

Genetic Determinants of Antibody-Mediated Immune Responses to Infectious Diseases Agents: A Genome-Wide and HLA Association Study

Guillaume Butler-Laporte,^{1,2,a} Devin Kreuzer,^{1,a} Tomoko Nakanishi,^{1,3,4} Adil Harroud,^{5,6} Vincenzo Forgetta,¹ and J. Brent Richards^{1,2,7,8}

¹Lady Davis Institute, Jewish General Hospital, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada, ²Department of Epidemiology, Biostatistics and Occupational Health, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada, ³Department of Human Genetics, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada, ⁴Kyoto-McGill International Collaborative School in Genomic Medicine, Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan, ⁵Department of Neurology, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, California, USA, ⁶Weill Institute for Neurosciences, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, California, USA, ⁷Department of Human Genetics, McGill University, Montréal, Québec, Canada, and ⁸Department of Twin Research, King's College London, London, UK

Background. Infectious diseases are causally related to a large array of noncommunicable diseases (NCDs). Identifying genetic determinants of infections and antibody-mediated immune responses may shed light on this relationship and provide therapeutic targets for drug and vaccine development.

Methods. We used the UK biobank cohort of up to 10 000 serological measurements of infectious diseases and genome-wide genotyping. We used data on 13 pathogens to define 46 phenotypes: 15 seropositivity case-control phenotypes and 31 quantitative antibody measurement phenotypes. For each of these, we performed genome-wide association studies (GWAS) using the fastGWA linear mixed model package and human leukocyte antigen (HLA) classical allele and amino acid residue associations analyses using Lasso regression for variable selection.

Results. We included a total of 8735 individuals for case-control phenotypes, and an average (range) of 4286 (276–8555) samples per quantitative analysis. Fourteen of the GWAS yielded a genome-wide significant ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) locus at the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) on chromosome 6. Outside the MHC, we found a total of 60 loci, multiple associated with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV)-related NCDs (eg, RASA3, MED12L, and IRF4). FUT2 was also identified as an important gene for polyomaviridae. HLA analysis highlighted the importance of DRB1*09:01, DQB1*02:01, DQA1*01:02, and DQA1*03:01 in EBV serologies and of DRB1*15:01 in polyomaviridae.

Conclusions. We have identified multiple genetic variants associated with antibody immune response to 13 infections, many of which are biologically plausible therapeutic or vaccine targets. This may help prioritize future research and drug development.

Keywords.: genome-wide association study; human leukocyte antigen; infections; LASSO; serology.

Infectious agents have been implicated in the pathogenesis of many noncommunicable diseases (NCDs) [1]. They rank as the third leading cause of cancers worldwide [2] and are associated with multiple chronic conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis [3], Alzheimer's dementia [4], and multiple sclerosis [5]. Measuring the antibody immune response to infections is a common approach to study this relationship, as seropositivity can both serve as a marker of infection exposure and provide clues about the pathophysiology between infections and NCDs (eg, through molecular mimicry [6]). This could potentially

lead to important diagnostic and therapeutic advances, especially in the fields of vaccination and immunotherapy [7–10]. Further, given the recent global coronavirus disease 2019 pandemic, understanding immune responses to infection could help to identify common pathways that, when perturbed, influence susceptibility to infection and/or immunological response. However, the underlying pathophysiology tying infectious agents and NCDs often remains poorly understood, and their true causal effect also often remains unclear.

One approach to improve our understanding of these associations is through the study of genetic markers of infectious diseases susceptibility or host immune response. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have been used to identify the genetic determinants of a large array of diseases, improving our understanding of their pathophysiology and leading to therapeutic advances [11]. The infectious disease immune response is also intrinsically tied to the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) system [12], encoded by the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) gene complex. The MHC is a region of chromosome 6 with a high density of highly polymorphic genes, often in linkage disequilibrium, rendering any disease association

Received 11 August 2020; editorial decision 12 September 2020; accepted 22 September 2020.

^aEqual contribution

Correspondence: Guillaume Butler-Laporte, MDCM, Lady Davis Institute, Montreal, Quebec, Canada (guillaume.butler-laporte@mail.mcgill.ca).

Open Forum Infectious Diseases®

© The Author(s) 2020. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of Infectious Diseases Society of America. This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs licence (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>), which permits non-commercial reproduction and distribution of the work, in any medium, provided the original work is not altered or transformed in any way, and that the work is properly cited. For commercial re-use, please contact journals.permissions@oup.com
DOI: 10.1093/ofid/ofaa450

study difficult to perform without adequate sample sizes and appropriate statistical methods [13]. However, few GWAS and HLA association studies have been published on genetic determinants of infectious diseases, and most were limited by small sample sizes [14] or relied on patient self-reported infectious diseases diagnosis [15]; both factors led to a decrease in statistical power and difficulties with clinical interpretation.

Therefore, in order to better understand the human immunological response to infectious diseases, we undertook GWAS and HLA association studies using the UK Biobank [16] cohort (UKB) in up to 10 000 serological measurements of 20 infectious diseases.

METHODS

Phenotype

We performed this analysis using the UKB's serological measurements of infectious agents. The UKB recruited over half a million British adults between 2006 and 2010, among whom a subsample of 9724 participants provided serum samples for serological measurements of 20 different microorganisms. Samples were tested for total antibody levels against multiple antigens. These were measured using fluorescent bead-based multiplex serology technology at a dilution of 1:1000 using the Luminex 100 platform (Luminex Corporation, Austin, TX, USA). This method provides the median fluorescence intensity (MFI), a standardized quantification of the amount of antibody in the sample obtained by measuring the fluorescence emitted by the analyte-capture agent complex. Validation was performed using separate serum samples and a reference gold standard [17]. This method and the choice of seropositivity threshold have been previously validated for multiple infectious agents [17]. Finally, of the 20 original pathogens, we selected the ones with a seroprevalence of >15% for our GWAS [1] in order to ensure adequate statistical power to identify associated loci. Table 1 provides more details on the selected infectious agents.

Genome-Wide Association Study

For the GWAS, we used the UKB Version 3 imputed genotype data set, with genome-wide genotyping data available for 488 000 UK Biobank participants. Details on the collection of this data can be found elsewhere [16]. For each of the selected microorganisms, we performed 3 GWAS. First, we performed case-control analyses by splitting participants into seropositive and seronegative samples, based on the UKB suggested seropositivity definitions (Table 1). These GWAS aim to identify genetic variants associated with previous infections to each given pathogen. Second, we performed quantitative analyses using antibody MFI measurements. Given that all serological tests are at risk of low-level cross-binding with other nonspecific antibodies that are not representative of infection [18], we restricted the quantitative analyses to samples above the

seropositivity threshold, using thresholds suggested by UKB (Table 1). Therefore, these GWAS aim to identify genetic variants responsible for varying antibody-mediated immune responses within the seropositive population. Third, given the risk of heavily skewed data leading and inflation of variance with higher MFI (in violation of linear regression assumptions), we performed the same quantitative analysis but using a logarithmic transform on antibody MFI.

For all GWAS, we restricted our analysis to White British individuals, as identified using principal component analysis [19]. This was performed to minimize bias from population stratification, which tends to confound the relationship between the genetic variants and the phenotype of interest [20]. For the 2 quantitative analyses, we standardized the data to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1 before applying the algorithm. We performed all GWAS using the fastGWA mixed model package [21] with the following covariates: sex, age, UKB assessment center visited, and the first 20 principal components. We excluded single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) with minor allele frequencies <1%. A prespecified P value threshold of $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ was then used to identify genome-wide significant SNPs [22]. Lead genetic variants at each loci were identified using the plink software (276 to 8555) [23, 24] clump function with a linkage disequilibrium threshold of 0.2 and a physical distance threshold of 500 kilo-base pairs.

HLA Association Study

Next, we performed HLA association studies on the same 3 phenotypes as those defined above for our GWAS. This was also done for each of the selected pathogens. HLA classical allele imputation was performed by the UKB using the HLA*IMP:02 algorithm [16]. The following HLA class I and II genes were studied: *A*, *B*, *C*, *DRB1*, *DRB3*, *DRB4*, *DRB5*, *DPA1*, *DPB1*, *DQA1*, and *DQB1*. As recommended by the UKB [25], we set alleles with a posterior probability call of <0.7 to a copy number of 0. Similarly, the UKB used the 99:01 suffix to indicate that no *DRB3-4-5* alleles were present and recommends setting them to 0. Given the high degree of collinearity between HLA gene alleles and the large number of statistical tests planned, we used Lasso regression for variable selection. Lasso imposes a penalty on models selecting larger variable numbers and is therefore less likely to uncover false associations than stepwise regression methods [26]. The analysis used all HLA allele copy numbers, age, sex, and the first 20 principal components as variables from which to select a sparse model. Analyses were also restricted to White British individuals. To further reduce false associations, we performed 10-fold cross-validation 100 times and only selected variables that were chosen by Lasso in at least 95 of our analyses, using the 1 standard error selection rule [26]. In cases of repeated measurements from the same individuals, we average their results (for quantitative MFI phenotypes), and an individual was called seropositive if at least 1 serology test

Table 1. Details of Infectious Agents Studied

Infectious Agents Groups	Infectious Agents	Antigen Targets	MFI Seropositivity Threshold Used for Quantitative GWAS	Number of Seropositive Samples (%) (for MFI Quantitative GWAS)	Seropositivity Definitions if Multiple Antigens Available (for Case–Control GWAS)
Herpesviridae	Herpes simplex virus-1	mgG-1	150	6199 (69.0)	n/a
	Herpes simplex virus-2 Epstein-Barr virus	mgG-2	150	1382 (15.4)	n/a
		VCA p18	250	8518 (94.8)	Positive for 2 or more antigens
		EBNA-1	250	7972 (88.7)	Total: 8477 (94.4%)
		ZEBRA	100	8191 (91.2)	
		EA-D	100	7763 (86.4)	
	Human cytomegalovirus	pp150	100	5136 (57.2)	Positive for 2 or more antigens
		pp52	150	5681 (63.2)	Total: 5045 (56.2%)
		pp28	200	5087 (56.6)	
	Human herpesvirus-6	IE1A	100	6968 (77.6)	Three seropositivity definitions assessed separately:
IE1B		100	7119 (79.2)	-Positive for any antigen, total: 8171 (91.0%) -Positive for IE1A, total: 6968 (77.6%)	
p101k		100	1951 (21.7)	-Positive for IE1B, total: 7119 (79.2%)	
Human herpesvirus-7	U14	100	8528 (94.9)	n/a	
Varicella zoster virus	Glycoproteins E and I	100	7595 (84.5)	n/a	
Polyomaviridae	Human polyomavirus BKV	BK VP1	250	8555 (95.2)	n/a
	Human polyomavirus JCV	JC VP1	250	5118 (57.0)	n/a
	Merkel cell polyomavirus	MC VP1	250	5915 (65.8)	n/a
Bacteria	<i>Chlamydia trachomatis</i>	momp A	100	964 (10.7)	Seropositive if either:
		momp D	100	1371 (15.3)	-Positive for pGP3
		tarp-D F1	100	1635 (18.2)	-Negative for pGP3 but positive for 2 out of 5 remaining antigens (but momp D and momp A can only contribute once together)
		tarp-D F2	100	2074 (23.1)	
		PorB	80	273 (3.04)	
	<i>Helicobacter pylori</i>	pGP3	200	1784 (19.9)	Total: 1784 (19.9%)
		CagA	400	985 (11.0) ^a	Positive for 2 or more antigens, except for CagA ^a
		VacA	100	1571 (17.5)	Total: 2674 (29.8%)
		OMP	170	2640 (29.4)	
		GroEL	80	2716 (30.2)	
Parasite	<i>Toxoplasma gondii</i>	Catalase	180	1558 (17.3)	
		UreA	130	2251 (25.1)	
		p22	100	1308 (14.6)	Positive for either antigen
	sag1	160	3919 (43.6)	Total: 2449 (27.3%)	

This table is adapted from the UKB documentation [17]: infectious agents selected for the GWAS analyses, the antigen targets used for antibody measurements, and the seropositivity definitions used for case–control status. All counts and ratios are restricted to the 8761 samples from white British individuals.

Abbreviations: UKB, UK Biobank; GWAS, genome-wide association study.

^aCagA was not available for all participants and was therefore not used for seropositivity calculation.

was above the seropositivity threshold (for case–control phenotypes). Analyses were performed using the glmnet package (version 2.0.16) on R (version 3.5.0).

Amino Acid Residue Association Study

Given the highly polymorphic HLA genes, different alleles may encode similar sequences of amino acids, and studying the association between diseases, those amino acid residue sequences can be a more powerful and informative statistical analysis [27]. To do this, we first used the IMGT/HLA database [28] to translate each HLA allele copy number (as defined above) to amino acid copy numbers. In cases where the specific amino acid residue was unknown (ie, an asterisk in the IMGT/HLA database),

we set it to 0. We used the same Lasso analysis pathway described above, using amino acid copy numbers, age, sex, and the first 20 principal components. Repeated serology measurements were handled as above. Note that given that some alleles and amino acid residues are not commonly found in every population, amino acid residues with 100% correlation were analyzed as the same and were reported as such in the results.

Review of Previously Reported Associations

We used the NHGRI-EBI GWAS catalog [29] and the Phenoscanner [30, 31] tool to review previously reported disease associations with the genome-wide significant SNPs found in our GWAS, and with the alleles selected using

the HLA allele Lasso analyses. Note that the Phenoscanner uses SNP rsID rather than allele identifiers for the HLA region. We restricted our results to genome-wide significant associations.

Patient Consent Statement

Consent was obtained by the UKB for every enrolled participant.

RESULTS

A total of 13 pathogens were chosen from the original list of infectious disease agents (Table 1). Most microbes were viruses of the *Herpesviridae* family, though the 3 *Polyomaviridae* viruses most commonly associated with human NCDs [32] were also selected. Seroprevalence was highly variable, with Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) antibodies found in >94% of individuals and *Chlamydia trachomatis* in <20%. There were a total of 8735 White British individual participants (55.9% female), providing a total of 8984 individual samples. There was an average (range) of 4286 (276–8555) samples used for quantitative analyses. The median age (interquartile range) was 58 (51–64) years at the time of enrollment into the UKB.

As suspected before performing the analyses, log-transformed MFI analyses had more stable estimates than their untransformed counterparts. Visual inspection of the untransformed antibody MFI GWAS Manhattan plots showed a large amount of genome-wide significant loci, even in analyses with smaller sample sizes (results not shown). This suggests that the variance-stabilizing logarithmic transform was able to reduce most of the noise observed in the signals. Therefore, here we will only report on results from case-control and log-transformed antibody MFI analyses. Manhattan plots from these analyses are available in [Supplementary Data 1](#).

GWAS

A total of 46 GWAS were performed: 15 case-control analyses and 31 logarithm-transformed MFI analyses. Genome-wide significant loci are shown in Table 2. Genomic inflation factors ([Supplementary Data 2](#)) were smaller than 1.04 for all GWAS, except for momp D MFI (log-transformed) at 1.24. This analysis also yielded 22 separate loci using LD clumping, the largest number of genome-wide significant peaks. However, this was one of the analysis with the smallest sample size (1371 individuals). Given the genomic inflation, an underlying population stratification and an elevated rate of false-positive associations should be suspected.

Reassuringly, 14 analyses showed a locus at the MHC (Figure 1), with EBV ($P = 1.9 \times 10^{-76}$ to 3.1×10^{-16}), JC virus (JCV; $P = 1.7 \times 10^{-47}$ to 4.5×10^{-24}), and Merkel cell virus (MCV; $P = 7.3 \times 10^{-37}$ to 1.0×10^{-18}) showing the strongest associations. Interestingly, the FUT2 gene on chromosome 19 was identified in both the case-control JCV seropositivity analysis and the BK virus VP1 log-transformed MFI analysis. Otherwise, no other

genetic loci were identified more than once, including within infectious agent families.

HLA Allele Association Analyses

EBV antibody MFIs (EA, EBNA-1, and ZEBRA) were associated with the most HLA alleles, with Lasso selecting 10 alleles for EBNA-1. The DQB1*02:01 and DQA1*03:01 alleles were found in 2 out of the 3 EBV antibody analyses (EA-D, EBNA-1, and ZEBRA) in Table 1. Interestingly, despite a strong MHC locus in the GWAS, Lasso did not select any alleles for VCA antibody MFI. This is most likely because the effect sizes and collinearity from any of the HLA alleles were likely too small to confidently select them in a multivariate analysis such as Lasso. Among the *Polyomaviridae*, JCV and MCV replicated their GWAS finding, with DRB1*15:01 and DRB5*01:01 (also identified in EBNA-1) being selected in both antibody MFI analyses. Of note, these 2 HLA alleles are in almost complete linkage disequilibrium in European populations [33, 34]. Finally, varicella zoster virus antibody MFI was associated with 3 HLA alleles, 1 of which (DQB1*02:01) was also associated with 2 EBV antibodies (EA-D and EBNA). Results from the HLA allele association studies are summarized in Table 3.

HLA Amino Acid Residue Association Analyses

Lasso selected amino acid residues from most selected alleles in the HLA allele association above, and also selected amino acid residues from proteins encoded by genes whose alleles were not previously selected. There were some differences, most significantly for the ZEBRA MFI analysis. This is likely to be due to the high rate of multicollinearity between amino acid residues encoded by MHC genes, which even Lasso was not able to entirely untangle. The full results can be found in [Supplementary Data 3](#).

Review of Previously Reported Associations

Of the 88 associations obtained from either GWAS or HLA allele Lasso analysis, the NHGRI-EBI GWAS catalog found previously reported associations in 17 variants. In total, there were 73 previously reported associations, 57 in the HLA regions. Using the Phenoscanner and the 52 loci obtained from our GWAS, 24 had previously reported associations (total of 453 associations), of which 14 were in non-HLA regions (total of 271 associations). With both tools, associations included a wide range of diseases, including autoimmune diseases, white blood cell counts, body mass index, or respiratory functions ([Supplementary Data 4 and Supplementary Data 5](#)).

DISCUSSION

Infectious diseases are a major contributor to the global burden of diseases and play a significant role in many NCDs. Given that multiple factors, both heritable and environmental, contribute

Table 2. Lead Significant Variants per GWAS as Determined by LD Clumping

Agent	Analysis	Variant	CHR	Beta	SE	P Value	Effect Allele	Other Allele	Effect Allele Frequency	Overlapping or Nearest Gene
BKV	VP1 MFI (log)	rs492602	19	-0.09	0.015	4.3e-09	A	G	0.479	FUT2
<i>C. trachomatis</i>	Seropositivity case-control	rs143335233	2	-0.14	0.023	5.4e-09	C	T	0.983	NCK2
		rs74725117	3	-1.71	0.31	4.5e-08	T	G	0.987	TP63
	PorB MFI (log)	Chr4:13265941	4	-1.53	0.28	3.1e-08	CT	G	0.983	RNU6-962P
		rs201129973	6	-1.74	0.31	3.1e-08	G	A	0.981	RP11-302L19.1
		rs61957300	13	-1.28	0.23	3.6e-08	A	C	0.975	TPTE2P2
		rs140031044	18	-2.05	0.33	7.4e-10	A	G	0.989	CTD-2008L17.1
		pGP3 MFI (log)	Chr7:66874490	7	-0.32	0.059	4.2e-08	CTCTT	C	0.916
CMV	pp28 MFI (log)	rs12698418	7	0.13	0.024	4.4e-08	G	A	0.248	EN2
EBV	Seropositivity case-control	rs71437272	13	0.07	0.012	2.1e-08	C	T	0.980	RASA3
		rs9379862	6	0.10	0.018	1.1e-08	T	C	0.740	BTN3A2
	VCA MFI (log)	rs9271536	6	0.19	0.020	7.3e-21	A	T	0.180	HLA-DQA1 (MHC)
		rs34034915	6	0.10	0.017	3.3e-09	T	TG	0.660	RP1-97D16.1
	ZEBRA MFI (log)	Chr6:32597087	6	-0.29	0.016	3.0e-75	CA	C	0.637	HLA-DQA1 (MHC)
	EBNA-1 MFI (log)	rs67886110	3	0.09	0.016	2.1e-08	G	T	0.599	MED12L
		rs6927022	6	0.30	0.016	1.9e-76	A	G	0.505	HLA-DQA1 (MHC)
EA-D MFI (log)	rs2316515	6	0.09	0.016	4.2e-08	A	G	0.388	IRF4	
	rs2395192	6	-0.13	0.016	3.1e-16	C	T	0.440	HLA-DRB9 (MHC)	
	rs73067509	7	0.14	0.025	2.2e-08	C	G	0.892	AC004538.3	
HHV6	IE1A MFI (log)	rs13079586	3	-0.10	0.018	4.6e-08	C	T	0.674	ITGA9
		rs2844606	6	-0.10	0.017	1.2e-08	A	G	0.584	RPL3P2 (MHC)
	IE1B MFI (log)	rs28752523	6	-0.12	0.021	7.9e-09	C	T	0.806	HLA-DQA1 (MHC)
HHV7	U14 MFI (log)	rs139299944	6	0.11	0.016	4.1e-12	C	CT	0.658	HLA-DQA1 (MHC)
		rs75438046	11	0.27	0.047	1.0e-08	G	A	0.973	CXCR5
		rs1808192	17	-0.09	0.016	6.8e-09	A	G	0.329	TBKBP1
<i>H. pylori</i>	OMP MFI (log)	rs3104361	6	-0.18	0.029	6.5e-10	T	C	0.418	HLA-DQB1 (MHC)
	UreA MFI (log)	rs71569678	6	-0.34	0.061	3.0e-08	A	C	0.940	RP11-439H9.1
HSV2	Seropositivity case-control	rs538162817	3	-0.14	0.025	2.9e-08	T	C	0.988	GRK7
		rs7503464	17	0.03	0.0054	1.2e-08	G	A	0.484	CTD-3195I5.5
	mgG-2 MFI (log)	rs144232229	3	-1.0	0.17	1.9e-09	G	A	0.989	TAMM41
		Chr5:166282898	5	0.73	0.13	4.6e-08	CT	C	0.020	CTB-63M22.1
JCV	Seropositivity case-control	rs17843569	6	-0.15	0.010	1.7e-47	C	G	0.157	HLA-DQA1 (MHC)
		rs2432132	19	-0.06	0.0082	8.8e-15	C	T	0.380	FUT2
	VP1 MFI (log)	rs1610401	1	0.35	0.063	1.9e-08	G	C	0.026	LRRN2
		rs374949924	6	-0.26	0.026	4.5e-24	G	A	0.198	HLA-DRB6 (MHC)
MCV	Seropositivity case-control	rs55792153	5	0.05	0.0082	3.6e-10	A	C	0.255	TMEM173
		rs9269771	6	-0.12	0.0096	7.3e-37	T	C	0.252	HLA-DRB1 (MHC)
	VP1 MFI (log)	rs7444313	5	0.16	0.021	6.5e-15	G	A	0.273	TMEM173
		rs76148407	6	0.31	0.052	1.8e-09	C	G	0.967	HIST1H4P51
		rs114708114	6	0.37	0.066	2.1e-08	C	T	0.980	OR2E1P
		rs75040706	6	0.30	0.054	3.4e-08	A	G	0.970	RP1-86C11.7
rs28393149	6	-0.26	0.029	1.0e-18	C	G	0.882	HLA-DRB6 (MHC)		
<i>T. gondii</i>	sag1 MFI (log)	rs541989586	3	-0.26	0.047	3.9e-08	A	AT	0.934	SOX2-OT
		rs148929820	5	-0.44	0.072	8.5e-10	G	A	0.975	RP11-510I6.1
		rs11881343	19	-0.47	0.086	3.9e-08	A	T	0.982	NOTCH3
VZV	Seropositivity case-control	rs1766	6	-0.04	0.0055	1.1e-11	A	G	0.530	HLA-DQB1 (MHC)
		rs13197633	6	-0.20	0.025	1.4e-15	G	A	0.880	TOB2P1
	Glycoproteins E and I MFI (log)	rs34073492	6	-0.19	0.025	5.8e-14	C	T	0.877	RP11-457M11.5
		rs56401801	6	-0.19	0.025	6.7e-14	T	A	0.883	VN1R10P
		rs13204572	6	-0.16	0.026	1.1e-09	G	C	0.892	HIST1H4D
rs1048381	6	-0.22	0.021	6.3e-25	G	A	0.815	HLA-DQA1 (MHC)		

Where applicable, variant positions are given using the GRCh37/hg19 human genome assembly. For variants within the major histocompatibility complex, only the variant with lowest P value is reported.

Abbreviations: BKV, BK polyomavirus; CMV, cytomegalovirus; CHR, chromosome; EBV, Epstein-Barr virus; HHV6, human herpes virus 6; HHV7, human herpes virus 7; HSV2, herpes simplex virus type 2; JCV, JC polyomavirus; MCV, Merkel cell polyomavirus; MFI, mean fluorescence intensity; MHC, major histocompatibility complex; SE, standard error; VZV, varicella zoster virus.

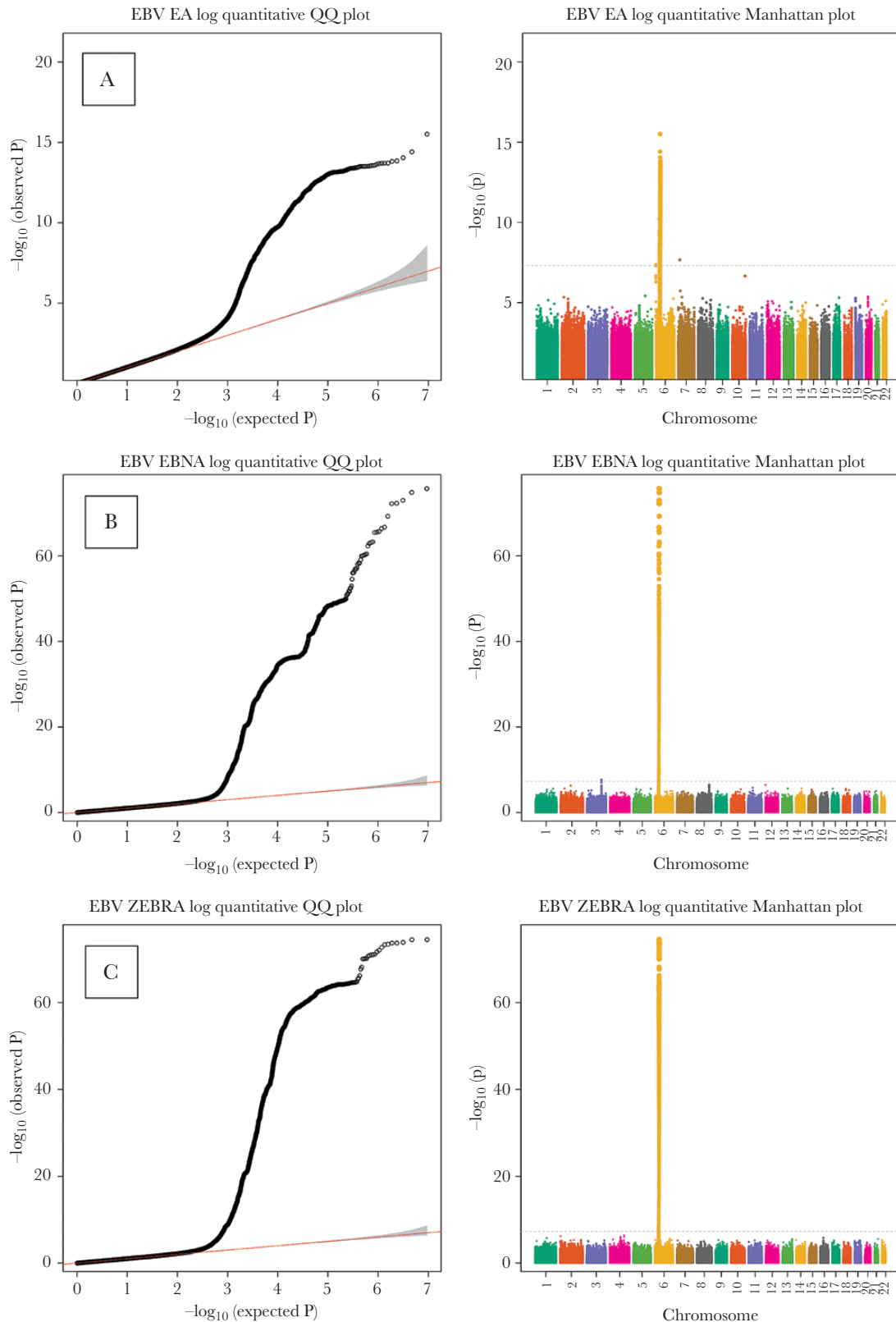


Figure 1. QQ plot and Manhattan plots from selected GWAS from the seropositivity case–control and antibody log-transformed MFI analyses. Each dot on a Manhattan plot (right) represents the P value (y-axis, on a logarithmic scale) associated with the association test at a genetic variant. Values above the dashed line are considered genome-wide significant. QQ plots (left) show the observed P values (y-axis) against the expected P values (x-axis). Any deviance from the red line suggests that the effect seen is not explained only by chance alone. As can be seen, the MHC is a commonly identified locus. A, EBV EA-D MFI (log). B, EBV EBNA-1 MFI (log). C, EBV ZEBRA MFI (log). D, JCV seropositivity case–control. Abbreviations: EBV, Epstein-Barr virus; JCV, JC polyomavirus; GWAS, genome-wide association studies; MHC, major histocompatibility complex; MFI, mean fluorescence intensity.

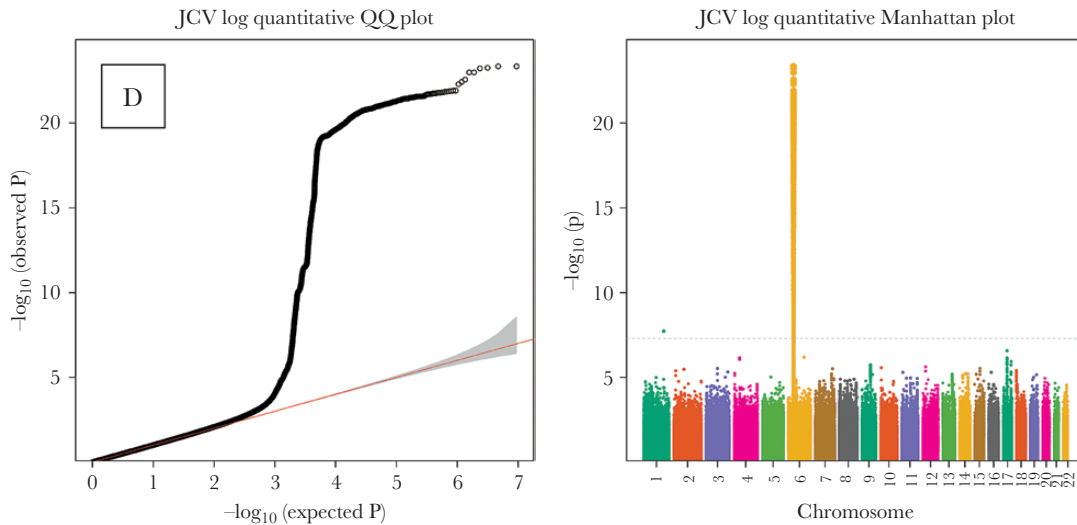


Figure 1. Continued.

to their transmission, their acquisition, and the human host response, studying their genetic determinants can be challenging. In this study, we have used measurements from the UKB's serological results to perform the largest reported genetic association study of infectious diseases antibody measurements to date. While the HLA region was commonly associated with the host's antibody-mediated immune responses, we have uncovered multiple biologically plausible genetic determinants of infectious diseases. For example, for EBV, we found loci at *RASA3* [35], *MED12L* [36], and *IRF4* [37], which are related to viral transcription or related to EBV-associated carcinogenesis. Similarly, the *TMEM173*-encoded *STING* [38] protein is associated with MCV-caused Merkel cell carcinoma [39]. Further, while our results cannot prove causality, multiple previously reported epidemiological associations support our methodology. For example, allele *DRB1*15:01* was associated with both JCV analysis and EBV ZEBRA analysis. *DRB1*15:01* is the main genetic risk factor for multiple sclerosis [40], a disease previously associated with EBV [41]. *DRB1*15:01* was also selected by Lasso as a predictor of JCV serology, the cause of progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy, another demyelinating disease [42] that can also be triggered when giving immunosuppression to patients with multiple sclerosis [43]. Similarly, *FUT2* was associated with both BKV and JCV, 2 *Polyomaviridae* with high genetic homology [44], and is therefore likely to be truly associated with their pathophysiology. *FUT2* is a major determinant of the blood group secretor status and has been associated with multiple other viruses [45] and NCDs, most notably kidney diseases [46, 47]. Uncovering these genetic determinants may allow for better informed drug and vaccine development, which typically is a long and expensive process. Similar genetics-informed prioritization of therapeutic targets for further drug and vaccine development has previously been used in multiple diseases with success [48].

There are few published GWAS on human infectious diseases [14, 15, 49–52], and each has employed a different methodology to enroll patients, making comparisons difficult. Our study used serology data, but others have used prospective patient enrollment [52] or electronic medical record data [50, 51], and the biggest GWAS on infectious diseases to date used self-reported history using questionnaires [15]. A similar preprint using the same data as ours is currently accessible and found similar significant associations [53]. However, the authors performed a slightly different analysis that did not account for intrinsically limited serology testing specificity or UKB HLA quality control recommendations. Nevertheless, as we found here, the HLA emerges as an important risk locus across most published GWAS.

Our study's main strength lies in its careful methodology. Given the large number of statistical tests performed and the inherent diagnostic limitations of serological tests, we made multiple analytic choices to ensure interpretable results while lowering the risk of false associations. Most notably, we used Lasso regression to select HLA alleles and amino acid residues, and we used logarithmic transform to stabilize the variance of the antibody MFI analyses.

However, given that serological tests may have multiple possible interpretations, our results should be interpreted with caution. That is because the differential diagnosis of a negative serological test includes having never been in contact with the infectious agent, the host not being able to mount an antibody mediated response, or antibodies not being a good proxy for either contact or immune response [54]. Alternatively, a positive antibody titer may be explained by cross-reactivity with other antigens, especially if the antibody titers are low [55]. Further, antibody levels are known to vary in time due to multiple host and environmental factors [56]. To better assess antibody-mediated response in hosts with a likely exposure, we have limited our quantitative analyses to

Table 3. HLA Allele Association Analysis Summary

Agent	Analysis	Selected Components	Univariate Effect (95% CI)	Univariate P Value	Multivariate Effect (95% CI)	Multivariate P Value				
EBV	EA-D MFI (log)	B*08:01	-0.16 (-0.20 to -0.11)	6.17×10^{-12}	-0.065 (-0.13 to -0.0011)	.05				
		DRB1*09:01	0.40 (0.27 to 0.54)	8.67×10^{-9}	0.24 (0.081 to 0.40)	.003				
		DQB1*02:01	-0.17 (-0.21 to -0.12)	1.38×10^{-13}	-0.092 (-0.16 to -0.028)	.005				
		DQA1*03:01	0.11 (0.070 to 0.15)	2.96×10^{-8}	0.072 (0.032 to 0.11)	.0004				
		DQB1*03:03	0.18 (0.11 to 0.25)	7.3×10^{-7}	0.10 (0.019 to 0.18)	.02				
		Sex	-0.23 (-0.27 to -0.19)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.24 (-0.29 to -0.20)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$				
		Age	0.007 (0.005 to 0.01)	1.35×10^{-7}	0.064 (0.042 to 0.086)	1.04×10^{-8}				
	EBNA-1 MFI (log)	PC1	0.08 (0.06 to 0.11)	9.61×10^{-14}	0.078 (0.056 to 0.10)	4.16×10^{-12}				
		DRB4*01:03	-0.17 (-0.20 to -0.13)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.11 (-0.15 to -0.067)	3.75×10^{-7}				
		DRB3*02:02	0.21 (0.17 to 0.26)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.16 (0.11 to 0.21)	3.88×10^{-10}				
		DRB1*07:01	-0.22 (-0.27 to -0.18)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.089 (-0.45 to 0.27)	.63				
		DRB1*12:01	0.53 (0.40 to 0.67)	3.76×10^{-15}	0.30 (0.16 to 0.43)	1.57×10^{-5}				
		DRB1*15:01	0.26 (0.22 to 0.31)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.14 (0.061 to 0.22)	.0005				
		DQB1*02:01	-0.24 (-0.28 to -0.19)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.25 (-0.30 to -0.20)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$				
		DQA1*01:02	0.23 (0.19 to 0.27)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.058 (-0.016 to 0.013)	.12				
		DQA1*02:01	-0.22 (-0.27 to -0.18)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.091 (-0.45 to 0.27)	.62				
		DPB1*03:01	-0.20 (-0.25 to -0.14)	1.99×10^{-12}	-0.19 (-0.25 to -0.14)	5.49×10^{-12}				
		DPB1*04:02	0.16 (0.11 to 0.21)	4.96×10^{-10}	0.11 (0.058 to 0.16)	2.78×10^{-5}				
		ZEBRA MFI (log)	DRB4*01:01	0.28 (0.23 to 0.34)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.074 (-0.00029 to 0.15)	.05			
			DRB1*03:01	-0.20 (-0.24 to -0.16)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.081 (-0.12 to -0.038)	.0002			
	DRB1*04:04		0.45 (0.37 to 0.53)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.36 (0.27 to 0.46)	3.19×10^{-14}				
	DQB1*03:02		0.24 (0.19 to 0.28)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.045 (-0.029 to 0.12)	.23				
	DQB1*04:02		0.36 (0.26 to 0.46)	1.18×10^{-11}	0.45 (0.35 to 0.55)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$				
	DQA1*02:01		0.27 (0.23 to 0.31)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.29 (0.23 to 0.35)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$				
	DQA1*03:01		0.17 (0.13 to 0.20)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.13 (0.075 to 0.18)	1.29×10^{-6}				
	Sex		-0.27 (-0.31 to -0.23)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.29 (-0.33 to -0.25)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$				
	Age		0.051 (0.029 to 0.072)	4.17×10^{-6}	0.059 (0.039 to 0.080)	2.43×10^{-8}				
	JCV		Seropositivity case-control ^a	DRB5*01:01	0.55 (0.50 to 0.60)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	1.02 (0.51 to 1.55)	.95		
DRB1*15:01		0.55 (0.50 to 0.59)		$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.63 (0.31 to 1.26)	.19				
DQB1*06:02		0.55 (0.21 to 0.60)		$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.94 (0.64 to 1.39)	.75				
DQA1*01:02		0.61 (0.57 to 0.66)		$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.89 (0.78 to 1.02)	.11				
Sex		1.25 (1.15 to 1.36)		1.87×10^{-7}	1.26 (1.16 to 1.37)	8.06×10^{-8}				
VP1 MFI (log)		DRB5*01:01	-0.29 (-0.35 to -0.23)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.29 (-0.35 to -0.23)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$				
		MCV	VP1 MFI (log)	A*29:02	-0.41 (-0.50 to -0.31)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	-0.41 (-0.50 to -0.32)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$		
				DRB1*04:04	-0.39 (-0.49 to -0.29)	1.9×10^{-14}	-0.41 (-0.51 to -0.31)	7.01×10^{-16}		
				DRB1*15:01	-0.19 (-0.24 to -0.13)	1.67×10^{-11}	-0.12 (-0.36 to 0.11)	.30		
				DQB1*05:01	0.21 (0.16 to 0.27)	1.53×10^{-15}	0.068 (-0.055 to 0.19)	.28		
DQB1*06:02	-0.18 (-0.24 to -0.13)			2.62×10^{-11}	-0.059 (-0.29 to 0.18)	.62				
VZV	Glycoproteins E and I MFI (log)	DQA1*01:01	0.21 (0.16 to 0.26)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.10 (-0.016 to 0.22)	.09				
		A*01:01	0.17 (0.13 to 0.20)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.089 (0.039 to 0.14)	.0004				
		B*08:01	0.20 (0.16 to 0.25)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.040 (-0.033 to 0.11)	.28				
		DQB1*02:01	0.21 (0.17 to 0.25)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.14 (0.080 to 0.20)	8.67×10^{-6}				
						Sex	0.21 (0.16 to 0.25)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$	0.21 (0.17 to 0.26)	$<2 \times 10^{-16}$

As explained in the text, the untransformed antibody MFI analyses are not shown. Only pathogens with Lasso-selected alleles are reported. Age is on the standardized scale. Only variables selected by Lasso are shown. PC1: first principal component (effect is on the standardized scale). Multivariate effects stand for the effects observed when all alleles selected by Lasso (for each respective infection) are included in the same regression analysis.

Abbreviations: EBV, Epstein-Barr virus; JCV, JC polyomavirus; MCV, Merkel cell polyomavirus; MFI, mean fluorescence intensity; VZV, varicella zoster virus.

^aEffects for the JCV seropositivity case-control analysis are reported as odds ratios.

individuals above the seropositivity threshold. Nevertheless, given that the population was randomly selected from the UKB cohort, we cannot rule out that unmeasured environmental or socioeconomic confounders [57] may have affected our results.

Our study has several limitations that can help guide future efforts in studying genetic determinants of infectious diseases.

First, ideally future serological studies should be performed in individuals with a clear history of exposure (or lack thereof) to the infectious agent. This would increase the serological test's specificity and improve the chance of finding clinically significant genetic associations. Second, as the environment is a major nonheritable determinant of infectious diseases, it should be factored in the design of future genetic studies. Third, as

individuals are possibly constantly re-exposed to infectious diseases, longitudinal follow-up and serial measurements of both IgM and IgG would also improve the chance of finding clinically important genetic variants. Lastly, our results are mostly hypothesis-generating, and despite the fact that many of the loci we found to be associated with infectious diseases have been associated with other diseases, our study needs to be followed by in vitro or in vivo studies to establish true causal associations. This is especially true given that most of the associations we found were in the HLA, a region of the human genome that does not lend itself well to further in silico study.

In summary, here we present the largest GWAS and HLA association analyses on infectious diseases and the resultant host antibody-mediated immune response to date. While this work is hypothesis-generating and should not be used to infer causality between infections and NCDs without further research, with careful planning, we hope that future genetic studies will lead to further advances in our understanding of the interplay between, host, environment, and disease pathophysiology.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary materials are available at *Open Forum Infectious Diseases online*. Consisting of data provided by the authors to benefit the reader, the posted materials are not copyedited and are the sole responsibility of the authors, so questions or comments should be addressed to the corresponding author.

Acknowledgments

This research has been conducted using the UK Biobank Resource under Application Number 27449.

Financial support. The Richards Research Group is supported by the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR), the Lady Davis Institute of the Jewish General Hospital, the Canadian Foundation for Innovation, the NIH Foundation, Cancer Research UK, and the Fonds de Recherche Québec Santé (FRQS). J.B.R. is supported by an FRQS Clinical Research Scholarship. TwinsUK is funded by the Wellcome Trust, the Medical Research Council, the European Union, the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR)-funded BioResource, and the Clinical Research Facility and Biomedical Research Centre based at Guy's and St Thomas' NHS Foundation Trust in partnership with King's College London. These funding agencies had no role in the design, implementation, or interpretation of this study.

Potential conflicts of interest. J.B.R. has served as an advisor to GlaxoSmithKline and Deerfield Capital. All other authors: no potential conflicts of interest. All authors have submitted the ICMJE Form for Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest. Conflicts that the editors consider relevant to the content of the manuscript have been disclosed.

Data availability. Summary statistics from the GWAS will be made accessible through the NHGRI-EBI GWAS catalog.

References

- O'Connor SM, Taylor CE, Hughes JM. Emerging infectious determinants of chronic diseases. *Emerg Infect Dis* **2006**; 12:1051–7.
- de Martel C, Ferlay J, Franceschi S, et al. Global burden of cancers attributable to infections in 2008: a review and synthetic analysis. *Lancet Oncol* **2012**; 13:607–15.
- Broadley I, Pera A, Morrow G, et al. Expansions of cytotoxic CD4+CD28- T cells drive excess cardiovascular mortality in rheumatoid arthritis and other chronic inflammatory conditions and are triggered by CMV infection. *Front Immunol* **2017**; 8:195:1–10.
- Readhead B, Haure-Mirande JV, Funk CC, et al. Multiscale analysis of independent Alzheimer's cohorts finds disruption of molecular, genetic, and clinical networks by human herpesvirus. *Neuron* **2018**; 99:64–82.e7.

- Vanheusden M, Broux B, Welten SPM, et al. Cytomegalovirus infection exacerbates autoimmune mediated neuroinflammation. *Sci Rep* **2017**; 7:663:1–11.
- Cusick MF, Libbey JE, Fujinami RS. Molecular mimicry as a mechanism of autoimmune disease. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol* **2012**; 42:102–11.
- Bonsack M, Mohan N, Öhlenschläger K, et al. Application of individual HLA-binding prediction thresholds increases the detection of target cell surface-presented HPV16 E6- and E7-derived epitopes as a basis for therapeutic HPV vaccine design. *J Immunol* **2020**; 204:169:8.
- Garrido F. HLA class-I expression and cancer immunotherapy. *Adv Exp Med Biol* **2019**; 1151:79–90.
- Chowell D, Morris LGT, Grigg CM, et al. Patient HLA class I genotype influences cancer response to checkpoint blockade immunotherapy. *Science* **2018**; 359:582–7.
- Garrido F. HLA class-I expression and cancer immunotherapy. In: Garrido F, ed. *MHC Class-I Loss and Cancer Immune Escape*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing; **2019**:79–90.
- Kessler T, Vilne B, Schunkert H. The impact of genome-wide association studies on the pathophysiology and therapy of cardiovascular disease. *EMBO Mol Med* **2016**; 8:688–701.
- Blackwell JM, Jamieson SE, Burgner D. HLA and infectious diseases. *Clin Microbiol Rev* **2009**; 22:370–85.
- de Bakker PI, McVean G, Sabeti PC, et al. A high-resolution HLA and SNP haplotype map for disease association studies in the extended human MHC. *Nat Genet* **2006**; 38:1166–72.
- Nelson CL, Pelak K, Podgoreanu MV, et al. A genome-wide association study of variants associated with acquisition of *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteremia in a healthcare setting. *BMC Infect Dis* **2014**; 14:83:1–8.
- Tian C, Hromatka BS, Kiefer AK, et al. Genome-wide association and HLA region fine-mapping studies identify susceptibility loci for multiple common infections. *Nat Commun* **2017**; 8:599:1–13.
- Bycroft C, Freeman C, Petkova D, et al. The UK Biobank resource with deep phenotyping and genomic data. *Nature* **2018**; 562:203–9.
- Brenner N, Waterboer T. Serological measurement of infectious agents in UK Biobank: a pilot study in 10 000 samples. **2019**. Available at: <https://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/crystal/docs/infidisease.pdf>. Accessed 21 October 2019.
- Tate J, Ward G. Interferences in immunoassay. *Clin Biochem Rev* **2004**; 25:105–20.
- Morris JA, Kemp JP, Youtlen SE, et al; 23andMe Research Team. An atlas of genetic influences on osteoporosis in humans and mice. *Nat Genet* **2019**; 51:258–66.
- Persyn E, Redon R, Bellanger L, Dina C. The impact of a fine-scale population stratification on rare variant association test results. *PLoS One* **2018**; 13:e0207677.
- Jiang L, Zheng Z, Qi T, et al. A resource-efficient tool for mixed model association analysis of large-scale data. *Nat Genet* **2019**; 51:1749–55.
- Xu C, Tachmazidou I, Walter K, et al; UK10K Consortium. Estimating genome-wide significance for whole-genome sequencing studies. *Genet Epidemiol* **2014**; 38:281–90.
- Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, et al. PLINK: a tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *Am J Hum Genet* **2007**; 81:559–75.
- Purcell S. PLINK (v1.90b6.10). **2019**. Available at: <http://pngu.mgh.harvard.edu/purcell/plink/>. Accessed 30 April 2020.
- UKBiobank. Imputation of classical HLA types from UK Biobank genotype data. **2016**. Available at: https://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/crystal/docs/HLA_imputation.pdf. Accessed 10 June 2020.
- Hastie T, Tibshirani R, Friedman J. *The Elements of Statistical Learning*. New York: Springer; **2017**.
- Raychaudhuri S, Sandor C, Stahl EA, et al. Five amino acids in three HLA proteins explain most of the association between MHC and seropositive rheumatoid arthritis. *Nat Genet* **2012**; 44:291–6.
- Robinson J, Halliwell JA, Hayhurst JD, et al. The IPD and IMGT/HLA database: allele variant databases. *Nucleic Acids Res* **2015**; 43:D423–31.
- Buniello A, MacArthur JAL, Cerezo M, et al. The NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog of published genome-wide association studies, targeted arrays and summary statistics 2019. *Nucleic Acids Res* **2019**; 47:D1005–12.
- Kamat MA, Blackshaw JA, Young R, et al. PhenoScanner V2: an expanded tool for searching human genotype-phenotype associations. *Bioinformatics* **2019**; 35:4851–3.
- Staley JR, Blackshaw J, Kamat MA, et al. PhenoScanner: a database of human genotype-phenotype associations. *Bioinformatics* **2016**; 32:3207–9.
- Dalianis T, Hirsch HH. Human polyomaviruses in disease and cancer. *Virology* **2013**; 437:63–72.
- Quandt JA, Huh J, Baig M, et al. Myelin basic protein-specific TCR/HLA-DRB5*01:01 transgenic mice support the etiologic role of DRB5*01:01 in multiple sclerosis. *J Immunol* **2012**; 189:2897–908.

34. Fogdell A, Olerup O, Fredrikson S, et al. Linkage analysis of HLA class II genes in Swedish multiplex families with multiple sclerosis. *Neurology* **1997**; 48:758–62.
35. Ramasubramanian S, Osborn K, Al-Mohammad R, et al. Epstein-Barr virus transcription factor Zta acts through distal regulatory elements to directly control cellular gene expression. *Nucleic Acids Res* **2015**; 43:3563–77.
36. Dresang LR, Vereide DT, Sugden B. Identifying sites bound by Epstein-Barr virus nuclear antigen 1 (EBNA1) in the human genome: defining a position-weighted matrix to predict sites bound by EBNA1 in viral genomes. *J Virol* **2009**; 83:2930–40.
37. Gao Y, Wang L, Lei Z, et al. IRF4 promotes Epstein-Barr virus activation in Burkitt's lymphoma cells. *J Gen Virol* **2019**; 100:851–62.
38. Liu W, Kim GB, Krump NA, et al. Selective reactivation of STING signaling to target Merkel cell carcinoma. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **2020**; 117:13730–9.
39. DeCaprio JA. Merkel cell polyomavirus and Merkel cell carcinoma. *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* **2017**; 372:20160276.
40. Alcina A, Abad-Grau Mdel M, Fedetz M, et al. Multiple sclerosis risk variant HLA-DRB1*1501 associates with high expression of DRB1 gene in different human populations. *PLoS One* **2012**; 7:e29819.
41. Guan Y, Jakimovski D, Ramanathan M, et al. The role of Epstein-Barr virus in multiple sclerosis: from molecular pathophysiology to in vivo imaging. *Neural Regen Res* **2019**; 14:373–86.
42. Saribas AS, Ozdemir A, Lam C, Safak M. JC virus-induced progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy. *Future Virol* **2010**; 5:313–23.
43. Sadiq SA, Puccio LM, Brydon EW. JCV detection in multiple sclerosis patients treated with natalizumab. *J Neurol* **2010**; 257:954–8.
44. Cubitt CL. Molecular genetics of the BK virus. In: Ahsan N, ed. *Polyomaviruses and Human Diseases*. New York: Springer New York; **2006**:85–95.
45. Thorven M, Grahn A, Hedlund KO, et al. A homozygous nonsense mutation (428G→A) in the human secretor (FUT2) gene provides resistance to symptomatic norovirus (GGII) infections. *J Virol* **2005**; 79:15351–5.
46. Azad MB, Wade KH, Timpson NJ. FUT2 secretor genotype and susceptibility to infections and chronic conditions in the ALSPAC cohort. *Wellcome Open Res* **2018**; 3:65:1–17.
47. Wuttke M, Li Y, Li M, et al; Lifelines Cohort Study; V.A. Million Veteran Program. A catalog of genetic loci associated with kidney function from analyses of a million individuals. *Nat Genet* **2019**; 51:957–72.
48. Shapiro MD, Tavori H, Fazio S. PCSK9: from basic science discoveries to clinical trials. *Circ Res* **2018**; 122:1420–38.
49. Zheng R, Li Z, He F, et al. Genome-wide association study identifies two risk loci for tuberculosis in Han Chinese. *Nat Commun* **2018**; 9: 4072:1–9.
50. Butler-Laporte G, Harroud A, Forgetta V, Richards JB. Elevated body mass index is associated with an increased risk of infectious disease admissions and mortality: a Mendelian randomization study. [published online ahead of print June 24, 2020] *Clin Microbiol Infect* 2020;S1198-743X(20)30356-6. doi:10.1016/j.cmi.2020.06.014.
51. Sveinbjornsson G, Gudbjartsson DF, Halldorsson BV, et al. HLA class II sequence variants influence tuberculosis risk in populations of European ancestry. *Nat Genet* **2016**; 48:318–22.
52. Ellinghaus D, Degenhardt F, Bujanda L, et al. Genomewide association study of severe Covid-19 with respiratory failure. [published online ahead of print June 17, 2020]. *N Engl J Med*. **2020**; doi:10.1056/NEJMoa2020283.
53. Kachuri L, Francis SS, Morrison M, et al. The landscape of host genetic factors involved in immune response to common viral infections. medRxiv 2020.05.01.20088054 [Preprint]. 8 September 2020. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.05.01.20088054>. Accessed 30 May 2020.
54. Klutts JS, Ford BA, Perez NR, Gronowski AM. Evidence-based approach for interpretation of Epstein-Barr virus serological patterns. *J Clin Microbiol* **2009**; 47:3204–10.
55. Larsen SA, Steiner BM, Rudolph AH. Laboratory diagnosis and interpretation of tests for syphilis. *Clin Microbiol Rev* **1995**; 8:1–21.
56. Landais C, Fenollar F, Thuny F, Raoult D. From acute Q fever to endocarditis: serological follow-up strategy. *Clin Infect Dis* **2007**; 44:1337–40.
57. Haworth S, Mitchell R, Corbin L, et al. Apparent latent structure within the UK Biobank sample has implications for epidemiological analysis. *Nat Commun* **2019**; 10:333:1–9.