Associations between serotonin transporter gene (*SLC6A4*) methylation and clinical characteristics and cortical thickness in children with ADHD

S. Park¹, J.-M. Lee², J.-W. Kim³, D.-Y. Cho⁴, H. J. Yun², D. H. Han⁵, J. H. Cheong⁶ and B.-N. Kim³*

¹Department of Psychiatry, Seoul National Hospital, Seoul, Republic of Korea

² Department of Biomedical Engineering, Hanyang University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

³ Division of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Department of Psychiatry, Seoul National University College of Medicine, Seoul, Republic of Korea ⁴ Lab Genomics Clinical Research Institute, Seoul, Republic of Korea

⁵ Department of Psychiatry, College of Medicine, Chung Ang University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

⁶ Uimyung Research Institute for Neuroscience, Sahmyook University, Seoul, Republic of Korea

Background. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a common, highly heritable psychiatric disorder. Additionally, environmental factors such as perinatal stress and early adversities contribute to the occurrence and severity of ADHD. Recently, DNA methylation has emerged as a mechanism that potentially mediates gene–environmental interaction effects in the aetiology and phenomenology of psychiatric disorders. Here, we investigated whether serotonin transporter gene (*SLC6A4*) methylation patterns were associated with clinical characteristics and regional cortical thickness in children with ADHD.

Method. In 102 children with ADHD (age 6–15 years), the methylation status of the *SLC6A4* promoter was measured. Brain magnetic resonance imaging was obtained and ADHD symptoms were evaluated.

Results. A higher methylation status of the *SLC6A4* promoter was significantly associated with worse clinical presentations (more hyperactive-impulsive symptoms and more commission errors). Additionally, a negative correlation was observed between *SLC6A4* methylation levels and cortical thickness values in the right occipito-temproral regions.

Conclusions. Our results suggest that the *SLC6A4* methylation status may be associated with certain symptoms of ADHD, such as behavioural disinhibition, and related brain changes. Future studies that use a larger sample size and a control group are required to corroborate these results.

Received 23 September 2014; Revised 25 April 2015; Accepted 27 April 2015; First published online 28 May 2015

Key words: Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, brain imaging, gene-environment interaction, neuropsychology.

Introduction

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) is a neurodevelopmental disorder that is characterized by inattention, impulsivity, and hyperactivity (Biederman & Faraone, 2005). With an estimated heritability of approximately 76%, ADHD is generally considered to have a genetic basis (Faraone *et al.* 2005). The heritability estimates account not only for the main effects of genetic factors but also for gene–environment interactions. Thus, the entire heritability of the disease may be attributable to the presence or absence of a necessary environmental cofactor. From the epigenetic perspective, environmental factors can modulate gene expression without causing

(Email: kbn1@snu.ac.kr)

alterations in the DNA sequence and without affecting protein function in the brain (Elia *et al.* 2012). DNA can be methylated via DNA methyltransferases; methylation typically occurs at cytosine-guanine dinucleotides (CpG) and represses gene activity (Bird, 1986; Goll & Bestor, 2005). DNA methylation of cytosines in CpG sites is thought to be the most representative of the broader epigenetic modification of a given locus (Hochberg *et al.* 2011).

It has been reported that environmental stress, such as perinatal stress, social environment, environmental toxins, drugs, or childhood adversities produced persistent changes in methylation patterns of the promoters of several genes (Rampon *et al.* 2000; Bollati *et al.* 2007; Cheng *et al.* 2008; Roth *et al.* 2009; Devlin *et al.* 2010; Kang *et al.* 2013; Szyf, 2013). This environmental stress (e.g. perinatal stress, childhood adversities) is known to be a risk factor for ADHD (Merry & Andrews, 1994; Ben Amor *et al.* 2005; Grizenko *et al.* 2008; Ouyang *et al.* 2008). Additionally, it has been reported

^{*} Address for correspondence: Dr B.-N. Kim, Division of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, Department of Psychiatry, Seoul National University, College of Medicine, College of Medicine, 101 Daehakro, Chongro-Gu, Seoul, South Korea.

that certain types of environmental stress contribute to the specific ADHD phenotype. For example, Grizenko *et al.* (2008) reported that children with the ADHD combined subtype are exposed to more stress *in utero* than are children with the ADHD inattentive subtype. Another study found that children with the inattentive subtype were less likely to have received regular prenatal check-ups and were more likely to have experienced postnatal medical illness compared to children who had the combined subtype (Park *et al.* 2014).

Recently, van Mil et al. (2014) found that lower DNA methylation levels of the dopamine receptor D4 gene and the serotonin transporter gene (SLC6A4 or 5-HTT), which were assessed at birth using cord blood samples, were associated with the child having more ADHD symptoms at 6 years. The DNA methylation status of neuronal genes at birth may reflect prenatal exposure to adverse environmental factors, such as maternal smoking (Langley et al. 2005) or stress (Grizenko et al. 2008), which are risk factors of ADHD. However, DNA methylation status at birth cannot reflect the epigenetic effect of postnatal factors on the risk of exhibiting ADHD symptoms. By contrast, the postnatal methylation status may represent both antenatal and postnatal risk factors. In addition, the precise manner in which DNA methylation affects the neural system, leading to ADHD symptoms, has yet to be established.

In this study, we measured DNA methylation patterns by using the peripheral blood of children. These patterns may reflect exposure to postnatal as well as prenatal exposure to an adverse environment. Additionally, we investigated whether the DNA methylation patterns of SLC6A4 were associated with clinical characteristics and brain cortical thicknesses (CT) of children with ADHD. The SLC6A4 promoter region was selected because the SLC6A4 gene has a critical role in the association between childhood adversities and increased susceptibility to a lifetime risk for many psychiatric disorders, such as depression (Jans et al. 2007) and alcohol dependence (Laucht et al. 2009). Additionally, this region is one of the two regions in which DNA methylation levels were associated with ADHD symptoms in the previous study by van Mil et al. (2014). We hypothesized that the DNA methylation status of SLC6A4 would be associated with worse inattentive and/or hyperactive-impulsive symptoms and decreased regional CT values in children with ADHD.

Materials and method

Participants

A total of 102 children with ADHD (aged 6–15 years) were recruited from Seoul National University Hospital in Seoul, Korea, between May 2012 and April 2014.

ADHD patients with an intelligence quotient (IQ) <70; a past or an ongoing history of tic disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, language disorder, learning disorder, convulsive disorder, pervasive developmental disorder, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, or brain damage; or a recent history of taking stimulants or atomoxetine over the past 4 weeks were excluded from the study. The study protocol was approved by the institutional review board for human subjects at Seoul National University Hospital. Detailed information about the study was given to parents and children, and written informed consent was obtained from both parents and children prior to study entry.

Diagnostic and clinical evaluations

We assessed the presence of ADHD and other psychiatric disorders by using a semi-structured diagnostic interview, the Kiddie-Schedule for Affective Disorders and Schizophrenia - Present and Lifetime version (K-SADS-PL). The validity and reliability of the original and Korean versions of the K-SADS-PL have been established previously (Kaufman et al. 1997; Kim et al. 2004). The parents completed the Korean version of the ADHD Rating Scale-IV (ARS; So et al. 2002), and the children participated in a computerized continuous performance test (CPT) that measured their levels of attention and response inhibition (Greenberg & Waldman, 1993). The CPT was standardized for age among Korean children and adolescents (Shin et al. 2000), and four variables were measured: omission errors (a measure of inattention), commission errors (a measure of impulsivity), response time (a measure of information processing speed), and response time variability (a measure of the consistency of attention). Higher T scores indicate worse performance.

Quantitative DNA methylation analysis

Quantitative DNA methylation analysis was performed as described previously (Kang et al. 2013), with slight modification. In brief, genomic DNA was extracted from whole blood using an Intron_G-DEX™ IIb Genomic DNA Extraction kit (Intron, Korea). DNA was bisulfite-treated using an EX DNA Methylation-Lighting kit (Zymo Research, USA). A 185 bp fragment of the SLC6A4 promoter was amplified by PCR from bisulfite-treated DNA using the primers listed in Fig. 1. The following thermal profile was applied using a PTC-220 DYAD™ thermal cycler (Bio-Rad, USA): 10 min at 95 °C for initial denaturation, followed by 45 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 54 °C for 30 s, and 72 °C for 30 s, with a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. PCR products were sequenced using the PyroMark ID Pyrosequencing system (Qiagen, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol with the two types of



Fig. 1. The schema of serotonin transporter gene (*SLC6A4*) promoter region for DNA methylation analyses. The CpGs are underlined and numbered. Forward and backward primers and sequencer appear in bold.

sequencing primers listed in Fig. 1. The methylation percentage at each CpG region was quantified by using Pyro Q-CpG software (Qiagen).

SLC6A4 genotype

Serotonin-transporter-linked polymorphic region (5-HTTLPR) in *SLC6A4* was amplified by using a PCR method described previously (Heils *et al.* 1996). The 484-bp fragment was designated as an *S* allele, and the 528 bp fragment was designated as an *L* allele. Frequency distributions conformed to Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium.

Image acquisition and processing

Whole-brain structural MRI was acquired with a T1weighted magnetization-prepared rapid acquisition gradient echo (MPRAGE) scan on a 3T Siemens scanner (Siemens Magnetom Trio Tim Syngo MR B17, Germany). Images were acquired with the following parameters: TR = 1900 ms, TE = 3.13 ms, inversion time 900 ms, flip angle = 9°, voxel size 0.9 mm³, FOV = 230 mm, slices 176.

T1-weighted images were registered in the ICBM 152 average template using linear transformation and corrected for intensity non-uniformity artifacts. The images were then classified into white matter (WM), grey matter (GM), cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) and background using an advanced neural net classifier. Hemispheric cortical surfaces were automatically extracted from each T1-weighted image using the Constrained Laplacian-based Automated Segmentation with Proximities (CLASP) algorithm, which

reconstructed the inner cortical surface by deforming a spherical mesh onto the WM/GM boundary and then expanding the deformable model to the GM/ CSF boundary (MacDonald et al. 2000; Kim et al. 2005). The reconstructed hemispheric cortical surfaces consisted of 40 962 vertices, each forming highresolution meshes. The inner and outer cortical surfaces had the same number of vertices, and there was a close correspondence between the counterpart vertices of the inner and outer cortical surfaces. CT was defined using the t-link method, which captures the Euclidean distance between these linked vertices (MacDonald et al. 2000; Kim et al. 2005). For group analysis, each individual thickness map was transformed to a surface group template using a 2-dimensional (2D) surface-based registration that aligns variable sulcal folding patterns through sphere-to-sphere warping (MacDonald et al. 2000; Lerch et al. 2005)

Statistical analysis

First, we explored whether individual genetic variants may underlie variation in DNA methylation levels. The methylation percentages at each CpG site were compared according to the SLC6A4 genotype (SS *v*. SL *v*. LL) by using analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Second, we investigated the associations between *SLC6A4* promoter methylation percentages and clinical and neuropsychological characteristics of ADHD. Multiple linear regression models were constructed with the methylation percentages at each CpG site (continuous variable) as the predictive variables and the subscores on the ARS or CPT (continuous variable)

as the dependent variables, after adjusting for age, sex, and IQ.

SPSS version 21.0 (SPSS Inc., USA) was used to perform all the statistical analyses, and a *p* value <0.01 was considered significant, which provided some control for type I errors.

To investigate the correlation between *SLC64* methylation percentages and brain CT, multiple regression analyses were performed with *SLC64* methylation percentages, age, sex, IQ, and intracranial volume as independent variables, and each vertex of CT was used as a dependent variable. All 81 924 of the vertices were used in the statistical analysis. We utilized SurfStat (by K. Worsley; http://www.math.mcgill.ca/keith/surfstat/), which is a MATLAB toolbox (MathWorks Inc., USA) for the statistical analysis of multivariate surface data using linear mixed-effects models. We employed thresholding in our resulting statistical maps (uncorrected p < 0.001).

Results

A total of 102 children with ADHD (77 males, 25 females, mean age 8.9 ± 2.4 years) participated in this study. The characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

There were no significant differences between the methylation percentages at each CpG site and their average values according to the SLC6A4 allele type (Supplementary Table S1).

We examined the existence of an association between *SLC6A4* promoter methylation levels and clinical characteristics and regional CT of ADHD. After adjusting for age, sex, and IQ, higher methylation status in the CpG6 and CpG8 regions was significantly associated with higher hyperactive-impulsive scores; higher methylation status in the CpG4 and CpG5 regions was significantly associated with higher total ARS scores; higher methylation status in the CpG6, CpG7, and CpG8 regions was significantly associated with more commission errors; and higher mean *SLC6A4* promoter methylation levels were associated with higher hyperactive-impulsive scores, higher total ARS scores, and higher commission error scores (Table 2).

Additionally, a negative correlation was observed between methylation levels in the CpG5, CpG6, CpG7, and CpG8 regions and CT values in the right occipito-temporal regions (Fig. 2, Table 3).

Discussion

The principal findings from this study of patients with ADHD were that a higher *SLC6A4* promoter methylation status was significantly associated with worse clinical symptoms (more hyperactive-impulsive symptoms

Table 1. Characteristics of the study participants

	N=102
Gender, % boys	75.5
Age, years, mean (s.D.)	8.9 (2.4)
IQ, mean (s.d.)	106.1 (14.3)
Subtype, %	
Combined	40.2
Inattentive	37.0
Hyperactive-impulsive	8.7
NOS	14.1
Serotonin transporter (SLC6A4) genotype	
SS	61.8
SL	34.3
LL	3.9
ARS score, mean (s.D.)	
Inattentive score	14.9 (5.6)
Hyperactive-impulsive score	9.2 (6.4)
Total score	23.9 (10.9)

NOS, Not otherwise specified; ARS, ADHD Rating Scale.

and more commission errors) and decreased regional CT. Hypermethylation of the gene promoter is recognized as reducing respective gene expression (Philibert et al. 2007). A study by Wang et al. (2012) reported that increased methylation levels of the SLC6A4 promoter in blood cells were associated with decreased levels of SLC6A4 RNA and brain serotonin synthesis. The cited study suggests that peripheral DNA methylation of the serotonin transporter may be a marker of central serotonin transporter function (Wang et al. 2012). In reports describing epigenetic studies of patients with psychiatric disorders (e.g. depressive disorder, alcohol dependence, schizophrenia), patients were more likely to have hypermethylated neuronal candidate genes, including SLC6A4, than non-patients (Jans et al. 2007; Laucht et al. 2009; Ikegame et al. 2013). This is consistent with our study, where we found a positive association between SLC6A4 promoter methylation levels and more severe symptoms of ADHD.

In particular, commission errors are indicators of a deficit in response inhibition, which is clinically presented as hyperactivity, poor impulse control, and behavioural disinhibition (Barkley, 1997; Aron & Poldrack, 2005). Therefore, we suggest that hypermethylation of the *SLC6A4* promoter reduces brain serotonin synthesis, which may affect behavioural disinhibition and present as more hyperactive-impulsive symptoms and more commission errors in children with ADHD. This suggestion is plausible because central serotonin function is an important component of normal behavioural inhibition that controls impulsive responding (Evenden, 1999; Winstanley *et al.* 2006).

	Mean		CpG1		CpG2		CpG3		CpG4		CpG5		CpG6		CpG7		CpG8	
	B (95% CI)	p value	B (95% CI)	<i>p</i> value	B (95% CI)) <i>p</i> value	B (95% CI)	p value	B (95% CI)	p value								
ARS																		
Inattentive	0.53 (0.02 to 1.03)	0.041	0.51 (0.05 to 0.96)	0.029	0.51 (-00.16 to 1.18)	0.135	0.43 (-0.22 to 1.07)	0.190	0.42 (0.07 to 0.76)	0.019	0.48 (0.07 to 0.90)	0.023	0.29 (-0.05 to 0.63)	0.097	0.41 (-0.26 to 1.08)	0.228	0.33 (-0.06 to 0.72)	0.095
Hyperactive- impulsive	0.74 (0.19 to 1.29)	0.009	0.52 (0.01 to 1.02)	0.046	0.76 (0.03 to 1.49)	0.043	0.60 (-0.10 to 1.31)	0.094	0.47 (0.09 to 0.85)	0.016	0.56 (0.10 to 1.01)	0.018	0.54 (0.17 to 0.90)	0.005	0.75 (0.02 to 1.48)	0.043	0.59 (0.17 to 1.01)	0.006
Total	1.28 (0.34 to 2.23)	0.009	1.05 (0.19 to 1.92)	0.017	1.28 (0.02 to 2.54)	0.047	1.07 (-0.14 to 2.29)	0.082	0.90 (0.24 to 1.55)	0.008	1.05 (0.27 to 1.83)	0.009	0.83 (0.19 to 1.47)	0.011	1.17 (-0.09 to 2.43)	0.068	0.92 (0.19 to 1.64)	0.014
СРТ																		
Omission errors	0.09 (-10.60 to 1.77)	0.920	0.00 (-1.54 to 1.53)	0.995	0.17 (-20.02 to 2.36)	0.880	-0.15 (-2.23 to 1.94)	0.889	0.12 (-1.051 to 0.28)	0.843	-0.04 (-1.43 to 1.35)	0.953	-0.01 (-1.17 to 1.16)	0.990	1.30 (-0.96 to 3.56)	0.254	-0.01 (-1.33 to 1.31)	0.983
Commission errors	2.05 (0.64 to 3.45)	0.005	1.50 (0.21 to 2.80)	0.024	1.56 (-0.33 to 3.46)	0.105	1.59 (-0.20 to 3.38)	0.080	1.29 (0.31 to 2.27)	0.010	1.52 (0.35 to 2.68)	0.011	1.59 (0.63 to 2.55)	0.001	3.55 (1.72 to 5.38)	<0.001	1.52 (0.41 to 2.63)	0.008
Response time	-0.38 (-1.65 to 0.89)	0.557	-0.63 (-1.77 to 0.52)	0.281	-0.42 (-2.06 to 1.23)	0.618	-0.69 (-2.26 to 0.87)	0.381	-0.17 (-1.05 to 0.71)	0.702	-0.33 (-1.37 to 0.71)	0.531	0.00 (-0.87 to 0.88)	0.993	-0.55 (-2.26 to 1.17)	0.528	-0.25 (-1.25 to 0.74)	0.618
Response time variability	-0.08 (-1.14 to 0.99)	0.887	-0.16 (-1.13 to 0.81)	0.748	-0.09 (-1.49 to 1.30)	0.894	-0.15 (-1.47 to 1.17)	0.821	0.08 (-0.65 to 0.82)	0.821	0.02 (-0.86 to 0.90)	0.963	-0.36 (-1.09 to 0.37)	0.328	0.73 (-0.70 to 2.16)	0.314	-0.07 (-0.91 to 0.76)	0.866

Table 2. Associations between serotonin transporter (SLC6A4) promoter methylation percentages and clinical and neuropsychological characteristics of ADHD (N = 102)

ADHD, Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder; CI, confidence interval; ARS, ADHD rating scale; CPT, continuous performance test.

B (unstandardized regression coefficients) represents the change in the ARS or CPT scores for every 1-unit increase in methylation percentages.

Multiple regression analyses are adjusted for age, sex, and IQ.



Fig. 2. Correlational analysis between cortical thickness values and *SLC6A4* promotor methylation levels in the CpG5 (*a*), CpG6 (*b*), CpG7 (*c*), and CpG8 (*d*) in children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, controlling for age, sex, IQ, and intracranial volume. Statistical *t* maps with *t* value ranges of -6.0 to 6.0. Negative correlations are shown in blue and positive correlations are shown in red (left). Negative correlations were observed at an uncorrected p < 0.001 (right).

For example, premature response control on the rat 5-choice serial reaction-time task and human CPT is influenced by 5-HT receptor manipulations and central 5-HT depletion (Carli *et al.* 2006; Dougherty *et al.* 2007; Walderhaug *et al.* 2008). Furthermore, 5-HT depletion also impaired go/no-go inhibition in rats and led to hostile aggression in children with ADHD (Harrison *et al.* 1997; Zepf *et al.* 2008). However, it should be noted that we could not determine whether the relationship with symptom severity holds across the full range or only in more severe cases due to the lack of a population sample with a broad range of ADHD symptoms.

Our results showed negative correlations between SLC6A4 promoter methylation levels and CT values in the right temporal gyri and suggest that hypermethylation of the SLC6A4 promoter may play an additional role in developmental delays or abnormal development in these brain regions. The right temporal region is a cortical region that is closely related to disruptive behaviour disorders and poor impulse control (Wahlund & Kristiansson, 2009; Fahim et al. 2011). Therefore, our results suggest that hypermethylation of the SLC6A4 promoter may have a negative impact on temporal maturation, possibly increasing the risk and the severity of ADHD. However, we could not determine whether the relationship with CT values is general or specific to ADHD due to the lack of a control group in this study.

Contrary to our results, van Mil et al. (2014) reported that DNA methylation levels of SLC6A4 using cord blood samples were negatively associated with ADHD symptom scores of children at age 6 years. These differences may be accounted for by methodological differences in the sampling period (at birth v. childhood), sample characteristics (population-based birth cohort v. ADHD sample), and measures (child behavior checklist (CBCL) v. ARS). The biggest difference between the previous study and present study is that we used peripheral blood samples of children, while the previous study used cord blood samples of newborn babies. Unlike DNA methylation status determined with cord blood samples at birth, the DNA methylation status determined with peripheral blood samples in childhood may be influenced by a variety of postnatal factors, including childhood adversities, as well as antenatal factors (Rampon et al. 2000; Kang et al. 2013; Szyf, 2013). Therefore, the previous study suggests that prenatal SLC6A4 hypomethylation related to prenatal stress increases the risk of ADHD, whereas the present study suggests that childhood SLC6A4 hypermethylation related to the prenatal and postnatal adverse environment is associated with certain phenotypes of ADHD (behavioural disinhibition and poor impulse control).

Our study has some limitations that should be noted. First, the cross-sectional nature of our design **Table 3.** Areas of negative correlation of cortical thickness values and SLC6A4 promoter methylation levels in children with ADHD [p < 0.001 (uncorrected)]

		Peak absolute t value 3.62	MNI coo	ordinates		Cluster	
SLC6A4	Location		х	У	Z	BA	size
CpG5	Right, superior temporal gyrus		49.93	-42.56	4.09	21	21
		3.71	54.21	-43.77	3.28	22	23
	Right, middle occipital gyrus	3.77	45.01	-79.62	-6.13	19	31
		3.61	68.35	-30.70	-9.93	21	14
	Right, lingual gyrus	3.54	13.16	-96.82	-2.33	17	24
	Right, inferior occipital gyrus	3.61	46.16	-79.29	-4.74	18	11
CpG6	Right, superior temporal gyrus	3.69	49.93	-42.56	4.09	22	25
	Right, precentral gyrus	3.94	57.64	-17.10	30.53	4	10
	Right, middle temporal gyrus	3.77	48.03	-40.12	3.61	22	17
CpG7	Right, middle temporal gyrus	4.21	47.81	-40.82	4.21	22	79
	Right, superior temporal gyrus	4.20	49.93	-42.56	4.09	21	15
		4.19	48.91	-41.44	3.78	22	42
	Right, middle occipital gyrus	3.69	45.05	-80.61	-7.06	19	25
	Right, inferior occipital gyrus	3.53	45.23	-77.77	-4.27	18	13
	Right, cingulate gyrus	3.54	2.40	-6.62	37.69	24	18
CpG8	Right, cuneus	3.30	11.51	-97.67	-10.10	17	10
	Right, lingual gyrus	3.36	13.16	-96.82	-2.33	17	10
	Right, middle occipital gyrus	3.36	45.01	-79.62	-6.13	19	10
	Right, middle temporal gyrus	3.60	47.81	-40.82	4.21	22	10
	Right, superior temporal gyrus	3.81	50.20	-41.89	3.47	22	27

MNI, Montreal Neurological Institute; BA, Brodmann area .

Clusters whose sizes are <10 are eliminated.

Note that all MNI coordinates of maximum t values are selected in the significant regions.

did not allow for causal associations to be tested robustly. Second, there was no control group. To determine whether the influence of *SLC6A4* promoter methylation on clinical symptoms and CT is specific to ADHD patients, we should have obtained data from healthy controls. Third, the sample size of the present study was relatively small; thus, the results should be interpreted with caution. Finally, due to resource constraints, methylation status could only be investigated for one CpG island of the *SLC6A4* gene. Methylation status that was measured for this single island can only act as a proxy for the methylation status of the whole gene.

Conclusions

Our preliminary findings suggest that *SLC6A4* methylation status may be associated with the severity of hyperactive-impulsive symptoms and related brain changes in children with ADHD. Future studies that use a larger sample size and a control group and examine multiple CpG islands of the *SLC6A4* gene are required to corroborate these results.

Supplementary material

For supplementary material accompanying this paper visit http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S003329171500094X.

Declaration of Interest

None

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Basic Science Programme and the Brain Research Programme through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) grant funded by the Korean Govrnment (MSIP) (NRF-2013R1A1A3008158 and NRF-2014 M3C7A1046050) and by a grant from the Korean Health Technology R&D Project, Ministry of Health & Welfare, Republic of Korea (No. A120013).

References

Aron AR, Poldrack RA (2005). The cognitive neuroscience of response inhibition: relevance for genetic research in

attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Biological Psychiatry* 57, 1285–1292.

Barkley RA (1997). Behavioral inhibition, sustained attention, and executive functions: constructing a unifying theory of ADHD. *Psychological Bulletin* **121**, 65–94.

Ben Amor L, Grizenko N, Schwartz G, Lageix P, Baron C, Ter-Stepanian M, Zappitelli M, Mbekou V, Joober R (2005). Perinatal complications in children with attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder and their unaffected siblings. *Journal of Psychiatry and Neuroscience* **30**, 120–126.

Biederman J, Faraone SV (2005). Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Lancet* 366, 237–248.

Bird AP (1986). CpG-rich islands and the function of DNA methylation. *Nature* **321**, 209–213.

Bollati V, Baccarelli A, Hou L, Bonzini M, Fustinoni S, Cavallo D, Byun HM, Jiang J, Marinelli B, Pesatori AC, Bertazzi PA, Yang AS (2007). Changes in DNA methylation patterns in subjects exposed to low-dose benzene. *Cancer Research* 67, 876–880.

Carli M, Baviera M, Invernizzi RW, Balducci C (2006). Dissociable contribution of 5-HT1A and 5-HT2A receptors in the medial prefrontal cortex to different aspects of executive control such as impulsivity and compulsive perseveration in rats. *Neuropsychopharmacology* **31**, 757–767.

Cheng MC, Liao DL, Hsiung CA, Chen CY, Liao YC, Chen CH (2008). Chronic treatment with aripiprazole induces differential gene expression in the rat frontal cortex. *International Journal of Neuropsychopharmacology* **11**, 207–216.

Devlin AM, Brain U, Austin J, Oberlander TF (2010). Prenatal exposure to maternal depressed mood and the MTHFR C677T variant affect SLC6A4 methylation in infants at birth. *PLoS ONE* **5**, e12201.

Dougherty DM, Marsh DM, Mathias CW, Dawes MA, Bradley DM, Morgan CJ, Badawy AA (2007). The effects of alcohol on laboratory-measured impulsivity after L-tryptophan depletion or loading. *Psychopharmacology* (*Berlin*) 193, 137–150.

Elia J, Laracy S, Allen J, Nissley-Tsiopinis J, Borgmann-Winter K (2012). Epigenetics: genetics versus life experiences. *Current Topics in Behavioral Neurosciences* 9, 317–340.

Evenden JL (1999). Varieties of impulsivity. *Psychopharmacology* (*Berlin*) **146**, 348–361.

Fahim C, He Y, Yoon U, Chen J, Evans A, Perusse D (2011). Neuroanatomy of childhood disruptive behavior disorders. *Aggressive Behavior* **37**, 326–337.

Faraone SV, Perlis RH, Doyle AE, Smoller JW, Goralnick JJ, Holmgren MA, Sklar P (2005). Molecular genetics of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder. *Biological Psychiatry* 57, 1313–1323.

Goll MG, Bestor TH (2005). Eukaryotic cytosine methyltransferases. Annual Review of Biochemistry 74, 481–514.

Greenberg LM, Waldman ID (1993). Developmental normative data on the test of variables of attention (T.O.V.A.). *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry* 34, 1019–1030.

Grizenko N, Shayan YR, Polotskaia A, Ter-Stepanian M, Joober R (2008). Relation of maternal stress during pregnancy to symptom severity and response to treatment in children with ADHD. *Journal of Psychiatry and Neuroscience* **33**, 10–16.

Harrison AA, Everitt BJ, Robbins TW (1997). Central 5-HT depletion enhances impulsive responding without affecting the accuracy of attentional performance: interactions with dopaminergic mechanisms. *Psychopharmacology (Berlin)* **133**, 329–342.

Heils A, Teufel A, Petri S, Stober G, Riederer P, Bengel D, Lesch KP (1996). Allelic variation of human serotonin transporter gene expression. *Journal of Neurochemistry* 66, 2621–2624.

Hochberg Z, Feil R, Constancia M, Fraga M, Junien C, Carel JC, Boileau P, Le Bouc Y, Deal CL, Lillycrop K,
Scharfmann R, Sheppard A, Skinner M, Szyf M, Waterland RA, Waxman DJ, Whitelaw E, Ong K, Albertsson-Wikland K (2011). Child health, developmental plasticity, and epigenetic programming. *Endocrine Review* 32, 159–224.

Ikegame T, Bundo M, Sunaga F, Asai T, Nishimura F, Yoshikawa A, Kawamura Y, Hibino H, Tochigi M, Kakiuchi C, Sasaki T, Kato T, Kasai K, Iwamoto K (2013). DNA methylation analysis of BDNF gene promoters in peripheral blood cells of schizophrenia patients. *Neuroscience Research* 77, 208–214.

Jans LA, Riedel WJ, Markus CR, Blokland A (2007). Serotonergic vulnerability and depression: assumptions, experimental evidence and implications. *Molecular Psychiatry* **12**, 522–543.

Kang HJ, Kim JM, Stewart R, Kim SY, Bae KY, Kim SW, Shin IS, Shin MG, Yoon JS (2013). Association of SLC6A4 methylation with early adversity, characteristics and outcomes in depression. *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry* 44, 23–28.

Kaufman J, Birmaher B, Brent D, Rao U, Flynn C, Moreci P, Williamson D, Ryan N (1997). Schedule for affective disorders and schizophrenia for school-age children-present and lifetime version (K-SADS-PL): initial reliability and validity data. *Journal of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry* 36, 980–988.

Kim JS, Singh V, Lee JK, Lerch J, Ad-Dab'bagh Y, MacDonald D, Lee JM, Kim SI, Evans AC (2005). Automated 3-D extraction and evaluation of the inner and outer cortical surfaces using a Laplacian map and partial volume effect classification. *Neuroimage* 27, 210–221.

Kim YS, Cheon KA, Kim BN, Chang SA, Yoo HJ, Kim JW, Cho SC, Seo DH, Bae MO, So YK, Noh JS, Koh YJ, McBurnett K, Leventhal B (2004). The reliability and validity of kiddie-schedule for affective disorders and schizophrenia-present and lifetime version- Korean version (K-SADS-PL-K). *Yonsei Medical Journal* **45**, 81–89.

Langley K, Rice F, van den Bree MB, Thapar A (2005). Maternal smoking during pregnancy as an environmental risk factor for attention deficit hyperactivity disorder behaviour. A review. *Minerva Pediatrica* **57**, 359–371.

Laucht M, Treutlein J, Schmid B, Blomeyer D, Becker K, Buchmann AF, Schmidt MH, Esser G, Jennen-Steinmetz C, Rietschel M, Zimmermann US, Banaschewski T (2009). Impact of psychosocial adversity on alcohol intake in young adults: moderation by the LL genotype of the serotonin transporter polymorphism. *Biological Psychiatry* **66**, 102–109.

Lerch JP, Pruessner JC, Zijdenbos A, Hampel H, Teipel SJ, Evans AC (2005). Focal decline of cortical thickness in Alzheimer's disease identified by computational neuroanatomy. *Cerebral Cortex* **15**, 995–1001.

MacDonald D, Kabani N, Avis D, Evans AC (2000). Automated 3-D extraction of inner and outer surfaces of cerebral cortex from MRI. *Neuroimage* **12**, 340–356.

Merry SN, Andrews LK (1994). Psychiatric status of sexually abused children 12 months after disclosure of abuse. *Journal* of the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry 33, 939–944.

Ouyang LJ, Fang XM, Mercy J, Perou R, Grosse SD (2008). Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder symptoms and child maltreatment: a population-based study. *Journal of Pediatrics* **153**, 851–856.

Park S, Cho SC, Kim JW, Shin MS, Yoo HJ, Min Oh S, Hyun Han D, Hoon Cheong J, Kim BN (2014). Differential perinatal risk factors in children with attention-deficit/ hyperactivity disorder by subtype. *Psychiatry Research* **11**, 6743–6756.

Philibert R, Madan A, Andersen A, Cadoret R, Packer H, Sandhu H (2007). Serotonin transporter mRNA levels are associated with the methylation of an upstream CpG island. *American Journal of Medical Genetics Part B: Neuropsychiatric Genetics* 144B, 101–105.

Rampon C, Jiang CH, Dong H, Tang YP, Lockhart DJ, Schultz PG, Tsien JZ, Hu Y (2000). Effects of environmental enrichment on gene expression in the brain. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA* 97, 12880–12884.

Roth TL, Lubin FD, Funk AJ, Sweatt JD (2009). Lasting epigenetic influence of early-life adversity on the BDNF gene. *Biological Psychiatry* **65**, 760–769.

Shin MS, Cho S, Chun SY, Hong KE (2000). A study of the development and standardization of ADHD Diagnostic

System. Korean Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry 11, 91–99.

So YK, Noh JS, Kim YS, Ko SG, Koh YJ (2002). The reliability and validity of Korean parent and teacher ADHD rating scale. *Journal of Korean Neuropsychiatric Association* **41**, 283–289.

Szyf M (2013). The genome- and system-wide response of DNA methylation to early life adversity and its implication on mental health. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry* 58, 697–704.

van Mil NH, Steegers-Theunissen RP, Bouwland-Both MI, Verbiest MM, Rijlaarsdam J, Hofman A, Steegers EA, Heijmans BT, Jaddoe VW, Verhulst FC, Stolk L, Eilers PH, Uitterlinden AG, Tiemeier H (2014). DNA methylation profiles at birth and child ADHD symptoms. *Journal of Psychiatric Research* 49, 51–59.

Wahlund K, Kristiansson M (2009). Aggression, psychopathy and brain imaging – Review and future recommendations. *International Journal of Law and Psychiatry* **32**, 266–271.

Walderhaug E, Landro NI, Magnusson A (2008). A synergic effect between lowered serotonin and novel situations on impulsivity measured by CPT. *Journal of Clinical and Experimental Neuropsychology* 30, 204–211.

Wang D, Szyf M, Benkelfat C, Provencal N, Turecki G, Caramaschi D, Cote SM, Vitaro F, Tremblay RE, Booij L (2012). Peripheral SLC6A4 DNA methylation is associated with *in vivo* measures of human brain serotonin synthesis and childhood physical aggression. *PLoS ONE* 7, e39501.

Winstanley CA, Eagle DM, Robbins TW (2006). Behavioral models of impulsivity in relation to ADHD: translation between clinical and preclinical studies. *Clinical Psychology Review* 26, 379–395.

Zepf FD, Holtmann M, Stadler C, Demisch L, Schmitt M, Wockel L, Poustka F (2008). Diminished serotonergic functioning in hostile children with ADHD: tryptophan depletion increases behavioural inhibition. *Pharmacopsychiatry* **41**, 60–65.