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What has GWAS Done for HLA and Disease Associations?

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Abstract

The major histocompatibility complex (MHC) is located in chromosome 6p21 and contains crucial regulators of immune response, including human leukocyte antigen (HLA) genes, alongside other genes with non-immunological roles. More recently, a repertoire of non-coding RNA genes, including expressed pseudogenes, has also been identified. The MHC is the most gene-dense and most polymorphic part of the human genome. The region exhibits haplotype-specific linkage disequilibrium patterns, contains the strongest cis- and trans-eQTLs/meQTLs in the genome, and is known as a hot spot for disease associations. Another layer of complexity is provided to the region by the extreme structural variation and copy number variations. While the *HLA-B* gene has the highest number of alleles, the HLA-DR/DQ subregion is structurally most variable, and shows the highest number of disease associations. Reliance on a single reference sequence has complicated the design, execution and analysis of GWAS for the MHC region and not infrequently, the MHC region has even been excluded from the analysis of GWAS data. Here, we contrast features of the MHC region with the rest of the genome, and highlight its complexities, including its functional polymorphisms beyond those determined by single nucleotide polymorphisms or single amino acid residues. One of the several issues with customary GWAS analysis is that it does not address this additional layer of polymorphisms unique to the MHC region. We highlight alternative approaches that may assist with the analysis of GWAS data from the MHC region and unravel associations with all functional polymorphisms beyond single SNPs. We suggest that despite already showing the highest number of disease associations, the true extent of the involvement of the MHC region in disease genetics may not have been uncovered.

Introduction

The major histocompatibility complex (MHC) is present in all mammals, but was first discovered in tumour transplantation studies in mice (Gorer, 1937). The human MHC, which is called human leukocyte antigens (HLA) complex, was discovered independently by Dausset, van Rood, and Payne & Bodmer during studies of antibodies against leukocytes in multiparous women (Dausset, 1981). Like blood group antigens (Aird, Bentall, & Roberts, 1953), HLA antigens are among the first genetic markers examined for disease associations (Amiel, 1967). While the emphasis was initially on the histocompatibility products (HLA-A, -B, -C, -DR, -DQ, -DP), the Human Genome Project unravelled the true content of the MHC region, and over the last decade, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have unravelled a large number of disease associations with MHC region variants.

The MHC is the most gene-dense region of the human genome (**Table 1**), containing a diversity of genes involved in major physiologic phenomena (Roger Horton et al., 2004; Shiina, Hosomichi, Inoko, & Kulski, 2009; Vandiedonck & Knight, 2009; T. Xie et al., 2003). The region is clearly enriched for genes encoding molecules participating in immune and inflammatory pathways (R. Horton et al., 2008; Roger Horton et al., 2004; Shiina et al., 2009; Traherne, 2008; Trowsdale & Knight, 2013) (**Table 2**), and about 60% of the gene content is involved in non-immunological roles (Shiina et al., 2009; Vandiedonck & Knight, 2009). Of the total 677 genes, there are still 60 without sufficient characterization (open reading frames or uncharacterised loci). The extended MHC (xMHC) contains 1.5% of the genes in OMIM and 6.4% of genome-wide significant single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) associations in the NHGRI/EBI GWAS catalog (Ripke et al., 2013). Before the GWAS era, the list of traits and diseases that show MHC associations in mammals was already very long and included a variety of conditions from reproductive issues (Kostyu, 1994; Lerner & Finch, 1991), to cancer (Chaudhuri et al., 2000; de Jong et al., 2003; DeWolf, Lange, Einarson, & Yunis, 1979; Diepstra et al., 2005; M. T. Dorak et al., 1999; Klitz, Aldrich, Fildes, Horning, & Begovich, 1994; Lu et al., 1990; Magnusson et al., 2001) and longevity (Ivanova et al., 1998). Of particular interest is the mapping of breast cancer (de Jong et al., 2003) and Hodgkin lymphoma susceptibility (Diepstra et al., 2005) to the MHC class III region, which is devoid of classical HLA genes. During the GWAS era, disease associations with MHC region variants have drastically increased (Lenz, Spirin, Jordan, & Sunyaev, 2016; Ripke et al., 2013; Vandiedonck & Knight, 2009) (**Figure 1**). GWAS have identified SNP level associations for most robustly validated HLA associations (**Table 3**). Autoimmune disorders have always shown strong and consistent MHC associations (Matzaraki, Kumar, Wijmenga, & Zhernakova, 2017) some of which have been even narrowed down to amino acid level (Achkar et al., 2012; Miyadera, Ohashi, Lernmark, Kitamura, & Tokunaga, 2015; Raychaudhuri et al., 2012), but detailed studies also show independent associations with non-HLA polymorphisms in the MHC region (Handunnetthi, Ramagopalan, Ebers, & Knight, 2010; Rioux et al., 2009).

Progress has been made in understanding the mechanisms of several HLA-associated diseases (Caillat-Zucman, 2009; Sollid, Pos, & Wucherpennig, 2014), especially in rheumatoid arthritis (Klareskog, Catrina, & Paget, 2009), type 1 diabetes and Celiac disease (Busch et al., 2012), as well as drug hypersensitivities (Illing, Vivian, Purcell, Rossjohn, & McCluskey, 2013). However, given the number of disease associations with MHC region variants, only a small number of potential mechanisms have been uncovered (Howell, 2014).

Unique Features of the Extended MHC Region

The HLA region has many unique features which distinguish it from the rest of the genome (**Box 1**). The two most gene-dense regions of the human genome are the MHC class III region and the histone gene supercluster within the xMHC region (T. Xie et al., 2003). Besides being the most gene-dense, xMHC is also the most polymorphic region in the genome, which is compounded by a complex linkage disequilibrium (LD) structure. In the xMHC, individual SNPs and haplotypes are as relevant as elsewhere, additionally, constellations of them make up HLA alleles, groups of HLA alleles form functional supertypes or ancestral supertypes, and mark evolutionary lineages. GWAS analysis of more recent studies included HLA imputation and analysis by HLA type or amino acid residues (A. Dilthey et al., 2013; A. T. Dilthey, Moutsianas, Leslie, & McVean, 2011; Jia et al., 2013; M. Xie, Li, & Jiang, 2010; X. C. Zhang, Li, Wang, Hansen, & Zhao, 2011), but no GWAS to date has specifically examined the MHC region for functional polymorphisms such as highly functional

epitopes (including HLA-Bw4/Bw6 or HLA-C1/C2) that have previously shown important disease associations (discussed later).

An important difference in the xMHC from the rest of the genome concerns the structural variation and the presence of closely related genes in these regions. Two such regions contain the complement (*C2*, *C4A*, *C4B* in a CNV region) and *HLA-DRB* (B1-B9) genes (a segmental duplication region). The polymorphisms in these regions are particularly difficult to genotype using high-throughput methods, mainly because they violate Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) due to the presence of paralogs and CNV. An analysis of the whole genome sequencing data from the 1000 Genomes Project revealed that the MHC region shows the highest Hardy-Weinberg disequilibrium levels (Graffelman, Jain, & Weir, 2017). Most of this must be due to the genomic features of this region. SNPs that do not conform to HWE are excluded from GWAS chips at the time of quality control steps during the production phase. At the time of the first wave of GWAS, the Illumina MHC SNP Panel was a dedicated SNP typing platform for 2360 SNPs in the xMHC. The first-generation GWAS chips typically covered the xMHC, at most, as extensively as this panel. The two segmental duplication regions of the MHC were grossly underrepresented and the HapMap phase I data contained genotype data for considerably fewer SNPs in these regions: (i) complement subregion: only four SNPs in the 78.5kb subregion covering the *C4A*, *C4B* and *CYP21A2* genes within the class III region; (ii) HLA-DR subregion: just four SNPs in the 114.5kb subregion covering the area flanked by *HLA-DRA* and *-DRB1* genes. Extreme variation of this region, including structural variation and presence of paralogs, creates difficulties for inclusion of many SNPs in GWAS chips, but alternative genotyping methods exist (M.T. Dorak, 2007). Imputation of the SNPs in the subregions that are not covered sufficiently in GWAS chips may be thought of as a solution. The success of imputation, however, depends on the reference panel used, and even 1KG data may not be ideal for these structural variation regions, which also suffers from SNP genotype call difficulties for the MHC (Brandt et al., 2015).

Box 1. Unique features of the xMHC relevant to GWAS:

- Most gene dense in the genome (T. Xie et al., 2003)
- Paralog regions and genes (one-third of the genes residing in the MHC have paralogous copies) (Endo, Imanishi, Gojobori, & Inoko, 1997; Roger Horton et al., 2004; Kasahara, 1999a, 1999b; Kasahara et al., 1996; Katsanis, Fitzgibbon, & Fisher, 1996; Shiina et al., 2001)
- Clustering of functionally related genes (Roger Horton et al., 2004; Trowsdale & Knight, 2013)
- Strongest trans-eQTLs (Fairfax et al., 2012; Fehrmann et al., 2011; Westra et al., 2013) and meQTLs (van Dongen et al., 2016) in the genome as well as an exceptional number of connected components in genotype networks (Dall'Olio, Bertranpetit, Wagner, & Laayouni, 2014)
- CNV and structural variation (Andersson, 1998; Blanchong et al., 2000; Y. B. Zhang, Li, Zhang, Wang, & Yu, 2012)
- Extremely polymorphic at the nucleotide level (Durbin et al., 2010; Gaudieri, Dawkins, Habara, Kulski, & Gojobori, 2000; Vandiedonck & Knight, 2009)
- Highest trait-associated variant density even by standard analysis of GWAS data (treating the xMHC as anywhere else in the genome) (Lenz et al., 2016; Ripke et al., 2013; Vandiedonck & Knight, 2009)
- Non-HLA genes throughout xMHC carry deleterious variants at high frequencies (more than two orders of magnitude above the genome-wide average for some of them) (Lenz et al., 2016).
- Very high linkage disequilibrium over very long range resulting from conserved extended haplotypes (Ahmad et al., 2003; Aly et al., 2006; Blomhoff et al., 2006; T. M. S. Consortium, 1999) due to lower recombinational rates than the rest of the genome (3-fold lower than 1.2cM/Mb) (de Bakker et al., 2006)
- Higher than average rates of alternative splicing as a manifestation of DNA sequence diversity (Vandiedonck et al., 2011)

- Highest gene expression levels across the genome *; highest heritability of gene expression levels (Wright et al., 2014); and trans-generational inheritance of methylation patterns (McRae et al., 2014)

* The GTEx database lists *HLA-B* (9th), *HLA-C* (15th), *HLA-E* (19th) and *HLA-A* (37th) in the top 50 genes for expression levels (the beta2-microglobulin gene *B2M* is 19th).

CNV within the MHC may not have received sufficient attention. HLA-B/C and HLA-DR/DQ subregions are within CNVs of rather large fragments. The Database of Genetic Variants currently (March 2017) lists six CNVs within xMHC larger than 1Mbp, and 41 CNVs between 0.2 and 1Mbp. However, their correlations with disease susceptibility are not well studied. CNVs correlate with transcription levels of genes within the CNV region, including MHC genes (Schlatti, Anders, Waszak, Huber, & Korbel, 2011). The HLA class II region contains CNVs at appreciable population frequencies and with sizes reaching up to 421,697bp (Conrad et al., 2010; de Smith et al., 2007). The largest class II region CNV (NCBI 36.1 ID: Variation_64476) reported by Conrad *et al* in the HapMap population as a gain with a frequency of 16.1% spans a region containing the genes *HLA-DRA*, *-DRB1*, *-DRB5*, *-DRB6*, *-DQA1*, *-DQB1*, *-DQA2*, and *-DQB2* (Conrad et al., 2010).

Structural variation in the MHC is not restricted to CNVs. Segmental duplications are neighbouring duplicated genomic segments that are large (at least >1 kb in length), and that show more than 90% sequence identity. The class III region has a typical segmental duplication called the RCCX module (*RP12-C4A/B-CYP21A1P/A2-TNXA/B*) and contains the *C4* and *CYP21* genes, and may be present in more than one copy on each chromosome (Blanchong et al., 2000). The RCCX module copy number, each module's size and gene content, and each *C4* gene's size on each HLA haplotype is variable (Blanchong et al., 2000; Collier et al., 1989; Y. L. Wu et al., 2007; Y. L. Wu et al., 2008). GWAS is unable to detect any of these variations, and as has been pointed out elsewhere (Traherne, 2008), there is no known proxy SNP for any of these alterations. The only complementary study that has been done to follow up any GWAS specifically for this region is in schizophrenia and identified copy number variation of *C4* genes as the causal variation (Sekar et al., 2016).

The frequency of a partial *C4A* or *C4B* protein deficiency in the Caucasian populations is between 25.5 and 33.5% (Hauptmann, Tappeiner, & Schifferli, 1988) making partial *C4* deficiency the most common immune protein deficiency in humans. *C4A* deletion is also an established risk marker for systemic lupus erythematosus (Y. L. Wu et al., 2008) as well as other autoimmune disorders and infectious diseases (Hauptmann et al., 1988). Still, no GWAS chip contains a single marker for *C4A* deletion, or, in fact, no more than a few markers from the whole *C4A/C4B* genes. A *C4A* deletion does not necessarily mean physical deletion of the gene. Nevertheless, no form of *C4A* deletion is represented by any polymorphisms on current GWAS chips.

The complement proteins have common and useful polymorphisms that were used to define complotypes as constellations of complement components C2, factor B, C4A and C4B. The complotypes were considered as the most informative molecular markers defining the common HLA haplotypes in the 1980s and 1990s (Simon et al., 1997; Whitehead et al., 1984). Polymorphisms of these genes were used to determine HLA haplotype identity in HLA-matched transplant pairs [Dorak, 1993 #2467. However, once PCR-based genotypings took over, interest in complotypes faded. Since 2010, only nine papers have been published with complotype included in their titles or abstracts. It appears that the usefulness of complotypes disappeared along with our inability to genotype them by high-throughput methods. High-throughput methods may be superior on average, but their deficiency for polymorphisms in genes that have paralogs and are in CNV regions is obvious (M. Li, Li, & Guan, 2008).

Another major structural variation in the MHC concerns the HLA-DR/DQ region. This region always contains the *HLA-DRA* and *-DRB1* genes encoding the alpha and beta chains of the HLA-DR molecule. However, on most haplotypes, there is a second expressed HLA-DRB gene, which may be *-DRB3*, *-DRB4*, or *-DRB5* (Andersson, 1998). These second expressed DRB genes, however, are mutually exclusive and only one of them can be on a haplotype. The pseudogene *HLA-DRB9*,

which is a duplication copy of the ancestral DRB gene, is present on all haplotypes, but other pseudogenes such as *DRB2*, *DRB7* and *DRB8* only exist on certain haplotypes. The reference sequence of the MHC has derived from the PGF cell line (*HLA-DRB1*1501*) used in the MHC Haplotype Project (R. Horton et al., 2008). Its haplotype contains the *HLA-DRB5* gene (encoding DR51 serotype). The *DRB5* gene is missing in more than 80% of chromosomes in European origin populations, but it is featured in HLA-DR region maps as if constantly present. Until now, any SNP mapping to the coordinates of the *HLA-DRB5* gene has been considered a SNP in this gene, despite that the individual may even be missing this gene, and may have *-DRB3* or *-DRB4* in its place. Another implication is that the *-DRB3* or *-DRB4* genes are themselves polymorphic genes (Robbins et al., 1997), but their variants are not included in GWAS chips as they do not map to the reference sequence.

The structural variation in this region is not currently considered in the analysis of data. Two problems arise that may result in the loss of otherwise useful information. First is the presence of duplication products of the ancestral DRB gene confounds genotyping, and secondly, the presence of a SNP in the paralogous position (i.e., a pseudoSNP) may result in excess heterozygosity and violation of HWE (Leal, 2005), as has been specifically documented for the xMHC SNPs in the 1KG data (Brandt et al., 2015). These difficulties for genotyping are in addition to the extreme polymorphism of the region which makes it very difficult to design typing assays.

The number of closely related DRB genes is six (*DRB1/4/6/7/8/9*) on the *HLA-DRB1*0401* haplotype. The overall structural variation creates an anomalous situation in that some SNP positions may not even be present in some haplotypes. The presence/absence polymorphisms may result in low rates of genotype calls and subsequently exclusion of polymorphism data when in fact the missing genotype is the perfectly natural consequence of a missing gene. This is not taken into account in the analysis of data; in fact, such data do not exist as SNPs of this type would be excluded from the microarrays at the quality control step. The current NCBI SNP Database lists almost 4,000 SNPs mapping to the *HLA-DRB5* gene, which is included in the reference sequence, but none have shown any disease associations. At least through LD, some of these would be expected to be associated with disease if they were included in GWAS chips and passed the quality control steps. Due to not taking into the structural variation, these SNPs would have violated HWE, and would be excluded from chips. An inspection of the ImmunoChip SNP content reveals a total lack of SNPs in a region that is larger than 50kb corresponding to the second expressed DRB gene region.

The xMHC region is also very rich in paralog genes as a result of genomic duplications in the past, which are common events (Abi-Rached, Gilles, Shiina, Pontarotti, & Inoko, 2002; Flajnik & Kasahara, 2010; Kasahara, 1999a; Katsanis et al., 1996). Nearly one-third of the genes residing in the MHC have paralogous copies in at least one of the three regions established to be paralogous to MHC on 9q33-q34, 1q21-q25/1p11-p32, and 19p13.1-p13.3 (Roger Horton et al., 2004; Kasahara, 1999a; Shiina et al., 2001). An example of paralogy within the MHC is the *CYP21A2* gene, which is adjacent to its pseudogene *CYP21A1P*. Very high sequence similarity between these two paralogs complicates genotyping efforts. *CYP21A2* encodes 21-hydroxylase and is the cause of the most common autosomal recessive condition of childhood, congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH; OMIM 201910). 21-hydroxylase is involved in adrenal sex steroid biosynthesis and is likely to play a role in hormonally mediated conditions, which may include breast cancer (Woolcott et al., 2010; X. Zhang, Tworoger, Eliassen, & Hankinson, 2013). No GWAS on any condition has ever examined any polymorphism of *CYP21A2* and any data on polymorphisms of this gene have been generated by conventional methods as is routinely done in medical genetics laboratories. The most common mutation of *CYP21A2* that is involved in late-onset CAH is V282L (rs6471), which is listed in dbSNP with some data showing the mutant allele frequency up to 0.540 in some populations obviously due to genotyping error. The problem with *CYP21A2* genotyping by high-throughput methods is specifically due to the interference by its pseudogene *CYP21A1P* that lies adjacent to the active gene.

Another example of paralogy is the heat shock protein (HSP) genes *HSPA1A*, *HSPA1B* and *HSPA1L*. These three genes are extremely similar in their sequences, and part of a large HSP superfamily (Calderwood & Ciocca, 2008). As a result, their genotyping is extremely difficult

(Contreras-Sesvold, Sambuughin, Blokhin, & Deuster, 2010) and almost impossible with high-throughput methods. This must be why the *HSPA1B* SNP rs1061581 has never been examined in GWAS despite its replicated associations with susceptibility to cancer in candidate gene studies (Guo et al., 2011; Ucisik-Akkaya, Davis, Gorodezky, Alaez, & Dorak, 2010).

xMHC Region Associations in GWAS

Although the earliest serological associations with autoimmune diseases stood the test of time (Brewerton et al., 1973; Stastny, 1978), due to the presence of many inconclusive and inconsistent reports, pre-GWAS era HLA-disease associations were often met with some scepticism. It is unfortunate that most of those HLA association studies indeed did not conform to the current standards of genetic epidemiological research, and may have suffered from small sample size, methodological imperfections including HLA typing errors, disregard of population structure, and lack of replication.

GWAS have unravelled many unsuspected susceptibility markers for many traits (Manolio, 2013). GWAS have achieved much more than candidate gene studies in terms of identifying genotype-phenotype correlations. However, there is still a degree of disappointment with the cumulative results; only a modest amount of disease heritability has been explained, even after multiple studies targeting the same disease (Maher, 2008; Manolio et al., 2009).

It is generally assumed that GWAS provide approximately uniform representation of the entire genome. However, the xMHC, which accounts for a disproportional number of disease associations, is underrepresented in GWAS chips. Still, GWAS have reported many top hits within the xMHC in a variety of disorders and traits with or without an immune basis. Most notably, the strongest markers for drug hypersensitivities have been located within the MHC, and several have been FDA approved for clinical use (Profaizer & Eckels, 2012).

Cancer susceptibility is historically linked to the histocompatibility loci. The earliest disease susceptibility study in animals examining MHC effects highlighted its role in leukaemia in mice (Lilly, Boyse, & Old, 1964) followed by other cancers (Oomen, Van der Valk, & Den Engelse, 1983) including breast (Dux & Demant, 1987; Muhlbock & Dux, 1974; Ropcke, Moen, Hart, & Demant, 1990) and lung cancer (Demant, Oomen, & Oudshoorn-Snoek, 1989; Oomen et al., 1983; Snoek et al., 2000). Those studies were not limited to virally-induced leukaemia and mammary tumours, but also examined spontaneous, chemically- and hormonally-induced tumors. Until the GWAS era, replicated associations were few and far in between. In the GWAS era, robust associations have emerged in lung cancer (Broderick et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2011; Y. Wang et al., 2008), breast cancer (Michailidou et al., 2015), prostate cancer (Kote-Jarai et al., 2011), testicular germ cell tumour (Rapley et al., 2009), liver cancer (Kumar et al., 2011), multiple myeloma (Chubb et al., 2013), Hodgkin lymphoma (Moutsianas et al., 2011; Urayama et al., 2012), follicular lymphoma (Conde et al., 2010), nasopharyngeal carcinoma (Tse et al., 2009), cervical cancer (Chen et al., 2013), and glioma (Bethke et al., 2008). As in other diseases, with increasing use of rare variants, much larger sample sizes and meta-analysis approaches in association studies, more associations are being reported (Fitzgerald et al., 2013; Haiman et al., 2013; Kuchenbaecker et al., 2015; Timofeeva et al., 2012; C. Wu et al., 2014).

GWAS have shown associations of xMHC variants not only with autoimmune disorders and infectious diseases (Chapman & Hill, 2012; Handunnetthi et al., 2010; Rioux et al., 2009) as expected, but also with a diverse set of other diseases such as Barrett esophagus (Su et al., 2012), metabolic disorders (Chasman et al., 2009), obesity (Thorleifsson et al., 2009), schizophrenia (S. W. G. o. t. P. G. Consortium, 2014; Ripke et al., 2013; Sekar et al., 2016), Parkinson disease (Nalls et al., 2011), age-related macular degeneration (Cipriani et al., 2012), drug hypersensitivities (Profaizer & Eckels, 2012), and even with educational attainment (Rietveld et al., 2013) and wine preference (Pirastu et al., 2015). The potential reasons for such a large number of xMHC associations with a variety of traits are listed in **Box 2**.

Box 2. Potential reasons for disproportionate number of disease associations with xMHC region SNPs

- Extreme polymorphism (Durbin et al., 2010; Gaudieri et al., 2000)
- Extreme diversity of gene content (Roger Horton et al., 2004; Shiina et al., 2009)
- Pleiotropic (immune and non-immune) functions of HLA molecules (Hassan & Mourad, 2011; Truman, Garban, Choqueux, Charron, & Mooney, 1996)
- Selection acting on HLA loci and hitchhiking of deleterious alleles with them (Lenz et al., 2016; Mathieson et al., 2015)
- Presence of strongest trans-eQTLs (Fehrmann et al., 2011; Westra et al., 2013) and meQTLs (van Dongen et al., 2016) in the genome
- Effect of HLA alleles on the microbiome (Kubinak et al., 2015; Marietta, Rishi, & Taneja, 2015)

Another point relevant to any discussion of the xMHC in the pathogenesis of any disease, and to possible explanation of extra-ordinarily large numbers of disease associations with its variants is the trans-eQTL effects of xMHC SNPs (Fairfax et al., 2012; Fehrmann et al., 2011; Westra et al., 2013). It appears that the effect of xMHC SNPs on gene transcription extends well beyond the genes nearby, to genes on other chromosomes. With a recent large twin study showing that a substantial proportion of gene expression heritability is trans to the structural gene (Grundberg et al., 2012), the trans-eQTL effects of xMHC polymorphisms may be one of the mechanisms of their diverse disease associations (Fairfax et al., 2012; Fehrmann et al., 2011). Likewise, in the BIOS QTL Browser (van Dongen et al., 2016), the strongest meQTLs are xMHC variants overlapping with the strongest trans-eQTLs. Thus, xMHC is not only the most gene-dense and polymorphic region, but its polymorphisms also correlate with expression and methylation levels of distant genes. The high density of eQTLs and meQTL in xMHC may be the reason for the observation that xMHC genes have the highest number of genotype network across the genome (Dall'Olio et al., 2014).

What GWAS Could Have Shown

It is clear that GWAS have unravelled many unexpected associations throughout the genome including the xMHC. GWAS catalogue and other similar databases list thousands of associations from the xMHC, but their independence from one another and from HLA types already known to be associated with the same trait is not always examined. Different platforms use different sets of SNPs and the reported associations in the same trait may even be identical due to strong LD between the associated markers. There is currently no simple way of checking whether a SNP association corresponds to an already known HLA association although available HLA types together with genome-wide SNP genotypes from 1KG and HapMap samples may provide some clues (Erlich et al., 2011; Gourraud et al., 2014; Major, Rigo, Hague, Berces, & Juhas, 2013). Since imputation is now a common practice, the associations with imputed SNPs add another complication to the interpretation of xMHC associations. The best reports consist of examinations of LD between the reported marker (the lead SNP) and other known associations in the same region, imputations of HLA types and adjustments by them to check the independence of the SNP association, and a full imputation and association statistics. While some studies worked out the correlations at the time of publications, some earlier GWAS were not analysed comprehensively enough and a lot of associations reported as top hits could have been better scrutinised.

What GWAS has achieved has achieved is generally considered impressive, but more could have been done for the analysis of xMHC polymorphisms. At present, there are more than 16,000 HLA alleles (**Table 1**). Typing at this high-resolution level polymorphism is crucial for transplantation success, and as an aid in clinical diagnosis of certain disorders and drug toxicities. However, there are much simpler polymorphisms that have a huge impact on the physiological roles of the HLA proteins. Most well-known such polymorphisms concern HLA class I codons 114 and 116, HLA-Bw4/w6 and HLA-C1/C2 epitopes, -DRB1 codon 86, -DQB1 codon 57 and -DPB1 codon 56 (**Figure 2**).

These polymorphisms are generated by multiple nucleotide substitutions and cannot be identified by simple SNP typing. In addition, there are also phylogenetic groups (such as the DR53 family

consisting of *HLA-DRB1*04*, **07* and **09*), cross-reactive groups (CREGs) of HLA class I alleles, and functional supertypes of both HLA class I and II alleles. Of these, HLA-Bw4/w6, HLA-C-C1/C2, -DRB1 codon 86, -DQB1 codon 57, and -DPB1 codon 56 are dimorphisms, which divide the alleles of the given locus into two mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive groups. These polymorphisms show strong associations with diseases and their associations cannot be assessed by analysis of individual SNPs or individual HLA alleles. Special considerations are needed for their assessment and that has not been done in any genetic association study, including GWAS, to date.

There are already recognized associations with diseases or physiologic traits of some of these dimorphisms and other broad groupings, but recent studies have not recognized their value due to the shift to emphasis on individual SNP associations. With few exceptions such as *HLA-B*5701*, -*DRB1*1501* and the DR53 lineage, no single SNP is currently known to represent either a single HLA allele or any of the functional HLA groups. Besides those shown in Figure 2, there are additional sequence feature variant types (SFVT) which overlap with some of the groups shown in Figure 2. These SFVTs, when taken into account, can explain disease associations better than HLA types themselves (Karp et al., 2010; Thomson et al., 2010), but none of these functional groups are deliberately examined for their associations with disease in GWAS. Since there are no SNP proxies, which are likely to be constellations of SNPs rather than single SNPs, the only way to analyse associations with these functional groups is to impute HLA types and infer the SFVTs and other specificities for comparison between cases and controls.

The classical MHC functional groups can be inferred from HLA types. In current practice, however, neither HLA association studies nor GWAS -following the prediction of HLA types by recently developed algorithms(Karnes et al., 2017)- routinely examine associations of functional HLA groups. This may be due to aiming to keep the number of statistical comparisons to a minimum, or the lack of awareness. Dedicated genotyping assays are available for the better known dimorphisms: HLA-Bw4/Bw6 (Bari et al., 2011; Ugolotti et al., 2011; Yun et al., 2007) and HLA-C1/C2 (Bari et al., 2011; Schellekens et al., 2007; Ugolotti et al., 2011; Yun et al., 2007) as well as for *HLA-DPB1* (Cano & Fernandez-Vina, 2009) dimorphisms, which can be used in secondary studies following GWAS.

Currently, the HLA region is treated the same as any other region in the genome in GWAS data analysis, if not excluded from data analysis (see for example, Ref. (Deelen et al., 2014)). The HLA region has unique characteristics that need to be considered in data analysis. The most popular multiallelic HLA grouping currently in use for disease association studies is the DRB1 alleles bearing the “shared epitope” relevant in rheumatoid arthritis aetiology. *HLA-DRB1* alleles with amino acid sequences QKRAA, QRRAA, or RRRAA at positions 70-74 (shared epitope) are usually analysed as a single cluster in RA association studies (Barnetche, Constantin, Cantagrel, Cambon-Thomsen, & Gourraud, 2008; Bax, van Heemst, Huizinga, & Toes, 2011). This epitope exists on eight *HLA-DRB1* alleles (04:01, 04:04, 04:05, 04:08, 01:01, 01:02, 09 and 10:01). These alleles are usually grouped together in the analysis based on the HLA typing data. Likewise, *HLA-B/C* typing data are used to infer the HLA-Bw4 / Bw6 (Martin et al., 2002) and C1 / C2 epitope (Martin et al., 2010) status in certain disease association studies. These epitopes are not characterized by a single or a few SNPs but are possessed by heterogeneous groups of HLA alleles. As is currently done, GWAS data analysis does not detect associations with these epitopes.

Statistical Analysis of the xHLA Region GWAS Data

The xMHC region is currently analysed as anywhere else in the genome in GWAS. From the routine use of the additive model to the traditional thresholds for statistical significance, this approach is potentially counter-productive for detecting associations in this region. Besides, the unique features of xMHC previously discussed need to be taken into account for most effective analysis of the data from this region.

Confounding by genomic features of the xHLA region

When the unique features of the HLA region are not taken into account in GWAS analysis, a lot of data may be wasted. Dismissal of SNPs due to violation of HWE resulting from the presence of paralogs or CNV, and low genotype call rates because of structural variation (absence/presence polymorphisms) are a couple of examples of loss of valuable data. Most of these SNPs are eliminated during the SNP selection process for the GWAS chip, and if they make it to the chip, they

face a similar outcome at the analysis phase. An example is the common deletion of the *C4A* gene. Currently, the number of *C4A* genes in the diploid genome is not determined prior to the analysis and all samples with zero (rare), one, two or more copies of *C4A* gene are analysed together. We believe the resulting problems with HWE are the main reasons for lack of data from the complement region of the MHC. SNPs in such regions can be genotyped by alternative methods to assess their contribution to disease risk. Thus, as far as the MHC region is concerned, no GWAS is truly genome-wide until highly functional regions of the MHC region are genotyped by complementary approaches.

Besides exclusion of SNPs due to genomic features of the region, the reliance on a single reference sequence based on just one HLA haplotype is also problematic. All HLA haplotypes are different in their length due to variable gene content, and the differences can be very large (R. Horton et al., 2008). This issue has recently been addressed and a new method based on a population reference graph for analysis of HLA region data is introduced (A. Dilthey, Cox, Iqbal, Nelson, & McVean, 2015). This method takes into account the sequencing data from eight common HLA haplotypes. While expected to be of primary use for mapping sequencing reads, it may also help with interpretation of the genotyping results where the current set of reference sequences is substantially incomplete (A. Dilthey et al., 2015).

Linkage disequilibrium

LD in the genome is important for the success of association studies and in the interpretation of results. High LD regions pose difficulty in identification of causal variants among the statistically similar SNP (ssSNP) set that has generated the association signal. LD varies in different parts of the genome and among populations, sometimes causes associations to disappear in a replication study or even to change their directions because of high correlation. High and long-range LD is interpreted as one of the hallmarks of the MHC (T. M. S. Consortium, 1999) with some haplotypes being better known for their long range LD than others.

LD extends over larger physical distances in xMHC than in the rest of the genome (31.1 kb versus 22.3 kb), but these blocks are shorter in genetic distances (0.012 cM versus 0.017 cM) (Vandiedonck & Knight, 2009). While on average the extent of LD may appear to be similar to elsewhere in the genome, a haplotype-specific LD variation has long been known (Ahmad et al., 2003; Cullen, Perfetto, Klitz, Nelson, & Carrington, 2002; Gregersen et al., 1988; Thomsen et al., 1994). As has already been known (Worwood et al., 1997), when assessed by the half-length of LD, the *HLA-B*0801* haplotype had an extra-ordinary degree of LD compared with the *HLA-B*1801* haplotype (3.5 vs 0.4Mbp) (Cullen et al., 1997). As a result of haplotypic variation in LD, the D' values calculated on different HLA backgrounds show large variations in strength and extent (Blomhoff et al., 2006). As a consequence of haplotype frequency variation, the extent of global LD, the haplotype blocks constructed and the tags selected might be different in different studies of the xMHC region. Thus, the underlying HLA haplotypic architecture is an important parameter to take into account when constructing LD maps of the xMHC (Blomhoff et al., 2006)

Definition of statistical significance

Rather than using a traditional P value threshold, both odds ratios and P values may be taken into account for selection of SNPs. This hybrid approach has been shown to be superior to the ranking of SNPs by their P value in a simulation study (J. Wang & Shete, 2011). It has been shown that many of non-significant but "suggestive" SNPs may be associated with the disease (Lipman et al., 2011), but are missed due to the statistical threshold used. Replication of findings not exceeding the strict threshold in the first study should be considered as an equally valid approach in exploratory studies (Chanock et al., 2007). The associations of susceptibility alleles will rarely reach the required level of significance in GWAS if a Bonferroni correction is used, and the number of false negatives is likely to be large (Rice, Schork, & Rao, 2008). The drawbacks of Bonferroni type manipulations have been recognized, and solutions have been described (Lipman et al., 2011; Shi et al., 2011). The main approach for handling the multiple comparisons issue is becoming the false discovery rate (FDR) procedure, which provides adequate protection against type I error (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995; Sabatti, Service, & Freimer, 2003). The FDR procedure is easy to apply and not as conservative as the Bonferroni correction. Thus, it does not increase the type II error rate while reducing type I error rate. The biological significance has received much less emphasis than

statistical significance in GWAS. There are examples in the literature that statistical significance does not necessarily correlate with biological significance. For example, in GWAS for type 2 diabetes, *PPARG* rs1801282, one of the best replicated genetic effects with known functional correlation for this phenotype, has *P* values of 0.83, 0.019, 0.0013 in the individual studies and a value of 1.7×10^{-6} in the combined analysis of over 32,000 subjects (Williams et al., 2007). It is unlikely that this gene would be highlighted were it not for prior knowledge (Williams et al., 2007).

Model choice and multi-SNP approaches

GWAS data are generally analysed by using the additive genetic model assuming a uniform, linear increase in the odds ratio from wildtype genotype to heterozygous genotype and to variant homozygous genotype. This model is shown to be powerful enough to detect dominant effects, but may be underpowered to detect recessive or overdominant effects (Bush & Moore, 2012; Salanti et al., 2009). The extreme polymorphism of the HLA genes is due to balancing selection that encourages heterozygosity, and heterozygote advantage for HLA polymorphisms has been shown in infectious (Carrington et al., 1999) and autoimmune diseases (Nelson et al., 2004). Thus, currently overdominant model associations, which are common in the MHC region, are undetectable in GWAS data.

It has also been pointed out that exclusively recessive-fit or exclusively dominant-fit associations may be missed as a result of routine use of the additive model (Lettre, Lange, & Hirschhorn, 2007; Salanti et al., 2009; Sellers, 2004; Vukcevic, Hechter, Spencer, & Donnelly, 2011; Zheng et al., 2007). This issue is particularly problematic for the recessive model, especially when the minor allele frequency is not close to 50% (Freidlin, Zheng, Li, & Gastwirth, 2002; Lettre et al., 2007; Zheng et al., 2007). Examples of unravelling genetic associations when the best fitting association model is used have been presented in the literature (Puschmann et al., 2011; Salanti et al., 2009). Specifically, the existence of non-additive effects in the HLA region have been reported at least in autoimmune disorders (Goudey et al., 2017; Lenz et al., 2015). To overcome the potential of missing associations in non-additive models with the exclusive use of the additive model, one can either analyse the data under each model or if the inheritance model is not known, use a robust approach such as maximin efficiency robust test (MERT) or the maximum test (MAX) (Conneely & Boehnke, 2007; Freidlin et al., 2002; Gonzalez et al., 2008; Q. Li, Yu, Li, & Zheng, 2008). The testing of multiple genetic models for genome-wide genotype data can now be achieved online using GWAR even by inexperienced users (Dimou, Tsirigos, Elofsson, & Bagos, 2017).

The least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO), a shrinkage and variable selection method for linear regression penalizing the absolute size of coefficients, has been used for association analysis with a large number of SNPs simultaneously (Ayers & Cordell, 2010; Hoggart, Whittaker, De Iorio, & Balding, 2008; Shi et al., 2011). MOSGWA is a more recently developed alternative model selection approach which is based on a modification of the Bayesian Information Criterion (Dolejsi, Bodenstorfer, & Frommlet, 2014). MOSGWA detects a number of interesting SNPs for complex diseases, including those in the MHC region, which are not found by other methods. LASSO has been shown to reduce false-positive results while retaining statistical power (Shi et al., 2011) as well as to detect interactions in the MHC region otherwise undetectable (J. Wu, Devlin, Ringquist, Trucco, & Roeder, 2010). Although LASSO can simultaneously analyse all SNPs, it does not perform well to detect associations masked by the phenomenon called "unfaithfulness" in regions like the MHC characterized by correlations among markers (Yang et al., 2011). Correlation cancellation occurs in regions where so many markers are correlated and their individual contribution to the risk is weakened. In a genome-wide survey, associations masked by "unfaithfulness" involving SNPs with at least 1 Mb distance were identified, and all of them were located in the MHC (Yang et al., 2011). Such associations are unlikely to be detected by standard marginal tests or interaction tests, and the marginal effects of correlated SNPs do not express their significant joint effects faithfully due to the correlation cancellation. These hidden associations can be unmasked by the use of the software called "hidden pattern finder" (Yang et al., 2011). The unfaithfulness phenomenon has not been considered in the analysis of MHC region data in any GWAS, and may have resulted in missing existing associations in the MHC region. The recently proposed "multiple enhancer variant" hypothesis for common traits, which suggests that several variants in LD impacting multiple enhancers may collectively affect gene expression (Corradin et al.,

2014), may well apply to the MHC region associations. If this is the case, correlation cancellation may result in missing such associations.

Bayesian approaches have many advantages over frequentist methods such as including prior information, easier and more intuitive interpretation of results and being more powerful in certain conditions (Balding, 2006). Bayesian approaches may be particularly attractive to model MHC region associations in GWAS as they are capable of combining different genetic risk models (Stephens & Balding, 2009) and modelling the relationships in an integrated "systems biology" manner, for example with hierarchical modelling to jointly evaluate numerous risk markers and covariates (Heron, O'Dushlaine, Segurado, Gallagher, & Gill, 2011; Stephens & Balding, 2009) as has been done in earlier HLA association studies (Thomas et al., 1992). The Bayesian GWAS framework uses external biological and functional genomics-based information to inform prior probabilities of SNP associations, and using priors based on independent functional knowledge could improve the statistical inference, but would be challenging because of heterogeneity and potential bias (Stranger, Stahl, & Raj, 2011).

Analysis of additional layers of variation in the classical MHC region

Exploration of HLA alleles, haplotypes, supertypes and lineages as susceptibility markers has not been given much importance in GWAS. It is practically impossible to run association studies for all HLA alleles defined by DNA sequencing at the highest resolution ($n > 16,000$ as of March 2017), but algorithms have been developed to predict four-digit HLA alleles from HLA tag SNP data (Karnes et al., 2017), which has been used successfully (Neville et al., 2017), and also work in admixed populations (Nunes et al., 2016). This approach is useful, but there are many other levels of functional MHC specificities as discussed before. These polymorphisms can be incorporated in the analysis of GWAS data either by using proxy SNP constellations (when available), or by manipulating the data after HLA imputation.

The HLA alleles themselves show many important disease associations, but these cannot be unravelled by individual SNP analysis since HLA alleles are defined by multiple nucleotide substitutions. Most GWAS that have found top hits in the MHC have not used either HLA typing or HLA prediction to correlate their findings to known HLA alleles. When this examination is carried out, the MHC SNPs showing associations frequently correlate to an HLA allele or haplotype. We have, however, found examples that certain MHC SNPs that associate with disease risk correlate not with individual alleles, but evolutionary or functional groups of them (Kennedy, Singh, & Dorak, 2012). Most of the specificities shown in **Figure 2** could correspond to yet unknown multi-SNP haplotypes in GWAS data. Given that most are expected to represent HLA types showing evolutionary relationships, searching associations with them would reflect the spirit of the novel approach called evolutionary-based grouping of haplotypes in association analysis (Seltman, Roeder, & Devlin, 2003; Tzeng, 2005). The software package developed for cladistic-based analysis of genetic data (the Evolutionary-Based Haplotype Analysis Package, EHAP) has not been used in GWAS, but would have probably detected associations with HLA functional and/or evolutionarily-related clusters within the MHC. It is well known that such groupings exist, but even HLA association studies often fail to consider them. Given the popularity of GWAS and the number of top hits from the MHC, a more complete analysis may reveal associations stronger than existing ones.

In future GWAS analysis, combining conventional sequence variant analysis with the information on tissue-specific eQTL status, CNV, alternative splicing and epigenetic status is expected to be standard procedure, and should help most with the analysis of xMHC data. Besides, the use of population reference graphs to make use of all of the genomic data from this region (A. Dilthey et al., 2015), typing for all functional specificities not just for SNPs and HLA types, and the development of novel statistical methods taking into account the LD structure and other genomic features of the region should provide a more complete picture of the involvement of the extended MHC region in disease development.

Conclusion

Here, we contrasted the features of the xMHC region with the rest of the genome, and discussed how these differences may have affected the results from this region in existing GWAS, and how

they may result in modifications of design, conduct, analysis and interpretation of future GWAS. The analysis of existing data using standard methods does not have the power to unmask all potential associations. The missing heritability concept for GWAS (Manolio et al., 2009) probably applies to the xMHC region more than other regions. This is due to insufficient coverage of the xMHC region in GWAS chips as a natural consequence of enrichment of this region by paralogous genes, extensive CNVs and structural variation. While we cannot thoroughly assess all existing SNPs in the xMHC region, overlooking other layers of functional specificities further contributes to the potential failure of GWAS to detect genetic predisposition conferred by the xMHC region variants. We conclude that despite already showing the highest number of disease associations, the true extent of the involvement of the xMHC region in disease genetics yet to be uncovered.

URLs and Resources for xMHC Region Research:

- HLA Nomenclature (Anthony Nolan Research Institute):
<http://hla.alleles.org/nomenclature/stats.html>
Regular updates on classic and non-classic HLA allele numbers, including pseudogenes.
- GRASP Database: <https://grasp.nhlbi.nih.gov/Search.aspx>
The largest catalogue of GWAS results which can be searched by genomic location
- NCBI dbMHC: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/gv/mhc>
An NCBI database on MHC-related data
- NCBI MAP Annotation:
https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/mapview/map_search.cgi?taxid=9606
The latest genome map where the up-to-date list of genes and transcripts can be found for any genomic location
- Human Genome Region MHC:
<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/grc/human/regions/MHC?asm=GRCh38>
The Genome Reference Consortium site on the MHC region
- Top 100 Expressed Genes in Whole Blood in GTEx Database:
http://www.gtexportal.org/home/eqtls/tissue?tissueName=Whole_Blood
List of genes expressed at the highest level in GTEx project
- Database of Genetic Variants: <http://dgv.tcag.ca/dgv/app/home>
A searchable catalogue of human genomic structural variation
- SNP2HLA: <http://www.broadinstitute.org/mpg/snp2hla>
One of the software packages that impute classical HLA alleles and their amino acid sequences from SNP data
- HLA types of participants of:
 - 1KG: <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0078410> (Table S1)
 - HapMap (class I): <https://bmcgenomics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2164-12-42> (additional file 7)
- Immunogenetic bioinformatics sites:
 - IMGT Immunoinformatics website: <http://www.imgt.org/about/immunoinformatics.php>
Links to databases, tools and resources on immunoglobulins, T cell receptors and major histocompatibility loci, including HLA gene sequences, polymorphisms and 3D structures..
 - IPD and IMGT/HLA database: <http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ipd>
A centralised system for the study of polymorphism in genes of the immune system, including HLA and KIR genes.
 - ImmunoBase: <https://www.immunobase.org>

A web based resource focused on the genetics and genomics of immunologically related human diseases, including a genome browser for cumulative results and results from 20 autoimmune disorders.

- ImmPort: <https://import.niaid.nih.gov/home>

A data warehouse to promote re-use of immunological data generated by NIH-NIAID funded investigators. Contains datasets of completed research projects, including HLA genetic associations.

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Table 1. Descriptive information on genome coordinates, gene content and polymorphisms of the classical MHC region

a. Genome coordinates on chromosome 6^a

	Telomeric end	Centromeric end
Classical MHC region	29672373 (<i>ZFP57</i>)	33148800 (<i>HCG24</i>)
Classical class I region	29672373 (<i>ZFP57</i>)	31511124 (<i>MICB</i>)
Class III region	31511125 (<i>PPIAP9</i>)	32224067 (<i>NOTCH4</i>)
Classical class II region	32224068 (<i>C6orf10</i>)	33148800 (<i>HCG24</i>)

b. Gene content

Total number of genes (all categories)	271
Protein-coding genes	151 ^b
Non-coding RNA	39 ^c
Pseudogene	81

c. Polymorphism

i. Classical HLA gene polymorphisms^d

Total number of HLA alleles	16,755
Total number of HLA class I alleles	12,351
<i>HLA-A</i>	3,913
<i>HLA-B</i>	4,765
<i>HLA-C</i>	3,510
Total number of HLA class II alleles	4,404
<i>HLA-DRA</i>	7
<i>HLA-DRB1</i>	2,311
<i>HLA-DQA1</i>	78
<i>HLA-DQB1</i>	1,079
<i>HLA-DPA1</i>	45
<i>HLA-DPB1</i>	828

ii. Sequence polymorphisms^e

Total number of SNPs classical MHC region	253,309
Class I region	125,747
Class III region	51,221
Class II region	76,341

^a: From NCBI Map Annotation Release 108.6 in March 2017. Genes in brackets are the most centromeric and most telomeric ones in each region.

^b: including 5 open reading frame and 20 yet uncharacterised genes.

^c: Including 8 antisense-RNA, 9 microRNA, 1 long non-coding RNA, 8 antisense and 6 small nuclear/nucleolar RNA genes.

^d: From HLA Nomenclature website (Anthony Nolan Research Institute), March 2017 update.

^e: From Ensembl (GRCh38.p7; March 2017) using the coordinates given above (SNPs and indels excluding flagged variants).

Table 2. Gene set enrichment analysis results of the complete xMHC gene list on PANTHER tool for gene list analysis ^{a,b}

Gene ontology biological process	Fold enrichment	P value
Antigen processing and presentation	> 5	1.18E-16
Antigen processing and presentation of peptide antigen	> 5	2.33E-16
Nucleosome assembly	> 5	1.35E-15
Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous peptide antigen	> 5	5.02E-15
Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous antigen	> 5	1.23E-14
Chromatin assembly	> 5	1.52E-14
Interferon-gamma-mediated signaling pathway	> 5	2.33E-14
Protein-DNA complex assembly	> 5	9.66E-14
Nucleosome organization	> 5	9.66E-14
Chromatin assembly or disassembly	> 5	3.02E-13
DNA packaging	> 5	2.14E-12
Protein-DNA complex subunit organization	> 5	3.10E-12
Response to interferon-gamma	> 5	7.22E-12
Cellular response to interferon-gamma	> 5	8.11E-12
Immune response	3.49	1.83E-11
DNA conformation change	> 5	1.30E-10
Cellular macromolecular complex assembly	4.8	2.59E-09
Antigen processing and presentation of peptide or polysaccharide antigen via MHC class II	> 5	7.47E-09
Antigen processing and presentation of peptide antigen via MHC class I	> 5	1.49E-08
Defense response	2.95	1.01E-07
Regulation of immune system process	2.99	1.07E-07
Innate immune response	3.48	3.92E-07
Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous peptide antigen via MHC class II	> 5	6.67E-07
Antigen processing and presentation of peptide antigen via MHC class II	> 5	8.62E-07
immune system process	2.44	9.56E-07
Antigen processing and presentation of endogenous peptide	> 5	1.05E-

antigen		06
Positive regulation of cell-cell adhesion	> 5	1.97E-06
Regulation of cell-cell adhesion	> 5	2.86E-06
Antigen processing and presentation of endogenous antigen	> 5	3.03E-06
Protein complex assembly	3.3	5.47E-06
Protein complex biogenesis	3.3	5.47E-06
Regulation of T cell activation	> 5	5.96E-06
Positive regulation of T cell activation	> 5	8.38E-06
Positive regulation of immune system process	3.39	9.26E-06
Regulation of leukocyte cell-cell adhesion	> 5	9.40E-06
Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous peptide antigen via MHC class I, TAP-independent	> 5	1.02E-05
Positive regulation of homotypic cell-cell adhesion	> 5	1.12E-05
Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous peptide antigen via MHC class I, TAP-dependent	> 5	1.17E-05
Positive regulation of leukocyte cell-cell adhesion	> 5	1.20E-05
Regulation of homotypic cell-cell adhesion	> 5	1.46E-05
Regulation of lymphocyte activation	> 5	1.72E-05
Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous peptide antigen via MHC class I	> 5	2.00E-05
Regulation of immune response	3.36	2.08E-05
Macromolecular complex assembly	2.91	2.84E-05
Antigen processing and presentation of endogenous peptide antigen via MHC class I	> 5	3.34E-05
MHC protein complex assembly	> 5	8.35E-05
Cytokine-mediated signaling pathway	4.55	9.61E-05

^a PANTHER tool is accessible at <http://www.pantherdb.org>

^b The list is truncated at the arbitrary statistical threshold of $P < 1 \times 10^{-4}$

Table 3. Representative HLA and disease associations, and their corresponding GWAS associations ^a

Disease	HLA association	GWAS association (SNP ID; chromosome 6 position ^b)	GWAS P value	GWAS reference (Pubmed ID)
Psoriasis	<i>HLA-C*06:02 (PSORS1)</i>	rs4406273; 31298313 (^c)	4.5E-723 ^d	23143594
Myasthenia gravis	<i>HLA-C*07:01</i>	rs7750641; 31161533 (^c)	1.7E-114	23055271
HIV-1 control	<i>HLA-B, HLA-C</i>	rs9264942; 31306603	2.8E-35	21051598
Ankylosing spondylitis	<i>HLA-B*27</i>	rs7743761; 31368323	5.0E-304	20062062
Malaria	<i>HLA-B*53</i>	No association in xMHC	-	-
Abacavir drug hypersensitivity	<i>HLA-B*57:01</i>	No GWAS	-	-
Dengue shock syndrome	-	rs3132468; 31507709	4.4E-11	22001756
Sarcoidosis	-	rs2076530; 32396039	3.0E-11	22936702
Idiopathic membranous nephropathy	<i>HLA-DRB1*03</i>	rs2187668; 32638107 (^c)	8.0E-93	21323541
Type 1 diabetes	<i>DRB1*04-DQA1*03:01-DQB1*03:02; DRB1*03-DQA1*05:01-DQB1*02:01</i>	rs9273363; 32658495	1.0E-307	17554300
Rheumatoid arthritis (cyclic citrullinated peptide positive)	<i>HLA-DRB1*04:01, HLA-DQA1*03:01</i>	rs660895; 32609603 (^c)	1.0E-300	23143596
Systemic lupus erythematosus	<i>HLA-DRB1*03:01</i>	rs1270942; 31951083 (^c)	2.0E-165	26502338
Multiple sclerosis	<i>HLA-DRB1*05:01</i>	rs3135388; 32445274 (^c)	3.8E-225	19525953
Systemic sclerosis (Anti-topoisomerase-I antibody positive)	<i>DRB1*11:04-DQA1*05:01-DQB1*03:01</i>	rs3129763; 32623148	9.2E-187	21779181
Systemic sclerosis (Anti-centromere antibody positive)	<i>DRB1*11:04</i>	rs9275390; 32701379	1.1E-130	21779181
Pemphigus vulgaris	<i>HLA-DQB1*03:01</i>	rs9275184; 32686937	7.7E-21	22437316
Leprosy	(<i>HLA-DRB1, DQA1</i>)	rs9271100; 32608701	8.0E-95	25642632
Narcolepsy	<i>HLA-DQB1*06:02</i>	rs9271117; 32609018	6.0E-14	24204295
Ulcerative colitis	<i>HLA-DRB1*11:01</i>	rs6927022; 32644620	4.7E-133	23128233
Graves' disease	<i>HLA-DRB1*03:01, HLA-DQA1*05:01</i>	rs1521; 31382927	2.0E-65	21841780
Celiac disease	<i>HLA-DQA1*05:01, HLA-DQB1*02:01</i>	rs2187668; 32638107 (^c)	5.8E-209	20190752
Selective IgA deficiency	<i>HLA-DQB1*02:01</i>	rs116041786; 32634619	3.0E-92	27723758

^a The HLA and disease associations are based on (Trowsdale & Knight, 2013) with some additions. GWAS data was extracted from GRASP v2.0.0.0 (<https://grasp.nhlbi.nih.gov>) and EBI GWAS Catalog (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/gwas>).

^b Chromosome 6 positions are hg19 coordinates.

^c These GWAS associations correspond to the known HLA allelic associations.

^d The psoriasis association is the statistically most significant association in any GWAS.

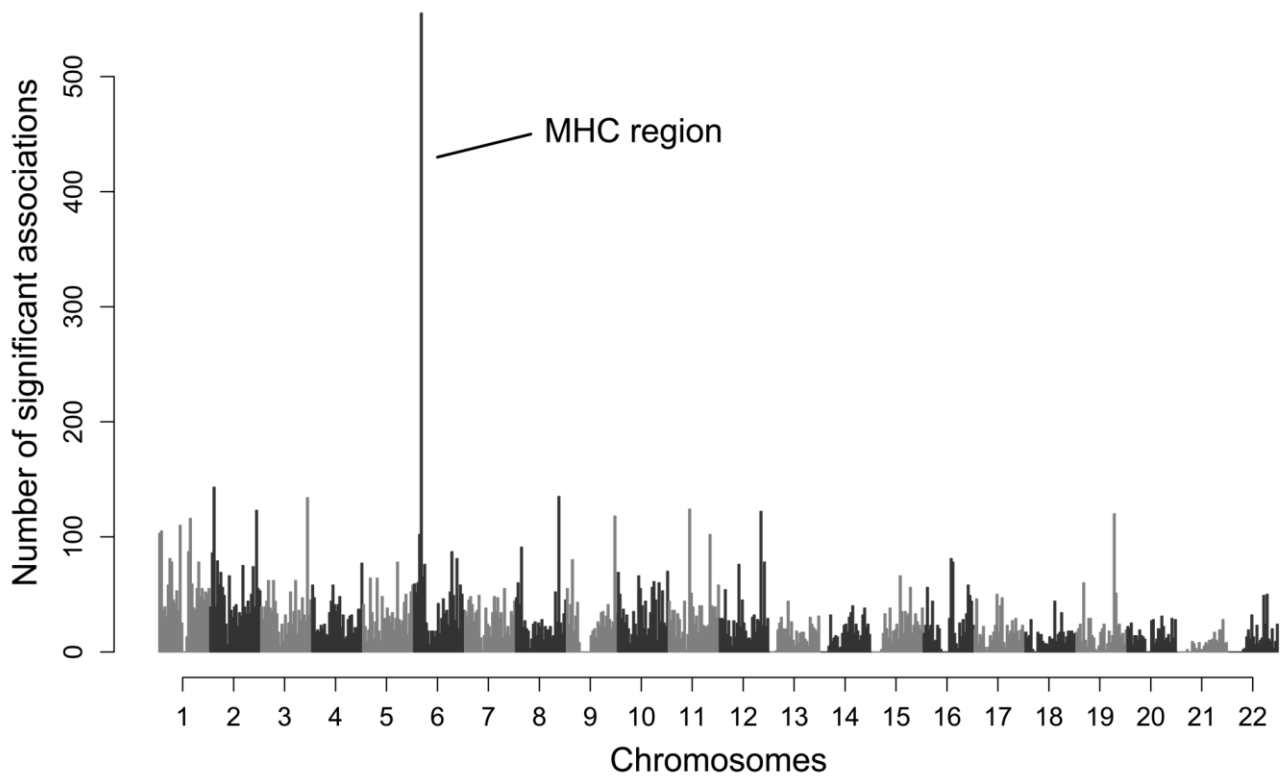


Figure 1. Number of significant GWAS associations along the genome. The chromosomal location of significant trait associations from GWAS ($N = 18,682$) are shown for all autosomes. Data from NHGRI GWAS catalog. Reproduced from “Lenz TL, Spirin V, Jordan DM, Sunyaev SR. Excess of Deleterious Mutations around HLA Genes Reveals Evolutionary Cost of Balancing Selection. *Mol Biol Evol* 2016;33(10):2555-64. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msw127” by permission of Oxford University Press on behalf of the Society for Molecular Biology and Evolution.

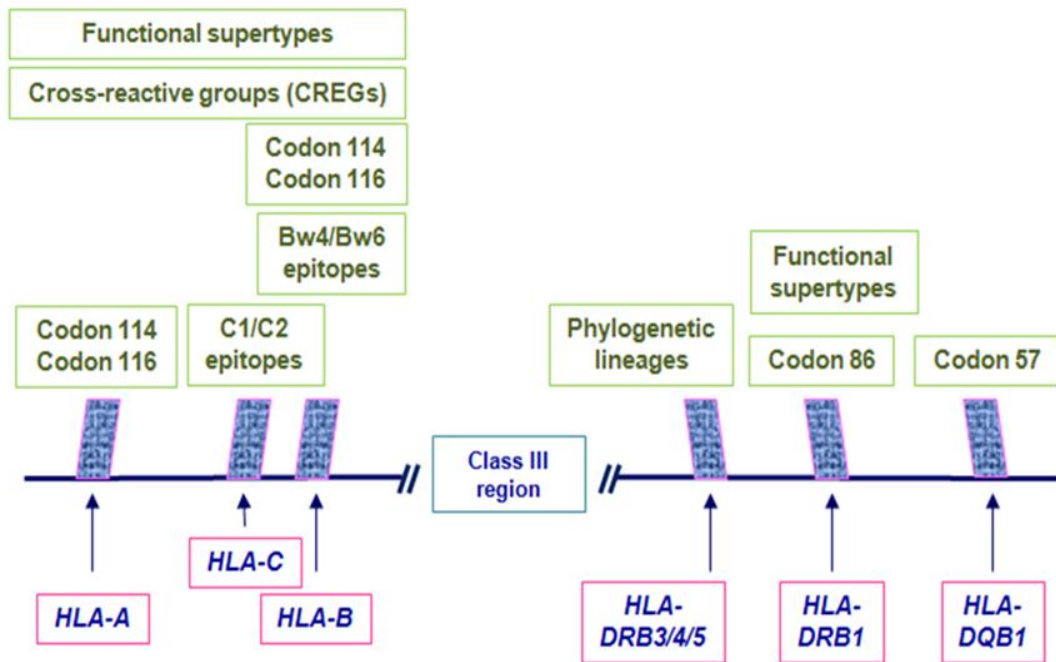


Figure 2. Well-known groupings of HLA alleles based on genetic, functional or evolutionary features.