

Epigenetic signature of human immune aging in the GESTALT study

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ABSTRACT

Age-associated DNA methylation in blood cells convey information on health status. However, the mechanisms that drive these changes in circulating cells and their relationships to gene regulation are unknown. We identified age-associated DNA methylation sites in six purified blood borne immune cell types (naïve B, naïve CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells, granulocytes, monocytes and NK cells) collected from healthy individuals interspersed over a wide age range. Of the thousands of age-associated sites, only 350 sites were differentially methylated in the same direction in all cell types and validated in an independent longitudinal cohort. Genes close to age-associated hypomethylated sites were enriched for collagen biosynthesis and complement cascade pathways, while genes close to hypermethylated sites mapped to neuronal pathways. In-silico analyses showed that in most cell types, the age-associated hypo- and hypermethylated sites were enriched for ARNT (HIF1 β) and REST transcription factor motifs respectively, which are both master regulators of hypoxia response. To conclude, despite spatial heterogeneity, there is a commonality in the putative regulatory role with respect to transcription factor motifs and histone modifications at and around these sites. These features suggest that DNA methylation changes in healthy aging may be adaptive responses to fluctuations of oxygen availability.

Keywords- DNA methylation, immune cells, aging, ARNT, REST, hypoxia

INTRODUCTION

Human aging is associated with site-specific changes of DNA methylation. Summary measures of DNA methylation called “epigenetic clocks” are extensively used in aging research to estimate biological age (1, 2, 3). Epigenetic clocks closely approximate chronological age and beyond age, predict adverse health conditions, including frailty (4), Alzheimer’s disease (5) and mortality (6, 7).

Research suggest that changes in DNA methylation with aging are regulated by specific mechanisms rather than by a stochastic drift (8). For example, a loss-of-function mutation in the H3K36 histone methyltransferase has been associated with epigenetic aging in mice (9). In humans, polymorphisms in the telomerase gene (TERT) (10) and age-dependent gain of methylation in the Polycomb repressive complex 2 have been related to accelerated aging(11). However, so far, no sound hypothesis exists that explains the association of DNA methylation with aging and pathology.

A main obstacle in understanding mechanisms driving age-associated changes of DNA methylation is that most human studies were performed in mixed blood cell types. The few studies that investigated select immune circulating cells failed to propose a unifying biological hypothesis explaining predictable changes of DNA methylation with aging (12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18).

We analyzed age-associated methylation in 6 purified blood-borne cell types sorted from peripheral mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from 55 donors of ages ranging from 22 to 83 years. To minimize the confounding of age-associated pre-clinical and clinical diseases, participants were ascertained to be healthy by trained health professionals

according to strict clinical criteria. We looked for CpGs differentially methylated with aging in the same direction in multiple cell types. Next, in each cell type, we conducted enrichment analyses of genes close to age-associated CpGs. Finally, we looked for chromatin accessibility markers and transcription factor binding sites close to the same age-associated CpGs. Our findings suggest that changes in methylation with aging are related to fluctuation of energetic metabolism during the life course.

RESULTS

Age-associated methylation in individual cell types

A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on normalized DNA methylation data for all cell types from all the 55 donors (Figure 1A and Supplementary File 1). The PCA showed that clustering by cell types was stronger than by age (Figure 1- figure supplement 1A). The genes associated with the top 500 probes corresponding to PC1, PC2 and PC3 were enriched pathways linked to innate and adaptive lineage development (Supplementary File 2).

Age-associated CpGs were identified through sex-adjusted beta regression models (FDR corrected p-value <0.05). The number of hypo- or hypermethylated sites varied considerably between cell types (Figure 1B) with highest numbers in CD4⁺ T cells (Figure 1- figure supplement 1B and Supplementary Files 3-4). Using a different approach of comparing between young (≤ 35 years, 25th percentile) and old (≥ 70 years, 75th percentile) individuals, we observed >90% overlap with beta regression-derived hypomethylated sites and 70-95% overlap with hypermethylated sites in all cell types

except CD8⁺ T cells (9-14% overlap) (Figure 1- figure supplement 1C). Having fewer old donors with CD8⁺ T cells may have contributed to differences (Supplementary File 1).

Like other studies, we found that a significant proportion of age-hypomethylated CpGs were in the intergenic and open-sea (>4kb from CpG island) regions while age-hypermethylated CpGs were in promoters and CpG islands (Chi sq test $p < 0.001$) (Figure 1- figure supplement 1D and 1E). Additionally, age-associated differentially methylated sites in PBMC poorly recapitulate age-dependent changes that take place in specific primary immune cells (Figure 1- figure supplement 1E and 1F). These findings point to a wide heterogeneity of age-differential CpG methylation across immune blood cells and suggest that studies in PBMC poorly represents the changes that take place in specific cell types with aging.

Shared age associated methylation across cell types

Only 181 age-associated hypomethylated sites and 169 hypermethylated sites were shared between all 6 cell types. These numbers increased to 776 (age-hypomethylated) and 404 (age-hypermethylated) sites in 5 or more cell types (Figures 1C-D). Thus, most age-related methylation changes are cell-specific. Of note, only 10 of the sites overlap with the 359 CpGs in Horvath's pan-tissue epigenetic clock (19). Several reasons can be attributed to this poor overlap including i) use of methylation array with about 21369 CpGs for development of the clock in contrast to the analyses in this study based on ~850,000 CpG sites ii) use of data from peripheral or whole blood for development these clocks in contrast to data from flow-sorted circulating immune cells in this study. While the number of shared age-hypo or hypermethylated CpGs across cells was relatively small, it was significantly much higher than that expected based on chance

alone, suggesting that common underlying epigenetic mechanisms exist across the considered cell types (Figures 1C & D). For example, CpG sites adjacent to *RCAN1* (calcineurin 1) and *KLF14* (Krüppel-Like Factor 14) show similar age-associated patterns in all cell types (Figures 1E and F).

Next, we wanted to investigate whether the top age-associated genes are the ones which are shared across cell types. For this we arranged the age-associated probes with decreasing order of adjusted p-value and looked at the annotated genes to identify the top 15 genes in each cell type (Figures 2A and B and Figure 2- figure supplements 2A-E and Supplementary File 5). *THSD4* and *CCDC102B* were the most significant age-associated hypomethylated genes shared by 5 or more cell types, while *ELOVL2*, *KLF14*, *LHFP14* and *GPR158* were among the most significant age-hypermethylated genes in 5 or more cell types. This count increased to 5 and 13 genes respectively when the list was expanded to 50 top genes (Supplementary File 5). It is noteworthy that only 13-15% of these “top” age-associated probes overlapped with the list of age-associated probes shared across cell types (181 hypomethylated and 169 hypermethylated probes). These findings suggest that most CpGs with age-associated methylation consistent across cell types undergo moderate (although significant) methylation changes with aging.

Longitudinal validation of age-associated CpG sites

We hypothesized that the age-associated CpGs identified across the six immune cells in this cross-sectional study would also show longitudinal changes of the size and direction predicted. We used DNA methylation data (Illumina 450K microarray on DNA from buffy coats) assessed at baseline and 9- and 13-year follow-up in 699 participants

of the InCHIANTI study (20). Of the 181 hypo-methylated and 169 hypermethylated CpGs with age in all cell types in GESTALT, 72 and 135, respectively, were represented in the 450K microarray. The beta-coefficients for age of the 207 CpG probes (72+135) estimated from the GESTALT study and their corresponding values estimated longitudinally from the InCHIANTI study were highly and significantly correlated (hypomethylated with age CpGs: $r=0.49$, $p=1.2e-09$ and hypermethylated with age CpGs: $r=0.5$, $p=6.9e-06$ for average beta coefficients across 6 cell types, Figures 2C-D and Figure 2- figure supplement 2). Thus, CpGs identified as differentially methylated with aging across cell types in GESTALT also change longitudinally with aging.

Age-associated probes with opposite trends in different immune cells

Several CpGs showed significant but opposing age-trends in different cell types, especially in B, CD4⁺ T cells and monocytes (Figure 2- figure supplement 1F and 1G). For example, cg27123256 in the gene body of BCL11B was age-hypomethylated in non-T cells and significantly age-hypermethylated in naïve CD4⁺ T cells (Figure 2E). Our observations implicate BCL11B in aging-related changes in naïve CD4⁺ T cell function, distinct from its proposed role in effector cells (14, 21, 22). Conversely, cg03530364 in the body of FAM19A1 gene was hypermethylated in non-T cells but age-hypomethylated in CD4⁺ T cells (Figure 2F). Of note, none of these CpGs were differentially age-methylated in PBMC. Thus, opposite age-methylation trends in specific cell types may cancel each other and obscure their relevance for aging when mixed cell type samples are assessed.

Pathway analysis of age-associated genes

Gene set enrichment analyses were performed on genes associated with at least one CpG significantly age-hypo or hypermethylated in 5 or more cell types. We identified 30 pathways ($q\text{-value} < 0.05$) (Figure 3 and Supplementary File 6). Probes commonly age-hypomethylated in 5 or more cell types ($n=776$) pointed to genes enriched in collagen biosynthesis, complement cascade and GTPase pathways (left-most column in bottom panel of Figure 3) that highlighted inflammatory and metabolic pathway in aging. Genes associated with shared age-hypermethylated probes ($n=404$) were enriched for neural pathways previously implicated to brain aging along with G-Protein Coupled Receptors pathways (23, 24) (left-most column in top panel of Figure 3). A recent study by Karagiannis et.al also identified neuronal genes in their PBMC aging data emphasizing a possible interlink between immune-aging and neuronal pathways (25). Other key pathways are highlighted, with associated genes displayed in boxes on the right-hand side.

Functional annotation of age-associated probes

To further interrogate the relationships between DNA methylation and other epigenetic states, we mapped the methylation age-associated sites to cell-specific chromHMM-derived chromatin profiles (26). As controls, we annotated all sites in the EPIC array to the 18-state chromHMM model of respective primary cell type. Granulocytes were excluded from this analysis because reference data were not available.

Age-associated hypomethylated CpGs were significantly enriched for weak/active enhancers (yellow bar, Figure 4A) whereas, confirming previous reports, age-hypermethylated CpGs, were enriched in bivalent/polycomb regions compared to

control set (brown and dark grey bars respectively in Figure 4A). Results for cell type-specific analyses are shown in Figure 4B.

We further mapped the profile of four epigenetic markers from the ENCODE project in and around (\pm 3kb) age-associated methylation sites. For B and CD4⁺ T cells, we observed a V-shaped peak-valley-peak pattern of DNase hypersensitivity at sites of age-associated hypomethylation, which is characteristic of promoter sites (Figure 4C) (27). Both age-associated hypo- and hypermethylated sites showed evident H3K4me1 peaks, a marker commonly associated with active and primed enhancers (Figure 4C) (28). No specific trend was observed for H3K4me3 and H3K27ac (Figure 4- figure supplement 1). These patterns were highly consistent across cell types (Figure 4- figure supplement 1) and strongly suggest a functional connection between methylation and chromatin status. However, as the DHS and histone data in the ENCODE database was only available for either one of 2 donors (a 21-year-old male and 37-year-old female), we could not verify whether the patterns observed are stable with change in age.

Pattern of transcription factor binding motifs around age-associated CpGs.

Specific transcription factors (TF) binding may induce loss of DNA methylation or bind DNA that is methylated (29, 30). Through our *de-novo* HOMER analysis, we looked for transcription factor binding motifs in a 200bp window around the age-associated methylated sites in each cell type. We observed that the binding motif for aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator (ARNT, also named HIF1 β) was associated with age-hypomethylated CpGs across most cell types (Figure 5A). The only exception was naïve CD8⁺ T cells where the top enriched motif was B-cell lymphoma gene 6 (BCL6). BCL6 code for a zinc finger transcription factor that plays a critical role in the

209 generation of memory and effector cells in acute infection (31). Another motif associated
210 with age-hypomethylated CpGs across most cell types was chromatin architectural
211 protein CTCF and its closely related gene BORIS. Methylation changes at CTCF sites
212 have been reported to reflect large scale genome reorganization in immune cells in
213 older individuals (32, 33).

214 Repressor Element 1-Silencing Transcription Factor (REST) was the TF motifs most
215 frequently associated with age-hypermethylated CpGs in 5 of 6 cell types (Figure 5B).
216 Age-hypermethylated sites in PBMCs have been previously shown to be enriched for
217 *REST*, which is known to repress stress response genes and is lost in cognitive
218 impairment and Alzheimer's disease pathology (34, 35). The top enriched TF motif
219 associated with age-hypermethylated sites in monocytes was Arid5A ($p < 10^{-27}$) that
220 binds to selective inflammation-related genes, such as IL6 and STAT3 and stabilize
221 their expression (36, 37). We further repeated the analysis with a smaller 50bp window
222 size for TF motif search. Motifs for ARNT, CTCF and REST remained the top hits in
223 most cell types (Supplementary File 7). However, BCL6 and ARID5A were no longer the
224 top motifs in the search indicating that motifs for these TFs appear to be farther from the
225 age-associated CpG sites.

226 The recurring enrichment of *ARNT* and *REST* with age-associated CpGs observed
227 across multiple cell types, despite relatively few shared genomic region locations,
228 suggests a common mechanism of gene regulation. We found that only 17 and 44 age-
229 associated hypo- and hypermethylated probes, respectively, shared ARNT or REST
230 motifs across all cells (Figure 5- figure supplements 1A-B), suggesting these overlaps
231 are not random and have a specific function (Figure 5- figure supplements 1A-B).

Remarkably, ARNT was significantly overexpressed in older age in three of the six cell types and REST showed a significant decrease of expression with age in most cell types (Supplementary Files 8 and 9). These findings suggest that age-associated changes in expression levels of REST and ARNT can affect the epigenetic status of their target genes.

Age-related differential methylation and oxygen sensing.

ARNT, REST and BCL6, three transcription factors most associated with differentially methylated regions, are implicated in hypoxia response (Figure 5C). ARNT is the beta subunit of Hypoxia Factor 1 (HIF-1), which is stabilized during hypoxia and shuttled to the nucleus where it binds to DNA hypoxia response elements (HRE) and triggers a complex response that include upregulation of angiogenesis and erythropoiesis and reprogramming of energetic metabolism from oxidative phosphorylation to anaerobic glycolysis (38). Hypoxia also upregulates the transcription of REST which is the master regulator of the transcriptional repression arm of the response to hypoxia. Released REST is shuttled to the nucleus where it binds to DNA and regulates approximately 20% of the hypoxia-repressed genes, including genes involved in proliferation, translation, and cell cycle progression. We identified 35 genes that were hypomethylated with aging and had close by an ARNT motif in all six cell types (Supplementary File 10). Ten of these genes (right side of Figure 5C, genes under orange headings) have been linked to hypoxia response (39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48). Similarly, we found 26 genes with probes hypermethylated with age and with REST motif in the vicinity in all six cell types (Supplementary File 10). Four of these (right side of Figure 5C, genes under green heading) are known to be downregulated in

hypoxia (49, 50, 51, 52). These results strongly suggest a link between age-associated DNA methylation and oxygen sensing through putative regulation by transcription factors like *ARNT* and *REST* in the various immune cells.

Association with inflammatory cytokines

Low-grade inflammation has been reported to be part of healthy aging. In order to investigate whether age-related pro-inflammatory state may explain the age-related changes in methylation observed in this study, we analyzed the SomaScan protein data of seven pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL6, IL1RN, IL1A, IL1B, TNF, TNFRSF1A, TNFRSF1B) for the same cohort of donors from Tanaka et.al (53). For each cell type, all CpGs reported as significantly hypo- or hyper-methylated with age (in beta-regression analyses adjusted for sex) were reanalyzed by incorporating data on seven pro-inflammatory cytokines (see Materials and Methods for details). Briefly, by comparing a model with a cytokine as explanatory variable (CpG ~ age + sex + cytokine) with another model without it (CpG ~ age + sex), we explored the robustness of age as an explanatory variable of methylation change, as well as possible mediating effects arising from pro-inflammatory cytokines. Detailed results are provided in (https://osf.io/rxw6h/?view_only=82748aad8a6949baae0437b6d9f47681) and summary statistics for each cell type, hypo/hyper-methylation association and pro-inflammatory cytokine are provided in Supplementary File 11. By comparing the results from the two above mentioned regression models, we observed in case of hypermethylated sites in CD4 cells, the number of CpGs dropped by 10% on adding TNFRSF1A to the model, a cytokine that appears significantly associated with 7507 of those CpGs (Column I). In addition, TNFRSF1B appears significantly associated with 9,058 of the age-

278 hypermethylated CpG sites in CD4 cells. For other cell types like B naïve and
279 monocytes, TNF-alpha was associated with 65-124 age-associated CpG sites
280 respectively. Fewer associations are observed for the remaining analytes. These results
281 suggest a possible link between TNF-alpha signaling pathway, aging and DNA
282 methylation change in circulating immune cells.

283 **DISCUSSION**

284 Novel and important conclusions arise from our observations. First, only few CpG sites
285 are hypomethylated and hypermethylated with aging across all circulating cells while
286 majority of the significant age-associated methylation changes are cell-selective.
287 Indeed, several CpGs show differential age-methylation in opposite directions in
288 different cell types and are unchanged in PBMC, suggesting that they may be missed
289 when studying mixed cell samples. Noteworthy, age-related methylation differences in
290 this cross-sectional study were strongly and significantly correlated with longitudinal
291 age-associated methylation changes in an independent population.

292 Second, age-associated hypomethylated sites were significantly enriched for active
293 enhancers whereas age-hypermethylated sites were enriched for bivalent/polycomb
294 regions, confirming previous findings in whole blood (34). Age-differential methylation
295 coincided with specific chromatin status and histone markers patterns, suggesting that
296 their position in proximity of promoter and active enhancer regions is connected with
297 chromatic accessibility and potentially modulation of gene expression. Since the
298 ENCODE data was only from 2 donors, it will be worthwhile to see how the histone or
299 chromatin accessibility patterns change with age at and around these age-associated
300 CpG sites.

Third, distinct TF binding motifs co-localize with CpGs differentially methylated with aging despite wide variation in the distribution of such sites across cell types, suggesting a specific regulatory function. Noteworthy, the top age-associated TF identified, *ARNT* and *REST* act in coordination in hypoxia response (54). *BCL6*, another top TF binding motif associated with age-differentially methylated CpG has also been shown to protect cardiomyocyte from damage during hypoxia (55). These findings support the hypothesis that systematic methylation changes with aging may be induced by fluctuations in oxygen availability and energy metabolism. Interestingly, the mRNA encoding *ARNT* significantly increases with age in all cell types except monocytes, while mRNA coding for *REST* declines with aging in 4 cell types and shows no significant change in naïve CD8⁺ T cells and NK cells. mRNAs coding for *CTCF* showed strong age-association across numerous cell types (Supplementary File 8). The hypothesis that oxygen sensing regulates directly or indirectly DNA methylations is consistent with studies showing that in replicating fibroblasts, biological age estimated by DNA methylation slows down under hypoxia compared to normoxia (56). Further, many genes close by to “shared” age-differentially methylated CpG identified in our analyses play important roles in hypoxia response (Figure 5C).

The specific mechanisms connecting age-related changes in DNA methylation in genes which also contain binding motifs the master hypoxia-response mediators remain unknown. Shahrzad al. reported an inverse correlation between the severity of hypoxia and the degree of DNA methylation (57). There is evidence that hypoxia-induced hypermethylation may be due to reduced TETs activity (58). Our findings add to this literature by suggesting that a direct interaction between hypoxia-related transcription

factors and DNA methylation at specific DNA sites occur with aging, perhaps as an adaptive response triggered by fluctuations in oxygen levels that occur in many age-related conditions. This hypothesis is consistent with oxygen availability been the most important environmental factor that requires physiological adaptation during pregnancy and development and extends this concept in a life course perspective.

A limitation of this study is that we have focused on circulating cells and, therefore, our findings may not apply to age-methylation in other tissues. In addition, our findings were not replicated in an independent cross-sectional study population. Despite these limitations, this study has unique features: a cohort of exceptionally healthy donors and percent methylation was assessed in specific cell types obtained by cytopheresis and sorted by using state-of-the art methods.

CONCLUSION

Age-associated DNA methylation profiles of the six purified primary immune cell populations in the blood show more cell-specificity than sharedness. However, we observe common regulatory features with respect to transcription factor binding motifs and histone modifications. Based on the consistent association of these methylated sites with ARNT and REST, which are master hypoxia regulators, we hypothesize that oxygen sensing and hypoxia drive mechanisms for changes in methylation. This hypothesis should be further explored in animal models with manipulation of oxygen levels and serial measures of DNA methylation in circulating immune cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Ethics statement

GESTALT study was approved by the institutional review board of the National Institutes of Health. Informed consent as well as the consent to publish the data collected was obtained from every participant in the study. Since the study of gene expression and epigenetic regulation are essential aims of GESTALT, all participants were required to consent to DNA/RNA testing and storage at all visits in order to participate in the study. The GESTALT IRB approval number is 15-AG-0063.

Cohort details

Buffy coat, peripheral blood cells (PBMC) and granulocytes were collected from Genetic and Epigenetic Signatures of Translational Aging Laboratory Testing study (GESTALT) study participants (N=55; 34 men and 21 women; age 22-83 years) who were free of diseases (except controlled hypertension or history of cancer silent for > 10 years), not on medications (except one antihypertensive drug), had no physical or cognitive impairments, non-smokers, weighed > 110 lbs, had BMI < 30 kg/m² (59) (60). GESTALT was approved by the institutional review board of the National Institutes of Health and participants explicitly consented to participate.

Isolation of PBMC and immune cell populations

PBMCs were isolated from cytappheresis packs by density gradient centrifugation using Ficoll-Paque Plus. Total B, CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells were enriched by negative selection using EasySep Negative Human kits specific for each cell type; monocytes were negatively enriched using “EasySep Human Monocyte Enrichment Kit w/o CD16 depletion”. Natural killer cells were negatively enriched by depleting PBMCs with antibodies against CD3, CD4, CD14, CD19 and Glycophorin-A in HBSS buffer.

368 Enriched cell populations were FACS sorted by flow cytometry as per Human
369 Immunophenotyping Consortium (HIPC) phenotyping panels (61). Gating strategies
370 and post-sort purity were analyzed by FlowJo software (LLC, Ashland, OR)(59).
371 Granulocytes were positively selected from whole blood using EasySep™ Human
372 Whole Blood CD66b Positive Selection Kit. Purified cells and PBMC were washed with
373 PBS, snap frozen and stored at -80° C. All sorted cells were >95% pure by flow
374 cytometry (59).

375 Assessment of DNA methylation

376 DNA was isolated from 1–2 million cells using DNAQuik DNA Extraction protocol and
377 the Qiagen DNeasy Kit. 300 ng of DNA was treated with sodium bisulfite using Zymo
378 EZ-96 DNA Methylation Kit. The methylation of ~850,000 CpG sites was determined
379 using Illumina Human MethylationEPIC BeadChip, and data preanalyzed by
380 GenomeStudio 2011.1.

381 Data processing and functional annotation of CpG sites

382 Analyses was performed by the R minfi package (62, 63). Probes with low detection p-
383 values (cutoff 0.01) were filtered out(64). Data was normalized using noob and
384 BMIQ(65), batch corrected by ComBat function (sva package), and β values were used
385 for differential methylation analyses. Following the MethylationEPIC probe annotation
386 (IlluminaHumanMethylationEPICanno-ilm10b2.hg19) to the UCSC RefSeq genes
387 (hg19), we grouped the locations into 3 categories - 1) promoter group- TSS1500 (from
388 201-1500 bp upstream of TSS), TSS 200 (≤ 200 bp upstream of TSS), 5'UTR, first exon;
389 2) genebody- exons (all exons except exon1), exon intron boundary, intron and 3'UTR

and 3) intergenic probes. The first gene in the annotation package was considered. Probes were divided into 3 groups-within CpG islands (CGI), within CpG shore (0-2kb from CGI), CpG shelf (2-4kb from CGI) and open sea (>4kb from CGI).

Definition of age-associated probes

Age and sex adjusted CpG-specific beta regressions were performed on normalized β values using the R *betareg* function. P-values were adjusted for multiple testing (Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) adjusted $p < 0.05$). Probes with FDR $p < 0.05$ for age and FDR $p > 0.05$ for sex were considered age-differentially methylated CpGs. Beta-regression estimate value was used to group the age-associated probes as hypo- ($\text{Estimate}_{\text{age}} < 0$) or hypermethylated ($\text{Estimate}_{\text{age}} > 0$). The overlap of probes across multiple combinations of the six cell types was assessed using R package SuperExactTest (v.1.1.0) (66).

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA)

Based on the EPICarray annotation, genes were classified as differentially hypo- or hyper-methylated with age. Genes with both age hypo- and hyper-methylated CpGs were removed from the analysis. Enrichment analysis was performed by the tmodHGtest method in the tmod v.0.46.2 R package, comparing a foreground list of genes found in ≥ 5 cell types against reference gene set collections “Hallmarks” and “Canonical Pathways” (which includes Reactome, KEGG, WikiPathways, PID, and Biocarta gene sets) from the Molecular Signature Database MSigDB (v.7.4) (67).

For the gene enrichment analysis of the principal components, the top 500 CpG probes corresponding to the positive and negative directions along PC1, PC2 and PC3 were

extracted and annotated to nearest gene as per manufacturer's annotation file. The ambiguous genes with probes associated with both positive and negative PC directions were removed from the analysis. The remaining genes were run through the abovementioned enrichment analysis pipeline. A filter based on $q\text{-value} < 0.05$ was imposed to find the most significant pathways.

Visualization of histone peaks and DHS peaks

Primary cell DHS and chromatin ChIP-Seq bigwig files were downloaded from ENCODE (<https://www.encodeproject.org/>) (59). DeepTools was used to visualize DHS and histone peaks in +3kb region surrounding age-associated shared and non-shared methylated sites. For plotting purposes, the order of methylated probes was determined based on descending score of DHS peaks and followed for all histone marks (H3K4me1, H3K4me3 and H3K27ac).

Annotation of age-associated methylated probes using chromHMM

The 18-state chromHMM models (based on 6 chromatin marks H3K4me3, H3K4me1, H3K36me3, H3K27me3, H3K9me3 and H3K27ac) for various immune cells (E032- primary B cell, E038- primary naïve CD4⁺ T cells, E047- primary naïve CD8⁺ T cells, E029- monocyte, E046- NK cell) were downloaded from Roadmap epigenomics project (https://egg2.wustl.edu/roadmap/web_portal/chr_state_learning.html). Bedops tool was used to map the age-associated methylated sites to the respective chromHMM profiles. All Infinium MethylationEPIC array probes were also partitioned using each of the immune cell chromHMM profiles as controls.

Prediction of de-novo transcription factor binding motifs by HOMER

All the age-associated methylation sites were considered for HOMER analysis. A region of ± 200 bp around each age-associated methylated site was provided as input for analysis in HOMER using de novo setting (68). As a background we used the default background list that HOMER creates by matching the GC% in the input list. The output from the stringent de-novo analysis was considered for downstream data interpretation.

InCHIANTI longitudinal study cohort

InCHIANTI (Invecchiare in Chianti) is a population-based cohort of individuals ≥ 20 years old from the Chianti region of Tuscany, Italy (PMID: 11129752). The Italian National Institute of Research and Care on Aging Institutional Review Board approved the study protocol and all participants explicitly consented to participate. DNA methylation from 699 participants (1841 observations) was used for the analysis. CpG methylation of 485,577 CpGs was determined by the Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChip (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA) and data processed by the R package “sesame”. Mean rates of change were estimated from 2-3 longitudinal timepoints.

RNA-Seq sample extraction, processing and data analysis

Total RNA was extracted from 2×10^6 cells, depleted from ribosomal RNA and 50ng was used for cDNA synthesis and library preparation. Libraries were sequenced for 138 cycles on Illumina HiSeq 2500. After adapter removal and end trimming of raw FASTQ files, transcript abundances were quantified with reference to hg19 transcriptome using kallisto 0.44 (with options --single -l 250 -s 25). Transcripts were aggregated to genes with tximport and filtered out if less than 10TPM were detected in more than 33% of the

samples. Linear regression models (\sim phase + age*sex) were used on TPM normalized expression values to study expression changes of selected transcription factors with age. Only the regression coefficient and p value for the 3 transcription factor genes- *ARNT*, *CTCF* and *REST* were used in this study.

Inflammatory cytokine analysis

Published SomaScan protein data from the same cohort of donors used in the present study was extracted to look for age-associated changes in seven cytokines (IL6, IL1RN, IL1A, IL1B, TNF, TNFRSF1A, TNFRSF1B) (53). Briefly, plasma proteomics was measured using the 1.3k SomaScan assay (SomaLogic, Boulder, CO) followed by standard quality control and normalization procedures as described in previous publications (69, 70). Normalized data for seven cytokines were extracted (detailed annotation provided in Table S10). To complement the age-association analysis of CpGs adjusted by sex (CpG \sim age + sex), we performed additional beta regression analyses separately including each target pro-inflammatory cytokine as an explanatory variable in the form: CpG \sim age + sex + cytokine. Details about the cytokines are provided in https://osf.io/rxw6h/?view_only=82748aad8a6949baae0437b6d9f47681.

Data sharing statement

Microarray data are available at GEO under accession number GSE184269.

Code sharing

Code and data processing scripts are available from the corresponding author upon request.

477

478 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

479 **Figure 1: Study design and identification of age-associated methylation probes** A)
480 Study design. B) Age-associated CpG methylation (FDR $p < 0.05$) in 6 cell types. C-D)
481 SuperExactTest circular plots to show the number of age-associated hypo- and hyper-
482 methylated probes shared among different combinations of cell types (indicated by
483 green boxes), respectively. The outermost bars show the number of probes shared
484 among each cell type combination (regardless of other cell types). For example, probes
485 hypomethylated with age in B + CD4 + CD8 + gran + mono ($n=222$) includes probes
486 also hypomethylated in NK cells ($n=181$) and probes not hypomethylated with age in NK
487 cells ($n=41$). Based on the exact probability distributions of multi-set intersections, all
488 the overlaps shown are highly statistically significant ($p < 10^{-100}$). E) Graphical
489 representation of age-associated hypomethylation in promoter region of RCAN1 in all 6
490 cell types. F) Graphical representation of age-associated hypermethylation in promoter
491 region of KLF14. The methylation status in PBMC and buffy coat are also shown.
492 Missing methylation data is represented in white.

493 **Figure 2: Characteristics of age-associated probes.** A-B) Manhattan plot of age-
494 associated hypo- and hypermethylated CpG sites in B cells respectively. Most
495 significant genic probes ($-\log \text{padj} > 10$) are labelled. C) Correlation between beta-
496 regression coefficients of age-differentially methylated CPGs in GESTALT and
497 longitudinal InCHIANTI study. X-axis- InCHIANTI, Y-axis- B cell (Figure 2C) and CD4⁺ T
498 cell coefficients (Figure 2D). Blue dots - age-hypomethylated CpGs, yellow triangles-
499 age-hypermethylated CpGs. E and F) Scatter plot of age-associated CpGs showing

opposite trends in different immune cells. E) cg27123256 (in BCL11B promoter) is hypomethylated with older age in B, monocytes and NK while is hypermethylated with older age in CD4⁺ T cells. F) cg03530364 (in FAM19A1 promoter) is hypermethylated with older age in B, granulocytes, monocytes and NK cells while it is hypomethylated with older age in CD4⁺ T cells.

Figure 3: Pathway analysis of methylated probes. Enrichment analysis of genes annotated to age-associated hypo- and hyper-methylated CpGs in ≥ 5 cell types (left-most column) and in individual cell types. Red/green shades indicate enrichment scores in hyper- (red) and hypo- (green) methylated genes. Yellow indicates ambiguous pathways associated with both hypo- and hyper-methylated genes in individual cell types. Not significant pathways are shown in grey. Full results in Supplementary File 5.

Figure 4: Functional annotation of age-associated probes along with their grouping based on sharedness. A) ChromHMM annotation of age-associated CpGs. B) Proportion of CpGs mapping to weak/active enhancers (left, orange box), bivalent enhancers/TSS (inset, brown box) and polycomb repressor regions (right, grey box) in age-associated hypo- (blue line), hypermethylated (red line) CpGs as compared to all MethylationEPIC CpGs (grey line). C) DeepTools plots showing the distribution of accessible chromatin (DNase hypersensitive sites) and H3K4me1 histone mark in and around ± 3 kb region of age-differentially methylated CpGs. The age-associated sites were divided into shared (blue) (common between 5 or more immune cells) and selective sites (green). The top row shows the pattern for age-associated hypomethylated CpGs while the bottom row is for the age-associated hypermethylated CpGs in B and CD4⁺ T cells.

Figure 5: Association of transcription factor binding motifs with age-differentially methylated CpGs. A) Top 5 TF motifs at and around (\pm 200bp) of CpG sites that are hypomethylated with age. All the age-hypomethylated sites were considered for the analysis in each cell type. Recurring motifs like ARNT and CTCF/BORIS are highlighted. B) Top 5 TF motifs at and around (\pm 200bp) CpG sites that are hypermethylated with age. All the age-hypermethylated sites were considered for the analysis in each cell type. Recurring motifs like REST and Sp100 are highlighted. C) Hypoxia-centric model of age-associated sites with ARNT and REST motifs. CpG sites hypomethylated with aging across 6 different cell types are significantly more likely to host binding motifs for ARNT, the core hub for the hypoxia response. On the contrary, CpG sites hypermethylated with aging are significantly more likely to host binding motifs for REST, a hypoxia response transcriptional repressor. On the right are selected age-associated genes that carry the motifs for ARNT or REST transcription factors.

LIST OF TABLES

Supplementary File 1: Demographic and flow cytometry marker details of the cohort. Details of the age and sex distribution of the healthy donors from the GESTALT study for each of the primary immune cell type population are described. The flow cytometry markers for cell selection are also mentioned.

Supplementary File 2: Pathway enrichment analysis of genes annotated to top 500 probes corresponding to PC1, PC2 and PC3 components of Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The top 500 CpG sites corresponding to PC1, PC2 and PC3 components were annotated to genes followed by gene enrichment analysis. Age-associated genes in each pathway are in column M.

Supplementary File 3: Distribution of slope for probes significantly changing with age in the immune cells. The age-associated probes were identified from beta regression (FDR $p < 0.05$).

Supplementary File 4: List of age-associated probes each of the six primary immune cells. Beta-regression coefficient, FDR p value and genomic annotation of the age-associated probes were identified from beta regression (FDR $p < 0.05$).

Supplementary File 5: List of top age-associated genes in the six immune cell types. The list of top 15 and top 50 age-associated hypo- and hypermethylated genes derived from the most significant age-associated probes in each cell type.

Supplementary File 6: Detailed output of Gene Set Enrichment Analysis. Gene Set Enrichment Analysis was performed on genes based on annotation of age-associated hypo- and hypermethylation probes commonly changing in 5 or more cell types.

Supplementary File 7: Top 5 transcription factor (TF) motifs within ± 50 bp of age-associated methylated sites. HOMER de-novo analysis was performed to identify the top 5 TF motifs within 50bp of age-associated hypo- and hypermethylated sites in each of the six cell types.

Supplementary File 8: Average read depths and kallisto TPM normalized read counts of ARNT, CTCF and REST for all the donors. RNASeq data was used to look into the gene expression change of three selected transcription factors (ARNT, CTCF and REST) with age. These transcription factor motifs are most commonly associated with the age-related methylated sites in all immune cells. The mapping rates along with

the Kallisto TPM normalized values for the 3 TFs for each cell type in each of the donors has been shown.

Supplementary File 9: Age-associated differences of transcripts for ARNT, REST and CTCF. FDR p-values derived from the linear regression of expression levels of the 3 TFs with age in each of the 6 cell types.

Supplementary File 10: List of genes with age-associated methylated CpG sites showing ARNT or REST motif within 1kb. The age-associated probes with ARNT or REST motifs within 1kb region were annotated to genes and summarized into a table. For each gene, number of age-associated CpG sites with ARNT/REST motif and number of cell types in which this occurrence has been observed have been mentioned.

Supplementary File 11: Output of beta regression analysis with age and sex and the seven analytes. Summary of two beta regression models have been tabularized. Column C shows the number of age-associated probes from the original model $\text{CpG} \sim \text{age} + \text{sex}$ with FDR cut-off of adjusted $p_{\text{age}} < 0.05$. Columns D-J shows the number of age-associated probes from the model $\text{CpG} \sim \text{age} + \text{sex} + \text{analyte}$ with FDR cut-off of adjusted $p_{\text{age}} < 0.05$ and adjusted $p_{\text{analyte}} < 0.05$. Finally, columns K-Q represent the number of age-associated probes from the model $\text{CpG} \sim \text{age} + \text{sex} + \text{analyte}$ with FDR cut-off of adjusted $p_{\text{analyte}} < 0.05$.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1- figure supplement 1: Characteristics of entire dataset and age-associated methylation data in 6 primary immune cells. A) PCA plot of normalized methylation data of six immune cells in the 55 healthy donors. The cell types are

589 indicated in different colors, while the three broad age groups (20-40, 40-60 and 60-90
590 years) are indicated in different shapes (PC1- principal component 1, PC2- principal
591 component 2). B) Distribution of beta-regression coefficient of the age-associated hypo-
592 and hypermethylated probes in all six immune cell types estimated this cross-sectional
593 study. Distribution of coefficient values categorized into groups is shown in
594 Supplementary File 2. C). Age-associated probes from independent sample t-test
595 analysis of young (≤ 35 years, 25th percentile) vs old (≥ 70 years, 75th percentile)
596 donors for each cell type. The pie charts on top show the extent of overlap with results
597 from the beta-regression analysis. D) Distribution of age-associated probes from beta
598 regression into groups based on distance from CpG islands (CGI) (Island- within CGI,
599 shore- within 2kb of CGI, shelf- 2-4kb of CGI, open sea- >4 kb from CGI). E) Distribution
600 of age-associated hypo- and hypermethylated probes with respect to location
601 (promoter-1500TSS to 1st exon, genebody-within exons, introns and 3'UTR). F and G)
602 Overlap of age-associated hypo- and hypermethylated probes in the 6 immune cell
603 types with those identified in PBMCs. The first bar indicates the number of age-
604 associated probes identified in PBMC. The following bars show the counts in the other
605 immune cells, the lighter portion of the bars show the number of probes that are shared
606 with PBMCs, and the darker portion indicates non-PBMC cell-specific probes. The
607 numbers above the bars show the log of odd's ratio and its 95% confidence interval to
608 represent the significance of the overlap between age-associated probes in each cell
609 type with PBMC. The p value from odd's ratio analysis is represented as ** as they were
610 all <0.01 .

Figure 2- figure supplement 1: Most significant age-associated CpGs in non-B immune cells along with CpGs showing opposite age-associated trends. A) Manhattan plot of age-associated CpGs in CD4⁺ T cells. The X-axis shows the distribution of significant CpGs (FDR p<0.05), and the Y-axis shows the associated negative log of the adjusted p value from beta regression. Positive axis comprises of probes hypermethylated with age while the negative axis shows age-associated hypomethylated probes. The top hits in each group with the most significant p-values are labelled where the orange dot present CpG probes in the gene promoter. B) Manhattan plot of age-associated probes in CD8⁺ T cells. C) Manhattan plot of age-associated probes in granulocytes. D) Manhattan plot of age-associated probes in NK cells. E) Manhattan plot of age-associated probes in monocytes. F) Count of probes hypomethylated with age in cell type of interest but showing hypermethylation in one or more other cell types. For example, 315 probes are age-hypomethylated in B cells but are significantly hypermethylated with age in one or more other immune cell types. Maximum number of such probes are observed in CD4⁺ T cells followed by B cells and monocytes. G) Count of probes hypermethylated with age in cell type of interest but showing hypomethylation in one or more other cell types. For example, 282 probes are hypermethylated in B cells but are significantly hypomethylated with age in one or more other immune cell types. Maximum number of such probes are observed in CD4⁺ T cells followed by B cells and monocytes.

Figure 2- figure supplement 2: Comparison of individual immune cells with InCHIANTI longitudinal study. A-B) Correlation between beta-regression coefficients of age-associated methylation probes in 5 or more cell types in study and beta-

regression coefficients estimated from longitudinal data in the InCHIANTI study. On the X-axis is the data from InCHIANTI longitudinal study cohort while on the Y-axis is cell-specific coefficient values for CD8⁺ T cells (top left), granulocytes (top right), monocytes (bottom left) and NK cells (bottom right). pink dots are the coefficients of the age-hypomethylated probes (Supplementary Figure 3A) while the blue dots are for age-hypermethylated probes (Supplementary Figure 3B).

Figure 4- figure supplement 1: Functional annotation of age-associated probes with respect to DHS and 3 other histone marks from ENCODE. Rows1-2-The functional annotation of age-associated probes in CD8, monocytes and NK cells with respect to DNase hypersensitivity sites and H3K4me1 peaks. Rows3-6- The functional annotation of age-associated probes in B, CD4, CD8, monocytes and NK cells with respect to H3K4me3 and H3K27ac peaks. Age-associated hypo- or hypermethylated probes were grouped into shared (blue) and selective (green) based on whether they were common across 5 or more of the 6 cell types or not. A region of 3kb of either side of the CpG probes of interest was examined. The DHS and histone bigwig files for the 5 primary cells were obtained from ENCODE. Granulocyte data was not available and hence could not be examined.

Figure 5- figure supplement 1: Count of age-associated hypo- or hypermethylated probes with ARNT or REST motifs within 1kb respectively. ARNT and REST were the top TF motifs associated respectively with all hypo- and hypermethylated age-associated probes in most cell types. To verify whether the same set of probes were present in each cell type with the ARNT(A) or REST(B) motifs, HOMER was used to find the probes that have an ARNT or REST motif within \pm 500bp. The SuperExact test

based circular plots shows the overlap between the different cell types (relevant cell types are indicated in green boxes in the inner circles for each combination). The numbers above the outermost bars indicate the count of probes that have ARNT or REST motifs across various combinations of cells while the color of the outermost bars in the plot indicate the log transformed p values obtained from hypergeometric test to check whether the overlap is significant or not.

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Conflict of interest disclosure

The authors have no conflict of interest to disclose.

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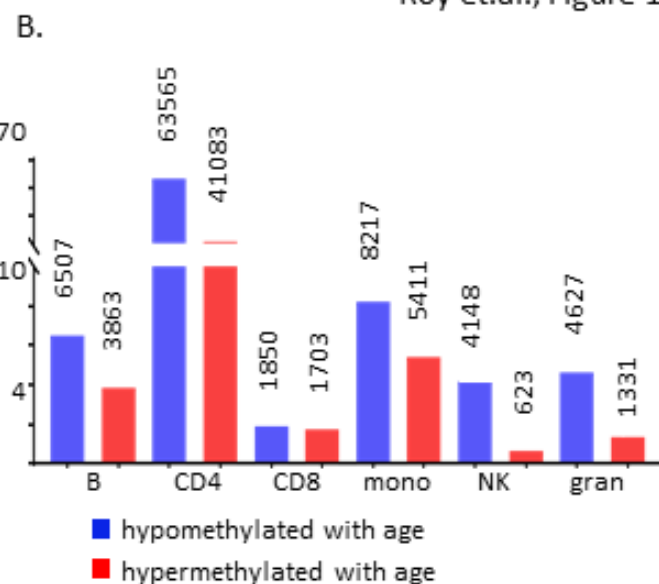
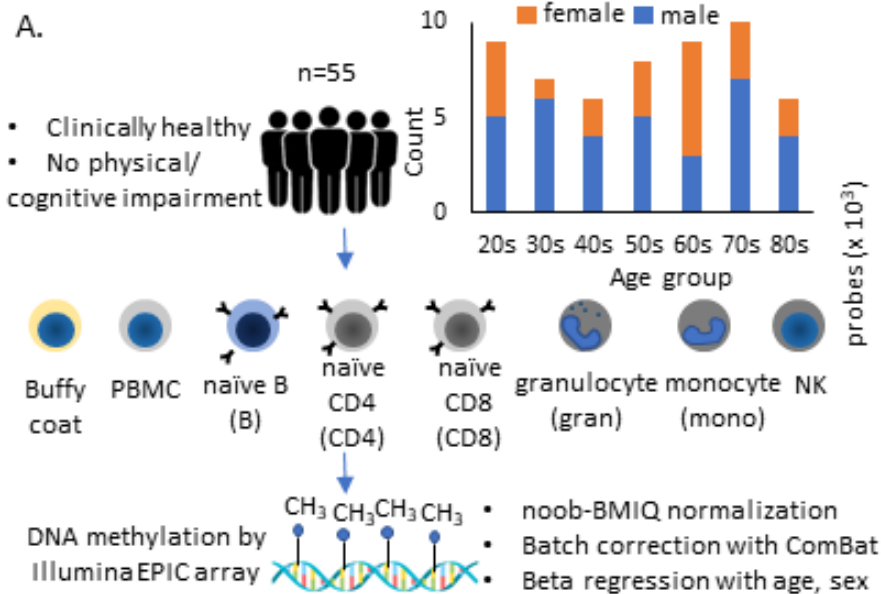
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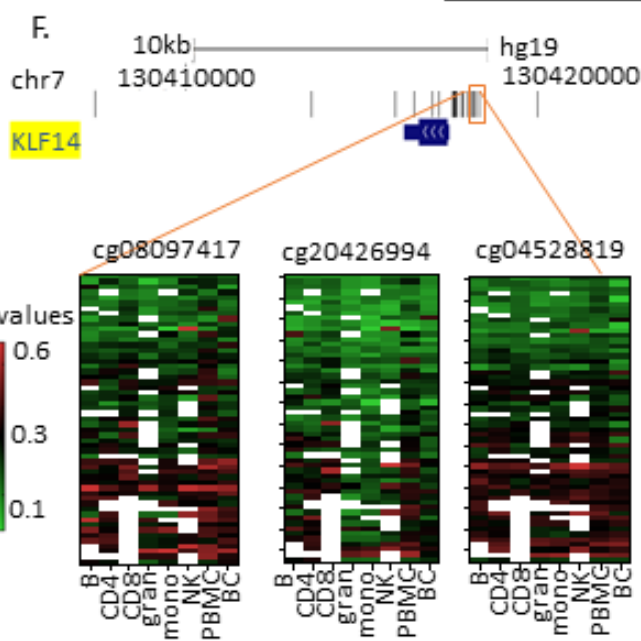
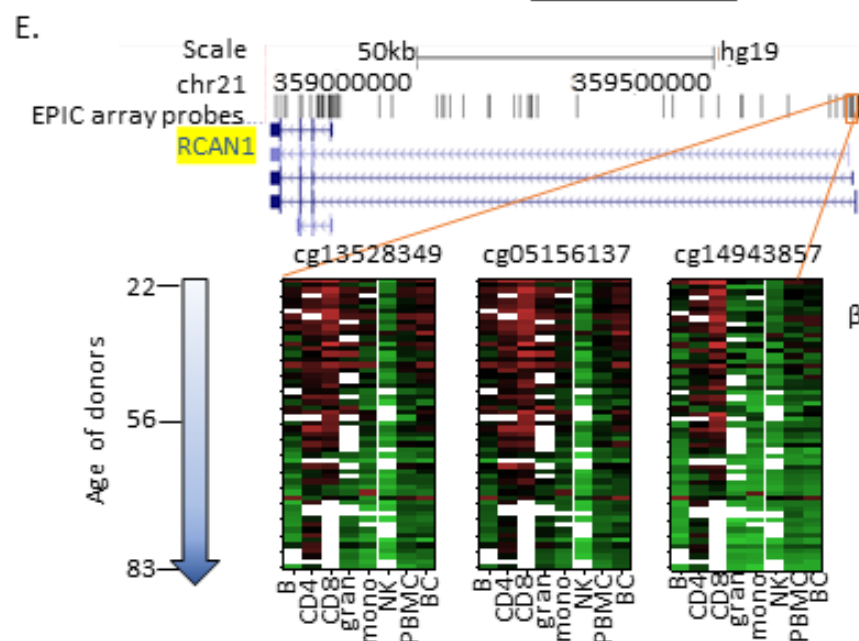
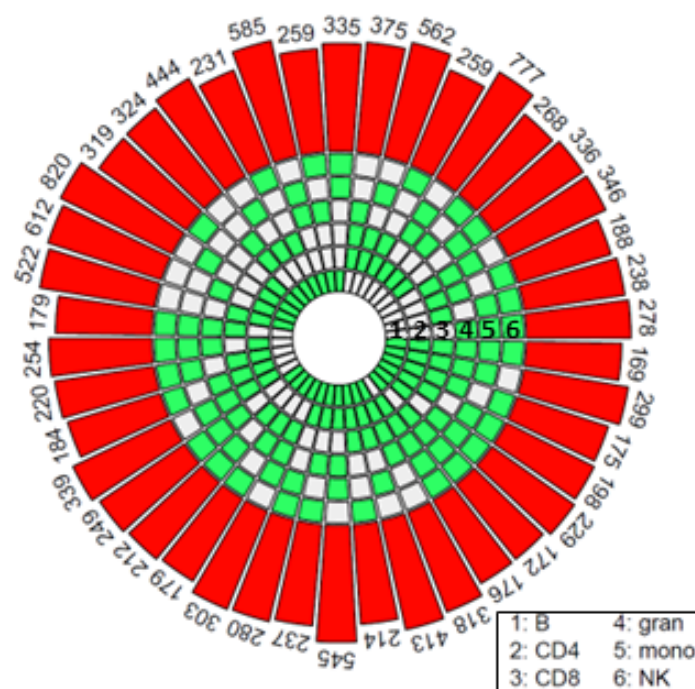
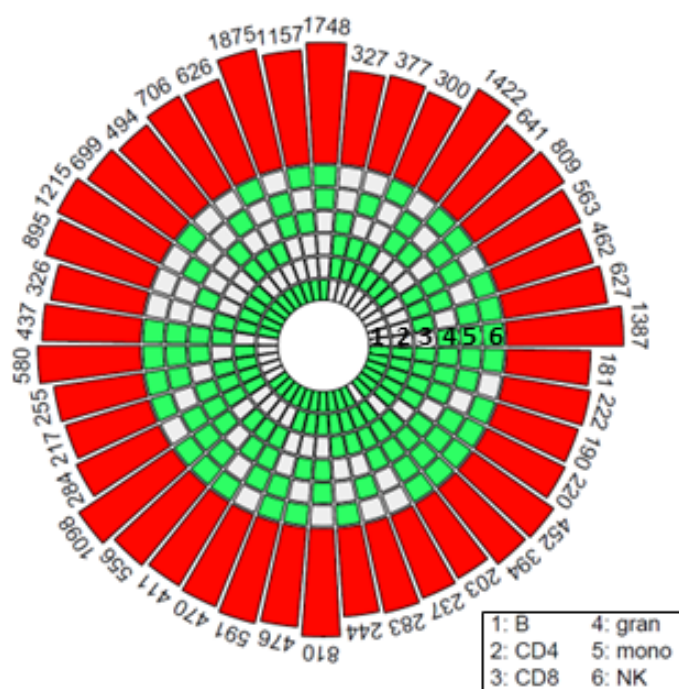
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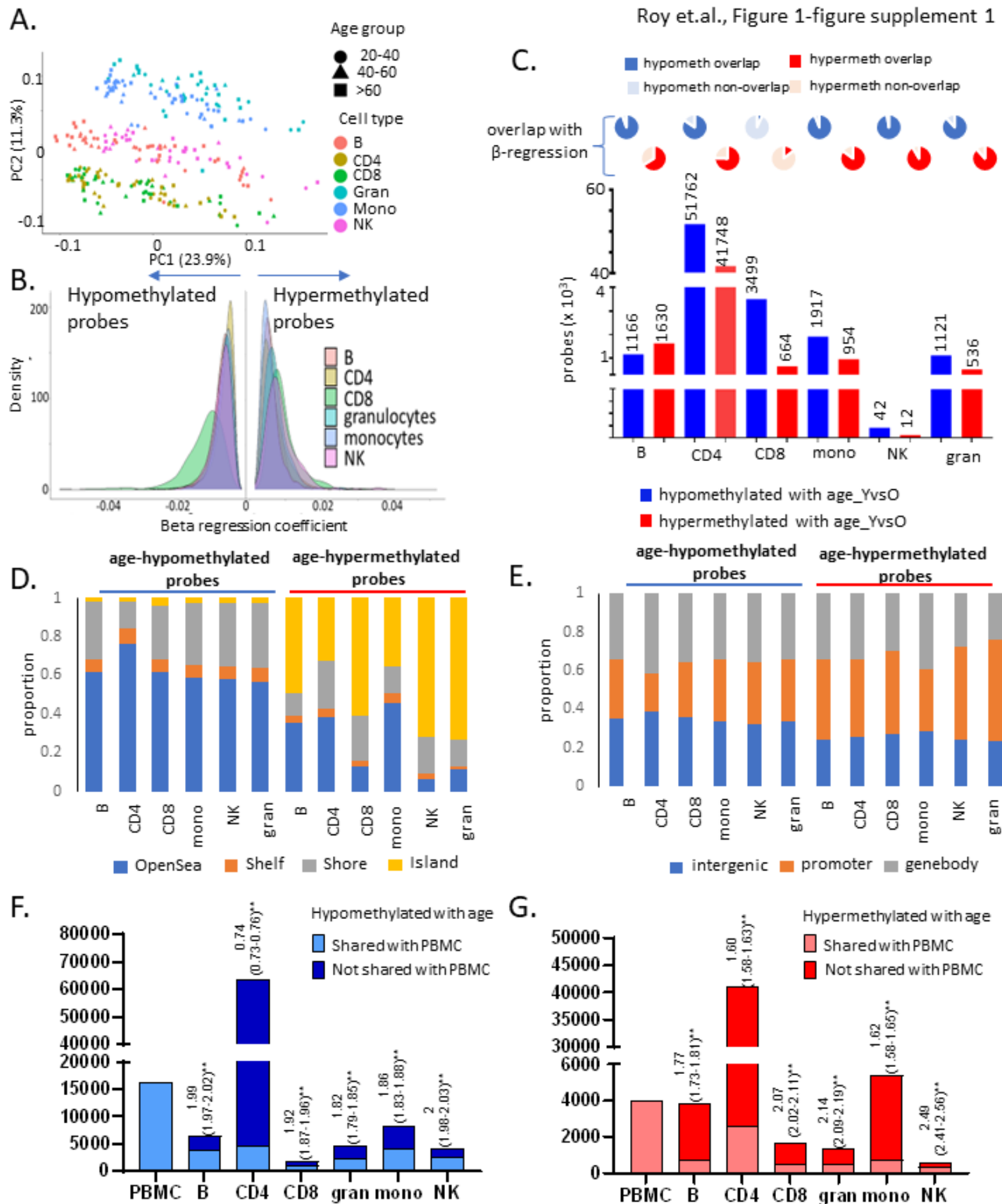
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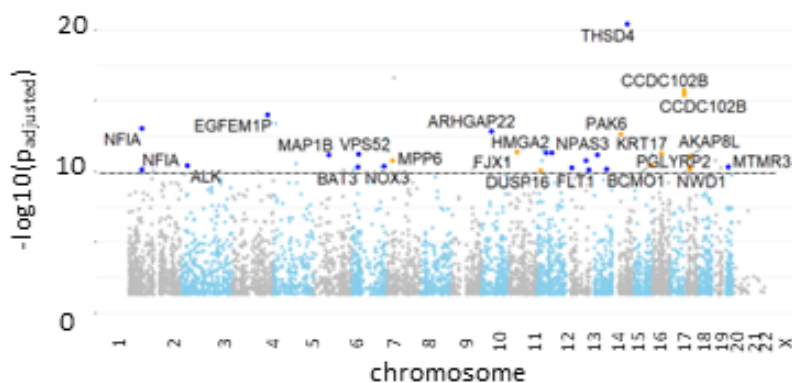
C. hypomethylated with age

D. hypermethylated with age

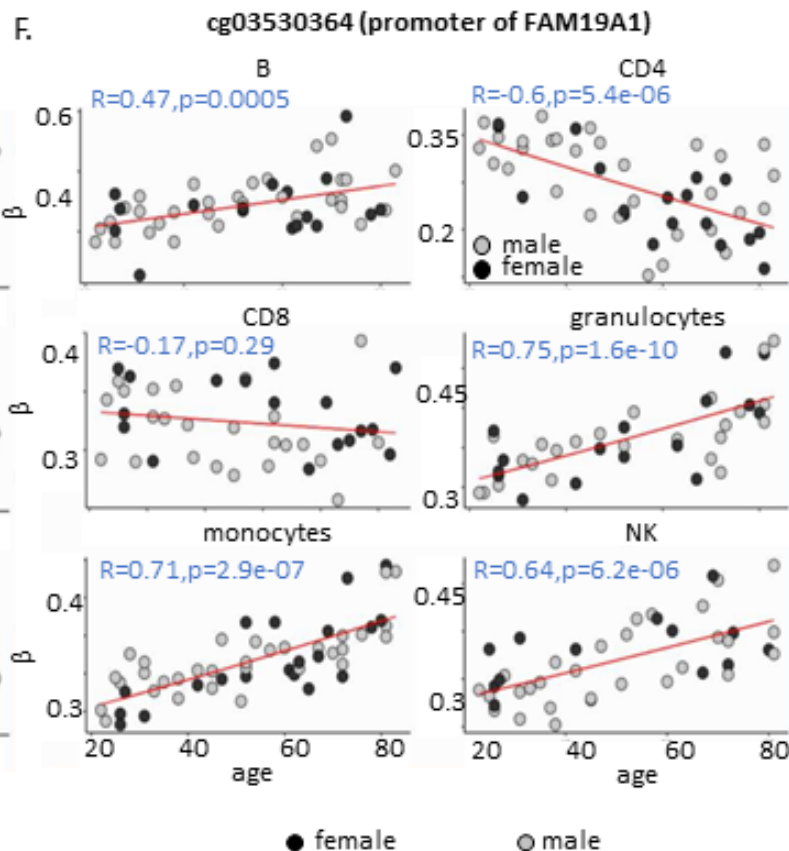
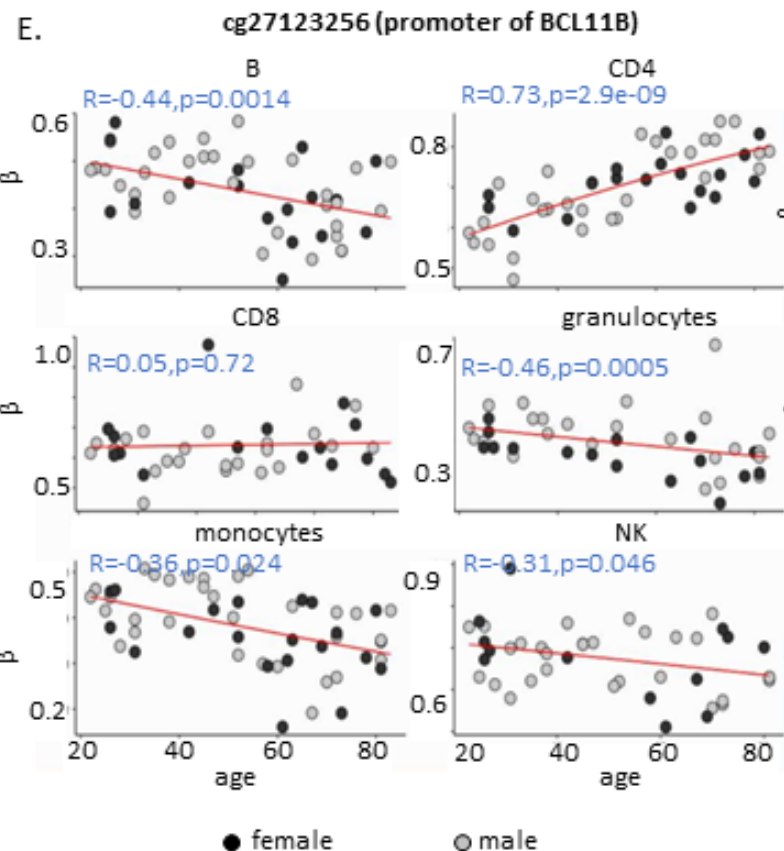
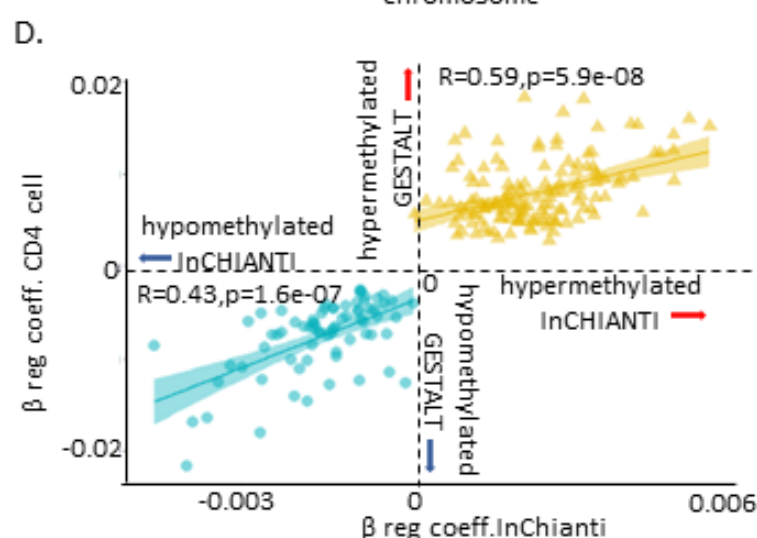
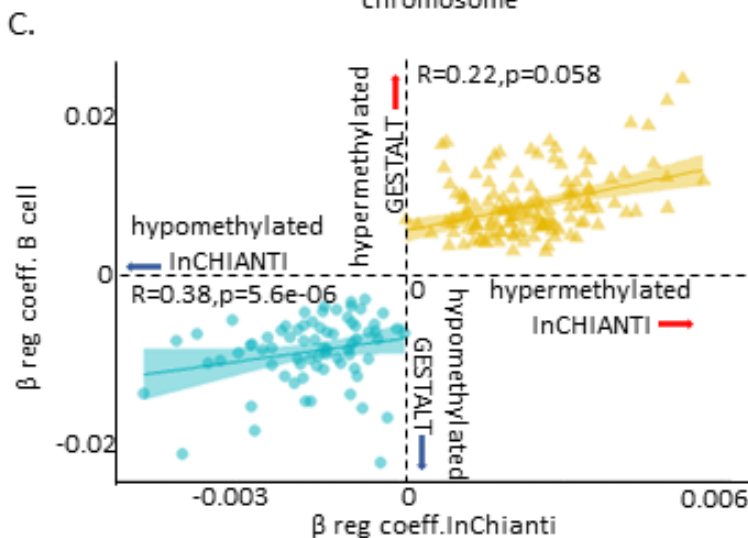
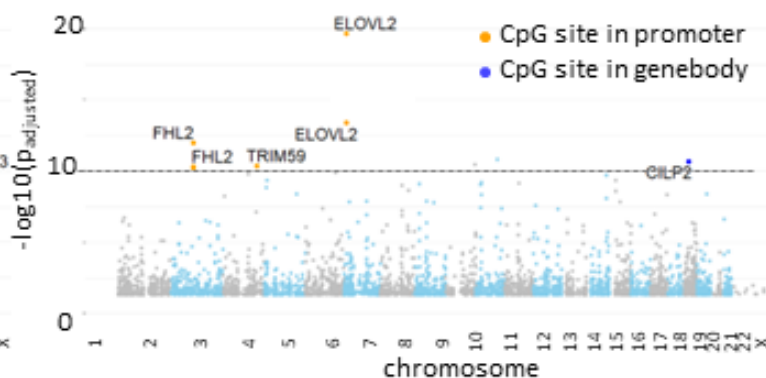


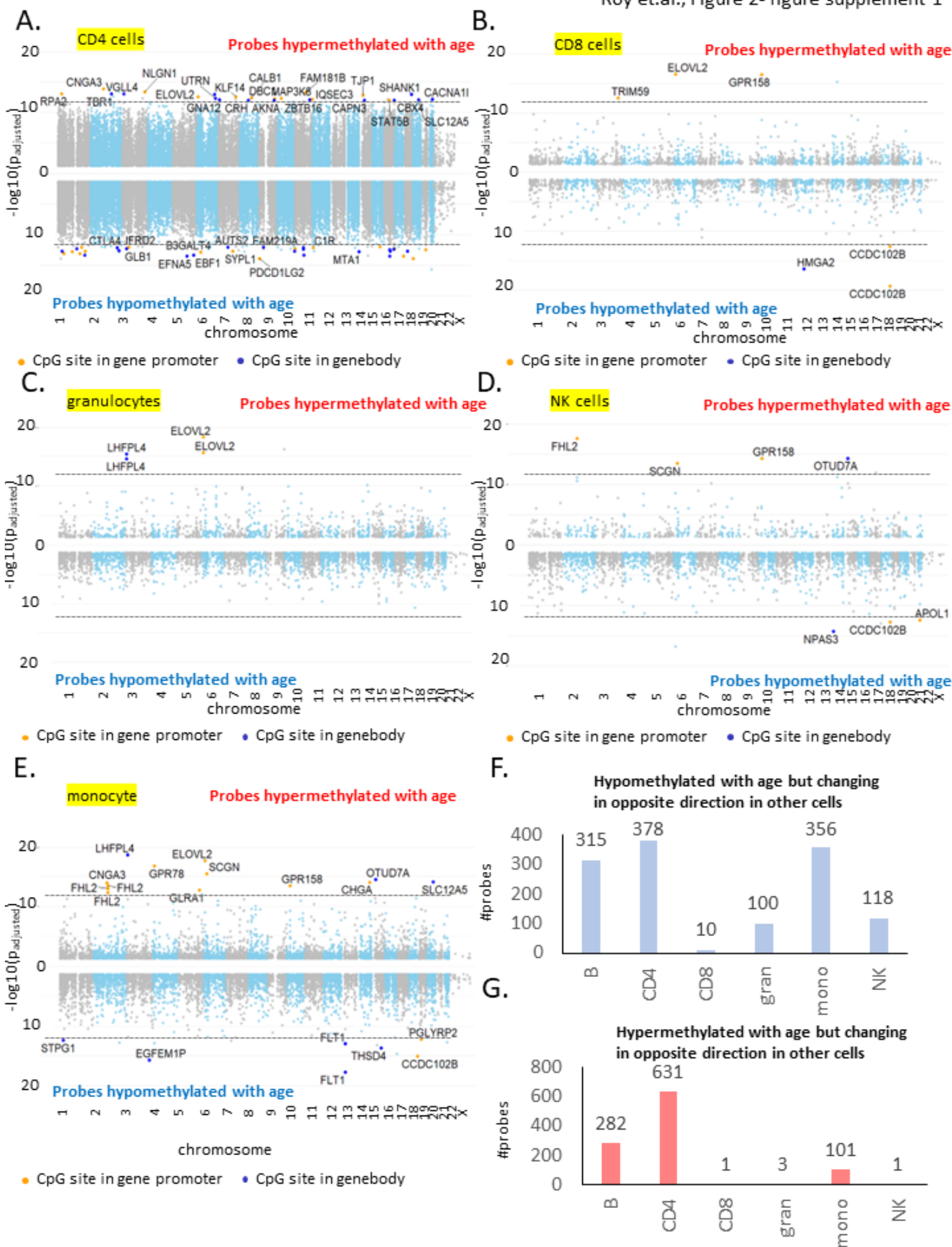


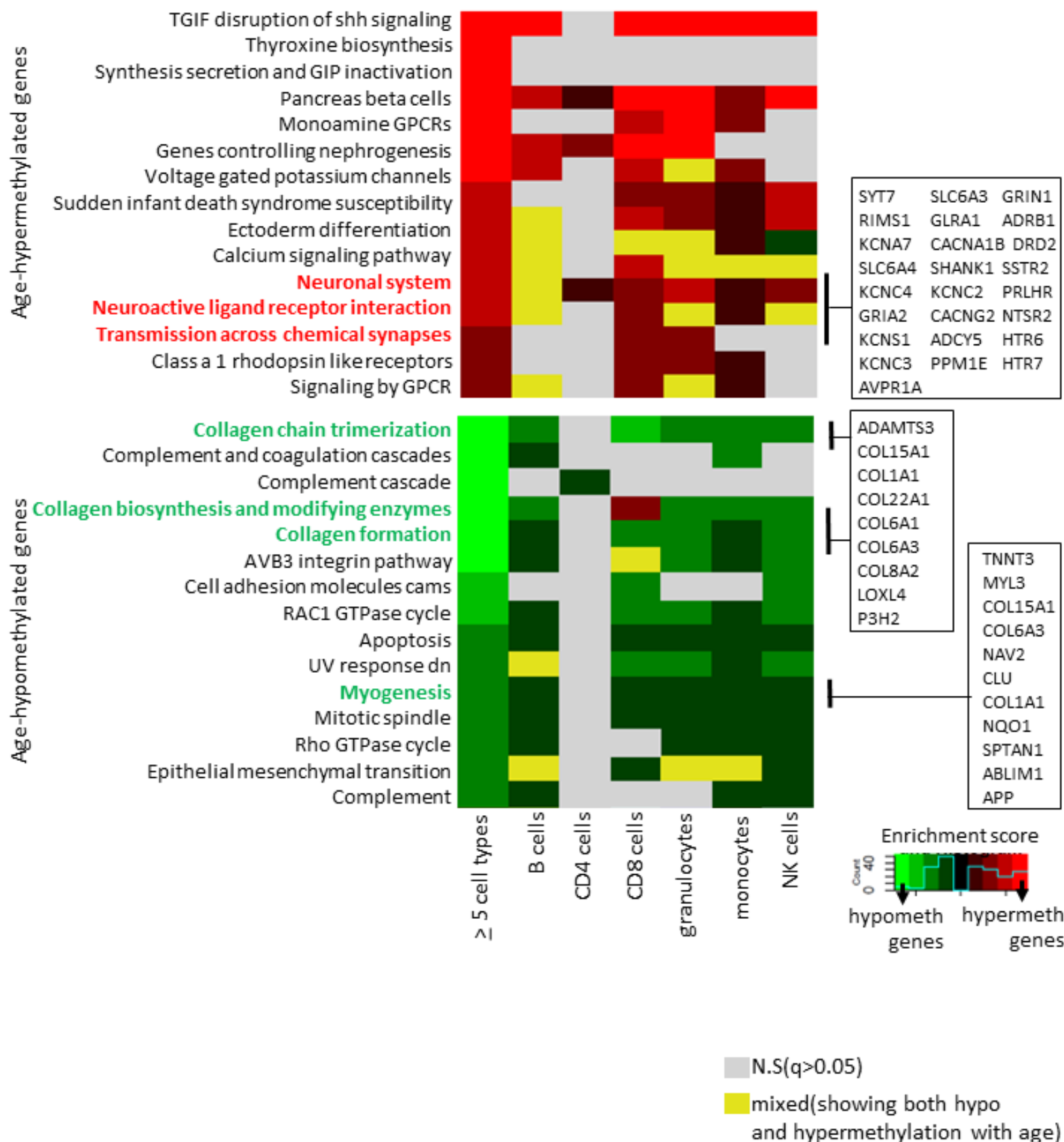
A. Probes hypomethylated with age in B cells



B. Probes hypermethylated with age in B cells

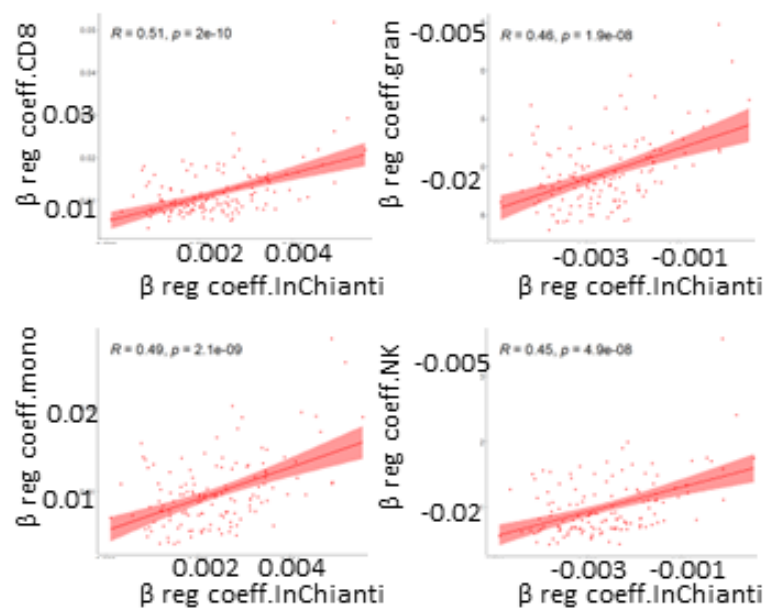






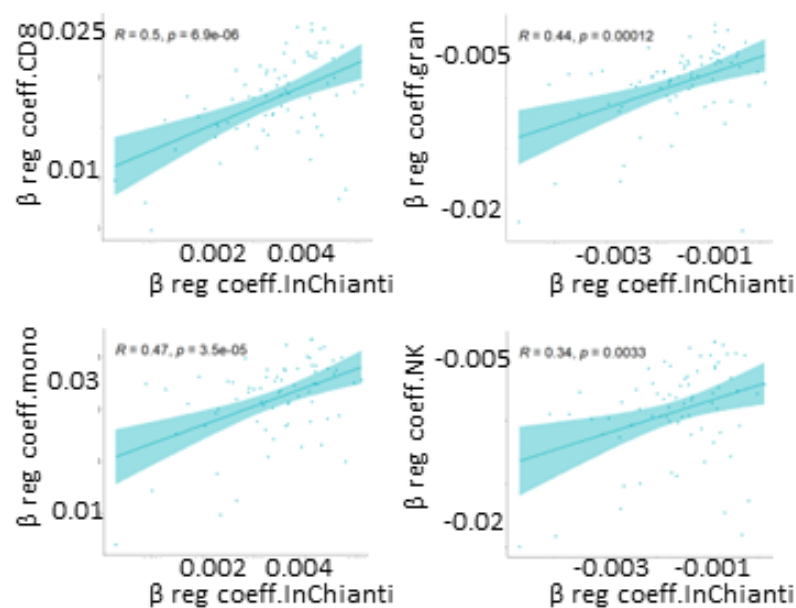
A.

Hypomethylated sites

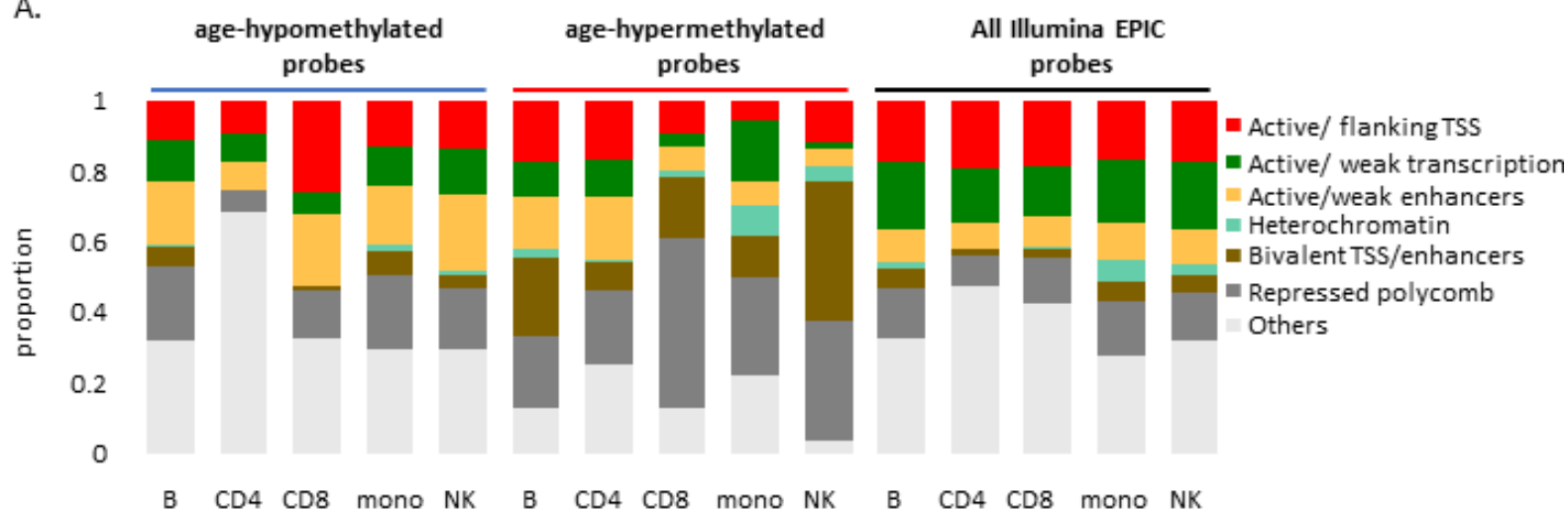


B.

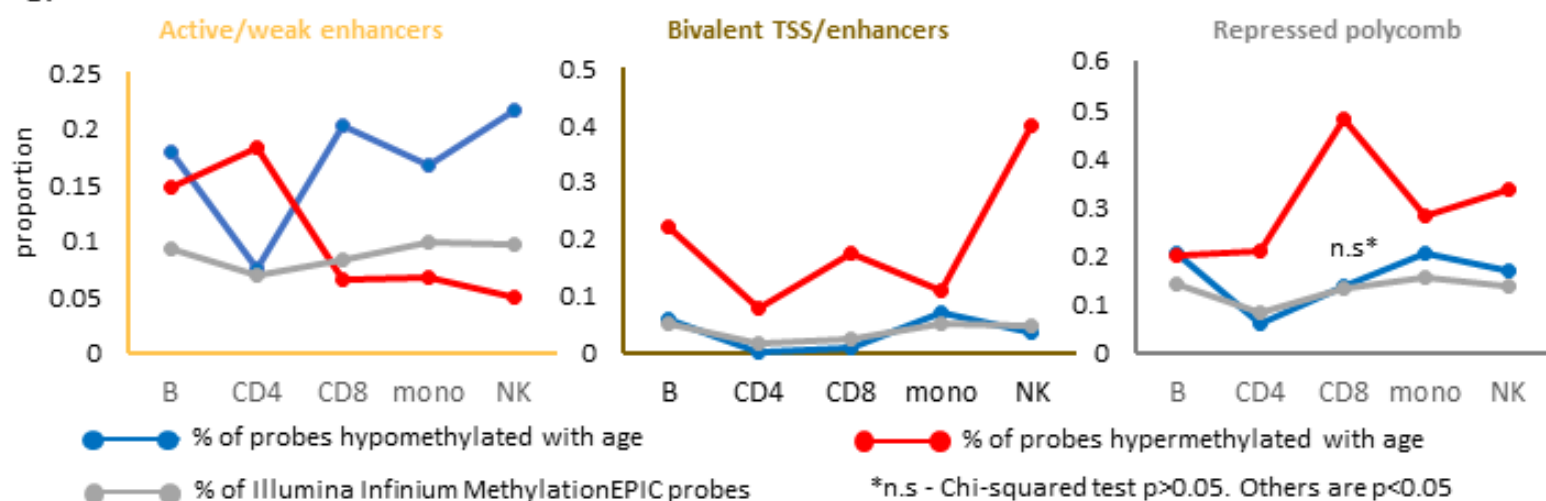
Hypermethylated sites



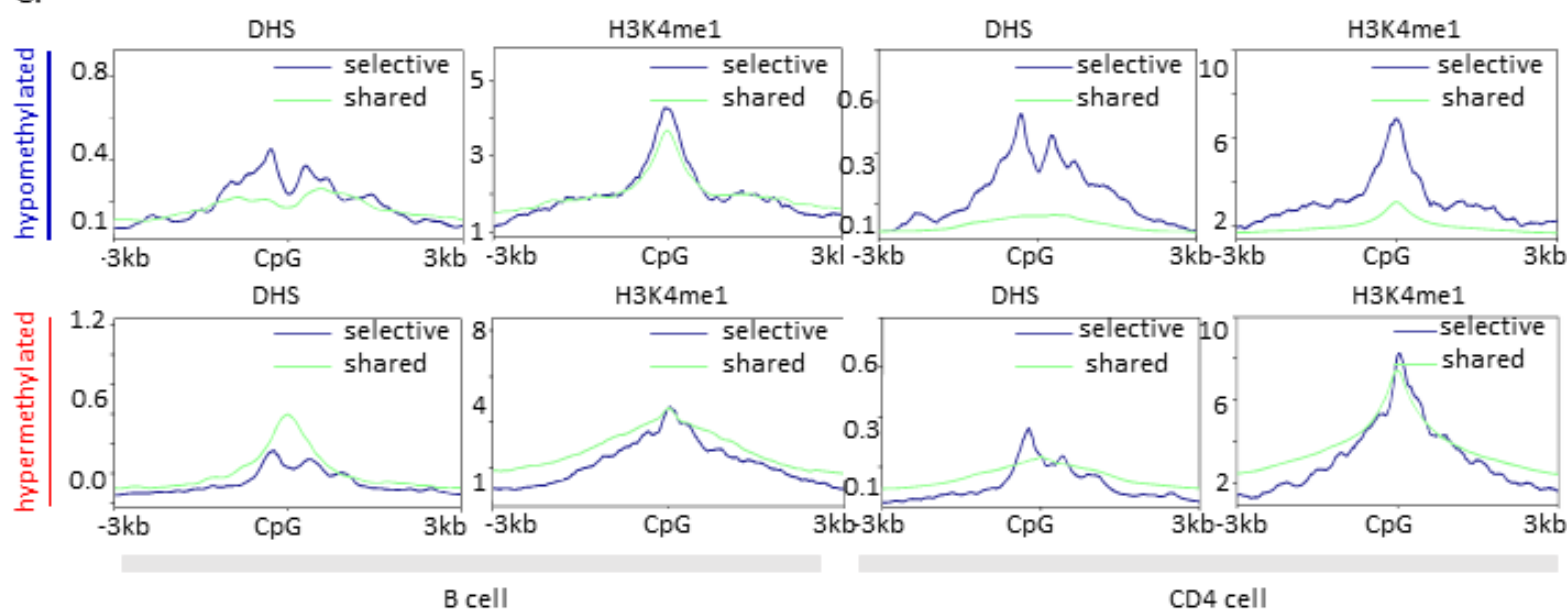
A.



B.



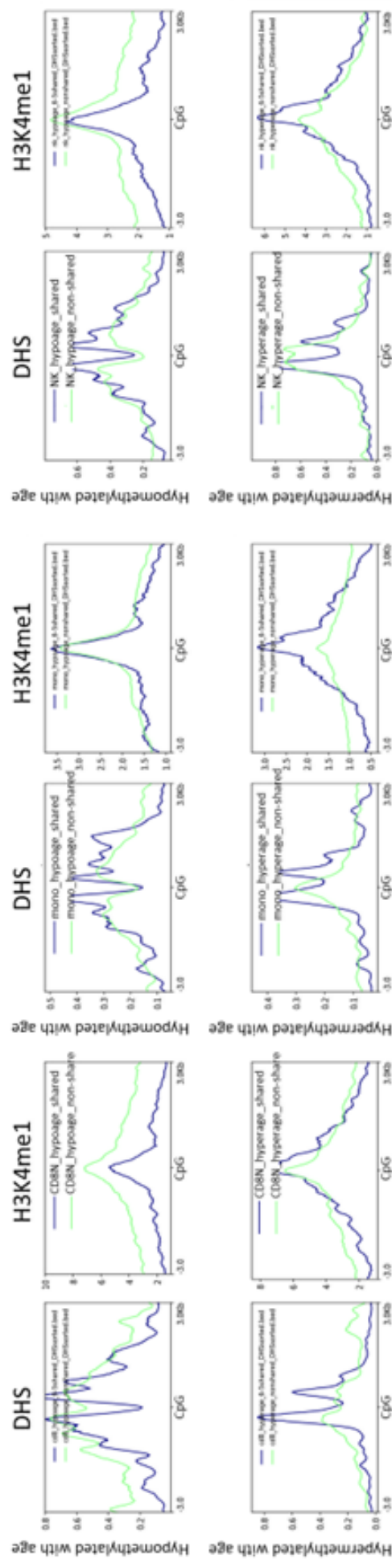
C.



NK

monocytes

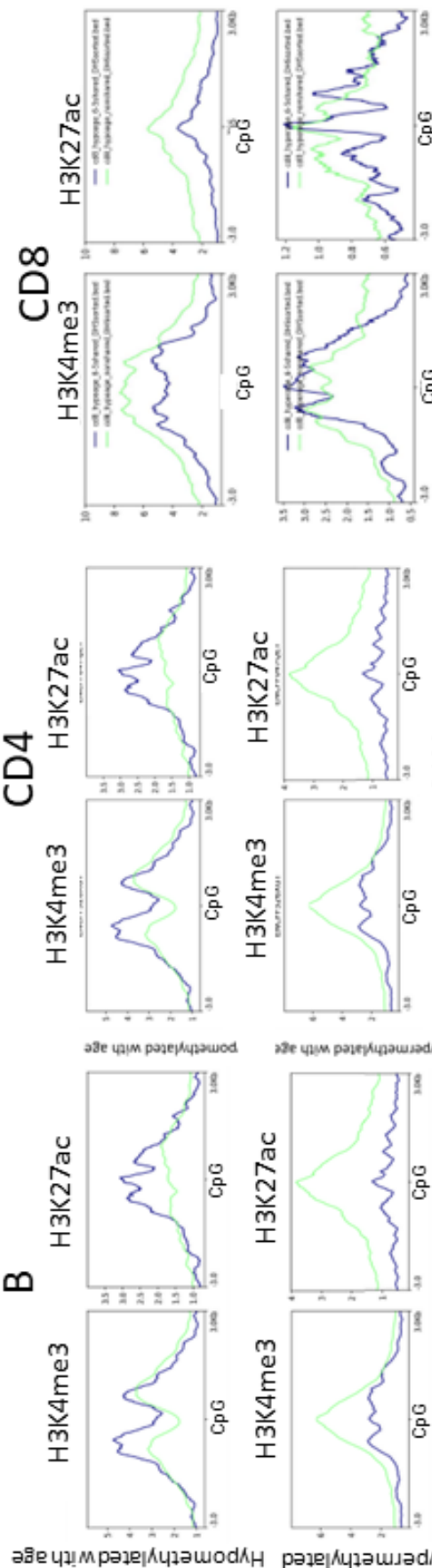
CD8



CD8

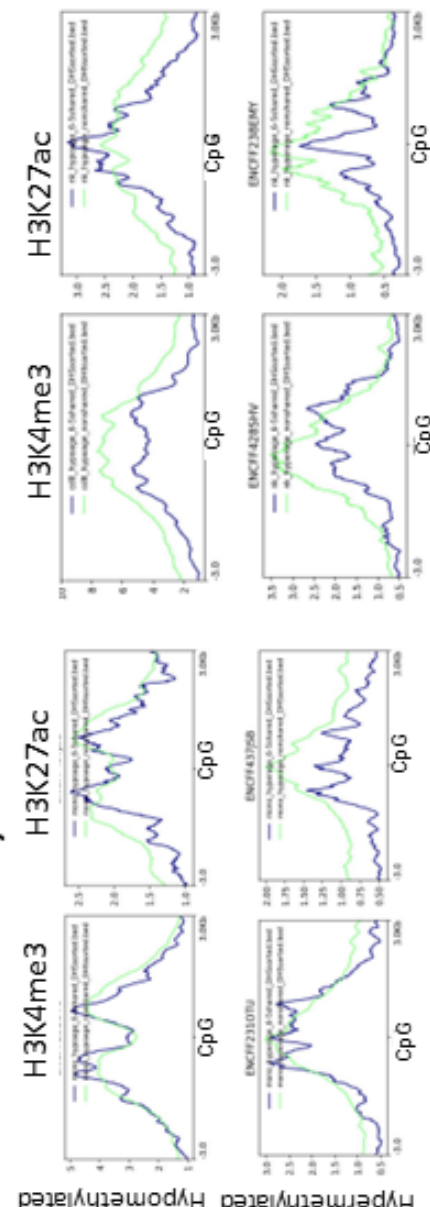
CD4

B



NK

monocytes



A.

Hypomethylated with age

BN_6507 probes			CD4N_63565 probes		
Motif	de novo	p	Motif	de novo	p
	Arnt	1e-97		Arnt	1e-1084
	CTCF	1e-63		Fra1 (bZIP)	1e-424
	Stat4	1e-40		Klf7	1e-92
	Fra1 (bZIP)	1e-28		IRF1 (IRF)	1e-65
	NFIA	1e-24		CTCF	1e-62

CD8N_1850 probes			granulocytes_4627 probes		
Motif	de novo	p	Motif	de novo	p
	Bcl6	1e-21		Arnt	1e-86
	NFIL3	1e-18		BORIS (ZF)	1e-65
	PRDM1	1e-17		ZNF354C	1e-25
	CTCF	1e-17		Bhlhb2	1e-23
	NFIA	1e-16		RUNX1 (Runt)	1e-21

monocytes_8217 probes			NK_4148 probes		
Motif	de novo	p	Motif	de novo	p
	Arnt	1e-126		Arnt	1e-56
	CTCF (ZF)	1e-113		CTCF (ZF)	1e-50
	Stat3 (Stat)	1e-26		Tcfap2c	1e-18
	ETS	1e-25		NF1	1e-18
	ZNF416	1e-20		Smad2 (MAD)	1e-18

B.

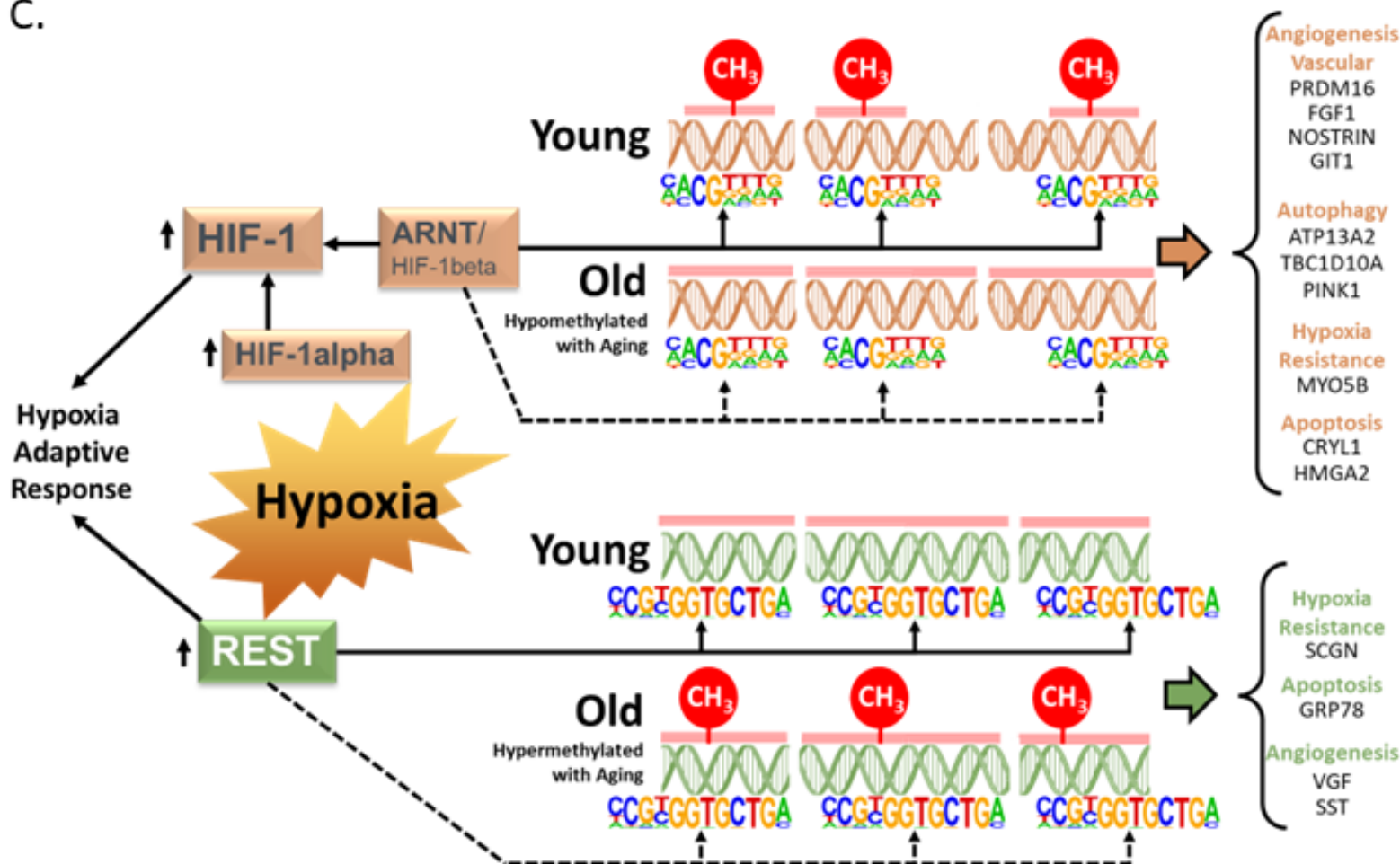
Hypermethylated with age

BN_3863 probes			CD4N_41083 probes		
Motif	de novo	p	Motif	de novo	p
	JUND	1e-28		Sp100	1e-359
	Myb	1e-26		ETS	1e-319
	REST	1e-26		RUNX1	1e-146
	ZBED1	1e-25		FOXO1	1e-119
	RUNX2	1e-24		E2F2	1e-114

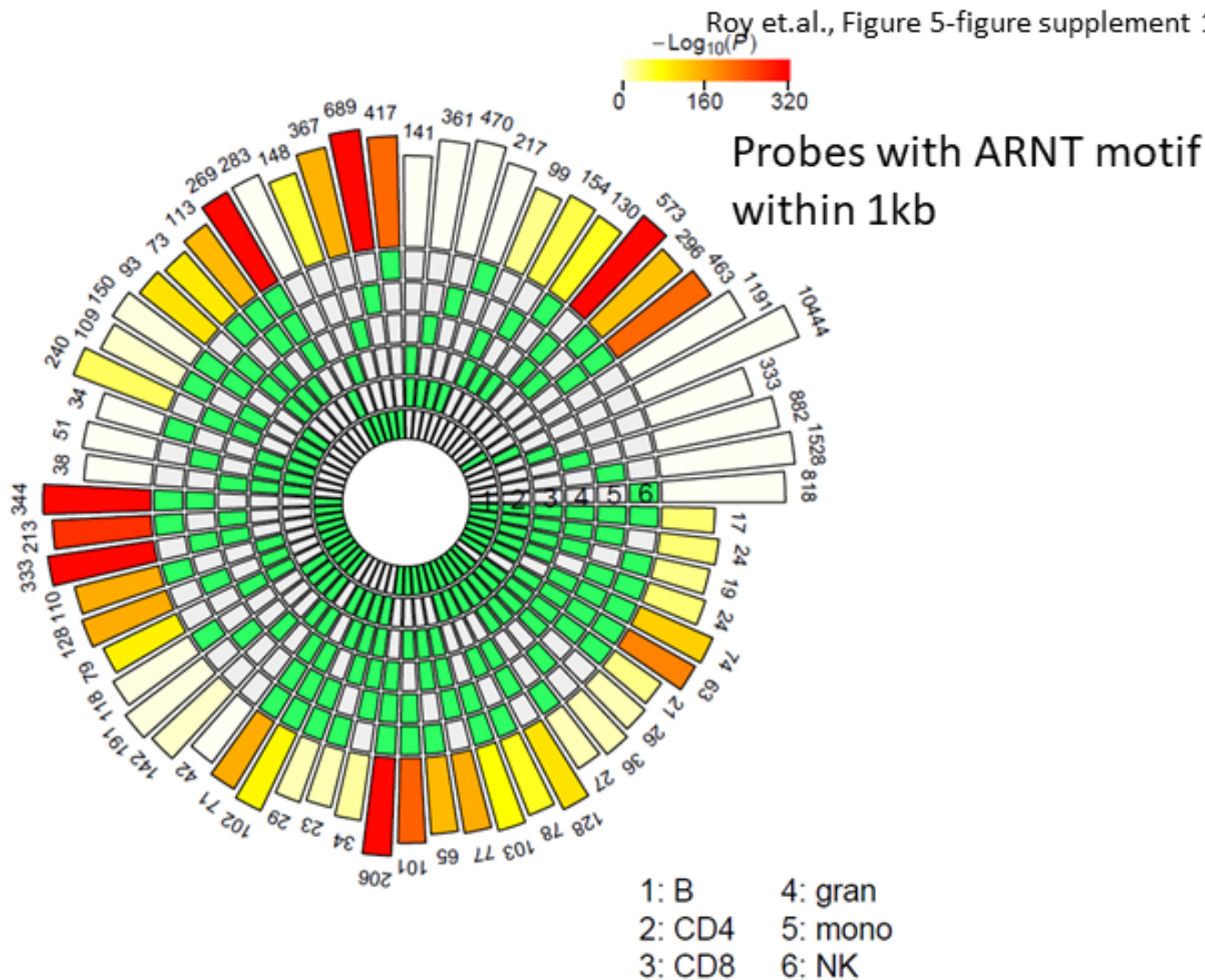
CD8N_1703 probes			granulocytes_174 probes		
Motif	de novo	p	Motif	de novo	p
	REST	1e-27		REST	1e-38
	Zfp116	1e-24		Sp100	1e-27
	Sp100	1e-21		Hoxc9	1e-26
	GRHL1	1e-20		Sox8	1e-19
	Lhx3	1e-20		ZEB1 (ZF)	1e-18

monocytes_5411 probes			NK_623 probes		
Motif	de novo	p	Motif	de novo	p
	Arid5a	1e-53		REST	1e-35
	REST	1e-35		NRL	1e-20
	Sp100	1e-28		Osr2	1e-19
	HIC1 (ZF)	1e-23		HIC2	1e-18
	MYBL2	1e-23		Egr1 (ZF)	1e-17

C.



A.



B.

