>At least two BP measurements should be taken at 1- to 2-minute intervals in one clinic visit and the average value of the readings recognized as the OBP value. If the two measurements differ significantly, additional measurement should be performed. Hypertension should be diagnosed based only on the BP values measured over at least two different visits.</p>	<p>BP readings should be taken in both arms initially, and the arm with the higher reading should be selected for subsequent measurements. It is recommended to take two BP readings: one at the beginning and the other at the end of the visit.</p>	<p>Take at least two BP measurements in the sitting position with 1- to 2-minute intervals. If the first two readings are significantly different, take additional readings. Taking the average of these BP readings should be considered if deemed appropriate. Take repeated measurements in patients with arrhythmias, such as atrial fibrillation, for better assessment.</p>	<p>BP readings should be recorded to the closest 2 mmHg on the manometer or 1 mmHg on electronic devices. BP should be measured initially in both arms for at least one visit, and the arm with the higher pressure should be subsequently used for measurement. Seated BP should be used to diagnose and monitor treatment decisions, while standing BP should be used to monitor for presence of postural hypotension. In patients with arrhythmia, additional readings should be taken via auscultation to estimate average BP. When using AOBP, the first measurement should be taken by a health professional to verify cuff position and validity of the measurement. After this, the patient should be left alone for subsequent readings to be taken by an automatic device. When using traditional OBP, at least three readings to be measured in the same arm. The first reading should be discarded and the latter two averaged. To avoid venous congestion, it is recommended to space the readings at least one minute apart.</p>	<p>BP should be measured in both arms initially to spot possible variability between arms, after which the arm with the higher BP reading should be used for subsequent readings. Repeated measurements should be taken only after at least 1–2 minutes. An average of at least two or more readings obtained on at least two or more visits should be used to estimate the individual's BP.</p>
---------------------------	--	---	---	--	--

Abbreviations: OBP, office blood pressure; JSH, Japanese Society of Hypertension; NICE, National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; ESH, European Society of Hypertension; ESC, European Society of Cardiology; CHER, Canadian Hypertension Education Program; AHA, American Heart Association; OBPm, OBP monitoring; AOBP, automated OBP.

represent the patient's actual BP more closely, as it is often not influenced by the pressor effects of physical, emotional, and other environmental factors that occur during the day.¹⁴ Moreover, patients with nocturnal hypertension have been found to be at significantly higher risk of organ damage and cardiovascular events, independently of OBP or morning BP values.^{59,64,80–82} Nocturnal BP has also been found to be a superior predictor of cardiovascular disease than daytime BP.^{45,83} Previously, nocturnal hypertension was able to be detected only by ABPM. However, development of novel semiautomatic HBPM devices that can intermittently measure BP during sleep have allowed HBPM to monitor nocturnal BP accurately.^{59,84–87} Nocturnal HBP values obtained by such devices are comparable to nocturnal BP values obtained by traditional ABPM.^{59,85}

Morning surge and morning hypertension

BP tends to surge higher in the morning, and this is considered a normal physiological process, but exaggerated morning BP surge has been observed in some hypertensive patients.²³ Early-morning BP is also viewed as a missed therapeutic target, since the timing of the trough plasma-drug level and the lowest pharmacological effect may coincide with early-morning rise in BP, especially for antihypertensives taken once daily in the morning.⁸⁸

Morning hypertension is diagnosed if morning BP values are $\geq 135/85$ mmHg using out-of-office BP monitoring or $\geq 140/90$ mmHg using OBPM in the morning.⁸⁹ It can also be defined as having a morning–evening BP difference of >15 mmHg or a morning–nocturnal BP difference of $>35–55$ mmHg.^{59,90} It is recommended to take two to three BP readings every morning for 5–7 days, and the average of these BP readings should be used for evaluation.⁸⁹ There are two types of morning hypertension that can be detected by HBPM: one is caused by extreme morning BP surge, whereas the other is caused by prolonged nocturnal hypertension that extends into the morning.^{59,66,79,91} In the latter case, persistent nocturnal hypertension overlaps partially with morning hypertension, and it is often observed in patients with nondipping or reverse nocturnal dipping patterns.^{78,91}

The morning surge observed by ABPM has been found to be unreproducible.⁹⁰ Also, a threshold above which the morning surge in BP becomes pathological remains elusive, and there is still no consensus on a clear definition and assessment of this parameter.^{14,23} Morning BP, however, may be regarded as a therapeutic target for preventing target-organ damage and subsequent cardiovascular events in hypertension. Morning hypertension is best monitored through HBPM under fixed

conditions at the same time in the morning and evening (or during sleep if possible) over a long period.⁷⁸ Japanese Society of Hypertension guidelines recommend morning HBP be measured within 1 hour of waking and after urination, but before medications or meals, while evening HBP should be measured just before going to bed (Figure 1).^{92,93}

Measurement of short-term BPV

There is increasing evidence to show that conventional OBPM to diagnose and monitor a patient's response to antihypertensive treatment may not be effective.^{14,23,49} OBPM measurements have some serious limitations, such as their inability to assess the dynamic characteristics of BP and collect data in the patient's usual daily setting.¹⁴ They also rely heavily on the technique of the operator, and thus may give rise to observer bias.¹⁴ Lastly, white-coat hypertension and masked hypertension are also commonly associated with BP readings taken in a clinical setting, which may lead to an inaccurate diagnosis of hypertension.^{2,14,18} HBPM and ABPM, on the other hand, are recommended in clinical practice to diagnose white-coat hypertension and masked hypertension and can estimate increased BPV, since they are able to detect various changes in BP associated with such conditions.^{23,94}

A major advantage of out-of-office BP monitoring is that it can provide a large number of BP measurements away from the medical environment. Evidence is growing that such out-of-office measurements can also have better prognostic values for cardiovascular events, and these are now widely considered as significantly superior to OBPM readings.^{14,23,73,95–100} As such, out-of-office measurements, such as ABPM and HBPM, are increasingly recommended by major guidelines to complement conventional OBP measurements in clinical practice (Table 2).^{101–104}

HBPM is defined as regular measurement of BP at home by the patient outside any clinical setting.³ Despite the widespread use of HBPM, there is no standardized protocol for its measurement, and this might result in an inaccurate assessment of BP. Therefore, it is vital to adopt a standardized protocol that has been validated.³ HBPM is recommended to be measured as such:

- BP measurement should be taken in a quiet room in a seated position using a validated automatic BP device with correct arm-cuff size.^{3,103,105}
- the patient should be seated with their back supported and feet flat on the floor with legs uncrossed, while the measuring arm should be relaxed and supported at heart level.^{3,105}

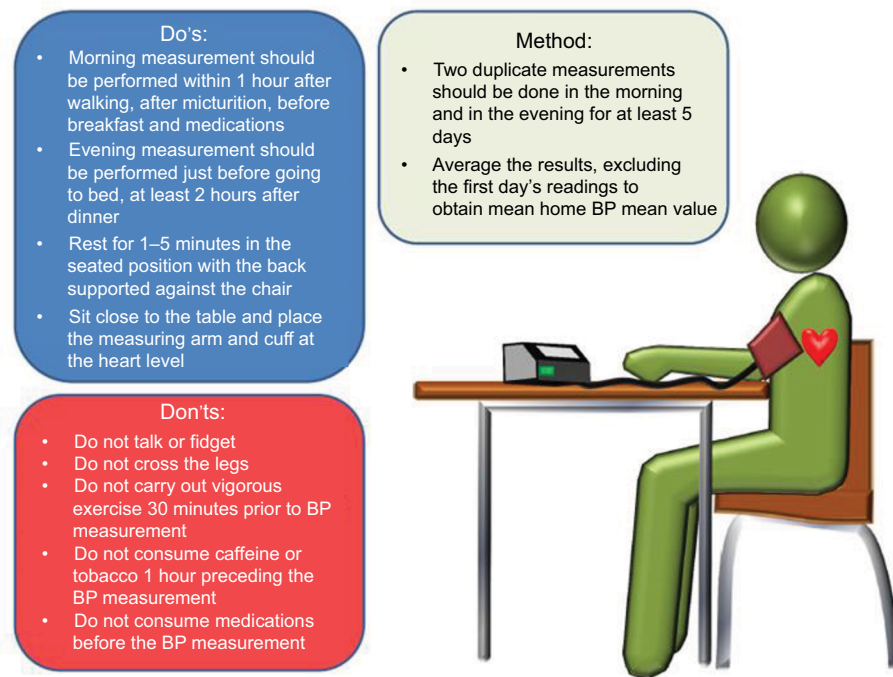


Figure 1 Measurement of home blood pressure (BP).

Note: Image created as per recommendations from JSH³⁹ and NICE⁴² guidelines.

Abbreviations: JSH, Japanese Society of Hypertension; NICE, National Institute for Health and Care Excellence.

- the patient should be in a comfortable and calm state while the measurement is made, and should have at least 1–5 minutes of seated rest before the measurement^{39,105,106}
- measurement should be taken before medication, food, or vigorous exercise and after micturition^{3,105,107–110}
- stimulants containing such products as coffee and cigarettes should not be consumed for 30 minutes before BP measurement.^{3,105}

Two measurements should be conducted, 1 minute apart, in the morning, as well as in the evening, for a total of 7 days (at least 5 days).^{94,105,111–113} Measurements should be taken at around the same time while maintaining similar conditions throughout the measuring period to minimize the BPV around the true mean BP value.¹¹⁴ HBP is then calculated by averaging systolic and diastolic BP recorded over the period after excluding the first day's readings.³ In general, HBP higher than 135/85 mmHg is accepted as the criterion for diagnosis of hypertension by various guidelines (Table 3).^{3,92,93,101,103,104,115} However, it has been found that many physicians may not follow this BP-cutoff point for diagnosis of hypertension, but instead use a higher BP cutoff (>140/90 mmHg) to diagnose hypertension based on HBPM recordings.^{116–118}

The consensus target HBP for antihypertensive treatment remains controversial. The recent American Heart

Association guidelines now recommend HBP of 135/85 mmHg as target for treatment in hypertensive patients and 130/80 mmHg in high-risk patients.¹¹⁵ Japanese Society of Hypertension guidelines, on the other hand, recommend HBP of 125/80 mmHg as target for treatment in young and middle-aged persons and 135/85 mmHg in the elderly.^{93,119}

ABPM is defined as the method of measuring BP readings noninvasively at short intervals over a 24-hour period with the aid of an automated BP device while the patient is going about their daily routine.^{39,105,120} An ABPM device automatically takes BP readings every 15 minutes during the day and 30 minutes at night over a 24-hour period.²³ Daytime for ABPM is defined as 9:00–21:00 while the patient is normally awake. On the other hand, nighttime is defined as 1:00–6:00 while the patient is asleep. A total of at least 20 valid readings when awake and seven valid readings while asleep (about 70% of total readings) are needed to confirm the results at the end of the 24-hour ABPM. The ABPM device automatically provides the user with unique data, such as 24-hour average BP, daytime (awake hours) BP, nighttime (sleeping) BP, dipping status, early-morning BP surge, BP load, trough:peak ratio, and smoothness index. The actual diagnosis of hypertension depends on the time frame of ABPM used.^{23,94} In general, patients with greater-than-average BP of 130/80 mmHg measured over a 24-hour

Table 2 Recommendations on out-of-office BP measurements from key international guidelines on hypertension

Indications	JSH 2014 ³⁹	NICE 2011 ⁴²	ESH/ESC 2013 ³⁴	CHEP 2015 ⁴³	AHA 2017 ⁴⁵
Confirmatory diagnosis of hypertension	If OBP is $\geq 140/90$ mmHg, first offer HBPM to confirm the diagnosis of hypertension. Offer ABPM if confirmatory diagnosis of hypertension with HBPM is difficult, such as when HBP fluctuates around high-normal values of 125/80–134/84 mmHg.	If OBP is $\geq 140/90$ mmHg, offer ABPM or HBPM (if the patient is unable to tolerate ABPM) to confirm the diagnosis of hypertension. However, if the patient has severe hypertension (ie, BP $\geq 180/110$ mmHg), start antihypertensive treatment immediately without waiting for the results of ABPM or HBPM. When an untreated patient has persistently elevated OBP readings, but has normal HBP or ABP values of $<135/85$ mmHg, white-coat hypertension may be present. When a hypertensive patient has disproportionately higher OBP readings than HBPM or ABPM readings, a white-coat effect may be present.	Out-of-office BP should be considered to confirm the diagnosis of hypertension. It is recommended to confirm borderline or abnormal findings on HBPM with ABPM.	If first-visit mean AOBP is $\geq 135/85$ –109 mmHg or the mean non-AOBP is $\geq 140/90$ mmHg, ABPM or HBPM should be performed before the second visit. If during the first visit, mean AOBP or non-AOBP SBP is $\geq 180/110$ mmHg, hypertension is diagnosed without the need for out-of-office BP measurements. ABPM is the gold standard for diagnosis of white-coat hypertension. HBPM can also be used to diagnose white-coat hypertension, but it should be confirmed by repeated HBPM or ABPM. The use of HBPM on a regular basis is recommended for hypertensive patients who have previously demonstrated a white-coat effect.	Diagnosis of hypertension for patients with OBP of $\geq 130/80$ mmHg should be confirmed with corresponding HBPM or ABPM values.
Identification and management of white-coat hypertension	If OBP is $\geq 140/90$ mmHg, first offer HBPM to detect white-coat hypertension. When a definitive diagnosis of white-coat hypertension cannot be made based on the HBP level, offer ABPM.	When a patient has normal OBP readings of $<140/90$ mmHg but elevated daytime ABPM and/or HBPM measurements of $\geq 135/85$ mmHg, masked hypertension may be present.	HBPM or ABPM is recommended to detect white-coat hypertension in untreated individuals with grade I hypertension without the presence of asymptomatic organ damage and at low total CV risk. HBPM or ABPM should also be used in identification of the white-coat effect in hypertensive patients.	ABPM is the gold standard for diagnosis of white-coat hypertension. HBPM can also be used to diagnose white-coat hypertension, but it should be confirmed by repeated HBPM or ABPM. The use of HBPM on a regular basis is recommended for hypertensive patients who have previously demonstrated a white-coat effect.	In untreated patients with OBP $\geq 130/80$ mmHg but $<160/100$ mmHg despite 3 months of lifestyle modification, offer ABPM or HBPM to screen for white-coat hypertension. In treated patients with OBP ≥ 5 –10 mmHg above target BP despite use of three or more antihypertensive agents, offer HBPM or ABPM to detect white-coat hypertension.
Identification and management of masked hypertension	If OBP is $<140/90$ mmHg, first offer HBPM to detect masked hypertension. When a definitive diagnosis of masked hypertension cannot be made based on the HBP level, offer ABPM.	When a patient has normal OBP readings of $<140/90$ mmHg but elevated daytime ABPM and/or HBPM measurements of $\geq 135/85$ mmHg, masked hypertension may be present.	HBPM or ABPM is recommended to detect masked hypertension in patients with high-normal OBP and/or normal OBP with asymptomatic organ damage or high total CV risk.	HBPM is useful for the diagnosis of masked hypertension, and its use on a regular basis should be considered for hypertensive patients who have previously demonstrated masked hypertension.	In untreated patients with OBP systolic BP 120–129 mmHg and diastolic BP <80 mmHg despite 3 months of lifestyle modification, offer ABPM or HBPM to screen for masked hypertension. In treated patients who are meeting OBP goal but at increased CVD risk or target-organ damage, offer HBPM or ABPM to detect masked hypertension.
Assessment and management of short-term BPV	Out-of-office BP measurements, such as HBPM and ABPM, should be used to monitor short-term BP changes, such as nocturnal dipping and early-morning BP surge to maximize CV-risk reduction.	Not discussed	ABPM is recommended to assess nocturnal dipping status and nocturnal hypertension or in cases where absence of dipping is suspected, such as in patients with sleep apnea, CKD, or diabetes.	The magnitude of changes in nocturnal BP should be taken into account in any decision to prescribe or withhold drug therapy based on ABPM results.	Not discussed

Assessment and management of hypertension treatment	HBPM is recommended for evaluation of effectiveness of current treatment, as well as to assess patient's adherence to treatment.	For patients identified as having a white-coat effect, consider ABPM or HBPM as an adjunct to OBPM measurements to monitor their response to treatment.	Out-of-office measurements should always be used together with office measurements to evaluate treatment targets, despite the current lack of direct evidence on BP targets for HBPM or ABPM.	HBPM should be used to monitor and improve compliance if a patient is suspected of non-adherence to treatment. ABPM should be used to monitor patients who are below their target BP, despite receiving appropriate chronic antihypertensive therapy.	HBPM and/or ABPM measurements are recommended in treatment evaluation, such as titration of BP-lowering medication in conjunction with telehealth counseling or clinical interventions.
---	--	---	---	---	---

Abbreviations: BP, blood pressure; JSH, Japanese Society of Hypertension; NICE, National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; ESH, European Society of Hypertension; ESC, European Society of Cardiology; CHEP, Canadian Hypertension Education Program; AHA, American Heart Association; BPV, BP variability; OBPM, office BP; ABPM, ambulatory BP; HBPM, home BP; HBP, home BP; HBPM, HBP monitoring; ABP, ambulatory BP; ABPM, ABP monitoring; AOBP, automated OBPM; CV, cardiovascular; CVD, cardiovascular disease; CKD, chronic kidney disease.

period are considered hypertensive.⁹⁴ In addition, a daytime average >135/85 mmHg or a nighttime average >120/70 mmHg are also considered hypertensive.⁹⁴

Understanding indices of short-term BPV

There are a few different methods to represent short-term BPV.¹⁵ SD of 24-hour average ABP values is one of the most commonly used parameters in measuring short-term BPV, but it is sometimes expressed as the weighted mean of daytime and nighttime BP levels to take into account the fall in BP during sleep.^{15,41,121} However, the validity of SD has been questioned as an appropriate index of short-term BPV, considering that it reflects only the dispersion of values around the mean, does not account for the order in which BP measurements are obtained, and is sensitive to the low sampling frequency of ABPM.¹²²

Therefore, other indices, eg, 24-hour weighted SD, CoV, and ARV, are also used to overcome the limitations of traditional SD values and provide more accurate assessment better to predict target-organ damage and cardiovascular risk:^{2,40–42}

- 24-hour SD can also be divided by the corresponding mean BP and multiplied by 100 to be expressed as a CoV;² CoV has been observed to have greater prognostic ability than SD, as it can pinpoint individuals whose BPV falls outside its anticipated range⁴
- 24-hour weighted SD is the average of daytime and nighttime BP that has been adjusted for the duration of the day and night period to account for day–night BP changes.⁴¹
- ARV is another index that is the average of the absolute differences between consecutive BP measurements, and some studies have shown it to be more reliable prognostic indicator compared to SD, as it is more sensitive to the individual BP-measurement sequence and less sensitive to low sampling frequency.^{4,2,40,123}

ABPM vs HBPM for assessment of short-term BPV

ABPM monitors changes in BP at many time points throughout the day in an unrestricted manner, whereas HBPM detects BP fluctuations under standardized conditions over a longer period.⁷⁸ Multiple readings of ABPM obtained within 24 hours allow for more detailed analyses of both night- and daytime readings, making ABPM more suitable than HBPM for monitoring of intraday BP fluctuations.^{14,23} As such, ABPM may provide several advantages over HBPM in providing more extensive information on BP changes throughout the day.²³

Table 3 Recommendations from key international guidelines on diagnosis of hypertension using OBP and out-of-office BP monitoring

	JSH 2014 ³⁹	NICE 2011 ¹⁴²	ESH/ESC 2013 ⁹⁴	CHEP 2015 ¹⁴³	AHA 2017 ¹⁰⁵
OBP	≥140/90 mmHg	≥140/90 mmHg	≥140/90 mmHg	AOBP ≥135/85 mmHg or non-AOBP ≥140/90 mmHg	OBP ≥130/80 mmHg with estimated 10-yr CV risk ≥10%
Home BP	≥135/85 mmHg	≥135/85 mmHg	≥135/85 mmHg	≥135/85 mmHg	≥130/80 mmHg with estimated 10-yr CV risk ≥10%
Ambulatory daytime ^a BP	≥135/85 mmHg	≥135/85 mmHg	≥135/85 mmHg	≥135/85 mmHg	≥130/80 mmHg with estimated 10-yr CV risk ≥10%
Ambulatory nighttime ^b BP	≥120/70 mmHg	–	≥120/70 mmHg	–	≥110/65 mmHg with estimated 10-yr CV risk ≥10%
Ambulatory 24-hour ^c BP	≥130/80 mmHg	–	≥130/80 mmHg	≥130/80 mmHg	≥125/75 mmHg with estimated 10-yr CV risk ≥10%

Notes: ^aAverage of BP readings taken while patient is awake; ^baverage of BP readings taken while patient is asleep; ^caverage of BP readings taken over a whole day (24 hours). **Abbreviations:** OBP, office blood pressure; JSH, Japanese Society of Hypertension; NICE, National Institute for Health and Care Excellence; ESH, European Society of Hypertension; ESC, European Society of Cardiology; CHEP, Canadian Hypertension Education Program; AHA, American Heart Association; AOBP, automated OBP; CV, cardiovascular.

Even though ABPM can provide extensive information, such as average day and night readings, BPV, morning BP surge, and BP load, ABPM still faces many issues regarding practicality, reproducibility, and long-term usage.^{2,3,23,78,124} Previously, only ABPM had the ability to record nocturnal BP values, which are superior to daytime values in predicting mortality.^{43,77,83,124–126} With recent developments and newer HBPM devices with the ability to record accurate nocturnal recordings, HBPM might offer a reliable alternative to ABPM for monitoring short-term BPV within a day.⁹⁵

HBPM is also highly practical and more affordable and accessible to patients compared with ABPM.¹²⁷ HBPM can also be easily repeated over prolonged periods (days to months) in the patient's own environment, making it more suitable for the monitoring of longer-term BPV in day-to-day or visit-to-visit parameters.^{2,23,95,104,128,129} As such, HBPM was found to be the more common tool used by physicians to diagnose hypertension, even though ABPM was ranked the more valuable tool for assessing hypertension.^{78,116} Moreover, mean BP values from HBPM are stable and highly reproducible, since they are obtained under fixed conditions and not easily influenced by changes in daily activities.⁷⁸ In addition, HBPM is easily available to the general public, and can thus be used in both normotensive and hypertensive individuals.^{78,130}

HBPM can also provide instant feedback directly to the health-care professional regarding the diagnosis and treatment of hypertension, while there is usually a delay in ABPM in relaying the information.^{78,131–134} However, HBPM is prone to patient-recording errors and improper BP-recording techniques, which may compromise the accuracy and reliability of the data.^{78,135,136} Therefore, it is useful to use a device with integrated memory, and patients should be properly trained

on the method for its use.^{2,23,78,105,137–139} On balance, HBPM has been suggested as the method of choice to monitor BPV over the long term in clinical practice by many guidelines, even though it may not provide insights as extensive as ABPM.^{2,58,92,93,103,104,140,141}

Conclusion

Short-term BPV within 24-hours is heavily influenced by circadian variations, resulting in many important phenotypes, such as morning BP surge, morning hypertension, nocturnal dipping, and nocturnal hypertension. Such variations in short-term BPV are only captured and reflected through out-of-office BP measurements like 24-hour ABPM or HBPM. As such, it is important to have a good understanding of proper use of these out-of-office measurements in a clinically validated manner. Both physicians and patients should be strongly encouraged to use ABPM and/or HBPM for monitoring BP, as a reduction in nocturnal hypertension and exaggerated morning BP surge are vital for the effective management of hypertension, rather than simply controlling average BP levels.

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to thank Ms. Tanaya Bharatan, Pfizer, for her editorial support with this manuscript.

Author contributions

All authors were involved in the conception, design, and analysis and interpretation of data. All authors were also involved in preparation of the manuscript, revising it for scientific content and final approval before its submission for publication.

Disclosure

KS and SS are employees of Pfizer. MTY underwent indirect patient-care pharmacy training for 3 months at Pfizer, Singapore. The other authors report no conflicts of interest in this work.

References

- World Health Organization. *A Global Brief on Hypertension: Silent Killer, Global Public Health Crisis*. Geneva: WHO; 2013.
- Parati G, Ochoa JE, Lombardi C, Bilo G. Assessment and management of blood-pressure variability. *Nat Rev Cardiol*. 2013;10(3):143–155.
- Sharman JE, Howes FS, Head GA, et al. Home blood pressure monitoring: Australian expert consensus statement. *J Hypertens*. 2015;33(9):1721–1728.
- Floras JS. Blood pressure variability: a novel and important risk factor. *Can J Cardiol*. 2013;29(5):557–563.
- Höcht C. Blood pressure variability: prognostic value and therapeutic implications. *ISRN Hypertens*. 2013;2013:398485.
- Silvani A. Physiological sleep-dependent changes in arterial blood pressure: central autonomic commands and baroreflex control. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol*. 2008;35(9):987–994.
- Koo DL, Nam H, Thomas RJ, Yun CH. Sleep disturbances as a risk factor for stroke. *J Stroke*. 2018;20(1):12–32.
- Silvani A, Magosso E, Bastianini S, Lenzi P, Ursino M. Mathematical modeling of cardiovascular coupling: central autonomic commands and baroreflex control. *Auton Neurosci*. 2011;162(1):66–71.
- Holt-Lunstad J, Jones BQ, Birmingham W. The influence of close relationships on nocturnal blood pressure dipping. *Int J Psychophysiol*. 2009;71(3):211–217.
- Mellman TA, Brown DD, Jenifer ES, Hipolito MM, Randall OS. Posttraumatic stress disorder and nocturnal blood pressure dipping in young adult African Americans. *Psychosom Med*. 2009;71(6):627–630.
- Kario K. Obstructive sleep apnea syndrome and hypertension: ambulatory blood pressure. *Hypertens Res*. 2009;32(6):428–432.
- Mancia G, Grassi G, Redon J, editors. *Manual of Hypertension of the European Society of Hypertension*. Abingdon: Taylor and Francis; 2008.
- Parati G, Ochoa JE, Bilo G. Blood pressure variability, cardiovascular risk, and risk for renal disease progression. *Curr Hypertens Rep*. 2012;14(5):421–431.
- Parati G, Ochoa JE, Salvi P, Lombardi C, Bilo G. Prognostic value of blood pressure variability and average blood pressure levels in patients with hypertension and diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2013;36 Suppl 2:S312–S324.
- Chenniappan M. Blood pressure variability: assessment, prognostic significance and management. *J Assoc Physicians India*. 2015;63(5):47–53.
- Mancia G, Ferrari A, Gregorini L, et al. Blood pressure and heart rate variabilities in normotensive and hypertensive human beings. *Circ Res*. 1983;53(1):96–104.
- Parati G, Ulian L, Santucci C, Omboni S, Mancia G. Difference between clinic and daytime blood pressure is not a measure of the white coat effect. *Hypertension*. 1998;31(5):1185–1189.
- Fagard RH, Cornelissen VA. Incidence of cardiovascular events in white-coat, masked and sustained hypertension versus true normotension: a meta-analysis. *J Hypertens*. 2007;25(11):2193–2198.
- Pickering TG, Davidson K, Gerin W, Schwartz JE. Masked hypertension. *Hypertension*. 2002;40(6):795–796.
- Stauss HM. Identification of blood pressure control mechanisms by power spectral analysis. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol*. 2007;34(4):362–368.
- Langager AM, Hammerberg BE, Rotella DL, Stauss HM. Very low-frequency blood pressure variability depends on voltage-gated L-type Ca²⁺ channels in conscious rats. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol*. 2007;292(3):H1321–H1327.
- Souza HC, Martins-Pinge MC, da Silva VJ, et al. Heart rate and arterial pressure variability in the experimental renovascular hypertension model in rats. *Auton Neurosci*. 2008;139(1):38–45.
- Priestner L, Khurana R. Home blood pressure monitoring, blood pressure variability and morning blood pressure surge. *Singapore Fam Physician*. 2016;42(2):64–69.
- Mancia G, Parati G, Pomidossi G, Casadei R, Di Rienzo M, Zanchetti A. Arterial baroreflexes and blood pressure and heart rate variabilities in humans. *Hypertension*. 1986;8(2):147–153.
- Parati G, Saul JP, Di Rienzo M, Mancia G. Spectral analysis of blood pressure and heart rate variability in evaluating cardiovascular regulation: a critical appraisal. *Hypertension*. 1995;25(6):1276–1286.
- Conway J, Boon N, Davies C, Jones JV, Sleight P. Neural and humoral mechanisms involved in blood pressure variability. *J Hypertens*. 1984;2(2):203–208.
- Parati G, Castiglioni P, Di Rienzo M, Omboni S, Pedotti A, Mancia G. Sequential spectral analysis of 24-hour blood pressure and pulse interval in humans. *Hypertension*. 1990;16(4):414–421.
- Schillaci G, Bilo G, Pucci G, et al. Relationship between short-term blood pressure variability and large-artery stiffness in human hypertension: findings from 2 large databases. *Hypertension*. 2012;60(2):369–377.
- Bertinieri G, Parati G, Ulian L, et al. Hemodilution reduces clinic and ambulatory blood pressure in polycythemic patients. *Hypertension*. 1998;31(3):848–853.
- Parati G, Pomidossi G, Albin F, Malaspina D, Mancia G. Relationship of 24-hour blood pressure mean and variability to severity of target-organ damage in hypertension. *J Hypertens*. 1987;5(1):93–98.
- Mancia G, Parati G, Hennig M, et al. Relation between blood pressure variability and carotid artery damage in hypertension: baseline data from the European Lacidipine Study on Atherosclerosis (ELSA). *J Hypertens*. 2001;19(11):1981–1989.
- Mancia G, Parati G. The role of blood pressure variability in end-organ damage. *J Hypertens Suppl*. 2003;21(6):S17–S23.
- Sega R, Corrao G, Bombelli M, et al. Blood pressure variability and organ damage in a general population: results from the PAMELA study (Pressioni Arteriose Monitorate e Loro Associazioni). *Hypertension*. 2002;39(2 Pt 2):710–714.
- Tatasciore A, Renda G, Zimarino M, et al. Awake systolic blood pressure variability correlates with target-organ damage in hypertensive subjects. *Hypertension*. 2007;50(2):325–332.
- Manios E, Tsagalis G, Tsigvoulis G, et al. Time rate of blood pressure variation is associated with impaired renal function in hypertensive patients. *J Hypertens*. 2009;27(11):2244–2248.
- Frattola A, Parati G, Cuspidi C, Albin F, Mancia G. Prognostic value of 24-hour blood pressure variability. *J Hypertens*. 1993;11(10):1133–1137.
- Sander D, Kukla C, Klingelhöfer J, Winbeck K, Conrad B. Relationship between circadian blood pressure patterns and progression of early carotid atherosclerosis: a 3-year follow-up study. *Circulation*. 2000;102(13):1536–1541.
- Stergiou GS, Parati G, Asmar R, O'Brien E. Requirements for professional office blood pressure monitors. *J Hypertens*. 2012;30(3):537–542.
- Shimamoto K, Ando K, Fujita T, et al. The Japanese Society of Hypertension guidelines for the management of hypertension (JSH 2014). *Hypertens Res*. 2014;37(4):253–390.
- Mena L, Pintos S, Queipo NV, Aizpuru JA, Maestre G, Sulbaran T. A reliable index for the prognostic significance of blood pressure variability. *J Hypertens*. 2005;23(3):505–511.
- Bilo G, Giglio A, Styczkiewicz K, et al. A new method for assessing 24-h blood pressure variability after excluding the contribution of nocturnal blood pressure fall. *J Hypertens*. 2007;25(10):2058–2066.

42. Stolarz-Skrzypek K, Thijs L, Richart T, et al. Blood pressure variability in relation to outcome in the international database of ambulatory blood pressure in relation to cardiovascular outcome. *Hypertens Res*. 2010;33(8):757–766.
43. Hansen TW, Li Y, Boggia J, Thijs L, Richart T, Staessen JA. Predictive role of the nighttime blood pressure. *Hypertension*. 2011;57(1):3–10.
44. Verdecchia P, Schillaci G, Gatteschi C, et al. Blunted nocturnal fall in blood pressure in hypertensive women with future cardiovascular morbid events. *Circulation*. 1993;88(3):986–992.
45. Boggia J, Li Y, Thijs L, et al. Prognostic accuracy of day versus night ambulatory blood pressure: a cohort study. *Lancet*. 2007;370(9594):1219–1229.
46. Lurbe E, Redon J, Kesani A, et al. Increase in nocturnal blood pressure and progression to microalbuminuria in type 1 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;347(11):797–805.
47. Verdecchia P, Angeli F, Mazzotta G, et al. Day-night dip and early-morning surge in blood pressure in hypertension: prognostic implications. *Hypertension*. 2012;60(1):34–42.
48. Shimbo D, Shea S, McClelland RL, et al. Associations of aortic distensibility and arterial elasticity with long-term visit-to-visit blood pressure variability: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA). *Am J Hypertens*. 2013;26(7):896–902.
49. Burkard T, Mayr M, Winterhalder C, Leonardi L, Eckstein J, Vischer AS. Reliability of single office blood pressure measurements. *Heart*. Epub 2018 Mar 12.
50. Sheppard JP, Martin U, Gill P, Stevens R, McManus RJ. Prospective Register of Patients Undergoing Repeated Office and Ambulatory Blood Pressure Monitoring (PROOF-ABPM): protocol for an observational cohort study. *BMJ Open*. 2016;6(10):e012607.
51. Sebo P, Pechere-Bertschi A, Herrmann FR, Haller DM, Bovier P. Blood pressure measurements are unreliable to diagnose hypertension in primary care. *J Hypertens*. 2014;32(3):509–517.
52. Levy J, Gerber LM, Wu X, Mann SJ. Nonadherence to recommended guidelines for blood pressure measurement. *J Clin Hypertens*. 2016;18(11):1157–1161.
53. Kikuya M, Ohkubo T, Metoki H, et al. Day-by-day variability of blood pressure and heart rate at home as a novel predictor of prognosis: the Ohasama study. *Hypertension*. 2008;52(6):1045–1050.
54. Rothwell PM, Howard SC, Dolan E, et al. Prognostic significance of visit-to-visit variability, maximum systolic blood pressure, and episodic hypertension. *Lancet*. 2010;375(9718):895–905.
55. Johansson JK, Niiranen TJ, Puukka PJ, Jula AM. Prognostic value of the variability in home-measured blood pressure and heart rate: the Finn-Home Study. *Hypertension*. 2012;59(2):212–218.
56. Shimbo D, Newman JD, Aragaki AK, et al. Association between annual visit-to-visit blood pressure variability and stroke in postmenopausal women: data from the Women's Health Initiative. *Hypertension*. 2012;60(3):625–630.
57. Muntner P, Shimbo D, Tonelli M, Reynolds K, Arnett DK, Oparil S. The relationship between visit-to-visit variability in systolic blood pressure and all-cause mortality in the general population: findings from NHANES III, 1988 to 1994. *Hypertension*. 2011;57(2):160–166.
58. Pickering TG, Hall JE, Appel LJ, et al. Recommendations for blood pressure measurement in humans and experimental animals – part 1: blood pressure measurement in humans – a statement for professionals from the Subcommittee of Professional and Public Education of the American Heart Association Council on High Blood Pressure Research. *Circulation*. 2005;111(5):697–716.
59. Kario K, Tomitani N, Matsumoto Y, et al. Research and development of information and communication technology-based home blood pressure monitoring from morning to nocturnal hypertension. *Ann Glob Health*. 2016;82(2):254–273.
60. Kario K, Schwartz JE, Davidson KW, Pickering TG. Gender differences in associations of diurnal blood pressure variation, awake physical activity, and sleep quality with negative affect: the work site blood pressure study. *Hypertension*. 2001;38(5):997–1002.
61. Kario K. *Essential Manual of 24-Hour Blood Pressure Management from Morning to Nocturnal Hypertension*. London: Wiley-Blackwell; 2015.
62. Lurbe E, Redon J, Kesani A, et al. Increase in Nocturnal blood pressure and progression to microalbuminuria in type 1 diabetes. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;347(11):797–805.
63. Metoki H, Ohkubo T, Kikuya M, et al. Prognostic significance for stroke of a morning pressor surge and a nocturnal blood pressure decline: the Ohasama study. *Hypertension*. 2006;47(2):149–154.
64. Ohkubo T, Hozawa A, Yamaguchi J, et al. Prognostic significance of the nocturnal decline in blood pressure in individuals with and without high 24-h blood pressure: the Ohasama study. *J Hypertens*. 2002;20(11):2183–2189.
65. Verdecchia P. Prognostic value of ambulatory blood pressure: current evidence and clinical implications. *Hypertension*. 2000;35(3):844–851.
66. Kario K, Pickering TG, Umeda Y, et al. Morning surge in blood pressure as a predictor of silent and clinical cerebrovascular disease in elderly hypertensives: a prospective study. *Circulation*. 2003;107(10):1401–1406.
67. Kario K, Ishikawa J, Pickering TG, et al. Morning hypertension: the strongest independent risk factor for stroke in elderly hypertensive patients. *Hypertens Res*. 2006;29:581.
68. Amici A, Cicconetti P, Sagrafoli C, et al. Exaggerated morning blood pressure surge and cardiovascular events. a 5-year longitudinal study in normotensive and well-controlled hypertensive elderly. *Arch Gerontol Geriatr*. 2009;49(2):e105–e109.
69. Floras JS, Jones JV, Hassan MO, Osikowska B, Sever PS, Sleight P. Cuff and ambulatory blood pressure in subjects with essential hypertension. *Lancet*. 1981;2(8238):107–109.
70. Verdecchia P, Angeli F, Borgioni C, et al. Prognostic value of circadian blood pressure changes in relation to differing measures of day and night. *J Am Soc Hypertens*. 2008;2(2):88–96.
71. Ohkubo T, Imai Y, Tsuji I, et al. Relation between nocturnal decline in blood pressure and mortality: the Ohasama study. *Am J Hypertens*. 1997;10(11):1201–1207.
72. Fagard RH. Dipping pattern of nocturnal blood pressure in patients with hypertension. *Expert Rev Cardiovasc Ther*. 2009;7(6):599–605.
73. Dolan E, Stanton A, Thijs L, et al. Superiority of ambulatory over clinic blood pressure measurement in predicting mortality: the Dublin outcome study. *Hypertension*. 2005;46(1):156–161.
74. Mead MA, J, Griffith, K.E., Kassaianos, G.; Khan, E.; Lewis, P.; Vora, J. Controlling blood pressure over 24 hours: a review of the evidence. *Br J Cardiol*. 2008;15(1):31–34.
75. Irigoyen MC, de Angelis K, dos Santos F, Dartora DR, Rodrigues B, Consolim-Colombo FM. Hypertension, blood pressure variability, and target organ lesion. *Curr Hypertens Rep*. 2016;18(4):31.
76. Xie JC, Yan H, Zhao YX, Liu XY. Prognostic value of morning blood pressure surge in clinical events: a meta-analysis of longitudinal studies. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*. 2015;24(2):362–369.
77. Staessen JA, Thijs L, Fagard R, et al. Predicting cardiovascular risk using conventional vs ambulatory blood pressure in older patients with systolic hypertension. *JAMA*. 1999;282(6):539–546.
78. Imai Y, Obara T, Asamaya K, Ohkubo T. The reason why home blood pressure measurements are preferred over clinic or ambulatory blood pressure in Japan. *Hypertens Res*. 2013;36(8):661–672.
79. Kario K, Saito I, Kushiro T, et al. Home blood pressure and cardiovascular outcomes in patients during antihypertensive therapy: primary results of HONEST, a large-scale prospective, real-world observational study. *Hypertension*. 2014;64(5):989–996.
80. Hoshide S, Kario K, Hoshide Y, et al. Associations between nondipping of nocturnal blood pressure decrease and cardiovascular target organ damage in strictly selected community-dwelling normotensives. *Am J Hypertens*. 2003;16(6):434–438.
81. Hoshide S, Ishikawa J, Eguchi K, Ojima T, Shimada K, Kario K. Masked nocturnal hypertension and target organ damage in hypertensives with well-controlled self-measured home blood pressure. *Hypertens Res*. 2007;30(2):143–149.

82. Li Y, Staessen JA, Lu L, Li LH, Wang GL, Wang JG. Is isolated nocturnal hypertension a novel clinical entity? Findings from a Chinese population study. *Hypertension*. 2007;50(2):333–339.
83. Sega R, Facchetti R, Bombelli M, et al. Prognostic value of ambulatory and home blood pressures compared with office blood pressure in the general population: follow-up results from the Pressioni Arteriose Monitorate e Loro Associazioni (PAMELA) study. *Circulation*. 2005;111(14):1777–1783.
84. Kario K. Proposal of a new strategy for ambulatory blood pressure profile-based management of resistant hypertension in the era of renal denervation. *Hypertens Res*. 2013;36(6):478–484.
85. Ishikawa J, Hoshida S, Eguchi K, Ishikawa S, Shimada K, Kario K. Nighttime home blood pressure and the risk of hypertensive target organ damage. *Hypertension*. 2012;60(4):921–928.
86. Chonan K, Kikuya M, Araki T, et al. Device for the self-measurement of blood pressure that can monitor blood pressure during sleep. *Blood Press Monit*. 2001;6(4):203–205.
87. Hosohata K, Kikuya M, Ohkubo T, et al. Reproducibility of nocturnal blood pressure assessed by self-measurement of blood pressure at home. *Hypertens Res*. 2007;30(8):707–712.
88. Shimada K, Kario K, Umeda Y, Hoshida S, Hoshida Y, Eguchi K. Early morning surge in blood pressure. *Blood Press Monit*. 2001;6(6):349–353.
89. Wang JG, Kario K, Chen CH, et al. Management of morning hypertension: a consensus statement of an Asian expert panel. *J Clin Hypertens*. 2018;20(1):39–44.
90. Wizner B, Dechering DG, Thijs L, et al. Short-term and long-term repeatability of the morning blood pressure in older patients with isolated systolic hypertension. *J Hypertens*. 2008;26(7):1328–1335.
91. Kario K. Time for focus on morning hypertension: pitfall of current antihypertensive medication. *Am J Hypertens*. 2005;18(2 Pt 1):149–151.
92. Imai Y, Otsuka K, Kawano Y, et al. Japanese Society of Hypertension (JSH) guidelines for self-monitoring of blood pressure at home. *Hypertens Res*. 2003;26(10):771–782.
93. Imai Y, Kario K, Shimada K, et al. The Japanese Society of Hypertension guidelines for self-monitoring of blood pressure at home (second edition). *Hypertens Res*. 2012;35(8):777–795.
94. Mancia G, Fagard R, Narkiewicz K, et al. 2013 ESH/ESC guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension. *J Hypertens*. 2013;31(7):1281–1357.
95. Stergiou GS, Bliziotis IA. Home blood pressure monitoring in the diagnosis and treatment of hypertension: a systematic review. *Am J Hypertens*. 2011;24(2):123–134.
96. Fuchs SC, Mello RG, Fuchs FC. Home blood pressure monitoring is better predictor of cardiovascular disease and target organ damage than office blood pressure: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Curr Cardiol Rep*. 2013;15(11):413.
97. Ward AM, Takahashi O, Stevens R, Heneghan C. Home measurement of blood pressure and cardiovascular disease: systematic review and meta-analysis of prospective studies. *J Hypertens*. 2012;30(3):449–456.
98. Bliziotis IA, Destounis A, Stergiou GS. Home versus ambulatory and office blood pressure in predicting target organ damage in hypertension: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Hypertens*. 2012;30(7):1289–1299.
99. Ohkubo T, Imai Y, Tsuji I, et al. Prediction of mortality by ambulatory blood pressure monitoring versus screening blood pressure measurements: a pilot study in Ohasama. *J Hypertens*. 1997;15(4):357–364.
100. [No authors listed]. Hypertension in Diabetes Study (HDS) – II: increased risk of cardiovascular complications in hypertensive type 2 diabetic patients. *J Hypertens*. 1993;11(3):319–325.
101. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, et al. The seventh report of the Joint National Committee on Prevention, Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Pressure: the JNC 7 report. *JAMA*. 2003;289(19):2560–2572.
102. Parati G, Pickering TG. Home blood-pressure monitoring: US and European consensus. *Lancet*. 2009;373(9667):876–878.
103. Mancia G, de Backer G, Dominiczak A, et al. 2007 Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension. *J Hypertens*. 2007;25(6):1105–1187.
104. Parati G, Stergiou GS, Asmar R, et al. European Society of Hypertension guidelines for blood pressure monitoring at home: a summary report of the Second International Consensus Conference on Home Blood Pressure Monitoring. *J Hypertens*. 2008;26(8):1505–1526.
105. Whelton PK, Carey RM, Aronow WS, et al. 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. *Hypertension*. Epub 2017 Nov 13.
106. Boivin JM, Boutte E, Fay R, Rossignol P, Zannad F. Home blood pressure monitoring: a few minutes of rest before measurement may not be appropriate. *Am J Hypertens*. 2014;27(7):932–938.
107. Asayama K, Ohkubo T, Kikuya M, et al. Prediction of stroke by home “morning” versus “evening” blood pressure values: the Ohasama study. *Hypertension*. 2006;48(4):737–743.
108. Eguchi K, Pickering TG, Hoshida S, et al. Ambulatory blood pressure is a better marker than clinic blood pressure in predicting cardiovascular events in patients with/without type 2 diabetes. *Am J Hypertens*. 2008;21(4):443–450.
109. Hoshida S, Kario K, Yano Y, et al. Association of morning and evening blood pressure at home with asymptomatic organ damage in the J-HOP study. *Am J Hypertens*. 2014;27(7):939–947.
110. Kamoi K. Usefulness of morning home blood pressure measurements in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: results of a 10-year, prospective, longitudinal study. *Clin Exp Hyperten*. 2014;30:30.
111. Verberk WJ, Kroon AA, Kessels AG, et al. The optimal scheme of self blood pressure measurement as determined from ambulatory blood pressure recordings. *J Hypertens*. 2006;24(8):1541–1548.
112. Niiranen TJ, Johansson JK, Reunanen A, Jula AM. Optimal schedule for home blood pressure measurement based on prognostic data: the Finn-Home study. *Hypertension*. 2011;57(6):1081–1086.
113. Niiranen TJ, Asayama K, Thijs L, et al. Optimal number of days for home blood pressure measurement. *Am J Hypertens*. 2015;28(5):595–603.
114. Linden A. Assessing regression to the mean effects in health care initiatives. *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 2013;13:119.
115. Pickering TG, Miller NH, Oggedegbe G, Krakoff LR, Artinian NT, Goff D. Call to action on use and reimbursement for home blood pressure monitoring: executive summary: a joint scientific statement from the American Heart Association, American Society Of Hypertension, and Preventive Cardiovascular Nurses Association. *Hypertension*. 2008;52(1):1–9.
116. Setia S, Subramaniam K, Tay JC, Teo BW. Hypertension and blood pressure variability management practices among physicians in Singapore. *Vasc Health Risk Manag*. 2017;13:275–285.
117. Setia S, Subramaniam K, Teo BW, Tay JC. Ambulatory and home blood pressure monitoring: gaps between clinical guidelines and clinical practice in Singapore. *Int J Gen Med*. 2017;10:189–197.
118. Redon J, Erdine S, Böhm M, et al. Physician attitudes to blood pressure control: findings from the Supporting Hypertension Awareness and Research Europe-wide survey. *J Hypertens*. 2011;29(8):1633–1640.
119. Ogihara T, Kikuchi K, Matsuoka H, et al. The Japanese Society of Hypertension guidelines for the management of hypertension (JSH 2009). *Hypertens Res*. 2009;32(1):3–107.
120. Grossman E. Ambulatory blood pressure monitoring in the diagnosis and management of hypertension. *Diabetes Care*. 2013;36 Suppl 2:S307–S311.
121. Bilo G, Giglio A, Styczkiewicz K, et al. How to improve the assessment of 24-h blood pressure variability. *Blood Press Monit*. 2005;10(6):321–323.
122. Pierdomenico SD, Di Nicola M, Esposito AL, et al. Prognostic value of different indices of blood pressure variability in hypertensive patients. *Am J Hypertens*. 2009;22(8):842–847.

123. Jullien V, Azoulay E, Schwebel C, et al. Population pharmacokinetics of micafungin in ICU patients with sepsis and mechanical ventilation. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2017;72(1):181–189.
124. Mancia G, Di Rienzo M, Parati G. Ambulatory blood pressure monitoring use in hypertension research and clinical practice. *Hypertension.* 1993;21(4):510–524.
125. Kikuya M, Ohkubo T, Asayama K, et al. Ambulatory blood pressure and 10-year risk of cardiovascular and noncardiovascular mortality: the Ohasama study. *Hypertension.* 2005;45(2):240–245.
126. Fagard RH, van den Broeke C, de Cort P. Prognostic significance of blood pressure measured in the office, at home and during ambulatory monitoring in older patients in general practice. *J Hum Hypertens.* 2005;19(10):801–807.
127. Park S, Buranakitjaroen P, Chen CH, et al. Expert panel consensus recommendations for home blood pressure monitoring in Asia: the Hope Asia Network. *J Hum Hypertens.* 2018;32(4):249–258.
128. O'Brien E, Asmar R, Beilin L, et al. European Society of Hypertension recommendations for conventional, ambulatory and home blood pressure measurement. *J Hypertens.* 2003;21(5):821–848.
129. Masding MG, Jones JR, Bartley E, Sandeman DD. Assessment of blood pressure in patients with type 2 diabetes: comparison between home blood pressure monitoring, clinic blood pressure measurement and 24-h ambulatory blood pressure monitoring. *Diabet Med.* 2001;18(6):431–437.
130. Obara T, Ohkubo T, Tanaka K, et al. Pharmacists' awareness and attitude toward blood pressure measurement at home and in the pharmacy in Japan. *Clin Exp Hypertens.* 2012;34(6):447–455.
131. Bosworth HB, Olsen MK, Grubber JM, et al. Two self-management interventions to improve hypertension control: a randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med.* 2009;151(10):687–695.
132. Stahl SM, Kelley CR, Neill PJ, Grim CE, Mamlin J. Effects of home blood pressure measurement on long-term BP control. *Am J Public Health.* 1984;74(7):704–709.
133. Baguet JP, Mallion JM. Self-monitoring of blood pressure should be used in clinical trials. *Blood Press Monit.* 2002;7(1):55–59.
134. Lambert-Kerzner A, Havranek EP, Plomondon ME, et al. Patients' perspectives of a multifaceted intervention with a focus on technology: a qualitative analysis. *Circ Cardiovasc Qual Outcomes.* 2010;3(6):668–674.
135. Mengden T, Schwartzkopff B, Strauer BE. What is the value of home (self) blood pressure monitoring in patients with hypertensive heart disease? *Am J Hypertens.* 1998;11(7):813–819.
136. Myers M. Self-measurement of blood pressure at home: the potential for reporting bias. *Blood Press Monit.* 1998;3 Suppl 1:S19–S22.
137. Johnson KA, Partsch DJ, Rippole LL, McVey DM. Reliability of self-reported blood pressure measurements. *Arch Intern Med.* 1999;159(22):2689–2693.
138. Mengden T, Medina RM, Beltran B, Alvarez E, Kraft K, Vetter H. Reliability of reporting self-measured blood pressure values by hypertensive patients. *Am J Hypertens.* 1998;11(12):1413–1417.
139. Matsumoto S, Fukui M, Hamaguchi M, et al. Is home blood pressure reporting in patients with type 2 diabetes reliable? *Hypertens Res.* 2014;37(8):741–745.
140. McManus RJ, Mant J, Roalfe A, et al. Targets and self monitoring in hypertension: randomised controlled trial and cost effectiveness analysis. *BMJ.* 2005;331(7515):493.
141. Whitworth JA. 2003 World Health Organization (WHO)/International Society of Hypertension (ISH) statement on management of hypertension. *J Hypertens.* 2003;21(11):1983–1992.
142. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. *Hypertension in Adults: Diagnosis and Management.* London: NICE; 2011.
143. Houle SK, Padwal R, Poirier L, Tsuyuki RT. The 2015 Canadian Hypertension Education Program (CHEP) guidelines for pharmacists: an update. *Can Pharm J (Ott).* 2015;148(4):180–186.

International Journal of General Medicine

Publish your work in this journal

The International Journal of General Medicine is an international, peer-reviewed open-access journal that focuses on general and internal medicine, pathogenesis, epidemiology, diagnosis, monitoring and treatment protocols. The journal is characterized by the rapid reporting of reviews, original research and clinical studies across all disease areas.

Submit your manuscript here: <https://www.dovepress.com/international-journal-of-general-medicine-journal>

Dovepress

The manuscript management system is completely online and includes a very quick and fair peer-review system, which is all easy to use. Visit <http://www.dovepress.com/testimonials.php> to read real quotes from published authors.