Increased ultra-rare variant load in an isolated Scottish population impacts exonic and regulatory regions

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Abstract

Human population isolates provide a snapshot of the impact of historical demographic

processes on population genetics. Such data facilitate studies of the functional impact of rare

sequence variants on biomedical phenotypes, as strong genetic drift can result in higher frequencies

of variants that are otherwise rare. We present the first whole genome sequencing (WGS) study of

the VIKING cohort, a representative collection of samples from the isolated Shetland population in

northern Scotland, and explore how its genetic characteristics compare to a mainland Scottish

population. Our analyses reveal the strong contributions played by the founder effect and genetic

drift in shaping genomic variation in the VIKING cohort. About one tenth of all high-quality variants

discovered are unique to the VIKING cohort or are seen at frequencies at least ten fold higher than in

more cosmopolitan control populations. Multiple lines of evidence also suggest relaxation of

purifying selection during the evolutionary history of the Shetland isolate. We demonstrate

enrichment of ultra-rare VIKING variants in exonic regions and for the first time we also show that

ultra-rare variants are enriched within regulatory regions, particularly promoters, suggesting that

gene expression patterns may diverge relatively rapidly in human isolates.

Author Summary

Population isolates provide a valuable window on the roles of rare genetic variation in

human phenotypes, as a result of their unusual evolutionary histories, that often lead to relatively

high frequencies of variants that are exceptionally rare elsewhere. Such populations show increased

levels of background relatedness among individuals and are often subject to stronger genetic drift,

leading to a higher frequency of deleterious variants. Here, for the first time, we present whole

genome sequencing data from the Shetland population in Northern Scotland, encompassing 500

individuals, and compare these genomes to the mainland Scottish population. As expected we find

the imprint of Shetland population history in the Shetland genome, with strong evidence for founder

effects and genetic drift, but we also discover a relaxation of selective constraint across the genome.

These influences have combined to endow the Shetland genome with thousands of ultra-rare

genetic variants, not observed previously in other populations. Surprisingly these variants are

significantly enriched in functional regions including protein coding regions of genes and regulatory

elements. Among regulatory regions, promoters are particularly enriched for ultra-rare variants,

suggesting the potential for rapid divergence of gene expression in isolates.

Introduction

Population isolates are subpopulations that originated from a small number of founders and

subsequently remained relatively isolated for long periods of time due to geographical, cultural and

social barriers. Such populations have been recognised to be of significant interest for some time [1],

due to their unusual genetic characteristics. These include higher degrees of linkage-disequilibrium

(LD), reduced haplotype complexity, increased numbers and extent of genomic regions within runs

of homozygosity (ROH), high kinship, evidence for genetic drift, relatively high frequencies for

otherwise rare variants, restricted allelic and locus heterogeneity [2–4]. Isolates are also subject to

lower variation in environmental factors, tend to have better genealogical records, more uniform

phenotyping and higher participation rates in studies [2]. Taken together, these genetic and other

factors increase the power of gene mapping and association studies for both Mendelian and

complex diseases and traits [5].

With the recent advances in high throughput sequencing (HTS) technologies, the traditional

approach of investigating the genomic architecture of isolated populations via SNP genotyping

arrays [6–13] has shifted towards using whole-exome sequencing (WES) [14–16] and low-coverage

whole-genome sequencing (WGS) [17–21] to more recent high-coverage WGS studies [22–24]. The

breadth and depth of high-coverage WGS provides unprecedented opportunities for interrogation of

the effects of rare and ultra-rare variants genome wide, and may prove instrumental for addressing

the "missing heritability" problem [25,26].

For the first time our study used high-coverage WGS to compare the genomic landscapes of

samples from an isolated population from the Shetland Islands to a more cosmopolitan mainland

Scottish population. By investigating common and rare single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and

short (up to 75bp) insertions/deletions (INDELs) in coding as well as in regulatory regions, we aimed

to answer the following questions: *i*) is there any significant difference between the variant load

observed in the two populations, *ii*) if so, what are the characteristics and the driving forces behind it

and *iii*) which identified variants should be further examined for potential phenotype/trait

associations?

The Shetland Islands lie scattered between ~160-290 km (~100-180 miles) north of the

Scottish mainland and consist of a group of ~100 islands, of which 16 are inhabited, with a

population of ~23,000 (Fig 1 in S1 File). First settled in the Neolithic period, ~5400 years ago, the

major demographic event in Shetland's history was the arrival of the Norse Vikings about 800 CE.

Shetland became part of the Jarldom of Orkney, centred on the archipelago to the south, until after

over 500 years of Norse rule the islands were annexed by Scotland in 1472 [27]. Lowland Scots

settled in Shetland both before and after this date; however, until the late 20th century, the extreme

geographic location in the north Atlantic served to isolate the population from further major

immigration. In common with neighbouring areas, Shetland was variously affected by smallpox

epidemics and famines over the centuries. Analyses of uniparental genetic systems reveal Shetland,

like Orkney, to be a Norse-Scots hybrid population [28–30], with considerable genetic differentiation

from the rest of the British Isles, reduced genetic diversity and longer stretches of linkage

disequilibrium [31]. The presence of Norwegian ancestry in Shetland (23-28%) is further confirmed in

a recent study based on high density autosomal SNP data [32].

Results

Establishment of comparable Scottish isolate and mainland WGS datasets

A total of 2,122 participants of the VIKING Health Study – Shetland [33] were genotyped at ~1 million SNP markers (using the Illumina HumanOmniExpressExome-8 v1.2 BeadChip) and 2,011 passed all quality control thresholds. All participants were selected to be over 18 years old and to have at least two grandparents born in the Shetland Isles (85% had four grandparents from Shetland, 10% had three and 5% had two grandparents born in the Shetland Isles). From the SNP genotyped cohort, 500 individuals were selected for whole-genome sequencing using the ANCHAP method [34] to most effectively represent the haplotypes present across the entire cohort. Unrelated individuals from the largest families were selected first, followed by those from smaller families, and finally some related individuals were selected to best represent the variation in the full cohort. The comparative population was 1369 individuals from the Lothian Birth Cohort (LBC) dataset [35–37] who were selected for WGS at the same facility as the VIKING samples. These are individuals born in 1921 or 1936 who attended Scottish schools and most took part in Scottish Mental Surveys in 1932 and 1947, respectively. Most were living in Edinburgh, Scotland (Fig 1 in S1 File) and the surrounding area (the Lothians) between 1999 and 2007.

The WGS data for the VIKING (median coverage 36.2x, range [27.1-40.2x], mean 36.1x, s.d. 2.0x) and LBC (median 37.3x, range [30.0-65.9x], mean 37.7x, s.d. 4.7x) cohorts were processed in an identical manner to identify and retain only high-quality SNP and INDEL variants (Materials and Methods). Overall concordance analysis between the SNP array data and WGS-derived genotypes for the Shetland cohort was performed to ensure there were no sample mix-ups by using the GenotypeConcordance tool from the GATK 3.6 toolkit [38] and was found to be 99.6%. We selected 269 unrelated (up to and including first cousin once removed and equivalents, pi_hat < 0.0625; for pi_hat definition see Materials & Methods, Sample selection) individuals from the Shetland cohort and 1156 unrelated individuals from the LBC. A total of 10,784,026 SNP sites and 1,082,383 INDEL sites were found in the 269 unrelated Shetland individuals (pi_hat mean = 0.0196, sd = 0.0164,

median = 0.0269); the corresponding numbers for the 1156 unrelated LBC individuals (pi_hat mean =

0.0141, sd = 0.0130, median = 0.0188) are 21,152,042 SNPs and 2,065,442 INDELs. The two cohorts

exhibited overall similar average numbers of high-quality variant alleles per sample (Table 1 in S2

File).

A multidimensional scaling (MDS) analysis revealed that while similar, the two populations

are genetically distinct from each other (Fig 2 in S1 File), and this was confirmed by a complementary

admixture analysis (Fig 3 in S1 File). However, we adopted a conservative approach and did not

exclude Shetland samples showing genotypes commonly found in LBC and *vice versa*. Such samples

are representative of the fact that, although the Shetland population is isolated, there has been

some gene flow to and from the capital city of Scotland and its surrounding area, where the LBC

cohort were recruited. Inclusion of these individuals implies that any observed differences between

the variant loads in the two cohorts will tend to be underestimated.

The VIKING cohort is significantly enriched for ultra-rare SNP and INDEL variants genome-

wide

To compare the genome-wide variant load in the two cohorts we stratified the variants

found in the mappable regions of the 22 autosomal chromosomes based on their presence and MAF

observed in the gnomAD genomes dataset (r2.0.1 [39]). We annotated variants as "ultra-rare" if they

have not been observed in any individual in the full gnomAD genome dataset (n = 15,496); "very

rare" for variants with MAF in Non-Finnish Europeans (NFE, n = 7,509) ≤ 1%, "rare" with 1% < MAF_{NFE}

≤ 5%, "common" with 5% < MAF_{NFE} ≤ 10%, and "very common" with MAF_{NFE} > 10%. To quantify the

observed differences accurately for each frequency class, we bootstrapped the LBC data by

generating 10,000 random subsets (with replacement) of size 269 individuals each to match the size

of the VIKING dataset. For each of these subsets we counted the numbers of variants per individual

in the VIKING and LBC cohorts and used the Wilcoxon rank sum test to evaluate the difference in

distribution of number of variants between the two cohorts. To annotate the number of variants in a

 frequency class as significantly different (shown in bold, Table 1), we required at least 95% of the

158 10,000 subsets to have p-value ≤ 5x10^{-3} (Bonferroni corrected) and no overlap between the 95% CI

159 for the LBC and VIKING median values.

160 **Table 1A. Genome-wide SNP load comparison in VIKING vs LBC (number of alleles per individual)**

gnomAD Frequency Class	VIKING median	LBC 10k subsets median & 95%CI	VIKING/LBC ratio median & 95%CI	Wilcoxon rank sum test	
				p : median & 95% CI	number tests with p≤5x10^{-3}
very common	3,287,577	3,283,825 [3282607, 3284923]	**1.001 [1.001, 1.002]**	3x10^{-6} [5x10^{-9}, 5x10^{-4}]	**9985**
common	115,366	115,267 [115040, 115500]	1.001 [0.999, 1.003]	6x10^{-1} [1x10^{-1}, 1x10^{-0}]	1
rare	86,229	86,539 [86373, 86748]	0.996 [0.994, 0.998]	4x10^{-2} [1x10^{-3}, 4x10^{-1}]	1160
very rare	33,762	34,250 [34146, 34343]	**0.986 [0.983, 0.989]**	9x10^{-10} [5x10^{-13}, 6x10^{-7}]	**10000**
ultra-rare	5164	4452 [4421 ,4486]	**1.160 [1.151, 1.168]**	5x10^{-82} [5x10^{-86}, 2x10^{-77}]	**10000**
singleton	2022	3216 [3186, 3247]	**0.629 [0.623, 0.635]**	4x10^{-80} [6x10^{-81}, 5x10^{-79}]	**10000**
≥ doubleton	3131	1215 [1192, 1235]	**2.577 [2.535, 2.627]**	4x10^{-89} [3x10^{-89}, 6x10^{-89}]	**10000**

Very common: variants with MAF > 10% in Non-Finnish Europeans (NFE, gnomAD, n=7,509); common: 5% < MAF$_{NFE}$ ≤ 10%;
rare: 1% < MAF$_{NFE}$ ≤ 5%; very rare: MAF$_{NFE}$ ≤ 1%; ultra-rare: not observed in any gnomAD individual (n=15,496); singleton:
ultra-rare variants found in single individual (within cohort) only; ≥ doubleton: ultra-rare variants found in two or more
individuals (within cohort). Median number and 95% CI of LBC alleles (third column) for each frequency class is computed
based on 10,000 random subsets (n = 269, with replacement, matching VIKING size); last two columns represent the
median p-value (and 95% CI) and the number of tests with p-value smaller than the Bonferroni corrected threshold.

Table 1B. Genome-wide INDEL load comparison in VIKING vs LBC (number of alleles per individual)

gnomAD Frequency Class	VIKING median	LBC 10k subsets median & 95%CI	VIKING/LBC ratio median & 95%CI	Wilcoxon rank sum test	
				p : median & 95% CI	number tests with p≤5x10^{-3}
very common	331,340	329,518 [329368, 329655]	**1.006 [1.005, 1.006]**	5x10^{-53} [6x10^{-58}, 5x10^{-48}]	**10000**
common	11,939	11,806 [11767, 11839]	**1.011 [1.008, 1.015]**	3x10^{-10} [9x10^{-14}, 3x10^{-7}]	**10000**
rare	8731	8657 [8630, 8689]	1.009 [1.005, 1.012]	2x10^{-4} [1x10^{-6}, 1x10^{-2}]	9362
very rare	4001	4080 [4067, 4093]	**0.981 [0.978, 0.984]**	8x10^{-13} [2x10^{-16}, 1x10^{-9}]	**10000**
ultra-rare	503	411 [407, 415]	**1.224 [1.212, 1.236]**	1x10^{-82} [5x10^{-86}, 1x10^{-78}]	**10000**
singleton	183	284 [281, 287]	**0.644 [0.638, 0.651]**	5x10^{-77} [4x10^{-78}, 7x10^{-76}]	**10000**
≥ doubleton	324	124 [122, 127]	**2.613 [2.551, 2.656]**	2x10^{-89} [2x10^{-89}, 3x10^{-89}]	**10000**

Our results indicate that the VIKING samples are significantly enriched for ultra-rare SNPs

(1.16 fold) and INDELs (1.22 fold) not observed in gnomAD (Table 1). Importantly, the observed

enrichment is not driven by a greater individual-specific variation in Shetlanders; in fact, a VIKING

individual carries less than two-thirds of the number of ultra-rare singleton variants compared to an

LBC counterpart (see singleton versus ≥doubleton fractions of ultra-rare variants in Table 1).

To evaluate the potential effect of distant relatedness remaining in the chosen sets of 269

VIKING and 1156 LBC individuals on the ultra-rare variant load, we selected from them the 34

VIKING and 68 LBC individuals with no detectable relationships within each cohort (pi_hat = 0 within

cohort). Using the discussed bootstrapping approach on these stricter subsets, we found that ultra-

rare SNPs are enriched 1.14 fold (95% CI = [1.13, 1.16], p = 6.5x10^{-11}, Wilcoxon rank sum test) and

ultra-rare INDELs are enriched 1.20 fold (95% CI = [1.18, 1.23], p = 6.2x10^{-11}) in the VIKING cohort;

these values are very similar to the results obtained for the 269 VIKING and 1156 LBC sets (Table 1).

Again, the overall enrichment is driven by the shared ultra-rare variants (i.e. ≥doubleton) - 3.03 fold

ultra-rare SNP enrichment (p = 2.4x10^{-12}) and 2.65 fold ultra-rare INDEL enrichment (p = 1.7x10^{-12}) -

whereas the two cohorts exhibit very similar levels of individual-specific ultra-rare variation and their

difference is not significant.

These data suggest that genetic drift has increased the frequency of many ultra-rare variants

in Shetland compared to those in Lothian. On average, a Shetland individual carries about 2.6 times

more ultra-rare variants shared with at least one other Shetlander, compared to the ultra-rare

variants shared within the Lothian individuals (Table 1). There is also a small but significant depletion

of very rare known variants (MAF$_{NFE}$ ≤ 1%) in VIKING, again due to the action of genetic drift whereby

many rare variants are expected to be lost in the population.

Elevated ultra-rare variant loads in the VIKING cohort at functional regions

Using data provided by Ensembl (GRCh37.p13, Ensembl Genes 92 [40]), we annotated the

protein coding and related regions in the mappable sections of the 22 autosomal chromosomes as

5'UTR (a total length of 9.3M bases), exon (30Mb), intron (906Mb), 3'UTR (27.6Mb) and ncRNA

regions (7.3Mb); the remaining 1.1Gb of the mappable regions in the reference human genome are

labelled as "non-coding" regions (Materials and Methods). To make data from different regions

comparable, we examined the number of variant alleles per megabase and used the same

framework as for the genome-wide analysis to quantify the observed differences for each of the

considered regions. The full results are available in Table 2 and Table 3 in S2 File and illustrated in Fig

4 in S1 File. As with the genome-wide level, in coding regions the two datasets are most divergent in

terms of variant loads for ultra-rare and very rare variants; the results for these two regions are

presented in Fig 1.

Our results show that VIKING samples are significantly enriched for ultra-rare SNPs in all

coding related regions – including exonic regions – while potentially more damaging ultra-rare

INDELs are restricted to non-coding and intronic regions. The observed exonic enrichment of ultra-

rare SNPs is similar to the levels of enrichment seen genome-wide and in non-coding regions,

demonstrating that exonic regions in the VIKING cohort have not been protected from the general

accumulation of ultra-rare variation in spite of their functional importance. Indeed, the median

enrichments seen in exons, 3'UTR and 5'UTR regions are somewhat higher than the genome-wide

median enrichment.

Fig 1. Significant differences in variant load in coding and related regions for ultra-rare (upper panel) and very rare (lower panel) variants

Circle dots represent the ratio of the median number of variants in a VIKING individual to the median number of variants in an LBC individual; whiskers are 95% CI based in 10,000 randomly selected LBC subsets (n = 269, with replacement). Significance: at least 95% of the 10,000 subsets have p-value ≤ 8x10^{-4} (Bonferroni corrected) and no overlap between the 95% CI for the LBC and the VIKING median values (for full results see Fig 4 in S1 File). The higher variance in the 5'UTR and lower variance in ncRNA regions could be explained by their relatively small sizes – 9.3Mb and 7.3Mb, respectively.

We also annotated variants within predicted functional non-coding regions using the

coordinates of 15 chromatin states generated for nine cell types by the NIH Roadmap Epigenomics

Consortium [41], including promoters (average total length 39.2Mb over the 9 cell types), enhancers

(130.5Mb), insulators (17.4Mb), transcribed (530.3Mb), repressed (130.5Mb) and heterochromatin

(1.8Gb) regions (Materials and Methods). Using the same approach as for the genome-wide (Table 1)

and coding analyses (Fig 1) to quantify variant loads for each of the chromatin states, we again found

that the major difference between the two cohorts is for ultra-rare variant loads (Table 4 and Table 5

in S2 File). The observed significant enrichment of ultra-rare SNPs in all predicted regulatory regions

was generally indistinguishable from the genome-wide level (Fig 2), suggesting that regulatory

regions – similarly to the exonic regions – do not appear to be protected from ultra-rare SNP

variants.

As for exonic regions, the median enrichment for promoters is generally somewhat higher

than the genome-wide enrichment, particularly for predicted promoters active in H1 embryonic

stem cells, HMEC primary mammary epithelial cells and NHEK epidermal keratinocyte cells (Fig 2).

The results for ultra-rare INDELs (Fig 5 in S1 File) are similar, but due to the small number of

INDELs present in these regions, the conclusions are less robust. There is no significant difference in

the regulatory regions for known SNPs in any of the 9 cell types (Table 6 in S2 File) and the

enrichment for known INDELs in VIKING, although significant, is usually below 1% (Table 7 in S2 File).

Fig 2. Ultra-rare SNP variant loads in functionally annotated non-coding regions

Circle dots represent the ratio of the median number of variants in a VIKING individual to the median number of variants in an LBC individual; whiskers are 95% CI based in 10,000 randomly selected LBC subsets (n = 269, with replacement). Significance: at least 95% of the 10,000 subsets have $p \leq 2\times10^{-4}$ (Bonferroni corrected) and no overlap between the 95% CI for the LBC and the VIKING median values. The red vertical lines represent the median genome-wide load for ultra-rare SNPs and its 95% CI. The higher variance in the Insulator regions estimates could be explained by their relatively small size (17.4Mb). Gm12878: B-lymphoblastoid cells, H1hesc: embryonic stem cells, Hepg2: hepatocellular carcinoma cells, Hmec: mammary epithelial cells, Hsmm: skeletal muscle myoblasts, Huvec: umbilical vein endothelial cells, K562: erythrocytic leukemia cells, Nhek: normal epidermal keratinocytes, Nhlf: normal lung fibroblasts, union: an aggregated comparison between the two cohorts for this chromatin state by considering the union of state's regions annotated in any of the 9 cell types.

Strong founder effects and genetic drift in the VIKING cohort

A likely source of the observed enrichment of ultra-rare variants in the isolated Shetland population is the founder effect [42]. Among the variant sites found in VIKING samples but not present in gnomAD (i.e. the VIKING ultra-rare set) 707,600 SNPs (82%) and 63,549 INDELs (82%) are also absent from LBC (Table 2). These numbers represent 6.56% and 5.87% of all high-quality SNPs and INDELs identified in the VIKING cohort, respectively. Notably, approx. 0.8% of the VIKING SNPs and INDELs are ultra-rare, cohort-specific and seen in at least three VIKING individuals, compared to 0.35% of the LBC variants with the same characteristics, thus highlighting the potential role of founder effects, bottlenecks and restricted effective population size more generally in the VIKING cohort.

Table 2. Variants observed in the VIKING cohort but not in gnomAD are often specific to Shetland

gnomAD Frequency Class	SNP enrichment				INDEL enrichment			
	≥ 2x	≥ 5x	≥ 10x	Shetland specific	≥ 2x	≥ 5x	≥ 10x	Shetland specific
very common & common	≤0.01%	n/a	n/a	n/a	≤0.01%	n/a	n/a	n/a
rare	0.80%	≤0.01%	n/a	n/a	0.72%	≤0.01%	n/a	n/a
very rare	31.64%	16.01%	10.49%	n/a	28.99%	14.26%	9.35%	n/a
ultra-rare	13.14%	4.69%	2.14%	81.99%	13.07%	4.78%	2.17%	82.04%

For variants seen in gnomAD, enrichment is computed against the maximum AF observed in LBC and gnomAD (all populations); for variants not found in gnomAD, enrichment and indigeneity is computed against LBC data.

There is also evidence of genetic drift for VIKING variants shared only with LBC, as well as for variants shared with geographically more distant populations (Table 2). Among the VIKING ultra-rare variants (i.e. not seen in gnomAD), but present in LBC, there are 18,451 SNPs (2.14%) and 1,678 INDELs (2.17%) with allele frequency in VIKING at least ten times higher than in LBC. Considering the VIKING variants which are very rare in gnomAD Non-Finnish European population (MAF$_{NFE}$ ≤ 1%), there are 359,275 SNPs (10.49%) and 31,713 (9.35%) INDELs with allele frequency in VIKING at least ten times higher than the maximum allele frequency observed in LBC and all gnomAD populations. Collectively, these enriched frequency variants represent 3.50% and 3.08% of all SNPs and INDELs identified in the VIKING cohort, respectively, highlighting the strength of genetic drift.

The above analyses reveal the extent of the contributions played by the founder effect and

genetic drift in shaping the genomic variation in the isolated VIKING cohort. About one tenth of all

high-quality variants discovered – 10.06% of the SNPs and 8.95% of the INDELs – are either unique to

the VIKING cohort or seen at least ten times more frequently in it compared to cosmopolitan WGS

populations (LBC and gnomAD).

Another line of evidence supporting the founder effect / genetic drift in the VIKING cohort is

based on the analysis of the distribution of allele frequencies across polymorphic sites, also known

as the site frequency spectrum (SFS) analysis (Materials and Methods). Our analysis is based on the

high-quality variants discovered in the callable regions of the 22 autosomal chromosomes in the two

cohorts of unrelated individuals, split to known variants (present in gnomAD at any frequency) and

ultra-rare variants (not found in any gnomAD population).

The proportion of known variants (Fig 6 in S1 File) found as singletons was lower for VIKING

compared to LBC: 19% (s.d. $6x10^{-17}$) versus 22% (s.d. $1x10^{-16}$) and 19% (s.d. $5x10^{-3}$) versus 21% (s.d.

$3x10^{-3}$) for SNPs and INDELs, respectively, whereas the opposite is true for known variants found in

two or more individuals. A similar trend was previously observed comparing the SFS of Finnish

against non-Finnish Europeans [43], consistent with past founder effect(s).

The same trend, even amplified, is observed when comparing the SFS of the ultra-rare

variants. VIKING individuals exhibit a much lower proportion of ultra-rare variants seen as singletons

compared to LBC - 88% (s.d. $7x10^{-3}$) versus 98% (s.d. $5x10^{-16}$) and 86% (s.d. $7x10^{-3}$) versus 97% (s.d.

$8x10^{-16}$) for SNPs and INDELs, respectively. Notably, 12% of the ultra-rare SNPs are shared by two or

more among 50 randomly-chosen VIKING subjects compared to only 2% ultra-rare SNPs for LBC; 14%

of the ultra-rare INDELs are shared by two or more VIKING subjects compared to 3% for LBC. These

results support our finding of increased sharing of ultra-rare variants in VIKING compared to LBC

(singleton versus ≥doubleton fractions in Table 1).

The roles played by founder effects and genetic drift in shaping the Shetland isolate were

further evidenced by Tajima's D [44] analysis (Materials and Methods) of the known SNPs (the

variants present in the gnomAD dataset) in the six functional regions (Table 3). Tajima's D values

close to zero are considered as evidence for the neutral hypothesis, while negative values reflect

high number of rare alleles due to population growth and/or purifying selection and positive

Tajima's D value indicate high number of alleles shared within the population [45].

Table 3. Tajima's D captures demography and suggests relaxation of purifying selection in VIKING

Functional Region	VIK median [95% CI]	LBC median [95% CI]	Difference
Exon	-0.53 [-1.67, 1.24]	-0.85 [-0.86, -0.84]	0.32
5'UTR	-0.27 [-1.56, 1.75]	-0.55 [-0.57, -0.53]	0.28
3'UTR	-0.15 [-1.57, 1.63]	-0.48 [-0.50, -0.45]	0.33
ncRNA	0.06 [-1.45, 2.22]	-0.24 [-0.26, -0.22]	0.30
Intron	0.22 [-1.26, 1.22]	-0.19 [-0.20, -0.17]	0.41
non-coding	0.38 [-1.04, 1.30]	-0.03 [-0.04, -0.01]	0.41

VIKING Tajima's D values are based on aggregating the results for the 269 unrelated individuals over sliding genomic windows of size 1Mb (Materials and Methods). LBC results are based on aggregating the window medians for 100 random unrelated LBC subsets of size 269 individuals.

As expected, for both cohorts we observe strongest purifying selection in exonic regions (the

lowest Tajima's D values), followed by 5'UTR, 3'UTR, ncRNA and intronic regions. The VIKING cohort

exhibit higher Tajima's D scores in all interrogated categories reflecting the specific demographic

characteristics of this isolated population. Notably, the consistency of the Tajima's D upwards shifts

in VIKING compared to LBC (~ 0.3 – 0.4), even in exonic regions, is suggestive of potential relaxation

of purifying selection in the VIKING cohort, which we address in the next section.

Lastly, we compared the runs of homozygosity (ROH) identified in the two cohorts. ROHs

were identified in VIKING and LBC individuals (Materials and Methods) and split into intermediate

(length 0.5-2Mb) and long (≥ 2 Mb) ROH (Fig 7 in S1 File). The total length of intermediate ROH in an

individual is thought to reflect cryptic relatedness in populations, while the total length of long ROH

usually shows large inter-individual variations that may reflect recent inbreeding patterns [3,46,47],

or alternatively, a smaller effective population size. The observed correlation between the number

of ROH and the total length is largely in accordance with data reported previously [48,49]. To

quantify potential differences between cohorts, similarly to the previous analyses, we generated

10,000 random LBC subsets from the data and for each subset we computed the medians, their ratio

and the Wilcoxon p-value (Table 8 in S2 File). ROH with intermediate length were observed in all 269

VIKING and 1156 LBC samples, therefore we selected 10,000 LBC subsets of size 269 individuals (with

replacement). We observed slight, but significant decrease in both the number and the total length

of intermediate ROH in VIKING (VIKING/LBC median ratio ≈ 0.95, 95%CI ≈ [0.94, 0.96]). Long ROH

were detected in 244 (91%) VIKING and 863 (75%) LBC unrelated individuals. Comparing the long

ROH only in these individuals (subset size of 244 individuals, with replacement), we observed

significant enrichment for both the number (ratio = 3.0 [1.5, 3.0], median p = $3x10^{-22}$) and the total

length of ROH in VIKING (ratio = 2.31 [2.16, 2.93], median p = $2x10^{-31}$), consistent with increased

parental kinship in the Shetland population.

Evidence for relaxation of purifying selection in the VIKING cohort

Purifying (negative) selection is a powerful evolutionary mechanism of removing harmful

genetic variation. It has been shown previously that isolated populations, due to their smaller

effective population size, exhibit weaker purifying selection [19]. The strength of the purifying

selection can be assessed by comparison of the distribution of rare derived variants across different

functional categories. For example, analysis of the density and frequency of rare variants with

derived allele frequency (DAF) < 0.5% in 2623 Icelandic whole genome sequences revealed that

promoters had similar fraction of rare variants (FRV) and variant densities as UTRs, whereas

enhancers had FRV and densities intermediate between UTRs on the one hand, and intronic,

upstream or downstream regions on the other [22]. We performed similar, but more stringent,

analyses of the VIKING and LBC data based on the ultra-rare SNPs discovered in the two cohorts and

included data for protein coding and related regions (Fig 3). A comparison of the fraction of ultra-

rare variants (FUV) and their densities in VIKING and LBC reveals that 5'UTR, exon and promoter

regions show the most extreme shifts, driven by accumulation of ultra-rare variants at a higher rate

compared to known variants in VIKING.

Fig 3. Distribution of ultra-rare SNPs in functional regions

Fraction of ultra-rare variants (FUV) = number of ultra-rare variants / (number of ultra-rare + known variants); Values for regulatory regions are computed as the average over the 9 cell types; non-coding = mappable genome – 5'UTR – exon – intron – 3'UTR – ncRNA; Coloured horizontal and vertical lines represent the genome-wide averages for the two cohorts. Dashed black lines represent the distribution shifts between LBC and VIKING for each of the considered genomic regions. A strictly vertical shift would indicate a proportional increase in the numbers of ultra-rare and known variants from LBC to VIKING, whereas a strictly horizontal shift (no change in the ultra-rare variant density between the two cohorts) would represent a decrease in the number of known variants in VIKING.

We sought formal evidence for the relaxation of purifying selection by examining the accumulation of extremely rare (i.e. singleton) variants predicted to have a loss of function (LOF) impact using the SVxy statistic (a comparison of the ratios of damaging to synonymous variants between isolate and other populations), which has previously been shown to identify weakened purifying selection in isolates [19]. As a baseline we used the Non-Finnish European (NFE) population in gnomAD (n = 7,509), extracting all exonic heterozygous SNPs (on the canonical transcript for each gene) found in a single NFE individual only. We filtered these singleton variants into two categories: i) LOF - stop gain, splice donor and splice acceptor variants, as well as missense variants with predicted deleterious CADD score ≥ 20 (the variant is predicted to be amongst the top 1% of deleterious variants in the human genome) [50]; and ii) synonymous (SYN) variants. There were

211,761 LOF and 158,077 SYN singleton alleles in NFE, such that the LOF/SYN ratio was 1.34.

Similarly, from the VIKING and LBC ultra-rare variant sets we extracted the exonic singleton LOF and

SYN variants, finding 23,787 LOF and 17,122 SYN singletons in the LBC cohort and 3,655 LOF and

2,501 SYN singletons in VIKING. The computed LOF/SYN ratios for the three cohorts correlate with

the anticipated declining effective population size across these populations – from continent-wide

Europeans (ratio = 1.34), to individuals born in the 1920-30s and living in Lothian, Scotland (ratio =

1.39), to the isolated Shetland population (ratio = 1.46).

For more rigorous evaluation of the potential relaxation of purifying selection in VIKING

compared to LBC, we repeated the ultra-rare singleton comparison with an additional requirement

of considering only genes for which there is at least one LOF or SYN variant observed in both cohorts

[19]. This led to very similar results (4,030 genes, $LBC_{LOF/SYN}$ = 1.40 and $VIKING_{LOF/SYN}$ = 1.47), which

indicates a 5.3% enrichment of ultra-rare singleton LOF SNP alleles in the VIKING cohort compared to

LBC (p = 0.0387, one-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test; Fig 9 in S1 File). In [19], the authors studied 8

isolated populations and found a 1.2% enrichment of LOF alleles in an Orkney cohort (from the

adjacent isolated northern Scottish archipelago) with respect to a cosmopolitan UK cohort, although

the results are not readily comparable since their analysis was based on all (rather than only ultra-

rare) singleton missense variants (regardless of their CADD score and not including nonsense and

essential splice variants) as LOF variants and reporting mean instead of median values. Since the

major difference in the variant load between VIKING and LBC is due to ultra-rare non-singleton

variants (Table 1), we relaxed the singleton requirement above and performed the same analysis

considering all ultra-rare variants in the two cohorts (5,365 genes with at least one LOF or SYN

variant observed in both cohorts). The result shows a 9.4% enrichment of ultra-rare LOF SNP alleles

in the VIKING cohort compared to LBC (p = 0.00064, one-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test).

Allelic shift bias analysis supports widespread loss of selective constraint

LOF-based analyses can be applied only to exonic regions where variants can be split into

two distinct categories based on their predicted impact. We developed a more general test, the

allelic shift bias (ASB) test, which is designed to assess relaxation of selection in non-coding regions,

based on the change in the allele frequency of variants within specific genomic regions across

populations, as follows. We selected all SNPs in the VIKING and LBC cohorts found in the gnomAD

genome dataset with $MAF_{NFE} \leq 1\%$ in Non-Finnish Europeans. Given their low frequencies, these

variants from the ancestral European population are likely to be enriched for SNPs that have been

subject to purifying selection. We repeatedly (1000x) randomly selected 269 LBC individuals

(matching the VIKING unrelated cohort size, with replacement) and selected $MAF_{NFE} \leq 1\%$ variants

shared between this LBC subset and the VIKING cohort. We then computed the mean MAF of such

variants for each LBC subset and the VIKING cohort in exonic, promoter, intronic and non-functional

intergenic (NFIG) regions (Fig 10 in S1 File). We also calculated the mean MAF of such variants for

non-synonymous exonic variants and the predicted deleterious promoter variants (CADD score $\geq$ 10;

predicted top 10% of the most deleterious variants genome-wide).

We estimated the strength of the purifying selection in each cohort as the difference

between the mean MAF of the selected variants observed in the NFIG regions, where the effect of

purifying selection is assumed to be negligible, and the mean MAF in regions assumed to be subject

of active purifying selection. If purifying selection acts with the same strength in two populations

there will be equivalent MAF differences in the two cohorts between the NFIG regions and the

regions being tested. However, in the scenario where purifying selection is weakened in one of the

populations, we expect to observe a bias towards smaller MAF differences in this population. The

significance of these shifts can then be measured by a nonparametric statistic comparing the

distributions of MAF differences between cohorts.

We applied the ASB test on exonic, promoter and intronic regions (Fig 4). Our results are

consistent with the LOF-based observation of weaker purifying selection in VIKING exonic regions. In

addition, ASB testing shows a similarly widespread loss of constraint in VIKING promoter regions,

suggesting effects on gene expression. We observe higher MAF of very rare variants at LBC intronic

regions compared to VIKING, which is most likely due to the more cosmopolitan nature of the LBC

cohort and weaker purifying constraint in intronic compared to exonic and promoter regions.

Fig 4. Allelic shift bias (ASB) suggests loss of constraint at VIKING exonic and promoter regions.
MAF shifts for very rare SNPs ($MAF_{NFE} \leq 1\%$) between non-functional intergenic regions (NFIG), considered as baseline, and non-synonymous SNPs in exonic regions, SNPs with CADD score ≥ 10 in promoter regions and intronic SNPs, for each of the cohorts. These MAF differences are calculated using 1000 randomly selected LBC subsets of size 269 individuals (matching the VIKING size; with replacement) and considering only variants shared between the VIKING and the currently evaluated LBC subset, for which we computed the cohorts' mean MAF in exonic, promoter, intronic and non-functional intergenic regions (see Fig 10 in S1 File). Black horizontal lines represent mean values. The differences in MAF shifts in the two cohorts are statically significant for all three comparisons ($p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, one-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test).

Functional impacts of rare and ultra-rare VIKING variants

Our analysis of the WGS data of the 269 Shetland individuals revealed 79 exonic variants

predicted to impact gene function as significantly enriched (Fisher's exact test) in VIKING compared

to gnomAD, and occurring in 74 unique genes predicted to be largely intolerant to variation

(Materials and Methods); 54 of these variants (68%) are ultra-rare (i.e. not found in gnomAD

genomes dataset). A lookup for these 54 exonic variants in the order of magnitude larger gnomAD

exomes dataset (v2.1.1, n = 125,748) [51] confirms their rarity in general populations: 19 variants

(35%) were not found in the gnomAD exomes dataset; 16 variants (30%) were found with overall

MAF $\leq 1 \times 10^{-5}$ (i.e. less than 1 in 100,000), 17 variants (31%) with MAF $\leq 5 \times 10^{-5}$ (i.e. less than 1 in

20,000) and the remaining 2 variants with MAF ≤ 1×10^{-4} (i.e. less than 1 in 10,000). As of Aug 27,

2019 only one of these 54 variants - rs779590262, a missense variant of uncertain significance

(Variation ID 423006) – was present in ClinVar [52], a database aggregating information about

genomic variation and its relationship to human health.

Given our small sample size, in order to reduce the search space and the multiple testing

correction burden, from the 79 enriched exonic variants predicted to be functional we selected the

40 variants (26 of which ultra-rare) within 38 genes for which a strong evidence of gene-trait

association ($p \leq 5 \times 10^{-8}$) is reported in the GWAS Catalog (v1.0.1) [53]; among them are 13 variants (5

of which ultra-rare) in 11 distinct genes that are carried by at least 10 out of the 500 genome-

sequenced Shetland individuals (Table 9 in S2 File). We performed genotype-to-phenotype analysis

in the 500 VIKING individuals for those 13 variants and the 26 related quantitative traits for which

data is available, but found no significant associations (nominal p < 0.0019, Bonferroni corrected for

the number of traits). This was not surprising, given that we have 80% power with n = 500 and MAF

≈ 0.01 to detect a variant explaining 3% (or more) of the trait variance at that significance level.

Variants with such effects sizes are relatively rare in generally healthy cohorts, highlighting the

importance of sample size. We plan to investigate the identified variants and their potential

phenotype correlations in ~1600 additional VIKING samples whose WES is currently underway.

VIKING variants in promoter regions show higher levels of enrichment for ultra-rare variants

than other regulatory regions (Fig 2), and analysis of the WGS data of the 269 unrelated VIKING

individuals revealed 2,782 (52% ultra-rare) promoter variants significantly enriched compared to

gnomAD (Materials and Methods). Since variation in promoter regions is often associated with

variation in gene expression, we screened the enriched variants against the list of known eQTLs

(with qval ≤ 0.05) in the GTEx dataset (v7) [54] using the data obtained from the GTEx portal [55] and

found 6 rare variants (gnomAD MAF<0.05, Shetland MAF≤0.1) predicted to affect the expression of 6

distinct genes (4 of them with strong GWAS Catalog gene-trait correlation, Table 10 in S2 File), as

well as 6 very common variants (gnomAD MAF > 0.4) correlated with the expression of 5 distinct

genes.

Discussion

Comparison of high-coverage WGS data for 269 unrelated individuals in the VIKING cohort

from the Shetland Islands to similar data from LBC – a more cosmopolitan Scottish sample from the

city of Edinburgh and around – reveals evidence of founder effects, genetic drift, and relaxation of

purifying selection in Shetland. VIKING individuals exhibit genome-wide enrichment of ultra-rare

variants (Table 1). On average 0.15% of all variants found in a VIKING individual have not been

previously reported in the gnomAD database of WGS variants discovered in 15,496 individuals from

varying ethnic origins. After careful filtering of these ultra-rare variants, we found genome-wide

enrichment for ultra-rare SNPs in VIKING compared to LBC of 1.16-fold and for ultra-rare INDELs of

1.22-fold. Importantly, this enrichment is not due to an elevated rate of singleton variants in VIKING

individuals, but is a result of higher rates of sharing of ultra-rare variants among Shetlanders.

The existing literature reports similar proportions of ultra-rare variants detected in isolated

populations as a fraction of all variants in the population [15,19,20], although a direct comparison is

difficult due to different sample sizes, sequencing approaches, genealogical criteria for participant

inclusion and reference datasets. Fluctuations in the frequencies of rare variants, usually defined as

variants with MAF ≤ ~1%, have also been observed in isolate cohorts. In some cases, studies found

an excess of such variants in isolated populations compared to controls [17,19,20,22], whereas in

others, the isolated populations are depleted for such variants [15,21,56]. Although there is an

inverse correlation between the observed frequency of a variant and the probability of it being ultra-

rare [15,19,20,23], we are aware of no study to date that has explicitly investigated ultra-rare variant

loads in isolates. By using the gnomAD genomes database as a reference dataset to separate the

variants into ultra-rare and very rare but known (i.e. seen in gnomAD and with MAF in Non-Finnish

Europeans ≤ 1%), we were able to show that while the VIKING cohort is depleted for very rare

known variants, it is enriched for ultra-rare variants compared to a control cosmopolitan population, in particular for those shared by more than one unrelated individual in the isolated population. The discovered ultra-rare and rare VIKING variants which are predicted to be functional and are significantly enriched in the Shetland isolate compared to gnomAD add to the emerging catalogue of ultra-rare variants from isolated cohorts correlated with various traits of medical importance [20,23]. Such variants are illustrative of the potential for the so called "jackpot effect" [25].

The VIKING individuals in this study were recruited as phenotypically 'normal' healthy individuals and represent only our first view of the Shetland isolate, with further recruitment underway. The detailed demographics and history of the Norse diaspora is still an area of active research (e.g. [57]). We look forward to deep WGS data from relevant Scandinavian populations (with compatible sequencing technologies and sample ascertainment) becoming available in the future. Such data, combined with power increasing strategies (e.g. imputation) and continual GWAS Catalog improvements, will provide much greater opportunities for discovering VIKING variants correlated with various phenotypic traits.

The availability of high-coverage WGS data allows the interrogation of both SNP and INDEL variant loads in regulatory as well as coding regions. Our results suggest that due to the reduced efficiency of purifying selection, the exonic and regulatory regions in the Shetland isolate exhibit ultra-rare SNP loads equal to the genome-wide level. We observe the same trend for higher levels of ultra-rare INDELs in many VIKING regulatory regions, particularly promoters, but VIKING exonic regions appear to be protected from short ultra-rare INDELs (of length up to 75bp), consistent with the higher expected intolerance to variation in exonic compared to regulatory regions, as well as with the previously reported finding that exonic regions are depleted of long (median size of several kbp) copy number variant deletions [58]. Excesses of functional exonic SNPs in isolated populations have been widely reported before but, to the best of our knowledge, this work is the first to provide empirical evidence that while exonic regions in an isolated population may be enriched for ultra-rare SNPs, they appear protected from short ultra-rare INDELs.

It has previously been shown that primate promoters exhibit an increased rate of evolution

compared to other genomic regions [59] and this acceleration of nucleotide substitution rate is most

pronounced in broadly expressed promoters [60]. It is also widely accepted that variation in

regulatory regions plays an important role in complex traits, and trait-associated SNPs are known to

be enriched in regulatory regions [61]. Certain recent studies [20,21,23] have suggested that isolated

populations may be enriched for regulatory variation. In this work, we explicitly test this hypothesis

and show that regulatory regions in the Shetland isolate generally exhibit genome-wide level of

ultra-rare variant loads. This suggests that gene expression patterns may diverge relatively rapidly in

isolates, producing substantial variation in gene dosage, super-imposed upon the ultra-rare variant

loads in coding regions. Currently, our ability to interpret the potential effect of regulatory variants is

limited to screening against eQTL databases which inevitably contain incomplete information from

previous, modestly powered studies. The generation of RNA sequencing data would enable a fuller

understanding of the role ultra-rare regulatory variation plays in isolated populations.

Materials and Methods

Participant recruitment and consent

The Viking Health Study - Shetland (VIKING) is a family-based, cross-sectional study that

seeks to identify genetic factors influencing cardiovascular and other disease risk in the population

isolate of the Shetland Isles in northern Scotland. The 2105 participants were recruited between

2013 and 2015, 95% of them having at least three grandparents from Shetland. Fasting blood

samples were collected and many health-related phenotypes and environmental exposures were

measured in each individual. All participants gave informed consent for WGS and the study was

given a favourable opinion by the South East Scotland Research Ethics Committee (REC Ref

12/SS/0151).

The Lothian Birth Cohort (LBC) study sampled people living in Edinburgh and the Lothians

who were recruited and tested in the Scottish Mental Surveys of 1932 and 1947 as described

elsewhere [35,36]; 1369 individuals from the LBC dataset were selected for WGS at the same facility

as the VIKING samples. Ethical permissions were obtained from the Lothian Research Ethics

Committee (LREC/1998/4/183; LREC/2003/2/29; 1702/98/4/183), the Multi-Centre Research Ethics

Committee for Scotland (MREC/01/0/56) and the Scotland A Research Ethics Committee

(07/MRE00/58). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Availability of data and materials

There is neither research ethics committee approval, nor consent from individual

participants, to permit open release of the individual level research data underlying this study. The

datasets generated and analysed during the current study are therefore not publicly available.

Instead, the VIKING WGS data has been deposited in the EGA (accession number

EGAS00001003872). VIKING DNA samples are available from Professor Jim Wilson

(accessQTL@ed.ac.uk) on reasonable request, following approval by the QTL Data Access Committee

and in line with the consent given by participants. LBC WGS data has been deposited in the EGA

(EGAS00001003818 for the LBC1921 subset, EGAS00001003819 for the LBC1936 subset).

Variant calling and filtering

The WGS sequencing and initial processing of the samples used in this study was performed

at Edinburgh Genomics, University of Edinburgh. The starting point of our analyses were the gVCF

files (GRCh38) we received for the 500 VIKING and 1369 LBC individuals, generated as follows.

Demultiplexing is performed using bcl2fastq (Illumina, 2.17.1.14), allowing 1 mismatch when

assigning reads to barcodes; adapters are trimmed during the demultiplexing process. BCBio-

Nextgen (0.9.7) is used to perform alignment, bam file preparation and variant detection. BCBio uses

bwa mem (v0.7.13 [62]) to align the raw reads to the reference genome (GRCh38; with alt, decoy

and HLA sequences), then samblaster (v0.1.22 [63]) to mark the duplicated fragments, and GATK 3.4

for the indel realignment and base recalibration. The genotype likelihoods are calculated using GATK

3.4 HaplotypeCaller creating a final gVCF file.

We called the variants in each sample individually from its gVCF using GenotypeGVCFs (GATK

3.6); the identified INDELs are limited to 75bp, i.e. about half of the read length. The discovered

variants for each sample were decomposed and normalized using VT (v0.5772-60f436c3 [64]). The

Variants not in the 22 autosomal or the two sex chromosomes, as well as variants with AC = 0 (after

decomposition) were excluded from further analyses and the filter value for all the remaining

variants was reset to PASS. The variants in each individual VCF were then split to SNPs and INDELs

(GATK 3.6).

An attempt to filter the variants using GATK's VQSR approach did not produce convincing

results – there was no clear separation between the filtered and retained variants in the generated

plots. Instead, we adopted a hard-filtering strategy based on the variant call parameters suggested

as suitable for hard-filtering by GATK [65]. The cut-off values for these parameters were determined

separately for VIKING and LBC cohorts in order to account for potential batch effects since the two

cohorts were sequenced at different time points and using different preparation kits – VIKING used

the TruSeq PCR-Free High Throughput library, while the earlier sequenced LBC used the TruSeqNano

High Throughput library. Using VariantFiltration (GATK 3.6), we marked (FILTER flag in the VCF set to

FAIL) SNPs with QD < 7.4/6.9, MQ < 44.0/44.5, FS > 10.0/9.8, SOR > 2.1/2.1, MQRankSum < -2.4/-2.3

or ReadPosRankSum < -1.4/-1.4; and marked INDELs with QD < 5.3/4.9, FS > 9.1/8.8, SOR > 2.9/2.6

or ReadPosRankSum < -1.8/-1.8 in VIKING/LBC cohorts, respectively. These cut-off values were

determined as the boundary to the worst-quality 5% of the variants for each of the parameters,

using all variants in the SNP and INDEL VCFs for 23/62 randomly chosen VIKING/LBC samples with

mean sequencing coverage >= 30x. The chosen cut-off values are more stringent than those

suggested by GATK; however, one of our objectives was to minimize the number of false positive

calls. In addition, we also marked as FAIL variants with DP < 10. On average, our approach lead to

marking 18% and 16% of the VIKING SNPs and INDELs per sample; the corresponding values for LBC

were 19% and 18%, respectively. It should be noted that in the later step of merging the variants

from all samples in each cohort, we used the GATK's KEEP_IF_ANY_UNFILTERED option. This allowed

for reconsidering variants which failed to pass the hard filtering in some samples, but were called

with sufficient quality in other samples to be considered trustworthy and were therefore kept for

further analyses. Our analyses suggest that using this option does not introduce a bias towards rarer

variants in more related populations (Fig 11 in S1 File).

The individual SNP and INDEL VCFs were lifted over to the human_g1k_v37 reference

genome (using picard-2.6.0, http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard) and merged into cohort-wide

SNP and INDEL VCFs (CombineVariants, GATK 3.6, using the KEEP_IF_ANY_UNFILTERED option).

Next, we selected only variants from the mappable regions of the 24 chromosomes by

identifying and excluding variants from genomic regions known to produce false positive calls at a

higher rate due to poor alignability (repeat rich regions and regions with low complexity) using the

UCSC tracks for the CRg dataset (36mers) [66], the Duke dataset (35mers) [67] and the DAC dataset

[68].

Despite the cohort-specific cut-off values used in the hard-filtering step, we further

evaluated our data for the presence of potential technical artefacts due to the different kits used for

sequencing of the VIKING ("PCR free") and LBC ("PCR plus") cohorts. We were advised (Edinburgh

Genomics, personal communication, October 2018) that the use of the "PCR free" kit may result in a

higher number of discovered raw INDELs genome-wide due to the elimination of the PCR

amplification step in the "PCR plus" kit which may not perform optimally in regions with extreme GC

content (resulting in drop of coverage in such regions for "PCR plus"). To address this, we split the

mappable regions in the reference human genome to ~ 1.75 billion consecutive blocks of length

100bp, computed the GC content for each block and assigned it to one of the 100 bins based on its

GC content (one bin for each percent difference in the GC content). We then counted and compared

the total number of VIKING and LBC variants for all the blocks in each of the 100 bins. As a control,

we considered variants from 139 unrelated individuals from the island of Korcula, Croatia, which

were sequenced with the "PCR plus" kit (same as LBC), by the same sequencing centre (Edinburgh

Genomics) at a time point between the LBC and VIKING cohorts and processed by us in the same

manner as for the other two cohorts. The results (Fig 12 in S1 File, Fig 13 in S1 File) suggest that

indeed there is enrichment for the "PCR free" kit in regions with extreme GC content, for both SNPs

and INDELs. Therefore, we identified and excluded all Shetland and LBC variants which are centred in

a 100bp window with GC content less than 15% or greater than 75%. This resulted in excluding

0.35% and 0.93% of the VIKING SNP and INDEL sites, respectively; the corresponding values for the

LBC cohort were 0.34% (SNPs) and 0.86% (INDELs).

Sample selection

In order to avoid bias in the variant load analyses, we first excluded 165 samples from the

LBC cohort with mean sequencing coverage < 30x, given that all but two of the 500 Shetland samples

have mean coverage >= 30x. Next, we identified and excluded related samples in each cohort. We

based this analysis on the discovered biallelic SNPs from the mappable regions in the 22 autosomal

chromosomes with MAF >= 2% in the VIKING and LBC cohorts: 5,732,180 and 5,711,775 such

markers, respectively. As a relatedness metric, we used PLINK's [69] pi_hat statistic representing the

proportional identity by descent (IBD) between two individuals and computed as pi_hat = P(IBD=2) +

0.5*P(IBD=1). We used PLINK (v1.90b4 [69]) to compute the pi_hat statistic at the markers

described above for each pair of samples in each cohort and marked as related any pair of samples

with pi_hat >= 0.0625, corresponding to first cousins once removed and closer, and equivalents.

From these data, we identified the maximum unrelated sets of samples for each cohort (269 for

VIKING and 1160 for LBC) using PRIMUS (v1.9.0 [70]). Our analysis showed that there is no significant

bias towards individuals with recent immigration history (i.e., with less than four grandparents from

the Shetland Isles) in the unrelated VIKING set (n = 269).

Another potential source of bias could be the presence of individuals with non-European

genomic heritage. The VIKING cohort samples were investigated using the genotype array data and

only those with no evidence of non-European heritage were submitted for WGS. For the LBC cohort,

using data available from the 1000G Project (Phase 3) [71] as controls, we performed MDS analysis

(PLINK) and identified and excluded from further analyses four samples with evidence of some

African or Asian heritage.

Variant annotation and ultra-rare variants

The variants were annotated with their predicted functional effect using VEP (v90 [72]) and

with their gnomAD filter status and prevalence in all populations available in gnomAD genome

dataset (gnomAD, r2.0.1 release, data from 15,496 WGS, downloaded May 26, 2017). All variants in

VIKING and LBC datasets passing the hard-filtering described above, but failing the quality filters in

gnomAD, were excluded from further analyses. We refer to the variants which passed both our and

gnomAD filtering as "known" variants. Furthermore, from variants found in our datasets, but not

found in gnomAD (i.e. ultra-rare variants), we kept for further analysis only biallelic SNPs with allele

frequency (AF) in the corresponding dataset ≤ 0.1, with depth of coverage (DP) at least 8 and no

more than 60 reads and genotype quality (GQ) ≥ 30; and only biallelic INDELs with AF ≤ 0.1, DP ≥ 12

and ≤ 60 and GQ ≥ 40. We refer to those variants as "ultra-rare" (Table 1), noting that some are

shared between the VIKING and LBC cohorts. Our tests showed that these ultra-rare variants are

generally randomly distributed genome-wide.

ADMIXTURE analysis

Admixture analysis of the 269 VIKING and 1156 LBC unrelated individuals was performed

using the ADMIXTURE tool [73,74]. The analysis was based on 4,320,501 SNPs (not LD pruned)

found in the callable regions in the 22 autosomal chromosomes with combined MAF $\geq 5\%$ in the two

cohorts and also present in gnomAD genomes dataset. The admixture_linux-1.3.0 was run with

default parameters with 4 threads in unsupervised mode with K= 1, 2 and 3. The cross-validation

error for each K computed using the --cv option (5 folds) identified K = 2 as the most suitable

modelling choice.

Site Frequency Spectrum (SFS) analysis

SFS analysis of the 269 VIKING and 1156 LBC unrelated individuals was performed using

VCFtools (v0.1.13) [75] using the --freq2 option. Our analysis uses the high-quality variants

discovered in the callable regions of the 22 autosomal chromosomes in the two cohorts of unrelated

individuals, split to known variants (present in gnomAD at any frequency) and ultra-rare variants

(not found in any gnomAD population). All sites with missing genotype(s) were excluded. The means

and standard deviations for each frequency (Table 11 in S2 File and Fig 6 in S1 File) were computed

based on subsampling the two cohorts to 50 distinct individuals each repeated 100 times (w/o

replacement within subsamples, with replacement across subsamples).

Tajima's D analysis

Tajima's D analysis of the 269 VIKING and 1156 LBC unrelated individuals was performed

using VCFtools (v0.1.13) using the --TajimaD option and sliding windows of size 1Mb. The analysis

was based on the cohorts' known SNPs (i.e., found with passing quality in the gnomAD dataset)

identified in the callable regions of the 22 autosomal chromosomes. The variants were then split into

six subsets based on the functional region they reside in: 5'UTR, exon, intron, 3'UTR, ncRNA and

non-coding regions. For the VIKING cohort, we computed the median Tajima's D value and the 95%

CI for each region aggregating the results observed for the 269 individuals in the ~3000 genomic

windows of size 1Mb, excluding any window with no SNPs present. For the LBC cohort, we

generated 100 random subsets of size 269 unrelated individuals to match the VIKING size (without

replacement within subsamples, with replacement across subsamples) and computed the cohort's

median and 95% CI aggregating the 1Mb window medians observed for each of these 100 subsets.

 ROH analysis

The runs of homozygosity (ROH) tracts were called using the `roh` function in bcftools (v1.6)

[76] interrogating the high-quality SNPs discovered in the mappable regions of the 22 autosomal

chromosomes of the unrelated VIKING and LBC individuals and also present in gnomAD. The `roh`

command was invoked with instructions to read the alternate allele frequencies from the VCF file (--

AF-tag AF) and to ignore all variant calls with genotype quality < 30 (-G30).

To establish suitable cut-offs for partitioning the discovered ROH into to intermediate and

long based on their length, we used the available data for 10 populations of European ancestry,

reported in [46]. Based on these, we computed the mean (511,734bp) and the standard deviation

(23,307bp) of the boundary for separating short and intermediate ROHs; the intermediate/long

boundary has a mean of 1,567,737bp (s.d. 98,252bp). Conservatively, we picked 0.5Mb as

intermediate ROH cut-off and 2Mb as long ROH cut-off, which is in agreement with the long ROH

cut-off used in [24].

Next, we examined the density of SNP markers in the detected long and intermediate ROHs

(Fig 8 in S1 File). For long ROHs, we observed a bi-modal distribution for the number of SNP markers

discovered per 1Kb ROH length indicating potentially poor coverage/reliability for some ROHs,

consistent with the findings in [24]. To address this issue, we excluded from further analysis all long

ROHs with less than 2 or 3.5 markers per 1Kb ROH length in the VIKING and LBC cohorts,

respectively. The difference between the LBC and VIKING cut-off values (ratio = 1.75) correlates well

with the ratio of the total number of SNP markers given as input to bcftools for ROH calling (ratio =

1.68, LBC = 16,623,172 SNPs, VIKING = 9,890,893 SNPs). These density cut-offs also appear suitable

for intermediate ROHs (Fig 8 in S1 File).

Annotation of coding regions

Using the Ensembl (Genes 92, GRCh37.p13) data, we split the mappable regions in the

reference human genome into six categories – 5'UTR (a total length of 9.3M bases), exon (30Mb),

intron (906Mb), 3'UTR (27.6Mb), ncRNA (7.3Mb) and non-coding (1.1Gb) regions. Note that some

regions may be overlapping, e.g. a 3'UTR region of one gene might be 5'UTR region for another, etc.

The non-coding regions are defined as genome regions which do not fall in any of the above five

categories.

Annotation of regulatory regions

For the regulatory regions we used the chromatin states data generated for nine cell types

by Ernst and colleagues [41], downloaded from UCSC Genome browser [77]. For each cell type we

extracted the coordinates of the regions assigned to each of the 15 chromatin states (Fig 1 in [41]),

followed by union of the regions in states 1, 2 and 3 to obtain a combined Promoter region (average

total length of 39.2Mb, s.d. = 7.5Mb over the 9 cell types), Enhancer (130.5Mb, 16.9Mb; states 4, 5,

6 and 7), Insulator (17.4Mb, 4.7Mb; state 8), Transcription (530.3Mb, 58.8Mb; states 9, 10 and 11),

Repressed (130.5Mb, 62.3Mb; state 12) and Heterochromatin (1.8Gb, 63.4Mb; state 13); we

excluded from consideration states 14 and 15 ("Repetitive/CNV").

Significantly enriched and potentially functional exonic variants

First, we selected exonic variants which are more frequent in VIKING compared to LBC and

any gnomAD population and are predicted (VEP 90) to have one of the following effects on the

gene's canonical transcript(s): stop gained, splice acceptor/donor variant, start/stop lost, missense,

frameshift or inframe insertion/deletion. Next, we annotated these variants with their CADD score

(CADD v1.3) and with the pLI and missense z-score values for the harbouring gene [78]. The latter

two statistics are provided by the ExAC consortium and are computed based on the deviation

between the observed versus expected counts of variants in each gene [39]. The pLI statistic is

applicable to nonsense variants - the closer pLI is to 1, the more haploinsufficient the gene appears

to be – genes with pLI ≥ 0.9 are considered extremely haploinsufficient. The z-score statistic is

related to missense variants, where positive z-scores indicate increased constraint (intolerance to

variation). We used the CADD, pLI and z-score information to filter the set of enriched variants

(Table 12 in S2 File), which resulted in 1257 potentially functional (CADD ≥ 20 for missense and

inframe variants) exonic variants in genes largely intolerant to variation.

From the set of 1257 potentially functional variants which were more frequent in VIKING

compared to LBC/gnomAD, we extracted the variants which were significantly enriched compared to

gnomAD. For each variant, we performed Fisher's exact test on the number of variant alleles (AC)

and total alleles (AN) at a given position using a Bonferroni corrected $p = 0.05 / 1257 = 4.x10^{-5}$. For

variants found in gnomAD, we used the AC_POPMAX and AN_POPMAX (the values for the

population in which the variant is most prevalent); for variants not seen in gnomAD (AC = 0) we

computed the corresponding AN value based on the number of individuals with coverage at least

30x at this position. In summary, we discovered 79 significantly enriched and potentially functional

exonic variants in 74 unique genes.

Significantly enriched promoter region variants in Shetland

From the 470,180 Shetland variants in the aggregated promoter regions (computed as the

union of the promoter regions identified in each of the nine cell types [41]), we identified 153,381

variants which were more frequent in VIKING compared to LBC and any gnomAD population. Using

the same approach as for exonic variants, we selected only variants that are significantly enriched

compared to gnomAD (a Bonferroni corrected $p = 0.05 /153381 = 3x10^{-7}$), which resulted in 2782

significantly enriched promoter region variants.

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Supporting information

986   **S1 File. Supplementary Figures.**

987   **S2 File. Supplementary Tables.**