IS THERE ANY DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DIETARY HABITS IN HYPER-TENSIVES, HYPERLIPIDEMICS, OBESE, SMOKER INDIVIDUALS AND THE NORMAL POPULATION?

Javed Hussain Akhtar⁽¹⁾, Nizal Sarrafzadegan⁽²⁾, Noushin Mohammadifard⁽³⁾, Roya Kelishadi⁽⁴⁾, Zahra Dana Siadat⁽⁵⁾, Mojgan Gharipour⁽⁶⁾

Abstract

BACKGROUND: Cardiovascular disease has been remained the leading cause of death worldwide. This study has been designed to comprise dietary habits of persons with cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors and those without them.

METHOD AND MATERIALS: This cross-sectional study was performed on samples of a national community- based program for CVD prevention and control entitled Isfahan Healthy Heart Program (IHHP) including 12514 adults, aged≥ 19 years, 6391(51.1%) females and 6123(48.9%) males. All participants were interviewed by trained personnel who used a validated qualitative 48 item food frequency questionnaire (FFQ) to determine nutritional status. Blood pressure, serum lipids including triglycerides, total cholesterol, LDL-Cholesterol and HDL-Cholesterol, weight and height were measured and smoking habit was determined by a questionnaire. The frequency of food consumption of persons with and without the risk factors was compared by student t- test. The analysis was performed by SPSS version 11.5.

RESULTS: Our results show that the prevalence of dyslipidemia, hypertension, smoking and obesity are 54%, 16.8%, 15.1% and 16.8%, respectively. Hypertensive and dyslipidemic subjects have significantly more frequent consumption of healthy foods (P < 0.05), in comparison to normotensive and normolipidemic whereas smokers and obese participants have a significantly higher consumption of unhealthy foods (P < 0.01) in comparison to non-smokes and the nonobese subjects.

CONCLUSION: Our results showed that dyslipidemic and hypertensive individuals have more attention on their dietary habits. In contrast, obese and smoker persons have less attention to a healthy diet.

Keywords: Hypertesion, Dyslipidemia, Obesity, Smoking, Nutrition, Adult.

ARYA Atherosclerosis Journal 2008, 4(3): 112-120

Date of submission: 25 Jun 2008, Date of acceptance: 10 Aug 2008

Introduction

Despite numerous progress in diagnosis and treatment, cardiovascular disease (CVD) has been remained the leading cause of death worldwide affecting millions of people in both developed and developing countries.1 Accumulating evidence coming up from numerous studies,2-6 has identified hyperlipidemia and hypertension (HTN),7 as two major risk factors for stroke, congestive heart failure, renal disease and myocardial infarction.8,9 Ac-

cording to the World Health Organization (WHO), it is estimated that high cholesterol causes approximately one third of all CVD worldwide. 10 Also the number of people with high blood pressure levels, worldwide, is estimated to be about 600 million and the annual mortality attributable to hypertension is estimated to be about 7.14 million deaths .It is estimated that hypertension is responsible for about 17% of total annual mortality or in other words, for approximately 680 thousands deaths annually.11

- 1) General Physician, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.
- 2) Professor, Isfahan Cardiovascular Research Center (ICRC), Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.
- 3) MSc, Department of Nutrition, Isfahan Cardiovascular Research Center (ICRC), Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran. E-mail: mohammadifard@crc.mui.ac.ir
- 4) Associate Professor, Department of Preventive Pediatric Cardiology, Isfahan Cardiovascular Research Center, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.
- 5) Isfahan Cardiovascular Research Center (ICRC), Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.
- 6) Clinical Biochemist, Isfahan Cardiovascular Research Center (ICRC), Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran.

Corresponding Author: Noushin Mohammadifard

It should be noted that the relationship between hyperlipidemia and atherosclerosis might be influenced by individual's lifestyle related factors, such as smoking, physical activity and psychosocial conditions.² It is also known that well balanced dietary patterns, like the Mediterranean diet, are strongly related with blood lipids levels, as well as with the prevalence and the management of dyslipidemia.¹²⁻¹⁶ Furthermore, it is encouraging that, primary and secondary prevention trials,¹⁷ have provided strong evidence that lowering serum cholesterol levels can be translated into a reduction in mortality rates from CVD.

The prevalence of obesity is increasingly recognized as a global health problem, and the WHO MONICA project has associated the increasing dietary energy supply with the increase in personal weight in Western countries. The consequence from excessive weight gain and obesity, defined by body mass index (BMI) equal to or over 30, is the increased risk of various diseases, including CVD and diabetes. Obesity lowers quality of life, decreases productivity, and results in billions of dollars in associated health care costs. Other reports have provided a more direct analysis on causality of food intakes and body weight status by examining data or data bases which contain individual records of food consumption and anthropometrics. 19-23

Generally, non-smokers possess a healthier lifestyle than smokers. Concerning food habits, smokers consume more coffee and alcohol, ²⁴⁻²⁶ but include less fruits, vegetables, ^{24,27,28} brown bread and skimmed milk in daily intake than nonsmokers. ²⁶ It has also been shown that smoking is correlated to a higher percentage of energy from fat, ^{29,30} and lower intakes of selected antioxidants than non-smoking. ³¹ The prevalence of hypertension, ²⁹ and elevated cholesterol, ^{29,32} and triglycerides ^{27,29,32} are higher in smokers than in nonsmokers, and so is the prevalence of inactivity. ³³

The food supplies and, therefore, the diets in developing countries are in a state of rapid transition. Iran is not an exception to this nutritional transition. Growing incidence and mortality of CVD and its probable relation to life style and dietary regimen suggest cost effective, feasible and appropriate methods for prevention and control of these diseases.

The limited current data regarding the dietary habits of hyperlipidemic and hypertensive people in Iran, in combination with the considerable variability of hyperlipidemia and hypertension between countries, as well as within countries, and between different areas and population groups, motivated us to conduct a study in which we looked for the differences between dietary habits of hyperlipidimics, hypertensives, obese, smokers and the normal population.

Materials and Methods

Subjects

In 2000-2001, as the baseline cross-sectional study of a national community- based program for CVD prevention and control called Isfahan Healthy Heart Program (IHHP) was performed. Examination survey design has been conducted in Isfahan, Najaf-Abad and Arak in the central part of Iran using a multistage, stratified sampling through a home interview. The methodology has been previously published in details. HHP had three phases. In the first phase, situational analysis was carried out. About 12514 adult individuals (over 19 years) in these three communities were selected. This study was carried out from data collection of first phase of this program.

Data Collection

Subjects were invited to 3 clinics in each community where the study was done; informed consent was obtained when an adult participant arrived at the clinic.

Height was measured with a portable GPM anthropometer and weight with a portable balance calibrated scale. Standard techniques were used with participants wearing light clothing.¹9 Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight/height² (kg/m²), and categorized into non-obese with BMI < 30 and obese with BMI ≥ 30. Blood pressure (BP) was measured three times with an interval of 10 minutes rest in sitting position using a mercury sphygmomanometer, and the mean was calculated. Hypertension (HTN) was defined as systolic BP ≥ 130 mmHg and or diastolic BP ≥ 90 mmHg or self reported use of anti-hypertensive medications during the medical history interview.¹9

Participants were asked to keep fast for 12 hours prior to the examinations and to bring all medical records and also prescription and nonprescription drugs that they used regularly to the clinic. The blood samples of three districts were transferred to Isfahan Cardiovascular Research Center (ICRC) laboratory. Serum total cholesterol (TC) and triglycerides (TG) were measured using enzymatic colo-

rimetric methods. High-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) was determined after dextran sulphate-magnesium chloride precipitation of non-HDL cholesterol. Low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) was derived from the Friedewald equation, us subjects with TG < 400. Dyslipidemia was defined as TC \geq 240 or TG \geq 200 or LDL \geq 160 or HDL \leq 40. Also current smokers were determined by asking related questions. The individuals who smoke currently are defined as smokers and others are defined as non-smokers.

For quality control, the central laboratory meets the criteria of the national reference laboratory of the Ministry of Health in Iran which is a WHO collaborating center in Tehran. Also, external standardization was done with the central laboratory of the University Hospital of Leuven in Belgium. For dietary assessment within the framework of the validated qualitative 48-item food frequency questionnaire (FFQ), subjects were asked how often in the past year they had eaten the food items by trained interviewers.²¹ In this study the frequency consumption per week of 16 items including hydrogenated oil, un-hydrogenated oil, red meat, chicken, fish, bread, rice, fresh fruits, fresh vegetables, nuts, canned foods, sausage, hamburger, pizza, carbonated beverages, sweets (cakes, cookies and biscuits) of foods were determined.

Statistical analysis

All comparisons among two groups of samples, dyslipidemic-normolipidemic, hypertensive normotensive, obese and non-obese, smoker and non-smoker in relation to normally distributed continuous variables were performed using the student t-test. Every reported p-value (P) is based on two-sided tests and compared to a significance level of 0.01. SPSS version 11.5 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, SPSS Inc, Chicago, Illinois, U.S.A.) software was used for statistical analysis.

Results

Our sample consists of 12514 persons, 6391(51.1%) females and 6123 (48.9%) males and

9093(72.6%) urban and 3421(27.3%) rural population

Table 1 shows the frequency of population with and without dyslipidemia, hypertension, obesity and smoking. Prevalence of dyslipidemia is 54% in the total population. Furthermore prevalence of HTN is 16.8%, 16.8% of participants were obese, and 15.1% of participants were smokers, respectively (Table 1). Table 2 shows the relation between the items of foods consumed and the presence of any type of dyslipidemia. In comparison of food habits between dyslipidemic and non-dyslipidemic participants, we found significant difference in the intake frequency of hydrogenated oil, red meat, chicken, fish, bread, rice, sweets (cake, cookies and biscuits) (P < 0.01), (Table2). In HTN and non-HTN participants, we detected significant difference (P < 0.01) consumption of hydrogenated oil, unhydrogenated oil, red meat, fish, bread, rice, nuts, canned foods, sausage, hamburger, pizza, carbonated beverages, and sweets (Table 3). Dietary habits in obese and non-obese participants (Table 4) revealed significant difference (P < 0.01) in frequency consumption of hydrogenated oil, unhydrogenated oil, red meat, fish, bread, rice, fresh fruits, fresh vegetables, nuts, hamburger, carbonated beverages, sweets. In comparing smoker and non-smoker participants, there was a significant difference (P < 0.01) in frequency consumption of bread, canned food, sausage, hamburger, pizza, carbonated beverages, cake, cookies and biscuits (Table 5).

Table 1: The prevalence of dyslipidemia, hypertension, and obesity smoking in 12514 Iranian adults' population, 2000-2001

Risk factors (n = 12514)	Yes	No
Dyslipidemia mg/dl		
$TC \ge 240$	18.89	81.11
$TG \ge 200$	27.14	72.86
$LDL \ge 160$	15.00	85.00
$HDL \le 40$	29.66	70.34
Obesity (BMI \geq 30)	16.78	83.22
Hypertension (BP \geq 140/90)	16.77	83.23
(mmHg)	15.01	83.99
Current smoking	-	

Table 2: Comparison between food frequency consumption (per week) in dyslipidemic and normolipidemic of 12514 Ira-

nian adults' population, 2000-2001

Food items —	Dyslipidemia		- * P
rood items —	Yes	No	– r
Hydrogenated oil	8.56 ± 4.95	8.96 ± 4.80	< 0.01
Un hydrogenated oil	2.14 ± 3.51	2.01 ± 3.52	0.05
Red meat	4.06 ± 2.83	4.26 ± 2.72	< 0.01
Chicken	1.93 ± 2.74	1.80 ± 2.74	< 0.01
Fish	0.47 ± 1.82	0.42 ± 1.72	< 0.01
Bread	17.73 ± 0.90	17.52 ± 0.86	0.049
Rice	5.89 ± 5.68	6.02 ± 5.47	0.027
Fresh fruits	6.82 ± 4.22	6.90 ± 4.24	0.322
Fresh vegetables	6.24 ± 3.83	6.14 ± 3.99	0.160
Nuts	0.34 ± 1.10	0.40 ± 1.14	< 0.01
Canned foods	0.30 ± 0.73	0.32 ± 0.73	0.099
Sausage	0.62 ± 1.36	0.67 ± 1.23	0.036
Hamburger	0.14 ± 0.54	0.16 ± 0.56	0.032
Pizza	0.08 ± 0.36	0.09 ± 0.31	0.109
Carbonated beverages	1.44 ± 3.21	1.46 ± 3.10	0.507
Sweets (Cakes, Cookies and Biscuits)	2.59 ± 2.38	3.17 ± 2.50	< 0.01

P< 0.01 indicates significant difference among two groups.

Table 3: Comparison between food frequency consumption (per week) in hypertensive and normotensive of 12514 Iranian adults' population, 2000-2001

Food items —	Hypertension		* P	
rood items —	Yes	No		
Hydrogenated oil	7.82 ± 4.99	8.93 ± 4.84	< 0.01	
Un hydrogenated oil	2.30 ± 3.70	2.04 ± 3.49	< 0.01	
Red meat	3.95 ± 2.78	4.20 ± 2.74	0.025	
Chicken	1.95 ± 1.93	1.85 ± 1.74	0.312	
Fish	0.47 ± 1.04	0.44 ± 0.85	< 0.01	
Bread	17.88 ± 5.64	17.60 ± 5.73	< 0.01	
Rice	5.48 ± 3.28	6.05 ± 3.13	0.206	
Fresh fruits	6.75 ± 4.27	6.88 ± 4.22	0.121	
Fresh vegetables	6.08 ± 4.01	6.22 ± 3.88	< 0.01	
Nuts	0.23 ± 0.87	0.39 ± 1.16	< 0.01	
Canned foods	0.21 ± 0.59	0.33 ± 0.76	< 0.01	
Sausage	0.42 ± 1.02	0.69 ± 1.35	< 0.01	
Hamburger	0.07 ± 0.33	0.16 ± 0.58	< 0.01	
Pizza	0.04 ± 0.26	0.09 ± 0.35	< 0.01	
Carbonated beverages	1.12 ± 1.69	1.52 ± 2.09	< 0.01	
Sweets(Cakes, Cookies and Biscuits)	1.91 ± 3.56	3.05 ± 4.66	< 0.01	

P < 0.01 indicates significant difference among two groups.

Table 4: Comparison between food frequency consumption (per week) in obese and non-obese of 12514 Iranian adults' population, 2000-2001

Food items	$BMI \ge 30$	BMI < 30	*P
Hydrogenated oil	$.8.91 \pm 4.85$	7.95 ± 5.00	< 0.01
Un hydrogenated oil	1.99 ± 3.46	2.53 ± 3.80	< 0.01
Red meat	4.20 ± 2.75	3.98 ± 2.71	< 0.01
Chicken	1.85 ± 1.77	1.94 ± 1.81	0.051
Fish	0.44 ± 0.88	0.50 ± 0.92	< 0.01
Bread	17.74 ± 5.66	17.21 ± 5.94	< 0.01
Rice	6.02 ± 3.15	5.62 ± 3.14	< 0.01
Fresh fruits	6.81 ± 4.81	7.11 ± 4.45	< 0.01
Fresh vegetables	6.16 ± 3.90	6.41 ± 3.92	< 0.01
Nuts	0.39 ± 1.17	0.26 ± 0.83	< 0.01
Canned foods	0.32 ± 0.73	0.28 ± 0.76	0.056
Sausage	0.66 ± 1.35	0.57 ± 1.09	< 0.01
Hamburger	0.16 ± 0.58	0.10 ± 0.37	< 0.01
Pizza	0.08 ± 0.33	0.07 ± 0.38	0.240
Carbonated beverages	1.48 ± 2.08	1.29 ± 1.78	< 0.01
Sweets(Cakes, Cookies and Biscuits)	2.96 ± 4.61	2.36 ± 3.99	< 0.01

P < 0.01 indicates significant difference among two groups

Table 5: Comparison between food frequency consumption (per week) in smoker and non-smoker of 12514 Iranian adults' population, 2000-2001

Food items	Smoker	Non smoker	*P
Hydrogenated oil	8.92 ± 4.85	8.71 ± 4.89	0.079
Un hydrogenated oil	1.99 ± 3.44	2.10 ± 3.54	0.208
Red meat	4.19 ± 2.75	4.16 ± 2.74	0.589
Chicken	1.86 ± 1.77	1.87 ± 1.77	0.872
Fish	0.43 ± 1.77	0.45 ± 1.77	0.450
Bread	18.30 ± 5.56	17.54 ± 5.74	< 0.01
Rice	6.07 ± 3.27	5.93 ± 3.14	0.081
Fresh fruits	6.46 ± 3.95	6.93 ± 4.27	< 0.01
Fresh vegetables	6.05 ± 3.63	6.22 ± 3.95	0.080
Nuts	0.36 ± 1.02	0.37 ± 1.13	0.884
Canned foods	0.37 ± 0.75	0.30 ± 0.73	< 0.01
Sausage	0.81 ± 1.41	0.61 ± 1.29	< 0.01
Hamburger	0.21 ± 0.67	0.14 ± 0.52	< 0.01
Pizza	0.11 ± 0.43	0.07 ± 0.32	< 0.01
Carbonated beverages	1.29 ± 1.78	1.48 ± 2.08	< 0.01
Sweets (Cakes, Cookies and Biscuits)	3.38 ± 5.03	2.77 ± 4.41	< 0.01

P < 0.01 indicates significant difference among two groups.

Discussion

In the present study, we surveyed nutritional habits of Iranian population with major CVD risk factors (dyslipidemia, hypertension, obesity or smoking) and compared them with healthy persons.

Diet and nutrition have been extensively investigated as risk factors for major CVD like coronary heart disease and are also linked to other CVD risk factors like HTN, dyslipidemia and obesity.²²⁻²⁵ Current guidelines for the management of HTN, dyslipidemia and obesity emphasize the importance of achieving several nutritional goals simultaneously. According to "2006 Diet Approach to Stop Hypertension" (DASH) recommendation,26 and Adult Treatment Panel III(ATPIII) protocol,²⁷ to modify hypertension and dyslipidemia, a diet rich in fruit and vegetables, more poly-unsaturated and monosaturated fatty acid contents, unsalted nuts, low fat dairy products and with a lower salt, saturated fat and sugar content foods, resulted in a 5.5 mmHg reduction in systolic blood pressure and 0.35 mmol/l reduction in total cholesterol.²⁸

However, analysis of the reported food consumption patterns in our study suggests that dyslipidemic subjects might have started adopting some more healthy nutritional behavior compared to normolipidemic ones. Specially, consumption of fish, chicken and unhydrogenated oil was found to be higher among dyslipidemic subjects while the opposite was observed for food items such as hydrogenated oil, red meat; fast food such as sausages, hamburger, pizza; and sweets including cake, cookies and biscuits. As the results show, the rice consumption was less frequent in dyslipidemic subjects, but bread consumption was higher than normolipidemic ones (Table 2). This is probably due to the replacement of bread with rice that increases the fiber intake.

The same results are seen in the study of Millias and colleagues, so that in this study consumption of fish, fruits and juices, cereals and low fat milk and yogurt was found to be higher among hypercholestrolemic subjects while consumption of red meat, pork, egg, full fat products and deserts were less than normocholestrolemic ones.²⁹

Although nuts consumption has an important role in the prevention of dyslipidemia but in contrast to mentioned nutritional habits, consumption of this food item in dyslipidemic individuals was less frequent than normolipidemic individuals and this is probably because of lack of the knowledge about the useful effects of nuts in the improvement of dyslipidemia.

Our study demonstrated that similar to the dyslipidemic subjects, hypertensives have started adopting more healthy nutritional behaviors than normotensives. Consumption of unhydrogenated oil and fish was found to be higher and hydrogenated oil, red meat, canned food, sausage, hamburger, pizza, carbonated beverages, and sweets lower in hypertensives (Table 3). Similar to our study it was shown in the Pitsavos and colleagues reported that hypertensive subjects have healthier diet than normotensive ones.³⁰ Although fresh vegetables and nuts are preventive foods for hypertension,²⁶ their consumption was more frequent in normotensive subjects.

In contrast to dyslipidemics and hypertensives, it is specified that non-obese persons and nonsmokers have more unhealthy nutritional habits than obese and smokers. As the results show hydrogenated oil, red meat, sausages, hamburger, pizza, carbonated beverages and sweets are significantly more consumed in obese persons than in nonobese and on the contrary, consumption of fresh fruits and vegetables is significantly less. Three food items including bread, rice and nuts are relatively high caloric and obese persons consume them more than non-obese persons. Several studies show that consumption of high carbohydrate foods such as bread, rice and sweets and full fat foods such as different kinds of fats and oils, nuts, hamburger and pizza have direct relationship with obesity but in the case of fruits and vegetables this relationship is inverse.31,32 This confirms the obtained results in the present study. Consumption of canned food, sausages, hamburger, pizza, carbonated beverages and sweets is significantly more in smokers than in non-smokers and consumption of fresh fruits is less in smokers and these results show that smokers pay less attention to nutritional habits as well. These results are similar to the obtained results in other studies.³³⁻³⁵ Similar to our study, in a study by Jessie and colleagues, smokers consumed fast food and saturated fat content food more and fruits and vegetables less than non-smokers.³⁶

Limitations

Whereas this study is a part from the obtained results in IHHP study (which is a vast and comprehensive study), nutritional condition of participants is determined on the basis of a qualitative food frequency questionnaire and therefore, consumption serving of participants is not specified. Furthermore, socioeconomic condition, age and sex probably have influence on dietary habits and the consequence of our study and obtained results. It was proper to contemplate the effect of these factors in the analysis. Nonetheless, it requires more study in the future for a perfect opinion. The differences between groups, while statistically significant may be biologically unimportant but our results could be used for further research.

Conclusion

It is concluded that dyslipidemic and hypertensive population have better dietary habits which is probably due to their increasing incitement in regard to sound nutritional principles but on the contrary, obese participants have unhealthy dietary habits which is probably for the reason that still individuals do not know that obesity is a risk factor for cardiovascular diseases and also smokers do not pay attention to their nutritional habits. Although dietary habits of dyslipidemic and hypertensive individuals are better than others but can not be considered completely proper and still the frequency consumption of hydrogenated oil and red meat is high in these participants and consumption of hydrogenated oil, fruit, vegetable and fish is low.

References

1. Kromhout D. Epidemiology of cardiovascular diseases in Europe. Public Health Nutr 2001; 4(2B): 441-57.

- Gotto AMJ. Lipid and lipoproteins disorders. In: Primer in Preventive Cardiology. Edited by: Pearson TA, Criqui MH, Luepker RV, Oberman A, Wilson M. Dallas: American Heart Association; 1994. p. 107-29.
- **3.** Ginsberg HN. Lipoprotein metabolism and its relationship to atherosclerosis. Med Clin North Am 1994; 78(1): 1-20.
- **4.** Wilson PW, Abbott RD, Castelli WP. High density lipoprotein cholesterol and mortality. The Framingham Heart Study. Arteriosclerosis 1988; 8(6): 737-41.
- National Institutes of Health. Executive Summary of the Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III). JAMA 2001; 285(19): 2486-97.
- **6.** Gran B. Major differences in cardiovascular risk indicators by educational status. Results from a population based screening program. Scand J Soc Med 1995; 23(1): 9-16.
- Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR, Cushman WC, Green LA, Izzo JLJ, 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): 2560-72.
- **8.** Kannel WB. Blood pressure as a cardiovascular risk factor: prevention and treatment. JAMA 1996; 275(20): 1571-6.
- Stamler J, Stamler R, Neaton JD. Blood pressure, systolic and diastolic, and cardiovascular risks. US population data. Arch Intern Med 1993; 153(5): 598-615.
- **10.** WHO. The Atlas of Heart Disease and Stroke [online]. [cited June 2007]. Available from URL: http://www.who.int/cardiovascular_diseases/resource s/atlas/en
- **11.** Ezzati M, Lopez AD, Rodgers A, Vander Hoorn S, Murray CJ. Selected major risk factors and global and regional burden of disease. Lancet 2002; 360(9343): 1347-60.
- **12.** Denke MA. Cholesterol-lowering diets; a review of the evidence. Arch Intern Med 1995; 155(1): 17-26.
- **13.** Trichopoulou A, Kouris-Blazos A, Wahlqvist ML, Gnardellis C, Lagiou P, Polychronopoulos E, et al. Diet and overall survival in elderly people. BMJ. 1995; 311(7018): 1457-60.
- 14. De Lorgeril M, Salen P, Martin JL, Monjaud I, Delaye J, Mamelle N. Mediterranean diet, traditional risk factors, and the rate of cardiovascular complications after myocardial infarction: Final Report of the Lyon Diet Heart Study. Circulation 1999; 99(6): 779-85
- **15.** Pitsavos C, Panagiotakos DB, Chrysohoou C, Skoumas J, Papaioannou I, Stefanadis C, et al. The effect of Mediterranean diet on the risk of the development of acute coronary syndromes in hypercholesterolemic

- people: a case-control study (CARDIO 2000). Coronary Artery Dis 2002; 13(5): 295-300.
- **16.** Trichopoulou A, Costacou T, Bamia C, Trichopoulos D. Adherence to a Mediterranean diet and survival in a Greek population. N Engl J Med 2003; 348(26): 2599-608.
- **17.** Blankenhorn DH, Nessim SA, Johnson RL, Sanmarco ME, Azenm SP, Cashin-Hemphill L. Beneficial effects of combined colestipol-niacin therapy on coronary atherosclerosis and coronary venous bypass grafts. JAMA 1987; 257(23): 3233-40.
- **18.** Silventoinen K, Sans S, Tolonen H, Monterde D, Kuulasmaa K, Kesteloot H, et al. Trends in obesity and energy supply in the WHO MONICA project. Int. J. Obes. Relat. Metab. Disord. 2004; 28: 710-18.
- **19.** Janket SJ, Manson JE, Sesso H, Buring JE, Liu S. Aprospective study of sugar intake and risk of type 2 diabetes in women. Diabetes Care 2003; 26(4): 1008-15.
- **20.** Kvaavik E, Anderson LF, Klepp KI. The stability of soft drinks intake from adolescence to adult age and the association between long-term consumption of soft drinks and lifestyle factors and body weight. Public Health Nutr 2005; 8(2): 149-57.
- **21.** Schulze MB, Manson JE, Ludwig DS, Colditz GA, Stampfer MJ, Willett WC, et al. Sugar-sweetened beverages, weight gain, and incidence of type 2 diabetes in young and middle-aged women. JAMA 2004; 292(8): 927-34.
- 22. Wu T, Giovannucci E, Pischon T, Hankinson SE, Ma J, Rifai N, et al. Fructose, glycemic load, and quantity and quality of carbohydrate in relation to plasma C-peptide concentrations in US women. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 2004; 80(4): 1043-9.
- 23. Yang EJ, Kerver JM, Park YK, Kayitsinga J, Allison DB, Song WO. Carbohydrate intake and biomarkers of glycemic control among US adults: the third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES III). Am J Clin Nutr 2003; 77(6): 1426-33.
- **24.** La Vecchia C, Negri E, Franceschi S, Parazzini F, Decarli A. Differences in dietary intake with smoking, alcohol, and education. Nutr Cancer 1992; 17(3): 297-304.
- **25.** McPhillips JB, Eaton CB, Gans KM, Derby CA, Lasater TM, McKenney JL, et al. Dietary differences in smokers and non-smokers from two southeastern New England communities. J Am Diet Assoc 1994; 94(3): 287-92.
- **26.** Whichelow MJ, Erzinclioglu SW, Cox BD. A comparison of the diets of non-smokers and smokers. Br J Addict 1991; 86(1): 71-81.
- **27.** Bottoni A, Cannella C, Del BV. Lifestyle and dietary differences in smokers and non-smokers from an Italian employee population. Public Health 1997; 111(3): 161-4.
- **28.** Palaniappan U, Jacobs SL, O'Loughlin J, Gray–Donald K. Fruit and vegetableconsumption is lower

- and saturated fat intake is higher among Canadians reporting smoking. J Nutr 2001; 131(7): 1952-8.
- 29. Dallongeville J, Marecaux N, Richard F, Bonte D, Zylberberg G, Fantino M, et al. Cigarette smoking is associated with differences in nutritional habits and related to lipoprotein alterations independently of food and alcohol intake. Eur J Clin Nutr 1996; 50(10): 647-54.
- **30.** Johansson L, Solvoll K, Bjorneboe GEA, Drevon CA. Dietary habits among Norwegian men and women. Scand J Nutr 1997; 41: 63-70.
- **31.** D'Avanzo B, La Vecchia C, Braga C, Franceschi S, Negri E, Parpinel M. Nutrient intake according to education, smoking, and alcohol in Italian women. Nutr Cancer 1997; 28(1): 46-51.
- **32.** Cundiff DK. Diet and tobacco use: analysis of data from the diabetic control and complications trial, a randomized study. Med Gen Med 2002; 4(1): 2.
- **33.** French SA, Hennrikus DJ, Jeffery RW. Smoking status dietary intake, and physical activity in a sample of working adults. Health Psychol 1996; 15(6): 448-54.
- 34. Sarraf-Zadegan N, Sadri GH, Malekafzali H, Baghaei M, Mohammadifard N, Tolooie H, et al. Isfahan Healthy Heart Programme: a comprehensive integrated community based programme for cardiovascular disease prevention and control. Design, methods, and initial experience. Acta Cardiol 2003; 58(4): 309-20
- 35. Sarraf-Zadegan N, Baghaei A, Sadri GH, Kelishadi R, Malekafzali H, Boshtam M, et al. Evaluation Issues in the "Isfahan Healthy Heart Program." The Impact of Comprehensive Integrated Community-Based Interventions for Non-Communicable Diseases Prevention. Prevention and Control J 2006; 2:73-84.
- **36.** Friedewald WT, Levy RI, Fredrickson DS. Estimation of the concentration of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in plasma, without use of the preparative ultracentrifuge. Clin Chem 1972; 18(6): 499-502.
- 37. Mohammadifard N, Ashtiani R, Moatarian A, Sajadi F, Alikhasi H, Maghroon M. Isfahan Healthy Heart Program: Nutrition knowledge attitude and practice in adults of Isfahan and Markazi Provinces: results of phase to Mata j (in press).
- **38.** Burt VL, Whelton P, Roccella EJ, Brown C, Cutler JA, Higgins M, et al. Prevalence of hypertension in the US adult population. Results from the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, 1988-1991. Hypertension 1995; 25(3): 305-13.
- **39.** Palmer A, Bulpitt C, Beevers G, Coles E, Fletcher A, Ledingham J, et al. Risk factors for ischaemic heart disease and stroke mortality in young and old hypertensive patients. Eur Heart J 1997; 18(10): 1569-82.
- **40.** Ascherio A, Rimm EB, Giovannucci EL, Colditz GA, Rosner B, Willett WC, et al. A prospective study of nutritional factors and hypertension among US men. Circulation 1992; 86(5): 1475-84.
- **41.** Appel LJ, Moore TJ, Obarzanek E, Vollmer WM, Svetkey LP, Sacks FM, et al. A clinical trial of the ef-

- fects of dietary patterns on blood pressure. DASH Collaborative Research Group. N Engl J Med 1997; 336(16): 1117-24.
- **42.** US Department of Health And Human Services. Your Guide to Lowering Blood Pressure. NIH publication No. 03-5232; 2003. Available from URL: http://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/health/public/heart/hbp/hbp_low/hbp_low.pdf
- **43.** International Institute of Health. Third report of National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) expert panel on detecting, evaluation and treatment of high blood cholesterol in adults (Adults treatment panel III). NIH publication No. 02-5215; 2002. Available from URL:
 - http://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/guidelines/cholesterol/atp3full.pdf
- **44.** Yoshii H, Tachi N, Ohba R, Sakamura O, Takeyama H, Itani T. Antihypertensive oligopeptides from chicken egg yolks. Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol 2001; 128(1): 27-33.
- **45.** Milias GA, Panagiotakos DB, Pitsavos C, Xenaki D, Panagopoulos G, Stefanadis C. Prevalence of self-reported hypercholesterolaemia and its relation to dietary habits, in Greek adults; a national nutrition & health survey. Lipids Health Dis 2006; 5:5.
- **46.** Pitsavos C, Milias GA, Panagiotakos DB, Xenaki D, Panagopoulos G, Stefanadis C. Prevalence of self-reported hypertension and its relation to dietary habits

- in adults; a nutrition & health survey in Greece. BMC Public Health 2006; 6: 206.
- **47.** Dastgiri S, Mahdavi R, Tutunchi H, Framarzi E. Prevalence of obesity, food choices and socio-economic status: a cross-sectional study in the northwest of Iran. Pub Health Nutr 2006; 9(8): 996-1000.
- **48.** Jackson M, Walker S, Cruickshank JK, Sharma S, Cade J, Mbanya JC, et al. Diet and overweight and obesity in population of African origin Cameroon, Jamaica and the UK. Pub Health Nutr 2007; 10(2): 122-30.
- **49.** Palaniappan U, Starkey LJ, D'loughlin J, Gray-Donald K. Fruit and vegetable consumption is lower and saturated fat intake is higher among Canadian reporting smoking. J Nutr 2001; 131(7): 1952-8.
- **50.** Dallongerille J, Marecau N, Fruchart JC, Amouval P. Cigarette smoking is associated with unhealthy pattern of nutrient; a meta-analysis. J Nutrn 1998; 128(9): 1450-7.
- **51.** Ma J, Mampl JS, Betts NM. Antioxidant intakes and smoking status: Data continuing survey of food intakes by individuals 1994-96. Am J Nutr 2000; 71(3): 774-80.
- **52.** Satia JA, Galanko JA, Siega-Riz AM. Eating at fast food restaurant is associated with dietary intake demographic, psychological and behavioral factors among African Americans in Carolina. Public Health Nutr 2004; 7(8): 1089-96.