

1 Grandmaternal smoking during pregnancy is associated with
2 differential DNA methylation in their grandchildren
3

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19 Abstract

20 The idea that information can be transmitted to subsequent generation(s) by epigenetic means
21 has been studied for decades but remains controversial in humans. Epidemiological studies
22 have established that grandparental exposures are associated with health outcomes in their
23 grandchildren, often with sex-specific effects; however the mechanism of transmission is still
24 unclear. We conducted Epigenome Wide Association Studies (EWAS) to test whether
25 grandmaternal smoking during pregnancy is associated with altered DNA methylation (DNAm)
26 in their adolescent grandchildren. We used data from a birth cohort, with discovery and
27 replication datasets of 1225 and 708 individuals (respectively), aged 15-17 years, and tested
28 replication in the same individuals at birth and 7 years. We show for the first time that DNAm
29 at a small number of loci is associated with grandmaternal smoking in humans, and their
30 locations in the genome suggest hypotheses of transmission. We observe and replicate sex-
31 specific associations at two sites on the X chromosome, one located in an imprinting control
32 region and both within transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs). In fact, we observe
33 enrichment for TFBSs among the CpG sites with the strongest associations, suggesting that
34 TFBSs may be a mechanism by which grandmaternal exposures influence offspring DNA
35 methylation. There is limited evidence that these associations appear at earlier timepoints, so
36 effects are not static throughout development. The implication of this work is that effects of
37 smoking during pregnancy may induce DNAm changes in later generations and that these
38 changes are often sex-specific, in line with observational associations.

39 Keywords: ALSPAC; grandmaternal smoking; DNA methylation; transgenerational effects;
40 prenatal smoking

41 Introduction

42 The idea that information can be transmitted to subsequent generation(s) by epigenetic means
43 remains controversial in humans (1). The terminology used in the literature on this topic is not
44 always consistent; here we use the term transgenerational to include all transmissions from
45 one generation to subsequent generations. Of all epigenetic mechanisms that might be
46 involved in transmission of information between generations, DNA methylation (DNAm) is a
47 strong candidate because it is heritable over cell division. A frequent argument against this is
48 the two widespread phases of global de-methylation followed by re-methylation that all
49 humans undergo in germ cells, and then immediately post-fertilization at the blastocyst stage
50 (which is necessary to allow cells to become pluripotent (2, 3)). However it has been shown
51 that in human germ cells some genomic regions escape de-methylation (4), and imprinting
52 control regions (ICRs) are not subject to de-methylation or re-methylation in the early embryo
53 (5). Reports are also emerging of mechanisms which may preserve or restore DNAm at certain
54 loci during the phase of germ cell de-methylation - such as transcription factors (TFs) (6, 7).

55 Most work on transgenerational responses in humans stems from epidemiological studies
56 which report associations between grandparental exposures or experiences and grandchild
57 health outcomes. Effects are often sex specific and unique to either the maternal or paternal
58 line (8, 9). Tobacco smoke exposure accounts for a significant proportion of transgenerational
59 studies in humans; this is because in human cohort studies records of smoking behaviour are
60 commonly available, and compared to other exposures and lifestyle factors smoking behaviour
61 is relatively easy to objectively and accurately recall and record, even by family members.

62 Grandmaternal smoking during pregnancy has been associated with a number of health
63 outcomes in their grandchildren: paternal grandmother's smoking during pregnancy is
64 associated with greater fat mass in their adult granddaughters, but not grandsons (10), and

65 with reduced prevalence of myopia in their grandchildren up to 7 years of age (with stronger
66 effects in the grandsons); this study also demonstrated that early-onset myopia is associated
67 with DNAm at multiple loci (11). Maternal grandmother smoking during pregnancy is
68 associated with higher birth weight, and subsequent greater lean mass and higher
69 cardiovascular fitness, in their grandsons (12, 13). It has been well established that smoking is
70 associated with differences in DNAm, both in the individual (14, 15) and in the offspring of
71 mothers who smoke during pregnancy (16, 17); currently one published study has assessed the
72 association of grandmaternal smoking with DNAm in their grandchildren, at 26 DNAm sites
73 that were known to be associated with prenatal smoke exposure. However none of these sites
74 were found to be associated with grandmaternal smoking (18).

75 Here we test the hypothesis that grandmaternal smoking during pregnancy is associated with
76 differences in DNAm in their grandchildren, at over 450,000 sites across the genome. We
77 utilise the Avon Longitudinal Study of Parents and Children (ALSPAC) cohort (19), which has
78 both DNAm data and detailed information about ancestral smoking. Almost 3,000 methylomes
79 have now been assayed for the index children at 15 years of age, making this the largest
80 human cohort available to assess transgenerational epigenetic inheritance.

81 [Methods](#)

82 [Cohort description](#)

83 We used two DNAm datasets from the ALSPAC cohort; please see supplementary methods for
84 a detailed cohort description. Our discovery data were a newly generated dataset of 1869
85 individuals at 15-17 years of age, who had their methylomes assayed on the Illumina EPIC
86 Human Methylation microarray (EPIC array). Replication analyses utilised the original
87 subsample of ALSPAC with DNAm data (known as the Accessible Resource for Integrated
88 Epigenomic Studies, ARIES), assayed on the Illumina 450 K Human Methylation microarray

89 (450k array) (20). Although replication is ideally conducted in a separate dataset, we could
90 identify no other available DNAm datasets of a similar age with ancestral smoking data.

91 [Ancestral smoking data](#)

92 We determined whether the maternal and paternal grandmothers of the ALSPAC study
93 children smoked during pregnancy using questionnaires completed by the study mother and
94 father. Maternal and paternal lines were tested separately. The variable we used was a
95 categorical 'Yes' or 'No'; see supplementary methods for details on how this was created.

96 [Study exclusions](#)

97 To attempt to detect only grandmaternal effects, we excluded all individuals whose mother
98 reported smoking whilst pregnant, and all adolescents who reported smoking themselves. We
99 also excluded a small number of individuals from the EPIC dataset who were of non-white
100 ethnicity, as reduced rates of both maternal and paternal grandmother smoking were
101 associated with non-white ethnicity; please see supplementary methods for details.

102 [New ALSPAC methylomes assayed on EPIC array](#)

103 DNA methylation profiles were generated as previously described but using the Illumina
104 Infinium MethylationEPIC Beadchip (EPIC array) rather than then the Illumina Infinium
105 HumanMethylation450k Beadchip (450k array) (21). Briefly, following DNA extraction, DNA
106 was bisulfite converted using the Zymo EZ DNA Methylation™ kit (Zymo, Irvine, CA), and DNA
107 methylation was measured using EPIC arrays. Arrays were scanned using Illumina iScan, and
108 the initial quality review was carried out using GenomeStudio. A wide range of batch variables
109 were recorded in a purpose-built laboratory information management system (LIMS).
110 Additional quality control and normalization was carried out using the *meffil* R package. Of
111 1885 initial samples, 16 were found to have an unacceptably high proportion of undetected
112 probes (proportion > 10% with detection p-value < 0.01). The remaining 1869 were

113 normalized using functional normalization (22) as implemented in *meffil* with quantiles
114 adjusted using 20 control probe principal components and slide as a random effect.

115 Original ARIES DNAm data assayed on 450k array

116 921 samples were available for the 15–17-year-olds from the original ARIES DNAm dataset,
117 along with 849 individuals at birth, and 910 individuals at 7 years. Consent for biological
118 samples was collected in accordance with the Human Tissue Act (2004). Processing, extraction,
119 and quality control of DNAm data has been described in detail for these samples (20), as have
120 normalisation and outlier removal procedures (21). 21 further individuals were removed as
121 they were the only sample on a slide, preventing their adjustment for slide effects.

122 Filtering DNAm sites

123 All sites on the X and Y chromosomes were removed from the analyses using all individuals;
124 the Y chromosome was removed from the single sex analyses. No other sites were removed,
125 but results were checked against probes flagged as being cross-reactive or having a SNP at the
126 CpG site, in the single base extension, or in the probe body (23). Results were also checked for
127 being located in the highly polymorphic human leukocyte antigen (HLA) region.

128 EWAS

129 Six EWAS were performed in both the discovery (EPIC) and replication (450k) datasets, testing
130 the association of DNAm with maternal grandmother smoking in all individuals, in females, and
131 in males, and with paternal grandmother smoking, in all individuals, in females, and in males.
132 EWAS were conducted using the R package *meffil* (21). A genome-wide significance threshold
133 of $p < 9e-08$ was used for the EPIC analyses (24), and $p < 2.4e-07$ for the 450k (25). Covariates for
134 all EWAS were: age at DNAm sample; sex (for the analyses with both sexes); batch effects
135 (plate for the EPIC samples, slide for the 450k samples); and cell count proportions estimated
136 using a deconvolution algorithm (26) implemented in *meffil*, based on the “blood gse35069

137 complete” cell type reference. Because known covariates can be imperfect and miss sources of
138 unwanted variation, we conducted a sensitivity analysis adjusting for surrogate variables (using
139 surrogate variable analysis (SVA)(27) as implemented in meffil) where we assessed correlation
140 between effect sizes of the SVA and known covariates models. As there was high correlation
141 between effect sizes (>0.97) the known covariates model was used for all analyses – the high
142 correlation suggests that the main model accounted for all substantial sources of DNAm
143 variation, and SVA risks removing biologically interesting sources of variation in the data.

144 [Testing for replication](#)

145 We used three complementary approaches to test for replication of the sites most strongly
146 associated with the exposure in the discovery dataset, as no single measure can capture this.
147 Firstly, we took the 25 top associated sites from the EPIC analyses that were also present on
148 the 450k array and assessed them for association in the 450k analyses at the equivalent of
149 $p < 0.05/25$. Secondly, we correlated effect sizes between the discovery and replication
150 datasets, for the top 10, 25, 50, 100 and 200 sites identified in each discovery EWAS. Finally,
151 we conducted a binomial test for each discovery EWAS to ascertain whether the top 10, 25, 50,
152 100 and 200 sites replicated at $p < 0.05$ with the same direction of effect.

153 [Meta-analysis](#)

154 For each of the six EWAS (maternal grandmother smoking: all individuals, males, and females;
155 and paternal grandmother smoking: all individuals, males, and females), we meta-analysed
156 results from the EPIC and 450k analyses at 15-17 years, using all sites common to both arrays.
157 We performed meta-analysis of the effect sizes and standard errors using METAL (28).

158 [X chromosome analysis](#)

159 As previous work has identified that associations between ancestral exposures and health
160 outcomes in later generations are often sex-specific, and X-inactivation is specific to females,

161 we tested the hypothesis that sites on the X chromosome would associate with grandmaternal
162 smoking during pregnancy. We tested the X chromosome separately for each sex-stratified
163 EWAS and meta-analysis, adjusting for X chromosome significance ($p < 2.7e-06$ in EPIC, $p < 4.5e-$
164 06 in 450k and $p < 4.9e-06$ in the meta-analysis).

165 [Escapees analysis](#)

166 As some DNAm sites have been shown to escape the wave of de-methylation in germ cells (4),
167 we tested the hypothesis that these sites are associated with grandmaternal smoking during
168 pregnancy. To do this we took the 116,618 regions of the genome that have been identified as
169 escaping de-methylation (4) (which have recently been made available as supplementary
170 material in a bioRxiv paper (29)). We identified all sites on the EPIC array that were within
171 those genomic regions ($n=36,051$) and tested them for association with grandmaternal
172 smoking at Bonferroni corrected significance ($p < 0.05/36051 = 1.4e-6$).

173 [Imprinting control region analysis](#)

174 As ICRs are not subject to the phases of de-methylation and re-methylation in the early
175 embryo, we sought to test whether DNAm sites in identified regions might associate with
176 grandmaternal smoking. We took the set of 984 DNAm sites present on the EPIC array
177 identified as being within ICRs at $FDR < 0.05$ (30). We tested these sites for association with
178 grandmaternal smoking at Bonferroni corrected significance ($p < 0.05/984 = 5.1e-5$). There were
179 29 ICR sites that overlapped with the escapees.

180 [Testing replication earlier in life](#)

181 To ascertain whether any sites associated with grandmaternal smoking at 15-17 years are
182 differentially methylated from birth, we repeated each EWAS using DNAm profiles for ALSPAC
183 participants from blood samples collected at birth and 7 years (see supplementary table 1 for
184 participant numbers). We included the same covariates as for the adolescents, aside from at

185 birth where gestational age was substituted for age. As the birth and 7 years DNAm profiles
186 were assayed from different sample types (blood spots and white cells at birth; white cells and
187 whole blood at 7 years), sample type was also included as a covariate. In addition to using this
188 analysis to assess replication of associations in the 15-17-year-olds, we assessed the opposite,
189 replication of associations at the birth and age 7 in the 15-17-year-old discovery dataset.

190 [Transcription factor binding site \(TFBS\) enrichment analysis](#)

191 To test the hypothesis that differential DNAm associated with grandmaternal smoking might
192 be mediated by TFs preserving or maintaining methylation status, we tested whether DNAm
193 sites were located near TFBS more than expected by chance. To do this we took the top 25
194 sites from each discovery EWAS and tested them for TFBS enrichment against all sites on the
195 EPIC array used in our EWAS (n sites=838,019) using LOLA locus overlap (31). We used the
196 Encode TFBS (32, 33) region set created by the LOLA team, comprising ChIP-seq data on 161
197 TFs, which is available through <http://lolaweb.databio.org>. We tested 100bp on either side of
198 the DNAm site, removing overlapping sites to prevent inflation of results. Results were
199 reduced to TFBS measured in blood which were associated in at least one EWAS at $p < 0.05$. To
200 assess whether individual sites identified in the main analysis were associated with a TFBS, we
201 used the hg19 version of the UCSC genome browser (34); <https://genome-euro.ucsc.edu/>.

202 [Enrichment of prenatal- and own smoking- associated sites](#)

203 We tested the hypothesis that DNAm sites that are established as being associated with
204 prenatal smoking and own smoking would be enriched in our EWAS associations, to ascertain
205 whether transgenerational transmission might be related to these sites. To do this we
206 evaluated statistical inflation of EWAS associations among the 568 DNAm sites (of which 540
207 were available on the EPIC array) previously reported to be associated with maternal prenatal
208 smoking in cord blood (17), and the 2623 sites (2445 available on the EPIC array) reported to

209 be associated with own smoking (35). For each, inflation beyond expected levels was
210 evaluated by generating QQ plots and lambda values. We then used a one-sided Wilcoxon rank
211 sum test to ask if DNAm sites associated with prenatal- and own-smoking had lower p-values
212 in our EWAS than expected from a random selection.

213 [Enrichment of lean mass-associated sites](#)

214 We finally sought to identify whether DNAm sites associated with grandmaternal smoking
215 might be related to lean mass (a previously reported epidemiological association (13)).
216 Although no published EWAS of lean mass is available, 47 sites associated with lean mass in
217 the mothers in ALSPAC at $p < 1e-04$ are available in the EWAS catalog (36);
218 <http://www.ewascatalog.org/>. We checked for inflation of these sites in our data using QQ
219 plots and lambda values, and tested enrichment for these sites using a Wilcoxon rank sum test.

220 [Results](#)

221 [Study characteristics](#)

222 Of the 1869 individuals with EPIC array DNAm profiles passing QC, we removed 267 because
223 they were either of non-white ethnicity or had missing ethnicity data – this was because non-
224 white ethnicity was associated with lower rates of smoking for both maternal and paternal
225 grandmothers ($p=0.03$ and 0.007 , respectively). Of the remaining 1602 participants, 285 were
226 removed because their mother reported that she smoked during her pregnancy, and 73
227 further individuals were removed because they reported smoking themselves. Of the 910
228 individuals with 450k DNAm data passing QC and filtering, 125 individuals were removed
229 because their mother reported smoking during pregnancy, and a further 59 were removed as
230 they reported smoking themselves. All individuals in the 450k dataset were of white ethnicity.
231 Table 1 summarises the characteristics of the adolescent datasets; supplementary table 1
232 details the numbers of participants with complete data in each EWAS.

Dataset	Measure	MGM analysis	PGM analysis	Full cohort
EPIC	N participants	1225	1021	1869
	Grandmaternal smoking (% yes)	30.9%	38.4%	34% MGM; 39% PGM*
	Sex (% Female)	50.7%	51.6%	52.4%
	Age (mean(SD))	17.8 (0.4)	17.8 (0.4)	17.8 (0.5)
450k	N participants	708	601	910
	Grandmaternal smoking (% yes)	29.9%	36.6%	31.7% MGM; 39.4% PGM*
	Sex (% Female)	51.1%	51.6%	51.6%
	Age (mean(SD))	17.1 (1)	17.1 (1)	17.1 (1)

233 *Table 1: Summary of variables used in the analysis for participants with DNAm data assayed on the EPIC and 450k*
 234 *arrays. MGM = maternal grandmother, PGM = paternal grandmother. * percentages in this cell are calculated after*
 235 *omitting participants with missing ancestral smoking data.*

236 Discovery EWAS results

237 No associations tested using the main model (all covariates) survived the Bonferroni-adjusted
 238 p-value threshold ($p < 9e-8$). variation. All associations $p < 1e-04$ using the main model are
 239 reported in supplementary tables 2-7.

240 Replication

241 All associations in the replication dataset $p < 1e-04$ using the main model are reported in
 242 supplementary tables 8-13. Firstly we tested replication at $p < 0.05/25$ for each of the six EWAS.
 243 For maternal grandmother smoking, the association at a single site on the X chromosome
 244 replicates in the females only analysis (cg19782749, $p = 0.001$; **Error! Reference source not**
 245 **found.**). For paternal grandmother smoking, none of the associations at the top 25 sites
 246 replicate. Secondly, we evaluated correlation of effect sizes for associations at the top sites in
 247 each EWAS. For maternal grandmother smoking in the all-individuals analysis, there were
 248 moderate negative correlations for the top 25 to 200 sites ($R = -0.18$ to -0.45 , $p < 0.03$). Within
 249 each of the other five EWAS analyses, moderate correlations ($R = 0.28$ to 0.45 , $p < 0.05$) were
 250 found for at most two two subsets of sites - correlations were otherwise small ($R < 0.2$), and
 251 four analyses featured both negative and positive correlations. Therefore we do not find
 252 consistent evidence of replication of effect sizes in our analyses. Thirdly, we asked if direction

253 of effect was preserved in replication data for the top associated sites. There was again
254 evidence supporting replication for maternal grandmother smoking in female grandchildren (in
255 four of five tests $p < 0.009$, binomial test), but none of the other EWAS. Details can be found in
256 supplementary table 14.

257 Using the same replication methods we evaluated agreement between associations observed
258 in male and female stratified analyses in the discovery dataset. For maternal grandmother
259 smoking, effects of associations at top female sites appear to be negatively correlated with
260 effects in males ($R = -0.21$ to -0.43 , $p < 0.05$). None of the other replication analyses yielded
261 evidence for agreement or disagreement between top male and female associations. For
262 paternal grandmother smoking, effect sizes of top female sites were positively correlated with
263 effects in males ($R = 0.34$ to 0.66 , $p < 0.04$); we also observe agreement in direction of effect
264 for associations at the top 200 female sites. Details are in supplementary table 15.

265 [Meta-analysis](#)

266 As the datasets were generated using different Illumina Beadchip arrays, we meta-analysed
267 only the 438,459 sites that were common to both arrays. No associations survived Bonferroni-
268 adjustment for multiple tests ($p < 2.4e-07$).

269 [X chromosome](#)

270 When testing the X chromosome, only one association survived adjustment for multiple tests
271 ($p < 2.7e-6$). The association was with paternal grandmother smoking in the males
272 (cg27456137; $p = 1.9e-06$); **Error! Reference source not found.** The probe for this site has been
273 flagged (23) as cross-hybridising to a 49bp sequence 500bp from cg27456137. Three probes on
274 the EPIC array reside within that 49bp sequence; however none were associated with either
275 grandmother smoking near genome-wide significance (all $p > 0.03$).

276 [Escapees](#)

277 When testing whether DNAm sites located within escapee regions were associated at the
278 Bonferroni corrected p-value $p < 1.5e-06$ in the discovery dataset, we find no sites associated
279 with maternal or paternal grandmother smoking.

280 [Imprinting control regions](#)

281 We similarly tested the hypothesis that transmission might involve sites within ICRs. We
282 observe one association that survives correction for multiple tests ($p < 5.1e-05$); the association
283 is with paternal grandmother smoking (cg15068552, $p = 2.2e-05$); **Error! Reference source not**
284 **found..**

285 [Testing associations and replication earlier in life](#)

286 In cord blood, we find one site associated with maternal grandmother smoking in all
287 individuals, and two sites associated with paternal grandmother smoking in females (see **Error!**
288 **Reference source not found.** for a summary). In the 7-year-olds, no sites were associated with
289 either grandmother smoking in any of the six analyses. All associations $p > 1e-04$ using the main
290 model are reported in supplementary tables 16-27. None of these associations were observed
291 at adolescence (i.e., in the main discovery dataset) below the $p < 0.05/3$ threshold (all $p > 0.07$).

292 We then tested whether two of the three associations observed at adolescence (i.e., in the
293 main discovery dataset) were observed at birth and at 7 years (cg15068552 in all individuals
294 when the paternal grandmother smoked, and cg19782749 in females when the maternal
295 grandmother smoked; cg27456137 could not be tested because it was not measured by the
296 450k array). We see a suggestion of replication at cg15068552 at birth in all individuals when
297 the paternal grandmother smoked ($p = 0.02$), and at cg19782749 at 7 years in females when the
298 maternal grandmother smoked ($p = 0.04$).

299

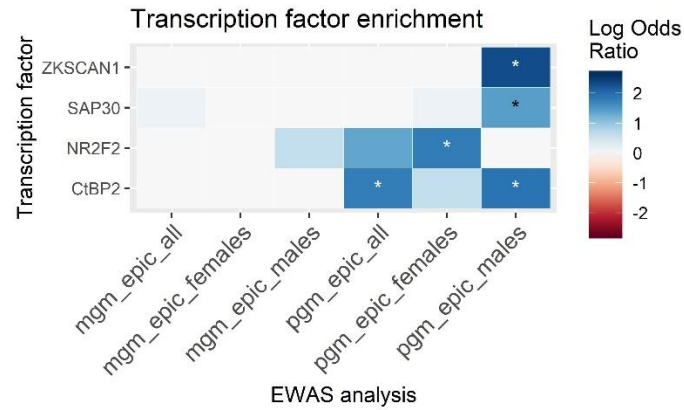
Age (subset)	Array	Analysis	CpG	chr	position	p value	Effect size
15-17 (females)	EPIC + 450k	Replication	cg19782749	Xchr	132091720	5.2e-05 (EPIC); 0.001 (450k)	0.002 (EPIC); 0.001 (450k)
15-17 (males)	EPIC	PGM (X chr)	cg27456137	chrX	129403024	1.9e-06	-0.01
15-17 (all individuals)	EPIC	PGM (ICR)	cg15068552	7	130130203	2.2e-05	-0.02
Birth (all individuals)	450k	MGM	cg19426678	12	117537404	2.1e-07	-0.002
Birth (females)	450k	PGM	cg22682200	10	120001266	2.3e-09	-0.05
Birth (females)	450k	PGM	cg26827966	5	172189374	5.9e-08	-0.03

300 *Table 2: Sites which were found to associate with grandmaternal smoking in all analyses. Models were adjusted for*
 301 *all covariates (age/gestational age, predicted cell counts, and batch effects).*

302 [Transcription factor binding site analysis](#)

303 Using locus overlap enrichment analysis (LOLA), we find enrichment of the top 25 EWAS
 304 associations at the TFBS for four TFs (nominal $p < 0.05$) in EWAS of paternal grandmother
 305 smoking. CtBP2 is enriched for the EWAS of males and females (log OR=1.8, $p=0.02$); NR2F2 is
 306 enriched in the female-stratified EWAS (log OR=1.8, $p=0.02$); and CtBP2 (log OR=1.9, $p=0.01$),
 307 SAP30 (log OR=1.4, $p=0.04$), and ZKSCAN1 (log OR=2.3, $p=0.02$) are enriched in the males-only
 308 EWAS. There are no enrichments in the maternal grandmother smoking analyses. These
 309 enrichment results are illustrated in **Error! Reference source not found.** We then used the
 310 UCSC genome browser to assess whether the six individual sites identified were located within
 311 TFBS. We find all six are located in sites which bind at least one TF; these are detailed in
 312 supplementary table 28.

313



314

315 *Figure 1: Transcription factor binding site enrichments for TFBS that reached $p < 0.05$ for at least one of the EWAS.*
316 *Heatmap is coloured by the log odds ratio, *= $p < 0.05$*

317 Enrichment of prenatal- and own smoking- associated sites

318 Among sites associated with prenatal smoking, we observe some inflation for associations with

319 paternal grandmother smoking in males ($\lambda = 1.27 \pm 0.13$) and females ($\lambda = 1.12 \pm$

320 0.11). This inflation is replicated only for males in the 450k dataset ($\lambda = 1.46 \pm 0.12$).

321 Among sites associated with own smoking, there is weak inflation for associations with

322 paternal grandmother smoking in females ($\lambda = 1.16 \pm 0.05$), but this association is not

323 replicated. Inflation results are summarised in Table 3.

EWAS	Prenatal smoking sites				Own smoking sites			
	EPIC		450k		EPIC		450k	
	Lambda ± SE	Wlicoxon p-value	Lambda ± SE	Wlicoxon p-value	Lambda ± SE	Wlicoxon p-value	Lambda ± SE	Wlicoxon p-value
MGM all	0.93 ± 0.09	0.67	0.89 ± 0.09	0.88	0.96 ± 0.04	0.85	1.03 ± 0.04	0.2
MGM females	0.79 ± 0.07	0.91	1.08 ± 0.08	0.86	0.9 ± 0.04	0.53	1.01 ± 0.04	1
MGM males	0.93 ± 0.08	0.88	0.88 ± 0.09	0.02	0.89 ± 0.04	1	0.96 ± 0.05	4.1e -05
PGM all	1.27 ± 0.11	0.62	1.09 ± 0.11	2.20E-05	1.21 ± 0.05	0.86	0.97 ± 0.03	1.10E-07
PGM females	1.12 ± 0.11	0.58	0.85 ± 0.06	0.11	1.16 ± 0.05	0.09	0.81 ± 0.04	0.01
PGM males	1.27 ± 0.13	0.02	1.46 ± 0.12	8.30E-08	0.93 ± 0.05	0.99	1.1 ± 0.05	1.42E-06

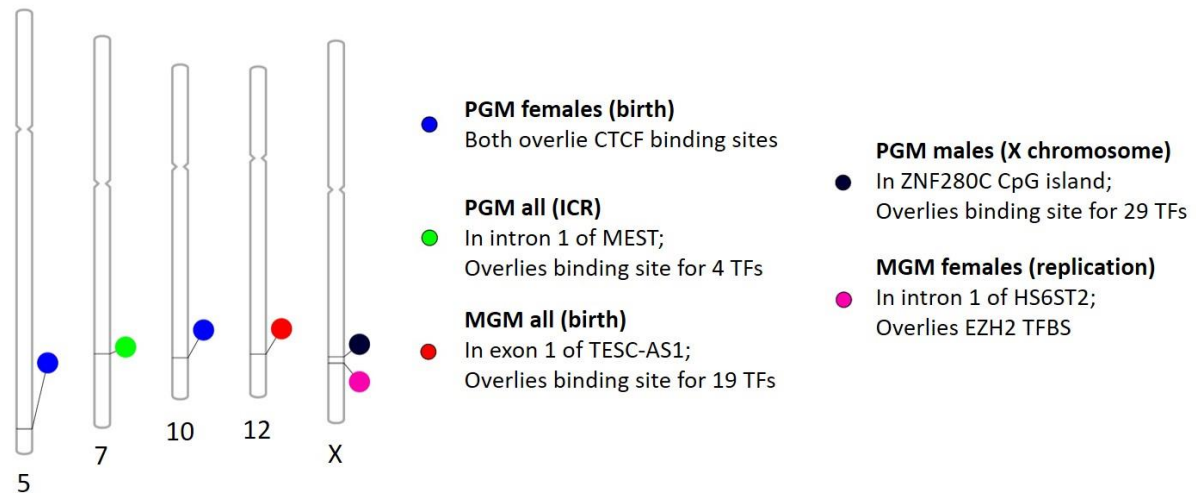
324 *Table 3: Summary of lambda values to illustrate inflation, and Wilcoxon rank-sum p-values to illustrate enrichment,*
 325 *of DNAm sites previously identified to be associated with prenatal smoke exposure and own smoking.*

326 [Inflation test for lean mass-associated DNAm sites](#)

327 We observe no evidence for inflation among CpG sites associated with lean mass. These
 328 inflation results are summarised in supplementary table 29.

329 [Discussion](#)

330 In summary, we find some evidence for effects of grandmother smoking on DNA methylation
 331 in her adolescent grandchildren; on the X chromosome, in an ICR, in TFBS, and among prenatal
 332 smoking-associated DNAm sites. We also find three sites associated with grandmaternal
 333 smoking in cord blood, but these associations do not appear to persist. In most cases,
 334 associations appear to be sex-specific in line with previous research (8-10). Associations are
 335 summarised in Figure 2.



336

337 *Figure 2: Graphical summary illustrating the main study findings. MGM = maternal grandmother, PGM = paternal*
 338 *grandmother. Bold text indicates EWAS (analysis); text indicates whether the site is located within a gene and*
 339 *whether it is located in a TFBS.*

340 We find some evidence for mechanisms by which DNAm might be preserved through phases of
 341 de- and re-methylation in the germ cell. Two of the six sites we identify are on the X
 342 chromosome, giving a possible route by which sex-specific differences in transmission of
 343 responses across generations might occur. We find evidence suggesting TFs might have a role
 344 in the transmission of epigenetic responses to smoking across generations - both from the
 345 enrichment analysis, and the location of all six individual sites within TFBS. We find evidence
 346 for a single site residing within an ICR, but find no evidence for sites in regions known to
 347 escape de-methylation in germ cells. Finally, we find suggestive evidence of replication of two
 348 sites identified in adolescents in earlier DNAm samples (one at birth and one at 7 years),
 349 although no site replicates across all three timepoints.

350 We find evidence of inflation and enrichment of sites associated with prenatal smoking only in
 351 males when their paternal grandmother smoked, and do not find consistent inflation of sites
 352 associated with own smoking. This could suggest that grandmaternal smoking affects DNAm
 353 through different mechanisms to maternal smoking. The inflation we see in males is contrary
 354 to previous null prenatal findings (18); the reason for this discrepancy may be that we test a
 355 larger number of sites. We do not see any inflation or enrichment of lean mass associated

356 DNAm sites in our analyses, suggesting that the differences in lean mass observed previously
357 (13) may not be related to differences in DNAm.

358 Because TFBS are a consistent feature of our findings, our study supports the idea that DNAm
359 changes may be linked to ancestral smoking by TF binding events. These binding events could
360 either shield DNAm from being modified in early development or induce DNAm changes
361 consistent with ancestral smoking, as DNAm status can be restored by TFs during germline and
362 embryonic development following erasure (6, 7). However it is not clear why the associations
363 we do see would change over time, and so we cannot rule out the possibility that we find
364 differences at these DNAm sites due to another factor that is influenced by grandmaternal
365 smoking, such as parental behaviour. We suggest TFBS might present the most promising line
366 of future work in transgenerational epigenetic responses in humans.

367 Strengths of our study are that we assessed grandmaternal smoking effects in a large cohort of
368 humans with ancestral smoking data, alongside rich phenotypic data. We have DNAm data
369 from birth so were able to assess whether DNAm differences at these sites are present
370 between birth and adolescence. Limitations include that the 450k and EPIC array platforms
371 only cover around 2% and 4% of the genome, respectively, and that our replication dataset
372 came from the same birth cohort as the discovery data.

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