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(Article begins on next page)

Clinical Epigenetics

Gene-specific DNA-methylation profiles and LINE-1 hypomethylation are associated with myocardial infarction risk --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	<p>Background DNA-methylation profiles are responsive to environmental stimuli and metabolic shifts. This makes DNA-methylation a potential biomarker of environmental-related and lifestyle-driven diseases of adulthood. Therefore we investigated if white blood cells' (WBCs) DNA-methylation profiles are associated with myocardial infarction (MI) occurrence.</p> <p>Whole genome DNA-methylation was investigated by microarray analysis in 292 MI cases and 292 matched controls from the large prospective Italian EPIC cohort (EPICOR study). Significant signals (FDR adjusted $P < 0.05$) were replicated by mass spectrometry in 317 MI cases and 262 controls from the Dutch EPIC cohort (EPIC-NL). LINE-1 methylation profiles were also evaluated in both groups.</p> <p>Results A differentially methylated region (DMR) within the ZBTB12 gene body and LINE-1 hypomethylation were identified in EPICOR MI cases, and replicated in the EPIC-NL sample (ZBTB12-DMR meta-analysis, effect-size\pmse=-0.016\pm0.003, 95%CI=-0.021;-0.011, $P=7.54 \times 10^{-10}$; LINE-1 methylation meta-analysis, effect-size\pmse=-0.161\pm0.040, 95%CI=-0.239;-0.082, $P=6.01 \times 10^{-5}$).</p> <p>Moreover, cases with shorter time to disease had more pronounced ZBTB12-DMR hypomethylation (meta-analysis, Men: effect-size\pmse=-0.0059\pm0.0017, PTREND=5.0$\times 10^{-4}$, Women: effect-size \pmse=-0.0053\pm0.0019, PTREND=6.5$\times 10^{-3}$) and LINE-1 hypomethylation (meta-analysis, Men: effect-size \pmse=-0.0010\pm0.0003,</p>	

	<p>PTREND=1.6x10⁻³, Women: effect-size \pmse=-0.0008\pm0.0004, PTREND=0.026) than MI cases with longer time-to-disease.</p> <p>In the EPIC-NL replication panel, DNA-methylation profiles improved case-control discrimination and reclassification when compared with traditional MI risk factors only (Net Reclassification Improvement (95%CI) between 0.23 (0.02-0.43), P=0.034, and 0.89 (0.64-1.14), P <1x10⁻⁵).</p> <p>Conclusions</p> <p>Our data suggest that specific methylation profiles can be detected in WBCs, in a preclinical condition, several years before the occurrence of MI, providing an independent signature of cardiovascular risk. We showed that prediction accuracy can be improved when DNA-methylation is taken into account together with traditional MI risk factors, although further confirmation on a larger sample is warranted. Our findings support the potential use of DNA-methylation patterns in peripheral blood white cells as promising early biomarkers of MI.</p>
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Response to Reviewers:	<p>CLEP-D-15-00016R3</p> <p>Reviewer #3: Indeed, also the estimation of MI risk needs to be limited to the EPIC-NL validation sample. Due to the winner's curse the large effect size in the discovery sample is not surprising and likely inflated. This is confirmed by the actual estimates as reported.</p> <p>Authors' Response We agree with the reviewer that MI risk estimate should not be considered for the EPICOR panel, being it the discovery panel. As such, we removed MI risk estimates from the main paper and limited MI risk estimate to the EPIC-NL replica panel. However, the analysis of the EPICOR panel provides a complementary piece of information when taken together with that of the EPIC-NL panel. In fact, even if the risk estimate should not be considered as such, this progressively modeled analysis can nevertheless provide information on the dependence/independence of DNA methylation from the TRFs. This can be seen in the analysis of both the EPIC-NL panel, and the EPICOR panel, as a complementary evidence, and it is also a confirmation of the fact that additional TRFs (other than those used in the discovery analysis on EPICOR) actually do not affect estimates also in the EPICOR discovery panel.</p> <p>To meet the reviewer's request, and to save the additional piece of information that is provided by the multivariate analysis on the EPICOR sample too, we modified the corresponding paragraphs in the main text and additional files.</p> <p>The following paragraphs have been edited:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Main Text, Results section, "DNA methylation and MI risk": page 9, line 14 - page 10, line 6 of the revised R3 paper - Main Text, Methods section, "DNA methylation and MI risk": page 19, lines 1-12 of the revised R3 paper - Additional file 2, "DNA methylation and MI risk": page 11, lines 7 – 25 of the revised R3 paper - Additional file 1: table S3A is now referred to EPIC-NL; table S3B is now referred to EPICOR.

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Gene-specific DNA-methylation profiles and LINE-1 hypomethylation are associated with myocardial infarction risk

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ABSTRACT

Background

DNA-methylation profiles are responsive to environmental stimuli and metabolic shifts. This makes DNA-methylation a potential biomarker of environmental-related and lifestyle-driven diseases of adulthood. Therefore we investigated if white blood cells' (WBCs) DNA-methylation profiles are associated with myocardial infarction (MI) occurrence.

Whole genome DNA-methylation was investigated by microarray analysis in 292 MI cases and 292 matched controls from the large prospective Italian EPIC cohort (EPICOR study). Significant signals (FDR adjusted $P < 0.05$) were replicated by mass spectrometry in 317 MI cases and 262 controls from the Dutch EPIC cohort (EPIC-NL). LINE-1 methylation profiles were also evaluated in both groups.

Results

A differentially methylated region (DMR) within the *ZBTB12* gene body and LINE-1 hypomethylation were identified in EPICOR MI cases, and replicated in the EPIC-NL sample (*ZBTB12*-DMR meta-analysis, effect-size \pm se=-0.016 \pm 0.003, 95% CI=-0.021;-0.011, $P=7.54 \times 10^{-10}$; LINE-1 methylation meta-analysis, effect-size \pm se=-0.161 \pm 0.040, 95% CI=-0.239;-0.082, $P=6.01 \times 10^{-5}$). Moreover, cases with shorter time to disease had more pronounced *ZBTB12*-DMR hypomethylation (meta-analysis, Men: effect-size \pm se=-0.0059 \pm 0.0017, $P_{TRENDS}=5.0 \times 10^{-4}$, Women: effect-size \pm se=-0.0053 \pm 0.0019, $P_{TRENDS}=6.5 \times 10^{-3}$) and LINE-1 hypomethylation (meta-analysis, Men: effect-size \pm se=-0.0010 \pm 0.0003, $P_{TRENDS}=1.6 \times 10^{-3}$, Women: effect-size \pm se=-0.0008 \pm 0.0004, $P_{TRENDS}=0.026$) than MI cases with longer time-to-disease.

In the EPIC-NL replication panel, DNA-methylation profiles improved case-control discrimination and reclassification when compared with traditional MI risk factors only (Net Reclassification Improvement (95% CI) between 0.23 (0.02-0.43), $P=0.034$, and 0.89 (0.64-1.14), $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$).

Conclusions

Our data suggest that specific methylation profiles can be detected in WBCs, in a preclinical condition, several years before the occurrence of MI, providing an independent signature of cardiovascular risk.

We showed that prediction accuracy can be improved when DNA-methylation is taken into account

1 together with traditional MI risk factors, although further confirmation on a larger sample is warranted.

2 Our findings support the potential use of DNA-methylation patterns in peripheral blood white cells as
3
4 promising early biomarkers of MI.
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10 **Keywords:** DNA-methylation; myocardial infarction; early biomarkers; association study; risk
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12 prediction; risk stratification
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Background

Cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) are a leading cause of mortality, morbidity and hospitalization in the adult population in western countries, and a major challenge for developing countries that follow a westernized-lifestyle. Great attention has been given so far to lifestyle related CVDs risk factors, such as unhealthy diet, smoking habits, lack of physical activity, whose deleterious effects may be prevented through major lifestyle changes or medical treatments. Apart from monogenic disorders associated with cardiovascular risk (e.g., hypertrophic cardiomyopathy, familial hypercholesterolemia), there is a strong evidence that a family history of cardiovascular disease and stroke enhances individual CVD risks in relatives as compared with general population, that points out the importance of genetic factors in the etiology of CVDs.

Recent genome wide association studies (GWASs) reported several potential genetic risk factors for CVDs or intermediate disease phenotypes such as type 2 diabetes, obesity and overweight [1], hypertension [2], altered lipid profiles [3], underlying the importance of the genetic component.

However, the contribution of common genetic variants to non-monogenic-CVDs is likely to act in combination with environmental factors or via epistatic (gene-gene or gene-environment) interactions.

As gene-environment interactions are thought to be mediated by epigenetic modifications of the genome, epigenetic regulation can be regarded as the boundary between the inherited genomic asset and the environment, potentially playing a major role in disease onset and severity [4]: epigenetic changes are in fact dynamic, can be modified both during the early *in utero* development stages and across lifetime by environmental factors as well as diseases, and may be reversible reflecting environmental changes [5, 6]. DNA-methylation at CpG dinucleotides is an epigenetic mechanism mainly involved in gene expression regulation. DNA-methylation patterns across the genome are not uniform: genetic regions spanning genes locations have variable DNA-methylation profiles which are linked to regulatory functions (e.g. gene promoters methylation/demethylation regulates gene expression), and structural functions in shaping local chromatin structures [7, 8]; instead, intergenic regions are usually heavily methylated, since about 45% of the mammalian genome consists of transposable and viral elements that are silenced by methylation [9]. Methylation levels of the repetitive long interspersed nuclear element-1 (LINE-1) are generally considered as a *proxy* for global

1 DNA methylation, as LINE-1 elements are widely distributed in the genome and usually heavily
2 methylated in the majority of normal tissues. LINE-1 hypomethylation has previously been associated
3
4 with ischemic heart disease and stroke [10], and with altered levels of LDL and HDL [11].
5

6 Altered DNA-methylation profiles have been linked to oxidative stress [12], atherosclerosis [13],
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8 ageing [14, 15] and a variety of human diseases ranging from neurological and autoimmune disorders
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10 to cancer [16-18]. In addition to individual constitutive DNA-methylation profiles, that could *per se*
11
12 be associated with cardiovascular outcomes [19], subtle and progressive DNA-methylation alterations
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14 mediated by lifestyle and environmental exposures may in fact lead to dysregulation of several
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16 metabolic pathways during lifetime, and ultimately to cardiovascular damage and disease [20].
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19 However, the few reports linking cardiovascular outcomes to DNA-methylation measured in blood
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21 cells or vascular tissue [21-23] did not provide conclusive evidences of DNA-methylation
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23 involvement in cardiovascular disease.
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26 Apart from few reports of single CpG associations with a disease or a phenotype, it is usually the
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28 cumulative methylation profile of neighboring CpG sites to be more likely associated to a potential
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30 functional effect of the methylation status, and the search for differentially methylated regions
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32 (DMRs) able to differentiate groups of subjects with different phenotypes or outcomes of interest is a
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34 common approach. Along this line, we conducted an epigenome-wide association study (EWAS) to
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36 identify DMRs and LINE-1 methylation profiles associated to myocardial infarction (MI) risk in the
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38 cardiovascular section (EPICOR) of the Italian cohort of the European Prospective Investigation into
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40 Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC) study, and replicated statistically significant findings in an independent
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42 case-control study nested in the Dutch EPIC cohort (EPIC-NL) with comparable biological samples
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44 and information.
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47 Furthermore, we tested whether MI risk prediction accuracy can be improved when DNA-methylation
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49 profiles, measured at baseline in a pre-clinical condition, are taken into account together with
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51 traditional MI risk factors.
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Results

Descriptive statistics of the sample are reported in Table 1. Statistically significant differences between cases and controls were found in smoking habits, body mass index (BMI) and/or waist-to-hip ratio (WHR), serum lipid profile, and blood pressure, in both the discovery (EPICOR) and the replication (EPIC-NL) studies (Table1).

After raw methylation data quality controls (QCs), and removal of cross-hybridizing and Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms-containing probes, 425,498 CpGs were included into the following analyses.

Case-control differential methylation

In the EPICOR sample, 25,376 regions with correlated methylation levels were identified with the A-clustering algorithm [24], and subsequently tested for differential methylation between cases and controls (see Methods section): the top-ranking 6 differentially methylated regions are reported in Table S1 (Additional file 1). However, only the first region reached statistical significance (FDR Q -value<0.05), i.e. a 15-CpGs cluster within the gene body (exon1) of the “zinc finger and BTB domain containing 12” gene (*ZBTB12*, Gene ID: 221527), that was hypomethylated in cases as compared to controls (effect-size \pm se=-0.019 \pm 0.004, 95%CI -0.03;-0.01, P -value=1.94x10⁻⁷, Q -value=0.005). To check for sex-specific effects of the *ZBTB12*-DMR, we stratified EPICOR subjects by sex, and found the 15-CpGs cluster still significantly hypomethylated in male cases (effect-size \pm se=-0.023 \pm 0.005, 95%CI -0.03;-0.01, P -value=1.06x10⁻⁶) but not in females (effect-size \pm se=-0.006 \pm 0.006, 95%CI -0.02;0.005, P -value=0.29). Details on single CpGs are reported in Table S2A (Additional file 1).

The genomic inflation factor for the overall EPICOR sample was lambda=1.023 (men, lambda=1.043; women, lambda=1.017, Q-Q plots in Supplementary Figures S1-S3).

LINE-1 differential methylation was also tested in the EPICOR overall sample by logistic regression analysis: MI cases had statistically significant LINE-1 hypomethylation as compared to controls (effect-size \pm se=-0.511 \pm 0.147, 95%CI -0.80;-0.22, P -value=5.00x10⁻⁴). At a sex-stratified analysis, LINE-1 hypomethylation was still statistically significant in men (effect-size \pm se=-0.520 \pm 0.179,

1 95%CI -0.87;-0.17, P -value=0.004) but not in women (effect-size±se=-0.496±0.319, 95%CI -1.12;-
2 0.13, P -value=0.12).

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4 Additionally, for *ZBTB12*-DMR we found a significant sex-methylation interaction (P -value=0.01),
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6 whilst for LINE-1 we found no evidence of interaction.

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8 Results were replicated on the EPIC-NL panel, where the methylation profile of the same *ZBTB12*-
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10 DMR identified in the discovery phase proved consistent with that of the EPICOR discovery sample,
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12 with a cluster of 22 contiguous CpGs significantly hypomethylated in Dutch MI cases as compared to
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14 controls (effect-size±se=-0.013±0.004, 95%CI -0.02;-0.005 P -value=5.82x10⁻⁴). Details on *ZBTB12*-
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16 DMR single CpGs for the EPIC-NL study are reported in Table S2B (Additional file 1).

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18 At a sex stratified analysis, *ZBTB12*-DMR was hypomethylated both in EPIC-NL men (effect-
19
20 size±se=-0.014±0.007, 95%CI -0.03;-0.001, P -value=0.034) and women (effect-size±se=-
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22 0.012±0.004, 95%CI -0.02;-0.004, P -value=0.006), with effect sizes more comparable between men
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24 and women than in the EPICOR sample.

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26 In the EPIC-NL panel, LINE-1 mean methylation levels were lower than those of EPICOR, with an
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28 average methylation of about 0.8 in EPICOR subjects (men, mean±sd=0.844±0.007; women,
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30 mean±sd=0.843±0.007) and about 0.6 in EPIC-NL subjects (men, mean±sd=0.624±0.029; women,
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32 mean±sd=0.613±0.023). As seen in the EPICOR panel, we found LINE-1 hypomethylation also in
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34 Dutch cases as compared to controls, although with a milder effect (effect-size±se=-0.132±0.042,
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36 95%CI -0.21;-0.05, P -value=0.001). The sex stratified LINE-1 analysis showed in EPIC-NL men an
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38 effect-size similar to that found in EPICOR (effect-size±se=-0.40±0.085, 95%CI -0.57;-0.23, P -
39
40 value=2.22x10⁻⁶), while in EPIC-NL women the effect was much lower and statistically non-
41
42 significant (effect-size±se=-0.016±0.046, 95%CI -0.11;0.07, P -value=0.73).

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44 In the Dutch panel we found no evidence of sex-methylation interaction for *ZBTB12*-DMR, while we
45
46 found a statistically significant interaction for LINE-1.

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48 The observation of sex-methylation interactions in both the discovery and replica panels, and further
49
50 considerations addressed in the discussion section, suggested to consider men and women separately
51
52 in all the subsequent analyses.

1 To achieve an overall estimate of the effects of *ZBTB12*-DMR and LINE-1 methylation across the 2
2 subjects panels, we performed a meta-analysis of the EPICOR and EPIC-NL studies.

3
4 The estimated *ZBTB12*-DMR effect was effect-size±se=-0.016±0.003 in the overall sample
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6 ($P=7.54 \times 10^{-10}$, 95% CI=-0.021;-0.011, Cochran's Q=0.005, d.f.=1, $P_{HET}=0.83$), effect-size±se=-
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8 0.020±0.004 in men ($P=1.82 \times 10^{-7}$, 95% CI=-0.027;-0.012, Cochran's Q=0.007, d.f.=1, $P_{HET}=0.79$),
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10 and effect-size±se=-0.010±0.003 in women ($P=0.005$, 95% CI=-0.017;-0.003, Cochran's Q=0.004,
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12 d.f.=1, $P_{HET}=0.84$).

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15 The estimated LINE-1 effect was effect-size±se=-0.161±0.040 in the overall sample ($P=6.01 \times 10^{-5}$,
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17 95% CI=-0.239;-0.082, Cochran's Q=0.85, d.f.=1, $P_{HET}=0.35$), effect-size±se=-0.422±0.076 in men
18
19 ($P=3.42 \times 10^{-8}$, 95% CI=-0.572;-0.272, Cochran's Q=0.06, d.f.=1, $P_{HET}=0.81$), and effect-size±se=-
20
21 0.025±0.046 in women ($P=0.576$, 95% CI=-0.115;0.064, Cochran's Q=0.70, d.f.=1, $P_{HET}=0.40$).

22 23 24 25 26 *DNA-methylation and MI risk*

27
28 The MI risk associated to *ZBTB12*-DMR and LINE-1 hypomethylation was estimated in the EPIC-NL
29
30 replica panel: Recursively Partitioned Mixture Model (RPMM) classes and LINE-1 class (as defined
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32 in the methods section) were tested for association with MI under different models, from unadjusted
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34 to fully adjusted.

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37 When comparing the *ZBTB12*-DMR lowest methylation class (RPMM3) with the highest methylation
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39 class (RPMM0), we found MI risk to be significantly associated with hypomethylation in the EPIC-
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41 NL women (fully adjusted, OR=2.75, 95% CI 1.39–5.45, $P=0.004$), whilst in EPIC-NL men the
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43 association was statistically non-significant (fully adjusted, OR=2.60, 95% CI 0.79–8.56, $P=0.116$),
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45 although direction and effect size were similar.

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48 We also found a higher MI risk associated with LINE-1 lower methylation class in EPIC-NL men
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50 (fully adjusted, OR=1.95, 95% CI 1.02-3.71, $P=0.043$, ref. group above the median). No difference
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52 was found in EPIC-NL women (fully adjusted, OR=1.05, 95% CI 0.65–1.67, $P=0.850$) (Additional file
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54 1, Table S3A).

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57 The same analysis was performed on the EPICOR discovery sample: even though in this case the ORs
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59 cannot be considered as indicative of a true estimate of risk being EPICOR subjects the discovery
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1 panel, the analysis was nevertheless done to assess whether the progressive inclusion in the model of
2 additional variables, namely traditional risk factors (TRFs), could modify the estimate of risk or, on
3 the contrary, if DNA methylation may independently contribute to MI risk. No significant evidence of
4 inflation/deflation of the DNA-methylation-related MI risk estimate was found nor for the EPIC-NL
5 panel nor for the EPICOR panel when progressively adding traditional risk factors (TRFs) as
6 covariates in the model (Additional file 1: Tables S3A and B).
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15 *Discrimination, reclassification, and calibration on EPIC-NL samples*

16 We assumed 2 models, including respectively: (1) TRFs only; (2) TRFs plus the *ZBTB12*-based
17 RPMM classes and LINE-1 methylation class. According to the Net Reclassification Improvement
18 (NRI) and Integrated Discrimination Improvement (IDI) indices (Table 2), a statistically significant
19 improvement in prediction performance was achieved when adding the DNA-methylation profiles to
20 the set of baseline predictors (i.e., TRFs), both for EPIC-NL males and females groups. Furthermore,
21 we found an improvement in discrimination (Table 2, DeLong's test) comparing the area under
22 Receiver Operating Curves (AUC) of the 2 models (Table 2 and Figure 1), although it was not
23 statistically significant.
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35 The calibration plots confirmed the goodness of fit of both the TRFs only and TRFs+Methylation
36 models (Figure 2, Hosmer-Lemeshow test), with a better performance of the second one.
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42 *DNA-methylation and Time to Disease (TTD)*

43 The trend test on EPICOR and EPIC-NL subjects, stratified by study and by sex, highlighted a more
44 pronounced *ZBTB12*-DMR hypomethylation in cases with shorter time to disease (EPICOR and
45 EPIC-NL meta-analysis, Men: $P_{\text{TREND}}=0.0005$, Women $P_{\text{TREND}}=0.0065$, Table 3). Similarly, LINE-1
46 was hypomethylated in cases with shorter time to disease (meta-analysis, Men: $P_{\text{TREND}}=0.0016$,
47 Women $P_{\text{TREND}}=0.026$, Table 3).
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1 At a *post-hoc* power analysis, our study was well powered (86% and 82% for males and females
2 groups, respectively) to identify DMRs with effect sizes equal to half of the standard deviation,
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4 considering alpha equal to the False Discovery Rate (FDR) threshold of significance ($Q=0.05$).
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8 **Discussion**

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10 In this study we investigated whether WBCs DNA-methylation profiles may be associated with
11 myocardial infarction risk. We examined clusters of adjacent CpG sites with correlated methylation
12 levels under the assumption that they could be more reliable indicators of the underlying biological
13 function than the single CpG methylation measurement. As we found evidences of sex-methylation
14 interactions in both the analyzed panels, in our study the analyses were stratified by sex, in order to
15 account for sex-related differences in DNA methylation profiles of genomic regions, of which
16 “genomic imprinting” is a well-known example, and to account for sex specific cardiovascular risks.
17 For coronary heart disease, sex differences in incidence, disease manifestations, and mortality are well
18 recognized [25], and men and women seem not to share the same cardiovascular risk factors [26-29].
19 Moreover, patterns of sex-specific methylation have been reported in literature, and there is a general
20 consensus on the occurrence of sex-biased autosomal DNA methylation in specific genes and regions,
21 although with contrasting results [30-32]. Sex-associated differential DNA methylation in autosomal
22 loci has been reported in genes associated to traits/diseases with different incidence rates according to
23 sex [33], as well as in hormone-related genes, suggesting a differential regulation, potentially exerted
24 via methylation [31]. Differential DNA-methylation may account for the differences in metabolic
25 profiles of men and women, possibly leading to the different incidence, prevalence, symptoms, ages at
26 onset and severity of cardiovascular diseases reported in literature.
27 In the EPICOR discovery panel, we identified a 15-CpGs cluster within the *ZBTB12* gene that was
28 significantly differentially methylated in Italian MI cases and controls, and that was also significantly
29 hypomethylated in MI cases in the independent Dutch panel. Moreover, *ZBTB12*-DMR showed a
30 trend towards more pronounced hypomethylation in subjects with a short TTD both in the Italian and
31 in the Dutch sample.
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1 *ZBTB12*-DMR spans a ~250bp region in *ZBTB12* exon 1: although the role of gene-body methylation
2 in transcriptional regulation is not fully understood, yet there are evidences of a role of the first exon's
3 DNA-methylation in transcriptional silencing and, putatively, in alternative splicing [34]. All of our
4 samples belong to the EPIC cohort, for which no biospecimen suitable for transcriptome analyses is
5 available to address the relationship between *ZBTB12* methylation and gene expression levels. To
6 cope with this issue, we explored *ZBTB12* DNA-methylation/gene-expression relationship in
7 cryopreserved peripheral blood mononuclear cells from ~80 healthy young subjects belonging to
8 another ongoing study, for which we already measured methylation and gene-expression levels: in our
9 data, *ZBTB12* mRNA abundance was below the background level (as assessed by Illumina
10 HumanHT12 gene-expression BeadChip), while *ZBTB12* methylation levels were comparable to that
11 of EPICOR and EPIC-NL controls (data not shown). No relationship was found also with the gene-
12 expression levels of the nearby genes (data not shown). Data mining in freely available resources (e.g.
13 BioGPS, AceView, ProteinAtlas, Genome Atlas) confirmed the generalized low *ZBTB12* mRNA level
14 in tissues and cell types, although *ZBTB12* protein is detectable in many tissues, including
15 cardiovascular tissues. Although no clear function is described for *ZBTB12*, this protein is probably
16 involved in transcriptional regulation, like other members of the ZBTB family of methyl-CpG binding
17 proteins (MBPs). This is also supported by its mainly nuclear localization. MBPs bind to methylated
18 DNA and recruit chromatin remodeling co-repressor complexes, resulting in compaction of chromatin
19 into its transcriptionally inactive state [35]. Specifically, members of the ZBTB family function as
20 mediators of epigenetically controlled gene silencing by recognizing symmetrically methylated CpG
21 sites and sequence specific non methylated sites [8, 35].

22 According to the Human Protein Reference Database [36], ZBTB12 (HPRD ID: 15691) directly
23 interacts with Harvey Rat Sarcoma Viral Oncogene Homolog (HRAS) and RAP1 GTPase Activating
24 Protein1 (RAP1GAP). RAP1GAP down-regulates the activity of Ras -associated protein 1 (RAP1), a
25 small GTPase involved in several aspects of cell adhesion, including angiogenesis [37]. HRAS, a
26 member of the RAS oncogene family, is a key transducer in several growth-signaling events that may
27 trigger cardiovascular complications such as angiogenesis and vascular permeability [38], and may be
28 involved in inflammatory proliferative arterial diseases, including atherosclerosis and restenosis after
29

1 angioplasty [39]. The RAS-MEK-ERK cascade has been described as implicated in cardiac
2 hypertrophy and heart failure, and ERK signal transduction pathways were associated with cardiac
3 hypertrophy [40].
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6 In addition to gene/region specific DNA-methylation, we investigated the cumulative DNA-
7 methylation profile of LINE-1 repetitive sequences and found LINE-1 hypomethylation in MI cases,
8 statistically significant in men in both panels, but not in women. LINE-1 hypomethylation was
9 associated to cardiovascular-related traits in previous studies [10, 11], and it is associated to MI and
10 shorter TTD in the present study. DNA hypomethylation is regarded as a cause of genomic instability,
11 and as a matter of fact LINE-1 hypomethylation was found in several conditions, including cancer
12 [41], autoimmune diseases [42] and cardiovascular diseases [10]. Specifically, global
13 hypomethylation of genomic DNA and gene-specific methylation profiles have been associated to
14 conditions already known to predispose to cardiovascular diseases, such as cellular ageing [43],
15 atherosclerotic plaques [44], menopausal state and osteoporosis [45]. On the other hand, LINE-1
16 hypomethylation could simply be a marker of increased white blood cells proliferation due to
17 inflammatory or immunological responses which are known to be active during cardiovascular
18 pathogenic processes [10]. *In vitro* experiments on mouse embryonic stem cells showed that folate
19 deficiency affected the homeostasis of folate-mediated one-carbon metabolism, leading to reduced
20 LINE-1 methylation [46]. In a targeted analysis, we recently demonstrated on a subset of the EPICOR
21 cohort (206 MI cases and 206 matched controls), an inverse relationship between B-vitamins intake
22 and DNA-methylation of genes belonging to One Carbon Metabolism and Homocysteine pathways
23 [20]. These previous observations, together with our current finding of LINE-1 hypomethylation in
24 cases compared to healthy controls, suggest a link between DNA-methylation patterns and CVD risk
25 conferred by low folate and B-vitamins intake, that is worthy of further investigation.
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51 Overall, this study analyzed 609 cases and 554 controls, and was sufficiently powered to detect effects
52 of the magnitude we found. The discovery and the replica panels share homogeneous features: both
53 belong to the European EPIC cohort, subjects were all enrolled in the nineties, and biosamples were
54 collected and stored at enrollment according to shared standard protocols [47]. Nevertheless, a
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1 limitation of the study is that while EPICOR cases and controls were matched by age, sex, center and
2 season of recruitment, this could not be achieved for the EPIC-NL sample, since a DNA sample
3 suitable for methylation analysis was not available for all the subjects enrolled in the Dutch EPIC
4 cohort.
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8 Another limitation is that the assessment of the methylation levels was done with different methods
9 for the two panels. However, our approach that considered the regional methylation profile as a whole
10 instead of single CpGs may contribute to overcome the bias due to measure errors at single CpGs
11 level, as highlighted by the correlation between the methylation measures of 16 control samples
12 assayed with both BeadChip and MassArray Assay (Additional file 2: Supplementary Methods).
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15 Moreover, although the CpGs positions assayed with the 2 methods are not exactly the same due to
16 technical constrains (Additional file 2: Supplementary Methods, and Figure S4), still the analysis of
17 methylation data collected with each one of the two different techniques highlighted a cluster of CpGs
18 with correlated methylation levels within exon1 of *ZBTB12*, hypomethylated in MI cases vs controls.
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21 This complies with our study design assumption that the methylation status of multiple CpGs with
22 correlated methylation could better describe the cumulative methylation status of the underlying
23 region, and that this could be potentially related to the underlying biological function, if any. The
24 same goes for LINE-1 methylation, which is defined as the cumulative DNA-methylation status of the
25 several CpGs located in LINE-1 sequences across the genome. Also in this case, different portions of
26 LINE-1 sequence were investigated with the 2 techniques, i.e. CpGs scattered across the whole LINE-
27 1 sequence were analyzed on the BeadChip, whereas CpGs within base pairs 335–767 of the LINE-1
28 promoter (Gen-Bank accession number X58075.1) were analyzed by MassArray according to Wang
29 et al. [48] (Figure S4).
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32 Despite slight differences between EPICOR and EPIC-NL panels in LINE-1 average methylation
33 levels, arguably due to the use of different methods and different assayed CpGs, our results
34 highlighted the same effect trend in both the EPIC sub-cohorts.
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37 When included in the same multivariate models, the estimated risks associated to *ZBTB12*-DMR and
38 LINE-1 methylation profiles were not attenuated by the adjustment for known risk factors (Additional
39 file 1: Table S3A and B), suggesting that they independently contribute to MI risk estimate.
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Moreover, we observed that discrimination between MI cases and controls and prediction accuracy both improved when DNA-methylation was taken into account together with traditional risk factors, suggesting the DNA-methylation could be an independent predictor of MI risk, although further confirmation on a larger sample is warranted.

Our results highlight the possibility to identify MI-related methylation marks on DNA from blood samples drawn in a preclinical condition, for some subjects many years before the MI. Unfortunately, due to the initial EPIC study design that envisaged only one blood sampling at enrollment time, it was not possible to monitor individual DNA-methylation level changes at different time points. Further replication in additional cohorts with prospective design and biospecimens sampled at multiple points along time is warranted to elucidate DNA-methylation changes across time, from ‘healthy’ status to MI. This will allow a better estimation of the *ZBTB12*-DMR and LINE1 de-methylation rates associated with increased MI risk, in the view of a personalized risk assessment that will take into account TRFs and MI risk biomarkers, such as DNA-methylation profiles.

Conclusions

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first paper reporting an association between MI risk and DNA-methylation profiles identified from epigenome-wide data in prospectively collected subjects with well-recorded clinical endpoints, and replicated in an independent sample from the same large European prospective cohort.

Taken together, the reported results suggest the possible role of DNA-methylation patterns in peripheral blood white cells as promising early MI biomarkers to be potentially used, together with TRFs, for individual MI risk assessment.

Methods

Study population

For the discovery phase, 292 MI cases and 292 matched healthy controls were recruited among those enrolled in the EPICOR study [49], a case-cohort study nested within the EPIC-Italy prospective cohort (~50.000 participants) [50]. All EPICOR cases developed MI after recruitment (average time

1 to diagnosis 6.90 years). Cases were identified at cohort follow-up from hospital discharge databases,
2 and were then matched with healthy controls from the same cohort without evidence of MI at follow-
3 up. Matching parameters were age at recruitment (± 1.5 years), sex, center and season of recruitment.
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5 Results from the discovery phase were replicated in an independent sample of 317 Dutch subjects
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7 from the prospective EPIC-NL cohort [51] who developed MI during follow-up (average time to
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9 diagnosis 5.64 years) and 262 unmatched healthy controls from the same cohort. Details on
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11 anthropometrics, lifestyle, biochemical measurements, and MI definition are provided in Additional
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13 file 2: Supplementary Methods.
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20 *Ethical considerations*

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22 Our study complies with the Declaration of Helsinki principles, and conforms to ethical requirements.
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24 All volunteers signed an informed consent form at enrollment in the respective studies. The EPIC
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26 study protocol was approved by Ethics Committees of the International Agency for Research on
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28 Cancer (Lyon, France), as well as by local Ethical Committees of the participant centers. The
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30 EPICOR study was approved by the Ethical Committee of the Human Genetics Foundation (Turin,
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32 Italy). For the Dutch EPIC samples, approval was obtained by the Institutional Review Board of the
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34 University Medical Center Utrecht (Utrecht, the Netherlands) and the Medical Ethical Committee of
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36 TNO Nutrition and Food Research (Zeist, the Netherlands).
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42 *DNA-methylation measurement*

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44 DNA-methylation was measured in DNA from WBCs collected at subject enrollment into EPIC and
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46 stored in liquid nitrogen [47]. The Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChip (Illumina Inc., San
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48 Diego, CA) and the MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry methylation assay (Sequenom Inc., S. Diego,
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50 CA, USA) were used for the discovery phase and the replication phase, respectively. Laboratory
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52 methods for DNA-methylation levels measurement, are detailed in Additional file 2: Supplementary
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54 Methods.
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60 *Whole-genome methylation data quality control (QC) and normalization procedures*

1 DNA-methylation levels were measured as Beta-values, ranging from 0 to 1. We excluded from the
2 analyses: i) single Beta-values with detection p-value \geq 0.01; ii) CpG loci with detection p-value \geq 0.01
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4 in more than 20% of the assayed samples; iii) probes containing SNPs with MAF \geq 0.05 in the CEPH
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6 (Utah residents with ancestry from northern and western Europe, CEU) population; iv) samples with a
7
8 global call rate \leq 95%.
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10 From the 435,457 CpGs that passed QCs (~95% of BeadChip content), we further removed 9,959
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12 CpGs whose methylation signal was detected by cross-hybridizing and SNPs-containing probes [52].
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14 A total of 292 matched case-control pairs and 425,498 CpG sites were used in the following analyses.
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16 Background normalization was performed on raw methylation data according to Marabita et al. [53].
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22 Statistical analyses

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24 Statistical analyses were conducted using the open source R v3.0.1 package [54].
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26 Analyses were performed stratifying by sex, in order to account for the occurrence of sex-specific
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28 DNA-methylation, and for the different cardiovascular risk profiles between men and women (see
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30 Discussion). Descriptive statistics of sample characteristics, anthropometrics, lipid profiles,
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32 hypertension, and lifestyle habits (smoke, alcohol consumption) was performed.
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38 *Case-control DMRs analysis*

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40 We analyzed the EPICOR methylation data (discovery phase, 425,498 CpGs) with the A-clustering
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42 algorithm [24] to identify clusters of 2 or more neighboring CpGs with correlated methylation levels.
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44 The association between each one of the identified methylation clusters and case-control status was
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46 tested by Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE) [55] to identify DMRs between MI cases and
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48 controls. We adjusted the analyses for matching variables (age at recruitment, center, season of
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50 recruitment, sex in the overall analyses), estimated WBC composition (for the EPICOR panel only),
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52 and for the major cardiovascular risk factors [56] i.e. smoking status, BMI, blood pressure, physical
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54 activity (for the EPICOR panel only). EPICOR sample analyses were additionally adjusted for
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56 ‘control probes’ Principal Components, while EPIC-NL analyses did not require batch correction (see
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58 Additional file 2, Removal of technical biases).
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1 As fasting glucose measurement was missing for >20% of the EPICOR and EPIC-NL samples,
2 glucose level was excluded from the adjustment covariates. Lipid levels were missing for 48 EPICOR
3 subjects: lipid levels were omitted as covariates too, after verification that inclusion or exclusion of
4 this parameter did not substantially affected the results (Additional File 2: Supplementary Methods).
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6 Due to the small number of subjects with incident diabetes identified at follow-up (n=9), diabetes was
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8 not included in the covariate list.
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12 DMRs with FDR Q -value<0.05 were considered statistically significant and investigated in the EPIC-
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14 NL sample with the same statistical approach. The Q statistic [57] was used to assess heterogeneity
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16 between the two sample panels: provided no heterogeneity was found, an inverse variance weighted
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18 fixed effect meta-analysis, was additionally carried out to achieve an overall estimate of the two
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20 studies.
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26 *Case-control LINE-1 methylation analyses*

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28 To analyze LINE-1 methylation levels from BeadChip data we first identified all the BeadChip's
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30 CpGs lying in LINE-1 sequences according to the UCSC Genome Browser database. The cumulative
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32 DNA-methylation level of LINE-1 sequences was computed, for each subject, as the average
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34 methylation level across the 12,762 CpGs, out of the >450K assayed on the BeadChip, that were
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36 annotated in LINE-1 sequences. Case-control differences were assayed by logistic regression, with
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38 methylation levels as a continuous variable, and the same adjustment used for the case-control DMRs
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40 discovery and replication analyses. For replication purposes, the same analysis was performed on the
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42 EPIC-NL samples using LINE-1 methylation data from MassARRAY analysis (Additional file 2:
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44 Supplementary Methods). A LINE-1 methylation meta-analysis of the two studies was also done as
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46 described above.
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53 *DNA methylation and MI risk*

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55 EPICOR and EPIC-NL subjects, stratified by sex and by study, were clustered with a RPMM
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57 algorithm [58] into 4 classes according to their *ZBTB12*-DMR methylation profile, irrespective of
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59 case-control status. Each subject was also allocated to a LINE-1 methylation class (above/below the
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1 median). The association between MI and DNA-methylation (as RPMM class, or LINE-1 methylation
2 profile) was evaluated on the EPIC-NL panel by logistic regression analysis, stratifying-by sex.

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4 Moreover, to test the dependence/independence of the DNA-methylation effects from the traditional
5 risk factors, we compared the ORs associated to each RPMM class and to LINE-1 methylation status
6 under three logistic regression models, progressively including additional covariates at each step. To
7 this purpose, the same analysis was done on the EPICOR discovery panel as well, under the caveat
8 that the estimated ORs in this case should not be considered as a risk estimate, being assessed in the
9 discovery panel and, as such, putatively inflated. Briefly, Model 1 included the matching variables
10 only, Model 2 included the whole set of covariates used for the case-control DMRs discovery and
11 replication analyses, and Model 3 was fully adjusted with the comprehensive set of variables as
12 available in the 2 studies. Further methodological details are provided in Additional file 2:
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Supplementary Methods.

Discrimination, reclassification, and calibration

We tested for the improvement in the performance of MI risk prediction when including DMRs and
LINE-1 profiles identified in the EPICOR dataset (discovery phase) by running discrimination and
reclassification analyses on the independent EPIC-NL dataset. Two models were compared: the first
one included only TRFs that were significantly associated to MI in our study or reported in the
literature to be associated to MI (Figure 1, legend); the second one comprised TRFs as model 1 plus
ZBTB12-RPMM classes and LINE-1 methylation class.

For discrimination, we compared the AUC of the two models by the DeLong test [59]. For
reclassification, we computed the NRI and IDI indices [60]. The goodness-of-fit was evaluated by the
Hosmer-Lemeshow (HL) test [61] in order to assess the proper calibration of the model.

DNA-methylation and TTD

Being EPICOR and EPIC-NL prospective cohorts with incident MI cases identified during cohort
follow-up, we investigated the relationship between methylation and TTD, i.e. the time lapse between
blood collection and the MI event. EPICOR and EPIC-NL cases, stratified by study and by sex, were

divided in tertiles according to TTD. Control groups were used as reference. The occurrence of a linear trend between DNA-methylation levels and TTD, as ordinal categorical variable, was tested by GEE (details in Additional file 2).

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Abbreviations

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2 WBCs: white blood cells
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4 MI: myocardial infarction
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6 DMR: differentially methylated region
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8 CVD: cardiovascular disease
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10 LINE-1: long interspersed nuclear element-1
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12 EWAS: epigenome-wide association study
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14 EPIC: European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition
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16 BMI: body mass index
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18 WHR: waist-to-hip ratio
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20 QC: quality control
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22 FDR: false discovery rate
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24 TRFs: traditional risk factors
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26 NRI index: net reclassification improvement index
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28 IDI index: integrated discrimination improvement index
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30 AUC: area under receiver operating curve
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32 RPMM: recursively partitioned mixture model
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34 TTD: time to disease
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36 MBPs: methyl-CpG binding proteins
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38 GEE: generalized estimating equations
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40 Beta-value: estimate of methylation level at each CpG
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Competing interests

The author(s) declare that they have no competing interests

Authors' contribution

GM, SPa, VK, CS, SG and GF_i conceived the study.

SPa, AM, PC, VK, CA, RT, GF_r, PV, FR_i, CS and GM for EPIC-Italy (EPICOR), and MWMV,

JMAB, NCOM and YTvdS for EPIC-NL enrolled the subjects, managed personal information

databases (data from questionnaires, clinical data, cohort follow up data) as responsible of the

respective cohorts, coordinated biospecimens storage, retrieval, and shipment to the analytical

laboratories at HuGeF;

GF_i, PC, and FR_i contributed to sample selection and EPIC-Italy (EPICOR) database management;

SG, AA, AR and SPo, carried out all the laboratory analyses from DNA extraction (EPICOR) to

DNA-methylation analyses (EPICOR and EPIC-NL);

LI carried out all the biochemical measurements on the EPICOR samples;

GF_i carried out all the statistical analyses;

SG, AA, AR, CDG, GM substantially contributed to the interpretation of results;

SG wrote the manuscript;

GM, GF_i, CDG, MWMV, JMAB, NCOM, YTvdS, PV, CS, LI, VK and SPa critically revised the

manuscript content and provided important intellectual content;

All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Additional files

Additional file 1: Supplemental Tables S1, S2, S3, S4

A document with all supplementary Tables (S1 to S4). **Table S1:** Top 6 genic DMRs in EPICOR MI overall cases *vs* controls. **Table S2A:** Details of the ZBTB12-DMR CpGs in EPICOR subjects. **Table S2B:** Details of the ZBTB12-DMR CpGs in EPIC-NL subjects. **Table S3A:** EPIC-NL MI risk, Adjusted Models. **Table S3B:** EPICOR, Adjusted Models. **Table S4A:** EPICOR case-control differential methylation analysis: comparison of models with and without lipids adjustment. **Table S4B:** EPIC-NL case-control differential methylation analysis: comparison of models with and without lipids, batch, and WBCs adjustments.

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Additional file 2: Supplementary Methods

A document with supplementary materials, including: (1) **Subjects:** Cohort details; Lifestyle, anthropometrics, and biochemical measurements; Outcome definition; (2) **Laboratory methods:** EPICOR Sample preparation; Discovery phase: Illumina Human450K Methylation Assay; Replication phase on EPIC-NL sample: Sequenom MassArray; (3) **Supplementary statistical methods:** Case-control differential methylation; Removal of technical biases; DNA methylation and MI risk; DNA-methylation and time to disease (TTD); Supplementary References.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. Receiver Operating Curves (ROC), EPIC-NL validation sample

Model1 (TRFs, dotted line) includes age, sex, center of recruitment, smoking habits, BMI, WHR, lipid levels, blood pressure, menopausal status in women.

Model2 (TRFs+Meth., solid line), as Model1 plus *ZBTB12*-RPMM classes, LINE-1 methylation profile.

Panel A: EPIC-NL Men; B: EPIC-NL Women. Statistics in Table 2.

Figure 2. Calibration Plots, EPIC-NL validation sample

Goodness of Fit, Model1 (TRFs, triangles) vs Model2 (TRFs+Meth., dots).

Hosmer-Lemeshow test: Men: $P_{\text{TRF}}=0.118$, $P_{\text{TRF+M}}=0.414$; Women: $P_{\text{TRF}}=0.636$, $P_{\text{TRF+M}}=0.724$

Panel A: EPIC-NL Men; B: EPIC-NL Women. Statistics in Table 2.

Supplementary Figures Legends

Figure S1: Quantile-Quantile plot, EPICOR overall subjects

Figure S2: Quantile-Quantile plot, EPICOR men

Figure S3: Quantile-Quantile plot, EPICOR women

Figure S4: Locations of *ZBTB12* and LINE-1 CpG sites investigated by Sequenom MassARRAY

CpGs (in red) investigated within *ZBTB12*-DMR, LINE-1, and flanking primers (upper case: complementary to DNA; lower case: T7-promoter sequence and 10mer tag).

CpG sites that could not be tested individually due to MassArray technology constrains, but had to be tested jointly with neighboring CpGs as a single unit, are underlined: the methylation level is the cumulative value of all the sites within the CpG unit.

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TABLE 1. EPICOR and EPIC-NL sample descriptive

	EPICOR MEN		EPICOR WOMEN		EPIC-NL MEN		EPIC-NL WOMEN	
	CASES	CONTROLS	CASES	CONTROLS	CASES	CONTROLS	CASES	CONTROLS
	(N=188)	(N=188)	(N=104)	(N=104)	(N=116)	(N=83)	(N=201)	(N=179)
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Centre								
Varese	42 (22.34)	42 (22.34)	67 (65.69)	67 (65.69)				
Ragusa	19 (10.11)	19 (10.11)	3 (2.94)	3 (2.94)				
Turin	127 (67.55)	127 (67.55)	23 (22.55)	23 (22.55)				
Naples	--	--	11 (10.78)	11 (10.78)				
Utrecht					--	--	149 (74.13)	140 (78.21)
Bilthoven					116 (100)	83 (100)	52 (25.87)	39 (21.79)

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Smoking status

Never	33 (17.55)	50 (26.60)	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> } </div>		53 (50.96)	73 (70.19)	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> } </div>		19 (16.38)	18 (21.69)	60 (29.85)	85 (47.49)	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> } </div>	
Former	70 (37.23)	87 (46.28)	*		11 (10.58)	13 (12.50)	*		34 (29.31)	32 (38.55)	48 (23.88)	48 (26.81)	*	
Current	85 (45.21)	51 (27.13)			40 (38.46)	18 (17.31)			62 (53.45)	33 (39.76)	89 (44.28)	45 (25.14)		
NA									1 (0.86)		4 (1.99)	1 (0.56)		

Menopausal Status

Pre-menopause					27 (25.96)	26 (25.00)					43 (21.39)	42 (23.46)
Post-menopause					77 (74.04)	78 (75.00)					158 (78.61)	137 (76.54)

	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD	Mean±SD
Age at recruitment (years)	50.98±6.93	50.92±7.01	55.01±7.40	55.01±7.51	51.51±7.68	51.11±8.30	58.56±8.74	59.30±8.12	
Avg. Follow -up (years)	12.98±2.29	13.26±2.06	12.24±1.97	12.66±1.16	13.07±5.21	15.25±2.31 [†]	11.61±4.92	14.27±2.62 [†]	
Avg. TTD (years)	7.14±3.88	--	6.54±3.57	--	5.44±3.22	--	5.76±3.06	--	

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BMI (kg/m²)	27.05±2.96	26.35±3.12 [†]	26.95±4.69	25.93±5.11	27.12±3.30	27.08±3.15	26.47±4.24	26.05±4.17
WHR	0.94±0.06	0.93±0.06 [†]	0.83±0.06	0.79±0.06 [†]	0.95±0.08	0.94±0.08	0.82±0.07	0.80±0.07 [†]
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	6.10±1.12	5.86±1.22	6.42±1.23	6.36±1.16	6.24±0.95	5.79±0.97 [†]	5.51±0.98	5.27±0.98 [†]
LDL Cholesterol (mmol/L)	3.94±1.00	3.60±1.01 [†]	4.07±1.15	3.97±1.01	3.60±0.94	3.34±0.92	3.44±0.82	3.19±0.77 [†]
HDL Cholesterol (mmol/L)	1.30±0.29	1.48±0.37 [†]	1.55±0.39	1.76±0.41 [†]	1.11±0.28	1.12±0.28	1.16±0.33	1.27±0.36 [†]
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.89±0.99	1.71±1.04	1.74±1.43	1.38±0.57 [†]	2.28±1.27	2.28±1.46	1.77±0.98	1.54±0.91 [†]
SBP (mmHg)	137.47±16.56	135.04±19.03	144.36±9.77	136.76±10.08 [†]	134.43±17.61	128.51±14.93 [†]	138.50±22.23	133.59±20.76 [†]
DBP (mmHg)	85.38±8.96	84.97±10.80	86.08±22.13	84.97±19.02	84.96±10.71	80.60±10.19 [†]	81.99±11.20	79.22±11.18 [†]
Alcohol (gr/day)	23.46±20.26	24.98±20.90	6.29±10.78	8.76±15.43	19.42±21.89	18.41±22.27	7.55±11.24	8.44±12.21

*Chi-Squared test P<0.05

[†]T-Test P<0.05

LDL = Low Density Lipoprotein; HDL = High Density Lipoprotein; SBP = Systolic Blood Pressure; DBP = Diastolic Blood Pressure; TTD: time to disease.

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TABLE 2. Discrimination and reclassification indices, EPIC-NL validation sample

	AUC_{TRF} (95%CI)	AUC_{TRF+M} (95%CI)	DeLong's test <i>P</i>	NRI (95%CI)	<i>P</i>_{NRI}	IDI (95%CI)	<i>P</i>_{IDI}
EPIC-NL MEN	0.66 (0.58-0.74)	0.70 (0.63-0.78)	0.147	0.47 (0.19-0.76)	0.001	0.04 (0.01-0.08)	0.004
EPIC-NL							
WOMEN	0.66 (0.61-0.72)	0.69 (0.63-0.74)	0.095	0.23 (0.02-0.43)	0.034	0.03 (0.01-0.05)	0.001

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Table 3. DNA-methylation and time-to-disease (TTD)

TTD Class*	Range [‡]	<i>ZBTB12</i>					LINE-1				
		Effect-size	95%CI	se	P _{TREND}	Cochran's Q	Effect-size	95%CI	se	P _{TREND}	Cochran's Q
EPICOR MEN											
TTD class1	8.89-14.66										
TTD class2	5.23-8.88	-0.0054	-0.0090;-0.0018	0.0018	0.0036		-0.0009	-0.0016;-0.0003	0.0003	0.0044	
TTD class3	0.26-5.20										
EPIC-NL MEN											
TTD class1	6.97-12.31										
TTD class2	3.53-6.86	-0.0093	-0.0182;-0.0005	0.0045	0.0389		-0.0035	-0.0070;0.00003	0.0018	0.0537	
TTD class3	0.23-3.52										
Meta-analysis		-0.0059	-0.0093;-0.0027	0.0017	0.0005	0.65 [†]	-0.0010	-0.0017;-0.0004	0.0003	0.0016	2.03 [†]
EPICOR WOMEN											
TTD class1	8.16-14.02										
TTD class2	4.40-8.06	-0.0056	-0.0106;-0.0007	0.0025	0.0250		-0.0008	-0.0017;0.00004	0.0004	0.0636	
TTD class3	0.33-4.30										
EPIC-NL WOMEN											

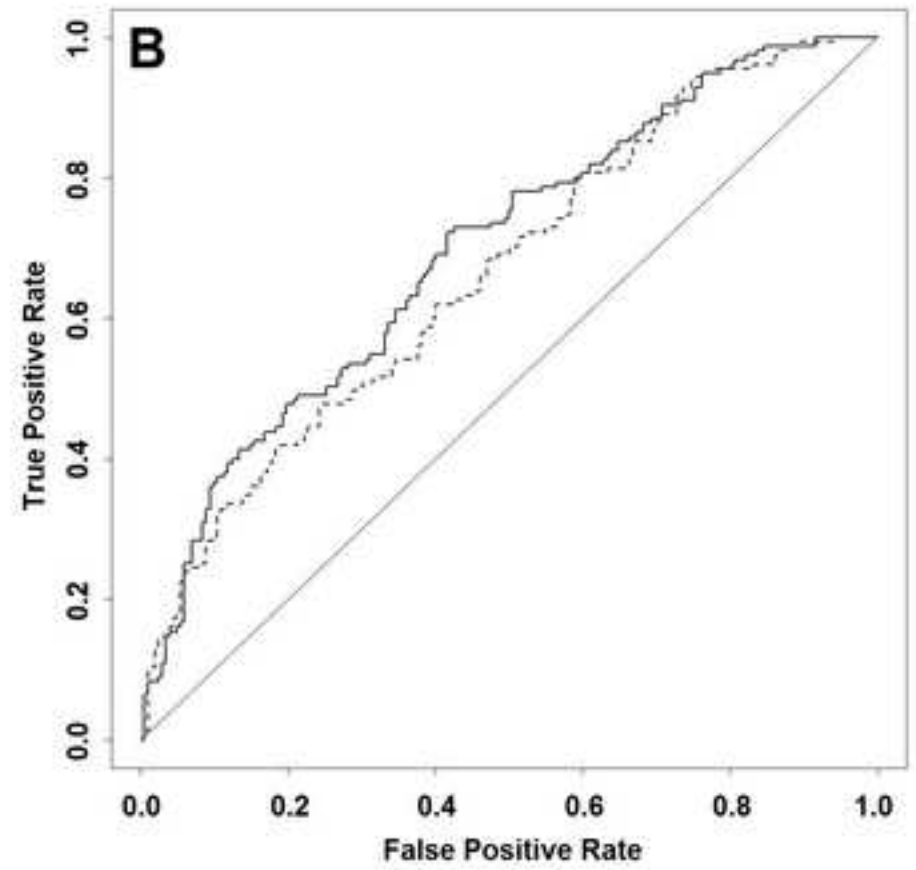
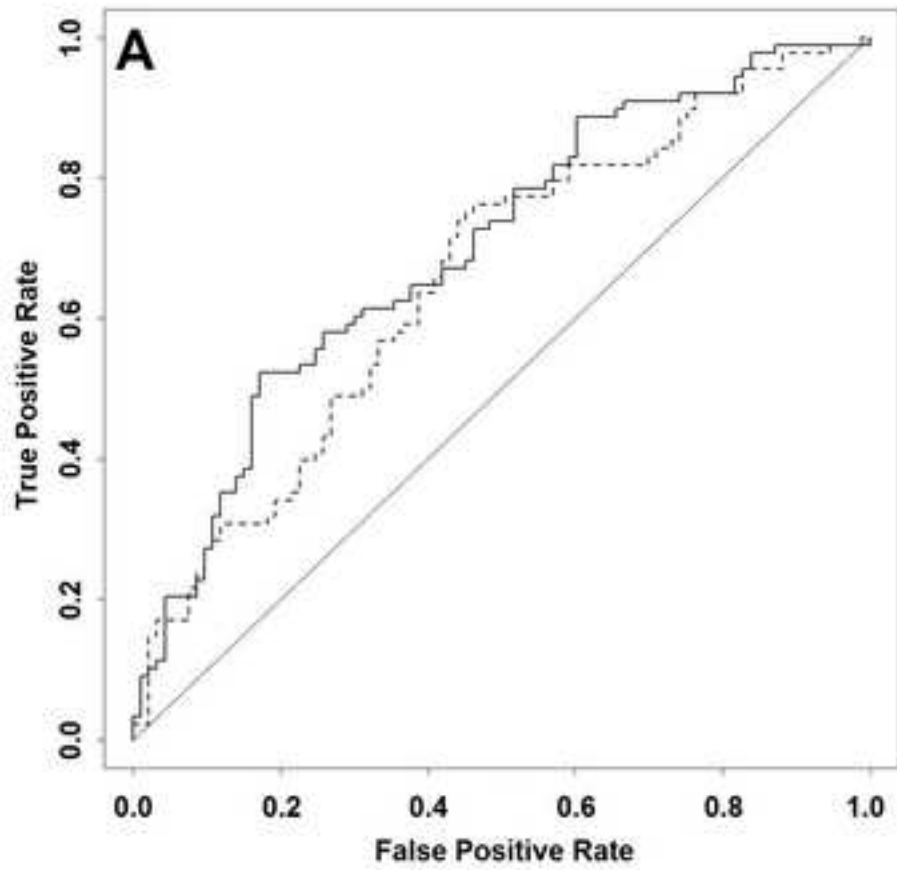
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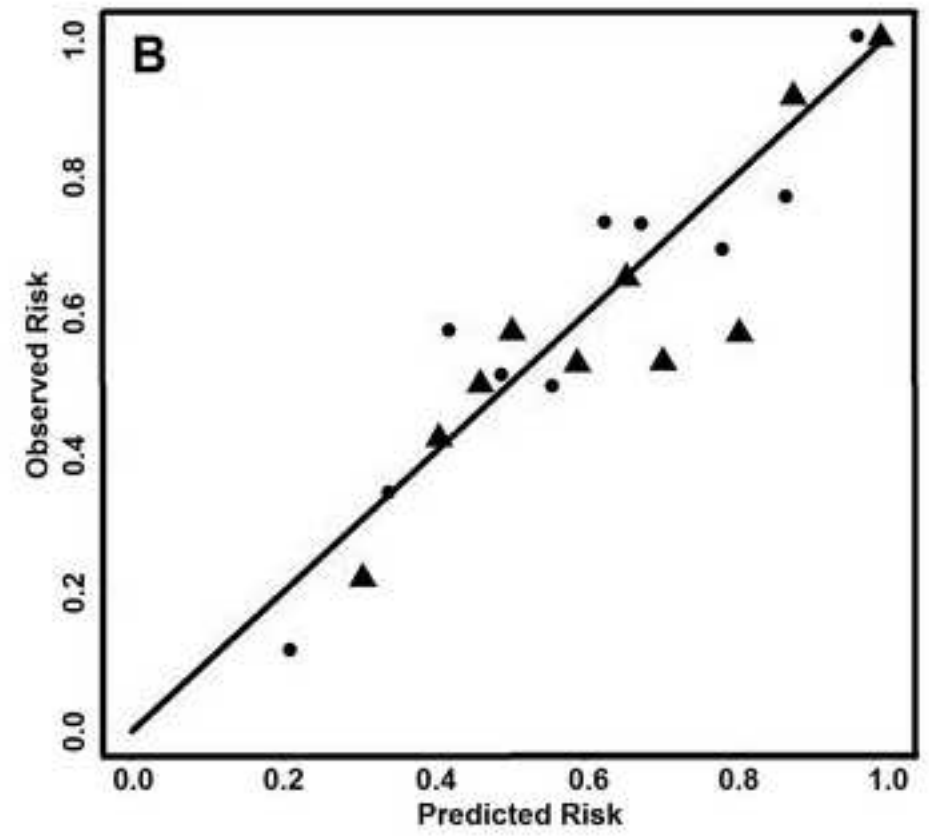
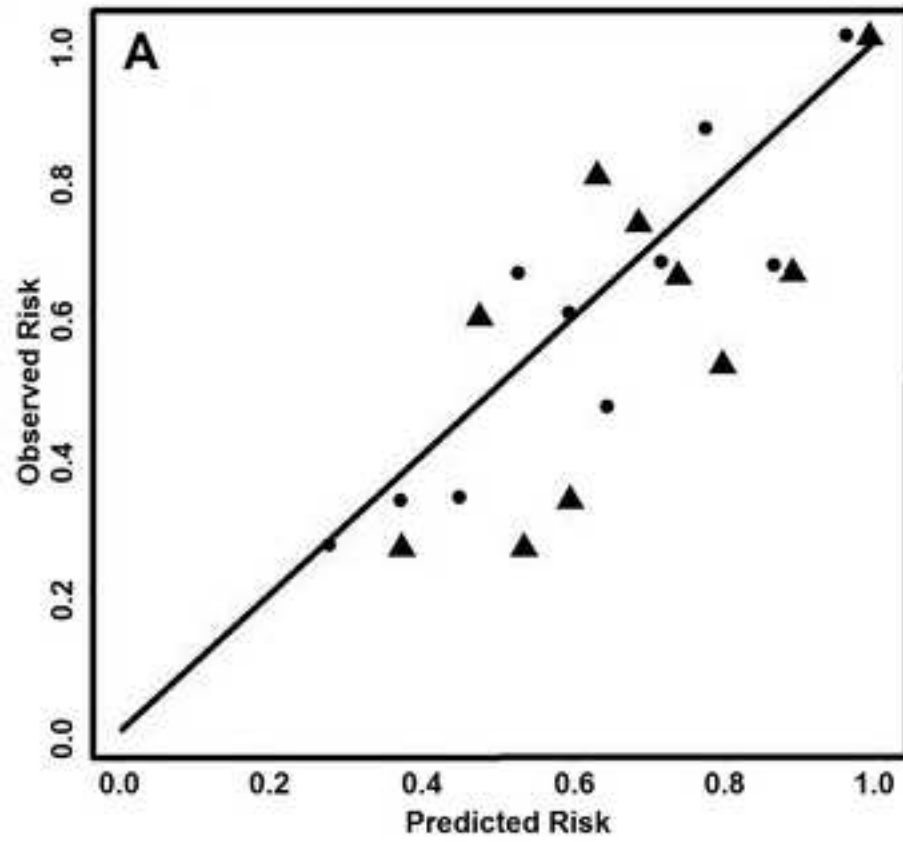
TTD class1	7.35-12.30											
TTD class2	4.40-7.21	-0.0047	-0.0106;0.0011	0.0030	0.1147		-0.0011	-0.0032;0.0010	0.0011	0.2970		
TTD class3	0.04-4.38											
Meta-analysis		-0.0053	-0.0091;-0.0015	0.0019	0.0065	0.05 [†]	-0.0008	-0.0016;-0.0001	0.0004	0.0263	0.07 [†]	

*Healthy controls (TTD class 0) were used as reference group. Cases were divided in tertiles (TTD classes 1 to 3)

‡Minimum and maximum TTD (i.e. time-lapse in years from enrollment to occurrence of MI) for each class

†d.f.=1, *P*=ns







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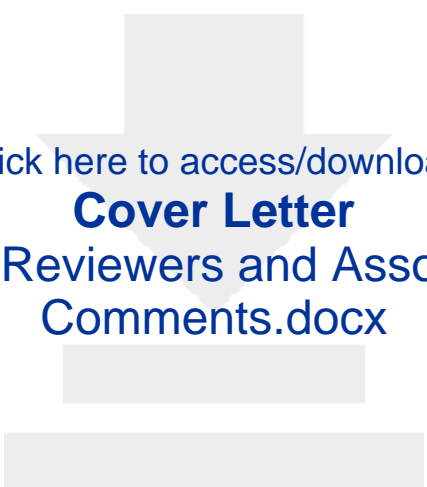




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overall.jpg



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locations.pdf