Integration of human pancreatic islet genomic data refines regulatory mechanisms at Type 2 Diabetes susceptibility loci

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Abstract

Human genetic studies have emphasised the dominant contribution of pancreatic islet dysfunction to development of Type 2 Diabetes (T2D). However, limited annotation of the islet epigenome has constrained efforts to define the molecular mechanisms mediating the, largely regulatory, signals revealed by Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS). We characterised patterns of chromatin accessibility (ATAC-seq, n=17) and DNA methylation (whole-genome bisulphite sequencing, n=10) in human islets, generating high-resolution chromatin state maps through integration with established ChIP-seq marks. We found enrichment of GWAS signals for T2D and fasting glucose was concentrated in subsets of islet enhancers characterised by open chromatin and hypomethylation, with the former annotation predominant. At several loci (including *CDC123, ADCY5, KLHDC5*) the combination of fine-mapping genetic data and chromatin state enrichment maps, supplemented by allelic imbalance in chromatin accessibility pinpointed likely causal variants. The combination of

39 increasingly-precise genetic and islet epigenomic information accelerates
40 definition of causal mechanisms implicated in T2D pathogenesis.
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1. Introduction

T2D is a complex disease characterised by insulin resistance and reduced beta
cell function. Recent GWAS have identified a large number of T2D susceptibility
loci (Scott et al., 2017, Mahajan et al., 2014, Morris et al., 2012, Voight et al.,
2010), the majority of which affect insulin secretion and beta cell function
(Dimas et al., 2014, Wood et al., 2017). However, most GWAS signals map to the
non-coding genome and identification of the molecular mechanisms through
which non-coding variants exert their effect has proven challenging. Several
studies have demonstrated that T2D-associated variants map disproportionately
to regulatory elements, particularly those which influence RNA expression and
cellular function of human pancreatic islets. (Parker et al., 2013, Pasquali et al.,
2014, van de Bunt et al., 2015, Olsson et al., 2014, Dayeh et al., 2014, Volkov et
al., 2017, Varshney et al., 2017, Gaulton et al., 2015b, Gaulton et al., 2010).
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Characterisation of the islet regulome has until now been limited in scope. The
use of DNA methylation and open chromatin data to further annotate ChIP-seq
derived chromatin states has successfully uncovered novel biology for other
diseases (Wang et al., 2016). Existing methylation studies in islets, however,
have either profiled a very small proportion of methylation sites using
methylation arrays (Olsson et al., 2014, Dayeh et al., 2014) or focused on T2D-
associated disease differentially methylated regions (dDMRs) rather than the
integration of DNA methylation status with T2D-relevant GWAS data (Volkov et
al., 2017). At the same time, assays of open chromatin in human islets have been
restricted to small sample numbers (limiting the potential to capture allelic
imbalance in chromatin accessibility for example): these have focussed
predominantly on the impact of clustered or "stretch" enhancers (Parker et al.,
2013, Pasquali et al., 2014, Gaulton et al., 2010, Varshney et al., 2017).
69
70 Most importantly, in part due to historical challenges in accessing human islet
71 material or authentic human cellular models, reference annotations of the islet

epigenome and transcriptome (in the context of projects such as GTex, ENCODE and Epigenome Roadmap) have been largely absent. It is worth noting that islets constitute only ~1% of the pancreas, and islet epigenomes and transcriptomes cannot therefore be reliably assayed in analyses involving the entire organ. Previous islet epigenome studies have, therefore, had only limited ability to directly relate genetic variation to regulatory performance or to broadly characterise the role of DNA methylation in these processes.

In this study, we set out to expand upon previous studies of the islet regulome in several ways. First, we explored the human islet methylome in unprecedented depth using Whole-Genome Bisulphite Sequencing (WGBS) applied to a set of 10 human islet preparations. Second, we explored both basal and genotype-dependent variation in chromatin accessibility through ATAC-seq in 17 human islet preparations. Third, we integrated these genome-wide data with existing islet regulatory annotations to generate a high-resolution, epigenome map of this key tissue. Finally, we used this detailed map to interpret GWAS signals for T2D (and the related trait of fasting glucose) and deduce the molecular mechanisms through which some of these loci operate.

2. Results:

2.1 Characterising the DNA methylation landscape of human pancreatic islets

To characterise the human islet methylome and characterise the role of DNA methylation with respect to T2D genetic risk, we performed WGBS (mean coverage 13X) in human pancreatic islet DNA samples isolated from 10 non-diabetic cadaveric donors of European descent. Methylation levels across the genome were highly correlated across individual donors (mean CpG methylation Spearman's rho across 10 individual WGBS donors=0.71, Supplementary Figure S1A): we pooled the WGBS results to generate a single high-pass (mean coverage 85X) set of pooled human pancreatic islet methylation data covering 23.3 million CpG sites (minimum pooled coverage 10X).

Most previous studies of the relationship between GWAS data and tissue-specific

methylation patterns (including those interrogating the relationship between

islet methylation and T2D predisposition (Dayeh et al., 2014, Olsson et al.,

2014)) had used data generated on the Illumina 450k methylation array

(Hannon et al., 2016, Mitchell et al., 2016, Kato et al., 2015, Ventham et al., 2016).

For comparative purposes, we generated 450k array methylation data from 32

islet samples ascertained from non-diabetic donors of European descent (5

overlapping with those from whom WGBS data were generated). As with the

WGBS data, methylation levels were highly correlated across individuals (mean

CpG methylation Spearman's rho across 32 individual 450k donor=0.98,

Supplementary Figure S1B). After pooling 450k array data across samples,

methylation profiles generated from the 450k array and WGBS were highly

correlated at the small subset of total CpG sites for which they overlap: this was

observed across pooled samples (pooled WGBS vs. 450k Spearman's rho=0.89,

Figure 1A) and across the 5 donors analysed by both methods (mean Spearman's

rho=0.80, not shown).

WGBS and 450k array data differed substantially in terms of genome-wide

coverage. The 450k array was designed to interrogate with high precision and

coverage ~480k CpG sites (approximately 2% of all sites in the genome),

selected primarily because they are located near gene promoters and CpG-island

regions. The focus of the 450k array on these regions, which tend to be less

variable in terms of methylation, explains the high 450k array correlation levels

between donors. In addition, this selective design results in marked differences

in the distributions of genome-wide methylation values between WGBS and the

450k array. Whilst the WGBS data revealed the expected pattern of widespread

high methylation levels with hypomethylation (<50%) restricted to 11.2%

(2.6M/23.3M CpG sites) of the genome, the array disproportionately

interrogated those hypomethylated sites (218k [46%] of all 450k CpG probes)

(Kolmogorov–Smirnov (KS) test for difference, D=0.40, P<2.2x10^{-16}) (Figure 1B).

These differences in methylation distribution were also evident within specific

islet regulatory elements from previously defined standard chromatin state

maps (Parker et al., 2013) (Figure 1C, Supplementary Figure 1C-D). We found

significant (FDR<0.05) differences between the methylation levels of CpG sites

accessed on the array, and those interrogated by WGBS, across most islet

chromatin states: the largest differences were observed for weak promoters

(median WGBS=0.71 vs. median 450k=0.11, KS test D=0.51, $P<2.2 \times 10^{-16}$,) and

weak enhancers (WGBS=0.87 vs. 450k median=0.76, D=0.39, $P<2.2 \times 10^{-16}$,

Supplementary Figure 1D).

In terms of coverage, most chromatin states, apart from promoters, were poorly

represented by CpG sites directly interrogated by the array: for example the

array assayed only ~2.9% of CpG sites in strong enhancer states (2.7-3.8%

depending on strong enhancer subtype, Figure 1C). Although methylation levels

were previously reported to be highly correlated across short (0.1-2kb) genomic

distances (Zhang et al., 2015, Bell et al., 2011, Eckhardt et al., 2006, Guo et al.,

2017), the observed significant differences in the methylation distribution

(Figure 1C, Supplementary Figure 1D) across chromatin states including weak

promoter (median size 600bp) and enhancer subtypes (median size ranges from

200-1200bp) indicate that these correlative effects are not strong enough to

counterbalance the low coverage of the 450k array. These findings are consistent

with 450k array content being focused towards CpG-dense hypomethylated and

permissive promoter regions. This highlights the limited capacity of the array to

comprehensively interrogate the global DNA methylome, in particular at distal

regulatory states such as enhancers.

To understand the value of these data to reveal molecular mechanisms at GWAS

loci, where we and others had shown enrichment for islet enhancer states

(Pasquali et al., 2014, Gaulton et al., 2015a, Parker et al., 2013), we were

interested to see how the selective coverage of the array might impact on its

ability to interrogate methylation in GWAS-identified regions. We used the

largest currently available T2D DIAGRAM GWAS data set (involving 26.7k cases

and 132.5k controls of predominantly European origin, see dataset section for

details) to identify the "credible sets" of variants at each locus which collectively

account for 99% of the posterior probability of association (PPA) (Scott et al.,

2017, Maller et al., 2012).

To estimate the respective proportions of these T2D-associated variants

captured by CpG sites assayed by the 450k array and WGBS, we determined, for

each locus, the combined PPA of all 99% credible set variants mapping within

1000bp of any CpG site captured. This is based on evidence that across short

distances CpG methylation is highly correlated (Zhang et al., 2015, Bell et al.,

2011, Eckhardt et al., 2006, Guo et al., 2017) and may be influenced by genetic

variants associated with altered transcription factor binding (Do et al., 2016). We

found that coverage of this space of putative T2D GWAS variants by the 450k

array is low: across GWAS loci, the combined PPA attributable to variants within

regions assayed by the array ranged from 0-99% with a median PPA per locus of

16% (compared to a WGBS median PPA per locus=99%, KS-test P<2.2x10^{-16},

Figure 1D, top). We estimated that the equivalent figure for a recently developed

upgrade of the 450k array, which captures ~850k CpG sites and aims to provide

better coverage of enhancer regions, would be ~39% (range 0%-99% Figure 1D,

top). For instance, at the *DGKB* T2D locus (centred on rs10276674), CpG sites

covered by the 450k array interrogated less than 1% of the PPA of associated

variants (vs. 99% captured by WGBS); the figure for the 850k array would be

23% (Figure 1E). We obtained similar results when we performed equivalent

analyses using GWAS data for fasting glucose (FG, from the ENGAGE consortium

(Horikoshi et al., 2015)), another phenotype dominated by islet dysfunction

(Figure 1D, bottom).

These data indicate that available methylation arrays provide poor genome-wide

coverage of methylation status and are notably deficient in capturing

methylation status around the distal regulatory enhancer regions most relevant

to T2D predisposition. For this reason, we focused subsequent analyses on the

WGBS data.

2.2 Integration islet methylation and other epigenomic annotations

Studies in a variety of other tissues have shown that hypomethylation is a strong indicator of regulatory function (Stadler et al., 2011). More specifically, continuous stretches of CpG-poor Low-Methylated Regions (LMRs, with methylation ranging from 10-50% and containing fewer than 30 CpG sites) denote potential distal regulatory elements such as enhancers, while stretches of CpG-rich UnMethylated Regions (UMRs, containing more than 30 CpG sites) are more likely to represent proximal regulatory elements including promoters (Burger et al., 2013). We detected 37.1k LMRs, 13.6k UMRs (Figure 2A) and 10.7k Partially Methylated Domains (PMDs, Methods and Supplementary Figure 2A-B). PMDs represent large regions of unordered methylation states associated with DNA sequence features (Gaidatzis et al., 2014). As anticipated, we found significant enrichment of LMRs with weak and strong enhancer states as defined by islet chromatin state maps derived from existing ChIP-seq data (Parker et al., 2013) (69.2% of islet LMRs overlapped islet strong and weak enhancer states, $\log_2 FE=2.2-2.9$, Bonferroni P<0.05, (Figure 2B, Supplementary Figure 1C). Similarly, UMRs were enriched for islet active promoter chromatin states (90.8% of UMRs overlapped islet active promoters, $\log_2 FE=3.9$, FDR <0.05, Figure 2B).

To further characterise these hypomethylation domains, we overlapped information from analyses of islet cis-expression QTLs (eQTLs) (van de Bunt et al., 2015) and islet ChIP-seq transcription factor binding sites (TFBS) (Pasquali et al., 2014). We observed marked enrichment for eQTLs (LMR $\log_2 FE=1.1$, UMR $\log_2 FE=2.7$, Bonferroni P<0.05) and TFBS (LMR $\log_2 FE=4.1-4.6$; UMR $\log_2 FE=2.4-3.9$, Bonferroni P<0.05, Figure 2B). These observations confirm that islet LMRs and UMRs correspond to important tissue-specific regulatory regions, overlapping cis-regulatory annotations known to be enriched for T2D GWAS signals (Pasquali et al., 2014, Gaulton et al., 2015b).

We also considered the relationship between LMR and UMR regions defined in our non-diabetic islet WGBS, and a complementary set of methylation-based annotations previously derived from WGBS of islets from 6 T2D and 8 control

individuals (Volkov et al., 2017). In that study, comparisons between diabetic and non-diabetic islets had been used to define a set of 25,820 "disease differentially methylated regions" (dDMRs, min absolute methylation difference 5% and P<0.02). We found only limited overlap between these dDMRs and the UMRs and LMRs from our data: of the 25,820 dDMRs, 2.2% overlapped LMRs and 2.4% UMRs. This overlap was slightly greater than expected by chance (Bonferroni P<0.05, LMR $\log_2$FE=1.0 and promoter-like UMRs $\log_2$FE=1.1, Figure 2B) but more modest than seen for the other regulatory annotations. Similarly, we also observed that dDMRs showed more modest ($\log_2$FE=0.4-1.0), but still significant (Bonferroni P<0.05) levels of enrichment with respect to all other islet regulatory annotations (Figure 2B). The modest enrichment of dDMRs indicates that only a fraction of these regions correspond to islet genomic regulatory sites. Given that T2D risk variants preferentially map in islet regulatory sites, the corollary is that most dDMRs are unlikely to directly contribute to the mediation of genetic T2D risk.

2.3 Refining islet enhancer function using methylation and open chromatin data

To further characterise the regulatory potential of hypomethylated regions, including LMRs and UMRs, we combined the islet WGBS methylation data with chromatin accessibility data generated from ATAC-seq assays of 17 human islet samples (from non-diabetic donors of European descent; mean read count after filtering =130M, Supplementary Figure 2C). We identified a total of 141k open chromatin regions based on read depth, peak width and signal-to-noise ratio (see Methods). These regions of islet open chromatin showed substantial overlap (78%) with equivalent regions described in a recent study of two human islets (Varshney et al., 2017) ($\log_2$FE=2.8 compared to random sites, not shown). In addition, our islet ATAC-Seq sites demonstrated substantial overlap with LMRs: 53% of LMRs overlapped 16% of all ATAC-seq peaks (LMR $\log_2$FE=3.8 compared to randomised sites, Figure 2B). Almost all UMRs (98%) were contained within regions overlapping (13% of) ATAC-seq peaks (UMR $\log_2$FE=3.4 compared to randomised sites, Figure 2B).

To fully leverage information across multiple overlapping islet epigenome

assays, we generated augmented chromatin state maps, using chromHMM (Ernst

and Kellis, 2012). These maps combined the WGBS methylation and ATAC-Seq

open chromatin data with previously generated ChIP-seq marks (Figure 3A,

Supplementary Figure 3A). For these analyses, we initially used a single

definition for hypomethylated regions (methylation<60%) that captured both

UMRs and LMRs (see Methods).

This augmented and larger set of 15 islet chromatin states retained the broad

classification of regulatory elements that included promoters (positive for

H3K4me3), transcribed and genic regions (H3K36me3), strong enhancers

(H3K4me1; H3K27ac), weak enhancers (H3K4me1), insulators (CTCF) and

repressed elements (H3K27me) (Figure 3A). The addition of islet methylation

and open chromatin data expanded existing chromatin state definitions to

provide new subclasses, particularly amongst enhancer elements. Here, we

observed two subclasses of strong enhancers and three of weak enhancers

(Figure 3A). We denote the strong enhancer subtypes as "open" (n=32k genome-

wide), characterised by open chromatin and hypomethylation, and "closed"

(n=110k) with closed chromatin and hypermethylation (Figure 3A). The three

weak enhancer states we denote as "open" (n=38k: open chromatin,

hypomethylation), "lowly-methylated" (n=78k; closed chromatin,

hypomethylation) and "closed" (n=206k: closed chromatin, hypermethylation).

No equivalent class of "lowly-methylated" strong enhancers was observed in the

15-state model. When comparing these chromatin states to those identified

using only ChIP-seq marks ((Parker et al., 2013), Supplementary Figure 1C,), the

two strong enhancer subclasses we identified subdivided the "strong enhancer

1" state as described by Parker (defined by H3K27ac and H3K4me1). Additional

comparison to "stretch" enhancer clusters (Parker et al., 2013), showed that

there was considerable overlap between the "open" strong and weak enhancer

states we identify here and previously-described "stretch" enhancer states

(16.1k out of 23k stretch enhancer overlapped 32k out of 70.1k "open"

enhancers). Even so, most (55%) "open" enhancer states, and in particular

"open weak enhancers" (70%), were not captured within "stretch" enhancer

intervals, and we regard these as distinct islet enhancer subclasses.

To understand the relationship of these various state definitions to genetic

variants influencing T2D risk, we applied the hierarchical modelling approach

FGWAS to the same sets of large-scale GWAS data for T2D (from DIAGRAM (Scott

et al., 2017)) and FG (ENGAGE (Horikoshi et al., 2015)) described in section 2.1.

FGWAS allowed us to combine GWAS and genomic data to determine the

genome-wide enrichment within islet regulatory features for variants associated

with T2D risk. These enrichment priors were then used to generate credible

variant sets that are informed by both GWAS and genomic data, as described in

section 2.4.

In single-feature analyses, we found significant enrichment (lower limit of

Confidence Interval (CI)>0) limited to four enhancer states (open weak

enhancers, both types of strong enhancer and H3K36me3 marked genic

enhancers) (Figure 3B, Table 1). To take into account protein-coding variant and

conserved sequence effects, we also included CoDing exon Sequence (CDS)

(Carlson and Maintainer, 2015) and CONServed sequence (CONS) (Lindblad-Toh

et al., 2011) as additional annotations which were previously found to be

strongly enriched for T2D GWAS signal (Finucane et al., 2015).We observed

significant enrichment for CDS and CONS sequence in the single state results

(Figure 3B, Table 1). FGWAS multi-feature analyses for T2D, incorporating all

annotations positive in single-element analyses, retained both subclasses of

strong enhancer, the subclass of open weak enhancers, genic enhancers and CDS

in the joint model (Figure 3C and Methods). Conserved sequence annotations

were not retained in the joint model.

We observed markedly different levels of enrichment for T2D association

between and within open and closed enhancer states (Figure 3B-3C, Table 1).

Using these augmented chromatin state maps, we demonstrated clear

enrichment for T2D association for the subset of "open" weak enhancers (12% of

all weak enhancer sites) with no evidence of enrichment in the remaining

subclasses ("closed" and "lowly-methylated") (Figure 3B and Table 1). This concentration of enrichment amongst a relatively small subset of the weak enhancers was consistent with the lack of enrichment across all weak enhancers defined solely on the basis of H3K4me1 signal ((Parker et al., 2013), single state $\log_2$FE=0.9, CI=-2.5 to 2.0, Table 1, Supplementary Figure 1C). We also saw differences in enrichment signal between open and closed strong enhancers, with the most marked enrichment amongst open strong enhancers (22% of the total, Figure 3B-C, Table 1). This effect was particularly obvious in the joint-analysis (open strong enhancer joint FE=4.1, CI=3.3 to 4.8 vs. closed strong enhancer joint $\log_2$FE=2.4, CI=0.5 to 3.3, Figure 3C).

Hypomethylation and open chromatin are highly correlated, but the observed difference in T2D enrichment between the weak enhancer states (particularly between "lowly-methylated" and "open" which differ markedly with respect to chromatin status) points to a primary role for open chromatin. To test this further, we regenerated chromatin state maps using different subsets of the data (ChIP-only, with optional addition of methylation and/or open chromatin information, see Methods and Supplementary Figure 3A-3B). These analyses confirmed that the T2D GWAS enrichment signal was predominantly driven by the distribution of islet open chromatin (Supplementary Figure 3C).

We further evaluated the role of subclasses of DNA methylation regulatory region with respect to T2D GWAS enrichment. We divided hypomethylated (<60% methylated) sequence into enhancer-like LMRs (6.5% of all hypomethylated sequence), promoter-like UMRs (7.5% of hypomethylated sequence), as well as PMDs (61% of hypomethylated sequence). The remaining 25% of hypomethylated sequence did not fit any category. LMRs were significantly (CI>0) enriched ($\log_2$FE=3.2, CI=2.3 to 3.9) for T2D association signals consistent with their co-localisation with distal regulatory elements, and displayed modestly increased enrichment compared to enhancer states derived from ChIP-seq alone (Figure 3D, Supplementary Table 1). In contrast, no significant enrichment was found for human islet (promoter-like) UMRs ($\log_2$FE=1.4, CI=-0.6 to 2.5) or PMDs ($\log_2$FE=-0.8, CI=-1.7 to -0.1). We also found

no evidence that recently-described regions of T2D-associated differential
methylation (dDMRs: derived from comparison of WGBS data from islets of
diabetic and non-diabetic individuals) were enriched for genome-wide T2D
association signals ($\log_2$FE=-24.6, CI=-44.6 to 3.7) (Figure 3D, Supplementary
Table 1).

Finally, since the hypomethylation signal for T2D enrichment was concentrated
in LMRs (Figure 3D, Supplementary Table 1), we reran a FGWAS joint-analysis
combining open chromatin peaks, LMRs and ChIP-only states using a nested
model (Figure 3E, Supplementary Figure 3D-E, see Methods). This confirmed
that the improvement in enrichment was mainly driven by open chromatin but
showed that LMRs also contributed significantly and independently to the
enrichment (Figure 3E, Supplementary Table 2).

FGWAS analysis for FG corroborated the observations from T2D analysis.
Despite reduced power of the FG GWAS data due to a lower number of
significantly associated FG GWAS loci, both single feature and joint-model
analyses of human islet epigenome data found significant enrichment in strong
enhancer states with the strongest enrichment in enhancers with open
chromatin and hypomethylation (Supplementary Figure 4A-B and Table 1). In
addition, evaluation of the relative contributions of ATAC-seq open chromatin
and DNA methylation to FG GWAS enrichment across both single-feature
(Supplementary Figure 4C-D) and joint-model analysis (Supplementary Figure
4E-F and Supplementary Table 3) indicated that open chromatin was primarily
responsible for the enhanced enrichment.

Overall, these analyses demonstrate that the addition of open chromatin and
DNA methylation data to ChIP-seq marks enhances the resolution of regulatory
annotation for human islets. In particular, it defines subsets of weak and strong
enhancers that differ markedly with respect to the impact of genetic variation on
T2D risk. Although DNA accessibility and hypomethylation status are strongly
correlated and provide broadly similar enrichments, the effects of the former
predominate. In line with the dominance of open chromatin status for T2D GWAS

enrichment, we observed that T2D risk in relation to methylation status is
primarily invested in hypomethylated LMRs (i.e. enhancers) rather than UMRs,
dDMRs or PMDs.

2.4 Augmented chromatin maps and open chromatin allelic imbalance
refine likely causal variants at *ADCY5* , *CDC123*, and *KLHDC5*

We next deployed the insights from the global FGWAS enrichment analyses to
define the molecular mechanisms at individual T2D susceptibility loci, refining
T2D causal variant localisation using the combination of genetic data (from fine-
mapping) and the genome-wide patterns of epigenomic enrichment.

Specifically, we applied FGWAS to the T2D DIAGRAM GWAS data (Scott et al.,
2017) under the joint model (Figure 3C) derived from the augmented chromatin
state maps. We divided the genome into 2327 segments (average size 5004 SNPs
or 1.2Mb) and identified 52 segments significantly associated with T2D genome-
wide (segmental FGWAS PPA >=0.9 or single variant GWAS P< $5x10^{-8}$, see
Methods for details). These corresponded to 49 known T2D associated regions
representing that subset of the ~120 known T2D GWAS loci which passed those
significance/filtering criteria in this European-only dataset. We then calculated
reweighted PPAs for each variant within each segment and generated
reweighted 99% credible sets. (Of note, in line with traditional GWAS
nomenclature, locus names were defined based on proximity between the lead
variant and the closest gene and does not, of itself, indicate any causal role for
the gene in T2D susceptibility).

Consistent with the increased T2D GWAS enrichment of states including open
chromatin and DNA methylation information, we found that analyses using
enrichments from the augmented chromatin state model (combining ChIP-seq,
ATAC-seq and WGBS data) were associated with smaller 99% credible sets
(median of 17 SNPs) than those derived from FGWAS enrichment derived from
ChIP-seq data alone (median 23). In parallel, the PPA for the best variant per
locus increased (median 0.39 vs 0.31). Individual T2D GWAS locus results are

shown in Figure 4A-B. We also expanded the FGWAS PPA analysis to investigate
open chromatin and DNA methylation effects on fine-mapping and found that the
reduction in 99% credible set size and increase in maximum variant PPA was
driven predominantly by open chromatin (Supplementary Figure 5,
Supplementary Table 4). This demonstrates that the inclusion of open chromatin
maps helps to improve prioritisation of causal variants at many T2D GWAS loci.
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A subset of T2D GWAS signals are known to influence T2D risk through a
primary effect on insulin secretion, whilst others act primarily through insulin
resistance. We used previous categorisations of T2D GWAS loci based on the
patterns of association with quantitative measurements of metabolic function
and anthropometry (Wood et al., 2017, Dimas et al., 2014), to define a set of
15/48 loci most clearly associated with deficient insulin secretion (and therefore
most likely to involve islet dysfunction). At 11 of these 15 loci, we found that islet
"open strong enhancer" states, and to a lesser extent "open weak enhancer" and
"closed strong enhancer", captured more than 60% of the PPA (median 92%,
Figure 4C). Variants in these islet enhancer subclasses also captured at least 95%
of the PPA at 4 T2D GWAS loci that could not be classified according to
physiological association data but which have been previously implicated in
human islet genome or functional regulation based on islet eQTL (van de Bunt et
al., 2015) or mQTL (Olsson et al., 2014) data (Figure 4C, genes highlighted in
bold). In contrast, at 3/6 of the insulin resistance and all but 5 unclassified loci,
the PPA was mostly (>50%) attributable to other non-islet enhancer states
(across all insulin resistance and unclassified loci, DNA not overlapping islet
enhancers and defined as "Other" capture a median PPA of 64%). Thus, islet
regulatory annotations are particularly useful for fine-mapping T2D GWAS loci
that affect insulin secretion and beta-cell function.
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To obtain additional evidence to support the localisation of causal variants, we
tested for allelic imbalance in ATAC-seq open chromatin data. We selected 54
variants within 33 T2D-associated GWAS segments for testing of allelic
imbalance on the basis of (a) a reweighted variant PPA >=10% and (b) overlap
with an enriched regulatory state within the FGWAS T2D joint-model (Figure 4D,

Supplementary Table 5). Of these, 20 variants (at 16 loci) had sufficient numbers

of heterozygous samples (>2) and ATAC_Seq read depth (depth>9 and at least 5

reads for each allele). After correcting for mapping bias using WASP, we

observed the strongest evidence for allelic imbalance (FDR< 0.05) at 3 out of the

20 variants (rs11257655 near *CDC123* and *CAMK1D*, rs10842991 near *KLHDC5*

and rs11708067 at *ADCY5*) (Table 2). All three overlapped refined islet open

strong or open weak enhancer regions characterised by open chromatin and

hypomethylation.

Variant rs11257655 accounts for 95% of the reweighted PPA (compared to a

PPA of 20% from genetic data alone) at the *CDC123/CAMK1D* locus, overlaps an

"open strong enhancer" region (Figure 5A) and the risk allele correlates with

increased chromatin accessibility. The same variant is in high LD (r2=0.82) with

the lead variant for a cis-eQTL for *CAMK1D* in islets (van de Bunt et al., 2015). In

experimental assays (Fogarty et al., 2014), the T2D-risk allele has been shown to

be associated with increased *CAMK1D* gene expression and enhanced binding of

the FOXA1 and FOXA2 transcription factors. These data all point to rs11257655

as the causal variant at this locus*.*

At *KLHDC5*, no clear causal variant emerged based on genetic fine-mapping data

alone as the credible set contained 23 variants in high mutual LD (r^2>0.8, top

variant PPA<5%, Figure 5B). Of these, variants rs10771372 (genetic fine-

mapping PPA= 5%), rs10842992 (genetic fine mapping PPA=5%) and

rs10842991 (genetic fine-mapping PPA=3%) overlapped "open strong

enhancer" regions (Figure 5B), such that their reweighted PPAs rose to 21%

(rs10771372), 21% (rs10842992) and 13% (rs10842991), respectively. We

observed allelic imbalance only at rs10842991 with the T2D-risk C allele

showing greater chromatin accessibility (binomial P=4.1x10^{-3}, Table 2). This

variant further overlapped a predicted TFBS motif for PAX6 as determined by

the software tool FIMO (Grant et al., 2011): the T2D-risk allele was predicted to

enhance PAX6 transcription factor binding consistent with the allelic effects on

increasing chromatin accessibility (Supplementary Figure 6A). This strong

enhancer region is almost exclusively found in islets, with strong enhancer

H3K27ac states overlapping rs10842991 in only two non-islet (heart and

smooth muscle) Epigenome Roadmap tissues (out of 99 tissues with 18-state

chromatin state information, Figure 5B)(Roadmap Epigenomics et al., 2015).

Islet eQTL data (Varshney et al., 2017) also links rs10842991 and close proxy

SNPs (including rs7960190) to islet transcription with the risk allele increasing

KLHDC5 expression. These data prioritise rs10842991 as the likely causal

variant at the *KLHDC5* T2D GWAS locus, and indicate a likely molecular

mechanism involving modified PAX6 transcription factor binding and an impact

on *KLHDC5* expression and islet function.

The third example of allelic imbalance mapped to the *ADCY5* locus. Fine-mapping

based solely on genetic data could not prioritise a distinct causal variant due to

multiple variants in high LD (range for top 5 variants=12-26%, Figure 5C).

However, reweighting of variants based on epigenomic annotation clearly

prioritised variant rs11708067: this SNP overlapped an "open weak enhancer"

and captured most of the reweighted PPA (PPA=92%). Allelic imbalance analysis

also showed that the T2D-risk A allele was associated with decreased chromatin

accessibility (binomial P=1.2×10^{-6}, Table 2). The same lead variant maps to an

islet cis-eQTL and methylation QTL (Figure 5C, Supplementary Figure 6B) at

which the T2D-risk allele is associated with reduced *ADCY5* expression and

increased *ADCY5* gene body DNA methylation.

To further understand the role of the rs11708067 variant, we performed ATAC-

seq and Next Generation Capture-C, in the glucose-responsive human beta-cell

line EndoC-βH1 (n=3). We targeted the *ADCY5* promoter to define distal regions

interacting with the promoter, and confirmed physical contact with the

hypomethylated open chromatin enhancer region harbouring rs11708067

(Figure 5C, Supplementary Figure 6C). To resolve the significance of the

interaction between the restriction fragment encompassing rs11708067 and the

ADCY5 promoter, we used the programme peakC(de Wit and Geeven, 2017)

(*https://github.com/deWitLab/peakC)* to evaluate the interactions of 12

fragments covering the lead SNP rs11708067 and 15 SNPs in high LD (r2 > 0.8)

across a region of 47kb. After adjusting for multiple testing using FDR correction,

only two fragments yielded a significant normalised read number over

background. This included the open-chromatin overlapping fragment containing

rs11708067 and another fragment harbouring rs2877716, rs6798189,

rs56371916 (Supplementary Figure 6D). These SNPs fall into a region that did

not show evidence of open chromatin.

These findings support rs11708067 as the likely causal variant affecting islet

accessible chromatin (in line with another recent study (Roman et al., 2017)),

and link the open and hypomethylated enhancer element in which it sits to

regulation of *ADCY5* expression in islets.

3. Discussion

A key challenge in the quest to describe the molecular mechanisms through

which GWAS signals influence traits of interest, involves the identification of the

causal variants responsible and, given that most lie in non-coding sequence, the

characterisation of the regulatory elements which they perturb. This underpins

efforts to define the effector genes through which these variants operate and to

reconstruct the biological networks that are central to disease pathogenesis.

Genetic and physiological studies have highlighted the singular importance of

pancreatic islet dysfunction in type 2 diabetes, but epigenomic characterisation

of this tissue has been limited in large-scale community projects such as ENCODE

and GTex. The present study seeks to address this deficit by describing, in

unprecedented detail, genome-wide patterns of methylation and chromatin

accessibility in human islet material. We have combined these data with existing

islet epigenomic marks to generate a refined regulatory map which, based on the

evidence of improved enrichment for T2D association signals, offers more

granular annotation of functional impact.

Our data show that, for DNA methylation, the signal of T2D predisposition is

primarily associated with enhancer-like LMRs rather than other categories of

methylation elements including UMRs, dDMRs or PMDs. We highlight the strong

correlation between islet methylation status and chromatin accessibility but

demonstrate that open chromatin predominantly contributes to defining the

regulatory impact associated with genetic T2D risk. Finally, we demonstrate

how these enhanced epigenomic annotations, when analysed in concert with

genetic fine-mapping data and information from allelic imbalance in chromatin

accessibility allow us to home in on likely causal variants at T2D association

signals such as those near *ADCY5, CDC123* and *KLHDC5*.

While previous studies had explored the candidacy of selected variants at the

CDC123 (Fogarty et al., 2014) and *ADCY5* (Olsson et al., 2014, Hodson et al., 2014,

van de Bunt et al., 2015) loci with respect to islet regulation and T2D

predisposition, our integrative analysis of T2D GWAS and epigenetic data has

enabled a detailed and comprehensive analysis that considers the regulatory

impact of all variants at these loci across multiple islet samples. Our analysis

implicates the rs11257655 and rs11708067 variants as the most likely causal

variants at the *CDC123* and *ADCY5* loci respectively and highlights their

relationship to islet enhancer activity. The findings at *ADCY5* are supported by a

recent paper that found allelic imbalance in H3K27 acetylation involving the

rs11708067 variant in a single human islet sample, and which observed that

deletion of the relevant enhancer element led to reduction in both *ADCY5* gene

expression and insulin secretion (Roman et al., 2017).

At the *KLHDC5* locus, local LD frustrated efforts to define the causal variant using

genetic data alone, but the integration of genetic and epigenetic data pinpointed

rs10842991 as the likely culprit based on its impact on chromatin accessibility in

an open enhancer region. Evidence that this variant co-localises with an islet cis-

eQTL signal points to *KLHDC5* as the likely downstream target (Varshney et al.,

2017). Overall, our integrative approach provides useful insights into the

functional mechanisms through which T2D GWAS signals operate. Our findings

mirror those from other studies, which have, in various ways, and for other

complex traits, combined diverse epigenomic annotations to explore the basis of

genetic risk (Wang et al., 2016).

The whole genome methylation data generated in the present study also allowed
us to evaluate the likely contribution of previously identified T2D-associated
dDMRs (Volkov et al., 2017) with respect to T2D predisposition. These dDMRs,
defined on the basis of observed differences in methylation between islets
recovered from diabetic and non-diabetic donors, cover a substantial part of the
genome, but we were able to show that only a small minority of these overlap
functional islet regulatory regions. As a consequence, dDMR regions as a whole
had no significant enrichment for T2D association signals. This suggests that
most of the dDMR signal involves stochastic effects and/or the secondary
consequences on methylation of the diabetic state. However, we cannot exclude
that some of the dDMR signals are causal contributors to the diabetic phenotype
either because they reflect environmental rather than genetic predisposition, or
because they accelerate further perturbation of islet dysfunction as diabetes
develops.
613
Although we provide highly detailed functional fine-mapping of T2D genetic
variants to uncover causal variants, the FGWAS approach applied in this study is
limited in its ability to determine the effect of multiple variants at individual loci.
Specifically, FGWAS relies on the assumption of a single causal variant within
each region, which may not necessarily be true for all loci. This assumption could
be violated where there are multiple independent signals at a given locus, or
where there are multiple (small effect size) variants on a single risk haplotype
which jointly impact the phenotype. Analysis methods that combine functional
fine-mapping with conditional analysis and consider LD and haplotype patterns
are likely to provide a more complete overview of the causal interactions at T2D
GWAS loci.
625
In addition, while the present study characterises islet epigenome status and
variability in chromatin accessibility in substantially larger numbers of islet
samples than those previously reported (Gaulton et al., 2015b, Parker et al.,
2013, Pasquali et al., 2014, Varshney et al., 2017), the number of islet
preparations for which these data were available was still limited. As a result,
our power to detect allelic imbalance in chromatin accessibility was restricted to

sites with common variants and relatively large effects. We anticipate that

expansion of these sample numbers will extend our capacity to detect such allelic

imbalance, and offer more granular insights into the relationships between

genetic variation and methylation status. A further limitation is that the genomic

data we analysed was generated only from islet samples from non-diabetic

donors. Whilst causal inference is possible through the integration of basal

epigenomic annotations with genetic data, addition of epigenomic data from

islets recovered from diabetic donors has the potential to add a further

dimension to such analyses, and to unravel what are likely to be complex causal

relationships between genetic variants, epigenomic phenotypes and disease

states (Gutierrez-Arcelus et al., 2013). Finally, future work should also focus on

experimental validation of likely causal variants and mechanisms e.g. differential

binding of the TF PAX6 could be tested at the *KLHDC5* rs10842991 variant

through electrophoretic mobility shift assays. Our ongoing research efforts are

now concentrated on improving the fine-mapping analysis and expanding these

genomic enrichment analyses in larger numbers of human islet samples from

healthy and diabetic islets. By coupling the integration of these data with

empirical functional studies, we expect to provide an increasingly complete

description of the causal interactions between DNA methylation, chromatin

state, RNA expression and T2D susceptibility.

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4. Methods

4.1 Human Pancreatic islet samples

4.1.2 WGBS and 450k array human pancreatic islet sample collection

Human islets were retrieved from deceased Caucasian non-diabetic donors from

the Oxford DRWF Human Islet Isolation Facility (n=34) and at the Alberta

Diabetes Institute in Edmonton in Canada (n=10). For the analysis only samples

with a purity >70% were used as determined by dithizone labeling. The Human

Research Ethics Board at the University of Alberta (Pro00001754), the

University of Oxford's Oxford Tropical Research Ethics Committee (OxTREC

Reference: 2–15), or the Oxfordshire Regional Ethics Committee B (REC

reference: 09/H0605/2) approved the studies. All organ donors provided

informed consent for use of pancreatic tissue in research.

For all WGBS (n=10) and a subset of 450k array samples (n=18) human

pancreatic islet DNA was extracted from 100,000-150,000 islet cells using Trizol-

(Ambion, UK or Sigma Aldrich, Canada) as described previously (van de Bunt et

al., 2015). For the remaining 23 samples islet DNA was extracted using the

ReliaPrep gDNA Tissue Miniprep system (Promega). Extracted DNA was stored

at -80°C before further use.

4.1.2 ATAC-seq human pancreatic islet sample collection

Human pancreatic islets preparations (n=18) were retrieved from 17 deceased

non-diabetic donors of European descent from the Oxford DRWF Human Islet

Isolation Facility and stored for 1-3 days in CMRL or UW media. The latter were

reactivated in CMRL for 1h before processing them further. Approximately

50,000 islet cells per sample were hand-picked and immediately processed for

ATAC-seq as described previously (Buenrostro et al., 2013), however, an

additional round of purification was performed using Agencourt AMPure XP

magnetic beads (Beckman Coulter).

4.2. WGBS data generation

4.2.1 Bisulphite conversion

400ng of DNA per human islet samples (n=10) were sent as part of a

collaborative effort to the Blizard Institute, Queen Mary University, London, UK

and bisulphite- converted using the Ovation Ultralow Methyl-Seq DR Multiplex

System 1-8 (Nugen) and purified using Agencourt AMPure beads (Beckman

Coulter) as described previously (Lowe et al., 2013).

4.2.2 Library generation and processing of reads

The libraries were sequenced by members of the High-Throughput Genomics

group at the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, University of Oxford,

Oxford, UK. Samples were sequenced as multiplex libraries across 3 HiSeq2000

lanes with 100bp paired-end read length (including a PhIX spike-in of 5%) to

obtain high-coverage read data. The obtained reads were trimmed using a

customized python3 script (10bp at the start and 15bp at the end) and aligned to

hg19 using the software Bismark (settings: L,0,-0.6, version 0.12.5,

RRID:SCR_005604)(Krueger and Andrews, 2011). Specifically, paired-end

alignment of trimmed reads was performed and unmapped reads from read 1

were realigned using Bismark and merged with the paired-end alignment using

samtools (Li et al., 2009) (version 0.1.19, RRID:SCR_002105) in order to increase

mapping efficiency. Coverage for the merged paired-end and realigned HiSeq

read alignments was estimated for the human mappable genome (NCBI hg19 2.8

billion base pairs excluding gaps and unmappable and blacklisted regions

according to UCSC and Encode(EncodeProjectConsortium, 2012)) using bedtools

(version v2.21.0) (Quinlan, 2014).

4.2.3 WGBS DNA methylation quantification and prediction of

hypomethylated regulatory regions

CpG methylation levels were determined for each sample by calculating the ratio

of unmodified C (methylated) and bisulphite converted T (unmethylated) alleles

using BiFAST (first described here (Lowe et al., 2013)). High-pass pooled WGBS

data was generated by adding methylated and unmethylated read counts across

individual low-pass samples to then estimate the average beta methylation

levels.

Regulatory regions were identified using the R package methylseek

(RRID:SCR_006513) (Burger et al., 2013). After removing PMDs, which represent

highly heterogenous methylation states determined by DNA sequence features

(Gaidatzis et al., 2014), LMRs (<30 CpGs) and UMRs (>30 CpGs) were predicted

in hypomethylated regions (<50%) at an FDR of 0.05. The methylation level and

FDR parameter was inferred from the data as suggested by the methylseek

workflow (Burger et al., 2013).

4.3 450k DNA methylation array data generation

In total, 41 samples were processed for the Illumina Infinium
HumanMethylation450 BeadChip (Illumina, San Diego, CA). Of these 18 samples
were bisulphite-converted and processed as part of a collaboration at the UCL
Cancer Institute, University College London, London, UK while the remaining 23
samples were processed in OCDEM, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK. The DNA
was bisulphite converted using the EZ DNA Methylation™ Kit (© Zymogen
Research Corp, Irvine, CA) and hybridised to the Illumina 450k array and
scanned with iScan (Illumina) according to the manufacturer's protocol.
739
740 The resulting data was analysed using the Package minfi (RRID:SCR_012830)
741 (Aryee et al., 2014) and custom R scripts ((RCoreTeam), R version 3.0.2,
742 RRID:SCR_001905). Specifically, CpG sites with a detection P-value >0.01 were
743 removed from the analysis and samples with >5% of CpG sites failing this
744 threshold (n=9) were also removed from the analysis.
745
Following separate quantile normalisation of signal intensities derived from
methylated and unmethylated Type I probes and Type II probes, methylation
levels (ß) were estimated, based on the intensities of the methylated (M) and
unmethylated (U) signal in the following way: $\beta = M/(M+U+100)$. To correct for
batch effects the ComBat function implemented in the sva (Johnson et al., 2007,
Leek et al.) package was used (Supplementary Figure 7).
752
753 **4.4 ATAC-seq data generation**
754
755 **4.4.1 Sequencing of ATAC-seq reads**
756 ATAC-seq libraries were sequenced at the High-Throughput Genomics group
757 which is part of the Wellcome Trust Centre for Human Genetics, University of
758 Oxford, Oxford, UK. Samples were sequenced as 4-6plex libraries across 1-3
759 Hiseq2500 lanes with 50bp paired-end read length.
760
4.4.2 Processing of ATAC-seq reads
Raw FASTQ reads were processed with an in-house pipeline (first described in
(Hay et al., 2016) and on the website

http://userweb.molbiol.ox.ac.uk/public/telenius/PipeSite.html). Specifically,

library and sequencing quality was checked with FASTQC (RRID:SCR_014583)

(http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc) and reads were

mapped to the human genome (hg19) via bowtie (Langmead et al., 2009)

(version 1.1.0, RRID:SCR_005476) with default settings but -m 2, and maxins

2000 which allows mapping of reads with a maximum number of 2 alignments

and a maximum insert size of 2000bp. For reads that could not be aligned the

first time, adapters were removed with Trim Galore at the 3 prime end

(RRID:SCR_011847, settings -length 10, -qualFilter 20,

http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/) to enhance

the chance of mapping. The resulting trimmed reads were then mapped again

with bowtie. Any remaining unmapped and trimmed reads were processed with

FLASH (Magoc and Salzberg, 2011) (version 1.2.8, RRID:SCR_005531, settings -m

9 -x 0.125) which combines overlapping read pairs and reconstructs read pairs

without overlap. These are then realigned a third time using bowtie. PCR

duplicates are then removed from the mapped bam files using samtools rmdup

function (Li et al., 2009). Additionally, all reads overlapping any of the

"unmappable" UCSC Duke blacklisted hg19 regions (EncodeProjectConsortium,

2012) are also removed from the final bam file.

Open chromatin peaks were called through the aforementioned in-house

pipeline by applying sample-specific read depth and width parameters, which

were chosen based on the signal to noise ratio of a given sample.

4.5 ChIP-seq data and identification of chromatin states

4.5.1 Processing of available ChIP-seq data

Human islet ChIP-seq histone mark and TFBS data were obtained from various

sources: H3K4me1, *CTCF* and H3K27ac (Pasquali et al., 2014), H3K36me3 and

H3K4me3 (Moran et al., 2012) and H3K27me3 (Roadmap Epigenomics et al.,

2015). Available raw fastq files were aligned to hg19 using bowtie1 (version

1.1.1) with modified default settings (-m 1 which removes reads with more than

1 valid alignment and -n 1 which defines the maximum number of mismatches in

seed) and PCR duplicates were removed from the aligned bam files with Picard

tools (RRID:SCR_006525, v1.119, http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). The

resulting reads were converted into bed format using the bedtools bamToBed

function (Quinlan, 2014) (RRID:SCR_006646, version v2.21.0) and extended by

200bp towards the 3' end to account for fragment size.

4.5.2 Identification of chromatin states using chromHMM

Binarised 200bp density maps from the bed files of the 6 ChIP-seq marks were

created using a Poisson distribution implemented in the BinaryBed function of

the ChromHMM software as described in (Ernst and Kellis, 2012, Ernst et al.,

2011). From these epigenomic density maps, 11 ChIP-only chromatin states

were derived using a multivariate Hidden Markov Model implemented in the

Learnmodel function (standard settings, h19 genome) of the software

ChromHMM (Ernst and Kellis, 2012).

To generate additional sets of chromatin states based on ChIP-seq, ATAC-seq and

DNA methylation data, ATAC-seq open chromatin and DNA methylation status

were binarised. Specifically, ATAC-seq peaks (presence/absence) and whole-

genome CpG methylation status (hypermethylation/hypomethylation based on a

threshold of 60% methylation) were binarised across 200bp windows of the

genome.

These binarised 200bp ChIP-seq, ATAC-seq and DNA methylation maps were

combined and used to generate 3 sets of chromatin states derived from ChIP and

DNA methylation data (ChIP+Meth), ChIP and ATAC-seq data (ChIP+ATAC) or

ChIP, ATAC-seq and DNA methylation data (ChIP+ATAC+Meth) using the

Learnmodel ChromHMM function (Figure 3A and Supplementary Figure 3A-B) .

As suggested by (Ernst et al., 2011), after evaluating models with up to 20

chromatin states, a 15 state model was chosen based on the resolution provided

by identified states

4.6 *ADCY5* Capture C analysis and ATAC-seq in EndoC-ßH1

Next-generation Capture-C was performed in order to map physical chromatin

interactions with the *ADCY5* promoter in EndoC-ßH1 (RRID:CVCL_L909) cell

lines (n = 3) (see protocol in Methods in (Davies et al., 2016)).

In brief, chromatin conformation capture (3C) libraries were generated by

formaldehyde fixation prior to DpnII restriction enzyme digestion and

subsequent DNA ligation. Following cross-link reversal, DNA extraction and

sonication, sequencing adapters were added to sonicated fragments (~200bp).

Library fragments were subjected to a double capture through hybridisation

with a biotinylated oligonucleotide probes encompassing the *ADCY5* promoter

and enriched using streptavidin bead pulldown. PCR amplified fragments were

then sequenced through paired-end sequencing (Illumina Next-Seq). An *in silico*

restriction enzyme digestion was performed on the set of reconstructed

fragments (from paired-end sequenced reads) using the DpnII2E.pl script

(Davies, 2015)(https://github.com/Hughes-Genome-Group/captureC).

Uncaptured reads and PCR duplicates were removed prior to mapping to the

human genome (hg19) with Bowtie (Langmead et al., 2009)(v 1.1.0). Removal of

PCR duplicates and classification of fragments as 'capture' (i.e. including the

ADCY5 promoter) or 'reporter' (outside the capture fragment on exclusion

region) was performed with the CCanalyser2.pl wrapper (Davies,

2015)(https://github.com/Hughes-Genome-Group/captureC). Unique mapped

interactions were normalized to the total number of *cis* interactions (i.e. same

chromosome) per 100,000 interactions. Significant chromatin interactions were

determined from a rank-sum test implemented in the program peakC (de Wit

and Geeven, 2017)(https://github.com/deWitLab/peakC). Specifically, we

evaluated interactions involving all SNPs in high LD ($r2 > 0.8$) with the lead

rs11708067. The lead variant (rs11708067) was in high LD with 15 SNPs

(mapping to 12 DpnII fragments) that spanned a region of 47kb. We applied the

Benjamini-Hochberg correction to control the false discovery rate for the set of

p-values corresponding to each restriction fragment within the 47kb region at

the ADCY5 locus.

In addition, ATAC-seq was performed in 50,000 cells of EndoC-ßH1 cell lines

(n=3) and the data was analysed in the same way as described above for human

islet samples.

Endo-βH1 cells were obtained from Endocells and have been previously

authenticated (Ravassard et al., 2011). In addition, the cell line was tested and

found negative for mycoplasma contamination.

4.7 Overlaying generated epigenomic datasets generated here with other

genomic regulatory regions

CpG sites and/or hypomethylated regulatory regions identified from the WGBS

and/or 450k array data were overlapped with existing islet chromatin state

maps (Parker et al., 2013), islet transcription factor binding sites (*FOXA2, MAFB,*

NKX2.2, NKX6.1, PDX1), T2D-associated islet dDMRs (Dayeh et al., 2014) and

eQTLs (van de Bunt et al., 2015). Similarly, ATAC-seq open chromatin peaks

generated here were overlapped with publicly available ATAC-seq peaks

(Varshney et al., 2017).

In addition, we also obtained the 850k array manifest file to determine overlap

of 850k array CpG sites with GWAS credible set regions

(https://support.illumina.com/downloads/infinium-methylationepic-v1-0-

product-files.html).

4.8 Genetic datasets used in this study

Credible sets from the DIAGRAM (Scott et al., 2017)(involving 26.7k cases and

132.5k controls of predominantly European origin, imputed to the 1000G March

2012 reference panel) and ENGAGE (Horikoshi et al., 2015)(including 46.7k

individuals, imputed to the 1000G March 2012 reference panel) consortium

were used to compare the ability of the 450k, 850k and WGBS methylation array

to interrogate T2D and FG GWAS regions.

The DIAGRAM and ENGAGE GWAS SNP summary level data was used for the

FGWAS analysis to determine enrichment of regulatory annotations in T2D and

FG GWAS signal.

Furthermore, data from (Wood et al., 2017) and (Dimas et al., 2014) were used

to categories T2D GWAS loci into physiological groups of insulin secretion,

insulin resistance or unclassified loci.

4.9 Statistical and computational analysis

4.9.1 Enrichment analysis of identified regulatory annotations in other

genomic annotations

Enrichment of hypomethylated regulatory regions (LMRs and UMRs, result

section 2.2.) and ATAC-seq open chromatin peaks (result section 2.3) in the

aforementioned genomic annotations (method section 4.6) was determined

through 100,000 random permutations. P-values and fold enrichment was

determined by comparing the true overlap results to the permuted overlap

results. The resulting P-values were multiple testing corrected using Bonferroni

correction (an adjusted P-value < 0.05 was considered significant).

4.9.2 FGWAS enrichment analysis

FGWAS (Pickrell, 2014) (version 0.3.6) applied a hierarchical model that

determined shared properties of loci affecting a trait. The FGWAS model used

SNP-based GWAS summary level data and divided the genome into windows

(setting "k"=5000 which represents the number of SNPs per window), which are

larger than the expected LD patterns in the population. The model assumed that

each window either contained a single SNP that affected the trait or that there

was no SNP in the window that influenced the trait. The model estimated the

prior probability of a window to contain an association and the conditional prior

probability that a SNP within the window was the causal variant. These prior

probabilities were variable, dependent on regional annotations and estimated

based on enrichment patterns of annotations across the genome using a Bayes
approach.
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927
928
929 **4.9.2.1 FGWAS Single state analysis**
930 FGWAS was used with standard settings to determine enrichment of individual
931 islet chromatin states, LMRs, UMRs, PMDS and ATAC-seq open chromatin peaks,
932 CDS and CONS sequence in DIAGRAM (setting "cc" was applied for use with T2D-
933 case-control GWAS data) and ENGAGE GWAS SNP summary level data.
934
935 For each individual annotation, the model provided maximum likelihood
936 enrichment parameters and annotations were considered as significantly
937 enriched if the parameter estimate and 95% CI was above zero.
938
4.9.2.2 FGWAS Joint model analysis
To determine the maximum likelihood model the following approach suggested
by (Pickrell, 2014) was used for each set of chromatin states (ChIP-only,
ChIP+ATAC, ChIP+Meth and ChIP+ATAC+Meth), separately. In addition, CDS and
CONS sequenced were used as well for each set of chromatin states in the joint
analysis. Firstly, a model was fitted for each annotation individually to identify
all annotations that were significantly enriched with the trait. Secondly, the
annotation with the highest increase (and enrichment) in the maximum log-
likelihood was added to the model and the analysis was repeated with the
additional annotation. Thirdly, annotations were added as long as they increase
the maximum log-likelihood of the newly tested model. Fourthly, a 10-fold cross-
validation approach was used after determining a penalty parameter based on
the maximum likelihood of a penalised log-likelihood function to avoid
overfitting. Fifthly, each annotation was dropped from the model and the
maximum cross-validation likelihood was evaluated. If a reduced model has a
higher cross-validation maximum likelihood, additional annotations are dropped
until the model cannot be further improved. This model was described as the
best fitted model and used for the remaining analysis. The maximum likelihood

enrichment parameters and 95% CI for each annotation of the best model were

reported (independent of significance).

4.9.2.3 Comparing FGWAS enrichment parameter across chromatin states

Initially, similar enhancer chromatin states derived from the 4 different

ChromHMM analyses (ChIP-only, ChIP+ATAC, ChIP+Meth, ChIP+ATAC+Meth)

were compared. Similarity was determined based on shared histone chromatin

marks according to the chromHMM emission parameters. Further comparisons

between the ChIP-only and ChIP+ATAC+Meth model were performed based on

the reweighted FGWAS maximum variant PPA and the number of reweighted

99% credible set variants per T2D locus (for details regarding FGWAS PPA see

next section).

However, considering that the chromatin states were derived from distinct sets

of annotations across different analyses of ChromHMM, a direct comparison was

not fully possible. Hence, a nested model approach was used to further dissect

the contribution of open chromatin and DNA methylation to the enrichment.

Specifically, an FGWAS analysis was performed that combined the ChIP-only

chromHMM states with raw LMRs (representing DNA methylation) and ATAC-

seq peaks (representing open chromatin). After determining the best maximum-

likelihood cross-validation model (combining ChIP-only, ATAC-seq and LMR

states) a nested model and log-likelihood ratio test were used to determine the

contribution of each annotation to the model (Supplementary Figure 3D).

4.9.3 Reweighting of variant PPA and testing of allelic imbalance

The enrichment priors derived from the FGWAS maximum likelihood model

were used as a basis for evaluating both the significance and functional impact of

associated variants in GWAS regions; allowing variants that map into

annotations that show global enrichment to be afforded extra weight.

Specifically, variants at significant GWAS regions with a high FGWAS PPA (PPA

>=10%) and overlapping open enhancer states were prioritised for further

follow-up. Genome-wide significance of loci was determined based on P-values

(P <5x10^{-8}) or a regional FGWAS PPA >= 90% (representing the sum of the PPAs

of all SNPs in a given region). The latter threshold is based on a recommendation

from (Pickrell, 2014) who observed that a regional PPA of 90% or above can be

used to identify sub-threshold GWAS loci.

Of the prioritised variants, only variants with at least 2 heterozygous samples

and ATAC_Seq read depth of at least 9 reads (minimum 5 reads for each allele)

were tested for allelic imbalance.

To avoid read-mapping and reference allele bias the software WASP (van de

Geijn et al., 2015)(Version 0.2261) was used to remove reads associated with

mapping bias. In short, reads of the unfiltered bam file that overlapped the

variant of interest were identified. For each read overlapping an SNP, the

genotype of that SNP was changed to the alternative allele and the read was

remapped using bwa (Li and Durbin, 2009) (version 0.5.8c). Any read that failed

to realign in the same position in the genome was discarded. Ultimately, PCR

duplicates were filtered using the WASP "rmdup_pe.py" script, which removed

duplicated reads randomly (independent of the mapping score) to avoid any

bias.

1010

1011 Allelic imbalance was determined using a binomial test as implemented in R.

1012

1013 **4.9.4 Identification of TFBS at SNPs that display allelic imbalance**

1014

1015 The tool "Fimo"(Grant et al., 2011) implemented in the "meme" software

1016 package (RRID:SCR_001783) was applied to identify TF motifs that significantly

1017 (FDR <0.05) matched the sequence overlapping a SNP variant showing allelic

1018 imbalance (20bp up and downstream).

1019

4.9.5 Overlap of regulatory regions

Overlap between genomic regulatory regions was performed using bedtools

intersectBed function (Quinlan, 2014) (version 2.21.0). Summary statistics

across 200bp windows were determined using bedtools mapBed function.

Random permutations of regulatory regions were performed by applying the

bedtools shuffleBed function.

1026

4.9.6 Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis (unless otherwise stated) was performed using R (version

3.0.2) including Spearman's correlation analysis to compare the 450k and WGBS

array, the KS-test to compare 450k and WGBS DNA methylation distributions,

the binomial test to evaluate allelic imbalance and principal component analysis

to identify batch effects in the 450k data. Significance is defined as $P<0.05$ unless

otherwise stated.

1034

4.9.7 Visualisation and figure generation

All figures unless otherwise stated were generated using R (version 3.0.2)

and/or ggplot2(Wickham, 2009). Figure 1E was generated using locuszoom

(Pruim et al., 2010). Chromatin state CHiP-seq enrichment maps (Figure 3A,

Supplementary Figure 3A-B) were generated using chromHMM (Ernst and Kellis,

2012). The genome-browser views (Figure 5) were generated using the UCSC

genome browser tool (Kent et al., 2002).

1042

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6. Competing interests

The authors do not have any competing interest.

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FIGURE 1. Comparison of human pancreatic islet WGBS and 450k methylation data across the genome. A) Smooth Scatter plot shows Spearman's rho correlation between the 450k array (x-axis) and WGBS (y-axis) at overlapping sites. Darker colour indicates higher density of sites. B) Comparison of the 450k array (orange) and WGBS (yellow) methylation levels (x-axis) of all CpGs genome-wide assayed by either method (y-axis shows density). The P-value shown is derived using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) test. C) For each chromatin state from Parker et al 2013 the methylation levels of all CpG sites independent of overlap (diamond indicates the median) are shown as violin plots (left y-axis) and the CpG probe percentage per state for the 450k array (orange) and WGBS (yellow) are shown as bar-plot (right y-axis). The 450k probes represent the percentage of the total number of CpG sites which is determined by the number of WGBS CpG sites detected (WGBS=100%). D) Distribution of GWAS Posterior Probabilities (Type 2 Diabetes and Fasting Glucose) captured by CpG sites on the 450k array (orange), 850k array (green) and WGBS (yellow/black line). E) Locuszoom plot showing CpG density and credible set SNPs. SNPs are shown with P-values (dots, y-axis left), recombination rate (line, y-axis right) and chromosome positions (x-axis) while CpG and gene annotations are shown below. These annotations include CpGs identified from WGBS (yellow strips), 450k CpG probes (orange stripes), 850k CpG probes (green stripes) and gene overlap (*DGKB* label). The highlighted region in blue captures the 99% credible set region plus additional 1000bp on either side. At the very bottom the position on chromosome 7 is shown in Megabases (Mb).

FIGURE 2. Overlap of WGBS hypomethylation and ATAC-seq open chromatin peaks with regulatory annotation . A) Methylation levels in percent (y-axis) and $\log_2$ CpG density (x-axis) of UMR and LMR regulatory regions with the dashed line indicating the CpG-number (30 CpGs) that distinguishes LMRs and UMRs. B) $\log_2$ Fold Enrichment ($\log_2$FE) of LMRs (green shape), UMRs (blue shape) in various islet annotations is shown. These annotations include islet chromatin states, islet relevant TFBS (FOXA2, MAFB, NKX2.2, NKX.61, PDX1), islet eQTLs, WGBS derived T2D-associated islet disease DMRs (dDMRs) and ATAC-seq open chromatin peaks. The dDMRs were derived from 6 T2D and 8 non-diabetic individuals by Volkov et al 2017 and dDMRs (orange shape) were also tested for enrichment in the aforementioned islet regulatory annotations. For all annotations, the empirically determined Bonferroni adjusted P-value is ≤0.00032 unless otherwise indicated by the shape: a dot corresponds to an Bonferroni adjusted P-value <0.00032 while the 3 triangles indicates Bonferroni adjusted P-values > 0.00032: UMR enrichment adjusted P-value for weak enhancers=1; dDMR enrichment adjusted P-value for MAFB=0.006 and dDMR enrichment adjusted P-value for islet eQTLs=0.01.

FIGURE 3. Integration of islet epigenetic data to refine chromatin regulatory states and enrichment of these states in T2D GWAS data. A) 15 chromatin states (y-axis) were derived from ChIP histone marks, DNA methylation and ATAC-seq open chromatin annotations (x-axis) using chromHMM. For each state the relevant marks characterising the state are shown. The colour is based on the chromHMM emission parameters and a darker colour indicates a higher frequency of a mark at a given state. Weak enhancers (marked by H3K4me1 alone, red) and strong enhancers (marked by H3K27ac and H3K4me1, green) were subdivided by the chromHMM analysis according to methylation and ATAC-seq status (highlighted in red and green box). The black bar at the x-axis highlights the most important marks for characterising enhancer subtypes. B-C) FGWAS Log$_2$ Fold Enrichment including 95% CI (log$_2$FE, x-axis) of all chromatin states (y-axis) in T2D GWAS regions is shown which demonstrate differential enrichment amongst enhancer subclasses in single-feature enrichment analysis. In addition, log2FE of Coding Sequence (CDS) and Conserved Sequence (CONS) annotations are shown to include the effect of protein-coding and conserved regions. Significantly enriched annotations are shown in black while non-siginificant annotations are shown in grey. C) T2D FGWAS maximum likelihood model determined through cross-validation. Log$_2$FE and 95% CI (x-axis) of annotations included in the maximum likelihood model (y-axis) also demonstrate differential enrichment amongst enhancer subclasses. *Analysis for Genic Enhancers (state 10) did not converge and hence, only a point log2FE estimate is provided. D) Single feature log2FE including 95% CI (x-axis) results are shown highlighting the differences in T2D GWAS enrichment of various annotations. These include ATAC-seq open chromatin peaks (red), WGBS methylation regions (including enhancer-like LMRs, promoter-like UMRs and Partially Methylated Domains, blue), ChiP-seq chromatin states (orange) and CDS (green). E) Chi-square distribution (curved black line) with the indicated results of a maximum likelihood ratio test based on the maximum likelihood difference between a model including LMRs or ATAC-seq peaks compared to the ChIP-only model. The dashed red line indicates significance (P-value<0.05). For all FGWAS enrichment plots the axis has been truncated at -6 to facilitate visualisation and accurate values are provided in the supplementary tables.

FIGURE 4. Evaluating Posterior Probabilities (PP) derived from the FGWAS maximum likelihood model at significant T2D GWAS loci. (A) Per locus the difference in the number of 99% credible set variants between ChIP+ATAC+Meth and ChIP-only model is shown (positive values indicate a reduction in the number of 99% credible set variants in the ChIP_ATAC_Meth model). B) Per locus the difference in the maximum single variant PPA between the ChIP+ATAC+Meth and ChIP-only model is shown (positive values indicate an increase in the maximum single variant PPA in the ChIP+ATAC+Meth model). C) T2D GWAS loci were classified into insulin secretion (ISR), insulin resistance (IR) or unclassified loci based on genetic association with physiological traits derived from Dimas et al 2014 and Wood et al 2017. In addition, loci with known role in islet genomic regulation or function are highlighted in bold. These include loci with islet eQTLs (*ZMIZ1, CDC123*) and mQTLs (*WFS1, KCNJ11*). D) Identification of T2D GWAS loci and variants enriched for enhancer chromatin states using FGWAS PP. Per locus the highest PPA variant is shown (y-axis) and the number of variants with PPA >0.01 (x-axis). Loci with high PPA variants (min PPA >0.1, dashed horizontal line) that overlap one of the enhancer states (green) are highlighted and the high PPA variants (PPA>0.1) were tested for allelic imbalance in open chromatin.

FIGURE 5. Epigenome Landscape of selected loci with allelic imbalance. For each locus A) *CDC123*, B) *KLHDC5* and C) *ADCY5* the following information is shown: 3 ATAC-seq Endoß tracks (green, top), variant level information (depending on the region GWAS lead SNP red, credible set black, eQTL blue and high LD SNPs with r2>0.8 black), WGBS methylation data (black, middle), 4 human islet ATAC-seq tracks (green, middle), islet chromatin states (from this study as well as Parker et al 2013 and Pasquali et al 2014) and Encode chromatin states from 9 cell types (bottom). For *ADCY5* the Capture C results in the Endoß cell line are shown as well (middle blue). Abbreviation for cell types: B-lymphoblastoid cells (GM12878), embryonic stem cells (H1 ES), erythrocytic leukaemia cells (K562), hepatocellular carcinoma cells (HepG2), umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC), mammary epithelial cells (HMEC), skeletal muscle myoblasts (HSMM),normal epidermal keratinocytes (NHEK) and normal lung fibroblasts (NHLF).

	Chromatin States	Total number of states	T2D log2FE (CI)	FG log2FE (CI)
Augmented chromatin state maps	**1. Active Promoter**	20k	1.6 (-0.8 to 2.7)	2.7 (0 to 4.1)
	2. Weak Promoter	33k	1.7 (-4.8 to 2.9)	2.7 (-0.1 to 4.2)
	3. Transcriptional Elongation	71k	-0.4 (-20 to 1.1)	-26.1 (-46.1 to 1)
	4. Low Methylation	73k	-1.5 (-3.1 to -0.6)	-1.7 (-4.2 to -0.3)
	5. Closed Weak Enhancer	206k	1.2 (-0.1 to 2)	1.7 (0 to 2.9)
	6. Lowly-methylated Weak Enhancer	78k	-0.5 (-20 to 1.6)	-26.7 (-46.7 to 1.6)
	7. Open Weak Enhancer	38k	**3.4 (2.5 to 4.2)**	3.1 (-0.6 to 4.6)
	8. Closed Strong Enhancer	110k	**2.7 (1.8 to 3.4)**	**3.3 (2 to 4.4)**
	9. Open Strong Enhancer	32k	**3.8 (3.1 to 4.5)**	**4.3 (2.8 to 5.5)**
	10. Genic Enhancer	39k	**2.5 (1.3 to 3.4)**	**2.9 (0.8 to 4.3)**
	11. Accessible chromatin	14k	-25.2 (-45.2 to 2.5)	-28.4 (-48.4 to 3.7)
	12. Insulator	31k	0.9 (-20 to 2.6)	-0.6 (-20 to 3.6)
	13. Heterochromatin	216k	2.3 (-20 to 3.9)	1.8 (-1.5 to 4)
	14. Polycomb Repressed	71k	-25.5 (-45.5 to 0.9)	-33.2 (-53.2 to 1.5)
	15. Quiescent State	1.7k	-1 (-2.2 to -0.1)	-28.6 (-48.6 to -0.6)
CDS/CONS	**CDS**	NA	**2.6 (1.2 to 3.5)**	2.7 (-0.2 to 4.3)
	CONS	NA	**2.1 (1.1 to 2.9)**	**1.9 (0.2 to 3.2)**
Parker states	**Parker Weak Enhancer**	119k	0.9 (-2.5 to 2.0)	-2.0 (-20.0 to 2.4)
	Parker Strong Enhancer (all)	123k	**2.7 (2.0 to 3.3)**	**3.1 (2.0 to 4.4)**
	Parker Strong Enhancer (open)	64k	**3.1 (2.4 to 3.7)**	**3.6 (2.3 to 4.8)**
	Parker Strong Enhancer (closed)	59k	**1.9 (0.8 to 2.7)**	**2.3 (0.5 to 3.5)**

TABLE 1. Single FGWAS annotation enrichment in T2D and FG GWAS data. For each annotation (chromatin state and CDS) the total number of sites and the single state FGWAS log2 Fold Enrichment (log$_2$FE) in T2D and FG is shown. 95% Confidence Intervals (CI) for log2FE are shown in brackets and significantly enriched states are highlighted in bold (CI>0).

Variant	Locus	DIAGRAM P-value	FGWAS T2D PPA	Allelic imbalance Allele Ratio (Allele #)	Allelic imbalance WASP P-value	Direction of effect (T2D)
rs11708067	ADCY5	8.8E-13	0.92	0.29 (38 A VS 94 G alleles)	1.2E-06	risk allele A closed
rs11257655	CDC123	4.0E-08	0.95	0.39 (278 C VS 435 T alleles)	4.5E-09	risk allele T open
rs10842991	KLHDC5	7.3E-07	0.13	0.64 (75 C VS 43 T alleles)	4.1E-03	risk C allele open

TABLE 2. T2D-associated variants with allelic imbalance in open chromatin.