# Pathway analysis of genome-wide association study data highlights pancreatic development genes as susceptibility factors for pancreatic cancer

Donghui Li<sup>†,‡</sup>, Eric J.Duell<sup>1,†,‡</sup>, Kai Yu<sup>2,†,‡</sup>, Harvey A.Risch<sup>3,‡</sup>, Sara H.Olson<sup>4,‡</sup>, Charles Kooperberg<sup>5,‡</sup>, Brian M.Wolpin<sup>6,7,‡</sup>, Li Jiao<sup>8,‡</sup>, Xiaoqun Dong<sup>‡</sup>, Bill Wheeler<sup>9,‡</sup>, Alan A.Arslan<sup>10,11,12</sup>, H. Bas Bueno-de-Mesquita<sup>13,14</sup>, Charles S.Fuchs<sup>6,7</sup>, Steven Gallinger<sup>15</sup>, Myron Gross<sup>16</sup>, Patricia Hartge<sup>2</sup>, Robert N.Hoover<sup>2</sup>, Elizabeth A.Holly<sup>17</sup>, Eric J.Jacobs<sup>18</sup>, Alison P.Klein<sup>19,20</sup>, Andrea LaCroix<sup>5</sup>, Margaret T.Mandelson<sup>5,21</sup>, Gloria Petersen<sup>22</sup>, Wei Zheng<sup>23</sup>, Ilir Agalliu<sup>24</sup>, Demetrius Albanes<sup>2</sup>, Marie-Christine Boutron-Ruault<sup>25</sup>, Paige M.Bracci<sup>17</sup>, Julie E.Buring<sup>26,27</sup>, Federico Canzian<sup>28</sup>, Kenneth Chang<sup>29</sup>, Stephen J.Chanock<sup>2,30,31</sup>, Michelle Cotterchio<sup>32,33</sup>, J.Michael Gaziano<sup>34</sup>, Edward L.Giovannucci<sup>7,35,36</sup>, Michael Goggins<sup>37</sup>, Göran Hallmans<sup>38</sup>, Susan E.Hankinson<sup>7,35</sup>, Judith A.Hoffman Bolton<sup>39</sup>, David J.Hunter<sup>7,35</sup>, Amy Hutchinson<sup>2,31</sup>, Kevin B.Jacobs<sup>2,31,40</sup>, Mazda Jenab<sup>41</sup>, Kay-Tee Khaw<sup>42</sup>, Peter Kraft<sup>35,43</sup>, Vittorio Krogh<sup>44</sup>, Robert C.Kurtz<sup>45</sup>, Robert R.McWilliams<sup>46</sup>, Julie B.Mendelsohn<sup>2</sup>, Alpa V.Patel<sup>18</sup>, Kari G.Rabe<sup>22</sup>, Elio Riboli<sup>47</sup>, Xiao-Ou Shu<sup>23</sup>, Anne Tjønneland<sup>48</sup>, Geoffrey S.Tobias<sup>2</sup>, Dimitrios Trichopoulos<sup>35,49</sup>, Jarmo Virtamo<sup>50</sup>, Kala Visvanathan<sup>37</sup>, Joanne Watters<sup>51</sup>, Herbert Yu<sup>3</sup>, Anne Zeleniuch-Jacquotte<sup>11,12</sup>, Laufey Amundadottir<sup>2,30,‡,§</sup>

Department of Gastrointestinal Medical Oncology, The University of Texas M. D. Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX, USA, <sup>1</sup>Catalan Institute of Oncology (ICO-IDIBELL), Barcelona, Spain, <sup>2</sup>Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services, Bethesda, MD, USA, <sup>3</sup>Yale University School of Public Health, New Haven, CT, USA, <sup>4</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY, USA, <sup>5</sup>Division of Public Health Sciences, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA, USA, <sup>6</sup>Department of Medical Oncology, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, MA, USA, 'Channing Laboratory, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA, 8Department of Medicine, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX, USA, 9Information Management Services, Silver Spring, MD, USA, <sup>10</sup>Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA, <sup>11</sup>Department of Environmental Medicine, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA, <sup>12</sup>New York University Cancer Institute, New (RIVM), Bilthoven, The Netherlands, <sup>14</sup>Department of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, University Medical Center Utrecht, Utrecht, The Netherlands, Samuel Lunenfeld Research Institute, Mount Sinai Hospital, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada, <sup>16</sup>Department of Laboratory Medicine/Pathology, School of Medicine, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN, USA, <sup>17</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA, <sup>18</sup>Epidemiology Research Program, American Cancer Society, Atlanta, GA, USA, <sup>19</sup>Department of Oncology, The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA, <sup>20</sup>Department of Epidemiology, The Bloomberg School of Public Health, The Sol Goldman Pancreatic Research Center, The Johns Hopkins Medical Institutions, Baltimore, MD, USA, <sup>21</sup>Group Health Center for Health Studies, Seattle, WA, USA, <sup>22</sup>Department of Health Sciences Research, Mayo Clinic,

**Abbreviations:** ARTP, adaptive rank truncated product; GWAS, genome-wide association study; SNP, single-nucleotide polymorphism; TGF, transforming growth factor.

<sup>†</sup>Co-first authors. <sup>‡</sup>Writing committee member. <sup>§</sup>Co-senior authors.

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Rochester, MN, USA, <sup>23</sup>Division of Epidemiology, Department of Medicine, Vanderbilt Epidemiology Center, and Vanderbilt-Ingram Cancer Center, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN, USA, <sup>24</sup>Department of Epidemiology and Population Health, Albert Einstein College of Medicine, Bronx, NY, USA, <sup>25</sup>Inserm, Paris-Sud University, Institut Gustave-Roussy, Villejuif, France, <sup>26</sup>Department of Ambulatory Care and Prevention, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA, <sup>27</sup>Divisions of Preventive Medicine and Aging, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA, <sup>28</sup>Division of Cancer Epidemiology, German Cancer Research Center (DKFZ), Heidelberg, Germany, <sup>29</sup>Comprehensive Digestive Disease Center, University of California, Irvine Medical Center, Orange, CA, USA, <sup>30</sup>Laboratory of Translational Genomics, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services, Bethesda, MD, USA, <sup>31</sup>Core Genotyping Facility, Advanced Technology <sup>2</sup>Dalla Program, SAIC-Frederick Inc., NCI-Frederick, Frederick, MD, USA, Lana School of Public Health, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, <sup>33</sup>Prevention and Cancer Control, Cancer Care Ontario, Toronto, Ontario, Canada, <sup>34</sup>Physicians' Health Study, Divisions of Aging, Cardiovascular Medicine, and Preventive Medicine, Department of Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital and Harvard Medical School, and Massachusetts Veterans Epidemiology Research and Information Center, Veterans Affairs Boston Healthcare System, Boston, MA, USA, <sup>35</sup>Department of Epidemiology, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA, <sup>36</sup>Department of Nutrition, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA, <sup>37</sup>Departments of Oncology, Pathology and Medicine, The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, USA, <sup>38</sup>Department of Public Health and Clinical Medicine, Nutritional Research, Umeå University, Umeå, Sweden, <sup>39</sup>Department of Epidemiology, The Bloomberg School of Public Health, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA, <sup>40</sup>Bioinformed Consulting Services, Gaithersburg, MD, USA, <sup>41</sup>International Agency for Research on Cancer (IARC/WHO), Lyon, France, <sup>42</sup>Department of Public Health and Primary Care, Clinical Gerontology, Addenbrooke's Hospital, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK, <sup>43</sup>Department of Biostatistics, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA, <sup>44</sup>Nutritional Epidemiology Unit, Fondazione IRCCS Istituto Nazionale dei Tumori, Milan, Italy, <sup>45</sup>Department of Medicine, Memorial Sloan-Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY, USA, <sup>46</sup>Division of Medical Oncology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA, <sup>47</sup>Division of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, School of Public Health, Imperial College London, London, UK, 48Institute of Cancer Epidemiology, Danish Cancer Society, Copenhagen, Denmark, <sup>9</sup>Bureau of Epidemiologic Research, Academy of Athens, Athens, Greece, <sup>50</sup>Department of Chronic Disease Prevention, National Institute for Health and Welfare, Helsinki, Finland and <sup>51</sup>Division of Cancer Prevention and Population Control, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Department of Health and Human Services, Bethesda, MD, USA

\*To whom correspondence should be addressed. Rachael Stolzenberg-Solomon, Nutritional Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, 6120 Executive Boulevard, Room 3022, Rockville, MD 20852-7232, USA. Tel: +1 301 594 2939; Fax: +1 301 496 6829; Email: rs221z@nih.gov. Correspondence may also be addressed to Laufey Amundadottir.

Tel: +1 301 594 8131; Fax: +1 301 402 3134; Email: amundadottirl@mail.nih.gov

Four loci have been associated with pancreatic cancer through genome-wide association studies (GWAS). Pathway-based analysis of GWAS data is a complementary approach to identify groups of genes or biological pathways enriched with disease-associated single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) whose individual effect sizes may be too small to be detected by standard single-locus methods. We used the adaptive rank truncated product method in a pathway-based analysis of GWAS data from 3851 pancreatic cancer cases and 3934 control participants pooled from 12 cohort studies and 8 case–control studies (PanScan). We compiled 23 biological pathways hypothesized to be relevant to pancreatic cancer and observed a nominal association between pancreatic cancer and five pathways (P < 0.05), i.e. pancreatic development, Helicobacter pylori lacto/neolacto, hedgehog, Th1/Th2 immune response and apoptosis ( $P = 2.0 \times 10^{-6}$ ,  $1.6 \times 10^{-5}$ , 0.0019, 0.019 and 0.023, respectively). After excluding previously identified genes from the original GWAS in three pathways (*NR5A2*, *ABO* and *SHH*), the pancreatic development pathway remained significant ( $P = 8.3 \times 10^{-5}$ ), whereas the others did not. The most significant genes (P < 0.01) in the five pathways were *NR5A2*, *HNF1A*, *HNF4G* and *PDX1* for pancreatic development; *ABO* for *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto; *SHH* for hedgehog; *TGFBR2* and *CCL18* for Th1/Th2 immune response and *MAPK8* and *BCL2L111* for apoptosis. Our results provide a link between inherited variation in genes important for pancreatic development and cancer and show that pathway-based approaches to analysis of GWAS data can yield important insights into the collective role of genetic risk variants in cancer.

# Introduction

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have become the standard for investigating the association between common inherited genetic variants across the genome and risk of complex diseases such as cancer. Two GWAS (PanScan 1 and PanScan 2) recently identified four susceptibility loci for pancreatic cancer at chromosomes: 9q34.2, 13q22.1, 1q32.1 and 5p15.33 (1,2). Despite these important findings, the statistical tests applied in GWAS are typically restricted to single markers; furthermore, some markers and genes may be missed because of the stringent statistical threshold necessary to minimize false-positive findings (genome-wide significance) (3,4). Pathway-based analysis of GWAS data is a complementary approach for identifying groups of genes or biological pathways enriched with disease-associated singlenucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) whose individual effect sizes may be too small to be detected by standard single-locus methods.

The idea for pathway-based approaches stems from two concepts: (i) that a functional pathway represents a series of biochemical actions leading to an end point or cellular function such as an activated or inactivated enzyme or metabolite, an enhanced or repressed signaling cascade, a repaired DNA strand or a coordinated immune response and (ii) that small changes due to variation in the expression of genes involved in a functional pathway may lead to an outcome such as cancer (5).

We performed a comprehensive pathway-based analysis of the combined dataset of two pancreatic cancer GWAS, PanScan 1 and PanScan 2, using an adaptive combination of *P*-values in the adaptive rank truncated product (ARTP) method (6). Twenty-three biological pathways and groups of genes known or hypothesized from the literature to be important in pancreatic tumorigenesis were selected, including pancreas development, DNA repair, apoptosis, cell cycle signaling, immune function and inflammatory pathways, insulin resistance, PI3 kinase, Wnt, Notch, hedgehog and transforming growth factor (TGF)- $\beta$  signaling. We confirmed the major results from the ARTP analysis with a logic regression analysis (7,8).

# Materials and methods

# Study population

The study population included 3851 pancreatic cancer cases and 3934 control participants from the previously conducted GWAS in the Pancreatic Cancer Cohort Consortium and the Pancreatic Cancer Case Control Consortium (PanC4) (1,2). Briefly, this collaborative project included 1528 incident cases and 1594 controls from nested case–control studies of 12 cohort studies and 2323 cases and 2340 controls from 8 case–control studies (1,2). Cases were defined as participants diagnosed with primary adenocarcinoma of the exocrine pancreas; controls were matched to cases according to birth year, sex and self-reported race/ethnicity and were free of pancreatic cancer at the time of recruitment (1,2). Genotyping Was performed by the National Cancer Institute's Core Genotyping Facility using the Illumina Human 610-Quad arrays

(PanScan 2) (1,2). PanScan 1 and PanScan 2 were approved by the Institutional Review Board of each participating institution and National Cancer Institute's Special Studies Institutional Review Board (1,2).

## Pathway selection

Pathways were chosen on the basis of our current understanding of the etiology and molecular mechanisms of pancreatic cancer with the aim of constructing concise core pathways known to be important for pancreatic biology; 23 pathways or groups of genes were compiled (Table I) based on literature searches and online resources accessed between 2008 and 2010 (e.g. http://www. http://sciencepark.mdanderson.org/labs/wood/DNA\_Repair SNPs3D org: Genes.html and http://www.genome.jp/kegg/pathway.html). These included pathways related to pancreatic organ development and differentiation, DNA repair, apoptosis, cell cycle regulation, immune response, Helicobacter pylori infection, inflammation, insulin resistance, PI3 kinase, Wnt, Notch, hedgehog and TGF-B signaling pathways. For example, the DNA repair pathway, including subpathways, were included in this analysis based upon results from previous candidate gene association studies (9-11). Diabetes mellitus (12,13), glucose intolerance (12,14,15) and chronic pancreatitis also appear to predispose individuals to pancreatic cancer (16). Allergies have been associated with reduced risk of pancreatic cancer in several studies (17) but little is known about the genetic basis of this association. Two pathways related to allergies were considered for this study: one including genes related to the balance between T-helper 1 and T-helper 2 cells (Th1/Th2) and the other including genes related to serum IgE levels (18). The pancreas develops from the endodermal epithelium of the foregut of the vertebrate embryo. A series of transcriptional regulators govern the development and cell type differentiation of the gland. We compiled a list of transcriptional regulators important for early pancreatic development by reviews of the literature and by searching GO and KEGG terms (19-22) Predisposing genetic factors for pancreatic cancer remain poorly understood; however, genetic variation in genes that influence the above risk factors are viable candidate genes for interrogation. The total number of genes was 577 (of which 4 were included in 3 pathways and 30 in 2 pathways).

#### Statistical analysis

SNP association analysis was conducted with use of the logistic regression model using a boundary for each gene beginning 20 kb upstream of the transcriptional start site and ending 10 kb downstream of the transcriptional end site of the gene (including exons, introns and untranslated regions). This model was fit for genotype trend effects (1 d.f.) adjusted for study, age, sex, self-described ancestry and 10 principal components for the population

Table I. Association of pathways with risk of pancreatic cancer						
Pathway	No. of genes	No. of SNPs	P-value			
Pancreas development	22	271	$2.0 \times 10^{-6}$			
Helicobacter pylori	18	292	$1.6 \times 10^{-5}$			
lacto/neolacto						
Hedgehog	31	588	0.0019			
Th1/Th2 immune response	32	448	0.019			
Apoptosis	42	665	0.023			
Nucleotide excision repair	25	285	0.078			
Cell cycle	43	424	0.080			
DNA polymerase	13	126	0.093			
Notch	25	487	0.12			
TGF-β	40	954	0.13			
PI3 kinase	43	798	0.21			
Homologous recombination repair	22	366	0.24			
Mismatch repair	10	142	0.26			
DNA damage response	16	198	0.27			
<i>H.pylori</i> protein metabolism	20	188	0.30			
Insulin resistance	23	537	0.35			
IgE	18	214	0.41			
Wnt	23	414	0.49			
H.pylori extracellular	9	289	0.49			
<i>H.pylori</i> cytokine signaling	27	302	0.53			
Base excision repair	17	171	0.61			
Glycation	45	542	0.80			
H.pylori other/unclassified	51	495	0.94			

Results from the ARTP pathway analysis. The analysis was adjusted for age in 10 years categories, sex, study arm and 10 principal components of population stratification. stratification adjustment, which included the top 5 principal components identified in the cohort studies and the top 5 principal components identified in the case–control studies (1,2). *P*-values for individual SNPs were based on the 1 d.f. Wald test derived from the fitted logistic regression model.

First, we conducted a gene-based analysis to evaluate the association between a candidate gene/region and cancer risk. The test statistic used was the minP statistic, which was the minimum P-value among all P-values from the single SNP analysis conducted within the candidate gene. The P-value for the gene-based analysis (called gene P-value) can be evaluated through a bootstrap procedure. Second, we conducted the pathway analysis to evaluate the association between a set of candidate genes included in a pathway and cancer risk. The pathway analysis was based on the ARTP method (6) and was implemented in the R package ARTP (http://dceg.cancer.gov/bb/tools/artp). The ARTP method aims at maximizing the association signal by combining gene-level P-values from a set of selected genes within the pathway into the test statistic and uses a bootstrap procedure to estimate its P-value and has been shown to account properly for the type I error (6). The bootstrap procedure is used for the purpose of generating datasets under the null hypothesis while keeping the correlation among SNPs the same as that in the observed dataset. The P-value for both the gene-based and pathway analyses was initially estimated by 30 000 parametric bootstrap steps. We re-evaluated P-values for genes or pathways that had initially estimated P-values of <0.05 using 1 000 000 bootstrap steps.

As a complementary approach to the ARTP method, we used a logic regression model (7,8) to reanalyze several promising pathways identified by the ARTP method to determine whether those pathways were enriched with interactions. The ARTP method looks for marginal effects from individual SNPs but does not aim at detecting epistatic interactions among SNPs. In contrast, logic regression is an adaptive regression methodology that attempts to identify 'logic' (binary) combinations of predictors that are associated with a regression outcome. Each SNP is recoded as two binary predictors: one is based on whether at least one variant allele is present ('dominant coding') and the other is based on whether two variant alleles are present ('recessive coding'). We fit models using a simulated annealing algorithm. Model selection was conducted using cross-validation and permutation tests. A Bayesian approach to model selection was used to generate a list of possible candidates of predictors.

#### Results

Of the 23 pathways analyzed (Table I), the most statistically significant association was seen for the pancreatic developmental pathway ( $P = 2.0 \times 10^{-6}$ ) and the *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto pathway ( $P = 1.6 \times 10^{-5}$ ). Three additional pathways were nominally significant: hedgehog signaling (P = 0.0019), Th1/Th2 immune response (P = 0.019) and apoptosis (P = 0.023). The top three pathways (pancreatic development, *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto and hedgehog) were significant after Bonferroni correction for the 23 pathways tested (P < 0.002). However, after excluding genes (i.e. removing all SNPs within the gene) previously identified by the initial GWAS (*NR5A2* from the pancreatic development pathway, *ABO* from the *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto and *SHH* from the hedgehog pathway), the pancreatic development pathway remained significant ( $P = 8.3 \times 10^{-5}$ ), whereas the other two pathways became nonsignificant (P > 0.05).

We also computed gene-level *P*-values for the 577 genes included in the study; 46 genes had *P*-values of <0.05 (Table II). The major genes contributing to the significant pathways include *NR5A2*, *HNF1A*, *HNF4G*, *PDX1* and *HNF1B* for pancreatic development; *ABO* for *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto; *SHH*, *BTRC* and *HHIP* for hedgehog; *TGFBR2*, *CCL18* and *IL13RA2* for Th1/Th2 immune response and *MAPK8*, *BCL2L11*, *FAS*, *FASLG* and *CASP7* for the apoptosis pathway. For the other pathways analyzed, zero to four genes were nominally significant (P < 0.05) (Table II).

Individual SNPs that were significant at the P < 0.001 level for the five significant pathways are listed in Table III. The pancreatic development pathway showed 15 SNPs: 6 located in the *NR5A2* gene, 5 in *HNF1A*, 3 in *HNF4G* and 1 in *HNF1B*. Five SNPs in the *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto pathway were significant; however, they were all located within the *ABO* gene previously identified in the GWAS (1,2). Two SNPs in the hedgehog signaling pathway were significant at this level, located approximately 10–15 kb upstream of the *SHH* gene; again, both were identified in PanScan 1, but the association was not replicated in PanScan 2 (1,2). Two SNPs in the *TGFBR2* gene

within the Th1/Th2 immune response pathway were significant at a threshold of P < 0.001; these SNPs were also included in the TGF- $\beta$  pathway that was not significant overall. Finally, three SNPs in the apoptosis pathway were significant at the same *P*-value level: one in *MAPK8* and two in *BCL2L11*.

We also observed a significant association between the pancreatic development pathway and cancer risk using logic regression analysis. The SNPs that occurred most frequently in the models were rs2816939, rs3762399, rs2737621 (*NR5A2*), rs7310409, rs7953249 (*HNF1A*), rs2943547 (*HNF4G*) and rs2688 (*HNF1B*). The results of the Bayesian version of logic regression were compared 1000 times with a permuted response. The fit on the permuted data was always worse than the fit on the real data, thus providing strong evidence of an association between the pancreatic development pathway and pancreatic cancer. For the Th1/Th2 immune response pathway and apoptosis genes, logic regression also provided some evidence of associations with pancreatic cancer (data not shown).

## Discussion

Our pathway-based analysis of GWAS data has shown that common germ line variation in pancreatic developmental genes may be important susceptibility factors for pancreatic cancer. The genes that contributed to this significant association include *NR5A2*, *HNF1A*, *HNF4G*, *PDX1* and *HNF1B*. This association remains significant even after removing variants in the *NR5A2* gene shown previously to be associated with pancreatic cancer risk (P < 0.001). Four additional pathways showed nominally significant association with risk of pancreatic cancer (P < 0.05), i.e. *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto, hedgehog signaling, apoptosis and Th1/Th2 immune response, although genes previously implicated in pancreatic cancer risk may drive the association for the hedgehog (*SHH*) and *H.pylori* lacto/neolacto (*ABO*) pathways.

The five genes that contributed to the significant association with the pancreatic development pathway are important components of the transcriptional networks governing embryonic pancreatic development and differentiation as well as maintaining pancreatic homeostasis in adults (23,24). PDX1 (pancreas-duodenal homeobox 1) regulates the very early steps of exocrine pancreas development (25). NR5A2 is a direct downstream target of PDX1 in this process (26). HNF1A and HNF1B encode hepatocyte nuclear factor 1 alpha and beta, also known as transcription factors 1 and 2 (TCF1 and TCF2), respectively. These proteins belong to the homeobox family of DNA-binding proteins and regulate expression of a large number of genes. HNF1A primarily regulates the growth and function of islet  $\beta$  cells, and *HNF1B* plays an essential role in controlling pancreatic organogenesis and differentiation (23). Consistent with our observations, HNF1A was identified as the top hit for pancreatic cancer in a separate analysis of PanScan data by assessing markers previously identified in GWAS of phenotypes other than pancreatic cancer (27). Heterozygous compound knockout mouse models have shown that PDX1, NR5A2, HNF1A and HNF1B act in a tightly regulated feedback circuit in regulating pancreas development and differentiation (26,28). Therefore, even subtle differences in the relative activity of any of these genes may have profound consequences on overall network activity. Notably, the hedgehog signaling pathway, in particular the SHH gene, also plays an essential role during embryonic pancreatic development (29). Genes involved in organ development and differentiation contribute to the ability of tumor cells to proliferate and evade cell death, but they also often alter cell plasticity, i.e. reprogram cells to a state that may give rise to a tumor (29).

Mutations in *HNF1A*, *PDX1* and *HNF1B* are responsible for maturity onset diabetes of the young (MODY) types 3, 4 and 5, respectively (30,31). Both mutations and common variants in *HNF1A* and *HNF1B* have been associated with the risk of type II diabetes (32–34). Common variants in *NR5A2*, *HNF1B* and *HNF4G* (35) also have been associated with body mass index in recent GWAS. A recent study has reported a critical role of *NR5A2* in phosphatidylcholine signaling pathway regulating fatty acid and glucose homeostasis (36). Because

Pathway	Gene	No. of SNPs	<i>P</i> -value	Most significant SNP		
Pancreas development	NR5A2 HNF1A HNF4G PDX1 HNF1B	58 15 16 8 29	$\begin{array}{c} 1.0 \times 10^{-6} \\ 0.00014 \\ 0.00048 \\ 0.0079 \\ 0.019 \end{array}$	rs3790844 rs7310409 rs1805100 rs9554197 rs4794758		
Helicobacter pylori lacto/neolacto Hedgehog	ABO SHH BTRC HHIP	20 13 19 16	$\begin{array}{c} 1.0 \times 10^{-6} \\ 2.5 \times 10^{-5} \\ 0.016 \\ 0.038 \end{array}$	rs505922 rs167020 rs11191017 rs17721701		
Th1/Th2 immune response	TGFBR2 CCL18 IL13RA2	43 8 5	0.00062 0.0063 0.020	rs2043136 rs1719220 rs638376 rs1062225 rs13396983 rs4406737 rs2021840 rs7906704		
Apoptosis	MAPK8 BCL2L11 FAS FASLG CASP7	7 14 22 8 19	0.0033 0.0057 0.016 0.038 0.041			
Nucleotide excision repair	RPA1	23	0.0086	rs2287321		
	GTF2H3	7	0.014	rs11572966		
	LIG1	16	0.033	rs3730913		
	CDK7	6	0.049	rs12651858		
Cell cycle	TFDP1	15	0.0013	rs6577059		
	SKP1	7	0.013	rs4958217		
	CDK7	6	0.049	rs12651858		
	GADD45A	12	0.049	rs647008		
DNA polymerase	POLG	10	0.0092	rs976072		
	POLL	6	0.017	rs3730477		
Notch	MAML1	5	0.0025	rs7734102		
	RBBP8	10	0.044	rs7234479		
TGF-β	TGFBR2	43	0.0006	rs2043136		
	SMAD1	14	0.043	rs7698944		
PI3 kinase	PDPK1	1	0.0049	rs13336495		
	AKT3	29	0.015	rs2125231		
Homologous recombination repair	RAD52	17	0.0068	rs1051669		
	RBBP8	10	0.044	rs7234479		
Mismatch repair	PMS2	9	0.036	rs2228006		
	MLH3	2	0.039	rs175057		
DNA damage response <i>H.pylori</i> protein metabolism Insulin resistance	FANCI GGCT RETN INSR	15 11 2 57	0.011 0.020 0.020 0.029	rs976072 rs38410 rs1423096 rs2042902		
IgE	IL13RA2	5	0.019	rs638376		
Wnt	AXIN1	24	0.042	rs12719801		
<i>H.pylori</i> -cytokine signaling	NOD1	16	0.024	rs2529445		
Base excision repair	MBD4	7	0.036	rs140693		
Glycation	APP	71	0.041	rs375369		

Table II.	Genes associated	with risk of	pancreatic cancer	at a	Ρ	<	0.	.0	4
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No significant genes were observed in the H.pylori extracellular and H.pylori other/unclassified pathways.

obesity and long-term type II diabetes are known risk factors for pancreatic cancer, it is possible that these genes may contribute to pancreatic cancer, partially through an increased risk of obesity and diabetes.

In addition to their roles in regulating the development and function of the pancreas, HNF1A and HNF1B also control terminal differentiation and cell fate commitment in the gut epithelium (37,38). Somatic mutations of the HNF1A gene have been reported in several types of human cancer, suggesting a tumor suppressor role (39-41). HNF1A silencing by small interfering RNA in hepatocellular carcinoma cells induces overexpression of several genes encoding growth factor receptors, components of the translational machinery, cell cycle and angiogenesis regulators, with, in particular, activation of the mammalian target of rapamycin pathway (42). Moreover, HNF1A has been recognized as a master regulator of plasma protein fucosylation (43) and plasma levels of C-reactive protein (44,45). This suggests that HNF1A may also contribute to pancreatic cancer via regulation of immunity, tumor progression and metastasis as well as through metabolic and inflammatory pathways. Overall, the pancreatic development pathway may have an impact on pancreatic cancer risk through multiple diversified mechanisms.

We also observed weaker associations of the Th1/Th2 immune response and apoptosis genes with pancreatic cancer. Genes in the Th1/ Th2 pathway influence the balance of T-helper cells; individuals with

Table III.	Highly significant	SNPs ( $P < 0.001$ )	in pathways that are	e associated with	pancreatic cancer
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Pathway	Marker <sup>a</sup>	Chr <sup>b</sup>	Gene <sup>c</sup>	Alleles <sup>d</sup>	MAF <sup>e</sup>	<i>P</i> -value <sup>f</sup>	Allelic OR (95% CI
		0	Come	1 1110105		i vulue	
Pancreas development	rs3790844 <sup>g</sup>	1q32.1	NR5A2	T,C	0.259/0.214	$1.3 \times 10^{-10}$	0.77 (0.72-0.84)
	rs3790843 <sup>g</sup>	1q32.1	NR5A2	G,A	0.317/0.273	$5.0 \times 10^{-9}$	0.81 (0.75-0.87)
	rs2821367	1q32.1	NR5A2	T,C	0.325/0.366	$1.6 \times 10^{-6}$	1.18 (1.10–1.27)
	rs2816939	1q32.1	NR5A2	T,C	0.142/0.167	$2.0 \times 10^{-5}$	1.22 (1.11-1.33)
	rs2821347	1q32.1	NR5A2	G,A	0.142/0.166	$2.5 \times 10^{-5}$	1.21 (1.11-1.33)
	rs2737621	1q32.1	NR5A2	T,C	0.122/0.144	$6.3 \times 10^{-5}$	1.22 (1.11-1.34)
	rs7310409	12q24.31	HNF1A	G,A	0.387/0.423	$1.0 \times 10^{-5}$	1.16 (1.09–1.24)
	rs2464196	12q24.31	HNF1A	C,T	0.302/0.331	$6.3 \times 10^{-5}$	1.15 (1.07-1.24)
	rs1169300	12q24.31	HNF1A	G,A	0.302/0.331	$7.9 \times 10^{-5}$	1.15 (1.07-1.23)
	rs735396	12q24.31	HNF1A	A,G	0.358/0.386	$1.0 \times 10^{-4}$	1.14 (1.07-1.22)
	rs7953249	12q24.31	HNF1A	A,G	0.428/0.456	0.00023	1.13 (1.06–1.21)
	rs1805100	8q21.11	HNF4G	G,A	0.472/0.506	$3.2 \times 10^{-5}$	1.15 (1.08–1.23)
	rs2977926	8q21.11	HNF4G	T,G	0.421/0.390	0.00034	0.88 (0.82-0.94)
	rs2943547	8q21.11	HNF4G	G,A	0.470/0.440	0.00062	0.89 (0.84-0.95)
	rs4794758	17q12	HNF1B	C,T	0.266/0.244	0.00073	0.88 (0.82-0.95)
Helicobacter pylori lacto/neolacto	rs505922 <sup>g</sup>	9q34.2	ABO	T,C	0.350/0.395	$2.0 \times 10^{-8}$	1.21 (1.13-1.30)
	rs657152 <sup>g</sup>	9q34.2	ABO	G,T	0.375/0.417	$2.5 \times 10^{-7}$	1.19 (1.12–1.27)
	rs630014 <sup>g</sup>	9q34.2	ABO	C.T	0.475/0.436	$1.3 \times 10^{-6}$	0.85 (0.80-0.91)
	rs2073828	9q34.2	ABO	G,A	0.414/0.370	$1.6 \times 10^{-6}$	0.85 (0.79-0.91)
	rs495828	9q34.2	ABO	G,T	0.211/0.238	$6.3 \times 10^{-5}$	1.18 (1.09–1.28)
Hedgehog	rs167020 <sup>g</sup>	7q36.3	SHH	G,A	0.258/0.292	$2.5 \times 10^{-6}$	1.19 (1.11–1.28)
0 0	rs172310 <sup>g</sup>	7q36.3	SHH	C.A	0.279/0.314	$3.2 \times 10^{-6}$	1.19 (1.10–1.27)
Th1/Th2 immune response	rs2043136	3p24.1	TGFBR2	T.C	0.239/0.266	$1.6 \times 10^{-5}$	1.18 (1.09–1.27)
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	rs3773650	3p24.1	TGFBR2	C.A	0.182/0.205	$7.9 \times 10^{-5}$	1.18 (1.09-1.28)
Apoptosis	rs1062225	10q11.22	MAPK8	A,G	0.129/0.111	0.00063	0.84 (0.76-0.93)
1 1	rs13396983	2q13	BCL2L11	G,A	0.456/0.484	0.00068	1.12 (1.05-1.20)
	rs2015454	2q13	BCL2L11	C,T	0.451/0.477	0.00070	1.12 (1.05–1.20)

The analysis was adjusted for age in 10 years categories, sex, study, arm, ancestry and five principal components of population stratification. CI, confidence interval; OR, odds ratio.

<sup>a</sup>NCBI dbSNP identifier.

<sup>b</sup>Chromosome.

<sup>c</sup>Gene name.

<sup>d</sup>Major allele, minor allele.

<sup>e</sup>Minor allele frequency in control and case participants.

<sup>f</sup>1 d.f. Wald test.

<sup>g</sup>Denotes SNPs reported in the PanScan 1 and 2 GWAS (1,2).

allergies, who are at lower risk of pancreatic cancer, have heightened Th2 (T-helper type 2) response. TGFBR2 and CCL18 contribute to the significance of the Th1/Th2 pathway. Although T-helper cells are mostly implicated in diseases associated with immune responses, such as allergy, asthma and infections, they may also play a role in immune surveillance of tumor cells (46). On the other hand, TGF- $\beta$  is one of the core signaling pathways involved in pancreatic cancer (47), and the TGFBR2 gene is mutated in 4% of pancreatic cancer cases (48). Chemokines such as CCL18 have been implicated in biological processes involving tumor growth including leukocyte migration, angiogenesis and metastasis (49); CCL18 is associated with some allergic conditions and is induced by Th2 cytokines. However, the role of CCL18 in pancreatic carcinogenesis is unknown. Defective apoptosis represents a contributory feature in the development and progression of cancer. Among the 42 apoptosis-related genes analyzed, MAPK8 and BCL2L11 were the most notable. Mitogen-activated protein kinases are involved in cell proliferation, differentiation, apoptosis, transcription regulation and development. MAPK8 (aka JNK1 or SAPK1) is a serine-threonine kinase that belongs to the stress-activated signaling cascade and has been shown to play a role in obesity and insulin resistance (50). BCL2L11 is a member of the BCL2 family and plays a role in neuronal and lymphocyte apoptosis.

In summary, our pathway-based association analysis of pancreatic cancer GWAS data has revealed a connection between pancreatic development and cancer risk by using sets of genes previously known to be important for pancreatic cancer through various processes and molecular functions. We use an ARTP method as our primary approach and confirmed the results for the developmental pathway with another approach, logic regression. Our selection of pathways incorporated databases (such as KEGG and GO), however, was narrowed to include only those genes central to each pathway, based on the literature. A more agnostic wider pathway based analysis might elucidate new pathways beyond that which is known. Our study is the largest to date to examine candidate pathways and genes associated with pancreatic cancer. A limitation to our study is that in order to maximize power, all available case–control pairs were used for the analysis. Replication efforts in independent studies are therefore needed to confirm our findings. These findings may open new research avenues in our understanding of the etiology of this deadly malignancy.

## Supplementary material

Supplementary Table 1 can be found at http://carcin.oxfordjournals. org/.

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