Evaluating causal associations between previously reported risk factors and epithelial ovarian cancer: a Mendelian randomization analysis

Short title: Causal appraisal of reported risk factors in epithelial ovarian cancer

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Abstract

Background

Various modifiable risk factors have been associated with epithelial ovarian cancer risk in

observational epidemiological studies. However, the causal nature of the risk factors reported,

and thus their suitability as effective intervention targets, is unclear given the susceptibility of

conventional observational designs to residual confounding and reverse causation. Mendelian

randomization uses genetic variants as proxies for modifiable risk factors to strengthen causal

inference in observational studies. We used Mendelian randomization to evaluate the causal

role of 13 previously reported risk factors (reproductive, anthropometric, clinical, lifestyle,

and molecular factors) in overall and histotype-specific epithelial ovarian cancer in up to

25,509 case subjects and 40,941 controls in the Ovarian Cancer Association Consortium.

Methods and Findings

Genetic instruments to proxy 13 risk factors were constructed by identifying single nucleotide

polymorphisms (SNPs) robustly *(P<5×10^{-8})* and independently associated with each

respective risk factor in previously reported genome-wide association studies. SNPs were

combined into multi-allelic inverse-variance weighted fixed or random-effects models to

generate causal estimates. Three complementary sensitivity analyses were performed to

examine violations of Mendelian randomization assumptions: MR-Egger regression and

weighted median and mode estimators. A Bonferroni-corrected *P*-value threshold was used to

establish "strong evidence" (*P*<0.0038) and "suggestive evidence" (0.0038<*P*<0.05) for

associations.

In Mendelian randomization analyses, there was strong or suggestive evidence that 9 of 13

risk factors had a causal effect on overall or histotype-specific epithelial ovarian cancer.

There was strong evidence that genetic liability to endometriosis increased risk of epithelial

ovarian cancer (OR per log odds higher liability:1.27, 95% CI: 1.16-1.40; P=6.94x10^{-7}) and

suggestive evidence that lifetime smoking exposure increased risk of epithelial ovarian

cancer (OR per unit increase in smoking score:1.36, 95% CI: 1.04-1.78; P=0.02). In

histotype-stratified analyses, the strongest associations found were between: height and clear

cell carcinoma (OR per SD increase:1.36, 95% CI: 1.15-1.61; P=0.0003); age at natural

menopause and endometrioid carcinoma (OR per year later onset:1.09, 95% CI: 1.02-1.16;

P=0.007); and genetic liability to polycystic ovary syndrome and endometrioid carcinoma

(OR per log odds higher liability:0.74, 95% CI :0.62-0.90; P=0.002). There was little

evidence for an effect of genetic liability to type 2 diabetes, parity, or circulating levels of 25-

hydroxyvitamin D and sex hormone-binding globulin on ovarian cancer or its subtypes. The

primary limitations of this analysis include: modest statistical power for analyses of risk

factors in relation to some less common ovarian cancer histotypes (low grade serous,

mucinous, and clear cell carcinomas), the inability to directly examine the causal effects of

some ovarian cancer risk factors that did not have robust genetic variants available to serve as

proxies (e.g., oral contraceptives, hormone replacement therapy), and the assumption of

linear relationships between risk factors and ovarian cancer risk.

Conclusions

Our comprehensive examination of possible etiological drivers of ovarian carcinogenesis

using germline genetic variants to proxy risk factors supports a causal role for few of these

factors in epithelial ovarian cancer and suggests distinct etiologies across histotypes. The

identification of novel modifiable risk factors remains an important priority for the control of

epithelial ovarian cancer.

Introduction

Ovarian cancer is the second most common gynecological cancer in the USA and

Western Europe and accounts for more deaths than all other gynecological cancers combined

[1,2]. The prognosis for ovarian cancer is generally poor because women typically present with

advanced disease due to the non-specific nature of symptoms and because of the lack of

established screening tests [3-5]. Given the limited success of secondary prevention strategies

and the sporadic nature of 90% of cases, primary prevention of ovarian cancer may serve as

an important vehicle for disease control [6]. However, few modifiable risk factors have

consistently been linked to ovarian cancer in observational epidemiological studies and most

previous studies have failed to stratify analyses across clinically distinct histotypes [7-10].

Further, the causal nature of the risk factors reported, and thus their suitability as effective

intervention targets, is unclear given the susceptibility of conventional observational designs

to residual confounding and reverse causation.

Mendelian randomization (MR) is an analytical approach that uses germline genetic

variants as instruments ("proxies") for potentially modifiable risk factors, to examine the

causal effects of these factors on disease outcomes in observational settings [11,12]. Since

germline genetic variants are randomly assorted at meiosis, MR analyses should be less prone

to confounding by lifestyle and environmental factors than conventional observational

studies. Further, since germline genetic variants are fixed at conception and cannot be

influenced by subsequent disease processes, MR analyses are not subject to reverse causation

bias. An additional advantage of MR is that it can be implemented using summary genetic

association data from two independent samples, representing: a) the genetic variant-risk

factor associations; and b) the genetic variant-outcome associations ("two-sample Mendelian

randomization"). This provides an efficient and statistically robust method of appraising

causal relationships between risk factors and disease outcomes.

Given the current poor understanding of the etiology of epithelial ovarian cancer

(EOC), a two-sample Mendelian randomization analysis was performed to evaluate the causal

effects of 13 previously reported factors with risk of overall and histotype-specific EOC.

Methods

Ovarian cancer population

Summary genetic association data were obtained on 25,509 women with EOC and

40,941 controls of European descent. These women had been genotyped using the Illumina

Custom Infinium array (OncoArray) as part of the Ovarian Cancer Association Consortium

(OCAC) genome-wide association study (GWAS) [13,14]. The data included the following

invasive ovarian cancer histotypes: high grade serous carcinoma (n=13,037), low grade

serous carcinoma (n=1,012), mucinous carcinoma (n=1,417), endometrioid carcinoma

(n=2,810), and clear cell carcinoma (n=1,366). Analyses were also performed for low

malignant potential tumors (n=3,103) which included 1,954 serous and 1,140 mucinous

tumors. Invasive histotypes classified as "other" (n=2,764 cases) were included in analyses

for overall epithelial ovarian cancer but were not assessed separately. Ethical approval from

relevant research ethics committees was obtained for all studies in OCAC and written,

informed consent was obtained from all participants in these studies. Further details about the

OCAC study and OncoArray analyses are available in **Supplemental Materials**.

Identification of previously reported risk factors and instrument selection

Previously reported risk factors for EOC were identified from a literature review of

narrative and systematic review articles summarizing findings from observational

epidemiological studies using PubMed and Web of Science [15-20] and through consultation

with the Cancer Research UK website and the World Cancer Research Fund/American

Institute for Cancer Research Ovarian Cancer 2014 Report (accessed on 02/10/2017). Genetic

instruments were then identified for these risk factors by consulting the preprint server

bioRxiv (http://www.biorxiv.org/) and two catalogues of summary GWAS data: the NHGRI-

EBI (National Human Genome Research Institute - European Bioinformatics Institute)

GWAS catalogue and MR-Base [21,22]. The complete PubMed and Web of Science search

strategies and instrument selection criteria are presented in **Supplementary Materials** and

Extended Methods, respectively.

In total, 13 risk factors with a suitable genetic instrument were included in the

analysis: four reproductive factors (age at menarche, age at natural menopause, parity, and

genetic liability to twin pregnancy)[23-26], two anthropometric traits (body mass index,

height)[27,28], three clinical factors (genetic liabilities to type 2 diabetes, endometriosis, and

polycystic ovary syndrome) [29-31], two lifestyle factors (lifetime smoking exposure, circulating

25-hydroxyvitamin D)[32,33], and two molecular risk factors (C-reactive protein, sex hormone-

binding globulin) [34,35]. Lifetime smoking exposure is a composite score that captures smoking

duration, heaviness, and cessation among both smokers and non-smokers. A step-by-step

overview of risk factor inclusion along with a flow-chart of these processes and a list of all

risk factors ascertained for inclusion are presented in **Supplementary Materials** and

Supplementary Figure 1.

Statistical analyses

The use of genetic instruments for potentially modifiable exposures in an MR

framework allows for unbiased causal effects of risk factors on disease outcomes to be

estimated if: i) the genetic instrument (typically, one or more independent single-nucleotide

polymorphisms [SNPs]) is robustly associated with the risk factor of interest; ii) the

instrument is not associated with any confounding factor(s) of the association between the

risk factor and outcome; and iii) there is no pathway through which an instrument influences

an outcome except through the risk factor ("exclusion restriction criterion").

Estimates of the proportion of variance in each risk factor explained by the genetic

instruments (R^2) and the strength of the association between the genetic instruments and risk

factors (F-statistics) were generated using methods previously described [36]. F-statistics can be

used to examine whether results are likely to be influenced by weak instrument bias: i.e.,

reduced statistical power to reject the null hypothesis when an instrument explains a limited

proportion of the variance in a risk factor.

For risk factors with only one SNP as an instrument, the Wald ratio was used to

generate effect estimates, and the delta method was used to approximate standard errors [37];

for risk factors with two or three SNPs as instruments, inverse-variance weighted (IVW)

fixed effects models were used; and for risk factors with greater than three SNPs, IVW

multiplicative random effects models (allowing overdispersion in the model) were used [38].

The combination of multiple SNPs into a multi-allelic IVW model increases the proportion of

variance in a risk factor explained by an instrument. Causal estimates from these models

represent a weighted average of individual Wald ratios across SNPs using inverse-variance

weighted meta-analysis. To account for multiple testing, a Bonferroni correction was used to

establish *P*-value thresholds for "strong evidence" ($P<0.0038$) (false positive rate=0.05/13

risk factors) and "suggestive evidence" ($0.0038<P<0.05$) for reported associations.

When using genetic instruments, there is potential for horizontal pleiotropy - when a

genetic variant has an effect on two or more traits through independent biological pathways, a

violation of the third IV assumption. This was examined by performing three complementary

sensitivity analyses, each of which makes different assumptions about the underlying nature

of horizontal pleiotropy: i) MR-Egger regression (intercept and slope terms);[39]ii) a weighted

median estimator [40] when there were, at minimum, three SNPs in an instrument; and iii) a

weighted mode estimator [41] when there were, at minimum, five SNPs in an instrument.

Additionally, leave-one-out permutation analyses were performed to examine whether any

results were driven by individual SNPs in IVW models. Lastly, Steiger filtering was

employed to orient the direction of causal relationships between presumed risk factors and

outcomes for some analyses[42]. This method compares the proportion of risk factor and

outcome variance explained by SNPs used as instruments to help establish whether SNPs

associated with both risk factors and outcomes primarily represent either: 1) a direct

association of a SNP on a risk factor which then influences levels of an outcome or 2) a direct

association of a SNP on an outcome which then influences levels of a risk factor. Extended

descriptions of these sensitivity analyses, along with their assumptions are provided in the

Extended Methods section.

All statistical analyses were performed using R version 3.3.1.

Results:

Across the 13 risk factors that we examined, F-statistics for their respective genetic

instruments ranged from 4 to 423, with 12 of 13 risk factors having a value of F$\geq$24. These

statistics suggest that most analyses were unlikely to suffer from weak instrument bias. For

each risk factor, the number of SNPs included in the genetic instrument, along with R^2 and F-

statistics for the instrument, are provided in **Supplementary Table 1**. Complete primary and

sensitivity analyses for all risk factors categorized by ovarian cancer histotype are presented

in **Supplementary Tables 2-6**.

Reproductive factors

In IVW models, there was suggestive evidence for an effect of earlier age at menarche

on risk of overall EOC (OR per year earlier onset: 1.07,95% CI:1.00-1.14;*P*=0.046) and

endometrioid carcinoma (OR:1.19,95% CI:1.05-1.36;*P*=0.008) (**Figure 1**). However, there

was evidence that horizontal pleiotropy was likely biasing the IVW estimate for EOC. This is

because the effect estimate attenuated toward the null when employing MR-Egger regression

(OR:1.00,95% CI:0.89-1.13) and a weighted median estimator (OR:1.01,95% CI:0.92-1.10)

and moved in a protective direction when using a weighted mode estimator (OR:0.98,95%

CI:0.25-3.84). In contrast to EOC, the effect of age at menarche on endometrioid carcinoma

was robust to MR-Egger, weighted median, weighted mode estimates, and leave-one-out

analyses (**Supplementary Table 2**).

There was suggestive evidence for an effect of later age at natural menopause on risk

of endometrioid carcinoma (OR per year later onset:1.09,95% CI:1.02-1.16;*P*=0.007), which

was consistent in sensitivity analyses examining horizontal pleiotropy. While there was little

evidence of an effect of age at natural menopause on clear cell carcinoma in IVW models

(OR:1.05,95% CI:0.96-1.14;*P*=0.29), the association strengthened when employing MR-

Egger (OR:1.26,95% CI:1.05-1.52), weighted median (OR:1.11,95% CI:0.99-1.25), and

weighted mode estimators (OR:1.16,95% CI:1.02-1.31), suggesting horizontal pleiotropy in

the IVW model. There was also suggestive evidence for an effect of genetic liability to twin

births on clear cell carcinoma (OR:1.78,95% CI:1.05-3.03;*P*=0.03) which was robust to

sensitivity analyses examining horizontal pleiotropy.

In parity analyses, effect estimates were in a protective direction for five of seven

ovarian cancer outcomes but were imprecisely estimated with 95% confidence intervals

crossing the null line (**Supplementary Table 2**).

Anthropometric traits

There was strong evidence for an effect of body mass index (BMI) on overall EOC

(OR per 1-standard deviation (SD; 4.6 kg/m^2) increase:1.23,95% CI:1.07-1.42;*P*=0.003)

(**Figure 2**). Though there was little evidence for horizontal pleiotropy when performing MR-

Egger (OR:1.32,95% CI:0.88-1.99), inconsistency of effect estimates across weighted median

(OR:1.14,95% CI:0.93-1.40) and weighted mode (OR:1.05,95% CI:0.75-1.51) approaches

suggested potential violations of the IV assumptions.

In IVW models, there was suggestive evidence for an effect of BMI on high grade

serous carcinoma (OR:1.26,95% CI:1.06-1.50;*P*=0.01), endometrioid carcinoma

(OR:1.48,95% CI:1.07-2.06;*P*=0.02), and low malignant potential tumors

(OR:1.39,95%CI:1.04-1.85;*P*=0.03) but not on other histotypes. However, there was

evidence that horizontal pleiotropy was likely biasing the IVW estimate for high grade serous

carcinoma: the effect estimate was attenuated when performing MR-Egger (OR:1.05,95%

CI:0.63-1.75) and was inconsistent when employing weighted median (OR:1.17,95%

CI:0.91-1.50) and weighted mode (OR:0.95,95% CI:0.53-1.35) estimators. Likewise, there

was some inconsistency of effect estimates across sensitivity analyses for low malignant

potential tumors, with a modest attenuation of the effect estimate observed when employing a

weighted mode estimator (OR:1.17,95%CI:0.55-2.49). In contrast, the effect of BMI on

endometrioid carcinoma was also seen across sensitivity analyses using MR-Egger, weighted

median, and weighted mode estimators, and in leave-one-out analyses (**Supplementary**

Table 3).

There was strong evidence for an effect of height on clear cell carcinoma (OR per 1-

SD (6.3 cm) increase:1.36,95% CI:1.15-1.61;P=0.0003), but not on other histotypes. This

finding was robust to various sensitivity analyses.

Clinical factors

There was strong evidence for an effect of genetic liability to endometriosis on EOC

(per unit log odds higher liability to endometriosis: OR 1.27,95% CI:1.16-1.40;P=6.94x10^{-7})

and clear cell carcinoma (OR:2.69,95% CI:1.88-3.86, P=7.39x10^{-8}) and suggestive evidence

for an effect on endometrioid carcinoma (OR:1.37,95% CI:1.10-1.69;P=0.004), low

malignant potential tumors (OR:1.33,95%CI:1.09-1.63;P=0.006), and high grade serous

carcinoma (OR:1.17,95% CI:1.04-1.31;P=0.007) (**Figure 3**). Findings for overall and clear

cell carcinoma were also seen in sensitivity analyses examining horizontal pleiotropy,

whereas inconsistent effect estimates for endometrioid carcinoma, low malignant potential

tumors, and high grade serous carcinoma across these sensitivity analyses suggested

violations of IV assumptions (**Supplementary Table 4**). Analyses employing Steiger

filtering provided strong evidence that the causal direction between genetic liability to

endometriosis and EOC was from the former to the latter (P<10^{-10}), whereas the causal

direction could not be clearly established for clear cell carcinoma analyses (P<0.10).

There was strong evidence for an inverse effect of genetic liability to polycystic ovary

syndrome (PCOS) on endometrioid carcinoma (OR per unit log odds higher liability to

PCOS:0.74,95% CI:0.62-0.90;P=0.002), which was robust to sensitivity analyses. In contrast,

suggestive evidence for an effect of PCOS with low grade serous carcinoma (OR:1.33,95%

CI:1.01-1.74;P=0.04) in IVW models was not seen across all sensitivity analyses examining

horizontal pleiotropy. There was little evidence of an effect of genetic liability to type 2

diabetes on overall or histotype-specific ovarian cancer.

Lifestyle factors

There was suggestive evidence for an effect of lifetime smoking exposure on EOC

(OR per unit increase in smoking score:1.36,95% CI:1.04-1.78,P=0.02) (**Figure 4**). In

histotype-specific analyses, there was also a suggestive association for an effect of smoking

on high grade serous carcinoma (OR:1.44,95% CI:1.05-1.98;P=0.02) but little association

with other subtypes. The smoking findings for epithelial ovarian cancer and high grade serous

carcinoma were robust to horizontal pleiotropy sensitivity analyses (**Supplementary Table**

5). There was no strong or suggestive evidence that circulating 25-hydroxyvitamin D

influenced overall or histotype-specific ovarian cancer.

Molecular risk factors

There was suggestive evidence for an inverse effect of C-reactive protein (CRP) on

endometrioid carcinoma (OR per unit increase in natural log CRP:0.90,95% CI:0.82-

1.00;P=0.049) (**Figure 5**). This association was robust to sensitivity analyses using MR-

Egger, weighted median, and weighted mode methods in addition to using a restricted CRP

instrument (exclusively using 4 SNPs in *CRP*): OR:0.72,95% CI:0.42-1.22;P=0.14

(**Supplementary Table 6**). CRP was not clearly associated with other histotypes assessed.

There was no strong or suggestive evidence for an effect of sex hormone-binding globulin on

ovarian cancer risk.

Discussion

This Mendelian randomization analysis of up to 66,450 women supports causal

effects of liability to endometriosis and lifetime smoking exposure in epithelial ovarian

cancer risk but found little evidence for causal roles of eleven previously reported risk factors

in ovarian carcinogenesis. In histotype-stratified analyses, there was strong or suggestive

evidence of effects of ages at menarche and natural menopause, BMI, height, lifetime

smoking exposure, CRP and genetic liabilities to twin births and PCOS on ovarian cancer

risk. There was little evidence to support causal effects of genetic liability to type 2 diabetes,

parity, or circulating levels of 25-hydroxyvitamin D or sex hormone-binding globulin on

overall or histotype-specific EOC.

Though historically considered a homogeneous disease with a single cellular origin,

epithelial ovarian cancer is now recognized as heterogeneous, consisting of multiple

histological subtypes each with its own distinct origins, morphological characteristics, and

molecular alterations [18,43-46]. The largely histotype-specific findings in this analysis using

genetic variants as proxies to minimize confounding and avoid reverse causation bias thus

help to extend these insights further by supporting distinct causal pathways across EOC

histotypes.

Some of the histotype-specific findings are consistent with conventional observational

studies. For example, in agreement with previous analyses [7-10,47-49], most risk factors did not

show clear evidence of association with HGSC. Consistent with some studies, age at natural

menopause was most strongly associated with endometrioid carcinoma [8] and height was most

strongly associated with clear cell carcinoma [50,51]. The effect of genetic liability to

endometriosis on risk of epithelial ovarian cancer is in agreement with two large pooled

observational analyses [9,52], though these studies also reported positive risk relationships with

endometrioid and low grade serous carcinoma.

However, some MR estimates were not consistent with those observed in

conventional analyses. Most notably, previously reported associations between smoking and

mucinous carcinoma [9,53-55] were not corroborated in MR analyses of lifetime smoking

exposure. Though estimates from primary and sensitivity analyses all included the null line,

inconsistencies in effect estimates across these analyses support pleiotropic biases distorting

the causal effect estimate. Though parity has been consistently inversely associated with risk

of ovarian cancer in conventional analyses [10,56-60], MR effect estimates suggesting a

protective effect of giving birth to more children were imprecise and 95% confidence

intervals spanned the null line. Given the few SNPs available to proxy for parity (two

independent variants in this analysis), these results likely reflect limited statistical power.

Weaker statistical evidence also suggested an unexpected inverse effect of CRP, a

marker of systemic inflammation, on endometrioid carcinoma and positive risk relationships

between genetic liability to twin births and clear cell carcinoma. Given recent evidence to

suggest a role of infectious agents in ovarian cancer [66, 67], a possible protective effect of

CRP on endometrioid carcinoma could speculatively reflect the involvement of CRP in acute

immune response (i.e., protection against active bacterial and viral infections). Meanwhile,

the effect of genetic liability to twin births on clear cell carcinoma could be mediated by the

higher levels of gonadotropins in the fertile years of women with a history of multiple births

[54-56].

Overall, few previously reported risk factors showed clear evidence of a causal role in

EOC or high grade serous carcinoma, the most common (~70% of cases) and lethal EOC

histotype, suggesting that some previously reported associations may have been driven by

residual confounding, misclassification biases, or reverse causation [61]. A notable exception

was suggestive evidence that smoking increased odds of HGSC, consistent with some [62,63],

but not all [9,53,64,65], observational analyses. A causal effect of genetic liability to

endometriosis on EOC corroborates findings from conventional analyses that women with

this condition are at elevated risk of subsequent disease[9,66]. This finding also suggests that

subclinical manifestations of endometriosis may influence oncogenesis, indicating important

avenues for future mechanistic work.

Strengths of this analysis include the use of a systematic approach to collate

previously reported risk factors for EOC, the appraisal of the causal role of these risk factors

in EOC etiology using a Mendelian randomization framework to reduce confounding and

avoid reverse causation bias, the employment of complementary sensitivity analyses to

rigorously assess for violations of MR assumptions, and the restriction of datasets utilized to

women of primarily or exclusively European descent to minimize confounding through

population stratification.

There are several limitations to these analyses. First, though F-statistics generated for

most risk factors suggested that results were unlikely to suffer from weak instrument bias,

statistical power for some analyses of less common ovarian cancer subtypes (low grade

serous, mucinous, and clear cell carcinomas) was likely modest, meaning that the possibility

that some results may reflect "false negative" findings cannot be ruled out. Since analyses

were performed using summarized genetic association data in aggregate, it was not possible

to restrict age at natural menopause analyses exclusively to participants who had undergone

menopause. However, given that most ovarian cancer cases occur after menopause and that

age-matched controls were used, the inclusion of some pre- or perimenopausal women in

these analyses would likely have biased results toward the null (i.e., providing a conservative

effect estimate). Additionally, models employed assumed no interaction (e.g., gene-

environment, gene-gene) or effect modification and linear relationships between risk factors

and ovarian cancer. Lastly, the use of a MR framework precluded directly examining the

causal effects of some ovarian cancer risk factors that do not have robust genetic variants

available to serve as proxies (e.g., use of oral contraceptives, hormone replacement therapy).

Though the largely null findings for overall EOC in this analysis can assist in de-

prioritizing certain intervention targets for ovarian cancer prevention, they also underscore

the challenges in establishing effective primary prevention strategies for this malignancy. To

date, beyond risk-reducing surgical interventions, only the oral contraceptive pill has shown

compelling evidence that regular use can reduce risk of subsequent disease [59,67,68]. The

continued identification of robust genetic variants to proxy other lifestyle and molecular

factors previously reported to influence ovarian cancer (e.g., additional sex hormones,

gonadotropins, inflammatory markers) will allow for a more refined assessment of the causal

influence of these factors in ovarian carcinogenesis [48,69]. Additionally, further work

understanding possible mechanisms through which factors that appear to causally influence

ovarian cancer in these analyses promote oncogenesis (e.g., genetic liability to endometriosis,

C-reactive protein levels) could help to increase scope for prevention opportunities across the

life-course. Lastly, for the vast majority of women who develop ovarian cancer with no

previous history of smoking and who do not have endometriosis [9,53,70], there is a need to

identify novel modifiable risk factors for this condition, as has been advocated elsewhere

[71,72].

Conclusions

Of 13 previously reported risk factors examined for association with overall epithelial

ovarian cancer, only genetic liability to endometriosis and lifetime smoking exposure showed

evidence compatible with a causal effect on disease risk. When stratified on ovarian cancer

histotype, most risk factors showed causal effects on one or more subtypes, underscoring the

heterogeneous nature of this disease. While this etiological heterogeneity could have

implications for understanding mechanisms of tumour pathology and for studies examining

histotype-specific prognosis, given the low incidence of EOC in the general population,

prevention strategies targeting factors causally implicated in overall EOC are most likely to

confer important population-level reductions in disease incidence. Along with effective

clinical management of endometriosis and policies to prevent the initiation of tobacco use

and encourage smoking cessation, established prevention strategies like the use of oral

contraceptives continue to be important EOC risk-reducing mechanism. The identification of

novel modifiable risk factors remains an important priority for the control of epithelial

ovarian cancer.

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Footnote to Supplementary Figure 1

GWAS = genome-wide association study, SNP = single-nucleotide polymorphism, MR =

Mendelian randomization, BMI = body mass index, CRP = C-reactive protein, SHBG = sex

hormone-binding globulin

Footnote to Figures 1-5

BMI = body mass index, PCOS = polycystic ovary syndrome, 25(OH)D = 25-

hydroxyvitamin D, CRP = C-reactive protein, SHBG = sex hormone-binding globulin