

Special Issue: The FOXO3 Gene and Its Relation to Lifespan and Healthspan

Comparing Effects of FOXO3 and Residing in Urban Areas on Longevity: A Gene–Environment Interaction Study

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Received: June 5, 2021; Editorial Decision Date: November 30, 2021

Decision Editor: David Le Couteur, MBBS, FRACP, PhD

Abstract

Forkhead box O3 (FOXO3) is a candidate longevity gene. Urban residents are also positively associated with longer life expectancy. We conducted a gene–environment interaction to assess the synergistic effect of *FOXO3* and urban/rural environments on mortality. We included 3 085 older adults from the Chinese Longitudinal Healthy Longevity Survey. We used single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) rs2253310, rs2802292, and rs4946936 to identify the *FOXO3* gene and classifed residential locations as "urban" and "rural." Given the open cohort design, we used the Cox-proportional hazard regression models to assess the mortality risk. We found the minor allele homozygotes of *FOXO3* to have a protective effect on mortality (HR [95% CI] for rs4946936 TT vs CC: 0.807 [0.653–0.996]; rs2802292 GG vs TT: 0.812 [0.67–0.985]; rs2253310 CC vs GG: 0.808 [0.667–0.978]). Participants living in urban areas had a lower risk of mortality (HR of the urban vs the rural: 0.854 [0.759–0.962]). The interaction between *FOXO3* and urban and rural regions was statistically significant ($p_{\text{intersection}}$ < .01). Higher air pollution (fine particulate matter: $PM_{2,5}$) and lower residential greenness (Normalized Difference Vegetation Index [NDVI]) both contributed to higher mortality. After adjusting for NDVI and PM₂, the protective effect size of *FOXO3* SNPs was slightly attenuated while the protective effect size of living in an urban environment increased. The effect size of the benefcial effect of *FOXO3* on mortality is roughly equivalent to that of living in urban areas. Our research fndings indicate that the effect of places of residence and genetic predisposition of longevity are intertwined.

Keywords: Air pollution, Greenness, Healthy aging, Longevity gene, Urban environment

Mammals have 4 *Forkhead box O* (*FOXO*) genes, including *FOXO1*, *FOXO3*, *FOXO4*, and *FOXO6*. FOXO proteins are important transcription factors. They turn stimuli arising from insulin, growth factors, nutrients, and oxidative stress into gene expressions [\(1\)](#page-6-0). FOXOs are associated with longevity through the upregulation of target genes involved in stress resistance, metabolism, cell cycle arrest, and apoptosis [\(2\)](#page-6-1). *FOXO* is thought to act against aging and age-related diseases, including cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, cancer, and neurodegenerative diseases ([3](#page-6-2)). Genetic variation of the *FOXO3* gene and human longevity association were initially described in a group of American Men of Japanese ancestry in Hawaii. The investigators found an odds ratio (OR) of 2.75 for homozygous minor versus homozygous major alleles between the longevity cases and controls of younger population [\(4\)](#page-6-3). Subsequently, a plethora of studies in human populations showed *FOXO3* to be associated with longevity and better health span across diverse human populations [\(5\)](#page-6-4). The mechanism of the *FOXO3* gene is complex and multifaceted. A previous review article suggests that genetic factors account for approximately one third of the variability in the human life span ([6](#page-6-5)). Thus, *FOXO3* is not necessarily deterministic for better healthspan, and its interaction with the environment may play a role. We previously reported the interaction between *FOXO* and residential greenness [\(7\)](#page-6-6). So far, there are no other studies on the interaction of *FOXO3* with urban environmental factors.

Empirical evidence points to urban residents having better health than their rural counterparts around the world, especially in developed countries [\(8,](#page-6-7)[9\)](#page-7-0). This could be due to better access to medical treatment, better sanitation, nutrition, education, and income. At

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the same time, recent urbanization in developing countries often coincides with higher air pollution due to industrial activities and decreasing residential greenness because of city expansion. The effect of these environmental factors on premature mortality has been studied extensively. Air pollution is one of the highest causes of disability-adjusted life years globally, and residential greenness has been shown to be related to older adults' health ([10,](#page-7-1)[11\)](#page-7-2). Still, the global burden of disease for low greenness access lacks gene–environmental interaction evidence.

Because life span has complex environmental and genetic underpinnings, we aim to study the effects of *FOXO3* and the urban–rural disparity on mortality. Our analysis considers demographic, lifestyle, and environmental (air pollution and residential greenness) factors. First, we aim to evaluate the main effect of *FOXO3* and residence on mortality in a Chinese older population. Second, we aim to see if there is evidence of effect modifcation by air pollution or greenness levels. Third, we aim to look specifcally at effect modifcation age and gender through interaction terms and stratifed analyses.

Method

Study Population

We used the Chinese Longitudinal Healthy Longevity Survey (CLHLS) data. The study is an open cohort, with participants entering in 2008 and following up to 2014, surveyed roughly biennially. The geographical distribution encompassed 23 out of 34 provinces in China, covering a wide range of urban and rural regions, with socioeconomic and climatic diversity. There were 3 554 participants with genotype sequencing data frst interviewed in 2008. We excluded 133 participants aged younger than 65 years or belonging to ethnic minorities and 336 participants with missing data in residence, environmental factors, and other covariates. The fnal study sample consisted of 3 085 participants.

Genotyping

Beijing Genomics Institute carried out a replication study for 13 228 individuals using a well-designed and customized chip, targeting about 27 000 longevity-phenotype-related single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) based on the prior CLHLS genome-wide association study. We extracted the *FOXO3* genotypic data of the 2008 cohort from this replication study. The single SNP association analysis, genotype association analysis, linkage disequilibrium, and haplotype association analysis of CLHLS *FOXO* data were presented in a previous study ([12](#page-7-3)). We used the same tagging SNPs rs4946936, rs2802292, and rs2253310 to identify the *FOXO3* gene as theirs [\(12](#page-7-3)). We abbreviated them as *FOXO3*_ rs4946936, *FOXO3*_rs2802292, and *FOXO3*_rs2253310, respectively, in this study. The minor/major alleles were T/C for *FOXO3*_rs4946936, G/T for *FOXO3*_rs2802292, and C/G for *FOXO3*_rs2253310, respectively.

Environmental Exposure Assessment

There were 3 categories of residence in CLHLS: village, town, and city. We further classifed "City" and "Town" as urban areas and "Village" as rural areas. Using each participant's geographical residential location, we calculated greenness and air pollution exposures.

We used the Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI) with a 500-m radius around the residence to quantify the residential greenness. NDVI quantifes vegetation by measuring the difference between near-infrared (which vegetation strongly refects) and red light (which vegetation absorbs). NDVI ranges from −1.0 to +1.0,

with higher values indicating higher levels of vegetative density or more abundant greenness. Based on the satellite image from the Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer in the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's Terra Satellite, we calculated NDVI from near-infrared radiation minus visible radiation divided by near-infrared radiation plus visible radiation. We linked the individual's residential address at the time of the interview with the imagery according to the longitude and latitude to get NDVI. We calculated the contemporaneous NDVI to assess acute exposure to greenness, defned as the nearest month NDVI to the month of death for individuals who had died or the last interview month for those alive or lost to follow-up [\(13](#page-7-4)).

Ground-level PM _{2,5} concentrations were estimated by combining aerosol optical depth retrievals from the National Aeronautics and Space Administration's Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer, Multiangle Imaging Spectroradiometer, and Seaviewing Wide feld-of-view Sensor satellite instruments; vertical profles derived from the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model; and calibration to ground-based observations of PM _{2.5} using geographically weighted regression (14) (14) . The resultant PM₂₅ concentration estimates were highly consistent $(R^2 = 0.81)$ with out-of-sample 10-fold cross-validated PM₂, concentrations from monitors ([14\)](#page-7-5). We matched the annual average PM₂₅ concentrations in a 1 km \times 1 km grid to each participant's residence [\(15](#page-7-6)). We calculated the 3-year average PM _{2,5}, which was found to have the strongest association with mortality among older adults in China [\(15](#page-7-6)).

Covariates

We included baseline age, gender, marital status, education, smoking status, drinking status, and physical activity [\(16](#page-7-7)[,17\)](#page-7-8). We classifed marital status into 2 categories: Currently married and living with spouse as "married" and widowed/separated/divorced/never married/ married but not living with spouse as "not married." We used the schooling year to evaluate education level. We divided the regular exercise, smoking, and alcohol drinking status into 3 categories: "Current," "Former," and "Never." For example, participants were asked, "Do you do exercise regularly at present (planned exercise like walking, playing balls, running, and so on)?" and/or "Did you do exercise regularly in the past?" We defned the regular exercise status as "Current" for participants who answered "Yes" to the frst question, "Former" for who answered "No" to the frst question and "Yes" to the second question, and "Never" for who answered "No" to both questions.

Statistical Model

We conducted Cox-proportional hazard regression models for every *FOXO3* SNPs (*FOXO3*_rs2253310, *FOXO3*_rs2802292, and *FOXO3*_rs4946936) and residence to evaluate their single effect on mortality. We assessed the interaction of *FOXO3* SNPs and residence by adding their product term. We adjusted for age, gender, marital status, education, smoking status, drinking status, and physical activity in all models. We draw the adjusted survival curve based on the expected survival curves calculated based on the Cox model separately for subpopulations [\(18](#page-7-9)). As a sensitivity analysis, we additionally adjusted for NDVI and PM₂₅, *FOXO3* × NDVI and residence \times NDVI, or *FOXO3* \times PM₂, and residence \times PM₂,. We also examined their associations stratifed by gender and age. We set the nominal signifcance level at 0.05. We presented the exact *p* value, adjusted hazard ratios (HRs), and 95% confdence intervals (CIs) to indicate the effect size of exposures on mortality. We used R 4.0.3 and SAS university edition to perform all the analyses.

Results

The baseline mean age of the 3 085 participants was 84.9 (*SD*: 11.3) years, 1 634 (53%) were female, and 32.3% lived in urban areas (classifed as city or town). In 12 696 person-years of follow-up, we saw 1 439 mortality events. The distributions of the 3 SNPs of *FOXO3* were even across populations of different demographic characteristics (except for age groups and gender), indicating mendelian randomization. Participants in rural areas received fewer years of childhood education, reported a lower frequency of exercise behavior, and lived around places with higher residential greenness than urban areas. The distribution of age, sex, marriage status, smoking, alcohol drinking, and ambient PM ₂₅ exposure level was similar between rural and urban residents [\(Table 1\)](#page-3-0).

The major allele homozygote, heterozygote, and minor allele homozygote proportion for *FOXO3*_rs4946936 were 54.3%, 38.5%, and 7.2%, respectively, for *FOXO3*_rs2802292 were 50.3%, 40.5%, and 9.2%, respectively, for *FOXO3*_rs2253310 were 50.9%, 39.8, and 9.3%, respectively [\(Table 1](#page-3-0)). In Cox-proportion hazard regression model, we adjust for age, sex, and lifestyle factors. We found the minor allele homozygotes of *FOXO3* to be associated with protective effect against mortality compared to major allele homozygotes (HR [95% CI] for *FOXO3*_rs4946936 TT vs CC: 0.807 [0.653– 0.996], for *FOXO3*_rs2802292 GG vs TT: 0.812 [0.67–0.985], and for *FOXO3*_rs2253310 CC vs. GG: 0.808 [0.667–0.978]; [Table 2](#page-4-0)).

As expected, those who lived in urban areas had a lower risk of mortality (HR [95% CI]: 0.854 [0.759–0.962]) compared to rural areas ([Table 2\)](#page-4-0). Correspondingly, higher contemporaneous NDVI was associated with a lower risk of mortality (HR [95% CI] for 0.1 unit of NDVI: 0.885 [0.861–0.909]). Higher 3-year average PM_{2.5} was associated with a higher risk of mortality (HR [95% CI] for each 10 μ g/m³ increase of PM₂, : 1.13 [1.086–1.175]; Supplementary [Table 1](http://academic.oup.com/biomedgerontology/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/gerona/glab362#supplementary-data)).

In our effect modifcation analysis, we found statistically signifcant interactions between *FOXO3* SNP minor allele homozygote and urban versus rural residential locations ([Table 2\)](#page-4-0). Interestingly, the protective effect of *FOXO3* SNP minor allele homozygote was only evident in rural areas but not in urban areas ([Table 3\)](#page-5-0). A signifcant interaction also existed between *FOXO3* SNP and NDVI, but not between *FOXO3* SNP and PM₂₅. The protective effect of urban residence did not shown or reversed among those carrying two minor alleles [\(Table 4\)](#page-6-8).

The adjusted Kaplan–Meier's survival curve plots out the mortalities over the years of follow-up for *FOXO3* and residential locations [\(Figures 1](#page-5-1) and [2\)](#page-6-9). Residing in urban regions, higher contemporaneous NDVI, lower PM_{2.5}, and minor allele homozygote of *FOXO3* had higher survival rates than their counterparts [\(Figure 1](#page-5-1)). Minor allele homozygote carriers of *FOXO3*_rs2802292 had a higher survival rate in rural areas than urban areas, and those nonminor allele homozygote carriers had a higher survival rate in urban areas than rural areas. For the combination of NDVI and *FOXO3*, minor allele homozygote of *FOXO3*_rs2802292 had a higher survival rate than those without minor allele homozygote in high NDVI areas. At the same time, there was no signifcant difference among the genotypes in the low NDVI area. The protective effect of the minor allele homozygote of *FOXO3_rs2802292* was evident in the high PM_{2.5} area, not in low PM₂₅. The harmful effect of high PM₂₅ showed only in participants without minor allele homozygote of *FOXO3*_ rs2802292 [\(Figure 2\)](#page-6-9). Adjustment of NDVI and PM₂₅ attenuated some effects [\(Supplementary Table 1](http://academic.oup.com/biomedgerontology/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/gerona/glab362#supplementary-data)).

After adding the term of *FOXO3* × NDVI and residence × NDVI in the model, the interaction of *FOXO3* and residence persisted. The

interaction of *FOXO3* and NDVI was signifcant, while there was no signifcant interaction between residence and NDVI. In the model with interaction terms of $FOXO3 \times$ residence, $FOXO3 \times PM$, α , and residence \times PM₂, the interaction of *FOXO3* and residence persisted. The interaction of *FOXO3* and PM₂, residence and PM₂₅, were both not signifcant. The 3-way interaction of gender × *FOXO3* × residence was not signifcant. In the stratifed analyses by gender, the main protective effect of *FOXO* only showed in the female, not in the male. The effect of residence was a little stronger in the male than the female. The interaction between *FOXO3*_rs2802292/rs2253310 and residence was signifcant in the female and male, and the interaction between *FOXO3*_rs4946936 and residence was only signifcant in the female ([Supplementary Tables 2 and 3](http://academic.oup.com/biomedgerontology/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/gerona/glab362#supplementary-data)). In the stratifed analyses by age, *FOXO3* only showed a borderline protective effect on mortality risk among participants aged 85 or older, and urban living only had a protective effect among participants aged younger than 85. The interaction between *FOXO3*_rs2802292/rs2253310 and residence was signifcant in both age groups [\(Supplementary](http://academic.oup.com/biomedgerontology/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/gerona/glab362#supplementary-data) [Tables 4 and 5](http://academic.oup.com/biomedgerontology/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/gerona/glab362#supplementary-data)).

Discussion

By utilizing a longitudinal cohort design where our participants reside in diverse settings, we can ascertain and compare genetic and environmental effects. We found a signifcant effect of *FOXO3* on mortality in a cohort of older individuals in China. We also found people living in urban areas had a protective impact on mortality compared to rural regions. While some people with *FOXO3* minor allele have a genetic advantage in longevity, that advantage is similar to the beneft of living in an urban area, comparing the hazard ratios. In our stratifed analyses, the effect of the gene was more pronounced in rural areas, females, and participants aged 85 or older.

Our study is the frst to concurrently compare the effect of the environment and genetic determinants of longevity. On the environmental side, much empirical evidence points to urban residents having better health outcomes than rural residents in countries spanning both high, middle, and low-income levels. The number of people and the proportion of the world population now living in cities account for 55% of the world's population ([19\)](#page-7-10). In China, urban residents account for 63.9% of the population ([20\)](#page-7-11). Cities can be a positive force for health, such as sanitation and water safety, access to medical care, and greater food diversity. Negative urban environmental factors that affect health include air and noise pollution, lack of green space, and toxic waste.

Environment, genetics, and stochastic processes all contribute to longevity. Our fndings on *FOXO3* replicated prior research fndings of a strong protective effect, as *FOXO3* has been associated with human longevity in many populations. The OR and 95% CI for the longevity of homozygous minor allele versus homozygous major allele were 2.75 (1.51–5.02) for *FOXO3*_rs2802292 in a Japanese American men cohort ([4](#page-6-3)), 2.44 (1.38–4.34) for rs2802288 (a proxy of *FOXO3*_rs2802292) in the Southern Italian Centenarian males [\(21](#page-7-12)), and 1.53 (1.06–2.21) for rs2802288 in a German population [\(22](#page-7-13)). The OR (95%CI) for the longevity of one or two minor alleles versus homozygous major allele carriers were 1.65 (1.19–2.30) in the male and 1.67 (1.27–2.18) in the female for *FOXO3*_rs2802292, and *FOXO3*_rs2253310 and *FOXO3*_rs4946936 had similar results in the Han Chinese population [\(12\)](#page-7-3). These prior studies were of case–control (longevity vs nonlongevity) study design and all indicated those carrying minor alleles of *FOXO* SNPs were more likely to be long-lived than those carrying major alleles. A CLHLS study

Table 1. Study Population Characteristics at Baseline

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Note: NDVI = Normalized Difference Vegetation Index; PM = particulate matter.

compared the centenarians and people who died before 100 years old in the follow-up and found those who carried the minor allele of any SNP of *FOXO3_rs494693*, *FOXO3_rs2802292*, *FOXO3_ rs2253310* may have 62%–67% and 61%–73% higher probability of survival from middle age to age 100 years and older [\(23\)](#page-7-14). In our prospective cohort study design, we confrmed the protective effect of *FOXO3* SNPs in longitudinal cohort analyses (HRs were around 0.8 for each of the 3 *FOXO3* SNPs). The cohort study design of our analysis allows us to assess the relative effect and effect modifcation of environmental factors.

It is possible that the built environment can interact with the gene effect. We found the protective effect of *FOXO3* SNP minor allele homozygote was only evident in rural areas but not in urban areas. Future studies are needed on the etiology of the effects of *FOXO3* in residential locations. For the most part, rural residents are more sensitive to air pollution than urban residents in China. Previous studies demonstrated that socioregional factors such as urban/rural residency might infuence the expression of heritable tendencies related to alcohol use [\(24](#page-7-15)), schizophrenia [\(25](#page-7-16)), and subclinical depressive symptoms [\(26\)](#page-7-17). These factors may be infuential on *FOXO3* gene expression, or that *FOXO3* may modify the etiology of these diseases. In a previous study, we found that the association between *FOXO3* SNP and mortality was more substantial in areas with higher greenness [\(7\)](#page-6-6). In developed countries, indigenous adult all-cause mortality, cervical cancer mortality, trauma mortality, and incidence of myocardial infarction were all signifcantly lower in urban areas than rural areas in a review on populations of Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States ([9](#page-7-0)). The rural mortality penalty is large and growing based on a study at the county level of the United States, and the fndings indicated that the effects of rurality on mortality were not the result of spuriousness produced by place-based differences in race, education, income, and poverty [\(8\)](#page-6-7). A review studied health in relation to aspects of urbanization across developing countries and found urbanization was positively but not signifcantly associated with life expectancy and urban–rural differences in mortality from communicable diseases depending on the disease studied [\(27\)](#page-7-18). A previous study based on CLHLS 2002–2014 wave found that older adults in urban areas had 11% lower risks of mortality (HR = 0.89 , $p < .01$) than their rural counterparts adjusting for demographic factors, and this association was explained away by socioeconomic factors ([28](#page-7-19)). We confrmed the rural mortality penalty with a similar HR (HR [95% CI]: 0.854 [0.759–0.962]), and we found this association persisted after considering environmental factors including $PM_{2.5}$ and NDVI.

Our study has many strengths. First, our study is nested within a large cohort study, which collected information on many potential confounders and lifestyle attributes of the study participants. Compared to many other genetic and health studies using a case–control study design, our fndings should be more robust. Second, our study population is diverse and is spread throughout many different regions of China, covering a wide range of socioeconomic and climatic regions. This diversity not only allows us to look for effect modifcation but also allows us to see dose–response relationships due to the heterogeneity of exposures. Third, our study has many years of follow-up, allowing us to calculate long-term follow-up effects. Fourth, our study is an early adopter of remote sensing technology in calculating environment exposures, which is less prone to bias.

Our study has several limitations due to the study design and resolution of data. First, while our research study is based on a large cohort, we do not have molecular insight into how air pollution and residential greenness are interacting with *FOXO3* on a genetic level or on a protein level. Second, our cohort is composed

Notes: HR = hazard ratio; CI = confdence interval; SNP = single-nucleotide polymorphism. All models adjusted for baseline age, sex, education, marriage, smoking, alcohol drinking, and exercise.

*Denotes statistical signifcance.

Figure 1. The adjusted survival curve of the residence, NDVI, PM2.5, and *FOXO3* SNPs. *Note:* The model was adjusted for baseline age, sex, schooling year, residence, marriage, exercise, smoking, and drinking alcohol. The adjusted survival curve was based on the average predictions for each stratum by using the R package survminer. NDVI = Normalized Difference Vegetation Index; PM = particulate matter. Full color version is available within the online issue.

of a group of older adults, which means we cannot generalize our fndings to younger populations. Third, we did not consider the change of residence. Although the older adults were unlikely to move, the residence rurality can change after years' follow-up.

Future studies can evaluate the association between the timevarying residence and mortality. Furthermore, our cohort resides in one country, so whether a similar relationship exists in other populations needs validation.

Figure 2. The adjusted survival curve of the combination of *FOXO3*_292 and the residential factors. *Note:* The model was adjusted for baseline age, sex, schooling year, residence, marriage, exercise, smoking, and drinking alcohol. The adjusted survival curve was based on the average predictions for each stratum by using the R package survminer. Full color version is available within the online issue.

Table 4. The HRs (95% CI) for Mortality by Urban and Rural Residence in the Interaction Model on the Condition of Different Genotypes of *FOXO3* SNPs

Notes: HR = hazard ratio; CI = confdence interval; SNP = single-nucleotide polymorphism. All models adjusted for baseline age, sex, education, marriage, smoking, alcohol drinking, and exercise.

Conclusions

In our study cohort of older Chinese, we replicated the fnding of a protective effect of *FOXO3* against mortality. Our results indicated that *FOXO3* and residence in urban environments have synergistic effects on health. Our epidemiology fndings provide insight into possible activation hypotheses and gene–environment interactions.

Supplementary Material

Supplementary data are available at *The Journals of Gerontology, Series A: Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences* online.

Funding

The Chinese Longitudinal Healthy Longevity Study (CLHLS) data sets analyzed in this article are jointly supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (2018YFC2000400), National Natural Sciences Foundation of China (72061137004, 71490732), the US National Institute of Aging of National Institute of Health (P01AG031719) and the Duke University School of Medicine and Duke-NUS Medical School (Duke/Duke-NUS/ RECA(Pilot)/2019/0051).

Confict of Interest

None declared.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank all the participants and workers of the Chinese Longitudinal Healthy Longevity Study (CLHLS).

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