

Pathophysiological Mechanisms of the Development of Arterial Hypertension in Obesity

Juraeva Kh. I., Musaev G. G

Bukhara State Medical Institute, Bukhara, Uzbekistan

Annotation: In most countries of the world, arterial hypertension (AH) occupies a leading position in the structure of modifiable risk factors for cardiovascular diseases and their complications. One of the main reasons for this trend is the increasing prevalence of obesity, which is becoming an important risk factor for high blood pressure (BP). The results of numerous epidemiological studies have revealed the relationship between obesity, verified by body mass index (BMI), and blood pressure levels, as well as the prognostic role of BMI in relation to the development of hypertension. However, at present there is no consensus on the obesity criterion that most accurately predicts the risk of developing hypertension and associated complications. Data from prospective observational studies have confirmed the greater prognostic significance in this regard of indirect and direct assessment of abdominal and ectopic visceral adipose tissue. These facts formed the basis for numerous studies aimed at revealing the pathophysiological mechanisms of the formation of hypertension in patients with overweight and obesity, the review of which is devoted to this article.

Keywords: arterial hypertension, obesity, visceral adipose tissue.

Introduction.

In most countries of the world, arterial hypertension (AH) today occupies a leading position in the structure of modifiable risk factors for cardiovascular diseases and their complications [1], and its prevalence continues to increase steadily, currently reaching 45% among the adult population [2]. The Russian Federation, as shown by the results of the ESSE-RF epidemiological study conducted in 2012–2013, is also distinguished by a high prevalence (up to 50.2% among people aged 25 to 65 years) and an unsatisfactory level of control of hypertension (about 22.7% among all hypertensive patients). patients) [3].

Despite the progress achieved in the correction of individual cardiovascular risk factors, the number of people with hypertension predicted by 2025 will reach 1.5 billion people, which will undoubtedly lead to an increase in hypertension-related disability and death [1,2]. One of the main reasons for this trend is the increasing prevalence of obesity [4], which is becoming one of the leading risk factors for increased blood pressure (BP) [1]. In our country, according to the above-mentioned ESSERF study, body mass index (BMI) \geq 30 kg/m2 occurs in a total of 26.9% of men and 30.8% of women, and an analysis of the prevalence of obesity over the past decade indicates a steady increase This indicator is predominantly among males [5].

The results of a number of epidemiological studies have revealed the relationship between obesity verified by BMI and blood pressure levels, as well as the prognostic role of BMI in relation to the development of hypertension [6]. Moreover, the association of obesity and hypertension is characterized by the absence of significant gender differences in the relative risk indicator (2.71 for men and 2.52 for women) [5]. According to Mendelian studies, it has been shown that a genetically determined increase in BMI by 1–2 units is accompanied by an increase in systolic and diastolic blood pressure levels by 0.7–0.9 and 0.5 mm Hg. Art. respectively [7, 8]. In general, 65–78% of people with hypertension have a BMI characteristic of overweight or obesity [9].

In addition, patients with hypertension and obesity are characterized by higher levels of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality [10], as well as treatment-resistant hypertension [11], which made it possible to classify obesity as a factor determining cardiovascular risk in hypertension [2]. Currently, in the

context of the pandemic of the new coronavirus infection COVID-19, this relationship becomes even more relevant in relation to predicting the severity of the infectious disease and creating correction algorithms to prevent the development of serious complications [12, 13].

However, currently there is no consensus on the obesity criterion that most accurately predicts the risk of developing hypertension and associated complications [14]. If in some populations the maximum prognostic value was characterized by BMI [15,16], then in others it was indirect indicators of visceral obesity [17,18]. Moreover, separate prospective observational studies that directly quantified abdominal visceral adipose tissue (AVAT) demonstrated an independent prognostic role for visceral adiposity [22]. hus, the volume of abdominal VAT, determined by magnetic resonance imaging, in the Dallas Heart Study was a more significant predictor of the development of hypertension compared to BMI and indirect markers of visceral obesity [19]. C. Sullivan et al (2015) identified a relationship between an increase in abdominal visceral adipose tissue, assessed over time using multislice computed tomography, and the development of hypertension [20]. The prognostic role of sonographic indicators of quantitative assessment of abdominal VAT in relation to increased blood pressure has also been confirmed in a number of studies [21, 22].

Finally, extremely interesting from the point of view of studying the pathophysiological basis of the association of obesity and hypertension are the results of studies assessing the prognostic role of ectopic BAT indicators [19, 22, 23]. In particular, M. Foster et al (2011) showed that patients with excessive deposition of visceral fat around the kidneys were characterized by a more than twofold increase in the risk of developing hypertension, including after taking into account BMI and the amount of abdominal visceral fat [23]. In the Dallas Heart Study, the maximum predictive value was the severity of retroperitoneal VAT [19]. There is evidence that epicardial fat tissue assessment, particularly echocardiographic epicardial fat thickness, has a high prognostic value in this context [22].

These facts formed the basis for numerous studies aimed at revealing the pathophysiological mechanisms of the formation of hypertension in patients with overweight and obesity, the review of which is devoted to this article.

The role of renal mechanisms in the formation of arterial hypertension in obesity

One of the main mechanisms of increased blood pressure in overweight and obese individuals is a change in natriuresis in the renal tubules, which is a consequence of both hyperactivation of the renal SNS, RAAS and mineralocorticoid receptors in an aldosterone-independent manner, and compression of the renal tissue by an excessive amount of visceral retroperitoneal adipose tissue and adipose tissue of the renal sinus [6, 30].

An increase in sodium reabsorption through the tubuloglomerular feedback mechanism leads to an increase in the secretion of renin by juxtaglomerular cells, a narrowing of the efferent and expansion of the afferent arteriole, an increase in intraglomerular pressure and the development of high grade albuminuria, which is the pathophysiological basis for the subsequent formation of glomerulosclerosis and a decrease in glomerular filtration rate [6,29].

Expansion of renal BAT can extend into the renal medullary extracellular matrix, which is accompanied by the development of inflammation and remodeling of renal tissue, a decrease in blood flow in the renal tubules and an even greater increase in sodium reabsorption [17].

In addition, insulin has a direct effect on sodium reabsorption in the proximal renal tubules through activation of the third type sodium hydrogen exchanger [19].

Endothelial dysfunction and increased arterial stiffness

It should be noted that endothelial dysfunction and increased arterial stiffness are the earliest manifestations of hypertension developing in overweight and obesity [25]. Some studies have shown that obese individuals with higher values of arterial stiffness are characterized by a higher incidence of hypertension [23].

Hyperinsulinemia, through activation of the mitogen-activated protein kinase-mediated signaling pathway, is accompanied by the development of vascular inflammation, endothelial cell hyperplasia, and increased levels of endothelin-1 and adhesion molecules [26]. Selective insulin resistance is also manifested by a decrease in the implementation of vasodilating insulin signals mediated by phosphoinositol 3-kinase [14]. In addition to insulin, hyperleptinemia and selective leptin resistance, increased levels of interleukin-6 and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1, and decreased adiponectin levels are also important in the development of endothelial dysfunction and arterial stiffness [27].

Dysfunction of perivascular BAT plays a special role, leading to the release of pro-inflammatory adipokines directly into the vascular wall, which is accompanied by the development of inflammation and endothelial dysfunction, fibrosis of the extracellular matrix, hyperplasia and changes in the phenotype of smooth muscle cells underlying abnormally high arterial stiffness [18].

Natriuretic peptide system

In the development of hypertension and organ damage in obesity, the relative insufficiency of the natriuretic peptide system as a component of neurohumoral imbalance is also important [18]. Hyperinsulinemia developing in obesity is accompanied by an increase in the expression of type C receptor and neprilysin, which accelerate the clearance of biologically active forms of natriuretic peptides [14,28].

In addition, taking into account the numerous metabolic effects of natriuretic peptides, including stimulation of lipolysis, acceleration of the oxidation of free fatty acids, activation of the process of "browning" or "browning" of white BAT adipocytes, increased secretion of adiponectin, their relative insufficiency may be accompanied by an increase in BAT dysfunction and various metabolic disorders, potentiating the mechanisms of hypertension formation [31].

Other mechanisms of arterial hypertension formation in obesity

A manifestation of the imbalance of adipokines secreted by BAT adipocytes is a decrease in the level of adiponectin, which, along with the presumed selective adiponectin resistance in obese patients, contributes to the formation of hypertension, mainly due to endothelial dysfunction and increased arterial stiffness [25, 27].

The role of immune response dysfunction, manifested in hyperactivation of T cells and impaired polarization, is also discussed in the development of hypertension in patients with overweight and obesity. Type 1 T helper cells enhance proinflammatory reactions and promote the development of oxidative stress, increase tissue infiltration by M1 macrophages, and type 17 T helper cells and CD 8+ cells secrete interleukin-17, which is involved in the development of vascular remodeling. On the contrary, T-regulatory cells are a unique subpopulation of T-cells that suppress pro-inflammatory reactions, secrete anti-inflammatory cytokines and promote an increase in the proportion of M2 macrophages, which increase tissue sensitivity to insulin [26]. The shift in the ratio observed in visceral obesity towards predominant T-helper cells over T-regulatory cells contributes to the development of hypertension and vascular remodeling [28]. Hyperuricemia in visceral obesity also contributes to the formation of hypertension by influencing the expression of type 1 angiotensin II receptors in the vascular wall, the secretion of monocyte chemotactic protein-1, macrophage infiltration and the development of the pro-inflammatory status of BAT.

Hyperuricemia is accompanied by the deposition of collagen deposits in the kidney tissue, the expression of osteopontin, which increases the production of renin by juxtaglomerular cells and reduces the levels of nitric oxide in the macula densa [29].

The association of intestinal microbiota and hypertension in obesity, according to some authors, is based on a decrease in the species diversity of microorganisms and an increase in the Firmicutes/Bacteroides ratio, as well as metabolites of colon bacteria, including trimethylamine, shortchain fatty acids, secondary bile acids and those produced by gram-negative bacteria

Copyright © 2024 The Author(s). This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium provided the original work is properly cited.

lipopolysaccharides, leading to the development of a systemic inflammatory response, insulin resistance and metabolic disorders [32].

Conclusion

Thus, we can conclude that the main role in the development of one or another pathophysiological link in the development of hypertension in patients with overweight and obesity is played by dysfunctional visceral adipose tissue in the abdominal cavity and ectopic depots of visceral fat. and an imbalance of hypersecretion of adipokines against vasoconstrictor and anti-inflammatory mediators, which formed the basis of the obesity-based theory of the pathogenesis of arterial hypertension [22].

This approach allows us to talk about arterial hypertension that develops with visceral obesity, arterial hypertension, which has characteristic etiopathogenetic mechanisms, clinical features of the course, requiring appropriate methods of non-drug correction and the prescription of separate groups of antihypertensive drugs, and is considered one of the components of visceral obesity syndrome [24].

Bibliography

- 1. GBD 2019 Risk Factors Collaborators. Global burden of 87 risk factors in 204 countries and territories, 1990–2019: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019. Lancet. 2020; 396(10258):1223–1249. doi:10.1016/S 01406736(20)30752-2
- Williams B, Mancia G, Spiering W, Rosei E, Azizi M, Burnier M et al. 2018 ESC/ESH Guidelines for the management of arterial hypertension. Eur Heart J. 2018;39(33):3021–104. doi:10.1093/eurheartj/ehy339
- 3. Ерина А. М., Ротарь О. П., Солнцев В. Н., Шальнова С. А., Деев А. Д., Баранова Е. И. и др. Эпидемиология артериальной гипертензии в Российской Федерации важность выбора критериев диагностики. Кардиология. 2019; 59(6): 5–11.
- doi:10.18087/cardio.2019.6.2595 [Erina AM, Rotar OP, Solntsev VN, Shalnova SA, Deev AD, Baranova EI et al. Epidemiology of arterial hypertension in Russian Federation — importance of choice of criteria of diagnosis. Kardiologiia. 2019; 59(6):5–11. doi:10.18087/cardio.2019.6.2595. In Russian].
- 5. GBD 2015 Obesity Collaborators. Health effects of overweight and obesity in 195 countries over 25 Years. N Engl J Med. 2017;377(1):13–27. doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1614362
- 6. Баланова Ю. А., Шальнова С. А., Деев А. Д., Имаева А. Э., Концевая А. В., Муромцева Г. А. и др. Ожирение в российской популяции распространенность и ассоциации с факторами риска хронических неинфекционных заболеваний. Российский кардиологический журнал. 2018;23(6):123–30. doi:10.15829/1560-4071-2018-6-123-130 [Balanova YuA, Shalnova SA, Deev AD, Imaeva AE, Kontsevaya AV, Muromtseva GA et al. Obesity in Russian population prevalence and association with the non-communicable diseases risk factors. Russian Journal of Cardiology. 2018; 23(6):123–30. Doi: 10.15829/1560-4071-20186-123-130. In Russian].
- Hall J, do Carmo J, da Silva a, Wang Z, Hall M. Obesityinduced hypertension: interaction of neurohumoral and renal mechanisms. Circ Res. 2015; 116(6):991–1006. doi:10.1161/ CIRCRESAHA.116.305697
- 8. Fall T, Hägg S, Mägi R, Ploner A, Fischer K, Horikoshi M et al. The role of adiposity in cardiometabolic traits: a Mendelian randomization analysis. PLoS Med. 2013; 10(6):e1001474. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001474
- Holmes M, Lange L, Palmer T, Lanktree M, North K, Almoguera B et al. Causal effects of body mass index on cardiometabolic traits and events: a Mendelian randomization analysis. Am J Hum Genet. 2014; 94(2):198–208. doi:10.1016/j. ajhg.2013.12.014
- 10. Shariq O, McKenzie T. Obesity-related hypertension: a review of pathophysiology, management, and the role of metabolic surgery. Gland Surg. 2020;9(1):80–93. doi:10.21037/gs.2019.12.03

- 11. Reisin E, Graves J, Yamal J, Barzilay J, Pressel S, Einhorn P et al. Blood pressure control and cardiovascular outcomes in normal-weight, overweight, and obese hypertensive patients treated with three different antihypertensives in ALLHAT. J Hypertens. 2014; 32(7):1503–1513. doi:10.1097/HJH.0000000 000000204
- 12. Tadic M, Cuspidi C. Obesity and resistant hypertension: never ending story. J Clin Hypertens. 2019;21(10):1516–1518. doi:10.1111/jch.13669
- Sattar N, McInnes I, McMurray J. Obesity is a risk factor for severe COVID-19 infection: multiple potential mechanisms. Circulation. 2020; 142(1): 4–6. doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA. 120.047659
- 14. Shah H, Khan M, Dhurandhar N, Hegde V. The triumvirate: why hypertension, obesity, and diabetes are risk factors for adverse effects in patients with COVID-19. Acta Diabetol. 2021;1–13. doi:10.1007/s00592-020-01636-z
- 15. Цыганкова Д. П., Кривошапова К. Е., Максимов С. А., Индукаева Е. В., Шаповалова Э. Б., Артамонова Γ. В. и др. Ожирение и артериальная гипертензия: роль критериев. Системные гипертензии. 2019;16(1):32–6. doi:10.26442/20750 82X.2019.180168 [Tsygankova DP, Krivoshapova KE, Maksimov SA, Indukaeva EV, Shapovalova EB, Artamonova GV et al. Obesity and hypertension: the role of criteria. Systemnye Gipertenzii = Systemic Hypertension. 2019;16(1):32–36. doi:10.26442/ 2075082X.2019.180168. In Russian]. 15. Chen Z, Smith M, Du H, Guo Y, Clarke R, Bian Z et al. Blood pressure in relation to general and central adiposity among 500 000 adult Chinese men and women. Int J Epidemiol. 2015;44(4):1305–1319. doi:10.1093/ije/dyv012
- 16. Gnatiuc L, Alegre-Díaz J, Halsey J, Herrington W, LópezCervantes M, Lewington S et al. Adiposity and blood pressure in 110000 Mexican adults. Hypertension. 2017;69(4):608–614. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.116.08791
- 17. Luz R, Barbosa A, d'Orsi E. Waist circumference, body mass index and waist-height ratio: are two indices better than one for identifying hypertension risk in older adults? Prev Med. 2016;93:76–81. doi:10.1016/j.ypmed.2016.09.024
- 18. Hu L, Huang X, You C, Li J, Hong K, Li P et al. Prevalence and risk factors of prehypertension and hypertension in Southern China. PLoS ONE. 2017;12(1):e0170238. doi:10.1371/journal. pone.0170238
- 19. Chandra A, Neeland I, Berry J, Ayers C, Rohatgi A, Das S et al. The relationship of body mass and fat distribution with incident hypertension: observations from the Dallas Heart Study. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2014;64(10):997–1002. doi:10.1016/j.jacc.2014.05.057
- 20. Sullivan C, Kahn S, Fujimoto W, Hayashi T, Leonetti D, Boyko E. Change in intra-abdominal fat predicts the risk of hypertension in Japanese Americans. Hypertension. 2015;66(1): 134–140. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.114.04990
- 21. Seven E, Thuesen B, Linneberg A, Jeppesen J. Abdominal adiposity distribution quantified by ultrasound imaging and incident hypertension in a general population. Hypertension. 2016;68(5):1115–1122. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.116.07306
- 22. Seravalle G, Grassi G. Obesity and hypertension. Pharmacol Res. 2017;122:1–7. doi:10.1016/j.phrs.2017.05.013
- 23. Дружилов М. А., Кузнецова Т. Ю. Висцеральное ожирение как фактор риска артериальной гипертензии. Российский кардиологический журнал. 2019;4:7–12. doi:10.15829/1560
- Чумакова Г.А., Кузнецова Т.Ю., Дружилов М.А., Веселовская Н.Г. Висцеральное ожирение как глобальный фактор сердечно-сосудистого риска. Российский кардиологический журнал. 2018;5:7–14. doi:10.15829/1560-4071-2018-5-7-14 [Chumakova GA, Kuznetsova TY, Druzhilov

MA, Veselovskaya NG. Visceral adiposity as a global factor of cardiovascular risk. Russian Journal of Cardiology. 2018;5:7–14. doi:10.15829/1560-4071-2018- 5-7-14. In Russian]

- 25. DeMarco V, Aroor A, Sowers J. The pathophysiology of hypertension in patients with obesity. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2014;10(6):364–376. doi:10.1038/nrendo.2014.44
- Padmanabhan S, Caulfield M, Dominiczak A. Genetic and molecular aspects of hypertension. Circ Res. 2015;116(6):937–959. doi:10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.116.303647
- 27. Zachariah J, Hwang S, Hamburg N, Benjamin E, Larson M, Levy D et al. Circulating adipokines and vascular function: crosssectional associations in a community-based cohort. Hypertension. 2016;67(2):294–300. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA. 115.05949
- 28. Asferg C, Nielsen S, Andersen U, Linneberg A, Møller D, Hedley P et al. Relative atrial natriuretic peptide deficiency and inadequate renin and angiotensin II suppression in obese hypertensive men. Hypertension. 2013;62(1):147–153. doi:10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.111.00791
- 29. Topouchian J, Labat C, Gautier S, Bäck M, Achimastos A, Blacher J et al. Effects of metabolic syndrome on arterial function in different age groups: The Advanced Approach to Arterial Stiffness Study. J. Hypertens. 2018;36(4):824–833. doi:10.1097/ HJH.00000000001631
- 30. Tsuboi N, Okabayashi Y, Shimizu A, Yokoo T. The renal pathology of obesity. Kidney Int Rep. 2017;2(2):251–260. doi:10.1016/j.ekir.2017.01.007
- 31. Zois N, Bartels E, Hunter I, Kousholt B, Olsen L, Goetze J. Natriuretic peptides in cardiometabolic regulation and disease. Nat Rev Cardiol. 2014;11(7):403–412. doi:10.1038/nrcardio.2014.64
- 32. Marques F, Mackay C, Kaye D. Beyond gut feelings: how the gut microbiota regulates blood pressure. Nat Rev Cardiol. 2018;15(1):20–32. doi:10.1038/nrcardio.2017.120