Molecular signatures for inflammation vary across cancer types and correlate

2 <u>significantly with tumor stage, gender and vital status of patients</u>

- 4 Alexandra R. So¹, Jeong Min Si¹, David Lopez^{1,2}, Matteo Pellegrini¹
- 6 1. Department of Molecular, Cell, and Developmental Biology
- 7 University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90095, USA
- 8 2. Gilead Pharmaceuticals, Foster City, California 94404, USA
- 11 Alexandra So: <u>lexidragon.so@gmail.com</u>
- 12 Jeong Min Si: jsi18@choate.edu

1

3

5

9

10

15

- 13 David Lopez: davidlopez@ucla.edu
- 14 Matteo Pellegrini: matteop@mcdb.ucla.edu

Abstract

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

Cancer affects millions of individuals worldwide. One shortcoming of traditional cancer classification systems is that, even for tumors affecting a single organ, there is significant molecular heterogeneity. Precise molecular classification of tumors could be beneficial in personalizing patients' therapy and predicting prognosis. To this end, here we propose to use molecular signatures to further refine cancer classification. Molecular signatures are collections of genes characterizing particular cell types, tissues or disease. Signatures can be used to interpret expression profiles from heterogeneous samples. Large collections of gene signatures have previously been cataloged in the MSigDB database. We have developed a web-based Signature Visualization Tool (SaVanT) to display signature scores in user-generated expression data. Here we have undertaken a systematic analysis of correlations between inflammatory signatures and cancer samples, to test whether inflammation can differentiate cancer types. Inflammatory response signatures were obtained from MsigDB and SaVanT and a signature score was computed for samples associated with 7 different cancer types. We first identified types of cancers that had high inflammation levels as measured by these signatures. The correlation between signature scores and metadata of these patients (gender, age at initial cancer diagnosis, cancer stage, and vital status) was then computed. We sought to evaluate correlations between inflammation with other clinical parameters and identified four cancer types that had statistically significant association (p-value < 0.05) with at least one clinical characteristic: pancreas adenocarcinoma (PAAD), cholangiocarcinoma (CHOL), kidney chromophobe (KICH), and uveal melanoma (UVM). These results may allow future

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

studies to use these approaches to further refine cancer subtyping and ultimately treatment. Introduction Cancer is a major public health problem with high mortality rates in the United States and worldwide and poses an enormous burden to individuals and society. Over 1.7 million newly diagnosed cancer cases and over 600,000 cancer deaths were estimated in the United States in 2018 (1). Screening for some cancers can lead to early detection (mammography for breast cancer and colonoscopy for colon cancer, for example), when local resection or definitive treatment may still be feasible (2). However, many cancers are found when there is already local invasion or even distant metastatic disease. In those cases, common treatment options include chemotherapy, locoregional therapies and radiation treatment (3). Among the issues complicating treatment options are the fact that there are many tumor types, whose response to therapy may differ depending on site of origin and cellular composition (4). Furthermore, even within the same organ, there are heterogeneous tumor types with different responses to therapies. As a result, precise tumor classification is crucial; depending on the categorization of a tumor, the clinical course, prognosis, and treatment can vary dramatically (5). In general, there are two ways to classify cancer: the traditional histology-based method and molecular methods. The traditional method is based on observing the site of origin, degree of spread and cellular morphology, while the molecular method identifies gene expression and genetic profiles (6-8). Because tumors are heterogeneous and frequently

62

63

64

65

66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

contain abundant somatic mutations, traditional approaches for classifying tumor subtypes are often insufficient. Conventional histopathological evaluation of cancer utilizes surgical or image-guided biopsies of the primary tumor, often requiring serial samples throughout treatment course. Different parameters such as tumor size, grade, and degree of invasion along with other features such as tumor markers, atypical morphology, and regional lymph node drainage pattern are evaluated to predict tumor prognosis (9). Although this traditional approach to tumor categorization is valuable in many cases, it does not always accurately stratify patients into different treatment regimens or account for the molecular variability of cancer (10). By contrast, molecular classification is based on the analysis of tumor genomes as well as gene expression (11). Successful molecular subdivision of tumors originating from the same tissue may result in different treatments targeting a specific tumor type, as is found in the case of ERBB2-amplified breast cancer and EGFR mutant lung carcinoma (12, 13). Furthermore, techniques such as RNA sequencing (RNAseq) can be used to obtain a profile of tumor RNA levels to study mutations, alternative splicing, and gene expression levels (14). Molecular signatures may also be utilized to inform biological interpretations. Molecular signatures are collections of genes with associated biological processes that can identify genes upregulated in specific sample subsets when compared to broader groups (15). Signatures can be composed of genes associated with specific diseases; for instance, breast cancer molecular signatures have identified subphenotypes indistinguishable by traditional histologic analysis (15, 16).

85

86

87

88

89

90

91

92

93

94

95

96

97

98

99

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

Mutations resulting in cancer may come about by a variety of sources, including inflammation. Chronic inflammation has been shown to increase cancer risk (17, 18) by causing tumor initiation, promotion, and metastatic progression (19). Many environmental causes of cancer are related to chronic inflammation. As many as 20% of cancers are associated with chronic infection, 30% with tobacco smoking and inhaled pollutants such as asbestos, and 35% with dietary factors (20-23). Chronic disease exposing patients to inflammation are also associated with increased cancer risk. Inflammatory bowel disease (i.e. ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease) is associated with an increased risk of colon adenocarcinoma (24), chronic pancreatitis is a significant risk factor for pancreatic cancer (25), and chronic gastritis secondary to Helicobacter pylori infection is associated with the majority of gastric cancer cases (26). Several large consortia, such as The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA), provide tools and data to study the molecular basis of cancer (11, 27). The purpose of our study is to understand molecular patterns related to inflammation. Although TCGA started out by collecting only three cancer types – glioblastoma multiforme, lung, and ovarian cancers – it expanded rapidly; by 2014, genomic characterization and sequence analysis had been completed for 33 cancer types with data for over 12,000 individuals (27). Signature visualization of individual samples allows identification of patient subcategories a priori on the basis of well-defined molecular signatures (15). As such, data from TCGA could potentially be utilized to obtain and evaluate molecular signatures. To overcome limitations of existing tools to evaluate molecular signatures,

the Signature Visualization Tool (SaVanT) was previously developed as a web-based tool to visualize signatures in user-generated expression profiles (15). SaVanT has been utilized to distinguish signature scores in patients with various conditions such as infections and leukemia, providing insight into immune response of various skin diseases (15). By visualizing molecular signatures, SaVanT allows users to efficiently leverage pre-existing biological knowledge (such as from sources like TCGA) to interpret transcriptomic experiments (15).

To our knowledge, no systematic study utilizing gene signatures to evaluate tumor inflammation in TCGA has been carried out. Therefore, in this study, we aimed to use SaVanT to evaluate molecular signatures obtained from TCGA to evaluate the relationship between clinical status and inflammatory responses across multiple cancer types.

Materials and Methods

121

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

Data collection In order to examine the role of inflammation in different cancer types, we sought to utilize a large-scale, systematically-processed dataset. We chose to analyze data from TCGA. All of the data has been processed with a uniform analysis pipeline, allowing for robust comparison across samples and tumor types. Gene expression data was retrieved from TCGA using their web-accessible data portal. In order to ensure that the data was normalized, we used their Harmonized Data Portal to access the data and did not include any datasets processed independently from the harmonized data. For all TCGA projects, we downloaded RNAseq data as normalized counts for all patients. Individual files (one per patient) were combined into a single matrix per primary site. In order to focus the evaluation of our methods, seven different tumor primary types were chosen to be utilized for analysis with clinical metadata – pancreatic adenocarcinoma (PAAD), glioblastoma multiforme (GBM), cholangiocarcinoma (CHOL), kidney renal papillary cell carcinoma (KIRP), kidney chromophobe (KICH), adrenocortical carcinoma (ACC), and uveal melanoma (UVM). We chose these seven out of the thirty-four tumor primary sites on TCGA, to obtain a range of inflammatory states estimated based on our analyses described below. Four types of data were retrieved for each sample: gender, age at initial cancer diagnosis, cancer stage, and vital status. Quality control All data retrieved from TCGA was inspected for consistency by making sure that all profiles contained the same number of genes and that patient data was not redundant or

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

duplicated. Furthermore, the distribution of normalized counts was analyzed at both the patient level as well as primary tumor site to identify any outliers or issues with normalization. Patient-level data was averaged to determine a single value for all genes per primary site. Comparison to molecular signatures Molecular signatures were taken from the repository MSigDB (28) and SaVanT (15). Several studies and efforts have sought to identify genes involved in inflammatory pathways (28-31). Many of these projects have produced inflammatory signatures, which catalog the genes most important in several inflammatory states. In order to determine the role of inflammation across the 7 cancer types in our analysis, we utilized the 'hallmark inflammation' signature from MSigDB (28), a repository of molecular signatures. This signature includes 200 genes associated with acute and chronic inflammation responses, as well as elements of the TGF-β signaling cascade. Data and Statistical Analysis Patient metadata was compared with the corresponding hallmark inflammatory response. Metadata and corresponding statistical tests were utilized as follows – Age (Pearson correlation), Stage (Anova Single Value), Sex (Anova Single Value), and Vital Status (Anova Single Value). Statistical significance was set at p < 0.05. Utilizing this data, box-whisker plots were created for metadata and inflammatory response correlations that had significant P-values.

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

179

180

181

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

Results Tumor Types Hierarchical clustering was performed to group cancer subtypes by inflammatory signature scores, and the three subgroups were determined by the dendrogram structure resulting from the hierarchical clustering (Figure 1). Of the tumor types evaluated in our study, we found that tumors in areas exposed to airways or gastrointestinal tracts, including pancreatic, lung and esophageal cancer, tended to be more inflammatory. Based on these results we selected seven tumor types with varying levels of inflammation for further analysis (Figure 2). Of the 7 tumors chosen for analysis, the levels of inflammation in descending order are summarized in table 3. Figure 1: Using 6 inflammation signatures, we clustered cancer types into low, high and mixed inflammatory response. Figure 2: The seven chosen cancer types display heterogeneity in hallmark inflammatory response signatures. Correlation of Metadata with Hallmark Inflammatory Response Signature Correlation Based on a statistical analysis of the metadata and its association with the hallmark inflammatory signature score, we were able to determine significant associations between inflammation and other clinical characteristics across specific primary cancers. Out of the 7 primary cancers, 4 had statistically significant association (p-value < 0.05) with at least one of the clinical values that we tested (sex, vital status, age at initial diagnosis, and

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

tumor stage) as follows: pancreatic adenocarcinoma (PAAD), cholangiocarcinoma (CHOL), kidney chromophobe (KICH), and uveal melanoma (UVM). Pancreas Adenocarcinoma (PAAD) After associating the metadata of 182 patients with the hallmark inflammatory response signature in pancreatic adenocarcinoma samples, we found a significant association of the hallmark inflammatory response signature with sex (p = 0.0313) and tumor stage (p =0.0054) (Figure 3). Of all tumor stages, stage II showed the highest level of the Hallmark Inflammatory Response, and stage I the lowest. There was a slightly higher level of inflammation in females than males. Figure 3: Pancreatic adenocarcinoma correlation of cancer stage with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0054. Pancreatic adenocarcinoma correlation of sex with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0313. Cholangiocarcinoma (CHOL) We found a significant p-value of 0.0496 (Figure 4) for the association of cholangiocarcinoma inflammatory score in 45 patients with the vital status of patients, a clinical data element categorized under diagnosis on TCGA. Patients who were alive at the time of diagnosis had higher levels of inflammation than patients whose biopsy was collected post mortem.

212

213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

Figure 4: Cholangiocarcinoma correlation of vital status with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0496. *Kidney Chromophobe (KICH)* Using the signatures and metadata of 89 patients, we found a significant p-value = 0.0172(Figure 5) between tumor stage and the hallmark inflammatory response. Stage IV tumors showed the highest levels of inflammation, compared to the other 3 stages. Figure 5: Kidney chromophobe correlation of cancer stage with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0172. Uveal Melanoma (UVM) After associating the vital status with the hallmark inflammatory response signature correlation of 80 patients, we found a significant p-value of 0.0033 (Figure 6). Overall, samples collected post mortem had higher levels of inflammation compared to those collected from living patients. Figure 6: Uveal melanoma correlation of vital status with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0033.

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

248

249

250

251

252

253

254

255

256

Discussion Utilizing the TCGA database allows us to leverage the systematic profiling of thousands of tumors from individuals with different types of cancer. The first aim in our study was to evaluate levels of inflammation across tumor types utilizing appropriate signature scores. We used inflammation signatures to analyze the gene expression data ("hallmark inflammation" (28-31). These signatures allow us to classify the cancer subtypes at an immunological level, which is not possible with traditional classification schemes relying on histological data. Such a classification technique allows us to examine individual pathways and signaling cascades, particularly those important in inflammatory responses. Once we compared the patient data to the inflammatory signatures, we found three distinct groups of cancers: (1) those with high inflammation, (2) those with low inflammation, and (3) those with both high and low levels of inflammation. We found PAAD to be a member of the high inflammation group. This grouping is supported by multiple studies associating pancreatic inflammation (pancreatitis) with the development of pancreatic cancer (25, 32). One of the cancers we found to be in the low inflammation group was UVM. Melanomas are associated with environmental insults, such as exposure to ultraviolet light. As such, we expect that inflammation is not necessarily involved in the mechanism responsible for the development of skin cancer. We believe that the gene expression data for these tumor types is heterogeneous across individuals, with multiple subgroups of patients per type. As such, the inflammatory signature presented in this first analysis is averaged across individuals, and that within

258

259

260

261

262

263

264

265

266

267

268

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

these broad categories there may be subgroups of patients with high inflammation and others with low inflammation. This suggests that patients with these cancers could potentially benefit from further molecular subclassification. In addition to correlating levels of inflammation with specific cancer types, we utilized clinical metadata from individuals with 7 different types of distinct tumors and associated this with molecular signatures derived from the web-based tool SaVanT. Molecular signatures are gene collections with associated biological interpretations that can identify genes upregulated in specific sample subsets compared to broader groups (15). Signatures can be composed of genes associated with specific diseases. By performing a comparison of metadata with molecular signatures, we sought to evaluate if there was significant correlation between these values. We found that four of the cancer types we evaluated (PAAD, CHOL, KICH, and UVM) had statistically significant associations between hallmark inflammatory response and at least one clinical variable. PAAD and KICH had a significant association with the patients' stage of cancer at diagnosis, and CHOL and UVM had an association with vital status. Additionally, PAAD was significantly associated with sex. On average, females and individuals with stage II PAAD had the highest correlation between the clinical variable and hallmark inflammatory response. While for KICH, the highest average correlation was for individuals with stage IV cancer. Within each cancer type, alive individuals with CHOL and dead patients with UVM had the highest average correlation

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

with hallmark inflammatory response. However, the correlation for both alive and dead vital status individuals was higher for CHOL than UVM. Our results suggest that the use of molecular signatures in patients with cancer can provide valuable information. The signatures provided by SaVanT supplement MSigDB while utilizing the depth and specificity of large expression studies to describe the biology pertaining to various cancers and cell types. Having this information available for patients with cancer diagnoses could provide a deeper understanding of a patient's clinical status. Furthermore, as there is marked heterogeneity even amongst specific organ-based tumors (Figure 2), molecular signatures could provide valuable information regarding the patient's specific subtype of tumor. In future studies we aim to further evaluate inflammation in cancer. Future studies could evaluate the relationship between additional tumor types with an expanded set of clinical variables. While we have shown three distinct groups of cancer types relative to inflammation levels, we also believe these results can be improved and expanded. For example, limiting the number of genes in the signatures or creating a cancer-specific inflammatory response panel of genes would produce a more cost-effective diagnostic test that could potentially be translated to the clinical setting. In addition, although many cancer types fall into the high or low inflammation classifications, there are others with a mixed inflammation signal. The ambiguity in this group of cancer subtypes could arise from several sources and correcting for these

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

318

319

sources may allow us to place these cancers into either the high- or low-inflammation group. For example, the mixed signal could be due to the need to subclassify patients even further for a particular cancer type. It is possible that some primary sites contain several populations of samples – such as those from a different biopsy type (i.e., blood or tumor sample). Determining these subgroups within the primary types would allow them to be treated independently. Finally, gene expression data is one of many biological layers potentially contributing to cancer. Leveraging other levels of data, such as genome information, to identify mutations within tumors and patients would greatly assist in determining and developing therapies in a more personalized fashion for patients with different disease subtypes. In summary, our study evaluated the association between inflammation signatures for different tumor types. We found associations between levels of inflammation and tumor types, and also found statistically significant relationships between patient metadata and inflammation for four tumor types. We believe our results demonstrate potential clinical utility in the continued establishment of personalized medicine and care for cancer patients, while further establishing the utility of SaVanT as a clinical tool.

References

320

321

- 322 1. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2018. CA: a cancer journal for
- 323 clinicians. 2018 Jan;68(1):7-30. PubMed PMID: 29313949. Epub 2018/01/10. eng.
- 324 2. Urruticoechea A, Alemany R, Balart J, Villanueva A, Vinals F, Capella G. Recent
- advances in cancer therapy: an overview. Current pharmaceutical design. 2010
- 326 Jan;16(1):3-10. PubMed PMID: 20214614. Epub 2010/03/11. eng.
- 327 3. Formenti SC, Demaria S. Systemic effects of local radiotherapy. The Lancet
- 328 Oncology. 2009 Jul;10(7):718-26. PubMed PMID: 19573801. Pubmed Central PMCID:
- 329 PMC2782943. Epub 2009/07/04. eng.
- 330 4. Zellmer VR, Zhang S. Evolving concepts of tumor heterogeneity. Cell &
- bioscience. 2014;4:69. PubMed PMID: 25937891. Pubmed Central PMCID:
- 332 PMC4417538. Epub 2014/01/01. eng.
- Song Q, Merajver SD, Li JZ. Cancer classification in the genomic era: five
- contemporary problems. Human genomics. 2015 Oct 19;9:27. PubMed PMID: 26481255.
- 335 Pubmed Central PMCID: PMC4612488. Epub 2015/10/21. eng.
- 336 6. Killock D. CNS cancer: molecular classification of glioma. Nature reviews
- 337 Clinical oncology. 2015 Sep;12(9):502. PubMed PMID: 26169923. Epub 2015/07/15.
- 338 eng.
- 339 7. Malhotra GK, Zhao X, Band H, Band V. Histological, molecular and functional
- subtypes of breast cancers. Cancer biology & therapy. 2010 Nov 15;10(10):955-60.
- 341 PubMed PMID: 21057215. Pubmed Central PMCID: PMC3047091. Epub 2010/11/09.
- 342 eng.
- 343 8. Pusztai L, Mazouni C, Anderson K, Wu Y, Symmans WF. Molecular
- 344 classification of breast cancer: limitations and potential. The oncologist. 2006
- 345 Sep;11(8):868-77. PubMed PMID: 16951390. Epub 2006/09/05. eng.
- 346 9. Ludwig JA, Weinstein JN. Biomarkers in cancer staging, prognosis and treatment
- 347 selection. Nature reviews Cancer. 2005 Nov;5(11):845-56. PubMed PMID: 16239904.
- 348 Epub 2005/10/22. eng.
- 349 10. Nguyen A, Yoshida M, Goodarzi H, Tavazoie SF. Highly variable cancer
- subpopulations that exhibit enhanced transcriptome variability and metastatic fitness.
- Nature communications. 2016 May 3;7:11246. PubMed PMID: 27138336. Pubmed
- 352 Central PMCID: PMC4857405. Epub 2016/05/04. eng.
- 353 11. Hoadley KA, Yau C, Wolf DM, Cherniack AD, Tamborero D, Ng S, et al.
- 354 Multiplatform analysis of 12 cancer types reveals molecular classification within and
- across tissues of origin. Cell. 2014 Aug 14;158(4):929-44. PubMed PMID: 25109877.
- 356 Pubmed Central PMCID: PMC4152462. Epub 2014/08/12. eng.
- 357 12. da Cunha Santos G, Shepherd FA, Tsao MS. EGFR mutations and lung cancer.
- 358 Annual review of pathology. 2011;6:49-69. PubMed PMID: 20887192. Epub 2010/10/05.
- 359 eng.
- 360 13. Sircoulomb F, Bekhouche I, Finetti P, Adelaide J, Ben Hamida A, Bonansea J, et
- al. Genome profiling of ERBB2-amplified breast cancers. BMC cancer. 2010 Oct
- 362 8;10:539. PubMed PMID: 20932292. Pubmed Central PMCID: PMC2958950. Epub
- 363 2010/10/12. eng.

- 364 14. Best MG, Sol N, Kooi I, Tannous J, Westerman BA, Rustenburg F, et al. RNA-
- 365 Seg of Tumor-Educated Platelets Enables Blood-Based Pan-Cancer, Multiclass, and
- 366 Molecular Pathway Cancer Diagnostics. Cancer cell. 2015 Nov 9;28(5):666-76. PubMed
- 367 PMID: 26525104. Pubmed Central PMCID: PMC4644263. Epub 2015/11/04. eng.
- 368 15. Lopez D, Montoya D, Ambrose M, Lam L, Briscoe L, Adams C, et al. SaVanT: a
- web-based tool for the sample-level visualization of molecular signatures in gene
- 370 expression profiles. BMC genomics. 2017 Oct 25;18(1):824. PubMed PMID: 29070035.
- 371 Pubmed Central PMCID: PMC5657101. Epub 2017/10/27. eng.
- 372 16. Pedraza V, Gomez-Capilla JA, Escaramis G, Gomez C, Torne P, Rivera JM, et al.
- 373 Gene expression signatures in breast cancer distinguish phenotype characteristics,
- histologic subtypes, and tumor invasiveness. Cancer. 2010 Jan 15;116(2):486-96.
- 375 PubMed PMID: 20029976. Epub 2009/12/24. eng.
- 376 17. Schottenfeld D, Beebe-Dimmer J. Chronic inflammation: a common and
- important factor in the pathogenesis of neoplasia. CA: a cancer journal for clinicians.
- 378 2006 Mar-Apr; 56(2):69-83. PubMed PMID: 16514135. Epub 2006/03/04. eng.
- 379 18. Shacter E, Weitzman SA. Chronic inflammation and cancer. Oncology (Williston
- 380 Park, NY). 2002 Feb;16(2):217-26, 29; discussion 30-2. PubMed PMID: 11866137. Epub
- 381 2002/02/28. eng.
- 382 19. Rajput S, Wilber A. Roles of inflammation in cancer initiation, progression, and
- metastasis. Frontiers in bioscience (Scholar edition). 2010 Jan 1;2:176-83. PubMed
- 384 PMID: 20036938. Epub 2009/12/29. eng.
- Fang X, Wei J, He X, An P, Wang H, Jiang L, et al. Landscape of dietary factors
- associated with risk of gastric cancer: A systematic review and dose-response meta-
- analysis of prospective cohort studies. European journal of cancer (Oxford, England :
- 388 1990). 2015 Dec;51(18):2820-32. PubMed PMID: 26589974. Epub 2015/11/22. eng.
- 389 21. Karin M, Lawrence T, Nizet V. Innate immunity gone awry: linking microbial
- infections to chronic inflammation and cancer. Cell. 2006 Feb 24;124(4):823-35.
- 391 PubMed PMID: 16497591. Epub 2006/02/25. eng.
- 392 22. Proctor RN. Tobacco and the global lung cancer epidemic. Nature reviews
- 393 Cancer. 2001 Oct;1(1):82-6. PubMed PMID: 11900255. Epub 2002/03/20. eng.
- 394 23. Choi WJ, Kim J. Dietary factors and the risk of thyroid cancer: a review. Clinical
- nutrition research. 2014 Jul;3(2):75-88. PubMed PMID: 25136535. Pubmed Central
- 396 PMCID: PMC4135245. Epub 2014/08/20. eng.
- 397 24. Triantafillidis JK, Nasioulas G, Kosmidis PA. Colorectal cancer and
- inflammatory bowel disease: epidemiology, risk factors, mechanisms of carcinogenesis
- and prevention strategies. Anticancer research. 2009 Jul;29(7):2727-37. PubMed PMID:
- 400 19596953. Epub 2009/07/15. eng.
- 401 25. Raimondi S, Lowenfels AB, Morselli-Labate AM, Maisonneuve P, Pezzilli R.
- 402 Pancreatic cancer in chronic pancreatitis; aetiology, incidence, and early detection. Best
- practice & research Clinical gastroenterology. 2010 Jun;24(3):349-58. PubMed PMID:
- 404 20510834. Epub 2010/06/01. eng.
- 405 26. Ford AC, Forman D, Hunt RH, Yuan Y, Moayyedi P. Helicobacter pylori
- 406 eradication therapy to prevent gastric cancer in healthy asymptomatic infected
- 407 individuals: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. BMJ
- 408 (Clinical research ed). 2014 May 20;348:g3174. PubMed PMID: 24846275. Pubmed
- 409 Central PMCID: PMC4027797. Epub 2014/05/23. eng.

- 410 27. Tomczak K, Czerwinska P, Wiznerowicz M. The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA):
- an immeasurable source of knowledge. Contemporary oncology (Poznan, Poland).
- 412 2015;19(1A):A68-77. PubMed PMID: 25691825. Pubmed Central PMCID:
- 413 PMC4322527. Epub 2015/02/19. eng.
- Liberzon A, Birger C, Thorvaldsdottir H, Ghandi M, Mesirov JP, Tamayo P. The
- 415 Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) hallmark gene set collection. Cell systems.
- 416 2015 Dec 23;1(6):417-25. PubMed PMID: 26771021. Pubmed Central PMCID:
- 417 PMC4707969. Epub 2016/01/16. eng.
- 418 29. Bierie B, Stover DG, Abel TW, Chytil A, Gorska AE, Aakre M, et al.
- 419 Transforming growth factor-beta regulates mammary carcinoma cell survival and
- interaction with the adjacent microenvironment. Cancer research. 2008 Mar
- 421 15;68(6):1809-19. PubMed PMID: 18339861. Epub 2008/03/15. eng.
- 422 30. Seki E, De Minicis S, Osterreicher CH, Kluwe J, Osawa Y, Brenner DA, et al.
- 423 TLR4 enhances TGF-beta signaling and hepatic fibrosis. Nature medicine. 2007
- 424 Nov;13(11):1324-32. PubMed PMID: 17952090. Epub 2007/10/24. eng.
- 425 31. Wunder C, Churin Y, Winau F, Warnecke D, Vieth M, Lindner B, et al.
- 426 Cholesterol glucosylation promotes immune evasion by Helicobacter pylori. Nature
- 427 medicine. 2006 Sep;12(9):1030-8. PubMed PMID: 16951684. Epub 2006/09/05. eng.
- 428 32. Munigala S, Kanwal F, Xian H, Scherrer JF, Agarwal B. Increased risk of
- 429 pancreatic adenocarcinoma after acute pancreatitis. Clinical gastroenterology and
- 430 hepatology: the official clinical practice journal of the American Gastroenterological
- 431 Association. 2014 Jul;12(7):1143-50 e1. PubMed PMID: 24440214. Epub 2014/01/21.
- 432 eng.

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

453

454

455

456

457

458

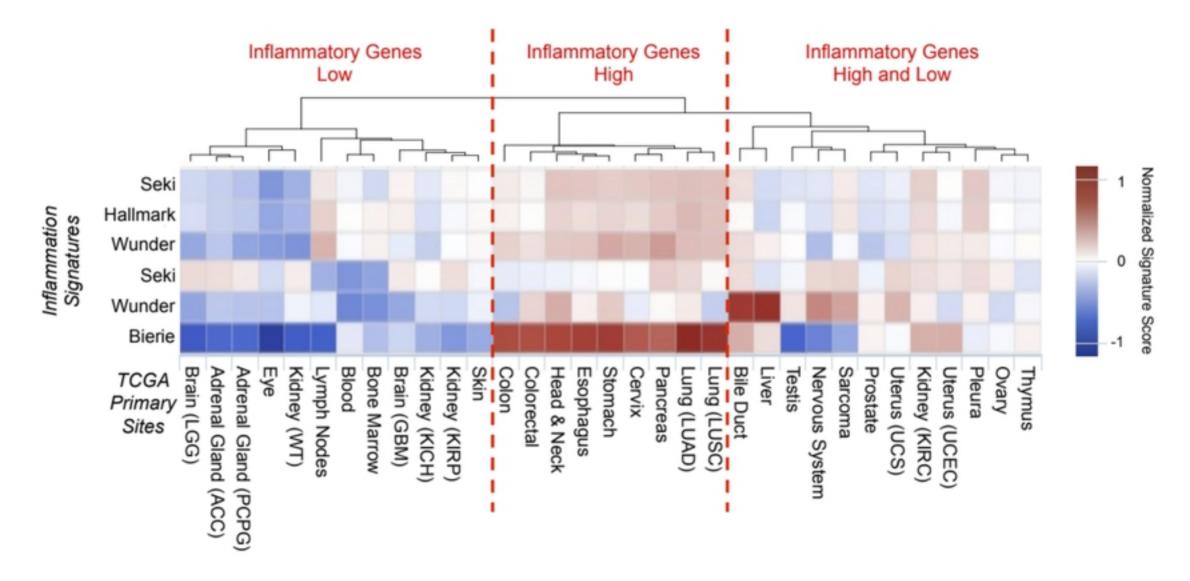
459

460

461

462

Figures Figure 1: Using 6 inflammation signatures, we clustered cancer types into low, high and mixed inflammatory response. Figure 2: The seven chosen cancer types display heterogeneity in hallmark inflammatory response signatures. Figure 3: Pancreatic adenocarcinoma correlation of cancer stage with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0054. Pancreatic adenocarcinoma correlation of sex with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0313. Figure 4: Cholangiocarcinoma correlation of vital status with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0496. Figure 5: Kidney chromophobe correlation of cancer stage with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0172. Figure 6: Uveal melanoma correlation of vital status with hallmark inflammatory response, p-value of 0.0033.



Hallmark inflammatory response vs. tumor type

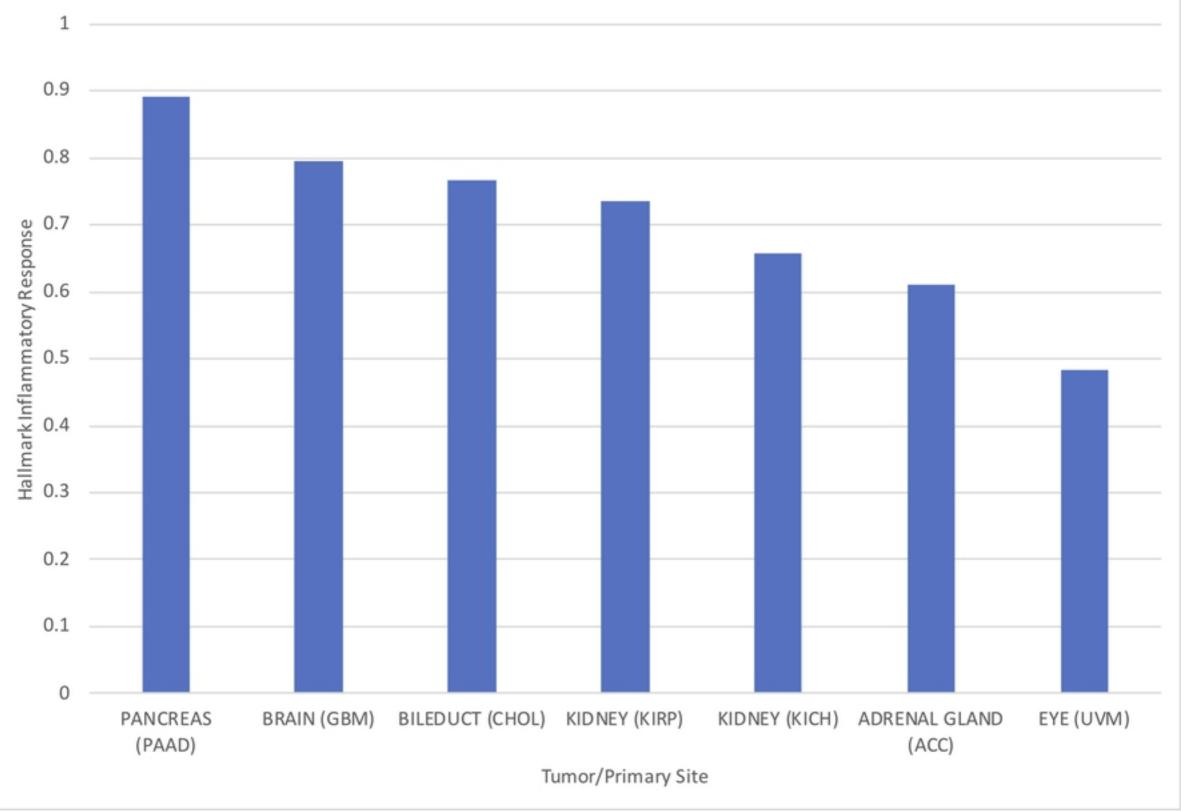
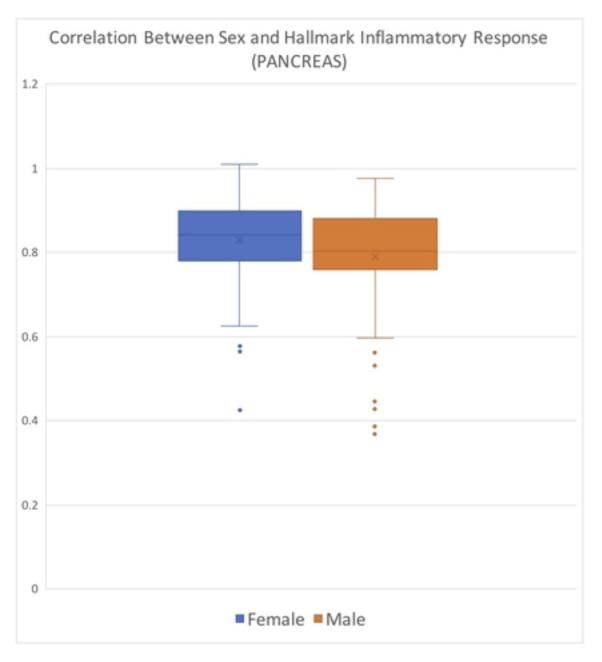


Figure 2



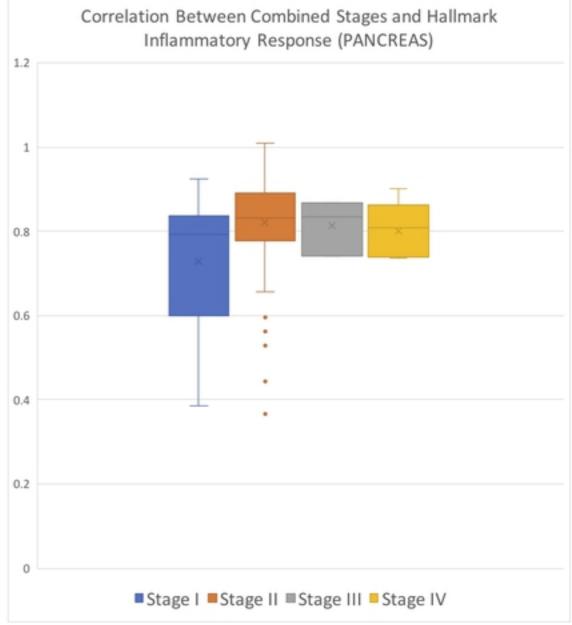


Figure 3

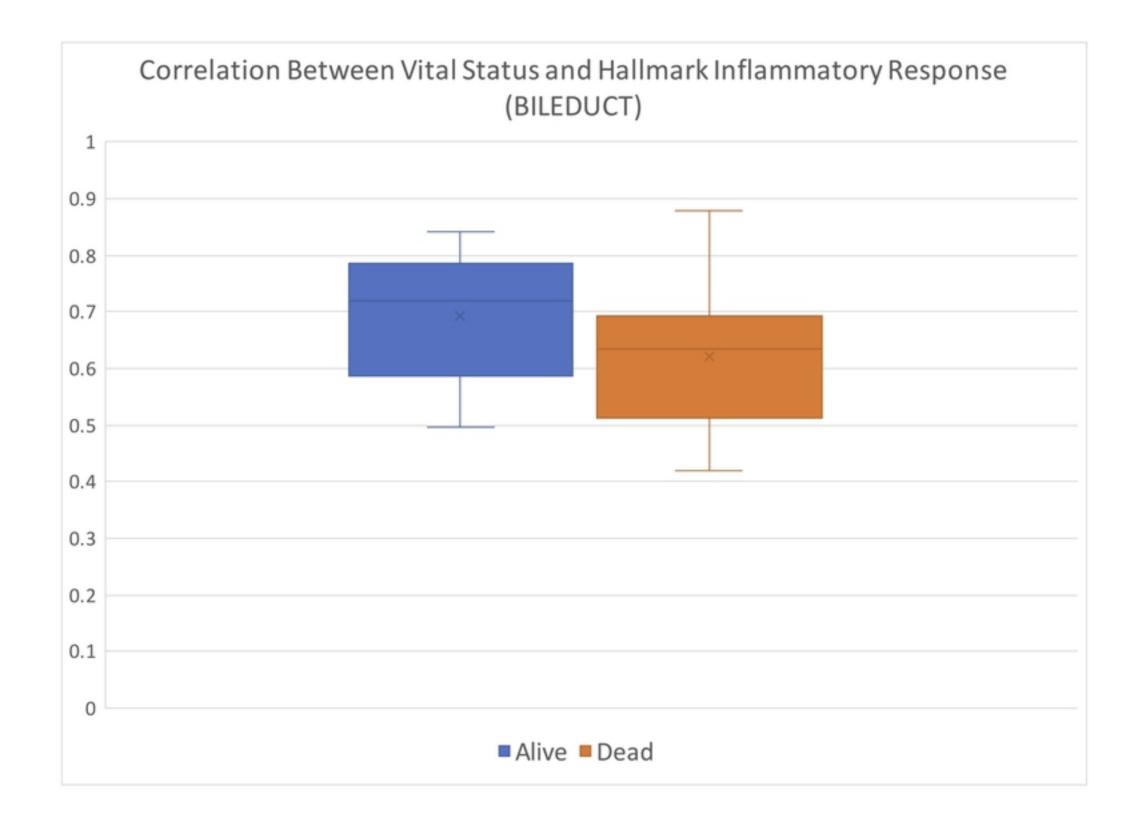


Figure 4

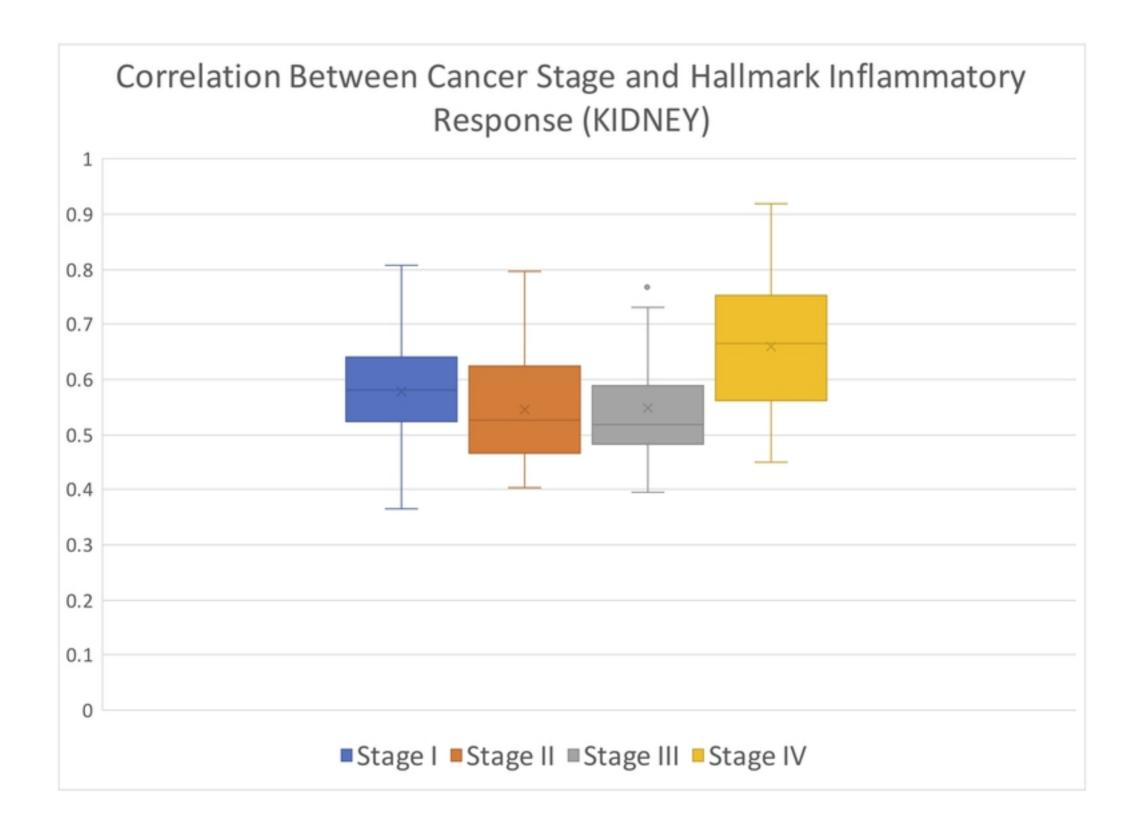


Figure 5

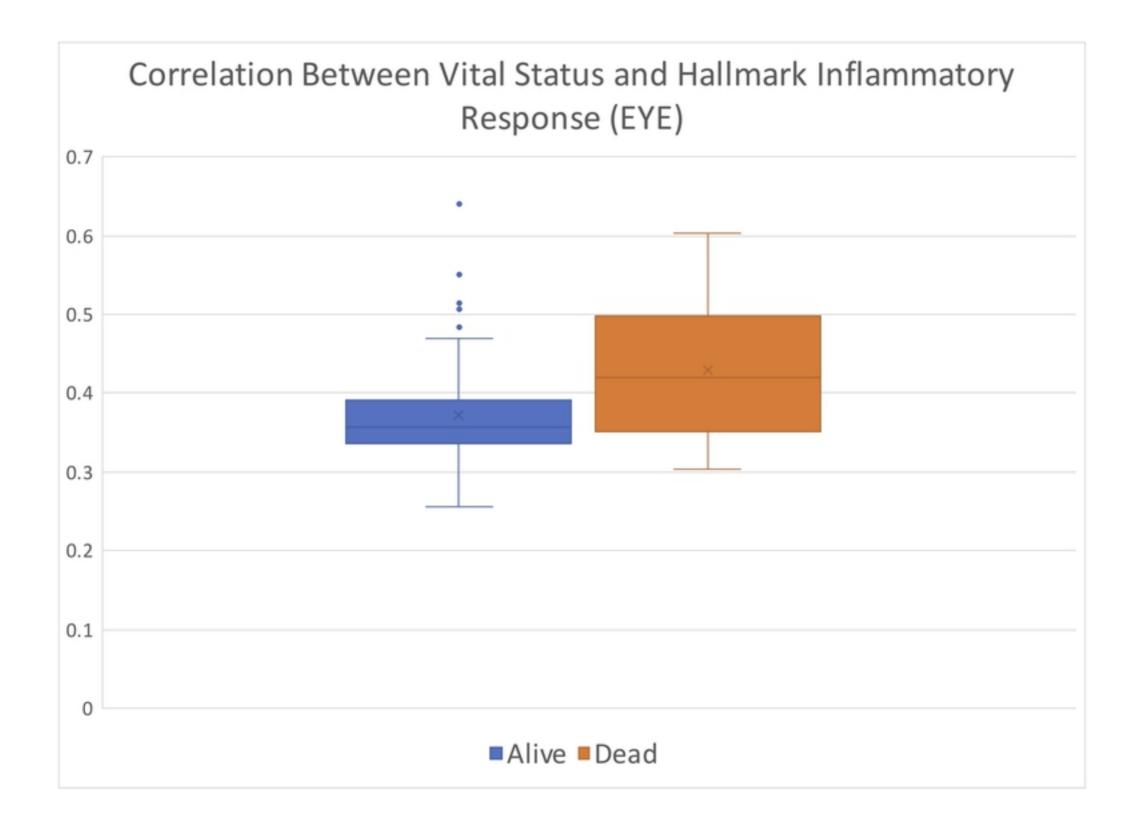


Figure 6