

1 **Resistance to TST/IGRA conversion in Uganda: Heritability and Genome-Wide**  
2 **Association Study**

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 **Background:** Pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) is one of the most deadly pathogens on earth.

15 However, the majority of people have resistance to active disease. Further, some individuals,  
16 termed resisters (RSTRs), do not develop traditional latent tuberculosis (LTBI). The RSTR  
17 phenotype is important for understanding pathogenesis and preventing TB. The host genetic  
18 underpinnings of RSTR are largely understudied.

19 **Methods:** In a cohort of 908 Ugandan subjects with genome-wide data on single nucleotide  
20 polymorphisms, we assessed the heritability of the RSTR phenotype and other TB phenotypes  
21 using restricted maximum likelihood estimation (REML). We then used a subset of 263 RSTR  
22 and LTBI subjects with high quality phenotyping and long-term follow-up to identify DNA  
23 variants genome-wide associated with the RSTR phenotype relative to LTBI subjects in a case-  
24 control GWAS design, and annotated and enriched these variants to better understand their role  
25 in TB pathogenesis.

26 **Results:** The heritability of the TB outcomes was very high, at 55% for TB vs. LTBI and 50.4%  
27 for RSTR vs. LTBI among HIV- subjects, controlling for age and sex. We identified 27 loci  
28 associated with the RSTR phenotype ( $P < 5e-05$ ) and our annotation and enrichment analyses  
29 suggest an important regulatory role for many of them.

30 **Interpretation:** The heritability results show that the genetic contribution to variation in TB  
31 outcomes is very high and our GWAS results highlight variants that may play an important role  
32 in resistance to infection as well as TB pathogenesis as a whole.

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39 **Key words (4-6):** resistance to tuberculosis infection, M. tuberculosis, GWAS, phenotype  
40 definition, TB outcomes

41

## 42 **Research in Context**

43 **Evidence Before This Study:** Pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) is an infectious respiratory disease  
44 caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, one of the most deadly pathogens on  
45 earth. TB primarily affects people living in developing countries, and has a particularly high  
46 burden in Southeast Africa. Prior studies suggest that most people have resistance to developing  
47 symptoms and most of those infected do not show apparent signs of infection (despite harboring  
48 the bacteria). However, prior research suggests that some individuals are resistant to becoming  
49 infected at all, despite consistent exposure to the bacteria, and these people have been termed  
50 resisters (RSTR). Prior evidence suggests that genetic variation in the human hosts likely plays a  
51 role in this resistance to infection but the extent to which this resistance is genetically determined  
52 and which variants are most important is in need of greater study.

53 **Added Value of This Study:** Proper study design and follow-up is very important to  
54 characterizing RSTR individuals and prior studies have not always been performed with  
55 adequate follow-up and measurement and misclassification is of concern in RSTR studies. This  
56 study has used the longest follow-up and the most accurate way of determining resistance to  
57 quantify the genetic contribution to resistance and identify the DNA variants that may play a role  
58 in conferring it. Understanding why some individuals are resistant may inform efforts to prevent  
59 TB through vaccines and treat TB through more effective therapies.

60 **Implications of All Available Evidence:** We have quantified the genetic contribution to (i.e.,  
61 the heritability of) resistance to infection, in addition to the heritability of other important TB  
62 outcomes. We have also identified specific DNA variants which may play an important role in

63 the biological processes that govern resistance, helping to improve our understanding of how to  
64 prevent and combat TB infection and thus reduce the large global burden it imposes.

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66 **Introduction**

67 Pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) is a major public health problem, as it causes more deaths  
68 than any other single infectious agent prior to the COVID-19 pandemic [1]. It is also the leading  
69 cause of death among people infected with human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) [2]. The  
70 bacterium, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (MTB) that causes most TB is transmitted via airborne  
71 droplets from coughing and sneezing by people with active disease. However, most people  
72 exposed to MTB do not develop active disease. In 2017, only 10 million people developed active  
73 disease and 1.6 million people died despite there being ~ 1.7 billion latently infected people in  
74 2014 [1, 3]. These numbers are of interest because they demonstrate that the vast majority of  
75 people have resistance to active disease.

76 In addition to resisting active disease, some individuals do not develop traditional LTBI  
77 with a positive TST or IGRA immunologic response, even in the face of prolonged and persistent  
78 exposure to an infectious TB case [4, 5]. These individuals, who may resist or clear MTB  
79 infection, or acquire infection with a non-IFN $\gamma$ -centric T-cell response, have been termed  
80 resisters (RSTRs) [6, 7]. Estimates of prevalence of RSTR varies as a function of follow-up time  
81 and method of diagnostics (i.e., tuberculin skin test (TST) and/or interferon gamma release assay  
82 (IGRA)), with current estimates in high-exposure settings ranging from 7-25% [6, 8-10]. This  
83 phenotype is important for understanding pathogenesis and is relevant in designing potential  
84 vaccines and prevention strategies against TB, as it can provide insight into how individuals  
85 respond to prevent infection by MTB, a critical first step to developing disease[7, 11]. The  
86 present study can expand on our current understanding of TB heritability greatly by 1.) utilizing  
87 a more accurate classification of the RSTR phenotype and 2.) analyzing a wider range of TB  
88 phenotypes than previous studies.

89           Several studies have shown that host genetic factors can play a role in  
90 susceptibility/resistance to TB disease, but few have studied resistance to infection[12]. There  
91 does appear to be a genetic component to resistance to infection as our previous study of  
92 persistently TST-negative household contacts estimated heritability of this phenotype at 21.7%  
93 [13]. Also, purified protein derivative (PPD) reactivity is correlated among siblings, but not  
94 among unrelated children who live in the same household with similar exposures to MTB[14].  
95 Such data are indicative of a genetic component to the RSTR phenotype. In addition, linkage  
96 analyses, candidate gene studies, and genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have added to  
97 the evidence that genetic variation associates with MTB infection[12, 13, 15-23], though very  
98 few have examined RSTR based on long-term follow-up and using both TST and IGRA for  
99 phenotype designation. Genetic influences on resistance to infection have been studied in two  
100 ways. Some studies have examined LTBI as the trait of interest, using cross-sectional study  
101 design, without any long-term follow-up. Other studies have conducted longitudinal follow-up  
102 to identify individuals who started as uninfected (TST or IGRA negative), but eventually  
103 converted to TST/IGRA positive or LTBI. We have argued that RSTRs cannot be defined based  
104 on a single assessment without long-term follow-up, as conversion to test positivity can occur  
105 later, and the clinical significance of individuals that are discordant on the TST and IGRA is not  
106 well understood [5, 6, 8, 9].

107           Previous studies have calculated the heritability for TST positivity but the heritability  
108 estimates for other possible outcomes in the pathogenesis of TB have not been established. There  
109 are several different possible outcomes once an individual has been exposed to MTB. Post  
110 exposure to MTB, some people exhibit signs of infection, while others never become infected  
111 [11]. In a small number of people, there may be early clearance of the bacteria [8, 24, 25]. If the

112 infection is controlled, the host enters a stage of latent (i.e. asymptomatic) infection. This  
113 contrast between resistance to/clearance of the infection is the focus of our association analysis.  
114 In about 5-10% of those latently infected, the host progresses to active TB[26, 27]. The extent to  
115 which genetic variation affects this transition can be examined by comparing active TB cases to  
116 LTBI subjects with a heritability estimate. These two transitions post-exposure  
117 (clearance/resistance relative to infection and active infection relative to latent) can be  
118 understood by different contrasts in heritability estimates to determine the extent to which each is  
119 genetically influenced. Additionally, there is a third contrast of interest that is not representative  
120 of a single step in TB pathogenesis but is in line with much of the prior literature surrounding  
121 genetic association studies of susceptibility to TB. Susceptibility is most often represented as a  
122 binary outcome where people with active TB are compared to those without. Thus, we can  
123 represent this contrast by comparing active TB cases to all others (including RSTRs, LTBI, and  
124 those who cannot be definitively classified as either).

125 The purpose of this study is: 1.) to establish the extent to which different TB phenotypes,  
126 including the RSTR phenotype, are influenced by genetic variation (i.e. the genetic heritability)  
127 and 2.) to identify individual variants that are associated with the RSTR phenotype relative to  
128 LTBI based on the results of a recently published long-term follow-up study that stringently  
129 characterized the LTBI and RSTR phenotypes.

130

## 131 **Methods**

### 132 **Subject ascertainment and characterization of phenotypes**

133 Subjects were ascertained as part of the Kawempe Community Health Study in Kampala,  
134 Uganda; a subset that was limited to RSTR and LTBI subjects were included in a long-term

135 follow-up study, as previously described by Stein et al. [28, 29]. Subjects were initially enrolled  
136 between 2002-2012, and the follow-up study was conducted from 2014-2017. All TB cases were  
137 culture-confirmed based on isolation of MTB from clinical gastric or sputum samples in the  
138 original study. Six subjects that were RSTR or LTBI in the original study but had developed  
139 symptoms prior to follow-up were not enrolled in this study. Household contacts of index TB  
140 cases were confirmed to have lived with the index case for at least 7 consecutive days during the  
141 previous 3 months in the original (2002-12) study and were followed for at least 12 months as  
142 part of the original study. Latent MTB infection (LTBI) was determined based on a positive  
143 TST during the initial study and positive TST and IGRA during the follow-up study (and no  
144 symptoms of active TB). Resistance to infection (i.e. the RSTR phenotype) was defined as  
145 being consistently negative TST tests despite confirmed exposure in the original study and  
146 remaining TST/IGRA negative during the follow-up study, an average of 9 years [29].  
147 Individuals who were TST negative or TST positive during the original study but not included in  
148 the follow-up study (which only included the RSTR and LTBI subjects) are referred to as “no  
149 active TB” in this analysis, because they did not have the IGRA results necessary to confirm  
150 their LTBI or RSTR status. This was done for two reasons. First, discordance between the TST  
151 and IGRA tests has previously been demonstrated [29]. This introduces the possibility that TST+  
152 subjects might actually be IGRA-negative. Secondly, persistently TST negative individuals may  
153 have converted to LTBI since their initial negative TST and therefore could not be accurately  
154 classified as RSTRs. Thus, the LTBI and RSTR individuals in this study were all confirmed as  
155 such in both the original and follow-up studies mentioned above. This helps maintain a  
156 consistent and accurate definition of the RSTR phenotype in our study which minimizes  
157 misclassification [10].

158 In order to address our hypotheses, we used different but overlapping study samples from  
159 the same population in our two types of analyses. The first set of analyses aimed to determine the  
160 genetic contribution to various TB phenotypes (i.e. the heritability analyses), including but not  
161 limited to RSTR and LTBI. We chose four different phenotypic comparisons because they  
162 represent different biological processes in the pathogenesis of tuberculosis. Figure 1 shows the  
163 number of subjects with each phenotype definition in the heritability estimates, which included  
164 97 RSTR, 228 LTBI, 350 Active TB, and 233 “No Active TB” subjects. Our first comparison,  
165 contrasting the 350 active TB subjects with all our other phenotypes, is similar to what has been  
166 called TB susceptibility in prior genetic studies, i.e. the probability of developing active TB  
167 relative to the rest of the population who do not have active TB. This is important to estimate as  
168 it allows the quantification of the genetic component of disease susceptibility that has been the  
169 major focus in TB genetics literature [11]. Our estimate is also unique in that we were able to  
170 confirm similar exposure for all subjects in the study.

171 Our second comparison, representing the heritability of being resistant to infection by  
172 MTB relative to those who are latently infected by MTB (but do not have active symptoms),  
173 allows us to quantify the genetic component for those individuals whose immune systems are not  
174 sensitized with positive TST/IGRA responses, the traditional markers of LTBI with an IFN $\gamma$   
175 dominant response. These individuals may prevent or clear infection entirely, or perhaps mount  
176 a IFN- $\gamma$  independent response. This was done by contrasting the 97 RSTR subjects with the 228  
177 LTBI subjects. The third contrast we made compared the 97 RSTR subjects with both the 228  
178 LTBI subjects and the 350 active TB cases. This contrast groups the LTBI and active TB cases  
179 together as they have both been infected with MTB (and are thus not RSTR). Most if not all of  
180 the active TB cases are presumed to have gone through a stage of latent infection prior to having

181 active TB and thus should, in theory, represent a group was not able to resist initial infection or  
182 clear the bacteria early.

183 Our fourth and final comparison, of active TB relative to LTBI, allows us to examine the  
184 genetic contribution to developing TB symptoms subsequent to infection relative to those who  
185 are infected but remain asymptomatic. This included our 350 active TB cases relative to the 228  
186 LTBI subjects. Thus, the interpretation of each estimate sheds light on a potentially unique  
187 biological process and important step in the pathogenesis of TB. The one comparison that does  
188 not mirror one of the transitions in the pathogenesis of TB is the analysis of active TB cases vs.  
189 all other phenotypes. However, this analysis mirrors prior studies of TB susceptibility (which  
190 represent the majority of genetic association studies performed in TB), and allows us to produce  
191 a heritability estimates that used the same phenotype as that in prior literature so we can  
192 understand this heritability estimate in the context of prior literature.

193 Thus, these analyses included subjects who were enrolled in the follow-up study  
194 described above but also required additional subjects from the original KC Health study. This  
195 analysis included active TB cases and subjects who were not infected with active TB but could  
196 not be confirmed as RSTR based on the reasons outlined above. These analyses also included  
197 subjects who were genotyped with a different method (the Illumina Omni5 chip) than those  
198 included in the GWAS analysis, as this was necessary to obtain more subjects with active TB  
199 and those who were uninfected. The subjects from each chip included in the particular analysis  
200 are highlighted in Figure 1.

201 The second analysis was a GWAS that only included the 74 RSTR and 189 LTBI  
202 individuals who were genotyped on a single chip (the Illumina Infinium MEGA<sup>EX</sup> chip) and  
203 included in the recently published long-term follow-up study; using long-term follow-up

204 significantly reduced the chances of misclassification of the phenotype. This was done as we  
205 believe this is the most stringently defined phenotype of any GWAS study to date for RSTRs and  
206 as such may be best able to detect variants associated with the phenotype. This analysis examines  
207 the contrast between subjects who had a persistent asymptomatic infection (LTBI) and were  
208 concordantly TST+/IGRA+, and those who either resisted infection initially or were able to clear  
209 the infection entirely (RSTR) who were concordantly TST-/IGRA-. We also considered the  
210 possibility of operationalizing our outcome in the GWAS study as a case-control design where  
211 RSTR subjects are cases and both active TB subjects and LTBI subjects are considered controls  
212 (i.e. those who are not resistant to infection). However, we observed that the active TB sample  
213 includes subjects that are not concordant with respect to TST and IGRA. Thus, there is a greater  
214 possibility for misclassification which does not exist when we only examine the RSTR vs. LTBI  
215 with high quality follow-up data. Further, our heritability estimates revealed that the heritability  
216 of RSTR vs. LTBI is greater than that of RSTR vs. LTBI and active TB cases. We believe this is  
217 due to the higher potential for misclassification when the active TB cases are included.

## 218 **Genotyping and QC**

219 For the GWAS analysis, DNA samples were typed for the ~2 million markers on the  
220 MEGA<sup>EX</sup> chip. This chip was used for the RSTR and LTBI subjects included in the follow-up  
221 study as well as a set of active TB cases from the original study. Genotypes were called using  
222 Illumina's Genome Studio, version 2.0, with the SNP no call threshold set to 0.15. Duplicates  
223 and indels were removed prior to QC. Data cleaning was done to remove samples with a call rate  
224 <0.93 SNPs, a minor allele frequency < 0.05, or that deviated from Hardy Weinberg Equilibrium  
225 ( $p < 10^{-6}$  for deviation from HWE across all samples). After the QC thresholds described above  
226 and prior to analysis 733,040 markers remained.

227 Gender was estimated for all subjects by the Genome Studio Software. Subjects were if  
228 there were irreconcilable differences between the reported gender and the gender as determined  
229 from genotype analysis. A check was made for subject-identifier mismatch by means of expected  
230 genetic kinship within and between pedigrees and in some cases helped to resolve gender-  
231 mismatch issues.

232 For our heritability analysis, there were two sets of subjects genotyped on different chips.  
233 One set was comprised of the RSTR, LTBI, and active TB subjects genotyped on the MEGA<sup>EX</sup>  
234 chip described above. However, in order to include the phenotypes we needed to examine the  
235 full range of our TB comparisons representing different transitions in pathogenesis, we had to  
236 combine the genotype data from the aforementioned subjects with a set of subjects that used a  
237 different genotyping chip into a single large genetic relatedness matrix (GRM) for use in our  
238 heritability estimates. These set of subjects included 201 additional active TB cases, 15 RSTR  
239 subjects, 32 LTBI subjects, and 233 “No Active TB” subjects. This second genotyping chip was  
240 the Illumina HumanOmni5 microarray, which comprises ~4.3 million genome wide markers, and  
241 offers high coverage of common genetic variation even for African populations[30]. Genotype  
242 calling and quality control were performed as previously described [30]. After QC and filtering  
243 by minor allele frequency (MAF > 0.05), genotyping call rate of 98%, and Hardy-Weinberg  
244 equilibrium threshold of  $p < 10^{-6}$ , a total of 337, 566 SNPs passed QC and overlapped between  
245 the two genotyping chips; QC criteria differed slightly because of the difference in genotyping  
246 chips. These 337, 566 SNPs were used for the heritability analyses.

#### 247 **Kinship and PC Generation**

248 Kinship and principal component (PC) generation was performed separately for the two  
249 analyses. For the GRM-based heritability analysis, we computed principal components but did

250 not include them based on: 1.) prior studies using the same genotype data showed that there is  
251 not substantial population sub-structure or batch effects between the two chips; and 2.) the plots  
252 of PC1 vs. PC2 that showed a lack of clustering in our combined genotype data used in the  
253 heritability estimation. We also performed sensitivity analyses to show that the inclusion of these  
254 PC's did not change our final estimates (Supplemental Methods). Previous literature has shown  
255 that it is not necessary to include kinship estimation in a genetic related matrix based heritability  
256 estimation [31]. In the GWAS analysis described above, to correct for relatedness among  
257 individuals in our sample due to population and family structure, we carried out a principal  
258 components analysis (PCA) and estimated kinship among the 263 RSTR or LTBI individuals  
259 passing QC during the association analysis (see below). A genome-wide panel of 135,859  
260 common ( $MAF \geq 0.05$ ) independent (pairwise  $r^2 < 0.1$ ) variants passing marker QC from the  
261 MEGA<sup>EX</sup> panel was chosen for the PC and kinship generation. We calculated PCs using PC-AiR  
262 and kinship using PC-Relate in the R, Genesis package[32]. The Genesis package pipeline for  
263 generating PCs and kinship first determines relatedness via an initial KING estimated kinship  
264 matrix. It then determines the population structure from the unrelated subset of the sample  
265 (determined by a KING-estimated kinship threshold of 0.0221) and projects the loadings onto the  
266 subset of related subjects to obtain PCs that account for population structure with family  
267 structure removed. Genesis then re-calculates kinship using PC-Relate by adjusting for the PCs  
268 generated from PC-AiR to get an estimate of family structure with population structure removed.  
269 The total number of PCs used in the GWAS was determined by examining the elbow plot of PCs  
270 and selecting the count where the variation explained by additional PCs was minimal  
271 (Supplemental Figure 1).

## 272 **Statistical Analyses**

273 For our GWAS we employed a score-based association test in a mixed model framework  
274 that allows for the inclusion of a polygenic random effect (e.g. a genetic relationship matrix). We  
275 used the `assocTestSingle` function in the `Genesis` package to conduct the genome-wide  
276 association analysis. Because our phenotype is binary (RSTR/LTBI) `Genesis` uses the penalized  
277 quasi-likelihood (PQL) approximation to the generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) to fit the  
278 specified model, following the procedure of `GMMAT`[33]. We controlled for population  
279 structure and family structure in our model including the first two principal components (see  
280 above) as fixed effects and the genetic relationship matrix (GRM, see above) as a random effect,  
281 respectively. Two PCs were selected based on an elbow plot of the variation explained as a  
282 function of the number of clusters in our data. In order to interrogate the role of variants that did  
283 not meet the traditional GWAS p-value threshold but could nonetheless be truly associated, we  
284 used the  $p=5 \times 10^{-5}$  threshold as “suggestive” of significance thereby allowing us to examine  
285 variants that may have important regulatory or biological function, despite not reaching the  
286 typical GWAS threshold of significance (i.e.  $p=5 \times 10^{-8}$ )[34]. In previous studies, SNPs below the  
287 GWAS threshold in one study have successfully replicated when tested again using the same  
288 phenotype in subsequent studies, revealing additional variants that are associated with the  
289 phenotype of interest. Specifically, SNPs that meet the suggestive threshold but not the GWAS  
290 threshold in some cases have at times been shown to be GWAS significant (i.e.  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ ) after  
291 further study with a larger sample size [35, 36]. Thus, it may be useful and informative to  
292 examine the biological role of SNPs that are in this range of p values, especially with regard to a  
293 potential regulatory role and keeping in mind that we had a relatively small sample size [34].  
294 For the heritability analyses, a genetic relatedness matrix was constructed for restricted  
295 maximum likelihood estimation (REML) [37] in `GCTA` software to estimate the genome-wide

296 heritability of three different phenotypes: 1.) susceptibility to active tuberculosis (compared to  
297 latent TB and uninfected); 2.) RSTR (compared to LTBI); and 3.) of progression to active TB  
298 (compared to latent TB). GCTA estimates the variance explained by all the SNPs across the  
299 whole genome for a complex trait[37, 38]; all references to heritability estimates derived for this  
300 paper used this methodology and are simply referred to as “heritability” hereafter.

301 In order to account for the impact of age, sex, and HIV status on these heritability  
302 estimates we first ran all heritability estimates unadjusted. We then computed heritability  
303 estimates that were adjusted for age, sex, and HIV status as covariates. Further, as it is possible  
304 that the inclusion of HIV+ subjects might affect the heritability estimates in ways that are not  
305 accurately reflected by the inclusion of the three aforementioned covariates, we ran a stratified  
306 analysis that included only HIV- subjects. This allows us to observe how these covariates affect  
307 our estimates and to compute estimates that are less affected by bias.

### 308 **Functional annotation**

309 We prioritized loci based on a scoring scheme that combines various forms of evidence  
310 regarding putative functionality. This was done in order to provide semi-quantitative evidence  
311 that may indicate a potential functional role for our SNPs that did meet the GWAS threshold but  
312 showed low enough p-values to warrant further interrogation[39]. The scheme assigned 1 point  
313 to each locus for each of the following categories: having >1 SNP below the suggestive threshold  
314 at the locus with an extra point for loci with SNPs having a p-value <  $5 \times 10^{-6}$ ; evidence for a  
315 regulatory role as shown by RegulomeDB; serving as an eQTL based on FUMA; and biological  
316 relevance to TB based on prior literature. Because the majority of our findings are intergenic  
317 and/or fall in noncoding regions, we relied on the annotation tool FUMA version 1.36 for  
318 mapping our variants to genes based on genomic proximity, eQTL evidence and chromatin

319 interaction evidence[40]. Default settings in FUMA were used, except for tissue specificity.  
320 FUMA does not distinguish between cis and trans-eQTL's in their annotations. However, we  
321 considered any locus within 1 Mb of the gene being regulated (and on the same chromosome) as  
322 a cis-eQTL, a definition based on prior literature surrounding eQTL function[41, 42]. We  
323 hypothesized that gene expression and regulation would be most relevant in lung, immune cells  
324 and blood and thus, focused on eQTL and chromatin interaction evidence in these target tissues.  
325 FUMA and RegulomeDB v2 were used for eQTL identification and to further examine  
326 chromatin state evidence and specify enhancer or transcription evidence within lung, immune  
327 cells, and blood. GeneCards was used to elucidate gene function and evidence from the literature  
328 was used to elucidate a potential biological role for genes in the context of resistance to TB[43].

329 To further enrich our results and yield greater biological insight, we utilized FUMA  
330 GWAS' GENE2FUNC feature for the genes represented in our GWAS summary statistics. This  
331 feature maps GWAS summary statistics to genes, and then provides gene set or pathway  
332 enrichments based on gene sets from MsigDB, KEGG, WikiPathways, and the GWAS Catalog.  
333 This function tests our mapped genes for enrichment using pre-established databases of gene sets  
334 from prior gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) analyses using hypergeometric mean pathway  
335 analysis and adjusts the p-values for significance based on the Benjamini-Hochberg method (i.e.  
336 FDR) using the number of data sources of tested gene sets. FUMA reports gene sets with  
337 adjusted P-value  $\leq 0.05$  and the number of genes that overlap with the gene set  $> 1$  [40].

338 Additionally, STRING network analyses were used to assess if there were protein-protein  
339 interactions between the downstream products of the genes identified in our analyses. This  
340 allows us to look for common networks or interactions that provide further biological insight into  
341 our results. STRING can determine if there is a greater degree of relatedness than expected

342 among our results and use this to determine overall protein-protein interaction enrichment as  
343 well as enrichment for specific networks, gene ontologies, and previously published works[44].

#### 344 **Sample size estimation**

345 There was no power calculation or sample size calculation done prior to the onset of this  
346 study. The sample was determined by which study participants had sufficient DNA and data  
347 available for the planned analyses.

#### 348 **Ethics**

349 The study was approved by the National AIDS Research Committee, The Uganda  
350 National Council on Science and Technology, and the institutional review board at University  
351 Hospitals Cleveland Medical Center. Written informed consent was obtained from all  
352 individuals in the study.

#### 353 **Role of the Funding source**

354 The funding source had no role in the study design, statistical analysis, or interpretation  
355 of data.

356

#### 357 **Results**

##### 358 **Study Population**

359 We examined 908 people in the final combined sample (Table 1), including 263 RSTR  
360 and LTBI individuals (74 RSTR and 189 LTBI) with high quality genotyping data and follow-up  
361 clinical information (and thus used in the GWAS analysis), who were all HIV-negative and were  
362 similar with respect to age and sex (Table 2)[45]. 350 active TB cases and 233 “No active TB”  
363 subjects were in the heritability analysis, but not included in the association (GWAS) analysis.  
364 The RSTR and LTBI categories for our heritability estimation included a larger number of

365 subjects (97 and 228, respectively) than the GWAS analysis. The differences are due to the  
366 inclusion of HIV+ subjects and subjects who were genotyped using a different chip (i.e. the  
367 Omni5 chip) in the heritability analysis.

368

### 369 **Heritability Analysis**

370 For our analysis of active TB relative to all other phenotypes (i.e. LTBI, RSTR and no  
371 infection), the heritability (i.e. the percentage of variation in the outcome explained by all  
372 variants present on the GWAS chip) without adjustment was 28.7% (Table 3). The heritability  
373 was 50.9% for RSTR vs. LTBI, 45.2% for RSTR vs. LTBI and active TB was 45.2%, and 56.0%  
374 for active TB vs. LTBI. Adjusting for age, sex, and HIV status increased the estimated  
375 heritability to 37.1% for active TB relative to LTBI or no infection and lowered the heritability  
376 for RSTR vs. LTBI slightly to 48.3%. The adjustments had no effect on the heritability for  
377 RSTR vs. LTBI and active TB (46.2% unadjusted vs. 45.2% adjusted), and of active TB vs.  
378 LTBI (56.4% adjusted vs 56.0% unadjusted).

379 To examine whether the inclusion of HIV+ subjects had an effect on the estimates, we  
380 estimated heritability among the HIV- persons only. Our analysis stratified by HIV status (and  
381 adjusted for age and sex) showed that the heritability estimates were only slightly different when  
382 HIV+ subjects are removed but the effect was not large. For the HIV- subjects, the estimates  
383 were 38.7% for TB vs. all other phenotypes, 50.4% for RSTR vs. LTBI, 45.8% for RSTR vs.  
384 LTBI and active TB, and 56% for active TB vs. LTBI. Thus, our stratified analysis showed that  
385 the inclusion of HIV+ subjects in the heritability estimates did not change our outcome  
386 drastically compared to our adjusted estimates, implying that these estimates are not particularly  
387 sensitive to HIV status.

388

### 389 **Association Analysis**

390           There were 40 SNPs spanning 27 loci with a suggestive association with RSTR vs LTBI  
391 ( $p < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Figure 2, Supplemental Table 1). Supplemental Table 1 shows one line for each  
392 loci with at least one SNP showing a p-value below  $5e-05$ ; the rsID and position is for the SNP  
393 with the lowest p-value within each locus. The plurality of associated SNPs were intronic (48%)  
394 or intergenic (38%). Sixty percent of these suggestive loci overlapped regions showing strong  
395 evidence for transcription and/or enhancer activity in lung, immune cell or blood tissues (as  
396 determined by RegulomeDB) and 30% harbored eQTLs in these relevant tissues (Supplemental  
397 Table 2). Using our scoring scheme for prioritizing SNPs, there was one locus with 4 points and  
398 five loci with 3 points (Supplemental Table 1). We have described these 6 loci (Table 4, Figure  
399 3) in greater detail below.

400           The locus with the highest score in our scheme was a region on chromosome 3, including  
401 the *ABHD6* gene (Figure 3A). The top SNP in the region, rs9848072 ( $OR=4.8$ ,  $p=2 \times 10^{-5}$ ), falls  
402 in the last intron of *ABHD6* and the locus is a cis-eQTL for this gene. The region also harbors  
403 eQTLs for several other genes, *RPP14*, *ABHD6*, *PXK*, *DNASE1L*, *FLNB* and *PDHB*, in lung,  
404 immune cell and blood tissues. Analyzing the 6 genes in a STRING network shows 2 edges and  
405 enrichment for endonuclease activity, actin binding, and hydrolase activity, acting on ester bonds  
406 (PPI enrichment  $p=4.2 \times 10^{-5}$ ) (Supplemental Figure 2). It is possible that these genes are co-  
407 expressed as part of a gene network, which is why one SNP shows an association with all 6,  
408 despite mapping to only 1 of them (i.e. being a cis-eQTL for *ABHD6*).

409           The first locus with 3 points mapped to the *THRB* gene on chromosome 3, and encodes a  
410 thyroid hormone receptor[43] (Figure 3B). This locus showed strong evidence for regulation of

411 transcription in the lung and contains an enhancer for *THRB* in lung tissue, according to  
412 RegulomeDB [46]. The second locus with 3 points was located on chromosome 5 and mapped to  
413 *LINC01861*, a long intergenic non-coding RNA gene (Figure 2C). This locus contains an cis-  
414 eQTL that is located within 0.1 Mb of and on the same chromosome as *MFAP3* and *FAM114A2*,  
415 two genes that previously showed evidence for co-expression in a micro-array analysis [47]. It is  
416 also an enhancer in immune cells [46]. The third locus with 3 points was located on chromosome  
417 20 and is flanked by *ZHX3* and *LPIN3* (Figure 3D). It shows evidence of strong transcription in  
418 the lung and is a cis-eQTL for *CHD6*, a gene within 0.1 Mb on the same chromosome that  
419 encodes a DNA-dependent ATPase and is active in chromatin remodeling in response to  
420 oxidative stress[43]. The fourth locus was on chromosome 6 and maps to *KIF6* (Figure 3E). It  
421 also includes a cis-eQTL for *KIF6* that encodes a protein in the kinesins family. This family of  
422 proteins is responsible for intracellular transport of protein complexes[43].

423 A 5<sup>th</sup> locus with 3 points was on chromosome 5 and mapped to *FAF2* (Figure 3F). The  
424 top SNP in the region, rs2963672, falls in the UTR3 within *FAF2* (OR=3.1,  $p=4 \times 10^{-5}$ ) and is a  
425 cis-eQTL for *FAF2*. The region also harbors eQTLs for several other genes, *ARL10*, *NOP16*,  
426 *HIGD2A*, *RNF44*, *CDHR2* and *GPRIN1* in blood[46]. This region shows strong evidence for  
427 regulation of transcription of *FAF2* in lung, blood and immune tissue in RegulomeDB. A  
428 STRING network analysis showed a number of edges and similar to our top SNP, this may  
429 represent a network of genes with associated expression (PPI enrichment  $p=2.6 \times 10^{-7}$ )  
430 [44](Supplemental Figure 3).

431 We also examined regions that have been previously associated with TST reactivity or  
432 LTBI in previous genome-wide and candidate gene studies (Supplemental Table 3). While we  
433 were unable to strictly replicate association within specific candidate genes because we did not

434 type the same SNPs, we did observe association with the RSTR phenotype in chromosomes 2  
435 and 5 originally identified by a genome-wide linkage study in Ugandans ( $p=1 \times 10^{-4}$ , both  
436 regions), the TST2 locus originally linked to TST reactivity ( $p=1.66 \times 10^{-4}$ ), and the *IL9* region  
437 associated with TST reactivity in an HIV+ cohort ( $6.99 \times 10^{-4}$ ).

438 In our gene enrichment analysis of SNPs that were  $P < 1e-05$  for association, our SNPs  
439 showed enrichment for only one biological pathway, the anti-citrullinated protein antibody  
440 positive rheumatoid arthritis (ACPA positive RA) pathway from the GWAS catalog, with a p-  
441 value of  $9.36 \times 10^{-6}$  (FDR-adjusted  $p=1.70 \times 10^{-2}$ ) as determined by GENE2FUNC. This was based  
442 on four genes that showed association with the RSTR phenotype and are also found in the ACPA  
443 positive RA pathway: *CD40*, *DNASE1L3*, *RPP14*, *PXK* (Figure 4).

444

## 445 Discussion

446 Overall, our results show that the RSTR phenotype has a higher heritability than  
447 previously reported and that specific variants associated with RSTR likely serve regulatory roles  
448 in lung and immune cells. We posit that the higher heritability estimate seen in this study  
449 compared to previous studies is due to a purer phenotypic definition, with less misclassification.  
450 Further, we were able to confirm exposure to MTB infection, greatly reducing false negatives in  
451 our data. We previously found that the prevalence of the RSTR phenotype varies as a function of  
452 follow-up time and use of TST as compared to IGRA [6, 8, 9, 48]. Importantly, studies without a  
453 long duration of follow-up will likely misclassify subjects due to subjects converting to TST  
454 positivity after the follow-up has concluded. In addition, subjects can revert from positive to  
455 negative with TST/IGRA tests which can lead to misclassification. As the RSTRs included in  
456 this study had an average of 9 years follow-up after initial TB exposure and both TST and IGRA

457 were utilized in the clinical definition we were able to assign the RSTR status with little or no  
458 ambiguity. This is the first genetic analysis to utilize this strict definition of resistance to  
459 infection. The importance of strict definition for heritability estimation was also seen in our TB  
460 heritability estimates. When including subjects without long-term follow-up and/or without  
461 confirmed RSTR status, the heritability estimate was lower. Our strict TB vs. LTBI contrast  
462 yielded a higher heritability estimate, likely reflecting strong genetic influence on progression;  
463 because MTB exposure is documented, the influence of misclassification by lack of exposure on  
464 heritability can be minimized.

465 While our GWAS results did not identify any single variant that is significant at the  
466 traditional “GWAS threshold,” our results are consistent with a number of putatively associating  
467 variants with regulatory roles consistent with the RSTR phenotype. The SNPs that were  
468 significant at a  $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$  level are mostly in regions that have evidence of a regulatory function  
469 in RegulomeDB. Many of these SNPs were eQTLs and some exhibit biological relevance as  
470 judged by tissue specific effects.

471 *ABHD6*, our top locus using the scoring scheme we developed, produces a lipase that can  
472 degrade bis monoacylglycerol phosphate (BMP) and constitutes the major enzyme for BMP  
473 catabolism. BMP is expressed in the late endosomes and lysosomes of phagocytosing  
474 macrophages [12]. In most mammalian cells, BMP levels are low, comprising only about 1–2%  
475 of total phospholipids. However, BMP constitutes 16% of the total phospholipids in lung  
476 alveolar macrophages [13]. Additionally, the gene *DNASE1L*, a gene for which the *ABHD6* SNP  
477 is a trans-eQTL, codes for a protein that plays a key role in degrading neutrophil extracellular  
478 traps (NETs). NETs are mainly composed of DNA fibers and are released by neutrophils to bind  
479 pathogens during inflammation. NETs may play a key role in the pathway responsible for non-

480 specific inflammation and tissue destruction in pulmonary TB [14]. Therefore, the SNP in  
481 *ABHD6* is potentially relevant to TB development through two distinct biological processes.

482 *FAF2*, one of our second highest scoring loci, is part of the innate immune system and  
483 regulates endoplasmic reticulum-associated degradation (ERAD), a system for ubiquitin-  
484 dependent degradation of misfolded proteins. FAF2 controls the steady-state expression of the  
485 IGF1R receptor, thus indirectly regulates the insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling  
486 pathway. IGF-I has been shown to contribute to the maintenance of *Mycobacterium leprae*  
487 persistence in the host, reinforcing a key role for IGF-I in leprosy pathogenesis. It has been found  
488 that blocking IGF-I signaling rescues antimicrobial activity in *M. leprae* (ML)-infected  
489 macrophages and furthermore, knockdown of IGF-1R rescues antimicrobial activity in ML-  
490 infected human macrophages [23]. These cytokines and processes are similar between the *M.*  
491 *leprae* response and the response to MTB infection and adds plausibility that these genes could  
492 play important roles in the RSTR phenotype.

493 Four of our loci mapped to genes that show enrichment for the rheumatoid arthritis (RA)  
494 pathway based on the GWAS catalog. The component genes of the RA pathway as well as the  
495 pathway itself are known to be important in susceptibility to infectious disease. RA is an  
496 inflammatory disease characterized by increased levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines  
497 (particularly TNF- $\alpha$ ) that are important to host immune response in TB[49]. Many RA drugs are  
498 anti-TNF biologics, and depression of normally important cytokines among RA patients  
499 receiving treatment leads to a susceptibility to developing active TB or a re-activation among  
500 LTBI patients [50]. Previous immunological studies have shown the importance of TNF (and the  
501 other Th1 cytokines) in the TB response [51]. A previous meta-analysis of hundreds of TB  
502 susceptibility studies showed enrichment for the RA pathway when the meta-analytic summary

503 statistics were analyzed for pathway enrichment [22]. Further, the RA pathway has been shown  
504 to be an important part of the alveolar inflammation response to infection; alveolar macrophages  
505 are the first target of infection for MTB, and they have previously been discussed as a possible  
506 mediator of the RSTR phenotype [52, 53]. Thus, the results presented in this study in conjunction  
507 with previous literature are consistent with genetic variants in the pro-inflammatory Th1  
508 cytokine response, which are also grouped together in the RA pathway, being associated with the  
509 RSTR phenotype and resistance to MTB infection.

510 This study was not without limitations. We were not able to detect any variants that were  
511 associated with the RSTR phenotype at the GWAS threshold of  $p < 5 \times 10^{-8}$  but this may be due to  
512 small sample size and the inability to replicate findings due to the lack of an additional cohort  
513 with a similarly strict phenotype definition. Further, while family-based association testing may  
514 have a lower power to detect an association, we were able to control for exposure between RSTR  
515 and LTBI individuals whereas typical case-control studies do not. Despite these limitations, our  
516 results identified eQTLs, enhancers, and other regulatory functions that are biologically plausible  
517 in the context of resistance to infection by MTB. Additionally, we were able to utilize a larger  
518 sample size for our heritability estimates and we were able to demonstrate that the RSTR  
519 phenotype has a high heritability despite a lack of individually associating SNPs at the GWAS  
520 level. This may imply that the RSTR phenotype is influenced by a variety of genes and variants  
521 rather than individual SNPs or genes.

522 Overall, these findings demonstrate how a purer clinical phenotype can yield higher, and  
523 probably more accurate, heritability estimates and identify potential new candidate genes for  
524 resistance to MTB infection. Our observation that many of these associated SNPs have  
525 regulatory functions add to our existing understanding of how genetic variants, including those

526 from previous studies of the RSTR phenotype, influence resistance to MTB infection and build  
527 on our previous knowledge of TB pathogenesis.

528

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530 K, M.N. and C.M.S. oversaw the subject recruitment and characterization. M.L.M. and P.B.  
531 conducted the statistical analysis, L.M. oversaw the data collection and constructed clinical  
532 datasets, and C.M.S. and S.M.W. supervised the statistical analyses. M.L.M., P.B., and C.M.S.  
533 verified the underlying data. M.L.M. and P.B. drafted the initial version of the manuscript, and  
534 all authors had full access to all of the data in this paper and edited and approved the final  
535 version of the manuscript.

536

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538

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548

549 **Data Sharing Statement:** Because of restrictions on the study placed by the Ugandan ethical  
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551 interested in obtaining the data must apply to the Data Access Committee, chaired by Dr. Sudha  
552 Iyengar ([ski@case.edu](mailto:ski@case.edu)) with a data analysis plan, data security plan, and plan to protect human  
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554

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- 681  
682

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684 TABLES

685 **Table 1. Cohort Characteristics for Heritability**

<b>Age</b>	23.4 (12.0)
<b>Sex</b>	
Male	442 (48.7%)
Female	466 (51.3%)
<b>HIV Status</b>	
Positive	98 (10.9%)
Negative	801 (89.1%)
<b>Classification</b>	
LTBI	228 (25.1%)
RSTR	97 (9.6%)
TB	350 (38.5%)
Not active TB	233 (26.8%)

686 Not active TB refers to subjects who did not have long-term follow up data including IGRA.  
 687 This includes subjects who were TST+ or TST- during the original study, but could not be  
 688 categorized without IGRA and long-term data.

689

690 **Table 2. Cohort Characteristics for GWAS**

Variable	Total	RSTR	LTBI	p*
Sample Size	263	74	189	-
Female (0)	125 (47.5%)	38 (51.4%)	87 (46.0%)	0.52
Age, years	23.58 ± 8.9	22.5 ± 8.8	24.0 ± 8.9	0.06
Age range, years	2-55	14-66	14-66	-

691 Values are shown as N (%) or as mean ± SD. \*Comparisons between RSTR and LTBI were  
 692 made using Pearson's  $\chi^2$  test and for continuous variables using the non-parametric Wilcoxon  
 693 rank sum test.

694

695

696 **Table 3. Heritability Estimates**

<b>Phenotype Definition</b>	<b>Unadjusted</b>	<b>Adjusted‡</b>	<b>HIV-Only‡</b>
<b>Active TB vs. LTBI and uninfected*</b>	28.7%	37.1%	38.7%
<b>RSTR vs. LTBI</b>	50.9%	48.3%	50.4%
<b>RSTR vs. LTBI and Active TB</b>	45.2%	45.2%	45.8%
<b>TB vs. LTBI</b>	56.0%	56.4%	55.2%

697 \* “uninfected” refers to both RSTRs and subjects who did not have long-term follow up data  
 698 including IGRA. This includes subjects who were TST+ or TST- during the original study, but  
 699 could not be categorized without IGRA and long-term data and are referred to as “no active TB”  
 700 earlier in the document.

701 ‡ “adjusted” refers to estimates that were adjusted for age, sex, and HIV status. For the RSTR vs.  
 702 LTBI, the age at which they were distinguished as RSTR or LTBI in a sub-study was used. For  
 703 the other estimates, the age at first presentation was used.

704 ‡These estimates only included the HIV- subjects and were adjusted for age and sex

705

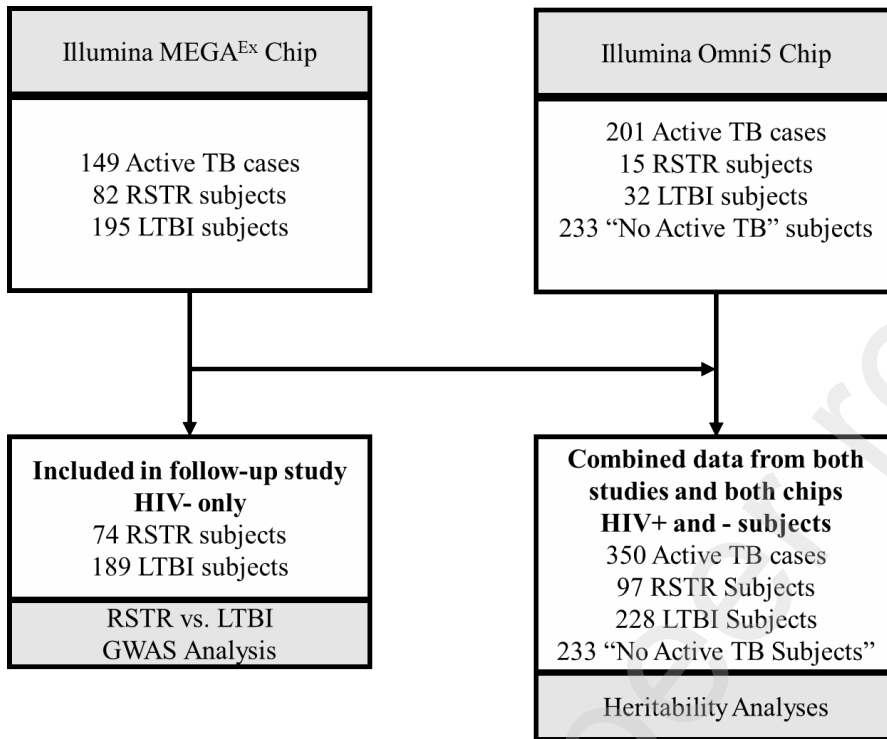
**Table 4. GWAS results for featured loci\***

Chr:Pos	Top SNP	Associated Gene	MAF	OR	95% CI for OR	Score Stat	P	Effect Allele
<b>3:58272639</b>	rs9848072	ABHD6	0.07	4.81	[2.34, 9.92]	4.26	2.06x10 <sup>-5</sup>	G
<b>3:24304291</b>	rs78813564	THRB	0.057	8.12	[3.35, 19.51]	4.65	3.39x10 <sup>-6</sup>	G
<b>5:153271156</b>	rs919222	LINC01861	0.388	0.385	[0.26, 0.58]	-4.65	3.38x10 <sup>-6</sup>	A
<b>20:39968188</b>	rs6072343	ZHX3;	0.0856	5.02	[2.43, 10.26]	4.38	1.19x10 <sup>-5</sup>	A
		LPIN3						
<b>6:39530428</b>	rs10484824	KIF6	0.0875	4.57	[2.28, 9.18]	4.27	1.93x10 <sup>-5</sup>	G
<b>5:175935316</b>	rs2963672	FAF2	0.19	3.06	[1.79, 5.23]	4.09	4.22x10 <sup>-5</sup>	G

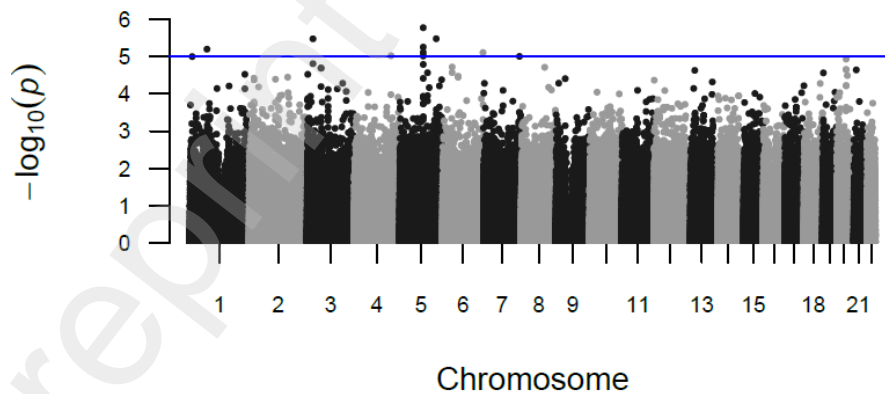
\*Featured loci all had P-values < 5x10<sup>-5</sup> and were selected based on biological relevance to RSTR phenotype

FIGURES

**Figure 1. Source of Subjects and Genotype Data**

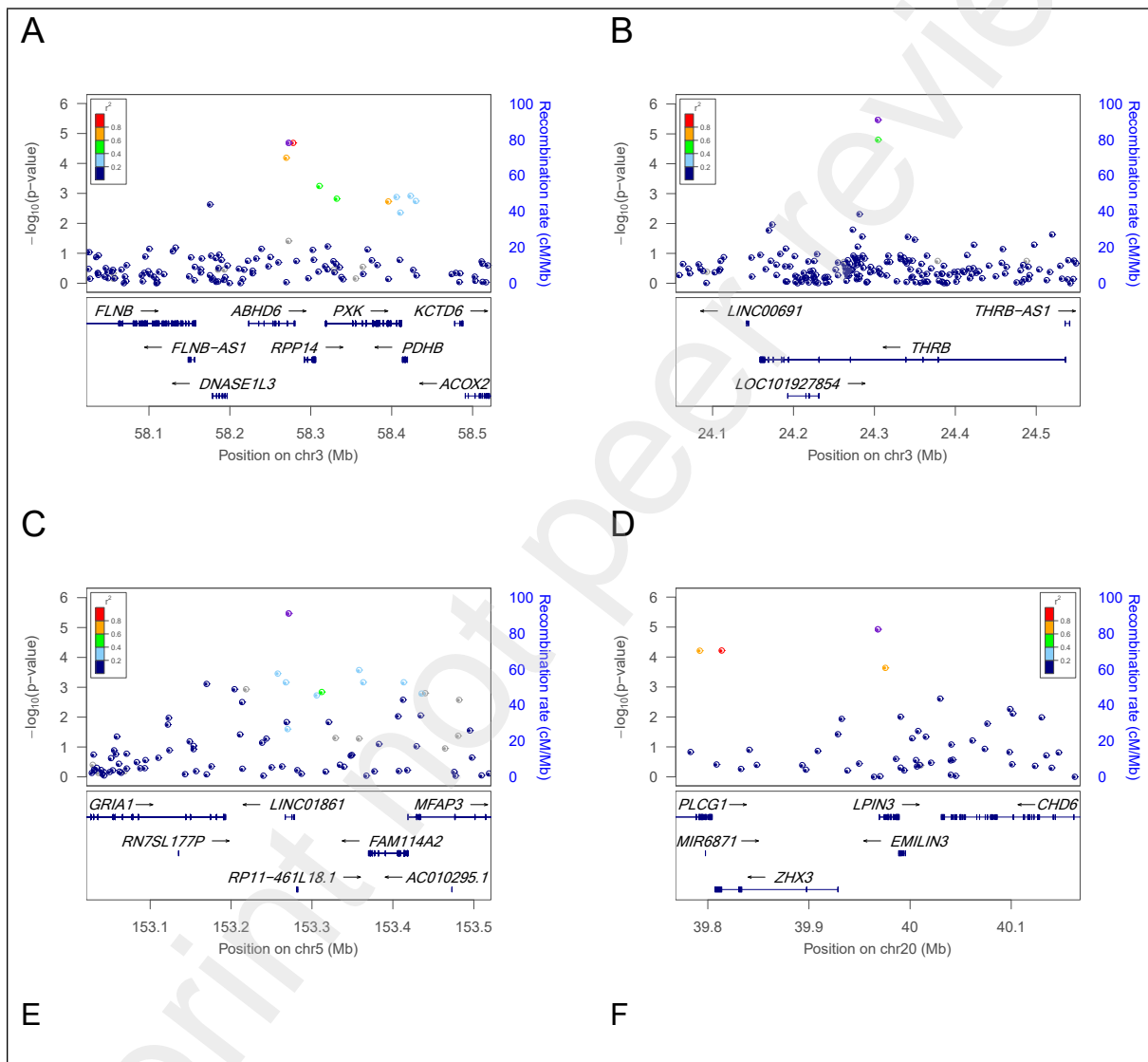


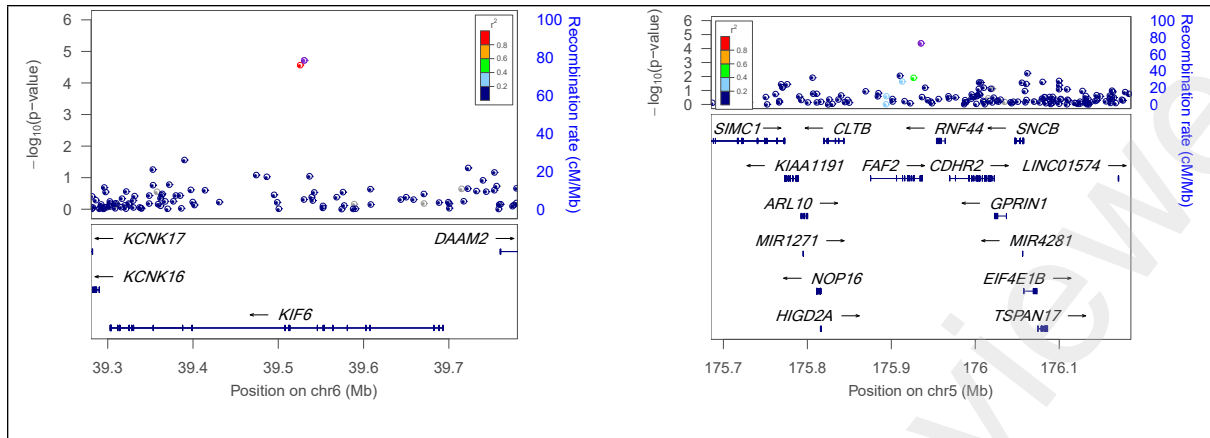
**Figure 2. Manhattan Plot of P-Values for association between SNPs and RSTR phenotype (relative to LTBI)**



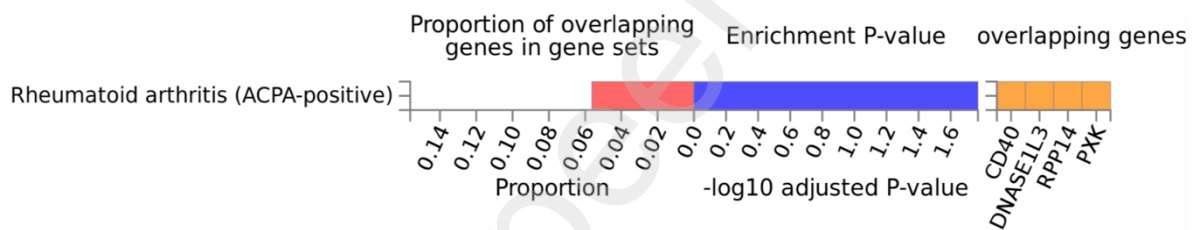
**Figure 3. Locus Zoom plots for featured loci**

Locus Zoom plots for featured, significant loci. Region shown is the gene for which the top variant falls in, plus 200kb flanking. LD shown is for 1000 Genomes, November 2014, African population. A) ABHD region with top SNP rs9848072 (3:58272639). B) CDH22 region with top SNP rs1321001 (20:44816736). C) TMEM13L (alias KIAA0922) region with top SNP rs17369958 (4:154459958). D) FAF2 region with top SNP rs2963672 (5:175935316).





**Figure 4. Gene Set Enrichment for GWAS Summary Statistics**



### Supplemental Tables.

**Supplemental Table 1.** Loci and lead SNPs with  $P < 5e-05$  for Association with RSTR Phenotype

**Supplemental Table 2.** eQTL's Located in Loci with  $P < 5e-05$  for Association with RSTR Phenotype

**Supplemental Table 3.** Loci Previously Associated with RSTR Phenotype and Accompanying Summary Statistics in Current Study

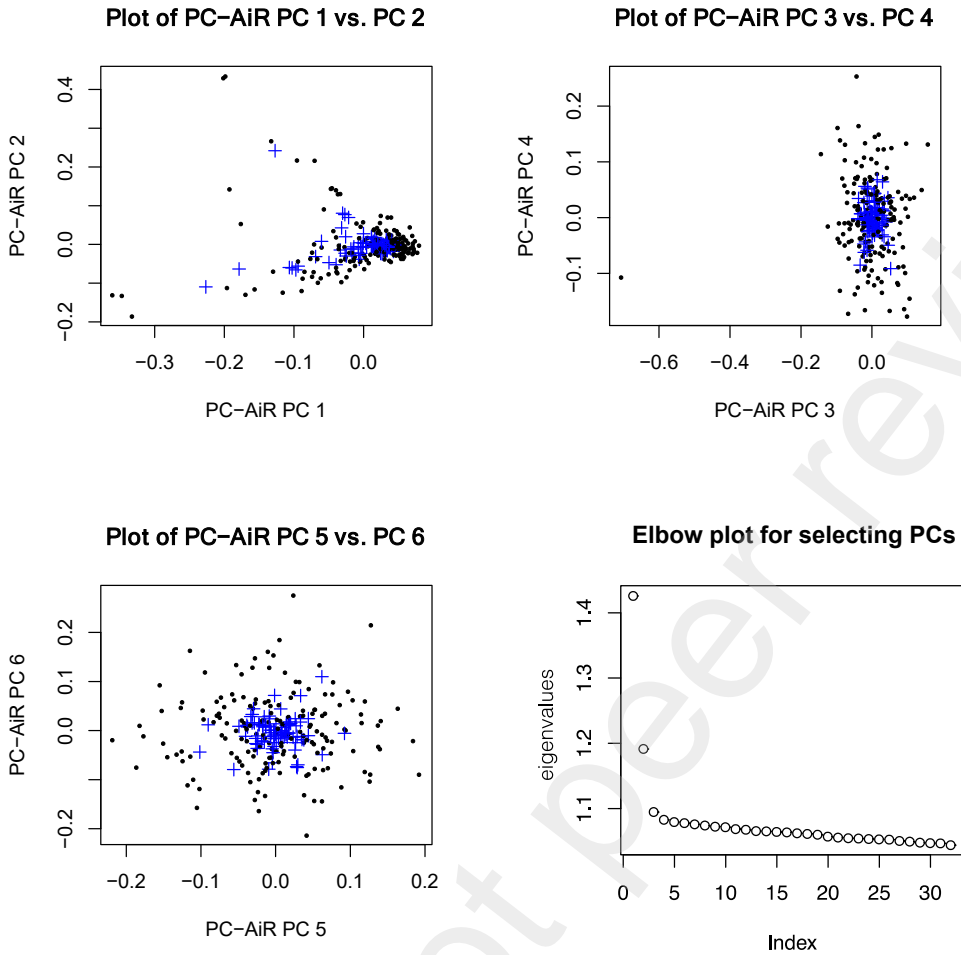
### Supplemental Figures

**Supplemental Figure 1.** Principal Component Plots

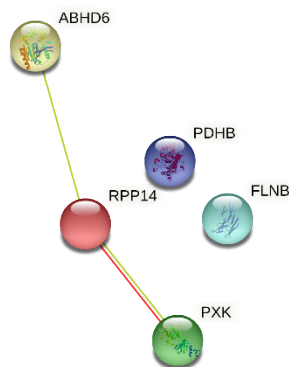
**Supplemental Figure 2.** STRING diagram for eQTLs

**Supplemental Figure 3.** STRING diagram for eQTLs

## Supplemental Figure 1. Principal Component Plots



## Supplemental Figure 2. STRING diagram for eQTLs



Supplemental Figure 3. STRING diagram for eQTLs

