Homocysteine and folate plasma concentrations in mother and baby at delivery after preeclamptic or normotensive pregnancy; influence of parity.

Hiten D. Mistry<sup>1</sup>, Joanna Mather<sup>2</sup>, Margaret M. Ramsay<sup>2</sup>, Michael E. Symonds<sup>3</sup>, Lesia O.

Kurlak<sup>2</sup> & Fiona Broughton Pipkin<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> Division of Women's Health, School of Medicine, King's College London, UK; <sup>2</sup> Department of

Obstetrics & Gynaecology & <sup>3</sup> Department of Child Health, School of Clinical Sciences,

University of Nottingham, UK.

### Correspondence/reprint request address: Dr. Hiten D. Mistry

Maternal and Fetal Research Unit Division of Women's Health King's College London St Thomas' Hospital Westminster Bridge Road London, UK SE1 7EH Tel: +44(0)20 7188 8151 Fax: +44(0)20 7620 1227 Email: hiten.mistry@kcl.ac.uk

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# 1 Abstract

2	Pre-eclampsia affects between 2-7% of pregnant women. There are conflicting data on plasma
3	homocysteine and folate in pre-eclampsia, and little about fetal concentrations.
4	Objectives: To compare the concentrations of homocysteine and folate in maternal and paired fetal
5	(umbilical venous) plasma samples from normotensive or pre-eclamptic pregnancies at delivery and to
6	identify any effect of parity on these concentrations.
7	Study design: Hospital based cross-sectional study of 24 normotensive and 16 pre-eclamptic pregnant
8	women from whom maternal and fetal plasma samples were collected at delivery.
9	Main outcome measures: Maternal and fetal plasma homocysteine and folate concentrations between
10	normotensive and pre-eclamptic pregnancies with varying parity.
11	Results: There were no significant differences in either maternal or fetal plasma homocysteine or folate
12	concentrations between normotensive and pre-eclamptic pregnancies. In both the normotensive and
13	pre-eclamptic women, plasma folate concentration was higher in paired fetal compared to maternal
14	plasma ( $P < 0.001$ and $P = 0.047$ respectively). Both maternal and fetal plasma folate concentrations
15	were lower in parous women ( $P = 0.001$ ; $P = 0.017$ respectively), the lowest concentrations being in
16	pre-eclamptic parous women ( $P = 0.004$ ), but homocysteine concentrations were similar.
17	Conclusions: The low plasma folate in parous women is an interesting finding and, when intake is also
18	low, may contribute to adverse pregnancy outcomes, particularly in relation to pre-eclampsia.
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#### 26 Introduction

Pre-eclampsia is estimated to occur in 2-7% of all pregnancies and is a leading cause of maternal and 27 perinatal mortality and morbidity in the Western world [1]; together with other hypertensive disorders 28 29 of pregnancy it is responsible for approximately 60,000 deaths each year [2]. Pre-eclampsia is now 30 commonly regarded as being a state of oxidative stress [3]. It is thought that primarily inadequate 31 placental perfusion results in excessive production of reactive oxygen species giving rise to endothelial 32 cell dysfunction and thus clinical manifestations of pre-eclampsia [4]. 33 Homocysteine is a metabolic product of methyl-group donation by the amino acid methionine; 34 remethylation is catalysed by folate. Small increases in plasma homocysteine concentrations are 35 associated with increased risk of vascular disease [5], Alzheimer's disease [6] and neural tube defects 36 [7] in the general population. Elevated homocysteine concentrations contribute to oxidative stress and 37 endothelial dysfunction [8] and are thus also potentially implicated in the pathogenesis of pre-38 eclampsia. Some studies report raised homocysteine concentrations in pre-eclampsia (e.g. [9, 10]) 39 while others have shown no significant differences [11, 12]. Maternal and fetal plasma homocysteine 40 concentrations have been reported to be directly correlated in healthy nulliparae [13] and do not appear 41 to change significantly during the course of pregnancy [14]. If plasma homocysteine concentrations are 42 indeed raised in pre-eclampsia, and there is similar parallelism, then the fetus will be exposed to 43 potentially damaging levels of homocysteine even before birth, which might have long-term 44 consequences. Important factors influencing homocysteine concentrations are folate and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> 45 status and the methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR) polymorphisms [15]; once again the data 46 on these in pre-eclampsia is conflicting [16, 17]. 47 There is considerably less, but similarly conflicting, evidence linking folate concentrations and pre-

48 eclampsia [18, 19]. The fetus must receive an adequate supply of folate for growth and development;

- 49 inadequate concentrations will also, *inter alia*, impede the remethylation of homocysteine. Both
- 50 metabolites have active transport systems in the placenta [20] and impaired placentation is believed to

51 be central to the pathogenesis of pre-eclampsia. Folate has recently been shown to possibly play a 52 direct role in extravillous trophoblast invasion [21], thus highlighting the need for adequate folate concentrations pre-pregnancy and during the early stages of pregnancy. Studies linking homocysteine 53 54 and folate in the mother and fetus are very limited [17]. We therefore felt it to be important to measure 55 fetal, as well as maternal, concentrations of homocysteine and folate at delivery. 56 Folate intake among women of reproductive age in the UK is reported to be low [22]. There is an 57 increased demand for folate during pregnancy, which can result in suboptimal folate status [23], 58 although there is some evidence to suggest that folate turnover during pregnancy does not appear to 59 change if folate intake is adequate [24]. Increasing parity has been associated with decreasing plasma 60 folate concentrations [25, 26], presumably because lactation is a further drain on folate reserves [27]. If 61 dietary intake is suboptimal, these stores may not be replenished before a subsequent pregnancy, 62 especially in cases of short inter-pregnancy intervals [25, 28]. We are unaware of any studies relating 63 these low folate levels to increased plasma homocysteine concentrations in either parous women as a 64 group, or parous women who develop pre-eclampsia. However, there is indirect evidence for an 65 interaction between parity and raised plasma homocysteine concentrations which has been related to 66 increased risk of pre-eclampsia [29, 30]. We hypothesised that plasma folate concentrations would be 67 lower, and homocysteine higher, in pre-eclamptic women and their babies than in normotensive 68 pregnant controls. We also opportunistically examined the effect of parity on maternal plasma folate 69 concentrations in normal and pre-eclamptic pregnancy.

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#### 76 Methods

77 Subjects: These investigations formed part of a detailed study of selenium and glutathione peroxidases 78 in pregnancy, requiring recruitment of 25 pregnant women to each arm (see: [31]). The current study 79 had a power of 80% to detect a difference of 1SD in maternal plasma folate concentration between the 24 normotensive and 16 pre-eclamptic women at the 5% level from whom paired maternal and fetal 80 81 samples were available. Approval for these investigations was given by the Nottingham Hospital Ethics 82 Committee and written informed consent was obtained from each participant. The study population 83 consisted of two groups of White European women: normotensive and pre-eclamptics (Table 1). Paired 84 fetal samples were also obtained via umbilical venous plasma. Cases were defined on admission with a 85 clinical diagnosis of pre-eclampsia, using the International Society for the Study of Hypertension in 86 Pregnancy definition of blood pressure  $\geq$  140/90 mm Hg (Korokoff V) on 2 occasions after 20 weeks 87 gestation and proteinuria > 300 mg/L, 500 mg/day or 2+ on dipstick [32]. Controls were healthy with 88 no pregnancy or medical complications.

89 Sample collection: Non-fasting venous blood samples were taken from mothers before delivery; where

90 possible, umbilical venous samples were also taken immediately after placental delivery, in EDTA.

91 Samples were transported on ice to the laboratory and centrifuged at 1,400 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C

92 and plasma was immediately stored at -80°C until analysis.

Homocysteine measurements: Measurements of plasma homocysteine concentrations were obtained via
fluorescence polarization immunoassay on the Abbott AxSym analyser. This assay has an analytical
range of 1-50 µmol/L and reproducibility (CV) of 5.5% at 7.4 µmol/L, 6.2% at 13.5 µmol/L, and 5.4%

96 at 25.9 μmol/L.

97 *Folate assay:* A microbiological technique with a chloramphenicol-resistant strain of *Lactobacillus* 

98 *rhamnosus (L. rhamnosus)* was used to assess the plasma folate concentrations as described previously

99 [33]; 15 mg/ml manganese sulphate was added to the buffer to avoid artificially low plasma folate

100 values [33, 34]. The inter- and intra-assay CVs were 5% and 4% respectively.

101	Statistical analysis: All tests were performed using SPSS for Windows version 14.0. Summary data
102	are presented as medians [interquartile range (IQR)] or means $\pm$ SD depending on the distribution. The
103	Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to assess the distribution of the data. Between group comparisons
104	were made using Kruskal-Wallis tests or 2-tailed Student's t tests/Mann-Whitney U-tests depending on
105	the distribution. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks tests were used to carry out paired comparison. Multiple
106	regression analysis for maternal folate and parity correcting for inter-pregnancy interval and number of
107	previous pregnancies were conducted. Correlations between the parameters were tested using
108	Spearman's Ranks correlation test. The null hypothesis was rejected where $P < 0.05$ .
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#### 126 **Results**

127Subjects: Both groups conceived spontaneously, carried singleton pregnancies and all neonates128survived. Normotensive pregnant women delivered without developing hypertension or proteinuria,129having infants weighing > 2500 g, delivered at 37 weeks' gestation or later. The systolic and diastolic130blood pressure levels were, by definition, significantly raised in pre-eclampsia compared to normal131pregnancy (P < 0.0001 for both; Table 1). Overall, the pre-eclamptic women all had moderate-to-132severe disease (see[31]).

133 Biochemical and molecular measurements: Maternal and fetal plasma homocysteine and folate

134 concentrations are given in Table 1. Plasma homocysteine concentrations were very similar in

135 normotensive and pre-eclamptic women; fetal concentrations were also very similar in the two groups.

136 Maternal and fetal homocysteine concentrations were significantly positively correlated (r = 0.68,  $R^2 =$ 

137 0.68, P < 0.0001). Fetal homocysteine concentrations were higher than maternal in normotensive (P =

138 0.002), but not pre-eclamptic (P > 0.1) pregnancy.

139 Maternal folate appeared higher in normal than pre-eclamptic pregnancy, but there this was not

140 statistically significant due to the large range of data. Fetal plasma folate concentration did not differ

141 across groups (Table 1) and were positively correlated with maternal concentrations (r = 0.44,  $R^2 =$ 

142 0.20, P = 0.005). Fetal folate concentrations were higher than maternal in normotensive (P < 0.001) and

143 pre-eclamptic (P = 0.047) pregnancies. Correlation analysis showed no evidence for an association

144 between plasma homocysteine and folate concentrations in either maternal or umbilical venous plasma

145 (r = 0.07,  $R^2 = 0.03$ , P > 0.6; r = 0.09,  $R^2 = 0.023$ , P > 0.4 respectively).

146 Folate concentrations and parity: Overall, parous women and their babies had significantly lower

147 plasma folate concentrations (Maternal: 6.0 [4.9, 6.8]; Fetal 18.2 [10.8, 22.2]) than nulliparous women

148 (13.5 [7.5, 19.3]; P = 0.001) and babies (23.8 [17.2, 33.4]; P = 0.017; Figure 1a and b). Moreover, in

- both normotensive and pre-eclamptic women, parous women had significantly lower folate
- 150 concentrations (normotensive: 6.2 [4.8, 10.4] cf pre-eclamptic: 5.4 [5.0, 6.2]; P = 0.006) compared to

151	nulliparous women (normotensive: 14.3 [10.2, 20.8] cf pre-eclamptic: 11.4 [6.2, 17.6]; $P = 0.015$ ;
152	Figure 1b). Parous pre-eclamptic women had the lowest plasma folate concentrations (ANOVA; $P =$
153	0.004). This difference was maintained when considered with respect to fetal plasma folate but only in
154	the normotensive group (parous: 13.8 [10.4, 21.8] cf nulliparous 17.3 [11.5, 25.5]; $P = 0.015$ ). A
155	Kruskal-Wallis test showed that maternal folate concentrations were significantly different ( $P = 0.006$ )
156	between nulliparous women and women who had had one or two previous pregnancies. Subsequent
157	Mann-Whitney $U$ tests indicated that the maternal folate concentrations were significantly higher in
158	nulliparous women compared to parous women with 1 ( $P = 0.005$ ) and 2 previous ( $P = 0.037$ )
159	pregnancies (Table 2). Multiple regression analysis correcting for confounding factors thought to
160	influence maternal plasma folate concentrations (inter-pregnancy intervals, number of previous
161	pregnancies) indicated parity as an independent factor. No similar effect was seen with respect to
162	homocysteine.

#### 165 **Discussion**

166 Although small, this cross-sectional study reports both maternal and fetal homocysteine and folate concentrations in normotensive and pre-eclamptic pregnancies; there appears to be little comparable 167 168 maternal:fetal data from European populations [17]. Our maternal data are consistent with the results of 169 other European studies in which no association was found with respect to homocysteine or folate 170 concentrations and normotensive and pre-eclamptic pregnancies [11, 12]. Homocysteine has been 171 potentially linked to processes such as inflammation [35] and hypercoagulation [8], which are present 172 in severe pre-eclampsia. However, this does not mean that hyperhomocysteinaemia is a requirement for 173 the development of pre-eclampsia and the elevated homocysteine concentrations seen in some pre-174 eclamptic patients may be an associated, or pre-disposing, rather than a causal factor. 175 Folate plays an essential role in the growth of the placenta from early pregnancy; folate deficiency has 176 been linked to placental abruption and thus restricted fetal growth [36]. We observed no significant 177 differences between maternal or fetal samples from normotensive pregnancy or pre-eclampsia. Most 178 folate concentrations were within the reference range (7 – 46 nmol/L [37]) for non-pregnant UK adults, 179 using this methodology, but 9 normotensive pregnant (7 parous) and 12 pre-eclamptic (6 parous) 180 women had concentrations below this level and the pre-eclamptic patients had the lowest median 181 values, which is consistent with previous studies examining folate concentrations [10, 17, 38]. Having 182 folate concentrations at the lowest end of the range may contribute to the pathological consequences of 183 oxidative stress as folate has been reported to have antioxidant properties [39]. The placenta takes up 184 folate from the maternal circulation against a concentration gradient through a high-affinity binding 185 site, the folate receptor- $\alpha$  [40], and releases it into the fetal circulation through the reduced folate 186 carrier. Further functional studies are required to ascertain the changes folate transport in adequate and 187 deficient folate concentrations.

Women in the UK have moderately low folate intakes for the developed world [41]; in our laboratory, a group of normotensive, non-pregnant women of comparable age had a median folate concentration of 13.9 nmol/L, relatively low in the reference range [37]. Periconceptual dietary supplementation with folic acid is widely advocated for the prevention of neural tube defects. However, only four women in normotensive and two women in the pre-eclamptic group (Table 1) took folic acid supplementation in this study. Unless there is dietary supplementation with folic acid, maternal folate concentrations in both plasma and red blood cells fall from about the fifth month of pregnancy [42].

195 Although sample sizes were small, we observed lower plasma folate concentrations in parous mothers 196 and their babies in our study (Fig 1a), a trend exacerbated when pre-eclampsia supervened (Fig 1b). We 197 do not know whether the parous women began pregnancy with lower stores or whether the uptake or 198 renal reabsorption of folate differs in parous women. Larger studies are required to investigate this 199 further especially by the findings from our group to indicate that folate may be essential early in 200 pregnancy possibly directly promoting extravillous trophoblast invasion [21]. As only two women had 201 3 previous pregnancies, statistical tests could not be performed. These women did however have 202 maternal plasma concentrations of 6.2 and 6.6 nmol/L respectively, which are all approximately half of the nulliparous folate concentrations (Table 2). This suggests that regardless of how many previous 203 204 pregnancies a woman has had, her folate concentrations appear to be significantly lower than 205 nulliparous women. Qvist *et al* also showed that by 2 -3 months after delivery, a third of all mothers 206 can have subnormal concentrations of folate in serum and red blood cells, both those who are and those 207 who are not breast-feeding [42]. Furthermore, it has been reported that by 6 months postpartum, 20% of 208 mothers were still folate deficient [43]. The low plasma folate concentration in parous women 209 independent of inter-pregnancy interval suggest possible beneficial effects of pre-pregnancy folic acid 210 supplementation particularly in parous women who have previously suffered from pre-eclampsia. 211 Despite public health campaigns recommending the use of pre-conceptual folic acid supplementation,

212	the dietary intake of folic acid is still inadequate in about 13 million people within the UK [44]. Further		
213	investigations using larger cohorts are underway to further examine these fascinating initial data.		
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223	Contributors		
224	HDM completed this study as part of a PhD funded by BBSRC and wrote the majority of this article.		
225	JM completed the main laboratory experiments supervised by HDM and LOK as part of her BMedSci		
226	research project. FBP and MES were the principal investigators; MMR provided the clinical input for		
227	this study.		
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229	Conflict of Interest		
230	None of the authors had a personal or financial conflict of interest.		
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Parameter	Normotensive pregnant	Pre-eclampsia
	n = 24	n = 16
Maternal age (years) <sup>†</sup>	$29\pm 6.6$	$31\pm5.8$
Booking body mass index $(kg/m^2)^{\dagger}$	$25.9\pm5.6$	$25.7\pm3.8$
Primipara n (%)	15 (62.5)	11 (68.8)
Max. systolic blood pressure $(mm Hg)^{\dagger}$	$116 \pm 4.3$	$157\pm7.4^{\#}$
Max. diastolic blood pressure $(mm Hg)^{\dagger}$	$76 \pm 2.5$	$98 \pm 4.9^{\#}$
Proteinuria (g/L) <sup>‡</sup>	-	1.0 [0.5, 1.8]
Gestation age at delivery, wks	$39.8 \pm 1.0$	$38.1\pm2.0^{\#}$
Folate supplementation n (%)	4 (16.7)	2 (12.5)
Maternal homocysteine (µmol/L) <sup>‡</sup>	8.7 [ 6.8, 11.0]	8.2 [7.0, 10.6]
Fetal homocysteine $(\mu mol/L)^{\ddagger}$	10.5 [9.0, 12.4]*	9.5 [7.4, 11.9]
Maternal folate (nmol/L) <sup>‡</sup>	10.7 [6.2, 19.4]	6.8 [5.3, 14.1]

**Table 1.** Maternal and fetal venous plasma homocysteine and folate and participant details

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<sup>#</sup>P < 0.05 between normotensive and pre-eclamptic pregnancies; \*P < 0.05 between maternal and fetal samples. <sup>†</sup>Values represented as means ± SD; <sup>‡</sup>values represented as median [IQR]. Further

22.2 [17.8, 32.7]\*

16.4 [11.3, 23.4]\*

demographic and pregnancy outcome details have been previously published[31].

Fetal folate (nmol/L)<sup>‡</sup>

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# **Table 2.** Maternal plasma folate concentrations in women with different parities.

Parity	Maternal Folate, nmol/L	
	(median [IQR])	
0 (n = 24)	13.5 [6.9, 19.4]	
1 (n = 11)	5.6 [ 4.5, 8.0]**	
2 (n = 5)	6.0 [6.0, 6.8]*	

\*P = 0.037 between nulliparous and two previous pregnancies; \*\*P = 0.005 between nulliparous and one previous pregnancy.

## 367 Figure Legends

- **Figure 1.** a) Maternal and fetal plasma folate concentrations by parity (nulliparous: white or parous:
- 369 grey) in all pregnancies.
- b) Maternal plasma folate concentrations by both parity (nulliparous: white or parous: grey) and the
- 371 presence or absence of pre-eclampsia. There was a significant effect across parity:group for both
- maternal (P = 0.006) and fetal (P = 0.015) samples. Maternal and plasma folate concentrations were
- 373 lowest in pre-eclamptic, parous women.



