Research Paper

Association of growth hormone receptor gene variant with longevity in men is due to amelioration of increased mortality risk from hypertension

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ABSTRACT

The single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) rs4130113 of the growth hormone receptor gene (GHR) is associated with longevity. Here we explored whether longevity-associated genotypes protect against mortality in all individuals, or only in individuals with aging-related diseases. Rs4130113 genotypes were tested for association with mortality in 3,557 elderly American men of Japanese ancestry. At baseline (1991–1993), 1,000 had diabetes, 730 had coronary heart disease (CHD), 1,901 had hypertension, 485 had cancer, and 919 lacked these diseases. The men were followed from baseline until Dec 31, 2019 or death (mean 10.8 ± 6.5 SD years, range 0.01–28.8 years; 99.0% deceased by that date). In a heterozygote disadvantage model, longevity-associated genotypes were associated with significantly lower mortality risk in individuals having hypertension (covariateadjusted hazard ratio [HR] 0.83 [95% CI: 0.76–0.93, $p = 4.3 \times 10^{-4}$]. But in individuals with diabetes, CHD, and cancer there was no genotypic difference in lifespan. As expected, normotensive men outlived men with hypertension (p = 0.036). There was no effect, however, of genotypic difference on lifespan in normotensive men (p = 0.11). We found that SNP rs4130113 potentially influenced the binding of transcription factors E2A, MYF, NRSF, TAL1, and TCF12 so as to alter GHR expression. We propose that in individuals with hypertension, longevity-associated genetic variation in GHR enhances cell resilience mechanisms to help protect against cellular stress caused by hypertension. As a result, hypertension-affected men who possess the longevityassociated genetic variant of GHR live as long as normotensive men.

INTRODUCTION

Growth hormone (GH) and its receptor (GHR) are not only important for regulating growth, they have many other important biological functions including response to nutrients, regulation of metabolism and controlling physiological processes related to the hepatobiliary, cardiovascular, renal, gastrointestinal, and reproductive systems [1, 2]. Growth hormone signaling is an important regulator of aging. GH deficiency leads to slower growth, delayed maturation, reduced body size, and can result in attenuation of the rate of aging, increased health-span, and increased longevity [2]. Key to this are evolutionarily conserved pathways of insulin/insulin-like growth factors and mechanistic target of rapamycin, where there are trade-offs between anabolic processes/growth and lifespan. Accordingly, the GH deficient Ames dwarf mouse is long lived [3], whereas GH transgenic mice have shortened lifespans [2]. Disruption of the GHR in $Ghr^{-/-}$ mice leads to 55% and 38% longer lifespan in males and females, respectively [4]. Lifespan extension accompanying targeted deletion of both the GH releasing hormone gene and *Ghr* reduces lean body mass, bone mineral density, and increases adiposity [5]. GH signaling also increases the risk of cancer [2].

We have reported a significant negative association between height and longevity in our large cohort of American men of Japanese ancestry [6]. More recently, in a case-control study of 13 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) of GHR in this cohort (Supplementary Methods, Supplementary Study cohort, and Supplementary Table 1), SNP rs4130113 was associated with greater lifespan of nonagenarian men aged \geq 95 years [7] (Supplementary Table 2). Bonferroni corrected p value was 0.015 for rs4130113 in a major allele (A) vs minor allele (G) carrier recessive model. Besides the longevity findings in Ghr null mice, we studied GHR because in mouse liver GHR was differentially expressed (downregulated 2.1-fold), in response to the well-established longevity effector, caloric restriction [8].

In the present longitudinal study, we tested the hypothesis that genetic variation in *GHR* affects lifespan at least in part by protection against the detrimental effects of one or more aging-related diseases, namely diabetes, hypertension, coronary heart disease, and/or cancer. We identify putative functional differences attributable to our longevity variant and describe how these changes may influence the phenotype of disease resilience.

RESULTS

Characteristics of subjects

Shown in Table 1 are baseline (1991–1993) characteristics of men in the study, adjusting for age, according to each genotype of *GHR* SNP *rs4130113*, and prevalence of medical conditions. Analyses found no evidence of population stratification in the dataset (data not shown). By December 31, 2019, 3521 out of 3557 (99.0%) subjects had died during the overall 29 years of follow-up (mean 10.8 ± 6.5 SD years – range 0.01-28.8 years). At baseline, among the 3557 participants, 28.5% had been diagnosed with diabetes,

53.4% with hypertension, 20.5% with CHD, and 13.6% with cancer. Mean age at death was 88.6 ± 6.1 years for men with at least one disease, and 89.5 ± 6.0 years for those with none (p < 0.0001). In hypertensive subjects, prevalence of diabetes, hypertension, CHD and cancer did not differ significantly between each genotype.

GHR genotype and survival in subjects with, and without, the various diseases

Table 2 shows the results for 3 genetic models, i.e., AA vs AG/GG, AG vs AA/GG, and GG vs AA/AG (where G is the minor allele), using Cox proportional hazard models by disease status for diabetes, hypertension, CHD and cancer.

The heterozygote disadvantage model showed a significant genotypic association with lifespan difference for just one of the 4 diseases, namely hypertension (p =0.00027 for model 1 and p = 0.0034 for model 2; Table 2). After Bonferroni correction for the 32 comparisons in the multivariate analyses, the *p* values remained significant (p = 0.0086 and p = 0.011, respectively).Compared with the heterozygote (AG), being homozygous for either allele combined (AA or GG) showed significant protection against mortality in hypertensive subjects. The protection was similar for AA and GG (p = 0.92). However, in normotensive subjects, lifespan was significantly longer irrespective of GHR genotype (Kaplan-Meier Log-rank $\chi^2 = 24.2$, p = 8.9 x 10^{-7}). Survival curves for hypertensive subjects and normotensive subjects according to whether their genotype was AG or AA/GG are shown in Figure 1. These curves were determined using a Cox proportional hazard model adding an interaction term of GHR with hypertension. Hazard ratios for homozygotes vs heterozygotes on mortality by hypertension status are shown in Table 3. In men with hypertension who had the longevity-associated genotype, mortality risk was reduced to normal (Figure 2). No genetic effects of GHR genotype on mortality were apparent in subjects with diabetes, CHD and cancer after Bonferroni correction (Table 2). For completeness, we also show the effect of GHR SNP rs4130113 on mortality in the whole cohort irrespective of disease status (Supplementary Table 3). As can be seen, only the heterozygote disadvantage model showed an association of rs4130113 with longevity.

In a major allele recessive model, carriers of the longevity-associated minor allele (*G*) of *rs4130113* showed a weaker association with lifespan difference in hypertensives compared with major allele homozygotes (p = 0.015 for model 1, and p = 0.059 for model 2) (Table 2), which were rendered nonsignificant by Bonferroni correction.

Characteristics	AA	AG	GG	р
n	1256	1692	609	
Age at examination, y	77.9 ± 4.6	77.6 ± 4.6	77.6 ± 4.7	0.14
Birth year	1913.5 ± 4.6	1913.9 ± 4.6	1913.8 ± 4.7	0.10
Anthropometric and physiological				
Height, cm	161.6 ± 5.8	161.7 ± 5.6	162.1 ± 5.7	0.15
Weight, kg	61.7 ± 9.2	61 ± 9	61.9 ± 8.8	0.049
Waist to hip ratio	0.9 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	0.44
BMI, kg/m ²	23.6 ± 3.2	23.3 ± 3.1	23.5 ± 2.9	0.078
Triceps skinfold thickness, mm	10.4 ± 4.1	9.9 ± 4.0	10.1 ± 3.8	0.013
Subscapular skinfold thickness, mm	16.6 ± 6.2	16.0 ± 6.0	15.8 ± 6	0.0053
Best forced expiratory volume, L	2.0 ± 0.5	2.1 ± 0.4	2.1 ± 0.5	0.11
Grip strength, kg	30.3 ± 5.9	30.2 ± 6.1	30.1 ± 6.5	0.90
Blood pressure, systolic, mmHg	149.9 ± 23.2	149.2 ± 23.6	148.7 ± 23.5	0.57
Blood pressure, diastolic, mmHg	80.1 ± 11.2	80 ± 11.5	79.5 ± 10.9	0.55
Cognitive (CASI) score	82.6 ± 14.5	82.6 ± 14.5	83.1 ± 14.8	0.76
Hematological and biochemical				
Total cholesterol, mg/dL	190.8 ± 33.1	189.1 ± 33.2	189.6 ± 31.2	0.37
HDL cholesterol, mg/dL	51.2 ± 13.6	51.1 ± 13.3	49.9 ± 12.8	0.10
Triglycerides, mg/dL	150.8 ± 95.4	147.3 ± 94.4	150.9 ± 89.1	0.53
Fasting plasma glucose, mg/dL	112.4 ± 26.6	113.3 ± 30.3	113.5 ± 32.5	0.67
Fasting plasma insulin, mIU/dL	16.0 ± 13.5	15.4 ± 13.7	15.0 ± 11.2	0.31
Plasma fibrinogen, mg/dL	306.7 ± 65.3	306.6 ± 62.1	307.4 ± 65.6	0.96
White blood cell count, $10^3/\mu L$	6.2 ± 1.7	6.3 ± 2.5	6.2 ± 1.7	0.12
Health habits				
Current smoker, %	8.0	6.2	6.5	0.17
Past smoker, %	56.8	55.0	53.6	0.41
Smoking, pack-years	27.6 ± 35.4	25.4 ± 33.0	25.1 ± 34.4	0.20
Alcohol consumption, ounces/month	18.1 ± 40.1	19.6 ± 41.8	18.2 ± 37.8	0.58
Physical activity index, metabolic work/day	31 ± 4.6	30.8 ± 4.5	30.8 ± 4.6	0.38
Difficulty in walking 0.8 km, %	17.9	19.4	17.1	0.33
On diabetes medication, %	10.7	11.2	12.3	0.58
Diseases				
Hypertension (160/95), %	53.5	53.5	53.4	1.00
Coronary heart disease, %	19.8	20.3	22.5	0.40
Stroke history, %	4.2	3.9	5.9	0.11
Cancer. %	15.1	13.3	10.7	0.032
Diabetes, %	26.9	28.8	31.1	0.16
Depressive symptoms %	91	10.2	10.3	0.61
Emphysema. %	2.6	2.8	3.5	0.55
Bypass history, %	7.2	6.7	8.5	0.32
Angioplasty, %	5.3	8.0	6.1	0.013
Ankle-brachial index $< 0.9\%$, %	12.6	12.1	13.3	0.74
Sociodemographic				
Education, years	10.4 ± 3	10.6 ± 3.2	10.5 ± 3.1	0.16
Married, %	83.0	83.5	83.1	0.93

Table 1. Characteristics of all subjects at baseline by *GHR rs4130113* genotype.

Genotype frequencies indicated Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. The demographic data shown were age-adjusted.

			With the disease		Without the d	lisease
Disorder (n with/w'out)	Cox model	Genetic model [†]	$HR^{\text{F}}(95\% CI)$	р	HR (95% CI)	р
Diabetes	1*	AG vs. AA/GG	1.04 (0.92-1.18)	0.54	1.07 (0.99-1.16)	0.090
(1000, 2508)	2**	AG vs. AA/GG	1.06 (0.92-1.21)	0.43	1.07 (0.98-1.16)	0.14
Hypertension	1	AG vs. AA/GG	1.18 (1.08-1.30)	0.00027	0.95 (0.86-1.05)	0.32
(1901, 1656)	2	AG vs. AA/GG	1.20 (1.09-1.33)	0.00034	0.92 (0.82-1.02)	0.11
CHD	1	AG vs. AA/GG	1.05 (0.91-1.22)	0.48	1.08 (1.00-1.16)	0.050
(730, 2827)	2	AG vs. AA/GG	1.03 (0.88-1.21)	0.71	1.08 (0.99-1.17)	0.077
Cancer	1	AG vs. AA/GG	0.98 (0.82-1.18)	0.85	1.09 (1.01-1.17)	0.022
(485, 3072)	2	AG vs. AA/GG	0.95 (0.78-1.17)	0.64	1.08 (1.00-1.17)	0.042
Diabetes	1	AG/GG vs. AA	1.04 (0.91-1.19)	0.54	1.02 (0.94-1.10)	0.70
(1000, 2508)	2	AG/GG vs. AA	1.05 (0.91-1.21)	0.52	1.00 (0.91-1.09)	0.92
Hypertension	1	AG/GG vs. AA	1.12 (1.02-1.24)	0.015	0.93 (0.84-1.03)	0.17
(1901, 1656)	2	AG/GG vs. AA	1.11 (1.00-1.23)	0.059	0.90 (0.81-1.01)	0.071
CHD	1	AG/GG vs. AA	1.07 (0.92-1.25)	0.37	1.02 (0.94-1.10)	0.63
(730, 2827)	2	AG/GG vs. AA	1.02 (0.86-1.21)	0.80	1.01 (0.93-1.10)	0.84
Cancer	1	AG/GG vs. AA	0.93 (0.77-1.11)	0.42	1.06 (0.98-1.14)	0.15
(485, 3072)	2	AG/GG vs. AA	0.88 (0.71-1.09)	0.24	1.04 (0.96-1.13)	0.37
Diabetes	1	AA/AG vs. GG	1.00 (0.85-1.18)	0.97	1.10 (0.99-1.22)	0.085
(1000, 2508)	2	AA/AG vs. GG	1.02 (0.86-1.21)	0.82	1.13 (1.01-1.27)	0.040
Hypertension	1	AA/AG vs. GG	1.10 (0.98-1.24)	0.11	1.03 (0.90-1.17)	0.68
(1901, 1656)	2	AA/AG vs. GG	1.16 (1.02-1.33)	0.028	1.01 (0.88-1.17)	0.86
CHD	1	AA/AG vs. GG	0.98 (0.82-1.18)	0.85	1.10 (1.00-1.22)	0.053
(730, 2827)	2	AA/AG vs. GG	1.02 (0.83-1.25)	0.87	1.12 (1.00-1.25)	0.041
Cancer	1	AA/AG vs. GG	1.12 (0.86-1.45)	0.41	1.06 (0.96-1.16)	0.24
(485, 3072)	2	AA/AG vs. GG	1.14 (0.85-1.53)	0.37	1.08 (0.98-1.20)	0.14
Diabetes	1	Additive	1.02 (0.93-1.11)	0.69	0.98 (0.93-1.04)	0.51
(1000, 2508)	2	Additive	1.01 (0.92-1.11)	0.76	0.96 (0.91-1.02)	0.24
Hypertension	1	Additive	1.02 (0.96-1.09)	0.44	0.96 (0.89-1.03)	0.24
(1901, 1656)	2	Additive	1.00 (0.94-1.07)	0.94	0.95 (0.88-1.03)	0.19
CHD	1	Additive	1.04 (0.94-1.15)	0.48	0.98 (0.93-1.03)	0.47
(730, 2827)	2	Additive	1.00 (0.90-1.12)	0.93	0.97 (0.92-1.03)	0.33
Cancer	1	Additive	0.94 (0.82-1.07)	0.32	1.01 (0.96-1.06)	0.75
(485, 3072)	2	Additive	0.91 (0.78-1.05)	0.19	0.99 (0.94-1.05)	0.84

Table 2. Hazard ratios (HR) of heterozygotes vs. homozygotes of *GHR* SNP *rs4130113* and other models with total mortality in men with diabetes, hypertension, CHD and cancer.

Cox models: *Model 1: Age-adjusted; **Model 2: Covariate-adjusted, where covariates adjusted in Cox model were: age, BMI, glucose, smoking (pack-years), alcohol intake (ounces/month), physical activity index, depression, and stroke.

[†]Genetic models: Top: heterozygotes (*AG*) vs major allele homozygotes (*AA*) + minor allele homozygotes (*GG*). Middle: Major allele (*A*) vs minor allele (*G*) carrier recessive model. Bottom: Additive model.

[¥]HR, hazard ratio (95% confidence interval).

After Bonferroni correction for multiple testing for covariate adjusted models (in total 32 models), only the effect of AG vs. AA/GG with hypertension was significant, $p_B = 0.011$.

Functional annotations

In an attempt to determine how GHR may influence disease resistance and help to identify biological pathways we examined the following: (1) GHR tissue expression, (2) transcription factors (TFs) that might be modified by our sentinel SNP (rs4130113), (3) SNPs in linkage disequilibrium (LD) that might modify transcription factor binding, (4) the expression patterns of these TFs, and (5) the location of any cis-regulatory elements that are physically linked with our sentinel SNP. Supplementary Figure 1 shows that GHR is expressed most notably at high levels in adipose tissue, breast, liver, and muscle. We screened SNPs in and around rs4130113 for functional annotations using the HaploReg database. Our longevity SNP was predicted to influence the binding of transcription factors E2A, MYF, NRSF, TAL1, and TCF12 (Supplementary Figure 2). The effect of the major (i.e., more common) allele is predicted to reduce binding of E2A, MYF, NRSF and TCF12, and increase binding of TAL1. Biological effects, biological pathways, and tissue

expression of these transcription factors are shown in Supplementary Table 4, and include expression in muscle, neuronal cells, hematopoietic tissues and skin. While no other SNPs were in strong LD, three putative functional features were in moderate LD with rs4130113 and were examined in more detail in Supplementary Figure 3 and Supplementary Table 5. A super-enhancer that is active in adipose tissue occupies a large portion of GHR. A 3,812 bp downstream promoter, LOC107963949, is specific for the most abundant version of the GHR protein (v1) found in liver. Variant rs10941580 is an intronic expression OTL (ieQTL), which is a variant associated with differences in mRNA expression levels, and may also be a premRNA splicing-related QTL (sQTL) that, by an influence on splicing, would affect protein isoform profiles in adipose tissue, muscle, nerve, thyroid, and breast tissues), as shown in Supplementary Table 6. This variant is also identified as causing "non-sensemediated transcript decay" (Supplementary Table 4). As well, the SNP has been identified as an eOTL that influences expression and exon usage in the above



Figure 1. Survival curves spanning the period from baseline (1991–1993) to Dec 31, 2019 for subjects with and without hypertension according to genotypes of *GHR* SNP *rs4130113*. The survival probabilities were estimated from the Cox proportional hazard model: $h(t) = h(t0) * \exp(\beta 1*Age + \beta 2*BMI + \beta 3*glucose + \beta 4*hypertension + \beta 5*GHR_AG + \beta 6* (hypertension*GHR_AG)), by fixing age at 75 years, BMI at the mean, 23.5 kg/m², and glucose at the mean, 113 mg/dL (where <math>\beta 6$ is the effect of the interaction of hypertension with *GHR* genotype on mortality, for *AG* vs *AA/GG*, i.e., a heterozygote disadvantage model, giving $p(\beta 6) = 0.0004$). Survival curves of *AG* vs. *AA/GG* for hypertensive subjects and subjects without hypertension (p = 0.0003 and p = 0.14, respectively). In men with hypertension who had the longevity-associated genotype *AA* and those with the *GG* genotype, the mortality risk was reduced to a level not significantly different from subjects without hypertension (hypertensive *AA/GG* vs. normotensive *AA/GG*: p = 0.20; hypertensive *AA/GG* vs normotensive *AG* vs. *AA/GG* p = 0.78).

		Hypertensive $(n = 1901)$		Normotensive (n = 1656)
Cox model	Genetic model†	<i>HR</i> [¥] (95% <i>CI</i>)	р	HR (95% CI)	р
1*	AA vs AG	0.85 (0.77-0.94)	0.0012	1.08 (0.97-1.20)	0.19
1*	GG vs AG	0.84 (0.74-0.96)	0.0079	1.00 (0.88-1.15)	0.996
* *	AA vs AG	0.87 (0.77-0.97)	0.011	1.11 (0.99-1.25)	0.0830
2**	GG vs AG	0.81 (0.71-0.94)	0.0041	1.02 (0.88-1.19)	0.7702

Table 3. Hazard ratios (HR) of homozygotes (*AA*, *GG*) vs. heterozygotes (*AG*) of *GHR* SNP, *rs4130113*, with total mortality in men by hypertension status.

Cox models: *Model 1: Age-adjusted; **Model 2: Covariate-adjusted, where covariates adjusted in Cox model were: age, BMI, glucose, smoking (pack-years), alcohol intake (oz/mo), physical activity index, depression, cancer, and stroke, CHD, and diabetes.

⁺Genetic model: Heterozygote disadvantage.

[¥]HR, hazard ratio; CI, confidence interval.

tissues (see GTEx database). Since these variants are in a non-coding region of the genome, they are presumed to affect transcription and/or mRNA splicing/exon usage, whether directly or indirectly as chromatin modifying units (i.e., cis-regulatory elements). The tissue spectrum of GHR expression involves high levels in adipose tissue, breast, liver, and muscle, as shown in Supplementary Figure 1. According to the GTEx database, GHR has 13 different transcripts that result in five major isoforms. The majority of these are expressed in liver, muscle, breast, and adipose tissue (Supplementary Figure 4). Screening of GHR for eQTLs using the GTEx portal identified 4,568 entries in addition to rs10941580 (not shown) and 18,128 sQTLs in addition to rs10941580 (not shown). Data supporting the involvement of rs10941580 with exon usage and the tissues involved are shown in Supplementary Table 6.

In an attempt to determine how the GHR longevity SNP might influence biological pathways and to try to define the role that rs4130113 plays in resilience, we mapped the above potential regulatory sites using the WashU Genome Browser. Supplementary Figure 5 shows the location of GHR and its various transcripts (purple herring bones) and the location of the super-enhancer (bar) along with location of the three features: rs4130113, LOC107963949, and rs10941580. Shown in the Figure are data from ChIP-seq experiments, as follows: (a) DNAse I sensitive sites in muscle, (b) H3Kme3 histone marks in liver, (c), histone H3K27ac marks in muscle, (d) histone H3K27ac in liver, (e) histone H3K4me1 marks in liver, (f) H3K36me3 marks in liver, (g) histone marks in the HepG2 cell line (all of these using chromHMM, which is software for learning and characterizing chromatin states that can integrate multiple chromatin datasets such as ChIP-seq data of various histone modifications to discover de novo the major reoccurring combinatorial and spatial patterns of

chromatin marks), (h) the location of HNF4A binding, which has been shown to induce the "downstream promoter", (i) locations of RNA polymerase II (RNAPII) binding, and (j) CTCF binding sites and chromatin loop domains. H3K4me3 and DNAse I hypersensitivity are associated with sites of open chromatin, which are associated with activation of transcription of nearby genes [9]. H3K27ac is associated with activation in promoters/enhancers, H3K4me1 with activation in enhancers, and H3K36me3 with activation in gene bodies. The GHR promoter, rs4130113 and "downstream promoter" overlap with sites of H3K4me3, H3K27ac, and DNAse I hypersensitivity, as well as CTCF binding sites, the latter being able to serve as either 3-dimensional insulators or for the grouping of functional features together in *cis*-acting topological domains. Together these features are predicted to form a cis-regulatory unit consisting of the super-enhancer, rs4130113, and open chromatin sites. This is supported by the locations of CTCF binding sites that generally form insulator domains [10, 11].

DISCUSSION

The present study has found that the longevityassociated AA genotype (frequency 35.3%), but also the GG genotype (frequency 17.1%), of GHR SNP rs4130113 is associated with protection against risk of mortality in hypertensive elderly American men of Japanese ancestry. As a result, those individuals lived longer, whereas individuals with the AG genotype (frequency 47.6%) died sooner. Moreover, the survival curve for hypertensive AA/GG subjects did not differ significantly from the survival curve for normotensive subjects with the AA/GG genotype. This indicated that possession of the GHR longevity-associated genotype can mitigate the adverse effects on lifespan of having hypertension. Long-lived *Ghr*^{-/-} mice have elevated subcutaneous fat mass, APOE and insulin sensitivity of cardiac and skeletal muscle, but lower body weight, plasma cholesterol, IGF-I, plasma insulin, glucose tolerance, and cancer [12]. In our subjects, elevated BMI was associated with lower mortality in old age (HR = 0.96; 95% 0.95-0.97, p < 0.0001). Lifespan of mice with liver- and fat-specific Ghr knockout was not affected, and only a modest lifespan extension in males was seen in muscle-specific Ghr knockout mice [13]. Moreover, Ghr knockout in almost fully-grown mice can still extend lifespan, indicating the importance of GHrelated mechanisms in adulthood [14]. GH secretion is lower and more tightly controlled in offspring of longlived families when compared with their partners [15]. Subtle differences in GH-related effects are apparent between mice and humans, possibly arising from the fast vs. slow pace of life in each [2]. A notable example is the GHR exon 3 deletion variant that is associated with GH sensitivity, greater height, lower serum IGF-1, and longevity in men [16]. Individuals homozygous for a GHR exon 3 deletion (d3/d3) were reported to exhibit increased lifespan [16]. We did not, however, find an association of d3/d3 with longevity in our cohort. In the covariate-adjusted model, HR was 0.98 in the baseline sample. In the hypertensive subjects, HR was 1.02 (95%) CI 0.84–1.24; p = 0.84). After adjusting for d3/d3 in the covariate model, the HR for the effect of *GHR* heterozygotes on mortality in hypertensive subjects was unchanged, 1.20 (1.09-1.33; p = 0.00034).

Heterozygote disadvantage is when a heterozygote has a lower overall fitness than either homozygote, and can be a potent driver of population genetic divergence [17]. Why then would heterozygotes with hypertension be at a disadvantage? The effect of transcription factor binding, whether positive or negative, would be greater in homozygotes (AA and GG) than heterozygotes (AG). The repertoire of transcription factors would in turn be influenced by external factors, including a prevailing pathophysiological condition, in this case hypertension. To elucidate the mechanism explaining heterozygote disadvantage, future research should aim to ascertain the effect of each individual transcription factor on each genotype in the hypertensive vs normotensive state. As background, the GHR is either a monomer or homodimer. GHR is encoded by at least 10 exons, with exons 2-7 encoding the extracellular domain, exon 8 the transmembrane domain, and exons 9-10 the intracellular domain [18]. The predominant isoform, version v1, is shown as ENST00000230882.8 in Supplementary Figure 4. The exon 3 deletion variant, GHGRd3, is shown as ENST00000357703.6, and is the result of a deletion of the exon rather than being caused



Figure 2. Mortality risk (hazard ratio), adjusted for age, BMI and glucose, for hypertensive subjects and normotensive subjects according to genotype of *GHR* SNP *rs4130113* in heterozygote disadvantage model, *AG* vs. *AA/GG*. It can be seen that in men with hypertension who had a longevity-associated genotype, mortality risk was reduced to normal in that it did not differ significantly from the survival curves of normotensive men.

by a splicing event. As can be seen in Supplementary Figure 4 there are multiple (as many as 13) transcripts caused by alternate splicing events, resulting in at least five protein isoforms that are differentially expressed, the majority of which are expressed largely in liver, muscle, and adipose tissue. Two of these alternatively spliced transcripts, at exon 9, GHR-(1-279) and GHR-(1-277), were identified in human liver [19, 20] and function as dominant negative inhibitors of the fulllength receptor. GHR-(1-279) lacks the first 26 bp of exon 9 of the full-length receptor (GHRfl), whereas for GHR-(1-277) this exon is deleted in its entirety [20]. Both alternatively spliced isoforms result in a frame shift and a premature stop codon, leading to mRNAs with intact extracellular and transmembrane domains, but lacking more than 90% of the intracellular domain. While these receptor variants have no signaling capacity, they can inhibit GH action mediated by GHRfl in a dominant negative manner [20, 21]. Patients heterozygous for genetic variants or mutations that generate splicing-related deletion of exon 9 are GHinsensitive [21, 22], providing evidence for a pathophysiological role for these truncated receptors. We propose that the heterogeneity of protein isoforms helps to explain the disadvantage that heterozygotes with hypertension have for mortality. A search of the GTEx portal for other functional variants in GHR found that there are 18,128 neighboring SNPs associated with exon usage and 4,568 eQTL variants associated with expression levels. There is an ieQTL, rs10941580, that influences expression in adipose tissue, muscle, nerve, breast, and thyroid. An ieQTL is a cis-regulatory element that is predicted to influence the expression levels of a nearby gene [23].

Alternate splicing has been shown to change with age [24]. We believe that variants that influence transcript splicing are important factors in the heterozygote disadvantage model that we have found to be responsible for *GHR* resilience to aging-related morbidity risk.

In Japanese and other populations, hypertension increases risk of death from CHD [25], cerebrovascular accident (stroke) [25, 26], and dementia [27], each of which has genetic components [28–31]. Other *GHR* SNPs – *rs6182*, *rs6180*, *rs6184* (minor allele frequencies 0.137, 0.387, 0.077) that are non-synonymous (amino acid changes Cys440Phe, Leu544Ile and Pro579Thr, respectively) – have been found to be associated with hypertension and elevated blood pressure in Japanese men [32]. These variants are located in exon 5 of isoform 1 and are missing in the isoform 12 precursor, leading to isoform 5. A UK study found an association of the longevity-associated [16] *GHR* exon 3 deletion variant with hypertension amongst stroke patients [33]. In conclusion, men without hypertension lived the longest, while, in the group with hypertension, those homozygous for either the major (common) or minor (less common) allele of *GHR* SNP *rs4130113* lived longer than those who were heterozygous for this SNP. The overall association of genetic variation in *GHR* with mortality risk was contributed entirely by genotype-dependent amelioration of the increased mortality risk from hypertension.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study participants

See Supplementary Methods and Supplementary Study Cohort.

Genotyping

Genotyping methods were as described previously [7] (Supplementary Methods).

Variant search

Variants surrounding *rs4130113* were screened on the RegulomeDB site, which includes known and predicted regulatory elements in the intergenic regions, as well as regions of DNAase hypersensitivity, binding sites for transcription factors, and promoter regions. Sources of these data included public datasets from GEO, the ENCODE project, and published literature [34]. Chromosome 5 locations used the GRCh37.p13 genome build (http://www.gencodegenes.org/releases/19.html).

We also screened the variants using HaploReg, which is a tool for exploring annotations of the noncoding genome at variants on haplotype blocks, such as candidate regulatory SNPs at disease-associated loci [35]. The sentinel SNP *rs4130113* was not in strong LD with any other variants (Supplementary Figure 1). We also searched for transcription factor binding sites predicted to be significantly modified by this SNP.

Statistical analyses

General linear models were used to compare ageadjusted indirect measurements between groups, and logistic models was used to compare the age-adjusted direct measurements. Cox proportional models were used to assess the association of *GHR* for 3 genetic models – namely, *AA* vs *AG/GG*, *AG* vs *AA/GG*, and *GG* vs *AA/AG* – on mortality stratified by disease status, such as by diabetes, by hypertension, by CHD, and by cancer. The effects of the genotype on mortality were corrected for multiple tests using by the Bonferroni method. The significant genetic model was selected and used in the analyses. The Cox proportional hazard assumption was tested for each Cox model. The effect of interaction of disease with *GHR* genotype on mortality was tested in the Cox model. All statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Analysis System version 9.4 [36]. Figures were generated using STATA 12 Graphics [37].

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

B.J.M. and T.A.D. conceived the idea presented, designed the study, steered the analyses and wrote the manuscript. R.C. performed statistical analyses of the data. K.H.M. and B.J.W. managed clinical aspects and collected the data. All authors discussed the results and contributed to the final manuscript.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Supplementary Methods

Donlon TA, Chen R, Masaki KH, Willcox DC, Allsopp RC, Willcox BJ, Morris BJ. Association of growth hormone receptor gene variant with longevity in men is due to amelioration of increased mortality risk from hypertension.

Study cohort

The present case-control study was conducted as part of the Kuakini Hawaii Lifespan Study and the Kuakini Hawaii Healthspan Study, an embedded cohort study of healthy aging drawn from the original population of the Kuakini Honolulu Heart Program (KHHP) and Honolulu-Asia Aging Study (HAAS) [1, 2]. As such the current study is a case-control sub-study of the KHHP population-based, prospective study of cardiovascular disease among 8,006 Japanese American men that began in 1965. The KHHP participants were recruited during 1965-1968 from 9,877 men aged 45-68 years who had valid contact information from World War II Selective Service records, were born from 1900–1919. and who were living on the island of Oahu in 1965 [3]. Study participants had parents who were both from Japan, mostly the western, central and southern regions [3, 4]. Although 88% of participants were born in Hawaii, there is a theoretical possibility of confounding of case vs. control status for allele frequencies due to geographic origin. Therefore, for certain analyses, cases and controls were stratified by parental prefecture of origin using conditional logistic regression models. Analyses showed no evidence of population stratification in the dataset (data not shown). Subjects were recruited at the same time and place (Oahu) and case and control status only became evident after death or attainment of \geq 95 years of age, meaning there was no apparent reason why genetic background should be different. The KHHP cohort has been described elsewhere [4] and is quite robust for phenotypegenotype associations since the data collection are exceptionally accurate, involving cross validation utilizing an expert Morbidity and Mortality Committee. The Hawaii Japanese population is from a limited geographic area in Japan, with little outbreeding and, based on the authors' unpublished data, exhibits a smaller degree of genetic diversity than the overall population of Japan.

All participants in the current study were drawn from records of study participants updated to February 2012. Archived phenotypic data and blood samples from Examination 4 of the KHHP (1991–1993), which coincided with the commencement of the HAAS, were used as the baseline for our case-control study. The HAAS was begun as an expansion of the KHHP for the study of neurodegenerative diseases, cognitive function, and other aging phenotypes in elderly persons. Participants included 3,741 men aged 71 to 93 at Examination 4 (mean age 77.9 \pm 4.7 SD years), approximately half the number of the original KHHP [5], representing 80% of survivors of the original cohort.

Our prior genetics studies have used a quasi-nested case-control design and subjects drawn from the KHHP/HAAS population were as described previously [6]. Subjects were followed with regular examinations and blood work until the present, or death. "Cases" (longevity phenotype) were defined as individuals who had survived to at least 95 years of age. As of February 2012, these were in the upper 1% of the 2010 U.S. birth cohort-specific survival [7]. Of the 440 cases, 317 of the men had died by February 2012 (mean age at death 97.0± 2.1SD years; range 95-106 years) and 123 individuals were still alive (mean age 96.8±1.8 SD years; range 95-107 years). Controls were 374 men of average lifespan randomly selected from KHHP/HAAS cohort as individuals who had died up to the age of 81 years. Mean age at death, 78.1±1.8 SD years (range 72-81 years), accorded with the 3.5 year longer life expectancy of Japanese American men living in Hawaii [8] than the average 1910 U.S. birth cohort-specific survival for middle-aged US men [7].

Procedures performed were in accord with institutional guidelines and were approved by the Institutional Review Board of Kuakini Medical Center. Written informed consent was obtained from all study participants or from family representatives, if participants could not provide consent.

An extensive number of parameters were measured, including hypertension status, total plasma cholesterol level, diabetes, body mass index, cigarette smoking status, alcohol intake, physical activity, and various other parameters. Hypertension was defined as a systolic or diastolic blood pressure of ≥ 160 and ≥ 90 mm Hg, respectively, or use of antihypertensive medication. To be considered normotensive, systolic and diastolic blood pressures needed to be < 140 and <90 mm Hg, respectively. Men who were neither normotensive nor hypertensive were classified as having borderline hypertension. Study participants were also classified as having diabetes on the basis of a medical history (physician diagnosed or based on the reported use of insulin or the receipt of oral diabetes medication). Assessment of overall metabolic output

during a typical 24-hour period was based on the use of a physical activity index. The physical activity index was derived by summing the average number of hours per day spent in five different activity levels (basal, sedentary, slight, moderate, and heavy) after each was multiplied by a weighting factor that corresponded to the level of exertion needed to undertake the activity. High levels of the physical activity index indicate active lifestyles, and low levels indicate inactive lifestyles [9, 10].

Genotyping

Our original case-control studies (814 subjects) and subjects in the current longitudinal study were performed using total leukocyte DNA isolated using the PureGene system (Gentra Systems, Inc.) and quantified using PicoGreen staining (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). Tagging SNPs (tSNPs) were genotyped at the University of Hawaii Cancer Center on the Illumina GoldenGate platform (high-throughput SNP genotyping on universal bead arrays). Genotyping of DNA was performed on the same platform. The longevity study

included 2,900 subjects that were genotyped using TaqMan[®] reagents (purchased from Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific) for PCR amplification under standard conditions with AmpliTaq Gold[®] DNA polymerase (Perkin-Elmer Corp.). PCR products were detected by TaqMan[®] assay, using a 6-FAM-labeled FRET probe for one allele and a VIClabelled probe for the other allele, with minor groove binding (MGB) quenchers to enhance assay signal. PCR products were measured using a QuantStudio 12K Flex system. Genotype data were managed through an integrated database sample management-data processing system of proven accuracy. All positive controls on each genotyping plate were evaluated for consistency. SNP call rates exceeded 98%.

We implemented a series of quality control checks based on the Illumina metrics. For inclusion of data for a SNP its call rate had to exceed 0.95 and the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium p value needed to be > 0.01.

Supplementary Figures



Supplementary Figure 1. Tissue expression of *GHR* from GTEx. GHR is expressed in adipose tissue, breast, liver, and muscle.

rs4130113

E2A_3 (TCF3)

GCAGAACCAGATGCTGGG GCAGAACCAGGTGCTGGG NMNRVRRCAGSTGS



Myf_1 (MYOD)

GCAGAACCAGATGCTGGG GCAGAACCAGGTGCTGGG MRRCRCWGSWG



NRSF (REST)

GCAGAACCAGATGCTGGG GCAGAACCAGGTGCTGGG YCAGCACCRYGGACAGYRC



TAL1

GCAGAACCAGATGCTGGG GCAGAACCAGGTGCTGGG VBBAMCAGATGKYNNN

TCF12

GCAGAACCAGATGCTGGG GCAGAACCAGGTGCTGGG SCAGSTGB

Supplementary Figure 2. Transcription factor binding sites significantly modified by the *GHR* **SNP** *rs4130113*. The major (*A*) allele of *rs4130113* is predicted to decrease binding of E2A, decrease binding of MYF, decrease binding of NRSF, increase binding of TAL1, and decrease binding of TCF12. Red rectangles denote the variant SNP nucleotide in the transcription factor canonical sequence. The nucleotide sequences above each colored diagram are: 1st line is major allele (*A*); 2nd line is minor allele (*G*); 3rd line is canonical recognition site. Nucleotide ambiguity codes are: B, not A; V, not T; M, C or A; K, T or G; W, A or T; S, C or G).



Supplementary Figure 3. Linkage disequilibrium (LD) matrix of SNPs used in the longevity study. The figure above shows the location of the longevity-associated SNP *rs4130113* ("*") the location of the "downstream promoter" (LOC107963949, "x") and the ieQTL/sQTL/NMD SNP *rs10941580* ("+"). All three are in moderate LD as defined by the dotted square. An ieQTL is a *cis*-regulatory element that is predicted to influence the expression levels of a nearby gene [11]. sQTLs (splicing QTLs) are quantitative trait loci that regulate alternative splicing of pre-mRNAs. Non-sense mediated transcript decay (NMD) transcript variant is a variant in a transcript that is the target of NMD (SO:0001621). NMD = non-sense mediated transcript decay. The downstream promoter represents regulatory module B of the growth hormone receptor gene. It encompasses the downstream promoters for alternate 5' end transcript variants V1, V4, V7, and V8. This sequence includes hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 alpha recognition sites and GAGA sites, which recognize sequence specific transcription factors that positively and negatively regulate gene expression. GHRv1 is the major form and is liver specific [12, 13]. The Japanese (JPT) LD map is shown on the left and the Caucasian (CEU) on the right for comparisons.



Supplementary Figure 4. Exon usage and tissue expression of GHR. GHR is encoded by at least 10 exons, with exons 2–7 encoding the extracellular domain, exon 8 the transmembrane domain, and exons 9–10 the intracellular domain [14]. The full-length version, v1, is shown as ENST00000230882.8 in the figure above. The exon 3 deletion variant, GHGRd3, is shown as ENST00000357703.6 above and is the result of a deletion of the exon, rather than being caused by a splicing event. As can be seen in the above figure there are multiple (at least 13) transcript variants caused by alternate splicing events, resulting in at least five protein isoforms that are differentially expressed, the majority of which are expressed largely in liver, muscle, and adipose tissue. Two of these alternatively spliced transcripts, at exon 9, GHR-(1–279) and GHR-(1–277), were identified in human liver [15, 16]. GHR-(1–279) lacks the first 26 bp of exon 9 of the full-length receptor (GHRfl), whereas for GHR-(1–277) this exon is deleted in its entirety [16]. Both alternative splicing events result in a frame shift and a premature stop codon, resulting in mRNAs with intact extracellular and transmembrane domains but lacking more than 90% of the intracellular domain. While these receptor variants have no signaling capacity, they can inhibit GH action mediated by GHRfl in a dominant negative manner [16, 17]. Patients heterozygous for variants/mutations that result in the splicing out of exon 9 are GH insensitive [16, 18], providing evidence for a pathophysiological role for these truncated receptors. A search for other functional variants in *GHR* found that there are 18,128 neighboring SNPs associated with exon usage and 4,568 eQTL variants associated with expression levels (GTEx portal). There is an ieQTL, *rs10941580*, that is expressed in adipose tissue, muscle, nerve, breast, and thyroid. An ieQTL is a *cis*-regulatory element that is predicted to influence the expression level of a nearby gene [11].



Supplementary Figure 5. The locations of *GHR* with its various transcripts (purple herring bones) and the locations of the super-enhancer (bar) along with the three features: *rs4130113*, LOC107963949, and *rs10941580* (*). Shown in "a" through "j" are data from ChIP-seq experiments, as follows: (a) DNAse I sensitive sites in muscle, (b) H3Kme3 histone marks in liver, (c) histone H3K27ac marks in muscle, (d) histone H3K27ac in liver, (e) histone H3K4me1 marks in liver, (f) H3K36me3 marks in liver, (g) chromHMM marks in the HepG2 cell line, (h) the location of HNF4A binding, which has been shown to induce the "downstream promoter", (i) locations of RNA polymerase II binding (RNAPII), and (j) CTCF binding sites and chromatin loop domains. H3K4me3 and DNAse I hypersensitivity are associated with activation of transcription of nearby genes [8]. H3K27ac is associated with activation in promoters/enhancers, H3K4me1 activation in enhancers, and H3K36me3 activation in gene bodies. ChromHMM is software for learning and characterizing chromatin states that can integrate multiple chromatin datasets such as ChIP-seq data of various histone modifications to discover *de novo* the major reoccurring combinatorial and spatial patterns of marks (legend next to a) through j) on left-hand side of diagram). The *GHR* promoter, *rs4130113* and "downstream promoter" overlap with sites of H3K4me3, H3K27ac, and DNAse I hypersensitivity, as well as CTCF binding sites, the latter being able to serve as either 3-dimensional insulators or the grouping of functional features together in *cis*-acting topological domains. Together these features are predicted to form a *cis*-regulatory unit consisting of the super-enhancer, *rs4130113* and open chromatin sites. This is supported by the locations of CTCF binding sites that generally form insulator domains [9, 10].

Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 1. The SNPs genotyped in *GHR* and the minor allele frequency of each in control American men of Japanese ancestry in the Kuakini Honolulu Heart Program, and of Japanese subjects in the dbSNP database.

SNP	HHP	dbSNP
rs4130113*	0.40	0.48
rs9292853	0.20	0.22
rs12187996	0.39	0.34
rs62373002	0.39	0.30
rs6873545	0.14	0.13
rs4866931	0.04	0.10
rs4410646	0.41	0.42
rs4530764	0.04	0.08
rs2972781	0.41	0.48
rs12233949	0.33	0.31
rs3733838	0.18	0.18
rs6451620	0.43	0.45
rs6859653	0.06	0.11

*Denotes the SNP with longevity using a heterozygote disadvantage model.

Supplementary Table 2. Each *GHR* SNP tested in the case-control study, and Bonferroni corrected *p* values for association with longevity.

Gene	SNP ID	<i>p</i> -value
GHR	rs4130113	0.015*
GHR	rs9292853	0.052
GHR	rs12187996	0.076
GHR	rs62373002	0.076
GHR	rs6873545	0.11
GHR	rs4866931	0.22
GHR	rs4410646	0.28
GHR	rs4530764	0.29
GHR	rs2972781	0.45
GHR	rs12233949	0.456
GHR	rs3733838	0.54
GHR	rs6451620	0.72
GHR	rs6859653	0.996

Probability (*p*) is based on heterozygote disadvantage model.

*The *p* values were obtained after Bonferroni correction for multiple testing.

Cox model	Genetic model	Relative risk	р
1	AG vs. AA/GG	1.07 (1.00-1.14)	0.042
2	AG vs. AA/GG	1.06 (0.99-1.14)	0.10
1	AA vs. AG/GG	0.97 (0.90-1.04)	0.38
2	AA vs. AG/GG	0.99 (0.92-1.07)	0.74
1	GG vs. AA/AG	0.93 (0.85-1.02)	0.12
2	GG vs. AA/AG	0.92 (0.83-1.01)	0.086

Supplementary Table 3. The effect of *GHR* SNP *rs4130113* on mortality in the whole cohort for different genetic models by two Cox models.

Model 1: adjusted for age.

Model 2: adjusted for age, BMI, glucose, smoking (pack years), PAI, alcohol intake, depression, stroke, CHD, diabetes, cancer and hypertension. The p values shown were obtained after correction for multiple testing by the Bonferroni method.

Supplementary Ta	able 4. Modificati	ons to transcription	n factor binding	by rs4130113.
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SNP	Transcription factor	Effect of major allele	Biological pathway(s)	Tissue
	E2A_3 (TCF3)	reduce	lymphopoiesis	All
	MYF_1 (MYOD)	reduce	muscle cell differentiation	Skeletal muscle
rs4130113	NRSF (REST)	reduce	oncogene or a tumor suppressor	Undifferentiated neuronal progenitor cells. Low levels in many tissues
	TAL1	increase	erythroid differentiation	Hematopoietic
	TCF12	reduce	lineage-specific differentiation	Skeletal muscle, hematopoietic, skin

Supplementary Table 5. Genetic features in GHR.

Feature	Location (hg19)	Characteristic
GHR	42,423,877-42,721,980	Gene, variant 1
Super enhancer	42,421,467-42,633,445	Super enhancer, adipose tissue
rs4130113	42,514,651	Longevity SNP, this study
LOC107963949	42,546,421-42,550,233	Downstream promoter*
rs10941580	42,580,021	ieQTL and sQTL

The table shows the location of the gene *GHR*, a super-enhancer described in adipose tissue, the longevity SNP *rs4130113* used in the present study, a downstream promoter, and an open chromatin feature in the gene, *GHR*. SNP *rs10941580* is predicted to be both an ieQTL and an sQTL for *GHR*. An NMD transcript variant is a variant in a transcript that is the target of non-sense mediated transcript decay (NMD; SO:0001621). An ieQTL is a *cis*-regulatory element that is predicted to influence the expression levels of a nearby gene [11]. sQTLs (splicing QTLs) are quantitative trait loci that regulate alternative splicing of pre-mRNA [13].

*The downstream promoter represents regulatory module B of the growth hormone receptor gene. It encompasses the downstream promoters for alternate 5' end transcript variants V1, V4, V7 and V8. This sequence includes hepatocyte nuclear factor 4α r [12] recognition sites and GAGA sites, which recognize sequence-specific transcription factors that positively and negatively regulate gene expression. GHRv1 is the major form and is liver specific.

Supplementary Table 6. Influence of *rs1094150* on exon usage in *GHR*.

SNP	Intron ID	р	NES	Tissue
10041590	clu_37892	3.70E-11	0.45	Adipose tissue – visceral (Omentum)
	clu_34535	7.30E-11	0.37	Muscle – skeletal
	clu_39029	7.40E-09	0.36	Adipose tissue – subcutaneous
r\$10941380	clu_40148	1.00E-07	-0.38	Nerve –tibial
	clu_41545	0.0000049	-0.33	Thyroid
	clu_39450	0.000018	0.33	Breast – mammary tissue

The Table shows the predicted exon usage in the tissues described. NES refers to the normalized effect size. All data are from GTEx [19].

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