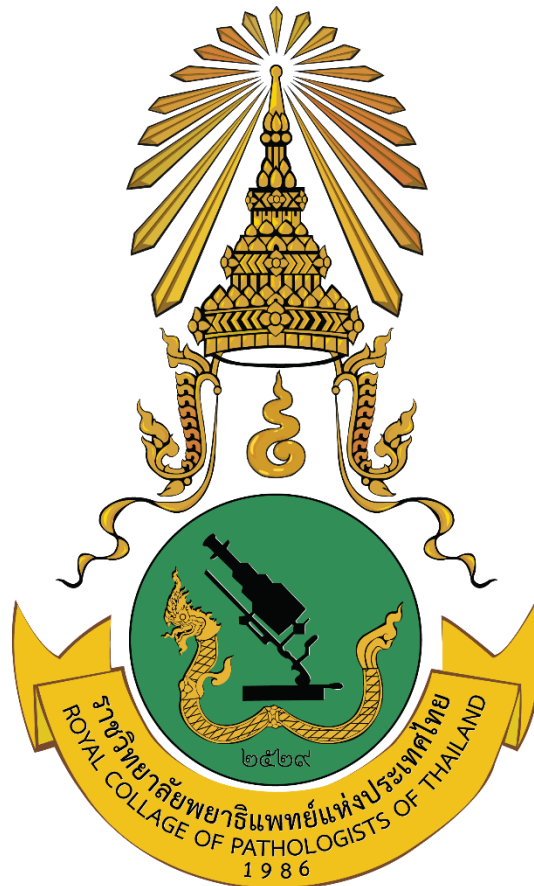


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## ABOUT THE JOURNAL

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### Aims and Scope

Asian Archives of Pathology (AAP) is an open access, peer-reviewed journal. The journal was first published in 2002 under the Thai name “วารสารราชวิทยาลัยพยาธิแห่งประเทศไทย” and English name “Journal of the Royal College of Pathologists of Thailand”. The journal is a publication for workers in all disciplines of pathology and forensic medicine. In the first 3 years (volumes), the journal was published every 4 months. Until 2005, the journal has changed its name to be “Asian Archives of Pathology: The Official Journal of the Royal College of Pathologists of Thailand”, published quarterly to expand the collaboration among people in the fields of pathology and forensic medicine in the Asia-Pacific regions and the Western countries.

The full articles of the journal are appeared in either Thai or English. However, the abstracts of all Thai articles are published in both Thai and English languages. The journal features letters to the editor, original articles, review articles, case reports, case illustrations, and technical notes. Diagnostic and research areas covered consist of (1) **Anatomical Pathology** (including cellular pathology, cytopathology, haematopathology, histopathology, immunopathology, and surgical pathology); (2) **Clinical Pathology (Laboratory Medicine)** [including blood banking and transfusion medicine, clinical chemistry (chemical pathology or clinical biochemistry), clinical immunology, clinical microbiology, clinical toxicology, cytogenetics, parasitology, and point-of-care testing]; (3) **Forensic Medicine (Legal Medicine or Medical Jurisprudence)** (including forensic science and forensic pathology); (4) **Molecular Medicine** (including molecular genetics, molecular oncology, and molecular pathology); (5) **Pathobiology**; and (6) **Pathophysiology**.

All issues of our journal have been printed in hard copy since the beginning. Around the late 2014, we developed our website ([www.asianarchpath.com](http://www.asianarchpath.com)) in order to increase our visibility. We would like to acknowledge that our journal has been sponsored by the Royal College of Pathologists of Thailand. We have the policy to disseminate the verified scientific knowledge to the public on a non-profit basis. Hence, we have not charged the authors whose manuscripts have been submitted or accepted for publication in our journal.

On the other hand, if any authors request a printed copy of the journal issue containing the articles, each of the copied journals costs 450 bahts for Thai authors and 30 United States dollars (USD) for international authors.

## **Publication Frequency**

Four issues per year

## **Disclaimer**

The Royal College of Pathologists of Thailand and Editorial Board cannot be held responsible for errors or any consequences arising from the use of information contained in Asian Archives of Pathology. It should also be noted that the views and opinions expressed in this journal do not necessarily reflect those of The Royal College of Pathologists of Thailand and Editorial Board.

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## LETTER TO THE EDITOR

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# ผู้ช่วยพยาธิแพทย์ (Pathologists' assistants)

## ธีรยสธ นิมมานนท์

ภาควิชาพยาธิวิทยา ชั้น 6 อาคารเจ้าฟ้าเพชรรัตน วิทยาลัยแพทยศาสตร์พระมงกุฎเกล้า  
เลขที่ 317 ถนนราชวิถี แขวงทุ่งพญาไท เขตราชเทวี จังหวัดกรุงเทพมหานคร รหัสไปรษณีย์ 10400  
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ถึงแม้ว่า ณ ปัจจุบันนี้จะยังไม่มีข้อมูลหลักฐานอันเป็นที่ประจักษ์ แต่ก็เป็นที่ทราบกันโดยทั่วไปว่าพยาธิแพทย์ในประเทศไทยซึ่งปฏิบัติงานอยู่ในหน่วยงานของภาครัฐและเอกชนต่างประสบปัญหาภาระงานที่มากเกินไปเนื่องพื่อในการตรวจสิ่งส่งตรวจทางพยาธิวิทยากายวิภาคด้วยตาเปล่าและกล้องจุลทรรศน์ โดยเฉพาะพยาธิแพทย์ผู้ทำหน้าที่เป็นอาจารย์ในโรงเรียนแพทย์ต้องมีภาระงานด้านการเรียนการสอนแก่นักเรียนแพทย์และแพทย์ประจำบ้านสาขาพยาธิวิทยากายวิภาค (Anatomical Pathology) และ/หรือสาขาพยาธิวิทยาทั่วไป (Anatomical and Clinical Pathology) ร่วมกับปฏิบัติงานด้านการวิจัยเพิ่มเติมด้วย ดังนั้นจึงปรากฏความต้องการจากพยาธิแพทย์เป็นจำนวนมากสำหรับบุคคลซึ่งปฏิบัติหน้าที่เป็น “ผู้ช่วยพยาธิแพทย์ (Pathologists' assistant)” เพื่อแบ่งเบาภาระงานด้านต่าง ๆ ของพยาธิแพทย์<sup>(1-3)</sup> อันประกอบไปด้วย

1. การติดต่อสื่อสารและประสานงานกับหน่วยงานต่าง ๆ ทั้งภายในและภายนอกสถาบัน สำหรับขั้นตอนการเก็บสิ่งส่งตรวจทางพยาธิวิทยากายวิภาค การจัดส่ง และการรายงานผล
2. การตรวจสอบความครบถ้วนและความถูกต้องของสิ่งส่งตรวจทางพยาธิวิทยากายวิภาค ก่อนรับเข้ามาในระบบ รวมถึงการเก็บรักษาตามระยะเวลาที่กำหนดของสิ่งส่งตรวจ ภายหลังการตรวจด้วยตาเปล่าเป็นที่เรียบร้อยแล้ว
3. การบรรยายพร้อมกับการถ่ายภาพของพยาธิสภาพและ/หรือรอยโรคของสิ่งส่งตรวจที่พบขณะทำการตรวจทางพยาธิวิทยากายวิภาคด้วยตาเปล่า
4. การตรวจสอบ จัดเตรียม ดูแลรักษา และทำความสะอาดอุปกรณ์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการตรวจสิ่งส่งตรวจทางพยาธิวิทยากายวิภาคด้วยตาเปล่าให้อยู่ในสภาพสมบูรณ์และพร้อมใช้อยู่เสมอ



5. การเก็บ การลงทะเบียน การคัดแยก การดูแลรักษา รวมถึงการบริหารจัดการสิ่งส่งตรวจประเภทต่าง ๆ สำหรับการนำไปใช้ในงานวิจัยทางด้านชีวเวชศาสตร์ (Biomedical sciences) พยาธิวิทยา (Pathology) พยาธิชีววิทยา (Pathobiology) อณูเวชศาสตร์ (Molecular Medicine) และอณูพยาธิวิทยา (Molecular pathology)

อนึ่งการปฏิบัติงานของผู้ช่วยพยาธิแพทย์ในการตรวจสิ่งส่งตรวจทางพยาธิวิทยาภาคด้วยตาเปล่ามีประสิทธิผลเทียบเคียงหรือมากกว่าแพทย์ประจำบ้านสาขาพยาธิวิทยาภาคและ/หรือสาขาพยาธิวิทยาทั่วไป<sup>(4)</sup> เพราะฉะนั้นผู้ช่วยพยาธิแพทย์ที่มีความชำนาญการนั้นสามารถที่จะมีบทบาทและร่วมเป็นส่วนหนึ่งในการช่วยเหลือและการให้คำแนะนำเรื่องการตรวจสิ่งส่งตรวจทางพยาธิวิทยาภาคด้วยตาเปล่าสำหรับแพทย์ประจำบ้านที่เพิ่งเข้ารับการฝึกอบรมซึ่งจะยังผลให้เกิดประสิทธิภาพของกระบวนการเรียนรู้ที่เพิ่มขึ้นของแพทย์ประจำบ้านอันเนื่องมาจากการแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นและการอภิปรายถกเถียงทางวิชาการซึ่งกันและกัน อีกทั้งยังก่อให้เกิดการลดภาระงานของพยาธิแพทย์ผู้เป็นอาจารย์ได้ส่วนหนึ่งด้วย<sup>(1-3,5)</sup>

ด้วยเหตุผลดังกล่าวมาข้างต้นทั้งหมดการฝึกอบรมบุคคลเพื่อมาปฏิบัติหน้าที่เป็นผู้ช่วยพยาธิแพทย์จึงเป็นสิ่งที่จำเป็นอย่างยิ่งยวดและเร่งด่วนสำหรับสถานการณ์ปัจจุบันทางแพทยศาสตร์และสาธารณสุขศาสตร์ของประเทศไทย

### **เอกสารอ้างอิง**

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**ORIGINAL ARTICLE**

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# The X-chromosomal short tandem repeats analysis in Thai population

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**Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article.

## Abstract

Human variations in the X chromosome are useful tools in studying human genetic diversity and individual identification. Five X chromosomal short tandem repeats (X-STRs) multiplex system (DXS8378, DXS101, HPRTB, DXS8377 and DXS10011) were amplified in one single polymerase chain reaction. DNA samples of 200 (101 males and 99 females) unrelated healthy individuals Thai, and 15 family trios with female children, were successfully analysed using this five X-STRs multiplex system. The distributions of allele frequencies were examined for independence. When the forensic efficiency was calculated, DXS10011 locus was found to be the greatest marker for forensic application and population study. The combined powers of discrimination of five loci in males and females were 0.999993 and 0.999999, respectively. These five X chromosome markers are highly informative for population study and the database of Thailand.

**Keywords:** X chromosome; short tandem repeats; multiplex PCR; Thai population; forensics

## Introduction

For many years, autosomal and Y-chromosomal DNA have been used for forensic purposes<sup>(1,2)</sup>. At the present time, X-chromosomal markers have been observed as a forensic of interest<sup>(3-7)</sup>. The availability of the finished sequence of the human X chromosome<sup>(8)</sup>, now allows exploring its evolution and unique properties at a new level. The X chromosome contains about 5% of the haploid genome and is completely conserved in gene content between species. However, evolutionary processes are likely to have shaped the behaviour and structure of the X chromosome in many other ways, influencing features such as repeat content, gene content, mutation rate and haplotype structure.

Study results of variations in the X chromosome are invaluable tools for studying the human genetic diversity and individual identification. The X-STRs may strengthen the results of autosomal and Y-STRs analysis. In paternity testing, although the X-STRs are advantageous only in case the alleged child is female, the X-STRs often have a greater power of exclusion than autosomal markers. Besides, the X-STRs are very beneficial in maternity testing or in deficiency paternity cases, for instance, to judge the paternity of disputed half-sisters with the same father in case the mothers' DNA are unavailable<sup>(5)</sup>.

The X-chromosome is inherited via a sex-based pattern. Because the recombination of the X chromosome occurs only in females, there is a less effective population size, greater linkage disequilibrium, and a stronger genetic drift. These factors bring the X chromosome to be a source of data in human evolution and evacuation studies<sup>(8)</sup>.

In this study, five X chromosome markers of interest in forensic science will be typed in the Thai population in order to report population database and haplotype profiling in the Thai population and calculating the population genetic parameters for these markers.

## Materials and Methods

### DNA extraction:

DNA extraction from whole blood samples of 200 Thai people (101 males and 99 females) were performed with a commercial method, according to manufacturer's instructions (Promega Corp., Madison, WI, USA). An aliquot containing approximately 4 ng of DNA was used in each PCR amplification. In addition, 15 family trios with female children (previously confirmed by autosomal STRs analysis) were checked for regular X-chromosomal inheritance.

### STR amplification and fragment analysis:

After various tests with different STRs and optimisation of PCR parameters, the STRs DXS8378, DXS101, HPRTB, DXS8377 and DXS10011 were combined into the PCR multiplex system. Primer sequences, labeling, concentrations, and references are shown in *Table 1*. Besides the primers, the PCR reaction mix (12.5 µl reaction volume) contained 1X AmpliTaq buffer II, 1.5 mM of MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 200 µl of each dNTP, and 2 U of AmpliTaq Gold DNA polymerase (Applied Biosystems, Foster city, CA, USA). A GeneAmp PCR system 9700 thermal cycler (Applied Biosystems, Foster city, CA, USA) was used. After several pilot experiments to optimise the amplification of all markers in the same tube, a PCR touch-down protocol was chosen<sup>(9)</sup>, consisting of an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 10 min, followed by nine cycles with denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s, annealing at decreasing temperature between 61 and 65 °C (decreasing 0.5 °C each cycle) for 1 min 30 s and extension at 72 °C for 1 min 15 s. Then 28 cycles at 94 °C 30 s, 58 °C 1 min 30 s, 72 °C 1 min 15 s; followed by a final extension at 60 °C for 60 min.

**Table 1** Primer sequences, concentrations, dye labeling and references.

Locus	Primer sequence (5' → 3')	Label	Concentration (µM)	Reference
DXS8378	CACAGGAGGTTTGACCTGTT AACTGAGATGGTGCCACTGA	PET	0.2	GDB, (15)
DXS101	ACTCTAAATCAGTCCAAATATCT AAATCACTCCATGGCACATGTAT	NED	2.5	GDB, (4)
HPRTB	TCTCTATTTCCATCTCTGTCTCC TCACCCCTGTCTATGGTCTCG	6-FAM	0.3	GDB, (15)
DXS8377	ACCACTTCATGGCTTACCACAG TATGGACCTTTGGAAAGCTAG	VIC	0.08	GDB, (16)
DXS10011	CTGAGATTGCACCATTGCAC TGGGAGAACCGTTTGAAGTT	6-FAM	0.5	GDB, (13)

**Note:** GDB = Genome database ([www.gdb.org](http://www.gdb.org))

An aliquot containing 1 µl of PCR product was mixed with 10 µl of Hi-Di formamide and 0.5 µl of GeneScan 500LIZ size standard (Applied Biosystems), heated at 95 °C for 3 min, quenched at 4 °C for 3 min and injected into an Applied Biosystems 3130 Genetic Analyzer.

Fragment sizes were automatically determined using GeneScan analysis software (Applied Biosystems). Genotyping was analysed using GeneMapper ID software (Applied Biosystems) by comparison with reference DNA control sample 9947A (female) (Applied Biosystems). Alleles were assigned according to the recommendations of the International Society of Forensic Haemogenetics (ISFH) commission<sup>(10)</sup>.

### Statistical analysis:

Allelic frequencies were calculated by using the data from males and females collectively and observed heterozygosity (HETobs) were calculated using the female data by Power Stat V12 program (www.pomega.com). Mean exclusion chance (MEC), power of discrimination for females (PDF) and power of discrimination for males (PDM) were computed by chromosome X web software (www.chrx-str.org). The combined power of discrimination was determined as  $1 - [(1 - P_{Da}) \cdot (1 - P_{Db}) \cdot (1 - P_{Dc}) \cdot (1 - P_{Dd}) \dots]$  with P<sub>Da-d</sub> indicating the discriminating power of the different polymorphism<sup>(11)</sup>. To evaluate Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium (HWE) and linkage disequilibrium (LD), GENEPOP program (version 3.4) was used.

## Results

The 9947A DNA (female) was used as a control reference sample. The allele frequencies for the X-chromosomal STRs DXS8378, DXS101, and HPRTB are displayed in *Table 2*, the data for DXS8377 and DXS10011 in *Table 3*. The forensic efficiency of the five X-STRs loci were calculated (*Table 4*). DXS8378 had the lowest values for PDM, PDF, and MEC in the present study. The combined power of discrimination in males and females were 0.999993 and 0.999999, respectively. Observed heterozygosity (HETobs) in females for the five markers ranged from 0.660 to 0.900 in this study, DXS8377 had the highest whereas DXS8378 had the lowest HETobs.

An exact test for Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) performed on female samples indicated that the genotype distributions did not deviate from HWE at any of the loci, except for threshold significance at locus DXS10011 ( $P=0.0000$ ; data not shown). When exact tests showed no significant difference between allele distributions of the two groups, pooled male and female databases of the Thai populations were purposely created to compare the allele frequencies at locus DXS8378, DXS101, HPRTB, DXS8377, and DXS10011 between different races (*Tables 5 – 9*).

**Table 2 Allele frequencies for the X-chromosomal STRs DXS8378, DXS101 and HPRTB in Thai population.** Allele frequencies were collected from the analysis of DNA samples of 200 (101 males and 99 females) unrelated healthy individuals Thai.

Allele	DXS8378		DXS101		HPRTB	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
8		0.005				
9	0.020	0.020				
10	0.475	0.525				
11	0.337	0.247			0.208	0.136
12	0.149	0.177			0.238	0.263
13	0.020	0.025			0.317	0.348
14					0.218	0.217
15					0.020	0.035
16						
17						
18			0.010			
19			0.020			
21			0.010			
22			0.069	0.066		
23			0.079	0.051		
24			0.208	0.247		
25			0.257	0.283		
26			0.178	0.192		
27			0.069	0.086		
28			0.050	0.061		
29			0.040	0.010		
30			0.010	0.005		

**Table 3 Allele frequencies for the X-chromosomal STRs DXS8377 and DXS10011 in Thai population.** Allele frequencies were collected from the analysis of DNA samples of 200 (101 males and 99 females) unrelated healthy individuals Thai.

Allele	DXS8377		DXS100011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
27				0.015
28			0.020	0.005
29.2			0.020	0.025
30			0.069	0.056
30.2			0.030	0.015
31				0.035
31.2				0.015
32			0.030	0.025
32.2			0.020	0.010
33			0.050	0.030
33.2			0.020	0.045
34			0.089	0.040
34.2			0.010	0.010
35			0.030	0.071
35.2			0.040	0.010
36			0.050	0.081
37			0.069	0.056
37.2			0.010	
38			0.109	0.086

**Table 3 (Continued) Allele frequencies for the X-chromosomal STRs DXS8377 and DXS10011 in Thai population.** Allele frequencies were collected from the analysis of DNA samples of 200 (101 males and 99 females) unrelated healthy individuals Thai.

Allele (Continued)	DXS8377		DXS100011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
39			0.050	0.056
40			0.050	0.061
41	0.010		0.050	0.040
42	0.010	0.010	0.050	0.076
43	0.020	0.010	0.040	0.020
44	0.030	0.045	0.030	0.035
45	0.059	0.061	0.010	0.040
46	0.099	0.111	0.040	0.005
47	0.139	0.162		0.010
48	0.089	0.131	0.010	
49	0.129	0.121		0.020
50	0.099	0.101		0.005
51	0.129	0.071	0.010	
52	0.059	0.035		
53	0.050	0.061		
54	0.059	0.030		
55	0.010	0.035		
56	0.010	0.010		
57		0.005		



**Table 4 Statistical parameters of forensic interest for X-chromosomal STRs in Thai population.** Statistical parameters were analysed from 200 (101 males and 99 females) unrelated healthy individuals Thai shown in *Table 2* and *3*. HETobs, HETexp and PDf were analysed from females only. PDm was analysed from males only.

Allele	DXS8378	DXS101	HPRTB	DXS8377	DXS10011
PIC	0.570	0.780	0.700	0.890	0.950
HETobs	0.660	0.710	0.680	0.900	0.670
HETexp	0.627	0.799	0.738	0.896	0.944
MEC I	0.375	0.619	0.505	0.799	0.894
MEC II	0.574	0.777	0.698	0.892	0.944
MEC III	0.575	0.777	0.699	0.893	0.946
MEC IV	0.427	0.654	0.559	0.814	0.901
PDm	0.638	0.838	0.752	0.905	0.946
PDf	0.800	0.932	0.888	0.970	0.979

**Note:** HETexp = Expected heterozygosity; HETobs = Observed heterozygosity; MEC = Mean exclusion chance (I for autosomal markers; II for X-chromosomal markers in trios; III for X-chromosomal markers in trios; and IV for X-chromosomal markers in father/daughter pairs); PDf = Power of discrimination in females; PDm = Power of discrimination in males; and PIC = Polymorphism information content

**Table 5 Allele frequencies, statistical parameters and references of DXS8378 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 2*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. Allele 10 was observed as a most common allele shared among the Asian population (Thai, Japan and China) and allele 8 was found only in Thai population. Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter		Thai	Japan	China	Italy	Angola	Mozambique
Sex	Male	101	195	250	100	74	112
	Female	99	138	250	100	0	0
Allele	8	0.003					
	9	0.020	0.015	0.028	0.020		0.009
	10	0.500	0.562	0.521	0.342	0.189	0.295
	11	0.293	0.285	0.275	0.520	0.378	0.348
	12	0.163	0.113	0.149	0.242	0.324	0.321
	13	0.023	0.025	0.023	0.040	0.108	0.027
	14			0.004	0.003		
	PDm	0.638	0.574	0.633	0.686	0.714	0.694
	PDf	0.800	0.776	0.803	0.865	0.858	0.838
	MEC II/III	0.575	—	—	0.646	0.650	0.624
	MEC IV	0.427	—	—	—	0.505	0.477
Reference	—	(18)	(20)	(22)	(25)	(25)	

**Note:** MEC = Mean exclusion chance (II for X-chromosomal markers in trios; III for X-chromosomal markers in trios; and IV for X-chromosomal markers in father/daughter pairs); PDf = Power of discrimination in females; and PDm = Power of discrimination in males

**Table 6 Allele frequencies, statistical parameters and references of DXS101 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 2*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. No significant most common allele shared in any population was observed. Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter		Thai	Japan	German	Italy	Angola	Mozambique
Sex	Male	101	195	216	70	74	112
	Female	99	138	348	70	0	0
Allele	14			0.002			0.009
	15			0.044	0.029		0.009
	16			0.005	0.010		
	17			0.002	0.005		
	18	0.005		0.084	0.095	0.027	0.027
	19	0.010		0.047	0.033	0.081	0.045
	20				0.043	0.081	0.080
	21	0.005	0.002	0.012	0.057	0.108	0.232
	22	0.068	0.040	0.032	0.024	0.068	0.063
	23	0.065	0.119	0.022	0.048	0.081	0.089
	24	0.228	0.304	0.066	0.171	0.068	0.134
	25	0.270	0.217	0.212	0.167	0.068	0.054
	26	0.185	0.176	0.156	0.152	0.162	0.071
	27	0.078	0.091	0.114	0.076	0.135	0.116
	28	0.055	0.036	0.079	0.067	0.095	0.018
	29	0.025	0.013	0.070	0.024	0.014	0.036
	29.2					0.014	0.018
	30	0.008	0.002	0.027			
31			0.024				
32			0.001				

**Table 6 (Continued) Allele frequencies, statistical parameters and references of DXS101 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 2*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. No significant most common allele shared in any population was observed. Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter		Thai	Japan	German	Italy	Angola	Mozambique
Allele (Continued)	PDm	0.838	0.798	0.889	—	0.913	0.892
	PDf	0.932	0.937	0.978	—	0.982	0.977
	MEC II/III	0.777	—	0.879	—	0.892	0.874
	MEC IV	0.654	—	—	—	0.812	0.786
Reference		—	(18)	(4)	(23)	(25)	(25)

**Note:** MEC = Mean exclusion chance (II for X-chromosomal markers in trios; III for X-chromosomal markers in trios; and IV for X-chromosomal markers in father/daughter pairs); PDf = Power of discrimination in females; and PDm = Power of discrimination in males

Six alleles were identified at locus DXS8378, ranging from allele 8 to 13, the most common being 10 (*Table 2*). Allele 10 was also observed as a most common allele shared among the Asian population (Thai, Japan and China) and allele 8 was found only in the Thai population (*Table 5*). Twelve alleles were found at locus DXS101, ranging from allele 18 to 30, the most common being 25 (*Table 2*). The comparison of allele frequencies at DXS101 locus between different races showed no significant most common allele shared in any population (*Table 6*). Five alleles ranging from allele 11 to 15 were identified at locus HPRTB, the most common allele being 13 (*Table 2*). Allele 13 was observed as a most common allele shared among the Asian population (Thai, Japan and China) (*Table 7*). DXS8377 had 17 alleles ranging from 41 to 57. The most common allele was 47 (*Table 3*). Among the African population (Angola, Uganda and Mozambique), a shared most common allele was 49 (*Table 8*). DXS10011 had 32 alleles ranging from 27 to 51, the most common allele was 38 (*Table 3*). There was no significant most common allele shared between different races at locus DXS10011 (*Table 9*).

**Table 7 Allele frequencies, statistical parameters and references of HPRTB in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 2*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. Allele 13 was observed as a most common allele shared among the Asian population (Thai, Japan and China). Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter		Thai	Japan	China	Latvia	Angola	Mozambique
Sex	Male	101	229	250	78	74	112
	Female	99	172	250	45	0	0
Allele	9				0.007		
	10				0.014		
	11	0.173	0.033	0.092	0.149		0.027
	12	0.250	0.269	0.292	0.365	0.068	0.098
	13	0.333	0.490	0.391	0.297	0.216	0.348
	14	0.218	0.140	0.173	0.135	0.351	0.277
	15	0.028	0.056	0.047	0.014	0.243	0.188
	16		0.012	0.004	0.007	0.108	0.063
	17			0.001	0.014	0.014	
	PDm	0.752	0.694	0.705	0.737	0.765	0.760
	PDf	0.888	0.819	0.866	0.889	0.900	0.899
	MEC II/III	0.699	0.614	—	0.778	0.715	0.713
	MEC IV	0.559	—	—	0.656	0.578	0.576
Reference	—	(17)	(20)	(24)	(25)	(25)	

**Note:** MEC = Mean exclusion chance (II for X-chromosomal markers in trios; III for X-chromosomal markers in trios; and IV for X-chromosomal markers in father/daughter pairs); PDf = Power of discrimination in females; and PDm = Power of discrimination in males

**Table 8 Allele frequencies, statistical parameters, and references of DXS8377 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 3*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. Allele 49 was observed as a most common allele shared among the African population (Angola, Uganda and Mozambique). Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter		Thai	Japan	Latvia	Angola	Uganda	Mozambique
Sex	Male	101	229	78	74	51	112
	Female	99	172	45	0	0	0
Allele	36					0.020	0.009
	37				0.014	0.020	
	40			0.007		0.020	0.018
	41	0.005		0.007	0.014	0.020	0.018
	42	0.010	0.012	0.027	0.054	0.020	0.071
	43	0.015	0.028	0.047	0.054	0.118	0.071
	44	0.038	0.024	0.020	0.068	0.039	0.080
	45	0.060	0.070	0.068	0.095	0.137	0.080
	46	0.105	0.100	0.074	0.041	0.078	0.106
	47	0.150	0.129	0.068	0.068	0.078	0.045
	48	0.110	0.147	0.169	0.095	0.098	0.036
	49	0.125	0.171	0.128	0.108	0.177	0.107
	50	0.100	0.105	0.115	0.068	0.020	0.089
	51	0.100	0.063	0.101	0.041	0.020	0.098
	52	0.048	0.047	0.061	0.095	0.098	0.018
	53	0.055	0.030	0.061	0.027		0.071
	54	0.045	0.033	0.014	0.068		0.018
	55	0.023	0.026	0.027	0.081	0.020	0.045
	56	0.010	0.005	0.007	0.014	0.020	0.009
57	0.003	0.007					
58		0.003				0.009	

**Table 8 (Continued) Allele frequencies, statistical parameters, and references of DXS8377 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 3*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. Allele 49 was observed as a most common allele shared among the African population (Angola, Uganda and Mozambique). Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter		Thai	Japan	Latvia	Angola	Uganda	Mozambique
Allele (Continued)	PDm	0.905	0.887	0.905	0.939	0.918	0.933
	PDf	0.970	0.982	0.983	0.990	0.982	0.989
	MEC II/III	0.893	0.887	0.897	0.921	0.891	0.920
	MEC IV	0.814	—	0.821	0.856	0.821	0.856
Reference		—	(17)	(24)	(25)	(25)	(25)

**Note:** MEC = Mean exclusion chance (II for X-chromosomal markers in trios; III for X-chromosomal markers in trios; and IV for X-chromosomal markers in father/daughter pairs); PDf = Power of discrimination in females; and PDm = Power of discrimination in males

## Discussions

Individuals from the Thai population including 101 males, 99 females and 15 family trios with female children were successfully investigated with five X chromosome markers. The multiplex PCR assays were optimized for a DNA concentration of 4 ng initially but later were able to be diluted to 2 ng, that is, they were sensitive enough for routine paternity analysis. The DXS10011 locus was highly polymorphic, with the highest power of discrimination and probability of paternity exclusion among the five markers studied.

When the comparison of allele frequencies between different races was observed, the Asian population shared the most common allele, that is, allele 10 at locus DXS8378 and allele 13 at locus HPRTB whereas allele 49 at locus DXS8377 was a most common allele shared among the African population. DXS10011 had the greatest individual value as a forensic marker, with the highest power of discrimination in males (PDm) and females (PDf), as well as mean exclusion chance.

**Table 9 Allele frequencies, statistical parameters, and references of DXS10011 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 3*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. No significant most common allele shared in any population was observed. Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter		Thai	Japan	Taiwan	Latvia	German	Algeria
Sex	Male	101	56	92	78	105	104
	Female	99	48	181	45	200	106
Allele	17		0.007				
	18		0.007	0.005			
	19		0.020	0.025			
	20		0.026	0.047			
	21		0.020	0.047			0.003
	21.2		0.013	0.008			
	22		0.066	0.049			
	22.2		0.046	0.011			
	23		0.026	0.030			
	23.2		0.039	0.047			
	24		0.046	0.041			
	24.2		0.072	0.049			
	25		0.020	0.049			
	25.2		0.026	0.038			
	26		0.046	0.027			0.003
	26.2		0.020	0.005			
	27	0.008	0.020	0.033			0.013
	27.2		0.013	0.008			
	28	0.013	0.086	0.063	0.020	0.013	0.028
	29		0.059	0.055	0.027	0.039	0.025
29.2	0.023				0.007	0.025	
30	0.063	0.033	0.055	0.020	0.010	0.025	



**Table 9 (Continued) Allele frequencies, statistical parameters, and references of DXS10011 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 3*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. No significant most common allele shared in any population was observed. Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter	Thai	Japan	Taiwan	Latvia	German	Algeria	
Allele (Continued)	30.1	0.023	0.007				
	30.2				0.081	0.030	0.044
	31	0.018	0.026	0.068	0.007	0.010	0.038
	31.2	0.008			0.095	0.070	0.047
	31.3	0.028	0.007				
	32		0.046	0.047	0.027	0.050	
	32.1	0.015	0.007				
	32.2				0.074	0.075	
	33	0.040	0.039	0.055		0.023	
	33.1	0.033	0.007				
	33.2				0.054	0.059	0.025
	34	0.065	0.033	0.041	0.041	0.043	
	34.1	0.010	0.007				
	34.2				0.014	0.023	
	35	0.050	0.053	0.027	0.068	0.033	0.044
	35.2	0.025			0.027	0.013	0.013
	36	0.065	0.013	0.030	0.074	0.075	0.073
	36.2	0.063				0.003	0.003
	37		0.013	0.008	0.047	0.059	0.079
	37.2	0.005					0.003
38	0.098	0.020	0.011	0.088	0.089	0.070	
39	0.053		0.005	0.034	0.010	0.054	
39.1	0.055					0.003	
40		0.007	0.008	0.068	0.053	0.063	

**Table 9 (Continued) Allele frequencies, statistical parameters, and references of DXS10011 in six populations.** For the Thai population, the data were from pooled males and females (*Table 3*) when the exact tests showed no difference between the two groups. No significant most common allele shared in any population was observed. Some statistical parameters were not available.

Parameter	Thai	Japan	Taiwan	Latvia	German	Algeria	
Allele (Continued)	41	0.045		0.003	0.027	0.056	
	42	0.063			0.034	0.046	
	43	0.030			0.014	0.053	
	44	0.033		0.003	0.020	0.023	
	45	0.025			0.020	0.016	
	46	0.023			0.014	0.007	
	47	0.005			0.007	0.007	
	48	0.005					
	49	0.010					
	50	0.003					
	51	0.005					
	PDm	0.946	0.933	—	0.942	0.948	—
	PDf	0.979	0.997	—	0.994	0.995	—
	MEC II/III	0.946	0.957	—	0.939	0.945	—
MEC IV	0.901	—	—	0.889	0.899	—	
Reference	—	(19)	(21)	(24)	(15)	(26)	

**Note:** MEC = Mean exclusion chance (II for X-chromosomal markers in trios; III for X-chromosomal markers in trios; and IV for X-chromosomal markers in father/daughter pairs); PDf = Power of discrimination in females; and PDm = Power of discrimination in males

DXS10011 had a very low HETobs (0.670) compared to the expected heterozygosity (HETexp) (0.950) as a result of an amplification difficulty, leading to a genotypic error (homozygote excess)<sup>(12)</sup>. It also had the largest product size compared to DXS8378, DXS101, HPRTB, and DXS8377<sup>(4,13-15)</sup>. In addition, DXS10011 contained a highly polymorphic allele, mainly because of complex structural variants (regular and inter-alleles)<sup>(14)</sup>. We found that the shorter fragment size amplified better than the larger fragment which produced allelic drop-out, known as extreme preferential amplification (EPA). Due to a difficulty to distinguish the longer allele from background noise, the overrepresentation of homozygotes for the shorter allele could occur<sup>(12)</sup>. Therefore, some samples were repeatedly investigated.

Because the recombination rate of the X chromosome in females is low, the X chromosome has greater linkage disequilibrium (LD) as compared to autosomal markers. The exact test for LD was performed for all pairs of the loci in this study, the result showed no LD in each pair of markers. In the kinship cases involving 15 family trios with daughter, no mutation was detected. This proved the applicability of five X-STR markers in kinship cases.

## **Conclusions**

This five X-chromosomal STRs multiplex system offered sufficient polymorphic patterns in one single reaction. It worked with reasonable amounts of DNA, suitable for forensic casework, and yielded reproducible results. It could be recommended for routine paternity analysis in complex deficiency cases or for a complement of autosomal and Y-STRs analysis.

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## ORIGINAL ARTICLE

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# The detection of HLA-B27 allele types by quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction with melting curve analysis

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**Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article.

## Abstract

Human leucocyte antigen B27 (HLA-B27) is a major histocompatibility complex class 1 molecule that is strongly associated with ankylosing spondylitis. The polymerase chain reaction with sequence specific primers (PCR-SSP) is currently used for the discrimination of HLA-B27 allele types resulting from single base substitutions. However, this technique is a multi-step, time-consuming task and increases the chance of post-PCR contamination. The main objective of this study is to determine the HLA-B27 genotypes using quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (Q-PCR) followed by melting curve analysis. Genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from 50 outdated peripheral blood samples stored at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in the Molecular Genetics Laboratory, Department of Pathology, Phramongkutklao College of Medicine, Bangkok, Thailand. These blood specimens were previously collected from 25 patients each who were HLA-B27 negative and positive in PCR-SSP. The genotyping of HLA-B27 was detected in the isolated gDNA by a Q-PCR assay with melting curve analysis. All HLA-B27-positive blood samples yielded either a single peak or double peaks at  $87.28 \pm 1.36\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Only one peak for an endogenous reference gene (human *beta-globin* gene) was detectable at  $84.90 \pm 0.09\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  in all HLA-B27-negative blood samples. The Q-PCR followed by melting curve analysis is reliable for the DNA typing of the HLA-B27 alleles and could be used to an alternative to a conventional PCR-SSP method.

**Keywords:** human leucocyte antigen B27; melting curve analysis; quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction



## Introduction

Ankylosing spondylitis (AS) is a form of arthritis that effects the spine<sup>(1)</sup>. It causes inflammation of the spinal joints that can lead to severe and chronic pain. Human leukocyte antigen B27 (HLA-B27) is associated with AS, including ocular diseases, rheumatic diseases and inflammatory bowel disease. Approximately 95% of patients with AS have HLA-B27 compared with only 8% of healthy individuals. Several methods have been developed for the identification of the HLA-B27 allele<sup>(1)</sup>, i.e. serology, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), including the standard PCR with sequence-specific primers (SSP). However, PCR is a time-consuming process and also requires post-PCR manual procedures<sup>(2)</sup>. Currently, the application of real-time PCR or quantitative PCR (qPCR) with a double-stranded DNA binding SYBR Green dye has facilitated the rapid detection and amplification of PCR products<sup>(3,4)</sup>. The aim of this study was to develop of the qPCR analysis for HLA-B27 allele test in routine work.

## Materials and Methods

### Samples:

Fifty outdated peripheral blood samples were enrolled in this study. They are comprised of 25 HLA-B27-negative and 25 HLA-B27-positive blood samples. All blood samples were kept at -20 °C until DNA isolation and analysis<sup>(5)</sup>. Genomic DNA was isolated from 500 µL of whole blood using the AxyPrep™ Blood Genomic DNA Miniprep Kit (CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

### Real-time PCR analysis:

The real-time PCR was performed on qTower<sup>3</sup>-Real-Time PCR thermocycler (Analytik Jena AG, Germany). A total volume of 12 µL of each mixture consisted of 5 µL of SYBR Green I (EXPRESS SYBR™ GreenER™ qPCR Supermix, universal; Invitrogen, USA); 4 µL of detection mix containing the primer E91S and 136AS specific for HLA-B27, primer BG1 and BG2 specific for β-globin<sup>(3)</sup>; 1 µL of distilled water; and 2 µL of DNA template. The real-time PCR amplification protocol for this reaction consisted of an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 5 sec, and 45 cycles of 95 °C for 4 sec, 68 °C for 1 min, 95 °C for 45 sec, 58 °C for 1 sec and final extension at 72 °C for 33 sec. After amplification was complete, a final melting curve analysis ( $T_m$ ) was followed by the generation of a thermal gradient from 60 °C to 95 °C with a ramp rate of 5 °C/s. HLA-B27 positive samples give a unique melting peak at  $87.28 \pm 1.36$  °C. Therefore, HLA-B27 negative samples showed a single temperature curve at  $84.90 \pm 0.09$  °C representing the β-globin<sup>(5,6)</sup>.

The results were confirmed on the agarose gel. The melting peak for  $\beta$ -globin showed 268 bp PCR product and the melting peaks for HLA-B27 alleles showed 136 bp PCR product representative of HLA-B27-positive samples<sup>(5)</sup>.

## Results

The results of real-time PCR showed that among 50 samples, 25 samples were HLA-B27-positive and 25 samples were HLA-B27-negative. All negative samples had only one peak at  $84.90 \pm 0.09$  °C (Figure 1A). All positive samples showed single or double peaks at  $87.28 \pm 1.36$  °C (Figure 1B). This signal was absent for the HLA-B27 negative samples. The melting peaks for  $\beta$ -globin ( $T_m = 84.90 \pm 0.09$  °C) and the 268 bp PCR product were visible on the agarose gel correlated with HLA-B27-negative samples (Figure 2A). The melting peaks for HLA-B27 ( $T_m = 87.28 \pm 1.36$  °C) and the 136 bp PCR product are visible on the agarose gel correlated with HLA-B27-positive samples (Figure 2B). Despite the lower fragment length, the HLA-B27 specific PCR product (136 bp) yielded a higher  $T_m$  value compared with the  $\beta$ -globin 268 bp product because of a higher GC content<sup>(5)</sup>.

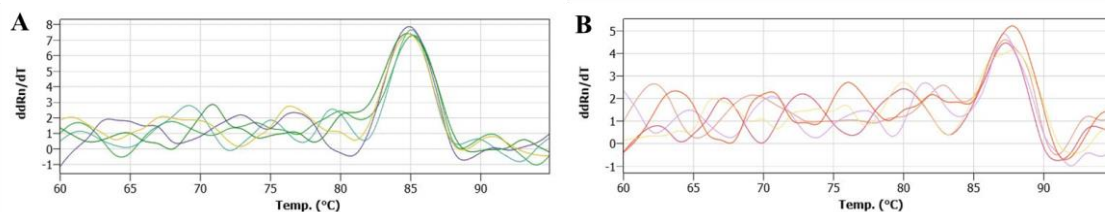
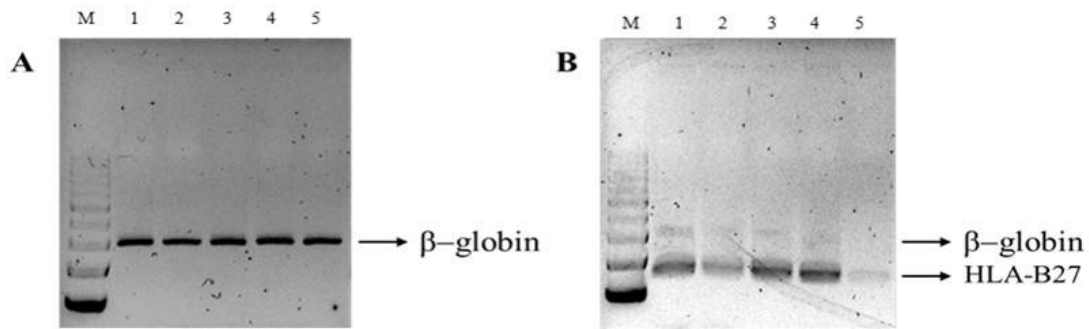


Figure 1 Melting curve analysis ( $T_m$ ) from HLA-B27 negative samples (A) and HLA-B27 positive samples (B). The  $T_m$  of negative samples at  $84.90 \pm 0.09$  °C results from the  $\beta$ -globin. The  $T_m$  of positive samples at  $87.28 \pm 1.36$  °C results from the HLA-B27.



**Figure 2** Gel electrophoresis on 2% agarose of PCR products from after real-time PCR. PCR products of HLA-B27 using E91S, 136AS primers and  $\beta$ -globin. The 268 bp PCR product specific for HLA-B27 negative samples (**A**). The 136 bp PCR product specific for HLA-B27 positive samples (**B**). Lane M, DNA ladder ranges from 100 to 1000 bp.

## Discussions

We compared the results of 50 genotyped individual with our previous original PCR method. All genotypes were completely concordant. However, conventional PCR requires post-PCR manipulations that increase the risk of cross-contamination between samples. These post-PCR steps are laborious, especially when large numbers of samples and cost-effective<sup>(6,7)</sup>. Thus, we are starting point for development of a real-time PCR. Real-time PCR is one of the methods used to detect for HLA-B27 allele in patients suspected to have AS and related diseases. Real-time PCR is much more accurate than PCR. Real-time PCR substantially reduced the labor-intensive steps and the total processing time when compared to the usual time required for PCR. It is therefore a suitable in routine laboratory practice<sup>(8)</sup>.

## Conclusion

The real-time PCR assay is possibly reliable for the detection of HLA-B27.

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The letters to the editor are the reactions to any papers published in AAP. These letters will be reviewed by the Editorial Board and sent to the authors of the original paper with an invitation to respond. Letters and eventual responses will be published together, when appropriate.

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The original articles are the researches describing the novel understanding of anatomical pathology, clinical pathology (laboratory medicine), forensic medicine (legal medicine or medical jurisprudence), molecular medicine or pathobiology. Systematic reviews, meta-analyses and clinical trials are classified as articles. The articles should be clearly and concisely written in the well-organised form (see **Organisation of Manuscripts**): abstract; introduction; materials and methods; results; discussion; and conclusions. The manuscripts that have passed an initial screening by the Editorial Board will be reviewed by two or more experts in the field.

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AAP limits publication of case reports to those that are truly novel, unexpected or unusual, provide new information about anatomical pathology, clinical pathology (laboratory medicine) or forensic medicine (legal medicine or medical jurisprudence). In addition, they must have educational value for the aforementioned fields. The journal will not consider case reports describing preventive or therapeutic interventions, as these generally require stronger evidence. Case reports that involve a substantial literature review should be submitted as a review article. The submitted case reports will undergo the usual peer-reviewed process.

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  2. Remington JS, Swartz MN. *Current Topics in Infectious Diseases*, Vol 21. Boston: Blackwell Science Publication, 2001.
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Announcements of academic meetings and conferences that are of interest to the readers of Asian Archives of Pathology (AAP) should be sent to the Editor-in-Chief at least 3 months before the first day of the month of issue. The contact information is shown below.

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