Pre-eclampsia

Eric A P Steegers, Peter von Dadelszen, Johannes J Duvekot, Robert Pijnenborg



Pre-eclampsia remains a leading cause of maternal and perinatal mortality and morbidity. It is a pregnancy-specific disease characterised by de-novo development of concurrent hypertension and proteinuria, sometimes progressing into a multiorgan cluster of varying clinical features. Poor early placentation is especially associated with early onset disease. Predisposing cardiovascular or metabolic risks for endothelial dysfunction, as part of an exaggerated systemic inflammatory response, might dominate in the origins of late onset pre-eclampsia. Because the multifactorial pathogenesis of different pre-eclampsia phenotypes has not been fully elucidated, prevention and prediction are still not possible, and symptomatic clinical management should be mainly directed to prevent maternal morbidity (eg, eclampsia) and mortality. Expectant management of women with early onset disease to improve perinatal outcome should not preclude timely delivery—the only definitive cure. Pre-eclampsia foretells raised rates of cardiovascular and metabolic disease in later life, which could be reason for subsequent lifestyle education and intervention.

Introduction

Complicating 2-8% of pregnancies, pre-eclampsia, along with the other hypertensive disorders of pregnancy, is a major contributor to maternal mortality worldwide.^{1,2} In Latin America and the Caribbean, hypertensive disorders are responsible for almost 26% of maternal deaths, whereas in Africa and Asia they contribute to 9% of deaths. Although maternal mortality is much lower in high-income countries than in developing countries, 16% of maternal deaths can be assigned to hypertensive disorders. The incidence of pre-eclampsia has risen in the USA.3,4 This finding might be related to an increased prevalence of predisposing disorders, such as chronic hypertension, diabetes, and obesity.3 Some ethnic groups (eg, African-American and Filipino women^{5,6}) and low socioeconomic status are associated with a heightened risk.7 Furthermore, severe pre-eclampsia is a major cause of severe maternal morbidity (eg, stroke and liver rupture) and adverse perinatal outcomes, such as prematurity and intrauterine growth restriction.2 Although the generalised seizures of eclampsia complicate 2-3 cases per 10 000 births in Europe, eclampsia is 10-30 times more common in developing countries than in highincome countries.2

Other hypertensive disorders in pregnancy are preexisting hypertension and gestational hypertension. Pre-eclampsia is generally defined as new hypertension (diastolic blood pressure of ≥90 mm Hg) and substantial proteinuria (≥300 mg in 24 h) at or after 20 weeks' gestation.8 However, how best to define the maternal syndrome of pre-eclampsia, and how to differentiate mild from severe disease is being debated. $^{9-12}$ Table 1 shows recent classification frameworks, evolving from previous work of the American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists¹³ and the International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy.14 The main differences between the classification systems are: (1) inclusion or exclusion of complicated non-proteinuric gestational hypertension as pre-eclampsia; (2) differentiation between clinical and research definitions in the Australasian guideline; (3) use of early-onset pre-eclampsia as a severity criterion in Canada (<34 weeks) and the USA (<35 weeks); (4) clinical importance of assessing white-coat hypertension; and (5) definition of severe hypertension. Although perinatal risks have long been recognised to be highest remote from term, the 20-fold increase in maternal mortality that is associated with pre-eclampsia arising at less than 32 weeks (compared with that at ≥37 weeks)¹⁵ seems not to have been, emphasising the importance of early-onset pre-eclampsia as a severity criterion. The debate between setting the systolic blood pressure definition of severe hypertension at either 160 mm Hg or 170 mm Hg needs to be resolved because of rising concerns about lethal maternal stroke risks at the lower threshold for blood pressure.16,17 None of these classification systems seems to have been independently assessed for the ability to identify women and fetuses at heightened risk of the adverse events that make pre-eclampsia so important.

Pathogenesis

Although the cause of pre-eclampsia remains largely unknown, the leading hypotheses strongly rely on disturbed placental function in early pregnancy (figure). Impaired remodelling of the spiral artery has especially been considered as an early, but not necessarily the primary, defect causing pre-eclampsia.¹⁹ Remodelling is a multistep process²⁰ in which the first decidua-associated step should be initiated around implantation.

Published Online July 1, 2010 DOI:10.1016/S0140-6736(10)60279-6

Department of Obstetrics and

Gynaecology, Division of

Obstetrics and Prenatal

Medicine, Erasmus MC, University Medical Centre

Rotterdam, Rotterdam,
Netherlands
(Prof E A P Steegers MD,
JJ Duvekot MD); Department
of Obstetrics and Gynaecology,
University of British Columbia,
Vancouver, BC, Canada
(P von Dadelszen MBChB); and
Department of Obstetrics and
Gynaecology, Catholic
University of Leuven,
University of Leuven,
University Hospital
Gasthuisberg, Leuven, Belgium
(Prof R Pijnenborg PhD)

Correspondence to:
Prof Eric A P Steegers,
Department of Obstetrics and
Gynaecology, Division of
Obstetrics and Prenatal
Medicine, Erasmus MC,
University Medical Centre
Rotterdam, 3000 CB Rotterdam,
Netherlands
e.a.p.steegers@erasmusmc.nl

1

Search strategy and selection criteria

We searched PubMed and the Cochrane Library with the search terms "pre-eclampsia" and "hypertension and pregnancy", and cross-referenced them with the following terms: "epidemiology", "definition", "aetiology", "pathophysiology", "prediction", "prevention", "management", "clinical trials", "preconception care", and "thrombophilia". We mainly restricted our search to studies done in human beings. We largely selected publications from the past 5 years, but did not exclude commonly referenced and highly regarded older publications. We also searched the reference lists of articles identified by this search strategy and selected those that we judged to be relevant. Review articles and book chapters are cited to provide readers with more details and references than this Seminar provides. Our reference list was modified on the basis of comments from peer reviewers.

	RCOG severe pre-eclampsia (2006) ⁹	SOMANZ (2008) ¹⁰	SOGC (2008) ¹¹	ASH (2008) ¹²
Pre-existing or chronic hypertension (blood pressure ≥140/90 mm Hg before 20 weeks' gestation)	NA	Chronic hypertension: essential; secondary; white coat; with or without superimposed pre-eclampsia	Pre-existing hypertension: with or without comorbid conditions; with or without superimposed pre-eclampsia	Chronic hypertension of any cause: with or without superimposed pre-eclampsia
Gestational hypertension (blood pressure ≥140/90 mm Hg after 19 weeks' (+6 days) gestation	NA	Gestational hypertension without significant proteinuria returning to normal within 12 weeks' post partum	Gestational hypertension: with or without comorbid conditions; with or without superimposed pre-eclampsia	Gestational hypertension: transient hypertension; bloo pressure returning to normal within 6 weeks' post parturn late post parturn hypertension, with blood pressure rise developing weeks' to 6 months' post parturn and normalised by 1 year post parturn
Pre-eclampsia (clinical definition)	Gestational hypertension (pregnancy-induced hypertension) and significant proteinuria (>0-3 g/24 h)	Gestational hypertension plus one or more of the following: dipstick proteinuria confirmed by either random Pr:Cr ratio ≥30 mg/mmol or 0·3 g/24 h; serum or plasma creatinine >90 µmol/L; oliguria; thrombocytopenia; haemolysis; disseminated intravascular coagulation; raised serum transaminases; severe epigastric or right upper quadrant pain; eclampsia; hypereflexia with sustained clonus; severe headache; persistent visual disturbances; stroke; pulmonary oedema; fetal growth restriction; placental abruption	Pre-existing hypertension and resistant hypertension, new proteinuria, or adverse condition (see severity criteria below) Gestational hypertension and proteinuria (random Pr:Cr ratio ≥30 mg/mmol or 0·3 g/24 h), or adverse condition	Gestational hypertension or chronic hypertension and proteinuria (dipstick ≥1+, random Pr:Cr ratio ≥30 mg/mmol or 0·3 g/24 h
Pre-eclampsia (research definition)	Not defined	De novo hypertension >20 weeks' gestation, returning to normal post partum with properly documented proteinuria	Not defined	Not defined
Severe hypertension	170/110 mm Hg	170/110 mm Hg	160/110 mm Hg	160/110 mm Hg
Heavy proteinuria	1 g/L	Not defined	3–5 g per day	3 g per day
Severity criteria				
Gestational age at onset	Not included	Not defined	<34 weeks' gestation	<35 weeks' gestation
Maternal symptoms	Severe headache; visual disturbance; epigastric pain or vomiting	Not defined	Persistent or new/unusual headache; visual disturbances; persistent abdominal or right upper quadrant pain; severe nausea or vomiting, chest pain or dyspnoea	Headache; visual disturbanc abdominal pain
Maternal signs of end- organ dysfunction	Eclampsia; severe hypertension; heavy proteinuria; liver tenderness; signs of clonus; papilloedema	Not defined	Eclampsia; severe hypertension; pulmonary oedema; or suspected placental abruption	Severe diastolic hypertensio (≥110 mm Hg); heavy proteinuria, oliguria
Abnormal maternal laboratory testing	Platelet count <100×10°/L, HELLP syndrome, abnormal liver enzymes (ALT or AST rising to above 70 U/L)	Not defined	Raised serum creatinine; increased AST, ALT, or LDH with symptoms; platelet count <100×10°/L; or serum albumin <20 g/L	Raised serum creatinine, decreased glomerular filtrati rate, or increased AST or LDH
Fetal morbidity or mortality	Not included	Not defined	Oligohydramnios; intrauterine growth restriction; absent or reversed end-diastolic flow in the umbilical artery by Doppler velocimetry; intrauterine fetal death	Fetal morbidity (non-reassuring fetal testing

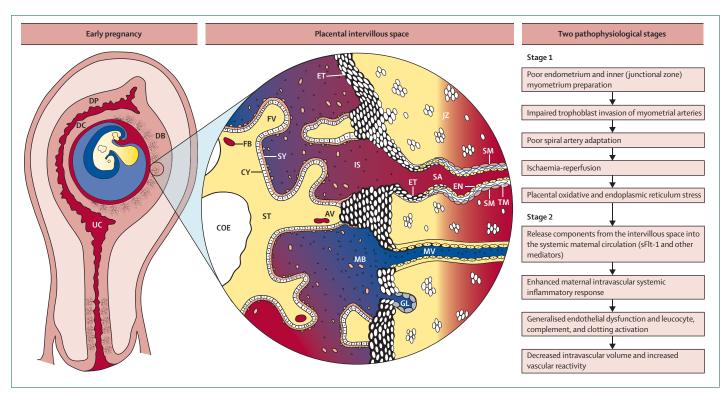
Table 1: International comparison between recent classification systems

Disturbances at this stage could increase risk of pre-eclampsia, and might explain its higher incidence in women with unexplained subfertility or recurrent miscarriage. Decidua-associated vascular changes also arise in the inner (junctional zone) myometrium, followed by trophoblast invasion with associated remodelling. Interaction of trophoblastic HLA-C, HLA-E, and HLA-G with uterine natural killer cells or dendritic cells, or both, is thought to be important in regulation of invasion, A-26 and some combinations of HLA-C and killer cell immunoglobulin-like receptor isoforms predispose to pre-eclampsia. Discourse in the subject of the pre-eclampsia. Discourse results of the pre-eclampsia of the pre-eclampsia of the pre-eclampsia. Discourse results of the pre-eclampsia of the pre-eclampsia of the pre-eclampsia. Discourse results of the pre-eclampsia of the pre

Intervillous flow seems to start 7–8 weeks of gestation by the appearance of connecting channels between spiral arteries and lacunae in the wall of the implanted blastocyst. Early trophoblast plugging might protect the embryo against high oxygen concentrations. Researchers have postulated that premature loss of these plugs could result in early miscarriage, or, dependent on timing, preeclampsia. Gradually plugs are resolved by intravascular migration of the trophoblast. Intervillous flow is thought to start in lateral regions, hereas trophoblast invasion and associated deplugging of spiral artery outlets starts in the centre and spreads to the periphery. Peripheral onset of intervillous flow should result in high local oxidative stress, leading to villous regression and

formation of the chorion leave. Insufficient lateral spread of endovascular plugging could therefore result in extensive chorionic regression and a small placenta, ²⁹ contributing to intrauterine growth restriction, early-onset pre-eclampsia, or both.

Overlaying trophoblast invasion and spiral artery remodelling steps on Jauniaux's placental oxygen curve30 shows that decidua-associated remodelling in decidua and junctional zone myometrium develops during the steep rise in placental oxygen (10–12 weeks), whereas at 10 weeks some decidual arteries are already filled with endovascular trophoblast over their entire length.31 Placental flow defects can be detected as early as 12 weeks in women who subsequently develop preeclampsia.32 Deep invasion of the myometrial arterial segments comes after the steep rise in placental oxygen from 15 weeks onwards, and can therefore be triggered by increased flow.31 Thus, impaired invasion of myometrial spiral arteries in pre-eclampsia might result from, rather than cause, maternal flow defects. As myometrial spiral arteries have a more pronounced muscular coat and elastica than do the corresponding decidual vessels, failed remodelling at this level leads to reduced uteroplacental arterial flow and episodes of irregular placental perfusion. Such hypoxia or reoxygenation episodes in some cases generate reactive



 ${\it Figure:} \ {\it Possible} \ pathophysiological \ processes \ in \ pre-eclampsia$

AV=anchoring villus. COE=coelomic cavity. CY=cytotrophoblast. DB=decidua basalis. DC=decidua capsularis. DP=decidua parietalis. EN=endothelium. ET=extravillous trophoblast. FB=fetal blood vessel. FV=floating villus. GL=gland. IS=intervillous space. JZ=junctional zone myometrium. MB=maternal blood, leaving the intervillous space with various components such as antiangiogenic factors. MV=maternal vein. SA=spiral artery. SM=smooth muscle. ST=stroma. SY=syncytiotrophoblast. TM=tunica media. UC=uterine cavity. sFlt-1=soluble form of the vascular endothelial growth factor receptor. Centre panel of figure adapted from Karumanchi et al, ¹⁸ with permission from Elsevier.

	Unadjusted relative risks (95% C
Nulliparity	2-91 (1-28-6-61)
Multiparous women	
Pre-eclampsia in any previous pregnancy	7-19 (5-85–8-83)
10 years or more since last baby born	Increased*
Age 40 years or older	
Nulliparous women	1.68 (1.23–2.29)
Multiparous women	1.96 (1.34–2.87)
Body-mass index of 35 kg/m² or higher	1.55 (1.28–1.88)
Family history of pre-eclampsia (mother or sister)	2.90 (1.70-4.93)
Diastolic blood pressure of ≥80 mm Hg at booking	Increased*
Proteinuria at booking appointment (\ge +on dipstick testing, on more than one occasion or quantified at \ge 300 mg/24 h)	Increased*
Multiple pregnancy	2-93 (2-04-4-21)
Underlying medical disorders	
Pre-existing hypertension	Increased*
Pre-existing renal disease	Increased*
Pre-existing diabetes	3.56 (2.54-4.99)
Presence of antiphospholipid antibodies	9.72 (4.34-21.75)

Table 2: Risk markers for pre-eclampsia at antenatal booking according to the PRE-eclampsia Community Guidelines (PRECOG*)

oxygen species,³³ leading to placental oxidative stress and placental dysfunction, with endoplasmic reticulum stress and impaired protein synthesis.³⁴ We believe that the unidentified causes of the first (placental) stage of pre-eclampsia³⁵ might include excessive or atypical maternal immune response to trophoblasts,³⁶ and either impaired decidualisation or failure of proper uterine preconditioning.³⁷ Thus, pre-eclampsia is a disease of failed interaction between two genetically different organisms. As such, Haig's maternal-fetal conflict hypothesis could be relevant.³⁸

The second stage (figure) of systemic maternal disease is associated with an exaggerated endothelial activation and a generalised hyperinflammatory state compared with normal pregnancy.³⁹ Episodes of placental hypoxia or reperfusion result in oxidative stress, subsequent apoptotic and necrotic disruption of syncytial architecture, 40 and release of various components from the intervillous space into the maternal circulation, stimulating production of inflammatory cytokines.41 The circulating bioactive trophoblast debris includes syncytiotrophoblast membrane microparticles41 and an excess of syncytiotrophoblastderived antiangiogenic factors, such as soluble endoglin and the soluble form of the vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) receptor (sFlt-1).18 Increased production of anti-angiogenic factors by trophoblasts was also recently shown in molar pregnancy, a disorder known to predispose women to pre-eclampsia. 42,43 The excessive systemic inflammatory response of pre-eclampsia⁴ results in endothelial dysfunction and associated increased vascular reactivity, preceding onset of symptomatic clinical disease. 45 Loss of endothelial integrity contributes to derangements

of sodium-volume homoeostasis and reversal of many cardiovascular changes (eg, increased cardiac output and intravascular volume) accompanying normal pregnancy. Thus, pre-eclampsia is a low-output, high-resistance state with paradoxically decreased aldosterone and renin activity.⁴⁶

Linking mechanisms between stages 1 and 2 can be different for several phenotypes of pre-eclampsia, including haemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, and low platelet count (HELLP) syndrome,47 and sometimes varies between individuals. Whether pre-eclampsia will be of early (often complicated by intrauterine growth restriction) or late onset can be dependent on whether the placenta in stage 1 becomes phenotypically small because of a greater angiogenic imbalance. 48 Poor placentation should not be regarded as the cause of preeclampsia, because not all of such pregnancies have poor outcomes, but instead as a powerful predisposing factor.³⁹ In the presence of a placenta with an appropriate size for gestational age, predisposing cardiovascular and metabolic syndrome-like disorders might also be able to set off a cascade of placental and systemic inflammation and oxidative stress, resulting in late onset pre-eclampsia (also called maternal preeclampsia).49 This view is substantiated by findings of normal villous morphology in late-onset pre-eclampsia, by contrast with early-onset pre-eclampsia,50 although no such data seem to exist for the placental bed.

Although interactions between maternal genetic and constitutional factors with environmental factors contribute to the second stage, such factors are now thought to have an effect on the first stage of the disease.⁴⁹ Decreased antioxidant and phase I and phase II biotransformation activities in the maternal blood and decidual and placental tissue probably contribute to an increased risk of pre-eclampsia.⁵¹ The protective effect of smoking against pre-eclampsia⁵² could result from beneficial carbon monoxide effects on trophoblast invasion and spiral artery remodelling, increased stage 1 placental blood flow, and decreased stage 2 inflammatory responses.⁵³ Decreased placental release of sFlt-1 is possibly associated with this protective effect.⁵⁴

Screening

Table 2 shows factors that can easily be measured at the first prenatal appointment and that increase the likelihood of pre-eclampsia in any pregnancy. Sin In risk assessments done after 20 weeks' gestation, attention should be paid to the possible onset of pre-eclampsia by identification of any of the following signs and symptoms: new hypertension, new proteinuria, symptoms of headache, visual disturbance, epigastric pain, vomiting, reduced fetal movements, and an infant that is small for gestational age. Such risk assessment before and after 20 weeks can be used in the community to offer referral for specialist input.

Next to history taking, physical examination including measurement of blood pressure and assessment for presence of proteinuria, are the cornerstones of screening in antenatal care. Blood pressure should be measured as for non-pregnancy, with the woman at rest, sitting upright, with the arm supported, and the sphygmomanometer cuff at the level of the patient's heart.11 Korotkoff sound V (disappearance of turbulence) should be used to define diastolic blood pressure and values recorded to the nearest 2 mm Hg. Thigh cuffs (18×36 cm) should be used for women with an arm circumference of 41 cm or more. 56 Of the automated blood pressure measuring devices on the market, only the Microlife 3BTO-A and Microlife WatchBP Home⁵⁷ have met the British Hypertension Society's criteria for accuracy. Mean arterial blood pressure might be a better predictor for pre-eclampsia than is systolic or diastolic blood pressure or an increase in blood pressure.58 Although dipstick testing for screening of proteinuria is prone to issues of intraobserver and interobserver variability and limited sensitivity and specificity,59 it is readily available, widely used, and might be the only test available in low-income and middle-income countries. Although 24 h urine collection is still used to confirm and quantify a substantial amount of proteinuria,56 this method seems vulnerable to issues of overcollection, undercollection, and large coefficients of variation between tests in the same women.60 The spot urinary protein-to-creatinine ratio, often used as a screening method. 56 is less cumbersome than is 24 h urine collection. and is suggested to be an equivalently accurate measure of clinically significant proteinuria in pregnancy.⁶¹ Still to be established, however, is whether this ratio remains constant throughout a 24 h period.62

Prediction

Early prediction of pre-eclampsia would allow for close surveillance and preventive strategies. Many tests have been assessed for their relation to placental perfusion, vascular resistance, and placental products, including tests for Down's serum screening analytes and hormones, renal and endothelial dysfunction, oxidative stress, and fetal-derived products. Of 27 tests reviewed by Meads and colleagues,63 only a few reached specificities above 90%. These were body-mass index of 34 kg/m² or higher, α-fetoprotein, and bilateral uterine artery Doppler notching. Sensitivity of higher than 60% was achieved only by uterine artery Doppler resistance index and combinations of indices. Kallikreinuria (sensitivity >80% and specificity >90%) and cellular and total fibronectin (specificity >90%) seem worthy of further investigation. No single test, however, met the clinical standards for a predictive test-a conclusion also drawn by authors of another systematic review.64

Because any single biomarker is unlikely to be effective in prediction of the onset of a disorder as heterogeneous as pre-eclampsia, researchers⁶⁵ have suggested that combinations of tests such as ultrasound assessment of uterine artery Doppler waveforms, placental thickness and homogeneity, and serum markers raise the effectiveness of history and physical-based screening. Logistic regression analysis combining information on uterine artery pulsatility index, mean arterial pressure, serum pregnancy-associated plasma protein-A, serumfree placental growth factor, body-mass index, and presence of nulliparity or previous pre-eclampsia showed promising high sensitivity and specificity in prediction of early pre-eclampsia.66 Similarly, ratios of antiangiogenic and proangiogenic factors (eg, ratio of sFlt-1 to placental growth factor) 67,68 might have better discriminatory power than do other methods.⁶⁹ However, whether or not these tests will also be useful across the range of placenta-related complications remains unknown.

Clinical presentation

Maternal organ systems that are susceptible to excessive inflammation and endothelial damage are the CNS, lungs, liver, kidneys, systemic vasculature, coagulation, and the heart—the placenta and fetus are also at risk. The more organ systems that are affected, the more maternal and perinatal complications arise. Clinicians should take caution not to undervalue clinical signs and symptoms in (severe) pre-eclampsia (table 1) because they can be nonspecific (eg, nausea and vomiting). Caregivers should always remember that pre-eclampsia can potentially fulminate, and therefore they should not be given a false sense of security because mild disease has been designated. Some risks pertain to development of the HELLP syndrome of microangiopathic haemolysis and platelet consumption, and hepatocellular damage from periportal or focal parenchymal necrosis. Patients frequently (40-90%) have epigastric or right upper quadrant pain.70 These clinical symptoms, along with headache, visual changes, and nausea or vomiting seem to be more predictive than are laboratory parameters for adverse maternal outcomes.71

HELLP syndrome complicates 10-20% of cases of severe pre-eclampsia, and develops mostly preterm (50%). In 20% of women, however, it presents in late gestation, or in 30% post partum.72 HELLP without hypertension or proteinuria is reported in 10-20% of cases. Direct complications of HELLP syndrome are abruptio placentae (9-20%), disseminated intravascular coagulation (5-56%) and acute renal failure (7-36%). Less frequent complications are eclampsia (4-9%), pulmonary oedema (3-10%), and subcapsular liver haematoma (less than 2%).72 Estimates of complication rates can be quite high because they are derived mainly from tertiary care centres. Overall, significant maternal morbidity is encountered in about 15% of women with severe pre-eclampsia,73 including retinal detachment and cerebrovascular bleeding, and complications related to HELLP syndrome, but with lowered frequencies. The brain is at risk because of impaired cerebral

Panel 1: Differential diagnoses in severe pre-eclampsia by organ system

Vasculature

- · Phaeochromocytoma
- Hyperaldosteronism
- Cushing's disease
- Thyrotoxicosis
- Aorta coarctation

Renal system

- · Lupus nephritis
- Acute and chronic glomerulonephritis
- Interstitial nephritis
- Pyelonephritis

Liver

- · Acute fatty liver of pregnancy
- · Pregnancy cholestasis
- Hyperemesis gravidarum
- Cholecystitis
- Cholangitis
- Viral hepatitis
- Acute pancreatitis
- Gastritis
- Gastric ulcer

Haemostasis

- Benign thrombocytopenia of pregnancy
- Thrombotic thrombocytopenic purpura
- Haemolytic uraemic syndrome
- Idiopathic thrombocytopenic purpura
- Antiphospholipid syndrome
- Folate deficiency
- Systemic lupus erythematosus
- Septic or haemorrhagic shock

Respiratory system

- · Pneumonia
- Pulmonary embolus
- (Catastrophic) antiphospholipid syndrome

(Continues in next column)

autoregulation due to endothelial damage together with decreased sympathetic innervation in the posterior cerebral circulation, and a lessened ability for neurogenic response to increase blood pressure. Cortical blindness and some cases of eclampsia could evolve from the acute cerebral illness, posterior reversible leukoencephalopathy syndrome (PRES).⁷⁴

Eclampsia, complicating 1–2% of severe preeclampsia,75 is defined as the occurrence of tonic-clonic seizures in a pregnant or recently delivered woman that cannot be attributed to other causes. Although difficult to predict, in 79% of cases promonitory signs and symptoms are present during the week before the first eclamptic seizure: headache (56%), visual disturbances (23%), epigastric pain (17%), hypertension (48%), (Continued from previous column)

Cardiovascular system

- · Peripartum cardiomyopathy
- Myocardial infarction or ischaemia

Rrain

- Cerebral systemic lupus erythematosus
- · Epilepsy
- · Brain tumour
- · Cerebrovascular accident
- Hypertensive encephalopathy
- Metabolic disease

Eyes

- Retinal arterial or venous thrombosis
- Retinal ischaemia
- · Retinal detachment
- Persistent spasm of retinal vessels
- Central serous retinopathy
- Uveal melanoma
- Choroidal osteoma

proteinuria (46%), and concurrent hypertension and proteinuria (38%). Hypertension and proteinuria can last for several weeks post partum. Pre-eclampsia can also deteriorate or present de novo after delivery, occasionally evolving into severe forms that are similar to eclampsia. Women with symptoms and signs of pre-eclampsia might have other maternal diseases, and therefore differential diagnoses should be considered and excluded (panel 1). Perinatal concerns in women with pre-eclampsia relate to risks of placental abruption (0–6%), intrauterine growth restriction (5–18%), and perinatal mortality (0–9%), dependent on severity and gestational onset of disease.

Management

For women with pre-eclampsia, dependent on severity, review at day assessment units or admission to hospital is indicated according to local guidelines.⁵⁶ Table 3 and panel 2 show our suggested management paradigms according to gestational age at presentation. Although we recognise that there is no universally accepted standard of care, which is dependent on local facilities, we believe that risk reduction for women with pre-eclampsia needs a series of strategiesnamely standardised assessment and surveillance, avoidance and management of severe systolic and diastolic hypertension, prevention and treatment of seizures of eclampsia, and avoidance of use of aggressive rehydration in women admitted with severe pre-eclampsia. Although debate exists about routine use of some individual tests, standardised assessment and surveillance of all vulnerable organ systems in women with pre-eclampsia has been associated with reduced adverse maternal outcomes, 86 and proposals for blood tests have been developed.⁵⁶ Tests for uric acid is one of the controversial tests that has been

20 weeks (+0 days)—fetal viability*	Fetal viability*—29 weeks (+6 days)	30 weeks (+0 days) to 33 weeks (+6 days)	34 weeks (+0 days) to 36 weeks (+6 days)	37 weeks (+0 days) or more
18–50% survival; 2–45% intact survival	60-95% survival; 15-90% intact survival‡	98% survival; 88–96% intact survival‡	>99% survival; 96% intact survival‡	>99% survival; >96% intact survival‡
Substantial	Substantial	Substantial	Moderate	Minimum
Optional; centre should be competent with midtrimester termination of pregnancy or expectant management	Yes, if mother stable for transfer	Ideally, but perinatal outcomes might be unchanged if transfer post partum	Optional, but centre should be competent with expectant management if considered as management option	Optional; in case of severe disease
No; although in very few patients at 22–23 weeks' gestation clinician might attempt sufficient pregnancy prolongation to attain perinatal survival	Optional; could be considered in view of possible perinatal gains	Optional; could be considered in view of possible perinatal gains	Optional; could be considered, but in severe disease balance towards delivery	No
Optional; dependent on gestational age	Yes	Yes	No	No
Vaginal (misoprostol induction of labour)85	Probable caesarean section, unless intrauterine fetal death	Vaginal, depending on fetal and cervical status	Vaginal, depending on fetal and cervical status	Vaginal, depending on fetal and cervical status
	viability* 18–50% survival; 2–45% intact survival Substantial Optional; centre should be competent with midtrimester termination of pregnancy or expectant management No; although in very few patients at 22–23 weeks' gestation clinician might attempt sufficient pregnancy prolongation to attain perinatal survival Optional; dependent on gestational age Vaginal (misoprostol	viability* (+6 days) 18–50% survival; 2–45% 60–95% survival; intact survival Substantial Substantial Optional; centre should be competent with midtrimester termination of pregnancy or expectant management No; although in very few patients at 22–23 weeks' gestation clinician might attempt sufficient pregnancy prolongation to attain perinatal survival Optional; dependent on gestational age Vaginal (misoprostol Probable caesarean section,	viability* (+6 days) 33 weeks (+6 days) 18–50% survival; 2–45% intact survival 60–95% survival; 98% survival; 88–96% intact survival‡ 5ubstantial Substantial Substantial Optional; centre should be competent with midtrimester termination of pregnancy or expectant management Yes, if mother stable for transfer Ideally, but perinatal outcomes might be unchanged if transfer post partum No; although in very few patients at 22–23 weeks' gestation clinician might attempt sufficient pregnancy prolongation to attain perinatal survival Optional; could be considered in view of possible perinatal gains Optional; could be considered in view of possible perinatal gains Optional; dependent on gestational age Yes Yes Vaginal (misoprostol Probable caesarean section, Vaginal, depending on fetal	viability* (+6 days) 33 weeks (+6 days) 36 weeks (+6 days) 18–50% survival; 2–45% intact survival 60–95% survival; 98% survival; 88–96% intact survival‡ >99% survival; 96% intact survival‡ Substantial Substantial Moderate Optional; centre should be competent with midtrimester termination of pregnancy or expectant management Yes, if mother stable for unchanged if transfer outcomes might be unchanged if transfer post partum Optional, but centre should be competent with expectant management if considered in view of possible perinatal gains Optional; could be considered in view of possible perinatal gains Optional; could be considered, but in severe disease balance towards delivery No gestational gee Yes Yes Yes No Vaginal (misoprostol Probable caesarean section, Vaginal, depending on fetal Vaginal, depending on fetal

suggested. Although researchers have suggested that uric acid is as important as proteinuria for identification of fetal risk in women with gestational hypertension,⁹³ it is a poor predictor of maternal and fetal complications in women with pre-eclampsia.⁹⁴ In a review,⁶² researchers concluded that the amount of proteinuria is not a good marker of severity of pre-eclampsia, and that this measure should not guide management.

For women who are remote from term (<34 weeks' gestation), there is both randomised controlled trial and cohort-based evidence81 that expectant management (compared with stabilisation and delivery, which is the sole cure for pre-eclampsia) confers some perinatal benefit with a minimum amount of additional maternal risk. However, insufficient data are available for straightforward recommendations for either expectant or interventionist care,82 and policies could differ for women cared for in low-resource settings. For women who present before 24 weeks' gestation, expectant management is unlikely to offer any perinatal advantages, although maternal risks accumulate.81,83 Women at term with pre-eclampsia (and non-proteinuric gestational hypertension) are best managed by a policy of induction of labour.95 In the case of women with HELLP syndrome at or near term, expedited delivery should be standard management. Remote from term, clinicians could consider expectant management in some cases with vigilant expectancy, but no evidence exists to advise for which women such policy can be applied without substantial maternal risks. 81,82 Such practices should only be attempted in institutions with much experience in management of pre-eclampsia. Failure to exhibit due clinical care in combination with a policy of expectant management can prove lethal. 6 Corticosteroids have not been shown to benefit primary maternal and perinatal outcomes in women with HELLP. 72.97.98

The present Cochrane review99 does not support the choice of any one antihypertensive agent over another for management of severe pregnancy hypertension, concluding that the choice should depend on the clinician's experience with a specific drug. It does, however, advise against use of diazoxide because, although more effective for reduction of blood pressure than is hydralazine, 100 diazoxide might result in increased rates of maternal hypotension. Ketanserin seems to be less effective than is hydralazine. Neither magnesium sulphate (MgSO₄) nor nimodipine are recommended as antihypertensive agents.99 In another systematic review,89 nifedipine (within the class of calcium-channel blockers) seemed to be more effective in bringing blood pressure within the target range, with less hypotension, than was hydralazine. By comparison, labetalol was less effective but was associated with fewer adverse maternal and perinatal events than was hydralazine.89 Nifedipine capsules (5 mg or 10 mg) are no longer available in all markets, and should not be used in women with known coronary artery disease, those who have had diabetes mellitus for more than 15 years, or those who are older than 45 years because of the risks of sudden cardiac death.¹⁰¹ Clinicians who

Panel 2: Suggested antepartum management options for women with pre-eclampsia at any stage of diagnosis*

Optional assessment and surveillance^{56,86}

On admission, on day of delivery, and additional testing as indicated by changes in clinical state.

Maternal

Blood: haemoglobin, platelet count, creatinine, uric acid, AST or ALT, further testing if indicated

Feta

CTG, ultrasound, AFI, umbilical artery Doppler

MgSO₄

Regimen: ${\rm MgSO_4}\,4\,g$ IV loading dose over 15–20 min, followed by an infusion of 1 g/h; recurrent seizure(s) treated with additional 2–4 g IV loading dose(s); clinical monitoring by measurement of urinary output, respiratory rate, and tendon reflexes.

Eclampsia prophylaxis87

Yes; for severe pre-eclampsia during initial stabilisation and peripartum (delivery +24 h)

Eclampsia treatment88

Υρο

Antihypertensive therapy (other doses possible)89,90

Severe hypertension (systolic BP ≥160 mm Hg or diastolic BP ≥110 mm Hg)

- Nifedipine capsule (5 mg orally for first dose, 10 mg orally subsequently) every 30 min; nifedipine intermediate acting (10 mg orally) every 45 min; labetalol (100 mg orally) every 45 min, maximum 1200 mg/day; labetalol (20 mg IV first dose, repeat 20–80 mg IV every 30 min, or 1–2 mg/min, maximum 300 mg); hydralazine (5–10 mg IV) every 30 min, maximum 20 mg
- Nifedipine capsules are safe to use contemporaneously with MgSO₄; nifedipine capsules should not be used in women with known coronary artery disease, aortic stenosis, or longstanding diabetes (eg, >15 years); after two consecutive doses of acute therapy (ie, nifedipine, labetalol, hydralazine), start or increase maintenance therapy with agents listed below

(Continues in next column)

choose the alternative of intermediate-acting nifedipine tablets should recognise the slow onset of action so that women are not over-treated because of an expectation of a rapid blood pressure response. Nifedipine and MgSO₄ can be used together effectively and safely. Antihypertensives for use in women with non-severe hypertension, although generally not related to improved pregnancy outcome except for less severe hypertension, are also shown in panel 2.

Prevention and management of eclampsia seizures is based on giving MgSO₄.^{87,88} Women with severe pre-eclampsia should be considered for MgSO₄ prophylaxis.¹⁰⁴ Findings from randomised controlled trials^{87,88} support a regimen of MgSO₄ given as a 4 g intravenous loading dose

(Continued from previous column)

Non-severe hypertension (systolic BP <160 mm Hg and diastolic BP 90–109 mm Hq)

- Labetalol (100–400 mg orally 2–4 times daily, maximum 1200 mg/day); intermediate-acting nifedipine (10–20 mg orally 2–3 times daily, maximum 120 mg/day); nifedipine sustained release preparation (20–60 mg orally daily, maximum 120 mg/day); methyldopa (250–500 mg orally 2–4 times daily, maximum 2 g/day); other β blockers (other than atenolol)
- In the absence of renal disease, pre-pregnancy diabetes, or other indications for strict maintenance of strict normotension, whether BP targets should be high normotension (eg, diastolic BP 85 mm Hg) or non-severe hypertension (eg, diastolic BP 105 mm Hg) is unknown; ACE inhibitors, ARBs, atenolol, and prazosin should be avoided

Plasma volume expansion11,91

No; because of risks of maternal mortality associated with pulmonary oedema, in women with severe pre-eclampsia infusion of sodium-containing fluids might need to be restricted and balanced against urine output over 4 h or more and creatinine concentrations

Thromboprophylaxis92

Yes; if on bed rest for 4 days or more

*Please refer to local practice guidelines. AST=aspartate transaminase. ALT=alanine transaminase. CTG=cardiotrocography. AFI=amniotic fluid index. IV=intravenous. BP=blood pressure. ACE=angiotensin converting enzyme. ARB=angiotensin II receptor blocker.

during a 15–20 min period, followed by an infusion of 1 g/h, with a first or recurrent seizure treated with another 2–4 g intravenous loading dose. This regimen does not need testing of blood concentrations of MgSO₄ because clinical effect can be monitored with deep tendon reflexes. Additionally, it adds a wider therapeutic index between effect and toxicity risk than does the historical 2 g/h regimen. Despite a reduced intravascular volume in preeclampsia, plasma volume expansion has not proven to provide any benefit.⁹¹

Timing of delivery should be designed to keep perinatal outcomes at an optimum while obviating maternal risks. In pre-eclampsia, this timing should be based on criteria of fetal wellbeing and gains to be made in terms of perinatal outcomes by achievement of additional intrauterine time. Fetal wellbeing is assessed by ultrasound (biometry, umbilical artery Doppler, ductus venosus Doppler, and amniotic fluid) and cardiotocography (preferably computerised). Antenatal corticosteroids for fetal lung maturation should be given to all women at risk of delivery at less than 34 weeks of gestation. Previable fetuses can be delivered with misoprostol induction. In early-onset pre-eclampsia and often concurrent intrauterine growth restriction and placental pathology, the fetus is unlikely to tolerate

labour. However, the closer the pregnancy gets to term, the more reasonable an attempt at induction of labour is for women with pre-eclampsia who require timely, but not emergency, delivery.

When women have severe disease, issues of peripartum management of thrombocytopenia and HELLP syndrome arise. 11,72 Although routine prophylactic platelet transfusions are not recommended, ordering blood products, including platelets, should be considered when platelet counts are fewer than 50×109 platelets per L, falling rapidly, or when coagulopathy is present. Platelet transfusion is always indicated before, during, or after either caesarean section or vaginal delivery when platelet counts are fewer than 20×109/L or in case of significant bleeding (eg, ecchymosis, bleeding from gums or wound).70 Preanaesthetic assessment of a woman with pre-eclampsia is essential, including an airway examination and assessment of coagulation status (such as platelet count). There is no role for tests of platelet function. 9,11,106 Use of regional analgesia or anaesthesia, or both, is not contraindicated in women when platelet counts are higher than 75×109/L in the absence of a coagulopathy, falling platelet count, or concomitant use of either an antiplatelet agent (eg, aspirin) or anticoagulant (eg, heparin).

Regional anaesthesia (epidural, spinal, or combined spinal-epidural) is appropriate for women taking lowdose aspirin (without either coagulopathy or platelets <75×109/L), and those given low-molecular-weight heparin at least 12 h after a prophylactic dose or 24 h after a therapeutic dose. 107 Early insertion of a spinal or epidural catheter for obstetric or anaesthetic indications should be considered (in the absence of contraindications) to reduce the need for general anaesthesia in case of caesarean section. A difficult airway due to pharyngolaryngeal oedema should always be anticipated. Intubation could increase risk of severe hypertension (and subsequent cerebral events) and aspiration. Measures should be taken to avoid a speed that compromises maternal safety, even in the presence of acute fetal compromise. Central venous access or pulmonary artery catheterisation should only be used for specific disorders (ie, pulmonary oedema and cardiac disease) in a high dependency setting. Ergot alkaloids should be omitted for active management of the third stage of labour if the mother is hypertensive. 16

Preconception care and future health

Women at high risk for pre-eclampsia, including those with a history of the disease or other complications in their obstetric history, should be offered preconception care by obstetricians with experience in management of the disorder. If present, severity of chronic hypertension, diabetes, connective tissue, or renal disease should be assessed and pharmacological treatment adjusted for safety in pregnancy. Risks of occurrence and recurrence (10% for previous mild disease and up to 40% for severe disease) and perinatal mortality and morbidity should be explained and a management plan, available for all associated

caretakers, should be drawn up. Obesity and an increase in body-mass index between pregnancies¹⁰⁸ increases risk of (recurrent) pre-eclampsia,¹⁰⁹ and partly neutralises the protective effect of smoking.⁵² Although preconception weight loss has not yet been properly investigated, studies after bariatric surgery suggest positive effects.¹¹⁰ Other risk factors (table 2), should also be discussed.

Nutritional preventive measures should not be advised for management of the occurrence or recurrence of preeclampsia in women at high risk or the general population. Neither diets low in energy or salt, nor supplementation with either antioxidants vitamins C or E, fish oil, garlic, zinc, selenium, folic acid, or magnesium are effective. 63,111,112 An evidence-based review 113 showed no relation between calcium supplementation and risk reduction of pre-eclampsia, although supplementation might have some effects in high-risk populations that are calcium-deficient. Low-dose aspirin prophylaxis has long been of interest because it is thought to correct an imbalance in the ratio of thromboxane A₂ to prostacyclin that is associated with increased vasoreactivity. Findings from a meta-analysis¹¹⁴ of individual patients' data from 31 randomised trials showed that asprin was associated with a 10% reduction in pre-eclampsia and prematurity (less than 34 weeks' gestation), and that aspirin seemed to be safe. The number needed to treat to obtain these results was, however, very large. Low-dose aspirin should be offered on an individual basis and decisions made on the basis of the woman's risk profile from their obstetric and medical history. Neither progesterone or diuretics antihypertensives in women with chronic hypertension reduce risk of pre-eclampsia.111 The damaging effects of smoking on general health and perinatal outcomes especially¹¹⁵ outweigh its incidencelowering effects on pre-eclampsia.52

Inherited or acquired thrombophilias are a heterogeneous group of coagulation disorders that predispose women to an extra risk of thromboembolic events during pregnancy and puerperium.¹¹⁶ Although pre-eclampsia is related to reduced uteroplacental blood flow, its direct correlation with thrombophilia remains controversial. Placental thrombotic and inflammatory lesions associated with early-onset pre-eclampsia or fetal growth restriction do not arise more often in women with thrombophilia or hyperhomocysteinaemia than in those without these disorders. 117 Meta-analyses 118 often showed positive, though mostly weak, associations of thrombophilia with preeclampsia, although there were instances of heterogeneity between studies. Results from three large, prospectively designed studies119-121 showed no associations with any of the inherited thrombophilias for mild or severe preeclampsia. In small studies, 122,123 investigation of recurrence rates of pre-eclampsia in women with thrombophilias conflicting results. Associations showed hyperhomocysteinaemia are often biased by delivery to test-time interval and maternal age.124 There are no completed trials to establish the effects of heparin on pregnancy outcomes for women with a thrombophilia.¹²⁵ Therefore, in view of WHO criteria by Wilson and Jungner,¹²⁶ routine screening of women who had pre-eclampsia and treatment when they were positive for thrombophilia does not yet seems justified, unless the intent is to randomly assign women in definitive randomised controlled trials. Thrombophilia testing, however, should be recommended for those with a personal or family history of thrombosis.¹²⁷

Pre-eclampsia, especially of early onset, can be followed by symptoms of maternal post-traumatic stress. 128,129 Timely recognition of those women at risk and referral reduces the duration of treatment necessary. 129 Women with pre-eclampsia are at increased risk for future cardiovascular disease. Pooled relative risks for hypertension, fatal and non-fatal ischaemic heart disease, and fatal and non-fatal stroke are 3.70 (95% CI 2.70-5.05), 2.26 (1.86-2.52), and 1.81 (1.45-2.27), respectively, 10-14 years after the index pregnancy. 130 Early-onset disease and other additional concurrent placental pathology confer cumulative risk.131 Increased pre-pregnancy serum concentrations of triglycerides, cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, non-HDL cholesterol, and blood pressure are positively associated with risk of subsequent pre-eclampsia and could explain, together with abdominal obesity, the link with future cardiovascular disease. 132,133 Identification of such young women possibly offers opportunities for strategies to decrease remote cardiovascular risk.130 As the absolute risk for disease within 12 years is low (less than 0.5-1.5% dependent on pre-eclampsia severity) 130 a first focus might be on lifestyle modifications, including smoking cessation, weight reduction, healthy diet, and exercise,134 in individualised intervention programmes, including use of the internet. Because the risk of developing chronic hypertension could be higher than 20%,130 blood pressure should be checked regularly. Other individual cardiovascular risk factors should be treated as indicated, but there seems to be no place for further screening or preventive drug interventions until further evidence is available. Preeclampsia has been suggested to predispose to reduced thyroid function in later years.135

Perspectives

Although genetic contributions to the risk of preeclampsia are recognised by familial clustering of this
disorder, underlying mechanisms remain uncertain.
Maternal constitutional and environmental risk factors
for pre-eclampsia could be implicated by interference
with the epigenetic programming of the gametes,
placenta, and fetus.

Derangements in genomic
imprinting in placental tissue, resulting in disturbed
paternal versus maternal gene expression, have
additionally been suggested to contribute to preeclampsia.

Therefore, high priority will be given in
the near future to elucidation of gene-gene and geneenvironment interactions and underlying epigenetic

mechanisms¹³⁹ that are associated with the programming of trophoblast cells and how they relate to placental causes and systemic linkages of different phenotypes of pre-eclampsia. Such phenotypes include that for HELLP syndrome and other placental complications such as isolated intrauterine growth restriction. These insights could direct future specific preconception and early pregnancy preventive measures to favourably affect placentation in women at high risk. Such measures might also be targeted at decreasing excessive inflammatory and oxidative stress (eg, by statins or metformin) or improvement of endothelial health.

A lowered incidence of hypertensive disease in pregnancy was suggested after periconception low-dose aspirin treatment. 140 Trophoblast complement inhibitory therapy with heparin might seem beneficial in some subgroups of patients.141 However, to be able to keep spiral artery remodelling at an optimum with prophylactic treatment, a need for more comparative research to understand the placental bed remains. Additionally, pharmacological approaches to counteract the antiangiogenic state in the second stage of the disease could be promising. Epigenetic modification of fetal vascular tissue during a pregnancy that is complicated by preeclampsia might also relate to future reproductive status and cardiovascular health. 137,142 Men and women exposed to pre-eclampsia as a fetus,143 and women born small for gestational age,144 have an increased risk of having (or fathering) a future pregnancy that is complicated by preeclampsia. These children also have a heightened risk of high blood pressure, features of metabolic syndrome, and cardiovascular diseases at relative early age. 145,146

In preconception care, development of simple rules for prediction of recurrent early-onset hypertensive disease in pregnancy is important.¹⁴⁷ During pregnancy, proteomics-based identification of clinically useful predictive biomarkers might become feasible. 148,149 Furthermore, development and validation of disease severity criteria that objectively identify women at incremental risk of adverse outcomes need to be developed. Randomised controlled trials are much needed to establish recommendations for management of early-onset severe pre-eclampsia. In the UK, substandard care contributes to 72% of maternal deaths that are related to hypertensive disease in pregnancy,16 and to 96% of those in the Netherlands.96 In the Dutch enquiry, 96 no instructions about danger signs to women had been documented in 80% of cases. Therefore, patient education is of major importance. The need for drills and simulations for obstetric emergencies such as severe hypertension and eclampsia, and for audits of preeclampsia-related maternal mortality and severe morbidity should be further advocated.

Contributors

EAS designed the structure of the review and coordinated writing of the Seminar. All authors contributed to the literature search, writing of the Seminar, and addressing of reviewers' comments.

Conflicts of interest

We declare that we have no conflicts of interest.

Acknowledgments

No funding was used for the preparation or submission of this report. We thank the PhD fellows Durk Berks, Meeke Hoedjes, Nienke Bergen, and Evelyne van Uitert for assisting in the literature search; Jolanda Claessens for her secretarial support; and Frits Wilbrink for his contribution to the graphics of the figure. Peter von Dadelszen receives funding support from WHO, the Canadian Institutes of Health Research, the Michael Smith Foundation for Health Research, and the Child and Family Research Institute.

References

- Khan KS, Wojdyla D, Say L, Gulmezoglu AM, Van Look PFA. WHO analysis of causes of maternal death: a systematic review. Lancet 2006; 367: 1066–74.
- 2 Duley L. The global impact of pre-eclampsia and eclampsia. Semin Perinatol 2009; 33: 130–37.
- 3 Berg CJ, Mackay AP, Qin C, Callaghan WM. Overview of maternal morbidity during hospitalization for labor and delivery in the United States: 1993–1997 and 2001–2005. Obstet Gynecol 2009; 113: 1075–81.
- Wallis AB, Saftlas AF, Hsia J, Atrash HK. Secular trends in the rates of preeclampsia, eclampsia, and gestational hypertension, United States, 1987–2004. Am J Hypertens 2008; 21: 521–26.
- 5 Caughey AB, Stotland NE, Washington AE, Escobar GJ. Maternal ethnicity, paternal ethnicity, and parental ethnic discordance: predictors of preeclampsia. Obstet Gynecol 2005; 106: 156–61.
- Rao AK, Cheng YW, Caughey AB. Perinatal complications among different Asian-American subgroups. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2006; 194: e39–41.
- 7 Silva LM, Coolman M, Steegers EA, et al. Low socioeconomic status is a risk factor for preeclampsia: the Generation R Study. J Hypertens 2008; 26: 1200–08.
- 8 Milne F, Redman C, Walker J, et al. The pre-eclampsia community guideline (PRECOG): how to screen for and detect onset of preeclampsia in the community. BMJ 2005; 330: 576–80.
- 9 Tuffnell DJ, Shennan AH, Waugh JJS, Walker JJ. The management of severe pre-eclampsia/eclampsia, guideline number 10(A). London: Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, 2006.
- 10 Lowe SA, Brown MA, Dekker GA, et al, for the Society of Obstetric Medicine of Australia and New Z. Guidelines for the management of hypertensive disorders of pregnancy 2008. Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol 2009; 49: 242–46.
- Magee LA, Helewa ME, Moutquin JM, et al. SOGC guidelines; diagnosis, evaluation and management of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy. *J Obstet Gynaecol Can* 2008; 30 (suppl): 1–48.
- 12 Lindheimer MD, Taler SJ, Cunningham FG. ASH position article: hypertension in pregnancy. J Am Soc Hypertens 2008; 2: 484–89.
- ACOG Committee on Obstetric Practice. ACOG practice bulletin. Diagnosis and management of preeclampsia and eclampsia. Number 33, January 2002. American College of Obstetricians and Gynecologists. Int J Gynaecol Obstet 2002; 77: 67–75.
- Brown MA, Lindheimer MD, de Swiet M, Van Assche A, Moutquin JM. The classification and diagnosis of the hypertensive disorders of pregnancy: statement from the International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy (ISSHP). Hypertens Pregnancy 2001; 20: IX–XIV.
- 15 MacKay AP, Berg CJ, Atrash HK. Pregnancy-related mortality from preeclampsia and eclampsia. Obstet Gynecol 2001; 97: 533–38.
- National Institute for Clinical Excellence, Scottish Executive Health Department, Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety, Northern Ireland. Saving mothers's lives; 2003–2005. The seventh report of the confidential enquiries into maternal deaths in the United Kingdom. London: CEMACH, 2007.
- Martin JN Jr, Thigpen BD, Moore RC, Rose CH, Cushman J, May W. Stroke and severe preeclampsia and eclampsia: a paradigm shift focusing on systolic blood pressure. *Obstet Gynecol* 2005; 105: 246-54
- 18 Karumanchi SA, Stillman IE, Lindheimer MD. Angiogenesis and preeclampsia. In: Lindheimer MD, Roberts JM, Cunningham FG, eds. Chesley's hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. Amsterdam: Academic Press, Elsevier, 2009: 87–103.

- 19 Brosens I, Robertson WB, Dixon HG. The role of spiral arteries in the pathogenesis of preeclampsia. In: Obstetrics and Gynecology Annual, ed Wynn RM. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1972: 177–91.
- 20 Pijnenborg R, Vercruysse L, Hanssens M. The uterine spiral arteries in human pregnancy: facts and controversies. *Placenta* 2006; 27: 939–58.
- 21 Pandian Z, Bhattacharya S, Templeton A. Review of unexplained infertility and obstetric outcome: a 10 year review. *Hum Reprod* 2001; 16: 2593–97.
- 22 Trogstad L, Magnus P, Moffett A, Stoltenberg C. The effect of recurrent miscarriage and infertility on the risk of pre-eclampsia. BJOG 2009; 116: 108–13.
- 23 Ng EH, Chan CC, Tang OS, Yeung WS, Ho PC. The role of endometrial and subendometrial vascularity measured by three-dimensional power Doppler ultrasound in the prediction of pregnancy during frozen-thawed embryo transfer cycles. Hum Reprod 2006; 21: 1612–17.
- 24 Hanna J, Goldman-Wohl D, Hamani Y, et al. Decidual NK cells regulate key developmental processes at the human fetal-maternal interface. Nat Med 2006; 12: 1065–74.
- 25 Goldman-Wohl DS, Ariel I, Greenfield C, et al. Lack of human leukocyte antigen-G expression in extravillous trophoblasts is associated with pre-eclampsia. Mol Hum Reprod 2000; 6: 88–95.
- 26 Le Bouteiller P, Pizzato N, Barakonyi A, Solier C. HLA-G, preeclampsia, immunity and vascular events. *J Reprod Immunol* 2003; 59: 219–34.
- 27 Moffett A, Hiby SE. How Does the maternal immune system contribute to the development of pre-eclampsia? *Placenta* 2007; 28 (suppl A): 51–56.
- 28 Burton GJ, Jauniaux E, Watson AL. Maternal arterial connections to the placental intervillous space during the first trimester of human pregnancy: the Boyd collection revisited. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1999; 181: 718–24.
- Burton GJ, Jauniaux E. Placental oxidative stress: from miscarriage to preeclampsia. J Soc Gynecol Investig 2004; 11: 342–52.
- 30 Jauniaux E, Watson AL, Hempstock J, Bao YP, Skepper JN, Burton GJ. Onset of maternal arterial blood flow and placental oxidative stress. A possible factor in human early pregnancy failure. Am J Pathol 2000; 157: 2111–22.
- 31 Pijnenborg R, Brosens I. Deep trophoblast invasion and spiral artery remodelling. In: Pijnenborg R, Brosens I, Romero R, eds. Placental bed disorders: basic science and its translation to obstetrics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press 2010: 97–107.
- 32 Plasencia W, Maiz N, Bonino S, Kaihura C, Nicolaides KH. Uterine artery Doppler at 11 + 0 to 13 + 6 weeks in the prediction of pre-eclampsia. *Ultrasound Obstet Gynecol* 2007; 30: 742–49.
- 33 Burton GJ. Oxygen, the Janus gas; its effects on human placental development and function. J Anat 2009; 215: 27–35.
- Burton GJ, Yung HW, Cindrova-Davies T, Charnock-Jones DS. Placental endoplasmic reticulum stress and oxidative stress in the pathophysiology of unexplained intrauterine growth restriction and early onset preeclampsia. *Placenta* 2009; 30 (suppl A): 43–48.
- 35 Redman CW. Current topic: pre-eclampsia and the placenta. Placenta 1991; 12: 301–08.
- 36 Jauniaux E, Poston L, Burton GJ. Placental-related diseases of pregnancy: Involvement of oxidative stress and implications in human evolution. Hum Reprod Update 2006; 12: 747–55.
- 37 Brosens JJ, Parker MG, McIndoe A, Pijnenborg R, Brosens IA. A role for menstruation in preconditioning the uterus for successful pregnancy. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2009; 200: 615.
- 38 Haig D. Altercation of generations: genetic conflicts of pregnancy. Am J Reprod Immunol 1996; 35: 226–32.
- 39 Redman CW, Sacks GP, Sargent IL. Preeclampsia: an excessive maternal inflammatory response to pregnancy. Am J Obstet Gynecol 1999; 180: 499–506.
- 40 Huppertz B. Placental origins of preeclampsia: challenging the current hypothesis. Hypertension 2008; 51: 970–75.
- 41 Redman CWG, Sargent IL, Roberts JM. Immunology of normal pregnancy and preeclampsia. In: Lindheimer MD, Roberts JM, Cunningham FG, eds. Chesley's hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. Amsterdam: Academic Press, Elsevier, 2009: 129–42.

- 42 Koga K, Osuga Y, Tajima T, et al. Elevated serum soluble fms-like tyrosine kinase 1 (sFlt1) level in women with hydatidiform mole. Fertil Steril 2009; published online March 6. DOI:10.1016/j. fertnstert.2009.02.015.
- 43 Kanter D, Lindheimer MD, Wang E, et al. Angiogenic dysfuction in molar pregnancy. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2010; 202: 184. e1–5
- 44 Redman CW, Sargent IL. Placental stress and pre-eclampsia: a revised view. *Placenta* 2009; **30** (suppl A): 38–42.
- 45 Myers J, Mires G, Macleod M, Baker P. In preeclampsia, the circulating factors capable of altering in vitro endothelial function precede clinical disease. *Hypertension* 2005; 45: 258–63.
- 46 Irani RA, Xia Y. The functional role of the renin-angiotensin system in pregnancy and preeclampsia. Placenta 2008; 29: 763–71.
- 47 Buimer M, Keijser R, Jebbink JM, et al. Seven placental transcripts characterize HELLP-syndrome. *Placenta* 2008; 29: 444–53.
- 48 Wikstrom AK, Larsson A, Akerud H, Olovsson M. Increased circulating levels of the antiangiogenic factor endostatin in early-onset but not late-onset preeclampsia. *Reprod Sci* 2009; 16: 995–1000.
- 49 Roberts JM, Hubel CA. The two stage model of preeclampsia: variations on the theme. *Placenta* 2009; 30 (suppl A): 32–37.
- 50 Egbor M, Ansari T, Morris N, Green CJ, Sibbons PD. Morphometric placental villous and vascular abnormalities in early- and late-onset pre-eclampsia with and without fetal growth restriction. BJOG 2006; 113: 580–89.
- 51 Zusterzeel PL, Peters WH, Burton GJ, Visser W, Roelofs HM, Steegers EA. Susceptibility to pre-eclampsia is associated with multiple genetic polymorphisms in maternal biotransformation enzymes. *Gynecol Obstet Invest* 2007; 63: 209–13.
- 52 Stone CD, Diallo O, Shyken J, Leet T. The combined effect of maternal smoking and obesity on the risk of preeclampsia. *J Perinat Med* 2007; 35: 28–31.
- 53 Bainbridge SA, Sidle EH, Smith GN. Direct placental effects of cigarette smoke protect women from pre-eclampsia: the specific roles of carbon monoxide and antioxidant systems in the placenta. Med Hypotheses 2005; 64: 17–27.
- 54 Jeyabalan A, Powers RW, Durica AR, Harger GF, Roberts JM, Ness RB. Cigarette smoke exposure and angiogenic factors in pregnancy and preeclampsia. Am J Hypertens 2008; 21: 943–47.
- 55 Duckitt K, Harrington D. Risk factors for pre-eclampsia at antenatal booking: systematic review of controlled studies. BMJ 2005; 330: 565.
- 56 Milne F, Redman C, Walker J, et al. Assessing the onset of preeclampsia in the hospital day unit: summary of the pre-eclampsia guideline (PRECOG II). BMJ 2009; 339: 626–28.
- 57 Chung Y, de Greeff A, Shennan A. Validation and compliance of a home monitoring device in pregnancy: Microlife WatchBP Home. Hypertens Pregnancy 2009: 28: 348–59.
- 58 Chossen JS, Vollebregt KC, de Vrieze N, et al. Accuracy of mean arterial pressure and blood pressure measurements in predicting pre-eclampsia: systematic review and meta-analysis. BMJ 2008; 336: 1117–20.
- 59 Brown MA, Buddle ML. Inadequacy of dipstick proteinuria in hypertensive pregnancy. Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol 1995; 35: 366–69.
- 60 Cote AM, Firoz T, Mattman A, Lam EM, von Dadelszen P, Magee LA. The 24-hour urine collection: gold standard or historical practice? Am J Obstet Gynecol 2008; 199: 625.
- 61 Cote AM, Brown MA, Lam E, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of urinary spot protein:creatinine ratio for proteinuria in hypertensive pregnant women: systematic review. BMJ 2008; 336: 1003–06.
- 62 Lindheimer MD, Kanter D. Interpreting abnormal proteinuria in pregnancy. The need for a more pathophysiological approach. Obstet Gynecol 2010; 115: 365–75.
- 63 Meads CA, Cnossen JS, Meher S, et al. Methods of prediction and prevention of pre-eclampsia: systematic reviews of accuracy and effectiveness literature with economic modelling. Health Technol Assess 2008; 12: iii-iv, 1–270.
- 64 Conde-Agudelo A, Romero R, Lindheimer MD. Tests to predict preeclampsia. In: Lindheimer MD, Roberts JM, Cunningham FG, eds. Chesley's hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. Amsterdam: Academic Press, Elsevier, 2009: 189–211.
- 65 Toal M, Chan C, Fallah S, et al. Usefulness of a placental profile in high-risk pregnancies. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2007; 196: 363.
- 66 Poon LCY, Kametas NA, Maiz N, Akolekar R, Nicolaides KH. First-trimester prediction of hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. Hypertension 2009; 53: 812–18.

- 67 Verlohren S, Galindo A, Schlembach D, et al. An automated method for the determination of the sFlt-1 / PIGF ratio in the assessment of pre-eclampsia. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2010; 202: 161.e1–161.e11.
- 68 Sunderji S, Gaziano E, Wothe D, et al. Automated assays for sVEGF R1 and PIGF as an aid in the diagnosis of preterm preeclampsia: a porspective clinical study. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2010; 202: 40.e1–7.
- 69 Kusanovic JP, Romero R, Chaiworapongsa T, et al. A prospective cohort study of the value of maternal plasma concentrations of angiogenic and anti-angiogenic factors in early pregnancy and midtrimester in the identification of patients destined to develop pre-eclampsia. J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med 2009; 22: 1021–38.
- 70 Sibai BM. Diagnosis, controversies, and management of the syndrome of hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, and low platelet count. Obstet Gynecol 2004; 103: 981–91.
- 71 Cavkaytar S, Ugurlu EN, Karaer A, Tapisiz OL, Danisman N. Are clinical symptoms more predictive than laboratory parameters for adverse maternal outcome in HELLP syndrome? *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand* 2007; 86: 648–51.
- 72 Haram K, Svendsen E, Abildgaard U. The HELLP syndrome: clinical issues and management. A Review. *BMC Pregnancy Childbirth* 2009; **9**: 8.
- 73 Tuffnell DJ, Jankowicz D, Lindow SW, et al, for the Yorkshire Obstetric Critical Care G. Outcomes of severe pre-eclampsia/ eclampsia in Yorkshire 1999/2003. BJOG 2005; 112: 875–80.
- 74 Zeeman GG. Neurologic complications of pre-eclampsia. Semin Perinatol 2009; 33: 166–72.
- 75 Sibai BM. Preeclampsia as a cause of preterm and late preterm (near-term) births. Semin Perinatol 2006; 30: 16–19.
- 76 Knight M, Ukoss. Eclampsia in the United Kingdom 2005. BJOG 2007; 114: 1072–78.
- 77 Berks D, Steegers EAP, Molas M, Visser W. Resolution of hypertension and proteinuria after preeclampsia: a 2-year follow-up study. Obstet Gynecol 2009; 14: 1307–14.
- 78 Sibai BM, Stella CL. Diagnosis and management of atypical preeclampsia-eclampsia. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2009; 200: 481.
- 79 Sibai BM. Imitators of severe pre-eclampsia. Semin Perinatol 2009; 33: 196–205.
- 80 Sibai BM. Diagnosis and management of gestational hypertension and preeclampsia. *Obstet Gynecol* 2003; **102**: 181–92.
- 81 Magee LA, Yong PJ, Espinosa V, Cote AM, Chen I, von Dadelszen P. Expectant management of severe preeclampsia remote from term: a structured systematic review. Hypertens Pregnancy 2009: 28: 312–47.
- 82 Churchill D, Duley L. Interventionist versus expectant care for severe pre-eclampsia before term. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2002; 3: CD003106.
- 83 Gaugler-Senden IP, Huijssoon AG, Visser W, Steegers EA, de Groot CJ. Maternal and perinatal outcome of preeclampsia with an onset before 24 weeks' gestation. Audit in a tertiary referral center. Eur J Obstet Gynecol Reprod Biol 2006; 128: 216–21.
- 84 Brownfoot FC, Crowther CA, Middleton P. Different corticosteroids and regimens for accelerating fetal lung maturation for women at risk of preterm birth. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2008; 4: CD006764.
- 85 Allen R, O'Brien BM. Uses of misoprostol in obstetrics and gynecology. Rev Obstet Gynecol 2009; 2: 159–68.
- 86 Menzies J, Magee LA, Li J, et al, for the Preeclampsia Integrated Estimate of RiSk (PIERS) Study Group. Instituting surveillance guidelines and adverse outcomes in preeclampsia. Obstet Gynecol 2007: 110: 121–27.
- 87 The Eclampsia Trial Collaborative Group. Which anticonvulsant for women with eclampsia? Evidence from the Collaborative Eclampsia Trial. *Lancet* 1995; **345**: 1455–63.
- 88 The Magpie Trial Collaboration Group. Do women with preeclampsia, and their babies, benefit from magnesium sulphate? The Magpie Trial: a randomised placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet* 2002: 359: 1877–90.
- 89 Magee LA, Cham C, Waterman EJ, Ohlsson A, von Dadelszen P. Hydralazine for treatment of severe hypertension in pregnancy: meta-analysis. BMJ 2003; 327: 955–64.
- 90 Abalos E, Duley L, Steyn DW, Henderson-Smart DJ. Anihypertensive drug therapy for mild to moderate hypertension during pregnancy. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2007; 1: CD002252.

- 91 Ganzevoort W, Rep A, Bonsel GJ, et al. A randomised controlled trial comparing two temporising management strategies, one with and one without plasma volume expansion, for severe and early onset pre-eclampsia. BJOG 2005; 112: 1358–68.
- 92 Nelson-Piercy C. Thromboprophylaxis during pregnancy, labour and after vaginal delivery. Guideline number 37. London: Royal College of Obstetricians and Gynaecologists, 2004.
- 93 Roberts JM, Bodnar LM, Lain KY, et al. Uric acid is as important as proteinuria in identifying fetal risk in women with gestational hypertension. *Hypertension* 2005; 46: 1263–69.
- 94 Thangaratinam S, Ismail KMK, Sharp S, Coomarassamy A, Khan KS. Accuracy of serum acid in predicting complications of pre-eclampsia: a systematic review. BJOG 2006; 113: 369–78.
- 95 Koopmans CM, Bijlenga D, Groen H, et al. Induction of labour versus expectant monitoring for gestational hypertension or mild pre-eclampsia after 36 weeks' gestation (HYPITAT): a multicentre, open-label randomised controlled trial. *Lancet* 2009; 374: 979–88.
- 96 Schutte JM, Schuitemaker NW, van Roosmalen J, Steegers EA, Dutch Maternal Mortality C. Substandard care in maternal mortality due to hypertensive disease in pregnancy in the Netherlands. BJOG 2008; 115: 732–36.
- 97 Katz L, de Amorim MM, Figueiroa JN, Pinto e Silva JL. Postpartum dexamethasone for women with hemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, and low platekets (HELLP) syndrome: a doubleblind, placebo-controlled, randomized clinical trial. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2008; 198: 283.
- 98 Matchaba PT, Moodley J. Corticosteroids for HELLP syndrome in pregnancy. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2009; 3: CD002076.
- 99 Duley L, Henderson-Smart DJ, Meher S. Drugs for treatment of very high blood pressure during pregnancy Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2006; 3: CD001449.
- 100 Hennessy A, Thornton CE, Makris A, et al. A randomized comparison of hydralazine and mini-bolus diazoxide for hypertensive emergencies in pregnancy: the PIVOT trial. Aust N Z J Obstet Gynaecol 2007: 47: 279–85.
- 101 Grossman E, Messerli FH, Grodzicki T, Kowey P. Should a moratorium be placed on sublingual nifedipine capsules given for hypertensive emergencies and pseudoemergencies? *JAMA* 1996; 276: 1328–31
- 102 Magee LA, von Dadelszen P. The management of severe hypertension. *Semin Perinatol* 2009; 33: 138–42.
- 103 Magee LA, Miremadi S, Li J, et al. Therapy with both magnesium sulfate and nifedipine does not increase the risk of serious magnesium-related maternal side effects in women with preeclampsia. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2005; 193: 153–63.
- 104 Leveno KJ, Cunningham FG. Management. In: Lindheimer MD, Roberts JM, Cunningham FG, eds. Chesley's hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. Amsterdam: Academic Press, Elsevier, 2009: 389–414.
- 105 Freeman RK. Antepartum testing in patients with hypertensive disorders in pregnancy. Semin Perinatol 2008; 32: 271–73.
- 106 Turner JA. Severe preeclampsia: anesthetic implications of the disease and its management. Am J Ther 2009; 16: 284–88.
- 107 Horlocker TT, Wedel DJ, Benzon H, et al. Regional anesthesia in the anticoagulated patient: defining the risks (the second ASRA Consensus Conference on Neuraxial Anesthesia and Anticoagulation). Reg Anesth Pain Med 2003; 28: 172–97.
- 108 Getahun D, Ananth CV, Oyelese Y, Chavez MR, Kirby RS, Smulian JC. Primary preeclampsia in the second pregnancy: effects of changes in prepregnancy body mass index between pregnancies. Obstet Gynecol 2007; 110: 1319–25.
- 109 Mostello D, Kallogjeri D, Tungsiripat R, Leet T. Recurrence of preeclampsia: effects of gestational age at delivery of the first pregnancy, body mass index, paternity, and interval between births. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2008; 199: 55.
- 110 Maggard MA, Yermilov I, Li Z, et al. Pregnancy and fertility following bariatric surgery: a systematic review. JAMA 2008; 300: 2286–96.
- 111 Duley L, Meher S, Abalos E. Management of pre-eclampsia. BMJ 2006; 332: 463–8.
- 112 Barton JR, Sibai BM. Prediction and prevention of recurrent preeclampsia. *Obstet Gynecol* 2008; 112: 359–72.
- 113 Trumbo PR, Ellwood KC. Supplemental calcium and risk reduction of hypertension, pregnancy-induced hypertension, and preeclampsia: an evidence-based review by the US Food and Drug Administration. Nutr Rev 2007; 65: 78–87.

- 114 Askie LM, Duley L, Henderson-Smart DJ, Stewart LA, on behalf of the PARIS Collaborative Group. Antiplatelet agents for prevention of pre-eclampsia: a meta-analysis of individual patient data. *Lancet* 2007; 369: 1791–98.
- 115 Rogers JM. Tobacco and pregnancy. Reprod Toxicol 2009; 28: 152-60.
- 116 Pabinger I. Thrombophilia and its impact on pregnancy. Thromb Res 2009; 123 (suppl 3): 16–21.
- 117 Sikkema JM, Franx A, Bruinse HW, van der Wijk NG, de Valk HW, Nikkels PG. Placental pathology in early onset pre-eclampsia and intra-uterine growth restriction in women with and without thrombophilia. *Placenta* 2002; 23: 337–42.
- 118 Robertson L, Wu O, Langhorne P, et al, for the Thrombosis: Risk and Economic Assessment of Thrombophilia Screening Study. Thrombophilia in pregnancy: a systematic review. Br J Haematol 2006; 132: 171–96.
- 119 Dizon-Townson D, Miller C, Sibai B, et al, for the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Maternal-Fetal Medicine Units Network. The relationship of the factor V Leiden mutation and pregnancy outcomes for mother and fetus. Obstet Gynecol 2005; 106: 517–24.
- 120 Kahn SR, Platt R, McNamara H, et al. Inherited thrombophilia and preeclampsia within a multicenter cohort: the Montreal Preeclampsia Study. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2009; 200: 151.
- 121 Kocher O, Cirovic C, Malynn E, et al. Obstetric complications in patients with hereditary thrombophilia identified using the LCx microparticle enzyme immunoassay: a controlled study of 5,000 patients. Am J Clin Pathol 2007; 127: 68–75.
- 122 Facchinetti F, Marozio L, Frusca T, et al. Maternal thrombophilia and the risk of recurrence of preeclampsia. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2009; 200: 46.
- 123 van Rijn BB, Hoeks LB, Bots ML, Franx A, Bruinse HW. Outcomes of subsequent pregnancy after first pregnancy with early-onset preeclampsia. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2006; **195**: 723–28.
- 124 Steegers-Theunissen RP, Van Iersel CA, Peer PG, Nelen WL, Steegers EA. Hyperhomocysteinemia, pregnancy complications, and the timing of investigation. Obstet Gynecol 2004; 104: 336–43.
- 125 Walker MC, Ferguson SE, Allen VM. Heparin for pregnant women with acquired or inherited thrombophilias. Cochrane Database Syst Rev 2003; 2: CD003580.
- 126 Wilson JMG, Jungner G. Principles and practice of screening for disease. Public health papers, no 34. Geneva: World Health Organization, 1969.
- 127 Silver RM, Warren JE. Preconception counseling for women with thrombophilia. Clin Obstet Gynecol 2006; 49: 906–19.
- 128 Rep A, Ganzevoort W, Bonsel GJ, Wolf H, de Vries JI. Psychosocial impact of early-onset hypertensive disorders and related complications in pregnancy. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2007; 197: 158.
- 129 Poel YH, Swinkels P, de Vries JI. Psychological treatment of women with psychological complaints after pre-eclampsia. *J Psychosom Obstet Gynaecol* 2009; 30: 65–72.
- 130 Bellamy L, Casas JP, Hingorani AD, Williams DJ. Pre-eclampsia and risk of cardiovascular disease and cancer in later life: systematic review and meta-analysis. BMJ 2007; 335: 974.
- 131 Newstead J, von Dadelszen P, Magee LA. Preeclampsia and future cardiovascular risk. Expert Rev Cardiovasc Ther 2007; 5: 283–94.
- 132 Magnussen EB, Vatten LJ, Lund-Nilsen TI, Salvesen KA, Davey Smith G, Romundstad PR. Prepregnancy cardiovascular risk factors as predictors of pre-eclampsia: population based cohort study. BMJ 2007; 335: 978.
- 133 Berends AL, de Groot CJ, Sijbrands EJ, et al. Shared constitutional risks for maternal vascular-related pregnancy complications and future cardiovascular disease. Hypertension 2008; 51: 1034–41.
- 134 Mosca L, Appel LJ, Benjamin EJ, et al. Evidence-based guidelines for cardiovascular disease prevention in women. American Heart Association scientific statement. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 2004; 24: 29-50
- 135 Levine RJ, Vatten LJ, Horowitz GL, et al. Pre-eclampsia, soluble fms-like tyrosine kinase 1, and the risk of reduced thyroid function: nested case-control and population based study. *BMJ* 2009; 339: b4336.
- 136 Mutze S, Rudnik-Schoneborn S, Zerres K, Rath W. Genes and the preeclampsia syndrome. J Perinat Med 2008; 36: 38–58.
- 137 Nafee TM, Farrell WE, Carroll WD, Fryer AA, Ismail KM. Epigenetic control of fetal gene expression. BJOG 2008; 115: 158–68.

- 138 Oudejans CB, van Dijk M. Placental gene expression and preeclampsia. Placenta 2008; 29 (suppl A): 78–82.
- 139 Arngrimsson R. Epigenetics of hypertension in pregnancy. *Nat Genet* 2005; **37**: 460–61.
- 140 Lambers MJ, Groeneveld E, Hoozemans DA, et al. Lower incidence of hypertensive complications during pregnancy in patients treated with low-dose aspirin during in vitro fertilization and early pregnancy. Hum Reprod 2009; 24: 2447–50.
- 141 Hossain N, Schatz F, Paidas MJ. Heparin and maternal fetal interface: Why should it work to prevent pregnancy complications? *Thromb Res* 2009; 124: 653–55.
- 142 Krause B, Sobrevia L, Casanello P. Epigenetics: new concepts of old phenomena in vascular physiology. Curr Vasc Pharmacol 2009; 7: 513–20.
- 143 Wu CS, Nohr EA, Bech BH, Vestergaard M, Catov JM, Olsen J. Health of children born to mothers who had preeclampsia: a population-based cohort study. Am J Obstet Gynecol 2009; 201: 269.
- 144 Zetterstrom K, Lindeberg S, Haglund B, Magnuson A, Hanson U. Being born small for gestational age increases the risk of severe pre-eclampsia. BJOG 2007; 114: 319–24.

- 145 Oglaend B, Forman MR, Romundstad PR, Nilsen ST, Vatten LJ. Blood pressure in early adolescence in the offspring of preeclamptic and normotensive pregnancies. J Hypertens 2009; 27: 2051–54.
- 146 Tenhola S, Rahiala E, Halonen P, Vanninen E, Voutilainen R. Maternal preeclampsia predicts elevated blood pressure in 12-year-old children: evaluation by ambulatory blood pressure monitoring. Pediatr Res 2006; 59: 320–24.
- 147 Sep SJ, Smits LJ, Prins MH, Spaanderman ME, Peeters LL. Simple prepregnant prediction rule for recurrent early-onset hypertensive disease in pregnancy. Reprod Sci 2009; 16: 80–87.
- 148 Blankley RT, Gaskell SJ, Whetton AD, Dive C, Baker PN, Myers JE. A proof-of-principle gel-free proteomics strategy for the identification of predictive biomarkers for the onset of pre-eclampsia. BJOG 2009; 116: 1473–80.
- 149 de Groot CJ, Guzel C, Steegers-Theunissen RP, et al. Specific peptides indentified by mass spectrometry in placental tissue from pregnancies complicated by early onset preeclampsia attained by laser capture dissection. *Proteomics Clin Applic* 2007; 1: 325–35.