1 "mir152 hypomethylation, potentially triggered by embryonic hypoxia, as a 2 common mechanism for non-syndromic cleft lip/palate" 3 4 Authors: Lucas Alvizi¹, Luciano Abreu Brito¹, Bárbara Bischain¹, Camila Bassi 5 Fernandes da Silva¹, Sofia Ligia Guimaraes Ramos¹, Gerson Shigeru Kobayashi¹, Jagueline 6 7 Wang¹, Maria Rita Passos-Bueno^{*1} 8 * corresponding author 9 ¹ Centro de Pesquisas sobre o Genoma Humano e Células Tronco, Universidade de 10 São Paulo, Brasil. 11 12 Abstract 13 14 Non-syndromic cleft lip/palate (NSCLP), the most common human craniofacial malformations, is a complex disorder given its genetic heterogeneity and multifactorial 15 16 component revealed by genetic, epidemiological and epigenetic findings. Association of 17 epigenetic variations with NSCLP has been made, however still of little functional investigation. 18 Here we combined a reanalysis of NSCLP methylome data with genetic analysis and used both 19 in vitro and in vivo approaches to dissect the functional effects of epigenetic changes. We found 20 a frequent differentially methylated region in mir152, hypomethylated in NSCLP cohorts (21-21 26%), leading to *mir152* overexpression. In vivo analysis using zebrafish embryos revealed that 22 mir152 upregulation leads to craniofacial impairment analogue to palatal defects. Also, we 23 demonstrated that zebrafish embryonic hypoxia leads to mir152 upregulation combined with 24 mir152 hypomethylation and also analogue palatal alterations. We therefore suggest mir152 25 hypomethylation, potentially induced by hypoxia in early development, as a novel and frequent 26 predisposing factor to NSCLP.

27 Introduction

28

Non-syndromic cleft lip/palate (NSCLP) is the most common craniofacial congenital 29 30 malformation in humans, affecting 1:700 live-births worldwide, and follows a multifactorial model of inheritance ¹⁻³. Genetic contribution to NSCLP has long been supported by several 31 32 independent studies, which has shown heritability estimates as high as 78-91% in Asian, 33 European and Brazilian populations ^{4–6}. Genomic analyses have successfully revealed several 34 at-risk common genetic variants, in distinct populations. Nevertheless, they confer a small risk, and explain 10-30% of the disease's heritability ^{7,8}. In addition, an increasing number of rare 35 36 pathogenic variants has also been identified in families segregating NSCLP, but the extent of 37 their contribution in overall NSCLP cases is uncertain; importantly, no shared prevalent genetic basis has been observed for these variants ^{9–14}, except for mutations in the Epithelial Cadherin-38 p120-Catenin Complex, which are responsible for 2-14% of familial NSCLP cases ¹⁵. Given the 39 40 lack of a common mechanism underlying a large proportion of cases, projections for strategies 41 of prevention and development of predictive diagnostic tests in at-risk couples have been 42 currently hindered.

43 In parallel with genetic studies, epidemiological studies have suggested the influence of several environmental factors predisposing to NSCLP¹⁶⁻²³. In this sense, recent progress on 44 uncovering the epigenetic contribution to NSCLP have been made ^{24–27}. Epigenetic variations 45 46 (or epivariations) are dynamic, functional and inheritable covalent changes in DNA and/or 47 chromatin associated proteins which do not alter DNA sequence, yet they can affect gene expression and contribute to phenotypic variability and disease ^{28–33}. Association of genomic 48 49 epivariations to phenotypes, so called Epigenome-wide association studies (EWAS), have been 50 expanding the knowledge on phenotypic variability and disease molecular mechanisms for the past years ^{30,31,34-41}. More recently, individual-specific methylome analysis has shed light on 51 52 epigenetic variation relevant to disease, demonstrating how this approach can uncover

53 molecular alteration for complex traits ⁴². Here, we attempted to identify both group and 54 individual-specific methylation changes using previously published methylome data on NSCLP. 55 We identified individual methylation changes in known NSCLP candidate regions and also 56 *mir152* hypomethylation in 26% of our discovery cohort. This result was replicated in an 57 independent cohort and validated through functional *in vitro* and *in vivo* assays. Finally, we 58 demonstrated how hypoxia, a known environmental risk factor for NSCLP, can modulate such 59 changes.

- 60
- 61 Results
- 62

63 mir152 is a frequent differentially methylated region in the Brazilian NSCLP cohort

64

65 We conducted differential methylation analysis at the gene level using the whole Brazilian NSCLP 450K dataset (66 NSCLP vs 59 controls ²⁴, and looked for the top 5 DMRs 66 67 ranked by RnBeads, which combines adjusted p-value to methylation difference and 68 methylation quotient. Those top DMRs were, in order of ranking: top 1, an intronic region of 69 CROCC at 1p36.13; top 2, an intronic region of FAM49B at 8g24.21; top 3, an intronic region of 70 NLK at 17q11.2; top 4, a non-coding region comprising mir152 at 17q21.32; and top 5, an 71 exonic region of PRAC2 and comprising mir3185 also at 17g21.32 (Figure 1a; Supplementary 72 Table 2). Among those genes, mir152 (adjusted p-value= 8.20E-06, beta-difference = -0.04) 73 was the only with enriched expression during palatal embryogenesis in human and mouse. 74 according to Sysface (Systems tool for craniofacial expression-based gene discovery) online 75 tool. Moreover, mir152 has already been identified as a DMR during normal murine palatal development ⁵³ and suggested as a central regulator of downstream mRNAs encoding proteins 76 known to play pivotal roles in orofacial development ⁵⁴, however still with no clear evidence of 77 78 association with NSCLP. Concurrently, we also conducted a differential methylation analysis at

the gene level comparing individually each one of the 66 NSCLP samples versus all 59 controls
("450k cohort"), looking for individual epivariation. We found a total of 6620 gene DMRs
(average = 100.3 DMRs per sample) in all NSCLP samples with >5% methylation difference and
adjusted p-value<0.05 (Supplementary Table 3).

83

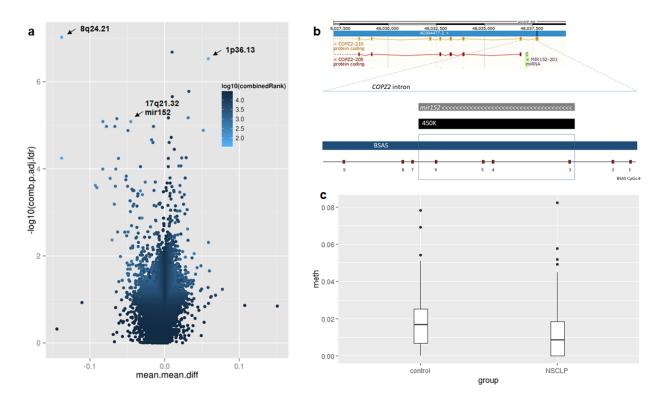
84 *mir152* was the most frequent DMR (n=17 NSCLP samples; ~26%) with ~6% of 85 average hypomethylation difference (beta-value reduction) in comparison to controls and was 86 not present in previous published data on common epivariation 42 .

87

88 mir152 methylation validation in other cohorts

89

90 To validate the previous findings, we investigated *mir152*, 8q24.21 and 1p36.13 DMRs in 91 an independent Brazilian cohort of 57 NSCLP samples and 130 control samples, using a 92 different method for DNA methylation quantification (BSAS). 8q24.21 and 1p36.13 DMRs were included in the validation step as both regions have been associated with NSCLP 7,55,56. We 93 94 observed no correlation of potential confounding factors (bisulfite conversion batch, PCR batch, 95 age, sex or origin; Supplementary Figure 1a-e) with BSAS methylation data. Besides, principal 96 component analysis (PCA) did not reveal any evidence of sample stratification which could bias 97 methylation variation in our cohort (Supplementary Figure 1f).



98

99 Figure 1: mir152 is differentially methylated in NSCLP cohorts. a. Volcano plot of 100 differentially methylated regions (DMRs) at the 450K cohort. Light blue spots are the best 101 ranked DMRs by a p-value, methylation difference and quotient of difference by RnBeads. 102 Arrows indicate DMRs at 8q24.21, 1p36.13 and mir152. b. Scheme of mir152 DMR and 103 analysed CpGs at the independente cohort (BSAS – Bisulfite amplicon sequencing cohort). 104 CpGs 3, 4, 5, and 6 are within mir152 gene body and 450K DMR. c. mir152 is significantly 105 hypomethylated at the BSAS cohort. Boxplots with central lines as medians. P-value= 0.005 106 (Mann-Whitney's test).

107

We found no significant methylation differences at either 8q24.21 (average beta-value controls= 0,9792; NSCLP= 0,9725; p=0.41, Mann-Whitney's test) and 1p36.13 (average betavalue controls= 0,1279; NSCLP=0,1225, p=0.08, Mann-Whitney's test) DMRs in the replication cohort. However, we found significant hypomethylation at the *mir152* DMR (comprising CpGs 3, 4, 5 and 6) in NSCLP in comparison to controls (p=0,005, Mann Whitney test; Figure 1b-c),

113 corroborating our initial findings. To investigate mir152 hypomethylation at individual NSCLP samples in this independent cohort, we computed those samples with complete 114 115 hypomethylation (average beta-values at CpG sites 3, 4, 5 and 6 = 0) (Supplementary Table 1). 116 Considering the mir152 DMR, we found hypomethylation at 16 NSCLP samples (28%) and 17 117 control samples (13%), which represents a hypomethylation enrichment of 15% (p=0.02, 118 Fisher's Exact Test). Also, when we considered each CpGs within *mir152* DMR independently, 119 we found hypomethylation enrichment at CpG 3 (18%), CpG 4 (14%), CpG 5 (16%), CpG 6 120 (21%) and the adjacent CpG 7 (12%). Correlation analysis of methylation levels from all 9 121 mir152 CpGs revealed a trend of hypomethylation shared by CpGs 4, 5, 6 and 7 and mild 122 correlation values (Supplementary Figure 2a-b), which could be indicative of a more cohesive 123 methylation block at those sites. Taken together, our results corroborate mir152 124 hypomethylation in both Brazilian NSCLP cohorts.

Attempting to evaluate *mir152* methylation contribution to NSCLP in an independent and different population, we looked for other NSCLP methWAS available data. Using summary statistics data from an available NSCLP case-control methWAS performed on 182 hispanic and non-hispanic samples (94 NSCLP and 88 controls ²⁷), we did not found significant differences at the *mir152* DMR here studied. On the other hand, we found a CpG site at *mir152* promoter hypermethylated in NSCLP in this cohort (cg06598332, p=0.04), which is located at ~200bp upstream *mir152* DMR.

132

133 Epivariation is not mediated by genetic variation at mir152 region

134

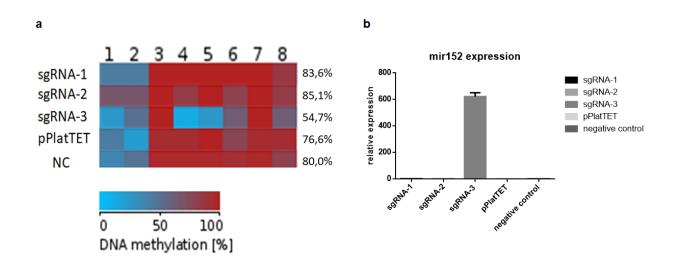
Because genetic variation can influence nearby epivariation ^{57,58}, we looked for single nucleotide variants (SNV) within the *mir152* DMR. The only polymorphism revealed by Sanger sequencing, rs12940701 (C>T), was present in 30,39% of NSCLP and 41,46% of control samples, with no significant difference between groups (Fisher's exact test =0,08). Rs12940701 139 coincides with CpG site 8 at mir152 DMR, which displays low methylation levels in both NSCLP 140 and control samples (NSCLP average beta-value= 0.0178, controls average beta-141 value=0.0121). Even though rs12940701 has been suggested as a potential variant diminishing methylation levels at mir152 region ⁵⁹, we observed no genotype vs. methylation correlation in 142 143 our replication cohort (p=0.1843, Supplementary Figure 2d). Also, we found no linkage 144 disequilibrium between this SNV and rs1838105, a 1.3Mb apart SNV previously associated with 145 NSCLP at 17q21.32 (Yu et al., 2017; Supplementary Figure 2c). Rare variants (minor allele 146 frequency < 0.5%) at *mir152* gene were not analysed in this cohort (data not shown). Attempting 147 to verify whether rare variants at *mir152* region could segregate in independent NSCLP familial 148 cases, we analysed the exome of 36 affected individuals from 11 families, but neither common 149 nor rare variants were found.

150

151 Methylation variation at mir152 regulates gene expression

152

153 We next verified whether methylation variation within *mir152* DMR would be functional 154 and interfere in mir152 expression. To achieve that, we carried out a CRISPR-Cas9-based 155 approach for targeted demethylation, in which dCas9 were fused to TET1 (pPlatTET-GFP) in order to demethylate specific genomic targets ⁴⁸. Among the three tested sgRNAs (sgRNA-1, 156 157 sgRNA-2 and sgRNA-3) targeting the mir152 DMR in hek293T cells, sgRNA-3 efficiently 158 reduced methylation levels at mir152 DMR at sites 1, 4, 5 and 8 (average beta-value pPlatTET-159 sgRNA-3 = 0.54, beta-value pPlatTET-NC= 0.76, beta-value NC =0.80; Figure 2a). In non-160 transfected conditions, or when transfected with the empty vector (pPlatTET-NC) or sgRNAs-1 161 and 2, hek293T do not normally express mir152. On the other hand, consistently with those 162 methylation changes, we observed a high upregulation of *mir152* RNA levels when sgRNA-3 163 transfections were carried out (Figure 2b). Taken together, those results indicate that 164 epivariation at those sites are functional, resulting in *mir152* expression changes.



165

166 Figure 2. DNA methylation changes at mir152 DMRs results in mir152 expression changes. a. 167 A cas9 based approach for target demethylation using the vector pPlatTET and 3 single-guide 168 RNAs sequences (sgRNA 1, 2 and 3) for mir152 DMR in hek293T cells. sgRNA-3 efficiently 169 reduces mir152 methylation, especially at CpGs 4 and 5, in comparison to the empty vector 170 transfection (pPlatTET) and non transfected cells (NC). CpG 9 is absent in hek293T cells due a 171 single nucleotide polymorphism. Total percentage of methylation is represented with values at 172 the right **b.** DNA hypomethylation induces mir152 overexpression in hek293T cells. mir152 173 expression is absent in all other conditions.

174

175 mir152 mimics results in craniofacial malformation in zebrafish

176

We attempted to investigate whether *mir152* expression could influence craniofacial development. To model that, we injected miRNA inhibitor and mimics in 1-cell stage zebrafish embryos and observed their development at 24hpf and 5dpf. When injected with *mir152* inhibitor, embryos developed normally with no obvious development impairment (Figure 3a). However, when injected with mimics, zebrafish embryos presented several craniofacial defects at 5dpf including malformation of Meckel's, palatoquadrate, ceratobranchial and the ethmoidal

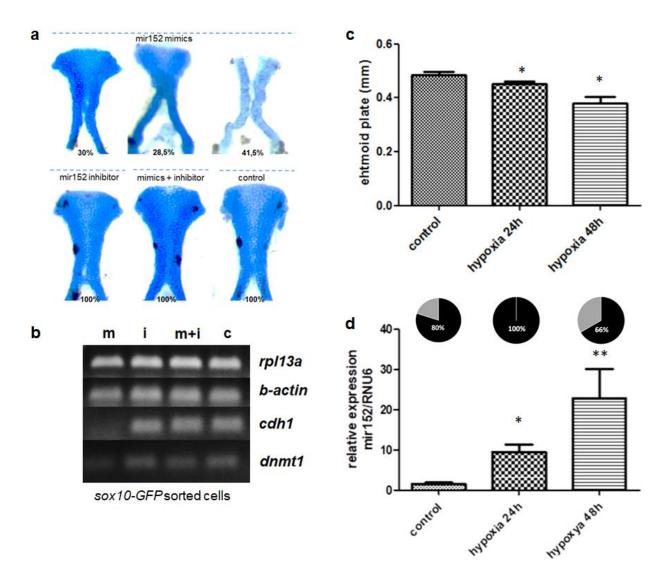
plate, which is the embryo's analogue palate. Seventy percent (70%) of embryos were affected, which were classified as mildly affected (28,5%), comprising those embryos with ethmoidal plate's defects in size and shape, and severely affected (41,5%), characterized by a typical cleft at the ethmoidal plate.(Figure 3a). On the other hand, co-injection of *mir152* mimics and inhibitor led to non-affected embryos (n= 65) (Figure 3a).

188

189 mir152 targets dnmt1 and cdh1 in zebrafish neural crest cells

190

191 Several coding genes are predicted to be targeted by *mir152*, including *DNMT1*, which has been experimentally confirmed ⁵⁹⁻⁶². In that case, *mir152* is known to control a 192 193 DNMT1/CDH1 loop, in which mir152 upregulation leads to DNMT1 downregulation and as a consequence *CDH1* expression is present ⁶⁰. Therefore, we checked for *DNMT1* and *CDH1* 194 195 expression differences in pPlatTET-GFP transfected hek293T cells or mimics/ inhibitor injected 196 zebrafish embryos. We did not observed DNMT1/dnmt1 or CDH1/cdh1 expression changes in 197 any sgRNA transfected hek293T cells or in mir152 mimics/ inhibitor injected zebrafish whole 198 embryos RNA (Supplementary Figure 3). Because whole embryo expression could mask tissue-199 specific changes and given the extent of observed craniofacial impairment in injected embryos 200 we hypothesized that neural crest cells (NCCs) would be the most likely cells to be affected by 201 mir152 dysregulation. To test that, mir152 mimics/ inhibitor injected embryos were dissociated 202 at 24hpf and sox10-GFP positive were sorted for *dnmt1* and *cdh1* expression analysis. We 203 observed an ablation of *dnmt1* and *cdh1* expression in sox10-GFP positive cells when *mir152* 204 mimics was injected and no effects on *dnmt1* or *cdh1* expression in inhibitor or mimics+inhibitor 205 injections (Figure 3b).



206

207 Figure 3. mir152 mimics injected in zebrafish embryos causes ethmoidal plate deffects 208 analogue to clefts. a. ethmoidal plates dissected from 5dpf zebrafish larvae injected with mir152 209 mimics (superior) and mir152 inhibitor, mir152 mimics + inhibiotr and non injected controls 210 (inferior). Mir152 mimics injections resulted in 30% of larvae with non-affected ethmoid plate 211 (left), 28,5% of larvae with mildly-affected ethmoid plate (central) and 41,5% of larvae with 212 severe affected structures, including a cleft ethmoid plate (righ). mir152 mimics injected 213 embryos N= 49. Both mir152 inhibitor injections and mimics + inhibitor combined injections 214 resulted in no altered craniofacial structures with 100% of larvae with normal ethmoid plates. 215 mir152 inhibitor injected embryos N=40; mimics+inhibitor injected embryos N=65. Control

216 embryos N=107. b. RT-PCR of cdh1 and dnmt1 in mimics and inhibitor injected embryos. 217 mir152 mimics injection resulted in cdh1 and dnmt1 downregulation. cdh1 expression is not 218 detected in mir152 mimics injected embryos (m) in comparison to mir152 inhibitor injection (i), 219 mimics+inhibitor injection (m+i) and non-injected controls (c). rpl13a and b-actin were used as 220 endogenous controls. c. zebrafish embryos in hypoxia (1% oxygen) for both 24h and 48h 221 starting at 2-cell stage presented significant reduction in ethmoid plate's size (p>0.05, t-test). d. 222 mir152 expression significantly increases under hypoxia conditions for 24h or 48h. (*p<0.05; 223 **p<0,005). At the top, pie charts of mir152 methylation levels in zebrafish embryos during 224 normal and hypoxia conditions: controls = 80%, hypoxia 24h = 100% and hypoxia 48h = 66%.

225

Hypoxia drives mir152 hypomethylation and expression changes during development andaffects craniofacial development

228

mir152 expression induction has been reported in cells subjected to hypoxia⁶¹ 229 and 230 hypoxia is a known clefting factor in mice and has also been reported to induce ethmoid plate 231 defects in zebrafish ^{63–65}. We then hypothesised hypoxia as an environmental factor leading to 232 mir152 hypomethylation, which in turn would cause up-regulation of mir152, resulting in 233 craniofacial malformation. We then first exposed zebrafish embryos to hypoxia (1% O2) for 24h 234 or 48h and obtained 5dpf embryos with reduced ethmoid plate size (Figure 3c). By quantifying 235 mir152 levels in such conditions, we observed that hypoxia induced a significant up-regulation 236 of mir152 in comparison to normoxia (up to ~20 fold, Figure 3d). mir152 methylation changes in 237 hypoxia were also tested and we observed hypomethylation of *mir152* methylation levels from 238 80% at normoxia conditions, 100% at hypoxia for 24h and 66% at hypoxia for 48h (Figure 3d). 239 Therefore we consider that hypoxia was capable of reducing *mir152* methylation at least in 14% 240 for a 48h hypoxia treatment.

241

242 Discussion

243

244 The study of epivariation on several diseases, especially methylome analysis, have been gaining force in the past five years ^{24,25,27,36,37,42,66,67}. In the case of NSCLP, methWASs 245 246 have demonstrated the association of methylation changes in genes belonging to Epithelial-to-247 mesenchymal transition (EMT) pathway and also methylation changes associated to cleft 248 subtypes ^{24,26}. Whether such epigenetic changes are associated with genetic variation and/or 249 environment is still an open question which we attempted to address in this work. Since environment significantly impacts epigenetic variation ⁶⁸, those findings suggest that, in spite of 250 251 the high genetic contribution to those phenotypes, environment plays an important role in their 252 aetiology.

253 By reanalyzing previously published data, we were able to identify *mir152* as a new 254 candidate NSCLP gene in up to 26% of NSCLP samples with DMR hypomethylated. e also 255 confirmed hypomethylation of mir152 in 15%-21% of NSCLP samples in an independent 256 Brazilian cohort. These findings corroborate our initial findings and suggests a common 257 epivariation at mir152 for NSCLP, which is one of the most frequent alteration so far associated 258 with NSCLP, at least in our population. We also found significant *mir152* promoter methylation differences using methWAS data from a different population ²⁷, which suggest that not only 259 260 epivariation at mir152 gene body could be associated with NSCLP but also at the promoter 261 region. We believe therefore that epivatiation at *mir152*, both at promoter or gene body, is 262 associated with NSCLP. We could not replicate, however, 8g24.21 or 1p36.13 DMRs in this 263 independent cohort. Methylation differences at 8q24 in NSCLP have been previously reported 264 ²⁷, although in a different region than 8q24.21 DMR, more specifically at 8q24.23 HEATR7A. 265 Therefore we do not know whether such methylation changes at 8q24 are dependent on each of 266 the studied population or their effects are smaller for detection in our independent cohort.

mir152 is a member of the mir148/*mir152* family and is located within an intron of *COPZ2* at chromosome 17q21.32, a genomic region previously associated with NSCLP by GWAS, however with *WNT9B* as the principal candidate gene ⁷. Attempting to identify if *mir152* variation could add to the NSCLP GWAS signals at 17q21.32, we also looked at LD data from 1000 genomes and found that both genes were not in LD. Still, we here show that regions previously associated with NSCLP by genetic approaches can also be prone to epigenetic changes as previously reported ²⁷.

274 Because genetic variation can modulate DNA methylation within a region ^{57,69,70}, we 275 investigated whether common genetic variation could modulate methylation changes at mir152. 276 Our results suggested that neither common nor rare variants at mir152 region contribute to 277 mir152 epivariation as a methylation QTL (meQTL) in the cohort here studied. In fact, mir152 processed sequence is highly conserved and identical from fish to mammals ⁷¹, indicating that 278 279 either its function has been conserved during evolutionary diversification and/or genetic 280 variation at that region is not tolerated. We cannot rule out that genetic variation in the promoter 281 region of *mir152* or out of the analysis region, which is not covered in our Sanger sequencing 282 and exome analysis, could lead to expression variability. Further, we also cannot exclude that 283 other tissues than the here studied could display a meQTL status for rs12940701.

284

To determine the functional effects of *mir152* hypomethylation in gene expression, we induced a cas9-mediated demethylation of *mir152* in hek293T cells, and showed that *mir152* hypomethylation leads to *mir152* upregulation in human cells. Importantly, the major methylation changes were made at CpGs 4 and 5, the core of mir152 DMR, which coincides with the CpG sites bearing higher methylation correlation. Therefore the findings on *mir152* hypomethylation at both 450K and the independent cohorts are likely functional.

291 Once we found *mir152* hypomethylation to promote *mir152* upregulation, we mimetized 292 *mir152* upregulation in zebrafish development by *mir152* mimics injections. *mir152* upregulation

led to several craniofacial defects compatible with clefting phenotypes, grouped in two severity degrees:: mid-affected and severely-affected zebrafish larvae at 5dpf. We speculate that the extension of those phenotypes are dose dependent, because micro-injection of zebrafish embryos can vary in precision of oligonucleotides incorporation by the embryo cells. It is important to note that such observed phenotype were specific to *mir152*-mimics injection, compatible with a *mir152* upregulation scenarium, once both inhibitor and mimics + inhibitor injections resulted in no affected embryos.

Functional studies have demonstrated *mir152* as an important modulator of TGFbetainduced EMT in epithelial cells, in which *mir152* overexpression is known to inhibit TGFbeta and therefore EMT ⁷². It has also been shown that upregulation of *mir152* targets *DNMT1*, which in turn controls *CDH1* expression via DNA methylation and therefore affecting E-cadherin levels and EMT in breast cancer cells ⁶⁰. Interestingly, *CDH1*/E-cadherin loss-of-function mutations have been found in both syndromic and nonsyndromic clefting forms and *CDH1* promoter hypermethylation have been found in association with cleft penetrance in NSCLP families ^{13,24,73}.

307 In this study, We observed a reduction of both *dnmt1* and *cdh1* expression in *mir152* 308 mimics-injected sox10-GFP NCCs suggesting that this control can be specific at certain cell 309 types, more specifically NCCs. Even more interestingly and opposite to what has been 310 described by other works, which reported mir152 upregulation accompanied by dnmt1 311 downregulation and *cdh1* upregulation, we found total reduction of *cdh1* expression when 312 mir152 mimics was injected. We do not know if this effect is related to dnmt1 or to other targets 313 of mir152 in this cell population; nevertheless loss of CDH1 expression is compatible with CDH1 related molecular pathology in NSCLP families ^{13,73,74} and *cdh1* downregulation in NCCs has 314 been reported to inhibit NCC migration in Xenopus⁷⁵. Therefore, given the effects of *mir152* 315 316 upregulation on gene expression of sox10-GFP positive cells our results suggest that aberrant 317 expression of *mir152* during development affects proper craniofacial formation by disrupting 318 neural crest specification/EMT and its derivatives

319 While the vast majority of studies on NSCLP etiology states the multifactorial scenarium 320 for NSCLP, in which both genome and environment play a role, knowledge on how they interact 321 and which effects NSCLP associated environmental factors have on genome behavior and, 322 more specifically, on the epigenome is scarce. Here we hypothesised that such hypomethylation 323 and consequently upregulation of *mir152* was potentially caused by embryonic hypoxia. 324 Hypoxia is a normal condition during several steps of mammalian development required for proper cell differentiation and progression ⁷⁶, however abnormal oxygen levels below the foetal 325 hypoxia limits can lead to malformations and disease ^{77–79}. Regarding oral clefts and craniofacial 326 327 development, hypoxia has been for a long time demonstrated as a strong risk environmental factor in mice, rat and chicken models ^{64,65,80–82} and also hypoxia-related environmental factor 328 are epidemiologically associated to NSCLP^{16,18,20,63,83,84}. More recently, a hypoxia induced 329 clefting model in zebrafish has been demonstrated ⁶³ reinforcing the effect of hypoxia on 330 331 craniofacial development and supporting our model. In agreement with this study, our hypoxia 332 exposure in zebrafish embryos also resulted in aberrant ethmoid plate sizes and in increased 333 mir152 expression accompanied by mir152 hypomethylation at 48h of hypoxia. Our work 334 therefore links an epigenetic alteration in NSCLP to a potential environmental factor, 335 contributing to the multifactorial model proposed to this malformation.

336 In summary, we demonstrated how individual methylome analysis in NSCLP can 337 indicate individual specific methylation changes potentially relevant to phenotype. In that case, 338 we found mir152 hypomethylated in 26% of our cohort and replicated this finding in 21% of the 339 cases on an independent NSCLP cohort. Methylation changes at *mir152* result in expression 340 changes and *mir152* upregulation during development leads to impairment of craniofacial 341 development and maternal/foetal hypoxia might be the environmental link leading to mir152 342 epivariation. We suggest therefore mir152 as a novel candidate locus for NSCLP, expanding the 343 current knowledge on NSCLP aetiology and molecular mechanisms.

344

345	Methods
346	
347	Ethics
348	
349	This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Instituto de Biociências
350	(Universidade de São Paulo, Brazil). Biological samples were collected after signed informed
351	consent by the parents or legal guardians. All experiments were performed in accordance with
352	relevant guidelines and regulations.
353	
354	Affected individuals and controls samples
355	
356	For methylome analysis, we used previously published and public data ²⁴ , which briefly
357	consisted of Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation 450K data of blood-derived DNA from 66
358	cases from non-familial NSCLP individuals and 59 age and sex-matched controls from healthy
359	individuals (hereafter named as "450k cohort"). Our replication cohort consisted of 57 non-
360	familial NSCLP and 130 controls samples which were ascertained either at the Hospital das
361	Clínicas of Universidade de São Paulo (São Paulo, Brazil), Centro de Pesquisas Sobre o
362	Genoma Humano e Células-Tronco of Universidade de São Paulo (São Paulo, Brazil) or during
363	missions of Operation Smile Brazil (Supplementary Table 1). Samples from replication cohort
364	were saliva-derived DNA collected with Oragene (DNA Genotek) and genomic DNA extracted
365	as recommended by the fabricant.
366	
367	
368	450Kmethylome analysis

369

370 To identify differentially methylated regions (DMRs) at the gene level in NSCLP samples. 371 we first compared all 66 NSCLP samples versus all 59 controls (450K cohort) using the 372 RnBeads pipeline, which comprises filtering, normalisation and differential methylation steps ⁴³. 373 We filtered out probes affected by SNPs, on sex chromosomes, probes with a p-value detection 374 >0.05 (Greedycut) and probes with non-CpG methylation pattern. Data was normalised using 375 the SWAN method. Principal component analysis (PCA) were also performed using R packages 376 in order to identify obvious confounding effects in the 450K cohort. Differential methylation 377 analysis was performed using the RefFreeEWAS method, which corrects p-values for blood 378 cellular contributions, accounting for gene regions. We also used sex, age and probe markers of 379 batch effects as covariates for differential methylation analysis p-value correction as previously described ²⁴. We used as selection criteria the 5 top ranked DMRs listed by RnBeads, which 380 381 ranks DMRs combining adjusted p-values, methylation difference and quotient of difference. As 382 a second step to identify individual contributions to the selected DMRs, we conducted analysis 383 individually comparing each NSCLP sample versus all 59 controls using the same parameters 384 above described. At this phase, =we selected as DMRs those regions with p-value < 0.05 after 385 FDR and covariate adjustment and with at least 5% beta-value difference. We also compared those DMRs with previously published data of frequent and common DMRs ⁴². DMRs were 386 387 listed by NSCLP sample and we checked for DMRs co-occurring in different NSCLP samples.

388

389 Bisulfite amplicon sequencing of mir152 in the replication cohort

390

To quantify methylation levels at *mir152*, 8q24.21 and 1p26.13 DMRs in the replication cohort, we used the Bisulfite Amplicon Sequencing (BSAS) method as previously described ²⁴. In summary, BSAS relies on bisulfite PCR, library preparation and DNA sequencing with a NGS sequencer ^{44,45}. We designed bisulfite-specific PCR primers for those DMRs using the online tool MethPrimer (<u>http://www.urogene.org/methprimer/</u>) with reported recommendations to avoid

biased bilsufite PCR amplification ⁴⁶. The predicted amplicons in GRCh37/hg19 build for those 396 397 DMRs are: mir152 at chr17:46114502-46114660 (Forward sequence: 5'-CS1-398 GGYGTTGTGTTYGTTGGGTG-3', Reverse sequence: 5'-CS2-399 AATCCAACCRGACCAAAAATCAACTA-3'); 8q24.21 at chr8:130876990-130877116 (Forward 400 sequence: 5'-CS1-TATGGAATTGATTAATGAGGAAAAT-3', Reverse sequence: 5'-401 AAAACCTTRGATACATTACTAAAAA-3'); and 1p36.13 at chr1:17231171 -17231307 (Forward 402 5'-GGTGYGTYGAGATTTTGTAT-3', Reverse 5'sequence: sequence: 403 TTCCAATCTACTATTAAAAACCAT-3'). Samples from the replication cohort DNAs were 404 submitted for bisulfite conversion using 1ug of DNA in the e EZ-96 Methylation Kit (Zymo 405 Research). Converted DNA was used as a template for bisulfite-specific PCR with the 406 HotStartTag Plus (QIAGen) standard protocol and amplicons were checked by agarose gel 407 electrophoresis and by Bioanalyzer HiSensitivity DNA prior to library preparation. During the 408 library preparation indexes were added in one PCR step for sample (Access Array Barcode 409 Library, Fluidigm). Libraries were purified by Ampure XP Beads in a magnetic column and 410 checked again in the Bioanalyzer HiSensitivity DNA for peak shift visualization. Finally libraries 411 were submitted for sequencing with the MiSeg Reagent V3 Kit 150 bp single-ended run on a 412 MiSeq Sequencer (Illumina). We performed de-multiplexing of sequences using the FASTX 413 R Barcode Splitter in the FastX Toolkit program package 414 (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx toolkit/). Following this, we filtered out reads of low quality, 415 selecting only reads with at least 50% of bases with Q > 30 using the FASTQ Quality Filter 416 program, also part of the FastX Toolkit R package. Next FASTQ files were converted to FASTA 417 files using the FASTQ-to-FASTA program in the same package. For the quantification of 418 methylation levels at the mir-152 region we used the BiQAnalyzer HT software ⁴⁷, in which we 419 applied quality filters as follows: minimal reference sequence identity to 90%, minimal bisulfite 420 conversion rate of 90%, maximum of 10% gaps allowed in CpG sites and minimal of 10 reads of 421 coverage. Following these parameters, we obtained average mir152 region methylation level

422 per sample and also site methylation level within *mir152* region. To investigate hypomethylation, 423 we calculated the controls' 10th percentile and computed NSCLP samples below this limiar. 424 Frequencies were tested by expected in controls and observed in NSCLP using Chi-square test. 425 Graphs were generated using R package ggplot2. 426 427 Independent population NSCLP methylome data 428 429 We used summary statistics data public available from an independent NSCLP case-430 control methylome study performed on 182 hispanic and non-hispanic individuals ²⁷. We looked 431 for significant (p>0.05) probes overlapping mir152 region (cg02742085, cg05096161, 432 cq05850656, cq06598332, cq09111258, cq10382221, cq10472567, cq21384971, cq24389730). 433 434 Sequencing genetic variation and exome analysis at mir152 region 435 436 For sanger sequencing we PCR amplified *mir152* region in replication cohort samples 437 using primers forward 5'-TTCTGGGTCCGTTTGGAGTG-3' 5'and reverse 438 TCAAGGTCCACAGCTGGTTC-3' and Platinum Tag Polymerase Supermix. Amplicons were 439 treated with ExoProStar (GE Healthcare Life Sciences) and then submitted to Sanger 440 sequencing using the BigDye Terminator v3.1 Sequencing standard kit (Applied Biosystems). 441 Next, sequencing products were purified using Sephadex G-50 (GE Healthcare Life Sciences) 442 with MultiScreen Column Plates (Merck-Millipore) and finally submitted to capillary 443 electrophoresis at the ABI 3730 DNA Analyser (Applied Biosystems). All reactions were 444 performed using fabricant's recommended protocols. Variants in *mir152* were also analyzed in

exome sequencing data of 36 NSCLP individuals belonging to 11 families, segregating the
disorder under an autosomal dominant model with incomplete penetrance (Supplementary
Figure X). Library preparation and exome capture were performed using: Illumina's TruSeg DNA

448 Sample Prep and Exome Enrichment kits (for families F617, F886, F2570, F3196 and F7614); Illumina's Nextera Rapid Capture Exome (for families F1843, F2848, F8418), and Agilent's Sure 449 450 Select QXT Target Enrichment (F10950, F10955 and F11730). Library quantification was 451 performed with NEBnext Library Quant Kit (New England Biolabs), prior to paired-end 452 sequencing on HiScanSQ (Illumina; families F617, F886, F2570, F3196, F7614) or HiSeq 2500 453 (Illumina; families F1843, F2848, F8418, F10950, F10955 and F11730) USA). Exome mean 454 coverage per individual was 131x (49 SD). Sequence alignment to the hg19 reference genome, 455 exome indexing, variant calling and variant annotation were performed, respectively, with 456 http://bio-bwa.sourceforge.net), **Burrows-Wheller** Aligner (BWA; Picard Genome 457 (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/), Toolkit Analysis package (GATK, 458 http://broadinstitute.org/gatk/) and ANNOVAR (http://www.openbioinformatics.org/annovar/).

459

460 Site specific demethylation

461

462 To functionally investigate the role of methylation variation at the *mir152* DMR, we used 463 a CRISPR-Cas9 based approach in which a plasmid expressing a modified and catalytically inactive Cas9 (dCas9) were fused to the catalytic domain of TET1 with a co-expression system 464 for sgRNA, allowing target specific demethylation ⁴⁸. We obtained plasmid pPlatTET-gRNA2 465 466 (#82559) from Addgene. mir152 specific sgRNAs were designed with CRISPRdirect 467 (https://crispr.dbcls.jp/), named as sgRNA-1 (5'-TCTGTGATACACTCCGACTC-3'), sgRNA-2 (5'-GCTCGGCCCGCTGTCCCCCC-3') and sgRNA-3 (5'-TGACAGAACTTGGGCCCGGA-3'). 468 469 sgRNAs were cloned to plasmids as previously published ⁴⁸. All the three plasmid-sgRNA 470 combinations plus empty plasmids were transfected to hek293T cells with SuperFect (QIAgen) 471 following the fabricant's protocol. After 48h post transfection, cells were checked by fluorescent 472 microscopy to visualize GFP expression and GFP-positive cells were sorted with the BD FACS

473 Aria II and BD FACS Diva software and then pelleted to simultaneous DNA, RNA and protein
474 extraction using TriPrep kit (MN).

475

476 cDNA synthesis and Real time quantitative PCRs

477

478 RNA samples were submitted to cDNA synthesis for miRNA using the NCode miRNA 479 First-Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (LifeTechnologies, USA) and recommended protocols. 480 RTqPCR were performed using Fast SYBRGreen MasterMix (Thermofisher) and mir152 481 specific primers with NCode miRNA First-Strand cDNA Synthesis qPCR Universal Primer in a 482 fast mode SybrGreen reaction at the QuantStudio 5 (Thermofisher). We used RNU6B and 483 RNU44 as endogenous controls. Relative expression values were calculated using the Delta Delta Ct method as previously reported ⁴⁹. For mRNA cDNA synthesis, we used the same total 484 485 RNA (1ug) as inputs for the SuperScript IV First-Strand Synthesis System (ThermoFisher) and 486 specific primers for human CDH1 (Forward Sequence: 5'-CCATTCAGTACAACGCCCAACCC-487 3', Reverse Sequence: 5'-CACAGTCACACACGCTGACCTC-3'), DNMT1 (Forward Sequence: 488 5'-TATCCGAGGAGGGCTACCTG-3', Reverse Sequence: 5'-CTGCCATTCCCACTCTACGG-3') 489 and TBP (Forward Sequence: 5'-GTGACCCAGCATCACTGTTTC-3', Reverse Sequence: 5'-490 HPRT1 5'-GCAAACCAGAAACCCTTGCG-3') (Forward Sequence: and 491 CCTGGCGTCGTGATTAGTGAT-3', Reverse Sequence: 5'-AGACGTTCAGTCCTGTCCATAA-492 3') as endogenous controls, as well as zebrafish specific primers for *cdh1* (Forward Sequence: 493 5'-5'-TGTGACTGCAAAGGAGAGGC-3', Reverse Sequence: 494 Sequence: 5'-GAGCAGAAGAAGAGCAAGCAATAG-3') dnmt1 (Forward 495 TGTTACTTTGGGCAAGAGGAGAG-3', Reverse Sequence: 5'-AGTGGTGGTGGCTTTAGTCG-496 3') and rpl13a (Forward Sequence: 5'-TCTGGAGGACTGTAAGAGGTATGC-3', Reverse 497 Sequence: 5'-AGACGCACAATCTTGAGAGCAG-3') and beta-actin (Forward Sequence: 5'-498 CGAGCTGTCTTCCCATCCA-3', Reverse Sequence: 5'-TCACCAACGTAGCTGTCTTTCTG-3')

499	as endogenous controls, in a SybrGreen reaction at the QuantStudio 5 (Thermofisher) or
500	conventional PCR. For zebrafish mir152 quantification we used Taqman microRNA assay and
501	probes for dre-mir152 and rnu6, following the manufacturer's recommendations.
502	
503	Bisulfite sequencing on hek293T transfected cells
504	
505	For mir152 methylation analysis after pPlatTET1-GFP plasmid transfections in hek293T
506	cells, we applied traditional bisulfite sequencing method, consisted of bisulfite conversion of 1ug
507	of genomic DNA and PCR amplification of mir152 region using the method above described.
508	PCR products cloning into pGEM-T-easy vector system (Promega). We Sanger sequenced 10
509	colonies per sample using M13 primers using the above described method and results were
510	analysed with BISMA online tool (Bisulfite Sequencing DNA Methylation Analysis -
511	http://services.ibc.uni-stuttgart.de/BDPC/BISMA/) ⁵⁰ with default parameters.
512	
513	Injection of mirna mimics and inhibitor in zebrafish embryos and hypoxia tests
514	
515	We performed crossings of both AB and sox10-GFP zebrafish lineages and embryos
516	were collected in E3 medium. Specific Mirna mimics and inhibitor for mir152 were purchased
517	from mirVana Thermofisher Scientific. Embryos at the 1-cell stage were injected with 2nl of
518	25uM dre-mir152 mimics, 25uM dre-mir152 inhibitor, 25uM dre-mimics + inhibitor or TE.
519	Injected embryos were then raised for up to 5 days in E3 medium at 29oC and 12h/12h
520	light/dark cycle. 24hpf injected embryos were collected for RNA extraction and subsequent
521	cDNA synthesis and RTqPCR following the protocols above mentioned, for confocal microscopy
522	imaging or for cell dissociation followed by GFP-positive cell sorting. Pools of 20 embryos at
523	24hpf were used for cell dissociation following published methods ⁵¹ and GFP-positive cells
524	were sorted using BD FACS Aria II and BD FACS Diva software. Larvae at 5dpf were collected

525	and fixed in 4% PFA followed by alcian blue staining for craniofacial cartilages phenotyping
526	using previously published protocols ⁵² . To study hypoxia effects on zebrafish embryos, we
527	exposed 1-cell stage zebrafish embryos for 24h or 48h in a 1% O2 incubator (Hera Cell -
528	ThermoFisher).
529	
530 531	Acknowledgements
532	We are thankful to Dr. Passos-Bueno members for help in discussions and lab organization. We
533	thanks to Patrícia Semedo for helping with cell sorting. This work was supported by
534	FAPESP/CEPID 2013/08028-1, FAPESP 2017/11430-7 (LA), 2016/23648-4 (LAB) and CNPq
535	305405/2011-5 (MRPB) research fellowships.
536	
537	Author disclosure statement
538	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
539	
540	
541	Reference
542	Bibliography
543 544	1. Mossey, P.A., Little, J., Munger, R.G., Dixon, M.J., and Shaw, W.C. (2009). Cleft lip and palate. Lancet <i>374</i> , 1773–1785.
545 546 547 548 549	2. WHO Registry Meeting on Craniofacial Anomalies (2001 : Bauru, Brazil), Mossey, P.A., Catilla, E.E., WHO Human Genetics Programme, and WHO Meeting on International Collaborative Research on Craniofacial Anomalies (3rd : 2001 : Bauru, Brazil) (2003). Global registry and database on craniofacial anomalies : report of a WHO Registry Meeting on Craniofacial Anomalies.
550 551	3. Stanier, P., and Moore, G.E. (2004). Genetics of cleft lip and palate: syndromic genes contribute to the incidence of non-syndromic clefts. Hum. Mol. Genet. <i>13 Spec No 1</i> , R73-81.
552 553	4. Hu, D.N., Li, J.H., Chen, H.Y., Chang, H.S., Wu, B.X., Lu, Z.K., Wang, D.Z., and Liu, X.G. (1982). Genetics of cleft lip and cleft palate in China. Am. J. Hum. Genet. <i>34</i> , 999–1002.

554 5. Brito, L.A., Cruz, L.A., Rocha, K.M., Barbara, L.K., Silva, C.B.F., Bueno, D.F., Aguena, M.,

- 555 Bertola, D.R., Franco, D., Costa, A.M., et al. (2011). Genetic contribution for non-syndromic cleft
- 556 lip with or without cleft palate (NS CL/P) in different regions of Brazil and implications for
- association studies. Am. J. Med. Genet. A 155A, 1581–1587.
- 6. Grosen, D., Bille, C., Petersen, I., Skytthe, A., Hjelmborg, J. von B., Pedersen, J.K., Murray,
 J.C., and Christensen, K. (2011). Risk of oral clefts in twins. Epidemiology *22*, 313–319.
- 7. Yu, Y., Zuo, X., He, M., Gao, J., Fu, Y., Qin, C., Meng, L., Wang, W., Song, Y., Cheng, Y., et
 al. (2017). Genome-wide analyses of non-syndromic cleft lip with palate identify 14 novel loci
 and genetic heterogeneity. Nat. Commun. *8*, 14364.
- 8. Ludwig, K.U., Böhmer, A.C., Bowes, J., Nikolic, M., Ishorst, N., Wyatt, N., Hammond, N.L.,
 Gölz, L., Thieme, F., Barth, S., et al. (2017). Imputation of orofacial clefting data identifies novel
 risk loci and sheds light on the genetic background of cleft lip ± cleft palate and cleft palate only.
 Hum. Mol. Genet. *26*, 829–842.
- 567 9. Holzinger, E.R., Li, Q., Parker, M.M., Hetmanski, J.B., Marazita, M.L., Mangold, E., Ludwig,
- 568 K.U., Taub, M.A., Begum, F., Murray, J.C., et al. (2017). Analysis of sequence data to identify
- 569 potential risk variants for oral clefts in multiplex families. Mol. Genet. Genomic Med. 5, 570–579.
- 570 10. Basha, M., Demeer, B., Revencu, N., Helaers, R., Theys, S., Bou Saba, S., Boute, O.,
- 571 Devauchelle, B., Francois, G., Bayet, B., et al. (2018). Whole exome sequencing identifies
 572 mutations in 10% of patients with familial non-syndromic cleft lip and/or palate in genes mutated
 573 in well-known syndromes. J. Med. Genet. 55, 449–458.
- 574 11. Pengelly, R.J., Arias, L., Martínez, J., Upstill-Goddard, R., Seaby, E.G., Gibson, J., Ennis,
 575 S., Collins, A., and Briceño, I. (2016). Deleterious coding variants in multi-case families with
- 576 non-syndromic cleft lip and/or palate phenotypes. Sci. Rep. *6*, 30457.
- 577 12. Aylward, A., Cai, Y., Lee, A., Blue, E., Rabinowitz, D., Haddad, J., and University of
- 578 Washington Center for Mendelian Genomics (2016). Using whole exome sequencing to identify 579 candidate genes with rare variants in nonsyndromic cleft lip and palate. Genet. Epidemiol. *40*, 580 432–441.
- 581 13. Brito, L.A., Yamamoto, G.L., Melo, S., Malcher, C., Ferreira, S.G., Figueiredo, J., Alvizi, L.,
- 582 Kobayashi, G.S., Naslavsky, M.S., Alonso, N., et al. (2015). Rare Variants in the Epithelial
- 583 Cadherin Gene Underlying the Genetic Etiology of Nonsyndromic Cleft Lip with or without Cleft
- 584 Palate. Hum. Mutat. *36*, 1029–1033.
- 585 14. Savastano, C.P., Brito, L.A., Faria, Á.C., Setó-Salvia, N., Peskett, E., Musso, C.M., Alvizi, L.,
- Ezquina, S.A.M., James, C., GOSgene, et al. (2017). Impact of rare variants in ARHGAP29 to
 the etiology of oral clefts: role of loss-of-function vs missense variants. Clin. Genet. *91*, 683–
 689.
- 589 15. Cox, L.L., Cox, T.C., Moreno Uribe, L.M., Zhu, Y., Richter, C.T., Nidey, N., Standley, J.M.,
- 590 Deng, M., Blue, E., Chong, J.X., et al. (2018). Mutations in the Epithelial Cadherin-p120-Catenin
- 591 Complex Cause Mendelian Non-Syndromic Cleft Lip with or without Cleft Palate. Am. J. Hum.
- 592 Genet. *102*, 1143–1157.
- 593 16. Lebby, K.D., Tan, F., and Brown, C.P. (2010). Maternal factors and disparities associated

- 594 with oral clefts. Ethn. Dis. 20, S1-146.
- 595 17. Métneki, J., Puhó, E., and Czeizel, A.E. (2005). Maternal diseases and isolated orofacial 596 clefts in Hungary. Birth Defects Res. Part A Clin. Mol. Teratol. *73*, 617–623.
- 597 18. Jia, Z.L., Shi, B., Chen, C.H., Shi, J.Y., Wu, J., and Xu, X. (2011). Maternal malnutrition,
- environmental exposure during pregnancy and the risk of non-syndromic orofacial clefts. OralDis. *17*, 584–589.
- 600 19. Acuña-González, G., Medina-Solís, C.E., Maupomé, G., Escoffie-Ramírez, M., Hernández-
- Romano, J., Márquez-Corona, M. de L., Islas-Márquez, A.J., and Villalobos-Rodelo, J.J. (2011).
- Family history and socioeconomic risk factors for non-syndromic cleft lip and palate: a matched case-control study in a less developed country. Biomedica *31*, 381–391.
- 604 20. Meyer, K.A., Williams, P., Hernandez-Diaz, S., and Cnattingius, S. (2004). Smoking and the 605 risk of oral clefts. Epidemiology *15*, 671–678.
- 606 21. Shahrukh Hashmi, S., Gallaway, M.S., Waller, D.K., Langlois, P.H., Hecht, J.T., and
- 607 National Birth Defects Prevention Study (2010). Maternal fever during early pregnancy and the
- risk of oral clefts. Birth Defects Res. Part A Clin. Mol. Teratol. 88, 186–194.
- 609 22. Waller, D.K., Hashmi, S.S., Hoyt, A.T., Duong, H.T., Tinker, S.C., Gallaway, M.S., Olney,
- 610 R.S., Finnell, R.H., Hecht, J.T., Canfield, M.A., et al. (2018). Maternal report of fever from cold
- or flu during early pregnancy and the risk for noncardiac birth defects, National Birth Defects
- 612 Prevention Study, 1997-2011. Birth Defects Res. *110*, 342–351.
- 23. Bánhidy, F., Acs, N., Puhó, E.H., and Czeizel, A.E. (2010). A possible association of
- 614 periodontal infectious diseases in pregnant women with isolated orofacial clefts in their children:
- 615 A population-based case-control study. Birth Defects Res. Part A Clin. Mol. Teratol. *88*, 466–
- 616 473.
- 617 24. Alvizi, L., Ke, X., Brito, L.A., Seselgyte, R., Moore, G.E., Stanier, P., and Passos-Bueno,
- 618 M.R. (2017). Differential methylation is associated with non-syndromic cleft lip and palate and 619 contributes to penetrance effects. Sci. Rep. *7*, 2441.
- 620 25. Howe, L.J., Richardson, T.G., Arathimos, R., Alvizi, L., Passos-Bueno, M.R., Stanier, P.,
- Nohr, E., Ludwig, K.U., Mangold, E., Knapp, M., et al. (2019). Evidence for DNA methylation mediating genetic liability to non-syndromic cleft lip/palate. Epigenomics *11*, 133–145.
- 623 26. Sharp, G.C., Ho, K., Davies, A., Stergiakouli, E., Humphries, K., McArdle, W., Sandy, J.,
- 624 Davey Smith, G., Lewis, S.J., and Relton, C.L. (2017). Distinct DNA methylation profiles in 625 subtypes of orofacial cleft. Clin. Epigenetics *9*, 63.
- 626 27. Gonseth, S., Shaw, G.M., Roy, R., Segal, M.R., Asrani, K., Rine, J., Wiemels, J., and Marini,
- 627 N.J. (2019). Epigenomic profiling of newborns with isolated orofacial clefts reveals widespread
- 628 DNA methylation changes and implicates metastable epiallele regions in disease risk.
- 629 Epigenetics *14*, 198–213.
- 630 28. Tammen, S.A., Friso, S., and Choi, S.-W. (2013). Epigenetics: the link between nature and
- 631 nurture. Mol. Aspects Med. *34*, 753–764.
- 632 29. Jaenisch, R., and Bird, A. (2003). Epigenetic regulation of gene expression: how the

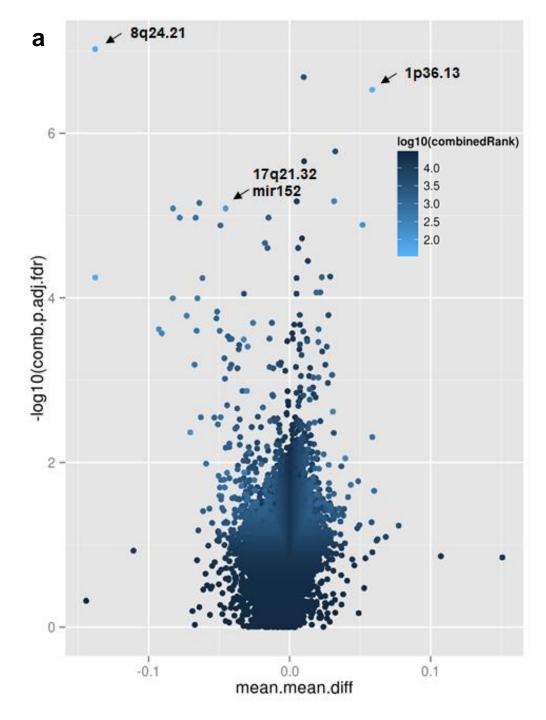
- 633 genome integrates intrinsic and environmental signals. Nat. Genet. 33 Suppl, 245–254.
- 634 30. Moosavi, A., and Motevalizadeh Ardekani, A. (2016). Role of epigenetics in biology and
- human diseases. Iran. Biomed. J. 20, 246–258.
- 636 31. Zoghbi, H.Y., and Beaudet, A.L. (2016). Epigenetics and human disease. Cold Spring Harb.
 637 Perspect. Biol. *8*, a019497.
- 638 32. Bird, A. (2007). Perceptions of epigenetics. Nature *447*, 396–398.
- 639 33. Feil, R., and Fraga, M.F. (2012). Epigenetics and the environment: emerging patterns and 640 implications. Nat. Rev. Genet. *13*, 97–109.
- 34. Fyfe, I. (2018). Alzheimer disease: Epigenetics links ageing with Alzheimer disease. Nat.
 Rev. Neurol. *14*, 254.
- 643 35. Ligthart, S., Marzi, C., Aslibekyan, S., Mendelson, M.M., Conneely, K.N., Tanaka, T.,
- 644 Colicino, E., Waite, L.L., Joehanes, R., Guan, W., et al. (2016). DNA methylation signatures of
- 645 chronic low-grade inflammation are associated with complex diseases. Genome Biol. 17, 255.
- 36. Chambers, J.C., Loh, M., Lehne, B., Drong, A., Kriebel, J., Motta, V., Wahl, S., Elliott, H.R.,
- Rota, F., Scott, W.R., et al. (2015). Epigenome-wide association of DNA methylation markers in
- 648 peripheral blood from Indian Asians and Europeans with incident type 2 diabetes: a nested
- 649 case-control study. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. *3*, 526–534.
- 37. Florath, I., Butterbach, K., Heiss, J., Bewerunge-Hudler, M., Zhang, Y., Schöttker, B., and
- Brenner, H. (2016). Type 2 diabetes and leucocyte DNA methylation: an epigenome-wide association study in over 1,500 older adults. Diabetologia *59*, 130–138.
- 653 38. Montano, C., Taub, M.A., Jaffe, A., Briem, E., Feinberg, J.I., Trygvadottir, R., Idrizi, A.,
- Runarsson, A., Berndsen, B., Gur, R.C., et al. (2016). Association of DNA Methylation
- Differences With Schizophrenia in an Epigenome-Wide Association Study. JAMA Psychiatry 73,
 506–514.
- 657 39. Liu, Y., Aryee, M.J., Padyukov, L., Fallin, M.D., Hesselberg, E., Runarsson, A., Reinius, L.,
- Acevedo, N., Taub, M., Ronninger, M., et al. (2013). Epigenome-wide association data implicate
 DNA methylation as an intermediary of genetic risk in rheumatoid arthritis. Nat. Biotechnol. *31*,
 142–147.
- 40. Rakyan, V.K., Down, T.A., Balding, D.J., and Beck, S. (2011). Epigenome-wide association studies for common human diseases. Nat. Rev. Genet. *12*, 529–541.
- 663 41. Gilsbach, R., Schwaderer, M., Preissl, S., Grüning, B.A., Kranzhöfer, D., Schneider, P.,
- 664 Nührenberg, T.G., Mulero-Navarro, S., Weichenhan, D., Braun, C., et al. (2018). Distinct
- 665 epigenetic programs regulate cardiac myocyte development and disease in the human heart in 666 vivo. Nat. Commun. *9*, 391.
- 42. Barbosa, M., Joshi, R.S., Garg, P., Martin-Trujillo, A., Patel, N., Jadhav, B., Watson, C.T.,
- 668 Gibson, W., Chetnik, K., Tessereau, C., et al. (2018). Identification of rare de novo epigenetic 669 variations in congenital disorders. Nat. Commun. *9*, 2064.
- 43. Assenov, Y., Müller, F., Lutsik, P., Walter, J., Lengauer, T., and Bock, C. (2014).
- 671 Comprehensive analysis of DNA methylation data with RnBeads. Nat. Methods *11*, 1138–1140.

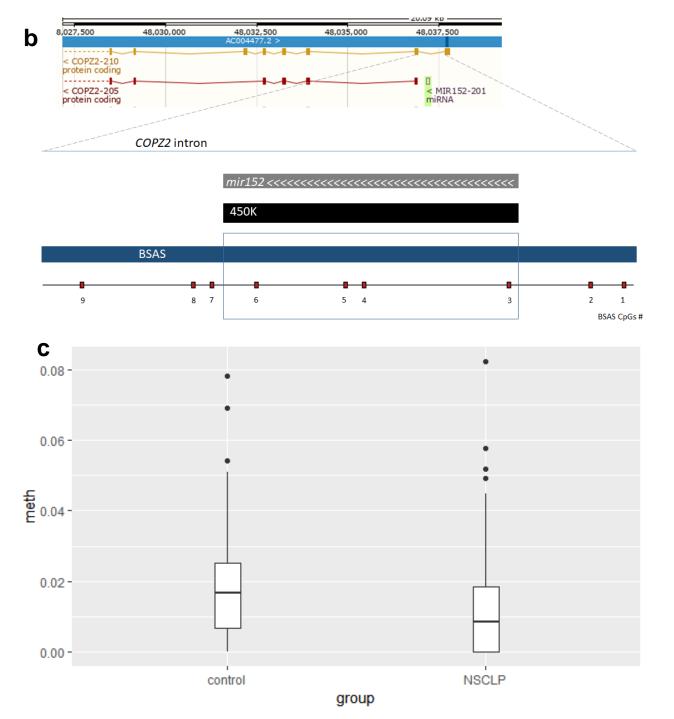
- 44. Masser, D.R., Berg, A.S., and Freeman, W.M. (2013). Focused, high accuracy 5-
- 673 methylcytosine quantitation with base resolution by benchtop next-generation sequencing.674 Epigenetics Chromatin *6*, 33.
- 45. Masser, D.R., Stanford, D.R., and Freeman, W.M. (2015). Targeted DNA methylation analysis by next-generation sequencing. J. Vis. Exp.
- 46. Wojdacz, T.K., Hansen, L.L., and Dobrovic, A. (2008). A new approach to primer design for the control of PCR bias in methylation studies. BMC Res. Notes *1*, 54.
- 47. Lutsik, P., Feuerbach, L., Arand, J., Lengauer, T., Walter, J., and Bock, C. (2011). BiQ
 Analyzer HT: locus-specific analysis of DNA methylation by high-throughput bisulfite
 sequencing. Nucleic Acids Res. *39*, W551-6.
- 48. Morita, S., Noguchi, H., Horii, T., Nakabayashi, K., Kimura, M., Okamura, K., Sakai, A.,
 Nakashima, H., Hata, K., Nakashima, K., et al. (2016). Targeted DNA demethylation in vivo
 using dCas9-peptide repeat and scFv-TET1 catalytic domain fusions. Nat. Biotechnol. *34*,
- 685 1060–1065.
- 49. Pfaffl, M.W. (2001). A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RTPCR. Nucleic Acids Res. *29*, e45.
- 50. Rohde, C., Zhang, Y., Reinhardt, R., and Jeltsch, A. (2010). BISMA--fast and accurate
 bisulfite sequencing data analysis of individual clones from unique and repetitive sequences.
 BMC Bioinformatics *11*, 230.
- 51. Bresciani, E., Broadbridge, E., and Liu, P.P. (2018). An efficient dissociation protocol for
 generation of single cell suspension from zebrafish embryos and larvae. MethodsX *5*, 1287–
 1290.
- 52. Favaro, F.P., Alvizi, L., Zechi-Ceide, R.M., Bertola, D., Felix, T.M., de Souza, J., Raskin, S.,
 Twigg, S.R.F., Weiner, A.M.J., Armas, P., et al. (2014). A noncoding expansion in EIF4A3
 causes Richieri-Costa-Pereira syndrome, a craniofacial disorder associated with limb defects.
- 697 Am. J. Hum. Genet. *94*, 120–128.
- 53. Seelan, R.S., Appana, S.N., Mukhopadhyay, P., Warner, D.R., Brock, G.N., Pisano, M.M.,
- and Greene, R.M. (2013). Developmental profiles of the murine palatal methylome. Birth
 Defects Res. Part A Clin. Mol. Teratol. *97*, 171–186.
- 54. Greene, R.M., and Pisano, M.M. (2010). Palate morphogenesis: current understanding and
 future directions. Birth Defects Res. C Embryo Today *90*, 133–154.
- 55. Birnbaum, S., Ludwig, K.U., Reutter, H., Herms, S., Steffens, M., Rubini, M., Baluardo, C.,
- Ferrian, M., Almeida de Assis, N., Alblas, M.A., et al. (2009). Key susceptibility locus for
 nonsyndromic cleft lip with or without cleft palate on chromosome 8q24. Nat. Genet. *41*, 473–
 477.
- 56. Brito, L.A., Paranaiba, L.M.R., Bassi, C.F.S., Masotti, C., Malcher, C., Schlesinger, D.,
- 708 Rocha, K.M., Cruz, L.A., Bárbara, L.K., Alonso, N., et al. (2012). Region 8q24 is a susceptibility
- locus for nonsyndromic oral clefting in Brazil. Birth Defects Res. Part A Clin. Mol. Teratol. 94,
- 710 464–468.

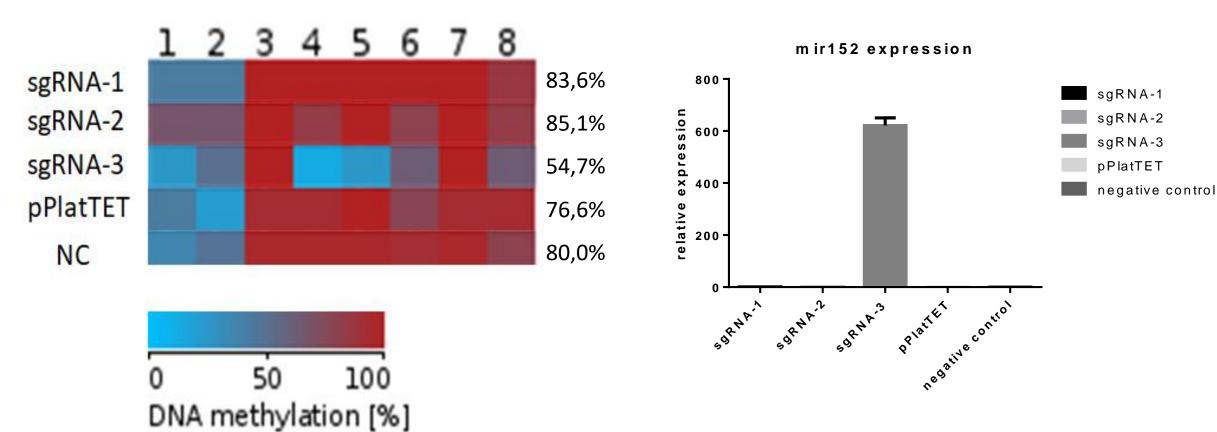
- 57. Chen, L., Ge, B., Casale, F.P., Vasquez, L., Kwan, T., Garrido-Martín, D., Watt, S., Yan, Y.,
- Kundu, K., Ecker, S., et al. (2016). Genetic drivers of epigenetic and transcriptional variation in
 human immune cells. Cell *167*, 1398-1414.e24.
- 58. Herman, J.J., and Sultan, S.E. (2016). DNA methylation mediates genetic variation for
- 715 adaptive transgenerational plasticity. Proc. Biol. Sci. 283,.
- 59. Theodore, S.C., Davis, M., Zhao, F., Wang, H., Chen, D., Rhim, J., Dean-Colomb, W.,
- 717 Turner, T., Ji, W., Zeng, G., et al. (2014). MicroRNA profiling of novel African American and
- 718 Caucasian Prostate Cancer cell lines reveals a reciprocal regulatory relationship of miR-152 and
- 719 DNA methyltranferase 1. Oncotarget *5*, 3512–3525.
- 60. Sengupta, D., Deb, M., Rath, S.K., Kar, S., Parbin, S., Pradhan, N., and Patra, S.K. (2016).
- 721 DNA methylation and not H3K4 trimethylation dictates the expression status of miR-152 gene
- which inhibits migration of breast cancer cells via DNMT1/CDH1 loop. Exp. Cell Res. *346*, 176–187.
- 724 61. Tang, X.-L., Lin, L., Song, L.-N., and Tang, X.-H. (2016). Hypoxia-inducible miR-152
- suppresses the expression of WNT1 and ERBB3, and inhibits the proliferation of cervical cancer
- 726 cells. Exp Biol Med (Maywood) 241, 1429–1437.
- 62. Huang, S., Xie, Y., Yang, P., Chen, P., and Zhang, L. (2014). HCV core protein-induced
 down-regulation of microRNA-152 promoted aberrant proliferation by regulating Wnt1 in HepG2
 cells. PLoS ONE *9*, e81730.
- 730 63. Küchler, E.C., Silva, L.A. da, Nelson-Filho, P., Sabóia, T.M., Rentschler, A.M., Granjeiro,
- J.M., Oliveira, D., Tannure, P.N., Silva, R.A. da, Antunes, L.S., et al. (2018). Assessing the
- association between hypoxia during craniofacial development and oral clefts. J. Appl. Oral Sci.26, e20170234.
- 64. Bronsky, P.T., Johnston, M.C., and Sulik, K.K. (1986). Morphogenesis of hypoxia-induced
 cleft lip in CL/Fr mice. J. Craniofac. Genet. Dev. Biol. Suppl. *2*, 113–128.
- 65. Millicovsky, G., and Johnston, M.C. (1981). Hyperoxia and hypoxia in pregnancy: simple
 experimental manipulation alters the incidence of cleft lip and palate in CL/Fr mice. Proc Natl
 Acad Sci USA *78*, 5722–5723.
- 739 66. Finer, S., Mathews, C., Lowe, R., Smart, M., Hillman, S., Foo, L., Sinha, A., Williams, D.,
- Rakyan, V.K., and Hitman, G.A. (2015). Maternal gestational diabetes is associated with
- genome-wide DNA methylation variation in placenta and cord blood of exposed offspring. Hum.
- 742 Mol. Genet. 24, 3021–3029.
- 743 67. Xu, C.-J., Söderhäll, C., Bustamante, M., Baïz, N., Gruzieva, O., Gehring, U., Mason, D.,
- Chatzi, L., Basterrechea, M., Llop, S., et al. (2018). DNA methylation in childhood asthma: an
 epigenome-wide meta-analysis. Lancet Respir. Med. *6*, 379–388.
- 68. Leenen, F.A.D., Muller, C.P., and Turner, J.D. (2016). DNA methylation: conducting theorchestra from exposure to phenotype? Clin. Epigenetics *8*, 92.
- 748 69. McRae, A.F., Marioni, R.E., Shah, S., Yang, J., Powell, J.E., Harris, S.E., Gibson, J.,
- 749 Henders, A.K., Bowdler, L., Painter, J.N., et al. (2018). Identification of 55,000 replicated DNA
- 750 methylation QTL. Sci. Rep. *8*, 17605.

- 751 70. Schulz, H., Ruppert, A.-K., Herms, S., Wolf, C., Mirza-Schreiber, N., Stegle, O., Czamara,
- D., Forstner, A.J., Sivalingam, S., Schoch, S., et al. (2017). Genome-wide mapping of genetic
- determinants influencing DNA methylation and gene expression in human hippocampus. Nat.Commun. *8*, 1511.
- 755 71. Liu, X., Li, J., Qin, F., and Dai, S. (2016). miR-152 as a tumor suppressor microRNA: Target 756 recognition and regulation in cancer. Oncol. Lett. *11*, 3911–3916.
- 757 72. Ning, Y.-X., Wang, X.-Y., Wang, J.-Q., Zeng, R., and Wang, G.-Q. (2018). miR- 152
- regulates TGF- β 1- induced epithelial- mesenchymal transition by targeting HPIP in tubular epithelial cells. Mol. Med. Report. *17*, 7973–7979.
- 760 73. Frebourg, T., Oliveira, C., Hochain, P., Karam, R., Manouvrier, S., Graziadio, C., Vekemans,
- 761 M., Hartmann, A., Baert-Desurmont, S., Alexandre, C., et al. (2006). Cleft lip/palate and
- 762 CDH1/E-cadherin mutations in families with hereditary diffuse gastric cancer. J. Med. Genet. *43*,
 763 138–142.
- 764 74. Vogelaar, I.P., Figueiredo, J., van Rooij, I.A.L.M., Simões-Correia, J., van der Post, R.S.,
- 765 Melo, S., Seruca, R., Carels, C.E.L., Ligtenberg, M.J.L., and Hoogerbrugge, N. (2013).
- Identification of germline mutations in the cancer predisposing gene CDH1 in patients withorofacial clefts. Hum. Mol. Genet. *22*, 919–926.
- 768 75. Huang, C., Kratzer, M.-C., Wedlich, D., and Kashef, J. (2016). E-cadherin is required for 769 cranial neural crest migration in Xenopus laevis. Dev. Biol. *411*, 159–171.
- 770 76. Dunwoodie, S.L. (2009). The role of hypoxia in development of the Mammalian embryo.
 771 Dev. Cell *17*, 755–773.
- 772 77. Huang, L., Chen, X., Dasgupta, C., Chen, W., Song, R., Wang, C., and Zhang, L. (2018).
- Fetal hypoxia impacts methylome and transcriptome in developmental programming of heartdisease. Cardiovasc. Res.
- 775 78. Webster, W.S., and Abela, D. (2007). The effect of hypoxia in development. Birth Defects 776 Res. C Embryo Today *81*, 215–228.
- 777 79. Hutter, D., Kingdom, J., and Jaeggi, E. (2010). Causes and mechanisms of intrauterine
 778 hypoxia and its impact on the fetal cardiovascular system: a review. Int. J. Pediatr. *2010*,
 779 401323.
- 80. Webster, W.S., Howe, A.M., Abela, D., and Oakes, D.J. (2006). The relationship between
 cleft lip, maxillary hypoplasia, hypoxia and phenytoin. Curr. Pharm. Des. *12*, 1431–1448.
- 782 81. Smith, F., Hu, D., Young, N.M., Lainoff, A.J., Jamniczky, H.A., Maltepe, E., Hallgrimsson, B.,
- and Marcucio, R.S. (2013). The effect of hypoxia on facial shape variation and disease
- phenotypes in chicken embryos. Dis. Model. Mech. *6*, 915–924.
- 82. Millicovsky, G., and Johnston, M.C. (1981). Maternal hyperoxia greatly reduces the incidence of phenytoin-induced cleft lip and palate in A/J mice. Science *212*, 671–672.
- 83. Castilla, E.E., Lopez-Camelo, J.S., and Campaña, H. (1999). Altitude as a risk factor for congenital anomalies. Am. J. Med. Genet. *86*, 9–14.
- 789 84. Little, J., Cardy, A., and Munger, R.G. (2004). Tobacco smoking and oral clefts: a meta-

analysis. Bull. World Health Organ. 82, 213–218.







b

а

