Gene-Specific Function Prediction for Non-Synonymous Mutations in Monogenic Diabetes Genes



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Abstract

The rapid progress of genomic technologies has been providing new opportunities to address the need of maturity-onset diabetes of the young (MODY) molecular diagnosis. However, whether a new mutation causes MODY can be questionable. A number of *in silico* methods have been developed to predict functional effects of rare human mutations. The purpose of this study is to compare the performance of different bioinformatics methods in the functional prediction of nonsynonymous mutations in each MODY gene, and provides reference matrices to assist the molecular diagnosis of MODY. Our study showed that the prediction scores by different methods of the diabetes mutations were highly correlated, but were more complimentary than replacement to each other. The available *in silico* methods for the prediction of diabetes mutations had varied performances across different genes. Applying gene-specific thresholds defined by this study may be able to increase the performance of *in silico* prediction of disease-causing mutations.

Citation: Li Q, Liu X, Gibbs RA, Boerwinkle E, Polychronakos C, et al. (2014) Gene-Specific Function Prediction for Non-Synonymous Mutations in Monogenic Diabetes Genes. PLoS ONE 9(8): e104452. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0104452

Editor: Klaus Brusgaard, Odense University hospital, Denmark

Received May 17, 2014; Accepted July 9, 2014; Published August 19, 2014

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Data Availability: The authors confirm that all data underlying the findings are fully available without restriction. All relevant data are within the paper and its Supporting Information files.

Funding: The authors have no support or funding to report.

Competing Interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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Introduction

To date, a number of methods have been developed to predict functional effects of rare human mutations based on the impact of protein function and/or evolutionary conservation [1-3]. These methods are valuable to assist the diagnosis of monogenic inheritance diseases. In the area of diabetes, there is a common monogenic form, i.e. maturity-onset diabetes of the young (MODY). MODY accounts for $\sim 1\%$ to 5% of all cases of diabetes, while it is mainly seen in young adults (≤ 25 years old) [4]. As an autosomal dominant inherited form of diabetes, MODY is caused by gene mutations leading to insufficient insulin production without or with minimal insulin resistance [5]. To date, at least 13 genes have been identified with mutations that cause MODY, i.e. HNF4A (MODY1) [6], GCK (MODY2) [7], HNF1A (MODY3) [6], PDX1 (MODY4) [8], HNF1B (MODY5) [9], NEUROD1 (MODY6) [10], KLF11 (MODY7) [11], CEL (MODY8) [12], PAX4 (MODY9) [13], INS (MODY10) [14], BLK (MODY11) [15], ABCC8 (MODY12) [16,17], and KCNJ11 (MODY13) [16,17].

MODY caused by different gene mutations may have different severities of diabetes and different drug responses to diabetes medications [18]. For example, MODY2 (accounts for $\sim 20\%$ of all MODY cases [19]) caused by *GCK* gene mutations tends to have mild hyperglycaemia without obvious glycosuria. Patients with MODY2 are often asymptomatic [20] or only identified in women during pregnancy and diagnosed as gestational diabetes [21]. Most patients with MODY2 can have blood glucose satisfactorily controlled by diet therapy and don't need hypoglycemic medication [22,23]. In contrast, MODY3 caused by HNF1A mutations, the most common type of MODY that accounts for $\sim 63\%$ of all MODY cases [19], tends to have obvious glycosuria because of impaired glucose-stimulated insulin secretion [24], as well as decreased renal threshold for glucose [25]. MODY3 patients tend to have good response to sulphonylurea treatment and don't rely on insulin therapy [18,26]. Because of the implications of pharcogenetics and personalized medicine, molecular diagnosis of MODY has clinical importance for clinical decision and for genetic counseling [18,26]. However, because of unavailability and expense of MODY molecular diagnosis, it is not uncommon that MODY patients are classified as type 2 diabetes [27,28] and occasionally as type 1 [29].

The rapid progress of advanced genomic technologies has been providing new opportunities to address the need of MODY molecular diagnosis. The identification of mutations in MODY genes by sequencing technologies will enable the molecular diagnosis of MODY, whereas a new issue is emerging. Most mutations causing MODY are nonsynonymous single-nucleotide mutations causing the change of an amino acid residue (according to The Human Gene Mutation Database [30], http://www.hgmd. org/). High throughput sequencing technologies enable screening of a large number of patients and parallel sequencing of a large Table 1. MODY or neonatal diabetes genes and mutations (n = 1091).

Gene symbol	Diabetic mutations* (n)	Control mutations (n)	Chromosome position	Gene name
HNF4A	86	57	20q12-q13.1	hepatocyte nuclear factor 4, alpha
GCK	479	22	7p15.3-p15.1	glucokinase (hexokinase 4, maturity onset diabetes of the young 2)
HNF1A	324	78	12q24.2	hepatocyte nuclear factor-1 (HNF1) homeobox A
HNF1B	36	52	17cen-q21.3	hepatocyte nuclear factor-1 (HNF1) homeobox B
INS	41	14	11p15.5	insulin
ABCC8	64	185	11p15.1	ATP-binding cassette, sub-family C (CFTR/MRP), member 8
KCNJ11	61	65	11p15.1	potassium inwardly-rectifying channel, subfamily J, member 11

* Number of diabetes-causing single nucleotide mutations recorded in the Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD) 2013.4 release (http://www.hgmd.org/) [30]. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0104452.t001

number of genes. If a known MODY gene mutation is identified in a patient suspected of MODY, the molecular diagnosis of MODY can be established. However, the increased throughput of sequencing technologies is likely to produce increased numbers of missense variants whose causative role in MODY can be questionable. Bioinformatics tools, e.g. SIFT (http://sift.jcvi.org/)

Table 2. Methods for function prediction for non-synonymous mutations*.

Method	Deleterious Threshold	Algorithm
PhyloP	>1.6	PhyloP calculates basewise conservation score from Multiz alignment [55] of 46 vertebrate species (ftp:// ccg.vital-it.ch/mga/hg19/phylop/phylop.html) [38].
GERP++ RS	>4.4	GERP++ RS calculates site-specific "rejected substitutions" (RS) scores and to discover evolutionarily constrained elements based on maximum likelihood evolutionary rate estimation [39].
SiPhy	>12.17	SiPhy detects bases under selection from a multiple alignment data using a hidden Markov model. (http:// www.broadinstitute.org/genome_bio/siphy/) [40].
SIFT	>0.95	SIFT prediction is based on the degree of conservation of amino acid residues in sequence alignments derived from closely related sequences, collected through PSI-BLAST.(http://sift.jcvi.org/) [31].
PolyPhen-2	>0.5	PolyPhen-2 (Polymorphism Phenotyping v2) predicts the functional significance of an amino acid substitution by Naïve Bayes classifier, using sequence-based and structure-based predictive features. HDIV, or HumDiv, identifies human damaging mutations by assuming differences between human proteins and their closely related mammalian homologs as non-damaging. HVAR, or HumVar, identifies human disease-causing mutations by assuming common human nsSNPs as non-damaging. (http://genetics.bwh.harvard. edu/pph2/index.shtml) [32].
LRT	>0.999	The likelihood ratio test (LRT) identifies conserved amino acid positions and deleterious mutations using a comparative genomics data set of multiple vertebrate species. (http://www.genetics.wustl.edu/jflab/ lrt_query.html) [41].
MutationTaster	>0.5	MutationTaster evaluates the disease-causing potential of DNA sequence alterations by Naïve Bayes classifier, integrating information Of evolutionary conservation, splice-site changes, loss of protein features and changes that might affect the amount of mRNA from different biomedical databases and uses established analysis tools. (http://www.mutationtaster.org/) [42].
Mutation Assessor	>0.65	Mutation Assessor predicts the functional impact of amino-acid substitutions in proteins based on evolutionary conservation of the affected amino acid in protein homologs. (http://mutationassessor.org) [43].
FATHMM	>0.453	The Functional Analysis through Hidden Markov Models (FATHMM) Predicts the functional consequences of cancer-associated amino acid substitutions using a model weighted for inherited disease mutations (http://fathmm.biocompute.org.uk) [44].
RadialSVM score	>0.5	RadialSVM score is an ensemble-based approach integrating multiple scoring systems (function prediction and conservation Score) by radial support vector machine (SVM) [3].
LR score	>0.5	LR score is an ensemble-based approach integrating multiple scoring systems (function prediction and conservation Score) by logistic regression (LR) [3].

* Extensively comparisons of these methods genome-widely have been studied by Thusberg et al. [1,2] and Dong et al. [3]. Deleterious thresholds for PhyloP, GERP++ RS and SiPhy are defined according to the study by Dong et al. [3]. Deleterious thresholds for SIFT, LRT, MutationTaster, Mutation Assessor, FATHMM and RAdialSVM are based on converted scores used in dbNSFP version 2.3 [45,46] (converted score is designated as S_c and original score is designated as S_o): SIFT: $S_c = 1-S_o$; LRT: $S_c = 1-S_o$; tRT: $S_c = 1-S_o$; if $\Omega < 1$, or $S_c = S_o$ *0.5 if $\Omega > 1$; MutationTaster: $S_c = S_o$ if the prediction is "A" or "D" or $S_c = 1-S_o$; if the prediction is "N" or "P"; Mutation Assessor: $S_c = (S_o - (-5.545))/(5.975-(-5.545))$; FATHMM: $S_c = 1-(S_o - (-16.13))/(10.64-(-16.13))$; RadialSVM: $S_c = (1+S_o/3.03993691875303)$ *0.5 if predicted "D" and

 $S_c = (1 - S_o/-2.00575697514507)^*0.5$ otherwise. More details of the conversion can be found at http://dbnsfp.houstonbioinformatics.org/dbNSFP2ip/dbNSFP2.3.readme. txt.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0104452.t002

Table 3. Corr	elations of diff	erent Method	ls for function	prediction for	non-synonym	ous mutation:	s causing diab	etes [Spearman's	ρ (P value)].		
Methods	phyloP	GERP++ RS	siPhy	SIFT	PolyPhen-2 HDIV	PolyPhen-2 HVAR	LRT	MutationTaster	Mutation Assessor	FATHMM	RadialSVM score
GERP++ RS	0.798 (P = 1.13E-218)										
SiPhy	0.857 (P = 2.42E-285)	0.718 (P = 1.15E-156)									
SIFT	0.018 (P = 5.92E-01)	0.062 (P = 6.75E-02)	0.087 (P = 1.09E-02)								
PolyPhen-2 HDIV	0.228 (P = 1.16E-11)	0.192 (P = 1.20E-08)	0.278 (P = 9.60E-17)	0.506 (P = 8.57E-57)							
PolyPhen-2 HVAR	0.205 (P = 1.27E-09)	0.19 (P = 1.85E-08)	0.233 (P = 3.89E-12)	0.496 (P = 2.10E-54)	0.88 (P = 3.88E-281)						
LRT	0.332 (P = 3.28E-23)	0.412 (P = 5.32E-36)	0.388 (P = 9.10E-32)	0.252 (P = 1.23E-13)	0.38 (P = 2.13E-30)	0.398 (P = 1.58E-33)					
MutationTaster	0.298 (P = 7.40E-21)	0.33 (P = 1.82E-25)	0.339 (P = 6.75E-27)	0.288 (P = 7.50E-18)	0.348 (P = 6.44E-26)	0.354 (P = 6.86E-27)	0.332 (P = 2.93E-23)				
Mutation Assessor	0.089 (P=8.79E-03)	0.158 (P = 3.00E-06)	0.158 (P = 3.03E-06)	0.633 (P = 3.11E-96)	0.516 (P = 3.30E-59)	0.493 (P = 2.16E-53)	0.409 (P = 2.73E-35)	0.321 (P = 2.58E-22)			
FATHMM	0.071 (P = 3.75E-02)	0.042 (P = 2.13E-01)	0.087 (P = 1.07E-02)	0.27 (P = 1.09E-15)	0.297 (P = 5.62E-19)	0.342 (P=5.75E-25)	0.126 (P = 2.28E-04)	0.13 (P = 1.32E-04)	0.297 (P = 8.20E-19)		
RadialSVM score	0.188 (P = 2.08E-08)	0.233 (P = 2.51E-12)	0.254 (P = 1.84E-14)	0.492 (P = 2.33E-53)	0.516 (P = 6.04E-60)	0.473 (P = 2.46E-49)	0.268 (P = 2.29E-15)	0.275 (P = 8.71E-17)	0.398 (P = 1.97E-34)	0.409 (P = 4.23E-36)	
LR score	0.21 (P = 3.08E-10)	0.211 (P=2.74E-10)	0.272 (P = 1.96E-16)	0.548 (P = 1.82E-68)	0.603 (P = 9.85E-87)	0.621 (P = 5.02E-93)	0.344 (P = 5.86E-25)	0.303 (P = 3.77E-20)	0.646 (P = 6.66E-104)	0.852 (P = 5.43E-244)	0.634 (P = 3.56E-100)
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doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0104452.t003

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Table 4. Method comparisons for function prediction for non-synonymous mutations causing diabetes.

Methods	Missing Rate*	False Negative Rate	False Positive Rate**	мсс
PhyloP	0%	18%	53%	0.300
GERP++ RS	0%	21%	52%	0.281
SiPhy	0%	16%	51%	0.342
SIFT	13%	25%	39%	0.350
PolyPhen-2 HDIV	15%	9%	51%	0.447
PolyPhen-2 HVAR	15%	16%	42%	0.434
LRT	18%	7%	68%	0.324
MutationTaster	3%	3%	77%	0.333
Mutation Assessor	15%	30%	32%	0.362
FATHMM	14%	1%	95%	0.127
RadialSVM score	8%	5%	57%	0.474
LR score	8%	4%	69%	0.393

* The missing rate refers to the percentage of mutations that a method is inapplicable;

**The false positive rate was calculated by nonsynonymous single-nucleotide mutations in the diabetes genes acquired from the NHLBI GO Exome Sequencing Project (ESP) [33], the CHARGE Exome Sequencing Project [34,36], and the 1000 Genome Project [37], excluding mutations recorded in the HGMD database.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0104452.t004

[31] and PolyPhen (http://genetics.bwh.harvard.edu/pph2/ index.shtml) [32], are often used to assess the pathogenicity of a nonsynonymous mutation [27]. Because the limitations of *in silico* methods, the functional prediction of a nonsynonymous mutation lacks a gold standard. To date, a number of bioinformatics methods besides SIFT and PolyPhen, based on different algorithms, have been developed [1–3]. The purpose of this study is to compare the performances of different bioinformatics methods in the functional prediction of nonsynonymous mutations in each MODY gene, and to provide reference matrices to assist the molecular diagnosis of MODY.

Methods

Data source

The diabetes mutation data analyzed in this study were acquired from the Human Gene Mutation Database (HGMD) 2013.4 release (http://www.hgmd.org/) [30]. As the purpose of this study is to assess the prediction performances of different in silico methods for nonsynonymous single-nucleotide mutations, insertion/deletion mutations (InDels) are not included in this study. Altogether, 1,130 nonsynonymous single-nucleotide mutations from 24 genes have been reported causing MODY or neonatal diabetes. Among these genes, 7 genes harbor more than 30 single-nucleotide mutations within each gene with the total of 1,091 diabetes mutations (Table 1), while the other 17 genes harbor ≤ 6 diabetes mutations in each gene. To enable statistical comparisons of different in silico methods across different genes, those 17 genes with ≤ 6 diabetes mutations were not involved in this study. Among the 1,091 mutations, 155 mutations from the genes ABCC8, GCK, INS, or KCN111, have the phenotype of neonatal diabetes, either transient or permanent. The other 936 mutations in the 7 genes have the phenotype of MODY.

Control nonsynonymous single-nucleotide mutations in the diabetes genes were acquired from the NHLBI GO Exome Sequencing Project (ESP) [33,34], the ARIC samples [35] in the CHARGE Exome Sequencing Project [36], and the 1000 Genome Project [37], excluding mutations recorded in the HGMD database.

Functional prediction of nonsynonymous singlenucleotide mutations

Eleven methods, including PhyloP [38], GERP++ RS [39], SiPhy [40], SIFT [31], PolyPhen-2 [32], the likelihood ratio test (LRT) [41], MutationTaster [42], Mutation Assessor [43], FATHMM [44], RadialSVM score [3], and logistic regression (LR) score [3], were covered in the dbNSFP database [45,46] and compared in this study (Table 2). Among the 1,091 mutations involved in this analysis, 104 mutations from the genes GCK, HNF1A, HNF1B, HNF4A, and INS, are nonsense mutations, i.e. producing a pre-termination codon; two other mutations from the gene GCK replace a termination codon with an amino acid codon. For these mutations, the methods, PolyPhen-2 HDIV, PolyPhen-2 HVAR, MutationAssessor, FATHMM, Radial SVM score, LR score are not applicable to nonsense mutations or mutations assumed with highly damaging potential. Other methods, except MutationTaster, tend to have higher error rates (false negative rates, FNR), compared to the prediction of amino acid substitution mutations, i.e. SIFT FNR = 72%, GERP++ RS FNR = 40%, PhyloP FNR = 35%, SiPhy FNR = 26%, LRT FNR = 21%, and MutationTaster FNR = 3%, for the prediction of nonsense mutations. Compared with amino acid substitutions, the assessment of the functional effect of nonsense mutations tends to be less of an issue. The final analysis of this study involved 985 nonsynonymous single-nucleotide mutations. The quantitative performances of these methods were compared by the Spearman's rank correlation test [47] and the ANOVA test using the IBM SPSS Statistics 19 software ((IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). To re-define gene-specific thresholds of deleterious mutations, the receiver operator characteristic (ROC) analysis was calculated by the sensitivity and specificity values of screening series of cutoffs of each method for each gene. A redefined threshold was identified using the maximum Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) [48].

Results and Discussion

In our analysis, the prediction scores by different methods of the diabetes mutations are highly correlated (Table 3). The highest correlations are seen between RadialSVM score and LR score (r = 0.957), PolyPhen-2 HDIV and PolyPhen-2 HVAR (r = 0.89),

Table 5. Prediction score comparisons of diabetes mutations in different genes [Mean±Standard Deviation, N (Maximum/Percentile 75/Median/Percentile 25/Minimum)].

Methods	GCK(MODY2)	INS(MODY10)	KCNJ11(MODY13)	ABCC8(MODY12)	HNF1A(MODY3)	HNF1B(MODY5)	HNF4A(MODY1)	ANOVA P value	Overall
PhyloP	2.120±0.693, 437 (2.941/2.553/2.285/ 1.981/-0.445)	1.206±0.852, 38 (2.069/1.918/1.585/ 0.590/−1.023)	2.046±0.444, 61 (2.548/2.398/2.084/ 1.942/-0.009)	2.219±0.556, 64 (2.941/2.607/2.331/ 1.990/−0.403)	1.793±0.791, 283 (2.882/2.246/2.045/ 1.662/−3.003)	2.377±0.652, 28 (2.890/2.882/2.684/ 2.162/0.768)	1.894±0.841, 74 (2.814/2.481/2.282/ 1.226/−1.309)	1.02E-17	1.983±0.752,985 (2.941/2.449/2.167/ 1.807/-3.003/)
GERP++ RS	4.969±1.305, 437 (6.170/5.690/5.220/ 4.770/ –3.060)	2.353±1.724, 38 (4.020/3.580/2.800/ 1.853/-3.200)	4.807±0.862, 61 (5.430/5.290/5.160/ 4.570/-0.548)	5.135±0.803, 64 (6.170/5.490/5.310/ 4.993/0.768)	4.185±2.020, 283 (6.060/4.910/4.650/ 4.340/-12.100)	5.279±0.773, 28 (6.060/5.810/5.560/ 5.110/3.230)	4.591±1.862, 74 (5.930/5.400/5.160/ 4.328/−7.160)	1.55E-25	4.624±1.654, 985 (6.170/5.430/5.050/ 4.490/-12.100/)
SiPhy	$16.241 \pm 3.196, 437$ (20.490/18.618/16.477/ 14.725/2.501)	9.288±4.002, 38 (14.890/11.956/9.950/ 7.312/1.486)	15.732±2.899, 61 (19.243/18.636/15.481/ 13.607/6.945)	16.327±2.609, 64 (20.567/18.577/16.174/ 14.642/10.313)	13.956±3.649, 283 (19.609/16.972/14.016/ 12.608/0.949)	16.300±3.457, 28 (19.609/18.716/17.832/ 14.263/8.432)	15.254±4.259, 74 (20.336/18.810/15.601/ 12.647/2.815)	2.26E-37	15.218±3.738, 985 (20.567/18.332/ 15.716/13.607/0.949/)
SIFT	0.940±0.151, 383 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.970/0.000)	0.956±0.140, 32 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.360)	0.906±0.172, 52 (1.000/1.000/0.990/ 0.868/0.210)	0.888±0.204, 59 (1.000/1.000/0.990/ 0.875/0.000)	0.918±0.184, 242 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.933/0.000)	0.922±0.205, 27 (1.000/1.000/0.990/ 0.965/0.000)	0.921±0.168, 62 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.953/0.250)	0.247	0.927±0.169, 857 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.950/0.000/)
PolyPhen-2 HDIV	0.917±0.229, 389 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.988/0.000)	0.906±0.290, 32 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.998/0.009)	0.964±0.151, 52 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.996/0.004)	0.821±0.330, 58 (1.000/1.000/0.989/ 0.858/0.001)	0.870±0.269, 242 (1.000/1.000/0.999/ 0.920/0.000)	0.909±0.252, 27 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.999/0.000)	0.883±0.276, 63 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.995/0.019)	0.0247	0.897±0.253, 863 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.975/0.000/)
PolyPhen-2 HVAR	0.850±0.280, 389 (1.000/0.999/0.995/ 0.880/0.000)	0.893±0.292, 32 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.973/0.005)	0.925±0.174, 52 (1.000/1.000/0.998/ 0.957/0.016)	0.704±0.334, 58 (1.000/0.991/0.806/ 0.530/0.001)	0.781±0.319, 242 (1.000/0.999/0.980/ 0.589/0.000)	0.882±0.270, 27 (1.000/1.000/0.986/ 0.974/0.007)	0.821±0.324, 63 (1.000/0.999/0.994/ 0.896/0.002)	1.88E-04	0.826±0.297, 863 (1.000/0.999/0.992/ 0.793/0.000/)
LRT	0.999±0.005, 385 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.936)	0.971±0.137, 23 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.341)	0.994±0.046, 52 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.668)	1.000±0.003, 58 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.975)	0.994±0.029, 239 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.704)	1.000±0.000, 27 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.998)	0.997±0.012, 62 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.948)	5.86E-04	0.997±0.030, 846 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.341/)
Mutation- Taster	0.988±0.101, 428 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.001)	0.752±0.437, 32 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 0.764/0.000)	0.983±0.128, 61 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.000)	0.984 ±0.125, 64 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.000)	0.968±0.165, 266 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.000)	0.967±0.173, 28 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.087)	0.991±0.069, 66 (1.000/1.000/ 1.000/1.000/ 0.439)	3.53E-14	0.974±0.153, 945 (1.000/1.000/1.000/ 1.000/0.000/)
Mutation Assessor	0.720±0.086, 388 (0.837/0.796/0.734/ 0.674/0.442)	0.752±0.077, 30 (0.816/0.805/0.778/ 0.728/0.553)	0.660±0.085, 61 (0.802/0.715/0.666/ 0.605/0.464)	0.671±0.083, 64 (0.886/0.703/0.680/ 0.636/0.356)	0.638±0.054, 237 (0.697/0.679/0.655/ 0.619/0.434)	0.665±0.047, 27 (0.706/0.697/0.677/ 0.658/0.547)	0.707±0.106, 62 (0.887/0.788/0.732/ 0.661/0.434)	6.27E-36	0.688±0.087, 869 (0.887/0.757/0.685/ 0.641/0.356/)
FATHMM	0.587±0.030, 389 (0.683/0.604/0.583/ 0.560/0.541)	0.531±0.052, 32 (0.640/0.578/0.503/ 0.492/0.470)	0.531±0.020, 52 (0.563/0.546/0.534/ 0.522/0.479)	0.512±0.032, 58 (0.575/0.530/0.507/ 0.497/0.405)	0.577±0.037, 241 (0.685/0.603/0.576/ 0.546/0.494)	0.582±0.034, 27 (0.626/0.612/0.588/ 0.544/0.537)	0.542±0.042, 63 (0.612/0.556/0.550/ 0.537/0.408)	9.03E-73	0.570±0.042, 862 (0.685/0.598/0.571/ 0.547/0.405/)
RadialSVM score	0.663±0.034, 389 (0.685/0.680/0.673/ 0.661/0.393)	0.626±0.062, 32 (0.684/0.663/0.641/ 0.617/0.374)	0.598±0.120, 61 (0.682/0.671/0.649/ 0.588/0.234)	0.584±0.110, 64 (0.682/0.656/0.628/ 0.574/0.246)	0.644±0.066, 244 (0.725/0.678/0.671/ 0.639/0.275)	0.667±0.017, 27 (0.683/0.679/0.673/ 0.663/0.611)	0.628±0.104, 63 (0.682/0.679/0.672/ 0.658/0.274)	5.80E-22	0.644±0.072, 880 (0.725/0.679/0.670/ 0.646/0.234/)
LR score	0.945±0.061, 389 (0.996/0.982/0.964/ 0.937/0.495)	0.863±0.103, 32 (0.992/0.947/0.868/ 0.808/0.470)	0.778±0.235, 61 (0.966/0.915/0.881/ 0.755/0.110)	0.744±0.215, 64 (0.978/0.882/0.810/ 0.707/0.075)	0.892±0.127, 244 (0.994/0.970/0.926/ 0.871/0.149)	0.940±0.036, 27 (0.987/0.978/0.932/ 0.912/0.871)	0.856±0.201, 63 (0.989/0.956/0.934/ 0.900/0.153)	6.11E-38	0.895±0.143, 880 (0.996/0.971/0.944/ 0.879/0.075/)
doi:10.1371/jou	urnal.pone.0104452.t005								

Table 6. Cc	mparisons of th	e performance:	s of different m	ethods by MC(Cs [Average dif	ference (P val	ue)].				
Methods	FATHMM	LRT	GERP++ RS	SIFT	PhyloP	siPhy	Mutation Taster	Mutation Assessor	LR score	PolyPhen-2 HDIV	olyPhen-2 HVAR
LRT	0.061 (P=0.018)										
GERP++ RS	0.061 (P=0.346)	0.001 (P=0.991)									
SIFT	0.064 (P=0.303)	0.004 (P = 0.959)	0.003 (P=0.963)								
PhyloP	0.076 (P = 0.293)	0.015 (P = 0.837)	0.015 (P=0.452)	0.012 (P=0.843)							
SiPhy	0.113 (P=0.059)	0.052 (P=0.362)	0.052 (P=0.104)	0.049 (P = 0.473)	0.037 (P=0.382)						
Mutation- Taster	0.117 (P=0.056)	0.056 (P=0.317)	0.056 (P = 0.266)	0.053 (P=0.423)	0.041 (P=0.497)	0.004 (P= 0.889)					
Mutation Assessor	0.153 (P=0.012)	0.093 (P=0.106)	0.092 (P=0.16)	0.089 (P=0.127)	0.077 (P=0.267)	0.04 (P = 0.455)	0.036 (P=0.516)				
LR score	0.188 (P = 0.000174)	0.127 (P=0.013)	0.127 (P=0.081)	0.124 (P=0.063)	0.112 (P=0.143)	0.075 (P= 0.122)	0.071 (P=0.133)	0.035 (P = 0.404)			
PolyPhen-2 HDIV	0.21 (P = 0.00144)	0.149 (P=0.021)	0.148 (P = 0.00881)	0.145 (P=0.015)	0.134 (P=0.019)	0.097 (P= 0.019)	0.093 (P=0.056)	0.056 (P = 0.158)	0.022 (P=0.537)		
PolyPhen-2 HVAR	0.211 (P = 0.000444)	0.15 (P=0.0064)	0.15 (P=0.01)	0.147 (P=0.037)	0.135 (P=0.034)	0.098 (P= 0.01)	0.094 (P=0.026)	0.058 (P = 0.192)	0.023 (P=0.445)	0.001 (P=0.934)	
RadialSVM score	0.231 (P=0.0023)	0.17 (P=0.01)	0.17 (P=0.033)	0.167 (P=0.062)	0.155 (P=0.075)	0.118 (P= 0.05)	0.114 (P=0.073)	0.078 (P = 0.05)	0.043 (P=0.341)	0.021 (P=0.602)	0.02 (P=0.577)
doi:10.1371/jou	nal.pone.0104452.t00	J 6									

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and phyloP and GERP++ RS (r=0.871), while the other correlations have r<0.80. Therefore, in spite of the high statistical significance of correlations between different methods, different methods may not be able to replace each other except for the above three pairs. Especially, the FATHMM method has no obvious correlation with PhyloP, GERP++ RS, and LRT, while the correlation with MutationTaster is less significant. On the other hand, we observed significantly varied performances in detecting deleterious mutations by different methods (Table 4). Prediction errors by the *in silico* methods highlight the limitations of these methods and the need for cautious applications of the in silico prediction in data explanation. Among different methods, FATHMM has the lowest false negative rate (FNR = 1%), but also the highest false positive rate (FPR = 95%) [Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) = 0.127]. Considering the lack of correlation of FATHMM with the PhyloP, GERP++ RS, and LRT, caution should be taken when explaining the FATHMM results because of its high FPR and low MCC. The highest MCC scores were seen in the RadialSVM score (MCC = 0.474, FNR = 5%), PolyPhen-2 HDIV (MMC = 0.447, FNR = 9%), PolyPhen-2 HVAR(MCC = 0.434, FNR = 16%) and LR score (MCC = 0.393,FNR = 4%).

Our investigation further disclosed significant differences of the quantitative performances of different methods, except SIFT, across different genes (Table 5). Varied performances across genes highlight another aspect of limitation of these *in silico* methods. The distribution of the prediction scores presented in Table 5 may be able to serve as a matrix to assist the assessment of functional effects of new mutations in these diabetes genes.

The varied performances of these methods in different genes and the different scores of each method for different genes suggest that using gene-specific thresholds for deleterious mutations may improve the prediction performance of these *in silico* methods. We screened each gene and identified the gene-specific threshold with maximum MCC. Nonsynonymous single-nucleotide mutations in the diabetes genes from the NHLBI GO Exome Sequencing Project (ESP) [33,34], the ARIC samples [35] in the CHARGE Exome Sequencing Project [36], and the 1000 Genome Project [37], were used as controls without including mutations recorded in the HGMD database. Shown by our analysis (Table S1), we have been able to improve the prediction performance of each method in most cases, with the FATHMM method as an exception because of its nil/low FNRs in those diabetes genes. For example, the FNR of GERP++ RS for HNF4A mutations and the FNR of LRT for HNF1B mutations were decreased without any obvious change of their FPRs. On the other hand, redefined thresholds are able to decrease the FPRs of LRT for INS mutations, MutationTaster for ABCC8 mutations, LR score for INS mutations, LRT for ABCC8 mutations, MutationTaster for INS mutations, and MutationTaster for HNF1B mutations, without obviously increasing the FNRs. The general performances of different methods were summarized in Table 6. From low to high MCCs, the methods were sorted from left to right and from top to bottom. The average difference of MCCs and P value of each two methods was shown.

The varied performance of different methods in different genes is related to specific molecular mechanisms of diabetes mutations. For the 41 *INS* mutations involved in this study, 34 mutations cause neonatal diabetes. These mutations exert diabetic effects by causing misfolding of the insulin protein, rather than inactivating the gene [49,50]. The dominantly inherited mode of the disease is from dominant negative mechanism, instead of haploinsufficiency. The misfolded insulin protein interferes cellular processes, leading to severe endoplasmic reticulum stress and potentially β cell death by apoptosis [50]. In contrast, a heterozygous individual with one copy of inactivating *INS* mutation may still have a sufficient response to metabolic regulation, thus without neonatal diabetes. For the prediction of neonatal diabetes mutations in the *INS* gene, a protein structure-based prediction method may thus have better performance than others. In this study, we see that PolyPhen-2 with structure-based predictive features has better performance than the more sequence-based SIFT method (Table S1). Unlike other monogenic diabetes genes, the neonatal diabetes mutations in *ABCC8* and *KCNJ11* are gain-of-function mutations [51]. Sequence-based method like SIFT has also lower performance for these mutations than PolyPhen-2.

We acknowledge the current publication bias of diabetes mutations (i.e. the bias towards identifying and reporting diabetes-causing mutations in the general human population). The diabetes mutations have been identified by studies involving much larger number of human individuals, while the genome sequencing projects involved limited number of human subjects. For a disease-causing mutation, no matter its low frequency, as long as the mutation is identified, it will be included. For example, in the case of GCK and HNF1A genes, the numbers of reported diabetes mutations are much larger than control mutations (479 vs. 22, 324 vs. 78, respectively). We also want to emphasize the application of gene-specific mutations as functionally neutral controls. Our analysis showed that different methods using redefined thresholds by genome-wide control mutations, instead of gene-specific controls, tend to have poor performances (data available upon request). To acquire a satisfactory MCC tends to need a large number of both diabetes mutations and functional neutral mutations. The gene-specific prediction model proposed by our study will have further improved performance with the availability of sequencing data of a larger number of human individuals.

In conclusion, the available *in silico* methods for the prediction of diabetes mutations have varied performances across different genes. In spite of the high statistical significance of correlations between different methods, different methods may not be able to replace each other. Because of varied performances across genes, applying gene-specific thresholds when possible (i.e. for genes with a number of disease mutations identified and the ROC analysis feasible) may be able to increase the performance of prediction. For genes without sufficient numbers of mutations for the ROC analysis, a consensus threshold should be used [52]. Nevertheless, the limitations of the above methods warrant that new methods are being developed continuously. For example, Johansen et al. recently developed a sequence conservation-based artificial neural network predictor called NetDiseaseSNP [53]. Capriotti et al. developed a Meta-SNP algorithm for the detection of diseaseassociated nsSNVs, which integrates four different methods: PANTHER, PhD-SNP, SIFT and SNAP. They showed these methods are orthogonal with different biologically relevant relationships, and the integration of different methods achieved higher accuracy [54].

Supporting Information

Table S1 Method comparisons for gene-specific functionprediction for non-synonymous mutations causing diabetes.(XLS)

Acknowledgments

We apologize to all colleagues whose work could not be cited owing to space limitations.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: XL HQQ. Performed the experiments: QL XL HQQ. Analyzed the data: QL XL HQQ.

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Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: RAG EB CP. Contributed to the writing of the manuscript: QL XL CP HQQ.

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