

**Genetic investigation of inflammatory bowel disease
and post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome:
the contribution of innate immunity
candidate risk variants**

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ABSTRACT

The gastro-intestinal (GI) tract represents the largest surface of the body and is continuously exposed to the microbial environment. In such anatomy, the survival of the host requires that the intestinal microbial flora be contained without excessive immune-reactivity to commensal bacteria while retaining the ability to respond to episodic pathogens. The discriminative recognition between beneficial commensal bacteria and potentially harmful pathogens demands an accurate interpretation by the GI mucosal immune system. Any defects in the processes of innate immune recognition and killing may lead to the development and perpetuation of chronic intestinal inflammation, namely inflammatory bowel disease (i.e. Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC)) and post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS). The aim of our studies was to evaluate the contribution of candidate genes, involved in the homeostasis and regulation of the intestinal innate immune response, to the susceptibility to CD, UC, and PI-IBS. In the first phase, we describe functional and genetic association results supporting *NLRP3*, encoding NALP3/cryopyrin, as a novel CD susceptibility gene. We subsequently report that the *MEFV* gene, encoding pyrin, known to interact with and be involved in the same pathway as NALP3/cryopyrin, does not contribute to CD and UC susceptibility. No CD or UC additional associations were observed upon *NLRP3-MEFV* gene-gene interaction analyses. In the third phase, we report the first association study evaluating genetic determinants for PI-IBS, using the well-characterized Walkerton population cohort. We uncovered variants in the *TLR9*, *CDH1*, and *IL6* regions associated with PI-IBS

susceptibility. These results are in keeping with the pathophysiologic changes observed in patients with PI-IBS, which include increased intestinal permeability and intestinal immune activation.

Overall, these results contribute to a better understanding of the genetic susceptibility to CD, UC and PI-IBS and shed light on new pathogenic signaling pathways in the development of these diseases.

RÉSUMÉ

Le tube digestif, représentant la plus grande surface du corps humain, est constamment exposé à un environnement microbactérien. Dans une telle anatomie, la survie de l'hôte requiert que la flore microbactérienne soit préservée sans réaction immunitaire excessive en la présence de cette flore tout en retenant sa capacité à répondre efficacement à la présence épisodique de pathogènes. La reconnaissance discriminatoire entre la flore bactérienne bénéfique et les pathogènes potentiellement nocifs requiert une interprétation précise de la part du système immunitaire digestif. Tous mécanismes défectueux dans la reconnaissance et destruction peuvent mener au développement et à la perpétuation de maladies inflammatoires chroniques du système digestif, notamment aux maladies inflammatoires de l'intestin (i.e. la maladie de Crohn (MC) et la colite ulcéreuse (CU)) et au syndrome de l'intestin irritable post-infectieux (SII-PI). L'objectif premier des études présentées dans cette thèse était d'évaluer la contribution de gènes candidats impliqués dans l'homéostasie et la régulation de la réponse immunitaire innée de l'intestin à la susceptibilité de la MC, la CU, et le SII-PI. Dans la première phase, nous décrivons des résultats d'études d'association génétiques et fonctionnelles supportant *NLRP3*, encodant NALP3/cryopyrin, comme nouveau gène de susceptibilité de la MC. Nous démontrons ensuite que le gène *MEFV*, qui encode pour la protéine pyrin, qui interagit et est impliqué dans les mêmes cascades de signalisation que NALP3/cryopyrin, ne contribue pas à la susceptibilité de la MC et la CU. De plus, aucunes associations supplémentaires avec la MC ou la CU ne furent observées

suite à des analyses d'interactions gène-gène entre *NLRP3-MEFV*. Enfin, nous rapportons la première étude d'association évaluant le rôle de déterminants génétiques dans le SII-PI en utilisant la cohorte de population provenant de Walkerton. Nous décrivons des associations entre les régions *TLR9*, *CDH1*, et *IL6* et la susceptibilité au SII-PI. Ces résultats sont consistants avec les changements pathophysiologiques observés chez ces patients, incluant une augmentation de la perméabilité intestinale et l'activation immunitaire dans la muqueuse du colon.

En résumé, nos résultats contribuent à améliorer les connaissances sur la susceptibilité à la MC, la CU, et le SII-PI, et suggèrent de nouvelles cascades de signallement potentiellement impliquées dans le développement de ces maladies.

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Chapter 2

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- Lemire M: Supervised and corrected statistical analyses, prepared the figures, and revised the manuscript.
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Chapter 3

Villani AC, Lemire M, Louis E, Silverberg MS, Collette C, Nimmo ER, Renaud Y, Brunet S, Fortin G, Belaiche J, Bitton A, Gaudet D, Cohen A, Rioux JD, Arnott IDR, Rutgeerts P, Satsangi J, Vermeire S, Hudson TJ, Franchimont D. Genetic variation in the familial Mediterranean fever gene (*MEFV*) and risk for inflammatory bowel disease. *PLoS ONE* (submitted).

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Title: *NLRP3-MEFV* gene-gene interactions do not contribute to inflammatory bowel disease susceptibility (*unpublished data*).

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Chapter 5

Villani AC, Lemire M, Thabane M, Geneau G, Belisle A, Garg AX, Clark WF, Moayyedi P, Collins SM, Franchimont D, Marshall JK. Genetic risk factors for post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome following a waterborne outbreak of gastroenteritis. *JAMA* (submitted).

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- Marshall JK and Franchimont D: Study conception, supervision and manuscript revision.

CLAIMS FOR ORIGINALITY

1. *NLRP3* was identified as a novel Crohn's disease (CD) susceptibility gene.
2. We have identified 6 SNPs explaining the association signals, namely rs4353135, rs4266924, rs55646866, rs6672995, ss107635144 (novel SNP that we uncovered), and rs10733113.
3. We demonstrated that the genotypes of the variant rs4353135, located in the *NLRP3* CD-associated region, are associated with *NLRP3* gene expression in two independent sample set of healthy individuals.
4. We demonstrated that the genotypes of the variant rs667299, also located in the *NLRP3* CD-associated region, are associated with level of IL-1 β secretion.
5. We report *NLRP3* gene expression to be significantly upregulated in colon tissues isolated from mice with TNBS-induced colitis, and in biopsies from individuals with Crohn's disease.
6. We found *MEFV* expression to be significantly increased in both TNBS and DSS colitis mice model, and report an increase in *MEFV* gene expression in inflamed colonic tissues from both CD and ulcerative colitis (UC) patients, correlating with severity of inflammation.

7. Unlike previous studies (Cattan et al. 2000; Fidler et al. 2002; Fidler et al. 2005; Karban et al. 2005) that have excluded the involvement of *MEFV* in CD pathogenesis by looking at specific rare FMF missense causative mutations clustered in exon 2 and 10 in a relatively small number of CD cases, we carried out a thorough genetic screening of the *MEFV* region in two large CD sample sets and we report no significant associations between common variants in the *MEFV* region and CD susceptibility.
8. We also evaluated the *MEFV* region in 3 independent UC samples and report no consistent significant associations between common variants in the *MEFV* region and UC susceptibility.
9. We report the first gene-gene interaction analyses between *MEFV* and *NLRP3*, and show no significant contribution of these interactions to CD and UC susceptibility.
10. We report the first genetic association study ever performed in the field of post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS).
11. We identified 3 novel PI-IBS susceptibility genes: *TLR9*, *CDH1*, and *IL6*.

ABBREVIATIONS

AID	auto-inflammatory diseases
AJC	apical junctional complex
AP-1	activator protein 1
ASC	apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD
ATP	adenosine triphosphate
BIR	baculovirus inhibitor of apoptosis protein repeat domain
CAPS	cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes
CARD	caspase-recruitment domain
CARDINAL	CARD-inhibitor of NF- κ B activating ligand
CATERPILLER	CARD (caspase-recruitment domain) transcription enhancer, R (purine)-binding, pyrin, lots of leucine repeats
CC	coiled-coil
CD	Crohn's disease
cDNA	complementary deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)
CI	confidence interval
CIITA	major histocompatibility complex [MHC] class II transactivator
CNV	copy number variations
CPPD	calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate
Ct	cycle threshold
DAMP	danger-associated molecular patterns
DD	death domain
DED	death effector domain
DNA	deoxyribonucleic acid
DSS	Dextran Sulfate Sodium
EST	expressed sequence tags
FBS	fetal bovin serum
FCAS	familial cold auto-inflammatory syndrome
FCU	familial cold urticaria
FIIND	domain with function to find
FMF	familial Mediterranean fever
GE	gastroenteritis
GI	gastro-intestinal
GWA	genome wide association
GWAS	genome wide association study
HIDS	hyperimmunoglobulinemia D with periodic fever syndrome
HLA	human leukocyte antigens
HPFS	hereditary periodic fever syndrome
HWE	Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium
IBD	inflammatory bowel disease
IBS	irritable bowel syndrome
IKK	I κ B kinase
IL	interleukin
IL-1RA	interleukin 1 receptor antagonist

IPAF	IL-1 β -converting enzyme [ICE]-protease-activating factor
IRF1	interferon regulatory factor-1
IRG	interferon-inducible guanosine triphosphatases
LD	linkage disequilibrium
LPS	lipopolysaccharide
LRR	leucine rich repeats
LTA	lipoteichoic acid
MAF	minor allele frequency
MAGUK	membrane-associated guanylate kinase
MAL	MyD88-adaptor-like
MDP	muramyl dipeptide
MHC	major histocompatibility complex
mRNA	messenger ribonucleic acid (RNA)
MSU	monosodium urate
MWS	Muckle-Wells syndrome
NACHT	domain present in Naip, CIITA, HET-E (plant het product involved in vegetative incompatibility) and TP-1 (telomerase-associated protein 1)
NAD	NACHT associated domain
NAIP	neuronal apoptosis inhibitor factors
NALP	NACHT domain, leucine-rich repeat and pyrin domains-containing protein
NBS	nucleotide binding site
NF- κ B	nuclear factor- κ B
NLR	Nucleotide oligomerization domain (NOD)-like receptor
NLRP3	nucleotide binding oligomerization domain, leucine-rich-repeat family, pyrin containing 3
NOD	nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain
NOD1	nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain containing 1
NOD2	nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain containing 2
NOMID	neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease
OCTN	organic cation transporters
OMIM	Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man
PAMPs	pathogen-associated molecular patterns
PAPA	pyogenic sterile arthritis with pyoderma gangrenosum and acne
PBC	peripheral blood cells
PGN	peptidoglycan
PI-IBS	post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome
PRMs	pattern recognition molecules
PRRs	pattern recognition receptors
PYD	pyrin domain
RLR	Retinoic acid-inducible gene (RIG)-I-like receptor
RNA	ribonucleic acid
SD	standard deviation
SNP	single nucleotide polymorphism
Th1	T helper 1
Th17	T helper 17

TIR	Toll/IL-1 receptor
TJ	tight junctions
TLR	Toll-like receptor
TNBS	trinitrobenzene sulfonate
TNF	tumor necrosis factor
TRAM	TRIF-related adaptor molecule
TRAPS	tumor necrosis factor (TNF) receptor-associated periodic syndrome
TRIF	TIR-domain-containing adaptor protein inducing $\text{INF}\beta$
UC	ulcerative colitis
WHS	Walkerton Health Study
WTCCC	Welcome Trust Case Control Consortium

1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

In the context of the 3 main projects presented in this thesis, a candidate gene approach was used to study three different disorders involving chronic intestinal inflammation that can result from a breakdown of the normal symbiosis between the mucosal immune system and the commensal flora, namely Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC) (together referred to as inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)), as well as post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS) (Bouma et al. 2003; MacDonald et al. 2005; Karin et al. 2006; Cario 2008).

Indeed, these diseases appear to result from alterations of the microbial flora and dysregulation of the balance between tolerance and immunity towards this flora, leading to the activation of the intestinal innate immune system (MacDonald et al. 2005; Karin et al. 2006; Cario 2008). Although IBS is considered as a gut motility/functional disorder, the observation of persistent low-grade colonic inflammation in patients who develop IBS following gastroenteritis (namely PI-IBS) led to the speculation that PI-IBS could be part of the evolving IBD spectrum of inflammation, with CD and UC (i.e. IBD) at one end and normality at the other end (**Figure 1.1**) (Bradesi et al. 2003). This latter hypothesis is further supported by the fact that some PI-IBS patients may develop IBD (Quigley 2005; Bercik et al. 2005; Talley 2006; Burgmann et al. 2006).

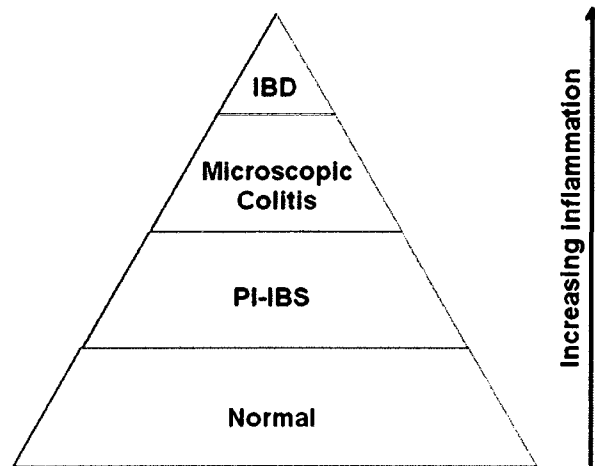


Figure 1.1: Pyramid of gastro-intestinal disorders showing the spectrum of colonic inflammation

PI-IBS: post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome; IBD: inflammatory bowel disease

This general introduction begins with the primary research objectives of the 4 Chapters of results presented in this thesis. Subsequent sections in this introduction outline key areas of the IBD pathophysiology and genetics, the candidate genes that have been selected, followed by the PI-IBS pathophysiology and an overview of the main axes of research in which the PI-IBS candidate genes were selected.

1.1 Overview of objectives

OBJECTIVE #1: To evaluate the contribution of the intracellular bacterial sensor NALP3 (*NLRP3* gene) to CD susceptibility:

This objective was reached by:

- Screening tagging single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), sequencing the associated region, and performing thorough fine-mapping of the *NLRP3* region in an exploratory cohort of 296 father-mother-affected child CD trios.
- Replicating the association signals in 4 additional cohorts totaling 414 CD trios, 239 CD cases, and 107 healthy controls.
- Assessing *NLRP3* gene expression in experimental colitis mice models and CD patients.
- Evaluating the associations between SNP genotype and gene expression to determine whether this reflected *cis*-acting regulatory effects on *NLRP3* in two independent sample sets of healthy individuals.
- Evaluating whether SNPs would be associated with different levels of IL-1 β production, as NALP3 is involved in IL-1 β processing.

OBJECTIVE #2: To evaluate the contribution of the intracellular bacterial sensor pyrin (*MEFV* gene) to CD and UC susceptibility:

This objective was reached by:

- Assessing pyrin gene expression in experimental colitis mouse models and in CD and UC patients.

- Screening tagging SNPs and performing thorough fine-mapping of the *MEFV* region in an exploratory cohort of 512 CD trios, 239 CD cases, 113 UC trios, 96 UC cases, and 107 healthy controls.
- Sequencing and subsequent genotyping of variants in exonic and promoter regions located in the associated haplotype block.
- Attempting to replicate the association signals in 2 additional sample sets totaling 226 father-mother-affected child CD trios, 89 UC trios, 521 UC cases, and 300 healthy controls.

OBJECTIVE #3: To evaluate whether epistatic gene-gene interactions between *NLRP3* and *MEFV* contribute to CD and UC susceptibility:

This objective was reached by:

- Genotyping the 6 CD *NLRP3*-associated SNPs in the 202 UC trios, 96 UC trios, and 107 healthy controls used for the *MEFV* study.
- Stratifying analyses of *MEFV* variants conditional on each individual's genotypes at *NLRP3* variants using the CD or UC samples commonly genotyped in the *NLRP3* and *MEFV* studies.

OBJECTIVE #4: To identify genetic risk factors contributing to PI-IBS susceptibility:

This objective was reached by:

- Performing thorough literature review and identifying candidate functional variants involved in the serotonergic, intestinal epithelial barrier and innate immune response.
- Evaluating 79 functional variants in the well-defined Walkerton health study cohort composed of Walkerton residents who developed PI-IBS after exposure to *Escherichia coli* 0157:H7 and *Campylobacter jejuni* in contaminated municipal water (Marshall et al. 2006).
- Performing fine-mapping in *TLR9*, *IL6*, and *CDH1* associated regions to confirm associations with PI-IBS.

1.2 Innate vs. adaptive immune response

The three projects presented in this thesis are focused primarily on candidate genes playing central roles in the intestinal innate immune response to pathogenic challenges in the gastro-intestinal (GI) tract. It is thus important to initially define the roles and differences between the innate and adaptive immune response systems.

Vertebrates are frequently challenged by a wide variety of microorganisms, predominantly bacteria and viruses, and throughout evolution, they have developed efficient strategies to fight off infections (Janeway et al. 2002).

Briefly, the immune response is mediated by two complementary systems: the innate and the adaptive immune systems.

The innate immunity is a phylogenetically ancient system and is generally directed towards immediate non-specific responses to commonly encountered threats in the environment (Janeway et al. 2002). Invasive bacterial pathogens use specific virulence factors that mediate efficient entry into the mammalian cells where they can evade the host immune mechanisms, such as complement- and antibody-mediated killing, and establish a replicative niche (Raskin et al. Cell 2006; Pizarro-Cerdá et al. 2006). This “strategy” ensures that, in most cases, the pathogen proliferates and successfully spreads to a new host. Meanwhile, because it does not require priming or the existence of cells with memory of earlier encounters with pathogens, the host innate immune system can provide a rapid response that serves multiple functions such as pathogen detection, antimicrobial defense, and instruction of an appropriate adaptive immune response (Delbridge et al. 2007). Such immediate activation of the host innate immunity relies on the host detection of conserved microbial motifs known as pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), which are usually vital for microbial survival and, therefore, unlikely to vary in their structures (Akira et al. 2006). Examples of such molecules include parts of the bacterial cell envelope, like lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and peptidoglycan (PGN), flagellin and microbial nucleic acids (i.e. viral RNA or bacterial DNA) (Akira et al. 2006). These PAMPs are recognized by a limited number of germ-line-encoded receptors termed pattern recognition molecules (PRMs). This is unlike the case for the adaptive immune response, which requires somatic gene rearrangement for the

generation of epitope-specific antibodies (Palm et al. 2009). Control of infection does not always require adaptive immunity responses. Nevertheless, when necessary, the innate immune system is also very efficient in instructing the cellular-mediators of the adaptive immune system to generate additional “fighting” forces against the invading pathogens (Palm et al. 2009).

In contrast, the adaptive immune response is a highly specific response system that emerged more recently in the evolutions of vertebrate (Palm et al. 2009). It is concerned primarily with the development of long-lasting defense and memory of threats that have been encountered repeatedly. The ability of the adaptive immune system to adjust and to refine its repertoire over time based on the pathogens that it encounters results in a high level of efficiency. Its mechanisms involve the engagement of receptors that are selected for their reactivity to a specific antigen (i.e. T cells receptors and immunoglobulin receptors on B cells) (Palm et al. 2009). The full development of these responses requires the expansion and differentiation of the specific responder cells, which have the role of establishing a memory for a specific antigen response. Cumulative evidence has shown that both the innate and adaptive immune systems appear to interact to form an efficient overall system of defense (Janeway et al. 2002; Palm et al. 2009).

1.3 Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) overview

1.3.1 IBD clinical description

Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC), the two main types of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD), are chronic, relapsing inflammatory disorders of the GI tract that have a peak age of onset in the second to fourth decade of life. CD was first seen by German surgeon Wilhelm Fabry in 1623 (Fabry 1964), and was later described by and named after the US physician Burril B Crohn (Crohn et al. 1984). UC was first described by the British physician Sir Samuel Wilks in 1859 (Wilks 1859).

IBD patients typically suffer from frequent and chronically relapsing flares resulting in diarrhea, abdominal pain, rectal bleeding and malnutrition (Xavier et al. 2007). CD can be distinguished from UC in that the inflammation associated with CD is transmural (Xavier et al. 2007). The inflammation is often discontinuous, patchy and segmental, and it can affect the patient anywhere in the GI tract from the mouth to the anus (Xavier et al. 2007). However, CD most commonly involves the ileum and the colon and by contrast, the inflammatory changes in UC typically involve only superficial mucosal and submucosal layers of the intestinal wall (Xavier et al. 2007). The diffuse inflammatory pattern usually extends proximally from the rectum up to varying degrees in the colon. The main differences in inflammatory patterns between CD and UC are illustrated in **Figure 1.2**.

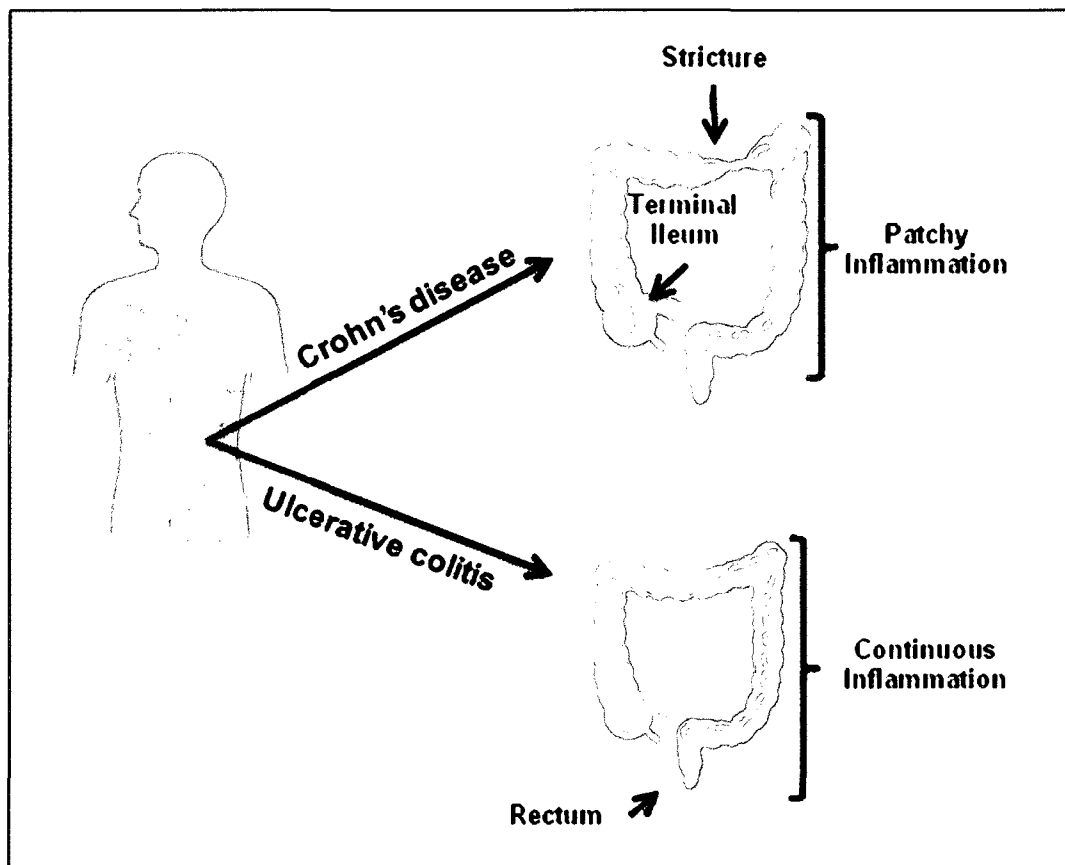


Figure 1.2: Inflammatory distribution patterns of Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis.

Figure modified from (<http://www.humanillnesses.com/original/Her-Kid/Inflammatory-Bowel-Disease.html>)

Patients with IBD often suffer from various extra-intestinal manifestations, and are more likely to be affected by other chronic inflammatory diseases, particularly with primary sclerosing cholangitis, ankylosing spondylitis, and psoriasis (Loftus 2004).

The etiology of CD and UC is complex and not fully understood. The current understanding of these two disorders is that it appears to result from a dysregulated mucosal immune response to gut lumen bacterial antigens in a genetically susceptible host. In the following sections, each sphere (i.e. environmental, genetic, and immunobiology) contributing to IBD pathogenesis will be discussed.

1.3.2 CD & UC incidence

The highest incidence rates and prevalence of CD and UC have been reported from northern Europe, the UK, and North America, where the rates are beginning to stabilize (Baumgart et al. 2007). However, rates continue to rise in low-incidence areas such as southern Europe and Asia (Loftus 2004; Baumgart et al. 2007).

The combined prevalence of CD and UC in developed countries is estimated at 100-200 per 100,000 individuals (Podolsky 2002). In North America, the prevalence of CD in Caucasian individuals is estimated at 43.6 per 100,000 individuals (Kurata et al. 1992; Baumgart et al. 2007). Interestingly, other ethnicities in the same geographic area have a much lower CD prevalence, with 5.6 per 100,000 in Asians and 4.1 per 100,000 in Hispanic individuals (Kurata et al. 1992; Baumgart et al. 2007). These observations are in line with studies showing racial differences in disease location and extra-intestinal disease complications (Nguyen et al. 2006).

1.3.3 IBD environmental risk factors

1.3.3.1 The acquisition, composition & role of the intestinal microbial flora

The bowel is the largest immunological organ of the body that is continuously exposed to interactions between the mucosal immune system and the intestinal microbial flora. It has been reported that an aberrant mucosal immune response to this flora may be involved in the initiation and perpetuation of IBD (Sartor 2008; Xavier et al. 2007). As such, the acquisition and composition of the intestinal microbial flora is one of the most important environmental factors influencing the development of this disorder.

The commensal bacteria community forms one of the most densely populated microbial habitats known in biology (Ley et al. 2006; Gill et al. 2006). Indeed, the mammalian intestine with its stable temperature and rich supply of nutrients provides a hospitable microenvironment for bacteria. The bacterial-derived signals from this flora are essential for normal intestinal physiology (Packey et al. 2008; Artis 2008). For example, commensal bacteria are known to facilitate digestion, absorption and storage of nutrients that would otherwise be inaccessible to the mammalian host (Stappenbeck et al. 2002; Guarner et al. 2003; Bäckhed et al. 2004; Rakoff-Nahoum et al. 2004; MacDonald et al. 2005b). Additionally, acquisition of commensal bacteria promotes the development of the intestinal epithelium, angiogenesis, and protection against tissue injury (Hooper et al. 2001; Rakoff-Nahoum et al. 2004). By occupying this environmental niche, the colonization of the intestine by the beneficial bacterial communities compete

for nutrients and secretion of antimicrobial peptides, which may provide a degree of protection for the host against the rapid colonization by pathogenic microorganisms (Sonnenburg et al. 2004; Bäckhed et al. 2005).

The colonization by commensal bacteria begins at birth with the initial exposure to the flora of the birth canal, and the bacterial communities are reported to reach a density of 10^{12} per ml of luminal contents in the adult human large intestine (Savage 1977; Stark et al. 1982; Benno et al. 1984). This acquisition appears to be the result of opportunistic colonization by particular species as a result of random environmental encounters (Palmer et al. 2007). Environmental and genetic factors have a major influence in the initial composition of commensal bacterial communities, and although a remarkable degree of inter-individual variation has been reported, the composition of the flora has been shown to be relatively stable over time in adults (Zoetendal et al. 1998; Eckburg et al. 2005; Palmer et al. 2007). These latter observations may explain why geographical and temporal variability, as well as lifestyle factors have been associated with the development of IBD (discussed below) since all of these variables may influence these random environmental encounters that participate in elaborating the initial composition of the microbial flora.

1.3.3.2 Geographic, temporal and lifestyle influences

Several groups have reported a geographical gradient existing from Northern to Southern hemispheres correlating with variation in IBD incidence. This is illustrated by the fact that the highest reported incidence rates and

prevalence for CD and UC are from North America and northern Europe, and the lowest reported incidences rates are from South America, southeast Asia, Africa (with the exception of South Africa), and Australia (Loftus 2004; Economou et al. 2008). These observations could also indicate variation in access to, and quality of health care system, as well as differences in industrialization, sanitation, and hygiene. Prevalence has been reported to equilibrate over time with migration to other geographic areas, since immigrants moving from low incidence regions to developed countries were reported to have an increase in incidence rates of IBD (Farrokhyar et al. 2001; Zheng et al. 2005; Baumgart et al. 2007; Economou et al. 2008). Similar to the gradient difference mentioned above, epidemiological studies conducted in North America and Europe have also reported an accumulation of IBD cases in urban compared to rural communities (Farrokhyar et al. 2001; Economou et al. 2008; Aamodt et al. 2008). Again, these results could be explained by different lifestyle habits related to sanitation and hygiene, or differences in access to specialized health care facilities.

Interestingly, several countries with historically lower incidence rates of IBD have shown in the past two decades, a pattern of rising incidence, suggesting that environmental risk factors are also involved (Baumgart et al. 2007; Economou et al. 2008; de Mesquita et al. 2008). Some of these factors may come from the individual's lifestyle, which can also influence the composition of the intestinal microbial flora. Indeed, several studies have reported associations between breastfeeding, hygiene, infection, psychological stress, and appendectomy with susceptibility to developing IBD (Baumgart et al. 2007; de Mesquita et al. 2008).

1.4 IBD Genetic risk factors

1.4.1 Twin study

In recent years, there has been accumulating evidence supporting the involvement of genetic risk factors contributing to IBD pathogenesis. The strongest evidence comes from concordance studies in twins, which represent a specific type of family study that provides a unique opportunity to discern the genetic and environmental contributors to the disease (Hawkes 1997). Because monozygotic twins share the exact same genetic code and dizygotic twins share half of the same genetic code, comparing the concordance rates between monozygotic and dizygotic twins allows the quantifying of the genetic and environmental contributions to disease development (Hawkes 1997). The first reported concordance analysis result (Tysk et al. 1988) was subsequently supported by two other studies (Thompson et al. 1996; Orholm et al. 2000), showing a pooled concordance in monozygotic twins of 37.3% for CD and 10% for UC (Baumgart et al. 2007). In parallel, pooled concordance for dizygotic twins has been reported to be of 7% for CD and 3% for UC (Tysk et al. 1988; Thompson et al. 1996; Orholm et al. 2000; Baumgart et al. 2007). These observations suggested that the genetic contribution in CD was more important than that for UC.

1.4.2 Familial aggregation & first degree relatives

Other evidence for the genetic involvement in IBD includes familial aggregation of the disease (Russell et al. 2004). A positive family history is still considered as one of the largest independent risk factors for IBD; first-degree relatives of affected individuals have a relative risk of five-fold or more of developing IBD (Orholm et al. 1991; Russell et al. 2004; Baumgart et al. 2007). People with CD have a first-degree relative with CD in 2.2-16.2% of cases and with IBD in 5.2-22.5% of cases (Russell et al. 2004; Baumgart et al. 2007). In the case of UC, patients have a first degree relative with UC in 5.7-15.5% of cases and with IBD in 6.6-15.8% of cases (Russell et al. 2004; Baumgart et al. 2007). These results further support the observation that the inheritance component seems to be stronger in CD than in UC (Tysk et al. 1988; Orholm et al. 1991).

1.4.3 Ethnicity

In addition, ethnical aggregation has also been observed in certain communities. For example, CD is known to be more prevalent in Jewish people than in any other ethnic group, a phenomenon known as genetic anticipation (Heresbach et al. 1998; Hampe et al. 2000). UC is three to five times more prevalent in Jewish people, and important epidemiological differences exist between Jewish people living in Israel and those living elsewhere (Niv et al. 2000). In Israel, Ashkenazi Jews have a higher incidence than Sephardi Jews, but a lower incidence than Ashkenazi Jews living in the United States or Northern Europe.

1.4.4 IBD susceptibility genes: candidate vs. genome wide association study (GWAS) approaches

CD and UC are polygenic heterogeneous diseases. It is now known that multiple genes are involved, all conferring a small increase in disease risk, and no single susceptibility gene is either necessary or sufficient to produce IBD (Cho 2008). To help further elucidate the key pathogenic pathways involved in CD and UC, several groups have undertaken genetic association studies. Although compelling evidence from epidemiological studies supporting the role of genetic risk factors in IBD has been available for decades, the identification of the genes involved has proven rather challenging. Indeed, progress in delineating the IBD genetic architecture up until 2006 has been very slow, but recent findings have helped shaped the basis of IBD immunopathogenesis and will be reviewed below.

Broadly, two different strategies have been used when undertaking these genetic studies. The first one is a hypothesis-based approach focusing on specific candidate genes, and the other one is based on hypothesis-free methods and include linkage and genome-wide association studies (GWAS).

1.4.4.1 Hypothesis driven approach: candidate gene

The candidate gene approach is based on the specific attributes of the gene and its encoded protein that could potentially implicate it in the disease pathogenesis. These include expression or functional data, results from linkage studies, animal models, or known associations in other related diseases. This very intuitive approach has had very little success in uncovering novel IBD

susceptibility genes, perhaps due to the poor study designs that have been previously used (Cardon et al. 2001).

1.4.4.2 Hypothesis-free approach: GWAS and linkage

The GWAS hypothesis-free method has evolved from the low-resolution linkage analysis, a method based on multiple affected families that was widely used in the late 1990s. GWAS involves genotyping a large number of SNPs that sample human genetic variations throughout the genome. Several key tools have advanced the development of the GWAS platforms. These include 1) the discovery of more than 10 millions SNPs in the human genome (i.e. dbSNP database), which is a large resource of variants that can be used to evaluate disease association (Sherry et al. 1999; Phillips 2007); 2) the development of a high-resolution genetic map of the human genome by the HapMap project that has allowed to measure the association between alleles of neighboring SNPs (i.e. linkage disequilibrium (LD)) and helped to define haplotypes (International HapMap Consortium 2005; International HapMap Consortium et al. 2007; Manolio et al. 2008); and 3) the development of cutting-edge genotyping platforms that are now capable of analyzing up to 1 million SNPs simultaneously on a single array and at relatively feasible cost (Grant et al. 2008; Beaudet et al. 2008). Indeed, the HapMap database (Manolio et al. 2008) can now be used to design genotyping platforms that can efficiently assay a large fraction of common genetic variants with a minor allele frequency (MAF) greater than 5%. The GWAS approach has addressed and resolved 1) the poor resolution issues of

linkage analysis by offering a much greater coverage of the genome and 2) the poor reproducibility issues of many candidate gene studies by the development and use of stringent statistical thresholds to explicitly account for genome-wide multiple testing and limit the generation of false positive results (Hirschhorn et al. 2005). The GWAS strategy has the advantage of offering an unbiased survey of the whole genome searching for IBD-associated loci, and it can provide novel insights on disease pathways and mechanisms involved in the origin and development of IBD.

1.4.5 The IBD “historical” associations

Until two years ago with the publication of several GWAS, 15 years of endeavor by multiple groups had resulted in the identification of only a few reproducible loci. In 2001, a linkage study and a positional cloning study independently led to the identification of the first CD susceptibility gene, *NOD2* (Hugot et al. 2001; Ogura et al. 2001), which is a pattern-recognition receptor playing a key role in intracellular bacterial sensing and initiation of the innate immune response. Linkage analysis and regional association studies have also identified susceptibility loci in a broad region on chromosome 5 (also referred to IBD5) that contains several potential candidate genes having roles in the inflammatory process (Rioux et al. 2001; Peltekova et al. 2004) and in the 10q23 chromosomal region (disc large homologue 5 (DLG5)) (Stoll et al. 2004), with strong and less consistent replication for IBD5 and DLG5, respectively. Genome-wide linkage studies of CD conducted over the past 15 years have implicated

many other loci on 12 different chromosomes (Gaya et al. 2006). According to their initial date of reporting, the regions on chromosomes 16, 12, 6, 14, 5, 19, 1, 16, and 3 have been renamed as IBD1-9, respectively (Baumgart et al. 2007). No single locus was consistently reported in all these genome scans. The most-well replicated of these loci is IBD3 located on chromosome 6p, where the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) lies (Baumgart et al. 2007). The status for the other loci is less clear. Between 2001-2006, several other groups have reported potential IBD candidate genes using either linkage or candidate gene approaches (Franchimont et al. 2004; Low et al. 2004; McGovern et al. 2005; van Bodegraven et al. 2006; Annese et al. 2006; De Jager et al. 2007), but the results of the vast majority of these studies have not resisted to rigorous analyses and have failed to replicate subsequently (Cardon et al. 2001).

1.4.5.1 NOD2

NOD2 CD associated mutations

As mentioned previously, two independent studies, one using linkage analysis and one using positional cloning, led to the identification of the nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain containing 2 (*NOD2*; also known as *CARD15*), the first CD susceptibility gene (Hugot et al. 2001; Ongura et al. 2001) and perhaps the CD gene that is the most characterized so far. *NOD2* encodes for a protein comprising two caspase-recruitment domains (CARDs), a nucleotide binding site (NBS), and multiple leucine rich repeats (LRR), which recognizes PAMPs (Franchi et al. 2009). Three rare mutations in *NOD2* with a MAF lower

than 5% in healthy individuals were each associated with CD susceptibility. Two of the mutant alleles, Arg702Trp and Gly908Arg, result in single amino acid substitutions within the LRR, whereas the third, Leu1007fsinsC, lead to a frame-shift mutation that removes the last 33 amino acids of the NOD2 polypeptide (Hugot et al. 2001). These findings have been widely replicated across several cohorts of European ancestry, but these mutations appear to be absent in CD patients of Asian ancestry (Yamazaki et al. 2002; Croucher et al. 2003; Leong et al. 2003) and are very rare in patients of African descent (Kugathasan et al. 2005).

It has been estimated that mutations in *NOD2* are present in up to one-third of individuals with CD (Hugot et al. 2001; Ogura et al. 2001). A meta-analysis of 39 studies, all looking at samples from European descent, has estimated an odds ratio for a simple *NOD2* carrier (i.e. heterozygote) of 2.4 (confidence interval (CI): 2.0-2.9) and of 17.1 (CI: 10.7-27.2) for *NOD2* homozygotes or compound heterozygotes (Economou et al. 2004). Despite the high odds ratio associated with these mutations, the disease penetrance is estimated to be very limited, as many patients who are monozygotes for these mutations remain healthy, and even those who develop the disease are commonly asymptomatic for the first 10-15 years of their life (Economou et al. 2004; Hugot et al. 2007). These latter observations suggested that additional genetic and environmental factors acted in conjunction with the *NOD2* variants in contributing to CD development (Hugot et al. 2001; Ogura et al. 2001; Economou et al. 2004; Hugot et al. 2007). Further supporting this latter hypothesis is the fact that *NOD2*-deficient mice do not show evidence of intestinal inflammation (Pauleau et al. 2003; Kobayashi et al. 2005).

NOD2: a PRM for PGN and MDP

NOD2 is an intracellular pattern-recognition molecule (PRM) predominantly expressed in monocytes and Paneth cells that senses for bacterial peptidoglycan (PGN) and that can be activated by muramyl dipeptide (MDP), the minimal bioactive component of PGN (Girardin et al. 2003; Inohara et al. 2003). PGN is present in both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, is responsible for providing shape and mechanical rigidity to bacteria, and is composed of glycan chains that contain alternating *N*-acetylmuramic acid (MurNAc) and *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc) sugars cross-linked to each other by short peptides (Carneiro et al. 2007). During the bacterial life cycle, PGN is constantly degraded by specific hydrolases as newly synthesized subunits are integrated into the polymeric structure to allow different processes such as cell division (Carneiro et al. 2007). The PGN degradation leads to the formation of muropetides, such as MDP, that have strong immunomodulatory properties and that are recognized by NOD2 (Girardin et al. 2003; Boneca 2005).

NOD2: initiation of innate immune response

NOD2 is thus known to play a key role in initiating the innate immune response to bacterial bi-product. The consequence of NOD2 activation is thought to largely result in the activation of nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) (Inohara et al. 2003). NF- κ B is a heterodimeric transcription factor and crucial component of the inflammatory response. It is involved in the regulation of genes encoding for proinflammatory cytokines, adhesion molecules, chemokines, growth factors, and

inducible enzymes such as cyclooxygenase 2 and inducible nitric oxide synthase (Baldwin 2001; Carneiro et al. 2007). The production of these inflammatory mediators is needed to facilitate clearance of bacteria (Kelsall 2005).

PGN or MDP sensing is thus followed by oligomerization of NOD2 protein, which in turn recruits a serine-threonine kinase called Rip2 (also known as RICK or CARDIAK), through homotypic CARD-CARD interactions (Carneiro et al. 2008). Rip2 then interacts with IKK γ (also known as NEMO), the regulatory subunit of the I κ B kinase (IKK) complex, promoting its ubiquitination and subsequent degradation of I κ B α , which in steady state condition retains NF- κ B in the cytosol (Carneiro et al. 2008). Once degraded, NF- κ B is released and translocates into the nucleus, where it drives the transcription of target genes (Burns et al. 2004).

Functional consequences of carrying NOD2 mutations

The CD-associated *NOD2* mutations are located in or close to the C-terminal LRR region of NOD2 (Hugot et al. 2001; Ogura et al. 2001). The CD-associated mutations are thought to interfere with the ability of NOD2 to recognize the ligand, resulting in a reduced capacity to activate NF- κ B in response to MDP stimulation (Cho 2008). Yet, the precise mechanism by which *NOD2* mutations contribute to CD susceptibility remains controversial as multiple alterations of NOD2 function have been reported and proposed. Van Heel *et al.* performed detailed functional analyses in human peripheral monocytes and reported that CD-associated *NOD2* mutations caused a “loss of function”

phenotype characterized by impaired interleukin (IL)-1 β secretion upon stimulation with MDP or PGN (van Heel et al. 2006). Additional studies using cells derived from CD patients also showed defective NOD2 signaling in monocytes carrying the mutations, characterized by diminished MDP-mediated secretion of IL-1 β or IL-8 (Li et al. 2004; van Heel et al. 2005). Finally, an inappropriate immune response has also been reported in MDP stimulated dendritic cells from CD patients harboring NOD2 mutations, which was characterized by suppression of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 secretion, suggesting a loss of regulatory elements required to contain the inflammatory response (Kramer et al. 2006).

In a study where Watanabe *et al.* looked at determining the conditions leading to the development of colitis in mice with NOD2 deficiency, they report that colitis was highly dependent on TLR2 function since it was suppressed in NOD2 and TLR2 double-deficient mice (Watanabe et al. 2006). They suggested that NOD2-deficient mice become susceptible to colitis as a result of increased TLR2 responses when they have the capacity to respond to an antigen expressed by mucosal bacteria (Watanabe et al. 2006). Additional research is needed to evaluate whether NOD2 cross-talk with other PRMs.

In contrast to the loss-of-function mechanisms suggested above, Maeda *et al.* suggested a “gain-of-function” scenario associated with the NOD2 variants (Maeda et al. 2005). This group generated a knockout-knockin *NOD2* mouse by introducing a mutation homologous to the human L1007fsinsC mutation. Stimulation of macrophages from this mouse with MDP or PGN resulted in a

more effective activation of RIP2 and NF- κ B as well as an enhanced caspase-1 mediated IL-1 β processing and release (Maeda et al. 2005). They suggested that the CD-associated NOD2 mutations resulted in a “gain-of-function phenotype”, and that the enhanced IL-1 β release from the macrophages could contribute to the intestinal inflammation through the activation of a broader range of pro-inflammatory genes in an autocrine or paracrine manner (Maeda et al. 2005). Given that these latter results are in contrast to the reports demonstrating blunted responses to MDP or PGN in human cells expressing the NOD2 mutations, further species-specific and cell type-specific research is still needed to elucidate the function of the NOD2 CD-associated mutations.

NOD2: an anti-bacterial factor

NOD2 has also been proposed to act as an anti-bacterial factor in human epithelial cells. Indeed, the expression of NOD2 frameshift mutant (Leu1007fsinsC) in intestinal epithelial cells resulted in an impaired capacity of these cells to control *Salmonella typhimurium* intracellular growth (Hisamatsu et al. 2003). NOD2 is also expressed in Paneth cells, which are located in the epithelial crypts along the GI tract (Elphick et al. 2005; Wehkamp et al. 2006). These cells provide protection against intraluminal bacteria by secreting anti-bacterial substances such as defensins (Elphick et al. 2005; Wehkamp et al. 2006). Kobayashi *et al.* reported that NOD2-deficient mice exhibit decreased defensin expression that is associated with an inability to detect MDP, and an increased susceptibility to oral infection with *Listeria monocytogenes* (Kobayashi et al.

2005). It has also been reported that CD patients carrying NOD2 mutations have decreased expression of human defensins 5 and 6 in affected ileum tissues (Wehkamp et al. 2005). This same study showed that CD patients bearing NOD2 mutations have a significant decrease in α -defensin expression (Wehkamp et al. 2005). Such decrease in expression may contribute to the impairment of microbial clearance at mucosal surfaces and could partially account for the increased colonization of entero-adherent *Escherichia coli* observed in the ileal mucosa of some CD patients (Darfeuille-Michaud et al. 2004). Overall, these observations support a “loss-of-function” scenario and suggest that, in normal conditions, NOD2 expression in Paneth cells may contribute to epithelial host defense against bacterial insults through the induction of anti-bacterial peptides such as defensins; NOD2 variants might lead to failure to activate those defense mechanisms, resulting in increased bacterial burden followed by mucosal inflammation (Fritz et al. 2006; Franchi et al. 2009).

The precise role of NOD2 as a mediator of innate immunity remains poorly understood, but it is clearly a key sensor of intracellular bacterial MDP, and abnormalities in the handling of intracellular bacteria are emerging as a key theme in CD pathogenesis (Cho 2008).

1.4.5.2 IBD5

The first evidence for a susceptibility locus in the 5q31 region was obtained through linkage analysis of Canadian CD affected sibling pair families (Rioux et al. 2001). Fine mapping of this linkage region led to the identification of a 250-kb haplotype conferring susceptibility to CD (Rioux et al. 2001). However, the identification of the causal gene(s) and variant(s) responsible for the association signal has proven challenging because of the strong linkage disequilibrium (LD) in the region (Rioux et al. 2001; Reinhard et al. 2006). This region contains a cytokine gene cluster comprising several genes important in the maintenance of epithelial integrity and immunoregulation such as interferon regulatory factor-1 (*IRF1*), IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13, and organic cation transporters (OCTN) 1 and 2 (Reinhard et al. 2006).

Peltekova *et al.* reported a two-locus risk haplotype in the region of the OCTN genes and suggested that these accounted for the CD associations (Peltekova et al. 2004). More specifically, this group identified mutations within OCTN1 (*SLC22A4*; 1672C/T or L503F) and OCTN2 (*SLC22A5*; -207G/C) and reported an association between the haplotype comprising the risk alleles (-TC) and increased susceptibility to CD (Peltekova et al. 2004). Although a large number of replication studies have confirmed the association with the IBD5 locus, detailed analyses in the Canadian and other populations that included other polymorphisms in the IBD5 locus demonstrated that several other candidates within this cytokine gene cluster are as likely to be the causative genes as well,

thus leaving the question as to which is the causative IBD5 variant(s) unanswered (Silverberg 2006; Reinhard et al. 2006; Silverberg et al. 2007).

1.4.5.3 DLG5

Located on chromosome 10q23, *DLG5* is the human homolog of the drosophila gene discs large homolog 5 (Stoll et al. 2004; Friedrichs et al. 2006). *DLG5* is a member of the membrane-associated guanylate kinase (MAGUK) family of scaffolding proteins known to be important in signal transduction and epithelial-cell integrity (Stoll et al. 2004; Friedrichs et al. 2006). Since the paper of Stoll *et al.* reporting DLG5 as a novel CD susceptibility locus (Stoll et al. 2004), there have been several additional studies evaluating variants of the DLG5 region in CD, but only a few reported replication and association with CD (Friedrichs et al. 2006). The exact reasons for the discrepancies amongst the studies remain unknown, but a recently published meta-analysis including most published studies suggested that DLG5 does not play a major role in CD susceptibility (Browning et al. 2007).

1.4.5.4 MHC complex

The most convincing evidence for linkage to IBD across all populations according to two large meta-analyses, is located on chromosome 6 (IBD2), which encodes for the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) (Williams et al. 2002; van Heel et al. 2004). In addition to linkage studies, GWAS and candidate gene studies have also implicated variants located in the MHC complex in IBD

susceptibility, especially in UC (Satsangi et al. 1996; Stokkers et al. 1999; Franke et al. 2008a; Fisher et al. 2008; Kugathasan et al. 2008; Silverberg et al. 2009). This region comprises several immunoregulatory genes, including the human leukocyte antigens (*HLA*) genes and tumor necrosis factor alpha ($TNF-\alpha/TNF$), and has met the criteria of GWA significance in a published meta-analysis of approximately 2000 affected sibling pairs (van Heel et al. 2004). There is a possibility that more than one susceptibility locus within the larger HLA region contributes to IBD. However, the extensive LD across the region and the genetic heterogeneity between the different studied populations (i.e. European and Japanese) has limited the identification of the causal variant(s) (de Bakker et al. 2006). Despite the fact that the pro-inflammatory cytokine *TNF* could be a strong candidate for the region, numerous candidate gene association studies have failed to clearly demonstrating its implication in CD (Bouma et al. 1996; Cantor et al. 2005; Tremelling et al. 2006).

1.4.6 Genome wide association studies: bringing further insight into IBD pathogenesis

The introduction of GWAS has produced sea-change in complex disease genetics and has been particularly successful in CD, leading to the discovery of several new putative susceptibility genes. Seven independent CD GWAS with varying size and power were published between 2005-2007 (Yamazaki K et al. 2005; Duerr et al. 2006; Hampe et al. 2007; Rioux et al. 2007; Libioulle et al. 2007; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a; Parkes et al. 2007;

Franke et al. 2007; Raelson et al. 2007), together with one meta-analysis of three of these CD GWAS (Barrett et al. 2008), and one GWAS in IBD pediatric patients (Kugathasan et al. 2008). Additionally, three GWAS conducted specifically on UC were reported between 2008-2009 (Franke et al. 2008a; Fisher et al. 2008; Silverberg et al. 2009). The features and main results of these studies are summarized in **Tables 1.1** and **1.2**.

Table 1.1: Compilation of the genome-wide association studies results

Population and Study	Disease	Sample size (cases-controls) ^a	Genotyping technology platforms	Chromosome	Genes or loci	Best associated SNPs	Location ^o
Japanese ^a	CD	94-752	72K	9q32	TNFSF15	rs6478108	116598524
German ^b	CD	735-368	7K (nsSNPs)	2q37.1	ATG16L1	rs2241880	233848107
North American (European) ^{c,d}	CD	946-977	304K (Illumina HumanHap 300)	1p31	IL23R	rs7517847	67454257
				2q37.1	ATG16L1	rs2241880	233848107
				4p12	PHOX2B	rs16853571	41447887
				10q21	None	rs224136	64140681
				16q24.1	FAM92B	rs8050910	83696674
				22q13.1	NCF4	rs4821544	35588449
Belgian/French ^e	CD	547-928	302K (Illumina HumanHap 300)	1p31	IL23R	rs11209026	67478546
				5p13.1	Gene desert	rs1002922	40422312
United Kingdom ^{f,g}	CD	1748-2938	469K (Affymetrix 500K)	1p31	IL23R	rs11805303	67448104
				2q37.1	ATG16L1	rs10210302	233823578
				3p21	MST1	rs9858542	49676987
				5p13.1	Gene desert	rs9292777	40473705
				5q33.1	IRGM	rs13361189	150203580
				10q21	None	rs10761659	64115570
				10q24.2	NKX2-3	rs10883365	101277754
				18p11.3-p11.2	PTPN2	rs2542151	12769947

German^h	CD	393-399	92K (Affymetrix 100K)	11p15.2-p15.1	NELL1	rs1793004	20655505
				5p13.1	Gene desert	rs1992660	40450824
Quebecⁱ	CD	382 trios	164K (Perlegen)	1p31	IL23R	rs7518660	67458031
				3p21.3	Many	rs1131095	49689229
				4p16.1	JAKMIP1/LOC285484	rs10003892	6257685
				17q11.1	Many	rs4435306	23573843
				17q22-q23	Many	rs6504016	56513025
German^j	UC	1167-777	440K (Affymetrix 5.0)	1q32	IL10	rs3024505	205006527
				2q35	ARP2C	rs12612347	218765583
				6p21	HLA-DRA/HLA class II	rs9268877, rs9268480, rs9268858	32471822-32539125
				1p31	IL23R	rs11805303	67448104
United Kingdom^k	UC	905-1465	10.8K (rsNPs)	1q21.2	ECM1	rs3737240, rs13294	148749979-148751611
				6p21	HLA-DRA/HLA class II	rs6927022	32720375
				3p21	MST1	rs3197999	49696536
				1p31	IL23R	rs11209026	67478546
				5q31.1-q33.1	IL12B	rs6556416	158751323
				10q24.2	NKX2-3	rs10883365	101277754

North American (European) ^j	UC	1052-2571	300K and 500k (Illumina Human Hap 300v2 & HumanHap550v3)	1p36	PLA2G2E	rs6426833	20044447
				1p36	RNF186	rs3806308	20015453
				12q15	IFNG/IL22	rs1558744	66790859
				12q15	IL26	rs2870946	66882928
				1p31	IL23R	rs11209026, rs10889677	67478546- 67497708
				6p21	HLA-DRA/HLA class II	rs2395185	32541145
North American (European: pediatric- onset) ^m	IBD	1011-4250	517K (Illumina Human Hap550)	20q13	TNFRSF6B	rs2315008, rs4809330	61814400- 61820030
				21q22	PSMG1	rs2836878	39387404
				6p21	HLA-DRA/HLA class II	rs2395185, rs477515, rs2516049, rs9271568	32541145- 32698441

^a Yamazaki K et al. 2005; ^b Hampe et al. 2007; ^c Duerr et al. 2006; ^d Rioux et al. 2007; ^e Libioulle et al. 2007; ^f Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a; ^g Parkes et al. 2007; ^h Franke et al. 2007; ⁱ Raelson et al. 2007; ^j Franke et al. 2008a; ^k Fisher et al. 2008; ^l Silverberg et al. 2009; ^m Kugathasan et al. 2008; ⁿ Sample numbers that were successfully genotyped; ^o Position according to dbSNP build 129, NCBI Build 36.1 (hg18).

Table 1.2: Genome-wide association studies results: brief description of the associated gene function

Genes/ loci	Gene function	Disease ⁿ	Studies ^o
<i>TNFSF15</i>	Encodes a cytokine of the tumor necrosis factor (TNF) ligand family, which is induced by TNF and can activate NFκB (Yamazaki K et al. 2005)	CD	Japanese ^a
<i>ATG16L1</i>	Involved in autophagy, which removes intracellular pathogens and supports both the innate and acquired immune response (Xavier et al. 2008)	CD	German ^b , North American ^d , United Kingdom ^{f,g}
<i>PHOX2B</i>	Homeobox transcription factor involved in neural crest development. <i>PHOX2B</i> is mutated in hypoventilation syndrome, neuroblastoma and Hirschsprung disease (Cargnin et al. 2005; Pasqualetti et al. 2001).	CD	North American ^{c,d}
<i>FAM92B</i>	Predicted gene supported by multiple mRNAs, spliced ESTs and significant conservation across multiple species. It encodes a protein with no known function or recognizable motifs (Rioux et al. 2007)	CD	North American ^{c,d}
<i>NCF4</i>	The regulatory component of the superoxide-producing phagocyte NADPH-oxidase, which is involved in host defense (Ellson et al. 2006; Suh CI et al. 2006).	CD	North American ^{c,d}
Gene desert	Implicated in the regulation of prostaglandin E receptor 4 gene (PTGER4) (Libioulle et al. 2007)	CD	North American ^{c,d} , United Kingdom ^{f,g} , German ^h
<i>IRGM</i>	Involved in autophagy, which removes intracellular pathogens and supports both the innate and acquired immune response (Xavier RJ et al. 2008).	CD	United Kingdom ^{f,g}
<i>NKX2-3</i>	Homeobox transcription factor required for T- and B-cell localization in the spleen and mesenteric lymph nodes (Pabst et al. 2000).	CD	United Kingdom ^{f,g, k}
<i>PTPN2</i>	Encodes a T-cell protein tyrosine phosphatase and is a negative regulator of inflammatory response (Parkes et al. 2007)	CD	United Kingdom ^{f,g}
<i>NELL1</i>	Encodes a protein containing epidermal growth factor (EGF)-like repeats. Aberrant expression in mice is associated with defects in cranial and skeletal development (Franke et al. 2007)	CD	German ^h
<i>JAKMIP1</i>	JAKMIP1 is involved in IL23 signaling and binds to TYK2, a member of the Janus (tyrosine) kinase (Jak) family, which is associated with the IL12RB chain and mediates STAT-4 activation (Watford et al. 2004).	CD	Quebec ⁱ
<i>LOC285484</i>	LOC285484, contains a characteristic high-mobility group (HMG)-box domain (Yang D et al. 2007).	CD	Quebec ⁱ
<i>IL10</i>	<i>IL10</i> ^{-/-} mice develop spontaneous colitis phenotype, resulting from a defective anti-inflammatory counter-regulation in response to the commensal flora (Sellon et al. 1998). Therapeutic administration of human recombinant IL10 to individuals with UC had a positive clinical effect (Shreiber et al. 1995; Fedorak et al. 2000)	UC	German ^j
<i>ARP2C</i>	The Arp2/3 protein complex has been implicated in the control of actin polymerization in cells. It interacts with protein encoded by <i>WAS</i> gene, which is involved in the regulation of T cells (Marangoni et al. 2007).	UC	German ^j
<i>HLA-DRA/ HLA class II</i>	Supports the large body of evidence supporting an association between classical HLA loci and UC (Stokkers et al. 1999).	UC	German ^j , United Kingdom ^k , North American ^{l,m}
<i>ECM1</i>	Encodes the extracellular matrix protein 1, a glycoprotein expressed in the small and large intestine, interacting with the basement membrane, inhibiting matrix metalloproteinase 9 (Chan et al. 2007), and strongly activating NFκB signaling (Matsuda et al. 2003).	UC	United Kingdom ^k

<i>IL12B</i>	Encodes a subunit shared by IL-12 and IL-23. It is involved in the Th17 pathways and cell-mediated immunity against infectious pathogens (Abraham C and Cho JH. Ann Rev Med 2008)	UC	United Kingdom ^k
<i>PLA2G2E</i>	Member of the secretory phospholipase A2 family of proteins that release arachidonic acid from membrane phospholipids, leading to the production of proinflammatory lipid mediators, such as prostaglandins and leukotrienes (Murakami et al. 2002). PLA2G2E expression in small intestine is induced by LPS, suggesting a role in bacterially associated inflammation (Suzuki et al. 2000).	UC	North American ^l
<i>RNF186</i>	Ring finger protein 186 (RNF186). Ring finger proteins are involved in ubiquitination of proteins and in diverse cellular processes (Joazeiro et al. 2000).	UC	North American ^l
<i>IFNG/IL22</i>	INF-g is critical in the immune response to pathogens, through regulation of macrophage function; it regulated many levels of immune homeostasis, including T-cell subsets, NK cells and NKT cells (Schoenborn et al. 2007). IL-22 mediates host defense to bacterial pathogens (Aujla et al. 2007) as well as protection during acute inflammation, including intestinal inflammation (Sugimoto et al. 2008).	UC	North American ^l
<i>IL26</i>	IL-26 is secreted by Th17 cells, which mediate host defense against infections as well as tissue inflammation in chronic immune mediated diseases, including IBD (Aujla et al. 2007)	UC	North American ^l
<i>IL23R</i>	Key differentiation feature of CD4 ⁺ Th17 cells, which are effector cells that are critical in mediating antimicrobial defenses (Abraham Clara et al. 2009)	CD, UC	North American ^{c,d,l} , Belgian/French ^e , United Kingdom ^{f,g,k} , Quebec ⁱ , German ^j
<i>MST1</i>	Macrophage stimulating 1 (MST1) encodes a protein inducing phagocytosis and involved in suppressing cell-mediated immunity by down-regulating IL-12 (Morrison et al. 2004).	CD, UC	United Kingdom ^{f,g,k}
<i>TNFRSF6B</i>	Involved in both antigen-presenting cell differentiation and lymphocyte function (Hsu TL et al. 2002; Chang et al. 2008).	IBD	North American (European: pediatric-onset) ^m
<i>PSMG1</i>	The proteasome assembly chaperone 1 (PSMG1) is involved in the maturation of the mammalian 20S proteasomes (Hirano et al. 2005). Modest increased in PSMG1 colonic expression was observed in IBD patients compared to controls (Kugathasan et al. 2008).	IBD	North American (European: pediatric-onset) ^m

^a Yamazaki K et al. 2005; ^b Hampe et al. 2007; ^c Duerr et al. 2006; ^d Rioux et al. 2007; ^e Libioulle et al. 2007; ^f Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a; ^g Parkes et al. 2007; ^h Franke et al. 2007; ⁱ Raelson et al. 2007; ^j Franke et al. 2008a; ^k Fisher et al. 2008; ^l Silverberg et al. 2009; ^m Kugathasan et al. 2008; ⁿ Disease where associations were observed; ^o Studies reporting associations for each gene.

Although the effect size of each gene and locus identified so far, with the exception of *NOD2* and *IL23R*, is relatively modest (odds ratios of 1.2-1.7 per risk allele) (Barrett et al. 2008), the importance of their discovery is highlighted by the newly uncovered genes, the pathways in which they are involved, and the discovery of previously unsuspected mechanisms that suggest a predisposition to chronic intestinal inflammation. In addition to the several new susceptibility loci identified by these GWAS, more importantly are the novel loci that were reported by more than one study as well as the distinct signals from different genes all part of or converging toward the same pathway. Indeed, some clear themes emerged, building on both the prior knowledge of association with *NOD2* and the recognition of the importance of bacterial drivers in contributing to intestinal inflammation. In addition to the importance of the role of *NOD2* in intracellular bacterial sensing to initiate the immune response, two novel key pathways also contributing to IBD pathophysiology have been uncovered and confirmed by several studies: the activation of naïve CD4⁺ T cells by the IL-12/IL-23 pathways and the cellular process of autophagy (Cho 2008). Both pathways will be briefly reviewed.

1.4.6.1 IL-23R and CD association

Amongst the first GWAS published for any disease, Duerr *et al.* reported a strong association between variants in the IL23 receptor (*IL23R*) region, located on chromosome 1p31, and CD and UC susceptibility (Duerr et al. 2006). This association result was subsequently replicated in several GWAS by groups from

Belgium-France (Libioulle et al. 2007), United Kingdom (Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a; Parkes et al. 2007) and Quebec (Raelson et al. 2007) (see **Tables 1.1-1.2**). A rare, highly conserved amino acid polymorphism (Arg381Gln) located in the cytoplasmic domain of the receptor, was found to confer approximately three-fold protection against developing CD in heterozygous individuals, with a more modest protective effect observed in UC (Duerr et al. 2006). Multiple other *IL23R* variants, encompassing 7 of the 12 exons of *IL23R* as well as the intergenic region between *IL23R* and its homologue *IL12RB2*, showed additional independent associations (Duerr et al. 2006). The patterns of LD amongst these latter variants suggested the presence of multiple independent susceptibility alleles (Duerr et al. 2006). The *IL23R* associations were not replicated in a well-powered CD cohort from Japan (Yamazaki et al. 2007).

IL-23 signaling pathway and association with CD & UC

The IL-23R complex is composed of the IL-23R and IL-12RB1 (chromosome 19p13) subunits, the latter also being part of the IL-12 receptor complex (Parham et al. 2002). The IL-23 cytokine is composed of p19 (IL23A, chromosome 12q13) and p40 (IL12B, chromosome 5q33) subunits, the latter being also part of the IL-12 cytokine (Oppmann et al. 2000). Following the engagement of IL-23R by IL-23, Janus kinase 2 (JAK2) is activated, resulting in JAK2 autophosphorylation and phosphorylation of IL-23R (Abraham et al. 2009). This in turn leads in the recruitment, phosphorylation, homodimerization, and nuclear translocation of STAT3 transcription factor, as well as the activation of

STAT1, STAT4, and STAT5 (Parham et al. 2002; Abraham et al. 2009). Interestingly, in a recently published meta-analysis of three large GWAS (Barrett et al. 2008), four regions among the top 32 associated with CD are known to play a direct role in IL-23 signaling, highlighting the importance of this pathway in the CD immunopathogenesis. These include *IL23R*, p40 (*IL12B*), *STAT3*, and *JAK2*, which were ranked respectively 1, 11, 12, and 30 in terms of significance (Barrett et al. 2008). Although the causal alleles have not been identified in these candidates because of the LD patterns in these regions, this meta-analysis has very likely identified the genes responsible for the association signals in these regions. Noteworthy, disease-associations with variants in the *IL23R* region have also been reported to confer susceptibility to UC (Duerr et al. 2006; Franke et al. 2008a; Franke et al. 2008b; Fisher et al. 2008; Silverberg et al. 2009), psoriasis (Cargill et al. 2007), and ankylosing spondylitis (Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium et al. 2007b).

IL-23/IL-12 pathway: Role in determining naïve CD4⁺ T cells differentiation

Although no functional studies of the associated polymorphisms have yet been reported, these association results are indisputable and provide genetic corroboration of the recently published functional data highlighting the importance of this pathway in inflammation. Indeed, the IL-23/IL-12 pathway plays a key role in determining the differentiation of naïve CD4⁺ T cells into effector T helper 1 (Th1) cells (driven by IL-12) or T helper 17 (Th17) cells

(driven by IL-23) (Abraham et al. 2009). The Th1 cells mediate immunity against intracellular microbes via the secretion of interferon gamma (INF γ) and TNF- α , resulting in macrophage activation and IgG production (Abraham et al. 2009). The Th17 cells are characterized by the production of IL-17, TNF- α , IL-6, IL-21, IL-22, and IL-26 (Murphy et al. 2003; Hue et al. 2006). These cells mediate defense against a broad range of pathogens, including extracellular Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, as well as fungi (Bettelli et al. 2008). Th17 cells have also been shown to play a key role in driving organ-specific autoimmune inflammation in a number of animal models (Wiekowski et al. 2001).

Role of IL-23 in inflammation

The association between *IL23R* and CD further supports the recently proposed role of IL-23 in mucosal inflammation, where IL-23 activation of the Th17 T cells results in production of IL-17 and promotion of chronic inflammation (Neurath 2007; Xavier et al. 2007). Noteworthy, the observation of increased levels of expression of IL-17 and IL-23 in the intestinal lamina propria of CD patients brings support to the *in vivo* importance of the IL-23 signaling pathway in human IBD (Fujino et al. 2003; Schmidt et al. 2005; Hölttä et al. 2008; Fina et al. 2008). Additionally, other murine models of colitis have further demonstrated the role of the IL-23 pathway in mediating intestinal inflammation either through deficiency or blockade of IL-23 (Kullberg et al. 2006; Yen et al. 2006; Hue et al. 2006; Uhlig et al. 2006; Elson et al. 2007; Izcue et al. 2008). For example, treating IL-10-deficient mice with monoclonal antibodies specific for p19 improved the spontaneous intestinal inflammation usually observed in these

mice (Wiekowski et al. 2001). This treatment was also shown to ameliorate the inflammation in the offspring of IL-10-deficient mice and p19-deficient mice crosses.

IL-23/IL-12: therapeutic targets

It has been shown that blocking antibodies specific for p40 inhibit both IL-23 and IL-12 induced signaling, whereas p19-specific antibodies only inhibit IL-23 induced signaling (Abraham et al. 2009). More precisely, the administration of p40-specific antibodies has proven to be a promising approach for treating CD by blocking both the IL-23 and IL-12 activities (Mannon et al. 2004). However, since these pathways also play a key role in mediating anti-microbial defense mechanisms, the risk of infectious complication will need to be considered. One proposed solution is to specifically block the IL-23 pathway using a monoclonal antibody against p19 (Abraham et al. 2009). Such an antibody has proven to be effective in both the prevention and treatment of a murine model of CD4⁺ T cell-mediated colitis (Elson et al. 2007), suggesting a potentially new effective therapeutic approach for treating CD patients (Elson et al. 2007).

1.4.6.2 CD and the autophagy pathway

The latest GWAS breakthroughs have expanded the role of the innate immunity components beyond the already implicated *NOD2* to include two separate members of the autophagy cellular process, *ATG16L1* and *IRGM* (Hampe et al. 2007; Parkes et al. 2007). Both these genes may play a key role in

the autophagy process by which cells recycle redundant organelles (Hampe et al. 2007; Parkes et al. 2007). More importantly for CD, this process also plays an important role in defense against intracellular micro-organisms by encapsulating/eliminating microbes that invade the cytosol (Birmingham et al. 2006; Nakagawa et al. 2004). Whether bacteria penetrate the cytoplasm by invasion or escape from endocytic vesicles; they are usually engulfed by the autophagy process (Deretic 2006). Once bacteria are compartmentalized within autophagosomes, the cell can use a variety of mechanisms to eliminate them, including the generation of a locally hostile environment within the vesicle by fusing with lysosomes and activating respiratory burst cascades (Radtke et al. 2006).

The autophagy process is an important part of the innate response to remove intracellular bacteria and viruses, and is also linked to adaptive immunity by degradation of intracellular proteins with subsequent MHC class II antigen processing (Schmid et al. 2006; Münz 2006). Interestingly, it has long been hypothesized that commensal intestinal bacterial predispose individuals to CD but without any good understanding as to how; defects in the autophagy process may be one of these missing mechanisms.

ATG16L1

ATG16L1 (autophagy-related 16-like 1), located on chromosome 2q37.1, is a member of the family of genes involved in the autophagy process. This gene is expressed in the intestinal epithelial cells, antigen-presenting cells, CD4⁺,

CD8⁺, and CD19⁺ primary human T cells (Hampe et al. 2007; Rioux et al. 2007). Functional knockouts of this gene have been reported to markedly impair the autophagy process of the intracellular pathogen *S. typhimurium* in intestinal epithelial cells, and have demonstrated that *ATG16L1* is essential for the formation of autophagosomes in response to serum starvation or bacterial infection (Rioux et al. 2007).

The association between *ATG16L1* and CD was first identified (Hampe et al. 2007) using a 20k non-synonymous SNP array. This finding has since been replicated in at least two independent groups (**Tables 1.1-1.2**; Rioux et al. 2007; Parkes et al. 2007; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a). One variant (Ala281Thr/T300A/rs2241880) was found to be highly associated with CD, with the less common threonine allele conferring protection to CD. Following haplotype and regression analyses, this variant was found to explain the entire association signal observed at the *ATG16L1* locus. The exact functional impact of this variant remains unclear. The ATG16L1 protein comprises an N-terminal APG16 domain consisting of coiled-coil domains and eight C-terminal WD repeats (Hampe et al 2007). The Ala281Thr substitution is located at the N-terminus of the WD-repeat domain, which is an evolutionarily conserved domain (Hampe et al. 2007). A study showed that in cultured epithelial cells, the *ATG16L1*300A* allele had no effect on housekeeping autophagy but caused a defective autophagic response to invasive bacteria (Kuballa et al. 2008). In addition, the same group reported that the *ATG16L1*300A* protein was unstable in infected epithelial cells, a feature not seen with the protective *ATG16L1*300T* allele (Kuballa et al. 2008).

IRGM

IRGM (immunity-related guanosine triphosphatase) encodes another important component of the autophagy process. The association between *IRGM* variants and CD susceptibility was first observed in the Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium (WTCCC) GWA scan (Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a; Parkes et al. 2007). Sequencing of *IRGM* in CD patients and healthy controls did not identify any causal amino acid changes that could explain the association signal (Parkes et al. 2007; McCarroll et al. 2008). However, a recent publication by McCarroll *et al.* identified a common 20-kb deletion polymorphism located immediately upstream of *IRGM* and in perfect LD with the most strongly CD-associated SNP (McCarroll et al. 2008). They reported that the deletion (CD risk) and the reference (CD protective) haplotypes of *IRGM* showed distinct expression patterns and that manipulation of *IRGM* expression levels modulated the cellular autophagy of internalized bacteria (McCarroll et al. 2008). This group suggested that the CD associations at *IRGM* locus arose from an alteration in *IRGM* regulation, affecting the efficacy of autophagy (McCarroll et al. 2008).

IRGM belongs to an emerging family of genes encoding interferon-inducible guanosine triphosphatases (IRGs) involved in pathogen clearance (Taylor 2007). The protein encoded by *IRGM* exists in a number of isoforms and binds GTP to induce autophagy and subsequently generate large autolysosomal organelles as a mechanism for eliminating intracellular bacteria (Singh et al. 2006). Mice deficient in *IRGM* have an impaired capacity to eliminate the

intracellular pathogens *Toxoplasma gondii* and *L. monocytogenes* (Collazo et al. 2001). Moreover, *IRGM* knockdowns in human macrophages leads to markedly prolonged survival of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, demonstrating that *IRGM* is necessary to induce autophagy in order to efficiently eliminate intracellular mycobacteria (Singh et al. 2006).

1.5 IBD and genetics of the innate immune system

In general, the main genetic associations in IBD can be divided into genes that contribute to the innate immune response and those that contribute to the adaptive immune response. The trigger of the innate immunity seems to be a prerequisite for the excessive activation of the adaptive immune response, while the latter is thought to be the proximate driver of tissue damage that is observed in IBD patients (Xavier et al. 2007).

Confirmed genes of the innate immune subgroup comprise *NOD2* and the two autophagy-related genes, *ATG16L1* and *IRGM*. Interestingly, these three associations have been reported to be specific to CD as several studies showed no associations with UC, suggesting that both alterations in the recognition and intracellular processing of bacterial components constitute a central feature of CD pathogenesis (Cho et al. 2008; Fisher et al. 2008; Franke et al. 2008b). At the time the two first projects described in this thesis were initiated (Chapters 2-4), the knowledge in the field of IBD genetics was limited to the pre-GWAS era, and much focus was still on *NOD2* and its central role as an intracellular bacteria

sensor. Hence, the topics of the two first projects, focusing on genes encoding proteins also involved in intracellular bacterial sensing, were selected with the knowledge that the processes of monitoring the intestinal luminal contents and microbial flora as well as titrating the mucosal response were probably central to the functional integrity of the mucosa, and thus could be involved in the susceptibility of CD and UC.

1.6 The first family of PRMs: Toll-like receptor (TLR) family

The fact that commensal bacteria may influence the development and function of the immune system, coupled with evidence that alterations in the acquisition or composition of the microbial community can influence disease susceptibility, supports a model in which members of the mammalian innate immune system are constantly sampling the dynamic composition of commensal communities (Artis 2008).

For almost two decades, Charles Janeway and his colleagues have suggested that the innate immune system recognizes the signature of pathogens collectively called pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) (Medzhitov et al. 1998; Janeway et al. 2002). In the past decade, the discovery of many microbial sensors termed “pattern-recognition molecules” (PRMs), also known as “pattern-recognition receptors” (PRRs), that are able to detect conserved microbial motifs known as PAMPs and to discern pathogens from commensals

has accelerated the research in the field of innate immunity (Medzhitov et al. 1998). Three major families of PRMs have been identified: the Toll-like receptors (TLRs), the RIG-I-like receptors (RLRs) that include the cytosolic helicases RIG-1 and MDA5 sensing viruses, and the Nod-like receptors (NLRs) (Meylan et al. 2006). The first PRM family of proteins identified was the TLRs (Pasare et al. 2005; Kawai et al. 2007), which are the homologs of the Toll molecule originally identified in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Anderson et al. 1985; Medzhitov et al. 1997). These transmembrane receptors are composed of an extracellular or luminal binding domain composed of leucine-rich repeats (LRRs) that recognize PAMPs and of a signal transduction domain, known as Toll/IL-1 receptor (TIR), pointing towards the cytoplasm (Akira 2001). The TIR domain is required for interaction with TIR-containing adaptor molecules, such as MyD88, MyD88-adaptor-like (MAL (also known as TIR domain-containing adaptor protein-TIRAP), TIR-domain-containing adaptor protein inducing $\text{INF}\beta$ (TRIF), and TRIF-related adaptor molecule (TRAM) (Pasare et al. 2005; Kawai et al. 2007). This latter interaction results in the activation of NF- κ B and activator protein 1 (AP-1) in the MyD88-dependent pathways and/or type I interferons (IFNs) in TRIF-dependent antiviral pathways (Creagh et al. 2006). Thirteen TLRs (named TLR1-TLR13) have been identified in humans and mice together, and equivalent forms have been identified in other mammalian species (Kawai et al. 2007).

1.7 The NOD-like receptor (NLR) family

It quickly became apparent that TLRs could not account for all features of the innate immune response as these receptors were unable to sense intracellular pathogens. The confirmation of the existence of an intracellular mode of bacterial detection came with the report that only an invasive form of the enteric bacterium *Shigella flexneri* activated the NF- κ B pathway in epithelial cells (Philpott et al. 2000). Subsequent studies identified the cytosolic protein NOD1 (nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain 1) as the microbial sensor responsible for the epithelial cell's NF- κ B-dependent response to *S. flexneri in vitro* (Girardin et al. 2001).

NOD1 is the founding member of the Nod-like receptors (NLRs) family, and in the past few years, bioinformatics analyses have identified the existence of over 22 NLR genes in the human genome (Harton et al. 2002; Werts et al. 2006; Ting et al. 2006). Indeed, since these receptors lack reported or predicted signal peptides and transmembrane domain in their amino acid sequences, NLRs are considered the cytoplasmic counterparts of TLRs. They are thought to localize in the cytosol where they can screen this compartment for PAMPs that have actively invaded the epithelial-cell barrier and provide a complementary surveillance system to the TLRs, which screen the luminal content (Fritz et al. 2006). Signaling synergy and crosstalk between the two PRM families has also been reported (Fritz et al. 2006).

Broadly, the NLR family comprises 5 members of the NOD (nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain) subfamily, 14 NALPs (NACHT domain, LRR

domain, and pyrin domain-containing protein), IPAF (IL-1 β -converting enzyme [ICE]-protease-activating factor), NAIPs (neuronal apoptosis inhibitor factors), and CIITA (major histocompatibility complex [MHC] class II transactivator) (Ting et al. 2006). This family is also referred to as the CATERPILLER (CARD (caspase-recruitment domain) transcription enhancer, R (purine)-binding, pyrin, lots of leucine repeats) gene family, which comprises proteins with a NOD and a leucine-rich region (LRR) (Harton et al. 2002; Ting et al. 2006). Like the TLRs, the members of the NLR family of PRMs sense different bacterial components and toxins and, additionally, some members like NALP3 also sense endogenous danger signals or stress signals (danger-associated molecular patterns; DAMPs) released by dying or injured cells (Fritz et al. 2006; Ting et al. 2006).

1.7.1 The NLR family: domains

The members of the NLR family all share a characteristic tripartite structure consisting of 1) a C-terminus LRR domain that is possibly involved in the recognition of conserved microbial patterns or other ligands; 2) a centrally located NACHT domain [NACHT stands for domain present in Naip, Ciita, HET-E (plant het product involved in vegetative incompatibility) and TP-1 (telomerase-associated protein 1)] that mediates self-oligomerization and is essential for activation of the NLRs; and 3) a N-terminal effector domain, which is responsible for homophilic interactions with other proteins containing domains of the same class, resulting in signal transduction (Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009). Based on the nature of the N-terminal domain, the NLRs have been

further divided in subfamilies: the NODs (NOD1 and NOD2) and IPAF possess a CARD; the NALPs (NALP 1-14) have a pyrin domain (PYD); and NAIP contains a baculovirus inhibitor of apoptosis protein repeat domain (BIR) (Werts et al. 2006; Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009). A summary of the NLR family members classified by their domain type can be found in **Table 1.3**.

Table 1.3: Summary table of the Nucleotide oligomerization domain-like receptor (NLR) family members

Nomenclature	Other names	Domain structure	Chromosomal location	GeneBank accession	Microbial motifs recognized
CARD domain					
<i>NOD1</i>	NLRC1;CARD4; CLR7.1	CARD-NACHT-LRR	7p14.3	AF126484	GM-tripeptide; c-D-Glu-DAP(iEDAP); D-lactyl-L-Ala-c-Glu-meso-DAP-Gly (FK156); heptanoyl-c-Glu-meso-DAP-Ala (FK565)
<i>NOD2</i>	NLRC2;CARD15; CLR16.3	CARD-CARD-NACHT-LRR	16q12.1	AF178930	MDP; MurNAc-L-Ala-g-D-Glu-L-Lys (M-TRILys)
<i>CIITA type1</i>	NLRA; MHC2TA;C2TA	CARD-(X-NACHT-LRR)	16p13.13	AF000002	
PYRIN domain					
<i>NLRP1</i>	NALP1;CARD7;DEF CAP;NAC;CLR17.1	PYD-NACHT-LRR-FIIND-CARD	17p13.2	AB023143	MDP; Lethal Toxin ?
<i>NLRP2</i>	NALP2;PYPAF2;NB S1;PAN1;CLR19.9	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.42	AK000517	
<i>NLRP3</i>	NALP3;PYPAF1; CIAS1;CLR1.1	PYD-NACHT-LRR	1q44	AF054176	Bacterial RNA; viral RNA;uric acid crystals; LPS;LTA;MDP
<i>NLRP4</i>	NALP4;PYPAF4;PA N2;RNH2;CLR19.5	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.43	AF479747	
<i>NLRP5</i>	NALP5;NOD14;PYP AF8;MATER;PAN11; CLR19.8	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.43	AY154460	
<i>NLRP6</i>	NALP6;PYPAF5;PA NS; CLR11.4	PYD-NACHT-LRR	11p15.5	AF479748	
<i>NLRP7</i>	NALP7;NOD12;PYP AF3;PAN7;CLR19.4	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.42	AF464765	
<i>NLRP8</i>	NALP8;NOD16;PAN 4;CLR19.2	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.43	AY154463	
<i>NLRP9</i>	NALP9;NOD6;PAN1 2;CLR19.1	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.43	AY154464	
<i>NLRP10</i>	NALP10;NOD8;PYN OD;PAN5;CLR11.1	PYD-NACHT	11p15.4	AY154465	
<i>NLRP11</i>	NALP11;NOD17;PY PAF6;PAN10; CLR19.6	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.42	AY095145	
<i>NLRP12</i>	NALP12;PYPAF7;M onarch1;RNO2; PAN6;CLR19.3	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.42	AY095146	
<i>NLRP13</i>	NALP13;NOD14; PAN13;CLR19.7	PYD-NACHT-LRR	19q13.42	AY154468	
<i>NLRP14</i>	NALP14;NOD5; PAN8;CLR11.2	PYD-NACHT-LRR	11p15.4	BK001107	
BIR domain					
<i>NAIP</i>	NLRB1;BIRC1; CLR5.1	BIR-BIR-BIR-NACHT-LRR	5q13.1	U19251	
Untypical CARD					
<i>NLRC4</i>	CARD12;CLAN; IPAF;CLR2.1	Card?-NACHT-LRR	2p22-p21	AF376061	Flagellin from Salmonella, Legionella, Listeria, Pseudomonas
<i>NLRC5</i>	NOD27;CLR16.1	Card?-NACHT-LRR	16q13	AF389420	
<i>NLRC3</i>	NOD3; CLR16.2	Card?-NACHT-LRR	16p13.3	BK001112	
Undefined					
<i>NLRX1</i>	NOD9;CLR11.3	X-NACHT-LRR	11q23.3	AB094095	

A similar domain organization is found in a large family of proteins in plants called R, in which the so-called “NBS-LRR” (nucleotide binding site-LRR) proteins are involved in the defense against plant pathogens (Belkhadir et al. 2004; DeYoung et al. 2006). The R protein recognizes specific products of microbial pathogens and elicits a plant-host response (Ausubel 2005).

1.7.2 The NLR family: mechanism of action

To date, only a few of these 22 NLR members have known ligands and, similar to the TLRs, the mechanism involved in PAMPs recognition by NLRs has not been characterized; no direct interaction has been demonstrated yet. It is therefore possible that the recognition is indirect and involves other proteins (Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009). The biology of most mammalian NLRs is still ill-defined, but some NLRs like NOD2 (discussed previously) and NALP3 (discussed below) are better characterized.

The current models for NLR signaling suggest that NLRs are normally present in the cytoplasm in an inactive self-repressed form, where the LRR domain folds back onto the NACHT domain, thereby inhibiting spontaneous oligomerization and activation of the NLR protein (Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009). Upon direct or indirect binding of the ligand to the LRR domain, the receptor undergoes a conformational rearrangement exposing the NACHT domain and thereby allowing oligomerization and subsequent exposure of the effector N-terminal domain (Martinon et al 2005; Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009).

The PYD and CARD domains of NALPs and NODs, respectively, normally link these proteins to downstream adaptor or effector proteins through homotypic interactions. Subsequent to its activation, NLRs mediate pro-inflammatory signaling mainly through two major pathways: activation of transcription factor NF- κ B and the caspase-1 inflammasome (discussed below) (Martinon et al. 2005; Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009).

In the context of an infection, the pathogens are likely to activate the immune response through several PRMs simultaneously (Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009). Even though some PRMs might play more relevant roles than others depending on the nature of the pathogens, it has been proposed that co-stimulation of multiple PRMs is responsible for a full-blown microbial-induced immune response *in vivo* (Carneiro et al. 2008; Franchi et al. 2009). However, it is still not clear how all the signals elicited by distinct PRM activation are integrated in one global immune response.

1.7.3 The NLR family & inflammatory human diseases

The understanding of the *in vivo* function of NLRs has deepened with studies reporting that mutations in some human NLR family members were associated with susceptibility to inflammatory disorders that have a high degree of penetrance (Ting et al. 2006). These findings have further strengthened the idea that these molecules play central roles in the regulation of inflammation and immunity.

Hereditary periodic fever syndromes (HPFS) are a group of monogenic auto-inflammatory syndromes unified by a central phenotype of recurrent inflammation, often manifested as unexplained fever (Ryan et al. 2008a). Known HPFS include the familial Mediterranean Fever (FMF), the tumor necrosis factor (TNF) receptor-associated periodic syndrome (TRAPS), the hyperimmunoglobulinemia D with periodic fever syndrome (HIDS), and the cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (CAPS) described below (Masters et al. 2006a; Ryan et al. 2008a). Disease-based gene discovery for these rare conditions has led to the description of novel pathways involved in the innate immune response and provided new insights into the molecular and cellular mechanisms implicated in the regulation of infection, endogenous stress, and auto-inflammation.

In addition to being involved in intracellular bacterial sensing, the two genes on which the two first projects focus (Chapters 2-4), *NLRP3* and *MEFV*, may contain mutations that can lead to HPFS (Ryan et al. 2008a). We hypothesized that while severe mutations in these genes will cause the respective monogenic syndrome, milder genetic changes such as SNPs may give rise to more subtly altered proteins, and hence contribute to the susceptibility of chronic inflammatory diseases like CD and UC.

For example, DNA sequence variants in the NALP1 gene (called *NLRP1*) are associated with increased risk of vitiligo-associated multiple autoimmune disease (Jin et al. 2007). As discussed previously, *NOD2* gained notoriety from the two studies (Ogura et al. 2001; Hugot et al. 2001) reporting associations with susceptibility to CD. Mutations in *NOD2* are also associated with Blau syndrome,

a rare autosomal dominant genetic disorder not related directly to CD that is characterized by granulomatous arthritis, uveitis, and skin lesions (Miceli-Richard et al. 2001). Four distinct missense mutations in NOD2 have been associated with the onset of this syndrome: R334Q, R334W, L469F, and E383E (Miceli-Richard et al. 2001; van Duist et al. 2005). R334Q and R334W are the most prevalent mutations and are located in the region encoding the NACHT domain (Miceli-Richard et al. 2001; van Duist et al. 2005). These mutations have been reported to result in a “gain-of-function” phenotype characterized by increased basal MDP-independent NF- κ B activity (Miceli-Richard et al. 2001; Carneiro et al. 2007). It has thus been suggested that the inflammation observed in Blau syndrome patients could be the consequence of aberrant activation of NOD2 in absence of pathogenic stimuli (Miceli-Richard et al. 2001). *NOD2* mutations have also been implicated in early-onset sarcoidosis, a disease with similar clinical features to Blau syndrome (Kanazawa et al. 2005).

Interestingly, some residues in the NOD2 NACHT domain associated with Blau syndrome correspond to the same positions of pathogenic mutations in the NACHT domain of the closely related NALP3 protein (encoded by the *NLRP3* gene) that are associated with susceptibility to three rare and severe auto-inflammatory disorders, namely Muckle-Wells syndrome (MWS), familial cold auto-inflammatory syndrome (FCAS) and neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease (NOMID) (Agostini et al. 2004; van Duist et al. 2005; Mariathasan et al. 2007). For example, the R334W mutation in the NACHT domain of NOD2 found in Blau syndrome patients corresponds structurally to the R260W mutation located in the NACHT domain of NALP3 (Mariathasan et al.

2007). The R260W change in NALP3 has been shown to confer a “gain-of-function” phenotype, resulting in a constitutively active protein, over-activation of caspase-1, and aberrant maturation and release of IL-1 β from peripheral blood leukocytes of MWS patients (Agostini et al. 2004).

Given the importance of bacterial sensing in CD pathogenesis, the association of *NOD2* mutations with CD susceptibility, the role of NOD2 as a PRM, and the mutations within the NOD2 NACHT domain associated with Blau syndrome that are structurally associated with NALP3 mutations responsible for three auto-inflammatory disorders, we hypothesized that *NLRP3* could also be a good candidate gene participating to CD susceptibility (Chapters 2, 4).

1.8 *NLRP3* gene & NALP3 protein

NLRP3 (nucleotide binding oligomerization domain, leucine-rich-repeat family, pyrin containing 3) (also known as *CIAS1* and *NALP3*), the gene encoding NALP3 (NACHT, leucine-rich repeat and pyrin domains containing protein 3) (also known as cryopyrin), was first identified in 2001 by positional cloning in the search for the genetic basis of two autosomal-dominant auto-inflammatory diseases: FCAS and MWS (Hoffman et al. 2001a). The identification of a linkage peak located in the 1q44 chromosomal region with no previously recognized genes was made possible by the availability of large multi-generational families from North America and Europe (Hoffman et al. 2001a). Subsequent screening of expressed sequence tags (ESTs) in this region has allowed for the discovery of

heterozygous missense mutations in the *NLRP3* gene in patients with these two similar disorders (i.e. FCAS and MWS), which were previously considered as distinct (Hoffman et al. 2001a; Agana et al. 2002; Dodé et al. 2002). Similarities in the clinical phenotypes of MWS and NOMID prompted the discovery of *NLRP3* mutations in these patients as well (Aksentjevich et al. 2002; Feldmann et al. 2002).

1.8.1 Clinical manifestations of MWS, FCAS, and NOMID

These three disorders have been identified in patients around the world. FCAS is widely spread in North America, which is explained by a founder effect (Hoffmann et al. 2003), and MWS seems to be more prevalent in Europe (Ting et al. 2006). These *NLRP3*-associated diseases are classified as auto-inflammatory disorders, which are a new disease classification that is characterized by recurrent episodes of systemic inflammation in the absence of infection, and are distinguished from traditional autoimmune diseases by the lack of production of high-titre auto-antibodies or antigen-specific T cells (Ting et al. 2006). FCAS, MWS and NOMID were originally described as distinct clinical entities despite the fact that their symptoms overlap (Hawkins et al. 2004; Neven et al. 2004; Granel et al. 2005; Hentgen et al. 2005); patients often present with fever, pseudo-urticarial skin rash, and joint involvement of varying severity associated with neutrophil-mediated inflammation and an intense acute-phase response (Neven et al. 2008). These three diseases are now considered to be a continuum of one disease that is referred to as cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (CAPS),

with FCAS being the mildest, MWS being of intermediate severity, and NOMID being the most severe (Neven et al. 2008). Although these three disorders share some clinical characteristics, they also have distinguishing features, which will be briefly reviewed.

1.8.1.1 Familial cold auto-inflammatory syndrome (FCAS)

FCAS, also known as familial cold urticaria (FCU), was first described by Kile and Rusk in 1940 (Kile et al. 1940). This autosomal dominant syndrome is characterized by recurrent, short, self-limited episodes of low-grade fever, rash and arthralgia that are precipitated upon exposure to cold temperature (Hoffman et al. 2001b; Hofmann et al. 2003; Johnstone et al. 2003). The symptoms usually begin 1-2h after generalized exposure to cold temperature, and the duration of the attacks is usually short, lasting less than 24 hours (Neven et al. 2008).

1.8.1.2 Muckle-Wells syndrome (MWS)

Muckle and Wells first described this syndrome in 1962, as they reported members of one family who presented with urticaria, deafness and renal amyloidosis (Muckle et al. 1962). The disease is characterized by recurrent episodes of fever and rash associated with joint and eye manifestations (Neven 2008). Precipitation factors can usually not be identified and triggering by cold temperature is rarely observed (Neven 2008). The perception of deafness is common, occurring in approximately 70% of cases, and it usually begins in childhood or early adulthood (Neven 2008). Amyloidosis caused by chronic

inflammation is the most serious complication of MWS and may develop in adulthood in 25% of the cases. (Neven 2008).

1.8.1.3 Neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease (NOMID)

NOMID (Neonatal-onset multisystemic inflammatory disease), also referred to as CINCA (chronic infantile neurological cutaneous articular syndrome), was first described by Prieur in the early 1980s as a chronic inflammatory disease with rash, articular involvement, and chronic aseptic meningitis (Prieur et al. 1980; Prieur et al. 1981). The first symptoms usually occur at birth or early infancy. Abnormalities of the central nervous system are present in almost all patients and are caused by chronic, aseptic meningitis in which polymorphonuclear cells infiltrate the cerebrospinal fluid (Neven 2008). Severe disabilities are frequent, and premature death is possible in severely affected patients (Neven 2008).

1.8.2 Genetic risk factors for FCAS, MWS, and NOMID

FCAS, MWS, and NOMID are all caused by dominantly inherited or *de novo* mutations in *NLRP3*. Approximately 60 disease-associated mutations have been reported and most of them are clustered in the region encoding the NACHT domain and its flanking structure (corresponding to exon 3), suggesting that these mutations might alter the function of this domain (Milhavet et al. 2008). Since this domain is thought to mediate the oligomerization of NALP3, it has been hypothesized that these associated mutations might result in spontaneous NALP3

oligomerization (McDermott et al. 2007). This latter hypothesis is further supported by the facts that the pathogenic CAPS mutations are mainly “gain-of-function”, resulting in aberrantly high production of IL-1 β (Hoffman et al. 2001a; Aganna et al. 2002; Dodé et al. 2002; Martinon et al. 2007), and that monocytes from MWS patients have been reported to secrete more mature IL-1 β than healthy donors even in the absence of NALP3 agonists (Agostini et al. 2004).

Approximately 40% of patients with NOMID do not carry any known *NLRP3* mutations, suggesting that the CAPS are genetically heterogeneous (Martinon et al. 2007).

1.8.3 Disease management

The advance in the understanding of the genetic basis and disease mechanisms of these three disorders has led to the development of new therapeutic strategies that target the interleukin-1 (IL-1) pathway. Anakinra treatment has led to the most striking and dramatic improvements in the symptoms of all three disorders (Hawkins et al. 2003; Hoffman et al. 2004; Goldbach-Mansky et al. 2006). It is a recombinant, nonglycosylated homolog of the human IL-1 receptor antagonist that competitively inhibits binding of IL-1 α and IL-1 β to the IL-1 receptor (Church et al. 2008). The success of the IL-1R blockade strategy in these conditions further supports the role of IL-1 β in these pathologies (Dinarello 2005a).

1.8.4 IL-1 β : pivotal pro-inflammatory cytokine

IL-1 β belongs to a cytokine family that includes IL-1 α , IL-18, IL-33, and IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1RA). IL-1 β was first cloned in the early 1980s (Auron et al. 1984) and is now considered the prototypical “multi-functional cytokine” affecting nearly all cells types, either alone or in combination with other cytokines, and plays a key role in the initiation and /or amplification of several biological processes, including lymphocyte activation and proliferation, endothelial cell activation, innate immune response, defense against pathogens, and inflammation (Dinarello 2005b). IL-1 β is produced as an inactive pro-molecule by immune cells such as macrophages, monocytes, and dendritic cells, which must be cleaved into active IL-1 β and released out of the cell to perform its function (Black et al. 1989; Kostura et al. 1989). This cleavage is catalyzed by the enzyme caspase-1, a cysteine protease that was first identified in 1991 (Thornberry et al. 1991). The activated caspase-1 cleaves a 116-amino acid region from the N-terminus of the cytosolic pro-IL-1 β (p31) to convert it to the active form, IL-1 β (p17) (Dinarello 1998). The role of caspase-1 in the processing of IL-1 β is further supported by the fact that mice lacking caspase-1 are unable to produce mature IL-1 β , and are therefore less susceptible to endotoxin induced shock (Vasilakos et al. 1995; Li et al. 1995; Kuida et al. 1995). The synthesis and release of IL-1 β is tightly regulated to prevent its excessive production or dysregulation (Dinarello 2007). Dysregulated release of IL-1 β can be detrimental as this cytokine is considered to be one of the most potent endogenous pyrogens, causing fever, hypotension, and initiating host immune

defenses (Dinarello 1998). The understanding of the diverse biological activities in which IL-1 β is involved have led to a better understanding of the pathology of several diseases, including IBD (Ferrero-Miliani et al. 2007), gout (Martinon et al. 2006a), and many auto-inflammatory diseases including MWS, FCAS, NOMID, familial Mediterranean fever (FMF), pyogenic sterile arthritis with pyoderma gangrenosum and acne (PAPA) (Church et al. 2008).

1.8.5 NALP3 expression

NALP3 is expressed primarily in granulocytes, monocytes, dendritic cells, B and T cells, which are all important effectors cells of the immune system (Manij et al. 2002; Hoffman et al. 2001a; Krummer et al. 2007). NALP3 is also expressed in human chondrocytes (Krummer et al. 2007), and in the skin and eyes in mice (Feldmann et al. 2002; Anderson et al. 2004); these are the same tissues in which CAPS patients experience symptoms such as cartilage overgrowth, inflammatory rash and ocular inflammation (Neven 2008). However, the function of NALP3 in these tissues is still under study and has not been completely elucidated.

1.8.6 Discovery of the first inflammasome complex: regulation of caspase-1

Caspases are cysteine proteases that play a crucial role in regulating apoptosis and cytokine activation (Martinon et al. 2007b ; Yu et al. 2008). Three genes encode inflammatory caspases in humans: caspase-1, caspase-4, and

caspase-5 (Martinon et al. 2007b ; Yu et al. 2008). Caspase-1 itself is synthesized as a catalytically inactive 45-kDa zymogen (i.e. pro-caspase-1) that undergoes auto-catalytic processing following an appropriate stimulus. The active form of the enzyme, comprising the subunits p20 and p10, assembles into a heterotetramer, allowing the processing of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β (Martinon et al. 2007b; Yu et al. 2008). In 2002, Tshopp and colleagues, who were studying caspase-1 mechanism of activation (Martinon et al. 2002), based their experimental hypothesis on the fact that activation of related proteins caspase-8 and caspase-9 involved pro-caspase recruitment to oligomerized adaptors in a multiprotein complex (Tschopp et al. 1998; Chu et al. 2001). They investigated whether processing of caspase-1 also involved a multiple-adaptor complex. They reported the formation of a complex comprising the intracellular adaptor protein ASC (apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD; also known as PYCARD, CARD5 or TMS1), the intracellular sensor NALP1, together with caspase-1 and caspase-5 in their *in vitro* experimental settings (Martinon et al. 2002). Since that first report, other inflammasome complexes have been identified and are defined by the NLR that they contain (Ogura et al. 2006; Drenth et al. 2006; Martinon et al. 2007b). The NALP3 inflammasome is one of them.

1.8.7 NALP3 inflammasome

The NALP3 inflammasome multiprotein cytoplasmic complex is very similar to the originally described NALP1 inflammasome. It also mediates the

activation of inflammatory caspase-1 and regulation of the IL-1 β and IL-18 post-translational processing (Martinon et al. 2002). Among its components are NALP3, the intracellular adaptor ASC, caspase-1, and CARDINAL (CARD-inhibitor of NF- κ B activating ligand), which is thought to be a functional and structural homologue of the NALP1 C-terminus (Mariathasan et al. 2007). ASC encodes a 22-kDa protein that contains an amino (N)-terminal pyrin domain (PYD) and a carboxy (C)-terminal CARD (Masumoto et al. 1999; Conway et al. 2000). ASC plays a central role in the formation of the inflammasome complex, acting as an adaptor protein for the recruitment of other PYD- and CARD-containing proteins (Martinon et al. 2002). Through homotypic protein-protein interactions with its two domains, ASC can act as a bridge between the NALPs' sensor and the downstream caspase-1 effector (Martinon et al. 2007b).

The NALP3 polypeptide consists of three domains: a pyrin domain, a NACHT domain, and 11 LRR domains (Franchi et al. 2009). The pyrin and nucleotide binding domains of NALP3 are involved in protein-protein interactions in the inflammasome (Martinon et al. 2002). NALP3, which is probably the best understood member of the NALP family, is involved in the recognition of numerous exogenous and host ligands (i.e. PAMPs and DAMPs) that will be reviewed below (Martinon et al. 2007b).

In its inactive state, the LRR domain of NALP3 is thought to self-associate, preventing interaction with the adaptor proteins CARDINAL and ACS (Martinon et al. 2007b). Indeed, NALP3 has been reported to be initially associated with an HSP90-SGT1 complex that keeps the inflammasome inactive but competent for activation (Mayor et al. 2007). HSP90 binds to the NACHT

domain, affecting the stability of NALP3 by sustained inhibitions with HSP90 (Mayor et al. 2007). Once the cytoplasmic PAMP or DAMP is sensed by the LRR domain, HSP90 and SGT1 dissociate and the receptor undergoes a conformational rearrangement, exposing the NACHT domain and thereby allowing oligomerization that will result in the exposure of the effector PYD N-terminal domain (Martinon et al. 2005; Mayor et al. 2007). Once activated and unfolded, NALP3 enables the assembly of the inflammasome components CARDINAL, ASC and pro-caspase-1 through homotypic interactions between their respective PYD and CARD domains (Martinon et al. 2007; Martinon et al. 2007b; Church et al. 2008) (**Figure 1.3**). The PYD domain of NALP3 binds to the adaptor ASC via a PYD-PYD interaction and the CARD domain of ASC then recruits pro-caspase-1 to the inflammasome through a homotypic CARD-CARD interaction (Martinon et al. 2002; Srinivasula et al. 2002). A second pro-caspase-1 can be recruited via the C-terminal CARD of CARDINAL, forming a dimer with the pro-caspase-1 recruited by the ASC adapter (Agostini et al. 2004), while the FIIND domain (i.e. domain with function to find) of CARDINAL interacts with the NAD domain (NACHT associated domain) of NALP3. The oligomerization of the inflammasome complex allows cross-activation and cleavage of pro-caspase 1 to its active form, caspase-1, which is then capable of cleaving the precursors pro-IL-1 β and pro-IL-18 to their active form, IL-1 β and IL-18 (Martinon et al. 2007; Martinon et al. 2007b) (**Figure 1.3**)

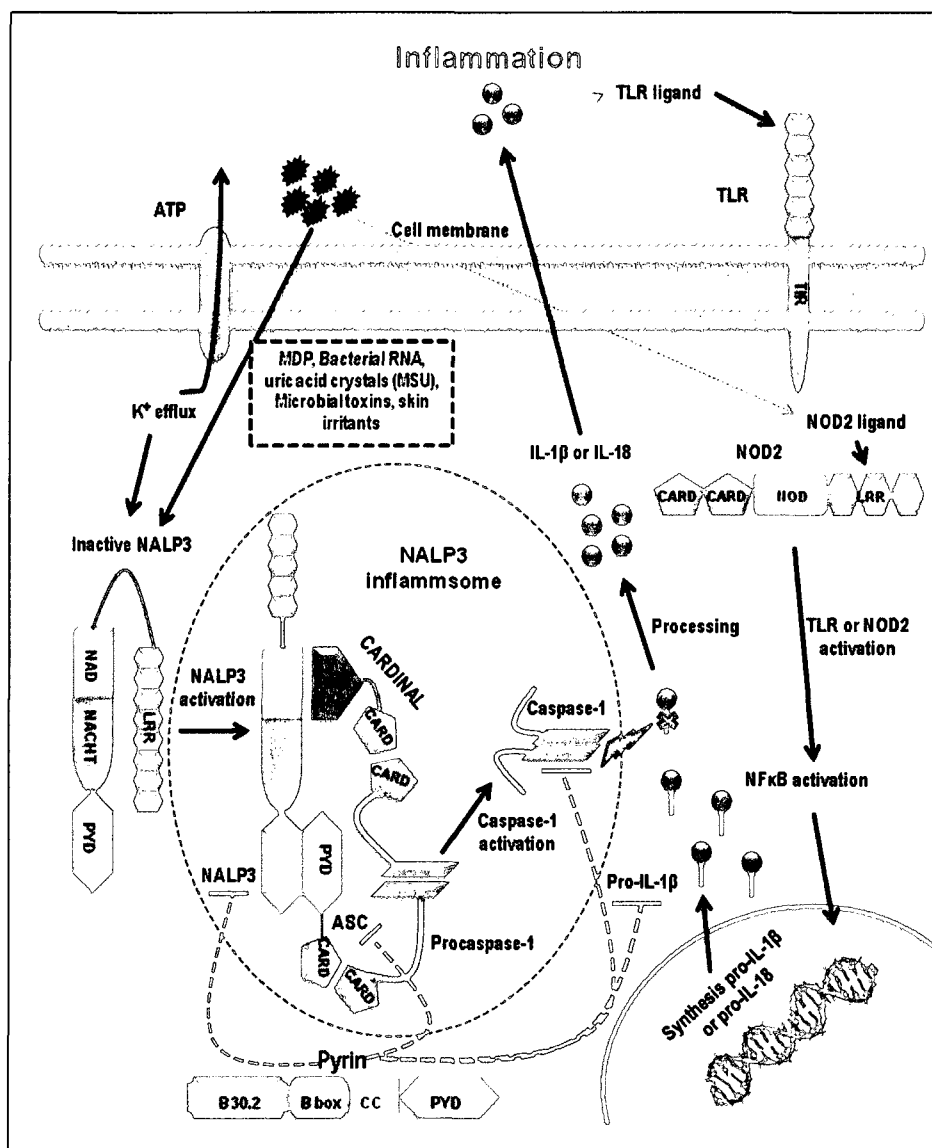


Figure 1.3: Activation of the NALP3 inflammasome

Engagement of specific TLRs and/or NOD2 leads to the activation of NF-κB signaling pathways, allowing the induction of pro-IL-1β and/or pro-IL-18. Upon activation of NALP3 by agonists such as ATP, MDP, MSU, bacterial messenger RNA, or skin irritants, NALP3 molecule unfolds, enabling the assembly of the inflammasome components ASC, CARDINAL, and pro-caspase-1 through homotypic interactions between their pyrin (PYD) and CARD domains. The oligomerization of the inflammasome complex leads to cross-activation of pro-caspase-1 to its active form, caspase-1, which in turn

can cleave pro-IL-1 β to its active form, IL-1 β . The pyrin protein has been reported to interact with NALP3, ASC, caspase-1, and pro-IL-1 β . Abbreviations: ASC, apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD; CARD, caspase-recruitment domain; CC, coiled-coil; FIIND, domain with function to find; IL, interleukin; LRR, leucine-rich repeat; MDP, muramyl dipeptide; MSU, monosodium urate; NACHT, domain present in neuronal apoptosis inhibitor protein (NAIP), major histocompatibility complex class II transactivator (CIITA), HET-E (incompatibility locus protein from *Podospora anserina*) and telomerase-associated protein (TP-1); NAD, NACHT-associated domain; NALP, NACHT domain, LRR domain, and pyrin domain-containing protein; NF κ B, nuclear factor κ B; NOD, nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain; NOD2, nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain containing 2; PYD, pyrin domain; TIR, Toll/IL-1 receptor; TLR, toll-like receptor. Figure adapted from (Church et al. 2008).

Knowledge of the components involved in the NALP3 inflammasome came from immunoprecipitation experiments, which demonstrated that NALP3 interacts with both ASC and CARDINAL, leading to the release of IL-1 β (Agostini et al. 2004). Moreover, NALP3 has been reported to co-localize with ASC in cytoplasmic specks that are visible by cytochemistry (Manij et al. 2002; Yu et al. 2006). *In vivo* studies with NALP3- and ASC-null mice, as well as *ex vivo* studies using macrophages from these mice, demonstrated that NALP3 and ASC are both necessary components for the activation of inflammasome-mediated inflammation (Kanneganti et al. 2006a; Mariathasan et al. 2006; Martinon et al. 2006a).

1.8.8 NALP3 inflammasome and IL-1 β production

It is now generally accepted that activation and release of IL-1 β requires two distinct signals (Church et al. 2008). What constitutes these signals *in vivo* during an infection or an auto-inflammatory response is still unclear. However, many studies demonstrated that the first signal can be provided by TLR activation, resulting in the NF- κ B-dependent synthesis of pro-IL-1 β (p35) (Martinon et al. 2007; Martinon et al. 2007b; Church et al. 2008). Examples of such activators leading to production of pro-IL-1 β include LPS (TLR4 agonist), lipoteichoic acid (TLR2 agonist), CpG dinucleotides (TLR9 agonist), the antiviral compound R848 (also known as resiquimod; a TLR7 agonist), and the synthetic tripalmitoylated lipopeptide Pam3CysSerLys4 (Pam3CSK4; a TLR2 agonist) (Mariathasan et al. 2004; Dinarello 2005b; Mariathasan et al. 2006; Mariathasan et al. 2007; Franchi et al. 2009). A second signal is needed to activate caspase-1 for cleavage and secretion of active IL-1 β (p17), which can be fulfilled by the NALP3 inflammasome complex (Church et al. 2008). Indeed, it has been demonstrated that IL-1 β and IL-18 secretion is fully abrogated in macrophages from ASC-deficient mice in response to various TLR agonists (Mariathasan et al. 2004), and cytokine levels were reported to be markedly reduced in NALP3-deficient macrophages (Mariathasan et al. 2006). The requirement of a second signal for IL-1 β production might constitute a “fail-safe” mechanism, ensuring that the activation of potent inflammatory responses occurs only in the presence of bona fide stimulus, such as the presence of invasive pathogens (not commensal bacteria alone) and/or tissue injury (Mariathasan et al. 2007). In auto-

inflammatory disorders, this tight regulation seems to be de-regulated, thereby leading to the inappropriate activation of IL-1 β in the absence of infection (Mariathasan et al. 2007).

1.8.9 NALP3 inflammasome activators: PAMPs

Bacteria are known to be potent activators of the NALP3 inflammasome and several bacterial PAMPs, such as MDP, LPS, and bacterial RNA have been reported to activate it (Pétrilli et al. 2007a). MDP, also an activator of NOD2, has been shown *in vivo* to induce IL-1 β release by NALP3, which was dependent on the presence of NOD2 (Pan et al. 2007). It is possible that activation of NOD2 by MDP then leads to the activation and/or recruitment of the NALP3 inflammasome, which in turn activates caspase-1 (Martinon et al. 2004). However, it is currently unclear whether NOD2 and NALP3 are two independent systems of MDP detection, or if NALP3 acts downstream of NOD2 in specific pathways leading to the inflammasome activation (Martinon et al. 2004). NOD2 and NALP3 may thus cooperate either directly or indirectly for IL-1 β activation and secretion (Pan et al. 2007).

Kanneganti *et al.* provided evidence that LPS and other known TLR agonists, such as lipoteichoic acid (LTA) and Pam3CSK4, activate the NALP3 inflammasome (Kanneganti et al. 2006a). Yet, it was reported that some commercial sources of LPS are contaminated with PGN, and that PGN activates NALP3 and not pure LPS (Martinon et al. 2004). In answer to this controversial result, Kanneganti and colleagues subsequently demonstrated that direct

cytoplasmic delivery of LPS via the pore-forming streptolysin O is required for NALP3 activation (Kanneganti et al. 2007).

Using NALP3-deficient mice, Kanneganti *et al.* also described the activation of the NALP3 inflammasome in response to bacterial RNA, such as those derived from *Escherichia coli*, *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Legionella pneumophila* (Kanneganti et al. 2006b), to small antiviral imidazoquinoline compounds R837 and R848, as well as to polyI:C, a synthetic double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) mimetic (Kanneganti et al. 2006a).

Additionally to these PAMPs, some microbes have been reported to be sensed by and activate the NALP3 inflammasome by virtue of their pore-forming toxins. These include Nigericin (*Streptomyces hygroscopicus*), aerolysin (*Aeromonas hydrophila*), maitotoxin (*Marina dinoflagellates*), gramicidin (*Bacillus brevis*), and α -toxin (*S. aureus*) (Walev et al. 1995; Mariathasan et al. 2006; Gurcel et al. 2006).

Moreover, two RNA viruses (*Sendai* and *Influenza*) have also been reported to activate the NALP3 inflammasome (Kanneganti et al. 2006b), but the viral PAMP responsible for the triggering of its activation is still unknown.

1.8.10 NALP3 inflammasome activators: DAMPs

Besides sensing the presence of PAMPs, NALP3 has the unique capacity to detect endogenous danger and stress signals referred to as DAMPs. In fact, the best-studied model of caspase-1 activation and subsequent IL-1 β release is from the exposure of cells to the DAMP ATP (adenosine triphosphate), and not to a

PAMP (Perregaux et al. 1994). In addition to ATP released by damaged cells, recent findings have suggested that NLRP3 is also responsible for activating caspase-1 via an inflammasome assembly in response to uric acid and to potassium efflux (Martinon et al. 2005; Martinon et al. 2006a; Martinon 2008).

Immunologists have long predicted that one of the major functions of the immune system is to differentiate self from non-self and to respond to self with tolerance while mounting an immune response against non-self components (Matzinger 1994; Matzinger 2002). Polly Matzinger and colleagues have proposed an alternative hypothesis, suggesting that the immune system may respond with tolerance to most antigens, and that the immune response would be triggered only upon the presentation of an antigen in the context of a danger signal, rather than being based on the foreignness of the antigen alone (Matzinger 1994; Matzinger 2002).

This latter hypothesis is important in the context of the intestinal microbial flora. The great majority of extracellular microbes living in the GI tract acts as commensals and do not constitute a threat to the host (Sonnenburg et al. 2004; Bäckhed et al. 2005). For the intestinal innate immune system not to be constantly activated, the microbes should be considered dangerous only if damage to the cell membrane, cell invasion, or metabolic changes in the local microenvironment is detected (Sonnenburg et al. 2004; Bäckhed et al. 2005). It is thus important for NALP3 to also detect non-microbial DAMPs molecules (Martinon et al. 2008), whose presence is often caused by invading pathogens.

1.8.10.1 DAMPs: ATP

Extracellular ATP, which is often released from cells as a consequence of cell damage or non-apoptotic cell death, is another well-characterized danger signal that activates NALP3 and caspase-1 (Communi et al. 2000). ATP release may be triggered by different mechanical stimuli such as fluid shear stress (Milner et al. 1990; Grierson et al. 1995), stretch (Grygorczyk et al. 1997), hypotonic shock (Hazama et al. 1999), hydrostatic pressure changes (Ferguson et al. 1997), and compression (Sauer et al. 2000). Furthermore, the generation of ASC- (Mariathasan et al. 2004) and NALP3- (Mariathasan et al. 2006; Sutterwala et al. 2006) deficient mice demonstrated that ATP-mediated caspase-1 activation required both ASC and NALP3. However, fairly high ATP concentrations (2 to 5 mM) were required for these *in vitro* studies (Mariathasan et al. 2004; Mariathasan et al. 2006; Sutterwala et al. 2006). Taking into account that in an *in vivo* setting, most of the extracellular ATP could be rapidly hydrolyzed by ectonucleotidases (Eckle et al. 2007) further experiments need to be done to assess the physiological relevance of these findings.

For ATP-induced caspase-1 activation and subsequent IL-1 β release, several studies have also demonstrated the requirement of purinergic receptors of the P2X₇ subtype, for which ATP is thought to be the main endogenous ligand (Hogquist et al. 1991; Ferrari et al. 2006). The purinergic receptors are a family of plasma-membrane molecules that are involved in several cellular functions, such as vascular reactivity, apoptosis and cytokine secretion (Solle et al. 2001). The P2X₇ receptor activation usually results in potassium efflux, plasma-

membrane depolarization, cell swelling, and disaggregation of the cytoskeletal network (Ferrari et al. 2006). Likewise, it has been shown that depletion of intracellular potassium is crucial for the activation of the NALP3 inflammasome and caspase-1 (Perregaux et al. 1994; Walev et al. 1995; Pelegrin et al. 2006; Pelegrin et al. 2007; Kanneganti et al. 2007).

1.8.10.2 DAMPs: MSU crystals, gout & pseudogout

Gout and pseudogout are two auto-inflammatory diseases that are characterized by arthropathies generated by the inflammatory reaction to the presence of microcrystals in the joints (Martinon et al. 2006b). More specifically, gout is caused by deposition of monosodium urate (MSU) crystals in joints and periarticular tissues, whereas pseudogout is caused by deposition of calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate (CPPD) crystals (Martinon et al. 2006b). In addition to its role in gout, MSU crystals have also been identified as a DAMP; these crystals are released from necrotic cells and are known to trigger IL-1 β secretion as well as innate immunity (Shi et al. 2003). More recently, Martinon and colleagues demonstrated that the NALP3 inflammasome and subsequent aberrant caspase-1 activation are linked to these two auto-inflammatory syndromes (Marinon et al. 2006). They reported that both MSU (in the case of gout) and CPPD (in the case of pseudogout) are detected by NALP3 as DAMPs, leading to the inflammasome assembly (Marinon et al. 2006). Additionally, macrophages from mice deficient in various components of the inflammasome, such as pro-caspase-1, ASC, or NALP3, did not respond to injection of MSU crystals, showing a reduced crystal-

induced IL-1 β secretion, highlighting the key role of the NALP3 inflammasome in these syndromes as well as the role of NALP3 as a DAMP sensor (Marinon et al. 2006).

1.8.10.3 DAMPs: Skin irritants & UV irradiations

Skin irritants and ultraviolet irradiations are danger signals that can also trigger NALP3 inflammasome assembly. Indeed, ASC- and NALP3-deficient mice showed an impaired contact hypersensitivity response, which is a T cell-mediated immune response (Grabbe et al. 1998), to the irritants trinitrophenylchloride (TNP-C) (Sutterwala et al. 2006), 2,4,6-trinitrochlorobenzene (TNCB), and 2,4-dinitrofluorobenzene (Watanabe et al. 2007) at the sensitization phase. In another study, ultraviolet irradiation was shown to activate the NALP3 inflammasome and promote IL-1 β maturation in keratinocytes (Feldmeyer et al. 2007).

1.8.11 NALP3 inflammasome: mechanisms of action

NALP3 is proposed to be involved in the orchestration of both pathogen and danger immune recognition, and it has been suggested that disruption of the ionic environment by NALP3 activators may initiate a cellular alarm signal involved in the activation of the inflammasome (Pétrilli et al. 2007b). The manner in which NALP3 senses these disparate activators is still unknown. Two simplistic scenarios have been proposed (Pétrilli et al. 2007a). The first one suggests a direct ligand-receptor interaction, such as has been proposed for the

TLRs (Pétrilli et al. 2007a). The second model proposes that each ligand could induce a common cellular signal that consequently would become a NALP3 ligand and activator (Pétrilli et al. 2007a).

In line with the second model, Pétrilli *et al.* have recently provided evidence that the activity of NALP3 is blocked by inhibiting potassium efflux, and proposed a model in which the various stresses generated by the different NALP3 agonists would lead to a change in the intracellular ionic milieu, inducing a conformational change in the inflammasome infra-structure and subsequently leading to its activation (Pétrilli et al. 2007b; Carneiro et al. 2008). In their model, the common trigger of NALP3 inflammasome activation would be a decrease in physiological intracellular potassium concentration (Pétrilli et al. 2007b), which is in line with the observation that some of the most potent activators of NALP3 inflammasome (e.g. ATP and nigericin) are known to act through a potassium efflux-dependent mechanism (Perregaux et al. 1994; Walev et al. 1995; Colomar et al. 2003). Furthermore, the inflammasome inducer ATP acts via the P2X₇ receptor, which upon stimulation facilitates an immediate potassium efflux (Pétrilli et al. 2007b). Several groups also provided evidence that potassium efflux is required for all other known activators of NALP3 (Fernandes-Alnemri et al. 2007; Franchi et al. 2007; Pétrilli et al. 2007b), and at cytoplasmic concentrations below approximately 100 mM, spontaneous NALP3 activation has been reported to occur (Martinon et al. 2002). Importantly, the activation of the inflammasome by low concentrations of potassium is specific to NALP3 inflammasomes (Carneiro et al. 2008).

It is now hypothesized that, through the activation of P2X₇, ATP released from necrotic cells could induce the opening of potassium channels, resulting in potassium efflux in neighboring cells, although this last point has not been formally demonstrated (Mariathasan et al. 2006). Therefore, it is possible that NALP3 would be able to integrate both host-derived and microbe-derived stimuli, supporting the hypothesis that, rather than being a direct sensor of pathogen, NALP3 could signal “downstream” of an initial sensing event mediated by a separate receptor (Fritz et al. 2006).

1.9 Inhibitor of the NALP3 inflammasome: pyrin protein/*MEFV* gene

Noteworthy, the NALP3 inflammasome activity can be dampened down by a variety of cytoplasmic proteins, including pyrin (also known as marenostrin) (Chae et al. 2006), a protein encoded by the *MEFV* gene (The International FMF consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997). Indeed, pyrin has been shown to regulate caspase-1 activation and consequently IL-1 β release (Aksentijevich et al. 1999).

Although pyrin is not part of the NLR/CATERPILLER family, it shares the pyrin (i.e. PYD) domain found in NALPs (Ting et al. 2006). Moreover, both NALP3 (previously known as cryopyrin) and pyrin share a similar expression pattern, are involved in similar pathways (i.e. caspase-1 inflammasome pathway, IL-1 regulation, NF- κ B pathway, and apoptosis), and mutations in these genes

result in similar clinical presentations with relatively short episodes of systemic inflammation, fever, and the potential development of amyloidosis (Stojanov et al. 2005; Ting et al. 2006).

1.9.1 *MEFV* mutations & familial Mediterranean fever (FMF)

The *MEFV* locus mapping to the short arm of chromosome 16p13.3 is mutated in the Familial Mediterranean Fever (FMF) (The International FMF consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997). FMF is an autosomal, recessively inherited, systemic, auto-inflammatory disease, and is the first HPFS ever discovered. It is commonly found in the Mediterranean basin and in the Middle East (Kastner et al. 2005).

Two positional cloning consortia identified the gene in 1997 using polymorphic microsatellite markers and SNPs spanning the chromosome 16p region. They identified the presence of FMF-carrier haplotypes among several affected populations (The International FMF consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997). Notably, subgroups of these haplotypes had sets of shared markers that all mapped to the same genomic region, indicating that the carrier chromosomes were derived from a limited number of common ancestors (The International FMF consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997). Both groups localized the FMF-causing locus in a small overlapping genomic region. The original mutational screens of the 781 amino acid full-length pyrin protein identified four different disease-associated conservative missense mutations in the C-terminal B30.2 domain, which were not present in chromosomes from

ethnically matched non-carrier individuals (The International FMF consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997).

1.9.2 The clinical aspect of the familial Mediterranean Fever

1.9.2.1 Prevalence of FMF

In the vast majority of affected families, the disease occurs in members of one generation, consistent with recessive transmission (Bhat et al. 2007). It is the most common HPFS with a prevalence of 0.1% in people of Mediterranean descent (Tucan et al. 2005), with more than 100,000 individuals living with FMF worldwide (Drenth et al. 2001). The disease is most prevalent among non-Ashkenazi Jews, Arabs, Turks and Armenians, with carrier frequencies of 1:5 to 1:16, 1:5, 1:5, and 1:7, respectively (Bhat et al. 2007). However, it is observed worldwide due to the extensive population movements of the 20th century (Kastner et al. 2005).

1.9.2.2 Symptoms of FMF

Attacks of FMF consist of unprovoked 1-3 day episodes of high fever with severe abdominal or chest pain, monoarticular arthritis, or an erysipeloid rash (Ting et al. 2006). These attacks are characterized histologically by a massive influx of polymorphonuclear leukocytes into the affected region(s), neutrophilia, and a rapid acute-phase response (Ting et al. 2006). A subset of patients may develop systemic amyloidosis, which is caused by the deposition of a misfolded

fragment of serum amyloid A (an acute-phase protein), and this can sometimes lead to kidney failure and death (Falk et al. 1997).

1.9.2.3 FMF treatment

The use of colchicine in FMF over the past three decades has dramatically changed the course of the disease. Colchicine, an alkaloid, originally extracted from plants of the genus *Colchicum*, has been used in the treatment of gout since the first century (Bhat et al. 2007). In 1972, Goldfinger first described its effectiveness in preventing FMF attacks, by reporting his experience with colchicine in five patients (Goldfinger 1972). Only 10% of patients are colchicine resistant and continue to suffer attacks at the same intensity as before (Lidar M et al. 2007). Before the advent of colchicine therapy, amyloidosis was reported to occur in about 75% of FMF patients over the age of 40 (Sohar et al. 1967).

One interesting finding was that pyrin interacts with tubulin and co-localized with microtubules (Mansfield et al. 2001), and this would certainly suggest a rationale for the current treatment of the disease that uses colchicine, a microtubule-destabilizing agent.

1.9.3 Pyrin expression

Pyrin is expressed at high levels in neutrophils, eosinophils, monocytes and dendritic cells, but not in lymphocytes (The International FMF consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997; Centola et al. 2000; Diaz et al. 2004). These are all key inflammatory effector cells, further supporting the role of pyrin

in the regulation of the innate immune response. Pyrin is also expressed in synovial, peritoneal and skin-derived fibroblasts, but not in chondrocytes or endothelial cells (Diaz et al. 2004). Moreover, the subcellular localization of pyrin has been reported to vary; in transfection studies, the full-length pyrin localized to the cytoplasm, while a rarer isoform lacking exon 2 entered the nucleus (Chen et al. 2000; Papin et al. 2000; Tidow et al. 2000; Mansfield et al. 2001; Diaz et al. 2004). Additionally, native pyrin has been reported to be cytoplasmic in monocytes and predominantly nuclear in granulocytes, dendritic cells, and synovial fibroblasts (Diaz et al. 2004). Two members of the 14.3.3 protein family, which are known to be involved in the regulation of intracellular signaling, have been shown to bind pyrin through phosphorylated serine residues that are encoded by the exon 2 (Jéru et al. 2005). Mutants at these residues were reported to be unable to bind the 14.3.3 proteins and to enter the nucleus (Jéru et al. 2005). These latter results might partly account for the observed differences in pyrin localization in the different cell types. Noteworthy, the pyrin-14.3.3 protein interaction has not been demonstrated for the endogenous protein yet.

1.9.4 Pyrin domains & location of FMF causative mutations

Although the N-terminal half of pyrin seemed to be unique when *MEFV* was initially cloned over 10 years ago, the 92 amino acid N-terminal region was subsequently recognized as the prototype for the motif that bears its name (Bertin et al. 2000; Harton et al. 2002). Pyrin is now considered to be a member of the death fold superfamily (Bertin et al. 2000; Martinon et al. 2001), with its N-

terminal pyrin domain (PYD) homologous to the death domain (DD), death effector domain (DED), and caspase recruitment domain (CARD) subfamilies (Fesik 2000). Importantly, all these domains are known to participate in highly specific homotypic protein-protein interactions and are found in several proteins involved in the regulation of inflammation and apoptosis (Wang et al. 2002; Manji et al. 2002). Pyrin is part of a larger family termed the TRIPartite Motif (TRIM) proteins that typically have a RING, B-Box and coiled-coil (CC) domains, and also frequently the B30.2 domain (Masters et al. 2006a).

The pyrin protein contains at least four different conserved domains, comprising an N-terminal pyrin (i.e. PYD) domain, a B-box zinc-finger, a coiled-coil (CC), and a 160-170 amino acid B30.2 domain (also known as the PrySpry domain) located at the C-terminal segment (Bhat et al. 2007).

Although over 80 mutations in the *MEFV* gene have been described, the majority of FMF cases are caused by four mutations all clustered in exon 10 (i.e. M694V, V726A, M680I and M694I), the prevalence of which varies according to the population studied (Lidar et al. 2007; Bhat et al. 2007). Moreover, over half of the documented missense mutations causing FMF are located in this exon, encoding for the motif B30.2 domain, and this bias is even higher when taking into account the high frequency of individual exon 10 mutations among patients (Milhavy et al. 2008).

1.9.5 The biological function of pyrin

Pyrin is thought to be implicated in the regulation of systemic inflammatory response through leukocyte apoptosis, NF- κ B transcription factor activation, and IL-1 β production (McDermott et al. 2007). The biological function of pyrin is the subject of intensive research, and although the precise role of pyrin in the regulation of inflammation in healthy individuals and in the disease state remains unclear, consensus regarding its function is gradually being achieved (McDermott et al. 2007).

Recent studies have provided insights into pyrin's complex interactions with numerous regulatory proteins (Ryan et al. 2008b). The N-terminal PYD domain was found to interact with the PYD domain of the adaptor protein ASC, also involved in the NALP3 inflammasome (Richards et al. 2001). When this interaction was initially described, it was the apoptotic effect of ASC that was addressed. Indeed, the wild-type pyrin, when overexpressed in HeLa cells, appeared to increase ASC "speck" formation, and paradoxically, increased the survival of these cells (Richards et al. 2001; Mansfield et al. 2001). Now, because of the known involvement of ASC in the NALP3 inflammasome complex formation, this interaction suggests a more direct route to the inflammatory hallmarks of FMF.

Both inhibitory and enhancing effects have been observed depending on the experimental design. Experiments performed on animal models and cell lines, as well as the presumed structure of pyrin and the presence of certain protein domains, suggest that the wild type isoform of the protein has anti-inflammatory

properties (McDermott 2004; Chae et al. 2003). Indeed, targeted disruption of pyrin in the mouse resulted in increased susceptibility to endotoxin toxicity and exhibited increased macrophage caspase-1 activation and IL-1 β processing (Chae et al. 2003). Based on their results, Chae and colleagues proposed that wild-type pyrin could be implicated in the reduction of inflammation (Chae et al. 2003). However, since the endogenous mouse *MEFV* exon 10 is not highly conserved with the analogous human exon, these mice experiments could not capture the full spectrum of pyrin functionality and subsequent studies in human cells were needed (Chae et al. 2000).

1.9.6 Pyrin & NALP3 inflammasome

The presence of a common PYD domain in pyrin and NALPs, as well as the similarities between the syndromes associated with the mutations in pyrin and NALP3 suggested that these proteins could be involved in related pathways. In agreement with this hypothesis, several studies have reported the interaction of pyrin with different NALP3 inflammasome components. Depending on the experimental conditions, two mechanisms have been proposed. The first one involves the direct interaction of the amino-terminal death PYD domain with the intracellular adaptor ASC, which then inhibits the caspase-1 activation as the PYD domain of ASC is no longer available to bind NALP3 (Chae et al. 2003; Yu et al. 2006). The second proposed mechanism involves the binding of the carboxy-terminal B30.2 domain of pyrin to the catalytic domain of caspase-1 (Chae et al. 2006). The B30.2 domain is thought to mediate protein-protein interactions, but the mechanism underlying caspase-1 inhibition is unclear.

Importantly, a large percentage of the FMF-associated mutations are located in the B30.2 domain (Chae et al. 2006).

There is a controversy concerning the function of pyrin in the regulation of the inflammasome as both an inhibiting and an activating function have been postulated (Centola et al. 2000; Chae et al. 2003; Chae et al. 2006; Yu et al. 2006). However, the fact that pyrin mutations are associated with inflammatory responses lends itself to the concept that these mutations might confer a “loss-of-function” phenotype, that pyrin may down-regulate the inflammasome function and consequently, caspase-1 activation and IL-1 β mediated innate response. There is a large body of data indicating an important role for pyrin in the regulation of caspase-1 and IL-1 β activation that may be context dependent (Chae et al. 2003; Chae et al. 2006; Yu et al. 2006; Papin et al. 2007; Seshadri et al. 2007.), mediated both through homotypic interaction of the N-terminal PYD with ASC and through the inhibitory effects of the C-terminal B30.2 domain on caspase-1 and other components of the inflammasome (Chae et al. 2006; Papin S et al. 2007).

Noteworthy, the B30.2 domain at the C-terminal end of the protein pyrin has been reported to interact with NALP3, ASC, caspase-1, and the inflammasome substrate pro-IL-1 β (**Figure 1.3**) in human cells, thereby inhibiting the activity of the NALP3 inflammasome and production of IL-1 β (Richards et al. 2001; Chae et al. 2006; Papin et al. 2007). Moreover, whereas a pyrin knock-down resulted in increased caspase-1 activation and IL-1 β secretion, overexpression of the B30.2 domain alone was shown to block these processes (Papin et al. 2007). These observations led Papin and colleagues to conclude that

pyrin could bind to several inflammasome components, thereby modulating their activity (Papin et al. 2007). Chae *et al.* also reported that mutations in this domain prevented pyrin from interacting with and inhibiting caspase-1 (Chae et al. 2006). Moreover, the structure of the B30.2 domain has recently been determined (Woo et al. 2006; Masters et al. 2006b; Grütter et al. 2006) and confirmed the possible model of interaction of pyrin and caspase-1 computationally. The modeled complex highlights that key residues mutated in FMF patients, such as the ones at positions M694 and M680, were located proximally to the potential binding interface, suggesting that mutations at such residues could prevent binding of pyrin (Chae et al. 2006). Furthermore, human TPH-1 monocytic leukemic cells treated with Pyrin siRNA or shRNA exhibited increased release of IL-1 β *in vitro* upon stimulation of the NALP3 inflammasome (Chae et al. 2006; Papin et al. 2007), which is similar to the effects reported in the Pyrin-deficient mice (Chae et al. 2003) discussed previously.

Nevertheless, the overall effect of pyrin on the inflammasome response is still a matter of dispute and may even be context dependent. One study reported that a pyrin molecule containing FMF-associated B30.2 mutations showed reduced caspase-1 interaction and decreased efficiency in blocking IL-1 β release (Chae et al. 2006). Moreover, using *in vitro* transfection assays, another study by Yu and colleagues reported that overexpression of pyrin in 293T cells that stably express ASC and pro-caspase-1 appeared to activate the NALP3 inflammasome complex, although mutant forms of the pyrin protein did not result in higher levels of ASC-dependent caspase-1 activation (Yu JW et al. 2006). This latter group concluded that pyrin acted as a pro-inflammatory molecule through the formation

of a pyrin inflammasome complex. Although these results seem to be in direct contradiction with other reports previously mentioned, all these experiments have been performed using overexpression systems with different cell types; thus these results may not be comparable.

1.9.7 Pyrin & NF- κ B activation

In previous reports, the impact of full-length pyrin on NF- κ B activation has ranged from an inhibitory effect (Dowds et al. 2003; Masumoto et al. 2003), to a potentiating effect (Sarkar et al. 2006), to a context dependent effect (Stehlik et al. 2002), to no effect at all (Yu et al. 2006). Chae *et al.* recently published a study that may clarify this issue as they found that only N330, but not C330 or full-length pyrin, enhances NF- κ B activation, raising the possibility that discrepancies in the literature may have resulted from differing experimental conditions that may or may not favor pyrin cleavage (Chae et al. 2008). Indeed, Chae and colleagues reported that pyrin is a caspase-1 substrate that is cleaved at Asp330, a site that is distal to the B30.2 domain that binds caspase-1 (Chae et al. 2006; Papin et al. 2007). Additionally, they show that pyrin isoforms harboring FMF-associated B30.2 mutations were cleaved more efficiently than wild-type pyrin (Chae et al. 2008). Furthermore, they reported that the N-terminal cleaved fragment interacted with the p65 subunit of NF- κ B and with I κ B α through its 15 amino acid bZIP basic domain and adjacent sequences (Chae et al. 2008). These latter interactions enhanced the entry of p65 into the nucleus and induced calpain-mediated degradation of I κ B α , thus potentiating NF κ B activation (Chae et al.

2008). They also demonstrated the nuclear localization of N330, but not full-length pyrin or the C-terminal (C330) fragment, in their transfection system and showed that the N330 (N-terminal) fragment included a site that, when phosphorylated, could bind members of the 14.3.3 family and caused cytoplasmic retention (Jéru et al. 2005; Chae et al. 2008). Interestingly, the absolute and relative quantities of cleaved pyrin and I κ B α degradation products were substantially increased in leukocytes from FMF patients compared with healthy controls.

Hence, the differential sensitivity of mutant and wild type pyrin to cleavage of caspase-1 and binding to NF- κ B players suggested a pathway by which pyrin mutations could lead to heightened potential for inflammation through NF- κ B. Overall, by demonstrating that caspase-1 initiated a pyrin-dependent NF- κ B activation pathway, Chae *et al.* established another link between caspase-1 and auto-inflammatory disease (Chae et al. 2008).

1.9.8 FMF & IBD

IBD and FMF share common clinical and biologic features, such as the periodicity and relapse of clinical features, infiltration by neutrophils at the site of injury, and an abnormal regulation of apoptosis (Lichtenberger et al. 2004; McDermott 2004).

A number of published epidemiological and genetic studies have reported that IBD is more common and severe in patients with FMF, and some studies suggested that mutations in *MEFV* responsible for FMF could have potential

modifying effect in IBD patients (Cattan et al. 2000; Fidler et al. 2002; Fidler et al. 2005; Karban et al. 2005; Giaglis et al. 2006). Amongst these studies, Cattan *et al.* reported that an FMF and IBD association in non-Ashekazi Jews was 8- to 14- fold higher than expected (Cattan et al. 2000). The authors suggested that the genes responsible for one disorder could have a modifying effect on the other inflammatory disease. Fidler *et al.* reported that CD appeared to be more prevalent in FMF patients and presented later in patients without FMF (Fidler et al. 2002). FMF in this latter group of patients showed a higher attack frequency and was more often complicated by amyloidosis (Fidler et al. 2002). Karban *et al.* also reported that the prevalence of E148Q (*MEFV* exon 2) amongst CD and controls was similar, but that E148Q was more common in CD patients with perianal disease (Fidler et al. 2005). Sari *et al.* also reported the concurrent manifestation of UC and FMF in 3 infants less than 6 months of age, in whom infantile UC was severe, intractable, and associated with a *MEFV* mutation (Sari et al. 2008). All three patients had a M694V mutation in exon 10 (Sari et al. 2008). Based on this clinical, epidemiological, and biological evidence, we hypothesized that the *MEFV* gene could also contribute to inflammatory bowel disease susceptibility (Chapters 2-3).

1.10 Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS)

Changes in the composition of the intestinal bacteria microbial flora has also been speculated to be associated with another inflammatory disease of the GI tract called irritable bowel syndrome (IBS). Emerging data suggests that fecal microbial flora of individuals with IBS differs from that of healthy controls (Swidsinki et al. 1999). Moreover, increased levels of anaerobic *Bacteroides* organisms and *Escherichia coli* have also been reported in the mucosa of IBS patients (Whitehead et al. 1988).

1.10.1 IBS definition

IBS is considered a GI sensory and motility disorder characterized by a triad of abdominal pain, bloating, and changes in bowel habit, with an absence of any apparent mucosal abnormality (Thompson et al. 1999). Although only recently defined, reports of IBS appeared in the literature back in the early 19th century (Powell 1818). The first modern concept of IBS was proposed by Chaudhary and Truelove in the 1960s (Chaudhary et al. 1962) that characterized many of the key symptoms, including the observation that approximately a quarter of patients' diarrhea began with an enteric infection. Today, IBS is diagnosed by the presence of GI symptoms as outlined by the Rome III criteria together with the exclusion of other organic diseases such as IBD, microscopic colitis, chronic enteric infection (e.g. giardiasis), and celiac disease (DuPont 2008). The Rome III criteria includes the presence of recurrent abdominal pain or

discomfort lasting over three months, with onset of the symptoms present at six months prior to clinical presentation and diagnosis, together with at least two of the following: improvement of symptoms with defecation, onset associated with a change in frequency of stool, and/or onset associated with a change in appearance of stool (Drossman 2006). IBS is further subdivided into four groups based on the predominant stool consistency according to the Bristol stool-form scale: constipation-predominant IBS, diarrhea predominant IBS, mixed or alternating diarrhea-constipation IBS, and unclassified IBS (Thompson et al. 1999; Longstreth GF et al. 2006).

1.10.2 IBS: a burden of the health care system

IBS is the most frequent reason for referral to gastroenterology outpatient clinics and has a profound impact on patients' quality of life (Bommelaer et al. 2004). IBS represents a significant burden on the health-care system with patients visiting their physicians 8-10 times a year, and an approximate total of 5 million prescriptions a year in the United States (Sandler et al. 2002; Cash et al. 2005). The costs associated with IBS are high not only for the individual but also for the healthcare system, as illustrated by studies reporting that direct and indirect costs of diagnosis and symptom management of IBS were estimated to be \$1.66 billion (Sandler et al. 2002; Shih YT et al. 2002; Cash et al. 2005; Maxion-Bergemann et al. 2006; Shaheen et al. 2006). Additionally, IBS has been shown to reduce the quality of life of patients, affecting the rates of individuals missing work and school (Leong et al. 2003; Cain et al. 2006).

1.10.3 IBS pathophysiology: unknown risk factors

Despite its high prevalence, the exact pathogenesis and clinical manifestations leading to IBS-like symptoms remains complex and only partially understood. Hereditary and environmental factors are likely thought to play a role (Levy et al. 2001; Saito et al. 2008a) and many studies have reported abnormal GI motility (i.e. muscle contractions), visceral hypersensitivity, psychological dysfunction, and emotional stress in IBS patients (Ohman et al. 2007). Yet, despite intensive investigations, no specific physiological and psychological abnormality has been found to be absolutely indicative of this disorder (Ohman et al. 2007), and the precise molecular mechanism(s) underlying IBS remain essentially unknown. IBS is a difficult diagnosis to make and can be even more challenging to treat. This has led to imprecise drug development and unsatisfactory patient management, and, together with the high cost associated with treating IBS patients, there is a renewed interest and motivation into studying and determining the underlying pathogenic mechanisms that contribute to IBS with the hopes of identifying better diagnostic tests and therapeutic targets. Within this context, there has been a growing interest in the genetic association study approach, which can be considered a good strategy to assess pathways potentially involved in the development of the disease.

1.10.4 IBS genetics

Recent investigations support a genetic susceptibility basis for the development of IBS, even though evidence suggests it plays a modest role and that several genes are likely to be involved, as is the case with complex traits.

1.10.4.1 IBS: fundamental genetic epidemiology

IBS is highly prevalent and has been reported to affect between 10-15% of the American and Western European population (Russo MW et al. 1999; Creed et al. 2001). Population studies have shown that IBS seems to be related to gender and age, but not to ethnicity (Chang et al. 2006). Indeed, studies reported that IBS is most commonly diagnosed between the ages of 15-44 years, that the proportion of women diagnosed and treated with IBS is 2-3 times that of men, but that the proportions of white subjects and non-white subjects affected with IBS are almost equal (Russo et al. 1999; Chang et al. 2006).

1.10.4.2 IBS: familial aggregation

IBS patients often report that family members have similar symptoms, and recent studies support the observation that IBS clusters in families (Kalantar et al. 2003; Locke et al. 2000; Kanazawa et al. 2004). Additionally, children of parents with IBS are twice as likely to seek medical help for abdominal complaints compared to children of parents without IBS (Levy et al. 2000). Yet, a major limitation of most of these studies is that the IBS status of relatives was collected from the patients but not verified with the relatives. In a study where relatives

were directly queried regarding their bowel symptoms, it was reported that between 54-68% of patients with IBS had an affected first-degree family member, compared with 19-36% of controls without IBS (Saito et al. 2008b).

1.10.4.3 IBS: twin study

Five twin studies reported a genetic contribution to IBS ranging between 0-20% (Morris-Yates et al. 1998; Levy et al. 2001; Mohammed et al. 2005; Bengtson et al. 2006; Lembo et al. 2007). The large variability between these studies may be the result of methodological differences with respect to how IBS status was defined and how the information was collected. It is worth mentioning that the British study only included patients who had confirmed IBS according to Rome II criteria (Mohammed et al. 2005), whereas the other studies, including the American (Levy et al. 2001) and Australian studies (Morris-Yates et al. 1998), were limited by the fact that they did not use any consensus criteria to diagnose IBS. Four of these studies performed additional modeling, looking at the correlations between members of a twin pair to resolve whether the observed phenotypic variance could be attributed to environmental or genetic components. Except for the British Twin Study (Mohammed et al. 2005), the three other studies found that the best-fit models included components for additive genetic components and individual environmental exposures. The genetic heritability was estimated to be 22%, 48%, and 57% in the American (Levy et al. 2001), Norwegian (Bengtson MB et al. 2006), and Australian (Morris-Yates et al. 1998) twin studies, respectively, whereas the individual environmental contributors

ranged from 43-78%. Importantly, shared environment did not appear to be an important predictor of phenotypic variance in any of these three studies. Moreover, these studies reported that IBS did not result from a dominant genetic effect. Although the results of these twin studies are revealing, they cannot conclusively prove that IBS did not aggregate between twins due to a specific shared household risk factor like diet, lifestyle, or infection. Overall, these studies suggest that both hereditary and environmental risk factors may contribute to the development of IBS.

1.10.4.4 IBS: genetic association studies

In the past few years, there has been a growing interest in identifying the role of genetic factors in the development of IBS. Several groups have evaluated specific candidate polymorphisms selected based on the biological plausibility that the encoded protein product could play a role in IBS pathogenesis.

The gene that has received the most attention from multiple investigators is the serotonin transporter gene (*SLC6A4*; solute carrier family 6, member 4), encoding for a protein located on the presynaptic terminal that is responsible for re-uptake of serotonin from the synaptic cleft. A study showed that mice lacking this gene exhibited an altered colonic motility similar to IBS-like symptoms (Chen et al. 2001). Recent drug therapies for IBS targeted the serotonergic pathway, motivating several groups to focus on studying the serotonin transporter gene (Van Kerkhoven et al. 2007; Camilleri 2007). This gene maps to chromosome 17q11.1-q12 (Ramamoorthy et al. 1993) and its most widely studied

variant, 5-HTTLPR, is a 43-base pair insertion-deletion polymorphism located in the promoter region. The short transcript isoform has been associated with lower transcriptional efficiency than the long transcript isoform (Heils et al. 1996; Greenberg et al. 1999). To date, the results of studies examining the relationship between these alleles and specific symptoms of IBS have been inconsistent, and a recent meta-analysis has concluded that this polymorphism is neither associated with IBS, nor with its subtypes (Van Kerkhoven et al. 2007).

Beside this candidate gene, other studies have also evaluated variants in the 5-HT_{2A} receptor gene (*HTR2A*, 5-hydroxytryptamine receptor 2A) (Pata et al. 2004), the norepinephrine transporter gene (*SLC6A2*) (Kim et al. 2004), the alpha_{2A}-adrenergic receptor gene (*ADRA2A*) (Kim et al. 2004), the alpha_{2C}-adrenergic receptor gene (*ADRA2C*) (Kim et al. 2004), the cholecystokinins (CCK) (Cremonini et al. 2005), the beta-3 subunit G protein (*GNB3*) (Saito et al. 2007; Andresen et al. 2006), as well as some inflammatory genes including IL-10 (*IL10*) (Gonsalkorale et al. 2003; van Der Veek et al. 2005), transforming growth factor-beta1 (*TGFB1*) (Gonsalkorale et al. 2003), and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (*TNF*) (van Der Veek et al. 2005). Positive associations have been reported for the -1082G/A (rs1800896) polymorphism located in the promoter of *IL10* (Gonsalkorale et al. 2003) and for the promoter variant -308G/A (rs1800629) located in the *TNF* region (van Der Veek et al. 2005).

1.10.4.5 IBS: challenges of genetic association studies

None of these findings has been replicated in subsequent studies and thus, no definitive conclusions have been drawn regarding these candidates. In the absence of an identified genetic risk factor for IBS, the major obstacle to gene discovery is the lack of additional clinical and epidemiological information regarding IBS. It would greatly benefit study design to clearly identify the environmental risk factors involved in the development of the disease that will need to be adjusted for in future IBS genetic studies. Indeed, well-defined phenotypes are crucial as combining individuals that are clinically and etiologically heterogeneous will decrease the chances of detecting modest genetic risk factors involved in IBS. One option would be to first evaluate candidate genes in more unique group of patients, such as post-infections IBS (PI-IBS) patients. Moreover, control subjects should be drawn from the same population as the cases (e.g. population-based or hospital-based) and should be collected in a similar time frame. Matching on age, gender, and ethnicity is also important because temporal trends, gender-specific behaviors or exposures, or population stratification may influence the disorder (Tabor et al. 2002). Keeping in mind the aforementioned key factors for designing an optimal genetic association study, we have opted to perform a candidate gene association study using the well-defined PI-IBS population cohort derived from the Walkerton community, which will be further described below (Chapter 5).

1.11 Post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome

1.11.1 PI-IBS definition

Most people with IBS describe a subtle onset of bowel symptoms over a period of time, but there is a subgroup of individuals with previously normal bowel habits who describe an acute onset of persistent symptoms after an episode of gastroenteritis characterized by at least two of the following: fever, vomiting, diarrhea, or positive stool culture (Parry et al. 2005). After meeting criteria for IBS (with Rome III criteria being the most recently defined) (Longstreth et al. 2006) in the absence of alarm symptoms and after excluding other causes of persistent bowel dysfunction in the form of diarrhea, urgency, loose stools, and abdominal pain, such patients are said to have post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS) (Spiller 2003a). Typically, the acute infectious symptoms of vomiting and fever resolve after several days with resolution of the infection; however, abdominal discomfort, bloating, and diarrhea (the predominant bowel alteration in PI-IBS patients) persist.

This condition, like other non-specific forms of IBS, also represents a significant burden on the health-care system, with the majority of patients consulting their family physician within 6 years of symptoms onset, and around 80% requiring further investigation, such as colonoscopy or barium enema (Near et al. 2002). Although the idea of IBS developing after gastrointestinal infection is not new, being first described in 1962 (Chaudhary et al. 1962), the scientific study of the mechanisms involved is relatively recent. PI-IBS appears to be a

nonspecific response to infection caused by a variety of enteric pathogens, and has been documented after illness due to *Campylobacter*, *Salmonella*, diarrheagenic strains of *Escherichia coli*, and *Shigella* species (Spiller et al. 2000; Gwee et al. 2003; Wang et al. 2004). These numerous pathogenic organisms known to be responsible for acute bacterial gastroenteritis contribute in altering the composition of the gut microbial flora (Spiller 2007a), which may result in increasing the intestinal immunological reactivity and lead to the development of IBS.

1.11.2 PI-IBS incidence

Acute infectious gastroenteritis is a common event in western countries, occurring on average 1.4 times per year per person (Barbara et al. 2007a). Although the vast majority of subjects recover completely following eviction of the infectious agent, a small significant proportion of subjects go on to develop long-lasting PI-IBS digestive symptoms (Spiller 2003a; Parry et al. 2003; Barbara et al. 2004a). The risk of developing IBS following acute enteric infection has been established based on reports of outbreaks in western nations and in travelers to developing countries, with a 4%–32% reported incidence of PI-IBS (Neal et al. 1997; Neal et al. 2002; Parry et al. 2003; Ilnyckyj et al. 2003; Okhuysen et al. 2004; Borgaonkar et al. 2006; Marshall et al. 2006; Halvorson et al. 2006; Spiller et al. 2006). This wide range of reported incidence rates could be explained by the considerable variability in study design (including in the duration of follow-up), the definition of gastroenteritis, and the criteria used for diagnosing IBS.

Importantly, most studies lacked control groups, which would have made it possible to compare the incidence of IBS in an otherwise similar population without preceding infection. Among the studies that included control groups, the incidence of IBS after acute bacterial enteritis has been reported to vary between 10-15% (DuPont 2008).

A meta-analysis of eight studies by Halvorson and colleagues reported a mean prevalence of IBS of 9.8% among patients with a history of infectious gastroenteritis, compared with a mean prevalence of IBS of 1.2% among control subjects (Halvorson et al. 2006). Thabane and colleagues, who also recently conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis, concluded that the pooled incidence of developing IBS following an intestinal infection was 10% (Thabane et al. 2007), and that the individuals most at risk for developing IBS were younger, more anxious or depressed, and had prolonged fever during infection.

1.11.3 Walkerton outbreak of acute bacterial gastroenteritis

One of the largest reported incidences of PI-IBS (36%) occurred after the Walkerton outbreak of acute bacterial gastroenteritis (Marshall JK et al. 2006). Walkerton is a small rural town located in a prime agricultural area 180 kilometers Northwest of Toronto, Canada. In May 2000, public municipal water was contaminated with *Escherichia coli* 0157:H7 and *Campylobacter* species. Heavy rainfall contributed to surface transport of livestock fecal contaminants into inadequately chlorinated drinking water (Marshall JK et al. 2006). This is

also the largest prospective study conducted to date; the outbreak produced an estimated 2300 cases of acute gastrointestinal illness, over 750 emergency room visits, 65 admissions, 27 cases of hemolytic uremic syndrome, and 7 deaths (Marshall JK et al. 2006).

The Walkerton Health Study (WHS) was initiated to study the epidemiology and long-term health outcomes of the waterborne outbreak of acute gastroenteritis, and facilitate local residents' access to specialty clinical care. There were 904 cases of self-reported gastroenteritis and several documented positive stool cultures. After a 2 year follow-up, the incidence of IBS was 36.2% in residents who had gastroenteritis and met Rome I criteria compared to 10.2% of this who did no, representing an OR of 4.8 (95% CI 3.4-6.8; $p < 0.001$) (Marshall JK et al. 2006). The predominant symptom was diarrhea and independent risk factors included younger age and female gender (Marshall JK et al. 2006).

This unfortunate tragedy provided a unique opportunity to study the genetic determinants of PI-IBS (Chapter 5) in the large, well-defined Walkerton study cohort with simultaneous and well-characterized exposure (Marshall JK. Gastroenterology 2006).

1.11.4 PI-IBS risk factors

A cohort study that used a large U.K. primary care database identified acute bacterial gastroenteritis as the strongest risk factor identified to date for the

development of IBS (adjusted relative risk 11.9) (Rodríguez et al. 1999). Other known risk factors involved in the development of IBS following an enteric infection include female gender, psychological factors, duration and severity of the acute illness, younger age, and microbial virulence factors (Thabane et al. 2007; Spiller 2007b; DuPont AW 2008). However, genetic factors had never been evaluated as potential risk factors contributing to PI-IBS susceptibility (Chapter 5).

1.11.5 PI-IBS genetic association study: defining the three axes of candidate genes

Patients with PI-IBS appear to have chronic mucosal immunologic dysregulation with altered intestinal permeability and motility that can lead to persistent intestinal symptoms (DuPont 2008). It has been hypothesized that PI-IBS patients have an inability to down-regulate the initial inflammatory stimulus to the gut, resulting in increased levels of serotonin-producing enterochromaffin cells, T lymphocytes, macrophages, and pro-inflammatory cytokines (Barbara et al. 2007b). Moreover, animal studies support the hypotheses that intestinal inflammation (Adam et al. 2006; La et al. 2004; Bercik et al. 2004; Akiho et al. 2005), alterations in gut flora (Verdu et al. 2006), and intestinal permeability (Ferrier et al. 2003), resulting in an activated intestinal immune system, may explain part of the gut dysfunction observed in PI-IBS patients.

In considering these aforementioned risk factors for PI-IBS, we selected candidate genes that had been characterized and potentially associated with IBS,

the serotonergic pathway, the innate immune response, and the intestinal epithelial barrier function. To select the final candidates, we proceeded on the basis of a comprehensive overview of the intestinal inflammatory system biology, and with the hypothesis that PI-IBS might result from persistent local low-grade inflammation. The three main axes of research will be briefly reviewed.

1.11.5.1 Axis I: Serotonin & serotonergic pathway

Five percent of the serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine) in humans is concentrated in the central nervous system and 95% is in the GI tract within enterochromaffin cells, neurons, mast cells, and smooth muscle cells (Gershon 1999). When serotonin is released, it affects vagal afferent nerve fibers and enteric nerve fibers, resulting in intestinal secretions and peristalses. These physiological responses to serotonin release may result in the symptoms such as nausea, vomiting, pain, bloating, and altered bowel habits (Gershon 1999).

More recently, drugs acting at the serotonin receptor subtypes have been developed, tested, and marketed for the management of specific subgroups of patients with IBS. The first serotonin agent that has been reported to be effective in reducing stool frequency and urgency in women with diarrhea-predominant IBS was alosetron, a 5-HT₃ receptor antagonist (Camilleri et al. 2000; Whorwell 2001; Camilleri 2007).

Serotonin specifically released from enterochromaffin cells affects GI motility, enterocyte secretion, and visceral sensation (Coates et al. 2004). A 25% increase in the number of rectal enterochromaffin cells has been documented in

patients with PI-IBS, compared to patients with non-PI-IBS and control subjects (Dunlop et al. 2003a; Dunlop et al. 2003b). In addition, an increase in post-prandial plasma serotonin levels has been observed in patients with PI-IBS compared with healthy control subjects (Dunlop et al 2005).

In addition to focussing on serotonin, we also selected candidates involved in the serotonergic pathway known to influence the production and recognition of serotonin. We also included any polymorphisms previously evaluated in published IBS genetic association studies.

1.11.5.2 Axis II: Inflammatory changes

Although the definition of IBS is based on the lack of structural and biochemical abnormalities that can be identified using routine diagnostic tests (Thompson et al. 1999), there is accumulating evidence supporting the activation of the intestinal immune system as a risk factor for the development of IBS (Thornley et al. 2001; Dunlop et al. 2003a; Dunlop et al. 2003b).

Animal studies have highlighted the roles of severity and transient mucosal inflammation in terms of specific abnormalities of GI functions (Liebregts et al. 2005; Adam et al. 2006). These observations led research groups to speculate that IBS may, in at least a subpopulation, be an inflammatory disorder, keeping in mind that the inflammatory component may very well be different in PI-IBS relative to IBS patients without an onset related to infection.

Immunohistological studies have revealed mucosal immune system activation in a subset of IBS patients, mostly in those with diarrhea-predominant

type (Chadwick et al. 2002). Similar observations have been made in patients with presumed PI-IBS, suggesting a possible common link. Moreover, increased concentrations of intra-epithelial lymphocytes (Spiller et al. 2000; Chadwick et al. 2002), mast cells (Weston et al. 1993; O'Sullivan et al. 2000; Chadwick et al. 2002; Guilarte et al. 2006), and 5-hydroxytryptophan-secreting enterochromaffin cells (Spiller et al. 2000) have been observed in the mucosa of IBS patients, with particularly increased levels in PI-IBS patients (Spiller et al. 2000). Mast and enterochromaffin cells are both specialized cells that are part of the innate immune system, helping to clear pathogens by stimulating propulsive gut motility (Spiller 2007b).

The inflammatory component of IBS has been more clearly demonstrated in patients with an infectious onset of the disease. Studies have shown that patients with PI-IBS have an activated intestinal immune response as defined by increased numbers of T cells in the colonic mucosa (Spiller et al. 2000; Dunlop et al. 2003a; Dunlop et al. 2003b) and an augmentation of mucosal enteroendocrine cell levels (Spiller et al. 2000), which may suggest that there is a continuing inflammatory stimulus (Spiller et al. 2000). Furthermore, the increase in intra-epithelial lymphocyte and lamina propria lymphocyte counts have been reported to persist for at least a year after infection in PI-IBS patients, and have been associated with increased intestinal permeability (Spiller et al. 2000). Studies showed that the mRNA expression levels of the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-1 β were significantly increased in rectal biopsies from PI-IBS patients (Spiller et al. 2000; Wang et al. 2004). However, no studies have clearly demonstrated whether

the inflammatory components of PI-IBS are driving or are the result of the clinical symptoms of the patients.

Transient mucosal inflammation as well as the role of the severity of inflammation are now believed to be an important trigger for the manifestation of IBS-like symptoms (Liebregts et al. 2005), as shown by both animal (Liebregts et al. 2005; Adam et al. 2006) and human (Thornley et al. 2001; Spiller 2003b) studies. It is possible that the control of the inflammatory response could be compromised in some individuals due to genetic predisposition, and that patients who are exposed to a severe GI infection in the presence of specific genetically determined risk factors might have a greatly increased risk of developing PI-IBS. Thus, for the second group of candidates, we opted to focus on genes involved in the inflammatory immune response.

1.11.5.3 Axis III: Mucosal permeability

The gut microbial flora is physically separated from the host by a thin intestinal epithelial barrier. “Tight junctions” between the cells of the intestinal barrier are involved in regulating the transport of molecules while prohibiting the migration of microorganisms (Turner 2006). This selective permeability can be altered directly by bacteria, or indirectly via cytokines produced by the host immune response to a microbial challenge (Nusrat et al. 2000). Increased intestinal permeability may play an important role because it exposes the mucosa to luminal antigens from dietary and bacterial origins, promoting and maintaining mucosal immune activation (Barbara et al. 2005). Moreover, the enhanced neuromuscular exposure to these antigens may also lead to altered visceral

sensitivity and enteric dysmotility through chronic inflammatory mechanisms (DuPont 2008).

Three independent groups have reported that PI-IBS patients have an increased small intestinal permeability (Spiller et al. 2000; Marshal et al. 2004; Dunlop et al. 2006). One of these groups is the Walkerton Health Study, which reported that 35% of the new PI-IBS patients had increased intestinal permeability compared to just 13% in the non-IBS controls (Marshal et al. 2004). Moreover, one study showed that non-PI-IBS patients with predominant diarrhea symptoms had a significant increase in small intestinal permeability when compared to PI-IBS patients and healthy controls (Dunlop et al. 2006). Overall, increased permeability resulting from a breakdown of the normal intestinal barrier allows access of bacterial products to the lamina propria and this may be one of the mechanisms contributing to the perpetuation of chronic inflammation. For the third group of PI-IBS candidates, we targeted genes involved in maintaining the integrity of the intestinal epithelial barrier.

2 INVESTIGATION OF THE *NLRP3* GENE IN CROHN'S DISEASE

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Full copy of the published letter can be found in appendices.

Reference:

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2.1 Rationale

For the following study, the selection of the *NLRP3* gene, encoding the NALP3 protein, as a candidate gene for CD susceptibility was based on the knowledge of the important role played by the microbial flora and bacterial sensors in the onset of CD, the known *NOD2* association with CD susceptibility, the role of NOD2 as an intracellular bacterial sensor (PRMs), and the fact that mutations within the NOD2 NACHT domain that are associated with Blau syndrome are structurally associated with the NALP3 mutations responsible for three auto-inflammatory disorders (i.e. MWS, FCAS, and NOMID). Additionally, NALP3 is part of the same CATERPILLER gene family as NOD2 (Ting et al. 2006), is known to also play a role in intracellular bacterial sensing like NOD2 (Ting et al. 2006), and was reported to detect MDP, the same ligand recognized by NOD2 (Martinon et al. 2004). Moreover, mutations in both *NOD2* and *NLRP3* are known to lead to rare auto-inflammatory syndromes. Together with the known biological parallels between NALP3 and NOD2, we hypothesized that while severe mutations in these genes will cause the respective monogenic syndrome, milder genetic changes such as SNPs may give rise to more subtly altered transcript, and hence contribute to the susceptibility of chronic inflammatory diseases like CD. We thus evaluated the contribution of *NLRP3* to CD susceptibility.

2.2 Common variant in *NLRP3* region contribute to Crohn's disease susceptibility

2.2.1 Abstract

We used a candidate gene approach to identify a set of SNPs, located in a predicted regulatory region on chromosome 1q44 downstream of *NLRP3* (previously known as *CIAS1* and *NALP3*), that are associated with Crohn's disease. The associations were consistently replicated in four sample sets from individuals of European descent. In the combined analysis of all samples (710 father-mother-child trios, 239 cases and 107 controls), these SNPs were strongly associated with risk of Crohn's disease ($P_{\text{combined}} = 3.49 \times 10^{-9}$, odds ratio = 1.78, confidence interval = 1.47–2.16 for rs10733113), reaching a level consistent with the stringent significance thresholds imposed by whole-genome association studies. In addition, we observed significant associations between SNPs in the associated regions and *NLRP3* expression and IL-1 β production. Mutations in *NLRP3* are known to be responsible for three rare auto-inflammatory disorders. These results suggest that the *NLRP3* region is also implicated in the susceptibility of more common inflammatory diseases such as Crohn's disease.

2.2.2 Introduction

Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis are multigenic and heterogeneous inflammatory bowel diseases of the gastrointestinal tract that seem to result from a dysregulated mucosal immune response to bacterial antigens in the gut lumen of a genetically susceptible host (Podolsky et al. 2002). *NLRP3* is a member of the CATERPILLER (Ting et al. 2006) family of genes encoding for proteins that comprise a nucleotide-binding domain and a leucine-rich repeat domain. NALP3 (also known as cryopyrin), the protein encoded by *NLRP3*, controls the inflammasome, a crucial molecular platform that regulates activation of caspase-1 and processing of IL-1 β , two key mediators of inflammation (Mariathasan et al. 2007; Pétrilli et al. 2007a; Martinon et al. 2007). The potential involvement of *NLRP3* in the pathogenesis of more common inflammatory disorders motivated us to conduct an in-depth genetic analysis of the *NLRP3* region.

2.2.3 Methods

Subjects. Five sample sets from four different centers, totaling 710 Crohn's disease trios, 239 Crohn's disease cases and 107 controls, were assembled for this project (**Table 2.1**). Informed consent was obtained from all participants, and protocols were approved by the local Institutional Review Board of all participating Institutions. A clinical subtype of Crohn's disease was assigned using standard clinical criteria (Lennard-Jones 1989; Silverberg et al. 2005), except for a few 'indeterminate colitis' cases that were excluded from the study. Belgian subjects from Leuven University Hospital Gasthuisberg (Leuven) were used for the exploratory experiments ($n = 296$ trios). The replication cohorts

consisted of Belgian subjects from Université de Liège and of two Canadian cohorts (Québec and Toronto). Samples from Liège were subdivided into a family-based cohort (155 Liège trios) and a case-control cohort (Liège case-control, 239 Crohn's disease and 107 controls). The Québec cohort ($n = 130$ trios) comprised subjects from multiple sites in the province of Québec and included 22 probands of Ashkenazi and 5 of Sephardic Jewish ancestry. The Toronto samples ($n = 129$ trios) were collected from multiple sites in Toronto and included 26 probands of Ashkenazi Jewish ancestry. All study participants were of European descent except for 15 probands from Toronto that were excluded from the analyses.

All patients were recruited through specialized hospitals, academic centres, and practitioners. Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) specialists involved in this study confirmed the diagnosis of Crohn's disease and patients were excluded from the study in the case of doubtful diagnosis. In all the participating centres, the diagnosis of IBD was made by IBD specialists after fulfilling standard clinical, radiological, endoscopic, and pathological criteria (Lennard-Jones 1989) that required (1) one or more of the following symptoms: diarrhea, rectal bleeding, abdominal pain, weight loss, fever or complicated perianal disease; (2) occurrence of symptoms on two or more occasions in the past or ongoing symptoms of at least 4-6 weeks' duration; (3) evidence of inflammation, strictures or fistula from radiological, endoscopic, and histological evaluation (with some specific Crohn's disease characteristics); (4) exclusion of all other diagnoses

besides Crohn's disease. Only subjects of European ancestry were used in the final analysis.

Genotyping. We first investigated a 67.8-kb region spanning 1q44 (243890897–243958709; NCBI build 35, hg17), including *NLRP3* (32.9 kb). Samples were genotyped using the SNPstream ultra-high-throughput genotyping system (Orchid Biosciences) (Bell et al. 2002) and Sequenom homogenous MassExtend (hME) assays (matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry) (van den Boom et al. 2007). Primers and probes are available in **Supplementary Table 2.1**. Analysis was restricted to SNPs passing quality filters, excluding SNPs with success rate < 95%, minor allele frequency < 5% or deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($P < 0.01$). Measures of linkage disequilibrium between SNPs and departures from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium were computed using Haploview v4.0 (Barrett et al. 2005). Families showing mendelian errors in 5% or more of the markers were excluded from the analysis (25 Crohn's disease families).

Sequencing. Primers were designed to have a T_m of 60 °C using the Primer3 program (**Supplementary Table 2.2**). PCR reactions were done using Hot Start Taq polymerase (Qiagen) in an 8- μ l final volume comprising 9 ng of DNA (one cycle of 96 °C for 10 min and 40 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 58 °C for 1 min, 72 °C for 35 s and one cycle of 72 °C for 7 min). Sequencing was done on an ABI 3730 DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems) according to standard protocols. Sequence

traces were assembled and analyzed using the PolyPhred software package and were compared to annotated sequences from NCBI build 35, hg17.

SNP selection for the exploratory and follow-up genotyping phases. We first investigated a 67.8kb region spanning 1q44 (243890897-243958709) (NCBI Build 35, hg17), including *NLRP3* (32.9kb). 43 tagging SNPs were selected using data from HapMap Public Release #22 ($r^2 \geq 0.8$) (minor allele frequency (MAF) ≥ 0.05) and 14 additional SNPs were selected from dbSNP Build126 in regions with lower coverage. Following the 9kb resequencing experiment, 13 SNPs located within *OR2B11* coding, conserved or predicted regulatory regions were prioritized (**Supplementary Table 2.3**). For the 58 SNPs not previously genotyped, we used a pairwise tagging approach (de Bakker et al. 2005) ($r^2 \geq 0.8$) to select tagging SNPs that best captured the variation in the region (**Supplementary Table 2.3**). A total of 24 SNPs were genotyped in the Leuven exploratory Crohn's disease trios, and 15 of them were analysed after excluding 4 rare SNPs (MAF < 0.05), 2 with a low success rate ($< 95\%$), and 3 not in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($p < 0.01$).

Statistical analysis. Tests of association were done using the likelihood methods implemented in UNPHASED v3.0.10 (Dudbridge et al. 2008), which can analyze samples of nuclear families, unrelated subjects or a combination of both. For nuclear families (cases and their parents), the likelihood is equivalent to the conditional likelihood models on which the transmission disequilibrium test is

based (Spielman et al. 1993). For samples of unrelated cases and controls, the likelihood is equivalent to a logistic model, which allows estimations of risk effects in terms of odds ratios along with their confidence intervals. It also allows conditioning on the observed association at one marker, to test whether or not the observed significance at others can solely be explained by linkage disequilibrium. A permutation procedure is implemented to allow the calculation of significance levels that are corrected for the number of tests. Attributable and prevented fractions were calculated under the assumption that alleles had additive effects on the penetrance scale, that odds ratios from **Table 2.1** are good approximations for the relative risks and that allele frequencies in the controls are reasonable estimates of population frequencies.

Tissue collection. *Animal:* Male BALB/c mice (6-8 weeks) from Charles River Laboratory (St-Constant, Quebec, Canada) were maintained under conventional housing conditions. Acute colitis was induced by rectal instillation of 2.5mg of trinitrobenzene sulfonate (TNBS) (Sigma Aldrich Canada Ltd., Ontario, Canada) and mice were sacrificed on day 2 or day 4 (Neurath et al. 1995). Chronic colitis was induced by a secondary instillation of TNBS on day 7 and mice were sacrificed 4 days later. All mice were handled according to institutionally recommended animal care guidelines and all experiments were approved by the Animal Studies Ethics Committee of McGill University. *Human:* Colonic or ileal biopsy specimens were obtained from Crohn's disease patients and from patients undergoing colorectal cancer screening (i.e. healthy controls). All participants

gave informed consent and the study was approved by the Institutional Review Board.

Monocyte isolation and culture. Peripheral blood cells (PBCs) were isolated by density gradient centrifugation from healthy volunteers' whole blood. Collected cells were further purified by cold aggregation and rosetting with sheep's red blood cells. Monocyte-enriched PBCs were plated at a concentration of 3×10^6 cells/ml in serum-free RPMI 1640 (Invitrogen, Ontario, Canada), and non-adherent cells were removed after 1 hour of incubation at 37°C. Adherent cells were cultured for 3 hours in the presence or absence of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (E.Coli, Sigma-Aldrich, 1 µg/ml) in RPMI 1640 +10% fetal bovin serum (FBS) (Invitrogen). Upon harvest, culture supernatants were collected for cytokine assessment, and monocytes were lysed in RLT buffer (Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit).

RNA extraction and quantitative real-time PCR. Biopsies preserved in RNAlater (Qiagen) were homogenized, and total RNA was extracted using TRIzol (Invitrogen). Total RNA was extracted from monocytes using an RNeasy kit (Qiagen). Total RNA was extracted from PBCs using a PAXgene blood RNA kit (Qiagen) with RNase inhibitor, using off-column DNase I digestion and ethanol precipitation to improve RNA yield and quality. First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 1 µg of RNA template with a cDNA archive kit (Applied Biosystems), using MultiScribe reverse transcriptase and random primers. Quantitative real-time PCR assays (mouse *Nlrp3*, Mm00840904_m1; human

NLRP3, Hs00918082_ml; 18S RNA, 4319413E; Applied Biosystems) were conducted using an ABI PRISM 7900 sequence detection system based on the 5' nuclease assay (Holland et al. 1991) and quantified using Applied Biosystems' comparative threshold cycle (C_t) method. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to evaluate tissue (mouse and human) expression differences. Associations between *NLRP3* expression or IL-1 β level and the genotypes of the Crohn's disease-associated SNPs were assessed using linear regression. Analyses were done using GraphPad Software.

DNA extraction. Monocyte DNA was isolated from whole blood using a FlexiGene DNA kit (Qiagen). PBC DNA was isolated using a Gentra Autopure automated system (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. IL-1 β was quantified in monocyte culture supernatants using a human IL-1 β DuoSet ELISA kit (R&D Systems) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

2.2.4 Results

We first assessed the association between 47 SNPs in the *NLRP3* region and Crohn's disease risk in 296 trios from Leuven University Hospital Gasthuisberg (see Methods and **Supplementary Table 2.1**). The major alleles of three tagging SNPs were significantly associated with increased risk of Crohn's

disease in the Leuven sample set ($P = 0.0107$ for rs4353135; $P = 7.63 \times 10^{-3}$ for rs4266924; $P = 1.68 \times 10^{-3}$ for rs10733113; **Figure 2.1** and **Table 2.1**). These SNPs span a 5.3-kb region and are located 4.7 kb downstream of *NLRP3* and 1.85 kb upstream of the olfactory receptor gene *OR2B11* (**Figure 2.1**). No associations were observed with SNPs within the *NLRP3* gene, and none of the associated SNPs were in linkage disequilibrium with tagging SNPs located in *NLRP3* or *OR2B11*. These preliminary associations pointed to the 5.3-kb region near *NLRP3*, bounded by rs4353135 and rs10733113, as a candidate region contributing to Crohn's disease susceptibility.

In the second phase of the study, we examined the association of the above three SNPs with risk of Crohn's disease in additional samples. Overall, we screened one case-control cohort (Liège) and three familial sample sets (Liège, Québec and Toronto; see Methods). We replicated our initial significant Crohn's disease associations with the major alleles of tagging SNPs rs4266924 and rs10733113 in all four sample sets ($P < 0.05$; **Figure 2.1** and **Table 2.1**). For the Québec and Toronto cohorts, the observed associations remained whether the analysis was done with or without samples from individuals of Jewish ancestry (data not shown). Association with rs4353135 was replicated only in the Toronto sample set ($P < 0.05$; **Figure 2.1** and **Table 2.1**). Combined analysis of all Crohn's disease samples revealed strong associations for rs4353135 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 8.36 \times 10^{-3}$, odds ratio = 1.21, confidence interval = 1.05–1.39, T allele frequency = 71% in cases and 65% in controls), rs4266924 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 6.01 \times 10^{-7}$, odds ratio = 1.69, confidence interval = 1.37–2.07, A allele frequency = 91% in cases and

84% in controls) and rs10733113 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 3.49 \times 10^{-9}$, odds ratio = 1.78, confidence interval = 1.47–2.16, G allele frequency = 90% in cases and 80% in controls).

This regional association was the first step in localizing the most likely causal variant(s). Because the observed association signal was not in linkage disequilibrium with any genotyped variant within *NLRP3*, we resequenced a 9-kb region extending from the *NLRP3* 3' UTR to the 5.3-kb region described above, inclusively, which also comprised *OR2B11* (**Supplementary Table 2.2**). Overall, we selected 16 Crohn's disease samples and 8 controls based on genotypes at markers rs4266924 and rs10733113 to fully define the linkage disequilibrium within the region and identify all polymorphisms in linkage disequilibrium with the associated SNPs. The resequencing effort identified 79 SNPs, 8 of which were previously genotyped. Among these SNPs, 14 were novel compared to dbSNP release 129, and 60 had a minor allele frequency ≥ 0.05 (**Supplementary Table 2.3**).

We next conducted comprehensive genotyping to identify polymorphisms with stronger associations (Methods). We genotyped a total of 24 SNPs in the Leuven exploratory Crohn's disease trios (**Supplementary Table 2.3**) and analyzed 15 of them after they passed quality control tests (see Methods). None of the SNPs within *OR2B11* (**Supplementary Table 2.3**) were associated with Crohn's disease. The major alleles of three SNPs, spanning a 1.8-kb region bounded by rs4353135 and rs10733113, were associated with Crohn's disease (**Figure 2.1** and **Table 2.1**). According to the computational method ESPERR

(Taylor et al. 2006), two of these SNPs (rs6672995 and rs55646866) are located in a predicted regulatory region. The third variant, ss107635144, was selected by the tagging algorithm (de Bakker et al. 2005). These SNPs were in high linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 > 0.70$) with rs4266924 and rs10733113. None of these three SNPs were tags for the SNPs that were not genotyped in the region.

We subsequently screened these three variants in the other four sample sets, and their associations were consistently replicated (**Figure 2.1** and **Table 2.1**). Combined analysis of all Crohn's disease samples revealed strong associations for rs55646866 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 7.2 \times 10^{-7}$, odds ratio = 1.69, confidence interval = 1.38–2.08, C allele frequency = 91% in cases and 84% in controls), rs6672995 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 2.91 \times 10^{-6}$, odds ratio = 1.53, confidence interval = 1.28–1.82, G allele frequency = 87% in cases and 79% in controls) and ss107635144 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 8.50 \times 10^{-6}$, odds ratio = 1.53, confidence interval = 1.27–1.84, C allele frequency = 88% in cases and 80% in controls).

Conditioning on one of these associated SNPs to evaluate the residual significance of the others did not provide evidence of additive effects of the associated SNPs on the risk. Rather, the association they all showed with Crohn's disease can be explained solely by linkage disequilibrium. To account for multiple testing issues, we note that if all 62 SNPs had been genotyped in the Leuven exploratory sample in the same study phase, then rs55646866 would have reached a significance level ($P = 5.72 \times 10^{-4}$) that, after correction using a permutation procedure, would have still been significant ($P_{\text{corrected}} = 0.019$, estimated from

5,000 replicates; see Methods). This result was further strengthened by the consistent replication of rs55646866 in all studied samples.

We next evaluated associations between genotype and gene expression to determine whether the above SNP associations reflected *cis*-acting regulatory effects on *NLRP3*. We first assessed the influence of the six SNPs (**Table 2.1**) on *NLRP3* mRNA expression from freshly isolated peripheral blood cells (PBCs) and from monocytes isolated from the peripheral blood, as *NLRP3* is primarily expressed in granulocytes and monocytes (Kummer et al. 2007) (Methods). A significant association was observed between *NLRP3* expression and rs4353135 genotypes in PBCs ($P = 0.00246$; **Figure 2.2a**) and monocytes ($P = 0.0124$; **Figure 2.2b**), with homozygosity for the risk allele being associated with the lowest level of *NLRP3* expression. Results for the five other Crohn's disease-associated SNPs are shown in **Supplementary Figure 2.1** and **Table 2.4**.

Because *NLRP3* is involved in IL-1 β processing, we therefore also evaluated whether these six SNPs influenced IL-1 β production. We cultured monocytes in the presence or absence of crude lipopolysaccharide (LPS; Methods), as its derivatives have been shown to stimulate *NLRP3* expression (Martinon et al. 2004). We then assessed IL-1 β levels in culture supernatants. We observed a borderline-significant association between IL-1 β levels and rs6672995 genotype under the unstimulated condition ($P = 0.0502$; **Figure 2.2c**) and a significant association under the LPS-stimulated condition ($P = 0.00591$; **Figure 2.2d**). In both cases, homozygosity for the risk allele was associated with the

lowest level of IL-1 β . Results for the five other Crohn's disease-associated SNPs are shown in **Supplementary Figure 2.2** and **Table 2.5**.

We also examined *Nlrp3* expression in colon tissues isolated from mice with TNBS-induced colitis, a model that mimics Crohn's disease-like intestinal inflammation, and in biopsies from individuals with Crohn's disease. *Nlrp3* expression was significantly higher in both acute (fold change = 9.38 ± 1.58 ; $P < 0.0009$) and chronic (fold change = 2.70 ± 0.88 ; $P < 0.0152$) TNBS-induced colitis models than in colon tissues from control mice (**Figure 2.2e**; see Methods). *NLRP3* expression was also significantly higher in the ulcerated intestinal mucosa from human Crohn's disease samples (fold change = 4.08 ± 1.33 ; $P < 0.0028$) than in healthy controls (**Figure 2.2f**; see Methods).

2.2.5 Figures

Figure 2.1: Association results for the five Crohn's disease sample sets

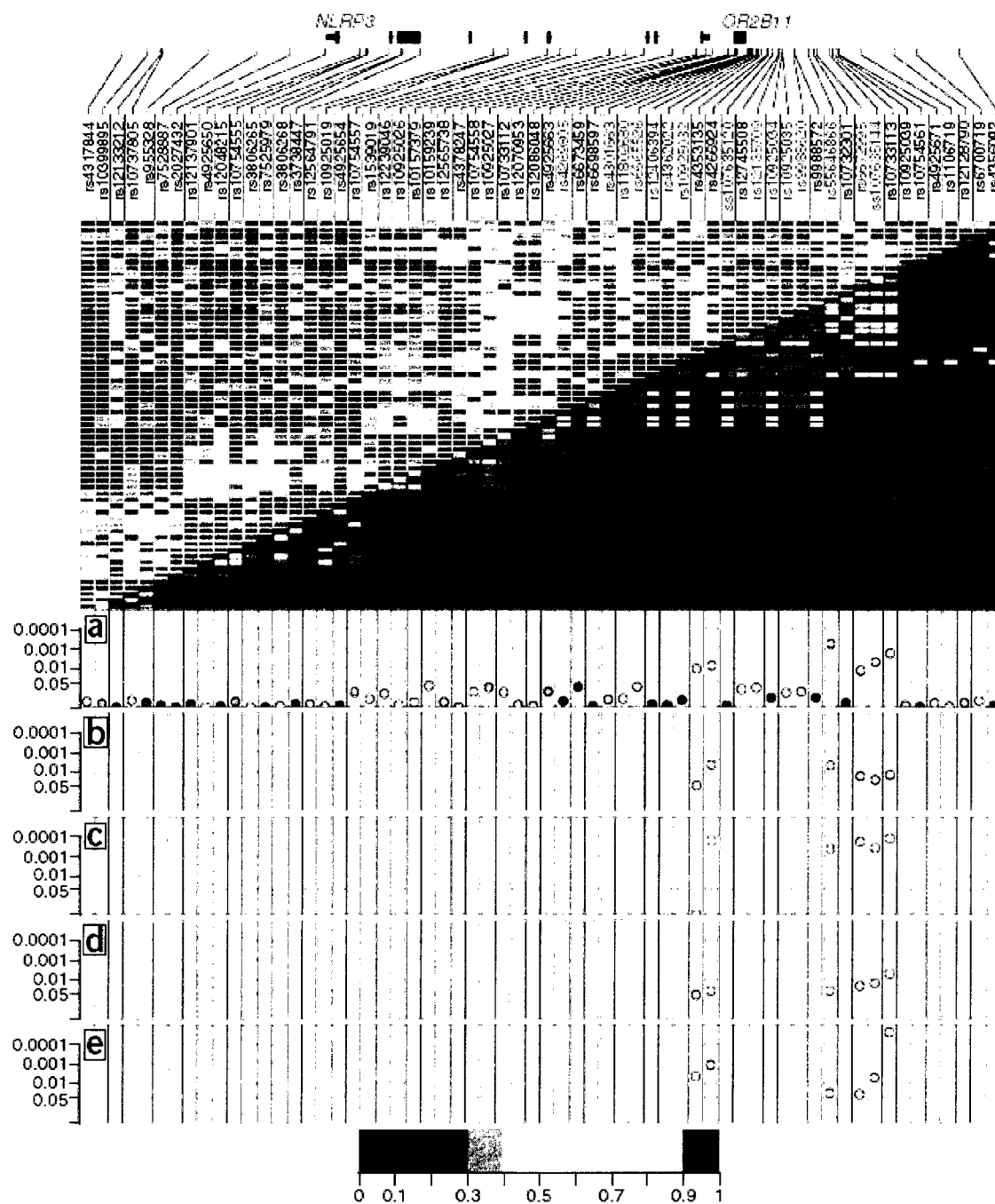


Figure 2.1: Top panel shows SNPs, their positions in the genes and the linkage disequilibrium structure between them. SNP names in red were genotyped in the second phase of the study, subsequent to the sequencing experiment. Middle panel shows D' in the upper left and r^2 in the lower right. (a–e) Lower panels show results from association analysis of Leuven trios (a), Liège trios (b), Liège case-control cohort (c), Québec trios (d) and Toronto trios (e). P values for individual alleles are reported in a logarithmic scale on the y axis. Color spectrum represents strength of linkage disequilibrium and frequency of the associated alleles.

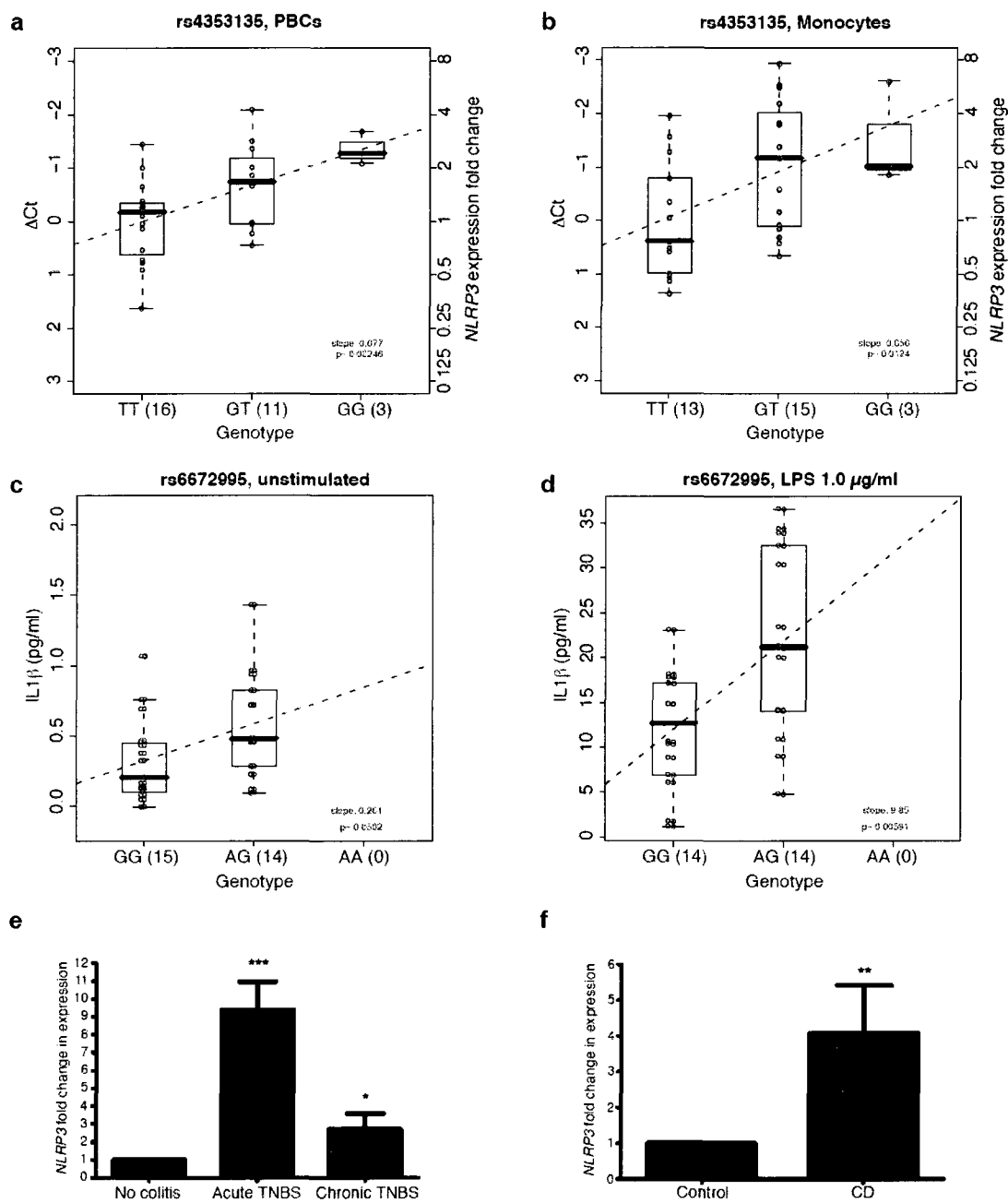
Figure 2.2: NLRP3 functional study results

Figure 2.2: (a,b) Linear regression analysis of *NLRP3* mRNA level versus rs4353135 genotype in DNA-RNA matched freshly isolated PBCs (a; $n = 30$) and monocytes (b; $n = 31$) obtained from healthy individuals. Genotypes of the six Crohn's disease (CD)-associated SNPs (**Table 2.1**) were obtained by sequencing. Mean threshold cycle (C_t) was calculated for each sample from three replicates and then used to calculate relative expression level (ΔC_t), which is the difference between *NLRP3* C_t and endogenous control 18S RNA C_t . Fold change in *NLRP3* expression was calculated using comparative C_t method (see Methods), using as a reference the average ΔC_t of homozygosity for the risk allele. (c,d) Linear regression analysis of IL-1 β production (pg/ml) versus rs6672995 genotype for unstimulated (c) and LPS-stimulated (d; 1.0 μ g/ml) conditions after 3 h of incubation. ΔC_t (a,b) and IL-1 β level (c,d) for each individual are shown in red; regression lines are shown as dashed lines (a–d). (e) Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of *Nlrp3* expression in colons of healthy mice ($n = 6$), mice with acute TNBS-induced colitis ($n = 12$) and mice with chronic TNBS-induced colitis ($n = 6$). (f) Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of *NLRP3* expression in colon specimens from healthy individuals ($n = 35$) and individuals with Crohn's disease ($n = 25$). Expression was normalized to 18S RNA expression; each bar represents mean fold change in *NLRP3* expression $\pm$ s.e.m. normalized to that of healthy colon specimens (e,f).

2.2.6 Table

Table 2.1: Association between SNPs in the 5.3kb region and risk to Crohn disease

SNP	Associated Allele	Frequency Control ^a	Frequency Case ^b	T:U ^c	Control Ratios ^d	Case Ratios ^d	Odds ratio (95% c.i.) ^e	p-value ^e
Leuven (296 trios)								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.65	0.73	118:82			1.44 (1.08-1.91)	0.0107
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.86	0.91	57:31			1.78 (1.14-2.79)	7.63 x 10 ⁻³
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.86	0.93	57:26			2.19 (1.37-3.52)	5.72 x 10 ⁻⁴
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.83	0.88	64:39			1.64 (1.09-2.48)	0.0133
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.84	0.91	64:36			1.78 (1.16-2.73)	4.82 x 10 ⁻³
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.84	0.91	65:34			1.91 (1.24-2.95)	1.68 x 10 ⁻³
Liege trios (155 trios)								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.62	0.73	33:20			1.65 (0.93-2.92)	0.0727
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.84	0.94	22:7			3.14 (1.36-7.26)	4.31 x 10 ⁻³
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.85	0.95	20:6			3.33 (1.36-8.18)	4.80 x 10 ⁻³
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.79	0.89	31:15			2.07 (1.11-3.84)	0.0171
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.80	0.90	27:13			2.08 (1.03-4.18)	0.0253
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.83	0.92	24:10			2.40 (1.16-4.96)	0.0148
Liege CC (239 CD and 107 controls)								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.65	0.65		39:44:11	92:95:27	1.01 (0.71-1.46)	0.944
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.79	0.90		63:35:4	184:41:2	2.43 (1.53-3.85)	1.62 x 10 ⁻⁴
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.80	0.91		66:32:4	191:38:3	2.33 (1.47-3.69)	4.32 x 10 ⁻⁴
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.74	0.86		57:40:7	172:56:4	2.19 (1.46-3.30)	1.87 x 10 ⁻⁴
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.75	0.86		57:38:7	165:56:3	2.13 (1.41-3.23)	3.94 x 10 ⁻⁴
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.76	0.88		58:38:5	177:47:3	2.36 (1.52-3.65)	1.20 x 10 ⁻⁴
Quebec (130 trios)^h								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.67	0.73	68:48			1.42 (1.00-2.01)	0.0627
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.85	0.91	43:26			1.65 (1.02-2.70)	0.0400
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.84	0.90	43:26			1.65 (1.02-2.70)	0.0400
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.78	0.85	53:32			1.66 (1.09-2.52)	0.0220
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.80	0.88	49:28			1.75 (1.12-2.73)	0.0160
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.79	0.89	53:28			1.89 (1.19-3.00)	5.10 x 10 ⁻³
Toronto (129 trios)ⁱ								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.62	0.74	63:35			1.80 (1.17-2.77)	4.40 x 10 ⁻³
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.82	0.92	39:16			2.50 (1.44-4.35)	1.12 x 10 ⁻³
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.83	0.90	36:20			1.80 (1.07-3.04)	0.0313
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.77	0.85	46:28			1.64 (1.05-2.56)	0.0355
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.78	0.88	46:23			2.00 (1.22-3.27)	5.18 x 10 ⁻³
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.77	0.91	50:17			3.00 (1.76-5.10)	2.47 x 10 ⁻⁵
Combined CD (710 trios, 239 CD and 107 controls)^j								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.65	0.71	282:185	39:44:11	92:95:27	1.21 (1.05-1.39)	8.36 x 10 ⁻³
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.84	0.91	161:80	63:35:4	184:41:2	1.69 (1.37-2.07)	6.01 x 10 ⁻⁷
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.84	0.91	156:78	66:32:4	191:38:3	1.69 (1.38-2.08)	7.20 x 10 ⁻⁷
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.79	0.87	194:114	57:40:7	172:56:4	1.53 (1.28-1.82)	2.91 x 10 ⁻⁶
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.80	0.88	186:100	57:38:7	165:56:3	1.53 (1.27-1.84)	8.50 x 10 ⁻⁶
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.80	0.90	192:89	58:38:5	177:47:3	1.78 (1.47-2.16)	3.49 x 10 ⁻⁹

Table 2.1 footnotes: ^a: Frequencies in controls are estimated from untransmitted alleles or unrelated controls; ^b: Frequencies in cases are estimated from transmitted alleles or unrelated cases; ^c: Ratio of transmitted versus untransmitted alleles from heterozygous parents; ^d: The genotype distribution in the cases and controls as x/y/z: homozygous for the high-risk allele (x), heterozygous (y), homozygous for the second allele (z); ^e: Odds ratios, confidence interval and *p*-values are computed from a likelihood test that assumes a multiplicative model for the risk, as implemented in UNPHASED (Dudbridge et al. 2008) (Methods). Allele association was evaluated in the case-control cohort. All tests are two tailed; ^f: SNPs associated with CD in exploratory phase; ^g: SNPs associated with CD in second genotyping phase; ^h: Includes 27 CD trios of Jewish ancestry; ⁱ: Includes 26 CD trios of Jewish ancestry; ^j: Includes 53 CD trios of Jewish ancestry.

2.2.7 Discussion

NLRP3 (chromosome 1q44) encodes NALP3, which is involved in the inflammasome signaling platform by regulating caspase-1 activity and IL-1 β processing. The importance of NALP3 in inflammation is highlighted by gain-of-function mutations within its NOD domain that are associated with three hereditary periodic fever syndromes: Muckle-Wells syndrome, familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome and neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease (Agostini et al. 2004; Mariathasan et al 2007). Hyperproduction of IL-1 β is thought to be a central event leading to symptoms in these three syndromes (Agostini et al. 2004). Consistent with these observations is the successful use of IL-1 β targeted therapy for treating Muckle-Wells syndrome (Hawkins et al. 2003) and familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome (Hoffman et al. 2004).

In our study, contrary to the gain-of-function mutations described above leading to hyperproduction of IL-1 β , we uncovered a regulatory region downstream of *NLRP3* that contributes to Crohn's disease susceptibility and is associated with hypoproduction of IL-1 β and decreased *NLRP3* expression. Indeed, the risk allele of rs6672995, located in a predicted regulatory region (Taylor et al. 2006), was associated with a decrease in LPS-induced IL-1 β production, and the risk allele of rs4353135 was associated with a decrease in baseline *NLRP3* expression in two independent sample sets of healthy donors. It is noteworthy that these two SNPs were in weak linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 < 0.105$) in our combined sample set. Although the causal variant has not been conclusively shown and may still be unidentified, it is most likely to be in linkage

disequilibrium with the tested variants. Nonetheless, we have shown that SNPs in the associated 5.3-kb region influence *NLRP3* at both the gene expression and functional levels, as indicated by altered *NLRP3* expression and IL-1 β production. Notably, dysregulated IL-1 β production has also been linked to Crohn's disease pathogenesis in which the three major *NOD2* (chromosome 16q12) mutations result in a loss-of-function phenotype, with decreased NF- κ B activation in response to muramyl dipeptide stimulation and decreased IL-1 β production in primary human mononuclear and dendritic cells from individuals with Crohn's disease (Li et al. 2004; Van Heel et al. 2005; Kramer et al. 2006; van Beelen et al. 2007). Our results further support the recent Crohn's disease immunopathogenesis paradigm, which suggests that a defective innate immune response impairs clearance of luminal antigens and/or pathogens and leads to the development of chronic intestinal inflammation and Crohn's disease. *NLRP3* may thus have a role in the initiation phase of the disease, as indicated by our *in vitro* and expression experiments, as well as a role in perpetuating chronic inflammation through further activation of caspase-1 and processing of IL-1 β , as indicated by the enhanced *NLRP3* expression in the Crohn's disease and chronic TNBS-induced colitis samples.

The *NLRP3* locus can be added to the list of several newly uncovered Crohn's disease loci at which the common allele has been reported to be the risk allele (Duerr et al. 2006; Rioux et al. 2007; Libioulle et al. 2007; Parkes et al. 2007; Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a; Barrett et al. 2008). Although it is difficult to strictly distinguish between one allele being a

susceptibility risk factor and the other being a protective one, estimating attributable fractions and prevented fractions in addition to odds ratios offers insight into how to interpret these associations with very common risk factors in the context of complex diseases. If the SNPs with the strongest associations from **Table 2.1** are interpreted as risk factors, then the attributable fractions (that is, the reduction in prevalence if the risk factor were removed from the population) of the alleles fall in the range of 45–55%. These proportions of 'cases explained' (all other factors being ignored) are large, but not surprisingly so, as most members of the population are carriers of the risk factors. Conversely, if the minor alleles are interpreted as protective factors, then their prevented fractions (that is, the proportion by which the prevalence would increase if the protective factor were removed from the population) fall in the range of 10–14%, a range easier to interpret in the context of complex genetic diseases.

Several recent genome-wide association studies have identified new Crohn's disease susceptibility genes using the Illumina HumanHap300 Genotyping BeadChip (Duerr et al. 2006; Rioux et al. 2007; Libioulle et al. 2007) and the Affymetrix GeneChip Human Mapping 500K Array Set (Wellcome Trust Case Control Consortium 2007a). Although rs4353135 is present on the Human Mapping 500K Array Set, this SNP showed the weakest significance of all six SNPs from **Table 2.1**, was the only one not consistently replicated across all samples and was in weak linkage disequilibrium with the other SNPs ($\max r^2 = 0.28$). **Supplementary Table 2.6** shows the linkage disequilibrium between SNPs on the Illumina HumanHap300 and the Affymetrix GeneChip Human Mapping

500K arrays that were not genotyped in the present study and the SNPs from **Table 2.1** found in HapMap. With a maximum r^2 of only 0.16, these observations may explain why this region escaped detection in these genome-wide association studies.

A recent meta-analysis of three large genome-wide association studies of Crohn's disease reported that well-established associations with Crohn's disease account for ~20% of the genetic variance observed in Crohn's disease, suggesting that additional genetic contributions have yet to be discovered (Barrett et al. 2008). With the exception of variations within *NOD2* and *IL23R*, established susceptibility alleles have been reported to have relatively modest effects, with odds ratios ranging from 0.7 to 1.7 (Barrett et al. 2008). Despite the modest contribution of *NLRP3* to the risk of Crohn's disease, our results strongly implicate *NLRP3*, a gene with an essential role in regulating the inflammasome, as a risk factor for Crohn's disease. Our results also suggest that a gene such as *NLRP3* that is associated with rare, severe autoinflammatory disorders can also be implicated in the susceptibility of more common inflammatory diseases such as Crohn's disease.

2.2.8 Accession numbers

GenBank: *NLRP3*, AF054176; *OR2B11*, NM_001004492. OMIM: *NLRP3*, 606416; *OR2B11*, 605956. SNP data have been submitted to NCBI dbSNP under the numbers ss107635120, ss107635122, ss107635124, ss107635126, ss107635128, ss107635130, ss107635132, ss107635133, ss107635136, ss107635138, ss107635140, ss107635142, ss107635144, ss107635146.

2.2.9 Acknowledgement

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2.2.10 Supplementary tables

Supplementary Table 2.1: Primers and probes of the 3 genotyping panels used in the study

ID	Sequence	Panel ID
rs4925671-F	AGAGGGAGAGTAACTGCACCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925671-R	ATTTTAATTCATGAGCTACAAATTCATG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925671-GA-U1	CAGCACTATTACCATCACGTGGTGCTGCTATTTCACAGTGGTTCCC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10157379-F	AGAGTCCTTGGCAATGGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10157379-R	TTAATTGGGAAGATAGAAACCAGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10157379-GA-U2	CTCAGACTACGAATCCACGTGTTTTTAAGCTCTTTGGTGTCTAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12133212-F	TTAAACATTTTGTCCTTTGCTCT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12133212-GA-R	ATCACAAATAAAGCAGCACAAA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12133212-GA-U3	CAGCCATCCATTCACTATCTATGTTCTCCACCACACTGAATGACG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs9988572-F	AACTGGTGGGTGCTCATTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs9988572-R	TACAAAGGGGTTTGAGGACA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs9988572-GA-U4	ATCTAACGCACCTACGACCTTACTTCCCTTCTCCTCTCAATGCTA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925019-F	CCAACTTCAAGCAAATGGAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925019-R	TAGTGCCATGGAGACTGGTT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925019-GA-U5	CAACAAAGTAATCCGCAGACTTTTGGGCAATGAAGTTGGAGAAATAA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925027-F	CTCCACGATTTTCAATCTCC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925027-R	TGGCAAATGATTCATTGTA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925027-GA-U6	ACAACCTCACGCAAGTACCATTTTTCAATCTCCTATCCTATCAAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10733113-F	CAGAAACAATGAGTGGCACAG	SNPstream exploratory panel

rs10733113-R	ACTACTTCTTGGCGCCTGTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10733113-GA-U7	TACAAGCACGCACTAGACATGCTTTTGTGTGTGTGTGAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6698597-F	CAAAACACTCTGACGGTGATG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6698597-R	TGTGTCTTTGCTCTCTCTTCC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6698597-GA-U8	AGACTTCTACGCAAGCACTGTTCTCACATACTTAATGTCTCTATC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10733112-F	TCTCCACAAATTTTACACGACTT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10733112-R	AGGATCCACAAATGTTTCCCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10733112-GA-U9	CCGCCAGTAAGACCTAGACGCCACAAATTTTACACGACTTTTTCAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs2027432_F	ATGGAGACTCAGGCTCTGCTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs2027432_R	CGTGAGGCCCTTTAAACACAGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs2027432_GA_U10	TCCAGAATAGACAAACAGACGCTCTGTCAGTTCTGTAGAAAGGTGGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10737805-F	TTTCTTTTATCTGAGTTTGTGCGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10737805-R	TTCTCTGTGAGATGAAAGAAATTTACA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10737805-GA-U11	AGCAAGACCACCTAGACCAGCATCTTCATCTCCTTTTGCAATCAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10802510-F	TGATATTACCCATTCTCTTTGTCAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10802510-R	TGCTAATTGAATCATTCACACA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10802510-GA-U12	CCAGATCCTCACCATGTAAAGACTACATATTTATGAATTACAATGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10754561-F	ATTTAATCACATGAATTGTAGCTCAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10754561-R	TTCCCTCAGTTGTTTGGCTTAA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10754561-GA-U13	CAACAATACGAGCCAGCAAGCTACAAGAATTCTATTGGCCATAA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925650_F	GGAGAAATTGCTTGAACATGG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925650_R	TTTGCCTCCACCTTCTCATA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925650-GA-U14	AACATACAGACGCACTCCTCGGTTTTTYCTCTTTTCCCCCTCTCAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs947181-F	GGTGGGTTAGGTTTAGGT	SNPstream exploratory panel

rs947181-R	CAGCCCATATAAAGACCTCTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs947181-GA-U15	ACAATCAACATACGAACAGCTTACTCAGGTGGCTGAAGTGGGTGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3806265-F	GGAGCATTTTCTGCACCTCCTA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3806265-R	TGTTTGCTGATTGATTTCCTA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3806265-GA-U16	ATACCTACCAACGCTACAGCCTTTTCTGCACTCCTAGTTTCAAAACA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12089794-F	TCCAGCTTGGGTTTCATC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12089794-R	CAAGATCATGCCACAGCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12089794-GA-U17	GCAGACAACGAACAACACTACCAAAAAATTCACTCTAGTTCCACCTCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925039-F	GGATGCAGAGGATGGAGTAA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925039-R	ACAGGCCGCAAGAAGTAGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925039-GA-U18	AACATCCACGCAACTCATACGTGGGGTAAAATGTACGTTATTCGG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925654-F	TAAGGATAGGGACACAGAAAGGAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925654-R	AACAAAAACTATACTTTATCCCTGTCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925654-GA-U19	CCACTCAACTCCACGAAATACTAACAGGGCTCCAGGACCTATGAACT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs955328-F	AGGGACATTTGAGAGCAGTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs955328-R	CGTACAGTGTGTGCCCTTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs955328-GA-U20	ACAACCTACCGACGACACAGACAACCCCTGAGGACATTGTGCTGAGTGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12745508-F	TTAATTCTGGCTGAGTTCCCT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12745508-R	ATTGTGGTGGGATCACAGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12745508-GA-U21	GATCCATCAACAGACATCACTCCTCACTTCACTCTAGTTTCAGCACC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4266924-F	GGGAGAAAAGGGAGAAAGTTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4266924-R	TGCTGCCGTGTAACATAAGGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4266924-GA-U22	GCAACATAAGACCCGCTCAACGCCCTTAATATCTCAGCAAGGTCCAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12564791-F	AACATTCAATTCAGTGGGTGC	SNPstream exploratory panel

rs12564791-R	TAGACCATCAGCTCCCCG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12564791-GA-U23	AGTAGCCTAACAGCACTCGAATGTCTGTCCAGGCGTGGCAAAGAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3806268-F	ATGATGAGCATTTCTGAGCCT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3806268-R	ATATAGAACAGATAGTCAAAACCTGTCTTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3806268-GA-U24	CAACAAAGACATAACAAACGCACCAGGAAGATGATGTTGGACTGGGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10754557-F	AATCAGAAAGTGTACATAGAGCTTGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10754557-R	CAACCTTCCATAGAGATGGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10754557-GA-U25	CCATAACAACCTTACCAGCCAGCTTCCTTGTCCATGTTGGAGCGTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs7525979-F	ACATCATCTTCCTGGCCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs7525979-R	ATTAAGATGGAGTTGCTGTTGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs7525979-GA-U26	AGACCGACAAGCAATCTACATCCCTGCCGCCCTGGGAACACCCAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4317844-F	AGAACCTGGGGGTACAAAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4317844-R	CAGTTCCAGACTCTCGCTGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4317844-GA-U27	GCAAGCCATCAGCTAATACAGGGGTACAAAGGCATCGTGAAACCT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12565738-F	GAGCAACTTGGAGGAAGTGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12565738-R	AATTCTGTGCTCCGTGCTT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12565738-GA-U28	CACTACATACGACCGCAGAAAGAAATCAGGTTTCGGGTAGAGAGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10159239-F	GAGGAAAGCTGTGTGAGGAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10159239-R	TGTCACAGGAGACACAAATGAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10159239-GA-U29	AATAAGCTCACCAACCGTCAATCAGTTTGCCCTTGGCTCTTTCTGTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10732301-F	ATTTTACACTTGCTGCTTAATACGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10732301-R	GCAGGATGGGCAGTATTAAAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10732301-GA-U30	CAGTCAACAATCCAGATCAACATCGACCCATCCATCCTCCACCTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12070953-F	TTTATTCTCTCTTCTATTCCATAATCAC	SNPstream exploratory panel

rs12070953-R	TACATCTCATGTCTCTCATCATCC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12070953-GA-U31	CAGAACATCCTCAGAAAGCAATTCACTACACCCCTGAGAAATAAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12086048-F	TGCTCAGGATCCAGTCCTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12086048-R	ATGTAAATCGCAGGTAGGTAGAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12086048-GA-U32	CAAGCAACGACCTACTACAAAGGACGACACAAAGGCCTTTGGGAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12048215-F	AGGTAATTGCAGGATGATGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12048215-R	CTGCACACTGCTGTCTGTTT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12048215-GA-U33	CGCAGAAAGCAACTCACTTCTAAGGCAGGGCAGCAGTGTGGGTGTA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10399895-F	AAGTAGAAGGGTGGGAGGT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10399895-R	GGCACATCCTGAATCAGTTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10399895-GA-U34	CACTAGTCATAACGCAGCCTAAGGGTGGGAGGTTGAGGTTGAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925663-F	CCTTCTTCGTGTTGTGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925663-R	TCCCTTGGAGGACTGGAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925663-GA-U35	CAGAAATAGCCACGCCCTAGATCTGGCTCTCATCCTTCTCTCCTATG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs1106719-F	GCAGCTACAGTCAGTGGACAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs1106719-R	ACACCAAGCAGAGCAAGTCT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs1106719-GA-U36	CACCGCTATCAACAGACTTGTTCACAGGCATTCTAGAAATGAGAAA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925022-F	GATGCTTCCTCTGTTCTGGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925022-R	CTGGTTGCTGCTGAGGAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925022-GA-U37	ACCGCACTAAGCAATGTATCCTCTGTCTCTGGAGCTCTCTGGTCAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3738447-F	GCTTCCAGGTGCTTCCTC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3738447-R	ATACATCAATCTTTGCTCATGAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs3738447-GA-U38	ACGTAAGACCACCTCAAGACCGCTTCCTCGCCAGCTTCTTCTTGGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12137901-F	AATAGAAGGAGAAGGCCAGG	SNPstream exploratory panel

rs12137901-R	TTCATCTCACTTCAATCCACTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12137901-GA-U39	CACGACAAAGACAACAGATACGGTGAGTAAGTGTGTGATAACAGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6673762_F	TGGCACTTTGTTACAGCAGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6673762_R	TCATCATGTTGTCCAGGCTA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6673762-GA-U40	AAGTACCACGTCAACGTACAGCATTTTGGGAGGCCGAGGCGGGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925014-F	GGCATGGATTTTACTGCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925014-R	AGCTCATTTGGCTGAACCTG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10925014-GA-U41	TACCTATGACCAGCAAGCACACTCCTGGGCTCAAGCTATCCTCCC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6677787-F	AGAAAGCAGACCATGTGG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6677787-R	ATCTCTTTTGTGCTTTCTCATAAAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6677787-GA-U42	CTCACTATCTGACAAGCCACTGGGGAGGAGAAAGCGTGGGCCCATG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12239046-F	AGTCGTGAAATCCCCAGAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12239046-R	TCCTCTTTGGAAGCCTTCTT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12239046-GA-U44	CAAGACCGCAACTAGATACAGGAGGGGGAAGCTATAACATTAGC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4378247-F	GAGCACCTCCAATGACAGAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4378247-R	GAACCCACATTGGGCACTTAG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4378247-GA-U43	AGCCGAACCTACCACTGAGTACACGGCTCCCAATAAAAATGTGGGG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925546-F	GTATCACCCAATAAGGTCACAAATCT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925546-R	TTTATATTATGTTCTAGTTTCAATAGATAGG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4925546-GA-U45	CTAACTAAGCTACGCCGACACTAGGACTTCCACATATAAAGTCTT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12128790_F	CCTGATAAGGGGTAACACTCA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12128790_R	TTTGCAATTTCCCTGATGACT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs12128790-GA-U46	ACAGATCACTCACCCGACTAAACTCTTACAACCTCAAACTAAGAGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6700719-F	AAGCTATACAGTGGTGAAATCCTAGT	SNPstream exploratory panel

rs6700719_R	ATTTCACAGAAATCAGATAAACTGGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs6700719-GA-U47	ACAAGAACTCCATGACTCAACATGGCAGTGATTTCAGTGTGAAAC	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4356092-F	AAATGTTTTCATTGTGTTCCACAT	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4356092-R	AGTTTTTTTCAGCCTTAAGAAATATG	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs4356092-GA-U48	CGATCACCTCACTAGAACAAAGAACTTTTAATCTCACCCAGGGGA	SNPstream exploratory panel
rs10157379_F	ACGTTGGATGTGCTGTCATCTGTTTCATGC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10157379_R	ACGTTGGATGTGCCAGAGTCCTTGGCAATG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10157379_F_CT	GTATTTCCTATTTTTCCTGCCT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10399895_F	ACGTTGGATGTACAAAGTGCAGGTTTCTGAAAAG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10399895_R	ACGTTGGATGACGCAGAGTGGAGGAATAGATA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10399895_F_CT	TCGTACCCCAACAGGTAAT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10732301_F	ACGTTGGATGCTTAATACGTGGCCATTGCT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10732301_R	ACGTTGGATGAACCCCTGGAGGTGAGTGATT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10732301_F_AG	ATCCATCCTCCACCTC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10737805_F	ACGTTGGATGTGTGATCTTCA TTTCTGGAGACT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10737805_R	ACGTTGGATGTTGTCTATCACATGTAAGGGTCTG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10737805_R_CT	GGGTTGGACGACACAGGCAA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10754555_F	ACGTTGGATGGAAACAGACAGCAGTGTGCA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10754555_R	ACGTTGGATGTAAGTACTGACACAAATGATAATTGC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10754555_F.CG	GATGGGAGGTCAGAAACCA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10754558_F	ACGTTGGATGAGCTTGGGCATCTCCTTTAC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10754558_R	ACGTTGGATGGAAACATCCTCTAACTGAGGC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10754558_F.CG	ACAAATGACAGCATCGGGTGTGT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10802496_F	ACGTTGGATGAGTCAAGCCATGTATGCCTCA	Sequenom exploratory panel

rs10802496_R	ACGTTGGATGGGTTTACCATAATTGGTCAGG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10802496_F_AT	TACTATTGGCTGGGCG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10802510_F	ACGTTGGATGATTTGAGGGTGATGGATATGCT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10802510_R	ACGTTGGATGTAAATACTGTAAACATTTTTAAAGTTCCA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10802510_F_CT	ACAAATGTATACACATATATCAAAATAT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925014_F	ACGTTGGATGATAAAGGCATGGATTTTACTGC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925014_R	ACGTTGGATGCTGTAAATCCAGCTCTCAGG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925014_R_CT	AAATCAGGGAGGCAAGAGG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925019_F	ACGTTGGATGCCATGGAGACTGGTTGTTG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925019_R	ACGTTGGATGGCCTCTCCAGAATCATACAG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925019_F_CT	TGGTTGTTGGGACATTTAAC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925026_F	ACGTTGGATGGATCACAACCTCAAGATGGG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925026_R	ACGTTGGATGTCCATCTAAGAAGCTCCTAC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925026_R_GT	CCTCAAGATGGGAATGTTA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925039_F	ACGTTGGATGCGCAAGAAGTAGTGACATT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925039_R	ACGTTGGATGAGGGAGGAGAAATTACGTGG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs10925039_F_CT	TGGGCATTTAGCGTAACTATCA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12048215_F	ACGTTGGATGGGGAAGGAGGAGTACAAATG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12048215_R	ACGTTGGATGTGGTTTCTGACCTCCCCCG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12048215_F_AG	GCAGCAGTGTGGTGTA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12062001_F	ACGTTGGATGGTGACAGAGCGAGATTCCAT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12062001_R	ACGTTGGATGACAGAGCAGGGGAATGAAACA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12062001_R_AT	GAGAAAAGCAAGCACATT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12070953_F	ACGTTGGATGCATGTCCTCATCATCCACAG	Sequenom exploratory panel

rs12070953_R	ACGTTGGATGAATCACCCCCACTCTCAATC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12070953_F_CT	CAGAGCCCCCTTCATA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12089794_F	ACGTTGGATGATTCCAGCTTGGGTTTCATC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12089794_R	ACGTTGGATGAAGATCATGCCACAGCACTC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs12089794_F_AG	TCATCTAGTTCCACCTCA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs1539019_F	ACGTTGGATGCTACCTTCTCTCTGAGTGTC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs1539019_R	ACGTTGGATGGCTATAGGGTAGGGTATCTTG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs1539019_F_GT	TCTCTGAGTGTCCTTGGACAAAG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs2027432_F	ACGTTGGATGACCAAGCACTACATCAACCC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs2027432_R	ACGTTGGATGGAGCATTTCTCTCTGCAGTTTC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs2027432_F_CT	AGTTGGTTCCGATGAC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4353135_F	ACGTTGGATGGAGAGAATGAAGGAAGCAAG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4353135_R	ACGTTGGATGTATTACAGTACCTGGCTCAC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4353135_F_GT	AAGATAGAGGGGTAATGTAT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4356092_F	ACGTTGGATGGTCTGGATACACAGCAAATG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4356092_R	ACGTTGGATGGCCCTTAAGAAATTATGTTTCC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4356092_F_AG	TTAATCTCACCCAGGGGA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4925546_F	ACGTTGGATGCAATAGATAGGGTGTATGG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4925546_R	ACGTTGGATGCCCTGTGAAAGAACACAAAGTC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4925546_R_CT	ATGGATTGAATTGTTTCCTC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4925671_F	ACGTTGGATGCATGAGCTACAAATTCATGTG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4925671_R	ACGTTGGATGGAGTCAAAACCTAGAGAGGG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs4925671_F_CT	CATCATGTGATTAAATGCTGCTA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6673459_F	ACGTTGGATGCCCCCAAGTCTTGGCAATTGA	Sequenom exploratory panel

rs6673459_R	ACGTTGGATGCTTTGCTCTCCTTCCTACTC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6673459_R_CA	TCAGGAATATTAAATGGTTTAGTTG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6673762_F	ACGTTGGATGTCATCATGTTGTCCAGGCTAGT	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6673762_R	ACGTTGGATGGTTACAGCAGAAACCACACCA	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6673762_F_CT	AGTCCTGACCTCAGGTGATC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6700719_F	ACGTTGGATGCCCTCAAGCTATACAGTGGTG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6700719_R	ACGTTGGATGAGAGCCCCAGAGTAAACCAG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs6700719_F_AG	GGAAAGTGATTTTCAGTGTGAAAC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs7528887_F	ACGTTGGATGCCCTGAAATTTGCTAAGAGAG	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs7528887_R	ACGTTGGATGCATGAGTTAACATAGCCACC	Sequenom exploratory panel
rs7528887_R_CA	AAGAGATTTTAGATGTTTTCACCAC	Sequenom exploratory panel
9kb_ss107635120_GA-F	ACGTTGGATAGAAAGGGGCAGGGATTAGA	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635120_GA-R	ACGTTGGATCCATTGAGAAACCGTGTGTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635120_GA-Pa	ACAAGAGAAACCGTGTGTGTGTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635122_CT-F	ACGTTGGATGATACCTTGGCTCTTCCACTC	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635122_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGTCATGACCACACACGCACAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635122_CT-P	ACACGCACAGCAGCCCTGTCACTCACA	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635124_CT-F	ACGTTGGATGTGGGAACTACTGTGTCCATC	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635124_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGGCACTCCTTGACCTTCTTTC	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635124_CT-P	ATCTTTCATCTTCCCACTAC	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635126_GA-F	ACGTTGGATTGAATTCGCCGAGTTTCTTC	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635126_GA-R	ACGTTGGATGCAAATGTCAGGGGATAAGAGGT	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635126_GA-Pa	GCGGAATGATATATATCTAAGGGTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635130_TA-F	ACGTTGGATGCCCTCAACTCCACCTCTTCA	Sequenom Phase II panel

9kb_ss107635130_TA-R	ACGTTGGATCTATTCCAGCAGGAGGATG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635130_TA-Pa	TCTGGCACAGGATGAGAAAGG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635144_CT-F	ACGTTGGATGCACAAAGTGAGGACACAGATAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635144_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGAAGCATGAGACCTGAACTGG	Sequenom Phase II panel
9kb_ss107635144_CT-P	CTGAACTGGCTTCAACACACAGGCT	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs55646866_CT-F	ACGTTGGATGAAAAAGGCGATGACGTGTGG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs55646866_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGAGTGATGGGCCCTATGGGAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs55646866_CT-P	CTATGGGAGGGAGGATA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925032_AG-F	ACGTTGGATGATTCCCTCCATTGAAACCCCTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925032_AG-R	ACGTTGGATGCATGTTGCAACAGGTGTTCC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925032_AG-P	TTCCCTGCTGCCCCAGTTGAT	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925034_rs10925035-F	ACGTTGGATGGTATCACAGCCTGCGTGTTC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925034_rs10925035-R	ACGTTGGATGCGCTCAAGAGTTACCTGCTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925034_AG-P	CTCAAAGAGTTACCTGCTGATTGTATC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925035_GA-Pa	GGAAACTGCGGGGAATTGAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925040_CT-F	ACGTTGGATGAAGCCAAACAACACTGAGGAAC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925040_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGCTTACTCCATCCTCTGTCATC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs10925040_CT-P	ATTAGCTCCCACCTGTAA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs11583410_CA-F	ACGTTGGATGATGAGAACGGCATAGTGCAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs11583410_CA-R	ACGTTGGATGATATGCAGTCTTCCACTGGC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs11583410_CA-Pa	ATCCCAACCCTGGACCGCTACGTGGCCA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs11802680_GA-F	ACGTTGGATCATCACCGTCAGAGTGTGTA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs11802680_GA-R	ACGTTGGATGCCCTTCTGCTTGCTTTATG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs11802680_GA-Pa	CGTTATGCTTGCTTTATGTCAC	Sequenom Phase II panel

rs12028142_rs35305980-F	ACGTTGGATGCTCAATTGGCCACAAGTGCC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12028142_rs35305980-R	ACGTTGGATGACACACCCAGAAAGGATGAAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12028142_AG-P	AATTGTGAAGGCTTTAGGGGA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs35305980_-A-Pa	GCAACATGAAAAGTGACAAACCATAGCT	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12135709_GC-F	ACGTTGGATGCAATGTTGCATCGTTGCAGG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12135709_GC-R	ACGTTGGATGCAGGTAGCAAGTTCCAAAGAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12135709_GC-Pa	TCGTTTCTGCCCAGGAC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12406394_AT-F	ACGTTGGATGGCTGCTCGGCAAAAGAAATTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12406394_AT-R	ACGTTGGATGCTACGGAAAGATCAGACTGC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12406394_AT-P	GCTTGAGTGACATTCCA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12756328_GC-F	ACGTTGGATGTCTCATAATGCTCTCCCTCC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12756328_GC-R	ACGTTGGATGTTCCTCATGTCTGTGAATGAC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs12756328_GC-Pa	ATTATCGGGGGCCCATCAGGGAGTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4269805_CT-F	ACGTTGGATCCACTCTTCCTTTCCCAAGGT	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4269805_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGCAAAAGACACACAGAGGCTGCT	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4269805_CT-P	TTCAGAAACCAGGAGCCCCAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4301663_AG-F	ACGTTGGATCCTCCTTCAATTGCCAAGAC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4301663_AG-R	ACGTTGGATTCAAACACTCTGACGGTGATG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4301663_AG-P	GCATTCTAGAGCGAAGCGTGCT	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4362022_CT-F	ACGTTGGATGGAAGGTGTGCAATGCTTGAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4362022_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGTGCTGTTAGGAAGCAACTGG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs4362022_CT-P	CCTTTCGACTGCACCA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs6665526_CT-F	ACGTTGGATGTGCGTGTGTGTCATGACAG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs6665526_CT-R	ACGTTGGATGGGCTGTATTGATAGGACCAC	Sequenom Phase II panel

rs6665526_CT-P	GCTTGCATCCAGCTCCCGGATTCA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs6672995_AG-F	ACGTTGGATGAGCCCATCAGAGGAAATGTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs6672995_AG-R	ACGTTGGATGAGTCTGTGTGGCCCTTAGTC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs6672995_AG-P	CCGCGGAGGGACATTAA	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs9988620_CA-F	ACGTTGGATGCCTCAAAACCCCTTTGTACTG	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs9988620_CA-R	ACGTTGGATGTTTCAGGACAGCCCGGTTTC	Sequenom Phase II panel
rs9988620_CA-P	ATGCCCTCACTAATTAAACACTATTTC	Sequenom Phase II panel

Supplementary Table 2.2: Primers used for the 9kb sequencing experiment

ID	Primer Sequence
9kb_set1_F	ATGCACCGTGCTCTCTGTC
9kb_set1_R	GAATCAGGAAATTGGAAGTGAAA
9kb_set2_F	GCAAAGACACAGAGGCTGCT
9kb_set2_R	CGGCACCTCACAGAAAAAGT
9kb_set3_F	CTGCTCGGCAAAGAAATTGT
9kb_set3_R	TCCCAGGTGATAGCCTGTTT
9kb_set4_F	GCCACAGCTCACTGTTTTGA
9kb_set4_R	AAGCTCTTGATTGGCGTGAG
9kb_set5_F	TCTCCTCCCAGATTCTATCAACA
9kb_set5_R	CCATTGAGAAACCGTGTGTG
9kb_set6_F	AGAAAGGGGCAGGGATTAGA
9kb_set6_R	TTCGTGTGAGGGTGAGTGAG
9kb_set7_F	CTTGCTACCTGCCTCTCTGC
9kb_set7_R	GTGCCAGCTAACGTCTCGAT
9kb_set8_F	TTTGCAGTCCTGGTTCAATG
9kb_set8_R	GCAAGACCCCATCTCTATTTATTTT
9kb_set9_F	CCTCTGGATGTCATAATCTGTCAC
9kb_set9_R	CCAGCTCCTTCTCCTCCTCT
9kb_set10_F	AGAGTCCTCAGCCTCGTCAG
9kb_set10_R	TTCCTGGAATATGAAGAGCATTT
9kb_set11_F	ATCCTGCACCTCCACTGC
9kb_set11_R	CACACACACACACACAGAGTTCTT
9kb_set12_F	TGAGGTGGTGTGAGAGCTTG
9kb_set12_R	TCTGTGCCACTCATTGTTCTG
9kb_set13_F	TCTGTGCCTCACTTGTGTTTTC
9kb_set13_R	CATGACTCACCCTGTGTCCA

Supplementary Table 2.3: SNPs uncovered while sequencing the 9kb region

#	SNP ID	Position (dbSNP129)	Frequency ^e
1	rs4925663 ^a	245,681,240	0.417
2	rs11583410 ^c	245,681,519	0.354
3	rs12028142 ^c	245,681,875	0.25
4	rs35305980 ^c	245,681,886	0.417
5	rs4269805 ^c	245,682,093	0.063
6	rs6673459 ^a	245,682,135	0.071
7	rs6698597 ^a	245,682,218	0.045
8	rs4301663 ^c	245,682,292	0.136
9	rs10802505	245,682,403	0.432
10	rs11802680 ^d	245,682,407	0.333
11	rs6665526 ^c	245,682,510	0.432
12	ss107635122 ^{b,d}	245,682,563	0.024
13	rs10925031	245,682,666	0.024
14	rs6674091	245,682,723	0.024
15	rs12406394 ^c	245,682,804	0.026
16	rs4362022 ^d	245,682,942	0.043
17	rs4372298	245,683,069	0.457
18	rs10925032 ^c	245,683,202	0.022
19	rs4333884	245,683,346	0.457
20	rs4593864	245,683,356	0.457
21	rs4518943	245,683,389	0.457
22	rs4436424	245,683,425	0.478
23	rs55903505 ^b	245,683,462	0.435
24	rs4353135 ^a	245,683,659	0.413
25	rs56310736 ^b	245,683,709	0.022
26	rs4266924 ^a	245,683,757	0.457
27	rs10802506	245,683,999	0.478
28	rs6677999	245,684,020	0.478
29	ss107635120 ^{b,c}	245,684,132	0.022
30	ss107635124 ^{b,d}	245,684,289	0.048
31	rs6669625	245,684,356	0.022
32	rs10802507	245,684,374	0.477
33	rs10802508	245,684,378	0.477
34	ss107635146 ^b	245,684,452	0.021
35	rs12745508	245,684,602	0.477
36	rs12135709 ^c	245,684,694	0.406
37	rs10925033	245,684,862	0.438
38	rs10925034 ^d	245,684,892	0.042
39	rs10925035 ^d	245,684,900	0.438
40	ss107635126 ^{b,d}	245,684,966	0.021
41	rs6672845	245,685,068	0.5
42	rs10925036	245,685,254	0.438

43	rs9700400	245,685,366	0.438
44	ss107635128 ^b	245,685,521	0.438
45	rs10925038	245,685,641	0.479
46	ss107635130 ^{b,d}	245,685,647	0.042
47	rs9988617	245,685,669	0.479
48	rs9988501	245,685,739	0.479
49	rs9287213	245,685,750	0.042
50	rs9988571	245,685,778	0.479
51	rs9988620 ^c	245,685,814	0.479
52	ss107635132 ^b	245,685,884	0.438
53	rs9988621	245,685,903	0.479
54	rs9988572	245,685,933	0.042
55	ss107635133 ^b	245,685,965	0.438
56	ss107635136 ^b	245,686,061	0.438
57	ss107635138 ^b	245,686,130	0.438
58	ss107635140 ^b	245,686,136	0.438
59	rs4925664	245,686,610	0.043
60	rs12756328 ^d	245,686,690	0.143
61	rs4925666	245,686,879	0.476
62	rs55646866 ^{b,c}	245,687,008	0.457
63	rs4925667	245,687,277	0.5
64	rs10732301	245,687,457	0.043
65	ss107635142 ^b	245,687,462	0.457
66	rs6672995 ^c	245,687,656	0.479
67	rs4925669	245,687,946	0.479
68	rs11267736	245,688,318	0.475
69	ss107635144 ^{b,d}	245,688,775	0.295
70	rs10732302	245,688,851	0.479
71	rs55775744 ^b	245,688,902	0.435
72	rs10737807	245,688,941	0.5
73	rs34837390	245,688,958	0.479
74	rs10733113 ^a	245,688,980	0.479
75	rs10925039 ^a	245,689,184	0.146
76	rs10925040 ^d	245,689,321	0.417
77	rs10925041	245,689,331	0.417
78	rs10754561 ^a	245,689,423	0.083
79	rs4925671	245,689,497	0.438

Supplementary Table 2.3 footnotes: ^a SNPs (n=8) observed in the sequencing experiment that had already been genotyped in the exploratory phase; ^b Novel SNPs (n=18) uncovered in the sequencing experiment as of dbSNP Build 126; 4 of these SNPs are now part of dbSNP Build 129; ^c SNPs (n=13) that were prioritized for the second phase of the genotyping experiments; ^d SNPs (n=11) observed in the sequencing experiment that were selected as tag for the second phase of the genotyping experiments using a pairwise tagging approach; ^e The minor allele frequency was estimated using the 24 samples sequenced for the 9kb region.

Supplementary Table 2.4: Association results between *NLRP3* gene expression levels and associated genotypes

SNP ID	Unstimulated Monocytes			Unstimulated Peripheral Blood Cells		
	Slope	R ²	p value	Slope	R ²	p value
rs4353135	0.856 ± 0.321	0.1968	0.0124	0.677 ± 0.203	0.2833	0.00246
rs4266924	0.356 ± 0.578	0.01292	0.543	0.753 ± 0.450	0.09112	0.105
rs55646866	0.356 ± 0.578	0.01292	0.543	0.800 ± 0.442	0.1080	0.0817
rs6672995	-0.011 ± 0.466	0.0000207	0.980	0.301 ± 0.357	0.02577	0.405
ss107635144	-0.134 ± 0.491	0.002545	0.787	0.603 ± 0.415	0.07025	0.157
rs10733113	-0.134 ± 0.491	0.002545	0.787	0.603 ± 0.415	0.07025	0.157

Supplementary Table 2.5: Association results between IL-1 β levels and associated genotypes

SNP ID	Unstimulated			LPS 1 μ g/ml		
	Slope	R ²	p value	Slope	R ²	p value
rs4353135	-0.0916 ± 0.102	0.02786	0.378	-0.623 ± 2.85	0.001767	0.829
rs4266924	0.0045 ± 0.166	0.0000260	0.979	4.44 ± 4.485	0.0350	0.331
rs55646866	0.0568 ± 0.178	0.00363	0.752	6.51 ± 4.733	0.06554	0.180
rs6672995	0.2610 ± 0.127	0.1346	0.0502	9.85 ± 3.285	0.2569	0.00591
ss107635144	0.0784 ± 0.149	0.00971	0.604	4.62 ± 4.041	0.04618	0.263
rs10733113	0.0784 ± 0.149	0.00971	0.604	4.62 ± 4.041	0.04618	0.263

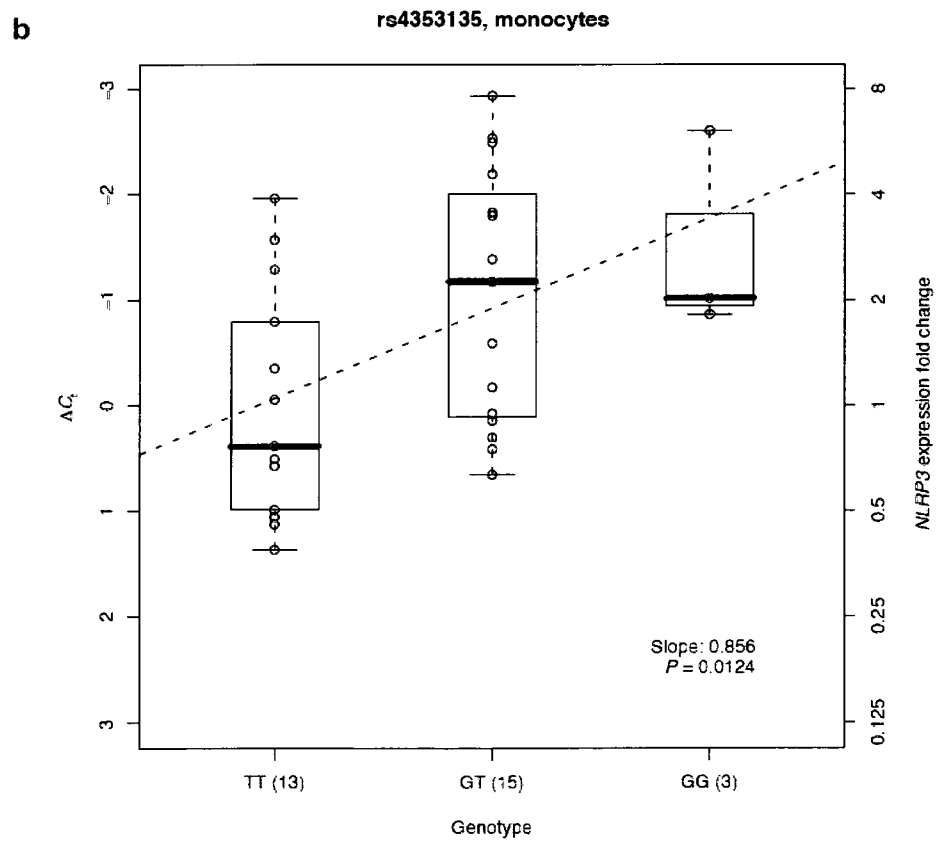
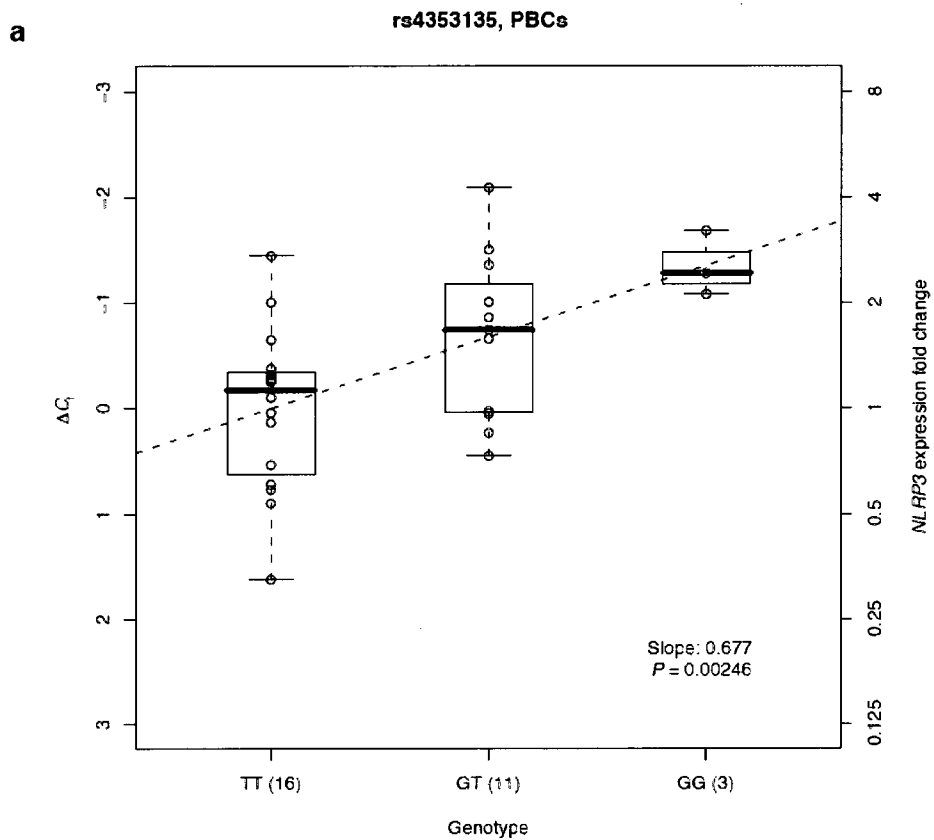
Supplementary Table 2.6: Linkage disequilibrium between SNPs from Table 2.1 and SNPs genotyped in the *NLRP3* region in recently published genome-wide association studies (GWAS) for CD

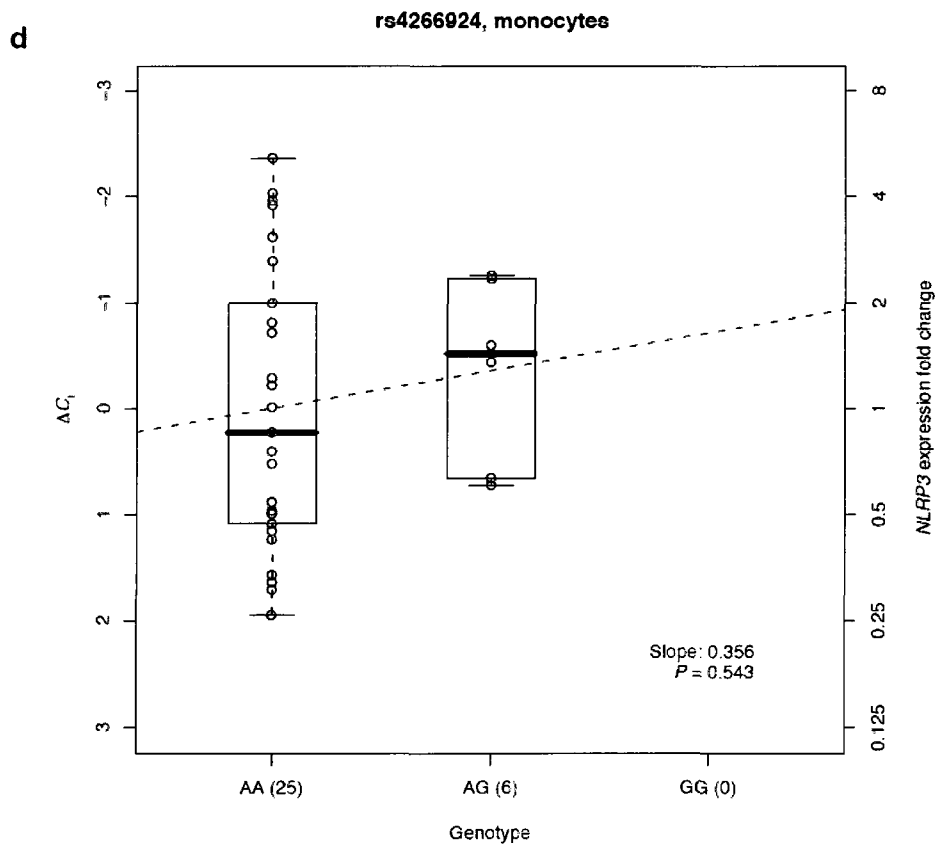
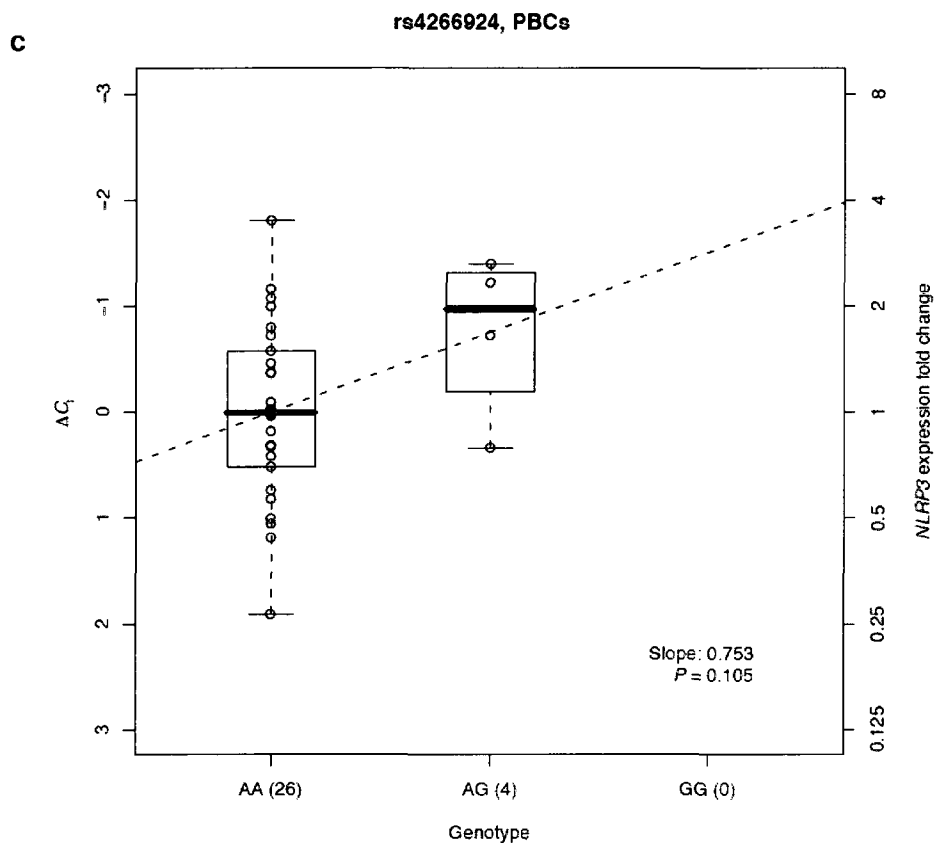
	<i>NLRP3</i> replicated SNPs ^{a, b}				
	rs4353135	rs4266924	rs6672995	rs10733113	
GWAS ^a	rs7529058	0.015	0.006	0	0.027
	rs3738448	0.052	0.023	0.003	0.010
	rs4612666	0.020	0.033	0	0.009
	rs12143966	0.048	0.027	0.103	0.070
	rs4925659	0.034	0.014	0.078	0.049
	rs12065526	0.035	0.002	0.163	0.068

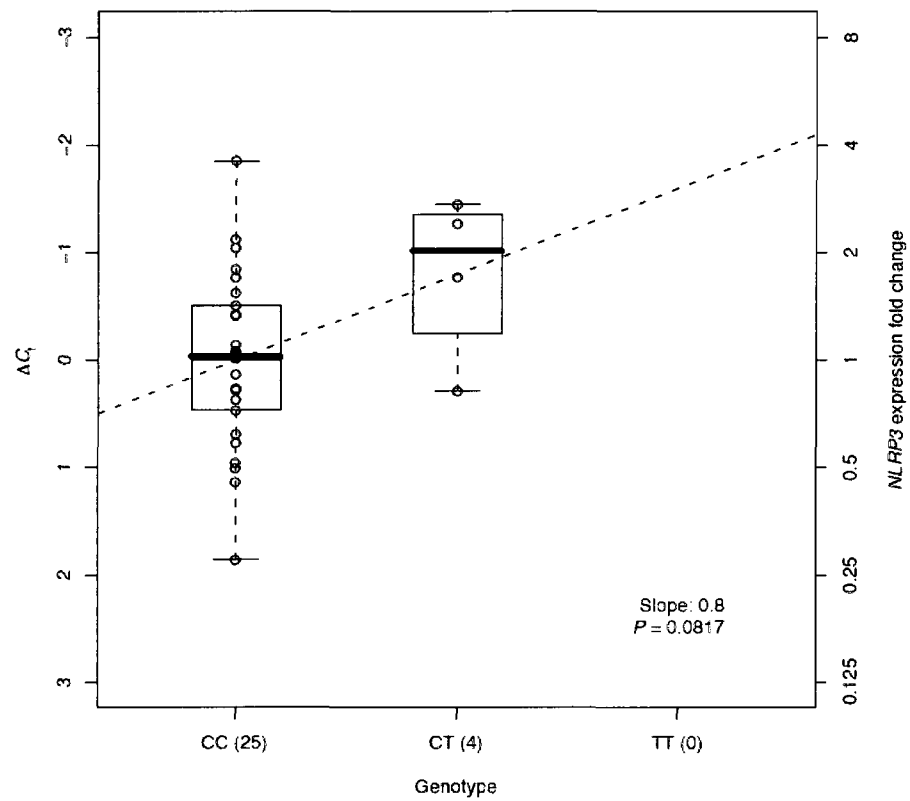
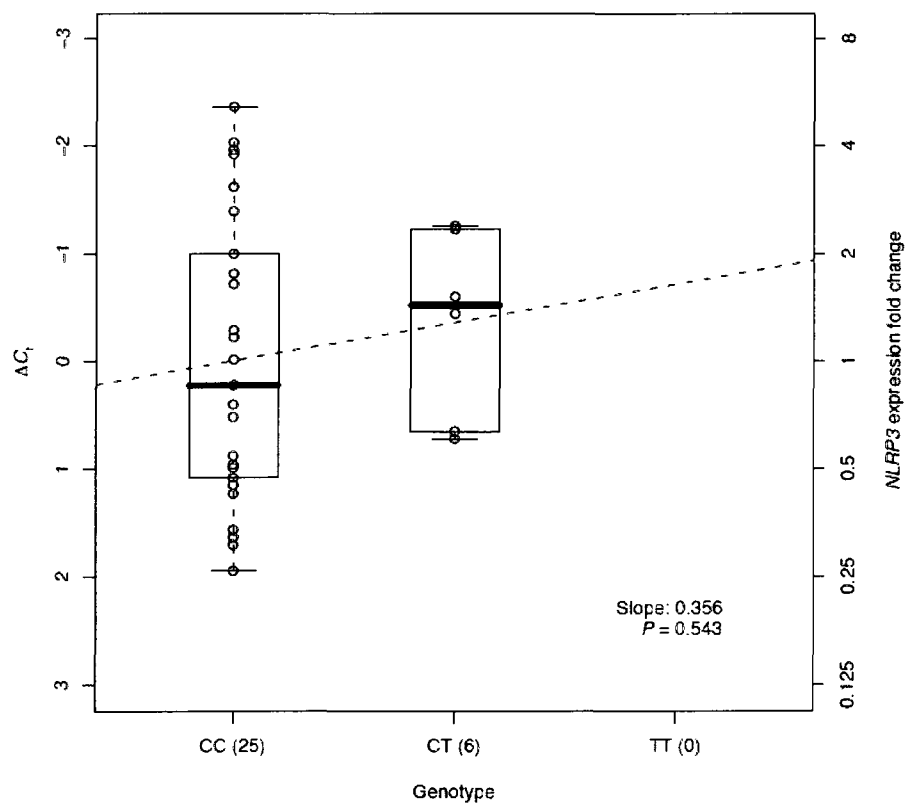
^a r^2 measure of linkage disequilibrium between the 4 replicated SNPs and SNPs present on the Affymetrix 500k and HumanHap300 arrays. SNPs are restricted to the region shown in **Figure 2.1** and that were not genotyped in the present study; ^b rs55646866 and ss107635144 were excluded from this table because these 2 SNPs were uncovered as part of the resequencing effort in this project. There are thus no genotypes available from the HapMap project for these 2 SNPs.

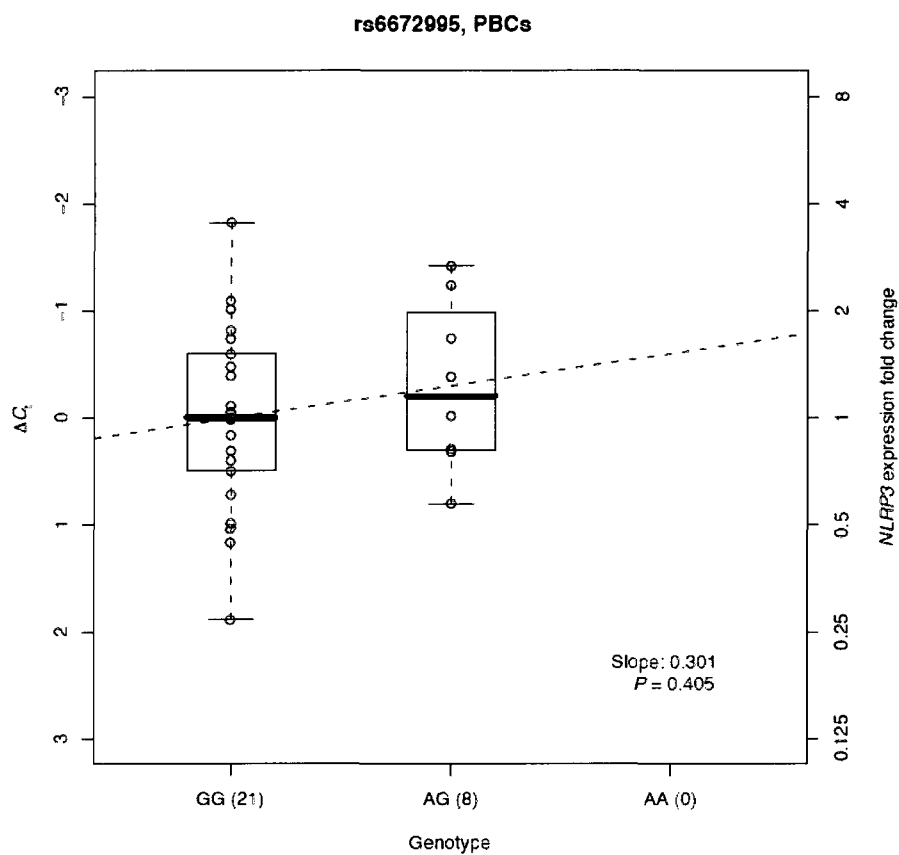
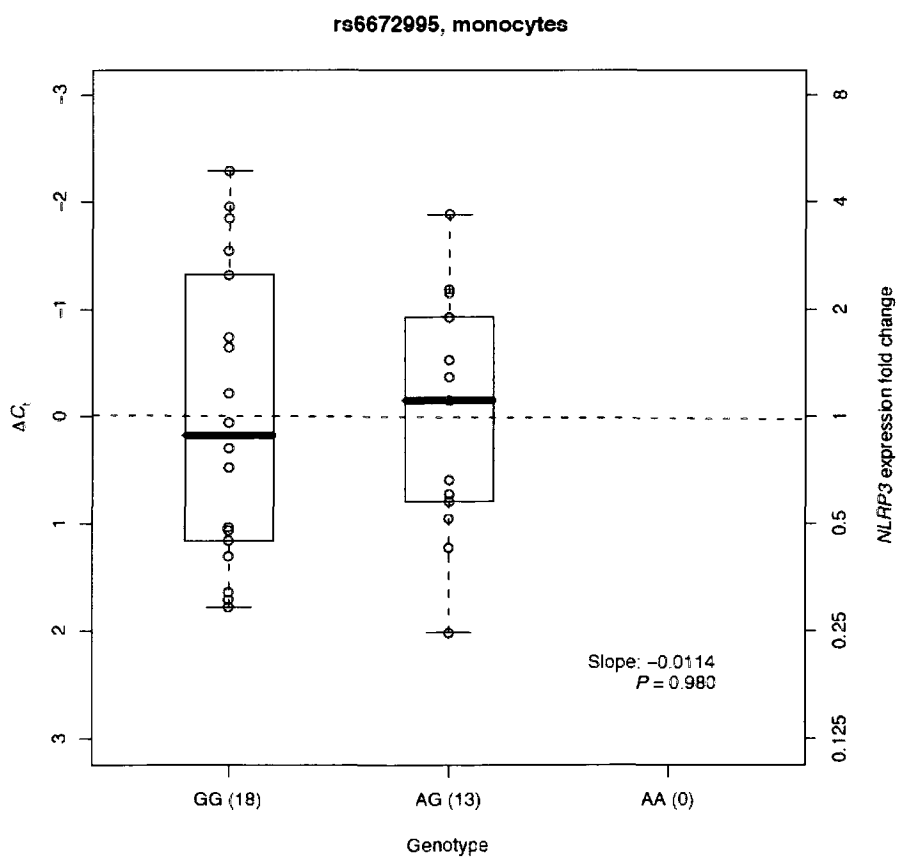
2.2.11 Supplementary Figures

Supplementary Figure 2.1: Association results between *NLRP3* gene expression levels and associated genotypes. Linear regression analysis of *NLRP3* mRNA level versus the genotypes of the six SNPs from **Table 2.1** (rs4353135, rs4266924, rs55646866, rs6672995, ss107635144, and rs10733113) in DNA-RNA matched freshly isolated peripheral blood cells (a,c,e,g,i,k; PBCs; $n = 30$) and monocytes (b,d,f,h,j,l; $n = 31$) obtained from healthy individuals. Genotypes of the six Crohn's disease (CD)-associated SNPs (**Table 2.1**) were obtained by sequencing. Mean threshold cycle (C_t) was calculated for each sample from three replicates and then used to calculate relative expression levels (ΔC_t), which is the difference between *NLRP3* C_t and endogenous control 18S RNA C_t . Fold change in *NLRP3* expression was calculated using the ABI's comparative C_t method (see Methods), using as a reference the average ΔC_t of the homozygous for the risk allele of each SNP. ΔC_t (a-l) for each individual is shown in red; regression lines are shown as dashed lines (a-l).

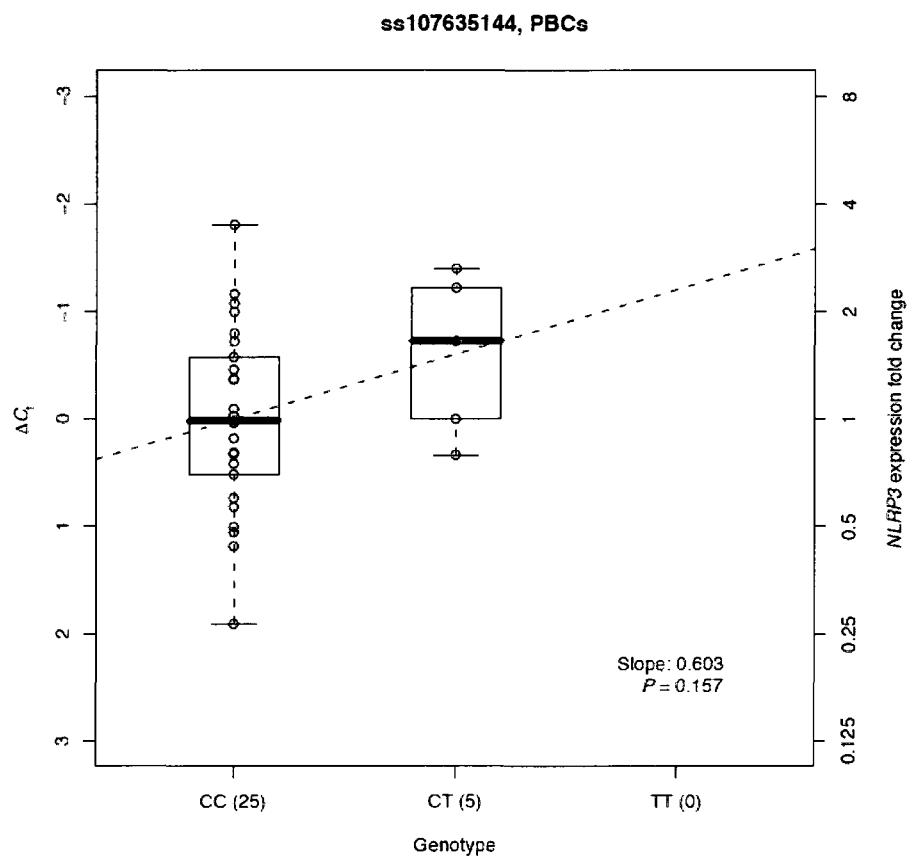




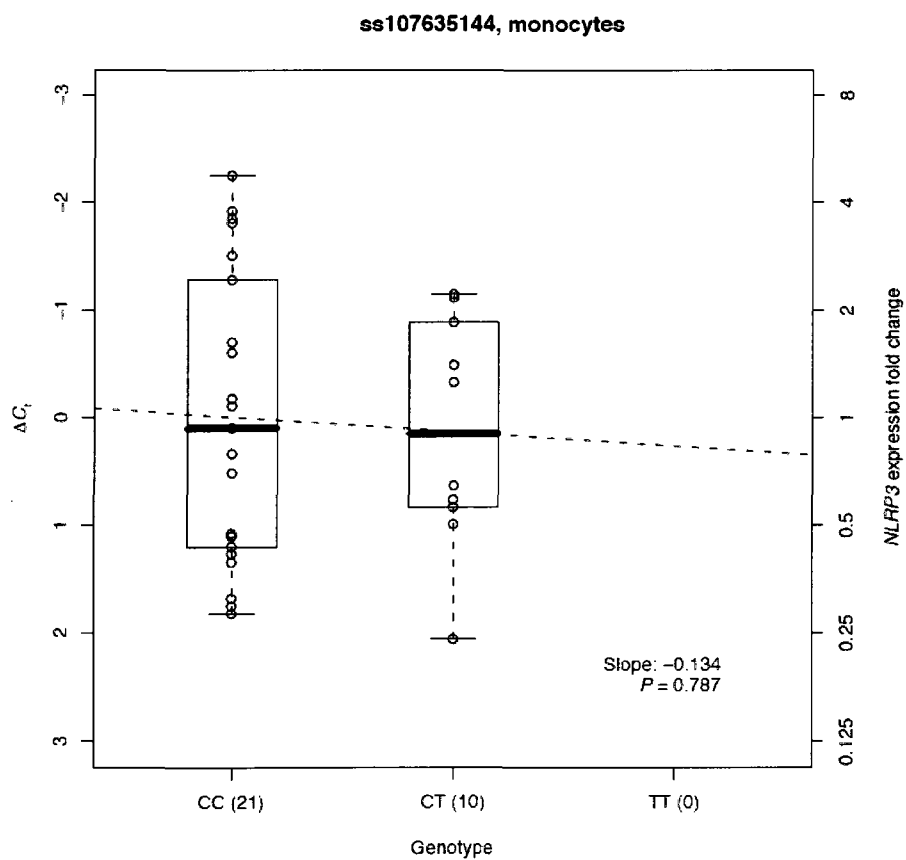
e**rs55646866, PBCs****f****rs55646866, monocytes**

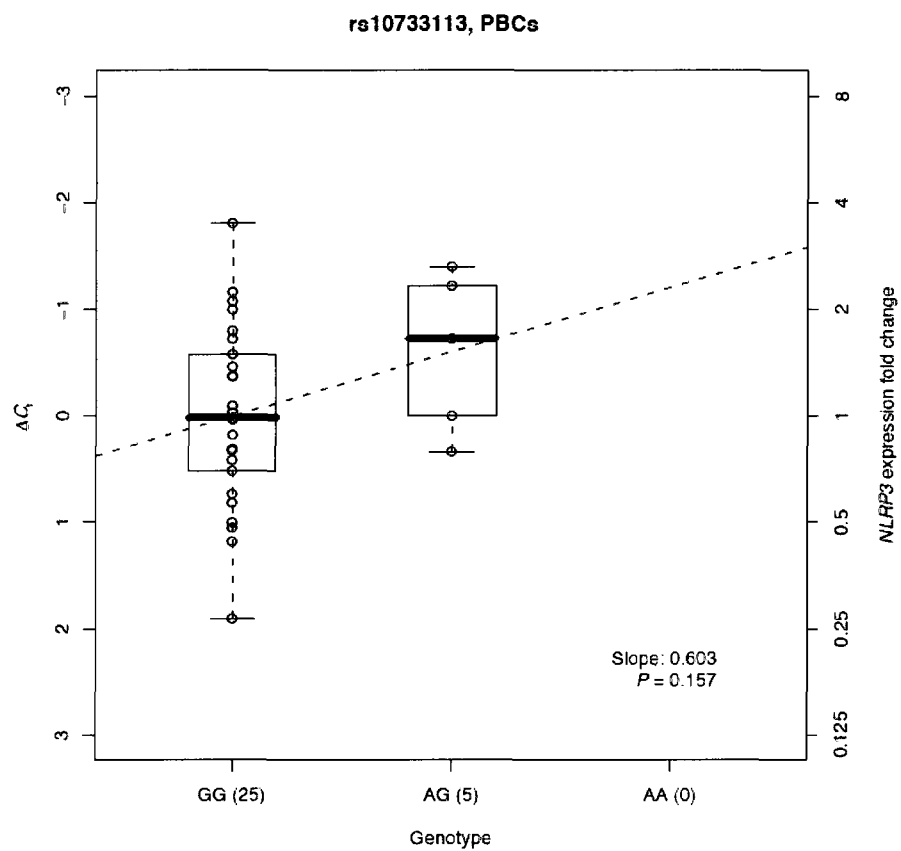
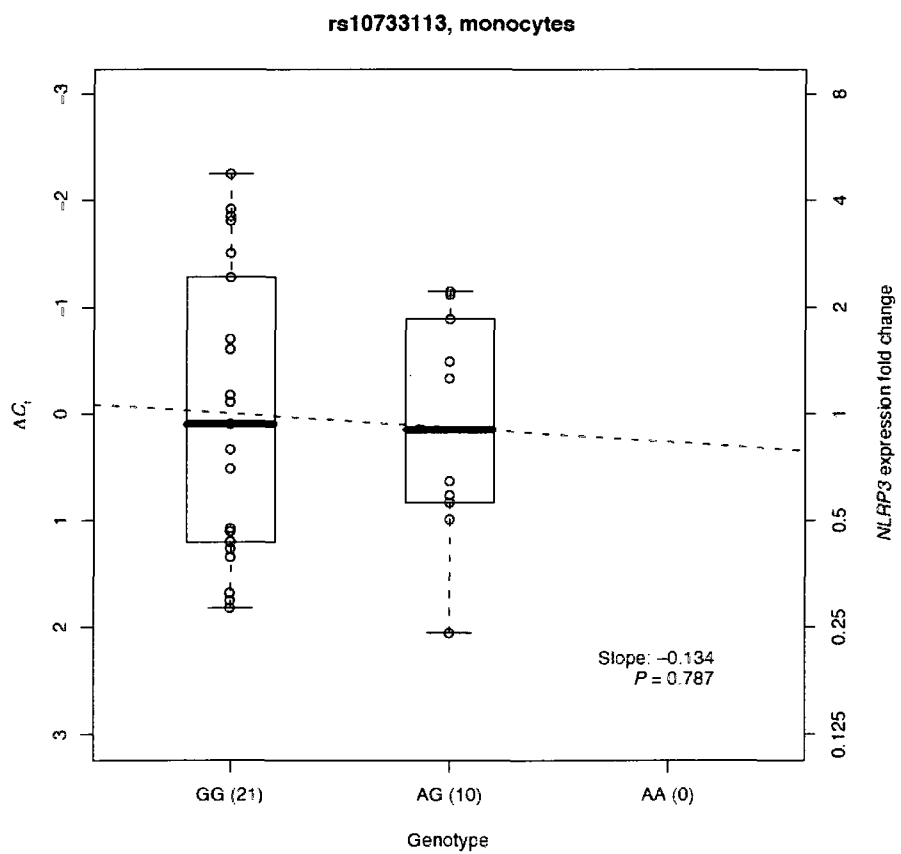
g**h**

i

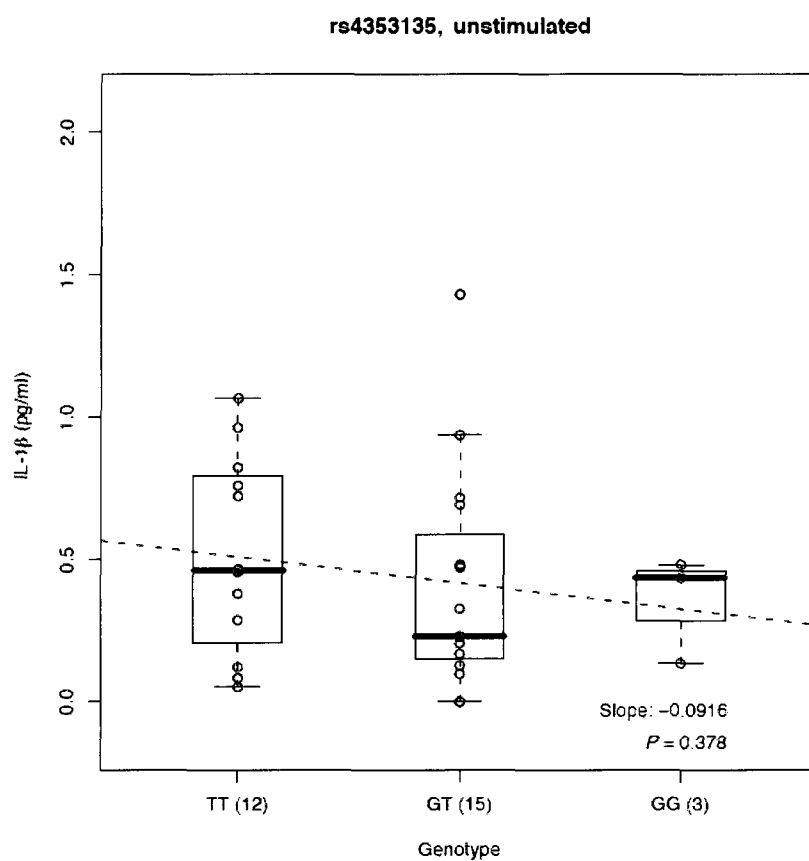
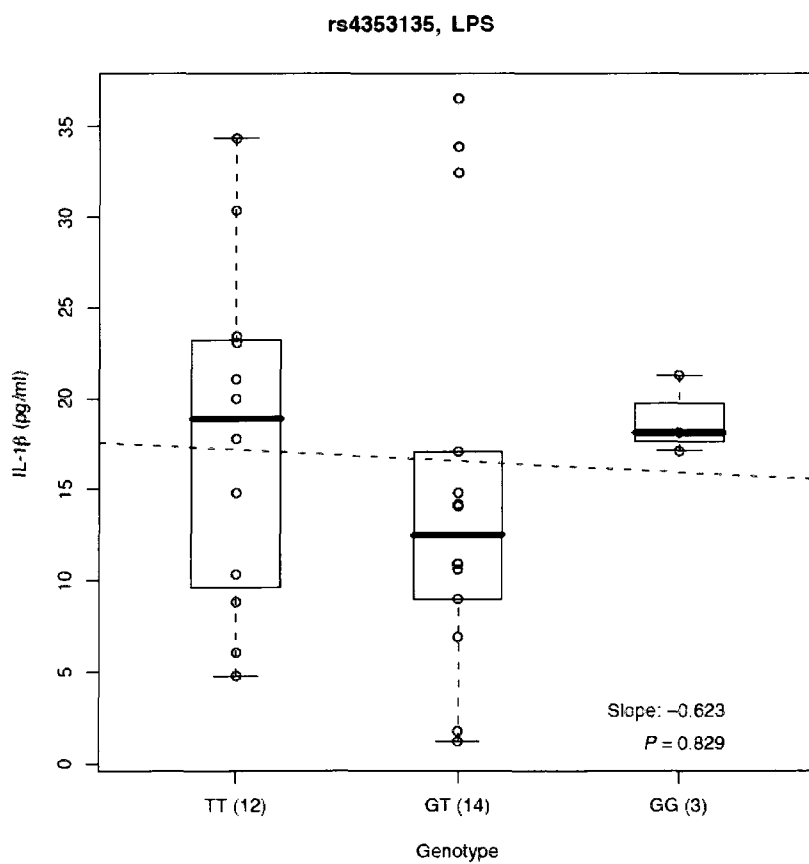


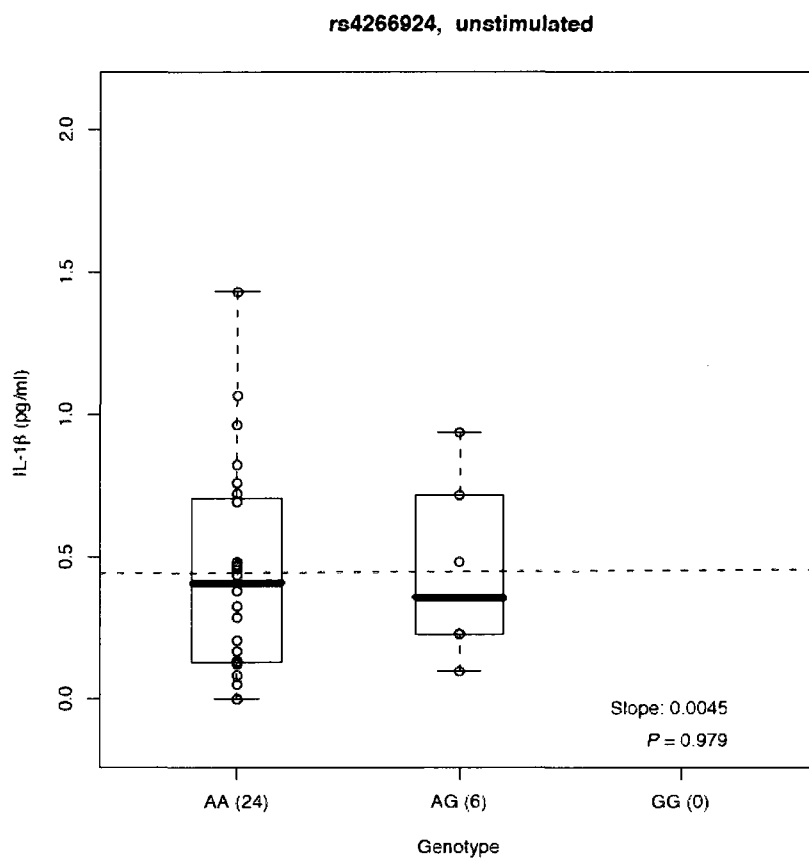
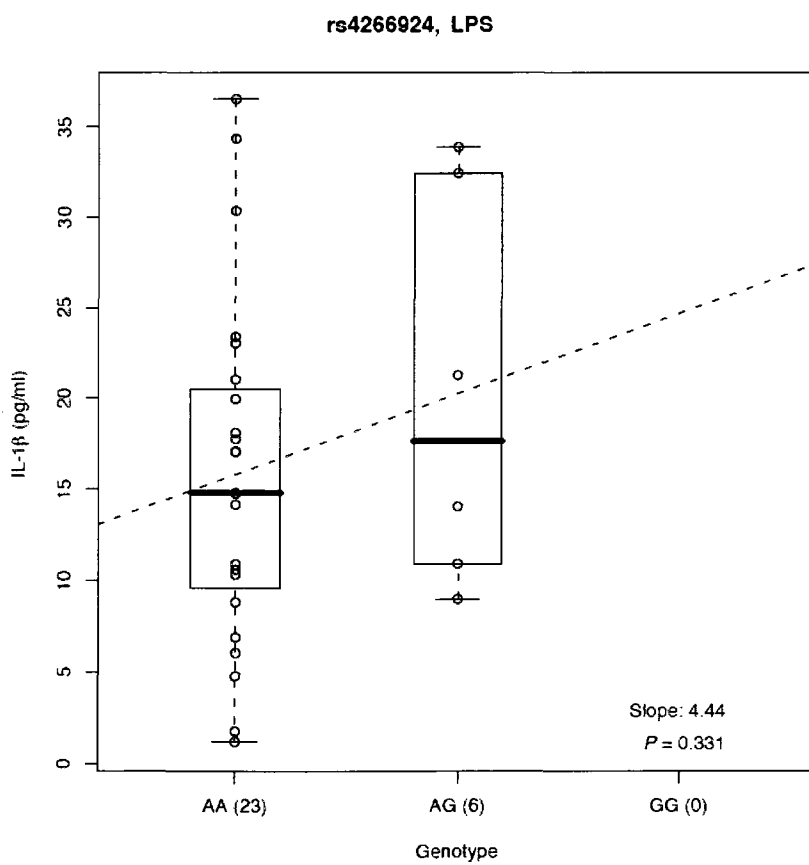
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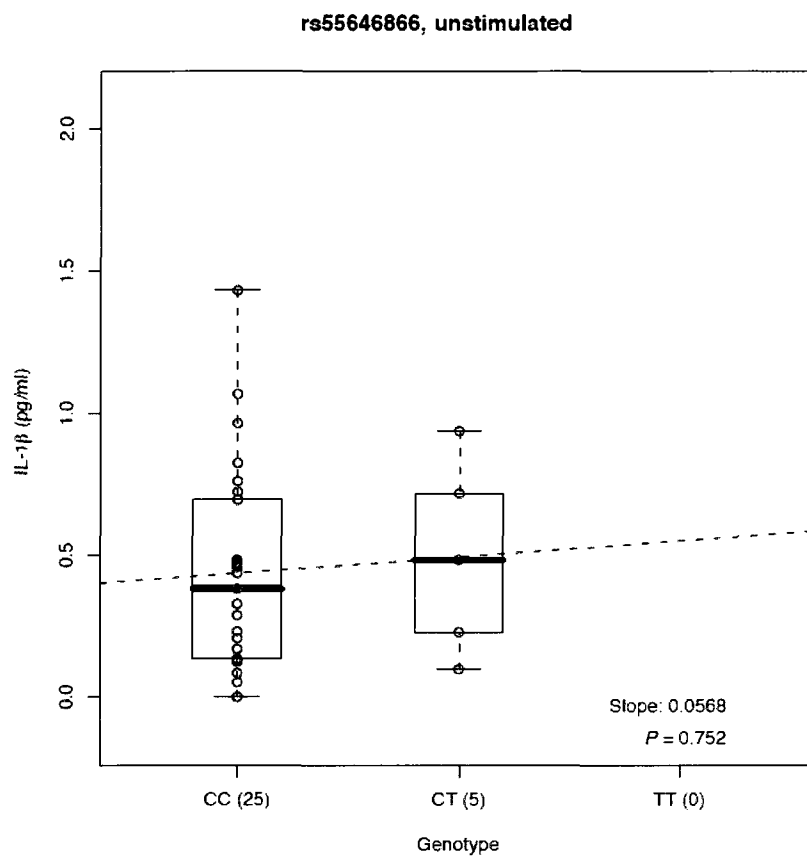
k**l**

Supplementary Figure 2.2: Association results between IL-1 β levels and associated genotypes. Linear regression analysis of IL-1 β production ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) versus the genotypes of the six SNPs from **Table 2.1** (rs4353135, rs4266924, rs55646866, rs6672995, rs107635144 and rs10733113), obtained from sequencing, for unstimulated (a,c,e,g,i,k) and the LPS-stimulated (b,d,f,h,j,l; 1.0 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) conditions after 3 h of incubation. The IL-1 β level (a-l) for each individual is shown in red; regression lines are shown as dashed lines (a-l).

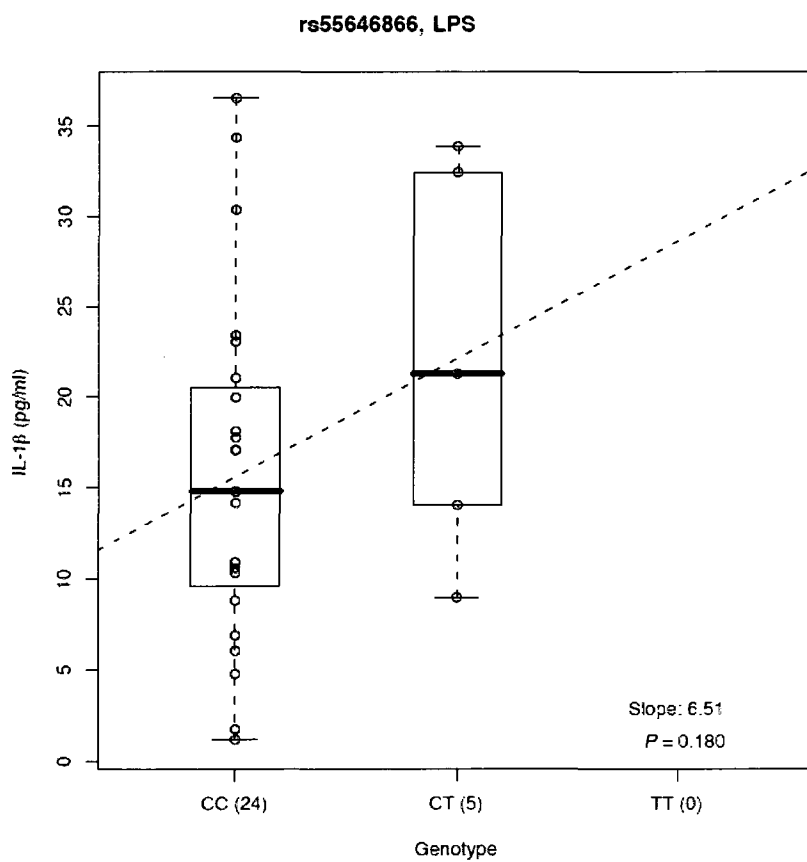
a**b**

c**d**

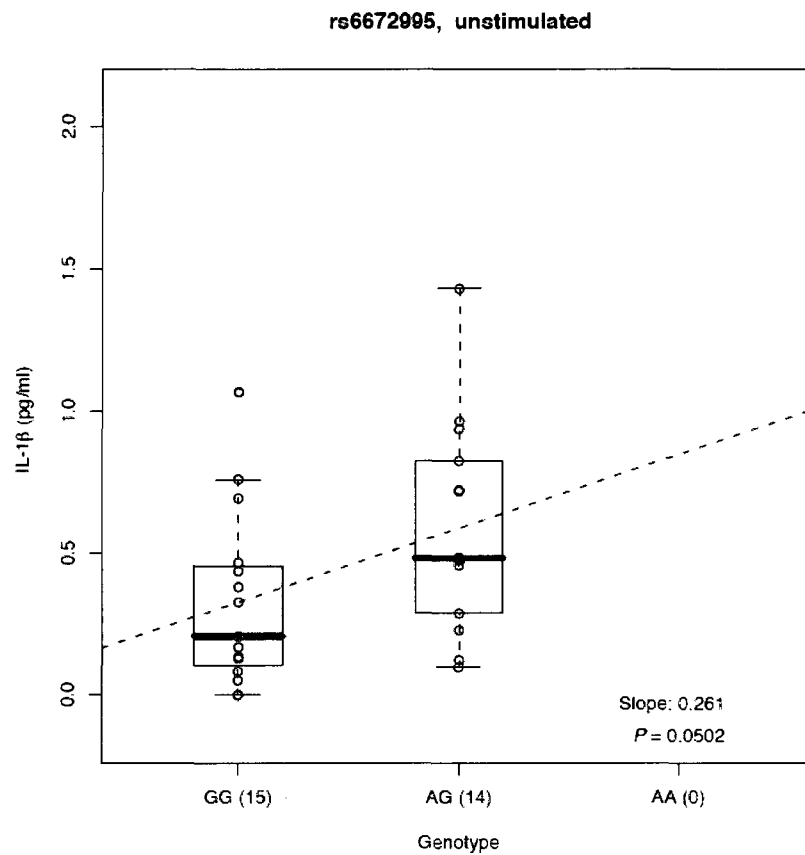
e



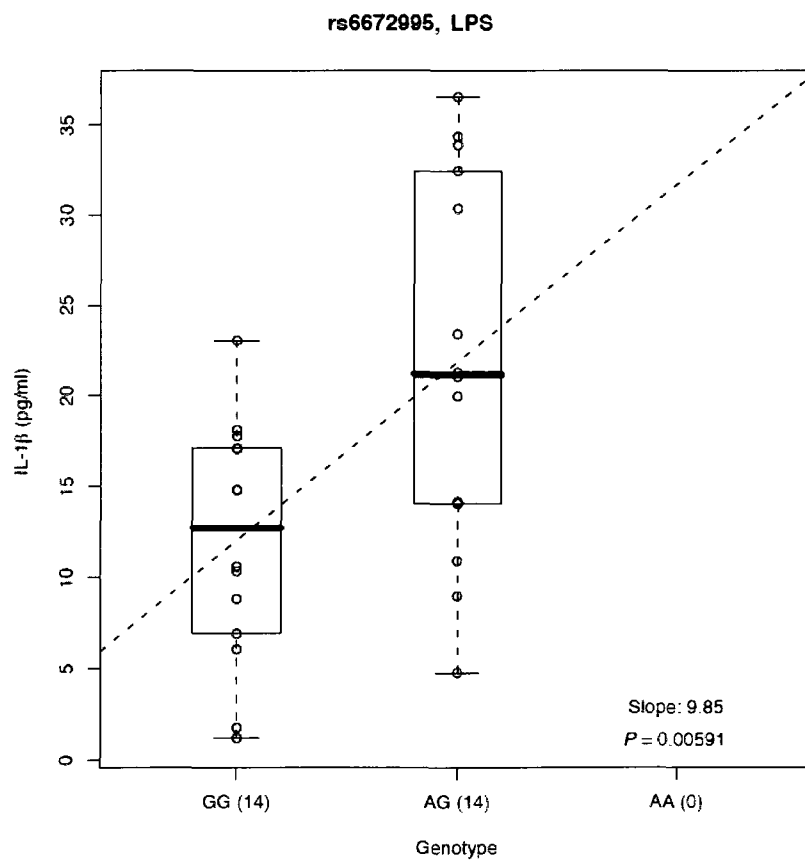
f



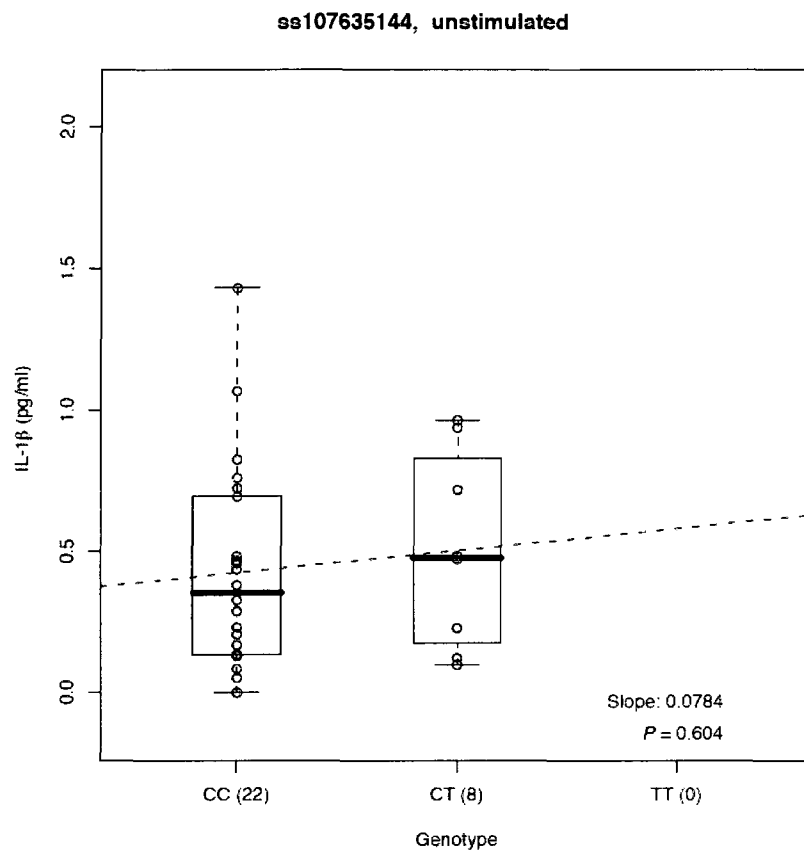
g



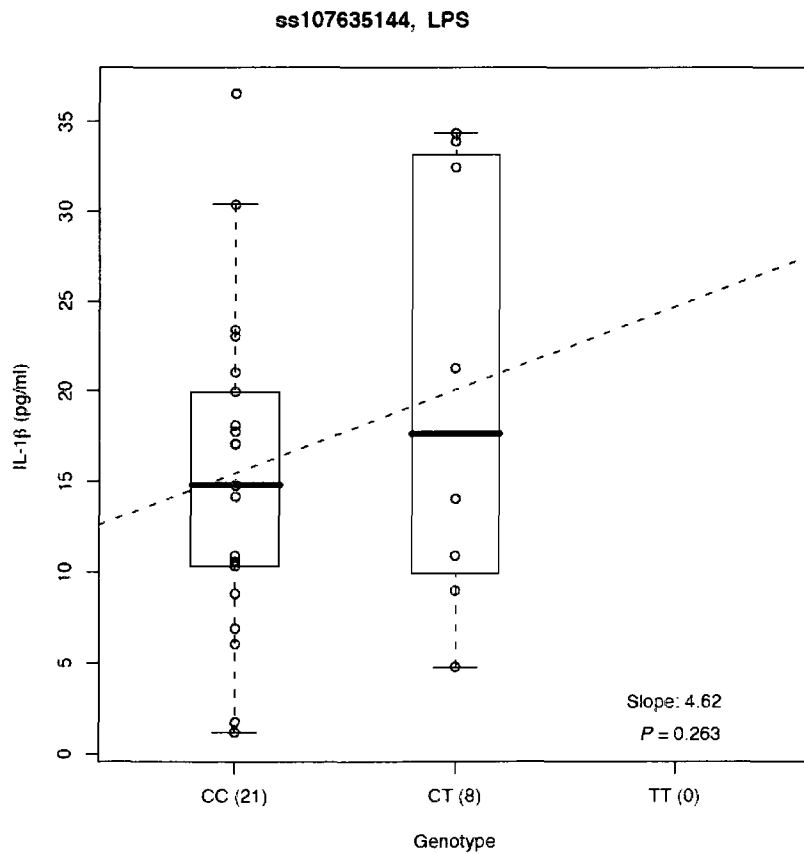
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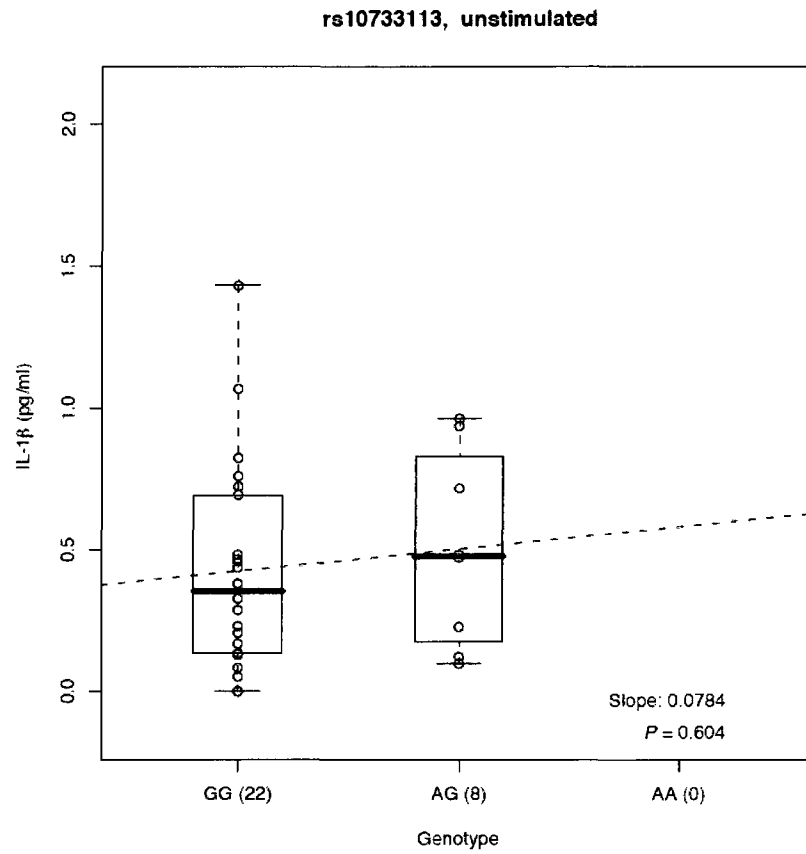
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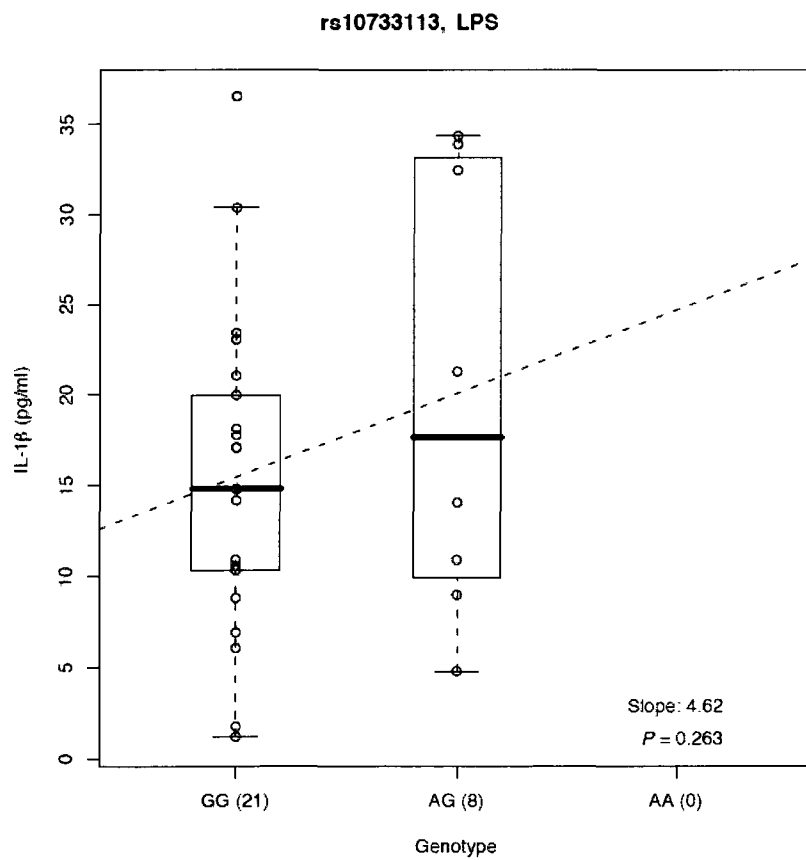
j



k



l



3 INVESTIGATION OF THE *MEFV* GENE IN CROHN'S DISEASE AND ULCERATIVE COLITIS

The manuscript has been submitted to *PLoS ONE*

Reference:

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3.1 Rationale

We conceived the following candidate gene study, focusing on the *MEFV* gene, based on the significant association results between the *NLRP3* region and CD susceptibility reported in Chapter 2. *MEFV* encodes for the protein pyrin, and although it is not part of the CATERPILLER family like NOD2 and NALP3, it shares the PYD domain found in NALP proteins. As explained in the introduction, pyrin has been reported to dampen down the NALP3 inflammasome activity (Chae et al. 2006) and to regulate caspase-1 activation and IL-1 β release, two key mediators of inflammation. Moreover, like it is the case for NOD2 and NALP3, mutations in *MEFV* are responsible for a rare auto-inflammatory syndrome called familial Mediterranean fever. Finally, as explained in the introduction, several clinical and epidemiological evidences linking *MEFV* to IBD further supported this candidate gene selection. We thus evaluated the contribution of *MEFV* to the susceptibility of CD and UC.

3.2 Genetic variation in the familial Mediterranean fever gene (*MEFV*) and risk for inflammatory bowel disease

3.2.1 Abstract

Background: The familial Mediterranean fever (FMF) gene (*MEFV*) encodes pyrin, a major regulator of the inflammasome platform controlling caspase-1 activation and IL-1 β processing. Pyrin has been shown to interact with the gene product of *NLRP3*, NALP3, also an important active member of the inflammasome. The *NLRP3* region was recently reported to be associated with Crohn's disease (CD) susceptibility. We therefore sought to evaluate *MEFV* as an IBD susceptibility gene. **Material and Results:** *MEFV* colonic mucosal gene expression was significantly increased in experimental colitis mice models (TNBS $p<0.00031$; DSS $p<0.006$), in biopsies from CD ($p<0.020$) and severe Ulcerative colitis (UC) patients ($p<0.008$). Comprehensive genetic screening of the *MEFV* region in the Belgian exploratory sample set (512 CD trios, 113 UC trios, 239 CD cases, 96 UC cases, and 107 healthy controls) identified SNPs located in the *MEFV* 5' haplotype block that were significantly associated with UC (rs224217; $p=0.002545$; A allele frequency: 56% cases, 45% controls), while no associations were observed with CD. Sequencing and subsequent genotyping of variants in exonic and promoter regions located in this associated haplotype block identified three synonymous (D102D, G138G, A165A) and one non-synonymous variants (R202Q) located in *MEFV* exon 2 that were significantly

associated with UC (R202Q: $p=0.000532$; A allele frequency: 32% in cases, 23% in controls). No consistent associations were observed in additional Canadian (226 CD trios, 89 UC trios) and Scottish (521 UC, 300 controls) sample sets. We note that R202Q showed marginal association ($p=0.012$; G allele frequency: 82% in cases, 70% in controls) in the Canadian sample, but with a different risk allele.

Conclusion: This study suggests that common variants in the *MEFV* region do not contribute to CD and UC susceptibility.

3.2.2 Introduction

Crohn's disease (CD) and Ulcerative colitis (UC) are multifactorial and heterogeneous chronically relapsing inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) that are thought to result from a dysregulated mucosal immune response to gut lumen bacterial antigens in a genetically susceptible host (Podolsky 2002). A recent meta-analysis of three large CD genome-wide association studies (GWAS) has reported that well-established associations with CD only accounts for approximately 20% of the genetic variance observed in CD, suggesting that additional genetic contributions have yet to be discovered (Barrett et al. 2008). Indeed, with the exception of variations within the *NOD2* and *IL23R* genes, established susceptibility alleles have been reported to have relatively modest effects (Barrett et al. 2008). Using a candidate gene approach, *NLRP3* was recently identified as a novel CD susceptibility locus (Villani et al. 2009) that had been missed by previously published GWAS (Duerr et al. 2006; Hampe et al. 2007; Rioux et al. 2007; Libioulle et al. 2007; Parkes et al. 2007; Wellcome Trust

Case Control Consortium 2007a). *NLRP3* (previously known as *CIAS1* or *NALP3*) is part of the CATERPILLER (Ting et al. 2006) gene family and mutations in some of these genes have been shown to result in severe auto-inflammatory diseases (AIDs) like HPFS (Milhavy et al. 2008). AIDs represent a spectrum of diseases characterized by recurrent episodes of seemingly unprovoked inflammation that, unlike autoimmune disorders, lack the production of high-titre auto-antibodies or antigen-specific T cells (Mariathasan et al. 2007). Gain-of-function mutations in *NLRP3* are associated with three hereditary periodic fever syndromes, namely Muckle-Wells syndrome, familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome, and neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease (Agostini et al. 2004; Mariathasan et al. 2007). Importantly, *NLRP3* encodes NALP3 (also known as cryopyrin), a protein playing a key role in controlling the inflammasome, which is a critical molecular platform regulating caspase-1 activation and interleukin (IL)-1 β processing, two key mediators of inflammation (Mariathasan et al. 2007; Pétrilli et al. 2007a; Martinon et al. 2007).

Recently, the B30.2 (also known as SPRY) domain of pyrin, which is encoded by the *MEFV* gene (Chr.16 p13.3; GenBank NM_000243; OMIM 608107), has been reported to interact and modulate the activity of several inflammasome components, including NALP3, caspase-1 and, its substrate, pro-IL-1 β (Chae et al. 2006; ; Papin et al. 2007; Chae et al. 2008). Interestingly, *MEFV* missense mutations are implicated in the familial Mediterranean fever (FMF), which is another AID (Pras et al. 1992; The International FMF Consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997; Bernot et al. 1998).

Additional clinical and epidemiological evidences supported *MEFV* as a potential IBD candidate gene. First, IBD and FMF share common clinical and biologic features. They are both inflammatory disorders characterized by the same chronic relapsing behavior infiltration by neutrophils at the site of injury, and abnormal regulation of apoptosis (Lichtenberger et al. 2004; McDermott 2004). Moreover, FMF affects mainly ethnic groups surrounding the Mediterranean Sea (e.g. non-Ashkenazi Jews, Armenians, Turks, and Arabs) and two small cohort studies from that area have reported a higher prevalence of IBD with particularly severe symptoms in FMF non-Ashkenazi Jewish patients, suggesting possible common underlying mechanisms of inflammation (Cattan et al. 2000; Fidder et al. 2002). Additional studies have suggested that *MEFV* rare missense causative mutations have a potential modifying effect in IBD patients (Fidder et al. 2005; Karban et al. 2005; Giaglis et al. 2006; Sari et al. 2008).

Hence, the clinical and epidemiological evidences linking IBD to the *MEFV* gene, together with the similarities of the *MEFV* and *NLRP3* gene products (pyrin and NALP3, respectively) that share the same signaling pathway, prompted us to hypothesize that *MEFV* could also contribute to CD susceptibility and perhaps to UC as well. We therefore explored whether *MEFV* expression would be regulated in IBD experimental models of colitis and whether *MEFV* variants would be associated with CD and/or UC.

3.2.3 Methods

I. Expression Study

Tissue collection. *Animal:* Male BALB/c mice (between 6 and 8 weeks of age), obtained from Charles River Laboratory (St-Constant, Quebec, Canada), were maintained under conventional housing conditions. Colitis was either induced by rectal instillation of 2.5mg of Trinitrobenzene sulfonate (TNBS) (Sigma Aldrich Canada Ltd., Ontario, Canada) or mice were fed with 5% Dextran Sulfate Sodium (DSS) (MP Biomedicals, OH, USA) using modified protocols previously reported (Okayasu et al. 1990; Neurath et al. 1995). All mice were handled according to institutionally recommended animal care guidelines and all experiments were approved by the Animal Studies Ethics Committee of McGill University. *Human:* Colonic biopsy specimens were obtained from CD patients in ulcerated (severe involvement) and non-ulcerated (mild involvement) mucosa, from UC patients in inflamed areas as defined by Mayo sub-endoscopic criteria, and from patients who underwent colorectal cancer screening (CD n=16; UC n=17; Controls n=25). The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board and informed consent was obtained from all participating subjects.

RNA extraction and real-time quantitative PCR. Biopsies preserved in RNALater (Qiagen, Ontario, Canada) were homogenized and total RNA was extracted using TRIZOL (Invitrogen, Ontario, Canada). First strand cDNA was synthesized using the cDNA Archive Kit (Applied Biosystems (ABI), CA, USA) with Multiscribe Reverse Transcriptase and Random primers. For both human and mice, primers and probes were ordered from Assay-on-demand ABI

catalogue (mice *MEFV*: Mm00490260_gl; human *MEFV*: Hs00165145_ml; *18S*: 4319413E). Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using ABI prism 7900 sequence detection system based on the 5' nuclease assay (Holland et al. 1991), and quantified using ABI's comparative Ct method. Statistical analyses were performed using the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test to evaluate tissue (mice and human) expression differences (SPSS, Version 11.5, USA).

II. Genetic Study

Subjects. Three main sample sets, coming from 5 different centers, were analyzed in this study (see detailed descriptions, **Table 3.1**), comprising a total of 738 CD trios, 202 UC trios, 521 UC cases, and 300 controls. All protocols were consented by the Institutional Review Board of each institution that sent samples. All patients were recruited through specialized hospitals, academic centres, and practitioners. Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) specialists involved in this study and in most cases, the CD or UC clinical subtype was assigned using standard criteria (Lennard-Jones JE 1989; Silverberg et al. 2005). Those defined as "indeterminate colitis" were excluded from the study. In all the participating centres, the diagnosis of IBD was made by IBD specialists after fulfilling standard clinical, radiological, endoscopic, and pathology criteria¹ that required (1) one or more of the following symptoms: diarrhea, rectal bleeding, abdominal pain, weight loss, fever or complicated perianal disease; (2) occurrence of symptoms on two or more occasions in the past or ongoing symptoms of at least 4-6 weeks' duration; (3) evidence of inflammation, strictures or fistula from

radiological, endoscopic, and histological evaluation (with some specific CD characteristics); (4) exclusion of all other diagnosis besides CD.

Belgian subjects (referred as combined Belgian cohort), all of European descent, were used for the exploratory phase and these came from Center 1 (University of Liege, Belgium) and Center 2 (University of Leuven, Belgium). The replication cohort consisted of Canadian subjects (referred as combined Canadian cohort), coming from Centers 3 and 4, and Scottish subjects. Center 3 was composed of subjects collected from multiple sites in the province of Quebec (Canada), which were all of European ancestry, and included 38 probands of Ashkenazi Jewish ancestry and 6 of Sephardic Jewish ancestry. Center 4 included subjects collected from multiple sites in Toronto (Canada). The vast majority of probands were of European ancestry, including 40 probands of Ashkenazi Jewish ancestry, and 15 probands were of non-European ancestry. Finally, cases and matched controls from center 5 were collected from multiple sites in Edinburgh (Scotland). The majority of cases were of European ancestry, including 1 case of Jewish ancestry, except for 14 non-European cases and 11 non-European controls. Center 5 will be referred to as the Edinburgh cohort. Overall, only samples of European origin were included in the analysis.

Genotyping. SNP genotyping was performed using either a sequencing approach, the SNPstream UltraHigh Throughput Genotyping System (Orchid Biosciences, NJ, USA) (Bell et al. 2002), the Fluorescent Polarization Template-Directed Dye Terminator (FP-TDI) system (PerkinElmer, MA, USA) (Hsu et al. 2001), or the Taqman 5' exonuclease assay (ABI, CA, USA) (rs2242217: assay

C_2394717_20) (Whitcombe et al. 1998). Also, since 2 non-synonymous variants (E148Q, R202Q) as well as three synonymous variants (D102D, G138G, A165A) were observed in *MEFV* exon 2 during sequencing screening, genotyping of these variants was done using a sequencing approach. All primers and probes are available in **Supplementary Table 3.2**.

We used 4 quality checks to determine whether SNPs were reliable and informative: (1) genotyping efficiency (>95%), (2) compliance to Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($p > 0.01$), (3) Mendelian inheritance, and (4) population minor allele frequency (>5%).

Sequencing. Sequencing was performed on an ABI 3730 DNA Sequencer according to standard protocols. Sequence traces were assembled and analyzed using a modified version of the PolyPhred software package. Primer sequences are available in **Supplementary Table 3.3**. Our sequences were compared to the annotated sequences (build 35, hg17) of 25 exons and promoter regions of *MEFV*, *AK096958*, *ZNF263*, *TIGD7* and *ZNF75A* to identify novel variants.

Statistical analysis. To evaluate *MEFV* as a candidate gene for IBD, we divided the study into an exploratory and replication phase. Mendelian errors and departures from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium were assessed using MERLIN v0.9.10. Measures of pairwise LD between SNPs (D' and r^2) were computed using Haploview v3.32 (Barrett et al. 2005). Tests of association were performed using the likelihood methods implemented in UNPHASED v3.0.10 (Dudbridge et

al. 2008), which can analyze samples of nuclear families, unrelated subjects or a combination of both.

3.2.4 Results

Increased *MEFV* expression in IBD experimental models of colitis and in colonic mucosa from IBD patients.

To further support our candidate gene selection, we first evaluated *MEFV* expression in different models of experimental colitis. *MEFV* expression is significantly increased TNBS ($p < 0.000310$) (**Figure 3.1A**) and in DSS ($p < 0.006$) (**Figure 3.1B**) colitis mice models as compared to colonic tissues from control mice, considered as the arbitrary baseline = 1. In human tissue biopsies, *MEFV* expression is significantly increased in ulcerated colonic mucosa from CD patients compared to healthy controls ($p < 0.020$) (**Figure 3.1C**), but not from UC patients ($p < 0.265$) (**Figure 3.1D**). However, stratification by severity of disease, as defined by the presence of endoscopic lesions (CD) and Mayo sub-endoscopic criteria (UC), shows that *MEFV* expression is upregulated in both severely affected CD ($p < 0.001$) (**Figure 3.1C**) and UC ($p < 0.008$) (**Figure 3.1D**) patients compared to healthy controls.

***MEFV* mutations in exon 10 do not contribute to CD and UC susceptibility**

FMF is thought to be secondary to missense mutations in *MEFV*. Although these mutations are found throughout *MEFV*, five sequence alterations in *MEFV* represent the majority of FMF chromosomes, four of which are

clustered in exon 10 (i.e. *M680I*, *M694V*, *M694I*, and *V726A*) (Milhavet et al. 2008; Pras et al. 1992; The International FMF Consortium 1997; The French FMF Consortium 1997; Bernot et al. 1998). This exon was sequenced in 47 CD patients, 47 UC patients and 94 controls. Only 3 individuals (2 CD and 1 UC patients) carrying 3 different mutations (*R652H*, *M694V*, and *V726A* respectively) were observed. None of the exon 10 variants could link IBD with *MEFV*. The low frequency of these observed mutations confirms previous reports studying the prevalence and association of these mutations in IBD patients (Cattan et al. 2000; Fidler et al. 2002; Fidler et al. 2005; Karban et al. 2005; Giaglis et al. 2006; Sari et al. 2008).

Common SNPs located in *MEFV* 5' region are significantly associated with IBD in the Belgian exploratory sample set.

We subsequently sought to evaluate *MEFV* common variants for their association with IBD. We first investigated a 98kb region spanning 16p13.3 (3220975-3318978) (NCBI Build 35, hg17), including *MEFV* (14.6kb). SNPs were selected using a pairwise tagging approach (de Bakker et al. 2005), using data from HapMap Public Release #22 ($r^2 \geq 0.8$) (minor allele frequency (MAF) ≥ 0.05). The SNP panel was enriched with SNPs located in functional domains, as well as with SNPs selected from dbSNP Build126 in regions with lower coverage. A total of 30 informative SNPs in the *MEFV* region were genotyped in 512 Belgian CD trios and 113 UC trios (**Table 3.1**).

As previously reported, we observe 2 regions of high linkage disequilibrium (LD) separated by a recombination “hotspot” within *MEFV* intron 2

(**Figure 3.2**) (Aldea et al. 2004). The 5' haplotype block includes the promoter to *MEFV* intron 2 region, three known genes (*ZNF263*, *TIGD7*, *ZNF75A*), and one hypothetical gene (*AK096958*). The 3' haplotype block spans *MEFV* intron 2 to the 3' UTR region of *MEFV*, as well as the region encompassing the promoter to intron 4 of *ZNF200* (**Figure 3.2**).

The analysis of Belgian CD trios only revealed nominally significant associations with the *major* alleles of three SNPs located in the region covering the *MEFV* promoter to intron 2 and its 5' flanking region (rs182674: $p=0.02938$; rs224217: $p=0.05240$; rs224231: $p=0.03935$; rs6501170: $p=0.01552$) (**Figure 3.2A, Supplementary Table 3.1**).

The analysis of Belgian UC trios revealed significant associations (lowest $p=0.000689$ for rs224217) with the *minor* alleles of eight SNPs (i.e. rs1149483, rs224243, rs224231, rs224230, rs224226, rs224225, rs182674, and rs224217) located in that same region of high LD (**Figure 3.2B, Supplementary Table 3.1**). Contrary to the CD associations, the UC associations remained significant after allowing for the total number of tests performed ($p_{corrected}=0.018$ based on 1000 random permutations in 2 diseases). These associations with UC were also significant across the two Belgian centers (rs224217: $p=0.0380$ [Center 1: Leuven]; $p=0.0008$ [Center 2: Liege]) described in **Table 3.1**.

Sequencing of coding and promoter regions of genes in the associated 5' haplotype block

Following the identification of the association signals with CD and UC in the 5' haplotype block, we sequenced the exons and promoter regions (2kb upstream) of all genes located within this region to exclude the involvement of other genes (i.e. *AK096958*, *ZNF263*, *TIGD7*, *ZNF75A*) beside *MEFV*. A total of 10 UC patients, 10 CD patients and 10 healthy controls were sequenced. A total of 9 synonymous and 9 non-synonymous variants were observed. A detailed description of all observed coding variants can be found in **Table 3.2**.

Augmenting the sample size: MEFV common SNPs do not contribute to CD and UC susceptibility

The Belgian samples

To further validate the Belgian association results, we first augmented the sample size by genotyping additional unrelated Belgian cases and controls (239 CD, 96 UC and 107 shared controls) and combining them with the 512 CD and 113 UC trios. The cases and controls were genotyped for 12 of the 30 exploratory set of SNPs, which were chosen using a pairwise tagging approach (de Bakker et al. 2005) to remove the redundancy among the genotyped markers, given the high level of LD between them. Additionally, all Belgian case-control and trios samples were genotyped for the non-synonymous variants observed in the sequencing experiment, which are described in **Table 3.2**.

When increasing the sample size in the combined Belgian CD case-control-trios analyses, no more significant associations were observed between

the 12 tagging SNPs and CD (**Figure 3.2A**, **Table 3.4**, **Supplementary Table 3.1**). Moreover, no significant associations were observed between all observed non-synonymous coding SNPs described in **Table 3.2** and the combined CD Belgian sample set (**Table 3.4**).

In the combined Belgian UC case-control-trios analyses, the association significance levels observed with the 12 tagging SNPs were similar to the ones observed in the analysis focussing solely on trios (**Figure 3.2B**, **Table 3.3**, **Supplementary Table 3.1**). The UC association analysis of the non-synonymous variants from **Table 3.2** revealed no significant associations with *C310S* (rs220379), previously genotyped, as well as with the rare coding variants *R26Q* (3 carriers), *V534I* (11 carriers), and *N248H* (8 carriers). Similarly, no significant associations with coding variants located in 3' end region of *MEFV* were detected. Yet, significant associations were observed with 4 coding variants (*D102D*, *G138G*, *A165A*, and *R202Q*) located in *MEFV* exon 2. The *minor* alleles (MAF=45%) of the three synonymous variants (*D102D*, *G138G*, *A165A*) were associated with UC in the Belgian combined sample set ($p=0.00146$) (**Table 3.3**); these three variants are in perfect LD with each other and in high LD with tagging SNP rs224217 ($r^2=0.85$). Additionally, the *minor* allele of the non-synonymous SNP *R202Q* was also significantly associated with the UC (*R202Q*/rs224222: $p=0.000532$; A allele frequency: 32% cases, 23% controls) in the Belgian samples.

To assess the reproducibility of these results, we subsequently evaluated the association of the same 12 tagging SNPs and the 4 coding SNPs located in *MEFV* exon 2 region (i.e. *D102D*, *G138G*, *A165A* and *R202Q*) in additional

samples from Canada (226 CD trios, 89 UC trios) and Scotland (521 UC, 300 controls) (**Table 3.1**).

The Canadian samples

In the Canadian CD sample set, only the minor allele of tagging SNP rs224230, located in the 5' flanking region of *MEFV*, was significantly associated with CD ($p=0.04387$; A allele frequency: 40% cases, 33% controls) (**Table 3.4**). None of the 16 SNPs were consistently replicated in the Belgian and Canadian CD sample sets, and combined analysis of the Belgian-Canadian CD samples (**Table 3.4**) did not bring further insight on additional associations in the region, supporting the exclusion of the *MEFV* region as a risk factor contributing to CD susceptibility.

In the Canadian UC sample set, individual tagging SNPs analysis uncovered one nominally significant associations in the *MEFV* 5' region (rs220379/*C310S* $p=0.0456$; G allele frequency: 81% cases, 70% controls) and one association with exon 2 coding SNP R202Q (R202Q/rs224222: $p=0.0117$; G allele frequency: 82% cases, 70% controls) (**Table 3.3**). Contrary to the association in the Belgian samples where R202Q *minor* allele was associated with UC susceptibility, the *major* allele of R202Q was associated with UC in the Canadian samples, and no associations were observed with the three synonymous variants of exon 2. None of these results replicated the initial significant findings observed in the Belgian exploratory UC sample set (**Figure 3.2**).

The Scottish samples

In the third UC case-control cohort from Scotland (Edinburgh) (**Table 3.1**), only the major allele of tagging SNP rs224215 located in *MEFV* intron 2 was significantly associated with UC ($p=0.0406$; A allele frequency: 63% cases, 58% controls). None of the associations observed in the Belgian and Canadian UC analyses were replicated in the Scottish sample set (**Table 3.3**). No SNPs were significantly associated in the combined analysis of all Belgian-Canadian-Scottish UC samples (**Table 3.3**).

3.2.5 Figures

Figure 3.1: Level of MEFV mRNA expression in inflamed colitis tissues compared to healthy controls

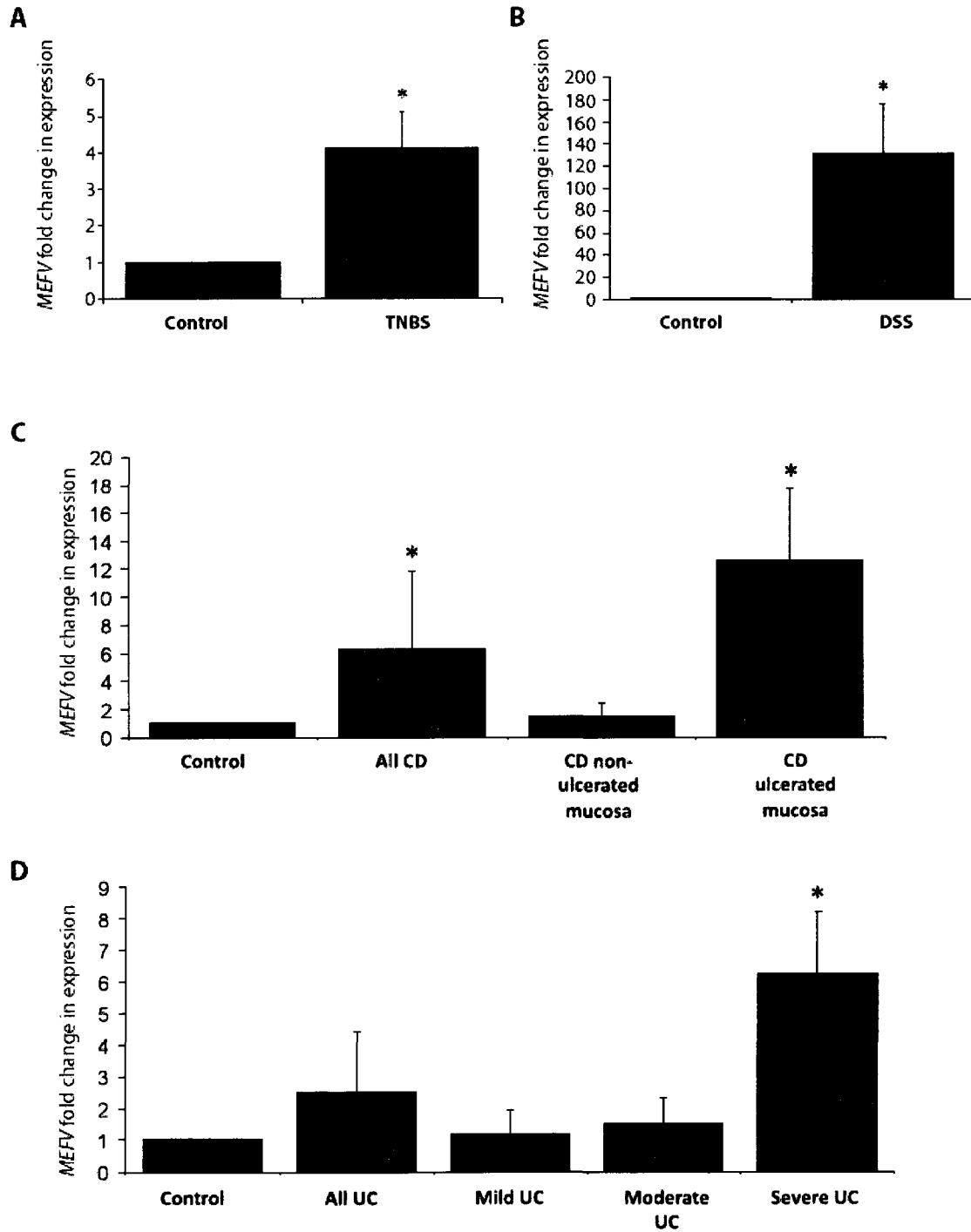


Figure 3.1: (a, b) *MEFV* expression was assessed by quantitative real-time PCR in (a, b) healthy mice colons (n=7), in colons from (a) acute TNBS (n=8) and (b) DSS (n=4) colitis mice models, as well as in (c, d) healthy human (n=25), (c) CD (n=16) and (d) UC (n=17) colonic specimens. *MEFV* expression appeared to correlate with disease severity in both CD (c: 9 CD with mild inflammation and 7 CD with severe inflammation) and UC (d: 6 UC with mild inflammation, 7 UC with moderate inflammation and 4UC with severe inflammation) samples. (a-d) Expression was normalized to *18S* gene expression and each bar represents the mean value $\pm$ S.D. (*) = $p < 0.05$ compared to healthy colonic specimens, considered as the arbitrary baseline = 1.

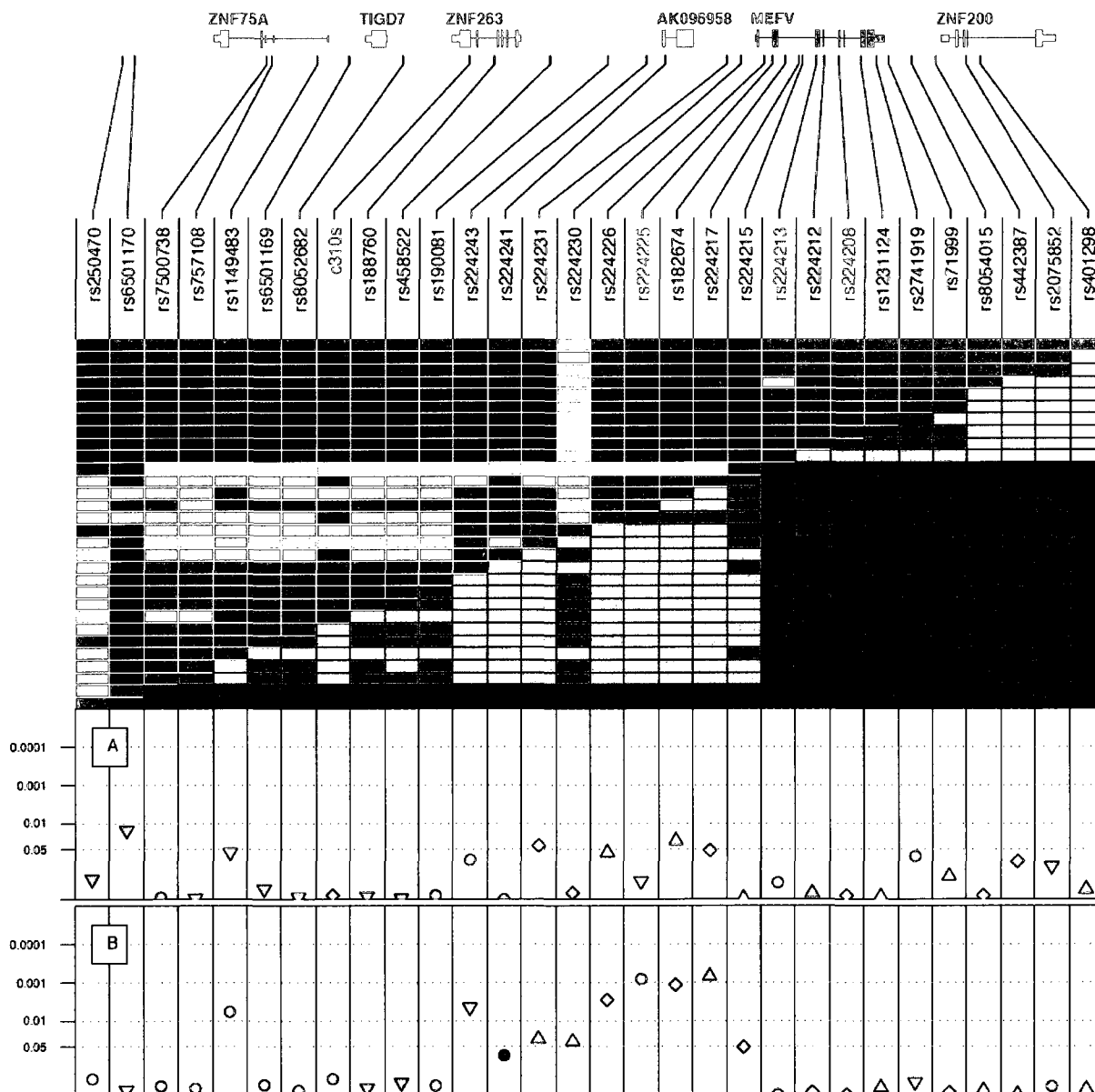


Figure 3.2: Association results of the SNP panel screened in Belgian IBD exploratory cohorts. Shown above are the SNPs with their positions in the genes and the LD structure between them. SNPs in red are exonic. The upper left portion is D' and the lower right portion is r^2 . In the lower panel are reported the results from association analysis of the Belgian CD (a), and the Belgian UC (b) samples. Level of significance can be found on the scale located at the bottom left of the figure. P value of individual alleles are reported, where the symbols represent the associated allele (Δ =T, $\square$ =C, $\circ$ =A, $\diamond$ =G) and the color scheme represents the allele frequency.

3.2.6 Tables

Table 3.1: Subjects examined as part of the *MEFV* candidate gene study

	Numbers of affected subjects			
	IBD	CD	UC	Control
Exploratory Combined Belgian Cohort				
1- Leuven Trios	435	356	79	N/A
2a- Liege Trios	190	156	34	N/A
2b- Liege C/C ^a	335	239	96	107
Total Exploratory Cohort	960	751	209	107
Replication Cohorts :				
Canadian Combined Cohort				
3- Quebec Trios ^b	125	95	30	N/A
4- Toronto Trios ^c	190	131	59	N/A
Total Canadian Cohort	315	226	89	N/A
Scottish Cohort				
5- Edinburth (Scottish) C/C ^{a,d}	521	0	521	300
Total Replication Cohort	836	226	610	300

^a C/C refers to case control sample set.

^b Includes 27 CD trios and 17 UC trios of Jewish ancestry

^c Includes 26 CD trios and 14 UC trios of Jewish ancestry, as well as 15 non-European probands (these were excluded from the analysis)

^d Includes 1 UC case of Jewish ancestry; includes also 14 cases and 11 controls of non-European descent, which were excluded from the analysis.

Table 3.2: Coding variants uncovered in *MEFV* 5' block

Base Change ^a	Amino Acid Change	dbSNP# ^b	Gene	Location
c.77G>A	R26Q	Novel	<i>TIGD7</i>	exon 1
c.1600G>A	V534I	Novel	<i>ZNF263</i>	exon 6
c.929G>C	C310S	rs220379	<i>ZNF263</i>	exon 6
c.742A>C	N248H	Novel	<i>AK096958</i>	exon 1
c.306T>C	D102D	rs224225	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 2
c.414A>G	G138G	rs224224	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 2
c.442G>C	E148Q	rs3743930	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 2
c.495C>A	A165A	rs224223	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 2
c.605G>A	R202Q	rs224222	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 2
c.942C>T	R314R	rs224213	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 3
c.1105C>T	P369S	rs11466023	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 3
c.1223G>A	R408Q	rs11466024	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 3
c.1422G>A	E474E	rs224208	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 5
c.1428A>G	Q476Q	rs224207	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 5
c.1530T>C	D510D	rs224206	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 5
c.1648C>G	P550A	Novel	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 7
c.1764G>A	P588P	rs1231122	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 9
c.2118G>A	P706P	rs2234939	<i>MEFV</i>	exon 10

^a According to the cDNA coding sequence, with +1 from the A of the initiating ATG. Reference sequences are NM_033208 (*TIGD7*),

NM_005741 (*ZNF263*), cDNA *AK096958* and NM_000243 (*MEFV*); ^b dbSNP: www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP

Table 3.3: Association results of tagging SNPs and *MEFV* exon 2 coding SNPs in the UC sample sets

#	SNP	Position	Belgian UC			Canadian UC			Edinburgh UC			Combined UC		
			Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value	Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value	Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value
1	rs250470	3318978	2	0.75	0.73	0.8473	4	0.26	0.24	0.6681	4	0.21	0.21	0.8969
2	rs6501170	3317583	2	0.17	0.16	0.7423	4	0.87	0.82	0.3022	2	0.16	0.16	0.9747
3	C310S	3279436	2	0.26	0.23	0.1333	3	0.81	0.70	0.0457	2	0.25	0.24	0.8262
4	rs190081	3263570	2	0.27	0.24	0.1101	4	0.82	0.74	0.0881	2	0.24	0.24	0.8593
5	rs224243	3259194	4	0.53	0.43	0.005196	2	0.57	0.54	0.7098	4	0.48	0.48	0.9977
6	rs224241	3257037	2	0.26	0.23	0.0490	4	0.81	0.71	0.0727	4	0.77	0.77	0.9255
7	rs224230	3248358	1	0.71	0.66	0.1979	3	0.36	0.33	0.5148	3	0.36	0.35	0.7233
8	rs224225	3244763	2	0.56	0.45	0.001463	4	0.59	0.54	0.3385	2	0.46	0.45	0.7062
9	rs224224	3244655	3	0.55	0.45	0.002625	1	0.59	0.54	0.3385	3	0.46	0.45	0.7062
10	rs224223	3244574	1	0.55	0.45	0.001981	2	0.59	0.54	0.3385	1	0.46	0.44	0.6245
11	R202Q	3244464	1	0.32	0.23	0.000532	3	0.82	0.70	0.0117	3	0.74	0.74	0.9823
12	rs224217	3241758	1	0.56	0.45	0.002545	3	0.57	0.55	0.7179	3	0.51	0.50	0.8781
13	rs224215	3241361	3	0.38	0.37	0.4363	1	0.68	0.67	0.7855	1	0.63	0.58	0.0406
14	rs1231124	3234679	1	0.50	0.50	0.5949	1	0.49	0.44	0.3824	1	0.45	0.45	0.9495
15	rs442387	3226119	3	0.59	0.53	0.0595	3	0.56	0.54	0.7255	3	0.50	0.50	0.9109
16	rs401298	3220975	1	0.46	0.42	0.2741	1	0.43	0.36	0.3107	3	0.61	0.59	0.3107

Table 3.4: Association results of tagging SNPs and *MEFV* exon 2 coding SNPs in CD sample sets

#	SNP	Position	Belgian CD				Canadian CD				Combined CD			
			Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value	Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value	Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value
1	rs250470	3318978	4	0.27	0.26	0.5166	2	0.72	0.72	1.0000	4	0.27	0.26	0.6874
2	rs6501170	3317583	4	0.86	0.83	0.1133	4	0.87	0.82	0.0533	4	0.86	0.83	0.0179
3	C310S	3279436	3	0.77	0.76	0.6680	3	0.76	0.71	0.1839	3	0.76	0.74	0.2080
4	rs190081	3263570	4	0.76	0.76	0.9732	4	0.75	0.71	0.1718	4	0.76	0.74	0.3491
5	rs224243	3259194	2	0.55	0.53	0.5570	4	0.42	0.42	0.8846	2	0.56	0.55	0.8983
6	rs224241	3257037	4	0.77	0.75	0.2282	4	0.76	0.73	0.3169	4	0.77	0.74	0.0964
7	rs224230	3248358	1	0.66	0.66	0.7677	3	0.40	0.33	0.0439	3	0.36	0.34	0.6047
8	rs224225	3244763	4	0.52	0.51	0.8556	4	0.57	0.55	0.6298	4	0.53	0.52	0.7230
9	rs224224	3244655	1	0.51	0.51	0.7661	1	0.57	0.55	0.6298	1	0.53	0.53	0.6503
10	rs224223	3244574	2	0.52	0.51	0.7818	2	0.57	0.55	0.6298	2	0.53	0.53	0.6663
11	R202Q	3244464	1	0.27	0.26	0.4749	3	0.75	0.70	0.0885	3	0.74	0.72	0.7535
12	rs224217	3241758	3	0.53	0.51	0.8638	3	0.57	0.56	0.8290	3	0.54	0.53	0.8713
13	rs224215	3241361	3	0.39	0.39	0.7628	3	0.38	0.37	0.6582	3	0.39	0.38	0.9612
14	rs1231124	3234679	1	0.48	0.44	0.0822	1	0.49	0.42	0.0563	1	0.48	0.43	0.0134
15	rs442387	3226119	3	0.54	0.52	0.2781	3	0.56	0.51	0.1526	3	0.55	0.51	0.1059
16	rs401298	3220975	1	0.40	0.40	0.8400	1	0.41	0.37	0.2182	1	0.40	0.39	0.4089

3.2.7 Discussion

Genes, such as *MEFV*, in which mutations lead to severe systemic inflammatory diseases, like the AIDs, herald their critical role in the control of inflammation and may represent potential candidates for the onset chronic inflammatory disorders like CD and UC. To further support our candidate gene selection, we integrated results from mice and human colonic expression studies of *MEFV*. We found *MEFV* expression to be significantly increased in both TNBS colitis mice model, which mimics CD-like intestinal inflammation, and in DSS colitis mice model, which mimics UC-like intestinal inflammation. We also found an increase in gene expression in inflamed colonic tissues from both CD and UC patients, correlating with severity of inflammation. Fine mapping of the *MEFV* region revealed two haplotype-blocks with a previously reported recombination hotspot located in *MEFV* intron 2 (Aldea et al. 2004). In our exploratory phase, we report associations between the *minor* allele of variants in the *MEFV* 5' region and UC, as well as associations between the *major* allele of variants located in the same region and CD in the Belgian sample set. Yet, we failed to subsequently validate these associations in the Canadian and Scottish IBD sample sets.

Unlike previous studies (Cattan et al. 2000; Fidler et al. 2002; Fidler et al. 2005; Karban et al. 2005) that have excluded the involvement of *MEFV* in CD pathogenesis by looking at specific rare FMF missense causative mutations clustered in exon 2 and 10 in a relatively small number of CD cases, we carried out a thorough genetic screening of the *MEFV* region in two large CD sample

sets where we observed no association between common variants in the *MEFV* region and CD. Since no variants were consistently associated with CD in the *MEFV* region, we concluded in agreement with previous studies looking at rare FMF causative mutations (Cattan et al. 2000; Fidder et al. 2002; Fidder et al. 2005; Karban et al. 2005) that common variants in the *MEFV* region do not contribute to CD susceptibility.

Upon the observation of significant associations between SNPs located in the 5' block region of *MEFV* and UC in the exploratory phase, we excluded possible coding risk variants and non-*MEFV* genes located in the 5' block by sequencing all the exonic and promoter regions of the five genes in this region and genotyping the uncovered non-synonymous variants. Only coding SNPs within *MEFV* exon 2 (i.e. *D102D*, *G138G*, *A165A*, and *R202Q*) were significantly associated with UC in the Belgian samples. Yet, in the validation phase, none of the synonymous variants were associated with UC in the Canadian samples and we observed opposite *R202Q* (rs224222) allele association with UC in the Belgian and Canadian cohorts, suggesting that *R202Q* was unlikely to be a causative variant contributing to UC susceptibility.

Of interest, several other groups have reported the contribution of *MEFV* and SNPs in the same 5' region to the susceptibility of UC and other chronic inflammatory disorder. For example, *MEFV* exon 2 haplotype CGAA/G (*D102D*, *G138G*, *A165A*, *R202Q*), associated with UC in our study, has also been associated with FMF causative rare mutations in Mediterranean populations (Aldea et al. 2004). A study conducted in a Greek population, focusing precisely on *MEFV* exon 2 and 10, has reported an association between UC and *MEFV*

exon 2 haplotype (Giaglis et al. 2006). Yet, the FMF causative mutations were reported to be associated with another exon 2 haplotype (i.e. *D102D*, *G138G*, *A165A*, *R202Q*: TACG) in this population, a difference in association that could reflect a distinct founder effect or be consequent of the relative small sample size evaluated in their study (Giaglis et al. 2006). In agreement with our UC preliminary association results, another study reported the association of six SNPs in the *MEFV* region with juvenile idiopathic arthritis (Day et al. 2008). Amongst these SNPs, three of them (i.e. rs224217, rs224225, rs224223) located in the *MEFV* 5' region were also associated in our study. Although of modest size, these studies pointed towards the same *MEFV* region as being involved in inflammatory processes.

Despite the above mentioned studies, our UC exploratory association results need to be interpreted with cautious. Indeed, the associations were observed in two relatively small UC sample sets (totalizing 202 Belgian-Canadian trios, 96 UC cases and 107 healthy controls), and no associations were replicated in our largest UC sample set from Edinburgh (521 UC cases and 300 controls). Additionally, in the combined analyses of all sample sets, we observed no SNPs significantly associated with UC. Given the lack of consistent replication across all our screened sample sets and the lack of SNP associations in the largest sample set (i.e. combined analysis), we conclude that *MEFV* is unlikely to contribute to UC susceptibility.

The fact that mutations in both *MEFV* and *NLRP3* cause auto-inflammatory diseases, that these two genes encode for pyrin domain containing-proteins (Ting et al. 2006) that participate in the same shared signaling pathway

(i.e. the inflammasome) (Chae et al. 2006; Papin et al. 2007; Chae et al. 2008), as well as the recent description of associated common variants in the *NLRP3* region with CD (Villani et al. 2009), prompted us to hypothesize that *MEFV* could equally well be implicated in CD and UC susceptibility. Yet, our results suggests otherwise as we observed no consistent associations with common variants in the *MEFV* region across all our screened sample sets. We thus conclude that *MEFV* does not contribute to CD and UC susceptibility.

3.2.8 Accession numbers

GenBank: *NLRP3*, AF054176; *MEFV*, AF018080; *ZNF263*, AC004232; *TIGD7*, AF251050; *ZNF75A*, NM_153028; *ZNF200*, AF060866; *AK096958*, NC_000016

3.2.9 Acknowledgement

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3.2.10 Supplementary tables

Supplementary Table 3.1: Association results of the SNPs genotyped in the exploratory phase in the Belgian CD and UC sample sets

#	SNP ID	Position	Belgian CD				Belgian UC			
			Associated Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	<i>P</i> value	Associated Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	<i>P</i> value
1	rs250470	3318978	4	0.27	0.25	0.2995	2	0.79	0.74	0.3446
2	rs6501170	3317583	4	0.87	0.82	0.0155	4	0.81	0.79	0.6681
3	rs7500738	3302610	2	0.24	0.24	0.8989	2	0.27	0.24	0.5285
4	rs757108	3302018	4	0.76	0.76	0.9491	2	0.27	0.24	0.6113
5	rs1149483	3296835	4	0.58	0.53	0.0594	2	0.55	0.40	0.0059
6	rs6501169	3293206	4	0.77	0.76	0.5335	2	0.26	0.23	0.4919
7	rs8052682	3287034	4	0.76	0.76	0.8951	2	0.26	0.24	0.6961
8	C310S	3279436	3	0.76	0.76	0.7928	2	0.27	0.22	0.3446
9	rs188760	3276562	4	0.24	0.24	0.8468	4	0.26	0.24	0.6054
10	rs458522	3270180	4	0.24	0.24	0.9491	4	0.27	0.23	0.4382
11	rs190081	3263570	2	0.24	0.23	0.7946	2	0.27	0.24	0.5148
12	rs224243	3259194	2	0.57	0.52	0.0920	4	0.56	0.40	0.004553
13	rs224241	3257037	2	0.22	0.22	1.0000	2	0.29	0.18	0.0840
14	rs224231	3249980	3	0.60	0.54	0.0394	1	0.57	0.42	0.0308
15	rs224230	3248358	3	0.35	0.34	0.6872	1	0.72	0.59	0.0356
16	rs224226	3245733	1	0.57	0.52	0.0592	3	0.56	0.38	0.002867
17	rs224225	3244763	4	0.53	0.51	0.3365	2	0.58	0.40	0.00082
18	rs182674	3243311	1	0.56	0.50	0.0294	3	0.57	0.36	0.001159
19	rs224217	3241758	3	0.56	0.51	0.0524	1	0.58	0.39	0.000689
20	rs224215	3241361	1	0.64	0.64	0.9512	3	0.42	0.29	0.0508
21	rs224213	3239750	2	0.48	0.45	0.3673	2	0.50	0.49	0.8981
22	rs224212	3238866	1	0.47	0.45	0.6949	3	0.50	0.48	0.7728
23	rs224208	3237182	3	0.47	0.46	0.8033	3	0.52	0.51	0.8886
24	rs1231124	3234679	1	0.47	0.46	0.8510	1	0.52	0.48	0.5860
25	rs2741919	3232897	2	0.49	0.43	0.0752	4	0.51	0.45	0.4227
26	rs71999	3231468	1	0.48	0.45	0.2509	3	0.50	0.48	0.7773
27	rs8054015	3228830	3	0.58	0.57	0.7987	1	0.45	0.42	0.7054
28	rs442387	3226119	3	0.57	0.52	0.1011	1	0.43	0.42	0.8886
29	rs2075852	3222606	4	0.56	0.51	0.1379	2	0.44	0.40	0.5462
30	rs401298	3220975	1	0.43	0.41	0.5520	1	0.48	0.45	0.6616

Supplementary Table 3.2: List of oligos and probes used to perform the genotyping experiments

Oligo ID	Primers	Probes	Genotyping Technology	Comments
P369S_F	YGGTGCCAGGACTCCCAT		SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
P369S_R	TGGACCTGCTTCAGGTGG		SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
P369S_CT_U1	-	ACGCACGTCCACGGTGATTTAAGGAAGAGCCCGGGAAAGCCTAAGC	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs7187449_F	TCCTGGAACATGGAATGG	-	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
rs7187449_R	AAGGCAGCATGTAGGGGT	-	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
rs7187449_CT_U2	-	GGATGGCGTTCGTCCTATTCTTTATACAGACAATAAGACTGG	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
rs224225_D102D_F	TTCATCATTTTGCATCTGGTT	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs224225_D102D_R	TCTTCAGGCTCCTGGGCT	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs224225_D102D_CT_U2	-	GGATGGCGTTCGTCCTATTATTCCACACAAAGAAACGGCACAGA	SNPstream panel I	-
rs224241_F	AAATACCACTTGATGTTGGCT	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs224241_R	TGAAATTTTAAAAATGCAGTTGAG	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs224241_CT_U3	-	CGTGCCGCTCGTGATAGAATAAGAACCAAGCTTTTCTTGCCAAA	SNPstream panel I	-
R42W_F	TTCAAAGTTCAAGCTGCAGAAC	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
R42W_R	AGATGGCCATCTTTCACC	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
R42W_CT_U4	-	AGCGATCTGCGAGACCGTATGCAGAAAGAGAGCACTCCAGGATCCCC	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
V726A_F	TAATAAAGGAGCCTCCCAAGC	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
V726A_R	CCAGAGAAAGAGCAGCTGG	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
V726A_CT_U5	-	GCGGTAGGTTCCCGACATATGTGGGCATCTTCGTGGACTACAGAG	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs2075852_F	AAATACATTCAAATCCCTCAAAGACC	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs2075852_R	ATTATAGGTCCTCTTGCTATCC	-	SNPstream panel I	-

rs2075852 CT_U6	-	GGCTATGATTCCGCAATGCTTAACTGAGGTTCACTGACAGCCCTAC	SNPstream panel I	-
rs8052921_F	GTGCTGTGTGATCCCATCTC	-	SNPstream panel I	Marker did not work
rs8052921_R	TCTGTTGCAAAACGTGTCAC	-	SNPstream panel I	Marker did not work
rs8052921 CT_U7	-	AGGGTCTCTACGCTGACGATTGGTTCAGAAAACCTCCTCGGAGCTGA	SNPstream panel I	Marker did not work
LI10PCT_F	AATATTCCACACACAAGAAAACGG	-	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
LI10PCT_R	RGGGTGGTCTGGAGTCTTC	-	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
LI10PCT_U8	-	GTGATTCTGTACGTGTGCGCCGAYGAYTCCGCGAGCGTCCAGMTCCC	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
rs2741919_F	TTCAGGAGCACCTGAGAGTG	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs2741919_R	ACTGATGACACACCATGGATT	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs2741919 CT_U8	-	GTGATTCTGTACGTGTGCGCCACACACAGGGCGGATTATGCAA	SNPstream panel I	-
IS91T_F	TTCCTTGTCTTTCCTTGTGTC	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
IS91T_R	ACTTGCCTTGATCTGGGC	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
IS91T CT_U9	-	GACCTGGGTGCGATACCTATTTTCTCCGTAGTTCRCGAGCTGA	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs417929_F	AAAGTGGGGTGTGGCAGG	-	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
rs417929_R	CTTTATTTTACAAAACCCCTCTTGT	-	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
rs417929 CT_U10	-	AGATAGAGTCGATGCCAGCTTAACCCCTGCTGAAGGGCTGCAGTCA	SNPstream panel I	Monomorphic marker
rs224243_F	AATATGATTCTTTTCGGATAACTTG	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs224243_R	AGCAACATCCCGTTGTC	-	SNPstream panel I	-
rs224243 CT_U10	-	AGATAGAGTCGATGCCAGCTGATGGAAAAATCACAGGCCAAAGTCA	SNPstream panel I	-
rs1149487_F	ATCTTCATGTGTGGGCACC	-	SNPstream panel I	Marker did not work
rs1149487_R	ATTAAGAAATTGTTCCAGCTGC	-	SNPstream panel I	Marker did not work
rs1149487 CT_U11	-	AGAGCGAGTGACGCATACCTAGCTGCGGCTGGAACACAGTGGACA	SNPstream panel I	Marker did not work
T2671_F	AACTTTAATATCCAAGGGGATTC	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
T2671_R	TTCTCTGCAGCCGATATAAAGTA	-	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency
T2671 CT_U12	-	CGACTGTAGGTGCGTAACCTCACTCTCTGACTCTAGAGGAAAAGA	SNPstream panel I	Below 5% minor allele frequency

rs401298_F	AAATCTTACCTCAGTCTTCGGA	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs401298_R	TTCTGGAATTGTAATTCATCAGGT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs401298_GA_U1	-	ACGCACGTCCACGGTGATTGTCTTACAAAACCAAAATTGGAAG		SNPstream panel II	-
rs224230_F	AAGAATCTCTAGCTTAGTGACTTGC	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224230_R	TCAGTGGTCAGCTGGAAAT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224230_GA_U2	-	GGATGGCGTTCGCTCCTATTCATGACAAATAATTTGTGATTTTACT		SNPstream panel II	-
rs8054015_F	TCATGATATGTTTATACAGTGGAAG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs8054015_R	TTATAACTTGGCCTTTTCACCTTAAAGTATC	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs8054015_GA_U3	-	CGTGCCGCTCGTGATAGAATATATGTTTATACAGTGGAAGCCAAAC		SNPstream panel II	-
rs224217_F	ATATATGCACAGCTTCACAAATGT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224217_R	TGTGAGGTTATTGTGAGAGGG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224217_GA_U4	-	AGCGATCTGCGAGACCGTATGTCTTCCCCAGATTTTCTACCTGGT		SNPstream panel II	-
rs71999_F	AAACTCTATGCCAACTCCT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs71999_R	GCAAGTTTACCTGCTCTCATC	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs71999_GA_U5	-	GCGGTAGGTTCCCGACATATTGTCTTCACTACTAGAGTGTAGATT		SNPstream panel II	-
R408Q_F	CYATCTGCCTCATCTGCAG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	Below 5% minor allele frequency
R408Q_R	TGCCTACCTTGTGTTCCAG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	Below 5% minor allele frequency
R408Q_GA_U6	-	GGCTATGATTTCGCAATGCTTCTGAGTCAGGAGCAGCAAGGCCACC		SNPstream panel II	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs224208_F	AAACAAACTGAAGCGCTGAA	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224208_R	ATCTGGCCCCACGTCTCTCC	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224208_GA_U7	-	AGGGTCTCTACGCTGACGATTGGAGCAGGTGTACTACTTCTCTGGA		SNPstream panel II	-
rs224212_F	TTTCTGGTAAGGTCAGAGGTG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224212_R	AACCACAGCAGAAATCTCGG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224212_GA_U8	-	GTGATTCTGTACGTGTCGCCGATGGCCCCATCCGTCCCTGGGAGGA		SNPstream panel II	-
rs224226_GA_F	TATAATCTGGGTTTGTGCTGACC	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-

rs224226 GA_R	ATTATTATAAGTGTGAGCCACCAT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224226 GA_U8	-	GTGATTCTGTACGTGTCGCCACGTTGTCCTGCTTAAACGTTTGA	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224205 F	AGCCCTGGTAAAGTGCAGC	-	-	SNPstream panel II	Marker did not work
rs224205 R	AAAAAAGAAGGAAACTGTCGGT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	Marker did not work
rs224205 GA_U9	-	GACCTGGGTGTCGATACCTAGAGCTAAAAGTCCAGGAGCCCAGAA	-	SNPstream panel II	Marker did not work
rs224231 GA_F	GGGCACGGGACTGATACTC	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224231 GA_R	ACGGCAAAACCTCGTCTCTA	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224231 GA_U9	-	GACCTGGGTGTCGATACCTAAACCTCCACCTCCAGGTTCAAGCA	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs1231124 F	GTGGCCCAAGTACCCGTG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs1231124 R	AAAGTTGAGGACCAAGCATTTAG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs1231124 GA_U10	-	AGATAGAGTCGATGCCAGCTCTGGAAATGAACTACATTCTCTCCACA	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs442387 F	TCTGGTGACTCCCATAGGT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs442387 R	AAACCGAGACAGTAGGAGAAGG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs442387 GA_U11	-	AGAGCGAGTGACGCATAC TAGCAGTGTAGAAAGTTAGCAAGCTGGA	-	SNPstream panel II	-
M694V_F	GAGGTGGAGGTTGGAGACAA	-	-	SNPstream panel II	Below 5% minor allele frequency
M694V_R	AGAGCAGCTGGCGAATGTAT	-	-	SNPstream panel II	Below 5% minor allele frequency
M694V GA_U12	-	C GACTGTAGGTGCGTAACTCGAATGGCTACTGGGTGGTGTGATAATG	-	SNPstream panel II	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs224215 GA_F	TCCCAGAAATTCACAGCACA	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224215 GA_R	GCAAGATGGAGGAACAGAGG	-	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs224215 GA_U12	-	C GACTGTAGGTGCGTAACTCTTCTAGAGCTTCCCGAGGGATACT	-	SNPstream panel II	-
rs1149483 F	GAGCATCTTGTTGCTTACTTGG	-	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs1149483 R	GCAGTTGACACGGGGTAAGT	-	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs1149483 CT_U1	-	ACGCACGTCCACGGTGATTGTCTGTGAAAATAGGCTACTTTTTCAC	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs11645952_F	TCAGTCGAGCGTCTGTAAGG	-	-	SNPstream panel III	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs11645952_R	TGTCAGCGCTAAGATTGGTG	-	-	SNPstream panel III	Below 5% minor allele frequency

rs11645952_CT_U2	-	GGATGGCGTTCGCTCTATTACGATTCAACCCAAATCTGATAATG	SNPstream panel III	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs6501170_F	CTCATTTGAGAACACAGGAGCTG	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs6501170_R	AGTATCCCTTCCGGACCACT	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs6501170_CT_U3	-	CGTGCCGCTCGTGATAGAATAACACCAGGCATCCCAGATGCCTCG	SNPstream panel III	-
rs6501169_F	TCTCAGCTGTGCCGTCGT	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs6501169_R	TGACAGGCTGATTCATAACA	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs6501169_CT_U4	-	AGCGATCTCGAGACCGGTATAAACCAAAAGGAAAGGCTCAAGGAA	SNPstream panel III	-
rs8052682_F	CCACTCTTGCTCTAGTACCTTGC	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs8052682_R	TGTCTGGAGGAGGCTTGAAT	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs8052682_CT_U5	-	GCGGTAGGTTCCCGACATATTGCTGCGATTACGGGTGTGAGCCAC	SNPstream panel III	-
rs250470_F	ACTTGCCCTGGTGGAGAACAG	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs250470_R	CTCCGTCAGTGAGCCAAGAT	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs250470_CT_U6	-	GGCTATGATTCCGCAATGCTTCAACACATGAAATAAACAGTTGGG	SNPstream panel III	-
rs458522_F	GGCGCTTACTTCTCTTCACTACTT	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs458522_R	CCAATGCAGTTCCAGAGGAT	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs458522_CT_U7	-	AGGGTCTCTACGCTGACGATAAGTAGCAGTTCTTAGTCTTTTGG	SNPstream panel III	-
rs220380_F	AGAGGAGCCTGTTGGCAAG	-	SNPstream panel III	Marker did not work
rs220380_R	GACAGTCAGGTGCCCAATC	-	SNPstream panel III	Marker did not work
rs220380_CT_U8	-	GTGATTCTGTACGTGTGCGCTCTACCCCTCTTGCTTTTAAAG	SNPstream panel III	Marker did not work
rs190081_F	AATGCTCCATGCTCTACAGGTT	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs190081_R	CAGTTGTTAAGAGTGGCAATGG	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs190081_CT_U9	-	GACCTGGGTGTCGATACCTATGACATCTATCTAGGTCCAGATGAA	SNPstream panel III	-
rs188760_F	ACATGCAGTATTCCAGGATGC	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs188760_R	TGTGAGAGATGATAGGCTGGAA	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs188760_U10	-	AGATAGAGTCGATGCCAGCTTCCGTTAGTGTTTCTAGGCTCGTC	SNPstream panel III	-

rs7500738 F	AAGAGACTGCTTCAGGCATCA	-	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs7500738 R	CGTGCTCAGGTGCTCACTGTC	-	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs7500738 CT_U11	-	AGAGCGAGTGACGCATACTATCTGTACTTAAAAAGTCAGGATCAG		SNPstream panel III	-
rs757108 F	CAAGAACAGCTCAGCAGGAA	-	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs757108 R	CTACTGCTGCCTGGAAGGAC	-	-	SNPstream panel III	-
rs757108 CT_U12	-	CGACTGTAGGTGCGTAACTCAATAGTTTATTACCCCAAAATGTCA		SNPstream panel III	-
rs224230b F	TGTGCAGCCAAAGAACTCTGTA	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224230b R	CTCAGTGTGCTCAGCTGGAAAT	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224230 GA_U1	-	ACGCACGTCCACGGTGATTTTCATGACAATAATTGTGATTTTACT		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs8054015b F	AAGATTCTGCCACTGCACTC	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs8054015b R	CTGCTTTATAAAGTTGCCCTTTTCA	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs8054015 GA_U2	-	GGATGGCGTTCCGTCCTATTATATGTTTATACAGTGGAAGCCCAAC		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs250470b F	GTAATCTGCTGCCCTGGGTGAC	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs250470b R	CTAAACTTGCCTGGTGGAGA	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs250470 GA_U3	-	CGTGCCGCTCGTGATAGATAATTAATTAATTAATTTCTCTAGTCC		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224208b F	ATACCTCCCTGTCCTCTGCT	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224208b R	CATATGCCCTTCCTGATCTGC	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224208 GA_U4	-	AGCGATCTGCGAGACCGTATTGGAGCAGGTGTACTACTTCCTGGA		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224243b F	TCCATGTTCCAGGACAGACT	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224243b R	CACGGAAATTCAGAAAACACC	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224243 GA_U5	-	GCGGTAGGTTCCCGACATATGTCATGGGTGACAGCCTTCCTTCAG		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224215b F	AGCCTCCTTTGCAGTTAGGT	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224215b R	CCTCAAGCTTCTGCTCTCAG	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224215 GA_U6	-	GGCTATGATTCGCAATGCTTTTCTAGAGCTTTCCCRAGGGATACT		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224241b F	GCTCCAGAGCAGAAAACCTGAA	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-

rs224241b_R	TGCCCTCTACAGGACAGAAA	-	-	SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224241_GA_U7	-	AGGGTCTCTACGCTGACGATGATAAACTGAAATGACTGACAGGCC		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs6501170b_F	TTAACCGATGCCACTGAACT	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs6501170b_R	CCTCCCTGGAGTATCCATTT	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs6501170_GA_U8	-	GTGATTCTGTACGTGTCGCCGTATCCCTTCCGGACCACTCTCATTT		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs190081b_F	TGTACCCAAATATGCACGTCT	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs190081b_R	TTAGCAGTGTGCCCTTTGACA	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs190081_GA_U9	-	GACCTGGGTGTCGATACCTACACAGTTGTTAAGAGTGGCAATGGCCT		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224217b_F	GAATCTCAACCCCATGATGA	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224217b_R	TGCACAGCTTCACAAATGTC	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs224217_GA_U10	-	AGATAGAGTCGATGCCAGCTGTCTTCCCCAGATTTTCTACCTGGT		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs442387b_F	GGATACAACGCACAAAACACA	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs442387b_R	CTCTGGTGACTCCCATAGGTT	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs442387_GA_U11	-	AGAGCGAGTGACCGCATACTAGCAGTGTAGAAAGTTAGCAAGCTGGA		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs1231124b_F	ACTTTTCAGGGACAGGCACT	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs1231124b_R	CCTCTGAATCCAGGGAAGAC	-		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs1231124_GA_U12	-	CGACTGTAGGTGCGTAACCTCCTGGAAATGAACTACATTCTCCACA		SNPstream panel IV	-
rs250470_F	ACTTGCCTGGTGGAACAG	-		Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs250470c_R	ATCCCTTCCTGATGCCTTCT	-		Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs2504070_CT_Sense	-	ACACATGAAATAAAACAGTTGGG		Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs2504070_GA_AS	-	TTAATTAATTAATTAATTTTCTAGTCC		Fluorescent Polarization	-
R26Q_F	CACTGAATTTGGAGGAGAAAAATG	-		Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
R26Q_R	ACCACATGTAGACCGCATCA	-		Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
R26Q_GA_Sense	-	GTCTAAGTAGAATTGAAAGCTGGAC		Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
R26Q_CT_AS	-	TTCATCCATTACACITTTTAAGTGAT		Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency

V534I_F	TACAAAGTGCCTGAGTGTGG	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
V534I_R	GGGCTCCATGGTTTGTAAAGA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
V534I_GA_Sense	-	TTCTCTCGGAGTTTCACACCTC	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
V534I_CT_AS	-	CTCATGAGTCTCTTCGTGAATGA	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
C310S_F	TTCTGGGCTGCTGACCTAAC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
C310S_R	TCATGAGGCTCTCCCAAGCTC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
C310S_GC_Sense	-	TGGAAGGTGTTCCGCTGTAT	Fluorescent Polarization	-
C310S_CG_AS	-	TGAGGGTGGATGTTTCTCAGAG	Fluorescent Polarization	-
N248H_F	TAAGGCGGACAGACACTC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
N248H_R	CTGCCAATCAGACCAACAGA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
N248H_AC_Sense	-	CGGGAGCAGCGAGGCC	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
N248H_TG_AS	-	GCTAATCCGCCCTCCAAT	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs224230c_F	CACAACATCGTCTCTGTCAT	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224230c_R	GAGCTGGGTGTTTCAGCTAGG	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224230_GA_Sense	-	CATGACAATAAATTGTGATTTTACT	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224230_CT_AS	-	TGACATCCATGGGTAGTCATTAA	Fluorescent Polarization	-
E148Q_F	AAACGGCACAGATGATTCC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
E148Q_R	TCTCTCTGGGTTTGCTCAGG	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
E148Q_GC_Sense	-	TGCGGTGCAGCCAGCCCC	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
E148Q_CG_AS	-	CAGCCCCCTCCCGGCCCT	Fluorescent Polarization	Below 5% minor allele frequency
rs182674_F	TCCGATTGAAAAAGGCAATC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs182674_R	AAAGAAGATGGCCAGGGTTT	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs182674_GA_Sense	-	AGGCGCTGTCCCCAGC	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs182674_CT_AS	-	ATGCGATGTAGGAAGAAGCA	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224217c_F	CAAAATTCAGGTAGTCTTGGACAC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-

rs224217c_R	GATGATGCATTGCTGTGAGG	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224217_CT_Sense	-	GAATCCAAGGGGTTTATGGA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224217_GA_AS	-	CCCCAGATTTTCTACCTGGT	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224213_F	TCTGTGTAAGCAACTTGGGTTTG	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224213_R	ACAGGTACCGTCAAACTGGGTCT	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224213_CT_Sense	-	GGCTGCGAGTCCCCG	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224213_GA_AS	-	TTCCTGGCGGTGGCA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224208c_F	AGCCACCTCTTATCCACCT	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224208c_R	CACCTGCAGAAAGTTCCCAAT	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224208_GA_Sense	-	AGCAGGTGTACTACTTCCCTGGA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224208_CT_AS	-	CACAAAGAAATGCTCTCTGCTG	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs224205b_F	TGCTCCACTTCCACTGACAC	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Marker did not work
rs224205b_R	TCTCCCCCATATGCTTTTCTG	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Marker did not work
rs224205_GA_Sense	-	AAGTCCAGGAGCCCCAGAA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Marker did not work
rs224205_CT_AS	-	GGCTGACTCCTGGCCTCTA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	Marker did not work
rs8054015_GA_Sense	-	ATATGTTTATACAGTGGGAAGCCCAAC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs8054015_CT_AS	-	TTAAAGTATCTCTTTTCAATGGTTC	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs401298b_F	CGGGTCCAAATCTTACCTCA	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs401298b_R	AGACCCAATCCTCACCCCTCT	-	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs401298_GA_Sense	-	TGCTTTACAAACCAAAATTGGAAG	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-
rs401298_CT_AS	-	GATGTTATATCTTGGCCTTTTGTA	-	Fluorescent Polarization	-

Supplementary Table 3.3: List of oligos used to amplify fragments for the sequencing experiments

Oligo ID	Sequence
MEFVprom1F	GGGTTTGGGCTCAGAAAGAT
MEFVprom1R	CCAAACGTCAAACCACTTCA
MEFVProm2_F	TCAGTGGTCAGCTGGAATG
MEFVProm2_R	GGCAGGAGAATCACTTGAACA
MEFVprom3F	CCCAAGGTGGAGTACAATGG
MEFVprom3R	CAAGTCTGCAAGGGAAGGTC
MEFVexon1F	GGCAGGAAGGAAGATTGGAG
MEFVexon1R	AGCTGCTCTGAGCTCCTGGT
MEFVexon2F	GGGGATTCTCTCTCCTCTGC
MEFVexon2R	GATTACAGGCATGAGCTATCG
MEFVexon3F	GGGGAGGACAAGCTAGGAAG
MEFVexon3R	TAATGCACCAACAACCCAGA
MEFVexon4F	CCTCAGCCTTGCTACCAGAA
MEFVexon4R	TCTGTCCCCTGAGAGGAGGT
MEFVexon5F	CTGGGGGTTCTTGACAT
MEFVexon5R	GGTCACCAAGACCAAGTCCT
MEFVexon6F	GCCTGAATCCCGTGGTTAG
MEFVexon6R	GAACATCTCCCTCCCAGGTC
MEFVexon7-8F	TGTAGTTCATTTCAGCTCACG
MEFVexon7-8R	TTCTAAATAGGGCCCCCTCAA
MEFVexon9-10aF	CTAAGCAGGGGGTTCCTTGT
MEFVexon9-10aR	AATAAAGGAGCCTCCCAAGC
MEFVexon9-10bF	AGAATGGCTACTGGGTGGTG
MEFVexon9-10bR	AATCCAGTCTGCTTGCGTTT
MEFVexon9-10cF	AACAGAAGATTTGGCCCTCA
MEFVexon9-10cR	GTGGCTCATGCCTGTAATCC
MEFVexon9-10dF	GTAGAGACGGGGGTTTCACC
MEFVexon9-10dR	CATGAGGCCCAAGTCAATTCT
AK096958prom1_F	CTGAGATGAGGGGACACTGG
AK096958prom1_R	GTGGGTTGGTCCAAGTTGAG
AK096958prom2F	TTGCTGAGTGTGGTGGTGAT
AK096958prom2R	TGGTGTGGGGATCTATTCAGA
AK096958prom3F	CTCCTGAGCAGCTTGGAAC
AK096958prom3R	GCCTGTAATCCCACCACTTT
AK096958exon1aF	GTCAGGCTGGTCTCGAACTC
AK096958exon1aR	ACACTGCGGACAGTTCCTTT

AK096958exon1bF	GGAGGAGACGTGTGGAAAGA
AK096958exon1bR	TCTCAGCCTCCTTGGAACAG
AK096958exon1cF	CTGTGCTGACCCCAAAACC
AK096958exon1cR	GTCAGGAGAGCGAGACCATC
AK096958exon1dF	CCTTCCGAGTAGCTGGGATT
AK096958exon1dR	AGTGCCCTGGTGACAGACAT
AK096958exon2F	ATGACTGACAGGCCATTTGC
AK096958exon2R	GAACCCCAATTTTACAGTTGA
ZNF263prom1F	TTCAGGAACCTGCTGTGCAT
ZNF263prom1R	CTGCCTCAGCCTCCTGAGTA
ZNF263prom2F	TGGTGAAACCCCGTCTCTAC
ZNF263prom2R	TTTAAATCTGCCCGAGATGTG
ZNF263prom3F	CCCCCAACTATCACAGTCCA
ZNF263prom3R	TGAAATTCTGGGAGTGACTGG
ZNF263exon1aF	GACACTGACGCACTGGAGAG
ZNF263exon1aR	CAGTCCTCCTCCAGCTTCAC
ZNF263exon1bF	TCCAACCTTACATGGGTTC
ZNF263exon1bR	CAAGTCCTCTTCCCCACGTA
ZNF263exon2F	GATCGCCTGAGGTTCTCTGT
ZNF263exon2R	CACCAACTGCAGGTCTTTCA
ZNF263exon3-4F	AGCTGATTAGGCCTCTGTGC
ZNF263exon3-4R	AGGCTTCTTGGCAAAACTCA
ZNF263exon5F	TCCACTGGGAACAGTTTGTG
ZNF263exon5R	TGCCTCACTCTTAAGTCAAGA
ZNF263exon6aF	TTCTGGGCTGCTGACCTAAC
ZNF263exon6aR	CCCACACTCGGGACACTTAT
ZNF263exon6bF	GCACCAGAGAACGCACACT
ZNF263exon6bR	CTCTGCACCTCCCTCACAAT
ZNF263exon6cF	TGAGGTGGCATATTCAGAGG
ZNF263exon6cR	GATCAACACTCGGGGGTCTA
TIGD7prom1F	CAGTAGCGCCATCAGCATTA
TIGD7prom1R	CAGGCCACTATGACAGTTGTGT
TIGD7prom2F	AAAAAGACGACGGCACAGC
TIGD7prom2R	GCCATCTCGGCTCACTACA
TIGD7prom3F	AAAAATTAGCCGGGTGTGGT
TIGD7prom3R	TTCTCAGAGATGAGCCCCAAA
TIGD7exon1aF	CACTGAAGAGAAATCAAAATCTCAA
TIGD7exon1aR	CAAGATGTGCCCACAAGACA
TIGD7exon1bF	CTTTTGGGAAGGGGAGAAGC
TIGD7exon1bR	CTTACTGATTCCAAATTCATCCA
TIGD7exon1cF	TCTCCTGTTGGTGGTTCAGA
TIGD7exon1cR	TTGGGCAGTTTGTATTTCC
TIGD7exon1dF	CAGTGGGGATGAAACAGACC

TIGD7exon1dR	TCCCCATGTTCTAAGCCTTG
TIGD7exon1eF	GGCAAAAAGTTGGGAAGAAG
TIGD7exon1eR	GCAAAGGCATTCCACCTTAG
ZNF75Aprom1F	TGCTAGCAGAACTTCACTTATTCAA
ZNF75Aprom1R	CGCCTGTAGTCCCAGCTACT
ZNF75Aprom2F	TTTTGCGACGGAGTCTCG
ZNF75Aprom2R	TGTAGCCAATATTGCAGAGTTGA
ZNF75Aprom3F	CCCAACCCCAAATCAACTT
ZNF75Aprom3R	TCGAGGAAGAGGCATTTTGT
ZNF75Aexon1F	TGCGTCACGAGACCTAGAAA
ZNF75Aexon1R	CACCGCCTACGGAAAATG
ZNF75Aexon2F	CAATGTGGGCTGTACACCTG
ZNF75Aexon2R	TTGCTATCAAGGCTGGTTTT
ZNF75Aexon3F	CTAGTTCTAGGGGCTGGTGGA
ZNF75Aexon3R	AGCCTGGGAGGTACCCAGTT
ZNF75Aexon4F	CTTTATCGCCTGGCCAATTC
ZNF75Aexon4R	CCTACACCCTCCCCTATACCA
ZNF75Aexon5F	TCCATTTAACCATTGGAGTAACA
ZNF75Aexon5R	GCCCTTGCAAAAAGTTCACAT
ZNF75Aexon6aF	CCTGTGATTGCTTGTCTGG
ZNF75Aexon6aR	CCAAGCTCCATTGGTGAAT
ZNF75Aexon6bF	AGACACCAGAACTCCACCTG
ZNF75Aexon6bR	TGGGCAAGTACTAATTTTATAGCTG
ZNF75Aalt1aF	TCATAAGTCGCAAGTGATGAGG
ZNF75Aalt1aR	AAGCCAGACTAGGCCCAAC
ZNF75Aalt1bF	GGACAGTTAAGGTGGGACTTGA
ZNF75Aalt1bR	CTTGGCCTCTCAAAGTGCTG

4 INVESTIGATION OF *NLRP3-MEFV* GENE-GENE INTERACTIONS IN CROHN'S DISEASE AND ULCERATIVE COLITIS

The following data have not been sent for publication and were only put together for the purpose of this Ph.D. thesis.

4.1 Rationale

We decided to pursue the following analyses based on the results from Chapters 2 and 3. Since we knew that the gene product of *NLRP3* and *MEFV* interacted with each other, we performed additional gene-gene interaction analyses to assess whether such interactions could contribute to CD and/or UC susceptibility.

4.2 *NLRP3-MEFV* gene-gene interactions do not contribute to inflammatory bowel disease susceptibility

4.2.1 Summary

As reported in Chapter 3, none of the significant associations observed in the *MEFV* region were validated across the replication sample sets. Given that we have previously identified 6 common SNPs in the *NLRP3* region contributing to CD susceptibility (Villani et al. 2009; Chapter 2), that *NLRP3* and *MEFV* gene products (NALP3 and pyrin respectively) are known to interact together in the inflammasome molecular platform and to be involved in similar pathways (Chae et al. 2006; Papin et al 2007; Chae et al. 2008), we subsequently evaluated whether possible gene-gene interaction between the *MEFV* tagging SNPs (16 in total; Chapter 3) and the *NLRP3* SNPs (6 in total; Chapter 2) could have masked a contribution of *MEFV* to CD susceptibility. In addition, we also assessed the association of the 6 *NLRP3* SNPs (Chapter 2) in the Belgian and Canadian UC sample sets used in the *MEFV* study (Chapter 3). We subsequently evaluated whether gene-gene interactions in the combined Belgian-Canadian UC sample set, commonly genotyped in both studies (Chapters 2-3), could explain the flip-flop phenomenon observed with the R202Q (rs224222) variant in the *MEFV* study (Chapter 3), where different alleles were associated with UC in the Belgian and Canadian samples.

4.2.2 Methods

Genotyping. Samples were genotyped using Sequenom homogenous MassExtend (hME) assays (matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry) (van den Boom et al. 2007), using the primers and probes described in the **Supplementary Table 2.1**.

Statistical analysis. Tests of association were performed using the likelihood methods implemented in UNPHASED v3.0.10 (Dudbridge 2008), which can analyze samples of nuclear families, unrelated subjects or a combination of both. It also allows tests to be conditional on each individual's genotype at one marker to test for association at another, to look for associations that may have been missed due to the possibility of epistasis between two loci. It also tests for the presence of gene-gene interaction (merely, the departure from log-additive effects of two or more SNPs on the risk).

4.2.3 Results

Using 710 CD trios, 239 CD cases, and 107 healthy controls commonly genotyped in the *NLRP3* (Chapter 2) and *MEFV* study (Chapter 3), stratified analyses of *MEFV* variants conditional on each individual's genotypes at *NLRP3* variants did not provide evidence of associations under the possibility of epistasis (**Figure 4.1**).

No significant associations were observed between the 6 *NLRP3* SNPs and UC in the Belgian, Canadian, and combined Belgian-Canadian sample sets (**Table 4.1**). Moreover no significant interactions were found between R202Q variant (rs224222) located in *MEFV* exon 2 and the 6 SNPs in *NLRP3*. Hence, multi-locus effects between the two genes do not explain the observed flip-flop at R202Q (see Discussion). Additionally, the levels of association for the 16 *MEFV* SNPs conditional on each individual's genotypes at *NLRP3* are in the same order of magnitude than the unconditional levels of association, indicating that epistasis between the two genes is not a mechanism that would be a regulator of the risk of *MEFV* on UC (**Figure 4.2**).

4.2.4 Figures

Figure 4.1: Conditional tests of association and tests of gene-gene interactions between SNPs in *MEFV* and in *NLRP3* in the combined Belgian-Canadian CD sample set

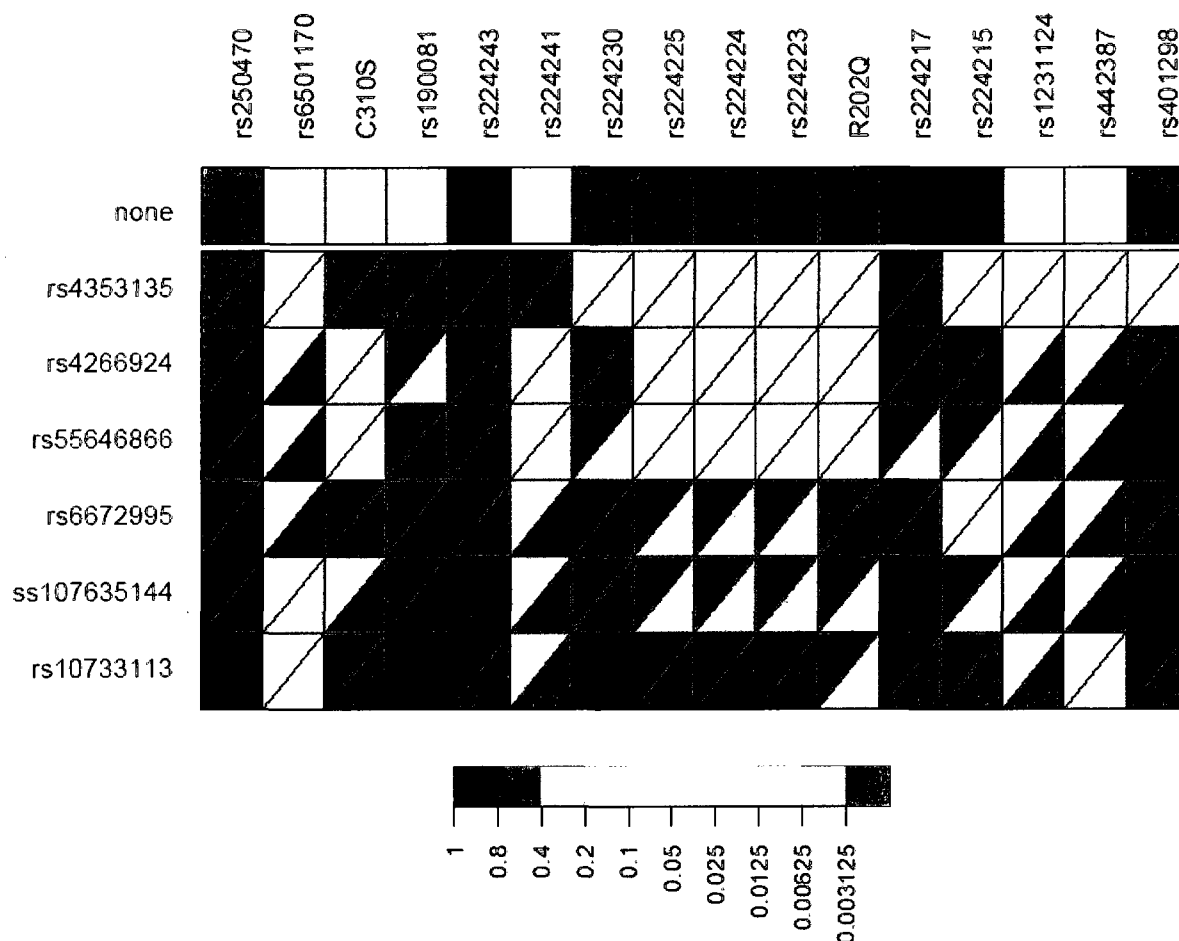


Figure 4.1: *P*-values for the tests are color coded and represented. For each combination of SNPs, the upper triangular portions of each squares represent the *p*-value for testing the association of the *MEFV* SNP (horizontal axis) conditional on each individual's genotype at the *NLRP3* SNP (vertical axis). The lower triangular portions of each square represent the *p*-value for the test of statistical interaction between the two SNPs. The unconditional tests of association for each SNP in *MEFV* are shown on the line labeled “none”.

Figure 4.2: Conditional tests of association and tests of gene-gene interactions between SNPs in *MEFV* and in *NLRP3* in the combined Belgian-Canadian UC sample set

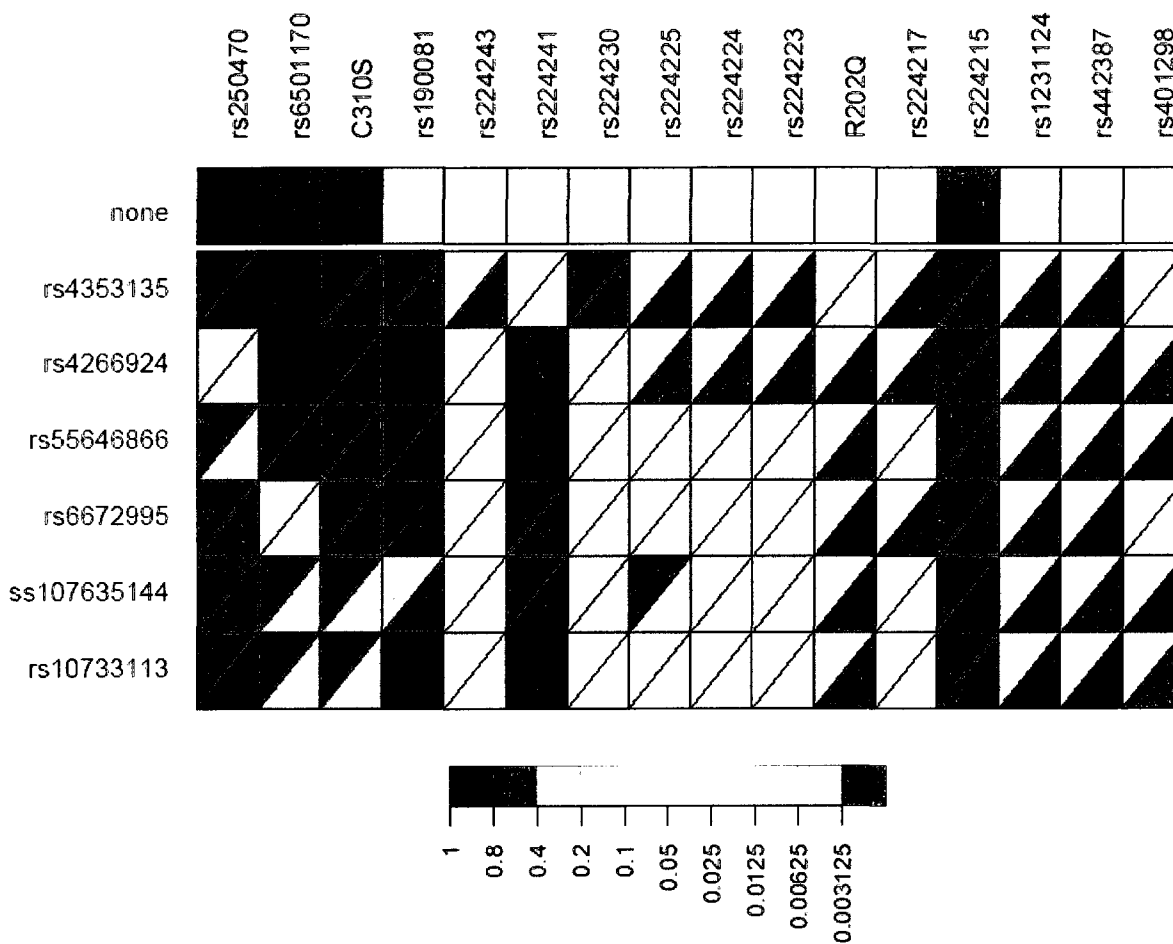


Figure 4.2: Refer to legend of Figure 4.1.

4.2.5 Table

Table 4.1: Association results of *NLRP3* tagging SNPs in UC sample sets

#	SNP	Combined Belgian UC				Combined Canadian UC				Combined UC			
		Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value	Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value	Allele	Frequency Cases	Frequency Controls	P value
2	rs4353135	4	0.67	0.66	0.7506	3	0.34	0.34	0.8907	4	0.67	0.66	0.7654
3	rs4266924	1	0.87	0.81	0.3767	1	0.89	0.86	0.3345	1	0.88	0.82	0.3806
6	rs55646866	2	0.89	0.83	0.4734	2	0.90	0.85	0.2182	2	0.89	0.84	0.3046
8	rs6672995	3	0.82	0.79	0.9175	1	0.17	0.17	1.0000	3	0.83	0.80	0.9426
9	ss107635144	2	0.85	0.79	0.3470	2	0.86	0.83	0.4645	2	0.85	0.80	0.3466
10	rs10733113	3	0.85	0.80	0.5143	3	0.86	0.83	0.6013	3	0.85	0.81	0.5195

4.2.6 Discussion

Since no interactions were observed when looking at the large Belgian-Canadian CD sample set and no common variants were consistently associated with CD in the *MEFV* region (Chapter 3), we concluded that common variants in the *MEFV* region do not contribute to CD susceptibility.

As reported in Chapter 3, only the coding SNP R202Q was commonly associated with UC in the Belgian and Canadian sample set. Yet, we observed opposite allele association with UC in the Belgian and Canadian cohorts, suggesting that R202Q was unlikely to be a causative variant. Such flip-flop association in samples of similar ethnical origins are often regarded as spurious findings. However, different reasons may explain such phenomenon, including a difference in genetic background, ethnicity, and environment (Lin et al. 2007; Zaykin et al. 2008). For example, when attempting to replicate the association of a non-causal allele in LD with the causative variant in two different populations, as it is the case with our Belgian and Canadian sample sets, a difference in LD patterns between the populations could result in inconsistent associations observed across sample sets (Lin et al. 2007; Zaykin et al. 2008). This is not our case, as the Belgian and Canadian UC sample sets displayed very similar LD patterns in the *MEFV* region (data not shown). Such inverse association could also indicate the presence of interactions with another risk locus (Lin et al. 2007). Complex traits usually result from an interplay of several genetic risk loci and environmental factors. Lin *et al.* have shown that performing single marker analysis without considering the possibility of other genetic risk loci or

environmental risk factors correlating with the candidate locus or the possibility of a multi-locus effect could also lead to flip-flop associations (Lin et al. 2007). To assess this latter possibility, since we knew that the *MEFV* and the *NLRP3* gene product interacted with each other, we genotyped the 6 SNPs in the *NLRP3* region that had been previously associated with CD (Villani et al. 2009) in both the Belgian and Canadian UC sample sets and performed gene-gene interaction analysis using these 6 *NLRP3* SNPs and the 16 SNPs (i.e. 12 tagging SNPs and 4 coding SNPs in *MEFV* exon 2 region) genotyped in the *MEFV* region. Since no significant interactions were observed between *NLRP3* variants and R202Q, the inverse allele associations observed with R202Q is still unresolved.

This is also the first report evaluating the 6 *NLRP3* variants associated with CD (Villani et al. 2009; Chapter 2) in a UC sample set. Interestingly, no significant associations between the *NLRP3* variants and UC were observed, similarly to what has been reported about *NOD2* mutations, which are only associated with CD (Cho 2008). Given the similarities between *NOD2* and *NLRP3*, which are both members of the CATERPILLER family (Ting et al. 2006), and the above results, we conclude that the *NLRP3* association is likely to be specific to CD. Both gene products of *NOD2* and *NLRP3* play central roles in intracellular bacterial sensing, and the CD associated variants of both genes were reported to result in a “loss-of-function phenotype” characterized by a decrease in secretion of IL-1 β (Li et al. 2004; van Heel et al. 2005; Kramer et al. 2006; van Beelen et al. 2007; Villani et al. 2009). Interestingly, the autophagy genes *IRGM* and *ATG16L1* have also been associated specifically to CD (Fisher et al. 2008; Franke et al. 2008b). Together, these results suggest that alterations in the

intracellular sensing and processing of bacteria may constitute a central feature specific to the pathogenesis of CD.

Overall, as we observed no associations between common variants in the *MEFV* region (Chapter 3) and no epistatic interaction between *MEFV* and *NLRP3* variants (Chapter 4), we thus conclude that common variants in *MEFV* do not contribute to CD susceptibility and that the two key regulators of the inflammasomes, *NLRP3* and *MEFV*, do not contribute to UC susceptibility.

5 ASSESSMENT OF GENETIC RISK FACTORS FOR POST-INFECTIOUS IRRITABLE BOWEL SYNDROME

The manuscript has been submitted to the *Journal of the American Medical Association*

Reference:

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5.1 Rationale

For the third candidate gene association study presented in this thesis, we had the opportunity of conducting the first ever published genetic association study in the field of post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS), using the well-characterized cohort of PI-IBS patients from the Walkerton community that was affected in the year 2000 by an outbreak of acute bacterial gastroenteritis following water contamination with *Escherichia coli* 0157:H7 and *Campylobacter jejuni* pathogen species.

5.2 Genetic risk factors for post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome following a waterborne outbreak of gastroenteritis

5.2.1 Abstract

Background: Acute gastroenteritis is the strongest risk factor identified to date for the development of irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), the most common and costly gastrointestinal disorder in Western society. In May 2000, over 2300 residents of a small Canadian town (Walkerton, Ontario) developed gastroenteritis (GE) from microbial contamination of the municipal water supply. An ongoing longitudinal study found that over one third of those with GE developed chronic IBS-like symptoms. We used this well-characterized cohort to study genetic susceptibility to development of post-infectious (PI)-IBS. **Methods:** We screened for 79 reported functional variants: selected candidate genes involved in serotonergic pathways, intestinal epithelial barrier function and innate immunity. Walkerton residents who experienced GE and reported PI-IBS 2-3 years after the outbreak (229 cases) were compared to those with GE who did not develop PI-IBS (583 controls). **Results:** Four candidate variants were significantly associated with PI-IBS. Two located in *TLR9*: rs352139 (coding, P545P) ($p=0.0135$) and rs5743836 (promoter, -T1237C) ($p=0.0324$) ($r^2<0.14$); one in *CDH1*: rs16260 (promoter, -C160A) ($p=0.0352$); and one in *IL6*: rs1800795

(promoter,-G174C) ($p=0.0489$). Denser mapping was conducted in these 3 regions. We observed one novel association in *IL6* ($p=0.0012$) and 12 additional associations that can be explained by linkage disequilibrium with the 4 original variants. **Conclusion:** This is the first study to assess genetic determinants of PI-IBS. Genes encoding for epithelial cell barrier function and innate immune response to enteric bacteria are associated with the development of IBS following acute GE.

5.2.2 Introduction

Irritable bowel syndrome (IBS) is defined as recurrent abdominal discomfort and disturbed defecation that cannot be explained by structural or biochemical abnormalities (Thompson et al. 1999). Most people with IBS recall a gradual onset of symptoms, but some with previously normal bowel habit note an acute onset after an episode of gastroenteritis (GE) (Dunlop et al. 2003a; Dunlop et al. 2003b). After exclusion of known organic disorders, such patients are diagnosed with post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS) (Spiller 2003a). A retrospective analysis reported that up to 30% of all IBS patients have an acute onset of symptoms (Chaudhary et al. 1962). The annual cost of IBS in the United States is between \$1.7 billion and \$10 billion in direct medical costs and \$20 billion for indirect costs (Hulisz et al. 2004).

Although a link between chronic IBS-like symptoms and antecedent GE was long suspected (Chaudhary et al. 1962), the entity of PI-IBS was not formally recognized until prospective studies identified and quantified a strong

association (McKendrick et al. 1994; Gwee et al. 1999; Spiller et al. 2000). Initial studies revealed that individuals were more likely to develop PI-IBS if they displayed a vigorous innate immune response to the infection, and inefficiently down-regulated this response after infection (Gwee et al. 2003). In addition, it was shown that patients with PI-IBS had low grade inflammation in the colon and increased intestinal permeability (Gwee et al. 1999; Spiller et al. 2000). Known risk factors for developing PI-IBS include female gender, psychological factors, severity of the acute enteric illness and microbial virulence factors (Thabane et al. 2007). However, genetic risk factors for PI-IBS have never been evaluated.

While familial aggregation and twin studies support the involvement of genetic risk factors in the pathogenesis of IBS, previous association studies have failed to identify clear and reproducible candidate genes. Limitations of these studies have included, the heterogeneity of disease, ethnicity, small sample size, poor statistical analyses, and lack of clinical and epidemiological information regarding IBS patients (Tabor et al. 2002; Saito et al. 2008a). By studying a well defined cohort of IBS patients with similar onset, etiology and symptom profile, better insight into genetic risk and/or protective factors could be achieved. Ultimately, this may assist in the development of new biomarkers, preventive strategies and treatments for this common condition.

Walkerton is a small rural town located in a prime agricultural area 180 km northwest of Toronto (Canada). In May 2000, heavy rainfall washed livestock fecal residue from nearby farms into an inadequately chlorinated shallow well. The municipal water supply was then contaminated with *Escherichia coli* 0157:H7, *Campylobacter jejuni*, and other pathogen species leading to an

outbreak of acute bacterial GE that affected over 2300 residents, with 27 recognized cases of the hemolytic uremic syndrome and 7 deaths (Marshall et al. 2006). Approximately 36% of local residents exposed to GE fulfilled Rome I diagnostic criteria for IBS when assessed two to three years after the outbreak. This unfortunate tragedy provided a unique opportunity to study the epidemiology, natural history and genetic determinants of PI-IBS in a large, well-defined study cohort with simultaneous and well characterized exposure (Marshall et al. 2006).

We undertook a study to screen candidate gene variants in this cohort. These genes were selected a priori in 3 categories: (1) reported IBS genes; (2) genes involved in intestinal epithelial barrier; and (3) genes encoding reported innate immunity risk variants. The purpose of the study was to identify polymorphisms that confer susceptibility or protection to PI-IBS and thereby to contribute to a better understanding of its pathogenesis.

5.2.3 Methods

Walkerton Health Study (WHS) cohort. The WHS was initiated in 2002 to study the epidemiological and long-term health outcomes of municipal water contamination in May 2000, and to facilitate local residents' access to specialty clinical care. Details of the WHS cohort and study methodology have been reported previously (Garg et al. 2005a; Garg et al. 2005b; Marshall et al. 2006; Garg et al. 2006). In the years 2002-2003, 4315 local residents were recruited. Participants provided blood samples for future genetic studies and were invited to

return for annual structured assessments at a local research clinic. 2069 subjects who fulfilled the following criteria were included in an PI-IBS study cohort: (1) age at least 16 years at the time of the outbreak; (2) no diagnosis of IBS, inflammatory bowel disease or celiac disease before the outbreak; and (3) permanent residency in Walkerton (as identified by postal code) at the time of the outbreak (Marshall et al. 2006). A modified version of Talley's Bowel Disease Questionnaire (Talley et al. 1989) was administered to all eligible participants, and used Rome I criteria to identify those with IBS (Thompson et al. 1992). Exposure to acute GE was classified as either self-reported or confirmed, if corroborated by review of health care records, stool cultures or responses to a public health questionnaire administered during the outbreak.

WHS cohort: Subjects in genetic study. Of 2114 WHS participants who provided informed consent for participation in the genetic study, 1253 were eligible (113 entered the WHS after 2003, 123 were less than 16 years of age at the time of the outbreak, 163 had a prior diagnosis of IBD or IBS, and 463 were not permanent residents of Walkerton). All studies were approved by the Hamilton Health Sciences/McMaster University Faculty of Health Sciences and the McGill University Health Centre Research Ethics Boards and all participants gave written informed consent.

Eligible participants in the genetic study were divided into 4 groups for analysis: (1) those who did not experience acute GE during the outbreak and did not develop IBS (n=398); (2) those who experienced acute GE but did not develop IBS (n=581); (3) those with self-reported acute GE who subsequently

developed IBS (n=142); and (4) those with confirmed GE who subsequently developed IBS (n=86) (**Table 5.1**). Because of limited sample size, self-reported and confirmed GE was combined for analysis, although secondary analyses considered only confirmed GE.

DNA isolation and Genotyping experiment. DNA from peripheral whole blood was extracted using the Gentra automated system Autopure (Qiagen, Ontario, Canada) according to the manufacturers' protocols. All single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genotyping was performed using Sequenom iPLEX® GOLD genotyping assays (MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry) (van den Boom et al. 2007) or the TaqMan 5' exonuclease assay (Whitcombe et al. 1998) (ABI, CA, USA) (rs1800035: Assay ID C_7611968_30; rs2631367: Assay ID C_26479161_30). All primers and probes used for genotyping experiments are available in **Supplementary Table 5.1**.

DNA samples and SNPs were not included in the analysis if they did not reach high enough call rates. To be considered successful, a SNP had to have a call rate above 95% among all genotyped samples, and show a distribution of genotypes consistent with Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) at the level $p > 0.001$. For SNPs genotyped by the multiplex Sequenom assays, filtering of DNA samples based on missingness of genotype data was done on a panel-by-panel basis. For any given panel, a sample was considered failed, and all its genotypes missing, if it had a call rate below 90% among the set of successful SNPs. Samples that failed all Sequenom panels have also been considered to have failed all TaqMan assays.

All first-degree relatives of family members involved in Mendelian errors were treated as having missing genotypes at the SNPs involved in the inconsistencies, or at all SNPs if the number of inconsistencies was 4 or greater.

The significance levels that we report hereafter are calculated based upon the above filtering rules that consider all of the SNPs genotyped as part of this study, including the follow-up panels. Results that we obtained in the first exploratory phase of the study have thus been revisited once additional panels revealed more problematic samples that have been declared failed.

Candidate genes and selection of single-nucleotide polymorphism. With the use of public databases, including PubMed and Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), we selected 51 candidate genes that have been characterized and potentially associated with IBS, serotonergic pathways (hypothesized to play a key role in IBS pathogenesis), intestinal epithelial barrier function (known to be altered in IBS and PI-IBS patients), or innate immune response, which may play key roles in the intestinal inflammatory process (see **Supplementary Table 5.2, Supplementary References**). To select the final candidates, we proceeded on the basis of a comprehensive overview of the intestinal inflammatory system biology and with the hypothesis that PI-IBS might result from persistent local low-grade inflammation. We subsequently selected 79 polymorphisms in these genes that had been previously reported in the literature as being “functional variants”. Most were located in promoter regions, exons, splice-donor or splice-acceptor sites in introns or coding regions of gene, where they were expected or were reported to cause changes in function or expression level of the encoded protein.

Fine mapping experiments: SNPs selection. For fine mapping of candidate genes showing significant association in univariate analysis, we first performed a thorough literature research to force include in our design any SNPs that had been previously reported to be associated with different inflammatory disorders, in order to facilitate comparisons. Additionally, we included all non-synonymous SNPs reported in dbSNP (the SNP database of the National Center for Biotechnology Information) with $MAF > 1\%$, as well as all SNPs within conserved motifs across species, SNPs disrupting putative transcription-factor, microRNA or enhancer binding sites that were all identified with the use of the University of California at Santa Cruz (UCSC) genome browser (<http://genome.ucsc.edu>). We also included SNPs located in predicted regulatory regions using a computational method called ESPERR (Taylor et al. 2006) (Evolutionary and Sequence Pattern Extraction through Reduced Representations) that is also available from the UCSC genome browser under the name "7X Reg Potential" within the "Expression and Regulation" track group. To capture the remaining variations in the region of these three genes (defined as the sequence ranging from 10kb upstream of the coding sequence to 10kb downstream), we used data from the HapMap Public Release #23 and selected tagging SNPs using a pairwise tagging approach (de Bakker et al. 2005) ($r^2 \geq 0.8$).

Statistical Analysis. We assessed univariate association between genetic variants and PI-IBS using mixed effects logistic regression models, in which a random intercept is included to account for the correlation between individuals belonging to the same family (Xu et al. 2007). Use of logistic mixed models allows inclusion

of covariates and evaluation of multi-locus effects, in multivariate models. Analyses were done in R (<http://www.r-project.org/>). Allelic frequencies that we report in cases and in controls are estimates that account for relatedness (McPeck et al. 2004), as calculated by MQLS (Thornton et al. 2007).

5.2.4 Results

Study cohort

Analysis compared subjects who experienced GE but did not develop PI-IBS (581 controls; 570 successfully genotyped) to those who experienced GE and reported PI-IBS 2-3 years after the outbreak (228 cases; 220 successfully genotyped) (**Table 5.1**). Among the 790 successfully genotyped cases and controls, 533 (149 cases, 384 controls) did not have known relationship with any other individual. The remaining 257 samples (71 cases, 186 controls) belonged to 90 families.

Of 228 eligible cases, 148 were female (64.9%) compared to 311 of 581 eligible controls (53.5%). Mean age at the time of the outbreak was 44.4 years among cases versus 48.0 years among controls. A detailed description of the study cohort demographics can be found in **Table 5.2**. Features of the enteric illness included bloody stools in 33.6% of cases compared to 17.8% of controls, abdominal cramps in 98.7% compared to 84.9%, weight loss of at least 10 pounds in 31.7% compared to 14.6%, fever in 45.1% compared to 32.0%, duration of diarrhea over 7 days in 42.7% compared to 28.3%, and a number of loose stools per day greater than 10 in 31.3% compared to 20.5%.

SNP genotyping performance

The total number of unique SNPs assessed was 79 in the exploratory phase, and 79 in the follow-up phase. In the exploratory phase, 4 failed due to low call rates, 4 had minor allele frequency below 1% and were excluded, and none of the remaining SNPs failed HWE at the level 0.001. In the follow-up phase, these numbers of excluded SNPs are respectively 9, 7 and 1.

Out of the 2115 samples genotyped, 4 were considered to have failed all SNPs due to low call rate in all Sequenom panels. The number of samples that were considered failed for at least one of the four panels but not failed for at least another ranged from 14 to 65 (average of 39).

From all SNPs considered successfully genotyped, we identified 224 Mendelian inconsistencies, a large majority of which (216) clustered in 13 nuclear families, likely the result of mispaternity, contamination or unresolved sample switch. After removal of these nuclear families, only 8 errors remained, all involving different families.

Exploratory phase: Candidate-SNPs screening

Four candidates showed significant association with PI-IBS in the first stage of the study. Two located in the Toll-like receptor 9 (*TLR9*) regions are coding SNP rs352139 (P545P) ($p=0.0116$; OR=1.338; CI: 1.067-1.678; frequency of allele A: 48% in cases, 41% in controls) and promoter SNP rs5743836 (-T1237C) ($p=0.0291$; OR=0.701; CI: 0.509-0.964; frequency of allele T: 87% in cases, 82% in controls) (**Supplementary Table 5.2**). These 2 variants are 2.4kb apart and are in low linkage disequilibrium with each other ($r^2<0.14$). The third

associated variant, rs16260 (-C160A) ($p=0.0642$; OR=1.258; CI: 0.986-1.605; frequency of A allele: 31% in cases, 26% in controls), is located in *CDH1* promoter region. The variant rs16260 was initially significantly associated upon the exploratory association analyses, suggesting *CDH1* as a PI-IBS candidate gene, but we report here the result of the final analysis that combines the fine mapping experiment results (Methods). The fourth candidate, rs1800795 (-G174C) ($p=0.0309$; OR=1.302; CI: 1.024-1.655; frequency of C allele: 44% in cases, 39% in controls), is located in the promoter region of *IL6*. These 4 associations were evaluated further in subsequent fine-mapping experiments.

Fine Mapping of *TLR9*, *IL6* and *CDH1* regions

Fine mapping experiments used the tagging strategy described above (Methods). The screened *TLR9* region (44.9kb) included a cluster of other coding genes comprising *ALAS1*, *TWF2*, *PPM1M* and *WDR82* (**Figure 5.1A**). Among 11 SNPs successfully genotyped in this region, 5 are significantly associated with PI-IBS status. However, all of these can solely be explained by their level of LD with the 2 associated SNPs from the exploratory phase (rs352139 and rs5743836). Given that these 2 SNPs are in weak LD with each other, the additional associations observed in the region are divided in two clusters of associations (**Figure 5.1A**). The first includes SNPs in LD with rs352139 (rs352163, rs352140, rs1060330), where the minor allele of all 4 SNPs are associated with an increase risk in developing PI-IBS (rs352163: $p=0.00575$) (**Supplementary Table 5.3**). The second cluster of association includes SNPs in LD with rs5743836 (rs11717574,

rs4082828), where the major allele of all 3 SNPs are associated with a decrease risk in developing PI-IBS (rs4082828: $p=0.0170$) (**Supplementary Table 5.3**).

The studied *CDH1* region (147kb) also comprised part of the coding sequence of *TMCO7* (promoter to intron 1) (**Figure 5.2A**). Among the 27 SNPs successfully genotyped in this region, 4 additional SNPs (one located in *CDH1* promoter (rs7186693) and 3 in intron 2 (rs2010724, rs10431923, rs7186053)) are significantly associated with PI-IBS (**Supplementary Table 5.3**). As for TLR9, these associations can solely be explained by their level of LD with the *CDH1* promoter SNP rs16260 associated in the exploratory phase, where the minor allele of all 5 SNPs confers increased risk to developing PI-IBS (rs7186053: $p=0.0218$) (**Supplementary Table 5.3**).

A window of 29kb was screened in the *IL6* region, which only included the coding sequence of *IL6* (**Figure 5.3A**). Among the 24 successfully genotyped SNPs, the minor allele of 4 SNPs (rs4552807, rs1554606, rs2069845, rs2069861) are additionally associated with increase risk of developing PI-IBS (**Supplementary Table 5.3**). The observed associations with three of these SNPs (rs4552807, rs1554606, rs2069845) (rs4552807: $p=0.0134$) can be explained by their level of LD with the promoter variant rs1800795 associated in the exploratory phase of the study. SNP rs2069861, located 34bp downstream of *IL6* 3' UTR, is independently associated with an increase risk of developing PI-IBS ($p= 0.00788$; OR= 1.60814; CI: 1.13274- 2.28305; frequency of T allele: 14% in cases, 9% in controls). This latter SNP tagged only for itself in our design as well as over 1Mb when compared with SNPs from HapMap data from Public Release #23.

Overall, these association results are robust to the possible misclassification of cases designed as “probable GE”. Indeed, when association analyses in these 3 candidate gene regions are limited to confirmed GE cases (172 successfully genotyped controls vs. 83 successfully genotyped cases), variants in both the *CDH1* (**Figure 5.2B**) and the *IL6* (**Figure 5.3B**) regions are even more significantly associated than in the analysis including both the self-reported (570 controls vs. 220 cases) and confirmed cases (**Supplementary Table 5.4**). The *TLR9* variants did not show greater association level in the confirmed sample set (**Figure 5.1B**) (**Supplementary Table 5.4**).

In the case of *CDH1*, 11 additional SNPs are associated with confirmed PI-IBS (**Figure 5.2B**, **Supplementary Table 5.4**), 3 of which are located in the intron 2 region, bringing to four the number of associated SNPs in *CDH1* intron 2 (rs4783681, rs1125557, rs12597188, rs2010724). The minor allele of 7 associated SNPs (rs7186693, rs4783681, rs1125557, rs12597188, rs2010724, rs10431923 and rs7186053) located between the promoter and intron 3 and all in high LD with promoter variant rs16260, confers increase risk to developing PI-IBS in the subset of confirmed GE cases (**Figure 5.2B**, **Supplementary Table 5.4**). The strongest association signal is observed with rs2010724, located in *CDH1* intron 2 ($p=0.00008$; OR= 2.142; CI: 1.465- 3.131; frequency of C allele: 44.6% in cases, 25.0% in controls), a level that withstand a Bonferroni correction for the total number of SNPs tested ($p_{corr}=0.011$, accounting for 133 SNPs). A second cluster of association with a decrease risk of developing PI-IBS is observed with the major allele of 8 SNPs (rs4783573, rs7188750, rs2276330, rs8061932, rs1801026, rs13689, rs7197744 and rs6499203) that are all in LD and

are located between *CDH1* intron 3 and 3'UTR region (**Figure 5.2B**, **Supplementary Table 5.4**). The best association signal is observed with rs6499203, located 16kb downstream from *CDH1* ($p=0.00348$; OR=0.494; CI: 0.308-0.793; frequency of T allele: 82.5% in cases, 69.1% in controls).

The SNP rs2069861 ($p=0.00026$; OR= 2.839; CI: 1.622-4.970; frequency of T allele: 20% in cases, 7.2% in controls) located in *IL6* (**Figure 5.3B**, **supplementary Table 5.4**) distinguishes itself from the other SNPs in this region by showing the greatest increase in risk for developing PI-IBS in the confirmed GE sample set. As mentioned previously, this SNP is independent from other associations observed in the region and tagged only itself in our design.

***TLR9*, *CDH1* and *IL6* are independent PI-IBS risk factors**

A previous epidemiological study of the Walkerton outbreak looking at 2069 eligible individuals affected with GE identified younger age, female gender, bloody stools, abdominal cramps, weight loss, and prolonged diarrhea as independent risk factors for developing PI-IBS (Marshall et al. 2006). When this multiple logistic regression was repeated for the 1253 individuals from this cohort who provided DNA for genetic analysis, the same independent risk factors were observed (**Table 5.3**). We subsequently evaluated and concluded that all of the identified genetic risk factors in the *TLR9*, *IL6* and *CDH1* regions are independent risk factors for developing PI-IBS when controlling for previously identified clinical risk factors (**Table 5.4**).

5.2.5 Figures

Figure 5.1: Compilation of association results of *TLR9* region

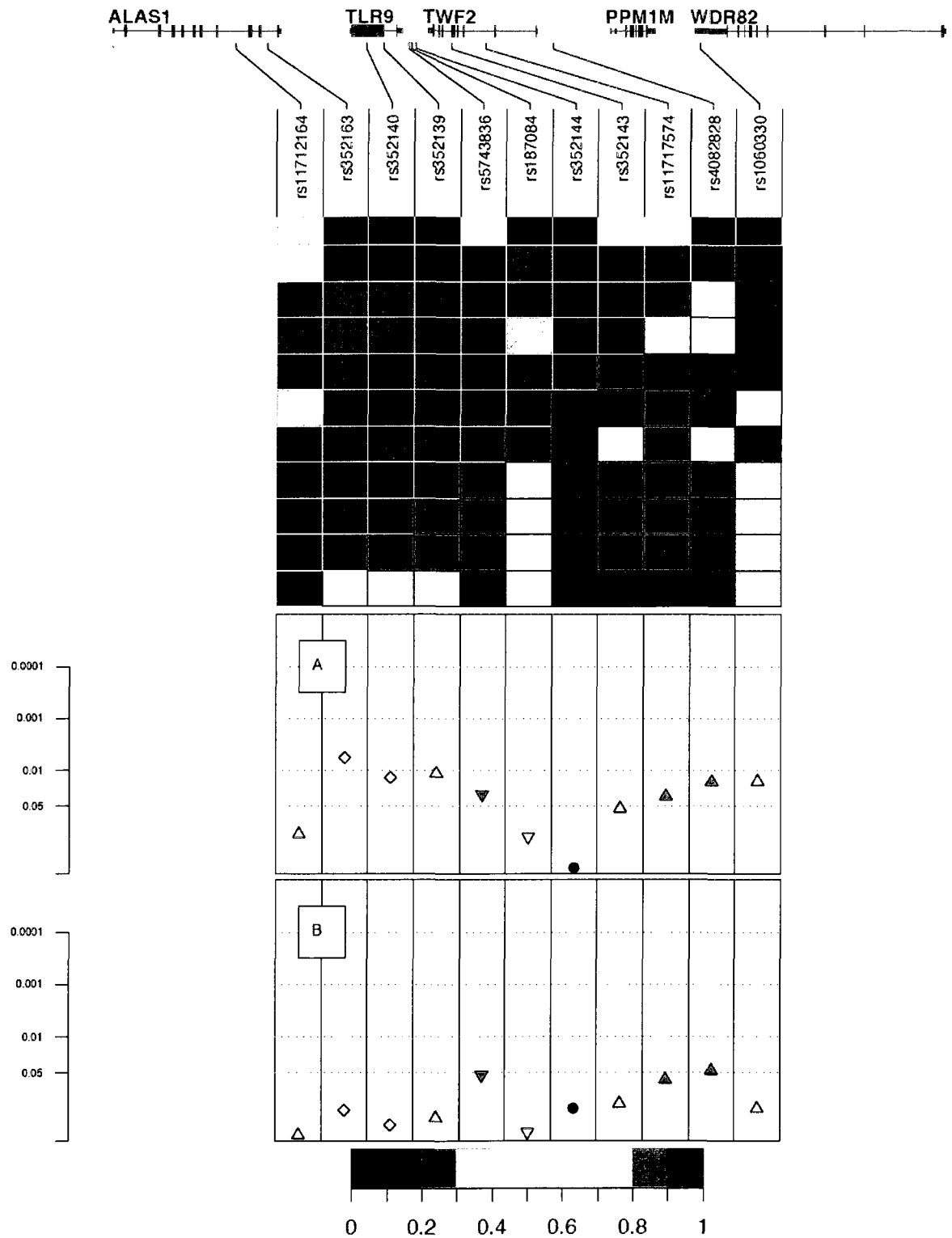


Figure 5.1: In the upper panel are the SNPs with their positions in the genes and the LD structure between them. SNP names in red were genotyped in the second phase of the study, subsequently to the sequencing experiment. The upper left portion is D' and the lower right portion is r^2 . In the lower panel are the results from association analysis of all PI-IBS patients (**panel A**) and confirmed PI-IBS patients (**panel B**). P -values for individual alleles are reported in a logarithmic scale on the Y-axis, with symbols representing the associated allele (Δ =A, $\circ$ =C, $\blacktriangledown$ =T, $\diamond$ =G). The color spectrum is used to represent the strength of LD and the frequency of the associated alleles.

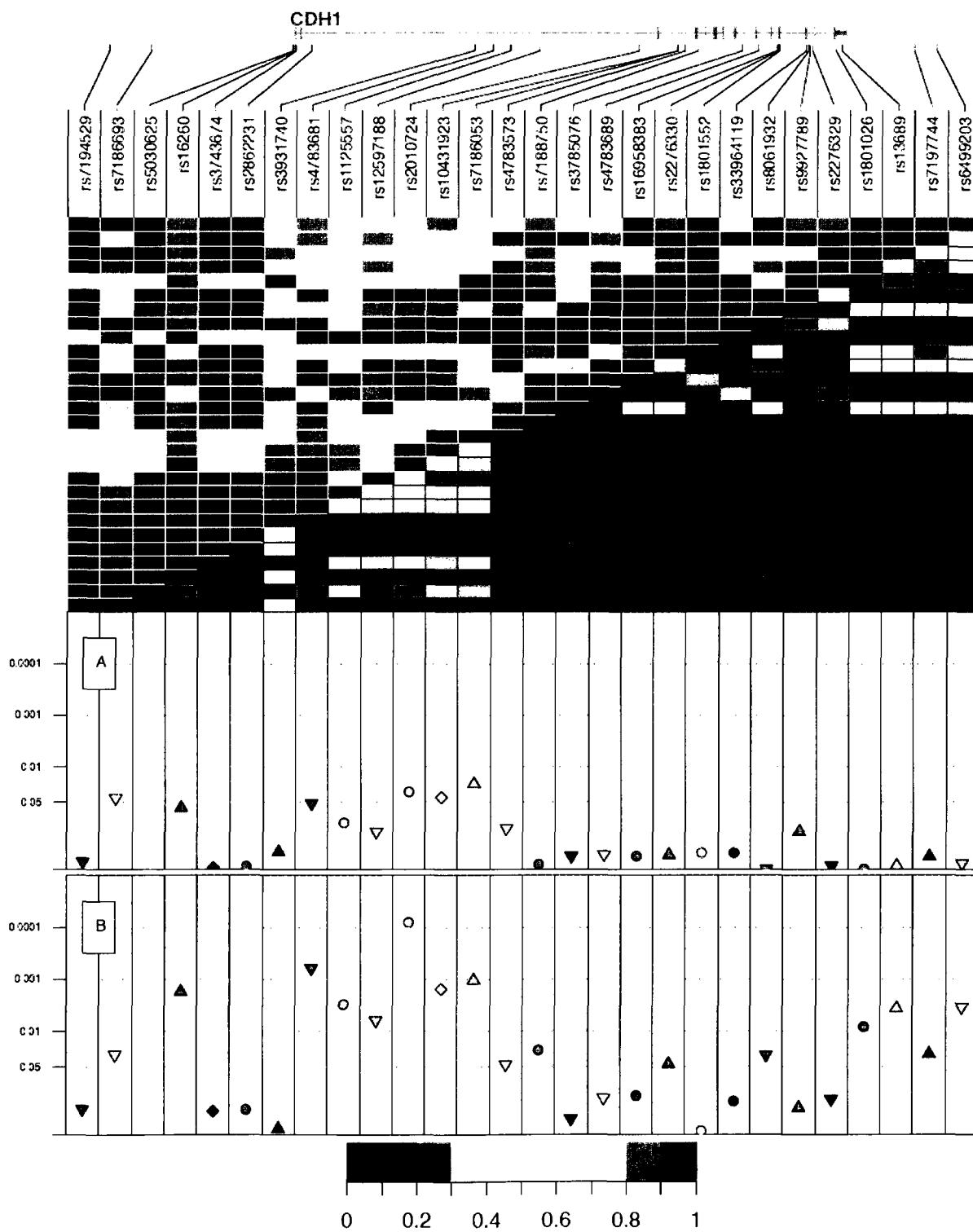
Figure 5.2: Compilation of association results of *CDH1* region

Figure 5.2: In the upper panel are the SNPs with their positions in the genes and the LD structure between them. SNP names in red were genotyped in the second phase of the study, subsequently to the sequencing experiment. The upper left portion is D' and the lower right portion is r^2 . In the lower panel are the results from association analysis of all PI-IBS patients (**panel A**) and confirmed PI-IBS patients (**panel B**). P -values for individual alleles are reported in a logarithmic scale on the Y-axis, with symbols representing the associated allele (Δ =A, $\circ$ =C, $\blacktriangledown$ =T, $\diamond$ =G). The color spectrum is used to represent the strength of LD and the frequency of the associated alleles.

Figure 5.3: Compilation of association results of *IL6* region

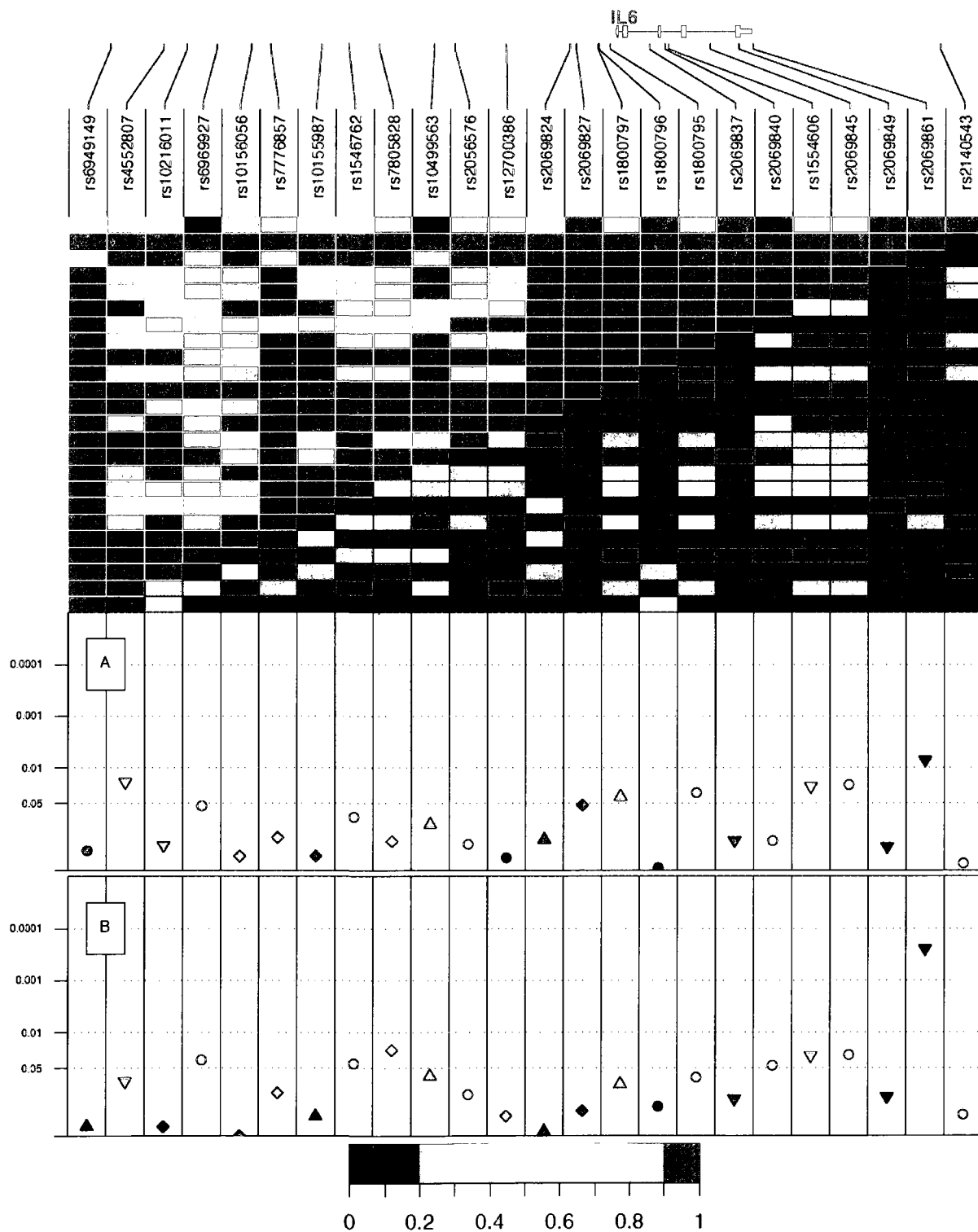


Figure 5.3: In the upper panel are the SNPs with their positions in the genes and the LD structure between them. SNP names in red were genotyped in the second phase of the study, subsequently to the sequencing experiment. The upper left portion is D' and the lower right portion is r^2 . In the lower panel are the results from association analysis of all PI-IBS patients (**panel A**) and confirmed PI-IBS patients (**panel B**). P -values for individual alleles are reported in a logarithmic scale on the Y-axis, with symbols representing the associated allele (Δ =A, $\circ$ =C, $\blacktriangledown$ =T, $\blacklozenge$ =G). The color spectrum is used to represent the strength of LD and the frequency of the associated alleles.

5.2.6 Tables

Table 5.1: Walkerton PI-IBS cohort description

		Exposure			
	Category	Control	Suspected GE	Confirmed GE	Total GE
PI-IBS	No	398	407	174	979
	Yes	46	142	86	274
	Total	444	549	260	1253

Table 5.2: Demographic characteristics of the Walkerton PI-IBS cohort

	PI-IBS	
	Yes (cases)	No (controls)
Number of individuals	228	581
Demographic		
Gender (%)		
Male	80 (35.09)	270 (46.5)
Female	148 (64.91)	311 (53.5)
Age at the time of the outbreak mean±s.d. (range)	44.4±14.0 (16.4-73.8)	48.0±16.6 (16.0-90.9)
Features of enteric illness at time of the outbreak	74 (33.6)	91 (17.8)
Bloody stools (%)	8	69
Not reported	224 (98.7)	485 (84.9)
Abdominal cramps (%)	1	10
Not reported	72 (31.7)	83 (14.6)
Weight loss (> 10 pounds) (%)	1	11
Not reported	102 (45.1)	182 (32.0)
Fever	2	12
Not reported		
Prolonged diarrhea (days) (%)		
0-1	9 (4.1)	50 (9.7)
2-3	40 (18.2)	151 (29.4)
4-5	42 (19.1)	90 (17.5)
6-7	35 (15.9)	77 (15.0)
>7	94 (42.7)	145 (28.3)
Not reported	8	68
Maximum no. of stools/day		
1-3 loose stools/day	26 (12.3)	95 (19.7)
4-6 loose stools/day	61 (28.9)	196 (40.6)
7-10 loose stools/day	58 (27.5)	93 (19.3)
> 10 loose stools/day	66 (31.3)	99 (20.5)
Not reported	17	98

Table 5.3: Multiple logistic regression analysis of clinical predictors of IBS after acute gastroenteritis using the 1253 patients who provided DNA for the genetic analysis

Variables	β coefficient (standard error)	P value	Odds ratio (95% confidence interval)
Age, y	-0.012 (0.006)	0.0340	0.988 (0.978-0.999)
Female gender	0.461 (0.181)	0.0109	1.586 (1.112-2.261)
Features of acute enteric illness			
Duration of diarrhea (days)			
0-1	Reference		
2-3	-0.006 (0.420)	0.988	0.994 (0.436-2.265)
4-5	0.351 (0.429)	0.413	1.420 (0.613-3.290)
6-7	0.298 (0.439)	0.496	1.348 (0.570-3.185)
>7	0.638 (0.409)	0.118	1.893 (0.850-4.216)
Bloody stools	0.576 (0.204)	0.00465	1.779 (1.194-2.651)
Abdominal cramps	2.037 (0.606)	0.00078	7.671 (2.337-25.179)
Weight loss (> 10 pounds)	0.740 (0.213)	0.000518	2.095 (1.380-3.181)
Constant (Intercept)	-3.175		

Table 5.4: Multiple logistic regression analysis of clinical and genetic predictors of IBS after acute gastroenteritis

Variables	β coefficient (standard error)	P value	Odds ratio (95% confidence interval)
rs5743836 (<i>TLR9</i>)	0.420 (0.179)	0.0191	1.521 (1.071-2.161)
rs2069861 (<i>IL6</i>)	0.402 (0.194)	0.0385	1.494 (1.022-2.186)
rs16260 (<i>CDH1</i>)	0.329 (0.137)	0.0160	1.390 (1.063-1.816)
Age, y	-0.013 (0.006)	0.0219	0.987 (0.976-0.998)
Female gender	0.448 (0.185)	0.0153	1.566 (1.090-2.249)
Features of acute enteric illness			
Duration of diarrhea (days)			
0-1	Reference		
2-3	-0.043 (0.424)	0.919	0.958 (0.417-2.200)
4-5	0.358 (0.432)	0.408	1.430 (0.613-3.335)
6-7	0.196 (0.444)	0.659	1.217 (0.510-2.906)
>7	0.598 (0.413)	0.148	1.819 (0.809-4.087)
Bloody stools	0.611 (0.208)	0.003287	1.843 (1.226-2.770)
Abdominal cramps	2.035 (0.607)	0.000803	7.650 (2.328-25.139)
Weight loss (> 10 pounds)	0.731 (0.218)	0.000798	2.077 (1.355-3.184)
Constant (Intercept)	-4.066		

5.2.7 Discussion

Using an exploratory panel of 71 successfully genotyped putative functional variants selected from the literature, we identified 3 promoter (i.e. rs5743836, rs16260, and rs1800795) and 1 coding (i.e. rs352139) variants associated with susceptibility to PI-IBS. These associations led us subsequently to focus fine mapping experiments in 3 gene regions of interest, namely *TLR9*, *CDH1* and *IL6*. This study establishes the first pillars of the genetic architecture of PI-IBS by demonstrating that variants in these 3 genes all contribute to PI-IBS susceptibility, and are all independent risk factors for developing PI-IBS when controlling for previously reported PI-IBS clinical risk factors in the Walkerton population (Marshall et al. 2006). The remarkable observation of clusters of SNPs in LD showing similar level of associations in all three genes, as well as the enhanced associations of these markers in the subset of confirmed PI-IBS individuals, further support and strengthen our genetic findings.

The coding variant P545P (rs352139) and promoter variant -T1237C (rs5743836) of *TLR9* were both associated with increase risk of developing PI-IBS. These two variants were originally selected in our exploratory design since they had been reported to distinguish the four common haplotypes of *TLR9*, accounting for more than 75% of the chromosome (Lazarus et al. 2003). Additional associations observed in the *TLR9* region, obtained by performing denser mapping, could solely be explained by their level of LD with these 2 SNPs. The *CDH1* promoter variant rs16260 (-C160A), also associated with PI-IBS susceptibility in our study, was included in the exploratory panel because it

had previously been reported to influence *CDH1* transcriptional activity. More specifically, the “A” allele associated with PI-IBS susceptibility has been reported to result in a 68% decrease in transcription efficiency compared to the “C” allele (Li et al. 2000). An additional 4 SNPs, one located in *CDH1* promoter (rs7186693) and 3 in intron 2 (rs2010724, rs10431923, rs7186053), were also found to be associated with PI-IBS susceptibility. Yet, like for *TLR9*, all of these associations could be explain by the level of LD between these 4 SNPs and promoter SNP rs16260. Interestingly, Stemmler *et al.* has reported putative cis-regulatory elements located in *CDH1* intron 2, which is one of the associated regions with PI-IBS (Stemmler et al. 2005). When deleting this entire intron in embryonic stem cells, they demonstrated that intron 2 sequences are required for both the initiation and maintenance of *CDH1* transcriptional activity (Stemmler et al. 2005). More recently, a meta-analysis of two genome-wide association studies on colorectal cancer (CRC), comprising 13,315 individuals, has identified rs9929218, located in *CDH1* intron 1 and in high LD with our signal in intron 2 ($r^2 > 0.957$), as a novel risk factor for CRC (COGENT Study 2008). This latter result further emphasizes the importance of *CDH1* intron 2 region, which, together with the -C160A promoter variant, might contribute to *CDH1* regulation in colonic epithelial cells. Finally, the *IL6* the promoter variant rs1800795 (-G174C) was included in the exploratory phase because the “G” allele has been reported to achieve an overall higher rate of transcription (Fishman et al. 1998). Yet, there are numerous inconsistencies within and between *in vitro* studies concerning the effect that this promoter variant has on gene expression (Heesen et al. 2002; Qi et al. 2006). This may suggest a more complex regulatory haplotype

extending further upstream or downstream from the previously analysed promoter region. Our study seems to corroborate this hypothesis as we uncovered 2 independent association signals in this study. The first one included 4 associated SNPs (rs4552807, rs1554606, rs2069845, rs2069861) all in LD with promoter variant rs1800795, and the second association signal was strictly isolated to variant rs2069861, located 34bp from *IL6* 3'UTR.

The three candidates described above (namely *TLR9*, *IL6*, and *CDH1*) represent an interplay of genetic factors with key roles the regulation of the intestinal mucosal immune response. Given the nature of the Walkerton water contamination, *TLR9* is an interesting candidate that might have played a critical role in recognizing the initial microbial threat and initiating the intestinal innate immune response. Indeed, *TLR9* is the only human pattern recognition receptor for bacteria detecting unmethylated CpG dinucleotide (Wagner et al. 1999). The recognition of such sequences activates signaling cascade via transcription factors such as NF κ B and AP-1 and stimulate the proliferation of B cells and secretion of proinflammatory cytokines (i.e. IL-6, IL-12, and TNF α) that are required to eliminate invading pathogens (Krieg et al. 2002). Colonic epithelial cells are constantly exposed to high levels of bacterial DNA in the gut lumen and must recognize and respond appropriately to pathogens while maintaining a tolerance to non-pathogenic commensal bacterial strains. In that context, *TLR9* surface localization and expression have been reported to be up-regulated on intestinal epithelial cells in response to pathogenic bacteria, suggesting that the epithelial inflammatory response to pathogenic DNA is mediated, at least in part, by increased *TLR9* expression (Ewaschuk et al. 2007). Consequently, we hypothesize

that a defect in properly recognizing the initial threat could contribute to the poorly controlled innate response to the infection documented in those who develop PI-IBS (Gwee et al. 2003). Additionally, enteric pathogens, such as *Escherichia coli* and *Campylobacter*, both present in the outbreak, have devised several ways to increase mucosal permeability, mainly through disruption epithelial tight junctions (TJ) (Wu et al. 2007; Frank et al. 2007; Sasaki et al. 2007) like *CDH1*, another genetic risk factor for PI-IBS. *CDH1* is the principal mediator of cell adhesion between intestinal epithelial cells and is found in adherens junctions (AJ). The AJ and the TJs form the apical junctional complex (AJC) that is responsible for the normal barrier function in the intestine. Overall, the *CDH1* genetic association results are consistent with observations that PI-IBS patients have an increased small intestinal permeability (Spiller et al. 2000; Marshall et al. 2004; Dunlop et al. 2006). In a substudy of the WHS cohort, intestinal permeability was increased in 35% of subjects with IBS compared to just 13% in non-IBS controls (Marshall et al. 2004). Underlying defects in the AJC have long been hypothesized to cause increased mucosal permeability, and the increased intestinal permeability in PI-IBS patients may reflect TJ disruption by enteric pathogens during the acute phase of infection (Barbara 2006a).

Yet, while immune activation observed in PI-IBS patients could be caused by increased intestinal permeability, it is also plausible that inflammation and immune activation disrupt the mucosal barrier, allow luminal contents to pass into the submucosa and create a vicious inflammatory circle of immune triggers (Barbara 2006a). For example, peripheral immune cells are known to significantly interact with intestinal epithelial cells (Bisping 2001), and cytokines

released from PBMCs may modulate intestinal epithelial barrier function (Cario et al. 1999). Amongst these secreted cytokines, IL-6, a pleiotropic cytokine and main mediator of acute inflammatory responses, has been reported to reflect both the severity of intestinal inflammation (Nakamura et al. 1992) and disease activity (Holtkamp et al. 1995). Previous report showing that PBMCs isolated from IBS patients secrete a higher baseline and LPS-induced IL-6 levels compared to healthy controls (Liebrechts et al. 2007) further supports the associations we observed between PI-IBS and *IL6* variants.

Because the Walkerton PI-IBS population cohort is unique in its size, in the number of DNA samples available and in the collection and follow-up of clinical data, no similar PI-IBS cohorts exist to replicate our findings. Another limitation of this study is the way we selected our candidate SNPs. We can only exclude the involvement of the reported functional and tagging SNPs that we have evaluated in PI-IBS, as well as SNPs in high LD and tagged by them. However, we cannot exclude the possible involvement of these candidate genes evaluated in the exploratory phase unless thorough fine mapping experiments is performed in all of these regions. An additional limitation of the study design is consequent to constraints on local resources during the initial Walkerton outbreak, where only a minority of local residents was encouraged to submit stool specimens for culture, explaining in part the small number of confirmed PI-IBS patients in our study. Hence, it remains possible that we have some unconfirmed cases that dilute and influence the association signals observed when combining the self-reported and confirmed patient sample sets in our analyses.

Results from the multiple logistic regression analysis suggest that independent clinical predictors and genetic risk factors contribute to the PI-IBS pathophysiology. PI-IBS is likely to be a complex trait where the variability in clinical manifestation and presentation of symptoms could be partly explained by the heterogeneity of the underlying genetic and environmental risk factors. In the case of the Walkerton PI-IBS population cohort, we had the advantage of working with a more homogeneous cohort derived from a single community, where the environmental trigger was known and where we had access to a wide-range of clinical and epidemiological data. The identification of genetic factors involved in PI-IBS is important as it provides new insight into the pathophysiology of this disorder. The identified genetic risk factors encode epithelial barrier function and innate immune response to enteric bacteria. These are in keeping with pathophysiologic changes observed in patients with PI-IBS, which include increased intestinal permeability, low grade inflammation, and immune activation in the colonic mucosa. Altogether, these observations indicate that genetic risk factors are involved in the development of IBS following acute GE.

5.2.8 Accession numbers

GenBank: TLR9, AF259262; CDH1, NM_004360; IL6, M18403.OMIM: *TLR9*, 605474; *CDH1*, 192090; *IL6*, 147620.

5.2.9 Acknowledgement

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5.2.10 Supplementary Tables

Supplementary Table 5.1: List of primers and probes used for genotyping experiments

SNP_ID	PCR Primer Forward Sequence	PCR Primer Reverse Sequence	Probe Sequence	Probe Orientation	Sequenom Panels
rs2188962	ACGTTGGATGTTCTGGCTGCCATAAACTG	ACGTTGGATGATGTGATACGGCGTGTAGTC	TCTTGCTCTCTGACCC	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs9292777	ACGTTGGATGGCCCTGACTCACTCTTTGAC	ACGTTGGATGAGCTCCTTCTTATGACAAAG	CCCGTAGGTTCCCCAA	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs6958571	ACGTTGGATGTGAGGTGGGTGAGTAGAAG	ACGTTGGATGGTCTCTCGTGTACTGATG	CAACCTGCTGTGTG	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs2043211	ACGTTGGATGGCTTTTCTTACCTGGGAATG	ACGTTGGATGGAAGATGATGAGACAGAGGC	gTCAGGAACAGCACGGA	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs1545620	ACGTTGGATGTAGAGCTTCGCTGCCAGTA	ACGTTGGATGCACCTTCTCGAGATGAAGCG	ICCAGTAGCCCTCCATG	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs2066847	ACGTTGGATGCTTACCAGACTTCCAGGATG	ACGTTGGATGCCAGGTTGTCCAATAACTGC	TGTCATTCCCTTCAAGGG	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs1050152	ACGTTGGATGCTACATCGTCATGGGTAGTC	ACGTTGGATGCATCTGCTCTAAGGTTTCTG	GACTGCTGATTGGAATC	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs3814055	ACGTTGGATGGAGACCACGATTGAGCAAAC	ACGTTGGATGAGGAAGTCCAAATGTTCAAC	AGCAAACAGGTAGAAAAGA	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs1143627	ACGTTGGATGCCTCGAAGAGGTTTGGTATC	ACGTTGGATGATTTCTCAGCCTCCTACTTC	CTCTCCCTCGCTGTTTTAT	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs7078219	ACGTTGGATGGTCTAGTGGACTACCTCTTC	ACGTTGGATGTCTGAATCCCAATTCCTACC	AAAACAATGGGTCTTCAAC	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs1143634	ACGTTGGATGGTGTCTCCACATTTCAGAACC	ACGTTGGATGGCAGTTTCAGTGCATCGTACAG	CATTTCAGAACTATCTTCTT	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs11209026	ACGTTGGATGGGTGATACATATACATGTAG	ACGTTGGATGGGGAATGATCGTCTTTGCTG	aCTGCAAAAACCTACCCAGTT	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs13361189	ACGTTGGATGATGGACAGTCAGTACCCCTGC	ACGTTGGATGTCTAAACTGTACCCGCTGAG	cAGCAGAGTGTGCTTGAAAAAT	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs28362491	ACGTTGGATGTAGGGAAGCCCCACAGGAAG	ACGTTGGATGATGGACCGCATGACTCTATC	CCCAGGAAGCGCCTGCCGGGCC	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs224135	ACGTTGGATGGTTCTGATTGGCAATAGAGG	ACGTTGGATGTTCCACAGTGAAGTGTGGC	TTAGGGAAAAGTTTACCTATGT	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs1248696	ACGTTGGATGTGAATGGAGAGGTTCTCCAC	ACGTTGGATGATTATCCCTTCCACAGGC	gTCCACCTTCTCATTCACTTGC	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs4958847	ACGTTGGATGCTATTTTAGGGAGTAGTGC	ACGTTGGATGGGTGAGGTCATCTTTAACAG	aAGGGAGTAGTGCAATTATTTAGC	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs4986790	ACGTTGGATGTAGAGGGCCTGTGCAATTTG	ACGTTGGATGCACACTCACAGGGGAAAATG	CATACTTAGACTACTACCTCGATG	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs1800872	ACGTTGGATGTCTCCAAAGTTCCTCAAGCAG	ACGTTGGATGAAAGGAGCCCTGGAACACATC	gTTCCAGAGACTGGCTTCTCTACAG	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs10045431	ACGTTGGATGGGCCAAGGCATCAATTTGAG	ACGTTGGATGCTCTTGTCTCTCTCTGGCTG	gAGGCATCAATTTGAGAGTTTAAT	R	Panel I Exploratory
rs2076756	ACGTTGGATGCTTGCTCTCTCAGGGTTTTG	ACGTTGGATGGCACCCCACTACCAATGGATT	IGATCAGGTACATTTTATCTTAAAG	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs6887695	ACGTTGGATGTGTGCTTCTCGGTAAGTCAG	ACGTTGGATGGGTCAACAAGCGTAGTAAATG	GAGAGAAAGCAGTGTAGTGTAGTGGT	F	Panel I Exploratory
rs224136	ACGTTGGATGCATTCATCCAAGTGCCCAAG	ACGTTGGATGATAGGGCTGTTCCAACTGG	AGTGCCCAAGTGAAAGAACTTGAGTGC	R	Panel I Exploratory

rs3789243	ACGTTGGATGCTCTCTGACTGCTTCAGTTCC	ACGTTGGATGACCCAGACACAATAAGCCCCAAG	TGACTGCTTCAGTTCCAAACAACGACGC	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs4613763	ACGTTGGATGCTTCTCGATAGGATCAGG	ACGTTGGATGTTCTGTGTGGTCTCTCTG	TCTGATATAAGACAGAGTTTATTCCCCA	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs7645243	ACGTTGGATGTGGTGTCTCGGATGGAATAAG	ACGTTGGATGAGCCACACAGCTAAGAAAG	ATAAGGTGGAACGCCTGAACACAGGTG	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs2847297	ACGTTGGATGATATACGGGAAAACCTGGGC	ACGTTGGATGGAATGACAAGACTACTCTCG	cTATACGGGAAAACCTGGGCGAGGTCCCA	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs22411890	ACGTTGGATGCTGTCTCTTCTTCCCGATC	ACGTTGGATGCTTACGAAGACACACAAGGC	CCTTCCAGTCCCCAGGACAATGTGGAT	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs5744168	ACGTTGGATGTCCTGGAAAAATTACAGACC	ACGTTGGATGGCCACTCAAGAAGATATCGG	gCCTGGAAAAATTACAGACCTTGGATCTC	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs1045642	ACGTTGGATGTATGTTGGCCTCCTTTGCTG	ACGTTGGATGCCTGTTTGTACTCGAGCATTG	cCCTTGTGCTGCCCTCAC	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs2086844	ACGTTGGATGAGTGCCAGACATCTGAGAAG	ACGTTGGATGGGATGGAGTGGAAAGTGCTTG	ccTGAGAAAGGCCCTGCTC	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs2066845	ACGTTGGATGCTGACACTGCTCTGTTGACTC	ACGTTGGATGGTGTATCACCCCAAGGCTTCAG	ccGCCCTTTTCAGATTCTGG	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs1800630_rs1799724#1	ACGTTGGATGGGTAGGAGAAATGTCCAG	ACGTTGGATGTCCCTGTATTCCATACCTG	ttggTCGAGTATGGGACCCCCC	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs1800630_rs1799724#2	ACGTTGGATGGGTAGGAGAAATGTCCAG	ACGTTGGATGTCCCTGTATTCCATACCTG	ccccaggACATGGCCCTGTCTTC	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs1799964	ACGTTGGATGGGGAAGCAAGGAGAAAGCTG	ACGTTGGATGTGTAACCCATTCTCTCAGAGC	tgAAGGAGAAGCTGAGAAGA	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs4495224	ACGTTGGATGCTGCCTGTAAAGGTCCAATC	ACGTTGGATGAGGAGGTGAAGTCTTTGAAC	cccagACCCACACAGAGTTTAAATTGG	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs2542151	ACGTTGGATGGCAAGAAAGGTGTGAAGTTAG	ACGTTGGATGTCCCAAACTCTAGATGCCAC	caggGAAAAATGAGAGTCTCAGGAAG	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs1800629	ACGTTGGATGGATTGTGTAGGACCCTG	ACGTTGGATGAAGGAACAGACCAGACACC	dCCCTGGAGGCTGAACCCCGTCC	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs6785049	ACGTTGGATGAGACAGCAGCCACAGTCAATC	ACGTTGGATGGCCATCCCATATATCCAGAAG	CCTCCCTCTTCCTCTC	F	Panel I _Exploratory
rs2631367	ACGTTGGATGCCGGGCTCAGGTGCATCTC	ACGTTGGATGCCGGGCTGGCCCTTACATA	ggaaaagggGCCCTTGCGGCCCGAGGCCCG	R	Panel I _Exploratory
rs4795541	ACGTTGGATGCTAGGATCGCTCCTGCAATC	ACGTTGGATGGAGATCCTGGGAGAGGTGC	ACCCCTCGCGGCATCC	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs1800857	ACGTTGGATGTACAAGAGAAATCTGCACCGC	ACGTTGGATGACCCCTTGGCTTCGGTTTTAG	CTGGCTGCCACTCTGC	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs1800896	ACGTTGGATGGAAGTCAGGATTCCATGGAG	ACGTTGGATGCCAAGACAACTACTAAGG	CCTATCCCTACTTCCCC	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs2569190	ACGTTGGATGGAGACACAGAACCCCTAGATG	ACGTTGGATGCCCTTCTCTTCTGGAAT	AATCCTTCCTGTTACGG	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs35815285	ACGTTGGATGCAGGCGATTCTCTCCAGAAC	ACGTTGGATGCCGAGACCATCTTCAATTG	TCTCCAGAACCAGGTGA	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs6311	ACGTTGGATGTTAGGCTGAAGGGTGAAGAG	ACGTTGGATGACACTGTGTGGCTTTGGATGG	dGAGTGTGTGAGTGTC	F	Panel II _Exploratory
rs4938063	ACGTTGGATGCTCTTGAAGAGACCCCTCTCG	ACGTTGGATGCTATGTGTGTCAGCCTGCTAC	ATGACCATGAGGAAGATG	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs352139	ACGTTGGATGATGATGGCCCTGCACCAAGGAG	ACGTTGGATGAAGATGCCCATGAAGTGGAG	atTGGCCGGCCCCCAGCTC	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs5030625	ACGTTGGATGCACTCCAGCTTGGGTGAAAG	ACGTTGGATGAGGGCTTTTACACTTGGCTG	ggTTGGGTGAAAGAGTGAG	F	Panel II _Exploratory
rs4570625	ACGTTGGATGACTCACACATTTGCAATGCAC	ACGTTGGATGATCTTATCCCTCCCATCAGC	CATTTGCATGCACAAAATTA	F	Panel II _Exploratory
rs5443	ACGTTGGATGCCACAGACATTGCAGTTGAAG	ACGTTGGATGTCCCACGAGAGCATCATCTG	aCACTGAGGGAGAAGGCCAC	R	Panel II _Exploratory
rs28362491	ACGTTGGATGATGGACCGCATGACTCTATC	ACGTTGGATGTAGGGAAGCCCCCAGGAAG	agCTGCCTGCGTTCCCGGACC	F	Panel II _Exploratory

rs1800925	ACGTTGGATGTGACATCAACACCCCAACAGG	ACGTTGGATGAGCCATGTCGCCCTTTTCCTG	gCTGAGGACITTCIAGGAAA	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1799913	ACGTTGGATGGTATGTTAAGCACTGCAGCG	ACGTTGGATGACTAGGTTCAAGCCAAAAGCG	dcGTGACAAACTTGTACCTCT	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs4073	ACGTTGGATGCTGAAGCTCCACAAATTTGGT	ACGTTGGATGTGTTCTAACACCTGCCACTC	CCACAATTTGGTGAATATTCAA	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs6313	ACGTTGGATGTGAGCTCAACTACGAACTCC	ACGTTGGATGTGCACTGTCCAGTTAAATGC	CTCTACAGTAATGACTTTAACTC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1800532	ACGTTGGATGTGGTACCTGGCATGAAATAC	ACGTTGGATGGTTTACATTCCTTATGCTCAG	gTTAATTGACAACCTATTAGTG	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs9858542	ACGTTGGATGGTTCTCCAAGATCTCCCTG	ACGTTGGATGAATCATCTCACAGACCCAGC	gggGAGCAAGCTGGCAAACTGAC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs6314	ACGTTGGATGCATTCACTCCGTGCGTATTG	ACGTTGGATGGCAAGATGCCAAGACAAACAG	cccCTTTAGAAAGCCTCTTCAGAAAT	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs20541	ACGTTGGATGGGTCTGTCTCTGCAAAATAA	ACGTTGGATGCCAGTTTGTAAAGGACCTGC	agGCTTTCGAAAGTTTCAGTTGAAC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs4565946	ACGTTGGATGCTTTGGTTGAAGCAGAGTAG	ACGTTGGATGGTTTTCACCTCTGCCATCAGC	GATGGGTTAAATGGCTTAGCTAAG	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1800795	ACGTTGGATGGATTGTGCAATGTGACGTCC	ACGTTGGATGAGTGGTTCTGCTTCTTAGCG	TGTGCAATGTGACGTCCTTTAGCAT	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1800469	ACGTTGGATGTTCTTACAGGTGTCTGCCCTC	ACGTTGGATGAACAAGGTAGGAGAAGAGGG	ggaTCTGCCCTCCTGACCCCTTCCATCC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs3813034	ACGTTGGATGGGGCCCATTAACAATATATG	ACGTTGGATGTGGCAGAGCATGTTGTAGTG	tagGAATTTCCCAAAATTTTCTTACA	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs6897932	ACGTTGGATGATGGCTACTGAATGCTCAAC	ACGTTGGATGAAGATGACCAACAGAGCGAC	atGGGAGATGGATCCTATCTTACTAA	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1805015	ACGTTGGATGAACCTGCTTACCGCAGCTT	ACGTTGGATGTTCTACTTCTCCAGGTGTC	tgCCGCAGCTTCAGCAAC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs2631367	ACGTTGGATGCCGGGCTGGCCTTACATA	ACGTTGGATGTCCGCCCCAGCTCCGCCCT	ACGACCAGGGAAGGTT	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1801275	ACGTTGGATGAGATCCTCCGCCGAATGTGTC	ACGTTGGATGACCCCTGCTCCACCGCATGTA	ccCCCCACCAGTGGGTATC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1799969	ACGTTGGATGACTCCCCCACAACCTTGTGAG	ACGTTGGATGTCAACCTCTGGTCCGCCAGT	ggagctagttGGTCTGTTCCCTGGAC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs4358188	ACGTTGGATGACTTGTGTTGGTTCTCCCCAG	ACGTTGGATGTTGATCTTCATCCAGCCCTC	algccggGACCAATTCGTATCCTCC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs2243250	ACGTTGGATGGAATAACAGGCAGACTCTCC	ACGTTGGATGAACCTAGGCCCTCACCTGATAC	agTCCTACCCCAAGCACTGGGG	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs11178997	ACGTTGGATGGGCACATGTGATATTTTGAC	ACGTTGGATGGGAAGAGTGGAAATGGAATG	ttaATTTTGACACACAGCGTACA	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs10883365	ACGTTGGATGCTTTCCAAAGTGAGAAAGGTC	ACGTTGGATGAGGACGTAGAAAAGCTTCCTC	ctcgatcTTCTCAGACGGTTTGAAGGT	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1800544	ACGTTGGATGTCCCCTTTTCTCCCAAGATCC	ACGTTGGATGCCTGCTGGGAGTTGGCCAT	ctTGCGTTCTGCTCCGTCGGCCCC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs5743836	ACGTTGGATGTTGCAGTTGACTGTGTAGCC	ACGTTGGATGATAATGGAGSCAAAGSAGGG	cgGATGTGCTGTTCCCTCTGCCTG	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1982073	ACGTTGGATGAGTCTTGCAAGTGGATAGTC	ACGTTGGATGTGTTTCGCGCTCTCGGCAGT	accGGTGGATAGTCCCGCGGCCCGGC	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1800471#2	ACGTTGGATGCTGTCTGTATTGAGGGTGTG	ACGTTGGATGAATTTCTCCTCAGAGGCTCC	gtaagctcCACAGCAGCGGTAGCAGCAGC	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs1800471#1	ACGTTGGATGCTGTCTGTATTGAGGGTGTG	ACGTTGGATGAATTTCTCCTCAGAGGCTCC	cccACCTTTGGGTGCTGTTCTCTGCCTC	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs16944	ACGTTGGATGACTACAGAGCAGACATTCAAG	ACGTTGGATGGGAATCAGTGACTGTCACTC	gggACATTTCACGGTCACT	R	Panel II_Exploratory
rs5498	ACGTTGGATGCTAGACCCTAGCAACTCCAG	ACGTTGGATGCCACAGCCCAATCAGCAGCG	gggatacatgaTCCAGGGCTAGAGGGCA	F	Panel II_Exploratory
rs16260	ACGTTGGATGCTCGCACCCCGCTGCCACCCA	ACGTTGGATGTTGAGCTGGGTGGGCAGCG	ttaccatgaCACCGAGCGCAGGCCCAA	F	Panel II_Exploratory

rs36087757	ACGTTGGATGCCCTTTGAGGTCTCTC	ACGTTGGATGTCACACTCTCTTTTCAGGAGG	CACCTCCACAGCCACC	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs187084	ACGTTGGATGAGCACCTTACTATGTGCTGGG	ACGTTGGATGATGCTCTTATTCCCTGCTG	AAAAGATCACTGCCCT	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs34466743	ACGTTGGATGTGACACATCTCTTTGCTCTG	ACGTTGGATGCATCAGCATCAGTCACTTTC	GAGGCTAACGTGCTAA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs4537545	ACGTTGGATGTTTCCCTTACTGGTGATG	ACGTTGGATGAGTAAGGACTAGCAAGGAGG	CTGGAACCCCTCCCTGA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs5030625	ACGTTGGATGAGGGCTTTTACACTTGGCTG	ACGTTGGATGCACCTCCAGCTTGGTGAAAG	TCGTTTTGGAGATGGGG	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs4783566	ACGTTGGATGTGGACTTGGTTACGAAAAA	ACGTTGGATGGGCAGAGCTTGCAGTGAG	TTCCCGTCTGCCATGTTT	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs1800795	ACGTTGGATGGATTGTGCAATGTGACGTCC	ACGTTGGATGAGTGGTTCTGCTTCTTAGCG	TGTGACGTCTCTTTAGCAT	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs352144	ACGTTGGATGTACTAGTGGGCACCTGCTCT	ACGTTGGATGGGCTCTCCTCTCTACAATTC	cccCTCTCTCTCTGGCTC	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs7194529	ACGTTGGATGTTTGAGTGAATGGTCCCTC	ACGTTGGATGATTCCCTGAGATTCCCCAAC	GGGAAATCATACCTGACAC	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs8192284	ACGTTGGATGCTCCAGCAACCGGAATGTG	ACGTTGGATGCCATATTCTCCTCTCTCCTCC	CAGTGGTACTGAAGAAGAA	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs36215820	ACGTTGGATGTACACACCAAGAATCCCACC	ACGTTGGATGATAACATTTACGAGCCCGCC	ccaAGAGGACCACCGTCTCT	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs1125557	ACGTTGGATGTCCACTGGGACTCAAGTTGT	ACGTTGGATGTTCTTTGGAGAGCAACATGC	ACGCTTCAGATGTAGAAATG	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs1060330	ACGTTGGATGGCAACAACAGCAAAACTCCG	ACGTTGGATGTAATTCAGGAGGCGCTTTTG	tcAAAAAAATGCCACCTCAC	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2069860	ACGTTGGATGAGCATCCCTCCACTGCAAG	ACGTTGGATGCATTTGTGGTTGGGTCAGGG	aaCTTCAGGCAAAAGAACTAG	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2276330	ACGTTGGATGTGTAGTCACCCACCTCTAAG	ACGTTGGATGTATTTTCTCCTCCCTGGTCTC	gggCTTGGGCTGGAGAAAGCA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs6499203	ACGTTGGATGGCATCTTACTTTTAAATTTAGTGTCT	ACGTTGGATGTGTCCACTAGTAGAGAACTGGTTG	cTACGTACCATCATGTACCGAT	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs10156056	ACGTTGGATGGGCGTGTGAATTTAAGGTG	ACGTTGGATGACTGCCCAAGTTTATGTCCCC	aTGGGCTGTCCAGAAATGCAAGA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs352140	ACGTTGGATGACCTGTCCCACAATAAGCTG	ACGTTGGATGCAAAAGGGCTGGCTGTTGTAG	tcGCACCTATTCACGGGAGCTACC	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2069845	ACGTTGGATGTTCTCCAGTTTCCCTCTCAC	ACGTTGGATGATGGTGGGTCTATGAAAGG	iatCTGTTGAAAGACCACCTGATC	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2069849	ACGTTGGATGCAACTCATCTCATTTCTGCG	ACGTTGGATGAACAACAATCTGAGGTGCC	gggCTGCGCAGCTTTAAGGAGTT	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs33964119	ACGTTGGATGTTGCTGTTTCTGGAGGAG	ACGTTGGATGCGCCTCTCTTCTCATCATAG	gggGAGGATGACACCCGGGACAA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs4082828	ACGTTGGATGTGCCAGCAACACAGAGCTAC	ACGTTGGATGAGGAGGTCAAGTCTCTTGTG	CAGCAACACAGAGCTACTTGTAC	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs7197744	ACGTTGGATGCGAACCACCAACATGGAACAC	ACGTTGGATGTAGAGGGCAGAGAAGACTAC	cGCTCTTACTGAAGTTTTTCCAGAG	R	Panel III_Fine mapping

rs2069837	ACGTTGGATGGTCTCAGTTTCCTTATCTCC	ACGTTGGATGTTAAGTATCTACTGTGTGCC	TTTGAAGATTAGACACAATATTTAT	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2140543	ACGTTGGATGAGCTAAAGAGAGAGATAGTGCTAATA	ACGTTGGATGGATACATTGGTCAATAGTGCAGA	gTCGAAAGTGGGTATTGATGTTT	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs35741240	ACGTTGGATGATTAAATCCGGACACTGGTGC	ACGTTGGATGCCCTTACCATTTCTGTAGC	ccTTTTGAGCACGTTGAAGAACAGCAC	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs3931740	ACGTTGGATGGAAGTAGGAAGAGACAAGAGC	ACGTTGGATGTGACTCCACACAGCTATTTC	ggGCAAGAGCATGATTTTGAAGAAA	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2069827	ACGTTGGATGGAGTAAATGCCCAACAGAGG	ACGTTGGATGGGTGTTACCTTCACAATCGG	ccTCCCAACAGAGGTCACTGTTTTATC	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs13689	ACGTTGGATGTAGTCAAGATGTGGCCAGAC	ACGTTGGATGGTTGCTTTGCCCAAGATAGG	atTCAAGATGTGCCCAGACAAAGACAC	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2276329	ACGTTGGATGGGAGGGAGTGAATATTGC	ACGTTGGATGAGTAGCATGTGTGGATCCAG	TCTAATCATCATGTCTCTATGAAAAATTAG	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs11712164	ACGTTGGATGACTATAGGTGTAGCCACTG	ACGTTGGATGTAGGGCCAGACTTGGTTTTTC	TGAGATGTAGATCACACAAAAAGGACTCA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs6969927	ACGTTGGATGTACCTACTGTAGTACCTGGC	ACGTTGGATGGTCCAGGCTTGGCTAATTTC	tccGAAGTATGTGACTTCCCTTTTCCCTT	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs2069824	ACGTTGGATGGAGGATGGCTGGATGGTTTC	ACGTTGGATGAGTGGCTTCGTTTCATGCAG	ttcGTGCTCTCCTGTCTTAAGCAACGTAG	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs16260_as	ACGTTGGATGCCACAGCCCAATCAGCAGCG	ACGTTGGATGCTAGACCCCTAGCAACTCCAG	tGCCGCCCAACCCCGGCTCGCATAGACGCG	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs352143	ACGTTGGATGTGGAAGCAAGCACCAGACC	ACGTTGGATGCACCACCACCTCTGGATGTAG	aCAGCGGCACCTCCAGCAGCTCAAGCAGAA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs10499563	ACGTTGGATGCCCTGGTCTGGCTGTATAATAA	ACGTTGGATGGGCTTCAGGGAGACTAAACTG	tgggATTTCTTAAATTATTAACAAAGCACA	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs4552807	ACGTTGGATGCTACTTTTCAGTACTCTCTCC	ACGTTGGATGATACCCCAACCTTCTTCATGC	gggggCTTTAAGGTTTTTTAACAACACACAAA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs12597188	ACGTTGGATGTCTTCTCTACACAGTAGCCG	ACGTTGGATGTGGGAAAAAGTGAGTCTCTGG	tgTACAACCTCGGTCTCAGG	R	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs16260_s	ACGTTGGATGCTAGACCCCTAGCAACTCCAG	ACGTTGGATGCCACAGCCCAATCAGCAGCG	cdtatTCCAGGCTAGAGGGTCA	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs10155987	ACGTTGGATGCTATGAGCCACTTTATTGGCC	ACGTTGGATGCATAGACAAAGCAAGAAAGGG	tgTTTTTTGGTGGTCATTTTTG	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs1546762	ACGTTGGATGACTGCCCCGGAAACAGATTAG	ACGTTGGATGGCCCTCTGCTGATCAATTTC	ctGAAACAGATTAGTACAGTACATG	F	Panel III_Fine mapping
rs1801023	ACGTTGGATGATGCCAACATACCTGATGGG	ACGTTGGATGCATTTCTTGGTCTACGCCCTG	GCCCCACTGTATTTCAG	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs16958383	ACGTTGGATGAAAAAGCTGCTAGTGGCTG	ACGTTGGATGGCAAAAAAGTTACCCCTCAG	GGGTTCCGTAGGCTCC	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs8056633	ACGTTGGATGGACAGGGTGACTTCCGAGA	ACGTTGGATGTGAGCCACCACACACAGC	tcaggatCATGTAAAGAAATCAAGAAACTG	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs1554606	ACGTTGGATGGTGCCACTGTGGTGAGATTT	ACGTTGGATGGCAGCCAGAGAGGGGAAAG	TCCTGGGAAAGGTACTC	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs12700386	ACGTTGGATGGTAAACTGAAACAGTGGGTG	ACGTTGGATGCAAAAGCAGGACATTTCCCGAG	CCCACCTGAGCAGACACCA	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping

rs1801026	ACGTTGGATGTGAGCTCCCTGAACTCCTC	ACGTTGGATGTGCATCACTAACCAGTCTCTTTT	TGGAAATGCAGAAATCA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs7188750	ACGTTGGATGTAAACAACCCCAACTGTCCC	ACGTTGGATGAGATCAGAGCTCTGAACAC	cTCCACGTTCTCCCATCA	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs2056576	ACGTTGGATGATTCCCTCTGACACCTGAC	ACGTTGGATGAGAGGCTGTCATGCACATTTC	TCAGTAGTTTCACTGGGCC	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs7805828	ACGTTGGATGATCCTTTTCTTACACTCCCC	ACGTTGGATGAGACCATAAGTGGGTCCAAG	TCITACACTCCCCAAATAGA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs4783689	ACGTTGGATGGCCATTGTCTATCATTCAC	ACGTTGGATGCCATTGTCTCAAGTGAACCG	GTGTACACATTATCGAACTC	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs2010724	ACGTTGGATGGCACCTGGAATTCAGGTGG	ACGTTGGATGAGGCACCTTAACCTGCTTTGG	GGAAITCAGTTGGGGTCTCC	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs1801552	ACGTTGGATGACCAAGTGACCACTTAGAG	ACGTTGGATGCCCAAGATGGCAGGAATTTG	aGTGACTGTGAAGGGGCCGC	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs4783573	ACGTTGGATGTTGCCCCAGGCAGATATTAC	ACGTTGGATGATGTGCAATACCAGCATCTC	GTATTACAGCTTCCTAATGTC	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs352163	ACGTTGGATGGAGTCCACCTCACATTTGTC	ACGTTGGATGATCAGAGGCGATTAGGTGTG	aCTCACATTTTGCTTCACCACT	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs3785076	ACGTTGGATGTTTCAACCCAGCCTTGGAAAC	ACGTTGGATGGGCAAGATGGGTTTTAATCG	CATTATTGCTTTGACTTTCA	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs1800797	ACGTTGGATGTGGAGACGCCTTGAAGTAAC	ACGTTGGATGGAGTTCTTCTGTGTCTGGC	AGTAACCTGCACGAAATTTGAGG	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs7186053	ACGTTGGATGTTCTGAGGGATCACTTCCAC	ACGTTGGATGCACGTGTGCTGGCAAAACATC	GGCATGACTCCCTTTCAITTAAC	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs2011779	ACGTTGGATGGGCTCAGTGGCTCAAACCTA	ACGTTGGATGATGCCTGGCTGATTTTGG	cccTTAGTAGAGATGGGTTTC	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs3743674	ACGTTGGATGAATGCGTCCCTCGCAAGTCA	ACGTTGGATGCAGCCATGGGCCCTTGGAG	cTCCCTCGCAAGTCAGGGGATCCG	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs9927789	ACGTTGGATGCAGGGACTTGTAAGTCTAGT	ACGTTGGATGAGATACGCATGTTGTGTGCC	GTTTGGGATACCAACGTATATTGT	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs614288	ACGTTGGATGAAGGGATGGGTCTTGTCTG	ACGTTGGATGTGGATCTGGCACCTAATGAG	TGTTCTGTAGGCTTTGGGATTAGA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs11717574	ACGTTGGATGCTCCAGCTCTTCTCATTAG	ACGTTGGATGTGCTTTGAGCCCAACACAACG	aTCTTCTCATTAGCCATTCAAGCAGC	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs35081782	ACGTTGGATGATAACATTTTCAGGACCCGCC	ACGTTGGATGTCACACCACCAAGAATCCCCACC	TTCTTCACCGATTGTCTAAACAGAGA	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs10216011	ACGTTGGATGTGAACTTTGGTGTCCCATC	ACGTTGGATGTATCTGGCACAGTGTATGGC	ATTTGTGTGAATGGATTTGTTCAACA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs8061932	ACGTTGGATGCTCATTTGCCATTCTCTGGAC	ACGTTGGATGGAAAAAGGAGTTTGGTCTAGC	ATAGAACAACCTGGTCTGCTTTGTTTCT	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs3087225	ACGTTGGATGTTCAAGAACATCTTTGGTTTTTACA	ACGTTGGATGCTGAAGTCATGCACCAAGTTT	gGAGAAAAAAATAAGCTAAAGCTATG	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs7776857	ACGTTGGATGACTTAGAGCACCTAGCTCAC	ACGTTGGATGCTCTCTGTTGGATATTCCC	cTTACTGTACAGGGCTCGGCTAGAGCAA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs2069861	ACGTTGGATGGCAACTTTGAGTGTGTCAAG	ACGTTGGATGGCTTTTTTTGGTCTGGTGG	TGAGTGTGTCAAGCTTAATATAAA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping

rs6949149	ACGTTGGATGTCAGCAAGGTTGGTGCAATC	ACGTTGGATGAGAGGCACAAAAGAGGTCGTG	GTCAATCTCACTCCCC	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs743836	ACGTTGGATGTTGCAGTTGACTGTGAGCC	ACGTTGGATGATAATGAGGCAAAAGGAGGG	ctaCTGTTCCCTCTGCCTG	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs2089840	ACGTTGGATGCCAGGCAGCAACAAAAAGTG	ACGTTGGATGCTGCCAAGAATAAACTGCC	cctgctatatTCATGAGGAGGCCAA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs1800796	ACGTTGGATGIGGAGACGCCCTTGAAGTAAC	ACGTTGGATGGAGTTCTTCTGTGTTCTGGC	tgCAGTTCTACAAACAGCC	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs3087226	ACGTTGGATGAGAGTCTCAACCCCAATAAA	ACGTTGGATGCAGTTCCAGGGCTAAGGATT	cggttcccccctaGGGGAGATAGAGCTTCT	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs13447446	ACGTTGGATGGGACGTCACATTGCACAATC	ACGTTGGATGATCTTTTGTGGAGGGTGAGG	tttgTCAGCCCCACCCGCTCTG	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs13335980	ACGTTGGATGGTGGTCCTGACCTAGGGAAT	ACGTTGGATGAGCCTCCTGAAAGTTGGA	cggttcccccctaTCGAGCGGCCTAATTTT	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs352139	ACGTTGGATGAAGATGCCCATGAAGTGGAG	ACGTTGGATGATGATGGCCTGCACCAGGAG	cctgctatatAGTGGAGTGGGTGGAGGT	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs1818879	ACGTTGGATGGGATGCCCTCAATAAAGCAGAC	ACGTTGGATGCTGGTCTTCTGACCTCAAGTG	ggTGGCGCAGTGGCTCAC	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs2862231	ACGTTGGATGGTCGAGCTGTAGTTTCTCTG	ACGTTGGATGTTCTTCCAGTCTTTTGACCAC	aCTCTGTAAAAAACTTCGAA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs7186693	ACGTTGGATGAGCTTCCTAGGATCATGCAG	ACGTTGGATGAACAAGGCAGCCCTGTCTAC	ctGAGGGTGCACCTCTCAAAACT	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs4783681	ACGTTGGATGATTACAGGCTTGAGCCACCG	ACGTTGGATGCTCCATACCCCTGTGATGTAG	TTGACATAGTGTGGTGATTTT	R	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs445676	ACGTTGGATGTGGTGCTGGTGATCCTGAG	ACGTTGGATGAGAAAGCTGCCTGACCACTG	ctCTGACGGCCCGCCGCTCCCCGCTA	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping
rs10431923	ACGTTGGATGTTCTGAGGGGATCACTTCCAC	ACGTTGGATGCACCTGTGCTGGCAAAACATC	cgggAGGGATCACTTCCACGTGCAGT	F	Panel IV_Fine mapping

Supplementary Table 5.2: Association analysis results evaluating susceptibility to PI-IBS of the exploratory SNPs panels in all

eligible PI-IBS patients

Gene ID	SNP	Variants	Location	Position (dbSNP129)	Minor Allele	Major Allele	Allele frequency Case	Allele frequency Control	Chi2	P value	OR ¹	CI.low ²	CI.high ²	References ³
IBS and serotonergic pathways candidates														
<i>SLC6A4</i>	rs4795541	5HTT-LPR / 44-BP INS/DEL / - / A/AGATGCTG GGGGGGCTGC AGGGGGGATG CTGGGGGGTGC	17q11.2	25588443-25588485					Success rate <90%					1-8
<i>SLC6A4</i>	rs3813034	G>T substitution in 3' UTR	17q11.2	25548930	2	1	0.40	0.45	3.3767	0.0661	0.802	0.634	1.015	9
<i>HTR2A</i>	rs6314	H452Y	13q14-q21	46307034	4	2	0.09	0.09	0.0004	0.9844	1.004	0.678	1.486	9
<i>HTR2A</i>	rs6313	T102C	13q14-q21	46367940	4	2	0.39	0.41	0.7039	0.4015	0.904	0.715	1.144	10-12
<i>HTR2A</i>	rs6311	-G1438A	13q14-q21	46369478	4	2	0.39	0.41	0.4356	0.5093	0.924	0.730	1.169	10-11
<i>HTR3A</i>	rs4938063	S253N	11q23.1-q23.2	113362502					MAF<1%					13
<i>HTR3A</i>	rs35815285	R344H	11q23.1-q23.2	113362871					MAF<1%					13
<i>ADRA2A</i>	rs1800544	-C1291G	10q24-q26	112826492	3	2	0.28	0.27	0.6454	0.4218	1.116	0.854	1.459	14
<i>ADRA2A</i>	rs1800035	C753G or K251N	10q24-q26	112828542					MAF<1%					14
<i>GNB3</i>	rs5443	-C825T	12p13	6825135	4	2	0.34	0.32	0.9071	0.3409	1.121	0.886	1.420	12, 15-16
<i>CCK</i>	rs1800857	T779C	3pter-p21	26100208	2	4	0.15	0.12	2.4180	0.1200	1.304	0.933	1.822	17
<i>TGFBI</i>	rs1800469	-C509T	19q13.1	46552135	4	2	0.33	0.31	0.8586	0.3541	1.121	0.880	1.429	18-20

<i>TGFB1</i>	rs1982073/ rs1800470	T869C (codon 10)/P10L	19q13.1	46550761	MAF<1%										18-20
<i>TGFB1</i>	rs1800471	G915C (codon 25)/R25P	19q13.1	46550716	Success rate <90%										18-20
<i>TPH1</i>	rs1800532	A218C	11p15.3-p14	18004391	1	2	0.39	0.0002	0.9896	1.002	0.794	1.264	1.264	1.264	12
<i>TPH1</i>	rs1799913	A779C	11p15.3-p14	18003830	1	2	0.39	0.0004	0.9845	0.998	0.791	1.258	1.258	1.258	12
<i>TPH2</i>	rs11178997	-T473A	12q21.1	70618419	1	4	0.06	0.4403	0.5070	0.850	0.526	1.374	1.374	1.374	21-24
<i>TPH2</i>	rs4570625	-G703T	12q21.1	70618189	4	3	0.20	0.1861	0.6662	0.938	0.703	1.253	1.253	1.253	21-24
<i>TPH2</i>	rs4565946	A90G	12q21.1	70623035	4	2	0.43	0.0867	0.7685	1.035	0.822	1.304	1.304	1.304	21-24
<i>IL10</i>	rs1800872	-A592C	1q31-32	205013029	1	2	0.23	0.6293	0.4276	0.897	0.687	1.173	1.173	1.173	25-33
<i>IL10</i>	rs1800896	-G1082A	1q31-32	205013519	3	1	0.49	0.1408	0.7075	1.044	0.833	1.309	1.309	1.309	25-33
Intestinal epithelial barrier candidates															
<i>SLC22A4</i>	rs1050152	L503F	5q23.3	131704218	4	2	0.43	0.42	0.3136	0.5755	1.069	0.846	1.352	1.352	34
<i>SLC22A5</i>	rs2631367	-G207C	5q23.3	131733356	2	3	0.48	0.47	0.1875	0.6650	1.053	0.834	1.330	1.330	34
<i>CDH1</i>	rs16260	-C160A	16q22.1	67328534	1	2	0.31	0.26	3.4243	0.0642	1.258	0.986	1.605	1.605	35-37
<i>CDH1</i>	rs5030625	-G347A	16q22.1	67328347	7	9	0.10	0.11	0.0176	0.8945	0.976	0.677	1.406	1.406	35-37
<i>ICAM1</i>	rs5498	K469E	19p13.3-p13.2	10256682	3	1	0.37	0.39	0.9795	0.3223	0.884	0.692	1.129	1.129	38-40
<i>ICAM1</i>	rs1799969	G241R	19p13.3-p13.2	10255791	1	3	0.11	0.11	0.1410	0.7073	1.076	0.735	1.573	1.573	38-40
<i>DLG5</i>	rs1248696	R30Q	10q23	79286610	4	2	0.11	0.09	0.5929	0.4413	1.163	0.791	1.710	1.710	41
<i>MYO9B</i>	rs1545620	S1011A	19p13.1	17164773	2	1	0.40	0.41	0.1859	0.6664	0.952	0.759	1.193	1.193	42
<i>ABCB1</i>	rs1045642	C3435T	7q21.12	86976580	2	4	0.43	0.44	0.2889	0.5910	0.940	0.749	1.179	1.179	43-45
<i>ABCB1</i>	rs3789243	rs3789243	7q21.12	87058821	4	2	0.46	0.47	0.2653	0.6065	0.943	0.753	1.180	1.180	43-45
<i>NR1I2</i>	rs3814055	-C25385T	3q13.33	120982724	4	2	0.42	0.39	0.9933	0.3189	1.125	0.892	1.420	1.420	46
<i>NR1I2</i>	rs6785049	A7635G	3q13.33	121016422	3	1	0.39	0.39	0.0074	0.9316	1.010	0.805	1.268	1.268	46
<i>LTF</i>	rs7645243 /rs91110	L632L	3p21.31	46455804	3	1	0.25	0.28	1.0087	0.3152	0.877	0.678	1.133	1.133	47

<i>BPI</i>	rs4358188	E216K	20q11.23-q12	36380261	1	3	0.47	0.49	0.4798	0.4885	0.925	0.741	1.154	48-50
Innate immune risk factor candidates														
<i>NOD2</i>	rs2066847	Leu1007insC	16q12	49321279	2	9	0.04	0.03	0.6229	0.4300	1.284	0.690	2.389	51-52
<i>NOD2</i>	rs2066844	R702W	16q12	49303426	4	2	0.05	0.04	1.1193	0.2901	1.328	0.785	2.246	51-52
<i>NOD2</i>	rs2066845	G908R	16q12	49314040	2	3	0.02	0.01	1.8388	0.1751	1.914	0.749	4.889	51-52
<i>NOD2</i>	rs2076756	rs2076756	16q12	49314381	3	1	0.30	0.27	1.8035	0.1793	1.181	0.926	1.507	51-53
<i>NOD1</i>	rs6958571	ND1+32656*1	7p14.3	30452234	2	1	0.27	0.25	0.6413	0.4232	1.109	0.861	1.427	54
<i>CARD8</i>	rs2043211	Cys10Stop	19q13.3	53429517	4	1	0.32	0.31	0.1287	0.7198	1.045	0.820	1.333	55
<i>TLR4</i>	rs4986790	D299G	9q33.1	119515122	3	1	0.05	0.07	2.6605	0.1029	0.664	0.406	1.086	56-59
<i>TLR5</i>	rs5744168	Arg392Stop or C1174T	1q41-lq42	221351822	4	2	0.05	0.05	0.3412	0.5591	1.155	0.712	1.872	60-61
<i>TLR9</i>	rs5743836	-T1237C	3p21.3	52235821	2	4	0.13	0.18	4.7605	0.0291	0.701	0.509	0.964	62-63
<i>TLR9</i>	rs352139	2848G/A or P545P	3p21.3	52233411	1	3	0.48	0.41	6.3702	0.0116	1.338	1.067	1.678	62-63
<i>CD14</i>	rs2569190	-T159C	5q31.1	139993099	1	3	0.49	0.45	1.7293	0.1885	1.166	0.927	1.467	64-67
<i>NFKB1</i>	rs28362491	-94delATTG	4q23-q24	103641186	9	7	0.38	0.38	0.0105	0.9184	0.988	0.778	1.254	68-69
<i>ATG16L1</i>	rs2241880	T300A	2q37.1	233848106	4	2	0.46	0.46	0.0131	0.9089	0.987	0.785	1.241	53,70-72
<i>PTGER4</i>	rs4495224	rs4495224	5p13.1	40513271	2	1	0.33	0.33	0.1697	0.6804	1.052	0.828	1.336	53
<i>PTGER4</i>	rs4613763	rs4613763	5p13.1	40428484	2	4	0.13	0.11	0.5673	0.4513	1.143	0.807	1.618	53,72-73
<i>PTGER4</i>	rs9292777	rs9292777	5p13.1	40473704	2	4	0.42	0.39	1.7841	0.1817	1.171	0.929	1.478	74
<i>IRGM</i>	rs4958847	rs4958847	5q33.1	150219779	1	3	0.13	0.12	0.1550	0.6938	1.073	0.757	1.520	74
<i>IRGM</i>	rs13361189	rs13361189	5q33.1	150203579	2	4	0.07	0.08	0.1832	0.6686	0.909	0.586	1.409	74
<i>NKX2-3</i>	rs10883365	rs10883365	10q24.2	101277753	3	1	0.50	0.47	0.7335	0.3918	1.105	0.879	1.389	71,74
<i>NKX2-3</i>	rs7078219	rs7078219	10q24.2	101264354	1	3	0.39	0.39	0.0010	0.9754	0.996	0.793	1.253	
<i>PTPN2</i>	rs2542151	rs2542151	18p11.3-p11.2	12769946	3	4	0.18	0.18	0.0705	0.7906	0.961	0.719	1.285	71,73-74

<i>PTPN2</i>	rs2847297	rs2847297	18p11.3-p11.2	12787693	3	1	0.34	0.36	0.8593	0.3539	0.894	0.705	1.134	
<i>TNF</i>	rs1800629	-C308A	6p21.3	31651009	1	3	0.17	0.18	0.0000	0.9964	0.999	0.748	1.335	25-26, 31, 33, 75-78
<i>TNF</i>	rs1799724	-C857T	6p21.3	31650460	4	2	0.10	0.09	0.0567	0.8117	1.048	0.711	1.547	25-26, 31, 33, 75-78
<i>TNF</i>	rs1800630	-C863A	6p21.3	31650454	1	2	0.16	0.15	0.0151	0.9021	1.019	0.751	1.384	25-26, 31, 33, 75-78
<i>TNF</i>	rs1799964	-T1031C	6p21.3	31650286	2	4	0.21	0.19	0.1303	0.7181	1.052	0.800	1.383	25-26, 31, 33, 75-78
<i>IL1B</i>	rs1143627	-C31T	2q14	113310857	2	4	0.37	0.33	2.3009	0.1293	1.195	0.949	1.505	25-26, 79-87
<i>IL1B</i>	rs1143634	F105F	2q14	113306860	4	2	0.21	0.24	2.0883	0.1484	0.818	0.623	1.074	25-26, 79-87
<i>IL1B</i>	rs16944	-C511T	2q14	113311337	1	3	0.36	0.33	2.1558	0.1420	1.191	0.943	1.505	25-26, 79-87
<i>IL4</i>	rs2243250	-C590T	5q31.1	132037052	4	2	0.11	0.15	3.8724	0.0491	0.710	0.505	0.999	88-91
<i>IL4R</i>	rs1801275	Q576R	16p12.1-p11.2	27281900	3	1	0.18	0.20	0.8683	0.3514	0.873	0.656	1.162	88-93
<i>IL4R</i>	rs1805015	S503P	16p12.1-p11.2	27281680	2	4	0.13	0.17	2.4594	0.1168	0.770	0.555	1.068	88-93
<i>IL6</i>	rs1800795	-G174C	7p21	22733169	2	3	0.44	0.39	4.6568	0.0309	1.302	1.025	1.655	25-26, 94
<i>IL6R</i>	rs4537545	rs4537545	1q21	152685502	4	2	0.45	0.41	1.8718	0.1713	1.177	0.932	1.486	95
<i>IL6R</i>	rs8192284/rs2228145	D358A	1q21	152693593	3	4	0.44	0.40	1.8934	0.1688	1.178	0.933	1.488	95
<i>IL7R</i>	rs6897932	T244I	5p13	35910331	4	2	0.30	0.29	0.1099	0.7403	1.043	0.813	1.338	96-97
<i>IL8</i>	rs4073	-T251A	4q12-q13	74824887	1	4	0.46	0.45	0.5214	0.4703	1.086	0.868	1.360	98-100
<i>IL12B</i>	rs10045431	rs10045431	5q31.1-q33.1	158747110	1	2	0.32	0.29	2.9657	0.0851	1.234	0.971	1.566	73-74, 101-102
<i>IL12B</i>	rs6887695	rs6887695	5q31.1-q33.1	158755222	2	3	0.27	0.31	2.3305	0.1269	0.824	0.642	1.057	73-74, 101-102
<i>IL13</i>	rs20541	R130Q	5q31	132023862	4	2	0.18	0.20	1.6713	0.1961	0.820	0.606	1.108	103-107
<i>IL13</i>	rs1800925	-C1112T	5q31	132020707	4	2	0.17	0.20	1.1866	0.2760	0.852	0.638	1.137	103-107
<i>IL23R</i>	rs11209026	R381Q	1p31.2	67478545	1	3	0.06	0.05	0.0450	0.8321	1.051	0.662	1.669	53, 71, 108
1 Mb region on 3p21	rs9858542	rs9858542	3p21	49676986	1	3	0.29	0.29	0.0020	0.9643	1.006	0.777	1.302	71, 74

70kb to closest protein- coding gene	rs224136	rs224136	10q21.1	64140680	4	2	0.15	0.14	0.2031	0.6522	1.076	0.783	1.477	72
70kb to closest protein- coding gene	rs224135	rs224135	10q21.1	64136807	1	3	0.42	0.43	0.0239	0.8771	0.982	0.781	1.235	72
5q region	rs2188962	rs2188962	5q31	131798703	4	2	0.42	0.42	0.0072	0.9326	1.010	0.800	1.275	73

¹OR: odds ratio; ² CI: confidence intervals; ³ Refer to the section at the end of this document entitled “References of exploratory and fine mapping SNP panels”; ⁴ MAF: minor allele frequency.

Supplementary Table 5.3: Association analysis results evaluating susceptibility to PI-IBS of fine mapping SNPs panels in all

eligible PI-IBS patients

#	Gene ID	SNP	Comments ¹	Panel ID ²	Position (dbSNP129)	Minor Allele	Major Allele	Allele frequency Case	Allele frequency Control	Chi2	P value	OR ³	CI.low ⁴	CI.high ⁴	Reference ⁵
1	TLR9	rs11712164	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	52219090	4	1	0.37	0.40	1.8666	0.1719	0.849	0.671	1.074	HapMap
2	TLR9	rs352163	Published-2	Panel IV_Fine mapping	52222149	3	1	0.50	0.42	7.6265	0.0058	1.371	1.096	1.715	109
3	TLR9	rs352140	Published-1	Panel III_Fine mapping	52231736	3	1	0.48	0.42	6.0432	0.0140	1.324	1.059	1.656	109-113
4	TLR9	rs352139	Published-1	Panel II_Exploratory/ Panel IV_Fine mapping	52233411	1	3	0.48	0.41	6.3702	0.0116	1.338	1.067	1.678	110-112
5	TLR9	rs5743836	Published-1	Panel II_Exploratory/ Panel IV_Fine mapping	52235821	2	4	0.13	0.18	4.7605	0.0291	0.701	0.509	0.964	109-115
6	TLR9	rs187084	Published-1	Panel III_Fine mapping	52236070	2	4	0.39	0.42	1.6970	0.1927	0.856	0.678	1.081	109-112
7	TLR9	rs352144	Published-1	Panel III_Fine mapping	52236507	2	1	0.06	0.05	0.0880	0.7668	1.082	0.643	1.819	111
8	TLR9	rs352143	Published-2	Panel III_Fine mapping	52239946	3	1	0.19	0.24	3.6687	0.0554	0.761	0.575	1.006	109
9	TLR9	rs11717574	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	52243285	3	1	0.14	0.18	4.5844	0.0323	0.708	0.516	0.971	HapMap
10	TLR9	rs4082828	Published-2	Panel III_Fine mapping	52249781	2	1	0.11	0.15	5.6959	0.0170	0.651	0.457	0.926	109
11	TLR9	rs1060330	Published-2	Panel III_Fine mapping	52263984	1	3	0.51	0.44	5.7377	0.0166	1.312	1.051	1.639	109
12	IL6	rs6949149	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22715681	1	2	0.06	0.07	0.4783	0.4892	0.850	0.536	1.347	HapMap

13	IL6	rs4552807	HapTag- Predicted reg	Panel III_Fine mapping	22717543	1	4	0.39	0.46	6.1200	0.0134	0.735	0.576	0.938	HapMap_forced
14	IL6	rs10216011	HapTag- Predicted reg	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22718347	3	4	0.16	0.18	1.0532	0.3048	0.851	0.625	1.158	HapMap_forced
15	IL6	rs6969927	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	22719397	1	2	0.23	0.28	3.5837	0.0584	0.772	0.591	1.009	HapMap
16	IL6	rs10156056	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	22720612	2	3	0.09	0.11	0.5716	0.4496	0.861	0.584	1.270	HapMap
17	IL6	rs7776857	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22721292	3	4	0.36	0.33	1.1523	0.2831	1.140	0.897	1.450	HapMap
18	IL6	rs10155987	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	22723060	1	3	0.08	0.09	0.5875	0.4434	0.850	0.562	1.287	HapMap
19	IL6	rs1546762	Regulatory	Panel III_Fine mapping	22724027	2	4	0.51	0.46	2.8800	0.0897	1.224	0.969	1.547	UCSC
20	IL6	rs7805828	HapTag- Predicted reg	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22725086	1	3	0.41	0.44	0.8817	0.3477	0.894	0.708	1.129	HapMap_forced
21	IL6	rs10499563	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	22727012	3	1	0.22	0.25	1.9948	0.1578	0.823	0.627	1.079	HapMap
22	IL6	rs2056576	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22727726	4	2	0.30	0.33	1.1153	0.2909	0.876	0.685	1.120	HapMap
23	IL6	rs12700386	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22729533	2	3	0.20	0.19	0.4461	0.5042	1.103	0.828	1.469	HapMap
24	IL6	rs2069824	HapTag- Predicted reg	Panel III_Fine mapping	22731756	3	1	0.07	0.08	1.5710	0.2101	0.754	0.485	1.173	HapMap_forced
26	IL6	rs2069827	Published/IL -6 level	Panel III_Fine mapping	22731980	4	3	0.06	0.09	3.4858	0.0619	0.644	0.406	1.022	116-118
27	IL6	rs1800797	Published/IL -6 level	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22732745	1	3	0.44	0.39	3.7332	0.0533	1.269	0.997	1.616	117, 119-121
28	IL6	rs1800796	Published/IL -6 level	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22732770	2	3	0.06	0.05	0.1011	0.7505	1.084	0.660	1.781	119-121
29	IL6	rs1800795	Published/IL -6 level	II Exploratory/ Panel IV_Fine mapping	22733169	2	3	0.44	0.39	4.6568	0.0309	1.302	1.025	1.655	116-117, 119-121

30	IL6	rs2069837	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	22734551	2	4	0.07	0.09	1.2807	0.2578	0.775	0.499	1.205	HapMap
31	IL6	rs2069840	Published	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22735096	3	2	0.34	0.37	0.7381	0.3903	0.900	0.707	1.145	118
32	IL6	rs1554606	Published	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22735231	4	3	0.46	0.41	4.4515	0.0349	1.292	1.018	1.639	117-118
33	IL6	rs2069845	Published	Panel III_Fine mapping	22736673	2	4	0.47	0.41	5.1106	0.0238	1.317	1.037	1.672	118
34	IL6	rs2069849	Published/coding	Panel III_Fine mapping	22737680	4	2	0.02	0.02	0.8559	0.3549	1.465	0.652	3.288	117-118
35	IL6	rs2069861	Published	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22738178	4	2	0.14	0.09	7.0603	0.0079	1.608	1.133	2.283	117
36	IL6	rs2140543	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	22744729	3	2	0.30	0.30	0.2180	0.6406	0.939	0.721	1.223	HapMap
37	CDH1	rs7194529	HapTag-Predicted reg	Panel III_Fine mapping	67295877	1	4	0.10	0.11	0.1458	0.7026	0.931	0.645	1.344	HapMap-UCSC
38	CDH1	rs7186693	HapTag-Predicted reg	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67303341	4	2	0.54	0.49	4.1724	0.0411	1.266	1.010	1.589	HapMap-UCSC
39	CDH1	rs5030625	Published	II_Exploratory/Panel III_Fine mapping	67328347	7	9	0.10	0.11	0.0176	0.8945	0.976	0.677	1.406	122-123
40	CDH1	rs16260	Published	II_Exploratory/Panel III_Fine mapping	67328534	1	2	0.31	0.26	3.4243	0.0642	1.258	0.986	1.605	122-127
41	CDH1	rs3743674	Published/R regulatory (intron 1junction)	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67328872	3	1	0.10	0.10	0.0076	0.9305	1.017	0.700	1.477	126
42	CDH1	rs2862231	Published	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67331708	4	2	0.10	0.11	0.0254	0.8733	0.971	0.672	1.401	127
43	CDH1	rs3931740	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	67360722	1	2	0.07	0.06	0.5493	0.4586	1.181	0.761	1.834	HapMap
44	CDH1	rs4783681	Published/Pr edicted reg	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67364008	4	3	0.32	0.26	3.7747	0.0520	1.279	0.998	1.639	127
45	CDH1	rs1125557	Published	Panel III_Fine mapping	67367099	2	4	0.43	0.39	2.3574	0.1247	1.197	0.952	1.505	127
46	CDH1	rs12597188	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	67372326	4	2	0.37	0.33	1.7516	0.1857	1.178	0.924	1.500	HapMap

47	CDH1	rs2010724	Published	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67389914	2	4	0.36	0.30	4.6414	0.0312	1.296	1.024	1.641	127
48	CDH1	rs10431923	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67396763	3	4	0.49	0.44	4.2271	0.0398	1.270	1.011	1.595	HapMap
49	CDH1	rs7186053	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67396793	1	3	0.44	0.38	5.2584	0.0218	1.302	1.039	1.631	HapMap
50	CDH1	rs4783573	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67398088	2	4	0.29	0.33	1.9813	0.1593	0.840	0.660	1.071	HapMap
51	CDH1	rs7188750	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67400395	4	2	0.16	0.17	0.0617	0.8039	1.039	0.767	1.407	HapMap
52	CDH1	rs3785076	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67408283	2	4	0.03	0.04	0.3507	0.5537	0.820	0.425	1.581	HapMap
53	CDH1	rs4783689	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67411171	4	2	0.43	0.41	0.4223	0.5158	1.077	0.861	1.346	HapMap
54	CDH1	rs16958383	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67414500	4	2	0.16	0.16	0.3496	0.5544	1.095	0.810	1.482	HapMap
55	CDH1	rs2276330	Regulatory/ Predicted reg	Panel III_Fine mapping	67414789	3	1	0.14	0.15	0.4028	0.5257	1.107	0.809	1.514	UCSC
56	CDH1	rs1801552	Coding	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67414941	4	2	0.36	0.36	0.5138	0.4735	0.916	0.720	1.165	dbSNP
57	CDH1	rs33964119	Coding	Panel III_Fine mapping	67419665	4	2	0.02	0.03	0.4966	0.4810	0.765	0.363	1.611	dbSNP
58	CDH1	rs8061932	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67420097	2	4	0.16	0.17	0.0007	0.9792	1.004	0.743	1.357	HapMap
59	CDH1	rs9927789	Tag	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67420415	2	1	0.08	0.10	1.7559	0.1851	0.754	0.497	1.145	HapMap
60	CDH1	rs2276329	Published	Panel III_Fine mapping	67420814	2	4	0.07	0.08	0.0392	0.8451	0.957	0.617	1.485	127
61	CDH1	rs1801026	Published	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67424956	4	2	0.15	0.16	0.0002	0.9888	1.002	0.734	1.368	127
62	CDH1	rs13689	HapTag- Predicted reg	Panel III_Fine mapping	67426022	3	1	0.20	0.21	0.0381	0.8453	1.029	0.772	1.373	HapMap-UCSC
63	CDH1	rs7197744	HapTag- Predicted reg	Panel III_Fine mapping	67438878	1	2	0.13	0.13	0.3329	0.5640	1.102	0.792	1.533	HapMap-UCSC
64	CDH1	rs6499203	Tag	Panel III_Fine mapping	67442893	2	4	0.23	0.25	0.0964	0.7563	0.958	0.732	1.254	HapMap

1"Tag": SNP selected by tagging algorithm, "published": SNP previously reported in the literature (see reference column), "predicted reg": SNP located in a predicted regulatory region based on the computational method called ESPERR (Evolutionary and Sequence Pattern Extraction through Reduced Representations) that is also available from the UCSC genome browser (<http://genome.ucsc.edu/>) under the name "7X Reg Potential" within the "Expression and Regulation" track group, "coding": SNP located in coding region of the candidate gene; ² Genotyping panel ID referred to in the last column of Supplementary Table 1; ³OR: odds ratio; ⁴ CI: confidence intervals; ⁵ Refer to the section at the end of this document entitled "References of exploratory and fine mapping SNP panels", "HapMap": SNP taken from the HapMap database (<http://www.hapmap.org/>), "HapMap_forced": SNP taken from the HapMap database that was forced into the tagging SNP design, "UCSC": SNP located in predicted regulatory region observed using the UCSC genome browser, "HapMap-UCSC": SNP present in the HapMap database located in predicted regulatory region (see UCSC), "dbSNP": SNP located in coding region of candidate gene taken from the dbSNP database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP/>).

Supplementary Table 5.4: Association analysis results evaluating susceptibility to PI-IBS of the fine mapping SNPs panels in all

confirmed eligible PI-IBS patients

#	Gene ID	SNP	Panel ID ¹	Position (dbSNP129)	Minor Allele	Major Allele	Allele Frequency Case	Allele Frequency Control	Chi2	P value	OR ²	CI.low ³	CI.high ³	Reference ⁴
1	TLR9	rs11712164	Panel III_Fine mapping	52219090	4	1	0.35	0.36	0.0892	0.7652	0.942	0.638	1.392	HapMap
2	TLR9	rs352163	Panel IV_Fine mapping	52222149	3	1	0.51	0.46	1.2870	0.2566	1.242	0.854	1.804	109
3	TLR9	rs352140	Panel III_Fine mapping	52231736	3	1	0.49	0.46	0.4691	0.4934	1.137	0.787	1.645	109-113
			Panel II_Exploratory/ Panel IV_Fine mapping											
4	TLR9	rs352139	Panel II_Exploratory/ Panel IV_Fine mapping	52233411	1	3	0.48	0.44	0.8231	0.3643	1.187	0.820	1.719	110-112
			Panel II_Exploratory/ Panel IV_Fine mapping											
5	TLR9	rs5743836	Panel III_Fine mapping	52235821	2	4	0.13	0.21	3.6787	0.0551	0.600	0.356	1.011	109-115
6	TLR9	rs187084	Panel III_Fine mapping	52236070	2	4	0.39	0.36	0.1659	0.6837	1.084	0.736	1.595	109-112
7	TLR9	rs352144	Panel III_Fine mapping	52236507	2	1	0.06	0.04	1.3806	0.2400	1.684	0.706	4.017	111
8	TLR9	rs352143	Panel IV_Fine mapping	52239946	3	1	0.20	0.25	1.6853	0.1942	0.738	0.467	1.167	109
9	TLR9	rs11717574	Panel III_Fine mapping	52243285	3	1	0.14	0.22	3.3307	0.0680	0.622	0.373	1.036	HapMap
10	TLR9	rs4082828	Panel III_Fine mapping	52249781	2	1	0.11	0.18	4.0037	0.0454	0.558	0.315	0.988	109
11	TLR9	rs1060330	Panel III_Fine mapping	52263984	1	3	0.53	0.47	1.3725	0.2414	1.246	0.862	1.800	109
12	IL6	rs6949149	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22715681	1	2	0.08	0.07	0.1870	0.6654	1.160	0.592	2.274	HapMap
13	IL6	rs4552807	Panel III_Fine mapping	22717543	1	4	0.40	0.48	2.9041	0.0884	0.696	0.459	1.056	HapMap_forced
14	IL6	rs10216011	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22718347	3	4	0.18	0.17	0.1656	0.6840	1.103	0.689	1.766	HapMap_forced

15	IL6	rs6969927	Panel III_Fine mapping	22719397	1	2	0.21	0.30	4.4927	0.0340	0.617	0.394	0.964	HapMap
16	IL6	rs10156056	Panel III_Fine mapping	22720612	2	3	0.10	0.10	0.0018	0.9658	0.987	0.538	1.810	HapMap
17	IL6	rs7776857	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22721292	3	4	0.39	0.32	1.7883	0.1811	1.307	0.883	1.935	HapMap
18	IL6	rs10155987	Panel III_Fine mapping	22723060	1	3	0.09	0.07	0.6371	0.4248	1.323	0.666	2.628	HapMap
19	IL6	rs1546762	Panel III_Fine mapping	22724027	2	4	0.56	0.46	4.2160	0.0400	1.497	1.018	2.199	UCSC
20	IL6	rs7805828	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22725086	1	3	0.35	0.46	4.9569	0.0260	0.645	0.439	0.949	HapMap_forced
21	IL6	rs10499563	Panel III_Fine mapping	22727012	3	1	0.18	0.25	3.2914	0.0696	0.646	0.403	1.036	HapMap
22	IL6	rs2056576	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22727726	4	2	0.28	0.35	1.9124	0.1667	0.755	0.507	1.124	HapMap
23	IL6	rs12700386	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22729533	2	3	0.17	0.20	0.5868	0.4437	0.832	0.520	1.331	HapMap
24	IL6	rs2069824	Panel III_Fine mapping	22731756	3	1	0.07	0.08	0.0789	0.7788	0.907	0.460	1.790	HapMap_forced
26	IL6	rs2069827	Panel III_Fine mapping	22731980	4	3	0.07	0.09	0.8318	0.3618	0.706	0.334	1.491	116-118
27	IL6	rs1800797	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22732745	1	3	0.47	0.39	2.5990	0.1069	1.386	0.932	2.062	117, 119-121
28	IL6	rs1800796	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22732770	2	3	0.07	0.04	1.1836	0.2766	1.511	0.718	3.181	119-121
29	IL6	rs1800795	Panel Exploratory/ Panel IV_Fine mapping	22733169	2	3	0.48	0.40	3.1839	0.0744	1.433	0.965	2.129	116-117, 119-121
30	IL6	rs2069837	Panel III_Fine mapping	22734551	2	4	0.05	0.09	1.7227	0.1894	0.600	0.280	1.287	HapMap
31	IL6	rs2069840	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22735096	3	2	0.29	0.38	3.7695	0.0522	0.663	0.438	1.004	118
32	IL6	rs1554606	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22735231	4	3	0.51	0.41	4.5558	0.0328	1.534	1.036	2.274	117-118
33	IL6	rs2069845	Panel III_Fine mapping	22736673	2	4	0.51	0.41	4.8361	0.0279	1.560	1.050	2.318	118
34	IL6	rs2069849	Panel III_Fine mapping	22737680	4	2	0.02	0.01	1.7593	0.1847	2.798	0.612	12.803	117-118

35	IL6	rs2069861	Panel IV_Fine mapping	22738178	4	2	0.20	0.07	13.3541	0.0003	2.840	1.622	4.970	117
36	IL6	rs2140543	Panel III_Fine mapping	22744729	3	2	0.27	0.30	0.7465	0.3876	0.832	0.549	1.262	HapMap
37	CDH1	rs7194529	Panel III_Fine mapping	67295877	1	4	0.10	0.13	0.9956	0.3184	0.736	0.403	1.344	HapMap-UCSC
38	CDH1	rs7186693	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67303341	4	2	0.58	0.47	4.7881	0.0287	1.506	1.044	2.175	HapMap-UCSC
			Panel II_Exploratory/ Panel III_Fine mapping											
39	CDH1	rs5030625	Panel III_Fine mapping	67328347	7	9	0.10	0.13	0.8816	0.3478	0.748	0.408	1.371	122-123
			Panel II_Exploratory/ Panel III_Fine mapping											
40	CDH1	rs16260	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67328534	1	2	0.35	0.21	9.7864	0.0018	1.942	1.281	2.943	122-127
41	CDH1	rs3743674	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67328872	3	1	0.10	0.13	0.8615	0.3533	0.752	0.411	1.374	126
42	CDH1	rs2862231	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67331708	4	2	0.10	0.13	0.9450	0.3310	0.742	0.406	1.354	127
43	CDH1	rs3931740	Panel III_Fine mapping	67360722	1	2	0.06	0.07	0.0868	0.7683	0.896	0.432	1.860	HapMap
44	CDH1	rs4783681	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67364008	4	3	0.36	0.21	11.7007	0.0006	2.071	1.365	3.143	127
			Panel III_Fine mapping											
45	CDH1	rs1125557	Panel III_Fine mapping	67367099	2	4	0.49	0.34	8.7607	0.0031	1.751	1.208	2.537	127
46	CDH1	rs12597188	Panel III_Fine mapping	67372326	4	2	0.41	0.29	7.4728	0.0063	1.777	1.177	2.684	HapMap
47	CDH1	rs2010724	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67389914	2	4	0.45	0.25	15.4575	0.0001	2.142	1.465	3.131	127
48	CDH1	rs10431923	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67396763	3	4	0.55	0.39	10.0041	0.0016	1.813	1.254	2.622	HapMap
49	CDH1	rs7186053	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67396793	1	3	0.48	0.32	10.7365	0.0011	1.870	1.286	2.720	HapMap
50	CDH1	rs4783573	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67398088	2	4	0.28	0.37	4.0432	0.0444	0.657	0.436	0.989	HapMap
51	CDH1	rs7188750	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67400395	4	2	0.12	0.21	5.1217	0.0236	0.544	0.322	0.922	HapMap
52	CDH1	rs3785076	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67408283	2	4	0.02	0.04	0.4562	0.4994	0.669	0.209	2.145	HapMap

53	CDH1	rs4783689	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67411171	4	2	0.48	0.41	1.6467	0.1994	1.271	0.881	1.832	HapMap
54	CDH1	rs16958383	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67414500	4	2	0.14	0.20	1.8088	0.1787	0.712	0.435	1.168	HapMap
55	CDH1	rs2276330	Panel III_Fine mapping	67414789	3	1	0.12	0.20	4.0619	0.0439	0.587	0.350	0.985	UCSC
56	CDH1	rs1801552	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67414941	4	2	0.33	0.32	0.0379	0.8456	1.039	0.705	1.531	dbSNP
57	CDH1	rs33964119	Panel III_Fine mapping	67419665	4	2	0.01	0.03	1.4447	0.2294	0.386	0.082	1.823	dbSNP
58	CDH1	rs8061932	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67420097	2	4	0.14	0.23	4.7476	0.0293	0.572	0.346	0.945	HapMap
59	CDH1	rs9927789	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67420415	2	1	0.07	0.10	1.0587	0.3035	0.697	0.350	1.387	HapMap
60	CDH1	rs2276329	Panel III_Fine mapping	67420814	2	4	0.06	0.09	1.5908	0.2072	0.610	0.283	1.314	127
61	CDH1	rs1801026	Panel IV_Fine mapping	67424956	4	2	0.11	0.21	6.9610	0.0083	0.472	0.270	0.825	127
62	CDH1	rs13689	Panel III_Fine mapping	67426022	3	1	0.14	0.27	8.4281	0.0037	0.469	0.281	0.782	HapMap-UCSC
63	CDH1	rs7197744	Panel III_Fine mapping	67438878	1	2	0.10	0.18	4.8179	0.0282	0.524	0.294	0.933	HapMap-UCSC
64	CDH1	rs6499203	Panel III_Fine mapping	67442893	2	4	0.17	0.31	8.5384	0.0035	0.494	0.308	0.793	HapMap

¹ Genotyping panel ID referred to in Supplementary Table 1; ²OR: odds ratio; ³CI: confidence intervals; ⁴ Refer to the section at the end of this document entitled “References of exploratory and fine mapping SNP panels”, “HapMap”: SNP taken from the HapMap database (<http://www.hapmap.org/>), “HapMap_forced”: SNP taken from the HapMap database that was forced into the tagging SNP design, “UCSC”: SNP located in predicted regulatory region observed from the UCSC genome browser, “HapMap-UCSC”: SNP present in the HapMap database located in predicted regulatory region (see UCSC), “dbSNP”: SNP located in coding region of candidate gene taken from the dbSNP database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP/>).

5.2.11 Supplementary References: exploratory and fine mapping candidates' selection

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6 SUMMARY & PERSPECTIVES

6.1 General discussion of the chapters

This thesis describes studies aimed at further understanding the role of innate immunity genetic risk factors involved in the origin and development of IBD and PI-IBS. Using a candidate gene approach, we have successfully uncovered a new susceptibility gene, *NLRP3*, contributing to CD pathogenesis by dissecting two gene regions involved in the inflammasome pathway, and have established the first basis of the genetic risk factors (namely *TLR9*, *CDH1*, and *IL6*) involved in PI-IBS susceptibility.

6.1.1 CD immunopathogenesis

6.1.1.1 Association results in perspectives

The *NLRP3* association results presented in this thesis support the recent shift in the immunopathogenesis paradigm of CD, which is based on the concept that mediators of the innate immunity and abnormalities in the handling of intracellular bacteria are emerging as a key theme in CD pathogenesis.

CD is known to be a polygenic and heterogeneous disease with a strong environmental influence. It is a condition that is manifested with ulceration and chronic inflammation of the GI tract (Podolsky 2002). In the established tissue lesions observed in patients, there is an infiltration of inflammatory cells focally in the bowel wall, leading to the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and propagation of the immune response (Podolsky 2002). These observations have

led researchers to initially hypothesise that CD was the result of an overly aggressive inflammatory response and uncontrolled production of pro-inflammatory mediators. This hypothesis is further supported by the successful and beneficial use of anti-TNF α biologic therapies and new selective adhesion molecule inhibitors in CD (Derkx et al. 1993; van Dullemen et al. 1995; Targan et al. 1997; Kozuch et al. 2008), targeting the excessive immune activation.

However, the publications of several reports supporting a “loss-of-function” phenotype associated with the NOD2 mutations, together with the recently published GWA studies highlighting the role of the autophagy pathway (*IRGM* and *ATG16L1*) in the CD pathogenesis, have revolutionized the CD immunopathogenesis paradigm by suggesting that the pro-inflammatory response observed in CD patients might be secondary to the primary inability to handle the bacterial burden from the intestinal lumen. It is now suggested that an impaired, rather than an overly aggressive inflammatory response, by a defective intestinal innate immune system may underlie the initial phase of IBD, most probably resulting from an inability to handle occasional invaders from the intestinal lumen. A primary immunodeficiency defect may result to failure of producing inflammatory mediators, leading to insufficient recruitment of immune effector cells like neutrophils, resulting in inadequate removal of bacteria and antigens. This impairment of acute inflammatory response can be compensated in some circumstances by signaling through PRMs, such as NOD2 and NALP3. If these PRMs do not recognize properly and initiate the mechanisms to clear the threat, the foreign material in the bowel wall may be taken up by macrophages, eliciting a granulomatous reaction and the local and systemic sequelae that is characteristic

of CD. Activation of the acquired immune system would thus be a subsequent phenomenon, mostly associated with the perpetuation of inflammation, being the proximate driver of tissue damage observed in patients (Xavier et al. 2007).

Following this shift in the pathogenesis paradigm, new treatment strategies should aim at targeting the microbial flora and at re-setting the GI mucosal immune system towards this flora using immuno-modulating drugs (with both permissive and negative actions) more than the immuno-suppressive drugs (only negative actions) that are currently being used, such as antimetabolites and biological therapies.

Probiotics are live and safe microbes that may beneficially help in restoring the intestinal microbial flora (Fedorak et al. 2008). Two meta-analyses failed to show the beneficial use of probiotics in the maintenance of remission in CD patients (Rolfe et al. 2006; Rahimi et al. 2008). Overall, studies evaluating the efficacy of probiotics as induction and maintenance therapies have been quite disappointing in CD (Guslandi et al. 2000; Prantera et al. 2002; Bousvaros et al. 2005; Marteau et al. 2006; Van Gossum et al. 2007). However, as most of these probiotic studies were small opened label or insufficiently powered randomized controlled trials, no definitive conclusions can be drawn. The inconsistent results observed from the clinical trials on probiotics might be explained by the heterogeneity and variety of probiotic preparations used, study designs, the medication regimen, together with the poor selection of patient study populations (Fedorak et al. 2008). A better characterization of the gut microbial flora and its genome, together with a better understanding of its dynamic interactions with the human host and its genome, would be needed before pursuing further evaluation

of the efficacy of specific probiotics in larger randomized clinical trials. Future therapeutic strategies may also aim at generating and using specifically “designed” blocking or agonist bacterial peptides that could possibly challenge and perhaps re-educate the mucosal immune system (Packey et al. 2008).

6.1.1.2 The roles of PRMs in CD pathogenesis

Although over seven independent CD GWA studies and one meta-analysis have been published since the discovery of NOD2 association with CD, none of these GWAS have identified another PRM candidate. Our *NLRP3* association results consist of the first study implicating another PRM in the CD pathogenesis since the discovery of NOD2 in 2001. Such discoveries are important for patient care because it allow us to gain more understanding of key pathways and pathogenic mechanisms involved in the CD pathogenesis, such as the importance of intra-cellular bacterial sensors in this case. Our *NLRP3* association results further supports the immunopathogenesis hypothesis of CD, stating that it results from an inappropriate mucosal immune response towards the microbial flora in a genetically susceptible host.

Interestingly, we observed no significant associations between the *NLRP3* variants and UC, a result similar to what has been previously reported for the *NOD2* mutations and the autophagy genes *IRGM* and *ATG16L1*, which have been associated specifically to CD (Cho 2008; Fisher et al. 2008; Franke et al. 2008b). Together, these results suggest that alterations in the intracellular sensing and processing of bacteria may constitute a central feature specific to the pathogenesis

of CD, and not to UC. The fact that CD and UC do not fully share these associations may indicate distinct underlying mechanisms in these diseases.

We now know that PRMs like NOD2 and NALP3 are potentially involved in the initiation phase of CD, and it is likely that future studies will also implicate other PRMs. Despite the advance of knowledge in the field of innate immunity and in the understanding of the way harmful pathogens are detected, several questions remain unanswered. Indeed, it is still unclear how the bacterial products are delivered to the cytosol, and we don't know whether these PRMs bind directly or indirectly to their cognate agonists. Moreover, little is known about the mechanisms employed by these proteins to eliminate intracellular pathogens. Hence, although the genetic and first functional studies point towards an important role played by these PRMs in the onset of CD, additional biological research is still needed to further elucidate the way these receptors function and contribute to CD pathogenesis.

6.1.1.3 Follow-up I: further dissection of the NALP3 inflammasome

Our *NLRP3* results indirectly implicate the NALP3 inflammasome pathway in the CD pathophysiology. However, subsequent evaluation of the *MEFV* gene, encoding the pyrin protein that also interact with the NALP3 inflammasome pathway, has excluded the role of this gene in CD and UC pathogenesis. *NLRP3-MEFV* gene-gene interaction analyses reported in Chapter 4 did not bring further insight into a potential involvement of *MEFV* in IBD susceptibility. Although this was beyond the scope of these projects, it would be interesting to screen all the components involved in the NALP3 inflammasome

pathway, such as ASC, CARDINAL, caspase-1, IL-1 β , and see whether gene-gene interactions would further implicate this signaling cascade in the CD pathogenesis.

6.1.1.4 Follow-up II: Evaluation of other genes responsible for HPFS

In addition to being involved in intracellular bacterial sensing and in the inflammasome pathway, mutations in the two genes on which Chapters 2-4 focus (*NLRP3* and *MEFV*) are also associated with the development of four HPFS, namely MWS, FCAS, NOMID (all three referred to as CAPS), and FMF (Ryan et al. 2008a). Indeed, these two genes are also known to play a central role in the regulation of fever, which is one of the most primitive defense mechanisms that exist in humans to fight the surrounding pathogenic bacteria. Our *NLRP3* results confirm one of our initial hypotheses, stating that while severe mutations in these genes will cause the respective severe monogenic fever syndrome, milder genetic changes such as SNPs, may give rise to more subtly altered protein function, and hence contribute to the basis of chronic inflammatory diseases, such as CD and UC. To further explore this latter hypothesis, it would be interesting to evaluate whether genes responsible for other HPFS, such as the tumor necrosis factor (TNF) receptor-associated periodic syndrome (TRAPS) and the hyperimmunoglobulinemia D with periodic fever syndrome (HIDS), also contribute to IBD susceptibility.

6.1.2 PI-IBS & IBS immunopathogenesis

6.1.2.1 PI-IBS association results in perspectives

The unfortunate Walkerton tragedy provided a unique opportunity to study the genetic determinants of post-infectious irritable bowel syndrome (PI-IBS) in a large, well-defined study cohort with simultaneous and well-characterized exposure. The identification of genetic factors involved in PI-IBS is important as it provides new insight into the pathophysiology of this disorder. Previous IBS genetic studies have proven rather challenging because of the heterogeneity of the disease phenotype and sample ethnicity, small sample size of cohorts, and lack of rigorous clinical and epidemiological data. Hitherto, no gene had yet been confirmed to be involved in the development of IBS-like symptoms. In this study, we had the advantage of working with a more homogeneous population cohort derived from a single community, where the environmental trigger was known and where we had access to a wide-range of clinical and epidemiological data.

Chapter 5 consists of the first genetic study ever conducted on PI-IBS patients. We identified three genes, namely *TLR9*, *CDH1*, and *IL6*, which all contribute to PI-IBS susceptibility. These observations are consistent with current conceptual models of IBS pathogenesis, and emphasize the important roles of gut flora, intestinal epithelial barrier function, and inflammatory pathways. Based on our association results, **Figure 6.1** gives a simplistic overview of the working hypothesis.

The observations that genetic risk factors contribute to the development of IBS following an episode of acute gastroenteritis may lead in the future to improved risk stratification and treatment following outbreaks.

6.1.2.2 Working hypothesis

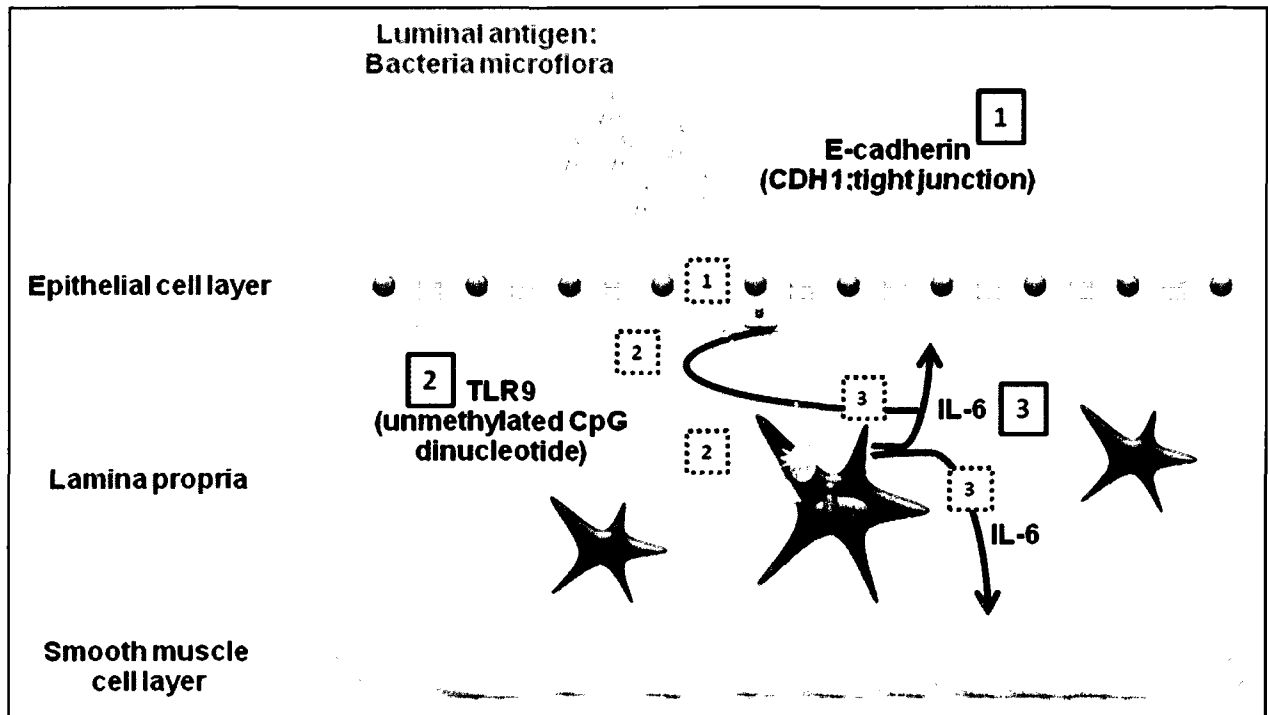


Figure 6.1: Walkerton PI-IBS association results: working hypothesis

Based on the known biological functions of the candidate genes associated with PI-IBS susceptibility, we can make the following working hypothesis to integrate the results: 1) the presence of enteric pathogens in the GI tract, such as *Escherichia Coli* and *Campylobacter jejuni* both present in the Walkerton outbreak, are known to have devised several ways to increase mucosal permeability, mainly through disruption epithelial tight junctions (TJ) like CDH1. If CDH1 is not properly up-regulated because of genetic predispositions, it may contribute in further weakening this TJ, leading to the increase in intestinal permeability that is observed in PI-IBS patients. 2) Subsequently, if TLR9 expression is not properly up-regulated when the intestinal epithelial and immune effector cells are exposed and challenged with enteric pathogens, resulting from a defect in properly recognizing the initial threat, it could contribute to the defective innate immune response documented in those who develop PI-IBS, 3) which could be further enhanced through inappropriate regulation of IL-6 production, leading to an impairment of pathogen clearance, and therefore to higher local antigen exposure that may contribute to further activating the intestinal immune system of PI-IBS patients, providing a mechanism for perpetuating inflammation.

6.1.2.3 Challenges of replicating and validating the PI-IBS association results

The use of this unique Walkerton PI-IBS population cohort is a double-edged sword as no other well-characterized cohort of this size exists worldwide, and thus, we do not have the possibility of replicating these results. However, one of the greatest significance of the results obtained from a genetic study that used a more homogeneous PI-IBS patient sample set is that it will enable the formulation of novel genetic risk factors hypotheses that could also contribute to the development of IBS without an infectious onset. Hence, a next step would be to assess whether our findings could apply equally as well to this class of IBS patients.

For many years, IBS was not considered as a disease entity as no specific physiological and psychological abnormality had been found to be absolutely indicative of this disorder (Ohman et al. 2007). The precise molecular mechanism(s) underlying IBS remain essentially unknown, and the research in the fields of IBS and PI-IBS are still at a stage of infancy. The prospect of identifying a genetic cause for IBS is important, because it will raise the possibility of further confirming that IBS is a disease entity, suggest new insight into the pathophysiology of the disorder, and provide new targets for drug development.

It is unlikely that all patients with IBS-like symptoms have the same pathophysiology, and as research progresses, we should be able to further characterize and classify these patients; a better characterization and classification of patients will contribute towards building more homogenous cohorts, which

should help in uncovering more easily the genetic risk factors involved in the disease. A simple example comes from the sub-classification of IBS patients based on their predominant stool consistency; it is very unlikely that the biological pathways underlying the symptoms in a diarrhea-prone and a constipation-prone IBS patient will be the same. Given that a cohort composed of IBS patients with no infectious onset will be likely more heterogeneous in terms of clinical presentations than one composed of PI-IBS patients, it will be important to well-select the patients for subsequent validation of our results. For a start, since the most prominent bowel habit in PI-IBS patients is diarrhea, validation effort should focus on IBS patients presenting with this stool consistency. Overall, a better characterization of patient subgroups with regard to clinical, personal, and environmental factors is needed for genetic studies to be more successful in the future.

6.1.2.4 Could IBS be an inflammatory disorder?

As explained in Chapter 5, our association results are in keeping with the pathophysiologic changes observed in patients with PI-IBS, which include increased intestinal permeability, low grade inflammation, and immune activation in the colonic mucosa. It has been hypothesized that a low-grade mucosal inflammatory process, albeit undetectable endoscopically or with conventional mucosal histology, may also play a role in IBS pathogenesis, implying that in at least a subpopulation of patients, IBS could be an inflammatory disorder. We would thus be more likely to validate our association results in this subpopulation

of patients. Four lines of evidence support this latter hypothesis. First, as explained previously, IBS symptoms may develop following an acute episode of infectious gastroenteritis (Spiller 2003a). Second, an increased number of inflammatory cells (e.g. mast cells, T lymphocytes, macrophages) have been detected in the colonic and ileal mucosa as well as in the muscularis externa of jejunum of patients with IBS. (Barbara et al. 2004a). Third, inflammatory cells in the intestinal mucosa of IBS patients have been reported to be activated (Chadwick et al. 2002; Barbara et al. 2004b) and to release a number of inflammatory mediators (Barbara et al. 2004a); these latter mediators are known to signal to epithelial, neuronal, and muscle cells leading to intestinal dysfunction (Barbara et al. 2006b). And last, patients in remission from IBD develop IBS-like symptoms with a higher than expected prevalence (Talley 2006; Burgmann et al. 2006). The prevalence of IBS symptoms in IBD patients in long-standing remission is 2 to 3 times higher than in normal population (Simrén et al. 2002).

We also need to keep in mind the possibility that the inflammatory components involved could be different in PI-IBS relative to IBS without an onset related to infection. If this is the case, it will be unlikely that *TLR9*, *IL6*, and *CDH1* genes play a role in IBS susceptibility. It is already known, for example, that patients with PI-IBS show a mucosal immune response that comprises predominantly CD4⁺T lymphocytes (Spiller et al. 2000) and cytokines such as IL1- β (Gwee et al. 2003), whereas IBS patients without such a history have a response characterized primarily by infiltration of mast cells (Barbara et al. 2006b). Additional characterization of the inflammatory components implicated in the development of PI-IBS and IBS is needed to draw parallels between these

two disorders and to determine whether or not the components involved are distinct.

6.1.2.5 PI-IBS and IBS genetic architecture & future work

The genetic variants conferring risk to PI-IBS and IBS may be commonly present in the general population, and each genetic variant may potentially only weakly contribute to the pathogenesis and symptoms, making them hard to uncover. Efforts in the near future should first focus on building cohorts of patients as homogeneous as possible to increase the chance of identifying the genetic risk factors involved. Although our association results consist of a first step towards a better understanding of the factors involved in the development of PI-IBS, we recognize that the study of genetic risk factors implicated in PI-IBS and IBS susceptibility is still at the stage of infancy and that many more genes are likely to be discovered in the coming years. Because of budgetary constraints, we have opted for candidate gene approach, looking specifically at functional variants previously associated in these genes. Hence, our study can only exclude the involvement of the reported functional and tagging SNPs that we have evaluated in PI-IBS, as well as SNPs in high LD and tagged by them. However, as mentioned in Chapter 5, we cannot exclude the possible involvement of the candidate genes evaluated in the exploratory phase unless thorough fine mapping experiments are performed in all of these regions. With access to additional funding, the richness and uniqueness of the PI-IBS Walkerton population cohort

should be further exploited to uncover additional genetic risk factors involved by the use of larger scale approaches, such as the GWA study strategy.

6.2 The genetic architecture of IBD

The meta-analysis by Barrett and colleagues (Barrett et al. 2008) estimated that well-established associations with CD account for only a fifth of the genetic variance observed in CD. Hence, most of the inherited components of the disease predisposition remain essentially unexplained. These estimations have not yet been published for UC, but they are likely to be low as well. One question may arise: where is the remaining genetic variance contributing to CD and UC susceptibility?

6.2.1 Limitations and challenges of IBD GWAS

Many more IBD loci remain to be identified by GWAS. When interpreting this ratio, several factors need to be taken into consideration.

6.2.1.1 Tagging SNPs vs. causal SNPs

First, most of the SNPs that were genotyped in these GWAS were selected to tag the genome efficiently, rather than for their possible effect on gene function. Consequently, most CD-associated SNPs identified so far are unlikely to be the causal variants that actually confer disease susceptibility. The *IRGM* locus association with CD is a good example; it was originally identified on the basis of genome-wide SNP association analysis and a subsequent study by

McCarroll *et al.* identified the causal variant to be a deletion upstream of the promoter, affecting tissue-specific expression (McCarroll *et al.* 2008). Hence, the regions associated with CD and UC that were uncovered through the numerous GWA have yet to be further scrutinized through fine-mapping and resequencing approaches to identify the specific genes and variants responsible for the association signal. Overall, each locus-attributable risk factor will likely be higher than the currently estimated one as we identify the causal risk factor(s) in each associated regions.

6.2.1.2 Independent common risk variant(s)

Moreover, it is also important to remember that a single associated locus may contain multiple independent common risk variants. This was the case for the *IL23R* gene association with CD, where logistic regression showed that the identified coding SNP (Arg381Gln) was insufficient to explain the association signal, and that other *IL23R* variants as well as variants the intergenic region between *IL23R* and *IL12RB2* showed additional independent associations (Duerr *et al.* 2006). These unexplored potential independent causal alleles may also account for additional genetic risk.

6.2.1.3 Population studied

Furthermore, the great majority of published studies have used populations of European ancestry. Larger, more comprehensive, and more diverse GWAS should be able to reveal many more loci.

6.2.1.4 Statistical power

Additionally, studies reported to date had very low statistical power and thus must have missed many loci with common variants of similar or smaller effects. Indeed, given the modest effect sizes of common variants now known to exist, which in average for CD consists of a factor <2 per alleles (Barrett et al. 2008), and the need to exceed stringent statistical thresholds, the first waves of GWAS provided low power to discover disease-causing loci (Altshuler et al. 2007). It is also important to keep in mind that studies of hundreds to several thousands cases have been necessary to identify only a fifth of the loci contributing to CD susceptibility (Barrett et al. 2008). For many of the identified loci, chance in the form of sampling error, the so called “winner’s curse”, probably played a role in boosting their detectability (Görling et al. 2001; Lohmueller et al. 2003). Therefore, many loci of equivalent effect size are likely to also confer susceptibility and are simply unidentified for the moment.

6.2.1.5 Assessing structural and rare variants

Moreover, it is possible that some disease loci will contain only structural or rare variants. However, the first published GWAS did not use technologies that comprised proxies for common structural variants, such as CNV (copy number variation). Moreover, the available commercial array used for GWAS are designed to provide excellent coverage of common SNPs, but have very limited potential to capture rare and low frequency variants with MAF lower than 5% (Zeggini et al. 2005). Systematic resequencing of the entire associated region, at

least to the point at which LD substantially decays, in large sample sets will be required to identify these rare variants, like it is currently being done for the 1000 genome project (Kuehn 2008), which is creating a new map of the human genome by sequencing the genomes of at least 1000 individuals from around the world (www.1000genomes.org). In addition to uncover rare associated variants, another important benefit of the deep-sequencing approach is the potential to uncover alleles with more severe effects at the molecular and clinical levels; such variants are likely to be more attractive substrates for functional and clinical investigation than the common variants originally identified. As the available sequencing technologies will improve, this task will become more easily achievable than previously (Mardis 2008). The extent to which low frequency and structural variants will contribute to disease predisposition represents one of the major unanswered questions in IBD genetics. Such variants could, individually and collectively, have greater impact in terms of explaining disease risk, than the common variants that have been identified so far using the GWAS approach (McCarthy et al. 2008).

6.2.2 Other challenges in IBD genetics

6.2.2.1 Gene-gene and gene-environment interactions

Almost all GWAS published to date have focused on detecting and characterizing the main genetic effects. However, gene-gene and gene-environment interactions may also play important role in disease risk. Although searches have not yet found any evidences of epistasis in CD and UC, it may

simply reflect the limited power to assess the many possible modes of interactions and thresholds of effects. Indeed, **1)** one of the important limitations is the computational burden imposed by any comprehensive search for higher-order effects of gene-gene interactions. Exhaustive studies of gene-gene effects are highly dependent on knowledge of the exact causal variants, larger data-sets, and more efficient computational approaches. **2)** The challenge with respect of identifying gene-environment is even greater, as many of the parameters that are likely to be relevant to disease predisposition are difficult to measure in a detailed and standardized manner in large sample collections.

Hence, several obstacles need be overcome to assemble the appropriate tools in order to correctly assess the potential contribution of gene-gene and gene-environment interactions to IBD susceptibility. Once these patterns of associations and interactions are understood, effects of specific gene and environmental exposures on each phenotype will likely be larger.

6.2.2.2 Epigenetic contribution(s)

Additional potential sources of heritability contributing to disease predisposition may also come from epigenetic effects, such as methylation or histone modifications. Indeed, epigenetic changes that are transmitted across generations, but where the inherited epigenetic state does not track with underlying DNA sequence variations, might have been missed in previous GWAS. Consequently, high-throughput tools need to be developed to assess the contribution of such epigenetic effects in IBD susceptibility.

6.2.3 IBD GWAS results: the beginning of a journey

Overall, although the proportion of genetic variance explained is certain to grow in the coming years, we also need to keep in mind that to the extent that CD and UC are influenced by tiny effects of hundreds of loci or highly heterogeneous rare mutations, it may be impractical to assemble sufficiently large samples to give a complete account of the genetic risk factors involved. We can conclude that, although substantial efforts were gathered to conceive these numerous GWA studies (see **Tables 1.1-1.2**), the first wave of results represent only the starting point on the journey to elucidating and understanding the genetic basis of IBD, and translating this knowledge into clinically useful insights.

6.3 Personalized medicine: are we there yet?

The advances in the field of genomic research have greatly improved the progress and speed at which we now discover disease susceptibility genes, and have fueled expectations about the potential opportunities of using genetic profiling as a tool for personalized medicine. Most of the current therapies used to treat CD and UC rely on non-specific immune-suppressive approaches, in part due to a lack of knowledge of the specific mechanisms that cause disease onset and progress. Understanding the genetic factors contributing to these diseases is therefore likely to have a significant effect on public health. Genetic factors are also thought to have a predominant role in determining progression to clinical disease, and identifying these factors might contribute to the development of targeted preventive therapies. Indeed, there are now hopes in the IBD scientific

community that the genetic field will allow the identification of individuals at risk of developing CD or UC by defining specific genetic backgrounds at risk (i.e. disease prevention).

The use of personalized medicine, such as genetic profiling, requires a test that fairly accurately predicts disease risk, particularly when it concerns decisions about therapeutic interventions, or interventions that are invasive, expensive, or have major side effects. Although novel gene discoveries reported by GWA studies will certainly improve the prediction of IBD onset, the question is whether this improvement will be sufficient to enable personalized medicine.

6.3.1 Challenges in personalized medicine

Personalized medicine is very straightforward for monogenic disorders, which are completely or predominantly caused by DNA variations in one single gene, as in the case of HPFS. The development of genetic testing on such genetic basis for informing individuals at risk about their future health status and for deciding upon specific interventions can thus be done more easily. However, the etiology of complex traits, like CD and UC, which result from a complex interplay of genetic and environmental factors where each factor may only have a minor contribution to the occurrence of the disease, makes it immensely more complicated to develop accurate prediction models to be used for personalized medicine.

Although it is tempting to think that some genotypes will be able to predict the development of disease, the clinical outcomes or the response to drugs,

accurate and precise predictions will only be possible when we will be able to understand the essential genetic and environmental factors involved in the pathogenic mechanisms underlying CD and UC development.

6.3.2 The future of personalized medicine in IBD

At this point of knowledge, with only 20% of CD heritability to be accounted for (Barrett et al. 2008), we still have very limited understanding of the exact causal variants, and thus the available disease models are likely to be of poor predictability. As explained previously, many more common variants also contributing to CD and UC susceptibility remain to be uncovered; we cannot exclude for the moment the involvement of rare variants with major effects, we have limited insights in ethnic differences, gene expression and functions, as well as in gene-gene and gene-environment interactions that could all contribute to disease development. Since our understanding of CD and UC pathogenesis will only accelerate in the coming year, resolving many of these issues, this should lead to improved genetic prediction modeling. The extent to which the uncovered genetic associations will figure in personalized medicine will depend on the level of accuracy that the prediction models will be able to attain, and on whether there will be intervention whose effectiveness will be improved by the knowledge of a genetic test. In the coming years, the great challenge will thus be to integrate these results and build more accurate disease prediction models with the hopes of eventually translating the emerging genomic knowledge into public health and medical care.

7 CONCLUSION

Over the course of this PhD project, we used a hypothesis-driven candidate approach to try to understand the contribution of innate immunity risk candidates to the susceptibility of CD, UC, and PI-IBS. Our results have deepened our comprehension of the complex interrelationship between enteric infection, intestinal microbial flora, genetic susceptibility, and disease pathogenesis by providing novel insights about potential mechanisms involved in the development of these diseases. Nonetheless, future genetic, epidemiologic, animal model, and in-depth functional studies are needed to further evaluate the implication of the pathways that were highlighted by our studies, being the NALP3 inflammasome in the case of CD, and the contribution of *CDH1*, *TLR9*, and *IL6* in the case of PI-IBS. Knowledge of these disease pathways should not be limited to the causal genes and associated variants reported in this Ph.D. thesis; these signaling cascades should be further dissected as they may eventually lead to alternative strategies for prevention, diagnosis, and therapy for CD, UC, PI-IBS, and perhaps, to other inflammatory diseases. Finally, although uncovering new susceptibility genes is important as it may lead to new biological insights on the mechanisms underlying these diseases' pathogenesis, we need to keep in mind that these traits are all powerfully shaped by the environment, and that the solutions to several of the important problems encountered with these diseases are likely to lie outside our genes.

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9 ELECTRONIC SOURCES

- HapMap project database, <http://www.hapmap.org/>
- UCSC genome browser (Golden Path), <http://genome.ucsc.edu/>
- NCBI, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>
- Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM),
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Omim>
- dbSNP database, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/SNP/>
- Ensembl, <http://www.ensembl.org/index.html>
- HUGO gene nomenclature Committee, <http://www.genenames.org/>
- INFEVERS database, <http://fmf.igh.cnrs.fr/ISSAID/infevers/>
- Primer 3 softwer, <http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/>
- ESPERR software, <http://www.bx.psu.edu/projects/esperr>
- Tagger server, <http://www.broad.mit.edu/mpg/tagger/server.html>
- Single Nucleotide Polymorphism Spectral Decomposition (SNPSpD)
software, <http://gump.qimr.edu.au/general/daleN/SNPSpD/>
- R software: <http://www.r-project.org/>
- 1000 genome project, <http://www.1000genomes.org/>

10 APPENDIX

- Print copy of the letter published in *Nature Genetics*; reference:
 - o Villani AC, Lemire M, Fortin G, Louis E, Silverberg MS, Collette C, Baba N, Libioulle C, Belaiche J, Bitton A, Gaudet D, Cohen A, Langelier D, Fortin PR, Wither JE, Sarfati M, Rutgeerts P, Rioux JD, Vermeire S, Hudson TJ, Franchimont D. Common variants in the NLRP3 region contribute to Crohn disease susceptibility. *Nat Genet* 2009; 41: 71-76.
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Common variants in the *NLRP3* region contribute to Crohn's disease susceptibility

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We used a candidate gene approach to identify a set of SNPs, located in a predicted regulatory region on chromosome 1q44 downstream of *NLRP3* (previously known as *CIAS1* and *NALP3*) that are associated with Crohn's disease. The associations were consistently replicated in four sample sets from individuals of European descent. In the combined analysis of all samples (710 father-mother-child trios, 239 cases and 107 controls), these SNPs were strongly associated with risk of Crohn's disease ($P_{\text{combined}} = 3.49 \times 10^{-9}$, odds ratio = 1.78, confidence interval = 1.47–2.16 for rs10733113), reaching a level consistent with the stringent significance thresholds imposed by whole-genome association studies. In addition, we observed significant associations between SNPs in the associated regions and *NLRP3* expression and IL-1 β production. Mutations in *NLRP3* are known to be responsible for three rare autoinflammatory disorders^{1,2}. These results suggest that the *NLRP3* region is also implicated in the susceptibility of more common inflammatory diseases such as Crohn's disease.

Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis are multigenic and heterogeneous inflammatory bowel diseases of the gastrointestinal tract that seem to result from a dysregulated mucosal immune response to bacterial antigens in the gut lumen of a genetically susceptible host³. *NLRP3* is a member of the CATERPILLER⁴ family of genes encoding proteins that comprise a nucleotide-binding domain and a leucine-rich repeat domain. Cryopyrin, the protein encoded by *NLRP3*, controls the inflammasome, a crucial molecular platform that regulates activation

of caspase-1 and processing of interleukin (IL)-1 β —two key mediators of inflammation^{2,5,6}. The potential involvement of *NLRP3* in the pathogenesis of more common inflammatory disorders motivated us to conduct an in-depth genetic analysis of the *NLRP3* region.

We first assessed the association between 47 SNPs in the *NLRP3* region and Crohn's disease risk in 296 trios from Leuven University Hospital Gasthuisberg (see Methods, **Supplementary Methods** and **Supplementary Table 1** online). The major alleles of three tagging SNPs were significantly associated with increased risk of Crohn's disease in the Leuven sample set ($P = 0.0107$ for rs4353135; $P = 7.63 \times 10^{-3}$ for rs4266924; $P = 1.68 \times 10^{-3}$ for rs10733113; **Fig. 1** and **Table 1**). These SNPs span a 5.3-kb region and are located 4.7 kb downstream of *NLRP3* and 1.85 kb upstream of the olfactory receptor gene *OR2B11* (**Fig. 1**). No associations were observed with SNPs within the *NLRP3* gene, and none of the associated SNPs were in linkage disequilibrium with tagging SNPs located in *NLRP3* or *OR2B11*. These preliminary associations pointed to the 5.3-kb region near *NLRP3*, bounded by rs4353135 and rs10733113, as a candidate region contributing to Crohn's disease susceptibility.

In the second phase of the study, we examined the association of the above three SNPs with risk of Crohn's disease in additional samples. Overall, we screened one case-control cohort (Liège) and three familial sample sets (Liège, Québec and Toronto; see Methods and **Supplementary Methods**). We replicated our initial significant Crohn's disease associations with the major alleles of tagging SNPs rs4266924 and rs10733113 in all four sample sets ($P < 0.05$; **Fig. 1** and **Table 1**). For the Québec and Toronto cohorts, the observed associations

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remained whether the analysis was done with or without samples from individuals of Jewish ancestry (data not shown). Association with rs4353135 was replicated only in the Toronto sample set ($P < 0.05$; **Fig. 1** and **Table 1**). Combined analysis of all Crohn's disease samples revealed strong associations for rs4353135 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 8.36 \times 10^{-3}$, odds ratio = 1.21, confidence interval = 1.05–1.39, T allele frequency = 71% in cases and 65% in controls), rs4266924 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 6.01 \times 10^{-7}$, odds ratio = 1.69, confidence interval = 1.37–2.07, A allele frequency = 91% in cases and 84% in controls) and rs10733113 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 3.49 \times 10^{-9}$, odds ratio = 1.78, confidence interval = 1.47–2.16, G allele frequency = 90% in cases and 80% in controls).

This regional association was the first step in localizing the most likely causal variant(s). Because the observed association signal was not in linkage disequilibrium with any genotyped variant within *NLRP3*, we resequenced a 9-kb region extending from the *NLRP3* 3' UTR to the 5.3-kb region described above, inclusively, which also comprised

OR2B11 (**Supplementary Table 2** online). Overall, we selected 16 Crohn's disease samples and 8 controls based on genotypes at markers rs4266924 and rs10733113 to fully define the linkage disequilibrium within the region and identify all polymorphisms in linkage disequilibrium with the associated SNPs. The resequencing effort identified 79 SNPs, 8 of which were previously genotyped. Among these SNPs, 14 were novel compared to dbSNP release 129, and 60 had a minor allele frequency ≥ 0.05 (**Supplementary Table 3** online).

We next conducted comprehensive genotyping to identify polymorphisms with stronger associations (**Supplementary Methods**). We genotyped a total of 24 SNPs in the Leuven exploratory Crohn's disease trios (**Supplementary Table 3**) and analyzed 15 of them after they passed quality control tests (see Methods). None of the SNPs within *OR2B11* (**Supplementary Table 3**) were associated with Crohn's disease. The major alleles of three SNPs, spanning a 1.8-kb region bounded by rs4353135 and rs10733113, were associated

with Crohn's disease (**Fig. 1** and **Table 1**). According to the computational method ESPERR⁷, two of these SNPs (rs6672995 and rs55646866) are located in a predicted regulatory region. The third variant, ss107635144, was selected by the tagging algorithm⁸. These SNPs were in high linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 > 0.70$) with rs4266924 and rs10733113. None of these three SNPs were tags for the SNPs that were not genotyped in the region.

We subsequently screened these three variants in the other four sample sets, and their associations were consistently replicated (**Fig. 1** and **Table 1**). Combined analysis of all Crohn's disease samples revealed strong associations for rs55646866 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 7.2 \times 10^{-7}$, odds ratio = 1.69, confidence interval = 1.38–2.08, C allele frequency = 91% in cases and 84% in controls), rs6672995 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 2.91 \times 10^{-6}$, odds ratio = 1.53, confidence interval = 1.28–1.82, G allele frequency = 87% in cases and 79% in controls) and ss107635144 ($P_{\text{combined}} = 8.50 \times 10^{-6}$, odds ratio = 1.53, confidence interval = 1.27–1.84, C allele frequency = 88% in cases and 80% in controls).

Conditioning on one of these associated SNPs to evaluate the residual significance of the others did not provide evidence of additive effects of the associated SNPs on the risk. Rather, the association they all showed with Crohn's disease can be explained solely by linkage disequilibrium. To account for multiple testing issues, we note that if all 62 SNPs had been genotyped in the Leuven exploratory sample in the same study phase, then rs55646866 would have reached a significance level ($P = 5.72 \times 10^{-4}$) that, after correction using a permutation procedure, would have still been significant ($P_{\text{corrected}} = 0.019$, estimated from 5,000 replicates; see Methods). This result was further strengthened by the consistent replication of rs55646866 in all studied samples.

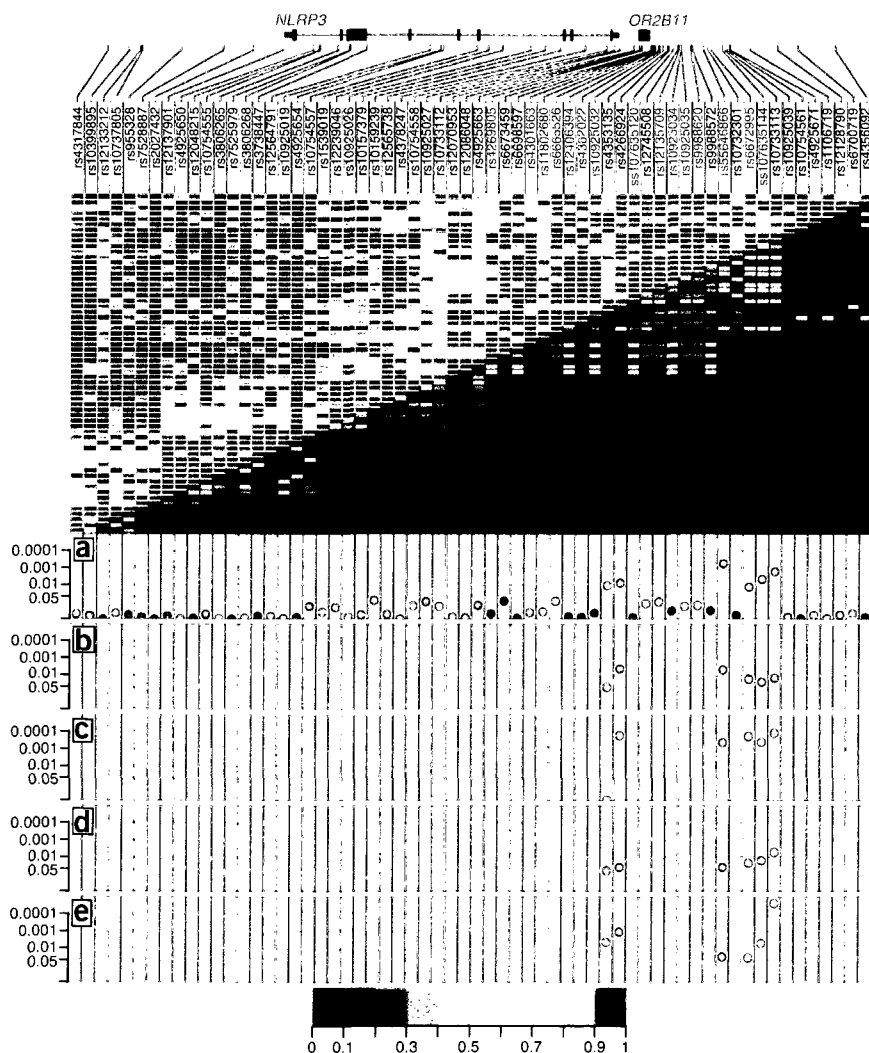


Figure 1 Association results for the five Crohn's disease sample sets. Top panel shows SNPs, their positions in the genes and the linkage disequilibrium structure between them. SNP names in red were genotyped in the second phase of the study, subsequent to the sequencing experiment. Middle panel shows D' in the upper left and r^2 in the lower right. (a–e) Lower panels show results from association analysis of Leuven trios (a), Liège trios (b), Liège case-control cohort (c), Québec trios (d) and Toronto trios (e). P values for individual alleles are reported in a logarithmic scale on the y axis. Color spectrum represents strength of linkage disequilibrium and frequency of the associated alleles.

We next evaluated associations between genotype and gene expression to determine whether the above SNP associations reflected *cis*-acting regulatory effects on *NLRP3*. We first assessed the influence of the six SNPs (Table 1) on *NLRP3* mRNA expression from freshly isolated peripheral blood cells (PBCs) and from monocytes isolated from the peripheral blood, as *NLRP3* is primarily expressed in granulocytes and monocytes⁹ (Supplementary Methods). A significant association was observed between *NLRP3* expression and rs4353135 genotypes in PBCs ($P = 0.00246$; Fig. 2a) and monocytes ($P = 0.0124$; Fig. 2b), with homozygosity for the risk allele being associated with the lowest level of *NLRP3* expression. Results for the

five other Crohn's disease-associated SNPs are shown in Supplementary Figure 1 and Table 4 online.

Because *NLRP3* is involved in IL-1 β processing, we therefore also evaluated whether these six SNPs influenced IL-1 β production. We cultured monocytes in the presence or absence of crude lipopolysaccharide (LPS; Supplementary Methods), as its derivatives have been shown to stimulate *NLRP3* expression¹⁰. We then assessed IL-1 β levels in culture supernatants. We observed a borderline-significant association between IL-1 β levels and rs6672995 genotype under the unstimulated condition ($P = 0.0502$; Fig. 2c) and a significant association under the LPS-stimulated condition ($P = 0.00591$; Fig. 2d). In both

Table 1 Replication studies and pooled analysis showing association between SNPs in the 5.3-kb region and risk of Crohn's disease

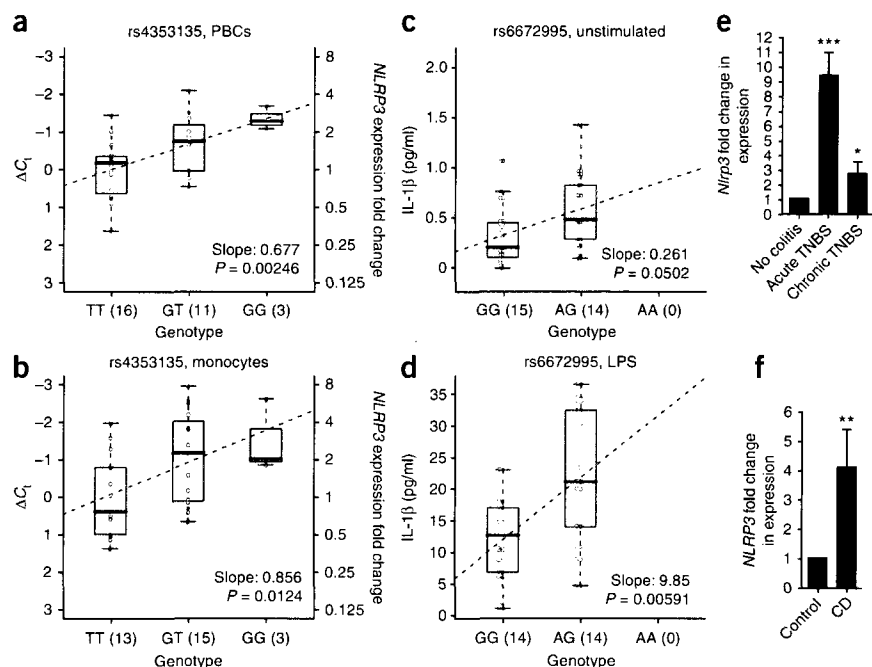
SNP	Associated allele	Control frequency ^a	Case frequency ^b	T:U ratio ^c	Control ratio ^d	Case ratio ^d	Odds ratio (95% CI) ^e	P value ^e
Leuven (296 trios)								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.65	0.73	118:82			1.44 (1.08–1.91)	0.0107
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.86	0.91	57:31			1.78 (1.14–2.79)	7.63×10^{-3}
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.86	0.93	57:26			2.19 (1.37–3.52)	5.72×10^{-4}
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.83	0.88	64:39			1.64 (1.09–2.48)	0.0133
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.84	0.91	64:36			1.78 (1.16–2.73)	4.82×10^{-3}
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.84	0.91	65:34			1.91 (1.24–2.95)	1.68×10^{-3}
Liège trios (155 trios)								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.62	0.73	33:20			1.65 (0.93–2.92)	0.0727
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.84	0.94	22:7			3.14 (1.36–7.26)	4.31×10^{-3}
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.85	0.95	20:6			3.33 (1.36–8.18)	4.80×10^{-3}
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.79	0.89	31:15			2.07 (1.11–3.84)	0.0171
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.80	0.90	27:13			2.08 (1.03–4.18)	0.0253
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.83	0.92	24:10			2.40 (1.16–4.96)	0.0148
Liège CC (239 Crohn's disease and 107 controls)								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.65	0.65		39:44:11	92:95:27	1.01 (0.71–1.46)	0.944
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.79	0.90		63:35:4	184:41:2	2.43 (1.53–3.85)	1.62×10^{-4}
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.80	0.91		66:32:4	191:38:3	2.33 (1.47–3.69)	4.32×10^{-4}
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.74	0.86		57:40:7	172:56:4	2.19 (1.46–3.30)	1.87×10^{-4}
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.75	0.86		57:38:7	165:56:3	2.13 (1.41–3.23)	3.94×10^{-4}
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.76	0.88		58:38:5	177:47:3	2.36 (1.52–3.65)	1.20×10^{-4}
Québec (130 trios)^h								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.67	0.73	68:48			1.42 (1.00–2.01)	0.0627
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.85	0.91	43:26			1.65 (1.02–2.70)	0.0400
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.84	0.90	43:26			1.65 (1.02–2.70)	0.0400
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.78	0.85	53:32			1.66 (1.09–2.52)	0.0220
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.80	0.88	49:28			1.75 (1.12–2.73)	0.0160
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.79	0.89	53:28			1.89 (1.19–3.00)	5.10×10^{-3}
Toronto (129 trios)ⁱ								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.62	0.74	63:35			1.80 (1.17–2.77)	4.40×10^{-3}
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.82	0.92	39:16			2.50 (1.44–4.35)	1.12×10^{-3}
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.83	0.90	36:20			1.80 (1.07–3.04)	0.0313
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.77	0.85	46:28			1.64 (1.05–2.56)	0.0355
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.78	0.88	46:23			2.00 (1.22–3.27)	5.18×10^{-3}
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.77	0.91	50:17			3.00 (1.76–5.10)	2.47×10^{-5}
Combined (710 trios, 239 Crohn's disease and 107 controls)^j								
rs4353135 ^f	T	0.65	0.71	282:185	39:44:11	92:95:27	1.21 (1.05–1.39)	8.36×10^{-3}
rs4266924 ^f	A	0.84	0.91	161:80	63:35:4	184:41:2	1.69 (1.37–2.07)	6.01×10^{-7}
rs55646866 ^g	C	0.84	0.91	156:78	66:32:4	191:38:3	1.69 (1.38–2.08)	7.20×10^{-7}
rs6672995 ^g	G	0.79	0.87	194:114	57:40:7	172:56:4	1.53 (1.28–1.82)	2.91×10^{-6}
ss107635144 ^g	C	0.80	0.88	186:100	57:38:7	165:56:3	1.53 (1.27–1.84)	8.50×10^{-6}
rs10733113 ^f	G	0.80	0.90	192:89	58:38:5	177:47:3	1.78 (1.47–2.16)	3.49×10^{-9}

^aEstimated from untransmitted alleles or unrelated controls. ^bEstimated from transmitted alleles or unrelated cases. ^cRatio of transmitted to untransmitted alleles from heterozygous parents. ^dGenotype distribution in cases and controls as x:y:z, where x = homozygous for the high-risk allele, y = heterozygous and z = homozygous for the second allele. ^eOdds ratios, confidence intervals (CI) and P values were computed from a likelihood test that assumes a multiplicative model for risk, as implemented in UNPHASED²⁸ (see Methods). Allele association was evaluated in the case-control cohort. All tests were two tailed. ^fSNPs associated with Crohn's disease in exploratory phase. ^gSNPs associated with Crohn's disease in second genotyping phase. ^hIncludes 27 Crohn's disease trios of Jewish ancestry. ⁱIncludes 26 Crohn's disease trios of Jewish ancestry. ^jIncludes 53 Crohn's disease trios of Jewish ancestry.

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Figure 2 *NLRP3* functional study results.

(a,b) Linear regression analysis of *NLRP3* mRNA level versus rs4353135 genotype in DNA-RNA matched freshly isolated PBCs (a; $n = 30$) and monocytes (b; $n = 31$) obtained from healthy individuals. Genotypes of the six Crohn's disease (CD)-associated SNPs (Table 1) were obtained by sequencing. Mean threshold cycle (C_t) was calculated for each sample from three replicates and then used to calculate relative expression level (ΔC_t), which is the difference between *NLRP3* C_t and endogenous control 18S RNA C_t . Fold change in *NLRP3* expression was calculated using comparative C_t method (see Methods), using as a reference the average ΔC_t of homozygosity for the risk allele. (c,d) Linear regression analysis of IL-1 β production (pg/ml) versus rs6672995 genotype for unstimulated (c) and LPS-stimulated (d; 1.0 μ g/ml) conditions after 3 h of incubation. ΔC_t (a,b) and IL-1 β level (c,d) for each individual are shown in red; regression lines are shown as dashed lines (a-d). (e) Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of *Nlrp3* expression in colons of healthy mice ($n = 6$), mice with acute TNBS-induced colitis ($n = 12$) and mice with chronic TNBS-induced colitis ($n = 6$). (f) Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of *NLRP3* expression in colon specimens from healthy individuals ($n = 35$) and individuals with Crohn's disease ($n = 25$). Expression was normalized to 18S RNA expression; each bar represents mean fold change in *NLRP3* expression $\pm$ s.e.m. normalized to that of healthy colon specimens (e,f).



cases, homozygosity for the risk allele was associated with the lowest level of IL-1 β . Results for the five other Crohn's disease-associated SNPs are shown in **Supplementary Figure 2** and **Table 5** online.

We also examined *Nlrp3* expression in colon tissues isolated from mice with trinitrobenzene sulfonic acid (TNBS)-induced colitis, a model that mimics Crohn's disease-like intestinal inflammation, and in biopsies from individuals with Crohn's disease. *Nlrp3* expression was significantly higher in both acute (fold change = 9.38 ± 1.58 ; $P < 0.0009$) and chronic (fold change = 2.70 ± 0.88 ; $P < 0.0152$) TNBS-induced colitis models than in colon tissues from control mice (**Fig. 2e**; see Methods and **Supplementary Methods**). *NLRP3* expression was also significantly higher in the ulcerated intestinal mucosa from human Crohn's disease samples (fold change = 4.08 ± 1.33 ; $P < 0.0028$) than in healthy controls (**Fig. 2f**; see Methods and **Supplementary Methods**).

NLRP3 (chromosome 1q44) encodes cryopyrin, which is involved in the inflammasome signaling platform by regulating caspase-1 activity and IL-1 β processing. The importance of cryopyrin in inflammation is highlighted by gain-of-function mutations within its NOD domain that are associated with three hereditary periodic fever syndromes: Muckle-Wells syndrome, familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome and neonatal-onset multisystem inflammatory disease^{1,2}. Hyperproduction of IL-1 β is thought to be a central event leading to symptoms in these three syndromes¹. Consistent with these observations is the successful use of IL-1 β targeted therapy for treating Muckle-Wells syndrome¹¹ and familial cold autoinflammatory syndrome¹².

In our study, contrary to the gain-of-function mutations described above leading to hyperproduction of IL-1 β , we uncovered a regulatory region downstream of *NLRP3* that contributes to Crohn's disease susceptibility and is associated with hypoproduction of IL-1 β and decreased *NLRP3* expression. Indeed, the risk allele of rs6672995, located in a predicted regulatory region⁷, was associated with a

decrease in LPS-induced IL-1 β production, and the risk allele of rs4353135 was associated with a decrease in baseline *NLRP3* expression in two independent sample sets of healthy donors. It is noteworthy that these two SNPs were in weak linkage disequilibrium ($r^2 < 0.105$) in our combined sample set. Although the causal variant has not been conclusively shown and may still be unidentified, it is most likely to be in linkage disequilibrium with the tested variants. Nonetheless, we have shown that SNPs in the associated 5.3-kb region influence *NLRP3* at both the gene expression and functional levels, as indicated by altered *NLRP3* expression and IL-1 β production. Notably, dysregulated IL-1 β production has also been linked to Crohn's disease pathogenesis in which the three major *NOD2* (chromosome 16q12) mutations result in a loss-of-function phenotype, with decreased NF- κ B activation in response to muramyl dipeptide stimulation and decreased IL-1 β production in primary human mononuclear and dendritic cells from individuals with Crohn's disease^{13–16}. Our results further support the recent Crohn's disease immunopathogenesis paradigm, which suggests that a defective innate immune response impairs clearance of luminal antigens and/or pathogens and leads to the development of chronic intestinal inflammation and Crohn's disease. *NLRP3* may thus have a role in the initiation phase of the disease, as indicated by our *in vitro* and expression experiments, as well as a role in perpetuating chronic inflammation through further activation of caspase-1 and processing of IL-1 β , as indicated by the enhanced *NLRP3* expression in the Crohn's disease and chronic TNBS-induced colitis samples.

The *NLRP3* locus can be added to the list of several newly uncovered Crohn's disease loci at which the common allele has been reported to be the risk allele^{17–22}. Although it is difficult to strictly distinguish between one allele being a susceptibility risk factor and the other being a protective one, estimating attributable fractions and prevented fractions in addition to odds ratios offers insight into how to interpret these associations with very common risk factors in the

context of complex diseases. If the SNPs with the strongest associations from **Table 1** are interpreted as risk factors, then the attributable fractions (that is, the reduction in prevalence if the risk factor were removed from the population) of the alleles fall in the range of 45–55%. These proportions of ‘cases explained’ (all other factors being ignored) are large, but not surprisingly so, as most members of the population are carriers of the risk factors. Conversely, if the minor alleles are interpreted as protective factors, then their prevented fractions (that is, the proportion by which the prevalence would increase if the protective factor were removed from the population) fall in the range of 10–14%, a range easier to interpret in the context of complex genetic diseases.

Several recent genome-wide association studies have identified new Crohn’s disease susceptibility genes using the Illumina HumanHap300 Genotyping BeadChip^{17–19} and the Affymetrix GeneChip Human Mapping 500K Array Set²¹. Although rs4353135 is present on the Human Mapping 500K Array Set, this SNP showed the weakest significance of all six SNPs from **Table 1**, was the only one not consistently replicated across all samples and was in weak linkage disequilibrium with the other SNPs (max $r^2 = 0.28$). **Supplementary Table 6** online shows the linkage disequilibrium between SNPs on the Illumina HumanHap300 and the Affymetrix GeneChip Human Mapping 500K arrays that were not genotyped in the present study and the SNPs from **Table 1** found in HapMap. With a maximum r^2 of only 0.16, these observations may explain why this region escaped detection in these genome-wide association studies.

A recent meta-analysis of three large genome-wide association studies of Crohn’s disease reported that well-established associations with Crohn’s disease account for ~20% of the genetic variance observed in Crohn’s disease, suggesting that additional genetic contributions have yet to be discovered²². With the exception of variations within *NOD2* and *IL23R*, established susceptibility alleles have been reported to have relatively modest effects, with odds ratios ranging from 0.7 to 1.7 (ref. 22). Despite the modest contribution of *NLRP3* to the risk of Crohn’s disease, our results strongly implicate *NLRP3*, a gene with an essential role in regulating the inflammasome, as a risk factor for Crohn’s disease. Our results also suggest that a gene such as *NLRP3* that is associated with rare, severe autoinflammatory disorders can also be implicated in the susceptibility of more common inflammatory diseases such as Crohn’s disease.

METHODS

Subjects. Five sample sets from four different centers, totaling 710 Crohn’s disease trios, 239 Crohn’s disease cases and 107 controls, were assembled for this project (**Table 1**). All participants gave informed consent, and studies were approved by the Institutional Review Board of each institution that sent samples. A clinical subtype of Crohn’s disease was assigned using standard clinical criteria^{23,24}, except for a few ‘indeterminate colitis’ cases that were excluded from the study (**Supplementary Methods**). Belgian subjects from Leuven University Hospital Gasthuisberg (Leuven) were used for the exploratory experiments ($n = 296$ trios). The replication cohorts consisted of Belgian subjects from Université de Liège and of two Canadian cohorts (Québec and Toronto). Samples from Liège were subdivided into a family-based cohort (155 Liège trios) and a case-control cohort (Liège case-control, 239 Crohn’s disease and 107 controls). The Québec cohort ($n = 130$ trios) comprised subjects from multiple sites in the province of Québec and included 22 probands of Ashkenazi and 5 of Sephardic Jewish ancestry. The Toronto samples ($n = 129$ trios) were collected from multiple sites in Toronto and included 26 probands of Ashkenazi Jewish ancestry. All study participants were of European descent except for 15 probands from Toronto that were excluded from the analyses.

Genotyping. We first investigated a 67.8-kb region spanning 1q44 (243890897–243958709; NCBI build 35, hg17), including *NLRP3* (32.9 kb). SNP selection

details are given in **Supplementary Methods**. Samples were genotyped using the SNPstream ultra-high-throughput genotyping system (Orchid Biosciences)²⁵ and Sequenom homogenous MassExtend (hME) assays (matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry)²⁶. Primers and probes are available in **Supplementary Table 1**. Analysis was restricted to SNPs passing quality filters, excluding SNPs with success rate < 95%, minor allele frequency < 5% or deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium ($P < 0.01$). Measures of linkage disequilibrium between SNPs and departures from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium were computed using Haploview v4.0 (ref. 27). Families showing mendelian errors in 5% or more of the markers were excluded from the analysis (25 Crohn’s disease families).

Sequencing. Primers were designed to have a T_m of 60 °C using the Primer3 program (**Supplementary Table 2**). PCR reactions were done using Hot Start Taq polymerase (Qiagen) in an 8- μ l final volume comprising 9 ng of DNA (one cycle of 96 °C for 10 min; 40 cycles of 95 °C for 30 s, 58 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 35 s; and one cycle of 72 °C for 7 min). Sequencing was done on an ABI 3730 DNA sequencer (Applied Biosystems) according to standard protocols. Sequence traces were assembled and analyzed using the PolyPhred software package and were compared to annotated sequences from NCBI build 35, hg17.

Statistical analysis. Tests of association were done using the likelihood methods implemented in UNPHASED v3.0.10 (ref. 28), which can analyze samples of nuclear families, unrelated subjects or a combination of both. For nuclear families (cases and their parents), the likelihood is equivalent to the conditional likelihood models on which the transmission disequilibrium test is based²⁹. For samples of unrelated cases and controls, the likelihood is equivalent to a logistic model, which allows estimations of risk effects in terms of odds ratios along with their confidence intervals. It also allows conditioning on the observed association at one marker, to test whether or not the observed significance at others can solely be explained by linkage disequilibrium. A permutation procedure is implemented to allow the calculation of significance levels that are corrected for the number of tests. Attributable and prevented fractions were calculated under the assumption that alleles had additive effects on the penetrance scale, that odds ratios from **Table 1** are good approximations for the relative risks and that allele frequencies in the controls are reasonable estimates of population frequencies.

RNA extraction and quantitative real-time PCR. Details on tissue collection and monocyte isolation are given in **Supplementary Methods**. Biopsies preserved in RNAlater (Qiagen) were homogenized, and total RNA was extracted using TRIzol (Invitrogen). Total RNA was extracted from monocytes using an RNeasy kit (Qiagen). Total RNA was extracted from PBCs using a PAXgene blood RNA kit (Qiagen) with RNase inhibitor, using off-column DNase I digestion and ethanol precipitation to improve RNA yield and quality. First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 1 μ g of RNA template with a cDNA archive kit (Applied Biosystems), using MultiScribe reverse transcriptase and random primers. Quantitative real-time PCR assays (mouse *Nlrp3*, Mm00840904_m1; human *NLRP3*, Hs00918082_m1; 18S RNA, 4319413E; Applied Biosystems) were conducted using an ABI PRISM 7900 sequence detection system based on the 5’ nuclease assay³⁰ and quantified using Applied Biosystems’ comparative threshold cycle (C_t) method. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to evaluate tissue (mouse and human) expression differences. Associations between *NLRP3* expression or IL-1 β level and the genotypes of the Crohn’s disease-associated SNPs were assessed using linear regression. Analyses were done using GraphPad Software.

DNA extraction. Monocyte DNA was isolated from whole blood using a FlexiGene DNA kit (Qiagen). PBC DNA was isolated using a Gentra Autopure automated system (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. IL-1 β was quantified in monocyte culture supernatants using a human IL-1 β DuoSet ELISA kit (R&D Systems) according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

URLs. ESPERR software, <http://www.bx.psu.edu/projects/esperr>.

Accession codes. GenBank: *NLRP3*, AF054176; *OR2B11*, NM_001004492. OMIM: *NLRP3*, 606416; *OR2B11*, 605956. SNP data have been submitted to

NCBI dbSNP under the numbers ss107635120, ss107635122, ss107635124, ss107635126, ss107635128, ss107635130, ss107635132, ss107635133, ss107635136, ss107635138, ss107635140, ss107635142, ss107635144, ss107635146.

Note: Supplementary information is available on the Nature Genetics website.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.-C.V., G.F. and D.F. conceived and designed the experiments. A.-C.V., G.F., C.C. and N.B. did the experiments. A.-C.V. and M.L. analyzed the data. E.L., M.S.S., C.L., J.B., A.B., D.G., A.C., D.L., P.R.F., J.E.W., M.S., P.R., J.D.R., S.V., T.J.H. and D.F. provided study samples. A.-C.V., M.L. and D.F. wrote the paper, with contributions from all authors.

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