

Systematic Review of Self-Measured Blood Pressure Monitoring With Support: Intervention Effectiveness and Cost



Sharada S. Shantharam, MPH,^{1,2} Mallika Mahalingam, MPH,^{2,3} Aysha Rasool, MPA, MPH,^{2,3} Jeffrey A. Reynolds, MPH,^{4,5} Aunima R. Bhuiya, BSc,^{2,3} Tyra D. Satchell, MPH,^{2,3} John M. Chapel, BS,^{2,3} Nikki A. Hawkins, PhD,² Christopher D. Jones, PhD, MSW,² Verughese Jacob, PhD, MPH, MS,⁵ David P. Hopkins, MD, MPH⁵

Introduction: Self-measured blood pressure monitoring with support is an evidence-based intervention that helps patients control their blood pressure. This systematic economic review describes how certain intervention aspects contribute to effectiveness, intervention cost, and intervention cost per unit of the effectiveness of self-measured blood pressure monitoring with support.

Methods: Papers published between data inception and March 2021 were identified from a database search and manual searches. Papers were included if they focused on self-measured blood pressure monitoring with support and reported blood pressure change and intervention cost. Papers focused on preeclampsia, kidney disease, or drug efficacy were excluded. Quality of estimates was assessed for effectiveness, cost, and cost per unit of effectiveness. Patient characteristics and intervention features were analyzed in 2021 to determine how they impacted effectiveness, intervention cost, and intervention cost per unit of effectiveness.

Results: A total of 22 studies were included in this review from papers identified in the search. Type of support was not associated with differences in cost and cost per unit of effectiveness. Lower cost and cost per unit of effectiveness were achieved with simple technologies such as interactive phone systems, smartphones, and websites and where providers interacted with patients only as needed.

Discussion: Some of the included studies provided only limited information on key outcomes of interest to this review. However, the strength of this review is the systematic collection and synthesis of evidence that revealed the associations between the characteristics of implemented interventions and their patients and the interventions' effectiveness and cost, a useful contribution to the fields of both research and implementation.

Am J Prev Med 2022;62(2):285–298. Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of American Journal of Preventive Medicine.

INTRODUCTION

High blood pressure (BP) or hypertension, defined as consistent BP readings $\geq 130/80$ mmHg, is an important risk factor for cardiovascular disease.^{1,2} Nearly 116 million American adults have hypertension,³ only 21% of whom have their condition under control.^{3–5} Hypertension contributed to >516,000 deaths in the U.S. in 2019.^{6,7} Hypertension prevention and control can lead to substantial health benefits. Researchers have noted that a small reduction

From the ¹IHRC, Inc., Atlanta, Georgia; ²Division for Heart Disease and Stroke Prevention, National Center for Chronic Disease and Health Promotion, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia; ³Oak Ridge Institute for Science and Education, Oak Ridge, Tennessee; ⁴Karna, LLC, Atlanta, Georgia; and ⁵Community Guide Office, Office of the Associate Director for Policy and Strategy, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, Georgia

Address correspondence to: Sharada S. Shantharam, MPH, IHRC, Inc., 2 Ravinia Drive, Suite 1200, Atlanta GA 30346. E-mail: ktq4@cdc.gov
0749-3797/\$36.00

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2021.06.025>

in systolic BP (SBP) was associated with fewer incidents of heart failure, coronary heart disease, and stroke.^{8,9}

Self-measured BP monitoring (SMBP) is a patient-centered intervention for reducing BP, where patients routinely measure their own levels using personal devices and share the readings with their clinicians. Additional support can be combined with SMBP, such as medication management and lifestyle changes, which are proven strategies for lowering BP.^{10–16} Several national and international organizations support the use of SMBP to help patients observe and control their BP.^{17–30} The Community Preventive Services Task Force (CPSTF) recently recommended the use of SMBP to reduce and control BP on the basis of a systematic review of effectiveness.³¹ The CPSTF also found SMBP with support to be cost effective on the basis of a systematic review of the economic evidence; the economic evidence for SMBP alone (without support) was mixed.³²

Although the evidence on effectiveness and cost effectiveness of SMBP with support are well established,^{17–32} there is a lack of systematically synthesized information on the implementation process. Implementation science, “the scientific study of methods to promote the systematic uptake of research findings and other [evidence-based practices] into routine practice,”³³ provides a framework for gathering such information. Although this type of research is gaining interest in healthcare services research, the economics of implementing evidence-based strategies are less studied. This study seeks to contribute to the knowledge base by describing and analyzing the implementation-related information contained in studies that evaluated both the effectiveness and intervention cost of SMBP with support.

The objective of this study is to extend the CPSTF’s economic review³² by describing the patient characteristics and intervention features and how they impacted effectiveness, intervention cost, and intervention cost per unit of effectiveness of SMBP with support interventions. Specific research questions include the following:

1. How effective are the SMBP interventions in reducing SBP?
2. How much do the SMBP interventions cost to implement?
3. How much does the intervention cost to achieve a unit of effectiveness?
4. Which patient characteristics and intervention features are associated with effectiveness, intervention cost, and intervention cost per unit of effectiveness?

METHODS

This study was conducted using methods for systematic review of economic evidence developed by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and approved by CPSTF.³⁴ Much similar to a traditional systematic review, a systematic economic review answers economic research questions, provides a replicable search strategy, describes screening methods, examines the quality/risk of bias of estimates, and reports on a reproducible analysis of the results.³⁵ The authors applied the PRISMA reporting guidelines.³⁶ Two reviewers, who are experts in heart disease and stroke prevention, independently screened the evidence using DistillerSR, extracted the data, and conducted the quality assessment, reconciling any discrepancies through conversation with the other coauthors.

This study defines *SMBP* as patients using personal BP measurement devices to routinely record their levels in familiar settings (e.g., their homes or community centers). Readings are shared with the patients’ healthcare providers or collaborative care teams during clinic visits, by telephone, or electronically. Readings are monitored and used in treatment decisions to improve hypertension control. SMBP may be combined with additional support, which can include patient counseling on medications (e.g., adherence strategies) and lifestyle changes (e.g., increased physical activity, healthy eating, and avoiding tobacco), patient education for BP self-management, and telephone or web-based tools that enable and enhance patient self-care (e.g., text or e-mail reminders). The interventions may be delivered by nurses, physicians, pharmacists, or lay health workers.³² Devices used in SMBP include personal measurement devices and other devices for telemetry, telehealth, or telemedicine. Telemetry devices collect and transmit health data. Telehealth or telemedicine devices, in addition to collecting and transmitting data, connect patients and their healthcare teams for treatment and clinical decisions.³⁷

Evidence Search and Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria

All studies that were included in CPSTF’s cost-effectiveness review were considered for inclusion.³² The CPSTF review’s search period was from the inception of the databases to March 2015; a bridge search was conducted for this review by replicating the search strategy from the CPSTF’s cost-effectiveness review and extending the period to March 2021. Terms related to SMBP and support were used to search multiple databases (i.e., MEDLINE, Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, Cochrane Economic Evaluations, EconLit, and Centre for Reviews and Dissemination). Additional articles were identified for inclusion through manual searches within the reference lists of the included studies. A detailed description of the evidence search strategy is available in the [Appendix](#) (available online). Studies were included in this review if they were published in English, were conducted in a high-income country,³⁸ met the intervention definition, reported BP change (SBP, specifically) as a primary outcome, and reported intervention cost. Studies focused on preeclampsia, kidney disease, or drug efficacy were excluded. Studies of SMBP interventions that were conducted without additional support were also excluded.

All monetary values were converted to 2020 U.S. dollars using purchasing power parities from the World Bank to convert non-U.S. dollar denominations and the Consumer Price Index from the Bureau of Labor Statistics to adjust for inflation.^{39,40}

Intervention cost estimates were standardized to per patient per month terms to facilitate comparisons across studies because interventions were expected to differ in duration and sample sizes. The summary of change in SBP, intervention cost, and cost per unit change in SBP are reported in terms of medians and IQRs.

Evidence necessary to answer the research questions was collected from each study for effectiveness, intervention cost, and intervention features. *Effectiveness of an intervention* is defined in this review as the change in SBP (mmHg), as measured in the clinic setting. The components of intervention cost estimates and the methods used by the studies to measure effectiveness and intervention cost were also recorded. The intervention cost is the sum of the cost of inputs used to implement and operate the intervention. The intervention cost per unit of effectiveness is the intervention cost per mmHg change in SBP. Patient characteristics included sample size, race and ethnicity, baseline BP, whether BP was controlled, age, sex, and socioeconomic status. Study characteristics included geographic location and setting. Intervention features were compiled in tabular and narrative formats from intervention descriptions provided in the studies. When available, these included support type (medication management, medication adherence, lifestyle modifications), provider type (nurse, physician, pharmacist, community health worker, other), devices and technology (personal measurement device, personal computer, personal digital assistant, phones, telemetry, telemedicine), and patient–provider interactions (as needed, fixed schedule of meetings).

Given the heterogeneity and the relatively small number of estimates, the authors conducted a qualitative analysis to answer the research questions. The intervention arms from the studies were sorted according to the intervention cost (least to most), effectiveness (most to least), and cost per unit of effectiveness (lowest to highest). The intervention arms sorted into the top 33% and the bottom 33% for intervention cost were then reviewed for intervention features that distinctly characterized them as least costly and most costly (e.g., type of additional support, staffing, devices used, frequency of patient–provider interactions). This process was repeated for effectiveness and cost per unit of effectiveness. The top and bottom third cut off points were chosen to ensure a reasonable number of intervention arms within the top and bottom from which to discern any distinguishing intervention features.

Quality Assessment of Estimates

A tool for quality assessment of economic evidence was developed for the scope and objective of this study, following methods developed by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention and approved by CPSTF for systematic economic reviews (Appendix, available online). Briefly, 2 raters used the tool to independently assign and later reconcile points that indicate limitations in the quality of the variables related to effectiveness, cost, and intervention features from each study. Each variable was scored as good, fair, or limited on the basis of the total points, and those that received a limited quality score were removed from further consideration and analysis. The quality assessment tool also assessed the estimates for fatal flaws, which are aspects of estimates that lead to misrepresentation of the true effectiveness, cost, or feature of the intervention (e.g., a very poor description of how patients were supported).

Effectiveness estimate. Points were assigned for baseline BP near normal, mean patient age <50 years, sample size <20, biased sample selection, poor description of randomization or not randomized at all, duration <6 months, no comparison group, baseline differences in intervention and control, only reported a post-intervention measure, attrition >20%, and any other aspect that may have impacted the effectiveness of the intervention. The estimate received an assessment of good if points totaled 0–3, fair if totaled 4–6, or limited if ≥ 7 .

Cost estimate. Each cost estimate was first scored for how well it captured the drivers of cost (i.e., the cost of the personal measurement device, labor that delivered the intervention, devices and information technologies used for communication, and cost of any other resource-intensive component known to have been delivered in the intervention). The cost estimate received an assessment of good for capture of drivers if the total number of drivers not included in the estimate were 0–1, fair if it was 2, or limited if it was > 2 . The cost estimate was then scored for appropriateness of measurement and methods of estimation, with points assigned for sample size <20, inappropriate denominator for per capita cost, data external to study, intervention cost contaminated with other components such as healthcare effects, and any other aspect that may have impacted the cost of the intervention. The cost estimate received an assessment of good for measurement and methods if points totaled 0–2, fair if it totaled 3–4, or limited if ≥ 5 . The final quality assigned to the cost estimate was the lower of the 2 quality assessments.

Intervention features. Points were assigned to the intervention description provided by the studies for failing to adequately describe staffing, materials and devices, activities, frequency of activities, setting, communication modes, time horizons, and any other aspect necessary for understanding the implementation process. Intervention features received a quality assessment of good if the points totaled 0–2, fair if it totaled 3–5, or limited if ≥ 6 . The quality of the intervention cost per unit of effectiveness was based on the lower quality assigned to cost and the quality assigned to effectiveness.

RESULTS

As shown in Figure 1, a total of 1,728 records were identified from the database search, and an additional 38 were identified from the review by Jacob et al.³² and manual searches. A total of 178 papers were assessed for eligibility. After excluding those that did not meet the inclusion criteria, were duplicates, or did not report hypertension change or cost, 33 papers were included. A total of 9 primary economic studies had multiple papers published on the same program or trial.^{41–71} A total of 5 studies included >1 intervention arm.^{42,45–48,50,51,63–65} The evidence for this review analyzed 22 studies, with a total of 28 intervention arms described in 33 papers. In the remaining part of this paper, studies with >1 associated paper will be referenced by the primary economic paper.

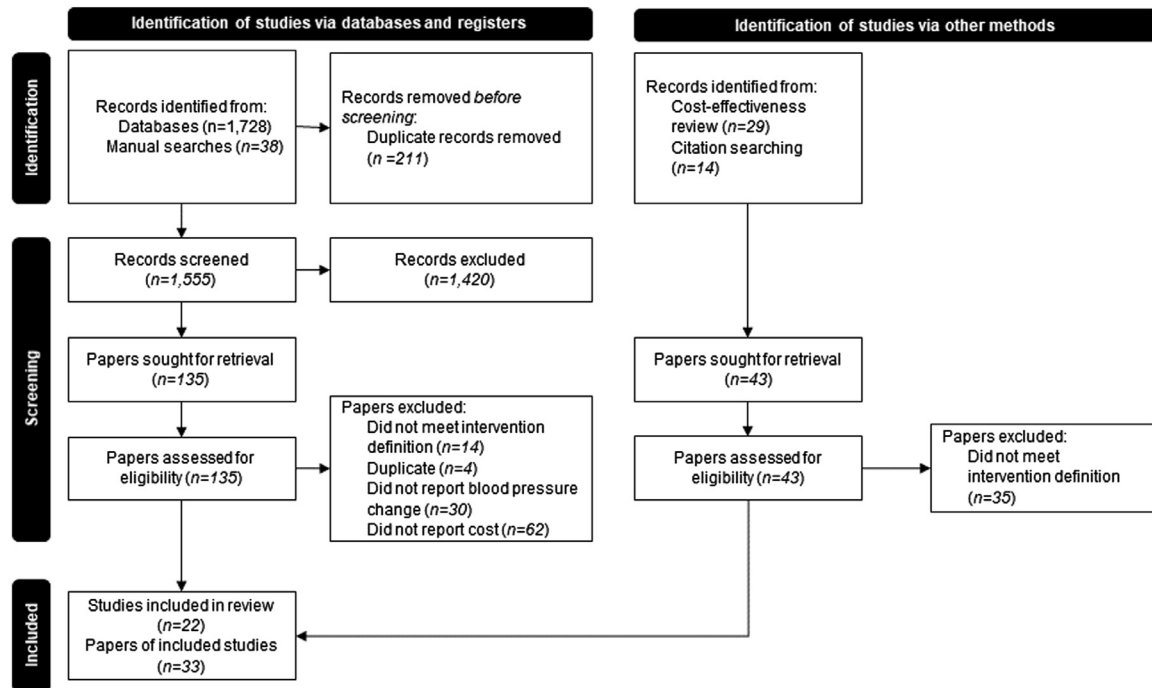


Figure 1. PRISMA 2020,037 flow diagram for identification and selection of studies.

Quality of Estimates

A total of 23 estimates of change in SBP were of good quality (82.1%),^{43,46,48–50,52–54,56,59,61–63,65,67,69,70,72} 4 were of fair quality (14.3%),^{41,42,73} and 1 was of limited quality (3.6%) (Appendix, available online).⁷¹ The more frequent limitations for the effectiveness estimates were short follow-up periods, lack of randomization, selection bias, and lack of control groups. The 1 arm that was of limited quality was due to a fatal flaw that only reported a change in percentage achieving BP control and not the actual change in SBP.⁷¹ A total of 23 estimates of intervention cost were of good quality (82.1%),^{43,46,48–50,53,54,56,59,61–63,65,67,69–71} 2 were of fair quality (7.1%),^{41,52} and 3 were of limited quality (10.7%).^{42,72,73} The more common limitations for quality of intervention cost estimates were insufficient information reported by studies to construct an estimate and the inability to separate the intervention cost from the healthcare cost reported in the study. The descriptions of all intervention arms were of good quality.^{41–43,46,48–50,52,53,56,59,61,69–73}

Patient and Study Characteristics

The baseline patient characteristics are provided in Table 1. The median of mean age of patients was 63.0 (IQR=59.0–66.6) years, and the median percentage of patients who were female was 51.3% (IQR=45.8%–63.6%). The median percentage of patients who

identified as White was 79.3% (IQR=53.8%–94.7%), and that of those identifying as Black was 43.0% (IQR=7.7%–100.0%) on the basis of 15 studies.^{41,42,46,48–50,54,59,61–63,65,67,69,73} Two studies reported Hispanic or Latino representation of 35.8% and 55.6%.^{49,69} Unemployment ranged from 5.6% to 93.4% among patients in 10 studies, with an overall mean unemployment status of 45.5%.^{46,48,49,52,54,59,61,63,67,69} In the 11 studies that reported insurance status, 23.4% of patients had private insurance, 19.9% had Medicare, 4.7% were Medicaid eligible, and 15.6% were uninsured or self-paid.^{43,50,53,59,62,63,65,67,69,71,73} Patients in 4 studies had a mean baseline SBP between 120 mmHg and 140 mmHg,^{46,48,54,73} those in 7 studies had a mean SBP between 141 mmHg and 150 mmHg,^{42,43,59,67,69,70,72} and those in 11 studies had a mean SBP >150 mmHg.^{41,42,49,50,52,53,56,61–63,65}

Studies were conducted mainly in the U.S. (n=14, 63.6%),^{41–43,46,48–50,52,54,59,65,69,71,73} whereas others were set in Denmark, Italy, Argentina, and the United Kingdom (n=8, 36.4%).^{53,56,61–63,67,70,72} Of the 11 studies that reported urbanicity, most analyses were based in urban areas (76.9%),^{41–43,52,53,59,65,67,69,72,73} although 1 study included both urban and rural areas in their sample (7.7%).⁶⁹ No studies were set in rural areas alone.

By definition, SMBP is performed by the patients in their homes or in settings familiar to the patient. As noted in Table 1, a total of 17 studies included primary

Table 1. Intervention Arm Patient Characteristics

| Study (intervention arm) | Study design and sampling method | Sample size ^a | Mean age, years | % female | Race and ethnicity (%) | Income ≤\$50,000 (%), unemployed (%) | Education (% > HS) | Insurance status (%) | Mean BP at baseline (mmHg) | CVD risk factors (%) ^b | Country, setting, F/U |
|--|----------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|----------|---|--------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|--|--|----------------------------|
| Artinian (2001) (community) ^{c,42} | RCT, stratified random | 26 | 59.0 | 88.5 | Black= 100 | N/A | N/A | N/A | 155.3/89.4 (±17.0/11.0) | High BP=100 | U.S., Community, 3 months |
| Artinian (home) ^{c,42} | RCT, stratified random | 26 | 59.0 | 88.5 | Black=100 | N/A | N/A | N/A | 148.8/90.2 (±13.8/5.8) | High BP=100 | U.S., Community, 3 months |
| Billups (2014) ⁴³ | RCT, random | 175 | 60.0 | 38.3 | N/A | N/A | N/A | Private=100 | 148.8/89.6 | Uncontrolled HTN=100 HC=61 DM/pre-DM=46 | U.S., PC, 6 months |
| Bondmass (2000) ⁴¹ | Pre/Post, NR | 33 | 51.0 | 73.0 | Black=100 | 75.0, ^d N/A | 60.0 | N/A | 154.1/89.9 (±16/9.6) | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 DM/pre-DM=21 | U.S., HCC, 3 months |
| Davidson (2015) ⁴⁹ | RCT, random | 18 | 47.5 | 61.0 | Black=44.4 Hispanic or Latino=55.6 | 71.8, 27.8 | 44.4 | N/A | 158/89 | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 | U.S., PC, 6 months |
| Dehmer (2018) ⁵⁹ | RCT, random, cluster | 148 | 64.6 | 48.0 | White=87.2 Asian=0.7 Black=8.1 Other=4.1 | 32.2, 5.6 | 82.8 | N/A | 158/89 | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 DM/pre-DM or CKD=36 Other=8 | U.S., PC, 18 months |
| Dixon (2016) ⁶⁷ | RCT, random, cluster | 325 | 67.2 | 20.0 | White=99.0% | N/A | N/A | Other=100(NHS) | 147.6/81.2 | N/A | U.K., PC, 12 months |
| Fishman (2013) (home + pharmacist) ⁵⁰ | RCT, random | 261 | Range= 25–75 | 55.9 | White=79.3 Asian=4.6 Black=8.0 Other=8.0 | N/A | 92 | Private=100 | 152.2/88.9 (±10.4/8.1) | High BP=100 | U.S., PC, 12 months |
| Fishman (2013) (home) ⁵⁰ | RCT, random | 259 | Range= 25–75 | 45.9 | White=86.1 Asian=3.5 Black=6.9 Other=3.5 | N/A | 92.7 | Private=100 | 152.2/89.0 (±10/7.9) | High BP=100 | U.S., PC, 12 months |
| Friedman (1996) ⁵² | RCT, random | 133 | 76 | 75.0 | Black=10.0 | N/A, 91.0 | 25.0 | N/A | 169.5/86.1 | High BP=100 DM/pre-DM=20 | U.S., Community, 12 months |
| He (2017) ⁵³ | RCT, random | 743 | 56.1 | 52.6 | N/A | N/A | N/A | Uninsured/self-Pay=100 | 151.7/92.2 | Uncontrolled HTN=100 HC=42 DM/pre-DM=24 Other (History of MI and stroke)=13 | Argentina, PC, 18 months |
| Kaambwa (2014) ⁶¹ | RCT, random | 234 | 66.6 | 53.0 | White=95.0 Asian=2.0 Black=2.0 Other=1.0 | N/A, 16.0 | N/A | N/A | 151.9/85.2 (±1.2/1.4) | DM/pre-DM=8 Other (CHD)=9 | UK, PC, 12 months |
| Katon (2012) ⁵⁴ | RCT, random, cluster | | 57.4 | 48.0 | White=75.0 | N/A, 10.0 | 61.0 | N/A | 136/N/A | N/A | U.S., PC, 12m |
| Madsen (2011) ⁵⁶ | RCT, random | 105 | 55.0 | 51.3 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | DT: 153.1/91.2 (±13.2/8.1) NT: 132.0/77.6 (±15.6/8.7) | Uncontrolled HTN=100 DM/pre-DM=8.8 | Denmark, PC, 6 months |
| McManus (2021) ⁶² | RCT, random | 305 | 65.2 | 47.5 | Black=1.6 Asian=1.3 White=93.8 Other=3.3 | N/A | N/A | Other=100% (NHS) | 151.7/86.4 | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 DM/pre-DM=8.6 CVD=6.8 CKD=7.9 | U.K., PC, 12 months |
| Monahan (2019) (SMBP) ⁶³ | RCT, random | 395 | 67.0 | 46.0 | Black=2.0 Asian=2.0 White=95.0 Other=1.0 | N/A | N/A | Other=100% (NHS) | 152.9/85.1 | High BP=100 DM/pre-DM=10 | U.K., PC, 12 months |

(continued on next page)

Table 1. Intervention Arm Patient Characteristics (continued)

| Study (intervention arm) | Study design and sampling method | Sample size ^a | Mean age, years | % female | Race and ethnicity (%) | Income ≤\$50,000 (%), unemployed (%) | Education (% > HS) | Insurance status (%) | Mean BP at baseline (mmHg) | CVD risk factors (%) ^b | Country, setting, F/U |
|---|---|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|---|---|--------------------|--|--|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Monahan (2019) (SMBP + telemonitoring) ⁶³ | RCT, random | 395 | 67.0 | 47.0 | Black=2 Asian=2 White=95 Other=1.0 | N/A | N/A | Other=100% (NHS) | 153.2/85.5 | High BP=100 DM/pre-DM=9 | U.K, PC, 12 months |
| Moultry (2015) ⁷³ | Pre/Post, quasi-experimental (no control) | 306 | 74.0 | 83.0 | Black=100 | 71.2, N/A | 31.2 | Medicare=100 Medicaid eligible=39.0 | 140/N/A | High BP=100 HC=51 DM/pre-DM=38 | U.S., home, 6 months |
| Palmas 2010 ⁷⁰ | RCT, random | 844 | 71.0 | 63.5 | White=48.2 Black=15.3 Hispanic or Latino =35.8 Other=0.7 | 88.0, ^d 93.4 | 16.1 | Medicare=100 | 142.8/84.5 (±24.21/11.35) | DM/pre-DM=100 | U.S., PC/health center, 12 months |
| Parati (2009) ⁷² | RCT, random | 187 | 57.2 | 45.5 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | Clinic: 148.4/88.7 (±12.6/7.4) DT: 139.4/83.9 (±11.0/8.0) 155.9/86.7 | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 | Italy, PC, 6 months |
| Pezzin (2011) (basic) ⁶⁵ | RCT, randomized | 197 | 65.7 | 64.0 | Black=100 | 45.0 ^e , N/A | N/A | Medicaid=43.0 | 155.9/86.7 | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 | U.S. Home and PC, 3 months |
| Pezzin (2011) (augmented) ⁶⁵ | RCT, randomized | 221 | 64.2 | 70.0 | Black=100 | 45.0 ^e , N/A | N/A | Medicaid=44.0 | 154.3/86.8 | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 | U.S. Home & PC, 3 months |
| Reed (2010) ⁴⁶ | RCT, stratified random | 159 | 61.0 | 62.0 | White=56 Black=43 Other=1.6 | 18.0 ^f , 62.0 | N/A | N/A | 126/72 | Uncontrolled HTN=30 DM/pre-DM=32 | U.S., PC, 24 months |
| Stoddart (2013) ⁷⁰ | RCT, random | 200 | 60.5 | 42.0 | N/A | N/A | N/A | N/A | 146.2/87.1 | Uncontrolled HTN=100 | UK, PC, 6 months |
| Trogdon (2012) ⁷¹ | Pre/Post | N/A | Range=18–85 | 59.4 | N/A | N/A | N/A | Private=100 | N/A | High BP=100 Uncontrolled HTN=100 | U.S., Home, 6m, N/A |
| Wang (2012) (behavioral) ⁴⁵ | RCT, Stratified random | 131 | 63.0 | 8.0 | White=53.0 Black=45.0 Other=3.0 | N/A, 66.0 | N/A | N/A | 129/77 (±19/12) | Uncontrolled HTN=42 DM/pre-DM=44 | U.S., PC, 18 months |
| Wang (2012) (behavioral and medication) ⁴⁸ | RCT, Stratified random | 122 | 63.0 | 14.0 | White=44.0 Black=52.0 Other=5.0 | N/A, 65.0 | N/A | N/A | 127/77 (±21/13) | Uncontrolled HTN=35 DM/pre-DM=40 | U.S., PC, 18 months |
| Wang (2012) (medication) ⁴⁸ | RCT, Stratified random | 126 | 64.0 | 7.0 | White=49.0 Black=48.0 Other=3.0 | N/A, 66.0 | N/A | N/A | 132/78 (±21/14) | Uncontrolled HTN=48 DM/pre-DM=43 | U.S., PC, 18 months |
| Summary median (IQR) | | 374.0 (268.0–591.0) | Mean age=63.0 (59.0–66.6) | 51.3% (45.8–63.6%) | White=79.3% (53.8–94.7%) Black=43.0% (7.7–100.0%) | Income=45.0 (45.0–71.2) unemployment=63.5 (21.9–70.5) | 52.2 (31.2–82.8) | N/A | SBP=151.7 (144.5–153.2) DBP=86.7 (84.5–89.0) | Other (10+ years HTN)=77 N/A | F/U=12 months (6–12) |

^aIncludes the total sample at F/U.

^bHigh BP is defined as above 130/80 mmHg unless defined otherwise by the study authors. Uncontrolled HTN is defined as the patient not taking steps to lower their BP (e.g., taking medications, exercising, and/or healthy diet).

^cReported baseline characteristics for the entire sample, not for individual arms.

^dReported income ≤\$40,000 (2018) USD.

^eReported income ≤\$10,000.

^fReported inadequate income (i.e., difficulty paying bills).

BP, blood pressure; CHD, chronic heart disease; CKD, chronic kidney disease; CVD, cardiovascular disease; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; DM, diabetes mellitus; DT, daytime; F/U, follow up; HC, high cholesterol; HCC, healthcare center; HS, high school; HTN, hypertension; MI, myocardial infarction; N/A, not applicable as limited or no information available; NHS, National Health Service; NR, not reported; NT, nighttime; PC, primary care clinic; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SMBP, self-measured blood pressure monitoring; UK, United Kingdom; USD, U.S. dollar.

care centers and other clinics as a part of the intervention activities.^{43,46,48–50,53,54,56,59,61–63,65,67,69,70,72} One study involved a study or research center in addition to the patient homes.⁷³ In the case of 1 intervention arm, patients had their levels measured at a community center.⁴² The mean follow-up period was 10.0 months.^{41–43,46,48–50,52,53,56,59,61–63,65,69–73}

Intervention Features

Support type. As shown in Table 2, additional support was provided for medication management in 15 intervention arms,^{41,43,48,54,56,59,61–63,65,70,72,73} for medication adherence in 17 arms,^{42,46,48–50,52–54,59,61,63,65,67,73} for lifestyle modifications in 15 arms,^{42,43,46,48,50,53,54,59,61,62,65,67,73} and for patient education in 13 arms.^{41,48,50,54,62,65,67,69–71}

Provider type. Providers included physicians ($n=9$, 40.9%),^{48,52,54,56,62,63,69,70,72} nurses ($n=12$, 54.5%),^{41,42,46,48,49,54,63,65,69–72} pharmacists ($n=4$, 18.2%),^{43,50,59,73} community health workers ($n=1$, 4.5%),⁵³ and nutritionists ($n=1$, 4.5%).⁴⁹ In 12 studies, >1 type of personnel conducted the intervention.^{41,48,49,52,54,63,69–73}

Devices and technology. Technologies used in the SMBP intervention included telemetry devices ($n=12$, 54.5%),^{41–43,46,48,49,52,56,61,63,70,72} telemedicine devices ($n=1$, 4.5%),⁶⁹ a personal digital assistant ($n=1$, 4.5%),⁵⁶ home BP device ($n=20$, 90.9%),^{41–43,46,48–50,52–54,56,59,61–63,65,67,70,72,73} interactive phone systems ($n=4$, 18.2%),^{42,43,52,71} an electronic medication tray ($n=1$, 4.5%),⁴⁹ mobile phones ($n=4$, 18.2%),^{49,53,56,70} a mobile phone application ($n=1$, 4.5%),⁴⁹ text messaging services ($n=3$, 13.6%),^{53,63,70} and web and server hosting services ($n=16$, 72.7%).^{41–43,48–50,53,56,59,61–63,67,69,70,72}

Patient–provider interactions. Patient and provider communication methods regarding hypertension control, lifestyle counseling, and medication adherence varied. Studies reported initial interactions with the patients occurring in the patient's home ($n=5$, 22.7%),^{42,52,53,65,73} at clinics ($n=12$, 54.5%),^{43,46,56,59,61–63,69,72} in a community center ($n=1$, 4.5%),⁴² and by phone ($n=1$, 4.5%).⁵⁰ These often included collecting baseline measurements, training on the use of the devices, and providing reading materials on how to lower BP. Subsequent interactions between patients and providers occurred by phone ($n=14$, 63.6%),^{41–43,46,48,54,56,59,61–63,65,67,69,72,73} website ($n=3$, 13.6%),^{50,56,69} e-mail ($n=4$, 18.2%),^{56,63,65,70} text messages ($n=4$, 18.2%),^{49,53,63,70} telemetry devices ($n=14$, 63.6%),^{41–43,46,48–50,52,56,59,61,63,70,72} telemedicine devices ($n=1$, 4.5%),⁶⁹ or home visits ($n=2$, 9.1%).^{53,73} A total of

5 studies (22.7%)^{41,50,56,70,72} reported additional interactions as needed (e.g., when a provider is alerted that BP is not controlled or when a patient requested contact). Automated messaging was reported in 2 studies (9.1%),^{41,70} whereas messaging tailored to the patient was reported in 4 studies (18.2%).^{48–50,70} Frequency of interaction was reported to be weekly for 3 studies (13.6%),^{42,52,65} biweekly for 2 studies (9.1%),^{50,73} and bimonthly for 1 study (4.5%).⁴⁶

Intervention Effect, Cost, and Cost per Unit of Effectiveness

Effectiveness. The median reduction in SBP was 3.8 (IQR=2.9–6.9) mmHg on the basis of 27 estimates.^{41–43,46,48–50,52,53,56,59,61,69,70,72,73} Table 3 denotes the effectiveness sorted according to reduction in SBP. The difference in median effectiveness between the most and least effective set of interventions was 11.2 mmHg. When comparing the 8 intervention arms with the greatest reduction in SBP (median=12.7, IQR=9.2–15.5)^{41–43,49} and the least reduction in SBP (median=1.5, IQR=0.6–2.6),^{48,50,56,72} the mean age and baseline SBP were 59 years and 152 mmHg and 65 years and 145 mmHg, respectively. Studies that reported greater reductions in SBP had patients with higher baseline SBP and relatively younger patients; engaged nurses and pharmacists as implementers; and utilized smartphones, interactive phone systems, and telemetry devices. Duration, geographic location, and support type did not impact effectiveness.

Implementation cost. The median intervention cost per patient to implement SMBP interventions was \$47 per month (IQR=\$19–\$123) on the basis of 25 estimates.^{41–43,46,48–50,52,53,56,59,61,69–71} The sorted order by cost is shown in Table 3. The difference in median intervention cost between the costliest and least costly set of interventions was \$167 per patient per month. When comparing the 8 least costly intervention arms (median=\$7, IQR=\$5–\$15)^{41,48,49,59,69} with the 8 most costly (median=\$174, IQR=\$137–\$293),^{46,50,52,53,70} the mean age, baseline SBP, and intervention group size were 66 years, 148 mmHg, and 347 patients and 58 years, 148 mmHg, and 212 patients, respectively. Studies that reported lower costs included interventions targeting older patients and large sample sizes; engaging community health workers; utilizing smartphones and their applications, websites, and servers; and providing patient–provider interactions on an as-needed basis. U. S.-based studies, those that had home visits, and those that required frequent and standardized patient

Table 2. Self-Measured Blood Pressure Monitoring With Support: Intervention Features

| Study (intervention arm) | Type of support | Type of provider | Devices and technology | Frequency and mode of patient-provider interactions |
|--|---|--|---|---|
| Artinian (2001) (community) ⁴² | HTN medication adherence and patient lifestyle | Nurse | Telemetry from community health center, IPS | Weekly. Nurse by phone. First meeting face-to-face |
| Artinian (2001) (home) ⁴² | HTN medication adherence and patient lifestyle, Home visits | Nurse | Telemetry, IPS, home BP device, Internet | Weekly. Nurse by phone. First meeting face-to-face |
| Billups (2014) ⁴³ | HTN medication management and patient lifestyle | Pharmacist | Telemetry, Website, IPS, home BP device | As needed. Secure website or phone call. Initial face-to-face |
| Bondmass (2000) ⁴¹ | HTN medication management and patient education, Home visits | Nurse, IT technicians | Telemetry, Server, Home BP device | As needed. Nurse by phone |
| Davidson (2015) ⁴⁹ | HTN medication adherence | Research assistants, nurse manager, nutritionist | Telemetry, electronic medication tray, mPhone, mPhone app, server, home BP device | Nurse manager and PCP informed if BP readings were extreme. Automated tailored text messages |
| Dehmer (2018) ⁵⁹ | HTN medication management and adherence, and patient lifestyle, Case Manage | Pharmacist | Home BP device, website | Fifteen times. Telephone. First meeting face-to-face |
| Dixon (2016) ⁶⁷ | HTN medication adherence, patient education, and patient lifestyle | HIAs | Home BP device, website | Up to 13 scheduled telephone encounters delivered approximately every 4 weeks |
| Fishman (2013) (home + pharmacist) ⁵⁰ | HTN medication adherence, patient education, and patient lifestyle | Pharmacist | Website, Home BP device | Biweekly through website. Initial phone call and secure message. Subsequent interactions through the website |
| Fishman (2013) (home) ⁵⁰ | Patient education | None | Website, Home BP device | Initial screening in primary care clinic. Instructed to contact PCP if BP not controlled |
| Friedman (1996) ⁵² | HTN medication adherence, Home visits | Field technicians, physician | IPS, home BP device | Weekly. Initial screening by phone. Automated questions and responses by phone |
| He (2017) ⁵³ | HTN medication adherence and patient lifestyle, Home visits | CHW | Text messages, mPhone, Website, Server, Home BP device | Frequency not reported. Face-to-face and text messages |
| Kaambwa (2014) ⁶¹ | HTN medication management and patient lifestyle | Study personnel | Telemetry, Website, Server, Home BP device | Monthly summaries to physician. Initial face-to-face with physician. Phone call to patient triggered by abnormal readings. Request may be made to meet the physician |
| Katon (2012) ⁵⁴ | HTN medication management and adherence and patient lifestyle and patient education | Nurse manager, Physician | Home BP device | Nurse manager reviewed BP readings, glucose, and laboratories, contacting patients 2–3 times a month initially and followed up with patients every 4–6 weeks over 12 months, with more frequent calls or visit for not at target or relapses |
| Madsen (2011) ⁵⁶ | HTN medication management | Physician | Telemetry, PDA, mPhone, Website, Server, Home BP device | As needed. Physician by PDA, website, and e-mail |
| McManus (2021) ⁶² | Medication management and adherence and patient lifestyle and education | Physician | Home BP device, website, internet | As needed. Patient reminders by e-mail. Optional behavioral support by face-to-face, telephone, or e-mail |
| Monahan (2019) (SMBP) ⁶³ | HTN medication management and adherence | Nurse, physician | Home BP device | Clinicians review readings monthly |
| Monahan (2019) (SMBP + telemonitoring) ⁶³ | HTN medication management and adherence | Nurse, physician | Home BP device, telemetry, internet, SMS alerts | Automated e-mail messages to providers and participants for drug modifications based on readings. SMS included alerts, warnings, reminders for readings not at goal. Readings are sent weekly and physicians are asked to review readings every month |
| Moulry (2015) ⁷³ | HTN medication management and adherence, and patient lifestyle, Home visits | Pharmacist, pharmacy students, health educator, public health professional | Home BP device | 2 home visits by a pharmacist (initial and 6 months follow-up). Follow-up biweekly phone calls by pharmacy students |
| Palmas (2010) ⁶⁹ | T2DM treatment, patient education | Nurse, case manager, endocrinologist, physician | Home telemedicine unit, Computer, Website, Internet, Server | Frequency not reported. Videoconference, secure messaging, and EMR |

(continued on next page)

Table 2. Self-Measured Blood Pressure Monitoring With Support: Intervention Features (*continued*)

| Study (intervention arm) | Type of support | Type of provider | Devices and technology | Frequency and mode of patient–provider interactions |
|---|--|---|---|---|
| Parati (2009) ⁷² | HTN medication management | Call center (nurse, physician) | Telemetry, Server, Home BP device | As needed. Nurse by phone. Alert to physician. Nonroutine visit if BP is high. Routine 3 visits face-to-face |
| Pezzin (2011) (basic) ⁶⁵ | Home visits, patient and provider education materials | Nurse | Home BP device | 2 emails 1 week apart sent to patients and their home care nurse |
| Pezzin (2011) (augmented) ⁶⁵ | HTN medication management and adherence, patient education, patient lifestyle, and home visits | Nurse | Home BP device | Study nurse and health educator provided extensive feedback to the home nurse and patient. Biweekly phone calls were made over a 12-week period |
| Reed (2010) ⁴⁶ | HTN medication adherence and patient lifestyle | Research assistant, nurse | Home BP device, telemetry | Bimonthly. Nurse by phone |
| Stoddart (2013) ⁷⁰ | HTN medication management and patient education | Nurse, physician | Telemetry, Text messages, mPhone, Website, Server, Home BP device | Physician–patient contact if BP is not controlled or therapy change is needed. Automated text and e-mail messages regarding BP control |
| Trogdon (2012) ⁷¹ | HTN patient education and self-management | Analyst, nurse, clerical and quality consultant, health program specialists | IPS | No interaction beyond program management. Patient education through IPS and self-care kit |
| Wang (2012) (behavioral) ⁴⁸ | HTN education, medication adherence, and patient lifestyle | Nurse | Telemetry, Server, Home BP device | 11 tailored modules. Nurse by phone |
| Wang (2012) (behavioral and medication) ⁴⁸ | HTN medication management and adherence, patient education, and patient lifestyle | Nurse, physician | Telemetry, Server, Home BP device | 11 tailored modules. Nurse by phone. As needed. Nurse alerted to high BP |
| Wang (2012) (medication) ⁴⁸ | HTN medication management | Nurse, physician | Telemetry, Server, Home BP device | As needed. Nurse alerted to high BP |

BP, blood pressure; CHW, community health worker; EMR, electronic medical record; HIA, health information advisor; HTN, hypertension; IPS, interactive phone system; IT, information technology. mPhone, mobile phone; PCP, primary care provider; T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus; PDA, personal digital assistant; SMBP, self-measured blood pressure monitoring; SMS, short message service.

–provider encounters cost more. Baseline SBP, support type, and the use of telemetry devices did not impact the cost.

Cost per unit of effectiveness. The median monthly intervention cost per mmHg reduction in SBP was \$5.50 (IQR=\$3.60–\$23.10) on the basis of 24 estimates.^{41–43,46,48–50,52,53,56,59,61,69,70} Table 3 provides the sorted order. As the cost per mmHg is calculated as the ratio of cost and SBP reduction, intervention arms with a lower cost per mmHg also have lower intervention cost, greater effectiveness, or both. When comparing the 8 arms with the smallest monthly cost per mmHg (median=\$2.01, IQR=\$1.01–\$3.86)^{42,43,50,53,70} with the 8 largest (median=\$54.90, IQR=\$24.80–\$106.55),^{48,59,69} the mean age, baseline SBP, and intervention group size were 65 years, 151 mmHg, and 312 patients and 62 years, 141 mmHg, and 237 patients, respectively. Studies that reported a smaller monthly cost per mmHg involved patients with higher baseline SBP; had large patient groups; used smartphones, interactive phone systems, and websites; and provided patient–provider interactions on an as-needed basis. As seen with the intervention cost, U.S.-based studies and those that required frequent and standardized patient–provider encounters

had the largest monthly cost per mmHg. Patient age, support type, provider type, and the use of telemetry devices did not impact the cost per unit of effectiveness.

In summary, larger patient samples and higher baseline SBP were associated with a lower cost per unit of effectiveness. Patient age is negatively associated with both cost and effectiveness. Neither the type of support nor the type of personnel providing the support was associated with differences in cost per unit of effectiveness, although engaging community health workers was associated with lower cost. Accessible technologies that facilitated patient participation and engagement (e.g., interactive phone systems, websites, smartphones, and telemetry devices) were not associated with much higher costs but were associated with greater effectiveness. Intervention protocols that triggered patient–provider interactions on an as-needed basis rather than a standardized frequency of interactions were associated with lower cost and greater effectiveness.

DISCUSSION

The use of SMBP interventions with support from healthcare professionals is internationally recognized as an effective means of reducing BP as evidenced by the

Table 3. Cost, Effectiveness, and Cost per Unit of Effectiveness and Associated Sort Order of Included Studies

| Study (intervention arm) | Effectiveness: reduction in SBP | | | Cost per patient per month | | | Cost per unit of effectiveness: cost per month per mmHg reduction in SBP | | |
|---|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------|--|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| | Estimate quality | mmHg | Sort order ^a | Estimate quality | U.S. \$ | Sort order ^b | Estimate quality | U.S. \$ | Sort order ^c |
| Trogdon (2012) ⁷¹ | Limited | N/A | N/A | Good | 47.6 | 14 | Limited | N/A | N/A |
| Artinian (2001) (home) ⁴² | Fair | 24.8 | 1 | Good | 67.6 | 16 | Fair | 2.8 | 5 |
| Davidson (2015) ⁴⁹ | Good | 23 | 2 | Good | 142.1 | 20 | Good | 6.2 | 13 |
| Artinian (2001) (community) ⁴² | Fair | 13.0 | 3 | Limited | N/A | N/A | Limited | N/A | N/A |
| Bondmass (2000) ⁴¹ | Fair | 12.7 | 4 | Fair | 178.2 | 22 | Fair | 14.0 | 16 |
| Billups (2014) ⁴³ | Good | 12.6 | 5 | Good | 47.4 | 13 | Good | 3.8 | 6 |
| Fishman (2013) (home + pharmacist) ⁵⁰ | Good | 9.8 | 6 | Good | 40.3 | 12 | Good | 4.1 | 8 |
| He (2017) ⁵³ | Good | 7.2 | 7 | Good | 6.7 | 4 | Good | 0.9 | 2 |
| Dehmer (2018) ⁵⁹ | Good | 6.6 | 8 | Good | 169.0 | 21 | Good | 25.6 | 18 |
| Kaambwa (2014) ⁶¹ | Good | 5.5 | 9 | Good | 29.6 | 10 | Good | 5.4 | 10 |
| Friedman (1996) ⁵² | Good | 4.7 | 10 | Fair | 21.4 | 9 | Fair | 4.5 | 9 |
| Monahan (2019) ⁶³ (SMBP + Telemonitoring) | Good | 4.7 | 11 | Good | 4.9 | 3 | Good | 1 | 3 |
| Stoddart (2013) ⁷⁰ | Good | 4.51 | 12 | Good | 18.0 | 7 | Good | 4.0 | 7 |
| Reed (2010) ⁴⁶ | Good | 3.9 | 13 | Good | 20.8 | 8 | Good | 5.4 | 11 |
| Palmas (2010) ⁶⁹ | Good | 3.6 | 15 | Good | 798.0 | 25 | Good | 221.7 | 23 |
| Pezzin (2011) (augmented) ⁶⁵ | Good | 3.8 | 14 | Good | 346.7 | 24 | Good | 91.3 | 21 |
| Wang (2012) (behavioral and medication) ⁴⁸ | Good | 3.6 | 16 | Good | 79.9 | 17 | Good | 22.2 | 17 |
| Moultry (2015) ⁷³ | Fair | 3.0 | 20 | Limited | N/A | N/A | Limited | N/A | N/A |
| Madsen (2011) ⁵⁶ | Good | 2.5 | 22 | Good | 31.7 | 11 | Good | 12.7 | 15 |
| Monahan (2019) ⁶³ (SMBP) | Good | 3.5 | 17 | Good | 1.9 | 1 | Good | 0.5 | 1 |
| Wang (2012) (medication) ⁴⁸ | Good | 1.2 | 24 | Good | 88.4 | 18 | Good | 73.6 | 20 |
| Fishman (2013) (home) ⁵⁰ | Good | 0.7 | 25 | Good | 6.8 | 5 | Good | 9.7 | 14 |
| Katon (2012) ⁵⁴ | Good | 3.4 | 18 | Good | 123.0 | 19 | Good | 36.2 | 19 |
| McManus (2021) ⁶² | Good | 3.4 | 19 | Good | 4.2 | 2 | Good | 1.2 | 4 |
| Parati (2009) ⁷² | Good | 0.2 | 26 | Limited | N/A | N/A | Limited | N/A | N/A |
| Wang (2012) (behavioral) ⁴⁸ | Good | -2.2 | 27 | Good | 65.6 | 15 | Good | -29.9 | 24 |
| Dixon (2016) ⁶⁷ | Good | 2.7 | 21 | Good | 15.0 | 6 | Good | 5.6 | 12 |
| Pezzin (2011) (basic) ⁶⁵ | Good | 1.8 | 23 | Good | 274.4 | 23 | Good | 152.4 | 22 |
| Totals | Good=23 Fair=4 Limited=1 | Median (IQR)=3.8 (2.9–6.9) | - | Good=23 Fair=2 Limited=3 | Median (IQR)=47 (18.0–123.0) | - | Good=21 Fair=3 Limited=4 | Median (IQR)=5.5 (3.6–23.1) | - |

^aSorted from most effective (1) to least effective (27).^bSorted from least costly (1) to most costly (25).^cSorted from lowest intervention cost per unit of effectiveness to (1) to highest intervention cost per unit of effectiveness (24). Excludes studies marked with N/A. N/A, not applicable; SBP, systolic blood pressure; SMBP, self-measured blood pressure monitoring.

current research and numerous guidelines available.^{10–30} Previous research also indicates that SMBP interventions with support are cost effective in terms of intervention cost and healthcare costs.³² However, there is no literature, to the authors' knowledge, examining the impact of patient characteristics and intervention features on the effectiveness, cost, and cost per unit of effectiveness of SMBP interventions.

The methods used in this review prevent drawing causal inference, and all conclusionary statements were therefore couched in terms of the association between observed intervention and population features and outcomes. However, the strength of this study is that it applied systematic review methods in unpacking the implementation of SMBP monitoring interventions for different patient populations. Although causal inferences were precluded with the relatively small number of studies, the results indicating how features and characteristics are associated with higher or lower effectiveness, cost, and cost effectiveness are useful information to guide both researchers and implementers. For example, a wireless-enabled BP home device coupled with a patient website accessible through cell phones is likely optimal for a younger patient population with the prevalent use of smartphones. Synchronous care processes such as expensive telemedicine devices are not necessary for records of home BP readings to guide provider actions that achieve BP control.

Many of the interventions in the included studies were conducted before 2010 and used a variety of devices and technology to facilitate support, with some more costly and sophisticated than others at the time. Recent and improved communication technologies, particularly smartphones, have enabled the use of more interactive digital health interventions. Information was not available to assess how these new technologies will impact cost, effectiveness, and cost per unit of effectiveness of SMBP with support interventions.

Limitations

There are a few limitations to this review. First, the findings from this review are based on qualitative methods that do not account for what may be important covariates of intervention cost, effectiveness, and intervention cost per unit of effectiveness. For example, an intervention may report a smaller intervention cost per mmHg reduction in SBP because it was delivered by a lay health worker instead of by a nurse or physician. However, it may have also cost less because it was delivered to more patients or may have been more effective because the baseline SBP was high. The relatively small number of studies (observations) and the heterogeneity in intervention features precluded the use of analytic methods such

as meta-analysis that would have controlled for these covariates.

Second, there was a lack of information regarding coverage for the devices. As telemetry, telehealth, and telemedicine devices become standard features or electronic health and medical records, the cost of these interventions may be impacted. All the included studies were funded trials or demonstrations where the personal BP monitors and any ancillary devices were provided at no cost to the patients. Some healthcare plans and Medicaid offer coverage and reimbursement options for SMBP monitoring interventions; however, coverage remains a limitation to the wider implementation of SMBP.⁷⁴ Although the cost of validated devices is relatively inexpensive, questions about financing and reimbursement for the devices and supportive services rendered were not addressed in the included studies or in this review.

Third, the samples of many of the included studies lacked representativeness. This literature lacks information on the benefit of SMBP monitoring interventions for patients of some ethnic minorities. Many studies included majority Caucasians and African Americans, although few included Hispanics or Latinos.

Implications

The use of SMBP interventions with support can beneficially impact patient care and healthcare costs.^{31,32} There are implications for future research and public health practice as well because implementation science plays a key role in health care.^{17–30,33} Implementation and training resources for SMBP monitoring are available to patients and providers^{75–78}; however, the lack of relevant research on the intervention features may contribute to the time lag between research and practice.^{79,80} The results of this review contribute to the body of evidence promoting hypertension control for heart disease and stroke prevention with SMBP interventions. Evidence shows that future research in SMBP monitoring interventions, including standardized information and reimbursement for SMBP devices, may support implementation in specific settings.

CREDIT AUTHOR STATEMENT

Sharada S. Shantharam: Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Methodology; Project administration; Supervision; Visualization; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. Mallika Mahalingam: Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Methodology; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. Aysha Rasool: Data curation; Formal analysis; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. Jeffrey A. Reynolds:

Conceptualization; Data curation; Methodology; Formal analysis; Visualization; Writing - original draft. Aunima R. Bhuiya: Conceptualization; Formal analysis; Data curation; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. Tyra D. Satchell: Formal analysis; Data curation; Writing - original draft. John M. Chapel: Formal analysis; Data curation; Writing - original draft. Nikki A. Hawkins: Conceptualization; Methodology; Formal analysis; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. Christopher D. Jones: Conceptualization; Writing - review & editing. Verughehse Jacob: Conceptualization; Methodology; Formal analysis; Data curation; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. David P. Hopkins: Conceptualization; Writing - review & editing.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors acknowledge Onnalee Gomez, MS and Yolanda Strayhorn, MLIS from the Library Service Branch at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) for library research support and Sajal K. Chattopadhyay from the Community Guide Office at CDC for his support and subject matter expertise throughout this review.

The findings and conclusions in this report are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official position of the CDC.

No financial disclosures were reported by the authors of this paper.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental materials associated with this article can be found in the online version at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2021.06.025>.

REFERENCES

- Correction to: 2017 ACC/AHA/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/AGS/APhA/ASH/ASPC/NMA/PCNA guideline for the prevention, detection, evaluation, and management of high blood pressure in adults: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice guidelines. *Hypertension*. 2018;71(6):e140–e144. <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYP.0000000000000076>.
- Whelton PK, Carey RM, Aronow WS, et al. 2017 ACC/AHA/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/AGS/APhA/ASH/ASPC/NMA/PCNA guideline for the prevention, detection, evaluation, and management of high blood pressure in adults: A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice guidelines [published correction appears in *Hypertension*. 2018;71(6):e140–e144]. *Hypertension*. 2018;71(6):e13–e115. <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYP.0000000000000065>.
- Estimated hypertension prevalence, treatment, and control among U.S. Adults. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. <https://millionhearts.hhs.gov/data-reports/hypertension-prevalence.html>. Updated March 22, 2021. Accessed March 12, 2021.
- Wall HK, Ritchey MD, Gillespie C, Omura JD, Jamal A, George MG. Vital signs: prevalence of key cardiovascular disease risk factors for Million Hearts 2022 - United States, 2011-2016. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 2018;67(35):983–991. <https://doi.org/10.15585/mmwr.mm6735a4>.
- Fryar CD, Ostchega Y, Hales CM, Zhang G, Kruszon-Moran D. Hypertension prevalence and control among adults: United States, 2015-2016. *NCHS Data Brief*. 2017(289):1–8. <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/data/databriefs/db289.pdf>. Accessed July 14, 2020.
- About multiple cause of death, 1999-2019. CDC WONDER, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics. <http://wonder.cdc.gov/mcd-icd10.html>. Updated August 5, 2021. Accessed February 1, 2021.
- About underlying cause of death; 1999-2019. CDC WONDER, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics. <http://wonder.cdc.gov/ucd-icd10.html>. Updated August 5, 2021. Accessed August 8, 2019.
- Law M, Wald N, Morris J. Lowering blood pressure to prevent myocardial infarction and stroke: a new preventive strategy. *Health Technol Assess*. 2003;7(31):1–94. <https://doi.org/10.3310/hta7310>.
- Hardy ST, Loehr LR, Butler KR, et al. Reducing the blood pressure-related burden of cardiovascular disease: impact of achievable improvements in blood pressure prevention and control. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2015;4(10):e002276. <https://doi.org/10.1161/JAHA.115.002276>.
- Correction to: systematic review for the 2017 ACC/AHA/AAPA/ABC/ACPM/AGS/APhA/ASH/ASPC/NMA/PCNA guideline for the prevention, detection, evaluation, and management of high blood pressure in adults: A report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Clinical Practice guidelines. *Hypertension*. 2018;71(6):e145. <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYP.0000000000000077>.
- Shimbo D, Artinian NT, Basile JN, et al. Self-measured blood pressure monitoring at home: a joint policy statement from the American Heart Association and American Medical Association [published correction appears in *Circulation*. 2020;142(4):e64]. *Circulation*. 2020;142(4):e42–e63. <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIR.0000000000000803>.
- Hegde SM, Solomon SD. Influence of physical activity on hypertension and cardiac structure and function. *Curr Hypertens Rep*. 2015;17(10):77. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11906-015-0588-3>.
- Musini VM, Gueyffier F, Pui L, Salzwedel DM, Wright JM. Pharmacotherapy for hypertension in adults aged 18 to 59 years. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2017;8(8):CD008276. <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD008276.pub2>.
- Diaz KM, Shimbo D. Physical activity and the prevention of hypertension. *Curr Hypertens Rep*. 2013;15(6):659–668. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11906-013-0386-8>.
- National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute. The seventh report of the Joint National Committee on prevention, detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure. Bethesda, MD: National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute; December 2003. <https://www.nhlbi.nih.gov/files/docs/guidelines/express.pdf>. Published December 2003. Accessed August 2, 2021.
- Zhang D, Wang G, Joo H. A systematic review of economic evidence on community hypertension interventions. *Am J Prev Med*. 2017;53(6):S121–S130 (suppl 2). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2017.05.008>.
- National Institute for Health Care Excellence. Hypertension in adults: diagnosis and management. London, United Kingdom: National Institute for Health Care Excellence. <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng136>. Published August 28, 2019. Accessed July 14, 2020.
- Carey RM, Calhoun DA, Bakris GL, et al. Resistant hypertension: detection, evaluation, and management: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Hypertension*. 2018;72(5):e53–e90. <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYP.0000000000000084>.
- Chia YC, Buranakitjaroen P, Chen CH, et al. Current status of home blood pressure monitoring in Asia: statement from the HOPE Asia Network. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)*. 2017;19(11):1192–1201. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jch.13058>.
- Chiang CE, Wang TD, Lin TH, et al. The 2017 focused update of the guidelines of the Taiwan Society of Cardiology (TSOC) and the Taiwan Hypertension Society (THS) for the management of

- hypertension. *Acta Cardiol Sin*. 2017;33(3):213–225. <https://doi.org/10.6515/acs20170421a>.
21. Gabb GM, Mangoni AA, Arnolda L. Guideline for the diagnosis and management of hypertension in adults -2016. *Med J Aust*. 2017;206(3):141. <https://doi.org/10.5694/mja16.01132>.
 22. Imai Y, Kario K, Shimada K, et al. The Japanese Society of Hypertension guidelines for self-monitoring of blood pressure at home (second edition). *Hypertens Res*. 2012;35(8):777–795. <https://doi.org/10.1038/hr.2012.56>.
 23. Muntner P, Shimbo D, Carey RM, et al. Measurement of blood pressure in humans: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. *Hypertension*. 2019;73(5):e35–e66. <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYP.0000000000000087>.
 24. Nerenberg KA, Zarnke KB, Leung AA, et al. Hypertension Canada's 2018 guidelines for diagnosis, risk assessment, prevention, and treatment of hypertension in adults and children. *Can J Cardiol*. 2018;34(5):506–525. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cjca.2018.02.022>.
 25. Pickering TG, Miller NH, Oggedegbe G, et al. Call to action on use and reimbursement for home blood pressure monitoring: executive summary: a joint scientific statement from the American Heart Association, American Society of Hypertension, and Preventive Cardiovascular Nurses Association. *Hypertension*. 2008;52(1):1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.107.189011>.
 26. Pickering TG, White WB, American Society of Hypertension Writing Group. ASH position paper: home and ambulatory blood pressure monitoring. When and how to use self (home) and ambulatory blood pressure monitoring. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)*. 2008;10(11):850–855. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-7176.2008.00043.x>.
 27. Sharman JE, Howes FS, Head GA, et al. Home blood pressure monitoring: Australian Expert Consensus Statement. *J Hypertens*. 2015;33(9):1721–1728. <https://doi.org/10.1097/HJH.0000000000000673>.
 28. Shin J, Park JB, Kim KI, et al. 2013 Korean Society of Hypertension guidelines for the management of hypertension: part I-epidemiology and diagnosis of hypertension. *Clin Hypertens*. 2015;21:1. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40885-014-0012-3>.
 29. Siu AL, U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for high blood pressure in adults: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. *Ann Intern Med*. 2015;163(10):778–786. <https://doi.org/10.7326/M15-2223>.
 30. Williams B, Mancia G, Spiering W, et al. 2018 ESC/ESH Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension [published correction appears in *Eur Heart J*. 2019;40(5):475]. *Eur Heart J*. 2018;39(33):3021–3104. <https://doi.org/10.1093/eurheartj/ehy339>.
 31. Task Force CPS. Self-measured blood pressure monitoring improves outcomes: recommendation of the Community Preventive Services Task Force. *Am J Prev Med*. 2017;53(3):e115–e118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2017.03.003>.
 32. Jacob V, Chattopadhyay SK, Proia KK, et al. Economics of self-measured blood pressure monitoring: a Community Guide Systematic Review. *Am J Prev Med*. 2017;53(3):e105–e113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amepre.2017.03.002>.
 33. Bauer MS, Damschroder L, Hagedorn H, Smith J, Kilbourne AM. An introduction to implementation science for the non-specialist. *BMC Psychol*. 2015;3(1):32. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-015-0089-9>.
 34. Briss PA, Zaza S, Pappaioanou M, et al. Developing an evidence-based guide to community preventive services—methods. The Task Force on Community Preventive Services. *Am J Prev Med*. 2000;18(1):35–43 (suppl). [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0749-3797\(99\)00119-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0749-3797(99)00119-1).
 35. Krnic Martinic M, Pieper D, Glatt A, Puljak L. Definition of a systematic review used in overviews of systematic reviews, meta-epidemiological studies and textbooks. *BMC Med Res Methodol*. 2019;19(1):203. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12874-019-0855-0>.
 36. Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ*. 2021;372:n71. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.n71>.
 37. Totten AM, Womack DM, Eden KB, et al. *Telehealth: mapping the evidence for patient outcomes from systematic reviews*. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (U.S.). https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK379320/pdf/Bookshelf_NBK379320.pdf. Published June 2016. Accessed February 1, 2021.
 38. World Bank country and lending groups. The World Bank. <https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519>. Accessed September 3, 2019.
 39. Databases, tables & calculators by subject: CPI for all urban consumers (CPI-U). U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. https://data.bls.gov/timeseries/CUUR0000SA0?output_view=pct_1mth. Accessed May 5, 2020.
 40. PPP conversion factor, private consumption (LCU per international \$). The World Bank. <https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/PA.NUS.PRVT.PP>. Accessed May 7, 2020.
 41. Bondmass M, Bolger N, Castro G, Avital B. The effect of home monitoring and telemanagement on blood pressure control among African Americans. *Telemed J*. 2000;6(1):15–23. <https://doi.org/10.1089/107830200311815>.
 42. Artinian NT, Washington OG, Templin TN. Effects of home telemonitoring and community-based monitoring on blood pressure control in urban African Americans: a pilot study. *Heart Lung*. 2001;30(3):191–199. <https://doi.org/10.1067/mhl.2001.112684>.
 43. Billups SJ, Moore LR, Olson KL, Magid DJ. Cost-effectiveness evaluation of a home blood pressure monitoring program. *Am J Manag Care*. 2014;20(9):e380–e387.
 44. Magid DJ, Olson KL, Billups SJ, Wagner NM, Lyons EE, Kroner BA. A pharmacist-led, American Heart Association Heart 360 Web-enabled home blood pressure monitoring program. *Circ Cardiovasc Qual Outcomes*. 2013;6(2):157–163. <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIRCOUTCOMES.112.968172>.
 45. Bosworth HB, Olsen MK, Grubber JM, et al. Two self-management interventions to improve hypertension control: a randomized trial. *Ann Intern Med*. 2009;151(10):687–695. <https://doi.org/10.7326/0003-4819-151-10-200911170-00148>.
 46. Reed SD, Li Y, Oddone EZ, et al. Economic evaluation of home blood pressure monitoring with or without telephonic behavioral self-management in patients with hypertension. *Am J Hypertens*. 2010;23(2):142–148. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ajh.2009.215>.
 47. Bosworth HB, Powers BJ, Olsen MK, et al. Home blood pressure management and improved blood pressure control: results from a randomized controlled trial. *Arch Intern Med*. 2011;171(13):1173–1180. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archinternmed.2011.276>.
 48. Wang V, Smith VA, Bosworth HB, et al. Economic evaluation of telephone self-management interventions for blood pressure control. *Am Heart J*. 2012;163(6):980–986. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ahj.2012.03.016>.
 49. Davidson TM, McGillicuddy J, Mueller M, et al. Evaluation of an mHealth medication regimen self-management program for African American and Hispanic uncontrolled hypertensives. *J Pers Med*. 2015;5(4):389–405. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jpm5040389>.
 50. Fishman PA, Cook AJ, Anderson ML, et al. Improving BP control through electronic communications: an economic evaluation. *Am J Manag Care*. 2013;19(9):709–716.
 51. Green BB, Ralston JD, Fishman PA, et al. Electronic communications and home blood pressure monitoring (e-BP) study: design, delivery, and evaluation framework. *Contemp Clin Trials*. 2008;29(3):376–395. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cct.2007.09.005>.
 52. Friedman RH, Kazis LE, Jette A, et al. A telecommunications system for monitoring and counseling patients with hypertension. Impact on medication adherence and blood pressure control. *Am J Hypertens*. 1996;9(4, pt 1):285–292. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0895-7061\(95\)00353-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0895-7061(95)00353-3).
 53. He J, Irazola V, Mills KT, et al. Effect of a community health worker-led multicomponent intervention on blood pressure control in low-income patients in Argentina: a randomized clinical

- trial. *JAMA*. 2017;318(11):1016–1025. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2017.11358>.
54. Katon W, Russo J, Lin EH, et al. Cost-effectiveness of a multicondition collaborative care intervention: a randomized controlled trial. *Arch Gen Psychiatry*. 2012;69(5):506–514. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archgenpsychiatry.2011.1548>.
 55. Madsen LB, Kirkegaard P, Pedersen EB. Blood pressure control during telemonitoring of home blood pressure. A randomized controlled trial during 6 months. *Blood Press*. 2008;17(2):78–86. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08037050801915468>.
 56. Madsen LB, Christiansen T, Kirkegaard P, Pedersen EB. Economic evaluation of home blood pressure telemonitoring: a randomized controlled trial. *Blood Press*. 2011;20(2):117–125. <https://doi.org/10.3109/08037051.2010.532306>.
 57. Margolis KL, Kerby TJ, Asche SE, et al. Design and rationale for home blood pressure telemonitoring and case management to control hypertension (HyperLink): a cluster randomized trial. *Contemp Clin Trials*. 2012;33(4):794–803. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cct.2012.03.014>.
 58. Margolis KL, Asche SE, Bergdall AR, et al. Effect of home blood pressure telemonitoring and pharmacist management on blood pressure control: a cluster randomized clinical trial. *JAMA*. 2013;310(1):46–56. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2013.6549>.
 59. Dehmer SP, Maciosek MV, Trower NK, et al. Economic evaluation of the home blood pressure telemonitoring and pharmacist case management to control hypertension (Hyperlink) trial. *J Am Coll Clin Pharm*. 2018;1(1):21–30. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jac5.1001>.
 60. McManus RJ, Mant J, Bray EP, et al. Telemonitoring and self-management in the control of hypertension (TASMINH2): a randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2010;376(9736):163–172. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(10\)60964-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60964-6).
 61. Kaambwa B, Bryan S, Jowett S, et al. Telemonitoring and self-management in the control of hypertension (TASMINH2): a cost-effectiveness analysis. *Eur J Prev Cardiol*. 2014;21(12):1517–1530. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2047487313501886>.
 62. McManus RJ, Little P, Stuart B, et al. Home and Online Management and Evaluation of Blood Pressure (HOME BP) using a digital intervention in poorly controlled hypertension: randomised controlled trial. *BMJ*. 2021;372:m4858. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.m4858>.
 63. Monahan M, Jowett S, Nickless A, et al. Cost-effectiveness of telemonitoring and self-monitoring of blood pressure for antihypertensive titration in primary care (TASMINH4). *Hypertension*. 2019;73(6):1231–1239. <https://doi.org/10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.118.12415>.
 64. McManus RJ, Mant J, Franssen M, et al. Efficacy of self-monitored blood pressure, with or without telemonitoring, for titration of antihypertensive medication (TASMINH4): an unmasked randomised controlled trial. *Lancet*. 2018;391(10124):949–959. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)30309-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)30309-X).
 65. Pezzin LE, Feldman PH, Mongoven JM, McDonald MV, Gerber LM, Peng TR. Improving blood pressure control: results of home-based post-acute care interventions. *J Gen Intern Med*. 2011;26(3):280–286. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-010-1525-4>.
 66. Salisbury C, O’Cathain A, Thomas C, et al. Telehealth for patients at high risk of cardiovascular disease: pragmatic randomised controlled trial. *BMJ*. 2016;353:i2647. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.i2647>.
 67. Dixon P, Hollinghurst S, Edwards L, et al. Cost-effectiveness of telehealth for patients with raised cardiovascular disease risk: evidence from the Healthlines randomised controlled trial. *BMJ Open*. 2016;6(8):e012352. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2016-012352>.
 68. Shea S, Weinstock RS, Starren J, et al. A randomized trial comparing telemedicine case management with usual care in older, ethnically diverse, medically underserved patients with diabetes mellitus. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2006;13(1):40–51. <https://doi.org/10.1197/jamia.M1917>.
 69. Palmas W, Shea S, Starren J, et al. Medicare payments, healthcare service use, and telemedicine implementation costs in a randomized trial comparing telemedicine case management with usual care in medically underserved participants with diabetes mellitus (IDEATel). *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2010;17(2):196–202. <https://doi.org/10.1136/jamia.2009.002592>.
 70. Stoddart A, Hanley J, Wild S, et al. Telemonitoring-based service redesign for the management of uncontrolled hypertension (HITS): cost and cost-effectiveness analysis of a randomised controlled trial. *BMJ Open*. 2013;3(5):e002681. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjopen-2013-002681>.
 71. Trogdon JG, Larsen B, Larsen D, Salas W, Snell M. Cost-effectiveness evaluation of a collaborative patient education hypertension intervention in Utah. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)*. 2012;14(11):760–766. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jch.12013>.
 72. Parati G, Omboni S, Albini F, et al. Home blood pressure telemonitoring improves hypertension control in general practice. The Tele-BPCare study. *J Hypertens*. 2009;27(1):198–203. <https://doi.org/10.1097/hjh.0b013e3283163caf>.
 73. Moultry AM, Pounds K, Poon IO. Managing medication adherence in elderly hypertensive patients through pharmacist home visits. *Consult Pharm*. 2015;30(12):710–719. <https://doi.org/10.4140/TCP.n.2015.710>.
 74. Correction to: self-measured blood pressure monitoring at home: a joint policy statement from the American Heart Association and American Medical Association. *Circulation*. 2020;142(4):e64. <https://doi.org/10.1161/CIR.0000000000000906>.
 75. Self-measured blood pressure monitoring. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. <https://millionhearts.hhs.gov/tools-protocols/smbp.html>. Updated May 8, 2020. Accessed July 14, 2020.
 76. TARGET:BP. American Heart Association and American Medical Association. <https://targetbp.org/tools-downloads/>. Updated July 6, 2020. Accessed July 14, 2020.
 77. How to use your home blood pressure monitor. *National Association of Community Health Centers*. April 23, 2018 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K9HU2F3TOaI&feature=youtu.be>.
 78. Self-Measurement: how patients and care teams are bringing blood pressure to control. *National Association of Community Health Centers*. June 12, 2018 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XGO-I59UMDg&feature=youtu.be>.
 79. Lobb R, Colditz GA. Implementation science and its application to population health. *Annul Rev Public Health*. 2013;34:235–251. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-publhealth-031912-114444>.
 80. Proctor EK, Powell BJ, McMillen JC. Implementation strategies: recommendations for specifying and reporting. *Implement Sci*. 2013;8(1):139. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1748-5908-8-139>.