

Whole-genome re-sequencing for the identification of high contribution susceptibility gene variants in patients with type 2 diabetes

XIAOJUAN SUN^{1,2*}, WEIGUO SUI^{3*}, XIAOBING WANG², XIANLIANG HOU³,
MINGLIN OU³, YONG DAI⁴ and YUEYING XIANG²

¹Department of Social Medicine and Health Service Management, College of Military Preventive Medicine,

Third Military Medical University, Chongqing 400038; ²Department of Health Management Center, 181st Hospital;

³Nephrology Department, 181st Hospital and Guangxi Key Laboratory of Metabolic Diseases Research, Guilin, Guangxi 541002;

⁴Department of Clinical Medical Research Center, The Second Clinical Medical College of Jinan University, Shenzhen People's Hospital, Shenzhen, Guangdong 518020, P.R. China

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Abstract. There is increasing evidence that several genes are associated with an increased risk of type 2 diabetes (T2D); genome-wide association investigations and whole-genome re-sequencing investigations offer a useful approach for the identification of genes involved in common human diseases. To further investigate which polymorphisms confer susceptibility to T2D, the present study screened for high-contribution susceptibility gene variants Chinese patients with T2D using whole-genome re-sequencing with DNA pooling. In total, 100 Chinese individuals with T2D and 100 healthy Chinese individuals were analyzed using whole-genome re-sequencing using DNA pooling. To minimize the likelihood of systematic bias in sampling, paired-end libraries with an insert size of 500 bp were prepared for in T2D in all samples, which were then subjected to whole-genome sequencing. Each library contained four lanes. The average sequencing depth was 35.70. In the present study, 1.36 GB of clean sequence data were generated, and the resulting calculated T2D genome consensus sequence covered 99.88% of the hg19 sequence. A total of

3,974,307 single nucleotide polymorphisms were identified, of which 99.88% were in the dbSNP database. The present study also found 642,189 insertions and deletions, 5,590 structure variants (SVs), 4,713 copy number variants (CNVs) and 13,049 single nucleotide variants. A total of 1,884 somatic CNVs and 74 somatic SVs were significantly different between the cases and controls. Therefore, the present study provided validation of whole-genome re-sequencing using the DNA pooling approach. It also generated a whole-genome re-sequencing genotype database for future investigations of T2D.

Introduction

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is a complex, multifactorial disorder characterized by chronic hyperglycemia due to the interplay of multiple genetic variants and several environmental factors. As a result of aging populations, and the increasing prevalence of obesity and physical inactivity, the number of patients with T2D has markedly increased worldwide (1). The disease is considered a polygenic disorder, in which each genetic variant confers a partial and additive effect. Only 5-10% of T2D cases are due to single gene defects; these include maturity-onset diabetes of the young, insulin resistance syndromes, mitochondrial diabetes and neonatal diabetes (2). Examining T2D susceptibility genes may be useful for the prediction, prevention and early treatment of the disease.

Following previous genome-wide association studies (GWAS), the number of replicated common genetic variants associated with T2D has rapidly increased (3-9). In addition, >40 T2D-associated genetic loci have been identified, however, these loci have been revealed primarily on the basis of investigations of European individuals (10). The identified genomes only explain a small proportion of the estimated heritability of T2D, suggesting that additional genetic factors remain to be identified. One limitation of GWAS is the large number of hypotheses and the high economic cost of these

Correspondence to: Mr. Yong Dai, Clinical Medical Research Center, The Second Clinical Medical College of Jinan University, Shenzhen People's Hospital, 1017 Dongmen North Road, Shenzhen, Guangdong 518020, P.R. China

E-mail: daiyong2222@gmail.com; daiyong22@aliyun.com

Mr. Yueying Xiang, Department of Health Management Center, 181st Hospital, 1 Xinqiaoyuan Road, Guilin, Guangxi 541002, P.R. China

E-mail: xiangyy181@163.com

*Contributed equally

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Table I. Clinical and biochemical characteristics of the 200 individuals recruited for re-sequencing.

Characteristic	ND (n=100)	T2D (n=100)
Gender (males/females)	63/37	55/45
Age (years)	60.1±11.8	5.4±0.6
HbA1c (%)	5.4±0.6	9.6±2.3
Fasting plasma glucose (mmol/l)	4.9±0.6	11.4±3.9
2-h OGTT-based plasma glucose (mmol/l)	6.0±0.4	13.5±2.1
Body mass index (kg/m ²)	24.0±1.5	31.7±5.0
Waist circumference (cm)	82.3±6.7	105.0±9.8
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	125.0±7.0	152.0±9.0
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	84.0±5.0	92.0±6.0

Data are presented as the mean ± standard deviation for normally distributed traits, or the median. ND, non-diabetic; T2D, type 2 diabetes; OGTT, oral glucose tolerance test.

Table II. Quality control of sequencing data.

Category	Data		Discarded reads (n)
	Raw	Clean	
Reads (n)	1,442,754,024	1,367,776,414	
Data size (bp)	129,847,862,160	123,099,877,260	
N of fq1 (n)	41,142,158	1,257,883	
N of fq2 (n)	130,903,222	3,072,470	
GC of fq1 (%)	39.62-39.82	39.47-39.7	
GC of fq2 (%)	39.69-39.97	39.56-39.78	
Q20 of fq1 (%)	96.16-97.06	97.12-97.76	
Q20 of fq2 (%)	90.02-93.33	93.88-95.97	
Q30 of fq1 (%)	90.13-92.30	91.28-93.20	
Q30 of fq2 (%)	82.31-87.61	86.04-90.21	
Discarded reads associated with N			4,639,892
Discarded reads due to low quality bases			69,293,920
Discarded reads associated with the adapter			1,043,798
Clean data/raw data (%)	94.80		

N, unknown bases more than 10%; Q20, recognition reliability of a base is equal to 99.0%; Q30, recognition reliability of a base is equal to 99.99%; fq1/2, file 1/2 of pair-end sequencing data; GC, the combination of bases G and C.

investigations (11). Several studies have addressed the feasibility and effectiveness of pooling-based GWAS, with considerable savings in time and cost (11-13). Additionally, whole-genome sequencing across multiple samples in a population provides an unprecedented opportunity for comprehensively characterizing the polymorphic variants in the population (14).

Although the genetic contribution to T2D is well recognized, there are now at least 19 loci containing genes, which are known to increase the risk of T2D, including PPARG, KCNJ11, KCNQ1, CDKAL1, CDKN2A-2B, CDC123-CAMK1D, MTNR1B, TCF7L2, TCF2 (HNF1B), HHEX-KIF11-IDE, JAZF1, IGF2BP2, SLC30A8, THADA, ADAMTS9, WFS1, FTO, NOTCH2 and TSPAN8 (2). To date, the current set of 66 established susceptibility loci, identified primarily through large-scale GWAS (2,8,15-22), encompasses, at most,

10% of the familial aggregation of the disease. Of the currently established susceptibility loci, nine of the loci are contained in the 19 loci-containing genes. In the present study, the genomes of 100 Chinese patients with T2D and 100 non-diabetic Chinese individuals were examined using high throughput genome-wide re-sequencing and DNA pooling with Illumina HiSeq 2000 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). The aim of the present study was to determine the rates of susceptibility genes in T2D in the Chinese population.

Materials and methods

Study populations. The present study was performed between August 2012 and the end of June 2013 at the 181st Hospital of People's Liberation Army, (Guilin, China). A total of

Table III. Alignment of quality control data.

Whole-genome statistic	Value
Clean reads (n)	1,367,776,414
Clean bases (bp)	123,099,877,260
Mapped reads	1,325,654,972
Mapped bases (bp)	117,572,810,280
Mapping rate (%)	96.92
Unique reads (n)	1,271,136,561
Unique bases (bp)	112,742,935,221
Unique rate (%)	95.89
Duplicate reads (n)	157,244,383
Duplicate rate (%)	11.86
Mismatch bases (bp)	481,007,764
Mismatch rate (%)	0.41
Average sequencing depth	35.70
Coverage (%)	99.88
Coverage of at least 4X (%)	99.38
Coverage of at least 10X (%)	97.98
Coverage of at least 20X (%)	93.02

200 Chinese individuals were recruited, of which half were diagnosed with T2D. All participants with T2D were unrelated, and their disease was defined by World Health Organization criteria (23). The healthy individuals had a fasting plasma glucose <5.6 mmol/l, a 2-h oral glucose tolerance test-based plasma glucose <7.8 mmol/l, a body mass index <27.5 kg/m² and blood pressure <140/90 mmHg, with no antihypertensive treatment. The clinical and biochemical characteristics of the 200 individuals are presented in Table I.

Ethics. The present study was approved by the Medical and Health Research Ethics Committee of the 181st Hospital of the People's Liberation Army (Guilin, China). All participants provided informed consent for the use of their biological samples for genetic investigation.

Experimental procedure. Peripheral blood samples from the 200 volunteers were collected for genomic DNA extraction. DNA preparation followed the manufacturer's protocol (Illumina). Genomic DNA was extracted and then randomly fragmented. Following electrophoresis, DNA fragments of desired length (90 bp) were gel purified using QIAquick PCR Purification kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden, Germany). Adapter ligation and DNA cluster preparation were performed as part of Solexa sequencing by Beijing Genomics Institute (Shenzhen, China) (24-26).

Bioinformatics analysis. The bioinformatics analysis used the sequencing data (raw data) generated from the Illumina HiSeq 2000. First, the adapter sequence in the raw data was removed, and low quality reads, which contained too many unknown bases (N) or low quality bases were discarded. This step produced 'clean data'. Secondly, Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA) (27) was used to align the reads to the reference sequence. The alignment information was stored in

Table IV. Single nucleotide polymorphism data.

Category	Value
Total (n)	3,974,307
1000 genome and dbSNP135 (n)	3,911,119
1000 genome-specific (n)	1,712
dbSNP135-specific (n)	58,466
dbSNP rate (%)	99.88
Novel (n)	3,010
Homozygous (n)	475,874
Heterozygous (n)	3,498,433
Synonymous (n)	11,723
Missense (n)	9,897
Stopgain (n)	76
Stoploss (n)	31
Exonic (n)	21,422
Exonic and splicing (n)	305
Splicing (n)	155
ncRNA (n)	97,213
UTR5 (n)	4,043
UTR5 and UTR3 (n)	14
UTR3 (n)	25,860
Intronic (n)	1,382,366
Upstream (n)	18,977
Upstream and downstream (n)	582
Downstream (n)	22,165
Intergenic (n)	2,401,205
Sorting intolerant from tolerant (n)	1,201
Ti/Tv (n)	2.1030
dbSNP Ti/Tv (n)	2.1043
Novel Ti/Tv (n)	1.1923

UTR, untranslated region; ncRNA, non-coding RNA; dbSNP, SNP database; Ti/Tv, ratio of transition to transversion.

BAM format files, which were further processed during subsequent steps, including fixing mate-pair information, adding read group information and marking duplicate reads caused by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Following these processes, the final BAM files were ready for variant calling. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were detected using SOAPsnp (28), small insertion/deletions (InDels) were detected using SAMtools (29)/GATK (30,31), copy number variants (CNVs) were detected using CNVnator (32,33), single nucleotide variants (SNVs) were detected using VarScan (34) and somatic InDels were detected using GATK. Structure variants (SVs) and somatic CNVs were identified using BreakDancer (35)/CREST/SeekSV (self-method) and a self-method based on the SegSeq (36) algorithm, respectively. Virus integration sites were identified using a self-method based on unmapped reads. The procedure also included purity estimation. Subsequently, filters were applied to obtain variant results of higher confidence and, based on which subsequent advanced analysis could be performed, ANNOVAR (37) was used to annotate the variant results. Quality control was required at

Table V. List of 77 single nucleotide polymorphism loci in 37 genes identified in the present study.

Gene	Function	Exonic function	dbSNP135	SIFT	PolyPhen2	Chr	Ref	Obs	Het/hom
ANK1	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2304880			8	G	A	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2304873				C	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2304871				G	A	Het
ANKRD55	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs321775			5	T	C	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs321776	1	0		C	T	Het
BCAR1	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs3169330			16	A	G	Hom
	exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs3743613				C	T	Het
GRB14	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs61748245	0.27	0.009	2	A	T	Het
CAMK1D	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1757051			10	C	G	Het
TSPAN8	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs1051334	1	0	12	A	C	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2270587				G	A	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs3763978	0.08	0.981		C	G	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs79443892	0.73	0		C	T	Het
THADA	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs17031056	0.34		2	C	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs11899823				A	G	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs13021894				T	C	Het
ADAMTS9	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs17070905		0.057	3	C	T	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs6787633		0		G	C	Het
BCL11A	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs7569946			2	A	G	Hom
KCNQ1	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1057128			11	G	A	Het
HNF1A	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1169289			12	C	G	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs1169288	0.09	0.052		A	C	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2259820				C	T	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs2464196	0.06	0.053		G	A	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs1169305	0.4	0.423999		A	G	Hom
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs7172758	1	0		15	G	T
PRC1	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2301826			11	C	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs326214				G	A	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs326217				T	C	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs1051006	0.19	0		G	A	Het
MADD	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1017594			10	T	C	Hom
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1800038				C	A	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs806052	0.38	0		9	A	G
SLC2A2	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs5398			3	G	A	Het
C2CD4B	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs8040712	0.34	0	15	A	C	Het
PTPRD	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2279776			9	C	G	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2281747				A	G	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs35929428	0.09	0.016		G	A	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs7026388				T	C	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs3763653				G	A	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs8040712	0.34	0		15	A	C
GRB14	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs61748245	0.27	0.009	2	A	T	Het
GLIS3	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs806052	0.38	0	9	A	G	Hom
PEPD	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs17569			19	G	A	Het
FITM2	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs6073401			20	T	C	Hom
KCNK16	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs11756091	0.03	0	6	G	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs11753141				G	A	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs1535500	0.12			G	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs3734618				A	G	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs3734619				C	T	Het
MAEA	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1128427	0.13		4	T	C	Het
PAX4	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs712701	1	0	7	T	G	Het

Table V. Continued.

Gene	Function	Exonic Function	dbSNP135	SIFT	PolyPhen2	Chr	Ref	Obs	Het/hom
GCC1	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs3735644			7	G	A	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs3735642				A	G	Het
KCNJ11	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs5215	0.31	0.002	11	C	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs5218				G	A	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs5219	0.36	0		T	C	Het
KCNQ1	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1057128			11	G	A	Het
CDKAL1	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs9350269			6	C	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs9465994				G	A	Het
HHEX	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs113121942			10	G	A	Het
SLC30A8	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs13266634	0.04	0	8	C	T	Het
WFS1	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs1801212	1	0	4	G	A	Hom
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1801206				C	T	Hom
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1801214				C	T	Hom
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs734312	0.02	0.99		G	A	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs1046314				G	A	Hom
TCF7L2	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs77961654	0.15	0.996	10	C	A	Het
THADA	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs17031056	0.34		2	C	T	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs11899823				A	G	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs13021894				T	C	Het
ADAMTS9	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs17070905		0.057	3	C	T	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs6787633		0		G	C	Het
TSPAN8	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs1051334	1	0	12	A	C	Het
	Exonic	Synonymous SNV	rs2270587				G	A	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs3763978	0.08	0.981		C	G	Het
	Exonic	Nonsynonymous SNV	rs79443892	0.73	0		C	T	Het

SNV, single nucleotide variant; Chr, chromosome.; dbSNP, SNP database; Ref, reference genotype; Het, heterozygous; Hom, homozygous; Obs, observed.

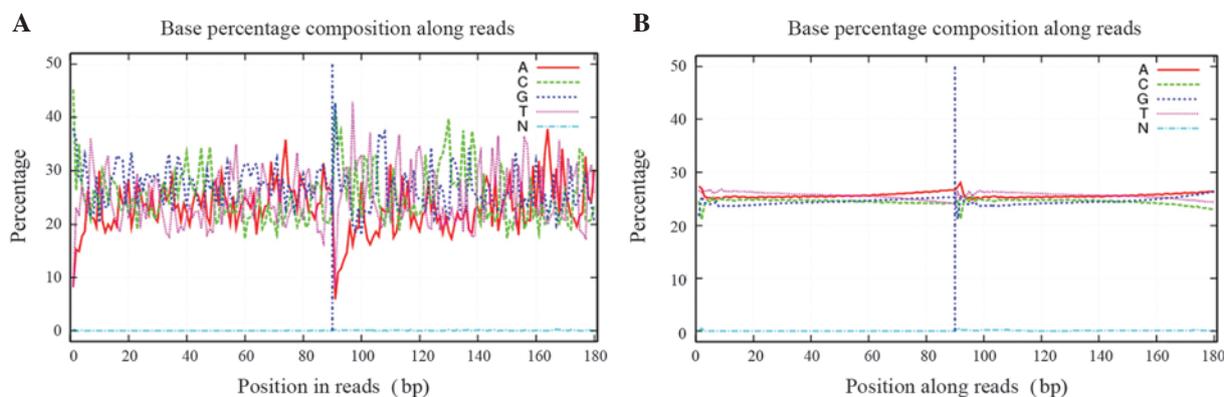


Figure 1. Base composition analysis. (A) Unbalanced base composition of raw reads. On the x-axis, position 1-90 bp represents read 1, and 91-180 bp represents read 2. Normal conditions show the A curve overlapped with the T curve, and the G curve overlapped with the C curve. Abnormal conditions during sequencing may show an unbalanced composition. (B) Balanced base composition of raw reads. On the x-axis, position 1-90 bp represents read 1, and 91-180 bp represents read 2. A balanced composition is shown, with the A curve overlapped with the T curve, and the G curve overlapped with the C curve.

each stage of analysis to ensure clean data, alignment and variants. SIFT (38) was used to assess the likely phenotypic effect of identified missense mutations. PolyPhen-2 (39) analysis was performed to calculate the probability of an identified mutation as deleterious for disease pathogenesis.

Sequencing quality control. The raw reads, which contained the adapter sequence, a high content of unknown bases and low quality reads were removed prior to data analysis. The filtering steps were as follows: i) Removal of adapter reads. An adapter read was defined as a read that included the adapter bases,

Table VI. Insertion/deletion data.

Category	Value
Total	642,189
1000 genome and dbSNP135	314,143
1000 genome specific	81,476
dbSNP135 specific	125,867
dbSNP rate (%)	68.52
Novel	120,703
Homozygous	103,137
Heterozygous	539,052
Frameshift insertion	120
Non-frameshift insertion	88
Frameshift deletion	99
Non-frameshift deletion	110
Frameshift block substitution	0
Non-frameshift block substitution	0
Stopgain	2
Stoploss	1
Exonic	415
Exonic and splicing	5
Splicing	77
ncRNA	16,036
UTR5	457
UTR5 and UTR3	3
UTR3	5,172
Intronic	225,732
Upstream	3,326
Upstream and downstream	102
Downstream	4,324
Intergenic	386,540

SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; UTR, untranslated region; dbSNP, dbSNP database; ncRNA, non-coding RNA.

which were removed from the raw FASTQ data; ii) removal of low-quality reads. If more than half of the bases in a read were low-quality, defined as a base quality ≤ 5 , the read was treated as a low-quality read and removed from the raw FASTQ data; iii) removal of reads in which unknown bases were $>10\%$. The 'clean reads' were then used for downstream bioinformatics analysis. Finally statistical analysis was performed for data interpretation. The quality of the clean data is shown in Figs. 1 and 2.

Alignment quality control. The human genome build37 (hg19) was used as the reference genome in the present study. The whole-genome size of hg19 is 3,137,161,264 bp, whereas the effective size is 2,861,327,131 bp, following exclusion of the N bases, random regions, hap regions, and chromosome Un and chromosome M in the reference sequence. BWA was used to align the reference genome sequence for sequencing reads. Picard (broadinstitute.github.io/picard) was used to mark duplicated reads, which were redundant information produced by PCR.

Table VII. Structure variant data.

Category	Value
Total	5,590
Insertion	348
Deletion	5,002
Inversion	14
ITX	122
CTX	104
Exonic	3
Exonic and splicing	3
Splicing	7
ncRNA	133
UTR5	3
UTR5 and UTR3	0
UTR3	9
Intronic	1,875
Upstream	15
Upstream and downstream	0
Downstream	31
Intergenic	3,511

UTR, untranslated region; ncRNA, non-coding RNA; ITX, inversion; CTX, translocation.

Table VIII. Copy number variant data.

Category	Value
Total	4,713
Exonic	930
Exonic and splicing	0
Splicing	242
ncRNA	165
UTR5	1
UTR5 and UTR3	0
UTR3	9
Intronic	1,026
Upstream	56
Upstream and downstream	6
Downstream	36
Intergenic	2,242
Amplification size	13,445,200
Deletion size	84,646,400

UTR, untranslated region, ncRNA, non-coding RNA.

Results

Quality control of sequencing data. To minimize the likelihood of systematic bias during sampling, two paired-end libraries with insert sizes of 500 bp were prepared for all samples and were subjected to whole-genome sequencing. Each library comprised four lanes, resulting in at least 30-fold

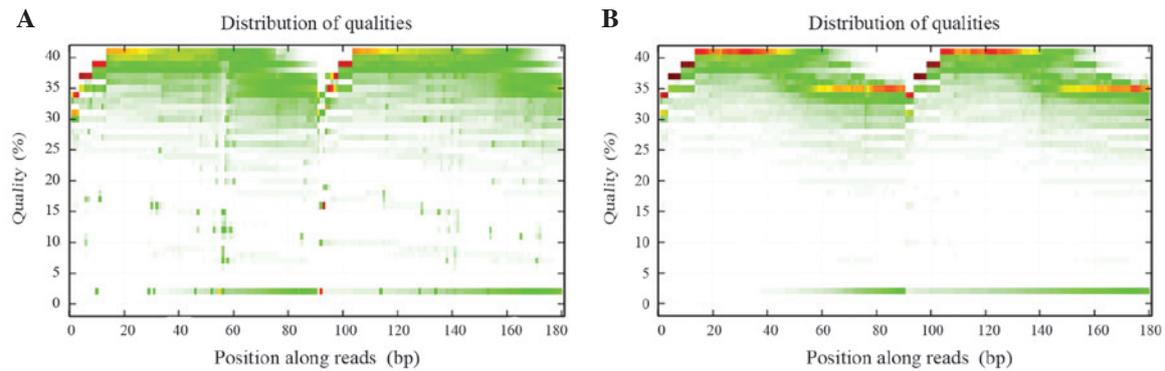


Figure 2. Evaluation of quality distribution. (A) Low quality distribution of bases along reads. On the horizontal axis, position 1-90 bp represents read 1, and 91-180 bp represents read 2. The vertical axis represents the quality value. Each dot in the image represents the quality value of the corresponding position along the reads. If the percentage of bases with low quality (<20) is high, then the sequencing quality of this lane is poor. (B) If the percentage of the bases showing low quality (<20) is low, then the sequencing quality of this lane is good.

Table IX. Single nucleotide variant statistics (healthy control, vs. T2D).

Category	Value
Total	13,049
1000 genome and dbSNP135	12,655
1000 genome specific	11
dbSNP135 specific	282
dbSNP rate (%)	99.14
Novel	101
Hom	0
Het	13,049
Synonymous	52
Missense	36
Stopgain	0
Stoploss	0
Exonic	88
Exonic and splicing	0
Splicing	1
ncRNA	305
UTR5	15
UTR5 and UTR3	0
UTR3	112
Intronic	4,638
Upstream	73
Upstream and downstream	0
Downstream	74
Intergenic	7,743
Sorting Intolerant from Tolerant	7
Ti/Tv	2.1188
dbSNP Ti/Tv	2.1324
Novel Ti/Tv	1.0612

UTR, untranslated region; ncRNA, non-coding RNA; dbSNP, SNP database.

Table X. Somatic insertion and deletion statistics (healthy control, vs. T2D).

Category	Value
1000 genome and dbSNP135	1,249
1000 genome specific	688
dbSNP135 specific	310
dbSNP rate (%)	42.19
Novel	1,448
Hom	3,695
Het	0
Frameshift insertion	0
Non-frameshift insertion	0
Frameshift deletion	1
Non-frameshift deletion	3
Frameshift block substitution	0
Non-frameshift block substitution	0
Stopgain	0
Stoploss	0
Exonic	4
Exonic and splicing	0
Splicing	1
ncRNA	93
UTR5	4
UTR5 and UTR3	0
UTR3	32
Intronic	1,242
Upstream	16
Upstream and downstream	0
Downstream	27
Intergenic	2,276

UTR, untranslated region; ncRNA, non-coding RNA; dbSNP, SNP database.

haploid coverage for each sample. The raw image files were processed using the Illumina pipeline for base calling;

default parameters and the sequences of each individual were generated as 90-bp-paired-end reads. A total of 144.3 GB raw sequence data were generated in a sequencing depth of

Table XI. Somatic copy number variant analysis (healthy control, vs, T2D).

Category	Value
Total	1,884
Exonic	185
Exonic and splicing	0
Splicing	21
ncRNA	41
UTR5	0
UTR5 and UTR3	0
UTR3	6
Intronic	538
Upstream	14
Upstream and downstream	0
Downstream	17
Intergenic	1,062
Amplification size	1,372,716
Deletion size	1,879,767

UTR, untranslated region; ncRNA, non-coding RNA.

Table XII. Somatic structure variant statistics (healthy control, vs. T2D).

Category	Value
Total	74
Insertion	6
Deletion	58
Inversion	0
ITX	2
CTX	8
Exonic	0
Exonic and splicing	0
Splicing	0
ncRNA	0
UTR5	0
UTR5 and UTR3	0
UTR3	0
Intronic	24
Upstream	0
Upstream and downstream	0
Downstream	0
Intergenic	50

UTR, untranslated region, ncRNA, non-coding RNA.

~30-fold. As shown in Table II, comparison was performed between the raw and clean data, which were detected using whole-genome re-sequencing.

Alignment of quality control data. The resulting calculated T2D genome consensus sequence covered 99.88% of the hg19

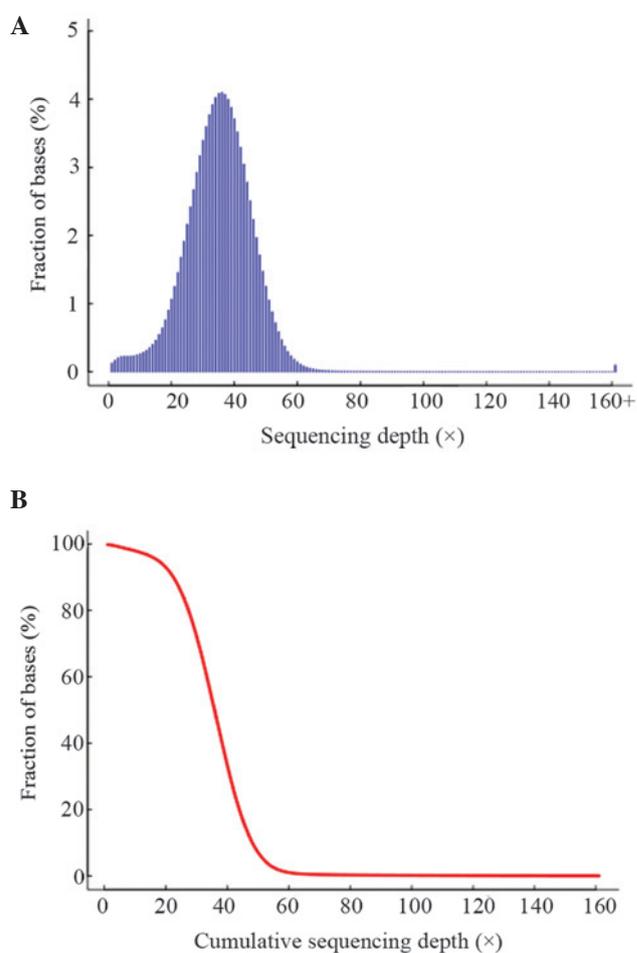


Figure 3. Distribution of per-base sequencing depth and cumulative depth distribution. (A) Distribution of per-base sequencing depth. The x-axis denotes sequencing depth, the y-axis indicates the percentage of the total target region at a given sequencing depth. (B) Plot of cumulative depth distribution in target regions. The x-axis denotes sequencing depth, the y-axis indicates the fraction of bases at or above a given sequencing depth.

sequence. At a depth of 10-fold, the assembled consensus covered 97.98% of the reference genome using two paired-end reads. Thus, increased sequencing depth provided only a marginal increase in genome coverage. The alignment quality control results are shown in Table III. The distribution of per-base sequencing depth and cumulative depth distribution in the target regions are presented in Fig. 3. The data approximately followed a Poisson distribution, which showed that the exome-capturing target region was evenly sampled.

SNP analysis. The genotype with the highest probability at a given locus was identified for each individual sequencing sample, and the consensus sequence of the sample was assembled and saved in CNS format. Using the consensus sequence, the polymorphic loci between the identified genotype and the reference were filtered and highlighted; this constitutes the high confident SNP dataset. Following the identification of the SNPs, ANNOVAR was used to perform annotation and classification.

The results revealed that 99.88% of the T2D SNPs were present in dbSNP, and there were 3,010 novel SNPs (Table IV). A total of 485 SNPs were screened, for which the SIFT score

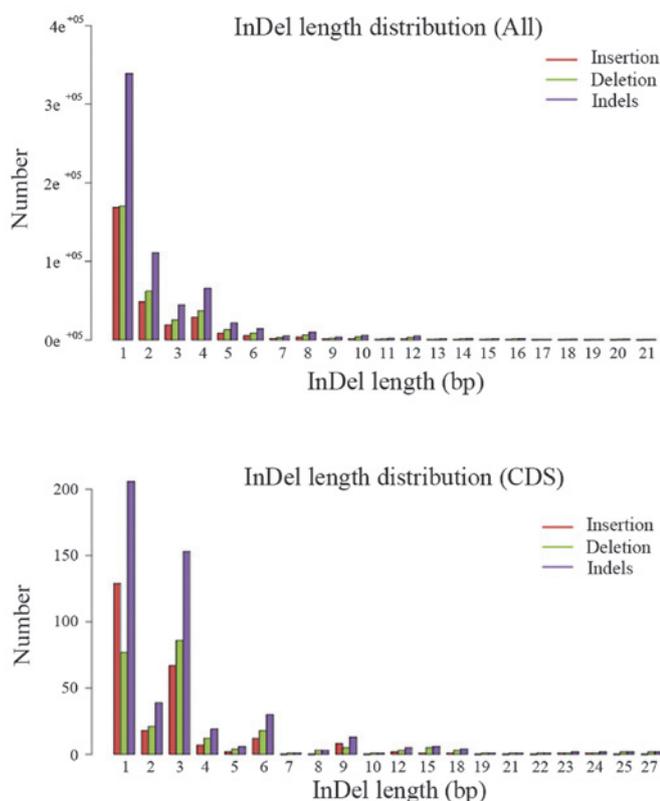


Figure 4. Length distribution of InDels in the CDS region. The results show the numbers of peaks present at specific InDel lengths. InDels with this periodicity are non-frameshift InDels, which have a relatively small effect on the genome, compared with frameshift InDels. InDel, insertion and deletion; CDS, coding sequence.

was <0.05 , and the PolyPhen score was >0.85 . These features suggested the pathological nature of the identified genetic variation. Of these 485 SNPs, 480 SNPs were found at exonic regions. The remaining SNPs were at exonic and splicing regions. All the SNPs were nonsynonymous genes. Compared with the 76 loci-containing genes causing an increased risk of T2D, 77 SNP loci were identified in 37 genes (Table V).

InDel analysis. To detect the InDels, the present study used pair-end reads for gap alignment using the mpileup program in SAM tools. Following identification of the InDels, ANNOVAR was used for annotation and classification. Of the 642,189 identified InDels, the percentage that overlapped the dbSNP InDels was 68.52% (Table VI). The length distribution of the InDels in the whole target region and CDS region were also plotted (Fig. 4). The length distribution of InDel in CDS region indicated that peaks are present at 3, 6 and 9 bp length, the InDels with this periodicity are non-frameshift InDels, they have relatively small effect on the genome comparing with frameshift InDels.

SV, CNV and SNV analyses. When aligning the paired-end reads, if a structure variation existed between the sequencing and the reference sequences, the requirements for pair-end alignment, also termed the PE map, may not be met; thus, these anomalous read pairs and soft clip reads were used in the present study to detect SVs. The resulting list of the SVs, that were detected at the whole-genome level are listed in Table VII.

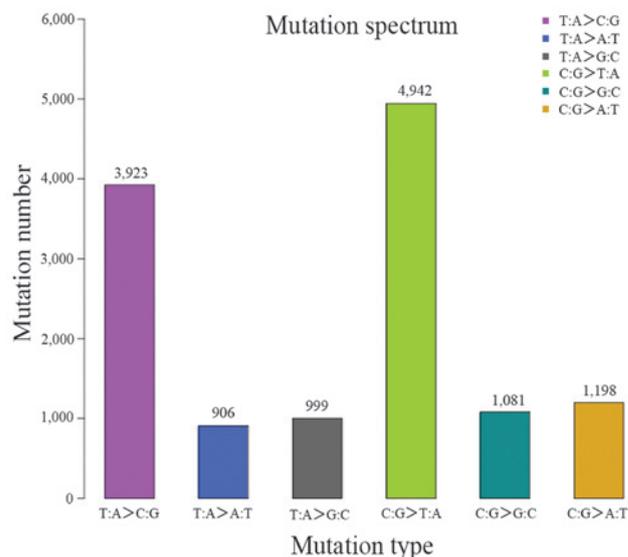


Figure 5. Somatic mutation spectrum of the whole-genome.

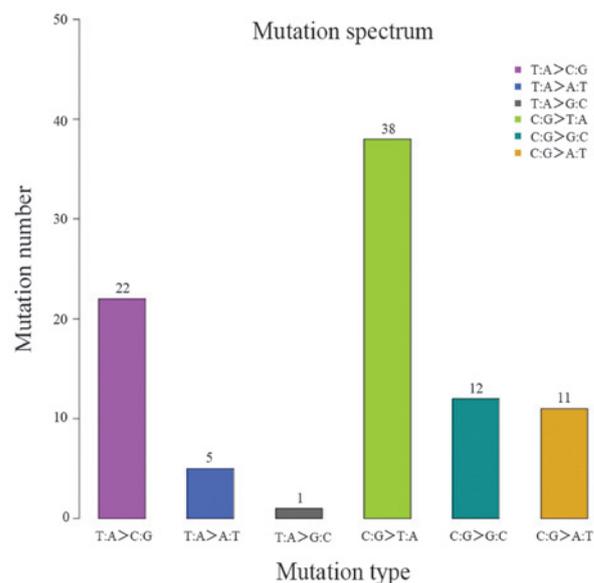


Figure 6. Somatic mutation spectrum of the CDS region.

The CNVs of each sample were detected using CNVnator. Following identification of the CNVs, ANNOVAR was used for annotation and classification (Table VIII). Varscan was used to identify specific SNVs by simultaneously comparing read counts, base quality and allele frequency between the healthy individuals and patients with type 2 diabetes. Following identification of the SNVs, ANNOVAR was again used for annotation and classification (Table IX and Figs. 5 and 6).

Analyses of somatic InDels, somatic CNVs and somatic SVs. In the sufficiently covered sites, the initial call was produced in the type 2 diabetes sample and then compared with the normal sample to detect evidence for the event. If there was no evidence to support the InDel event in the normal sample, the site was considered to be a putative somatic InDel. In total, there were 1,249 somatic InDels in 1,000 genome and

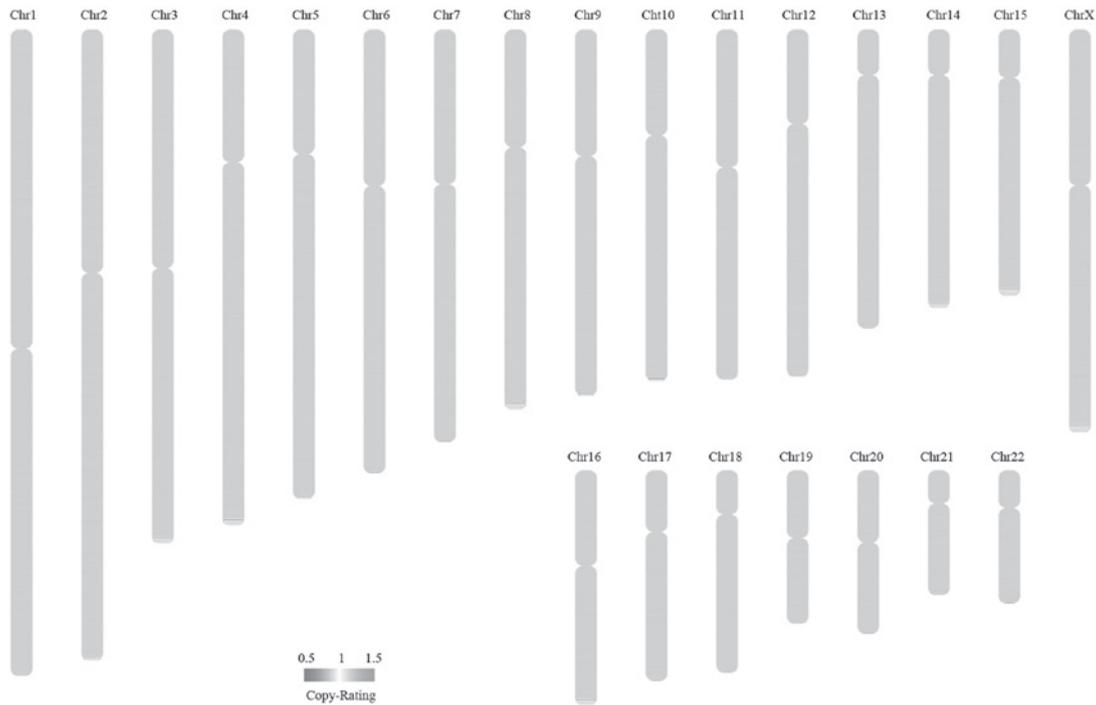


Figure 7. Overview of somatic copy number variants. Chr, chromosome.

dbSNP135, 688 in 1,000 genome specific, and 310 dbSNP135 specific. The results of the statistical analyses are provided in Table X. The dbSNP rate was 42.19%, and without heterozygous.

Somatic CNVs correspond to relatively large regions of the genome, which are either deleted and fewer than the normal number, or duplicated and more than the normal number, on certain chromosomes. The results of the somatic CNVs analyses are shown in Table XI, and the somatic CNV overview is plotted in Fig. 7.

In the sufficiently covered sites, the initial call was produced in the type 2 diabetes sample and then compared with the normal sample to detect evidence for the event. If there was no evidence to support the SV event in the normal sample, this event was considered to be a putative somatic SV. The results of the somatic SV statistical analyses are presented in Table XII.

Discussion

In the present study, whole-genome re-sequencing was performed with DNA pooling to investigate T2D in Chinese individuals. In total, 1.44 GB of raw data were generated in a short period of time. Among the data obtained, 3,010 novel SNPs and 120,703 novel InDels were found. In addition, 5,590 SVs, 4,713 CNVs and 13,049 SNVs were identified. There was a significant difference between cases and controls in 1,884 somatic CNVs and 74 somatic SVs. These findings improve current understanding of the genetic basis of T2D and offer insight for future investigations.

Among the identified genes, only rs734312 in WFS1 (with a SIFT score 0.02 and a PolyPhen score of 0.99) suggested a pathologic nature. It was also found that, even in the same

genes, the associated loci were different in the present study. Although >30 genetic susceptibility loci have been found in the comparison of 76 genes, the most frequently reported variants have small to moderate effects, and account for only a small proportion of the heritability of T2D, suggesting that the majority of inter-person genetic variation in this disease remains to be elucidated (20).

KCNQ1 (40), UBE2E2 and C2CD4A-C2CD4B (19) have been identified as T2D susceptibility genes in three GWA scans in Japanese individuals. The combined analyses identified GLIS3, PEPD, FITM2-R3HDML-HNF4A, KCNK16, MAEA, GCC1-PAX4, PSMD6 and ZFAND3 as T2D loci reaching genome-wide significance in East Asia (22). PTPRD and SRR have been identified as diabetes susceptibility loci in a study of a Han Chinese population (2). In the present study, the SNP loci in the UBE2E2, PSMD6, ZFAND3 and SRR genes were not found. The results of the present study suggested that, in different patient populations, different genes may confer risks for diabetes, which may lead to more complex study designs for investigating the molecular pathogenesis of T2D.

A simple, but important observation was that DNA pooling provides a highly effective approach for examining the genetic underpinnings of common familial diseases. DNA pooling has been confirmed to be an effective and efficient method to select candidate susceptibility loci for follow-up by individual genotyping (12,13,41). This indicates that the use of GWAS for a large number of cases and controls are technically and financially feasible. Additional findings of particular interest include the large-scale examination of possible genetic variants. The present study demonstrated novel, significant associations, including SNPs, CNVs, InDels and SNVs.

The present study indicated general recommendations, which are relevant to whole-genome re-sequencing using

DNA pooling. The first recommendation is associated with the importance of careful quality control. In the present study, 144.3 GB of raw data were generated from the Illumina pipeline, which contained too many Ns or low quality bases. Small systematic differences can readily produce effects capable of obscuring true associations from being identified (42,43). The present study implemented extensive quality control checks to minimize differences in the clean data, alignment and called variants.

The sequencing method used in the present study also resulted in sequence redundancy reaching an average of 35.70-fold. Thus, the consensus sequence accuracy was higher and particularly suitable for calling heterozygous alleles. Whole-genome re-sequencing with DNA pooling technologies is high throughput technique, as one hundred million DNA fragments can be sequenced in parallel on one chip. The Illumina HiSeq 2000 platform from Illumina used in the present study can provide up to 55 GB of high-quality data per day. In this regard, it was possible to undertake comprehensive assessments of the variants within the regions of interest using this high-throughput and time efficient method.

Thirty years ago, James V. Neel (44) labeled T2D as 'the geneticist's nightmare', describing the identification of genetic factors in T2D as challenging. Numerous investigations on candidate genes for T2D have been published; however, the various approaches, including high-throughput gene scanning and gene and pedigree analysis have not been entirely successful in identifying robustly replicating T2D-susceptibility loci. Ultimately, with large samples and worldwide collaboration, novel risk factors for diabetes are likely be identified using whole-genome re-sequencing technology.

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