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1	Raman spectroscopic techniques to detect ovarian cancer
2	biomarkers in blood plasma
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25 Abstract

Robust diagnosis of ovarian cancer is crucial to improve patient outcomes. The lack of a single 26 27 and accurate diagnostic approach necessitates the advent of novel methods in the field. In the present study, two spectroscopic techniques, Raman and surface-enhanced Raman 28 29 spectroscopy (SERS) using silver nanoparticles, have been employed to identify signatures linked to cancer in blood. Blood plasma samples were collected from 27 patients with ovarian 30 cancer and 28 with benign gynecological conditions, the majority of which had a prolapse. 31 32 Early ovarian cancer cases were also included in the cohort (n=17). The derived information was processed to account for differences between cancerous and healthy individuals and a 33 support vector machine (SVM) algorithm was applied for classification. A subgroup analysis 34 35 using CA-125 levels was also conducted to rule out that the observed segregation was due to 36 CA-125 differences between patients and controls. Both techniques provided satisfactory diagnostic accuracy for the detection of ovarian cancer, with spontaneous Raman achieving 37 38 94% sensitivity and 96% specificity and SERS 87% sensitivity and 89% specificity. For early ovarian cancer, Raman achieved sensitivity and specificity of 93% and 97%, respectively, 39 while SERS had 80% sensitivity and 94% specificity. Five spectral biomarkers were detected 40 41 by both techniques and could be utilised as a panel of markers indicating carcinogenesis. CA-125 levels did not seem to undermine the high classification accuracies. This minimally 42 43 invasive test may provide an alternative diagnostic and screening tool for ovarian cancer that is superior to other established blood-based biomarkers. 44

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48 Keywords: Ovarian cancer; diagnostics; biospectroscopy; Raman; SERS

49 Introduction

Ovarian cancer is frequently discovered at a late stage due to non-specific 50 51 symptomatology. More than 70% of ovarian cancer patients are diagnosed at an advanced state (stage IV) when the five-year survival rate is 25% [1]. Ideally, disease should be diagnosed 52 promptly and at an early stage (stage I), when cancer is completely confined to the ovaries, as 53 stages II, III and IV are considered advanced with cancer being spread outside the ovaries into 54 the pelvis (e.g., fallopian tubes, bladder or rectum), abdominal cavity (e.g., lining of the 55 56 abdomen or lymph nodes) and other distinct organs (e.g., lungs), respectively [2]. As a consequence, the five-year survival rate of stage II patients is increased to 70%, while for stage 57 I patients it is further increased to 90% [1, 3]. 58

59 Screening or diagnostic tests for ovarian cancer comprise of cancer antigen CA-125 alone, ultrasound imaging of the ovaries or a combination. These tests have different screening 60 utility depending on whether they are applied in low or high risk populations. However neither, 61 even in combination, have robust levels of diagnostic accuracy [4, 5]. A variety of blood tests 62 have also been developed with CA 19-9, human epididymis protein 4 (HE4), apolipoprotein 63 64 A1 (ApoA1), insulin growth factor II (IGF-II) and transferrin being some of them [6-9]. However, most of these individual biomarker tests yield unacceptable diagnostic accuracies 65 which render them unsuitable for clinical use. Recent strategies attempt to combine a number 66 67 of these tests to achieve superior performance.

Raman spectroscopy has been used extensively in cancer diagnostics utilising a variety of samples (*e.g.*, cells, tissues or biological fluids). Other diagnostic techniques, such as optical coherence tomography, fluorescence microscopy or nonlinear microscopy could also be used for diagnostic purposes, however Raman spectroscopy has been shown in many cases to provide better results [10]. Cervical, skin, breast, oral and brain cancers, as well as other diseases, are some of the wide applications of Raman, facilitating disease detection/monitoring

or even intraoperative assessment of surgical margins [11-19]. Moreover, previous 74 spectroscopic studies have successfully investigated ovarian tissue post-surgery and showed 75 76 significant differences between normal and malignant cases [20-22]. However, the use of 77 biological fluids, such as blood samples, are numerous: minimally-invasive collection, easier sample preparation and collection of serial samples from the same participants, just to name a 78 few [23, 24]. Raman spectroscopy investigates the phenomenon of inelastic light scattering that 79 80 is caused after the interaction of light with matter. The sample's electrons first get excited to a virtual state and then fall back to their original energy level either by losing or by gaining 81 82 energy. The generated shift in energy is characteristic for specific biomolecules such as proteins, lipids and nucleic acids, providing thus invaluable information for a biological 83 84 sample.

Raman scattering is inherently weak and, therefore, enhancement techniques have been developed to increase the derived signal [25]. Surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS) is one of the commonly applied methods which utilises rough metallic surfaces or nanostructures (*e.g.*, silver or gold nanoparticles) to increase the Raman signal by 10^3 - 10^{10} times. SERS exploits the great electromagnetic field enhancement that is caused by oscillations of surface electrons, called surface plasmons [26]. This allows detection of molecules at low concentration and can partly account for fluorescence that may distort the spectra [15, 27].

The main objective of this study was to use blood spectroscopy in order to assess the diagnostic accuracy for ovarian cancer in women with both early- and late-stage cancer, which has not been previously attempted. Extraction of differential spectral biomarkers was also performed and tentative assignments were made for the development of a panel of diagnostic markers. An important confounding factor, which has not been taken into account in previous spectroscopic studies, and could lead to falsified classification between cancer and healthy controls was the CA-125 level; therefore its effect on the spectral results has been now 99 calculated in a separate subgroup analysis. To the best of our knowledge this is also the first
100 study employing both Raman and SERS to investigate the effect of the enhanced approach in
101 the diagnostic accuracy – does increased signal necessarily imply improved diagnostic
102 accuracy as well?

103 Materials and Methods

104 **Population**

This study included 27 women with ovarian cancer (17/27 stage I) and 28 women with 105 benign gynecological conditions or a prolapse. All specimens were collected with ethical 106 approval obtained at Royal Preston Hospital UK (16/EE/0010). Mean-age was 68 years for the 107 108 cancer group and 56 years for the non-cancer group. More information about the cohort characteristics can be found in Table 1; more detailed information about each participant is 109 110 given in Table S1 [see Supplementary Information (SI)]. Age difference between the different 111 groups was also taken into account to demonstrate whether it affected the spectral results, and therefore the diagnostic accuracy (see SI Fig. S1). Women who were on Tamoxifen have been 112 excluded. 113

114 CA-125 measurement

CA-125 levels were determined in blood serum samples for both the ovarian cancer patients 115 and healthy individuals. This test, is a two-site sandwich immunoassay using 116 electrochemiluminescence (ECL) technology which uses monoclonal antibodies (Elecsys CA 117 125 II, Roche Diagnostics GmbH). The system (Roche Cobas 8000) automatically dispenses 118 20 µl of sample into a cuvette and then dispenses a biotinylated CA125-specific antibody and 119 a CA125-specific antibody labelled with ruthenium complex react to form a sandwich complex. 120 Streptavidin microparticles are then added and the complex becomes bound to the solid phase 121 *via* the interaction of biotin and streptavidin. The reaction mixture is aspirated in to the reaction 122

cell where the microparticles are magnetically captured onto the surface of the electrode. 123 Unbound substances are then removed with Procell solution. Application of a voltage to the 124 electrode induces the chemiluminescent emission, which is measured by the photomultiplier; 125 the results are then determined via a calibration curve. A direct relationship exists between the 126 amount of CA-125 in sample and the amount of photons detected by the system. The reference 127 range of CA-125 is 0-35 units/ml (0-35 kU/L), with values >35 kU/L indicating an increased 128 129 probability for residual or recurrent ovarian cancer in patients treated for primary epithelial 130 ovarian cancer.

131 Blood plasma preparation for spontaneous Raman and SERS analysis

Whole blood was collected into EDTA tubes, centrifuged at 2000 rpm for 10 min to 132 remove the cells (erythrocytes, white blood cells and platelets) from plasma. The supernatant 133 was then collected and stored at -80°C and thawed at room temperature prior to spectroscopic 134 interrogation. After the samples were thawed, 50 μ L were deposited directly on aluminium foil 135 slides and left to air-dry. In order to employ SERS as an enhancement method, silver 136 nanoparticles (AgNPs), with a diameter of 100 nm, were used (nanoComposix, Inc., San 137 Diego). The stock solution (mass concentration: 1.02 mg/ml) was diluted in phosphate buffered 138 saline (PBS); 1 µl AgNPs was diluted in 100 µl PBS. Fifty µl of the diluted solution were mixed 139 with 50 µl of the biological fluid and the resulting mixture (100 µl) was then deposited on 140 141 aluminium foil slides and was again left to air-dry at room temperature before Raman spectra were acquired. 142

143 Spectral acquisition

The experimental settings were kept the same for both Raman and SERS analysis. Spectra were collected with an InVia Renishaw Raman spectrometer coupled with a chargecoupled device (CCD) detector and a Leica microscope. A 785 nm laser was used with a 1200 l/mm grating and the system was calibrated to 520.5 cm⁻¹ by using a silicon source before every run. Seven point spectra were acquired per sample using a $50 \times$ objective, 10 second exposure time, 5% laser power and 2 accumulations in the spectral range of 2000-400 cm⁻¹ to achieve optimum spectral quality.

151 Spectral pre-processing and classification

Spectra were evaluated during collection and any cosmic rays were removed by using 152 WiRe software. An 153 the Renishaw in-house developed IRootLab toolbox (http://trevisanj.github.io/irootlab/) was then implemented within MATLAB environment 154 (MathWorks, Natick, USA) for further pre-processing and classification of the data. An initial 155 pre-processing phase is required to deal with any background noise or non-biological 156 variability associated with spectral acquisition or instrumentation. Herein, all spectra were 157 firstly truncated to the biological region (1800-500 cm⁻¹), wavelet denoised, polynomial 158 159 baseline corrected and vector normalized. All of these steps are standard in the Raman analysis of biological samples in order to generate noise-free spectra with conventional appearance [27]. 160 Difference-between-mean (DBM) spectra was also performed to extract potential biomarkers 161 162 by subtracting the mean spectra of two classes (*i.e.*, ovarian cancer patients and controls); a 163 peak detection algorithm was implemented to identify the ten most segregating peaks.

Support vector machine (SVM) is a supervised machine-learning technique for creating 164 a classification function from training data. Some of the criteria for the choice of classifier 165 include the achieved diagnostic accuracy, as well as training and computational time [28]. For 166 SVM implementation, the already pre-processed dataset was further normalized (to the [0, 1] 167 range) in order to put all the variables on the same scale. We used the Gaussian kernel SVM, 168 which implies that there are two parameters to be tuned to the value that gives best 169 classification: c and gamma [29]. The optimal tuning parameters were found using grid search 170 (5-fold cross-validation) and then used to calculate the sensitivity and specificity for the 171 different comparisons [29, 30]. Sensitivity is defined as the probability of a test being positive 172

when the disease is present, while specificity is defined as the probability that a test will benegative at the absence of disease; they were calculated by the following equations:

175 Sensitivity(%) =
$$\frac{TP}{TP+FN} \times 100$$
 (1)

176 Specificity(%) =
$$\frac{TN}{TN+FP} \times 100$$
 (2)

where TP is defined as true positive; FN as false negative; TN as true negative; and FP as falsepositive.

179 Statistical analysis

The common peaks that were found to differentiate the classes in both Raman and SERS, after the implementation of the DBM algorithm, were further analyzed in GraphPad Prism 7.0 (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). A student's t-test (non-parametric, two-tailed, 95% confidence interval (CI)) was performed to account for statistical significance with a *P*-value of 0.05 or less being considered significant. Statistical analysis was carried out on averaged spectra in order to account for differences between individuals and not spectra.

186 Availability of data

187 All data (raw and pre-processed spectra) along with appropriate code identifiers will be188 uploaded onto the publicly accessible data repository Figshare.

189 Results

The enhancement effect of SERS is shown in Fig. 1; after the addition of the AgNPs solution in the blood samples, the Raman signal is notably increased as the silver nanostructures are closely adsorbed to the biomolecules present in the plasma (Fig. 1B). The spectral differences between Raman and SERS spectra were expected and can be attributed to the complex nature of the samples, as well as the nonspecific binding of the nanoparticles to the biomolecules.

The classification algorithm was performed in both datasets, spontaneous Raman and 196 SERS, to calculate the sensitivity and specificity rates with which these methods can 197 distinguish ovarian cancer patients (n=27) and healthy individuals (n=28). For the Raman 198 dataset the achieved sensitivity and specificity were 94% and 96%, respectively (Fig. 2A); for 199 the SERS dataset sensitivity and specificity were 87% and 89%, respectively. After the DBM 200 implementation, ten peaks responsible for the differentiation, were selected; out of those, five 201 202 peaks were picked up by both and Raman and SERS and, therefore, these were used for further statistical analysis (Fig. 3A and 3B). The five peaks that were selected with Raman 203 spectroscopy were: 1657 cm⁻¹ (Amide I, P = 0.0158; 95% CI = 0.00049 to 0.00471), 1418 cm⁻¹ 204 ¹ (CH₂ in lipids, P = 0.0034; 95% CI = 0.00061 to 0.00334), 1301 cm⁻¹ (CH₂ in lipids, P =205 0.0612; 95% CI = -0.00379 to 0.00007), 1242 cm⁻¹ (Amide III, P = 0.0103; 95% CI = -0.00521 206 to -0.00066) and 916 cm⁻¹ (amino acids/carbohydrates, P = 0.0024; 95% CI = 0.00111 to 207 0.0047), while with SERS: 1655 cm⁻¹ (Amide I, P = 0.0351; 95% CI = -0.0117 to -0.0005), 208 1429 cm⁻¹ (CH₂ in lipids, P = 0.066; 95% CI = -0.00049 to 0.00873), 1302 cm⁻¹ (CH₂ in lipids, 209 P = 0.0882; 95% CI = -0.00825 to 0.00079), 1257 cm⁻¹ (Amide III, P = 0.0003; 95% CI = -210 0.00916 to -0.00283) and 919 cm⁻¹ (amino acids/carbohydrates, P = 0.0004; 95% CI = -0.0067 211 to -0.00163). 212

In order to show that the achieved accuracy was not just due to the difference in the 213 214 CA-125 levels between cancer patients and healthy individuals, we also performed the SVM classification after taking into account the different protein levels. Sensitivity and specificity 215 remained exceptionally high: Raman yielded 99% sensitivity and 85% specificity after 216 comparing individuals with CA-125>35 (Fig. 4A), as well as 78% sensitivity and 99% 217 specificity for individuals with CA-125<35 (Fig. 4B); SERS achieved sensitivity and 218 specificity of 96% and 74%, respectively, for the group with CA-125>35 (Fig. 4C), as well as 219 72% sensitivity and 97% specificity for the CA-125<35 group (Fig. 4D). Similarly, we 220

considered the age difference between the different groups using the spectra from the 221 spontaneous Raman spectroscopy only (as these provided better results in the previous 222 223 analyses). The average age of women diagnosed with endometrial cancer is 60 and therefore we considered this as our threshold value. Re-arranging according to age, we had the below 224 cohorts: OC \geq 60 years (*n*=20), Control \geq 60 years (*n*=10), OC <60 years (*n*=7), Control <60 225 years (n=19). After following the same pre-processing and multivariate analysis as previous, 226 227 we achieved 98% sensitivity and 90% specificity for the older group (≥ 60 years) as well as 79% sensitivity and 97% specificity for the younger group (<60 years) (see SI Fig. S1). 228

Raman and SERS were also used to detect the early ovarian cancer cases (*n*=17) and assess their diagnostic performance. Spontaneous Raman spectroscopy achieved 93% sensitivity and 97% specificity (Fig. 5A), while SERS achieved 80% sensitivity and 94% specificity (Fig. 5B).

233 Discussion

Although there has been a great effort in developing biomarkers for the early diagnosis 234 of ovarian cancer, there is still no robust method to achieve this. This study has demonstrated 235 the effectiveness of Raman spectroscopic methods toward the diagnosis of ovarian cancer 236 patients, including early cases. Herein, blood plasma samples were used as a minimally 237 238 invasive way of specimen collection. Blood biospectroscopy, with either infrared (IR) or Raman, has been previously evaluated in gynecological malignancy. Specifically, IR analysis 239 240 of plasma and serum was applied to diagnose ovarian and endometrial cancers, providing remarkable accuracy (~97% for ovarian and ~82% for endometrial cancer) [31]; SERS analysis 241 of plasma achieved 97% sensitivity and 92% specificity for the segregation of cervical cancer 242 cases from normals [32]; cervical cancer and precancer were also detected with serum sample 243 244 Raman spectroscopy [33]; both IR and spontaneous Raman were used to analyze blood plasma

and serum towards the diagnosis of ovarian cancer, yielding 93% accuracy for IR spectra and 245 74% for Raman spectra of plasma [34]; Raman spectroscopy also showed promising results for 246 ovarian cancer diagnosis in 11 patients with the disease, reaching 90% sensitivity and 100% 247 specificity [10]; more recently, it was demonstrated that SERS was able to diagnose 248 endometrial cancer in a pilot study using plasma and serum [35]. Some of the limitations of the 249 above-mentioned studies include either the small number of samples or the absence of a 250 251 subgroup analysis detecting early stage cases, as well as the lack of CA-125 information as a confounding factor in ovarian cancer. All of these issues have been adequately addressed in 252 253 the present study. By using a satisfactory number of samples (almost 30 participants in each cohort), we managed to accurately detect both early- and late-stage ovarian cancer cases, which 254 has not been previously shown. 255

In order to overcome the limitation of low signal in spontaneous Raman, SERS using 256 AgNPs was also employed. Another advantage coming with the use of NPs is that they can be 257 258 used for more specialised analysis if conjugated with targeting biomolecules, such as antibodies [36]. SERS has been shown to substantially increase the Raman signal and be beneficial for 259 single-molecule detection; however, at the same time it presents with a number of limitations, 260 such as lack of reproducibility and preferential metal-molecule binding, which leads to 261 localised enhancement. This may be the reason for the decreased diagnostic accuracy when 262 263 compared to spontaneous Raman. The preferential enhancement and lack of repeatability in SERS are also reflected by the increased standard deviation in the class means (Fig. 2B). 264 Sensitivities and specificities were substantially high in both SERS (87% and 89%, 265 respectively) and spontaneous Raman (94% and 96%, respectively), with SERS possibly being 266 more sensitive as a biomarker extraction technique. 267

Another plausible explanation for the decreased accuracy in SERS is the use of EDTA during plasma collection. EDTA is a molecule for complexing metal ions and it has been found that its carboxylate groups can bind to nanoparticles surface and be responsible for the generation of new spectral bands [37]. This could potentially obscure the detection of the biological information in the derived spectra. Common anticoagulants used in plasma tubes, such as EDTA and citrate, have been previously found to interfere with SERS spectra; this was suggested to be dealt by the use of serum samples or lithium heparin as the anticoagulant [38].

275 Blood and its constituents are an invaluable source of information, reflecting alterations in the circulation that can be indicative of a change in health status. Recently, circulating 276 tumour DNA (ctDNA) has attracted much attention as a blood biomarker for early and late 277 stage malignancies, introducing an era of "liquid biopsies" [39, 40]. Also, cell-free DNA 278 (cfDNA), reflecting both normal and ctDNA that is released after cellular necrosis and 279 apoptosis, has been previously found significantly increased in the plasma samples of ovarian 280 cancer patients [41]. A recent systematic review and meta-analysis of nine studies (including 281 462 ovarian cancer and 407 controls) concluded that cfDNA diagnosed ovarian cancer with 282 283 70% sensitivity and 90% specificity and suggested further validation and/or combination with other available biomarkers to improve the diagnostic accuracy [42]. Another study has also 284 shown that ctDNA biomarkers could detect residual tumour, as well as predict response to 285 treatment and survival in ovarian and endometrial cancer cases [43]. With all this in mind, it is 286 quite possible that ctDNA fragments also contributed to the considerably high diagnostic 287 288 accuracy in this spectroscopic study.

Another scope of the current study was to extract spectral biomarkers, responsible for the differentiation between the malignant and healthy individuals. Each spectral peak corresponds to chemical bonds which are present in specific biomolecules; thus, one can tentatively assign a number of disease biomarkers. To achieve this, the difference between ovarian cancer and control spectra was calculated and the ten most discriminating peaks were selected with a peak-detection algorithm; both Raman and SERS revealed five peaks in

common and these were chosen for further statistical analysis (Fig. 3). The common peaks 295 were correlated to proteins (Amide I and Amide III), lipids and amino acids/carbohydrates. 296 Surprisingly, two out of five spectral regions (~1657-1655 cm⁻¹ and ~919-916 cm⁻¹) showed 297 inconsistency between the two spectroscopic approaches; Amide I region was decreased for 298 ovarian cancer patients after Raman spectroscopy, while after SERS the same region was 299 increased. Similarly, the amino acid/carbohydrate region was found decreased in ovarian 300 301 cancer after Raman and increased after SERS. However, due to the fact that SERS increases significantly the signal of specific peaks, allowing thus more detailed assessment, it is possibly 302 303 a more sensitive method for biomarker extraction.

More than 160 proteins have been reported to be differentially expressed in ovarian 304 cancer, with some being upregulated, such as CA-125, CA19-9, HE4 or mesothelin, and other 305 being downregulated, such as epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) and ApoA1 [44]. 306 Amide I (~1650 cm⁻¹) and Amide III (~1300 cm⁻¹) bands represent protein molecules and are 307 mainly associated with the C=O stretching and C-N stretching/N-H bending vibrations, 308 respectively. The increased level of Amide I and Amide III in ovarian cancer patients after 309 SERS, may correlate with the changes occurring due to the overexpressed proteins. The 310 spectral bands indicative of lipids were both decreased (1429 cm⁻¹) and increased (1302 cm⁻¹) 311 in the ovarian cancer group, which is also backed by previous studies showing a dysregulation 312 313 of lipid metabolism in cancer [45]. For instance, some studies have shown increased lipid levels in ovarian cancer [45-47], while a limited number of studies have reported reduction [47, 48]. 314 An alternative interpretation of the decreased lipid region (1429 cm⁻¹) could be the 315 downregulation of ApoA1 which has been previously shown to diagnose ovarian cancer in 316 plasma and was estimated at 1484-1427 cm⁻¹ [49]. The rise seen in the amino 317 acids/carbohydrate region (919 cm⁻¹) could potentially be attributed to ctDNA, as discussed 318

previously, or correlated with increased amount of carbohydrates which is considered a risk
factor for ovarian cancer [50, 51].

321 Previous spectroscopic studies investigating ovarian malignancy have not taken into account the differences between CA-125 levels, which may have led to an unrealistic segregation 322 between patients and healthy controls. In order to investigate whether the high diagnostic 323 324 accuracies achieved in our study were actually attributed to the presence of cancer or just the difference in the CA-125 levels, we also carried out a subgroup analysis to account for this. 325 The extra analysis showed that sensitivities and specificities remained equally satisfactory 326 which denotes that the differences found in our cohort were not attributed to CA-125 but rather 327 to the cancerous condition. Also, after accounting for age differences, it was evident that age 328 alone was not the reason for the high diagnostic accuracy. Even though there is a slight decrease 329 in sensitivity and specificity (*i.e.*, for ≥ 60 years, specificity dropped from 96% to 90%; for <60 330 years, sensitivity dropped from 94% to 79%), the diagnostic capability remained very high. 331

Improved diagnostic performance for the early-stage ovarian cases was a critical 332 objective of this study in order to allow early intervention and potentially improve patient 333 outcomes. Again, both spectroscopic methods provided outstanding diagnostic accuracy, with 334 Raman (sensitivity: 93% and specificity: 97%) being superior to SERS (sensitivity: 80% and 335 specificity: 94%). Current approaches for the early detection of ovarian cancer include 336 337 biomarker tests, such as serum CA-125 and HE4, imaging techniques, such as computed tomography (CT), transvaginal ultrasound (TVUS) and positron emission tomography (PET) 338 or a combination of these [52]. However, there are still a number of limitations in these methods 339 340 including expense and lack of optimal sensitivity and specificity. For instance, the sensitivity and specificity of CA-125 is known to be poor, with only 50% of the patients having elevated 341 levels of the protein at stage I and ~75-90% of the cases at a later stage [4]. CA-125 level can 342 be used more reliably to monitor treatment as levels of CA-125 decrease when a treatment is 343

efficient. However, it is not useful for screening as CA-125 level can be elevated in other 344 conditions, such as endometriosis, breast or lung malignancies, and also not every woman with 345 346 ovarian cancer has elevated CA-125; CT is expensive and has high false-positive rates which prevent its use in screening [1]. Even though TVUS is preferred than other imaging techniques 347 in terms of speed and sensitivity, there is yet no convincing evidence that it detects early 348 ovarian cancer without causing overtreatment of non-malignant cases [2]. TVUS can indeed 349 350 show a mass in the ovary but it cannot distinguish whether the mass is benign or malignant. Therefore, other blood biomarkers (CA-125) are used together with ultrasound to identify 351 352 ovarian tumour at high risk of malignancy. Previous large cohort studies have evaluated the sensitivity and specificity of multimodal screening (MMS) (i.e., annual testing of CA-125 with 353 ultrasound scan as a second line test) and ultrasound screening (USS) (*i.e.*, ultrasound alone); 354 their results showed that the MMS gave slightly higher sensitivity [5, 53]. Specifically, the 355 overall sensitivity for detection of ovarian cancers, diagnosed within a year of a screening, was 356 84% in the MMS group and 73% in the USS group [5]. However, the positive predictive value 357 for USS was estimated at around $\sim 5\%$, which indicates a quite high false-positive rate [53]. In 358 an effort to improve the diagnostic accuracy many groups have also combined different 359 biomarkers, which however increase the cost and time requirement [1, 44]. By using 360 spectroscopic techniques these drawbacks seem to be eliminated as they provide a simpler, 361 cost-effective, multi-marker assay, thus securing robustness. The diagnostic accuracy shown 362 in this study is even better than the currently used tests. 363

In conclusion, the efficacy of Raman spectroscopic methods (*i.e.*, spontaneous Raman and SERS) in detecting ovarian cancer, including early-stage patients, has been demonstrated. Continuous efforts are being made to improve clinical diagnosis and monitoring of disease in ovarian cancer. Our findings suggest improved diagnostic accuracy compared to traditional biomarkers. Specific biomolecules were also found responsible for the segregation between the

- 369 cancer and healthy cases and could be used as spectral biomarkers. Future spectroscopic studies
- should focus on the validation of these results in larger datasets and across different scientific
- 371 groups and laboratories; this would open a new road in ovarian cancer research and potentially
- allow the implementation of blood spectroscopy in clinical practice as a promising diagnostic
- 373 tool.

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377 Availability of data and materials

- All raw and pre-processed spectra will be available at the publicly accessible data repository
- Figshare.

380 Disclosure/Conflict of Interest

381 The authors declare no conflicts of interest

382 Authorship

- 383 FLM and PLMH conceived the study; MP designed the study, conducted the spectroscopic,
- multivariate/statistical analysis and wrote the manuscript; KA, HFS, NW, PK, AR and PLMH
- 385 collected and provided the samples. All authors provided constructive feedback during
- 386 manuscript preparation. All authors have approved the final version.

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584 Figure Legends

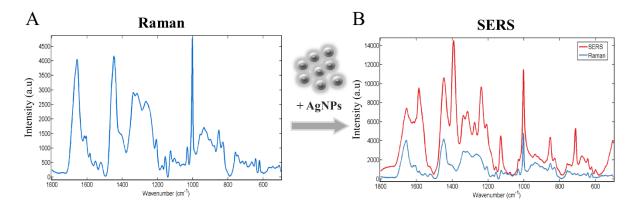


Figure 1: Enhancement effect of SERS after the addition of silver nanoparticles (AgNPs) inblood samples.

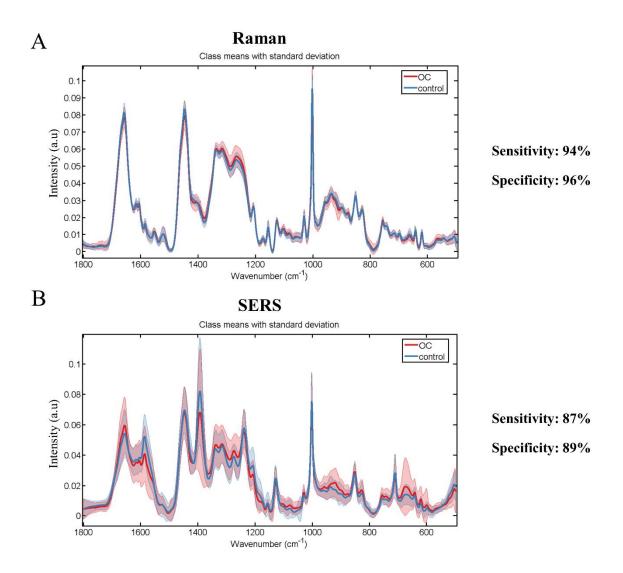


Figure 2: Diagnostic segregation of ovarian cancer (OC) with (A) Raman spectroscopy and(B) SERS.

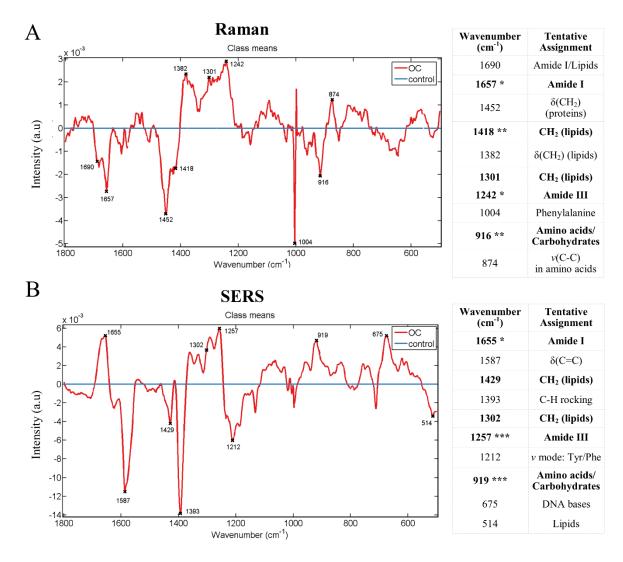
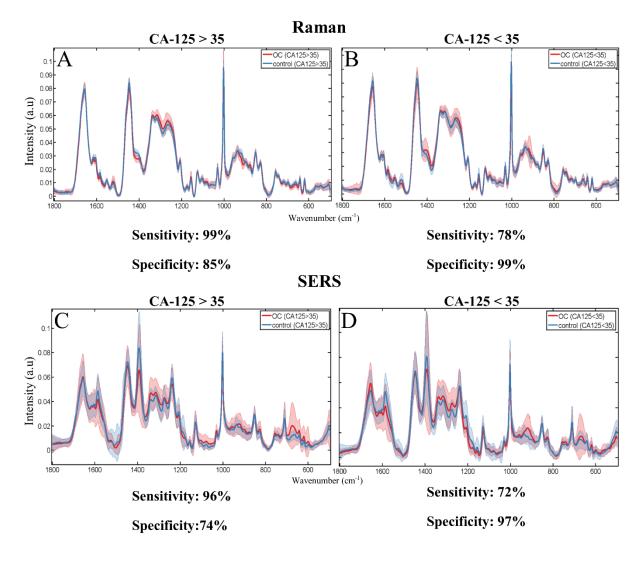


Figure 3: Differentiating spectral peaks after (A) Raman spectroscopy and (B) SERS. The tables show the peak positions and tentative assignments of major vibrational bands [54-58]; peaks shown with bold were detected with both Raman and SERS and may be used as more reliable diagnostic biomarkers. Abbreviations: OC: ovarian cancer; *v*: stretching mode; δ : bending mode.



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Figure 4: Diagnostic segregation between ovarian cancer (OC) patients and healthy controls
 according to their CA-125 levels. Sensitivity and specificity are provided for (A) individuals

603 with CA-125>35 u/ml after Raman analysis, (B) individuals with CA-125<35 u/ml after

- Raman, (C) individuals with CA-125>35 u/ml after SERS and (D) individuals with CA-125<35
- 605 u/ml after SERS.

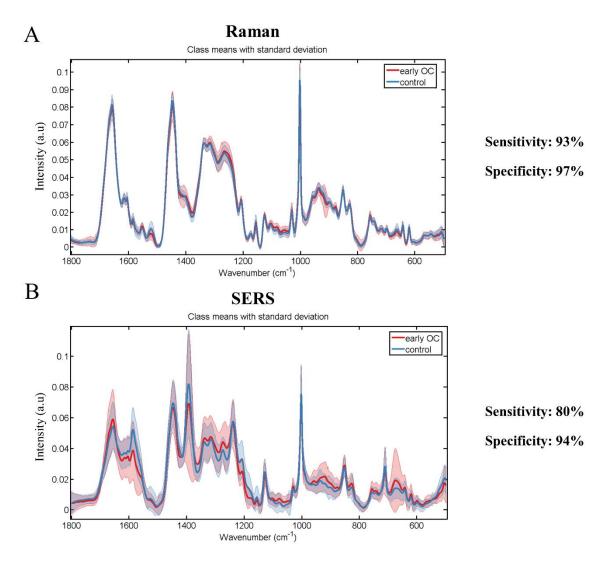


Figure 5: Diagnosis of early ovarian cancer (OC) after (A) Raman spectroscopy and (B) SERS.