

1 **Stochastic epigenetic mutations are associated with risk of breast cancer, lung cancer and**
2 **mature B-cell neoplasms**

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71 **Abbreviations**

72 EPIC: The European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and nutrition,

73 MCCS: The Melbourne Collaborative Cohorts Study,

74 NOWAC: The NORwegian Women And Cancer study,

75 AA: age acceleration,

76 SEM: stochastic epigenetic mutation,

77 DNAm: DNA methylation,

78 UCC: urothelial cell carcinoma,

79 MBCN: mature B-cell neoplasm,

80 WBC: white blood cell,

81 log(SEM): logarithm of the total number of SEMs,

82 BMI: body mass index,

83 OR: odds ratio,

84 CI: confidence interval,

85 PRC2: Polycomb-Repressive-Complex-2,

86 ChIP-Seq: Chromatin ImmunoPrecipitation Sequencing,

87 CNV: copy number variant,

88 TFBS: transcription factor binding site,

89 IEAA: intrinsic epigenetic age acceleration,

90 IQR: interquartile range,

91 TTD: time to disease,

92 sd: standard deviation.

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93 **Abstract**

94 **Background:** Age-related epigenetic dysregulations were associated with several diseases,
95 including cancer. The individual number of stochastic epigenetic mutations (SEMs) has been
96 suggested as a biomarker of life-course accumulation of exposure-related DNA damage; however,
97 the predictive role of SEMs in cancer has seldom been investigated.

98 **Methods:** A SEM, at a given CpG site, was defined as an extreme outlier of blood DNA
99 methylation value distribution across individuals. We investigated the association of the total
100 number of SEMs with the risk of eight cancers in 4,497 case-control pairs nested in three
101 prospective cohorts. Further, we investigated whether SEMs were randomly distributed across the
102 genome or enriched in functional genomic regions.

103 **Results:** In the three-study meta-analysis the estimated odds ratios (ORs) per one-unit increase in
104 log(SEM) from logistic regression models adjusted for age and cancer risk factors were 1.25; 95%
105 CI 1.11-1.41 for breast cancer, and 1.23; 95% CI 1.07-1.42 for lung cancer. In MCCS, the OR for
106 mature B-cell neoplasm was 1.46; 95% CI 1.25-1.71. Enrichment analyses indicated that SEMs
107 more likely occur in silenced genomic regions and in transcription factor binding sites regulated by
108 EZH2 and SUZ12 ($p < 0.0001$ and $p = 0.0005$ respectively); two components of the Polycomb-
109 Repressive-Complex-2 (PCR2). Finally, using longitudinal DNA methylation data, we showed that
110 PCR2-specific SEMs are generally more stable in time compared with SEMs occurring in the
111 whole-genome.

112 **Conclusions:** The number of SEMs is associated with a higher risk of different cancers in pre-
113 diagnostic blood samples. Enrichment analyses indicate key enzymatic pathways possibly involved
114 in carcinogenesis mechanisms.

115 **Impact:** We provide the first evidence of the prospective association between epimutations and a
116 higher risk of different cancers. We hypothesized a possible mechanism of carcinogenesis involving
117 PCR2 complex proteins worthy of further investigation.

118 **Introduction**

119 The concept of ‘life-course accumulation of exposures’ and related damage has been
120 proposed to explain the decline of physiological functioning and the consequent increased disease
121 morbidity and mortality during aging(1). The accumulation of environmental, socioeconomic and
122 behavioural exposures may cause long-term damage, which may be amplified by a decreased ability
123 to repair damage as the body ages(1). Age is, in fact, an important risk factor for most diseases,
124 including cancer, and the incidence of most cancers increases exponentially with age(2).

125 Basic research, combined with the increasing capacity of large-scale technologies including
126 ‘omics’ measurements, has led to the formulation of exposure-driven models of carcinogenesis(3),
127 in which functional changes in gene regulation and genomic mutations reflect the life-course
128 accumulation of exposure-related DNA damage. It has long been postulated that the accumulation
129 over time of somatic mutations in specific genes may lead to cancer development, but recent studies
130 demonstrated that this molecular mechanism alone is not sufficient(4,5).

131 Epigenetic landscapes, in particular, change considerably across the individual lifespan,
132 suggesting that epigenetic variability is a fundamental component of the aging process(4,6),
133 constituting a link between genetic and environmental factors via the regulation of gene
134 transcription processes. DNA methylation (DNAm) is the most studied epigenetic mechanism, and
135 changes in DNA methylation over time are thought to play a role in several age-related diseases,
136 including cancer(6),(7).

137 Two mechanisms contribute to age-related DNA methylation changes: the ‘epigenetic
138 drift’(6) and the ‘epigenetic clock’(8). Although both are related to aging, the ‘epigenetic clock’
139 refers to specific CpG sites at which DNA methylation levels steadily increase or decrease with age
140 and thus can be used to predict chronological age with high accuracy(8). The concept of epigenetic
141 age acceleration has been introduced as the difference between predicted DNA methylation age and
142 the chronological age(8,9). Epigenetic age acceleration may be a good biomarker of biological
143 aging as it has been associated with longevity(10-13), several pathological conditions(14,15), and

144 non-communicable disease risk factors like obesity(16), poor physical activity(17), and low
145 socioeconomic status(18). Previous work found a consistent association between measures of
146 epigenetic aging and increased cancer risk and shorter cancer survival (11). Recent literature
147 discerns Horvath (8) and Hannum (9) ‘first-generation clocks’ from DNAmPhenoAge (19) and
148 DNAmGrimAge (20), called the ‘next-generation clocks’, the latest being trained not only on age
149 instead, on a complex set of biomarkers which in turn are associated with individual health status
150 and mortality. Early findings seem to indicate that the next-generation clocks may be capturing
151 important aspects of accelerated biological aging. In a recent critique of the epigenetic clocks,
152 Dugue et al. cautioned that early studies generally report stronger associations than later studies and
153 are more likely to be affected by publication bias (21).

154 In contrast, ‘epigenetic drift’ is a mechanism that involves the whole-genome, suggesting a
155 global dysregulation of DNA methylation patterns with age(22). Two critical aspects of the
156 epigenetic drift are genomic instability and chromatin deterioration during aging, which lead to an
157 accumulation of epigenetic mutations (also known as ‘epimutations’, i.e. changes in gene activity
158 not involving DNA mutations but rather gain or loss of DNA methyl groups, which are conserved
159 in cells during mitosis(23)). A higher number of stochastic epigenetic mutations (SEMs) across the
160 genome has been associated with risk factors such as cigarette smoking, alcohol intake(23) and
161 exposure to toxicants(24). We recently reported several associations between lifestyle-related
162 variables and the number of SEMs (25). Moreover, more SEMs may be associated with skewed X
163 chromosome inactivation in women and with hepatocellular carcinoma tumour stage(26) suggesting
164 a possible role of SEMs in other age-related diseases.

165 In this study, we investigated the associations between the number of SEMs across the
166 genome and the risk of eight malignancies (breast, colorectal, lung, gastric, prostate, and kidney
167 cancer, as well as urothelial cell carcinoma (UCC), and mature B-cell neoplasms (MBCN)) in 4,497
168 case-controls pairs, matched on age and other relevant variables, nested within three large cohorts
169 from Italy (the Italian part of the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition

170 Study (EPIC)), Australia (the Melbourne Collaborative Cohort Study (MCCS)), and Norway (the
171 Norwegian Women and Cancer Study (NOWAC)). This is the first prospective study to assess the
172 association between the number of SEMs and cancer risk in DNA derived from blood samples.

173 Before this study, only Teschendorff et al. (27) investigated such relationship in cancer cells. We
174 also investigated the biomolecular mechanisms linking aging, DNA methylation patterns, and the
175 risk of different cancers analyzing the genome-wide distribution of epimutations, to identify
176 functional genomic regions enriched in SEMs, and to describe the biomolecular mechanism of
177 carcinogenesis possibly.

178 **Methods**

179 *Study sample*

180 Details of participant recruitment and relevant covariate acquisition are reported in the
181 supplementary text. Briefly, EPIC Italy, MCCS and NOWAC are prospective cohort studies with
182 demographic and lifestyle variables and blood samples collected from participants at recruitment.
183 For each cohort, subsets of blood samples were previously selected for DNA methylation analyses,
184 using nested case-control study designs, using the incidence density sampling method for case-
185 control matching (11,28-30). In EPIC Italy, three sub-study samples were case-control studies on
186 breast, lung and colorectal cancer (556 cases and controls, 45% breast cancer, 30% lung cancer,
187 25% colorectal cancer). The median time to disease (TTD) were: 7.01 years (interquartile range
188 (IQR) = 7.09), 7.44 years (IQR = 5.65), and 6.28 years (IQR = 5.04) for breast, lung, and colorectal
189 cancer studies respectively. Case-control pairs were matched by age (± 2.5 years), sex, season of
190 blood collection, centre of recruitment, and length of follow-up. The average age difference in
191 absolute value between cases and matched controls was 0.25 (standard deviation 0.26). In
192 NOWAC, two sub-study samples were case-control studies on breast and lung cancer (316 cases
193 and controls, 59% breast cancer, 41% lung cancer). For each case, one control with adequate blood
194 samples was selected matched on time since blood sampling and year of birth (that is cases and
195 matched controls had the same age at recruitment) in order to control for effects of storage time and

196 age. The median TTD were: 2.10 years (IQR = 2.14) and 4.10 years (IQR = 3.21) for breast and
197 lung cancer study, respectively. The average age difference in absolute value between cases and
198 matched controls was 0.13 (standard deviation 0.33). Finally, in MCCS eight sub-studies were on
199 breast, lung, colorectal, gastric, kidney and prostate cancer, UCC and MBCN (3,625 cases and
200 controls, 11% breast cancer, 9% lung cancer, 23% colorectal cancer, 5% gastric cancer, 4% kidney
201 cancer, 24% prostate cancer, 12% UCC, 12% MBCN). For each nested case-control study, controls
202 were individually matched to incident cases on age (± 2.5 years), sex, country of birth, blood DNA
203 source and collection period. The average case-control age difference in absolute value was \bar{X} (sd
204 = \bar{X}). The median TTD were 7.7 years (IQR = 6.07), 9.3 years (IQR = 7.9), 11.4 years (IQR =
205 10.3), 11.2 years (IQR = 8.5), 10.1 years (IQR = 7.5), 10.5 years (IQR = 8.1), 10.5 years (IQR =
206 7.9), 6.3 years (IQR = 6.8) for breast, colorectal, gastric, kidney, lung, MBCN, prostate and UCC
207 study respectively.

208 A total of 4,497 case-control matched pairs were analyzed (**Table 1**).

209 This study was conducted following the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki and its
210 subsequent revisions, and all study participants signed informed consent. EPIC was reviewed and
211 approved by the HuGeF (currently IIGM) Ethics Committee. The MCCS protocol was approved by
212 the Cancer Council Victoria's Human Research Ethics Committee. NOWAC was approved by the
213 Regional Committee for Medical and Health Research Ethics in North Norway.

214 *DNA methylation analyses*

215 Whole-genome DNA methylation was quantified using the Illumina Infinium
216 HumanMethylation450 BeadChip. Detailed methods and data pre-processing procedures can be
217 found in the supplementary text. To account for the possible bias introduced by the inter-individual
218 variability in the proportion of white blood cells (WBC) in peripheral blood, we estimated the
219 percentage of WBC fractions according to the Houseman algorithm(31), which performs inference
220 using a quadratic programming technique known as linear constrained projection, where non-
221 negativity and normalization constraints on cellular proportions are imposed during inference(32).

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222 We excluded from the analysis bimodal and trimodal CpGs using the function *findpeaks* in the R
223 package *pracma*, thus focusing on rare, stochastic events. Missing methylation values were imputed
224 using the k-nearest neighbours algorithm using the R function *impute.knn(33)*.

225 *Statistical analyses*

226 Identification of stochastic epigenetic mutations.

227 We computed the total number of SEMs as the sum of extreme DNA methylation values
228 (outliers) per individual. This approach, based on a modified version of the procedure described by
229 Gentilini et al.,(34) take into account differential WBC proportions among individuals. Specifically,
230 for each CpG, we computed the residuals from the regression of DNA methylation beta values on
231 estimated WBC fractions and then, considering the distribution of DNA methylation beta values
232 across all samples, we computed the interquartile range (IQR) – the difference between the 3rd
233 quartile (Q3) and the 1st quartile (Q1) for the residuals - and defined a SEM as a methylation value
234 lower than $Q1-(3 \times IQR)$ or greater than $Q3+(3 \times IQR)$. Finally, for each individual, we computed the
235 total number of SEMs across the assay. The described procedure leads to an estimation of the total
236 number of SEMs per individual independent on individual differential WBC proportion by
237 definition. In **Figure S1**, we show the Spearman correlation coefficients of the total number of
238 SEMs with estimated WBC percentages. Since the number of SEMs increased exponentially with
239 age, we used a logarithmic transformation of the total number of SEMs (referred to hereafter as
240 $\log(SEM)$) for all association analyses.

241 Computation of epigenetic clock measures.

242 We computed two measures of epigenetic age acceleration (AA) based on Horvath
243 DNAmAge(8) and DNAmGrimAge(20) according to the algorithm described by Horvath and
244 colleagues. Briefly, DNAmAge was calculated as a weighted average of 353 age-related CpGs
245 (Horvath DNA methylation age). Weights are defined using a penalized regression model (Elastic-
246 net regularisation) (8). Age acceleration (AA) was defined as the difference between epigenetic and
247 chronological age. Since AA may be correlated with chronological age and WBC proportions, we

248 also computed the ‘intrinsic epigenetic age acceleration’ (IEAA), defined as the residuals from the
249 linear regression of AA on chronological age and WBC percentages (13). Positive values of IEAA
250 (which by definition is independent of age and WBC) indicate accelerated aging and vice versa. The
251 DNAmGrimAge also known as the ‘next-generation clock’, is a composite biomarker based on
252 DNAm surrogate measures of seven plasma proteins associated with overall mortality in addition to
253 DNAm surrogate of smoking pack-years, trained to be strongly predictive of overall mortality. The
254 methods for enrichment analyses of the identified epimutated CpGs are described in the
255 Supplementary Material.

256 Association of SEMs with cancer risk.

257 We investigated the association between SEMs and the risk of eight types of cancer separately
258 using log(SEM) as the predictor and case-control status as the outcome. Odds ratios (ORs) and
259 confidence intervals (CIs) were calculated using conditional logistic regression models for a one-
260 unit increase in log(SEM). For each cancer and each cohort, we ran four regression models: Model
261 1 included age, sex, and study-specific covariates (centre of recruitment in EPIC, ethnicity and
262 tissue type in MCCS); Model 2 included additional adjustment for cancer risk factors: smoking,
263 body mass index (BMI), physical activity, alcohol intake, dietary quality and education (as a proxy
264 for socioeconomic status); Model 3 included additional adjustment for Horvath epigenetic AA;
265 finally, Model 4 included additional adjustment for DNAmGrimAge epigenetic age acceleration.
266 All covariates were treated as categorical variables with three categories to harmonize sources of
267 information across the three studies (see Supplementary Material for more details on harmonization
268 of covariates).

269 For associations with breast, lung and colorectal cancer, which were investigated in more than
270 one study, the overall OR estimates for the association between log(SEM) and cancer risk were
271 calculated using random-effect maximum likelihood (REML)(35) meta-analysis using the R
272 package *metafor*(36). Heterogeneity in the associations among studies was evaluated using the I^2
273 statistic. Further sensitivity analyses were performed stratifying case-control pairs based on the case

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274 time between blood collection and cancer diagnosis (time to disease (TTD)); ORs and confidence
275 intervals were computed on subsample having TTD > 10 years, TTD between 5 and 10 years, and
276 TTD <= 5 years. Cochran-Armitage test for trend was used to evaluate ORs increase with
277 decreasing TTD.

278 SEMs stability over time.

279 To evaluate the stability of SEMs over time, we analyzed DNAm data from the Italian part of
280 the Personal Exposure Monitoring (PEM-Turin) study, which in turn is part of the EXPOsOMICS
281 project(37). The PEM-Turin study included 42 healthy volunteers, whose whole-genome DNAm
282 was measured twice in 2015 as part of a study aimed at investigating the effect of air pollution
283 exposure on ‘omic’ biomarkers(38). Thirty-three out of 42 volunteers were already enrolled in the
284 EPIC Italy study in the ‘90s and are part of this study sample as healthy controls. That is, we were
285 able to compare epimutation patterns at the time of recruitment in EPIC Italy, with epimutation
286 patterns around 19 years later (mean = 18.75 years, range = 16.45 - 20.26 years) using longitudinal
287 data.

288 SEMs in cancer tissues.

289 We evaluated the consistency of epimutation patterns identified in blood pre-diagnostic
290 samples with tissue-specific (both normal and cancerous) epimutation profiles. Data from The
291 Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) project were downloaded from the Genomic Data Commons Data
292 Portal (<https://portal.gdc.cancer.gov>); specifically, we investigated epimutation profiles on tumoral-
293 normal adjacent tissue pairs from 32 lung cancer patients (TCGA-LUAD project), 91 breast cancer
294 patients (TCGA-BRCA project), and 45 colorectal cancer patients (TCGA-COAD and TCGA-
295 READ project).

296 *Data availability*

297 The data generated and/or analyzed in the current study could be accessed upon reasonable
298 request to the originating cohorts. Access will be conditional to adherence to local ethical and

299 security policy. R codes used for the analyses presented in the paper are available upon request.

300 EPIC DNAm partial data can be accessed through GEO accession number GSE51057.

301 **Results**

302 Association of cancer risk factors with SEMs

303 Analyzing the number of SEMs in the 3 cohorts, we observed an exponential increase in the
304 number of SEMs with age both in the whole study sample (**Figure 1**; Pearson $R=0.17$, $p=5 \times 10^{-9}$;
305 $R=0.04$, $p=6 \times 10^{-5}$; $R=0.23$, $p=2 \times 10^{-9}$ in EPIC, MCCS and NOWAC, respectively) and in controls
306 only (**Figure 1**; Pearson $R=0.15$, $p=2 \times 10^{-5}$; $R=0.04$, $p=0.01$; $R=0.23$, $p=1 \times 10^{-8}$ in EPIC, MCCS and
307 NOWAC, respectively). In **Table 2** are reported the cross-sectional associations of cancer risk
308 factors with $\log(\text{SEM})$ in both the whole study sample and in controls only. In EPIC Italy,
309 $\log(\text{SEM})$ was associated with smoking status, BMI and education in the whole study sample, and
310 with BMI only in controls sample. In MCCS $\log(\text{SEM})$ was associated with BMI, physical activity
311 and education in the whole sample and with ... in controls only. No association was observed in
312 NOWAC. In both MCCS and EPIC, $\log(\text{SEM})$ was greater in obese individuals; in EPIC, $\log(\text{SEM})$
313 was greater in current smokers and the low education group. In the MCCS, $\log(\text{SEM})$ was lower in
314 the low education group and among individuals with low physical activity.

315 Association of SEMs with the risk of cancers

316 In the regression Model 2, adjusting for major cancer risk factors, the presence of more
317 SEMs was associated with an increased risk of breast cancer (meta-analysis: OR per one-unit
318 increase in $\log(\text{SEM})=1.25$; 95% CI 1.11-1.41; $p=0.0003$; $I^2=0\%$; **Figure 2a**), and lung cancer
319 (meta-analysis: OR=1.23; 95% CI 1.07-1.42; $p=0.004$; $I^2=0\%$; **Figure 2b**). No association was
320 found in the meta-analysis of colorectal cancer in EPIC and MCCS (OR=1.02; 95% CI 0.91-1.14;
321 $p=0.74$; $I^2=0\%$; **Figure 2c**). In MCCS only, $\log(\text{SEM})$ was associated with MBCN (OR=1.43; 95%
322 CI 1.22-1.67; $p=5 \times 10^{-6}$, **Table 3**). ORs greater than one per $\log(\text{SEM})$ were also observed for
323 kidney and prostate cancers, although the associations were not statistically significant (**Table 3**).

324 Interestingly, the ORs from Model 1 did not deviate significantly from those estimated in
325 Model 2 (**Table 3**), and evidence of association with risk of breast and lung cancers and MBCN was
326 observed, after adjustment for smoking, BMI, alcohol intake, diet and education as covariates in the

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327 logistic regression models, suggesting limited confounding by these variables. Similarly, additional
328 adjustments for the epigenetic clock measures in Model 3 and Model 4 did not change the estimated
329 ORs significantly (Table 3). In the analysis stratified by TTD, we found a significant increase in
330 ORs as the TDD decrease for breast, colorectal (p for trend < 0.001), MBCN, and prostate cancer (p
331 for trend < 0.05, **Figure S2**).

332 Association of number of SEMs with epigenetic clocks.

333 As shown in **Figures S3 and S4**, the number of SEMs was positively correlated with
334 Horvath DNAmAge epigenetic clock in all three studies (R = 0.25, p < 0.0001; R = 0.03, p = 0.001;
335 R = 0.20, p = 0.04 in EPIC, MCCS and NOWAC, respectively), and with GrimDNAmAge (R =
336 0.25, p=0.0005; R = 0.07, p<0.0001; R =0.24, p=0.04 in EPIC, MCCS and NOWAC, respectively).
337 Consistent results were obtained from the analyses of control sample only.

338 Enrichment analyses

339 We investigated enrichment of SEMs in specific genomic regions based on the Illumina
340 annotation about CpG site location. We found enrichment of epimutations in genomic regions
341 characterized by open chromatin states, CpG islands and shores (p=0.02, p=0.05 and p=0.0003
342 respectively, **Table S1**). Considering the functional categories defined by the ENCODE project
343 with Chromatin Immuno Precipitation Sequencing (ChIP-Seq) experiments on human embryonic
344 stem cells (hESC), we found enrichment of SEMs in ‘inactive/poised promoters’ (p<0.0001),
345 ‘heterochromatin/low signal/CNV’ (p<0.0001), and ‘Polycomb-repressed’ regions (p=0.02) (**Table**
346 **S2**). Furthermore, considering transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs) in hESC from ENCODE
347 project, we also found significant an enrichment of SEMs in TFBSs targeted by two members of the
348 Polycomb-Repressive-Complex-2 (PRC2): EZH2 and SUZ12 (p<0.0001 and p=0.0005,
349 respectively, **Table S3**) and by the transcriptional corepressor ctBP2 (p=0.001, **Table S3**).

350 Association of EZH2-specific SEMs with the risk of cancer

351 Given the enrichment analysis results, we further investigated SEMs in EZH2 targets (in
352 which the evidence for enrichment was the strongest). The number of SEMs in regions targeted by

353 EZH2 was strongly correlated with the total number of SEMs across all the genome (Pearson R
354 >0.80, **Figure S5**). We repeated the tests for the associations with cancer, considering the EZH2-
355 specific SEMs and obtained results consistent with those presented in **Table 3**; EZH2-specific
356 SEMs were strongly associated with breast cancer, lung cancer and MBCN (**Table S4**). Adjustment
357 for batch effects did not substantially influence the association observed (*'Supplementary results'*,
358 *Supplementary Material*). It is worth observing that the majority of the CpG sites targeted by EZH2
359 were on average hypo-methylated (more than 80% of the CpGs have average DNAm beta value
360 lower than 20%, **Figure S6**); consequently, more than 95% of EZH2-specific SEMs occur as
361 abnormal hyper-methylation of a locus that is hypo-methylated in the overall sample.

362 *SEMs stability over time*

363 In the longitudinal regression model on PEM-Turin dataset, the total number of SEMs per
364 individual significantly increased in time ($\log(\text{SEM})$ increase per year = 0.168 ± 0.007 ; $p < 0.0001$,
365 **Figure S7**. Among the epimutations identified at baseline, the majority were still present at the time
366 of PEM-Turin study (18.75 years later, on average, range = 16.45 - 20.26 years). The average
367 percentage of conserved SEMs was 71% (range 55% - 93%). Based on the results of the enrichment
368 analyses, we focused on EZH2-specific epimutations. The proportion of conserved EZH2-specific
369 epimutations was significantly higher compared with what observed at genome-wide level (mean =
370 87%; range = 62% - 100%; Chi-Squared test for proportion $p < 0.0001$).

371 *SEMs in tumour compared with normal adjacent tissues*

372 To verify the consistency among the results obtained in pre-diagnostic blood samples with
373 epimutation patterns in cancer tissues, we analyzed data from the TCGA project on lung, breast and
374 colorectal cancers. The differences in $\log(\text{SEM})$ between cancer and normal adjacent tissues were
375 4.11 (95% CI 3.70 – 4.52; paired Student T-test $p < 0.0001$) for lung cancer; 3.29 (95% CI 2.98 –
376 3.62; $p < 0.0001$) for breast cancer; 3.94 (95% CI 3.54 – 4.33; $p < 0.0001$) for colorectal cancer
377 (**Figure S8 a, b, c**). The observed differences were even higher looking at EZH2-specific SEMs:
378 5.37 (95% CI 4.77 - 5.94; $p < 0.0001$) for lung cancer; 4.02 (95% CI 3.62 – 4.42; $p < 0.0001$) for

379 breast cancer; 4.86 (95% CI 4.43 – 5.30; $p < 0.0001$) for colorectal cancer (**Figure S8 d, e, f**). The
380 average proportion of SEMs conserved in tumour from normal-adjacent tissue was 72% (range 54%
381 - 98%); whereas the proportion of conserved EZH2-specific SEMs was significantly higher: 87%
382 (range 61% – 97%, Chi-Squared test for proportion $p < 0.0001$). Finally, enrichment analyses
383 confirmed SEMs more likely occur in silenced genomic regions like inactive and poised promoters,
384 Polycomb repressed regions, and in TFBS of EZH2 and SUZ12.

385 **Discussion**

386 In the present study, we have analyzed DNAm data from blood samples of ~4,500 cancer
387 cases and one-to-one matched controls, nested within three large cohorts: EPIC Italy, MCCS and
388 NOWAC. The main aim of this study was to investigate the association of the total number of
389 SEMs with cancers using a prospective study design. In addition, we investigated SEMs stability
390 over time and genomic regions in which SEMs more likely appear.

391 *SEMs increasing with aging and stability over time*

392 The number of estimated SEMs per sample varied by cohort; however, we observed an
393 exponential increase of SEMs with age in all cohorts (**Figure 1**) confirming the results of previous
394 studies(34,39). Differences in the number of SEMs between studies were mainly driven by batch
395 effect, different normalization and DNAm data pre-processing procedure, and different study
396 sample size which affect CpGs DNAm values distribution, making the comparison of SEMs
397 between different batches challenging. Consequently, the magnitude of the association of logSEM
398 with age (**Figure 1**) and epigenetic clocks (**Figures S3 and S4**) varied by cohort also. Nevertheless,
399 in this study, we aimed to investigate the association of SEMs with cancer, and our study design
400 using matched case-control pairs analyzed in the same batch overcome batch effect issues. The ORs
401 for breast, lung, and colorectal cancer (investigated in more than one cohort) were estimated through
402 a random effect meta-analysis.

403 The results observed in our cross-sectional study and reported in the literature about the
404 exponential increase of SEMs with age were further confirmed using longitudinal data, available for

405 a subset of the EPIC Italy study included in the EXPOsOMICS study also. We observed high
406 interindividual variability of the total number the grow rate of SEMs among individual of the same
407 age (**Figure S7**), strengthening our hypothesis of SEMs as candidate biomarkers of accumulation of
408 exposure-related DNA damage during aging, and as a possible biomarker for age-related diseases.
409 Accordingly, in this study sample we observed cross-sectional association of SEMs with lifestyle-
410 related factors like smoking and obesity, and in our previous study with higher sample size with
411 alcohol intake, and socioeconomic status(25). Also, logSEM positively correlates with the widely
412 studied biological aging measures based on the epigenetic clock developed by Horvath and
413 colleagues (**Figure S3 and S4**). The association between the two age-related biomarkers is not
414 driven by their association with chronological age, because the Intrinsic Epigenetic Age
415 Acceleration (IEAA) is independent of chronological age by definition (13).

416 We were not able to investigate whether changes in lifestyle may slow down aging-related
417 SEMs rise using longitudinal data due to the lack of statistical power. A recent study analyzing
418 longitudinal data on SEMs in twins concluded that a small percentage of the differences in SEMs
419 growth rate within individuals might be driven by underlying genetic background. These results
420 suggest other exposures may play a significant role, worthy of further investigation (39). Finally,
421 we showed using longitudinal data that once epimutations are established, most of them remain
422 stable in time. Previous findings suggested that methylation patterns are transmittable during cell
423 divisions(40). Given the above, we can speculate that SEMs could also be inherited through mitosis.

424 *SEMs association with cancer risk*

425 The main finding of the present study is the association of the number of SEMs with a
426 higher risk of breast and lung cancers and MBCN. The estimated ORs were not confounded by age
427 because we used age-matched case-control study design, and we further included age as adjustment
428 in logistic regression models. Further, the observed associations remained significant after
429 adjustment for smoking, BMI, physical activity, diet, alcohol consumption, and epigenetic clock
430 measures. Although in our study there is an association of the total number of SEMs with cancer

431 risk factors like smoking, obesity and epigenetic clocks, the results obtained in model 1 (minimally
432 adjusted), model 2 (adjusted for various cancer risk factors), model 3 and model 4 (additionally
433 adjusted for epigenetic clocks measures) did not differ significantly. The results above suggest that
434 the increased number of SEMs consequence of unhealthy lifestyle explains a small part of the
435 association of log(SEM) with cancer, meaning that other biological mechanisms are the main
436 drivers of this associations. For example, endogenous exposures like inflammation or reduced DNA
437 repair capacity (41) and other unmeasured environmental and lifestyle exposures (e.g. exposure to
438 toxicants). In a manuscript currently under review from the MCCS group, they show that the
439 DNAmGrimAge outperforms first-generation clocks in predicting different cancers, being the
440 strongest association with lung cancer even after proper adjustment for smoking intensities and
441 time. In this study the association of logSEM with breast and lung cancer and with MBCN remain
442 significant after adjustment for DNAmGrimAge, suggesting SEMs and the new epigenetic clock as
443 independent DNAm-based biomarkers, likely involving distinct biomolecular alterations. Further
444 studies are needed to clarify better the underlying biological mechanisms linking SEMs and
445 DNAmGrimAge to cancer.

446 Our results indicate that alterations of DNA methylation profiles could be detected in the
447 blood years before cancer diagnosis, and together with previous studies, suggest that an increasing
448 number of SEMs in blood could be predictive of risk of future cancers. The differences between
449 cases and matched controls increased as the time from blood collection and cancer diagnosis
450 decrease (**Figure S2**) in all but two types of cancer investigated, with a significant trend of
451 increasing OR as the TTD decrease in breast, colorectal, prostate cancer and MBCN, further
452 supporting the potential predictive utility of logSEM biomarker.

453 *SEMs occur more likely in specific genomic regions*

454 It is important to specify the meaning of the term 'epimutation': although some authors used this
455 term in a broader sense (42), including epigenetic changes driven by DNA mutations, we are

456 referring to ‘epimutation’ as a switch of the ‘epigenetic state’ not due to underlying DNA sequence
457 variations but to gain or loss of DNA methylation.

458 Our study suggests that regions and sites affected by epimutations are not entirely ‘stochastic’;
459 instead, they are enriched in specific genomic regions, and randomly distributed inside them (34).

460 This behaviour could be defined as ‘local, but non-global, stochasticity’. Our findings confirmed
461 that epimutations preferentially occur in DNA sequences associated with open chromatin as
462 previously observed by Ong et al.(43). Furthermore, SEMs were enriched in transcriptionally
463 silenced genomic regions such as ‘inactive promoters’, ‘heterochromatin/low signal/CNV’, and
464 ‘Polycomb-repressed’ regions. Additionally, epimutations more likely appear in TFBSs targeted by
465 two members of PRC2: EZH2 and SUZ12, and the transcriptional corepressor ctBP2.

466 Consistently, smoking intensity was associated with enrichment of DNA methylation alterations in
467 EZH2 and SUZ12 targets in buccal cells.(44). Similar patterns of DNAm alterations were described
468 in normal breast tissue adjacent to cancerous breast tissue, compared with normal breast tissue in
469 cancer-free women(45), and in our study comparing tumour with normal adjacent tissue using data
470 from the TCGA project on breast, lung and colorectal cancer. Interestingly, EZH2-specific SEMs
471 are significantly more stable in time (and conserved in tumour comparing with normal-adjacent
472 tissue) compared with epimutations appearing in the rest of the genome.

473 *SEMs in cancer tissue compared with adjacent normal tissue*

474 To understand whether epimutation patterns in blood samples could be informative about
475 epimutation patterns in the target tissue is crucial. Although DNAm from blood and tissue samples
476 from the same individual are not available neither in our study nor in the databases available online,
477 recent evidence suggests a strong correlation between DNAm profiles in blood and specific tissues
478 (46,47). We analyzed epimutation profiles in DNAm data from tumours and normal adjacent tissue
479 pairs from the TCGA project showing that the number of epimutations increased exponentially in
480 tumour compared with normal adjacent tissue, as reported in previous studies using a slightly
481 different analytical approach (45). In addition to previous studies, we showed that genomic regions

482 enriched of epimutations in both normal and tumour tissue are consistent with what observed in
483 blood sample. Specifically, the enrichment of epimutations in TFBS of PRC2 complex is of
484 particular interest, especially for its biological interpretation.

485 *A possible mechanism of carcinogenesis*

486 Being CpG sites targeted by EZH2 protein hypo-methylated in normal conditions (**Figure S5**), the
487 vast majority of EZH2-specific SEMs appears as hypermethylation of a CpG site, suggesting crucial
488 biomolecular mechanisms involved. The transcriptional regulation by DNA methylation and by
489 PRC2 proteins are related: *in vitro* studies have demonstrated that they rarely act simultaneously on
490 CpG islands(48), and removal of the epigenetic mark provokes a redistribution of the PRC2-
491 distinctive H3K27me3 mark in mammalian cells. At a functional level, the link between aging,
492 PRC2 and global DNA methylation dysregulation involves the loss of self-renewal capacity of adult
493 stem cells(49). Multipotent stem cell senescence *in vitro* is characterized by downregulation of
494 PRC2 genes, including EZH2 and SUZ12.(49) Downregulation of EZH2 and SUZ12 may induce
495 dysregulation of PRC2 targets, which include several tumour suppressor genes(50). For example,
496 aberrant expression of EZH2 was associated with alterations of p53, a known tumour suppressor
497 gene(51).

498 The dynamics of the interaction between the Polycomb protein complex and DNA
499 methylation are complex and not entirely understood. *In vitro* studies indicate that the two
500 repressive systems are mutually exclusive and DNA methylation prevents Polycomb from accessing
501 the promoter(52). The data reported in the present study suggests that aging may increase the
502 enrichment of methylated sites in correspondence of TFBSs targeted by EZH2 and SUZ12, and
503 consequently altering the efficacy of regulation of Polycomb. In line with these results, we could
504 hypothesise that during aging, a more stable epigenetic silencing by DNA methylation could replace
505 the plastic Polycomb repressive signal. Changes such as those described above might contribute to
506 the early mechanisms involved in age-related diseases, specifically cancer. As proposed by other
507 studies from Ohm et al.(53), Baylin et al.(54) and Widschwendter et al.(55) the tumour suppressive

508 genes regulated by Polycomb may switch from a dynamic to a fixed repressive state. In this context,
509 tumour suppressor genes would not work properly, letting cells grow abnormally and become
510 malignant. Vaz et al. suggested that these genes appear most vulnerable to aberrant promoter DNA
511 methylation during cancer initiation and progression(56). More studies are needed to verify these
512 data that raised new intriguing hypothesis connecting aging and cancer but the fact that SEMs data
513 have been extracted from prospective study enforce previous studies done on cancer patients when
514 the disease was already present (Tsai and Baylin, 2011 cell research).

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515 *Study limitations*

516 Although most risk factors were measured carefully in the three cohort studies, the
517 procedure to minimize variability due to the different sources of information possibly introduced
518 bias in the regression models we used.

519 Besides, in the present study, we measured DNA methylation levels in blood and not in
520 tissues. Tissue biopsy still represents the gold-standard approach for patients' diagnosis and
521 prognostication. However, tissues do not represent tumour heterogeneity and, especially for early
522 stages, residual disease and recurrence monitoring, a tissue biopsy sampling could be difficult or
523 even dangerous (47). The evaluation of whole blood DNA methylation as a cancer risk marker is of
524 particular interest because blood DNA constitutes a convenient 'tissue' to assay for constitutional
525 methylation and its collection is non-invasive. Our results about SEMs using the TGCA data and
526 recent literature suggest the methylation status of cancer tissues may reflect acquired or inherited
527 somatic events that are detectable in non-targeted tissues (methylation memory of
528 exposures/inheritance) and correlate with cancer susceptibility (46). Thus, epigenetic signatures in
529 whole blood DNA could reflect the interaction of host genetic and environmental factors associated
530 with cancer susceptibility as previously shown by others(57-59). Wong et al., for instance, showed
531 that methylation of the BRCA1 promoter in blood DNA was more frequent in early-onset breast
532 cancer patients and correlated with increased BRCA1 methylation levels in tumours(58). Finally,
533 methylation in whole blood might reflect cancer predisposition as already demonstrated (60).

534 We found significant associations of SEMs with three out of eight cancers investigated and
535 overall small magnitude in the effect sizes. This study results indicate accumulation of epimutations
536 at a genome-wide level as a possible common biomarker in various cancers; however, each type of
537 cancer is a well distinct disease, with its unique genetic landscape. The considerations above,
538 indicate further research, possibly combining DNA methylation and gene expression data from both
539 blood and tissue from the same individuals to understand better which specific genes or genomic
540 regions influence cancer-risk when affected by SEMs, that is to investigate which epimutations are
541 more deleterious than others. Future studies are also needed to identify cancer-specific
542 epimutational signatures and to understand the biological mechanisms associated with accumulation
543 of epimutations during the lifespan, possibly involving genetic background and DNA-repair
544 capacity.

545 *Conclusions*

546 To our knowledge, this is the most extensive study on the association of SEMs with cancer risk
547 using a prospective study design. A higher number of SEMs was significantly associated with an
548 increased risk of breast and lung cancer and with MBCN. Also, we confirmed previous observation
549 about the exponential increase of SEMs during aging using longitudinal data, showing that most of
550 SEMs are stable in time and conserved in tumour compared with normal-adjacent tissue. Finally,
551 we showed that SEMs more likely occur in specific genomic regions, suggesting a biomolecular
552 mechanism involving PRC2 proteins, which may deserve further investigation. If confirmed with
553 additional studies *in vitro*, these observations might open new avenues for the understanding of
554 carcinogenesis biomolecular mechanisms.

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558 308610 to PV). The results here are in part based upon data generated by the TCGA Research
559 Network: <https://www.cancer.gov/tcga>.

560 **Figure legends**

561 **Figure 1.** Exponential increase of the total number of SEMs with age: mean and 95% confidence
562 interval of the total number of SEMs (on a logarithmic scale) by age group in the three study
563 cohorts, in cases and controls combined (top) and in controls only (bottom). R and p-values refer to
564 Pearson Correlation test.

565 **Figure 2.** Total number of SEMs and risk of breast and lung cancer. Forest plots representing the
566 three-studies random effect (RE) maximum likelihood meta-analysis for breast (A) and lung cancer
567 (B), and the meta-analysis of EPIC and MCCS for colorectal cancer (C).

568 **Supplementary figure legends**

569 **Figure S1.** Lack of correlation between log(SEM) and white blood cells (WBC) proportions:
570 heatmap of Pearson correlation coefficients including log(SEM) and WBC proportions estimated
571 using Houseman algorithm.

572 **Figure S2** Odds ratio (ORs) significantly increase as TTD decrease in breast, colorectal, prostate
573 cancer and MBCN: Forest plots indicating ORs stratified by the time-to-disease and type of cancer.
574 P-values refer to the Cochran Armitage test for trend.

575 **Figure S3** Total number of SEMs is associated with Horvath DNAmAge epigenetic clock:
576 Scatterplots of log(SEM) on the x-axis and DNAmAge on the y-axis, in EPIC (A), MCCS (B) and
577 NOWAC (C) (cases and controls combined on the top, controls only on the bottom). P-values refer
578 to the Pearson correlation test.

579 **Figure S4.** Total number of SEMs is associated with DNAmGrimAge epigenetic clock: Scatterplots
580 of log(SEM) on the x-axis and DNAmGrimAge on the y-axis, in EPIC (A), MCCS (B) and
581 NOWAC (C) (cases and controls combined on the top, controls only on the bottom). P-values refer
582 to the Pearson correlation test.

583 **Figure S5.** The number of EZH2-specific SEMs correlates with the total number of SEMs genome-
584 wide: Scatterplots of log(SEM) genome-wide on the x-axis and EZH2-specific logSEM on the y-

585 axis in EPIC (A), MCCS (B) and NOWAC (C) (cases and controls combined on the top, controls
586 only on the bottom). P-values refer to Spearman correlation tests.

587 **Figure S6.** The majority of CpG sites targeted by EZH2 are on average hypomethylated: Histogram
588 of average DNAm values for the CpGs targeted by EZH2 protein.

589 **Figure S7.** The total number of SEMs in the PEM-Turin dataset significantly increase over time:
590 Spaghetti plot showing the increasing trend of log(SEM) over time. Each line indicates a single
591 individual in the PEM-Turin dataset.

592 **Figure S8.** SEMs exponentially increase in tumour compared with normal-adjacent tissue: boxplot
593 of log(SEM) in normal and tumor tissue of lung (A), breast (B) and colorectal cancer (C) (genome-
594 wide logSEM on the top, EZH2-specific logSEM on the bottom). These data come from the TCGA
595 project.

596 **Figure S9.** Batch effect does not influence logSEM computation: Scatterplots for the association of
597 logSEM with batch adjusted logSEM in EPIC (A), MCCS (B) and NOWAC (C). P-values refer to
598 Pearson correlation tests.

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