# Non-Communicable Disease Risk Factors Among Caregivers of Patients Attending a Tertiary Cardiovascular Hospital in Tanzania 

Pedro Pallangyo (1) ${ }^{1,2}$, Makrina Komba ${ }^{\text {, }}$, Zabella S Mkojera ${ }^{1}$, Henry A Mayala ${ }^{3}$, Smita V Bhalia ${ }^{2}$, Jalack Millinga ${ }^{4}$, Salma Wibonela ${ }^{4}$, Gudila Swai ${ }^{4}$, Dickson A Minja ${ }^{3}$, Mohamed Janabi ${ }^{2}$<br>'Department of Research and Training, Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; ${ }^{2}$ Department of Cardiology, Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; ${ }^{3}$ Department of Clinical Support Services, Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania; ${ }^{4}$ Department of Nursing, Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania<br>Correspondence: Pedro Pallangyo, Email pedro.pallangyo@gmail.com


#### Abstract

Background: Notwithstanding the ever-present burden of infectious diseases, the sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) region has experienced a $67 \%$ rise in the non-communicable disease (NCD) burden in less than three decades. Furthermore, regardless of the increased recognition of NCDs threat in the region, reliable local estimates and associated drivers are generally lacking. We therefore conducted this cross-sectional study to establish the pattern and correlates of the modifiable NCD risk factors among caregivers of patients attending a tertiary cardiovascular centre in Tanzania. Methods: A cross-sectional survey was conducted at Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. We used a structured questionnaire bearing a modified WHO STEPwise Approach to NCD Risk Factor Surveillance (STEPS) tool to explore the modifiable behavioral and modifiable biological NCD risk factors. Results: A total of 1063 caregivers were enrolled in this study. The mean age was 40.5 years, and $55.7 \%$ were female. Nearly $80 \%$ of participants had a good knowledge regarding NCDs and $85.4 \%$ had a positive family history of NCDs. Overall, 1027 (96.6\%) participants had at least one modifiable NCD risk factor while 510 ( $48.0 \%$ ) had three or more (i.e., clustering). With respect to modifiable behavioral NCD risk factors, 34 ( $3.2 \%$ ) were tobacco users, 56 ( $5.3 \%$ ) had harmful alcohol consumption, 691 ( $65 \%$ ) had unhealthy eating behavior, and 820 ( $77.1 \%$ ) were physically inactive. Pertaining to modifiable biological NCD risk factors, 710 ( $66.8 \%$ ) had excess body weight, 420 ( $39.5 \%$ ) had hypertension and 62 ( $5.8 \%$ ) were diabetic. Conclusion: A vast majority of caregivers of NCD patients in this tertiary setting were found to have modifiable NCD risk factors with a strong tendency of clustering. These findings call for intensification of both population strategies and targeted group interventions for better control of the NCD threat and its correlates.


Keywords: STEPS survey, modifiable NCD risk factors, behavioral risks, biological risks, clustering

## Background

Linked to virtually three-quarters of global deaths, non-communicable diseases (NCDs) pose a major health and development challenge to humankind. ${ }^{1}$ With an estimated cumulative lost economic output of over US\$7 trillion (2011-2025) and every three of four NCD deaths transpiring in low- and middle-income countries, the developing world is disproportionately affected. ${ }^{2}$ Notwithstanding the unending burden of infectious diseases, and with an increase of total disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) due to NCDs ( 90.6 million in 1990 to 151.3 million in 2017), the subSaharan Africa (SSA) region has experienced an alarming 67\% rise in the NCD burden. ${ }^{3}$ Unlike in high-income countries where NCD deaths occur later in life, NCDs in low- and middle-income countries often affect the economically and socially working-age, leading to poverty perpetuation and burdened fragile health systems. ${ }^{4,5}$ Considering the current trajectory, NCDs are projected to overtake communicable, maternal, neonatal, and nutritional diseases combined as the leading cause of mortality in the SSA region by $2030 .{ }^{4}$

The burgeoning epidemic of NCDs in SSA has several driving forces including demographic transition, urbanization, economic development, aging population, and increased risk behaviors such as harmful use of alcohol, physical inactivity, tobacco use, and unhealthy diet. ${ }^{6-8}$ It is a well-known fact that most risk behaviors for NCDs are modifiable and the related morbimortality is preventable; however, compared with resource-endowed regions, sufficient evidencebased surveillance systems in SSA and similar resource-constrained settings are lacking. ${ }^{9}$ In view of this, concerted efforts to curb the rapid rising NCD burden in the region starting with the provision of reliable local estimates and associated drivers is pivotal to devise effective and sustainable prevention strategies. In an attempt to understand NCDs in resource-limited settings, we conducted this cross-sectional study to establish the pattern and correlates of NCD risk factors among caregivers of patients attending a tertiary cardiovascular centre in Tanzania.

## Methods

## Recruitment Process and Definition of Terms

A cross-sectional study was conducted at Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute (a tertiary care public teaching hospital) in Dar es Salaam, Tanzania between December 2019 and February 2020. A consecutive sampling method was utilized to recruit consented caregivers of patients with cardiovascular disease (CVD). During a patient's scheduled clinic visit, accompanying caregivers were explained the objectives of this study and were requested to take part in it. We enrolled the caregivers consecutively in all clinic days during the study period. As per the 2019 statistics, Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute was attended by about 40,000 hypertensive patients in a year. For the purpose of this screening, we aimed to recruit at least $2.5 \%$ of the caregivers equivalent to the annual hypertensive population, i.e. $\geq 1000$ caregivers.

A structured questionnaire bearing questions pertaining to sociodemographic and clinical characteristics was used to gather respective participant's information. Weight in kilograms $(\mathrm{kg})$ and height in centimeters $(\mathrm{cm})$ were measured using Health-o-Meter 500 KL professional scale. We defined underweight as BMI $<18.5 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$, normal: BMI $18.5-24.9 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$, overweight: BMI $25.0-29.9 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ and obese: BMI $\geq 30.0 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2} .{ }^{10}$ Moreover, waist circumference was measured (to the nearest 0.1 cm ) in the horizontal plane at the midpoint between the lower margin of the rib cage and the upper border of the iliac crest using a non-stretchable plastic tape. Measurements of $>94 \mathrm{~cm}$ for men and $>80 \mathrm{~cm}$ for women were used to denote increased waist circumference. ${ }^{11}$ Blood pressure was measured using OMRON HEM-7156 digital automated sphygmomanometer. OneTouch Select Plus glucometer was utilized in blood glucose concentration measurements. Furthermore, an adopted questionnaire consisting of 22 statements assessing various NCD risk behaviors was utilized for assessment of knowledge. ${ }^{12}$ A percentage score for each participant was computed by dividing the sum of correct responses by the total number of questions (i.e. 22) multiplied by 100 . A cut-off score of $\geq 70 \%$ was used to signify adequate knowledge and a score $<70$ was regarded as poor knowledge. ${ }^{13,14}$

A modified WHO STEPwise Approach to NCD Risk Factor Surveillance (STEPS) tool was utilized in the assessment of four modifiable behavioral (i.e. tobacco use, harmful alcohol consumption, unhealthy diet, and low physical activity) and three biological (i.e. excess body weight, raised blood pressure, and impaired fasting glycemia) NCD risk factors. Coexistence of $\geq 3$ risk factors in the same individual was regarded as clustering of NCD risk factors. ${ }^{14}$ For the purpose of this study, we defined the modifiable NCD risk factors as follows:
(i) Tobacco use: use of any tobacco product in any form within one month prior to recruitment in this present study. ${ }^{15}$
(ii) Harmful alcohol intake: consumption of $\geq 5$ drinks/day or $\geq 4$ drinks/day on at least one occasion by a male or female participant, respectively within one month prior to recruitment in this study. ${ }^{16}$
(iii) Unhealthy diet: intake of $<5$ servings/week of fruits and vegetables. ${ }^{17}$
(iv) Low physical activity: achieving $<600$ metabolic equivalent (MET)-minutes/week in accordance with WHO guidelines. ${ }^{18}$
(v) Excess body weight (overweight): a body mass index (BMI) of $\geq 25 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{2} .{ }^{10}$
(vi) Raised blood pressure (hypertension): a systolic blood pressure (SBP) $\geq 140 \mathrm{mmHg}$ or diastolic blood pressure (DBP) $\geq 90 \mathrm{mmHg}$, or use of blood pressure lowering agents. ${ }^{19}$
(vii) Impaired fasting glucose (diabetes): fasting blood glucose ( FBG ) $\geq 7 \mathrm{mmol} / \mathrm{L}$ or use of glucose-lowering agents. ${ }^{20}$

## Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed by a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) v20 software. Summaries of continuous variables are presented as means ( $\pm \mathrm{SD}$ ) and categorical variables are presented as frequencies (percentages). Categorical and continuous variables were compared using the Pearson Chi square test and Student's $t$-test respectively. Logistic regression analyses were used to assess for factors associated with modifiable NCD risks. Stepwise and forward selection procedures were used to add and assess the statistically significant variables in the multivariate regression model. Wald Chi square test was used to assess for the interaction terms, with a $p<0.1$ cut-off used as criteria for inclusion in multivariate analysis. Odds ratios (OR) with $95 \%$ confidence intervals (CI) and p-values are reported. All tests were 2 -sided and $\mathrm{p}<0.05$ was used to denote a statistical significance.

## Results

Table 1 displays the sociodemographic characteristics of the 1063 enrolled participants by their NCD risk status. The mean age was 40.5 years and nearly half ( $49.3 \%$ ) of the participants fell in the age-group 35-54 years. Female sex constituted $55.7 \%$ of participants and $59.9 \%$ had attained at least secondary level education. Over two-thirds ( $66.9 \%$ ) and more than three-quarters (79.4\%) of participants were married and had a regular income-generating activity, respectively. Just over a third ( $33.7 \%$ ) of participants had health insurance and $54.9 \%$ had never had a health check-up before. Nearly $80 \%$ of participants had a good NCD knowledge and $85.4 \%$ had a positive family history of NCDs.

Overall, 1027 ( $96.6 \%$ ) participants had at least one modifiable NCD risk factor. Among participants with risk factors; 219 (21.3\%) had behavioral risks alone, 76 (7.4\%) had biological risk factors alone, and 732 ( $71.3 \%$ ) had both behavioral and biological risks. Whereas there was no difference in the rates of 'biological risks alone' between the two sexes (i.e.

Table I Sociodemographic Characteristics of Study Participants by Modifiable NCD Risk Status ( $\mathrm{N}=1063$ )

| Characteristic | $\begin{gathered} \text { All } \\ (\mathbf{N}=1063) \end{gathered}$ | Modifiable Biological NCD Risks |  |  | Modifiable Behavioral NCD Risks |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | None $(n=255)$ | $\begin{aligned} & \geq \text { I Factor } \\ & \quad(\mathrm{n}=808) \end{aligned}$ | $p$-value | None $(n=1 \mid 2)$ | $\begin{gathered} \geq \text { I Factor } \\ (\mathrm{n}=95 \mathrm{I}) \end{gathered}$ | $p$-value |
| Age (Mean, SD) | 40.5 (13.0) | 32.6 (12.3) | 43.0 (12.2) | <0.001 | 41.8 (14.7) | 40.3 (12.8) | 0.2 |
| $\begin{gathered} \text { Age group } \\ \text { I8-34 } \\ 35-54 \\ \geq 55 \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 379 \text { (35.7\%) } \\ & 525 \text { (49.3\%) } \\ & 159 \text { (15.0\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 169 \text { (66.3\%) } \\ 70 \text { (27.5\%) } \\ 16 \text { (6.2\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 210 \text { (26.0\%) } \\ & 455 \text { (56.3\%) } \\ & 143 \text { (17.7\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <0.001 \\ & <0.001 \\ & <0.001 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 41 \text { (36.6\%) } \\ & 49 \text { (43.8\%) } \\ & 22 \text { (19.6\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 338 \text { (35.5\%) } \\ & 476 \text { (50.1\%) } \\ & 137 \text { (14.4\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.8 \\ & 0.2 \\ & 0.1 \end{aligned}$ |
| Sex <br> Male <br> Female | $\begin{aligned} & 471 \text { (44.3\%) } \\ & 592 \text { (55.7\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 159 \text { (33.8\%) } \\ 96 \text { (16.2\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 312 \text { (66.2\%) } \\ & 496 \text { (83.8\%) } \end{aligned}$ | <0.001 | $\begin{aligned} & 55 \text { (11.7\%) } \\ & 57 \text { (09.6\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 416 \text { (88.3\%) } \\ & 535 \text { (90.4\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.3 |
| Education <br> No Formal <br> Primary <br> Secondary <br> University | $\begin{array}{r} 22 \text { (02.1\%) } \\ 404 \text { (38.0\%) } \\ 385 \text { (36.2\%) } \\ 252 \text { (23.7\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 5 \text { (02.0\%) } \\ 88 \text { (34.5\%) } \\ 90 \text { (35.3\%) } \\ 72 \text { (28.2\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{gathered} 17 \text { (02.1\%) } \\ 316 \text { (39.1\%) } \\ 295 \text { (36.5\%) } \\ 180 \text { (22.3\%) } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.9 \\ & 0.2 \\ & 0.7 \\ & 0.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 3 \text { (02.7\%) } \\ 44 \text { (39.3\%) } \\ 42 \text { (37.5\%) } \\ 23 \text { (20.5\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 19 \text { (02.0\%) } \\ 360 \text { (37.9\%) } \\ 343 \text { (36.0\%) } \\ 229 \text { (24.1\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.6 \\ & 0.8 \\ & 0.8 \\ & 0.4 \end{aligned}$ |
| Marital status <br> Single <br> Married <br> Divorced <br> Widowed | $\begin{array}{r} 279 \text { (26.2\%) } \\ 711 \text { (66.9\%) } \\ 26 \text { (02.5\%) } \\ 47 \text { (04.4\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 126 \text { (49.4\%) } \\ 12 \mathrm{I}(47.4 \%) \\ 4 \text { (01.6\%) } \\ 4 \text { (01.6\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 153 \text { (19.0\%) } \\ 590 \text { (73.0\%) } \\ 22 \text { (02.7\%) } \\ 43 \text { (05.3\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <0.00 \text { I } \\ & <0.001 \\ & 0.3 \\ & 0.01 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 34 \text { (30.4\%) } \\ 60 \text { (53.6\%) } \\ 7 \text { (06.2\%) } \\ 11 \text { (09.8\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 245 \text { (25.8\%) } \\ 65 \mathrm{I} \text { (68.4\%) } \\ 19 \text { (02.0\%) } \\ 36 \text { (03.8\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.3 \\ & <0.01 \\ & <0.01 \\ & <0.01 \end{aligned}$ |

(Continued)

Table I (Continued).

| Characteristic | $\begin{gathered} \text { All } \\ (\mathbf{N}=1063) \end{gathered}$ | Modifiable Biological NCD Risks |  |  | Modifiable Behavioral NCD Risks |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | None $(n=255)$ | $\begin{aligned} & \geq \text { I Factor } \\ & \quad(\mathrm{n}=808) \end{aligned}$ | $p$-value | None $(n=1 l 2)$ | $\begin{aligned} & \geq \text { I Factor } \\ & (n=95 I) \end{aligned}$ | p-value |
| Occupation Jobless Self-employed Employed Retired | $\begin{array}{r} 166 \text { (I5.6\%) } \\ 640 \text { (60.2\%) } \\ 204 \text { (19.2\%) } \\ 53 \text { (05.0\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 64(25.0 \%) \\ 131(51.4 \%) \\ 55(21.6 \%) \\ 5(02.0 \%) \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 102 \text { (12.6\%) } \\ 509 \text { (63.0\%) } \\ 149 \text { (18.4\%) } \\ 48 \text { (06.0\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <0.001 \\ & 0.001 \\ & 0.3 \\ & 0.01 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 31 \text { (27.7\%) } \\ 62 \text { (55.4\%) } \\ 13 \text { (11.6\%) } \\ 6 \text { (5.3\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 135 \text { (14.2\%) } \\ 578 \text { (60.8\%) } \\ 191 \text { (20.1\%) } \\ 47 \text { (04.9\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <0.00 I \\ & 0.3 \\ & 0.03 \\ & 0.9 \end{aligned}$ |
| Residence <br> Urban <br> Rural | $\begin{aligned} & 907 \text { (85.3\%) } \\ & \text { I56 (14.7\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 209 \text { (23.0\%) } \\ 46 \text { (29.5\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 698 \text { (77.0\%) } \\ & \text { I } 10 \text { (70.5\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.08 | $\begin{aligned} & 93 \text { (10.2\%) } \\ & 19 \text { (12.2\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 814 \text { (89.8\%) } \\ & \text { I37 (87.8\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.5 |
| Relationship to Patient <br> Spouse <br> Child <br> Sibling <br> Parent <br> Other | $\begin{array}{r} 142 \text { (13.4\%) } \\ 661 \text { (62.2\%) } \\ 162 \text { (15.2\%) } \\ 38 \text { (03.6\%) } \\ 60 \text { (05.6\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 24 \text { (09.4\%) } \\ 176 \text { (69.0\%) } \\ 37 \text { (14.5\%) } \\ 5 \text { (02.0\%) } \\ 13 \text { (05.1\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 118 \text { (14.6\%) } \\ 485 \text { (60.0\%) } \\ \text { I25 (15.5\%) } \\ 33 \text { (04.1\%) } \\ 47 \text { (05.8\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.03 \\ & <0.01 \\ & 0.7 \\ & 0.06 \\ & 0.7 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 19 \text { (17.0\%) } \\ & 63 \text { (56.2\%) } \\ & \text { I9 (17.0\%) } \\ & 8 \text { (07.1\%) } \\ & 3 \text { (02.7\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 123 \text { (12.9\%) } \\ 598 \text { (62.9\%) } \\ 143 \text { (15.0\%) } \\ 30 \text { (03.2\%) } \\ 57 \text { (06.0\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.2 \\ & 0.2 \\ & 0.6 \\ & 0.01 \\ & 0.2 \end{aligned}$ |
| Health insured Yes <br> No | $\begin{aligned} & 358 \text { (33.7\%) } \\ & 705 \text { (66.3\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 66 \text { (18.4\%) } \\ 189 \text { (26.8\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 292 \text { (81.6\%) } \\ & 516 \text { (73.2\%) } \end{aligned}$ | <0.01 | $\begin{aligned} & 39 \text { (10.9\%) } \\ & 73 \text { (10.4\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 319 \text { (89.1\%) } \\ & 632 \text { (89.7\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.8 |
| When last check-up <br> Never <br> Within a Year <br> Over a Year | $\begin{array}{r} 583 \text { (54.9\%) } \\ 399 \text { (37.5\%) } \\ 81 \text { (07.6\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 151 \text { (59.2\%) } \\ 84 \text { (33.0\%) } \\ 20 \text { (07.8\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 432 \text { (53.4\%) } \\ 315 \text { (39.0\%) } \\ 61 \text { (07.6\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.1 \\ & 0.08 \\ & 0.9 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 58 \text { (5I.8\%) } \\ 46 \text { (4I.1\%) } \\ 8 \text { (07.1\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 525 \text { (55.2\%) } \\ 353 \text { (37.1\%) } \\ 73 \text { (07.7\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.5 \\ & 0.4 \\ & 0.8 \end{aligned}$ |
| Family history of NCDs Yes No | $\begin{aligned} & 908 \text { (85.4\%) } \\ & \text { I55 (14.6\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 224 \text { (24.7\%) } \\ 31 \text { (20.0\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 684 \text { (75.3\%) } \\ & 124 \text { (80.0\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.2 | $\begin{aligned} & 99 \text { (10.9\%) } \\ & 13 \text { (08.4\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 809 \text { (89.1\%) } \\ & 142 \text { (91.6\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.3 |
| NCD death (family) <br> Yes <br> No <br> Do not know <br> NCD Knowledge <br> Adequate <br> Poor | $\begin{array}{r} 218 \text { (20.5\%) } \\ 799 \text { (75.2\%) } \\ 46 \text { (04.3\%) } \\ 847 \text { (79.7\%) } \\ 216 \text { (20.3\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 41 \text { (16.1\%) } \\ 199 \text { (78.0\%) } \\ 15 \text { (05.9\%) } \\ 192 \text { (22.7\%) } \\ 63 \text { (29.2\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 177 \text { (21.9\%) } \\ 600 \text { (74.3\%) } \\ 31 \text { (03.8\%) } \\ 655 \text { (77.3\%) } \\ 153 \text { (70.8\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & <0.05 \\ & 0.2 \\ & 0.1 \\ & \\ & <0.05 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 24 \text { (21.4\%) } \\ 83 \text { (74.1\%) } \\ 5 \text { (04.5\%) } \\ 93 \text { (11.0\%) } \\ 19 \text { (08.8\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 194 \text { (20.4\%) } \\ 716 \text { (75.3\%) } \\ 41 \text { (04.3\%) } \\ 754 \text { (89.0\%) } \\ 197 \text { (91.2\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.8 \\ & 0.8 \\ & 0.9 \\ & \\ & 0.4 \end{aligned}$ |
| Weight Perception <br> Correct Incorrect | $\begin{aligned} & 660 \text { (62.1\%) } \\ & 403 \text { (37.9\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 180 \text { (27.3\%) } \\ 75 \text { (18.6\%) } \end{array}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 480 \text { (72.7\%) } \\ & 328 \text { (81.4\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.001 | $\begin{aligned} & 61 \text { (09.2\%) } \\ & 51 \text { (12.7\%) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 599 \text { (90.8\%) } \\ & 352 \text { (87.3\%) } \end{aligned}$ | 0.08 |

$5.7 \%$ vs $8.3 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.1$ ), males had a higher likelihood of having 'behavioral risks alone' (i.e. $27.8 \%$ vs $14.9 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ ), while females had higher chances of having both risks (i.e. $75.5 \%$ vs $60.5 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ ). In the context of age, age group $18-34$ displayed higher rates ( $38.3 \%$ ) of 'behavioral risks alone' compared with age groups $35-54$ ( $11.8 \%$ ) and $\geq 55$ (7.5\%), both $\mathrm{p}<0.001$. In contrast age groups $35-54$ and $\geq 55$ exhibited higher frequencies of 'biological risks alone' ( $7.8 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.05$ and $11.3 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.01$ ) and 'both risks' ( $78.6 \%$ and $78.9 \%$, both $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ) respectively compared with age group 18-34 (4.5\% and 50.9\%).

With respect to modifiable behavioral risk factors, 34 (3.2\%) were tobacco users, 56 (5.3\%) had harmful alcohol consumption, 691 ( $65.0 \%$ ) had unhealthy eating behavior, and 820 (77.1\%) were physically inactive (Figure 1).


Figure I Bar graph displaying the frequency and pattern of modifiable behavioral NCD risk factors.

Pertaining to modifiable biological risk factors, 710 ( $66.8 \%$ ) had excess body weight [overweight 358 ( $33.7 \%$ ) and obese $352(33.1 \%)$ ], 420 ( $39.5 \%$ ) had hypertension [219 (52.1\%) of whom were newly diagnosed] and 62 (5.8\%) were diabetic [19 (30.6\%) of whom were newly diagnosed] (Figure 2). In general, 181 (17.0\%) participants had one risk factor, 336 (31.6\%) had two, 317 ( $29.8 \%$ ) had three, 155 (14.6\%) had four, 37 ( $3.5 \%$ ) had five, 1 ( $0.1 \%$ ) had six, and none had seven of the assessed modifiable NCD risks (Figure 3). Cumulatively, 510 ( $48.0 \%$ ) participants had three or more (i.e. clustering) modifiable NCD risk factors in different permutations.

Compared with their risk-free counterparts, participants with modifiable biological risk factors were older (43.0 vs 32.6, $\mathrm{p}<0.001$ ) and the age group $\geq 55$ displayed the highest risk frequency (i.e. $89.9 \%$ ) compared with the age groups $18-34$ ( $55.4 \%$ ) and $35-54$ ( $86.7 \%$ ). Furthermore, females displayed a higher rate of modifiable biological risk factors compared with males (i.e. $83.8 \%$ vs $66.2 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ ) (Table 1). On the contrary, participants displayed similar rates of modifiable behavioral risk factors across age (18-34: $89.2 \%$; $35-54: 90.7 \%$; $\geq 55$ : $86.2 \% ; \mathrm{p}>0.05$ ) and sex ( $90.4 \%$ vs $88.3 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.3$ ). However, married ( $68.4 \%$ vs $53.6 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.01$ ) and employed ( $20.1 \%$ vs $11.6 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.03$ ) individuals displayed a higher rate of behavioral risks compared with their unmarried and unemployed counterparts (Table 1). With respect to the distribution of modifiable risk factors by age, tobacco use was similar across the three age groups (18-34: 4.0\%; 35-54: $2.7 \% ; \geq 55: 3.1 \%$; $\mathrm{p}>0.05$ ). Likewise, harmful alcohol consumption was similar across age (18-34: 4.2\%; 35-54: 6.1\%; $\geq 55: 5.0 \%$; $\mathrm{p}>0.05$ ). Age group $\geq 55$ displayed the lowest rates of physical inactivity ( $18-34: 77.0 \% ; 35-54: 81.9 \% ; \geq 55: 61.6 \%$ ). With age group $18-34$ as the reference, age groups $35-54$ and $\geq 55$ had higher rates of overweight $(46.7 \%$ vs $78.7 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ and $46.7 \%$ vs


Figure 2 Venn diagram displaying the frequency, pattern and interactions of modifiable biological NCD risk factors. Abbreviations: EBW, excess body weight; HTN, hypertension; DM, diabetes mellitus.


Figure 3 Bar graph displaying the proportion of participants by number of modifiable NCD risks.
$75.5 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$, respectively), hypertension ( $19.0 \%$ vs $44.8 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ and $19.0 \%$ vs $71.1 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$, respectively) and diabetes ( $1.6 \%$ vs $6.5 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ and $1.6 \%$ vs $13.8 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$, respectively).

Regarding NCD risk pattern by sex, males had higher frequency of tobacco use ( $6.8 \% \mathrm{vs} 0.3 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ ) and harmful alcohol consumption $(7.2 \%$ vs $3.7 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.01)$ compared with females. In contrast, females displayed higher rates of excess body weight ( $75.8 \%$ vs $55.4 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.001$ ) and hypertension ( $42.2 \%$ vs $36.1 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.04$ ) compared with males. Other risk factors i.e. unhealthy $\operatorname{diet}(32.3 \%$ vs $37.2 \%, p=0.1)$, physical inactivity ( $75.2 \% \mathrm{vs} 78.7 \%, p=0.2$ ), and diabetes $(5.9 \%$ vs $5.7 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.9)$ were similar between the two sexes. Concerning NCD knowledge, similar rates of adequate knowledge were observed across all but three modifiable risk behaviors, i.e. tobacco use ( $58.8 \% \mathrm{vs} 80.4 \%$, $\mathrm{p}<0.01$ ), unhealthy $\operatorname{diet}(77.7 \%$ vs $83.3 \%, \mathrm{p}=0.03$ ), and overweight ( $82.0 \%$ vs $75.1 \%, \mathrm{p}<0.01$ ) in which those with risk behaviors displayed lesser knowledge.

A logistic regression analysis was performed to elucidate on the factors associated with modifiable NCD risk factors (Table 2). In a logistic model of 12 characteristics, 3 characteristics i.e. female sex, regular income-generating activity and married status displayed a significant association with the outcome during bivariate analysis. However, after adjusting for plausible confounders during multivariate analyses, female sex (OR 4.6, 95\% CI 2.1-10.4, p<0.001) and married status (OR $3.5,95 \%$ CI $1.6-7.7, \mathrm{p}<0.01$ ) proved to be the independent associated factors.

## Discussion

The burden of NCDs is escalating worldwide and the ramifications (i.e. morbidity and mortality) are resonating across the globe. Owing to rapid globalization and urbanization, a resource-constrained SSA region is experiencing a devastating impact of the dual burden of NCDs and infectious diseases. This double burden not only poses an enormous challenge to health-care providers and policymakers but halts the progress towards achieving the developmental goals. ${ }^{3,21}$ Moreover, the lack of reliable data regarding NCD risk factors and associated morbimortality is SSA is a well-known obstacle. ${ }^{22}$ As public health interventions are data driven, data paucity in the region affects the understanding of disease trends and impairs planning of population-tailored interventions amidst the rapidly rising NCD burden.

Table 2 Factors Associated with Modifiable NCDs Risk Factors

| Characteristic | Comparative | OR | 95\% CI | p-value | Adj.OR | 95\% CI | p-value |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Age >40 | Age $\leq 40$ | 2.4 | I.I-5.0 | 0.02 | 1.3 | 0.5-2.9 | 0.6 |
| Female | Male | 4.6 | 2.1-10.2 | <0.00 1 | 4.6 | 2.1-10.4 | <0.001 |
| $\leq$ Primary Education | $\geq$ Secondary Education | 2.4 | I.1-5.3 | 0.03 | 1.7 | 0.7-3.8 | 0.2 |
| Regular income-generating activity | Unemployed/Retired | 2.0 | 1.0-4.0 | 0.06 | - | - | - |
| Married | Single/Divorced/Widowed | 3.8 | 1.9-7.5 | <0.001 | 3.5 | 1.6-7.7 | <0.01 |
| Urban residence | Rural | 1.9 | 0.6-6.4 | 0.3 | - | - | - |
| Possess health insurance | Uninsured | 1.3 | 0.6-2.5 | 0.5 | - | - | - |
| Never had a health check-up | Ever had a check-up | 1.2 | 0.6-2.4 | 0.6 | - | - | - |
| Positive family history of NCDs | Negative history | 1.9 | 0.6-6.3 | 0.3 | - | - | - |
| Positive family history of NCDs death | Negative history | 1.0 | 0.4-2.3 | 1.0 | - | - | - |
| Incorrect weight perception | Correct perception | 1.9 | 0.9-4.0 | 0.1 | - | - | - |
| Poor knowledge of NCD risks | Adequate knowledge | 1.6 | 0.6-4.2 | 0.3 | - | - | - |

This present study revealed a substantially high ( $>96 \%$ ) existence of NCD risks among caregivers of patients with NCDs. Our findings however are consistent with numerous previous studies from Nepal, Nigeria, Saudi Arabia, and South Africa which revealed rates between $96.7 \%$ and $97.2 \% .{ }^{23-26}$ With such alarming prevalence of modifiable NCD risks in different communities across the globe, almost the entire adult population comprises impending NCD patients. Furthermore, half of participants in this study exhibited clustering of NCD risk factors. Similarly, roughly one in two participants in studies conducted in Bhutan ( $52.5 \%$ ), ${ }^{15}$ India ( $52.9 \%$ and $56.3 \%$ ), ${ }^{27,28}$ Nepal ( $46.1 \%$ ), ${ }^{29}$ Nigeria $(56.3 \%),{ }^{24}$ Saudi Arabia (57.6\%), ${ }^{25}$ and South Africa (55.5\%) ${ }^{26}$ demonstrated clustering. Owing to the understanding that NCD risk factors are not randomly distributed, clustering of modifiable risk factors has gained much attention in recent times. Moreover, as clustering confers higher risk of NCDs, understanding it and its permutations across different sociodemographic strata is pivotal in understanding NCDs and in designing effective and targeted multi-sectoral interventions to curb the risk behaviors. ${ }^{30,31}$

Policymakers worldwide are facing a challenge in developing strategies aimed at reducing behavioral risk factors. This challenge is largely compounded by the fact that it requires action regarding the social determinants of health. Reported by about $3 \%$ of participants in this study, tobacco use was the least prevalent risk factor in this setting. Similar tobacco use rates have been reported in Dar es Salaam city by a couple of previous community-based studies, ${ }^{32,33}$ however, as per the WHO statistics of 2017 at least $14 \%$ of Tanzanian adults were current tobacco users. ${ }^{34}$ Variable rates of tobacco use ranging from $2.9 \%$ in Nigeria to $49.9 \%$ in Bangladesh are reported by studies conducted in different communities. ${ }^{12,15,23-27,29,35-51}$ Similarly, with regards to harmful alcohol use, a wide prevalence range ( $0.8-34.7 \%$ ) is found in the body of literature. ${ }^{12,15,23,24,27,29,36-44,46-49}$ A $5 \%$ rate in harmful alcohol consumption observed in this present study echoes findings of an earlier study conducted just over a decade ago in Dar es Salaam city. ${ }^{52}$ Nonetheless, a more recent study in a similar setting that involved motorcycle taxi riders revealed a striking rate ( $61.5 \%$ ) of hazardous alcohol consumption. ${ }^{53}$ Such discrepancy in the risk rates underscores the importance of studying different sociodemographic groups because although the risk factors are uniform, the burdens of particular risks are not necessarily similar. Some risk factors were seemingly gendered. For instance, tobacco use and harmful alcohol consumption were significantly higher among males. Nonetheless, previous studies have unanimously demonstrated a similar sex pattern regarding the two behavioral risks. ${ }^{12,15,23-27,29,35-51}$

Observed in about two-thirds and over three-quarters of participants, unhealthy eating and physical inactivity, respectively were amongst the top modifiable risks in this setting. Both diet and activity level are known to play essential roles in the etiology and pathophysiology of various NCDs. Findings from this present study are significantly higher compared with findings of the 2012 national STEPS survey which revealed $9.2 \%$ and $3 \%$ rates of unhealthy diet and physical inactivity, respectively. ${ }^{54}$ With the rapidly rising rates of overweight, hypertension and diabetes in Tanzania, it is increasingly becoming evident that the soaring rates of consumption of highly processed foods together with low levels of physical activity are playing a dominant role in the NCD epidemic. ${ }^{33,55,56}$ Nonetheless, despite the wide variability in the rates of unhealthy eating ( $41.9-99.7 \%$ ) and low physical activity ( $14.5-86.4 \%$ ) from studies worldwide, the message is clear that both risks are increasing at a staggering rate. ${ }^{12,15,23-28,35-46,49-51,57,58}$

To successfully stifle the emergence of NCDs in Tanzania, effective measures to address the biological risk factors are imperative. Over two-thirds of participants were overweight or obese. Studies from all over Tanzania have produced distressing rates of overweight and obesity in recent years. Our findings echo the results of a community-based study that involved nearly 7000 Dar es Salaam residents that revealed rates of overweight/obesity of $67.2 \%{ }^{33}$ Another recent study conducted in Arusha region, northern Tanzania revealed similar rates of excess body weight ( $68.9 \%$ ) among participants. ${ }^{59}$ Looking back at the 2012 national STEPS survey which revealed $26 \%$ rate of excess body weight, the current trend (i.e. $\geq$ two-thirds of participants being overweight) raises serious public health concerns. ${ }^{54}$ Furthermore, studies in other countries have revealed overweight rates ranging between $33 \%$ and $75.9 \% .^{12,15,23-27,29,35-38,40,41,45,48-50}$ As it's linked to literally every chronic condition and increased all-cause mortality, overweight is potentially the strongest modifiable risk factor for NCDs. ${ }^{60,61}$

About two-fifths of participants in this study were hypertensive, half of these being newly diagnosed. Rates of hypertension continue to rise in the country, and more worryingly are the unsatisfactory low awareness, treatment and control rates. ${ }^{62-66}$ As with other risk factors, variable rates of hypertension (21-76\%) are documented across the world, all displaying an upward trend. ${ }^{15,23-27,29,35-40,42,43,45,47,49}$ Diagnosed in less than $6 \%$ of participants with nearly a third being newly diagnosed, diabetes was the least prevalent biological risk factor in this study. The rates of diabetes in this present study are lower than those of the 2012 national STEPS survey which revealed rates of $>9 \%,{ }^{54}$ however, a more recent study conducted in a northern region of Tanzania (Kilimanjaro) revealed similar rates ( $5.7 \%$ ) of diabetes. ${ }^{67}$ Similar to hypertension, diabetes is under-recognized and poorly controlled with reported prevalence ranging between $3.9 \%$ and $22.8 \%$. ${ }^{15,23-25,27,29,35-37,39-41,43,45,46,48,49}$ A sizeable deviation regarding the prevalence of overweight and hypertension was observed between the two sexes, with females displaying a higher burden. Such observation echoes findings of multiple previous studies ${ }^{15,25,27,33,35-38,40,41}$ and together with the aforementioned sex differences in tobacco use and harmful alcohol consumption it underscores that some risk factors might require a sex-specific approach.

Knowledge about NCD risk factors is an essential step towards modifying lifestyle risks. ${ }^{68-71}$ Impressively, over three-quarters of caregivers in this present study had adequate NCD knowledge. A wide variability of NCD knowledge has been documented from different parts of the world, some as modest ${ }^{12,72,73}$ as ours but some quite as low. ${ }^{12,23,48,74-77}$ Participants with some risk behaviors i.e. tobacco use, unhealthy diet and overweight displayed poorer knowledge compared with their risk-free counterparts. This observation calls for implementation and intensification of awareness raising programs particularly for the abovementioned risk factors. Nonetheless, the observation that the majority of study participants were knowledgeable yet having a high burden of risk factors is worrying and warrants further exploration. However, in consonance with our findings, numerous previous studies from different regions around the globe have observed a nonsignificant correlation between an individual's NCD risks and NCD knowledge. ${ }^{12,23,73,75-77,}$ Such disconnection between an individual's knowledge and lifestyle raises serious public health concerns and calls for potential revision and/or intensification of the educational initiatives for NCDs.

## Strengths and Limitations

Several strengths can be drawn from this study: (i) a sufficiently large sample to estimate the prevalence and describe the pattern of NCD risk factors as well as conducting analyses stratified according to potential effect modifiers, (ii) the use of rigorous and standardized tools for data collection and utilization of the WHO STEPS tool for assessment of NCD risks. Conversely, this study is not short of limitations. Owing to the cross-sectional nature and convenience sampling method
technique utilized, we cannot preclude bias, explore causality or generalize these findings. Nonetheless, findings obtained from this study can contribute in formulation of larger and more representative community-based studies for a more robust NCD risks estimation. Furthermore, as study participants were caregivers of individuals with established NCDs, it is conceivable that they are more likely to be enlightened than the general population regarding NCD risks and their prevention, thus their responses could be somewhat different to those of the general public. Lastly, as our assessment of some risk behaviors (i.e. tobacco use, alcohol consumption, physical inactivity and dietary habits) relied on self-reports, we cannot rule out possibility of response bias and/or recall bias with consequential over- or under-estimation.

## Conclusions

A vast majority of caregivers of NCD patients in this tertiary setting were found to have modifiable NCD risk factors with a strong tendency of clustering. These findings call for intensification of both population strategies and targeted group interventions for better control of the NCD menace and its correlates. Lifestyle modifications at the population level are urgently required as several risk factors such as unhealthy diet, excessive body weight, high blood pressure and physical inactivity were alarmingly high and frequently clustered. Moreover, primary prevention strategies to increase awareness, strengthen legislative measures and promote behavior change coupled with strengthening of the current health-care surveillance system for continuous monitoring and evaluation of NCD programs is paramount in the NCD battle.

## Abbreviations

BMI, body mass index; cm, centimeter; CI, confidence interval; CVDs, cardiovascular diseases; DALYs, disabilityadjusted life years; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; FBG, fasting blood glucose; kg, kilogram; MET, Metabolic equivalent of task; NCDs, non-communicable diseases; OR, odd ratio; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SPSS, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences; SSA, sub-Saharan Africa; STEPS, STEPwise Approach to NCD Risk Factor Surveillance; US\$, United States Dollars; WHO, World Health Organization.

## Data Sharing Statement

The datasets used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

## Ethics Approval and Consent to Participate

Participants gave written informed consent to participate in the study. The study protocol was approved by the local ethics committees (Jakaya Kikwete Cardiac Institute) and was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

## Acknowledgments

We extend our appreciation to all the study participants for their willingness, tolerance and cooperation offered during this study.

## Author Contributions

All authors made a significant contribution to the work reported, whether that is in the conception, study design, execution, acquisition of data, analysis and interpretation, or in all these areas; took part in drafting, revising or critically reviewing the article; gave final approval of the version to be published; have agreed on the journal to which the article has been submitted; and agree to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

## Funding

This work was funded by PedPal Research Initiative. The funder had no role in the design of this study, collection of data, data analysis, interpretation of results or writing of this manuscript.

## Disclosure

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## References

1. World Health Organization. Global status report on noncommunicable diseases-2014. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2014. Available from: http://www.who.int/nmh/publications/ncd-status-report-2014/en/. Accessed May 2, 2021.
2. World Economic Forum, World Health Organization. From burden to "best buys": reducing the economic impact of non-communicable diseases in low- and middle-income countries. ColognySwitzerland: World Economic Forum; 2011. Available from: http://www.who.int/nmh/publications/ best_buys_summary.pdf. Accessed May 2, 2021.
3. Gouda HN, Charlson F, Sorsdahl K, et al. Burden of non-communicable diseases in sub-Saharan Africa, 1990-2017: results from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. Lancet Glob Health. 2019;7(10):e1375-e1387. doi:10.1016/S2214-109X(19)30374-2
4. Noncommunicable diseases. World Health Organization Regional Office of Africa. Available from: https://www.afro.who.int/health-topics/non communicable-diseases. Accessed May 2, 2022.
5. Bloom DE, Cafiero ET, Jané-Llopis E, et al. The global economic burden of noncommunicable diseases. Geneva: World Economic Forum; 2011. Available from: www.weforum.org/EconomicsOfNCD. Accessed May 2, 2021.
6. Bennett JE, Stevens GA, Mathers CD, et al. NCD countdown 2030: worldwide trends in non-communicable disease mortality and progress towards Sustainable Development Goal target 3.4. Lancet. 2018;392(10152):1072-1088. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(18)31992-5
7. Bygbjerg IC. Double burden of noncommunicable and infectious diseases in developing countries. Science. 2012;337(6101):1499-1501. doi:10.1126/science. 1223466
8. GBD 2015 Risk Factors Collaborators. Global, regional, and national comparative risk assessment of 79 behavioural, environmental and occupational, and metabolic risks or clusters of risks, 1990-2015: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2015. Lancet. 2016;388(10053):1659-1724. doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(16)31679-8
9. World Health Organization. Noncommunicable Diseases Country Profiles 2018. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2018.
10. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Division of nutrition, physical activity, and obesity. About Adult BMI. Available from: http://www.cdc. gov/healthyweight/assessing/bmi/adult_bmi/. Accessed May 2, 2022.
11. World Health Organization. Waist circumference and waist-hip ratio: report of a WHO expert consultation. Geneva: World Health Organization; 2011.
12. Burger A, Pretorius R, Fourie Carla MT, et al. The relationship between cardiovascular risk factors and knowledge of cardiovascular disease in African men in the North-West Province. Health SA Gesondheid. 2016;21(1):364-371. doi:10.1016/j.hsag.2016.07.003
13. Amadi CE, Lawal FO, Mbakwem AC, et al. Knowledge of cardiovascular disease risk factors and practice of primary prevention of cardiovascular disease by Community Pharmacists in Nigeria: a cross-sectional study. Int J Clin Pharm. 2018;40(6):1587-1595. doi:10.1007/ s11096-018-0744-3
14. Boateng D, Wekesah F, Browne JL, et al. Knowledge and awareness of and perception towards cardiovascular disease risk in sub-Saharan Africa: a systematic review. PLoS One. 2017;12(12):e0189264. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0189264
15. Pelzom D, Isaakidis P, Oo MM, et al. Alarming prevalence and clustering of modifiable noncommunicable disease risk factors among adults in Bhutan: a nationwide cross-sectional community survey. BMC Public Health. 2017;17(1):975. doi:10.1186/s12889-017-4989-x
16. National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism. Drinking levels defined. Available from: https://www.niaaa.nih.gov/alcohol-health/over viewalcohol-consumption/moderate-binge-drinking. Accessed December 1, 2021.
17. World Health Organization. Healthy diet. http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs394/en/. Accessed December 1, 2021.
18. World Health Organization. Global Physical Activity Questionnaire (GPAQ) for physical activity surveillance; 2004. Available from: http://www. who.int/ncds/surveillance/steps/GPAQ/en/. Accessed December 1, 2021.
19. Chobanian AV, Bakris GL, Black HR. seventh report of the joint national committee on prevention, detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure. Hypertension. 2003;42(6):1206-1252. doi:10.1161/01.HYP.0000107251.49515.c2
20. American Diabetes Association. Classification and diagnosis of diabetes. Sec. 2 in standards of medical care in diabetes-2015. Diabetes Care. 2015;38((Suppl 1)):S8-S16. doi:10.2337/dc15-S005
21. Kabajulizi J, Darko FA. Do non-communicable diseases influence sustainable development in Sub-Saharan Africa? A panel autoregressive distributive lag model approach. Health Policy Plan. 2021;37(3):337-348. doi:10.1093/heapol/czab131
22. Nyirenda MJ. Non-communicable diseases in sub-Saharan Africa: understanding the drivers of the epidemic to inform intervention strategies. Int Health. 2016;8(3):157-158. doi:10.1093/inthealth/ihw021
23. Dahal S, Sah RB, Niraula SR, et al. Prevalence and determinants of non-communicable disease risk factors among adult population of Kathmandu. PLoS One. 2021;16(9):e0257037. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0257037
24. Olawuyi AT, Adeoye IA. The prevalence and associated factors of non-communicable disease risk factors among civil servants in Ibadan, Nigeria. PLoS One. 2018;13(9):e0203587. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0203587
25. Amin TT, Al Sultan AI, Mostafa OA, Darwish AA, Al-Naboli MR. Profile of non-communicable disease risk factors among employees at a Saudi University. Asian Pac J Cancer Prev. 2014;15(18):7897-7907. doi:10.7314/APJCP.2014.15.18.7897
26. Kolbe-Alexander TL, Conradie J, Lambert EV. Clustering of risk factors for non-communicable disease and healthcare expenditure in employees with private health insurance presenting for health risk appraisal: a cross-sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2013;13(1):1213. doi:10.1186/1471-2458-13-1213
27. Sarma PS, Sadanandan R, Thulaseedharan JV, et al. Prevalence of risk factors of non-communicable diseases in Kerala, India: results of a cross-sectional 8 study. BMJ Open. 2019;9:e027880. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2018-027880
28. Sarveswaran G, Kulothungan V, Mathur P. Clustering of noncommunicable disease risk factors among adults (18-69 years) in rural population, South-India. Diabetes Metab Syndr. 2020;14(5):1005-1014. doi:10.1016/j.dsx.2020.05.042
29. Timalsina P, Singh R. Assessment of risk factors of noncommunicable diseases among semiurban population of Kavre District, Nepal. J Environ Public Health. 2021;2021(1):1-7. doi:10.1155/2021/5584561
30. Lv J, Liu Q, Ren Y, et al. Community Interventions for Health (CIH) collaboration. Socio-demographic association of multiple modifiable lifestyle risk factors and their clustering in a representative urban population of adults: a cross-sectional study in Hangzhou, China. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2011;8(1):40. doi:10.1186/1479-5868-8-40
31. Wekesah FM, Nyanjau L, Kibachio J, et al. Individual and household level factors associated with presence of multiple non-communicable disease risk factors in Kenyan adults. BMC Public Health. 2018;18(S3):1220. doi:10.1186/s12889-018-6055-8
32. Pallangyo P, Nicholaus P, Kisenge P, et al. A community-based study on prevalence and correlates of erectile dysfunction among Kinondoni District Residents, Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania. Reprod Health. 2016;13(1):140. doi:10.1186/s12978-016-0249-2
33. Pallangyo P, Mkojera ZS, Hemed NR, et al. Obesity epidemic in urban Tanzania: a public health calamity in an already overwhelmed and fragmented health system. BMC Endocr Disord. 2020;20(1):147. doi:10.1186/s12902-020-00631-3
34. World Health Organization Organization report on the global tobacco epidemic, 2017; Country profile United Republic of Tanzania. World Health Organization; 2017.
35. Saeed KMI. Prevalence of risk factors for non-communicable diseases in the adult population of urban areas in Kabul City, Afghanistan. Cent Asian J Glob Health. 2014;2(2):69. doi:10.5195/cajgh.2013.69
36. Oommen AM, Abraham VJ, George K, et al. Prevalence of risk factors for non-communicable diseases in rural \& urban Tamil Nadu. Indian J Med Res. 2016;144:460-471. doi:10.4103/0971-5916.198668
37. Ong SK, Lai DTC, Wong JYY, et al. Cross-sectional STEPwise Approach to Surveillance (STEPS) Population Survey of Noncommunicable Diseases (NCDs) and Risk Factors in Brunei Darussalam 2016. Asia Pac J Public Health. 2017;29(8):635-648. doi:10.1177/1010539517738072
38. Idowu A, Olumide A, Aremu OA, et al. Prevalence and correlates of noncommunicable disease risk factors in a peri-urban community of Oyo State, South West, Nigeria. Int J Non-Commun Dis. 2017;2:85-90. doi:10.4103/jncd.jncd_30_17
39. Agaba EI, Akanbi MO, Agaba PA, et al. A survey of non-communicable diseases and their risk factors among university employees: a single institutional study. Cardiovasc J Afr. 2017;28(6):377-384. doi:10.5830/CVJA-2017-021
40. Thakur J, Jeet G, Nangia R, et al. Noncommunicable diseases risk factors and their determinants: a cross-sectional state-wide STEPS survey, Haryana, North India. PLoS One. 2019;14(11):e0208872. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0208872
41. Srivastav S, Mahajan H, Goel S, et al. Prevalence of risk factors of noncommunicable diseases in a rural population of district Gautam Budh Nagar, Uttar Pradesh using the World Health Organization STEPS approach. J Family Med Prim Care. 2017;6:491-497. doi:10.4103/22494863.222027
42. Jain S, Jain V, Jain S, et al. Prevalence of modifiable risk factors for non-communicable diseases in urban slum: a cross sectional study using WHO STEPS approach. Int J Community Med Public Health. 2019;6(4):1565-1572. doi:10.18203/2394-6040.ijcmph20191385
43. Zaman MM, Rahman MM, Rahman MR, et al. Prevalence of risk factors for non-communicable diseases in Bangladesh: results from STEPS survey 2010. Indian J Public Health. 2016;60(1):17-25. doi:10.4103/0019-557X.177290
44. Banik PC, Zaman MM, Ahmed J, et al. Prevalence of risk factors of non-communicable diseases in an adult population of Rural Bangladesh. Cardiovasc J. 2018;10(2):126-134. doi:10.3329/cardio.v10i2.36279
45. Ahmed SH, Meyer HE, Kjøllesdal MK, et al. The prevalence of selected risk factors for non-communicable diseases in Hargeisa, Somaliland: a cross-sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2019;19(1):878. doi:10.1186/s12889-019-7101-x
46. Aminde LN, Takah N, Ngwasiri C, et al. Population awareness of cardiovascular disease and its risk factors in Buea, Cameroon. BMC Public Health. 2017;17(1):545. doi:10.1186/s12889-017-4477-3
47. Fahs I, Khalife Z, Malaeb D, et al. The prevalence and awareness of cardiovascular diseases risk factors among the Lebanese population: a prospective study comparing urban to rural populations. Cardiol Res Pract. 2017;2017:3530902. doi:10.1155/2017/3530902
48. Chen D, Rivera-Andrade Á, González J, et al. Prevalence of risk factors for noncommunicable diseases in an indigenous community in Santiago Atitlán, Guatemala. Rev Panam Salud Publica. 2017;41:e7.
49. Nujhat S, Alam W, Parajuli A, et al. Prevalence of risk factors for non-communicable diseases in a rural population of Bangladesh: a cross-sectional study. Lancet Global Health. 2020;8:S21. doi:10.1016/S2214-109X(20)30162-5
50. Al-Mawali A, Jayapal SK, Morsi M, et al. Prevalence of risk factors of non-communicable diseases in the Sultanate of Oman: STEPS survey 2017. PLoS One. 2021;16(10):e0259239. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0259239
51. Olfa E, Jihene M, Dhekra C, et al. Clustering of cardiovascular diseases risk factors among manufacturing employees in Sousse, Tunisia. J Endocrinol Diab. 2018;5(1):1-7. doi:10.15226/2374-6890/5/1/00196
52. Mbatia J, Jenkins R, Singleton N, et al. Prevalence of alcohol consumption and hazardous drinking, tobacco and drug use in urban Tanzania, and their associated risk factors. Int J Environ Res Public Health. 2009;6(7):1991-2006. doi:10.3390/ijerph6071991
53. Kitua DW, Kabalimu TK, Muindi RR. Prevalence and factors associated with hazardous alcohol consumption among motorcycle taxi riders in Kinondoni District, Dar-Es-Salaam, Tanzania: a cross-sectional study. East Afr Health Res J. 2019;3(2):158-165. doi:10.24248/eahrj.v3i2.613
54. Mayige M, Kagaruki G Tanzania steps survey report. ministry of health and social welfare, and National Institute for Medical Research (NIMR) in collaboration with world health organization; 2013. Available from: https://www.who.int/ncds/surveillance/steps/UR_Tanzania_2012_STEPS_ Report.pdf.. Accessed May 2, 2022.
55. Mandha J, Buza J, Kassimu N, et al. Prevalence of hypertension and associated risk factors among Maasai communities in Simanjiro, Tanzania. ACRI. 2015;2(2):96-108. doi:10.9734/ACRI/2015/22353
56. Kavishe B, Biraro S, Baisley K, et al. High prevalence of hypertension and of risk factors for non-communicable diseases (NCDs): a population based cross-sectional survey of NCDS and HIV infection in Northwestern Tanzania and Southern Uganda. BMC Med. 2015;13(1):126. doi:10.1186/ s12916-015-0357-9
57. Shafiq S. Public knowledge of cardiovascular diseases and its risk factors in Srinagar. Int J Med Health Res. 2017;3(12):69-76.
58. Hene N, Wood P, Schwellnus M, et al. High prevalence of non-communicable diseases risk factors in 36,074 South African financial sector employees: a cross-sectional study. J Occup Environ Med. 2021;63(2):159-165. doi:10.1097/JOM.0000000000002104
59. Zubery D, Kimiywe J, Martin HD. Prevalence of overweight and obesity, and its associated factors among health-care workers, teachers, and bankers in Arusha City, Tanzania. Diabetes Metab Syndr Obes. 2021;14:455-465. doi:10.2147/DMSO.S283595
60. Ramsay M, Crowther NJ, Agongo G, et al. Regional and sex-specific variation in BMI distribution in four sub-Saharan African countries: the H3 Africa AWIGen study. Glob Health Action. 2018;11(sup2):1556561. doi:10.1080/16549716.2018.1556561
61. The GBD. 2015 obesity collaborators. Health effects of overweight and obesity in 195 countries over 25 years. $N$ Engl J Med. 2017;377(1):13-27. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1614362
62. Muhamedhussein MS, Nagri ZI, Manji KP. Prevalence, risk factors, awareness, and treatment and control of hypertension in Mafia Island, Tanzania. Int J Hypertens. 2016;2016:1281384. doi:10.1155/2016/1281384
63. Edwards R, Unwin N, Mugusi F, et al. Hypertension prevalence and care in an urban and rural area of Tanzania. J Hypertens. 2000;18(2):145-152. doi:10.1097/00004872-200018020-00003
64. Zack RM, Irema K, Kazonda P, et al. Determinants of high blood pressure and barriers to diagnosis and treatment in Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania. J Hypertens. 2016;34(12):2353-2364. doi:10.1097/HJH.0000000000001117
65. Galson SW, Staton CA, Karia F, et al. Epidemiology of hypertension in Northern Tanzania: a community-based mixed-methods study. BMJ Open. 2017;7(11):e018829. doi:10.1136/bmjopen-2017-018829
66. Mosha NR, Mahande M, Juma A, et al. Prevalence, awareness and factors associated with hypertension in North West Tanzania. Glob Health Action. 2017;10:1321279. doi:10.1080/16549716.2017.1321279
67. Stanifer JW, Cleland CR, Makuka GJ, et al. Prevalence, risk factors, and complications of diabetes in the Kilimanjaro region: a population-based study from Tanzania. PLoS One. 2016;11(10):e0164428. doi:10.1371/journal.pone. 0164428
68. Berkman ND, Sheridan SL, Donahue KE, et al. Low health literacy and health outcomes: an updated systematic review. Ann Intern Med. 2011;155:97-107. doi:10.7326/0003-4819-155-2-201107190-00005
69. Joshi C, Jayasinghe UW, Parker F, et al. Does health literacy affect patients' receipt of preventative primary care?. BMC Fam Pract. 2014;15:15. doi:10.1186/1471-2296-15-15
70. Lim S, Beauchamp A, Dodson S, et al. Health literacy and fruit and vegetable intake in rural Australia. Public Health Nutr. 2017;20 (15):2680-2684. doi:10.1017/S1368980017001483
71. von Wagner C, Steptoe A, Wolf MS, et al. Health literacy and health actions: a review and a framework from health psychology. Health Educ Behav. 2009;36:860-877. doi:10.1177/1090198108322819
72. Toupchian O, Abdollahi S, Samadi M, et al. Knowledge and attitude on cardiovascular disease risk factors and their relationship with obesity and biochemical parameters. J Nutr Food Secur. 2016;1(1):63-72.
73. Mohammad NB, Rahman NA, Haque M. Knowledge, attitude, and practice regarding the risk of cardiovascular diseases in patients attending outpatient clinic in Kuantan, Malaysia. J Pharm Bioall Sci. 2018;10:7-14. doi:10.4103/jpbs.JPBS_227_17
74. Oladapo OO, Salako L, Sadiq L, et al. Knowledge of hypertension and other risk factors for heart disease among Yoruba rural southwestern Nigerian population. JAMMR. 2013;3:993-1003.
75. Crouch R, Wilson A. An exploration of rural women's knowledge of heart disease and the association with lifestyle behaviours. Int $J$ Nurs Pract. 2011;17(3):238-245. doi:10.1111/j.1440-172X.2011.01931.x
76. Homko CJ, Santamore WP, Zamora L, et al. Cardiovascular disease knowledge and risk perception among underserved individuals at increased risk of cardiovascular disease. J Cardiovasc Nurs. 2008;23(4):332-337. doi:10.1097/01.JCN.0000317432.44586.aa
77. Fida H, Shuma F, Mosisa WK. Knowledge and preventive practice towards non-communicable diseases risk factors among civil servants of Kellem Wollega Zone, Western Ethiopia in January, 2019. Health Sci J. 2021;15:10.

## 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. 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.

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

