

# The importance of BMI in early prevention of cardiovascular risk in young adult Poles

Barbara Ślusarska<sup>1</sup>, Renata Krzyszycha<sup>2</sup>, Danuta Zarzycka<sup>1</sup>, Teresa Bernadetta Kulik<sup>3</sup>,  
Beata Dobrowolska<sup>1</sup>, Agnieszka Brzozowska<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Department of Nursing Development, Faculty of Nursing and Health Sciences, Medical University, Lublin, Poland

<sup>2</sup> Institute of Clinical Dietetics, Faculty of Nursing and Health Sciences, Medical University, Lublin, Poland

<sup>3</sup> Department of Public Health, Faculty of Nursing and Health Sciences, Medical University, Lublin, Poland

<sup>4</sup> Institute of Mathematics and Medical Biostatistics, Faculty of Nursing and Health Sciences, Medical University, Lublin, Poland

Ślusarska B, Krzyszycha R, Zarzycka D, Kulik TB, Dobrowolska B, Brzozowska A. The importance of BMI in early prevention of cardiovascular risk in young adult Poles. *J Pre-Clin Clin Res.* 2012; 6(1): 35-41.

## Abstract

**Background:** The natural course of atherosclerotic processes in young adults and the common occurrence of risk factors in the Polish population necessitate the search for simple methods of assessing cardiovascular risk in the early stage of its development.

**Purpose:** To determine the relationship between Body Mass Index (BMI) and the cardiovascular risk assessment in a group of young adults in the early stage of threat development.

**Methods:** Observational studies were conducted in a group of 1,593 participants – 1,012 females (63.5%) and 581 males (36.5%) between the ages of 19-35 years (average: 22.16; SD=2.81), studying at university colleges in Lublin. Data were collected between October 2008 – March 2009 and analyzed in 2009 and 2010. The studies included demographics, anthropometric and blood pressure measures, and laboratory tests of lipid levels in blood serum. Algorithm Framingham Risk Score (FRS) was used to assess the overall cardiovascular risk.

**Results:** The average BMI value among respondents was 22.4 kg/m<sup>2</sup> (SD=3.46). The results of BMI correlation indicate highly significant positive correlation in the variables range: waist circumference ( $r=0.7850$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ); gender ( $r=0.4783$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ); triglyceride level ( $r=0.3422$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), LDL level ( $r=0.2432$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), age ( $r=0.1321$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) and negative relation in the range of HDL level ( $r=-0.2618$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). BMI relative value with FRS grading was statistically significant ( $r=0.2757$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ).

**Conclusions:** Significant correlations between BMI and variables, and FRS, confirm its importance as an early cardiovascular risk marker.

## Key words

cardiovascular risk, BMI, young adults, primary preventive

## INTRODUCTION

There are many factors influencing the risk development of cardiovascular diseases (CVD). Factors of lifestyle resulting from the behavioural sphere of an individual's functioning are among the most important. They include a high-fat and high-energy diet, low physical activity, and smoking habit [1]. Metabolic risk factors, depending largely on lifestyle, include lipid disorders, hypertension, glucometabolic disorders and obesity [2]. Along with others, they create a structure of 24 global risk factors responsible for 44% of deaths in the world, and 34% of potentially lost years of life (DALYs). Five major global risks in relation to mortality worldwide are constituted by high blood pressure, smoking, high glucose level in blood, lack of physical activity, overweight and obesity [3], and all are closely related to CVD risk.

Natural course of atherosclerotic processes in young adults, confirmed by numerous biopsical and ultrasonographic

studies [4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12] and also common occurrence of risk factors of the ischemic heart disease at young adults in Polish population, which is determined in Pol-MONICA bis 2002, NATPOL PLUS 2002, WOBASZ 2005 programmes [13, 14, 15, 16, 17], incline to seek for simple and effective methods of assessing cardiovascular risk in the early stage of its development.

Risk assessment is a key element in the quest to determine the prognosis of CVD development through estimation of significant risk markers in circulatory system diseases. The aim is to identify and assess the potential directions of therapy, implement therapy effectively, both in primary and secondary prevention, as well as to reduce treatment costs [18].

The recommended general risk assessment system – the algorithm SCORE (*European Systematic Coronary Risk Evaluation*), used to assess 10-year risk of cardiac death – estimates the risk by use of the following factors: gender, age, total cholesterol level, systolic blood pressure and smoking [19], and is intended for the population aged over 40. In the population aged from 20, the algorithm *Framingham Risk Score* [20] can be used according to the recommendations of Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of

Address for correspondence: Barbara Ślusarska, Department of Nursing Development, Faculty of Nursing and Health Sciences, Medical University, Lublin, Raclawickie 1, 20-059 Lublin, Poland.  
E-mail: basiaslusarska@gmail.com

Received: 12 March 2012; accepted: 12 June 2012

High Blood Cholesterol in Adults and National Cholesterol Education Program [21]. In assessing 10-year risk of ischemic heart disease development, the following factors are used in accordance with the *Framingham Risk Score*: age, total HDL cholesterol, systolic blood pressure, hypertension treatment and smoking. Preliminary risk assessment, according to the rules set out in an ATP III report, uses the major risk factors to establish the total risk level. In comparing sensitivity and specificity of 3 different algorithms assessing the risk, namely, the *Framingham Risk Score*, the SCORE system and CVD risk, in a group of 25,059 respondents in the *FINRISK Study*, the risk assessment for different cardiovascular diseases in 10-year observation period showed that the peculiarity for different final scores was the highest in the SCORE system and the *Framingham Risk Score* by 20% of risk [22].

The presented study aimed to determine the relationship between BMI and the cardiovascular risk assessment in a group of young adults in the early stage of threat development of cardiovascular incidents.

## METHODS

**Procedure.** Participants completed a demographic and clinical questionnaire after the objective and rules of partaking in the study were explained to them. Participation was anonymous and voluntary. Registered nurses conducted several health measurements as described below.

Data were collected between October 2008 – March 2009, and analyzed in 2009 and 2010.

**Participants.** Cross-sectional studies were conducted in a group of individuals studying at university colleges in the city of Lublin in southeast Poland. A convenience sample was recruited by a stratified-random group method. In the academic year 2008-2009 there were 11 university colleges with 85,911 students attending full-time and part-time undergraduate and postgraduate courses. This placed the city in 6<sup>th</sup> position as an academic centre in Poland with respect to the number of students. The total number of students in Lublin province at that time was 103,209; in Poland, the total number of students amounted to 1, 910, 979 [23].

Of the 85,911 students in Lublin, 50,217 were full-time (58.5%) and 35,694 were part-time students (41.6%). The research project was addressed only to full-time students due to the initial assumption of the programme, namely, assurance of comparable access conditions to free laboratorial examinations (offered free within the project) for tested students. A sample of 2,000 students was chosen from the total number of students, and 1,593 individuals (79.7%) voluntarily participated in the research. 426 students (26.7%) voluntarily accepted the invitation offered to the whole group (1,593 people) within the research programme, and undertook a free laboratory indication of lipids level in blood serum. The sampling procedure is presented in Figure 1.

**Measurements.** *Blood Pressure.* Blood pressure was measured in a seated position on upper right arm with the oscillometric method using the Omron M1 Classic model. Three readings 2 minutes apart were taken after a participant had been seated for 10 minutes. Depending on the arm's circumference, the appropriate cuff was chosen (small, medium or large). The average pressure value was based

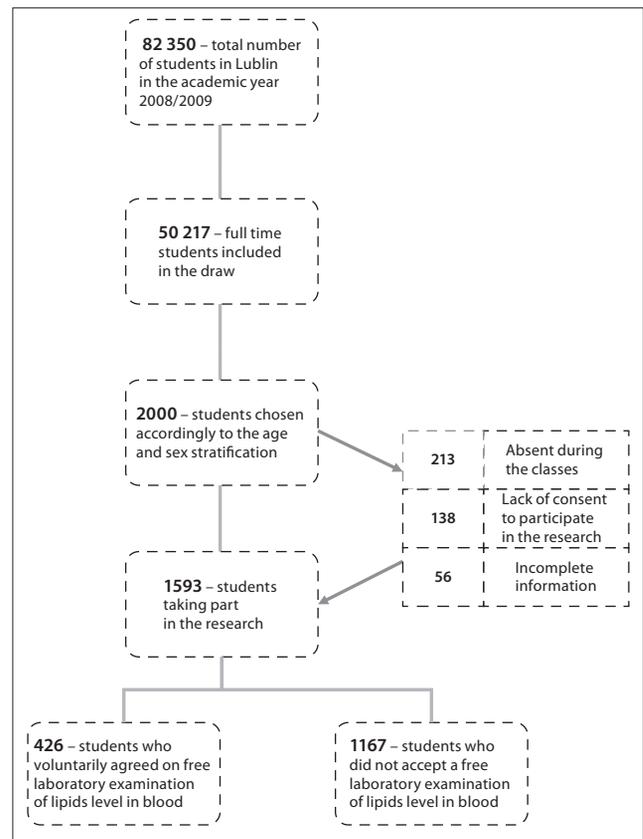


Figure 1. Plan and group selection diagram for cross-sectional survey

on the second and third readings. Data regarding current hypertension treatment was obtained from the questionnaire answers. The reading result was classified according to the standing classification [24], and differentiated in following manner: systolic blood pressure (SBP) SBP < 140 mmHg, diastolic blood pressure (DBP) DBP < 90 mmHg, including optimal (SBP < 120 mmHg, DBP < 80 mmHg), normal (SBP ≤ 120-129 mmHg, DBP ≤ 80-84 mmHg), high normal (SBP ≤ 130-139 mmHg, DBP ≤ 85-89 mmHg) and hypertension (SBP ≥ 140 mmHg and/or DBP ≥ 90 mmHg, and also early recognition of hypertension and taking hypertension medications).

**Anthropometric Measures.** Body mass was assessed with a standardized medical scales or a portable scales, certified by the Bauer company to the nearest 0.1kg. Height was measured with an altimeter to the nearest 0.5cm. Body mass index was calculated using the formula: BMI = kg/m<sup>2</sup>. Three categories were distinguished: BMI < 25.0 kg/m<sup>2</sup> – normal weight, BMI from ≥ 25 – < 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup> – overweight, BMI ≥ 30 kg/m<sup>2</sup> – obesity [25]. Adipose tissue of waist circumference (WC) was measured to the nearest 0.5cm in the horizontal plane around the participant's waste at the level of the umbilicus. The normal waist circumference values accepted were < 80 cm for females and < 94 cm for males; the boundary values were ≥ 80 – < 88 cm and ≥ 94 – < 102 cm; abdominal obesity values were ≥ 88 cm and ≥ 102 cm for females and males, respectively [25].

**Biological Health Indicators (Total Cholesterol, HDL-C, LDL-C, TG).** A fasting lipid panel was analyzed using a venous blood serum sample in clinical laboratory conditions. Total

cholesterol (TC), HDL cholesterol (HDL-C) and triglycerides (TG) were determined with the direct enzymatic method. Cholesterol LDL (LDL-C) was calculated with the Friedwald formula. For dyslipidemia, the following indicators were accepted: *hipercholesterolemia* – TC  $\geq 5$  mmol/l ( $\geq 190$  mg/dl) and/or LDL-C  $\geq 3,0$  mmol/l ( $\geq 115$  mg/dl), *hipertriglicerydemia* – TG  $\geq 1.7$  mmol/l ( $\geq 150$  mg/dl) and low cholesterol HDL-C: HDL-C  $< 1$  mmol/l (40 mg/dl) for males and  $< 1.2$  mmol/l ( $< 45$  mg/dl) for females [26, 27].

**Assessment of overall cardiovascular risk.** In order to estimate overall cardiovascular risk during the next 10 years, the *Framingham Risk Score* (FRS) was used [20]. The FRS tool uses the latest data from the Framingham Heart Study to estimate 10-year risk for myocardial infarction and coronary death. The calculator is designed for adults aged 20 and over who do not have heart disease or diabetes, and is based on the guidelines of *Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Programme* (NCEP) [28], *Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults* [21]. It assesses the risk based on the following criteria: gender, age, total cholesterol level (TC), HDL cholesterol level, smoking, systolic blood pressure and taking hypertension medications.

**Range of survey questions.** The studies also included survey questions which concerned, inter alia, age, gender, place of residence, smoking, and anamnesis (treatment due to ischemic heart disease, hypertension, diabetes, medications, hypertension and coronary heart disease in first-degree relatives before the age of 60).

**Statistical analysis.** The results obtained were subjected to statistical analysis. Values of measurable parameters analysed were presented by mean value and standard deviation, and non-measurable ones by amount and percentage. Significance of variables correlation was examined by Pearson's correlation significance test (when both variables had normal distribution) and the Spearman's test (when one of the variables did not have normal distribution). Statistically significant correlation was  $p=0.05$ . The statistical analyses were conducted on the basis of STATISTICA 8.0 programme.

**Opinion of Commission of Bioethics.** The studies were conducted within own research financed by Medical University of Lublin. Research Grant No. PW 676/07-10 and the research procedure undertaken received the positive opinion of the Commission of Bioethics.

## RESULTS

**Demographics.** Of the total number of participants – 1,593, the number of females amounted to 1,012 (63.5%) and males – 581 (36.5%). The age range was 19-35 years, the mean age – 22.2 (SD=2.8). 947 (59.5%) students were brought up in a city and 646 (40.5%) in the countryside. There were 415 (26.1%) students who smoked while the rest 1178 (79.0%) did not smoke. Anamnesis conducted showed that 80 (5.0%) students had been treated due to various diseases, namely, 9 people had hypertension, 5 – diabetes, 2 – supraventricular arrhythmia, 1 – heart valve regurgitation. Other common reasons for treatment were: bronchial asthma, allergy,

discopathy, duodenal ulcer, hypothyroidism, anemia, kidney stones, epilepsy, chronic glomerulonephritis, hernia, gastro-oesophageal reflux disease, Lesniowski-Crohn's disease, visual impairments, malocclusion, and postural problems, among others.

**Descriptive characteristics of variables.** The average variable values, together with the basic descriptive characteristics in the group of respondents, are shown in Table 1. The mean values of systolic blood pressure were SBP – 118.72 mmHg (SD=13.11) and mean values of diastolic blood pressure were DBP – 71.5 mmHg (SD=9.35). The mean value for BMI was 22.4 m/kg<sup>2</sup> (SD=3.46). The range of mean values for lipids in blood serum was as follows: TC – 141.7 mg/dl (SD=60.86), HDL-C – 59.1 mg/dl (SD=22.06), LDL-C – 73.3 mg/dl (SD=34.62) and TG – 65,8 mg/dl (SD=35.13). The mean value for FRS indicator expressed in scores was 3.0 scores (SD=4.63).

**Table 1.** Descriptive statistics of variables

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Lower quartile	Median	Upper quartile	Maximum
SBP I	118.72	13.11	60.00	110.00	120.00	125.00	180.00
DBP I	71.50	9.35	0.00	65.00	70.00	80.00	100.00
SBP II	116.35	13.66	0.00	110.00	117.00	125.00	180.00
DBP II	70.70	9.74	0.00	65.00	70.00	80.00	120.00
BMI	22.41	3.46	5.71	20.00	21.81	24.07	53.63
WHR	0.78	0.07	0.53	0.73	0.78	0.83	1.22
TC	141.69	60.86	13.00	132.00	157.00	177.00	276.00
HDL-C	59.12	22.06	1.00	53.00	63.00	74.00	111.00
LDL-C	73.32	34.62	1.00	59.00	77.00	91.00	173.00
TG	65.80	35.13	1.00	47.00	65.00	85.00	188.00
FRS/score	-3.03	4.63	-9.00	-7.00	-4.00	1.00	11.00
WC	78.24	10.65	52.00	70.00	77.00	85.00	135.00

In the detailed analysis, the distribution of particular variables was as follows: optimal values for systolic blood pressure (SBP  $< 120$  mmHg) were observed at 43.6% respondents in reading I, and at 69.2% of respondents at reading II. The optimal values of diastolic blood pressure (DBP  $< 80$  mmHg) were observed at 69.2% respondents in reading I and at 74.3% respondents at reading II. In the group of individuals with normal blood pressure (SBP  $\leq 120$ -129 mmHg, DBP  $\leq 80$ -84 mmHg – group II) there were 31.8% respondents in reading I, and 33.9% respondents in reading II with systolic blood pressure. With regards to diastolic blood pressure, there were 18.6% and 22.3% of respondents in readings I and II, respectively. High normal blood pressure (SBP  $\leq 130$ -139 mmHg, DBP  $\leq 85$ -89 mmHg – group III) was observed in 8.6% of respondents (reading I) and in 6.0% of respondents (reading II) with regards to systolic blood pressure, and at 5.4% of respondents (reading I) and 4.4% of respondents (reading II) with regards to diastolic blood pressure. The normal body weight with regards to BMI was identified in 77.2% of respondents. Overweight was observed in 15.2% students and obesity in 3.2% of respondents. The normal waist circumference ( $< 80$  cm for females and  $< 94$  cm

**Table 2.** Detailed results in the range of values for particular variables

	Variables	n	%
	Value range		
SBP I	< 120	695	43.6
	≤ 120-129	540	33.9
	≤ 130-139	219	13.8
	≥ 140	139	8.7
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,593</b>	<b>100%</b>
DBP I	< 80 g	1,103	69.2
	≤ 80-84	355	22.3
	≤ 85-89	49	3.1
	≥ 90	86	5.4
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,593</b>	<b>100%</b>
SBP II	< 120	817	51.3
	≤ 120-129	506	31.8
	≤ 130-139	175	11.0
	≥ 140	95	6.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,593</b>	<b>100%</b>
DBP II	< 80 g	1,184	74.3
	≤ 80-84	296	18.6
	≤ 85-89	43	2.7
	≥ 90	70	4.4
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,593</b>	<b>100%</b>
WC	K< 80	794	78.5
	K≥ 80 to < 88	151	14.9
	K≥ 88	67	6.6
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,012</b>	<b>100%</b>
WC	M< 94	466	80.2
	M≥ 94 to < 102	81	14.0
	M≥ 102	34	5.9
<b>Total</b>		<b>581</b>	<b>100%</b>
WHR	K≤ 0.8	800	79.0
	K> 0.8	212	21.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,012</b>	<b>100%</b>
WHR	M≤ 0.95	544	93.6
	M> 0.95	37	6.4
<b>Total</b>		<b>581</b>	<b>100%</b>
TC	<190 mg/dl	345	81.0
	≥190 mg/dl	81	19.0
<b>Total</b>		<b>426</b>	<b>100%</b>
LDL	<115 mg/dl	378	88.7
	≥115 mg/dl	48	11.3
<b>Total</b>		<b>426</b>	<b>100%</b>
TG	<150 mg/dl	418	98.1
	≥150 mg/dl	8	1.9
<b>Total</b>		<b>426</b>	<b>100%</b>
HDL	K≥ 45 mg/dl	46	14.0
	K<45 mg/dl	281	85.9
<b>Total</b>		<b>327</b>	<b>100%</b>
HDL	M≥ 40mg/dl	35	35.4
	M<40 mg/dl	64	64.7
<b>Total</b>		<b>99</b>	<b>100%</b>
BMI	≥30kg/m <sup>2</sup>	51	3.2
	25-29,9kg/m <sup>2</sup>	242	15.2
	18.5-24.9kg/m <sup>2</sup>	1,230	77.2
	<18.5 kg/m <sup>2</sup>	70	4.4
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>1,593</b>	<b>100%</b>

for males) was observed in 78.5% of females and 80.2% of males. Waist circumference indicating abdominal obesity (≥ 88 cm for females and ≥ 102 cm for males) was found in 6.6% of females and 5.9% of males. In the group of people (n=426) undertaking the laboratory test to determine the level of blood lipids, a level of total cholesterol TC < 190 mg% was observed in 81.0% of respondents, and TC < 190 ≥ mg% in 19.0% of students. The value range of remaining lipids indicators in particular group is presented in Table 2.

In the group of people who reported to the laboratory and performed marking of lipids in blood serum, the cardiovascular risk indicator was determined according to *Framingham Risk Score (FRS)* scale n=426. Results are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3.** Distribution of individual cardiovascular risk in the *Framingham Risk Score (FRS)* scale n=426

FRS risk	Amount	%
<1	345	80.9
1	43	10.1
2	35	8.2
3	1	0.3
4	1	0.3
5	1	0.3

In the statistical analysis the correlation between variables was determined, and established that with regards to BMI there was a relationship between the following variables: age, gender, smoking, blood pressure, waist-to-hip ratio (WHR), waist circumference (WC), level of lipids in blood serum, and total cardiovascular risk on the *FRS* scale (Tab. 4).

**Table 4.** Correlation matrix between BMI indicator and the chosen variables (Spearman test and Pearson's correlations)

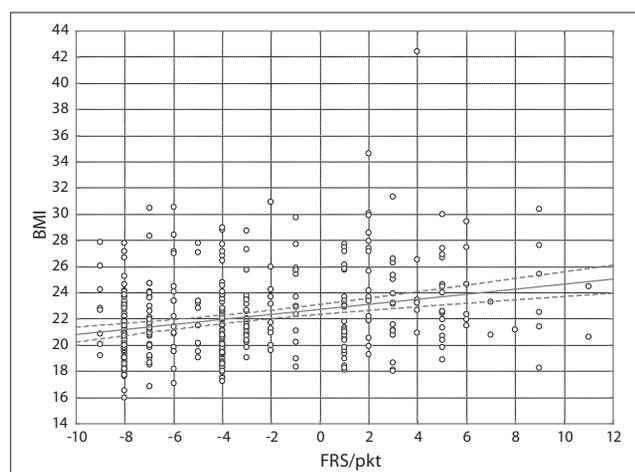
Variable	r (correlation coefficient)	p (significance level)
Age	0.1321	< 0.05
Gender	0.4783	<0.01
Smoking	0.3147	<0.01
SBP I	0.2721	< 0.01
DBP I	0.2183	< 0.01
SBP II	0.2948	< 0.01
DBP II	0.2390	< 0.01
WHR	0.783	< 0.01
TC	0.1792	< 0.01
HDL-C	-0.2618	< 0.01
LDL-C	0.232	< 0.01
TG	0.3422	< 0.01
WC	0.7850	< 0.01
FRS	0.2757	< 0.01

The results of analysis indicate that the correlation between age and BMI value was low, r=0.1321, although it was statistically significant (p<0.05). The significant (p<0.01) correlation was found between BMI values and respondents' gender. There were 89% of females and 68% of males belonging to the group with <25 kg/m<sup>2</sup>. In the group with 25-30 kg/m<sup>2</sup> there were 9% of females and 26% of males.

In the group with  $> 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ , females constituted 2% and males 5%. It was therefore observed that there is higher obesity level in males than in females.

All correlations between BMI and other medical variables proved to be statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ), except for the correlation with waist circumference ( $r = 0.7850$ ). Of the other correlations, the relationship of BMI with WHR ( $r = 0.4783$ ) and BMI with triglycerides level ( $r = 0.3422$ ) was considerably high. BMI value was positively correlated with LDL ( $r = 0.2432$ ), and at the same time, negatively correlated with HDL ( $r = -0.2618$ ).

The correlation between FRS and BMI was low and was equal to 0.2752. It was statistically highly significant ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 2).



**Figure 2.** Correlation graph between BMI indicator and FRS cardiovascular risk increase in an examined group ( $p < 0.01$ )

## DISCUSSION

Cardiovascular risk assessment is the basic element in seeking to identify the intensity of CVD risk factors and in assessing potential therapy aims, both in primary and secondary prevention of cardiovascular system diseases, and in order to raise public awareness. The value of identified risk indicator becomes the transmission of knowledge about existing danger of developing CVD in the strategy of individual and group activities, and also motivates people to follow the recommended lifestyle changes or treatment. In clinical practice, algorithms of risk forecast are used in the most direct way to identify people at high risk of circulatory system diseases in the short term [18]. On the other hand, in long-term preventive action, the early identification of developing CVD risk is important, as well as the early undertaking of effective interventions.

The indirect way of cardiovascular risk assessment has become an increasingly popular activity in the area of preventive cardiology. However, there are ongoing research and verification arrangements about the differences in sensitivity and specificity of various scales assessing CVD risk, and their ability to detect people with high risk in daily practice [22, 29].

The most popular proposals of simplified ways to assess cardiovascular risk are BMI indicators [30, 31, 32] and resting heart rate [33]. Although there are reports regarding controversies in relations between BMI in the range of

overweight and obesity and total death risk [34, 35], most agree that obesity is related to many adverse changes in the risk factors of atherosclerosis development [36, 37, 38]. A number of studies have documented the association between obesity and cardiovascular disease (CVD) risk factors [39, 40], and some, but not all, with markers of subclinical CVD [41, 42, 43]. The obesity epidemic has the potential to reduce further gains in the US life expectancy [44], largely through an effect on CVD mortality [45, 46].

The results of own studies indicate the significance of correlations of the BMI indicator with important determinants in a group of young adults, as the risk factors of CVD. Hence, it is particularly important in the primary prevention of the development of cardiovascular changes.

Data in published studies indicate that overweight is related to a significant increase in the frequency increase of CVD risk factors, including type 2 diabetes, hypertension [47, 48, 49, 50, 51] and dyslipidemia [48]. Many reports also show that the risk of diabetes is significantly increased with overweight and obesity in different age groups [47, 48, 49, 52]. Overweight is related to hypertension; some studies confirmed an increase in relative risk of 1.4-1.7 [48, 50]. In a group of Caucasian women, aged 30-55, it was claimed that the relative risk of hypertension increased to 2.6 for BMI 25.0-25.9  $\text{kg/m}^2$  (95% CI 2.3-2.8), and to 4.2 for BMI 28.0-30.9  $\text{kg/m}^2$  (95% CI 3.9-3.6) during 16 years of observation in comparison to BMI  $< 20.0 \text{ kg/m}^2$  [53]. According to Polish population data in the LIPIDOGRAM 2004 research, hypertension concerns 50.9% of examined Poles between the ages of 30-98. Moreover, a mutual relationship was found between the level of hypertension and BMI value, except in the subgroups with underweight and normal body weight where the risk of hypertension was similar [54].

Overweight is related to increased risk of other important undesirable effects, besides overall mortality, and frequently it is a preview of developing obesity and its negative consequences. Therefore, it is important to pay attention to the overweight and obesity factor, especially in their relationship with other CVD risk factors, such as type 2 diabetes or hypertension, and to intervene in body mass loss as a part of primary therapeutic procedure [55, 56].

Both healthy eating habits and physical activity play important role in managing the control of body mass and the potential CVD risk. This should be intentionally used as a vital tool for cardiovascular health promotion, consistent with the 'definition of Ideal Cardiovascular Health' [57] in its early development phase. It is particularly significant with regards to the group of young adults who begin to create their own lifestyle, which is the basis for the development of further health threats. In the domain of public health, increasing awareness and the change of habits require effective communication allowing the reduction of individual CVD risk with regards to the broader population [58, 59].

*Study limitations.* The study has several limitations. As mentioned above, our data cannot constitute an indicator of assessment of studied variables, FRS risk profile and diagnostic trends in a total population of young adults in Poland, because the data concerned only the subpopulation of one academic centre. Moreover, the information collected about subclinical assessment of atherosclerosis processes in young adults had quantitative and qualitative values, but

were not verified with an ultrasound examination of vessels, taking into account the structure and intima-media complex thickness. The studies still need to focus on improving our understating of these phenomena which promote the development of cardiovascular risk in early stage of their formation, along with psychosocial factors. The strengths of this study include creation of common ground in building the investment in health strategy in a group of young adults, and also the detailed presentation of variables for assessing CVD risk in that group.

*Implications for preventive cardiology practice.* The findings of the study confirm the necessity to assess the risk since early adolescence as a practical category in preventive cardiology, and in the theoretical preparation of youth to raise their collective awareness. This should include awareness of CVD risk and creation of the attitude of investment in maintaining health in the context of active counteraction to developing health risks during life changes. The results obtained indicate that it is necessary to maximize efforts in order to assist in increasing healthy behaviours, and removing barriers for the maintenance and protection of a normal healthy body mass.

## CONCLUSION

The significant correlations between Body Mass Index (BMI) indicator and factors such as gender, smoking, blood pressure, waist circumference, WHR indicator, biological health indicators (Total cholesterol (TC), HDL cholesterol (HDL-C), triglycerides (TG)), and algorithm Framingham Risk Score (FRS) indicator, confirms its significance in primary prevention of heart diseases in a group of young adults as important cardiovascular risk marker in the early phase of its development.

## REFERENCES

- Green LW, Simson-Morton MM, Potvin L. Education and life styles determinants of health and disease. (in:), Oxford Textbook of Public Health. Oxford University Press: New York-Oxford-Tokio, 1997; pp. 126-37.
- Graham I, Atar D, Borch-Johnsen K, et al. Fourth Joint Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and Other Societies on Cardiovascular Disease Prevention in Clinical Practice: European guidelines on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice: executive summary. *Eur Heart J*. 2007; 28: 2375-414.
- WHO. Global health risks: mortality and burden of disease attributable to selected major risks. Geneva: WHO Press, 2009.
- Pathobiological Determinants of Atherosclerosis in Youth (PDAY) Research Group. Natural history of aortic and coronary atherosclerotic lesions in youth. Findings from the PDAY Study. *Arterioscler Thromb* 1993; 13: 1291-98.
- Berenson GS, Srinivasan SR, Bao W, Newman WP, Tracy RE, Wattigney WA. Association between multiple cardiovascular risk factors and atherosclerosis in children and young adults: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *N Engl J Med*. 1998; 338:1650-56.
- Wissler RW, Strong JP, Group PR. Risk factors and progression of atherosclerosis in youth. *Am J Pathol*. 1998; 153: 1023-33.
- Strong JP, Malcolm GT, Mc Mahan A, et al. Frequency of occurrence and advancement level of atherosclerosis in adolescence and young adults. Prophylaxis conclusions based on the Studies of Pathophysiological Indicators of Atherosclerosis at Youth. *JAMA-PL* 1999; 1(10): 651-60.
- Ounpuu S, Anand S, Yusuf S. The impending global epidemic of cardiovascular diseases. *Eur Heart J*. 2005; 1: 880-83.
- Kubica A, Grzešk G, Lackowski J. Cardiovascular system diseases – challenge for health promotion. *Cardiologists' Forum* 2005; 10(3): 83-6.
- Bereśewicz A, Skierczyńska A. Atherosclerosis – the disease throughout life and the entire population of countries of Western civilization. *Heart Vascular Diseases*. 2006; 3(1): 1-6.
- Urban M. (Ed.). Atherosclerosis in children and youth. Wrocław. Cornetis, 2007.
- Lorenz MW, Schaefer C, Steinmetz H, Sitzer M. Is carotid intima media thickness useful for individual prediction of cardiovascular risk? Ten-year results from the Carotid Atherosclerosis Progression Study (CAPS). *Eur Heart J*. 2010; 31(16): 2041-2048.
- Program Pol-MONICA bis Warszawa. Health condition of Warsaw population in 2001. Institute of Cardiology, Warszawa 2002.
- Zdrojewski T, Bandoz P, Szpakowski P, et al. Distribution of major cardiovascular system diseases risk factors in Poland. NATPOL PLUS study results. *Polish Cardiology* 2004; 61 (Suppl. 4): 1-26.
- Biela U, Pająk A, Kaczmarczyk-Chałas K, Głuszek J, Tendera M, Wawrzyńska M, Kurjata P, Wyrzykowski B. Frequency of overweight and obesity occurrence at women and met between the ages of 20 and 74 years. WOBASZ programme results. *Polish Cardiology* 2005; 63 (Suppl. 4): S1-S4.
- Pająk A, Wiercińska E, Polakowska M, Kozakiewicz K, Kaczmarczyk-Chałas K, Tykarski A, Gaździk D, Zdrojewski T. Distribution of dyslipidemia at men and women between the ages of 20 and 74 years in Poland. WOBASZ programme results. *Polish Cardiology* 2005; 63 (Suppl. 4): S1-S6.
- Szostak-Węgierek D. Occurrence of ischemic heart disease risk factors in young adults in Polish population. *Doctor's Guide*. 2005; 2: 48-51.
- Lloyd-Jones DM, Hong Y, Labarthe D, et al. Defining and Setting National Goals for Cardiovascular Health Promotion and Disease Reduction. The American Heart Association's Strategic Impact Goal Through 2020 and Beyond. AHA Special Report. *Circulation* 2010; 121(4): 586-613.
- Conroy RM, Pyörälä K, Fitzgerald AP, et al. Estimation of ten-year risk of fatal cardiovascular disease in Europe: the SCORE project. *Eur Heart J*. 2003; 24(11): 987-1003.
- Wilson PW, D'Agostino RB, Levy D, et al. Prediction of coronary heart disease using risk factor categories. *Circulation* 1998; 97(18): 1837-1847.
- Adult Treatment Panel III. 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. *JAMA* 2001; 285: 2486-97.
- Ketola E, Laatikainen T, Vartiainen E. Evaluating risk for cardiovascular diseases – vain or value? How do different cardiovascular risk scores act in real life. *Eur J Public Health*. 2010; 20(1): 107-112.
- Tucki K. University colleges in Lublin voivodeship in the academic year 2008/2009. GUS, Lublin 2009.
- Mancia G, De Backer G, Dominiczak A et al. Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension The Task Force for the Management of Arterial Hypertension of the European Society of Hypertension (ESH) and of the European Society of Cardiology (ESC). *Eur Heart J*. 2007; 28(12): 1462-1536.
- Poirier P, Giles TD, George A, Bray GA, Hong Y, Judith S, Stern JS, Pi-Sunyer X, Eckel RH. Obesity and Cardiovascular Disease: Pathophysiology, Evaluation, and Effect of Weight Loss. An update of the 1997 American Heart Association Scientific Statement on Obesity and Heart Disease From the Obesity Committee of the Council on Nutrition, Physical Activity, and Metabolism. *Circulation* 2006; 113: 898-918.
- Graham I, Atar D, Borch-Johnsen K, et al. European Guidelines on cardiovascular disease prevention in clinical practice. Fourth Joint Task Force of the European Society of Cardiology and other Societies on Cardiovascular Disease Prevention in Clinical Practice. *Eur J Cardiovasc Prev Rehab*. 2007; 14 (Suppl. 2): S11-13.
- Broncel M. Lipid disorders. Current criteria of dyslipidemia recognition. Target lipid levels in heart and vascular diseases. *Cardiology Based on Facts* 2010; 1: 15-28.
- 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) Final Report. *Circulation* 2002; 106(25): 3143-3421.
- D'Agostino RB, Sr, Vasan RS, Pencina MJ, et al. General cardiovascular risk profile for use in primary care: the Framingham heart study. *Circulation* 2008; 117: 743-753.
- Schulte H, Cullen P, Assmann G. Obesity, mortality and cardiovascular disease in the Münster Heart Study (PROCAM). *Atherosclerosis* 1999; 144(1): 199-209.
- Cullen P, Schulte H, Assmann G. The Münster Heart Study (PROCAM). Total Mortality in Middle-Aged Men Is Increased at Low Total and LDL Cholesterol Concentrations in Smokers but Not in Nonsmokers. *Circulation* 1997; 96: 2128-36.

32. Assmann G, Cullen P, Schulte H. Simple scoring scheme for calculating the risk of acute coronary events based on the 10-year follow-up of the prospective cardiovascular Munster (PROCAM) study. *Circulation* 2002; 105(3): 310-15.
33. Cooney MT, Vartiainen E, Laatikainen T, Joulevi A, Dudina A, Graham I. Simplifying cardiovascular risk estimation using resting heart rate. *Eur Heart J*. 2010; 31(17): 2141-47.
34. McGee DL. Diverse Populations Collaboration. Body mass index and mortality: a meta-analysis based on person-level data from twenty-six observational studies. *Ann Epidemiol*. 2005; 15: 87-97.
35. Lewis CE, McTigue KM, Burke LE, Poirier P, Robert H, Eckel RH, Howard BV, Allison DB, Kumanyika S, Pi-Sunyer X. Mortality, health outcomes and Body Mass Index in the overweight range. *Circulation* 2009; 119: 3263-71.
36. Garrison RJ, Kannel WB. A new approach for estimating healthy body weights. *Int J Obes*. 1993; 17: 417-21.
37. Gidding SS, Bao WH, Srinivasan SR, Berenson GS. Effects of secular trends in obesity on coronary risk-factors in children – the Bogalusa heart-study. *J Pediatr*. 1995; 127: 868-72.
38. Romero-Corral A, Somers VK, Sierra-Johnson J, Korenfeld Y, Boarin S, Korinek J, Jensen MD, Parati G, Lopez-Jimenez F. Normal weight obesity: a risk factor for cardiometabolic dysregulation and cardiovascular mortality. *Eur Heart J*. 2010; 31(6): 737-46.
39. Freedman DS, Khan LK, Serdula MK, Galuska DA, Dietz WH. Trends and correlates of class 3 obesity in the United States from 1990 through 2000. *JAMA* 2002; 288(14): 1758-61.
40. Gregg EW, Cheng YJ, Cadwell BL, et al. Secular trends in cardiovascular disease risk factors according to body mass index in US adults. *JAMA* 2005; 293(15): 1868-74.
41. Schunkert H. Obesity and target organ damage: the heart. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 2002; 26 (Suppl 4): S15-S20.
42. Oren A, Vos LE, Uiterwaal CS, Gorissen WH, Grobbee DE, Bots ML. Change in body mass index from adolescence to young adulthood and increased carotid intima-media thickness at 28 years of age: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Young Adults study. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 2003; 27(11): 1383-90.
43. Snell-Bergeon JK, Hokanson JE, Kinney GL, et al. Measurement of abdominal fat by CT compared to waist circumference and BMI in explaining the presence of coronary calcium. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*. 2004; 28(12): 1594-1599.
44. Olshansky SJ, Passaro DJ, Hershow RC, et al. A potential decline in life expectancy in the United States in the 21st century. *N Engl J Med*. 2005; 352(11): 1138-45.
45. Flegal KM, Graubard BI, Williamson DF, Gail MH. Excess deaths associated with underweight, overweight, and obesity. *JAMA* 2005; 293(15): 1861-67.
46. Burke GL, Bertoni AG, Shea S, Tracy R, Watson KE, Blumenthal RS, Chung H, Carnethon MR. The Impact of Obesity on Cardiovascular Disease Risk Factors and Subclinical Vascular Disease. The Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. *Arch Intern Med*. 2008; 168(9): 928-35.
47. Shaper AG, Wannamethee SG, Walker M. Body weight: implications for the prevention of coronary heart disease, stroke, and diabetes mellitus in a cohort study of middle aged men. *BMJ* 1997; 314: 1311-17.
48. Field AE, Coakley EH, Must A, Spadano JL, Laird N, Dietz WH, Rimm E, Colditz GA. Impact of overweight on the risk of developing common chronic diseases during a 10-year period. *Arch Intern Med*. 2001; 161: 1581-86.
49. Colditz GA, Willett WC, Rotnitzky A, Manson JE. Weight gain as a risk factor for clinical diabetes mellitus in women. *Ann Intern Med*. 1995; 122: 481-86.
50. Folsom AR, Kushi LH, Anderson KE, Mink PJ, Olson JE, Hong CP, Sellers TA, Lazovich D, Prineas RJ. Associations of general and abdominal obesity with multiple health outcomes in older women: the Iowa Women's Health Study. *Arch Intern Med* 2000; 160: 2117-128.
51. Zdrojewski T, Babińska Z, Bandosz P. Correlation of overweight and obesity with increased values of blood pressure in the studies of representative groups of adult Poles in years 1997 and 2002. (NATPOL II, NATPOL III). *Med Metabol*. 2002; 4: 32-41.
52. Gregg EW, Cheng YJ, Narayan KM, Thompson TJ, Williamson DF. The relative contributions of different levels of overweight and obesity to the increased prevalence of diabetes in the United States: 1976-2004. *Prev Med*. 2007; 45: 348-52.
53. Huang Z, Willett WC, Manson JE, Rosner B, Stampfer MJ, Speizer FE, Colditz GA. Body weight, weight change, and risk for hypertension in women. *Ann Intern Med*. 1998; 128: 81-8.
54. Szczepaniak-Chicheł L, Mastej M, Józwiak J, Lukas W, Piwowarska W, Konduracka E, Rutz-Danielczak A, Tykarski A. Occurrence of hypertension in Polish population depending on body mass – LIPIDOGRAM 2004 study. *Hypertension* 2007; 11(3): 195-203.
55. Jensen MK, Chiuve SE, Rimm EB, Dethlefsen C, Tjønneland A, Joensen AM, Overvad K. Obesity, behavioral lifestyle factors, and risk of acute coronary events. *Circulation* 2008; 117: 3062-69.
56. Poirier P. Healthy lifestyle: even if you are doing everything right, extra weight carries an excess risk of acute coronary events. *Circulation* 2008; 117: 3057-3059.
57. Lloyd-Jones DM. Cardiovascular Risk Prediction. Basic Concepts, Current Status, and Future Directions. *Circulation* 2010; 121: 1768-77.
58. Mosca L, Ferris A, Fabunmi R, Robertson RM. Tracking Women's Awareness of Heart Disease: An American Heart Association National Study. *Circulation* 2004; 109(5): 573-79.
59. Simkin-Silverman LR, Gleason KA, King WC, Weissfeld LA, Buhari A, Boraz MA, Wing RR. Predictors of weight control advice in primary care practices: patient health and psychosocial characteristics. *Prev Med*. 2005; 40(1): 71-82.