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PII: S0168-1656(19)30140-3
DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbiotec.2019.04.017
Reference: BIOTEC 8411

To appear in: Journal of Biotechnology

Received date: 31 January 2019
Revised date: 18 April 2019
Accepted date: 20 April 2019


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Screening for preeclampsia in the first trimester of pregnancy in routine clinical practice in Hungary

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Highlights

- Preeclampsia is one of the leading causes of fetomaternal morbidity and mortality
- First-trimester screening for preeclampsia is feasible during routine ultrasound scan
- The use of Fetal Medicine Foundation guidelines are recommended for the screening
- Placental growth factor did not improve the detection rate among Hungarian pregnant
- Studies are required for placental growth factor distribution in Eastern Europe

Abstract

We aimed to evaluate the contribution of different factors in the Fetal Medicine Foundation algorithms for preeclampsia (PE) risk calculation during first-trimester screening in Hungary. We selected subjects for the nested case-control study from a prospective cohort of 2,545 low-risk pregnancies. Eighty-two patients with PE and 82 gestational age-matched controls were included. Individual PE risk was calculated using two risk-assessing softwares. Using Astraia 2.3.1, considering maternal characteristics and biophysical parameters only, detection rates (DR) were 63.6% for early-PE and 67.6% for late-PE. When we added placenta associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A) to the risk calculation, DRs decreased to 54.5% and 64.8% respectively. Using Astraia 2.8.2 with maternal characteristics and biophysical parameters resulted in the DRs of 63.6% (early-PE) and 56.3% (late-PE). If we added PAPP-A to the risk calculation, DRs improved to 72.7% and 54.9%. The addition of placental growth factor (PIGF) did not increase detection rates in either calculation. In conclusion, using maternal characteristics, biophysical parameters, and PAPP-A, an acceptable screening efficacy could be achieved for early-PE during first-trimester screening. Since PIGF did not improve efficacy in our study, we suggest setting new standard curves for PIGF in Eastern European pregnant women, and the evaluation of novel biochemical markers.

Keywords: first trimester; preeclampsia; screening; uterine artery Doppler; blood pressure; placental growth factor
1. Introduction

Preeclampsia (PE) prevalence is approximately 2-4% of all pregnancies (Dudley, 2009). In developed countries PE is one of the leading causes of maternal morbidity (Mayrink et al., 2018) and responsible for approximately 14% of all pregnancy-related deaths (Chaiworapongsa et al., 2014a). From a fetal point of view, PE is associated with an increased risk of perinatal morbidity and mortality, responsible for approximately 10% of stillbirths (Gardosi et al., 2005) and 12-16% of preterm births (Dhariwal and Lynde, 2017). In the last decade, extensive efforts have been made to develop an efficient screening method for preeclampsia with the aim to reduce its prevalence through pharmacologic intervention in the high-risk group (Chaiworapongsa et al., 2014b, Rolnik et al., 2017a, 2017b). The traditional screening based on risk factors from maternal medical history can identify only 35% of all preeclampsia cases and approximately 40% of early-PE cases at a false-positive rate (FPR) of 10% (Wright et al., 2015). Over the past years, several studies have proved that a combination of previous maternal history with specific biophysical and biochemical markers can predict PE in the first trimester (Baschat et al., 2014, Wright et al., 2019a, and this screening method is superior to that of using maternal characteristics only (O’Gorman et al., 2017). Previous studies have also shown that this is the only period of the pregnancy when preventive strategies with aspirin proved to be effective (Rolnik et al., 2017b, Wright and Nicolaides, 2019b). Screening for early-PE has a higher sensitivity than for late-PE. Detection rates (DR) for early-PE range from 41% (Poon et al., 2009a) to 96% (Foidart et al., 2010), depending on the markers and algorithms used in the risk calculation. DRs for late-PE range between 31–45% (Poon et al., 2009b, Erez et al., 2017). Studies on PE screening have been performed mostly on Anglo-Saxon populations and have almost similar research settings, and thus, have comparable results (Poon at al., 2009c, 2010a, 2010b). Studies carried out on South European or Middle European population with smaller sample sizes could not identify any subgroups as early- or late-PE (Pilalis et al., 2007). More studies have been suggested in the literature in populations that are different from those of the original investigations (Scazeocchio et al., 2013, Agarwal et al., 2017) because the contribution of different races and their lifestyles have a significant impact on the maternal background risk (a priori risk). These differences might also influence the interpretation of the measurement of the different biophysical and biochemical markers. For example, in Eastern European countries, obesity is less common but cardiovascular risk factors are present almost with the same if not higher (Timmis et al., 2018) frequency as in the United Kingdom (Tunstall-Pedoe et al., 1999). These findings and factors necessitate further studies to examine the efficacy of first-trimester

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Abbreviations
antiphospholipid syndrome (APS), Astraia software 2.3.2 (A1), Astraia software 2.8.1 (A2), beta human choriogonadotropin (bHCG), biparietal diameter (BPD), blood Pressure (BP), control (ctr), crown-rump length (CRL), detection rate (DR), diabetes mellitus (DM), ductus venosus pulsability index (DV-PI), family history of preeclampsia (PET), false-positive rate (FPR), fetal heart rate (FHR), Fetal Medicine Foundation (FMF), in vitro fertilization (IVF), maternal background risk (a priori risk), mean arterial pressure (MAP), multiple of expected median (MoM), nuchal translucency (NT), preeclampsia (PE), placenta associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A), placental growth factor (PIGF), small for gestational age (SGA), systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), uterine artery pulsatility index (UA-PI), versus (vs), weeks (wks), years (yrs)
screening for PE in routine clinical practice. In this study, our aim was to evaluate the effectiveness of first trimester screening for PE under routine clinical practice in an Eastern European unselected population using Fetal Medicine Foundation (FMF) softwares (Lobo et al., 2017) and to examine the contribution of different factors in the algorithms offered by FMF for risk calculation.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Recruitment of patients

We performed a prospective cohort study at the Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology at the University of Debrecen Medical and Health Science Centre, Debrecen, Hungary and the Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology at the Andras Josa County and Teaching Hospital, Nyiregyhaza, Hungary. We recruited participants at the time of the routine first-trimester screening for fetal malformations and chromosomal abnormalities. The local ethics committee approved the study protocol (identification number: DEOEC RKEB/IKEB 3092-2010), and each patient gave written informed consent to participation. Gestational age was determined by the crown-rump length (CRL) at first-trimester scan (Robinson et al., 1979). Pregnant women with gestational age between 11+0 and 13+6 weeks were included.

2.2 Recording maternal characteristics – a priori risk

Before the first-trimester ultrasound scan, a patient questionnaire on maternal characteristics and previous medical history recommended for the use of FMF algorithm for preeclampsia risk calculation had to be filled in (Table 1). The questionnaire was then reviewed by a physician together with the patient.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions (maternal)</th>
<th>Possible answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>age (yrs), weight (kg), height (cm)</td>
<td>specific number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>racial origin</td>
<td>Caucasian, Afro-Caribbean, South Asian, East Asian, mixed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>method of conception</td>
<td>spontaneous, ovulation induction, IVF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cigarette smoking</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chronic hypertension</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maternal type 1 or 2 DM</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maternal SLE</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maternal APS</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>family history of PE in the mother of the patient</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parity</td>
<td>nulliparous, parous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>previous pregnancy with PE</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>previous pregnancy with SGA babies</td>
<td>yes, no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Patient questionnaire of previous medical history. Years (yrs), diabetes mellitus (DM), systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), antiphospholipid syndrome (APS), in vitro fertilization (IVF), small for gestational age (SGA).

2.3 Biophysical and biochemical measurements

Blood pressure (BP) was measured using FMF guidelines (Gallo et al., 2014) with a calibrated device (M2 Intellisense; Omron Corp, Kyoto, Japan). The first-trimester ultrasound screening and uterine artery pulsatility index (UtA-PI) evaluation was performed...
transabdominally according to FMF guidelines (Khalil et al., 2014) by physicians with FMF license. We recorded CRL, nuchal translucency (NT), biparietal diameter (BPD), fetal heart rate (FHR), ductus venosus pulsatility index (DV-PI), tricuspid valve assessment, UtA-PI. Blood (serum and plasma) and urine samples were collected before the scan and stored at -80°C degrees for further studies. For the current study, maternal serum beta human choriogonadotropin (BhCG), placenta associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A) and placental growth factor (PlGF) serum levels were measured using a BRAHMS Kryptor analyzer (ThermoFisher). Since the normal serum levels of BhCG, PAPP-A and PLGF are influenced by several factors such as parity, gestational age, maternal BMI, race, method of conception and smoking status, these biochemical results were converted to multiples of the expected normal median (MoM) by the FMF algorithm. Using MoMs, the standardized maternal serum levels of these biomarkers could be compared later.

2.4 Follow up of the study population

Between 2010 and 2012, we recruited a total of 2,545 pregnant women with the aim of finding further useful biochemical markers for the screening of major adverse pregnancy complications as preeclampsia, macrosomia, fetal growth restriction and gestational diabetes. In the current nested case-control study, we focused on preeclampsia. The outcomes were collected from the electronic medical database of each center (MedSol-Debrecen, MedWorks-Nyiregyhaza). Those patients who did not deliver in either of these centers received phone calls and their medical files were sent to us by their local hospital. Out of the 2,545 patients, in 294 cases the outcome could not be collected due to the loss of follow-up. From the remaining 2,251 pregnancies, 2,223 resulted in live birth. There were nine terminations for chromosomal abnormalities or multiplex malformations, 11 miscarriages, and eight intrauterine deaths. For this study, we used data only from singleton pregnancies, and in consequence 23 multiple pregnancies were excluded out of the 2,223 pregnancies. In the remaining 2,200 singleton cases, 82 ended up with PE (3.7%, 82/2,200). Two medical doctors double checked all the outcome data of those patients diagnosed with PE. We defined patients with early-PE as those with PE requiring delivery before 34 weeks. Late-PE was defined as PE requiring delivery after 34 weeks (Bahado-Singh et al., 2015). The rate of early-PE was 0.5% (11/2200) and 3.2% (71/2200) of late-PE. For this study, 82 uncomplicated low-risk pregnancies were selected as controls, matched for gestational age and maternal age at sample collection. These were compared with the 82 PE cases to assess the role of the biochemical markers recommended by two different FMF algorithms in the screening efficacy for preeclampsia during routine clinical practice.

2.5 Calculating the risk of PE using different algorithms

We used two commercially available softwares for the risk calculation, Astraia 2.3.2 (A1, launched in 2010) and Astraia 2.8.1 (A2, launched in 2016, Astraia Software GmbBH, Occamstr. 20, 80802, Munich, Germany). For the calculation of a priori risk for PE, A1 software required the ethnic origin, parity, maternal weight, maternal height, chronic hypertension, smoking status, method of conception, family history of preeclampsia (PET), maternal BP and UtA-PI. The A1 program gave two types of risks: 1) Risk for early-PE (before 34 weeks) and 2) Risk for late-PE (after 34 weeks). In the general population, the risk for early-PE is 0.5% and 2% for late-PE (Poon et al., 2009b), so we defined screen-positive patients as those with a risk of >0.5% for early-PE and risk of >2% for late-PE. For a priori risk calculation for PE, the new A2 software required the same data as A1 as well as four
additional maternal risk factors: maternal diabetes mellitus (DM), systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE), antiphospholipid syndrome (APS), and previous SGA newborn. Modified mathematical algorithms were used by A2 software compared with A1 software to calculate the mean arterial pressure (MAP), MAP MoM, and UtA-PI MoM. The results for PE risk were divided into three subgroups by the A2 program: 1) Preeclampsia before 34 weeks (early-PE); 2) Preeclampsia between 34-37 weeks; and 3) Preeclampsia after 37 weeks. Groups 2 and 3 together formed the late-PE group. We calculated the risk for PE for the 82 PE patients, and the 82 controls by both A1 and A2 programs and compared the results. For both programs the risks were calculated in three ways: 1) Using maternal characteristics and biophysical measurements alone; 2) Using maternal characteristics, biophysical measurements, and PAPP-A; and 3) Using maternal characteristics, biophysical measurements, PAPP-A and PlGF (PlGF could be used by A2 software only).

3. Calculation

We used the R-project v.3.5., a software package (R Core Team, 2018) for statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics with median, quartiles, mean, standard deviation and case number were used to characterized variables. We performed logarithmic transformation of parameters in case of variables with non-normal distribution. We used unpaired student's t-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for comparisons between values of groups. Tukey-HSD posthoc test was used to corroborate ANOVA results. Student's paired t-test was used to assess the difference between the versions of parameters (MAP, MAP MoM, UtA-PI). We examined explanatory variables using ROC curve analysis (pROC package) (Xavier R, 2011) and generated optimal thresholds and AUCs. During the calculations, we accepted p<=0.05 probability levels as significant.

4. Results

4.1 Characteristics of the study population

Table 2 presents the maternal characteristics of the study population.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>Unaffected (n=82)</th>
<th>PE X&lt;34wks (n=11)</th>
<th>PE 34&lt;X&lt;37wks (n=11)</th>
<th>PE X&gt;37wks (n=60)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Maternal age (yrs)</td>
<td>28.9 (17.7-39.5)</td>
<td>28.1 (15.8-37.9)</td>
<td>29.7 (23.4-38.5)</td>
<td>28.5 (18.4-38.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal weight (kg)</td>
<td>62.6 (45-98)</td>
<td>74.8 (46-109)</td>
<td>77.6 (54-93)</td>
<td>74.4 (43-124)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maternal height (cm)</td>
<td>165.0 (154-180)</td>
<td>162.3 (156-176)</td>
<td>169.1 (156-182)</td>
<td>165.9 (150-184)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Body Mass Index (kg/m2)</td>
<td>22.9 (17-32)</td>
<td>28.2 (18-44.2)</td>
<td>27.9 (18-35.2)</td>
<td>26.9 (17-46.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestational age (wks)</td>
<td>12.7 (11.3-13.9)</td>
<td>12.6 (11.7-13.4)</td>
<td>12.4 (11.6-13.3)</td>
<td>12.8 (11.3-13.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial origin</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>82 (100%)</td>
<td>11 (100%)</td>
<td>11 (100%)</td>
<td>60 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical history</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chronic hypertension</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (9%)</td>
<td>5 (45%)</td>
<td>15 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diabetes mellitus</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (9%)</td>
<td>2 (18%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode of conception</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spontaneous</td>
<td>82 (100%)</td>
<td>10 (91%)</td>
<td>11 (100%)</td>
<td>58 (97%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In -vito fertilization</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ovulation induction</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>1 (9%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nulliparous</td>
<td>37 (45%)</td>
<td>8 (73%)</td>
<td>8 (73%)</td>
<td>44 (73%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parous</td>
<td>45 (55%)</td>
<td>3 (27%)</td>
<td>3 (27%)</td>
<td>16 (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No previous PE</td>
<td>45 (55%)</td>
<td>3 (27%)</td>
<td>1 (9%)</td>
<td>13 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Previous PE</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>0 (0%)</td>
<td>2 (18%)</td>
<td>3 (5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2
Characteristics of the study population of pregnant women screened between 11<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> weeks for PE. Years (yrs), weeks (wks), preeclampsia (PE)

In the early-PE group the rate of chronic hypertension (1) and previous history of PE (0) was relatively low compared with the other groups of PE.

Table 3 shows the distribution of the markers used for the risk calculation in the whole population and demonstrates the differences between the mathematical algorithms used by A1 and A2 programs for the calculation of MAP, MAP MoM, and UtA-PI MoM.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test A1 vs A2 p-value</th>
<th>A1 vs A2 MAP</th>
<th>A1 vs A2 MAP MoM</th>
<th>A1 vs A2 UtA-PI MoM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age (yrs)</strong></td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weight (kg)</strong></td>
<td>55.8</td>
<td>66.0</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Height (cm)</strong></td>
<td>160.0</td>
<td>165.0</td>
<td>170.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BMI (kg/m&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;)</strong></td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BP MoM</strong></td>
<td>1.030</td>
<td>1.070</td>
<td>1.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BhCG MoM</strong></td>
<td>0.668</td>
<td>0.995</td>
<td>1.459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PAPP-A MoM</strong></td>
<td>0.816</td>
<td>1.141</td>
<td>1.548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PIGF MoM</strong></td>
<td>0.979</td>
<td>1.239</td>
<td>1.678</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3
Distribution of the markers used in the risk calculation for PE and the differences between the calculation of MAP, MAP MoM and UtA-PI MoM by the A1 and A2 programs. We highlighted comparisons with significant differences. Blood pressure (BP), multiple of expected median (MoM), mean arterial pressure (MAP), uterine artery pulsatility index (UtA-PI), beta human choriogonadotropin (BhCG), placenta associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A), placental growth factor (PIGF), Astraia software 2.3.2 (A1), Astraia software 2.8.1 (A2).

4.2 Comparison of the characteristics within the groups

Table 4 shows that when comparing the characteristics of the PE and the control (ctrl) group, there were differences for maternal weight, BMI, BP MoM, UtA-PI MoM, PIGF MoM, PAPP-A MoM. Although PIGF levels were lower in the PE group compared to controls in our study population, the median of the PIGF MoMs was shifted to the right in both groups by the FMF algorithm calculation (Figure 1).
Table 4
Pregnancy characteristics in PE compared with the control group. We highlighted the comparisons with significant differences. Years (yrs), mean arterial pressure (MAP), multiple of expected median (MoM), uterine artery pulsatility index (UtA-PI), beta human choriogonadotropin (bHCG), placenta associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A), placental growth factor (PlGF)

Using the receiver–operating characteristics curves (Figure 2), only BP MoM, UtA-PI MoM, and BMI showed a significant contribution to the prediction of PE.
4.3 Characteristics of the PE subgroups and the control population

The risk for PE was divided into three subgroups according to the calculation of A2 software as 1) early-PE PE<34 wks (PE<34); 2) PE between 34-37 wks (PE 34-37); and 3) PE after 37 wks (PE>37). The PIGF MoM, PAPP-A MoM, BP MoM, UtA-PI MoM, BhCG MoM, and maternal characteristics were compared within all three subgroups and with the control group (ctrl) (Table 4). There were differences for maternal weight between ctrl vs. PE 34-37 and ctrl vs. PE>37 groups. Regarding BMI, there were differences between all three subgroups of PE when compared to controls. The BP MoMs showed similar differences as BMI, and also between PE>37 vs. PE34-37 groups. There was UtA-PI difference between ctrl vs. PE<34 and ctrl vs. PE>37 groups. There was a difference regarding PAPP-A MoMs between groups ctrl vs. PE<34, meanwhile PIGF MoM results showed a difference between ctrl vs. PE34-37 groups only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PE</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>25th centile</th>
<th>median</th>
<th>75th centile</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>test</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age (yrs)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE&lt;34</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>23.01</td>
<td>26.50</td>
<td>34.90</td>
<td>28.06</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>PE34-37 vs PE&lt;34 0.8620</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 34-37</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>24.58</td>
<td>29.08</td>
<td>33.63</td>
<td>29.66</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>PE&gt;37 vs PE&lt;34 0.9944</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE&gt;37</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.54</td>
<td>28.69</td>
<td>31.62</td>
<td>28.45</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>Ctrl vs PE&lt;34 0.9309</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td>25.83</td>
<td>28.60</td>
<td>32.45</td>
<td>28.99</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>PE&gt;37 vs PE34-37 0.8690</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Weight (kg)</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE&lt;34</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>57.50</td>
<td>72.00</td>
<td>90.00</td>
<td>74.82</td>
<td>21.85</td>
<td>PE34-37 vs PE&lt;34 0.8982</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 34-37</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>69.50</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>87.50</td>
<td>77.64</td>
<td>12.71</td>
<td>PE&gt;37 vs PE&lt;34 0.9995</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE&gt;37</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td>62.00</td>
<td>71.50</td>
<td>87.25</td>
<td>74.38</td>
<td>16.85</td>
<td>Ctrl vs PE&lt;34 0.0933</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ctrl</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td>54.00</td>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>69.00</td>
<td>62.62</td>
<td>12.98</td>
<td>PE&gt;37 vs PE34-37 0.8558</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 (Color)
Receiver–operating characteristics curves for prediction of PE. Body mass index (BMI), mean arterial pressure (MAP), uterine artery pulsatility index (UtA-PI), multiple of expected median (MoM), beta human choriogonadotropin (BhCG), placenta associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A), placental growth factor (PlGF).
Table 5 shows the screening efficacy of the two programs in different settings.

4.4 Detection rates of A1 and A2 programs using different settings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>protein A (PAPP) median (MoM)</th>
<th>PE&lt;34</th>
<th>PE 34-37</th>
<th>PE&gt;37</th>
<th>Ctrl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>157.50</td>
<td>160.00</td>
<td>167.50</td>
<td>162.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>164.50</td>
<td>171.00</td>
<td>173.50</td>
<td>169.09</td>
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<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>162.00</td>
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<td>165.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82</td>
<td>160.00</td>
<td>165.00</td>
<td>168.75</td>
<td>165.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4
Maternal, biophysical and biochemical characteristics in the three subgroups of PE compared with controls. We highlighted the comparisons with significant differences. Years (yrs), body mass index (BMI), blood pressure (BP), multiple of expected median (MoM), uterine artery pulsatility index (UtA PI), beta human chorionadotropin (BhCG), placenta associated plasma protein A (PAPP-A), placental growth factor (PIGF), preeclampsia (PE), control (ctrl)

4.4 Detection rates of A1 and A2 programs using different settings
Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PE</th>
<th>Astraia 2.3.2 (A1) without biochemistry</th>
<th>Astraia 2.3.2 (A1) PAPP-A</th>
<th>Astraia 2.8.1(A2) without biochemistry</th>
<th>Astraia 2.8.1 (A2) PAPP-A</th>
<th>Astraia 2.8.1 (A2) PAPP-A + PlGF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early-PE X&lt;34 wks (n=11)</td>
<td>63.6% (7/11)</td>
<td>54.5% (6/11)</td>
<td>63.6% (7/11)</td>
<td>72.7% (8/11)</td>
<td>45.5% (5/11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE 34&gt;X&gt;37 wks (n=11)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>90.1% (10/11)</td>
<td>90.1% (10/11)</td>
<td>72.7% (8/11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PE X&gt;37 wks (n=60)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>50% (30/60)</td>
<td>48.3% (29/60)</td>
<td>51.7% (31/60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late-PE x&gt;34 wks (n=71)</td>
<td>67.6% (48/71)</td>
<td>64.8% (46/71)</td>
<td>56.3% (40/71)</td>
<td>54.9% (39/71)</td>
<td>54.9% (39/71)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With A1 software, out of the 11 cases of early-PE, 7 (63.6%, 7/11) were screen positive (risk x1:200) using the maternal a priori risk, UtA-PI and BP measurements without biochemistry and only 6 (54.5%, 6/11) when adding PAPP-A to the risk calculation. Out of the 71 patients with late-PE, the risk was high (risk >1:50) in 48 cases (67.6%, 48/71) without PAPP-A and in 46 cases (64.8%, 46/71) with PAPP-A, respectively. The false positive rate among the 82 controls was 6%, (5/82) in both subgroups of A1 software.

With A2 software, out of the 11 early-PE cases, 7 (63.6%, 7/11) were screen positive without biochemical results. Eight cases (72.7%, 8/11) were identified when PAPP-A was added to the risk calculation. Adding PlGF as a further biochemical marker to the risk calculation resulted in a drop of the detection to 5 cases (45.5%, 5/11) in the early-PE group. In the group where PE developed between 34-37 weeks, 10 cases were screen positive (90.1%, 10/11) either with or without PAPP-A and 8 cases (72.7%, 8/11) when we added PlGF to the risk calculation. In the group where PE developed after 37 weeks, the detection rates for the previously mentioned groups were 50% (30/60), 48.3% (29/60) and 51.7%, (31/60), respectively.

5. Discussion

5.1 The importance of population-specific maternal characteristics and biophysical measurements

According to our knowledge, this is the first prospective study performed in Hungary with their characteristic a priori risk and biophysical measurements. We calculated a priori risks based on biophysical and biochemical measurements for PE using patient cohorts from the United Kingdom, with their higher cardiovascular risk factors and the high percentage of patients of Afro-Caribbean origin (Yu et al., 2006). Previous studies have highlighted that maternal risk factors for PE might vary considerably in other populations (Shamsi et al., 2010, Lobo et al., 2019), which necessitates adjustment of the a priori risks and biophysical measurements in each population.
5.2 Comparable data with studies of non-Anglo-Saxon populations

Early-PE is the less frequent form of PE but is the major contributor to maternal and perinatal morbidity and mortality. This study demonstrated that screening for early-PE could be achieved in routine clinical practice in Eastern Europe at a DR of 72.7% when using maternal characteristics, biophysical measurements, and PAPP-A. Compared with the DRs of the FMF (89.2%) (Poon et al., 2009c), our DRs are lower and similar to some other studies (Oliveira et al., 2014, Teixeira et al., 2014, Cheng et al., 2018, Sepulveda-Martinez et al., 2019) performed under routine clinical practice rather than in research settings. Apart from performing this study under routine clinical practice, another explanation for the lower DRs is the relatively low number of early-PE cases. Chronic hypertension and previous history of PE have a high influence on the risk assessment for early-PE. In our study among the 11 early-PE cases, there were only one with chronic hypertension and none with previous history of PE. Further Hungarian studies with larger patient numbers are needed to refine the early-PE patient characteristics. The detection rates for early-PE with A2 software was higher than with A1 software probably due to the improvement in screening algorithms. A2 software is recommended for use in routine clinical practice. The detection rate for late-PE in our study was comparable with the literature data. The reason why at the moment it is hardly feasible to enhance the detection rate of late-PE is due to the features of the disease (Lampe et al., 2011, Haram et al., 2014, Hahn et al., 2015, Erez et al., 2017, Lampe et al., 2017). Late-PE is mostly influenced by maternal factors rather than placental disease, keeping it challenging to predict and highlighting the importance of the a priori risk and biophysical measurements (Crispi et al., 2006).

5.3 The role of biochemical measurements

5.3.1 BhCG and PAPP-A

Our study is the first prospective assessment of PE screening in Hungary incorporating individual risk factors and biophysical measurements which are different from those used in other studies with higher DRs in the United Kingdom (Wright et al., 2019a). BP MoM, BMI, and UtA-PI Doppler were the strongest predictors of early-PE in this study, which is consistent with the results of Poon et al. (2009b). Similarly to other studies, BhCG did not show significant differences between the affected and the healthy groups (Abdi et al., 2018). Regarding PAPP-A, previous studies suggested a close association between low PAPP-A and PE (Pilalis et al., 2007), but the recent studies by FMF showed that in combination with other markers it becomes insignificant (Akolekar et al., 2009). PAPP-A proved to be an essential marker of the most common trisomies in the first-trimester screening, and in our study PAPP-A measurement seemed to be a useful tool for the improvement of the detection rate of PE as well. At the same time, the FPR decreased from 2.4% (2/82) to 0% (0/82) in our control group when we incorporated PAPP-A results into the risk calculation. However, this finding might be accidental because of the low number of control patients. It seems to be worthy of investigating the role of PAPP-A in the improvement of the FPR. When no other biomarkers are measured in routine clinical practice, but PAPP-A levels are available from common trisomy risk calculation, the result could also be useful for the risk calculation of PE.

5.3.2 PIGF

The use of PIGF not only did not increase but, in contrary to other studies, even deteriorated the detection rates. It is most likely due to the high mean levels of PIGF MoMs both in the PE
and the control groups (1.215 MoM vs. 1.284 MoM). The FMF algorithm converts all measurements into MoMs, but the calculation uses data drawn from the Anglo-Saxon population. It is of a high probability that the distribution of PlGF levels in pregnancies both with the normal outcome and PE shows a different pattern in the Eastern European population due to several factors. For this reason, it is of utmost importance to prepare characteristic curves for the Hungarian population based on much more data. Mean PlGF levels in our study as demonstrated in Table 4 were significantly lower in pregnancies that ended up with preeclampsia between 34-37 weeks (1.086 MoM) when compared to the controls (1.284 MoM), and the difference was almost significant between early-PE group (0.96 MoM) vs. control group as well. This finding is consistent with the literature data (Kusanovic et al., 2009). We believe that the detection rate of the screening for early preeclampsia could be significantly improved if one would adjust converted MoMs in the PE risk calculation algorithm to the population-specific Hungarian curve. Nevertheless, the results of our study together with several others necessitates the search for further potentially more effective biochemical markers (Erez et al., 2008, Romero et al., 2008, Than at al., 2008, Romero et al., 2017, Than at al., 2018, Rafaeli-Yehudai at al., 2018).

5.4 Possible cost-effective strategies of PE screening in Eastern Europe

From a financial point of view, in the Eastern part of Europe, the socioeconomic status of the population is much lower than in Western European countries. Most of the population use the national health care system where the combined test is not supported financially and is only available in the private healthcare sector, meanwhile, the routine first-trimester ultrasound is part of the national health care system. Using the latest software (A2) without biochemical markers, the detection rate for early-PE and late-PE was 63.6% (7/11) and 56.3% (40/71), respectively. It highlights that in routine clinical practice the maternal a priori risk combined with BP and UtA-PI measurements performed both by FMF standards can provide an acceptable screening method for early-PE for those who cannot afford the cost of the combined test. With this approach, the detection rate for early-PE without the biochemical markers is slightly under the detection rate of research studies using the same algorithm and presented by the FMF (Poon et al., 2009a). The study by Poon at al. (2009b) also showed that adding UtA-PI to the maternal factors (a priori risk) the detection rate could be raised from 31% to 73%. The International Society for the Study of Hypertension in Pregnancy (ISSHP) supports first trimester screening for risk of PE when this can be integrated into the local health system, although the cost effectiveness of this approach remains to be established (Brown et al., 2018).

5.5 Ethical issues – Counselling before screening for early-PE and counseling high risk patients

Each patient participating in screening for PE in the first trimester of pregnancy needs to be informed on the efficacy of screening and also on the FPR. In case of a high risk result, the patient has to be reassured that according to our recent knowledge acetylsalicylic acid has no teratogenic effect nor it can cause any significant adverse effects in pregnancy such as placental abruption or vaginal bleeding when given in an appropriate dose and time (Bujold et al., 2009, Roberge et al., 2018). The recommended dose is between 100-150mg/day, until the 34th weeks of gestation (Wright and Nicolaides, 2019b). In order to lower the anxiety of screen positive patients for early-PE, their first trimester risks can be recalculated at the 18-22 weeks scan (Wright et al., 2019a).
6. Conclusion

Compared with other papers, this study also supports the evidence that first-trimester screening for PE is feasible. Even more, this screening method could be integrated into the routine clinical first-trimester screening, when apart from screening for fetal malformations and chromosomal abnormalities for a minimal extra cost PE screening could also be performed. The accuracy of maternal and fetal biophysical measurements has a significant impact on the efficacy of PE screening. It highlights the need for standardized measurements on UtA-PI, CRL, and BP as recommended by FMF guidelines and measurement protocols. It can be expected that the prophylactic treatment with aspirin started in the first trimester in the high-risk group will result in a drop of PE prevalence at a minimal extra cost (Roberge et al., 2017, Wright et al., 2018). Future studies are required with a higher number of patients to validate the normal and abnormal distribution of PIGF in Eastern European population. Those may contribute to the improvement of the screening efficacy in the Eastern European countries. Our study also points out the need for further studies aiming the search for more effective biomarkers in preeclampsia screening.

Competing interest
The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

Author contributions
OL, OT, ZT conceptualized the original prospective study and designed research. OL, OT, NGT, RP designed the present cohort study, OL, OT, NGT analyzed and interpreted data OL, OG, OL Sr, AF, LM, KP recruited the patients and performed the screening, LV performed the biochemical measurements, OL, OG, DD, IA collected the follow up data and the risk calculations, ZsK performed the statistical analyses. All authors contributed to manuscript writing and approved the paper.

Declaration of interest
None.

Acknowledgements
We thank Angela Molnarne Ori, Franciska Debreceni, Szilvia Nagy, Istvanne Sos, Erika Magyar, Csilla Kissne (Ultrasound Department, University of Debrecen Medical and Health Science Centre), Ildiko Veresne, Ildiko Medvene Jaszai, (Ultrasound Department, Andras Josa County and Teaching Hospital) for their assistance.

Funding: This work was supported by grants from the Hungarian Academy of Sciences (Momentum LP2014-7/2014) and from the Hungarian National Research, Development and Innovation Fund (FIEK_16-1-2016-0005). The funding sources had no role in the design and execution of this study, analyses and interpretation of the data, or decision to submit results.
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