1	An Integrative Polygenic and Epigenetic Risk Score for											
2	Overweight-related Hypertension in Chinese Population											
3												
4	Yaning Zhang (张亚宁) ^{1,#} , Qiwen Zheng (郑启文) ^{2,3,#} , Qili Qian (钱其漂) ^{4,5,#} , Na											
5	Yuan (苑娜) ^{2,3} , Tianzi Liu (刘天资) ⁴ , Xingjian Gao (高行健) ^{2,3,6} , Xiu Fan (凡秀) ^{2,3,5} ,											
6	Youkun Bi (毕友坤) ⁷ , Guangju Ji (姬广聚) ¹ , Peilin Jia (贾佩林) ^{2,3,5} , Sijia Wang (汪思											
7	佳) ^{4,5,*} , Fan Liu (刘凡) ^{8,*} , Changqing Zeng (曾长青) ^{1,2,3,5,*}											
8												
9	¹ Henan Academy of Sciences, Zhengzhou 450046, China											
10	² China National Center for Bioinformation, Beijing 100101, China											
11	³ Beijing Institute of Genomics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China											
12	⁴ CAS Key Laboratory of Computational Biology, Shanghai Institute of Nutrition and											
13	Health, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai 200031, China											
14	⁵ University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100049, China											
15	⁶ National Clinical Research Center of Kidney Diseases, Jinling Hospital, Nanjing											
16	210002, China											
17	⁷ Institute of Biophysics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China											
18	⁸ Department of Forensic Sciences, College of Criminal Justice, Naif Arab University											
19	for Security Sciences, Riyadh 12271, Saudi Arabia											
20												
21	[#] Equal contribution.											
22	* Corresponding authors.											
23	Email: czeng@big.ac.cn (Zeng C), fliu@nauss.edu.sa (Liu F), wangsijia@sinh.ac.cn											
24	(Wang S).											
25												
26	Running title: Zhang Y et al / Genetic-Epigenetic Risk for Overweight-related											
27	Hypertension											
28												

© The Author(s) 2025. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of Beijing Institute of Genomics, Chinese Academy of Sciences and China National Center for Bioinformation and Genetics Society of China. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

- 29 The total number of words: 6998.
- 30 The total number of characters in article title: 96.
- 31 The total number of KEYWORDS: 5.
- 32 The total number of words in abstract: 248.
- 33 The total number of figures: 4.
- 34 The total number of tables: 2.
- 35 The total number of supplementary figures: 3.
- 36 The total number of supplementary tables: 16.
- 37 The total number of supplementary files: 1.
- 38 The total number of references: 92.

39 Abstract

40 Overweight-related hypertension (OrH), defined by the coexistence of excess body 41 weight and hypertension (HTN), is an increasing health concern elevating 42 cardiovascular disease risks. This study evaluated the prediction performance of 43 polygenic risk scores (PRS) and methylation risk scores (MRS) for OrH in 7605 44 Chinese participants from two cohorts: the Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS) and the National Survey of Physical Traits (NSPT). In CAS cohort, which predominantly 45 46 consists of academics, males showed significantly higher prevalence of obesity, HTN, 47 and OrH, along with worse metabolic syndrome indicators, compared to females. This disparity was less pronounced in NSPT cohort and in broader Chinese studies. Among 48 49 ten PRS methods, PRS-CSx was the most effective, enhancing prediction accuracy for 50 obesity [area under the curve (AUC) = 0.75], HTN (AUC = 0.74), and OrH (AUC = 0.75), compared to baseline models using only age and sex (AUC = 0.55-0.71). 51 52 Similarly, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO)-based MRS models improved prediction accuracies for obesity (AUC = 0.70), HTN (AUC = 0.73), 53 54 and OrH (AUC = 0.78). Combining PRS and MRS further boosted prediction 55 accuracy to the AUC of 0.77, 0.76, and 0.80, respectively. These models stratified individuals into high (> 0.6) or low (< 0.1) risk categories, covering 59.95% for 56 obesity, 31.75% for HTN, and 43.89% for OrH, respectively. Our findings highlight a 57 58 higher OrH risk among male academics, emphasize the influence of metabolic and 59 lifestyle factors on MRS predictions, and highlight the value of multi-omics 60 approaches in enhancing risk stratification.

61

KEYWORDS: Overweight-related hypertension; Polygenic risk scores; Methylation
 risk scores; Multi-omics prediction; Academics

64 Introduction

Overweight-related hypertension (OrH) is a distinct clinical condition characterized 65 by the concurrent disorders of both body weight and blood pressure [1-3]. Its global 66 67 prevalence has largely increased over the past two decades, linking to a rise in the 68 risks of cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases [4,5]. Recent genome-wide 69 association studies (GWAS) [6] and epigenome-wide association studies (EWAS) [7] 70 have uncovered numerous genetic and epigenetic factors associated with body weight 71 and blood pressure. To date, the National Human Genome Research Institute -72 European Bioinformatics Institute (NHGRI-EBI) GWAS catalog [8,9] has cataloged 73 4263 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from 54 studies that are significantly 74 associated with body mass index (BMI), spanning 1252 genes. Meanwhile, 36 studies 75 have identified 2853 SNPs across 862 genes significantly associated with diastolic 76 blood pressure (DBP) and systolic blood pressure (SBP) (Table S1). Furthermore, EWAS have identified 1581 CpG sites across 855 genes that are associated with BMI 77 78 [10-15] along with 150 CpG sites from 85 genes associated with blood pressure 79 (Table S2) [16–22].

80 With the continuous discovery of a large number of genetic and epigenetic risk 81 factors, polygenic risk scores (PRS) [23,24] and methylation risk scores (MRS) [18,25] 82 have emerged as pivotal tools for profiling the risk landscape of OrH. For instance, a 83 meta analysis involving 700,000 European individuals constructed a PRS using 941 84 SNPs, which explained approximately 6% of the variance in BMI [26]. A stratification analysis from the Korean Genome and Epidemiology Study (KoGES) showed that 85 86 participants in the highest PRS quartile had a two-fold increased risk of obesity and 87 hypertension (HTN) compared to those in the lowest quartile [27]. Similarly, using 88 EWAS data of nearly 5000 Europeans and Africans, a MRS constructed from 33 CpG loci accounted for 3.31% and 3.99% of the variance in SBP and DBP, respectively 89 90 [28]. Additionally, a MRS based on 435 CpGs, derived from penalized regression of 91 methylation data from 2562 unrelated participants in Generation Scotland, explained 92 around 10% of BMI variance, with each standard deviation (SD) increase in MRS

associated with a 37% higher risk of obesity [29]. Furthermore, by contrasting MRS
with PRS, a recent review emphasized the importance of integrating genetic and
epigenetic data for improved trait prediction [25]. Indeed, studies combining PRS and
MRS have demonstrated an increase in the explained variance in BMI, up to 14% [30]
and 19% [10], highlighting the potential of multi-omics approaches.

98 Despite these achievements, as a comorbidity with various disorders, the 99 prediction of OrH remains underexplored. The construction of PRS and MRS for OrH 100 faces several challenges, especially in the Chinese population. One major limitation is 101 the reduced efficacy of PRS and MRS when developed in one ancestry group and 102 applied to others. To date, well-powered GWAS and EWAS have predominantly 103 focused on individuals of European ancestry, limiting their applicability to other 104 populations [31,32]. Moreover, cultural and environmental factors unique to the Chinese population may influence how genetic variations and epigenetic 105 106 modifications contribute to disease risk [7,33].

107 On the other hand, multiple approaches have been developed for constructing PRS 108 and MRS. In addition to the classic clumping and thresholding (C+T) method [34], 109 shrinkage methods such as Stacked C+T (SCT) [35], PRS-CS [36], LDpred2 [37,38], 110 and lassosum [39] adjust the weight of SNPs based on linkage disequilibrium (LD) 111 information. Other methods, such as PRS-CSx [40], CT-SLEB [41], PolyPred-P+ [42], 112 JointPRS [43], and Polygenic Risk scOres based on an enSemble PEnalized 113 Regression (PROSPER) [44], are specifically designed for deployment across 114 multiple ancestries, enhancing generalizability across diverse populations. For MRS 115 construction, common computations approaches include C+T [30] and penalized 116 linear regression [11]. Furthermore, integrating both PRS and MRS effectively could 117 offer a promising opportunity to improve risk prediction for OrH.

In attempt to accurately assess OrH in the Chinese population, this study aimed to construct an integrative multi-omics model. Using data from 3021 individuals in the Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS), we evaluated various PRS methodologies based on GWAS statistics from the BioBank Japan (BBJ) and the UK Biobank (UKB). Simultaneously, we analyzed several MRS models based on prior EWAS findingsusing data from 3513 individuals in the National Survey of Physical Traits (NSPT).

124 The performance of both PRS and MRS in predicting OrH risk was further validated

- in a separate dataset of 1071 individuals from the CAS.
- 126
- 127 **Results**

128 Higher obesity, HTN, and OrH risk in male academics

129 Our study included a total of 7605 Chinese individuals from two cohorts: 991 130 participants of phase 1 and 3101 of phase 2 from the CAS cohort with phenotype and 131 genomic data, and 3513 participants from the NSPT cohort with phenotype and DNA 132 methylation data. Additionally, methylation data were available for 1071 samples in 133 phase 2 of the CAS cohort. According to the baseline data in Table 1, both the CAS 134 and NSPT cohorts are middle-aged (average ages of 39.42 ± 10.11 years and $50.21 \pm$ 135 12.75 years, respectively), with slightly fewer males (47.8% and 37.1%, respectively). 136 A notable feature of the CAS cohort is the high proportion of participants with higher education (99.4% compared to 12.5% in the NSPT cohort). 137

138 A distinct pattern is observed in the CAS cohort, where obesity, HTN, and OrH 139 exhibit a notably higher male-to-female prevalence (M/F) ratio compared to both the 140 NSPT cohort and broader Chinese epidemiological studies. In CAS, as shown in 141 Table 1, the proportion of males is 77.7% in obesity cases, 72.9% in HTN, and 81.0% 142 in OrH. When converted to gender ratios, the M/F ratio for obesity is 3.8 (14.6% vs. 3.8%, P = 3.60E-33) and for HTN is 2.9 (29.0% vs. 9.9%, P = 2.52E-72), and the 143 M/F ratio for OrH is particularly concerning at 4.7 (21.5% vs. 4.6%, P = 8.50E-59). 144 145 Notably, this gender disparity persists across all age groups (Figure 1). In contrast, 146 the proportions of males in obesity, HTN, and OrH cases are all lower in NSPT cohort 147 (44.2%, 43.5%, and 45.1%, respectively), with the gender disparity (M/F ratio) being much less pronounced (1.3, 1.3, and 1.4, respectively). The gender ratio of NSPT is 148 149 similar to that observed in the national survey on obesity and HTN (Table S3) [45– 150 50].

151 Additionally, compared to NSPT cohort, gender disparities in metabolic health 152 were more pronounced in CAS. CAS males exhibited significantly worse levels of 153 multiple metabolic syndrome indicators, including total cholesterol (TC), triglycerides 154 (TG), low-density lipoprotein (LDL), and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) (Table S4). In contrast, CAS females demonstrated significantly better indicators, including TG, 155 HDL, LDL, and fasting blood glucose (FBG), compared to NSPT females. These 156 157 findings highlight a notable gender difference in the health conditions of academics in 158 China.

159 Furthermore, we assessed healthy lifestyle scores in CAS cohort, calculated as the sum of six binary indicators (Table S5). As demonstrated in Figure 1, as high as 160 161 67.1% of women have their scores \geq 4 compared to only 30.8% of men reach this score (P = 2.54E-31). Normal BMI (18.5–23.9 kg/m²) and waist circumference (WC) 162 163 (< 85 cm for men and < 80 cm for women) showed the most notable gender differences: BMI (34.4% in men vs. 66.2% in women, P = 3.12E-24) and WC (35.5% 164 in men vs. 74.3% in women, P = 2.84E-35). Significant differences were also 165 166 observed in the absence of current smoking (81.1% in men vs. 99.3% in women, P =1.36E-19) and the absence of excessive drinking (92.6% in men vs. 98.8% in women, 167 168 P = 7.30E - 06).

169

170 **PRS-CSx outperforms other PRS methods**

171 In this analysis, we utilized sub-datasets from the CAS cohort for PRS tuning, testing, 172 and validation (see Materials and methods), including: the PRS tuning set (n = 2030, phase 2 without CAS1k), PRS testing set (n = 991, phase 1), and the validation set (n173 174 = 1071, CAS1k). For quantitative traits including BMI, DBP, and SBP, 10 PRS methods (C+T, SCT, PRS-CS, LDpred2, lassosum, PRS-CSx, CT-SLEB, 175 176 PolyPred-P+, JointPRS, and PROSPER) were trained in the PRS tuning set using 177 GWAS summary statistics from the UKB ($n \approx 450,000$, European) and BBJ ($n \approx$ 178 150,000, Japanese) (Figures S1 and S2; Table S6). The latter five methods (PRS-CSx,

179 CT-SLEB, PolyPred-P+, JointPRS and PROSPER) represent multi-ancestry PRSs,
180 where weights were derived by integrating UKB and BBJ GWAS data.

181 Overall, throughout the tuning-testing-validation process (Tables S7-S12), the 182 PRS generated using PRS-CSx method demonstrated robust performance, showing 183 relatively strong prediction ability for the residuals of age-, sex-, and six genomic 184 principal components regressed quantitative phenotypes, including BMI, SBP, and DBP. Specifically, PRS-CSx achieved an R² of 2.40%–9.81% in predicting residual 185 186 variance, with an average of 4.76% in testing set (slightly lower than 4.87% for PROSPER) and 5.54% in validation set (higher than 4.98% for PROSPER) (Figure 187 188 2A; Table S12).

189 When compared to the PRSs from the Polygenic Score (PGS) Catalog, the 190 PRS-CSx method showed strong performance across multiple traits (BMI, SBP, and 191 DBP) in both testing and validation sets (Table S13). The exceptions were DBP in the 192 testing set, where PRS-CSx ranked second, slightly lower than that PGS003964 193 (3.75% vs. 4.90%), and SBP, where PRS-CSx ranked second in the testing set and 194 third in the validation set, with marginal differences from the top-performing PRS. 195 These results underscore the broad applicability and robustness of PRS-CSx in 196 capturing the genetic architecture of complex traits, which led us to choose PRS-CSx 197 for the subsequent analysis.

198

199 **Prediction accuracy of PRS-CSx for quantitative and binary traits**

After comparison and selection of PRS-CSx, we further assessed its prediction performance in the validation dataset (CAS1k, n = 1071) in predicting quantitative traits (BMI, SBP, and DBP) and binary disease outcomes (obesity, HTN, and OrH). The PRSs were largely normally distributed (Kolmogorov–Smirnov normality test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, P > 0.05).

For quantitative traits, our baseline prediction models, which incorporated sex and age only, revealed R^2 values of 18.28% for BMI, 17.86% for DBP, and 20.47% for SBP. When these models were augmented with respective PRS-CSx, there was a significant increase in accuracy, evidenced by R² values of 26.54% for BMI, 21.21%
for DBP, and 22.71% for SBP (Table 2).

210 Similarly, for binary disease statuses including obesity, HTN, and OrH, models 211 integrated with PRS-CSx also demonstrated improved accuracy compared to baseline 212 models. The PRS_{BMI} distinctively segregated obesity from non-obesity groups (P =213 4.35E–11, Figure 2B), with the odds ratio (OR) for obesity increased by 2.13 for each SD increment (OR/SD) in PRS_{BMI} [95% confidence interval (CI): 1.77–2.57, P =214 215 1.70E-11] (Table S14). In a five-quantile schema, the OR for obesity rose 216 progressively across quintiles, reaching 12.63 in the highest quintile (Figure 2C; Table 217 S14). This inclusion of PRS_{BMI} notably enhanced the model's accuracy for obesity 218 prediction, increasing the area under the curve (AUC) from 0.55 to 0.75 (Table 2). For 219 HTN, the combined PRS_{SBP} and PRS_{DBP} (PRS_{HTN}) showed significant differentiation between HTN and non-HTN groups (P = 2.24E-8) (Figure 2D), with an OR/SD of 220 221 1.68 in PRS_{HTN} (95% CI: 1.47–1.91, P = 1.04E-10) (Table S14). The ORs for HTN 222 increased gradually across the five quantiles, peaking at 2.93 in the highest quintile 223 (Figure 2E; Table S14). The inclusion of PRS_{HTN} in the model resulted in an 224 improvement in prediction accuracy for HTN (AUC increased from 0.70 to 0.74) 225 (Table 2).

226 Lastly, the model for predicting OrH showed a significant improvement in 227 accuracy when including both PRS_{BMI} and PRS_{HTN} as predictors, with the AUC 228 increasing from 0.71 to 0.75 (Table 2). Both of PRS_{BMI} and PRS_{HTN} demonstrated 229 significant differentiation between OrH and non-OrH groups (P = 7.72E-5, P =230 5.16E-4) (Figure 2F), with an OR/SD of 1.42 in PRS_{BMI} (95% CI: 1.23-1.63, P =231 3.88E-5) (Table S14) and 1.45 in PRS_{HTN} (95% CI: 1.26–1.66, P = 1.63E-5) (Table 232 S14). In the highest quintile, the ORs for OrH peaked at 2.36 and 2.02 for PRS_{BMI} and 233 PRS_{*HTN*}, respectively (Figure 2G; Table S14).

We further compared gender disparities in above analysis and no statistically significant differences were detected between males and females (*t*-test with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons, P > 0.05) (Figure S3A and B), 237 suggesting little genetic influence to the higher risk in men as observed above.

238

239 Least absolute shrinkage and selection operator MRS outperforms linear models 240 and contributes to OrH risk profiling

241 Three MRS methods [least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO), linear 242 1, and linear 2] were compared using distinct NSPT sub-dataset for MRS tuning (n =243 2047) and testing (n = 1466), as well as the validation set for final examination (n = 1466)244 1071, see Materials and methods). We focused on 1506 CpGs for BMI, 77 for DBP, and 107 for SBP by reviewing prior EWAS results (Table S11) [10-22]. All MRSs 245 were normally distributed (Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test with Bonferroni 246 247 correction for multiple comparisons, P > 0.05). Among the three methods, LASSO achieved the best performance across all phenotypes in MRS testing set (R_{BMI}^2 = 248 8.48%, $R_{DBP}^2 = 1.61$ %, and $R_{SBP}^2 = 3.02$ %,) and validation set ($R_{BMI}^2 = 10.03$ %, 249 $R_{DBP}^2 = 4.68\%$, and $R_{SBP}^2 = 3.70\%$) (Figure 3A; Table S15). 250

251 When compared to the baseline models that included sex and age as predictors, the LASSO MRS showcased enhanced accuracy in validation set. Specifically, R² 252 253 values increased from 18.28% to 26.86% for BMI, from 17.86% to 23.15% for DBP, and from 20.47% to 25.72% for SBP (Table 2). Notably, the MRS_{BMI} exhibited a 254 substantial difference between obesity and non-obesity individuals (P = 6.09E-11) 255 256 (Figure 3B) and an OR/SD of 1.88 for obesity (95% CI: 1.57-2.24, P = 4.94E-9) 257 (Table S14). In a five-quantile schema, the OR for obesity rose progressively across quintiles, reaching 5.77 in the highest quintile (Figure 3C; Table S14). This 258 259 integration improved the AUC for obesity from 0.55 to 0.70 (Table 2). Similarly, 260 MRS $_{HTN}$ revealed a clear differentiation between HTN and non-HTN groups (P =6.87E-21) (Figure 3D), with an OR/SD of 1.65 (95% CI: 1.43-1.89) (P = 3.85E-09) 261 262 (Table S14). The ORs for HTN increased gradually across the five quantiles, peaking at 4.02 in the highest quintile (Figure 3E; Table S14). This integration improved the 263 AUC for HTN from 0.70 to 0.73 (Table 2). When considering both MRS_{BMI} and 264 265 MRS_{HTN} in the OrH model, there was an increase in AUC from 0.71 to 0.78 (Table 2).

Both of MRS_{*BMI*} and MRS_{*HTN*} demonstrated significant differentiation between OrH and non-OrH groups (P = 7.17E-16 and P = 3.83E-23, respectively) (Figure 3F), with an OR/SD of 1.52 in MRS_{*BMI*} (95% CI: 1.31–1.77, P = 4.42E-06) (Table S14) and 1.72 in MRS_{*HTN*} (95% CI: 1.46–2.02, P = 4.99E-8) (Table S14). In the highest quintile, the ORs for OrH peaked at 6.03 and 6.52 for MRS_{*BMI*} and MRS_{*HTN*}, respectively (Figure 3G; Table S14).

Notably, males exhibited significantly higher MRS values than females for BMI and blood pressure (1.20E-41 < P < 5.08E-4) (Figure S3). These disparities may suggest the distinct influence of life styles and environmental exposures between genders in this cohort.

276

277 Impact of metabolic and lifestyle factors on MRS predictions

278 We conducted a grouping analysis on the MRS-predicted values to assess whether 279 other metabolic and lifestyle factors were associated with discrepancies between the 280 MRS predictions and the observed values of BMI, DBP, and SBP (Table S16). The 281 results indicated that discrepancies between the predicted and observed values are 282 indeed associated with specific metabolic and lifestyle factors. For the MRS predictions underestimated BMI group, participants tended to have healthier lipid 283 284 profiles (higher HDL, lower TG and LDL) and better lifestyle scores. Conversely, 285 overestimation group was associated with less favorable lipid profiles, higher FBG, 286 and poorer lifestyle scores. Similar patterns were observed for DBP and SBP, where 287 overestimation by the MRS was linked to higher TC, LDL, FBG, and lower lifestyle 288 scores. These results indicate that metabolic health and lifestyle behaviors may 289 influence the accuracy of MRS predictions for these cardiovascular risk factors.

290

291 Multi-omics model improved OrH risk profiling

We further integrated MRS and PRS in a multi-omics score and assessed its performance in predicting risk of obesity, HTN, and OrH in the validation set according to a five-fold cross-validation design. For obesity, adding MRS_{BMI} to the 295 PRS model improved the AUC from 0.75 to 0.77 (Figure 4A; Table 2). This 296 multi-omics score fairly classified 0.47% of the population as high risk (predicted 297 probability > 0.6), who indeed showed a high prevalence of 80.00% (Figure 4B); 298 meanwhile, it effectively identified 59.48% of the population as having a low risk 299 (predicted probability < 0.1), who in fact had a low prevalence of 4.71%. 300 Consequently, this indicates that our model is informative for 59.95% of the population in obesity risk profiling. For HTN, adding MRS_{SBP} and MRS_{DBP} to the 301 302 PRS model improved the AUC from 0.74 to 0.76 (Figure 4C; Table 2). And it is 303 informative for 31.75% of the population in HTN risk profiling, effectively 304 classifying the high risk (8.50% > 0.6 with a 71.43% prevalence) and low risk 305 (23.25% < 0.1 with a 6.02% prevalence) groups (Figure 4D). In particular, for OrH 306 adding MRS_{BMI}, MRS_{SBP}, and MRS_{DBP} to PRS boosted AUC from 0.75 to 0.80 307 (Figure 4E; Table 2). This was informative for 43.89% of the population and 308 effectively classified high risk (4.30% > 0.6 with a 63.04% prevalence) and low risk 309 (39.59% < 0.1 with a 4.25% prevalence) groups (Figure 4F).

310

311 Discussion

In this study, we aimed to develop an accurate and effective prediction model for OrH by analyzing data from two general population cohorts, CAS and NSPT, totaling 7605 individuals. We assessed the performance of ten methods for PRSs and three strategies for MRSs using a tuning-testing-validation approach. Additionally, we developed a multi-omics model to enhance prediction accuracy. Throughout our analysis, we also found distinct population characteristics among academics in our study.

319

Factors related to gender disparity in disease prevalence among Chinese academics

One unexpected observation in our study was the notably high prevalence of obesity,HTN, and OrH among males in Chinese academics. Therefore we reviewed

324 epidemiological data from the past three decades, which show significant changes in 325 the prevalence of these conditions [45-50], most likely driven by China's rapid 326 economic growth and various risk factors, including economic status, gender, age, 327 education, smoking, drinking, and inhabiting regions [51-56]. The M/F ratio for 328 obesity has fluctuated between 0.6 and 1.3 in both urban and rural areas, with a 329 marked disparity in urban areas (M/F = 1.9) and even more pronounced among academics (M/F = 3.8) (Table S3). For HTN, the M/F reached 2.9, significantly higher 330 331 than in NSPT cohort and broader Chinese epidemiological studies, where it ranges 332 from 1.1 to 1.3.

333 The gender disparity in disease prevalence observed among Chinese academics 334 aligns with findings from several studies. Research from the China Health and 335 Nutrition Survey and the Chinese Center for Disease Control and Prevention indicated 336 that women with higher education levels tend to have a lower BMI and reduced odds 337 of being overweight, while men with higher education levels exhibit a higher BMI and increased odds of being overweight in China [57,58]. Similar patterns have been 338 339 observed in studies from Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa (BRICS) 340 economies [59] and Southern European countries [60,61], further highlighting the association between education levels and obesity, particularly among women. Some 341 342 studies have also examined the impact of education on HTN, indicating that 343 individuals with higher education levels generally have healthier blood pressure. A 344 Mendelian randomization study using data from FinnGen and the UKB suggested a 345 causal relationship between education level and HTN. For each SD increase in 346 genetically predicted higher education, the risk of HTN decreases by 44% [62]. 347 Additionally, a study involving approximately 1.28 million adults from the China 348 Health Evaluation And risk Reduction through nationwide Teamwork (ChinaHEART) 349 project found that as education level increases, there is a significant downward trend 350 in SBP [63].

To explore the potential reasons for the significant sex disparity, we first examined the genetic possibility and found no significant genetic differences in the performance of PRS. However, notable epigenetic differences were observed in MRS for the corresponding diseases between males and females. Consistent with previous studies linking higher MRS to poorer metabolic health [11,64], our analysis showed that male academics exhibit higher MRS on BMI, DBP, and SBP, along with their relatively unhealthy lifestyles and metabolic syndrome traits. These findings suggest that the observed gender disparity is likely influenced by the combined effects of metabolic health and epigenetic factors.

360 We then briefly explored potential epigenetic explanations for the observed gender differences in disease prevalence. First, when examining regular physical activity, 361 362 only minimal differences between sexes were found (Table S5), which aligns with 363 data of a 15-year national survey [65]. Thus, physical activity does not provide a 364 compelling explanation for the gender disparities observed in the CAS cohort. 365 However, for other lifestyle factors and metabolic syndrome profiles, male academics 366 showed significantly poorer parameters compared to their female counterparts (Tables S4 and S5). These differences are likely related to the more frequent social gatherings 367 368 in males nationwide, such as dinners and drinking events, which are commonly 369 associated with higher calorie expenditure and alcohol consumption [66]. Additionally, 370 men may experience great social pressure as the primary bread-winners for their 371 families, which is also likely associated with unhealthy lifestyle choices and an 372 increased risk of metabolic-related diseases [67,68]. Considering the dominant male 373 composition in academia (especially in full professors), one possible reason for the 374 notably high M/F ratio at CAS (3.8) could be the intense academic pressure and heavy 375 workload in males, which may largely boost unhealthy lifestyle habits. On the other 376 hand, cultural attitudes in China tend to favor slimmer figures for women [47], and 377 female academics may demonstrate greater self-discipline regarding their health as 378 well as more resources and opportunities to maintain their body shapes [55], which 379 further accentuate gender disparity in our cohort.

380

381 Leveraging a multi-omics approach to enhance prediction analysis for OrH

382 profiling

OrH, as a common comorbidity pattern, would exacerbate cardiovascular and cerebrovascular damage more aggressively than simple obesity and HTN. Especially its prevalence has shown a significant upward trend globally in the past 20 years. Although the integration of PRS and MRS demonstrates improved utility in various diseases, there still exists a deficiency in multi-omics prediction models for OrH. In this study, we developed such an approach for OrH prediction using both genomic and epigenomic signals, achieving an AUC as high as 0.80.

390 We first developed effective PRSs for the Chinese population to predict BMI, DBP, 391 and SBP by benchmarking five single-ancestry approaches (C+T, SCT, PRS-CS, 392 LDpred2, and lassosum) and five multi-ancestry approaches (PRS-CSx, CT-SLEB, 393 PolyPred-P+, JointPRS, and PROSPER). Among all methods, the top three with the highest accuracy are multi-ancestry methods across all traits. For BMI, the R² values 394 395 for the top three multi-ancestry methods ranged from 8.74% to 9.81%, compared to 396 the best single-ancestry model, which achieved 6.36% in validation analysis (Table S12). Similarly, for DBP the highest R^2 of multi-ancestry models was 5.18%, 397 398 surpassing the best single-ancestry model of 3.28%. Our results well confirmed the 399 outperformance of multi-ancestry PRS approaches over single-ancestry, and further 400 demonstrated the enhanced generalizability of multi-ancestry PRS by leveraging 401 shared genetic effects across different ancestries.

402 Among multi-ancestry PRS models, PRS-CSx consistently exhibited strong performance, achieving the highest R^2 for BMI and consistently ranking among the 403 404 top three for both DBP and SBP in the validation set. This superior performance of complex traits across ancestries may be attributed to PRS-CSx's advantage of 405 406 Bayesian continuous shrinkage. Except for being only slightly (< 0.4%) behind 407 PGS003882 and PGS005015 for SBP in the validation set, the PRS-CSx model 408 developed in our study notably outperforms many published models in the PGS 409 Catalog (116 PRSs for BMI, 72 for SBP, and 51 for DBP). These results further 410 emphasize the potential of our PRS profiling for the Chinese population as a robust

411 and reliable tool for genetic risk prediction and precision medicine applications.

412 Unlike genetic models, methylation data provides a real-time snapshot of an 413 individual's risk profile by capturing the epigenetic landscape, which reflects not only 414 genetic susceptibility but also modifiable influences that contribute to disease 415 progression, as reported in numerous studies [69,70]. Therefore we aimed to use MRS 416 for potential disease prediction based on currently available baseline data. After 417 feature selection and optimization across various methylation models, LASSO MRS 418 demonstrated the best performance in predicting BMI, DBP, and SBP. Our results 419 yielded similar or better R^2 compared to previous studies (e.g., 10.03% for BMI vs. 10.00% reported [29], and 4.68% for blood pressure vs. 3.99% reported [28]). 420 421 Considering the environmental or lifestyle factors, these MRS models, especially with 422 longitudinal data in the future, may provide valuable insights into an individual's 423 health status and potentially serve as early warnings for unhealthy conditions.

424 Moreover, combining MRS with PRS enhances risk prediction by linking genetic susceptibility with current epigenetic states. Indeed with the AUC of 0.75 for PRS and 425 426 0.78 for MRS, we observed an integrated AUC of 0.80 for OrH risk profiling, further 427 confirming a shared molecular mechanism in obesity and HTN. This profiling may 428 also fill a critical gap in individualized early warning for cardiovascular and metabolic 429 disorders. By identifying high-risk individuals (risk score > 0.6) using multi-omics 430 models, such as the 4.30% for OrH in CAS cohort, healthcare providers can 431 implement more targeted preventive measures and treatment strategies to improve 432 their health status.

433

434 Conclusion

This research reveals a notably high prevalence of obesity, HTN, and OrH among males but significantly lower prevalence among females in Chinese academics with characterizations of research career and higher education. These results considerably diverge from common patterns observed in Chinese epidemiological investigations. 439 Additional analysis indicates such large gender disparities are primarily associated to 440 the complex interplay among epigenetic factors, lifestyle, and metabolic health, 441 raising concerns about notably higher risks for males within Chinese academics. In 442 omics analysis, PRS-CSx and LASSO in the MRS method demonstrate high potential 443 as robust tools for risk assessment of obesity, HTN, and OrH. The integration of PRS 444 and MRS further enhance the accuracy of the risk profiling, suggesting the 445 effectiveness of multi-omics approach for improved personalized risk assessment 446 strategies especially for OrH high-risk populations.

447

448 Materials and methods

449 Study population — CAS cohort

450 This study involved 4092 Chinese participants from the CAS cohort, which was 451 established in 2015 to target employees of the CAS in the Beijing region. Informed 452 consent was obtained from all participants, and the study protocol was approved by 453 the Ethics Committee of the Beijing Institute of Genomics (BIG) and associated 454 hospitals. The cohort was highly educated, with 99.4% holding at least a university 455 degree. Before undergoing clinical assessments, participants completed an online 456 questionnaire that gathered information on factors such as gender, smoking status, 457 alcohol consumption, tea intake, and sleep duration. Clinical health assessments, 458 including anthropometric, physical, blood, urine, and imaging exams, were performed 459 at designated hospitals, where 8 ml of blood was collected from each participant. The research protocol received approval from the Ethics Committee of the BIG, CAS 460 461 (Approval Nos. 2015H023 and 2021H001), and the Ethics Committee of Beijing 462 Zhongguancun Hospital (Approval No. 20201229).

Recruitment occurred in two phases. Phase 1 (2015–2016) included 991 participants, whose DNA samples were analyzed using 30X whole-genome sequencing (WGS), and all phenotypic data were collected at the General Hospital of Aviation Industry Corporation of China. Phase 2 (2020–2021) added 3101 participants, whose DNA samples were analyzed using Illumina genotyping microarrays, and phenotypic data were collected at Beijing Zhongguancun Hospital.
In phase 2, 1071 individuals were designated as the CAS1k subgroup, designed to
provide multi-omics data, with their samples analyzed using Illumina methylation
microarrays.

472

473 Study population — NSPT cohort

474 The NSPT cohort is a population-based prospective cohort study consisting of 3523 475 Han Chinese individuals from various regions of China, including Taizhou, Nanning, 476 and Zhengzhou (1310 males and 2213 females, aged from 18 to 83 years old, mean \pm 477 $SD = 50.21 \pm 12.75$). After quality control, 3513 participants remained for analysis, 478 which included three phases: phase 1 (n = 690) in 2018, phase 2 (n = 776) in 2019, 479 and phase 3 (n = 2047) in 2019. DNA methylation was assessed using the Illumina 480 methylation microarray on blood samples. The study was approved by the Ethics 481 Committee of Shanghai Institutes for Biological Sciences (ER-SIBS-261410), and 482 written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

483

484 Definitions of overweight, obesity, HTN, OrH, healthy lifestyle, and higher 485 education

Overweight was defined as a BMI between 24.0 and 27.9 kg/m², while obesity was defined as BMI \ge 28.0 kg/m² according to China's guidelines [71]. HTN was defined as either SBP \ge 140 mmHg, DBP \ge 90 mmHg, self-reported HTN diagnosis, or use of antihypertensive medications. Individuals with both a BMI \ge 24 and HTN were categorized as having OrH [72]. It is important to note that thresholds for defining obesity or HTN may vary across populations [73,74], and comparisons with studies using different criteria should be interpreted with caution.

Healthy lifestyle factors were defined based on the China Kadoorie Biobank
(CKB) criteria [75], which include not smoking, not engaging in excessive alcohol
consumption, maintaining a healthy diet (daily fruit and vegetable intake),
participating in regular physical activity, and having a BMI between 18.5 and 23.9

497 kg/m² and a waist circumference of < 85 cm for males and < 80 cm for females. 498 Participants earned a score of 1 for each criterion that they met and 0 for each one that 499 they did not, resulting in a total score ranging from 0 to 6, representing their overall 500 healthy lifestyle. Higher education was defined as having any college or university 501 degree.

502

503 WGS and microarray genotyping in CAS cohort

WGS was performed at 30X coverage using the Illumina HiSeq 3000 (Illumina, San Diego, CA), and sequencing reads were aligned to the hg19 reference genome [76]. Variants were called using Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK) [77] and annotated using ANNOVAR [78], with detailed methods for sample and library preparation reported previously [79].

509 Microarray genotyping was conducted using the Infinium Asian Screening Array 510 + MultiDisease-24 BeadChip (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). SNP genotypes were 511 phased and imputed using the IMPUTE2 [80] based on the East Asian population in 512 the 1000 Genomes Project [81,82].

Quality control measures included removing individuals with gender mismatches, low genotyping call rates (< 97%), or abnormal heterozygosity (outside the mean \pm 3 SD range). For SNPs, we excluded those with imputation scores < 0.6 (in the CAS phase 2 cohort), Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium *P* < 1E–4, genotyping call rates < 98%, and minor allele frequency (MAF) < 1%. After these steps, 3,169,262 SNPs and 4092 individuals were retained for analysis.

519

520 Methylation microarray of CAS1k and NSPT cohort

521 Both the CAS1k and NSPT cohorts' DNA methylation data were generated using the 522 Illumina Infinium MethylationEPIC BeadChip (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). The 523 raw array data were processed using the ChAMP package [83] in R to compute β 524 values for methylation levels. Probes were filtered based on Illumina quality 525 thresholds (bead count < 3 in > 5% of samples and 1% of samples with a detection *P* value > 0.05). Batch effects were corrected using the ComBat [84,85] method, and
cell-type heterogeneity was adjusted using the EpiDISH method [86]. After quality
control, 751,015 CpGs were retained for the CAS1k cohort, and 811,876 CpGs were
retained for the NSPT cohort.

530

531 Construction and selection of PRS

The PRS construction and selection followed a tuning-testing-validation design using the CAS cohort. The tuning set included 2030 participants from phase 2 (excluding CAS1k), the testing set had 991 participants from phase 1, and the validation set consisted of 1071 participants from CAS1k.

PRSs for BMI, DBP, and SBP were derived using GWAS summary statistics from the UKB [87] (~ 450,000 Europeans) and BBJ [88,89] (~ 150,000 Japanese). Ten PRS methods were applied: C+T [34], SCT [35], PRS-CS [36], LDpred2 [37,38], lassosum [39], PRS-CSx [40], CT-SLEB [41], PolyPred-P+ [42], JointPRS [43], and PROSPER [44]. Hyperparameters were fine-tuned in the tuning set and evaluated in the testing and validation sets, with performance assessed by R^2 and 95% CI using bootstrap resampling (k = 10,000, detailed in File S1).

To assess the optimal PRS for East Asians, we compared it to existing scores in the PGS Catalog, selecting 48, 4, and 20 PRSs for BMI, DBP, and SBP, respectively, based on the required information. The best-performing PRS was then used for multi-omics prediction analysis in the validation set. In all PRS analyses, phenotypes were regressed on age, sex, and six genomic principal components, with residuals used for PRS modeling to calculate adjusted R² values reflecting variance explained beyond potential confounders.

550

551 Construction and selection of MRS

552 The MRS construction and selection followed a tuning-testing-validation design 553 using both NSPT and CAS1k cohort. The MRS tuning set included 2047 participants 554 from phase 2 of the NSPT cohort, while the MRS testing set consisted of 1466 participants from the phase 1 and phase 3. The validation set was made up of 1071
individuals from CAS1k. MRSs for BMI, DBP, and SBP were derived from findings
in previous studies [10–22] resulting in final sets of 1506, 77, and 107 CpGs for BMI,
DBP, and SBP, respectively (details provided in File S1).

To construct the MRSs, we used three different methods: linear regression 1, which included all CpGs from the studies without filtering; linear regression 2, which selected only CpGs with a P value < 0.05; and LASSO regression, which applied penalized linear regression to optimize the model. Different CpG sets with corresponding beta coefficients were generated in the tuning set, then evaluated and validated in the testing and validation sets.

The best-performing MRS was selected and applied to the validation set for multi-omics prediction analysis. In all MRS analyses, phenotypes were regressed on age, sex, and cell composition, with the residuals serving as the dependent variable for MRS modeling. This approach enabled us to report adjusted R^2 values and 95% CI, calculated through bootstrap resampling (k = 10,000), that account for the variance in MRS explained beyond the confounding effects of age, sex, and cell composition.

571

572 Grouping analysis on the MRS-predicted values

573 A grouping analysis on the MRS-predicted values was performed in validation set to 574 determine whether discrepancies between the MRS predictions and observed values 575 for BMI, DBP, and SBP could be associated with metabolic and lifestyle factors. 576 Participants were grouped based on quantiles of the prediction error (predicted minus 577 observed). The groups included the lowest 10% quantile, where the MRS significantly 578 underestimated the trait; the middle 80% quantiles, where the MRS predictions 579 closely matched the observed values; and the highest 10% quantile, where the MRS significantly overestimated the trait. Metabolic factors, including HDL, LDL, TC, TG, 580 FBG, and healthy lifestyle score, were compared across these groups using 581 582 independent t-tests to identify significant differences between the underestimated, 583 accurately predicted, and overestimated groups.

584

585 Multi-omics risk prediction

The best-performing PRS and MRS were combined into multi-omics scores, and their 586 587 prediction performance was assessed in the validation set using linear regression for 588 continuous traits (BMI, SBP, and DBP) and logistic regression for binary traits 589 (obesity, HTN, and OrH). These models were adjusted for age and sex as covariates. 590 The performance was evaluated using a five-fold cross-validation design, which was 591 trained on four parts and tested on the remaining one, and this process is repeated five 592 times, each time using a different part of the data for testing. The AUC are averaged 593 across the five iterations to provide a more generalized estimate of the model's 594 prediction power. This approach ensured a consistent and robust comparison of 595 baseline (only sex and age), PRS, MRS, and multi-omics approaches.

For continuous traits, separate models were developed using the corresponding PRS, MRS, or both (multi-omics) as predictors. For binary traits, obesity models used PRS_{*BMI*}, MRS_{*BMI*}, or both as predictors. HTN models incorporated either the average of PRS_{*DBP*} and PRS_{*SBP*}, the average of MRS_{*DBP*} and MRS_{*SBP*}, or both averages as predictors. For OrH, models included PRS_{*BMI*} and the average of PRS_{*DBP*} and PRS_{*SBP*}, MRS_{*BMI*} and the average of MRS_{*DBP*} and MRS_{*SBP*}, or all four predictors.

Model performance was assessed using R^2 for continuous traits and AUC for binary traits, calculated through 5-fold cross-validation within the validation set. All analyses were performed using R (version 4.0.3) and Python (version 3.6.4).

605

606 Ethical statement

The research protocol received approval from the Ethics Committee of the BIG, CAS (Approval Nos. 2015H023 and 2021H001), the Ethics Committee of Beijing Zhongguancun Hospital (Approval No. 20201229), the Ethics Committees of Fudan University (Approval No. 14117), and the Shanghai Institutes for Biological Sciences (Approval No. ER-SIBS-261410). Participants provided written informed consent allowing use of their samples and data for medical research purposes, and these
ethical regulations cover the work in this study. Written informed consent was
obtained from all of the participants.

615

616 **Code availability**

617 C+T SCT available and are at 618 https://github.com/privefl/bigsnpr/tree/cef0482c3c87ff51b63f5f2b0c896c75717ab92d 619 /vignettes. PRS-CS is available at https://github.com/getian107/PRScs. PRS-CSx: https://github.com/getian107/PRScsx. available 620 **CT-SLEB** is at 621 https://andrewhaoyu.github.io/CTSLEB/. **JointPRS** is available at https://github.com/LeqiXu/JointPRS. 622 PROSPER is available at 623 https://github.com/Jingning-Zhang/PROSPER. LDpred and lassosum are available at https://privefl.github.io/bigsnpr/articles/LDpred2.html. PolyPred-P+ is available at 624 https://github.com/omerwe/polyfun. The code has also been submitted to BioCode at 625 the National Genomics Data Center (NGDC), China National Center for 626 627 Bioinformation (CNCB) (BioCode: BT007949), which is publicly accessible at https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/biocode/tools/BT007949. 628

629

630 Data availability

631 The raw sequencing data of the CAS cohort have been deposited in the Genome Sequence Archive [90] at the National Genomics Data Center (NGDC), China 632 633 National Center for Bioinformation (CNCB) (GSA: CRA000631) that are publicly 634 accessible at https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/gsa. The genome sequence has been deposited in 635 the Genome Warehouse [91] at the NGDC, CNCB (GWH: GWHAAAS0000000) 636 that is publicly accessible at http://bigd.big.ac.cn/gwh. Additionally, the methylation 637 data from CAS cohort have been deposited in the Open Archive for Miscellaneous 638 Data at the NGDC, CNCB (OMIX: OMIX004333) that are publicly accessible at 639 https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/omix. The methylation data from NSPT have been deposited 640 in the OMIX at the NGDC, CNCB (OMIX: OMIX004363) that are publicly641 accessible at https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/omix.

642

643 **CRediT author statement**

Yaning Zhang: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing – original 644 645 draft. Qiwen Zheng: Conceptualization, Visualization, Writing - review & editing. 646 Qili Qian: Data curation, Formal analysis. Na Yuan: Data curation. Tianzi Liu: Data curation. Xingjian Gao: Data curation. Xiu Fan: Data curation. Youkun Bi: Data 647 648 curation. Guangju Ji: Data curation. Peilin Jia: Data curation. Sijia Wang: 649 Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Fan Liu: 650 Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. Changqing Zeng: 651 Conceptualization, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. All authors have read and 652 approved the final manuscript.

653

654 **Competing interest**

655 The authors have declared no competing interests.

656

657 Supplementary material

658 Supplementary material is available at Genomics, Proteomics & Bioinformatics online

659 (https://doi.org/10.1093/gpbjnl/qzaxxx).

660

661 Acknowledgments

The authors thank the participants who contributed their data in the CAS cohort and the NSPT cohort study. This work was supported by the Science and Technology Service Network Initiative of the CAS (Grant No. KFJ-STS-ZDTP-079), the Strategic Priority Research Program of the CAS (Grant No. XDB38010400), the Science and Technology Research Project of Henan Province (Grant No. 232102310066), the Basic Research Fund of Henan Academy of Sciences (Grant No. 230618032), the
Startup Research Fund of Henan Academy of Sciences (Grant No. 231816040 and
232016009), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant No. 32325013),
the CAS Project for Young Scientists in Basic Research (Grant No. YSBR-077), the
Strategic Priority Research Program of the CAS (Grant No. XDB38020400 to Sijia
Wang), and Shanghai Excellent Academic Leaders Program (Grant No.
22XD1424700).

674

675 **ORCID**

- 676 0000-0002-8073-3137 (Yaning Zhang)
- 677 0000-0001-6921-6254 (Qiwen Zheng)
- 678 0009-0005-8797-5242 (Qili Qian)
- 679 0000-0003-3614-2441 (Na Yuan)
- 680 0000-0002-7401-3571 (Tianzi Liu)
- 681 0000-0002-6142-8102 (Xingjian Gao)
- 682 0000-0002-8590-9859 (Xiu Fan)
- 683 0000-0002-0195-9294 (Youkun Bi)
- 684 0000-0001-8626-3490 (Guangju Ji)
- 685 0000-0003-4523-4153 (Peilin Jia)
- 686 0000-0001-6961-7867 (Sijia Wang)
- 687 0000-0001-9241-8161 (Fan Liu)
- 688 0000-0002-0037-1771 (Changqing Zeng)
- 689

690 **References**

[1] Wang J, Feng B, Xiong X. Chinese herbal medicine for the treatment of
obesity-related hypertension. Evid Based Complement Alternat Med
2013;2013:757540.

694 [2] Julius S, Valentini M, Palatini P. Overweight and hypertension: a 2-way street?
695 Hypertension 2000;35:807–13.

[3] Wilson PW, D'Agostino RB, Sullivan L, Parise H, Kannel WB. Overweight and
obesity as determinants of cardiovascular risk: the Framingham experience. Arch
Intern Med 2002;162:1867–72.

[4] Landsberg L, Aronne LJ, Beilin LJ, Burke V, Igel LI, Lloyd-Jones D, et al.
Obesity-related hypertension: pathogenesis, cardiovascular risk, and treatment: a
position paper of The Obesity Society and the American Society of Hypertension. J
Clin Hypertens (Greenwich) 2013;15:14–33.

- [5] Zidek W, Naditch-Brûlé L, Perlini S, Farsang C, Kjeldsen SE. Blood pressure
 control and components of the metabolic syndrome: the GOOD survey. Cardiovasc
 Diabetol 2009;8:51.
- [6] Visscher PM, Wray NR, Zhang Q, Sklar P, McCarthy MI, Brown MA, et al. 10
 years of GWAS discovery: biology, function, and translation. Am J Hum Genet
 2017;101:5–22.
- [7] Wei S, Tao J, Xu J, Chen X, Wang Z, Zhang N, et al. Ten years of EWAS. Adv Sci(Weinh) 2021;8:e2100727.
- 711 [8] Buniello A, MacArthur JAL, Cerezo M, Harris LW, Hayhurst J, Malangone C, et
- al. The NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog of published genome-wide association studies,
- targeted arrays and summary statistics 2019. Nucleic Acids Res 2019;47:D1005–12.
- [9] Sollis E, Mosaku A, Abid A, Buniello A, Cerezo M, Gil L, et al. The NHGRI-EBI
 GWAS Catalog: knowledgebase and deposition resource. Nucleic Acids Res
 2023;51:D977–85.
- [10] McCartney DL, Hillary RF, Stevenson AJ, Ritchie SJ, Walker RM, Zhang Q, et al.
 Epigenetic prediction of complex traits and death. Genome Biol 2018;19:136.
- [11] Do WL, Sun D, Meeks K, Dugué PA, Demerath E, Guan W, et al.
 Epigenome-wide meta-analysis of BMI in nine cohorts: examining the utility of
 epigenetically predicted BMI. Am J Hum Genet 2023;110:273–83.
- [12] Li W, Xia M, Zeng H, Lin H, Teschendorff AE, Gao X, et al. Longitudinal
 analysis of epigenome-wide DNA methylation reveals novel loci associated with BMI
 change in East Asians. Clin Epigenetics 2024;16:70.
- [13] Dick KJ, Nelson CP, Tsaprouni L, Sandling JK, Aïssi D, Wahl S, et al. DNA
 methylation and body-mass index: a genome-wide analysis. Lancet 2014;383:1990–8.
- [14] Wahl S, Drong A, Lehne B, Loh M, Scott WR, Kunze S, et al. Epigenome-wide
 association study of body mass index, and the adverse outcomes of adiposity. Nature
 2017;541:81–6.
- 730 [15] Chen Y, Kassam I, Lau SH, Kooner JS, Wilson R, Peters A, et al. Impact of BMI
- and waist circumference on epigenome-wide DNA methylation and identification of
- r32 epigenetic biomarkers in blood: an EWAS in multi-ethnic Asian individuals. Clin
- 733 Epigenetics 2021;13:195.

- [16] Richard MA, Huan T, Ligthart S, Gondalia R, Jhun MA, Brody JA, et al. DNA
 methylation analysis identifies loci for blood pressure regulation. Am J Hum Genet
 2017;101:888–902.
- [17] Kato N, Loh M, Takeuchi F, Verweij N, Wang X, Zhang W, et al. Trans-ancestry
 genome-wide association study identifies 12 genetic loci influencing blood pressure
 and implicates a role for DNA methylation. Nat Genet 2015;47:1282–93.
- [18] Hong X, Miao K, Cao W, Lv J, Yu C, Huang T, et al. Association between DNA
 methylation and blood pressure: a 5-year longitudinal twin study. Hypertension
 2023;80:169–81.
- [19] Hoyt MF. Stepping into retirement: a postcard from the threshold. J Clin Psychol 2015;71:1121–7.
- [20] Huan T, Joehanes R, Song C, Peng F, Guo Y, Mendelson M, et al. Genome-wide
 identification of DNA methylation QTLs in whole blood highlights pathways for
 cardiovascular disease. Nat Commun 2019;10:4267.
- [21] Si J, Yang S, Sun D, Yu C, Guo Y, Lin Y, et al. Epigenome-wide analysis of DNA
 methylation and coronary heart disease: a nested case-control study. Elife
 2021;10:e68671.
- [22] Kou M, Li X, Shao X, Grundberg E, Wang X, Ma H, et al. DNA methylation of
 birthweight-blood pressure genes and changes of blood pressure in response to
 weight-loss diets in the POUNDS Lost trial. Hypertension 2023;80:1223–30.
- [23] Wand H, Lambert SA, Tamburro C, Iacocca MA, O'Sullivan JW, Sillari C, et al.
 Improving reporting standards for polygenic scores in risk prediction studies. Nature
 2021;591:211–9.
- [24] Choi SW, Mak TS, O'Reilly PF. Tutorial: a guide to performing polygenic risk
 score analyses. Nat Protoc 2020;15:2759–72.
- [25] Nabais MF, Gadd DA, Hannon E, Mill J, McRae AF, Wray NR. An overview of
 DNA methylation-derived trait score methods and applications. Genome Biol
 2023;24:28.
- [26] Yengo L, Sidorenko J, Kemper KE, Zheng Z, Wood AR, Weedon MN, et al.
 Meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies for height and body mass index in
 ~ 700000 individuals of European ancestry. Hum Mol Genet 2018;27:3641–9.
- [27] Yoon N, Cho YS. Development of a polygenic risk score for BMI to assess the
 genetic susceptibility to obesity and related diseases in the Korean population. Int J
 Mol Sci 2023;24:11560.
- [28] Huang Y, Ollikainen M, Muniandy M, Zhang T, van Dongen J, Hao G, et al.
 Identification, heritability, and relation with gene expression of novel DNA
 methylation loci for blood pressure. Hypertension 2020;76:195–205.

- [29] Hamilton OKL, Zhang Q, McRae AF, Walker RM, Morris SW, Redmond P, et al.
- An epigenetic score for BMI based on DNA methylation correlates with poor physical
 health and major disease in the Lothian Birth Cohort. Int J Obes (Lond)
 2019;43:1795–802.

[30] Shah S, Bonder MJ, Marioni RE, Zhu Z, McRae AF, Zhernakova A, et al.
Improving phenotypic prediction by combining genetic and epigenetic associations.
Am J Hum Genet 2015;97:75–85.

- [31] Martin AR, Kanai M, Kamatani Y, Okada Y, Neale BM, Daly MJ. Clinical use of
 current polygenic risk scores may exacerbate health disparities. Nat Genet
 2019;51:584–91.
- [32] Thomas M, Su YR, Rosenthal EA, Sakoda LC, Schmit SL, Timofeeva MN, et al.
 Combining Asian and European genome-wide association studies of colorectal cancer
 improves risk prediction across racial and ethnic populations. Nat Commun
 2023;14:6147.
- [33] Whelton PK, He J, Appel LJ, Cutler JA, Havas S, Kotchen TA, et al. Primary
 prevention of hypertension: clinical and public health advisory from The National
 High Blood Pressure Education Program. JAMA 2002;288:1882–8.
- [34] Wray NR, Goddard ME, Visscher PM. Prediction of individual genetic risk to
 disease from genome-wide association studies. Genome Res 2007;17:1520–8.
- [35] Privé F, Vilhjálmsson BJ, Aschard H, Blum MGB. Making the most of clumping
 and thresholding for polygenic scores. Am J Hum Genet 2019;105:1213–21.
- [36] Ge T, Chen CY, Ni Y, Feng YA, Smoller JW. Polygenic prediction via Bayesian
 regression and continuous shrinkage priors. Nat Commun 2019;10:1776.
- [37] Vilhjálmsson BJ, Yang J, Finucane HK, Gusev A, Lindström S, Ripke S, et al.
 Modeling linkage disequilibrium increases accuracy of polygenic risk scores. Am J
 Hum Genet 2015;97:576–92.
- 797 [38] Privé F, Arbel J, Vilhjálmsson BJ. LDpred2: better, faster, stronger.
 798 Bioinformatics 2021;36:5424–31.
- [39] Mak TSH, Porsch RM, Choi SW, Zhou X, Sham PC. Polygenic scores via
 penalized regression on summary statistics. Genet Epidemiol 2017;41:469–80.
- [40] Ruan Y, Lin YF, Feng YA, Chen CY, Lam M, Guo Z, et al. Improving polygenic
 prediction in ancestrally diverse populations. Nat Genet 2022;54:573–80.
- [41] Zhang H, Zhan J, Jin J, Zhang J, Lu W, Zhao R, et al. A new method for
 multiancestry polygenic prediction improves performance across diverse populations.
 Nat Genet 2023;55:1757–68.
- [42] Weissbrod O, Kanai M, Shi H, Gazal S, Peyrot WJ, Khera AV, et al. Leveragingfine-mapping and multipopulation training data to improve cross-population

- 808 polygenic risk scores. Nat Genet 2022;54:450–8.
- [43] Xu L, Zhou G, Jiang W, Zhang H, Dong Y, Guan L, et al. JointPRS: a
 data-adaptive framework for multi-population genetic risk prediction incorporating
 genetic correlation. Nat Commun 2025;16:3841.
- [44] Zhang J, Zhan J, Jin J, Ma C, Zhao R, O'Connell J, et al. An ensemble penalized
 regression method for multi-ancestry polygenic risk prediction. Nat Commun
 2024;15:3238.
- [45] Ma S, Xi B, Yang L, Sun J, Zhao M, Bovet P. Trends in the prevalence of
 overweight, obesity, and abdominal obesity among Chinese adults between 1993 and
 2015. Int J Obes (Lond) 2021;45:427–37.
- [46] Pan XF, Wang L, Pan A. Epidemiology and determinants of obesity in China.
 Lancet Diabetes Endocrinol 2021;9:373–92.
- [47] Chen K, Shen Z, Gu W, Lyu Z, Qi X, Mu Y, et al. Prevalence of obesity and
 associated complications in China: a cross-sectional, real-world study in 15.8 million
 adults. Diabetes Obes Metab 2023;25:3390–9.
- [48] Qi SF, Zhang B, Wang HJ, Yan J, Mi YJ, Liu DW, et al. Prevalence of
 hypertension subtypes in 2011 and the trends from 1991 to 2011 among Chinese
 adults. J Epidemiol Community Health 2016;70:444–51.
- [49] Wang Z, Chen Z, Zhang L, Wang X, Hao G, Zhang Z, et al. Status of
 hypertension in China: results from the China Hypertension Survey, 2012–2015.
 Circulation 2018;137:2344–56.
- [50] Zhao Z, Zhang M, Wu J, Xu X, Yin P, Huang Z, et al. E-cigarette use among
 adults in China: findings from repeated cross-sectional surveys in 2015–16 and 2018–
 19. Lancet Public Health 2020;5:e639–49.
- [51] Zhou L, Cao D, Si Y, Zhu X, Du L, Zhang Y, et al. Income-related inequities of
 adult obesity and central obesity in China: evidence from the China Health and
 Nutrition Survey 1997–2011. BMJ Open 2020;10:e034288.
- [52] Jones-Smith JC, Gordon-Larsen P, Siddiqi A, Popkin BM. Cross-national
 comparisons of time trends in overweight inequality by socioeconomic status among
 women using repeated cross-sectional surveys from 37 developing countries, 1989–
 2007. Am J Epidemiol 2011;173:667–75.
- 839 [53] Doak C, Adair L, Bentley M, Fengying Z, Popkin B. The
 840 underweight/overweight household: an exploration of household sociodemographic
 841 and dietary factors in China. Public Health Nutr 2002;5:215–21.
- [54] Dearth-Wesley T, Wang H, Popkin BM. Under- and overnutrition dynamics in
 Chinese children and adults (1991–2004). Eur J Clin Nutr 2008;62:1302–7.
- 844 [55] Wang H, Du S, Zhai F, Popkin BM. Trends in the distribution of body mass index

- 845 among Chinese adults, aged 20–45 years (1989–2000). Int J Obes (Lond) 846 2007;31:272–8.
- [56] Monda KL, Adair LS, Zhai F, Popkin BM. Longitudinal relationships between
 occupational and domestic physical activity patterns and body weight in China. Eur J
 Clin Nutr 2008;62:1318–25.
- [57] Jones-Smith JC, Gordon-Larsen P, Siddiqi A, Popkin BM. Emerging disparities
 in overweight by educational attainment in Chinese adults (1989–2006). Int J Obes
 (Lond) 2012;36:866–75.
- [58] Wang L, Zhou B, Zhao Z, Yang L, Zhang M, Jiang Y, et al. Body-mass index and
 obesity in urban and rural China: findings from consecutive nationally representative
 surveys during 2004–18. Lancet 2021;398:53–63.
- [59] Sart G, Bayar Y, Danilina M. Impact of educational attainment and economic
 globalization on obesity in adult females and males: empirical evidence from BRICS
 economies. Front Public Health 2023;11:1102359.
- [60] Witkam R, Gwinnutt JM, Humphreys J, Gandrup J, Cooper R, Verstappen SMM.
 Do associations between education and obesity vary depending on the measure of
 obesity used? A systematic literature review and meta-analysis. SSM Popul Health
 2021;15:100884.
- [61] Monteiro CA, Conde WL, Popkin BM. Independent effects of income and
 education on the risk of obesity in the Brazilian adult population. J Nutr
 2001;131:881S-6S.
- [62] Wang Y, Ye C, Kong L, Zheng J, Xu M, Xu Y, et al. Independent associations of
 education, intelligence, and cognition with hypertension and the mediating effects of
 cardiometabolic risk factors: a Mendelian randomization study. Hypertension
 2023;80:192–203.
- [63] Lu J, Wu C, Zhang X, Yang Y, Cui J, Xu W, et al. Educational inequalities in
 mortality and their mediators among generations across four decades: nationwide,
 population based, prospective cohort study based on the ChinaHEART project. BMJ
 2023;382:e073749.
- [64] Bell CG. The epigenomic analysis of human obesity. Obesity (Silver Spring)
 2017;25:1471-81.
- [65] Ng SW, Norton EC, Popkin BM. Why have physical activity levels declined
 among Chinese adults? Findings from the 1991–2006 China Health and Nutrition
 Surveys. Soc Sci Med 2009;68:1305–14.
- [66] Aslani A, Faraji A, Allahverdizadeh B, Fathnezhad-Kazemi A. Prevalence of
 obesity and association between body mass index and different aspects of lifestyle in
 medical sciences students: a cross-sectional study. Nurs Open 2021;8:372–9.
- 882 [67] Sauerberg M, Klüsener S, Mühlichen M, Grigoriev P. Sex differences in

- cause-specific mortality: regional trends in seven European countries, 1996–2019. Eur
 J Public Health 2023;33:1052–9.
- [68] Qing H, Desrouleaux R, Israni-Winger K, Mineur YS, Fogelman N, Zhang C, et
 al. Origin and function of stress-induced IL-6 in murine models. Cell 2020;182:372–
 87.e14.
- [69] Zheng Y, Joyce BT, Hwang SJ, Ma J, Liu L, Allen NB, et al. Association of
 cardiovascular health through young adulthood with genome-wide DNA methylation
 patterns in midlife: the CARDIA Study. Circulation 2022;146:94–109.
- [70] Yousefi PD, Suderman M, Langdon R, Whitehurst O, Davey Smith G, Relton CL.
 DNA methylation-based predictors of health: applications and statistical
 considerations. Nat Rev Genet 2022;23:369–83.
- [71] Xu Y, Li H, Wang A, Su Z, Yang G, Luo Y, et al. Association between the
 metabolically healthy obese phenotype and the risk of myocardial infarction: results
 from the Kailuan study. Eur J Endocrinol 2018;179:343–52.
- [72] Bramlage P, Pittrow D, Wittchen HU, Kirch W, Boehler S, Lehnert H, et al.
 Hypertension in overweight and obese primary care patients is highly prevalent and
 poorly controlled. Am J Hypertens 2004;17:904–10.
- [73] Li F, Yang CP, Wu CY, Ho CA, Yeh HC, Chan YS, et al. Contribution of body
 mass index stratification for the prediction of maximal oxygen uptake. Int J Med Sci
 2022;19:1929–41.
- 903 [74] Williams HC, Burden-Teh E. On the definition of dermatological disease. Part 2:
 904 approaches for defining dermatological diseases. Clin Exp Dermatol 2022;47:1812–9.
- 905 [75] Fan J, Yu C, Pang Y, Guo Y, Pei P, Sun Z, et al. Adherence to healthy lifestyle
 906 and attenuation of biological aging in middle-aged and older Chinese adults. J
 907 Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci 2021;76:2232–41.
- [76] Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler
 transform. Bioinformatics 2009;25:1754–60.
- 910 [77] DePristo MA, Banks E, Poplin R, Garimella KV, Maguire JR, Hartl C, et al. A
 911 framework for variation discovery and genotyping using next-generation DNA
 912 sequencing data. Nat Genet 2011;43:491–8.
- 913 [78] Wang K, Li M, Hakonarson H. ANNOVAR: functional annotation of genetic
 914 variants from high-throughput sequencing data. Nucleic Acids Res 2010;38:e164.
- 915 [79] Du Z, Ma L, Qu H, Chen W, Zhang B, Lu X, et al. Whole genome analyses of 916 Chinese population and *de novo* assembly of a northern Han genome. Genomics
- 916 Chinese population and *de novo* assembly of a northern Han genome. Geno 917 Proteomics Bioinformatics 2019;17:229–47.
- [80] Howie BN, Donnelly P, Marchini J. A flexible and accurate genotype imputationmethod for the next generation of genome-wide association studies. PLoS Genet

- 920 2009;5:e1000529.
- 921 [81] 1000 Genomes Project Consortium. A global reference for human genetic
 922 variation. Nature 2015;526:68–74.

[82] Sudmant PH, Rausch T, Gardner EJ, Handsaker RE, Abyzov A, Huddleston J, et
al. An integrated map of structural variation in 2504 human genomes. Nature
2015;526:75–81.

- [83] Tian Y, Morris TJ, Webster AP, Yang Z, Beck S, Feber A, et al. ChAMP: updated
 methylation analysis pipeline for Illumina BeadChips. Bioinformatics 2017;33:3982–
- 928 4.
- [84] Johnson WE, Li C, Rabinovic A. Adjusting batch effects in microarray
 expression data using empirical Bayes methods. Biostatistics 2007;8:118–27.
- [85] Leek JT, Johnson WE, Parker HS, Jaffe AE, Storey JD. The sva package for
 removing batch effects and other unwanted variation in high-throughput experiments.
 Bioinformatics 2012;28:882–3.
- [86] Zheng SC, Webster AP, Dong D, Feber A, Graham DG, Sullivan R, et al. A novel
 cell-type deconvolution algorithm reveals substantial contamination by immune cells
 in saliva, buccal and cervix. Epigenomics 2018;10:925–40.
- 937 [87] Canela-Xandri O, Rawlik K, Tenesa A. An atlas of genetic associations in UK938 Biobank. Nat Genet 2018;50:1593–9.
- [88] Kanai M, Akiyama M, Takahashi A, Matoba N, Momozawa Y, Ikeda M, et al.
 Genetic analysis of quantitative traits in the Japanese population links cell types to
 complex human diseases. Nat Genet 2018;50:390–400.
- [89] Akiyama M, Okada Y, Kanai M, Takahashi A, Momozawa Y, Ikeda M, et al.
 Genome-wide association study identifies 112 new loci for body mass index in the
 Japanese population. Nat Genet 2017;49:1458–67.
- [90] Chen T, Chen X, Zhang S, Zhu J, Tang B, Wang A, et al. The Genome Sequence
 Archive Family: toward explosive data growth and diverse data types. Genomics,
 Proteomics Bioinformatics 2021;19:578–83.
- [91] Ma Y, Zhao X, Jia Y, Han Z, Yu C, Fan Z, et al. The updated Genome Warehouse:
 enhancing data value, security, and usability to address data expansion. Genomics
- 950 Proteomics Bioinformatics 2025;23:qzaf010.

951 Figure legends

Figure 1 Prevalence of obesity, HTN, and OrH across age groups and healthy lifestyle scores by gender

954 A.-C. Prevalence of obesity (A), HTN (B), and OrH (C) in males (red) and females 955 (green) across different age groups in the CAS cohort (n = 4092). **D.** Distribution of 956 healthy lifestyle scores by gender in the CAS1k multi-omics cohort (n = 1071). The 957 healthy lifestyle score, ranging from 0 (least healthy) to 6 (most healthy), is calculated 958 as the sum of six binary criteria: non-smoking, no excessive alcohol consumption, 959 daily intake of fruits and vegetables, regular physical activity, BMI between 18.5 and 960 24, and waist circumference < 85 cm for males and < 80 cm for females. BMI, body 961 mass index; HTN, hypertension; OrH, overweight-related hypertension; CAS cohort, 962 Chinese Academy of Sciences cohort.

963

Figure 2 Performance of PRSs for BMI, DBP, and SBP as well as their association with obesity, HTN, and OrH

A. The R^2 values (Y-axis) represent the proportion of phenotypic variance explained 966 967 by PRS for BMI, DBP, and SBP across different combinations of GWAS and methods (X-axis) in the testing dataset (n = 991, upper panel) and the validation dataset (n =968 969 1071, lower panel). Each bar corresponds to a specific method, as indicated by the 970 color-coded legend. The phenotype was regressed on age, sex, and six PCs, and the 971 residual from this regression was used as the dependent variable in the PRS modeling 972 analyses. **B.** Boxplot of PRS for BMI (PRS_BMI) in control vs. obesity case groups. 973 C. OR for obesity across quintiles of PRS BMI, with the lowest 20% quintile serving 974 as the reference group. D. Boxplot of PRS for HTN (PRS_HTN) in control vs. obesity 975 case groups. E. OR for HTN across quintiles of PRS_HTN, with the lowest 20% 976 quintile serving as the reference group. F. Boxplot of PRS for BMI (PRS BMI) and 977 HTN (PRS_HTN) in control vs. OrH case groups. G. OR for OrH across quintiles of 978 PRS_BMI and PRS_HTN, with the lowest 20% quintile serving as the reference 979group. ****, P < 0.0001; ***, P < 0.001; **, P < 0.01; *, P < 0.05. DBP, diastolic980blood pressure; SBP, systolic blood pressure; PRS, polygenic risk score; PC, principal981component; OR, odds ratio; GWAS, genome-wide association studies; C+T, clumping982and thresholding; SCT, Stacked C+T; PROSPER, polygenic risk scores with penalized983regression followed by ensemble learning; UKB, UK Biobank; BBJ, BioBank Japan.

984 985

Figure 3 Performance of MRSs for BMI, DBP, and SBP as well as their association with obesity, HTN, and OrH

A. The R^2 values (Y-axis) represent the proportion of phenotypic variance explained 988 989 by the MRSs for BMI, DBP, and SBP across different methods (X-axis). Results are 990 shown for the testing dataset (n = 1466, upper panel) and the validation dataset (n =991 1071, lower panel). Each bar corresponds to a specific method, as indicated by the 992 color-coded legend. The phenotype was regressed on age, sex, and cell component 993 proportions, and the residual from this regression was used as the dependent variable 994 in the MRS modeling analyses. B. Boxplot of MRS for BMI (MRS_BMI) in control 995 vs. obesity case groups. C. OR for obesity across quintiles of MRS BMI, with the 996 lowest 20% quintile serving as the reference group. D. Boxplot of MRS for HTN 997 (MRS_HTN) in control vs. obesity case groups. E. OR for HTN across quintiles of MRS_HTN, with the lowest 20% quintile serving as the reference group. F. Boxplot 998 999 of MRS for BMI (MRS_BMI) and HTN (MRS_HTN) in control vs. OrH case groups. 1000 G. OR for OrH across quintiles of MRS_BMI and MRS_HTN, with the lowest 20% quintile serving as the reference group. ****, P < 0.0001; ***, P < 0.001, **, P < 0.1001 0.01; *, P < 0.05. MRS, methylation risk score; LASSO, least absolute shrinkage and 1002 1003 selection operator. LR 005, linear regression using only significant CpG sites with P 1004 < 0.05; LR all, linear regression using all available CpG sites.

1005

1006 Figure 4 The prediction performance for obesity, HTN, and OrH using

1007 multi-omics models in the validation set

1008 A. The AUC for obesity was assessed using a 5-fold cross-validated logistic 1009 regression model. The predictors included age and sex (M0), age, sex, and PRS (M1), 1010 age, sex, and MRS (M2), and age, sex, PRS, and MRS (M3) in the validation set (n =1011 1071). B. In the multi-omics prediction model (M3), further focus was placed on 1012 individuals with extreme prediction probabilities for obesity. The bars represent the 1013 number of participants within specific prediction probability intervals, with the blue 1014 bar indicating low risk (< 0.10) and the red bar indicating high risk (> 0.60). The 1015 orange line represents the prevalence in each interval. C. and D. The same approach 1016 was applied to the multi-omics prediction model for HTN. E. and F. The approach 1017 was also applied to the prediction model for OrH. AUC, area under the curve.

1018

1019 **Table 1 Baseline characteristics of participants in the study**

- 1020 Table 2 The performance of different models for obesity, HTN, and OrH in the
- 1021 validation set





	Characteristics	s Total	Obesity $(BMI \ge 28)$			HTN (SBP \geq 140 or DBP \geq 90)			OrH (BMI \geq 24 with HTN)		
			Control	Case	Р	Control	Case	Р	Control	Case	Р
CAS cohort	N	4092	3724	368		3314	778		3572	520	
	Age, years	39.42 ± 10.11	39.18 ± 10.10	41.81 ± 9.93	5.76E-06	38.05 ± 9.35	45.27 ±	6.18E-59	38.42 ± 9.63	46.27 ±	2.20E-54
							11.10			10.69	
	Male, n (%)	1955 (47.78%)	1669 (44.82%)	286 (77.72%)	3.60E-33	1388 (41.88%)	567 (72.88%)	2.52E-72	1534 (42.95%)	421 (80.96%)	8.50E-59
	Higher education	4067 (99.39%)	3700 (99.36%)	367 (99.73%)	0.60	3303 (99.67%)	764 (98.20%)	0.12	3554 (99.50%)	513 (98.65%)	0.05
	SBP, mmHg	118.17 ± 14.26	117.10 ± 13.69	129.05 ± 15.34	1.08E-48	114.03 ± 10.78	135.84 ± 13.78	1.22E-256	115.34 ± 11.99	137.63 ± 13.41	7.13E-206
	DBP, mmHg	76.57 ± 10.95	75.83 ± 10.56	84.12 ±	6.65E-42	73.35 ± 8.48	90.31 ± 9.59	2.22E-303	74.43 ± 9.44	91.26 ± 9.24	3.69E-234
				11.94							
	BMI, kg/m ²	23.80 ± 3.26	23.14 ± 2.44	30.48 ± 3.01	0	23.34 ± 3.05	25.75 ± 3.40	2.12E-68	23.27 ± 2.98	27.42 ± 2.78	1.64E-157
NSPT cohort	Ν	3513	2970	543		2314	1199		2741	782	
	Age, years	50.21 ± 12.75	50.34 ± 13.01	49.49 ±	0.2	47.26 ± 13.03	55.89 ± 9.99	1.03E-52	50.03 ± 12.95	52.40±9.75	5.07E-03
				11.21							
	Male, n (%)	1304 (37.12%)	1064 (35.82%)	240 (44.20%)	2.47E-04	783 (33.84%)	521 (43.45%)	2.75E-08	957 (34.91%)	353 (45.14%)	2.25E-07
	Higher education	439 (12.49%)	372 (12.53%)	67 (12.34%)	0.96	391 (16.90%)	48 (4.00%)	1.10E-27	403 (12.42%)	37 (4.73%)	1.57E-13

Table 1 Baseline characteristics of participants in the study

SBP, mmHg	129.47 ± 20.41	128.24 ± 20.43	136.17 ± 18.98	2.26E-14	118.16 ± 11.26	151.29 ± 15.91	3.55E-284	127.71 ± 19.81	150.88 ± 14.70	1.32E-62
DBP, mmHg	80.65 ± 11.79	79.68 ± 11.50	85.98 ±	5.92E-26	75.02 ± 8.27	91.54 ± 9.77	2.63E-224	79.57 ± 11.22	93.87 ±	1.50E-74
			11.91						10.47	
BMI, kg/m ²	24.49 ± 3.54	23.44 ± 2.62	30.24 ± 2.12	0	23.97 ± 3.41	25.50 ± 3.59	3.76E-23	24.00 ± 3.16	30.52 ± 2.11	9.31E-182

Note: Characteristics of participants in the CAS (n = 4092) and NSPT cohort (n = 3513), stratified by HTN, obesity, and OrH, are presented. The table includes the distribution of higher education, age, sex, SBP, DBP, and BMI for both control and case groups. Values are presented as mean \pm standard deviation and n (%) for characteristics. Statistical significance (P) for differences between cases and controls is indicated. The self-reported clinically diagnosed HTN or use of anti-hypertensive medication were indluded as HTN case. BMI, body mass index; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; SBP, systolic blood pressure; HTN, hypertension; OrH, overweight-related hypertension; CAS cohort, Chinese Academy of Sciences cohort; NSPT cohort, National Survey of Physical Traits cohort.

Table 2 The performance of unreferrent models for obesity, 1111, and office in the variation set											
BMI	SBP	DBP	Obesity	HTN	OrH						
18.28% (13.79%-22.48%)	20.47% (16.02%-24.63%)	17.86% (13.69%–21.84%)	0.55 (0.51–0.59)	0.70 (0.66–0.73)	0.71 (0.68–0.75)						
26.54% (21.71%-31.01%)	22.71% (18.10%-26.81%)	21.21% (16.51%-25.31%)	0.75 (0.70–0.79)	0.74 (0.71–0.77)	0.75 (0.72–0.78)						
26.86% (22.52%-31.00%)	25.72% (20.87%-29.89%)	23.15% (18.42%-27.42%)	0.70 (0.65–0.74)	0.73 (0.69–0.76)	0.78 (0.74–0.81)						
33.98% (29.12%-38.52%)	27.58% (22.76%-31.61%)	26.02% (21.42%-30.61%)	0.77 (0.72–0.81)	0.76 (0.73–0.79)	0.80 (0.77–0.83)						
	BMI 18.28% (13.79%–22.48%) 26.54% (21.71%–31.01%) 26.86% (22.52%–31.00%) 33.98% (29.12%–38.52%)	BMI SBP 18.28% (13.79%-22.48%) 20.47% (16.02%-24.63%) 26.54% (21.71%-31.01%) 22.71% (18.10%-26.81%) 26.86% (22.52%-31.00%) 25.72% (20.87%-29.89%) 33.98% (29.12%-38.52%) 27.58% (22.76%-31.61%)	BMI SBP DBP 18.28% (13.79%-22.48%) 20.47% (16.02%-24.63%) 17.86% (13.69%-21.84%) 26.54% (21.71%-31.01%) 22.71% (18.10%-26.81%) 21.21% (16.51%-25.31%) 26.86% (22.52%-31.00%) 25.72% (20.87%-29.89%) 23.15% (18.42%-27.42%) 33.98% (29.12%-38.52%) 27.58% (22.76%-31.61%) 26.02% (21.42%-30.61%)	BMISBPDBPObesity18.28% (13.79%-22.48%)20.47% (16.02%-24.63%)17.86% (13.69%-21.84%)0.55 (0.51-0.59)26.54% (21.71%-31.01%)22.71% (18.10%-26.81%)21.21% (16.51%-25.31%)0.75 (0.70-0.79)26.86% (22.52%-31.00%)25.72% (20.87%-29.89%)23.15% (18.42%-27.42%)0.70 (0.65-0.74)33.98% (29.12%-38.52%)27.58% (22.76%-31.61%)26.02% (21.42%-30.61%)0.77 (0.72-0.81)	BMISBPDBPObesityHTN18.28% (13.79%-22.48%)20.47% (16.02%-24.63%)17.86% (13.69%-21.84%)0.55 (0.51-0.59)0.70 (0.66-0.73)26.54% (21.71%-31.01%)22.71% (18.10%-26.81%)21.21% (16.51%-25.31%)0.75 (0.70-0.79)0.74 (0.71-0.77)26.86% (22.52%-31.00%)25.72% (20.87%-29.89%)23.15% (18.42%-27.42%)0.70 (0.65-0.74)0.73 (0.69-0.76)33.98% (29.12%-38.52%)27.58% (22.76%-31.61%)26.02% (21.42%-30.61%)0.77 (0.72-0.81)0.76 (0.73-0.79)						

 Table 2
 The performance of different models for obesity, HTN, and OrH in the validation set

Note: The performance of baseline model (only with age and sex), PRS model (with age, sex, and PRS), MRS model (with age, sex, and MRS) and multi-omic model (with age, sex, PRS, and MRS) was evaluated using R^2 for BMI, DBP, and SBP and the AUC for obesity, HTN, and OrH. All metrics and 95% confidence intervals were determined using a five-fold cross-validation approach in validation set (n = 1071). PRS, polygenic risk score; MRS, methylation risk score; AUC, area under the curve.

Highlight the value of multi-omics approaches in enhancing risk stratification