

# IDENTIFYING HETEROGENEOUS TRANSGENERATIONAL DNA METHYLATION SITES VIA CLUSTERING IN BETA REGRESSION<sup>1</sup>

BY SHENGTONG HAN<sup>\*,2</sup>, HONGMEI ZHANG<sup>\*,3</sup>, GABRIELLE A. LOCKETT<sup>†,2</sup>,  
NANDINI MUKHERJEE<sup>\*,2</sup>, JOHN W. HOLLOWAY<sup>†,2</sup>  
AND WILFRIED KARMAUS<sup>\*,4</sup>

*University of Memphis<sup>\*</sup> and University of Southampton<sup>†</sup>*

This paper explores the transgenerational DNA methylation pattern (DNA methylation transmitted from one generation to the next) via a clustering approach. Beta regression is employed to model the transmission pattern from parents to their offsprings at the population level. To facilitate this goal, an expectation maximization algorithm for parameter estimation along with a BIC criterion to determine the number of clusters is proposed. Applying our method to the DNA methylation data composed of 4063 CpG sites of 41 mother–father–infant triads, we identified a set of CpG sites in which DNA methylation transmission is dominated by fathers, while at a large number of CpG sites, DNA methylation is mainly maternally transmitted to the offspring.

**1. Introduction.** Genetics strongly influences allergic disease risk, yet loci identified throughout genome-wide association studies (GWAS) cannot fully explain disease heritability, a phenomenon known as “missing heritability” [Manolio et al. (2009)]. Transgenerational transmission of epigenetic marks (epigenetics transmitted from one generation to the next) such as DNA methylation is one possible mechanism accounting for the missing heritability [Lockett and Holloway (2013)]. DNA methylation, that occurs at Cytosine–Guanine (CpG) dinucleotides, has been strongly associated with health outcomes, including allergic diseases such as eczema, asthma and rhinitis [Nestor et al. (2014), Soto-Ramirez et al. (2013), Yousefi et al. (2013), Zhang et al. (2014), Ziyab et al. (2012)]. Furthermore, the observation of asymmetric transmission from parent to child of allergic diseases [Arshad et al. (2012)] suggests the potential involvement of epigenetic mechanisms in the inheritance of allergic disease.

There is evidence that DNA methylation patterns can be transmitted to the next generation (i.e., transgenerational transmission) in mammals: a recent study in mice found that maternal folate restriction produces congenital malformations

---

Received October 2014; revised August 2015.

<sup>1</sup>Supported by National Institutes of Health.

<sup>2</sup>Supported by NIH R01AI091905.

<sup>3</sup>Supported by NIH R21AI099367 and NIH R01AI091905.

<sup>4</sup>Supported by NIH R01AI091905.

*Key words and phrases.* DNA Methylation transmission, EM, clustering, Beta regression.

which persist into the fifth generation after exposure, likely through epigenetic mechanisms [Padmanabhan et al. (2013)]. Research findings also indicate that transgenerational transmission of famine responses in humans is believed to be mediated by epigenetic mechanisms [Kaati et al. (2007), Pembrey et al. (2006)]. However, we know very little about the transmission mechanisms, that is, which CpG sites display transmission of DNA methylation to the next generation dominated by inheritance of methylation from the mother, and which CpG sites' inheritance dominated by father (asymmetric transmission). Uncovering the transmission pattern of DNA methylation from parents to offspring in the general population and identifying CpG sites whose DNA methylation is asymmetrically transmitted will provide the potential for allergic disease prediction as well as prevention [Lockett et al. (2013), Szyf (2009)].

In this study, we tackle this problem by evaluating the transmission pattern via Beta regressions and grouping CpG sites if they share a similar pattern of DNA methylation transmission from parents to their offspring. The grouping is fulfilled via clustering of CpG sites based on the association of offspring's mean DNA methylation with parents' mean DNA methylation at the population level using a Beta regression [Ferrari and Cribari-Neto (2004)] (i.e., the association is at the population level). We not only identify CpG sites showing heterogeneous transmission patterns but also identify CpG sites showing similar transmission patterns at the population level. Traditional model-based methods for clustering variables are built into normal distributions and focus on associations in individual subjects (i.e., at the individual level) [Qin and Self (2006)]. On the other hand, unsupervised methods, such as the  $K$ -means algorithm [Hartigan and Wong (1979), MacQueen (1967)], partitioning around medoids [Park and Jun (2009)] or various hierarchical clustering methods, are not able to evaluate the strength of inheritance while clustering. To the best of our knowledge, very limited contribution has been made to this field.

In this article, methodology, including model assumption and the expectation and maximization (EM) algorithm, is presented in Section 2. Section 3 discusses simulations and real data applications, where we compared our method via simulations with the commonly used  $K$ -means approach. Summary and discussions are given in Section 4.

## 2. Methodology.

*2.1. Model assumption.* Suppose there are  $I$  triads (each triad consists of one child and the child's two parents) and  $J$  CpG sites which are common to all triads. We further assume that all CpG sites are independent of each other. Let  $Z1_{ij}$  and  $Z2_{ij}$  denote DNA methylation at CpG site  $j$  for the  $i$ th offspring's mother and father ( $F_1$  generation) with the domain on interval  $(0, 1)$ , respectively, which could be assumed to follow Beta distributions [Houseman et al. (2008)]

$$Z1_{ij} \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha_j^M, \beta_j^M), \quad Z2_{ij} \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha_j^F, \beta_j^F),$$

where  $0 < Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij} < 1$ ,  $\alpha_j^M, \beta_j^M, \alpha_j^F, \beta_j^F$  are unknown scale parameters,  $i = 1, \dots, I; j = 1, \dots, J$ . Let  $y_{ij}$  denote the methylation score at site  $j$  of child  $i$  ( $F_2$  generation). Conditional on the DNA methylation in parents due to inheritance,  $y_{ij}$  satisfies

$$y_{ij} | Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij} \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha_j^0, \beta_j^0),$$

where  $0 < y_{ij} < 1$ ,  $\alpha_j^0$  and  $\beta_j^0$  are two unknown scale parameters in the Beta distribution. Let  $O_j = \text{logit}(\frac{\alpha_j^0}{\alpha_j^0 + \beta_j^0}) = \log(\alpha_j^0) - \log(\beta_j^0)$ ,  $M_j = \log(\alpha_j^M) - \log(\beta_j^M)$  and  $F_j = \log(\alpha_j^F) - \log(\beta_j^F)$  denote logit transformed mean methylation of site  $j$  for child, mother and father, respectively. The inheritance relation from parents to their offspring in a general population is assumed to be

$$(2.1) \quad O_j = \gamma_{0j} + \gamma_{1j}M_j + \gamma_{2j}F_j,$$

where  $\gamma_{0j}$  is the intercept, and  $\gamma_{1j}, \gamma_{2j}$  represent the inheritance strength from mother and father to offspring, respectively. It is worth pointing out that this dependence is for each individual CpG site. The assumption of independence between CpG sites noted earlier is not likely to influence the dependence structure between parents and offspring at each individual site. Note that in (2.1) we assumed a linear association as well as additive parental effects. The linearity assumption is supported by our preliminary data in terms of correlations (as seen in our real data application) and epigenetic inheritance studies [Rakyan et al. (2003)]. Model (2.1) describes a manifestation of parental DNA methylation inheritance to offspring. It is possible that the effects may be multiplicative or in another unknown format, which certainly deserves further investigation, and we hope our attempt is a starting point of this exploration. It is not unusual that some CpG sites share the same transmission pattern in terms of  $\gamma_{1j}, \gamma_{2j}$ . Identifying CpG sites following similar transmission patterns will improve our understanding of related genes or biological pathways involved in DNA methylation transmission. To this end, we perform cluster analysis and revise (2.1) as

$$O_j = \gamma_{0k} + \gamma_{1k}M_j + \gamma_{2k}F_j,$$

for CpG site  $j$  in cluster  $k, k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ . Denote by  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_k = (\gamma_{0k}, \gamma_{1k}, \gamma_{2k})$  the transmission coefficients in cluster  $k$ . All CpG sites in cluster  $k$  share the same transmission pattern from the  $F_1$  generation to  $F_2$  generation. If  $\gamma_{1k} = 0$  or  $\gamma_{2k} = 0$ , then a child's DNA methylation at these CpG sites is inherited from his/her father alone or mother alone. If  $\gamma_{1k} = \gamma_{2k} = 0$ , there is no transmission from parents and average DNA methylation of a child is determined by  $\gamma_{0k}$ . In other situations, both parents transmit their methylation to their child but possibly with different strengths. It is reasonable to assume that the number of clusters  $K$  is substantially smaller than the number of CpG sites  $J, K \ll J$ . Selection of the number of clusters  $K$  is presented in Section 2.4. To infer the parameters  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_k$  and scale parameters in Beta distributions, we introduce the following empirical expectation maximization (EM) algorithm.

2.2. The likelihood function and the empirical EM algorithm for clustering.

We start from introducing necessary notation. Let  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\boldsymbol{\mu}_1, \boldsymbol{\mu}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{\mu}_J)$  with  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_j = (\mu_{j1}, \mu_{j2}, \dots, \mu_{jK})^T = (0, 0, \dots, 1, 0, \dots, 0)^T$ , a  $K \times 1$  vector and  $\mu_{jk} = 1$  indicating site  $j$  is in cluster  $k$ . Denote by  $\pi_k$  the probability of each site falling into cluster  $k$  and it is free of site index  $i$ . We assume  $\boldsymbol{\mu}_i \sim \text{Mult}(1, \boldsymbol{\pi})$  (Multinomial distribution), where  $\boldsymbol{\pi} = (\pi_1, \pi_2, \dots, \pi_K)$ , with  $0 \leq \pi_k \leq 1, k = 1, 2, \dots, K, \sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k = 1$ . Let  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\boldsymbol{\alpha}, \boldsymbol{\beta}, \boldsymbol{\gamma}, \boldsymbol{\pi})$  denote a collection of all parameters, where  $\boldsymbol{\alpha} = (\boldsymbol{\alpha}^0, \boldsymbol{\alpha}^M, \boldsymbol{\alpha}^F)$  with  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^0 = (\alpha_1^0, \alpha_2^0, \dots, \alpha_J^0)$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^M = (\alpha_1^M, \alpha_2^M, \dots, \alpha_J^M)$  and  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^F = (\alpha_1^F, \alpha_2^F, \dots, \alpha_J^F)$ . Analogous to  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ , parameter  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  has the same structure,  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\boldsymbol{\beta}^0, \boldsymbol{\beta}^M, \boldsymbol{\beta}^F)$  with  $\boldsymbol{\beta}^0 = (\beta_1^0, \beta_2^0, \dots, \beta_J^0)$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\beta}^M = (\beta_1^M, \beta_2^M, \dots, \beta_J^M)$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}^F = (\beta_1^F, \beta_2^F, \dots, \beta_J^F)$ . Finally, parameter  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  is a collection of coefficients,  $\boldsymbol{\gamma} = (\boldsymbol{\gamma}_1, \boldsymbol{\gamma}_2, \dots, \boldsymbol{\gamma}_K)$  with  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_k = (\gamma_{0k}, \gamma_{1k}, \gamma_{2k}), k = 1, 2, \dots, K$ . Denote by  $\mathbf{Y} = (y_{ij}, Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}), i = 1, 2, \dots, I, j = 1, 2, \dots, J$ , the observed data. The likelihood of  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  is

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{Y}) = \prod_{i=1}^I \prod_{j=1}^J \prod_{k=1}^K P(\mu_{jk}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(y_{ij}|Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}, \mu_{jk}, \boldsymbol{\theta})^{\mu_{jk}} P(Z1_{ij}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(Z2_{ij}|\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^I \prod_{j=1}^J \prod_{k=1}^K P(\mu_{jk}|\boldsymbol{\theta})P(y_{ij}, Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}|\mu_{jk}, \boldsymbol{\theta})^{\mu_{jk}}.$$

To estimate the parameters and infer the cluster assignments  $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ , we implement the following EM algorithm for a given  $K$ :

E Step: This step calculates the expectation of the log likelihood of parameter  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  conditional on the observed data and  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}$  inferred at iteration  $t$ ,

$$E(\mu_{jk}|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) = P\{\mu_{jk} = 1|\mathbf{Y}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}\}$$

$$= \frac{\pi_k^{(t)} [\prod_{i=1}^I P(y_{ij}, Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}, \mu_{jk} = 1)]}{\sum_{k=1}^K \pi_k^{(t)} [\prod_{i=1}^I P(y_{ij}, Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}, \mu_{jk} = 1)]}.$$

M Step: This step updates  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$  by  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)}$  that maximizes  $Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)})$ , that is,

$$(2.2) \quad \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} Q(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}).$$

After calculations, we have

$$\pi_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{jk}).$$

The computation details on the EM algorithm are left in Appendix A. Note that the number of CpG sites in practice can be large, as to be seen in our real data application. Estimating the scale parameters  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  and  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  in the Beta distribution using the standard EM algorithm will not be computationally efficient. To solve this problem, we estimate the scale parameters for a given CpG site using the maximum

likelihood estimators, based on the sample means and variances of DNA methylation of each site across all subjects and the relation between the mean, variance and scale parameters in Beta distributions. These estimates are then used in the subsequent EM process to infer  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  and cluster assignments. Consequently, we denote our EM algorithm as an empirical EM algorithm.

For parameter  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$ , closed-form solutions are not available. Instead we apply the quasi-Newton method to numerically maximize (2.2). The empirical EM algorithm stops when the increase of the log likelihood from the current iteration to the next is less than a threshold, for instance,  $10^{-7}$ .

*2.3. Clustering based on subset sampling.* In epigenome-wide studies, the data often contain a large number of CpG sites, which makes the computation of clustering all CpG sites at a time intractable. In this case, we propose to repeat the EM algorithm for a certain number of subsets of CpG sites randomly chosen from the complete data, each with size of  $S$ . The number of random subsets is determined such that  $100(1 - \frac{S}{J})^m \% \leq \eta\%$ , where  $S$  is the number of CpG sites in the subset,  $J$  is the total number of CpG sites, and  $m$  is the number of subsets needed. This is to ensure at most we miss  $\eta\%$  of the CpG sites after taking  $m$  subsets. The final clusters are determined by a second stage clustering applied to the inferred  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}$  from each subset. Because of the use of random subsets, it may happen that one CpG site is included in multiple clusters. For situations like this, individual likelihood will be calculated to determine which cluster this CpG site is more likely to belong to.

*2.4. Determining the number of clusters  $K$ .* To determine the number of clusters, we propose to use the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) [Schwarz (1978)] to choose  $K$ . The BIC is defined as

$$(2.3) \quad \text{BIC}_K = -2l + (6J + 4K - 1) \log(3 \times I \times J),$$

where  $l$  denotes the log-likelihood  $\log(L(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathbf{Y}))$ ,  $6J + 4K - 1$  is the total number of free parameters to be estimated and  $3 \times I \times J$  is the number of observations. To determine the number of clusters, we propose to use the idea in the screen plot of BICs versus the corresponding numbers of clusters. Screen plots are often used in principal component analysis to determine the number of components, where a sharp decrease in eigenvalues indicates less importance of the rest of the components. Analogously, in our application of screen plots, a sharp decrease in BIC indicates that large numbers of clusters are less preferred. The method discussed in this section is programmed in R and available to researchers of interest.

### 3. Numerical analysis.

*3.1. Simulations.* The proposed method is demonstrated and evaluated by use of 100 Monte Carlo (MC) replicates. Each MC replicate represents DNA methylation of 2000 CpG sites from 60 triads generated from Beta distributions. The scale parameters in the Beta distribution are randomly selected for each CpG site, which

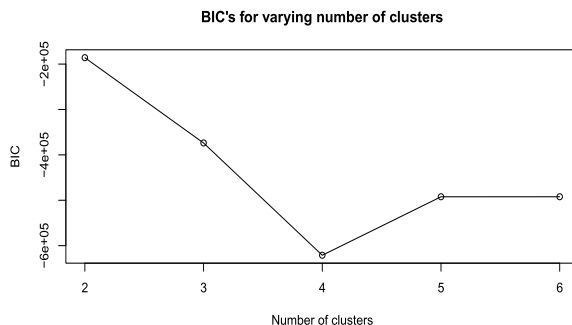


FIG. 1. *BIC values for a varying number of clusters in the simulated data with 2000 CpG sites. The BIC curve drops down greatly at the beginning and achieves its minimum at 4.*

potentially results in unique patterns of data at each CpG site. Sixty triads are used, as it is close to the number of triads in our real data. These 2000 CpG sites were assigned into 4 clusters with coefficients  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_1 = (-4.2, 0, 1.3)$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_2 = (-0.7, 1.9, 0)$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_3 = (-2.3, 0, 0)$ ,  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_4 = (1.4, -1.5, -0.6)$ , with the first cluster representing CpG sites fully paternal transmission, the second fully maternal transmission, the third cluster representing a situation that DNA methylation of these sites are not transmitted and the fourth composed of CpG sites with DNA methylation transmission dominated by mother. Each cluster is of size 500, that is, 500 CpG sites.

We then apply the proposed method to perform the cluster analyses for each MC replicate. To summarize our results, for each MC replicate, we record the number of clusters identified and calculate the sensitivity and specificity of the clustering, based on which we calculate the mean specificity and sensitivity along with their standard deviations. As noted earlier, the number of clusters is determined by use of the screen plot of BICs with each BIC corresponding to a specific number of clusters. As an illustration, Figure 1 shows the pattern of BIC from one MC replicate, from which we infer 4 clusters.

The uncertainty on the number of clusters is given in Table 1 as the occurrence frequency for each cluster number over 100 MC replicates. The median of the number of clusters is 4 with a 95% empirical interval of (3, 6). After a closer investigation on the situations where 5 or 6 clusters were inferred, we found a minimal decrease in BIC from 4 clusters to 5 or 6 clusters compared to the difference between 3 and 4 clusters. This implies that BIC reaches a plateau at 4 clusters, and thus 4 clusters were selected following the concept of the screen plot. The

TABLE 1  
*The occurrence frequency of each cluster number over 100 repetitions*

Number of clusters ( $K$ )	2	3	4	5	6
Frequency	0	1	92	4	3

TABLE 2  
*Average sensitivity and specificity across 100 repetitions for each inferred cluster. PROP denotes the proposed Beta regression clustering method. There are 500 CpG sites in each cluster*

Cluster index			1	2	3	4
Sensitivity	PROP	Mean	0.9600	1.0000	0.9554	0.9749
		SD	0.1969	0.0000	0.2014	0.1488
	K-means	Mean	0.9137	0.9659	0.6300	0.9443
		SD	0.1852	0.1116	0.4852	0.1522
Specificity	PROP	Mean	0.9561	0.9901	0.9620	0.9753
		SD	0.1989	0.0565	0.1767	0.1185
	K-means	Mean	0.9712	0.9886	0.8767	0.9814
		SD	0.0617	0.0372	0.1617	0.0507

sensitivity and specificity for identifying each cluster over these 100 replicates are summarized in Table 2. In general, sensitivity and specificity are high for all 4 clusters with small variations.

A question may be raised regarding the performance of the proposed clustering method in comparison with the existing methods noted in Section 1. Since the proposed method performs clustering analyses directly on the strength of inheritance at the population level, it is expected to be more sensitive compared to the existing methods. For the purpose of demonstration, we use the *K*-means approach as an example. For each of the 100 MC replicates, we first calculate sample mean methylations at each CpG site for father, mother and their offspring, respectively, and then apply the *K*-means method to these mean methylations. The *K*-means approach can be implemented using the R function *K*-means. Summary statistics on sensitivity and specificity across the 100 MC replicates is presented in Table 2.

Overall, both the proposed method and *K*-means work well in terms of sensitivity and specificity. Higher sensitivity of the proposed method across all 4 clusters indicates it has higher power in identifying CpG sites correctly. For clusters 2 and 3, both sensitivity and specificity from the proposed method are higher on average than those from the *K*-means method, especially for cluster 3 (50% higher in sensitivity and 10% higher in specificity). For clusters 1 and 4, the proposed method shows higher sensitivity and slightly lower specificity on average than the *K*-means method. Overall, our method performs better than the *K*-means approach. This is likely due to the fact that the *K*-means approach looks for similarity between CpG sites with respect to DNA methylation in triads instead of examining transmission patterns as in the proposed method. CpG sites showing similar patterns in triad DNA-M patterns may have different transmission patterns. Recall our ultimate goal is to infer the clusters as well as the strength of inheritance from mother and from father (i.e., estimating  $\gamma$ ). Should the *K*-means approach be used to cluster the CpG sites, we had to go through an additional step to infer



the strength of inheritance for each cluster. In general, we thus expect the proposed method to perform better and to be more efficient.

Another possible concern is related to the robustness of the method with respect to the Beta distribution assumption on DNA methylation measures. To demonstrate this, we simulate 100 MC replicates such that DNA methylation is generated from truncated normal distributions within interval  $(0, 1)$ . The mean methylation for parents is set at 0.5, and for offspring it is calculated through (2.1), where we use the same coefficients as in previous simulations. The variance in the truncated normal is set at 0.25 for all triads. With this type of distribution that is different from Beta distribution, high sensitivity and specificity are still observed for all clusters (results not shown). This set of simulations provides evidence that data distributions may not substantially affect the clustering result.

*Further assessment of the method.* The above simulations are performed on the CpG sites which are evenly distributed in 4 clusters, that is, each cluster has equal size of 500 CpG sites and all the CpG sites are assumed to be independent. What will happen if the clusters are uneven, the CpG sites are correlated in DNA methylation, or there are more inheritance patterns other than four? To evaluate the proposed method comprehensively, four additional simulation scenarios are considered, denoted by S1, S2, S3, S4, respectively. For convenience, we denote the previous simulation scenario as scenario S0:

- S1 Unbalanced cluster size in terms of the number of CpG sites, a more realistic scenario in practice. We revise scenario S0 by taking unbalanced cluster sizes such that the numbers of CpG sites are 500, 600, 850 and 50 for clusters 1 to 4, respectively. Other settings are the same as in scenario S0 (the same note in the following scenarios). In the subsequent scenarios, all clusters are unbalanced.
- S2 Correlated CpG sites in DNA methylation. We revise scenario S1 by generating CpG sites in clusters 1 and 2 such that correlation of DNA methylation in neighboring CpG sites is 0.90. Note that in this scenario, the number of CpGs in each cluster is the same as in S1, that is, not balanced. This setting will assess the robustness of the method with respect to correlated CpGs as well as unbalanced clusters.
- S3 More varieties in parental effects. Instead of the four parental effects given in S0, we added another effect with coefficients  $\boldsymbol{\gamma}_5 = (-3, 2, 2)$ , that is, parental transmission is evenly distributed between mother and father. The numbers of CpG sites in clusters 1 to 5 are 500, 600, 450, 50 and 400, respectively.
- S4 Large number of CpG sites. Scenario S0 considers 2000 CpG sites. We expand the number of CpG sites to 10,000 and include 2500, 3000, 4250, and 250 CpGs in clusters 1 to 4.

All these additional scenarios are designed in order to evaluate the sensitivity and robustness of the proposed method. For each scenario, 100 MC replicates are generated and each is with sample size of 60 subjects. We use the same statistics as



TABLE 3

*Average sensitivity and specificity across 100 repetitions for each inferred cluster for scenario S1 where there are 500, 600, 850, 50 CpG sites in clusters 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively*

Cluster index			1	2	3	4
Sensitivity	PROP	Mean	0.9625	0.9691	0.9714	0.9511
		SD	0.1708	0.1385	0.1390	0.1958
	K-means	Mean	0.8494	0.9557	0.6736	0.3224
		SD	0.2345	0.1318	0.3591	0.4498
Specificity	PROP	Mean	0.9686	0.98838	0.98843	0.9590
		SD	0.1713	0.10004	0.09998	0.1968
	K-means	Mean	0.9498	0.9810	0.7587	0.9826
		SD	0.0782	0.0565	0.2654	0.0115

for S0 to summarize the findings, and we also compare with the findings from *K*-means.

The results for these scenarios S1–S4 are summarized in Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6. For scenario S1 (unbalanced cluster sizes), high sensitivities and specificities are observed across all clusters with small variations over 100 MC replicates (Table 3). As a comparison, when the number of CpGs in a cluster is small (i.e., 50 CpG sites in cluster 4), the *K*-means method produces much lower sensitivity. For scenario S2 (correlation in DNA methylation in clusters 1 and 2 is 0.90), the findings from the proposed method is not greatly influenced by the high correlations in DNA methylation between neighboring CpG sites. High sensitivities and specificities on average are still present and in general better than the results from the *K*-means approach. The large impact on sensitivity of the *K*-means method when the number

TABLE 4

*Average sensitivity and specificity across 100 repetitions for each inferred cluster for scenario S2 where there are 500, 600, 850, 50 CpG sites in clusters 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively. Any two consecutive CpG sites in clusters 1 and 2 are highly correlated*

Cluster index			1	2	3	4
Sensitivity	PROP	Mean	0.9051	0.9124	0.8498	0.8667
		SD	0.2688	0.2370	0.3334	0.3103
	K-means	Mean	0.9327	0.8919	0.7924	0.5230
		SD	0.1510	0.1558	0.3187	0.4759
Specificity	PROP	Mean	0.9580	0.9978	0.9085	0.9862
		SD	0.0659	0.0038	0.1626	0.0270
	K-means	Mean	0.9776	0.9537	0.8466	0.9878
		SD	0.0503	0.0668	0.2356	0.0122

TABLE 5

*Average sensitivity and specificity across 100 repetitions for each inferred cluster for scenario S3 where there are 500, 600, 450, 50, 400 CpG sites in clusters 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, respectively. Both clusters 4 and 5 have nonzero coefficients for parents*

Cluster index			1	2	3	4	5
Sensitivity	PROP	Mean	0.8391	0.8248	0.8798	0.8601	0.8372
		SD	0.3219	0.3286	0.2640	0.2955	0.3115
	K-means	Mean	0.9030	0.9065	0.9371	0.4968	0.5390
		SD	0.1723	0.1886	0.1782	0.4780	0.2811
Specificity	PROP	Mean	0.9311	0.8784	0.9090	0.9539	0.9095
		SD	0.1258	0.2906	0.2027	0.1455	0.2336
	K-means	Mean	0.9677	0.9599	0.9817	0.9871	0.8848
		SD	0.0574	0.0808	0.0517	0.0123	0.0703

of CpGs is small is still present (Table 4). Turning to scenario S3 (more varieties in parental effects), reasonably high sensitivities and specificities are present (Table 5). The *K*-means method gives slightly better statistics for clusters 1 to 3, but for clusters 4 and 5, the results from the proposed methods are much better. In all these three scenarios, we observed that the proposed approach results in consistently high sensitivities and specificities, even for clusters with a small number of CpG sites. In scenarios S0, S1, S2, S3, 2000 CpG sites are considered. In reality, the number of CpG sites can be much larger. This is the motivation of scenario S4 proposed above. As seen in Table 6, the proposed method is not influenced by the

TABLE 6

*Average sensitivity and specificity across 100 repetitions for each inferred cluster for scenario S4 where there are 2500, 3000, 4250, 250 CpG sites in clusters 1, 2, 3 and 4, respectively, with the total number of 10,000 CpG sites. The number of CpG sites in each cluster is 5 times the number of CpG sites in scenario S1. Note here PROP uses five digits to avoid the confusion of equal mean and SD of specificity with four digits between clusters 1 and 3, 2 and 4*

Cluster index			1	2	3	4
Sensitivity	PROP	Mean	0.95872	0.96778	0.94827	0.96819
		SD	0.19671	0.17109	0.21824	0.17116
	K-means	Mean	0.8617	0.9618	0.7535	0.3870
		SD	0.2236	0.1244	0.3189	0.4831
Specificity	PROP	Mean	0.95881	0.96811	0.95880	0.96847
		SD	0.19682	0.17129	0.19679	0.17132
	K-means	Mean	0.9539	0.9836	0.8178	0.9841
		SD	0.0745	0.0533	0.2358	0.0124

number of CpG sites and performs well with high sensitivities and specificities. Furthermore, it outperforms the  $K$ -means approach, especially for cluster 4 (with 250 CpG sites).

Although in general the average assessment statistics (sensitivity and specificity) from the proposed method are better than those from the  $K$ -means approach, we noted that, across the MC replicates, the variations of these statistics, especially the variations of specificity, are often smaller for the  $K$ -means approach (except for the situations that the  $K$ -means performs substantially inferior to the proposed approach). This is likely due to the stronger requirement of the proposed method, that is, clustering based on associations instead of means only as in the  $K$ -means approach. Nevertheless, these simulations demonstrate that the proposed approach has the ability to correctly cluster CpG sites based on parental inheritance of DNA methylation. It is on average insensitive to the number of CpGs in each cluster, robust with respect to the correlation in DNA methylation between neighboring CpGs, and is able to handle a variety of parental effects and a large number of CpG sites.

**3.2. Real data analysis.** We applied the proposed clustering method to DNA methylation data of the  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  generation on the Isle of Wight cohort. This birth cohort was established in 1989–1990 aiming to study the natural history of allergic disease [Arshad and Hide (1992)]. In this study, 41 triads (mother, father and child) are included with mother or father from the 1989–1990 birth cohort. For parents, methylation was determined in DNA extracted from blood samples (peripheral blood leucocytes) collected at the time of pregnancy; and for children, DNA methylation was determined in DNA extracted from cord blood.

Genome-wide DNA methylation was assessed using a technology similar to genotype identification.<sup>5</sup> The genome-wide DNA methylation data covers over 484,000 CpG sites associated with approximately 24,000 genes. The methylation level for each queried CpG is presented as beta values. They represent the proportions of intensity of methylated ( $M$ ) over the sum of methylated and unmethylated ( $U$ ) sites,  $\text{beta} = M/[c + M + U]$  with constant  $c$  introduced for the situation of too small  $M + U$ . The value of  $c$  was determined by the company generating the DNA methylation data and its value is usually taken as  $c = 100$ .

The methylation data were preprocessed using the Bioconductor IMA package and the ComBat function in R for initial quality control to remove unreliable CpG sites, correct for probe types, remove background noise and correct for batch effect [Johnson, Li and Rabinovic (2007), Wang et al. (2012)]. After preprocessing and batch effect removal, 308,000 sites were retained for the next step of screening. Since our goal is to identify transmission patterns, we use the screening to exclude CpG sites with weak correlations in DNA methylation between parent and

---

<sup>5</sup>Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChip (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA).

child. A CpG site will be excluded from further consideration if the mother-child or father-child correlation in DNA methylation is  $<0.5$ . This screening process resulted in 4063 CpG sites on autosomes (nonsex chromosomes) for all 41 triads, which are included in the cluster analysis. Note that the screening may cause missingness of CpG sites such that DNA methylation is transmitted at the population level at those CpG sites. Our plan was to focus on CpG sites of which DNA methylation between offspring and parents showed at least moderate correlations. Under this context, CpG sites showing different transmission patterns at the population level may be of particular interest; correlations address the connection between offspring and parents at the individual level, while transmission patterns inform at the population level how DNA methylation in offspring is controlled by parents' DNA methylation. CpG sites showing weak or no connections between offspring and parents may not be of great interest.

The empirical EM algorithm discussed in Section 2.2 is applied to estimate the parameters and assign CpG sites to different clusters. BIC defined in Section 2.3 is used to estimate the number of clusters. BICs with respect to a different number of clusters are displayed in Figure 2. The BIC achieves its minimum at  $K = 7$ . A slight difference in BIC between  $K = 7$  and  $K = 6$  is observed. In addition, with  $K = 7$ , there is a null cluster that has no CpG sites included. All these plus the implementation of screen plot indicate that 6 clusters are preferred. The estimated coefficients explaining transmission strength, the standard errors calculated using 100 bootstrap samples, and the numbers of CpG sites included in each cluster are summarized in Table 7. All the standard errors are small compared to the corresponding estimated coefficients implying high confidence in the estimates.

Recall that parameter  $\gamma_{1k}$  represents the strength of maternal transmission and  $\gamma_{2k}$  the strength of paternal transmission. Among the 6 identified clusters, cluster 2 containing 53 CpGs (their locations and corresponding genes are given in Appendix B) was predominantly paternal-transmitted, as indicated by the larger estimate of  $\gamma_{2k}$ ; with maternal DNA methylation held constant, 10% increase in

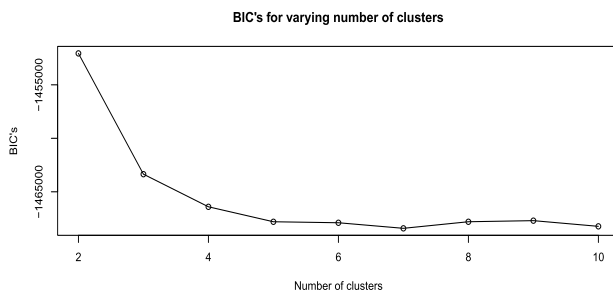


FIG. 2. BIC values for a varying number of clusters for the IOW real data with 4063 CpG sites and 41 triads. We extend the searching range of the number of clusters compared to the simulation study with the aim to get a safe result. The BIC curve decreases sharply, then reaches the minimum when  $K = 7$  but 6 clusters are obtained.

TABLE 7  
*Coefficient estimate and distribution summary of 4063 CpG sites in each cluster. SE denotes the standard errors using the Bootstrap method over 100 repetitions*

Cluster index ( $k$ )	$\hat{\gamma}_{0k}$ (SE)	$\hat{\gamma}_{1k}$ (SE) maternal transmission	$\hat{\gamma}_{2k}$ (SE) paternal transmission	No. CpG sites
1	0.2695 (0.0119)	0.5704 (0.0093)	0.4638 (0.0091)	349
2	0.7019 (0.0187)	0.2151 (0.0174)	0.8547 (0.0181)	53
3	1.1761 (0.0341)	0.6727 (0.0203)	0.4763 (0.0211)	14
4	-0.2357 (0.0124)	0.5415 (0.0143)	0.5236 (0.0141)	2182
5	0.4783 (0.0269)	0.5265 (0.0299)	0.5106 (0.0281)	118
6	0.0536 (0.0578)	0.6414 (0.0626)	0.3808 (0.0507)	1347

paternal DNA methylation in the population will result in a 0.08547 increase in the offspring population DNA methylation, but it will be only a 0.02151 increase should maternal DNA methylation in the population increase by one unit. The intercept  $\gamma_{0k}$  will be practically meaningful only when neither of the parents transmit their DNA methylation to their offspring, in which case it represents the average DNA methylation of a child. In this case, it is likely that the mother had minimal contribution to offspring DNA methylation. Following the same way of interpreting the coefficients, clusters 3 and 6 (together containing 1361 CpGs) were mainly maternal-transmitted. The remaining clusters showed a comparable transmission pattern between mothers and fathers. To give a general impression of various mean patterns for CpG sites in different clusters, we plotted the mean methylations of each CpG site in clusters 1, 2 and 3, together with the plane that the fitted line is in (Figure 3), where different patterns in different clusters are shown.

We further examined the biological functions associated with CpG clusters exhibiting paternal or maternal bias in transmission. Both maternally and paternally

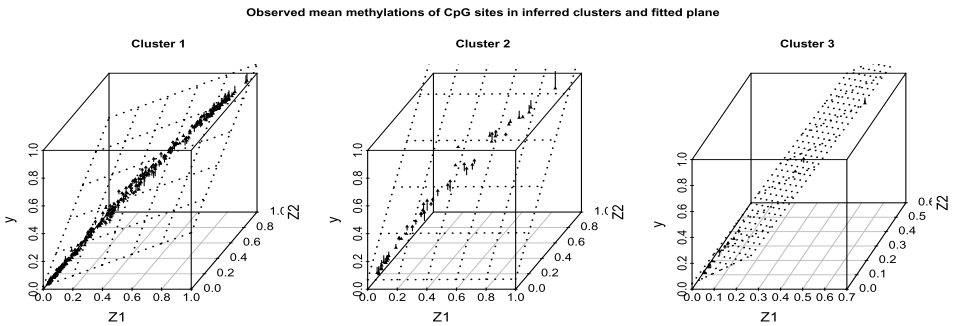


FIG. 3. Circle points are observed methylations of CpG sites. Dashed lines indicate the fitted plane using coefficient estimates in Table 7. At each circle point, residuals between fitted plane and observed mean methylations are displayed by vertical solid lines.

transmitted clusters were significantly enriched for genes that contain genetic polymorphisms and are regulated by alternative splicing ( $p < 0.05$  after Benjamini–Hochberg correction [Benjamini and Hochberg (1995)]). The most significant membrane-related term in the maternally transmitted clusters was “glycoprotein” (25 genes, 1.9-fold enriched,  $p = 0.063$  after Benjamini–Hochberg correction). The fatty acid composition of the plasma membrane is associated with allergic disease risk [Romieu et al. (2007)]; also, the enrichment of membrane-related terms is concordant with an effect on allergy and immunity, as the cellular membrane holds many immune-related proteins on the cell surface.

The maternally transmitted clusters also include genes functionally linked to allergic disease, such as *HLA-B*, which encodes an MHC class I peptide involved in antigen presentation and has a well-known association with atopy, located in the HLA region which itself has been associated with asthma in multiple GWASs [Lockett and Holloway (2013)]. Comparably, the paternally transmitted cluster as well contains genes known to be functionally linked to allergy and immunity, including *IL18BP*, which encodes a binding protein for IL18 in the Th1 immunity pathway; *TLR4* which encodes a receptor on the surface of immune cells for detecting gram negative bacteria; and *BAT3* which is associated with *HLA-B*, a gene extensively linked to allergic disease as described above.

*Findings from the subset sampling approach.* We also used the subset sampling approach described in Section 2.3 on the 41 triads data set. We set  $S = 2000$ ,  $m = 15$  such that every CpG site is chosen for clustering at least once. We run the empirical EM algorithm with  $K$  varying. The subset sampling approach identified 3 clusters instead of 6. However, the corresponding BIC was larger than that when CpG sites were used all at once. Among these 3 clusters, there are 325 CpG sites in one cluster with  $\hat{\gamma}_{2k}$  higher than  $\hat{\gamma}_{1k}$ , indicating these 325 CpG sites may belong to a paternally transmitted cluster. It was found that these 325 CpG sites contain all 53 CpG sites identified via clustering all CpG sites at the same time. Furthermore, for CpG sites that are equally transmitted or maternally transmitted, large overlaps were observed as well. All these provide evidence that these two approaches can reach similar conclusions. However, if the number of CpG sites is not large, we recommend using all CpG sites to perform the analysis, as it is expected to give a better fit. The subset-based sampling approach is recommended if the number of CpG sites is extremely large.

*Further investigations on inheritance.* The above findings are based on candidate CpG sites obtained by implementing a cutoff of 0.5 in correlations. We further relaxed the correlation cutoff to 0.4, which resulted in 14,845 candidate CpG sites. The proposed clustering algorithm is implemented on this larger data set (14,485 CpGs on 41 triads). The same number of clusters (6 clusters) are determined based on the screen plot of the BICs. To eliminate the possibility due to random sampling, we implemented different seeds in random number generators. The same number of clusters was inferred with different seeds (Figure 4). Among

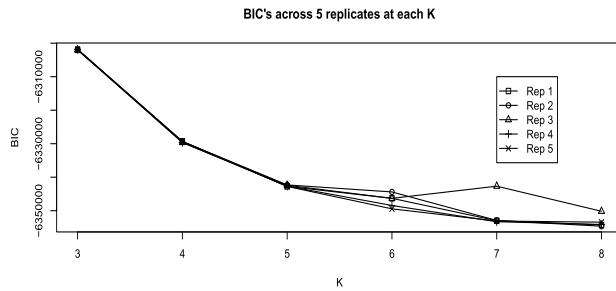


FIG. 4. *BIC vs. number of clusters across five randomly chosen seeds indicated by Rep 1, 2, . . . , 5.*

the 6 clusters, the cluster patterns in general are in agreement with those when the cutoff is 0.5, except that one cluster (with 62 CpG sites) was identified such that mother's effect was close to zero (coefficient was 0.0097), that is, no maternal inheritance. These 62 CpG sites were not identified when the cutoff was 0.5. Furthermore, all the 53 CpG sites, which were inferred previously as predominately paternal-transmitted CpG sites, were still grouped into the same cluster along with the additional 300 CpG sites. This finding is expected due to the expanded set of candidate CpGs. However, in these 15K CpG sites, we did not identify CpG sites that are completely untransmitted at the population level.

The above findings motivated us to further investigate the proposed method in its ability to identify nontransmitted CpG methylation. We considered the following two scenarios, and, for each scenario, we generated five data sets:

1. Simulate nontransmitted data based on real data. We randomly extracted 2000 CpG sites from the real data with cutoff 0.5. DNA methylation of all the triads are as in the real data except for the last 500 CpG sites, of which DNA methylation for the offspring are generated based on their parents' methylation such that the regression coefficients are set at zero but intercept is nonzero. These 500 CpG sites represent nontransmitted CpGs in DNA methylation.

2. Select candidate CpGs such that correlations are  $< 0.1$ . We considered five data sets with each composed of randomly selected 1000 CpGs that satisfy this requirement (i.e., correlations  $< 0.1$ ). Note that low correlations at the individual level can possibly lead to (since whether a child has a high DNA methylation at a CpG site has nothing to do with his/her parents' DNA methylation at that site), but is not equivalent to, nontransmission at the population level. For instance, it is still possible that at the population level, on average, higher DNA methylation of father and mother at a particular CpG site results in high DNA methylation in offspring. Because of the low correlations, offspring's DNA methylation is likely not to be connected to parents' DNA methylation and, consequently, these types of CpGs may not be of great interest.

In the first scenario, across all the five simulated data sets, a truly nontransmitted CpG site was included in the nontransmission cluster with high probability



(ranged from 0.52 to 0.88), which provides further evidence that the proposed method has the ability to identify nontransmitted CpGs. In the second scenario, for each set of randomly selected 1000 CpGs, we identified a small portion (1%) of CpGs showing nontransmission (indicated by regression coefficients close to zero). This finding supports our expectation noted above. That is, DNA methylation at CpG sites showing low correlations at the individual level may still be transmitted at the population level. Furthermore, this also implies that at the population level DNA methylation is more likely to be transmitted from one generation to the next.

Summarizing all the above investigations, we postulate that DNA methylation at most CpGs is transmitted equally from the two parents to the next generation, a much larger number of CpGs are maternal-transmission dominated than those from paternal-transmission, and only at a small number of CpGs DNA methylation is not transmitted to the next generation. However, future epigenetic research is certainly deserved to investigate this postulation, for example, by applying the method to different independent cohorts and assessing agreement in identified clusters.

**4. Summary and discussion.** In conjunction with genetic factors, epigenetics could allow us to better explain disease transmission from parents to offspring. CpG sites showing maternally or paternally biased transmission are of particular relevance to allergic disease, given that allergic diseases are inherited in an asymmetric manner [Arshad et al. (2012)]. It is therefore a matter of great importance to identify CpG sites showing maternally and paternally biased transmission of DNA methylation, as these may permit transgenerational epigenetic transmission of allergic disease risk. To this end, we proposed the clustering method built upon the empirical EM algorithm to cluster CpG sites based on the relationship of DNA methylation transmission between parents and their offspring. Candidate CpG sites used in the cluster analysis were obtained from a whole-genome screening process using correlations in DNA methylation between parents and their offspring.

Although DNA methylation of most CpG sites was transmitted from father and mother equally, there were a large number of CpG sites where maternal influenced as DNA methylation was stronger. Greater maternal influence was expected, given the stronger maternal influence of the intrauterine environment. An interesting finding is the identification of a small set of CpG sites where DNA methylation is paternally transmitted. Paternal transmission could represent *bona fide* transmission of DNA methylation through the germline. Paternal effects, which must be transmitted via epigenetics, have been observed previously [Bielawski et al. (2002), Cicero et al. (1991), He, Lidow and Lidow (2006), Ledig et al. (1998), Ouko et al. (2009)]. We cannot exclude the possibility that apparent maternal and paternal transmission at some loci could be a product of shared environmental factors, though, as the child's methylation was assessed at birth before it is directly exposed to the shared environment, this effect should be minimal. Our findings

implied DNA methylation at a small number of CpGs not transmitted to the next generation, which needs further investigation.

The methodology proposed in this work is not limited to DNA methylation data and can be applied to other types of data ranged from 0 to 1, for instance, proportions of successes. It is possible that the transmission is nonlinear. In situations like this, splines can be implemented to approximate the association patterns and the heterogeneity can be evaluated by, for example, the sum of the coefficients in the base functions.

APPENDIX A: EM ALGORITHM

To estimate the parameters and infer the cluster assignments  $\mu$ , we implement the following EM algorithm for a given  $K$ :

E Step: The  $Q$  function at this step is

$$\begin{aligned} Q(\theta|\theta^{(t)}) &= E_{\mu|\mathbf{Y},\theta^{(t)}}[\log(P(\mathbf{Y}, \mu|\theta))] \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^K E(\mu_{jk}|\mathbf{Y}, \theta^{(t)}) \log(\pi_k) \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J \sum_{k=1}^K E(\mu_{jk}|\mathbf{Y}, \theta^{(t)}) \log[P(y_{ij}, Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}|\theta)], \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} E(\mu_{jk}|\mathbf{Y}, \theta^{(t)}) &= P\{\mu_{jk} = 1|\mathbf{Y}, \theta^{(t)}\} \\ &= \frac{p_k^{(t)} [\prod_{i=1}^I P(y_{ij}, Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}|\theta^{(t)}, \mu_{jk} = 1)]}{\sum_{k=1}^K p_k^{(t)} [\prod_{i=1}^I P(y_{ij}, Z1_{ij}, Z2_{ij}|\theta^{(t)}, \mu_{jk} = 1)]}. \end{aligned}$$

M Step: By taking derivatives of  $Q$  with respect to  $\pi$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial Q(\theta|\theta^{(t)})}{\partial \pi} &= \left( \frac{\partial Q(\theta|\theta^{(t)})}{\partial \pi_1}, \frac{\partial Q(\theta|\theta^{(t)})}{\partial \pi_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial Q(\theta|\theta^{(t)})}{\partial \pi_{K-1}} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{j1})}{\pi_1} - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{jK})}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \pi_k}, \right. \\ &\quad \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{j2})}{\pi_2} - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{jK})}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \pi_k}, \\ &\quad \left. \dots, \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{jK-1})}{\pi_{K-1}} - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{jK})}{1 - \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \pi_k} \right) \triangleq \mathbf{0}_{(K-1) \times 1}, \end{aligned}$$

which yields  $\frac{1}{\pi_1} \sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{j1}) = \dots = \frac{1}{\pi_K} \sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{jK})$  and, further,

$$\pi_k^{(t+1)} = \frac{1}{J} \sum_{j=1}^J E(\mu_{jk}).$$

## APPENDIX B: RELEVANT INFORMATION ON CPG SITES IN CLUSTERS 2

We put relevant information for all 53 CpG sites in cluster 2 in Table 8 (DNA methylation transmission is paternally dominated), including CpG site ID (IlmnID), corresponding gene names (*UCSC\_RefGene\_Name*), chromosome number

TABLE 8  
Relevant information on 53 CpG sites in cluster 2

<b>IlmnID</b>	<b>Chromosome</b>	<b>UCSC_RefGene_Name</b>	<b>UCSC_RefGene_Group</b>
cg00463982	16	<i>IFT140; TMEM204</i>	Body; TSS1500
cg00484396	16	<i>NAT15</i>	TSS1500; 5'UTR
cg00958560	4	<i>C4orf50</i>	Body
cg01571001	3		
cg01579765	21	<i>HSF2BP</i>	Body
cg01757168	3		
cg03536711	1	<i>LOC400804</i>	Body
cg03814093	4	<i>KIAA0922</i>	Body
cg04230029	12	<i>MED13L</i>	Body
cg04495270	17	<i>NT5M</i>	TSS1500
cg04753163	6	<i>TRERF1</i>	5'UTR
cg05760053	14	<i>KHNYN; CBLN3</i>	TSS1500; TSS200
cg05767404	1	<i>C1orf150</i>	Body
cg07007382	6		
cg07251788	22	<i>CLTCL1</i>	TSS1500
cg07382132	10		
cg07696842	12	<i>CHST11</i>	Body
cg08281415	16		
cg09516200	17	<i>RPTOR</i>	Body
cg09564361	8		
cg11351709	8		
cg11799593	12		
cg12180191	8	<i>ANK1</i>	Body
cg13564459	14	<i>PRKCH</i>	Body
cg13640690	9	<i>LOC100129066</i>	Body
cg13730105	9	<i>TLR4</i>	Body
cg13795986	1	<i>RIT1</i>	Body
cg14194983	1	<i>NPPA</i>	TSS1500
cg14314729	5		
cg14574489	3	<i>SLC9A9</i>	Body
cg14672994	17	<i>ACSF2</i>	TSS1500
cg14734668	10		
cg14749573	4		
cg15937073	1	<i>HIVEP3</i>	TSS200
cg16385335	11	<i>IL18BP; IL18B</i>	TSS200; 5'UTR; TSS1500; 5
cg16476991	13	<i>RASA3</i>	Body

TABLE 8  
(Continued)

<b>IlmnID</b>	<b>Chromosome</b>	<b>UCSC_RefGene_Name</b>	<b>UCSC_RefGene_Group</b>
cg19490001	2	<i>ANKRD53</i>	3'UTR; Body
cg19906672	4	<i>TBC1D14</i>	5'UTR
cg20654462	15		
cg21147708	6	<i>SNRNP48</i>	3'UTR
cg21783847	1	<i>CREG1</i>	Body
cg22156674	2		
cg22508957	16	<i>NAT15</i>	TSS1500; 5'UTR
cg23474190	21		
cg24681208	14	<i>REM2</i>	TSS1500
cg25229172	12	<i>AMDHD1; CCDC38</i>	TSS1500; 5'UTR
cg25314284	11		
cg25651505	2	<i>VAMP5</i>	Body
cg26804772	1		
cg26929700	16	<i>ZNF423</i>	Body
cg27014438	6	<i>BAT3</i>	Body
cg27113548	14		
cg27448532	4	<i>ARHGAP10</i>	Body

and specific locations (*UCSC\_RefGene\_Group*). We hope this will be helpful to interested researchers.

**Acknowledgments.** The authors sincerely thank the Editor, Associate Editor and referees for their constructive suggestions and comments which contributed substantially to the improvement of the work.

## REFERENCES

- ARSHAD, S. H. and HIDE, D. W. (1992). Effect of environmental factors on the development of allergic disorders in infancy. *J. Allergy Clin. Immunol.* **90** 235–241.
- ARSHAD, S. H., KARMAUS, W., RAZA, A., KURUKULAARATCHY, R. J., MATTHEWS, S. M., HOLLOWAY, J. W., SADEGHNEJAD, A., ZHANG, H., ROBERTS, G. and EWART, S. L. (2012). The effect of parental allergy on childhood allergic diseases depends on the sex of the child. *J. Allergy Clin. Immunol.* **130** 427–434.
- BENJAMINI, Y. and HOCHBERG, Y. (1995). Controlling the false discovery rate: A practical and powerful approach to multiple testing. *J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B. Stat. Methodol.* **57** 289–300. [MR1325392](#)
- BIELAWSKI, D. M., ZAHER, F. M., SVINARICH, D. M. and ABEL, E. L. (2002). Paternal alcohol exposure affects sperm cytosine methyltransferase messenger RNA levels. *Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res.* **26** 347–351.
- CICERO, T. J., ADAMS, M. L., GIORDANO, A., MILLER, B. T., O'CONNOR, L. and NOCK, B. (1991). Influence of morphine exposure during adolescence on the sexual maturation of male rats and the development of their offspring. *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* **256** 1086–1093.

- FERRARI, S. L. P. and CRIBARI-NETO, F. (2004). Beta regression for modelling rates and proportions. *J. Appl. Stat.* **31** 799–815. [MR2095753](#)
- HARTIGAN, J. A. and WONG, M. A. (1979). Algorithm AS 136: A K-means clustering algorithm. *J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. C. Appl. Stat.* **28** 100–108.
- HE, F., LIDOW, I. A. and LIDOW, M. S. (2006). Consequences of paternal cocaine exposure in mice. *Neurotoxicol. Teratol.* **28** 198–209.
- HOUSEMAN, E. A., CHRISTENSEN, B., YEH, R.-F., MARSIT, C., KARAGAS, M., WRENSCH, M., NELSON, H., WIEMELS, J., ZHENG, S., WIENCKE, J. and KELSEY, K. (2008). Model-based clustering of DNA methylation array data: A recursive-partitioning algorithm for high-dimensional data arising as a mixture of beta distributions. *BMC Bioinformatics* **9** 365.
- JOHNSON, W. E., LI, C. and RABINOVIC, A. (2007). Adjusting batch effects in microarray expression data using empirical Bayes methods. *Biostatistics* **8** 118–127.
- KAATI, G., BYGREN, L. O., PEMBREY, M. and SJÖSTRÖM, M. (2007). Transgenerational response to nutrition, early life circumstances and longevity. *Eur. J. Hum. Genet.* **15** 784–790.
- LEDIG, M., MISSLIN, R., VOGEL, E., HOLOWNIA, A., COPIN, J. C. and THOLEY, G. (1998). Paternal alcohol exposure: Developmental and behavioral effects on the offspring of rats. *Neuropharmacology* **37** 57–66.
- LOCKETT, G. A. and HOLLOWAY, J. W. (2013). Genome-wide association studies in asthma; perhaps, the end of the beginning. *Curr. Opin. Allergy Clin. Immunol.* **13** 463–469.
- LOCKETT, G. A., PATIL, V. K., SOTO-RAMIREZ, N., ZIYAB, A. H., HOLLOWAY, J. W. and KARMAUS, W. (2013). Epigenomics and allergic disease. *Epigenomics* **5** 685–699.
- MACQUEEN, J. (1967). Some methods for classification and analysis of multivariate observations. In *Proc. Fifth Berkeley Sympos. Math. Statist. and Probability (Berkeley, Calif., 1965/66)* 281–297. Univ. California Press, Berkeley, CA. [MR0214227](#)
- MANOLIO, T. A., COLLINS, F. S., COX, N. J., GOLDSTEIN, D. B., HINDORFF, L. A., HUNTER, D. J., MCCARTHY, M. I., RAMOS, E. M., CARDON, L. R., CHAKRAVARTI, A., CHO, J. H., GUTTMACHER, A. E., KONG, A., KRUGLYAK, L., MARDIS, E., ROTIMI, C. N., SLATKIN, M., VALLE, D., WHITTEMORE, A. S., BOEHNKE, M., CLARK, A. G., EICHLER, E. E., GIBSON, G., HAINES, J. L., MACKAY, T. F. C., MCCARROLL, S. A. and VISSCHER, P. M. (2009). Finding the missing heritability of complex diseases. *Nature* **461** 747–753.
- NESTOR, C. E., BARRENÄS, F., WANG, H., LENTINI, A., ZHANG, H., BRUHN, S., JÖRNSTEN, R., LANGSTON, M. A., ROGERS, G., GUSTAFSSON, M. and BENSON, M. (2014). DNA methylation changes separate allergic patients from healthy controls and may reflect altered CD4+ T-cell population structure. *PLOS Genetics* **10** e1004059.
- OUKO, L. A., SHANTIKUMAR, K., KNEZOVICH, J., HAYCOCK, P., SCHNUGH, D. J. and RAMSAY, M. (2009). Effect of alcohol consumption on CpG methylation in the differentially methylated regions of H19 and IG-DMR in male gametes-implications for fetal alcohol spectrum disorders. *Alcohol. Clin. Exp. Res.* **33** 1615–1627.
- PADMANABHAN, N., JIA, D., GEARY-JOO, C., WU, X., FERGUSON-SMITH, A. C., FUNG, E., BIEDA, M. C., SNYDER, F. F., GRAVEL, R. A., CROSS, J. C. and WATSONEMAIL, E. D. (2013). Mutation in folate metabolism causes epigenetic instability and transgenerational effects on development. *Cell* **155** 81–93.
- PARK, H. S. and JUN, C. H. (2009). A simple and fast algorithm for K-medoids clustering. *Expert Syst. Appl.* **36** 3336–3341.
- PEMBREY, M. E., BYGREN, L. O., KAATI, G., EDVINSSON, S., NORTHSTONE, K., SJÖSTRÖM, M., GOLDING, J. and TEAM, T. A. S. (2006). Sex-specific, male-line transgenerational responses in humans. *Eur. J. Hum. Genet.* **14** 159–166.
- QIN, L.-X. and SELF, S. G. (2006). The clustering of regression models method with applications in gene expression data. *Biometrics* **62** 526–533. [MR2236835](#)

- RAKYAN, V. K., CHONG, S., CHAMP, M. E., CUTHBERT, P. C., MORGAN, H. D., LUU, K. V. K. and WHITELOW, E. (2003). Transgenerational inheritance of epigenetic states at the murine AxinFu allele occurs after maternal and paternal transmission. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **100** 2538–2543.
- ROMIEU, I., TORRENT, M., GARCIA-ESTEBAN, R., FERRER, C., RIBAS-FITÓ, N., ANTÓ, J. M. and SUNYER, J. (2007). Maternal fish intake during pregnancy and atopy and asthma in infancy. *Clinical and Experimental Allergy* **37** 518–525.
- SCHWARZ, G. (1978). Estimating the dimension of a model. *Ann. Statist.* **6** 461–464. [MR0468014](#)
- SOTO-RAMIREZ, N., ARSHAD, S. H., HOLLOWAY, J. W., ZHANG, H., SCHAUBERGER, E., EWART, S., PATIL, V. and KARMAUS, W. (2013). The interaction of genetic variants and DNA methylation of the interleukin-4 receptor gene increase the risk of asthma at age 18 years. *Clinical Epigenetics* **5** 1–8.
- SZYF, M. (2009). Epigenetics, DNA methylation, and chromatin modifying drugs. *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.* **49** 243–264.
- WANG, D., YAN, L., HU, Q., SUCHESTON, L. E., HIGGINS, M. J., AMBROSONE, C. B., JOHNSON, C. S., SMIRAGLIA, D. J. and LIU, S. (2012). IMA: An R package for high-throughput analysis of illumina's 450K infinium methylation data. *Bioinformatics* **28** 729–730.
- YOUSEFI, M., KARMAUS, W., ZHANG, H., EWART, S., ARSHAD, H. and HOLLOWAY, J. W. (2013). The methylation of the LEPR/LEPROT genotype at the promoter and body regions influence concentrations of leptin in girls and BMI at age 18 years if their mother smoked during pregnancy. *International Journal of Molecular Epidemiology and Genetics* **4** 86–100.
- ZHANG, H., TONG, X., HOLLOWAY, J. W., REZWAN, F. I., PATIL, V., RAY, M., EVERSON, T. M., SOTO-RAMÍREZ, N., ARSHAD, S. H. et al. (2014). The interplay of DNA methylation over time with Th2 pathway genetic variants on asthma risk and temporal asthma transition. *Clinical Epigenetics* **6** 8.
- ZIYAB, A. H., KARMAUS, W., HOLLOWAY, J. W., ZHANG, H., EWART, S. and ARSHAD, S. H. (2012). DNA methylation of the filaggrin gene adds to the risk of eczema associated with loss-of-function variants. *J. Eur. Acad. Dermatol. Venereol.* **27** e420–e423.

S. HAN  
H. ZHANG  
W. KARMAUS  
N. MUKHERJEE  
DIVISION OF EPIDEMIOLOGY, BIostatISTICS,  
AND ENVIRONMENTAL HEALTH  
SCHOOL OF PUBLIC HEALTH  
UNIVERSITY OF MEMPHIS  
MEMPHIS, TENNESSEE 38111  
USA  
E-MAIL: shengtonghan@gmail.com  
hzhang6@memphis.edu  
karmaus1@memphis.edu  
nmkhrjee@memphis.edu

G. A. LOCKETT  
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND HEALTH  
FACULTY OF MEDICINE  
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON  
SOUTHAMPTON SO16 6YD  
UNITED KINGDOM  
E-MAIL: G.A.Lockett@soton.ac.uk

J. W. HOLLOWAY  
HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND HEALTH  
AND  
CLINICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL SCIENCES  
FACULTY OF MEDICINE  
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON  
SOUTHAMPTON SO16 6YD  
UNITED KINGDOM  
E-MAIL: J.W.Holloway@soton.ac.uk