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ORIGINAL ARTICLE No evidence of association between genetic variants of the PDCD1 ligands and SLE

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PDCD1, an immunoreceptor involved in peripheral tolerance has previously been shown to be genetically associated with systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE). PDCD1 has two ligands whose genes are located in close proximity on chromosome 9p24. Our attention was drawn to these ligands after finding suggestive linkage to a marker (gata62f03, Z = 2.27) located close to their genes in a genome scan of lcelandic families multiplex for SLE. Here, we analyse Swedish trios (N = 149) for 23 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) within the genes of the PDCD1 ligands. Initially, indication of association to eight SNPs was observed, and these SNPs were therefore also analysed in Mexican trios (N = 90), as well as independent sets of patients and controls from Sweden (152 patients, 448 controls) and Argentina (288 patients, 288 controls). We do not find support for genetic association to SLE. This is the first genetic study of SLE and the PDCD1 ligands and the lack of association in several cohorts implies that these genes are not major risk factors for SLE.

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Introduction

Systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) is a multifactorial autoimmune disease characterized by autoantibodies

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directed against molecules found in the nucleus, cytoplasm and cell surfaces, accompanied by a wide range of clinical manifestations, including chronic inflammation of various tissues and organs. The genetic component of SLE is strong, with a concordance rate estimated to 24– 69% in monozygotic and 2–3% in dizygotic twins^{1–3} and an overall increased risk for relatives of SLE patients.⁴

A regulatory polymorphism in the gene encoding the immunoreceptor PDCD1 has previously been reported to be involved in susceptibility for human SLE.⁵ We reasoned that genes encoding molecules that interact with PDCD1 could also be susceptibility factors. In Icelandic families, suggestive linkage (Z = 2.27) was

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reported to marker gata62f03 on chromosome 9p24.⁶ This region harbours the genes for the two ligands of PDCD1, *PD-L1* (also CD274) and *PD-L2* (also CD273), which rendered them our main candidates for further analysis.

PD-L1 is constitutively expressed on B, T, myeloid and dendritic cells and is upregulated upon activation. It is also expressed in a wide range of non-haematopoietic tissues including the heart, lung and pancreas. PD-L2 is induced on macrophages and dendritic cells.7-10 Many studies have demonstrated that the PDCD1 pathway has an inhibitory effect on T cells,11-13 whereas others have indicated a stimulating effect.¹⁴⁻¹⁶ PDCD1^{-/-} mice have been shown to develop arthritis and lupus-like glomerulonephritis.17 Furthermore, in murine models of diabetes, colitis and multiple sclerosis, in vivo blockade of PDCD1 and/or one of its ligands has been shown to either trigger or augment the disease or to have a therapeutic effect.¹⁸⁻²⁰ Thus, the connection with autoimmunity and the role of the PDCD1 pathway in peripheral tolerance has been well established.

PD-L1 and PD-L2 are located together within a segment of 120 kilobasepairs (kb) on chromosome 9p24. PD-L1 is 18 kb in size with seven exons, whereas PD-L2 is located 42 kb downstream of PD-L1 and has equally many exons, but stretches up to 60 kb.

Owing to the role of the ligands of PDCD1 in autoimmunity and our previous linkage evidence, we reasoned these genes were interesting candidates for genetic association with SLE. However, the data from this study do not support such an association.

Results

In a continued analysis of the Icelandic multicase families displaying linkage (Z = 2.27) to marker gata62f03, just 267 kb upstream from the location of PD-L1 and PD-L2, we sequenced promoter regions and all exons in eight index cases from these families and eight Icelandic unrelated controls and identified 11 SNPs within or adjacent to the exons. We investigated the inheritance pattern of these SNPs, but found no significant evidence of association. The genetic material was, however, relatively small and rather suited for linkage than association studies. We therefore proceeded with genotyping of a set of trios from another Scandinavian population, namely Swedish.

In total, 23 SNPs within the PD-L1 and PD-L2 genes were selected for analysis (see Materials and methods section). Eight were found to be associated to SLE in the Swedish trios (N = 149) when analysed by haplotypebased haplotype relative risk²¹ (HHRR). The familybased association test²² (FBAT) did not, however, detect any association (Table 1).

 Table 1
 Allele frequencies of SNPs in PD-L1 and PD-L2 for transmitted and non-transmitted alleles using HHRR and for patients and population controls

SNP	Location ^a Sequence Transmitted Patients N/total feature (HHRR) N of alleles		Non-transmitted (HHRR)	Controls N/total N of alleles	P-value (HHRR)	P-value (FBAT)		
PD-L1								
$L1 \times 11$	-85	Promoter	1 (0.3%)	NT	2 (1.9%)	NT	NS	NS
rs10815225	-62	Promoter	27 (9.3%)	36/276 (13.0%)	22 (19.8%)	98/979 (9.8%)	0.0037	NS
rs7866740	-29	Promoter	21 (7.3%)	17/274 (6.2%)	18 (15.3%)	74/978 (7.6%)	0.0011	NS
rs17742278	5965	Intronic	74 (30.1%)	NT	34 (27.6%)	NT	NS	NS
rs1411262	8862	Intronic	77 (30.6%)	NT	34 (27.6%)	NT	NS	NS
rs10815226	9148	Intronic	57 (23.0%)	NT	25 (22.9%)	NT	NS	NS
rs7041009	12686	Intronic	77 (30.3%)	NT	32 (25.8%)	NT	NS	NS
C39	15529	CNS	48 (17.5%)	42/278 (15.1%)	35 (31.8%)	140/845 (16.6%)	0.0020	NS
$L1 \times 73$	17244	Intronic	18 (6.3%)	16/272 (5.9%)	17 (14.2%)	64/995 (7.0%)	0.0083	NS
rs2297136	17399	3' UTR	157 (55.3%)	135/294 (45.9%)	58 (40.3%)	465/996 (46.7%)	0.0044	NS
rs4143815	17701	3' UTR	74 (27.4%)	NT	38 (32.2%)	NT	NS	NS
rs10118693	33683	CNS	70 (29.7%)	NT	36 (36.7%)	NT	NS	NS
C57:2	33799	CNS	2 (0.8%)	NT	0 (0.0%)	NT	NS	NS
PD-L2								
rs16923189	74	5' UTR	62 (26.1%)	NT	32 (29.1%)	NT	NS	NS
C91:1	7641	CNS	2 (0.7%)	NT	1 (0.9%)	NT	NS	NS
C91:2	7667	CNS	2 (0.7%)	NT	0 (0.0%)	NT	NS	NS
rs12001295	7690	CNS	10 (3.4%)	16/285 (5.6%)	12 (10.1%)	50/840 (5.6%)	0.0053	NS
rs7870226	19447	CNS	83 (33.5%)	NT	47 (38.2%)	NT	NS	NS
C103:2	19500	CNS	1 (0.4%)	NT	0 (0.0%)	NT	NS	NS
C103:3	19512	CNS	4 (1.5%)	NT	3 (2.9%)	NT	NS	NS
rs6476989	45002	CNS	1 (0.4%)	NT	0 (0.0%)	NT	NS	NS
rs7854413	47138	Exonic	15 (5.1%)	27/294 (9.2%)	12 (10.7%)	94/1016 (9.3%)	0.029	NS
rs7852996	59290	Intronic	10 (3.6%)	23/243 (8.6%)	12 (11.1%)	68/830 (8.2%)	0.0038	NS

Abbreviations: CNS, conserved non-coding sequence; FBAT, family-based association test; HHRR, haplotype-based haplotype relative risk; SNPs, single nucleotide polymorphisms; NS, non-significant; NT, not tested.

Results of the association analysis using HHRR and FBAT are shown as well as the location of the SNPs. SNPs with rs-numbers can be found in databases, other names indicate previously unknown SNPs identified by us. Minor allele frequencies are shown. ^aBasepairs from transcription start. In order to confirm the association or lack of association, we analysed the eight SNPs in a set of Mexican trios (N = 90). Neither HHRR nor FBAT tests were able to confirm the association (Table 2). The same eight SNPs were also examined in two sets of patients and unrelated controls from Sweden (152 patients and 448 controls) and

Table 2Frequencies of PD-L1 and PD-L2 polymorphisms inMexican trios

SNP	Transmitted	Non-transmitted		
	N/total N (%)	N/total N (%)		
rs10815225	20/168 (11.9)	15/118 (12.7)		
rs7866740	8/174 (4.6)	6/120 (5.0)		
C39	39/174 (22.4)	34/127 (26.8)		
$L1 \times 73$	8/174 (4.6)	6/122 (4.9)		
rs2297136	40/166 (24.1)	31/113 (27.4)		
rs12001295	9/176 (5.1)	9/126 (7.1)		
rs7854413	18/176 (10.2)	13/125 (10.4)		
rs7852996	16/174 (9.2)	9/120 (7.5)		

 Table 3
 Frequencies of PD-L1 and PD-L2 polymorphisms in Argentinean patients and controls

SNP	Patients N/total N (%)	Controls N/total N (%)		
rs10815225	69/566 (12.2)	81/560 (14.5)		
rs7866740	34/568 (6.0)	32/562 (5.7)		
C39	139/572 (24.3)	147/544 (27.0)		
$L1 \times 73$	11/560 (2.0)	25/552 (4.5)		
rs2297136ª	208/552 (37.7)	201/522 (38.5)		
rs12001295	45/570 (7.9)	37/540 (6.9)		
rs7854413	60/566 (10.6)	64/566 (11.3)		
rs7852996	52/570 (9.1)	57/570 (10.0)		

Abbreviation: SNP, single nucleotide polymorphisms.

Minor allele frequencies are shown.

^aFor rs2297136 the opposite allele is minor compared with Swedish and Mexican cohorts.

Argentina (288 patients and 288 controls). No association was seen in either population (Tables 1 and 3), with the exception of allele T of $L1 \times 73$, which in Argentina is found in 2.0% of patients and 4.5% in controls (P = 0.0157). However, for several reasons stated in Discussion section, we consider this a false–positive result.

The Swedish and Argentinean populations are not similar enough for the two cohorts to be analysed as one, but a meta-analysis is applicable. We analysed all patients and controls from Sweden and Argentina using the Mantel–Haenszel method, and found no association. Haplotype frequencies estimated using PHASE^{23,24} did not differ significantly between patients and controls (data not shown). A comparison of the degree of linkage disequilibrium (LD) in patients and controls in our cohorts found no indications of a conserved risk haplotype in the patients. The only noticeable difference was found in the Swedish cohort, where the patients actually appeared to have a slightly lower degree of LD than both healthy controls and healthy trio parents (data not shown).

Ten of the SNPs analysed here have now been included in the HapMap Project²⁵ (http://www.hapmap. org). In the European HapMap trios, there are three large blocks of LD in the region of the PDCD1 ligands. Roughly estimated, the first block corresponds to PD-L1, the second block to the intergenic region and the first exon of PD-L2, and the third block comprises the remaining six exons of PD-L2. The markers analysed in this study are localized in 5', middle and 3' regions of both genes, as well as in the intergenic region and all LD blocks are represented by at least one SNP (Figure 1).

Discussion

We initially found indications of association between SLE and eight SNPs within PD-L1 and PD-L2 in Swedish trios analysed by the HHRR test. However, other statistical methods applied to the same data set failed to confirm this association.

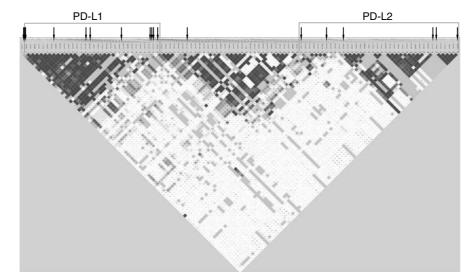


Figure 1 Pattern of LD according to HapMap data (www.hapmap.org). Dark grey indicates strong LD, light grey to white indicates weak or no LD. Position of SNPs analysed in this study are indicated by arrows.

believe this association to be, most likely, false positive. First, the risk of type I error is greater for a rare allele than for a common.²⁶ Second, this Argentinean cohort has shown to be somewhat heterogeneous with about 20% Amerindian admixture,²⁷ which further increases the risk of false-positive results owing to population substructure. Third, a large number of markers have now been analysed in several cohorts, increasing the probability of spurious association. If corrected for multiple testing, the association would become nonsignificant.

The SNPs that were associated in the Swedish trios

were also analysed in Mexican trios, and in two

independent sets of patients and controls from Sweden

and Argentina. No association was seen in these three

cohorts, except the highly questionable protective asso-

ciation of $L1 \times 73$ in Argentina. For several reasons we

There are many different statistical methods for analysing genetic association. Family-based studies have the advantage of lower sensitivity to bias owing to population substructure. On the other hand, bias can be introduced by inclusion of incomplete families or by reconstruction of parental genotypes from their offspring, causing inflated frequencies of rare alleles in the family-based controls.^{28–31} Why we observe association with the HHRR test and not FBAT, could perhaps be explained by the incomplete trios included in our material. FBAT should be less sensitive to this type of bias, as it is designed to apply to any type of pedigree, including incomplete trios.²² Comparison of non-transmitted allele frequencies from our HHRR analysis with frequencies in the healthy controls further supports this theory: the frequency of rare alleles is often considerably higher among nontransmitted than among healthy controls. Estimated haplotype frequencies did not differ significantly between patients and controls, and the degree of LD is not higher in patients than controls, which provides further evidence for lack of association in the region.

Power estimations using Quanto^{32–34} (http://hydra. usc.edu/GxE/) shows that our case-control cohorts from Sweden and Argentina each have high power to detect risk alleles with odds ratio (OR) above 1.5 (Table 4). Our trios have somewhat lower power than the case–control cohorts, and as many of our trios are incomplete, the actual power should be even lower. However, this study comprises several cohorts, which increases the overall power of the study substantially. We estimate that the risk of failing to detect true association in all of the investigated cohorts is low. Data for risk allele frequencies 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3 and ORs 1.5 and 2.0 are shown in Table 4. Although the SNPs analysed in this study were selected as possible functional polymorphisms rather

than 'tag SNPs' for the total-genetic variation in these genes, they are spread across both genes and represent all LD blocks according to the HapMap data. The existence of association to a polymorphism of strong effect in the investigated populations does therefore not appear very likely. Nevertheless, we cannot exclude the possibility of a risk factor that is not in LD with any of the markers analysed in this study. It should be noted that although the cohorts in this study are mainly of European descent, the Argentinean and Mexican are admixed with Amerindians, who have not yet been included in the HapMap project. Consequently, HapMap LD patterns may not apply as well to these populations. We also want to clarify that the functional role that the ligands of PDCD1 may have in human SLE has not been the subject of this study.

PDCD1 has in many studies been shown to be associated not only to SLE, but also rheumatoid arthritis, type I diabetes and multiple sclerosis.^{5,35–37} It has been implied that its ligands also are involved in autoimmunity.^{18–20} The result of this study, however, does not find a role for genetic variants of the PDCD1 ligands in SLE susceptibility. To our knowledge, this is the first study of genetic association between the PDCD1 ligands and an autoimmune disease. The absence of association in the cohorts studied here suggests that these genes are not major risk factors for SLE.

Materials and methods

Subjects

We studied 149 Swedish trios consisting of SLE patients and unaffected parents, as well as some unaffected siblings (58 patients in complete trios, 71 with one parent sample and 20 with only information from siblings). In total, 98 healthy siblings were included. We also studied 90 Mexican trios (56 patients in complete trios, 16 with one parent, and 18 patients with only siblings). In total, 27 siblings and five other close relatives are included. In addition, two cohorts of patient-control material including 152 independent patients and 448 controls from Sweden, and 288 patients and 288 controls from Argentina were studied. Ten Icelandic multicase families previously described⁶ were also examined. All affected individuals fulfilled four or more of the American college of rheumatology's criteria for SLE.38 This study was approved by local ethics committees in all countries and all subjects studied have given their informed consent.

Identification/selection of SNPs

Three approaches were used to identify SNPs: first, sequencing of all exons of *PD-L1* and *PD-L2* in SLE

Table 4 Power of cohorts to detect risk factor with frequency of 0.1, 0.2 and 0.3 and odds ratio (OR) of 1.5 or 2.0

Cohort	Frequency = 0.1		Frequency = 0.2		Frequency = 0.3	
	OR = 1.5	OR = 2.0	OR = 1.5	OR = 2.0	OR = 1.5	OR = 2.0
Swedish trios ($N = 149$) Mexican trios ($N = 90$)	43.0% 30.8%	82.7% 64.3%	54.3% 38.9%	91.2% 75.3%	56.0% 40.2%	91.2% 75.4%
Swedish cases $(N=301)$ and controls $(N=488)$ Argentinean cases $(N=288)$ and controls $(N=288)$	74.7% 64.6%	99.3% 97.2%	85.8% 76.9%	99.9% 99.2%	40.2 % 86.3% 77.6%	99.8% 99.1%

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patients and healthy controls identified 11 SNPs within or adjacent to the exons. Second, sequences of potential regulatory importance were identified by species sequence comparison between human and murine PD-L1 and PD-L2, including the 42 kb intergenic region and 20 kb upstream of PD-L1 using Vista.^{39,40} Thirteen regions were conserved non-coding sequences (CNS) with a threshold of 75% identity in at least 100 bp. Within these 13 CNS, we identified 10 SNPs. We also searched the introns of PD-L1 for clusters of transcription factor binding sites (TFBS), with a focus on haematopoietic transcription factors. Five such clusters were located and sequenced in patients and controls, identifying one SNP. SNPs listed in databases were analysed for alteration of TFBS. One SNP was found to disrupt the binding of RUNX1, which was implicated in the association of SLE and PDCD1.5 Thus, a total of 23 SNPs were selected for analysis.

Genotyping

Swedish trios and Icelandic families were genotyped by sequencing using BigDye Terminator (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) for all SNPs except rs16923189, which was genotyped by restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) using the enzyme *PvuII*. Mexican trios as well as Argentinean and Swedish patients and controls were genotyped by TaqMan SNP genotyping assays (Applied Biosystems). Genotypes determined by RFLP or TaqMan SNP genotyping were verified by sequencing of randomly selected samples. Rs7852996 was genotyped by sequencing in all materials, as other methods failed.

Statistical analysis

All SNPs were in Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium in all investigated populations. Swedish and Mexican trios were analysed by HHRR included in the Analyze software²¹ and by FBAT.²² For the case–control cohorts, χ^2 analysis of 2×2 contingency tables was applied. Haplotypes were estimated using the PHASE v2.1 software.^{23,24}

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Appendix

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