

1 **Genetic risk prediction of the plasma triglyceride response to independent**  
2 **supplementations with eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids: The**  
3 **ComparED Study.**

4 Bastien Vallée Marcotte<sup>1</sup>, Janie Allaire<sup>1</sup>, Frédéric Guénard<sup>1</sup>, Juan de Toro-Martín<sup>1</sup>,  
5 Patrick Couture<sup>1,2</sup>, Benoit Lamarche<sup>1</sup> and Marie-Claude Vohl<sup>1\*</sup>

6

7 1. Centre Nutrition, Santé et Société-Institut sur la nutrition et les aliments fonctionnels,  
8 Université Laval, Quebec City, Quebec, Canada.

9 2. CHU de Québec Research Center-Endocrinology and Nephrology, Quebec City,  
10 Quebec, Canada.

11

12 \*Corresponding author:

13 Marie-Claude Vohl Ph.D.

14 Institute of Nutrition and Functional Foods (INAF)

15 2440 Hochelaga Blvd.

16 Quebec, QC, Canada

17 G1V 0A6

18 Tel.: (418) 656-2131 ext. 404676, Fax: (418) 656-5877

19 E-Mail: marie-claude.vohl@fsaa.ulaval.ca

20

21 Email addresses:

22 BVM: bastien.vallee-marcotte.1@ulaval.ca

23 JA: janie.allaire.1@ulaval.ca

24 FG: frederic.guenard.1@ulaval.ca

25 JDTM: juan.de-toro-martin.1@ulaval.ca

26 PC: patrick.couture@crchul.ulaval.ca

27 BL: benoit.lamarche@fsaa.ulaval.ca

28 MCV: marie-claude.vohl@fsaa.ulaval.ca

29

30

31

32 **Abstract**

33 **Background.** We previously built a genetic risk score (GRS) highly predictive of the  
34 plasma triglyceride (TG) response to an omega-3 fatty acid (n-3 FA) supplementation  
35 from marine source. The objective of the present study was to test the potential of this  
36 GRS to predict the plasma TG responsiveness to supplementation with either  
37 eicosapentaenoic (EPA) or docosahexaenoic (DHA) acids in the Comparing EPA to  
38 DHA (ComparED) Study.

39 **Methods.** The ComparED Study is a double-blind, controlled, crossover trial, with  
40 participants randomized to three supplemented phases of 10 weeks each: 1) 2.7 g/d of  
41 DHA, 2) 2.7 g/d of EPA and 3) 3 g/d of corn oil (control), separated by 9-week washouts.  
42 The 31 SNPs used to build the previous GRS were genotyped in 122 participants of the  
43 ComparED Study using TaqMan technology. The GRS for each participant was  
44 computed by summing the number of risk alleles. Ordinal and binary logistic models,  
45 adjusted for age, sex and body mass index, were used to calculate the ability of the GRS  
46 to predict TG responsiveness.

47 **Results.** The GRS predicted TG responsiveness to EPA supplementation ( $p = 0.006$ ) and  
48 a trend was observed for DHA supplementation ( $p=0.08$ ). The exclusion of participants  
49 with neutral TG responsiveness clarified the association patterns and the predictive  
50 capability of the GRS (EPA,  $p=0.0003$ , DHA  $p=0.01$ ).

51 **Conclusion.** Results of the present study suggest that the constructed GRS is a good  
52 predictor of the plasma TG response to supplementation with either DHA or EPA.

53 **Keywords.** Genetic Risk Score, Plasma Triglyceride Levels, Omega-3 Fatty Acids, EPA,  
54 DHA, Nutrigenetics.

55 The study protocol was registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT01810003) on March 4th  
56 2013, <https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/record/NCT01810003>.

## 57 **Introduction**

58 Supplements of omega-3 fatty acids (n-3 FA) from marine sources, namely  
59 eicosapentaenoic and docosahexaenoic acids (EPA and DHA), can be used as an  
60 effective, safe and accessible treatment option for hypertriglyceridemia (1-5). However,  
61 an important inter-individual variability in the plasma triglyceride (TG) response to n-3  
62 FA supplements have been reported, with 29 to 31% of participants increasing TG levels  
63 following an n-3 FA supplementation at pharmacological doses (6-8). This important  
64 heterogeneity in the plasma TG response to an n-3 FA supplementation has been shown  
65 to be attributable, at least partly, to genetic variations (9). Considering that TG levels are  
66 modulated by a wide variety of factors, and that the physiopathology of  
67 hypertriglyceridemia is also quite complex, genetic factors implicated in the regulation of  
68 TG levels and the TG response to an n-3 FA supplementation may be various and  
69 abundant as well (10-13).

70 Genetic risk scores (GRS), or polygenic risk scores, have the advantage of pooling the  
71 additive effect of many unrelated genetic variations on one trait (14, 15). Even though  
72 they are most commonly used to predict clinical phenotypes (15, 16), we recently  
73 demonstrated their applicability to predict the response to nutritional interventions (17-  
74 19). In the Fatty Acid Sensor (FAS) Study, we built a GRS that is highly predictive of the  
75 plasma TG response to an n-3 FA supplementation (1.9–2.2 g of EPA and 1.1 g of DHA)  
76 in a sample of French Canadians from the province of Quebec (Canada) (18). This GRS  
77 explained 49.7% of the variance of the TG response (18). However, the contribution of  
78 genetic variants to the plasma TG response following a supplementation of either EPA or  
79 DHA has never been investigated. Moreover, the TG lowering effect has been shown to

80 be more important with DHA than with EPA (8, 20), thus emphasizing the importance to  
81 better understand the underlying mechanisms, including effects of genetics.

82 The independent effects of EPA and DHA were recently investigated in the Comparing  
83 EPA to DHA (ComparED) Study, a double-blind, randomized, crossover, controlled trial  
84 that aimed to compare the effects of EPA and DHA on inflammatory markers and plasma  
85 lipids (21). The aim of the present study was to further validate the robustness of the GRS  
86 previously constructed in the FAS Study in an independent study, and to assess its  
87 potential to predict the plasma TG response to either EPA or DHA supplementations.

88

89

## 90 **Materials and methods**

### 91 *Study design and diets*

92 The study design has been previously described (21). Briefly, the ComparED Study is a  
93 double-blind, randomized, controlled, crossover intervention of three treatment phases: 1)  
94 2.7g/day of EPA; 2) 2.7g/day of DHA; and 3) 3 g/day of corn oil as control (0g of neither  
95 EPA nor DHA). Treatments had a median duration of 10 weeks with 9-week washouts  
96 between each treatment. Supplements were provided by Douglas Laboratories as re-  
97 esterified triglycerides. Throughout the study, participants were asked to maintain a  
98 stable body weight, physical activity, alcohol consumption (max. 2 servings/day), natural  
99 health products and vitamin supplements consumption. Alcohol consumption and  
100 physical activity were however forbidden 4 days prior to each blood sampling.  
101 Participants were also asked to exclude food rich in n-3 FA, such as fatty fish and fish oil  
102 supplements, among others, from their diet. Compliance was ensured by the counting of  
103 returned unused supplement capsules. Allocation to treatments was concealed to both  
104 study coordinators and participants.

### 105 *Population*

106 A total of 154 participants were randomized and participated in the study. Participants  
107 were recruited at the Institute of Nutrition and Functional Foods (Quebec, Canada) using  
108 announcements in newspapers, radio and electronic newsletters (21). Subjects had to be  
109 between 18 and 70 years old and to have a stable body weight for at least three months  
110 prior to the randomization. To be eligible to the study, participants had to have abdominal  
111 obesity (waist circumference  $\geq 80$  cm for women and  $\geq 94$  cm for men) and to present

112 subclinical inflammation defined as plasma CRP levels between 1 and 10 mg/l,  
113 exclusively. Women using contraceptive agents were eligible. All participants signed an  
114 informed consent form at the beginning of the study approved by the local ethics  
115 committees. The study protocol was registered at ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT01810003) on  
116 March 4<sup>th</sup> 2013.

#### 117 *Anthropometric measurements and blood samples*

118 Anthropometric parameters were measured at screening, before and after each treatment  
119 phase following standardized procedures (21). Blood samples were collected after a 12h  
120 overnight fast at screening, before and after each treatment phase.

#### 121 *SNP selection and genotyping*

122 The 31 SNPs used in the construction of the GRS in the FAS Study were selected (18).  
123 Details of SNP selection have previously been published (18). Briefly, SNPs were  
124 identified as significantly associated to the TG responsiveness following an n-3 FA  
125 supplementation in a previous genome-wide association study ( $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ ) and in a  
126 subsequent fine-mapping study (18, 19).

127 SNPs were genotyped in 123 participants of the ComparED Study using TaqMan  
128 technology. The GenElute Gel Extraction Kit (Sigma-Aldrich Co., St. Louis, MO) was  
129 first used to extract genomic DNA (gDNA) from blood samples. Validated primers were  
130 mixed with 2.5  $\mu$ L of OpenArray Genotyper Master Mix (Life Technologies, Carlsbad,  
131 CA) and 2.5  $\mu$ L of each gDNA (40 ng/ $\mu$ L) in a 384-well plate. The mix was loaded onto  
132 genotyping plates with the QuantStudio<sup>TM</sup> 12K Flex OpenArray<sup>®</sup> AccuFill<sup>TM</sup> System

133 (Life Technologies). Genotyping was performed using the QuantStudio™ 12K Flex Real-  
134 Time PCR System (Life Technologies). Results were analyzed in TaqMan Genotyper  
135 v1.3 (Life Technologies). SNPs that could not be genotyped were replaced by SNPs in  
136 linkage disequilibrium (LD). Seven SNPs taken from the GRS of the FAS Study, namely  
137 rs6966968, rs78943417, rs1216346, rs6933462, rs79624996, rs184945470 and  
138 rs10009535, were unavailable for genotyping and were respectively replaced by the  
139 following SNPs in LD: rs6951762 (LD 73%), rs10224945 (LD 100%), rs28437435 (LD  
140 91%), rs2050017 (LD 100%), rs11025436 (LD 97%), rs1216349 (LD 96%) and  
141 rs13137813 (LD 100%). LD between SNPs was assessed using the web-based application  
142 LDlink (22).

#### 143 *Statistical analysis and genetic risk score*

144 Given that the study is based on a crossover design, post-treatment values following EPA  
145 and DHA supplementations were compared to the post-control phase in SAS statistical  
146 software v9.4. Changes in plasma TG levels in response to DHA and EPA  
147 supplementations ( $\Delta$ TG) were calculated using mean post-intervention TG levels minus  
148 mean TG levels after the control phase. The control phase had no effect on mean TG  
149 levels. Each participant therefore had two  $\Delta$ TG, one for the DHA supplementation and  
150 one for the EPA supplementation.

151 Participants were classified into subgroups of TG responsiveness according to their  $\Delta$ TG  
152 following DHA and EPA supplementations. The intra-individual variation of plasma TG  
153 levels was taken into account to classify participants into subgroups of TG  
154 responsiveness (8). The mean intra-individual variation of plasma TG levels was  $\pm 0.25$

155 mmol/l in the ComparED study based on the standard deviation of four repeated off-  
156 treatment TG measurements. For the purpose of the present study, participants among  
157 whom the changes in plasma TG levels following EPA or DHA supplementation  
158 remained within this  $\pm 0.25$  mmol/l window were defined as non-responders (NR),  
159 participants with a reduction in plasma TG levels greater than 0.25 mmol/l were defined  
160 as responders ( $R^+$ ), and participants showing an increase in plasma TG levels greater than  
161 0.25 mmol/l were defined as negative responders ( $R^-$ ).

162 Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium of SNPs was assessed using a Chi-squared test in PLINK  
163 software (23). SNPs that did not respect HWE were excluded from statistical analyses.  
164 Minor allele frequencies (MAF) of participants of the FAS Study were compared with  
165 MAF of participants of the ComparED Study. Differences in MAF distribution were also  
166 calculated between subgroups of TG responsiveness.

167 A GRS was computed by the addition of risk alleles of each participant. Risk alleles were  
168 defined according to their odds ratio (OR) of association to the TG response. When the  
169  $OR > 1$ , the minor allele had a value of +1, and when the  $OR < 1$ , the minor allele had a  
170 value of -1. Major alleles had a value of 0. In SAS v9.4, ordinal and binary logistic  
171 models, adjusted for age, sex and body mass index (BMI) were used to assess the ability  
172 of the GRS to classify participants into subgroups of TG response. Significance was set at  
173  $P < 0.05$ .

## 174 **Results**

175 Detailed characteristics of participants were previously reported (8, 21). From the 154  
176 participants who were randomized in the ComparED Study, 122 completed all treatment  
177 phases and had available TG data and genotypes. Characteristics of participants pre- and  
178 post-supplementations are shown in **Table 1**. As determined by the inclusion criteria,  
179 participants had abdominal obesity and slightly elevated plasma CRP levels (between 1-  
180 10 mg/l). Before the supplementation, participants had mean plasma TG levels in the  
181 normal range (<1.7 mmol/l). TG levels were significantly reduced by the EPA and DHA  
182 supplementations (13.3% and 18.9% respectively,  $P < 0.0001$ ), but more so with DHA  
183 ( $P < 0.05$  between treatments) (21).

184 Genotyped SNPs are listed in **Table 2**. One SNP, rs28473103, was not in HWE in this  
185 sample and was therefore excluded from statistical analyses, leaving a total of 30 SNPs  
186 for GRS construction. Four SNPs had a significantly different MAF between the FAS and  
187 the ComparED Study. Seven SNPs (rs61569932, rs1990554, rs114348423, rs75007521,  
188 rs117114492, rs143662727 and rs76015249) had a MAF < 5% in the ComparED Study.

189 SNPs showing significant differences in allele frequency between subgroups of TG  
190 responsiveness are the following:  $R^+$  vs NR: rs12702829 (EPA, MAF=0.39 among  $R^+$   
191 and 0.22 among NR,  $p=0.009$ ); NR vs  $R^-$ : rs117114492 (DHA, MAF=0 among NR and  
192 0.11 among  $R^-$ ,  $p=0.0002$ ) and rs1990554 (DHA, MAF=0 among NR and 0.06 among  $R^-$ ,  
193  $p=0.01$ );  $R^+$  vs  $R^-$ : rs12702829 (DHA, MAF=0.31 among  $R^+$  and 0.56 among  $R^-$ ,  $p=0.04$ ;  
194 and EPA, MAF=0.22 among  $R^+$  and 0.5 among  $R^-$ ,  $p=0.007$ ), rs117114492 (DHA,  
195 MAF=0.02 among  $R^+$  and 0.11 among  $R^-$ ,  $p=0.04$ ).

196 The ability of the genetic risk model to classify participants in the right subgroup of TG  
197 responsiveness (NR, R<sup>+</sup> or R<sup>-</sup>) was first assessed by ordinal logistic regression, adjusted  
198 for age, sex and BMI. Predicted and observed classifications of participants in subgroups  
199 are presented in **Figure 1**. The GRS was associated with TG responsiveness for EPA  
200 supplementation (odds ratio (OR) =1.2, p=0.006), and a trend was observed for DHA  
201 supplementation (OR=1.2, p=0.08). The probability of being classified in the R<sup>+</sup>  
202 subgroup increased with lower GRS values, as opposed to the probability of being  
203 classified in the R<sup>-</sup> or NR subgroups (**Figure 1A**). Taking NR participants out of the  
204 calculation, and using a binary logistic model instead of an ordinal logistic model,  
205 resulted in a significant association between the GRS and subgroup of TG responsiveness  
206 for both EPA and DHA supplementations (OR=2.3, p=0.003; and OR=2.4, p=0.01,  
207 respectively) (**Figure 1B**). In other words, increasing GRS values enhanced the risk of  
208 belonging to the R<sup>-</sup> group.

## 209 **Discussion**

210 The primary aim of the present study was to test the applicability of a GRS of the plasma  
211 TG response to an n-3 FA supplementation previously built in the FAS Study, in the  
212 ComparED Study. In contrast to the FAS Study, in which participants were supplemented  
213 with fish oil containing both DHA and EPA, participants of the ComparED Study were  
214 supplemented with either DHA or EPA separately in a crossover study design.

215 As shown in **Figure 1**, the GRS proved to be effective to classify subjects into the right  
216 subgroup of TG response (when NR are excluded). However, when all groups of  
217 responders were included in the genetic risk model, the association pattern was clearer for  
218 the EPA supplementation than for the DHA supplementation. As expected, excluding  
219 participants with TG response within the normal variation range resulted in a manifest  
220 clarification of the association pattern with the GRS for both supplementations. Similar  
221 observations were reported in a previous study by our research group, in which a GRS of  
222 the plasma TG response to an n-3 FA supplementation at pharmacological doses was  
223 computed in a population of Mexicans (17). In that study, we observed an increasing  
224 proportion of TG variance explained by the GRS as participants with the lowest  
225 magnitude of TG response were removed from the genetic risk calculation, until the  
226 contribution of the GRS reached 29.1% of the TG variance.

227 Despite demonstrating a good predictive capacity, results of the present study are not as  
228 strong as those reported in the FAS Study. Even though a better prediction is usually  
229 expected in the original cohort than in the replication cohort, several factors may have

230 weakened the genetic risk model in the present study, and therefore influenced its  
231 predictive capacity.

232 Firstly, seven of the 31 SNPs originally included in the GRS had a MAF < 5% in the  
233 ComparED Study. This may also explain why association studies were rather  
234 inconclusive with few SNPs showing significantly different allele frequency between  
235 subgroups of TG responsiveness.

236 Secondly, the final sample of SNPs included in the genetic risk model was not optimal.  
237 Several SNPs included in the original genetic risk model had to be replaced with SNPs in  
238 LD with selected SNPs. In the final SNP selection, differences in allele frequency  
239 distribution between the FAS and the ComparED populations were observed for four  
240 SNPs, two of them being replacement SNPs. Finally, one SNP was removed from the  
241 model for not respecting the HWE, as aforementioned.

242 Thirdly, it is possible that the genetic risk model offers a better prediction when DHA and  
243 EPA supplements are taken together rather than separately, perhaps because of a better  
244 efficacy of DHA and EPA supplements taken simultaneously in a fish oil extract than  
245 supplements of isolated FA. In other words, a supplementation of a food extract, as used  
246 in the FAS Study (supplements containing DHA and EPA in whole fish oil extract),  
247 might trigger stronger gene-diet interactions than a supplementation of isolated FA  
248 (supplements containing either DHA or EPA), as used in the ComparED Study. It has  
249 been previously reported in the literature that the effect of isolated nutrients in  
250 supplementation is sometimes different or less effective than the effect of whole food  
251 containing the said nutrients (24-27). More studies investigating the contributive effect of

252 genetic variants on the heterogeneity of the metabolic response to a nutritional  
253 intervention should focus on genetic interactions with whole food over isolated nutrients.

254 Fourthly, the statistical power may have been insufficient. It was previously calculated  
255 that a sample size of 150 participants provided 92% statistical power to detect a 10%  
256 difference in plasma TG levels between treatments at  $p=0.01$  (8). The present analyses  
257 are based on 122 participants. Moreover, after assignment to subgroups defined on the  
258 basis of TG responsiveness some subgroups had a low number of participants, especially  
259 the R<sup>-</sup> subgroup, which included 9 and 12 R<sup>-</sup> to DHA and EPA, respectively.

260 In the present study, the genetic risk model predicted the TG responsiveness to DHA and  
261 EPA. The similarity in the genetic risk prediction to EPA and DHA is coherent with  
262 observations previously reported in the ComparED Study, in which the magnitudes of TG  
263 lowering of DHA and EPA supplementations were similar among responders (8).

264 Differences in the response of epigenetic markers likely to impact gene expression levels  
265 have not been investigated either in previous studies. Vors et al. observed no difference  
266 between EPA and DHA supplementations on the expression of 11 inflammatory genes in  
267 blood cells in the ComparED Study (28). Allaire et al. observed no difference between  
268 DHA and EPA on gene expression of HMG-CoA reductase, LDL-R, SREBP1c and  
269 SREBP2 in blood cells (8). Some differential effects of DHA in comparison to EPA have  
270 nonetheless been observed on various cardiometabolic risk markers (8, 21, 29, 30). These  
271 overall observations may suggest that interactions of DHA and EPA with genetic variants  
272 possibly impacting gene expression levels are likely to be very similar. A difference in  
273 the predictive capacity of the genetic risk model could have been observed between DHA

274 and EPA if they differentially affected gene expression of TG-related genes, but further  
275 research is necessary to test this hypothesis.

276 **Conclusion**

277 In conclusion, the GRS successfully predicted the plasma TG response to an n-3 FA  
278 supplementation of either DHA or EPA, particularly in individuals with most extreme TG  
279 responsiveness.

280

281

282

283 **Declarations**

284 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

285 All participants signed an informed consent form at the beginning of the study approved  
286 by the local ethics committees. The study protocol was registered at ClinicalTrials.gov  
287 (NCT01810003). The Ethics Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects of Laval  
288 University approved this project (2012-143/17-10-2012).

289 *Consent for publication*

290 Written informed consent was obtained from all subjects for the publication of this report.

291 *Availability of data and materials*

292 Datasets used in this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable  
293 request.

294 *Funding and competing interests*

295 Financial support for this study trial was provided by a grant from the Canadian Institutes  
296 for Health Research (CIHR, MOP-123494) (BL, PC). Douglas Laboratories provided the  
297 EPA, DHA and control capsules used in the ComparED Study. Neither CIHR nor  
298 Douglas Laboratories were involved in designing the study; conducting the study;  
299 collection, management, analysis or interpretation of the data; preparation and review of  
300 the manuscript prior to submission. BL and PC designed and obtained funding for the  
301 ComparED Study. Other authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

302 BVM and JA received a studentship from the Fonds de recherche du Québec—Santé  
303 (FRQS). JA received a studentship from CIHR. JD TM received a postdoctoral fellowship  
304 from the FRQS. PC received a scholarship from FRQS. MCV is Tier 1 Canada Research  
305 Chair in Genomics Applied to Nutrition and Metabolic Health.

306 *Authors's contributions*

307 BVM wrote the manuscript and conducted statistical and SNP analyses. JA, FG and  
308 JD TM contributed to statistical analyses. PC, BL and MCV designed the research. PC  
309 was responsible of the medical follow-up. All authors revised the manuscript. BVM and  
310 MCV have primary responsibility for the final content.

311 *Acknowledgments*

312 We want to thank Catherine Raymond, Steeve Larouche and Danielle Aubin at the  
313 Institute of Nutrition and Functional Foods for their expertise provided.

**Table 1. Characteristics of participants pre- and post-supplementations (n = 122)**

	EPA supplementation			DHA supplementation		
	Pre <sup>a</sup>	Post <sup>a</sup>	P	Pre <sup>a</sup>	Post <sup>a</sup>	P
Age	53.5 ± 14.7	-	-	53.5 ± 14.7	-	-
Waist circumference (cm)	100.5±10.8	100.6 ± 10.5	0.77	100.5±10.8	100.3 ± 11.1	0.57
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	29.3 ± 4.2	29.3 ± 4.2	0.99	29.3 ± 4.2	29.3 ± 4.3	0.94
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.43 ± 0.71	1.24 ± 0.55	<0.0001	1.43 ± 0.71	1.16 ± 0.51	<0.0001
C-reactive protein (mg/L) <sup>b</sup>	3.87 ± 4.31	3.54 ± 3.05	0.33	3.87 ± 4.31	3.29 ± 2.85	0.10

<sup>a</sup> Mean value ± standard deviation.

<sup>b</sup> One participant with unavailable CRP levels was excluded (n = 121).

**Table 2. Minor allele frequency comparison of genotyped SNPs between the ComparED and the FAS Study.**

Genotyped SNP	Minor allele frequency		Chi-squared	P
	ComparED Study	FAS Study		
rs10009109	0.44	0.45	0.02	0.88
rs13137813 <sup>a</sup>	0.50	0.45	1.55	0.21
rs114348423	0.008	0.02	1.52	0.22
rs117114492	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.83
rs28437435 <sup>a</sup>	0.16	0.35	25.65	<b>4.1x10<sup>-07</sup></b>
rs12702829	0.34	0.43	4.0	<b>0.046</b>
rs143662727	0.05	0.02	3.02	0.08
rs16869663	0.07	0.07	0.08	0.77
rs1837523	0.24	0.26	0.25	0.62
rs1216349 <sup>a</sup>	0.31	0.11	34.25	<b>4.9x10<sup>-09</sup></b>
rs1850875	0.46	0.42	0.91	0.34
rs1990554	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.87
rs210962	0.20	0.25	1.79	0.18
rs28473103 <sup>b</sup>	0.34	0.36	0.24	0.63
rs28673635	0.16	0.15	0.10	0.75
rs293180	0.11	0.10	0.003	0.96
rs61569932	0.004	0.01	0.80	0.37
rs61790364	0.24	0.18	2.76	0.10
rs62270407	0.30	0.28	0.28	0.59
rs6463808	0.14	0.18	1.19	0.27
rs2050017 <sup>a</sup>	0.15	0.15	0.02	0.90
rs6951762 <sup>a</sup>	0.14	0.16	0.23	0.63
rs72560788	0.08	0.09	0.09	0.76
rs72974149	0.08	0.09	0.38	0.54
rs73241936	0.20	0.15	1.98	0.16
rs75007521	0.02	0.029	0.89	0.34
rs76015249	0.01	0.011	0.03	0.87
rs7639707	0.06	0.043	0.58	0.45
rs78786240	0.08	0.03	8.07	<b>0.005</b>
rs10224945 <sup>a</sup>	0.11	0.10	0.35	0.55
rs11025436 <sup>a</sup>	0.19	0.13	3.07	0.08

<sup>a</sup> Replacement SNP in linkage disequilibrium with a SNP of the genetic risk score constructed in the FAS Study.

<sup>b</sup> SNP not in Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium.

**Figure 1. Predicted probability of classification into each subgroup of triglyceride responsiveness following EPA or DHA supplementation.** The predicted probability of classification into each of the subgroups of triglyceride responsiveness ( $R^+$ / $NR$ / $R^-$ ) according to the genetic risk score is represented by curves. Predicted probabilities were assessed by ordinal (A) and binary (B) logistic regression, adjusted for age, sex and body mass index. The observed density distribution of participants according to their genetic risk score is illustrated by horizontal violin plots, which are independent of the y axis. **A.** All the participants are included in the genetic risk model: 1) responders ( $R^+$ ), 2) non-responders ( $NR$ ) and 3) negative responders ( $R^-$ ). **B.** Only  $R^+$  (upper violin) and  $R^-$  (lower violin) participants are included in the genetic risk model ( $NR$  participants are excluded). The 95% confidence intervals are highlighted in blue.

## References

1. Pejic RN, Lee DT. Hypertriglyceridemia. *J Am Board Fam Med.* 2006;19:310-6.
2. Berglund L, Brunzell JD, Goldberg AC, Goldberg IJ, Sacks F, Murad MH, Stalenhoef AF, Endocrine s. Evaluation and treatment of hypertriglyceridemia: an Endocrine Society clinical practice guideline. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2012;97:2969-89.
3. Berglund L, Brunzell JD, Goldberg AC, Goldberg IJ, Stalenhoef A. Treatment options for hypertriglyceridemia: from risk reduction to pancreatitis. *Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2014;28:423-37.
4. Ito MK. Long-chain omega-3 fatty acids, fibrates and niacin as therapeutic options in the treatment of hypertriglyceridemia: a review of the literature. *Atherosclerosis.* 2015;242:647-56.
5. Binia A, Vargas-Martinez C, Ancira-Moreno M, Gosoni LM, Montoliu I, Gamez-Valdez E, Soria-Contreras DC, Angeles-Quezada A, Gonzalez-Alberto R, Fernandez S, et al. Improvement of cardiometabolic markers after fish oil intervention in young Mexican adults and the role of PPARalpha L162V and PPARgamma2 P12A. *J Nutr Biochem.* 2017;43:98-106.
6. Cormier H, Rudkowska I, Paradis AM, Thifault E, Garneau V, Lemieux S, Couture P, Vohl MC. Association between polymorphisms in the fatty acid desaturase gene cluster and the plasma triacylglycerol response to an n-3 PUFA supplementation. *Nutrients.* 2012;4:1026-41.
7. Caslake MJ, Miles EA, Kofler BM, Lietz G, Curtis P, Armah CK, Kimber AC, Grew JP, Farrell L, Stannard J, et al. Effect of sex and genotype on cardiovascular biomarker response to fish oils: the FINGEN Study. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2008;88:618-29.
8. Allaire J, Vors C, Harris WS, Jackson KH, Tchernof A, Couture P, Lamarche B. Comparing the serum TAG response to high-dose supplementation of either DHA or EPA among individuals with increased cardiovascular risk: the ComparED study. *Br J Nutr.* 2019;121:1223-34.
9. Masson LF, McNeill G, Avenell A. Genetic variation and the lipid response to dietary intervention: a systematic review. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2003;77:1098-111.
10. Karanchi H, Wyne K. Hypertriglyceridemia. Edtion ed. StatPearls. Treasure Island (FL), 2019.
11. Yuan G, Al-Shali KZ, Hegele RA. Hypertriglyceridemia: its etiology, effects and treatment. *CMAJ.* 2007;176:1113-20.
12. Wiesner P, Watson KE. Triglycerides: A reappraisal. *Trends Cardiovasc Med.* 2017;27:428-32.
13. Chait A, Subramanian S. Hypertriglyceridemia: Pathophysiology, Role of Genetics, Consequences, and Treatment. Edtion ed. In: Feingold KR, Anawalt B, Boyce A, Chrousos G, Dungan K, Grossman A, Hershman JM, Kaltsas G, Koch C, Kopp P, et al., eds. *Endotext.* South Dartmouth (MA), 2000.
14. Humphries SE, Yiannakouris N, Talmud PJ. Cardiovascular disease risk prediction using genetic information (gene scores): is it really informative? *Curr Opin Lipidol.* 2008;19:128-32.

15. Richardson TG, Harrison S, Hemani G, Davey Smith G. An atlas of polygenic risk score associations to highlight putative causal relationships across the human phenome. *Elife*. 2019;8.
16. Smith JA, Ware EB, Middha P, Beacher L, Kardia SL. Current Applications of Genetic Risk Scores to Cardiovascular Outcomes and Subclinical Phenotypes. *Curr Epidemiol Rep*. 2015;2:180-90.
17. Vallee Marcotte B, Guenard F, Marquis J, Charpagne A, Vadillo-Ortega F, Tejero ME, Binia A, Vohl MC. Genetic Risk Score Predictive of the Plasma Triglyceride Response to an Omega-3 Fatty Acid Supplementation in a Mexican Population. *Nutrients*. 2019;11.
18. Vallee Marcotte B, Guenard F, Lemieux S, Couture P, Rudkowska I, Calder PC, Minihane AM, Vohl MC. Fine mapping of genome-wide association study signals to identify genetic markers of the plasma triglyceride response to an omega-3 fatty acid supplementation. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2019;109:176-85.
19. Rudkowska I, Guenard F, Julien P, Couture P, Lemieux S, Barbier O, Calder PC, Minihane AM, Vohl MC. Genome-wide association study of the plasma triglyceride response to an n-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid supplementation. *J Lipid Res*. 2014;55:1245-53.
20. Innes JK, Calder PC. The Differential Effects of Eicosapentaenoic Acid and Docosahexaenoic Acid on Cardiometabolic Risk Factors: A Systematic Review. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2018;19.
21. Allaire J, Couture P, Leclerc M, Charest A, Marin J, Lepine MC, Talbot D, Tchernof A, Lamarche B. A randomized, crossover, head-to-head comparison of eicosapentaenoic acid and docosahexaenoic acid supplementation to reduce inflammation markers in men and women: the Comparing EPA to DHA (ComparED) Study. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2016;104:280-7.
22. Machiela MJ, Chanock SJ. LDlink: a web-based application for exploring population-specific haplotype structure and linking correlated alleles of possible functional variants. *Bioinformatics*. 2015;31:3555-7.
23. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira MA, Bender D, Maller J, Sklar P, de Bakker PI, Daly MJ, et al. PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *Am J Hum Genet*. 2007;81:559-75.
24. Rodriguez-Mateos A, Istas G, Boschek L, Feliciano RP, Mills CE, Boby C, Gomez-Alonso S, Milenkovic D, Heiss C. Circulating Anthocyanin Metabolites Mediate Vascular Benefits of Blueberries: Insights From Randomized Controlled Trials, Metabolomics, and Nutrigenomics. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2019;74:967-76.
25. Fardet A, Rock E. Perspective: Reductionist Nutrition Research Has Meaning Only within the Framework of Holistic and Ethical Thinking. *Adv Nutr*. 2018;9:655-70.
26. Kamangar F, Emadi A. Vitamin and mineral supplements: do we really need them? *Int J Prev Med*. 2012;3:221-6.
27. Chen F, Du M, Blumberg JB, Ho Chui KK, Ruan M, Rogers G, Shan Z, Zeng L, Zhang FF. Association Among Dietary Supplement Use, Nutrient Intake, and

- Mortality Among U.S. Adults: A Cohort Study. *Ann Intern Med.* 2019;170:604-13.
28. Vors C, Allaire J, Marin J, Lepine MC, Charest A, Tchernof A, Couture P, Lamarche B. Inflammatory gene expression in whole blood cells after EPA vs. DHA supplementation: Results from the ComparED study. *Atherosclerosis.* 2017;257:116-22.
  29. Allaire J, Harris WS, Vors C, Charest A, Marin J, Jackson KH, Tchernof A, Couture P, Lamarche B. Supplementation with high-dose docosahexaenoic acid increases the Omega-3 Index more than high-dose eicosapentaenoic acid. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids.* 2017;120:8-14.
  30. Allaire J, Vors C, Tremblay AJ, Marin J, Charest A, Tchernof A, Couture P, Lamarche B. High-Dose DHA Has More Profound Effects on LDL-Related Features Than High-Dose EPA: The ComparED Study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2018;103:2909-17.