Dynamic Transcriptome, Accessible Genome and PGR Cistrome Profiles in the Human

Myometrium

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Abstract

The myometrium undergoes structural and functional remodeling during pregnancy. We hypothesize that myometrial genomic elements alter correspondingly in preparation for parturition. Human myometrial tissues from nonpregnant (NP) and term pregnant (TP) human subjects were examined by RNAseq, ATAC-seq and PGR ChIP-seq assays to profile transcriptome, assessible genome and PGR occupancy. NP and TP specimens exhibit 2890 differentially expressed genes, reflecting an increase of metabolic, inflammatory and PDGF signaling, among others, in adaptation to pregnancy. At the epigenome level, patterns of accessible genome change between NP and TP myometrium, leading to altered enrichment of binding motifs for hormone and muscle regulators such as the progesterone receptor (PGR), Krüppel-like factors and MEF2A transcription factors. PGR genome occupancy exhibits a significant difference between the two stages of the myometrium, concomitant with distinct transcriptomic profiles including genes such as *ENO1*, *LHDA*, and *PLCL1* in the glycolytic and calcium signaling pathways. Over-representation of SRF, MYOD and STAT binding motifs in PGR occupying sites further suggests interactions between PGR and major muscle regulators for myometrial gene expression. In conclusion, changes in accessible genome and PGR occupancy are part of the myometrial remodeling process and may serve as mechanisms to formulate the state-specific transcriptome profiles.

Introduction

Myometrium is the muscular component of the uterus consisting of primarily smooth muscle and vascular cells. The main function of the myometrium is to maintain structural integrity of uteri during pregnancy and to provide contraction force for parturition. Myometrial smooth muscle cells increase in number and size as well as change from a synthetic to a contractile state during gestation [1, 2]. These cells need to remain quiescence before parturition and produce phasic contractions at the laboring stage [3]. After parturition, the involution process reduces the size of uterus to the nonpregnant state [4, 5]. Disorders associated with the myometrium may result in preterm birth, dystocia, adenomyosis and leiomyoma, which impose serious burdens on maternal and child health.

Steroid hormones progesterone, estrogen and glucocorticoid have been indicated for regulating gene expression and cell proliferation of myometrial smooth muscle [6-10]. Estrogen modulates contraction-associated genes and induces hyperplasia of myometrial smooth muscle cells at early gestation by activating the PI3K/mTOR pathway and repressing myostatin expression [7, 8, 11, 12]. Estrogen also supports the expansion of myometrial progenitor-like cells [13] and works together with progesterone to promote proliferation of leiomyoma side-population cells through regulation of the paracrine WNT signaling from the mature myometrial cells. [14]. On the other hand, progesterone signaling downregulates expression of genes that are associated with cell proliferation in cultured human myometrial cells and has a negative effect on vascular smooth muscle proliferation [9, 15, 16]. In contrast, glucocorticoids inhibits proliferation of uterine leiomyoma cells, vascular smooth muscle cells and airway smooth muscle cells but has no impact on the cell cycle progression in cultured uterine smooth muscle cells[6, 17, 18]. The role of progesterone and glucocorticoid in the early gestation myometrium remains unknown.

Progesterone is also an FDA-approved tocolytic agent to prevent premature parturition [19]. Progesterone signaling is primarily mediated by the progesterone receptor (PGR) and is sensitive to environmental endocrine disruptor [16, 20]. Mechanisms that control progesterone signaling include metabolism of progesterone, transcription regulation and post translational modifications of PGR and interaction between PGR and coregulators [21-25]. Before parturition, myometrial progesterone signaling suppresses inflammatory and contractile activities via the ZEB1/ZEB2-miR-200-STAT5b pathway, the PGR-AP-1 containing transcription repressive complex and

cAMP-DUSP1 dependent regulation of PGR phosphorylation [23, 26, 27]. At the transition to

the laboring stage, emerging reports suggest that the elevated ratio of PGR isoform A verse B

could turn the effect of progesterone signaling from repressive to inductive on transcription of

labor genes such as GJA1 and further promotes gap junction coupling in the myometrium [27-

29]. These findings demonstrate the versatility of the progesterone signaling in the myometrial

biology manifested by the activity of its cognate receptor PGR.

This study focuses on the physiological change between nonpregnant and term pregnant

myometrium. The profiles of transcriptome, open chromatin regions and PGR cistrome in human

myometrial specimens at both stages are documented to identify genetic pathways and potential

underlying mechanisms that may be responsible for the structural and functional adaptation to

pregnancy. The common and distinct molecular features of myometrium at these two stages not

only provide clinical relevance to known pathways but also suggest novel mechanisms that may

contribute to myometrial remodeling in support of pregnancy.

Materials and Methods

Human Myometrial Specimens

Permission to work with human tissue specimens for all experiments was obtained from

the Institutional Review Board for Baylor College of Medicine (BCM H-22119, Approved

5/7/2008). All specimens were obtained from the Gynecologic Tissue Repository for BCM,

which has previously been granted permission to routinely collect specimens of female

reproductive tract tissues under a separate IRB protocol (H-33461). Written informed consent is

available for all specimens utilized to perform the work described.

For the purposes of these experiments, specimens of myometrium were collected from

non-laboring gravid women at term (TP; 38-42 weeks estimated gestational age) undergoing

cesarean section for routine clinical indications. All myometrial specimens from gravid women

were collected from the margins of the hysterotomy following delivery of the fetus. No

specimens were collected from women who had undergone pitocin-induced augmentation of

labor within 6 hours of surgery or who had previously received 17-hydroxyprogesterone for the

treatment of pre-term labor. In addition, no specimens were collected from women whose

pregnancy had been complicated by other medical conditions (including but not limited to

gestational diabetes >IB, chorioamnionitis, pregnancy-induced hypertension, preeclampsia,

HELLP syndrome or its variants). Specimens of non-gravid myometrium (NP) were obtained

from healthy, pre-menopausal women undergoing routine, clinically-indicated gynecologic

surgery. All non-gravid myometrial specimens were collected from healthy myometrium at sites

that excluded both the uterine serosa and endometrium and were at least 2 cm from the nearest

leiomyoma. Any specimens from women using progestins prior to their surgery were excluded

from analysis.

After washing each specimen briefly in phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pieces of myometrium

were either flash frozen (ChIP-Seq) or preserved by plunging them into ice-cold RNALater

(RNA-Seq) with warm ischemia time less than 30 minutes. All specimens weresubsequently

stored at <-80°C until use. Assays for each individual sample are listed in Table S1.

RNA Extraction

Myometrial specimens were homogenized by the bead Mill 24 homogenizer (15-340-163, Fisher

Scientific, Waltham, MA) in Bead Mill Tubes (15-340-154 Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA)

with 1 mL Trizol (15596026, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). Tissue debris was

pelleted and removed by centrifugation at 12000 xg for 10 minutes at 4°C. After adding 200 uL

1-Bromo-3-chloropropane, samples were manually shake for 20 seconds followed by incubation

at room temperature for 3 minutes. Phase separation was conducted by centrifugation at 12000

xg for 18 minutes at 4°C. The RNA containing aqueous layer was retained and subsequently

mixed with 500 uL 200 proof ethanol. The mixture was then passed through the RNA binding

column of RNeasy Mini Kit (74104, Qiagen, Germantown, MD), followed by washing and

elution steps described in the manufacture's handbook.

RNAseq

The libraries prepared from myometrial specimens were sequenced with approximately 50

million, 101bp paired-end reads per sample. The raw reads were subsequently processed by

filtering with average quality scores greater than 20. Then the reads were aligned to hg19 using

TopHat version 2.0.4 [30]. Expression values of RNA-seq were expressed as FPKM (fragments

per kilobase of exon per million fragments) values. Differential expression was calculated using

Cufflink version 2.2.1 [31]. Functional analysis of gene lists was performed using the Ingenuity

Pathway Analysis (IPA, www.ingenuity.com) and The Database for Annotation, Visualization

and Integrated Discovery (DAVID) v6.8 [32, 33].

ATACseq

Three nonpregnant (NP) and 3 term pregnant (TP) myometrial specimens were sent to Active

Motif (Carlsbad, CA) for the library preparation service (catalog number 25079). The libraries

were generated with the Illumina Nextera DNA Library Prep kit and were sequenced by Active

Motif and NIEHS Sequencing core by Illumina HiSeq 2000 and NextSeq 500 systems with 42bp

paired-end reads on each sample. The raw reads were initially processed by trimming adaptors

and filtering with average quality scores greater than 20. The reads passing the initial processing

were aligned to the human reference genome (hg19) using bowtie version 1.1.2 [34]. After

removing the reads mapped to mitochondria DNA, the uniquely mapped deduplicated reads in

each sample were normalized by down-sampling to 91.5M single reads. Only the first 9bp of

each read were used for downstream analyses. The open chromatin regions (OCRs) were first

identified by MACS2 [35] with a cutoff of adjusted p-value 0.0001, followed by merging

genomic intervals within 100bp of each other.

Motif analysis and peak annotation to nearby gene within 25Kb were performed by the

Hypergeometric Optimization of Motif EnRichment (HOMER) motif discovery tool [36]. The

bivariate genomic footprinting (BaGFoot) algorithm [37] was used to identify binding motifs

exhibiting change of chromatin accessibility including footprint depth and flanking accessibility

between 2 myometrial stages.

ChIPseq

Chromatin immunoprecipitation and library preparation and sequencing were performed by

Active Motif (catalog number 25006 and 25046, Carlsbad, CA) using an anti-PGR antibody (sc-

7208, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX) and a custom Illumina library with the standard

Illumina PE adaptors [38]. The Illumina HiSeq 2000 system was utilized for next generation

sequencing. The 50-nt single-end sequence reads identified were mapped to genome assembly

hg19 using the BWA algorithm with default settings. Only reads that passed Illumina's purity

filter and of a mean quality score of 20 or higher, aligned with no more than 2 mismatches, and

mapped uniquely to the genome were used in the subsequent analysis. In addition, unless stated

otherwise, duplicate reads were removed using the MarkDuplicates tool available in picard-tools-

1.119. The retained read alignments were sorted by coordinates, extended to 300 bases, and then

randomly downsampled to 9 million intervals per sample with custom scripts. MACS (version

2.1.1.20160309) was employed to perform peak calling with FDR cutoff at 0.0001, using a

human myometrium input as control. HOMER's "annotatePeaks.pl" and findMotifsGenome.pl"

functions with default settings were used for peak annotation and motif enrichment analysis of

given peak ranges [36]. BEDTools version 2.27.1 was chosen for merging and intersecting peaks

in overlapping analysis, with the default settings [39].

ChIP-qPCR

ChIP-qPCR was performed by Active Motif (Carlsbad, CA) using an anti-PGR antibody (sc-

7208, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX). Primer sequences for the ChIP-qPCR assay are

ENO1_cF: AGCCCTTCCCCAATCATTAC, ENO1_cR: TACGTTCACCTCGGTGTCTG,

LDHA_cF: GTGCATTCCCGGTACGGTAG, LDHA_cR: AGCAGAACCAGAGGCAGTTG,

PLCL1_cF: GGAGAATGCGGGTCATCTTG, PLCL1_cR:

CAGGAAACAAGCAGGAGTAGG and Untr12 (Catalog #71001, Active Motif, Carlsbad, CA).

PGR binding events were calculated according to an equation published in the user's manual of

Active Motif catalog number 12970399.

Quantitative RT-PCR

cDNA was generated by the Transcriptor First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (04379012001,

Roche Life Science, Penzberg, Germany) in accordance to the manufacture's manual. PCR was

conducted by using SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (1725270, Bio-Rad,

Hercules, CA) or SsoAdvanced Universal Probes Supermix (1725280, Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA)

on the CFX Connect Real-Time PCR Detection System (1855201, Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA)

based on manufacture's instruction.

Primers used in this study include OXTR_F: GGGGAGTCAACTTTAGGTTCG, OXTR_R:

TTCCTCGGGATGTTCAGC, GJA1_F: GCCTGAACTTGCCTTTTCAT, GJA1_R:

CTCCAGTCACCCATGTTGC, ZEB1_F: CCTAAAAGAGCACTTAAGAATTCACAG,

ZEB1_R: CATTTCTTACTGCTTATGTGTGAGC, PLCL1_F:

CAGGAAAAGATTGTACAGTGTCAGA, PLCL1_R: TTTGCCCCCAAATTATGAAG,

SLC2A1_F: GGTTGTGCCATACTCATGACC, SLC2A1_R:

CAGATAGGACATCCAGGGTAGC, HK2_F: GCTGAAGGAAGCGATCCA, HK2_R:

GTGTCGTTCACCACAGCAAC, ALDOB_F: GGCAAGGCTGCAAACAAG, ALDOB_R:

CCCGTGTGAACATACTGTCCT, PGK1_F: CAGCTGCTGGGTCTGTCAT, PGK1_R:

GCTGGCTCGGCTTTAACC, ENO1_F: TCCCAACATCCTGGAGAATAA, ENO1_R:

ATGCCGATGACCACCTTATC, PKM2_F: ACGTGGATGATGGGCTTATT, PKM2_R:

CCAAGGAGCCACCATTTTC, LDHA_F: GTCCTTGGGGAACATGGAG and LDHA_R:

TTCAGAGAGACACCAGCAACA. The 18S rRNA probe is from ThermoFisher Scientific

(4319413E, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). All the RT-PCR results were normalized

to the expression levels of the internal control 18S rRNA.

High Content Data Deposit

The RNAseq, ChIPseq and ATACseq raw data is under the SuperSeries GSE137552 in the Gene

Expression Omnibus of the National Center for Biotechnology Information at the National

Library of Medicine.

Result

<u>Adaptive Myometrial Transcriptome for Pregnancy</u>

Previous studies show that the expression of parturition associated genes *OXTR* and *GJA1*

increase and *ZEB1* and *PLCL1* decrease expression at the transition from quiescence to labor in

the term pregnant myometrium [40-43]. After examining 6 nonpregnant (NP) and 9 term

pregnant (TP) myometrial specimens, we extend these findings by demonstrating that mRNA

levels of *OXTR, GJA1, ZEB1* and *PLCL1* genes all start lower in the nonpregnant myometrium

and rise toward term pregnancy (Figure 1). These observations suggest that the myometrial

transcriptome is dynamically staged over the course of pregnancy in preparation for parturition.

Genome-wide transcriptome dynamics from the NP to the TP stage was further investigated by

RNAseq in a cohort of myometrial specimen independent from those in the aforementioned

study of marker genes (Table S1). Using a criteria of average fragments per kilobase of transcript

per million mapped reads (FPKM) greater or equal than 1 in at least one of the six specimens,

15907 active genes were found in the myometrium (Table S2). Within each group, the NP and

TP myometrium each has 14899 and 15260 active genes, respectively (Table 1 and Table S2).

Between these two stages, NP and TP samples share 14612 active genes (Table S2). While

95.7% NP and 93.4% TP expressing genes are present in both stages (Table 1), overall

transcriptome profiles exhibited a significant difference as evidenced by the principle component

analysis that shows distinct separation between samples of TP and NP stages (Figure 2A). These

findings suggest that the pregnancy dependent transcriptome dynamics in the myometrium is

primarily a result of change of mRNA levels rather than the composition of expressing genes.

Using the absolute fold change greater or equal to 1.4 and adjusted *p*-value less than 0.05 as the

cutoff, 2890 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified between the two stages of

myometrium with expression of 1043 and 1847 genes relatively higher in NP and TP tissues,

respectively (Figure 2B). Parturition related genes again show increased expression toward term

pregnancy in this cohort of specimens with mean fold changes at 156 for *OXTR*, 2.9 for *GJA1*,

1.6 for *ZEB1* and 2.6 for *PLCL1* (Table S2), consistent with previous observations in another

cohort of specimens (Figure 1). Gene ontology analysis on the DEGs shows that genes expressed

at higher levels at the NP stage are enriched in terms in association with transcription, RNA-

binding and histone deacetylase activity among others, reflecting the synthetic state of the NP

myometrium. In contrast, terms linked to innate immunity, protease and carbohydrate transport

and metabolism are over-represented among genes of higher expression levels at pregnancy

(Tables 2 and S3), demonstrating a molecular profile of the contractile state in favor of

inflammation control, extracellular remodeling and increased energy demand as well as in

preparation for subsequent parturition. Further examining the 2890 DEGs reveals potential

alterations of molecular activities between NP and TP stages, as predicted by the differential

expression of downstream target genes of molecules of interest. The Ingenuity Pathway Analysis

(IPA) estimates increased activities of myometrial expansion/remodeling associated TGFβ,

PDGF, ERK and STAT, inflammation management linked TNF and AP-1, as well as myometrial

contraction related p53 signaling, among others (Table 3 and Table S4) [11, 44-49]. Changes of

these molecular activities appear to be evolutionarily conserved, as evidenced by a similar

observation that compares transcriptomic profiles of the mouse myometrium between 18.5 days

post coitus and virgin (GSE17021, Table 3 and Table S5). Notably, majority of the subset of

DEGs that match IPA curated glucose downstream exhibits changes of gene expression

consistent with the response to glucose treatment (Table 3, Table S4 and Table S5), which

suggests relatively higher glucose utilization at the TP stage. This result is also in line with the

aforementioned gene ontology enrichment finding as shown in Table 2. Moreover, genes that

encode enzymes of the glycolysis pathway, including *SLC2A1, ALDOB, PGK1, ENO1, PKM2*

and *LDHA*, exhibited increased mRNA levels toward term pregnancy in two independent cohorts

of specimens (Figure 3 and Table S2). The HK2 gene, which encodes the hexokinase for glucose

phosphorylation, also showed significant higher expression levels in the TP myometrium in the

first cohort despite displayed a trend of increase in the second cohort instead (Figure 3). The

higher expression in glycolytic pathway genes and glucose downstream targets together suggest

an increase of glucose usage in the TP myometrium compared with that in the NP stage. Taking

together, these findings illustrate an adaptive myometrial transcriptome in response to the

pregnancy and in preparation for parturition at various aspects such as structure reorganization,

inflammation and contraction management, and metabolic adaptation.

Accessible Genome Dynamics in the Myometrium

Since the myometrial transcription profiles are adaptive to pregnancy, we next examine the

myometrial genome accessibility to check if the profiles of open chromatin regions are also

different between NP and TP states. The assay for transposase-accessible chromatin using

sequencing (ATAC-seq) [50] was performed on myometrial specimens of three human subjects

of each stages. The NP and TP myometrium each has 45501 and 85777 open chromatin regions

(OCRs) identified in at least one of three samples within the group (Figure 4 and Table S6).

Among these genomic regions, 9564 (class I) and 50840 (class III) OCRs are exclusively present

in the NP and TP states, respectively, whereas 35937 OCRs (class II) can be detected in both

states (Figure 4). Within each class of OCRs, HOMER identified enrichment of 128, 82 and 121

transcription factor binding motifs in class I, II and III OCRs, respectively (Table S7). Among

these enriched motifs, 38, 2 and 12 motifs show enrichment uniquely present in class I, II and III

OCRs, respectively (Table 4). Genes that encode corresponding transcription factors for vast

majority of these motifs are found active in human myometrial tissues (Table S2), implicating

that interactions of these transcription factors with genomic DNA have a high probability to be

affected by change of chromatin structure during pregnancy.

Class I and III OCRs that are located within 25 kb of transcription start sites of DEGs are

arbitrarily defined as DEG-associated dynamic OCRs (Table 5), rendering these OCRs the

potential gene regulatory elements for linked DEGs subject to the control of chromatin structure

changes. Among the linked OCRs and DEGs, positive correlation is observed between 2989

OCRs and 1461 DEGs that have elevated gene expression concomitant with increased genome

accessibility or decreased gene expression with reduced genome accessibility (Table 5). This

observation suggests that these 2989 OCRs could function as putative enhancers for the 1461

associated DEGs. On the other hand, negative correlation is seen between 1660 OCRs and 980

DEGs that exhibit a reduction of gene expression with increased genome accessibility or an

increase of gene expression with decreased genome accessibility (Table 5). This inverse

correlation implicates a role of these 1660 OCRs as putative repressors for the 980 DEGs. Motif

enrichment analysis on the DEG-associated dynamic OCRs further reveals candidate

transcription regulators that may control transcription of the associated DEGs and whose actions

are possibly affected by change of chromatin structure over the course of pregnancy (Table S8).

Among the DNA-binding proteins that may occupy these enriched motifs, estrogen receptor,

glucocorticoid receptor, progesterone receptor, MEF2C, NFAT, NFkB, AP-1 and STAT

transcription factors have been studied for their roles in the myometrial biology [6, 51-54]; and

CTCF and YY1 are known for their functions in regulation of chromatin conformation [55, 56].

The presence of these motifs in the dynamic OCRs suggest that changes in chromatin structure

may also have an impact on the actions of these transcription and chromatin conformation

regulators in modulation of associated DEGs between the two states of pregnancy. Further

examining the associated DEGs by gene ontology enrichment analysis found signaling pathways

that are potentially subject to chromatin structural changes, including Rho family GTPases, actin

cytoskeleton, gap junction, eNOS, Relaxin, PDGF and HIPPO signaling for myometrial

remodeling and contraction regulation as well as glycolysis and Adrenomedullin for metabolism

and circulation control (Table 6 and Table S9). In summary, these findings identify potential

signaling pathways and their putative transcriptional regulators in the human myometrium that

may have an additional control mechanism through genome accessibility.

The ATAC-seq data also allows assessment of transcription factors' footprints in the open

chromatin regions. The bivariate genomic footprinting (BaGFoot) algorithm enables

identification of motifs that are located at the deepened protein-binding footprints (Δfootprint

depth) sites within the open chromatin regions of increasing DNA accessibility (Δflanking

accessibility) from one state to another [37]. The NP and TP myometrial tissues exhibit distinct

sets of enriched motifs (Figure S1 and Table S10). The corresponding transcription factors that

may occupy at these motifs and are also expressed ALX1, ARID3A, FOXC1, FOXJ2, FOXJ3,

HLF, HMGA1, HOXA13, HOXA5, HOXD9, NFIL3, NKX3.1, PBX1, POU6F1, PRRX2, REL

and TBP for the TP myometrium. In contrast, the expressing transcription regulators that may

bind at enriched motifs in the NP myometrium include EGR1, MDB2, MECP2, NRF1, SP1,

SP2, SP3, SP4, ZBTB7B, ZBTB4 and ZNF219. Our data suggest that the interactions between

these transcription factors and their genomic target sites in the myometrium are likely subject to

the change of chromatin structure at the epigenomic level transitioning toward term pregnancy.

<u>PGR Genome Occupancy in the Myometrial Tissues</u>

Since PGR plays a vital role in mediating the progesterone signaling and enrichment of its DNA

motif is found in the open chromatin regions of the myometrium, we next examine the

myometrial PGR genome occupancy profiles at both NP and TP stages. Myometrial biopsies

from two individual human subjects at each stage were subject to the PGR ChIP-seq assay. Peak

calling using data within each individual sample identifies 24095, 9778, 10717 and 8053 PGR

occupying intervals in NP1, NP2, TP1 and TP2 myometrial specimens, respectively, after

normalization to the same sequencing depth at 9 million reads per sample (Table S11). These

PGR binding regions presented in each stage account for 48.3% and 15.0% of open chromatin

regions in the NP and TP myometrium, respectively. PGR occupancy is enriched in promoters

and 5' untranslated regions (UTR) in all four myometrial specimens at the expense of the distal

intergenic areas (Table 7), implicating a close interaction between PGR and the transcription

machinery around the promoters *in vivo* for regulation of gene expression. Notably, the

enrichment of myometrial PGR occupancy around the promoter is most prominent in the

nonpregnant state (34.3% for NP1 and 35.4% for NP2). On the other hand, such enrichment is

relatively lower at the TP state (26.4% for TP1 and 12.0% for TP2) with comparatively higher

percentage of PGR binding in the distal intergenic region (Table 7). This finding indicates that

re-distribution of PGR genome occupancy occurs concurrently with myometrial remodeling and

transcriptomic changes in adaptation to pregnancy.

The DNA sequences of PGR occupying regions exhibited a significant enrichment of the

consensus PGR binding motif [57] in all four myometrial specimens in comparison with the

background genome (enrichment p value 1×10^{-18} [NP1], 1×10^{-686} [NP2], 1×10^{-1105} [TP1], 1 x

10^{-1059} [TP2], Table S12), while the PGR consensus motif can be found more frequently in the

TP than the NP myometrial PGR binding intervals (21.33% [TP1] and 26.20% [TP2] vs. 5.01%

[NP1] and 18.57% [NP2], Table S12). Over-representation of binding motifs for transcription

factors that have known indications in the myometrium is also seen across all myometrial

specimens, including NR3C1 (glucocorticoid receptor) [6, 58], ATF3 [59], FOSL1 [60], JUN

[60], KLF9 [61, 62], NFkB [63, 64] and STAT5 [54] (Table S12). Similarly, DNA binding

motifs for the PGR co-factor FOSL2 [27, 57], smooth muscle differentiation regulator TCF21

[65] and smooth muscle master regulator SRF (CArG)[66, 67] are over-represented throughout

the samples, too (Table S12). These data collectively show that the PGR may interact with DNA

via both consensus motif dependent and independent manners and such interaction is dynamic

during myometrial remodeling. Moreover, our *in vivo* observations provide clinical relevance to

previous *in vitro* findings that PGR interacts with other know myometrial and muscle

transcription factors in close proximity at cis-acting elements for regulation of myometrial

transcriptome.

Further examination of the motif enrichment data identifies candidate myometrial PGR-

partnering transcription factors, however, their functions in the myometrium await investigation.

The TEAD proteins are known to mediate the Hippo pathway for regulation of muscle fiber size

[68] and to interact with AP-1 factors for the smooth muscle fate decision [69]. The motif for

TEAD transcription factors is over-represented in PGR binding intervals across all four

specimens (Table S12) and expression of TEAD1, TEAD2, TEAD3 and TEAD4 is detected in

both NP and TP myometrial tissues (Table S2). The BATF family transcription factors function

as a pioneer factor that controls chromatin accessibility [70] and serve as co-regulators for PGR,

NR3C1 and AP-1 [71-73]. The binding motif for BATF, members of the AP-1 superfamily, is

among the top enriched motifs within PGR binding regions in all four myometrial samples

(Table S12) and BATF, BATF2 and BATF3 are all expressed in both stages of the examined

myometrium (Table S2). YY1, regulator of chromatin conformation and DNA looping [56]

exhibits adequate mRNA levels between NP and TP stages (Table S2). Interestingly, the YY1

binding motif is over-represented surrounding the PGR binding sites of NP myometrial samples

but becomes less enriched over background in the TP specimens (enrichment p value 1 x 10^{-55}

[NP1], 1 x 10^{-61} [NP2], 1 x 10^{-20} [TP1], > 0.01 [TP2], Table S12). These findings implicate

potential interactions of PGR with the Hippo signaling pathway, inflammatory response and

chromatin conformation regulators for transcription control *in vivo*. Furthermore, the example of

stage-associated differential enrichment of the YY1 motif in the PGR binding intervals suggest

that PGR may work with various sets of transcription factors to confer phenotype-specific

transcriptome profiles.

Next, we determine common and distinct PGR binding intervals between the NP and TP

myometrial samples. Union PGR binding peaks across samples were generated based on all PGR

binding intervals in four specimens to document the presence and absence of each PGR binding

site in individual specimens. Total 30613 union PGR binding peaks are found (Figure 5 and

Table S13). The numbers of union peaks present in each specimen are 24019, 9491, 10402 and

7928 for NP1, NP2, TP1 and TP3, respectively (Figure 5). NP1 and NP2 myometrial tissues

share 7323 union peaks while that number between TP1 and TP2 is 4839 (Figure 5). Among

these 7323 peaks in the NP myometrium, binding motifs of PGR, STAT transcription factors,

SRF, MyoD and SMAD2 are over-represented (Table 8 and Table S14). Enrichment of these

motifs are also found among the 4839 PGR occupying sites in the TP myometrium (Table 8 and

Table S14). Consistent with motif analysis results on individual specimens (Table S12), the PGR

consensus motif exhibits higher levels of enrichment in the PGR occupying intervals of the TP

myometrium in comparison with that of the NP stage (Table 8). In addition, STAT, CArG and

SMAD2 motifs also show increased enrichment in the TP myometrium while the MyoD motif

has stronger over-representation in NP specimens (Table 8 and Table S14). These observations

indicate adjustment of partnership with other transcription factors at different stages is a common

process among specimens beyond individual variations.

Further examining the stage-associated PGR occupying regions identified 2220 genomic regions

that are shared between the 7323 and 4839 PGR binding intervals while 2773 and 1047 have

distinct presence in NP and TP myometrium, respectively (Figure 5). In addition to differences in

genomic locations, the compositions of transcription factor binding motifs also show divergent

profiles among these three groups of PGR occupying regions (Table S15). Among the 95 motifs

that are compiled from the top 50 enriched motifs of each of the three groups, the enrichment p

values reveal a major difference on the extent of these motifs' presentation between the NP-

distinct and TP-distinct PGR occupying regions (Figure 6). The TP distinct regions are highly

enriched for the consensus binding motifs for progesterone and glucocorticoid receptors, AP-1

proteins and TEAD transcription factors, in contrast to the relatively lower enrichment in the NP

distinct regions. On the contrary, NP distinct sites show strong over-representations on motifs of

ETS transcription factors, nuclear transcription factor Y, CTCF, YY1, Sp1 and NRF1, which are

much less enriched in the TP distinct regions. Notably, the 2220 shared regions have a motif

enrichment profile similar to that of TP rather than NP distinct regions (Figure 6). This suggests

PGR at the NP stage may interact with a wider spectrum of transcription regulators while it

likely works with a more focused set of transcription factors in the TP myometrium. The data

collectively suggest that the dynamics of PGR binding locations between the two states of

myometrium allow various combinations of transcription factor binding motifs available for

corresponding regulators to interact with PGR at a state-specific manner.

Candidate PGR Direct Downstream Target Genes in the Myometrium

The association between the PGR genome occupancy and the myometrial transcriptome is

assessed by identifying the nearest genes to 2220 shared and 2773 and 1047 distinct PGR

binding intervals between the NP and TP myometrium. Among these 6040 PGR occupying

regions, 4355 (72%) are associated with 2203 myometrial active genes (Table 9 and Table S16).

These 2203 candidate PGR direct downstream target genes can be further sub-grouped into 1431

NP-distinct, 183 TP-distinct and 589 NP-TP shared active genes based on their association with

distinct or common PGR binding intervals (Table 9), in which Ingenuity Pathway Analysis

identified 51, 37 and 166 canonical signaling pathways, respectively, that have enrichment p

value less than 0.05 (Table S17). The top 50 associated pathways from each of the three groups

manifest divergent profiles (Figure 7). Notable example pathways that are selectively enriched in

individual groups include "estrogen receptor signaling" and "DNA Methylation and

Transcriptional Repression Signaling" for the NP distinct group, "IL-10 Signaling" and

"Inhibition of Matrix Metalloproteases" for the TP distinct group, and "Actin Cytoskeleton

Signaling" and "p53 Signaling" for the NP-TP shared group (Figure 7 and Table S17). In

contrast, no canonical pathway has the enrichment *p* value less than 0.05 across all three groups.

These findings suggest that each group of PGR binding regions may contribute to regulation of a

cohort of genes that cater to specific functions for physiological adaption on pregnancy.

PGR occupancy on genomic regions in association with genes of interest are further examined in

additional myometrial specimens, two each from NP and TP stages (Table 10). The glycolytic

genes *ENO1* and *LDHA* display reduced binding events in the TP myometrium compared with

that in NP. Given that both genes exhibit higher expression levels in the TP samples (Figure 3),

these findings together indicate a negative correlation between PGR occupancy and mRNA

levels. PLCL1 functions to attenuate prostaglandin-dependent calcium signaling (US Patent

20160161487A1). *PLCL1* is expressed in human myometrium (Figure 3 and Table S2) [40] and

is a PGR downstream target [74]. PGR occupancy in a region 93kb upstream of the *PLCL1* gene

can be detected in both cohorts of myometrial specimens (Table 10 and Table S13), which may

serve as a functional regulatory element for the myometrial *PLCL1* gene. While only a few

genomic regions were tested, the reproducible detection of PGR occupancy in different cohorts

of myometrial specimens validates the genome-wide ChIP-seq results. Moreover, these findings

also identified candidate cis-acting elements through which PGR may regulate expression of

glycolytic genes *ENO1* and *LDHA* as well as the contractility-associated gene *PLCL1*.

Discussion

<u>Novelty of the study</u>

The present study documents the molecular landscape of the NP and TP myometrium as well as

the changes between these two stages. While previous genome-wide studies identify candidate

mechanisms for the switch from nonlabor to labor states [40, 75, 76], results presented here

report the way the myometrium reorganizes and adapts from nonpregnant to gravid preceding the

switch for parturition. This is exemplified by the uniform increase of mRNA of parturition

associated genes *OXTR, GJA1, ZEB1* and *PLCL1* during myometrial remodeling followed by the

divergent change of expression patterns (Figure 1). Our transcriptome data broadens the

spectrum of the knowledge on myometrial gene expression dynamics and set the foundation for

future meta-analysis to understand the genetic program for myometrial remodeling during the

pregnancy cycle. The molecular pathways revealed here can also serve as a reference for

studying genetic and environmental impacts that derail normal pregnancy leading to disorders

such as preterm birth and dystocia.

The assessible genome maps offers a blueprint to study genetic and epigenetic regulation of the

myometrial transcriptome. The identified open chromatin regions likely house cis-acting

elements that participate in regulation of the myometrial transcriptome and they could be subject

to epigenetic control. For example, binding motifs of the estrogen receptor and the cell cycle

regulator E2F1 are over-represented in the open chromatin regions found only in the NP

myometrium (Table 4), which reflects the higher expression levels of genes for transcription and

gene control (Table 2) and implicates the preparation of smooth muscle proliferation for the early

gestation myometrial expansion under the control of estrogen receptor. Another example is the

parturition associated gene MEF2A [51]. Enrichment of the MEF2A binding motif in the class

III open chromatin regions (Table 4), suggest that accessibility of MEF2A to its target sites could

be another layer of regulation of its action in addition to changes in expression levels [51]. Our

genome-wide integrative analysis of genome accessibility and transcriptome have identified

potential regulatory elements and associated molecular pathways that may be affected the

chromatin accessibility (Table S8 and table S9). These findings pave the road for future in depth

study of the epigenetic impact on myometrial transcriptome changes.

Given that progesterone is the major steroid hormone for pregnancy and has a clinical indication

on preventing premature labor, the focused genome-wide myometrial PGR occupancy study

provides a map to identify PGR-associated cis-acting elements and their candidate downstream

target genes for further investigation on the mechanism of action of PGR. Notably, the impact of

losing uterine p53 on gestation length has been reported in the mouse model [49]. In our study,

the "p53 Signaling" is among the top enriched pathways in the putative PGR direct downstream

targets (Table S17). This finding suggests a potential interaction between PGR and p53 signaling

in the myometrium. Meanwhile, the over-represented transcription factor binding motifs

surrounding the PGR occupying sites suggest candidate PGR interacting partners for myometrial

gene regulation. For instance, the AP-1 proteins are known to partner with PGR for gene

regulation as exemplified by a few parturition maker genes [27]. We found that binding motifs of

many AP-1 subunits are among the top enriched motifs in the myometrial PGR occupying

regions (Table S14 and Figure 6), suggesting a potential genome-wide partnership between PGR

and AP-1. Our results not only provide human relevance to the known signaling pathways at the

in vivo level, but also allow identification of novel targets, either working with or under control

of PGR, for future research.

<u>An Indication of Progesterone Receptor on Myometrial Metabolism and Remodeling</u>

The elevated expression of genes for the glycolytic pathway and lactate production toward term

pregnancy have two physiological implications. First is the lactate production and the

myometrial contractility. Myometrial lactic acidosis is observed in women who have

dysfunctional labor [77]. It has been shown that acidic pH abrogates myometrial contraction

[78]. Lactate treatment can reduce spontaneous contraction [79] and suppresses uterine

inflammation and preterm birth [80]. Lactate is converted from the glycolysis product pyruvate

in the muscle system by the lactate dehydrogenase. Decreased muscle *Ldha* expression, which

encodes a subunit of the lactate dehydrogenase, leads to a reduction of pyruvate-to-lactate

conversion [81]. Our transcriptomic data indicates that the pathway for glycolysis and lactate

production is set for an increase of processing capacity toward term pregnancy (Figure 3 and

Table S2). Moreover, higher myometrial utilization of glucose at term pregnancy is also

supported by the change of expression pattern of glucose responsive genes (Table S4 and Table

S5). Our findings suggest that, during pregnancy, the myometrial transcriptome adapts to ramp

up the lactate production capacity, which contributes to maintaining the myometrial quiescence.

The second note is on the energy metabolism and molecular biosynthesis. Our transcriptomic

data shows that, in the TP myometrium, an increase of HIF1A molecular activity likely occurs

based on the expression pattern of HIF1A downstream targets (Table S4 and Table S5). The rise

of HIF1A activity suggests a hypoxic myometrium at term. Under the anaerobic condition,

increased glycolysis can generate ATP to compensate the need of energy for maintaining cellular

functions. On the other hand, at normoxia, the increased capacity for higher flux of glycolysis

can supply the intermediates for amino acid synthesis to generate building blocks for myometrial

expansion over the course of pregnancy. The increased glycolytic gene expression at pregnancy

would fit these hypotheses for the change of myometrial functions (Figure 3). Lastly, the binding

of PGR in the genomic loci of ENO1 and LDHA links PGR to the regulation of myometrial

metabolism (Table 10), which awaits further investigation.

Limitation and future direction

The resolution of molecular profiling data and integration of multiomics information are the two

major limitations exist in the present study. The genome-wide data here is a summary

observation of many cells that reside in pieces of myometrial tissues. While the smooth muscle

cells make up the majority of the mass, readings from other cell type such as blood and vascular

cells are also incorporated as part of the summary results, which may reduce the signal-to-noise

ratio of the information on the cell type of interest. Despite potential contribution of other cell

type transcripts, the myometrial transcriptome data exhibits a strong association with known

smooth muscle and myometrial programs (Table 2 and Table 3), the ATACseq data establishes

close links between putative cis-acting elements and signaling pathways for muscle functions

(Table 6), and the PGR cistrome data detects enrichment of binding motifs for smooth muscle

master regulators SRF and MyoD (Table 8). These examples demonstrate that the current data

can provide significant information to support existing knowledge and supply novel findings.

The emerging molecular profiling assays at the single cell level would provide a greater

resolution than current results obtained with more established technology, leading to further

dissection of each cell's role and the underlying molecular events in a given myometrial state.

Another limitation on the data resolution is that the antibody used for generating the current PGR

ChIPseq results detects both major PGR isoforms in the myometrium, the PGR-A and PGR-B.

These two PGR isoforms differ in the AF-3 transactivation domain that only exists in the PGR-

B. Both isoforms are functionally capable of modulating transcription of common and distinct

sets of downstream genes depending on the context [25]. Therefore, the stoichiometric ratio

between the two isoforms in different stages of myometrium needs to be factored into

intepretation of the effect of PGR on expression of associated genes. For studies on human

tissues, there is an urgent need to develop the isoform-specific antibodies for PGR, perhaps

through targeting the protein domains with isoform-specific conformations.

With respect to the limitation on integration of multiomics information, in this manuscript the

PGR occupancy and myometrial transcriptome association study is based on a stringent criterion

that only link one nearest gene to each individual PGR occupying site (Table 9). The rationale to

use such as stringent criterion is based on the observation that majority of the PGR occupying

sites are located near gene bodies (Table 7). PGR occupied cis-acting elements likely impose a

greater influence on the myometrial transcriptome according to emerging transcription control

models that each gene is subject to regulation by multiple enhancers and vice versa in a

topological associated domain formed via chromatin conformation [82, 83]. Future integration of

chromatin conformation data, generated from the high throughput chromatin conformation assay,

would better assign PGR binding cis-acting elements with associated genes, especially on the

long-distance interactions, to provide correlation information closer to the true molecular events.

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Author Contribution

561 SPW and FJD designed and wrote the manuscript. MLA obtained permission from the

562 Institutional Review Board to perform all work, collected the patient consents and myometrial

563 specimens and wrote the corresponding section of the Methods section. SPW, OME and XL

564 performed experiments and associated data analysis. TW, LZ and SPW conducted bioinformatic

565 analyses. TW and LZ wrote the bioinformatic part of the Methods section.

Figure Legend

568 **Figure 1. mRNA levels of parturition related genes in nonpregnant and term pregnant**

569 **myometrium.** Relative mRNA levels by qRT-PCR from myometrial tissues of 6 (NP, dots) and

570 9 (TP, triangles) human subjects. The Y-axis denotes relative mRNA levels. *, $p < 0.05$ by two-

571 tailed t-test. Orange bars denote the mean of each group.

Figure 2. Differences between NP and TP myometrial tissues at the transcriptomic level. (A) Principle Component Analysis of NP (blue) and TP (red) Transcriptome. (B) Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between groups. Differentially expressed genes are defined as absolute fold change ≥ 1.4, adjusted p-value < 0.05 and having FPKM ≥ 1 in at least one of the samples.

Figure 3. Expression of glycolytic genes. The diagram to the left depicts the glycolysis pathway. (A) RNAseq results. Yellow and blue depict high and low levels of gene expression, respectively. (B-H) Relative mRNA levels of tissues from the same cohort of human subjects as depicted in figure 1. The Y-axis denotes relative mRNA levels. *, $p < 0.05$ by two-tailed t-test. Orange bars denote the mean of each group. N=6 for NP and 9 for TP.

Figure 4. Open chromatin region in the myometrium. Numbers of open chromatin regions (OCRs) identified in 3 NP and 3 TP specimens by ATAC-seq. OCRs within each group were pooled together. Numbers of shared and unique OCRs between NP and TP samples are also noted.

Figure 5. Number of PGR occupying regions in the genome of the human myometrium. PGR ChIP-seq was performed in two separate specimens at either NP or TP stages. The flower Venn diagram illustrates the numbers of overlapping and distinct PGR occupying sites among the four specimens.

Figure 6. Top enriched transcription factor binding motifs in 2773 NP distinct (NPD), 1047 TP distinct (TPD) and 2220 NP-TP shared (S) PGR occupying sites. Top 50 motifs from each group are compiled and displayed with log p values. Color codes are depicted with the red-white-blue pattern with red showing the strongest enrichment and blue being the least enriched.

Figure 7. Top enriched canonical pathways in 1431 NP-distinct (NPD), 183 TP-distinct (TPD) and 589 NP-TP shared (S), PGR-linked active genes. Top 50 enriched pathways from the Ingenuity Pathway Analysis from each group are compiled and displayed with log p values. Color codes are depicted with the red-white-blue pattern with red showing the strongest enrichment and blue being the least enriched.

Figure S1. Bag plot depicting change of DNA accessibility (ΔFA) and alteration in the depth of protein-binding footprints (ΔFPD) from the NP to the TP stages. Motifs with statistical significance are labeled in red squares.

Table Legend

Table 1. Transcriptome of Human myometrium in Non-pregnant (NP) and Term-pregnant (TP) human subjects. Genes with FPKM ≥ 1 in at least one of the specimens within each group are defined as expressed.

Table 2. Enriched Gene Ontology terms in differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between NP and TP myometrium.

Table 3. Changes of molecular activities from NP to TP predicted by Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) based on human RNAseq and mouse microarray (GSE17021, virgin vs. 18.5 dpc myometrium) results.

Table 4. Enriched motifs in each class of open chromatin regions.

Table 5. Association between DEGs and dynamic OCRs. Class I and III open chromatin regions are defined as DEG-associated if they are located within 25kb of the transcription start site of DEGs. Positive correlation is defined if 1. increased gene expression and genome accessibility at associated open chromatin regions or 2. decreased gene expression and genome accessibility at associated open chromatin regions. Negative correlation is defined if 1. decreased gene expression and increased genome accessibility at associated open chromatin regions or 2. increased gene expression and decreased genome accessibility at associated open chromatin regions. All comparisons were made by TP over NP.

Table 6. Selected Pathways Associated with Changes of the Open Chromatin Status. IPA Canonical Pathways Analysis.

Table 7. Genome-wide PGR occupying sites relative to gene bodies. PGR binding intervals were annotated by the Cis-regulatory Element Annotation System. The promoter is defined as a region within 3 kb upstream of the transcription start site. The downstream of gene body refers to an interval within 3 kb downstream of the transcription termination site.

Table 8. Selected Enriched motifs in common PGR-binding intervals at each stage.

Table 9. The association between PGR occupancy and myometrial active genes. A list of nearest genes to the 2220, 7323 and 4839 shared and distinct PGR occupying intervals was identified and further filtered with the criteria of having the maximum FPKM value greater or equal than 1 among the 6 myometrial RNAseq samples to catalog the PGR-associated active genes.

Table 10. PGR occupancy at selected genomic loci in a second cohort of myometrial specimens. ChIP-qPCR was performed in a separate set of NP (n=2) and TP (n=2) myometrial tissues for PGR occupancy test. Technical triplicates for each qPCR reaction was performed and the mean and the standard deviation of triplicates was used for calculation of PGR binding events. Untr12 located in a gene desert serves as a negative control.

Table S1. List of human myometrial specimens.

Table S2. Active Genes in Human Myometrium

Table S3. A complete list of Gene Ontology analysis of Table 2.

Table S4. Predicted molecular activities by Ingenuity Pathway Analysis Differentially Expressed Genes between NP and TP human myometrium.

Table S5. Predicted molecular activities by Ingenuity Pathway Analysis on Differentially Expressed Genes between 18.5dpc and virgin mouse myometrium (GSE17021).

Table S6. Genome coordinates of open chromatin regions in human myometrial specimens. "1" and "0" represent presence and absence, respectively, in the NP and TP myometrium. Classes are defined in Figure 4.

Table S7. Motif enrichment analysis by HOMER known motif in the three classes of open chromatin regions that are defined in Figure 4.

Table S8. Motif enrichment analysis on the DEG-associated dynamic OCRs

Table S9. Canonical Pathways that are linked to dynamic OCRs associated DEGs.

Table S10. Transcription footprinting assessment in the NP and TP myometrial specimens by BaGFoot.

Table S11. Genome coordinates (Hg19) of PGR occupying intervals in myometrial tissues of four human subjects.

Table S12. Enriched motifs in each individual myometrial specimen. Data is from the output
files of the HOMER unkown motif search algorithm.

Table S13. Union peak information of PGR binding intervals across all four myometrial
specimens. In the "UnionPeak-vs-Sample" section, 1 and 0 denote presence and absence of the
PGR binding peak in each individual specimen.

Table S14. Enrichment analysis on 428 transcription factor binding motifs in common PGR
occupying sites within each stage of myometrial specimens.

Table S15. Enrichment analysis on 428 known transcription factor binding motifs in shared and
distinct PGR occupying regions between NP and TP groups.

Table S16. Association between PGR occupancy and myometrial active genes

Table S17. Canonical pathways in association with PGR occupancy and myometrial active
genes. 1431, 589 and 183 active genes that are linked to NP-distinct, NP-TP shared and TP-
distinct PGR occupying sites, as depicted in Table 9, were subject to Ingenuity Pathway
Analysis.

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Figure 1

A *OXTR*

B *GJA1*

C *ZEB1*

D *PLCL1*

Figure 2

A PCA (77.6%)

B NP   TP

1043 Genes

1847 Genes

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Number of PGR occupying regions in the human myometrium

Figure 6

NPD	S	TPD	
-1.68	-369.20	-565.10	GRE(NR),IR3/A549-GR-ChIP-Seq(GSE32465)
-2.37	-330.90	-683.60	GRE(NR),IR3/RAW264.7-GRE-ChIP-Seq(Unpublished)/Homer
-3.28	-322.60	-554.70	PGR(NR)/EndoStromal-PGR-ChIP-Seq(GSE69539)
-0.41	-306.80	-569.60	ARE(NR)/LNCAP-AR-ChIP-Seq(GSE27824)
-45.93	-208.60	-180.30	Fra1(bZIP)/BT549-Fra1-ChIP-Seq(GSE46166)
-51.28	-203.90	-179.50	Fra2(bZIP)/Striatum-Fra2-ChIP-Seq(GSE43429)
-52.73	-195.80	-152.40	Fosl2(bZIP)/3T3L1-Fosl2-ChIP-Seq(GSE56872)
-36.02	-193.30	-175.90	JunB(bZIP)/DendriticCells-Junb-ChIP-Seq(GSE36099)
-42.22	-189.60	-172.40	Atf3(bZIP)/GBM-ATF3-ChIP-Seq(GSE33912)
-55.37	-188.90	-126.50	Jun-AP1(bZIP)/K562-cJun-ChIP-Seq(GSE31477)
-36.70	-178.20	-183.30	BATF(bZIP)/Th17-BATF-ChIP-Seq(GSE39756)
-28.22	-148.60	-161.40	AP-1(bZIP)/ThioMac-PU.1-ChIP-Seq(GSE21512)
-23.93	-107.50	-72.45	Bach2(bZIP)/OCILy7-Bach2-ChIP-Seq(GSE44420)
-3.41	-92.44	-17.81	WT1(Zf)/Kidney-WT1-ChIP-Seq(GSE90016)
-70.83	-64.44	-10.47	CRE(bZIP)/Promoter/Homer
-24.71	-63.78	-59.73	TEAD1(TEAD)/HepG2-TEAD1-ChIP-Seq(Encode)
-9.33	-61.79	-71.81	HOXB13(Homeobox)/ProstateTumor-HOXB13-ChIP-Seq(GSE56288)
-20.65	-60.64	-55.18	TEAD4(TEA)/Tropoblast-Tead4-ChIP-Seq(GSE37350)
-37.39	-54.81	-10.32	CArG(MADS)/PUER-Srf-ChIP-Seq(Sullivan_et_al.)
-7.90	-54.24	-17.16	Hoxc9(Homeobox)/Ainv15-Hoxc9-ChIP-Seq(GSE21812)
-12.91	-53.20	-56.94	TEAD(TEA)/Fibroblast-PU.1-ChIP-Seq(Unpublished)/Homer
-2.40	-52.92	-2.35	Zfp281(Zf)/ES-Zfp281-ChIP-Seq(GSE81042)
-10.35	-51.91	-35.37	TEAD2(TEA)/Py2T-Tead2-ChIP-Seq(GSE55709)
-14.79	-51.44	-30.48	NF-E2(bZIP)/K562-NFE2-ChIP-Seq(GSE31477)
-18.63	-47.97	-66.86	TEAD3(TEA)/HepG2-TEAD3-ChIP-Seq(Encode)
-8.28	-47.50	-37.69	Bach1(bZIP)/K562-Bach1-ChIP-Seq(GSE31477)
-11.33	-43.31	-20.12	Nrf2(bZIP)/Lymphoblast-Nrf2-ChIP-Seq(GSE37589)
-18.60	-42.21	-53.84	Stat3(Stat)/mES-Stat3-ChIP-Seq(GSE11431)
-63.98	-41.58	-30.04	JunD(bZIP)/K562-JunD-ChIP-Seq/Homer
-4.68	-41.21	-60.15	CDX4(Homeobox)/ZebrafishEmbryos-Cdx4.Myc-ChIP-Seq(GSE48254)
-9.32	-40.30	-14.30	Unknown(Homeobox)/Limb-p300-ChIP-Seq/Homer
-0.01	-40.29	-255.50	PR(NR)/T47D-PR-ChIP-Seq(GSE31130)
-4.14	-39.81	-5.71	Egr2(Zf)/Thymocytes-Egr2-ChIP-Seq(GSE34254)
-2.90	-39.22	-3.69	Egr1(Zf)/K562-Egr1-ChIP-Seq(GSE32465)
-11.28	-38.98	-47.99	Stat3+il21(Stat)/CD4-Stat3-ChIP-Seq(GSE19198)
-5.09	-38.54	-23.31	NF1(CTF)/LNCAP-NF1-ChIP-Seq(Unpublished)/Homer
-6.67	-34.33	-26.42	Hoxa11(Homeobox)/ChickenMSG-Hoxa11.Flag-ChIP-Seq(GSE86088)
-4.49	-34.09	-17.11	Hand2(bHLH)/Mesoderm-Hand2-ChIP-Seq(GSE61475)
-26.74	-33.88	-4.98	E-box(bHLH)/Promoter/Homer
-23.03	-32.46	-33.13	NFIL3(bZIP)/HepG2-NFIL3-ChIP-Seq(Encode)
-9.37	-31.14	-25.01	Hoxd11(Homeobox)/ChickenMSG-Hoxd11.Flag-ChIP-Seq(GSE86088)
-5.12	-30.13	-39.22	NFAT(RHD)/Jurkat-NFATC1-ChIP-Seq(Jolma_et_al.)
-40.81	-29.93	-7.81	RFX(HTH)/K562-RFX3-ChIP-Seq(SRA012198)
-83.39	-29.66	-0.75	NRF1(NRF)/MCF7-NRF1-ChIP-Seq(Unpublished)/Homer
-4.26	-29.28	-24.84	Hoxd10(Homeobox)/ChickenMSG-Hoxd10.Flag-ChIP-Seq(GSE86088)
-6.62	-28.95	-23.55	NFE2L2(bZIP)/HepG2-NFE2L2-ChIP-Seq(Encode)
-11.74	-28.63	-40.38	STAT4(Stat)/CD4-Stat4-ChIP-Seq(GSE22104)
-4.40	-28.07	-47.69	Hoxd13(Homeobox)/ChickenMSG-Hoxd13.Flag-ChIP-Seq(GSE86088)

NPD	S	TPD	
-10.09	-27.57	-15.14	FOXP1(Forkhead)/H9-FOXP1-ChIP-Seq(GSE31006)
-35.62	-27.16	-18.72	Atf2(bZIP)/3T3L1-Atf2-ChIP-Seq(GSE56872)
-37.39	-26.55	-9.30	Rfx1(HTH)/NPC-H3K4me1-ChIP-Seq(GSE16256)
-7.85	-26.54	-22.80	Foxo3(Forkhead)/U2OS-Foxo3-ChIP-Seq(E-MTAB-2701)
-0.06	-25.86	-50.67	Cdx2(Homeobox)/mES-Cdx2-ChIP-Seq(GSE14586)
-23.36	-25.83	-0.10	TFE3(bHLH)/MEF-TFE3-ChIP-Seq(GSE75757)
-1.96	-25.75	-21.33	Hoxa13(Homeobox)/ChickenMSG-Hoxa13.Flag-ChIP-Seq(GSE86088)
-9.13	-25.33	-24.72	STAT1(Stat)/HelaS3-STAT1-ChIP-Seq(GSE12782)
-42.60	-24.58	-0.38	E2F4(E2F)/K562-E2F4-ChIP-Seq(GSE31477)
-42.64	-22.73	-9.46	Rfx2(HTH)/LoVo-RFX2-ChIP-Seq(GSE49402)
-3.13	-21.27	-34.67	Bcl6(Zf)/Liver-Bcl6-ChIP-Seq(GSE31578)
-92.17	-19.75	0.00	YY1(Zf)/Promoter/Homer
-82.96	-19.69	-0.18	Sp1(Zf)/Promoter/Homer
-9.14	-18.52	-22.28	STAT5(Stat)/mCD4+-Stat5-ChIP-Seq(GSE12346)
-34.17	-18.42	-15.46	c-Jun-CRE(bZIP)/K562-cJun-ChIP-Seq(GSE31477)
-4.70	-18.32	-29.64	NFAT:AP1(RHD,bZIP)/Jurkat-NFATC1-ChIP-Seq(Jolma_et_al.)
-80.67	-17.49	-1.03	NRF(NRF)/Promoter/Homer
-153.30	-17.01	-1.60	Elk4(ETS)/Hela-Elk4-ChIP-Seq(GSE31477)
-137.80	-16.67	-0.23	Ronin(THAP)/ES-Thap11-ChIP-Seq(GSE51522)
-121.40	-16.43	-1.14	GFY-Staf(?,Zf)/Promoter/Homer
-169.80	-14.99	-1.17	Elk1(ETS)/Hela-Elk1-ChIP-Seq(GSE31477)
-47.46	-12.21	-1.54	CTCF(Zf)/CD4+-CTCF-ChIP-Seq(Barski_et_al.)
-133.60	-11.89	-0.18	ELF1(ETS)/Jurkat-ELF1-ChIP-Seq(SRA014231)
-166.40	-11.61	-0.15	ETS(ETS)/Promoter/Homer
-24.92	-11.51	-11.21	BMYB(HTH)/Hela-BMYB-ChIP-Seq(GSE27030)
-98.04	-9.30	-1.13	GFY(?)/Promoter/Homer
-4.55	-9.11	-24.08	NF1-halfsite(CTF)/LNCaP-NF1-ChIP-Seq(Unpublished)/Homer
-1.28	-8.51	-35.46	CEBP:AP1(bZIP)/ThioMac-CEBPb-ChIP-Seq(GSE21512)
-102.60	-8.43	-2.25	GABPA(ETS)/Jurkat-GABPa-ChIP-Seq(GSE17954)
-110.70	-7.23	-0.65	Fli1(ETS)/CD8-FLI-ChIP-Seq(GSE20898)
-76.30	-6.71	-4.72	ETS1(ETS)/Jurkat-ETS1-ChIP-Seq(GSE17954)
-1.63	-6.46	-19.27	HLF(bZIP)/HSC-HLF.Flag-ChIP-Seq(GSE69817)
-59.09	-5.41	-2.89	Etv2(ETS)/ES-ER71-ChIP-Seq(GSE59402)
-25.60	-4.54	-6.96	SPDEF(ETS)/VCaP-SPDEF-ChIP-Seq(SRA014231)
-62.80	-4.26	-0.75	EWS:FLI1-fusion(ETS)/SK_N_MC-EWS:FLI1-ChIP-Seq(SRA014231)
-25.89	-4.20	-7.22	MYB(HTH)/ERMYB-Myb-ChIPSeq(GSE22095)
-78.07	-3.77	-0.31	Elf4(ETS)/BMDM-Elf4-ChIP-Seq(GSE88699)
-75.01	-3.71	-3.26	ETV1(ETS)/GIST48-ETV1-ChIP-Seq(GSE22441)
-89.53	-3.32	-1.52	ETV4(ETS)/HepG2-ETV4-ChIP-Seq(ENCODE)
-44.95	-3.18	-5.71	ERG(ETS)/VCaP-ERG-ChIP-Seq(GSE14097)
-51.95	-3.13	-0.02	NFY(CCAAT)/Promoter/Homer
0.00	-2.31	-66.38	AR-halfsite(NR)/LNCaP-AR-ChIP-Seq(GSE27824)
0.00	-2.23	-28.34	CEBP(bZIP)/ThioMac-CEBPb-ChIP-Seq(GSE21512)
-41.44	-2.19	-0.64	EHF(ETS)/LoVo-EHF-ChIP-Seq(GSE49402)
-44.73	-1.24	-1.00	ELF5(ETS)/T47D-ELF5-ChIP-Seq(GSE30407)
-29.26	-0.63	-0.01	KLF3(Zf)/MEF-Klf3-ChIP-Seq(GSE44748)
-28.30	-0.51	-0.59	Sp5(Zf)/mES-Sp5.Flag-ChIP-Seq(GSE72989)

Figure 7

NPD	S	TPD	Canonical_Pathway
0.00	-5.42	0.00	Cell Cycle: G2/M DNA Damage Checkpoint Regulation
-0.39	-5.15	0.00	JAK/Stat Signaling
-0.89	-5.10	0.00	PI3K/AKT Signaling
0.00	-5.09	0.00	p53 Signaling
-1.81	-4.80	0.00	Insulin Receptor Signaling
0.00	-4.35	-0.34	ERK/MAPK Signaling
0.00	-4.19	-0.38	Acute Phase Response Signaling
-7.12	-4.04	0.00	Protein Ubiquitination Pathway
0.00	-3.97	0.00	CDK5 Signaling
-0.54	-3.93	0.00	14-3-3-mediated Signaling
0.00	-3.69	0.00	IL-9 Signaling
-0.80	-3.64	0.00	Molecular Mechanisms of Cancer
-3.40	-3.63	0.00	Regulation of eIF4 and p70S6K Signaling
0.00	-3.63	0.00	Breast Cancer Regulation by Stathmin1
0.00	-3.56	-1.15	GP6 Signaling Pathway
-0.29	-3.47	0.00	B Cell Receptor Signaling
0.00	-3.47	-1.52	HER-2 Signaling in Breast Cancer
-0.90	-3.42	0.00	IGF-1 Signaling
-1.84	-3.41	0.00	mTOR Signaling
-1.02	-3.35	-0.35	NRF2-mediated Oxidative Stress Response
0.00	-3.33	0.00	ILK Signaling
-1.06	-3.32	-0.61	Integrin Signaling
-0.32	-3.29	0.00	Actin Nucleation by ARP-WASP Complex
0.00	-3.25	0.00	Germ Cell-Sertoli Cell Junction Signaling
0.00	-3.22	0.00	Actin Cytoskeleton Signaling
-0.32	-3.21	-0.51	Signaling by Rho Family GTPases
-0.42	-3.15	-0.28	Regulation of Actin-based Motility by Rho
-7.59	-3.12	0.00	EIF2 Signaling
-1.07	-3.05	0.00	ATM Signaling
0.00	-3.05	0.00	Role of NFAT in Regulation of the Immune Response
0.00	-3.02	0.00	IL-7 Signaling Pathway
-0.76	-3.00	-0.51	Hereditary Breast Cancer Signaling
0.00	-2.98	-0.33	Chemokine Signaling
0.00	-2.96	0.00	Sertoli Cell-Sertoli Cell Junction Signaling
0.00	-2.88	-0.59	RhoA Signaling
-0.78	-2.81	-0.31	HIPPO signaling
-0.56	-2.80	0.00	PTEN Signaling
-0.52	-2.78	-0.30	IL-4 Signaling
0.00	-2.78	0.00	T Cell Receptor Signaling
0.00	-2.77	0.00	Protein Kinase A Signaling
-0.28	-2.72	-0.24	Virus Entry via Endocytic Pathways
0.00	-2.72	-0.33	Adrenomedullin signaling pathway
0.00	-2.72	0.00	Melanoma Signaling
0.00	-2.68	0.00	Ceramide Signaling
-0.32	-2.60	0.00	IL-15 Signaling
0.00	-2.60	0.00	RhoGDI Signaling
0.00	-2.55	0.00	Phospholipase C Signaling
-2.66	-2.53	-0.35	Hypoxia Signaling in the Cardiovascular System
-0.77	-2.53	-1.28	Glucocorticoid Receptor Signaling
0.00	-2.51	0.00	Docosahexaenoic Acid (DHA) Signaling
-1.68	-2.15	0.00	PDGF Signaling
-0.26	-2.12	-1.24	Paxillin Signaling
-1.12	-1.95	-1.40	ErbB Signaling
0.00	-1.95	-1.69	Caveolar-mediated Endocytosis Signaling
0.00	-1.92	-1.50	Coagulation System
-1.43	-1.69	0.00	Autophagy
-2.60	-1.66	-0.88	Aldosterone Signaling in Epithelial Cells
0.00	-1.61	-1.23	Glioma Signaling
0.00	-1.49	-3.03	Role of Macrophages, Fibroblasts and Endothelial Cells in Rheumatoid Arthritis
-2.12	-1.47	0.00	Superpathway of Inositol Phosphate Compounds
-3.37	-1.40	0.00	Sirtuin Signaling Pathway
-1.42	-1.39	0.00	Sonic Hedgehog Signaling
-0.78	-1.39	-1.36	UVA-Induced MAPK Signaling
-0.26	-1.30	-1.61	Agrin Interactions at Neuromuscular Junction
-1.09	-1.10	-1.31	Wnt/β-catenin Signaling
0.00	-1.07	-1.44	Th17 Activation Pathway

NPD	S	TPD	Canonical_Pathway
0.00	-1.03	-2.49	NF-κB Signaling
-1.44	-0.98	0.00	3-phosphoinositide Degradation
0.00	-0.97	-3.91	Hepatic Fibrosis / Hepatic Stellate Cell Activation
-1.42	-0.96	0.00	D-myo-inositol-5-phosphate Metabolism
-1.46	-0.91	0.00	Lysine Degradation II
-0.30	-0.91	-1.67	Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer Signaling
-1.18	-0.89	-1.71	RAR Activation
-0.32	-0.87	-1.78	IL-17A Signaling in Gastric Cells
0.00	-0.84	-3.04	UDP-N-acetyl-D-glucosamine Biosynthesis II
-1.64	-0.82	0.00	Mitochondrial Dysfunction
0.00	-0.73	-1.84	p38 MAPK Signaling
0.00	-0.65	-1.74	Phagosome Formation
-2.25	-0.64	0.00	Nucleotide Excision Repair Pathway
-1.55	-0.60	0.00	Purine Nucleotides De Novo Biosynthesis II
0.00	-0.58	-2.65	IL-10 Signaling
0.00	-0.58	-1.42	Inhibition of Matrix Metalloproteases
-1.44	-0.57	0.00	Glycogen Degradation II
-1.55	-0.57	-0.53	Huntington's Disease Signaling
-1.90	-0.56	-0.53	Estrogen Receptor Signaling
-0.30	-0.53	-1.36	MIF Regulation of Innate Immunity
0.00	-0.47	-2.15	Extrinsic Prothrombin Activation Pathway
-4.13	-0.31	-0.25	NER Pathway
-2.06	-0.27	0.00	Oxidative Phosphorylation
-2.48	-0.25	0.00	Fatty Acid β-oxidation I
-0.28	-0.23	-1.64	Toll-like Receptor Signaling
-2.33	-0.23	-0.62	DNA Methylation and Transcriptional Repression Signaling
0.00	-0.23	-1.53	MIF-mediated Glucocorticoid Regulation
-3.02	0.00	0.00	Arginine Degradation I (Arginase Pathway)
-3.01	0.00	0.00	Assembly of RNA Polymerase II Complex
-2.76	0.00	0.00	Telomere Extension by Telomerase
-2.37	0.00	-0.87	Valine Degradation I
-2.37	0.00	0.00	1D-myo-inositol Hexakisphosphate Biosynthesis II (Mammalian)
-2.15	0.00	0.00	Assembly of RNA Polymerase III Complex
-2.14	0.00	0.00	Aspartate Degradation II
-1.94	0.00	0.00	5-aminoimidazole Ribonucleotide Biosynthesis I
-1.94	0.00	0.00	D-glucuronate Degradation I
-1.81	0.00	0.00	TCA Cycle II (Eukaryotic)
-1.80	0.00	0.00	Heme Biosynthesis II
-1.71	0.00	0.00	D-myo-inositol (1,4,5)-trisphosphate Degradation
-1.66	0.00	0.00	Branched-chain α-keto acid Dehydrogenase Complex
-1.66	0.00	0.00	Heme Biosynthesis from Uroporphyrinogen-III I
-1.66	0.00	0.00	Glutathione Redox Reactions II
-1.66	0.00	0.00	Molybdenum Cofactor Biosynthesis
-1.66	0.00	0.00	Fatty Acid β-oxidation III (Unsaturated, Odd Number)
-1.63	0.00	0.00	D-myo-inositol (1,3,4)-trisphosphate Biosynthesis
-1.61	0.00	0.00	Role of Wnt/GSK-3β Signaling in the Pathogenesis of Influenza
-1.46	0.00	0.00	2-ketoglutarate Dehydrogenase Complex
-1.46	0.00	0.00	Tetrahydrofolate Salvage from 5,10-methenyltetrahydrofolate
-1.46	0.00	0.00	Lysine Degradation V
-1.46	0.00	0.00	2-oxobutanoate Degradation I
-1.44	0.00	0.00	Cleavage and Polyadenylation of Pre-mRNA
-1.36	0.00	0.00	Activation of IRF by Cytosolic Pattern Recognition Receptors
-0.97	0.00	-2.66	Leucine Degradation I
-0.75	0.00	-1.63	Proline Degradation
0.00	0.00	-1.97	Inflammasome pathway
0.00	0.00	-1.90	Phospholipases
0.00	0.00	-1.82	Pyridoxal 5'-phosphate Salvage Pathway
0.00	0.00	-1.80	Asparagine Degradation I
0.00	0.00	-1.80	LXR/RXR Activation
0.00	0.00	-1.66	TREM1 Signaling
0.00	0.00	-1.50	Heme Degradation
0.00	0.00	-1.50	Sperm Motility
0.00	0.00	-1.46	Altered T Cell and B Cell Signaling in Rheumatoid Arthritis
0.00	0.00	-1.39	Communication between Innate and Adaptive Cells
0.00	0.00	-1.37	Salvage Pathways of Pyrimidine Ribonucleotides
0.00	0.00	-1.33	Ceramide Biosynthesis

Table 1

Group	NP	TP
Sample size	3	3
Number of Gene Expressed	14899	15260
Expressed in Both Groups	95.7 %	93.4 %

Table 2

Gene Ontology Term	p
Enriched at the NP stage	
Transcription	3.18×10^{-15}
RNA-binding	7.60×10^{-3}
Histone deacetylase activity	3.84×10^{-3}
Enriched at the TP stage	
Innate immunity	1.62×10^{-20}
Protease	7.32×10^{-7}
Carbohydrate transport and metabolism	1.62×10^{-3}

Table 3

Change of Molecular activities	Human Activation z-score	Human Enrichment p value	Mouse Activation z-score	Mouse Enrichment p value
TGFβ	2.40	1.05×10^{-15}	4.38	2.13×10^{-13}
PDGF-BB	2.82	1.67×10^{-18}	3.49	9.03×10^{-17}
PI3K	5.04	2.38×10^{-14}	2.57	4.16×10^{-10}
TNF	8.31	2.92×10^{-73}	2.36	6.75×10^{-43}
AP-1	2.41	3.66×10^{-12}	2.16	8.12×10^{-5}
ERK	3.87	3.44×10^{-12}	3.11	3.85×10^{-8}
p53	2.39	5.00×10^{-53}	3.03	4.02×10^{-54}
STAT3	2.87	5.04×10^{-27}	1.95	1.97×10^{-6}
D-Glucose	2.39	2.44×10^{-20}	2.63	9.84×10^{-18}

Table 4

Class	Number of Total Enriched Motifs	List of Uniquely Enriched Motifs
I	128	AMYB, Arnt:Ahr, Ascl1, Atoh1, BMYB, c-Myc, E2F1, E2F6, Egr1, Eomes, ERE, Esrrb, Fox:Ebox, FOXA1, FXR, Gfi1b, HNF4a, HOXA2, KLF5, Lhx2, Lhx3, Max, MITF, MYB, MyoD, Nanog, NeuroD1, Nkx6.1, PAX5, Pax8, Pdx1, PPARE, PGR, PRDM1, PRDM9, PU.1-IRF, Rbpj1, RUNX1, RUNX2, RXR, Smad2, SPDEF, TATA-Box, THRa, VDR
II	82	GFX, GFY, ZBTB33
III	121	CEBP, EKLF, Hnf1, HRE, Mef2a, NF1, Nr5a2, Nur77, PAX3, RORgt, RUNX, Tbx20, Usf2

Table 5

	Positively Correlated	Negatively Correlated
Number of dynamic OCRs in association with DEGs	2989	1660
Number of DEGs in association with dynamic OCRs	1461	980

Table 6

Canonical Pathways	-Log(p)	Category
Signaling by Rho Family GTPases	2.80	Positively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
Actin Cytoskeleton Signaling	2.00	Positively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
NFκB Signaling	1.60	Positively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
Gap Junction Signaling	1.66	Positively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
Glycolysis	1.63	Positively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
Adrenomedullin signaling pathway	2.42	Negatively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
eNOS Signaling	2.06	Negatively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
Relaxin Signaling	1.79	Negatively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
PDGF Signaling	1.98	Negatively Correlated DEGs-OCRs
HIPPO signaling	1.68	Negatively Correlated DEGs-OCRs

Table 7. Genome-wide PGR occupying sites relative to gene bodies

	NP1	NP2	TP1	TP2	Background
Promoter	23.6 %	25.4 %	19.3 %	9.6 %	2.4 %
5' UTR	10.7 %	10.0 %	7.1 %	2.4 %	0.4 %
Coding Exon	4.2 %	2.8 %	2.1 %	0.8 %	1.9 %
Intron	33.5 %	31.6 %	36.2 %	41.5 %	41.6 %
3' UTR	1.4 %	1.5 %	1.3 %	1.2 %	1.4 %
Downstream of gene body	3 %	2.2 %	2.3 %	2.4 %	2.2 %
Distal intergenic region	23.4 %	26.5 %	31.8 %	42.0 %	50 %

Table 8

Motif		Enrichment *p* value ($\log_{10}$)	
		NP	TP

 PGR | PGR | -40.44 | -803.7 |
STAT	STAT	-36.08	-136.3
CArG	CArG	-63.84	-87.38
MyoD	MyoD	-43.74	-21.85
SMAD2	SMAD2	-32.38	-37.57

Table 9

NP Distinct	Shared by NP and TP	TP Distinct
PGR occupying intervals examined		
2773	2220	1047
Number of PGR occupying intervals in association with active genes in the myometrium		
2252	1510	593
Number of myometrial active genes in association with PGR occupying intervals		
1431	589	183

Table 10

Gene	Region of Interest	Binding Events Detected Per 1000 Cells			
		NP3	NP4	TP3	TP4
ENO1	chr1:8938001-8939564	25.93 ± 1.89	12.46 ± 1.44	0.91 ± 0.38	0.71 ± 0.93
LDHA	chr11:18415880-18416428	30.15 ± 3.49	11.42 ± 1.45	1.56 ± 0.42	2.35 ± 0.68
PLCL1	chr2:199107091-199107777	119.13 ± 8.45	7.77 ± 1.76	9.44 ± 0.31	6.40 ± 0.79
Untr12	Chromosome 12	0.15 ± 0.15	0.00 ± 0.00	0.13 ± 0.23	0.00 ± 0.00

Figure S1