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2 **eLS**

3 **Genome-wide Association Studies in Asthma**

4 A24639

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8

9 **Abstract:**

10 Asthma is a complex respiratory disease, with both genetic and environmental
11 factors contributing to disease susceptibility. Genome-wide Association Studies
12 (GWAS) have now identified novel risk alleles and loci associated with asthma
13 diagnosis and more recently clinical sub-groups of disease. However, while providing
14 insight into potential disease mechanisms these risk alleles have modest effect sizes
15 and account for a small proportion of the anticipated heritability of asthma. In this
16 review we provide an overview of GWAS in asthma to date including reproducible
17 associations and advances in our understanding of the biology of asthma. In addition
18 we discuss ancestry specific findings and how genetics may contribute to the
19 development of multiple allergic conditions known as the 'atopic march'. Finally, we
20 outline the strengths and weaknesses of GWAS and look to future approaches
21 including a greater focus to functional variation and assessment of gene-gene and
22 gene-environment interactions.

23

24

25 **Key words:** Asthma, genome wide association study, single nucleotide
26 polymorphism, heritability

1 **Key Concepts:**

- 2 • Asthma is a common respiratory disease that is heterogeneous with respect
3 to its underlying pathology and clinical presentation.
- 4 • Susceptibility to develop asthma involves both genetic and environmental risk
5 factors.
- 6 • Genome wide association is the current method of choice to identify genetic
7 factors underlying complex, multifactorial diseases such as asthma with
8 sufficient confidence.
- 9 • GWAS of asthma have identified several genetic risk factors and genes with
10 confidence, e.g. *IL33*, *IL1RL1*, *ORMDL3* loci. Replication of findings remains
11 the gold standard.
- 12 • GWAS of sub-groups of asthma e.g. childhood onset disease have identified
13 specific genetic risk factors.
- 14 • The effect sizes identified in GWAS are typically modest for single variants.
- 15 • GWAS have provided a unique insight into the altered biology of asthma
16 including changes in innate and adaptive immune responses, altered airway
17 smooth muscle function and epithelial barrier/function abnormalities.
- 18 • While GWAS of asthma have been successful there remains a large missing
19 heritability.
- 20 • Future approaches include better clinical definition of asthma and greater
21 interrogation of genetic factors not currently addressed e.g. regulatory
22 variants, rare variants, copy number variants and greater attention to gene-
23 environment interactions, gene-gene interactions and epigenetic mechanisms.

24

1 **Introduction:**

2 Asthma is a common respiratory disease characterised by acute episodes of
3 breathlessness, chronic inflammation of the airways, reversible airflow obstruction
4 and increased airway hyper-responsiveness to a variety of environmental stimuli and
5 allergens (1). Asthma is a complex disease with a large degree of heterogeneity in
6 the age of onset, the nature of triggers, the severity of symptoms and the
7 contribution of atopy. There is now compelling evidence that asthma is effected by
8 the joint action of both genetic and environmental risk factors in addition to their main
9 effects (2). It affects both children and adults and commonly exists with comorbidities
10 including other allergic diseases such as Allergic Rhinitis (AR) and Atopic Dermatitis
11 (AD), which also have substantial heritability (3). Genome-wide association studies
12 (GWAS), which involve the testing of typically 500,000+ genetic variants for
13 association with the disease, are currently the preferred method for studying
14 complex multifactorial diseases such as asthma.

15 In this review, we discuss recent advances in our understanding of the genetic basis
16 of asthma that have come from GWAS, including the strengths and limitations of
17 these genetic approaches. Additionally, we discuss the new insights into the biology
18 of asthma provided to date. Finally, we outline future directions in this area including
19 improved phenotype definition and additional genetic approaches to identify
20 causative variants.

21 ***Asthma is a complex genetic disorder***

22 It has been known for over 100 years that asthma and atopic diseases asthma run in
23 families. Using 621 atopic probands and 76 non-atopic controls and their families, it
24 was shown in 1916 that 48.4% of atopic probands had a family history of atopy,
25 compared with just 14.5% in the control population (4). Similarly, a very high
26 concordance of asthma, AR and AD in parents and children was established in the
27 1970s in a study of 176 families (5). Twin studies have been instrumental in
28 identifying a significant concordance of asthma that is higher in monozygotic twins
29 (identical genotype) than in dizygotic twins (on average sharing half of their genes).
30 A recent study using 25,306 twins aged 9 or 12 years identified the heritability of
31 childhood asthma to be 82%(6). Overall genetic factors are thought to account for
32 60-80% of the susceptibility to develop asthma with a smaller effect attributable to
33 environmental factors, however this does not preclude that the environment is
34 important.

1 Therefore, asthma is considered a complex genetic disorder and, in contrast to
2 single-gene disorders (e.g. cystic fibrosis), involves multiple genes with expression
3 influenced by both genetic and environmental factors. Several environmental factors
4 are important in asthma development including tobacco smoke exposure, respiratory
5 viral infections, antibiotic use, diet, and allergen exposure. In particular, early-life
6 exposures play an important role. Gender and ethnic background also have a
7 significant contribution. Environmental contributions to asthma risk is nicely
8 demonstrated by two key observations; i) the increase in asthma prevalence in
9 developed countries over the last few decades and ii) the differences in asthma
10 prevalence between rural/farming and city/non-farming children which cannot be
11 driven by genetic factors alone (7). This complex mode of inheritance, combined with
12 the heterogeneity in the presentation of the disease and differing environmental
13 influences has made gene discovery in asthma a challenge. See also DOI:
14 10.1002/9780470015902.a0005565.pub2

15

16 ***Methods for gene identification: The move to Genome Wide Association*** 17 ***Studies (GWAS) for complex disorders***

18 Early studies of the genetics of asthma investigated inheritance through families
19 containing multiple affected children, using linkage analyses and candidate gene
20 approaches based on biology or location in the genome. However, the reproducibility
21 of these findings was limited primarily because of inadequate power, subject
22 heterogeneity (different phenotype definition), population stratification, and multiple
23 testing without correction. This aside, several genes/loci were identified with
24 confidence including; *DPP10*, *PCDH1*, *HLA-G*, *NPSR1*, *PHF11*, *PLAUR*, *ADAM33*,
25 *IL10*, *CD14*, *IL4*, *IL13*, *ADRB2*, *HLA-DRB1*, *HLA-DQB1*, *TNFA*, *FCER1B*, *INPP4A*,
26 *STAT6* and *IL4RA* providing a novel insight into asthma biology (For excellent
27 reviews see (8, 9)).

28 Our understanding of the complexity of genetic variation present in the human
29 genome has improved dramatically with sequencing initiatives such as the HapMap
30 project, 1000 genomes and most recently the 100,000 genomes projects. Recent
31 figures suggest > 60 million single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) or single base
32 pair changes exist in humans. Similarly, there is a growing realization that deletions,
33 insertions, and expansions of tandem repeats also represent significant variation.
34 Technological advances enabling the simultaneous genotyping of >1 million SNPs
35 allows for the investigation of the role of polymorphisms spanning the entire genome
36 in cases and controls with very stringent statistical thresholds, e.g. $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ to
37 account for the large number of tests completed. See Figure 1 for an overview of

1 approaches used to identify genetic loci associated with asthma diagnosis. See also
2 DOI: 10.1002/9780470015902.a0021458 and DOI: 10.1002/9780470015902.a0021995

3 **Insert Figure 1 here**

4 In the following sections we provide an overview of current findings of recent GWAS
5 for i) self-reported/doctor diagnosed asthma and ii) asthma that has been refined
6 clinically to a specific sub-population of asthma patients, namely; childhood onset
7 asthma, severe asthma, asthma with frequent exacerbation, asthma with co-
8 morbidities, including allergic rhinitis, atopy, COPD and gender specific analyses.

9 ***Genetic associations identified in GWAS of asthma diagnosis***

10 The first asthma GWAS was completed in 2007 and utilised a discovery cohort of
11 994 patients who presented with childhood onset asthma in comparison to 1,243
12 non-asthma controls (10). This GWAS identified a significant association to a locus
13 on chromosome 17q21 that included multiple genes of interest, including genes for
14 a) *zona pellucida* binding protein 2 (*ZPBP2*), b) gasdermin B (*GSDMB*) and c) orm1
15 like protein 3 (*ORMDL3*). Over time, this 17q21 locus has been confirmed as an
16 association locus in independent studies with asthma (11), severe asthma (12) and
17 asthma with severe exacerbations (13) as phenotypic end-points. Further evidence
18 of the importance of this first GWAS defined locus has come through associations
19 with several asthma-relevant clinical measures in independent cohorts such as lung
20 function, bronchial hyper-responsiveness (BHR) and disease severity for the key
21 17q21 GWAS SNPs (14). However, the specific underlying gene(s) that explain the
22 genetic association remains to be resolved and it is likely that multiple genes are
23 underlying the signal(s). *ZPBP2*, *GSDMB* and *ORMDL3* have been reported to have
24 a role in gene transcription, cell apoptosis and sphingolipid synthesis respectively.
25 Recently a role for *ORMDL3* in eosinophil trafficking and degranulation, mechanisms
26 thought to be important in asthma, has been identified (15).

27 There are now more than 50 studies registered with the NHGRI-EBI catalog of
28 published GWAS for asthma and related traits (16). Typically, these studies include
29 between 300-2,000 asthma subjects and therefore may be anticipated to identify
30 ~50% of associations for common variants (minor allele frequency 10-50%) (17). A
31 summary of the main findings from these asthma GWAS is shown in Table 1,
32 focussed to loci that have been identified in the Caucasian population and have been
33 verified by replication.

1 It was realised early on that very large numbers of subjects would be needed to
2 identify genetic variants associated with asthma diagnosis with sufficient confidence
3 to overcome the issues of differential asthma definition, ancestry diversity and the
4 large number of known environmental factors contributing to susceptibility. The
5 largest of these meta-analyses to date is the study carried out by the European
6 GABRIEL (A Multidisciplinary Study to Identify the Genetic and Environmental
7 Causes of Asthma in the European Community) consortium involving 10,365 cases
8 and 16,110 controls (11). This study used primarily doctor diagnosed asthma as an
9 end point identifying association to loci spanning multiple genes, including: *IL33*,
10 *IL1RL1/IL18R1*, *HLA-DQ*, *SMAD3*, *IL2RB* and the 17q21 locus (11). Similarly, there
11 has been a US led meta-analyses, the EVE consortium, consisting of 3,246 asthma
12 cases and 3,385 controls and additional cohorts (1,702 case-parent trios, 355 family
13 based cases and 468 family based control) including subjects from European, Latino
14 and African ancestry (18). Four previously described loci associated in Caucasian
15 subjects were identified; 17q21, *IL1RL1*, *IL33* and *TSLP* (18). Therefore, to date 12
16 asthma susceptibility loci have been identified using asthma diagnosis as an end
17 point (Table 1) however it is important to note that the effect sizes of any single
18 variant is modest, odds ratio (OR) 1.1-1.4. Overall the susceptibility genes identified
19 to date are consistent with the hypothesis that asthma is caused by epithelial
20 barrier/function abnormalities and altered innate and adaptive immune responses. It
21 was reported by the GABRIEL consortium that ~49% of the lifetime risk of asthma
22 could be explained by the loci identified in this study (11).

23 **Insert Table 1 here.**

24 ***Clinical refinement of asthma for GWAS***

25 There is accumulating evidence that asthma is a heterogeneous condition involving
26 multiple sub-groups with potentially different underlying causation, clinical
27 presentation and therefore genetic basis. These groups have been identified through
28 approaches such as cluster analyses that examine clinical (e.g. lung function),
29 immunological (e.g. blood inflammatory cells) and epidemiological data (gender, age
30 of onset) (19-21). A recent study combined this clustering of phenotypic information
31 in 3,001 asthma subjects to identify four asthma groups and then completed a
32 GWAS which identified novel genetic associations for i) active adult-onset non-
33 allergic asthma and *CD200* and ii) inactive/mild non-allergic asthma with *GRIK2* (22).

1 Of these sub-groups, asthma age of onset has emerged as an important phenotype
2 for asthma development. From a genetic perspective, heritability estimates have
3 been shown to be inversely correlated with age of onset , suggesting that in
4 childhood onset disease genetic factors are more important (23). This same study
5 also demonstrated that genetic factors explained 34% of the variation in the age at
6 onset of and environmental factors 66% (23). Also, as a sub-analyses of the
7 GABRIEL study, chromosome 17q21 was identified as a specific locus for childhood
8 onset asthma (11), similarly GWAS of mild-moderate childhood asthma with
9 methacholine sensitivity and moderate-severe childhood asthma identified *PDE4D*
10 and *DENND1B* loci respectively ((24, 25) Table 1).

11 Multiple recent studies have now started to investigate different sub-phenotypes of
12 asthma to try and identify genetic drivers of specific asthma phenotypes. Such
13 phenotypes have included: i) increased asthma exacerbations in patients taking
14 inhaled corticosteroids (26), ii) early childhood asthma with exacerbations (13), iii) in
15 never/low smoking asthma subjects (27) and moderate-severe asthma (12). These
16 studies have identified several variants distinct to those previously reported for
17 asthma diagnosis such as *CDHR3* for early childhood asthma with exacerbations
18 (13). Interestingly, for several previously identified regions of interest, the median
19 effect size reported was higher in studies with a refined clinical phenotype,
20 suggesting that interpretation of doctor diagnosed asthma GWAS requires caution.
21 However, this is not all together surprising as some loci will be of greater importance
22 for different subsets of asthma patients. This is exemplified in the GWAS for severe
23 asthma with exacerbations were the number of hospitalisations reported positively
24 correlated to the SNP effect sizes, including those in the *IL33* locus (e.g. OR 1.32,
25 1.22, 1.47, 1.91 for 2, 3, 4/5 and 6 or more hospitalisations respectively) (13).
26 Focussing to moderate-severe asthma, a recent UK study did not identify any novel
27 locus meeting genome wide significance in the discovery analyses with suggestive
28 data for novel loci e.g. *C5orf56*, *CD83* however this study confirmed previous signals
29 at 17q21 and the *IL1RL1* loci in the combined analysis (12). As illustration we have
30 included the Manhattan plot and 17q21 region plot from this study of moderate-
31 severe asthma to demonstrate typical findings from a GWAS (Figure 2). In a similar
32 approach focussed to severe, difficult to treat asthma subjects as part of the The
33 Epidemiology and Natural History of Asthma: Outcomes and Treatment Regimens

1 (TENOR) study did not identify novel loci however association to the *IL13/RAD50*
2 locus was confirmed (28).

3 **Insert Figure 2 here.**

4

5 Stratification has also included investigations into co-morbidities commonly
6 associated with asthma such as asthma-COPD (29) and asthma-AR (30) overlap.
7 The presence or absence of these co-morbidities with asthma may be triggered by a
8 distinct and overlapping genetic profile. Loci associated with the combined
9 phenotype were attenuated or absent when each phenotype was investigated in
10 isolation when compared to the combined phenotype, again highlighting the need to
11 consider asthma as a more complex and multi-stratified disease. Potential genetic
12 associations included SNPs in genes: *CSMD1*, *SOX5*, for asthma/COPD (29) and
13 *ZBTB10*, *IL33*, *IL1RL1*, *SMAD3*, *TSLP*, *c11orf30*, *ORMDL3* and *CLEC16A* for
14 asthma/AR (30) (see Table 1).

15 Interestingly, stratification of asthma patients based on gender has recently
16 led to the discovery of novel genetic determinants (31), suggesting that gender-
17 stratification of asthma GWA has an important role to play in dissecting the genetic
18 architecture of asthma. Another study confirmed the importance of gender-linked
19 association by comparing three groups consisting of 2566 female cases, 2653 male
20 cases and 3830 controls identifying four female specific association loci
21 (*Rap1GAP2/17p13.3*, *C6orf118/6q27*, *ERBB4/2q34*, *AK057517/2q23.3*) and two
22 male loci (*IRF1/5q31.1*, *RAB11FTP2/10q26.11*) in multiple ancestry groups (32).

23 Therefore while data generated by GWAS of asthma focussed to specific sub-
24 groups of patients is only just emerging, it is clear that these analyses have identified
25 overlapping and distinct genetic loci from asthma diagnosis adding further to the
26 concept that genetics may contribute to the differential expression of asthma (see
27 Figure 3).

28 **Insert Figure 3 here.**

29 ***Results of GWAS in other ethnic populations***

30 Although the majority of GWAS to date have focussed to populations of European
31 descent, recent studies have also considered other ancestries including African
32 American, Mexican, Korean and Japanese cohorts. Torgerson *et al.* have used
33 diverse North American populations including 5,416 individuals with asthma of

1 European American, African American or African Caribbean, and Latino ancestry
2 with replication in 12,649 individuals from the same ethnic groups (18). Four
3 previously described loci associated in Caucasian studies were identified; 17q21,
4 *IL1RL1*, *IL33* and *TSLP*. However, importantly there appears to be some ancestry
5 specific loci e.g. the 17q21 loci was particularly relevant to the Caucasian and Latino
6 populations and a novel locus, *PYHIN1* was identified in populations of African
7 ancestry only (18). *PYHIN1* encodes pyrin and HIN-domain family, member 1 and is
8 an interferon inducible protein shown to regulate IFN- β and NO production in
9 macrophages. Ancestry specific associations have also been identified in other
10 populations. In the largest GWAS of asthma in the Japanese population to date,
11 7,171 cases and 27,912 controls were used to identify five loci; 4q31 (*USP38-*
12 *GAB1*), 5q22 (*TSLP*), 6p21 (*HLA*), 10p14 (intergenic) and 12q13 (*IKZF4*) (33).

13

14 **Overlap with other allergic diseases – the atopic march?**

15 There is accumulating evidence that allergic diseases e.g. asthma, AR, AD and traits
16 e.g. serum IgE, blood eosinophil counts share a large number of genetic
17 susceptibility loci (3). Of note genetic polymorphisms within the *IL33* and *IL1RL1*
18 (*IL33* receptor) loci are thought to be of relevance for asthma, AD, allergic
19 sensitisation and blood eosinophil counts suggesting the *IL33* pathway may
20 represent an underlying mechanism and therapeutic opportunity. Polymorphisms
21 spanning *C11orf30/LRRC32* also show association with these traits. These
22 overlapping loci may at least in part explain the concept of the “atopic march” e.g.
23 childhood AD leads to an increased risk of developing asthma, as there is
24 overlapping genetic susceptibility to both conditions. It is important to note that there
25 is also clear trait specificity for many loci, most evident for e.g. the *FLG* locus for AD.
26 Due to the common occurrence of comorbidities it is difficult to define which
27 susceptibility loci are shared or specific. As discussed earlier, there is move to a
28 more comprehensive phenotype definition in asthma genetics including stratification
29 based on co-morbidities. One recent study aimed to address this for asthma and AD
30 by stratifying patients based on AD (all), AD and asthma, and AD (no asthma) (34).
31 Using a cohort of 1,563 childhood onset AD cases and 4,054 controls, five loci were
32 identified as genome wide significant in all subjects; of interest the 1p21 (*FLG*) and
33 5q31 (*RAD50/IL13*) loci achieved markedly greater significance in the AD plus

1 asthma compared to the AD (no asthma) group (34). More recently, a GWAS in
2 infantile AD followed by childhood asthma using 2,428 cases and 17,034 controls
3 identified both novel loci (*EFHC1* on 6p12.3 and *TMTC2/SLC6A15* on 12q21.3) and
4 loci previously associated with multiple allergic traits (*FLG* (1q21.3), *IL4/KIF3A*
5 (5q31.1), *AP5B1/OVOL1* (11q13.1), *C11orf30/LRRC32* (11q13.5) and *IKZF3*
6 (17q21)) (35). This study provides further evidence for a genetic contribution to the
7 atopic march. See also DOI: 10.1002/9780470015902.a0001887.pub3

8

9 **What have we learnt so far – biology**

10 Genetic findings from asthma GWAS have provided novel insights into the potential
11 molecular mechanisms that underlie asthma development. For example *HLA* is
12 anticipated to be important for T-cell-mediated inflammatory responses as is *IL2RB*,
13 which is an intermediate molecule for T-cell survival. The signalling molecule,
14 *SMAD3*, is known to be involved in fibrosis. Asthma GWAS results identifying loci
15 related to interleukin 33 (*IL33*) and interleukin 33 receptor (*IL1RL1* or *ST2*) genes
16 have identified mechanisms of relevance related to allergic sensitisation and blood
17 eosinophilia (through other GWAS). These associations to *IL33* and *IL1RL1* were
18 replicated in subsequent GWAS for asthma and severe asthma phenotypes (12, 13,
19 36) confirming their role. *IL33* has been shown to be elevated in the airways of
20 asthma patients; particularly in the airway structural cells including the bronchial
21 epithelium, while the soluble form of its receptor *ST2* encoded by *IL1RL1* was shown
22 to be elevated during asthma exacerbation. Functional genetics, following GWAS
23 results have allowed for the determination of putative mechanisms for GWAS
24 identified polymorphisms, specifically those known to alter amino acid residues. An
25 example of such is the functional genetic study focussing to the *IL1RL1* locus which
26 has shown that the GWAS tagged SNPs may influence *IL33* and *sST2* production
27 (37).

28

29 Overall to date genes identified may be involved in diverse roles such as the function
30 and activation of inflammatory cells (*IL13*, *IL6R*, *DENND1B*, *LRRC32*, *IL2RB*, and
31 *IL1RL1*), airway smooth muscle contraction (*PDE4D*), and cell apoptosis and

1 differentiation (*GSDMB*). This once more provides insight into the potential
2 mechanisms of action that are involved in the development and modulation of
3 asthma. Of special note is that a significant number of genes (e.g. *IL33*, *IL1RL1*,
4 *C11orf30* and *TSLP*) that are known to be associated with epithelial cell functions
5 and homeostasis. This further supports the hypothesis that the bronchial epithelium
6 is altered in asthma (38). Further evidence for this concept is the recent finding that
7 polymorphisms spanning *CDHR3* are associated with severe asthma with
8 exacerbation (13). *CDHR3* encodes cadherin-related family member 3, with other
9 family members being involved in epithelial polarity and cell-cell interactions. Recent
10 data suggest that *CDHR3* is the receptor for Rhinovirus, the most common
11 respiratory virus associated with exacerbations in asthma, and that the key variant
12 identified in GWAS modulates levels of *CDHR3* providing a putative mechanism
13 (39).

14 Of note is that, for the majority of asthma susceptibility loci identified to date it
15 is unclear what are the key causative variants and genes(s) underlying the
16 association. There are intensive efforts to close this gap in knowledge using
17 approaches such as linkage disequilibrium mapping and eQTL analyses in lung
18 tissue and lung relevant cells.

19

20 ***GWAS strengths and weaknesses: Reproducibility between approaches and*** 21 ***missing heritability***

22 While GWAS have many design/technological strengths including the ability to
23 interrogate the genome on an unprecedented scale, the hypothesis free nature of the
24 approach and the potential to identify causative variants it is important to note that
25 GWAS to date in asthma have only been able to identify common variants with
26 modest effect sizes (OR: 1.1-1.4) and have shown limited concordance with previous
27 work. The lack of concordance between approaches (e.g., linkage versus GWAS)
28 can be explained by the fact that the methodologies are designed to detect different
29 types of variants (e.g., linkage analysis has good power to detect high-risk disease-
30 causing alleles but is not effective at identifying common alleles of modest effect size
31 as GWAS does). It is reassuring that many of the genes identified in candidate gene
32 approaches have been reproduced in GWAS (e.g., the *IL13/IL4* locus on
33 chromosome 5q31). Another key limitation of current GWAS in asthma is that SNPs

1 chosen for array design were not selected specifically for function. This means that
2 results reported to date using very stringent statistical approaches represent “the low
3 hanging fruit” and it is likely that causative SNPs exist in the statistical significance
4 range $<10^{-4}$ or have simply not been interrogated yet (40). These considerations
5 underlie the observation that variants identified by GWAS in asthma account for only
6 a small fraction of the heritability, a concept that is called the “missing heritability”
7 (41). Additional possible explanations to account for missing heritability include, i)
8 rare variants with larger effect size not measured on existing platforms, ii) structural
9 variation e.g. copy number variation, iii) gene-environment contributions, iv) gene-
10 gene interactions v) epigenetic mechanisms and vi) overestimation of initial
11 heritability.

12

13 **Future Directions**

14 It is beyond doubt GWAS in asthma have significantly increased our understanding
15 of the genetic architecture of this complex respiratory disease and provided a novel
16 understanding of potentially altered biology in the disease. These genetic findings
17 highlight alterations in innate and adaptive immune responses, airway smooth
18 muscle function and epithelial barrier/function. The future holds great promise to
19 extend these studies particularly beyond asthma diagnosis to further define asthma
20 sub-phenotypes with recent success including childhood onset asthma (17q21),
21 childhood severe asthma with exacerbation (*CDHR3*) and identifying novel genetic
22 determinants underlying the atopic march from AD to asthma (*EFHC1* and
23 *TMTC2/SLC6A15*). Therefore, in addition to larger International Consortia involving
24 tens of thousands of subjects investigating asthma diagnosis with improved power
25 we also anticipate a drive to GWAS in refined studies of carefully characterised
26 patients. This shift in focus is at least in part driven by the greater appreciation that
27 asthma is heterogeneous and while very large numbers have been able to identify
28 the “low hanging fruit” future approaches need to be focussed to asthma patients
29 with more thorough clinical characterisation.

30 Data from GWAS of several human traits/diseases including asthma suggest that the
31 majority of associated common SNPs are found in regulatory regions not in the

1 coding regions of genes and that these regions are enriched for e.g. DNase I
2 hypersensitivity sites. Therefore the design of current platforms for GWAS is also an
3 area of intense focus with greater emphasis on validated functional variation
4 identified in initiatives such as Encyclopaedia of DNA Elements Consortium
5 (ENCODE) (42) being a priority. Significant advances in our understanding of
6 expression trait quantitative loci (eQTL) importantly in airway relevant cells and in
7 lung tissue (43, 44) have helped identify potentially functional SNPs driving mRNA
8 levels in both a cis and trans mechanism. These initiatives and improved sequencing
9 information on rare variants were fundamental in the design of arrays used in UK
10 initiatives such as the custom Affymetrix® array for UK Biobank, a study of 502,682
11 participants in the UK.

12 In addition to GWAS additional approaches are being used including exome
13 sequencing and candidate gene resequencing which suggested an increased
14 heterogeneity in asthma and the importance of rare variants. As costs for targeted
15 resequencing and whole genome sequencing continue to decrease this makes
16 approaches to investigate variation per se on a large scale a real possibility. The
17 integration of environmental factors, known to be an important contributing factor in
18 asthma will be a focus for research efforts allowing gene-environmental interaction to
19 be identified beyond those identified for single genes e.g. interaction between CD14
20 rs2569190 and endotoxin exposure determining disease risk (2). The environment is
21 particularly important for epigenetic changes driving disease, with accumulating
22 evidence that the epigenome may be important in allergic diseases such as asthma.
23 Recently, a genome-wide methylation association study identified a significant
24 contribution of CpG islands in determining serum IgE levels, a major driver of
25 multiple allergic diseases including allergic asthma (45).

26 In summary, future approaches to asthma gene discovery and translation will
27 include: improved clinical definition, integrated models that include interactions with
28 environmental factors, GWAS data from custom/functional arrays, epigenetic data,
29 eQTL analyses, emerging sequencing approaches leading to pathways analyses
30 and biological approaches. Overall a greater understanding of genetic variation in
31 specific pathways which results in increased risk of developing asthma will generate
32 greater understanding of the biology of this complex disease. This represents the

1 first stage to clinical translation and the development of new more effective
2 treatments for asthma.

3

4

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5

6

7

1 Figures and Table

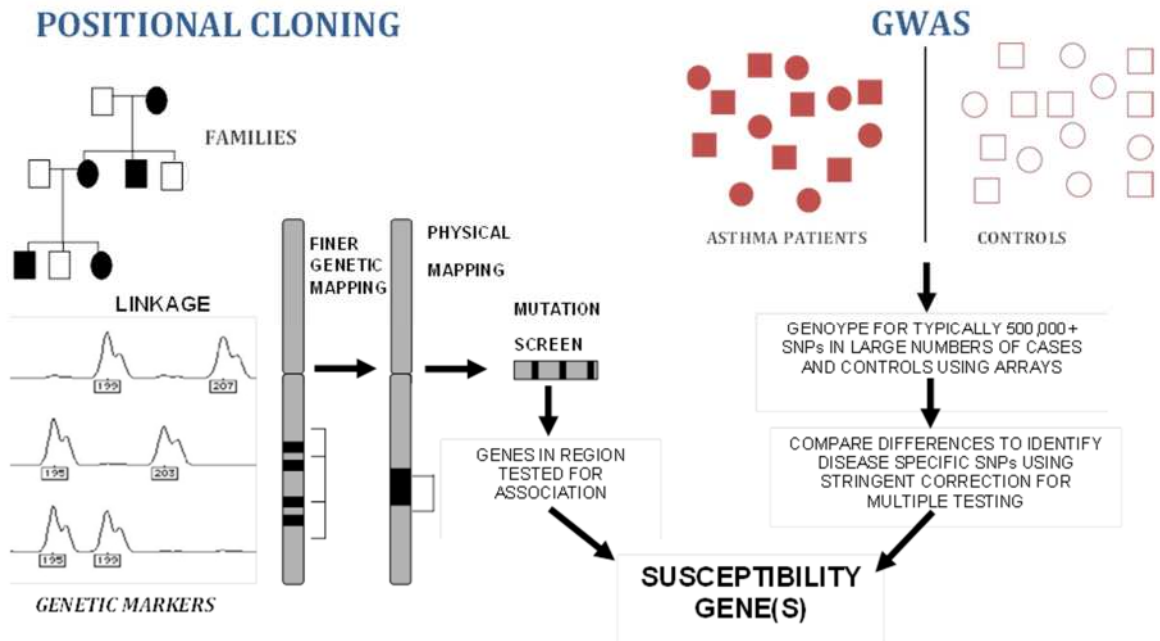
Reported Gene(s)	Locus	Biology	Associated end-point	Study (reference)
<i>IL6R</i>	1q21	Regulatory T-cell function, T-cell differentiation	A	(46)
<i>DENND1B</i>	1q31	Memory T-cell function	B	(25)
<i>IL1RL1/IL18R1, SLC9A4</i>	2q12	IL-33 receptor/sodium-hydrogen exchanger	A, B, C, D	(11, 12, 18, 30)
<i>CD200</i>	3q13	T-cell proliferation	E	(22)
<i>TLR4</i>	4p14	Pathogen recognition and activation of innate immunity	D	(30)
<i>PDE4D</i>	5q12	Cell signalling, inflammation, ASM function	B	(24)
<i>TSLP</i>	5q22	Activates dendritic cells, Th2 immune responses	A, D	(18, 30)
<i>SLC22A4/RAD50/IL13/KIF3A</i>	5q31	Organic cationic transporter/DNA repair/Th2 cytokine/cilia protein	A, C, F	(11, 13, 28)
<i>IRF1</i>	5q31	Involved in B lymphocyte expression	G	(32)
<i>HLA-DRA/DRQ</i>	6p21	T-cell responses/many additional genes in region	A, C	(11, 28, 36, 47)
<i>GRIK2</i>	6q16	Excitatory neurotransmitter	H	(22)
<i>CDHR3</i>	7q22	Epithelial polarity, cell-cell contact and differentiation	F	(13)
<i>CSMD1</i>	8p23	Regulator of complement activation and inflammation in the developing central nervous system	I	(29)
<i>ZBTB10</i>	8q21	May be involved in transcriptional regulation	D	(30)
<i>IL33</i>	9p24	Recruitment/activation of inflammatory cells	A, D, F	(11, 13, 30, 48)
<i>C11orf30/LRRC32</i>	11q13	Regulates gene expression, epithelial barrier/regulatory T-cell function.	A, D	(30, 46)
<i>SOX5</i>	12p12	Controls expression of extracellular matrix genes and cell proliferation	I	(29)
<i>SMAD3</i>	15q22	TGF- β signalling intermediate, fibrosis	A, D	(11, 30)
<i>CLEC16A</i>	16p13	Inflammatory cell function (ITAM receptor), Regulator of mitophagy	D	(30)
<i>ORMDL3/GSDMB/ZPB2</i>	17q21	Sphingolipid synthesis/cell apoptosis	A, B, C, D	(10-12, 30)
<i>IL2RB</i>	22q12	Binds IL-2/IL-15, lymphoid cell differentiation	A	(11)

2

3 **Table 1: Susceptibility genes for asthma diagnosis or asthma stratified into specific sub-**
4 **groups identified by Genome Wide Association Studies (GWAS).** A: Asthma Diagnosis, B:
5 Childhood asthma, C: Severe Asthma, D: Asthma with a diagnosis of AR, E: Active adult-
6 onset non-allergic asthma, F: Childhood severe asthma with exacerbation, G: Asthma
7 associated with the male gender, H: inactive/mild non-allergic asthma, I: Asthma with a
8 diagnosis of COPD. Data is focused to studies using individuals with Caucasian ancestry.

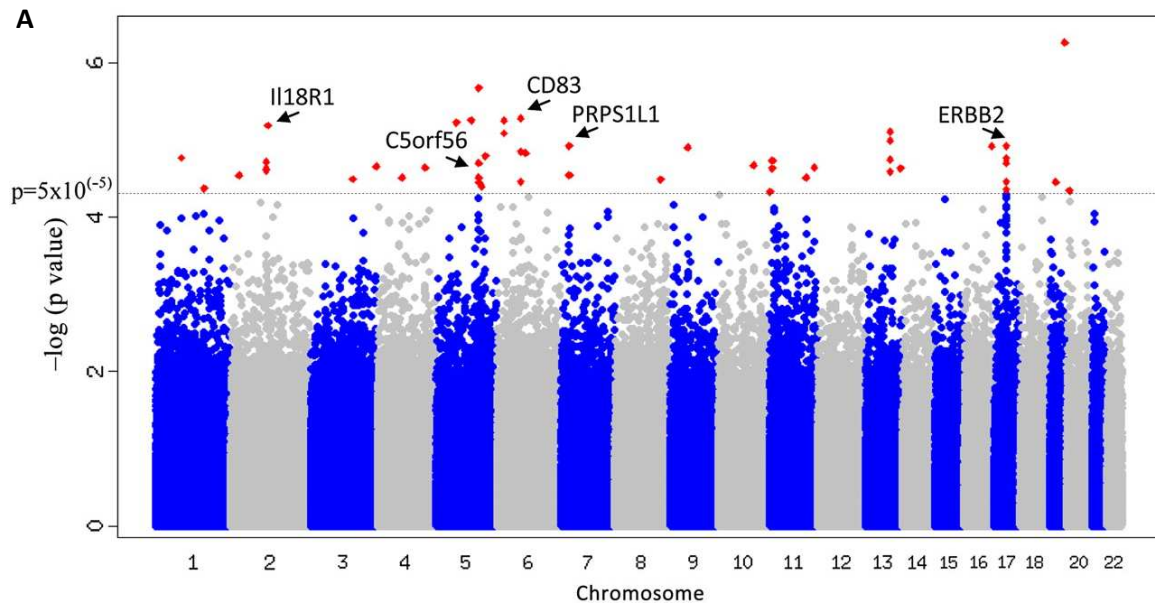
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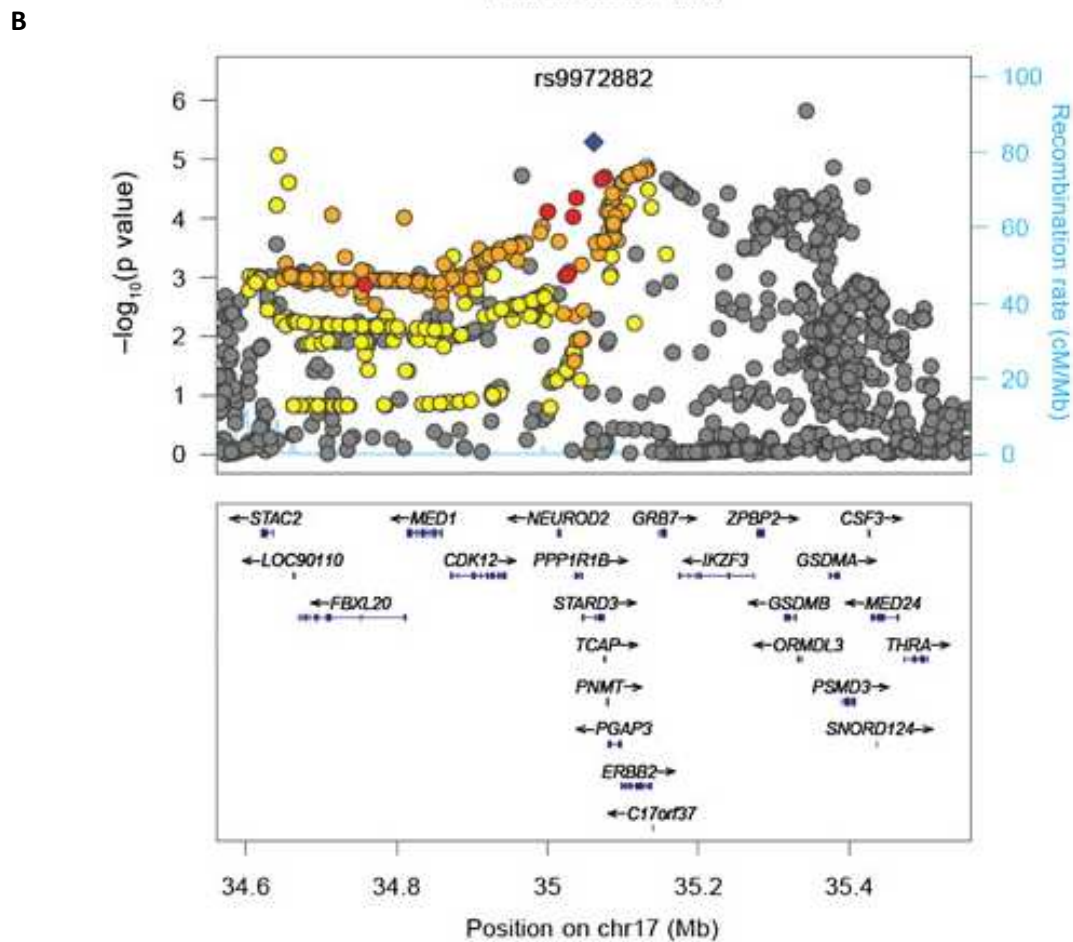


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Figure 1: Asthma Gene Discovery Methods. Positional cloning involves linkage analyses which follows the transmission of genetic information through families with multiple affected children followed by fine association mapping. Genome Wide Association Studies (GWAS) looks at the frequency of a large number of common variants between cases and controls. Both approaches lead to novel gene discovery. Reproduced with permission from (1).



1

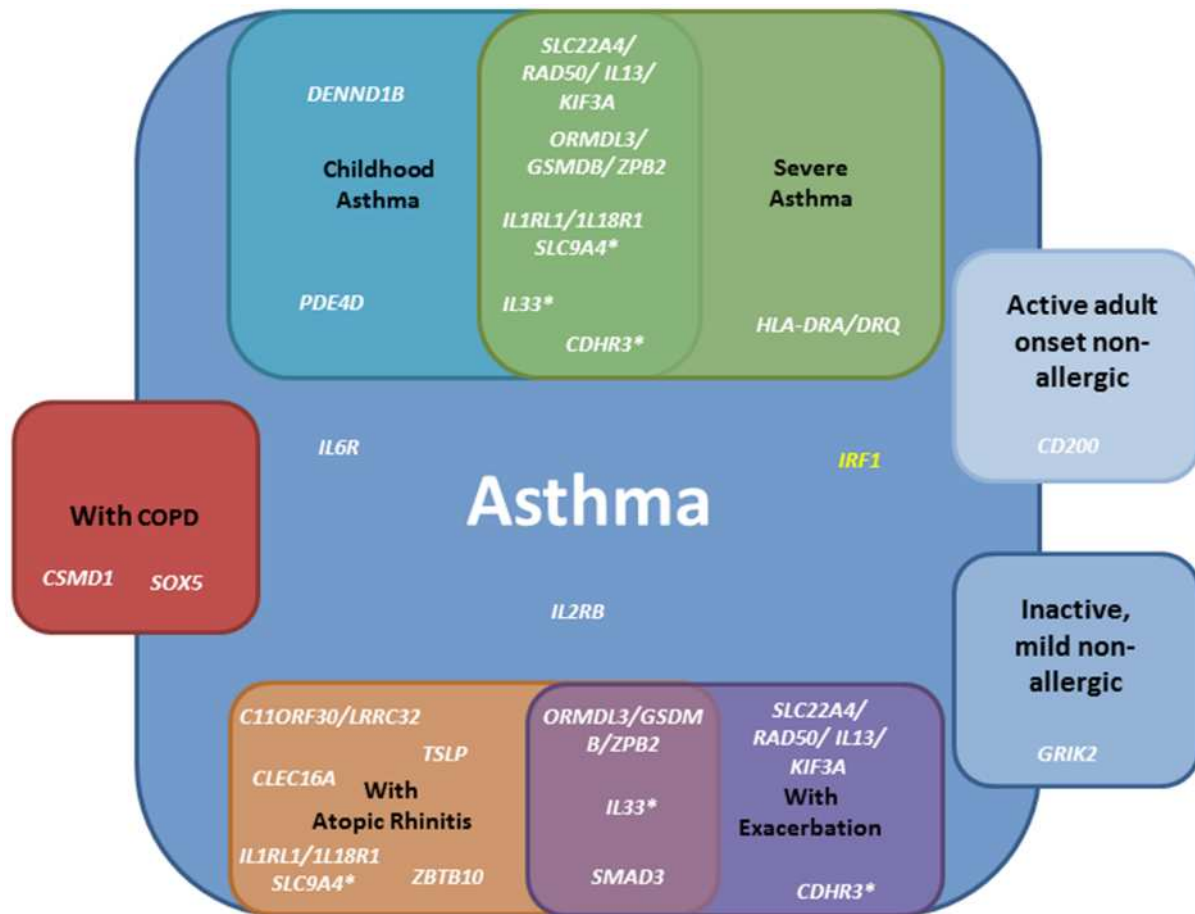


2

3 **Figure 2: Manhattan (A) and chromosome 17q21 region (B) plots from the GWAS of**
 4 **moderate-severe asthma. Multiple suggestive signals ($P < 10^{-5}$) are apparent (red) and closer**
 5 **examination of 17q21 (B) illustrates the complexity of the signal demonstrating how**

1 identification of the causative variant and gene can be a challenge. Reproduced with
2 permission from (12).

3



4

5 **Figure 3: Schematic illustrating genetic loci identified in GWAS for asthma diagnosis or**
6 **asthma stratified into specific sub-groups.** Multiple signals identified in different
7 populations are highlighted in the main blue box. Signals specific to the male gender are
8 highlighted in yellow, while genes associated to asthma with co-morbidities are highlighted
9 in their respective boxes. Loci associated with a specific sub-set of asthma are listed in their
10 respective groups a top the main box. Genes that are relevant to different groups presented
11 in box overlaps. Where overlap was not possible, genes presented multiple times in the
12 diagram are highlighted with an asterisk.

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