Accumulation of Dietary and Non-Enzymatic Oxysterols in Preeclamptic Placentas: Insights into Cholesterol Dynamics in Pregnancy Complications

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Abstract

Oxysterols—oxidized derivatives of cholesterol—play key roles in regulating lipid metabolism, oxidative stress, and immune signaling. Despite their biological importance, their presence and function in human placental tissue remain poorly understood, particularly in pregnancy complications such as preeclampsia. Preeclampsia is a hypertensive disorder of pregnancy associated with oxidative stress and altered lipid homeostasis. This study profiled both dietary and non-enzymatic oxysterols in third-trimester human placentas from healthy term pregnancies and those complicated with preeclampsia, delivered at term or preterm and term. Findings indicate significantly higher oxysterol levels in preeclamptic placentas, particularly for 7-ketcholesterol (7-Keto) and 5α,6β-cholestanetriol, (Triol) regardless of gestational age. 5β,6β-epoxycholesterol (O'Callaghan, Woods, & O'Brien, 2001) was higher in term preeclampsia, while total cholesterol levels were significantly lower in preeclamptic placentas. Correlation analyses revealed distinct associations between oxysterols, cholesterol, and total fat content, indicating unique oxidative signatures in preeclamptic pregnancies. These findings contribute to a growing body of evidence suggesting that altered oxysterol profiles may reflect oxidative stress and placental dysfunction. While causality cannot be inferred, oxysterol profiling may hold potential as a complementary biomarker strategy for identifying pregnancies at risk of adverse outcomes.

Keywords: dietary oxysterols, fatty acids, placenta disorders, cholesterol, lipid oxidation

Introduction

Preeclampsia is a pregnancy complication defined by the new-onset hypertension and proteinuria (≥ 300 mg/24 h) after 20 weeks of gestation. It is also associated with endothelial dysfunction, hypertension, and end-organ damage. While the etiology of preeclampsia is not clear, evidence suggests that oxidative stress during pregnancy plays a role in both, normal development of the placenta and the pathophysiology of complications such as miscarriage, premature rupture of the membranes (Jauniaux, Poston, & Burton, 2006) and pre-eclampsia (Burton & Yung, 2011).

Physiologically, lipid parameters, including cholesterol, rise during pregnancy (Bartels & O'Donoghue, 2011). However, excessive production of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (ROS, RNS) can disrupt cellular homeostasis by oxidizing cell membrane lipids, including fatty acids, phospholipids, and cholesterol (Chiarello et al., 2020). Fatty acids play a critical role in supporting cellular structural and metabolic functions, particularly polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) of the omega-3 or omega-6 series such as linoleic acid (Doskey et al., 2020) and α-linolenic (ALA, omega 3) considered essential fatty acids. Long-chain PUFAs (LCPUFAs) and their metabolites are required at various stages in placental development (Rani, Wadhwani, Chavan-Gautam, & Joshi, 2016). However, an impaired materno-fetal LCPUFA transport is known to occur in pregnancies that are complicated and characterized by an abnormal placental function such as preeclampsia (Hanebutt, Demmelmair, Schiessl, Larqué, & Koletzko, 2008). Cholesterol the major component of mammalian cell membranes, also serves as the precursor of vitamins, bile acids, and steroid hormones - some of which are synthetized by the human placenta. Its abundance in tissue is determined by endogenous synthesis and dietary intake. The placenta plays an active role in regulating cholesterol biosynthesis, metabolism, and transport and exchange between the maternal and fetal compartments (Palinski, 2009).

Oxysterols are cholesterol oxidation products formed due to cholesterol's susceptibility to oxidation, and differ from the parent cholesterol by the presence of an additional ketone, epoxy, or hydroxyl group in the A or B rings or a hydroxyl group in the side chain (Medina-Meza, Rodriguez-Estrada, Lercker, Soto-Rodriguez, & Garcia, 2011). Oxysterols are biologically active molecules that regulate cholesterol biosynthesis (Bjorkhem, 2002) and act as ligands to G protein-coupled receptors (Vurusaner, Leonarduzzi, Gamba, Poli, & Basaga, 2016) and nuclear receptors (Aye, Waddell, Mark, & Keelan, 2011). They can also affect the immune system by suppressing the production of IgA by B cells (Spann & Glass, 2013).

Oxysterols can be generated either enzymatically or non-enzymatically. Enzymatic pathways are physiologically regulated and primarily mediated by the cytochrome P450 family (Iuliano, 2011; Zmyslowski & Szterk, 2019). In contrast, non-enzymatic oxysterols are formed through cholesterol autoxidation in foods due to storage, heat, and processing. Among the most abundant oxysterols present in foodstuffs are 7-ketocholesterol (7-Keto), 7β-hydroxycholesterol (7β-OH), 5α,6α-epoxide (5,6α-e poxy), 5β,6β-epoxide (L. Maldonado-Pereira, 2021), cholestan- 3β,5α,6β-triol (triol), 7α-hydroxycholesterol (7α-OH), and 25-hydroxycholesterol (25-OH-C) (Lisaura Maldonado-Pereira, Carlo Barnaba, & Ilce Gabriela Medina-Meza, 2023). Both altered cholesterol levels and the accumulation of their oxidized metabolites have been confirmed in several pathologies, including atherosclerosis and neurodegenerative diseases (Sottero et al., 2019; Zmyslowski & Szterk, 2019). While oxysterols have been reported in amniotic fluid, maternal blood, and placental tissue with mixed results (Bodzek, Janoszka, Wielkoszynski, Bodzek, & Sieron, 2002), a single study has investigated the presence of the oxysterol 27-hydroxycholesterol in the human placenta (Winkler et al., 2017). However, a

110 comprehensive understanding of the diversity and distribution of oxysterols in placental tissue remains
111 lacking.
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An increase in lipid peroxidation products has been reported in maternal serum of healthy pregnancies
(Maseki, Nishigaki, Hagihara, Tomoda, & Yagi, 1981). This rise appears to be counterbalanced by
enhanced antioxidant activity during pregnancy (Y. P. Wang, Walsh, Guo, & Zhang, 1991). However, in
women with preeclampsia, this antioxidant capacity has been reported to be reduced (Basu et al., 2002)
potentially leading to an imbalance between oxidation and antioxidation reactions towards oxidative
stress, with the placenta as a primary target. Although oxysterols have been implicated in the
pathogenesis of several disease states, including atherosclerosis (Zmyslowski & Szterk, 2017) and
dementia (Testa et al., 2016), few studies have measured oxysterol concentrations during pregnancy or
investigated their relationship with pregnancy outcomes (Rideout et al., 2023). To address this gap,
cholesterol, fatty acids, and both dietary oxysterols (Medina-Meza, Vaidya, & Barnaba) and non-
enzymatic oxysterols were quantified in human placental tissues collected from healthy pregnancies, as
well as from term and preterm preeclampsia cases, and their potential association with preeclampsia was
examined.
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Materials and Methods
Ethics, exclusion criteria, and placenta collection
The institutional review boards at Michigan State University and Sparrow Hospital approved the project.
Women admitted for C-section delivery at Sparrow Hospital (Labor & Delivery Service) were asked to
participate in the study and provided written informed consent (IRB IRB#17-1359M). Human placentas
(Martysiak-Zurowska, Szlagatys-Sidorkiewicz, & Zagierski) were obtained from three groups of
patients, as previously described (Sethuraman et al., 2022), 1) healthy term pregnancies (Term; n = 12),
2) term preeclamptic pregnancies (Term PE; n = 8) and 3) pre-term preeclamptic pregnancies (Pre-Term
PE; n = 8). Maternal and neonatal anthropometric and clinical data were obtained from the mothers' and
infants' medical records. Healthy pregnant mothers at term (at ≥ 37 weeks of pregnancy) with no
complications and with none of the exclusion criteria (see below) were enrolled as healthy term controls.
Mothers with a diagnosis of preeclampsia (at ≥ 36 weeks of pregnancy) were enrolled in the term
preeclampsia group, while mothers with a diagnosis of preeclampsia (between 28 to 35 weeks of
pregnancy) were enrolled in the preterm preeclampsia group.
Preeclampsia was defined using the American Congress of Obstetricians and Gynecologists criteria
(ACOG, 2019): 1) systolic blood pressure of ≥ 140 mmHg or diastolic blood pressure of ≥ 90 mmHg on
two times at least 4 h apart after 20 weeks of gestation in a woman with a previously normal blood
pressure and 2) proteinuria. Proteinuria was defined as either a 24-h urine protein of >300 mg or protein
to creatinine ratio of > 0.3. Subjects with the following conditions were excluded from the study:
multiple gestation, clinical chorioamnionitis, chromosomal anomalies, diabetes (gestational, type 1, and
type 2), chronic hypertension (pre-existing hypertension), gestational hypertension without a diagnosis
of preeclampsia, major cardiovascular diseases, such as myocardial infarction, cholestasis, drug abuse,
and smoking. All placentas were processed within 1 h of delivery. A core biopsy was collected ~2 cm
away from the periphery and the umbilical cord attachment and kept frozen until further processing for
mRNA and protein expression analyses. Placental tissues were stored at -80 °C for further analysis.
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Materials, Chemicals and Reagents
Methanol was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Huang, Elvington, & Randolph, 2015), chloroform from
Omni Solv (Burlington, MA), hexane from VWR BDH Chemicals (Batavia, IL), 1-butanol and

potassium chloride (KCl) from J. T. Baker (Allentown, PA), diethyl ether from Fisher Chemical
(Pittsburgh, PA), and sodium sulfate anhydrous (Na$_2$SO$_4$) and sodium chloride (Overholt et al.) from
VWR. Labeled standards of cholesterol *d-7*, 7α-hydroxycholesterol-*d-7* (7α-OH), 7β-
hydroxycholesterol-*d7* (7β-OH), 5,6α-epoxycholesterol-*d7* (5,6α-Epoxy), 5,6β-epoxycholesterol-*d7*
(5,6β-Epoxy), 25-hydroxycholestero-*d6* (25-OH) cholestane-3b,5a,6b-triol-*d7* (triol), 7-ketocholesterol-
d7 (7-Keto), 24(S)-hydroxycholesterol-d7 *(24-OH* were purchased from Avanti Polar® (Birmingham,
AL), 4β- hydroxycholesterol-*d7)*, 25(S)-27-hydroxycholesterol (27- OH) from Cayman chemicals®
(Ann Arbor MI) and 6 ketocholestanol (6-Keto), 3,6 Dione, 20α-hydroxycholesterol (20-OH), from
Steraloids (Newport, R.I.) and purified by using aminopropyl (Liao, Cheng, Li, Lo, & Kang) cartridges
(500 mg/3 mL) from Phenomenex® (Torrance, CA).

Lipid extraction
Before lipid extraction, placenta tissues were thawed, within 4 h and washed three times with phosphate-
buffered saline (PBS) to remove any contaminating blood. Then, approximately 200 mg of placenta
were placed in a mortar, liquid nitrogen was added, and the sample was gently minced until a fine
powder, then transferred to a glass tube with a screwcap. After, 50 μg of 19-hydroxycholesterol and 140
μg of 5α-cholestane plus a mixture of the oxysterols deuterated standards (1 ng/μL each) in ethanol with
0.1% of BHT were added as internal standards for the determination of total cholesterol and oxysterols,
respectively. Then, lipid fraction was extracted with 3 mL of hexane/isopropanol (4/1, v/v) with 0.1% of
BHT for 3 min, following a sonication for 10 min in cold water. The homogenate was then centrifuged
at 2,800 rpm for 10 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was transferred to a new glass tube and the extraction
was repeated with the remaining pellet. The supernatants from the two extractions were pooled.

Total Cholesterol
A quantification method for cholesterol and oxysterols previously developed in our laboratory
(Kilvington, Barnaba, Rajasekaran, Laurens, & Gabriela Medina-Meza, 2021; L. Maldonado-Pereira, C.
Barnaba, & I. G. Medina-Meza, 2023) was used in this study. Subsequently, cold saponification was
done with 1 N KOH solution in methanol left under gentle agitation at a cool temperature and covered
from the light overnight. One-tenth of the unsaponifiable matter was subjected to silylation. The sample
was mixed with 100 μL of pyridine and 100 μL of Sweeley's reactive mixture
(pyridine/hexamethyldisilazane/trimethylchlorosilane, 10:2:1, v/v/v) at 75 °C for 45 min, dried under
nitrogen stream, and dissolved in 1 mL of n-hexane. One microliter of the silylated solution was injected
into a gas chromatograph using a fitted with a Zebron™ZB-5HT (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA) capillary
column (30 m × 0.25 mm × 0.25 μm). Oven temperature conditions were set up as follows: 260 to 300
℃ at 2.5 °C/min, then from 300 to 320 °C at 8 ℃/min, and finally hold at 320 ℃ for 1 min. The injector
and detector were both set at 320 °C. Helium was used as the carrier gas at a flow rate of 54.0 mL/min, a
split ratio at 1:50, and a pressure constant of 134 kPa.

Oxysterols Quantification
The other nine-tenths of the sample was used for the quantification of oxysterols. Purification by NH$_2$-
SPE was performed as previously reported (Lisaura Maldonado-Pereira et al., 2023). The enriched
fraction was recovered and evaporated to dryness under a nitrogen stream. Subsequently, the purified
fraction was silylated with Sweeley's reactive mixture (at 75 °C for 45 min), dried under a nitrogen
stream, and dissolved in 200 μL of n-hexane. Oxysterols were isolated and identified using the selected
ion molecule (SIM) method with a GCMS-QP2010 SE single quadrupole Shimadzu Corporation
(Kyoto, Japan). One μL of the silylated sample was injected into a single quad GCMS-QP2010 SE with

the following conditions: from 250 to 280 °C at 2 °C/min, hold at 280 °C for 7 min, and from 280 to 315
°C at 1.5 °C/min. Helium was used as a carrier gas (flow rate of 0.37 mL/min); the split ratio was 1:15,
and the pressure was 49.2 KPa. The interface temperature for the GC-MS was 320 °C, with the electron
multiplier voltage set at 70 kV and the injector at 320 °C. A fused silica column (30 m x 0.25 mm i.d. x
0.25 um thickness) coated with 5% phenyl polysiloxane (Phenomenex Zebron ZB-5) was used.
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Fatty acids methyl esters (Awogbemi, Onuh, & Inambao) profiling
Fatty acid methyl esters (Awogbemi et al.) were prepared according to the transesterification described
somewhere else (Maldonado-Pereira, Barnaba, de Los Campos, & Medina-Meza, 2022). One μL of the
methylated sample was injected into a gas chromatograph (GC 2010 Shimadzu®, Kyoto Japan) equipped
with an autosampler (AOC- 20s Shimadzu®) and a flame ionization detector (Lin et al.). A fused silica
DB-WAX (Agilent J&W, Santa Clara, CA) capillary column (30 m × 0.32 mm i.d. × 0.25 μm film
thickness) was used to separate the fatty acids. The oven was programmed as follows: 120 °C to 200 °C
with a rate of 3 °C/min, then from 200 °C to 240 °C with a rate of 2 °C/min, and held for 2 min. The
injector's pressure was set up at 92.2 kPa. Temperature for both, injector and detector were set at 250
°C. H_2 was used as carrier gas at 1 mL/min and the split ratio was 5.0. Data acquisition was done on
LabSolutions software version 5.106 (Shimadzu®, Kyoto, Japan) and peak areas were identified by
comparing their retention times to the pure standards (FAME 37 mixture). Fatty acid content were
quantified using tridecanoic acid as the internal standard and reported as g of fatty acid per 100 g of
sample. Results on fatty acids contents were obtained using the sums: Σ saturated fatty acids (Σ SFA =
C8:0 + C10:0 + C11:0 + C12:0 + C13:0 + C14:0 + C15:0 + C16:0 + C17:0 + C18:0 + C20:0 + C21:0 +
C22:0 + C23:0 + C24:0); Σ monounsaturated fatty acids (Σ MUFA = C14:1, cis-9 + C15:1, cis-10 +
C16:1, cis-9 + C17:1, cis-10 + C18:1, cis- 9 + C20:1, cis-11 + C22:1, cis-13 + C24:1, cis-15); Σ
polyunsaturated fatty acids (Σ PUFA = C18:2, cis-9,12 + C18:3, cis-6,9,12 + C18:3, cis-9,12,15 +
C20:2, cis-11,14 + C20:3, cis-8,11,14 + C20:3, cis-11,14,17 + C20:4, cis-5,8,11,14 + C22:2, cis-13,16 +
C20:5, cis-5,8,11,14,17 + C22:6, cis-4,7,10,13,16,19). and Σ trans fatty acids (Σ TFA= C18:1, trans-9 +
C18:2, trans-9,12).
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Statistical Analysis
Descriptive statistics were performed, and both mean and confidence intervals (95%) were computed.
Since data was not normally distributed, the variable was log-transformed for all analyses. The
relationship of individuals' oxysterols with serum cholesterol and maternal BMI was assessed with
Pearson correlation coefficients. Associations between maternal oxysterols and fatty acids and terms
were assessed using multivariable linear regression. We considered nulliparity (yes/no), birth weight,
gestation age, maternal age, and pre-pregnancy BMI (continuous variables) as potential confounding
factors. Confounders with a (p-value < 0.05) were considered significant and were further adjusted in
the models. Statistical significance was set at a two-sided alpha level of 0.05. When comparing data that
did not follow a normal distribution after a density plot analysis and was not homogeneous after a
residual plot analysis. Statistical differences between food categories were evaluated by using the non-
parametric Kruskal-Wallis ANOVA by Ranks test at $p < 0.05$ significance level. To model the
association between metabolite and demographic predictors with pregnancy outcomes (Healthy Term,
Term Preeclampsia, and Preterm Preeclampsia), we employed multinomial logistic regression. The
analysis utilized a stepwise selection approach for main effects, with BMI and Age included as forced
covariates and metabolites entered as stepwise terms using the Forward Stepwise (Likelihood Ratio)
method. Covariates were treated as factors to establish hierarchical relationships among predictors.
Entry and removal probabilities were set at $p = 0.05$ and $p = 0.1$, respectively, with the likelihood ratio

test applied to evaluate variable inclusion and exclusion at each step of the model-building process. All
analyses were conducted using SPSS version 29 (IBM®).
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251 **Results and discussion**
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Clinical Characteristics
Maternal and neonatal clinical data are presented in **Table 1**. No significant differences were observed
among groups in maternal age, height, weight, SROM score, or neonatal birth weight percentiles.
Maternal BMI was lower in the Term PE group compared with the Pre-Term PE group. Neonatal birth
weight was significantly lower in the Pre-Term PE group compared to the healthy term and Term PE
groups. No significant differences were observed in newborn sex distribution across groups.
259
Placental fat and fatty acids profile
The fatty acid profiles of human placentas for all three groups are reported in **Table S1.** A total of 31
fatty acids were detected across all placenta samples, whereas heneicosylic acid (C21:0) was only
detected in healthy term placentas. No significant differences in the overall fatty acid profile were noted
among the three groups.
Surprisingly, elaidic acid (C18:1 trans-9) levels were lower in preeclamptic placentas compared to
controls, while the ratio of oleic acid (Lopes et al.) to elaidic acid was significantly higher in
preeclamptic placentas. Disturbances in fatty acid metabolism has previously been suggested to
contribute to the pathogenesis of preeclampsia (Wadhwani, Patil, & Joshi, 2018). Among these, trans
fatty acids, primarily derived from processed foods, have been shown to cross the placenta and
accumulate in fetal tissues. Maternal intake of trans fats is reflected not only in fetal circulation but also
in breastfed infants (Basak, Vilasagaram, & Duttaroy, 2020; Cohen, Rifas-Shiman, Rimm, Oken, &
Gillman, 2011), suggesting a sustained impact of maternal diet on early development. The elevated
trans/cis monounsaturated fatty acid ratio observed may indicate early lipid perturbations in the
preeclamptic placenta, potentially linked to dietary exposures. Surprisingly, heptadecanoic acid (C17:0),
an odd-chain saturated fatty acid considered a potential marker of dairy fat intake (Jenkins, West, &
Koulman, 2015), was significantly lower (Term: ~0.49%; Preterm PE: ~0.35%; Term PE: ~0.34%; $p <$
0.05) in preeclamptic placentas, regardless of gestational age. C17:0 has also been associated with a
reduced risk of developing multiple sclerosis due to its role in increasing membrane fluidity (Holman et
al., 1995). While C15:0 levels (~0.51–0.75%) did not differ significantly among groups, C17:0 is
consistently reported to be more abundant than C15:0 in human adipose tissue (C15:0: ~ 0.32%, C17:0:
~0.34%) (Brevik, Veierod, Drevon, & Andersen, 2005), erythrocytes (C15:0: ~0.28%, C17:0: ~0.45%)
and human hindmilk (C15:0: ~0.46%, C17:0: ~0.57%) (Valentine, Hurst, & Schanler, 1994). The ratio of
C15:0/C17:0 in human plasma is 1.2 in healthy individuals. Control (1.36) and Pre-Term (1.45) ratios
are in agreement with reported values, however, Term-PE differs with a 2.20 ratio. Although odd-chain
fatty acids are established markers of dairy fat intake, the observed differences may instead reflect
underlying lipid dysregulation associated with pregnancy complications. Specifically, the reduced
placental levels of C17:0 in preeclampsia could result from variations in maternal dietary intake, altered
endogenous synthesis, or impaired fatty acid transport and metabolism. Further studies are needed to
clarify these observations.
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291 Total saturated fatty acids (SFA), monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA), and PUFAs are significantly
292 reduced ($p < 0.05$) in placentas with preeclampsia independent of gestational age. These findings align
293 with previous reports of lower maternal LCPUFA levels in early pregnancies (26 - 30 weeks) among

women with preeclampsia (Wadhwani et al., 2014), suggesting that altered fatty acid availability may be a feature of the disorder. Potential contributions to these reductions include poor dietary sources, impaired synthesis, or decreased mobilization from maternal stores. Maternal LCPUFAs are critical not only for fetal neurodevelopment but also for proper fetoplacental growth and development. The fetal requirement for fatty acids depends on maternal diet as well as placental transport and metabolism, as the human placenta is permeable to fatty acids and facilitates their transfer to the fetus (Haggarty, 2010) (Wadhwani et al., 2018). Because conversion of precursors such as LA or ALA to LCPUFAs is not sufficient, the mother has to obtain these LCPUFAs directly from the diet to meet fetal demands. This is particularly critical in late gestation, when fetal DHA accumulation reaches 67−75 mg/day to support rapid fetal development. Furthermore, the trophoblast cells require LCPUFA from early pregnancy to carry out various processes associated with optimal placental growth and development. At the same time, the placenta itself relies on an adequate supply of LCPUFAs to support key cellular processes such as trophoblast proliferation, differentiation, oxidative stress regulation, and hormone synthesis—all essential for its development and function (Rani, Chavan-Gautam, Mehendale, Wagh, & Joshi, 2015).

Cholesterol homeostasis dysregulated with placenta disorders
Essential for fetal development, cholesterol serves as a precursor for steroid hormones and a structural component of cell membranes. In the placenta, cholesterol is taken up from maternal lipoproteins via LDL receptors on the syncytiotrophoblast and transported across apical and basolateral membranes into the fetal circulation. Maternal blood levels of cholesterol, LDL, HDL, and triglycerides are known to rise progressively during the second and third trimesters as part of normal metabolic adaptation to pregnancy(C. Wang et al., 2018; Wild & Feingold, 2023)} In the placenta, cholesterol crosses two barriers (apical and basolateral membrane) to reach the maternal to fetal circulation. Cholesterol travels across the syncytiotrophoblast from the maternal lacunae, which expresses LDL receptors. ABCA and ABGA cholesterol transporters control the efflux of cholesterol into the fetal microcirculation as HDL particles (Palinski, 2009; Woollett, 2005). A significant reduction of total cholesterol in Term-PE placenta in comparison with Term ($p < 0.05$) was observed. This observation is in contrast with the literature that reports increased levels of cholesterol, triacylglycerides, HDL, and LDL in the second and third trimesters of the pregnancy. However, the majority of reports measure these parameters in blood. These differences may be due that, in current obstetrics settings, free cholesterol is not measured in the placenta after delivery, and there is not a reference range for "healthy" lipid parameters during normal pregnancy. However, far less is known about cholesterol levels within the placental tissue itself; to our knowledge, reference ranges for normal placental lipid content have not been established yet (Bartels & O'Donoghue, 2011). In this study, total cholesterol levels in placental tissue were significantly reduced in Term-PE placentas compared to healthy term placentas (85.14 ± 28.88 µg/mg *vs*. 195.81 ± 134.31 µg/mg; *p < 0.05*; **Table S1** & **Figure 1**). A reduction was also observed in Preterm-PE placentas (126.04 ± 44.49 µg/mg). These findings suggest that placental cholesterol content may be disrupted in preeclampsia, potentially reflecting impaired cholesterol uptake, metabolism, or efflux within the placenta despite elevated circulating cholesterol levels commonly reported in the maternal bloodstream during late pregnancy. Further studies are warranted to clarify how placental lipid handling is altered in preeclampsia and how these changes impact fetal development.

Presence of oxysterols in the human placenta
In this study, we report for the first time the presence of 11 oxysterols in human placentas with preeclampsia at different terms **(Table 2** & **Figure 1)**. Six oxysterols (7-OH isomers, 5,6-isomers, 7-keto, and Triol) were detected in all human placentas (Pustjens, Boerrigter-Eenling, Koot, Rozijn, & van

Ruth), representing up to 70% of the total oxysterol content in human placentas. The ratio between
individual oxysterols and the total oxysterol (OxyS) content in placental tissue is shown in **Table 3**. The
sum of all oxysterols was two-fold higher in preeclamptic placentas, independent of gestational age
(Term: 8.76 ng/mg Term-PE: 39.12 ng/mg; Preterm-PE: 35.87 ng/mg; *p < 0.001*) **(Figure 1)**. To note,
when analyses were conducted including maternal body weight as a covariate, all significant differences
in oxysterols among groups remained.
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Similarly to reported oxysterol serum levels, 7-keto, 5β,6 β-epoxy, and Triol were increased and
positively correlated with preeclampsia independent of gestational age (term or preterm). These
oxysterols are formed non-enzymatically, often generated through ROS-induce lipid peroxidation or
derived from dietary sources. Notably, 5β,6β-epoxy was significantly higher in Term, but not Pre-Term
preeclamptic placentas. This is consistent with previous finding in maternal serum, where women with
pregnancy-induced hypertension had significantly higher levels of 5,6-epoxide isomers, alongside an
overall increase in total oxysterols ($p=0.042$). Our findings align with Sevanian et al., (1994) who
reported that 5β,6β epoxycholesterol rather than the 5α,6α isomer was the most abundant epoxide in
human plasma. In contrast, other studies have identified side chains oxysterols, such as 27-OH (144.5
ng/mL) and (24-OH (84.9 ng/mL) as predominant in blood during mid-gestation, followed by 7α-OH
(47.4 ng/mL) and 24-OH (18.4 ng/mL). However, these studies did not report epoxide levels (A.
Dickson et al., 2023) More recently Dickson et al. (A. L. Dickson, Yutuc, Thornton, Wang, & Griffiths,
2022) found that C-7 derived oxysterols were the most abundant in plasma in the following order: 7β-
OH > 7α-OH > 26-OH > 24-OH. These discrepancies may reflect differences in study design, detection
methods, gestational timing, or nutritional status, and underscore highlight the need for harmonized
quantification methods and dietary assessment to better distinguish endogenous from exogenous sources
of oxysterols.
The presence of 20-OH in placental tissue was confirmed, consistent with previous findings (A. L.
Dickson et al., 2022). Although infrequently detected in clinical studies, 20-OH is biologically active
and has been shown to inhibit the activation of SREBP-2 (Nohturfft, Yabe, Goldstein, Brown, &
Espenshade, 2000), a key transcription factor regulating cholesterol biosynthesis, potentially through
binding to INSIG. Along with side-chain oxysterols (22R-OH and 20R, 22R-dihydroxycholesterol), 20-
OH also acts as a ligand for liver X receptors (Vieira et al.) In contrast, the most abundant oxysterols
associated with dietary intake, such as 5α,6α-epoxy, 7α-OH, and 7β-OH did not significantly differ
between healthy term and preeclamptic placentas.
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Associations of oxysterols with placental fat, cholesterol and FFA
Correlation analyses revealed distinct patterns between placental oxysterol concentrations and total
cholesterol levels **(Figure 2)**. This included a positive correlation between 7α-OH and 7β-OH (r^2: 0.741;
p < 0.01 and 0.548; *p < 0.0001*) and between 5α,6α-Epoxy and 5β,6β-Epoxy (r^2: 0.925;p< 0.01 and
0.855; *p < 0.0001*). Notably, cholesterol concentrations were positively correlated with 7α-OH and 7β-
OH and negatively correlated with Triol and 7-Keto (**Figure S1,** Supplemental material). **Figure 3**
shows the ratio of total placental fat to cholesterol or oxysterols across groups. Compared to healthy
controls, both PE-Term and PE-Preterm placentas exhibited higher fat-to-cholesterol and fat-to-
oxysterol ratios, particularly for 7-keto, Triol, and 5β,6β-epoxy. These shifts suggest altered lipid
partitioning and disproportionate oxysterol accumulation relative to overall fat content in preeclamptic
placentas.
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Ratios of SFA, MUFA, and PUFA to both Oxys and cholesterol were significantly altered in
preeclamptic placentas compared to healthy controls **(Figure 4)**. SFA/Oxys, MUFA/Oxys, and
PUFA/Oxys ratios were significantly reduced in both Term-PE and Pre-Term PE groups relative to
Healthy, with the most pronounced decrease observed in the PUFA/Oxys ratio ($p < 0.001$). In contrast,
SFA/Cholesterol and PUFA/Cholesterol ratios were significantly elevated in PE groups, particularly in
Term-PE placentas ($p < 0.01$ to $p < 0.001$). MUFA/cholesterol ratios, however, showed no significant
differences among groups. These findings suggest a disproportionate accumulation of cholesterol and
oxidized lipid species relative to fatty acids in preeclamptic placentas.
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Multinomial logistic regression (Ezeamama et al.) was performed to model the association between
cholesterol metabolites and fatty acids with pregnancy outcomes, using *Term* as the reference category.
MLR allows for the analysis of relationships between multiple predictors and a categorical dependent
variable with more than two levels (Li, Rysavy, Bobashev, & Das, 2024). An initial model including age
and BMI showed no improvement in model performance, so these variables were excluded from the
final analyses. Stepwise selection identified 5,6α-epoxycholesterol and its metabolite Triol as significant
predictors ($p < 0.001$). However, due to high collinearity between these variables only Triol, that
demonstrated a stronger and more reliable association with pregnancy outcomes, was retained to ensure
model stability (**Table 4**). The model demonstrated strong predictive power to distinguish Pre-Term PE
from healthy term pregnancies ($p = 0.016$), but lacked sufficient predictive power for detecting Term-PE
(p = 0.215). The classification accuracy was highest for Pre-Term PE pregnancies (91.7%) followed by
healthy term (71.4%) and Term-PE (57.1%), yielding an overall classification accuracy of 76.9%. This
reduced performance in the Term-PE category is likely attributable to limited sample size. **Figure 5**
presents a scatter plot of the estimated classification probabilities for predicted *vs.* actual categories,
illustrating the degree of alignment between predicted probabilities and true outcomes.
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Triol has been studied for its potential involvement in inflammatory and oxidative stress pathways
across various health conditions. In human cells, triol is derived from the hydrolyzation of 5,6-
epoxycholesterol isomers by cholesterol-5,6-epoxy hydrolase (Poirot & Silvente-Poirot, 2013). It serves
as a precursor of two highly bioactive sterols implicated in tumorigenesis, dendrogenin A and
oncosterone (Dalenc, Poirot, & Silvente-Poirot, 2015; de Medina et al., 2021), and it has been proposed
as a marker for Niemann-Pick Type C disease (Reunert et al., 2015) and subclinical-hypothyroidism
(Unluturk et al., 2021). However, further investigations are needed to determine whether elevated Triol
levels contribute causally to pregnancy complications. The current study is limited by a small sample
size and thus further research will be needed to evaluate the utility of Triol as a biomarker for pregnancy
complications such as preeclampsia.
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Conclusion
This study presents novel data on the presence of both dietary and enzymatically generated oxysterols in
third-trimester human placental tissue. Notable differences in oxysterol concentrations were observed
across pregnancy outcomes, particularly in relation to preeclampsia and preterm birth. However,
interpretation of these findings is limited by the relatively small sample size, and further studies are
needed to confirm the utility of oxysterols as biomarkers of pregnancy complications.
Unlike cholesterol, which is commonly monitored in non-pregnant adults, cholesterol and oxysterols are
not routinely assessed during pregnancy, and standardized reference ranges do not currently exist.
Emerging evidence suggests that elevated maternal cholesterol and oxysterol levels during pregnancy
are associated with an increased risk of preeclampsia (PE) and preterm birth. However, further research

is needed to establish physiologically normal ranges, clarify the role of maternal hypercholesterolemia, and determine whether dietary or pharmacological interventions can mitigate these risks. Although this study does not provide causal evidence for a direct role of oxysterols in the pathogenesis of preeclampsia, the findings add to a growing body of literature indicating that placental lipid metabolism and oxysterol accumulation may be disrupted in pregnancy disorders. Ultimately, profiling oxysterols in the placenta could become a valuable tool for identifying pregnancies at risk for complications, but this potential must be validated through larger, prospective studies.

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Author contributions
L. Zou: formal analysis and data curation; **L. Maldonado-Pereira:** formal analysis and data curation; **Elvis Ticiani:** data analyses; **Visalakshi Sethuraman:** patient recruitment, sample collection, data abstraction; **Isoken Nicholas Olomu:** patient recruitment, data abstraction; **Robert Long:** patient recruitment; **A. Veiga-Lopez:** Conceptualization, funding acquisition, investigation, data curation, formal analysis, writing – original draft, writing – review and editing; **I. G. Medina-Meza:** Conceptualization, investigation, funding acquisition, writing – original draft, methodology, data curation, supervision and formal analysis, review and editing.

Conflict of interest statement
The author declares no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval
Ethics approval was not required for this research.

Data availability statement
All data are included in the manuscript.

465 **Table 1.** Clinical characteristics
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	Term (n = 12) ≥ 37 weeks		Term PE (n = 7) ≥ 36 6/7 weeks		Pre-Term PE (Laurens) 28-35 weeks	
	Mean ± SEM, percent, or N	Range	Mean ± SEM, percent or N	Range	Mean ± SEM, percent, or N	Range
Age (years)	31.8 ± 1.0^a	27 - 39	25.6 ± 3.0^b	19 - 41	$27.9 \pm 1.1^{a,b}$	24 - 34
Height (m)	1.7 ± 0.02	1.6 - 1.8	1.6 ± 0.03	1.5 - 1.7	1.6 ± 0.02	1.5 - 1.7
Maternal weight (kg)	87.8 ± 5.6	68.5 - 120.2	76.4 ± 11.9	47.6 - 137.0	95.5 ± 8.7	68.0 148.8
BMI (kg/m^2)	29.6 ± 2.1	16.6 - 46.8	29.4 ± 4.0	20.5 - 50.2	36.9 ± 3.2	28.3 - 56.3
Birth weight (g)	$3,648 \pm 105^a$	3,090 - 4,240	$3,081 \pm 220^a$	1,980 - 3,540	$2,301 \pm 228^b$	1,460 - 3,460
Birth weight percentile	63.5 ± 6.1	30.8 - 99.6	43.7 ± 14.0	1.8 - 89.7	60.2 ± 8.4	20.3 - 95.2
Newborn sex (Female/Male)	(4/8)		(3/4)		(3/6)	
SROM (%)	0 %		42 %		22 %	

467 Data expressed in mean ± SEM or percent unless otherwise specified. IQR: interquartile range, PE: preeclampsia,
468 Pre-Term PE: preterm preeclampsia, Term PE: term preeclampsia, PTL: preterm labor, SROM: spontaneous
469 rupture of membranes, and T: term control. a ≠ b denotes significant differences between groups.
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473 **Table 2.** Percent of oxysterol abundance in human placentas

Oxysterol	ID	Abundance in human placenta (%)
7α-hydroxycholesterol	7α-OH	92.9
7β-hydroxycholesterol	7β-OH	92.9
cholesterol 3β,5α,6β-triol	Triol	92.9
7-ketocholesterol	7-Keto	85.7
cholesterol 5α,6α-epoxide	5α,6α-epoxy	64.3
cholesterol 5β,6β-epoxide	5β,6β-epoxy	60.7
25-hydroxycholesterol	25-OH	25.0
22-hydroxycholesterol	22R-OH	21.4
6-ketocholestanol	6-Keto	14.3
20S-hydroxycholesterol	20-OH	10.7
24-hydroxycholesterol	24-OH	7.1

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Table 3. The ratio between individual oxysterols and the total oxysterol (OxyS) content in placental tissue.

Ratio	Control (n=12)		Pre-Term PE (n=9)		Term- PE (n=7)		*p-value*
	mean	**SD**	**mean**	**SD**	**mean**	**SD**	
Total OxyS (ng/mg)	8.76	7.74	35.87	19.09	39.12	23.42	**0.001**
7α-OH/OxyS	0.21	0.06	0.10	0.13	0.04	0.02	**0.001**
7β-OH/OxyS	0.26	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.04	0.02	**0.001**
5,6β/OxyS	0.28	0.15	0.39	0.16	0.33	0.12	
5,6α/OxyS	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.03	
Triol /OxyS	0.19	0.14	0.16	0.08	0.13	0.10	
7-keto/OxyS	0.15	0.13	0.27	0.17	0.33	0.16	
25-OH/OxyS	0.04		0.17		0.13	0.10	
7α OH/7β OH	0.86	0.25	1.15	0.79	1.15	0.26	
5,6α Epoxy/5β Epoxy	9.84	6.24	5.97	2.07	7.96	6.03	

Table 4. Parameter estimates from multinomial logistic regression model for predicting pregnancy outcomes

Terms[a]		B	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% Confidence Interval for Exp(B) Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Preterm	Intercept	3.814	1.307	8.512	1	**0.004**			
	Triol	-1.425	0.590	5.830	1	**0.016**	0.240	0.076	0.765
Term-PE	Intercept	1.241	1.145	1.176	1	0.278			
	Triol	-0.276	0.223	1.535	1	0.215	0.759	0.490	1.174

[a]The reference category is: Term.

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Figure 1. Mean (Abela et al.) of total oxysterols (ΣOxyS), cholesterol, 7-Keto, Triol), 5α,6α-epoxy;
5β,6β-epoxy, 7α-OH and 7β-OH in human placentas derived from age-matched healthy or preeclamptic
subjects at term (Pang et al.) or preterm (PE-PTB; <37 weeks GA). *P<0.05, **P<0.005, ***P<0.0005
by ANOVA.

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510 **Figure 2.** Correlation plots between oxysterols (OxyS) and cholesterol in human placentas derived from
511 age-matched healthy or preeclamptic subjects at term (Pang et al.) or preterm (PE-PTB; <37 weeks
512 GA).7-Keto, Triol, 5β,6β-Epoxy7α-OH and 7β-OH.

Figure 3. Ratio of total placental fat and cholesterol or oxysterols in human placentas derived from age-matched healthy or preeclamptic subjects at term (Pang et al.) or preterm (PE-PTB; <37 weeks GA). *P<0.05 by ANOVA.

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Figure 4. Correlation plots between saturated (SFA), monounsaturated (MUFA), and polyunsaturated
fatty acids (PUFAs) with cholesterol and OxyS p<0.05 in human placentas derived from age-matched
healthy or preeclamptic subjects at term (Pang et al.) or preterm (PE-PTB; <37 weeks GA). *P<0.05,
**P<0.005, ***P<0.0005 by ANOVA.

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Figure 5. Scatter plot of estimated Classification probabilities for predicted *vs*. actual categories. The plot shows the model's predicted probabilities against the actual probabilities for each observation, highlighting the alignment between predicted and true category classifications.

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Table S1. Oxysterols and fatty acids profile in human placentas

Metabolite	Control (n=12)		Pre-Term PE (n=9)		Term- PE (n=7)		
	mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD	p-value
Cholesterol ug/mg	195.81	134.31	126.04	44.49	85.14	28.88	**0.05**
7alpha (ng/mg)	1.65	1.34	1.78	0.25	1.39	0.47	
7beta (ng/mg)	2.01	1.49	2.08	1.08	1.30	0.59	
5,6beta (ng/mg)	3.86	3.85	18.84	12.67	11.15	5.68	**0.01**
5,6alpha (ng/mg)	0.39	0.25	3.54	2.83	2.80	3.66	
Triol (ng/mg)	0.97	0.61	5.46	3.36	3.58	2.08	**0.001**
7keto (ng/mg)	1.80	3.14	8.70	4.77	10.69	3.30	**0.001**
25-OH ug/mg)	0.28		3.73		7.75	10.76	
22-OH (ng/mg)	0.56	0.36	2.17		2.17	1.48	
20-OH (ng/mg)	0.41		2.12		1.74		
6-keto (ng/mg)	ND		0.79	0.70	0.87	0.28	
24-OH (ng/mg)	ND		3.42		33.80		
Total Oxys (ng/mg)	8.76	7.74	35.87	19.09	39.12	23.42	**0.001**
7a/Oxys	0.21	0.06	0.10	0.13	0.04	0.02	**0.001**
7bOH/Oxys	0.26	0.10	0.09	0.10	0.04	0.02	**0.001**
5,6beta/Oxys	0.28	0.15	0.39	0.16	0.33	0.12	
5,6alpha/Oxys	0.03	0.01	0.07	0.04	0.05	0.03	
Triol /Oxys	0.19	0.14	0.16	0.08	0.13	0.10	
7keto/Oxys	0.15	0.13	0.27	0.17	0.33	0.16	
25OH/Oxys	0.04		0.17		0.13	0.10	
7a OH/7b OH	0.86	0.25	1.15	0.79	1.15	0.26	
5a Epoxy/5b Epoxy	9.84	6.24	5.97	2.07	7.96	6.03	
C10	0.60	0.36	0.79	0.67	0.56	0.21	
C11	0.08	0.04	0.08	0.05	0.10	0.05	
C12	1.96	4.21	2.32	4.88	1.44	2.77	
C14	2.73	1.07	1.95	1.47	1.95	0.93	
C14:1n5	0.39	0.23	0.13	0.02	0.25	0.09	
C15	0.67	0.12	0.51	0.05	0.75	0.31	
C16	29.68	3.35	28.26	2.25	31.87	5.38	
C16:1n7	1.68	0.72	0.95	0.53	1.42	0.64	
C17	0.49	0.16	0.35	0.08	0.34	0.11	**0.042**
C17:1n7			0.01		0.06		
C18	11.56	2.20	10.39	3.21	10.73	3.10	
C18:1trans9	0.25	0.21	0.05	0.07	0.03	0.04	**0.009**
C18:1cis9	15.34	5.31	11.17	4.14	14.09	6.10	
C18:2tran6	0.04		0.01		ND		
C18:2cis6	9.62	1.97	11.70	1.76	11.96	3.15	
C18:3n6	0.13	0.18	0.08	0.03	0.08	0.03	
C18:3n3	5.55	4.07	6.55	3.60	5.60	6.60	
C20	0.07	0.03	0.08	0.03	0.09	0.04	
C20:1n9	0.09	0.02	0.09	0.03	0.09	0.03	

C20:2n6	0.11	0.04	0.15	0.05	0.11	0.03	
C20:3n6	2.44	0.87	3.41	1.33	2.45	1.19	
C20:4n6	13.93	3.95	17.98	4.30	14.05	5.95	
C21	1.33		ND		ND		
C20:5n3	0.06	0.03	0.08	0.05	0.06	0.02	
C22	0.08	0.03	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.04	
C22:1n9	0.04	0.04	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.01	
C22:2n6	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.01	
C23	0.04	0.06	0.04	0.02	0.04	0.04	
C24	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.02	
C22:6n3	2.14	0.89	2.78	1.14	1.83	0.75	
C24:1n9	0.23	0.71	0.03	0.03	0.02	0.01	
SFA	48.10	4.91	44.88	5.59	47.98	8.14	
MUFA	17.90	6.25	12.37	4.68	15.87	6.70	
PUFA	34.00	8.01	42.75	8.37	36.15	13.65	
□ MC-SFA	2.64	4.45	3.18	5.50	2.10	2.70	
□ LC-SFA	45.35	4.97	41.70	4.63	45.87	7.92	
□ PUFA n-3	7.74	4.31	9.40	4.06	7.49	6.83	
□ PUFA n-6	16.63	4.82	21.64	5.62	16.71	6.98	
n6/n3 ratio	3.72	3.19	2.91	2.18	3.95	2.65	

Note: ND means not detected or traces**.**

Figure S1. Placental lipid metabolites correlations

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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