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LINKING CARDIOVASCULAR RISK WITH ESTRADIOL LEVEL IN MEN

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| <i>Aim</i> | To study the relationship between the cardiovascular risk and the level of estradiol in men of young and middle age. The main group included 71 patients with newly diagnosed hyperestrogenia (HE) (serum estradiol >41.2 pg/ml). Using pseudorandomization, 68 men with normal estradiol level and age- and body weight index (BWI) – matched with the main group were included into the control group. Anthropometric data, bioimpedance variables, blood pressure (BP), and concentrations of estradiol, testosterone, glucose, and total cholesterol were analyzed in both groups. |
| <i>Results</i> | Patients of the main and control groups did not differ in age, BWI, and smoking status. Testosterone concentration was 10.18 nmol/l in the HE group and 12.18 nmol/l in the control group ($p=0.006$). Systolic BP was 142.0 mm Hg in the HE group and 135.2 mm Hg in the control group ($p=0.011$); diastolic BP was 90.3 mm Hg in the HE group and 86.2 mm Hg in the control group ($p=0.008$). Total cholesterol was 5.87 mmol/l in the HE group and 5.33 mmol/l in the control group ($p=0.023$). Blood glucose did not differ between the groups. The presence of HE in men 2.11 times ($p=0.038$) increased the probability of arterial hypertension. The intergroup difference by the SCORE scale did not reach statistical significance ($p=0.172$). BWI, waist and hip circumferences, and bioimpedance body composition parameters did not differ between the groups. |
| <i>Conclusion</i> | In the studied cohort of young and middle-aged men, HE was an independent predictor for the presence of arterial hypertension. There were no significant intergroup differences in the total risk of cardiovascular diseases calculated with the SCORE scale. |
| <i>Keywords</i> | Hyperestrogenia; cardiovascular risk; arterial hypertension; men |
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Introduction

The prevalence of cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) increases with aging in male and female patients. However, cardiovascular pathology is 3 times more common in male patients than in premenopausal female patients, although the difference progressively decreases after menopause [1]. This necessitated a number of studies assessing the effect of sex hormones on the risk of CVDs and other age-related diseases [2]. Most experimental and clinical studies reported a protective effect of estrogens against CVDs in female patients [3]. Moreover, data were published on the positive effect of estrogens on the blood serum lipid profile, vascular function, and experimental atherosclerosis in male and female patients [4]. Until recently, the protective role of this sex steroid against CVDs was absolutized since most of the data were obtained in female and male patients with normal and reduced estrogen levels. In recent years, there have been enough studies that put this hypothesis into question in relation to male patients: hyperestrogenism in elderly male patients was associated with cardiovascular

morbidity [5, 6]; higher levels of estradiol increased the risk of sudden death in male patients [7]; high-dose estrogen therapy was associated in male patients with the increased incidence of severe cardiovascular complications and higher mortality [8].

The prevalence of hyperestrogenism, a condition characterized by elevated blood levels of estrogens in male patients mainly due to 17 beta-estradiol, is indirectly estimated from 32% to 65% of the male population [9]. Hyperestrogenism can have several manifestations that reduce a man's quality of life: impotence, infertility, gynecomastia, and sarcopenia. Up to 80% of estrogens are formed in males via the conversion of androgens to estrogens by aromatase in adipose tissue. Balance of this process is very precise; several factors can change it. Obesity is the most common one. Overweight or obese male patients have elevated levels of chronic inflammation in adipose tissue, which causes multiple metabolic and immune disorders. Inflammatory processes in adipose tissue contribute to the activation of adipocyte aromatase and cause excessive

conversion of testosterone to estradiol. This causes decreased levels of testosterone and hyperestrogenism [10]. At the same time, obesity is a powerful risk factor for type 2 diabetes mellitus and CVDs. Estimating the effect of hyperestrogenism in male patients on the risk of CVDs irrespective of body composition may have caused heterogeneity in the results of previous studies.

Despite the interest in the role of estrogens in the pathophysiology of CVDs in male patients, there are virtually no studies on the relationship of hyperestrogenism with metabolic and CVD risk factors in young and middle-aged male patients.

Objective

Study the relationship between the risk of CVDs and estradiol levels in young and middle-aged male patients.

Material and methods

The comparative retrospective case-control clinical trial was approved by the ethics committee of the Medical Scientific Educational Center of the Lomonosov Moscow State University (Minutes No. 6/21 dated September 20, 2021).

Criteria for inclusion in the study group: male patients; encounter for preventive examination; age from 18 to 59 years; newly identified hyperestrogenism (serum estradiol > 41.2 pg/mL).

Criteria for inclusion in the control group: male sex; encounter for preventive examination with symptoms of overweight, decreased performance, decreased emotional background; age from 18 to 59 years; normal levels of estradiol (serum estradiol ≤ 41.2 pg/mL).

Exclusion criteria: previously diagnosed diabetes mellitus and/or CVD; prostate cancer and hyperplasia; known chronic inflammatory diseases (rheumatoid arthritis, systemic diseases, non-alcoholic fatty hepatosis, etc.); renal dysfunction (glomerular filtration rate < 45 ml/min/1.73 m²); hepatic dysfunction (transaminase and bilirubin levels 2 times or more higher than normal thresholds); corticosteroid therapy (within 6 months before inclusion); hyperthyroidism and hypothyroidism; hyperprolactinemia; primary or secondary hypogonadism; drug therapy affecting sex hormone axis (estrogens, androgens, aromatase inhibitors, human chorionic gonadotropin, other anabolic steroids, testosterone antagonists (ketoconazole, spironolactone, cimetidine, cyproterone)).

365 medical records of male patients who successively sought preventive examination under the Male Health program were retrospectively analyzed. The main group included 71 patients with newly diagnosed hyperestrogenism (serum estradiol > 41.2 pg/mL) [11]. It should be noted that the reference levels of estradiol differ significantly in different countries worldwide [11–14]. Propensity score

matching was used for selecting the control group. 68 male patients with normal estradiol levels, who had comparable age and body mass index (BMI) with the main group, were selected (Table 1).

Anthropometric data (height, body weight, waist circumference (WC) and hip circumference (HC)) of all subjects were available for analysis. Blood pressure (BP) and resting heart rate (HR) data registered at examination in patient records were used. Bioimpedance measurements were made in all patients.

Serum levels of estradiol and total testosterone were determined by chemiluminescent immunoassay (Roche Cobas 6000). Biochemical blood test (total cholesterol (TC), glucose) was performed on an automatic biochemical analyzer AU480 (Beckman Coulter, Germany).

The SCORE-2 official calculator was used for the data obtained [15].

The data were processed in IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to evaluate the normality of data distribution. For normally distributed characteristics, the following statistical parameters were determined: arithmetic mean (M), standard deviation (SD). For non-normally distributed characteristics, the following statistical parameters were determined: median (Me), interquartile range [Q1; Q3]. Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney's U-test were used to compare patient groups depending on the type of distribution. Absolute values and percentages were used to describe categorical variables. The significance of intergroup differences in the categorical variables was assessed based on the chi-squared test. The correlations between indicators of interest were assessed using the Spearman's correlation coefficient. The odds ratios (OR) of the presence of an indicator of interest to its absence were assessed in both patient groups. Binary logistic regression models were used to construct 95% confidence intervals (CIs) and point estimation of OR. Only one predictor was included in the univariate analysis model. Multiple binary logistic regression models were used to evaluate the effects of the indicator taking into account the contribution of other influencing variables. The statistical significance of the model was estimated by maximum likelihood. The level of statistical significance was $p < 0.05$.

Results

The groups with normal and elevated estrogen did not differ in age and BMI (see Table 1). Anthropometric data and laboratory test results are presented in Table 2.

The differences in the total risk of CVDs (SCORE-2) between the groups did not reach the level of statistical significance ($p = 0.172$). However, TC and BP were statistically significantly higher in patients with hyperestrogenism. This group also included more patients with known arterial

Table 1. Characteristics of the subjects

| Parameter | Hyperestrogenism group | Control group | p |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|-------|
| Age, years, Me [Q1; Q3] | 44.4 [38.0; 51.0] | 44.9 [36.0; 55.8] | 0.525 |
| BMI, kg/m ² , M±SD | 32.18±5.36 | 31.34±5.93 | 0.420 |

BMI, body mass index.

hypertension (AH; $p=0.009$). The incidence and severity of obesity, WC and HC, and glucose levels did not differ between the groups with normal and elevated estradiol. Bioimpedance findings on body composition did not differ between the patient groups. There were also no differences in smoking status. However, as well as higher levels of estradiol, lower levels of total testosterone were predictably found in the hyperestrogenism group ($p=0.006$). In this regard, a logistic regression analysis was carried out to assess the contribution of hyperestrogenism to the risk of AH considering the levels of endogenous total testosterone (Table 3). The presence of AH was chosen as a dependent variable for the binary logistic model. Hyperestrogenism and testosterone less than the lower limit of normal (<12.1 nmol/L) were the influencing variables [16].

The data obtained indicate that the presence of hyperestrogenism in male patients of our sample increased 2.11-fold the probability of having AH irrespective of the levels of total testosterone.

Discussion

Current research suggests that disruption of the sex hormone axis is associated with an increased likelihood

of developing CVDs. At the same time, the existing CVD risk scales do not consider these data and do not include sex hormone levels. A cross-sectional analysis of data from 122 male patients in the Framingham cohort showed that mean serum estradiol levels were significantly higher ($p=0.011$) in patients with coronary artery disease (CAD) than in healthy individuals. This difference in estradiol levels increased when persons older than 75 years were excluded ($p<0.001$). At the same time, mean serum total testosterone did not differ significantly. None of the established CVD risk factors differed between patients with CAD and control subjects, except for blood glucose, which was higher in CAD ($p=0.025$) [17]. A later analysis of long-term follow-up data of the Framingham cohort showed that estradiol effects change with aging. Higher levels of this hormone were associated with a lower risk of CVDs in older male patients (mean age >56 years): OR 0.86; 95% CI 0.78–0.9; $p=0.005$. However, in younger male patients (mean age ≤ 56 years) estradiol levels were not associated with CVD risk: OR 1.11; 95% CI 0.89–1.38; $p=0.36$ [18]. In a Chinese study ($n=4,720$ subjects) macrovascular

Table 2. Indicators of interest in male patients depending on the presence of hyperestrogenism

| Parameter | Hyperestrogenism group | Control group | p |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|---------|
| Estradiol, pg/mL (M±SD) | 49.20±6.14 | 26.61±26.91 | < 0.001 |
| Total testosterone, nmol/L (M±SD) | 10.18±3.26 | 12.18±5.04 | 0.006 |
| Waist circumference, cm (Me [Q1; Q3]) | 103.1 (94.0; 111.0) | 101.5 (94.6; 109.0) | 0.877 |
| Hip circumference, cm (M±SD) | 107.42±7.87 | 104.77±9.08 | 0.058 |
| WC/HC (M±SD) | 0.96±0.075 | 0.97±0.091 | 0.539 |
| Obesity, n (%) | 1 (1.5) | 6 (8.8) | 0.389 |
| • Grade I, n (%) | 14 (19.7) | 11 (16) | – |
| • Grade II, n (%) | 6 (8.5) | 5 (7) | – |
| • Normal, n (%) | 28 (34.4) | 26 (38.2) | – |
| • Overweight, n (%) | 22 (31) | 20 (29.4) | – |
| AM, kg (M±SD) | 31.15±11.83 | 29.31±11.5 | 0.403 |
| AM percentage, % (Me [Q1; Q3]) | 29.25 [24; 33.7] | 28.26 [23.9; 32.9] | 0.380 |
| LM, kg (Me [Q1; Q3]) | 71.79 [66.8; 77.2] | 70.85 [63.83; 75.35] | 0.540 |
| SBP, mm Hg (M±SD) | 142.0±16.3 | 135.2±15.9 | 0.011 |
| DBP, mm Hg (M±SD) | 90.3±10.1 | 86.2±9.4 | 0.008 |
| Patients with AH, n (%) | 46 (64.8) | 29 (42.7) | 0.009 |
| Glucose, mmol/L (M±SD) | 5.45±0.72 | 5.63±1.30 | 0.978 |
| TC, mmol/L (Me [Q1; Q3]) | 5.87 [4.90; 6.80] | 5.33 [4.58; 6.07] | 0.023 |
| Smoking, n (%) | 20 (28.1) | 19 (27.9) | 0.976 |
| SCORE, score (M±SD) | 3.59±5.99 | 1.97±2.01 | 0.172 |

WC/HC waist circumference-to-hip circumference rate; FM, fat mass; LM, lean mass; SCORE, Systematic COronary Risk Evaluation.

Table 3. Contribution of estradiol and testosterone to the risk of arterial hypertension in young and older male patients

| Parameter | OR | 95% CI | p |
|---|------|-------------|-------|
| Estradiol (> 41.2 pg/mL / ≤41.2 pg/mL) | 2.11 | 1.042–4.274 | 0.038 |
| Total testosterone (> 12.1 nmol/L / ≤12.1 nmol/L) | 1.14 | 0.409–1.877 | 0.733 |

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.

complications were associated with low total testosterone, dehydroepiandrosterone, and elevated estradiol in male patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus [19]. The relationship of estradiol, rather than testosterone, with CAD was confirmed in young male patients in an invasive control study [6, 20]. Another study in a sample of elderly male patients (> 2,000 individuals) demonstrated the association of elevated estradiol with higher risk of stroke and atherosclerosis, including carotid atherosclerosis, and more frequent cases of cardiovascular and all-cause death [5, 6]. In the prospective MrOS study in elderly male patients, endogenous levels of testosterone and estradiol were not associated with an increased risk of atherosclerosis-related diseases within 8.6 years of follow-up [21].

The contradictory findings can be explained by the differences between the studied populations by age, baseline CVD risk, and the analysis methods used [22].

Our results did not reveal a relation between the total risk of CVDs (SCORE) and the serum levels of estradiol. However, it should be noted that the baseline risk of CVD was low in our study group. At the same time, hyperestrogenism was statistically significantly associated with AH in young and middle-aged male patients.

Studies in the female population showed the protective effect of elevated estradiol on the cardiovascular system, mainly due to the central influence, modulation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, and higher bioavailability of nitric oxide [23]. At the same time, statistically significant differences in the vascular effects of estrogens in perimenopausal and late postmenopausal female patients can serve as indirect confirmation of the ambivalence of hyperestrogenism effects in male and female patients [24]. Administration of 17 beta-estradiol decreased blood pressure in female mice and did not affect males, which reflects a sex-dependence of the roles of hormones in modulating cardiovascular reactions [25].

Female sex hormones can influence the regulation of fluid volume, which is an important circumstance of integrative control of systemic BP. Estrogen and progesterone were shown to alter the osmotic regulation of vasopressin, which can lead to fluid retention [26]. This mechanism may contribute to the increase in BP in young and middle-aged male patients with hyperestrogenism. Moreover, sex-related differences in the effects of estradiol may be associated

with the peculiarities of the receptor apparatus. In an experimental study published in 2021 [27], models of early-stage ovarian insufficiency (OI) characteristic of perimenopause were created in young mice using 4 vinylcyclohexenediepoxyde. Administration of estrogen beta receptor (ERβ) agonists was found to suppress elevated BP in an angiotensin II-induced neurotension model in females with OI but not in male mice of the same age. It was also found that the administration of ERβ agonists in females with OI but not in male patients inhibited increased signaling via N-methyl-D-aspartate receptors (NMDAR) and the production of reactive oxygen in ERβ neurons in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus, an important regulator of BP in the central nervous system [27]. Postmortem examinations in humans showed that the increased expression of ERβ correlated with higher prevalence of coronary atherosclerosis in male patients [28].

Many papers have appeared in recent years that discuss chronic inflammation as an important independent predictor of CVDs [29]. The positive correlation between estradiol and C-reactive protein levels in middle-aged and elderly male patients may reflect the pro-inflammatory effects of hyperestrogenism [30]. It was published that estradiol can increase apoptosis in endothelial cells of human coronary arteries by increasing the expression of Fas and Fas ligand [31].

In our study, hyperestrogenism was associated with higher TC (p=0.023). A study involving 111 male patients with stable CAD aged 36–73 years also found statistically significant positive correlations of estradiol levels with TC and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol [32]. High levels of estrogen are associated in female patients with a favorable blood lipid profile in most studies [33].

Unfortunately, most experimental studies on the effects of estradiol on the cardiovascular system included only female patients or female animals. In any case, it is obvious that there are sex-related differences in the pathogenesis of hypertension AH and the efficacy of antihypertensive interventions [34]. In this regard, further research of the relationship between hyperestrogenism and AH is extremely important, since elevated estradiol in male patients can independently contribute to the development of AH at a young age. Understanding the pathophysiological mechanisms may detect new targets for antihypertensive therapy.

This study has several limitations. We did not analyze the entire sex hormone axis. The study was cross-sectional and single center. The study groups were well-balanced in age, BMI, severity of abdominal obesity and smoking status, and this significantly reduced the influence of these factors on the contribution of hyperestrogenism to the development of AH. Nevertheless, the sample was relatively small. Further research is necessary to confirm and clarify the association of estrogen levels in young and middle-aged male patients with the risk of developing AH and other CVDs.

Conclusion

Hyperestrogenism in young and middle-aged male patients increased the likelihood of arterial hypertension

2.11 times ($p=0.038$) irrespective of body fat mass and testosterone levels.

There were no significant differences in the total risk of cardiovascular diseases (SCORE) between the groups of male patients with normal and elevated estradiol.

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