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Highly Parallel and Short-Acting Amplification with Locus-Specific Primers to Detect Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms by the DigiTag2 Assay

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Abstract

The DigiTag2 assay enables analysis of a set of 96 SNPs using Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase with a new protocol that has a total running time of about 7 hours, which is 6 hours shorter than the previous protocol. Quality parameters (conversion rate, call rate, reproducibility and concordance) were at the same levels as when genotype calls were acquired using the previous protocol. Multiplex PCR with 192 pairs of locus-specific primers was available for target preparation in the DigiTag2 assay without the optimization of reaction conditions, and quality parameters had the same levels as those acquired with 96-plex PCR. The locus-specific primers were able to achieve sufficient (concentration of target amplicon $\geq$5 nM) and specific (concentration of unexpected amplicons $<$2 nM) amplification within 2 hours, were also able to achieve detectable amplifications even when working in a 96-plex or 192-plex form. The improved DigiTag2 assay will be an efficient platform for screening an intermediate number of SNPs (tens to hundreds of sites) in the replication analysis after genome-wide association study. Moreover, highly parallel and short-acting amplification with locus-specific primers may thus facilitate widespread application to other PCR-based assays.

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Introduction

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is a commonly used technique in molecular biology. Several previously developed methods have employed multiplexed PCR in order to analyze genomic variations such as microsatellites or short tandem repeats (STRs), single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and insertions/deletions [1–3]. Multiplexed preparation of DNA templates in a single reaction is cost-effective, saving starting materials and run-time, while requiring careful optimization of assay conditions. The optimization process is highly empirical and time consuming, and depending on the combinations of markers, may or may not lead to successful assay development. For the conventional design of multiplex PCR, optimization of reaction conditions and careful pre-selection of targets are required in order to prevent excessive off-target priming by the numerous primers in the reaction. Moreover, the risk of generating errors in multiplex PCR, such as insufficient amplification, biased amplification and considerable primer-dimer formation within primers, tends to increase roughly as the square of the number of added primer pairs [4].

There are several approaches to resolving these drawbacks, including solid-phase assay formats (glass slide arrays, microbeads), oligonucleotides containing locked nucleic acid (LNA) residues and circularized amplification. Primers immobilized on the surface of the solid phase appear to markedly increase product yield on solid supports and may avoid the need for target pre-selection with a modification to enrich the input genomic DNA via a crude solution-phase multiplex PCR [5,6]. LNA pentamers showed high priming efficiency to achieve small biased priming in multiplex PCR [7]. Circularized amplification avoids generating artifacts associated with conventional multiplex PCR where two primers are used for each target [8]. This procedure was shown to perform a 96-plex amplification of an arbitrary set of specific DNA sequences. The arrayed primer extension-based genotyping method (APEX-2) allows efficient homogeneous 640-plex DNA amplification with locus-specific primers [9]. These approaches show effective consequences for multiplex amplification, however, a small number of approaches are practically used in the field of molecular genetics, presumably due to its cost and time consuming steps in preparation.

We developed the DigiTag2 assay for multiplex SNP typing as a simple and cost effective approach by combining multiplex PCR to enrich genetic regions including the target SNPs and an oligonucleotide ligation assay to encode all of the SNP genotypes into well-designed oligonucleotides designated DNA coded numbers (DCNs) [10]. For an effective primer design for multiplex PCR, there are several important physical properties for primer sequences, including melting temperature, Gibbs energy of duplex between primer and template, and interactions between primers and PCR amplicons. The DNA polymerase enzyme used in a multiplex PCR is one of the important factors for a successful unbiased amplification.

The DigiTag2 assay is a suitable approach to analyze an intermediate number of SNPs (tens to hundreds of locus) in the replication study after genome wide association study [11–12]. However, the most time consuming step for the DigiTag2 assay in a total running time of 13 hours is multiplex PCR for target preparation (5.5 hours). Here, we report an improved protocol for the DigiTag2 assay with a short-acting multiplex PCR through the use of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase, which reduces total running time and increases assay throughput. In this study, we also validate the applicability of the 192-plex PCR with locus specific primers to amplify the target regions from genomic DNA, which leads to save genomic DNA samples.

Methods

DNA samples

Genomic DNA samples from 96 unrelated healthy donors were obtained from the Japan Health Science Research Resources Bank (Osaka, Japan). All donors provided written informed consent and samples were anonymized. One microgram of purified genomic DNA was dissolved in 100 µl of TE buffer (pH 8.0) (Wako, Osaka, Japan), followed by storage at −20°C until use.

Primer design

A total of 192 pairs of primer were designed using the Visual OMP software version 7.1.0.0 (DNA software, Ann Arbor, MI, USA) with relatively long length (35–45-mer; average, 39.5-mer) to give amplicon sizes between 312 bp and 995 bp (average, 589 bp), each of which had an SNP site (Table S1). Prediction of DNA melting temperature was calculated using nearest-neighbor thermodynamic models. To avoid spurious amplification products, we employed a two-step protocol (denature and extension steps) using specifically designed primer pairs with an extension temperature at 68°C. The specificity of primer sequences was verified by Blat search in order to predict its location(s) on the human genome (GRCh37), and to confirm no unexpected SNP(s) within the primer sequence. The specificity of primer pairs was verified using MFE primer software, which can predict potential amplicon(s) generated from the human genome (GRCh37, up to 5 kb in amplicon size) [13]. All oligonucleotides (de-salted, 100 pmol/µl in TE (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA)) were purchased from Life Technologies (Carlsbad, CA, USA), and were stored at −20°C.

Multiplex PCR with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase

Multiplex PCR mix had a final volume of 10 µl, including 10 ng of genomic DNA, 25 nM each primer, 1.5× KAPA2G Buffer (including 2.25 mM Mg^{2+}), an additional 2.25 mM Mg^{2+} (final concentration of Mg^{2+}: 4.5 mM), 0.2 mM dNTPs and 0.4 U of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase (Kapa Biosystems, Woburn, MA, USA). PCR amplification was conducted using a TGradient (Biometra, Göttingen, Germany) or PTC-225 (MJ Research, Waltham, MA, USA) as follows: 95°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and 68°C for 2 min. When necessary, the fragment length of PCR products was confirmed by capillary electrophoresis (Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer, Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) in order to evaluate PCR efficiency. The total running times for multiplex PCR with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase using TGradient and PTC-225 were 1 h 48 min 55 s and 2 h 6 min 59 s, respectively.

Multiplex PCR with QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit

Multiplex PCR mix had a final volume of 10 µl, including 10 ng of genomic DNA, 25 nM each primer, 1× Multiplex PCR Buffer (including 3.0 mM Mg^{2+}), 0.2 mM dNTPs and HotStar-Taq DNA polymerase (QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit; QIAGEN, Valencia, CA, USA). PCR amplification was conducted using a TGradient or PTC-225 as follows: 95°C for 15 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 30 s and 68°C for 6 min. The total running times for multiplex PCR with QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit using TGradient and PTC-225 were 5 h 27 min 53 s and 5 h 46 min 39 s, respectively.

96-plex genotyping by the DigiTag2 assay

The DigiTag2 assay performs multiplex SNP typing by encoding all of the SNP genotypes into well-designed oligonucleotides, designated DNA coded numbers (Figure 1, DCNs: D1_i, ED-1 and ED-2) [10]. The DCNs are assigned to the target SNPs in an unconstrained manner; therefore, the DNA chips prepared to read out the types of DCNs are universally available for any type of SNP without optimization of assay conditions. The DigiTag2 assay proceeds in four steps; target preparation, encoding, labeling and detection.

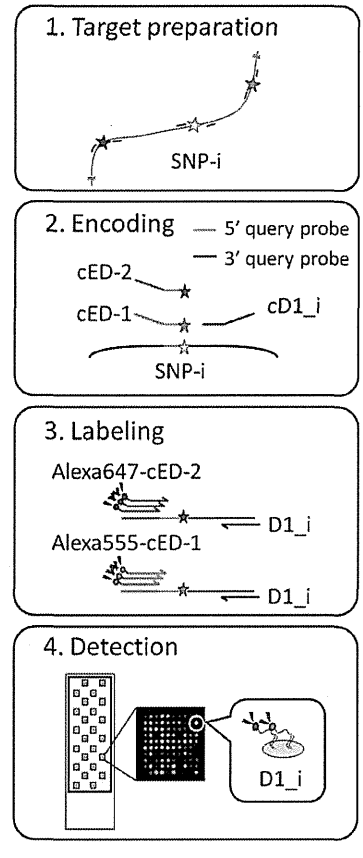

Figure 1. Schematic representation of the DigiTag2 assay. The assay has four steps: target preparation, encoding, labeling and detection. SNP genotypes are encoded into well-designed oligonucleotides, designated DNA coded numbers (DCNs: D1_i, ED-1 and ED-2). D1_i is a variable sequence assigned to each SNP. Reverse complement sequences are written by attaching the character 'c' before the sequence name.
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The encoding reactions had a final volume of 15 µl, including 0.5 µl of multiplex PCR products, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6, 25 mM potassium acetate, 10 mM magnesium acetate, 10 mM DTT, 1 mM NAD, 0.1% Triton X-100 (1× Taq DNA ligase buffer) with 0.33 nM of each probe and 5 U Taq DNA ligase (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). Encoding reactions were conducted using a TGradient or PTC-225 under the following conditions: 95°C for 5 min, followed by 58°C for 15 min. The reaction was stopped by holding the temperature at 10°C.

The labeling reactions had a final volume of 12 µl, including 6 µl of ligation products, 0.5 µM each labeled primer (Alexa555-cED-1 and Alexa647-cED-2), 2.5 nM each D1 primer (D1_i), 50 mM KCl, 2 mM Mg^{2+}, 0.1 mM DTT, 0.2 mM each dNTP (N = A, G, C), 0.1 mM [^{3}H]-dTTP, 0.25 mg/ml activated salmon sperm DNA (1× *Ex Taq* Buffer) and 0.05 U of *Ex Taq*™ polymerase (TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan). Labeling reactions were conducted using a TGradient or PTC-225 under the following conditions: first held at 95°C for 1 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 55°C for 6 min and 72°C for 30 s. The reaction was stopped by holding the temperature at 10°C. Total running times for labeling using TGradient and PTC-225 were 3 h 49 min 48 s and 4 h 8 min 48 s, respectively.

In the detection step, a hybridization mixture was prepared by mixing 6.25 µl of labeling products with 8.75 µl of hybridization buffer containing 0.5× SSC, 0.1% SDS, 15% formamide, 1 mM EDTA and 3.125 fmol of hybridization control (Alexa555-labeled D1_100 and Alexa647-labeled D1_100). The hybridization control was prepared for ensuring the hybridization step. Ten microliters of hybridization mixture was applied to each block on the universal DNA chip. Hybridization was carried out for 30 min at 37°C in a hybridization oven (ThermoStat plus; Eppendorf, Ham, Germany). After hybridization, glass slides were washed in washing buffer (0.1× SSC, 0.1% SDS) by shaking at 60 rpm for 3 min. Glass slides were consecutively washed in distilled water by shaking at 60 rpm for 1 min and then dried up by centrifugation at 500× g for 1 min. Hybridization images were scanned at photomultiplier voltages of 400 V for Alexa555 and 480 V for Alexa647 using a commercially available DNA chip scanner and fluorescence image analysis was performed using commercially available software (GenePix 4000B unit and GenePix Pro 4.1 software package; Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA).

Labeling with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase

The labeling reactions with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase had a final volume of 12 µl, including 6 µl of ligation products, 0.5 µM each labeled primer (Alexa555-cED-1 and Alexa647-cED-2), 2.5 nM each D1 primer (D1_i), 1.5× KAPA2G Buffer (including 2.25 mM Mg^{2+}), an additional 2.25 mM Mg^{2+} (final concentration of Mg^{2+}: 4.5 mM), 0.2 mM dNTPs and 0.4 U of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase. Labeling reactions were conducted using a TGradient or PTC-225 under the following conditions: first held at 95°C for 1 min, followed by 30 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 55°C for 120 s and 72°C for 5 s. The reaction was stopped by holding the temperature at 10°C. The total running times for labeling using TGradient and PTC-225 were 1 h 29 min 48 s and 1 h 48 min 34 s, respectively.

Results

Singleplex PCR using 192 pairs of locus-specific primers

Singleplex PCR was conducted under the same reaction condition with multiplex PCR using 25 ng of genomic DNA to ensure target amplicon detection and to confirm the emergence of extra bands (unexpected amplicons). Singleplex PCR with 192 pairs of locus-specific primers revealed that most of the primer pairs are able to achieve sensitive detection (concentration of target amplicon ≥5 nM) and specific amplification without extra bands (concentration of unexpected amplicons <2 nM) except for 14 pairs of primers; low sensitivity (<5 nM) for 5 pairs of primers (61, 99, 102, 189 and 191) and low specificity with extra bands (≥2 nM) for 9 pairs of primers (40, 56, 62, 70, 91, 106, 149, 173 and 174) (Figure 2 and Table S2). Five pairs among the 9 low-specific primer pairs with extra bands (62, 70, 149, 173 and 174) resulted from heteroduplex formation of target amplicons during polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Despite the presence of extra bands, the remaining 4 pairs of low-specific primers had a target amplicon with a detectable concentration ≥5 nM.

Validation of efficacy of 192-plex PCR by 96-plex genotyping with the DigiTag2 assay

The DigiTag2 assay enables the simultaneous analysis of 96 target SNPs in: (1) multiplex PCR with locus-specific primers to amplify target genomic regions including target SNPs; (2) multiple oligonucleotide ligation assay with locus-specific probes to determine the genotype of each SNP; and (3) hybridization to the universal DNA chip tethered with probe sequences identical to D1_i (23-mer) (Figure 1) [10]. The validity of 192-plex PCR was assessed with 96 individual DNAs (population control samples) by comparing two sets of 96-plex genotype calls acquired from 96-plex PCR with those from 192-plex PCR (Table 1).

Conversion rate shows the proportion of successfully genotyped SNPs with fewer than 3 undetected samples after excluding low-quality genotyping data, which had more than 5 undetected SNPs in a total of 96 SNPs. However, the composition of failed SNPs in genotyping was not identical, and the conversion rate showed no differences between 192-plex PCR and 96-plex PCR. For the 1st set of 96 SNPs, 7 SNPs among 10 failed SNPs were matched between 192-plex PCR and 96-plex PCR, and for the 2nd set, 8 SNPs among the 9 failed SNPs were matched. The average call rate for successfully genotyped SNPs was over 99.79% for both sets of 96-plex genotyping, even if 192-plex PCR products were adopted for target preparation. Reproducibility was determined by independent genotyping with 96 individuals twice. As a consequence, four discordant genotype calls were observed in the duplicated genotyping data. Concordance of genotype calls between 192-plex PCR and 96-plex PCR was determined using 6,290 genotype calls for the 1st set and 7,884 genotype calls for the 2nd set. Consequently, 14,171 out of 14,174 genotype calls were matched by comparison with 83 SNPs for the 1st set and 86 SNPs for the 2nd set. In total, 3 discordant genotype calls were observed (Figure 3).

Short-acting multiplex PCR by use of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase

Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase was employed to perform multiplex PCR with the locus-specific primers for target preparation in genotyping with the DigiTag2 assay. To optimize reaction conditions with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase, singleplex PCR was conducted using 25 ng of genomic DNA with three randomly chosen pairs of locus-specific primers. The designed amplicon sizes for the three pairs of primers were 501 bp, 671 bp and 492 bp. We performed singleplex PCR using a two-step protocol (denature and extension steps) with varied extension periods (15 s, 30 s, 60 s and 120 s) and with varied Mg^{2+} concentrations (3.0 mM and 4.5 mM) (Figure 4). The most sensitive detection and highest levels of amplification for the three

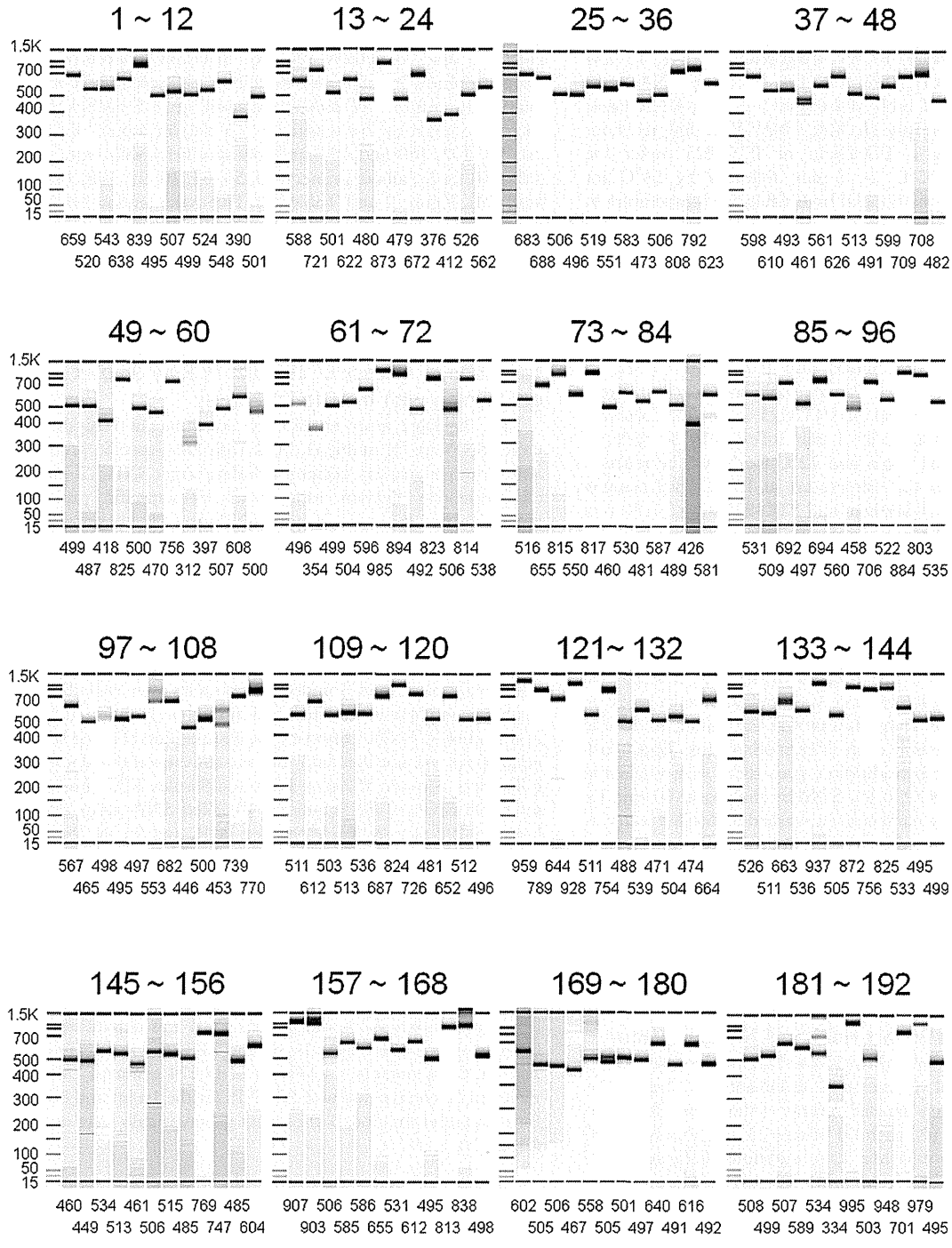

Figure 2. Electropherogram of singleplex PCR products with 192 pairs of locus-specific primers. The designed amplicon size is depicted below each lane.
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pairs of primers were observed with 120 s for the extension period and 4.5 mM for the Mg^{2+} concentration. The total running time for multiplex PCR with locus-specific primers was less than 2 hours, which is about 3 h 30 min shorter than the previous protocol (see MATERIALS AND METHODS).

The total running time of the DigiTag2 assay was markedly reduced when the labeling step was also conducted using Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase instead of *Ex Taq* polymerase. When the DigiTag2 assay was conducted with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase for multiplex PCR and labeling step, the total running time of the assay was about 7 hours, which is about 6 hours shorter than the previously used protocol in combination with QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit for multiplex PCR and *Ex Taq* polymerase for the labeling step.

Table 1. Validation of efficacy of 192-plex PCR by 96-plex genotyping.

		192-plex PCR	96-plex PCR
1st set	Conversion rate	86/96 SNP	86/96 SNP
	Call rate	99.84% (7,728/7,740 genotype)	99.81% (6,695/6,708 genotype)
	reproducibility	99.99% (7,288/7,289 genotype)	100% (6,121/6,121 genotype)
	concordance	99.98% (6,289/6,290 genotype)	
2nd set	Conversion rate	87/96 SNP	87/96 SNP
	Call rate	99.79% (8,074/8,091 genotype)	99.79% (8,161/8,178 genotype)
	reproducibility	99.97% (7,792/7,794 genotype)	99.99% (7,712/7,713 genotype)
	concordance	99.97% (7,882/7,884 genotype)	

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0029967.t001

Table 2 summarizes the quality parameters (conversion rate, call rate, reproducibility and concordance) when genotyping was conducted with 192-plex PCR or 96-plex PCR by use of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase. The conversion rate was slightly decreased when multiplex PCR was conducted in 192-plex form. However, the conversion rates were better than those observed when multiplex PCR was conducted with the QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit. The composition of failed SNPs in genotyping was not consistent for the 1st set of 96 SNPs, in which 4 SNPs were matched between 192-plex PCR and 96-plex PCR. For the 2nd set, a total of 8 failed SNPs in the 96-plex PCR were completely matched to those in the 192-plex PCR. When the composition of failed SNPs were compared between Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase and QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit, the 1st set had 5 matched SNPs in a total of 8 failed SNPs for 192-plex PCR, and 4 matched SNPs in 5 failed SNPs for 96-plex PCR. From the 2nd set, 5 SNPs in a total of 9 failed SNPs were matched when 192-plex PCR was conducted and 4 SNPs in a total of 8 failed SNPs were matched when 96-plex PCR was conducted. The average call rate for successfully genotyped SNPs was over 99.76% for both sets of 96-plex genotyping, even if 192-plex PCR products were adopted for target preparation. The reproducibility was 100% for the 2nd set; however, three discordant genotype calls were observed for the 1st set. With regard to the concordance of genotype calls between 96-plex PCR and 192-plex PCR, only one discordant genotype call was observed in the comparison for the 1st set, and no discordant genotype calls were observed in the 2nd set.

Table 3 shows the concordance rate in comparison with the genotype calls by the use of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase or QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit for multiplex PCR. For the 1st set, there were 4 discordant genotype calls with 96-plex PCR and 8 discordant genotype calls with 192-plex PCR. For the 2nd set of 96 SNPs, there was one discordant genotype call in genotyping with 96-plex PCR and 192-plex PCR.

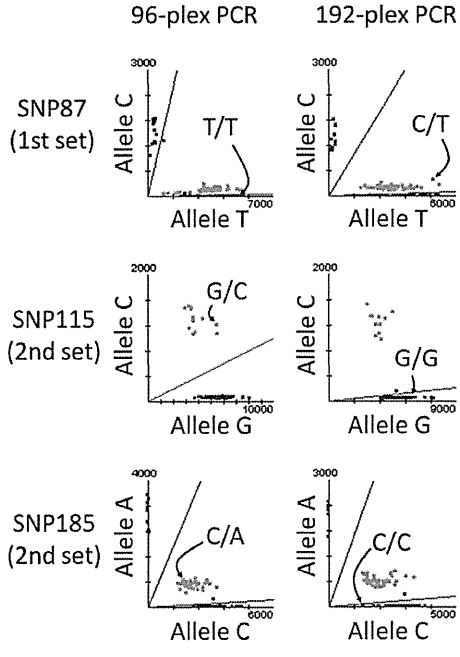

Figure 3. Scatter plots for three SNPs with 3 discordant genotypes. Scatter plots in genotyping with 192-plex PCR and 96-plex PCR are depicted side-by-side. The genotypes of discordant samples are indicated in the scatter plots by arrows.
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Discussion

The locus specific primers sufficiently worked in a multiplex form under the same reaction conditions without any optimization processes, either 96-plex PCR or 192-plex PCR. We also found that either 96-plex PCR or 192-plex PCR could be accomplished within two hours through the use of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase. The total running time of the DigiTag2 assay was shortened by 6 hours over the original 13-hour long protocol using Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase for both multiplex PCR and the labeling step. The quality parameters (conversion rate, call rate, reproducibility and concordance) observed in genotyping with the new protocol were the same as those observed in the original protocol using QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit for multiplex PCR and *Ex Taq* polymerase for the labeling step. The DigiTag2 assay worked with a conversion rate of over 93.2% (179 / 192 SNPs), average call rate of over 99.80% (16,789/16,823 genotypes) and reproducibility of over 99.99% (16,135/16,136 genotypes) using 96-plex PCR under the new protocol. The composition of successfully genotyped SNPs was different when the genotype calls were acquired using the different polymerases (Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase and QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit), which would result from a varying amplification bias in multiplex PCR. We also found that 192-plex PCR with locus-specific primers worked in 96-plex genotyping with the DigiTag2 assay, giving the same quality parameter data as those observed in genotyping with 96-plex PCR. However, the

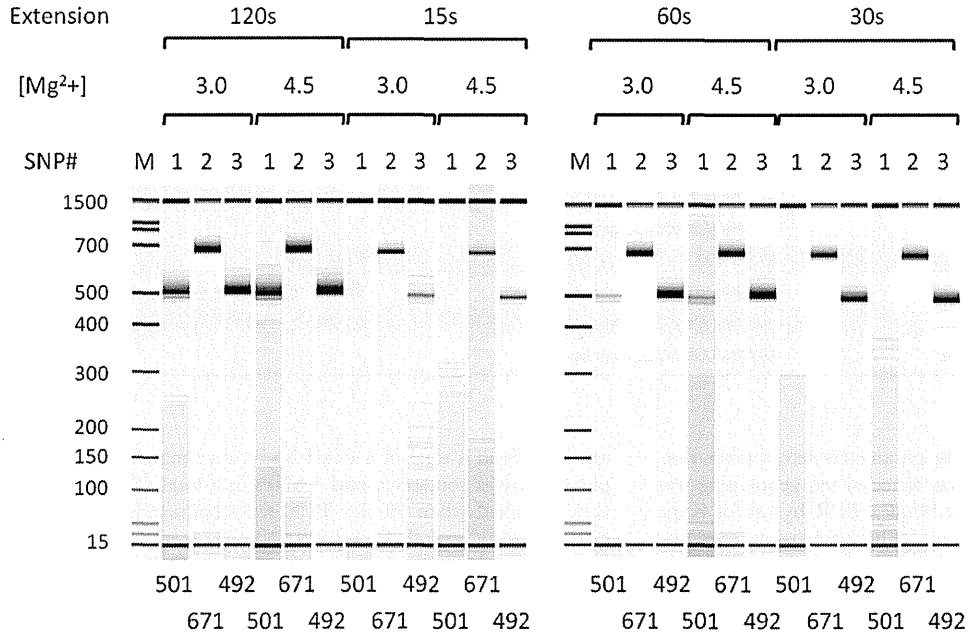

Figure 4. Electropherogram of singleplex PCR products using Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase. Singleplex PCR was performed with varied extension periods (15 s, 30 s, 60 s and 120 s) and with varied Mg^{2+} concentrations (3.0 mM and 4.5 mM) using three pairs of locus-specific primers. The designed amplicon size is depicted below each lane.
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composition of successfully genotyped SNPs was not consistent between 192-plex PCR and 96-plex PCR, which may be explained by changing the interactions between primer pairs in 192-plex PCR and in 96-plex PCR. The composition of successful SNPs was not consistent when using different polymerases or multiplex systems in the multiplex PCR, which casts some shadows on the reliability of the assay. Regardless of the existing shadows, indeed, 96-plex and 192-plex PCR work with a high conversion rate in genotyping over 93.2%. To clear the existing shadows, it is necessary to continuously accumulate genotyping data.

In this study, fifteen discordant genotype calls were in total observed in the comparison of genotype calls with: i) duplicated genotyping data; ii) genotyping data by use of 192-plex PCR and 96-plex PCR; and iii) genotyping data with different types of polymerases (Table S3). Table S3 shows the genotype calls acquired 8 times under different conditions. All fifteen discordant genotype calls were analyzed with direct sequencing, of which 13 genotype calls were determined. In 8 of 15 discordant genotype calls, the genotype calls were completely different depending on the type of polymerase. The genotype calls acquired using Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase were 100% concordant (6 of 6) with those acquired by direct sequencing. This suggests that SNP allelic bias in PCR amplification readily occurred with the QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit; however, the error rate in genotyping was only 0.04% (6 out of 14,886 genotypes). The remaining 7 discordant genotype calls were randomly observed in 1 out of 8 different conditions. This shows that the random error rates were almost equal in the genotype data acquired with both types of polymerases (4 out of 62,227 genotypes for QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit and 3 out of 66,008 genotypes for Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase).

Among the five low-sensitivity primer pairs found on singleplex PCR (61, 99, 102, 189 and 191), no amplicons were detected by primer pair 189 and low concentrations (<5 nM) of amplicon were detected by the 4 other primer pairs (Table S2). Therefore, the SNP189 failed in genotyping, independently of the type of

Table 2. Validation of efficacy of 192-plex and 96-plex PCR with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase.

		192-plex PCR	96-plex PCR
1st set	Conversion rate	88/96 SNP	91/96 SNP
	Call rate	99.84% (8,259/8,272 genotype)	99.76% (8,443/8,463 genotype)
	reproducibility	99.97% (8,069/8,071 genotype)	99.99% (8,339/8,340 genotype)
	concordance	99.99% (7,982/7,983 genotype)	
2nd set	Conversion rate	87/96 SNP	88/96 SNP
	Call rate	99.91% (8,171/8,178 genotype)	99.83% (8,346/8,360 genotype)
	reproducibility	100% (7,705/7,705 genotype)	100% (7,796/7,796 genotype)
	concordance	100% (8,161/8,161 genotype)	

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Table 3. Concordance of genotype calls between Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase and QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit.

		Kapa 2G QIAGEN
1st set	96-plex PCR	99.94% (6,513/6,517 genotype)
	192-plex PCR	99.89% (7,441/7,449 genotype)
2nd set	96-plex PCR	99.99% (7,778/7,779 genotype)
	192-plex PCR	99.99% (7,700/7,701 genotype)

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polymerase and multiplicity in multiplex PCR (192-plex or 96-plex). However, the SNP191, which was amplified by primer pair 191, was successfully genotyped only when the QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit was used for the multiplex PCR. The concentration of amplicon amplified by primer pair 99 was the same as the 2.8 nM observed with the amplicon amplified by primer pair 191. SNP99, which was amplified by primer pair 99, was successfully genotyped independently of polymerase type and multiplicity in multiplex PCR (192-plex or 96-plex). These results suggest that the sensitivity in genotyping with Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase was lower than the previously used protocol with QIAGEN Multiplex PCR Kit. These results would be explained by a biased amplification with the shortened protocol using Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase, which tends to lead to a consequent biased genotyping. However, the investigated number of primer pairs would not be sufficient to decide the sensitivity in genotyping; therefore, it is necessary to continuously accumulate genotyping data. As the investigated number of primer pairs was only 192 (384 primers) in this study, melting temperature of each primer and the number of potential amplicons predicted by the MFE primer software were strongly associated with low sensitivity and low specificity in an amplification, respectively (multiple regression analysis, $P = 1.26 \times 10^{-37}$ and $P = 1.52 \times 10^{-21}$, respectively).

Through the use of Kapa 2GFast HotStart DNA polymerase, the genotype calls for 96 SNPs can be acquired in about 7 hours by the DigiTag2 assay. The genotyping platform with high conversion rate plays an important role for the replication studies to identify the disease associated genes from candidate loci found in the GWAS (genome-wide association study). The DigiTag2 assay with an improved protocol will be an efficient platform for screening an intermediate number of SNPs (tens to hundreds of sites) in the replication studies. Because of limitations in the variation of DNA coded numbers (DCNs), 192-plex genotyping is not available for the current DigiTag2 assay. However, 192-plex PCR can save genomic DNA samples and time for target preparation. Moreover, 192-plex PCR is also available for direct-sequencing and other PCR-based assays to amplify the target regions from genomic DNA.

Supporting Information

Table S1 Sequence information of 192 pairs of locus specific primer.
(XLSX)

Table S2 Results of singleplex PCR with 192 pairs of locus specific primer.
(XLSX)

Table S3 The 15 discordant genotype calls in 8 different conditions.
(XLSX)

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: NN KT. Performed the experiments: YM MS. Analyzed the data: NN YM MS. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: NN YM MS. Wrote the paper: NN KT.

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RESEARCH ARTICLE Open Access

No association for Chinese HBV-related hepatocellular carcinoma susceptibility SNP in other East Asian populations

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Abstract

Background: A recent genome-wide association study (GWAS) using chronic HBV (hepatitis B virus) carriers with and without hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) in five independent Chinese populations found that one SNP (rs17401966) in *KIF1B* was associated with susceptibility to HCC. In the present study, a total of 580 HBV-derived HCC cases and 1351 individuals with chronic hepatitis B (CHB) or asymptomatic carrier (ASC) were used for replication studies in order to evaluate the reported association with HBV-derived HCC in other East Asian populations.

Results: We did not detect any associations between rs17401966 and HCC in the Japanese cohorts (replication 1: OR = 1.09, 95 % CI = 0.82-1.43; replication 2: OR = 0.79, 95 % CI = 0.54-1.15), in the Korean cohort (replication 3: OR = 0.95, 95 % CI = 0.66-1.36), or in the Hong Kong Chinese cohort (replication 4: OR = 1.17, 95 % CI = 0.79-1.75). Meta-analysis using these cohorts also did not show any associations with P = 0.97.

Conclusions: None of the replication cohorts showed associations between rs17401966 and HBV-derived HCC. This may be due to differences in the genetic diversity among the Japanese, Korean and Chinese populations. Other reasons could be the high complexity of multivariate interactions between the genomic information and the phenotype that is manifesting. A much wider range of investigations is needed in order to elucidate the differences in HCC susceptibility among these Asian populations.

Keywords: Hepatitis B, hepatocellular carcinoma, candidate SNP, replication study, genome-wide association study

Background

Hepatitis B (HB) is a potentially life-threatening liver infection caused by the hepatitis B virus (HBV), and approximately 360 million people worldwide are thought to be chronically infected with HBV. The clinical course of HBV infection is variable, including acute self-limiting infection, fulminant hepatic failure, inactive carrier state and chronic hepatitis with progression to cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). Although some HBV carriers spontaneously eliminate the virus, 2-10 % of individuals with chronic HB (CHB) develop liver cirrhosis every year, and a subset of these individuals suffer from liver failure or HCC. Around 600,000 new HCC cases are diagnosed annually worldwide, with HCC being relatively common in Asia-Pacific countries and sub-Saharan Africa; more than 70 % of HCC patients are diagnosed in Asia (with 55 % in China) [1]. However, HCC is relatively uncommon in the USA, Europe and Australia [1,2]. The majority of HCC develops in patients with cirrhosis, which is most often attributable

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to chronic HBV infection followed by chronic HCV in the Asia-Pacific region [3].

A recent genome-wide association study (GWAS) using Japanese CHB cases and controls confirmed that 11 SNPs in a region including *HLA-DPA1* and *-DPB1* were associated with CHB [4]. Moreover, a GWAS using chronic HBV carriers with and without HCC in five independent Chinese populations reported that one SNP (rs17401966) in *KIF1B* was associated with HCC susceptibility [5]. In the present study, we performed replication studies using Japanese, Korean and Hong Kong Chinese cases and controls in order to evaluate the reported association with HBV-derived HCC in other East Asian populations.

Results

We performed SNP genotyping of rs17401966 located in the *KIF1B* gene for the purpose of replication analysis of the previous GWAS report [5]. Four distinct cohorts were used for these replication analyses (Table 1). We first examined two independent Japanese case–control samples including 179 cases and 769 controls from Biobank Japan (replication 1), and 142 cases and 251 controls from various hospitals (replication 2). We did not detect any associations between rs17401966 and HCC in the Japanese cohorts (replication 1: OR = 1.09; 95 % CI = 0.82-1.43, replication 2: OR = 0.79; 95 % CI = 0.54-1.15). We further examined Korean case–control samples comprising 164 cases and 144 controls (replication 3) and Hongkongese 94 HCC cases and 187 CHB controls (replication 4), but again did not detect any association (replication 3: OR = 0.95; 95 % CI = 0.66-1.36, replication 4: OR = 1.17; 95 % CI = 0.79-1.75). Logistic regression analysis adjusted for age and gender also did not show any association (P_{log} = 0.65, 0.27, 0.11, 0.56 for each replication panel). Moreover, we conducted meta-analysis to combine these studies, also not detect any association (P_{meta} = 0.97).

Discussion and conclusions

Zhang et al. [5] reported that SNP rs17401966 was significantly associated with HBV-related HCC (joint OR = 0.61). They conducted a GWAS using 348 cases and 359 controls in a population in Guangxi in southern China, and selected 45 SNPs for the replication study based on the results ($P < 10^{-4}$). In the first replication study, they used 276 cases and 266 controls from Beijing in northern China, and 5 SNPs showed the same direction of association as in the GWAS ($P < 0.05$). They performed a further replication study (of 507 cases and 215 controls) in Jiangsu in eastern China and only one SNP showed the same trend ($P = 3.9 \times 10^{-5}$). Guangdong and Shanghai samples from southern and eastern China were used for further replication studies. The association yielded a p-value of 1.7×10^{-18} on meta-analysis.

We performed four replication analyses using Japanese, Korean and Hong Kong Chinese samples (Table 1). Although sample size of each cohort is smaller than that of the previous GWAS, we conducted mete-analysis of all our study. The result did not show any association between rs17401966 and HBV-derived HCC (P_{meta} = 0.97).

This may be due to differences in genetic diversity among Japanese, Korean and Chinese populations. A maximum-likelihood tree of 126 populations based on 19,934 SNPs showed that Japanese and Korean populations form a monophyletic clade with a 100 % bootstrap value [6]. However, Chinese populations form a paraphyletic clade with two other populations. This indicates that Japanese and Korean populations are genetically closer to one another than the Chinese population.

Table 1 Association between rs17401966 and HBV-derived HCC

cohort	sample size	cases			controls				OR		
	(cases/controls)	GG	AG	AA	GG	AG	AA	HWE p	(95 % CI)	P [a]	P_{het} [b]
replication 1	179/769	13	61	105	45	261	463	0.599	1.09	0.578	
(Japan 1)		(7.2)	(34.1)	(58.7)	(5.9)	(33.9)	(60.2)		(0.82-1.43)		
replication 2	142/251	5	46	91	14	91	146	1	0.79	0.212	
(Japan 2)		(3.5)	(32.4)	(64.1)	(5.6)	(36.2)	(58.2)		(0.54-1.15)		
replication 3	164/144	17	59	88	15	55	74	0.616	0.95	0.790	
(Korea)		(10.4)	(36.0)	(53.6)	(10.4)	(38.2)	(51.4)		(0.66-1.36)		
replication 4	94/187	10	39	44	13	80	94	0.767	1.17	0.432	
(Hong Kong)		(10.6)	(41.5)	(46.8)	(6.9)	(42.8)	(50.3)		(0.79-1.75)		
Meta-analysis [c]									0.996	0.965	0.423
									(0.84-1.18)		

[a]P value of fisher's exact test for allele model.
[b]Result of Breslow-Day test.
[c]Results of meta-analysis were calculated by the Mantel-Haenzel method.

We did not find any association with Hong Kong Chinese cohort (P = 0.43). Moreover, a study using 357 HCC cases and 354 HBV-positive non-HCC controls in Hong Kong Chinese did not show any significant difference (P = 0.91) [7]. Previous population studies have revealed that various Han Chinese populations show varying degrees of admixture between a northern Altaic cluster and a southern cluster of Sino-Tibetan/Tai-Kadai populations in southern China and northern Thailand [6]. Although Hong Kong is located closed to the Guangdong (cohort 3 of Zhang et al study), there is great heterogeneity for rs17401966 between Hong Kong cohorts (our study and Chan's study [7]) and Guangdong cohort (our study versus Zhang's study: $P_{het} = 0.0066$; Chan's study versus Zhang's study: $P_{het} = 0.035$). This result suggests the existence of other confounding factors, which can differentiate the previous study in China and this study.

One of the possible reasons could be the high complexity of multivariate interactions between the genomic information and the phenotype that is manifesting. HCC development is a multiple process which links to causative factors such as age, gender, environmental toxins, alcohol and drug abuse, higher HBV DNA levels, and HBV genotype variations [8]. The eight HBV genotypes display distinct geographical and ethnic distributions. Genotypes B and C are prevalent in Asia. Specific variations in HBV have been associated with cirrhosis and HCC. These variations include in particular mutations in pre-core region (Pre-C), in basal core promoter (BCP) and in ORF encoding Pre-S1/Pre-S2/S and Pre-C/C. Because there is an overlap between Pre-C or BCP mutations and genotypes, these mutations appear to be more common in genotype C as compared to other genotypes [9].

Aflatoxins are a group of 20 related metabolites and Aflatoxin B1 is the most potent naturally occurring chemical liver carcinogen known. Aflatoxin exposures multiplicatively increase the risk of HCC in people chronically infected with HBV, which illustrates the deleterious impact that even low toxin levels in the diet can have on human health [10–12]. Liu and Wu estimated population risk for aflatoxin-induced HCC around the world [13]. Most cases occur in sub-Saharan Africa, Southeast Asia and China, where populations suffer from both high HBV prevalence and largely uncontrolled exposure to aflatoxin in food. But we could not obtain the information of these confounding factors from both of the previous GWAS study and this study. A much wider range of investigations is thus needed in order to elucidate the differences in HCC susceptibility among these Asian populations.

Methods

Samples

Case and control samples used in this study were collected from Japan, Korea and Hong Kong listed in supplementary Additional file 1: Table S1. A total of 179 cases and 769 control subjects were analyzed in the first replication study. DNA samples from both CHB controls and HBV-related HCC cases used in this study were obtained from the BioBank Japan at the Institute of Medical Science, the University of Tokyo [14]. Among the BioBank Japan samples, we selected HBsAg-seropositive CHB patients with elevated serum aminotransferase levels for more than six months, according to the guidelines for diagnosis and treatment of chronic hepatisis from The Japan Society of Hepatology (http://www.jsh.or.jp/medical/gudelines/index.html). The mean (and standard deviation; SD) age was 62.0 (9.4) years for the cases and 54.7 (13.5) years for the controls. The second Japanese replication sample sets for the cases (n = 142) and controls (n = 251) study were obtained from 16 hospitals. The case samples for the second replication included 142 HCC patients and the controls included 135 CHB patients and 116 asymptomatic carriers (ASC). The mean (SD) age was 61.3 (10.2) years for the cases and 56.2 (10.9) years for the controls. The Korean replication samples were collected from Yonsei University College of Medicine. The third replication set was composed of 165 HCC patients and 144 CHB patients. The mean (SD) age was 52.2 (8.9) and 37.3 (11.3) years for the cases and controls, respectively. The samples in Hong Kong were collected from the University of Hong Kong, Queen Mary Hospital. The fourth replication set was composed of 94 HCC patients and 187 CHB patients. The mean (SD) age was 58.0 (10.5) and 56.9 (8.3) years for the cases and controls, respectively. All participants provided written informed consent. This research project was approved by the Research Ethics Committees at the Institute of Medical Science and the Graduate School of Medicine, the University of Tokyo, Yonsei University College of Medicine, the University of Hong Kong, Nationa Center for Global Health and Medicine, Hokkaido University Graduate School of Medicine, Teine Keijinkai Hospital, Iwate Medical University, Saitama Medical University, Kitasato University School of Medicine, Musashino Red Cross Hospital, Kanazawa University Graduate School of Medicine, Shinshu University School of Medicine, Nagoya City University Graduate School of Medical Sciences, Kyoto Prefectural University of Medicine, National Hospital Organization Osaka National Hospital, Kawasaki Medical College, Tottori University, Ehime University Graduate School of Medicine, and Kurume University School of Medicine.

SNP Genotyping

For the first replication samples, we genotyped rs17401966 using PCR-based Invader assay (Third Wave Technologies, Madison, WI) [15], and for the second, third and fourth replication samples, we used TaqMan genotyping assay (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, CA). In the TaqMan SNP

genotyping assay, PCR amplification was performed in a 5-μl reaction mixture containing 1 μl of genomic DNA, 2.5 μl of KAPA PROBE FAST qPCR Master Mix (Kapa Biosystems, Woburn, MA), and 40 x TaqMan SNP Genotyping Assay probe (ABI) for this SNP. QPCR thermal cycling was performed as follows: 95°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and 60°C for 1 min. The SNP call rate of each replication panel was 100 %, 100 %, 99.7 % and 99.6 %.

Statistical analysis

We performed Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium test for the case and control samples in each replication study. Fisher's exact test was applied to two-by-two contingency tables for three different genetic models; allele frequency, dominant and recessive model. Odds ratios and confidence intervals were calculated using the major alleles as references. Meta-analysis was conducted using the Mantel-Haenszel method. Heterogeneity among studies was examined by using the Breslow-Day test. Genotype-phenotype association for the SNP rs17401966 was assessed using logistic regression analysis adjusted for age and gender in plink 1.07 (http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/~purcell/plink/index.shtml).

Additional file

Additional file 1: Table S1. Samples used in this study.

Abbreviations

HB: Hepatitis b; HBV: Hepatitis b virus; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; CHB: Chronic hepatitis b; HCV: Hepatitis c virus; GWAS: Genome-wide association study; ASC: Asymptomatic carrier.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Genome-Wide Association Study Confirming Association of HLA-DP with Protection against Chronic Hepatitis B and Viral Clearance in Japanese and Korean

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Abstract

Hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection can lead to serious liver diseases, including liver cirrhosis (LC) and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC); however, about 85–90% of infected individuals become inactive carriers with sustained biochemical remission and very low risk of LC or HCC. To identify host genetic factors contributing to HBV clearance, we conducted genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and replication analysis using samples from HBV carriers and spontaneously HBV-resolved Japanese and Korean individuals. Association analysis in the Japanese and Korean data identified the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes with $P_{meta} = 1.89 \times 10^{-12}$ for rs3077 and $P_{meta} = 9.69 \times 10^{-10}$ for rs9277542. We also found that the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes were significantly associated with protective effects against chronic hepatitis B (CHB) in Japanese, Korean and other Asian populations, including Chinese and Thai individuals ($P_{meta} = 4.40 \times 10^{-19}$ for rs3077 and $P_{meta} = 1.28 \times 10^{-15}$ for rs9277542). These results suggest that the associations between the *HLA-DP* locus and the protective effects against persistent HBV infection and with clearance of HBV were replicated widely in East Asian populations; however, there are no reports of GWAS in Caucasian or African populations. Based on the GWAS in this study, there were no significant SNPs associated with HCC development. To clarify the pathogenesis of CHB and the mechanisms of HBV clearance, further studies are necessary, including functional analyses of the HLA-DP molecule.

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Introduction

Overall, one-third of the world's population (2.2 billion) is infected with hepatitis B virus (HBV), and about 15% of these are chronic carriers. About 75% of the chronic carriers live in the east-south Asia and east pacific area, and there are 1.3–1.5 million chronic carriers living in Japan [1]. Of chronic carriers, 10–15% develop liver cirrhosis (LC), liver failure and hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), and the remaining individuals eventually achieve a state of nonreplicative infection, resulting in hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) negative and hepatitis B core antibody (anti-HBc) positive, i.e. HBV-resolved individuals [2–3]. In Japan, although the major route of HBV transmission was perinatal transmission and horizontal transmission in early childhood, infant HBV carriers have successfully been reduced since 1986 through a selective vaccination policy by the Japanese government [4–7]. However, the prevalence of HBV genotype A in acute HBV (AHB) infection has increased markedly since 2000, reaching approximately 52% in 2008 due to the lack of a universal HB vaccination, and around 10% of AHB cases could be persistent infection [8–9]. Viral factors, as well as host factors, are thought to be associated with persistent HB infection.

In 2009, significant associations between chronic hepatitis B (CHB) and a region including *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* were identified using 786 Japanese individuals having CHB and 2,201 control individuals through a two-stage genome-wide association study (GWAS) [10]. The same group was also subjected to a second GWAS using a total of 2,667 Japanese persistent HBV infection cases and 6,496 controls, which confirmed significant associations between the *HLA-DP* locus and CHB, in addition to associations with another two SNPs located in the genetic region including the *HLA-DQ* gene [11]. The associations between *HLA-DP* variants with HBV infection were replicated in other Asian populations, including Thai and Han Chinese individuals [10,12–13]. With regard to HBV clearance, the association between the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) class II allele and clearance of HBV was confirmed by the candidate gene approach in African, Caucasian and Asian populations [14–18]. However, in a previous GWAS using samples of Japanese CHB and control individuals, the clinical data on HBV exposure in the control individuals were unknown, and this may have led to bias. Moreover, there have been no reports of GWAS using samples from HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals to identify host genetic factors associated with HBV clearance other than HLA class II molecules.

Here, we performed a GWAS using samples from Japanese HBV carriers, healthy controls and spontaneously HBV-resolved individuals in order to confirm or identify the host genetic factors related to CHB and viral clearance. In the subsequent replication analysis, we validated the associated SNPs in the GWAS using two independent sets of Japanese and Korean individuals. In our study, healthy controls were randomly selected with clinically no evidence of HBV exposure, therefore, HBV-resolved individuals were prepared to clearly identify the host genetic factors related with CHB or HBV clearance.

Results

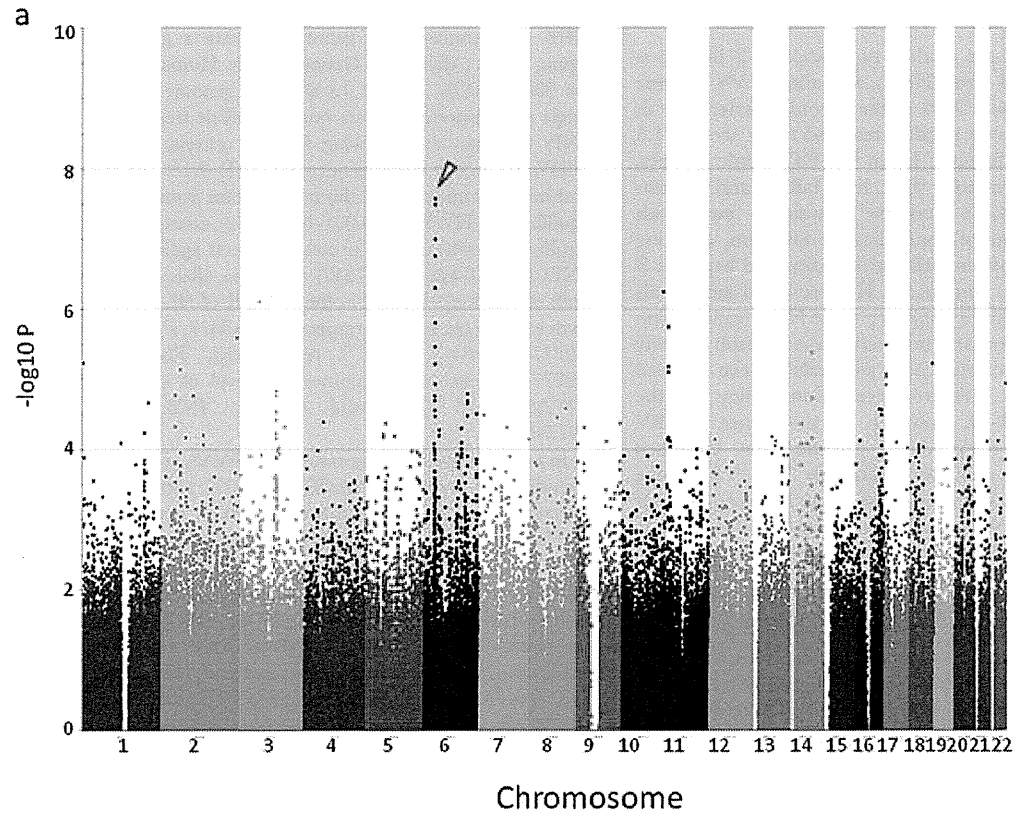
Protective Effects Against Chronic Hepatitis B in Japanese and Korean Individuals

In this study, we conducted a GWAS using samples from 181 Japanese HBV carriers (including asymptomatic carriers (ASC), CHB cases, LC cases and HCC cases, based on the criteria described in Materials and Methods) and 184 healthy controls in order to identify the host genetic factors related to progression of CHB. All samples were genotyped using a genome-wide SNP typing array (Affymetrix Genome-Wide Human SNP Array 6.0 for 900 K SNPs). Figure 1a shows a genome-wide view of the single point association data based on allele frequencies using the SNPs that met the following filtering criteria: (i) SNP call rate ≥95%; (ii) minor allele frequency (MAF) ≥1% for HBV carriers and healthy controls; and (iii) no deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) $P \geq 0.001$ in healthy controls. We identified significant associations of protective effects against CHB with two SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) using the allele frequency model, both of which are located in the 3′ UTR of *HLA-DPA1* and in the sixth exon of *HLA-DPB1*, respectively (rs3077, $P = 1.14 \times 10^{-7}$, and rs9277542, $P = 5.32 \times 10^{-8}$, respectively). The association for rs9277542 reached a genome-wide level of significance in the GWAS panel (Bonferroni criterion $P < 8.36 \times 10^{-8}$ (0.05/597,789)).

In order to validate the results of GWAS, a total of 32 SNPs, including the associated two SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542), were selected for replication in two independent sets of HBV carriers and healthy controls (replication-1:256 Japanese HBV carriers and 236 Japanese healthy controls; and replication-2:344 Korean HBV carriers and 151 Korean healthy controls; Table 1). The associations for the original significant SNP (rs9277542) and marginal SNP (rs3077) on GWAS were replicated in both replication sets [replication-1 (Japanese); rs3077, $P = 2.70 \times 10^{-8}$, OR = 0.48 and rs9277542, $P = 3.33 \times 10^{-6}$, OR = 0.54; replication-2 (Korean); rs3077, $P = 2.08 \times 10^{-6}$, OR = 0.47 and rs9277542, $P = 8.29 \times 10^{-5}$, OR = 0.54, Table 2]. We conducted meta-analysis to combine these studies using the DerSimonian Laird method (random effects model) to incorporate variation among studies. As shown in Table 2, the odds ratios were quite similar across the three studies (GWAS and two replication studies) and no heterogeneity was observed ($P_{het} = 0.80$ for rs3077 and 0.40 for rs9277542). P_{meta} values were 4.40×10^{-19} for rs3077 (OR = 0.46, 95% confidence interval (CI) = 0.39–0.54), and 1.28×10^{-15} for rs9277542 (OR = 0.50, 95% CI = 0.43–0.60). Among the remaining 30 SNPs in the replication study, 27 SNPs were successfully genotyped by the DigiTag2 assay with SNP call rate ≥ 95% and HWE p-value ≥ 0.01. Two SNPs (rs9276431 and rs7768538), located in the genetic region including the *HLA-DQ* gene, were marginally replicated in the two sets of HBV carriers and healthy controls with Mantel-Haenszel P values of 2.80×10^{-7} (OR = 0.56, 95% CI = 0.45–0.70) and 1.09×10^{-7} (OR = 0.53, 95% CI = 0.42–0.67), respectively, when using additive, two-tailed Cochran Mantel-Haenszel (CMH) fixed-effects model with no evidence of heterogeneity ($P_{het} = 0.67$ for rs9276431 and 0.70 for rs7768538) (Table S1).

Meta-analysis using the random effects model across 6 independent studies, including 5 additional published data, showed $P_{meta} = 3.94 \times 10^{-45}$, OR = 0.55 for rs3077, $P_{meta} = 1.74 \times 10^{-21}$, OR = 0.61 for rs9277535 and $P_{meta} = 1.69 \times 10^{-15}$, OR = 0.51 for rs9277542, with the SNP rs9277535 being located about 4-kb upstream from rs9277542 and showing strong linkage disequilibrium of $r^2 = 0.955$ on the HapMap JPT (Table S2). As shown in Table S2, the odds ratio was very similar among the 6 studies, and heterogeneity was negligible with $P_{het} > 0.01$.

Moreover, based on GWAS using samples from 94 chronic HBV carriers with LC or HCC and 87 chronic HBV carriers without LC and HCC, we found no significant SNPs associated with CHB progression (Figure S1).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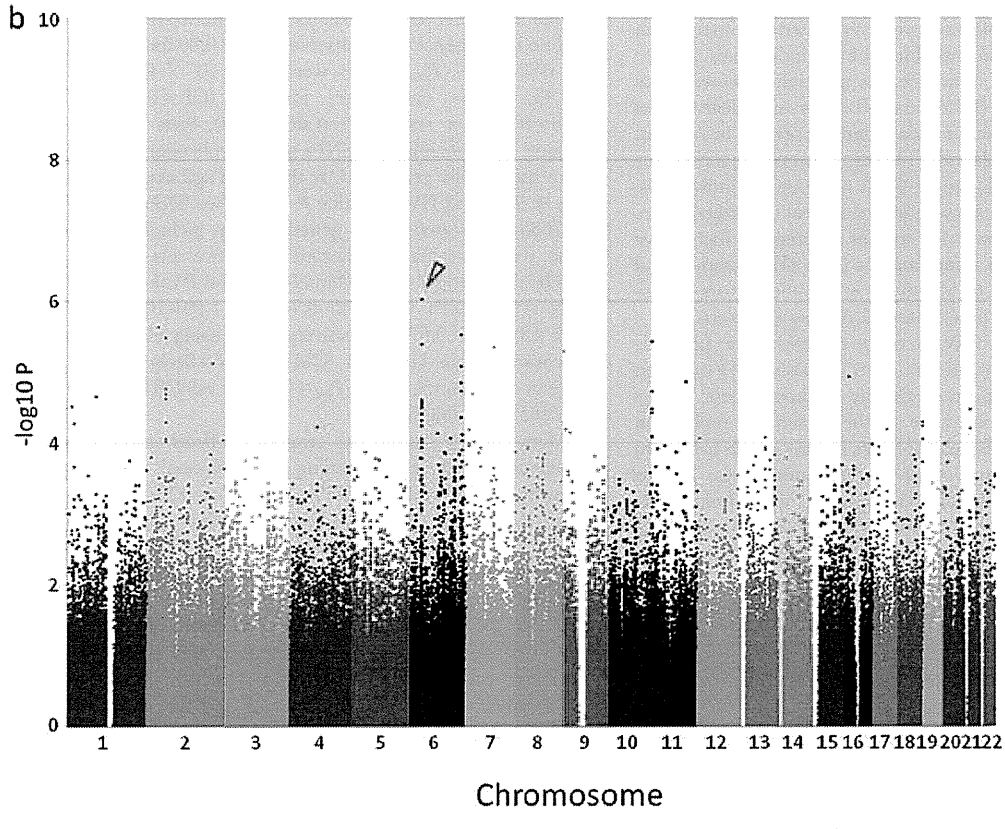
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Figure 1. Results of genome-wide association studies. a) HBV carriers and healthy controls, and b) HBV carriers and HBV-resolved individuals were compared. *P* values were calculated by chi-squared test for allele frequencies. Dots with arrows on chromosome 6 show strong associations with protective effects against persistent HB infection and with HBV clearance.
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Clearance of Hepatitis B virus in Japanese and Korean Individuals

We also conducted a GWAS to identify the host genetic factors related to clearance of HBV in the above 181 Japanese HBV carriers and 185 Japanese HBV-resolved individuals using a genome-wide SNP typing array (Affymetrix Genome-Wide Human SNP Array 6.0 for 900 K SNPs). The same two SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) showed strong associations in the allele frequency model ($P=9.24\times10^{-7}$ and $P=3.15\times10^{-5}$) with clearance of HBV (Figure 1b).

The above 32 SNPs, including the two associated SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542), were selected for a replication study in two independent sets of HBV carriers and HBV resolved individuals (replication-1:256 Japanese HBV carriers and 150 Japanese HBV resolved individuals; and replication-2:344 Korean HBV carriers and 106 Korean HBV resolved individuals; Table 1). All 32 SNPs were genotyped using the DigiTag2 assay and 29 of 32 SNPs were successfully genotyped (Table S3). The associations of the original SNPs were replicated in both replication sets [replication-1 (Japanese): rs3077, $P=3.32\times10^{-2}$, OR $=0.72$ and rs9277542, $P=1.25\times10^{-2}$, OR $=0.68$; replication-2 (Korean): rs3077, $P=2.35\times10^{-7}$, OR $=0.41$ and rs9277542, $P=4.97\times10^{-6}$, OR $=0.46$; Table 3]. Meta-analysis using random effects model showed $P_{meta}=1.56\times10^{-4}$ for rs3077 (OR $=0.51$, 95% CI = 0.36–0.72), and 5.91×10^{-7} for rs9277542 (OR $=0.55$, 95% CI = 0.43–0.69). While there was evidence of heterogeneity between these studies for rs3077 ($P_{het}=0.03$) and no evidence for rs9277542 ($P_{het}=0.19$), significant associations with HBV clearance were observed with Mantel-Haenszel $P_{meta}=3.28\times10^{-12}$ for rs3077 and 1.42×10^{-10} for rs9277542, when using CMH fixed-effects model. Among the remaining 27 SNPs in the replication study, two SNPs (rs9276431 and rs7768538), located in a genetic region including *HLA-DQ* gene, were marginally replicated in the two sets of HBV carriers and HBV resolved individuals with Mantel-Haenszel *P* values of 2.10×10^{-5} (OR $=0.59$) and 1.10×10^{-5} (OR $=0.56$), respectively (Table S3), when using CMH fixed-effect model. Due to the existing heterogeneity among three groups (GWAS, Replication-1 and Replication-2) ($P_{het}=0.03$ for rs9276431 and 0.04 for rs7768538), weak associations were observed with $P_{meta}=0.03$ for rs9276431 and 0.02 for rs7768538 by the random effects model meta-analysis.

Meta-analysis across 6 independent studies, including 5 additional published data, showed $P_{meta}=1.48\times10^{-9}$, OR $=0.60$ for rs3077, $P_{meta}=1.08\times10^{-17}$, OR $=0.66$ for rs9277535 and $P_{meta}=5.14\times10^{-5}$, OR $=0.55$ for rs9277542 (Table S4). As shown in Table S4, the OR for the rs9277535 and rs9277542 were similar among the 6 independent studies, and heterogeneity was negligible ($P_{het}=0.03$ for rs9277535 and 0.14 for rs9277542). However, significant level of heterogeneity for rs3077 was observed with $P_{het}=9.57\times10^{-6}$ across 5 independent studies, including our study.

Table 1. Number of study samples.

		GWAS	Replication-1	Replication-2
population		**Japanese**	**Japanese**	**Korean**
HBV carriers	Total	**181**	**256**	**344**
	IC	20	94	–
	CH	67	101	177
	LC	3	10	–
	HCC	91	51	167
Healthy controls		**184**	**236**	**151**
Resolved individuals		**185**	**150**	**106**

Abbreviation: IC, Inactive Carrier; CH, Chronic Hepatitis; LC, Liver Cirrhosis; HCC, Hepatocellular Carcinoma.
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URLs

The results of the present GWAS are registered at a public database: https://gwas.lifesciencedb.jp/cgi-bin/gwasdb/gwas_top.cgi.

Discussion

The recent genome-wide association study showed that the SNPs located in a genetic region including *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes were associated with chronic HBV infection in the Japanese and Thai population [10,11]. In this study, we confirmed a significant association between SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) located in the same genetic region as *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* and protective effects against CHB in Korean and Japanese individuals. Mata-analysis using the random effects model across 6 independent studies including our study suggested that, widely in East Asian populations, variants in antigen binding sites of *HLA-DP* contribute to protective effects against persistent HBV infection (Table S2).

On GWAS and replication analysis with Japanese and Korean individuals, we identified associations between the same SNPs (rs3077 and rs9277542) in the *HLA-DPA1* and *HLA-DPB1* genes and HBV clearance; however, no new candidate SNPs from the GWAS were detected on replication analysis (Table S3). When the data of reference#18 was excluded from the meta-analysis across 6 independent studies, heterogeneity among 4 studies was estimated to be $P_{het}=0.15$ and significant association of rs3077 with HBV clearance was observed with $P_{meta}=5.88\times10^{-24}$, OR $=0.56$ (Table S4). In our study, a negligible level of heterogeneity for rs3077 was also observed ($P_{het}=0.03$) on meta-analysis by adding replication-1 (Table 3). Despite the heterogeneity in replication-1, a marginal association was observed for rs3077 with the same downward trend in the odds ratio ($P=3.32\times10^{-2}$, OR $=0.72$). Moreover, meta-analysis using GWAS and replication-2 showed significant association of $P_{meta}=1.89\times10^{-12}$, OR $=0.43$ for rs3077 with no evidence of heterogeneity ($P_{het}=0.75$). Although the reason why heterogeneity was observed in replication-1 is unclear, one possible reason is the clinical heterogeneity due to different kits being used for antibody testing. The associations of *HLA-DPA1/−DPB1* with CHB and HBV clearance showed the same level of significance in the comparison of HBV patients with HBV resolved individuals (OR $=0.43$ for rs3077 and 0.49 for rs9277542) as the one with healthy controls (OR $=0.46$ for rs3077 and 0.50 for rs9277542), when the replication-1 was excluded in the analysis (Table 2 and Table 3). The results of meta-analysis across 6 independent studies including our study also showed the same or slightly weaker associations in the