Socioeconomic changes predict genome-wide DNA methylation in childhood

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Abstract

2	Childhood socioeconomic position (SEP) is a major determinant of health and well-being
3	across the entire life course. To effectively prevent and reduce health risks related to SEP, it is
4	critical to better understand when and under what circumstances socioeconomic adversity shapes
5	biological processes. DNA methylation (DNAm) is one such mechanism for how early life
6	adversity "gets under the skin". In this study, we evaluated the dynamic relationship between
7	SEP and DNAm across childhood using data from 946 mother-child pairs in the Avon
8	Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC). We assessed six SEP indicators
9	spanning financial, occupational, and residential domains during very-early childhood (ages 0-2),
10	early childhood (ages 3-5), and middle childhood (ages 6-7). Epigenome-wide DNAm were
11	measured at 412,956 CpGs from peripheral blood at age 7. Using an innovative two-stage
12	structured life course modeling approach, we tested three life-course hypotheses for how SEP
13	shapes DNAm profiles — accumulation, sensitive period, and mobility. We showed that changes
14	in the socioeconomic environment were associated with the greatest differences in DNAm, and
15	that middle childhood may be a potential sensitive period when socioeconomic instability is
16	especially important in shaping DNAm. Top SEP-related DNAm CpGs were overrepresented in
17	genes involved in pathways important for neural development, immune function, and metabolic
18	processes. Our findings highlight the importance of socioeconomic stability during childhood
19	and if replicated, may emphasize the need for public programs to help children and families
20	experiencing socioeconomic instability and other forms of socioeconomic adversity.

Introduction

22	Socioeconomic position (SEP) is a fundamental determinant of health and disease across
23	the lifespan (1). As defined by Krieger et al. (1997) (2), SEP is an "aggregate concept"
24	composed of diverse components of economic and social well-being across individual-,
25	household-, and neighborhood-level domains, including both resources (e.g., weekly income)
26	and rank-based characteristics (e.g., occupational prestige). SEP therefore can be measured
27	across time by various indicators, like job stability, ability to afford basic household needs, and
28	neighborhood quality, which are known to play related, yet distinct roles in health and life
29	outcomes (3-5).
30	Dozens of observational and quasi-experimental studies examining these indicators have
31	shown that children growing-up in low SEP families have increased risk for both short- and
32	long-term cognitive, socioemotional, behavioral, and physical/mental health deficits compared to
33	their high SEP counterparts (6-9). Some of these SEP-related disparities are evident very early in
34	development, starting shortly after birth (10-13). Yet, the biological mechanisms that explain
35	these well-established SEP and health relationships remain relatively unknown, limiting our
36	ability to disentangle specific pathways of pathophysiology and design targeted interventions.
37	In the past two decades, epigenetic studies have exploded as a means of potentially
38	unraveling the biological pathways through which SEP "gets under the skin". Most epigenetic
39	studies have focused on DNA methylation (DNAm) (14), which occurs when methyl groups are
40	added to cytosines in the DNA sequence, typically within cytosine-guanine (CpG) dinucleotides
41	(15). These DNA modifications do not alter the sequence of the genome, but can influence how
42	genes are expressed in ways that can have important short and long-term health consequences
43	(16).

44	Recent reviews summarizing the effects of SEP on epigenetic patterns suggest that SEP is
45	linked to DNAm differences in childhood and adulthood (17-19). In fact, over 30 studies have
46	found a relationship between childhood SEP and DNAm. However, less than a quarter of these
47	studies were longitudinal by design (i.e., including repeated measures of SEP exposure across
48	time). Further, less than half were epigenome-wide association studies (EWAS) analyzing SEP-
49	related DNAm variations. In one recent comprehensive review of the SEP-DNAm literature, the
50	number of significant, SEP-associated CpGs reported across prior EWAS studies ranged from 1
51	to 2,546 (median = 10), yet relatively no consistent patterns in SEP-associated DNAm changes
52	emerged between studies (see Cerutti, Lussier, Zhu, Liu and Dunn (19)). One possible
53	explanation for these mixed results is that studies have conflated both the type of SEP indicator
54	measured and the <i>timing</i> of SEP measurement (19). Indeed, few studies have investigated the
55	effects of SEP type and/or timing on DNAm, even though it is well known that both features of
56	SEP can influence the extent of its impact (20).
57	Prior studies that have analyzed the associations between multiple types of SEP
58	indicators and DNAm have found little to no overlap in DNAm changes across SEP measures
59	(21-23), suggesting that different SEP indicators may result in distinct biological signatures and
60	subsequent cascading health risks. Yet, it remains relatively unknown whether exposure to
61	distinct SEP indicators (e.g., low household income vs. neighborhood disadvantage) during
62	childhood impacts later DNAm to a similar extent.
63	Even fewer studies have investigated the impact of SEP timing on DNAm, likely because
64	it is difficult to collect multiple, repeated measures across time in large, epigenetic datasets. In

some notable exceptions, studies comparing the time-dependent effects of childhood SEP (24-

66 26) on DNAm have found timing differences with respect to SEP's impact, consistent with the

idea that there may be *sensitive periods* of elevated plasticity during childhood when adversityinduced biological changes are most likely to occur. However, whether different aspects of the
socioeconomic environment across developmental stages differentially influence DNAm remains
largely unexplored.

71 The current study aimed to address this gap by utilizing a large, longitudinal birth cohort 72 with multiple, repeated measures of socioeconomic-related hardships assessed prospectively across childhood before epigenome-wide DNAm collection at age 7. We specifically sought to 73 assess how different indicators of the socioeconomic environment (e.g., neighborhood quality, 74 job loss, low household income) measured repeatedly across the first seven years of life 75 76 associated with child epigenetic alterations. Given that different socioeconomic domains may 77 impact health via related, but distinct pathways (4, 27), we analyzed exposure to seven distinct socioeconomic-related hardships. Additionally, because socioeconomic adversity could have 78 79 multiple time-varying effects on DNAm, we tested three commonly examined hypotheses from the life-course epidemiology literature (28) to evaluate the circumstances under which childhood 80 socioeconomic adversity associates with DNAm changes at age 7: 1) accumulation hypothesis, 81 82 where the impact of low SEP increases with the number of time periods exposed, regardless of when it occurs; 2) sensitive period hypothesis, where the impact of low SEP is larger in 83 magnitude during a certain developmental period compared to any other; and 3) mobility 84 hypothesis, where the impact of SEP on DNAm is driven by an upward or downward change in 85 SEP between adjacent developmental time periods. 86

87 Uncovering the dynamic relationships between SEP and DNAm across childhood will
88 not only highlight the biological mechanisms driving the effects of SEP on long-term health, but

also will offer clearer insights to guide targeted interventions aimed at reducing the negativeconsequences of socioeconomic-related adversity in childhood.

91

Results

92 Sample characteristics and prevalence of socioeconomic adversity

We analyzed data from 946 mother-child pairs from a longitudinal birth-cohort in the 93 United Kingdom (UK). Children included in our analytic sample were mostly White (97.1%) and 94 from both sexes (49.9% female) (Table S1). Among the six SEP indicators analyzed (i.e., job 95 loss, income reduction, low family income, financial hardship, major financial problems, and 96 neighborhood disadvantage), job loss was the least reported socioeconomic adversity (11.5% 97 ever-exposed), and income reduction was the most common (73.8% ever-exposed) (Table 1). 98 The prevalence of all adversities decreased over time (**Table 1, Figure S1**). The six SEP 99 100 indicators were moderately correlated with each other during all three childhood periods (Figure **S2**), suggesting they captured distinct aspects of the socioeconomic environment. 101 102 Childhood socioeconomic adversities were associated with differential DNAm at 62 CpGs 103 We next examined possible time-dependent associations between each of the SEP indicators and DNAm at individual CpGs using a two-stage structured life-course modeling 104 approach (SLCMA) (29-31), which identified the life-course hypothesis most supported in the 105 observed data and estimated the associations. In this and the following three sections, we 106 summarize 1) the top CpGs associated with socioeconomic adversity, 2) the most selected life-107 108 course hypotheses, 3) the robustness of findings evaluated through a variety of sensitivity analyses, and 4) the biological relevance of findings. 109

110 We identified 62 CpGs where exposure to socioeconomic adversity explained more than

111 3% variance in DNAm (R^2 >3%, **Table S2**). Most of the 62 CpGs were linked to the two least

112 commonly-reported adversities in ALSPAC: neighborhood disadvantage (17 CpGs) and job loss

113 (15 CpGs, **Table 2**). Only four of the 62 CpGs identified using the R^2 cutoff also passed an

114 FDR<0.05 significance threshold, all of which were associated with neighborhood disadvantage

115 (Table 2).

116 Of note, 61 of these CpGs showed the same direction of effect as that reported in at least

117 two prior EWASs examining SEP and DNAm. Furthermore, 17 out of 62 (27%) CpGs showed at

least a nominal (p<0.05) association in at least two prior EWASs. Of these 17 CpGs, two

119 (cg23685969 and cg19260606) exceeded a statistical significance threshold of FDR<0.05 in at

120 least one prior EWAS (**Table S3**, **Figure S3**).

121 Mobility and sensitive period hypotheses were most often selected

The SLCMA allowed us to determine which of the following three life-course hypotheses
were most supported in the observed data: *accumulation, sensitive period*, and *mobility* (Figure
1). Of the life-course hypotheses we tested, *mobility* and *sensitive period* effects showed the
strongest associations with DNAm (Figure 2a).

We first focused on the four socioeconomic adversities for which we tested all three lifecourse hypotheses (low family income, financial hardship, major financial problem, and neighborhood disadvantage, **Table S4**). Here, 44 CpGs (R²>3%) were identified, of which four passed an FDR<0.05 threshold. The majority of CpGs reflected *mobility* (20 CpGs) or *sensitive period* (22 CpGs) relationships. The most selected life-course hypothesis varied by socioeconomic adversity. *Sensitive period* hypotheses were selected for all nine CpGs identified from financial hardship, with middle childhood selected for eight of them (**Figure 2a**). By

contrast, mobility (worsening SEP) explained more DNAm variability resulting from 133 134 neighborhood disadvantage (11 of 17 CpGs) and major financial problem (4 of 5 CpGs). The time period when *mobility* had the greatest impact differed across SEP indicators, with very early 135 to early childhood most often selected for neighborhood disadvantage, and early to middle 136 childhood most selected for major financial problem (Figure 2a). Accumulation was only 137 selected for two CpGs, linked to low family income. Of note, mobility hypotheses were selected 138 for all four FDR-significant CpGs, with a worsening hypothesis (meaning *downward mobility*) 139 selected for three of them (**Table S2**). Figure 2b shows at these three CpGs, children exposed to 140 worsening SEP had the greatest shift in DNAm as compared to children with other types of SEP 141 142 trajectories, including those who had persistently low SEP, worsening SEP, improved SEP, or 143 persistently high SEP.

For our instability indicators (job loss and income reduction), which innately capture the effects of socioeconomic mobility, we only tested *accumulation* and *sensitive period* hypotheses (**Table S4**). The strongest evidence was again for *sensitive period* effects, with middle childhood (age 3-5) most selected for job loss (9 of 15 CpGs) and very early childhood (age 0-2) most selected for income reduction (2 of 3 CpGs, **Figure 2a**). *Accumulation* was only selected for one CpG linked to job loss.

Overall, exposure to socioeconomic changes (captured through instability indicators or mobility hypotheses) was associated with, on average, a 3.8% difference in DNAm levels, explaining 3.4% of the variance in DNAm across CpG sites after controlling for covariates (**Table S2**). The same patterns were found at the epigenome-wide level, with most CpGs showing most variability in response to adversity from *mobility* and *sensitive periods*, rather than

the *accumulation* of exposure across development (**Figure S4**).

156 SLCMA results were robust to sensitivity analyses

157 Additional covariate adjustment had minimal impact on results

To assess residual bias in the identified SEP-DNAm associations and further ensure the 158 robustness of our findings, we additionally controlled for time-invariant SEP indicators, 159 population substructure estimated from epigenetic data, cord blood DNAm, genetic variation, 160 and exposure to the other five time-varying SEP indicators. After additional covariate 161 adjustments, the life-course hypothesis selected by LARS remained the same for all 62 CpGs 162 with $R^2>3\%$ (Table S5, Table S6). Almost all CpGs remained significant at the nominal p<0.05 163 threshold after adjusting for time-invariant SEP indicators (60 CpGs), population substructure 164 165 (61 CpGs), cord blood DNAm (61 CpGs), and exposure to the other five SEP indicators (62 CpGs, Table S5). The associations between socioeconomic adversities and DNAm were also 166 independent of genetic variation previously linked to significant CpGs (Table S6). 167 168 Mobility hypotheses improved our ability to identify CpGs related to SEP changes SEP mobility during childhood had never been previously tested on childhood DNAm to 169 our knowledge. Therefore, we assessed the insights gained from adding mobility hypotheses. We 170 re-analyzed the CpGs with an $R^2 > 3\%$ for low family income, financial hardship, major financial 171 problem, and neighborhood disadvantage using only accumulation and sensitive period 172 hypotheses. Considering only accumulation and sensitive period hypotheses, we were unable to 173 174 fully detect shifts in DNAm patterns related to changes in socioeconomic environment. When mobility hypotheses were omitted from the SLCMA analyses, there were minimal changes to the 175 176 main results showing effects of *sensitive period* on DNAm (n=22 CpGs), as the same hypothesis 177 was selected with similar effect estimates (**Table S7**). However, for CpGs originally linked to *mobility* (n=20), there were substantial attenuations in the estimated SEP-DNAm associations: 178

sensitive period hypotheses were selected instead, which in turn, showed smaller R^2 (ranging 179 180 from 0.04-1.6%) and much larger p-values (ranging from 0.001 to 0.84, **Table S7**). These findings suggest that when the underlying association structure is misspecified, important DNAm 181 signatures may not be identified. 182 EWAS of ever-exposed vs. never-exposed failed to identify time-dependent associations 183 To evaluate the loss (or gain) of information from the SLCMA compared to more 184 conventional epigenetic approaches, we performed an epigenome-wide association study 185 (EWAS) of any exposure to each type of SEP adversity before age 7 and DNAm, thus ignoring 186 the timing or change of SEP over time. For 59 of the top 62 CpGs (including the 4 FDR-187 significant CpGs), the effect estimates from the SLCMA were larger in magnitude than those 188 from EWAS (Figure S5). In addition, no CpGs with an FDR<0.05 were identified using EWAS 189 of any exposure, meaning ever-exposed vs. never-exposed. These findings suggest the SLCMA 190 191 was better able to identify developmentally sensitive effects of socioeconomic adversity on DNAm profiles, whereas EWAS might fail to detect signals if the true underlying hypothesis 192 was time-dependent (24). 193 **Biological significance of SLCMA findings** 194 DNAm at significant CpGs was weakly correlated across blood and brain 195 To examine the relevance of SEP-related DNAm pattern identified in peripheral blood 196 tissues to brain health, we examined the correlation of DNAm at the top 62 CpGs in blood and 197 brain samples, using data from the Blood Brain DNA Methylation Comparison Tool 198 199 (http://epigenetics.essex.ac.uk/bloodbrain) (32). Overall, DNAm was weakly, but positively, correlated between blood and brain regions (**Table S8**) (prefrontal cortex: $r_{avg}=0.06$; entorhinal 200

201 cortex: $r_{avg}=0.10$; superior temporal gyrus: $r_{avg}=0.08$; cerebellum: $r_{avg}=0.09$). Some CpGs showed

particularly strong correlations between blood and brain (e.g., cg24938210, r=0.78 to 0.81 across
brain regions).

204 <u>Distinct biological pathways emerged across SEP indicators</u>

The top 62 CpGs showed no significant differences in distributions of genomic features, CpG island locations, or enhancers, as compared to all tested CpGs (Chi-squared tests p>0.05, **Figure S6**).

Gene set enrichment showed that SEP-related DNAm patterns were more likely to occur 208 within or near genes involved in neural system regulation, developmental processes, immune 209 210 functions, metabolic processes, substance localization, and membrane transport (Figure S7, Figure S8). However, there was little overlap observed in the significant gene ontology (GO) 211 terms across SEP indicators (Figure S7), except for one GO term (morphogenesis of a branching 212 epithelium), which emerged in the enrichment analysis for both financial hardship and major 213 214 financial problem. These findings suggest different socioeconomic adversities may lead to shifts in distinct biological pathways. 215

216

Discussion

The main finding from this study was that *changes* in the socioeconomic environment may coincide with subsequent changes at a biological level as measured through DNAm signatures. Reports of a change in the socioeconomic environment, particularly worsening neighborhood quality (i.e., mobility) and parental job loss during middle childhood (i.e., sensitive period), were associated, on average, with a 3.8% difference in DNAm levels. These patterns were detected even after accounting for other dimensions of the socioeconomic environment, ancestry, DNAm levels at birth, and genetic variation. To our knowledge, this

study is the first to evaluate the role of socioeconomic *changes* in relation to epigenome-wideDNAm within childhood.

Our study extends prior literature on the effects of childhood SEP, providing new insights 226 about the biological embedding of the socioeconomic environment. Only three studies to our 227 228 knowledge have examined the relationship between socioeconomic mobility and DNAm (22, 33, 34). Each of these three studies included just two timepoints of SEP measures, one in childhood 229 and another in adulthood, and only assessed DNAm in adulthood. Our results suggest that acute 230 changes in children's socioeconomic environment, compared to exposure to more stable 231 232 socioeconomic adversity, might play a role in shaping DNAm profiles in childhood as early as 233 age 7. Although our study is the first to measure the impact of exposure to socioeconomic 234 changes on DNAm levels in childhood, our results parallel previous findings on SEP-related outcomes in the child development literature. For example, non-epigenetic studies focused on 235 236 other SEP-related outcomes in childhood have shown that an episode of parental job loss may have a larger impact on child health and behavior than stable employment in low-income jobs 237 (35-37). Indeed, the developmental literature largely suggests that children benefit from stable, 238 predictable environments (38-40) and that changes in the socioeconomic environment can impact 239 cognitive development and other mechanisms implicated in future risk of health and behavioral 240 problems (35-37, 41, 42). Future studies are needed to replicate our findings and investigate how 241 SEP-associated DNAm alterations may influence subsequent health and behavioral outcomes. 242 Insights from such studies will be critical to discern whether SEP-related DNAm changes 243 244 influence children's vulnerability to disease and other negative health/behavioral outcomes. We found more evidence for the importance of the developmental timing of SEP on 245 DNAm rather than its accumulation. These results parallel previous findings from the ALSPAC 246

cohort (24) and elsewhere (43), suggesting that sensitive period effects can be detected in the
epigenome. Our results also specifically point to the importance of middle childhood as a
potential *sensitive period* when the socioeconomic environment might be particularly impactful.
SEP plays an important role during school-age years (38, 44), corresponding to our middle
childhood time period findings, when children in the cohort began school. Socioeconomic
disruptions during school-age years may lead to changes in parent-child interactions, afterschool
care center attendance, or extracurricular activities.

Consistent with prior epigenome-wide studies (21, 22), we found little overlap between 254 the top CpGs across SEP domains, suggesting that various aspects of the SEP construct may 255 256 trigger distinct mechanisms that lead to different alterations in DNAm patterns (19, 45). Across 257 our six SEP indicators, the greatest number of detected CpGs (17 of 62) were related to neighborhood disadvantage, with 4 being the only CpGs to pass an FDR<0.05 significance 258 259 threshold. These findings point to the important role that neighborhood-level indicators, including more ubiquitous social and physical exposures experienced daily by larger segments of 260 a population, may play in shaping the epigenome during child development. For example, we 261 found that the DNAm alterations linked to neighborhood disadvantage were more likely to occur 262 in genes related to peroxisomes, which are a key component of the biological response to various 263 environmental pollutants (46). By contrast, we found that experiences of financial hardship (e.g., 264 265 difficulty in affording common household necessities like food, clothing, heat, and rent) and income reduction were linked to biological pathways related to diet quality, such as nutrient 266 267 transport and metabolic processes. Overall, different clusters of biological pathways emerged across distinct DNAm-associated SEP domains, suggesting that socioeconomic adversities may 268 affect child health through multiple mechanisms. 269

270	Many of the genes in which our top CpGs were located on or near have been linked to
271	human health and disease. For example, OAS3, in which our most significant CpG (cg20102336)
272	resides, encodes an enzyme that plays a critical role in innate antiviral response (47) has been
273	linked with the incidence and severity of illness caused by coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-
274	19) (48, 49). TGFBR3, the nearest gene to another significant CpG (cg08638097), encodes a key
275	receptor in the transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) superfamily signaling pathways and has
276	been implied in various human cancers including prostate cancer and bladder cancer (50-53).
277	Furthermore, one of the top CpGs showing strong evidence of replication across studies
278	(cg24121967; same direction of effect and p<0.05 in 8 and 3 other studies, respectively) was
279	located in a putative oncogene MYEOV whose overexpression has been documented in many
280	cancers such as gastric cancer (54), myeloma (54), and pancreatic cancer (55). These findings
281	suggest that early life socioeconomic adversities are associated with biological disruptions that
282	may ultimately lead to a wide constellation of health risks later in life.
283	While the current study uncovered many insights into SEP and DNAm associations, a
284	major unanswered question is whether these DNAm changes are adaptive or maladaptive, in both
285	the short- and long-term. Teicher and others have noted that early neurobehavioral changes that
286	occur in response to experiences of childhood adversity often enhance immediate survival at the
287	cost of long-term functioning (56). Thus, are specific epigenomic fluctuations in the face of
288	family socioeconomic adversity reflective of increased risk, resilience, or both? Although we
289	found DNAm differences when comparing children who were exposed vs. unexposed to
290	socioeconomic adversity, we do not know if these SEP-induced shifts represent systemic
291	alterations of biological functions across tissue types, which may cause key impairments that
292	lead to behavioral changes and increase disease risks. With existing publicly available data, we

could only compare the potential implications of our findings to DNAm levels in brain tissue.
Additional research comparing DNAm levels between different tissues is warranted to better
understand the systemic effects of socioeconomic hardship.

Should these DNAm markers of socioeconomic adversity be replicated and identified as 296 297 harmful (rather than adaptive) to health, our findings suggest at least two paths forward for 298 prevention and intervention. First, our results suggest that children and families, especially lower-income families who may lack a safety-net to draw from during times of parental job loss 299 or other socioeconomic transitions (57), might benefit from extending policies and social 300 programs aimed at minimizing socioeconomic instability, such as the Supplemental Nutrition 301 Assistance Program (58) and the American Families Plan (59). Second, prevention programs 302 303 aimed at promoting socioeconomic stability during childhood might benefit from adopting a multisystemic approach that considers the social determinants of health (60) at multiple levels 304 305 (61). In fact, interventions at the household-level (e.g., parenting-based) and neighborhood-level (e.g., community-based) have revealed measurable biological impacts on children's DNAm 306 profiles (62, 63) and on other biomarkers (64-66). 307

The current study should be interpreted in light of several limitations. First, like other 308 epigenome-wide studies of this sample size, we identified few specific CpGs passing a stringent 309 correction for multiple testing. However, following the recent movement to move beyond p-310 value thresholds alone (67, 68), we explored the patterns and implications of SEP-related DNAm 311 profiles among top CpGs passing an effect-size-based threshold. The top CpGs passing this 312 313 threshold were robust to various sensitivity analyses, and there was consistent evidence for the 314 patterns of CpGs observed, with the majority showing effects in the same direction as previously published findings and two CpGs showing significance in other studies after correcting for 315

multiple testing. Nevertheless, the results from individual CpGs should be interpreted with 316 317 caution and validated in larger samples. Second, because this was a population-based sample, extreme cases of socioeconomic disadvantage were likely underrepresented in the ALSPAC 318 cohort. Our results suggest that more severe forms of adversity may have more potent effects, as 319 320 we identified most top DNAm CpGs (32 out of 62) from the two socioeconomic adversities that showed the lowest prevalence (job loss and neighborhood disadvantage). Future research in 321 populations with more diverse SEP distributions capturing a wider gradient (i.e., extreme 322 poverty) will help fully disentangle the impact of SEP on DNAm patterns. Third, the ALSPAC 323 cohort is mostly White, which limits generalizability of these findings to other individuals and 324 325 populations of non-European descent. Prior studies (see review (69)) show ancestry-related 326 variation in DNA methylation that may lead to differences in gene regulation across populations. Thus, future replication efforts are needed in more diverse and representative populations. 327 328 Finally, this study was observational and based on self-report measures of SEP, which could 329 have been influenced by reporter bias, wherein participant responses may have been shaped by factors like social desirability or recall biases, leading to over- or under-estimates of observed 330 associations (70). Although self-reporting bias is common among survey/questionnaire data in 331 observational studies, previous research has shown that individual-level SEP measures like 332 education and income, compared to more objective measures assessed at the census tract-level, 333 can more accurately capture the impact of SEP on a number of health outcomes, such as blood 334 pressure and height (71). Future randomized experiments will help determine the causal effect of 335 socioeconomic adversity on DNAm. 336

In summary, this study adds to a growing literature showing that early-life socioeconomic
adversity can leave biological memories in the form of DNAm differences in childhood.

Uniquely, our findings on socioeconomic mobility and instability suggest changes in the socioeconomic environment during childhood are especially impactful and associated with epigenetic disruptions related to various health outcomes. Ultimately, these findings will enable researchers to build towards better intervention and prevention efforts aimed at reducing socioeconomic disparities and promoting health across the life course.

344

Materials and Methods

345 Sample and procedures

Data came from the Accessible Resources for Integrated Epigenomics Studies (ARIES) 346 (72), a subsample of 1,018 mother-child pairs from the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and 347 348 Children (ALSPAC). ALSPAC is a prospective, longitudinal birth-cohort in the UK designed to 349 investigate genetic and environmental determinants of health across the lifespan (73-75). Women living in the county of Avon, UK with estimated delivery dates between April 1991 and 350 351 December 1992 were invited to participate. Mother-child pairs in the ARIES were randomly selected from ALSPAC based on availability of DNA samples across five waves of data 352 collection (72). We analyzed data from 946 singletons in ARIES with blood-based DNAm 353 profiles generated at age 7. Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the ALSPAC Ethics 354 and Law Committee and the Local Research Ethics Committee. Please note that the ALSPAC 355 study website contains details of all the data that is available through a fully searchable data 356 357 dictionary and variable search tool (http://www.bristol.ac.uk/alspac/researchers/our-data). See Supplemental Methods for full ALSPAC details. 358

359 Measures

360 <u>Early-life socioeconomic position (SEP)</u>

We analyzed six SEP indicators, spanning financial, occupational, and residential domains: 1) job loss, 2) income reduction, 3) low family income, 4) financial hardship, 5) major financial problems, and 6) neighborhood disadvantage. These were the only available, timevarying SEP indicators that were measured repeatedly via maternal report through mailed questionnaires during three developmental time periods (**Figure 1a**): *very early childhood* (0-2 years), *early childhood* (3-5 years), and *middle childhood* (6-7 years).

For each SEP indicator, children were classified as exposed or unexposed at each period, using criteria described in **Supplemental Methods**. With these repeated, self-reported SEP indicators, we could identify changes occurring *between* time-periods for indicators capturing time-varying status of SEP. For job loss and income reduction, the measures inherently captured change *within* a certain developmental period, because they asked about socioeconomic mobility. To distinguish job loss and income reduction from other indicators, we refer to them throughout the manuscript as "instability indicators".

374 <u>DNA methylation (DNAm)</u>

DNAm was measured from peripheral blood at age 7 using the Illumina Infinium
HumanMethylation450 BeadChip microarray (Illumina, San Diego, CA). DNAm wet laboratory
procedures, preprocessing analyses, and quality control are described in Supplemental
Methods. A total of 412,956 CpGs on autosomal chromosomes passed quality control and were
included in this analysis. For each CpG, DNAm level is expressed as a 'beta' value (β-value)
ranging from 0 to 1, which represents the proportion of cells methylated at each interrogated
CpG.

382 <u>Covariates</u>

383	To adjust for baseline demographic differences in ARIES and technical variation in				
384	DNAm assessment, we controlled for the following variables measured at birth in all analyses:				
385	child age in months at blood draw, child race/ethnicity, child sex, child birthweight, maternal				
386	age, number of previous pregnancies, sustained maternal smoking during pregnancy, and cell				
387	type proportions estimated using the Houseman method (76). Details can be found in the				
388	Supplemental Methods.				
389	Data analysis				
390	All our analysis codes are available through our GitHub page:				
391	https://github.com/thedunnlab/sep-dnam."				
392	Structured life course modeling approach				
393	We used the two-stage structured life-course modeling approach (SLCMA) (29-31) to				
394	evaluate the time-dependent effects of socioeconomic adversity on DNAm. SLCMA is a method				
395	that leverages repeated exposure data to simultaneously investigate the relationship between				
396	exposure and outcome under multiple a priori-defined life-course hypotheses. In our analyses,				
397	we tested three life-course hypotheses, described previously, which were parameterized as				
398	follows (Figure 1b).				
399	First, to test the <i>accumulation</i> hypothesis, we created a sum score (ranging from 0 to 3),				
400	which captured the number of time periods across the three developmental stages that children				
401	were exposed. Second, to test the sensitive period hypothesis, we created three binary variables,				

402 one for each of the three developmental periods, to classify children's exposure status (0=

- 403 unexposed during the period; 1= exposed during that period). Third, to test the *mobility*
- 404 hypothesis, we created a pair of indicator variables for change in SEP between very early and
- 405 early childhood, and a pair of indicator variables for change in SEP between early and middle

406 childhood. Each pair consisted of an indicator variable for worsening (1=change from unexposed
407 to exposed, 0=other) and an indicator variable for improvement (1=change from exposed to
408 unexposed, 0=other).

We tested all three hypotheses for low family income, financial hardship, major financial
problem, and neighborhood disadvantage. Only the *accumulation* and *sensitive period*hypotheses were tested for job loss and income reduction, as these two instability indicators
inherently reflect SEP changes (**Table S4**).

We performed the SLCMA in two stages: 1) life-course hypothesis *model selection* followed by 2) *post-selection inference* (**Figure 1b**, **Supplemental Methods**). In the first stage, we tested the variables described above using a Least Angle Regression (LARS) variable selection procedure (77) to identify the life-course hypothesis most supported in the observed data (i.e., explaining the most variation in DNAm). In the second stage, we used selective inference (29, 78) to test the association between the selected variable and DNAm and estimate confidence intervals.

420 <u>Defining CpGs of interest</u>

We used two thresholds to identify associations between SEP and CpG CpGs for further 421 investigation. Given recent recommendations discouraging the use of p-values alone for 422 statistical inference (67, 68), we used an effect-size-based threshold of $\mathbb{R}^2 > 3\%$, meaning that the 423 SEP exposure explained more than 3% of the variance in DNAm. This cutoff was selected based 424 on the effect sizes observed in previous epigenome-wide analyses of childhood adversity in 425 426 ALSPAC (24, 26) and other well-established environmental exposures, including tobacco 427 smoking (79). We also performed multiple-testing correction using the Benjamini-Hochberg method (80) at a 5% false discovery rate (FDR) to assess the significance of top CpGs. 428

429 <u>Sensitivity analyses</u>

430 We conducted three sensitivity analyses to evaluate the robustness of our SLCMA results. First, we additionally controlled for 1) time-invariant SEP indicators (e.g., maternal 431 education at baseline), 2) population substructure estimated from epigenetic data, 3) cord blood 432 433 DNAm (to account for differences in DNAm that might have been present at birth), 4) genetic variation (at methylation quantitative trait loci, or mQTL), or 5) exposure to the other five time-434 varying SEP indicators. Second, we reran the analyses of the CpGs with an $R^2 > 3\%$ for low 435 family income, financial hardship, major financial problem, and neighborhood disadvantage 436 437 using only *accumulation* and *sensitive period* hypotheses and compared the results from analysis with and without *mobility* tested. Third, we performed an EWAS of *any exposure* to each type of 438 SEP adversity before age 7 and DNAm and compared the findings with SLCMA results. See 439 Supplemental Methods for details. 440 441 Secondary analyses To interpret our findings and place them in the context of prior literature, we conducted 442 two secondary analyses. First, we compared the effect estimates of $R^2 > 3\%$ CpGs to those 443 reported in previous SEP-related EWAS studies (19) (Supplemental Methods). Second, we also 444 evaluated the biological significance of our findings by examining the correlation between 445 DNAm in blood and brain tissue for the $R^2 > 3\%$ CpGs and testing for the enrichment for 446 genomic features, regulatory elements, and Gene Ontology (GO) terms (Supplemental 447 Methods). 448

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469 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

470

471 Ethical Standards

- 472 All ethical guidelines were followed per research involving use of human subjects. Ethical
- approval for the study was obtained from the ALSPAC Ethics and Law Committee and the Local
- 474 Research Ethics Committee. This study was approved with oversight by the Mass General
- 475 Brigham Institutional Review Boards (IRB) (Protocol ID 2017P001110).

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Figure 1. Study design and the conceptual life-course models used in the structured life course modeling approach (SLCMA). (a) Measurement of childhood socioeconomic adversity (X) and DNA methylation (DNAm) over time (T). Exposure to socioeconomic adversities, or indicators of low socioeconomic position (SEP), were measured repeatedly across three childhood periods: very early (0-2 years, T_1), early (3-5 years, T_2), and middle childhood (6-7 years, T_3). DNAm was measured around age 7. (b) Illustration of the life-course hypotheses tested in the SLCMA, the least angle regression (LARS) variable selection procedure, and selective inference test. *Accumulation, sensitive period*, and *mobility* hypotheses were examined in this study. *Accumulation* assumes that the effect of low SEP increases with the number of exposed periods. *Sensitive period* assumes that low SEP is particularly impactful during one of the three time periods. *Mobility* assumes that changes in SEP across specific periods is particularly impactful. *Early worsening* and *later improvement* refer to adversity getting worse (\downarrow SEP) or better (\uparrow SEP) from very early to early childhood, respectively; *later worsening* and *later improvement* refer to adversity getting worse or better from early to middle childhood, respectively. For each socioeconomic adversity, hypotheses were encoded into variables and then entered into the LARS variable selection procedure to identify the one explaining the most variability in DNAm at age 7 at each CpG site. We then performed postselection inference to test the association between the selected variable and DNAm as well as estimate confidence intervals. See **Supplemental Methods** for more details about SLCMA.



Figure 2. Mobility and sensitive period hypotheses were most often selected among the top 62 CpGs linked with socioeconomic adversity (or socioeconomic position, SEP) that explained > 3% variance in DNA methylation (DNAm).

(a) Frequency at which each life-course hypothesis was selected among the 62 CpGs. For job loss and income reduction, we tested *accumulation* and *sensitive period* hypotheses, and middle childhood was the most selected hypothesis. For the other four socioeconomic adversities, we tested *accumulation*, *sensitive period*, and *mobility* hypotheses. *Mobility* hypotheses, specifically worsening SEP, were most selected. *Very early*, *Early*, and *Middle* refer to sensitive period hypotheses related to the three childhood periods: very early (0-2 years), early (3-5 years), and middle childhood (6-7 years). *Early worsening/improvement* refer to mobility hypotheses for changes between very early and early childhood, and *later worsening/improvement* refer to mobility hypotheses for changes between early and middle childhood.

(b) For the four CpGs associated with neighborhood disadvantage at an FDR<0.05, SEP mobility group implied by the selected mobility hypothesis showed the greatest shift in DNAm. The distribution of DNAm by SEP mobility group is shown in boxplots, where the center line indicates the median, box limits indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles, whiskers extend up to 1.5 inter-quartile range (IQR) from the box limits, and individually plotted data points were values further than 1.5 IQR from the box limits. SEP mobility group was defined based on the exposure status at two consecutive childhood periods (*very early* and *early*, or *early* and *middle*) involved in the mobility hypothesis chosen for each CpG; *persistently low SEP* was defined as being exposed during both periods; *worsening SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the former period but exposed during the later period; *improving SEP* was defined as being exposed during the former period but unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during the later period; *persistently high SEP* was defined as being unexposed during both periods

	Job loss (N=667)	Income reduction (N=711)	Low family income (N=619)	Financial hardship (N=697)	Major financial problem (N=710)	Neighborhood disadvantage (N=687)
Very early childhood (0-2 years)	42 (6.3%)	458 (64.4%)	95 (15.4%)	127 (18.2%)	138 (19.4%)	83 (12.1%)
Early childhood (3-5 years)	32 (4.8%)	220 (30.9%)	79 (12.8%)	46 (6.6%)	69 (9.7%)	36 (5.2%)
Middle childhood (6-7 years)	18 (2.7%)	134 (18.9%)	55 (8.9%)	29 (4.2%)	60 (8.5%)	29 (4.2%)
Ever-exposed ^a	77 (11.5%)	525 (73.8%)	130 (21.0%)	147 (21.1%)	184 (25.9%)	98 (14.3%)
Average correlation over time ^b	0.49	0.34	0.87	0.70	0.50	0.80

Table 1. Prevalence of exposure to socioeconomic adversity by developmental period in the ARIES analytic sample.

The first four rows present the number (%) of children who were exposed to the specific type of socioeconomic adversity at each developmental period or ever exposed throughout the three periods.

^a Children who were exposed during at least one period were defined as ever-exposed for the specific type of socioeconomic adversity.

^b Polychoric correlations were presented, characterizing the average correlation over time within the given type of exposure. The average within-SEP correlations were moderate, suggesting these measures were variable across time, which allowed for detecting differences across periods.

Adversity	Number of R ² >3% CpGs	Range of R ²	Range of p-values	Number of FDR<0.05 CpGs
Neighborhood disadvantage	17	3.0-4.2%	$1.3 \times 10^{-7} - 7.1 \times 10^{-6}$	4 a
Job loss	15	3.1-3.7%	$5.8 \times 10^{-7} - 8.8 \times 10^{-6}$	-
Low family income	13	3.0-3.8%	$1.7 \times 10^{-6} - 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$	-
Financial hardship	9	3.0-3.7%	$5.9 \times 10^{-7} - 8.5 \times 10^{-6}$	-
Major financial problem	5	3.0-3.8%	$2.6 \times 10^{-7} - 4.7 \times 10^{-6}$	-
Income reduction	3	3.0-3.3%	$1.5 \times 10^{-6} - 4.5 \times 10^{-6}$	-

Table 2. Summary of the SLCMA results for the 62 CpGs with $R^2>3\%$.

SLCMA = structured life course modeling approach; FDR = false discovery rate.

The R^2 values reflect the increase in the variance of DNA methylation explained by the first hypothesis chosen after accounting for covariates. P-values were calculated using selective inference, which assesses the significance of the increase in R^2 explained. See **Table S2** for the full list of the 62 CpGs.

^a Four CpGs for neighborhood disadvantage passed an FDR<0.05 significance threshold: cg20102336, cg08638097, cg23405172, and cg14212190.

Abbreviations

ALSPAC, Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children ARIES, accessible Resources for Integrated Epigenomics Studies CpG, cytosine-guanine DNAm, DNA methylation EWAS, Epigenome-wide association study FDR, false discovery rate GO, gene ontology LARS, Least Angle Regression mQTL, methylation quantitative trait loci SEP, socioeconomic position SLCMA, structured life-course modeling approach UK, United Kingdom