Resolving genotype-phenotype discrepancies of the Kidd blood group using nanopore sequencing

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Abstract

Due to substantial improvement in read accuracy, third-generation long-read sequencing holds great potential in blood group diagnostics, particularly in cases where traditional genotyping or sequencing techniques, primarily targeting exons, are unable to explain serologic phenotypes. In this study, we employed Oxford Nanopore sequencing to resolve all genotype-phenotype discrepancies in the Kidd blood group system (JK, *SLC14A1*) observed over seven years of routine high-throughput donor genotyping using a mass spectrometry based platform at Blood Transfusion Service Zurich. Discrepant results of standard serological typing and donor genotyping were confirmed by commercial PCR-SSP kits. To resolve discrepancies, we amplified the entire coding region of *SLC14A1* (~24 kb, exons 3 to 10) in two overlapping long-range PCRs in all samples. Amplicons were barcoded and sequenced on a MinION flow cell. Sanger sequencing and bridge-PCRs were used to confirm findings. Among 11,972 donors who had both serology and genotypic data available for the Kidd system, we identified 10 cases with unexplained conflicting results. Five were linked to known weak and null alleles caused by variants not included in the routine donor genotyping. In two cases, we identified novel null alleles on the *JK*01* (Gly40Asp; c.119G>A) and *JK*02* (Gly242Glu; c.725G>A) haplotype, respectively. Remarkably, the remaining three cases were linked to a yet unknown deletion of ~5 kb spanning over exon 9-10 of the *JK*01* allele, which other molecular methods had failed to detect. Overall, nanopore sequencing demonstrated reliable and accurate performance for detecting both single nucleotide and structural variants. It possesses the potential to become a robust tool in the molecular diagnostic portfolio, particularly for addressing challenging structural variation such as hybrid genes, deletions and duplications.

Introduction

The latest advancements in third-generation long-read sequencing (TGS) technologies offer notable advantages, including the capacity to elucidate extensive haplotypes and characterize genomic regions that pose challenges to Sanger sequencing or next-generation short-read sequencing[1]. In the particular field of transfusion medicine, TGS is a strong candidate for complementing traditional approaches used for the blood group assessment of samples with complex or discordant serological and genotypic results[2–5]. These cases include serological reactions exhibiting unexpected weak agglutination or null phenotypes, often resulting from rare or unknown genetic variation not typed in routine genotyping workflows[6].

Traditionally, Sanger sequencing has been used to resolve such elusive cases. However, it has several limitations that can impede its usefulness. One drawback is the lack of phase information, i.e. the inability to reconstruct allele haplotypes, due to overlapping signals from maternal and paternal alleles. This makes functional interpretation challenging, such as allelic assignment of silencing or weakening variants in heterozygous samples[7,8]. Additionally, in the presence of frameshift mutations or small structural variants (SVs), the overlapping signals hamper the readability of the sequences. Length restrictions of Sanger sequencing is another drawback, which limits the number of genomic regions that can realistically be targeted. Consequently, sequencing of non-coding regions of a gene, even those known to play a role in gene expression and phenotype determination (i.e. promoter regions, enhancer elements, and transcription factor binding sites) is rarely done. The limited length of the sequenced region also hinders the detection of SVs. Large deletions, for example, may stretch over several exons. Importantly, such deletions may also simply go unnoticed with Sanger sequencing in case of an unaffected second allele without the deletion in the background as this one will get sequenced (allelic dropout). Some of the limitations of Sanger sequencing could be overcome using short-read sequencing technologies. However, their intrinsic limitation, the short-read length, still hampers haplotype reconstruction and the analysis of SVs.

The long-read sequencing technology by Oxford Nanopore Technologies (ONT) represents a promising solution to tackle limitations of existing approaches. It allows sequencing long reads of blood group genes at the kilobase (kb) scale in a low throughput setting at high quality. This greatly facilitates haplotype reconstruction and the inclusion of introns and proximal regulatory elements[5,9]. Moreover, it lowers the risk of misinterpreting loss of heterozygosity caused by allelic dropout as the long reads are much more likely to cover the respective breakpoint sites. Previous constraints of ONT sequencing,

in particular the low single-read accuracy and the need for advanced bioinformatics skills [10–12], have
been greatly alleviated by latest developments.

In this study, we propose a cost-effective and reliable approach to resolve the Kidd blood group (JK)
in samples with discordant serological and genotypic data. The workflow is based on long-range PCR
(LR-PCR) of the gene encoding the JK blood group, *SLC14A1*, followed by nanopore sequencing of the
amplicons. The approach can easily be customized to target various other blood group genes as only
the LR-PCR primer design is gene-specific. We used here the Kidd system as a proof-of-concept due to
a combination of its clinical relevance and its low antigen diversity, enabling straightforward
phenotyping. Kidd only comprises three antigens: the antithetical Jk(a) and Jk(b) antigens (also called
JK1 and JK2), as well as the high incidence JK3[13]. Antibody formation by allo-immunisation is
particularly common in patients with sickle cell disease [14] and Kidd antibodies are a source of delayed
hemolytic transfusion reactions as well as hemolytic disease of the newborn[15]. The *SLC14A1* gene,
spanning over approximately 30 kb on chromosome 18, consists of 10 exons and translates into a 389
amino acid glycoprotein. The International Society of Blood Transfusion (ISBT) currently recognizes
over 60 different *JK* alleles, of which most represent null alleles caused by missense or nonsense single
nucleotide variants (SNVs)[13].

Here, we nanopore-sequenced all unresolved genotype-phenotype discrepant cases collected over
seven years of routine donor genotyping at Blood Transfusion Service Zurich (Switzerland) using
Matrix-Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization – Time-of-Flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS)[6,16].
Overall, our results demonstrate that ONT sequencing can effectively and accurately resolve
genotype-phenotype discrepancies, even those not resolvable by Sanger sequencing. This cost-
effective approach holds general promise for accurate blood group determination in challenging
cases.

Material and methods

An overview of how discrepant samples were identified and processed is provided in Figure 1.

Routine high-throughput donor genotyping

DNA of blood donors was extracted automatically on a Chemagic MSM I (Chemagen, Perkin Elmer).
High-throughput genotyping was performed by MALDI TOF MS on 35,954 donor samples (between
2015 and 2021) as described previously [16,17]. Genotyping included discrimination of *JK* alleles based on
genetic variants of interest in a Swiss and international donor pool. *JK*01* and *JK*02* were

discriminated using the SNV c.838G>A, whereas the null alleles *JK*01N.03* (Swiss), *JK*02N.01* and

JK*02N.02 (Asian) were typed using the c.582C>G, c.342-1G>A, and c.342-1G>C variant[18], respectively.

All coding DNA positions provided are based on reference transcript NM_015865.7.

Of all donors genotyped by MALDI-TOF MS, 11,972 donors were additionally serologically typed on a

follow-up donation using Erytra automated system (Grifols) for seven blood groups, among which was

Kidd (JK). In case of genotype-phenotype discrepancy between MALDI-TOF MS genotyping and

phenotyping on the Erytra, the sample was analyzed further using other standard serological

techniques. MALDI-TOF MS results of *JK*01/02* genotyping were validated using commercial PCR-SSP

kits (sequence-specific-priming PCR; inno-train). DNA was manually re-extracted from the follow-up

donation using the Nucleon BACC 3 kit (Gen-Probe Life Sciences). DNA concentrations were measured

using Nanodrop 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Nanopore sequencing of genotype-phenotype discrepancies

In case the genotype-phenotype discrepancy was confirmed, the entire coding region of the *SLC14A1*

gene (~24 kb, exon 3 to 10) was amplified and sequenced using ONT. Amplifications were done with

two LR-PCRs. The first fragment (12,981 bp) was amplified using the forward primer 5'-

TGCCACTTGAGTGTTTTCATTTGATGCTGC-3'   and   reverse   primer   5'-

CACTATCCCTCCTCCTTTTTGTTCCCAAGC-3'. PCR primers for the second fragment (13,112 bp) were 5'-

AAGTGACGTCCCCTCTCTGAGAGCATTAAA-3'   (forward)   and   5'-

AACATTCTGACAAGTGGCTGGTCCTAGAGA-3' (reverse). To facilitate phasing in the downstream

analyses, both LR-PCR fragments were designed to have a large overlap (~1,550 bp). PCR

amplifications were done in duplicates using the PrimerSTAR GXL polymerase (Takara Bio) and 250 ng

of genomic DNA per reaction, following the manufacturer's protocol. To increase amplification

success, we added 1 M of Betaine enhancer (VWR) per reaction. The PCR's profile followed a 2-step

approach with a 10 second denaturation step at 95°C and a 10 minute extension step at 68°C for 30

cycles. Amplification success was verified on a 0.8% agarose gel stained with GelRed Nucleic Acid Gel

(Biotium). After verification, PCR replicates were pooled and purified with 1x Agencourt AMPure XP

magnetic beads (Beckman Coulter). Purified PCR products were eluted in 25 μl sterile H_2O and

quantified using a dsDNA broad range assay kit on a Qubit fluorometer 3.0 (Invitrogen). Sequencing

libraries were constructed following ONT's 'Amplicon barcoding with Native Barcoding' protocol

(version: NBA_9102_v109_revF_09Jul2020). As starting material, we pooled 50 fmol of both purified

amplicons for each sample. After completion of the protocol, 44 fmol of the final barcoded library was

loaded on a MinION (R9.4.1) flow cell. Sequencing was stopped after no more pores were active (~72

h).

Nanopore bioinformatics processing

Raw nanopore reads were demultiplexed and basecalled using ONT's *Guppy* (v.4.4.2). After demultiplexing, reads in FASTQ format were filtered based on expected length and observed read length distributions. More specifically, we filtered out all reads shorter than 12,500 bp and longer than 13,600 bp. For three samples (s02, s03 and s07) harboring a second shorter peak in read length distribution (~8000 bp; Figure 2c) we additionally kept all reads having a length between 7500 bp and 8500 bp. After size selection, *PoreChop* (v.0.2.3) was used to trim remaining adapter and barcode sequences.

To reduce computational burden, reads were randomly downsampled to 1000 reads per fragment using *seqkit* (v.0.15). To differentiate between fragment 1 and 2, which were very similar in read length, all size-selected reads were first mapped to the *SLC14A1* reference sequence (NG_011775.4) using *minimap2* (v.2.17) and separated according to their mapped genomic location. For the three samples showing the secondary shorter peak, mapping showed that reads responsible for this peak partially corresponded to fragment 2. Therefore, we further downsampled to 500 reads for both the long and short fragment 2. Finally, uniformly downsampled datasets were remapped to NG_011775.4 using *minimap2*, allowing the presence of supplementary alignments (i.e. split-read mapping). Mapped reads were sorted, indexed and converted to BAM format using *samtools* (v.1.15).

Variant calling and phasing of called variants was performed using *Medaka* (v.1.2.3). As a consequence of the high coverage, threshold quality for calling indels and SNVs (default: Q9 and Q8, respectively) was increased to Q10. Presence of SVs was investigated with *cuteSV* (v.1.0.11). Command options were set as recommended for nanopore data. *BCFtools* (v.1.9) was finally used to output phased sequences in FASTA format.

Variant confirmation by Sanger sequencing and bridge-PCR

Nanopore sequencing results were confirmed using Sanger sequencing. Specific PCR primers for each newly detected variant were designed, and PCRs were carried out using AmpliTaq DNA polymerase (Life Technologies). Primers and PCR protocols are available on request. Amplicon purification and Sanger sequencing were outsourced to an external company (Microsynth AG).

Finally, a bridge-PCR assay was designed to confirm a large deletion found with nanopore sequencing in three samples. One primer pair was designed to amplify over the deletion using primers located at the flanking regions, with the forward primer being located upstream of the 5' breakpoint and the reverse primer downstream of the 3' breakpoint. Another reverse primer was designed to amplify the

169   wild type allele, enabling assessment of the heterozygosity status of the deletion. This reverse primer

170   was designed to bind within the region of the deletion and amplify with the upstream primer targeting

171   the 5' breakpoint. For both primer pairs, three wild type controls were used.

Results

Observed genotype-phenotype discrepancies

Congruence of Kidd phenotypes deduced from genotypes of seven years of high-throughput donor

screening and serological typing was very high. In detail, of the 35,954 donors genotyped by MALDI-

TOF MS , 35,937 (99.95%) passed quality control and were assigned to *JK*01* and/or *JK*02* alleles using

the c.838G>A SNV. Among them, 50.43% (n = 18,124) were *JK*01/02* heterozygous, 26.30% (n = 9,452)

*JK*01/01* and 23.27% (n = 8,361) *JK*02/02* homozygous, as expected under Hardy-Weinberg

equilibrium. Out of 11,972 donors with available serological data, there were 17 cases in which

*JK*01/02* genotyping did not agree with the observed phenotype (considering weak phenotypes as

normal). In seven instances, deviant results could be explained by null alleles routinely typed in the

MALDI-TOF MS module (n = 4 for *JK*01N.03*, and n = 3 for *JK*02N.01*). All remaining donors (n = 10;

0.08%) showed phenotypes that could not be explained by available genotype information. MALDI-

TOF MS results for the *JK*01/02* discrimination (c.838G>A) were confirmed for all 10 discrepant

samples by PCR-SSP.

Nanopore sequencing output

We obtained very high coverage for each amplified fragment in all 10 samples (Figure 3). Overall, the

nanopore sequencing run produced ~1 million reads (≥ Q7) with a median PHRED score of 12.6. After

demultiplexing and filtering reads according to fragment sizes, median number (± SD) of reads per

barcode (i.e. sample) was 38,688 (± 15,182). Mapping of filtered reads against *SLC14A1* reference

sequence showed a drop in coverage over a length of 5 kb in the second fragment for three samples

(Figure 3). For these same samples (s02, s03 and s07), the gel electrophoresis for verifying PCR

amplification successes prior to sequencing had also already revealed the presence of shorter

fragments in the second LR-PCR (Figure 2c).

Resolving discrepant cases

Serology and genetic characterization of the discrepant cases are provided in Table 1. In seven cases

we detected SNVs in coding regions that could explain the observed phenotype. In five donors, these

variants had previously been reported causing weak *(JK*01W.05, JK*02W.04)* and null alleles

(*JK*02N.06/08/09*), respectively. In the other two donors, we identified exonic SNVs that had so far

not been linked to Kidd phenotypes. In one case, the SNV was located in exon 3 (c.119G>A;

NG_011775.4:g.48415G>A) on a *JK*01* allele, altering the protein sequence close to the N terminus

(Gly40Asp). The other novel SNV was located in exon 7 (c.725G>A, NG_011775.4:g.57200G>A) on a

JK*02 allele and corresponded to a missense mutation changing the codon 242 from glycine to

glutamic acid (Gly242Glu). Sanger sequencing confirmed the presence of all SNVs.

Three samples did not show any promising candidates when calling SNVs and short indels. However,

SV calling identified a large 5,095 bp deletion in all three samples (Figure 2a). Using NG_011775.4 as

reference, the software suggested breakpoints located before position 64,898 bp in intron 8 and after

position 69,992 bp in exon 10 (g.64898_69992del, Figure 2b). Bridge-PCR followed by Sanger

sequencing confirmed these exact breakpoint positions (Figure 2d). In all three samples, the deletion

was located on a *JK*01* allele (c.838G), and donors were *JK*01/JK*02* heterozygotes.

Discussion

By employing a combination of LR-PCR and long-read nanopore sequencing, we successfully resolved

all genotype-phenotype discrepancies in the Kidd blood group system observed over seven years of

routine high-throughput donor genotyping. Our developed protocol allowed sequencing the complete

coding region of the *SLC14A1* gene including introns as haplotypes, greatly facilitating the

identification of underlying genetic basis for the observed genotype-phenotype discrepancies and

directly producing high-quality haplotype reference sequences for newly described *JK* alleles.

The majority of *JK* weak and null alleles listed in the ISBT tables are known to occur at very low

frequencies across different populations[4,19,20], indirectly supporting the low number of discrepancies

identified in our donor population. Specifically, we detected the rare SNVs c.742G>A (rs763095261),

c.871T>C (rs78242949), c.956C>T (rs565898944), and c.191G>A (rs114362217) in our discrepant

samples, as part of *JK*01W.05*, *JK*02N.06*, *JK*02N.08* and *JK*02N.09* alleles, respectively (Table 1).

All these variants show minor allele frequencies (MAFs) in large-scale sequencing projects[21] that are

in close agreement with the exceeding rarity observed in our study (MAFs < 0.001). It is important to

acknowledge that these variants (alleles) were only detected in *JK*01/02* heterozygotes of our donor

population since discordant serology would not have appeared in homozygotes due to the masking

effect of the wildtype allele.

Of the ten observed genotype-phenotype discrepancies in our study, two were caused by known *JK*
alleles classified as weak by the ISBT (*JK*02W.04, JK*01W.05*) but appearing as putative null alleles in
our dataset. One case showed the c.130G>A (rs2298720) variant on a *JK*02* background (*JK*02W.04*
allele) as likely reason for the discrepancy. This variant itself is a common SNV (MAF > 0.05) which also
defines the most frequent weak allele on the *JK*01* background (*JK*01W.01*) along with several other
weak alleles[13]. Hence, this variant is expected to be frequent in our donor population (e.g. Jk(a) in s01
and s08, Table 1). However, it would normally not present as a discrepancy since weak Jk(a) or Jk(b)
phenotypes were not considered as discrepancy as long as the genotype information suggested the
presence of the respective allele. Weak phenotypes were neglected as clinically of low relevance.
Transfusion recommendations remain unchanged from those carrying the respective wildtype allele.
The present case of *JK*02W.04*, however, appeared as discrepancy as the c.130G>A variant seems to
have led to a null allele, i.e. a more complete suppression of the affected allele, or at least to very
weak expression as suggested by different serological methods (s04, Table 1). As a second case, our
data revealed a *JK*01W.05* allele as cause of the observed phenotype-genotype discrepancy. The
variant rs763095261, as part of the *JK*01W.05* allele, manifested as causing a null rather than a weak
allele (s05, Table 1). This is in line with previous publications which also described the *JK*01W.05* allele
in the context of null alleles underlying genotype-phenotype discrepancy cases.

Among the remaining cases that displayed genotype-phenotype discrepancies in our study, two were
found with exonic SNVs likely causing/defining new null alleles not yet listed by the ISBT. One of these
variants, c.725G>A (rs1197896884), is located in exon 7 and has been previously reported in two
Europeans in the gnomAD[22] sequence collection of more than 125,000 sequenced exomes and whole
genomes. The other variant, c.119G>A, is entirely novel. It appears to be a tri-allelic position. A
singleton with a different base change (G>C) at the same position resulting in a different amino acid
change (Gly40Ala) has been found in the gnomAD[22] sequence collection (rs1253002394). It is
noteworthy that a change of the identical amino acid (Gly40Ser, c.118G>A, rs145283450) leads to the
presence of a null alleles *(JK*01N.17, JK*02N.21*)[13,23].

Most remarkably, we discovered that three of the observed genotype-phenotype discrepancies in our
study were caused by an identical large structural variant. Our nanopore sequencing strategy revealed
a large deletion of approximately 5 kb spanning from exon 9 to 10, linked to the *JK*01* allele. This
deletion represents to the best of our knowledge the largest SV ever documented within the Kidd
blood group system. Currently, the Kidd ISBT allele table only encompasses one large deletion (~1.6
kb) defining the *JK*01N.01* allele. First reported in Tunisian women[24], it has since then been
sporadically reported in several other populations[25,26]. This deletion (c.1_341del) spans over exons 3

and 4 of the *SLC14A1* gene[24] and results in the lack of translation of the Kidd protein as the start codon

is located in exon 3. Considering the complete absence of exon 9 and a portion of exon 10 in alleles

carrying our newly discovered deletion, it is highly probable that the resulting protein is not functional.

Like for the two aforementioned SNVs causing *JK*02W.04, JK*01W.05*, a in-depth validation of these

variants causing true null rather than very weak alleles will require additional analyses using for

instance adsorption-elution or flow cytometric experiments.

The apparent lack of described SVs in blood group genes is not restricted to the Kidd system but

extends to almost all blood groups[13]. With the continuing accumulation of high-coverage whole

genome sequencing datasets and improved algorithms for SV discovery, it's becoming clear that SVs

appear to be more common than previously thought. Depending on the population targeted and the

sequencing technology used, between 7,500 SVs and 22,600 per genome were observed[27,28].

Additionally, SVs are responsible for an estimated ~30% of rare heterozygous (MAF < 1%) gene

inactivation events per individual[27]. Therefore, the extremely rare reports of SVs in blood group genes

could be linked to the lack of adequate tools for their detection, rather than being driven by

evolutionary forces.

The utilization of long-read sequencing has proven to be particularly advantageous for detecting and

characterizing SVs that often go undetected by traditional Sanger sequencing and short-read

sequencing methods[28]. Indeed, using Sanger sequencing alone, the sequencing results for exon 9 and

10 of these three samples harbouring the deletion would have appeared as perfectly homozygous

since only the wild-type allele would have been amplified and sequenced. Hence, results solely based

on Sanger sequencing would not have allowed us to determine the origin of discrepancy in three out

of 10 cases. In contrast, nanopore sequencing enabled us to precisely identify the breakpoints, which

were subsequently verified using bridge-PCR. This study serves as a compelling example for illustrating

the power of nanopore sequencing in resolving complex SVs that would have remained elusive using

conventional sequencing methods. With the continuing reduction in cost and increase in accessible

and easy-to-use bioinformatic tools, we dare to forecast that this and other TGS technology will be

more and more used to overcome challenging diagnostic cases encompassing hybrid genes, deletions,

and duplications.

Conflict of Interest

None of the authors declares any conflicts of interest.

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Data Availability Statement

The identified 5,095 bp deletion NM_015865.7(SLC14A1):c.947-1453_*2066del on the *JK*01*

haplotype has been submitted to ClinVar (accession number VCV001202625.1).

Tables

Table 1. Summary table of serology, genotyping, and nanopore sequencing for all genotype-phenotype discrepant cases. Discrepant antigens, based on comparison of observed with deduced phenotype, as well as causative alleles are highlighted in red.

| Sample | Observed serology | Deduced phenotype based on MALDI-TOF MS genotyping | Nanopore Sequencing | |
			Haplotype 1	Haplotype 2
Known weak and null alleles				
s01	Jk(a+^{weak} b-)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01W.01*	*JK*02N.08*
s04	Jk(a+b-)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01*	*JK*02W.04*
s05	Jk(a-b+)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01W.05*	*JK*02*
s06	Jk(a+b-)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01*	*JK*02N.09*
s08	Jk(a+^{weak} b-)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01W.01*	*JK*02N.06*
Novel null alleles				
s09	Jk(a+b-)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01*	*JK*02(G242E)Null[§]*
s10	Jk(a-b+)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01(G40D)Null[§]*	*JK*02*
Novel structural variant				
s02	Jk(a-b+)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01(Ex9_10del)[§]*	*JK*02*
s03	Jk(a-b+)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01(Ex9_10del)[§]*	*JK*02*
s07	Jk(a-b+)	Jk(a+b+)	*JK*01(Ex9_10del)[§]*	*JK*02*

§ Novel alleles not yet described

301 **Figures**

302 **Figure 1. Flowchart depicting selection and processing of genotype-phenotype discrepancies.** Main

303 bioinformatics tools are provided in green.

Figure 2. Genetic structure of *SLC14A1* gene encoding JK blood group and identification of a large deletion. (a) *SLC14A1* gene showing exons, coding DNA sequence (CDS), newly identified ~5 kb deletion (red), positions of long-range PCRs (LR1/LR2), as well as overlap between both amplicons. (b) Region of ~5 kb deletion with breakpoints and primer positions used for bridge-PCR. (c) Gel electrophoresis of long-range PCR products (LR1 and LR2) of all samples. (d) Gel electrophoresis of bridge-PCR products for the three samples with the novel deletion and wild-type control reactions.

313 **Figure 3. Nanopore sequencing coverage by nucleotide position for each sample.** Coverages were
314 computed by mapping length-filtered reads to *SLC14A1* reference sequence (NG_011775.4) using
315 minimap2. For readability, samples showing a drop in coverage in LR2 were grouped together.
316 Graphical representation of mapping location on *SLC14A1* gene is given underneath the coverages
317 plots. Coverages scales are not fixed.

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