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4	Maternal serum IGF-1, IGFBP-1 and 3, and placental growth hormone at 20
5	weeks' gestation in pregnancies complicated by preeclampsia
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7	Shutan Liao1,2,6, Mark H Vickers1,2, Rennae S Taylor3, Beatrix Jones4, Mhoyra Fraser5, Lesley
8	ME McCowans, Philip N Baker1,2,7, Jo K Perry1,2
9	
10	Liggins Institute, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand;
11	2Gravida: National Centre for Growth and Development, New Zealand;
12	3Department of Obstetrics and Gynaecology, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand;
13	4Institute of Natural and Mathematical Sciences, Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand;
14	5Department of Physiology, University of Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand;
15	6The First Affiliated Hospital of Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, China;
16	7College of Medicine, Biological Sciences and Psychology, University of Leicester, UK
17	
18	Abbreviated Title: Maternal hormones in preeclampsia
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20	Key words: placental growth hormone, insulin-like growth factors, insulin-like growth factor
21	binding proteins, pregnancy, preeclampsia
22	
23	Word count: (including the abstract) 2622
24	
25	Number of figures and tables: 3
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27	Correspondence and reprint requests to be addressed to:
28	Dr Jo. K. Perry, PhD
29	The Liggins Institute, University of Auckland
30	85 Park Rd, Private Bag 92019 Auckland 1142, New Zealand
31	Tel: +64(9) 9237873; Fax: +64(9) 3737497
32	Email: j.perry@auckland.ac.nz
33	
34	
35	This work was funded by The Maurice and Phyllis Paykel Trust and Gravida: National
36	Centre for Growth and Development.
30 37	Centre for Growth and Development.
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30 39	Declaration of interest:
39 40	The authors have nothing to declare.
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#### 42 Abstract

43 **Objective:** To investigate whether maternal serum concentrations of placental growth 44 hormone (GH-V), insulin-like growth factor (IGF) 1 and 2, and IGF binding proteins 45 (IGFBP) 1 and 3 were altered in pregnancies complicated by later preeclampsia (PE).

46 Study design: In a nested case-control study, PE cases (n=71) and matched controls (n=71)
47 were selected from the Screening for Pregnancy Endpoints (SCOPE) biobank in Auckland,
48 New Zealand. Maternal serum hormone concentrations at 20 weeks of gestation were
49 determined by ELISA.

**Results:** We found that maternal serum GH-V concentration at 20 weeks of gestation was unaltered in the PE group, compared to the control group (median, 1.78 ng/ml vs. 1.65 ng/ml, p = 0.884). Maternal IGF-1 and IGFBP-3 concentrations and the IGF-1/IGFBP-3 ratio in PE pregnancies were significantly higher than in controls (median, 253.1 ng/ml vs. 204.3 ng/ml, p < 0.0001; 8535 ng/ml vs. 7711 ng/ml, p = 0.0023; 0.032 vs. 0.026, p < 0.0001, respectively), whereas maternal IGFBP-1 concentration was significantly lower in PE pregnancies than in controls (median, 34.85 ng/ml vs. 48.92 ng/ml, p = 0.0006).

57 **Conclusion:** Our findings suggest a potential role of IGFs and IGFBPs in the prediction of 58 pregnancies complicated by PE. However, the maternal serum concentration of GH-V at 20 59 weeks' gestation is unlikely to be useful in the early prediction of PE.

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# 67 Introduction

68 Preeclampsia (PE) is one of the leading causes of maternal, fetal, and neonatal mortality and 69 morbidity. It affects 3-5% of pregnancies worldwide and is characterized by maternal hypertension, proteinuria, and if left untreated it can progress to maternal multi-organ failure, 70 71 coagulopathy and seizures [1]. Women whose pregnancies are complicated by PE also have an increased risk of diabetes mellitus, chronic hypertension, ischemic heart disease, 72 73 cerebrovascular disease and kidney disease later in life [2, 3]. However, there are no 74 therapeutic approaches available for treatment currently and there are limited options for 75 prevention of PE in women identified to be at high risk [4]. Therefore, identification of 76 biomarkers that predict the development of PE or improve detection of this life-threatening pregnancy disorder is warranted in order to enable better monitoring of patients and reduce 77 78 the occurrence of adverse complications for them and their babies.

79 The human growth hormone (GH) locus contains two evolutionarily related growth hormone 80 genes: the pituitary GH gene (GH-N; GH1) and a gene for the placental growth hormone 81 variant (GH-V; GH2) [5, 6]. GH-V binds the GH receptor with similar affinity to GH-N, but 82 has lower affinity for the prolactin receptor [5, 6]. During pregnancy, GH-V is secreted from 83 the syncytiotrophoblast cells of the placenta, and gradually replaces GH-N as the main form of GH in the maternal circulation [5, 6]. Despite this intriguing switch in expression from 84 85 pituitary to placental expression of GH, very little is known about the role GH-V plays in 86 human pregnancy. However, it is thought that GH-V plays a role in maternal adaptation to 87 pregnancy. Studies investigating the association between maternal serum GH-V and PE are 88 limited, and results have been conflicting. Two studies observed increased GH-V levels in 89 maternal serum at mid to late gestation in pregnancies complicated by PE [7, 8]. Sifakis et al. found no changes in GH-V concentration in maternal serum taken at 11-13 weeks in PE cases 90

91 when compared to controls [9]. Mannik *et al.* demonstrated reduced GH-V expression in
92 placentas from pregnancies complicated by PE [10].

In the current study, we aimed to determine whether there was an association between maternal serum concentration of GH-V at 20 weeks of gestation and the subsequent development of PE. We hypothesised that maternal serum GH-V concentrations were altered in pregnancies with later PE. Serum concentrations of related GH/ insulin-like growth factor (IGF) axis proteins: IGF-1, IGF-2, and their binding proteins (IGFBP) 1 and 3 were also measured.

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## 100 Materials and Methods

Ethical approval was obtained from New Zealand Health and Disability Ethics Committees (AKX/02/00/364/AM03), and all women provided written informed consent. Between November 2004 and October 2007, 2,032 nulliparous women with singleton pregnancies were recruited to the Screening for Pregnancy Endpoints (SCOPE) study in Auckland, New Zealand. The inclusion criteria has been described previously [11].

106 Participants were interviewed and examined by a SCOPE research midwife at 15 and 20 107 weeks of gestation. At the first visit, detailed clinical and demographic data were collected 108 and entered into an internet accessed, central database with a complete audit trail 109 (MedSciNet, Stockholm, Sweden). A family history of gestational hypertensive disorders was 110 defined as a mother and/or sister(s) who had a history of either gestational hypertension or 111 PE. Mean arterial pressure (MAP) was measured by mercury or aneroid sphygmomanometer 112 at the 15 and 20 weeks SCOPE research visits. Umbilical artery resistance index (RI, defined 113 as maximum - minimum velocity/maximum velocity) and mean uterine artery RI were 114 measured using Doppler ultrasound at 20 weeks. Maternal serum samples were collected at 115 20 weeks and stored at -80 °C. The specimens did not undergo any freeze/thaw cycles prior

to these analyses. Birth weight was recorded to the nearest gram using electronic scales at thetime of birth.

118 In this nested case-control study, 71 PE cases were selected from the New Zealand SCOPE 119 cohort and matched by ethnicity, age ( $\pm$  3 years) and body mass index (BMI) ( $\pm$  3 kg/m<sub>2</sub>) to 120 71 controls with uncomplicated pregnancies. PE was defined as gestational hypertension (systolic blood pressure  $\geq 140$  mmHg or diastolic blood pressure  $\geq 90$  mmHg on at least 2 121 122 occasions 4 hours apart after the 20 week visit in previous normotensive women) with either proteinuria ( $\geq 2+$  dipstick or urine protein creatinine ratio  $\geq 30$  mg/mmol or 24 hours urinary 123 124 protein excretion  $\geq 0.3$  g) or multisystem disease (thrombocytopenia, renal insufficiency, 125 impaired liver function, pulmonary, cerebral or visual symptoms) [12].

## 126 Materials

Recombinant human GH-V (22 kDa) was purchased from Protein Laboratories Rehovot (Rehovot, Israel) and was reconstituted in 0.4% NaHCO<sub>3</sub> pH 9 [13]. Human GH-V monoclonal antibodies 78.8E8 (E8; MCA5827G) and 78.7C12 (7C12; MCA5828G) were obtained from Bio-Rad AbD Serotec (NC, US). E8 does not across react with GH-N or prolactin; 7C12 shows some cross reactivity with GH-N (5%) as per manufacturer's documentation. Antibody 7C12 was biotinylated using a LYNX Rapid Biotin Antibody Conjugation Kit (Bio-Rad AbD Serotec) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

#### 134 GH-V ELISA procedure

We have previously described the development and validation of an in-house enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for the measurement of GH-V in serum [14]. In brief, microtiter plates were coated with antibody E8 diluted in phosphate buffer (0.1M Sodium Carbonate, pH 9.5) at a concentration of 2  $\mu$ g/ml by overnight incubation at 4°C. Coated plates were washed three times with wash buffer (PBS-T; 10 mM phosphate buffer pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 0.05% Tween 20). Blocking was achieved by 1 hour incubation at room 141 temperature with Ultrablock (Bio-Rad AbD Serotec). Standards were prepared from GH-V 142 solution with a range from 5 to 0.078 ng/ml. Standards and 1:2 diluted serum samples were incubated for 2 hours at room temperature, then washed three times. 8 µg/ml biotinylated 143 144 antibody C12 was added and incubated for 1 hour. After being washed three times, 200 ng/ml 145 horseradish peroxidase conjugated streptavidin (Bio-Rad AbD Serotec) was added and incubated for 30 min. The microtiter plates were washed four times. End-point detection was 146 147 processed by using 3, 3', 5, 5'-Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) Substrate Reagent Set (BD Biosciences) and stop solution (2N H2SO4). Absorbance was read at 450nm and 590 nm 148 149 within 30 min of stopping reaction. Serum samples were spiked with GH-V and the average 150 recovery rate was 106%. Coefficients of variation (CV) of intra-assay and inter-assay were 4.8% and 6.8%, respectively. 151

## 152 Serum analysis

Serum total IGF-1, total IGF-2, IGFBP-1 and IGFBP-3 were assayed with human-specific
ELISA as per the manufacturer's instructions (Mediagnost, Germany).

## 155 Statistical analysis

GH-V, IGF-1, IGFBP-1 and IGFBP-3 data were log-transformed to improve the approximation of normal distribution and linearize relationships. Data are expressed as means  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) and median unless stated otherwise. Group means were compared using a Student's *t* test. Categorical variables were compared using chi-square or Fisher's exact test. Pearson's coefficient was used to determine correlations between variables, presented as r values. All analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 21. A p-value of <0.05 was accepted as statistically significant.

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#### 164 **Results**

165 The demographic and clinical details are shown in Table 1. There were no significant 166 differences between the two groups except for MAP at 15 and 20 weeks', birth weight and 167 gestational age at birth.

## 168 Serum concentrations of maternal GH-related hormones

Maternal serum GH-V concentrations varied considerably between individuals (range: 0.69-169 170 8.37 ng/ml). There was no significant difference in maternal serum GH-V concentrations at 171 20 weeks of gestation in the PE group when compared to the control group (median, 1.78 ng/ml vs. 1.65 ng/ml, p = 0.884) (Fig. 1A). Maternal IGF-1 and IGFBP-3 concentrations and 172 173 the IGF-1/IGFBP-3 ratios in PE pregnancies were significantly higher than in control 174 (median, 253.1 ng/ml vs. 204.3 ng/ml, p < 0.0001; 8535 ng/ml vs. 7711 ng/ml, p = 0.0023; 0.032 vs. 0.026, p < 0.0001, respectively) (Fig. 1B, E and F). Maternal IGFBP-1 175 176 concentrations were significantly lower in PE pregnancies compared to the controls (median, 177 34.85 ng/ml vs. 48.92 ng/ml, p = 0.0006) (Fig. 1D). There was no significant difference in 178 IGF-2 concentrations between groups (Fig. 1C).

The PE group was separated into early-onset PE patients (defined as PE that developed before 34 weeks of gestation) and late-onset PE (defined as PE which developed at or after 34 weeks of gestation). Early-onset PE patients had increased IGF-1 and IGFBP-1 concentrations compared to late-onset PE patients (IGF-1: median, 313.5 ng/ml vs. 251.3 ng/ml, p =0.0268; IGFBP-1: median, 9372 ng/ml vs. 8461 ng/ml, p = 0.0469), although the number of patients in the early-onset PE group was much lower (n= 8 vs. n= 63).

#### 185 **Correlation analysis**

In both the control and PE groups, maternal IGF-1 concentrations were positively related to the changes in IGFBP-3 but negatively related to IGFBP-1 concentrations. There was also an association between the concentrations of GH-V and IGF-1 in the control group, but not in the PE group (Table 2). Interestingly, in the PE group, maternal IGF-1 had a weak positive association with MAP at 15 and 20 weeks' (r = 0.276, p = 0.021; r = 0.24, p = 0.046); while maternal GH-V was negatively associated with mean uterine artery RI (r = -0.367, p = 0.002) but not with umbilical artery RI (r = 0.043, p = 0.72) at 20 weeks. The associations of IGF-1 with MAP and of GH-V with uterine artery RI were still significant after adjusting for maternal age, ethnicity, BMI, family history of gestational hypertensive disorders, smoking and drinking habits.

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# 198 **Discussion**

199 The precise aetiology of PE remains elusive. A long standing hypothesis is that PE develops 200 as a consequence of an immunologically-initiated impaired trophoblast invasion, shallow 201 implantation and inadequate remodelling of the uterine spiral arteries, leading to a high-202 resistance uteroplacental circulation [15, 16]. Subsequent oxidative stress and inflammation 203 in the placenta alters expression of pro-inflammatory, anti-angiogenic and angiogenic factors, 204 contributing to endothelial cell dysfunction and an inflammatory response [17]. Trophoblast 205 migration and invasive capacity has been shown to be modulated by a number of factors, 206 including oxygen concentration [18], interleukin and transforming growth factor [19], IGF-2 207 and IGFBP-1 [20], epidermal and hepatocyte growth factors [21, 22]. A potential role of GH-208 V in the regulation of trophoblast invasion is also suggested by the presence of the GH 209 receptor in the placenta [23] and the stimulation of trophoblast invasion by GH-V in vitro 210 [24]. Further, GH-V is a target gene of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- $\gamma$  (PPAR $\gamma$ ) 211 and has been proposed to be involved in the PPARy-mediated inhibition of trophoblast 212 invasion in an autocrine manner [25]. It is possible that circulating GH-V concentrations may 213 not reflect the effect of GH-V on trophoblast invasion.

214 Doppler ultrasonography can assess uteroplacental and fetoplacental blood flows and has 215 been suggested as a screening method for PE as increased uterine artery blood flow resistance 216 had been observed prior to the onset of PE [26-28]. One study by Schiessl et al. demonstrated 217 a strong correlation between decreasing uterine and peripheral arterial resistance and 218 increasing maternal serum GH-V concentration [29]. In our study, we found that maternal 219 GH-V concentration was negatively associated with mean uterine artery RI in preeclamptic 220 pregnancies, suggesting a potential role of GH-V in the alteration of maternal arterial 221 resistance.

222 IGF-1 and IGF-2 mediate a range of actions in many tissues including stimulation of cell 223 growth, cell survival and differentiation. During human pregnancy, maternal IGF-1 is 224 believed to originate mainly from the maternal liver, and GH-V has been suggested to be a 225 main regulator of its synthesis as serum concentrations during pregnancy are highly 226 correlated [30-32]. The majority of circulating IGF-1 is bound to IGFBP-3 and the acid labile 227 subunit to form a 150 kDa ternary complex and is the major storage form of IGF-1 in the 228 circulation [33]. This complex prolongs the half-life of circulating IGF-1 and facilitates its 229 endocrine actions. IGF-1/IGFBP-3 ratio correlates with the amount of free, biologically 230 active IGF-1[34]. IGFBP-1 binds to only a small proportion of circulating IGF-I but is 231 considered to be important for short-term regulation of IGF bioactivity [35, 36]. The placenta 232 expresses considerable amounts of IGFs and IGFBPs; however, it is unclear if the placenta-233 derived IGFs and IGFBPs serve local function by paracrine or autocrine regulation, or if they 234 are secreted into the maternal or fetal circulation. Nevertheless, IGFs and IGFBPs are crucial 235 for fetal growth and placental development since they regulate trophoblast migration at the 236 maternal-fetal interface [20, 37]. In addition, previous studies also provide evidence in 237 support of a potential role of IGFs and IGFBPs in pregnancies complicated by PE. Increased 238 IGF-2 and decreased IGFBP-1 mRNA expression were observed in the placentae of women 239 with PE [38, 39]. Transgenic mice overexpressing human IGFBP-1 exhibit a PE phenotype 240 [40]. However, maternal serum concentrations of IGFs and IGFBPs in PE pregnancies vary 241 across different studies. Maternal serum IGF-1 and IGFBP-1 were decreased and IGFBP-3 242 was increased at 11-13 weeks in pregnancies that subsequently developed PE in several studies [41-43]. However, two studies observed decreased IGF-1 and IGFBP-3, as well as 243 increased IGFBP-1 levels in the third trimester in PE patients [44, 45]. Consistent with our 244 245 study, increased IGF-I and decreased IGFBP-1 from the first to second trimester were associated with a higher risk of PE [46, 47]. Further, a progressive increase in maternal 246 247 circulating IGFBP-1 concentrations from 16 to 36 weeks' was also observed in those 248 pregnancies complicated by PE [48]. Contributing factors to this observed variation may 249 include the sample size, the time of sampling and the onset and severity of PE where 250 placental integrity is compromised, and consequently the secretion of placental hormones is 251 also compromised.

There is clear evidence that maternal MAP in the second trimester is associated with the later development of PE, although the predictive ability of blood pressure alone is low [49-51]. The vasoactive effects of IGF-1 indicate that IGF-1 can influence blood pressure [52, 53]. Increased IGF-1 levels have also been reported in patients with hypertension [54, 55]. In our study, we found that maternal IGF-1 concentration was positively associated with MAP in the PE group only. However, the role of circulating IGF-1 in the pathogenesis of PE still needs further investigation.

Our study provides further evidence for differences in concentrations of IGF-1 and IGFBPs at
20 weeks of gestation in pregnancies with later PE. However, maternal GH-V concentration
was not altered and is unlikely to be useful in the early prediction of PE.

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#### 263 Acknowledgments

The New Zealand SCOPE study was funded by the New Enterprise Research Fund, Foundation for Research Science and Technology; Health Research Council (04/198); Evelyn Bond Fund, Auckland District Health Board Charitable Trust. This work was funded by The Maurice and Phyllis Paykel Trust and Gravida: National Centre for Growth and Development.

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## 270 **Conflict of Interest**

271 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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# 461 Figure Legends

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463 Fig. 1. Serum GH-V, IGF-1, IGF-2, IGFBP-1, IGFBP-3 concentrations and IGF464 1/IGFBP-3 ratio.

- 465 Data are shown as Tukey box-whisker plots (median, 25th centile, 75th centile and range).
- 466 Outliers are presented as hollow symbols. \*p < 0.05.
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