RND3/RhoE deficiency in preeclamptic women impairs placental mitochondrial function via regulation of the PPARgamma-UCP2 pathway

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Running Title: Rnd3 regulates mitochondrial function in preeclampsia
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Abstract

Preeclampsia (PE) is a life-threatening hypertensive disorder in pregnancy. Mitochondrial-mediated oxidative stress has been implicated in the etiology of PE with unknown underlying mechanism. We identified the downregulation of Rnd3 in the placental tissues and the primary trophoblasts from PE patients, associated with increased ROS generation and damaged mitochondrial integrity. Knockdown of Rnd3 in trophoblastic cells resulted in mitochondrial injury with membrane potential depolarization and proton leakage. Mechanistic studies indicated that Rnd3 stimulated the mitochondrial uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2) signaling, via its physical interaction with peroxisome proliferators-activated receptor γ (PPARγ). Rnd3 deficiency-mediated mitochondrial dysfunction was attenuated by overexpression of PPARγ. Finally, Rnd3 overexpression in human PE primary trophoblasts partially rescued the mitochondrial defect and oxidative stress. We conclude that Rnd3 acts as a novel protective factor in placental mitochondria through PPARγ-UCP2 signaling. Downregulation of Rnd3 in PE patients may explain the mitochondrial stress involved in the pathogenesis of PE.

Keywords: Small GTPase, Preeclampsia, Mitochondrion, Oxidative stress, PPARγ, UCP2

Preeclampsia (PE) is a pregnancy complication that occurs after the 20th gestational

week and is characterized by maternal hypertension, proteinuria and multi-organ

injuries. It affects 5-7% of pregnancies and is the leading cause of perinatal morbidity

and mortality[1-3]. Although the mechanisms responsible for the pathogenesis of PE

have not been entirely clarified, placental oxidative stress along with poor

vascularization is thought to be its main cause[2, 4]. Oxidative stress is generated by the

imbalance of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the endogenous oxidant scavenging

system[5]. It has been reported that ROS levels are increased during normal pregnancy

due to low oxygen tension in early gestation[6, 7]. However, excessive ROS

accumulation was identified in PE pathogenesis as the contributor to endothelial

dysfunction and placental inflammation response[7-9]. Although shallow invasion of

trophoblasts to decidua and subsequent failed spiral artery remodeling participate in

placental ischemia and oxidative stress, accumulating evidence has shown that

mitochondrial dysfunction during PE can induce an increase in the levels of ROS[10-12].

Altered morphology of mitochondria, including swelling and disappearance of cristae,

has also been observed in trophoblasts of PE placentae[13]. However, a limited number

of studies have investigated the molecular machinery of the mitochondrial ROS

during PE.

peroxisome proliferators-activated receptor γ (PPARγ) is a ligand-inducible

transcription factor that plays key roles in mitochondrial function, biogenesis,

dynamics and metabolism[14, 15]. PPARγ has been implicated as an important regulator

of placental vasculature and of the differentiation of complicated trophoblast

lineages[16-18]. Loss of PPARγ in a mouse model caused embryonic lethality at

D9.5-10.5 and the histological analysis indicated major placental defects[19]. Moreover,

several recent studies revealed that the levels of the circulating agonists of PPARγ

were increased in pregnancy, whereas they were significantly reduced in PE patients[19,

20]. Administration of rosiglitazone, a selective PPARγ agonist, could largely

ameliorate PE in a RUPP-induced PE rat model[21], whereas it could also improve the

survival of trophoblast cells by recovering the mitochondrial membrane potential and

reducing ROS generation[22]. This suggested that PPARγ may serve as a novel

pharmacological target for PE. Nevertheless, the regulatory mechanism of the

downregulated PPARγ signaling in PE remains unknown.

Rnd3 is a small GTPase, also called RhoE that exhibits multiple regulatory functions

in carcinogenesis, cardiovascular diseases and neural development according to our

recent studies[23-28]. *Rnd3* was proposed to be a PE candidate gene based on a

population study. A specific *Rnd3* SNP (rs115015150) was associated with PE and

several quantitative cardiovascular risk traits[29]. Subsequent research works illustrated

that Rnd3 was involved with PE and regulating the proliferation, migration and

invasion of trophoblast cells[30-32]. In the present study, the data indicated a novel

protective function of Rnd3 for defective mitochondrial-induced placental oxidative

stress. Rnd3 expression was downregulated in placentae from PE patients and this

downregulation led to mitochondrial dysfunction and accumulated ROS in placental

trophoblast cells. The molecular mechanism of Rnd3-mediated mitochondrial

integrity was verified by experiments demonstrating the physical interaction of its

protein with PPARγ and the stimulation of the PPARγ protein expression in nuclei.

The uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2) was transcriptionally regulated by PPARγ and was

involved in the regulation of mitochondrial membrane potential and ROS generation.

The downregulated PPARγ-UCP2 cascade was identified in the placentae from PE

patients and could be reversed by Rnd3 overexpression along with rescued

mitochondrial dysfunction in human PE primary placental trophoblasts. The findings

revealed a new function of this small GTPase in modulating the PPARγ-UCP2

pathway and provided a potential new target for therapeutic manipulation of

PPARγ-UCP2 signaling.

Methods

58 Methods and associated references were available in detail in the Data Supplement of

59 the article.

                              Statistical analysis

The data was expressed as the mean ± standard deviation (SD). An unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t* test was used for two-group comparison. The one-way ANOVA followed by the Student-Newman-Keuls method was used for multiple-group comparison. All analyses were conducted using GraphPad Prism 8.0. A value of $P<0.05$ was considered for significant difference.

Results

The expression of Rnd3 is downregulated in human placentae with PE

To investigate the role of Rnd3 in PE, its expression levels were measured in 24 human placentae from PE patients and 34 normal placentae. Women with a history of smoking and drinking or with a diagnosis of chronic hypertension or gestational diabetes mellitus were excluded from the present study. In the placentae with PE, a 62.9% decrease was noted in the RND3 protein levels (Fig.1A) and a 46.0% decrease was noted in the *Rnd3* mRNA level (Fig. 1B). This clinical observation suggested that Rnd3 may act as a potential regulator in the pathogenesis of PE.

RND3 protein expression is downregulated in human PE primary trophoblasts and is associated with severe oxidative stress and apoptosis

Oxidative stress is a main regulator of PE development. In the placental tissue sections, severe oxidative stress was noted in the human placentae with PE (Fig. 2A). Systemic experiments based on human primary trophoblasts (PTBs) were conducted for the understanding of the underlying mechanisms involved in this process. Human PTBs were isolated from normal term placentae and from placentae with a terminated pregnancy in the third trimester of PE patients. The PTBs were identified by immunostaining of the surface marker cytokeratin 7 (CK7) (Fig. 2B). The purity of the isolated PTBs was 97% according to nuclear counterstaining (Fig. 2B). The protein level of RND3 in the PTBs was detected by immunostaining analysis. Rnd3 was universally expressed in the cytoplasm and nuclei of the trophoblasts (Fig 2C). Reduced Rnd3 expression was associated with increased ROS accumulation and was

detected in the PE patient-derived PTBs (Fig 2C). To mimic the pathological PE

placental environment, hypoxic cell culture of PTBs was established. Following

induction of hypoxia, additional ROS accumulation and apoptosis were observed in

the PE PTBs compared with those noted in the control PTBs (Fig 2D). This suggested

that PE PTBs were more sensitive to hypoxic stress. Rnd3 may participate in the

development of PE via the regulation of ROS generation.

Human PE primary placental trophoblasts are predisposed to mitochondrial

damage

To explore the underlying mechanism of Rnd3-associated oxidative stress in PE,

trophoblastic mitochondria, which are the main source of ROS, were analyzed by

electron microscopy. In the ultrathin sections of the placental tissues, a borderline

between the layers of syncytiotrophoblast (STB) and cytotrophoblast (CTB) could be

clearly identified. In the CTB of the PE placentae, swelling mitochondria with loss of

cristae were observed, which were the typical characteristics of mitochondrial damage

(arrows pointed, Fig 3A). We further analyzed the mitochondrial membrane potential

in PTBs. Using JC1 staining, we compared the mitochondrial membrane potential

between the control PTBs and the PE PTBs with or without hypoxic stimuli. The

ratios of JC1 red/green fluorescence between the two groups indicated no difference

at the baseline (Fig 3B). The mitochondrial membrane potential was reduced in

response to hypoxic challenge. However, the red/green fluorescence emission ratio

was collapsed in PE PTBs compared with that noted in the control PTBs (Fig 3B),

indicating that PE PTBs were predisposed to hypoxia-induced mitochondrial injury.

Overexpression of Rnd3 protects the trophoblastic cells from ROS generation

and induction of apoptosis

To investigate the potential role of Rnd3 deficiency in inducing oxidative stress in PE

PTBs, we manipulated Rnd3 expression in the trophoblastic BeWo cell line. Hypoxic

cell culture was applied to induce ROS generation. ROS levels were determined by

DHE fluorescence labeling and the detection of cellular 8-isoprostane levels. The

GFP-Rnd3 expressing BeWo cells displayed significantly decreased ROS levels
compared with those of the surrounding non-GFP-Rnd3 cells (Fig 4A). Consistent
with these observations, myc-Rnd3 overexpression led to decreased 8-isoprostane
levels (Fig 4B) and ameliorated cell apoptosis (Fig 4C-D), indicating that Rnd3
modulated the production of ROS in trophoblasts. Rnd3 deficiency was observed in
human PE PTBs and may be the cause of severe oxidative stress and apoptosis in PE.

128 Rnd3 deficiency leads to mitochondrial damage in BeWo trophoblastic cells
To investigate if mitochondria contributed to Rnd3-mediated ROS generation, we
knocked down Rnd3 in BeWo cells. Electron microscopy of Rnd3 knockdown BeWo
cells revealed mitochondrial injury. The compromised mitochondria displayed a
structure with damaged cristae and swelling mass (arrow pointed, Fig 5A). Consistent
with the morphological changes, the mitochondrial transmembrane potential was also
depolarized following Rnd3 knockdown (Fig 5B). Subsequently, the effects of Rnd3
on mitochondrial function were assessed by measuring the oxygen consumption rate
(OCR) in different respiratory states. The comparison of the Rnd3 knockdown group
and the control group indicated no significant differences in the OCR of the basal
respiration, maximal respiration and space capacity (Fig 5C). However, a 2.4-fold
increase in the proton leak associated OCR was detected in the Rnd3 knockdown
BeWo cells (Fig 5C), indicating the uncoupling of ATP synthesis and substrate
oxidation. Consistent with this result, the mitochondrial coupling efficiency was
reduced in the siRnd3 group (Fig 5D).

144 Rnd3 facilitates the protein accumulation of PPARγ and stimulates the
145 expression of UCP2 in trophoblasts
146 To explore the underlying mechanisms of Rnd3-mediated mitochondrial dysfunction,
147 the mRNA expression levels of the mitochondrial regulatory factors and ROS
148 scavengers were evaluated in siRnd3 transiently transfected BeWo cells. The analysis
149 indicated no significant difference between siRnd3 and sicontrol groups with regard
150 to the mRNA levels of the transcription factors *PPARγ*, *PPARγ* coactivator 1-α

(*PGC1-α*), peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (*PPARα*), nuclear respiratory

factor 1 (*NRF1*), and mitochondrial transcription factor A (*TFAM*) (sFig 1). No

significant differences were also noted with regard to the levels of the endogenous

ROS scavengers superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1) and superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD2)

(sFig 1).

Mitochondrial uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2) is critical for mitochondrial respiratory

coupling. Rnd3 promoted the protein and the mRNA expression levels of *UCP2*,

whereas knockdown of Rnd3 resulted in UCP2 deficiency (Fig 6A-6C), which was

consistent with the mitochondrial respiratory coupling defect in siRnd3-transfected

cells. As PPARγ has been identified as a transcriptional regulator of UCP2[33], we next

assessed its expression levels. It is interesting to note that although the mRNA

transcripts of PPARγ did not change following manipulation of *Rnd3* (sFig 2), the

PPARγ protein expression was stimulated by myc-Rnd3 overexpression and was

repressed by Rnd3 knockdown (Fig 6A-6B), suggesting a possible post-translational

regulation of PPARγ by Rnd3.

**RND3 is physically bound to PPARγ and results in the accumulation of PPARγ in
the nuclei**

To investigate if PPARγ protein could be functionally regulated by Rnd3, we knocked

down and overexpressed the latter in BeWo cell cultures. As a transcription factor, the

nuclear distribution of PPARγ is critical for maintaining its biological function. We

detected apparent nuclear accumulation of PPARγ protein corresponding to the

increase in Rnd3 expression. The opposite trend was observed when Rnd3 was

knocked down (Fig 6D). Subsequently, a luciferase experiment was conducted in

order to determine if Rnd3 caused any effect on its transcriptional activity. The

luciferase reporter was driven by a *UCP2* promoter, which was responsible for the

PPARγ-dependent transcriptional activity. Myc-Rnd3 overexpression resulted in a

5.2-fold increase in luciferase activity compared with that of the control, while

downregulation of Rnd3 weakened PPARγ transcriptional activity and resulted in

68% declined luciferase signal (Fig 6E). To further explore the potential mechanism

of Rnd3-induced PPARγ protein accumulation, we performed an *in vivo*

coimmunoprecipitation assay with 293T cells. As shown in Fig 6F, physical

interaction between Myc-RND3 and Flag-PPARγ proteins was detected. Moreover,

we performed co-immunostaining of these two proteins in BeWo cells and confirmed

the co-localization of RND3 and PPARγ protein molecules and the reduced nuclear

PPARγ protein levels in Rnd3 knockdown cells (Fig 6G).

Mitochondrial dysfunction mediated by Rnd3 deficiency is attenuated by PPARγ

overexpression

To assess whether PPARγ downregulation is responsible for Rnd3 deficiency-induced

mitochondrial defects, Flag-PPARγ was overexpressed in Rnd3 knockdown BeWo

cells. The improvement in mitochondrial membrane potential and mitochondrial

morphological integrity was observed following PPARγ overexpression (Fig 7A-C).

The ROS levels were detected by DHE labeling. We also detected 8-isopropane levels.

PPARγ overexpression further ameliorated Rnd3 deficiency-mediated oxidative stress

(Fig 7D-F). We analyzed the expression levels of UCP2 in Rnd3 knockdown BeWo

cells with or without administration of Flag-PPARγ. As expected, PPARγ attenuated

Rnd3 deficiency-induced UCP2 downregulation both at the mRNA and protein levels

(Fig 7G-H). Finally, we assessed the mitochondrial respiratory functions of the

different groups of BeWo cells. Overexpression of PPARγ significantly protected the

mitochondrial function with improved proton leakage and coupler efficiency (Fig

7I-J).

Adenoviral-mediated Rnd3 overexpression in human PE primary trophoblasts

rescues oxidative stress and mitochondrial defect

Rnd3 downregulation was demonstrated in human PE-PTBs along with severe

oxidative stress and mitochondrial injury. To further reveal the critical role of Rnd3 in

the clinical pathology of PE, we overexpressed hRnd3 in human PTBs by

adenoviral-mediated gene delivery. Elevated RND3 protein levels in Ad-GFP-hRnd3

treated PTBs were confirmed by western blot analysis (Fig 8D). In the absence of
Ad-GFP-hRnd3 infection, the baseline PE-PTBs exhibited higher ROS levels
compared with those of the control-PTBs (Fig 8A, cells displaying no GFP, pointed
by long arrows). Following infection with Ad-GFP-hRnd3, the ROS levels of the
PE-PTBs were significantly reduced (Fig 8A, cells displaying GFP, pointed by arrow
heads). The levels of 8-isopropane were decreased in PE-PTBs following
Ad-GFP-hRnd3 application (Fig 8B), which was consistent with the previous
observations. Increased expression levels of PPARγ and UCP2 were observed, as
expected, in the PTBs with Ad-GFP-hRnd3 (Fig 8C-D). In addition to regulating the
PPARγ/UCP2 pathway, Rnd3 further attenuated the mitochondrial function in
PE-PTBs (Fig 8E-G).

**Downregulation of the expression levels of PPARγ and UCP2 were observed in
human placentae with PE**

The expression levels of PPARγ and UCP2 were evaluated in human PE placental
tissues. The experiments aimed to offer additional insight in the clinical relevance of
the regulation of the PPARγ/UCP2 pathway by Rnd3 in PE. PPARγ protein levels
were downregulated in PE placentae. Consistent with the post-transcriptional
regulation of PPARγ by Rnd3, the corresponding mRNA levels of *PPARγ* indicated no
significant changes between the control and PE groups (Fig 9A-B). The mRNA
transcripts of *UCP2* and its protein levels were reduced in human PE placentae (Fig
9A and C).

Discussion

PE has been suggested as a mitochondrial disorder from the late 1980s[34]. The
mitochondrion is an important organelle that generates energy during pregnancy and
is important in regulating cellular metabolism[35]. A damaged mitochondrion is
characterized by disturbed electron transport chain (ETC) and is the source of ROS
formation that contributes to placental impairment. The leakage of the electrons from

the complexes Ⅰ and Ⅱ of the mitochondrial transport chain to the molecular

oxygen produces the reactive superoxide ion[8, 36]. Proteome analysis of PE placentae

has shown that the abnormal expression levels of the respiratory complex proteins

were associated with the generation of ROS in the mitochondrial respiratory chain[37].

Loss of mitochondrial control of ROS seems to trigger vascular inflammation and

endothelial dysfunction, which is characterized by the hyper-sensitivity to

vasoconstriction and low anticoagulant activity[38]. This process makes a significant

contribution to the pathogenesis of PE[39].

Increased RND3 protein expression has been reported in pregnant myometria

compared with myometrial samples from non-pregnant women. The roles of Rnd3 in

the myometrium have been implicated in regulating uterine quiescence and calcium

sensitization[40-42]. We compared the *Rnd3* mRNA levels in human villi at the first

trimester with the term placental tissues. An increase in *Rnd3* mRNA expression

levels was demonstrated during pregnancy (sFig3). The clinical significance of the

upregulation of Rnd3 in placental development remains unknown. Certain studies

have suggested the function of Rnd3 on placental trophoblasts. A research group

reported that the lncRNAs HOXA11-AS and TUG1 were downregulated in PE and

that the two lncRNAs could promote trophoblast proliferation and migration by

repressing Rnd3[30, 31]. In contrast to these observations, Rnd3 has also been proposed

as a stimulator of trophoblast cell invasion in PE, under the repression caused by

miR-182-5p[32]. However, the expression levels of Rnd3 in PE patients were not

detected in these studies.

In the present study, a critical role of Rnd3 was revealed with regard to the

pathogenesis of PE. A 62.9% reduction in RND3 protein levels and a 34.4% reduction

in *Rnd3* mRNA levels were detected in human PE placentae at the third trimester.

While the exact cause of Rnd3 downregulation in PE remains unknown, the

understanding of the pathological consequence of Rnd3 downregulation is important

and has considerable clinical significance.

It is interesting to note that the mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) copy number is increased in human early-onset PE placentae compared with that of the normal control[12], suggesting the compensatory mitochondrial biogenesis in response to the insufficient energy supply. The data reported in the present study indicated that Rnd3 deficiency in trophoblast cells induced uncoupling in the ETC and electron leakage. Similar with the compensatory mitochondrial biogenesis in human PE placentae, the generation of mtDNA was stimulated in the situation of Rnd3 knockdown (sFig 2). The ultrastructural data further indicated the increased mitochondrial number, as determined by electron microscopy, in siRnd3 transfected BeWo cells (Fig5A). The findings suggested that mitochondrial biogenesis was boosted in trophoblasts in response to the Rnd3 insufficiency. However, the adaptive response failed to generate functional competent mitochondria as a result of the downregulation of the PPARγ/UCP2 pathway.

Uncoupling proteins (UCPs) are mitochondrial transporters in the inner membrane mediating dissipation of proton gradient. By uncoupling oxidative phosphorylation from ATP synthesis, UCPs play a critical role in controlling ROS production from mitochondrial ETC[43-45]. Out of the five UCP homologues, UCP2 is ubiquitously expressed in the heart, adipose tissue, skeletal muscle, kidney, lung and placenta as well as in immune cells[46]. UCP2 exerts protective properties against oxidative damage by reducing ROS generation via decreasing mitochondrial proton gradient and local oxygen availability[47]. Inhibition of UCP2 by GDP leads to a burst of the mitochondrial membrane potential and increased H_2O_2 levels in the spleen and thymus, which is followed by proton gradient collapse[48]. Moreover, deletion of the *UCP2* gene in mice exhibited persistent ROS accumulation and activated macrophage immunity[49,44]. UCP2 has also been reported as a protector of mitochondrial impairment. Knockdown of UCP2 in HK-2 cells and astrocytes resulted in increased apoptosis, oxidative stress and damaged mitochondrial ultrastructure and function[50, 51]. UCP2 deficiency induces elevation of mitochondrial membrane potential. This

process has been suggested as a trigger of mitochondrial injury. The long-lasting rise

of the mitochondrial membrane potential can induce the opening of the mitochondrial

permeability transition pore (mPTP), which non-selectively increases the exchange of

ions and solutes leading to the membrane potential depolarization, mitochondrial

matrix swelling and cell death[52, 53]. In the present study, Rnd3-mediated

downregulation of UCP2 in BeWo cells resulted in increased ROS production and

mitochondrial damaged phenotypes. These processes were accompanied by collapse

of membrane potential, abnormal ultrastructure, elevated proton leakage and low

coupling efficiency of ETC. The expression of Rnd3 in human primary PE trophoblast

could partially increase UCP2 expression and ameliorate the mitochondrial functional

defect. The findings indicated the role of UCP2 in mitochondrial ROS-mediated

etiology of PE development.

The transcriptional control proteins of UCP2 have been demonstrated with the

involvement of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs)[54].

Thiazolidinedione is a PPAR agonist, which specifically activates PPARγ and has the

ability to increase *UCP2* gene expression in adipose tissues from rodents and human

patients[55, 56]. PPARγ and its ligands directly activate *UCP2* gene promoter in muscle

cells and adipocytes[54] via the E-box element proximal to the *UCP2* promoter[33]. In the

present study, downregulated PPARγ/UCP2 signaling was detected in human PE

placentae, contributing to mitochondrial defect and oxidative stress in PE primary

trophoblasts. However, the upregulation in the expression levels of PPARγ and UCP2

have also been reported in the pathological placentas of maternal nutrient restriction,

attributing to enhanced fatty acid metabolism and limited glucose utilization[57].

Therefore, the homeostasis of the PPARγ/UCP2 axis is critical in maintaining normal

placental function.

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338 **Disclosure**

339 None.

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Figure 1. The expression of RND3 is downregulated in human placentae with PE.
(**A**) Representative RND3 protein expression by Western blot analysis. Densitometry of bands was performed by Image J. (**B**) Relative levels of *Rnd3* mRNA from 34 human normal term placentae and 24 human placentae with PE.

Figure 2. Decreased RND3 expression levels are associated with severe oxidative stress and apoptosis in PE patient derived-human primary trophoblasts. (**A**) Severe oxidative stress was observed in human placental tissue sections from PE patients by DHE staining. The nuclei were visualized by blue DAPI staining. Scale bar represents 200 μm. (**B**) Isolated human primary trophoblast cells (PTBs) were identified by the cell surface marker CK7 shown in red and the nuclei were visualized by DAPI. The purity of primary trophoblasts was calculated by the ratio of CK7-positive cells over nuclei. The scale bar represents 50 μm. (**C**) RND3 protein expression in PTBs was labeled by immunostaining. Decreased RND3 expression along with increased ROS levels were observed in the PTBs from PE patients. The scale bar represents 5 μm. (**D**) Elevated ROS levels and severe apoptosis were observed in the PE PTBs compared with those of the PTBs from healthy control subjects. ROS was labeled by DHE staining shown in red. The arrows point at the TUNEL-positive cells (green), which overlapped with nuclear counter-staining (blue). The scale bar represents 40 μm.

Figure 3. Abnormal mitochondria were observed in the human placental trophoblasts with PE. (**A**) Placental tissues from PE patients and healthy control subjects were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy and viewed at a low magnification (upper panel) and a high magnification (lower panel), respectively. The arrows point at the damaged mitochondria. The scale bars represent 1 μm and 0.5 μm, respectively. (**B**) Mitochondrial membrane potentials were shown by the JC1 staining of the primary trophoblast cells isolated from PE patients and healthy control subjects with or without hypoxic cell culture. JC1 is a cell permeable dye that accumulates in mitochondria and yields green fluorescence. Driven by high mitochondrial membrane potential, JC1 is able to enter the mitochondrial inner membrane and yield red fluorescence. The ratios of the red/green fluorescence intensities were quantified by the image J software. The numbers in the columns represent the numbers of cells in each group. C-PTBs indicates control-primary trophoblasts, and P-PTBs indicates PE-primary trophoblasts.

Figure 4. RND3 represses the hypoxia-induced ROS generation and apoptosis in trophoblastic BeWo cells. (**A**) Reduced ROS levels were observed in hypoxic conditions and were challenged with GFP-Rnd3 overexpressing BeWo cells. ROS was labeled by DHE staining shown in red. The arrows point at the GFP-Rnd3 expressing cells. The scale bar represents 80 μm. (**B**) A decrease in 8-isoprostane levels was detected in the cell lysates of myc-Rnd3 overexpressing BeWo cells, compared with those noted in the myc control group. The experiments were repeated 3 times. (**C**) The comparison of the TUNEL staining in myc and myc-Rnd3 overexpressing BeWo cells following 16 h of hypoxic cell culture. The arrows indicate TUNEL-positive cells (green) overlapping with nuclear counter-staining. The scale bar represents 200 μm. (**D**) Quantification of TUNEL-positive cells. The experiments were repeated 3 times.

Figure 5. RND3 deficiency results in mitochondrial dysfunction. (**A**) By transmission electron microscope analysis, mitochondrial damage was observed in siRnd3 transiently transfected BeWo cells. The arrow heads indicate the loss of crista in the damaged mitochondria. The images of a series of magnifications are displayed. (**B**) The depolarized mitochondrial membrane potential was detected in siRnd3 transfected BeWo cells compared with that noted in the siCtrl group. The mitochondrial membrane potential was quantified by the ratios of red/green fluorescence intensities of mitochondria-specific JC1 dye. (**C**) The Oxygen consumption rate (OCR) of treated BeWo cells was measured prior to and following the injections of oligomycin, FCCP, rotenone and antimycin A (Rot/AA), respectively. Increased proton leak was detected in the siRnd3 group. (**D**) Reduced coupler efficiency was detected in siRnd3 transfected BeWo cells compared with that noted in the siCtrl group as determined by mitochondrial OCR determination. The scale bar represents 80 μm. The numbers in the columns represent the number of cells in each group.

Figure 6. RND3 interacts with PPARγ and promotes the PPARγ-UCP2 cascade. (**A**) Increased expression levels of UCP2 and PPARγ were observed following RND3 overexpression. (**B**) Knockdown of RND3 results in lower UCP2 and PPARγ protein expression levels. (**C**) Q-PCR analysis indicated that *UCP2* mRNA levels were increased in myc-Rnd3 expressed cells, whereas they were reduced in RND3 deficient cells. (**D**) Nuclear protein levels of RND3 and PPARγ were increased in the myc-Rnd3 overexpressed cells and were decreased in the RND3 deficient cells. (**E**) RND3 regulated PPARγ transcriptional activity as demonstrated by luciferase assays. (**F**) Myc-Rnd3 physically interacted with flag-PPARγ *in vivo* as determined by coimmunoprecipitation. (**G**) Immunofluorescence staining indicated the co-localization of PPARγ and RND3 proteins. Knockdown of RND3 reduced the nuclear accumulation of the PPARγ protein. The scale bar represents 100 μm.

Figure 7. RND3 deficiency-mediated oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction are attenuated by PPARγ overexpression. (**A**) JC1 staining was performed in BeWo cells among the three following groups: siCtrl, siRnd3 and siRnd3 plus flag-PPARγ. The depolarization of the mitochondrial membrane potential caused by RND3 knockdown was attenuated by flag-PPARγ overexpression. The scale bar represents 80 μm. (**B**) The quantification of the ratios of red/green fluorescence intensities. The experiments were repeated 3 times. (**C**) Transmission electron microscope analysis indicates that the RND3 deficiency-induced mitochondrial damage was recovered by flag-PPARγ overexpression. The arrow heads display damaged mitochondrial structure in the siRnd3 group. The scale bar represents 0.5 μm. (**D**) DHE staining indicates ROS levels among the three groups. The scale bar represents 100 μm. (**E**) The ROS levels were quantified by the densitometry of DHE staining. The experiments were repeated 3 times. (**F**) 8-isoprostane levels were detected in the cell lysates of the three groups. (**G**) Q-PCR

analysis of *UCP2* mRNA levels among the three groups. The experiments were repeated 3 times. (**H**) Immunoblots revealed increased UCP2 protein expression levels in the flag-PPARγ rescue group. (**I**) Mitochondrial respiratory function was measured. The proton leak associated OCR was improved by PPARγ. (**J**) RND3 deficiency-mediated defective coupler efficiency was ameliorated by PPARγ.

Figure 8. Oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction in PE patient-derived PTBs are partially rescued by RND3 overexpression. (A) Human PTBs from PE patient and healthy control subjects were infected with Ad-GFP-hRND3. Hypoxic cell culture was applied to induce oxidative stress. The arrow heads represent the GFP-RND3 expressing PTBs (green fluorescence). The long arrows represent the PTBs with non-GFP-RND3. ROS levels were significantly reduced in PE-PTBs following GFP-RND3 overexpression as determined by DHE staining. NS indicates non-specific staining. The scale bar represents 25 μm. (**B**) 8-isoprostane level detection in the C-PTBs and P-PTBs following treatment of Ad-GFP or Ad-GFP-Rnd3. (**C**) Ad-GFP-hRND3 improved *UCP2* mRNA transcripts in the PTBs. (**D**) RND3 overexpression rescued PPARγ-UCP2 signaling in PE-PTBs. Mitochondrial dysfunction in PE-PTBs was partially rescued by Ad-GFP-hRND3, as determined by the increases in proton leak associated OCR (**E**) and respiratory control ratio (**F**). C-PTBs indicates control-primary trophoblasts; P-PTBs, PE-primary trophoblasts.

Figure 9. The downregulation of the PPARγ-UCP2 cascade is confirmed in human placentae with PE. (A) Representative protein expression levels of PPARγ and UCP2 as determined by western blot analysis. The levels of the two proteins were downregulated in the PE placentas. (**B**) Relative mRNA levels of *PPARγ* from 34 normal term placentae and 24 PE placentae. (**C**) Relative mRNA levels of *UCP2* from 34 normal term placentae and 24 PE placentae.

Figure 1

A.

B.

Relative mRNA level of RND3 in human placentae (/GAPDH)

P=0.0063

Control
n=34

PE
n=24

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A.

GFP | ROS | GFP/ROS

GFP-Rnd3 | ROS | GFP-Rnd3/ROS

80µm

B.

8-Iso (pg/mg protein)

P=0.0058

Myc   Myc-Rnd3

C.

Myc + Hypoxia   TUNEL   TUNEL /DAPI

D.

TUNEL positive cell (%)

P=0.004

Myc   Myc-Rnd3

Myc-Rnd3 + Hypoxia

200µm

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

A.

	Control	PE	
PPARγ			57kDa
UCP2			33kDa
β-actin			42kDa

B.

P=0.1255

Relative mRNA level of PPARγ in human placenta (/GAPDH)

1.5
1.0
0.5
0.0

Control
n=34

PE
n=24

C.

P=0.0003

Relative mRNA level of UCP2 in human placenta (/GAPDH)

0.25
0.20
0.15
0.10
0.05
0.00

Control
n=34

PE
n=24