

New biomarkers from multiomics approaches: improving risk prediction of atrial fibrillation

Jelena Kornej ^{1,2*}, Vanessa A. Hanger ³, Ludovic Trinquart ⁴, Darae Ko², Sarah R. Preis ⁴, Emelia J. Benjamin ^{1,2,5,6}, and Honghuang Lin ^{1,7*}

¹National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute's Framingham Heart Study, 73 Mt Wayte Ave, Framingham, MA 01702, USA; ²Section of Cardiovascular Medicine, Department of Medicine, Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, MA, USA; ³College of Arts & Sciences, Boston University, Boston, MA, USA; ⁴Department of Biostatistics, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA; ⁵Section of Preventive Medicine & Epidemiology, Department of Medicine, Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, MA, USA; ⁶Department of Epidemiology, Boston University School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA; and ⁷Section of Computational Biomedicine, Department of Medicine, Boston University School of Medicine, Boston, MA, USA

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Abstract

Atrial fibrillation (AF) is a common cardiac arrhythmia leading to many adverse outcomes and increased mortality. Yet the molecular mechanisms underlying AF remain largely unknown. Recent advances in high-throughput technologies make large-scale molecular profiling possible. In the past decade, multiomics studies of AF have identified a number of potential biomarkers of AF. In this review, we focus on the studies of multiomics profiles with AF risk. We summarize recent advances in the discovery of novel biomarkers for AF through multiomics studies. We also discuss limitations and future directions in risk assessment and discovery of therapeutic targets for AF.

Keywords

• Atrial fibrillation • Mechanism • Aetiology • Genomics • Multiomics •

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1. Introduction

Atrial fibrillation (AF) is the most common cardiac arrhythmia with increasing prevalence and incidence globally.^{1–3} The lifetime risk of AF in individuals older than 55 years is ~37%.^{4,5} It is estimated that ~59.7 million people were affected by AF worldwide in 2019, about double the number in 1990. An additional five million individuals are diagnosed each year.^{1,6} The number of AF cases is estimated to reach 12.1 million by 2030 in USA alone.⁷ AF is associated with increased risk of many comorbidities, such as stroke,⁸ heart failure,⁹ myocardial infarction,¹⁰ dementia,¹¹ as well as increased mortality.^{9,12,13} The adjusted annual incremental cost for individuals with AF is \$18 601,¹⁴ resulting in an increase in the US health care costs of \$28.4 billion (estimated for 2016).¹⁵ Therefore, it is important to identify new strategies to prevent AF.¹⁶

Many risk factors have been identified for AF,^{17–21} including advancing age, smoking, alcohol consumption, obesity, diabetes, elevated blood pressure, heart failure, and myocardial infarction. Risk scores, based on the epidemiologic cohorts' data, have been developed to predict the 5- and 10-year risk of AF.^{22,23} However, the molecular mechanisms underlying AF pathogenesis are not yet fully understood, and therapies for AF are only partially effective with substantial morbidity.^{24,25}

Recent advances in high-throughput technologies make large-scale molecular profiling possible. In the past decade, multiomics studies of AF

have identified hundreds of potential biomarkers of AF. In this review, we focus on the studies of multiomics profiles with AF risk. In addition, we summarize recent advances in the discovery of novel biomarkers for AF through multiomics studies. We also discuss limitations and future directions in risk assessment and discovery of therapeutic targets for AF.

1.1 Search strategy

An electronic search for relevant publications was performed in the PubMed database. The major search terms included 'atrial fibrillation OR AF' AND 'incident' AND 'biomarker'. Specific search terms included 'genomic' OR 'transcriptomic' OR 'proteomic' OR 'metabolomic'. Two authors (J.K. and H.L.) independently screened all retrieved records by titles and abstracts and then full-text articles. A detailed search strategy could be found in [Supplementary material online, Table S1](#).

2. Multiomics study of AF

2.1 Genomics

2.1.1 Heritability

The familial nature of AF was first reported in 1936 with a case series noting in a footnote that three brothers were affected, all before the age of 30 years.²⁶ Familial aggregation of AF was later validated in several

* Corresponding authors. Tel: +617 358 0091, E-mail: hmlin@bu.edu (H.L.); E-mail: jkornej@bu.edu (J.K.)

other studies, suggesting that familial AF comprised up to 15% of lone AF cases.^{27,28} Fox *et al.*²⁹ observed that approximately one-third of AF patients had at least one affected parent. Marcus *et al.*³⁰ found that first-degree family history was associated with increased risk of lone AF. Christophersen *et al.*³¹ reported the importance of genetic heritability in same-sex twins and found that the co-twin of an AF-affected twin might be considered high risk for the development of AF. Lubitz *et al.*³² further validated the familial nature of AF and reported that having one first-degree family member was associated with a 40% increased risk. In addition, there was a 24% increased risk in AF per additional affected first-degree family member. A younger age of onset in familial members was also associated with increased risk of AF.^{32,33} Therefore, a better understanding of the genetic architecture of AF may pave the road for greater insight into AF pathogenesis.³⁴

2.1.2 Candidate genes

The search for causal genes in AF started in the late 1990s.^{35,36} Since then, over 35 genes have been identified to associate with AF in familial studies.^{36–38} One example is *SCN5A*, which encodes a cardiac sodium channel essential to the cardiac action potential. *SCN5A* mutations were observed in up to 6% of AF patients, including lone AF and those with underlying cardiac co-morbidities.³⁹ Makiyama *et al.*⁴⁰ described a novel gain-of-function *SCN5A* mutation in familial AF.

Another example is *GJA5*, which encodes the connexin-40 responsible for atrial conduction. *GJA5*-knockout mice showed increased vulnerability to atrial arrhythmias.^{41,42} Loss-of-function variants in *GJA5* inhibit cell–cell electrical coupling or gap-junction congregation at the surface.⁴³ Chimeric mice with inconsistent expression of connexin-43 had conduction delays in their atrial myocardium, suggesting that mosaicism in the connexin tissue might be involved in arrhythmia initiation.⁴⁴ However, most of the variants in candidate studies are rare, observed only in affected families, and replication efforts mostly failed.⁴⁵ Hence, researchers have turned to comprehensive genome-wide screening of variants in large populations.

2.1.3 Genome-wide association studies

The most popular method to identify genetic variants for common diseases is the genome-wide association study (GWAS), which allows the comparison of allele frequency between disease cases and referents for each genetic variant [e.g. single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)]. The first GWAS of AF was performed in 2007 based on participants from Iceland, which identified the first common locus 4q25 for AF.⁴⁶ Lubitz *et al.*⁴⁷ later showed that at least four distinct AF susceptibility signals at the locus were associated with prevalent and incident AF. The closest gene at this locus is *PITX2*, which plays an important role defining right-left cardiac symmetry, developing pulmonary vein myocardium, and inhibiting sinus node formation in the left atrium.^{48,49} In animal models, *PITX2c* knockout-mice had shorter atrial refractory periods and were more predisposed to atrial arrhythmias.⁵⁰ Using human left atrial samples, it had been shown that patients with AF have lower expression of the *PITX2c* isoform compared to non-AF individuals.⁵¹ In order to identify additional AF-related loci and since most genetic loci have small effects, the AFGen consortium was organized as an international effort for AF GWAS. The Consortium has led the field of AF genetics, describing the vast majority of genetic loci associated with AF in the past decade.^{47,52–56} The latest AF GWAS included over 65 000 AF cases from more than 50 cohorts, and identified 97 AF-related loci.⁵⁷ Large biobanks, such as the UK BioBank, are also being utilized to identify

additional genetic loci.⁵⁸ Many of the genetic loci identified through GWAS implicated genes related to cardiopulmonary development, cardiac-expressed ion channels, channelopathies, and signalling molecules, emphasizing the polygenic nature of AF.⁵⁹

Based on the GWAS results, a polygenic risk score (PRS) may be constructed that allows individualized projections of AF risk. PRSs represent the combined effect of multiple genetic variants on disease risk. Whereas individual SNPs carry relatively little effect (ranging from 0.07 to 0.37⁵⁶), pooled SNPs register observable differences among individuals. By pooling SNPs to create the PRS, Weng *et al.*⁴ reported that individuals with the highest tertile PRS had 1.82-fold lifetime risk of those with lowest tertile PRS. Moreover, individuals with high PRS but low clinical risk were associated with a lifetime AF risk of 43.6%, which was comparable to those with high clinical risk.

Despite the remarkable success of GWAS, several challenges remain. Genetic variation accounted for 22.1% of variance in AF risk,⁶⁰ but known AF-related loci may explain only a relatively small proportion of AF heritability, suggesting many more are yet to be identified. One possible reason for the missing heritability is unidentified rare variants with large effects compared to common genetic traits.^{61,62} Most of the GWAS analyses were conducted using microarray-based genotyping platforms, which have limited resolution to identify rare variants. In addition, the top variants from the GWAS are considered to tag, or serve as proxies, for the underlying functional variants. The functions of most GWAS loci are yet to be determined.⁶³

2.1.4 Targeted sequencing and exome sequencing

The advance of next-generation sequencing allows the identification of rare variants in the general population. Lin *et al.*⁶⁴ performed targeted sequencing on 77 GWAS loci and studied the association of both common and rare variants with AF. Rare damaging variants within *PRRX1* were found to associate with AF. In addition, a common variant rs11265611 was found to associate with AF. This SNP is located in the first intron of *IL6R*, which codes the interleukin-6 receptor, a pro-inflammatory marker triggering acute-phase proteins.^{65,66} Inflammation is known as one of the causal pathways related to AF initiation and maintenance.⁶⁷

Similar to targeted sequencing, exome sequencing aims to perform sequencing on the entire exome. Lubitz *et al.*⁶⁸ performed exome sequencing on more than 1700 individuals with AF and 9000 controls from three cohorts. None of the rare variant regions were significant after adjusting for multiple testing, suggesting that rare coding variants may not be the predominant mechanism for AF in the community.

2.1.5 Whole-genome sequencing

As sequencing cost continues to decline, whole-genome sequencing is used with increasing frequency to identify genetic variants associated with complex disease. Several large-scale whole-genome sequencing projects have been initiated, including the Trans-Omics for Precision Medicine (TOPMed) project (<https://www.nhlbiwgs.org/>) that has generated variant calling from more than 200 K whole-genome sequencing samples. Whole-genome sequencing offers several advantages compared to target sequencing. First, whole-genome sequencing is able to cover the entire genome, which is particularly useful in identifying genetic loci that are located in non-coding regions. Second, since there is no requirement for the target region enrichment, whole-genome sequencing is capable of providing more consistent coverage. Moreover, whole-genome sequencing can also identify structural variants, which remain a challenge for targeted sequencing or exome sequencing.

Based on the TOPMed project, Choi et al.⁶⁹ reported that loss-of-function variants in titin (*TTN*) were associated with early AF onset. The study included 2781 early-onset AF cases (<66 years) and 4959 referents. Titin is essential in myocardial function as a passive stabilizer of the sarcomere, suggesting that structural sarcomeric abnormalities might play a role in AF pathogenesis. Furthermore, the association with hypertrophic and dilated cardiomyopathies may explain the co-occurrence of AF in these patients.

2.2 Epigenomics

DNA methylation represents an important type of epigenetic modification without changing underlying DNA sequences. The methylation process adds a methyl group to the cytosine of cytosine-phosphate-guanine dinucleotides (CpG), and thus, modifies the conformational structure of chromatin and the binding of transcription factors. Different tissue types have different methylation states, and the methylation status may be modified by both genetic and environmental factors.^{70,71} Many AF risk factors such as obesity,⁷² smoking,⁷³ inflammation,⁷⁴ and alcohol consumption⁷⁵ also alter methylation profiles. The first epigenome-wide association study of AF in the community included 183 prevalent AF cases, 220 incident AF cases, and 2236 referents from the Framingham Heart Study.⁷⁶ Two CpG sites were significantly associated with prevalent AF, and five different CpG sites were associated with incident AF. One of the significant CpG sites was cg13639451, located upstream of *WFIKKN2*, which is known to be involved in the muscle fibre development and cardiac excitation-contraction coupling.^{77,78} Cg07191189 was another CpG site for prevalent AF. It is located near *STRN* that encodes striatin, which is able to bind with caveolin-134 and is known to be involved in cardiac development.⁷⁹ Shen et al.⁸⁰ studied the global DNA methylation in the right atrial myocardial tissue obtained from rheumatic valvular patients. From 10 AF patients and 10 referents, it was observed that AF patients tended to have higher global DNA methylation levels than referents ($P < 0.05$).

2.3 Transcriptomics

Gene expression is considered an intermediate phenotype between genetic variation and disease traits.⁸¹ Both animal models and human studies suggest that AF pathogenesis is accompanied by alterations in gene expression.^{82–84} Using whole blood transcriptomic profiles of individuals from the Framingham Heart Study, seven transcriptomic signatures were found to associate with prevalent AF.⁸⁵ The most significant gene was *PBX1* that has an important role in great-artery patterning, septation of outflow tract,⁸⁶ and development of persistent truncus arteriosus.⁸⁷ *SLC7A1* was another significant gene, which has been related to endothelial dysfunction and hypertension.⁸⁸ An AF-specific interaction network also was built and it was enriched with genes involved in multiple cardiovascular signalling pathways, such as the hypoxia signalling pathway responsible for oxygen deficit in cardiovascular organs, and the antiproliferative signalling pathway involved in the remodelling of cardiac myocardium.^{89,90} Of note, none of these genes were associated with incident AF, suggesting that different signalling pathways are responsible for AF onset and maintenance.

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a class of short non-coding RNAs that regulate mRNA expression. They increasingly have been recognized as potential biomarkers for cardiovascular disease, in part, due to their stability in peripheral circulation.^{91,92} Dawson et al.⁹³ reported MiR-29 was a potential biomarker for AF. Liu et al.⁹⁴ studied the association of plasma miRNAs with AF in a Chinese hospital-based cohort. Compared

to referents, the expression of miRNA-150 was significantly down-regulated in paroxysmal AF and persistent AF patients. MiRNA-150 is involved in the regulation of cardiac fibrosis and cellular proliferation in myocardial infarction and heart failure.⁹⁵ McManus et al.⁹⁶ performed another study that included 153 prevalent AF cases, 107 incident AF cases, and 2185 referents from the Framingham Heart Study. The only miRNA associated with prevalent AF was miRNA-328. MiRNA-328 is known as an important gene regulator secreted by cardiomyocytes under stress.⁹⁷ In an experimental model, the expression of miRNA-328 was up-regulated in the left atrial samples in animals with AF.⁹⁸ As some circulating miRNAs are platelet-derived, anti-platelet medications might directly affect miRNA levels, and thus be important for AF patients with concurrent cardiovascular or cerebrovascular diseases with indication for anti-platelet treatment.⁹⁹ The major part of miRNAs in plasma is localized in microparticles and originates in up to 45% from platelets.¹⁰⁰ Furthermore, previous studies indicated an association between altered expression of miR-146b and the P38MAPK/COX-2 pathway, making a causal relationship between antiplatelet medication and Cox inhibition possible.¹⁰¹

In another study based on clinical samples, McManus et al.¹⁰² observed that circulating plasma expression of miRNA-21 and miRNA-150 were significantly associated with AF. Patients with persistent AF had lower miRNA-21 expression compared with paroxysmal AF, suggesting that higher AF burden could affect plasma miRNA expression. The miRNA-21 expression in the right atrium was down-regulated in patients undergoing cardiovascular surgery. In addition, a three-fold increase of miRNA-21 and miRNA-150 was observed after rhythm restoration in patients undergoing AF catheter ablation, suggesting significant dynamic changes after sinus rhythm restoration. Despite a relatively small study sample, this was the first study describing a strong association between circulating and tissue miRNAs linked to AF and significant improvement of miRNA levels after sinus rhythm restoration.¹⁰²

2.4 Proteomics

Proteomics refers to simultaneous screening of large numbers of proteins as potential biomarkers for different diseases. Lind et al.¹⁰³ used a custom-made proteomics chip to profile plasma proteins in participants from the Swedish study. Among the 92 screened proteins, 7 were significantly associated with incident AF after adjustment for age and sex. Two proteins, IL-6 and NT-proBNP, remained significant after adjusting for additional AF risk factors.¹⁰³ Willeit et al.¹⁰⁴ performed another proteomic study based on 880 participants from the Bruneck Study who were free of AF at the baseline. One hundred and seventeen participants developed AF during 20-year follow-up. Among the 13 inflammation markers measured at the baseline, sVCAM-1 was found to associate with incident AF after adjusting for age and sex. Ko et al.¹⁰⁵ screened 1373 proteins by using the SOMAScan assay in the Framingham Heart Study and identified eight proteins associated with incident AF. Two of them, NT-proBNP and ADAMTS13 remained significant after adjusting for known risk factors for AF. NT-proBNP is a marker of myocardial stress and ventricular remodelling known to be associated with AF.¹⁰⁶ ADAMTS13 is a protease of von Willebrand factor involved in left atrial remodelling,¹⁰⁷ and it has been used as a biomarker of rhythm outcomes after cardioversion.¹⁰⁸ In a recent study, Staerk et al.¹⁰⁹ tested the association of 85 proteins with incident AF, which were measured using the Luminox xMAP platform. Higher levels of NT-proBNP and insulin-like growth factor-binding protein 1 as well as lower levels of insulin-like growth factor 1 were associated with increased risk of incident AF after adjusting for AF risk factors.

Table 1 Genomics association studies of AF

Study	Population	Genes	Top variants		
Gudbjartsson et al. ⁴⁶	Iceland	PITX2	rs2200733		
	AF <i>n</i> = 2.251		rs10033464		
	No AF <i>n</i> = 13.238				
	UK/US European ancestry				
	AF <i>n</i> = 779				
	No AF <i>n</i> = 1.542				
Benjamin et al. ⁵²	Chinese cohort	MTHFR PITX2 ZFHX3	rs17375901		
	AF <i>n</i> = 333		rs17042171		
	No AF <i>n</i> = 2.836		rs2106261		
	European ancestry				
	Prevalent AF <i>n</i> = 896				
	Referents <i>n</i> = 15.768				
Ellinor et al. ⁵⁴	Incident AF <i>n</i> = 2.517	KCNN3-PMVK PRRX1 PITX2 WNT8A CAV1 C9orf3 SYNPO2L SYNE2 HCN4 ZFHX3	rs6666258		
	Referents <i>n</i> = 21.337		rs3903239		
	Replication in German AFNET		rs6817105		
	AF <i>n</i> = 2.145		rs2040862		
	Referents <i>n</i> = 4.073		rs3807989		
	European ancestry		rs10821415		
	AF <i>n</i> = 6.707		rs10824026		
	Referents <i>n</i> = 52.426		rs1152591		
	Replication		rs7164883		
	AF <i>n</i> = 5.381		rs2106261		
	Referents <i>n</i> = 10.030		rs6666258		
	Lubitz et al. ⁴⁷		Japanese cohort	PRRX1 PITX2 PITX2 PITX2 CAV1 C9orf3 SYNPO2L SYNE2 HCN4 ZFHX3	rs3903239
AF <i>n</i> = 843		rs1448818			
Prevalent AF <i>n</i> = 3.350		rs6817105			
European ancestry <i>n</i> = 64 683		rs4400058			
Prevalent AF <i>n</i> = 3.302		rs6838973			
Incident AF <i>n</i> = 3.869		rs3807989			
Japanese cohort <i>n</i> = 11 309		rs10821415			
Prevalent AF <i>n</i> = 7916		rs10824026			
European ancestry		rs1152591			
No AF <i>n</i> = 52.426		rs7164883			
AF <i>n</i> = 6.707		rs2106261			
Sinner et al. ⁵⁵		Replication	NEURL TBX5 CAND2 GJA1 NEURL CUX2		rs12415501
	No AF <i>n</i> = 17.144	rs10507248			
	AF <i>n</i> = 6.691	rs4642101			
	Japanese cohort	rs13216675			
	No AF <i>n</i> = 3.350	rs6584555			
	AF <i>n</i> = 843	rs6490029			
	Replication				
	No AF <i>n</i> = 17.190				
	AF <i>n</i> = 7.530				
	Christophersen et al. ⁵⁶	Multi-ancestry cohort			rs72700118
		GWAS			rs3771537

Continued

Table 1 Continued

Study	Population	Genes	Top variants
Low et al. ¹⁴⁰	AF <i>n</i> = 17 931		rs2540949
	No AF <i>n</i> = 115 142		rs2288327
	ExWAS and RVAS		rs337711
	AF <i>n</i> = 22 346		rs2967791
	No AF <i>n</i> = 132 086		rs4946333
			rs7508
			rs35176054
			rs75190942
			rs6800541
			rs89107
Lee et al. ¹⁴¹	Japanese cohort	<i>KCND3</i>	rs11047543
	AF <i>n</i> = 8180	<i>PPFIA4</i>	rs12044963
	Controls <i>n</i> = 28 612	<i>SLC1A4–CEP68</i>	rs17461925
	Replication cohort:	<i>HAND2</i>	rs2540953
	AF <i>n</i> = 3120	<i>HAND2</i>	rs17059534
	Controls <i>n</i> = 125 064	<i>NEBL</i>	rs7698692
		<i>SH3PXD2A</i>	rs2296610
		<i>PRRX1</i>	rs2047036
		<i>PITX2</i>	rs3903239
		<i>NEURL1</i>	rs6817105
Roselli et al. ⁵⁷	Multi-ancestry cohort		rs6584555
	AF <i>n</i> = 22 346		rs10507248
	No AF <i>n</i> = 132 086		rs2106261
Nielsen et al. ⁵⁸	European ancestry		67 novel loci
	AF <i>n</i> = 60 620		63 novel loci
Choi et al. ⁶⁹	No AF <i>n</i> = 970 216		
	Lone AF <i>n</i> = 2781	<i>TTN</i>	OR (95% CI), <i>P</i> value
	No AF <i>n</i> = 4959		2.16 (1.34–3.48); 1.55×10^{-3}

GWAS, genome-wide association study; ExWAS, exome-wide association study; RVAS, rare variant association study.

2.5 Metabolomics

Metabolomics are studies to perform systematic analyses of metabolites with diseases. Mayr et al.¹¹⁰ observed patients with persistent AF had elevated ketone body metabolism in the atria. De Souza et al.¹¹¹ reported increased metabolic stress was associated with impaired energy utilization and increased ketoacid metabolism in a canine AF model. Alonso et al. performed the metabolomics profiling of blood samples from ~1900 African American participants in the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities (ARIC) study.¹¹² The participants were followed over 20 years. Two bile acids (glycolithocholate sulfate and glycocholate sulfate) were significantly associated with incident AF, suggesting a connection between liver function and AF, in agreement with previous studies.^{113,114} Potential arrhythmogenic effects of bile acids had been reported in humans,¹¹⁵ and elevated maternal bile acid levels during pregnancy were associated with cardiac arrhythmias in fetuses.¹¹⁶ In another study, Ko et al.¹¹⁷ analyzed liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry metabolomics profiles in over 2000 individuals of European ancestry from the Framingham Heart Study; they did not

reveal metabolites significantly associated with incident AF. In addition, neither bile acids identified in the ARIC study were replicated, possibly due to different ancestries, tissue types, or metabolic profiling platforms.¹¹⁸

3. Tissue consideration for multiomics

Unlike genetic profiles, other omics profiles, such as transcriptomic and epigenomic profiles, can change from one tissue to another. The most relevant tissue for AF is the left atrium. However, it is not feasible to perform invasive specimen collection on a large scale, especially in community-based cohorts. Most multiomics studies have measured molecular profiles from blood samples, which may be different from the heart samples. Furthermore, the left and right atria can have quite distinct expression patterns for some genes, resulting in different structure and function between these two chambers.^{119,120}

Table 2 Multiomics association studies of AF

Omics	Study	Population	Tissue type	Platform	Significant signatures
Epigenomics— Methylation	Lin et al. ⁷⁶	European ancestry FHS Offspring cohort <i>n</i> = 2639 Prevalent AF <i>n</i> = 183 Incident AF <i>n</i> = 220 Follow-up 9 years.	Whole blood	Illumina Infinium Human Methylation 450 BeadChip	Prevalent AF cg13639451 cg07191189 Incident AF cg26602477 cg15440392 cg04064828 cg27529934 cg06725760
Transcriptomics— mRNA expression	Lin et al. ⁸⁵	European ancestry FHS Offspring cohort <i>n</i> = 2446 Prevalent AF <i>n</i> = 177 Incident AF <i>n</i> = 143 No AF <i>n</i> = 2126 Follow-up 7 years.	Whole blood	Affymetrix Human Exon 1.0ST Array	Prevalent AF PBX1 C17orf39 PNP C18orf10 SLC7A1 SPTB ANKH
Transcriptomics— MicroRNA expression	Liu et al. ⁹⁴	Chinese ancestry 5 healthy controls, 5 patients with parox- ysmal atrial fibrillation (PAF) alone, and 5 patients with persis- tent atrial fibrillation (PersAF)	Plasma	MirVana PARIS kit (Invitrogen) and mas- sively parallel signa- ture sequencing	16 miRNAs for PAF and 11 miRNAs for PersAF
Transcriptomics— MicroRNA expression	McManus et al. ⁹⁶	European ancestry FHS offspring cohort <i>n</i> = 2445 Prevalent AF <i>n</i> = 153 Incident AF <i>n</i> = 107 Follow-up 5.4 years AF <i>n</i> = 112	Whole blood	TaqMan (PAXgene, Applied Biosystems)	Prevalent AF miR-328
Transcriptomics— MicroRNA expression	McManus et al. ¹⁰²	European ancestry <i>n</i> = 108 No AF <i>n</i> = 99 European ancestry <i>n</i> = 67	Right atrial tissue Plasma	Quantitative reverse transcriptase–poly- merase chain reaction Qiagen (Valencia, CA) miScriptAssays BioMark System (Fluidigm)	miRs-21 miRs-150
Proteomics	Lind et al. ¹⁰³	European ancestry PIVUS study No AF <i>n</i> = 830 AF <i>n</i> = 148 Follow-up 10.0 years European ancestry ULSAM study No AF <i>n</i> = 602 Incident AF = 123 Follow-up 7.9 years	Plasma	A proximity extension assay (PEA) chip	IL-6 NT-proBNP
Proteomics	Willeit et al. ¹⁰⁴	European ancestry No AF <i>n</i> = 763 AF <i>n</i> = 117 Follow-up 20 years	Venous blood	A commercially available enzyme-linked immu- nosorbent assay kit (Bender MedSystems)	sVCAM-1

Continued

Table 2 Continued

Omics	Study	Population	Tissue type	Platform	Significant signatures
Proteomics	Ko et al. ¹⁰⁵	European ancestry FHS Offspring cohort n = 1885 Incident AF n = 349 Follow-up 18.3 years.	Citrate-plasma	SOMAscan proteomic profiling platform	Analyzed plasma proteins (n = 1373) NCAM-120 WFIKKN2 Ntrk3 EGFR ADAMTS13 Angiopoietin-2 NT-proBNP BMP1A
Proteomics	Staerk et al. ¹⁰⁹	European ancestry FHS Offspring and Third Generation cohorts (n = 3378) Incident AF n = 401 Follow-up 12.3 years.	Plasma	Luminex xMAP platform	Analyzed plasma proteins (n = 85) IGF1 IGFBP1 NT-proBNP
Metabolomics	Alonso et al. ¹¹²	African ancestry ARIC study (n = 1919) Incident AF n = 183 Follow-up 22 years.	Serum	Untargeted, gas chromatography/mass spectrometry and liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry-based metabolomic quantification (Metabolon, Inc)	Bile acids glycolithocholate sulfate and glycocholenate sulfate
Metabolomics	Ko et al. ¹¹⁷	European ancestry FHS Offspring (n = 2458) Incident AF n = 156 Follow-up 10 years.	Plasma	Targeted liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (AB SCIEX 4000 QTRAP triple quadrupole mass spectrometer for positively charged polar compounds and lipids) and an AB SCIEX 5500 QTRAP triple quadrupole mass spectrometer for negatively charged polar compounds	Analyzed 217 metabolites (54 positively charged, 59 negatively charged, 104 lipids) None

IGF1, insulin-like growth factor 1; IGFBP1, insulin-like growth factor-binding protein 1; NT-proBNP, N-terminal prohormone of brain natriuretic peptide.

One useful resource is the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) project, which quantified gene expression across 54 tissue types collected from 948 donors.¹²¹ Computational methods, such as PrediXcan,¹²² MetaXcan,¹²³ RIVER,¹²⁴ and ExPecto,¹²⁵ are being developed to predict tissue-specific transcription profiles from genetic variants. For example, Roselli et al.⁵⁷ performed a transcriptome-wide association study of AF using MetaXcan based on the GWAS summary association statistics. The pre-computed models were generated from the left and right atria from the GTEx project.¹²¹ The models predicted expression of 57 genes associated with AF, 42 of which were located in a single AF GWAS loci.

4. Data integration

As multiomics data become increasingly available, future studies might integrate different omics to obtain a more comprehensive picture of AF pathogenesis. Quantitative trait loci (QTL) analyses study the associations between genetic variants and other omics data.⁸¹ One study investigated the association between genetic variants and gene expression in the left and right atria.¹²⁶ It identified 187 eQTLs from 53 left atrial samples and 259 eQTLs from 52 right atrial samples. Many of the eQTLs were shared between the left and right atrial samples, including rs3740293, which was one of the top AF-related variants. The SNP is

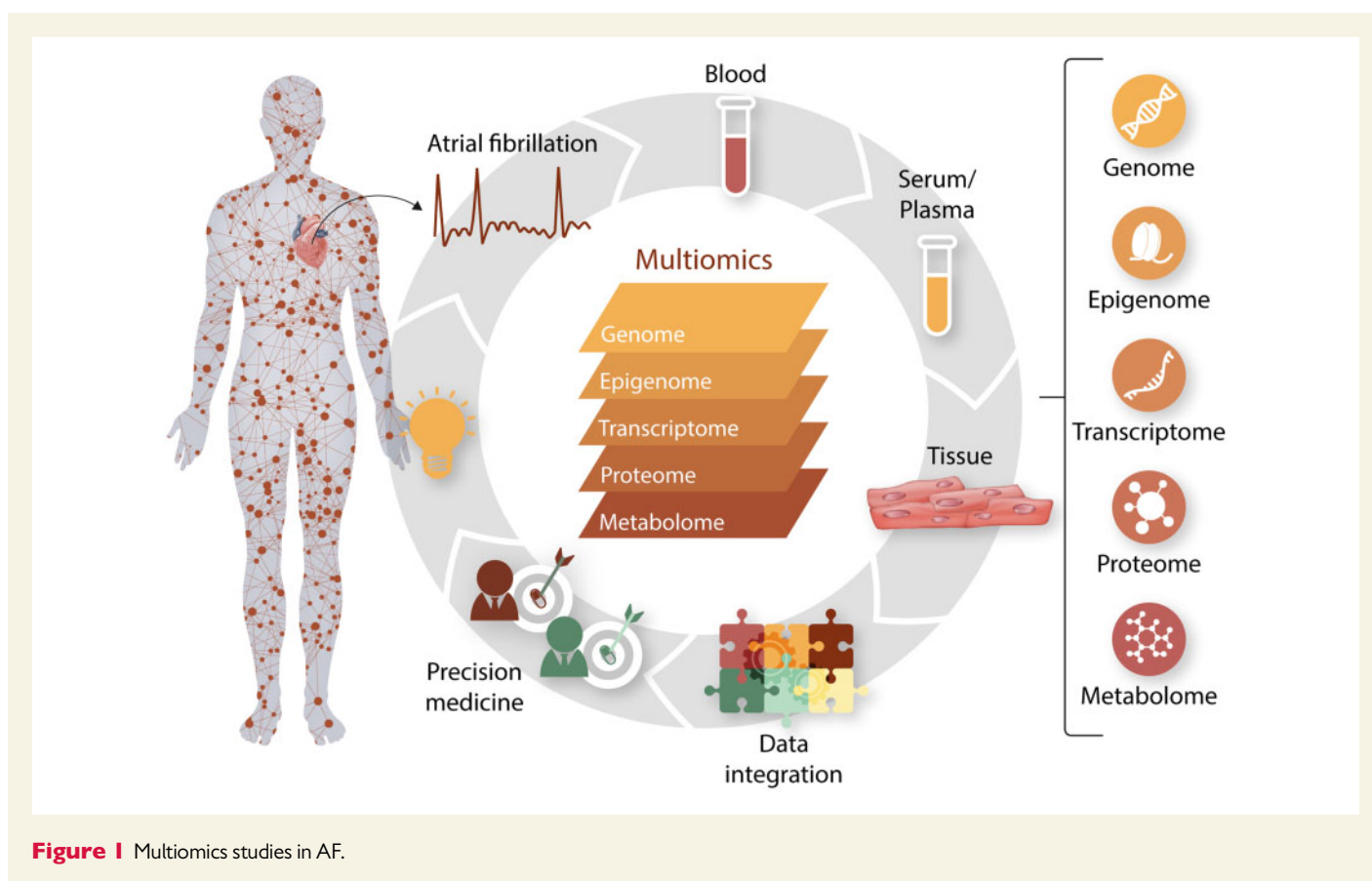


Figure 1 Multiomics studies in AF.

located at the 3'-UTR of *SYNPO2L*, about 5 kb upstream of *MYOZ1*. It was significantly associated with the expression of *MYOZ1* in both left and right atria, but not *SYNPO2L*, suggesting that the functional gene at this locus is likely to be *MYOZ1* instead of *SYNPO2L*.¹²⁶ The association was further validated using 70 additional samples collected from patients at Massachusetts General Hospital. In another study, the mQTL analyses were performed to investigate the association of AF-related variants with nearby DNA methylation.⁷⁶ The most significant association was observed between rs6490029 at the *CUX2* locus and cg10833066. The methylation of cg10833066 increased with increasing copies of the 'A' allele of rs6490029, which also was associated with higher AF risk as found in the previous GWAS.⁵⁴ Further studies are needed to validate these results and apply QTL mapping to other AF-related electrophysiological traits like PR and RR intervals.^{127,128}

Another approach to data integration is to perform multiomics modelling, which integrates the results from different omics association studies. Wang *et al.*¹²⁹ recently developed a strategy to integrate the GWAS, the epigenome-wide association study, and the transcriptome-wide association study results for AF. The summary statistics from different omics data were meta-analyzed and weighted by the sample size of each omics data type. A tissue-specific network was then built¹³⁰ and used to predict potential AF-related genes, which increased the proportion of heritability from 3.5% (by GWAS alone) to 10.4%. Importantly, a few potential drug targets were identified, including *ADORA1*, *ATP1A3*, *ATP1B2*, *CACNA1D*, *KCNQ4*, *NR3C2*, and *THRA*. Similarly, van Ouwkerk *et al.*¹³¹ developed another approach to prioritize potentially functional variants by integrating transcriptomic and epigenomic data together with chromatin conformation information. A list of potentially target genes

was identified from AF-associated variants, which could be further investigated for future studies.

5. Future directions

The summary of omics findings related to AF is presented in *Tables 1* and *2* and *Figure 1*. Despite the success of omics study in AF, several aspects are important to consider for future studies.

- First, current omics studies have been based mostly on samples collected at a single examination, whereas longitudinal omics profiling is still very scarce. It is challenging to investigate the effects of longitudinal changes in omics profiles on AF pathogenesis since omics platforms and profiles change over time. In addition, the relationship between AF and omics profiles could be bidirectional and the causal effects remain unclear.¹³² Therefore, longitudinal omics methods should be added to the future investigation of AF pathogenesis.
- Second, it would be valuable to explore the association of additional types of omics with AF, such as in samples collected from the gut microbiome,¹³³ urine,¹³⁴ saliva,¹³⁵ and right and left atrial and left pulmonary vein tissues. These omics data might identify additional molecular signatures and biomarkers for AF. Given the limited availability of heart samples, the use of induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells to derive heart tissue from fibroblasts or even peripheral blood cells may greatly expand research capabilities.^{136,137}
- Third, further development of data integration methodology is needed to combine different omics data to better understand the pathophysiologic pathways of AF. Such efforts would be important to the risk stratification and the identification of novel therapeutic targets for AF.^{138,139}

- Fourth, further clinical and observational studies are needed to define whether multiomics profiles are different in individuals with AF dependent on disease burden. As hundreds of potential biomarkers of AF have been reported in various studies, additional scrutiny will be necessary to understand any potential bias of omic biomarkers for risk profiling. Almost all studies were adjusted for age and sex; however, many studies did not take into account known clinical risk factors that might confound the results. In addition, some biomarkers reached only lenient significance; the associations will no longer be significant after adjusting for multiple testing.
- Fifth, the mechanisms relating biomarkers are uncertain. Are they directly related, confounders, related via intermediate mechanisms, or merely spurious associations yet to be determined? In addition, even if the associations are replicated, it remains uncertain how the biomarkers are involved in the pathogenesis of AF.
- Sixth, most of the existing omics studies were based on participants of European ancestry from Western Europe and North America; generalizability of these findings to other ancestries and regions is largely unknown. Therefore, it is imperative to include participants from diverse ancestries/ethnicities and regions for future omics studies, such as African American, Asian, Hispanic, and Indigenous individuals.^{94,112,140,141}
- Finally, from clinical perspective, the incorporation of omics profiling into clinical routine is yet to come. The risk prediction of AF using omics is limited mostly to genomics information, whereas omics information has not been used to improve prediction beyond clinical score. In addition, very few studies have analyzed C-statistics and reclassification metrics of predictive value after adjustment for biomarkers or genetic risk (Supplementary material online, Table S2). Most of them showed only modest improvement of predictive value.^{142–147} Future studies are needed to analyze risk prediction and to identify effect sizes, population attributable risks, and risk reclassification using different omics profiles.

In summary, the past decade has witnessed enormous progress in the multiomics study of AF, which has identified hundreds of potential biomarkers or targets for future investigations. Recent efforts paved the way towards more advanced analyses elucidating pathophysiological complexity of AF underlying processes. The next studies are needed to highlight not separate biomarkers based on genomic, proteomic, or metabolomics studies, but rather using a multiomics approach in diverse multiracial populations.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at *Cardiovascular Research* online.

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