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Worldwide genetic structure in 37 genes important in telomere biology

Lisa Mirabello[1], **Meredith Yeager**[2], **Salma Chowdhury**[2], **Liquin Qi**[2], **Xiang Deng**[2], **Zhaoming Wang**[2], **Amy Hutchinson**[2], and **Sharon A. Savage**[1,*]

[1]Clinical Genetics Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services, Bethesda, MD, USA

[2]Core Genotyping Facility, National Cancer Institute, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, SAIC-Frederick, Inc., NCI-Frederick, Frederick, MD, USA

Abstract

Telomeres form the ends of eukaryotic chromosomes and are vital in maintaining genetic integrity. Telomere dysfunction is associated with cancer and several chronic diseases. Patterns of genetic variation across individuals can provide keys to further understanding the evolutionary history of genes. We investigated patterns of differentiation and population structure of 37 telomere maintenance genes among 53 worldwide populations. Data from 898 unrelated individuals were obtained from the genome-wide scan of the Human Genome Diversity Panel (HGDP) and from 270 unrelated individuals from the International HapMap Project at 716 SNP loci. We additionally compared this gene set to HGDP data at 1396 SNPs in 174 innate immunity genes. The majority of the telomere biology genes had low to moderate haplotype diversity (45–85%), high ancestral allele frequencies (>60%), and low differentiation (F_{ST} <0.10). Heterozygosity and differentiation were significantly lower in telomere biology genes compared to the innate immunity genes. There was evidence of evolutionary selection in *ACD*, *TERF2IP*, *NOLA2*, *POT1*, and *TNKS* in this data set which was consistent in HapMap 3. *TERT* had higher than expected levels of haplotype diversity, likely attributable to a lack of linkage disequilibrium, and a potential cancer associated SNP in this gene, rs2736100, varied substantially in genotype frequency across major continental regions. It is possible that the genes under selection could influence telomere biology diseases. As a group, there appears to be less diversity and differentiation in telomere biology genes than in genes with different functions, possibly due to their critical role in telomere maintenance and chromosomal stability.

Keywords

Telomere; selection; single-nucleotide polymorphism; HGDP; HapMap

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*Correspondence to: Sharon A. Savage, MD, FAAP, Clinical Genetics Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, NIH, 6120 Executive Blvd., EPS/7018, Rockville, MD 20892, Phone: 301-496-5785, Fax: 301-496-1854, savagesh@mail.nih.gov.

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Introduction

Telomeres consist of $(TTAGGG)_n$ nucleotide repeats and an associated protein complex located at chromosome ends. They are essential for maintaining chromosomal integrity. Telomere associated proteins include the telomerase reverse transcriptase (*TERT*) and its RNA component (*TERC*), plus an ordered protein complex, or shelterin, consisting of six proteins: *TERF1*, *TERF2*, *TINF2*, *TERF2IP*, *ACD*, and *POT1* (Collins and Mitchell, 2002; de Lange, 2005). This telomere complex, and many other associated proteins, are responsible for preserving chromosome ends, and thus genomic stability, by protecting chromosomes from end-to-end fusion, atypical recombination, and degradation (Moon and Jarstfer, 2007). Many of the components of the telomeric complex are highly conserved across species in comparative sequence and functional investigations (de Lange, 2004; Kanoh and Ishikawa, 2003; Li *et al*, 2000; Nakamura and Cech, 1998; Savage *et al*, 2005). It was also shown that seven of these genes (*TERT, POT1, TNKS, TERF1, TINF2, TERF2,* and *TERF2IP*) had lower nucleotide diversity compared to other gene families; they were also highly conserved and the most common allele was ancestral (Savage *et al*, 2005).

Telomere nucleotide repeats progressively shorten with each cell division due to incomplete replication of the 3' end by DNA polymerases. When they become critically short, cellular senescence or cellular crisis is induced in normal cells but in malignant cells this pathway is bypassed through the activation of telomerase or the alternative pathways (Gilley *et al*, 2005; Rodier *et al*, 2005). Short telomeres induce genetic instability and thereby promote the initiation and development of cancer (Blasco *et al*, 1997; Plentz *et al*, 2004; Plentz *et al*, 2003; Rudolph *et al*, 1999; Rudolph *et al*, 2001; Wu X, 2003). Telomere attrition has also been associated with aging, many diseases (including diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular disease), inflammation, oxidative stress, an unhealthy lifestyle, and smoking (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008; Mirabello *et al*, 2009; Morlá *et al*, 2006; von Zglinicki, 2002; Wong and Collins, 2003). Several disorders are associated with mutations in telomere biology genes (Armanios, 2009; Blasco, 2007; Crabbe *et al*, 2004; Savage and Alter, 2009; Vulliamy *et al*, 2008). Patients with dyskeratosis congenita, a heterogeneous inherited bone marrow failure and cancer predisposition syndrome, have extremely short telomeres and germline mutations in genes important in the maintenance of telomeres (*DKC1, TERC, TERT, NOLA3* [alias *NOP10*], *TINF2*, or *NOLA2* [alias *NHP2*]) (Armanios, 2009; Crabbe *et al*, 2004; Savage and Alter, 2009; Vulliamy *et al*, 2008). In addition, recent genome-wide association studies found that genetic variation at 5p15.33 (*TERT-CLPTM1L* locus) was associated with risk of glioma (Shete *et al*, 2009), basal cell carcinoma (Stacey *et al*, 2008; Stacey *et al*, 2009), testicular cancer (Turnbull *et al*, 2010), pancreatic cancer (Petersen *et al*, 2010), and lung cancer (Jin *et al*, 2009; Landi *et al*, 2009; McKay *et al*, 2008); an association study of multiple tumor types suggest that this region may contain important markers of overall cancer risk (Rafnar *et al*, 2009).

The extent to which disease-associated alleles differ in frequency between populations, and the evolutionary forces responsible for the observed degree of population differentiation may provide keys to further understanding disease pathogenesis. Allele frequencies for many genetic variants differ by geographical regions (Guthery *et al*, 2007; Lan *et al*, 2007; Myles *et al*, 2008), possibly the result of several factors including natural selection and

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neutral genetic drift. There may be functional consequences of a particular variant that leads to a more favorable response, and thus certain variants may be under selective pressure. Searching for a signature of selection has the potential to identify functional and disease related variants (Bamshad and Wooding, 2003; Hurst, 2009).

We examined patterns of differentiation, allele frequencies, and the haplotype structure of 37 genes important in telomere biology among 53 worldwide populations from Africa, the Middle East, Europe, Central/South (C/S) Asia, East Asia, Oceania, and the Americas. Data from 1168 unrelated individuals was obtained from the genome-wide scan of the Human Genome Diversity Panel (HGDP-CEPH) (Cann *et al*, 2002; Li *et al*, 2008) and from the International HapMap Project (The International HapMap Consortium, 2003) at 716 single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) loci. We additionally compared our telomere gene set to HGDP-CEPH data that we had on 174 innate immunity genes at 1396 SNPs, this allowed us to determine if two sets of genes grouped by function have similar genetics. We hypothesized that genetic variation in telomere biology genes may be constrained because of both the high degree of sequence similarity previously observed across species and the critical roles their protein products play in chromosomal stability.

Materials and Methods

Dataset

We obtained SNP data for each gene, including 20kbp upstream and 10kbp downstream, from the HGDP-CEPH (Cann *et al*, 2002) genome-wide scan of 650,000 common SNPs (Li *et al*, 2008) and the HapMap Phase 2 (The International HapMap Consortium, 2003) public database. Genotype data was retrieved for 37 gene regions: *ACD, ATM, BLM, DDX1, DDX11, DKC1, MRE11A, NBN, NOLA1, NOLA2, NOLA3, PARP1, PARP2, PINX1, POT1, PRKDC, RAD50, RAD51AP1, RAD51C, RAD51L1, RAD51L3, RAD54L, RECQL, RECQL4, RECQL5, RTEL1, TEP1, TERC, TERF1, TERF2, TERF2IP, TERT, TINF2, TNKS, TNKS2, WRN*, and *XRCC6*, as well as the region between *PARP2/TEP1*. Genes were chosen based on their involvement in telomere biology or presumed interaction with telomeres as reported in the literature. Telomerase complex genes include *TERC, TERT, DKC1, TEP1, NOLA1, NOLA2*, and *NOLA3*; shelterin genes include *TERF1, TERF2, TERF2IP, POT1, TINF2*, and *ACD*; DNA repair genes include *XRCC6, NBN, RAD50, ATM, RAD54L, RAD51L3, RAD51C, RAD51AP1, RAD51L1*, and *MRE11A*; helicase genes include *WRN, BLM, RECQL, RECQL4, RECQL5, DDX1*, and *DDX11*; and, other telomere associated genes include *PRKDC, PARP1, PARP2, PINX1, TNKS, TNKS2*, and *RTEL1*. All SNPs, regardless of minor allele frequency, were included in the analysis since for many of these genes there were only a few SNPs available. Data was retrieved for all individuals in the 52 populations (952 individuals) included in the HGDP-CEPH 952 panel and the 4 populations (270 individuals) of the HapMap project for the same 716 SNPs. Atypical and related individuals were removed (Rosenberg, 2006), which resulted in 898 individuals from the HGDP-CEPH panel and 270 from the HapMap project. The final dataset included 1168 unrelated individuals from 53 unique populations. We did not limit the SNP data to SNPs only within exons, introns, promoters, or 3'areas because the goal of this study was to understand the gene regions, including upstream and downstream regions.

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We also obtained genotype data for 174 genes involved in innate immunity as a comparison set for our telomere biology genes. SNP data for each gene was acquired from the HGDP-CEPH (Cann *et al*, 2002) genome-wide scan for all individuals in the 52 populations, and cleaned as described above. The immune gene set was chosen as a comparison gene set since these genes are often highly variable. Additional comparisons were made with data reported in the literature. Supplemental Table 1 lists the 174 innate immune gene regions evaluated.

HapMap phase 3 (The International HapMap Consortium, 2003) SNP data for 11 populations (1115 individuals) were also retrieved for a subset of the telomere maintenance genes that were potential candidates for evolutionary selection (defined in results): *ACD*, *NOLA2*, *RECQL4*, *POT1*, *TERF2IP*, and *TNKS*, as well as for *TERT*. Individuals in this phase do not overlap with HapMap phase 2 participants.

Data analysis

Haplotype and SNP frequencies were estimated using a Bayesian algorithm implemented in PHASE version 2.1 (Stephens and Scheet, 2005; Stephens *et al*, 2001). Haplotypes determined by PHASE were used as input for all other analyses. The package ARLEQUIN version 3.11 (Excoffier *et al*, 2005) was used to compute haplotype diversity, F_{ST} values, Mantel test, AMOVA, and heterozygosity. F_{ST} values based on allele frequencies were calculated as a measure of population differentiation, and significance was estimated with 10,000 permutations. A Mantel test was used to test the significance of the regression of genetic distance on geographic distance between population pairs with 10,000 permutations. In order to apportion the fraction of the genetic variance due to differences between and within continental groups and infer the genetic structure of the populations, AMOVA was performed with 10,000 permutations. MEGA version 4.0 (Tamura *et al*, 2007) was used to construct a neighbor-joining (NJ) tree based on genetic differentiation. Population structure was inferred by a Bayesian clustering analysis performed with STRUCTURE version 2.2 (Falush *et al*, 2007; Pritchard *et al*, 2000) using the following settings: admixture model, correlated markers, K = 1–10, a length of 100,000 for the burn-in period, and 100,000 repetitions following the burn-in period. HAPLOVIEW version 4.1 (Barrett *et al*, 2005) was used to determine the degree of LD and MAF. LD *P* values (with standard errors) were estimated by Monte Carlo approximation with 10,000 steps in the Markov Chain using ARLEQUIN. This LD calculation is an extension of Fisher exact probability test on contingency tables, and the results are given as a significance level of LD for each pair of loci with a small *P* value (< 0.05) indicating high LD (Excoffier *et al*, 2005; Santos-Lopes *et al*, 2007). Differences between the telomere and immune gene set results were tested for significance with parametric (T-Test) and non-parametric tests (Mann-Whitney U test).

We retrieved ancestral (chimpanzee) alleles for 98.2% of the SNPs using the UCSC Genome Browser (March 2006 Assembly: http://genome.ucsc.edu/) and/or Ensembl (release 50, Jul 2008: http://www.ensembl.org/index.html). In cases where neither human allele corresponded to the chimpanzee allele or when the chimpanzee allele was unknown we excluded these SNPs from the analysis. Pairwise geographic distance between populations and distance from Addis Ababa, Ethiopia (the putative point of origin of modern humans

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(White *et al*, 2003)) was estimated in kilometers (km) following the likely colonization route (shortest path through landmasses) as in Prugnolle et al. (Prugnolle *et al*, 2005).

Selection was evaluated with the following analyses: (1) between population differentiation (F_{ST}), which can be inflated due to environmental pressures on populations causing local adaptation and allele frequency changes (positive directional selection), and negative or balancing selection can decrease the differentiation of selected loci (Akey *et al*, 2002; Nielsen, 2005; Sabeti *et al*, 2007); (2) genetic diversity, a significant decrease points to positive selection when a particular allele is favored, and increases could be balancing selection with more diversity being potentially adaptive; (3) linkage disequilibrium (LD) across populations, selection can increase LD; and (4) MAF and derived allele frequency (DAF) tests (Walsh *et al*, 2006). The iHS for HapMap phase 2 data were retrieved with HAPLOTTER (The International HapMap Consortium, 2005; Voight *et al*, 2006).

Results

We analyzed SNP data from the HGDP-CEPH (Cann *et al*, 2002) genome-wide scan for 37 gene regions involved in telomere biology and from Phase 2 of the International HapMap project (The International HapMap Consortium, 2003). The telomere dataset consisted of a total of 716 SNPs in 1168 individuals from 53 worldwide populations. Supplemental Tables 1 and 2 give summary statistics for the telomere biology and innate immune gene regions analyzed (*e.g*., alleles, minor allele frequencies [MAF], heterozygosity, variation components).

Population structure and differentiation

Bayesian cluster analysis and a distance-based NJ tree segregated individuals into 5 genetic clusters: Africa, Eurasia (Middle East, Europe, Utah, C/S Asia), East Asia, Oceania, and America (Supplemental Figure 1). The Utah, USA population clustered within Eurasia, with high genetic similarity to the European populations. We tested for isolation by distance using a Mantel test on F_{ST} estimates and found a significant positive correlation between the degree of genetic divergence and the pairwise geographical distance [correlation coefficient (r) = 0.64, $P < 0.001$].

Table 1 shows the levels of differentiation (F_{ST}) by gene sorted in descending order by among regions differentiation. *PRKDC* and *POT1* have the lowest levels of differentiation, and nearly half (0.44) of the *POT1* SNPs have global F_{ST} estimates less than the 0.05 percentile of the overall F_{ST} distribution. *ACD* and *TERF2IP* had the highest levels of differentiation, and a large portion of their SNPs were above the 0.95 (0.60 and 0.50, respectively) and 0.99 (0.40 and 0.38, respectively) percentiles. *ACD* had very high levels of differentiation observed between HapMap Yoruba and Utah populations and between Yoruba and Chinese/Japanese populations (0.52 and 0.75, respectively), and *TERF2IP* between Utah and Chinese/Japanese populations (0.56).

Overall, *TERT* had average levels of differentiation among regions and HapMap populations (Table 1 and Supplemental Table 3). Limiting the SNPs to only those within the *TERT* gene (introns, exons and UTRs, n = 4 SNPs), the levels of differentiation were lower among

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regions (F_{st} = 0.072) and within populations (F_{st} = 0.089). We further evaluated the recently identified *TERT* SNP, rs2736100 (localized to intron 2: at chromosome 5p15.33, position 1,339,516) since it appears to be associated with risk of lung cancer, testicular cancer, and glioma (Jin *et al*, 2009; Landi *et al*, 2009; McKay *et al*, 2008; Shete *et al*, 2009; Turnbull *et al*, 2010). rs2736100 had variable levels of differentiation among geographical regions. Its genotype frequencies varied among regions and levels of pairwise differentiation were particularly high among Oceania and all other regions, as well as among America and Eurasia, and low among Africa, East Asia, and Eurasia (Supplemental Table 3 and Supplemental Figure 2).

As a gene set, the analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) partitions variation among the 7 geographical regions similar to that observed for the entire 650k autosomal SNP panel (Li *et al*, 2008) with within-population variation accounting for the majority of the genetic diversity (Figure 1). There was some disparity in how variation is partitioned among individual genes. There was substantially higher among-regions variation observed in *ACD* and *TERF2IP* and the least in *POT1* (Figure 1). There was significantly lower differentiation observed among geographical regions for the telomere biology genes compared to the innate immune genes (P = 0.0002) (Figure 1), and the distributions of F_{ST} values among all the HGDP populations showed a shift down towards lower F_{ST} for the telomere biology genes (Figure 2). AMOVA variation components and differentiation by locus are shown in Supplemental Tables 1 and 2 for the innate immune and telomere biology genes, respectively. Grouping the genes by function showed that telomerase complex genes had the lowest F_{ST} values (among regions = 0.07), followed by helicase genes, and other telomere associated genes compared to the genome-wide average for autosomal SNPs [0.10 ∼ 0.15 (Akey *et al*, 2002; Shriver *et al*, 2004; Shriver *et al*, 2005; Weir *et al*, 2005)] and the innate immune gene set, as well as among HapMap 2 populations in comparison to other gene sets (Table 2).

Haplotype diversity and linkage disequilibrium

The number of haplotypes and diversity estimates by gene and region are shown in Table 3 and Supplemental Table 4. Overall, the haplotype diversity was highest in Africa (0.844) and lowest in Oceania (0.634; Table 3). The majority of genes had very low to moderate haplotype diversity (Supplemental Table 4). *DKC1*, *TERC*, and *XRCC6* had very low haplotype diversity of less than 50%, and *TINF2*, *NOLA2*, and *RECQL4* had low diversity estimates between 60–70%. Surprisingly, *TERT* had high haplotype diversity (ranging from 81 to 96%). Using only the SNPs within the *TERT* gene, the haplotype diversity was lower in East Asia, Oceania and America (ranging from 37 to 74%), and higher in Eurasia and Africa (88% and 90%, respectively) (Supplemental Figure 2). The mean haplotype diversity for all of the 53 populations was negatively correlated with geographic distance from Ethiopia (r = −0.89, slope = $-1.17e^{-5}$). Heterozygosity in the telomere gene set was significantly lower than in the immune gene set by geographical region (P = 0.014; Table 3).

LD *P* values were estimated for all marker pairs for each gene, and a summary of the proportion of SNPs with significant LD ($P < 0.05$) is presented in Table 4. The proportion of marker pairs with significant LD varied among geographic regions and genes. A low

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proportion of marker pairs with LD was often observed in Oceania. The lowest LD was observed in *RAD51L1* (≤ 0.4 of marker pairs in all populations), and the highest in *POT1* (> 0.9). However, this analysis is limited by the small number of SNPs in many of these genes and the limited population sizes in Oceania and America.

Ancestral alleles

Comparing the ancestral allele frequency (AAF) spectrums among the HapMap 2 and HGDP populations, we found that populations in Africa had more SNPs with high AAFs, and populations in America had the lowest (Figure 3). A steeper slope of SNP counts in the midrange of the distribution reflects more SNPs with high AAFs (Li *et al*, 2008). The slopes of SNP counts in the range of 0.2 to 0.8 AAF for all of the populations progressively declined moving away from Ethiopia (3.8 to 0.1; Figure 3B). This AAF pattern did not change after limiting the SNPs to only those in exons, introns, and UTR regions. The average AAF was highest in African populations (0.735) and lowest in American populations (0.655) (data not shown). Average AAFs for the majority of our genes was high (> 60%). For *TERT*, the average AAF was 64%, and for the *TERT* SNP, rs2736100, it was 49%. The AAF for rs2736100 (ancestral allele: T) was variable by geographic region, the highest AAF was observed in America (0.88) and the lowest in Oceania (0.045).

Test for selection

For evaluating F_{ST}, we concentrated on regions that show high or low values among multiple markers, since individual SNPs show considerable variation. According to the cut-points estimated by Akey *et al*. (Akey *et al*, 2002), *ACD* and *TERF2IP* had the highest proportion of SNPs with high F_{ST} (≥ 0.45) (0.6 and 0.5, respectively), and *TNKS*, *RAD51L1*, and *RECQL* all had very low F_{ST} (two SNPs with an $F_{ST} = 0$ and one SNP with an $F_{ST} \leq 0.005$). We also plotted the average F_{ST} *versus* the average heterozygosity by region. There were three outliers with high F_{ST} and low heterozygosity, *ACD*, *TERF2IP*, and *TERF2*, and two outliers with low F_{ST} and high heterozygosity, *POT1* and *NOLA2* (data not shown). There were three outliers in the DAF test with a large amount of derived alleles (>80%): *ACD* (in CEU and Han populations), *NOLA2* (in CEU and America populations), and *RECQL4* (in Oceania) (data not shown). All of the loci in *TERC* ($n = 3$) and *XRCC6* ($n = 5$) had DAFs of < 20% in all populations and in CEU and Han populations, respectively. The MAF test suggests *RECQL4* (Han), *POT1* (Han and CEU), and *RAD54L* (America) with an excess of SNPs with high MAF (> 40%) and *ACD* (Han), *TERF2IP* (CEU), and *RAD51L3* (America) with an excess of SNPs with low MAF (< 10%). The strong LD observed for *POT1* supports the existence of balancing selection. Overall, *TERT* did not show evidence of selection.

HapMap 3 data for select genes

HapMap 3 (The International HapMap Consortium, 2003) SNP data for 11 populations were retrieved for genes identified as potential evolutionary selection candidates in this study (based on at least 2 tests: *ACD*, *NOLA2*, *RECQL4*, *POT1*, *TERF2IP*), and previously [by Savage et al. (Savage *et al*, 2005) and the HapMap (The International HapMap Consortium, 2007): *TNKS*], to confirm our findings in an additional dataset with a more dense SNP

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coverage. We also retrieved SNP data for *TERT*. Assigning the populations to the main geographic regions (identified by a distance-based NJ tree, Supplemental Figure 3), the AMOVA partitions the majority of the genetic diversity to within-population variation (91%); there is less variance attributable to among regions in *NOLA2*, *POT1* and *TNKS* (< 5%), more variance among regions in *TERF2IP* and *ACD* (>20%), and average in *RECQL4* (14%), as observed in the HapMap 2 and HGDP dataset.

TERT had high haplotype diversity (96–99%) and heterozygosity (0.26–0.35) in these 11 populations. There was average differentiation among geographical regions and within populations based on allele frequencies (F_{ST} = 0.118 and 0.138, respectively), similar to the HapMap 2 and HGDP dataset. However, population comparisons based on haplotype frequencies were all low, with F_{ST} < 0.025.

There was evidence of positive selection (high F_{ST}, low heterozygosity, high or low DAFs, and low MAFs) in *ACD* and *TERF2IP*, and evidence of balancing selection (low F_{ST}, high heterozygosity, and high MAFs) in *POT1*, *NOLA2*, and regions of *TNKS* (Supplemental Figure 4). There were mixed signals in *RECQL4*, with a proportion of SNPs with extreme high and low F_{ST}, heterozygosity and MAFs. The patterns of variance attributable to among regions are also consistent, with extremely high values in *ACD* and *TERF2IP* and low in *POT1*, *NOLA2*, and *TNKS*.

Discussion

In this study, we examined allele frequency distributions, diversity, differentiation, LD, and population structure among 53 worldwide populations by combining HapMap 2 and HGDP-CEPH genome-wide scan data of 37 genes vital for telomere stability. This extensive dataset allowed us to create a comprehensive catalog of worldwide genetic variation for these genes. Overall, most telomere biology genes had low to moderate diversity and less than average differentiation. There was significantly lower differentiation among HGDP populations and heterozygosity in the telomere biology genes compared to innate immunity genes. Differentiation among geographical regions in the telomere biology genes grouped by function showed the lowest values in the telomerase complex genes compared to other gene sets and the genome average. These genes are required for telomere elongation and maintaining chromosomal stability.

As a gene set, there is specific population structure; cluster analyses segregated individuals into 5 genetic clusters, concordant with larger analyses with the HGDP-CEPH panel (Jakobsson *et al*, 2008; Li *et al*, 2008; Rosenberg *et al*, 2002). The significant positive correlation between the degree of genetic divergence and the pairwise geographical distance suggests that the observed genetic differentiation can be partially explained by isolation by geographic distance which agrees with previous data (Jakobsson *et al*, 2008; Ramachandran *et al*, 2005). As expected, the mean haplotype diversity and AAFs were highest in Sub-Saharan Africa. For all populations, diversity and AAF slopes were negatively correlated with geographic distance from Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, consistent with a serial founder model during a spatial expansion from Africa (Ramachandran *et al*, 2005). The AAFs for the majority of telomere maintenance genes were high, with most having an average AAF >

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60%, and the AAF slopes were much higher (range of 0.1 to 3.8) than observed by Li *et al*. (Li *et al*, 2008) (range of 0.001 to 0.004).

The high AAF, low diversity and differentiation in many of these genes and gene sets suggests that they may be constrained, possibly because of their essential roles in chromosomal stability. Several telomere maintenance genes have been previously shown to be highly conserved across species (de Lange, 2004; Kanoh and Ishikawa, 2003; Li *et al*, 2000; Nakamura and Cech, 1998; Savage *et al*, 2005). This conservation can be explained by a low mutation rate and/or negative selection, however, distinguishing the two is a difficult task since both result in little sequence change (Hurst, 2009). Savage et al. (Savage *et al*, 2005) also found that seven of these genes had more synonymous compared to non-synonymous mutations per site. A plausible explanation for the lower levels of diversity and differentiation observed in many telomere maintenance genes is that negative selection acts to maintain the status quo of these essential genes. Perhaps these genes were highly conserved during evolution because of their important function and the accumulation of new mutations was not tolerable.

Negative, positive and balancing selection can each leave a specific signature on allele frequency patterns and LD (Hurst, 2009; Walsh *et al*, 2006). Using these patterns, we found evidence suggestive of positive selection in two separate datasets for *ACD* and *TERF2IP*, and evidence of balancing selection in *POT1*, *NOLA2*, and *TNKS*. Regions of low recombination, and thus long-range LD, as observed in *POT1* and regions of *TNKS*, could be the result of balancing selection; alleles under balancing selection can drag linked alleles with them and cause increased LD (Hurst, 2009). Two additional studies also found evidence of selection in *POT1*, *TNKS*, and *TERF2IP*. *POT1* and *TNKS* were found to have significantly positive Tajima's D (Tajima, 1989) using sequence data (Savage *et al*, 2005), *POT1* in non-Hispanic Caucasians and *TNKS* in individuals of Pacific Rim ancestry, suggestive of balancing selection. *POT1* (in Europeans), *TERF2IP* and *TNKS* (both in East Asian and African populations) were also identified as candidate regions for recent selection with the powerful long-range haplotype and iHS tests in the HapMap genome-wide study based on over 3.1 million SNPs (The International HapMap Consortium, 2007).

Allele-frequency-based tests are not considered the most powerful methods to detect a recent selective sweep (Hanchard *et al*, 2006), and there is no statistical significance associated with these results. However, they highlight regions that might justify further investigation. There is also the possibility of SNP ascertainment bias that may result in false positive signals. Some of the genome wide platform selected SNPs are chosen based on their location in and around specific genes as well as based on haplotype-tagging SNPs in the region. However, we did not limit our analyses to only SNPs within gene exons, introns, and UTRs because the goal of the study was to understand the gene and its surrounding region. The HGDP data were generated based on common SNPs and the HapMap data is also skewed toward common alleles making it more difficult to detect an excess of rare or derived alleles near fixation. However, the identification of these genes as candidates for selection in other studies suggests that selection may indeed be present. It has been (Barreiro *et al*, 2008) suggested that positive selection has ensured the regional adaptation of human populations by increasing population differentiation in gene regions, and that these loci

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likely contribute to disease-related phenotypic diversity amongst these different human populations.

We further explored genetic variation in *TERT* because several studies have identified both SNPs and mutations in *TERT* as important in cancer and telomere biology disorders (Armanios, 2009; Rafnar *et al*, 2009; Savage and Alter, 2009). Others have observed a high degree of *TERT* sequence similarity across species, so we hypothesized that there would be limited genetic variation in these populations. However, we observed high haplotype diversity and heterozygosity in *TERT*. The level of *TERT* differentiation among populations was average or lower than average (genome-wide average for autosomal SNPs), which may reflect a lack of LD and likely a high recombination rate in this region. The cancer associated SNP, rs2736100, varied substantially in genotype frequency across major continental regions, which could correlate to varying disease risk.

In conclusion, this study suggests that, as a group, telomere biology genes have less diversity and differentiation than genes with different functions. Data suggest that *TERT* may be an exception to this hypothesis. The identification of telomere biology genes under selection (e.g. *ACD, TERF2IP, POT1*, and *TNKS*) might provide clues to their roles in telomere and chromosomal stability. It is possible that higher levels of genetic variation may not be tolerated in these genes, possibly due to their critical role in telomere maintenance.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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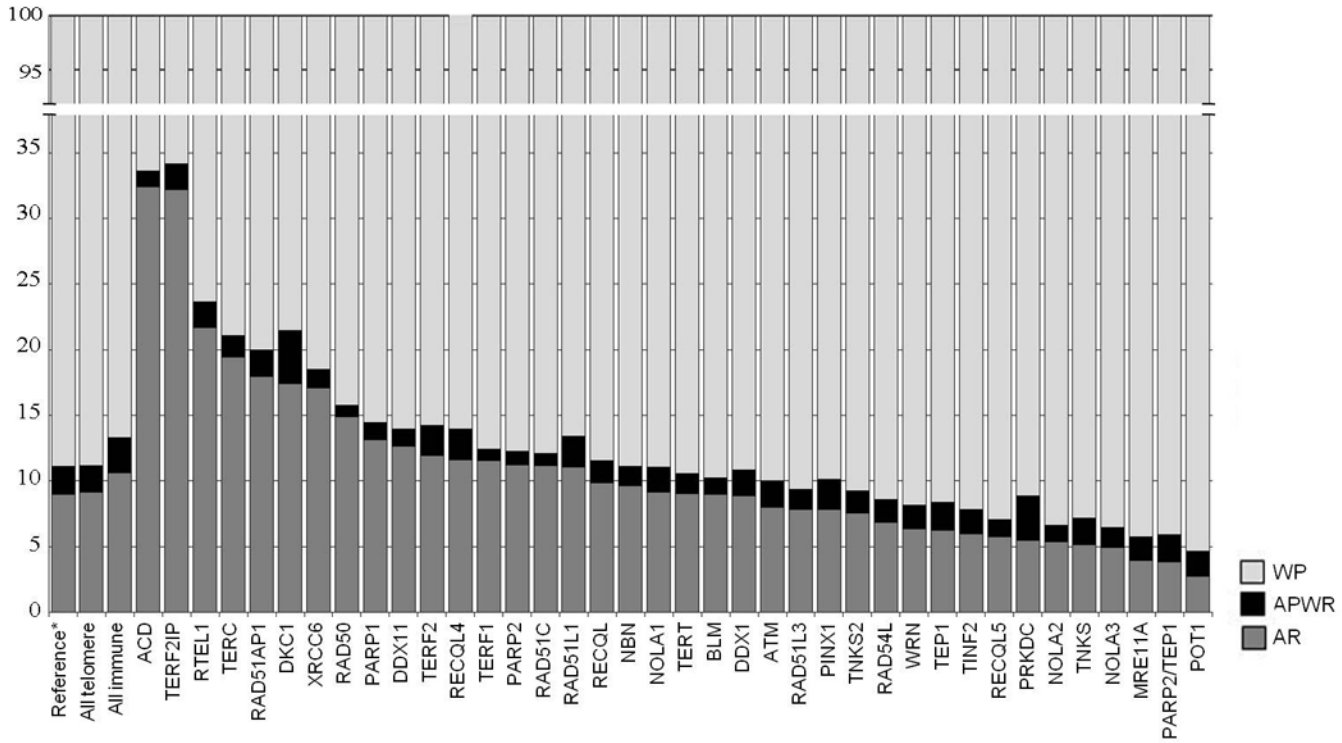


Figure 1. Analysis of molecular variance by gene using HapMap 2 and HGDP data

Partitioning variation into three components: within-population (WP), among-region (AR), and among-population-within-region (APWR). Populations are assigned to the 7 main geographic regions from the HGDP-CEPH panel; * HGDP panel at 650k autosomal SNPs (Li *et al*, 2008).

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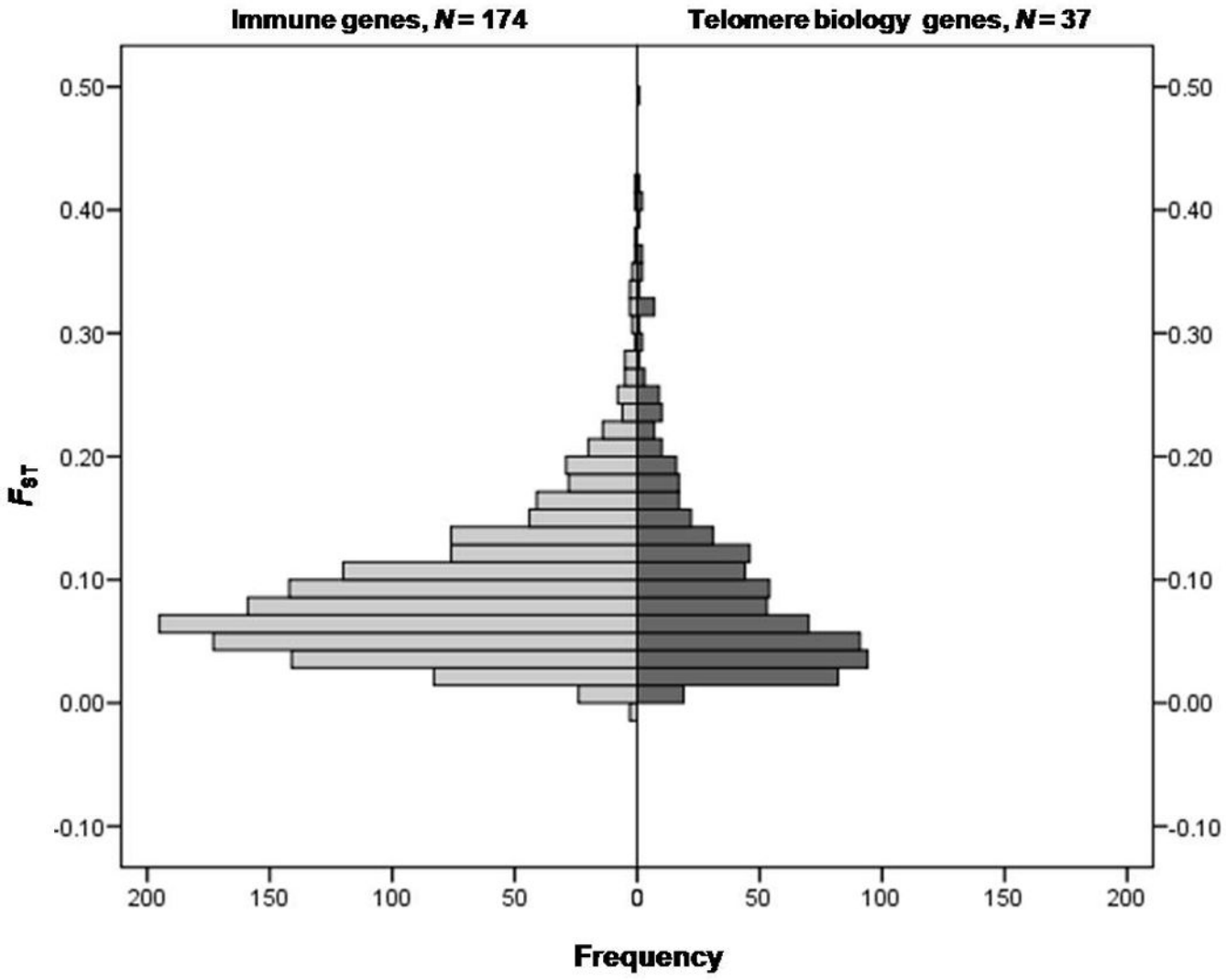


Figure 2. Differentiation among the HGDP populations for the telomere biology and innate immune gene sets

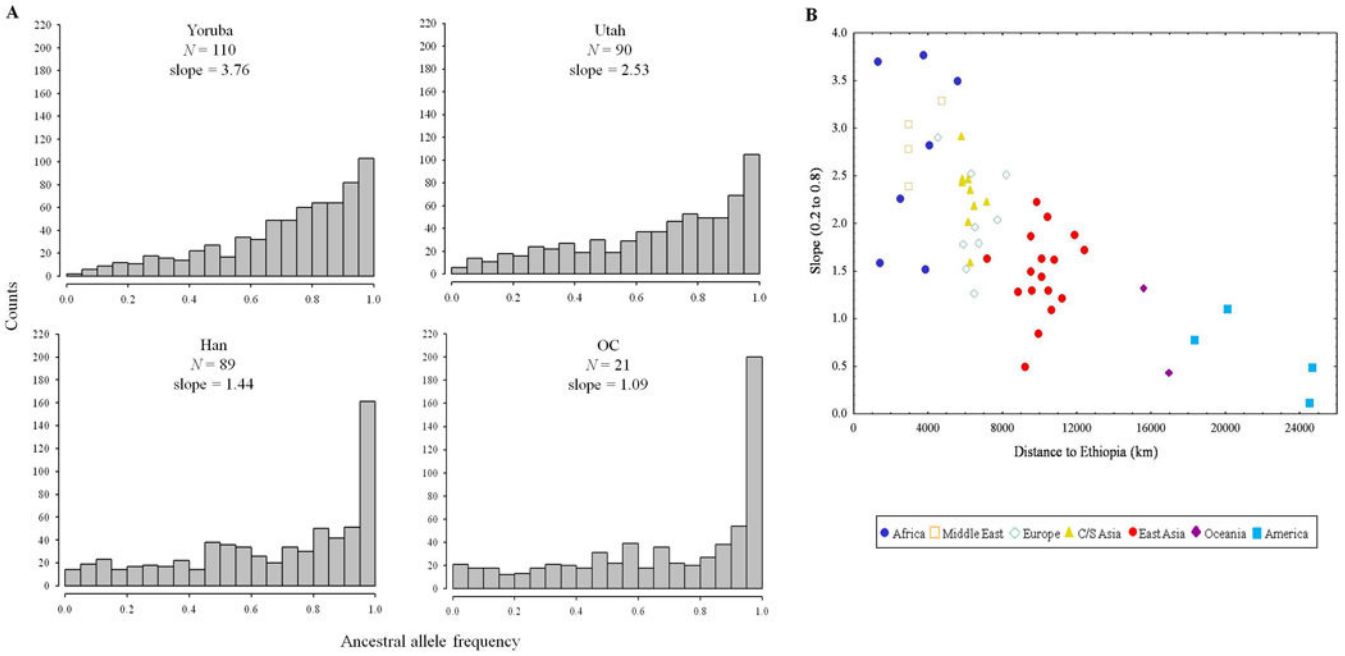


Figure 3. Ancestral allele frequency spectrum using HapMap 2 and HGDP data

(A) Histograms of AAFs for four populations: Yoruba, USA, Han, and OC (the 2 populations in Oceania were combined due to small sample sizes). N is the number of individuals, and the slope is for the SNP counts in the range of 0.2 to 0.8 AAF. (B) Slopes of AAFs between 0.2 and 0.8 for all of the 53 populations versus geographic distance from Ethiopia.

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Table 1

Levels of differentiation (F_{ST}) by gene using HapMap 2 and HGDP data.

Telomere biology gene	AMOVA F_{ST}[†]		Pairwise F_{ST}[§]			SNPs with global F_{ST} values[‡]			
	AR	WP	YRI *vs* CEU	YRI *vs* CHB+JPT	CEU *vs* CHB+JPT	< 0.01 pct	< 0.05 pct	> 0.95 pct	> 0.99 pct
PRKDC	0.005^{NS}	0.082	0.001^{NS}	0.000^{NS}	0.000^{NS}	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
POT1	0.033	0.053	0.034	0.071	0.009^{NS}	0 (0)	10 (0.435)	0 (0)	0 (0)
MRE11A	0.039	0.064	0.077	0.049	0.035	0 (0)	1 (0.063)	0 (0)	0 (0)
PARP2/TEP1	0.040	0.066	0.109	0.104	0.0001^{NS}	0 (0)	1 (0.250)	0 (0)	0 (0)
NOLA3	0.059	0.076	0.102	0.057	0.075	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
TNKS	0.061	0.083	0.069	0.042	0.059	1 (0.019)	1 (0.019)	0 (0)	0 (0)
NOLA2	0.061	0.078	0.119	0.001^{NS}	0.101	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RECQL5	0.065	0.083	0.123	0.071	0.079	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
TNKS2	0.072	0.104	0.105	0.082	0.073	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
WRN	0.075	0.096	0.071	0.166	0.061	0 (0)	1 (0.023)	0 (0)	0 (0)
TINF2	0.075	0.094	0.178	0.014	0.164	0 (0)	2 (0.400)	0 (0)	0 (0)
TEP1	0.076	0.099	0.147	0.188	0.040	0 (0)	3 (0.120)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RAD54L	0.078	0.101	0.087	0.166	0.045	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RAD51L3	0.084	0.108	0.085	0.088	0.149	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
PINX1	0.089	0.118	0.104	0.217	0.083	1 (0.024)	2 (0.048)	0 (0)	0 (0)
ATM	0.091	0.117	0.087	0.094	0.031	0 (0)	1 (0.067)	0 (0)	0 (0)
DDX1	0.103	0.127	0.209	0.162	0.111	1 (0.063)	1 (0.063)	0 (0)	0 (0)
TERT	0.107	0.126	0.025	0.159	0.109	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RECQL	0.108	0.135	0.155	0.265	0.043	0 (0)	2 (0.061)	2 (0.061)	0 (0)
NOLA1	0.109	0.131	0.238	0.146	0.052	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
BLM	0.110	0.124	0.140	0.198	0.056	0 (0)	2 (0.077)	0 (0)	0 (0)
NBN	0.113	0.132	0.233	0.152	0.079	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (0.083)	0 (0)
RAD51C	0.115	0.140	0.124	0.107	0.182	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RAD51L1	0.127	0.157	0.142	0.227	0.112	2 (0.011)	3 (0.017)	12 (0.068)	0 (0)
PARP2	0.130	0.146	0.318	0.297	0.014	0 (0)	1 (0.100)	1 (0.100)	0 (0)

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Telomere biology gene	AMOVA F_{ST}[†]		Pairwise F_{ST}[§]			SNPs with global F_{ST} values[‡]			
	AR	WP	YRI *vs* CEU	YRI *vs* CHB+JPT	CEU *vs* CHB+JPT	< 0.01 pct	< 0.05 pct	> 0.95 pct	> 0.99 pct
TERF1	0.134	0.149	0.095	0.171	0.194	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.056)	0 (0)
TERF2	0.140	0.167	0.041	0.186	0.131	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RECQL4	0.142	0.165	0.295	0.312	0.000^{NS}	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.250)	1 (0.250)
DDX11	0.151	0.167	0.175	0.062	0.255	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
PARP1	0.159	0.174	0.068	0.161	0.209	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RAD50	0.180	0.191	0.323	0.294	0.070	3 (0.158)	3 (0.158)	2 (0.105)	1 (0.053)
DKC1[*]	0.194	0.246	0.292	0.490	0.067	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
XRCC6	0.204	0.221	0.248	0.226	0.039	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.200)	0 (0)
RAD51AP1	0.213	0.236	0.169	0.334	0.091	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (0.250)	1 (0.083)
TERC	0.235	0.236	0.139	0.486	0.292	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
RTEL1	0.250	0.277	0.137	0.368	0.208	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (0.400)	0 (0)
ACD	0.362	0.387	0.519	0.749	0.139	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (0.600)	2 (0.400)
TERF2IP	0.368	0.393	0.380	0.442	0.561	0 (0)	2 (0.250)	4 (0.500)	3 (0.375)

[†] AMOVA using 5 regions: Africa, Eurasia (Middle East, C/S Asia, Europe, and USA), East Asia, Oceania, and America;

[§] Among HapMap 2 populations: YRI = Yoruba, CEU = Utah, CHB = Han, and JPT = Japanese;

[‡] Number (proportion) of SNPs with global F_{ST} in the respective percentile (pct) of the full F_{ST} distribution;

AR = among regions, WP = within populations;

[*NS*] *P* value > 0.05, all other *P* values are < 0.01.

Shaded region indicates the genome-wide autosomal SNP average level of differentiation (Akey *et al*, 2002; Shriver *et al*, 2004; Shriver *et al*, 2005; Weir *et al*, 2005).

[*] Located on the X chromosome, F_{ST} values are expected to be elevated as compared to markers on autosomes.

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Table 2

Genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) among major continental groups and HapMap 2 populations in comparison to other datasets.

Gene sets or SNP datasets	Among HapMap 2 populations			Among regions
	YRI *vs* CEU	YRI *vs* CHB+JPT	CEU *vs* CHB+JPT	
Telomere biology genes (37 genes, 716 SNPs, *N* = 1168)[†]	0.136	0.189	0.095	0.095[§]
Shelterin genes	0.140	0.224	0.148	0.109
Telomerase complex genes	0.130	0.161	0.071	0.072
DNA repair genes	0.154	0.209	0.099	0.107
Helicase genes	0.139	0.196	0.071	0.085
Other telomere associated genes	0.098	0.144	0.093	0.086
CVD genes (364 genes, 15,559 SNPs, *N* = 270)[a]	0.139	0.158	0.095	—
Blood circulation & gas exchange genes	0.129	0.158	0.062	—
Lipoprotein metabolism genes	0.144	0.165	0.082	—
Insulin/IGF-mitogen activated protein kinase kinase/MAP kinase cascade genes	0.194	0.174	0.138	—
Disease associated SNPs (25 SNPs, *N* = 952)[b]	—	—	—	0.10[§]
Innate immune genes (174 genes, 1396 SNPs, *N* = 917)	—	—	—	0.11
Genome-wide autosomal SNP average[c]	—	—	—	0.10–0.15

[§] Among the 7 geographic regions represented in the CEPH-HGDP panel;

N = number of individuals;

[†] See methods for a description of genes included in each gene set.

YRI = Yoruba, CEU = Utah, CHB = Han, and JPT = Japanese.

[a] (Kullo and Ding, 2007);

[b] (Myles *et al*, 2008);

[c] (Akey *et al*, 2002; Shriver *et al*, 2004; Shriver *et al*, 2005; Weir *et al*, 2005)

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Table 3

Telomere biology genes average diversity of the major continental regions from the HapMap 2 project and HGDP-CEPH panel.

Region	*N*	*2N*	Average h_d	*het* telomere gene set	*het* immune gene set	$P^{\dagger}$
Africa	185	370	84.37	0.299	0.286	0.059
Middle East	161	322	76.91	0.297	0.324	0.00005
Europe	156	312	75.04	0.309	0.330	0.0017
C/S Asia	198	396	73.04	0.300	0.324	0.0003
USA‡	90	180	70.55	—	—	—
East Asia	316	632	72.19	0.295	0.303	0.284
Oceania	21	42	63.35	0.313	0.301	0.203
America*	41	82	65.51	0.287	0.264	0.0057

N = number of individuals; *2N* = number of chromosomes; h_d = haplotype diversity (%); *het* = heterozygosity in each region using HGDP-CEPH data;

†for differences between the heterozygosity of the telomere and immune gene sets;

*Includes populations in Brazil, Colombia, and Mexico;

‡includes individuals from Utah.

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Table 4

Proportion of marker pairs with significant linkage disequilibrium* using HapMap 2 and HGDP data.

Telomere biology gene‡	*n*	Population†				
		YRI *N* = 110	CEU *N* = 90	CHB *N* = 89	Oceania *N* = 21	America *N* = 41
ATM	15	0.818	0.836	0.806	1.000	0.600
BLM	26	0.659	0.717	0.709	0.695	0.529
DDX1	16	0.733	0.697	0.581	0.308	0.552
MRE11A	16	0.783	0.825	1.000	0.982	0.582
NBN	24	0.593	0.575	0.721	0.577	0.559
NOLA3	13	0.745	0.615	0.641	0.462	0.731
PARP1	16	0.724	0.978	0.857	0.800	0.736
PARP2	10	0.714	0.600	0.750	0.619	0.667
PINX1	42	0.756	0.840	0.683	0.950	0.359
POT1	23	0.929	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.925
PRKDC	18	0.508	0.581	0.562	0.622	0.533
RAD50	19	0.634	0.756	0.864	0.652	0.527
RAD51AP1	12	0.848	0.911	0.889	0.933	0.622
RAD51L1	177	0.277	0.404	0.331	0.275	0.308
RAD51L3	11	0.444	0.929	0.489	0.286	0.571
RAD54L	10	0.714	0.917	0.750	NA	0.750
RECQL	33	0.679	0.750	0.939	0.570	0.772
RECQL5	7	0.714	1.000	1.000	0.533	0.762
RTEL1	10	0.528	0.778	0.821	0.528	0.578
TEP1	25	0.446	0.438	0.352	0.267	0.447
TERF1	18	0.713	0.895	0.758	0.706	0.721
TERF2	6	0.667	0.933	0.733	NA	NA
TERF2IP	8	0.667	0.429	0.571	0.467	NA
TERT	8	0.571	0.536	0.524	0.095	0.381
TNKS	52	0.813	0.797	0.879	0.703	0.606
TNKS2	11	0.855	0.867	0.822	0.639	0.556

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Telomere biology gene‡	*n*	Population†				
		YRI ***N*** **= 110**	**CEU** ***N*** **= 90**	**CHB** ***N*** **= 89**	**Oceania** ***N*** **= 21**	**America** ***N*** **= 41**
WRN	43	0.680	0.769	0.710	0.492	0.690

n = number of SNPs; *N* = number of individuals.

*See methods for a description of this analysis, significant LD refers to a significant *P* value for rejecting the null hypothesis of free recombination.

†One population was chosen to represent Africa (YRI = Yoruba), Eurasia (CEU = Utah), and East Asia (CHB = Han), due to limited sample sizes all of the populations in Oceania and America were combined.

‡Only genes with > 5 polymorphic pairs of loci are shown due to the uncertainty of the estimation with so few loci;

NA= ≤ 5 polymorphic pairs of loci.