

DISSERTATIONS IN  
**HEALTH  
SCIENCES**

**YUVARAJ MAHENDRAN**

*Identification of Biomarkers  
for Type 2 Diabetes*

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN FINLAND  
*Dissertations in Health Sciences*



UNIVERSITY OF  
EASTERN FINLAND

YUVARAJ MAHENDRAN

*Identification of Biomarkers for Type 2  
Diabetes*

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on Friday, 14<sup>th</sup> of March 2014, at 12 noon

Publications of the University of Eastern Finland  
Dissertations in Health Sciences  
214

Department of Medicine, Institute of Clinical Medicine  
School of Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences  
University of Eastern Finland  
Kuopio University Hospital  
Kuopio  
2014

Juvenes Print - Finnish University Print  
Kuopio, 2014

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Distributor:

University of Eastern Finland  
Kuopio Campus Library  
P.O.Box 1627  
FI-70211 Kuopio, Finland  
<http://www.uef.fi/kirjasto>

ISBN: 978-952-61-1367-8 (print)

ISBN: 978-952-61-1368-5 (PDF)

ISSN: 1798-5706 (print)

ISSN: 1798-5714 (PDF)

ISSNL: 1798-5706

Author's address: Department of Medicine, Institute of Clinical Medicine  
School of Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences  
University of Eastern Finland  
P.O. Box 1627  
FI-70211 Kuopio  
Finland  
e-mail:yuvaraj.mahendran@uef.fi

Supervisors: Academy Professor Markku Laakso, M.D., Ph.D.  
Department of Medicine, Institute of Clinical Medicine  
School of Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences  
University of Eastern Finland  
Kuopio University Hospital

Professor Johanna Kuusisto, M.D., Ph.D.  
Department of Medicine, Institute of Clinical Medicine  
School of Medicine, Faculty of Health Sciences  
University of Eastern Finland  
Kuopio University Hospital

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Department of Medicine, Division of Endocrinology  
Helsinki University Central Hospital  
Minerva Foundation Institute for Medical Research  
Biomedicum 2U, Tukholmankatu 8  
Helsinki, Finland



Mahendran, Yuvaraj

Identification of Biomarkers for Type 2 Diabetes

University of Eastern Finland, Faculty of Health Sciences

Publications of the University of Eastern Finland. Dissertations in Health Sciences 214. 2014. 56 p.

ISBN: 978-952-61-1367-8 (print)

ISBN: 978-952-61-1368-5 (PDF)

ISSN: 1798-5706 (print)

ISSN: 1798-5714 (PDF)

ISSNL: 1798-5706

## **ABSTRACT**

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is a complex disorder characterized by insulin resistance and pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell dysfunction. The incidence and prevalence of T2D have doubled in recent decades, this phenomenon being attributable to obesity, sedentary lifestyle and unhealthy diet. Both genetic and environmental factors are major determinants of this disease. Genome-wide association studies have identified several risk loci for T2D and hyperglycemia, but the biological role of most of these variants remains unknown. The early diagnosis of diabetes is important in order to avoid long-term micro- and macrovascular complications in individuals at high risk of T2D. Therefore, the identification of biomarkers that accurately predict incident T2D is of great interest. The main aim of this study was to identify non-genetic and genetic biomarkers that would predict hyperglycemia and incident T2D in a prospective follow-up of the population-based METSIM (METabolic Syndrome In Men) cohort. We also investigated the significance of insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion as mediators in the associations of metabolites with the deterioration of hyperglycemia and incident T2D. We found that high fasting levels of glycerol, free fatty acids, monounsaturated fatty acids (FAs), and saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs associated with increased risk of the development of hyperglycemia and T2D, whereas high levels of omega-6 FAs were associated with reduced risk of hyperglycemia and T2D. Insulin resistance explained these associations at least in part. With respect to erythrocyte membrane FAs, palmitoleic acid, dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid, and the ratios of 16:1n-7/16:0 and 20:3n-6/18:2n-6 associated with the worsening of hyperglycemia, whereas the linoleic acid level and the ratio of 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 were associated with decreases in the hyperglycemia. Palmitoleic acid and the ratio of 16:1n-7/16:0 nominally predicted incident T2D, whereas linoleic acid had an opposite association. These associations were largely independent of insulin sensitivity, insulin secretion and glucose levels. Finally, high levels of acetoacetate and  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate predicted the worsening of hyperglycemia, and acetoacetate predicted incident T2D. Impaired insulin secretion, but not insulin resistance, explained these associations. One common variant rs780094 of the glucokinase regulatory protein gene was significantly associated with  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate levels. In conclusion, this study identified several novel biomarkers predicting the worsening of hyperglycemia and incident T2D which could be used in clinical practice.

National Library of Medicine Classification: QU 84, QU 90, WK 810, WK 820, WK 880

Medical Subject Headings: Diabetes Mellitus, Type 2; Biological Markers; Genetics; Metabolomics; Hyperglycemia; Insulin; Insulin Resistance; Glycerol; Fatty Acids; Ketone Bodies; Cohort Studies



Mahendran, Yuvaraj

Tyyppin 2 diabetesta ennustavat biomarkkerit

Itä-Suomen yliopisto, terveystieteiden tiedekunta

Publications of the University of Eastern Finland. Dissertations in Health Sciences 214. 2014. 56 s.

ISBN: 978-952-61-1367-8 (print)

ISBN: 978-952-61-1368-5 (PDF)

ISSN: 1798-5706 (print)

ISSN: 1798-5714 (PDF)

ISSNL: 1798-5706

## TIIVISTELMÄ

Puutteellinen insuliinin erityis ja heikentynyt insuliinin vaikutus kohdekudoksissa (insuliiniresistenssi) ovat tärkeimmät tyyppin 2 diabeteksen aineenvaihdunnan häiriöt. Tyyppin 2 diabetes on perinnöllinen sairaus, mutta sen puhkeamiseen tarvitaan geenien lisäksi ympäristötekijöitä. Useita tyyppin 2 diabetekseen liittyviä genejä on löydetty viimeisten vuosien aikana, mutta geenien funktio on useimmissa tapauksissa edelleenkin tuntematon. Tyyppin 2 diabeteksen esiintyvyys on nopeasti lisääntynyt viimeisten vuosikymmenien aikana johtuen ylipainon lisääntymisestä, liikunnan vähenemisestä sekä epäterveellisestä ruokavaliosta. Tyyppin 2 diabeteksen varhainen diagnoosi on tärkeää, koska tähän sairauteen liittyy pitkäaikaiskomplikaatioiden riski. Tutkimuksen tärkein tavoite oli tyyppin 2 diabetesta ja hyperglykemiaa ennustavien geneettisten ja ei-geneettisten tekijöiden (biomarkkereiden) löytäminen. Aineistona oli METSIM (METabolic Syndrome In Men) –kohortti, johon kuului 10,197 Kuopiossa ja sen lähikunnissa asuvaa miestä. Kohortin viiden vuoden seuraututkimuksessa lisääntynyt glyserolin, vapaiden rasvahappojen, tyydyttyneiden rasvahappojen, sekä omega 7- ja omega 9- rasvahappojen pitoisuus ennusti hyperglykemian ja tyyppin 2 diabeteksen kehittymistä. Omega 6-rasvahappojen lisääntynyt pitoisuus puolestaan suojasi hyperglykemian ja tyyppin 2 diabeteksen kehittymiseltä, joka johtui osittain vaikutuksesta insuliiniherkkyyteen. Punasolumembraanien rasvahapoista palmitoleiinihapon ja dihomogamma-linoleenihiapon lisääntynyt pitoisuus sekä eripituisten rasvahappojen lisääntyneet suhteet (16:1n-7/16:0 ja 20:3n-6/18:2n-6) ennustivat hyperglykemian ja tyyppin 2 diabeteksen riskiä. Lisääntynyt linoleenihiapon pitoisuus ja lisääntynyt 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 – suhde vähensivät puolestaan hyperglykemian riskiä. Nämä tulokset olivat riippumattomia insuliiniresistenssistä, insuliinin erityksestä ja glukoositasoista. Asetoasetatiin ja  $\beta$ -hydroksibutyraatin lisääntynyt pitoisuus ennusti hyperglykemian kehittymistä ja asetoasetatiin lisääntynyt pitoisuus myös tyyppin 2 diabetesta johtuen insuliinierityksen huononemisesta. GCKR-geenin yleinen polymorfia (rs780094) liittyi merkitsevästi  $\beta$ -hydroksibutyraatin pitoisuuteen. Yhteenvedon voidaan todeta, että tutkimussarjassa löydettiin useita uusia biomarkkereita, jotka ennustavat hyperglykemian ja tyyppin 2 diabeteksen riskiä ja joita voidaan käyttää myös kliinisessä diagnostiikassa.

Luokitus: QU 84, QU 90, WK 810, WK 820, WK 880

Yleinen suomalainen asiasanasto: aikuistyyppin diabetes; markkerit; merkkiaineet; geenit; metabolomiikka; hyperglykemia; insuliini; insuliiniresistenssi; glyseroli; rasvahapot; ketoaineet; kohorttitutkimus





*To my parents Mr. Harry Klinker and Mrs. Tiny Klinker*



# Acknowledgements

This study was performed in the Institute of Clinical Medicine, University of Eastern Finland and the Kuopio University Hospital

All praise and thanks to the Lord Jesus Christ!

It is my privilege to express my wholehearted gratitude and utmost respect to my principle supervisor Academy Prof. Markku Laakso for giving me the opportunity to carry out this study under his splendid guidance. His impressive intelligence, vision, enthusiasm in science and experience has supported this study and encouraged my research interests. His trust, patience, help and support go far beyond the confines of this work and also I thank him for providing me with all facilities possible for finishing my doctorate training successfully.

I would like to extend my thank you note to Prof. Johanna Kuusisto for her invaluable guidance, and support which helped me to pursue my studies successfully.

I would like to express my gratitude to the thesis examiners, Prof. Risto Kaaja and Docent Olavi Ukkola for their valuable comments to improve the thesis., I also thank Ewen MacDonald for his language revisions.

I am much obliged to Dr. Jagadish Vangipurapu for all his intellectual and technical guidance right from the beginning of my studies, until I submit my thesis. I am lucky to have been able to obtain his intellectual contribution to this study, which helped me to understand and expand my knowledge. I thank him for his generosity, unstinting encouragement, and bountiful support.

I am grateful to Dr. Henna Cederberg, Dr. Alena Stančáková, Mr. Teemu Kuulasmaa and Dr. Jussi Paananen for their co-operation and constant guidance which helped me to successfully finish this study., I am also indebted to Ms. Seija Laitinen for her kindness and compassion throughout the duration of my PhD work.

I thank all the co-authors and technicians for their valuable contributions to this study. A special thanks to Ms. Arja Afflekt for her continuous help and support.

I express sincere thanks to my colleagues, Shalem Modi Raju, a friend who helped me in so many different ways during my initial days in Kuopio and Niyas K. Saleem, with whom I shared lot of information. Heartfelt thanks to Maykel López Rodriguez, for sharing a good time both inside and outside the office and for participating in research discussions. I also thank Dorota Kaminska and Maria Fizelova for sharing their thoughts and conversation with me.

I am also appreciative of the unending support of my loving friends - Alok Jaiswal, Ganesh Chauhan, Om Prakash, Rubina Tabassum, Symantas Ragauskas, Javkhlanbayar, Ashok Matte, Ashik Jawahar Deen, Suresh Raju, Haja Sherief, Appu Etcherla, Bhima Mitkari, Yajuvinder Singh, Rolls John V, Balamuralikrishna Jayaprakash, Uma Thanigai and Krishnaveni with whom I enjoyed my days while

sharing knowledge and experiences. In addition, my thank you note is extended to Dr. Narasinha Shurpali, Varsha, Sudipta, Jani Paukkonen, Jayendra, Bhavini, Merlin, Sireesha, Nesna for their care and concern.

I offer my tribute to Dr. Mausumi Bharadwaj and Dr. Shirly George Panicker, who introduced me to the field of science, their trust and kindness helped me to pursue my interest in research., I would also like to thank Dr. Showket Hussain and Dr. Neha Singh for their love and encouragement in both my research and personal life.

My acknowledgement could never be complete without thanking my family members, sister Kodeeswari Sherin and Nagarajan and all Klinker family members. I am particularly grateful to Ruby Ponnudurai for her enduring love, care and emotional support. I am humbly indebted to Uncle Soma Sundaram for his constant prayer and love towards me.

Finally, I thank my Lord for giving me such excellent opportunities and for the nice people who have made a deep impression in my heart.

The study has been funded by grants from the National Institute of Health, Academy of Finland, European Union, Finnish Heart Foundation, and Sigrid Juselius Foundation.

Kuopio, March 2014

Yuvaraj Mahendran

# List of Original Publications

This dissertation is based on the following original publications:

- I Mahendran Y\*, Cederberg H\*, Vangipurapu J, Kangas AJ, Soininen P, Uusitupa M, Kuusisto J, Ala-Korpela M, Laakso M. Glycerol and fatty acids in serum predict the development of hyperglycemia and type 2 diabetes in Finnish men. *Diabetes Care* 36: 3732-3738, 2013
- II Mahendran Y, Ågren J, Uusitupa M, Cederberg H, Vangipurapu J, Stančáková A, Schwab U, Kuusisto J & Laakso M. Association of erythrocyte membrane fatty acids with changes in glycemia and risk of type 2 diabetes. *Am J Clin Nutr* 99:79-85, 2014
- III Mahendran Y, Vangipurapu J, Cederberg H, Stančáková A, Pihlajamäki J, Soininen P, Kangas AJ, Paananen J, Civelek M, Saleem NK, Pajukanta P, Lusic AJ, Bonnycastle LL, Morken MA, Collins FS, Mohlke KL, Boehnke M, Ala-Korpela M, Kuusisto J, Laakso M. Association of ketone body levels with hyperglycemia and type 2 diabetes in 9,398 Finnish men. *Diabetes* 62:3618-3626, 2013

\*equal contribution

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#### APPENDICES: ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS (I-III)

# Abbreviations

2hPG	2-hour plasma glucose during an OGTT
ACC	Acetyl-CoA carboxylase
AcAc	Acetoacetate
ADA	American Diabetes Association
ADAMTS9	A disintegrin and metalloproteinase with thrombospondin motifs 9
ADCY5	Adenylate cyclase 5
ADP	Adenosine diphosphate
ADRA2A	Adrenergic alpha-2A receptor
Akt	Protein kinase B
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
ANKRD55	Ankyrin repeat domain 55
ANK1	Ankyrin 1
ARAP1	ArfGAP with RhoGAP domain, ankyrin repeat and PH domain 1
ATP	Adenosine triphosphate
ATGL	Adipose triglyceride lipase
AUC	Area under the curve
BCAAs	Branched-chain amino acids
BCL11A	B-cell CLL/lymphoma 11A
BHB	3-hydroxybutyrate
BMI	Body mass index
C2CD4B	C2 calcium-dependent domain containing 4B
CAMK1D	Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase 1 D
CAPN10	Calpain 10
CDC123	Cell division cycle 123 homolog
CDK	Cyclin-dependent kinase
CDKAL1	Cyclin-dependent kinase 5 regulatory sub-unit associated protein 1-like 1
CDKN2	Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2
CENTD2	ArfGAP with RhoGAP domain, ankyrin repeat and PH domain 1 (ARAP1)
CHCHD9	Coiled-coil-helix-coiled-coil-helix domain containing 2 pseudogene 9
CRP	C-reactive protein
CRY2	Cryptochrome 2
D5D	$\Delta^5$ desaturase
D6D	$\Delta^6$ desaturase
DAGs	Diacylglycerols
DI30	Disposition Index 30
DGKB	Diacylglycerol kinase beta
EMFA	Erythrocyte membrane fatty acid
FA	Fatty acid
FADS	Fatty acid desaturase
FAS	Fatty acid synthase
FFAs	Free fatty acids

FPG	Fasting plasma glucose
FPI	Fasting plasma insulin
FTO	Fat mass and obesity associated
G6PC2	Glucose-6-phosphatase catalytic 2
GCK	Glucokinase
GCKR	Glucokinase regulator
GIPR	Gastric inhibitory polypeptide receptor
GLIS3	GLIS family zinc finger 3
GLUT	Facilitated glucose transporter
GWA	Genome-wide association
HapMap	Haplotype map of the human genome
HDL	High-density lipoprotein
HHEX	Hematopoietically expressed homeobox
HMGA2	High mobility group AT-hook 2
HNF1A	Hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 homeobox A
HNF1B	Hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 homeobox B
HOMA-B	Homeostasis model assessment of insulin secretion
HOMA-IR	Homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance
HSL	Hormone sensitive lipase
ICAM-1	Intercellular adhesion molecule-1
IFG	Impaired fasting glucose
IGF2BP2	Insulin-like growth factor 2 mRNA binding protein 2
IGT	Impaired glucose tolerance
IIFG	Isolated impaired fasting glucose
IIGT	Isolated impaired glucose tolerance
IR	Insulin receptor
IRS	Insulin receptor substrate
ISI	Insulin sensitivity index
JAZF1	Juxtaposed with another zinc finger gene 1
KANK1	KN motif and ankyrin repeat domains 1
KATP	ATP-sensitive potassium channel
KCNJ11	Potassium inwardly-rectifying channel, subfamily J, member 11
KCNQ1	Potassium voltage-gated channel, KQT-like subfamily, member 1
KLF14	Kruppel-like factor 14
LDL	Low-density lipoprotein
LPC	Lysophosphatidylcholine
LPL	Lipoprotein lipase
MAPK	Mitogen-activated protein-kinase
Matsuda ISIM	Matsuda Insulin Sensitivity Index
METSIM	Metabolic Syndrome In Men
MGL	Monoacylglycerol
mRNA	messenger Ribonucleic acid
MTNR1B	Melatonin receptor 1B

MUFA	Monounsaturated fatty acid
NGT	Normal glucose tolerance
NMR	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
NOTCH2	Notch homolog 2 [Drosophila]
OGTT	Oral glucose-tolerance test
OR	Odds ratio
PAM1	Peptidylglycine alpha-amidating monooxygenase
PDK1	Phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase-1
PDX1	Pancreatic and duodenal homeobox 1
PI3-K	Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase
PIP3	Phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate
PKB	Protein kinase B
PKC	Protein kinase C
PPARG	Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma
PRC1	Protein regulator of cytokinesis 1
PROX1	Prospero homeobox 1
PUFA	Polyunsaturated fatty acid
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
SCD	Stearoyl coenzyme A desaturase
SE	Standard error
SFA	Saturated fatty acid
SLC2A2	Solute carrier family 2 member 2
SLC30A8	Solute carrier family 30 (zinc transporter), member 8
SNP	Single nucleotide polymorphism
T2D	Type 2 diabetes
TCF7L2	Transcription factor 7-like 2
TG	Triglycerides
TAG	Triacylglycerol
TBC1D30	TBC1 domain family, member 30
THADA	Thyroid adenoma associated
TNF $\alpha$	Tumor necrosis factor alpha
TP53INP1	Tumor protein p53 inducible nuclear protein 1
TSPAN8	Tetraspanin 8
VLDL	Very-low density lipoprotein
WFS1	Wolfram syndrome 1
WHO	World Health Organization
Wnt	Wingless-type MMTV integration site family



# 1 Introduction

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is characterized by chronic hyperglycemia attributable to insulin resistance and pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell dysfunction. These metabolic disturbances lead to microvascular (diabetic nephropathy, neuropathy, and retinopathy) and macrovascular complications (coronary artery disease, peripheral arterial disease, and stroke) (1). T2D is usually diagnosed in adulthood, although it is becoming prevalent in children and adolescents (2). Early onset of T2D will subsequently increase the burden of long-term complications of this disease (3).

T2D is a multi-factorial disease caused by the complex interaction between risk genes and environmental/lifestyle risk factors. The development of T2D is clearly linked with a family history of diabetes. The heritability of T2D is stronger in monozygotic twins than in dizygotic twins (4), and the prevalence of T2D is especially high in certain ethnic groups suggesting that T2D has a strong genetic basis. Recent genome-wide association studies (GWAs) have identified several loci associated with T2D and hyperglycemia, but the biological role of these variants found is often unknown. Studies of rare variants are likely to increase our knowledge on the missing heritability of T2D. Lifestyle factors, including smoking, aging, obesity, heavy alcohol consumption, low physical activity, and diet including low amount of fiber and high amount of saturated fat also contribute to the risk of T2D (5).

Increasing incidence and prevalence of T2D is a global health burden for all societies. The number of patients with T2D continues to increase, as economic development and urbanization lead to changes in lifestyles. According to the International Diabetes Federation, 371 million people have diabetes worldwide in 2012 and it is expected that this number will increase substantially up to 552 million by 2030. About 183 million people with diabetes are undiagnosed and diabetes is likely to become the fourth or fifth leading cause of death in the near future ([www.idf.org](http://www.idf.org)). Therefore, the global epidemic of T2D clearly highlights the importance of changes in lifestyle and diet over the last several decades. It is apparent that early assessment and diagnosis would prevent or delay the incidence of T2D and also to minimize the occurrence of micro- and macrovascular complications.

The aim of present study was to identify metabolic and genetic biomarkers that could predict hyperglycemia and incident T2D. Furthermore, this series of studies has investigated the role of insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion as mediators for the association of metabolites with the deterioration of hyperglycemia and incident T2D.

## 2 Review of the Literature

### 2.1 PATHOPHYSIOLOGY OF TYPE 2 DIABETES

The development of T2D is characterized by a progressive deterioration of glucose tolerance from normal glucose tolerance to abnormal glucose tolerance and finally to diabetes. T2D is diagnosed on the basis of elevated glucose levels and/or HbA1c level. According to the American Diabetes Association (ADA) criteria, the diagnosis of diabetes is based on elevated fasting plasma glucose (FPG) ( $\geq 7.0$  mmol/L) or elevated 2-hour plasma glucose (2hPG) level ( $\geq 11.1$  mmol/L) in an oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) or elevated HbA1c levels ( $\geq 6.5$  %) (6).

The two major pathophysiological abnormalities in T2D are impaired  $\beta$ -cell function and insulin resistance.

#### 2.1.1 Insulin secretion

Insulin secretion is a highly dynamic process regulated by complex mechanisms. The pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell secretes a peptide hormone, insulin, the only blood glucose-lowering hormone in human metabolism. The insulin mRNA is translated as a precursor called proinsulin and inserted into the endoplasmic reticulum, and further processed to the biological active form inside secretory granules. Several intracellular signals, such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ , ATP, cAMP, and diacylglycerol and inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate are involved in insulin secretion. Glucose is transported into the  $\beta$ -cells by *GLUT1* (encoded by *SLC2A1*) and *GLUT3* (encoded by *SLC2A3*) transporters (7). Upon transportation, an increase in glucose metabolism in the  $\beta$ -cell occurs. This involves an enhancement in the activity of glucokinase and generates a high concentration of the intracellular adenosine triphosphate/adenosine diphosphate (ATP/ADP) ratio. The resulting increase in the ATP/ADP ratio triggers the closure of the ATP-sensitive  $\text{K}^+$  ( $\text{K}_{\text{ATP}}$ ) channels and depolarizes the cell membrane. The activation of voltage-dependent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channels causes an increase in  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  entry into the  $\beta$ -cells, and the rise in intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration ( $[\text{Ca}^{2+}]_i$ ) which in turn stimulates insulin release (Figure 1) (8).

Insulin secretion in response to glucose exhibits a characteristic biphasic pattern, this consists of a rapid initiated and transient first phase followed by a sustained second phase during which insulin secretion continues at a somewhat lower rate but is still enhanced (9). Only a fraction of the  $\beta$ -cell insulin content is released during stimulation. The complete loss of the first phase insulin secretion and a marked reduction of the second phase insulin release in non-diabetic individuals are the early markers for the risk of T2D (10).

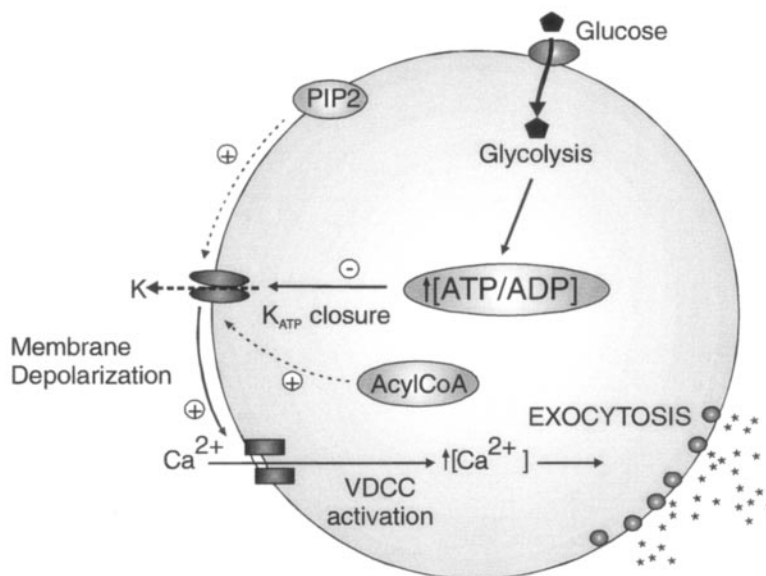


Figure 1. Regulation of insulin secretion (8). VDCC, voltage-dependent calcium channel; PIP2, phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate.

Impaired insulin secretion is the major abnormality encountered in the pathogenesis of T2D. One consequence of the decline of early phase insulin secretion is impaired glucose tolerance, which leads to the development of post-prandial hyperglycemia which in turn impairs insulin secretion *via* glucotoxicity. Finally, the impairment of insulin secretion causes overproduction of endogenous glucose and this ultimately leads to the development of frank diabetes. Early phase insulin secretion is impaired in individuals with disturbed glucose homeostasis and in those at high risk for T2D. Impaired insulin secretion predicts T2D independent of insulin resistance in normoglycemic subjects (11). Defects in insulin secretion are attributable to a decrease in the sensitivity of the glucose receptor which transmits the glucose signal to trigger insulin release in the pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell (12). Genetic and environmental factors are the main determinants of insulin secretion. The offspring of patients with T2D show a defect in the first-phase insulin secretion in addition to insulin resistance (13). High levels of saturated fatty acids (FAs) impair insulin secretion and this leads to the deterioration of glucose tolerance (14).

### 2.1.2 Insulin resistance

Insulin resistance is defined as a reduction in insulin's ability to stimulate glucose uptake in peripheral insulin sensitive tissues. Insulin mediates its action by binding to the insulin receptor (IR) in three major tissues, skeletal muscle, liver and the adipose tissues. The IR undergoes autophosphorylation and it enhances tyrosine kinase activity. Activated receptors lead to the binding of various scaffold proteins, including the insulin receptor substrates (IRS). This, in turn, results in the activation of the insulin signalling pathway, where the phosphorylation of IRS proteins leads to their association with the p85 regulatory subunit of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3-K). This results in the activation of p100 catalytic subunit of PI3-K that catalyzes the production of phosphoinositol lipids, including phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphates



[PI(3,4,5)P<sub>3</sub>], which further activates the Ser/Thr kinase 3-phosphoinositide-dependent protein kinase (PDK)-1. PDK-1 phosphorylates and activates other downstream kinases, including Akt and protein kinase C (PKC), which mediates translocation of GLUT4. This series of signals stimulates glucose uptake into the cells (Figure 2) (15).

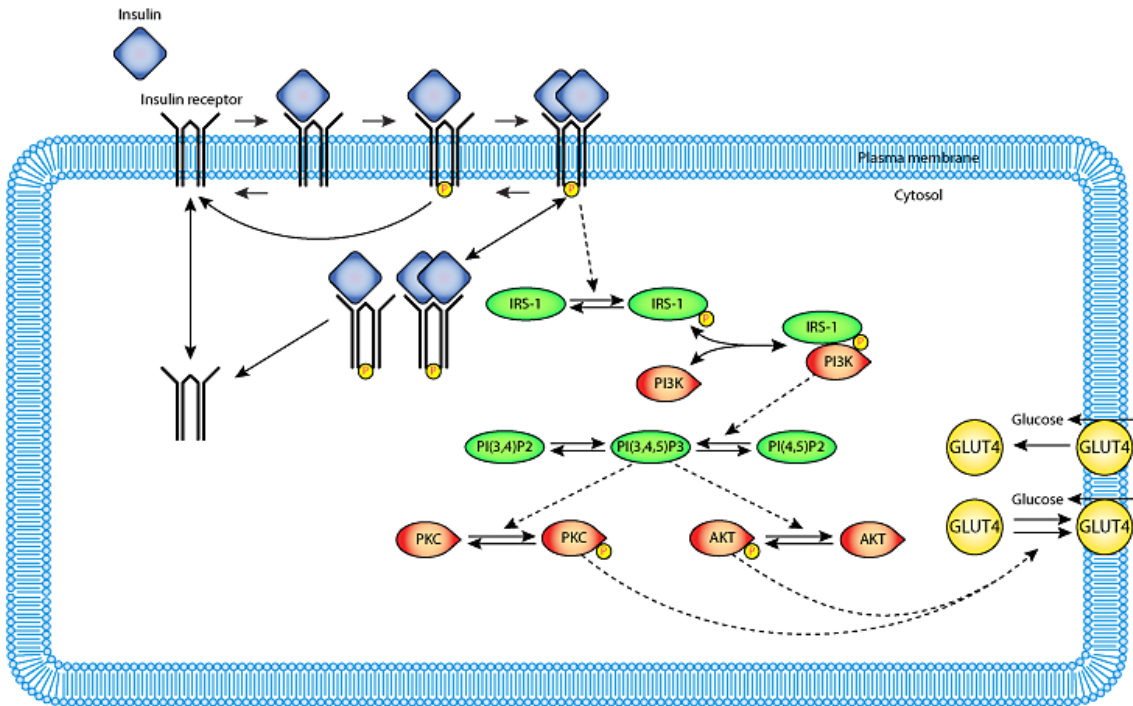


Figure 2. Insulin signaling pathway (15). PI(3,4)P<sub>2</sub>, phosphatidylinositol (3, 4)-bisphosphate; AKT, protein kinase B; GLUT4, glucose transporter type 4.

Since IRS molecules are key mediators in the insulin signaling pathway, IR-deficient mice develop severe diabetes resulting in fat accumulation of the liver and increased production of ketone bodies (16). The lack of *IRS-1* gene in primary adipocytes of mice showed decreased glucose transport and GLUT4 translocation in the membrane (17). GLUT4 is the main insulin-responsive glucose transporter, and mice deficient of GLUT4 exhibit moderate insulin resistance and impaired glucose tolerance but do not develop diabetes. However, the GLUT4 deficiency resulted in growth retardation, reduced fat tissue, cardiac hypertrophy and shortened lifespan (18). Defects in the insulin signaling pathway, such as impaired IRS tyrosine phosphorylation and reduced activation of PI 3-kinase/Akt signaling have also been demonstrated to be responsible for reduced glucose transport and glucose utilization in skeletal muscle and adipocytes (19).

In addition to the defects in the insulin signaling pathway, genetic predisposition, unhealthy diet, physical inactivity, accumulation of lipids in the liver and skeletal muscle contribute to insulin resistance.

### 2.1.2.1 Skeletal muscle insulin sensitivity

Glucose uptake into skeletal muscle is insulin dependent, and skeletal muscle accounts for about 60-70% of whole body glucose uptake (20). GLUT4-mediated glucose transport into

skeletal muscle is essential for the maintenance of normal glucose homeostasis, and it is activated by insulin and muscle contraction (21). Muscle specific inactivation of the insulin receptor results in severe insulin resistance and glucose intolerance (21). Insulin resistance in skeletal muscle is attributable to defects in the insulin signalling pathway, such as IRS-1 and PI3-K and Akt activation (22). Individuals with T2D exhibit reduced IR and IRS-1 phosphorylation and lowered PI3-K activity in skeletal muscle (23, 24). Skeletal muscle insulin resistance in genetically predisposed individuals manifests itself as impaired activation of PI3-K, IRS-1 and AKT (25).

### **2.1.2.2 Liver insulin sensitivity**

Liver accounts for ~30% of whole body insulin-mediated glucose uptake and plays a key role in the maintenance of glucose homeostasis. Approximately 85% of glucose produced in the liver is derived from glycogen breakdown and gluconeogenesis. Insulin regulates both glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis. Impaired insulin mediated suppression of hepatic glucose production leads to increased levels of plasma glucose and contributes to the pathogenesis of T2D. In addition, hepatic insulin resistance results in other abnormalities including hyperinsulinemia, increased  $\beta$ -cell stress, hyperglycemia, dyslipidemia and increased levels of inflammatory factors.

The accumulation of triglycerides (TGs) in the liver is responsible for hepatic insulin resistance (26). In the liver, an excess formation of diacylglycerols (DAGs) leads to the activation and translocation of PKC $\epsilon$  in the membrane and consequently to the inhibition of insulin-stimulated insulin receptor kinase phosphorylation of IRS proteins which in turn downregulates the downstream insulin-signalling cascade. Intrahepatic accumulation of diacylglycerol mediates hepatic insulin resistance (27). It is known that defects in the IRS-1 and IRS-2 insulin receptor signalling pathways directly contribute to hyperglycemia and hepatic insulin resistance (28).

### **2.1.2.3 Adipose tissue insulin sensitivity**

Adipose tissue accounts for ~10% of whole body glucose uptake. The primary role of adipose tissue is to store free fatty acids (FFAs) and release FFAs to ensure adequate energy level in the body. In the fed state, the upregulation of lipoprotein lipase (LPL) in adipose tissue hydrolyses chylomicron-associated TGs, and stimulates the uptake of FFAs by adipose tissue. In the fasting state, FFAs originate almost entirely from the hydrolysis of TGs within adipocytes. Stored TGs are rapidly mobilized by the action of the three main lipases in the adipocyte: adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL), hormone-sensitive lipase (HSL) and monoacylglycerol lipase (MGL). HSL catalyzes the first and rate-limiting step in the mobilization of FFAs from adipose tissue (29, 30). In adipose tissue, HSL is activated by several hormones such as catecholamines, adrenocorticotrophic hormone and glucagon via cAMP-dependent protein kinase A and inhibited by insulin (31, 32).

Insulin is the major regulator of LPL and HSL activity in the adipose tissue. Insulin upregulates LPL activity and promotes gene expression of acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) and fatty acid synthase (FAS) (33). Additionally, insulin prevents HSL activity in the adipose tissue through inhibition of its phosphorylation (34). In insulin resistant conditions, the responses of both LPL and HSL activities to insulin are blunted. LPL is associated with increased TG synthesis, and the ineffective suppression of HSL-mediated lipolysis in the adipose tissue causes an abnormal release of FFAs in plasma (35).

Adipose tissue releases hormones and cytokines that are involved in glucose metabolism, inflammation, and lipid metabolism. In obese subjects, levels of FFAs, TNF-alpha, IL-6, plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1 and C-reactive protein (CRP) are significantly increased, and the levels of adiponectin are low (36). Adiponectin increases insulin sensitivity by stimulating FA oxidation and inhibiting hepatic glucose production (37, 38). In obese individuals, the levels of TNF-alpha in the adipose tissue are increased and these contribute to insulin resistance (39) by inhibiting the genes involved in insulin signaling and adipocyte differentiation including CAAT-enhancer-binding protein- $\alpha$ , PPAR $\gamma$ , GLUT4, IRS-1 protein, protein kinase B (PKB), adiponectin, and long-chain FA acyl-CoA synthase (38). Adipose tissue specific downregulation of GLUT4 can cause insulin resistance and thereby increase the risk of developing diabetes (40). Adipocytes from diabetic and insulin resistant individuals exhibit reduced GLUT4 translocation, reduced IRS-1 expression, impaired insulin-stimulated PI3-K and Akt/PKB (20). Elevated levels of TNF-alpha, combined with the elevation of IL-6, IL-1 $\beta$ , and CRP proteins are associated with incident diabetes (41). During fasting state, high levels of FFAs in plasma, a subsequent increase in the intake of FA by muscle and FA flux to the liver also increases and contributes to hepatic gluconeogenesis and ketogenesis.

## **2.2 DIETARY FAT AS A RISK FACTOR FOR TYPE 2 DIABETES**

Essential FAs, such as omega-3 and omega-6 polyunsaturated FAs, trans-fatty acids, and saturated FAs (15:0, 17:0) are considered as reliable FA biomarkers. These FAs are derived only from diet and cannot be synthesized endogenously. Other saturated and monounsaturated FAs are derived either from the diet or are endogenously synthesized. The levels of these FAs vary considerably from day to day within an individual. Therefore, they cannot be considered as reliable biomarkers of dietary intake (42). The distribution of individual FAs can be measured in plasma, cholesterol esters, TGs, phospholipids, erythrocytes, platelets, various lipoprotein sub-fractions and adipose tissue.

Type of dietary fat intake might be a more important factor for the risk of diabetes than the total dietary fat intake (43). The increased intake of saturated FAs increases LDL cholesterol concentration. The replacement of saturated FAs by mono-or polyunsaturated FAs has been reported to lower the level of LDL cholesterol and to increase that of HDL cholesterol (44). A diet high in saturated FAs worsens insulin resistance (45). Randomized clinical studies have demonstrated that low-carbohydrate, low-glycemic index, Mediterranean, and high-protein diets can improve glycemic control and increase the HDL cholesterol level (46). In non-diabetic

men, a high intake of saturated FAs increases the risk of T2D (47). Similarly, a western diet and a high fat intake are also associated with incident T2D (48, 49).

## **2.3 GENETICS OF TYPE 2 DIABETES**

T2D is a genetically heterogeneous disease and about 30-70% of the risk can be attributed to genetic factors. The pattern of inheritance suggests that multiple genes and different combination of genes are involved in T2D.

### **2.3.1 Heritability of type 2 diabetes**

There is undisputed evidence that T2D is inherited. The prevalence of diabetes varies widely across different ethnic groups, due to underlying genes and different frequencies of predisposing alleles (50). T2D aggregates in the families. The concordance of T2D in monozygotic twins is ~70% compared with 20-30% in dizygotic twins (4). The risk of developing T2D is ~40% in the offspring if one parent has diabetes and 70% if both parents have diabetes (51, 52). A prospective study has demonstrated a twofold increased risk of incident T2D in subjects with a family history of diabetes (53).

## **2.4 APPROACH FOR GENETIC STUDIES IN TYPE 2 DIABETES**

### **2.4.1 Linkage and candidate gene approach**

Linkage analysis is undertaken to identify the regions of the genome that harbour genes which predispose to different diseases. Linkage analysis requires a large pedigree with many affected and unaffected individuals from several consecutive generations in the same homogenous population (54). With linkage studies, several loci for T2D have been identified on chromosome 20q and chromosome 1q (q21 – q23) (55-57). The exploration of chromosome 1q revealed the gene encoding transcription factor 7-like 2 (*TCF7L2*). This locus has been reported to confer the strongest effect on the risk of T2D, and this association has been replicated in several ethnic groups (58, 59).

The candidate gene approach focuses on the search for an association between disease and variants in or near biologically defined candidate genes which have been chosen based on their inferred physiological role in disease, especially in pathways involved in insulin secretion and insulin resistance. *PPARG*, *KCNJ11*, *WFS1*, *HNF1B* genes have been identified as risk genes for T2D using the candidate gene approach (60).

### 2.4.2 Genome wide association studies

Genome wide association studies (GWAs) are designed to find loci that fit the common disease-common variant hypothesis of human disease. This approach is unbiased with respect to the genome structure and previous knowledge of the disease etiology. The completion of the Human Genome Project in 2003 and the International HapMap Project in 2005 led to the identification of several million SNPs.

The first GWAs identified a zinc transporter and member of solute carrier family, *SLC30A8*, and *HHEX* as the first confirmed candidate genes for T2D and confirmed the association of *TCF7L2* and *KCNJ11* with T2D (61). These results provided evidence that the GWA approach was useful for identifying functionally relevant loci. Another three GWAs studies identified *CDKAL1*, *IGF2BP2*, and a variant near *CDKN2A-B* as novel T2D loci and confirmed the known T2D loci of *TCF7L2*, *KCNJ11*, *PPARG*, *SLC30A8*, and *HHEX* (62-64). The association of *FTO* with T2D was identified and subsequently confirmed in replication studies (65, 66). Additionally, meta-analyses have found six new loci *JAZF1*, *CDC123*, *TSPAN8*, *THADA*, *ADAMTS9*, and *NOTCH2* for T2D (67). Most of the T2D loci identified with GWAs were common variants conferring small effects.

### 2.4.3 Exome wide association studies

The exome sequencing approach is based on a common disease-rare variant hypothesis. It postulates that multiple rare variants with large effects sizes are the main determinants of heritability of the disease. Exome sequencing has been successful in the identification of mutations for rare Mendelian disorders (68). A few studies have demonstrated the benefit of applying large-scale exome sequencing approach for discovering variations associated with complex metabolic traits (69, 70). A recent study in Finnish individuals using the exome chip approach identified three new low-frequency loci in *TBC1D30*, *KANK1*, and *PAM* that were associated with insulin processing or insulin secretion (71). This study provided the first proof that exome-wide association studies are a powerful way for identifying low-frequency functional variants for complex diseases.

## 2.5 HYPERGLYCEMIA AND TYPE 2 DIABETES RISK LOCI IDENTIFIED BY GWAs

Altogether GWAs have identified >65 genetic variants associated with T2D (51). Figure 3 illustrates the year of discovery of all 65 loci associated with T2D and their effect sizes. However, for several of these variants, the biological role of the specific variant is unknown. Most of the common gene variants of T2D have been associated with  $\beta$ -cell function and not with insulin sensitivity (72).

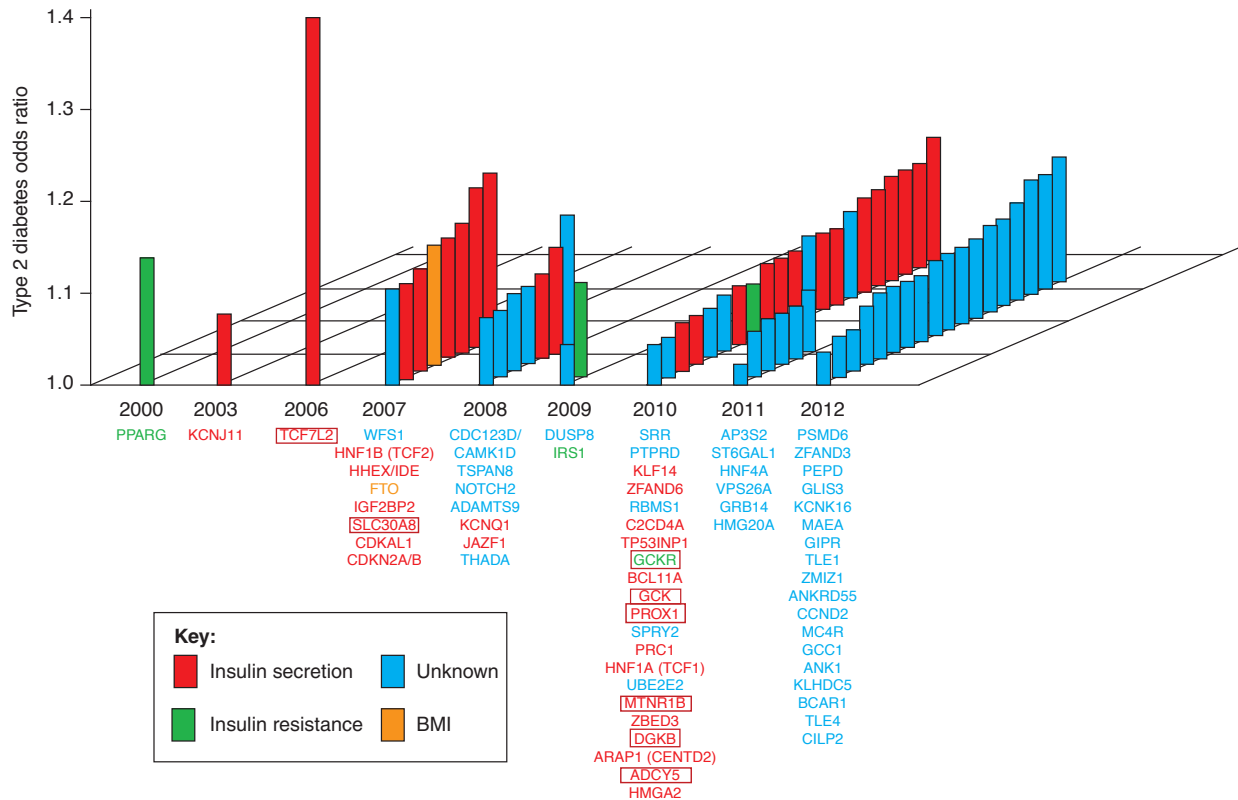


Figure 3. 65 T2D variants identified with GWAs (modified from (+&)), the red rectangle represents genetic loci that are associated with both fasting glucose and T2D.

So far GWAs have reported 36 variants associated with fasting glucose levels (73-75), but the association of these variants with T2D has remained unclear. For example, *GCK*, *MTNR1B* and *G6PC2* are associated with fasting glucose with strong effect sizes, but they do not have any significant effects on the risk of T2D. In contrast, *TCF7L2* is the strongest candidate gene for T2D, but its effect on fasting glucose level is limited. Individual SNPs associated with hyperglycemia and T2D are summarized in detail in Table 1. Only the most important genes regulating the risk of T2D and hyperglycemia are discussed below.

### 2.5.1 Gene variants affecting insulin secretion

*ARAP1* also known as *CENTD2* encodes ArfGAP with RhoGAP domain, ankyrin repeat and PH domain 1. *ARAP1* gene is known to regulate EGF-R trafficking and the signaling also involved in apoptosis (76, 77). The variant rs1552224 in *ARAP1* is associated with an increased risk of T2D and decreased glucose-stimulated insulin release (78, 79).

Table 1. Single nucleotide polymorphisms associated with T2D, insulin secretion, insulin sensitivity, obesity and other glycemic traits

Gene	SNP	Chromosomal Location	GWA trait	Other reported associations with phenotypes	References
<b>Gene variants affecting insulin secretion</b>					
<i>ADCY5</i>	rs11708067	3q21.1	FG, T2D	Decreased HOMA-B Decreased birth weight	(73) (80) (81)
<i>ADRA2A</i>	rs10885122	10q25.2	FG		(81)
<i>ARAP1/ CENTD2</i>	rs1552224	11q13.4	T2D		(79)
<i>BCL11A</i>	rs10490072	2p21	T2D		(82)
<i>CDKAL1</i>	rs7754840	6p22.3	T2D	Impaired conversion of proinsulin to insulin Decreased birth weight	(83-85) (86) (87)
<i>CDKN2A/B</i>	rs10811661	9p21	T2D		(87)
<i>C2CD4A</i>	rs7172432	15q22.2	T2D		(88)
<i>C2CD4B</i>	rs11071657	15q22.2	FG	Decreased HOMA-B	(73, 81)
<i>DGKB</i>	rs2191349	7p21.2	FG, T2D	Decreased HOMA-B	(73, 81)
<i>FADS1</i>	rs174550	11q12.2-q13.1	FG	Decreased HOMA-B	(73, 81)
<i>GCK</i>	rs4607517	7p15.3-p15.1	FG, T2D	Decreased HOMA-B	(73, 81)
<i>G6PC2</i>	rs1799884	2q24.3	FG, T2D	Decreased HOMA-B Decreased T2D risk	(73, 81)
	rs560887		FG		
<i>GLIS3</i>	rs7034200	9p24.2	FG	Decreased HOMA-B	(73, 81)
<i>HMGA2</i>	rs1531343	12q15	T2D		(78)
<i>HNF1A/ TCF1</i>	rs7957197	12q24.31	T2D		(78)
<i>HNF1B</i>	rs7501939	17q12	T2D		(84)(89)
<i>HHEX</i>	rs1111875	10q23.33	T2D	Decreased birth weight	(86, 87, 90)
<i>IGF2BP2</i>	rs4402960	3q27.2	T2D		(63, 87, 91-93)
<i>JAZF1</i>	rs864745	7p15	T2D		(67, 94)
<i>KCNJ11</i>	rs5219	11p15.1	T2D	Increased glucagon level	(92, 95, 96)
<i>KCNQ1</i>	rs2237895	11p15	T2D		(97, 98)
<i>KLF14</i>	rs972283	7q32	T2D		(78)
<i>MTNR1B</i>	rs10830963	11q21-q22	FG, T2D		(92, 99)
<i>MADD</i>	rs7944584	11p11.1	FG	Impaired proinsulin to insulin conversion Decreased HOMA-B	(100)
					(73)
<i>PROX1</i>	rs340874	1q41	FG, T2D	Decreased Insulin sensitivity Decreased HOMA-B	(73, 81)
<i>PRC1</i>	rs8042680	15q26.1	T2D		(78)
<i>SLC30A8</i>	rs13266634	8q12.11	FG, T2D	Impaired proinsulin to insulin conversion	(61, 83, 101, 102)
<i>SLC2A2</i>	rs11920090	3q26.1-q26.2	T2D	Decreased HOMA-B	(73)
<i>TP53INP1</i>	rs896854	8q22	T2D		(78)
<i>TCF7L2</i>	rs7903146	10q25.3	FG, T2D	Impaired proinsulin to insulin conversion Decreased incretin effect Decreased glucagon level	(58, 83, 102, 103)
					(104)
<i>ZBED3</i>	rs4457053	5q13.3	T2D		(78)
<i>ZFAND6</i>	rs11634397	15q25.1	T2D		(78)
<b>Gene variants affecting insulin sensitivity</b>					
<i>GCKR</i>	rs780094	2p23	FG, T2D, FI, TGs		(73, 102)
<i>IRS1</i>	rs2943641	2q36	T2D		(105)
<i>PPARG</i>	rs1801282	3p25	T2D		(106)

<b>Gene variants affecting obesity</b>					
<i>FTO</i>	rs9939609	16q12.2	BMI, T2D	Decreased insulin sensitivity Increased fasting insulin	(66, 78)
<b>Gene variants with unknown function</b>					
<i>ADAMTS9</i>	rs4607103	3p14.3-2	T2D	Decreased insulin sensitivity Increased insulin secretion	(107)
<i>ANKRD55</i>	rs459193	5q11.2	T2D	Decreased insulin sensitivity	(108)
<i>ANK1</i>	rs516946	8p11.1	T2D	Decreased insulin secretion	(108)
<i>AP3S2</i>	rs2028299	15q26.1	T2D, BMI		(109, 110)
<i>BCAR1</i>	rs7202877	16q23.1	T2D	Decreased disposition index	(108)
<i>CCND2</i>	rs11063069	12p13	T2D		(111)
<i>CDC123D/ CAMK1D</i>	rs12779790	10p13	T2D	Decreased insulin secretion Decreased arginine stimulated insulin secretion	(82, 94)
<i>CLIP2</i>	rs10401969	19p13.11	T2D, TGs, LDL		(111)
<i>CRY2</i>	rs11605924	11p11.2	FG, T2D		(73)
<i>DUSP8</i>	rs5945326	11p15.5	T2D		(78)
<i>GCC1</i>	rs6467136	7q32.1	T2D		(112)
<i>GIPR</i>	rs10423928	19q13.3	2hPG, T2D	Decreased insulin secretion Increased fasting proinsulin	(75) (102)
<i>GLIS3</i>	rs7034200	9p24.2	FG, T2D,	Decreased HOMA-B Decreased fasting insulin	(73)
<i>GRB14</i>	rs13389219	2q22-q24	T2D	Decreased insulin secretion Decreased Matsuda ISI Increased HOMA-B	(81) (108)
<i>HMG20A</i>	rs7178572	15q24	FG, T2D, BMI	Increased fasting insulin	(110)
<i>HNF4A</i>	rs4812829	20q13.12	T2D	Decreased $\beta$ -cell function	(110)
<i>KLHDC5</i>	rs10842994	12p11.22	T2D		(111)
<i>KCNK16</i>	rs1535500	6p21.2-p21.1	T2D		(112)
<i>MAEA</i>	rs6815464	4p16.3	T2D		(112)
<i>MC4R</i>	rs12970134	18q22	T2D, TGs, BMI	Increased insulin resistance	(108, 111)
<i>NOTCH2</i>	rs10923931	1p13-p11	T2D	Decreased fasting insulin	(113)
<i>PEPD</i>	rs3786897	19q13.11	T2D		(112)
<i>PSMD6</i>	rs831571	3p14.1	T2D		(112)
<i>PTPRD</i>	rs17584499	9p23-p24.3	T2D		(114)
<i>RBMS1</i>	rs7593730	2q24.2	T2D	Decreased HOMA-IR	(115)
<i>SPRY2</i>	rs1359790	13q31.1	T2D		(116)
<i>SRR</i>	rs391300	17p13.3	T2D		(114)
<i>ST6GAL1</i>	rs16861329	3q27-q28	T2D, TGs, HDL-C	Decreased $\beta$ -cell function	(110, 117)
<i>TLE1</i>	rs2796441	9q21.32	T2D		(78)
<i>TLE4</i>	rs13292136	9q21.32	T2D		(111)
<i>TSPAN8</i>	rs7961581	12q14.1-q21.1	T2D	Decreased insulin secretion	(94)
<i>THADA</i>	rs7578597	2p21	T2D	Decreased insulin secretion	(92)
<i>UBE2E2</i>	rs7612463	3p24.2	T2D	Decreased HOMA-B	(118)
<i>VPS26A</i>	rs1802295	10q21.1	T2D		(110)
<i>WFS1</i>	rs10010131	4p16.1	FG, T2D, HbA1c	Decreased insulin secretion	(53, 119, 120)
<i>ZFAND3</i>	rs9470794	15q25.1	T2D		(112)
<i>ZMIZ1</i>	rs12571751	10q22.3	2hPG, T2D		(108, 111)

FG, Fasting glucose; FI, Fasting insulin; 2hPG, 2 hour postprandial glucose; BMI, Body mass index; LDL, low density lipoprotein; HDL-C, High density lipoprotein-cholesterol; TGs; Triglycerides



*CDKAL1* encodes a cyclin-dependent kinase 5 regulatory subunit associated protein 1-like 1. It is expressed in pancreatic islets, skeletal muscle and brain (63, 65). Pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell specific knockout of *CDKAL1* in mice displayed pancreatic islet hypertrophy, a reduction in insulin secretion, and impaired blood glucose control (121). Stančáková *et al.* reported that *CDKAL1* variant rs7754840 was associated with reduced first phase insulin secretion (84). GWAs and meta-analysis have revealed significant associations of *CDKAL1* variant rs7754840 with T2D in various ethnic groups (85, 122).

*DGKB* encodes diacylglycerol kinase beta (DGK) and it belongs to the intracellular lipid kinase family. DGK phosphorylates diacylglycerol to produce phosphatidic acid (PA), where PA regulates PKC. Activation of PKC leads to increased serine phosphorylation of the IRS-1 and this subsequently resulted in decreased insulin-stimulated glucose transport activity (123). The variant rs2191349 in *DGKB* was associated with decreased insulin secretion, increased fasting glucose and risk of T2D (73).

*FADS1* encodes the fatty acid delta-5 desaturase (D5D), a key enzyme involved in the metabolism of long-chain polyunsaturated omega-3 and omega-6 FAs. The D5D enzyme is expressed mainly in the liver, brain, heart and lung (1). The SNP rs174548 was found to be associated with *FADS1* mRNA expression in the liver and rs174550 with low insulin secretion (73, 102), fasting glucose, insulin, HOMA-IR, HOMA-B, TGs and T2D (73).

*HHEX* encodes the transcription factor hematopoietically expressed homeobox protein which is essential for pancreatic and liver development and is also involved in the Wnt signaling pathway (124, 125). The variant rs1111875 in the 3' flanking region of *HHEX* has been associated with T2D risk and pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell dysfunction (87, 90).

*IGF2BP2* encoding insulin-like growth factor II mRNA-binding protein 2, plays an important role in embryogenesis and pancreatic development (126). *IGF2BP2* belongs to a family of mRNA-binding proteins (IMP1, IMP2, and IMP3) and regulates the translation of IGF2 mRNA-binding protein family. This family is known to play a vital role in growth and insulin-signaling (127). A common variant rs4402960 in intron 2 of *IGF2BP2* has been associated with reduced early phase insulin secretion, impaired pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell function and an increased risk of T2D (63, 87, 91-93).

*KCNJ11* encodes the potassium inwardly-rectifying channel, subfamily J, member 11 gene. It encodes protein  $K_{ATP}$  (Kir 6.2) and is highly expressed in the liver. Mutations in *KCNJ11* influence the  $K_{ATP}$  channel activity and impair insulin secretion in  $\beta$ -cells (128). A *KCNJ11* E23K (rs5219) variant was found to be associated with an increased risk of T2D, BMI and impaired glucose-induced insulin secretion (95).

*KCNQ1* encoding potassium voltage-gated channel, KQT-like subfamily member 1 gene, is expressed in the heart, pancreas, kidneys and intestine (97, 129). The encoded protein plays a role in the electrical depolarization of the cell membrane in the heart and possibly also in pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells (130). Variants rs2283228 and rs2237895 of *KCNQ1* have been associated with T2D in Asian and European individuals (129).

*MTNR1B* encodes the melatonin receptor type 1B. The circadian rhythm of melatonin hormone influences insulin secretion and glucose homeostasis through its islet-specific receptor (131). The T allele of rs1387153 has been shown to be associated with increased FPG level and an increased risk of T2D (99, 132). The risk G allele of SNP rs10830963 has been associated with impaired insulin secretion (99). Exome sequencing has revealed that 36 rare variants (minor allele frequency < 0.1) of this gene were associated with T2D (133).

*SLC30A8* encodes solute carrier family 30 (zinc transporter), member 8. It is highly expressed in the pancreatic islet  $\beta$ -cells (134). Deletion of *SLC30A8* exon 3 in mice has resulted in marked reduction of the zinc content in islets, reduced fasting insulin and impaired insulin secretion (135). The non-synonymous variant rs13266634 in *SLC30A8* causes an arginine to tryptophan change (Arg325Trp) and this has been associated with a decrease in the first phase insulin release and increased susceptibility for T2D (61, 101).

*TCF7L2* encodes transcription factor 7-like 2. It is a member of the T-cell-specific high-mobility group (HMG) box-containing transcription factor, a key component of the Wnt-signaling pathway. Depletion of *TCF7L2* has resulted in increased  $\beta$ -cell apoptosis, decreased  $\beta$ -cell proliferation and glucose-stimulated insulin secretion. Variant rs7903146 in the third intron of *TCF7L2* has been shown to be significantly associated with low levels of insulin secretion and an increased risk of T2D (58, 103).

### 2.5.2 Gene variants affecting insulin sensitivity

*PPARG* encodes for peroxisome proliferator activated receptor gamma, one of the members of nuclear hormone regulating transcription factors. It is moderately expressed in skeletal muscle, liver, macrophages, brain and highly expressed in adipose tissue (136). *PPARG* is important for adipocyte differentiation and the expression of adipocyte-specific genes. Adipose tissue and muscle specific deletion of *PPARG* resulted in glucose intolerance and progressive insulin resistance in the adipose tissue, liver and skeletal muscle (137, 138). The missense variant Pro12Ala of *PPARG* has been associated with the risk of T2D (139, 140).

*IRS1* encodes for insulin receptor substrate 1 and plays a major role in insulin signaling. Variant rs2943641, located adjacent to *IRS1*, has been associated with insulin resistance, hyperinsulinemia and T2D (105).

*GCKR* encodes for glucokinase regulatory protein and plays an important role in whole body glucose homeostasis in the liver (141). *GCKR* inhibits glucokinase (GCK) in competition with glucose substrate. A variant rs780094 in *GCKR* has been shown to be associated with several phenotypes including fasting glucose and insulin level, impaired fasting glucose, insulin secretion, reduced HOMA-IR, FFAs, serum TGs and the risk of T2D (62, 73, 142).

### 2.5.3 Gene variants affecting obesity

*FTO* encodes for fat mass and obesity associated gene. *FTO* is expressed in the hypothalamus, liver, muscle, adipose tissue and pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell (143). The rs9939609 variant resides within

the first intron of *FTO* has been shown to be associated with obesity, reduced insulin sensitivity, and T2D (66, 78).

## 2.6 METABOLOMICS

Metabolomics is the study of global metabolite profile in the various cells, tissues, organs or biological fluids. It measures the chemical phenotypes that are the net results of genomic, transcriptomic and proteomic variability, therefore providing the most integrated profile of biological status. Metabolomics is used to discover new diagnostic markers and to enhance better understanding of disease mechanisms.

### 2.6.1 Untargeted metabolomics

The untargeted metabolomics approach has the ability to detect and quantify a broad range of both known and unknown metabolites and reveal potential metabolites linking cellular pathways to biological mechanisms. This approach makes it possible to assess a large number of metabolites that are substrates and products in different metabolic pathways. Using this approach, differences in concentrations of a wide range of metabolite profiles, such as bile acids, urea cycle intermediates, purine degradation products, glutamine, glutamate, FFAs, acylcarnitines, lysophosphatidylcholines and other small molecules can be measured e.g. before and after a glucose load (144, 145). In obese individuals, several metabolites (FFAs, TGs, amino acids, C3 and C5 acylcarnitine, glutamate, pyruvate) have been reported to be elevated as compared to those of lean subjects indicating that branched-chain amino acids (BCAAs) contribute to the development of obesity-associated insulin resistance (146).

Longitudinal studies have revealed that plasma branched-chain and aromatic amino acids are new predictors of the development of T2D (147). A 12-year follow-up study on lipid profiling during a 2-hour glucose tolerance test found that TGs of low carbon number and the double bond content were associated with an increased risk of T2D. These lipids were elevated in insulin resistance whereas TGs of high carbon number and the double bond content were poorly correlated with insulin resistance (148). The TwinsUK Study assessed metabolites before and after hyperglycemia and identified that glucose, mannose, FFAs, and amino acids (BCAAs, valine, isoleucine, leucine, and their branched-chain-keto-acid, 3-methyl-2-oxovalerate, 4-methyl-2-oxopentanoate and 3-methyl-2-oxobutyrate) were associated with IFG and T2D. Adrenate and arachidonate levels were elevated in IFG whereas dodecenoate, heptanoate and pelargonate were decreased in subjects with T2D (149).

### 2.6.2 Targeted metabolomics for biomarker discovery

Targeted metabolomics has an excellent potential in the identification of new biomarkers as well as in the validation of identified biomarkers. By using this approach, specific metabolites levels which are chemically characterized and biochemically annotated can be measured by the liquid chromatography, nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy or mass spectrometry.

These techniques have their own advantages but some disadvantages in capturing the metabolites of interest. In the candidate biomarker discovery study, glycine, lysophosphatidylcholine (LPC) (18:2) and acetylcarnitine were found to be significant predictors of impaired glucose tolerance and T2D (150). A recent targeted metabolomics study reported that sugar metabolites, amino acids and choline-containing phospholipids were associated with the risk of T2D (151).

Glucose, HbA1c and insulin are well known biomarkers for T2D. Recently several new and emerging metabolic biomarkers for T2D and glycemia were reported, including ferritin, leptin, adiponectin, CRP, interleukin-2 receptor A, interleukin 6, interleukin-18, plasminogen activator inhibitor-1, apolipoprotein B, serum  $\gamma$ -glutamyl transferase, plasma fetuin-A, plasma levels of E-selectin, intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), and tissue plasminogen activator (152-160). A recent longitudinal study has indicated that plasma levels of alanine, leucine, isoleucine, tyrosine, and glutamine predict incident T2D (161). Furthermore, the concentration of leucine, valine, and phenylalanine predicted insulin resistance (162), and alanine, lactate, and pyruvate predicted the levels of 2-hour glucose (163).

#### 2.6.2.1 Glycerol, free fatty acids and fatty acids

In the 1950's Gordon, reported that plasma FFAs are mainly released from the adipose tissue and are utilized by metabolically active tissues, such as skeletal muscle and liver (164). Glycerol and FFAs in the plasma are the two main components released from TGs by lipolysis in the adipose tissue (Figure 4). Glycerol acts as a gluconeogenic substrate and thus regulates glucose homeostasis. In the fasting state, elevated levels of FFAs almost entirely originate from the hydrolysis of TGs in the adipose tissue. The stored TGs are rapidly mobilized by the action of the three main lipases of the adipocyte: ATGL, HSL and MGL.

Circulating glycerol and FFAs levels are also regulated by obesity, physical activity, starvation, hormonal factors, short- and long term dietary intake and multiple pathological conditions, e.g. abnormal glucose tolerance and metabolic syndrome (165, 166). Insulin plays a vital role in regulating the levels of glycerol and FFAs by inhibiting lipolysis in the adipose tissue, explaining why glycerol and FFA concentrations are reduced after a meal that contains carbohydrate, which stimulate insulin secretion. In insulin resistance states, an increased amount of lipolysis of stored TG molecules in the adipose tissue produces high amount of glycerol and FAs (167, 168). Glycerol is a gluconeogenic substrate and stimulates gluconeogenesis (169). Elevated levels of glycerol and FFAs have been shown to be associated with hyperglycemia and T2D (170, 171). A few prospective studies have reported that high levels of fasting FFAs and TGs are predictors of incident T2D (172-176).

Polyunsaturated omega-3 and omega-6 fatty acids (PUFAs) are derived from the diet and cannot be synthesized *de novo* in humans. In contrast, monounsaturated omega-7 and omega-9 fatty acids (MUFAs) are derived from the *de novo* synthesized saturated FAs. Thus, the serum FA profile is determined by both diet and endogenous FA metabolism (42). The serum lipid

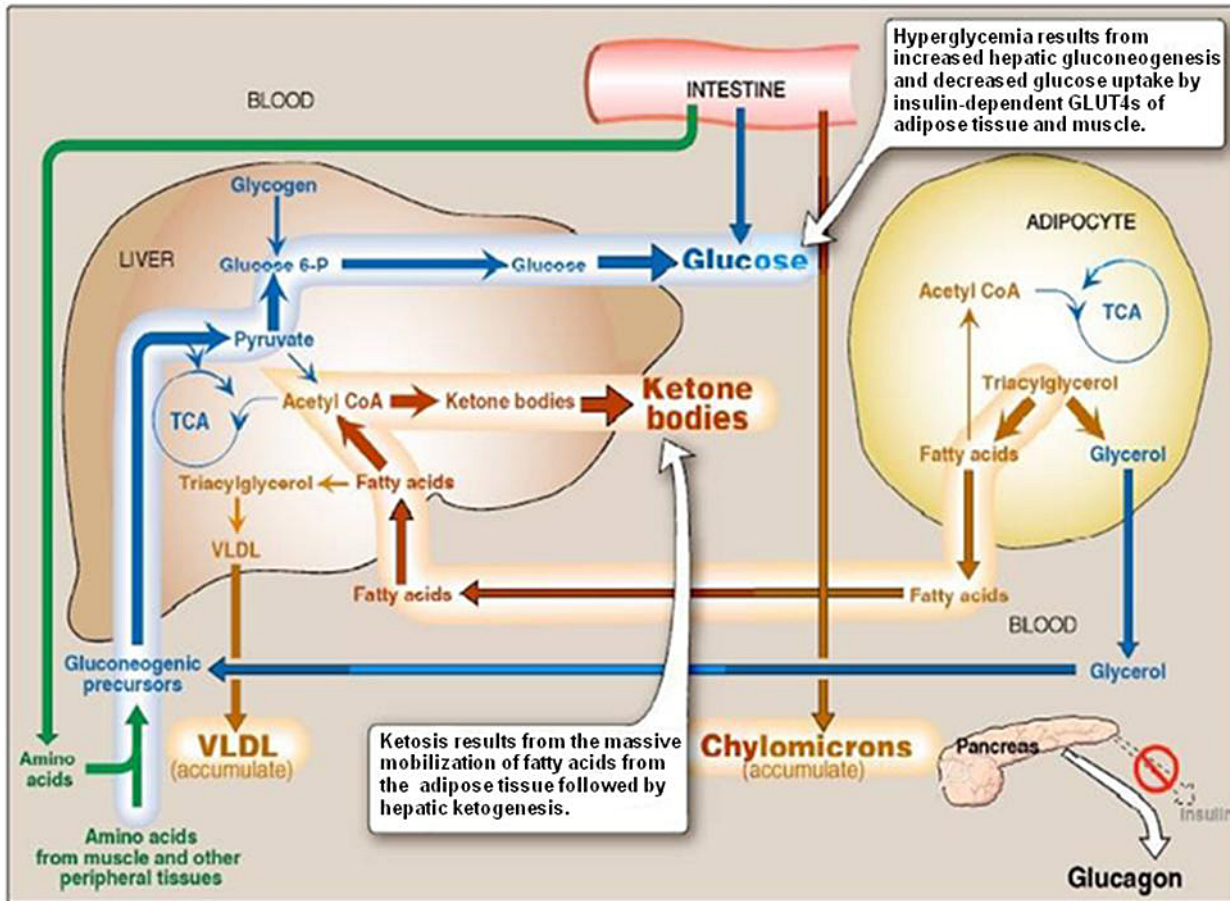


Figure 4. Metabolic pathways (adapted from richsen.wordpress.com). Glucose 6-P, glucose 6-phosphate; TCA, tricarboxylic acid cycle; VLDL, very low-density lipoprotein; Acetyl CoA, acetyl coenzyme A.

esters reflect the intake of individual FAs over the last few weeks. Endogenously synthesized serum FA pattern is mainly influenced by genetic disposition and intrauterine programming (177). A high intake of saturated FAs increases the risk of hyperglycemia and T2D (178). However, high concentrations of polyunsaturated omega-3 FAs have not predicted the lowering of the risk of T2D (179-181). A meta-analysis including 26 studies concluded that marine omega-3 FAs (including docosahexaenoic acid, DHA) in the diet did not exert beneficial effects on the prevention of T2D, with the exception of benefits for Asian populations (182). Omega-3 and omega-6 FAs have been associated with improved insulin sensitivity in individuals with T2D. In contrast, saturated FAs have been reported to impair the action of insulin (183, 184). Monounsaturated omega-7 and omega-9 FAs have been previously shown to increase the risk of T2D (185-187).

### 2.6.2.2 Erythrocyte membrane fatty acids

The FA composition is predominantly determined by long term dietary FAs intake of the order of 120 days and endogenous synthesis of FA. It can be measured in various tissues and lipid pools and erythrocyte membrane (188, 189). Membrane phospholipids reflect serum FA profiles of saturated and monounsaturated FAs but they may also contain lower levels of omega-3 and omega-6 FAs (190). Erythrocyte membrane lacks *de novo* FA synthesis and modification by

desaturation or elongation, and it mirrors long-term FA intake, whereas plasma FAs and TG fractions represent dietary intake only of the past few days (191, 192). Delta-6 desaturases (D6D) and D5D are required for the synthesis of the highly unsaturated FAs by introducing a double bond in the long chain FAs. Stearoyl coenzyme A desaturase (SCD) catalyzes the synthesis of monounsaturated FAs (MUFA) from saturated FAs (SFAs) (193).

The FA synthesis pathway produces saturated FAs, which can then be elongated and desaturated to generate FAs such as palmitoleic acid, oleic acid, or vaccenic acid. Activities of desaturases are difficult to measure directly in large-scale epidemiological studies, and therefore as an alternative, enzymatic conversions are estimated by the FA product-to-precursor ratios (194). Most of the case-control studies have reported that the levels of individual erythrocyte membrane fatty acids (EMFAs), desaturase and elongase activities are elevated in individuals with T2D than in control subjects (195-201). Furthermore, prospective studies have identified EMFAs and desaturase activities as predictors for incident T2D (181, 202, 203).

### 2.6.2.3 Ketone bodies

The two main ketone bodies (KBs), 3-hydroxybutyrate (BHB) and acetoacetate (AcAc) play a vital role in serving as a major source of body fuel in the fasting state. The low availability of carbohydrates enables fat-derived energy to be generated in the liver which is utilized by many organs, such as brain, heart, kidney and skeletal muscle. For instance, after an overnight fast, KBs supply 2-6% of the body energy requirement, whereas after a 3-day fast, they supply 30-40% of energy requirements (204).

During fasting, increased lipolysis in the adipose tissue results in the release of FFAs into the plasma (Figure 4). FFAs are degraded through  $\beta$ -oxidation in the liver mitochondria, resulting in the production of acetyl-CoA. Acetyl-CoA is then either incorporated into the tricarboxylic acid cycle or channeled into the ketogenesis pathway. Ketogenesis takes place in the liver, stimulated by an excess FFA availability in the liver. Insulin plays a central role in regulating KB levels and inhibiting ketogenesis by triggering dephosphorylation of HSL and hindering the breakdown of TGs to FFAs and glycerol. Ketogenesis takes place mainly during a state of insulin deficiency and glucagon excess (205, 206).

Abnormal KB levels have been implicated in diabetic ketoacidosis due to the impairment in insulin secretion (207, 208). Elevated levels of KBs have been shown to be associated with insulin resistance and T2D (209). In contrast, a recent study using a metabolomics approach revealed that the levels of KBs were associated with increased insulin sensitivity (210). Furthermore, a strong correlation has been found between plasma glucose and FFA with KB levels (211). Several small studies reported that KB levels were decreased in obese women compared to lean women, and KBs levels were higher in obese individuals with abnormal glucose tolerance than in obese individuals with normal glucose tolerance (212, 213).



### *3 Aims of the Study*

The main aim of this study was to identify biomarkers for the development of hyperglycemia and incident type 2 diabetes based on a 5-year follow-up of the population-based METSIM cohort, and to investigate the significance of insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion in these associations.

The specific aims were:

- 1) To investigate the levels of fasting glycerol, FFAs and serum FAs as predictors for the worsening of hyperglycemia and incident T2D
- 2) To investigate the proportions of EMFAs and their ratios as predictors for the worsening of hyperglycemia and incident T2D
- 3) To investigate the levels of ketone bodies as predictors for the worsening of hyperglycemia and incident T2D, and to investigate the association of single nucleotide polymorphisms regulating hyperglycemia or the risk of T2D with the levels of KBs.



## 4 Subjects, Materials and Methods

### 4.1 SUBJECTS

The original METSIM cohort includes 10,197 Finnish men with varying degrees of glucose tolerance at baseline. Subjects included in this study were randomly selected from the population register of Kuopio town, Eastern Finland. The cross-sectional Studies I-III included only non-diabetic subjects and individuals with newly diagnosed T2D (none of the participants were receiving antidiabetic medication) and the follow-up study included only non-diabetic individuals at baseline (Figure 5).

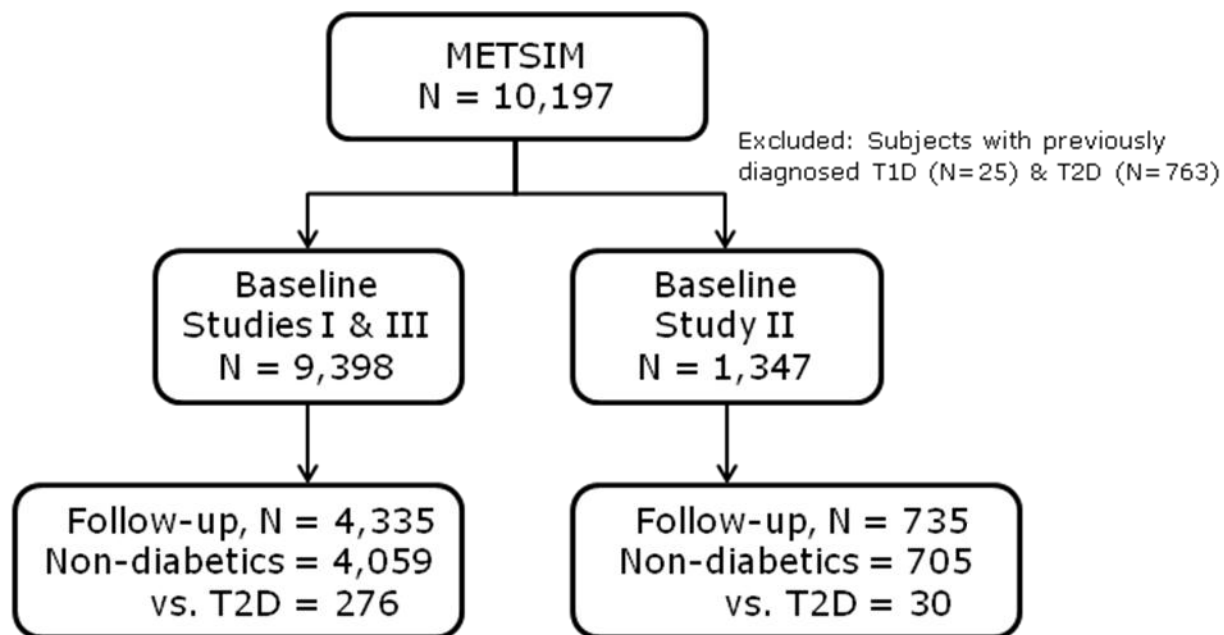


Figure 5. Study subjects

#### 4.1.1 Baseline study

**Studies I & III.** The cross-sectional analysis included 9,398 Finnish men from a population-based METSIM (METabolic Syndrome In Men) study performed during 2005-2010 (age  $57 \pm 7$  years, BMI,  $27.0 \pm 4.0$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, mean  $\pm$  SD). Characteristics of the subjects included in the baseline studies are given in Table 2. Glucose tolerance was classified according to the ADA criteria (6). Among participants 3,034 (32.3%) had normal glucose tolerance, NGT; 4,344 (46.2%) had isolated impaired fasting glucose, IFG; 312 (3.3%) had isolated impaired glucose tolerance, IGT; 1,059 (11.3%) had both IFG and IGT, and 649 (6.9%) had newly diagnosed T2D. Individuals with previously diagnosed type 1 or type 2 diabetes were excluded from all statistical analyses.

Table 2. Characteristics of the participants included in the METSIM study

Variable	No of Cases	Mean $\pm$ SD	Range
Age, years	9,398	57.3 $\pm$ 7.1	45 - 74
Body mass index, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	9,395	27.0 $\pm$ 4.0	16.2 - 55.4
Fasting glucose, mmol/L	9,398	5.8 $\pm$ 0.7	3.5 - 20.0
2h plasma glucose, mmol/L	9,396	6.4 $\pm$ 2.4	1.4 - 38.2
Fasting insulin, pmol/L	9,394	52.3 $\pm$ 39.3	6.0 - 611.4
2h insulin, pmol/L	9,386	334.9 $\pm$ 345.8	10.8 - 5191.2
Matsuda Insulin Sensitivity Index, mg/dL, mU/L	9,337	6.7 $\pm$ 4.2	0.5 - 42.5
Insulin AUC <sub>0-30</sub> / Glucose AUC <sub>0-30</sub> , pmol/mmol	9,343	30.7 $\pm$ 21.3	1.95 - 313.3
Glycerol x 100, mmol/L	9,349	6.1 $\pm$ 2.6	0.0 - 27.3
Fasting free fatty acids x 10, mmol/L	9,395	3.7 $\pm$ 1.5	0.6 - 17.8
Total triglycerides, mmol/L	9,397	1.4 $\pm$ 1.0	0.3 - 37.6
Omega-3 fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	9,285	4.5 $\pm$ 1.4	1.5 - 16.3
Docosahexaenoic acid, percentage of total FAs	9,282	1.9 $\pm$ 0.7	0.0 - 6.1
Omega-6 fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	9,285	32.9 $\pm$ 4.3	12.8 - 47.7
Linoleic acid, percentage of total FAs	9,280	27.9 $\pm$ 4.4	8.9 - 42.3
Monounsaturated fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	9,285	30.3 $\pm$ 4.1	11.0 - 53.2
Saturated fatty acids and omega-7&9 fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	9,285	62.6 $\pm$ 4.5	49.5 - 85.3
Acetoacetate, mmol/L	9,243	0.06 $\pm$ 0.04	0.0 - 0.58
$\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate, mmol/L	9,307	0.14 $\pm$ 0.11	0.0 - 2.67

SD, standard deviation; AUC, area under the curve; FAs, fatty acid.

**Study II.** EMFAs were measured in 1,346 Finnish men (age 55  $\pm$  6 years, BMI, 26.5  $\pm$  3.5 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, mean  $\pm$  SD). A total of 1,346 men for the EMFA analysis were selected randomly with equivocal percentages of each glucose category as compared to the original METSIM cohort of 10,197 men. Baseline characteristics of the study participants are shown by means and SDs (Table 3). Glucose tolerance category was classified according to the ADA criteria (6) as follows: 456 (33.9%) had normal glucose tolerance, NGT; 681 (50.6%) had isolated impaired fasting glucose, IIFG; 32 (2.4%) had isolated impaired glucose tolerance, IIGT; 118 (8.8%) had both IFG and IGT, and 59 (4.4%) had newly diagnosed T2D. Individuals with previously diagnosed type 1 or type 2 diabetes at baseline were excluded from this study.

Table 3. Clinical and laboratory characteristics of the cross-sectional METSIM cohort

Variable	No of Cases	Mean $\pm$ SD	Range
Age, years	1,347	54.9 $\pm$ 5.7	45 - 70
BMI, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	1,346	26.5 $\pm$ 3.5	17.4 - 48.1
Fasting glucose, mmol/L	1,347	5.8 $\pm$ 0.6	4.1 - 13.7
2h-glucose, mmol/L	1,346	6.0 $\pm$ 2.1	2.2 - 21.1
Fasting Insulin, pmol/L	1,346	45.5 $\pm$ 31.2	6.6 - 370.8
2h insulin, pmol/L	1,344	268.7 $\pm$ 268.5	19.2 - 2111.4
Matsuda Insulin Sensitivity Index	1,341	7.5 $\pm$ 4.4	0.5 - 27.7
Insulin AUC <sub>0-30</sub> / Glucose AUC <sub>0-30</sub> , pmol/mmol	1,343	28.1 $\pm$ 18.0	2.4 - 166.6
Disposition index (DI30)	1,341	164.7 $\pm$ 72.8	16 - 588.3
16:0 (palmitic acid), %	1,346	22.5 $\pm$ 0.9	19.6 - 25.9
18:0 (stearic acid), %	1,346	15.5 $\pm$ 0.5	13.4 - 17.5
Total SFAs, %	1,346	46.0 $\pm$ 1.0	43.2 - 49
16:1n-7 (palmitoleic acid), %	1,346	0.4 $\pm$ 0.2	0.1 - 1.9
18:1n-7 (vaccenic acid), %	1,346	1.1 $\pm$ 0.1	0.8 - 2.6
18:1n-9 (oleic acid), %	1,346	11.9 $\pm$ 0.8	9.6 - 15.4
Total MUFAs, %	1,346	19.5 $\pm$ 1.0	16.3 - 26.4
18:2n-6 (linoleic acid), %	1,346	8.3 $\pm$ 1.1	4.0 - 12.9
20:3n-6 (dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid), %	1,346	1.5 $\pm$ 0.3	0.8 - 3.2
20:4n-6 (arachidonic acid), %	1,346	11.9 $\pm$ 1.1	8.1 - 15.1
20:5n-3 (eicosapentaenoic acid), %	1,346	1.5 $\pm$ 0.6	0.4 - 4.9
22:4n-6 (adrenic acid), %	1,346	1.9 $\pm$ 0.4	0.6 - 3.5
22:6n-3 (docosahexaenoic acid), %	1,346	6.2 $\pm$ 1.1	2.4 - 10.6
Total PUFAs, %	1,346	34.5 $\pm$ 1.2	27.9 - 38.2
Ratio (16:1n-7/16:0) (SCD1)	1,346	0.018 $\pm$ 0.006	0.007 - 0.078
Ratio (20:3n-6/18:2n-6) ( $\Delta^6$ desaturase)	1,346	1.7 $\pm$ 0.3	1.0 - 3.2
Ratio (20:4n-6/20:3n-6) ( $\Delta^5$ desaturase)	1,346	8.1 $\pm$ 1.6	3.5 - 13.7
Ratio (18:1n-7/16:1n-7) (elongase)	1,346	3.0 $\pm$ 0.9	0.8 - 8.5

SD, standard deviation; AUC, area under the curve; SFA, saturated fatty acid; MUFA, monounsaturated fatty acid; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid; SCD1, stearyl coenzyme A desaturase 1.

#### 4.1.2 Follow-up study

**Studies I & III.** In the period 2010-2013, a total of 4,335 non-diabetic subjects from the original METSIM cohort of 10,197 men had been so far re-examined (mean follow-up time of 5 years); 4,059 were non-diabetic and 276 had newly diagnosed T2D at follow-up. The diagnosis of new diabetes was based either on an OGTT at the follow-up study or drug treatment for diabetes started between the baseline and follow-up studies.

**Study II.** The analysis of the prospective ongoing 5-year follow-up study (between 2010-2013) included only men who were non-diabetic at the baseline study. Thus, individuals with

previously diagnosed T2D were excluded. A total of 735 non-diabetic individuals with EMFA measurements at baseline have so far participated in the follow-up study of whom 705 remained non-diabetic and 30 developed newly diagnosed T2D (7 of them were diagnosed with T2D between the baseline and the follow-up studies and all of them were receiving anti-diabetic medication; 23 had newly detected T2D in an OGTT performed at the 5-year follow-up visit).

All the studies were approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Eastern Finland and Kuopio University Hospital, and were conducted in accordance with the principles of the Helsinki Declaration. All study participants provided written informed consent.

## **4.2 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **Anthropometric measurements**

Height and weight were measured to the nearest 0.5 cm and 0.1 kg, respectively. BMI was calculated as weight (kg) divided by height (m) squared. Waist and hip circumference were measured to the nearest 0.5 cm.

### **Oral glucose tolerance test**

A 2-hr OGTT (75 g of glucose) was performed and samples for plasma glucose and insulin were drawn at 0, 30, and 120 min.

### **Laboratory measurements**

Plasma glucose was measured by enzymatic hexokinase photometric assay and plasma insulin was determined by immunoassay. In Study I, serum total TG levels and FFAs were measured by enzymatic colorimetric methods. NMR spectroscopy was used to measure fasting glycerol, FFAs and serum FA profile (omega-3 FAs, omega-6 FAs, omega-7 and -9 FAs, saturated FAs, total FAs, linoleic acid (LA), other polyunsaturated FAs, docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), and monounsaturated FAs, relative to total FAs) (214). The results for FAs are expressed relative to total FAs and given as percentages in all tables and figures. In Study II, EMFAs were determined as previously described (215), with modifications (216). EMFAs were measured by gas chromatography. The proportion of each FA is expressed as mole percentage of total FAs in all tables. In Study III, NMR spectroscopy was used to measure fasting levels of acetoacetate (AcAc) and  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate (BHB) levels (mmol/L) in serum samples. NMR methods have been previously described in detail (214).

### **Calculations**

The trapezoidal method was used to calculate the glucose and insulin areas under the curve (AUC) in an OGTT based on samples collected at 0, 30, and 120 min. The calculation of insulin sensitivity (Matsuda ISI), insulin secretion ( $\text{InsAUC}_{0-30}/\text{GlucAUC}_{0-30}$ ) and disposition (DI30) indices have been previously described (217, 218). In Study II, desaturase and elongase enzyme

activities were evaluated as EMFA product to precursor ratios as follows: palmitoleic acid 16:1n-7/palmitic acid 16:0 as a marker of stearoyl coenzyme A desaturase 1 (SCD1) activity, dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid 20:3n-6/linoleic acid 18:2n-6 as a marker of  $\Delta^6$  desaturase (D6D) activity, arachidonic acid 20:4n-6/20:3n-6 as a marker of  $\Delta^5$  desaturase (D5D) activity, and vaccenic acid 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 as a marker of elongase activity.

## Genotyping

In Study III, the genotyping of 62 SNPs associated with the risk of T2D or hyperglycemia (63, 73, 111, 219) was primarily based on Illumina HumanExome-12v1\_A Beadchip (71). SNPs that were not available from the exome array were genotyped using either the Applied Biosystems TaqMan Allelic Discrimination Assay or Sequenom iPLEX Gold SBE assay. All SNPs were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium at the significance level corrected for multiple testing by the Bonferroni method ( $P < 0.0012$ ).

## Gene expression analysis

In Study III, subcutaneous fat biopsy samples (N = 200) were obtained from a random sample of the participants of the METSIM baseline study (age  $55.6 \pm 4.9$  years; BMI  $26.6 \pm 3.3$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>). Total RNA was isolated from these samples using Qiagen miRNeasy Kit. Only high-quality samples were used for transcriptional profiling with the Illumina Human HT-12 v3 Expression BeadChip.

## Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS version 19 (SPSS, Chicago, IL). All traits, except for age were log-transformed to correct for their skewed distributions. In Studies I-III, glycerol, FAs, EMFAs proportions and KBs were compared across the FPG and 2hPG categories using the general linear model. The linear regression model was used to evaluate fasting levels of glycerol, FAs, EMFAs proportions and KBs measured at baseline as predictors for changes in Glucose AUC in an OGTT at the 5 year-follow-up study. Unstandardized effect sizes (B [SE]) per copy of the risk alleles of the SNPs investigated were estimated by linear regression analysis. Logistic regression analysis was used to assess the association of the levels of glycerol, FAs, EMFAs proportions and KBs with incident T2D during the follow-up.

The thresholds of statistical significance in linear and logistic models were  $P < 5.5 \times 10^{-3}$  (Study I),  $P < 2.8 \times 10^{-3}$  (Study II),  $P < 4.0 \times 10^{-4}$  (Study III).  $P < 0.05$  was considered as nominally significant in all studies. Statistical power calculation was performed in all studies using Bioconductor's GeneticsDesign package version 1.14. Pearson correlation coefficients for adipose tissue mRNA expression levels of major enzymes involved in the synthesis and degradation of KBs were calculated with insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion.

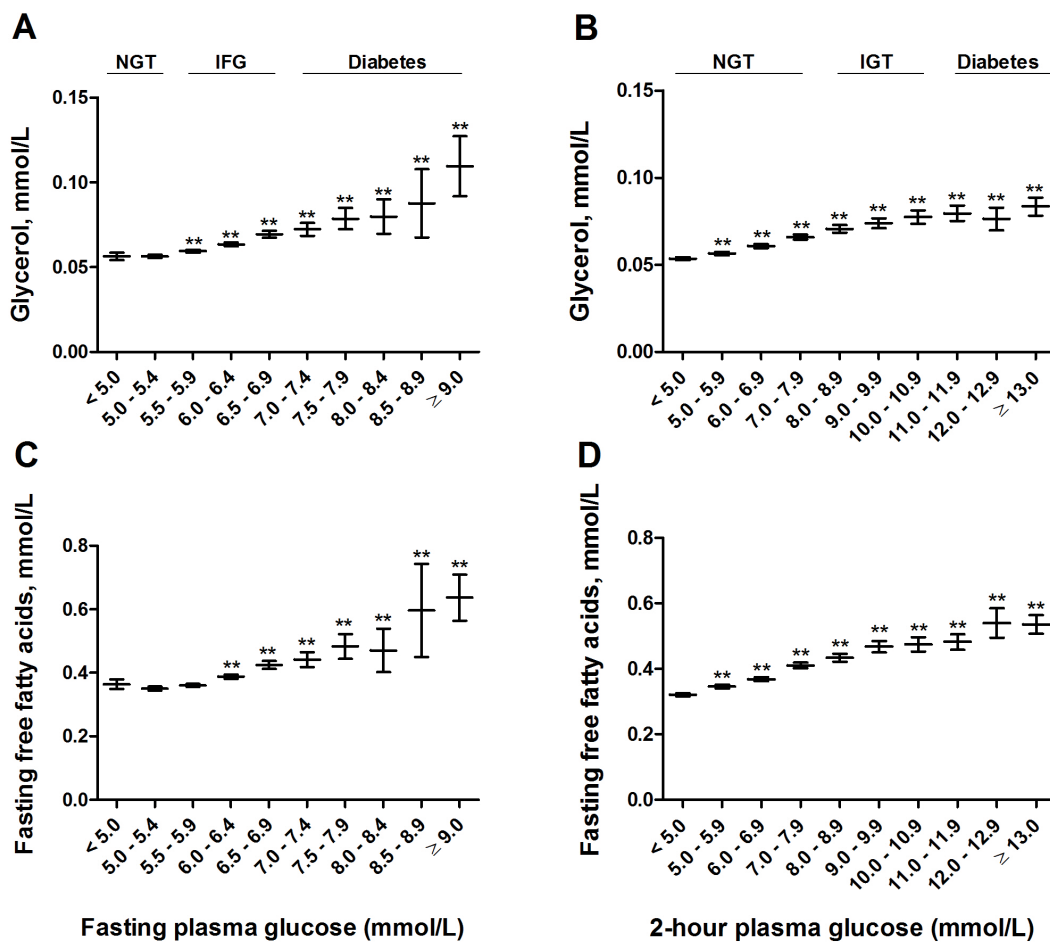
## 5 Results

### 5.1 GLYCEROL AND FATTY ACIDS IN SERUM PREDICT THE DEVELOPMENT OF HYPERGLYCEMIA AND TYPE 2 DIABETES (*Study I*)

This study evaluated first the association of glycerol, FFAs and serum FAs in non-diabetic individuals (N=8,749) and individuals with newly diagnosed T2D (N=649) in the FPG and 2hPG categories in a cross-sectional setting. Secondly, these biomarkers were evaluated as predictors for the worsening of hyperglycemia and the conversion to type 2 diabetes among non-diabetic individuals at baseline in a 4.5-year follow-up study.

#### Glycerol and FFAs across the categories of glucose tolerance at baseline

Fasting glycerol levels were significantly higher across the FPG ( $P = 4.5 \times 10^{-28}$ ) and 2hPG ( $P = 1.2 \times 10^{-99}$ ) categories. Similarly, fasting FFAs levels were significantly higher across the entire range of FPG ( $P = 4.3 \times 10^{-51}$ ) and 2hPG ( $P = 2.2 \times 10^{-217}$ ) (Figure 6).

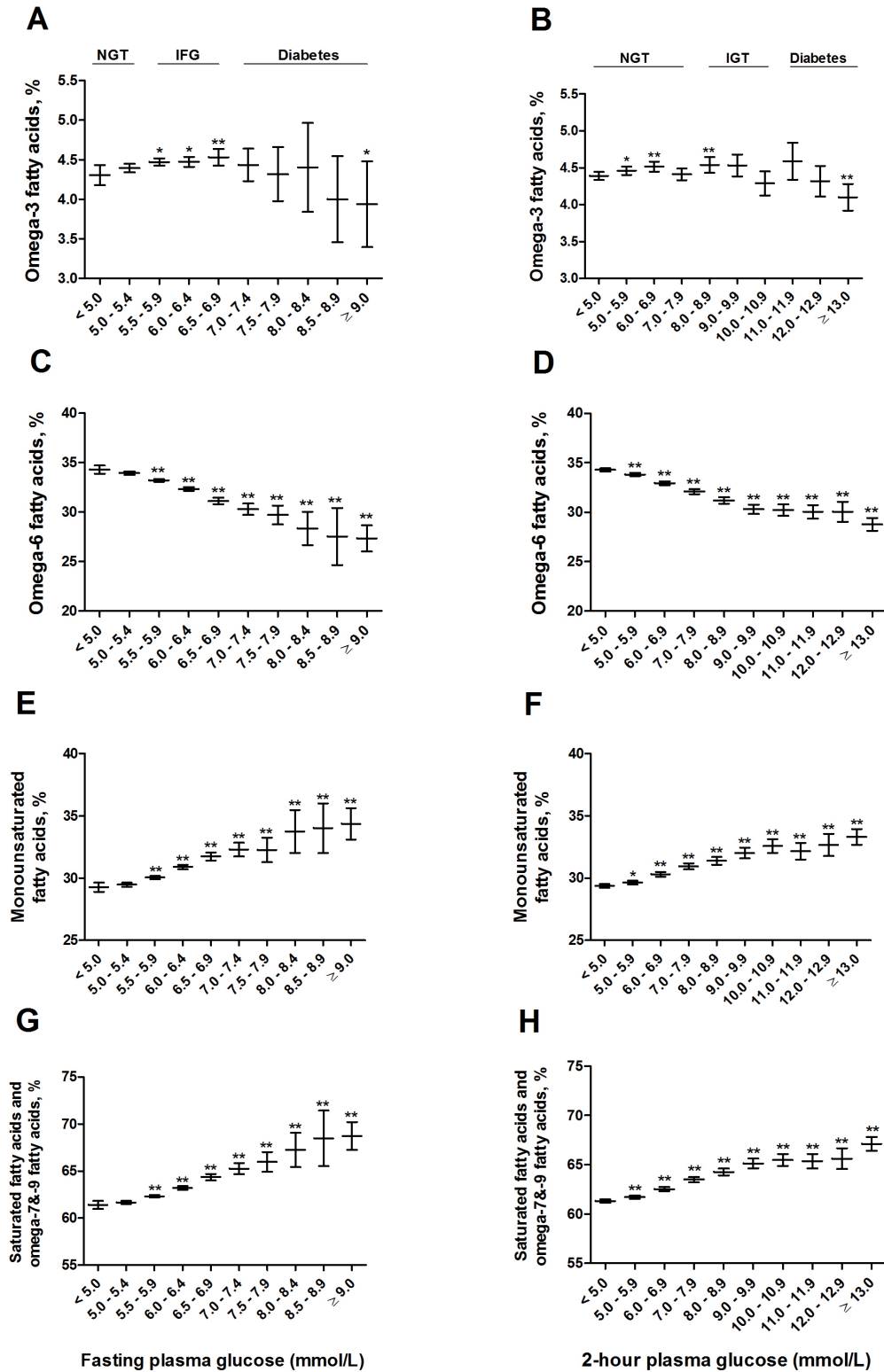


**Figure 6.** Mean values and their 95% CIs of fasting levels of glycerol (A, B) and FFAs (C, D) across the entire range of fasting and 2hPG categories.  $P$  values (from ANOVA post hoc tests) indicating statistical significance with respect to the reference category (fasting or 2hPG <5.0 mmol/L) are coded as follows: \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$ .  $P$  values for trends, adjusted for age and BMI, were as follows: A)  $4.5 \times 10^{-28}$ , B)  $1.2 \times 10^{-99}$ , C)  $4.3 \times 10^{-51}$ , D)  $2.2 \times 10^{-217}$

## Serum fatty acids

The levels of omega-3 FAs were significantly lower across the FPG ( $P = 1.0 \times 10^{-3}$ ) and 2hPG ( $P = 1.9 \times 10^{-4}$ ) categories, however the levels were slightly higher within the NGT category. Levels of omega-6 FAs were also lower across the FPG ( $P = 4.3 \times 10^{-63}$ ) and 2hPG ( $P = 1.2 \times 10^{-146}$ ) categories especially in participants with newly diagnosed diabetes (-20 and -16%, in the FPG and 2hPG categories, respectively) (Figure 7).

Fasting levels of monounsaturated FAs were significantly higher across the FPG ( $P = 3.9 \times 10^{-41}$ ) and 2hPG ( $P = 2.0 \times 10^{-78}$ ) categories. Also fasting levels of saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs were significantly higher across the FPG ( $P = 5.1 \times 10^{-52}$ ) and 2hPG ( $P = 6.1 \times 10^{-132}$ ) categories (Figure 7).



**Figure 7.** Mean values and their 95% CIs of omega-3 FAs of total FAs (A, B), omega-6 FAs (C, D), monounsaturated FAs (E, F), and saturated FAs and omega-7 and -9 FAs (G, H) across the entire range of fasting and 2hPG categories. *P* values (from ANOVA post hoc tests) indicating statistical significance with respect to the reference category (fasting or 2hPG <5.0 mmol/L) are coded as follows: \**P*<0.05, \*\**P*<0.01. *P*-values for trends, adjusted for age and BMI, were as follows: A)  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$ , B)  $1.9 \times 10^{-4}$ , C)  $4.3 \times 10^{-63}$ , D)  $1.2 \times 10^{-146}$ , E)  $3.9 \times 10^{-41}$ , F)  $2.0 \times 10^{-78}$ , G)  $5.1 \times 10^{-52}$ , H)  $6.1 \times 10^{-132}$



## Glycerol and FAs as predictors for hyperglycemia and incident type 2 diabetes

During a mean 4.5-year follow-up (range 2.5-6.2 years) a total of 276 from 4,335 men developed incident T2D. Fasting levels of glycerol ( $P = 9.1 \times 10^{-39}$ ), FFAs ( $P = 4.6 \times 10^{-42}$ ), total TGs ( $P = 3.4 \times 10^{-21}$ ), monounsaturated FAs ( $P = 6.4 \times 10^{-16}$ ), and saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs ( $P = 3.3 \times 10^{-26}$ ), adjusted for age, BMI, smoking and physical activity, predicted an increase in the Glucose AUC (Table 5). In contrast, levels of omega-6 FAs (including LA) were associated significantly with lower Glucose AUC at follow-up ( $P = 1.8 \times 10^{-26}$ ). In the logistic regression analysis, fasting levels of glycerol (OR 1.18, 95% CI, 1.12-1.24), FFAs (OR 1.19, 95% CI, 1.10-1.29), total TGs (OR 1.26, 95% CI, 1.11-1.44), monounsaturated FAs (OR 1.09, 95% CI, 1.06-1.12), and saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs (OR 1.09, 95% CI, 1.06-1.12) significantly predicted an increase in the risk of incident T2D. In contrast, fasting levels of omega-6 FAs significantly predicted a decrease in incident T2D (OR 0.92, 95% CI, 0.89-0.95). Omega-3 FAs (including DHA) did not predict changes in Glucose AUC or incident T2D.

Adjustment for Matsuda ISI slightly weakened most of the associations of glycerol, FFAs, total TGs, omega-6 FAs, monounsaturated FAs, saturated and omega-7 and -9 FAs with Glucose AUC and incident diabetes (Table 5). In contrast, adjustment for insulin secretion (Insulin AUC<sub>0-30</sub>/Glucose AUC<sub>0-30</sub>) did not have any major effect on these associations. However, adjustment for DI30 (Matsuda ISI x Insulin AUC<sub>0-30</sub>/Glucose AUC<sub>0-30</sub>) had an effect on all the variables with incident T2D but not with Glucose AUC.

Table 5. Association of baseline levels of ketone bodies, glycerol, fasting free fatty acids, total triglycerides and omega fatty acids with Glucose AUC and incident type 2 diabetes at the 5-year follow-up of the METSIM cohort

Variable	Glucose AUC at follow-up						Incident type 2 diabetes					
	B	SE	P	P*	P <sup>†</sup>	P <sup>§</sup>	OR	95% CI	P	P*	P <sup>†</sup>	P <sup>§</sup>
Glycerol, mmol/L	153.6	12.0	<b>9.1x10<sup>-39</sup></b>	<b>1.9x10<sup>-24</sup></b>	<b>1.9x10<sup>-42</sup></b>	<b>1.4x10<sup>-22</sup></b>	1.18	(1.12-1.24)	<b>5.8x10<sup>-11</sup></b>	<b>1.1x10<sup>-6</sup></b>	<b>3.5x10<sup>-12</sup></b>	<b>3.3x10<sup>-4</sup></b>
Fasting free fatty acids, mmol/L	173.9	13.0	<b>4.6x10<sup>-42</sup></b>	<b>2.5x10<sup>-36</sup></b>	<b>8.7x10<sup>-40</sup></b>	<b>1.3x10<sup>-15</sup></b>	1.19	(1.10-1.29)	<b>3.0x10<sup>-5</sup></b>	<b>4.6x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	<b>1.0x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	0.924
Total triglycerides, mmol/L	109.2	11.7	<b>3.4x10<sup>-21</sup></b>	<b>2.2x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	<b>7.4x10<sup>-31</sup></b>	<b>1.0x10<sup>-11</sup></b>	1.26	(1.11-1.44)	<b>3.9x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	<b>5.2x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	<b>2.8x10<sup>-5</sup></b>	0.013
Omega-3 fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	-21.9	17.8	0.353	0.781	0.214	0.067	0.91	(0.82-1.00)	0.045	0.107	0.033	0.034
Docosahexaenoic acid, percentage of total FAs	-14.3	14.1	0.454	0.931	0.247	0.064	0.86	(0.71-1.04)	0.115	0.244	0.088	0.062
Omega-6 fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	-442.8	42.0	<b>1.8x10<sup>-26</sup></b>	<b>2.3x10<sup>-11</sup></b>	<b>6.3x10<sup>-31</sup></b>	<b>1.1x10<sup>-10</sup></b>	0.92	(0.89-0.95)	<b>1.8x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	<b>2.0x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	<b>1.3x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	0.037
Linoleic acid, percentage of total FAs	-413.1	34.3	<b>1.5x10<sup>-34</sup></b>	<b>5.5x10<sup>-19</sup></b>	<b>6.7x10<sup>-38</sup></b>	<b>9.6x10<sup>-15</sup></b>	0.92	(0.89-0.95)	<b>6.3x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	<b>3.9x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	<b>1.3x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	0.033
Monounsaturated fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	329.1	40.8	<b>6.4x10<sup>-16</sup></b>	<b>1.9x10<sup>-6</sup></b>	<b>6.9x10<sup>-19</sup></b>	<b>4.3x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	1.09	(1.06-1.12)	<b>1.1x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	<b>3.7x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	<b>2.3x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	9.0x10 <sup>-3</sup>
Saturated and omega-7&9 fatty acids, percentage of total FAs	853.4	81.2	<b>3.3x10<sup>-26</sup></b>	<b>9.4x10<sup>-11</sup></b>	<b>2.3x10<sup>-31</sup></b>	<b>6.1x10<sup>-12</sup></b>	1.09	(1.06-1.12)	<b>8.5x10<sup>-9</sup></b>	<b>3.9x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	<b>3.3x10<sup>-10</sup></b>	6.0x10 <sup>-3</sup>

N= 4,205 for Glucose AUC (excluding participants started on anti-diabetic medication between baseline and follow-up) and N= 4,335 for incident T2D. *P* <5.5 x 10<sup>-3</sup> was considered as statistically significant given the nine traits tested. *B*, unstandardized regression coefficient, OR, odds ratio; *P*, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking and physical activity. *P\**, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and Matsuda insulin sensitivity index (ISI). *P<sup>†</sup>*, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and Insulin AUC<sub>0-30</sub>/Glucose AUC<sub>0-30</sub>. *P<sup>§</sup>*, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and Matsuda ISI x Insulin AUC<sub>0-30</sub>/Glucose AUC<sub>0-30</sub>. Statistically significant results are marked in bold.

## 5.2 ASSOCIATION OF ERYTHROCYTE MEMBRANE FATTY ACIDS WITH CHANGES IN GLYCEMIA AND RISK OF TYPE 2 DIABETES (*Study II*)

### Proportions of EMFAs across different glucose tolerance categories at baseline

This study investigated the proportions of EMFAs and their ratios across the different glucose tolerance categories in non-diabetic individuals (N=1,287) and in individuals with newly diagnosed T2D (N=59). In comparison with the NGT reference category, saturated FAs did not vary significantly across the glucose tolerance categories. In contrast, age and BMI adjusted levels of monounsaturated FAs 16:1n-7 were nominally higher from +2 to +24% ( $P=0.016$ ) across the abnormal glucose tolerance categories. Among the PUFAs 18:2n-6 levels were significantly lower ( $P=3.7\times 10^{-8}$ ), and 22:4n-6 levels were nominally higher ( $P=0.044$ ) across the glucose tolerance categories. Among the FA ratios, 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 was nominally lower ( $P=0.027$ ) and 16:1n-7/16:0 ( $P=7.2\times 10^{-3}$ ) and 20:3 n-6/18:2n-6 ( $P=3.9\times 10^{-3}$ ) were nominally higher across the glucose tolerance categories.

### Association of EMFAs with insulin secretion and insulin sensitivity in the 5-year follow-up study

#### Insulin sensitivity

Palmitic acid ( $P=4.9\times 10^{-4}$ ) and vaccenic acid ( $P=3.7\times 10^{-6}$ ) were significantly associated with increased insulin sensitivity, and dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid ( $P=6.5\times 10^{-6}$ ) with decreased insulin sensitivity. With respect to the EMFA ratios, 16:1n-7/16:0 (SCD1 activity,  $P=3.1\times 10^{-4}$ ) and 20:3n-6/18:2n-6 (D6D activity,  $P=1.1\times 10^{-7}$ ) were significantly associated with reduced insulin sensitivity, whereas 20:4n-6/20:3n-6 (D5D activity,  $P=3.6\times 10^{-4}$ ) and 18:n-7/16:1n-7 (elongase activity,  $P=1.2\times 10^{-5}$ ) were significantly associated with increased insulin sensitivity.

#### Insulin secretion

Palmitoleic acid ( $P=3.9\times 10^{-4}$ ), and the 16:1n-7/16:0 ratio (SCD1 activity,  $P=4.3\times 10^{-5}$ ) were significantly associated with decreased insulin secretion (DI30), whereas linoleic acid ( $P=1.6\times 10^{-4}$ ) and the 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 ratio (elongase activity,  $P=4.3\times 10^{-5}$ ) were significantly associated with increased insulin secretion.

### EMFAs proportions as predictors for hyperglycemia and incident type 2 diabetes

SFAs did not predict changes in Glucose AUC or in incident T2D (Table 6). The levels of palmitoleic acid ( $P=2.8\times 10^{-7}$ ), dihomo-gamma-linoleic acid ( $P=2.3\times 10^{-4}$ ), the 16:1n-7/16:0 ratio (SCD1 activity,  $P=1.6\times 10^{-8}$ ) and the 20:3n-6/18:2n-6 ratio (D6D activity,  $P=9.4\times 10^{-7}$ ) significantly predicted an increase in Glucose AUC at follow-up after the adjustment for confounding factors, whereas linoleic acid ( $P=0.0015$ ), and the 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 ratio (elongase activity,  $P=1.5\times 10^{-9}$ ) significantly predicted a decrease in Glucose AUC. Palmitoleic acid (OR 1.35, 95% CI, 1.07, 1.69,  $P=0.010$ ) and the 16:1n-7/16:0 ratio (OR 2.23, 95% CI, 1.29, 3.85,  $P=0.004$ ) nominally increased, and linoleic acid (OR 0.54, 95% CI, 0.35, 0.82,  $P=0.004$ ) nominally decreased the risk of incident diabetes.

All statistically significant associations persisted after further adjustment for baseline insulin sensitivity, insulin secretion, FPG, 2hPG, or the Glucose AUC.

Table 6. Association of baseline proportions of EMFAs with Glucose AUC and incident type 2 diabetes at the 5-year follow-up

Fatty acid	Glucose AUC at follow-up (N=724)						Incident type 2 diabetes (N=30)					
	B*	SE*	P*	P†	P§	P‡	OR (95% CI)*	P*	P†	P§	P‡	
16:0 (palmitic acid), %	-316.2	308.6	0.272	0.874	0.128	0.790	0.74 (0.48, 1.12)	0.152	0.239	0.098	0.649	
18:0 (stearic acid), %	458.1	345.9	0.164	0.426	0.103	0.294	1.25 (0.63, 2.50)	0.520	0.638	0.394	0.650	
Total SFAs, %	922.4	558.0	0.087	0.097	0.098	0.078	0.96 (0.66, 1.41)	0.836	0.834	0.859	0.804	
16:1n-7 (palmitoleic acid), %	216.1	41.4	<b>2.8x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	<b>3.6x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	<b>4.7x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	<b>1.7x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	1.35 (1.07, 1.69)	0.010	0.010	0.015	0.028	
18:1n-7 (vaccenic acid), %	-348.5	126.9	0.004	0.054	<b>1.0x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	0.011	0.99 (0.71, 1.40)	0.966	0.809	0.810	0.525	
18:1n-9 (oleic acid), %	40.7	194.2	0.827	0.472	0.988	0.238	0.98 (0.59, 1.62)	0.925	0.988	0.870	0.740	
Total MUFAs, %	-12.2	238.9	0.814	0.876	0.774	0.350	1.26 (0.86, 1.85)	0.232	0.189	0.259	0.099	
18:2n-6 (linoleic acid), %	-284.0	97.2	<b>1.5x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	0.008	<b>1.0x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	0.036	0.54 (0.35, 0.82)	0.004	0.005	0.004	0.013	
20:3n-6 (dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid), %	238.7	67.6	<b>2.3x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	<b>1.9x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	<b>4.7x10<sup>-5</sup></b>	<b>3.6x10<sup>-4</sup></b>	1.04 (0.92, 1.18)	0.485	0.632	0.374	0.733	
20:4n-6 (arachidonic acid), %	88.9	130.6	0.436	0.848	0.407	0.529	1.24 (0.87, 1.77)	0.235	0.293	0.195	0.706	
20:5n-3 (eicosapentaenoic acid), %	-39.3	32.3	0.267	0.563	0.189	0.419	1.04 (0.58, 1.87)	0.898	0.811	0.919	0.903	
22:4n-6 (adrenic acid), %	125.9	50.7	0.011	0.070	0.004	0.085	1.09 (0.99, 1.19)	0.073	0.112	0.045	0.183	
22:6n-3 (docosahexaenoic acid), %	-74.1	64.8	0.302	0.284	0.328	0.282	1.00 (0.71, 1.41)	0.992	0.991	0.970	0.980	
Total PUFAs, %	-436.0	330.1	0.222	0.133	0.260	0.028	0.89 (0.66, 1.20)	0.441	0.394	0.448	0.136	
Ratio (16:1n-7/16:0) (SCD1)	253.0	44.1	<b>1.6x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	<b>4.5x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	<b>2.0x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	<b>2.4x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	2.23 (1.29, 3.85)	0.004	0.005	0.006	0.020	
Ratio (20:3n-6/18:2n-6) ( $\Delta^6$ desaturase)	324.1	69.3	<b>9.4x10<sup>-7</sup></b>	<b>3.4x10<sup>-5</sup></b>	<b>9.9x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	<b>1.0x10<sup>-5</sup></b>	1.11 (0.99, 1.23)	0.070	0.119	0.042	0.191	
Ratio (20:4n-6/20:3n-6) ( $\Delta^5$ desaturase)	-165.2	59.5	0.004	0.009	<b>1.0x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	<b>1.1x10<sup>-3</sup></b>	0.95 (0.75, 1.21)	0.685	0.791	0.603	0.735	
Ratio (18:1n-7/16:1n-7) (elongase)	-248.1	40.7	<b>1.5x10<sup>-9</sup></b>	<b>1.3x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	<b>8.9x10<sup>-10</sup></b>	<b>2.2x10<sup>-8</sup></b>	0.63 (0.39, 1.03)	0.065	0.080	0.067	0.198	

SFA, saturated fatty acid; MUFA, monounsaturated fatty acid; PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acid; SCD1, stearoyl coenzyme A desaturase 1. B and SE were obtained from multiple linear regression. Odds ratios (OR) and their 95% confidence intervals were obtained from logistic regression analyses. P\*, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking and physical activity. P†, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and Matsuda insulin sensitivity index (ISI). P§, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and Insulin AUC<sub>0-30</sub>/Glucose AUC<sub>0-30</sub>. P‡, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and DI30 (Matsuda ISI x Insulin AUC<sub>0-30</sub>/Glucose AUC<sub>0-30</sub>). P < 2.8x10<sup>-3</sup> was considered as statistically significant given the 18 traits tested. Statistically significant results are marked in bold.

### 5.3 ASSOCIATION OF KETONE BODY LEVELS WITH HYPERGLYCEMIA AND TYPE 2 DIABETES (*Study III*)

#### Levels of KBs across the categories of glucose tolerance at the baseline study

This study examined the association of AcAc and BHB, in non-diabetic individuals (N=8,749) and individuals with newly diagnosed T2D (N=649) in the FPG and 2hPG categories (Figure 8). In the FPG category, AcAc levels were significantly lower ( $P < 0.01$ ) in individuals with IFG and significantly higher ( $P < 0.01$ ) in individuals with newly detected diabetes. In the 2hPG category, AcAc levels were significantly higher ( $P < 0.01$ ) in subjects with IGT as well as in newly diagnosed diabetes as compared with the reference category.

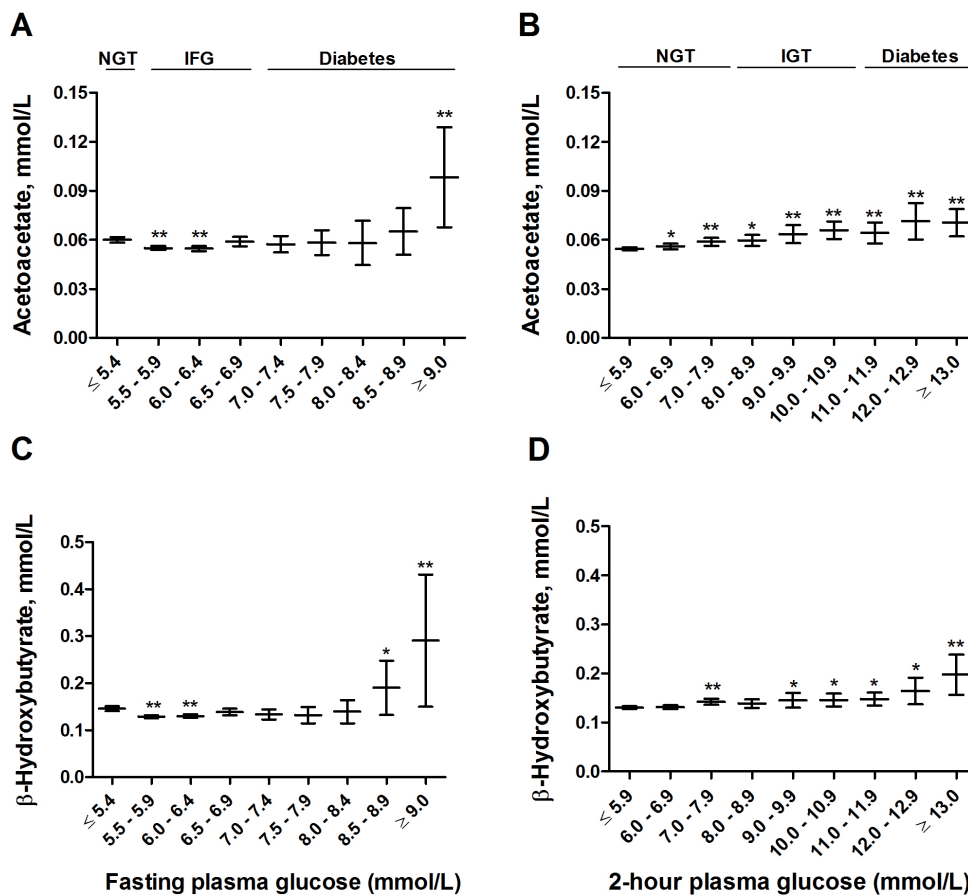


Figure 8. Mean values and their 95% confidence intervals of fasting levels of AcAc (A, B) and BHB (C, D) across the fasting and 2hPG categories.  $P$  values (from ANOVA post-hoc tests) indicate statistical significance with respect to the reference category (FPG  $\leq 5.4$  mmol/L, 2hPG  $\leq 5.9$  mmol/L). \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\* $P < 0.01$

In the FPG category, BHB levels were significantly lower ( $P < 0.01$ ) in subjects with IFG and significantly higher ( $P < 0.01$ ) in the diabetic range. Considering 2hPG, BHB levels were nominally higher in IGT ( $P < 0.05$ ) and in newly diagnosed T2D ( $P < 0.01$ ), as compared with the reference category.

## KBs as predictors for hyperglycemia and incident type 2 diabetes

Follow-up data of 4,335 participants were available from the ongoing prospective METSIM 5-year follow-up study. A total of 276 participants developed incident diabetes between the baseline and follow-up studies. AcAc and BHB levels adjusted for confounding factors known to increase the risk of diabetes (age, BMI, smoking, and physical activity) predicted an increase in the Glucose AUC evaluated as a continuous variable at follow-up ( $P=2.3 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $P=5.7 \times 10^{-6}$ , respectively (Table 7).

*Table 7.* Association of baseline levels of acetoacetate and  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate as predictors of Glucose AUC and with incident type 2 diabetes at 5-year follow-up. Statistical analyses were performed with Glucose AUC as a continuous variable and as the highest quartile (Q4) vs. the three lowest quartiles (Q1-Q3) combined and type 2 diabetes as a categorical variable (yes/no)

<b>Glucose AUC at follow-up as a continuous variable</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>SE</b>	<b><i>P</i>*</b>	<b><i>P</i>†</b>	<b><i>P</i>§</b>
Acetoacetate, mmol/L	39.5	10.1	<b><math>2.3 \times 10^{-4}</math></b>	<b><math>9.9 \times 10^{-7}</math></b>	<b><math>9.3 \times 10^{-4}</math></b>
$\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate, mmol/L	51.6	11.1	<b><math>5.7 \times 10^{-6}</math></b>	<b><math>2.7 \times 10^{-9}</math></b>	<b><math>6.2 \times 10^{-5}</math></b>
<b>Glucose AUC at follow-up as a categorical variable (Q4 vs. Q1-Q3)</b>	<b>OR</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b><i>P</i>*</b>	<b><i>P</i>†</b>	<b><i>P</i>§</b>
Acetoacetate, mmol/L	1.56	1.33-1.84	<b><math>7.9 \times 10^{-8}</math></b>	<b><math>9.1 \times 10^{-11}</math></b>	<b><math>5.5 \times 10^{-7}</math></b>
$\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate, mmol/L	1.46	1.25-1.72	<b><math>3.4 \times 10^{-6}</math></b>	<b><math>2.1 \times 10^{-8}</math></b>	<b><math>1.8 \times 10^{-5}</math></b>
<b>No diabetes vs. Newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes</b>	<b>OR</b>	<b>95% CI</b>	<b><i>P</i>*</b>	<b><i>P</i>†</b>	<b><i>P</i>§</b>
Acetoacetate, mmol/L	1.32	1.00-1.74	<b>0.047</b>	<b>0.012</b>	0.125
$\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate, mmol/L	1.03	0.77-1.36	0.864	0.085	0.345

B and SE were obtained from multiple linear regression. Odds ratios (OR) and their 95% confidence intervals were obtained from logistic regression analyses. *P*\*, adjusted for age, BMI, smoking, and physical activity. *P*†, adjustment for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and Matsuda ISI. *P*§, adjustment for age, BMI, smoking, physical activity and  $\text{InsAUC}_{0-30}/\text{GlucAUC}_{0-30}$ . Statistically significant results are marked in bold.

The highest quartile of AcAc adjusted for age, BMI, smoking and physical activity predicted conversion to T2D, OR 1.32 (95% CIs, 1.00, 1.74;  $P=0.047$ ; Table 7), and also after further adjustment for FPG (OR 1.41, 95% CIs 1.06-1.89,  $P=0.019$ ). Adjustment for 2hPG, instead of FPG, abolished statistical significance ( $P=0.423$ ). When analyzed in the glucose tolerance categories, AcAc predicted incident diabetes in individuals with IFG (OR 1.49, 95% CI 1.12-1.99,  $P=0.007$ ) after the adjustment for confounding factors.

Additional adjustment for insulin sensitivity strengthened the association of KBs with development of hyperglycemia and conversion to T2D, whereas insulin secretion weakened/abolished these associations.

## Association of risk SNPs for type 2 diabetes or hyperglycemia with the levels of ketone bodies

After correction for multiple testing (threshold of statistical significance,  $P < 4.0 \times 10^{-4}$ ), the glucose increasing C allele of rs780094 of *GCKR* showed a significant association with elevated levels of BHB (effect size +5.6% per the C allele,  $P = 3.7 \times 10^{-6}$  after adjusting for age and BMI) and a nominally significant association with AcAc (+3.9%,  $P = 0.003$ ). Additionally, there were nominally significant associations for SNPs of *ANK1*, *GIPR*, *HMGA2*, *SLC2A2* and *FADS1* with the levels of both AcAc and BHB. Also several other SNPs were nominally associated with either AcAc or BHB alone (Table 8).

Table 8. Risk SNPs for type 2 diabetes or hyperglycemia associated ( $P < 0.05$ ) with fasting acetoacetate and  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate

Gene SNP	N	Allele maj/min	Risk allele frequency	Acetoacetate			$\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate		
				%B	<i>P</i>	<i>P</i> *	%B	<i>P</i>	<i>P</i> *
<i>ADAMTS9</i> rs4607103	8120	<u>C</u> /T	74.1	-3.7	<b>0.007</b>	<b>0.009</b>	-3.3	0.067	0.079
<i>ANK1</i> rs516946	8120	<u>C</u> /T	80.5	+3.4	<b>0.042</b>	<b>0.036</b>	+3.4	<b>0.014</b>	<b>0.011</b>
<i>CENTD2</i> rs1552224	8119	<u>A</u> /C	74.7	1.9	<b>0.022</b>	<b>0.025</b>	1.8	0.099	0.133
<i>CRY2</i> rs11605924	8108	<u>A</u> /C	52.9	1.7	0.124	0.097	3.4	<b>0.002</b>	<b>0.001</b>
<i>DGKB</i> rs2191349	8120	G/ <u>I</u>	42.8	1.3	0.152	0.160	2.3	<b>0.038</b>	<b>0.047</b>
<i>FADS1</i> rs174550	8119	<u>I</u> /C	57.7	-3.2	<b><math>6.7 \times 10^{-4}</math></b>	<b><math>5.5 \times 10^{-4}</math></b>	-3.1	0.151	0.112
<i>FAM148B/C2CD4B</i> , rs11071657	8118	<u>A</u> /G	69.1	-0.1	0.446	0.505	-2.7	<b>0.032</b>	<b>0.019</b>
<i>GCKR</i> rs780094	8120	<u>C</u> /T	62.2	3.9	<b>0.005</b>	<b>0.003</b>	5.6	<b><u><math>8.3 \times 10^{-6}</math></u></b>	<b><u><math>3.7 \times 10^{-6}</math></u></b>
<i>GIPR</i> rs10423928	8302	T/ <u>A</u>	21.6	-3.8	<b>0.001</b>	<b>0.001</b>	-3.7	<b>0.004</b>	<b>0.003</b>
<i>HMGA2</i> rs2612067	8353	T/ <u>G</u>	6.90	-5.9	<b>0.005</b>	<b>0.006</b>	-6.0	<b>0.009</b>	<b>0.010</b>
<i>KCNQ1</i> rs231362	8388	<u>G</u> /A	51.9	-1.8	<b>0.050</b>	<b>0.041</b>	-1.7	0.261	0.199
<i>KLF14</i> rs972283	8120	<u>G</u> /A	57.5	-2.8	0.055	0.066	-2.7	<b>0.009</b>	<b>0.014</b>
<i>MC4R</i> rs12970134	8120	G/ <u>A</u>	17.5	-3.6	<b>0.006</b>	<b>0.005</b>	-2.0	0.129	0.100
<i>PPARG</i> rs1801282	8119	<u>C</u> /G	84.9	3.0	<b>0.036</b>	<b>0.037</b>	0.03	0.996	0.918
<i>SLC2A2</i> rs11920090	8120	<u>I</u> /A	86.7	-3.8	<b>0.011</b>	<b>0.011</b>	-4.9	<b>0.018</b>	<b>0.017</b>

Major/minor (maj/min) alleles of each SNP are shown. Risk alleles for hyperglycemia or T2D are underlined. Effect sizes (indicated as % of B from the mean) per risk allele. Significant *P*-values are given in bold ( $P < 0.05$ ) or bold and underlined ( $P < 4.0 \times 10^{-4}$ ). *P* is unadjusted. *P*\* is adjusted for age and BMI. Of 62 risk SNPs for T2D or hyperglycemia were studied, only SNPs that are associated with single or both traits presented in this table.



## Gene expression of genes involved in ketone body metabolism

Significant correlations were found with adipose tissue mRNA expression levels of several genes associated with ketolysis with glucose metabolism parameters (Table 9). Of these genes, *ACAT1* expression had the most significant correlations with Glucose AUC ( $r=-0.314$ ,  $P=6.1\times 10^{-6}$ ), Matsuda ISI ( $r=0.479$ ,  $P=7.1\times 10^{-13}$ ), and insulin secretion ( $r=-0.444$ ,  $P=7.0\times 10^{-11}$ ). Similarly, the expressions of other genes regulating ketolysis, *BDH1* ( $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase, type 1), *OXCT1* (3-oxoacid CoA transferase 1), and *ACSS2* (acyl-CoA synthetase short-chain family member 2) were inversely correlated with Glucose AUC and insulin secretion and positively correlated with Matsuda ISI.

Table 9. Pearson correlations of adipose tissue mRNA expression of major enzymes involved in fatty acid oxidation, ketogenesis and ketolysis with Glucose AUC, Matsuda ISI and Matsuda ISI-adjusted  $\text{InsAUC}_{0-30}/\text{GlucAUC}_{0-30}$

Function /Gene	Glucose AUC		Matsuda ISI		InsAUC <sub>0-30</sub> / GlucAUC <sub>0-30</sub>	
	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i>
<b>Fatty acid oxidation</b>						
<i>CPT1A</i>	0.198	$4.9\times 10^{-3}$	-0.229	$1.1\times 10^{-3}$	0.168	0.019
<i>CPT2</i>	-0.068	0.340	0.249	$3.7\times 10^{-4}$	-0.274	$1.0\times 10^{-4}$
<b>Ketogenesis</b>						
<i>HMGCS2</i>	0.078	0.273	-0.013	0.851	0.006	0.936
<i>HMGCS1</i>	-0.042	0.557	0.088	0.217	-0.068	0.342
<b>Ketolysis</b>						
<i>BDH1</i>	-0.222	$1.6\times 10^{-3}$	0.425	$3.4\times 10^{-10}$	-0.408	$3.0\times 10^{-9}$
<i>OXCT1</i>	-0.121	0.088	0.232	$9.4\times 10^{-4}$	-0.182	0.011
<i>ACAT1</i>	-0.314	$6.1\times 10^{-6}$	0.479	$7.1\times 10^{-13}$	-0.444	$7.0\times 10^{-11}$
<i>ACSS2</i>	-0.108	0.130	0.307	$9.7\times 10^{-6}$	-0.274	$1.0\times 10^{-4}$

*CPT1A*, carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1A; *CPT2*, carnitine palmitoyltransferase II; *HMGCS2*, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA synthase 2 (mitochondrial); *HMGCS1*, 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA synthase 1 (soluble); *BDH1*, 3-hydroxybutyrate dehydrogenase, type 1; *OXCT1*, 3-oxoacid CoA transferase 1; *ACAT1*, acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase 1; *ACSS2*, acyl-CoA synthetase short-chain family member 2.

## 6 Discussion

### 6.1 REPRESENTATIVENESS OF THE STUDY POPULATION

This study was based on a large population-based well-characterized METSIM cohort having a relatively long follow-up period (around 5 years) to ensure good statistical power.

Studies I and III included a total of 9,398 non-diabetic men from the cross-sectional METSIM study examined in 2005-2010. Subjects, aged from 45 to 73 years, were randomly selected from the population register of the Kuopio town in Eastern Finland. In Study II, 1,346 non-diabetic men were selected randomly with equivocal percentages from each glucose category compared to the original METSIM cohort. All subjects included in Studies I-III had a 1-day outpatient visit to the Clinical Research Unit at the University of Eastern Finland, including an interview on their history of previous chronic diseases and current drug treatment, physical exercise, smoking, alcohol intake and cardiovascular risk factors. The diagnosis of T2D was based on an OGTT. Insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion were evaluated using validated OGTT-derived indices.

Detailed phenotyping using the NMR method was applied to all individuals involved in METSIM study, and EMFAs were determined in a subset of the METSIM study population using gas chromatography. Measuring individual metabolites with these techniques carries a high potential in detecting and validating new biomarkers. All risk SNPs for hyperglycemia/T2D known at the time of the study were genotyped in the entire METSIM cohort, ensuring the identification of those SNPs associated with biomarkers of interest.

Additional advantage of the METSIM study is that it includes a long-term follow-up (mean follow-up about 5 years), which permits an evaluation of the prospective significance of the identified biomarkers as predictors of worsening of hyperglycemia and incident T2D. The diagnosis of new diabetes was based on an OGTT. The main limitation of this series of studies is that the METSIM cohort includes only Finnish men and we did not have detailed dietary data which somewhat limits the conclusions drawn from Studies I-III. Study II, had a relatively small number of individuals who developed diabetes during the follow-up. Although the METSIM Study is large in size, the power was limited to detect genetic association with KB levels (Study III).

## **6.2 GLYCEROL AND FATTY ACIDS AS PREDICTORS OF HYPERGLYCEMIA AND INCIDENT TYPE 2 DIABETES (*Study I*)**

The phenotype represents both genetic predisposition and environmental influences, including diet, physical activity and smoking, and therefore assessing the concentration of different metabolites provides information on individual profile of physiological and pathophysiological markers.

Glycerol is an important intermediate in glucose and lipid metabolism. Study I, revealed that fasting levels of glycerol and FFAs were higher not only in newly diagnosed diabetes but also in IFG and IGT in a cross-sectional analysis of the METSIM Study. Glycerol has a direct effect on glucose levels and gluconeogenesis and its levels have been shown to be elevated in obese individuals and in patients with type 2 diabetes (211, 220), highlighting the potential importance of glycerol homeostasis. We observed that fasting levels of glycerol, total TGs and FFAs predicted an increase in Glucose AUC and the development of new-onset T2D during this prospective 4.5-year follow-up of the METSIM cohort, independent of known risk factors for T2D. None of the previous studies have indicated glycerol to be a significant predictor of hyperglycemia and incident T2D.

By measuring insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion with validated indices (217) we were able to evaluate statistically the possible mechanisms by which glycerol, total TGs and FFAs predict hyperglycemia and T2D. Our follow-up study of the METSIM cohort suggested for the first time that insulin resistance was the most important mediator for the association of levels of glycerol, total TGs and FFAs with the development of hyperglycemia. This conclusion is supported by our statistical evaluation revealing that adjustment for insulin sensitivity (Matsuda ISI) attenuated and/or abolished the association of glycerol, total TGs and FFAs with Glucose AUC and with incident T2D. High levels of glycerol and FFAs have been shown to increase insulin resistance in skeletal muscle (171). In contrast, adjustment for insulin secretion did not alter these associations, although previous studies have shown that long-term exposure of  $\beta$ -cells to FFAs can lead to impaired insulin secretion (172).

Elevated levels of omega-3, omega-6 FAs, monounsaturated FAs, and saturated and omega-7 and -9 FAs have been linked to hyperglycemia in some previous studies (179, 180, 185-187), although the evidence is conflicting. Human intervention trials have also provided somewhat contradictory results, but they suggest that saturated FAs induce insulin resistance (221). We demonstrated that the fasting levels of monounsaturated FAs, saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs were increased in IFG, IGT and in newly diagnosed diabetes in this cross-sectional analysis of the METSIM cohort, whereas the levels of omega-3 and omega-6 FAs were reduced in individuals with newly diagnosed T2D.

Monounsaturated FAs and saturated and omega-7 and -9 FAs predicted the worsening of hyperglycemia and the development of T2D in the METSIM cohort, independent of known risk factors for T2D. Three previous studies are in line with the present findings and have linked the

elevated risk of T2D with the levels of omega-7 FAs (palmitoleic acid) (185-187), but not with omega-9 FA (oleic acid). Studies published on the association of omega-3 FAs and omega-6 FAs with incident T2D are somewhat conflicting and inconclusive (179, 180, 185). The present study detected a significant association of omega-6 FAs (mainly linoleic acid) with reduction in the development of both hyperglycemia and T2D. Linoleic acid is derived mainly from the diet, but it can be metabolized to longer chain unsaturated FAs. In the current study, the monounsaturated FAs, especially palmitoleic and oleic acids, were associated with an increased risk of abnormal glucose metabolism and T2D. This may be explained by the fact that the major saturated FAs are desaturated to monounsaturated FAs, and that in the Western diet, the levels of saturated FAs and monounsaturated FAs are positively correlated (222-224).

To investigate the mechanisms underlying the associations of hyperglycemia with FAs, we evaluated their associations with insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion. We observed that insulin sensitivity was positively correlated with the levels of omega-6 FAs explaining at least in part the preventive effect of omega-6 FAs on the development of hyperglycemia and incident diabetes. In contrast, levels of monounsaturated FAs and saturated and omega-7 and -9 FAs showed negative correlations with insulin sensitivity, which is in agreement with previous findings of an inverse association of omega-7 FAs with insulin sensitivity (223, 225). Moreover, omega-9 FAs (dietary oleic acid) influence fat oxidation (226) suggesting that they may have negative effects on insulin sensitivity.

Additional evidence that insulin resistance is a potent mediator for the association of omega FAs with hyperglycemia emerges from our multivariate models. The adjustment for Matsuda ISI, but not for insulin secretion, attenuated the associations of omega-6 FAs (including linoleic acid), monounsaturated FAs and saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs with Glucose AUC and incident T2D. These results might imply that insulin sensitivity is the major causal mechanism explaining the association of these FAs with hyperglycemia and the risk of incident T2D. Similarly, the preventive effect of omega-6 FAs was mediated *via* high insulin sensitivity. FAs are important structural components of cell membranes, and they are precursors of long chain FA derived molecules, which may affect insulin sensitivity. Furthermore, FAs modify gene expression and receptor binding (227), thus making them an important candidate in the search of risk factors for T2D and related glucose abnormalities.

In summary, Study I suggested that high levels of glycerol, FFAs, serum monounsaturated FAs, saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs are not only indicators of diabetic hyperglycemia but are also markers of disturbed glucose metabolism in the prediabetic state. However, this study does not necessarily imply that insulin resistance is a causal mechanism linking elevated levels of glycerol and FAs with the worsening of hyperglycemia and incident T2D, since dietary and other factors could also play an important role in these associations.

### **6.3 ERYTHROCYTE MEMBRANE FATTY ACIDS AS PREDICTORS OF HYPERGLYCEMIA AND INCIDENT TYPE 2 DIABETES (*Study II*)**

Previous studies have not investigated the association of EMFA proportions and their product to precursor ratios with hyperglycemia. This present cross-sectional analysis of the METSIM cohort demonstrated that the levels of palmitoleic acid (C16:1n-7), SCD1 (16:1n-7/16:0) and D6D (20:3n-6/18:2n-6) were significantly higher not only in individuals with newly diagnosed T2D but also in individuals with IFG, IGT and both. In contrast, linoleic acid (C18:2n-6) was significantly lower in newly diagnosed T2D.

In our prospective follow-up study, high levels of palmitoleic acid, dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid and the ratios of 16:1n-7/16:0 (SCD1 activity) and 20:3n-6/18:2n-6 (D6D activity) significantly predicted the worsening of hyperglycemia, whereas linoleic acid and the 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 ratio (elongase activity) predicted a decrease in Glucose AUC at follow-up. Moreover, palmitoleic acid and the 16:1n-7/16:0 ratio (SCD1 activity) nominally increased the risk of incident T2D, independent of known confounding factors, whereas linoleic acid was preventive of diabetes. Our conclusions are in line with three previously published longitudinal studies (181, 202, 203). The ratios of 20:3n-6/18:2n-6 (D6D activity) and 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 (elongase activity) predicted incident T2D in our study, but these associations were abolished after adjusting for confounding factors. In contrast, the levels of n-3 polyunsaturated FAs were not associated with the worsening of glycemia or the risk of diabetes, in line with a recent meta-analysis (228).

We also evaluated the role of insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion as potential mediators for the associations of EMFAs proportions and their ratios with incident T2D. Previous studies have hinted that the FA composition especially in skeletal muscle could alter membrane fluidity, ion permeability, and insulin receptor binding and affinity, or insulin action (184, 227). Cross-sectional studies have reported that the altered D5D and D6D activities could be related to insulin resistance (177, 229). In our study, adjustment for insulin sensitivity somewhat weakened *P* values but did not abolish statistical significance. Similarly, adjustment for insulin secretion did not essentially change these results suggesting that the role of genes could be important in these associations. However, the ratios of 20:3n-6/18:2n-6 (D6D activity) and 16:1n-7/16:0 (SCD1 activity) which were associated with abnormal glucose tolerance at baseline, also predicted decreases in insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion at the follow-up study. Therefore, EMFAs may decrease insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion, although it is not possible to conclude the direction of causality because dietary and other factors can also influence insulin sensitivity.

### **6.4 KETONE BODY LEVELS AS PREDICTORS OF HYPERGLYCEMIA AND INCIDENT TYPE 2 DIABETES (*Study III*)**

High levels of KBs are a characteristic finding in individuals with diabetes (230), but there is a lack of information about the KB levels in the non-diabetic glucose range. We observed an

increase in KB levels with increasing glucose levels in an OGTT in a cross-sectional analysis of the METSIM study cohort. These results agree with a previous finding indicating that elevated glucose levels are associated with increased levels of KBs (211).

In the prospective analysis of the METSIM cohort we observed that the levels of AcAc and BHB significantly predicted the worsening of hyperglycemia in non-diabetic individuals, but these associations were abolished after adjustment for Glucose AUC at baseline. This could point to an important link between the levels of KBs and glucose metabolism. AcAc, but not BHB, predicted the development of new T2D in our prospective follow-up of the METSIM cohort, independent of known risk factors for T2D. The reason why KBs predicted very significantly the worsening of glycemia, but not so clearly incident T2D, are FPG and 2hPG levels at the diagnosis of T2D which were often only marginally elevated (FPG in the range of 7.0-7.5 mmol/L, 2hPG in the range of 11.1-12.0 mmol/L), whereas the levels of KBs were significantly increased at higher glucose levels (FPG levels exceeding 8.0 mmol/L, and 2hPG levels exceeding 12.0 mmol/L, Figure 8).

To study the mechanisms by which KBs increase the risk of hyperglycemia and T2D, we investigated the association of KB levels with insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion. Surprisingly, we found that high levels of KBs were associated with high insulin sensitivity in the non-diabetic glucose range at baseline, similar to recent findings in young Finnish adults (210). Furthermore, it was noted that insulin sensitivity was significantly correlated with the key enzymes of ketolysis, which suggests that in insulin sensitive individuals KBs are rapidly converted to acetyl-CoA, which stimulates oxidative phosphorylation and mitochondrial generation of ATP. However, it is not likely that insulin resistance is an important mechanism in the prediction of hyperglycemia by elevated KB levels. This was clearly demonstrated by our METSIM follow-up data which showed that adjustment for Matsuda ISI did not weaken the association of KBs with the development of hyperglycemia. In contrast, including a marker of insulin secretion in the model substantially weakened or abolished the association of KBs with the development of hyperglycemia and the conversion to T2D. These findings emphasize the crucial role of impaired insulin secretion as a regulator of hyperglycemic effects of KBs. Adequate insulin secretion relative to insulin sensitivity maintains low levels of KBs by suppressing the expression of hormone sensitive lipase and thus prevents the release of FFAs from adipose tissue which is the major source of hepatic ketogenesis and high circulating levels of KBs (206, 231).

We also investigated the association of risk SNPs for hyperglycemia and T2D with KB levels. Of the 62 SNPs analyzed, only the glucose increasing major C allele of rs780094 of *GCKR* (encoding glucokinase regulatory protein) was significantly associated with increased BHB levels and nominally associated with AcAc levels. Glucokinase (GCK) is 'a sensor' of the glucose level which plays a crucial role in whole body glucose homeostasis. The activity of GCK is regulated by *GCKR* in the liver (141). The C allele of rs780094 of *GCKR* has been previously reported to be associated with fasting glycemia, risk of T2D, insulin resistance, and decreased levels of total

and VLDL, TGs, decreased levels of alanine and isoleucine, and elevated levels of glutamine (62, 142, 161, 232, 233). The significant association of rs780094 with KB levels adds further to the pleiotropic effects of *GCKR*.

## 6.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

There is still a lack of reliable biomarkers for the detection of the metabolic alterations associated with T2D highlighting the need for the development of early diagnostic and prognostic markers for T2D. A detailed understanding of the pathophysiology of T2D and identification of early metabolic alterations is essential for identifying individuals at high risk of this disease. Recent advancements in the application of high throughput methodologies, including deep metabolic phenotyping and genotyping in a large, well powered and characterized population cohorts has made possible the rapid progress in the field of biomarker discovery.

Previous studies and recent studies based on the application of metabolomics have identified several biomarkers predicting incident T2D including total TGs, HDL cholesterol, inflammatory markers, adiponectin, liver enzymes, fetuin-A, aromatic amino acids and branch-chain amino acids which have been measured from biofluids or tissue samples (151). In the present studies, NMR and gas chromatography were utilized and the analysis revealed that levels of glycerol, serum FAs, proportions of EMFAs and KBs can be considered as biomarkers for the development of hyperglycemia and incident T2D. However, the clinical importance of these biomarkers needs to be validated in other populations and also in women.

Our series of studies show that it is possible to obtain important information on the mechanisms how different metabolites can impair glucose tolerance and further to incident T2D if reliable markers of insulin sensitivity and insulin secretion are applied. It is important to measure both of these pathophysiological abnormalities since the mechanisms by which an individual metabolite increases the risk of hyperglycemia and T2D are likely to differ. For example, insulin resistance seems to be a more likely causal mechanism how high concentrations of certain serum FAs increase the risk of T2D, whereas impaired insulin secretion is likely to be a causal mechanism how KBs lead to the worsening of hyperglycemia and elevated risk of T2D. However, several other factors are likely to play also a significant role in these associations, namely dietary factors and gene variants.

GWAs and meta-analyses have uncovered several novel risk loci for T2D that are consistent across all ethnic groups. Revealing biological functions of these common variants has been challenging. Recently exome sequencing has accelerated the potential to identify new low-frequency and rare variants in complex diseases, including T2D. However even taking the applications of exome sequencing and exome chip into account, studies on the genetics of T2D need other approaches. Gene-gene and gene-environment/lifestyle interaction analyses are

urgently needed as well as studies on epigenetics (methylation of promoters and histone modifications).

In conclusion, we have identified novel biomarkers for the estimation of the risk for the development of hyperglycemia and incident diabetes beyond classical clinical indicators and laboratory measurements. Our findings indicate that plasma metabolites predict the onset of T2D and provide important information beyond standard clinical markers.



## 7 Summary

The main findings of Studies I – III were as follows:

**Study I:** High fasting levels of glycerol, FFAs, monounsaturated FAs, and saturated FAs, and omega-7 and -9 FAs predicted the worsening of hyperglycemia and incident type 2 diabetes, whereas high levels of omega-6 FAs were associated with a reduced risk of hyperglycemia and type 2 diabetes. Insulin resistance explained these associations, at least in part.

**Study II:** High levels of palmitoleic acid, dihomo-gamma-linolenic acid, 16:1n-7/16:0 and 20:3n-6/18:2n-6 ratios predicted the worsening of hyperglycemia, whereas linoleic acid and 18:1n-7/16:1n-7 ratio predicted the improvement of hyperglycemia. The high levels of palmitoleic acid and 16:1n-7/16:0 nominally predicted incident type 2 diabetes, whereas linoleic acid prevented type 2 diabetes. These associations were largely independent of insulin sensitivity, insulin secretion and glucose levels.

**Study III:** High levels of acetoacetate and  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate predicted the worsening of hyperglycemia, and acetoacetate predicted incident type 2 diabetes. Impaired insulin secretion, but not insulin resistance, explained these associations. One common variant of *GCKR* was significantly associated with  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate levels.

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**YUVARAJ MAHENDRAN**  
*Identification of Biomarkers  
for Type 2 Diabetes*

The early diagnosis of diabetes is important in order to avoid long-term micro- and macrovascular complications in individuals at high risk of type 2 diabetes. This thesis aims to investigate the association of various metabolic and genetic biomarkers with hyperglycemia and type 2 diabetes. Several novel biomarkers were identified in this study as predictors of hyperglycemia and incident type 2 diabetes.



UNIVERSITY OF  
EASTERN FINLAND

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN FINLAND  
*Dissertations in Health Sciences*

ISBN 978-952-61-1368-5