

1 **Common and distinct genetic architecture of age at diagnosis of diabetes in South
2 Indian and European populations**

3 Sundararajan Srinivasan¹, Samuel Liju², Natarajan Sathish², Moneeza K Siddiqui¹, Ranjit Mohan
4 Anjana², Ewan R. Pearson¹, Alexander S.F. Doney¹, Viswanathan Mohan MD², Venkatesan
5 Radha², Colin N.A Palmer^{1*}

6

7 ¹Division of Population Health and Genomics, Ninewells Hospital and School of Medicine,
8 University of Dundee, Dundee, DD1 9SY, United Kingdom.

9 ²Madras Diabetes Research Foundation and Dr Mohan's Diabetes Specialities Centre, Chennai,
10 India

11 **Short title:** GWAS of Age at onset of Type 2 diabetes in South Indians and White Europeans

12

13 Manuscript word count (not including tables, figures, and references): 4092

14

15

16 **ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE:**

17 Professor Colin NA. Palmer

18 Email: c.n.a.palmer@dundee.ac.uk.

19 Division of Population Health and Genomics, Ninewells Hospital and Medical School, University
20 of Dundee, United Kingdom.

21

22 **Abstract**

23 South Asians are diagnosed with type 2 diabetes (T2D) more than a decade earlier in life
24 than seen in European populations. We hypothesised that studying the genomics of age
25 of onset in these populations may give insight into earlier age at onset of T2D among
26 individuals of South Asian descent. We conducted a meta-analysis of GWAS of age at
27 diagnosis of T2D in 34,001 individuals from four independent cohorts of European and
28 Asian Indians. We identified two signals near the *TCF7L2* and *CDKAL1* associated with
29 age at onset of T2D. The strongest genome-wide significant variants at chromosome
30 10q25.3 in *TCF7L2* (lead SNP rs7903146; $p = 2.4 \times 10^{-12}$; p-het =0.01; Beta = -0.436; SE
31 = 0.02) and chromosome 6 p22.3 in *CDKAL1* (rs9368219; $p = 2.29 \times 10^{-8}$; p-het =0.007;
32 Beta = -0.053; SE=0.01) were directionally consistent across ethnic groups and present
33 at similar frequencies, however both loci harboured additional independent signals that
34 were only present in the South Asian cohorts. A genome wide signal was also obtained
35 at chromosome 10q26.12 in *WDR11* (rs3011366; $p = 2.4 \times 10^{-8}$; p-het =0.25; Beta = 1.44;
36 SE=0.25) specifically in the South Asian Indian cohorts. Our study estimated 17% of
37 heritability (h^2) for age onset of T2D among South Indians; higher than the 5% heritability
38 we observed in Europeans suggesting different genetic architectures between these
39 populations. We further estimated the Asian Indian genome-wide polygenic risk score for
40 T2D risk and identified that the variance explained by the Indian specific polygenic risk
41 score (PRS) for age at onset of T2D is substantially higher (2%) in an independent cohort
42 of Asian Indians compared to that seen in White Europeans (<0.1%). This reveals that
43 although variants do exist that are shared between the two population there are also
44 genetic disparities of age onset of T2D between the ethnicities.

45 **Author Summary**

46 Recent large multi-ancestry genome-wide meta-analyses have identified over 277 genetic
47 loci associated with type 2 diabetes (T2D). Most association studies for T2D have focused
48 on populations of European ancestry, and the specific genetic architecture of T2D in the
49 South Asian population has not been extensively investigated. Increasing evidence
50 indicates that the prevalence of T2D is higher in South Asians with a strikingly earlier age
51 at diagnosis when compared to Europeans. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS)
52 on age at diagnosis of T2D are limited and can help elucidate underlying
53 mechanisms. We conducted the largest meta-analysis to date of genome-wide
54 association studies of age at diagnosis as a surrogate for age of onset of T2D in South
55 Indians and Europeans. Our trans-ancestry meta-analysis identified genetic loci near
56 *TCF7L2* and *CDKAL1* with substantial ethnic heterogeneity in both allele frequencies and
57 effect sizes in early diagnosis with T2D. Two novel variants near *TCF7L2* (rs570193324)
58 and *CDKAL1* (rs143316471) were associated with age of diagnosis of T2D only in South
59 Indians and were present at much lower frequency in the European populations.
60 Heritability estimates for age of onset were much stronger in Asian Indians compared to
61 Europeans and a polygenic risk score was constructed using a South Indians, which
62 explained about 2% trait variance compared to European ancestry (<0.1%). Our novel
63 findings provide a better understanding of ethnic differences in the age at onset of T2D
64 and indicate the potential importance of ethnic differences in the genetic architecture
65 underpinning T2D.

66 **Introduction**

67

68 Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is a multifactorial disease characterised by impaired insulin action

69 and pancreatic islet dysfunction. The global prevalence of T2D is a pivotal driver of

70 cardiovascular and renal disease[1–3] affecting hundreds of millions of people globally

71 and is responsible for long-term complications, decreased quality of life, and increased

72 mortality[4–7]. Improved understanding the intrinsic genomic and phenotypic

73 heterogeneity driving T2D has major potential for improvement of its clinical management

74 and reducing morbidity and mortality. South Asian Indians have an earlier age of onset of

75 diabetes compared to Europeans and mounting evidence suggests this is associated with

76 earlier mortality emphasising the need to delay or prevent the onset of T2D in this ethnic

77 group[8,9]. South Asians with newly diagnosed diabetes may have a higher risk for

78 microvascular complications than Europeans[10]. Recent studies highlight that higher

79 cardiovascular mortality and disease risk is associated with early onset of T2D diagnosis

80 compared to individuals with delayed onset of the disease [11]. South Asians (individuals

81 originating from India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh) are genetically more diverse than the

82 white Europeans, and the prevalence of T2D is much higher in this ethnic group than other

83 ethnic backgrounds [14–16].

84 Currently nearly 250 genetic loci (more than 400 unique genetic variants) have been

85 identified that influence T2D[2,12,13]. Several of these genetic loci have only been

86 identified in European study populations. A trans-ethnic meta-analysis of European and

87 East Asian populations reported several T2D risk variants with significant allelic frequency

88 heterogeneity[14]. Such frequency differences between ethnic populations affects the

89 power to detect genomic signals within a specific ethnic subgroup. A recent study reported

90 that migrant South Asians are more insulin resistant and have poorer β -cell function at a
91 younger age than White Europeans [17]. Previously identified genetic variants explained
92 about (~10%) of the heritability of T2D [15].

93 Despite advancement in genetic research tools, South Indian specific studies are minimal
94 compared to European ancestry. To our knowledge, no GWAS has been published that
95 addresses the age at diagnosis of T2D in people of South Asian Indian ethnicity and
96 compare this with European populations. We aimed to identify novel genetic determinants
97 that influence the risk of younger age of diagnosis in two distinct ethnic backgrounds more
98 specifically in South Asians and Europeans. We aimed to develop, evaluate, and
99 understand a T2D age at diagnosis PRS in Asian Indians (DMDSC) and Europeans
100 (GoSHARE) used in the study cohort. In this multicentre study, we focused on inter-
101 ancestry differences in the genetics of age at onset of T2D that might influence ethnic-
102 ancestry differences in health outcomes in general and T2D.

103 **Results**

104 A total of 34,001 participants with T2D were included for this study after-quality control
105 filtering: 8,295 T2D patients of Asian Indians ancestry from a large tertiary diabetes centre,
106 Dr Mohan's Diabetes Specialties Centre (DMDSC), 6,999 patients of European ancestry
107 from Genetics of Diabetes Audit and Research Tayside and Scotland (GoDARTS)[16],
108 4,155 patients of European ancestry from Scottish Health Research Register
109 (SHARE)[17] and 14,552 T2D participants from United Kingdom Biobank (UKBB). We
110 identified participants of European (N=13,744) and South Asian Indians (808) in the UKBB
111 using principal components (PCs) analysis of genome-wide data and found that this was
112 consistent with self-reported ancestry information (Supplement Fig 1). A detailed
113 illustration of the study design is presented in Fig 1. The population characteristics of the

114 cohorts are described in Table 1. Notably, we observed the average age of diagnosis of
115 T2D in the Asian Indians was 40 years, whereas in the white Europeans, the mean age
116 of diagnosis was 60 years.

117 **SNP-based heritability**

118 Using the LDSC tools, we estimated the SNP-based heritability for Age onset of T2D in
119 Asian Indians was 17% (SE 6%) but was only 5% (SE 2%) for Europeans.

120 **Trans-ethnic Meta-analysis of GWAS for age of T2D diagnosis**

121 The genome-wide association analyses of age at diagnosis of type 2 diabetes were
122 conducted for each cohort separately using a linear mixed model as implemented in
123 BOLT-LMM. We then conducted trans-ancestry meta-analyses by utilising Haplotype
124 Reference Consortium (HRC) imputed data up to 26.2 million SNPs directly genotyped or
125 successfully imputed at high quality across all the data sets. Association statistics and P
126 values for heterogeneity were combined using fixed-effects meta-analyses as
127 implemented in METAL [18]. Our meta-analysis revealed two previously known T2D loci
128 at chromosome 10 q25.2 near Transcription factor 7-like 2 (rs79603146, *TCF7L2*, $P < 2.4$
129 $\times 10^{-12}$, Beta -0.436; SE = 0.02; P-het =0.01) and at chromosome 6p22.3 cyclin-dependent
130 kinase 5 (*CDK5*) regulatory subunit-associated protein 1-like 1 (*CDKAL1*) (rs9368219, P
131 $< 2.29 \times 10^{-8}$, Beta -0.053; SE 0.01; P-het =0.007) associated with T2D age-diagnosis (Fig
132 2). The allelic frequency of *CDKAL1* is more common in DMDSC Asian Indian cohort (MAF
133 = 0.26) compared to Caucasians (MAF =0.18) The lead SNPs at *TCF7L2* and *CDKAL1*
134 (Fig 3A and 4A) locus demonstrated consistent allelic direction across all cohorts, with the
135 risk alleles associated with lower age of diagnosis, however, a large difference was
136 observed in the size of the estimate of the effects between the South Indian and European

137 cohorts explaining that variation in allelic effect estimates is presumably due to their
138 genetic ancestry it being . Interestingly the effect size of the variants was much lower in
139 the cohorts of European descent. Ethnic-specific meta-analysis results are presented in
140 supplement tables.

141

142 **Stratification of Type 2 Diabetes by Age Onset**

143 As the two ethnic groups were very different in the mean age of diagnosis, we explored
144 the extent to which the observed differences in allelic effect size may be determined by
145 the heterogeneity in age of onset between the populations, therefore stratified by of age
146 of onset.

147 Based on the South Indian mean age of diagnosis (Table 1), the study participants in both
148 ethnicities were stratified into the early-diagnosis T2D group (20-55 years) (Fig 3B & D)
149 and late diagnosis T2D (diagnosed after 55 years) (Fig 3C & E). We found that the effect
150 size of both the *TCF7L2* and *CDKAL1* variants was more pronounced in the early onset
151 group regardless of ethnicity. (Fig 3B, D & 4B, D). These variants have very little effect
152 on age of diagnosis in those with diabetes diagnosed after 55 years of age in either
153 ethnicity (Fig 3C, E& 4C, E).

154 **The role of other T2D variants in Age of diagnosis**

155 We identified several previously reported T2D variants as suggestive signals ($P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$)
156 in this age onset of T2D trans-ethnic meta-analyses (Supplement Table). In particular, the
157 risk variant nearby *SEC24B* at chromosome location 4q25 (rs76170449, $P < 1.79 \times 10^{-7}$) is
158 also associated with cardiovascular traits, and 3p24.3 *ZNF385D* (rs17011243, $P <$
159 1.13×10^{-5}) associated with T2D in prior GWAS studies. In addition to the other suggestive

160 signals, we detected potential common variants at chromosome location 16p13.3
161 (rs1977100, *TPSD1*, $P < 3.40 \times 10^{-6}$) and 17q21.2 (rs684214, *MLX*, $P < 2.40 \times 10^{-6}$) with
162 no difference in their effect estimates between two distinct ethnic groups (Supplement
163 Table). We replicated previously reported South Asian T2D genome-wide signals[19–22]
164 with suggestive evidence or a nominal association for age onset of T2D in the trans ethnic
165 meta-analyses and ancestry-specific groups. Most of the formerly associated T2D loci
166 from earlier GWAS showed consistent effect estimates in South Indian and European
167 subjects. These include *LPL*, *SLC30A8*, *GCKR*, *THADA*, *HNF1A*, *TPCN2*, *GRB14*, *SIX3*,
168 *WDR11*, *SPC25*, *CENTD2*, *MLX*, *APS32*, *WFS1*, *ST6GAL1*, *KNCQ1* and *IGF2BP2*.
169

170 **Meta-analysis of Asian Indian cohorts**

171 In the meta-analysis of only the Asian Indian cohorts, we also found an additional novel
172 genome-wide signal at chromosome 10 q26.12 near the *WDR11* region (rs3011366, $P <$
173 2.46×10^{-8} , Beta 1.44, SE 0.25). However, this variant was not associated the age-of-
174 onset in the European cohorts (Table 2). *WDR11* encodes the WD repeat domain family,
175 which involves signal transduction and cell cycle progression. Previous GWAS studies in
176 the European populations and UK Biobank T2D participants have reported that *WDR11*
177 (rs3011366) was associated primarily with fasting glucose[23]. The Conditional analyses
178 conducted in South Indian ancestry (Table 3), indicated two independent secondary
179 signals at *TCF7L2* (rs570193324, q25.2, $P < 3.2E-05$, Beta 9.8, MAF 0.002, R2 0.0006)
180 and *CDKAL1* (rs143316471, $P < 0.0054$, Beta -5.3, MAF 0.003, R2 0.005). Allelic
181 frequency for both independent signals were rare in European cohorts compared to South

182 Indian Cohorts. The regional plot for independent association of *TCF7L2* and *CDKAL1* is
183 shown in Fig 5.

184 **Meta-analysis of European cohorts**

185 In the analyses unique to White Europeans, we did not observe any genome-wide signal
186 in the European specific meta-analyses. However, we observed suggestive association
187 of a missense variant rs2232328 near *SPC25*, an established variant for fasting blood
188 glucose and type 2 diabetes[24]. Several other SNPs reached suggestive significance for
189 age onset of T2D, and the direction of effect was consistent across all cohorts of European
190 descent (*Supplementary Table*).

191

192 **PRS analysis reveals polygenic effects for Age at the onset of Type 2 Diabetes**

193
194 Polygenic Risk Scores (PRS) are emerging as more informative clinical screening and
195 prediction tool with an increasing number of robust genomic variants identified through
196 more extensive genetic association studies[25]. To investigate whether different genetic
197 variants shared between ethnicities were conferring the risk of the onset of T2D: first, we
198 constructed a PRS for all genome wide significant SNPs associated with age of diagnosis
199 using the DMDSC 1 cohort of the Asian Indian genetic data (n=5801) and validated this
200 using the DMDSC 2 of Asian Indian data which contained no overlapping participants;
201 next we assessed the performance of this South Asian GRS in the European cohort
202 (GoSHARE) (Fig 6). The PRS replicated strongly between the Asian Indian cohorts. On
203 the other hand, the Asian Indian derived PRS explained less than 0.1% of the variance in
204 age of diagnosis of T2D in the GoSHARE cohort (European ancestry).

205 **Discussion**

206

207 In this study, we undertook a trans ethnic meta-analysis of age of diagnosis of T2D in
208 34,001 T2D individuals from two diverse ancestral backgrounds, European and Asian
209 Indian, revealing a differential role for established T2D susceptibility loci in determining
210 age of onset of diabetes. Interestingly the well-established T2D signal at *TCF7L2* was
211 much more strongly associated with age of onset in the Asian Indian population compared
212 to the European cohort, despite the allele frequency not differing between these ancestral
213 groups. We showed that this difference was due to the distribution of age of onset of
214 diabetes within the two ancestral groups, with the *TCF7L2* effect being largely observed
215 in those diagnosed before the age of 50 in both ancestral groups. This is consistent with
216 the concept that early onset disease would have a stronger genetic component; indeed,
217 when we looked at the overall heritability estimates for age of diagnosis of T2D, the
218 heritability was much stronger in the younger Asian Indian population with diabetes when
219 compared to the more elderly European population with diabetes. We also found evidence
220 for ethnic-specific signals that were associated with an early age at diagnosis of T2D in
221 Asian Indians that were very rare in the European cohort. Our findings emphasize and
222 support our recently reported finding that Asian Indians have greater genetic beta-cell
223 dysfunction compared to Europeans[26].

224 The role of beta cell function as a driver for the early age onset of T2D in Asian Indians is
225 well supported from our ethnic specific *TCF7L2* and *CDKAL1* signals. In addition, *WDR*
226 11 has previously been associated with fasting glucose[27], but not type 2 diabetes
227 susceptibility per se.

228 One of the strengths of this study is that we address the lack of transferability and
229 consistency of underlying age onset of T2D genetics between two ethnic groups. To date,
230 this is the first study that demonstrates the genome wide PRS of age at onset T2D in
231 Asian Indians. Overall, our polygenic risk scores findings derived from Asian Indian based
232 GWAS can be useful for the population specific studies and it cannot be used to predict
233 in Europeans where the genetics of T2D age onset itself is very distinct and unique
234 between two ethnic backgrounds. We also noted that transferability of PRS across
235 different ethnic groups demands careful evaluation.

236 One of the limitations in our study is the modest sample size of Asian Indian samples for
237 the GWAS study, which limits our ability to identify associations with low-frequency
238 variants. Next, our study cohort was limited only to the Asian Indian population and South
239 Asian living in UK; thus, findings from the present study merits further validation in an
240 independent larger discovery cohort. The biological interpretation of the significant Asian
241 Indian T2D polygenic effects reported here needs further validation using an independent
242 South Asian Indian cohort.

243 In conclusion, our study demonstrated the association of several previously established
244 loci in European T2D GWAS for age onset of T2DM. However, we observed substantial
245 heterogeneity in both the effect sizes and/or the allele frequencies between the ethnic
246 groups. Furthermore, the higher heritability estimates of age of onset of type 2 diabetes
247 in Asian Indians demonstrates the importance of further study of the genetic architecture
248 of age of onset of type 2 diabetes in this ancestral group.

249

250 **Materials and Methods**

251 **Ethics statement**

252 All research has been conducted under the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki and
253 approved by corresponding institutional review boards. All study participants provided
254 written informed consent, and Research Ethics Committees approved the study.

255 **Study participants**

256 We included participants from four independent cohorts: Dr Mohan's Diabetes Specialties
257 Centre (DMDSC), Chennai, India, Genetics of Diabetes Audit and Research in Tayside
258 Scotland (GoDARTS), Genetics of Scottish Health Research Register (GoSHARE) and
259 the United Kingdom Biobank (UKBB). DMDSC is a diabetes centre of single speciality
260 hospitals and clinics established in 1991 in Chennai, Southern India, which includes
261 currently there are 50 clinics in various locations across 10 states in India[28]. A total of
262 500,000 patients with type 2 diabetes to date, are provided with a unique identification
263 number at their first visit, and clinical, anthropometric, and biochemical data are updated
264 at each subsequent visit. Each patient underwent a comprehensive evaluation for
265 screening and assessment of diabetes and presence of chronic complications at the time
266 of their registered first visit, and these tests were repeated subsequently. All these data
267 are collected and stored in the common diabetes electronic medical records (DEMR)
268 system. GoDARTS consists of 18,306 participants from the Tayside region of Scotland,
269 of which 10,149 participants were recruited based on their diagnosis of type 2
270 diabetes[16]. GoSHARE currently comprised of a biobank of around 74,000 individuals
271 across NHS Fife, and NHS Tayside[17]. Both cohort participants' have provided a sample
272 of blood for genetic analysis and informed consent to link their genetic information to the

273 anonymized electronic health records. UKBB is a large prospective general population
274 cohort. A total of 502,628 individuals who were recruited 2006-2010 at age between 40
275 and 69 years from across the UK and provided electronically signed consent to use their
276 self-reported answers on socio-demographic, lifestyle, ethnicity, a range of physical
277 measures and blood or urine or saliva samples.

278 **Phenotyping – Age at Diagnosis of Type 2 Diabetes**

279 We included 8,295 type 2 diabetes patients from DMDSC cohort of Asian Indians, whose
280 first clinical visit was within one year of diagnosis. Diabetes is diagnosed by general
281 practitioners using WHO criteria[29] for diagnosis and by the oral glucose tolerance test
282 or fasting and/or random glucose test of HbA1c test. All study participants underwent a
283 structured assessment, including detailed family history at the DMDSC. We excluded
284 patients with type 1 diabetes or GADA positive. We selected the study participants in the
285 GoDARTS, and GoSHARE based on the following inclusion criteria, aged between 20 and
286 80 years, the type 2 diabetes status diagnosed by general practitioners, and the clinical
287 measurements as per WHO guidelines and recorded in the Scottish Care Information-
288 Diabetes system. We identified 14,552 T2D participants within the UKBB cohort using
289 diabetes diagnosis by the doctor (data-field code 2443), started insulin after a year
290 diagnosis (2986) and the self-reported ethnicity (21000) and excluded participants with
291 outlying principal components.

292 **Genotyping, Quality Controls, and Imputations**

293 DMDSC genotyping was conducted for approximately 5,801 patients with type 2 diabetes
294 by Illumina using the global screening arrays version (GSA v1.0); for the remaining
295 participants (N=2,494) were genotyped on GSA v2.0. All genotyped samples were

296 converted to PLINK format files using Illumina Genome Studio v2.04. We excluded
297 samples if their call rate was less than 95% and genetically inferred sex discordance with
298 phenotype data. We excluded the SNPs with less than 97 % call rate and HWE p-value
299 less than $1e^{-6}$ (autosomal variants only). QC assessment was performed independently
300 for DMDSC cohorts before and after phasing and imputation against the haplotype
301 reference consortium (HRC r1.1) panel[30].

302 Genotyping of GoDARTS and SHARE cohorts derived from various platforms: Affymetrix
303 6.0 (Affymetrix, Santa Clara), Illumina Omni Express-12VI platform and GSA v.2.0,
304 respectively. A total of 11,154 (6,999 GoDARTS and 4,155 GoSHARE) participants were
305 considered after excluding those individuals failing to meet QC criteria. Individual
306 genotype call rate (< 95%), heterozygosity>3 SD from the mean and the highly related
307 sample's identity by descent. We then carried out SNP-level QC by excluding markers <
308 97 % call rate, Hardy-Weinberg $p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$. Following sample and SNP quality control,
309 Haplotype Reference Consortium (HRC) panel for both populations using the Michigan
310 Imputation Server[31]. We retained all imputed SNPs with imputation information
311 score > 0.4 and removed monomorphic markers.

312 The genome-wide genotyping for 488,377 participants in the UKBB was performed using
313 custom-designed genotyping arrays including UK Biobank Axiom and UK BiLEVE Axiom
314 Affymetrix array. We selected European and South Asian individuals in the UKBB based
315 on PCA and self-reported ethnic background. A total of 14,552 participants fulfilled the
316 phenotype criteria in this study. UK biobank genotyping, QC, PCA and imputation protocol
317 are described elsewhere[32]. For the current study, we restricted the analyses to the UK
318 Biobank participants who were in the full release imputed genomics datasets. We selected

319 individuals of Asian Indians and European descents based on the principal component
320 analysis (PCA) and the self-reported ancestry information.

321 **Ethnic-Specific Meta-analysis of GWAS**

322 Genome-wide association analyses were performed independently for each cohort using
323 an additive model while adjusting for sex (Fig 1). We estimated allelic effects using the
324 using a linear mixed model as implemented in BOLT-LMM version 2.3.2[33] which
325 accounts for relatedness and any population stratification and SNPTESTv2.5 in each
326 cohort accordingly. We performed a meta-analysis based on ancestry: Asian Indians
327 specific analyses include the DMDSC cohort, a unique Asian Indians representative data,
328 and South Asians in the UKBB and the European specific analyses include the GoDARTS,
329 GoSHARE, and White Europeans in the UKBB. There was no evidence of population
330 stratification in meta-analysis (genomic inflation factor, $\lambda = 1.007$). We performed the
331 meta-analyses using a fixed-effect method in METAL software, which assumes the effect
332 allele is the same for each study within an ancestry. We then combined the summary
333 statistics of GWAS from all the study populations. SNPs with imputation quality score <
334 0.40 were excluded from the analysis. Heterogeneity across these studies was assessed
335 by the I^2 (low to high) and Cochran's Q statistics as reported by METAL. The Forest plot
336 was generated using the metafor package[34]. We annotated the genetic variants using
337 the University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) Genome resource18 based on the
338 Genome Reference Consortium Human genome build 37.

339 **Conditional analysis**

340 We performed conditional analyses to identify additional secondary signals across the
341 lead SNPs within the South Indian population.

342 **SNP-based heritability**

343 We used the summary statistics data from the Asian Indians and Europeans specific meta-
344 analyses to estimate the SNP-based heritability in a liability scale using Linkage
345 Disequilibrium Score Regression (LDSC) software[35].

346 **Genome-wide Polygenic risk scores for age at diagnosis of type 2 diabetes**

347 For the Polygenic risk scores (PRS), we considered summary statistics of GoSHARE and
348 DMDSC samples. The PRSice tool generates the scores by the weighted sum of the risk
349 allele carried by individuals based on effect estimate. We removed DNA polymorphisms
350 with ambiguous strands (A/T or C/G) from the score derivation. SNPs were clumped to a
351 more significant SNP in LD ($r^2 \geq 0.10$) within a 500 kb window. The PRS calculation
352 considered several p-value thresholds (0.001, 0.05, and 0.1).

353
354 **Supporting Information**
355
356 **Acknowledgements**
357 This work was supported by the National Institute for Health Research using Official
358 Development Assistance (ODA) funding [INSPIRED 16/136/102]. The Wellcome Trust
359 United Kingdom Type 2 Diabetes Case-Control Collection (supporting GoDARTS) was
360 funded by The Wellcome Trust (072960/Z/03/Z, 084726/Z/08/Z, 084727/Z/08/Z,
361 085475/Z/08/Z, 085475/B/08/Z) and as part of the EU IMI-SUMMIT program. The present
362 study was conducted using the UK Biobank Resource under application No. 20405. We
363 are thankful to all the families who took part in this study. We are grateful to the GoDARTS,
364 SHARE and DMDSC teams, including interviewers, computer and laboratory technicians,
365 clerical workers, research scientists, volunteers, managers, receptionists, healthcare
366 assistants, and nurses, for their cooperation in recruiting them. We would like to
367 acknowledge Dundee Health Informatics Centre (HIC) for managing and providing
368 anonymised data.

369 **Author Contributions**

370 Study concept and design: CNAP.

371 Data collection and access: GoDARTS, GoSHARE, UKBB - CNAP, AD, ERP

372 Data collection and access: DMDSC - MV, ARM, RV

373 Data processing: MKS, SS, SL, NS.

374 Data analysis: SS.

375 Drafting of the manuscript: SS and CNAP.

376 Critical revision of the manuscript: All authors involved in the critical revision and approved the

377 final version for publication.

378 **Conflict of Interest / Disclosures:**

379 **Role of the Funder/Sponsor:**

380 The funders had no role in design and conduct of the study; data collection and analysis,

381 preparation of the manuscript or approval of the manuscript and decision to publish this work.

382

383

384 **References**

- 385 1. Kooner J. Genome-wide association study in individuals of South Asian ancestry
386 identifies six new type 2 diabetes susceptibility loci. *Nat Genet.* 2011;43: 984–989.
- 387 2. Fuchsberger C, Flannick J, Teslovich TM, Mahajan A, Agarwala V, Gaulton KJ, et al.
388 The genetic architecture of type 2 diabetes. *Nature.* 2016;536: 41–47.
389 doi:10.1038/nature18642
- 390 3. Cho Y. Meta-analysis of genome-wide association studies identifies eight new loci for
391 type 2 diabetes in east Asians. *Nat Genet.* 2011;44: 67–72.
- 392 4. Mohan V, Rao GH. Type 2 Diabetes in South Asians: Epidemiology, Risk Factors &
393 Prevention. *Type 2 Diabetes in South Asians: Epidemiology, Risk Factors & Prevention.*
394 2007. doi:10.5005/jp/books/10994
- 395 5. Morris AP, Voight BF, Teslovich TM, Ferreira T, Segre A v., Steinhorsdottir V, et al.
396 Large-scale association analysis provides insights into the genetic architecture and
397 pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes. *Nature Genetics.* 2012. doi:10.1038/ng.2383
- 398 6. Voight BF, Scott LJ, Steinhorsdottir V, Morris AP, Dina C, Welch RP, et al. Twelve type
399 2 diabetes susceptibility loci identified through large-scale association analysis. *Nature
400 Genetics.* 2010;42: 579–589. doi:10.1038/ng.609
- 401 7. Saeedi P, Salpea P, Karuranga S, Petersohn I, Malanda B, Gregg EW, et al. Mortality
402 attributable to diabetes in 20–79 years old adults, 2019 estimates: Results from the
403 International Diabetes Federation Diabetes Atlas, 9th edition. 2020 [cited 22 Jun 2021].
404 doi:10.1016/j.diabres.2020.108086
- 405 8. Mohan V, Deepa M, Deepa R, Shanthirani CS, Farooq S, Ganesan A, et al. Secular
406 trends in the prevalence of diabetes and impaired glucose tolerance in urban South
407 India - The Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES-17). *Diabetologia.*
408 2006;49: 1175–1178. doi:10.1007/s00125-006-0219-2
- 409 9. Anjana RM, Rani CSS, Deepa M, Pradeepa R, Sudha V, Nair HD, et al. Incidence of
410 Diabetes and Prediabetes and Predictors of Progression Among Asian Indians: 10-Year
411 Follow-up of the Chennai Urban Rural Epidemiology Study (CURES). *Diabetes Care.*
412 2015;38: 1441–1448. doi:10.2337/DC14-2814
- 413 10. Shah A, Kanaya AM. Diabetes and associated complications in the South Asian
414 population. *Current Cardiology Reports.* Current Medicine Group LLC 1; 2014. p. 476.
415 doi:10.1007/s11886-014-0476-5
- 416 11. Sattar et al Vascular Outcomes by Age of Diabetes Diagnosis. 2019.
417 doi:10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.118.037885
- 418 12. Mahajan A, Taliun D, Thurner M, Robertson NR, Torres JM, Rayner NW, et al. Fine-
419 mapping type 2 diabetes loci to single-variant resolution using high-density imputation
420 and islet-specific epigenome maps. *Nature Genetics.* 2018;50: 1505–1513.
421 doi:10.1038/s41588-018-0241-6
- 422 13. Mahajan A, Go MJ, Zhang W, Below JE, Gaulton KJ, Ferreira T, et al. Genome-wide
423 trans-ancestry meta-analysis provides insight into the genetic architecture of type 2
424 diabetes susceptibility. *Nature Genetics.* 2014;46: 234–244. doi:10.1038/ng.2897
- 425 14. Spracklen CN, Horikoshi M, Jin Kim Y, Lin K, Bragg F, Moon S, et al. Identification of
426 type 2 diabetes loci in 433,540 East Asian individuals Genetic discovery from
427 association analyses. *Nature.* [cited 17 Jun 2021]. doi:10.1038/s41586-020-2263-3

428 15. Xue A, Wu Y, Zhu Z, Zhang F, Kemper KE, Zheng Z, et al. Genome-wide association
429 analyses identify 143 risk variants and putative regulatory mechanisms for type 2
430 diabetes. *Nature Communications*. 2018. doi:10.1038/s41467-018-04951-w

431 16. Hébert HL, Shepherd B, Milburn K, Veluchamy A, Meng W, Carr F, et al. Cohort profile:
432 Genetics of Diabetes Audit and Research in Tayside Scotland (GoDARTS).
433 *International Journal of Epidemiology*. 2018;47: 380–381j. doi:10.1093/ije/dyx140

434 17. McKinstry B, Sullivan FM, Vasishta S, Armstrong R, Hanley J, Haughney J, et al.
435 Cohort profile: the Scottish Research register SHARE. A register of people interested in
436 research participation linked to NHS data sets. *BMJ Open*. 2017;7: e013351.
437 doi:10.1136/BMJOPEN-2016-013351

438 18. Willer CJ, Li Y, Abecasis GR. METAL: fast and efficient meta-analysis of genomewide
439 association scans. *BIOINFORMATICS APPLICATIONS NOTE*. 2010;26: 2190–2191.
440 doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq340

441 19. Chambers JC, Abbott J, Zhang W, Turro E, Scott WR, Tan ST, et al. The South Asian
442 genome. *PLoS ONE*. 2014;9: 102645. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0102645

443 20. Mahajan A, Go MJ, Zhang W, Below JE, Gaulton KJ, Ferreira T, et al. Genome-wide
444 trans-ancestry meta-analysis provides insight into the genetic architecture of type 2
445 diabetes susceptibility. *Nature Genetics*. 2014;46: 234–244. doi:10.1038/ng.2897

446 21. Liju S, Chidambaram M, Mohan V, Radha V. Impact of type 2 diabetes variants
447 identified through genome-wide association studies in early-onset type 2 diabetes from
448 South Indian population. *Genomics & Informatics*. 2020;18: 1–12.
449 doi:10.5808/GI.2020.18.3.E27

450 22. Chidambaram M, Liju S, Saboo • Banshi, Sathyavani K, Viswanathan V, Pankratz N, et
451 al. Replication of genome-wide association signals in Asian Indians with early-onset
452 type 2 diabetes. *Acta Diabetologica*. 53. doi:10.1007/s00592-016-0889-2

453 23. Boehnke M, McCarthy MI, Genet N. New genetic loci implicated in fasting glucose
454 homeostasis and their impact on type 2 diabetes risk HHS Public Access Author
455 manuscript. *Nat Genet*. 2010;42: 105–116. doi:10.1038/ng.520

456 24. Manning AK, Hivert M-F, Scott RA, Grimsby JL, Bouatia-Naji N, Chen H, et al. A
457 genome-wide approach accounting for body mass index identifies genetic variants
458 influencing fasting glycemic traits and insulin resistance. *Nature Genetics*. 2012.
459 doi:10.1038/ng.2274

460 25. Choi SW, Shin T, Mak H, O'reilly PF. A guide to performing Polygenic Risk Score
461 analyses. doi:10.1101/416545

462 26. Siddiqui MK, Anjana RM, Dawed AY, Martoeau C, Srinivasan S, Saravanan J, et al.
463 Young-onset diabetes in Asian Indians is associated with lower measured and
464 genetically determined beta cell function. *Diabetologia*. 2022 [cited 1 Apr 2022].
465 doi:10.1007/S00125-022-05671-Z

466 27. Boehnke M, McCarthy MI, Genet N. New genetic loci implicated in fasting glucose
467 homeostasis and their impact on type 2 diabetes risk HHS Public Access Author
468 manuscript. *Nat Genet*. 2010;42: 105–116. doi:10.1038/ng.520

469 28. Pradeepa R, Prabu AV, Jebarani S, Subhashini S, Mohan V. Use of a large diabetes
470 electronic medical record system in India: Clinical and research applications. *Journal of*
471 *Diabetes Science and Technology*. SAGE Publications Inc.; 2011. pp. 543–552.
472 doi:10.1177/193229681100500309

473 29. definition and diagnosis of diabetes mellitus and intermediate hyperglycemia RepoRt of
474 a WHO/IDf Consultation. 2006.

475 30. McCarthy S, Das S, Kretzschmar W, Delaneau O, Wood AR, Teumer A, et al. A
476 reference panel of 64,976 haplotypes for genotype imputation. *Nature Genetics*.
477 2016;48: 1279–1283. doi:10.1038/ng.3643

478 31. Das S, Forer L, Schönherr S, Sidore C, Locke AE, Kwong A, et al. Next-generation
479 genotype imputation service and methods. *Nature Genetics*. 2016;48: 1284–1287.
480 doi:10.1038/ng.3656

481 32. Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, Band G, Elliott L, Sharp K, et al. Genome-wide
482 genetic data on ~500,000 UK Biobank participants. *bioRxiv*. 2017; 166298.
483 doi:10.1101/166298

484 33. Loh PR, Tucker G, Bulik-Sullivan BK, Vilhjálmsson BJ, Finucane HK, Salem RM, et al.
485 Efficient Bayesian mixed-model analysis increases association power in large cohorts.
486 *Nature Genetics*. 2015;47: 284–290. doi:10.1038/ng.3190

487 34. Viechtbauer W. Conducting meta-analyses in R with the metafor. *Journal of Statistical
488 Software*. 2010;36: 1–48. doi:10.18637/jss.v036.i03

489 35. Bulik-Sullivan BK, Loh P-R, Finucane HK, Ripke S, Yang J, Patterson N, et al. LD
490 Score regression distinguishes confounding from polygenicity in genomewide
491 association studies. *Nature GeNetics* VOLUME. 2015;47. doi:10.1038/ng.3211

492

493

Table 1. Characteristics of the study population.

Study Cohort	N	Age at Diagnosis/ Onset		BMI	Gender Male: Female (%)	Ethnicity			
		mean age in years ± SD							
DMDSC 1	5,801	41.7±10.17		26.3	61.5;38.5	Asian Indians			
DMDSC 2	2,494	41.3±9.77		26.3	58.17;41.8	Asian Indians			
UKBB	808	50.1±11.2		28.7	73.7;26.3	South Asians			
GoDARTS	6,999	59±10.12		31	54.9;44.8	Europeans			
SHARE	4,155	58.2±10.5		31.6	53.5;46.4	Europeans			
UKBB	13,744	54.6±10.6		32	69.5;36.3	Europeans			

494

495 **Table 2. Summary statistics of the most significant SNPs from meta-analysis**

SNP	CHR	POS	EA/NEA	Study COHORT	BETA	SE	EAF	P value	Het Pval	Gene
rs7903146	10	114758349	T/C	DMDSC data freeze 1	-1.26	0.20	0.35	1×10^{-10}		
				DMDSC data freeze 2	-0.40	0.36	0.34	2.7×10^{-3}		
				UKBB(SAS)	-0.33	0.37	0.35	0.3		
				META (SAS)	-0.72	0.32	0.34	1.08×10^{-8}	0.02	<i>TCF7L2</i>
				GoDARTS	-0.02	0.17	0.34	0.11		
				SHARE	-0.90	0.26	0.32	0.0008		
				UKBB (Europeans)	-0.35	0.08	0.35	1.3×10^{-5}		
				META (Europeans)	-0.02	0.017	0.34	0.004	2.72e-06	
				Trans-ethnic Meta-Analysis	-0.43	0.02	0.35	2.4×10^{-12}	0.01	
rs9368219	6	20674691		DMDSC data freeze 1	-1.20	0.21	0.25	4.3×10^{-8}		
				DMDSC data freeze 2	-0.38	0.38	0.25	6.1×10^{-2}		
				UKBB(SAS)	-0.59	0.40	0.27	0.14		
				META (SAS)	-0.92	0.17	0.26	6.59×10^{-8}	0.002	<i>CDKAL1</i>
				GoDARTS	-0.03	0.02	0.18	0.004		
				SHARE	-0.8	0.30	0.19	0.007		
				UKBB (Europeans)	-0.17	0.09	0.17	0.07		

				META (Europeans)	-0.046	0.02	0.19	0.03	0.02	
				Trans-ethnic Meta-Analysis	-0.05	0.23	0.21	2.29×10^{-8}	0.007	
rs3011366	10	122554701	G/A	DMDSC data freeze 1	1.35	0.32	0.10	3.1×10^{-5}		<i>WDR11</i>
				DMDSC data freeze 2	1.02	0.57	0.10	0.07		
				UKBB(SAS)	2.44	0.68	0.08	3.4×10^{-4}		
				META (South Asians)	1.44	0.25	0.09	2.4×10^{-8}	0.25	
				GoDARTS	0.21	0.11	0.01	0.36		
				SHARE	-0.31	1.09	0.01	0.77		
				UKBB (Europeans)	-0.21	0.41	0.008	0.6		
				META (Europeans)	-0.09	0.08	0.01	0.2	0.85	
				Trans-Ethnic Meta-Analysis	0.21	0.07	0.01	0.005	0.0001	

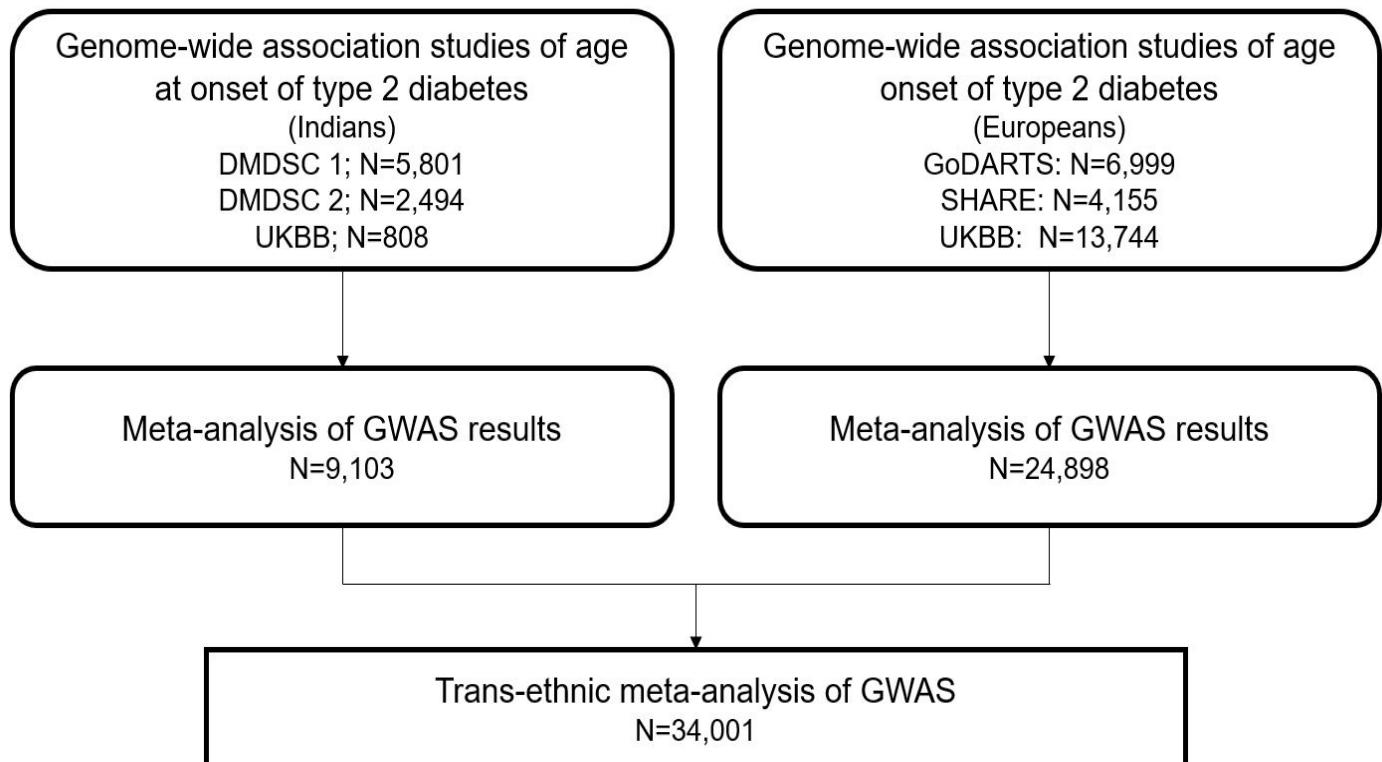
496
497
498
499
500
501
502
503
504
505
506
507
508

509
510

Table 3. Summary statistics of the novel variants after conditioning on index SNPs

SNP	CHR	POS	EA/NEA	BETA	SE	P value	EAF	Gene
rs570193324	10	114925065	T/C	9.8	2.3	3.2e-05	<i>0.002</i>	<i>TCF7L2</i>
rs143316471	06	20693278	T/C	-5.3	2.3	0.0054	<i>0.003</i>	<i>CDKAL1</i>

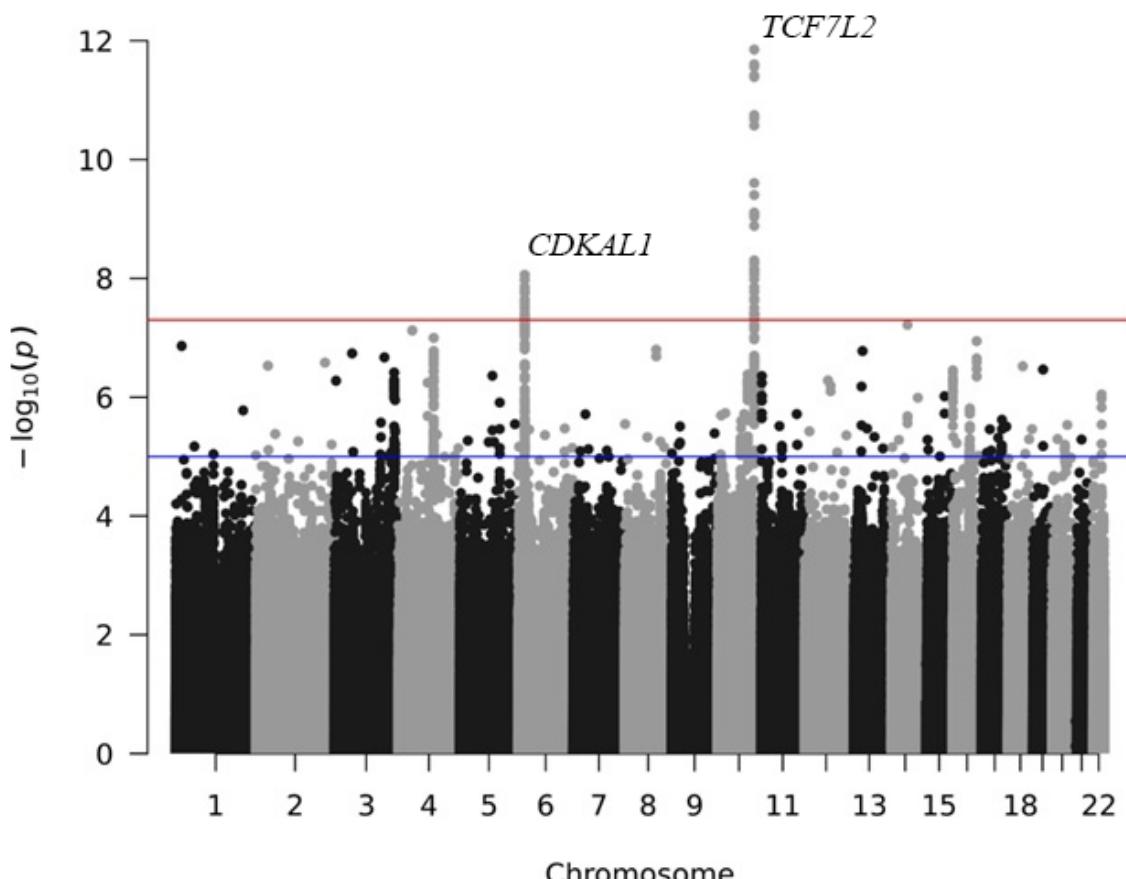
511



512

Fig 1. Study design.

513



514

515

516

517

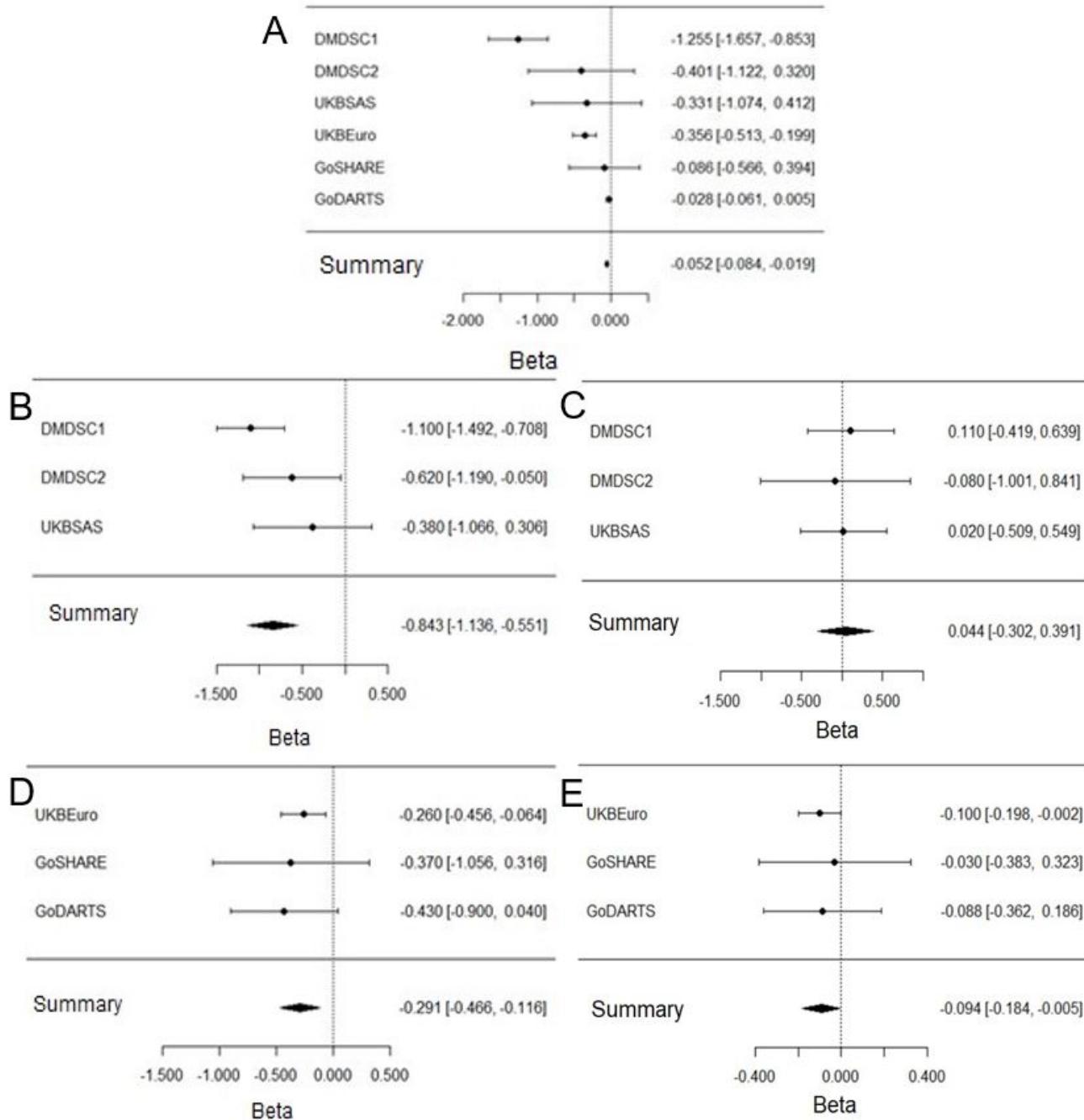
518

519

520

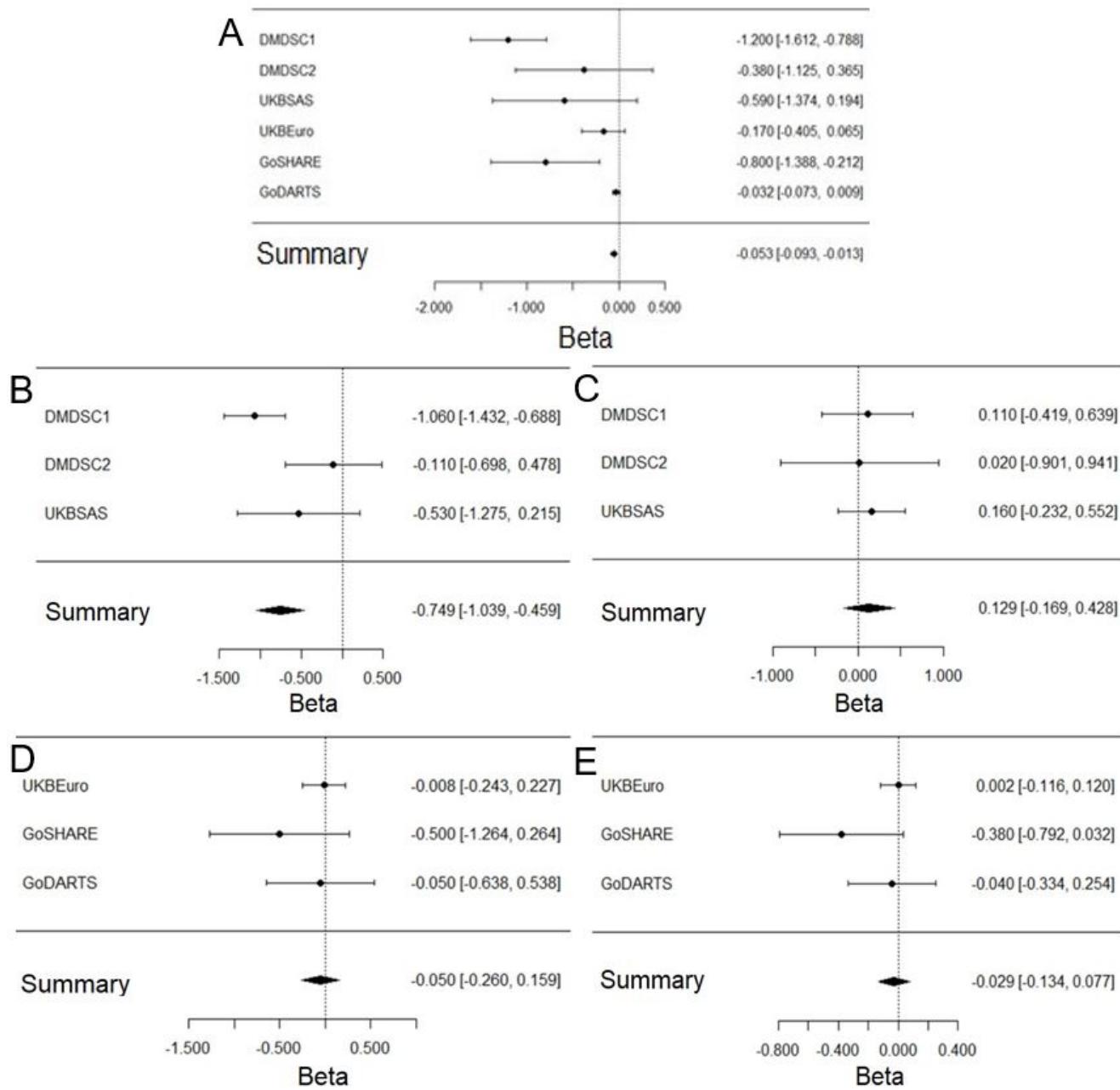
521

Fig 2. Manhattan plot showing the P-value of association tests for SNPs with Age at diagnosis of T2D in a Trans ethnic meta-analysis of GWAS. Two horizontal lines from the bottom indicate the suggestive ($P<5\times 10^{-5}$) and genome-wide significance threshold ($P<5\times 10^{-8}$), respectively. The X-axis represents the physical position and the 22 autosomal chromosomes; Y-axis represents the negative logarithm of association p-value. Each dot on the plot represents millions of imputed SNPs across the whole genome.



522

523 **Fig 3. Forest plot for the top significant SNP rs7903146 near TCF7L2 (Effect allele - T) in**
 524 **individuals with T2D.** DMDSC Dr. Mohan Diabetes speciality Clinic, UKBSAS UK Biobank
 525 South Asians. GoDARTS, Genetics of Diabetes Audit and Research in Tayside Scotland;
 526 GoSHARE, Genetics of Scottish Health Research Register; UKBB Euro, United Kingdom
 527 Biobank Europeans. A) Overall meta-analysis of GWAS of Age onset of T2D; B) South Asians
 528 with earlier onset of T2D (Age at diagnosis between 20 – 55 years); C) South Asians with later
 529 onset of T2D (Age at diagnosis between 20 – 55 years); D) Caucasians with earlier onset of
 530 T2D (Age at diagnosis between 20 – 55 years); E) Caucasians with later onset of T2D



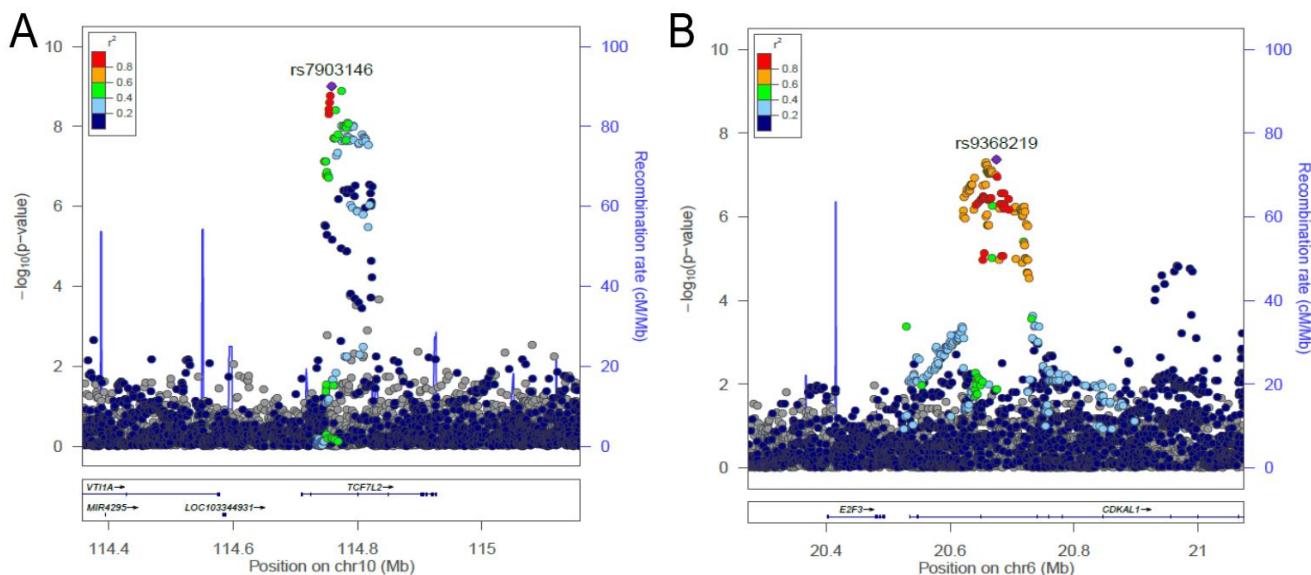
531

532 **Fig 4. Forest plot for the top significant SNP rs9368219 near CDKAL1 (Effect allele - T) in**
 533 **individuals with T2D. DMDSC Dr. Mohan Diabetes speciality Clinic, UKBSAS UK Biobank**
 534 **South Asians. GoDARTS, Genetics of Diabetes Audit and Research in Tayside Scotland;**
 535 **GoSHARE, Genetics of Scottish Health Research Register; UKBB Euro, United Kingdom**
 536 **Biobank Europeans. A) Overall meta-analysis of GWAS of Age onset of T2D; B) South Asians**
 537 **with earlier onset of T2D (Age at diagnosis between 20 – 55 years); C) South Asians with later**
 538 **onset of T2D (Age at diagnosis between 20 – 55 years); D) Caucasians with earlier onset of**
 539 **T2D (Age at diagnosis between 20 – 55 years); E) Caucasians with later onset of T2D**

540

541

542



543

544 **Fig 5. Regional association plots of top significant SNPs.** Associations at *TCF7L2* (A) and
545 *CDKAL1* (B) in the South Asian meta-genome-wide association studies. Chr, chromosome;
546 cM/Mb, centimorgan/megabase (genomic location in reference build 37 [Hg19]).

547

548

549

550

551

552

553

554

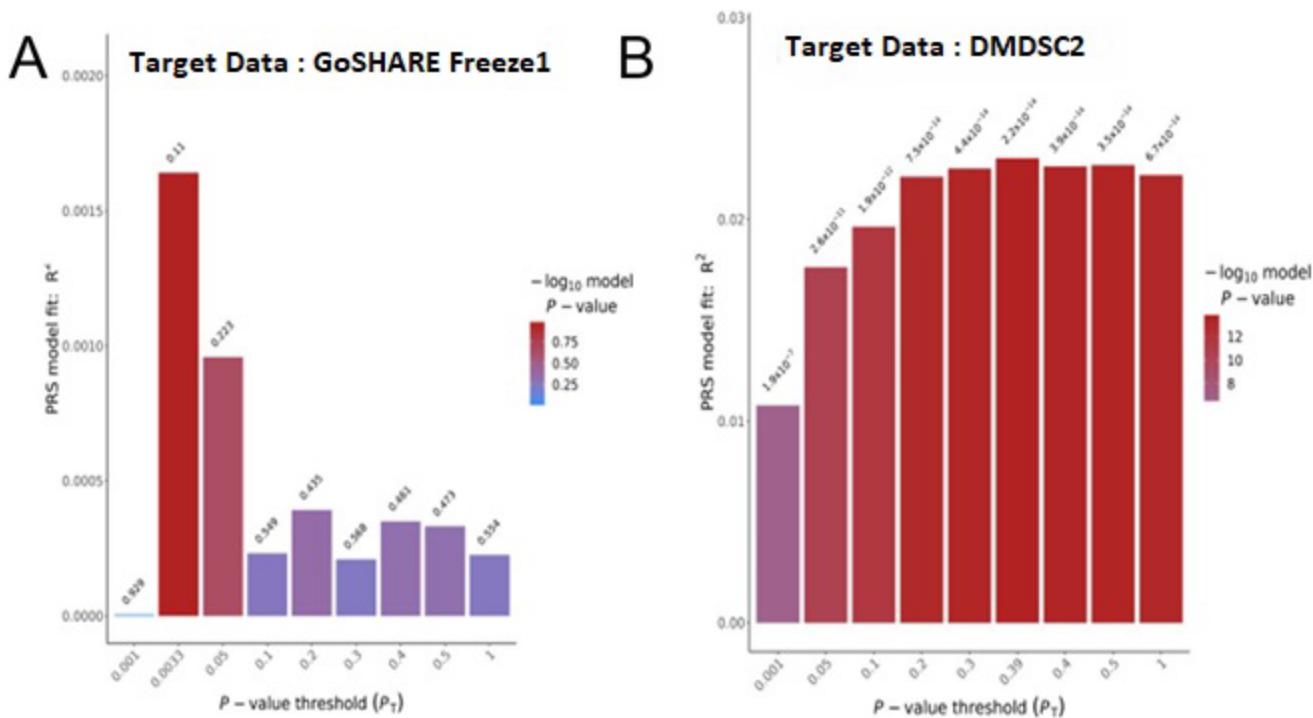
555

556

557

558

559



560 **Fig 6. Performance of South Indian PRS in European population.** PRS generated using
561 Asian Indian summary data from DMDSC cohort 1 and tested in European samples
562 (GoSHARE) and South Indian independent cohort (DMDSC 2) for polygenic risk prediction of
563 age of onset.

Genome-wide association studies of age at onset of type 2 diabetes

(Indians)

DMDSC 1; N=5,801

DMDSC 2; N=2,494

UKBB; N=808

Genome-wide association studies of age at onset of type 2 diabetes

(Europeans)

GoDARTS: N=6,999

SHARE: N=4,155

UKBB: N=13,744

Meta-analysis of GWAS results

N=9,103

Meta-analysis of GWAS results

N=24,898

Trans-ethnic meta-analysis of GWAS

N=34,001

Figure1_StudyDesign

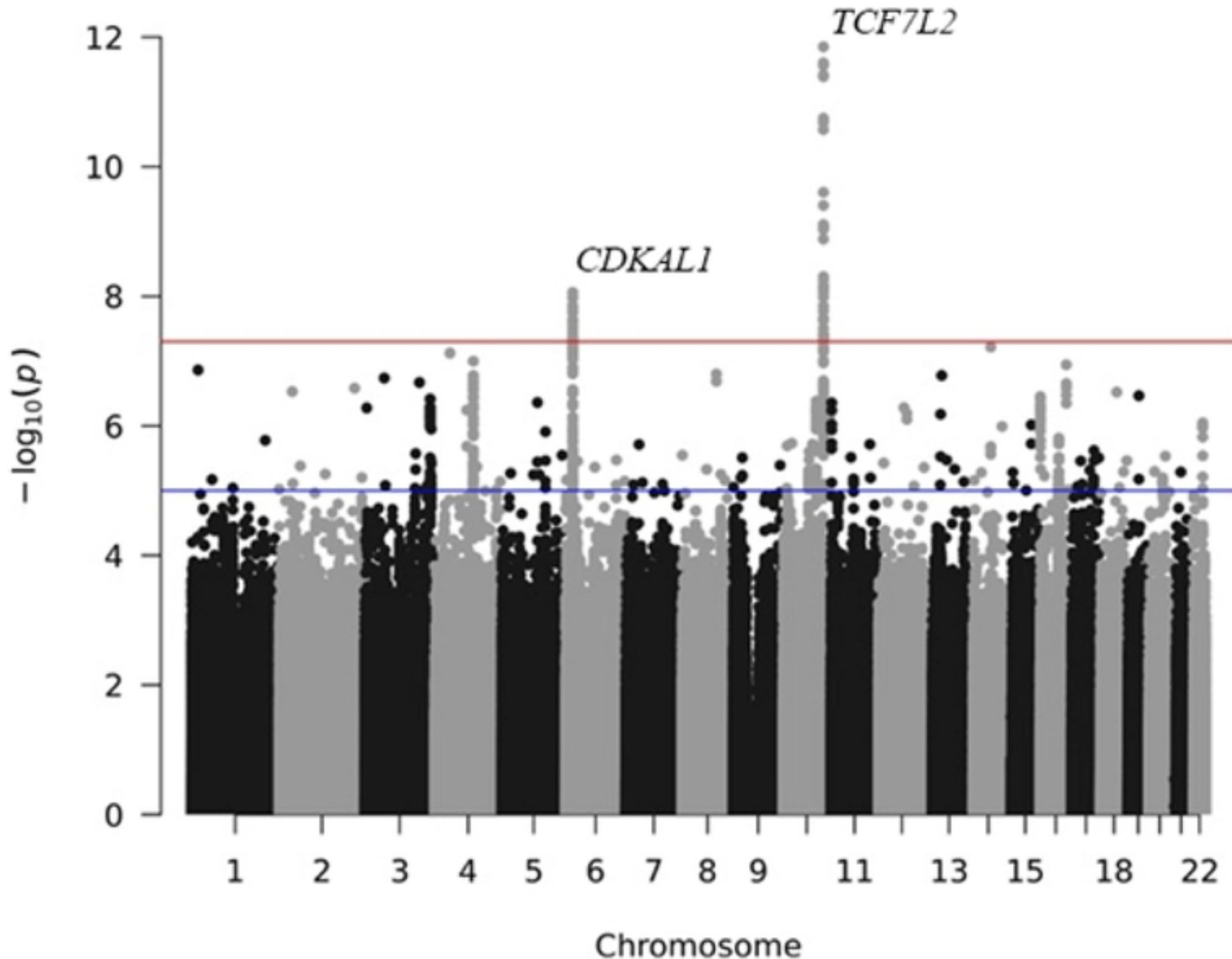


Figure2_Manhattangwas

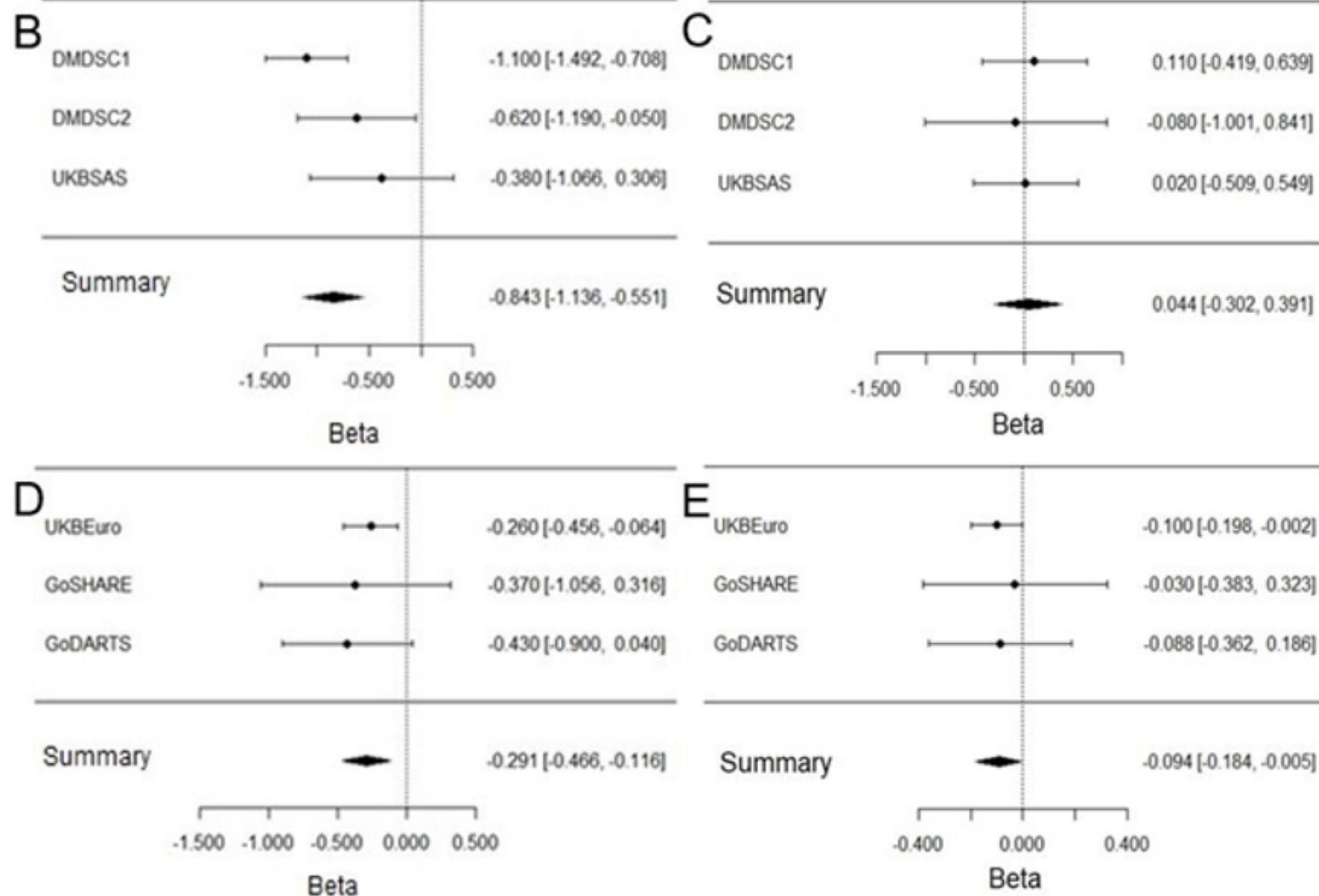
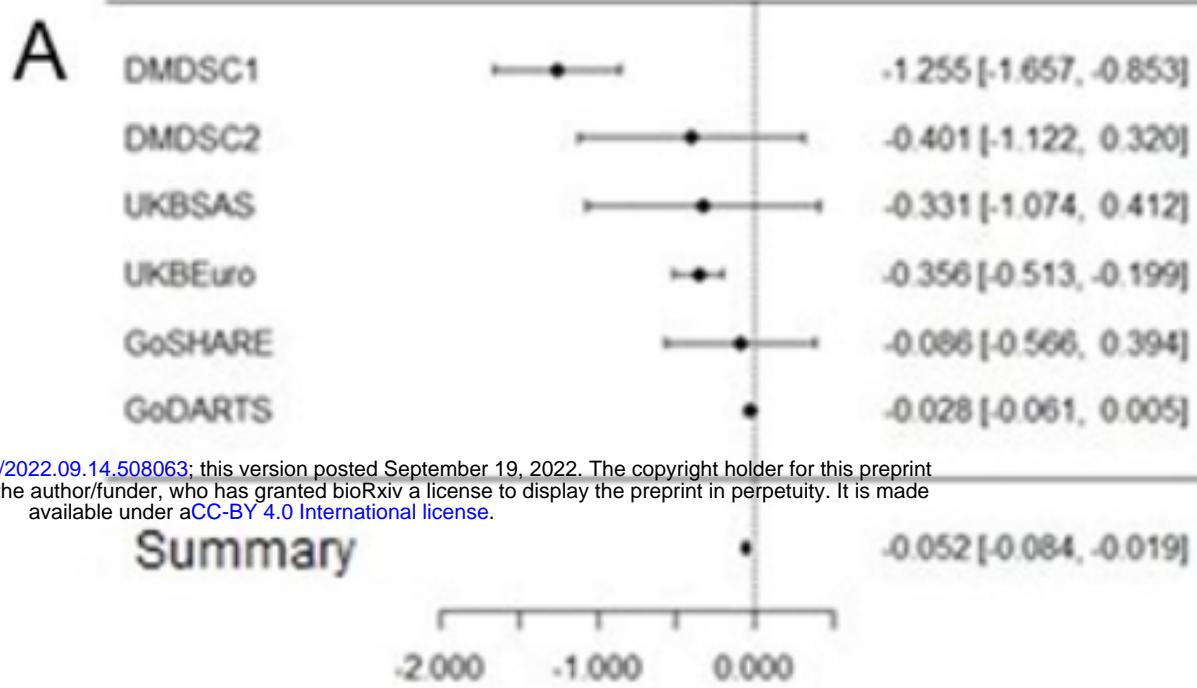


Figure3_Forest plot

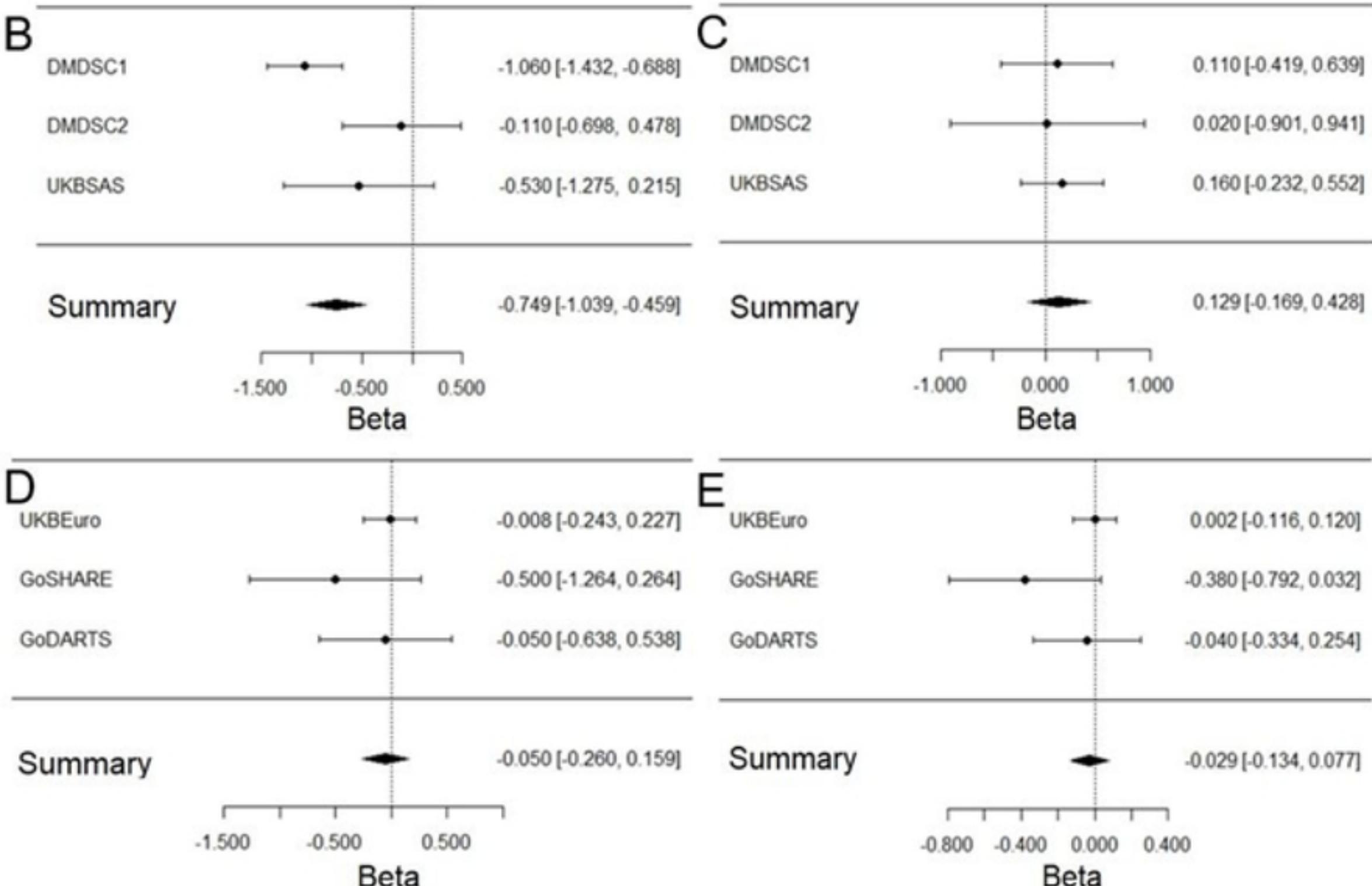
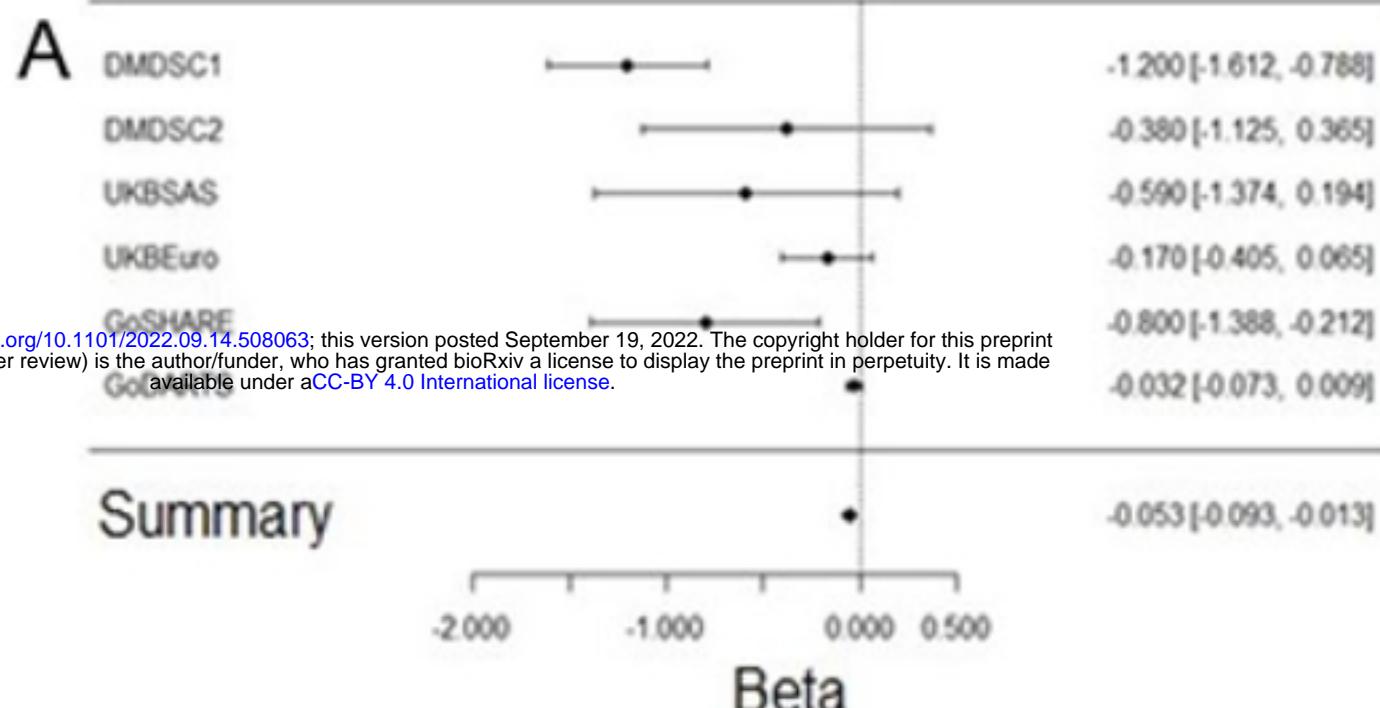


Figure4_Forest plot

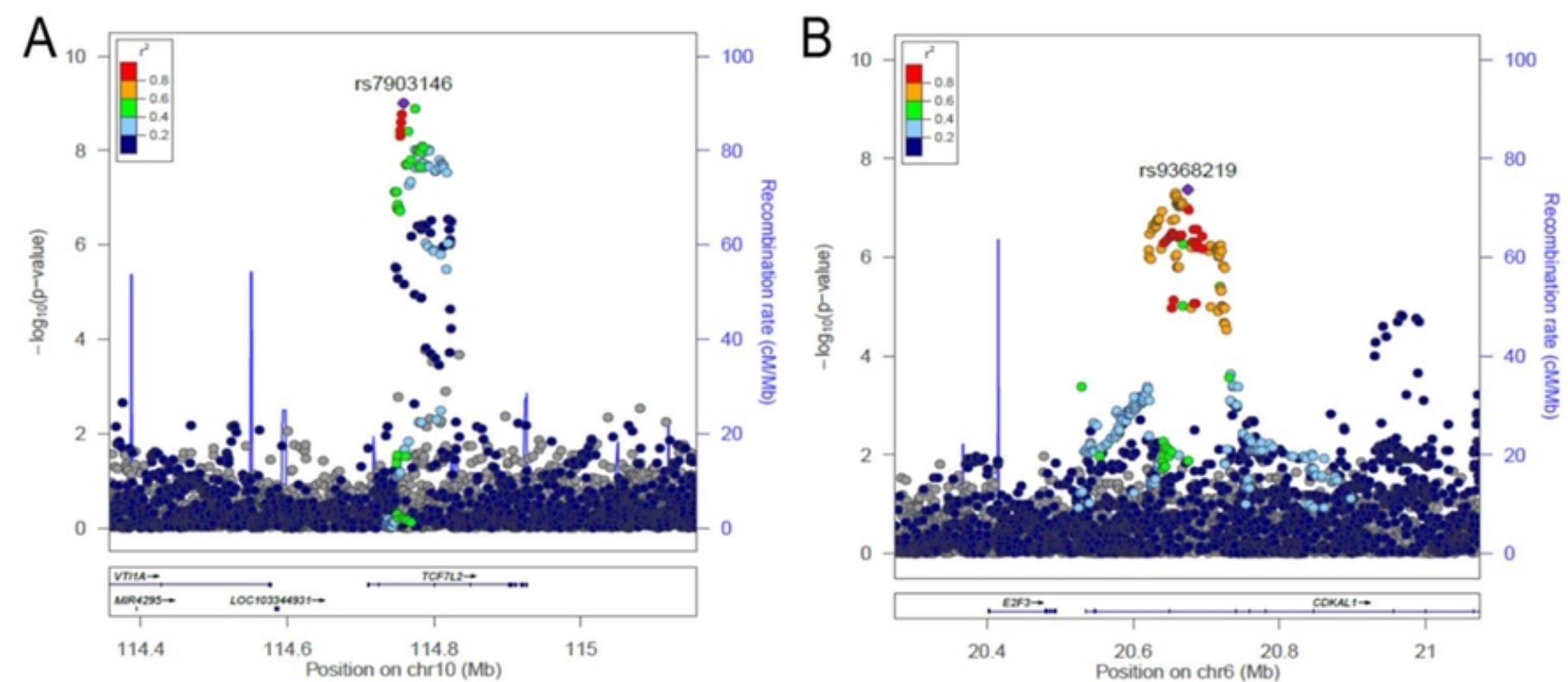


Figure5_Regional

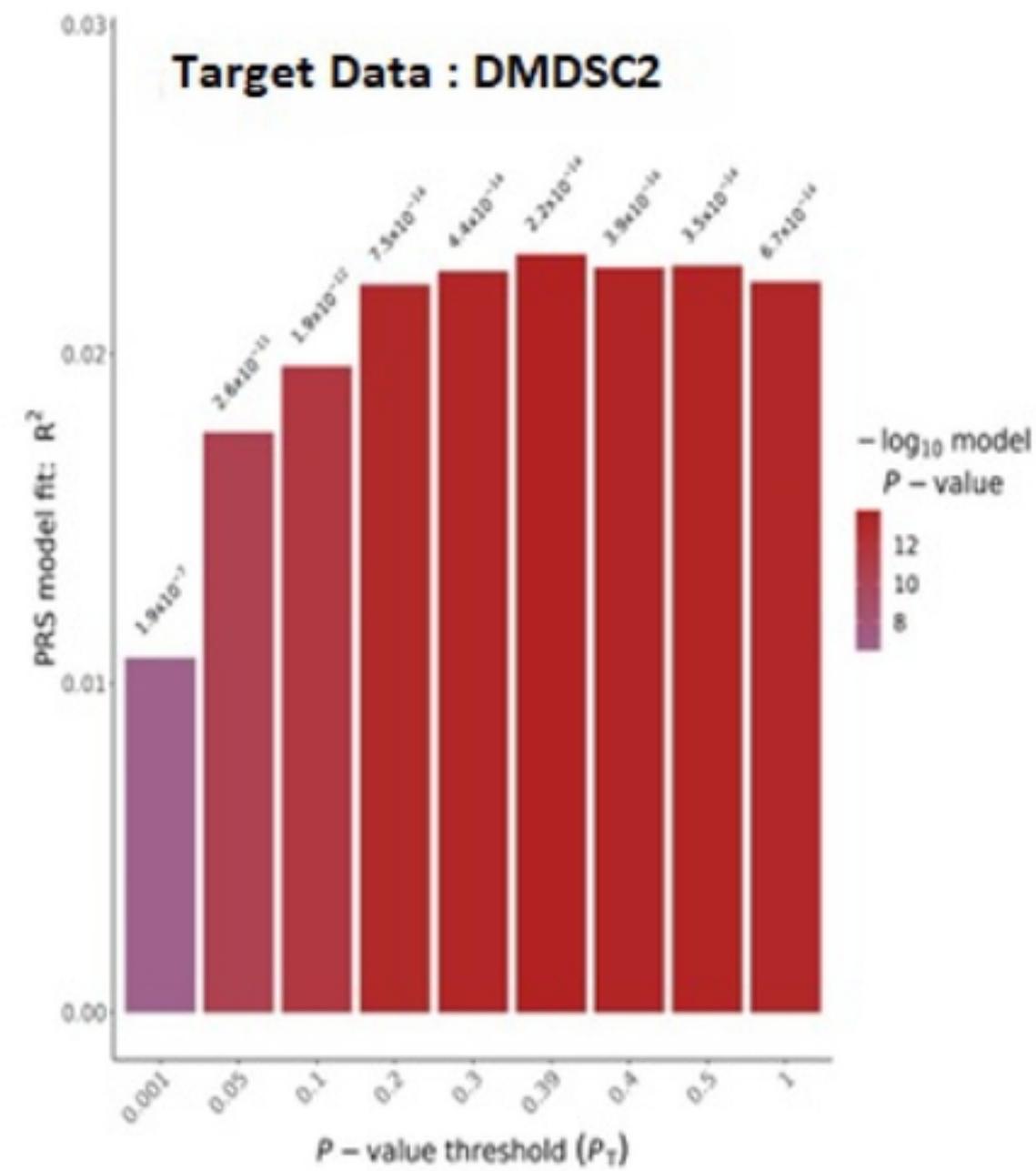
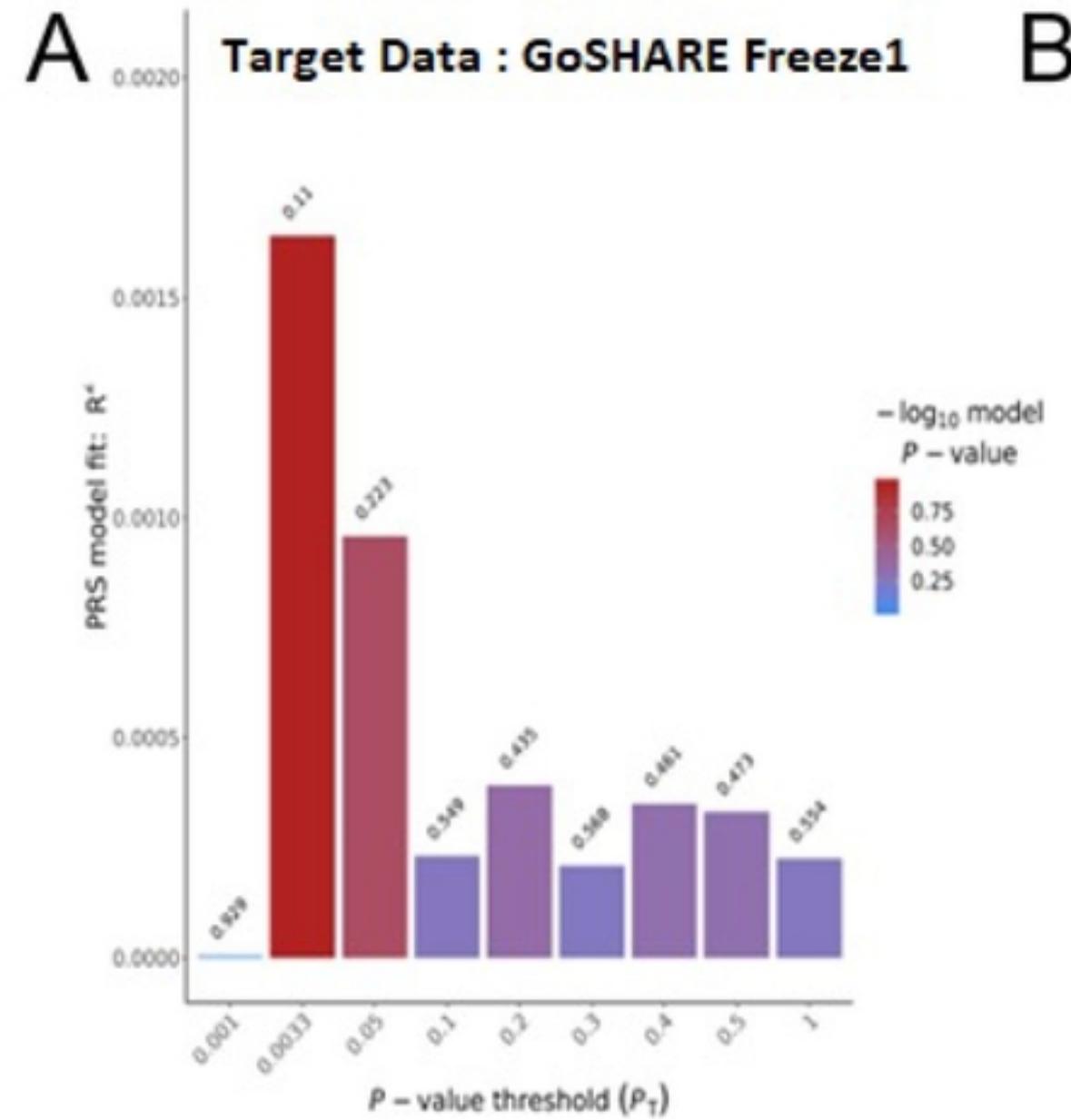


Figure6_PRS