Characterization of methylation profiles in spontaneous preterm birth placental villous tissue

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Abstract

Preterm birth is a global public health crisis which results in significant neonatal and maternal mortality. Yet little is known regarding the molecular mechanisms of idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth, and we have few diagnostic markers for adequate assessment of placental development and function. Previous studies of placental pathology and our transcriptomics studies suggest a role for placental maturity in idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth. It is known that placental DNA methylation changes over gestation. We hypothesized that if placental hypermaturity is present in our samples, we would observe a unique idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth DNA methylation profile potentially driving the gene expression differences we previously identified in our placental samples. Our results indicate the idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth DNA methylation pattern mimics the term birth methylation pattern suggesting hypermaturity. Only seven significant differentially methylated regions fitting the idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth specific (relative to the controls) profile were identified, indicating unusually high similarity in DNA methylation between idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth and term birth samples. We identified an additional 1,718 significantly methylated regions in our gestational age matched controls were the idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth DNA methylation pattern mimics the term birth methylation pattern, again indicating a striking level of similarity between the idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth and term birth samples. Pathway analysis of these regions revealed differences in genes within the WNT and Cadherin signaling pathways, both of which are essential in placental development and maturation. Taken together, these data demonstrate that the idiopathic spontaneous preterm birth samples are molecularly more mature than expected given their respective gestational age which likely impacts birth timing.

Introduction

Preterm birth (PTB), defined as delivery at less than 37 weeks of gestation is the leading cause of neonatal mortality worldwide. Prematurity affects an average of 10% of infants born in the United States with rates increasing and costs approximately $26.2 billion dollars a year (annual societal cost including medical, educational, and lost productivity)(1,2). The majority (50%) of preterm births are idiopathic and spontaneous (isPTB), rather than being medically indicated (e.g., pre-eclampsia). Risk factors include but are not limited to genetic ancestry, fetal sex, environmental exposures, and economic disparities(3). Complications include developmental delays, growth restriction, chronic respiratory problems as well as adult sequalae(3). Studies into the etiology of preterm birth have implicated a role for the placenta, a central component of the maternal-fetal interface, which has a vital role in pregnancy initiation, maintenance, and birth timing as well as fetal growth and development(4). As such, proper placental development, maturation, and function are essential for a successful pregnancy outcome and life-time offspring health. Each of these processes is an intricate balance of molecular interactions that are not fully understood even in healthy, normal, term pregnancies.

Placental maturation is accompanied by a marked increase in placental surface area due to placental remodeling initiated between 20-24 weeks gestation and continuing throughout the remainder of gestation which accommodates exponential fetal growth across the second half of gestation (4). Under normal physiological conditions, placental maturation is recognized by specific histological hallmarks including increased quantities of terminal villi (<80 microns in diameter), syncytial nuclear aggregates (SNAs, 10+ syncytial nuclei being extruded from the syncytiotrophoblast), and formation of the vasculosyncytial membranes (VSM) which when

observed in significant quantities prior to 37 weeks, signify placentas with advanced villous maturation (AVM)(5,6). Histological studies of pathological placentas indicate AVM occurs in 50-60% of isPTB and medically indicated preterm births(7,8). This indicates a potential developmental disconnect between placental maturation and the corresponding fetal maturation. In infection associated preterm births, AVM was observed in less than 20% of pathologic placentas(7,8). These studies indicate multiple morphological endotypes exist, underlying the classical clinical PTB phenotypes, especially those of spontaneous PTB which are based on gestational age and simply defined as early, moderate, and late(9). The identification of these morphological endotypes further highlights the heterogeneity confounding the identification of PTB etiology and potential diagnostic biomarkers.

Multiple levels of heterogeneity confound elucidation of molecular mechanisms involved in PTB, from inconsistent sampling of interface tissues to the numerous cell types within those tissues to individual differences within larger populations(10–13). However, traditional epidemiological studies have not accounted for this morphological, molecular, and physiological heterogeneity. Instead, the use of extensive covariate data to attempt overcome population-based heterogeneity has resulted in statistical overfit of models to their specific datasets, resulting in a loss of reproducibility and generalizability of biological inference across datasets(14,15). This has led to a dearth of robust biomarkers capable of assessing spontaneous PTB risk and managing real-time clinical care. Our approach differs from the population based epidemiological approaches in that we focus molecular profiling in smaller, prescreened datasets with combined with select harmonizable covariate data that can be obtained for any dataset.

We have previously identified transcriptomic profiles of AVM in a small cohort using clinically phenotyped placental villous samples from spontaneous PTB births, including isPTB

and infection associated births, between 29 and 36 weeks and normal term births (TB) between 38

and 42 weeks(16). In our datasets, we define infection associated preterm births as acute histologic

chorioamnionitis (AHC) which have been identified via histological assessment of inflamed fetal

membranes or molecular assessment(16). Given the importance of DNA methylation (DNAm) to

placental development and maturation(17–20), we hypothesized the gene expression differences

we observed in our transcriptome data could be due to changes in DNAm at CpG islands between

the birth types. Therefore, we sought to identify specific DNAm profiles of placental maturation

associated with our transcriptional profiles of maturation.

Materials and Methods

Study Population

This study was approved by the Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center institutional review

board (#IRB 2013-2243, 2015-8030, 2016-2033). De-identified TB (n=6), isPTB (n=8), and AHC

(n=8) placental villous samples along with appropriate covariate information were obtained from

the following sources: The Global Alliance to Prevent Prematurity and Stillbirth (GAPPS) in

Seattle Washington USA, the Research Centre for Women's and Infant's Health (RCWIH) at Mt

Sinai Hospital Toronto Canada, and the University of Cincinnati Medical Center (UCMC).

Inclusion criteria included: maternal age 18 years or older, singleton pregnancies with either

normal term delivery (38-42 weeks' gestation) or preterm delivery (29-36 weeks' gestation)

without additional complications. Additional information regarding these samples can be found

in(16).

Statistical Analyses

Cohort data were analyzed in Prism v8 (GraphPad). Data were evaluated for normality and non-parametric tests applied as appropriate. Non-parametric data are expressed as median and range and were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis Test ANOVA with Dunn's Multiple Comparisons. Categorical data were analyzed using Fisher's Exact Test. These analyses were run independently of those included in(16).

Intersection of transcriptomic candidate genes and CpG islands

Using the table function of the UCSC Genome Browser build hg38, we conducted a batch query using the 340 candidate genes from our previous transcriptome study(16). Using these genes as identifiers, we created an intersection with the CpG Island Track(21). This created an output table with gene names, genomic positions, and overlapping CpG islands. We then calculated the percentage of genes that overlapped with CpG islands.

DNA Methylome Generation

DNA was isolated from homogenized, snap frozen placental villous samples using the DNAeasy Kit (Qiagen). DNA quantity and quality was assessed using Qubit 4 Fluorometer (Invitrogen) and Nanodrop Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). A minimum of 500ng was submitted to the University of Minnesota Genomics Center and the University of Cincinnati Genomics, Epigenomics and Sequencing Core where DNA quantity and quality assessment on a Bioanalyzer

111 (Aligent), bisulfite conversion, and methylome generation on the Illumina Methylation EPIC Bead

112 Chip.

DNA Methylation array data processing

Methylation data processing and analyses based on a previously developed workflow(22).

All packages are available within Bioconductor(23) and all package scripts were run in RStudio/R

v4.0.2(24,25). IDAT file preprocessing and probe quality control was conducted in R using scripts

based on minfi(26) and methylumi(27). IDAT files and a sample file containing covariate and

BeadChip metadata were loaded into R where data quality was assessed using the mean detection

p-values   for   the   probes   in   each   sample.   We   applied   Functional

Normalization(preprocessFunnorm)(28) for the algorithm's ability to utilize the internal control

probes for each individual sample in an unsupervised manner to control for unwanted variation.

After normalization, we excluded individual low-quality probes with a detection p-value >

0.1 in more than 2 samples or bead count <3 in at least 5% of samples, sex chromosome probes,

cross-hybridizing probes, and probes where SNPs (within the binding region or within 5-10bp of

the binding region) could potentially affect hybridization(22). To ensure appropriate filtering of

problematic probes, we utilized several resources including the Illumina Methylation EPIC

BeadChip hg38 manifest and Zhou et al(29) to identify additional variation that would interfere

with probe hybridization. We utilized McCartney et al(30) to filter the cross-hybridizing probes

that are not listed in the manifest. We removed all probes that reside in the ENCODE DAC black-

list regions(31). All filtering criteria and number of probes filtered can be found in S1 Table.

Once probe filtering was complete, we assessed the data for batch effects using principal

component analysis (PCA) and no significant batch effect was observed, therefore no correction

was applied(32). The resulting data matrix contained M-values which were utilized for the

statistical analyses of the pairwise comparisons due to their statistical robustness. β-values, which

are transformed M-values, represent the ratio of all methylated probe intensities over total signal

intensities or a percentage of methylation(33). All methylation values are delta M-values unless

otherwise stipulated as they provide a better detection and true positive rates while reducing

heteroscedasticity for methylation sites that are highly or non-methylated(33)

Identification of differentially methylated positions

To assess differentially methylated positions (DMPs), we utilized generalized linear

models within limma(34) to assess differential methylation for each individual probe within the

M-value matrix as in (22) with adjustment for birth types and fetal sex as covariates within model.

Due to the small sample numbers in our dataset, we did not assess any additional covariate data in

this analysis as to not overfit the statistical models to this specific dataset and to increase

generalizability of our findings in future studies. The following pairwise comparisons were used

to identify significant positions of differential methylation: isPTB versus AHC, TB versus AHC

and isPTB versus TB. The resulting output for these comparisons is a delta M-value representing

the statistical difference in methylation at that position between the conditions being compared.

Multiple corrections testing was conducted using the Benjamini Hochberg method(35) at multiple

Q values: <0.05, <0.1, <0.2 and <0.3 (S2 Table). We tested Q values to determine if our lack

observations in one pairwise comparison at Q=0.05 were due to a technical error or if these

represented a true lack biological variability despite the statistical parameter selection. We opted

to define significant DMPs with a Q <0.3 and a log2 fold-change of >±1.

Methylome profile Identification

To identify methylation profiles, we used Venny 2.0(36) to generate Venn diagrams to intersect

significant DMPs from each pairwise comparison to identify profiles specific to isPTB and AHC.

An isPTB profile was defined as any DMP where the delta M-value of isPTB vs TB or AHC was

differentially methylated compared to the delta M-values of AHC vs TB which were non-

significant. An AHC profile was defined as any DMP where the AHC vs TB or AHC delta M-

value was differentially methylated from the isPTB vs TB delta M-values which were non-

significant. Heatmaps were generated in Prism v8 (GraphPad) using delta M-values. To assess if

the differential methylation was influenced by outliers or by artifacts, we generated violin plots

with β-values with median and quartiles in Prism v8 to check the distribution within selected

individual samples.

Differentially Methylation Region (DMR) Identification

We used DMRcate v2.2.3(22,37) to identify differentially methylated regions comprised of

significant DMPs within a specified distance using moderated t statistics. To identify significant

DMPs within DMRcate, we used the M-value matrix (normalized and filtered) and set a threshold

of Benjamini Hochberg adjusted p-value <0.3. Since DMRcate uses limma to determine the

significant DMPs, we were able to utilize the same glm design from the initial DMPs analysis

against adjusting for fetal sex. Once significant DMPs were identified, DMR identification

thresholds were set at lamba=1000, C=2, and minimum cpgs=5. As we are analyzing array data,

we opted to use the default lambda and C (scaling factor) which allows for optimal differentiation

with 1 standard deviation of support to account for Type 1 errors. Once significant DMRs were

identified in each pairwise comparison, we intersected them using Venny 2.0 to identify isPTB

and AHC specific DMRs. The isPTB profile was defined as any DMR that was differentially

methylated when compared to the AHC and TB, with the AHC vs TB. The AHC profile was

defined as any DMR that was differentially methylated compared to isPTB and TB and where the

isPTB vs TB methylation was non-significant meaning no DMR was identified in DMRcate. We

also set a mean difference in differentiation threshold of 0.01. Heatmaps were generated in Prism

v8 (GraphPad) using delta M-values.

Functional analyses of DMRs with associated genes

188 Genes with associated DMRs were entered into the Panther Pathway DB(38) for statistical

189 overrepresentation analyses for Reactome Pathways and to assess gene ontology (GO) for

190 biological and molecular processes. Fisher's Exact tests were used to determine significance and

191 Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons. Pathways were considered significant if they had

192 an adjusted p-value <0.05.

Intersection of DMRs with transcriptome candidate genes

To determine if any of our significant DMR's impacted candidate gene expression, we intersected

the DMR's genomic locations with our candidate gene locations. All genomics regions were

mapped to hg38. Where there was overlap, indicating a potential regulatory event, we took those

locations and intersected with using the UCSC Genome Table browser (hg38) and the CpG island

tracks (21), using the feature-by-feature function. This allowed for identification of DMRs in CpG

regions of our candidate genes.

Results

Methylation Study Characteristics

Maternal and fetal characteristics for the three different pregnancy outcomes included in

the DNAm analyses are presented in Table 1. Transcriptomes from these samples were previously

published(16). Due to the amount of sample required for DNA extraction only a subset of the

samples were used and the statistical analyses repeated but did not change. Significant differences

were observed in gestational age and fetal weights between AHC and isPTB samples compared to

the TB samples (p<0.05). All AHC and TB for which there were fetal weights available were

appropriate for gestational age. We included males and females in each sample set and adjusted

the linear models for fetal sex in addition to birth outcome. It is important to note that in this study,

we have mixed genetic ancestry within each of the sample sets.

Table 1: Clinical characteristics of the placental villous samples included in this study

Characteristics	Acute Histological Chorioamnionitis Births (AHC)	Idiopathic Spontaneous Preterm Births (isPTB)	Term Births	p-values
Number of samples	8	8	6	
Maternal Age	34.5(25-40)	25(18-39)	28(19-37)	NS[1]
Gestational Age	32(29-35)*	33(30-36)*	39(38-41)	<0.0001[1]
Fetal sex (% female)	3(38%)	6(55%)	4(38%)	NS[2]
Fetal weight (grams)	1765(1360-2300)*	2105(1450-2722)*	3820(3650-4527)	<0.0001[1]

Birth weight percentile	55(20-80)	60(3-80)	90(60-99)	NS[1]
SGA %	0	18.0%	0	
Delivery type				
Cesarean (%)	4(50%)	4(37%)	5(50%)	NS[2]
Infection Status				
(% Positive)	8(100%)*	0(0%)	0(0%)	<0.0001[2]

214 Data shown as median with range or total number with percent
215 *Significant statistical difference from term NS=Not significant
216 [1]ANOVA with Tukey's correction for multiple comparisons
217 [2]Chi Square Analyses
218

Identification of transcriptomic profile candidate genes with overlapping CpG islands

221 The intersection of isPTB specific methylation profiles with the previously identified 170

222 upregulated genes in isPTB samples yielded 102 candidates (60%) overlapping with CpG islands

223 in their coding regions. In the AHC profile, 120/170 (81%) candidate genes intersected with CpG

224 islands within coding regions.

Identification of significant differentially methylated positions (DMP)

Preliminary quality control identified one sample with mean probe detection p-value >0.1

and it was subsequently removed from methylation analyses. Prior to normalization and

subsequent probe filtering, there were 866,901 probes in the data matrix. After normalization and

filtering, 108,691 probes were removed, leaving 758,210 probes in the matrix for analyses (S1

Table).

Our initial statistical testing using the Benjamini Hochberg Q cutoff of 0.05 did not yield

any significant DMPs in the isPTB vs TB pairwise comparison. With a Type 1 error rate of 5%,

we expected to observe approximately 37,910 statistically significant DMPs in this comparison;

however, we observed 0. By relaxing the rate of acceptable Type 1 errors to 30%, we would expect

to observe 227, 463 statistically significant DMPs, yet we only observed a total of 662 significant

DMPs (S2 Table). We test modeled various statistical parameters to determine if our observations

were due to technical errors or true biological differences. At every Q value tested and with

different statistical models, we observed the number of DMPs between isPTB and TB to be

significantly less than expected. Ultimately, we opted on a Q cutoff of 0.3 in limma(34).

We then set a threshold for differential methylation of log2 fold-change of >1. The DMP

analysis identified a total of 24,202 significant DMPs across all pairwise comparisons in the model.

In the isPTB vs AHC comparison we identified 8,309 DMPs, 4,334 with reduced methylation and

3,975 more methylated in isPTB compared to AHC. In the TB vs AHC comparison, we identified

a total of 15,817 DMPs with 7,170 less methylated and 8,647 more methylated in TB. Lastly, in

the isPTB vs TB comparison, 85 DMPs were identified as significant with 13 more methylated

and 72 less methylated (Fig 1A).

We observed differences in genomic location of the DMPs between the pairwise

comparisons and thus, analyzed the genomic location distribution of the DMPs per comparison

(Fig 1B). In the isPTB vs AHC and TB vs AHC comparisons the majority of DMPs were associated

with CpG islands, shores, shelves (isPTB = 70% and TB = 65%) while the remaining DMPs were

in open sea locations which are typically 3-4kb away from CpG islands (isPTB = 30% and TB =

35% respectively). In contrast, in the isPTB vs TB comparison, 70% of the DMPs were associated

with open sea positions while only 30% associated with CpG islands, shores, and shelves. The first

step in identification of a DMP methylation profile was to intersect the significant DMPs from

each pairwise comparison and determine which would potentially segregate into an isPTB or AHC

profile (Fig1C).

Fig 1: Identification of methylation profiles using a comparative approach.

A. Differentially methylated positions were identified using pairwise comparisons in limma. Red

points indicate significant DMPs with a threshold of log2 fold-change >1 and Benjamini Hochberg

adjusted p-value <0.3. Blue lines represent log2 fold-change of 1. **B.** Genomic distribution of

DMPs in the pairwise comparisons. The majority of DMPs in the isPTB and TB verses AHC

comparisons are located inside or close to known CpG islands. However, in the isPTB verses TB

comparison, the majority of DMPs are in open sea regions with no known islands within 4kb. **C.**

The venn diagram represents the intersection of pairwise comparisons to classify significant DMPs

into isPTB and AHC specific methylation profiles.

Isolation of isPTB and AHC DNA methylation profiles using DMPs

As a result of the intersection of significant DMPs, we identified 47 potential isPTB

specific DMPs. Upon examining the DNAm patterns for these DMPs across all pairwise

comparisons, we wanted to know which DMPs has differential methylation in the isPTB versus

the AHC and TB. We ultimately isolated 3 isPTB specific DMPs out of the 47 potential isPTB

DMPs. Our examination of the individual sample beta values and their distribution for each DMP

confirmed our findings were not due to artifacts or outliers (Fig 2A). Although we initially

identified 8,306 potential AHC specific DMPs via the intersection, upon further examination of

the DNAm pattern, we ultimately isolated 6,177 where the AHC samples were differentially

methylated compared TB or isPTB (Fig 2B). Of these, 3,002 are more methylated and 3,175 are

less methylated. We also examined the genomic location distribution of the AHC profile DMPs

and found that 76% were located within CpG islands, shores, and shelves with remaining 24%

located in open sea regions (S1 Fig).

Figure 2: Identification of significant methylation profiles for isPTB and AHC DMPs.

A. Three DMPs identified as having an isPTB specific methylation pattern where the isPTB

samples were differentially methylated compared to the AHC or TB samples. The distribution of

individual sample beta values was assessed to determine if there were outliers or artifacts

influencing the methylation patterns. The dark bands represent the mean of the methylation values

while the lighter grey bands represent the interquartile range. **B.** 6,177 DMPs demonstrating a

methylation pattern where the AHC samples were differentially methylated compared to the isPTB

or TB samples. The breakout heatmap shows the pattern or the top 25 more and less methylated

samples and demonstrates the similarity of methylation between the isPTB and TB samples. The

distribution of individual sample beta values was assessed to determine if there were outliers or

artifacts influencing the methylation patterns.

Identification of differentially methylated regions (DMRs)

To identify differentially methylated regions, we used the M-value matrix of data values

previously generated in our initial analyses. We utilized again a relaxed Q <0.3 to ensure we would

be able to identify enough CpG sites to identify DMRs in the isPTB vs TB comparison (S3 Table).

Only then, we were able to identify significant DMRs within all pairwise comparisons (Table 2).

56 DMRs were observed within the isPTB vs TB comparison in contrast to the thousands

significant DMRs identified in the isPTB and TB verses AHC pairwise comparisons. All isPTB

vs TB DMRs were under 2000bp wide and had no more than 18 CpG sites in any given DMR. In

contrast, the DMRs in the isPTB and TB vs AHC comparisons were wider and encompassed more

probes (Table 2). We intersected the DMRs and identified potential candidate DMRs for isPTB

and AHC methylation profiles (S2 Fig). Ultimately, we identified 51 potential isPTB specific and

12,843 AHC specific DMRs. These DMRs overlap with coding and non-coding loci across the

genome as per the annotation from DMRcate package(37).

Table 2 Summary of significantly differentiated DMRs identified by DMRcate encompassing
both coding and non-coding loci
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Pairwise comparison	Number of Significant DMRs Identified*	Width of DMR (Range)	Number of Significant Probes in DMR (Range)
isPTB vs TB	56	180-1750bp	5-18 probes
isPTB vs AHC	12,883	83-9,386bp	5-110 probes
TB vs AHC	19,006	37-14,383bp	5-202 probes

311   *minimum smoothed FDR <0.05

Identification and function of DMRs specific to isPTB and AHC

Of the 51 candidate isPTB DMRs, only seven demonstrated an isPTB specific profile (Fig

3 and Table 3). Six isPTB specific DMRs overlap coding/non-coding loci with only one sitting in

an upstream promoter region, *LINC02028* (Table 4). This is the only isPTB-specific DMR that

overlaps with a CpG island. Four of the DMRs sit within transcripts for *FAM186A, NOD2, UBL7-*

AS1, and *PDE9A*, more specifically within introns or at intron/exon boundaries. The remaining

two DMRs sit in the 3'UTR of genes, *ZBTB4 and STXB6*, with the *ZBTB4* DMR crossing the last

exon/UTR boundary (Table 4). No over-represented pathways were identified.

Figure 3: isPTB specific DMR profile. Differentially methylated DMRs were identified by

differences in the mean of the probe values across the DMR. Only 7 isPTB DMRs had an isPTB

specific profile where the isPTB DMRs were less methylated than the TB or AHC DMRs. Two of

the DMRs overlap non-coding regions. No DMRs were identified that were more methylated.

Table 3: Summary of isPTB profile DMRs
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| Locus | Mean Difference Methylation for all probes in DMR | | | |
	isPTB vs TB	isPTB vs AHC	TB vs AHC	DMR coordinates
LINC02028	-0.033	-0.028	0.007	chr3:194072066-194072416
FAM186A	-0.0416	-0.0175	0.0192	chr12:50343856-50344626
NOD2	-0.043	-0.015	0.022	chr16:50715192-50715700
UBL7-AS1	-0.054	-0.028	0.005	chr15:74466794-74467158
ZBTB4	-0.058	-0.045	0.0008	chr17:7461421-7462028
PDE9A	-0.059	-0.066	0.054	chr21:42733397-42733894
STXB6	-0.087	-0.0466	0.042	chr14:24808650-24810213

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331 **Table 4: Functional information for the isPTB DMRs**
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Locus	Overlaps with CpG Island	Location
LINC02028	chr3:194070715-194071468	Promoter
FAM186A	NA	Intronic
NOD2	NA	Intronic
UBL7-AS1	NA	Intronic
ZBTB4	NA	3'UTR/last exon
PDE9A	NA	Intron/exon boundary
STXB6	NA	3'UTR

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Of the 12,843 AHC specific DMRs, only 1,718 demonstrated an AHC specific

methylation pattern. These DMRs include coding and non-coding loci (Fig 4A and S4 Table). Of

these, 801 DMRs are more methylated while 917 are less methylated than corresponding DMRs

in the isPTB or TB pairwise comparison. In the top 25 more/less methylated loci, the lack of

significant differences in methylation can clearly be observed in TB vs isPTB (Fig 4B). Of these,

19% (n=328) had direct overlap with CpG islands. The remaining 81% had no overlap at all with

CpG islands.

Figure 4: AHC specific DMR profile A. Differentially methylated DMRs were identified by

differences in the mean of the probe values across the DMR. AHC specific DMRs are defined by

when the AHC DMRs were differentially methylated compared to the TB or isPTB DMRs. **B.** The

top 25 more and less methylated DMRs demonstrates the clarity of the molecular profile, as there

is no significant differential methylation in the TB vs isPTB comparison.

We assessed the potential implications of the AHC specific DMRs using statistical over-

representation analyses for pathways and GO terms. In the more methylated DMRs, we identified

two significantly over-represented pathways: WNT and Cadherin signaling (Table 5). Significant

Biological Process GO terms included homophilic cell adhesion via plasma membrane adhesion

molecules (GO:0007156) and cell-cell adhesion via plasma-membrane adhesion molecules

(GO:0098742).

Table 5: Bioinformatic functional assessment of more methylated AHC profile DMRs via PantherDB

	Homo sapiens (all genes in database)	Genes from input list	Expected	Fold Enrichment	Adjusted p-value*
PANTHER Pathways					
Cadherin signaling pathway (P00012)	164	21	5.34	3.94	6.51E-05
Wnt signaling pathway (P00057)	317	30	10.31	2.91	1.03E-04
GO biological process complete					
homophilic cell adhesion via plasma membrane adhesion molecules (GO:0007156)	168	26	5.47	4.76	4.62E-06
cell-cell adhesion via plasma-membrane adhesion molecules (GO:0098742)	257	28	8.36	3.35	1.05E-03
GO molecular function complete					
ion binding (GO:0043167)	6354	277	206.71	1.34	5.61E-05
binding (GO:0005488)	16539	593	538.05	1.1	8.90E-05
molecular_function (GO:0003674)	18245	631	593.55	1.06	4.23E-03
metal ion binding (GO:0046872)	4268	192	138.85	1.38	4.82E-03
cation binding (GO:0043169)	4354	194	141.65	1.37	9.08E-03
adenyl nucleotide binding (GO:0030554)	1572	84	51.14	1.64	3.90E-02

*Fisher Test Bonferroni Corrected for multiple comparisons

No significant over-represented pathways were identified in the less methylated DMRs.

The significant Biological Process GO terms that were associated with the less methylated dataset

include cell morphogenesis involved in differentiation (GO:0000904), cell morphogenesis

(GO:0000902) and detection of chemical stimulus (GO:0009593). For Molecular Function, the

following significant GO terms were identified: ion binding (GO:0043167), protein binding

(GO:0005515), protein binding (GO:0005515), and olfactory receptor activity (GO:0004984)

(Table 6)

Table 6: Bioinformatic functional assessment of less methylated AHC profile DMRs via
PantherDB
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	Homo sapiens (all genes in database)	Genes from input list	Expected	Fold Enrichment	Adjusted p-value*
GO biological process complete					
cell morphogenesis involved in differentiation (GO:0000904)	568	49	21.68	2.26	5.15E-03
detection of chemical stimulus (GO:0009593)	522	2	19.92	0.1	8.02E-03
cell morphogenesis (GO:0000902)	721	56	27.52	2.04	1.96E-02
detection of chemical stimulus involved in sensory perception (GO:0050907)	486	2	18.55	0.11	3.64E-02
GO molecular function complete					
binding (GO:0005488)	16539	689	631.2	1.09	2.56E-04
protein binding (GO:0005515)	14359	615	548.01	1.12	4.39E-04
molecular_function (GO:0003674)	18245	739	696.31	1.06	1.33E-03
ion binding (GO:0043167)	6354	310	242.5	1.28	1.69E-03
olfactory receptor activity (GO:0004984)	441	2	16.83	0.12	4.87E-02

381 *Fischer Test Bonferroni Corrected for multiple comparison
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Identification of DMRs in regulatory elements of transcriptome candidate genes

Upon intersection of significant DMRs and the candidate genes, none of the isPTB DMRs

intersected with any of the isPTB candidate genes. Out of the 1,718 significant AHC DMRs, only

eight intersected with the AHC candidate genes (Table 7). Interestingly, six of these DMRs have

methylation patterns, in all cases less methylated, that agree with upregulated transcription status.

The remaining two have no correlation between profiles (S5 Table).

For each of these eight genes, we examined the genomic location to determine if these

DMRs were in promoters or CpG islands, potentially regulating gene expression. We observed

only one DMR, *CDKN2A,* that overlapped with CpG islands 5' upstream of their transcripts. The

DMR upstream of *CDKN2A* also resides in the same genomic area as a non-coding transcript,

CDKN2B. The remaining seven DMRs did not overlap any CpG islands although, two were in the

promoter or first intronic region of their associated genes. *CENPM* and *RBPMS2* have multiple

transcripts and the location of the DMR varies depending on the specific transcript length and start

site. Three DMRs reside in introns or across intron/exon boundaries (Table 7).

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404   **Table 7:   DMR Characterization and comparison to transcriptome profiles**
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DMR Genomic Location	DMR Associated Gene	DMR Size (bp)	Total CpGs in DMR	DMR location	Island Intersection	Methylation status at DMR	AHC Transcriptome profile	Methylation and Transcriptome Agreement
chr9:21993972-21995735	*CDKN2A-CDKN2B-AS*	1764	13	In promoter	chr9:21993972-21995735	Less	Upregulated	Yes
chr12:6938111-6939048	*ATN1*	938	6	Mid-gene intron/exon boundary	No	Less	Upregulated	Yes
chr22:41939981-41941494	*CENPM*	1514	14	Transcript Dependent	No	Less	Upregulated	Yes
chr7:108095719-108097606	*LAMB4*	1888	11	Mid Gene intronic	No	Less	Downregulated	No
chr16:23680392-23681287	*PLK1*	896	5	Mid Gene intronic	No	More	Upregulated	No
chr15:40731625-40735036	*RAD51*	1605	15	In promoter	No	Less	Upregulated	Yes
chr15:64752519-64753130	*RBPMS2*	612	6	Transcript Dependent	No	Less	Upregulated	Yes
chr22:24180492-24181665	*SUSD2*	1174	11	In promoter	No	Less	Upregulated	Yes

Discussion

To gain insight into the role of DNA methylation in spontaneous preterm birth, we utilized pairwise comparisons of methylation between spontaneous preterm births and normal term births using a general linear model adjusting for fetal sex and gestational age at delivery. It is essential to note that normal gestationally age-matched placental samples are typically not available for studies such as this depending on ethical restrictions of the geographical locale of the study. Therefore, we opted to use with acute histologic chorioamnionitis samples (AHC) which been previously shown to have much lower occurrences of AVM than other clinically defined preterm birth types including PE and IUGR(7,8) We were able to identify distinct methylation profiles at both the positional (DMP) and regional (DMR) levels in isPTB and AHC. Through bioinformatic functional assessment, we were able to identify pathways of interest pertaining to placental maturation.

Our preliminary analyses indicated that there were very few DMP and DMR between the isPTB and TB birth types regardless of the statistical parameters applied. We tested multiple parameters within the statistical models to ensure that lack of differences was likely due to biological factors, not technical errors. Given the sheer number of datapoints being examined, we felt that relaxing the Q value to 0.3 would not adversely affect our analyses and we were willing to accept the potential increase in false positives(39,40). This allowed us to better assess any potential differences between isPTB and TB despite the potential increase in false positives. The Benjamini Hochberg correction is dependent on the overall number of samples to be corrected and considered to be rather conservative. Regardless of the statistical parameters applied, the isPTB profile mimicked the TB profile to a high degree which, agrees with the transcriptomic profiles we

previously identified(16) and provides additional evidence of a potential placental hypermaturity

profile associated with isPTB. Although this a preliminary study investigating DNA methylation

in spontaneous preterm birth, this pattern of DNA methylation was also observed in studies of

iatrogenic preterm births in DMP and DMR analyses, for both PE and IUGR(20). In the second

study, focusing on imprinted regions found that IUGR samples also mimicked the PE and term

controls(41). Pyrosequencing from this second study confirmed no differences in the DMRs

suggesting the detection of hypermaturity molecular profile. Given that hypermaturity is estimated

to affect 50-60% of all preterm births including PE and IUGR(7,8), these results provide additional

evidence supporting the use of placental DNAm clinically to classify pathophysiologies such as

hypermaturity(20,42).

DMRs are associated with numerous disease pathologies in multiple tissues(43,44). While

DNAm has been studied in the other adverse pregnancy outcomes such as PE and IUGR, this study

is the first to look specifically at isPTB. Our analysis resulted in the identification of seven DMRs

with isPTB specific methylation patterns; two are associated with non-coding transcripts

(*LINC02028* and *UBL7-AS*), five with genes (*ZBTB4, STXBP6, PDE9A, NOD2, and FAM186A*).

Of these genes, four are of particular interest due to their potential function in or previous

association with PTB.

ZBTB4 is a placentally expressed gene coding for a transcription factor that binds

methylated CpGs in a repressive manner, controls TP53 responses in cells, and inhibits cell growth

and proliferation (45–47). TP53 was identified as a potential biological pathway of interest in our

microarray meta-analysis of spontaneous PTB(48) and has been implicated in isPTB from a uterine

perspective in mice(49). *STXBP6,* also known as *AMISYN,* binds SNARE complex proteins

together(50). As SNARE complexes have been well described in synaptic vesicle formation and

exocytosis(51) and regulation of membrane fusion dynamics(52,53), the presence of this protein

in the placenta suggests potential role in placental extracellular vesicle formation or the mediation

of membrane fusion during cytotrophoblast differentiation(52,54).

454   *PDE9A* functions in the hydrolysis of cAMP into monophosphates, modulating the

bioavailability of cAMP and cGMP in cells(55). cAMP signaling is essential to cytotrophoblast

differentiation into syncytiotrophoblast(56); therefore, alteration of PDE9A expression or function

impacts cAMP bioavailability potentially altering this specific trophoblast differentiation pathway.

In fact, PDE9A has been proposed as a potential first trimester maternal serum biomarker for

Trisomy 21(57). Placentas from Trisomy 21 fetuses have multiple defects in cytotrophoblast

differentiation, specifically cell fusion, resulting in what appears to be delayed villous maturation,

indicating a key role for this gene in normal placental maturation(57–60).

462   *NOD2* has a role in activation of the innate inflammatory response and has been implicated

in NFKB activation(61–63). NFKB activation is a central component of pro-inflammatory /labor

pathways in both normal term and preterm pathophysiology(62,64,65). As a member of the NOD-

like receptor family, NOD2 has been previously associated with recognition of pathogen

associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and damage associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) both

of which have been associated with preterm labor and birth(62). The activation of pathways

associated with PAMPs and DAMPs have previously been associated with sPTB and iatrogenic

PTB(48,66–68). NOD2 has been studied primarily in the context of a proinflammatory factor in

fetal membranes and myometrium; however, *NOD2* is expressed in first trimester and term

placental tissues, specifically in syncytiotrophoblast and stromal cells(61,69). Furthermore, NOD2

polymorphisms have been associated with preterm birth in several genetic studies examining

innate immunity, preterm premature rupture of membranes (PPROM), and early onset PE and

HELLP (Hemolysis, Elevated Liver enzymes and Low Platelets) syndromes(62,67,70,71).

Taken together, these isPTB DMRs and their associated genes suggest that altered DNA

methylation maybe highly influential in isPTB; however, from these data alone, it cannot be

determined if this is causative or the result of isPTB as the samples were obtained at delivery.

Although we cannot sample placental tissues throughout gestation to determine cause or effect,

using DNAm profiling on delivered placental tissues will provide key insights in the

pathophysiological underpinnings of adverse pregnancy outcomes.

In contrast to the isPTB DNAm profile, our examination of the AHC samples compared to

the isPTB and TB samples identified 1,718 DMRs. We observed within the top 25 more/less

methylated DMRs, multiple DMRs were associated with genes of interest that were previously

associated with adverse pregnancy outcomes including IUGR and PE. Several have also been

associated gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM) which can also result in preterm birth. These genes

of interest include: *MLLT1*(72), *FGFR2*(72), *CACNA1A*(73), *GCK*(74,75), *FER1L6*(76),

CTSH(77), and *ACAP3*(78). Additionally, *GSE1* (79), *VSTM1*(80), and *ACSS1*(79) are expressed

in the placenta but have not yet been associated with an adverse pregnancy outcome. Our pathway

analyses of the more methylated DMRs, yielded two pathways with statistical over-representation,

WNT and Cadherin signaling. Both pathways are necessary for placental development and

maturation(81–84) and a prior methylation study in PE also identified differential methylation

(increased methylation) in WNT and cadherin signaling(85), which agrees with our findings.

Given that over 50% of PE cases have hypermaturity along with the pathological hallmarks of PE,

this may indicate a role for these pathways in placental maturation.

We initially hypothesized that changes in methylation at CpG islands could be driving the

transcriptional differences we previously observed. However, when we intersected our significant

DMRs with our candidate genes, we did not observe any overlap in the isPTB profiles and only

eight examples of overlap in the AHC profiles. Of those eight DMR/gene combinations, only

CDKN2A/CDKN2B-AS overlapped with a CpG island. *CDKN2A,* also known as p16, is a gene

with multiple transcripts which have different first exons. Known as an important tumor

suppressor, its primary role is regulating cell cycle progression through the regulation of TP53.

Loss of function studies of *Cdkn2a* and *Tp53* in mice have demonstrated histopathological changes

in placenta and upregulated senescence markers as well as mitotic inhibition(86). *CDKN2B-AS* is

a functional RNA with regulatory roles via interaction with *PRC1* and *PRC1* which regulates the

rest of the genes in this locus epigenetically(87). Additionally, *CDKN2B-AS*, also known as

*ARNI*L, has been implicated in preterm birth

Interestingly, This DMR resides in locus consisting of *CDKN2A/CDKN2A-DT/CDKN2B-*

AS/CDKN2B, a locus vital to cell cycle control and is dysregulated in many cancers. *CDKNA-DT*

is a divergent transcript with no known function. However, *CDKN2B*, also known as *p15,* is

another critical tumor suppressor which inhibits cyclin kinases CDK4 and CDK6(87). These data

along with our methylation data suggest the correct expression of the *CDKN2A/CDKN2A-*

DT/CDKN2B-AS/CDKN2B locus is critical to the structure, function, and potentially the rate of

maturity of the placenta and normal healthy pregnancy.

CENPM and *SUSD2* all have roles in cell cycling and proliferation with mutations

associated with cancers. In many cancers the loss of methylation is associated with cell

proliferation and migration via metastasis. However, in the developing and maturing placenta these

processes are essential for growth, function, and maturation(42,88,89). Less methylation at the

DMRs associated with *RAD51, RBPMS2, ATN1* and the corresponding upregulation could be

indicative of senescence given their respective roles in DNA repair, regulation of cell

differentiation, and transcriptional repression. While the intersection of our matched

transcriptional and methylation data did not necessarily support our original hypothesis of gene

regulation via CpG islands in promoter regions, we were able to identify a potentially critical

biological function, cell proliferation and an essential locus, *CDKN2A/CDKN2A-DT/CDKN2B-*

AS/CDKN2B, for further study.

One of the caveats to studying placental villous omics of any nature is the lack of normal

gestational age matched tissue due to limited accessibility throughout gestation. We previously

utilized infection associated samples in our transcriptome analyses as our gestational age controls

as their villi did not appear to be inflamed via pathological assessment. While we cannot rule out

that changes at AHC loci may be due to infection, we did not observe pathways or GO terms

associated with immunity or infection. Our data suggests that the overall AHC DNAm profile is

reflective of appropriate villous maturation rather than an infection profile as was observed in our

transcriptome data(16).

This is the first study to examine DNAm in spontaneous preterm birth in the context of

placental maturity. The identification of hypermaturity profiles by both positional and regional

differences in methylation highlights importance of DNAm to placental maturation and thus

warrants further study.These differences could be due to altered trophoblast biology. These data

when taken in the context of a potential epigenetic clock, suggests that perhaps epigenetic aging

may have a role as it has in other fetal tissue and stem cells(90,91). Future studies need to

investigate the origin of the observed hypermaturity and its impact on the maternal-fetal interface

and pregnancy outcomes.

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to express their gratitude to the patients who donated their placentas for

research. We would also like to thank Pietro Presicce, Paranthaman Senthamarai Kannan, and

Manuel Alvarez (Kallapur lab), William E. Ackerman, Irina A. Buhimschi (Buhimschi lab),

GAPPS, and RCWIH for assisting us in obtaining the placental samples and covariate data.

Additionally, the authors thank the staff at the University of Cincinnati Genomics, Epigenomics

and Sequencing Core and the University of Minnesota Genomics Center for their assistance in

generating the methylation data for this project. Data for this study has been deposited into the

Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under GSE197795 and will be released pending full

publication of this manuscript.

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Supporting Information

Supporting Tables: S1-S5 Tables

S1 Fig: Genomic Distribution of DMPs within the AHC methylation profile. The distribution of 6,177 DMPs in the AHC profile. Most probes are found within CpG islands or closely associated with islands.

S2 Fig: Intersection of significant DMRs The venn diagram representing the intersection of pairwise comparisons to classify significant DMRs into isPTB and AHC specific profiles

Figure 1

Open sea = >4kb away from CpG island/isolated CpG sites
Island = within the CpG Island
Shelf = 2-4kb flanking CpG island
Shore = 0-2kb flanking CpG island

Figure 2

A.

B.

Figure 3

Figure 4

SFig1

SFig2