Article

Mitochondrial-derived Peptide Single-nucleotide Polymorphisms Associated with Cardiovascular Complications in Type 2 Diabetes

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Abstract: Since the discovery of mitochondrial-derived peptides (*MDP*), their participation in cellular metabolism is no longer considered as the sole function of the mitochondria, but importance was also attached to its role as a source of protective factors of metabolic stress. These peptides are encoded in the mitochondrial genome and translated into the mitochondria or cytoplasm, to signal within the cell or be released and bind to membrane receptors. The objective of this work was explored and compare the frequency of *MT-RNR1* and *MT-RNR2* variants in sequences obtained from T2D individuals and control population. 213 different mitochondrial polymorphisms previously reported in the literature associated with T2D and cardiovascular diseases were analyzed. We can found three variants in the *MT-RNR1* not related with *MOTS-c* coding sequence: m.1189T>C (rs28358571), m.1420T>C (rs111033356), and m.1438A>G (rs2001030); and secondly, three polymorphisms associated to *MT-RNR2* m.2667T>C (rs878870626) related to *humanin*, m.1811A>G (rs28358576) in *SHPL3* and m.3027T>C (rs199838004) in *SHPL6* associated with statistical differences between the T2D and control group. All these findings were previously related to cardiovascular complications in literature and, as far as we know, relating for the first time in diabetic patients.

Keywords: mitochondria; Type 2 diabetes; MDP; MOTS-c; Humanin; SHLP

1. Introduction

Mitochondria play a central role in cellular energy metabolism and have essential functions, including the regulation of intracellular calcium, production and removal of reactive oxygen species, and regulation of cell death by apoptosis [1].

Mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress are largely involved in the cellular senescence process observed in malignant neoplasms, aging, and different neurodegenerative and cardiovascular diseases [2]. Although heart failure is multi-factorial, some studies have described an increased risk in diabetic patients, even after therapeutic control measures and prophylaxis for coronary artery disease and hypertension [3]. Multiple reports have implicated mitochondrial injury as a major player in the pathophysiology of diabetic heart disease [4–8].

Metabolic syndrome, beyond hyperglycemia related to peripheral insulin resistance in Type 2 diabetes (T2D), has also been associated with other metabolic abnormalities, which usually coexist and are often related, such as the re-distribution of body fat leading to a predominance of abdominal obesity and dyslipidemia. These conditions are usually associated with an increased risk of developing cardiovascular diseases [9], and have thus become a public health problem with a significant economic and social impacts in modern societies in the both developed and developing world [10–15].

Previous analyses have shown that the interaction of genetic variants and environmental factors contribute to the increasing status of metabolic syndromes [16,17]. Several lines of evidence have indicated the roles of oxidative stress and mitochondrial dysfunction in the pathogenesis of aging, including age-related metabolic and neurodegenerative diseases [1,3,9,18–21]. However, the basic mechanisms underlying the pathogenesis of metabolic syndromes and cardiovascular complications remain largely unknown.

Since the discovery of mitochondrial-derived peptides (*MDPs*), participation in the cellular metabolism is no longer considered the sole function of the mitochondria, but importance has also been attached to its role as a source of protective factors against metabolic stress, whether autocrine, paracrine, or endocrine. These peptides are encoded in the mitochondrial genome and translated into the mitochondria or cytoplasm, either for signaling within the cell or to be released and bind to membrane receptors. As *MDPs* can be detected in the blood, they have recently attracted attention as possible biomarkers of diverse pathologies, including cardiovascular diseases [22].

One of the first *MDPs* described was the mitochondrial open reading frame of 12s rRNA-c (*MOTS-c*), between positions 642 and 1888 of the sequence located within 51 bp of the region that codes for the mitochondrial ribosomal small sub-unit on the *MT-RNR1* gene. *MT-RNR1* transcribes for a peptide consisting of 16 amino acids with a structure similar to adiponectin, which has been implicated in the regulation of insulin sensitivity and metabolic homeostasis, with a special main action in muscle tissue [23].

MOTS-c promotes carbohydrate metabolism by glucose clearance and, when administered exogenously, improves carbohydrate tolerance, and decreases insulin resistance in obese mice. In humans, decreases in circulating levels of MOTS-c have been associated with obesity, insulin resistance, T2D, chronic kidney disease, and endothelial dysfunction [22].

Some polymorphisms in mitochondrial DNA could impact the function of *MDPs*. It has been described that the variant m.1382A>C (rs111033358) in the coding region of *MOTS-c* causes a replacement of amino acids K14Q (replacement of lysine to glutamine) in the peptide product of the expression of MOTS-c, a situation associated with an increased risk of T2D in male patients, dependent on the physical activity of the individual. Studies in mice have suggested that this mutation leads to inactivation of MOTS-c, contributing to the risk of T2D [22].

In previous cross-sectional clinical trials, it was shown that the expression of MOTS-c is down-regulated and decreased levels are presented in patients with T2D, correlated with plasma levels of HbA1c. This evidence supports the idea that mitochondrial dysfunction contributes to glycemic dysregulation and metabolic defects in diabetic individuals

[24]. In addition to the polymorphisms found in the reading frame of MT-RNR1 for this metabolism-regulating peptide, other *MDPs* have been associated with atherogenesis and dilated cardiomyopathy [25–31]. These data open the possibility regarding the relationship between these previously un-noticed sequences, which would have a great impact on the related pathophysiology; in particular, on the chronic complications described in the diabetic patient.

The objective of this work was to compare and explore the frequency of mitochondrial variants in the MT-RNR1 and MOTS-c regions in sequences obtained from T2D individuals and control population, in order to identify their relationship with cardiovascular complications.

2. Results

We identified 2663 complete mtDNA sequences from patients in the *NCBI Nucleotide* database, using the search criteria specified in the *Material and Methods* section and in supplementary figure S1, of which 1261 were sequences of individuals diagnosed with T2D and 1105 sequences were from control individuals. Most of the information was derived from the research of Li et al. (2014) (n = 2000), while the rest were from the works of Achilli et al. (2011) (n = 7), Soini et al. (2012) (n = 64), Tanaka et al. (2004) (n = 129), Loo et al. (2014) (n = 149), Maksum et al. (2010) (n = 5), and Vijaya et al. (2010) (n = 19) (Table S1) [32–37].

To determine the population origin, haplotyping results demonstrated different clades and sub-clades, broadly distributed in 37 haplogroups (Table 1). The most frequent group dominating the population with T2D was haplogroup H, with 502 individuals representing 39.8% of the population (Table S2), followed by haplogroup U, representing 12.7% (n = 161) of the population and haplogroups T, J, and K, who together represented 21.3% (n = 269) of the population. Haplogroups A, B, and C—usually associated with East Asian and Native American populations—corresponded to only 3.1% (n = 40) of individuals in the group with T2D.

Regarding the population with haplogroup H, the general results of the haplotyping are shown in Table S2. Haplogroup H was found to have the greatest number and presented the greatest diversity of clades (47 in total), with the most common being H1 and H2 (with 194 and 63 individuals, representing 38.6% and 12.5%, respectively).

Haplogroup U, with a population of 161 individuals representing 12.7% of the total diabetic population, was the next most prevalent group, with a diversity consisting of 8 different clades, although 60% of its population corresponded to clade U5 (Table Spl. 3).

Regarding haplogroup T, consisting of 108 individuals representing 8.5% of the diabetic population studied (Table S4), was structured into 2 clades, with most distributed in T2 (78.7%, n = 103).

Uncommon exotic sub-clades were found in haplotypes X, Y, and Z, together representing 1.8% of the total (Table Spl. 5). Haplogroups L4, L3 associated with the Afro-descendant population [38] were only found in three individuals, contributing only 0.2%, making it the least-represented haplogroup in the sample.

As for the two populations studied, most of the *MT-RNR-1* polymorphisms were found in all analyzed sequences, between m.663 A>G and m.1438A>G.

Table 1. Frequency distribution of the different haplogroups in diabetic and control cases.

Macrohaplogroup	[ALL] N=2366 (100%)	Controls N=1105 (46.7%)	T2D N=1261 (53.3%)
Haplogroups L			
L4	1 (0.08)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.08)
L3	2 (0.16)	0 (0.00)	2 (0.16)
Haplogroups M			
M (includes Q)	10 (0.86)	6 (0.54)	4 (0.32)
M7	48 (4.02)	19 (1.72)	29 (2.30)
M8 (includes C, Z)	9 (0.71)	0 (0.00)	9 (0.71)
M9 (includes E)	22 (1.80)	5 (0.45)	17 (1.35)
G	10 (0.84)	4 (0.36)	6 (0.48)
D	64 (5.32)	22 (1.99)	42 (3.33)
Haplogroups N			
N1 (includes I)	65 (5.52)	33 (2.99)	32 (2.54)
N2 (includes W)	33 (2.82)	18 (1.63)	15 (1.19)
N9 (includes Y)	16 (1.36)	8 (0.72)	8 (0.63)
A	13 (1.06)	3 (0.27)	10 (0.79)
X	31 (2.57)	10 (0.90)	21 (1.67)
Haplogroups R			
R (includes P)	7 (0.57)	1 (0.09)	6 (0.48)
R0 (includes HV, H, V)	1070 (90.36)	492 (44.52)	578 (45.84)
JT (includes J, T)	411 (34.96)	211 (19.10)	200 (15.86)
R9 (includes F)	43 (3.62)	19 (1.72)	24 (1.90)
В	49 (4.13)	22 (1.99)	27 (2.14)
U (includes K)	462 (39.23)	232 (21.00)	230 (18.24)

T2D: Type 2 diabetes.

In *MOTS-c,* the most frequent variant in both populations was m.1382A>C. In our analysis, *Humanin* was the most frequent gene with variation in both populations (T2D and controls), in the position m.2706A>G. In *SHLP2*, the frequent variants between both groups were m.2141 T>C and m.2158T>C. Regarding *SHLP3*, the most significant variants were between the polymorphisms m.1719G>A and 1811A>G. In *SHLP4*, the variant with the highest frequency in the group of diabetic individuals was m.2442T>C, compared to the control group (in which no frequency was observed). In SHLP5, the most frequent variant was m.2850 T>C and, finally, in *SHLP6*, the variants m.3010G>A and m.3027T>C were the most frequent in both groups of populations. Regarding *SHLP1*, no frequent variants were found between both populations.

In the control group, a lower number of polymorphisms in mitochondrial genome sequences were found; meanwhile, in the group of diabetic individuals, they were found more frequently (Table S6).

The coordinates of the *MT-RNR1* gene, located between positions 648 and 1601 with a sequence length of 954 bp, and the position of *MOTS-c*, between positions 1343 and 1393 with a sequence length of 51 bp, were established (Figure 1). In the *MT-RNR1* region, we identified 142 variants, of which the most frequent were m.750A>G (rs2853518) and m.1438A>G (rs2001030) between the diabetic population and the control group (Table 1).

Six variants differed between the T2D and control groups in the *MT-RNR1* gene, which were not associated to *MOTS-c* variants (Table 2).

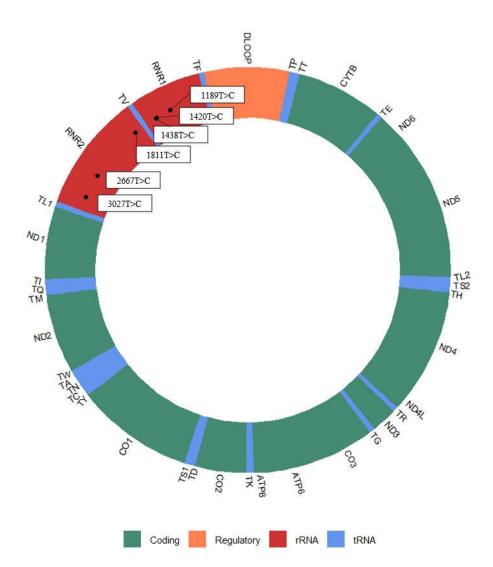


Figure 1. Position of polymorphisms associated with T2D in the human mitochondrial genome.

In the present investigation, 213 different mitochondrial polymorphisms previously reported in the literature as being associated with T2D [25–29,31] and cardiovascular diseases [26,30] were analyzed. In both groups, the most prevalent polymorphism was m.1438A>G (Table 2).

Regarding the identification of variants related to cardiovascular risk, three variants in the *MT-RNR1* not related to the *MOTS-c* coding sequence were identified: m.1189T>C (rs28358571), m.1420T>C (rs111033356), and m.1438A>G (rs2001030). These presented significant statistical differences between the T2D and control groups.

mtDNA region Genes (positions)	Polymorphism	NCBI dbSNP ID	Type 2 diabetes n=1,261	Controls n=1,105	Odds ratio (CI95%)	p
MT-RNR1 (648-1,601)						
	m.1189T>C	rs28358571	52(4.12)	68(5.39)	0.66 (0.46-0.96)	0.024*
	m.1420T>C	rs111033356	11(0.87)	1(0.09)	9.72 (1.89-177.74)	0.007*
	m.1438A>G	rs2001030	1,142(90.56)	1,071(96.92)	0.41 (0.26-0.61)	0.000*
MT-RNR2 Humanin (2,633-2,707)	m.2667T>G#	rs878870626	9(0.71)	1(0.09)	7.94 (1.49-146.47)	0.019*
SHLP3 (1,703-1,819)	m.1811A>G	rs28358576	121(9.59)	151(11.97)	0.67 (0.52-0.87)	0.001*
SHLP6 (2,990-3,052)	m.3027T>C	rs199838004	18(1.42)	6(0.54)	2.66 (1.11-7.37)	0.03*

Table 2. Polymorphisms in *MDP* sequences related to T2D and controls.

3. Discussion

The heart is one of the most energy-consuming organs in the human body; therefore, a subtle energy deficit can rapidly induce contractile dysfunction. The uninterrupted generation of ATP depends on the continuous supply of oxygen and fuel substrates, as well as the integrity of oxidative phosphorylation, which produces virtually all of the ATP in the heart [39,40]. Although the heart can change its substrate preference, depending on the particular situation (i.e., related to the workload, oxygen supply, and hormones), its main energy substrate is fatty acids, estimated at between 60–70% of the total consumption. For this reason, due to their high energy demand, cardiomyocytes have a relatively larger number of mitochondria, compared to other cells [41,42].

Due to insulin resistance in T2D, the diabetic heart presents a higher rate of fatty acid oxidation. Previous studies have shown increased expression of the nuclear receptor transcription factors PPAR $\alpha/\delta/\beta$. PPARs are important transcriptional regulators of fatty acid uptake and oxidation. In fact, PPAR α regulates most of the enzymes involved in fatty acid oxidation. PPAR α -knockout mice have been shown to have a reduced rate of fatty acid oxidation. Interestingly, over-expression of cardiac-specific PPAR α significantly reduced enzymes involved in mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation [43-45].

Experimental insights into genes for myocardial fatty acid utilization in both human and animal models, considering cardiac myofibers with progressive heart failure, described reduced fatty acid oxidation with a greater dependence on glucose metabolism in patients with compensated dilated cardiomyopathy [46]. As heart failure progresses, myocardial insulin resistance develops [47,48], further compromising the versatility of substrate use and increasing metabolic stress on the heart. Importantly, chronic heart failure patients with decreased systemic insulin sensitivity have a worse prognosis [49–52].

In particular, increased β-oxidation of fatty acids can be detrimental, as it requires more oxygen and generates a large amount of ROS. Interestingly, diabetic animals showed reduced cardiac efficiency, with increased myocardial oxygen consumption (VO2) associated with increased fatty acid β -oxidation [53–59]. The increased demand for oxidant fatty acids and reduced cardiac efficiency may contribute to contractile dysfunction in the diabetic heart. Furthermore, altered substrate flexibility and change in oxygen consumption may potentially contribute to increased mortality after ischemic injury in diabetic patients [60,61].

The results in type 2 diabetes and controls are n(%)

^{*}X' test with one liberty degree, p < 0.05#On the analysis only found N (any Nucleotide A, C, G, or T with non-gap)

Mitochondrial oxygen consumption is normally closely related to ATP synthesis (through the electron transport chain). The energy produced during electron transfer is used to create an electrochemical gradient by pumping protons from the mitochondrial matrix into the inter-membrane space. These protons generally re-enter the matrix by ATP synthase/complex V (proton pump) and generate ATP from ADP. However, it is sometimes possible for protons to bypass the ATPase system and re-enter the matrix through the use of uncoupling proteins, such as UCP-1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 [55,62,63].

This bypass system results in oxygen consumption that is not coupled to ATP production [64–66]. Mitochondrial uncoupling in experimental mouse heart models has previously been shown [67], with increased respiration in the presence of oligomycin (an ATP synthase inhibitor) and increased leakage of protons from isolated cardiac mitochondria. Adding guanosine diphosphate, an inhibitor of UCPs, resulted in restoration of proton leak, strongly suggesting that the increased uncoupling was UCP-mediated. A second potential mediator of mitochondrial uncoupling is the adenine nucleotide translocator [68–72]. Various studies in animal and human models have frequently demonstrated mitochondrial damage at different levels in the diabetic myocardium [1,19,73–80].

Dysfunctional mitochondria can cause increased ROS production and the release of factors that favor cell death, such as cytochrome C (an apoptosis-inducing factor) and Smac/DIABLO (the second activator of caspases) [21,74,81,82], and the induction of pyroptosis, characterized by activation of the inflammasome through the activation of caspase 1 and pro-inflammatory cytokines [83–85], although this sub-type of programmed cell death has previously been associated with infection by intracellular pathogens. Various ROS scavengers or antioxidants reduced cardiomyocyte death and attenuate diabetic heart injury in experimental animal models [81,86]. All of these cell destruction systems associated with mitochondrial dysfunction are apparently controlled by mechanisms related to non-coding RNA and epigenetic regulation [2,39,83,87,88].

Recent evidence has suggested that cardiac dysfunction in patients with T2D is related to metabolic abnormalities and more often associated with mitochondrial dysfunction. T2D and obesity—the major metabolic disorders—are characterized by elevated levels of circulating free fatty acids, resulting in increased cardiac fatty acid uptake, storage, and metabolism [44,89–95].

T2D has been reported to be heritable in 72% of individuals, with a higher incidence in women [96]. Notably, although there are forms of diabetes that are directly caused by mutations in mtDNA, these are extremely rare. Genetic analyses have revealed that mtDNA polymorphisms contribute to an increased risk of T2D in populations such as Asian and European populations, as these polymorphisms vary according to the population group analyzed [97].

Maternally inherited mtDNA consists of 16,569 base pairs in the average human and encodes 13 respiratory chain proteins, while the more than 70 remaining sub-units are encoded by the nuclear genome. In addition, mtDNA encodes 2 ribosomal RNAs and 22 tRNAs required for mitochondrial protein synthesis. mtDNA is more prone to mutation than nuclear DNA, resulting in variations that are used as a tool in population genetics, biological anthropology and forensic genetics. Certain polymorphisms mark branching points in the evolutionary phylogeny of the various human groups and define specific population haplogroups with common origins. Certain mtDNA haplogroups have been associated with susceptibility to various diseases, but also with beneficial traits such as longevity. Certain mtDNA polymorphisms have been postulated to decrease or increase the permeability of the mitochondrial respiratory chain and the production of harmful reactive oxygen species. In addition, some slightly harmful polymorphisms can produce subtle changes in the translation, replication, or production of mtDNA regulatory elements [33].

The segregation of mtDNA variants during cell division in individuals who inherit a low proportion from their mother and who—depending on epigenetic and environmental factors—favor their replication and the proportion within the heteroplasmic diversity of copies with polymorphisms associated with the disease, may cross a critical threshold that

could be a risk factor for complex diseases such as T2D. It has been proposed that recent evolutionary "bottlenecks" may lead to an over-representation of minor mtDNA alleles in the population and the emergence of risk factors related to population-specific diabetes [98].

Preliminary studies using machine learning and artificial intelligence methodologies with various cardiac risk biomarkers in T2D patients have determined statistically significant relationships between single-nucleotide variants in mtDNA that were associated with diabetes [110], specifically the polymorphism m.73A>G (rs869183622) located in variable segment 2 of the control region (MT-HV2), as well as m.16126T>C (rs147029798) and m.16362T>C (rs62581341), both located in the variable segment of the control region (MT-HV1).

Other variants associated with coding regions of the mitochondrial genome have been described as important in various metabolic mechanisms, through the expression of small peptides of less than 100 amino acids, of which eight different variants have been identified so far, which are all related to each other. *MDPs*, as they have been called, are susceptible to metabolic stress and promote an adaptive response to it. They have been studied in the context of metabolic functions and in association with cardiovascular diseases [99–101]. These include *MOTS-c* (mitochondrial open reading frame of the twelve rRNA-c) and the currently re-classified *MT-RNR1* gene, the former of which transcribes for a peptide consisting of 16 amino acids, with a structure similar to adiponectin, transcribed from a functional open reading frame of 51 bp located in the region that codes for the mitochondrial ribosomal small sub-unit (between positions 642 and 1888 of the sequence). Among its multiple functions, it has been implicated in the regulation of insulin sensitivity and metabolic homeostasis, with a special main action in muscle tissue [101].

By inducing over-expression of *MOTS-c* in cell cultures, this peptide promotes carbohydrate metabolism by glucose clearance and, when administered exogenously, improves carbohydrate tolerance and decreases insulin resistance in obese mice. In humans, decreased circulating levels of MOTS-c have been associated with obesity, insulin resistance, T2D, chronic kidney disease, and endothelial dysfunction [22].

In the *MT-RNR1* gene, the m.1189T>C variant (with identification code rs28358571 in *NCBI dbSNP* database *https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/snp/*) have previously been classified as benign and not related to any disease [102–104]; furthermore, m.1420T>C (as rs111033356) has also been classified as benign [34,105–108], while the m.1438A>G variant (with identification code rs2001030) has been shown to produce an increased risk of T2D development in Japanese populations [109,110].

With respect to the variants found in *MT-RNR2*, m.1438A>G was found to have a statistical difference between group, indicated as the only polymorphism found in our research related to previous reports. Otherwise, m.2667T>G (as rs878870626), m.1811A>G (as rs28358576) and m.3027T>C (as rs199838004) found in *MT-RNR2* gene have not been reported previously in *ClinVar*, and they have not been related with any known human diseases.

4. Materials and Methods

4.1. Study design and Data processing

An analytical cross-sectional study was designed. Based on complete mitochondrial genome sequences available in the *NCBI Nucleotide* database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore), to identify sequences we used Booleans and keywords in the following search string: ((015400[SLEN]:016700[SLEN]) AND Homo [Organism] OR Homo sapiens [organism]) AND mitochondrion [FILT] AND ("Type 2 diabetes" OR "non-insulin dependent diabetes" OR diabetes OR T2D). In this way, we filtered and selected complete mitochondrial sequences. Once the sequences were identified in the database, the metadata associated with each sequence was explored, in order to validate the place of origin, which should correspond to the *Homo sapiens* species, having a length of 16569 ± 10 base pairs, and whether the sequences corresponded to patients with diabetes or to

controls (i.e., patients without comorbidities who did not have diabetes), eliminating those that do not correspond to inclusion criteria. In case of doubts regarding any metadata, the authors contacted those responsible for obtaining the sequences.

4.2. Bioinformatic Analysis

For identification of haplogroups and polymorphisms of the selected sequences, we used the *Genebank* sequence number to determine the haplotype, while polymorphisms were identified using *MITOMASTER* (http://www.mitomap.org/foswiki/bin/view/MITO-MASTER), from which a database was built with the identified polymorphisms. The criteria for the classification of the different haplogroups can be seen in more detail in the Phylotree database (http://www.phylotree.org/) [111]. In addition, for the construction of the database, the alignment of sequences was carried out in the UCSC Genome Browser (https://genome.ucsc.edu), in order to analyze the presence of the polymorphisms of interest in each of the sequences manually, recording deletions, insertions, and substitutions when compared to the rCRS reference sequence.

The methodology used to obtain and process the sequences is summarized in Supplementary Figure S1. To explore the coding regions of *MDP*, the positions in the genomic coordinates of the region of interest were established using the sequence information available in *GenBank* (*NCBI Reference Sequence*) with ID number NC_012920.1 for *MT-RNR1* and in the European Nucleotide Archive with ID number KP715230 for *MOTS-c*. The files were downloaded in *FASTA* format and aligned with the reference genome using the *BLAT* tool in the *UCSC Genome Browser*. All the genomic sequences obtained in the search were aligned and analyzed using the genomic browser at the positions of the *MT-RNR1* gene, which transcribes for 12sRNA and is located at coordinates 648–1601, where *MOTS-c* was explored at position 1343–1393; and, for the *MT-RNR2* gene, which transcribes for 16s RNA and is located at coordinates 1669–3231, *HUMANIN* was explored at position 2633–2707, *SHLP1* at 2485–2559, *SHLP2* at 2088–2168, *SHLP3* at 1703–1819, SHLP4 at 2442–2522, *SHLP5* at 2780–2854, and *SHLP6* at 2990–3052.

The variants associated with cardiovascular risk in diabetic patients described by Pinti et al. (2019) [110] and the obtained information were combined with the information on 52 different variants related to cardiovascular diseases published by Dabravolski et al. (2022) [28] and Volobuena et al. (2019) [26].

4.3. Statistical analysis

For the statistical analysis, we used *R Studio* https://www.rstudio.com/ and the *R* software version 4.2.1 https://cran.r-Project.org/. For the descriptive analysis, the polymorphisms were presented as absolute and relative frequencies. For bivariate analysis, we evaluated the association of polymorphisms with the presence or absence of T2D through the Chi-square test. To assess the strength of association, we used generalized linear models of the Poisson family with the log link function, and crude prevalence ratios and odds ratios with their respective 95% confidence intervals (95% CIs) were calculated. Values of p < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

5. Conclusions

MDP variants in T2D patients were associated with statistical differences, when compared to non-diabetic individuals. In the *MT-RNR1* gene, we found three variants not associated with *MOTS-c*; while, in *MT-RNR2*, the polymorphism m.2667T>C related to *humanin* and m.3027T>C in *SHPL6* were associated with T2D. Of the 213 different mitochondrial polymorphisms previously reported in the literature to be associated with T2D and cardiovascular diseases, in our analysis, we found that most prevalent single-nucleotide variant was m.1438A>G; however, m.1420T>C had a higher association, based on the odds ratio estimation. We believe that, in the end, it is not possible to conclude on the existence of either a relationship or an association, due to the small sample (n) used in our study. Other main questions to explore include whether mitochondrial polymorphisms in

diabetic patients associated with these cardiovascular risk variants in T2D individuals are a cause or an effect.

Supplementary Materials: Figure S1. Methodology and bioinformatics pipeline; Table S1: Variants and related references; Table S2, Haplogroup H analysis; Table S3, Haplogroup U analysis; Table S4, Haplogroup T analysis; Table S5, Haplogroups X, Y, and Z analysis; Table S6, Polymorphisms comparative analysis.

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