

Review Article | Pharmaceutical Sciences | OA Journal | MCI Approved | Index Copernicus

A Review on Current scenario of Lipid Metabolic Disorders

Shwetlana Bandyopadhyay, Debankini Dasgupta, Nilanjan Sarkar and Mainak Chakraborty*

Department of Pharmaceutical Technology, NSHM Knowledge Campus, Kolkata-Group of Institutions. 124, 60, Basanta Lal Saha Rd, Tara Park, Behala, Kolkata, West Bengal 700053.

Received: 12 Mar 2021 / Accepted: 6 Apr 2021 / Published online: 1 Jul 2021 *Corresponding Author Email: mainakchakraborty47@gmail.com

Abstract

Lipids are mandatory substance readily present in living body. They play a very vital role in maintaining a balance between all the mechanisms of the body. Lipids are almost water insoluble molecules that are transported in a protein capsule, commonly known as lipoprotein. Lipids undergoes a metabolism which is the major energy supplier for a living body. Types of lipids consists of Low-density Lipoprotein [LDL], Very Low-Density Lipoprotein [VLDL], High Density Lipoprotein [HDL], Triglycerides [TG]. Rise in the level of LDL or TG imposes a serious and severe threat to the body. Rise in these levels might lead to several disorders that includes much more severity in the disorders such as dysbetalipoproteinemia, lysosomal storage disorders, nephrotoxicity, menopause, renal disorders, obesity, diabetes, pregnancy toxemia, etc. Adding to these, problems of body such as hypothyroidism, genetic disruptions, etc. makes these disorders worse.

Keywords

Lipids, Triglycerides, Lipid metabolism, Disorders, Familial dysbetalipoproteinemia, Lysosomal Storage Disorder, Nephrotoxicity, Menopause, Renal disorders, Obesity, Diabetes, Pregnancy Toxemia.

INTRODUCTION:

Lipids, play a vital role in maintaining the balance in a living body. Lipids are water insoluble molecules, transported in a protein capsule or commonly known as lipoprotein. The density of the lipid is determined by the size of the lipoprotein. The core of the lipoprotein consists of cholesteryl esters, commonly known as triglycerides and the outer polar layer is consisting of apolipoproteins, free cholesterols, and phospholipids.

The metabolism of lipids is a vital source for energy for the body. In this metabolism process, it includes synthesis and breakdown of lipids in cells to yield energy for the body. In this, the lipid molecules are either synthesized in cells for energy or are stored in adipocytes as fats for future use.[1,2]

LIPID METABOLISM:

Lipids consists of various types of molecules such as cholesterols, phospholipids, and triglycerides which are commonly known as fats. Lipid metabolism can be described as the synthesis and degradation of lipids in cells, involving the breakdown or storage of fats for energy. Lipid metabolism occurs in adipocytes and liver and in mammary gland during lactation. It also includes synthesis of structural and functional lipids, mainly those are involved in construction of cell membranes. In animals, these fats are obtained from the food they intake, and then, are synthesized in liver. In case of lipid



metabolism, the fats ingested are converted into small particles by the biles in the body. Then, small intestine and lipase from the pancreas, hydrolyzes its fatty acid and results in monoglycerides and free fatty acids. Along with these, a small amount of fatty acids is completely hydrolyzed into glycerol and fatty acids. These hydrolyzed products move into the cells of the epithelium of the intestine. Then, these recombines again to form triglycerides.

Triglycerides are packed along with Cholesterol in large lipoprotein particles known as Chylomicrones. Then, these chylomicrones leaves the enterocytes and they enter the capillaries and then eventually passes into the blood stream. This is a vital way of delivering fats to the tissues.

There is a kind of enzyme in the walls of the blood vessel known as Lipoprotein Lipase [LPL]. These LPL hydrolyzes the chylomicrone molecules. This process breaks the triglyceride molecules into free fatty acids and glycerol, which enables the fatty acids and the glycerol to pass through the capillary walls into the tissues.

In normal body tissues, they are oxidized for energy. In adipose tissues, these are re-esterized for storage, which can be utilized for energy production in future. The fats that are synthesized endogenously in liver, are packed in another type of lipoprotein, i.e., VLDL [Very Low-Density Lipoprotein]. Then, these VLDL are reacted upon by LPL, hydrolyzing them into glycerol and fatty acids and then they are utilized by the tissues in the similar manner of the chylomicrones.

When required, the fats stored in adipose tissues are taken for energy production by the action of Hormone Sensitive Lipase [HSL], which is used to mobilize the stored fats. [3–10]

Lipid metabolism yields energy by the process of-Lipid metabolism pathway is very closely related and connected to carbohydrate metabolism pathway. Lipolysis occurs to form triglycerides, which breaks down into glycerol and fatty acids by the action of LPL. This glycerol produced is taken up by the glycolysis pathway to convert glucose into pyruvate molecules which is then converted into acetyl CoA. Fatty acids on the other side undergoes β-oxidation to yield acetyl CoA. Each round of β-oxidation eliminates two carbons from the fatty acid chain to yield acetyl CoA. These acetyl CoA are oxidized in the citric acid cycle to yield ATP via Electron Transport System. On the other hand, from β -fatty acid oxidation, 1NADH and 1FADH₂ is obtained per round.

Fats yield more energy per unit mass as compared to carbohydrates. When acetyl CoA is produced in excessive amount, it is pushed to create ketone bodies. During glucose starvation, ketone bodies are used for excess source of energy for brain. Ketone bodies are acidic in nature, which when produced in excess amount, disturbs the buffering capacity of blood plasma, resulting in metabolic acidosis, which is also known as ketoacidosis, which can lead to coma and death.

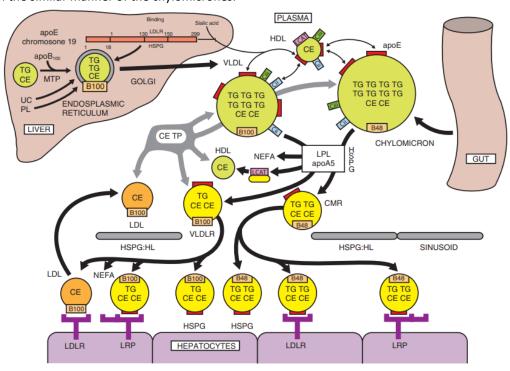


Fig 1: Lipoprotein metabolism [2]



In this above figure, the triglyceride-rich lipoproteins (TGRL) are secreted from the liver (very low-density lipoprotein; VLDL) and gut (Chylomicron). The TGRL contain unesterified cholesterol (UC) phospholipid in the outer shell and the triglycerides (TG) and cholesterol ester (CE) as neutral lipids situated in the core. VLDL is assembled in the liver by neutral lipid transfer to apolipoprotein B100 (apoB100) by the help of microsomal triglyceride transfer protein (MTP). Chylomicrons are made in the similar manner but contain apolipoprotein B48 (apoB48). ApoE can exchange between lipoproteins, but it is not found in low-density lipoprotein (LDL). The TG in TGRL undergoes hydrolysis by lipoprotein lipase (LPL) and gets retained on the endothelial bed by heparan sulphate proteoglycans (HSPG) and yields non-esterified fatty acids. LPL gets activated by apolipoprotein CII and apolipoprotein Apolipoprotein CIII is an inhibitor of LPL. The remnants of VLDL (VLDLR) and chylomicrons (CMR) passes into the hepatic sinusoidal space where HSPG retains hepatic lipase (HL). This enzyme hydrolyses more TG and converts VLDLR to LDL. Remnants can be taken up by hepatocytes through the low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) or LDLR-related protein (LRP) because Apo-E. HSPG mediates certain uptakes along with this. Only on LDL is apoB100 in the appropriate conformation to bind the LDLR. In the circulation, cholesterol ester transfer protein (CETP) exchanges CE and TG between lipoproteins (HDL). Small discoidal high-density lipoproteins, generated during creation of redundant phospholipid by LPL.[2]

LIPID METABOLISM DISORDERS:

Owing to our present kind of lifestyle and various other diversifying factors, it has led to several types of lipid metabolism disorders.

Familial dysbetalipoproteinemia:

Familial dysbetalipoproteinemia is a rare combined hyperlipidemia, which belong to the type III hyperlipoproteinemia. In this type, the cholesterol and triglyceride levels are high. It consists of accumulation of triglyceride-rich lipoprotein, which includes both chylomicrones and VLDL in plasma.

Familial dysbetalipoproteinemia is majorly a genetic disorder, that might be due to the defect in the gene related to apolipoprotein E. Adding to it, problems like hypothyroidism, obesity and diabetes makes it worse. Either absence of apo E or dysfunctional apo E leads to poor uptake of remnants. (2) This leads to cholesterol depletion in hepatocytes, and this results in constantly upregulation of the LDL receptors, that enhances clearance of the LDL. Due to decrease in lipolytic conversion of VLDL to LDL, accounts for the

low LDL cholesterol levels, this is the best available evidence that describes impaired formation of LDL. The metabolic changes that occur inside the body, that either increases the level of VLDL or decreases the functional efficacy of the LDL receptors. Difference in the function of LDL receptor leading to apo E mutation and binding of HSPG might be the reason for the variance in the phenotype of dysbetalipoproteinemia. [1,2,10–15]

Lysosomal storage disorder:

The normal storage capacity of the cell is exceeded, when, glycosphingolipidoses are characterized by the accumulation of GSLs. This causes alteration in the membranes and abnormal lipid vesicles are formed in various organs. Gangliosides are typically component of neuronal plasma membranes; thus they are mainly accumulated in the nervous system, this leads to neuronal dysfunction. Gangliosides accumulates due to their hydrophobic nature and results in several kind of disorders, such as, Gaucher and Krabbe Disease, GM1-Gangliosidosis, Tay–Sachs and Sandhoff Diseases.[16][17]

• Gaucher and Krabbe Disease:

Gaucher disease (GD) is one of the most common Lysosomal Storage Disorder [LSD] with an incidence of 1 in 40,000 in the count of total population. GD is a type of inherited autosomal recessive disorder. It occurs due to mutations in GBA1, which encodes acid-β-glucosidase (GCase). The symptoms of this disease vary and can include brain, liver and spleen, bone marrow and several other organs. There are almost more than 350 mutations are associated with GD. The symptoms of GD involve hepatosplenomegaly, thrombocytopenia, anemia, and in bone involves osteopenia, osteoporosis, and bone pain because of bone infarcts or pathological fractures. GD also increases the chances and risks for Parkinson's Disorder. The successful treatment of GD observed till now are Substrate-reduction and replacement therapy of enzymes.[16][18]

Just as Gaucher disease, Krabbe disease is also an autosomal recessive disorder. This disease includes the mutation of Gal-cerebrosidase gene (GALC). Krabbe disease (KD) is reported to occur early-onset in infants. For this disease, 130 mutations have been reported. Gal-cerebrosidase causes degradation of GalCer, which is an important constituent of myelin, and psychosine, a toxic byproduct of GalCer production. This results in accumulation of these in the nervous system, resulting in progressive loss of myelin, which leads to loss of neural function. Till date there has been no specific treatment discovered for treating the severity of KD, but stem cell



transplantation is being put under test for treatment of the above, and this is being tried in USA. [16][19]

• GM1-Gangliosidosis:

GM1 gangliosidosis is an autosomal recessive disorder, which occurs due to mutation of GLB1 gene, which results in the deficiency of β -galactosidase. It occurs due to deficiency in β -GAL activity that leads to the degradation of GSLs and glycoconjugates which contains terminal β -Gal residues such as GM1, GA1, and mucopolysaccharides. The patients suffering from this has been recorded to have accumulation of GM1 in the grey matter up to 4-fold of GM1 noted from a healthy individual. (16)(20)

There are three types of GM1 gangliosidosis, which are classified as per the onset of the disease. Type 1, also known as classic infantile GM1 gangliosidosis, is the most severe and expresses around 6 months of age, where children start to gain regression developmental milestones leading to rapid deteriorations occurring shortly thereafter. Type 2 is the milder one, which is expressed between the ages of 1–5 years. The symptoms of this includes ataxia, dementia and/or difficulties in speech. Type 3, is least severe and slowest progressing type, where the symptoms develops later during adulthood. The treatment that has seem to work for the treatment of this disease is, enzyme replacement therapy, and the clinical trial for this has begun in 2019. [16,20]

• GM2-Gangliosidosis: Tay–Sachs and Sandhoff Diseases:

This occurs due to decreased levels of β -hexosaminidase. This occurs due to failure in cleave of GalNAc β residue from GM2, GD2, GT2 and Gb4 and GlcNAc β - residues from other GSLs. The types of GM-2 include Tay–Sachs Diseases [TSD] variants, Sandhoff Diseases [SD]. It occurs due to deficiency of

the GM2 activator protein in AB variants and includes mutations of one of the genes involved in GM2 catabolism. [20] [16,21,22]

There are three isoforms of hexosaminidase [HEX]: HEX-A occurs as an α , β heterodimer while HEX-B is a β , β homodimer, and HEX-S is an α , α homodimer. The α - and β -subunits have an active site with a slightly different substrate specificity - the α -subunit active site is coated with cationic residuesthat allows the accommodation of a negative charge. Both the subunits are generally assoiciated with endoplasmic reticulam, which are targeted with lysosomes for proper degradation of ganglioside. [16,20,23]

Tay—Sachs Diseases is the most common type of GM2 gangliosidosis. The HEX-A and HEX-S activities are reduced, as a result of mutation of the α -subunit. The symptoms are kind of like GM1 gangliosidosis, except visceral pathology from the prior. The common symptoms are seizures, motor impairment, hearing and vision loss and eventually respiratory failure. The characterization of TSD is similar to GM1 gangliosidosis, i.e., classic infantile, juvenile and adult onset. In infantile onset as children begin to face regression in mental development around 6 months of age which results in death by the age of 4. [16,20,22]

SD occurs due to mutation to HEX-B, which includes the β -subunit of HEX-A and HEX-B. The β -subunit has stabilizing properties that is required for the normal HEX-A activity. The symptoms of SD are kind of similar to TSD, but the additional symptom in SD is visceral manifestation. SD is subdivided into three classes on the basis of disease onset with infantile cases presenting as the most severe and rapidly progressing one.

Other types of LSD: [16]

SL NO.	Name of Disease	Gene Involved	Enzyme Assiociated	Affected GSL	
1	Fabry Disease	GLA	α-galactosidase A	Globosides, group B	Blood
2	Metachromatic Leukodystrophy	ARSA	Arylsulfatase A	Sulfatide	
3	Saposin deficiency	PSAP	Prosaposin (Saposin precursor protein)	GSLs	
4	Galactosialidosis, PPCA Deficiency	CTSA	Sialidase I (NEU1) Cathepsin A	GM1	
5	Niemann-Pick Disease	SMPD1	Acid sphingomyelinase	Sphingosine	
6	Schindler Disease	NAGA	$\alpha\textsc{-N-acetylgalactosaminidase}$ B($\alpha\textsc{-NAGAL})$	Lac-Cer, group A	Blood
7	Farber Disease	ASAH1	Acid ceramidase	Ceramides	



Triglyceride-rich lipoproteins and their abnormalities in nephrotic syndrome:

Glomerular proteinuria if exceeds more or equal to 3.5 g/day in adults or a urine protein/creatinine ratio of 2/3 mg/mg creatinine or greater in children might result in nephrotic syndrome, which might further lead to disorders like, hypo-albuminemia, edema, and hyperlipidemia.

In nephrotic syndrome, there is an increase in plasma concentration of cholesterol, triglycerides, apolipoprotein B [apoB] which contains lipoproteins (very low-density lipoprotein [VLDL], immediatedensity lipoprotein [IDL], and low-density lipoprotein [LDL]) and lipoprotein-a[Lp-a].[24–28]

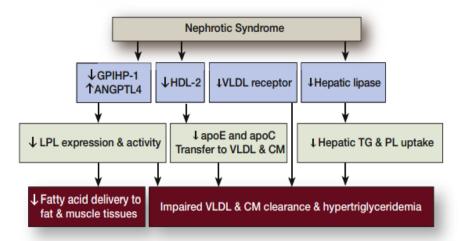


Fig 2: Nephrotic Syndrome via decrease of the lipoprotein lipase (LPL) adapter molecule GPIHP-1 and enhance of the LPL inhibitor molecule ANGPTL4.

In Nephrotic Syndrome, there is a decrease in the activity of the lipoprotein lipase [LPL] adapter molecule, i.e. GPIHP-1 and there is an enhancement in the activity of LPL inhibitor molecule ANGPTL4. Along with these, there is a scarcity of cholesterol ester-rich high-density lipoprotein (HDL), which serves as a donor for apoE and apoC to the nascent lipoprotein (VLDL) very low-density chylomicrons (CM), that enhances their ability to bind to the endothelial lining and activate LPL. But LPL deficiency and dysfunction decreases the amount of transfer of lipids to the e muscles for generation of energy and to the adipose tissue for

storage of energy. Adding to it, nephrotic syndrome causes deficiency in hepatic lipase, that causes impairment with the ability of the liver to extract triglyceride (TG) and phospholipid (PL) contents of immediate-density lipoprotein (IDL) and HDL. All of these together causes hypertriglyceridemia, that leads to increase of serum VLDL, and also causes accumulation of atherogenic IDL, CM remnants, and triglyceride (TG)-rich LDL in patients suffering from nephrotic syndrome. [24,29–32]

LDL and cholesterol metabolism in nephrotic syndrome:

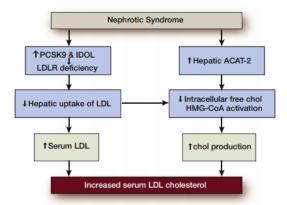


Fig 3: Nephrotic Syndrome via a marked increase in serum proprotein convertase subtilisin kexin type 9 (PCSK9) and the liver tissue inducible degrader of the LDL receptor (IDOL), which are potent degraders of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptor (LDLR), nephrotic syndrome results in acquired LDLR deficiency.



In Nephrotic syndrome, there is a marked increase in the levels of serum proprotein convertase subtilisin kexin type 9 [PCSK9] and in the liver tissues inducible degrader of the LDL receptor [IDOL], which is a potent degrader of LDL receptor [LDLR], that results in acquired LDLR deficiency. This causes impairment in the clearance of increased serum LDL in patients suffering from nephrotic syndrome. Adding to it, this disease leads in the increase of expression and work of Acyl-CoA cholesterol acyltransferase-2 [ACAT-2] in liver. This results in the increase esterification of cholesterol and decrease of intracellular free

cholesterol. The decrease in cholesterol uptake takes place due to LDLR deficiency and the decrease in intracellular free cholesterol due to ACAT-2 to promote activation of sterol regulatory elementbinding protein-2 (SREBP-2) and SREBP-1. Enhancement of the activity of SREBP-2 heightens 3hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA (HMG-CoA) reductase-mediated cholesterol production and increase in the activity of SREBP-1 that increases production of fatty acids, and that leads to hypercholesterolemia and hypertriglyceridemia in nephrotic syndrome. [24,26,29,33-37]

HDL metabolism and its abnormalities in nephrotic syndrome:

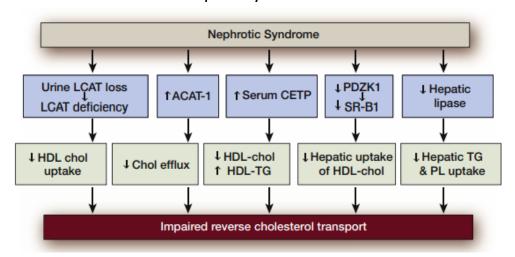


Fig 4: Nephrotic Syndrome and HDL Metabolism

As a result of Nephrotic Syndrome, there is a marked increase of vascular and renal tissue Acyl-CoA cholesterol acyltransferase-1[ACAT-1] expression and heavy urinary losses and significantly decrease of serum lecithin cholesteryl ester acyltransferase [LCAT] level, that functions to regulate high-density lipoprotein [HDL]—mediated extraction of cholesterol from lipid-laden macrophages and mesangial and other cell types. This is followed by a significant increase in the level of serum cholesterol ester transfer protein [CETP]. This leads to further decrease in the level of HDL cholesterol and enhancement of its high-density lipoprotein triglyceride [HDL-TG]. Adding to it, by inducing inhibition and decrease of PDZ-containing kidney protein 1 (PDZK1), this disease results in a significant decrease in liver HDL docking receptor (scavenger receptor class B, type 1 [SR-B1]), that leads to unloading of HDL's cholesterol cargo and hepatic lipase-mediated extraction of its and TG phospholipid (PL) cargo. Altogether, all these abnormalities debilitate reverse cholesterol

transport and contributes to the atherogenic diathesis for nephrotic syndrome. [24,29,33,38,39] **Menopause and Lipids:**

Menopause is such a clinical condition, that is generally tracked in the women typically within age group of 45-55 years. It is a clinically diagnosed condition in which, the women due loss in the follicular activity of the ovaries has not been able to menstruate for nearly or over a year. Before arrival of the stage of menopause, women experiences perimenopause, or menopausal transition, where in order to cope up with the cessation of oocyte production in the ovaries, women experience irregular menstrual cycle. [6]

Estrogen, a primary female sex hormone, significantly regulates the development and function of the female reproductive system. Along with estrogen, estradiol [E2] and estriol [E3] is also present in body. E2 is found in almost every woman in reproductive age but E3 is produced by placenta. During reproductive age of women, the average level of total estrogen is 100–250 pg/mL, but post-



menopause, the level of E2 decreases to 10 pg/mL. [6.40]

In women with menopause, are at the highest risk for cardiovascular disease [CVD] due to deficiency in the level of estrogen and dysregulated metabolism of lipids. Owing to the menopausal status of women, there is a huge alteration in the various body fats. This alteration occurs due to decrease in the level of estrogen and follicle-stimulating hormone [FSH]. These changes are often noted during later menopause. Lipids that are majorly affected during menopause or perimenopause or post-menopause are, Lipoproteins, Apolipoproteins [Apo], Low-Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol [LDL-C], High-Density Lipoprotein [HDL], High-Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol [HDL-C], and TG[Triglycerides]. These lipids show a significant rise in level in perimenopause and early postmenopausal phase. By a study conducted, it was noted that in women of middle-age were noted to have lowest quartile FSH levels and the highest levels of total cholesterol and LDL-C. This fluctuation in the levels sex hormone and lipid metabolism increases the risk of CHD in women. The ratio of total cholesterol to HDL is a major indicator for cardiovascular disease in comparison with total cholesterol.

As per the studies reported, HDL-C levels gets elevated after menopause. As per the study reports, the HDL-C levels increase gradually from premenopause and peak during perimenopause. Gradually, HDL-C level declines until late postmenopause. But as per studies conducted, middleaged healthy women, showed a decline in HDL-C level and gradual rise in LDL-C level. This rise in LDL-C level significantly increases the chance of cardiovascular diseases in women after menopause. [6,40–42] [43–51]

Lipid Metabolism and Renal Disorder:

Out of all the organs in the body, kidney is such an organ that requires high amount of energy. But, compared to its energy demand, it has relatively low glycolytic capacity. Thus, β-oxidation of free fatty acids (FFAs) in the mitochondria especially for proximal tubule cells is the major source of energy. Albumin contains >99% of plasma long-chain fatty acids (LCFAs). In chronic kidney disease [CKD] (especially in case of diabetic kidney disease), the circulating levels of LCFAs increases significantly, that leads to an increase in the LCFA load per albumin molecule. Serum LCFAs binds to albumin during glomerular filtration and those are reabsorbed by the proximal tubular cells via fatty acid transport CD36 and this mediates renal tubular fibrosis. This highlights the role of hypertriglyceridemia and high level of FFAs for tubular fibrosis. In CKD, the

accumulation of tri-acyl-glycerol and FFAs with lower fatty acid oxidation (FAO) has important roles for the formation of foam cell and its pathogenesis for the case of kidney fibrosis. Several factors induce severe disbalance between fatty acid uptake and its consumption in CKD, such as oxidative damage of mitochondria, that results in reduction in FAO. The genes related to fatty acid metabolism along with their key transcriptional regulator complex (PPAR α /PGC-1 α) were seen to decrease significantly in human chronic kidney disease (CKD) samples with higher accumulation of lipids in diseased renal TECs. [52–55]

CD36 binds with context-specific binding partners [like Toll-like receptor 2 (TLR2), TLR4, TLR6 and Na +/K + ATPase] to activate multiple signal pathways. The interaction of CD36 with TLR2, tetraspanin and integrin, stimulates the uptake of ox-LDL and leads to the formation of foam cells during atherosclerosis. Hypertriglyceridemia is also stated as an independent risk factor for development of proteinuria and CKD. [52,56]

Pathophysiological Changes Caused by Lipid Overloading in Kidney:

- Oxidative Stress- Though initially n lipidmediated renal damage is not clear, but oxidative stress plays an important role. Hyperlipidemia causes a rise in the rates of production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). This impairs with the relaxation of endothelium in kidney and leads to rise in plasma Ox-LDL level. In CKD, HDL cholesterol levels along with its antioxidant property in reduced in plasma. Inflammatory mediators such as TNF α and IL-1 β , are commonly ROS activating factors in the kidney and may stimulate oxygen radical formation. Oxidative stress leads to decrease in renal NO production and it causes stimulation of angiotensin II synthesis, which leads to reninangiotensin system (RAS) activation causes lipidinduced renal injury. Angiotensin II causes rise in the expression of TGF-β and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1), that results in glomerular fibrosis. [52,53,56-63]
- Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER) Stress- The stress in ER induces a coordinated unfolded protein response (UPR), that helps the ER to adjust the accumulation of misfolded proteins. As per the recent study, intracellular accumulation of saturated fatty acids and cholesterol leads to ER stress, that result in apoptosis of macrophages. ER stress leads to dysregulation of endogenous sterol response mechanism and along with it activates oxidative stress pathways. [9,24,31,52,61–68]. Inflammatory Stress- The



presence of oxidative and ER stress activates the NF-кВ pathway, which is related with the

inflammatory events in glomerulonephritis, and stimulates the severity of CKD. [52,56].

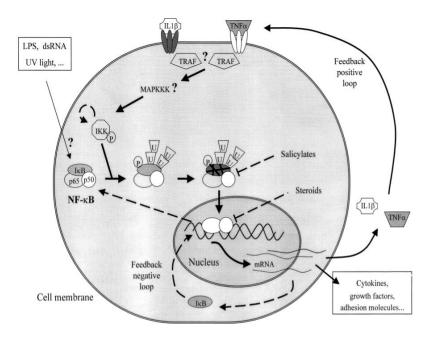


Fig: The pathway of NF-kB activation [69]

Lipids acts as pro-inflammatory mediators. LDL, VLDL, and IDL at a specific concentration, significantly increase in the secretion inflammatory cytokines by MCs, that includes IL-6, PDGF, and TGF-β. As per studies, HDL has the capability to downregulate VCAM-1 and E-selectin on endothelial surfaces and this in turn reduces NF-kB. Thus, low HDL cholesterol levels enhance the chances of inflammatory responses. Absence of Apo-E blocks IL-6 receptor that prevents the risk of severity of proteinuria and renal lipid deposition. This also manages the mesangial cell proliferation that associates with severe hyperlipoproteinemia. This in turn manages pathogenesis of hyperlipidemia-induced glomerular injury. Inflammation also increases both medial and intimal calcifications which stimulates vascular and renal injury. [30,31,52,54,55,70-75]

Renal Fibrosis- Renal fibrosis is the major pathological change in the process of end-stage renal disease and it is the final pathological outcome of various chronic progressive renal diseases. [52,62,76,77]

Other Disorders Associated with Lipid Metabolism: Some other disorders associated with lipid metabolism are diabetes, pregnancy toxemia, obesity, etc.

 Diabetes- Diabetes induced due to disorder of lipid metabolism occurs mainly in 75% of patients with type-2 diabetes mellitus. This is also known

- as diabetic dyslipidemia. It is mixed [atherogenic]hyperlipidemia. It causes the major risk for cardiovascular disease. It mainly occurs due to insulin resistance, and it is followed by moderate increase in the level of LDL-C, and rise in the level of TGs, level of HDL-C lowers. [1,75,78–81]
- Obesity- As we know that dyslipidemia includes rise in plasma levels of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol [LDL-C], very low-density lipoprotein cholesterol [VLDL-C], triglyceride [TG], and reduction in plasma levels of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol [HDL-C]. Thus, this is a confirmed hallmark for obesity cardiovascular diseases (CVD), that imposes serious risks to the future of human health. Hence, the molecular metabolism dyslipidemia, is associated with the morbidity and obesity mortality of and [7,15,32,43,61,62,75,82–84]
- Pregnancy toxemia- As per the recent studies conducted, there is an underlying mechanisms of lipid metabolism disorder in the livers that leads to pregnancy toxemia [PT]. Any disruption associated with lipid metabolism might be a reason for the pathogenesis of pregnancy toxemia. [85–89]

DISCUSSION:



Lipids thus plays some vital roles in maintaining the body balance in a living organism. Lipids thus are compounds that are water insoluble molecules and transported in a protein capsule or commonly known as lipoprotein. The density of the lipid is determined by the size of the lipoprotein. The core of the lipoprotein consists of cholesteryl esters, commonly known as triglycerides and the outer polar layer is consisting of apolipoproteins, free cholesterols, and phospholipids. Lipid metabolism thus can be described as the synthesis and degradation of lipids in cells, involving the breakdown or storage of fats for energy. It occurs in adipocytes and liver and in mammary gland during lactation. Lipid metabolism pathway is very closely related and connected to carbohydrate metabolism pathway. Lipolysis occurs to form triglycerides, which breaksdown into glycerol and fatty acids by the action of LPL. This glycerol produced is taken up by the glycolysis pathway to convert glucose into pyruvate molecules which is then converted into acetyl CoA. Fatty acids on the other side undergoes β -oxidation to yield acetyl CoA. Each round of β-oxidation eliminates two carbons from the fatty acid chain to yield acetyl CoA. These acetyl CoA are oxidized in the citric acid cycle to yield ATP via Electron Transport System. On the other hand, from β-fatty acid oxidation, 1NADH and 1FADH2 is obtained per round.

Fats yield more energy per unit mass as compared to carbohydrates. When acetyl CoA is produced in excessive amount, it is pushed to create ketone bodies. During glucose starvation, ketone bodies are used for excess source of energy for brain. Ketone bodies are acidic in nature, which when produced in excess amount, disturbs the buffering capacity of blood plasma, resulting in metabolic acidosis, which is also known as ketoacidosis, which can lead to coma and death. [1,2]

CONCLUSION:

From the above discussed disorders of lipid metabolism, we can draw a line that, lipid metabolism is a very vital process in a living body. It is such a function whose little disruption might lead to severe damages. These damages can sometimes be reversed via various medications and therapies, but sometimes these disorders are irreversible and might lead to permanent damage in body.

Conflict of interest statement

We declare that we have no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

The authors acknowledge to the Department of Pharmaceutical Technology, NSHM KNOWLEDGE

CAMPUS, KOLKATA-GROUP OF INSTITUTIONS, Kolkata, India for providing necessary infrastructure and help. The author also thankful to Dr, Sandipan Dasgupta and Dr, Subhasis maity for Necessary Support.

REFERENCES:

- 1. Marais AD. Normal and abnormal lipid and lipoprotein metabolism. 27(3):118–22, (2009).
- Marais AD, Solomon GAE, Blom DJ.
 Dysbetalipoproteinaemia: A mixed hyperlipidaemia of remnant lipoproteins due to mutations in apolipoprotein e. Crit Rev Clin Lab Sci. 51(1):46–62, (2014).
- 3. Edwards MJ, Wenstrup RJ, Byers PH, Cohn DH, Wallis A, Starman BJ, et al. 18. A. I. Caplan. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 1(February):415, (1992).
- Berge KE, Tian H, Graf GA, Yu L, Grishin N V., Schultz J, et al. Accumulation of dietary cholesterol in sitosterolemia caused by mutations in adjacent ABC transporters. Science (80-). 290(5497):1771–5(2000).
- 5. Brown MS, Goldstein JL. A receptor-mediated pathway for cholesterol homeostasis. Science (80-). 232(4746):34–47, (1986).
- Rhee Y, Paik MJ, Kim KR, Ko YG, Kang ES, Cha BS, et al. Plasma free fatty acid level patterns according to cardiovascular risk status in postmenopausal women. Clin Chim Acta. 392(1– 2):11–6, (2008).
- Martínez-Quintana E, Rodríguez-Hernández JL, Rodríguez-González F, Riaño-Ruiz M, Fraguela-Medina C, Girolimetti A, et al. Cardiovascular risk factors and arterial thrombotic events in congenital heart disease patients. Int J Clin Pract. 73(9):1–8,(2019).
- 8. Ooi EMM, Watts GF, Ng TWK, Barrett PHR. Effect of dietary fatty acids on human lipoprotein metabolism: A comprehensive update. Nutrients. 7(6):4416–25, (2015).
- 9. Tsuruya K, Yoshida H, Nagata M, Kitazono T, Iseki K, Iseki C, et al. Impact of the triglycerides to highdensity lipoprotein cholesterol ratio on the incidence and progression of CKD: A longitudinal study in a large Japanese population. Am J Kidney Dis. 66(6):972–83,(2015).
- 10. Cannon CP, de Lemos JA, Rosenson RS, Ballantyne CM, Liu Y, Yazdi D, et al. Getting to an ImprOved Understanding of Low-Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol and Dyslipidemia Management (GOULD): Methods and baseline data of a registry of high cardiovascular risk patients in the United States: GOULD Registry Methods and Baseline Data. Am Heart J. 219:70–7,(2020).



- 11. Su X, Peng D. The exchangeable apolipoproteins in lipid metabolism and obesity. Clin Chim Acta. 503(139):128–35, (2020).
- 12. Koopal C, David Marais A, Visseren FLJ. Familial dysbetalipoproteinemia: An underdiagnosed lipid disorder. Curr Opin Endocrinol Diabetes Obes. 24(2):133–9, (2017).
- 13. Fu Z, Chen CT, Cagnone G, Heckel E, Sun Y, Cakir B, et al. Dyslipidemia in retinal metabolic disorders. EMBO Mol Med. 11(10):1–15, (2019).
- 14. Wierzbicki AS, Reynolds TM. Genetic risk scores in lipid disorders. Curr Opin Cardiol. 34(4):406–12, (2019).
- 15. Borja MS, Ng KF, Irwin A, Hong J, Wu X, Isquith D, et al. HDL-apolipoprotein A-I exchange is independently associated with cholesterol efflux capacity. J Lipid Res. 56(10):2002–9,(2015).
- 16. Ryckman AE, Brockhausen I, Walia JS. Metabolism of glycosphingolipids and their role in the pathophysiology of lysosomal storage disorders. Int J Mol Sci. 21(18):1–31,(2020).
- 17. Okada S. Lysosomal storage disease. Nippon rinsho Japanese J Clin Med. 53(12):2911-4, (1995).
- 18. Grabowski GA. Phenotype, diagnosis, and treatment of Gaucher's disease. Lancet. 372(9645):1263–71, (2008).
- 19. Allewelt H, Taskindoust M, Troy J, Page K, Wood S, Parikh S, et al. Long-Term Functional Outcomes after Hematopoietic Stem Cell Transplant for Early Infantile Krabbe Disease. Biol Blood Marrow Transplant [Internet]. 24(11):2233–8, (2018).
- 20. Blumenreich S, Barav OB, Jenkins BJ, Futerman AH. Lysosomal storage disorders shed light on lysosomal dysfunction in Parkinson's disease. Int J Mol Sci. 21(14):1–12,(2020).
- 21. Migdalska-Richards A, Schapira AHV. The relationship between glucocerebrosidase mutations and Parkinson disease. J Neurochem. 139:77–90, (2016).
- 22. Breiden B, Sandhoff K. Mechanism of secondary ganglioside and lipid accumulation in lysosomal disease. Int J Mol Sci. 21(7), (2020).
- 23. Michael R. Bronsert, William G. Henderson, Robert Valuck, Patrick Hosokawa and KH. 基因的改变 NIH Public Access. Bone. 23(1):1–7, (2008).
- 24. Vaziri ND. Disorders of lipid metabolism in nephrotic syndrome: mechanisms and consequences. Kidney Int. 90(1):41–52, (2016).
- 25. Stenvinkel P, Berglund L, Ericsson S, Alvestrand A, Angelin B, Eriksson M. Low-density lipoprotein metabolism and its association to plasma lipoprotein(a) in the nephrotic syndrome. Eur J Clin Invest. 1997;27(2):169–77, (2016).

- 26. Davies RW, Staprans I, Hutchison FN, Kaysen GA. Proteinuria, not altered albumin metabolism, affects hyperlipidemia in the nephrotic rat. J Clin Invest. 86(2):600–5, (1990).
- 27. De Sain-Van Der Velden MG, Kaysen GA, Barrett HA, Stellaard F, Gadellaa MM, Voorbij HA, et al. Increased VLDL in nephrotic patients results from a decreased catabolism while increased LDL results from increased synthesis. Kidney Int. 53(4):994–1001, (1998).
- 28. Tomiyama-Hanayama M, Rakugi H, Kohara M, Mima T, Adachi Y, Ohishi M, et al. Effect of interleukin-6 receptor blockage on renal injury in apolipoprotein E-deficient mice. Am J Physiol Ren Physiol. 297(3):679–85, (2009).
- 29. Vaziri ND, Liang K. Up-regulation of acylcoenzyme A: cholesterol acyltransferase (ACAT) in nephrotic syndrome. Kidney Int. 61(5):1769–75, (2002).
- 30. Iwao Y, Nakajou K, Nagai R, Kitamura K, Anraku M, Maruyama T, et al. CD36 is one of important receptors promoting renal tubular injury by advanced oxidation protein products. Am J Physiol Ren Physiol. 295(6), (2008).
- 31. Cao W, Xu J, Zhou ZM, Wang GB, Hou FF, Nie J. Advanced oxidation protein products activate intrarenal renin-angiotensin system via a CD36-mediated, redox-dependent pathway. Antioxidants Redox Signal. 18(1):19–35, (2013).
- 32. Zheng XY, Yu BL, Xie YF, Zhao SP, Wu CL. Apolipoprotein A5 regulates intracellular triglyceride metabolism in adipocytes. Mol Med Rep. 16(5):6771–9, (2017).
- 33. Vaziri ND, Liang KH. Hepatic HMG-CoA reductase gene expression during the course of puromycin-induced nephrosis. Kidney Int. 48(6):1979–85, (1995).
- 34. Zhi HH, Reardon CA, Mazzone T. Endogenous ApoE expression modulates adipocyte triglyceride content and turnover. Diabetes. 55(12):3394–402, (2006).
- 35. Murdoch SJ, Breckenridge WC. Effect of lipid transfer proteins on lipoprotein lipase induced transformation of VLDL and HDL. Biochim Biophys Acta Lipids Lipid Metab. 1303(3):222–32, (1996).
- 36. Gary PH. JBM. SCT et al. The New England Journal of Medicine Downloaded from nejm.org on April 1, 2015. For personal use only. No other uses without permission. Copyright © 1990 Massachusetts Medical Society. All rights reserved. New English J Med. 323(16):1120–3, (1990).
- 37. Berliner JA, Territo MC, Sevanian A, Ramin S, Jeong Ai Kim, Bamshad B, et al. Minimally modified low density lipoprotein stimulates



- monocyte endothelial interactions. J Clin Invest. 85(4):1260–6, (1990).
- 38. Vaziri ND. HDL abnormalities in nephrotic syndrome and chronic kidney disease. Nat Rev Nephrol. 12(1):37–47, (2016).
- 39. Vaziri ND, Moradi H, Pahl M V., Fogelman AM, Navab M. In vitro stimulation of HDL anti-inflammatory activity and inhibition of LDL pro-inflammatory activity in the plasma of patients with end-stage renal disease by an apoA-1 mimetic peptide. Kidney Int. 76(4):437–44, (2009).
- 40. Potter B, Schrager S, Dalby J, Torell E, Hampton A. Menopause. Prim Care Clin Off Pract. 45(4):625–41, (2018).
- 41. Landgren BM, Collins A, Csemiczky G, Burger HG, Baksheev L, Robertson DM. Menopause transition: Annual changes in serum hormonal patterns over the menstrual cycle in women during a nine-year period prior to menopause. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 89(6):2763–9, (2004).
- 42. Cervellati C, Bergamini CM. Oxidative damage and the pathogenesis of menopause related disturbances and diseases. Clin Chem Lab Med. 54(5):739–53, (2016).
- 43. Sutton-Tyrrell K, Wildman RP, Matthews KA, Chae C, Lasley BL, Brockwell S, et al. Sex hormone-binding globulin and the free androgen index are related to cardiovascular risk factors in multiethnic premenopausal and perimenopausal women enrolled in the study of women across the nation (SWAN). Circulation. 111(10):1242–9, (2005).
- 44. Perry A, Wang X, Goldberg R, Ross R, Jackson L. Androgenic sex steroids contribute to metabolic risk beyond intra-abdominal fat in overweight/obese black and white women. Obesity. 21(8):1618–24, (2013).
- 45. Derby CA, Crawford SL, Pasternak RC, Sowers M, Sternfeld B, Matthews KA. Lipid changes during the menopause transition in relation to age and weight. Am J Epidemiol. 169(11):1352–61, (2009).
- 46. Anagnostis P, Stevenson JC, Crook D, Johnston DG, Godsland IF. Effects of menopause, gender and age on lipids and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol subfractions. Maturitas [Internet]. 81(1):62–8, (2015).
- 47. Zhou JL, Lin SQ, Shen Y, Chen Y, Zhang Y, Chen FL. Serum lipid profile changes during the menopausal transition in Chinese women: A community-based cohort study. Menopause. 17(5):997–1003, (2010).
- 48. Razmjou S, Abdulnour J, Bastard JP, Fellahi S, Doucet É, Brochu M, et al. Body composition, cardiometabolic risk factors, physical activity, and

- inflammatory markers in premenopausal women after a 10-year follow-up: A MONET study. Menopause. 25(1):89–97,(2018).
- 49. Ruiz-Cabello P, Coll-Risco I, Acosta-Manzano P, Borges-Cosic M, Gallo-Vallejo FJ, Aranda P, et al. Influence of the degree of adherence to the Mediterranean diet on the cardiometabolic risk in peri and menopausal women. The Flamenco projects. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis. 27(3):217–24, (2017).
- 50. Hall G, Collins A, Csemiczky G, Landgren BM. Lipoproteins and BMI: A comparison between women during transition to menopause and regularly menstruating healthy women. Maturitas. 41(3):177–85, (2002).
- 51. Nerbrand C, Lidfeldt J, Nyberg P, Scherstén B, Samsioe G. Serum lipids and lipoproteins in relation to endogenous and exogenous female sex steroids and age: The Women's Health in the Lund Area (WHILA) study. Maturitas. 48(2):161–9, (2004).
- 52. Yang X, Okamura DM, Lu X, Chen Y, Moorhead J, Varghese Z, et al. Cd36 in chronic kidney disease: Novel insights and therapeutic opportunities. Nat Rev Nephrol. 13(12):769–81,(2017).
- 53. Arici M, Chana R, Lewington A, Brown J, Brunskill NJ. Stimulation of proximal tubular cell apoptosis by albumin-bound fatty acids mediated by peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-γ. J Am Soc Nephrol. 14(1):17–27,(2003).
- 54. Ruggiero C, Elks CM, Kruger C, Cleland E, Addison K, Noland RC, et al. Albumin-bound fatty acids but not albumin itself alter redox balance in tubular epithelial cells and induce a peroxide-mediated redox-sensitive apoptosis. Am J Physiol Ren Physiol. 306(8):896–907, (2014).
- 55. Lee PH, Chang HY, Tung CW, Hsu YC, Lei CC, Chang HH, et al. Hypertriglyceridemia: An independent risk factor of chronic kidney disease in Taiwanese adults. Am J Med Sci. 338(3):185–9, (2009).
- 56. Brown PM, Kennedy DJ, Morton RE, Febbraio M. CD36/SR-B2-TLR2 dependent pathways enhance Porphyromonas gingivalis mediated atherosclerosis in the LdIr KO mouse model. PLoS One. 10(5):1–27, (2015).
- 57. Stremmel W, Pohl J, Ring A, Herrmann T. A new concept of cellular uptake and intracellular trafficking of long-chain fatty acids. Lipids. 36(9):981–9, (2001).
- 58. Jiang XS, Chen XM, Wan JM, Gui HB, Ruan XZ, Du XG. Autophagy Protects against Palmitic Acid-Induced Apoptosis in Podocytes in vitro. Sci Rep. 7:1–13, (2017).
- 59. Li Y, Qi X, Tong X, Wang S. Thrombospondin 1 activates the macrophage Toll-like receptor 4



- pathway. Cell Mol Immunol. 10(6):506–12, (2013).
- 60. Ruggiero C, Elks CM, Kruger C, Cleland E, Addison K, Noland RC, et al. Albumin-bound fatty acids but not albumin itself alter redox balance in tubular epithelial cells and induce a peroxide-mediated redox-sensitive apoptosis. Am J Physiol Ren Physiol. 306:896–906, (2014).
- 61. Huang W, Febbraio M, Silverstein RL. CD9 tetraspanin interacts with CD36 on the surface of macrophages: A possible regulatory influence on uptake of oxidized low density lipoprotein. PLoS One. 6(12), (2011).
- 62. Cases A, Coll E. Dyslipidemia and the progression of renal disease in chronic renal failure patients. Kidney Int. 68(SUPPL. 99):87–93, (2005).
- 63. Bachar E, Ariav Y, Ketzinel-Gilad M, Cerasi E, Kaiser N, Leibowitz G. Glucose amplifies fatty acid-induced endoplasmic reticulum stress in pancreatic β-cells via activation of mTORC1. PLoS One. 4(3), (2009).
- 64. Ron D, Walter P. Signal integration in the endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 8(7):519–29, (2007).
- 65. Ruan XZ, Varghese Z, Powis SH, Moorhead JF. Human mesangial cells express inducible macrophage scavenger receptor. Kidney Int. 56(2):440–51, (1999).
- 66. Kovacs WJ, Tape KN, Shackelford JE, Wikander TM, Richards MJ, Fliesler SJ, et al. Peroxisome deficiency causes a complex phenotype because of hepatic SREBP/insig dysregulation associated with endoplasmic reticulum stress. J Biol Chem. 284(11):7232–45, (2009).
- 67. Ashby DT, Rye KA, Clay MA, Vadas MA, Gamble JR, Barter PJ. Factors influencing the ability of HDL to inhibit expression of vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 in endothelial cells. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 18(9):1450–5, (1998).
- 68. Mogarekar MR, Kulkarni SK. Small Dense Low Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol, Paraoxonase 1 and Lipid Profile in Postmenopausal Women: Quality or Quantity? Arch Med Res. 46(7):534–8, (2015).
- 69. Alcorco H. Transcription factor- 2 B (NF- 2 B) and renal disease ´. 59:415–24, (2001).
- 70. Cheng R, Ding L, He X, Takahashi Y, Ma JX. Interaction of PPARa with the canonic wnt pathway in the regulation of renal fibrosis. Diabetes. 65(12):3730–43, (2016).
- 71. Baranova IN, Vishnyakova TG, Bocharov A V., Kurlander R, Chen Z, Kimelman ML, et al. Serum amyloid A binding to CLA-1 (CD36 and LIMPII Analogous-1) mediates serum amyloid A protein-

- induced activation of ERK1/2 and p38 mitogenactivated protein kinases. J Biol Chem. 280(9):8031–40, (2005).
- 72. Hua W, Huang HZ, Tan LT, Wan JM, Gui HB, Zhao L, et al. CD36 mediated fatty acid-induced podocyte apoptosis via oxidative stress. PLoS One. 10(5):1–14, (2015).
- 73. Okamura DM, Pennathur S, Pasichnyk K, López-Guisa JM, Collins S, Febbraio M, et al. CD36 regulates oxidative stress and inflammation in hypercholesterolemic CKD. J Am Soc Nephrol. 20(3):495–505, (2009).
- 74. Kahn CR, Wang G, Lee KY. Altered adipose tissue and adipocyte function in the pathogenesis of metabolic syndrome. J Clin Invest. 129(10):3990–4000, (2019).
- 75. Chalmers L, Kaskel FJ, Bamgbola O. The Role of Obesity and Its Bioclinical Correlates in the Progression of Chronic Kidney Disease. Adv Chronic Kidney Dis. 13(4):352–64, (2006).
- 76. Coritsidis G, Rifici V, Gupta S, Rie J, Shan Z, Neugarten J, et al. Preferential binding of oxidized LDL to rat glomeruli in vivo and cultured mesangial cells in vitro. Kidney Int. 39(5):858–66, (1991).
- 77. Dai C, Stolz DB, Kiss LP, Monga SP, Holzman LB, Liu Y. Wnt/β-catenin signaling promotes podocyte dysfunction and albuminuria. J Am Soc Nephrol. 20(9):1997–2008, (2009).
- 78. Athyros VG, Doumas M, Imprialos KP, Stavropoulos K, Georgianou E, Katsimardou A, et al. Diabetes and lipid metabolism. Hormones. 17(1):61–7, (2018).
- 79. Ko SH, Kim HS. Menopause-associated lipid metabolic disorders and foods beneficial for postmenopausal women. Nutrients. 12(1), (2020)
- 80. Bjornstad P, Eckel RH. Pathogenesis of Lipid Disorders in Insulin Resistance: a Brief Review. Curr Diab Rep. 18(12), (2018).
- 81. Eid S, Sas KM, Abcouwer SF, Feldman EL, Gardner TW, Pennathur S, et al. New insights into the mechanisms of diabetic complications: role of lipids and lipid metabolism. Diabetologia. 62(9):1539–49, (2019).
- 82. Jørgensen AB, Frikke-Schmidt R, Nordestgaard BG, Tybjærg-Hansen A. Loss-of-Function Mutations in APOC3 and Risk of Ischemic Vascular Disease . N Engl J Med.371(1):32–41, (2014).
- 83. Ress C, Moschen AR, Sausgruber N, Tschoner A, Graziadei I, Weiss H, et al. The role of apolipoprotein A5 in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. Gut. 60(7):985–91, (2011).
- 84. Yamamoto K, Shimizu N, Obi S, Kumagaya S, Taketani Y, Kamiya A, et al. Involvement of cell





- surface ATP synthase in flow-induced ATP release by vascular endothelial cells. Am J Physiol - Hear Circ Physiol. 293(3), (2007).
- 85. Xue YF, Guo CZ, Hu F, Sun DM, Liu JH, Mao SY. Molecular mechanisms of lipid metabolism disorder in livers of ewes with pregnancy toxemia. Animal. 13(5):992–9, (2019).
- 86. Al-Qudah KM. Oxidant and antioxidant profile of hyperketonemic ewes affected by pregnancy toxemia. Vet Clin Pathol. 40(1):60–5, (2011).
- 87. Marteniuk J V., Herdt TH. Pregnancy toxemia and ketosis of ewes and does. Vet Clin North Am Food Anim Pract. 4(2):307–15, (1988).
- 88. Rook JS. Pregnancy toxemia of ewes, does, and beef cows. Vet Clin North Am Food Anim Pract . 16(2):293–317, (2000).
- 89. Cal-Pereyra L, Benech A, González-Montaña JR, Acosta-Dibarrat J, Da Silva S, Martín A. Changes in the metabolic profile of pregnant ewes to an acute feed restriction in late gestation. N Z Vet J. 63(3):141–6, (2015).