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Early pathways, biomarkers and four distinct molecular subclasses of preeclampsia: The intersection of clinical, pathological and high dimensional biology studies

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## Early pathways, biomarkers and four distinct molecular subclasses of preeclampsia: the intersection of clinical, pathological and high dimensional biology studies

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#### 32 ABSTRACT

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34 Preeclampsia is a syndromic disease of the mother, fetus, and placenta. The main limitation in 35 early and accurate diagnosis of preeclampsia is rooted in the heterogeneity of this syndrome as reflected by diverse molecular pathways, symptoms and clinical outcomes. Gaps in our knowledge 36 37 preclude successful early diagnosis, personalized treatment and prevention. The advent of "omics" 38 technologies and systems biology approaches enable addressing this problem by identifying the 39 molecular pathways associated with the underlying mechanisms and clinical phenotypes of 40 preeclampsia. Here, we provide a brief overview on how the field has progressed, focusing on 41 studies utilizing state-of-the-art transcriptomics and proteomics methods. Moreover, we 42 summarize our systems biology studies involving maternal blood proteomics and placental 43 transcriptomics, which identified early maternal and placental disease pathways, and showed that 44 their interaction influences the clinical presentation of preeclampsia. We also present an analysis 45 of maternal blood proteomics data which revealed distinct molecular subclasses of preeclampsia 46 and their molecular mechanisms. Maternal and placental disease pathways behind these subclasses 47 are similar to those recently reported in studies on the placental transcriptome. These findings may 48 promote the development of novel diagnostic tools for the distinct subtypes of preeclampsia 49 syndrome, enabling early detection and personalized follow-up and tailored care of patients.

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51 Keywords: class discovery; Great Obstetrical Syndromes; high dimensional biology; liquid

52 biopsy; "omics" sciences; personalized medicine; prenatal diagnosis

53

#### 54 The preeclampsia syndrome

55 Preeclampsia carries dire consequences for the mother and fetus, hence one of the main goals of prenatal follow-up is the early detection of the development of this syndrome. Its onset is 56 57 multifactorial and can occur at various gestational ages and can display different grades of severity 58 [1–6]. The current classification is based on the onset and the severity of symptoms; however, it 59 does not accurately reflect the underlying pathophysiological processes. Based on this 60 classification, we distinguish early-onset (<34 weeks) and late-onset ( $\geq34$  weeks), or preterm (<3761 weeks) and term ( $\geq$ 37 weeks) preeclampsia [2]. Early-onset or preterm preeclampsia is more often 62 complicated by fetal growth restriction (FGR) and more severe symptoms compared to late-onset 63 or term preeclampsia [1,2,4,5].

64 In preterm preeclampsia, the extravillous trophoblast dysfunction and consequent impairment 65 of spiral artery remodeling has a paramount importance in its pathogenesis. Decreased uteroplacental perfusion and ischemic stress lead to an imbalance in angiogenic and antiangiogenic factors, resulting 66 67 in endothelial damage, systemic inflammation and multiorgan failure [3,7–20]. In term preeclampsia, the effect of various chronic stressors such as obesity, diabetes, kidney, metabolic or autoimmune 68 69 diseases is more dominant [21-30] and maternal vascular and endothelial response may also be 70 more sensitive to placental factors [31,32]. Genetic factors related to angiogenesis and immune 71 interactions between the mother and the fetus are also key for the susceptibility to preeclampsia [33-72 41]. Due to these pathophysiological differences, early-onset or preterm preeclampsia can be more 73 accurately predicted in the first trimester by a combination of maternal characteristics, biophysical and 74 biochemical markers compared to late-onset preeclampsia [42]. Improved prediction can likely be 75 achieved if the heterogeneous pathophysiological pathways and their specific biomarkers are 76 identified.

Although considerable progress has been made in the understanding of preeclampsia using clinical epidemiology, astute observations by clinicians, and hypothesis-driven research, the advent of hypothesis-free research and post-genomic tools (also known as high dimensional biology or "omics" sciences) [43] enabled us to further tackle the complexity of the disease pathways and the heterogeneity of this severe syndrome.

82

#### 83 High dimensional biology studies in preeclampsia

84 High-throughput "omics" techniques have revolutionized systems biology approaches to diseases from 85 the molecular to the clinical levels. With current automation, "omics" properties of up to tens of 86 thousands of samples can be stacked, and studies are not limited to only the set of markers that are 87 known to be clinically relevant but novel disease biomarkers can be discovered. The evaluation of 88 these data can be performed using multidimensional statistical and machine learning methods, which 89 can work accurately and provide a proper picture of the studied disease only using a large number of 90 samples and properly annotated databases. Another challenge for this field is the need for a universal 91 platform that allows the evaluation of different "omics" data. Upon all these conditions present, these 92 hypothesis-free examination methods allow us to find molecular patterns and to learn about 93 pathological changes in their complexity at the systemic level. This way our findings will not be limited 94 and biased by our presumptions or hypotheses [44].

95 Irrespective of the type of samples involved (e.g. placenta, blood) or type of molecular profiling 96 (global, single-cell, cell-free, etc.), high-throughput experiments in preeclampsia can be broadly 97 grouped in three types of applications [45]. The first application is called *class comparison*. It aims at 98 comparing molecular profiles between cases with clinically defined phenotypes (e.g. all, early-onset 99 or late-onset preeclampsia cases) versus controls. This method enables inferring pathways and

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100 biological processes perturbated in cases that are associated with the observed phenotypes and possibly 101 also identifying therapeutic targets. The second type of application is *class prediction*. This uses 102 discriminant analysis and machine learning methods to develop disease prediction models. The focus 103 is on maximizing the prediction accuracy and parsimony rather than interpretation of revealed 104 differences in molecular profiles. Unsurprisingly, the syndromic nature of preeclampsia, which is 105 manifested by high heterogeneity in expression profiles, has brought challenges to both class-106 comparison and class-prediction applications, and hence the need for *class discovery*. The goal of this 107 last type of application is to uncover disease subtypes using data-driven clustering of patient samples 108 without assuming a particular number and pathology of disease subtypes. This approach is completely 109 hypothesis-free and unbiased towards the diagnostic criteria [44], which is key since the categorization 110 of patients based on the onset of clinical symptoms into a preset of two groups (i.e. early-onset vs late-111 onset) are prone to bias at several levels.

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#### 113 Placental transcriptomics in preeclampsia

The placenta, which represents inherent fetal characteristics and response to the intrauterine environment, has a central role in the pathophysiology of preeclampsia [3,4]. Therefore, it is not surprising that genome-wide profiling of the human placental transcriptome became the first unbiased approach in the study of normal maternal–placental–fetal physiology and the pathology in preeclampsia.

A recent comprehensive review [46] summarized human placental transcriptome studies from the cellular to tissue levels while addressing important aspects of study design in order to promote data sharing and meta-analyses. Yong and Chan summarized 179 studies since 2004 into four themes, with one focusing on pregnancy complications including preeclampsia.

123 Results provided by these transcriptomics studies not only improved our understanding of 124 healthy placental development, but placenta-derived biomarkers secreted into the maternal 125 circulation in preeclampsia (e.g. sFLT1, sEng) were discovered [11,12,47], and the biological 126 processes and molecular pathways associated with clinical preeclampsia phenotypes were 127 detected, providing clues into the underlying mechanisms of placental pathologies [46]. Due to 128 limitations in placental sample collection and the late clinical onset of preeclampsia symptoms, 129 most of these studies targeted the third trimester placental transcriptome, in which the molecular 130 patterns representative of oxidative stress and inflammatory pathways were frequently seen. Of 131 importance, one study [48] of first trimester placental tissues, left over from chorionic villus 132 sampling, assessed the placental transcriptome of 4 women who later developed preeclampsia (2 133 preterm and 2 term) and 8 healthy controls. Despite the low sample size, the study showed that the 134 dysregulation of genes involved in cell motility, immune modulation, and inflammation was 135 already present at this early stage of gestation, however, gene dysregulation characteristic of 136 hypoxia or ischemia were not found.

137 Another limitation of most studies was that they did or could not address the cellular 138 heterogeneity of the placenta. This is an extremely heterogeneous organ with cell types of various 139 origins and differing gene expression profiles [49,50]. Therefore, global or targeted expression 140 studies using bulk tissues could not adequately dissect the pathological mechanisms, missing cell-141 level information and cellular interactions within this organ. As discussed later, a great 142 advancement came with the rise of single cell transcriptomics studies, which solved this bottleneck 143 and became prominent for the study of placental gene expression in healthy and diseased states 144 [49,50].

# 146 Distinct placental gene modules are linked to fetal or maternal diseases in preterm 147 preeclampsia

148 In one of the first "class comparison" microarray studies on third trimester placentas, we found 149 that the transcriptome of women with severe preterm preeclampsia associated with the clinical presentation of "haemolysis, elevated liver enzymes, low platelet count" (HELLP) syndrome is 150 151 similar to those women with preterm preeclampsia without HELLP syndrome [51]. Differentially 152 expressed (DE) genes in preterm preeclampsia compared to controls were similar to those 153 previously reported in this preeclampsia subtype [52-55], and many of the DE genes encoded 154 proteins which had earlier been proposed as biomarkers for preeclampsia (e.g. FLT1, LEP, 155 PAPPA2). Although similar biological processes, cellular compartments and signaling pathways 156 were enriched in preterm preeclampsia, with or without the presence of HELLP syndrome, there 157 was more engagement of the cytokine-cytokine receptor pathway in cases associated with HELLP 158 syndrome, reflecting a more pronounced systemic maternal inflammatory response.

159 A further systems biology analysis of this dataset identified major gene co-expression 160 network modules and their hub transcription regulatory genes in the third trimester placenta of 161 women with preterm preeclampsia [56]. The largest module contained genes involved in fetal 162 growth (CSH1, HSD11B2), and hub transcription regulatory genes (ESRRG, POU5F1, ZNF554) 163 implicated in the regulation of trophoblast metabolism, stemness, differentiation and invasion 164 [57,58]. Genes in the second largest module were associated with maternal blood pressure (e.g. 165 FLT1), and their hub transcription regulatory genes (BCL6, BHLHE40, ARNT2) were implicated 166 in the hypoxia response. In vitro functional experiments demonstrated that the trophoblastic 167 overexpression of transcription factors BCL6 or ARNT2 sensitizes the trophoblast to hypoxia and 168 leads to FLT1 overexpression upon hypoxic-ischemic stress. The expression of the "blood pressure 169 module" biomarker genes was positively associated with the maternal vascular malperfusion score 170 of the placenta, and the amounts of their secreted protein products (sFlt-1, sEng, leptin) started to 171 increase in the maternal circulation after 12 weeks of gestation. These observations fit the overall 172 concept that maternal vascular malperfusion in the first trimester leads to subsequent placental 173 oxidative stress, increased placental expression of *FLT1* and an anti-angiogenic state starting from 174 late first, early second trimester [7,13,59]. Of interest, a set of transcription regulatory genes (e.g. 175 BCL6, BHLHE40, JUNB) were DE in the placenta in preeclampsia in the opposite way as during 176 villous trophoblast differentiation as revealed by our subsequent microarray study [60]. Five of 177 these transcription regulatory genes are central members of the "blood pressure module", 178 suggesting links between disorders of trophoblast differentiation, maternal vascular malperfusion, 179 placental oxidative stress, an anti-angiogenic state and preterm preeclampsia.

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#### 181 Uncovering the molecular subclasses of preeclampsia by placental transcriptomics

182 Although the initial studies of the placental transcriptome accurately characterized the severe clinical 183 subtype of preterm preeclampsia, the heterogeneity of cases and the underlying molecular subclasses 184 were unknown until 2015. This hiatus was filled first by the class discovery studies on the placental 185 transcriptome by Leavey et al. [61.62]. The authors conducted unsupervised analyses of placental transcriptomes to provide insights into the molecular taxonomy of preeclampsia. They identified 186 187 five clusters among all cases and controls in the larger study: 1) the first included largely patients 188 who delivered at term; 2) the second cluster was composed predominantly of patients with preterm 189 preeclampsia; 3) the third cluster included a subset of patients with preeclampsia and other 190 complications of pregnancy; 4) the fourth cluster consisted mostly of patients with spontaneous 191 preterm delivery; and 5) the fifth cluster included women with placental chromosomal

abnormalities with and without preeclampsia, due to the confined placental mosaicisms present inthis group also detected by other studies [63,64].

194 The three major subclasses of preeclampsia identified in these studies are presented in 195 Figure 1: 1) "canonical / placental preeclampsia": The clinical characteristics consisted of preterm preeclampsia, with abnormal Doppler velocimetry (several vessels), and birthweight <50<sup>th</sup> centile, 196 and included some patients with HELLP syndrome. Gene expression for sFlt-1 and endoglin was 197 198 particularly high for this group of patients. This molecular phenotype was mostly characterized 199 previously by the class comparison studies including ours [51]; 2) "maternal preeclampsia": These 200 represented a group of patients with preeclampsia mostly at term or near-term delivery with 201 appropriate-for-gestational age (AGA) neonate and with known maternal risk factors, including nulliparity or prior hypertensive pregnancy. The placentas typically did not have any maternal 202 203 vascular lesions; and 3) "immunological preeclampsia": This group consisted of patients 204 delivering between 30-37 weeks of gestation, low placental weights, small-for-gestational (SGA) 205 age neonates, and a transcriptome enriched by the expression of genes involved in the immune 206 response and poor maternal-fetal tolerance to the fetoplacental unit (e.g. CXCL-10).

207 The same authors reported subsequently that a high degree of concordance can be found 208 between the results of gene expression clustering of the placentas and the histopathologic features 209 of this fetal organ [65]. "Placental preeclampsia" was associated with maternal vascular lesions 210 of underperfusion, while "immunological preeclampsia" was characterized by chronic 211 inflammatory lesions of the placenta, intervillous thrombi, and maternal vascular lesions of 212 malperfusion. In contrast, "maternal preeclampsia" typically had minimal placental histologic 213 findings. In a subsequent study [66], "immunological preeclampsia" was associated with an 214 enrichment in monocytes (positive for CD68) and neutrophils (positive for myeloperoxidase) in 215 the intervillous space while "canonical preeclampsia" had a significantly less number of these 216 cells.

217 It is important to note that the gene expression profiles of placentas with "placental 218 preeclampsia" and "immunological preeclampsia" have also been observed in FGR without 219 preeclampsia [67], indicating that the pattern of gene expression in the placenta is not sufficient to 220 define the clinical phenotype. This suggests that placental disease could cause hypertension in a 221 woman only if susceptible, and some women may be resistant to the hypertensive state induced by 222 placental maldevelopment and/or dysfunction. Eventually, the maternal and fetal compartments 223 may have a degree of independence, and preeclampsia could primarily be induced by either of 224 these compartments or by their synergy or poor complementarity. As such, it transpired that the 225 molecular investigations of maternal blood, which also reflects changes in the maternal 226 compartment, is critical in depicting the interaction between the fetus and the maternal 227 environment as both placental and maternal molecular factors determine the development of 228 preeclampsia and its clinical phenotype.

229

#### 230 Liquid biopsy of the placenta

Liquid biopsy is a fast-growing area in diagnostics and involves taking samples from body fluids (e.g. serum, plasma, urine) to derive information regarding the functional and molecular status of organs minimally invasively [68]. As such, liquid biopsy has become key for tumor diagnostics by monitoring circulating tumor cells and DNA [69]. Historically, the first attempts to noninvasively detect placental function in maternal blood can be linked to the systematic discovery and characterization of placenta-derived proteins and their investigation as potential biomarkers of placental function, pregnancy complications and fetal genetic disorders [70]. For example, the

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238 quantification of blood hCG, PP13/galectin-13, and PSG1 has become of importance for the 239 detection of pregnancy or pregnancy complications including preeclampsia from maternal blood 240 [71,72]. Since the discovery of cell-free fetal DNA (cffDNA) in the maternal circulation by Lo et 241 al. in 1997 [73], the fast-evolving non-invasive prenatal diagnostics (NIPT) technologies have 242 revolutionized prenatal screening of genetic defects based on the detection of cffDNA in small 243 amounts of maternal blood [74]. Shortly after, the group of Lo et al. also identified circulating 244 placental/fetal RNA (cpRNA) in the maternal circulation [75], and determined the earliest 245 gestational age (4th week) at which these cpRNAs are present in maternal circulation. Their 246 abundance increases with advancing gestation and reach 10-15% of total RNA in maternal 247 circulation [76]. These discoveries have paved the way for the quantification of cpRNAs to non-248 invasively investigate the placental transcriptome and to predict pregnancy complications or 249 monitor high-risk pregnancies without endangering the fetus [77,78]. In addition, various 250 circulating microparticles are released from the syncytiotrophoblast during pregnancy into the 251 maternal circulation, including exosomes, which contain various elements of placental origin, such as proteins, lipids, mRNAs, miRNAs. The molecular signatures of trophoblastic microparticles 252 253 may provide important information about the condition of the placenta while non-placental 254 microparticles including exosomes may reflect maternal health or disease states. In line with these, 255 recent studies identified potential biomarkers of preeclampsia by examining the changes in the 256 type, amount, and content of these exosomes [79–82].

#### 257

#### 258 Maternal blood transcriptomics as a prediction tool for preeclampsia

259 A comprehensive review [77] identified 24 studies between 2003-2014 which measured cpRNA 260 in maternal whole peripheral blood or maternal plasma to predict and/or monitor preeclampsia. Multiple studies on cpRNAs showed congruent findings with placental transcriptomics studies in 261 that many placenta-specific gene transcripts dysregulated in the placenta in preeclampsia were 262 263 found similarly dysregulated in maternal circulation (e.g. CRH, FLT1, ENG upregulated, hPL, 264 PP13 downregulated). Like placental transcriptomic changes in preeclampsia, alterations in 265 maternal blood transcriptome in preeclampsia reflected disturbances with angiogenesis as well as 266 hypoxia and oxidative stress response. There were considerable differences regarding cpRNA 267 expression with the clinical phenotype of preeclampsia, as higher levels of specific cpRNA 268 transcripts were observed in early-onset vs late-onset preeclampsia, and in more severe forms, 269 especially those complicated by HELLP syndrome. This is in line with the larger gene expression 270 changes and increased debris output by the placenta in these clinical forms [77]. In a recent large 271 maternal blood cfRNA profiling study, the later onset of preeclampsia could be predicted in 272 midtrimester with a sensitivity of 75% and a positive predictive value of 32.3% [83]. Of interest, 273 by measuring panels of cpRNAs as early as in the first trimester, considerably good prediction 274 models could be built for preeclampsia. Farina et al. found that the combination of endoglin, FLT1, 275 and TGF<sup>β</sup>1 transcripts had a detection rate of 72.3% at 5% false positive rate (FPR) at 10-14 weeks 276 of gestation [84]. The same group showed that a panel of transcripts including FLT1 had a 277 detection rate of 84% at 5% FPR at 15-20 weeks of gestation [85].

Since 2011, extracellular miRNAs have also received attention as potential biomarkers. Although their role in the pathophysiology of preeclampsia is still unclear, the altered expression of these nucleic acids has been observed. Their advantage over mRNAs is that they are shorter, have fewer species, and thus, more cost-effective in their analysis. In addition, miRNAs are more extracellularly stable, so they can be used as both prognostic tools and therapeutic targets in the future [86]. A recent study not only discovered and verified peripheral miRNAs as preeclampsia biomarkers in midtrimester, but also showed that the placenta contributes the most of the changes
in miRNA pattern in preeclampsia, and that miR-155-5p - which negatively regulates NO synthase
expression – has a central role in the pathogenesis [87].

287 In order to assess the maternal compartment as well and to reveal differences and 288 similarities in the molecular basis of the two major clinical phenotypes at the time of diagnosis, 289 we investigated maternal whole-blood transcriptome in early-onset and late-onset preeclampsia 290 with microarrays [88]. This study uncovered common features of these two phenotypes including 291 the dysregulation of genes involved in host defense (e.g. DEFA4, BPI), tight junctions (EMP1) 292 and liver regeneration (ECT2). While DE genes in women with early-onset preeclampsia were 293 involved in coagulation (SERPINI2), immune regulation (CD24, VSIG4), developmental process 294 (H19) and inflammation (S100A10), those genes DE in late-onset preeclampsia were implicated in 295 innate immunity (LTF, ELANE) and cell-to-cell recognition in the nervous system (CNTNAP3). A 296 follow-up longitudinal transcriptomics study uncovered that mRNA whole blood signature of 297 preeclampsia discovered at the time of diagnosis is also increased earlier in gestation at 22-28 298 weeks [89]. The combination of four genes from this signature, including an imprinted long non-299 protein coding RNA (H19), fibronectin 1 (FN1), tubulin beta-6 class V (TUBB6), and formyl 300 peptide receptor 3 (FPR3), had a sensitivity of 85% and a specificity of 92% for the prediction of 301 early-onset preeclampsia [89].

302 A major advancement in the field was the use of single-cell transcriptomics to dissect the 303 cellular heterogeneity of normal term human placenta and to define individual cell-specific gene 304 signatures [50,90]. This technology also enabled the reconstruction of the differentiation trajectory 305 of normal trophoblast as well as the discovery of new cells in the placenta and the identification 306 of cell type-specific molecular changes in the placenta of patients with preeclampsia. Of interest, 307 the single-cell transcriptomics signature of extravillous trophoblasts was found to be increased in 308 maternal blood of patients with early-onset preeclampsia compared to normal pregnant women at 309 the time of disease [90]. Studies from our group suggested that increased RNA expression with 310 early-onset preeclampsia is not limited to the extravillous trophoblasts, but the transcriptomics 311 signatures of other placental cell types are also heightened. The rise in circulating RNA expression 312 of placental signatures was identified at the time of disease as well as at earlier stages of gestation 313 [89] suggesting, that the analysis of both maternal plasma cell-free and cellular RNA can be used 314 to identify patients at risk to develop early-onset preeclampsia. The similarity of cpRNA- and 315 cellular RNA-based findings was demonstrated not only when studying preeclampsia, but also 316 across independent studies assessing changes with gestational age in normal pregnancies [91,92].

317

#### 318 Maternal blood proteomics in preeclampsia

319 The study of proteomics yields essential molecular information regarding maternal and fetal 320 health/disease states. A recent review [93] summarized 69 unbiased quantitative proteomics class 321 comparison studies on preeclampsia since 2004 and proteins found to be DE in this syndrome, also 322 taking into account of the continuous technical evolution to reach unified outcomes. Most of the 323 studies targeted maternal serum/plasma, placenta, or urine proteomics, making it the largest 324 compilation of quantitative proteomics data in preeclampsia. The total number of DE proteins in 325 placenta, serum/plasma and urine were 912, 559 and, 132, respectively. After considering only 326 those proteins which were described by more independent studies with inter-study agreement in 327 control/preeclamptic ratio of protein abundance, they found a cluster of 18, 29 and 16 proteins 328 consistently DE in preeclampsia in the placenta, serum/plasma and urine, respectively.

329 Of interest, among the 18 proteins with a robust up- or down-regulation in the placenta in 330 preeclampsia at the time of the disease across 23 studies, Flt1 and PAPPA2 were also found, 331 validating many findings of our group and others both at the RNA and protein levels, and 332 underlining the up-regulation of the "blood pressure gene module" in the placenta in preeclampsia. 333 Among the 29 proteins with a robust dysregulation in the serum/plasma in preeclampsia 334 throughout gestation, sEng was consistently found to be up-regulated and PIGF to be down-335 regulated, proving the systemic anti-angiogenic state in preeclampsia with proteomics techniques. 336 Moreover, 14 proteins in the maternal circulation, including sEng, PIGF, MMP7 and many 337 immune-related proteins, were found to have the same directional change in the summarized 338 studies as in our omics and ELISA studies, validating our findings discussed in the following 339 sections.

340

#### **341** First trimester proteomics profile of preterm and term preeclampsia

342 Initially, we performed a class comparison analysis with two-dimensional difference gel 343 electrophoresis (2D-DIGE) proteomics of first trimester maternal blood which identified novel 344 early maternal pathways of preeclampsia [56]. From the 26 proteins, 12 were DE in women who 345 developed preterm preeclampsia, 7 were DE in women who developed term preeclampsia, and 7 346 were DE in both groups. The 19 DE proteins in women with subsequent preterm preeclampsia 347 have a role in immune response, complement and coagulation cascades, lipid transport and 348 metabolism, angiogenesis, blood pressure regulation, and ion transport, suggesting that these 349 maternal pathways are already perturbed in the first trimester, in the clinically still silent phase of 350 preterm preeclampsia [56]. Proteins enriched in term preeclampsia have identified pathways 351 similar to those found in early-onset preeclampsia, but the detected changes were smaller in extent.

352 Subsequent studies identified molecular networks linking the 19 DE proteins detected in 353 the maternal circulation in the first trimester with the 1409 DE genes found in the placenta of 354 preterm preeclampsia patients [56], suggesting that the changes in the maternal proteome may 355 have an effect on placental functions and gene expression. Indeed, we could validate these in *silico* 356 findings by *in vitro* experiments, in which primary villous trophoblasts were cultured with first 357 trimester maternal serum. The serum from the preterm preeclampsia group vs the healthy control 358 group induced the up-regulation of many genes in villous trophoblasts, which were also up-359 regulated in the placenta in preterm preeclampsia patients and associated with blood pressure 360 elevation (e.g. LEP, FLT1). Our data pointed to separate maternal and placental disease pathways 361 and their interaction in the development of preeclampsia. Several maternal protein biomarkers we 362 have identified early in gestation were already implicated by other studies in a later disease stage, 363 when their dysregulation is more pronounced yet a limited connection between the maternal circulation and the placenta still exists [94]. This suggests the early activation of maternal disease 364 365 pathways both in term and preterm preeclampsia, upstream of placental dysfunction, probably due to preexisting maternal diseases or perturbed maternal-fetal-placental immune interactions [95-366 367 97].

368

#### 369 Plasma proteomic changes throughout gestation in early-onset and late-onset preeclampsia

To discover additional disease biomarkers and detect the dynamic changes in the maternal

371 proteome throughout pregnancy, two longitudinal case control studies of 1125 plasma proteins via 372 aptamer-based assays were conducted in women who developed early-onset or late-onset

372 aptamer-based assays were conducted in women who developed early-onset of late-onset 373 preeclampsia [98,99]. The best predictors for subsequent development of early-onset preeclampsia

were: 1) high abundance of MMP7 and glycoprotein IIbIIIa complex at 16-22 weeks; and 2) low

375 abundance of PIGF and VEGF-121, and elevated siglec-6 and activin-A at 22-28 weeks. At 22-28 376 weeks, the increased abundance in siglec-6, activin-A, and VEGF-121 differentiated women who 377 subsequently developed early-onset preeclampsia from those who developed late-onset syndrome 378 or had normal pregnancy. In agreement with earlier studies, the sensitivity of risk models was 379 higher for early-onset preeclampsia with placental histology signs of maternal vascular 380 malperfusion than for the entire early-onset preeclampsia group, potentially because these models 381 are sensitive to the pathway of preeclampsia associated with the malperfusion of uteroplacental 382 circulation. Biological processes dysregulated in preeclampsia included : 1) 'cell adhesion' and 383 'response to hypoxia' and seemed specific to early-onset preeclampsia; 2) 'small molecule 384 metabolic process', 'positive regulation of apoptotic process' were specific to late-onset 385 preeclampsia; and 3) 'extracellular matrix organization', 'positive regulation of VEGFR signaling 386 pathway', and 'positive regulation of cell adhesion' were common for both phenotypes of this 387 syndrome [98,99]. As implied from these and other proteomic discovery studies, an anti-388 angiogenic state, though in different extent, reflects the common pathway of preeclampsia in all 389 phenotypes.

390

#### 391 Uncovering the molecular subclasses of preeclampsia by maternal blood proteomics

Maternal blood proteomics class comparison studies are limited in the sense that groups are defined based on symptoms and signs of preeclampsia but not by underlying pathophysiology. In order to fill this gap and investigate molecular subclasses of preeclampsia, we performed two unsupervised class discovery studies by extending our previous maternal blood proteomics investigations [56,98,99].

396 In the first study, cases (n=82) and controls (n=82) were selected from a Hungarian cohort 397 (n=2,545). Blood sampling was performed at 11-14th weeks. Cases included 22 women with 398 subsequent early-onset and 60 women with subsequent late-onset preeclampsia, while controls 399 were selected by matching gestational age at blood draw. Blood samples were analyzed by a mass 400 spectrometry based targeted proteomics approach (MRM, multiple reaction monitoring, Biognosys 401 AG, Switzerland) for 59 protein biomarkers either identified by us [56] (n=25) or retrieved from the 402 literature (n=34), based on their biological plausibility for known disease pathways of preeclampsia in 403 the second half of pregnancy. In addition, current biochemical and biophysical preeclampsia 404 biomarkers were also assessed. In order to identify disease subclasses, consensus clustering was 405 performed, a robust method for discovering clusters [100]. We performed consensus clustering 406 with 1000x resampling using unsupervised k-means clustering to ensure cluster stability and 407 optimal cluster numbers. Consensus matrix contained the probability of that an element pair was 408 included in a common cluster during resampling. Using a subset of proteins showed that the 82 409 patients stably clustered into 4 distinct subclasses based on their proteomics profiles (Figure 2). 410 Cluster 1 contained the most early-onset and SGA cases, a high number of cases with chronic 411 hypertension, the most abnormal Doppler indices, and a protein profile consistent with vascular 412 injury, oxidative stress, an anti-angiogenic status, matching the "placental" subclass. Cluster 2 413 contained a considerable number of early-onset cases, with a high prevalence of maternal metabolic problems (high BMI, chronic hypertension, and diabetes), the highest first trimester 414 415 mean arterial pressure (MAP), and a molecular profile consistent with pro-inflammatory and 416 vascular changes, matching a novel subclass which we coined "metabolic" subclass. Cluster 3 417 were all late-onset cases with maternal metabolic problems (high BMI, chronic hypertension, and diabetes), a high prevalence of previous preeclampsia cases, and a protein profile consistent with 418 419 systemic pro-inflammatory changes, matching the "immunological" subclass. Cluster 4 cases 420 were almost all late-onset, women with the highest percentage of nulliparity and with a protein

profile least different from controls, matching the mildest "*maternal*" subclass (Table 1/Figure
3). Of note, 75% of the tested 59 proteins were validated to be DE by this study, including 76% of
the biomarkers (19/25) we described previously [56]. Although the samples were obtained from
women with two ethnic backgrounds (Caucasian and roma), we did not find significant ethnic
disparity in the different subclasses of preeclampsia.

426 Since 1) our study included the largest patient population among preeclampsia proteomics 427 studies, 2) it had more cases than the first preeclampsia clustering study on the placental 428 transcriptome [61], 3) it included an unbiased selection of all cases from a well-characterized 429 cohort, 4) we used a robust bioinformatics pipeline to identify clusters, and 5) subclass-specific 430 traits reflected clinical phenotypes and previously defined patient clusters, we believe that this 431 study was adequate to identify the four subclasses of preeclampsia. Nevertheless, in order to validate 432 these findings in an ethnically separate population, we reanalyzed our proteomics data on 1125 plasma 433 proteins collected longitudinally throughout pregnancy from 199 pregnant women selected from a 434 longitudinal cohort (Detroit, USA) [98,99]. This analysis supported the existence of 4 435 preeclampsia subclasses throughout pregnancy, with similar molecular profiles and patient 436 phenotypes as discovered by the MRM proteomics study. Moreover, we could refine the molecular 437 subclass profiles and reveal dysregulated molecular pathways by the assessment of longitudinal 438 changes of >1000 proteins.

439

#### 440 **Summary and conclusions**

441 Preeclampsia is a heterogeneous syndrome with multiple subtypes, and can be investigated with 442 "omics" and bioinformatics approaches. Class discovery placental transcriptomics studies earlier revealed 3 molecular subtypes, so-called, "canonical/placental", "immunological", and 443 444 "maternal" preeclampsia. However, these transcriptomic signatures could also be detected in FGR 445 without preeclampsia, suggesting that placental gene expression patterns are not sufficient to 446 define the clinical phenotype. As such, molecular investigations of maternal blood, which also 447 reflects changes in the maternal compartment, may be much more useful in detecting both 448 placental and maternal molecular factors that determine the development of preeclampsia and its 449 clinical phenotypes.

450 Our proteomics investigations of maternal blood either in the first trimester or 451 longitudinally throughout gestation in two ethnic populations both revealed 4 distinct patient 452 clusters in preeclampsia, supporting the existence of the "placental", "immunological" and 453 "maternal" subclasses, and the presence of a novel "metabolic" subclass. It became clear that 454 PIGF, previously used as a gold standard biomarker, is only effective for the prediction of 455 "placental" preeclampsia, the only subclass where the characteristic drop in PIGF levels was observed. In this subgroup preventive aspirin therapy is especially effective [42,101,102]. Another 456 important conclusion is that the molecular subclasses do not determine certain clinical phenotypes, 457 458 which must be the complex interplay of maternal, placental, fetal, and environmental factors. 459 Eventually, our data support the concept on that the maternal and fetal compartments have a degree 460 of independence, and three different disease origins may exist: 1) the placental compartment, 2) 461 the maternal compartment, and 3) the synergy or poor complementarity of these two 462 compartments. Of importance, placental transcriptomics studies have found 3 preeclampsia 463 subclasses at the end of pregnancy, while our studies showed that 4 distinct subclasses and their distinct disease pathways exist in the first trimester. This may be due to that two originating 464 465 subclasses like "placental" and "metabolic" reach a similar end-stage and become indistinguishable 466 viewed from the third trimester placenta. These findings are paramount for our improved understanding of the early pathways of preeclampsia, and may promote the development of novel
diagnostic tools, enabling the early detection and follow-up of patients as well as their tailored
therapies with aspirin or other potential preventive treatments under testing [29,103–106].

470

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487

## 488 Author Contributions:

Conceptualization, NGT, ALT, OE; investigation, LO, GO, SWR, GAA, ASz, SN, PH, ZP;
analysis, NGT, MP, DGy, ASz, ALT, OE; writing—original draft, NGT, MP, DGy, ALT, OE;
writing—review and editing, all authors; visualization, NGT, MP, DGy; project administration,
NGT, OT, ALT, EO; resources and funding acquisition, NGT, OT, ALT, RR.

493

494 **Conflicts of Interest:** No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors except NGT, 495 ALT, ZP and RR, who are inventors of a patent on early biomarkers of preeclampsia. The funders 496 had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the 497 writing of the manuscript; or in the decision to publish the results. RR has contributed to this work 498 as part of his official duties as an employee of the United States Federal Government.

- 499
- 500

### 501 Figure and Table Legends



502

- 503 Figure 1. Molecular subclasses of preeclampsia derived from placental transcriptomics data.
- 504 Major clinical and placental characteristics are depicted. PE, preeclampsia.



#### **Cluster 1** Cluster 2 Cluster 3 Cluster 4

507 508 Figure 2. Consensus matrix of preeclampsia patients. The consensus matrix, represented in a

509 heatmap, shows the probability of different patients with preeclampsia to appear in the same

cluster. The 82 patients stably clustered into four molecular groups. The color spectrum depicted 510

511 on the bar indicates clustering similarity.



- 513 Figure 3. Molecular subclasses of preeclampsia derived from maternal blood proteomics
- **data.** Major clinical and placental characteristics are depicted.

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Patient number	n=29	n=20	n=16	n=17
Early-onset cases	7 (24%)	3 (15%)	0 (0%)	1 (6%)
Late-onset cases	22 (76%)	17 (85%)	16 (100%)	16 (94%)
BW percentile*	79%	89%	100%	86%
SGA cases	9 (31%)	3 (15%)	2 (15%)	3 (18%)
Nulliparity	22 (76%)	13 (65%)	11 (69%)	14 (82%)
Diabetes	7%	15%	13%	6%
BMI	26	29	30	25
Chr. hypertension	28%	25%	31%	6%
History of PE	7%	0%	19%	0%
Smoking	7%	10%	0%	18%
PIGF*	66%	90%	90%	103%
PAPP-A*	59%	72%	62%	81%
Mean Doppler PI*	116%	109%	109%	112%
First trim. MAP*	113%	118%	116%	109%

516 517

Table 1. Patient characteristics in the four molecular clusters. Bold, colored numbers indicate
 statistically significant difference from controls. Asterisks denote percentage of control mean.
 BMI, body mass index. BW, birthweight; MAP, mean arterial pressure; PE, preeclampsia; PI,

521 pulsatility index; PAPP-A, pregnancy associated plasma protein A; PIGF, placenta growth factor;

522 SGA, small-for-gestational age.

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	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
Patient number	n=29	n=20	n=16	n=17
Early-onset cases	7 (24%)	3 (15%)	0 (0%)	1 (6%)
Late-onset cases	22 (76%)	17 (85%)	16 (100%)	16 (94%)
BW percentile*	79%	89%	100%	86%
SGA cases	9 (31%)	3 (15%)	2 (15%)	3 (18%)
Nulliparity	22 (76%)	13 (65%)	11 (69%)	14 (82%)
Diabetes	7%	15%	13%	6%
BMI	26	29	30	25
Chr. hypertension	28%	25%	31%	6%
History of PE	7%	0%	19%	0%
Smoking	7%	10%	0%	18%
PIGF*	66%	90%	90%	103%
PAPP-A*	59%	72%	62%	81%
Mean Doppler PI*	116%	109%	109%	112%
First trim. MAP*	113%	118%	116%	109%