

# Influence of Genetic Ancestry on Gene-Environment Interactions of Polygenic Risk and Sociocultural Factors: Results from the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos

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## 2 **ABSTRACT**

3 **Background:** Many present analyses of Hispanic/Latino populations in epidemiologic research  
4 aggregate all members of this ethnic group, despite immense diversity in genetic backgrounds,  
5 environment, and culture between and across Hispanic/Latino background groups. Using the  
6 Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos (HCHS/SOL), we examined the role of self-  
7 identified background group and genetic ancestry proportions in gene-environment interactions  
8 influencing the relationship between body mass index (BMI) and a polygenic score for BMI  
9 ( $PGS_{BMI}$ ).

10 **Methods:** Weighted univariate and multivariable generalized linear models were executed to  
11 compare the effects of environmental variables identified *a priori* by McArdle et al. 2021. Both  
12 Amerindigenous (AME) ancestry proportion and background group identity were statistically  
13 modeled as confounders both through stratified and joint analyses to understand their influence  
14 on the relationship between BMI and  $PGS_{BMI}$ , while incorporating gene-environment interactions  
15 of  $PGS \times$  diet and  $PGS \times$  age-at-immigration.

16 **Results:** After complex survey weighting, 7,075 participants remained in the analytic sample,  
17 representing individuals of six background groups: Central American, Cuban, Dominican,  
18 Mexican, Puerto Rican, and South American. The distributions of key environmental and  
19 sociocultural variables were heterogeneous between Hispanic/Latino background groups.  
20 Associations of these variables with AME ancestry were similarly heterogeneous upon  
21 stratification, indicating confounding by background group. In a predictive model for BMI  
22 incorporating health, immigration, and environmental variables,  $PGS_{BMI}$  performance decreased  
23 with increasing AME ancestry proportion. In this model, most statistically significant  $G \times E$   
24 interactions lost significance after ancestry and background stratification, except for  $PGS \times$  age-  
25 at-immigration interactions in some strata: Mexican background individuals born in the US  
26 compared to those  $\geq 21$  years old at migration ( $\beta=1.33$ ,  $p<0.01$ ), Dominican background  
27 individuals 6-12 years old at migration compared to those  $\geq 21$  years old at migration ( $\beta=4.38$ ,  
28  $p<0.001$ ), and Cuban background individuals 0-5 years old at migration compared to those  $\geq 21$   
29 years old at migration ( $\beta=2.20$ ,  $p=0.015$ ), where US-born includes individuals born in the US  
30 states/DC.

31 **Conclusions:** Controlling for self-identified background group identity and genetic ancestry did  
32 not eliminate statistically significant differences in interactions between AME ancestry and  
33 environmental variables in certain strata of AME ancestry among some Hispanic/Latino  
34 background groups in HCHS/SOL.

## 35 INTRODUCTION

36 Hispanic/Latino groups in the United States (US) comprise an inherently diverse ethnicity,  
37 and yet are often modeled as a monolithic group in epidemiologic analyses, despite their unique  
38 sociocultural and genetic composition. This issue is especially prevalent in presentation of race-  
39 and ethnicity-stratified health and socioeconomic statistics in the US, where all members of  
40 Hispanic/Latino ethnicity are aggregated into a singular category regardless of their specific  
41 Hispanic/Latino background or birthplace.<sup>1,2</sup> In a systematic review and meta-analysis of  
42 cardiovascular mortality in Hispanic/Latino populations in the US that identified lower mortality  
43 among Hispanic/Latino individuals than their non-Hispanic white counterparts, authors identified  
44 only one of 17 included studies that stratified participants by place of birth.<sup>3</sup> Recent literature  
45 examining the role of acculturation and heterogeneous sociocultural landscapes within  
46 Hispanic/Latino backgrounds has started to address this scarcity, through the study of topics  
47 ranging from substance-use treatment outcomes to food insecurity and obesity research.<sup>4,5</sup> These  
48 important distinctions are also reflected in the genetic diversity within the Hispanic/Latino ethnicity,  
49 evidenced in various analyses of population structure and genetic ancestry proportions of  
50 Hispanic/Latino populations.<sup>6,7</sup> Diverse Hispanic/Latino experiences and histories, including  
51 complex geographic histories shaped through colonization and immigration, have and continue  
52 to shape the cultures, behaviors, and health of Hispanic/Latino groups throughout the US.

53 As the second-largest ethnic or racial group in the US and as a historically marginalized  
54 population, Hispanic/Latino groups are the subject of many public health studies focused on  
55 health inequities.<sup>8</sup> One facet of these inequities is in the burden of chronic diseases, exacerbated  
56 by obesity, which 44.8% of adult Hispanic/Latino individuals in the US face.<sup>9</sup> While lifestyle factors  
57 and health behaviors have been studied as predictors of obesity, the incorporation of genetics  
58 and gene-environment interactions are another promising avenue through which to understand  
59 the individual-level impact of these factors.<sup>10</sup> Gene-environment (GxE) interactions, which  
60 characterize the joint influence of genetic and environmental variables (such as health behaviors),  
61 are an important area of study that may inform future precision health applications of screenings  
62 and therapeutics designed to prevent and treat chronic diseases caused by pre-existing  
63 conditions such as obesity. In Hispanic/Latino populations, disproportionate levels of exposure to  
64 obesogenic environments via poor diet quality, low socioeconomic status, poor education, and  
65 healthcare bias may interact with obesity-associated genetic polymorphisms and may contribute  
66 to group-level disparities by Hispanic/Latino background.<sup>11</sup>

67 Studying disease disparities and GxE interactions across populations, particularly of  
68 diverse genetic ancestries, can advance our understanding of the complex relationships between  
69 genetic and lifestyle or behavioral factors that may have been otherwise unobservable in non-  
70 genetic analyses. One approach to examining genetic ancestry is by estimating admixture  
71 proportions, in which each individual's genome is apportioned based on its similarity to either a  
72 reference population, or other genomic segments in the sample.<sup>12,13</sup> Proportions of inferred  
73 genetic ancestry, or admixture proportions, have been shown to vary widely by Hispanic/Latino  
74 background, typically modeled with European, African, and Native American (AME; referred to in  
75 this manuscript as Amerindigenous) ancestry components showing higher African ancestry in  
76 Caribbean populations (Dominican, Puerto Rican) and higher Amerindigenous ancestry in  
77 Mexican participants.<sup>14,15</sup> Reflecting differences in migration patterns, differences in ancestry

78 proportions have also been seen to persist based on geographic position in the United States  
79 when examined across Hispanic/Latino participants.<sup>16</sup>

80 Recently, an effective way to model the genetic liability of complex traits and diseases is  
81 through polygenic scores (PGS), a relatively comprehensive metric comprising a weighted sum  
82 of many genetic variants (single nucleotide polymorphisms, or SNPs) associated with a given  
83 particular trait. However, there are noted challenges with the use of PGS across diverse  
84 populations. Recent research has identified the decreased PGS<sub>BMI</sub> performance in non-European  
85 participants, in particular those from African, South Asian, East Asian, and Hispanic/Latino  
86 backgrounds, when samples of European ancestries are used to train such PGSs.<sup>17</sup> This may be  
87 due to differences in the underlying genetic architecture, including linkage disequilibrium patterns  
88 and allele frequencies, but could also be due to differing environmental influences.<sup>18</sup> Decreased  
89 PGS performance has also been observed when examining non-genetic factors that differ  
90 between training and test sets, such as age and sex.<sup>19,20</sup> However, there is an open question as  
91 to the degree to which ancestry and environmental differences jointly contribute to PGS  
92 performance.

93 The Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos (HCHS/SOL) is an ideal cohort to  
94 examine these relationships as participants provide background information during study  
95 enrollment as well as extensive well-characterized longitudinal data. A previous analysis by  
96 McArdle *et al.* examined the influence of PGS-by-diet and PGS-by-acculturation interactions on  
97 the genetic risk of obesity via a PGS<sub>BMI</sub> trained on European ancestry samples from UK Biobank  
98 and GIANT and applied in HCHS/SOL.<sup>21</sup> The authors found dietary patterns and age at  
99 immigration to be significant modifiers of the effect of individuals' genetic risk on obesity; the effect  
100 of the PGS<sub>BMI</sub> on BMI was different based on different levels of acculturation and healthy diet.  
101 Specifically, in their full model, the authors identified that a one-standard deviation (SD) increase  
102 in the PGS<sub>BMI</sub> was associated with a 1.10 kg/m<sup>2</sup> increase in BMI ( $\beta=1.10, p<0.001$ ), adjusted for  
103 various demographic, sociocultural, and environmental variables, which differed substantially  
104 when stratified by sex (males:  $\beta=0.79, p<0.001$ ; females:  $\beta=1.45, p<0.001$ ). A separate  
105 exploratory analysis stratified by self-reported Hispanic/Latino background observed significant  
106 heterogeneity for PGS<sub>BMI</sub>, with weaker effects in individuals of South American background  
107 ( $\beta=0.91, p<0.001$ ) than of Mexican background ( $\beta=1.73, p<0.001$ ). Complicating this, the  
108 modifying effects of age-at-immigration and healthy diet on PGS<sub>BMI</sub> showed different direction of  
109 effects across background groups, such as when comparing individuals were born in the US 50  
110 states/DC to those having migrated to the US after the age of 20 years old (South American  
111 background:  $\beta=-1.74, p<0.05$ ; Mexican background:  $\beta=1.09, p<0.05$ ).

112 It remains unclear, however, the extent to which background within Hispanic/Latino  
113 ethnicity influences these relationships and what factors would influence these interactions. Given  
114 this discrepancy in predictive performance, we hypothesize that there exist ancestry-driven  
115 differences in the performance of this PGS<sub>BMI</sub> in Hispanic/Latino populations. In addition, it is  
116 unclear how the intersection of ancestry and environmental differences may influence the  
117 performance of a PGS. Building on prior work, we hypothesize that the GxE interactions between  
118 a PGS<sub>BMI</sub> and immigration history and diet variables varied between background groups of  
119 Hispanic/Latino ethnicity as a function of both group-specific ancestry differences as well as  
120 differences in environment. There is an urgent need to disentangle these complex factors to better  
121 characterize the joint roles of genetics and environmental influences on human health, as well as

122 demonstrate the need to model Hispanic/Latino populations appropriately in genetic research. As  
123 such, this paper broadly seeks to (1) better understand the role of inferred genetic ancestry with  
124 BMI, both between and within Hispanic/Latino groups, and (2) expand the analysis of McArdle *et*  
125 *al.* to incorporate AME ancestry proportion and examine the influence of group heterogeneity on  
126 interactions between the afore-mentioned sociocultural variables and genetic risk for obesity.

127

## 128 **METHODS**

129 **Study Design.** The HCHS/SOL study design and methodology have been described in detail  
130 elsewhere.<sup>22</sup> From four sites (Bronx, Miami, Chicago, San Diego) in the US, 16,415 self-identified  
131 Hispanic/Latino participants aged 18-74 were recruited and had physical, behavioral,  
132 sociocultural, and biometric measurements collected at a baseline examination between 2008-  
133 2011 and second clinic visit between 2014-2017. Participants were recruited to HCHS/SOL  
134 through a two-stage area household probability design and therefore some participants are  
135 related.<sup>22</sup>

136 In the present study, we examined data from an analytic subset of HCHS/SOL participants  
137 who were included in the analysis conducted by McArdle *et al.*<sup>21</sup>: those who had consented for  
138 genetic data collection (at visit 1) and analysis (at both visits), and whose information was  
139 successfully linked to the PGS<sub>BMI</sub> data constructed in HCHS/SOL. This analytic subset was then  
140 further restricted to participants with visit 1 data, with estimated admixture proportions for genetic  
141 ancestry, and no missing covariate data (n=7,282). The inclusion/exclusion criteria and the  
142 resulting sample size of this study are described in Supplementary Figure 1.

143 **Variable Definitions.** Immigration-related variables used in this analysis were immigrant  
144 generation (first or second) and age at immigration to the US. Immigrant generation was defined  
145 as "first generation" as being foreign-born with foreign-born parents, including those born in a US  
146 territory. "Second generation" was defined as those who were born in the US or those who were  
147 foreign-born with at least one US-born parent. Age at immigration to the US was defined among  
148 the foreign/territory-born participants based on their current age and years residing in the US.  
149 Following McArdle *et al.*, five categories were defined: Born in US 50 states/DC (hereafter, US  
150 born), 0-5 years old at migration, 6-12 years old at migration, 13-20 years old at migration, and  
151  $\geq 21$  years old at migration.

152 Several other health and environmental variables were also included as covariates in the  
153 full model, derived from the analysis conducted by McArdle *et al.* These consisted of sex (binary:  
154 male or female); age; age<sup>2</sup>; self-reported Hispanic/Latino background identity and descent  
155 (Central American, Cuban, Dominican, Mexican, Puerto Rican, and South American); marital  
156 status (currently married, yes/no); educational status (less than high school vs. high school and  
157 beyond); employment status (retired, not retired or employed, employed  $\leq 35$  h/week, employed  
158  $> 35$  h/week); type 2 diabetes status (yes/no); cardiovascular disease (CVD) status, e.g. CHD or  
159 Stroke, but not counting angina or transient ischemic attacks (yes/no); sleep duration (h/day);  
160 sweetened beverages consumption (servings/day); whether the WHO's 2008 Global Physical  
161 Activity guidelines for Americans criteria<sup>23</sup> were met (yes/no); alcohol use level (no current use,  
162 low-level use, and high-level use); cigarette use (never, current, and former); Center for

163 Epidemiological Studies Depression (CES-D) 10-item Summary Score<sup>24</sup>; and a single item ethnic  
164 identity score (5-level ordinal variable).

165 Healthy diet was defined using in part the JAMA Healthy Diet Score, which used data from  
166 the baseline 24-hour dietary recall to assign individuals a value ranging from 1 to 5 based on  
167 meeting sex-specific quintiles of predicted daily intake of saturated fatty acids, fiber, calcium, and  
168 potassium. Scoring above the 60th percentile of this score was defined as meeting the criteria for  
169 having a "healthy diet," consistent with other definitions of healthy diet in prior literature.<sup>25</sup>

170 BMI was calculated at the baseline visit for all participants, as individuals' measured weight  
171 divided by their height, squared ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ). Participants with BMI  $<18.5$  or  $>70.0$  were excluded from  
172 the analysis, as were those  $<20$  years of age at the visit, consistent with quality control measures  
173 employed by other literature examining the genetic variation of BMI and obesity.<sup>26</sup>

174 **Genetic Data.** Genotyping, quality control, and imputation methods employed in the HCHS/SOL  
175 cohort have been described elsewhere previously.<sup>27,28</sup> Briefly, DNA was extracted from individual  
176 blood samples and genotyped on the SOL HCHS Custom 15041502 B3 array (i.e., Illumina  
177 Omni2.5M array + 150,000 custom informative SNPs).<sup>27</sup> Standard quality control filters were  
178 enacted and then imputed using 1000 Genomes Project phase 3 reference populations. Principal  
179 components (PCs) of genetic ancestry, with 1000 Genomes reference populations, were  
180 constructed to account for confounding by population stratification.

181 The  $\text{PGS}_{\text{BMI}}$  employed in this analysis was derived from effect sizes published in a  
182 European-ancestry genome-wide association study (GWAS) of BMI in almost 700,000  
183 participants enrolled in the UK Biobank and in the GIANT consortium, and applied to genome-  
184 wide data from HCHS/SOL.<sup>29</sup> Using SNPs that passed a minor allele frequency cutoff of 5% in  
185 HCHS/SOL, the  $\text{PGS}_{\text{BMI}}$  was calculated from effect sizes in this GWAS via the LDpred method  
186 and an infinitesimal model.<sup>30</sup> Several PGSs were compared to identify the best-fitting  $\text{PGS}_{\text{BMI}}$   
187 which explained 7.4% of the variance in inverse normalized BMI in the HCHS/SOL cohort,  
188 adjusted for various relevant covariates. For consistency of interpretation, this  $\text{PGS}_{\text{BMI}}$  was then  
189 standardized to a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

190 **Genetic ancestry estimation.** Genetic ancestry was estimated using genotyped data that  
191 passed the above quality control filters using a larger sample as detailed in a previous publication  
192 including other studies participating in the Population Architecture using Genomics and  
193 Epidemiology (PAGE) Study Genotype data were phased with SHAPEIT2 and imputed into 1000  
194 Genomes phase 3 reference data using IMPUTE version 2.3.2.<sup>31</sup> Unrelated individuals were  
195 subset from the data up to 2<sup>nd</sup> degree relatives ( $N=45,255$ ) and genotyped sites were pruned  
196 using  $r^2 < 0.1$  ( $M=132,591$ ) in PLINK.<sup>32</sup> Ancestry proportions were estimated using ADMIXTURE  
197 with 10 unsupervised runs assuming  $k=5$ .<sup>13</sup> These five clusters were inferred to represent  
198 European (EUR), African (AFR), Amerindigenous (AME), East Asian (EAS), and Pacific Islander  
199 (PI) genetic ancestries given their distributions within self-identified racial and/or ethnic  
200 categories. Across all ten runs, there was only one mode as determined by pong  
201 (<https://github.com/ramachandran-lab/pong>), indicating stable estimates.<sup>13,33</sup> Proportion of AME  
202 ancestry was expressed as a continuous value assigned to all participants within this HCHS/SOL  
203 sample ( $N=7,282$ ).

204 **Statistical analysis.** An exploratory analysis was conducted to characterize the variables that  
205 were most conceptually relevant to the model constructed herein, based on those chosen by

206 McArdle *et al.* and described above. Table 1 p-values were calculated through the Wilcoxon rank-  
207 sum test for complex survey samples, which tests whether the group values are different from  
208 one another and via Pearson's Chi-squared test with Rao & Scott's second-order correction for  
209 categorical variables, which tests differences between observed and expected frequencies.

210 Models and observations used in summary measures were weighted using complex  
211 survey weights specified by HCHS/SOL protocols and all analyses were conducted in R version  
212 4.1.1. Associations with proportion of AME ancestry were calculated through univariate survey-  
213 weighted generalized linear models of AME ancestry proportion on each individual explanatory  
214 variable included in Table 1, using the {gtsummary} package in R.<sup>34</sup>

215 To assess the contribution of AME ancestry proportion to the relationship between  
216 immigration-related variables, diet, and other measures as predictors of BMI, a generalized linear  
217 model was fit to the data comprising immigration-related and environmental variables as specified  
218 a priori by McArdle *et al.* The original model creation strategy used augmented backwards  
219 elimination and tests of GxE interaction that contributed to the development of a full model to  
220 predict BMI, and excluded variables such as SASH Language Scale, marital status, CESD-10  
221 Depression Scale. The full model implemented in this analysis is shown below:

222  $BMI \sim PGS_{BMI} + 5 \text{ Principal Components (PCs)} + \text{Center} + \text{Age} + \text{Age}^2 + \text{Sex} + \text{Diabetes}$   
223  $+ \text{Sleep Duration} + \text{Cigarette Use} + \text{Physical Activity} + \text{CVD} + \text{Alcohol Use} + \text{Sweetened}$   
224  $\text{Beverage Consumption} + \text{Immigrant Generation} + \text{Employment Status} + \text{Education} +$   
225  $\text{Income} + 5\text{-category Age at Immigration} + \text{Healthy Diet Score} + PGS_{BMI} * \text{Healthy Diet}$   
226  $\text{Score} + PGS_{BMI} * \text{Age at Immigration}$

227 To understand the influence of both ancestry and Hispanic/Latino background group, three  
228 modeling comparisons were employed: 1) implementing the full model with and without an AME  
229 ancestry proportion term, 2) stratifying the full model by quartile of AME ancestry, and 3) stratifying  
230 the full model by both group and by tertile of AME ancestry, since quartile stratification yielded  
231 too few observations in each stratification bin.

232 All models and observations used in summary measures were weighted using complex  
233 survey weights specified by HCHS/SOL protocols and all analyses were conducted in R version  
234 4.1.1. Survey-weighted models were executed through the {survey} package in R.

235

## 236 RESULTS

### 237 **Observed heterogeneity in key variables between Hispanic/Latino background groups**

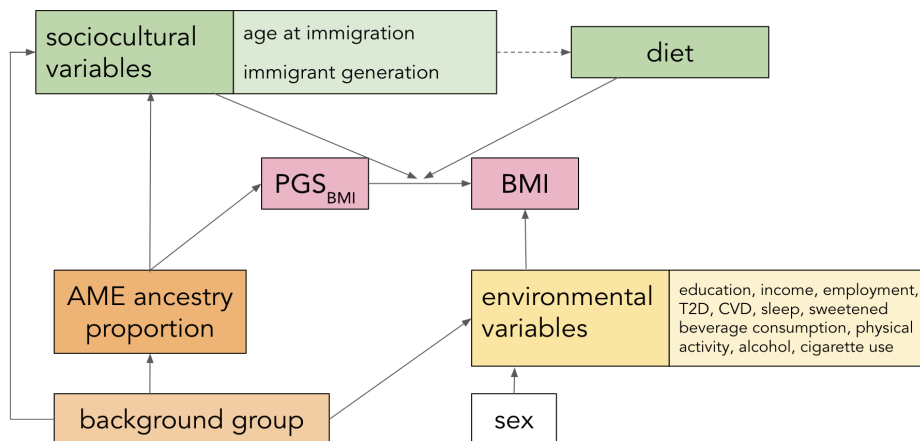
238 A total of 7,282 participants were included in the full analysis. After weighting to  
239 account for HCHS/SOL's complex survey design and restricting to those with complete data for  
240 all included covariates, 7,075 weighted observations remained in the sample (representing 7,282  
241 individuals). Detailed participant characteristics are described in Table 1. Within the weighted  
242 sample, individuals comprised six background groups: Central American (N=602), Cuban  
243 (N=1,717), Dominican (N=636), Mexican (N=2,560), Puerto Rican (N=1,157), and South  
244 American (N=403). We identified significant heterogeneity in population characteristics by  
245 background group, including BMI, immigrant generation, prevalent cardiovascular disease (CVD),  
246 and the PGS<sub>BMI</sub>. (Table 1) This difference is especially apparent between Caribbean and  
247 Central/South American geographical representations of Hispanic/Latino groups. Since some of

248 the largest sample sizes are found in Mexican (N=2,560) and Puerto Rican (N=1,157) groups,  
249 and these two groups adequately demonstrate differences in geography by recruitment site and  
250 immigration-related histories, we will use these strata to illustrate these trends.

251 Overall, the average BMI across all Hispanic/Latino participants was 28.9 (IQR: 25.9,  
252 32.7). However, the distributions of BMI were significantly different between Hispanic/Latino  
253 groups ( $p < 0.001$ ), with the mean BMI was slightly lower at 28.7 (IQR: 26.1, 32.3) in Mexican  
254 background individuals, while slightly higher in Puerto Rican background individuals at 29.6 (IQR:  
255 26.1, 34.3). Significant heterogeneity was also observed when comparing genetic risk for BMI as  
256 estimated by the standardized  $PGS_{BMI}$  ( $p < 0.001$ ; Table 1). The weighted mean  $PGS_{BMI}$  in the  
257 pooled sample was 0.01 (IQR: -0.065, 0.067). However, the mean  $PGS_{BMI}$  was higher in the  
258 Mexican background group at 0.07 (IQR: -0.61, 0.72), and lower in the Puerto Rican background  
259 group at -0.03 (IQR: -0.69, 0.64), an inverse trend to BMI which showed lower values in Mexican  
260 background individuals and higher values in Puerto Rican background individuals.

261 Considering the main variables thought to interact with  $PGS_{BMI}$  and influence prediction of  
262 BMI (Figure 1), we note differences in proxy measures for acculturation used in this analysis.  
263 Overall, 80.8% of Hispanic/Latino individuals in this study identified as 1<sup>st</sup> generation. However,  
264 when stratified, 79% of Mexican background participants identified as 1<sup>st</sup> generation, compared  
265 to only 53% of Puerto Rican background individuals (Table 1). Additionally, there was significant  
266 heterogeneity in age-at-immigration between groups, with 50% of Mexican background  
267 participants immigrating after the age of 21 years old yet this proportion was only 21% of Puerto  
268 Rican background participants. Diet is another culture- and region-specific variable that  
269 demonstrates sociocultural differences. Only 29% of Mexican background individuals were below  
270 the 60th sex-specific percentile of their JAMA Healthy Diet score (less healthy diet), compared to  
271 80% of Puerto Rican background individuals. This difference is not adequately depicted in the  
272 overall distribution of diet scores, where 52% of members of Hispanic/Latino ethnicity score below  
273 their sex-specific 60th percentile. Overall, this demonstrates marked heterogeneity in these key  
274 variables between Hispanic/Latino backgrounds which would be typically modeled as a single  
275 homogenous groups in genetic studies.

**Figure 1.** Conceptual Framework of Full Analytic Model



276



277 **Relationships between inferred ancestry components with risk factors and traits differ by**  
278 **Hispanic/Latino background groups**

279 In line with our conceptual framework (Figure 1), genetic ancestry, especially inferred AME  
280 ancestry in Hispanic/Latino ethnic groups, can capture finer genetic background composition in  
281 addition to self-identified background group that may confound the association of interest between  
282  $PGS_{BMI}$  and BMI.<sup>38</sup> We estimate differences in AME ancestry proportion distributions by  
283 Hispanic/Latino background group, and their associations with other risk factors (Table 2, Figure  
284 2). While the pooled sample has on average 29% AME ancestry with noted variance (IQR: 9%,  
285 48%), when stratified by background group reflecting geography and historical patterns of  
286 migration and colonialism, stark differences arise. Central American, Mexican, and South  
287 American background groups have higher mean AME ancestry of 45%, 44%, and 47%,  
288 respectively, while Cuban, Dominican, and Puerto Rican background groups, have lower mean  
289 AME ancestry proportions of 4%, 6%, and 13%, respectively (Supp Fig 1).

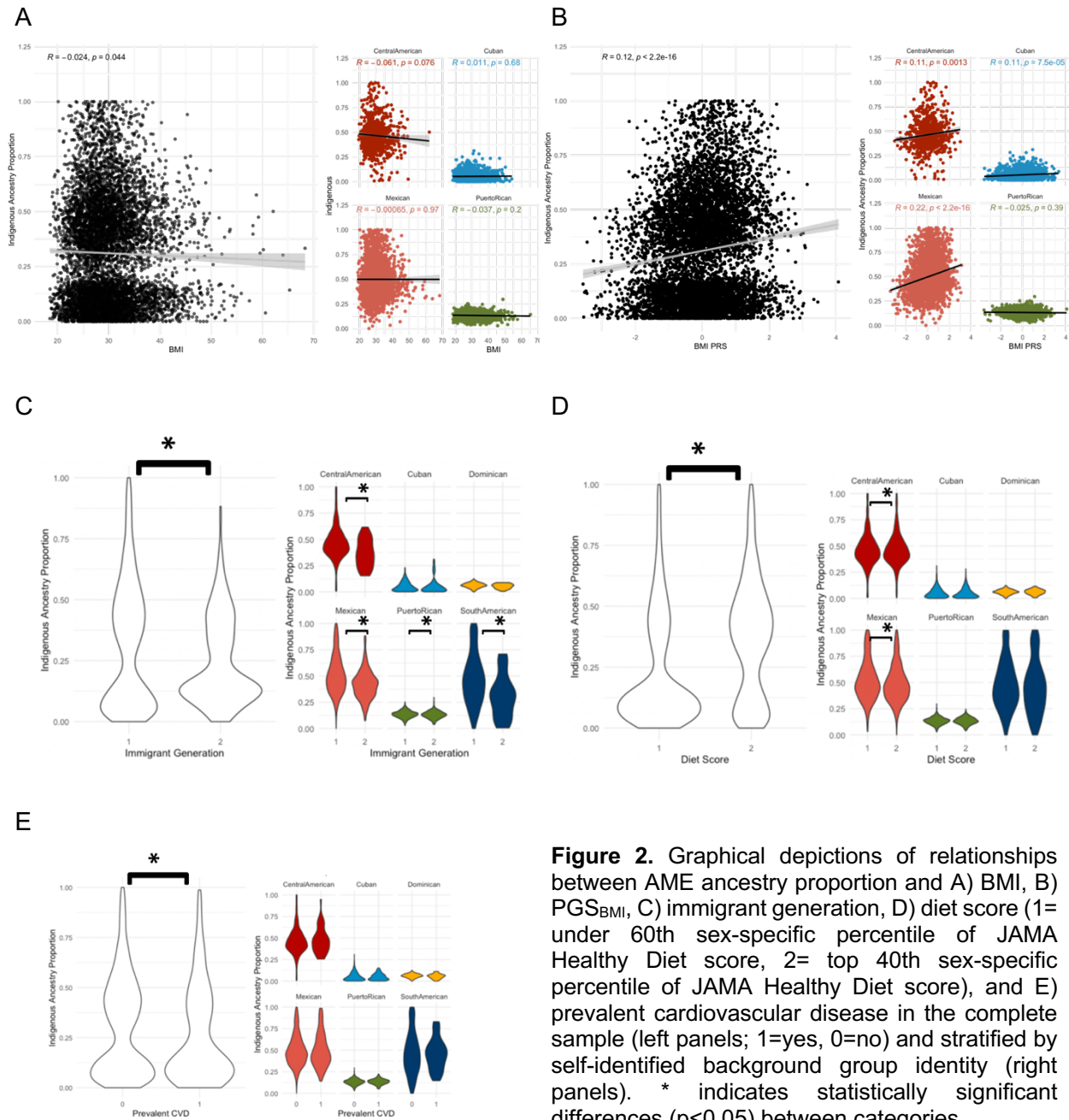
290 To assess the relationship between these key variables and global ancestry proportions  
291 both in aggregate and between Hispanic/Latino groups, we conducted a univariate analysis  
292 between each variable and estimated proportion of AME ancestry. We observed similar  
293 heterogeneity to what was described above, largely driven by substantial AME ancestry  
294 distribution differences between background groups (Table 2). Specifically, we observed the  
295 association of AME ancestry to be significantly negatively associated with BMI among all  
296 participants ( $\beta=-0.001$ ,  $p=0.044$ ), but that effect is null when examined stratified by group (Figure  
297 2A). When taken in conjunction with group-level differences in BMI as detailed above, this lack of  
298 statistically significant relationship after stratification indicates possible confounding of the  
299 relationship between ancestry and BMI by group membership.

300 Associations between the  $PGS_{BMI}$  and AME ancestry are similarly heterogeneous. Overall,  
301 there is a statistically significant positive association ( $\beta=0.030$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) among HCHS/SOL  
302 Hispanic/Latino participants. However, this association differs by background group with a larger  
303 effect size among Mexican background individuals ( $\beta=0.040$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), but attenuated signals in  
304 Puerto Rican background individuals ( $\beta=-0.001$ ,  $p=0.39$ ) (Figure 2B). In contrast to BMI, this  
305 indicates that the association between ancestry and PGS distribution is not spurious, but stronger  
306 in specific subgroups with higher AME ancestry proportions.

307 We observe significant heterogeneity in the association of AME ancestry proportions with  
308 other relevant variables, including prevalent cardiovascular disease (CVD) (Figure 2). The  
309 relationship between AME ancestry and CVD across the entire cohort appears statistically  
310 significant ( $\beta=-0.054$  (95% CI: -0.076,-0.031) ,  $p<0.001$ ). Importantly, when stratified by  
311 background group, this statistical significance disappears completely in all groups ( $p>0.05$ ). This  
312 is consistent with our observation that certain groups have higher prevalence of CVD than others  
313 (e.g., Puerto Rican individuals at 7.9% vs. Mexican individuals at 4.8%), and that AME proportions  
314 vary widely by background group as well, indicating confounding by background group. Similar  
315 inferences are made regarding the Employment Status, Physical Activity, Marital Status, and  
316 CESD-10 Item Depression Score variables (Table 2). Taken together, these results caution the  
317 use of a pooled Hispanic/Latino participant sample to characterize the role of ancestry proportions  
318 on human health or relevant trait distributions.

319

320 **Figure 2.** Distributions of Selected Variables by AME Ancestry Proportion Aggregated and by Background



**Figure 2.** Graphical depictions of relationships between AME ancestry proportion and A) BMI, B)  $PGS_{BMI}$ , C) immigrant generation, D) diet score (1= under 60th sex-specific percentile of JAMA Healthy Diet score, 2= top 40th sex-specific percentile of JAMA Healthy Diet score), and E) prevalent cardiovascular disease in the complete sample (left panels; 1=yes, 0=no) and stratified by self-identified background group identity (right panels). \* indicates statistically significant differences ( $p < 0.05$ ) between categories.

321 **Interaction of  $PGS_{BMI}$  with non-genetic factors and admixture proportions in the pooled**  
 322 **sample display heterogeneity**

323 Given high heterogeneity in the univariate analyses, we sought to understand the  
 324 influence of this heterogeneity in a model incorporating the above variables into a genetic risk  
 325 prediction model for BMI. Specifically, to further investigate if differential performance of the  
 326  $PGS_{BMI}$  is reflective of potential population stratification not captured by principal components  
 327 accounting for global genetic ancestry, we compared the performance of the extended model for  
 328 BMI previously employed by McArdle *et al.* with and without an independent AME ancestry

329 proportion term. In the pooled sample of all Hispanic/Latino participants, the addition of AME  
330 ancestry proportion to the full model did not meaningfully change the main effect of PGS<sub>BMI</sub> on  
331 BMI ( $\beta=2.47$ ,  $p<0.001$  vs.  $\beta=2.46$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) or model fit with an  $R^2$  of 0.170 in the original full  
332 model from McArdle et al. and an  $R^2$  of 0.171 with the addition of AME ancestry proportions (Supp  
333 Table 1). Coefficients for other terms were consistent between models, including interaction terms  
334 with PGS<sub>BMI</sub> with healthy diet and with age at immigration (Supp Table 1).

335 We then explored how proportion of AME ancestry may affect both the individual  
336 coefficients and overall model fit by stratifying the full model by inferred AME ancestry into  
337 quartiles in the pooled sample (Q1: 0-8.9%, Q2: 8.9-28.9%, Q3: 28.9-48.2%, and Q4: 48.2-99.9%  
338 AME ancestry). In contrast to the previous analysis which seeks to control for confounding, this  
339 analysis assesses the role of overall genetic background (AME ancestry proportion) on the ability  
340 for the PGS to capture the genetic liability for BMI. Overall, model fit ( $R^2$ ) generally decreased  
341 with increasing quartiles of AME ancestry (0.222, 0.202, 0.213, and 0.164, respectively; Table 3).  
342 Due to the collinearity of increasing inferred AME with decreasing EUR, this finding is consistent  
343 with prior literature showing generally decreased performance with increasing genetic distance  
344 from the training sample, which was of European ancestries.<sup>40</sup> The adjusted effect size of the  
345 PGS<sub>BMI</sub> on BMI remained generally consistent with increasing quartile of AME ancestry (quartile  
346 1:  $\beta=2.23$  (1.32,3.14),  $p<0.001$ ; quartile 4:  $\beta=2.40$  (1.27,3.52),  $p<0.001$ ) (Supp Table 2).

347 Further, we examined the role of ancestry proportion on the effect modification of PGS<sub>BMI</sub>  
348 by age-at-immigration and diet, which revealed heterogeneity by AME ancestry proportion  
349 quartile. The estimates of PGS<sub>BMI</sub> x age-at-immigration interaction comparing those born in the  
350 US to immigrating as adults (>21 years) generally became stronger with increasing quartile of  
351 AME ancestry for the lowest three quartiles, though only statistically significant in the third quartile  
352 of AME ancestry (quartile 3:  $\beta=0.788$  (95% CI: 0.183,1.29),  $p=0.01$ ). The estimates of the PGS<sub>BMI</sub>-  
353 diet interaction were variable and only significant ( $p<0.05$ ) in the highest quartile of AME ancestry  
354 (quartile 4:  $\beta=-0.536$  (95% CI: -1.05, -0.03),  $p=0.04$ ) (Supp Table 2). These interactions are  
355 directionally consistent with their unstratified complete model estimates for the PGS<sub>BMI</sub>-diet  
356 interaction ( $\beta=-0.398$  (95% CI: -0.725, -0.07),  $p=0.017$ ) and the PGS<sub>BMI</sub>-immigration interaction  
357 for adults >21 years compared to those born in the US ( $\beta=0.514$  (95% CI: -0.126,1.15),  $p=0.12$ )  
358 (Supp Table 1).

### 359 **Interaction of PGS<sub>BMI</sub> with non-genetic factors and admixture proportions differs by** 360 **Hispanic/Latino background group**

361 To evaluate the potential modification of both AME ancestry and background group on the  
362 performance of PGS<sub>BMI</sub> and its interaction with sociocultural factors: we partitioned AME ancestry  
363 into tertiles in the pooled sample due to limited sample size when data is parsed by both variables.  
364 The ancestry tertiles corresponded to 0-12.5%, 12.5-42.8%, and 42.8-99% inferred AME  
365 ancestry. When stratified by both tertiles of AME ancestry and by background, model  $R^2$   
366 decreased with increasing tertiles in all background groups with appreciable AME ancestry  
367 (Mexican, Central American, and South American). In Caribbean (Cuban, Dominican, Puerto  
368 Rican) groups with lower AME ancestry proportions on average, trends were inconsistent with  
369 insufficient data in some cells (Table 4). The adjusted effect of the PGS<sub>BMI</sub> on BMI generally  
370 became stronger with increasing AME ancestry tertile in each background group, contrary to the  
371 trend observed without background stratification (Supp Tables 3.1-3.6). This trend was observed

372 in all groups except in the Mexican background group, where the  $PGS_{BMI}$  coefficient became  
373 attenuated in the higher AME ancestry tertile ( $\beta=1.21$  (95% CI: 0.190, 2.22),  $p=0.02$ ) compared  
374 to the lower tertile ( $\beta=3.25$  (95% CI: 1.72, 4.77),  $p<0.001$ ).

375 The estimates of the  $PGS_{BMI}$ -immigration interaction (reference group are participants who  
376 immigrated at 21 years old or older) were only statistically significant in three strata: 1) in the 1st  
377 tertile of AME ancestry in the Cuban background group, comparing those aged 0-5 years at  
378 immigration ( $\beta=2.20$  (0.43, 3.98),  $p=0.02$ ), 2) in the 1st AME ancestry tertile of the Dominican  
379 background group, comparing those aged 6-12 years at immigration ( $\beta=4.38$  (2.14, 6.62),  
380  $p<0.001$ ), and 3) in the 2nd AME ancestry tertile of the Mexican background group, comparing  
381 those born in the US ( $\beta=1.33$  (0.59, 2.07),  $p<0.001$ ). (Supplementary Figure 2) Expanding on the  
382 last strata for Mexican background individuals, participants who immigrated at  $\geq 21$  years old  
383 had on average an increase of 3.25 units of BMI (95% CI: 1.72, 4.77) for every standard deviation  
384 increase of  $PGS_{BMI}$ . However, for participants born in the US, every one unit increase in  $PGS_{BMI}$   
385 is associated with a 4.58 unit increase in BMI (1.33 units higher than the reference group). As  
386 such, the effect of the PRS is statistically higher in this contrast. The  $PGS_{BMI}$ -immigration  
387 interaction remained statistically insignificant and was directionally heterogeneous in all other  
388 categories of background groups and subsequent ancestry tertiles, despite larger sample sizes  
389 in those bins. This indicates that even when explicitly controlling for ancestry, through both AME  
390 ancestry proportions and principal components, there remain differences between  
391 Hispanic/Latino groups for this GxE interaction ( $PGS_{BMI}$ -immigration).

392 Beyond the inherent heterogeneity in model fit demonstrated here between background  
393 groups of a Hispanic/Latino cohort, we observe that AME ancestry proportion thereby differentially  
394 affects the GxE interactions underlying BMI-diet-age at immigration relationships. As AME  
395 ancestry proportion increases, the model fit worsens. Interestingly, the statistically significant GxE  
396 interactions of PGS-by-diet and PGS-by-age at immigration generally did persist upon  
397 stratification by ancestry quartile and by both ancestry tertile and background, except in the 1st  
398 tertiles of Mexican and Dominican groups and in the 2nd tertile of the Central American  
399 background group, where estimates were directionally heterogeneous between groups. This  
400 effect size heterogeneity across ancestry tertiles within some groups may indicate the  
401 intersectional role of genetic ancestry with sociocultural influences which could affect the  
402 performance of the PGS.

## 403 **DISCUSSION**

404 Through the present analyses, we sought to characterize these complex relationships  
405 between a polygenic score, genetic ancestry, background group, and various lifestyle,  
406 sociodemographic, and immigration-related variables in BMI prediction in a Hispanic/Latino  
407 population (HCHS/SOL). Our inquiry was four-fold: (1) what are the individual distributions of  
408 these variables across Hispanic/Latino backgrounds?; (2) what is these variables' relationship to  
409 genetic ancestry?; (3) can inferred genetic ancestry explain previously identified heterogeneity  
410 between Hispanic/Latino backgrounds in an integrated BMI risk model?; and (4) does additional  
411 self-identified background group-level stratification offer additional insights to comprehensive  
412 inferred ancestry modeling? Across all analyses, we identified persistent heterogeneity in  
413 univariate and multivariate associations of these variables with  $PGS_{BMI}$ , particularly due to

414 confounding by Hispanic/Latino background group that indicates the importance of background-  
415 level stratification in avoiding spurious findings in this population.

416 First, we identified high levels of heterogeneity among the various genetic and  
417 environmental variables in this study population, underscoring the important distinctions to be  
418 made between groups of self-identified Hispanic/Latino ethnicity. In fact, aggregating groups of  
419 this ethnicity obscures meaningful heterogeneity between geographical and cultural groups of  
420 Hispanic/Latino ethnicity and may lead to false conclusions. This is consistent with other studies  
421 of acculturation and BMI in Hispanic/Latino populations. For example, Khan *et al.* found that the  
422 effect of acculturation on BMI among Mexican Americans in the Hispanic Health and Nutrition  
423 Examination Survey was stronger than among Puerto Ricans and Cubans, which the authors  
424 hypothesized as being at least partly a function of longer duration of "exposure to (mainland) US  
425 culture" among Mexican Americans, and may have also been driven by a higher sample size in  
426 this group.<sup>10</sup>

427 Second, we observed that when stratified by background group, the relationships of these  
428 variables with genetic ancestry, modeled here as inferred AME ancestry admixture proportion,  
429 were heterogeneous. Genetic analyses of Hispanic/Latino participants may be inclined to  
430 incorporate Amerindigenous or other ancestry proportions into the model, as an important  
431 predictor of environmental variables of interest. It has been reported that those of Hispanic/Latino  
432 ethnicity in the US have, on average, 18.0% AME ancestry.<sup>35</sup> The analysis of AME ancestry in  
433 this cohort, however, demonstrates significant variation ranging from an average of 4% to 47%  
434 AME ancestry in different Hispanic/Latino background groups. In our analysis, we identify  
435 heterogeneity in associations between various health-related variables and ancestry proportions,  
436 both between pooled and stratified results, as well as between the groups themselves. Therefore,  
437 in studies involving Hispanic/Latino participants, background group stratification is important to  
438 prevent inferences of spurious associations of such variables with AME ancestry, which are  
439 instead driven primarily by group heterogeneity and differences in ancestry proportions between  
440 background groups.

441 Third, we found that the fit of our predictive model for BMI as explained by a  $PGS_{BMI}$  along  
442 with various health, immigration, and environmental variables, and genetic ancestry worsened  
443 with increasing proportions of AME ancestry. This observation is consistent with previous  
444 demonstrations of poor transferability of PGS trained in European-ancestries to other  
445 populations.<sup>36,37</sup> This is not surprising given of the  $PGS_{BMI}$  here was trained on a largely European  
446 ancestry sample, which inherently does not reflect the genetic composition of HCHS/SOL  
447 participants.<sup>29</sup> However, it is notable that there is significant heterogeneity within the pooled  
448 Hispanic/Latino participants. Longstanding patterns of migration, conflict, and other sociopolitical  
449 factors influenced the current structure of genetic ancestry of Hispanic/Latino groups being a  
450 combination of European, African, and Amerindigenous ancestry, giving rise to different allele  
451 frequencies and linkage disequilibrium (LD) correlation structures.<sup>35</sup> This poor performance by  
452 ancestry has consequences in the ability to detect GxE interactions, as demonstrated by the high  
453 heterogeneity in interaction effect estimates of PGS with immigration and diet-related variables,  
454 particularly related to the confounding effect of background group on the relationship of these  
455 variables and BMI.

456 Fourth, when we subsequently stratified this model by both AME ancestry and background  
457 group, we identified heterogeneous effects in the specific contrasts in which GxE interactions  
458 persisted. McArdle *et al.* previously identified few statistically significant GxE interactions in an  
459 analysis of the full model stratified by background group: those who immigrated to the US had a  
460 higher BMI than those born in the US, comparing those with a higher to lower PGS<sub>BMI</sub>.<sup>21</sup> In our  
461 analysis that was stratified by *both* background group and AME ancestry, our results also  
462 indicated a modest effect of younger age at immigration to the US on the PGS<sub>BMI</sub>- BMI relationship  
463 in Cuban, Dominican, and Mexican background groups. Those who were brought to the US at  
464 young ages from different countries may also reflect different demographic backgrounds and  
465 sociocultural environments that represent varying risk-increasing or risk-decreasing relationships  
466 of health- or environment-related risk factors with BMI and obesity. Group-specific histories of  
467 colonization, along with geopolitical and temporal patterning of how specific Hispanic/Latino  
468 groups became part of or relocated to the US, play a major role in these sociocultural and  
469 demographic differences, with immigration and land loss beginning in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century and  
470 continuing to the present day through many immigration barriers and policies.<sup>38</sup> In recent history,  
471 migration from Mexico to the US peaked between 2000-2010, before the implementation of  
472 stricter border policies that curtailed the routine back and forth or "circular" migration patterns  
473 between Mexico and the US.<sup>39,40</sup> The Caribbean islands of Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic,  
474 and Cuba, despite their geographical proximity, have had more nuanced US migration and  
475 immigration patterns. While the former was annexed by the US in 1898 and saw migration  
476 numbers peak after World War II, Cubans were mostly isolated from the US during this time.<sup>39</sup>  
477 This long standing relationship changed, however, with the 1959 communist revolution, which  
478 drove the immigration of hundreds of thousands of Cuban migrants to the US.<sup>39</sup> In recent years,  
479 the immigration of Hispanic/Latino people to the US has continued, including many from Central  
480 and South American countries, albeit at a slower pace in the face of stricter immigration policy.<sup>41</sup>  
481 Our results are at least partially consistent with other non-genetic analyses of obesity in  
482 Hispanic/Latino populations in the US that reflect the important role of US residency and  
483 immigration in obesity and that age at immigration is not as significant an obesity risk factor in  
484 these populations.<sup>42</sup>

485 This study's limitations lie primarily in small sample size and potential for information bias  
486 and misclassification. Loss of statistical significance in the GxE interactions is likely driven at least  
487 in part by small sample sizes in the increasingly minute sub-classifications of the analytic sample.  
488 However, the maintained statistical significance of these interactions and their significant effect  
489 size change in two of the background groups suggests that group analyses could identify  
490 differential modifying effects of diet and age-at-immigration on the effect on BMI of PGS<sub>BMI</sub>. Our  
491 analyses were also restricted to incorporation of AME ancestry, despite the notably important  
492 contribution of African (AFR) ancestry, particularly in Dominican background participants. High  
493 AFR ancestry likely also contributes differentially to poor model fit observed for this group in Table  
494 5.<sup>43</sup> We did not explore associations of immigration-related, environmental, and diet variables with  
495 African (AFR) ancestry, due to issues arising from collinearity of AFR ancestry with AME ancestry  
496 and extremely limited sample sizes poorly powered to detect effects. Further studies to examine  
497 the role of AFR ancestry in these GxE frameworks are needed.

498 An additional limitation is that the measurement of immigration-related variables (i.e. age-  
499 at-immigration, nativity, and years lived in the US) requires the simplification of innately complex

500 concepts that reflect years and often generations of migratory and environmental changes.  
501 Importantly, these analyses cannot capture the circular nature of migration of Hispanic/Latino  
502 groups, for example among individuals of Mexican and Puerto Rican backgrounds who often  
503 migrate between the US 50 states/DC and Mexico or Puerto Rico within and across  
504 generations.<sup>39,40,44,45</sup> However, current analyses of health and health-related behaviors in US  
505 Hispanic/Latino populations have consistently used acculturation and immigration-related  
506 variables as proxies for complex migratory and environmental patterns and have robustly  
507 identified associations with health-related variables, including BMI.<sup>46-48</sup>

508 Despite controlling for self-identified background, AME ancestry proportion, and principal  
509 components, our analyses still identified significant heterogeneity in GxE interactions, indicating  
510 the influence of non-genetic factors and complex social environments in the poor performance of  
511 a model exploring a European-ancestry-derived PGS<sub>BMI</sub> in a non-European sample. Taken  
512 together, we demonstrate that environmental variables play an important role in the effect of  
513 genetics on obesity risk in Hispanic/Latino groups. However, the consideration of group identity  
514 within Hispanic/Latino ethnicity and other large ethnic groups requires increased urgency,  
515 especially as the incorporation of precision medicine into clinical practice and preventative care  
516 looms closer. Heeding calls for movement towards an integrated risk score requires  
517 acknowledgement of the complex genetic and environmental profiles of this population,  
518 specifically the explicit modeling of their multi-layered sociodemographic and relationally complex  
519 migration histories of which may confound relationships of genetic and environmental variables.

520 To this aim, we recommend that cohorts must collect finer data on Hispanic/Latino  
521 participants that will continue to be used to study this population. This recommendation falls in  
522 line with recent consensus around for the appropriate use of race and ethnicity as population  
523 descriptors in both genetic and biomedical research: to use more granular levels of participants'  
524 self-identity rather than ancestry-driven or broadly defined categorization.<sup>49,50</sup> Additionally, clinical  
525 applications of genetic association analyses and of analyses incorporating gene-environment  
526 interactions should pay attention to different modifying effects of environmental variables between  
527 Hispanic/Latino background groups. More broadly, epidemiologic and other analyses should  
528 stratify Hispanic/Latino participant populations by their background group identity to understand  
529 the true nature of public health relationships in these groups, and to prevent the publication of  
530 sweeping generalizations that are not reflective of true associations between important variables.

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## TABLES

**Table 1. Selected Population Characteristics of the HCHS/SOL Analytic Subsample Overall (n=7,282) and Stratified by Background**

Characteristic <sup>1</sup>	Overall	Central American	Cuban	Dominican	Mexican	Puerto Rican	South American	p-value
Total	7282	846	1331	659	2701	1211	534	--
Weighted	7075	602	1717	636	2560	1157	403	--
AGE (years)	43 (33, 54)	40 (32, 51)	48 (39, 59)	43 (33, 53)	40 (31, 51)	45 (34, 56)	44 (36, 53)	<0.001
STUDY CENTER								<0.001
Brooklyn	1,965 (28%)	81 (13%)	117 (6.8%)	594 (93%)	252 (9.8%)	825 (71%)	96 (24%)	
Chicago	1,033 (15%)	111 (19%)	21 (1.2%)	6 (0.9%)	613 (24%)	219 (19%)	63 (16%)	
Miami	2,287 (32%)	358 (59%)	1,567 (91%)	30 (4.7%)	43 (1.7%)	76 (6.6%)	214 (53%)	
San Diego	1,790 (25%)	52 (8.6%)	12 (0.7%)	6 (0.9%)	1,653 (65%)	38 (3.3%)	30 (7.4%)	
AGE AT MIGRATION								<0.001
Born in the US	1,255 (18%)	36 (5.9%)	144 (8.4%)	48 (7.5%)	478 (19%)	514 (44%)	36 (9.0%)	
0 - <6 yrs	337 (4.8%)	8 (1.3%)	35 (2.0%)	19 (3.0%)	114 (4.5%)	153 (13%)	8 (1.9%)	
6 - 12 yrs	326 (4.6%)	25 (4.1%)	67 (3.9%)	33 (5.1%)	111 (4.3%)	79 (6.8%)	12 (3.0%)	
13 - 20 yrs	1,173 (17%)	121 (20%)	141 (8.2%)	119 (19%)	582 (23%)	167 (14%)	42 (10%)	
>=21 yrs	3,985 (56%)	413 (69%)	1,330 (77%)	417 (66%)	1,275 (50%)	245 (21%)	306 (76%)	
IMMIGRANT GENERATION								<0.001
1st Generation	5,714 (81%)	567 (94%)	1,570 (91%)	587 (92%)	2,012 (79%)	612 (53%)	367 (91%)	
EDUCATION								<0.001
Less than HS	2,160 (31%)	227 (38%)	339 (20%)	230 (36%)	903 (35%)	390 (34%)	72 (18%)	
INCOME								<0.001
<\$30,000 USD	4,626 (65%)	454 (75%)	1,235 (72%)	462 (73%)	1,481 (58%)	739 (64%)	257 (64%)	
EMPLOYMENT STATUS								<0.001
Retired and not currently working	649 (9.2%)	25 (4.1%)	202 (12%)	65 (10%)	122 (4.8%)	209 (18%)	27 (6.6%)	
Not retired and not currently working	2,581 (36%)	193 (32%)	735 (43%)	232 (37%)	883 (34%)	422 (36%)	116 (29%)	
Employed <= 35h/wk	1,190 (17%)	141 (23%)	194 (11%)	115 (18%)	501 (20%)	152 (13%)	86 (21%)	
Employed > 35h/wk	2,656 (38%)	244 (40%)	586 (34%)	224 (35%)	1,054 (41%)	374 (32%)	174 (43%)	

Sweetened Beverage Consumption (Servings/day)	1.58 (0.97, 2.34)	1.73 (1.06, 2.61)	1.48 (0.95, 2.11)	1.31 (0.74, 1.85)	1.59 (0.97, 2.38)	1.77 (1.12, 2.66)	1.64 (1.02, 2.37)	<0.001
Meets 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines	4,703 (66%)	421 (70%)	970 (56%)	424 (67%)	1,807 (71%)	795 (69%)	287 (71%)	<0.001
JAMA Healthy Diet Score								<0.001
>60th sex-specific percentile	3,393 (48%)	264 (44%)	719 (42%)	143 (22%)	1,827 (71%)	231 (20%)	210 (52%)	
Sleep Duration (h/day)	7.93 (7.00, 8.71)	7.79 (7.00, 8.57)	8.00 (7.21, 8.93)	7.86 (7.00, 8.93)	8.00 (7.29, 8.71)	7.64 (6.71, 8.79)	7.71 (6.79, 8.50)	<0.001
CIGARETTE USE								<0.001
Never	4,223 (60%)	390 (65%)	938 (55%)	501 (79%)	1,586 (62%)	570 (49%)	236 (59%)	
Former	1,365 (19%)	119 (20%)	342 (20%)	80 (13%)	524 (20%)	191 (17%)	109 (27%)	
Current	1,489 (21%)	93 (15%)	437 (25%)	55 (8.6%)	450 (18%)	396 (34%)	58 (14%)	
ALCOHOL USE LEVEL								0.004
Non-drinker	3,382 (48%)	336 (56%)	857 (50%)	290 (46%)	1,157 (45%)	567 (49%)	175 (43%)	
Low-risk drinker	3,252 (46%)	228 (38%)	745 (43%)	312 (49%)	1,222 (48%)	527 (46%)	218 (54%)	
At-risk drinker	442 (6.2%)	38 (6.3%)	115 (6.7%)	34 (5.4%)	181 (7.1%)	63 (5.5%)	10 (2.6%)	
Diabetes History	1,154 (16%)	87 (14%)	298 (17%)	96 (15%)	417 (16%)	216 (19%)	41 (10%)	0.025
Prevalent CVD	462 (6.5%)	37 (6.1%)	151 (8.8%)	40 (6.2%)	123 (4.8%)	92 (7.9%)	20 (4.8%)	0.055
BMI	28.9 (25.9, 32.7)	28.8 (26.2, 32.4)	29.0 (25.7, 32.6)	29.3 (26.0, 32.7)	28.7 (26.1, 32.3)	29.6 (26.1, 34.3)	27.9 (24.9, 30.8)	<0.001
BMI PGS	0.01 (-0.65, 0.67)	0.07 (-0.54, 0.67)	-0.14 (-0.88, 0.55)	0.09 (-0.55, 0.69)	0.07 (-0.61, 0.72)	-0.03 (-0.69, 0.64)	-0.02 (-0.64, 0.62)	<0.001
AME Ancestry Proportion	0.29 (0.09, 0.48)	0.45 (0.37, 0.54)	0.04 (0.02, 0.08)	0.06 (0.05, 0.08)	0.47 (0.37, 0.60)	0.13 (0.11, 0.15)	0.44 (0.29, 0.61)	<0.001

<sup>1</sup>Median (IQR); n (%)

**Table 2. AME Ancestry Proportion Univariate Association with Selected Variables and Background Groups (Individuals with missing data were dropped)**

Characteristic	Overall (n=7075)			Mexican (n=2560)			Puerto Rican (n=1157)		
	Beta	95% CI	p-value	Beta	95% CI	p-value	Beta	95% CI	p-value
<b>Age</b>	-0.003	-0.004, 0.003	<0.001	-0.003	-0.003, 0.002	<0.001	0.000	0.000, 0.000	<b>0.024</b>
<b>Study Center</b>									
Bronx	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF
Chicago	0.300	0.286, 0.313	<0.001	-0.207	-0.238, -0.177	<0.001	0.011	0.007, 0.016	<0.001
Miami	0.017	0.004, 0.030	<b>0.009</b>	-0.333	-0.399, -0.266	<0.001	-0.002	-0.011, 0.008	0.73
San Diego	0.248	0.235, 0.262	<0.001	-0.351	-0.381, -0.321	<0.001	0.007	-0.008, 0.022	0.38
<b>Age at Immigration</b>									
>=21 years	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF
US BORN	-0.079	-0.095, -0.062	<0.001	-0.094	-0.114, -0.074	<0.001	-0.003	-0.008, 0.002	0.26
0-5 years	-0.082	-0.112, -0.052	<0.001	-0.054	-0.093, -0.0015	<b>0.006</b>	0.002	-0.005, 0.009	0.64
6-12 years	-0.052	-0.079, -0.025	<0.001	-0.020	-0.054, 0.014	0.24	0.006	-0.002, 0.013	0.13
13-20 years	0.059	0.043, 0.074	<0.001	0.002	-0.015, 0.019	0.81	0.002	-0.004, 0.008	0.48
<b>Immigrant Generation</b>	-0.075	-0.091, -0.060	<0.001	-0.098	-0.115, -0.080	<0.001	-0.005	-0.009, -0.001	<b>0.018</b>
<b>Education</b>	-0.078	-0.090, -0.066	<0.001	-0.064	-0.077, -0.051	<0.001	-0.004	-0.008, 0.000	0.078
<b>Income</b>	0.004	-0.008, 0.016	0.55	-0.060	-0.074, -0.046	<0.001	0.001	-0.003, 0.006	0.49
<b>Employment Status</b>									
Retired and not currently working	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF
Not retired and not currently working	0.062	0.042, 0.082	<0.001	0.034	0.005, 0.062	<b>0.020</b>	0.001	-0.004, 0.006	0.65

Employed <= 35h/wk	0.133	0.110, 0.155	<0.001	0.044	0.014, 0.075	0.004	-0.006	-0.014, 0.001	0.11
Employed > 35h/wk	0.107	0.087, 0.126	<0.001	0.046	0.018, 0.074	0.002	0.002	-0.004, 0.007	0.55
<b>Sweetened Beverage Consumption (svgs/day)</b>	0.016	0.011, 0.022	<0.001	0.018	0.011, 0.024	<0.001	0.001	-0.001, 0.003	0.22
<b>Meets 2008 Physical Activity Guidelines</b>	0.037	0.025, 0.049	<0.001	0.008	-0.007, 0.022	0.29	-0.001	-0.005, 0.003	0.64
<b>Top 40th Percentile Diet Score</b>	0.135	0.124, 0.146	<0.001	-0.030	-0.046, -0.014	<0.001	0.001	-0.004, 0.005	0.82
<b>Sleep Duration (h/day)</b>	-0.001	-0.005, 0.003	0.59	-0.002	-0.007, 0.004	0.53	0.000	-0.001, 0.001	0.85
<b>Cigarette Use</b>									
Never	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF
Former	-0.025	-0.039, -0.011	<0.001	-0.037	-0.054, -0.021	<0.001	-0.001	-0.006, 0.004	0.74
Current	-0.090	-0.104, -0.075	<0.001	-0.048	-0.067, -0.029	<0.001	-0.002	-0.006, 0.003	0.49
<b>Alcohol Use Level</b>									
Non-drinker	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF	REF
Low-risk drinker	-0.013	-0.025, -0.002	0.026	-0.023	-0.037, -0.009	0.001	0.000	-0.004, 0.003	0.81
At-risk drinker	-0.031	-0.057, -0.005	0.020	-0.041	-0.071, -0.010	0.009	0.007	-0.002, 0.016	0.11
<b>Diabetes History</b>	0.000	-0.014, 0.014	0.97	0.025	0.008, 0.042	0.003	0.003	-0.001, 0.007	0.19
<b>Prevalent CVD</b>	-0.054	-0.076, -0.031	<0.001	0.001	-0.030, 0.031	0.95	0.001	-0.006, 0.008	0.76
<b>BMI</b>	-0.001	-0.002, 0.000	0.044	0.000	-0.001, 0.001	0.97	0.000	0.000, 0.000	0.20
<b>BMI PGS</b>	0.030	0.024, 0.036	<0.001	0.040	0.033, 0.047	<0.001	-0.001	-0.003, 0.001	0.39



**Table 3. Comparing R<sup>2</sup> values of multivariable regression results, stratified by AME ancestry proportion quartile**

AME Ancestry Proportion		R <sup>2</sup>
Quartile	Range	
Quartile 1	(0.000, 0.089)	0.222
Quartile 2	(0.089, 0.289)	0.202
Quartile 3	(0.289, 0.482)	0.213
Quartile 4	(0.482, 0.999)	0.164

**Table 4. Comparing R<sup>2</sup> values of multivariable regression results, stratified by AME ancestry proportion tertile & background group**

AME Ancestry Proportion		Background Group (R <sup>2</sup> (n))					
Tertile	Range	Central American	Cuban	Dominican	Mexican	Puerto Rican	South American
1	(0.000, 0.125)	N/A (14)	0.238 (1225)	0.206 (658)	N/A (17)	0.298 (476)	N/A (38)
2	(0.125, 0.428)	0.295 (360)	0.420 (106)	N/A (1)	0.252 (1012)	0.277 (735)	0.351 (213)
3	(0.428, 0.999)	0.220 (472)	N/A (0)	N/A (0)	0.156 (1672)	N/A (0)	0.333 (283)