Prostate Cancer

Reliability of Ancestry-specific Prostate Cancer Genetic Risk Score in Four Racial and Ethnic Populations

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Abstract

Background: Reliability of prostate cancer (PCa) genetic risk score (GRS), that is, the concordance between its estimated risk and observed risk, is required for genetic testing at the individual level. Reliability data are lacking for non-European racial/ethnic populations, which hinders its clinical use and exacerbates racial disparity.

Objective: To calibrate PCa ancestry-specific GRS in four racial/ethnic populations.

Design, setting, and participants: PCa ancestry-specific GRSs, calculated from published risk-associated single-nucleotide polymorphisms in corresponding racial/ethnic populations, were evaluated in men who participated in 23andMe, Inc. genetic testing and consented for research, including 888,086 of European (EUR), 81,109 of Hispanic (HIS), 30,472 of African (AFR), and 13,985 of East Asian (EAS) ancestries, as classified by 23andMe’s ancestry composition algorithm.

Outcome measurements and statistical analysis: The concordance between the observed and estimated PCa risks at ten ancestry-specific GRS deciles was measured primarily by using the calibration slope ($b$), where 1 represents a perfect calibration. Platt scaling was used to correct the systematic bias of GRS.

Results and limitations: A linear trend of an increased observed PCa prevalence in men with higher ancestry-specific GRS deciles was found in each racial population ($p_{\text{trend}} < 0.001$). A calibration analysis revealed a systematic bias of GRS: $b$ was considerably lower than 1 (0.73, 0.64, 0.66, and 0.75 in EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS ancestries, respectively). This bias was reduced after the Platt scaling correction: $b$ for scaled GRS in the testing dataset (40% of individuals) approximated 1 for all groups (0.95, 1.05, 1.02, and 1.01 in EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS populations, respectively). The generalizability of the Platt correction needs to be validated in independent cohorts.

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1. Introduction

Prostate cancer (PCa) is a major public health concern; in the USA, the lifetime risks of developing and dying of PCa are approximately 11% and 2.5%, respectively [1,2]. While prostate-specific antigen (PSA)-based screening programs reduce PCa mortality by ~20% [3], these also lead to over-diagnosis and overtreatment of PCa [4]. Accordingly, risk-based PSA screening is recommended by several guidelines [5,6]. In addition to the well-established risk factors of a family history of cancer and African (AFR) ancestry, the National Comprehensive Cancer Network guidelines also recommend germline testing of ten major genes. However, pathogenic germline mutations in these major genes are rare, detected in ~2% of the general population [7].

In contrast, >269 independent risk-associated single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been identified from multiple genome-wide association studies (GWASs) since 2007 [8]. The cumulative effect of these SNPs, measured by polygenic risk score methods, complements risk assessment of family history and major genes [8–15]. For example, in a study comparing three inherited risk measures in a PCa incidence cohort from a population-based UK Biobank (UKB), combination of family history and germline mutations in major genes (BRCA2, HOXB13, and ATM) identified 11% of men at a higher inherited PCa risk. Addition of a polygenic risk score identified an additional 15% of men at a higher PCa risk, and their observed PCa incidence and mortality rates were similar to men with a family history and germline mutations of major genes [12].

Despite the consistent results from large research populations, polygenic risk score testing has not been adopted by guidelines for risk stratification at the individual patient level [5,6]. Several outstanding challenges are generally cited [16], including (1) a lack of supporting data from prospective studies, (2) reliability of their risk estimates, and (3) generalizability in non-European racial/ethnic populations [17]. The first challenge was recently addressed in a large PCa prospective cohort from the UKB [12,18]. The reliability of a polygenic risk score, that is, the concordance between the estimated and observed risks, was also demonstrated in the UKB [12]. The top 10% of men in the UKB have a mean estimated risk of 2.29 for PCa, corroborated by their observed PCa risk of 2.43.

However, the reliability of a genetic risk score (GRS) in non-European racial/ethnic populations was not assessed in the above UKB study (because ~96% are of European [EUR] ancestry) [18] and in other studies. Several recent transancestry studies demonstrated the performance of a cross-ancestry polygenic risk score in multiple racial/ethnic populations (EUR, AFR, East Asian [EAS], Hispanic [HIS], and South Asian) [8,19,20]. However, these studies demonstrated only the validity of polygenic risk score percentile at a population level (ie, higher percentiles and higher risks), not the validity of risk estimate (ie, concordance between the estimated and observed risks). The latter is required for calculating an individual’s relative and lifetime risk. A lack of reliability data of polygenic risk scores in non-European populations hinders the broad implementation of polygenic risk scores in genetic testing and further exacerbates the racial/ethnic disparity in PCa screening [16,17]. This disparity is particularly prominent for men of AFR ancestry who are at the highest risk of developing and dying from PCa [21].

The objective of the current study is to assess the reliability of an ancestry-specific GRS in a large number of individuals from four racial/ethnic populations, including EUR and three non-European (AFR, HIS, and EAS) populations.

2. Patients and methods

2.1. Study population

Individuals included in this study are male consumers of 23andMe, Inc., a direct-to-consumer genetics company, who were genotyped as part of the 23andMe Personal Genome Service and provided informed consent to allow their aggregate and deidentified data to be used for research. The protocol was reviewed and approved by Ethical & Independent Review Services, a private institutional review board (http://www. eandireview.com). PCa case and control status was self-reported from an online survey. Owing to the late age of diagnosis of PCa, only men aged ≥50 yr were included in the analysis.

DNA samples were genotyped using several customized Illumina SNP arrays, and imputed using the Minimac3 software package (version 1.0.13) [22]. Individuals of EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS ancestries, determined using 23andMe’s ancestry composition algorithm [23], were included in this study. The numbers of EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS men were 888 086, 81 109, 30 472, and 13 985, respectively (Table 1). A principal component analysis was performed independently for each ancestry, using ~65 000 high-quality genotyped variants, to measure genetic architecture of the participants.

2.2. Ancestry-specific GRS

The ancestry-specific PCa GRS was calculated based on PCa risk-associated SNPs in the four populations. These SNPs were identified from an evidence-based review of published GWASs that met the following criteria: (1) discovered from PCa GWASs and confirmed in additional stages.
with combined \( p < 5 \times 10^{-8} \) in at least one racial/ethnic population, (2) \( p < 0.05 \) in a racial population and with the same direction of association as GWASs, (3) linkage disequilibrium (LD) measurement \( (r^2 < 0.2) \) between any pair of SNPs within each population, and (4) available in our study (genotyped or imputed). The numbers of risk-associated SNPs and odds ratio (OR) used for calculating ancestry-specific GRSs were 232, 138, 128, and 67 for EUR, EAS, AFR, and HIS populations, respectively (Supplementary Tables 1–4).

A GRS was calculated by multiplying the per-allele OR for each SNP and normalizing the risk by the average risk expected in the population of specific races [24]. As the GRS is population standardized, its value can be considered as an individual’s relative risk (RR) compared with the general population.

### 2.3. Statistical methods

The association of an ancestry-specific GRS with PCa risk was first tested by comparing the mean GRS value between cases and controls in each population using a logistic regression analysis with or without adjusting for age and the ten principal components. Furthermore, a dose-response association between higher GRS deciles and a higher observed PCa prevalence in each population was tested using a chi-square test for linear trend.

The reliability of an ancestry-specific GRS value (ie, estimated risk) was assessed by its concordance with the observed risk in individuals at each decile, measured by their RR to all individuals in each population. A calibration slope \( (b) \) was estimated from the regression line of the ten data points of deciles, with \( b = 1.00 \) representing perfect calibration [24]. In addition, a bias score (the mean absolute difference between the estimated and observed risks in ten deciles) was also estimated to measure the difference between the two risks. A bias score of 0 represents a perfect calibration [24].

Platt scaling was used to correct a systematic bias of a GRS [18,24–26]. Briefly, in each population, a logistic regression between a logarithm GRS and PCa status was performed in the training dataset (60% of randomly selected patients). The regression coefficient and intercept were then used to calculate scaled GRS values for patients in the testing dataset (the remaining 40% of participants from each cohort). The key characteristics were similar between the participants in the training and testing datasets (Supplementary Table 5).

### 2.4. Procedure

This project is a collaboration between NorthShore University HealthSystem (NorthShore) and 23andMe. Based on the considerations of (1) consent form (23andMe can share only aggregate and deidentified data) and (2) objectivity of an ancestry-specific GRS, we developed an unbiased approach for executing the project. The NorthShore team provided the method for calculating an ancestry-specific GRS to the 23andMe team, including GRS formula, ancestry-specific risk-associated SNPs, and their OR and allele frequency in each population. The 23andMe team calculated the ancestry-specific GRS for each individual and provided the aggregated results to NorthShore.

### 3. Results

The prevalence of PCa, age at diagnosis, and mean GRS by race/ethnicity are presented in Table 1. The PCa prevalence was highest in AFR (7.44%) population, followed by EUR (5.99%), HIS (3.82%), and EAS (2.18%) populations. The mean age at PCa diagnosis (years) was lowest in AFR (60) population, followed by HIS (62), EUR (63), and EAS (65) populations. The mean ancestry-specific GRSs were 0.98, 0.93, 0.92, and 0.85 in EUR, HIS, AFR, and HIS populations, respectively.

The ancestry-specific GRS in each population was significantly associated with PCa risk; the mean GRS was significantly higher in men with than in those without PCa in each population, all \( p < 0.001 \) (Table 2). A higher GRS was significantly associated with an increased PCa risk in each population, with or without adjusting for age and top ten principal components in each population; OR ranged from 1.34 to 1.50 (all \( p < 0.001 \)).

Furthermore, a dose-response association was found between higher ancestry-specific GRS deciles and the higher observed PCa prevalence; the linear trend was statistically significant in each population (all \( p_{\text{trend}} < 0.001 \); Fig. 1). PCa prevalence was highest for AFR among all racial/ethnic populations in each decile.

When assessing the concordance between the estimated PCa risk from the ancestry-specific GRS (mean GRS) and the observed RR for PCa in each decile using a calibration analysis, a systematic bias across the ten deciles was found in each population; \( \beta \) was considerably lower than 1 (0.73, 0.64, 0.66, and 0.75 in EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS populations, respectively; Fig. 2A–D). The systematic bias was primarily driven by a considerably overestimated risk for men in the highest GRS decile and an underestimated risk for men in the lowest GRS decile. In AFR, for example, the mean GRS for men in the highest decile was 3.05, considerably higher than their observed RR of 2.42. In contrast, the mean GRS for men in the lowest decile was 0.14, considerably lower than their observed RR of 0.34. In addition, the bias scores were substantially higher than 0: 0.19, 0.23, 0.31, and 0.24 in EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS populations, respectively.

The bias was reduced noticeably after the Platt scaling correction (Supplementary Table 6). In the testing dataset, the \( \beta \) values for the scaled GRS were 0.95, 1.05, 1.02, and 1.01 in EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS populations, respectively.
The bias scores were also greatly reduced to 0.03, 0.06, 0.05, and 0.11 in EUR, HIS, AFR, and EAS populations, respectively.

4. Discussion

While the reliability of risk estimates from polygenic risk scores has consistently been demonstrated in EUR ancestry, including a large population-based cohort from the UKB and a clinical trial population REDUCE (REduction by DUtasteride of prostate Cancer Events) [18,26], it has not been assessed in non-European populations. This inequality poses one of the most important ethical and scientific challenges surrounding the routine implementation of polygenic risk scores into the clinic [16]. There is a major concern that current EUR-centric polygenic risk scores may exacerbate health disparities [17].

Using the large 23andMe cohort with >125,000 individuals from AFR, HIS, and EAS ancestries, we are able, for the first time, to assess the validity of an ancestry-specific PCA GRS in non-European racial/ethnic populations. Similar to the previous results from studies with individuals of EUR ancestry [18,26], a systematic bias in the direction of an overestimated risk for men in the highest decile of an uncorrected GRS was also detected in non-European populations, but a scaled GRS was well calibrated. The estimated risk from the scaled GRS was corroborated by the observed PCA risk ($\beta$ approximated to 1 and bias score approximated to 0 in each population). Results from this study provide the data required to support the clinical implementation of a GRS at an individual level for both non-European and EUR populations.

The necessity for establishing the reliability of risk estimates from polygenic risk scores is underappreciated. Most published studies report only the validity of percentiles from polygenic risk scores, such as a dose-response association between higher score percentiles and a higher PCA risk [8,17,27]. However, validity of percentile alone is insufficient to support its clinical use because percentile provides only disease risk ranking of an individual in a population but does not quantify the specific disease risk of an individual. Quantification of disease risk is needed in the clinical setting to estimate an individual’s RR and lifetime risk (calculated based on an individual’s RR and population-level incidence and mortality). Therefore, a clinically useful polygenic risk score should provide risk estimates for test individuals. Furthermore, it is important to ensure the
accuracy of risk estimates reported to individuals from genetic testing. Results from our study suggest that an uncorrected GRS may be inaccurate, especially for those with the highest and lowest estimated risks. For example, an uncorrected GRS would considerably overestimate PCa for AFR men at top decile (mean RR of 3.05, with derived lifetime risk of 67% by age 85 yr). After the Platt scaling correction, their risk (mean RR of 2.37, with derived lifetime risk of 52% by age 85 yr) is more consistent with the observed risk of 2.42.

Multiple polygenic risk score methods have been reported, including those based on established GWAS-significant SNPs (eg, OR-weighted polygenic risk score, OR-weighted and population-standardized GRS, and polygenic hazard scores based on a survival analysis model to predict the time to age onset of PCa [28,29]), as well as millions of SNPs in the genome pruning and thresholding (P + T) and Bayesian genomic prediction methods (LDpred) [16,26,27,30,31]. The performance of these methods for discriminating cases and controls, as measured by the area under the curve (AUC), is similar in PCa and other common diseases [26,32]. For example, the AUCs for differentiating PCa cases and controls in the REDUCE trial were 0.62, 0.62, and 0.60, respectively, for GRS (110 SNPs), P + T (397 SNPs), and LDpred (3 023 543 SNPs) [26]. The interpretation of score values, however, differs among various polygenic risk score methods. The score values of polygenic risk scores, P + T, and LDpred are difficult to interpret directly and can change with the evolving numbers of SNPs used in the calculation. In contrast, values of population-standardized GRSs can be interpreted as RR to the general population regardless of the number of SNPs used in the calculation [24]. For example, a GRS of 1.5 will always mean a 1.5-fold risk increase relative to the population. The simplicity in interpreting GRS values makes it easier for clinical implementation.

The unique RR property of a GRS value also makes it possible to directly compare the concordance between the
expected risk (ie, GRS value itself, without the need for fitting a regression model) and the observed risk using a calibration method. This differs from commonly used calibration approaches where the expected risk is first derived from fitting a logistic regression model and then its concordance with the observed risk of individuals in percentile groups (eg, deciles) is assessed using the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness of fit test. This commonly used approach is susceptible to overfitting because the observed data are used two times (fitting regression model for estimating the expected risk and calibration between the expected and observed risks) [33].

While the calibration $\beta$ of the scaled GRS in non-European racial/ethnic populations (1.01–1.05) was similar to that of EUR population (0.95), it is noted that the bias score in these populations (0.05–0.11) was slightly higher than that of EUR population (0.03). Furthermore, compared with the mean GRS in EUR population (0.98), the mean GRS in non-European racial/ethnic populations was substantially lower than 1 (0.85–0.93), especially in AFR population (0.85). These results suggest that a systematic bias of the scaled GRS in non-European populations is modest and similar to that of EUR population, but the accuracy of risk estimate in these populations needs to be improved further. A combination of several factors may contribute to the relatively weaker performance in non-European populations, including (1) fewer ancestry-specific risk-associated SNPs (67–138 SNPs) than that of EUR population (232 SNPs), (2) smaller sample sizes (81 109, 30 472, and 13 985 in HIS, AFR, and EAS populations, respectively) than that of EUR population (888 086), and (3) a more heterogeneous genetic background. Additional studies in non-European populations are needed urgently.

Additional limitations are noted. First, PCA status of the participants of this study was self-reported from an online survey and was not validated. This may affect the accuracy of PCA diagnosis. However, the reliability of self-reported diagnoses in the 23andMe cohort has been evaluated sys-

Fig. 3 – Calibration plots between observed relative risk for PCA and estimated risk (mean GRS) of each scaled ancestry-specific PCA GRS decile in the testing dataset (40% participants) for (A) European, (B) African, (C) Hispanic, and (D) East Asian ancestries. AFR = African; EAS = East Asian; EUR = European; GRS = genetic risk score; HIS = Hispanic; PCA = prostate cancer.
tematically and demonstrated for multiple diseases, including PCa [34]. Second, the mean age of the participants in this study was relatively young and affects the penetrance and detection of PCa. This limitation may also contribute to an overestimated risk of an uncorrected GRS. Third, a lack of detailed clinicopathological variables in study participants prevents an in-depth analysis between a GRS and the aggressiveness of PCa. Such analyses may be performed in hospital-based studies. Fourth, the performance of the scaled GRS in the testing dataset of our study may be overfitted because individuals of the testing dataset were from the same cohort as the training dataset. In particular, the correction factor may be specific to the 23andMe cohort (prevalent cases, self-reported diagnoses, and relatively young age). To assess the generalizability of the Platt scaling estimates from the 23andMe cohort (training datasets), we applied the ancestry-specific scaling correction factors derived from the 23andMe cohort to the uncorrected GRS in the UKB, a population-based cohort in which the unaffected men were followed up for \( \sim 12 \) yr for incident PCa. The calibration \( \beta \) improved from the uncorrected GRS (0.81 and 0.64, respectively, in Whites and Blacks) to \( \sim 1 \) for the scaled GRS (1.04 and 0.97, respectively, in Whites and Blacks). Further evaluation of the generalizability for our ancestry-specific GRS in additional large non-European populations is needed. Finally, we recognized that many factors contribute to PCa risk in populations and therefore impact GRS calibration and generalizability. While genetic factors can be controlled partially using ancestry genetic structure derived from SNPs [28], other factors, such as environmental and lifestyle factors, cancer screening practice, and access of health care, are difficult to measure and control. Caution should be exercised when implementing the calibrated GRS.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, the scaled ancestry-specific GRS in three non-European racial/ethnic populations was well calibrated (comparable with that in EUR population) and appropriate for genetic testing at the individual level for personalized PCa screening. However, more studies are needed to further improve the reliability of risk estimates in non-European populations.

Author contributions: Jianfeng Xu had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: Xu, Koelsch.
Acquisition of data: Xu.
Analysis and interpretation of data: Shi, Zhan, Wei, Wang.
Drafting of the manuscript: Xu. Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Shi, Zhan, Wei, Ladson-Gary, Wang, Hulick, Zheng, Cooney, Isaacs, Helfand, 23andMe Research Team, Koelsch.
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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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