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The potential role of the *ERRγ* pathway in placental dysfunction

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Abstract

Normal placental development and function is of key importance to fetal growth. Conversely aberrations of placental structure and function are evident in pregnancy complications including fetal growth restriction (FGR) and preeclampsia. Although trophoblast turnover and function is altered in these conditions, their underlying aetiologies and pathophysiology remains unclear, which hampers development of therapeutic interventions.

Here we review evidence that supports a role for Estrogen Related Receptor-gamma (*ERRγ*) in the development of placental dysfunction in FGR and preeclampsia. This relationship deserves particular consideration because *ERRγ* is highly expressed in normal placenta, is reduced in FGR and preeclampsia and its expression is altered by hypoxia, which is thought to result from deficient placentation seen in FGR and preeclampsia. Several studies have also found microRNA or other potential upstream regulators of *ERRγ* negatively influence trophoblast function which could contribute to placental dysfunction seen in FGR and preeclampsia. Interestingly, microRNAs regulate *ERRγ* expression in human trophoblast. Thus, if *ERRγ* is pivotally associated with the abnormal trophoblast turnover and function it may be targeted by microRNAs

or other possible upstream regulators in the placenta.

This review explores altered expression of *ERRγ* and upstream regulation of *ERRγ*-mediated pathways resulting in the trophoblast turnover, placental vascularisation, and placental metabolism underlying placental dysfunctions. This demonstrates that the *ERRγ* pathway merits further investigation as a potential therapeutic target in FGR and preeclampsia.

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Short title: *ERRγ* and placental dysfunction.

Keywords: fetal growth restriction, preeclampsia, placental dysfunction, Estrogen Related Receptor-gamma.

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49 **1.0 Introduction**

50 Placental dysfunction describes when the placenta fails to develop and/or function
51 adequately to support the nutritional demands of the fetus, and is central to the
52 development of both fetal growth restriction (FGR) and preeclampsia (Spinillo et al.,
53 2019, Redman, 1991). FGR describes a fetus that does not reach its genetic growth
54 potential. In clinical practice, this is often identified as a small for gestational age infant
55 i.e. a baby whose estimated fetal weight (EFW) or birthweight is less than the 10th
56 percentile for that stage of pregnancy (ACOG, 2019). However, being small for
57 gestational age is not synonymous with FGR. True FGR affects 5%-10% of fetuses and

2

58 is associated with both short-term and long-term complications including stillbirth,
59 neonatal death, abnormal neurodevelopment, and cardiovascular and metabolic
60 disorders in later life (Pels et al., 2019, Bernstein et al., 2000, Crispi et al., 2010, Gardosi
61 et al., 2005, Ramirez-Velez et al., 2017). The majority of cases of FGR are mediated
62 by abnormal placental structure and function (Spinillo et al., 2019). FGR may also co-
63 exist with preeclampsia, which is defined as an elevation of maternal blood pressure
64 with proteinuria occurring after 20 weeks' gestation (Brown et al., 2018). In addition
65 to adverse effects on the fetus, preeclampsia is associated with maternal morbidity and
66 mortality (Souza et al., 2013, Brown et al., 2018). Presently there are no effective
67 therapies to treat FGR or preeclampsia, leaving a decision between expectant
68 management or delivery indicated by deterioration in fetal or maternal condition.
69 Therapeutic advances are in part impaired by an incomplete understanding of the
70 mechanisms underlying the placental dysfunction evident in FGR and preeclampsia.
71 Therefore, the identification of key causal pathways amenable to therapeutic
72 manipulation is an important goal for research in this area. Here we review the evidence
73 for involvement of one such pathway, that of estrogen-related receptor γ (*ERR* γ) in the
74 human placenta (Kumar and Mendelson, 2011).

75 Estrogen-related receptor- γ is a member of the ERR family of orphan nuclear receptors,
76 which is highly expressed in the human placenta (Takeda et al., 2009). Evidence
77 suggests that *ERR* γ serves an important role in trophoblast differentiation, proliferation,
78 and invasion, and may be involved in blood pressure homeostasis (Zhu et al., 2018a,
79 Luo et al., 2014). In addition, deficient expression of *ERR* γ is linked to impaired
80 placental mitochondrial function (Poidatz et al., 2012), which could lead to inadequate
81 energy supply and thus reduced energy expenditure within the placenta. Due to its wide
82 range of functions in relevant biological processes, it is plausible that *ERR* γ may also
83 play a role in placental dysfunction underlying pregnancies complicated with FGR or
84 preeclampsia.

85 To consider whether the *ERR* γ pathway has a causal role in placental dysfunction we
86 have reviewed the literature to: (i) summarize knowledge regarding the role of *ERR* γ in

87 trophoblast, placental vascularisation and placental metabolism, (ii) discuss the
88 evidence for aberrant expression of constituents of the *ERRγ* pathway in pregnancy
89 complications, including FGR and preeclampsia, and (iii) consider the implications of
90 altered *ERRγ* expression and how this may contribute to placental dysfunction.

91

92 **2. Placental dysfunction underlying pregnancy complications**

93 To assess whether a pathway may be involved in the pathophysiology of FGR and/or
94 preeclampsia, its role in normal placental development requires consideration, followed
95 by evaluation of whether the aberrant placental phenotype seen in these conditions is
96 consistent with disruption of that pathway.

97 **2.1 Normal placental development**

98 In normal placental development, appropriate differentiation of cytotrophoblast cells,
99 the trophoblast stem cell population of the placenta, is important; two different
100 pathways arise within the developing placental villus: the extravillous and villous
101 lineages. The extravillous trophoblasts (EVT) differentiate from cytotrophoblast cell
102 columns and invade the uterus (interstitial invasion) and spiral arteries (endovascular
103 invasion) to remodel the maternal blood vessels and produce dilated and compliant
104 uterine arterioles (Figure 1A), thereby ensuring an adequate supply of oxygen and
105 nutrients to support fetal growth (Pijnenborg et al., 1983). Proliferation, differentiation
106 and fusion of villous cytotrophoblast maintains the syncytiotrophoblast, the
107 multinucleated outer layer of the placenta responsible for placental transport, protective
108 and endocrine functions (Jones and Fox, 1991) (Figure 1A and 1B). The villous
109 cytotrophoblast and syncytiotrophoblast, together with a core of villous stromal cells
110 containing fetoplacental blood vessels form the villous tree, which is the functional unit
111 of the placenta (Jones and Fox, 1991) (Figure 1 A and 1B). There are five different
112 types of villi, including mesenchymal villi, immature intermediate villi, stem villi,
113 mature intermediate villi, and terminal villi. Terminal villi, which represent the final

114 branches of the villous tree, exhibit a high degree of capillarization and fetoplacental
115 vessels are separated from maternal blood by a thin layer of syncytiotrophoblast and
116 endothelial cells termed the vasculo-syncytial membrane, which is optimised for gas
117 and nutrient exchange in human placenta (Kingdom et al., 2000). Consequently, there
118 is a close relationship between terminal villous structure and function.

119 **2.2 Placental changes in FGR and preeclampsia**

120 Compared to placentas from normal pregnancies, placentas from pregnancies
121 complicated by FGR and/or pre-eclampsia may exhibit a number of structural and
122 functional changes, including evidence of an unfolded protein response, increased
123 trophoblast apoptosis and autophagy, and reduced trophoblast proliferation and
124 metabolic function (Heazell et al., 2011, Heazell et al., 2008, Burton and Jauniaux, 2018,
125 Curtis et al., 2013, Yung et al., 2019). In the syncytiotrophoblast, some nuclei are
126 aggregated to form syncytial knots with features of apoptosis and a disordered
127 proliferation, and the increased formation of syncytial knots is related to the conditions
128 of placental dysfunction which have been found in the FGR placentas (Macara et al.,
129 1996, Heazell et al., 2007). FGR placentas also show decreased volume and surface
130 area of terminal villi, with elongated and less-branched capillary loops (Krebs et al.,
131 1996, Jackson et al., 1995). It is hypothesized that some of these changes in villous
132 tissue are secondary to reduced invasion of extravillous trophoblast earlier in pregnancy,
133 leading to impaired perfusion of the intervillous space. There may also be abnormalities
134 of the fetal-placental vasculature and a reduction in placental weight, all of which
135 combine to result in insufficient delivery of nutrients to the developing fetus (Roberts
136 and Post, 2008).

137 The placenta is a metabolically active organ that consumes a large volume of oxygen
138 throughout gestation, with energy provision mainly dependent on mitochondrial
139 activity by glucose utilization (Diamant et al., 1975, Malek et al., 1996). An imbalance
140 of placental mitochondrial function with excessive generation of reactive oxygen and
141 nitrogen species in placentas is observed in pregnancy complications such as FGR, and

142 pre-eclampsia (Biri et al., 2007, Atamer et al., 2005, Leduc et al., 2010). Taken together
143 with the observation of altered perfusion of the intervillous space the critical
144 relationship between hypoxia, reactive oxygen species (ROS), and how this leads to
145 placental dysfunction needs to be considered.

146 **2.3 A possible role of hypoxia / ROS in placental dysfunction in FGR and** 147 **Preeclampsia**

148 As stated above, hypoxia and hypoxia-reoxygenation can contribute to the elevation of
149 reactive oxygen species (ROS), which can lead to increased oxidative DNA damage
150 and depletion of local antioxidant defenses (Hung and Burton, 2006, Kimura et al.,
151 2013). Placental hypoxia has been reported in both FGR and preeclampsia (Kimura et
152 al., 2013). Furthermore, a hypoxic environment can reproduce elements of the
153 trophoblast phenotype seen in these conditions. Culture in 2% or 9% O₂ reduces
154 differentiation and induces apoptosis in third trimester primary cytotrophoblast (Levy
155 et al., 2000, Alsat et al., 1996). Culture in 2% O₂ impaired differentiation and invasion
156 in first-trimester primary cytotrophoblast (Genbacev et al., 1996), and term placental
157 villous explants also exhibited reduced proliferation and induction of apoptosis when
158 cultured at 1% compared to 6-8% O₂ (Heazell et al., 2008). Therefore, oxygen tension
159 can modulate both the development of villous structure and trophoblast function. The
160 molecular mechanisms responsible for these changes in trophoblast phenotype are still
161 elusive, but recent reports suggest that it may, in part, be linked to activation of an
162 unfolded protein response (UPR) by placental oxidative stress (Yung et al., 2019, Yung
163 et al., 2008).

164

165 To understand the potential contribution of the *ERRγ* pathway in the pathogenesis of
166 placental dysfunction underlying FGR and preeclampsia, the functions of *ERRγ* in
167 pregnancy will be described, and the evidence that *ERRγ* signalling might be involved
168 in the occurrence of placental dysfunction will be reviewed.

169 **3. The ERR family**

170 Estrogen-related receptors (ERRs) are an NR3B (nuclear receptor 3B) group of the
171 nuclear receptor subfamily, including *ERRα*, *ERRβ*, and *ERRγ*, which are encoded by
172 *ESRRA*, *ESRRB*, and *ESRRG*, respectively. The NR3B group of nuclear receptors is
173 one of the larger NR3 classes and includes the hormone receptors for estrogen,
174 androgens, progesterone, aldosterone, and cortisol (Giguere et al., 1988, Giguere, 1999).
175 Although ERRs share sequence homologies with the estrogen receptor (ER), the
176 transcription of ERRs is not activated by estrogen, and information on the nature of
177 endogenous ligands for ERRs remains to be established (Vanacker et al., 1999). ERRs
178 can regulate transcription by binding to estrogen-related receptor elements (ERRE) in
179 target genes, which include several molecules involved in the cellular energy metabolic
180 pathway (Giguere, 2008).

181 **3.1 Structure of ERRs**

182 According to their sequence homology and function, the structural features of ERRs
183 include an activation function (AF)-1 domain /N-terminal domain (NTD), a DNA -
184 binding domain (DBD), a ligand-binding domain (LBD), and an AF-2 domain
185 (Giguere, 1999). The NTD is a non-conserved domain and it includes an AF-1 domain
186 and a variable amino acid domain. In *ERRγ* and *ERRα*, the NTD contains
187 phosphorylation-dependent sumoylation sites that are embedded in a synergy control
188 motif and may serve a role in regulating the transcriptional activity of ERRs (Tremblay
189 et al., 2008). The synergy control motif may have a role in modulating higher-order
190 interactions among transcriptional factors (Iniguez-Lluhi and Pearce, 2000). The ERRs'
191 DBD exists the highest sequence homology in the three ERR isoforms: *ERRβ* and *ERRα*
192 share 99% and 93% identical amino acid sequence with *ERRγ* respectively, which
193 suggests that more than two ERRs might share some target genes (Heard et al., 2000).
194 DBD contains two highly conserved zinc finger motifs, which recognize and bind a
195 specific DNA sequence (TCAAGGTCA), denoted as an ERR response element
196 (ERRE). The ERRE can be either a monomer, a homodimer, or a heterodimer, which

197 can modulate the translational activities of ERRs (Johnston et al., 1997, Dufour et al.,
198 2007). Moreover, ERRs and ERs have high homology in the DBD region (Giguere et
199 al., 1988); ERRs can recognize the ERRE embedded in estrogen response elements
200 (ERE), but only 21% of *ERRα* target promoters can be recognized by ERα in breast
201 cancer cell lines (Deblois et al., 2009). Despite this, several genes can be regulated by
202 both ERα and ERRs, including the human lactoferrin gene and monoamine oxidase B
203 (Yang et al., 1996, Zhang et al., 2006b).

204 The final structural part of ERRs is the LBD, a less conserved domain; there is a 77%
205 sequence homology between the LBDs of *ERRβ* and *ERRγ*, and 61% homology
206 between the *ERRα* and *ERRγ* (Heard et al., 2000). The homodimerization or
207 heterodimerization of LBD in *ERRγ* can also influence the translation of ERRs; the
208 homodimerization of *ERRγ* via LBD can enhance the activity of translation; conversely,
209 heterodimerization with *ERRα* inhibits the activity of both receptors (Huppunen and
210 Aarnisalo, 2004). The interaction between the LBD and its coactivator is ligand-
211 independent (Greschik et al., 2002). However, the crystal structure also showed that the
212 LBD can interact with ligands by a flexible ligand-binding pocket and importantly from
213 the perspective of understanding receptor signalling pathways, several synthetic
214 molecules can inhibit or stimulate the transcriptional function of ERRs by LBD,
215 including proliferator-activated receptor coactivator 1-alpha, diethylstilbestrol (DES),
216 and 4-hydroxytamoxifen (4-OH) (Kallen et al., 2004, Chao et al., 2006, Tremblay et
217 al., 2001a, Tremblay et al., 2001b). Bisphenol A (BPA) is a chemical and environment
218 contaminant used to produce plastics, which strongly binds to *ERRγ*-LBD (Takeda et
219 al., 2009). As the level of BPA in maternal blood and placental tissue is inversely
220 related to fetal weight in human pregnancy (Troisi et al., 2014), BPA-mediated
221 upregulation of placental *ERRγ* may provide a mechanistic link to explain the
222 association between elevated BPA levels and FGR (Takayanagi et al., 2006, Okada et
223 al., 2008).

224

225 Thus, the structure of the ERRs, specifically that of the LBD and DBD, is vital to the
226 regulation of ERR signalling, including that of *ERRγ*. Furthermore, abnormal placental
227 expression of *ERRγ* in FGR and preeclampsia suggests a potential role for *ERRγ* in the
228 development or potentiation of these pregnancy complications (Zhu et al., 2018a, Luo
229 et al., 2014). This review will consider how *ERRγ* is regulated, its effects in trophoblast
230 and how this may contribute to the phenotypes of placental dysfunction observed in
231 FGR and preeclampsia.

232 **3.2 *ERRγ***

233 Both fetal and adult organs abundantly express *ERRγ* (Heard et al., 2000), including the
234 placenta, heart, and brain (Takeda et al., 2009, Heard et al., 2000, Misra et al., 2017).
235 *ERRγ* can regulate blood pressure homeostasis, due to the high expression of *ERRγ* in
236 kidneys which mediate aldosterone-stimulated sodium and water reuptake (Alaynick et
237 al., 2010). In *ERRγ* null mice, the genes that regulate serum potassium and blood
238 pressure were decreased in the kidney; RNA expression of the potassium channels,
239 *Kcnj1*, *Kcne1*, and *Kcne2*, and kallikrein-kinin system genes kallikrein 1 (*Klk1*) and
240 kallikrein 6 (*Klk6*), were significantly reduced in the kidneys of *ERRγ* null mice,
241 (Alaynick et al., 2010). Other potential mechanisms by which *ERRγ* can regulate
242 maternal blood pressure homeostasis during pregnancy are related to steroid 11β-
243 hydroxylase (*Cyp11b1*) and aldosterone synthase (*Cyp11b2*) (Luo et al., 2014). In *ERRγ*
244 heterozygous (*ERRγ*^{+/-}) pregnant mice, expression of *CYP11b1* and *CYP11b2* is
245 decreased in the mouse adrenal cortex, resulting in reduced production of aldosterone
246 and a reduction in blood pressure; conversely, expression of *CYP11b1* and *CYP11b2* in
247 WT pregnant mice is increased after exposure to the *ERRγ* agonist DY131, which
248 increased maternal blood pressure (Luo et al., 2014). Given that development of
249 preeclampsia involves abnormal elevation of maternal blood pressure, dysregulation of
250 *ERRγ* signaling in the kidney and adrenal cortex may contribute to this phenomenon.

251 Placental *ERRγ* expression also plays an important role in the maintenance of pregnancy.
252 Placenta has the highest expression of *ERRγ* in the human reproductive system (Figure

253 1B) (Takeda et al., 2009); expression of *ERRγ* increases over gestation and is higher in
254 villous compared to extravillous trophoblast (Poidatz et al., 2012). *ERRγ* expression is
255 dramatically increased during human cytotrophoblast cell differentiation, indicating a
256 potential regulatory role (Kumar and Mendelson, 2011). Moreover, *ERRγ* also regulates
257 genes involved in cellular energy homeostasis and metabolism; expression of key
258 regulator genes involved in mitochondrial biogenesis (*PGC-1α* and *NRF-1*) and energy
259 metabolism (*PDK4* and *MCAD*) decreased after silencing *ERRγ* in human first trimester
260 placental primary cytotrophoblast (Poidatz et al., 2012). As these studies indicate that
261 *ERRγ* signaling may influence multiple aspects of normal placental function, we will
262 review the evidence for the involvement of *ERRγ* in regulating trophoblast function,
263 hypoxic responses, placental vascularisation, placental metabolism, and other
264 regulators in the human placenta (Table 1 and Figure 2).

265 **3.3 The effect of *ERRγ* on trophoblast function**

266 **3.3.1 Proliferation**

267 *ERRγ* knockdown has been shown to reduce proliferation of the extravillous-like
268 trophoblast cell line HTR-8/SVneo, via decreasing the expression of its downstream
269 gene, 17β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 1 (*HSD17B1*) (Zhu et al., 2018a).
270 *HSD17B1* is an enzyme capable of converting estrone to 17β-estradiol in the
271 metabolism of estrogen. Abnormal expression of *HSD17B1* has been reported in both
272 FGR and preeclampsia (Zhu et al., 2018a); previous studies have revealed that a
273 reduced plasma *HSD17B1* expression level could be considered a potential prognostic
274 factor for preeclampsia (Ohkuchi et al., 2012, Ishibashi et al., 2012). Ohkuchi *et al.*
275 (Ohkuchi et al., 2012) examined 128 normal pregnant women and 30 pregnancies
276 complicated with preeclampsia and found that reducing maternal plasma levels of
277 *HSD17B1* correlated with the occurrence of preeclampsia, implicating *HSD17B1* in the
278 pathogenesis of the disease, possibly by influencing the process of estrogen metabolism.
279 Since estrogen can reduce the proliferation of HTR-8/SVneo cell line (Patel et al., 2015),
280 this might suggest a relationship between low level of *HSD17B1* in maternal serum,

281 placental estrogen metabolism, and trophoblast proliferation. Moreover, the mRNA and
282 protein level of *HSD17B1* was decreased in placentas complicated with FGR (Zhu et
283 al., 2018a). Therefore, aberrant regulation of *HSD17B1* by *ERRγ* may contribute to
284 placental dysfunction, by its ability to regulate the proliferation of cytotrophoblast cells
285 which is disrupted in FGR and preeclampsia.

286 3.3.2 Differentiation

287 There is also evidence that *ERRγ* may influence cytotrophoblast differentiation via its
288 role as a regulator of the aromatase *CYP19A1*, the voltage-gated potassium (K_{v7})
289 channel family, or via interactions with two other downstream genes, placenta specific-
290 1 (*PLAC1*), and 11 β -hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 2 (*HSD11B2*).

291 The cytochrome P-450 (CYP) family members include *CYP11A1* and *CYP19A1*, and
292 hydroxysteroid dehydrogenases (HSDs), such as 3 β -HSD and 17 β -HSD; these enzymes
293 play a vital role in placental hormone synthesis and metabolism (Payne and Hales,
294 2004). C19 steroid precursors can be converted into estrogen via activating aromatase
295 P450, which is encoded by the *CYP19A1/hCYP19* gene and only expressed in the
296 syncytiotrophoblast, not in trophoblast stem cells or cytotrophoblast (Fournet-
297 Dulguerov et al., 1987, Kamat et al., 1998). Notably, *ERRγ* has been shown to stimulate
298 the expression of *hCYP19 in vitro*, via binding to its promotor to increase estrogen
299 levels in a 20% O₂ culture environment, which promotes trophoblast differentiation.
300 When human second-trimester primary cytotrophoblasts were cultured in a hypoxic
301 environment (2% O₂), both *ERRγ* and *hCYP19* expression decreased; however,
302 elevating *ERRγ* expression restored *hCYP19* expression (Kumar and Mendelson, 2011).

303 *ERRγ* also induces mRNA and protein expression of the K_{v7} family of potassium
304 channels to regulate the differentiation of cytotrophoblast in second-trimester placentas.
305 Voltage-gated K_{v7} channels are encoded by the *KCNQ1-5* (α -subunit) and *KCNE1-5*
306 (β -subunit) genes. The human placenta expresses many potassium channel genes,
307 including the *KCNQ* and *KCNE* families, and the expression of *KCNQ3* and *KCNE5* is

308 markedly increased in placentas from pregnancies complicated with preeclampsia,
309 particularly in the syncytiotrophoblast (Mistry et al., 2011). *ERRγ* induces mRNA and
310 protein expression of the potassium channels *KLK1*, *KCNQ1*, *KCNE1*, *KCNE3* and
311 *KCNE5* during primary cytotrophoblast differentiation, the effect of which was blocked
312 by hypoxia (Luo et al., 2013). After examining the promoter, an ERRE located in the
313 upstream region of the *KCNE1* and *KLK1* genes was identified, to which *ERRγ* can bind
314 (Luo et al., 2013). In addition, expression of the oxygen-sensitive K⁺ channel gene
315 *K_v9.3* was increased in FGR placentas, and expression of *K_v2.1* was increased in
316 chorionic plate veins from the same placentas (Corcoran et al., 2008). However, the
317 relationship between *ERRγ* and expression of K⁺ channels in functionally deficient
318 placentas remains unclear.

319 There is also evidence that *PLAC1* and *HSD11B2* are downstream effectors of *ERRγ*,
320 and these two genes can regulate cytotrophoblast differentiation (Luo et al., 2013). The
321 expression of *PLAC1* is elevated during trophoblast differentiation and conversely,
322 reduced expression of *PLAC1* attenuates fusion of term primary human cytotrophoblast
323 *in vitro* (Chang et al., 2016). Contrary to expectations, Sifakis *et al.* found high *PLAC1*
324 expression in FGR placentas at term (Sifakis et al., 2018), although this may be linked
325 to the aberrant differentiation and trophoblast turnover reported in FGR (Heazell et al.,
326 2011, Huppertz, 2011). Combined with the observations of Luo et al., these data suggest
327 that the effect of *PLAC1* on trophoblast differentiation might be mediated via *ERRγ*.

328 Another downstream gene of *ERRγ* is *HSD11B2*, an enzyme that converts active
329 cortisol to inactive cortisone, which is expressed in villous syncytiotrophoblast (Pepe
330 et al., 1999). Both mRNA and protein expression of *HSD11B2* is induced during term
331 primary cytotrophoblast differentiation, and it is considered a marker for trophoblast
332 differentiation (Hardy and Yang, 2002, Homan et al., 2006). During pregnancy,
333 *HSD11B2* acts as a critical placental glucocorticoid barrier that protects the fetus from
334 the harmful effects of excessive maternal glucocorticoids (Zhu et al., 2018b,
335 Benediktsson et al., 1993). Placental *HSD11B2* expression correlates with fetal weight
336 and postnatal growth velocity (Benediktsson et al., 1993). McTernan *et al.* (McTernan

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337 et al., 2001) showed that placental *HSD11B2* expression is decreased in FGR and
338 demonstrated the importance of placental *HSD11B2* in regulating fetal growth. Studies
339 of SGA placentas also reported low *HSD11B2* expression, which further revealed the
340 relationship between *HSD11B2* and fetal weight (Struwe et al., 2007). Placental
341 *HSD11B2* expression at birth is positively associated with fetal length at birth, whereas
342 its expression is inversely related to growth velocity in the first year of life, and might
343 therefore be a predictor of postnatal growth of fetuses with FGR (Tzschoppe et al.,
344 2009). These studies support the relationship between abnormal differentiation of
345 cytotrophoblast seen in FGR and preeclampsia and expression of *HSD11B2*, although
346 the roles of *HSD11B2* in trophoblast function are still unclear. Since *ERRγ* regulates
347 *HSD11B2* (Luo et al., 2013), the reduced effect of *HSD11B2* on trophoblast
348 differentiation might be due to reduced levels of *ERRγ* in the presence of placental
349 dysfunction.

350 **3.3.3 Invasion**

351 Invasion of the extravillous trophoblast into the uterine wall and subsequent remodeling
352 of the uterine arterioles is critical for normal placental development and optimal
353 uteroplacental perfusion. Knockdown of *ERRγ* resulted in the deficient invasion of the
354 extravillous-like HTR-8/SVneo cell line (Liu et al., 2018, Zhu et al., 2018a). Liu et al.
355 showed that overexpression of microRNA (miR)-320a inhibited HTR-8/SVneo
356 invasion by regulating *ERRγ* signalling (Liu et al., 2018). Furthermore, Zhu et al.
357 demonstrated that reduced expression of *ERRγ* in HTR-8/SVneo cells significantly
358 impaired invasion via regulation of *HSD17B1* (Zhu et al., 2018a). Although a
359 potentially significant finding, the relationship between *ERRγ* and the invasive capacity
360 of extravillous trophoblast needs to be explored further using primary tissues.

361 **3.4 The effect of *ERRγ* on response to hypoxia**

362 A hypoxic environment alters the expression of many genes which are associated with
363 trophoblast differentiation. The most well-studied oxygen sensor in trophoblast is

364 hypoxia-inducible factor 1 α (HIF1 α), which is reported to be elevated in FGR and pre-
365 eclampsia (Rajakumar et al., 2004, Robb et al., 2017). HIF-1 α regulates *ERR γ*
366 expression in human trophoblast: culture in a 2% O₂ environment activates HIF-1 α and
367 decreases the expression of *ERR γ* and *hCYP19* (Kumar and Mendelson, 2011).
368 Conversely, knockdown of *HIF-1 α* in trophoblast prevents *ERR γ* suppression under
369 hypoxic conditions (Kumar and Mendelson, 2011). Collectively, these findings
370 demonstrate that *ERR γ* serves as an oxygen-dependent transcriptional factor regulated
371 by *HIF-1 α* to control the expression of downstream *hCYP19*. This relationship appears
372 to be maintained *in vivo*, as low *ERR γ* expression has been reported in placentas from
373 FGR pregnancies, which often show evidence of hypoxia and/or oxidative
374 stress (Takagi et al., 2004). A preliminary study in a south Chinese population examined
375 the mRNA and protein level of *ERR γ* in 28 FGR placentas and 30 matched appropriate
376 for gestational age (AGA) placentas, and reported lower expression of *ERR γ* in FGR
377 placentas (Zhu et al., 2018a). Poidatz et al. (Poidatz et al., 2015) also reported lower
378 mRNA expression of *ERR γ* in 39 FGR placentas compared with a 30 controls in a
379 European population. These studies support the hypothesis that *ERR γ* might play a role
380 in placental dysfunction originating from placental hypoxia.

381 **3.5 The effect of *ERR γ* on placental vascularisation**

382 Although the trophoblast is critically important to the placental function, it is also
383 widely acknowledged that impaired placental blood vessel development may be
384 important in the aetiology of FGR (Hitschold et al., 1993). Several genes have been
385 implicated in regulating placental vascularisation, including vascular endothelial
386 growth factor A (*VEGFA*) (Ylikorkala et al., 2001, Burton et al., 2009). Maternal serum
387 levels of *VEGFA*, an angiogenic factor that is crucial for placental angiogenesis during
388 early gestation, are decreased in the 2nd and 3rd-trimester in pregnancies complicated
389 with FGR (Bersinger and Odegard, 2005). Expression of *VEGFA* in primary vascular
390 endothelial cells is also reduced in FGR placentas (Chui et al., 2014). The altered
391 vascularisation seen in the placentas of women with FGR can potentially be attributed
392 to dysregulated *ERR γ* expression. In mice, placentas from *ERR γ* ^{-/-} fetuses have

393 significantly increased mRNA levels of *VEGFA*, compared with placentas from wild
394 type fetuses (Luo et al., 2014), and in *ERRγ* +/- pregnant mice, circulating levels of the
395 angiogenic, soluble receptor for *VEGF*, soluble fms-like tyrosine kinase-1 (sFlt-1), were
396 significantly reduced (Luo et al., 2014). In the mouse myoblast cell line C2C12,
397 suppression of *ERRγ* can block the transcriptional expression of *VEGFA*, whilst in
398 HEK-293T cells, *ERRγ* has been shown to activate the *VEGFA* promoter (Matsakas et
399 al., 2012). This indicates that *ERRγ* may affect placental vascularisation via its
400 regulation of *VEGFA*, however further studies are required in humans to confirm this.

401 **3.6 *ERRγ* and placental metabolism**

402 There is accumulating evidence that *ERRγ* plays a role in the regulation of several
403 mitochondrial functions, including mitochondrial biogenesis, oxidative
404 phosphorylation, and fatty acid oxidation, in the heart, kidney, skeletal muscle, and
405 placenta (Huss et al., 2002, Alaynick et al., 2007, Dufour et al., 2007, Kubo et al., 2009,
406 Alaynick et al., 2010, Fan et al., 2018). In the human placenta, *ERRγ* regulates
407 mitochondrial function by controlling gene networks involved in mitochondrial
408 biogenesis and fat and glucose metabolism in the villous trophoblast, including
409 pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4 (*PDK4*), medium chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase
410 (*MCAD*), sirtuin 1 (*SIRT1*) and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (*PPARγ*)
411 coactivator 1 α (*PGC-1 α*) (Poidatz et al., 2012).

412 In human term primary villous cytotrophoblast, expression of *PDK4* and *MCAD* was
413 decreased after knockdown of *ERRγ* expression (Poidatz et al., 2012), which implicates
414 *ERRγ* as a potential regulator of placental fatty acid oxidation and glucose metabolism
415 mediated via these genes. *PDK4* can phosphorylate the pyruvate dehydrogenase
416 complex (PDC), which facilitates the conversion of pyruvate to acetyl-CoA in
417 mitochondria, to inhibit the activity of PDC (Sugden and Holness, 2003); *MCAD* is an
418 enzyme which catalyzes the initial step of mitochondrial fatty acid oxidation (FAO)
419 (Schulz, 1991). *ERRγ* can stimulate the expression of *PDK4* in human liver cell lines
420 (HepG2 cells) and rat hepatoma cells (Zhang et al., 2006a, Lee et al., 2012); regulation

421 of the promoter of *PDK4* by *ERRγ* has been observed in mammary epithelial cells by
422 using both ChIP and luciferase reporter assays, and the activation of the *ERRγ-PDK4*
423 pathway attenuates glucose oxidation and decrease cell death and apoptosis
424 (Kamarajugadda et al., 2012). Thus, a reduction in *ERRγ* would be expected to be
425 associated with increased apoptosis and cell death, as is observed in FGR. This suggests
426 that the *ERRγ-PDK4* signalling pathway in human placentas might contribute to the
427 placental dysfunction. *MCAD* is one of the targets of *ERRα* and the increased expression
428 of the *ERRα-MCAD* pathway serves an important role in the decidualization of human
429 primary endometrial stromal cells (Bombail et al., 2010). Since *ERRγ* is similar to *ERRα*,
430 it is possible that *ERRγ* also contributes to the regulation of *MCAD*, however further
431 studies are needed to investigate this and to determine the role of the pathway in
432 placental dysfunction.

433 *SIRT1*, *PGC-1α*, and *PGC-1β* are also coactivators of *ERRγ* that have known roles in
434 regulating placental metabolism. *SIRT1*, a NAD(+)-dependent protein deacetylase, is
435 expressed ubiquitously in different organs and is required for many cellular processes
436 related to differentiation and metabolism (Leibiger and Berggren, 2006). *SIRT1* is
437 expressed in both the syncytiotrophoblast and cytotrophoblast (Lappas et al., 2011).
438 Findings from two recent studies in mice indicate that *SIRT1* plays a key role in
439 trophoblast differentiation and placental development (Arul Nambi Rajan et al., 2018,
440 McBurney et al., 2003). The differentiation of mouse trophoblast stem cells obtained
441 from *SIRT1*-null mice was blunted *in vitro* (Arul Nambi Rajan et al., 2018), resulting
442 in fetuses with FGR, and smaller placentas with deficient morphology including a
443 thickened chorion and a more hypercellular labyrinth were observed (Arul Nambi Rajan
444 et al., 2018, McBurney et al., 2003). Wilson et al. found *SIRT1* can deacetylate and
445 increases *ERRα* DNA-binding activity by interacting with *ERRα* *in vivo* and *in vitro*,
446 which also suggest a potential interaction between *ERRγ* and *SIRT1* (Wilson et al.,
447 2010), since *ERRα* and *ERRγ* have structural and functional similarities. In HepG2 cells,
448 small heterodimer partner interacting leucine zipper protein (*SMILE*) expression and its
449 ability to repress *ERRγ* transactivation and downstream signaling, is dependent on the

450 expression of *SIRT1* (Xie et al., 2009). *SIRT1* can also positively regulate the expression
451 of another *ERRγ* coactivator, *PGC-1α* (Amat et al., 2009, Gerhart-Hines et al., 2007).
452 *PGC-1α* and its family member, *PGC-1β*, act as transcriptional co-regulators of *ERRα*
453 and *ERRγ* to influence metabolism in many diseases, such as cardiovascular disease and
454 cancer (Liu et al., 2005, Huss et al., 2002, Torrano et al., 2016, Luo et al., 2017). In
455 human placental tissue, the mRNA expression level of *PGC-1α* and *SIRT1* correlated
456 with that of *ERRγ* in pregnancies complicated with preeclampsia and FGR (Poidatz et
457 al., 2015); low mRNA levels of *ERRγ*, *PGC-1α* and *SIRT1* have all been reported in
458 FGR placentas (Poidatz et al., 2015). Together, these studies suggest that methods to
459 modulate both *ERRγ* and its transcriptional co-regulators, may provide a potential
460 therapeutic strategy to improve placental metabolism and fetal growth. Therefore, we
461 will conclude by reviewing the microRNAs (miRNAs) that have been identified as
462 upstream regulators of *ERRγ*, and which may also contribute to the etiology of placental
463 dysfunction.

464 **3.7 Regulation of *ERRγ* in the human placenta by miRNAs**

465 miRNAs are short non-coding RNAs with 19-23 nucleotides which post-translationally
466 reduce gene expression in both animals and plants by mediating argonaute (AGO)
467 binding to the 3'-untranslated-region (3'-UTR) of mRNA (Baek et al., 2008). The
468 miRNA-induced silencing complex (miRISC), which includes the miRNAs and AGO,
469 degrades target mRNA and represses protein translation. Different miRNAs are
470 expressed in specific tissues, and by regulating different sets of target genes, specific
471 miRNAs can mediate many cellular processes, such as differentiation, proliferation,
472 and invasion (Anton et al., 2013, Li et al., 2014). In humans, more than 60% of protein-
473 coding genes are thought to be regulated by miRNAs, many of which are specifically
474 expressed in the placenta (Friedman et al., 2009). Expression of numerous miRNAs is
475 altered in pregnancy complications such as FGR and preeclampsia, which are
476 associated with placental dysfunction (Friedman et al., 2009, Zhang et al., 2010,
477 Hromadnikova et al., 2015). The following miRNAs are associated with placental
478 dysfunction and have been identified as potential upstream regulators of *ERRγ*.

479 **3.7.1 miR-320a**

480 miR-320a levels are increased in the placentas of women with late-onset preeclampsia,
481 and overexpression of miR-320a in HTR-8/SVneo cells inhibits mRNA and protein
482 expression of *ERRγ* (Gao et al., 2018). Key functional roles for *ERRγ* in the placenta
483 appear to be modulated by miR-320a: direct regulation of *ERRγ* by miR-320a inhibits
484 migration, invasion, and proliferation and indirectly modulates levels of *VEGFA* in both
485 HTR-8/SVneo cells and human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) (Gao et al.,
486 2018, Liu et al., 2018). However, to our knowledge, expression levels of miR-320a in
487 FGR placentas has yet to be assessed.

488 **3.7.2 Other *ERRγ* regulatory miRNAs**

489 Several other miRNAs have been implicated in placental dysfunction by regulating
490 proliferation, invasion, or invasion of trophoblastic-like cell lines, and by reducing
491 *ERRγ* expression in other cell lines, these include miR-378a-5p, miR-424, miR-377,
492 and miR-204-5p (Eichner et al., 2010, Cheng et al., 2018, Zou et al., 2019). miR-378a-
493 5p inhibits both mRNA and protein levels of *ERRγ* in the breast cancer cell line, BT-
494 474 (Eichner et al., 2010); it also enhances the invasion and migration of HTR8/SVneo
495 cells and reduces BeWo cell differentiation (Luo et al., 2012, Nadeem et al., 2014).
496 miR-424 expression was increased in FGR placentas (Huang et al., 2013) and miR-424
497 overexpression inhibited protein expression of *ERRγ* in HTR/8SVneo cells. However,
498 this study did not identify a regulatory relationship between miR-424 and the 3'-UTR
499 of *ERRγ*, thus more in-depth studies of miR-424 are required in the future (Zou et al.,
500 2019).

501 miR-377 is more highly expressed in human term placentas compared with first-
502 trimester placentas, and overexpression of miR-377 in the first-trimester placental
503 explants reduced cytotrophoblast proliferation (Farrokhnia et al., 2014). Furthermore,
504 miR-377 inhibits the expression levels of *SIRT-1* in human retinal endothelial cells;
505 taking into account the reported interaction between *ERRγ* and *SIRT-1* in the human

506 placenta, miR-377 may also regulate *ERRγ* expression (Cui et al., 2019). As
507 overexpression of miR-204-5p reduced the invasion of BeWo cells and JEG3 cells (Yu
508 et al., 2015), and miR-204-5p overexpression reduced the differentiation of C1C12
509 myoblast cells by directly targeting 3'-UTR of *ERRγ*, this data suggest that a direct
510 regulatory relationship may also exist between miR-204-5p and *ERRγ* in the placenta
511 (Cheng et al., 2018). Since the above studies only used cell lines to assess trophoblast
512 function, more data derived from primary placental models are needed; specifically
513 those that focus on the relationship between individual miRNAs, *ERRγ* and its
514 downstream effectors, and their roles in the etiology of FGR; these relationships have
515 been summarized in Figure 3.

516 Manipulation of the expression of miRNAs upstream of *ERRγ* may represent an
517 additional approach to correct placental dysfunction; accumulating studies *in vivo* and
518 *in vitro* indicate the possibility of developing an inverse agonist of *ERRγ* as a promising
519 treatment for *ERRγ*-related anaplastic thyroid cancer, breast cancer, and type 2 diabetes
520 (Kim et al., 2019, Kim et al., 2012, Vernier et al., 2020). Our group has demonstrated
521 that targeted miRNA inhibitors can be used to selectively manipulate placental function:
522 targeted inhibition of trophoblast miR-145 and miR-675 expression promoted
523 cytotrophoblast proliferation in human first-trimester villous placental explants and
524 increased fetal and placental weight when administered intravenously to pregnant mice
525 (Beards et al., 2017). Therefore, exploring the regulatory pathway of *ERRγ* in the human
526 placenta could inform the development of potential new therapeutic approaches for
527 pregnancy complications involving placental dysfunction, like FGR or preeclampsia.

528 **4.0 Summary**

529 Even though many studies have focused on the pathogenesis of placental dysfunction
530 underlying FGR and preeclampsia, the precise pathophysiological mechanisms and
531 biochemical pathways in the placenta are still unclear, which limits options for
532 therapeutic discovery, making a better understanding of the underpinning placental
533 pathways a priority. The most obvious changes in the placenta in FGR and preeclampsia

534 include abnormal trophoblast function, increased cell death, altered metabolism and
535 nutrient transport, hypoxia and oxidative stress, and aberrant villous structure. Since
536 *ERRγ* is highly expressed in the human normal term placenta, and it holds key roles in
537 the regulation of cell invasion, differentiation, cellular energy homeostasis, hypoxic
538 responses and metabolism, we argue that involvement of the *ERRγ* pathway in the
539 placental dysfunction underlying FGR and preeclampsia is plausible, and thorough
540 exploration may offer new therapeutic options. In support of this hypothesis, several
541 studies have revealed significantly lower levels of *ERRγ* mRNA and protein in the
542 human placenta in FGR, and *ERRγ* can regulate the invasion and proliferation of human
543 trophoblast cell lines. Furthermore, additional evidence of disruption of both upstream
544 regulators and downstream effectors of *ERRγ* provides evidence that the pathway is
545 intact, and functions as expected in the human placenta. These data highlight that *ERRγ*
546 may be involved in the development and pathogenesis of placental dysfunction by
547 influencing trophoblast function and further studies of the regulation of this pathway
548 are needed. By better understanding the intrinsic role of *ERRγ* as a regulator of
549 trophoblast function, metabolism, and cell turnover, this in turn might provide new
550 ideas for the treatment of placental dysfunction underpinning FGR and preeclampsia in
551 the future.

552

553 **Declaration of interest**

554 There is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality
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556

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560

561 **Author contribution statement**

562 ZZ, LKH, KF, and AEPH conceived and designed the research. ZZ drafted the
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564

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566

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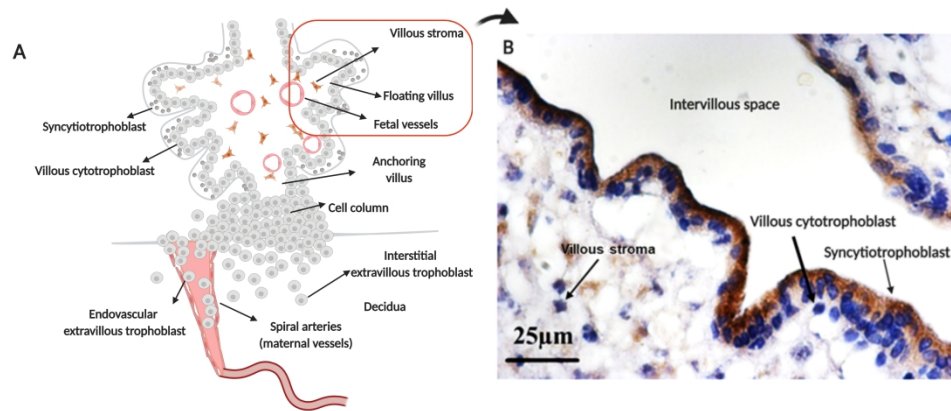


Figure 1. Schematic showing villous structure, trophoblast lineages and ERR γ localization in the human placenta.

386x160mm (300 x 300 DPI)

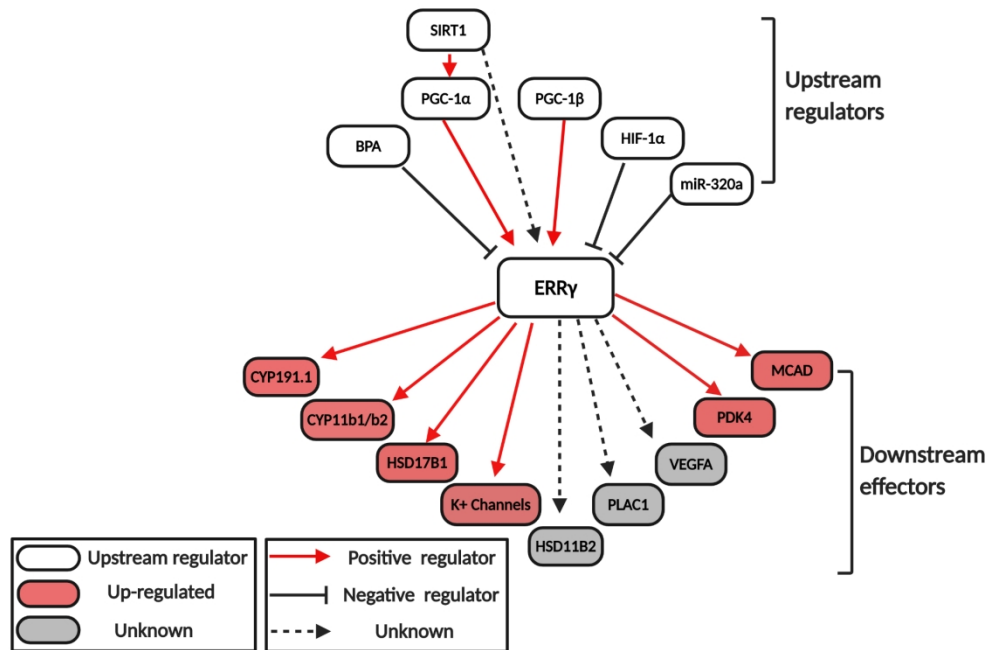


Figure 2. Diagrammatic representation of known upstream regulators and downstream effectors of ERRγ in the placenta.

175x118mm (300 x 300 DPI)

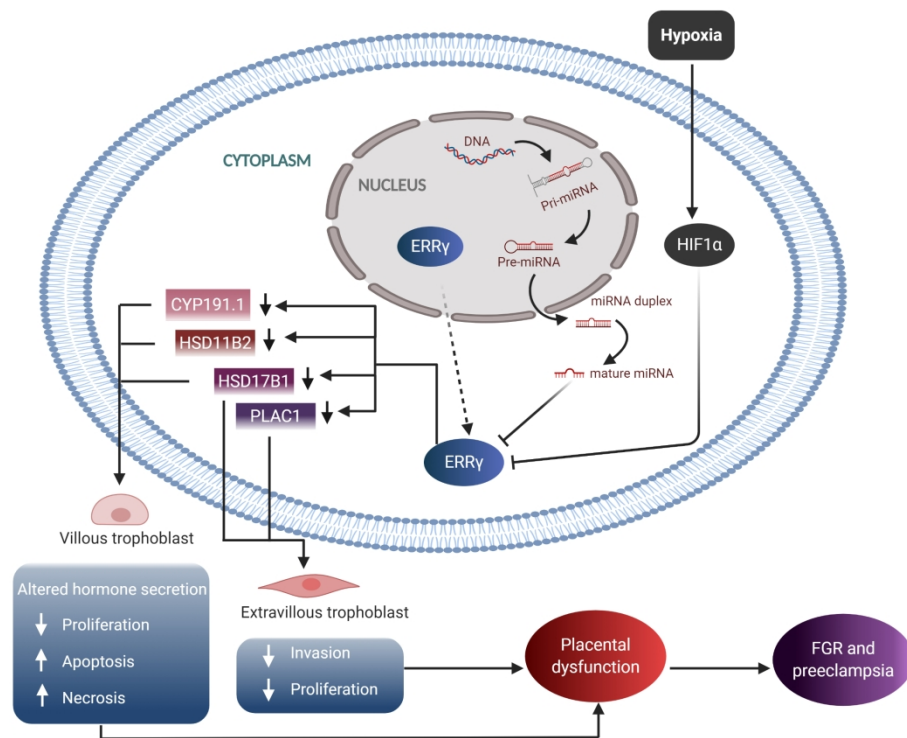


Figure 3. Proposed mechanism by which placental ERR γ expression and function is altered in pregnancies complicated by FGR and preeclampsia.

218x169mm (300 x 300 DPI)

Figure 1. Schematic showing villous structure, trophoblast lineages and *ERRγ* localization in the human placenta. Figure 1A: Extravillous trophoblast that are situated at the end of the cell column invade the decidua and remodel the maternal spiral arterioles to produce dilated and compliant uterine vessels. Villous cytotrophoblast differentiates and fuses to form the outer multinucleated syncytiotrophoblast which transports nutrients and gases from the maternal to fetal circulation. Figure 1B light micrograph showing immunostaining of *ERRγ* in first trimester placental explants. *ERRγ* is mainly observed in the cytoplasm of the syncytiotrophoblast and cytotrophoblast. Arrows indicate villous cytotrophoblast, syncytiotrophoblast and villous stroma. Scale bar represents 25μm.

Figure 2. Diagrammatic representation of known upstream regulators and downstream effectors of *ERRγ* in the placenta. Expression of the depicted genes is known to be altered in the FGR or preeclampsia placenta, where a red arrow indicates a positive effect and a black line indicates a negative effect. Meanwhile, a black dot arrow suggests an unclear relationship between *ERRγ* and downstream effectors. *CYP11b1*: cytochrome P450 family 11 subfamily B member 1; *HSD11B2*: hydroxysteroid 11-beta dehydrogenase 2; *HSD17B1*: hydroxysteroid 17-beta dehydrogenase 1; *PLAC1*: placenta-specific 1; *VEGFA*: vascular endothelial growth factor A; *PDK4*: pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4; *MCAD*: medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase; BPA: bisphenol A; *PCG-1α/β*: peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ coactivator-1 alpha/beta; *HIF-1α*: Hypoxia-inducible factor 1-alpha.

Figure 3. Proposed mechanism by which placental *ERRγ* expression and function is altered in pregnancies complicated by FGR and preeclampsia. The hypoxic environment of the maternofetal interface in FGR results in upregulation and activation of *HIF1α* in the placenta, resulting in inhibition of *ERRγ* expression. The expression of several miRNAs is upregulated in FGR and we propose that amongst these are key *ERRγ* regulatory miRNAs. Binding of these miRNAs to the 3'UTR of *ERRγ* results in mRNA degradation and inhibition of *ERRγ* protein translation. This leads to reduced

expression of genes downstream of *ERRγ*, including *CYP19*, *HSD17B1*, *HSD11B2* and *PLAC1*. These downstream genes play an important role in placental hormone production and regulating different aspects of cytotrophoblast function, including villous cytotrophoblast proliferation and extravillous trophoblast invasion.

Table 1. Relationship of *ERRγ* to upstream regulators and downstream effectors demonstrated in studies of placenta.

	Tissue/cell type/subject	Reference	Study Methods	Main finding	Influence on trophoblast function	Definition of FGR / preeclampsia (where applicable)
Downstream						
<i>hCYP19</i>	Mid-trimester primary cytotrophoblasts	Kumar & Mendelson (2011)	RT-PCR; WB; ChIP;	<i>ERRγ</i> is an oxygen-dependent transcription factor and mediates <i>hCYP19</i> expression in trophoblast differentiation.	Differentiation	
<i>Cyp11b1</i>	Late-onset PE placenta; Mouse model	Luo <i>et al.</i> (2014)	RT-PCR; IHC; WB; ChIP; LRA	<i>ERRγ</i> is increased in placenta in PE and can influence the blood pressure in pregnant mice by targeting <i>Cyp11b1</i> .	Reduced production of aldosterone	PE defined as maternal blood pressure ($\geq 140/90$ mmHg) and proteinuria (proteinuria ≥ 300 mg per 24 hours or $\geq 1+$ protein by dipstick from 2 random urine specimens or $\geq 2+$ protein by 1 dipstick) after 20 weeks of gestation.
Potassium (K^+) channels	Mid-trimester primary trophoblast cells; Term FGR placenta	Luo <i>et al.</i> (2013); Corcoran <i>et al.</i> (2008)	RT-PCR; WB; ChIP; LRA; Whole-genome gene expression arrays	Hypoxia inhibits the expression of <i>ERRγ</i> and K^+ channels; <i>ERRγ</i> can regulate K^+ channels that may be	Differentiation	FGR defined as the individualized birth weight ratio (IBR) ≤ 5 th centile for gestational age.

					<p>associated with PE and identified three <i>ERRγ</i> potential effectors, including <i>HSD11B2</i>, <i>HSD17B1</i>, and <i>PLAC1</i>;</p> <p>Oxygen-sensitive K⁺ channel gene K_v9.3 was increased in FGR placenta and K_v2.1 was increased in FGR placental vein</p>		
<i>HSD11B2</i>	<p>Cytotrophoblast from mid-trimester placenta;</p> <p>Early-onset FGR placenta (n=15) and later-onset FGR placentas (n=4)</p>	<p>McTernan <i>et al.</i> (2001); Luo <i>et al.</i> (2013)</p>	RT-PCR	<p><i>HSD11B2</i> mRNA is decreased in <i>ERRγ</i> knockdown mid-trimester cytotrophoblasts.</p> <p><i>HSD11B2</i> is decreased in both early-onset and later-onset FGR placentas, when compared with gestational matched normal placentas.</p>	Not reported	<p>FGR are diagnosed with at least three of four following ultrasound features: 1) fetal abdominal circumference \leq 3rd centile for weeks of gestation, 2) abnormal fetal growth velocity 3) severe oligohydramnios (amniotic fluid index \leq 3rd percentile for gestational age), 4) absent or reversed velocities in umbilical artery Doppler waveforms.</p>	

	<i>PLAC1</i>	Placental villi of the human first trimester and term placenta	Chang <i>et al.</i> (2016)	RT-PCR; IHC; WB	<i>PLAC1</i> is increased during the trophoblast differentiation and low expression inhibits the cell fusion.	Differentiation	FGR were diagnosed as a fetus with reduced growth velocity, which is less than 10 th centile after 20 gestational weeks.
		Later-onset FGR placenta	Sifakis <i>et al.</i> (2018)	RT-PCR	<i>PLAC1</i> is increased in FGR placenta.	Not reported	
	<i>HSD17B1</i>	Late-onset FGR placenta; HTR-8 cell lines	Zhu <i>et al.</i> (2018)	RT-PCR; IHC; WB; LRA	<i>ERRγ</i> can regulate <i>HSD17B1</i> that is associated with FGR	Decrease invasion; proliferation	FGR defined as estimated fetal weight is less than 10 th centile.
	<i>VEGFA</i>	Mouse model	Luo <i>et al.</i> (2014)	RT-PCR	The expression of <i>VEGFA</i> is decreased in <i>ERRγ</i> deficient mice placenta	No detection reported	
	<i>PDK4</i>	Primary trophoblast Bewo cell line	Poidatz <i>et al.</i> (2012)	RT-PCR, IHC	The expression of <i>ERRγ</i> is increased during trophoblast differentiation; <i>PDK4</i> is decreased after inhibiting <i>ERRγ</i> expression.	Differentiation	
	<i>MCAD</i>	First trimester human primary cytotrophoblast; Bewo cell line	Poidatz <i>et al.</i> (2012)	RT-PCR, IHC	<i>MCAD</i> is decreased after inhibiting <i>ERRγ</i> expression.	Differentiation	

Upstream							
	BPA	Placentas from low birth weight infant; 587 children	Troisi <i>et al.</i> (2014); Miao <i>et al.</i> (2011)	GC-MS analysis, Interview	Negative relationship between BPA and fetal weight; <i>ERRγ</i> is a receptor of BPA in the placenta.	Not reported	Low birth weight defined as the infant weight less than 2500g at birth;
	<i>PGC-1α</i>	FGR and PE placenta; Late-onset FGR placenta	Poidatz <i>et al.</i> (2015)	IHC, RT-PCR, Quantification Mitochondrial DNA	In FGR and PE placenta, the expression of <i>ERRγ</i> , <i>PGC-1α</i> and <i>SIRT1</i> is decreased.	No detection reported	FGR defined as a birth weight less than 10 th centile. PE was diagnosed as an elevated maternal blood pressure (systolic and diastolic blood pressure $\geq 140/90$ mmHg) and proteinuria (≥ 300 mg per 24 hours) after 20 weeks of gestation.
	<i>SIRT1</i>	FGR and PE placenta; Late-onset FGR placenta	Poidatz <i>et al.</i> (2015)	IHC, RT-PCR, Quantification Mitochondrial DNA	In FGR and PE placenta, the expression of <i>ERRγ</i> , <i>PGC-1α</i> and <i>SIRT1</i> is decreased.	No detection	FGR defined as a birth weight less than 10 th centile. The definition of PE has been mentioned in the part of <i>PCG-1α</i> .
	MiR-320a	Late-onset PE placenta; HTR-	Gao <i>et al.</i> (2018)	RT-PCR; IHC; WB; LRA	MiR-320a regulates <i>ERRγ</i> in PE	Decreased invasion;	PE defined as increased diastolic and systolic maternal

		8/SVneo				No change in proliferation and migration	blood pressure with proteinuria.
		HTR-8/SVneo; HUVECs	Liu <i>et al.</i> (2018)	RT-PCR; WB; LRA	MiR-320a directly target <i>ERRγ</i> and may indirectly control the expression of <i>VEGFA</i> to influence the function of both trophoblast and vein endothelial cells.	Decreased invasion, proliferation and migration; Increase in apoptosis	
	<i>HIF-1α</i>	Mid-trimester primary trophoblast cells	Kumar & Mendelson (2011)	RT-PCR; WB; ChIP assay	<i>HIF-1α</i> can mediate <i>ERRγ</i> expression in trophoblast differentiation	Differentiation	

ERRγ, estrogen related receptor γ ; *hCYP19*, cytochrome P-450; RT-PCR, reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; WB, western blot; CHIP, chromatin immunoprecipitation; FGR, fetal growth restriction; *CYP11b1*, cytochrome P450 family 11 subfamily B member 1; IHC, immunohistochemistry; LRA, luciferase reporter assay; PE, preeclampsia; *HSD11B2*, hydroxysteroid 11-beta dehydrogenase 2; *HSD17B1*, hydroxysteroid 17-beta dehydrogenase 1; *PLAC1*, placenta-specific 1; *VEGFA*, vascular endothelial growth factor A; *PDK4*, pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4; SGA, small for gestational age; *MCAD*, medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase; BPA, bisphenol A; GC-MS, gas chromatography-mass spectrometry; *PCG-1α*, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ coactivator-1 alpha; HUVECs, human umbilical vein endothelial cells; *HIF-1α*, Hypoxia-inducible factor 1-alpha.