

24 **Abstract**

25 *Background:* Children born extremely preterm are at heightened risk for intellectual and social
26 impairment, including Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). There is increasing evidence for a key role of the
27 placenta in prenatal developmental programming, suggesting that the placenta may explain origins of
28 neurodevelopmental outcomes.

29

30 *Methods:* We examined associations between placental genomic and epigenomic profiles and assessed
31 their ability to predict intellectual and social impairment at age 10 years in 379 children from the
32 Extremely Low Gestational Age Newborn (ELGAN) cohort. Assessment of intellectual ability (IQ) and
33 social function was completed with the Differential Ability Scales-II (DAS-II) and Social Responsiveness
34 Scale (SRS), respectively. Examining IQ and SRS allows for studying ASD risk beyond the diagnostic
35 criteria, as IQ and SRS are continuous measures strongly correlated with ASD. Genome-wide mRNA,
36 CpG methylation and miRNA were assayed with the Illumina Hiseq 2500, HTG EdgeSeq miRNA Whole
37 Transcriptome Assay, and Illumina EPIC/850K array, respectively. We conducted genome-wide
38 differential mRNA/miRNA and epigenome-wide placenta analyses. These molecular features were
39 integrated for a predictive analysis of IQ and SRS outcomes using kernel aggregation regression. We
40 lastly examined associations between ASD and the genomically-predicted component of IQ and SRS.

41

42 *Results:* Genes with important roles in placenta angiogenesis and neural function were associated with
43 intellectual and social impairment. Kernel aggregations of placental multi-omics strongly predicted
44 intellectual and social function, explaining approximately 8% and 12% of the variance in SRS and IQ
45 scores via cross-validation, respectively. Predicted in-sample SRS and IQ showed significant positive and
46 negative associations with ASD case-control status.

47

48 *Limitations:* The ELGAN is a cohort of children born pre-term, and generalization may be affected by
49 unmeasured confounders associated with low gestational age. We conducted external validation of
50 predictive models, though the sample size of the out-sample dataset ($N = 49$) and the scope of the
51 available placental datasets are limited. Further validation of the models is merited.

52

53 *Conclusions:* Aggregating information from biomarkers within and between molecular data types
54 improves prediction of complex traits like social and intellectual ability in children born extremely preterm,
55 suggesting that traits influenced by the placenta-brain axis may be omnigenic.

56

57 **Keywords:** prenatal neurodevelopmental programming, social and cognitive impairment, placental gene
58 regulation, epigenome-wide association, differential expression analysis, multi-omic aggregation

59 **Background**

60 Despite substantial research efforts to elucidate the etiology of neurodevelopmental impairment [1], little
61 is known about genomic and epigenomic factors influencing trajectories of neurodevelopment, such as
62 those associated with preterm delivery [2]. Children born extremely preterm are at increased risk not only
63 for intellectual impairment but also for Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) [3,4], often accompanied by
64 intellectual disability. In addition, preterm-born children have consistently been observed to manifest
65 social difficulties (e.g., fewer prosocial behaviors) in childhood and adolescence that do not meet
66 diagnostic criteria for ASD [5].

67
68 The placenta is posited as a critical determinant of both immediate and long-lasting neurodevelopmental
69 outcomes in children [1]. The placenta is involved in hormone and neurotransmitter production and
70 transfer of nutrients to the fetus, thus having direct influence on brain development. This connection
71 between the placenta and the brain is termed the placenta-brain axis [6]. Epidemiological and animal
72 studies have linked genomic and epigenomic alterations in the placenta with neurodevelopmental
73 disorders and normal neurobehavioral development [7–9]. For example, the Markers of Autism Risk in
74 Babies: Learning Early Signs (MARBLES) study has identified differentially methylated region containing
75 putative fetal brain enhancer between in placentas from ASD ($N = 24$) and typically developing ($n = 23$)
76 children [10]. However, identifying genomic signatures of risk for neurodevelopmental disorders such as
77 ASD in placenta is a challenging. Further study of molecular interactions representing the placenta-brain
78 axis may advance our understanding of fetal mechanisms involved in aberrant neurodevelopment [6].

79
80 Most prior studies have investigated single molecular levels of the placenta genome or epigenome,
81 precluding analysis of possible interactions that could be linked to neurodevelopmental outcomes.
82 Examining only a single molecular feature, or a single type of features even at a genomic scale can still
83 result in much unexplained variation in phenotype due to potentially important interactions between
84 multiple features [11,12]. This observation is in line with Boyle *et al.*'s omnigenic model [13,14], which
85 proposes that gene regulatory networks are so highly interconnected that a large portion of the heritability
86 of complex traits can be explained by effects on genes outside core pathways. Molecular integration to

87 identify pathways for fetal neurodevelopment in children has been unexplored but may prove to be
88 insightful in associations with complex diseases [15].

89

90 We conducted a genome-wide analysis of DNA methylation, miRNA, and mRNA expression in the
91 placenta, examining individual associations with social and intellectual impairment at 10 years of age in
92 children from the Extremely Low Gestational Age Newborn (ELGAN) study [16]. We then combined the
93 genomic and epigenomic data to identify correlative networks of placental genomic and epigenomic
94 biomarkers predictive of social and intellectual impairment as continuous scales, thus allowing us to study
95 neurodevelopmental difficulties beyond the ASD diagnostic categories [17]. To assess the convergent
96 validity of our behavioral findings, we also examined the association of social and intellectual impairment
97 in relation to ASD diagnoses [18]. To our knowledge, this is the first study to use multiple placental
98 molecular signatures to predict intellectual and social impairment, which may inform a framework for
99 predicting risk of adverse neurocognitive and neurobehavioral outcomes in young children.

100

101 **Methods**

102 *ELGAN recruitment and study participants*

103 From 2002-2004, women who gave birth at under 28 weeks gestation at one of 14 medical centers
104 across five U.S. states enrolled in the ELGAN study [16]. The Institutional Review Board at each
105 participating institution approved study procedures. Included were 411 of 889 children with both placental
106 molecular analysis and a 10-year follow-up assessment.

107

108 *Social and cognitive function and ASD at 10 years of age*

109 Trained child psychologist examiner [5,19] evaluated general cognitive ability (IQ) with the School-Age
110 Differential Ability Scales-II (DAS-II) Verbal and Nonverbal Reasoning subscales [20]. The Social
111 Responsiveness Scale (SRS) was used to assess severity of ASD-related social deficits in 5 subdomains:
112 social awareness, social cognition, social communication, social motivation, and autistic mannerisms [21].
113 We used the gender-normed T-score (SRS-T; intended to correct gender differences observed in
114 normative samples) as continuous measure of social deficit [22]. All participants were assessed for ASD

115 [18]. Diagnostic assessment of ASD was conducted with three well-validated measures, administered
116 sequentially. First, the Social Communication Questionnaire (SCQ) was administered to screen for
117 potential ASD, using a score ≥ 11 to increase sensitivity relative to the standard criterion score of ≥ 15
118 [18,23]. For children who screened positive on the SCQ criterion, we conducted the Autism Diagnostic
119 Interview–Revised (ADI-R) with the primary caregiver [24]. All children who met ADI-R criteria for ASD, or
120 who had a prior clinical diagnosis of ASD and/or exhibited symptoms of ASD during cognitive testing
121 according to the site psychologist) were then assessed with the Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule,
122 Second Version (ADOS-2), which served as the criterion measure of ASD in this study [25]. All ADOS-2
123 administrations were independently scored by a second rater with autism diagnostic and ADOS-2
124 expertise. In cases of scoring disagreements, consensus was reached via discussion between raters.
125 Item-by-item inter-rater agreement for the 14 ADOS-2 diagnostic algorithm scores was on average 0.93
126 ($SD = 0.12$). These developmental assessment procedures and all relevant test scores for ASD and
127 intellectual function are reported in a prior publication [19].

128

129 *Placental DNA and RNA extraction*

130 After delivery, placentas were biopsied under sterile conditions. We collected a piece of the chorion,
131 representing the fetal side of the placenta [26]. More specifically, placentas were placed in a sterilized
132 basin and biopsied by pulling back the amnion to expose the chorion at the midpoint of the longest
133 distance between the cord insertion and edge of the placental disk. A sample from the *fetal side* of the
134 placenta was removed by applying traction to the chorion and underlying trophoblast tissue. The
135 specimen was placed in a cryogenic vial and immersed in liquid nitrogen. To preserve DNA and RNA
136 integrity, specimens were stored at -80°C until processed. For processing, a 0.2g subsection of the
137 placental tissue was cut from the frozen biopsy and washed with sterile 1x phosphate-buffered saline to
138 remove any remaining blood. Samples were homogenized using a lysis buffer, and the homogenate was
139 separated into aliquots. This process was detailed in a prior publication [27]. Nucleic acids were extracted
140 from the homogenate using AllPrep DNA/RNA/miRNA Universal kit (Qiagen, Germany). The quantity and
141 quality of DNA and RNA were analyzed using the NanoDrop 1000 spectrophotometer and its integrity
142 verified by the Agilent 2100 BioAnalyzer.

143

144 *Epigenome-wide placental DNA methylation*

145 Extracted DNA sequences were bisulfate-converted using the EZ DNA methylation kit (Zymo Research,
146 Irvine, CA) and followed by quantification using the Infinium MethylationEPIC BeadChip (Illumina, San
147 Diego, CA), which measures CpG loci at a single nucleotide resolution, as previously described [26–29].
148 Quality control and normalization were performed resulting in 856,832 CpG probes from downstream
149 analysis, with methylation represented as the average methylation level at a single CpG site (β -value)
150 [27,30–32]. DNA methylation data was imported into R for pre-processing using the *minfi* package [30].
151 Quality control was performed at the sample level, excluding samples that failed and technical duplicates;
152 411 samples were retained for subsequent analyses. Functional normalization was performed with a
153 preliminary step of normal-exponential out-of band (*noob*) correction method [33] for background
154 subtraction and dye normalization, followed by the typical functional normalization method with the top
155 two principal components of the control matrix [31,34]. Quality control was performed on individual probes
156 by computing a detection P value and excluded 806 (0.09%) probes with non-significant detection ($P >$
157 0.01) for 5% or more of the samples. A total of 856,832 CpG sites were included in the final analyses.
158 Lastly, the *ComBat* function was used from the *sva* package to adjust for batch effects from sample plate
159 [83]. The data were visualized using density distributions at all processing steps. Each probe measured
160 the average methylation level at a single CpG site. Methylation levels were calculated and expressed as
161 β values ($\beta = \text{intensity of the methylated allele } (M) / (\text{intensity of the unmethylated allele } (U) + \text{intensity of}$
162 $\text{the methylated allele } (M) + 100)$). β values were logit transformed to M values for statistical analyses [35].

163

164 *Genome-wide placental mRNA and miRNA expression*

165 mRNA expression was determined using the Illumina QuantSeq 3' mRNA-Seq Library Prep Kit, a method
166 with high strand specificity. mRNA-sequencing libraries were pooled and sequenced (single-end 50 bp)
167 on one lane of the Illumina HiSeq 2500. mRNA were quantified through pseudo-alignment with *Salmon*
168 v.14.0 [36] mapped to the GENCODE Release 31 (GRCh37) reference transcriptome. miRNA expression
169 profiles were assessed using the HTG EdgeSeq miRNA Whole Transcriptome Assay (HTG Molecular
170 Diagnostics, Tucson, AZ). miRNA were aligned to probe sequences and quantified using the HTG

171 EdgeSeq System [37]. Genes and miRNAs with less than 5 counts for each sample were filtered,
172 resulting in 11,224 genes and 2,047 miRNAs for downstream analysis. Distributional differences between
173 lanes were first upper-quartile normalized [38]. Unwanted technical and biological variation (e.g. tissue
174 heterogeneity) was then estimated using *RUVSeq* [39], where we empirically defined transcripts not
175 associated with outcomes of interest as negative control housekeeping probes [40]. One dimension of
176 unwanted variation was removed from the variance-stabilized transformation of the gene expression data
177 using the *limma* package [40–43]

178

179 Statistical Analysis

180 All code and functions used in the statistical analysis can be found at [https://github.com/bhattacharya-a-](https://github.com/bhattacharya-a-bt/multiomics_ELGAN)
181 [bt/multiomics_ELGAN](https://github.com/bhattacharya-a-bt/multiomics_ELGAN).

182

183 *Correlative analyses between SRS, IQ, and ASD*

184 Associations among SRS scores, IQ and ASD were assessed using Pearson correlations with estimated
185 95% confidence intervals, and the difference in distributions of SRS and IQ across ASD case-control was
186 assessed using Wilcoxon rank-sum tests. Associations between demographic variables (race, sex,
187 maternal age, number of gestational days, maternal smoking status, placental inflammation, birth weight
188 Z-score and mother's insurance) with SRS and IQ were assessed using multivariable regression,
189 assessing the significance of regression parameters using Wald tests of significance and adjusting for
190 multiple testing with the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure [44].

191

192 *Genome-wide molecular associations with SRS and IQ*

193 Once associations between SRS and IQ and ASD were confirmed, we utilized continuous SRS and IQ
194 measures as the main outcomes of interest. Associations between mRNA expression or miRNA
195 expression with SRS and IQ were estimated through a negative binomial linear model using *DESeq2* [43].
196 Epigenome-wide associations (EWAS) of CpG methylation sites with outcomes were assessed using
197 robust linear regression [45] with test statistic modification through an empirical Bayes procedure [42],
198 described previously [27]. Both the differential mRNA and miRNA expression and EWAS models

199 controlled for the following covariates: race, age, sex, number of gestational age days, birth weight Z-
200 score, and education level of the mother. Multiple testing was adjusted for using the Benjamini-Hochberg
201 procedure [44].

202

203 *Placental multi-molecular prediction of SRS and IQ*

204 We next assessed how well an aggregate of one or more of the molecular datasets (CpG methylation,
205 mRNA expression, and miRNA expression) predicted continuous SRS and IQ scores. The analytical
206 scheme is summarized in **Figure 1**, using 379 samples with data for all three molecular datasets (DNA
207 methylation, miRNA, and mRNA). Briefly, we first adjusted the outcome variables and molecular datasets
208 for above noted demographic and clinical covariates using *limma* [46] to account for associations
209 between the outcomes and these covariates in the eventual predictive models. Next, to model the
210 covariance between samples within a single molecular profile, we aggregated the molecular datasets with
211 thousands of biomarkers each into a *molecular kernel* matrix. A *molecular kernel* matrix represents the
212 inter-sample similarities in a given molecular profile (**Supplementary Methods**). A linear or non-linear
213 kernel aggregation may aid in prediction of complex traits by capturing non-additive effects [47–50], which
214 represents a sizable portion of phenotypic variation [51,52]. Using all individual, pairwise, and triplet-wise
215 combinations of molecular kernel matrices, we fitted predictive models of SRS and IQ based on linear
216 mixed modeling [50] or kernel regression least squares (KRLS) [53] and assessed predictive performance
217 with McNemar’s adjusted R^2 via Monte Carlo cross validation [54]. We also optimized predictive models
218 for the number of included biomarkers per molecular profile. Extensive model details, as well as
219 alternative models considered, are detailed in **Supplemental Methods**.

220

221 *Validation in external dataset*

222 Lack of studies that consider placental mRNA, CpG methylation and miRNA data with long-term child
223 neurodevelopment limit the ability to establish external validation. We obtained one external placental
224 CpG methylation dataset from the Markers of Autism Risk in Babies-Learning Early Signs (MARBLEs)
225 cohort [10]. To assess out-of-sample performance of kernel models for methylation, we downloaded
226 MethylC-seq data for 47 placenta samples, 24 of which identified as ASD cases (NCBI Gene Expression

227 Omnibus accession numbers GSE67615) [10]. β -values for DNA methylation were extracted from BED
228 files and transformed into M -values with an offset of 1 [35], and used the best methylation-only predictive
229 model to predict SRS and IQ in these 47 samples, as detailed in **Supplemental Methods**.

230

231 *Correlative networks*

232 In the final KRLS predictive models for both IQ and SRS including all three molecular profiles, we
233 extracted the top 50 most predictive (largest point-wise effect sizes) CpGs, miRNAs, and mRNAs of SRS
234 and IQ. A sparse correlative network was inferred among these biomarkers that links biomarkers based
235 on the strength of correlative signals using graphical lasso in *qgraph* [55,56].

236

237 **Results**

238 *SRS and IQ are well associated with ASD*

239 Although the sample is enriched for ASD cases ($N = 35$ cases, 9.3% of the sample) relative to non-
240 preterm cohorts, there is still a relatively low case-control ratio for a genome-wide study of this sample
241 size (descriptive statistics for relevant covariates in **Table 1**). Therefore, we considered continuous
242 measures of social impairment (SRS) and cognitive development (IQ) at age 10 for both associative and
243 predictive analyses. Using continuous variables for SRS and IQ allow us to study complexities beyond
244 the ASD diagnostic categories [15,17]. **Figure 2A-B** shows the relationship between SRS, IQ, and ASD.
245 The mean SRS is significantly higher in ASD cases compared to controls (mean difference of 1.74,
246 95% CI : (1.41, 2.07)). Mean IQ is significantly lower in ASD cases versus controls (mean difference of -
247 2.23, 95% CI (-2.46, -1.96)). Furthermore, SRS and IQ are negatively correlated (Pearson $\rho =$
248 -0.47 , 95% CI : (-0.55, -0.39)). We also measured associations between demographic characteristics
249 with SRS and IQ (**Figure 2C**) using multivariable regression. Male sex is associated with lower IQ, while
250 public health insurance is associated with both lower IQ and increased social impairment. Demographic
251 variables included in the multivariable regression explain approximately 12% and 15% of the total
252 variance explained in IQ and SRS, as measured by adjusted R^2 , with a summary of regression
253 parameters in **Table 2**. Based on the associations identified here and the value of inclusion of continuous
254 measures, subsequent genomic and epigenomic analyses control for demographic covariates.

255 *Table 1: Descriptive statistics for demographi and clinical covariates*

Continuous Variable		Mean, SD, Median
<i>Maternal age</i>		29.6, 6.61, 29.5
<i>Gestational days</i>		182.5, 9.17, 184.0
Categorical Variable		Number (Proportion)
<i>ASD</i>		
	<i>Case</i>	35 (9.3%)
	<i>Control</i>	344 (90.7%)
<i>Race</i>		
	<i>White</i>	233 (61.5%)
	<i>Black</i>	112 (29.5%)
	<i>Other</i>	34 (9.0%)
<i>Sex of baby</i>		
	<i>Female</i>	180 (47.5%)
	<i>Male</i>	199 (52.5%)
<i>Mother's smoking status</i>		
	<i>Non-smoker</i>	340 (89.7%)
	<i>Smoker</i>	39 (10.3%)
<i>Mother's insurance status</i>		
	<i>Private</i>	251 (66.2%)
	<i>Medicaid</i>	128 (33.8%)

256

257

258 *Table 2: Summary of regressions of SRS and IQ against clinical covariates.*

Parameter	SRS		IQ		
	Estimate (SE)	FDR-adjusted P-value (Raw P-value)	Estimate (SE)	FDR-adjusted P-value (Raw P-value)	
<i>Race</i>	<i>Black</i>	0.219 (0.13)	0.165 (0.091)	-0.369 (0.13)	0.012 (0.004)
	<i>Other</i>	0.375 (0.19)	0.087 (0.043)	-0.113 (0.18)	0.684 (0.533)
<i>Sex</i>	<i>Male</i>	0.119 (0.10)	0.342 (0.243)	-0.288 (0.10)	0.012 (0.004)
	<i>Female</i>	-0.002 (0.01)	0.800 (0.800)	-0.003 (0.01)	0.792 (0.748)
<i>Smoking status</i>	<i>Yes</i>	0.215 (0.17)	0.334 (0.204)	0.337 (0.17)	0.087 (0.043)
<i>Mother's insurance</i>	<i>Medicaid</i>	0.454 (0.13)	0.002 (0.001)	-0.453 (0.13)	0.003 (0.001)
<i>Gestational days</i>		-0.017 (0.01)	0.012 (0.002)	0.012 (0.01)	0.087 (0.043)
<i>Birthweight Z-score</i>		-0.060 (0.05)	0.342 (0.247)	0.179 (0.05)	0.003 (0.001)
<i>Placental inflammation</i>		-0.042 (0.11)	0.793 (0.705)	-0.046 (0.11)	0.793 (0.677)

259

260

261 *Genome-wide associations of mRNA, miRNA, and CpGs with SRS and IQ*

262 Genome-wide association tests between each of the individual placental molecular datasets (e.g. the

263 placental mRNA data, the CpG methylation, or the miRNA datasets) in relation to SRS and IQ (see

264 **Methods**) identified two genes with mRNA expression significantly associated with SRS at FDR-adjusted
 265 $P < 0.01$ (Hdc Homolog, Cell Cycle Regulator [*HECA*], LIM Domain Only 4 [*LMO4*]). We did not find CpG
 266 sites or miRNAs associated with SRS (**Table 3**). Associations between IQ and the mRNA expression, at
 267 FDR-adjusted $P < 0.01$, were observed at four genes, namely Ras-Related Protein Rab-5A (*RAB5A*),
 268 Transmembrane Protein 167A (*TMEM167A*), Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription 2 (*STAT2*),
 269 ITPRIP Like 2 (*ITPRIPL2*). One CpG site (*cg09418354* located in the gene Carbohydrate
 270 Sulfotransferase 11 (*CHST11*) displayed an association with IQ, and no miRNAs were associated with IQ
 271 (**Table 3**). Manhattan plots (**Supplemental Figure 1**) show the strength of associations of all biomarkers
 272 by genomic position. Summary statistics for these associations are provided in **Supplemental Materials**.
 273 No mRNAs, CpG sites, or miRNAs were significantly associated with both SRS and IQ, though effect
 274 sizes for associations with the same features were in opposite directions (see **Supplemental Materials**).
 275
 276 *Table 3*: Summary of genome-wide associations of molecular profiles with SRS and IQ at FDR-adjusted
 277 $P < 0.01$.

SRS		
Biomarker	Effect size	FDR-adjusted P-value
<i>mRNA expression</i>		
<i>HECA</i>	0.571	0.001
<i>LMO4</i>	0.467	0.001
IQ		
Biomarker		
<i>mRNA expression</i>		
<i>RAB5A</i>	-0.516	0.002
<i>TMEM167A</i>	-0.632	0.004
<i>ITPRIPL2</i>	-0.557	0.004
<i>STAT2</i>	-0.584	0.004
<i>CpG methylation site</i>		
<i>cg09418354</i>	-0.005	0.002

278

279

280 *Kernel regression shows predictive utility in aggregating multiple molecular datasets*

281 Because the genome wide association analyses revealed few mRNAs, CpG sites or miRNAs that were

282 associated with SRS or IQ with large effect sizes, we next assessed the impact of aggregating these

283 molecular datasets on prediction of SRS and IQ. This was done to account for the considerable number

284 of biomarkers that have moderate effect sizes on outcome. To find the most parsimonious model with the
285 greatest predictive performance, we first selected the optimal number of biomarkers per molecular profile
286 for each outcome that gave the largest mean adjusted R^2 in predictive models with only one of the three
287 molecular datasets (see **Supplemental Methods**). **Figure 3A** shows the relationship between the
288 number of biomarkers from the mRNA expression, CpG level, miRNA expression datasets and their
289 predictive performance. In general, predictive performance steadily increased as the number of biomarker
290 features increased until reaching a tipping point where predictive performance decreased (**Figure 3A**).
291 Overall, for CpG methylation, the top (lowest P -values of association) 5,000 CpG features showed the
292 greatest predictive performance, and for the mRNA and miRNA expression datasets, the top 1,000
293 features showed the greatest predictive performance.

294
295 Using the fully-tuned 7,000 biomarkers (5,000 for CpG methylation and 1,000 for both mRNA and miRNA
296 expression) per molecular dataset with feature selection done in the training set, we trained predictive
297 models (both linear and Gaussian kernel models) using all individual, pair-wise, and triplet-wise
298 combinations of the three molecular datasets. **Figure 3B** shows that whereas the mRNA had the lowest
299 predicted performance to both IQ ($R^2 = 0.025$) and SRS ($R^2 = 0.025$), aggregating the mRNA expression,
300 CpG methylation and miRNA expression datasets tends to increase the predictive performance.
301 Specifically, in relation to both outcomes (SRS and IQ), the model using all three integrated datasets
302 shows the greatest predictive performance (mean adjusted $R^2 = 0.11$ in IQ and $R^2 = 0.08$ in SRS).

303

304 *Correlative networks of placental biomarkers*

305 To gain further understanding of the associations among the identified mRNA, CpG and miRNA
306 biomarkers in the context of IQ and SRS, we extracted ($n = 50$) mRNA, CpGs, and miRNAs that have the
307 largest effect sizes on IQ and SRS in the kernel regression models and inferred sparse correlative
308 networks using the graphical lasso [55,56] (see **Methods**). In the networks (**Supplemental Figure 2**),
309 each molecular dataset clusters by itself, with minimal nodes extending between molecular datasets, and
310 more interconnection is observed between miRNAs and CpG methylation versus mRNAs. These
311 networks point to genes that play important roles in placental angiogenesis and neural function, such as

312 *SMARCA2* (SWI/SNF Related, Matrix Associated, Actin Dependent Regulator Of Chromatin, Subfamily A,
313 Member 2), *SLIT3* (Slit Guidance Ligand 3), and *LZTS2* (Leucine Zipper Tumor Suppressor 2) that have
314 been previously associated with neurodevelopmental disorders, including intellectual disability, social
315 impairment, mood disorders, and ASD [57–62].

316

317 *Validation of in-sample and out-sample SRS and IQ prediction with ASD case and control*

318 To contextualize our predictions, we tested whether the predicted SRS and IQ scores generated by our
319 kernel models are associated with ASD case-control status; these predicted SRS and IQ scores
320 represent the portion of the observed SRS and IQ values that our models can predict from placental
321 genomic features. We used the optimal 7,000 biomarker features identified with a 10-fold cross-validation
322 process, splitting samples into 10 hold-out sets and using the remaining samples as a training set to
323 predict SRS and IQ for all 379 samples. After accounting for covariates, the predicted SRS and IQ values
324 from the biomarker data were well-correlated with the observed clinical SRS and IQ values, explaining
325 approximately 8% (approximate Spearman $\rho = 0.29$, cross-validation R^2 P-value $P = 7.5 \times 10^{-9}$) and
326 12% (Spearman $\rho = 0.35$, $P = 3.6 \times 10^{-12}$) of the variance in the observed SRS and IQ variables,
327 respectively. In addition, we found strong association between the predicted SRS and IQ with ASD case
328 and controls, mean difference of -0.56 (test statistic $W = 8121$, $P = 6.6 \times 10^{-4}$) for IQ, and mean
329 difference of 0.33 ($W = 4717$, $P = 0.03$) for SRS (**Figure 4**).

330

331 Because we lacked an external dataset with all three molecular data (mRNA, CpG methylation, and
332 miRNA) and cognitive, social impairment and ASD data, we assessed the out-of-sample predictive
333 performance of the CpG methylation-only models using MethylC-seq data from the MARBLES cohort
334 (GEO GSE67615) [10]. We computed predicted IQ and SRS values for 47 placental samples (24 cases of
335 ASD) and assessed differences in mean predicted IQ and SRS across ASD case and control groups. The
336 direction of the association is similar to our data for IQ yet the differences in mean predicted IQ
337 (-0.22 , $P = 0.37$) and SRS (-0.42 , $P = 0.12$) across ASD groups in MARBLES is not significant (**Figure**
338 **4**). This external validation provides some evidence of the portability of our models and merits further
339 future validation of these models, as more placental multi-omic datasets are collected.

340

341 **Discussion**

342 We evaluated the predictive capability of three types of genomic and epigenomic molecular biomarkers
343 (mRNA, CpG methylation, and miRNA) in the placenta on cognitive and social impairment in relation to
344 ASD at 10 years of age. Genes that play important roles in placenta angiogenesis and neural function
345 were associated with SRS and IQ. The multi-omic predictions of SRS and IQ are strong and explain up to
346 8% and 12% of the variance in the observed SRS and IQ variables in 5-fold cross-validation, respectively.
347 This study supports the utility of aggregating information from biomarkers within and between molecular
348 datasets to improve prediction of complex neurodevelopmental outcomes like social and intellectual
349 ability, suggesting that traits on the placenta-brain axis may be omnigenic.

350

351 Several genes with known ties to neurodevelopmental disorders distinguished individuals with and
352 without intellectual and social impairments. For example, CpG methylation in *SLIT3* was associated with
353 intellectual (IQ) disability. *SLIT3* is highly expressed in trophoblastic endothelial cells [63] and plays a
354 critical role in placental angiogenesis and in the development of neuronal connectivity. Human and animal
355 genetic studies support that *SLIT3* is associated with mood disorders, IQ, and ASD [61,64–66]. *LZTS2*,
356 another gene we found to be associated with IQ, is involved in regulating embryonic development by the
357 *Wnt* signaling pathway [67,68]. Genetic and miRNA expression studies have linked *LZTS2* to social
358 impairment and ASD [69–71]. Furthermore, *LZTS2* is bound by the Chromodomain Helicase DNA Binding
359 Protein 8 gene (*CHD8*), which is associated with brain development in mice and neurodevelopmental
360 disorders in humans [72–74]. In relation to social impairment, *ADAMTS6* was found to be associated with
361 SRS. The *ADAMTS6* gene is a member of the ADAMTS protein family and is regulated by the cytokine
362 TNF-alpha [75]. In previous studies, *ADAMTS6* has been implicated in intellectual disability and growth
363 development and with socially affected traits in pigs [76,77].

364

365 Looking into the individual molecular datasets, DNA methylation effects showed the strongest prediction
366 of both SRS and IQ impairment. There is strong evidence suggesting inverse correlation between DNA
367 methylation of the first intron and gene expression across tissues and species [78]. We found that many

368 of the CpG loci with the largest effect sizes on SRS and IQ identified in our analysis are located near
369 DNAase hyperactivity or active regulatory elements for the placenta [79,80], suggesting that these loci
370 likely play regulatory functions. Experimental studies have demonstrated regions of the genome in which
371 DNA methylation is causally important for gene regulation and those in which it is effectively silent [81].
372 We found that aggregating biomarkers within and between molecular datasets improves prediction of
373 social and cognitive impairment. Specifically, this observation suggests new possibilities to the discovery of
374 candidate genes in the placenta that convey neurodevelopmental risk, improving the understanding of the
375 placenta-brain axis. Recent work in transcriptome-wide association studies (TWAS) are a promising tool
376 that aggregates genetics and transcriptomics to identify candidate trait-associated genes [82,83].
377 Incorporating information from regulatory biomarkers, like transcription factors and miRNAs, into TWAS
378 increases study power to generate hypotheses about regulation [84,85]. Given our observations in this
379 analysis and the number of the integrated molecular datasets, we believe that the ELGAN study can be
380 used to train predictive models for placental transcriptomics from genetics, enriched for regulatory
381 elements [85]. These transcriptomic models can then be applied to genome-wide association study
382 cohorts to study the regulation of gene-trait associations in the placenta.

383

384 **Limitations**

385 When interpreting the results of this study, some factors should be considered. Extremely preterm birth is
386 strongly associated with increased risk for neurodevelopmental disorders [18]. This association may lead
387 to bias in estimated associations between the molecular biomarkers and outcomes, especially when
388 unmeasured confounders are linked to both pre-term birth and autism [86]. Still, to our knowledge the
389 ELGAN cohort is currently the largest available placental repository with both multiple molecular datasets
390 and long-term neurodevelopmental assessment of the children. Second, as the placenta is comprised of
391 several heterogeneous cell types, tissue-specific molecular patterns in the placenta should be taken into
392 consideration when interpreting these findings in relation to other tissue samples; future comparison
393 between tissues will not be straightforward. Lastly, to test the reproducibility and robustness of our kernel
394 models, we believe further out-of-sample validation is required, using datasets with larger sample sizes
395 and similar molecular datasets. Though in-sample predictive performance is strong, platform differences

396 between the ELGAN training set (assayed with EPIC BeadChip) and validation set (MethylC-seq) may
397 lead to loss of predictive power. As our optimal models all aggregate various datasets, the dearth of data
398 for the placenta, in the context of social and intellectual impairment, makes out-of-sample validation
399 especially challenging. Lack of external validation may render our analysis exploratory in nature, but we
400 provide evidence of a link between molecular features within the fetal placenta and social and cognitive
401 outcomes in children that merits future investigation.

402

403 **Conclusions**

404 Our analysis underscores the importance of synthesizing data representing various levels of biological
405 data to understand distinct genomic and epigenomic underpinnings of complex developmental deficits,
406 like intellectual and social impairment. This study provides novel evidence for the omnigenicity of the
407 placenta-brain axis in the context of social and intellectual impairment.

408

409 **List of Abbreviations**

410 Extremely Low Gestational Age Newborn (ELGAN)
411 Intellectual ability (IQ)
412 Differential Ability Scales-II (DAS-II)
413 Social Responsiveness Scale (SRS)
414 Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD)
415 SRS gender-normed T-score (SRS-T)
416 Epigenome-wide association study (EWAS)
417 Markers of Autism Risk in Babies-Learning Early Signs (MARBLES)
418 Kernel regression least squares (KRLS)

419

420 **Declarations**

421 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

422 The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of North Carolina at Chapel
423 Hill. All participants consented to the study as per IRB protocol.

424

425 *Consent for publication*

426 Not applicable

427

428 *Availability of data and materials*

429 Multiomic data from the ELGAN study is available from the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus GSE154829.

430 All genomic and clinical data is also available upon request to H.P.S. For validation, we used MethyIC-

431 seq data from the MARBLES study available at GSE67615.

432

433 *Competing interests*

434 The authors have no competing financial interests to disclose.

435

436 *Funding*

437 This study was supported by grants from the National Institutes of Health (NIH), specifically the National

438 Institute of Neurological Disorders and Stroke (U01NS040069; R01NS040069), the Office of the NIH

439 Director (UG3OD023348), the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (T32-ES007018),

440 National Institute of Nursing Research (K23NR017898), and the Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute

441 of Child Health and Human Development (R01HD092374).

442

443 *Authors' Contributions*

444 H.S.P, R.M.J., L.S., K.C.K.K., C.J.M., T.M.O, and R.C.F. conceived and designed the study. H.S.P. and

445 A.B. acquired and analyzed the data. H.S.P., A.B. and R.C.F. interpreted data. H.S.P. and A.B. drafted

446 the work and all authors revised. All authors have approved the submitted version and are accountable

447 for their own contributions.

448

449 *Acknowledgements*

450 We would like to thank the study participants of the ELGAN-ECHO study. We would also like to thank

451 Michael Love and Lana Garmire for helpful discussion during the research process.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1: Scheme for kernel aggregation and prediction models. (1) Design matrices for CpG sites, mRNAs, and miRNAs are aggregated to form a linear or Gaussian kernel matrix that measures the similarity of samples. (2) Clinical variables are regressed out of the outcomes IQ and SRS and from the omic kernels to limit influence from these variables. (3) Using 50-fold Monte Carlo cross-validation on 75%-25% training-test splits, we train prediction models with the kernel matrices for IQ and SRS in the training set and predict in the test sets. Prediction is assessed in every fold with adjusted R^2 and averaged for an overall prediction metric.

Figure 2: Associations between SRS, IQ, and ASD and with clinical variables. (A) Scatter plot of SRS (X-axis) and IQ (Y-axis) colored by ASD case (orange) and control (blue) status. (B) Boxplots of SRS and IQ across ASD case-control status. P -value from a two-sample Mann-Whitney test is provided. (C) Caterpillar plot of multivariable linear regression parameters of IQ and SRS using clinical variables. Points give the regression parameter estimates with error bars showing the 95% FDR-adjusted confidence intervals [44]. The null value of 0 is provided for reference with the dotted line.

Figure 3: In-sample predictive performance of kernel models. (A) Adjusted mean R^2 (Y-axis) of best kernel models over various numbers of the top biomarkers (X-axis) in the CpG (dark blue), miRNA (orange), and mRNA (light blue) omics over 50 Monte Carlo folds. The X-axis scale is logarithmic. (B) Bar plots of adjusted mean R^2 (Y-axis) for optimally tuned kernel predictive models using all combinations of omics (X-axis) over 50 Monte Carlo folds. The error bar gives a spread of one standard deviation around the mean adjusted R^2 .

Figure 4: Association of ASD case/control status with predicted SRS and IQ. (A) Box-plots of in-sample predicted IQ (left) and SRS (right) over ASD case/control in ELGAN over 10-fold cross-validation. (B) Box-plots of out-sample predicted IQ (left) and SRS (right) over ASD case/control in MARBLES external validation dataset. P -values presented as from a Mann-Whitney test of differences across the ASD case/control groups.

Genome-wide molecular associations with IQ and SRS

Objective: Find biomarkers associated with outcomes

Methods: DEG analysis for mRNA/miRNA, EWAS for CpG sites



Clinical/demographic associations with IQ and SRS

Objective: Find clinical/demographic variables associated with IQ and SRS

Methods: Multivariable linear regression with least squares



Kernel aggregation of molecular profiles

Objective: Combine molecular profiles based on inter-sample similarities

Methods: Linear or Gaussian kernel functions with full width



Feature selection of molecular kernels

Objective: Find the optimal number of CpGs, mRNAs, and miRNAs for prediction

Methods: Monte Carlo cross-validation across various numbers of top biomarkers



Predictive modeling using molecular kernels

Objective: Assess predictive power of combinations of molecular profiles on outcome using Monte Carlo cross-validation

Methods: Linear mixed modeling or kernel-based least squares



Out-of-sample validation

Objective: Assess portability of models in external data

Methods: Prediction in MethylC-seq data from MARBLES using the optimal methylation-only kernel model

Correlative sparse networks of biomarkers

Objective: Identify inter-biomarker correlations

Methods: Graphical lasso using the top 50 most predictive CpGs, mRNAs, and miRNAs from the final predictive models





