

Dyslipidemia in preeclampsia syndrome

Dislipidemia en el síndrome de preemclapsia

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To the Editor:

We read the interesting study by Herrera-Villalobos *et al.*¹ who demonstrated that dyslipidemia is a risk factor for preeclampsia. The cross-sectional research in 50 pregnant women has some limitations as it does not describe the whole sample design: sampling method, inclusion/exclusion criteria and universe at baseline.

Of all patients, 76% were overweight or obese, which may be related to the results obtained. Central obesity, as reflected by waist circumference, is a reliable and inexpensive indicator of atherosclerosis, cardiovascular risk and metabolic syndrome²⁻³. This visceral fat is resistant to insulin, resulting in increased flux of fatty acids to the liver via the portal vein with two immediate consequences: hepatic steatosis occurs due to the increase of triglycerides synthesis and the formation of very low density lipoproteins

(VLDL) also increases, which in turns increases blood levels of triglycerides⁴.

Hypertriglyceridemia is also favored by low activity of lipoprotein lipase, an insulin-dependent endothelial enzyme, which removes chylomicrons from circulation (transporters of dietary triglycerides) and VLDL, and whose activity is low in patients with insulin resistance⁵.

Hypertriglyceridemia affects the pattern of lipoproteins by increasing the activity of cholesterol ester transfer protein, an enzyme that transfers triglycerides from VLDL to the high density lipoproteins (HDL) and cholesterol esters in the opposite way, which causes HDL to become enriched with triglycerides and VLDL with cholesterol. The latter are more atherogenic and tend to form small and dense low-density lipoproteins (LDL) which are also more dangerous because of their tendency to infiltrate the intima of the arterial walls, to suffer oxidation and to be removed by receptors mechanisms of macrophage disposal and not by normal removal mechanisms through LDL receptors⁶.

Meanwhile, HDL with large triglyceride content is more easily removed by hepatic lipase, which reduces plasma levels and causes an increased risk of atheros-

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clerosis. The main cardioprotective effect of these lipoproteins lies in the reverse transport of cholesterol as they move the excess of cholesterol from the arterial walls and tissues to the liver, facilitating its biliary excretion and it explains the higher cardiovascular risk in patients with low levels of HDL in blood^{5,7}. However, in the research analyzed¹, there were no significant differences between the mean values of HDL between normotensive women and preeclampsia patients, which could be due to other factors not included in the study and also that patients were young of child-bearing age.

The increase in blood pressure figures is due to the role of uric acid and the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS)⁸. Although the elevation of uric acid is considered secondary to obesity and stress, some studies suggest that this compound may have a causal role because the blocking of uricase enzyme in hyperuricemic animals develops hypertension. A mechanism that develops this disease in hyperuricemic rats is RAAS stimulation and decreased endothelial synthesis of nitric oxide⁸. In addition to its powerful vasoconstrictive effect, angiotensin II increases the systemic vascular resistance via stimulation of the sympathetic nervous system and increases blood volume due to the retention of salt and water secondary to aldosterone production and the stimulation of antidiuretic hormone.

Angiotensin II also has a proatherogenic effect by damaging the vascular endothelium, increasing oxidative stress, favoring the endothelial proliferation of smooth muscle cells and monocytes, activating platelets and inhibiting fibrinolysis, besides increasing the resistance to insulin by direct action on its receptors⁸.

Maternal factors involved in hypertension during pregnancy are well described by Herrera-Villalobos *et al.*¹. These authors refer to the atherogenic index as the total cholesterol/HDL-cholesterol ratio, whose elevation ≥ 4 increases the risk of atherosclerosis and coronary heart disease. However, other authors describe other indexes as the LDL-cholesterol/HDL-cholesterol and triglycerides/HDL-cholesterol ratios, also useful in the assessment of cardiovascular risk⁹.

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Dyslipidemia in preeclampsia syndrome. Reply ***Dislipidemia en el síndrome de preeclampsia.*** **Respuesta**

To the Editor:

We appreciate the letter from Miguel Soca *et al.* and their interest in our article; and it has encouraged us to give some comments.

The cross-sectional study was conducted in two highly specialized hospitals. The sample design was non-probabilistic and sequential, according to opportunity and convenience. The patients were interviewed and underwent a follow-up for the identification of risk factors and their relation to preeclampsia. The following inclusion criteria were taken into consideration: primigravid or multigravid, aged between 14 and 39 years, in the third quarter of a pregnancy with a normal evolution. Also the following exclusion criteria were considered: smoking history, comorbidities (such as diabetes mellitus, intolerance to carbohydrates, chronic hypertension, thyroid disease, heart disease, antiphospholipid antibody syndrome, systemic lupus erythematosus, renal disease, gestational diabetes, morbid obesity), patients in labor or immediate postpartum (physiologic or surgical), and patients who were under steroid treatment at admission (fetal lung maturity scheme, with complementary diagnosis of premature rupture of membranes). And the elimination criteria: not having the full clinical record for the study, diagnosis of gestational diabetes during the course of the study, having high blood pressure, diabetes or comorbidities during the immediate postpartum period, and not having signed the informed consent letter.

There are different nuances in the clinical and biochemical presentation of patients with preeclampsia syndrome. This has led to extending the study on various risk factors, in this case the atherogenic index, which is determined in the study as the ratio of total cholesterol and high density lipoprotein cholesterol (cHDL). According to Acevedo *et al.*¹, this is the equation that has higher correlation for cardiovascular risk assessment.

It is known that central obesity, shown by the abdominal circumference, is a reliable indicator of athero-

rosclerosis, cardiovascular risk and metabolic syndrome; however, although it is a useful marker which is associated with the risk of coronary disease, in the case of the pregnant woman it is not applicable. Also, the body mass index (BMI) is not the best indicator of obesity associated with insulin resistance and cardiovascular risk in this type of patients, which explains the differences in BMI in women who develop hypertension in pregnancy and normotensive pregnant women². Furthermore, although the BMI has an influence on the elevation of lipids, it was decided not to performed in our study the statistical analysis that compares the normotensive group with the preeclampsia group according to BMI, since both groups consist of pregnant overweight or obese women and the results may not be modified. The small sample size could also have an influence.

All pregnant patients have some degree of insulin resistance; however, not all of them have complications for this reason. There are studies with cut-off points associated with preeclampsia and insulin resistance ≥ 2 , and with HOMA index (homeostasis model assessment) ≥ 2 or 3 to identify the degree of association between insulin resistance and preeclampsia^{3,4}.

The following points are considered as potential atherogenic mechanisms of insulin resistance⁵:

Direct effects

- Increased vascular matrix
- Proliferation and migration of smooth muscle
- Decreased endothelial nitric oxide production
- Increased activity of the low density lipoprotein (LDL) receptor in arterial smooth muscle cells and macrophages.

Indirect effects: Metabolic Syndrome

- Increase in blood pressure
- Atherogenic dyslipidemia
- Decreased cHDL
- Increased triglycerides
- Small dense LDL
- Postprandial hypertriglyceridemia
- Glucose intolerance
- Central obesity
- Procoagulant state

Non-causal association:

- Consequence of vascular disease and endothelial

dysfunction

- Coincidence of obesity

The cause of pregnancy-induced hypertension has not been fully determined and multiple mechanisms have been suggested to explain the process leading to its onset. Endothelial dysfunction is considered a hallmark in the pathophysiology of pregnancy-induced hypertension, and the insulin resistance syndrome has been identified as one of the factors promoting this disorder. Hyperinsulinemia promotes the release of free fatty acids by the adipocyte and its subsequent transformation to oxidized LDL, which favors the increase of the oxidative stress, which in turn is associated with inactivation of nitric oxide and endothelial dysfunction. Likewise, visceral adipose tissue responds to the release of a number of proinflammatory cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor- α and interleukin-6, which also favor endothelial dysfunction. It has been shown that patients with preeclampsia have higher concentrations of these cytokines and C-reactive protein, markers that have also been described in patients with cardiovascular diseases associated with insulin resistance¹.

In normal pregnancy, there are increased levels of cholesterol, triglycerides and free fatty acids. The abnormal characteristics of lipids in insulin resistance are accentuated in women with preeclampsia or a history of this, or gestational hypertension. These abnormalities include high plasma levels of triglycerides, free fatty acids, and lower serum levels of cHDL. However, in our study there was no statistically significant difference in the latter values, probably due to the sample size. Some studies suggest that these high cholesterol levels appear before, or during the first trimester of pregnancy, and are predictors of preeclampsia. Similar studies^{6,7}, reported higher cholesterol levels early in the third trimester of pregnancy in women who subsequently were diagnosed with preeclampsia or gestational hypertension, compared with normotensive pregnant women. High levels of triglycerides and free fatty acids have also been found⁶, and an increased cardiovascular risk has been shown^{7,8}.

Traditionally, it has been understood that the primary role of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) is the regulation of aldosterone secretion, vasoconstriction and retention of sodium and water.

This concept helps us to understand the control of blood pressure in a linear fashion, that is to say, the production of renin-angiotensin causes an increase of blood pressure; however, pregnancy is an exception to this rule. In normal pregnancy, cardiac output increases very early at 5-6 weeks, and increases by 20%, with a secondary fall of plasma osmolality and of systemic vascular resistance and an increase in the activity of the RAAS, for a retention of water and sodium with a consequent increase of the circulating volume. According to Hernández Pacheco⁹, in 1975, Ronald W. studied the RAAS in pregnancy and concluded that in normal pregnancy there is an increase of the three components of this system, which remain high during the three trimesters. In 1995, Phyllis August continued these studies and demonstrated the existence of increased renin levels in pregnancies with a normal evolution. Al Kadi *et al.*¹⁰, in 2005, conducted a study where they measured the activity of renin and angiotensinogen in early pregnancy, as well as in the follicular phase before pregnancy, which confirmed the very early elevation of RAAS activity; an interesting fact that confirms the increase in RAAS activity as an extension of the luteal phase of the menstrual cycle. In the same study, they found high levels of renin and angiotensinogen until 36 weeks of pregnancy. How to interpret this discrepancy? Then, why pregnant women do not have high blood pressure?

The answer is the presence of angiotensin (1-7). Its main functions includes the activation of mechanisms that generate peripheral vasodilatation and anti-trophic effects, amplifies the vasodilator effects of bradykinin, reduces the release of norepinephrine and activates the vasodilator system of nitric oxide – cyclic GMP. In addition, it stimulates the prostacyclin-bradykinin-nitric oxide system. The angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE-2) seems to be the point of divergence between the vasodilator function of angiotensin (1-7) and vasoconstrictor function of angiotensin II. The concentrations of ACE-1 and ACE-2 determine the vasodilator or vasoconstrictor functions of RAAS, and ACE-2 seems to have greater ability to convert angiotensin II into angiotensin (1-7)^{9,10}.

Thus, it is currently understood that RAAS activation occurs early in a normal pregnancy in response to hemodynamic adaptation; however, poor vascular response to the vasoconstrictor effects of angiotensin II seems to be due to the counter-regulator effect of

bradykinin, nitric oxide and prostacyclin production. Besides that, the system itself has as its mechanism that of angiotensin (1-7) to perpetuate the decline in systemic vascular resistance throughout pregnancy⁹.

We are grateful for the enrichment of the article, and the openness to new paths of research in preeclampsia syndrome, also for the invitation to work as a team, as we continue with this line of research and are about to finish a review, where we can consider preeclampsia as a pregnancy metabolic syndrome.

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