

# Impact of Insulin Resistance on Complications of Pregnancy and Outcome in Women with PCOS

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## ABSTRACT

**Objective:** This study aimed to evaluate the risk of increasing gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) and pregnancy-induced hypertension (PIH) among pregnant females that were suffering from polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS). The study compares a population of PCOS females with reported insulin resistance with those of a control population of females who are pregnant after receiving infertile therapy.

**Method:** It was a cohort study and a purposive sampling technique had been used. Conceiving maternal outcomes were recorded in a prospective cohort study with 28 non-insulin-resistant and 24 insulin-resistant PCOS females and 354 females expecting after getting infertile reproduction therapy. Hypertensive and GDM were measured during pregnancy and delivery methods. Gestation period, and delivery technique, have all been noted along with hypertensive, pre-eclampsia, & GDM.

**Results:** When contrasted to controls, PCOS females had a substantially higher frequency of hypertension (12.5%), with a p-value of 6! 0.01. Nevertheless, particularly insulin-resistant PCOS females (13.5%) experienced pre-eclampsia at a substantially higher rate than controls (7.1%), with a p-value of! 0.02. GDM occurred 7.8% more frequently in PCOS females compared in controls (0.7%), a considerable difference (p! 0.01). The prevalence of GDM had not been further increased by pre-pregnancy insulin resistance as measured by the continual administration of glucose with modeling evaluation (CIGMA) test. Critical prenatal nursing unit transfers and C - section deliveries were substantially more common for neonates from PCOS conceptions than for controls (44.3 vs. 26.3%, p! 0.05) as well as 19.3 vs. 8.0%, respectively.

**Conclusion:** In conclusion, the study demonstrated that hypertension and GDM were more common in PCOS pregnant females.

**Keywords:** Hypertension, gestational diabetes mellitus, insulin resistance, polycystic ovary syndrome

## INTRODUCTION

Polycystic ovarian syndrome (PCOS) affects about 5-8% of females in fertile years. PCOS is by far the most frequent hormonal illness affecting females of fertile age, with a frequency of 15-25%, which has a significant effect on females' mental, menstrual, and metabolism. Postmenopausal females diagnosed with PCOS throughout their reproductive phase had a higher chance of hypertensive, heart attack, and cardiovascular illness early in adulthood. The Rotterdam criterion, one of the most commonly utilized PCOS diagnostic, includes either 2 of the main 3 factors: ovulation disruption, doppler ultrasound indication of polycystic ovary structure, and laboratory confirmation or diagnostic symptoms linked with excessive androgenic. Females with PCOS are more likely to acquire category II diabetes (T2DM). Research, although not all, imply that PCOS raises the chance of acquiring GDM. Insulin sensitivity is a prevalent metabolism abnormality in people with diabetes and PCOS. Diabetes and PCOS were both linked to poor mother and newborn survival. The research on parental, gestational, and newborn effects in a female with PCOS and GDM is scarce and inconsistent d [1, 2].

The etiology of PCOS is multifaceted, and it is considered that a hereditary susceptibility occurs, which is aggravated by increased obesity. The pathogenesis of PCOS is hypothesized to include an association among aberrant ovary morphological changes to increased androgen secretion even by PCO hyperinsulinemia and excessive luteinizing hormone (LH) concentrations. A Female with PCOS can show a range of clinical presentations, varying from minor to substantial physiological indications of hyperandrogenism, and can have serious consequences for a female's uterus health and protracted health consequences for her child [3].

Teenagers with PCOS typically have quicker sexual maturity, especially when they are fat. Premature adolescence, the rapid awakening of the adrenal gland with rapid genital hair growth, or oligomenorrhoea can all be signed. Concerning the possible genesis of PCOS, it is considered that initial fetal stimulation to elevated sex hormones may enhance the probability of having PCOS older age.

During one epidemiological research, females with PCOS were also much more prone to still have their 1st baby at an earlier

period and to have given delivery at a minimum at first when; nevertheless, the overall frequency of births in her lifespan was fewer as compared to a female that doesn't have PCOS. Females with PCOS have just substantially decreased pregnancy rates, a higher incidence of physiological gestation, and lesser responsiveness to fertility treatments [1, 3].

Insulin resistance has recently been recognized as a characteristic of PCOS [1, 3-6]. Eventually, in older age, type 2 diabetes and GDM might well be predisposed by glucose intolerance. Decreased insulin tolerance is frequently seen in expecting females who experience hypertensive or pre-eclampsia [5, 7]. According to Fridstrm et al. [8], PCOS females tend to have increased hypertension in the 3rd trimester even during birth. Nevertheless, the insulin tolerance of the PCOS female was not examined.

Increased subfertility, abnormal baby, and miscarriage in pregnant women are all linked to PCOS (EPL). Possible explanations include a changed endometrium condition and decreased conception efficiency as a result of the hyperglycemic setting and associated adrenal hyperplasia. It is unknown if body mass index (BMI) such as the usage of reproductive treatments (ovulatory inducement/ injections/ inducement of gonadotrophins) played a part in the greater percentages seen, which have been reported to be 16 times and 2 - 3 times larger, accordingly, then female of same characteristic [9].

The Worldwide Health Organization (WHO) states that PCOS is the most prevalent reason for anovulation dysfunction. Parental problems are more common for females with PCOS, according to research. When compared to normal individuals, females with PCOS seem to have a threefold increased chance of developing maternal problems. The reality that several females with PCOS are more inclined to be diagnosed with pre-existing health conditions during gestation, though, might have an impact [9]. These are thought to be caused by the hyperglycemia and hyperandrogenemia that PCOS-affected females frequently experience. Being overweight, the increased use of ART, and maybe the increased risk of subsequent deliveries associated with the use of ART in a female with PCOS all contribute to this being made worse. GDM incidence was increased in PCOS females, and a bigger proportion of such females are characterized in the initial

trimester, which was considered to be related to inadequate pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell function to counteract the maternal hormone-mediated worsening of which was before insulin sensitivity. Insulin intolerance is indeed hypothesized to exert a significant influence on vascular permeability and is thus linked to the higher maternal problems found in PCOS females.

Throughout this cohort research, we compared a population of PCOS females with reported insulin resistance to their rates of hypertensive, pre-eclampsia, and hyperglycemia with those of a control population of females who are pregnant after receiving infertile therapy.

**METHODOLOGY**

54 PCOS females with single births who've become conceived between January 2021 to July 2022 made up the research sample. As the sufferers met the inclusion requirements, they were successively enrolled. The diagnosis of PCOS has been based on the detection of polycystic ovary syndrome on vaginal ultrasound scan [9] in conjunction with 3 or additional of the mentioned conditions: oligomenorrhea, amenorrhea, hirsutism (Ferriman-Gallwey score 16) [11], hyperandrogenemia (total testosterone 12.9 nmol/l; androstenedione 16.7 nmol; and/or DHEAS Whenever 12 or more subcapsular eggs were seen in one area together with elevated epithelial thickness, ultrasonography diagnostic of PCOS was confirmed.

After ovulatory induction, most of the PCOS females (n = 30, 56.7%) got conceived. The remaining PCOS females either underwent ovarian initiation with fertility drugs (n = 7, 11.5%) or low-dose follicle stimulating hormone therapy (n = 7, 15.4%) before becoming pregnant voluntarily (n = 8, 17.3%) [11, 12]. 354 women carrying singletons and having their pregnancies through fertility treatment made composed the control sample. Even once the study began, each lady gave her written consent. A survey about the participants' well-being throughout their most recent pregnancies was given to both patients and control fields of study. Assessment of pregnancy outcomes, delivery, and pregnancy data from hospitals. 95% of respondents replied. The research was conducted following regional ethical guidelines.

The constant injection of glucose with modeling analysis (CIGMA) testing was used to measure insulin sensitivity [6]. The patients were administered a sustained release of 5 mg of sugars target bodily mass for 50 min since a fasting state, with assessments of serum glucose and insulin levels at 40, 45, and 50 minutes. To determine insulin sensitivity and glycogen breakdown, the averages of all these 3 glucose and insulin readings were put into a mathematical formula for glucose and insulin regulation. As demonstrated by Hosker et al. [6], the insulin sensitivity assessed by CIGMA coincides effectively with that evaluated mostly by the euglycaemic clamping approach (R = 0.88, p! 0.0001).

Diabetes mellitus was deemed to be present when the value of the test statistic reached 15. Females with PCOS who had normal or oligomenorrheic cycles had been evaluated on dates four through seven, whereas amenorrheic PCOS females were examined haphazardly. The diabetes tolerance of the control ladies was not examined. Before getting pregnant, no PCOS females had hyperglycemia. To identify GDM, serum glucose testing was performed. GDM was indicated by a plasma glucose concentration that was higher than 10.2 mmol/l 2 hours after consuming 70 g per dose of oral glucose. Diastolic BP over 92 mm Hg recorded 2 hours separated on at minimum 2 times throughout pregnancy is referred to as pregnancy-induced hypertension (PIH).

Neither of the individuals had severe kidney illness or was hypertensive. Gestational hypertension is characterized by proteinuria of at least +3 measured by urinary staining in addition to prenatal hypertensive. Neither of the women had pre-eclampsia that was overlaid. And used the EliteTM glucose monitor, and a glucose oxidase test was used to measure serum sugars (Bayer Diagnostics, Paris, France). Mono-iodinated insulin and insulin Actrapid (Novo Nordic A/S, Copenhagen, Denmark) were used as benchmarks in internal immunofluorescence to assess the

presence of insulin. Glucose inter-assay variance coefficients were 5-8%. Breakfast insulin had an acceptable plasma range of 210 pmol/l.

The average B SD is used to summarize all findings. When suitable, the ANOVA, Mann-Whitney testing or two tests were used to examine the results. Statistics were found to be significant around p! 0.05.

**RESULT**

After the CIGMA testing, 24 PCOS females and 28 PCOS females were categorized as having insulin resistance, respectively. Aged was slightly little less in the PCOS cohort compared to the controls, however, this variation only became statistically significant in the subset of insulin sensitivity PCOS females (Table 1). Body mass index (BMI) before conception was noticeably higher in the PCOS sample versus controls. Compared to the non-insulin-resistant PCOS females, the insulin-resistant PCOS females had greater fasting insulin concentrations and lesser SHBG concentrations. When contrasted with controls, PCOS females had a substantially greater frequency of PIH (12.5%) (p! 0.05). (Table 2). This incidence did not appear to be significantly increased by insulin sensitivity. Pre-eclampsia does not happen more regularly in PCOS females as a whole, but it does happen more regularly in insulin-resistant PCOS females (23%) whether compared to non-PCOS females (8%) or controls (8%) (p! 0.05).

Gestational diabetes occurred more frequently in PCOS females (7.8%) than those in controls (0.7%) (p! 0.05); nevertheless, the presence of insulin sensitivity before conception was not statistically enhanced the incidence of GDM in comparison to PCOS females without insulin sensitivity. Compared to certain other PCOS females, those who acquired GDM tended to have higher BMIs (24.3+3.8 vs. 26+5.4). This variation was barely meaningful, which could have been caused by the original study's comparatively small sample size. Just two of the four conceptions in the PCOS GDM sample ended in term births, and also the infants born to those deliveries were larger than those born to certain other term PCOS deliveries (4,500+610 vs. 3,570+610 g, p! 0.05) for respective stages of pregnancy. Having comorbid GDM and high blood pressure affected just one delivery. In contrast to 30 control mothers (8%), 12 PCOS females (19.3%) used to have a higher chance of having an operation and transferring their newborns to NICUs (p! 0.05).

Table 1: Characteristic of the patient and their profile of endocrine of PCOS females and control females before gestation

PCOS	CONTROL		
	Non-insulin resistance	Insulin resistance	
	n= 28	n= 24	n=354
Age, years	32.5+3.7	32.1+3.9	33.7+3.3
BMI, kg/m2	24.3+3.8	26+5.4	22.1+2.6
FSH	5.0+1.8	5.6+3.3	
LH	11.5+7.4	7.8+4.5	
Testosterone	2.3+1.3	2.7+1.6	
Fasting glucose, pmol/l	7.1+1.2	7.1+1.4	
Fasting insulin, pmol/l	87.2+35	150.8+83	

Table 2: Complication of pregnancy, delivery mode, and maternal consequences in PCOS females and controls

PCOS	Non-insulin resistance n=28		Insulin resistance n=24		Control n=354	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Hypertensive	4	13	2	8	1	0.4
Pre-eclampsia	2	7	6	21	25	7
Diabetes	2	7	2	9	2	0.5
C-section	9	45	6		97	26
Pre-mature baby	6	20	4		53	13
Birth weight	3,240+950		3348+936		3,276+775	
Transferred NICU	5		4		32	9

Nevertheless, this could be because infants delivered to moms with GDM are often transferred to NICU. Gestation length, low birth weight in infants, and maternal mortality did not differ statistically from controls (table 2). Early birth occurred in 4 (37.5%) of the PCOS women whose conceptions were affected by PIH or pre-eclampsia as opposed to 8 (18.9%) of the other PCOS females. This differential did not approach a statistical level.

## DISCUSSION

When contrasted with the control group, all PCOS females had a considerably higher prevalence of pregnancy-induced hypertension. While contrasted to controls, pre-eclampsia has been discovered to be more prevalent in insulin-sensitive PCOS females but not in non-insulin-insensitive PCOS females. Previous research [8, 13-15] found that hypertension maternal problems were more common in PCOS females than in controls. The misleading impact of symmetry was not controlled for in several of these findings [13,14]. Mikola et al. [15] recently published research that found no higher frequency of hypertension in PCOS females. The glucose tolerance of PCOS females was unknown in these trials.

Females with a history of pre-eclampsia, on the other hand, are more likely to acquire increased insulin production and unacceptably high androgen later in life [17, 18]. These estimations back up our results that insulin-resistant PCOS females are more likely to acquire preeclampsia. Researchers also discovered a considerable rise in GDM in PCOS females. This higher prevalence of GDM, meanwhile, was discovered to be independent of the status of glucose tolerance before gestation. As a result, it may be reasonable to attribute GDM to other variables in PCOS. Cardenas et al. [19] found no higher incidence of GDM or low birthweight in PCOS mothers in comprehensive research. Some studies that have found an elevated risk of GDM have linked this to overweight rather than PCOS.

Additionally, it's been noted that there is a link between GDM and preeclampsia [20], and PCOS females with aberrant insulin production at the pre-gestational phase have a higher risk of developing GDM—up to 46%—than controls—who have a risk of 1–5% [21]. According to Holte et al. [23], females with GDM had a considerably greater frequency of PCOS than a female who had successful babies. Our research found that screening for glucose tolerance before conception was not a reliable indicator of later GDM progression in PCOS mothers. Research done by Fridstrm et al. [8] has demonstrated that pregnant women with PCOS and controls had different BMI and sugar levels. Given that the 2 groups' bloodstream sugar concentrations and birth weights were comparable, the researchers concluded that hyperinsulinemia ought to have no bearing on the course of gestation.

Females with PCOS had a significantly different experience managing GDM, with a larger percentage of them needing pharmaceutical treatment. In our research, a minor percentage of GDM+PCOS+ females needed Glucophage and insulin together (5.5% vs. 4.4%), but this is substantially less than the 10-44% of this female who needed additional insulin that Balani et al. and Rowan et al. observed. Females with GDM+PCOS+ who weren't taking Glucophage had a noticeably greater likelihood of needing insulin, according to a subset study.

According to our findings, all groups under investigation had comparable birth weights and maternal morbidities. Prematurity was reported to occur more frequently in PCOS females who also had pre-eclampsia or gestational diabetes problems. Maternal mortality, although, was comparable across all categories. It ought to be noted that our controlled group consisted of singleton births following fertility treatments at similar ages. According to various articles, females in this category are more likely to experience pregnancy problems such as hypertensive and gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) [24–26]. It follows that some of the control group's participants in fertility treatment also have PCOS. Since it was difficult to retrospectively eliminate the PCOS participants in

our comparison group, the disparities revealed in our study might have been much more substantial.

For determining glucose tolerance, euglycemic hyperinsulinemic clamping testing is considered the "criterion." In our section, the CIGMA testing is utilized to distinguish between subjects based on their glucose tolerance because it is a far less complicated, non-invasive exam. The CIGMA testing has a strong correlation with the euglycemic clamping method and is thus very useful in medical practice.

Our research has significant shortcomings. PCOS was diagnosed using a questionnaire form at the period of prenatal screening, and women who self-reported having PCOS were verified using the Rotterdam criterion. Moreover, because our research only included females with GDM, we could not remark on the effect of PCOS on a female who does not acquire GDM. We additionally lacked data on ibuprofen use throughout our sample, which prevented us from examining the effect of ibuprofen usage on the prevalence of pre-eclampsia. Our investigation could not identify a substantial difference between the unfavorable newborn impacts related to GDM, which have been frequently described in the past.

Because of the consequences that PCOS faces to a pregnant female and their children, the upcoming study must concentrate on evidence-based strategies for reducing pre-pregnancy comorbidities caused by PCOS, which may also result in enhancements in successive pregnancy-related results, as well as methods to lessen weight increase in gestation.

## CONCLUSION

We conclude that pre-eclampsia occurred at a greater frequency in insulin-resistant PCOS females than in non-insulin-resistant PCOS females and controls, as well as the incidence of pregnancy-induced high blood pressure and GDM was considerably higher in PCOS pregnant women, particularly in comparison to particular matter controls. We discovered that females with GDM who also had concomitant PCOS had substantial variations in their epidemiological and glycaemic characteristics. In addition, comorbid PCOS was a separate potential risk on linear regression for the progress of preeclampsia between many females with GDM, every one of which has been proven to possess long-term effects on the well-being of the females and the child. Females with GDM who also had PCOS had greater pre-eclampsia BMIs as well as considerable maternal weight gains.

Sufficient assistance must be given to implementing long-term lifestyle changes to achieve healthy body weight, nutrition, and fitness level which can be retained into later years. When these other metrics are unsuccessful, it may be necessary to evaluate both medical and surgeon involvement for weight control and glycemic regulatory oversight. The elevated hazards of pregnancy difficulties and the possibility of negative effects on the unborn child must be made aware to females.

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