

Ancestry-Matched and Cross-Ancestry Genetic Risk Scores of Type 2 Diabetes in Pregnant Women and Fetal Growth: A Study in an Ancestrally Diverse Cohort

Marion Ouidir, Xuehuo Zeng, Suvo Chatterjee, Cuilin Zhang, Fasil

Tekola-Ayele

To cite this version:

Marion Ouidir, Xuehuo Zeng, Suvo Chatterjee, Cuilin Zhang, Fasil Tekola-Ayele. Ancestry-Matched and Cross-Ancestry Genetic Risk Scores of Type 2 Diabetes in Pregnant Women and Fetal Growth: A Study in an Ancestrally Diverse Cohort. Diabetes, $2021, 71$ (2) , pp.340 - 349. $10.2337/db21-0655$. hal-04662363

HAL Id: hal-04662363 <https://hal.science/hal-04662363v1>

Submitted on 31 Jul 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Ancestry-matched and cross-ancestry genetic risk scores of type 2 diabetes in pregnant women and fetal growth - a study in an ancestrally diverse cohort

Marion Ouidir¹, PhD; Xuehuo Zeng¹, PhD; Suvo Chatterjee¹, PhD; Cuilin Zhang¹, MD, MPH, PhD; Fasil Tekola-Ayele¹, PhD

¹ Epidemiology Branch, Division of Population Health Research, Division of Intramural Research, *Eunice Kennedy Shriver* National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA

Correspondence:

Fasil Tekola-Ayele, PhD

Epidemiology Branch, Division of Population Health Research, Division of Intramural Research, *Eunice Kennedy Shriver* National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health 6710B Rockledge Drive, Room 3204, Bethesda, MD 20892-7004

E-mail: ayeleft@mail.nih.gov

ABSTRACT

Maternal genetic variants associated with offspring birth weight and adult type 2 diabetes (T2D) risk loci show some overlap. Whether T2D genetic risk influences longitudinal fetal weight and the gestational timing when these relationships begin is unknown. We investigated the associations of T2D genetic risk score (GRS) with longitudinal fetal weight and birth weight among 1,513 pregnant women from four ancestral groups. Women had up to 5 ultrasonography. Ancestry-matched GRS were constructed separately using 380 European- (GRS*eur*), 104 African- (GRS*afr*), and 189 East Asian- (GRS*eas*) related T2D loci discovered in different population groups. Among European Americans, the highest quartile GRS*eur* was significantly associated with 53.8 g higher fetal weight (95% confidence interval [CI] 19.2-88.5 g) over the pregnancy. The associations began at gestational week 24 and continued through week 40, with a 106.8 g (95% CI: 6.5-207.1 g) increase in birth weight. The findings were similar in analysis further adjusted for maternal glucose challenge test results. No consistent association was found using ancestry-matched or cross-ancestry GRS in non-Europeans. In conclusion, T2D genetic susceptibility may influence fetal growth starting at mid-second trimester among Europeans. Absence of similar associations in non-Europeans urges the need for further genetic T2D studies in diverse ancestries.

Trial Registration: ClinicalTrials.gov, NCT00912132.

INTRODUCTION

Abnormal fetal growth is associated with increased risk of childhood morbidity and adult cardiometabolic diseases including type 2 diabetes (T2D) (1-3). Complex interactions of maternal and fetal genetic and environmental factors contribute to fetal growth variations (4). Associations between T2D risk-alleles and birth weight could vary depending on whether the maternal T2D risk-allele is transmitted to the fetus or is non-transmitted (5, 6). Recent estimates show that maternal genotypes account for 7.6% to 11.1% of variations in birth weight $(7, 8)$. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) found several overlaps between genetic variants on the maternal genome associated with higher offspring birth weight and known T2D susceptibility loci such as *MTNR1B*, *GCK, TCF7L2*, *ADCY5*, and *CDKAL1* (7, 8). However, whether T2D genetic risk influences longitudinal fetal weight trajectories and if so, the gestational timing when these relationships begin is unknown. Further, such data in diverse ancestral populations is lacking. Addressing this research question will help us achieve a better understanding on the etiology of aberrant fetal growth.

T2D-risk alleles in the maternal genome may affect fetal growth indirectly, by altering maternal glycemia during pregnancy (9) and thereby influencing fetal insulin secretion, or directly by sharing the genetic variant to the offspring (8, 10). In previous studies among European ancestry populations, maternal genetic variants at T2D-risk loci have been associated with higher offspring birth weight (7, 11). Another study that aggregated the known T2D risk variants among African ancestry populations into a genetic risk score (GRS) has found that higher maternal T2D-related GRS is associated with increased birth weight (10). Genetic associations on

birthweight may not be directly transferable to fetal weight because the genetic contribution to fetal growth varies during gestation (4), with gestation time-specific effect (12).

Genetic effects may also vary by ancestry (13, 14). Moreover, GRS constructed using genetic variants associated with T2D in GWASs conducted in European populations has limited validity in non-European populations due to differences in variant distributions and genetic structure (15). Therefore, an investigation of maternal genetic contribution to fetal growth generalizable to diverse populations warrants GRS constructed from genetic variants validated in the respective ancestral population, longitudinal fetal growth measures, and multi-ancestral cohorts. To date, the role of maternal genetic predisposition to T2D on longitudinal fetal weight among ancestrally diverse populations has not been studied.

In this study, we used a cohort of pregnant women from four ancestral populations in the U.S. to investigate the association between maternal genetic predisposition to T2D and fetal weight. For each ancestral population, we examined these associations using GRS constructed from T2D risk variants identified by GWAS involving a population group with matching ancestry ("ancestrymatched GRS"). We also evaluated associations in each ancestral population using GRS constructed from T2D risk variants identified by GWAS involving a different population group ("cross-ancestry GRS").

METHODS

Study population

Women with low risk-status were enrolled in the NICHD Fetal Growth Studies – Singleton cohort from July 2009 to January 2013 at 12 clinic sites in the U.S. as previously reported (16).

To ensure low-risk for adverse pregnancy outcomes, women with chronic diseases, previous pregnancy complications or self-reported use of cigarettes, illicit drugs or alcohol during the months before enrollment were not included in the study (16). Briefly, women from four selfidentified race/ethnic groups (i.e., white, hereafter referred to as European American, Hispanic (Hispanic American), black (African American), East Asian (East Asian American)) were recruited between 8 weeks 0 days and 13 weeks 6 days of pregnancy and followed along the pregnancy.

DNA extraction, genotyping and genotype-based principal components

DNA was extracted from stored blood samples collected during study visits. Genotyping was performed using the Infinium Multi-Ethnic Global BeadChip array (Illumina) that has >1.7 million single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Genotypes were imputed with the Michigan Imputation Server implementing Eagle2 for haplotype phasing, followed by Minimac2 for imputing non typed SNPs with 1000 Genomes Phase 3 reference sequence data. Individuals whose ancestry is an outliner from the distribution of the Hispanic, African, European and East Asian clusters of the 1000 Genomes reference population were removed. Details of the quality control process has previously been described (12). Genotype data were used to estimate genotype-based principal components (PCs) representing population structure (17).

Genetic risk score construction

GRS construction was based on previous GWAS that reported T2D risk variants. The causal variants tagged by a GWAS variant involving one ancestral population may be on a different block of haplotype (segment of correlated genetic markers) in other populations (18). Therefore, we constructed three ancestry-specific GRS related to T2D, GRS*eur* using 380 SNPs from GWAS of T2D in European populations (19), GRS*afr* using 104 SNPs from GWAS of T2D in African American populations (20) and GRS*eas* using 189 SNPs from GWAS of T2D in East Asian populations (21) (Supplementary Table S1, S2 and S3, respectively). Weighted GRS were calculated by multiplying the dosage of the T2D-increasing allele for each SNP (range:0–2) by its published effect estimate (19-21), followed by summing the resulting values.

Fetal growth parameters

After the first ultrasonography to confirm gestational age with self-reported last menstrual period, participants were randomized to 1 of 4 schedules for 5 ultrasonography appointments (22). All the women included in this study had at least two ultrasound measurements with estimation of fetal growth. This randomization scheme was designed to capture gestational weeks 16 to 40 without having to expose women to weekly ultrasonography. Measurement of fetal growth was performed using standardized obstetrical ultrasonography protocols and identical equipment (Voluson E8; GE Healthcare). All dedicated sonographers underwent an intensive training and evaluation period (23). The quality control showed that measurements between site sonographers and experts had high correlation (>0.99) and a low coefficient of variation (3%) (24).

Outcomes

For each ultrasound, fetal weight was estimated from head circumference, abdominal circumference and femur length using the Hadlock formula (25). The creation of the fetal growth curve has been previously described (22). Briefly, ultrasound measurement of fetal growth was

6

used to compute race/ethnic-specific fetal growth curves with weekly estimation using linear mixed models with cubic spline mean structures and a cubic polynomial random effect. Three knot points have been chosen based on the Akaike information criterion and fixed at 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles to evenly distributed gestation weeks and percentiles were estimated considering normal distribution of the random effects and error structure, ultimately estimating the growth curves (22). The same models were used to obtain ancestry-specific weekly estimation of fetal growth from gestational week 13 to 40 for all enrolled women. Birth weight was measured using an electronic infant scale or beam balance scale. Birth weight was recorded in grams (g).

Glucose tolerance results

Women with gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM), impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) and normal glucose tolerance (NGT) were identified using the medical record review (26). GDM was defined by the oral glucose tolerance test results based on the Carpenter-Coustan criteria (27) (at least two values met or exceeded: 95 mg/dL at fasting, 180 mg/dL at 1 h, 155 mg/dL at 2 h, 140 mg/dL at 3 h), or by receipt of gestational diabetes medications. IGT was defined as having a plasma glucose concentration 2 h after oral glucose tolerance test between 140 mg/dL and 199 mg/dL, but not meeting the criteria for GDM (27). NGT was defined as women without GDM, without IGT and with all glucose tolerance test values < 140 mg/L.

Statistical analyses

Analyses were stratified by maternal ancestry group (i.e. European-, Hispanic-, African- and East Asian-American) to avoid spurious associations or distortions in effect estimates between genetic susceptibility and fetal growth because of allele frequency differences between ancestry groups (28). *Post-hoc* statistical power was calculated using the GPower 3 program with $\alpha = 0.05$, eight predictors and an effect size f^2 of 0.04 (29). Power ranged from 80.7% for East Asian Americans (smallest sample size, $n = 202$), to 98.9% for European Americans (largest sample size, $n = 471$).

We considered GRS as categorical quartiles because, as in Rahman *et al.* (10), the relationship between GRS of T2D and birth weight examined using penalized cubic splines (adjusted for maternal pre-pregnancy body-mass index (BMI), five first genotype PCs, fetal sex and gestational age at delivery) was non-linear. Linear regressions were used to test association between GRS quartiles 2, 3, 4 compared to quartile 1 and weekly fetal growth and birth weight, adjusted for maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, five first genotype PCs and fetal sex; association between GRS and birth weight was further adjusted for gestational age at delivery. Given the number of comparisons in weekly fetal growth analysis, we implemented the Benjamini and Yekutieli (BY) false discovery rate correction for multiple testing (30). Longitudinal linear mixed models were used to estimate association between GRS and longitudinal fetal weight adjusted for maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, five first genotype PCs, fetal sex, gestational age at the ultrasound coded using linear and quadratic terms and random effect corresponding to the mother-child pair. We calculated the linear trend over increasing mean-GRS quartiles (i.e. the mean of the GRS quartile was assigned to all women from the quartile) adjusted for the abovementioned covariates and reported the p-value of trend (p-trend).

For each ancestry group, we examined ancestry-matched GRS and cross-ancestry GRS. Specifically, ancestry-matched GRS included GRS*eur* among European Americans, GRS*afr* among African Americans and GRS*eas* among East Asian Americans. Coss-ancestry GRS included GRS*afr* and GRS*eas* among European Americans, GRS*afr*, GRS*eur* and GRS*eas* among Hispanic Americans, GRS*eur* and GRS*eas* among African Americans, and GRS*eur* and GRS*afr* among East Asian Americans.

We performed two ancestry-matched GRS sensitivity analyses 1) further adjusting for the value of the glucose challenge test, 2) restricting to women with normal glucose tolerance (NGT, all glucose tolerance test $\leq 140 \text{ mg/L}$. This was done by excluding women with IGT, women with GDM and women who had any elevated values (> 140 mg/dL) in oral glucose tolerance test or glucose challenge test but did not meet the criteria for GDM or IGT, resulting in the exclusion of 165 women.

Finally, we assessed the additional variance in fetal weight and birthweight explained by GRS by calculating the differences in adjusted coefficient of determination (adjusted R^2) between the regression model that included GRS as well as covariates and the model that included covariates only. The covariates considered were maternal pre-pregnancy BMI, first five PCs, fetal sex and gestational age at the ultrasound or at birth.

Data and Resource Availability

The data sets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. No applicable resources were generated or analyzed during the current study.

RESULTS

Analyses were performed among 471 European Americans, 418 Hispanic Americans, 422 African Americans, and 202 East Asian Americans. The average fetal weight was highest among European Americans throughout pregnancy and lowest among East Asian Americans until late in pregnancy when the mean fetal weight became lowest among African Americans (p-values < 0.001). Mean birth weight ranged from 3189 g (standard deviation [sd]: 535 g) among African Americans to 3418 g (sd: 489 g) among European Americans (p-value = 9.8×10^{-12}) (Table 1). The distribution of GRS differed between ancestry groups, with the exception that mean (sd) GRS*eur* was similar between European Americans (22.79 (sd: 0.68)) and Hispanic Americans (22.76 (sd: 0.66)) (Supplementary Figure S1). Similarly, the minor allele frequency distribution of the individuals SNPs used to construct the GRS varied between ancestry groups (Supplementary Figure S2).

Ancestry-matched GRS

Among European Americans, the highest quartile GRS*eur* was associated with 53.8 g higher longitudinal fetal weight (95% confidence interval [CI]: 19.2, 88.5 g) (p-trend = 0.01) compared to the lowest quartile GRS*eur* (Figure 1). The findings were unchanged when analysis was adjusted for glucose tolerance results (Supplementary Figure S3) and among women with normal glucose tolerance (Supplementary Figure S4). Analysis at each gestational week from 24 to 40 weeks showed that the highest quartile GRS*eur* was associated with higher fetal weight beginning at week 24 (an increase in fetal weight of 15.8 g [95 % CI: 0.1, 31.4 g] at week 24 to 196.0 g [95 % CI: 80.7, 311.4 g] at week 40, among women with the highest GRS*eur* compared to women with the lowest GRS*eur*; Figure 2). The findings were similar in a sensitivity analysis

except that associations were significant beginning at week 22 when analysis was further adjusted for glucose tolerance test results and was significant beginning at week 27 among women with normal glucose tolerance (Table 2). At birth, the highest quartile GRS*eur* was associated with 106.8 g higher (95% CI: 6.5, 207.1 g) birth weight (p-trend = 0.11) (Figure 3).

Among other ancestry groups, ancestry-matched GRS (i.e., GRS*afr* among African Americans and GRS*eas* among East Asian Americans) were not associated with longitudinal fetal weight (Figure 1) or birth weight in the main analysis (Figure 3) and sensitivity analysis (Supplementary Figure S3 and Supplementary Figure S4). In the weekly analysis, GRS*afr* among African Americans was not associated with weekly estimated fetal weight (Supplementary Table S4). The third quartile GRS*eas* among East Asian Americans was associated with higher fetal weight from 13 to 28 weeks (an increase in fetal weight of 2.9 g [95 % CI: 0.2, 5.6 g] at week 13 to 46.8 g [95 % CI: 0.46, 93.2 g] at week 40) compared to women with the lowest GRS*eas*, but the highest quartile GRS*eas* was not associated with fetal weight (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S5).

Cross-ancestry GRS

Among European Americans, the highest quartile GRS*afr* was associated with 38.4 g higher longitudinal fetal weight (95% CI: 3.7, 73.1 g, p-trend = 0.07) compared to the lowest quartile GRS*afr* (Supplementary Figures S5), the third quartile GRS*eas* was associated with 53.9 g higher longitudinal fetal weight (95% CI: 19.5, 88.3 g, p-trend = 0.01) and 117.8 g (95% CI: 17.8, 217.8 g, p-trend = 0.09) higher birth weight compared to the lowest quartile GRS*eas* (Supplementary Figures S6).

Among African Americans, the second quartile GRS*eas* was associated with 37.0 g lower longitudinal fetal weight (95% CI: -72.32, -1.59 g, p-trend = 0.22) compared to the lowest quartile GRS*eas;* the second quartile GRS*eur* was associated with 36.3 g higher longitudinal fetal weight (95% CI: 0.86, 71.7 g, p-trend = 0.61) compared to the lowest quartile GRS*eur*; the second and third quartiles of GRS*eur* were associated with 108.9 g (95% CI: 7.5, 210.3 g) and 131.7 g (95% CI: 29.4, 233.9 g) higher birth weight, respectively (p-trend = 0.34).

All of the cross-ancestry GRS associations had lower precision as observed from the wide confidence intervals. Other cross-ancestry GRS (i.e., GRS*eur*, GRS*afr* and GRS*eas* among Hispanic Americans; GRS*eur* and GRS*afr* among East Asian Americans) were not associated with longitudinal fetal weight and birth weight.

Additional variance explained by GRS

Additional variance (change in adjusted R^2) in longitudinal fetal weight and birthweight explained by GRS was very small across all ancestry groups. The highest change in adjusted \mathbb{R}^2 was 0.44% increase in variance of birthweight explained by GRS*eur* among European Americans (Supplementary Table S6).

DISCUSSION

In this study of maternal genetic predisposition to T2D and fetal growth, we observed that GRS of T2D derived from GWAS involving European ancestry populations was significantly and positively associated with fetal weight starting at week 24 and birth weight among European

American women. Consistent associations were found among European American women with normal glucose tolerance. However, among women with non-European ancestry, GRS of T2D derived from ancestry-matched and cross-ancestry GWAS were not associated with fetal weight or birthweight.

Maternal genetic susceptibility to T2D can influence fetal growth via different mechanisms. The best described mechanism is increased maternal blood glucose which crosses the placenta and stimulates secretion of fetal insulin (31-34), which is a well-known fetal growth factor (35). A study among African American women suggested that maternal GRS influenced fetal growth independent of maternal blood glucose levels (10). In the present study, we observed that GRS of T2D was associated with higher fetal weight even among women with normal glucose tolerance. Fetal insulin-induced growth can in part explain our finding in the later gestational weeks. Although earlier studies reported that fetal pancreatic insulin secretion is not glucose sensitive until approximately 28 gestational weeks (36), more recent studies showed that fetal insulin response to glucose can be established at earlier gestational age (37-39). Moreover, our study's associations in European Americans were stronger among women with normal glucose tolerance, suggesting that maternal genetic susceptibility to T2D can impact fetal growth independently of maternal glycemia. This is consistent with a study among Afro Caribbean women that found that the association of maternal T2D GRS with birth weight is not mediated via maternal fasting and post-challenge glucose levels measured during oral glucose tolerance test in late second trimester $(10).$

13

Our observations of increased fetal growth associated with maternal T2D GRS could be explained by several factors. First, maternal genetic variants can be implicated in the intrauterine environment via changes in maternal metabolic status, placental vascular function, and transfer of nutrients to the fetus, thereby affecting the intrauterine environment (40). Second, several T2D risk alleles included in the GRS overlap with genetic loci associated with gestational diabetes (41), obesity (42), gestational weight gain (43), metabolic syndrome (44) and blood lipids (45, 46); each of these traits can influence fetal growth (47). Therefore, the SNPs included in the T2D GRS may influence fetal growth beyond the contribution of maternal blood glucose levels. Third, the associations may partly be due to parentally inherited fetal T2D-related alleles. For example, a recent GWAS on birth weight reported 15 SNPs pleiotropic with T2D, of which 2 had directionally consistent fetal and maternal effects (7). Future larger studies using the Mendelian randomization analyses framework are needed to separate the direct fetal effect from indirect maternal effect. Examining the overlapping and independent effects of GRS for multiple cardio-metabolic traits such as lipids and blood pressure (48, 49) may help understand the complex pathways involved in fetal growth regulation.

No consistent association was found between ancestry-matched or cross-ancestry GRS and fetal and birth weights in non-Europeans. It has been demonstrated that cross-ancestry analysis can cause unpredictable biases (50). In our analysis, the relationship between GRS and birthweight among African Americans showed a non-linear trend, consistent with a previous study among Afro-Caribbeans (10). Given the genetic heterogeneity of the African American population, a more refined GRS from multiple African populations may be required to improve prediction. Broadly, however, the performance of GRS is more reassuring among populations with close

14

ancestry (51), although different environmental exposures may alter the genetic effect. Although some T2D GWAS loci discovered in Europeans were replicated in Hispanics (52, 53) and East Asians (21), recent studies emphasize the need for representation of diverse ancestral populations in genetic studies of T2D (54). Studies conducted among Hispanic populations have reported only a handful signals at previously known regions from European GWAS of T2D (52, 53). This limited our ability to generate ancestry-specific GRS for Hispanic American women, highlighting the critical necessity of large scale genetic studies of T2D in Hispanic and Indigenous populations. Absence of well-powered GWAS in diverse ancestries is a prevailing issue in genomics (50). Our study's null findings in non-Europeans, despite tests using ancestrymatched GRS, is likely because fewer SNPs were included in ancestry-matched GRS for non-Europeans than Europeans (3.7 and 2.0 folds fewer in Africans and East Asians, respectively, compared to Europeans). We also acknowledge that our sample size for East Asian Americans is the smallest of all groups and statistical power is marginal, potentially limiting the reliability of the estimates.

Although GRS could be a promising potential biomarker in future precision medicine, it is critical to validate its performance using studies with larger sample size before translation into clinical practice (55). Inclusion of ancestrally diverse populations in genetic studies is also crucial to improve the reliability of GRS for risk prediction across population groups (55). Furthermore, as GRS can explain only part of the variability in fetal growth, it should be integrated with environmental factors to improve its predictive utility in clinical decisions (4).

To our knowledge, this is the first study to test the association between maternal T2D genetic risks derived from diverse-ancestry GWAS and fetal growth in diverse ancestry groups. We recognize that our study has limitations, we did not have fetal genotype, fetus insulin level or maternal glucose level to investigate mediation, however, our findings were consistent even after adjusting for maternal glucose challenge test values or after exclusion of women with abnormal glucose tolerance. The NICHD Fetal Growth Study has many strengths including its longitudinal design, involvement of ancestry diverse populations, and implementation of standardized ultrasound protocols with established quality control (23, 24). The study recruited healthy pregnant women without previous pregnancy complications and pre-pregnancy diabetes (16), minimizing confounding related to abnormal maternal blood glucose.

In conclusion, genetic susceptibility to T2D was associated with increased fetal weight starting at week 24 and birth weight among European American women even with normal glucose tolerance. These results suggest that maternal genetic susceptibility to T2D may be related to fetal growth beyond the contribution of maternal blood glucose levels. Absence of similar associations in non-European women urges the need for further genetic studies to understand the genetic architecture of T2D in diverse ancestries.

Acknowledgments: We acknowledge the study participants of the NICHD Fetal Growth Studies. We thank research teams at all participating clinical centers (which include Christina Care Health Systems, Columbia University, Fountain Valley Hospital, California, Long Beach Memorial Medical Center, New York Hospital, Queens, Northwestern University, University of Alabama at Birmingham, University of California, Irvine, Medical University of South Carolina, Saint Peters University Hospital, Tufts University, and Women and Infants Hospital of Rhode Island). The authors also acknowledge the Wadsworth Center, C-TASC and the EMMES Corporations in providing data and imaging support. This work utilized the computational resources of the NIH HPC Biowulf cluster [\(http://hpc.nih.gov\)](http://hpc.nih.gov/).

Author Contributions: M.O. analyzed the data, conceived of the article and wrote the manuscript. X.Z. analyzed the data, reviewed and edited the manuscript. S.C. reviewed and edited the manuscript. C.Z. implemented the study protocol, reviewed and edited the manuscript. F.T-.A. conceived the research idea, supervised the project, reviewed and edited the manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the article. F.T-.A. is the guarantor of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Conflict of Interest Statement: No potential conflicts of interest relevant to this article were reported.

Funding sources: This research was supported by the Intramural Research Program of the *Eunice Kennedy Shriver* National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, National Institutes of Health including American Recovery and Reinvestment Act funding via contract numbers HHSN275200800013C; HHSN275200800002I; HHSN27500006;

HHSN275200800003IC; HHSN275200800014C; HHSN275200800012C;

HHSN275200800028C; HHSN275201000009C and HHSN27500008. Additional support was obtained from the NIH Office of the Director and the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities.

REFERENCES

1. Hales CN, Barker DJ, Clark PM, Cox LJ, Fall C, Osmond C, et al. Fetal and infant growth and impaired glucose tolerance at age 64. BMJ. 1991;303(6809):1019-22.

2. Barker D. The intrauterine origins of cardiovascular disease. Acta Paediatr. 1993;82:93-9.

3. Whincup PH, Kaye SJ, Owen CG, Huxley R, Cook DG, Anazawa S, et al. Birth weight and risk of type 2 diabetes: a systematic review. JAMA. 2008;300(24):2886-97.

4. Workalemahu T, Grantz KL, Grewal J, Zhang C, Louis GMB, Tekola-Ayele F. Genetic and Environmental Influences on Fetal Growth Vary during Sensitive Periods in Pregnancy. Sci Rep. 2018;8(1):7274.

5. Horikoshi M, Beaumont RN, Day FR, Warrington NM, Kooijman MN, Fernandez-Tajes J, et al. Genome-wide associations for birth weight and correlations with adult disease. Nature. 2016;538(7624):248-52.

6. Juliusdottir T, Steinthorsdottir V, Stefansdottir L, Sveinbjornsson G, Ivarsdottir EV, Thorolfsdottir RB, et al. Distinction between the effects of parental and fetal genomes on fetal growth. Nat Genet. 2021;53(8):1135-42.

7. Warrington NM, Beaumont RN, Horikoshi M, Day FR, Helgeland O, Laurin C, et al. Maternal and fetal genetic effects on birth weight and their relevance to cardio-metabolic risk factors. Nat Genet. 2019;51(5):804-14.

8. Beaumont RN, Warrington NM, Cavadino A, Tyrrell J, Nodzenski M, Horikoshi M, et al. Genomewide association study of offspring birth weight in 86 577 women identifies five novel loci and highlights maternal genetic effects that are independent of fetal genetics. Hum Mol Genet. 2018;27(4):742-56.

9. Li JH, Szczerbinski L, Dawed AY, Kaur V, Todd JN, Pearson ER, et al. A Polygenic Score for Type 2 Diabetes Risk Is Associated With Both the Acute and Sustained Response to Sulfonylureas. Diabetes. 2021;70(1):293-300.

10. Rahman ML, Shrestha D, Workalemahu T, Wu J, Zhu C, Zhang C, et al. Maternal and Offspring Genetic Risk of Type 2 Diabetes and Offspring Birthweight Among African Ancestry Populations. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2019;104(11):5032-42.

11. Freathy RM, Weedon MN, Bennett A, Hypponen E, Relton CL, Knight B, et al. Type 2 diabetes TCF7L2 risk genotypes alter birth weight: a study of 24,053 individuals. Am J Hum Genet. 2007;80(6):1150-61.

12. Tekola-Ayele F, Zhang C, Wu J, Grantz KL, Rahman ML, Shrestha D, et al. Trans-ethnic metaanalysis of genome-wide association studies identifies maternal ITPR1 as a novel locus influencing fetal growth during sensitive periods in pregnancy. PLoS Genet. 2020;16(5):e1008747.

13. Tekola-Ayele F, Ouidir M, Shrestha D, Workalemahu T, Rahman ML, Mendola P, et al. Admixture mapping identifies African and Amerindigenous local ancestry loci associated with fetal growth. Hum Genet. 2021.

14. Tekola-Ayele F, Workalemahu T, Amare AT. High burden of birthweight-lowering genetic variants in Africans and Asians. BMC Med. 2018;16(1):70.

15. Popejoy AB, Fullerton SM. Genomics is failing on diversity. Nature. 2016;538(7624):161-4.

16. Grewal J, Grantz KL, Zhang C, Sciscione A, Wing DA, Grobman WA, et al. Cohort Profile: NICHD Fetal Growth Studies-Singletons and Twins. Int J Epidemiol. 2018;47(1):25-l.

17. Price AL, Patterson NJ, Plenge RM, Weinblatt ME, Shadick NA, Reich D. Principal components analysis corrects for stratification in genome-wide association studies. Nat Genet. 2006;38(8):904-9. 18. Sirugo G, Williams SM, Tishkoff SA. The Missing Diversity in Human Genetic Studies. Cell.

2019;177(1):26-31.

19. Mahajan A, Taliun D, Thurner M, Robertson NR, Torres JM, Rayner NW, et al. Fine-mapping type 2 diabetes loci to single-variant resolution using high-density imputation and islet-specific epigenome maps. Nat Genet. 2018;50(11):1505-13.

20. Ng MC, Shriner D, Chen BH, Li J, Chen WM, Guo X, et al. Meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies in African Americans provides insights into the genetic architecture of type 2 diabetes. PLoS Genet. 2014;10(8):e1004517.

21. Spracklen CN, Horikoshi M, Kim YJ, Lin K, Bragg F, Moon S, et al. Identification of type 2 diabetes loci in 433,540 East Asian individuals. Nature. 2020;582(7811):240-5.

22. Buck Louis GM, Grewal J, Albert PS, Sciscione A, Wing DA, Grobman WA, et al. Racial/ethnic standards for fetal growth: the NICHD Fetal Growth Studies. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2015;213(4):449 e1 e41.

23. Fuchs KM, D'Alton M. 23: Can sonographer education and image review standardize image acquisition and caliper placement in 2D ultrasounds? Experience from the NICHD Fetal Growth Study. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2012;206(1):S15-S6.

24. Hediger ML, Fuchs KM, Grantz KL, Grewal J, Kim S, Gore-Langton RE, et al. Ultrasound Quality Assurance for Singletons in the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Fetal Growth Studies. J Ultrasound Med. 2016;35(8):1725-33.

25. Hadlock FP, Harrist RB, Sharman RS, Deter RL, Park SK. Estimation of fetal weight with the use of head, body, and femur measurements--a prospective study. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 1985;151:333-7.

26. Li M, Hinkle SN, Grantz KL, Kim S, Grewal J, Grobman WA, et al. Glycaemic status during pregnancy and longitudinal measures of fetal growth in a multi-racial US population: a prospective cohort study. Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol. 2020;8(4):292-300.

27. American Diabetes A. 2. Classification and Diagnosis of Diabetes. Diabetes Care. 2017;40(Suppl 1):S11-S24.

28. Lander E, Schork N. Genetic dissection of complex traits. Science. 1994;265:2037-48.

29. Faul F, Erdfelder E, Lang AG, Buchner A. G*Power 3: a flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. Behav Res Methods. 2007;39(2):175-91.

30. Benjamini Y, Yekutieli D. The control of the false discovery rate in multiple testing under dependency. Ann Statist. 2001;29(4):1165-88.

31. Desoye G, Wells JCK. Pregnancies in Diabetes and Obesity: The Capacity-Load Model of Placental Adaptation. Diabetes. 2021;70(4):823-30.

32. Yang Y, Wang Z, Mo M, Muyiduli X, Wang S, Li M, et al. The association of gestational diabetes mellitus with fetal birth weight. J Diabetes Complications. 2018;32(7):635-42.

33. Pedersen J. Weight and length at birth of infants of diabetic mothers. Acta Endocrinol (Copenh). 1954;16(4):330-42.

34. Kc K, Shakya S, Zhang H. Gestational diabetes mellitus and macrosomia: a literature review. Ann Nutr Metab. 2015;66 Suppl 2:14-20.

35. Hattersley AT, Tooke JE. The fetal insulin hypothesis: an alternative explanation of the association of low birthweight with diabetes and vascular disease. Lancet. 1999;353(9166):1789-92.

36. Milner RD, Hill DJ. Fetal growth control: the role of insulin and related peptides. Clin Endocrinol (Oxf). 1984;21(4):415-33.

37. Reiher H, Fuhrmann K, Noack S, Woltanski KP, Jutzi E, Hahn von Dorsche H, et al. Age-dependent insulin secretion of the endocrine pancreas in vitro from fetuses of diabetic and nondiabetic patients. Diabetes Care. 1983;6(5):446-51.

38. Carpenter MW, Canick JA, Hogan JW, Shellum C, Somers M, Star JA. Amniotic fluid insulin at 14- 20 weeks' gestation: association with later maternal glucose intolerance and birth macrosomia. Diabetes Care. 2001;24(7):1259-63.

39. Tisi DK, Burns DH, Luskey GW, Koski KG. Fetal exposure to altered amniotic fluid glucose, insulin, and insulin-like growth factor-binding protein 1 occurs before screening for gestational diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Care. 2011;34(1):139-44.

40. Yaghootkar H, Freathy RM. Genetic origins of low birth weight. Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care. 2012;15(3):258-64.

41. Huopio H, Cederberg H, Vangipurapu J, Hakkarainen H, Paakkonen M, Kuulasmaa T, et al. Association of risk variants for type 2 diabetes and hyperglycemia with gestational diabetes. Eur J Endocrinol. 2013;169(3):291-7.

42. Pulit SL, Stoneman C, Morris AP, Wood AR, Glastonbury CA, Tyrrell J, et al. Meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies for body fat distribution in 694 649 individuals of European ancestry. Hum Mol Genet. 2019;28(1):166-74.

43. Stuebe AM, Lyon H, Herring AH, Ghosh J, Wise A, North KE, et al. Obesity and diabetes genetic variants associated with gestational weight gain. Am J Obstet Gynecol. 2010;203(3):283 e1-17.

44. Kong X, Zhang X, Xing X, Zhang B, Hong J, Yang W. The Association of Type 2 Diabetes Loci Identified in Genome-Wide Association Studies with Metabolic Syndrome and Its Components in a Chinese Population with Type 2 Diabetes. PLoS One. 2015;10(11):e0143607.

45. Richardson TG, Sanderson E, Palmer TM, Ala-Korpela M, Ference BA, Davey Smith G, et al. Evaluating the relationship between circulating lipoprotein lipids and apolipoproteins with risk of coronary heart disease: A multivariable Mendelian randomisation analysis. PLoS Med. 2020;17(3):e1003062.

46. de Vries PS, Brown MR, Bentley AR, Sung YJ, Winkler TW, Ntalla I, et al. Multiancestry Genome-Wide Association Study of Lipid Levels Incorporating Gene-Alcohol Interactions. Am J Epidemiol. 2019;188(6):1033-54.

47. Tyrrell J, Richmond RC, Palmer TM, Feenstra B, Rangarajan J, Metrustry S, et al. Genetic Evidence for Causal Relationships Between Maternal Obesity-Related Traits and Birth Weight. JAMA. 2016;315(11):1129-40.

48. Ouidir M, Mendola P, Workalemahu T, Grewal J, Grantz KL, Zhang C, et al. Race-ethnic differences in the associations of maternal lipid trait genetic risk scores with longitudinal fetal growth. J Clin Lipidol. 2019;13(5):821-31.

49. Workalemahu T, Rahman ML, Ouidir M, Wu J, Zhang C, Tekola-Ayele F. Associations of maternal blood pressure-raising polygenic risk scores with fetal weight. J Hum Hypertens. 2021.

50. Martin AR, Gignoux CR, Walters RK, Wojcik GL, Neale BM, Gravel S, et al. Human Demographic History Impacts Genetic Risk Prediction across Diverse Populations. Am J Hum Genet. 2017;100(4):635- 49.

51. Cavazos TB, Witte JS. Inclusion of variants discovered from diverse populations improves polygenic risk score transferability. HGG Adv. 2021;2(1).

52. Parra EJ, Below JE, Krithika S, Valladares A, Barta JL, Cox NJ, et al. Genome-wide association study of type 2 diabetes in a sample from Mexico City and a meta-analysis of a Mexican-American sample from Starr County, Texas. Diabetologia. 2011;54(8):2038-46.

53. Qi Q, Stilp AM, Sofer T, Moon JY, Hidalgo B, Szpiro AA, et al. Genetics of Type 2 Diabetes in U.S. Hispanic/Latino Individuals: Results From the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos (HCHS/SOL). Diabetes. 2017;66(5):1419-25.

54. Polfus LM, Darst BF, Highland H, Sheng X, Ng MCY, Below JE, et al. Genetic discovery and risk characterization in type 2 diabetes across diverse populations. Human Genetics and Genomics Advances. 2021;2(2):100029.

55. Wand H, Lambert SA, Tamburro C, Iacocca MA, O'Sullivan JW, Sillari C, et al. Improving reporting standards for polygenic scores in risk prediction studies. Nature. 2021;591(7849):211-9.

TABLES

Table 1: Description of the study population (1,513 pregnant women from the NICHD fetal

growth Studies – Singletons)

BMI: body mass index

EFW: Estimated fetal weight

GRS: genetic risk score

NA: not applicable

* p-value derived from analysis of variance or chi-squared test comparing 4 groups.

Table 2: Weekly estimated fetal weight change (in grams) associated with the highest quartile of GRS*eur* compared to the lowest quartile among European American women (n = 471 from the NICHD Fetal Growth Studies–Singleton cohort). Adjusted for pre-pregnancy BMI, offspring sex and for the first 5 genetic principal components.

Note: All results were not significant after BY correction

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Changes in longitudinal fetal weight (in grams) for quartile increase in ancestrymatched GRS related-T2D (N=1513 from the NICHD Fetal Growth Studies–Singleton cohort). Adjusted for pre-pregnancy BMI, offspring sex, gestational age at measurements and for the first 5 genetic principal components. Dots indicate the estimates; vertical lines, the 95% confidence intervals; horizontal lines, the null.

Figure 2: Weekly change in estimated fetal weight (in grams) for quartile increase in A - GRS*eur* related-T2D among European American women, and B - GRS*eas* related-T2D among East Asian American women (N=1513 from the NICHD Fetal Growth Studies–Singleton cohort). Adjusted for maternal age, pre-pregnancy BMI, offspring sex and for the first 5 genetic principal components. Black curved lines indicate the estimates; grey zones, the 95% confidence intervals; horizontal lines, the null.

26

Figure 3: Change in birth weight (in grams) for quartile increase in ancestry-matched GRS related-T2D (N=1513 from the NICHD Fetal Growth Studies–Singleton cohort). Adjusted for maternal age, pre-pregnancy BMI, offspring sex, gestational age at delivery and for the first 5 genetic principal components. Dots indicate the estimates; vertical lines, the 95% confidence intervals; horizontal lines, the null.

