SERUM LEVEL OF β-HUMAN CHORIONIC GONADOTROPIN AS A PREDICTOR FOR ABNORMAL KARYOTYPE OF FIRST TRIMESTER ANEMBRYONIC PREGNANCY

Thesis

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Dedication

To my Parents. For their encouragement and support.

To my ever supporting, loving Wife, for her tremendous encouragement, support, understanding and love.

To my lovely son Mahmoud

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ART Assisted reproductive technology CGH Comparative genomic hybridization

CL Corpus luteum
DR Detection rate
DS Down syndrome

FISH Fluorescent in situ hybridization

GTG Giemsa-Trypsin-Giemsa

hCG Human chorionic gonadotrophin

HPL Human placental lactogen
ICSI Intra cytoplasmic sperm
IGF Insulin like growth factor

IL Interleukin

IVF In-vitro fertilization

M-Fish Multiplex fluorescence in situ hybridization

MHC Major histocompatibility complex

MS Micro satellite

NT Nucheal translucency

OR Odds ratio

PGD Preimplantation genetic diagnosis

RM Recurrent miscarriage

RSA Recurrent spontaneous abortion **TGF** Transforming growth factor

Th T-helper

TNF Tumour necrosis factor

URPL Unexplained recurrent pregnancy loss

LH Luteinizing hormone

FSH Follicular stimulating hormone
TSH Thyroid stimulating hormone
HLA Human leucocyte antigen

PAPP-A Pregnancy associated plasma protein A
 RCOG Royal college of obstetrics and gynecology
 ACOG American college of obstetrics and gynecology

INTRODUCTION

Anembryonic pregnancy (blighted ovum) is a frequent form of loss, that is present between 1% and %% of all pregnancies (West, 1%%; Coulam et al., 1%%) and in up to 5%% of ectopic pregnancies (Emmrich and Kopping, 1%%).

Early recurrent pregnancy losses still constitute a major dilemma for many obstetricians and infertility specialists. It remains a major area of research in many centers involved in reproduction and immunology (*Rubio et al.*, **...**).

Chromosomal anomalies are present in 7.% of all first trimester abortions (*Coulam et al.*, 1997; *Hassold and Hunt*, 7...). Anembryonic pregnancy has been associated with chromosomal anomalies in up to 7.7% of cases (*Minelli et al.*, 1997); this findings suggests a high probability of gestational loss.

Approximately ••% of such miscarriages are associated with cytogenetic abnormalities, with trisomy being the most frequent, followed by polyploidy and monosomy X (Stephenson et al., **••***).

The earlier the pregnancy loss occurs, the greater the likelihood of genetic causation. Among first trimester

abortions, ° . % to $^{\wedge}$. % show chromosomal abnormalities, usually an euploidy (*Simpson*, $^{\vee}$. $^{\vee}$).

Although routine cytogenetic analysis of miscarriages has remained an uncommon practice to date, the results help the physician to decide whether further investigations are warranted. In addition, the results are useful in the counseling of couples who are trying to understand why their pregnancy ended in miscarriage and to decide whether to try again (*Stephenson et al.*, $r \cdot r$).

The hormonal changes and maternal adaptations of human pregnancy are considering the most remarkable phenomena in nature. Endocrinologic parameters in early gestation period have been used to predict abnormal pregnancies and identify fetuses that have chromosomal aberrations (*Engin et al.*, **••**).

In the last decade there has been a gradual shift away from the mid trimester screening toward first trimester screening the purported advantages of first trimester screening include early reassurance with normal results, early diagnosis of fetal disorders. So the question was whether these markers were also of value in first trimester screening? (*Ray et al.*, **·***).

AIM OF THE WORK

The purpose is to establish the possible correlation between karytope of first trimester anembryonic pregnancy and serum level of β -hCG.

HUMAN CHORIONIC GONADOTROPIN (hCG)

Chemical Characteristics:

Human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG)

Human chorionic gonadotropin is a glycoprotein, a peptide framework to which carbohydrate side chains are attached. The long half life of hCG is approximately \footnote{\xi} hours as compared with two hours for luiteinizing hormone (LH), a \footnote{\tau}-fold difference, which is due to mainly to the greater sialic acid content of hCG. As with the other glycoproteins, follicle stimulating hormone (FSH), LH, and thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH) (*Cunningham et al.*, \(\footnote{\tau}-\tau^{\tau}\)).

hCG consists of two subunits, called alpha (α) and beta (β). The α subunit in these glycoprotein hormones is identical, consisting of $^{9.7}$ amino acids. Unique biologic activity as well as specificity in immunoassays is attributed to the molecular and carbohydrate differences in the B subunits (*Speroff et al.*, $^{7...0}$).

hCG structure that allows the production of highly specific antibodies and the utilization of highly specific immunologic assays (*Laphorn et al.*, 1997).

The extended sequence in the carboxyl terminal region of B-hCG contains four sites for glycosylation, the reason why hCG is glycosylated to a greater extent than LH, a difference that is responsible for the longer circulating half life for hCG (*Speroff*, **••**).

All human tissues appear to make hCG, but the placenta is different in having the ability to glycosylate the protein, thus reducing its rate of metabolism and giving it biologic activity through a long half life (*Gharib et al.*, 199.).

Biosynthesis

The synthesis of the α and the β chains of bCG is regulated separately. A single gene located on chromosome γ encodes the α -subunit of all four glycoprotein hormones – hCG, LH, FSH and TSH. There are seven separate genes on chromosome γ for the β -hCG- β -LH family. Six of these genes code for β -hCG genes are expressed at significant levels. Both the α and β -subunits of hCG are synthesized as larger molecular weight precursors, which are cleaved by microsomal endopeptidases. Once intact h CG is assembled, the molecule is rapidly released from the

cell through exocytosis of secretory granules (Miller-Lindholm et al., 1997; Cunningham et al., 7 · · · 7).

The hCG B subunit promoter does not contain steroid hormone response elements, allowing hCG secretion to escape feedback regulation by the sex steroid, in contrast to FSH and LH. Using recombinant DNA technology, it has been demonstrated that there is a single human gene for the expression of the α -subunit. The gene for the α -subunit shared by FSH, LH, hCG, and TSH is located in chromos $\gamma_{p_{Y1_YF}}$. A single promoter site subjects to multiple signals and hormones regulates transcription of the α gene in both placenta and pituitary (*Albanese et al.*, 1997).

The gestational profiles of total amounts (free plus combined) of alpha and beta hCG subunits increased together and peaked at 9-10 weeks of gestation. Thereafter total alpha and beta subunits decreased and subsequently remained stable until term. The decline in total alpha hCG subunit is less marked than that of total beta hCG subunit. The alpha to beta hCG ratio was equimolar until 10 weeks of gestation when it increased almost four fold until term (Nagy et al., 1992).

The genes that encode for the β -subunits of LH, hCG, and TSH are located in a cluster on chromosome $^{19}q_{17,7}$. There are six genes for the B subunit of hCG, and only one for B. LH. Transcription for the six hCG genes, each with different promoter activity, varies and it is not certain why

hCG requires multigenic expression (perhaps this is necessary to reach the extremely high level of production in early pregnancy). It is though that β -hCG evolved relatively recently from B-LH, and the unique amino acid terminal extension of B-hCG arose by a read through mutation of the translation stop codon in the B-LH gene; the DNA sequences of the B-hCG genes and the B-LH gene are 9.7% identical (*Maston et al.*, 7...7).

The genetic complexity for the transcription of B-hCG raises the possibility for mutations of these genes as causes of reproductive problems. A search for B-hCG gene deletions in women with recurrent miscarriage or unexplained infertility and for duplications in women with gestational trophoblastic neoplasia found only normal gene structures (*Layman et al.*, 1991).

Cellular Origin

Cellular origin of hCG. The origin of hCG appears to vary depending on the time in gestation. At less than \circ weeks, hCG expression is observed in both syncytiotrophoblast and cytorophoblast cells. Later in gestation, when maternal serum levels are at their peak, hCG is produced almost solely in the syncytiotrophoblast. The amounts of hCG mRNA for both α - and β -subunits in syncytiotrophoblast from the first trimester are greater than at term, which may be an important consideration when used as a screening procedure to identify abnormal fetuses

(Kurman et al., 1914; Beck et al., 1917; Maruo et al., 1997).

hCG gene expression is present both cytotrophoblasts, but it is synthesized mainly in the syncytiotrophoblast. The maternal circulating hCG concentration is approximately \... IU/L at the time of the expected but missed menses. A maximal level of about $1 \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot \cdot$ IU/L in the maternal circulation is reached at λ -1. weeks of gestation (Nakajima et al., 199).

All human tissues appear to make hCG, but the placenta is different in having the ability to glycosylate the protein, thus reducing its rate of metabolism and giving it biologic activity through a long half life. The carbohydrate components of the glycoproteins are composed of fructose, galactose, mannose, galactosamine, glucosamine, and sialic acid. Although the other sugars are necessary for hormonal function, sialic acid is the critical determinant of biologic half life. Removal of sialic acid residues in hCG, FSH and LH leads to very rapid elimination from the circulation (*Speroff et al.*, ***.****).

Regulation of hCG Synthesis

hCG production and secretion are the result of complex interactions among the sex steroids, cytokines GnRH, and growth factors. GnRH is synthesized by placental cells; GnRH receptors are present on placental