

1 **Variable DNA methylation in neonates mediates the association between prenatal**  
2 **smoking and birth weight.**

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1 **Summary**

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There is great interest in the role epigenetic variation induced by non-genetic exposures may play in the context of health and disease. In particular, DNA methylation has previously been shown to be highly dynamic during the earliest stages of development and is influenced by *in utero* exposures such as maternal smoking and medication. In this study we sought to identify the specific DNA methylation differences in blood-associated prenatal exposures including birth weight, gestational age and maternal smoking. We quantified neonatal methylomic variation in 1,263 infants using DNA isolated from a unique collection of archived blood spots taken shortly after birth (mean = 6.08 days; sd = 3.24 days). An epigenome-wide association study (EWAS) of gestational age and birth weight identified 4,299 and 18 differentially methylated positions (DMPs) respectively, at an experiment-wide significance threshold of  $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ . Our EWAS of maternal smoking during pregnancy identified 110 DMPs in neonatal blood, replicating previously reported genomic loci including *AHRR*. Finally, we tested the hypothesis that DNA methylation mediates the relationship between maternal smoking and lower birth weight, finding evidence that methylomic variation at three DMPs may link exposure to outcome. These findings complement an expanding literature on the epigenomic consequences of prenatal exposures and obstetric factors, confirming a link between the maternal environment and gene regulation in neonates.

1 **Main Text**

2

3 *Introduction*

4 Epigenetic mechanisms developmentally regulate gene expression via modifications to DNA,  
5 histone proteins, and chromatin. Because epigenetic processes can be influenced by  
6 exposure to a range of external environmental factors (1-4) and also by genetic variation(5,  
7 6) , there is great interest in the role that epigenetic variation may play in the context of  
8 health and disease(7) . As epigenetic marks are inherited mitotically in somatic cell lineages,  
9 they provide a mechanism by which disruption early in life can be propagated through  
10 development, producing long-term phenotypic variation. DNA methylation is the best-  
11 characterized epigenetic modification, stably influencing gene expression via the disruption  
12 of transcription factor binding and recruitment of methyl-binding proteins that initiate  
13 chromatin compaction and gene silencing. Despite being often regarded as a mechanism of  
14 transcriptional repression, DNA methylation is associated with both increased and  
15 decreased gene expression (8), and also influences other genomic functions including  
16 alternative splicing and promoter usage (9).

17

18 The availability of high-throughput profiling methods for quantifying DNA methylation across  
19 the genome at single base resolution in large numbers of samples has enabled researchers  
20 to perform epigenome-wide association studies (EWAS) aimed at identifying methylomic  
21 variation associated with environmental exposures and disease (7). Although these studies  
22 are inherently more complex to design and interpret than genetic association studies (10-  
23 12), recent analyses have documented differences in DNA methylation in neonates and  
24 children following exposure to a wide range of environmental factors during gestation,  
25 including maternal smoking, maternal diet and pollution (2, 3, 13). There is also interest in  
26 the role that DNA methylation may play as mediator through which environment exposures  
27 can influence long-term health outcomes. For example, there is evidence that the causal  
28 relationship between maternal smoking during pregnancy and low birth weight is mediated  
29 through differences in DNA methylation at specific loci across the genome (14, 15). While  
30 noteworthy, these analyses have been based on moderate samples sizes, have generally  
31 not replicated the same loci, and may have overestimated mediation effects because of  
32 invalid assumptions and misclassification of the exposure (16).

33

34 Another active area of research concerns the utility of DNA methylation as a biomarker for  
35 clinical monitoring and screening. The potential of a DNA methylation based predictor has  
36 been most robustly demonstrated for age, with a number of algorithms available, referred to  
37 as “epigenetic clocks” (17-19). There is particular interest in how measures of age derived

1 from DNA methylation data correlate with actual chronological age, and also whether  
2 "accelerated" epigenetic age predicts aging phenotypes such as mortality, cancer and  
3 dementia (18, 20, 21). There is also interest in whether other exposures (or phenotypes) can  
4 be inferred from an epigenetic profile. The development of an epigenetic biomarker using  
5 neonatal blood samples might enable the evaluation of *in utero* exposures, which are hard to  
6 measure objectively, and could be a useful prospective predictor for future health outcomes.  
7 To this end, a biomarker of maternal smoking during pregnancy was recently developed  
8 using cord blood samples that demonstrates high specificity (97%) - but only moderate  
9 sensitivity (58%)(22) - demonstrating the potential application of such approaches. Because  
10 DNA methylation is known to be highly dynamic during the earliest stages of development  
11 (23, 24), insults during this period may have important functional consequences or impact  
12 upon disease susceptibility later in life. Of note, several psychiatric disorders are  
13 hypothesised to have important neurodevelopmental origins (25-27) and have been  
14 associated with a number of prenatal and perinatal risk factors. For example,  
15 epidemiological studies have reported a higher risk of autism in those born with a low birth  
16 weight (28, 29) or born pre-term (30). Although DNA methylation predictors for age (18) and  
17 smoking (31) developed in childhood or adult samples have been shown to work reasonably  
18 well, methods developed specifically in either cord blood or neonatal samples have superior  
19 performance at these ages (19).

20

21 In this study, we first sought to identify specific patterns of DNA methylation in neonatal  
22 blood samples associated with three obstetric and neonatal influences measured in the  
23 same individuals: birth weight, gestational age and exposure to maternal smoking. We  
24 subsequently use our results to explore whether variable DNA methylation mediates the  
25 relationship between maternal smoking and low birth weight. We attempted to address these  
26 questions by quantifying methylomic variation in 1,263 infants using DNA isolated from  
27 archived blood spots taken shortly after birth (mean = 6.08 days; sd = 3.24 days) originally  
28 profiled in a case-control study of autism (32). Although we cannot exclude the role of DNA  
29 methylation changes occurring during the first few days after birth, our study extends  
30 previous research into the early-life epigenome that have either used samples collected later  
31 in childhood or from cord blood (13, 24, 33), which has the limitation that it may be  
32 contaminated by maternal blood (34, 35). Our findings complement the expanding literature  
33 on the epigenomic consequences of prenatal exposures and obstetric factors, confirming a  
34 link between the maternal environment and markers of gene regulation in neonates.

## 1 **Methods**

### 2 *Overview of the MINERvA cohort*

3 A description of the MINERvA cohort was recently published alongside extensive details of  
4 the profiling of DNA methylation and data quality control steps (32). Briefly, MINERvA  
5 contains a subset of 1,316 samples from the iPSYCH autism spectrum disorder case-control  
6 sample (36). All perinatal data used for case-control sample matching, plus additional  
7 information on birth weight and maternal smoking were obtained from the Danish Medical  
8 Birth Register or the Central Person Register. An overview of the demographic  
9 characteristics of the MINERvA cohort is given in **Supplementary Table 1**. Of note, cases  
10 and controls were matched as closely as possible. Although rates of maternal smoking were  
11 higher in autism cases, there was no significant difference in birth weight between autism  
12 cases and controls.

13

### 14 *DNA methylation profiling in MINERvA*

15 Neonatal dried blood spot samples collected on standard Guthrie cards and stored within the  
16 Danish Neonatal Screening Biobank (37) were retrieved as part of the iPSYCH study (36).  
17 Neonatal DNA extractions and DNA methylation quantification was performed at the Statens  
18 Serum Institut (SSI, Copenhagen, Capital Region, Denmark). Briefly, DNA was converted  
19 with sodium bisulfite using the EZ-96 DNA Methylation Kit (Zymo Research, California,  
20 United States of America) and DNA methylation was quantified across the genome using the  
21 Infinium HumanMethylation450k array ("450K array") (Illumina, California, United States of  
22 America). After a stringent quality control process (outlined in (32)), 1,263 samples (96.0%)  
23 were included for subsequent analysis. Normalization of the DNA methylation data was  
24 performed using the *dasen()* function in the *wateRmelon* package(38). For each sample, we  
25 derived nine additional variables from the DNA methylation data using established  
26 algorithms: DNA methylation age(18), gestational age(19), smoking(31), and six blood cell  
27 composition variables(39, 40). Our previous publication on these data demonstrated that the  
28 smoking score, despite being trained in adults who smoked, correlated with reported  
29 maternal smoking status from the registry data (32). All quality control and statistical  
30 analyses were performed using the R statistical environment version 3.2.1 (41).

31

### 32 *Epigenome-wide association analyses (EWAS)*

33 We performed an EWAS of three obstetric/neonatal factors that were robustly measured in  
34 our cohort. First, to identify DNA methylation sites associated with birth weight (measured in  
35 grams (g)) and gestational age (measured in weeks), a linear model was fitted for each DNA  
36 methylation site with DNA methylation as the dependent variable, both birth weight and  
37 gestational age as independent variables, and a set of possible confounders as covariates:

1 sex, experimental array number (i.e., chip), days to sampling, maternal smoking (using the  
2 continuous variable estimated from the DNA methylation data) and six derived cell  
3 composition variables. Given the strong concordance between the findings of our maternal  
4 smoking EWAS and those of previous EWAS analyses of smoking (see Results), we used  
5 the derived maternal smoking score to make up for missing data in the registry data and  
6 maximize power for analyses. To compare results between autism spectrum disorder (ASD)  
7 cases and controls, we tested for a heterogeneous effect by including an interaction term  
8 between i) birth weight and case control status, and ii) gestational age and case control  
9 status. In these interaction models, ASD case control status was also included as a main  
10 effect. Second, to identify differentially methylated positions (DMPs) associated with registry-  
11 reported maternal smoking exposure, a linear model was fitted for each DNA methylation  
12 site with DNA methylation as the dependent variable, and a binary indicator variable for *in*  
13 *utero* exposure to smoking in addition to a set of possible confounders as covariates: sex,  
14 birth weight, gestational age, experimental array number (i.e. chip), and six derived blood  
15 cell composition variables. Significant DMPs were identified at an experiment-wide multiple  
16 testing adjusted threshold of  $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ . Clustering of significant DMPs into loci was  
17 performed by taking each significant site in turn, starting with the one with the smallest p  
18 value (referred to as the index association), identifying all other significant sites within 5kb  
19 upstream and downstream and merging these into a single locus. Any less significant (i.e.  
20 larger p value) DMPs merged with an index site were then excluded from consideration as  
21 an index association. This procedure was repeated until all significant DMPs were either  
22 merged with a more significant association or considered as an index site. Conditional  
23 analyses were performed within loci with at least two DMPs by repeating the original  
24 association analysis for the secondary signal (i.e. the less significant site) including the most  
25 significant DNA methylation site in that loci as an additional covariate.

26

### 27 *Replication dataset*

28 The Accessible Resource for Integrated Epigenomic Studies (ARIES;  
29 <http://www.ariesepigenomics.org.uk>) cohort comprises of a sub-sample of 1018 ALSPAC  
30 (<http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/>) child–mother pairs with Illumina 450K array DNA  
31 methylation data generated from cord blood (n = 914), and whole blood at two time points  
32 during childhood (age 7 (n = 973) and age 15 or 17 years (n = 974)). The results used in this  
33 manuscript are taken from the gestational age and birth weight EWAS performed by Simpkin  
34 *et al*(24) and presented in Supplementary Table 1 and Table 3 published alongside the  
35 manuscript.

36

### 37 *Mediation analyses*

1 Mediation analyses were performed using the criteria outlined by Baron and Kenny(42) and  
2 the Sobel test(43). We considered DMPs associated with registry-reported maternal smoking  
3 without controlling for birth weight in our dataset (n = 143 DMPs) and tested whether the  
4 following criteria were met for each site:

- 5 (i) smoking significantly correlated with DNA methylation level ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ; sex,  
6 gestational age, batch and cell composition included as covariates).
- 7 (ii) smoking significantly correlated with birth weight without adjusting the model  
8 for DNA methylation (sex and gestational age included as covariates).
- 9 (iii) DNA methylation significantly correlated with birth weight ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ; sex,  
10 gestational age, batch and cell composition included as covariates).
- 11 (iv) the association between smoking and birth weight decreased upon addition  
12 of DNA methylation to the model (i.e. p value got larger; sex, gestational age,  
13 batch and cell composition included as covariates).
- 14 (v) the Sobel test gave  $P < 3.50 \times 10^{-4}$  (corrected for 143 DMPs considered,  
15 implemented through the R *bda* package ([https://cran.r-](https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/bda/index.html)  
16 [project.org/web/packages/bda/index.html](https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/bda/index.html)).

17  
18 DMPs meeting the criteria for mediation were taken forward for a sensitivity analysis that  
19 accounted for misclassification of the exposure following the method outlined in Valeri *et*  
20 *al*(16) using the SIMEX procedure(44). Our naive outcome regression model between birth  
21 weight and registry-reported maternal smoking exposure and naïve mediator regression  
22 model between DNA methylation and birth weight included covariates for gestational age,  
23 sex, cellular composition and experimental chip. The naive direct effect is then the  
24 coefficient from the outcome regression model for maternal smoking and the naïve indirect  
25 effect is the naive direct effect multiplied by the estimated coefficient for maternal smoking  
26 from the mediator regression. Applying SIMEX to outcome and mediator regressions, we  
27 obtained corrected estimates of the regression parameters which were then used to  
28 calculate the direct and indirect effects. We set the parameter for specificity to 1.0 as we  
29 assume that all smokers are likely to have reported correctly, whereas we assume that some  
30 non-smokers will have reported incorrectly therefore the sensitivity parameter was set to 0.6.  
31 A bootstrap method was used to estimate the standard errors of the estimated effects and  
32 their 95% confidence intervals.  
33

## 1 **Results**

2 *Blood cell proportions derived from DNA methylation data correlate with birth weight and*  
3 *gestational age in neonatal blood.*

4 Our first analyses aimed to explore whether measures derived from DNA methylation data at  
5 birth (i.e. gestational age and blood cell composition estimates) are associated with birth  
6 weight. We previously demonstrated the robustness of DNA methylation data derived from  
7 neonatal blood spots by implementing two DNA methylation clock algorithms to derive  
8 estimates for i) age in years(18) and ii) gestational age in weeks(19) for each sample. As  
9 expected, we observed a strong positive correlation between estimated and actual  
10 gestational age ( $r = 0.602$ , 95% CI = (0.566, 0.636),  $P = 3.80 \times 10^{-125}$ ) and a weaker positive  
11 correlation between estimated chronological age and actual gestational age ( $r = 0.139$ , 95%  
12 CI = (0.0849, 0.193),  $P = 6.52 \times 10^{-7}$ )(32). We next extended these analyses to investigate  
13 how birth weight correlates with these predicted ages and whether variable birth weight  
14 explains the difference between predicted age (derived from DNA methylation data) and  
15 actual age. Birth weight was significant correlated with predicted measures of both age ( $r =$   
16  $0.119$ , 95% CI = (0.0638, 0.173),  $P = 2.40 \times 10^{-5}$ ; **Supplementary Figure 1A**) and gestational  
17 age ( $r = 0.333$ , 95% CI = (0.0849, 0.193),  $P = 5.15 \times 10^{-34}$ ; **Supplementary Figure 1B**).  
18 However, the age acceleration residuals - which are adjusted for reported gestational age -  
19 are not significantly associated with birth weight ( $P > 0.05$ , **Supplementary Figure 1C, 1D**)  
20 indicating that variation in birth weight does not explain the difference between reported  
21 gestational age and predicted age and that other pregnancy and/or obstetric factors may be  
22 influencing derived age estimates. Given the difficulties in collecting large volumes of blood  
23 from neonates, little is known about blood cell-type variation at this stage of life. We  
24 therefore explored how predicted cellular composition variables derived from the DNA  
25 methylation data (see **Methods**) correlate with birth weight and reported gestational age.  
26 Gestational age was positively correlated with the estimated proportions of CD8 T- cells ( $r =$   
27  $0.140$ ; 95% CI = (0.0857,0.194),  $P = 5.63 \times 10^{-7}$ ) and natural killer cells ( $r = 0.0722$ , 95% CI =  
28 (0.0171,0.127),  $P = 0.0103$ ), and negatively correlated with the estimated proportion of B  
29 cells ( $r = -0.231$ , 95% CI = (-0.282, -0.178),  $P = 1.06 \times 10^{-16}$ ) (**Supplementary Figure 2**). Birth  
30 weight was significantly negatively correlated with the estimated proportion of monocytes ( $r$   
31  $= -0.0604$ , 95% CI = (-0.115, -0.00529),  $P = 0.0317$ ) and positively correlated with the  
32 estimated proportion of granulocytes ( $r = 0.0624$ , 95% CI = (0.00727, 0.117),  $P = 0.0266$ )  
33 (**Supplementary Figure 3**). Given the potential confounding influence of cellular  
34 heterogeneity in EWAS analyses using blood, these derived variables were included in all  
35 subsequent analyses.

36

1 *Birth weight and gestational age are associated with variable DNA methylation in neonatal*  
2 *blood*

3 To identify DNA methylation sites associated with reported gestational age and birth weight  
4 we next performed an EWAS across all Illumina 450K array sites on the autosomes and X-  
5 chromosome (n = 430,676 sites), undertaking the analyses simultaneously to minimise  
6 confounding resulting from the strong correlation between these two obstetric variables (r =  
7 0.491, 95% CI = (0.448, 0.532), P =  $1.14 \times 10^{-77}$ ; **Supplementary Figure 4**). In total, we  
8 identified 18 differentially methylated positions (DMPs) associated with birth weight (**Figure**  
9 **1**; **Supplementary Figure 5** and **Supplementary Figure 6**) and 4,299 DMPs associated  
10 with gestational age (**Figure 1**; **Supplementary Figure 7** and **Supplementary Figure 8**) at  
11 an experiment-wide significance threshold ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ) (**Supplementary Tables 2** and **3**).  
12 The associated DMPs were characterized by a median shift in DNA methylation of 1.40%  
13 (SD = 0.368%) per kg and 0.406% (SD = 0.275) per gestational week. Seven sites were  
14 significantly associated with both birth weight and gestational age (**Table 1**). Sensitivity  
15 analyses repeating the EWAS excluding samples from 'outlier' individuals born i) before 35  
16 weeks (N = 23) or ii) before 32 weeks (N = 5) revealed high concordance with our primary  
17 analysis (**Supplementary Figure 9**), suggesting that the results are robust to the presence  
18 of premature individuals. Although the majority of DMPs associated with increased birth  
19 weight were associated with reduced DNA methylation (66.7%) there was not a significant  
20 bias (sign test P = 0.238) due to the small total number of DMPs identified. In contrast, there  
21 was a highly-significant bias towards increased DNA methylation at sites associated with  
22 older gestational age (73.2%, sign test P =  $2.29 \times 10^{-135}$ ). Although this contradicts results  
23 from a previous study using cord blood derived DNA from the ARIES cohort (n = 914) which  
24 identified a smaller number of DMPs that were enriched for sites showing a decrease in DNA  
25 methylation with older gestational age (24), our most significant DMPs are characterised by  
26 reduced DNA methylation with age (**Supplementary Table 3**) and associations at sites  
27 showing this pattern of change are significantly stronger (Mann-Whitney P =  $2.58 \times 10^{-228}$ ).  
28 Furthermore, we find a significant excess of consistent effects between studies indicating  
29 that age-associated changes are similar in cord and neonatal whole blood (**Supplementary**  
30 **Figure 10**). Of 148 DMPs associated with gestational age in the ARIES cohort, 146 (98.6%)  
31 had the same direction of effect (sign test P =  $6.18 \times 10^{-41}$ ), with 110 being significantly  
32 associated ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ) in both cohorts. We found similar consistency for our EWAS of birth  
33 weight; all 21 DMPs associated with birth weight in the ARIES cohort had the same direction  
34 of effect in our data (sign test P <  $2 \times 10^{-323}$ ), with two DMPs being significantly associated ( $P$   
35 <  $1 \times 10^{-7}$ ) in both cohorts (**Supplementary Figure 10**). While the 18 DMPs associated with  
36 birth weight are annotated to distinct genomic loci, the 4,299 DMPs associated with  
37 gestational age are clustered into 3,550 distinct locations with up to 25 additional DMPs

1 located within 5kb of the index DMP characterized by the most significant association.  
2 Conditional analyses within each genomic locus containing at least two DMPs (n = 483;  
3 13.6%) revealed evidence for independent secondary signals for 240 DMPs in 193 of these  
4 loci (conditional  $P < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ ), while 100 DMPs within 66 loci were only associated as a result  
5 of their correlation with the most significant DMP in that loci (conditional  $P > 0.05$ ;  
6 **Supplementary Table 4**). Finally, given the association between both low birth weight and  
7 pre term birth and autism we tested whether the DNA methylation differences we identified  
8 were consistent between individuals who later went on to develop a childhood diagnosis of  
9 autism (n = 629) and matched controls (n = 634). There were no significant differences  
10 between autism cases and controls for DMPs associated with birth weight (min  $P = 0.0446$ )  
11 or for DMPs associated with gestation age (min  $P = 3.51 \times 10^{-5}$ ) after correcting for the  
12 number of DMPs significant in each analysis (birth weight:  $P < 0.00278$  corrected for 18  
13 DMPs; gestational age:  $P < 1.16 \times 10^{-5}$  corrected for 4,299 DMPs) (**Supplementary Table 2**  
14 and **Supplementary Table 3**).

15

#### 16 *Maternal smoking influences DNA methylation in neonates at multiple loci*

17 Exposure to tobacco smoke is known to be associated with widespread alterations in DNA  
18 methylation in whole blood (1), and previous analyses have demonstrated that these effects  
19 can be detected in cord blood from neonates exposed to prenatal smoking (13). One  
20 limitation of using cord blood is that DNA methylation estimates can be influenced by  
21 contamination of maternal blood, and we therefore sought to test these whether these  
22 associations were detectable in neonatal whole blood samples. Mothers were asked about  
23 their smoking status at their first prenatal visit, early in the second trimester of pregnancy.  
24 Amongst the mothers of neonates in our cohort, 294 (25.1%) reported smoking during  
25 pregnancy and 879 (74.9%) reported not smoking during pregnancy; we excluded 36  
26 mothers who reported giving up smoking at some time during the pregnancy and 54 mothers  
27 for whom smoking data was not available. First, we assessed whether maternal smoking  
28 influenced derived measures of age generated from DNA methylation data in these samples.  
29 Neither age, gestational age nor age acceleration was associated with *in utero* exposure to  
30 smoking (**Supplementary Figure 11**). Next, we performed an EWAS of maternal smoking  
31 exposure (n = 1,173, controlling for sex, birth weight, gestational age, experimental batch,  
32 and derived cell composition variables), identifying 110 neonatal blood DMPs associated  
33 with maternal smoking ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ) representing 70 discrete genomic loci (**Figure 2**;  
34 **Supplementary Figure 12, Supplementary Table 5**). Conditional analyses within each  
35 genomic loci with at least two DMPs (n = 13) identified seven loci where a single DMP was  
36 associated with maternal smoking (conditional  $P$  for other sites  $> 0.05$ ) and four loci

1 characterized by secondary semi-independent effects (conditional P for other sites  $< 5 \times 10^{-5}$ ;  
2 **Supplementary Table 6**). There was no significant bias towards a particular direction of  
3 effect (50.9% hypomethylated; 49.1% hypermethylated, sign test P = 0.924) and the median  
4 effect was a difference of 2.28% DNA methylation (SD = 2.19%) (**Supplementary Figure**  
5 **13**). There was considerable overlap with DMPs reported in a large EWAS of maternal  
6 smoking performed in cord blood (13) (n = 6,685; **Supplementary Figure 14**). Of note,  
7 4,847 (84.0%) of the 5,768 DMPs reported by Joubert *et al.* were characterized by the same  
8 direction of effect (sign test P  $< 2 \times 10^{-323}$ ) in our analysis of neonatal blood, with 102 meeting  
9 criteria for experiment-wide significance (P  $< 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ) in both studies. This included previously  
10 reported DMPs associated with tobacco smoking in adults (1, 31) such as *AHRR*, where five  
11 additional DMPs were clustered with the lead signal at cg05575921 none of which remained  
12 significant in the conditional analysis, *GF11* which had nine DMPs including multiple  
13 independent associations, and *MYO1G* which had four DMPs with evidence of multiple  
14 independent associations (**Supplementary Table 6**). These findings confirm that smoking  
15 behaviour by mothers during pregnancy has a profound influence on DNA methylation in  
16 their offspring at birth and in the first few days of life.

17

#### 18 *DNA methylation mediates the relationship between maternal smoking and low birth weight*

19 Having established that the DNA methylation signatures associated with prenatal smoking  
20 exposure are robustly detectable in neonatal blood, and that variable DNA methylation is  
21 associated with an established outcome of maternal smoking (45, 46) we next asked  
22 whether methylomic variation might *mediate* the relationship between maternal smoking in  
23 pregnancy and lower birth weight. Previous attempts to explore this using data from cord  
24 blood have been relatively inconsistent (14, 15), supporting a mediation role for DNA  
25 methylation at non-overlapping DNA methylation sites. We repeated our EWAS of maternal  
26 smoking, excluding birth weight as a covariate, and identified an extended set of 143 DMPs  
27 (**Supplementary Table 7**) which contained 105 (95.5%) of the 110 DMPs we identified in  
28 the analysis adjusting for birth weight. Mediation analyses, performed using the Sobel test as  
29 (see **Methods**), showed that DNA methylation at three sites, annotated to three different  
30 genomic loci, met the five criteria set out by Baron and Kenny (42) (see **Methods**) as  
31 providing evidence for mediating the association between smoking and birth weight  
32 (**Supplementary Figure 15; Supplementary Table 7**). This included one site (cg09935388)  
33 annotated to *GF11* that has been reported previously (15) and two novel mediation sites  
34 (cg05575921 annotated to *AHRR*, and cg26889659 annotated to *EXOC2*) (**Table 2**).  
35 Because smoking behaviour is prone to misclassification - not only due to smokers claiming

1 to be non-smokers, especially during pregnancy(47), but also because a complex behaviour  
2 is simplified into a dichotomous variable - we repeated the analysis for the three significant  
3 DNA methylation sites estimating the natural direct effect between maternal smoking and  
4 low birth weight (i.e. not via DNA methylation) and the natural indirect effect (i.e. via DNA  
5 methylation) using the SIMEX (simulation and extrapolation) procedure that incorporates  
6 misclassification (44). Stringently accounting for misclassification suggests that the  
7 estimated mediation effect via DNA methylation identified using the Sobel test is potentially  
8 overestimated; although the results robustly support a significant mediation effect for DNA  
9 methylation at cg26889659, under scenarios of more extreme misclassification (see  
10 **Methods**) the effects of mediation via DNA methylation at cg05575921 and cg09935388 are  
11 no longer significantly different from 0 (**Supplementary Table 8**).

1

## 2 **Discussion**

3 In this study we quantified neonatal variation in DNA methylation in 1,263 infants using  
4 samples isolated from archived blood spots taken shortly after birth. Our study finds that  
5 gestational age, birth weight and maternal smoking are all associated with significant DNA  
6 methylation differences in neonatal blood, with gestational age having the most effects  
7 widespread across the genome. These data add to a growing literature demonstrating that  
8 prenatal and obstetric exposures can influence epigenetic variation in early-life (3, 13, 24,  
9 48-50), providing a potential mechanism linking them to altered gene function and long-term  
10 health and disease outcomes.

11 Our use of neonatal DNA samples means that we are uniquely positioned to identify  
12 epigenetic variation at birth, avoiding the confounding exposures that could influence the  
13 results from samples collected later in childhood (for example, health and disease, nutrition,  
14 medication, and stress). Although there have been larger studies of prenatal exposures, a  
15 strength of our study is that we profiled whole blood from neonatal infants rather than cord  
16 blood minimizing the contamination of our samples with maternal blood DNA and meaning  
17 our data can be more easily compared to the extensive blood DNA methylation datasets  
18 derived from samples later in life. A limitation of our sampling strategy, however, is that no  
19 blood cell reference DNA methylation datasets specifically for use on neonatal blood are yet  
20 available, likely reflecting the difficulties of obtaining sufficient volumes of neonatal blood for  
21 cell sorting and methylomic profiling. Although there has been much written on the  
22 importance of selecting an appropriate tissue to profile for epigenetic studies(10), the goal of  
23 this study was to identify biomarkers of exposure, and therefore our use of a peripheral  
24 tissue is justified. Furthermore, although blood spots were collected only a few days after  
25 birth (mean = 6.08 days; sd = 3.24 days), it is possible that some postnatal exposure to  
26 passive smoking during the first few days of life could also have influenced our results  
27 although the amount of exposure in ~6 days is likely to be negligible.

28 As well as identifying specific loci at which DNA methylation is associated with with early-life  
29 factors such as smoking exposure and gestational age, we tested the hypothesis that DNA  
30 methylation *mediates* established epidemiological relationships between exposures and  
31 outcomes. We explored the association between maternal smoking and lower birth weight,  
32 finding evidence that methylomic variation at several DMPs may be mechanistically involved  
33 in linking exposure (maternal smoking) to outcome (birth weight). While our results are  
34 consistent with previous reports, such analyses can be influenced by misclassification bias  
35 (16). Smoking, in particular is prone to misclassification not only due to participants claiming

1 to be non-smokers when they are in fact smokers, a circumstance known to be worse when  
2 reflecting smoking during pregnancy(47), but also as a result of simplifying a complex  
3 behaviour into a single dichotomous variable representing the entire period of pregnancy.  
4 Given our robust prenatal smoking exposure associations, it is plausible that the mediator in  
5 our analyses - DNA methylation - is in fact a better measure of smoking exposure than self-  
6 reported status(16). Of note, applying a methodology that accounts for misclassification of  
7 an exposure reduced the magnitude of the mediation effect at all three significant loci,  
8 suggesting that these results need validation using an alternative approach such as  
9 Mendelian Randomisation (51).

10 While we explored whether DNA methylation lies on the causal pathway between maternal  
11 smoking and low birth weight, results from EWAS analyses do not distinguish cause from  
12 effect. In fact, it is likely that the DNA methylation differences we report for birth weight and  
13 gestational age reflect other *in utero* exposures or processes. For example birth weight is  
14 known to be associated with maternal body mass index, blood pressure and fasting glucose  
15 levels (52-54) and the epigenetic changes we report may reflect the downstream influences  
16 of these pathways. It is also possible that the birth-weight-associated DMPs identified in our  
17 study reflect exposures or influences occurring in the immediate neonatal period before the  
18 blood samples were collected. Similarly, the DNA methylation differences observed in  
19 neonates exposed to prenatal smoking might also be influenced by exposure to passive  
20 smoking from the mother or father immediately after birth, although the amount of exposure  
21 in ~6 days is likely to be negligible. Another potential limitation of our design is that the  
22 analyses were performed within the context of an autism case-control study (32). Of note,  
23 however, although autism cases had a higher exposure to maternal smoking than non-  
24 autism controls, there was not significant difference in birth weight between infants who went  
25 on to develop autism than those who did not (**Supplementary Table 1**). Finally, the nature  
26 of the samples we profiled in this study (i.e. small amounts of neonatal blood) meant that  
27 additional DNA was not available for technical validation experiments. However, the Illumina  
28 450K array has been shown to yield highly reproducible measures of DNA methylation, and  
29 the observed consistency with previous studies of maternal smoking, gestational age, and  
30 birth weight suggests our findings are robust.

31

## 32 **Conclusions**

33 Our data demonstrate that *in utero* exposures are associated with detectable patterns of  
34 DNA methylation in neonatal blood samples, highlighting the role that the prenatal  
35 environment plays in influencing gene regulation in neonates. While previous studies have

1 shown that maternal smoking effects persist into later childhood (13), these have found that  
2 the effects are attenuated, suggesting that obtaining a biomarker as close to birth as  
3 possible will have maximal sensitivity about exposures during gestation.

#### 4 **Acknowledgments**

6 We acknowledge iPSYCH and The Lundbeck Foundation for providing samples and funding.

#### 8 **Ethics**

9 The MINERvA study was approved by the Regional Scientific Ethics Committee in Denmark  
10 and the Danish Data Protection Agency.

#### 12 **Data Accessibility**

13 Given the nature of the MINERvA cohort, access to data can only be provided through  
14 secured systems which comply with the current Danish and EU data standards. To comply  
15 with the study's ethical approval, access to the raw data is only available to qualified  
16 researchers upon request. All summary statistics and analysis scripts are available directly  
17 from the authors (please contact Jonas Bybjerg-Grauholm at JOGR@ssi.dk). R scripts used  
18 to perform the quality control of these data are available on GitHub  
19 (<https://github.com/ejh243/MinervaASDEWAS.git>) and have been archived in Zenado at  
20 <https://zenodo.org/badge/latestdoi/116149862> and scripts for the analyses reported in this  
21 manuscript are available on GitHub (<https://github.com/ejh243/MinervaNeonatalEWAS.git>)  
22 and have been archived in Zenado at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1303340>.

#### 24 **Authors' Contributions**

25 EH, JM, AR and DS designed and coordinated the study. GB-G, DMH, MVH, M-BH and  
26 CSH led generation of DNA methylation data from dried neonatal bloodspots. EH led and  
27 AR, DS, JM, JB-G, JG, CL-A and MDF oversaw implementation of the data analyses. DMH,  
28 OM, PBM, ADB, TW, and MN are principal investigators of the iPSYCH study. EH and JM  
29 drafted the manuscript, with input from AR, DS, CL-A, JG, and JB-G. All co-authors read and  
30 approved the final manuscript.

#### 32 **Competing Interests**

33 TW has acted as advisor and lecturer to H. Lundbeck A/S. None of the other authors report  
34 any potential conflict of interest.

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## Tables

**Table 1. DNA methylation in neonatal blood is associated with birth weight and gestational age.** In total, seven differentially methylated positions (DMPs) were associated with both birth weight and gestational age at an experiment-wide threshold of  $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ . Genomic locations are based on hg19.

ProbeID	EWAS of birth weight (g)		EWAS of gestational age (weeks)		Chr	Pos	Gene Annotation	
	P-value	Regression coefficient	P-value	Regression coefficient			UCSC Gene Name	UCSC Genic Region
cg04411893	9.88E-08	-8.41E-06	2.28E-12	-0.003758699	chr3	185300709		
cg05937055	4.66E-09	-1.20E-05	5.20E-10	-0.004302303	chr1	181128764		
cg06870470	2.97E-09	-1.68E-05	6.93E-28	-0.01068899	chr19	11315767	DOCK6	Body
cg13066703	2.50E-08	-1.11E-05	3.68E-36	-0.008742825	chr1	211526705	TRAF5	Body
cg19744173	1.87E-10	-1.41E-05	8.41E-20	-0.006889143	chr2	112913178	FBLN7	Body
cg20068209	5.19E-08	-1.37E-05	2.00E-41	-0.011959147	chr6	75988568	TMEM30A	Body
cg20076442	1.18E-10	-1.96E-05	3.23E-25	-0.010843225	chr8	72745197		

**Table 2. Three DNA methylation sites meet the criteria for significant mediation between birth weight and maternal smoking.**

ProbeID	Chr	Pos	Gene Annotation	Birth weight ~ maternal smoking		EWAS of maternal smoking		EWAS of birth weight		EWAS of birth weight adjusted for maternal smoking		Sobel test P-value
				P-value	Regression coefficient	P-value	Regression coefficient	P-value	Regression coefficient	P-value	Regression coefficient	
cg09935388	chr1	92947588	GF11	3.21E-14	-282.418	1.39E-55	-0.1208	2.58E-08	4.18E-05	2.72E-08	-229.556	3.58E-09
cg05575921	chr5	373378	AHRR	3.21E-14	-282.418	8.29E-119	-0.08196	1.17E-10	2.37E-05	0.000151	-178.772	8.52E-14
cg26889659	chr6	684090	EXOC2	3.21E-14	-282.418	7.42E-13	-0.03981	3.84E-08	2.89E-05	2.41E-10	-238.068	1.12E-06

## Figure Captions

**Figure 1. Methyloomic variation associated with birth weight and gestational age in neonates.** Manhattan plots of P-values from an epigenome-wide association study (EWAS) of A) birth weight (g) and B) gestational age (weeks). The red horizontal line indicates experiment-wide significance ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ), the blue horizontal line indicates a 'discovery' significance threshold ( $P < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ ). Shown are scatterplots of the top-ranked differentially methylated positions (DMPs) associated with C) birth weight (cg20076442) and D) gestational age (cg11932158).

**Figure 2. DNA methylation at birth is associated with maternal smoking during pregnancy.** The red horizontal line indicates experiment-wide significance ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ ), the blue horizontal line indicates a 'discovery' significance threshold ( $P < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ ). A) Manhattan plots from an EWAS of maternal smoking. Boxplots of the three top-ranked DNA methylation sites associated with maternal smoking: B) cg05575921, C) cg09935388 and D) cg12803068. Shown are unadjusted DNA methylation values.

**Supplementary Table Captions** (see Excel file for Supplementary Tables).

**Supplementary Table 1. Characteristics of samples included in the MINERvA cohort.** \* = primary characteristics used to match cases and controls. \*\* = secondary characteristics used to match cases and controls as closely as possible.

**Supplementary Table 2. Eighteen birth weight associated DMPs were identified at a threshold of  $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ .** Genomic locations are based on hg19.

**Supplementary Table 3. 4,299 gestational age associated DMPs were identified at a threshold of  $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ .** Genomic locations are based on hg19.

**Supplementary Table 4. Conditional analysis within 3,550 distinct loci associated with gestational age.**

**Supplementary Table 5. 110 maternal smoking associated DMPs were identified at a threshold of  $P < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ .** Genomic locations are based on hg19.

**Supplementary Table 6. Conditional analysis within 70 distinct loci associated with maternal smoking.**

**Supplementary Table 7. 143 DMPs associated with maternal smoking selected for mediation analysis.**

**Supplementary Table 8. SIMEX adjusted mediation analysis for 3 DNA methylation sites identified as having significant mediation effects between maternal smoking and birth weight.**