Functional characterization of a multi-cancer risk locus on chromosome band 2q33.1
near *CASP8*

Hyunkyung Kong[1], Jiyeon Choi[1], Tongwu Zhang[2], Cathrin Gräwe[3], Mai Xu[1], Rohit
Thakur[1], Hayley Sowards[1], Rebecca C Hennessey[1], Andrew Vu[1], Jianxin Shi[4], D Timothy
Bishop[5], Julia Newton-Bishop[6], Jeremie Nsengimana[7], Mark M. Iles[6,8], Maria Teresa
Landi[2], Michiel Vermeulen[3,9], Matthew H. Law[10,11,12], Laufey T. Amundadottir[1], Melanoma Meta-
Analysis Consortium[13], Kevin M Brown[1]

[1]Laboratory of Translational Genomics, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National

Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, 20892, USA

[2]Integrative Tumor Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics,

National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, 20892, USA

[3]Department of Molecular Biology, Radboud Institute for Molecular Life Sciences, Radboud

University Nijmegen, Nijmegen, 6525 XZ, Netherlands

[4]Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD,

20892, USA

[5]Leeds Institute of Medical Research, School of Medicine, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK

[6]Leeds Institute for Data Analytics, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK

[7]Population Health Sciences Institute, Faculty of Medical Sciences, Newcastle University and

NIHR Biomedical Research Centre, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK

[8]NIHR Leeds Biomedical Research Centre, Leeds Teaching Hospitals NHS Trust, Leeds, UK

[9]Division of Molecular Genetics, Netherlands Cancer Institute, Amsterdam, Netherlands

[10]Population Health Department, QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute, Herston, QLD,

Australia

[11]School of Biomedical Sciences, Faculty of Health, Queensland University of Technology,

Brisbane, QLD, Australia

[12]School of Biomedical Sciences, University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD, Australia

Corresponding author: kevin.brown3@nih.gov

Abstract

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of melanoma have identified numerous susceptibility loci. However, causal genes and variants underlying risk have yet to be established for most. It is becoming apparent that many functional variants underlying complex traits act via *cis*-regulation that may be context-specific, dependent on availability of specific transcription factors/complexes in specific cell types and cell-states. To characterize a risk locus on chromosome band 2q33.1 associated with melanoma, breast cancer, and keratinocyte cancers, we integrated fine-mapping, cell-type specific expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL) analysis, a massively parallel reporter assay, individual luciferase assays, and SNP-based proteomics. Integrated analysis implicates the presence of multiple functional variants lying primarily within a promoter for *CASP8*. A haplotype containing rs3769823 appeared have the largest effect on expression. Strikingly, both tumor/normal context and this risk-associated haplotype play critical roles in mediating allelic *cis*-regulatory activity. Quantitative mass spectrometry for rs3769823 identified both E4F1, a transcriptional repressor, and IRF2, a transcriptional activator, as binding preferentially to risk-associated rs3969823-A. The binding of these transcription factors was validated via EMSA, supershift, and chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays. The relative levels of E4F1 and IRF2 differ by cell-type and play a role in mediating transcriptional activity in a cell-type specific manner. Our results indicate that the top credible causal set variant rs3769823 likely influences expression of *CASP8* and *FLACC1* in a cell-type specific manner and may be a relevant functional variant for multiple cancers associated with this locus.

Keywords

Introduction

Over the past decade, genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified 54 genome-

wide significant susceptibility loci for cutaneous malignant melanoma (CMM) in populations of

European ancestry [1-10]. Of these, Barrett and colleagues initially identified a genome-wide

significant locus for melanoma on chromosome band 2q33.1 adjacent to the Caspase 8 gene

(*CASP8*) [5]. Multiple subsequent melanoma GWAS meta-analyses since have replicated this

finding, including the most recent meta-analysis of 36,760 melanoma cases (rs10931936-T, $P =$

2.12×10^{-12}, OR = 1.08)[10]. This region is a multi-cancer risk locus, with highly-correlated risk

alleles for melanoma and other cancers sharing a common haplotype, including signals for

breast cancer (rs3769821, $P = 3.97 \times 10^{-18}$, r^2 with rs10931936 = 0.63) [11], keratinocyte cancers

including both cutaneous basal cell carcinoma (BCC, rs6714430, $P = 5.42 \times 10^{-55}$, r^2 with

rs10931936 = 0.99), squamous cell carcinoma (SCC; rs10931936, $P = 1.03 \times 10^{-7}$), or both

combined (rs6743068, $P = 1.50 \times 10^{-48}$, r^2 with 10931936 = 0.99)[12,13], and non-small cell lung

cancer (rs3769821, $P = 4.45 \times 10^{-8}$, r^2 with rs10931936 = 0.63)[14]. Additionally, the region also

harbors a highly-correlated signal for prostate cancer (rs59308963, $P = 2.41 \times 10^{-8}$, r^2 with

rs10931936 = 0.93)[15], where the protective allele is highly correlated with risk alleles for

melanoma and the other cancers. However, whether causal variants and genes are shared

across multiple cancers remains under-explored.

The topologically-associated domain (TAD) at 2q33.1 harbors multiple strong *a priori* candidate

genes with well-established roles in apoptosis, including Caspase-8 (*CASP8*), Caspase 10

(*CASP10*), and the CASP8 and FADD-like apoptosis regulator (*CFLAR*). CASP8 is an apical

caspase that initiates apoptosis through the extrinsic pathway via a subset of proteins in the

tumor necrosis factor superfamily (TNFRSF) that includes TNFR1 (tumor necrosis factor

receptor-1), CD95/Fas, and TRAIL-R (TNF-related apoptosis-inducing ligand receptor) [16,17].

CASP8 is composed of a catalytic domain, a protease domain and two death domains

comprising the prodomain, which is important for forming the death-inducing signaling complex

(DISC), death receptor-FADD-CASP8 [18,19]. Like all caspases, CASP8 is present as a

monomeric procaspase zymogen[20]. Binding of CASP8 to the DISC facilitates zymogen

maturation by dimerization and proteolytic cleavage of the caspase itself [21,22]. Fully processed

active CASP8 is released from DISC and activates downstream effector caspases. Notably, two

proteins encoded by adjacent genes at this locus, *CASP10* and *CFLAR*, are highly similar to the

N-terminus of *CASP8* and play a different role in the apoptotic pathway by interacting with

FADD and CASP8 [23,24]. While CASP10 is an apical caspase like CASP8, CFLAR splice variants

inhibit different processing steps of CASP8 activation through heterodimerization [24-26]. Given

that most common trait loci are thought to function via *cis*-gene regulation, often at long

distances, other genes within this TAD cannot be ruled out as candidate causal genes.

In this study, we fine-mapped multiple cancer GWAS datasets and integrate tissue-based and

cell-type specific quantitative trait locus (QTL) data in order to identify likely causal variants and

genes. We identified multiple highly-correlated potentially *cis*-regulatory variants, and establish

rs3769823 as a key functional variant, likely acting via altered binding of the IRF2 and E4F1

transcription factors. We establish *cis*-regulation of *CASP8* as a likely causal mechanism

underlying melanoma and breast cancer risk at this locus, and given the strong LD between

signals, this mechanism may potentially play a role in risk of other associated cancers.

Results

Comparison of the 2q33.1 melanoma risk signal with GWAS of susceptibility to other
cancers

The most recent GWAS meta-analyses of melanoma identified rs10931936 as the sentinel

variant at the 2q33.1 risk locus (rs10931936-T, $P = 2.12 \times 10^{-12}$, OR = 1.08)[10]. Conditional and

joint analysis of summary GWAS meta-analysis data[27,28] identified no additional genome-wide

significant association signals at this locus[10]. The next most significant signal within 1 Mb in

either direction of rs10931936 is rs563855920 ($P_{conditional} = 3.05 \times 10^{-4}$; **Figure S1**; **Table S1**)

more than 300 kb away, suggesting that there are no additional major signals.

This region has been identified as a genome-wide significant risk locus via GWAS of multiple

other cancer types including breast cancer (122,977 cases, rs3769821-C, $P = 3.97 \times 10^{-18}$, 1000

Genomes EUR r^2 with rs10931936 = 0.63)[11] and keratinocyte cancers (47,742 cases,

rs6743068-A, $P_{MTAG} = 1.50 \times 10^{-48}$, $r^2_{rs10931936} = 0.99$)[13], including cutaneous BCC (31,787 cases,

rs6714430-C, $P = 5.42 \times 10^{-55}$, $r^2_{rs10931936} = 0.99$)[13] and SCC (9,674 cases, rs10931936-T, $P =$

1.93×10^{-7})[13] where the genotypes of these risk alleles are correlated. To formally assess

whether these traits may share common causal variants with melanoma risk, we compared

melanoma fine-mapping data to other cancer datasets using both HyPrColoc[29] and eCAVIAR[30]

and summary statistic data for the set of SNPs +/- 100 kb centered over the melanoma GWAS

lead SNP. Colocalization analyses suggest a likely shared causal between melanoma risk and

breast cancer (HyPrColoc PP = 0.93; maximum eCAVIAR CLPP = 0.04). Across the larger

region, HyPrColoc finds the strongest evidence for shared causals for rs3769821 (HyPrColoc

SNP score = 0.52, r^2 = 0.63 to rs10931936) and rs3769823 (SNP score = 0.11, r^2 = 0.77 to

rs10931936) (**Figure S2, Tables S2** and **S3**). Colocalization analyses of keratinocyte cancers

(both cutaneous BCC and SCC combined; PP = 0.99, maximum CLPP = 0.09), cutaneous BCC

(PP = 0.98; maximum CLPP = 0.02), and SCC (PP = 0.96; maximum CLPP = 0.02) all show

evidence for colocalization with melanoma risk, primarily showing the strongest evidence for

melanoma lead SNP rs10931936 (SNP score is 0.42, 0.22 and 0.29, respectively for all

keratinocyte cancers, BCC, and SCC) (**Tables S2** and **S3**). LocusCompare[31] plots of regional

summary data for melanoma compared to keratinocyte cancers or BCC suggest that the signals

for these non-melanoma skin cancers may be complex and involve multiple potential signals

(**Figures S3**-**S5**). Overall, these results suggest that a risk signal tagged by rs10931936 is

common to all tested cancers and nominate several potential shared causal variants.

Fine-mapping of melanoma risk-associated variants at 2q33.1

To comprehensively identify candidate causal variants within the 2q33.1 melanoma risk locus,

we performed fine-mapping using multiple complementary approaches. Firstly, using GWAS

summary data from Landi and colleagues[10], we identified a set of 24 variants with a log-

likelihood ratio (LLR) of up to 1:1000 relative to the lead SNP at the locus (rs10931936; **Figure**

1, **Table S4**). We also performed Bayesian fine-mapping using DAP-G[32,33], identifying two

clusters of potential candidate variants. The first cluster consisted of a 95% credible set of 15

variants (set 1; marked by rs10931936, PIP = 0.16; **Figure 1**, **Tables S6** and **S7**). A second

cluster consisted of a set of six variants with cumulatively low posterior inclusion probabilities

(PIP; set 2; led by rs77292590, PIP = 0.01; **Tables S5** and **S6**) consistent with conditional

analysis of the melanoma GWAS that suggested no major second signal at this locus.

Considering the possibility of a *cis*-regulatory function for this locus, we also fine-mapped using

PAINTOR[34,35], weighting the priors using melanocyte-specific epigenomic annotations from the

RoadMap Epigenome Project and locations of a set of genes specifically expressed in

melanocytes[36] (**Figure 1**, **Table S7**), identifying a 95% credible set of seven SNPs. Of these,

rs3769823, which was also fine-mapped by the other methods, had by far the highest posterior

probability (0.789) of any variant. PAINTOR identified only one variant not in the DAP-G credible

set 1 (rs74574949, r^2 = 0.02 with rs10931936, DAP-G credible set 3, PIP = 0.0002; **Table S5**).

Lastly, we assessed whether other variants not successfully imputed in the meta-analysis, and

thus not directly fine-mapped, could also be credible causal variants. Here, we chose an LD-

based cutoff of r^2 = 0.625 to the lead variant, identifying an additional nine potential candidate

causal variants. Combining variants from these analyses, we identified a total set of 27 credible

causal variants for the melanoma risk signal (**Figure 1**, **Table S8**).

Figure 1. Fine-mapping of multiple melanoma GWAS signals on chromosome band
2q33.1. (Top) A view of the 2q33.1 locus (hg19) including all fine-mapped candidate causal
variants nominated by log-likelihood ratio (LLR; red), Bayesian fine-mapping either unweighted
(DAP-G, green) or weighted using melanocyte-specific epigenomic annotations (PAINTOR,
brown), or LD to the melanoma lead SNP (rs10931936, $r^2 \geq 0.625$, orange). Also shown are
tracks representing NCBI RefSeq genes and imputed chromatin state (ChromHMM) from two
primary melanocyte cultures, two primary keratinocyte cultures, and two breast mammary
cultures generated by the Roadmap Epigenome Project (Red: Active TSS; Orange-Red:
Flanking Active TSS; Yellow: Enhancers; Green-Yellow: Genic enhancers; Green: Strong
transcription, Dark Green: Weak transcription). (Bottom) A zoomed-in view of the same
annotations for a region encompassing select candidate causal variants. Data and rendering
was performed using the UCSC Genome Browser.

Potential molecular mechanisms underlying the 2q33.1 locus

Of these fine-mapped variants, only one, rs3769823, is protein-coding, being a missense variant

of codon 14 (K14R) of a single *CASP8* isoform (isoform G; ENST00000358485.4; RefSeq

NM_001080125.2; **Figures 1** and **S6**), where the allele encoding K14 is associated with

increased risk. We assessed potential functions via Jpred4, which suggested that CASP8^{K14R}

may be located within a helical structure (**Figure S7**). To assess potential impacts on protein

function, we used five different *in silico* prediction tools via PredictSNP2 [37]. Of these, the

majority (4/5) predicted rs3769823 to be benign; FunSeq2 however suggested that this variant

may be deleterious (**Table S9**). While we cannot rule out a protein-coding function for

rs3769823, these data suggest rs3769823 is benign.

We also assessed splicing QTLs (sQTL) from primary human melanocytes[38]. Notably, a

significant risk-associated SNP, rs10804111 (P_{GWAS} = 6.79 × 10^{-10}, LD to rs10931936 r^2 = 0.62

and D' = 1; **Table S1**), is a significant sQTL for alternative splicing of the *CASP8* exon 8 to 9

junction (P_{sQTL} = 7.33 × 10^{-12}; **Figure S8**). Specifically, this generates an alternative *CASP8*

transcript (isoform H; ENST00000339403.6, RefSeq NR_111983.2; **Figures 1** and **S6**),

retaining part of intron 8 and leading to frameshift and premature termination of the *CASP8*

transcript, which may act as a dominant-negative inhibitor of the caspase cascade[39]. Here,

rs10804111-C is associated with higher melanoma risk and lower levels of the alternative

isoform H (**Figure S8B**). To test the potential of rs10804111 to mediate alternative splicing, we

generated C- or T- allele-specific mini-genes (**Figure S9A,** see material and methods). Using

qRT-PCR in melanoma cells, we confirmed the association between rs10804111-C and lower

usage of the exon junction for isoform H (exon 8-9 junction, P = 7.23 x 10^{-5}; exon 8L-9 junction,

P = 1.78 x 10^{-3}; **Figure S9B**). However, we note fine-mapping of the melanoma GWAS signal

does not identify rs10804111 as a member of any credible causal set at this locus, and formal

colocalization between the melanoma risk signal and melanocyte sQTL signal did not provide

significant evidence of colocalization.

Given the lack of strong support for protein-coding or splice variants explaining the 2q33.1

signal, as well as a clustering of fine-mapped variants within regions marked as promoter or

enhancer in melanocytes (**Figure 1**, **Table S8**), we turned to eQTL analysis to explore the

potential of this signal being explained by *cis*-gene regulation. We first investigated previously-

published cell-type specific eQTL data generated from primary cultures of human melanocytes

(n=106; **Table S10**)[36]. While multiple genes within the TAD harboring the association signal had

nominally significant eQTL, *CASP8* is the only significant eQTL gene for the lead melanoma

GWAS SNP (rs10931936; $P_{CASP8\,eQTL}$ = 1.2 x 10^{-9}, slope = 0.67, where lower *CASP8* expression

associated with the T-risk allele; **Figure 2A**, **Table S10**)[36]. Conditional analysis of melanocyte

CASP8 eQTL identified multiple variants comprising only a single eQTL signal within this locus

(**Table S11**). Colocalization analysis of the *CASP8* eQTL and melanoma GWAS summary data

using both HyPrColoc[29] and eCAVIAR[30] suggest *CASP8* as a strong candidate gene

(HyPrColoc PP = 0.97, eCAVIAR colocalization posterior probability/CLPP = 0.09 for rs3769823)

with the strongest evidence of shared causal variants for rs3769823 (HyPrColoc SNP score =

0.86, eCAVIAR CLPP = 0.09, r^2 to rs10931936 = 0.77) and rs3769821 (HyPrColoc SNP score =

0.14, eCAVIAR CLPP = 0.03, r^2 to rs10931936 = 0.63) (**Figure 3**, **Table S12** and **S13**).

Collectively these results suggest a shared common causal variant between melanoma risk and

melanocyte-specific *cis*-regulation of *CASP8*. While no other genes had nominally significant

melanocyte eQTLs for the sentinel melanoma risk SNP rs10931936, other strongly risk-

associated SNPs at this locus were, notably for the *CASP8*-adjacent gene *FLACC1* (rs3769821,

P = 2.42 x 10^{-5}, r^2 to rs10931936 = 0.63; lead *FLACC1* eQTL SNP rs796181752, *P* = 9.01 x 10^{-6};

Table S10), where the direction of effect relative to risk allele is opposite to that for *CASP8*.

Colocalization using HyPrColoc[29] and eCAVIAR[30] give discordant results, with eCAVIAR

suggesting potential eQTL colocalization (CLPP = 0.04 for rs3769821; **Table S13**) while

HyPrColoc does not (HyPrColoc PP < 0.5; **Table S12**). A LocusCompare[31] plot suggests *cis*-

regulation of *FLACC1* in melanocytes may be complex and involve multiple potential signals

potentially explaining the discordant results (**Figure S10**). Collectively, these data suggest that

the melanoma GWAS signal may be explained by *cis*-regulation of *CASP8* and *FLACC1*, with

opposite directions of effect for the two genes.

Figure 2. The melanoma risk-associated T allele of rs10931936 is correlated with lower
***CASP8* expression.** eQTL analyses were performed for rs10931936 combining genotype and
expression level data derived from (A) 106 human primary melanocyte cultures (TT, *n*=7; TC,
n=39; CC, *n*=60), (B) 349 melanoma tumors from TCGA-SKCM (TT, *n*=42; TC, *n*=126; CC,
n=181), and (C) a panel of 59 early-passage melanoma cell lines (TT, *n*=8; TC, *n*=23; CC,
n=25), where the risk-T allele is labeled in red. A significant eQTL effect with higher expression
driven from the C-protective allele was observed for *CASP8* in both melanocytes and melanoma
tumors (P = 1.2 x 10^{-9} and P = 6.8 x 10^{-3}, respectively), while the result was marginal but in the

same direction in melanoma cell lines ($P = 0.07$). Significance determined by linear regression;
mean with SEM are plotted along with individual data values.

Figure 3. *CASP8* eQTL in human primary melanocyte cultures is colocalized with the
melanoma GWAS. (A) LocusZoom plots present –log10 *P*-values for melanoma GWAS (upper)
and melanocyte *CASP8* eQTL (lower) for a 1 Mb region encompassing rs10931936. The
melanoma risk lead SNP rs10931936 is labeled and highlighted in purple in both panels, and LD
(r^2 based on 1000G EUR) of all other SNPs to the melanoma GWAS lead SNP is color-coded.
(B) A LocusCompare plot compares *P*-values between melanoma GWAS (*x*-axis) and
melanocyte *CASP8* eQTL (*y* axis) for the same region. Genomic coordinates are based on hg19.

These data are consistent with results from a transcriptome wide association study (TWAS)
study we previously performed using the same GWAS summary statistics and melanocyte
eQTL data[10], where only *CASP8* is significant and *FLACC1* is marginal (P_{CASP8} = 5.57 x 10^{-12};
P_{FLACC1} = 3.83 x 10^{-5}; **Table S14**). Assessing models trained on each of 47 tissue types in the
GTEx v.7; GTEx portal (https://gtexportal.org)[40] identified *CASP8* as a significant TWAS gene in
30 out of 47 GTEx tissues, strikingly with the direction of effect for six tissues being opposite to
that observed for melanocytes, including multiple brain tissues and pituitary (**Table S15**)[10].

TWAS across GTEx tissues likewise found a significant positive association between imputed

FLACC1 levels and risk in 37 tissues (**Table S16**). We also assessed eQTLs in both 349

melanoma tumors from TCGA-SKCM[36,41,42] as well as 59 early-passage melanoma cell lines

using expression microarray data[43]. In TCGA melanomas, we observed an FDR-significant

eQTL for *FLACC1* ($P = 6.57 \times 10^{-4}$), as well marginal eQTLs for *CASP8* ($P = 6.82 \times 10^{-3}$; **Figure**

2B) and *TRAK2* ($P = 0.03$) (**Table S17**). In melanoma cultures, the rs10931936 risk-T allele is

marginally associated with multiple transcripts, including *CASP8* ($P = 0.07$; **Figure 2C**, **Table**

S18). Both *CASP8* eQTLs were in the same direction as observed in melanocytes.

Finally, given potential colocalization of melanoma risk with signals for breast cancer and

cutaneous SCC, we also assessed candidate genes specifically in mammary and skin tissues

profiled by GTEx v.7[40]. Colocalization analyses with the melanoma risk signal suggests

melanoma risk may share common causal variants with eQTLs for *CASP8* (eCAVIAR CLPP =

0.012 for rs3769821) and *FLACC1* (eCAVIAR CLPP = 0.05 for rs3769823) in mammary tissues,

and *FLACC1* in skin-not-sun-exposed (HyPrColoc PP = 0.97; SNP score = 0.62 and CLPP =

0.013 for rs3769823) and skin-sun-exposed tissues (HyPrColoc PP = 0.79; SNP score = 0.15

and CLPP = 0.012 for rs3769823) (**Tables S19** and **S20**). TWAS of melanoma risk using

mammary and skin tissues found both *CASP8* and *FLACC1* to be significant TWAS genes with

the same direction of effect observed in melanocytes (**Tables S15** and **S16**). These results

suggest that the 2q33.1 melanoma risk locus may not only share common causal variants with

breast and other cancers, but also with *cis*-regulatory variants influencing *CASP8* and *FLACC1*

levels in breast and skin tissues, suggesting a potential shared *cis*-regulatory etiology for

multiple cancers.

Prioritization of potential *cis*-regulatory variants using epigenomic data

Given the strong evidence for the 2q33.1 GWAS signals for melanoma as well as perhaps other

cancers being explained by *cis*-regulation of *CASP8* or potentially *FLACC1*, we next prioritized

credible set variants for assessment of allelic *cis*-regulatory activity. We prioritized for further

study eight variants with active imputed ChromHMM chromatin states consistent with

melanocyte gene regulatory regions as annotated by Regulome DB and HaploReg (**Figure 1**,

Table S8; individual melanocyte regulatory marks are shown in **Figure S11**)[44]. Most of these

eight variants also overlapped H3K27ac histone marks and or open chromatin (FAIRE-seq)

from a panel 11 melanoma cultures[45] (**Figure S12**). Given the shared GWAS signal between

melanoma, breast cancer, and keratinocyte cancers, we additionally prioritized fine-mapped

variants that overlap regulatory imputed ChromHMM states in primary keratinocytes and

mammary epithelial tissues (**Table S8**); all such variants were already prioritized from

melanocyte ChromHMM data. Thus, we proceeded to move forward with eight fine-mapped

variants for functional assessment. Of these eight, three variants in close proximity (rs3769823,

rs3769821, rs59308963, within 641 bp), are located in a single continuous region of active

transcription start site (TSS)-proximal promoter state (TssA, **Table S8**)[44] in melanocytes,

keratinocytes, and mammary epithelial cells, overlapping the first exon and first intron of two

annotated *CASP8* isoforms, isoform G and H (**Figures S11** and **S12**), potentially representing a

cis-regulatory haplotype.

Identification of functional *cis*-regulatory fine-mapped variants

To identify potentially functional *cis*-regulatory variants from these eight candidates, we

performed individual reporter assays for each in the context of ~140 bp of DNA sequence

surrounding the variant cloned in both forward and reverse orientations and tested in two

different melanoma cell lines (summarized in **Table S21**). Only one variant, rs3769823, showed

a significant allelic difference in both forward and reverse orientations in both cell lines (**Figures**

4A and **S13**, **Table S21**), albeit with the opposite direction of effect relative to the melanocyte

CASP8 eQTL. rs3769821 also had a significant albeit weaker allelic effect in the reverse

direction in both cell lines with the direction of effect matching the *CASP8* eQTL, while in one

cell line in the forward direction there we noted a reproducible allelic difference in the opposite

direction (**Figure S14**, **Table S21**). Lastly, two other variants, rs59308963 and rs1861270

(**Table S21**), showed significant but weak allelic difference across cell lines only in the reverse

orientation (**Figure S15**, **Table S21**), with the effect direction for only rs59308963 matching the

CASP8 eQTL. We also examined two previously published melanoma MPRA studies which

assayed five of these variants in human melanoma cells as well as HEK293T kidney cells

(MPRA v.1[46]; **Figure S16**), or six of these variants in both melanoma cells and human primary

melanocytes (MPRA v.2)[47] with both studies testing a similar insert size (**Table S21**). Of the

eight variants tested in either study, only rs3769823 showed an FDR-significant (FDR < 0.01)

allelic effect in melanoma cells ($P_{MPRA\,v.1}$ = 1.86 x 10^{-12}, $P_{MPRA\,v.2}$ = 1.09 x 10^{-52}; **Table S21**),

where the direction of effect was consistent with data from individual reporter assays and where

the allelic effect is opposite to the *CASP8* eQTL. Likewise, in the second MPRA study, of the six

variants tested, only rs3769823 was FDR-significant in primary melanocytes ($P_{MPRA\,v.2}$ = 3.96 x

10^{-9}), albeit with a smaller effect size (beta = -0.11) as compared to that observed in melanoma

cells ($beta_{MPRA\,v.1}$ = -0.65; $beta_{MPRA\,v.2}$ = -0.45) (**Table S21**). Of the remaining variants,

rs3769821 was significant only in a joint analysis of data from both melanoma and HEK293T

kidney cells ($P_{\text{MPRA v.1}}$ = 3.11 x 10^{-4}; **Table S21**) with direction of effect matching that observed in

individual luciferase assays (reverse orientation) and consistent with the *CASP8* eQTL. Given

the potential of shared signal in this region with breast cancer, we also tested three variants,

rs3769823, rs3769821, rs59308963, in multiple breast cancer cell lines replicating the

significant allelic effect and direction observed in melanoma for rs3769823, but with inconsistent

results for the other two variants (**Figures S13**-**S15**). Collectively, these data suggest the

potential for multiple *cis*-regulatory variants, with risk-associated allelic effects in differing

directions and in some cases possibly dependent on cellular context, with the strongest

evidence for rs3769823.

Figure 4. The melanoma-associated rs3769823 is a functional *cis*-regulatory variant and displays allele-preferential binding by E4F1 and IRF2. (A) Individual luciferase reporter activity assays for rs3769823 were conducted using the melanoma cell line UACC903. 138 bp sequences encompassing rs3769823 construct were cloned 5' of the pGL4.23 minimal TATA promoter and transfected. Luciferase activity was measured 24 h after transfection and was

normalized against *Renilla* luciferase activity. One representative set from three biological
replicate experiments is shown. Mean with SEM are plotted. Individual *P* values are shown for
A-risk allele versus G-protective allele for the replicate shown (two-tailed, unpaired t-test
assuming unequal variances). TATA, minimal promoter control; A, risk allele construct marked
in red; G, protective allele construct. (B) EMSAs were performed using 21 bp biotin-labeled
double-stranded oligonucleotides for the A-risk (red) or G-protective (black) alleles of rs3769823
and nuclear extract from UACC903 melanoma cells. 2x, 5x, or 10x molar excess of unlabeled
competitor was added in specified lanes. One representative set from three replicate
experiments is shown. (C) Allele-specific rs3769823 binding proteins were identified by
quantitative mass spectrometry using UACC903 melanoma nuclear extracts and 21 bp
biotinylated double-stranded DNA probed with A-risk or G-protective alleles. The dimethyl-
labeling ratios of proteins bound to A/G or G/A probes are plotted on the *x* and *y* axes for label-
swapping experiments. Red-filled circles highlight proteins enriched above the background in
both experiments. (D) Antibody super-shift assay of rs3769823 EMSA in UACC903 melanoma
cells using anti-E4F1 or anti-IRF2 antibody is shown, where the A-risk specific shifted band
(arrows) is diminished. One representative set from three independent experiments is shown. (E)
ChIP was performed using antibody to anti-E4F1, anti-IRF2 or anti-IgG and chromatin prepared
from UACC903 melanoma cells, followed by qPCR. DNA quantity was normalized to input DNA
for each immunoprecipitation. Mean of qPCR triplicates with SEM are plotted and *P*-values
shown for one representative experiment from three biological replicates.

Three of these variants are in close proximity and located within a common melanocyte

enhancer element, and individual luciferase assays for all three reflect enhancer activity well

above empty vector controls. We speculated that these may influence enhancer function in the

context of a haplotype and thus performed reporter assays for a larger 641 bp region harboring

all three variants in the context of the four most common haplotypes observed in the 1000

Genomes EUR sample set. Here, the haplotype harboring risk alleles of all three represent 27%

of alleles, which that containing protective alleles for each is 64% (**Table S22**). Comparing the

all-risk (A/C/ATTCTGTC for rs3769823, rs3769821, and rs59308963) to all-protective (G/T/-)

haplotypes in melanocytes, we observed significantly lower reporter activity for the risk

haplotype in the forward direction (cloned relative to the direction of *CASP8* transcription

(**Figure S17A).** This direction matches the eQTL direction of effect for rs3769823 and *CASP8* in

melanocytes, melanomas, skin, and mammary tissues (**Figure S18A-F**). In contrast, reporter

assays in melanoma cells and breast cancer cells showed the opposite direction of effect, with

higher reporter expression driven from the all-risk haplotype (**Figures S17B, C**). These data

suggest a complex *cis*-regulatory architecture overlapping annotated melanocyte promoter for

multiple *CASP8* isoforms, that allelic patterns of regulation may be highly dependent on both

adjacent functional variants as well as cellular context, and where the observed direction of

effect in melanocytes *in vitro* is consistent with *CASP8* as plausible causal gene.

The genomic region containing rs3769823, rs3769821 and rs59308963 physically

interacts with *FLACC1*

Given that rs3769823, rs3769821, rs59308963 are all correlated with not only *CASP8*

expression but also *FLACC1* in melanocytes (rs3769823, P = 7.14 x 10^{-4}, slope = -0.23, **Figure**

S18A; rs3769821, P = 2.42 x 10^{-5}, slope = -0.28; rs59308963, P = 0.01, slope = -0.19; **Table**

S10), we investigated whether these or other credible causal variants physically interact with

FLACC1. We first assessed interactions using a region-specific Capture-C assay performed in

five independent human primary melanocyte cultures, where capture baits were tiled across the

entire region of association [48,49] at 2q33.1. Here, we observed a direct physical contact between

the restriction fragments containing these three variants and the *FLACC1* promoter (**Figure**

S19A, **Table S23** and **S24**). We did not observe physical interaction between these variants and

any other gene within the TAD containing the association signal. We further assessed this

interaction using chromatin conformation capture (3C) in two independent melanocyte cultures

as well as the UACC903 melanoma cell line, using the region harboring these three variants as

bait and using primers spanning *CASP8* and *FLACC1*. Here, we confirmed a physical

interaction between these variants and the *FLACC1* promoter in both melanocyte cultures, with

little evidence of a strong association in melanoma cells (**Figure S19B**). These data suggest

that the transcriptional regulatory region harboring rs3769823, rs3769821, and rs59308963

could potentially play a role in regulation not only of *CASP8*, but also *FLACC1*.

Multiple transcription factors bind to rs3769823 in an allele-preferential manner

Given potential *cis*-regulatory roles for rs3769823, rs3769821, rs59308963, we further assessed

whether these variants influence the binding of nuclear proteins to the sequences

encompassing them. We first performed electromobility shift assays (EMSAs) using nuclear

extracts from melanoma cell lines, primary melanocytes, or breast cancer cell lines. We

observed preferential binding of nuclear protein to the A-risk allele compared to G-protective

allele of rs3769823 across all cell lines tested, where competition with unlabeled probe

containing the A-risk allele is stronger than that containing the G allele, demonstrating specificity

(**Figures 4B** and **S20**). For rs3769821, we observed suggestive evidence of preferential binding

of nuclear protein to the T-protective allele compared to C-risk allele in melanocytes, melanoma,

and breast cancer cell lines, albeit with weak specificity (**Figure S21A**). Finally, for rs59308963,

EMSA results show preferential binding to the insertion-risk allele compared to deletion allele
with weak specificity in melanocytes, melanoma, and breast cancer cells (**Figure S22A**). These
data suggest a strong and consistent pattern of allelic protein binding to rs3769823, consistent
with the large effect observed in reporter assays, and weaker evidence for allelic binding for the
other two variants.

We also performed quantitative mass spectrometry with oligonucleotides corresponding to the
risk or the protective allele of each of these variants incubated with nuclear extracts from
melanoma or breast cancer cell lines to directly identify allele preferential binding proteins. For
rs3769823, we noted shared allele-specific binding proteins between both cell lines; specifically,
IRF2 and E4F1 were observed to preferentially bind the A-risk allele, while REST and POU2F1
bound the G-protective allele (**Figures 4C** and **S23A**). The data for A-specific binding proteins
are consistent with the patterns observed from the EMSA data, suggesting E4F1 or IRF2 as
potential risk-allele binding transcription factors. Further, sequence-based motif prediction was
also consistent with these mass spectrometry data, indicating that the sequence around
rs3769823 forms a consensus binding site for both E4F1 and IRF2, favoring binding to the A-
risk allele (**Figure S24**). For rs3769821, most of the potential preferential binding was found to
be the T-protective allele via EMSA, however mass spectrometry found few T-specific binders
and no overlapping T-binding proteins between cells; PRDM14 and ZBTB9 were both found to
preferentially bind the C-allele (**Figure S21B**). We also identified BNC2 as a strong risk-
insertion binding protein to the risk-associated allele of rs59308963 in melanoma cells (**Figure
S22B**).

Based on the clear results and strong allelic pattern of *cis*-regulatory activity for rs3769823, we
sought to verify whether E4F1 or IRF2 proteins bound the A-allele by using antibodies against
these proteins in conjunction with EMSAs. Antibodies against either E4F1 or IRF2 consistently
resulted in loss of A allele-specific protein binding in both melanoma and breast cancer cell lines
(**Figures 4D** and **S23B**). To further establish the binding of E4F1 or IRF2 to rs3769823, we
performed chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) for E4F1 or IRF2 followed by quantitative PCR,
noting an enrichment of binding at rs3769823 in melanoma cell lines with homozygous for
rs3769823-A as well as primary melanocytes heterozygous for this variant (**Figures 4E** and
S25B). We assessed enrichment at other locations across the *CASP8* gene that had previously
been shown via ChIP-seq to be bound by IRF2 or E4F1, and DHS data from ENCODE (**Figure
S25A**), however ChIP only showed enrichment of both in the region over rs3769823

(UACC903(A/A), P_{E4F1} = 1.46 x 10^{-3}, P_{IRF2} = 0.016; C87(A/G), P_{E4F1} = 3.25 x 10^{-3}, P_{IRF2} = 9.47 x

10^{-3}; **Figure S25B**). Using the heterozygous melanocyte culture, we also assessed allelic

enrichment in the immunoprecipitants using quantitative real-time PCR genotyping assay and

noted a significant enrichment of the A allele as compared to the G allele at rs3769823 in

primary melanocytes for both transcription factors (**Figure S25C**). Together, these data clearly

suggest that E4F1 and IRF2 may act through rs3769823 at this locus.

E4F1 and IRF2 as potential repressor and activator of *CASP8* transcription, respectively

Given the allelic binding observed for E4F1 and IRF2 to the A-risk allele of *cis*-regulatory SNP

rs3769823, we next explored relationships between levels of these transcription factors and

expression of *CASP8* and *FLACC1* in various cell and tissue types. In primary melanocytes, we

observe clear negative correlation between both *E4F1* mRNA levels with *CASP8* (*E4F1, P* =

3.80 x 10^{-6}, Pearson r = -0.43; **Figure S26**, **Table S25**) while *IRF2* is not significant (*IRF2, P* =

0.39, r = 0.08; **Figure S26**, **Table S25**); multiple linear regression shows both rs3769823 and

E4F1 to be significant (*E4F1 P* = 1.70 x 10^{-15}; rs3769823 *P* = 5.39 x 10^{-7}; *IRF2 P* = 0.43; **Table**

S26). These data are consistent with a known role for E4F1 as a transcriptional repressor[50] and

suggests a role in regulation of *CASP8*. This direction of effect is consistent with transcriptional

activity observed in reporter assays in melanocytes potentially being attributable in part of a

repressive effect for E4F1 when considering the longer three-variant risk haplotype, but not the

short (138 bp) fragment assays considering rs3769823 alone. In contrast, in TCGA melanoma

tumors, while significant negative correlation with *E4F1* was observed (*E4F1, P* = 2.26 x 10^{-4}, r

= -0.20; **Figure S26**, **Table S25**), a much stronger positive with *CASP8* was observed for *IRF2*

(*IRF2, P* = 1.69 x 10^{-27}, r = 0.54; **Figure S26, Table S25**); both transcription factors and

rs3769823 are significant via multiple linear regression (*E4F1 P* = 0.0018; *IRF2 P* = 2 x 10^{-16};

rs3769823 *P* = 0.035; **Table S27**), again with the strongest effect for *IRF2.* We did not find

significant evidence for an interaction between rs3769823 and either of the transcription factors

(**Table S27**). We were able to replicate this positive correlation specifically between *IRF2* and

CASP8 in independent panels of melanoma cell lines (*P* = 4.23 x 10^{-4}, r = 0.38; **Table S25**) and

the Leeds Melanoma Cohort (*P* = 8.74 x 10^{-4}, r = 0.30; **Table S25**). This direction of effect is

consistent with a potential role for *IRF2* as a potential activator in both individual and haplotype-

based reporter assays, but inconsistent with the direction of the relatively weak eQTL for

CASP8 in melanoma tumors. We formally tested for potential interactions between *E4F1* and

rs3769823 in melanocyte expression data as well as between *E4F1* and/or *IRF2* and rs3769823

in TCGA melanoma tumors but did not find significant supporting evidence (**Tables S26** and

S27).

We also assessed transcripts encoding two T-protective allele binding proteins for correlations

with potential target genes, observing a positive correlation between the transcriptional

repressor *REST,* as well as *POU2F1,* and *CASP8* in melanocytes (*REST*, $P = 7.21 \times 10^{-11}$; r =

0.58; *POU2F1*, $P = 8.40 \times 10^{-3}$, r = 0.25), a weak negative correlation for *POU2F1* in TCGA

melanomas (*P* = 0.04, r = -0.11), and a positive correlation for *REST* in the Leeds Melanoma

Cohort ($P = 1.75 \times 10^{-14}$, r = 0.30) (**Table S25**). This positive correlation with *CASP8* in

melanocytes and some melanoma tumors is inconsistent with the established role for REST as

a transcriptional repressor. Still, this direction of effect is consistent with a potential role for

REST repressing reporter activity in both individual (short fragment) reporter assays for

rs3769823 as well as both previously-reported MPRA assays. Multiple linear regression

considering all three individually correlated risk-A and protective-G binding alleles and genotype

for rs3769823 in melanocytes suggests all four are significant (*REST* P = 6.71×10^{-7}; rs3769823

P = 4.29×10^{-6}; *POU2F1 P* = 0.0019; *E4F1 P* = 0.010; **Table S28**). We note similarly complex

patterns of correlation between both risk- and protective- allele rs3769823 binding proteins in

non-melanocytic tissues (GTEx skin, GTEx breast mammary, and TCGA breast invasive

carcinoma; **Table S25**) and expression of *CASP8* as well as *FLACC1* (**Table S25**). These data

are consistent with the activity of the regulatory region encompassing rs3769823 being

modulated by a complex interplay of multiple allele-specific transcriptional regulators interacting

with risk and protective alleles in a tissue-specific manner.

Finally, we also investigated correlations between *CASP8* and allele-specific binding proteins for

rs3769821 (**Table S29**) and rs59308963 (**Table S30**), observing negative correlations with the

transcripts for rs3769821 risk-allele binding protein ZBTB9 and the rs59308963 risk-allele

binding protein BNC2 (*ZBTB9*, TCGA $P = 2.15 \times 10^{-11}$, TCGA r = -0.35, Leeds $P = 3.40 \times 10^{-3}$,

Leeds r = -0.12; *BNC2*, TCGA $P = 2.70 \times 10^{-4}$, TCGA r = -0.19, Leeds $P = 1.43 \times 10^{-13}$, Leeds r

= -0.29; **Tables S29** and **S30**). For *FLACC1*, we note similar correlations in melanocytes to

those observed for *CASP8*, with negative correlation observed for *E4F1* ($P = 3.40 \times 10^{-6}$, r = -

0.43), and positive correlations observed for *REST* and *POU2F1* (*REST*, $P = 1.72 \times 10^{-10}$, r =

0.57; *POU2F1*, $P = 4.71 \times 10^{-12}$, r = 0.61), but do not observe consistent correlations for *IRF2* or

REST across melanoma datasets (**Table S25**). Similar to what is observed for rs3769823, these

correlations vary considerably between melanocytic and non-melanocytic tissues (**Tables S29**

and **S30**) observing similarly complex patterns of correlation. Collectively, these data suggest a

potentially complex gene regulatory interplay, prominently of multiple allele-specific rs3769823

binding proteins, as well as other transcriptional regulators, some of which may bind this region

differentially in risk and protective haplotypes.

To determine the effects of depleting the two rs3769823 A-risk allele-specific binding proteins

on *CASP8* transcription in melanoma, primary melanocyte cultures, and breast cancer cell lines,

we knocked these genes down using siRNAs. Knockdown of *E4F1* resulted in an increase in

CASP8 levels while *IRF2* knockdown results in reduction of *CASP8* RNA levels in melanoma

(**Figure 5A** and **5B**, **S27A** and **S27B**), breast cancer (**Figure S28A** and **S28B**), and

melanocytes (**Figure S29A**), consistent with respective roles for E4F1 and IRF2 as a potential

repressor and activator in cells of melanocytic lineage. Short fragment (138 bp) reporter assays

for rs3769823 in conjunction with knockdown of A-risk allele binding protein IRF2 resulted in a

significant decrease of expression driven primarily from the A-risk allele compared to the

protective G-allele in both forward and reverse directions in melanoma (UACC903 cells, $P_{forward}$

= 1.22 x 10^{-7}, $P_{reverse}$ = 2.84 x 10^{-8}, **Figure 5C**; UACC1113, $P_{forward}$ = 1.65 x 10^{-5}, $P_{reverse}$ = 2.20 x

10^{-3}, **Figure S27C**) and breast cancer cell lines (T47D, $P_{forward}$ = 2.92 x 10^{-7}, $P_{reverse}$ =3.18 x 10^{-7},

Figure S28C), consistent with a potentially prominent role for IRF2 in *CASP8* regulation in

melanoma cells. Consistent with the weaker correlations between *E4F1* and *CASP8* in

melanoma cells, *E4F1* knockdown only modestly increased reporter activity for the A-risk allele,

and only in the forward direction, suggesting a potentially weak repressor role for E4F1 in the

context of melanoma cells (UACC903, $P_{forward}$ = 8.05 x 10^{-4}, $P_{reverse}$ = 0.74, **Figure 5C**;

UACC1113, $P_{forward}$ = 3.47 x 10^{-3}, $P_{reverse}$ = 0.02, **Figure S27C**). In primary melanocytes, reporter

assays for rs3769823 with knockdown of A-risk-allele binding E4F1 resulted in a significant

increase of promoter activity in the A-risk allele compared to the protective G-allele in both

direction (C23 melanocytes, $P_{forward}$ = 1.27 x 10^{-9}, $P_{reverse}$ = 0.013, **Figure S29B**), suggesting a

potentially repressor role for E4F1 in regulation of *CASP8* in melanocytes.

Figure 5. *E4F1* or *IRF2* and rs3769823 regulate *CASP8* expression in UACC903 melanoma
cells. (A) *E4F1* or *IRF2* were knocked down using respective pools of four different siRNAs in
UACC903 melanoma cells, and *E4F1*, *IRF2* and *CASP8* levels were measured. *GAPDH-*

normalized *E4F1*, *IRF2* or *CASP8* mRNA levels are shown as fold change over those from non-
targeting siRNA. A representative experiment from three biological replicates is shown
(individual datapoints, mean, and SEM are plotted). *P*-values are shown from one
representative set. (B) Protein levels were examined using anti-E4F1, anti-IRF2, or anti-GAPDH
antibody with UACC903 cell lysates of siRNAs transfected with either non-targeting control,
E4F1, or *IRF2* siRNAs. GAPDH was used as a loading control. One representative set of three
replicate experiments is shown. (C) Individual luciferase assays were performed by co-
transfecting rs3769823 luciferase constructs with *E4F1*, *IRF2,* or non-targeting control siRNAs
into UACC903 melanoma cells. *Renilla*-normalized relative luciferase activities are shown
relative to an empty construct containing only a minimal promoter (TATA). One representative
set is shown from three biological replicates. Mean with SEM is plotted, *n* = 6 technical
replicates. A two-tailed t-test assuming unequal variances was used to calculate all *P* values
shown against control siRNA.

Discussion

In this study, we focused on a melanoma susceptibility locus over the *CASP8* gene on 2q33.1

that was originally identified by Barrett and colleagues[5] and has since been replicated in a large

melanoma GWAS meta-analysis (rs10931936-T, $P_{\text{fixed}} = 2.12 \times 10^{-12}$, $P_{\text{random}} = 2.17 \times 10^{-8}$, OR =

1.08)[10]. In order to comprehensively identify additional independent signals as well as nominate

one or more sets of credible causal variants associated with such signals, we used multiple

complementary approaches. Conditional and joint analyses previously found no evidence for a

second genome-wide significant signal at 2q33.1[10]; here, we observe no evidence for a

prominent independent melanoma risk signal of marginal significance. Fine-mapping using

Bayesian approaches similarly identified one prominent signal at this locus with little evidence

for additional signals.

Germline variants is this region have been identified as associated with multiple cancers,

including breast cancer (rs3769821) [11], keratinocyte cancers (cutaneous BCC and SCC

combined, rs6743068) [13], cutaneous BCC (rs6714430) [13], cutaneous SCC (rs10931936) [13], and

non-small cell lung cancer (rs3769821) [51] where the direction of effect is the same and the risk

alleles share a common haplotype with the melanoma risk allele of rs10931936. In addition, a

highly correlated risk signal was previously identified for prostate cancer (rs59308963) [52] where

the direction of effect is opposite to that of melanoma and the other cancers. This locus was

also identified via GWAS for chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL; rs3769825) [53], however this

signal appears to be considerably less correlated with the melanoma risk signal (r^2 with

rs10931936 = 0.26). For several of these cancers with summary data readily available, we

evaluated evidence for colocalization, with the results suggesting sharing of one or more causal

variants between melanoma and signals for breast cancer, cutaneous BCC, and cutaneous

SCC and further suggesting that our work to fine-map identify functional, potentially causal

variants for melanoma risk may be relevant for these other cancers.

Using multiple complementary fine-mapping approaches, we identified a set of 27 potential

causal variants. Collectively, these variants present multiple potential alternative or

complementary functional mechanisms for influencing gene function and cancer risk. Notably,

rs3769823 is a missense protein-coding variant in codon 14 of an alternative first exon of

CASP8 utilized by multiple isoforms and expressed in human primary melanocytes (isoforms G

and H; **Figure S6**). However, a majority of algorithms designed to predict variant function

suggest this variant is likely benign and K14R is not located within conserved domains or known

or predicted sites of post-translational modification. Despite this, we did not directly test for an

effect of the two alleles of this variant on CASP8 protein function and cannot rule out a role for

altered protein sequence as a mechanism underlying risk at this locus. Zhang and colleagues

studied the functionality of rs3769823 by expressing the two alleles in lung cancer cell lines and

noted differences in proliferation and cell migration *in vitro* and *in vivo* [54]. Notably, expression

from the K14R (protective) allele generated more CASP8 protein, which the authors posited

may be due to altered protein stability. Downstream phenotypic assays did not distinguish

between the effects of protein abundance and protein sequence-specific effects, and potential

transcriptional differences for the two constructs were not controlled for, so a protein-coding

function for this variant on CASP8 remains possible but still unclear. Further work is needed to

assess potential effects of this protein-coding change on CASP8 protein function.

We also observed a significant *CASP8* sQTL in melanocyte and other GTEx eQTL datasets

relevant to cancers with associations for this locus (marked by rs10804111; r^2 to rs10931936 =

0.62; D' = 1) reflecting alternative splicing events at the exon 8 to exon 9 junction. The

alternative splicing event is more strongly associated with the protective allele generates an

alternative *CASP8* transcript, isoform H. This transcript retains only part of canonical intron 8

and introduces a frameshift in the transcript, leading to premature termination. The resultant

protein retains the *CASP8* death effector domain but lacks the catalytic domain, and notably,

Himeji and colleagues demonstrated that this protein could inhibit apoptosis mediated by wild-

type CASP8 in a dominant-negative manner[39]. Thus, the transcript preferentially driven by the

protective allele could potentially lead to loss of *CASP8* function; this stands in functional

contrast to the melanocyte eQTL observed where the protective allele of rs10931936 is

associated with higher rather than lower levels of *CASP8* transcript. Nonetheless, while LD of

rs10804111 with rs10931936 is comparable to that of other fine-mapped credible causal

variants for melanoma at this locus, none of the fine-mapping approaches we applied nominates

rs10804111 as a credible causal variant itself. Still, much as for the protein-coding change

caused by rs3769823, we cannot rule out a role for altered *CASP8* splicing contributing to

melanoma risk.

In contrast, eQTL and TWAS results in human primary melanocytes[10,36] provide strong evidence

suggesting *cis*-gene regulation as a likely mechanism underlying melanoma risk attributable to

this locus, where melanoma risk-associated alleles were significantly correlated with lower

levels of *CASP8*. Both TWAS and colocalization approaches suggest that melanoma risk and

melanocyte eQTL for *CASP8* likely share one or more common causal variant, with

colocalization strongly nominating rs3769823. Both also provide some support for *FLACC1*,

where in contrast to the *CASP8* eQTL, higher *FLACC1* levels are associated with the melanoma

risk allele. Several fine-mapped melanoma risk variants at this locus are clearly located within

melanocyte gene-regulatory regions, including regions annotated as active promoters,

consistent with a potential role for this signal regulating *CASP8* levels. Consistent with observed

FLACC1 QTLs, melanocyte-specific capture-C and 3C assays showed a physical interaction

between fine-mapped melanoma risk variants and the *FLACC1* promoter region (**Figure S19**)

suggesting risk variants indeed may play a role in regulating both genes. Notably, none of these

analyses suggest a prominent role for other nearby genes, including the apoptosis regulatory

genes *CASP10* and *CFLAR*.

Based on these data, we comprehensively assessed fine-mapped risk variants for potential *cis*-

regulatory function, first identifying eight variants overlapping with *cis*-regulatory histone marks

in disease relevant tissue (melanocytes, keratinocytes, human mammary epithelial cells, and

breast myoepithelial primary cells). We assessed each for allelic *cis*-regulatory potential both in

two previously published massively parallel reporter assays performed in melanocytes and/or

melanoma cells, identifying rs3769823 as the only significant variant, with allelic effects in both

melanoma cells and to a lesser degree melanocytes. We likewise tested each in individual

luciferase reporter assays in two melanoma cell lines, again identifying rs3769823 as the only

variant with consistently significant allelic *cis*-regulatory activities in both cell lines and in both

forward and reverse orientations where the direction of reporter effect was consistent with the

melanocyte *FLACC1* eQTL but opposite that of *CASP8* (e.g., the risk allele is associated with

higher reporter expression). Nonetheless, in individual assays, several variants displayed allelic

activity in one orientation, including two additional variants rs3769821 and rs59308963, located

nearby rs3769823 in the same annotated gene promoter region, suggesting potential functional

contributions from more than one variant. Testing commonly occurring

rs3769823/rs3769821/rs59308963 haplotypes in a reporter assay revealed cell-type dependent

effects; the risk-associated A/C/ATTCTGTC haplotype was associated with lower expression

relative to the protective G/T/- haplotype in melanocytes but higher expression in melanoma

cells in the forward orientation relative to *CASP8* transcription (**Figure S17A, B**). This stands in

contrast to the results from Camp and colleagues, who tested risk and protective haplotypes of

rs3769823/rs3769821 and observed lower reporter gene expression driven from the risk

haplotype in both normal breast and breast cancer cell lines [55]. The differing direction of effect

observed in melanocytes for rs3769823 in short-fragment versus longer-fragment haplotype

analysis suggests that while rs3769823 is strongly functional, the allelic effects are influenced

by other nearby and potentially functional variants.

All three variants showed allelic patterns of protein binding via EMSA. Previously, in the context

of lung cancer susceptibility, Long and colleagues observed a *cis*-regulatory element shared

across many lung cell types overlapping rs3769823 and noted that this variant is predicted to

alter IRF8 DNA binding [56]. Here, we applied a quantitative mass spectrometry workflow and

identified multiple allele-specific nuclear binding proteins from both melanoma and breast

cancer cells that bound these variants in an allele specific manner. In particular, we identified

proteins that typically act either as a transcriptional repressor (E4F1) or activator (IRF2) as both

preferentially binding the A-risk allele of rs3769823, and verified binding of both factors via ChIP

in melanoma cells and primary melanocytes. While we did not observe significantly different

IRF8 binding in this context, the DNA-binding motifs of IRF2 and IRF8 are quite similar. We

observed a similar situation for G-protective allele specific binding proteins, where both an

activator (POU2F1) and repressor (REST) were found to bind to this allele in an allele

preferential manner. Thus, allelic transcriptional activity may be highly dependent on relative

availability of these factors as well as competition for binding under different cellular contexts.

Indeed, gene expression correlation analyses suggest, for example, that E4F1 may play a

prominent role for *CASP8* regulation in melanocytes, while the activator IRF2 may play a larger

role in regulation of *CASP8* in melanomas. Indeed, reporter assay data for rs3769823 in

conjunction with *E4F1* or *IRF2* knockdown are consistent with this, where in melanoma cells

knockdown of IRF2 resulted in a significant decrease of expression driven from the A-risk allele,

while knockdown of E4F1 resulted in a weaker increase of reporter activity driven from the A-

allele. Given the similarity of DNA-binding motifs for IRF proteins, it may be possible that in

addition, tissue-specific availability of other IRF family members could also drive or repress

gene expression via rs3769823 and possibly explain the pleiotropy at this signal for prostate

cancer where the direction of effect is opposite that of melanoma and the other cancers [15]. In

contrast knockdown of E4F1 in melanocytes resulted in a significant increase of activity driven

from the A-risk allele. We further observed additional allele specific binding proteins for

potentially functional adjacent variants rs3769821 and rs59308963, which could well further

modulate transcriptional output themselves as well as potentially contribute to preference of

transcription factor binding to rs3769823.

Our work provides strong evidence for two potential causal genes at this locus, *CASP8* and

FLACC1. Of these, *CASP8* represents a very strong *a priori* candidate cancer risk gene, given

its long-established role as an apoptotic initiator caspase and the fact that lower *CASP8* levels

are associated with cancer risk. Little is known about the function of *FLACC1* (formerly

ALS2CR12). It has been found to be component of sperm tail flagellum [57], and functional

studies of *ALS2CR12*-like genes in *C. elegans* suggest that similar genes play a role in gene

and or repetitive DNA silencing, a function appearing to be dependent on the biogenesis of

small RNAs [58,59]. Notably this region harbors multiple genes involved in apoptosis, including

CASP10, encoding another apoptotic initiator caspase [60-62] sharing similar substrate specificity

to CASP8 [63] but possibly acting as a negative regulator of CASP8-mediated cell death [64]. Also

located within this region is *CFLAR* (also known as c-FLIP), encoding a protein structurally-

similar to CASP8 but lacking caspase activity and acting to prevent CASP8 dimerization and

inhibiting apoptosis [19,65-69]. Despite the interacting roles of these genes, we observe little

evidence that the risk signal drives differences in expression of these antiapoptotic genes.

Nonetheless, we cannot rule out potential regulation of these genes from this signal under

specific contexts. We do note, however, that at least in human melanocytes we observe no

evidence of physical interaction between fine-mapped cancer risk variants (**Figure S19**) and the

promoter regions of either gene.

In summary, our study functionally interrogated the multi-cancer risk locus on chromosome

band 2q33.1, providing strong evidence for *cis*-regulation of *CASP8* via multiple functional

variants as a primary causal mechanism influencing cancer risk.

Material and methods

Melanoma GWAS summary data

For all analyses using melanoma GWAS data, we used summary statistics from both

histologically confirmed, as well as self-reported melanoma cases (from 23andMe and UK

Biobank), and controls as previously described[10]. In total, summary data are derived from

36,760 melanoma cases and 375,188 controls; all participants provided informed consent and

participation was IRB approved. Participants from 23andMe provided informed consent and

participated in the research online under a protocol approved by the external AAHRPP-

accredited IRB, Ethical and Independent Review Services (E and I Review).

Conditional and joint analysis of melanoma GWAS

704 Conditional and joint analysis was performed with summary melanoma GWAS meta-analysis

705 data by using Genome-wide Complex Trait Analysis (GCTA, v.1.26.0)[28] to identify independent

706 associated variants. We set the collinearity threshold (-cojo-collinear) to $R^2 = 0.05$ to detect only

707 completely independent SNPs. Linkage disequilibrium (LD) between SNPs was calculated using

708 5,000 randomly selected individuals of European ancestry from UK Biobank.

Colocalization of the 2q33.1 melanoma association signal with other GWAS and QTL data

For colocalization analyses, we used GWAS summary data from breast cancer (122,977 cases

and 105,974 controls; dbGaP accession number phs001265.v1.p1; downloaded from

https://bcac.ccge.medschl.cam.ac.uk/bcacdata/oncoarray/oncoarray-and-combined-summary-

result/gwas-summary-results-breast-cancer-risk-2017/)[11] and keratinocyte cancers (47,742

cases and 634,414 controls; dbGaP accession number phs000360.v3.p1)[13], including

cutaneous BCC (31,787 cases and 619,351 controls)[13] and cutaneous squamous cell

carcinoma (SCC; 9,674 cases and 625,657 controls)[13]. Colocalization analyses for the 2q33.1

locus were performed using both Hypothesis Prioritization in multi-trait Colocalization

(HyPrColoc)[29] and eQTL and GWAS Causal Variant Identification in Associated Regions

(eCAVIAR)[30] as implemented in the ezQTL web-based tool

(https://analysistools.cancer.gov/ezqtl/)[70]. For both, we used the set of SNPs in +/- 100 kb

window size from the melanoma GWAS lead SNP rs10931936[36,38]. For HyPrColoc, a posterior

probability (PP) above 50% (0.5) was considered to display a positive colocalization and SNP

score above 5% (0.05) was considered to share a common causal variant. For eCAVIAR, the

colocalization posterior probability (CLPP) score was calculated with a maximum number of two

causal SNPs in the locus; a CLPP score above 1% (0.01) was considered to display a positive

colocalization.

GWAS fine-mapping

Fine-mapping was performed using several approaches. Firstly, in order to inclusively nominate

candidate causal variants for assessment, we used the log-likelihood ratio (LLR) of each SNP in

the region relative to lead variant rs10931936, and considered all variants within a ratio of

>1:1000. Variants not successfully imputed from the GWAS that thus could not be fine-mapped

in this manner nor via other methods requiring summary data, hence we used an LD-based

threshold. Specifically, we chose this threshold to be consistent with the observed LD (r^2)

between LLR-mapped credible set variants with, where the minimum LD from this set with

rs10931936 was r^2 = 0.625 (1000 Genomes Projects Phase 3 EUR data; 1000G EUR). We thus

considered variants not present in the summary dataset where 1000G EUR $r^2 \geq$ 0.625. We also

performed Bayesian fine-mapping of melanoma GWAS summary data[10] for the 2q33.1 risk

region using both Deterministic Approximation of Posteriors (DAP-G)[32,33] and Probabilistic

Annotation INtegraTOR (PAINTOR)[34,35]. DAP-G (version 1.0) analysis used a 500 Kb window

size centered over the association signal (median position of chr2:202,123,966) and allowing for

a maximum number of five causals. A UK Biobank (UKBB) LD reference panel (from 337K

UKBB participants, downloaded from https://alkesgroup.broadinstitute.org/UKBB_LD/)[71] was

aligned with the summary statistics from the melanoma GWAS meta-analysis[10] using R (version

4.1.0) for input into DAP-G. PAINTOR analyses were performed as described previously[46] using

PAINTOR 3.0 with a window size of 100 Kb, maximum causals set to 4, 4 melanocyte-specific

epigenomic annotations and pairwise LD derived from 1000 Genomes phase 3 EUR (1000G

EUR) data computed using PLINK version 1.9 and R version 4.1.0. Functional annotations

include a set of 2,000 melanocyte-specific expressed genes from our melanocyte dataset[36],

melanocyte enhancers, transcribed regions, and a histone mark (H3T11ph) from ENCODE and

Roadmap.

Prediction of variant effect on protein function and structure

We predicted the functional impact of missense variant rs3769823 on function of CASP8 protein

through the PredictSNP2 [37] web-based tool (https://loschmidt.chemi.muni.cz/predictsnp2/),

which integrates five functional prediction methods including CADD (Combined Annotation

Dependent Depletion) [72], DANN (Deleterious Annotation of genetic variants using Neural

Network) [73], FATHMM (Functional Analysis Through Hidden Markov Model) [74], FunSeq2 [75], and

GWAVA (Genome-Wide Annotation of VAriants)[76]. We also predicted potential effects of

CASP8[K14R] on secondary structure of the protein through JPred4 [77] web server

(https://www.compbio.dundee.ac.uk/jpred4/), which also predicts solvent accessibility and

coiled-coil regions. Predictions from AlphaMissense[78] for rs3769823 are not available.

Quantitative trait locus (QTL) data and other expression data

QTL data from 106 primary human melanocyte cultures primarily of European ancestry were

generated as described previously for both gene expression (eQTL)[36] as well as for splicing

(sQTL) and CpG methylation (meQTL)[38] (dbGaP accession: phs001500.v1.p1). Conditional

analysis of the *CASP8* melanocyte eQTL was performed using QTLTools

(https://qtltools.github.io/qtltools/)[79], combining genotype and expression level data, along with a

matrix of covariates including the top three genotype principal components and the top 15

PEER factors. For other tissues, we used pre-analyzed *cis*-eQTL data from the Genotype-

Tissue Expression (GTEx) project (v.7), which were downloaded from the GTEx portal

(https://gtexportal.org/home/index.html)[40]. eQTL analysis was performed previously[36] using

relative linear copy-number values as a covariate for 349 melanoma tumors from The Cancer

Genome Atlas Project (TCGA) skin cutaneous melanoma (SKCM) dataset[41,42]. eQTL data for 59

early passage melanoma cell lines was performed as described previously[43] using expression

and genotyping data from NCBI GEO (accessions GSE78995 for expression data; GSE99193

for genotyping data). We specifically assessed genes within the TAD harboring the lead SNP at

2q33.1 (rs10931936; chr2:201,760,000-203,080,000; hg19) based on Hi-C results from

SKMEL5 melanoma cells as visualized by the 3D Genome Browser

(http://3dgenome.fsm.northwestern.edu/view.php).

CASP8 **isoform analysis**

To assess splicing QTLs (sQTLs), we used the same genotype data, population structure

covariates, and statistical approaches as used for melanocyte eQTL analysis[36], replacing

normalized gene expression levels with normalized splice junction events. STAR[80] was used to

map the RNA-Seq reads onto the genome (hg19) and then LeafCutter[81] was applied to quantify

the splice junctions following the procedures described by the authors

(http://davidaknowles.github.io/leafcutter/articles/sQTL.html). Taqman real-time PCR assays

targeting unique junctions of *CASP8* transcript isoforms were obtained from Thermo Fisher

Scientific (Waltham, MA; all isoform transcripts: Hs01018151_m1; exon 8 to 9 junction:

Hs01018160_m1; exon 8L (alternative spliced) to 9 junction: Hs04405665_m1). RNA was

isolated from primary melanocyte cultures derived from 106 individuals mainly of European

decent[36], and cDNA was synthesized using iScript^{TM} Advanced cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad,

Hercules, CA). Taqman assays were performed in triplicates (technical replicates) and

normalized to *TBP* or *PPIA* levels.

Exon-trap analysis of alternatively spliced exons of *CASP8* genes

rs10804111 is an intronic variant; no variants strongly linked to the *CASP8* melanocyte sQTL

were located in consensus splice or branch point sequences, and none could create a cryptic

splice site responsible for the observed allelic splicing pattern. We therefore assessed potential

effects of the lead sQTL SNP rs10804111 in a minigene assay. The intron from the exon 8L to 9

junction is >5,500 bp and not amenable to cloning in a simple minigene vector. We therefore

constructed minigene vectors to contain *CASP8* exons 8/8L and surrounding intron (100 bp

upstream of exon 8 and 100 bp downstream intronic sequence from the exon 8L junction) and

*CASP*8 exon 9 and surrounding intronic sequence (100 bp upstream and 100 bp downstream

intronic sequence), linked together with 201 bp of intronic sequence surrounding each allele of

rs10804111 (**Figure S8**). *CASP8* exons 8 to 9 (including intron 8; 1,181 bp), along with the 5'

flanking of exon 8 and 3' flanking of 9 sequences (100 bp for each) were custom-synthesized

from Thermo Fisher Scientific and cloned in sense orientation using XhoI and BamHI restriction

sites of the Exontrap vector pET01 (MoBiTec, Germany) to generate the pET01-

rs10804111(C/T) mini-gene constructs containing each allele of rs10804111. Sequence-verified

pET01 constructs were transfected into UACC903 melanoma cells using Lipofectamine^{TM} 2000

(Invitrogen, Waltham, MA) in 6-well format. Cells were harvested 48 h after transfection, and

total RNA was extracted with the QIAGEN QIAcube using RNeasy kit with on-column DNase I

treatment (Qiagen, Germany). 1 µg of total RNA was converted into cDNA with SuperScript^{TM} III

reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) and a vector-specific cDNA primer listed in **Table S31**.

Taqman assays targeting unique junctions of pET01-rs10804111 were obtained from Thermo

Fisher Scientific (vector exon 2 (VE2) as a control: APH6CGV; VE1 to VE2 junction: APPRMTJ;

CASP8 exon 8 to exon 9 junction: APKA42T; *CASP8* exon 8L to exon 9 junction: APNKT7M;

listed in **Table S1**). Taqman assays were performed in triplicate and normalized to VE2 levels.

Capture-C data

Capture-C data were generated and analyzed as previously described [48,49]. Briefly, regions for bait design were determined for each locus via identification of the set of SNPs with a LLR < 100 relative to the leading SNP of a given GWAS signal. For the 2q33.1 locus, capture baits were tiled across the entire region of association (chr2:202,114,359 to 202,205,025); baited fragments are listed in **Table S32**. Capture-C libraries were made using the Arima HiC Kit (Arima Genomics, Carlsbad, CA) and the KAPA HyperPrep Kit (KAPA Biosystems, Wilmington, MA) following the manufacturer's protocol. Data are presented for region-specific Capture-C runs with five independent human primary melanocyte cultures (C56, C140, C205, C24, and C27) with three biological replicates for each. Paired-end sequencing reads from biological replicates were pre-processed with the HiCUP pipeline[82] and aligned to human genome version 19 via bowtie2[83,84]. Chromatin interaction loops were detected at one- and four-fragment resolutions via Capture Hi-C Analysis of Genomic Organization (CHiCAGO) pipeline v.1.16.0[85]. Because we observed no distant interactions between fine-mapped variants and gene promoter at one-fragment resolution, data presented are from four-fragment analysis. Visualization was performed using the WashU Epigenome Browser[86].

Chromatin conformation capture (3C)

Chromatin conformation capture (3C) assays were done based on the protocol from the Dekker Lab[87]. RP11-1078D1 bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) clones were purchased from BACPAC Resources Center and purified with the QIAGEN large-construct Maxi Kit to cover the 2q33.1 genomic region (chr2:202,045,328 to 202,245,875). BAC libraries were made by HindIII digestion of BAC plasmids, followed by ligation and DNA purification. To generate melanoma cell and melanocyte 3C libraries, we fixed and lysed 1×10^8 cells, followed by HindIII digestion and ligation. Both the BAC libraries, and melanoma and melanocytes 3C libraries were amplified with a Taqman assay containing a primer localized to various regions of chr2:202,045,328 to 202,245,875 and a fixed primer harboring rs3769823, rs3769821, and rs59308963 plus a FAM-labeled probe annealing to 3' of the fixed primer. Primers are listed in **Table S31**. PCR cycle conditions were as follows: 95°C, 5min; [95°C, 30s; 62°C, 30s; 72°C, 30s]$_{x34}$; 72°C, 10min. Amplification for different primer pairs from the melanoma and melanocyte 3C libraries was normalized to that of BAC libraries.

Epigenomic annotations

Chromatin Primary Core Marks Segmentation by HMM (ChromHMM), DNase Hypersensitivity

(DHS), and histone modification data for primary human melanocyte cultures, primary human

keratinocyte culture, and human breast mammary cultures "breast variant human mammary

epithelial cells" and "breast myoepithelial primary cells" (shown as vHMEC and BMYO,

respectively, in **Figure 1**) were obtained from the Roadmap Epigenomics Project (downloaded

through the UCSC Genome Browser; http://genome.ucsc.edu/). Peaks from FAIRE-seq and

H3K27ac ChIP for 11 melanoma cultures samples were obtained from the Gene Expression

Omnibus (GEO; accession GSE60666)[45].

Cell culture

We originally obtained melanoma cell lines (UACC903 and UACC1113) from the University of

Arizona Cancer Center (UACC), which were maintained in RPMI-1640 medium with L-glutamine

(Quality Biological, 112-025-101) supplemented with 10% FBS (GenClone, 25-514H), 20 mM

HEPES (pH 7.9; Gibco, 15630), and 100 U/ml penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco, 15140). Primary

melanocytes from foreskin healthy newborn males, mainly of European descent, were grown in

M254 media (Invitrogen, M254500) with HMGS-2 supplement (Invitrogen, S0165). MCF7 and

T47D breast cancer cell lines were purchased from ATCC. MCF7 cells were grown in DMEM

with L-glutamine (Quality Biological, 112-014-101) supplemented with 10% FBS, and 100 U/ml

penicillin-streptomycin. T47D cells were maintained in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% FBS,

and 100 U/ml penicillin-streptomycin. All cell lines were grown in a 5% CO_2 humidified incubator

at 37 °C and were tested for mycoplasma contamination every 3-6 months.

Luciferase reporter assays

Sequences encompassing each variant were PCR-amplified (primers listed in **Table S31**) from

genomic DNA of HapMap CEU panel samples with the appropriate genotypes to obtain clones

with each genotype, and cloned into the HindIII and XhoI sites of the pGL4.23[*luc2*/minP]

(Promega, Madison, MI) luciferase vector in the 5'-to-3' or 3'-to'5' orientation using In-Fusion HD

Cloning Kit (Takara Bio). Sequence-verified pGL4.23 constructs were co-transfected with the

pGL4.73[*hRluc*/SV40] Renilla luciferase control vector (Promega) into melanoma cell lines

(UACC903 and UACC1113) using Lipofectamine™ 2000 (Invitrogen) in 24-well format.

Luciferase activity was measured 24 h after transfection with the Dual Luciferase Reporter

Assay System (Promega). Luciferase activity was normalized to the Renilla luciferase activity.

All the experiments were performed in six replicate wells and repeated for at least three

biological replicates. Significance between alleles was assessed using a two-tailed, unpaired t-

test assuming unequal variance.

Massively parallel reporter assay data

We used data from two massively parallel reporter assay (MPRA) datasets assessing allelic *cis*-

regulatory potential for candidate causal variants from this locus in melanoma cells and

melanocytes[46,47]. Firstly, in a prior MPRA analysis (MPRA v.1)[46], 823 variants from 20 genome-

wide significant loci from a prior melanoma meta-analysis[8] were tested in a melanoma cell line,

UACC903, as well as HEK293FT cells. For this study, an LD-based selection criteria was used

($r^2 > 0.4$ with the sentinel SNP using 1,000 Genomes phase 3 EUR data), further filtering

candidate causal variants to test only those located within annotated open chromatin regions

and promoter/enhancer histone marks found in primary melanocytes and/or short-term cultures.

A second MPRA study (MPRA v.2)[47] investigated 54 loci from a more recent melanoma GWAS

meta-analysis[10] in both melanoma cells and melanocytes. Here, 1,992 candidate causal

variants were tested from 54 genome-wide significant loci. Candidate causal variants were fine-

mapped using log-likelihood ratios (LLR < 1:1,000 with the lead SNP) or where variants were

not successfully imputed or tested in the GWAS using an LD-based criteria ($r^2 > 0.8$ with the

lead SNP, 1,000 Genomes EUR).

EMSAs and supershift assays

Nuclear extracts from melanoma cell lines (UACC903 and UACC1113) or human melanocytes

were prepared using the NE-PER Nuclear and Cytoplasmic Extraction Kit (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). Nuclear extract lysates for MCF7 and T47D breast cancer cell lines were purchased

from Abcam (ab14860 and ab14896, respectively). Oligonucleotides for each SNP were

synthesized with or without biotin labeling at the 5' end and HPLC purified (21-28nt, Life

Technologies, listed in **Table S31**). Forward and reverse strands were then annealed to

generate double stranded 5'-end labelled probes or unlabeled competitors. 50 nM probes were

added to 2 μg of nuclear extract preincubated with 1 μg of poly d(I-C) (Roche) in LightShift[TM] 1 ×

binding buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 30 min on ice. Competition experiments were

performed by adding 1-100 fold more unlabeled competitor oligonucleotides to the reaction

mixture 5 min before the addition of labelled probes. Anti-E4F1 (Abcam, ab70615) or anti-IRF2

(Abcam, ab245658) antibodies for supershift assays were incubated with nuclear extract for 1 h

at 4 °C prior to adding poly d(I-C). The reactions were run on 5 – 10% TBE gels (Bio-Rad

Criterion) on ice at 120 V, transferred to Biodyne B membranes (VWR), transferred blots were

crosslinked (Stratagene UV Stratalinker 1800) and detected using the LightShift

Chemiluminescent EMSA Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and imaged on Chemidoc Touch (Bio-

Rad). One representative data is shown from three biological replicates.

Quantitative mass spectrometry

MCF7 breast cancer cells were grown in RPMI 1640 (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS, 100

U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Gibco). The same culture conditions were used for

UACC903 melanoma cells with additional 20 mM HEPES (pH 7.9). Nuclear lysates for DNA

affinity purifications were collected as described previously[88]. Oligonucleotide probes with 5'-

biotinylation of the forward strand were ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies (**Table S31**).

DNA pulldowns and on-bead trypsin digestion were performed in Eppendorf tubes as described

previously[89]. Briefly, forward and reverse oligos were annealed with a 1.5X molar excess of the

reverse strand. For each pulldown, annealed DNA oligos (500 pmol) were immobilized on 10 µl

(20 µl slurry) Streptavidin-Sepharose beads (GE Healthcare, Chicago, IL). Immobilized DNA

oligos were incubated with nuclear extracts (500 µg) from UACC903 and MCF7, and 10 µg of

non-specific competitor DNA (5 µg polydIdC, 5 µg polydAdT). After washing away unbound

proteins, beads were resuspended in elution buffer (2 M Urea, 100 mM TRIS (pH 8), 10 mM

DTT), peptides were alkylated with 50 mM iodoacetamide, and on-bead digested with 0.25 µg

trypsin. Tryptic peptides were labeled by stable isotope dimethyl labeling on StageTips, as

described previously[89]. Samples were eluted from the StageTips and matching light and

medium labeled samples were combined. Samples were loaded onto a 30 cm column (heated

at 40 °C) packed in-house with 1.8 µm Reprosil-Pur C18-AQ (Dr Maisch) and eluted using a

gradient from 9 to 32% Buffer B (80% acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid) over 114 min at a flow rate

of 250 nL/min using an Easy-nLC 1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptides were sprayed

directly into either a Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) or a Q

Exactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The mass spectrometers were operated

as described previously[46,89]. Thermo RAW files were analyzed with MaxQuant 1.6.0.1 by

searching against the UniProt curated human proteome (released June 2017) with standard

settings[90]. Protein ratios were normalized by median ratio shifting and used for outlier calling. An

outlier cutoff of 1.5 inter-quartile ranges in two out of two biological replicates was used.

rs3769823 and rs3769821 were assayed in both UACC903 and MCF7 cells, while rs59308963

was assayed only in UACC903.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation and genotyping

Following the manufacturer's instructions of the Active Motif ChIP-IT High-Sensitivity kit, actively

growing melanoma cells (UACC903 and UACC1649) or C87 primary melanocytes were fixed

with 1% formaldehyde when 80-90% confluent. Nuclei of $1.0 – 1.5 \times 10^7$ cells were prepared

and sheared with ME220 Focused-ultrasonicator (Covaris, Woburn, MA) for 20 min following the

instructions. 10 – 30 µg sheared chromatin from $1.5 – 4.5 \times 10^6$ cells were used for each

immunoprecipitation reaction with anti-E4F1, anti-IRF2 or anti-IgG (Abcam, ab37415) following

the instructions. Purified immunoprecipitated DNA or input DNA was analyzed by SYBR Green

qPCR for enrichment of target sites using the primers listed in **Table S31**. ChIP DNA or input

DNA from UACC1649 or C87 melanocyte cell lines (heterozygous for rs3769823) was assayed

for genotyping rs3769823 by Taqman genotyping assay (Assay ID: C__25808407_20). All

experiments were performed in triplicate (technical replicates) and repeated for at least three

biological replicates.

siRNA-mediated knockdown of E4F1 and IRF2

SMARTpool ON-TARGETplus Human siRNAs to *E4F1* (L-011847-00-0005), *IRF2* (L-011705-

02-0005) and ON-TARGETplus Non-targeting controls (D-001810-01-05) were purchased from

Dharmacon (Lafayette, CO). Transfections were carried out using Lipofectamine™ RNAiMAX

(Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were collected after 48h for RNA

and protein extractions.

qPCR

RNA was isolated using RNeasy Mini Column (Qiagen), which was always complemented by

DNase treatment. cDNA was synthesized from the total RNA using iScript™ Advanced cDNA

Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad). Gene expression levels were quantified by qPCR using Taqman

assays for *E4F1* (Hs00231773_m1), *IRF2* (Hs01082884_m1), *CASP8* (Hs01018151_m1,

Hs01018149, Hs01018160_m1, Hs04405665_m1 and Hs01022432_m1), and *GAPDH*

(Hs99999905_m1) from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Gene expression levels of *E4F1*, *IRF2* and

CASP8 were normalized to *GAPDH*. Each experiment was performed in triplicate and replicated

three times. Significance was assessed using a Student's two-tailed T-test assuming unequal

variances.

Western blotting

Whole-cell extracts prepared in RIPA buffer with protease inhibitors (Complete Protease

Inhibitor, Roche) or phosphatase inhibitors (PhosSTOP, Roche). Samples were quantified using

DC Protein Assay (Bio-Rad) and electrophoresed on 4–12% Bis Tris Plus Bolt gels in MES

buffer (Invitrogen). Proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose using an iBlot2 (Invitrogen). Blots

were blocked with 5% non-fat dry milk in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBST).

Primary and secondary antibodies were diluted in 1-2% milk in TBST, and all washes were

performed with TBST. Blots were rinsed briefly with PBS before the addition of ECL Prime

Western Blotting Detection Reagent (Amersham, UK). Images were captured on ChemiDoc™

Gel Imaging System (Bio-Rad). The antibodies of anti-E4F1 (Santa Cruz, sc-514718), anti-IRF2

(Santa Cruz, sc-101069,) and anti-β-actin (Santa Cruz, sc-47778) were used as primary

antibodies, and goat anti-mouse HRP (Santa Cruz, sc-2005) for secondary antibodies.

Analysis of melanocyte and melanoma expression data

Transcriptomic data were generated as described previously from human primary

melanocytes[36], TCGA-SKCM[36,41,42], early passage melanoma cultures[43], the Leeds Melanoma

Cohort[91], and GTEx tissues (v.7; https://gtexportal.org/home/index.html)[40]. In brief, RNA

Sequencing by Expectation maximization (RSEM, version 1.2.31,

http://deweylab.github.io/RSEM/) was used to quantify the gene expression followed by the

quantile normalization to obtain the final RSEM for primary melanocytes, TCGA-SKCM, and

GTEx tissues as previously described[36]. For background correction and quantile normalization,

Robust Multi-array Average (RMA) algorithm with default settings (Affymetrix) was performed for

melanoma cell lines[43]. A primary melanoma transcriptomic dataset from the Leeds Melanoma

Cohort study on 703 patients was generated using the Illumina DASL Human HT12 v4 array

platform, as previously described[91] (European Genome-phenome Archive accession

EGAS00001002922; https://ega-archive/org/studies/EGAS00001002922). 16 samples were

removed in quality control (expression data from only one extraction per patient) leaving a

cohort of 687 patients[91]. LUMI[92] was used for background correction and quantile normalization

as previously reported[92]. For GTEx (v.7) transcriptomic data, genes were selected based on

expression thresholds of > 0.5 RSEM and ≥ 6 reads in at least 10 samples, and expression

values for each gene were inverse quantile normalized to a standard normal distribution across

samples and described previously[36]. We used R (version 4.1.0) for Pearson correlation to

analyze the correlations between candidate target genes and allelic-specific binding

transcription factor. The significance level was set at $P < 0.05$ and [slope] > 0.4 for all these

tests. Using transcriptomic and genotype datasets from multiple tissues, we also ran multiple

linear regression on R (version 4.1.0) to evaluate the influence of allelic-specific binding

transcription factor or genetic variable of rs3769823 on the *CASP8*.

1007

Acknowledgements

This research was supported in part by the Intramural Research Program of the National Institutes of Health (NIH). The contributions of the NIH author(s) are considered Works of the United States Government. The findings and conclusions presented in this paper are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the NIH or the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. We would like to thank members at the National Cancer Institute's Cancer Genomics Research Laboratory (CGR) for help with sequencing efforts and Rouf Banday from the National Cancer Institute for assistance with minigene assay design and data interpretation. This work has been supported by the Intramural Research Program (IRP) of the National Cancer Institute, US National Institutes of Health. We thank Jeremy Bravo Narula for assistance with the manuscript. We thank all the cohorts, funders, and investigators who contributed to the melanoma GWAS, as originally acknowledged by Landi, 23andMe, and colleagues[10]; data from this GWAS were used toward fine-mapping. JN receives funding from Horizon Europe 101136622. The Leeds Melanoma Cohort recruitment, follow up and data collection was supported by CRUK C588/A19167, C8216/A6129, C588/A10721 and NIH CA83115. Mark Iles is supported in part by the National Institute for Health and Care Research (NIHR) Leeds Biomedical Reearch Centre (BRC) (NIHR203331). The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of the NHS, the NIHR or the department of Health and Social Care.

Declaration of interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data and code availability

Conditional fine-mapping data are available in **Tables S1** and **S11**; Bayesian fine-mapping results are available in **Tables S5-S7**. Colocalization analyses are available are in **Tables S2, S3**, **S12**, **S13**, **S19**, and **S20**. Data from the 2020 melanoma GWAS meta-analysis performed by Landi and colleagues was obtained from dbGap (dbGap: phs001868.v1.p1), with the exclusion

of self-reported data from 23andMe and UK Biobank. The full GWAS summary statistics for the 23andMe discovery dataset will be made available through 23andMe to qualified researchers under an agreement with 23andMe that protects the privacy of the 23andMe participants. Please visit the 23andMe website for more information and to apply to access the data. Summary data from the remaining self-reported cases are available from the corresponding authors of that manuscript (Matthew H Law, matthew.law@qimrberghofer.edu.au; Mark M Iles, m.m.iles@leeds.ac.uk; and Maria Teresa Landi, landim@mail.nih.gov). Melanocyte eQTL data and RNA-seq expression data from 106 individuals are available from dbGap (dbGap: phs001500.v1.p1), and pre-analyzed cis-eQTL data from GTEx (v.7) were downloaded from the GTEx portal. eQTL data from 59 early melanoma cell lines was available from NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (accessions GSE78995 for expression data; GSE99193 for genotyping data). Leeds Melanoma Cohort data from 703 patients was available in the European Genome-phenome Archive accession EGAS00001002922. MPRA data are available in the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus as a SuperSeries under the accession number GEO: GSE129250 and GSE210356. Capture-C data have been previously published[48,49]; interaction data including both called interactions as well as raw sequencing data are available through ArrayExpress (accession: E-MTAB-15079). Specifically, for the 2q33.1 locus restriction fragments baited for region-specific Capture-C assays are provided in **Table S32**, and loops called by ChICAGO are in **Tables S23** and **S24**. Pearson correlations are available in **Table S25**, **S29** and **S30**. Multiple linear regression results are available in **Tables S26**-**S28**. Luciferase assay fragments, other primers and Taqman assays are listed in **Table S31**.

Web resources

23andMe, https://research.23andme.com/collaborate/#dataset-access/

GTEx portal, https://www.gtexportal.org/home/

https://ldlink.nci.nih.gov/?tab=home

NCBI GEO, https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/

RegulomeDB, https://regulomedb.org/regulome-search/

The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) Research Network,

https://www.cancer.gov/about-nci/organization/ccg/research/structural-genomics/tcga

1067

References

1069   1.   Brown, K.M., Macgregor, S., Montgomery, G.W., Craig, D.W., Zhao, Z.Z., Iyadurai, K., Henders,
1070   A.K., Homer, N., Campbell, M.J., Stark, M., et al. (2008). Common sequence variants on
1071   20q11.22 confer melanoma susceptibility. Nat Genet *40*, 838-840. 10.1038/ng.163.

1072   2.   Gudbjartsson, D.F., Sulem, P., Stacey, S.N., Goldstein, A.M., Rafnar, T., Sigurgeirsson, B.,
1073   Benediktsdottir, K.R., Thorisdottir, K., Ragnarsson, R., Sveinsdottir, S.G., et al. (2008). ASIP and
1074   TYR pigmentation variants associate with cutaneous melanoma and basal cell carcinoma. Nat
1075   Genet *40*, 886-891. 10.1038/ng.161.

1076   3.   Falchi, M., Bataille, V., Hayward, N.K., Duffy, D.L., Bishop, J.A., Pastinen, T., Cervino, A., Zhao, Z.Z.,
1077   Deloukas, P., Soranzo, N., et al. (2009). Genome-wide association study identifies variants at
1078   9p21 and 22q13 associated with development of cutaneous nevi. Nat Genet *41*, 915-919.
1079   10.1038/ng.410.

1080   4.   Bishop, D.T., Demenais, F., Iles, M.M., Harland, M., Taylor, J.C., Corda, E., Randerson-Moor, J.,
1081   Aitken, J.F., Avril, M.F., Azizi, E., et al. (2009). Genome-wide association study identifies three
1082   loci associated with melanoma risk. Nat Genet *41*, 920-925. 10.1038/ng.411.

1083   5.   Barrett, J.H., Iles, M.M., Harland, M., Taylor, J.C., Aitken, J.F., Andresen, P.A., Akslen, L.A.,
1084   Armstrong, B.K., Avril, M.F., Azizi, E., et al. (2011). Genome-wide association study identifies
1085   three new melanoma susceptibility loci. Nat Genet *43*, 1108-1113. 10.1038/ng.959.

1086   6.   Macgregor, S., Montgomery, G.W., Liu, J.Z., Zhao, Z.Z., Henders, A.K., Stark, M., Schmid, H.,
1087   Holland, E.A., Duffy, D.L., Zhang, M., et al. (2011). Genome-wide association study identifies a
1088   new melanoma susceptibility locus at 1q21.3. Nat Genet *43*, 1114-1118. 10.1038/ng.958.

1089   7.   Iles, M.M., Law, M.H., Stacey, S.N., Han, J., Fang, S., Pfeiffer, R., Harland, M., Macgregor, S.,
1090   Taylor, J.C., Aben, K.K., et al. (2013). A variant in FTO shows association with melanoma risk not
1091   due to BMI. Nat Genet *45*, 428-432, 432e421. 10.1038/ng.2571.

1092   8.   Law, M.H., Bishop, D.T., Lee, J.E., Brossard, M., Martin, N.G., Moses, E.K., Song, F., Barrett, J.H.,
1093   Kumar, R., Easton, D.F., et al. (2015). Genome-wide meta-analysis identifies five new
1094   susceptibility loci for cutaneous malignant melanoma. Nat Genet *47*, 987-995. 10.1038/ng.3373.

1095   9.   Ransohoff, K.J., Wu, W., Cho, H.G., Chahal, H.C., Lin, Y., Dai, H.J., Amos, C.I., Lee, J.E., Tang, J.Y.,
1096   Hinds, D.A., et al. (2017). Two-stage genome-wide association study identifies a novel
1097   susceptibility locus associated with melanoma. Oncotarget *8*, 17586-17592.
1098   10.18632/oncotarget.15230.

1099   10.   Landi, M.T., Bishop, D.T., MacGregor, S., Machiela, M.J., Stratigos, A.J., Ghiorzo, P., Brossard, M.,
1100   Calista, D., Choi, J., Fargnoli, M.C., et al. (2020). Genome-wide association meta-analyses
1101   combining multiple risk phenotypes provide insights into the genetic architecture of cutaneous
1102   melanoma susceptibility. Nat Genet *52*, 494-504. 10.1038/s41588-020-0611-8.

1103   11.   Michailidou, K., Lindstrom, S., Dennis, J., Beesley, J., Hui, S., Kar, S., Lemacon, A., Soucy, P., Glubb,
1104   D., Rostamianfar, A., et al. (2017). Association analysis identifies 65 new breast cancer risk loci.
1105   Nature *551*, 92-94. 10.1038/nature24284.

1106   12.   Stacey, S.N., Helgason, H., Gudjonsson, S.A., Thorleifsson, G., Zink, F., Sigurdsson, A., Kehr, B.,
1107   Gudmundsson, J., Sulem, P., Sigurgeirsson, B., et al. (2015). New basal cell carcinoma
1108   susceptibility loci. Nat Commun *6*, 6825. 10.1038/ncomms7825.

1109   13.   Liyanage, U.E., Law, M.H., Han, X., An, J., Ong, J.S., Gharahkhani, P., Gordon, S., Neale, R.E.,
1110   Olsen, C.M., andMe Research, T., et al. (2019). Combined analysis of keratinocyte cancers
1111   identifies novel genome-wide loci. Hum Mol Genet *28*, 3148-3160. 10.1093/hmg/ddz121.

14. Hart, K., Landvik, N.E., Lind, H., Skaug, V., Haugen, A., and Zienolddiny, S. (2011). A combination
of functional polymorphisms in the CASP8, MMP1, IL10 and SEPS1 genes affects risk of non-
small cell lung cancer. Lung Cancer *71*, 123-129. 10.1016/j.lungcan.2010.04.016.
15. Lubahn, J., Berndt, S.I., Jin, C.H., Klim, A., Luly, J., Wu, W.S., Isaacs, S., Wiley, K., Isaacs, W.B.,
Suarez, B.K., et al. (2010). Association of CASP8 D302H polymorphism with reduced risk of
aggressive prostate carcinoma. Prostate *70*, 646-653. 10.1002/pros.21098.
16. Shi, Y. (2002). Mechanisms of caspase activation and inhibition during apoptosis. Mol Cell *9*,
459-470. 10.1016/s1097-2765(02)00482-3.
17. Boldin, M.P., Goncharov, T.M., Goltsev, Y.V., and Wallach, D. (1996). Involvement of MACH, a
novel MORT1/FADD-interacting protease, in Fas/APO-1- and TNF receptor-induced cell death.
Cell *85*, 803-815. 10.1016/s0092-8674(00)81265-9.
18. Muzio, M., Chinnaiyan, A.M., Kischkel, F.C., O'Rourke, K., Shevchenko, A., Ni, J., Scaffidi, C., Bretz,
J.D., Zhang, M., Gentz, R., et al. (1996). FLICE, a novel FADD-homologous ICE/CED-3-like protease,
is recruited to the CD95 (Fas/APO-1) death--inducing signaling complex. Cell *85*, 817-827.
10.1016/s0092-8674(00)81266-0.
19. Kischkel, F.C., Hellbardt, S., Behrmann, I., Germer, M., Pawlita, M., Krammer, P.H., and Peter,
M.E. (1995). Cytotoxicity-dependent APO-1 (Fas/CD95)-associated proteins form a death-
inducing signaling complex (DISC) with the receptor. EMBO J *14*, 5579-5588.
20. Boatright, K.M., Renatus, M., Scott, F.L., Sperandio, S., Shin, H., Pedersen, I.M., Ricci, J.E., Edris,
W.A., Sutherlin, D.P., Green, D.R., and Salvesen, G.S. (2003). A unified model for apical caspase
activation. Mol Cell *11*, 529-541. 10.1016/s1097-2765(03)00051-0.
21. Pop, C., Fitzgerald, P., Green, D.R., and Salvesen, G.S. (2007). Role of proteolysis in caspase-8
activation and stabilization. Biochemistry *46*, 4398-4407. 10.1021/bi602623b.
22. Oberst, A., Pop, C., Tremblay, A.G., Blais, V., Denault, J.B., Salvesen, G.S., and Green, D.R. (2010).
Inducible dimerization and inducible cleavage reveal a requirement for both processes in
caspase-8 activation. J Biol Chem *285*, 16632-16642. 10.1074/jbc.M109.095083.
23. Catts, V.S., and Weickert, C.S. (2012). Gene expression analysis implicates a death receptor
pathway in schizophrenia pathology. PLoS One *7*, e35511. 10.1371/journal.pone.0035511.
24. Thome, M., Schneider, P., Hofmann, K., Fickenscher, H., Meinl, E., Neipel, F., Mattmann, C.,
Burns, K., Bodmer, J.L., Schroter, M., et al. (1997). Viral FLICE-inhibitory proteins (FLIPs) prevent
apoptosis induced by death receptors. Nature *386*, 517-521. 10.1038/386517a0.
25. Budihardjo, I., Oliver, H., Lutter, M., Luo, X., and Wang, X. (1999). Biochemical pathways of
caspase activation during apoptosis. Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol *15*, 269-290.
10.1146/annurev.cellbio.15.1.269.
26. Krueger, A., Schmitz, I., Baumann, S., Krammer, P.H., and Kirchhoff, S. (2001). Cellular FLICE-
inhibitory protein splice variants inhibit different steps of caspase-8 activation at the CD95
death-inducing signaling complex. J Biol Chem *276*, 20633-20640. 10.1074/jbc.M101780200.
27. Yang, J., Lee, S.H., Goddard, M.E., and Visscher, P.M. (2011). GCTA: a tool for genome-wide
complex trait analysis. Am J Hum Genet *88*, 76-82. 10.1016/j.ajhg.2010.11.011.
28. Yang, J., Ferreira, T., Morris, A.P., Medland, S.E., Genetic Investigation of, A.T.C., Replication,
D.I.G., Meta-analysis, C., Madden, P.A., Heath, A.C., Martin, N.G., et al. (2012). Conditional and
joint multiple-SNP analysis of GWAS summary statistics identifies additional variants influencing
complex traits. Nat Genet *44*, 369-375, S361-363. 10.1038/ng.2213.
29. Foley, C.N., Staley, J.R., Breen, P.G., Sun, B.B., Kirk, P.D.W., Burgess, S., and Howson, J.M.M.
(2021). A fast and efficient colocalization algorithm for identifying shared genetic risk factors
across multiple traits. Nat Commun *12*, 764. 10.1038/s41467-020-20885-8.

30. Hormozdiari, F., van de Bunt, M., Segre, A.V., Li, X., Joo, J.W.J., Bilow, M., Sul, J.H., Sankararaman,
S., Pasaniuc, B., and Eskin, E. (2016). Colocalization of GWAS and eQTL Signals Detects Target
Genes. Am J Hum Genet *99*, 1245-1260. 10.1016/j.ajhg.2016.10.003.
31. Shabalin, A.A. (2012). Matrix eQTL: ultra fast eQTL analysis via large matrix operations.
Bioinformatics *28*, 1353-1358. 10.1093/bioinformatics/bts163.
32. Wen, X., Lee, Y., Luca, F., and Pique-Regi, R. (2016). Efficient Integrative Multi-SNP Association
Analysis via Deterministic Approximation of Posteriors. Am J Hum Genet *98*, 1114-1129.
10.1016/j.ajhg.2016.03.029.
33. Lee, Y., Luca, F., Pique-Regi, R., and Wen, X. (2018). Bayesian Multi-SNP Genetic Association
Analysis: Control of FDR and Use of Summary Statistics. bioRxiv.
34. Kichaev, G., Yang, W.Y., Lindstrom, S., Hormozdiari, F., Eskin, E., Price, A.L., Kraft, P., and
Pasaniuc, B. (2014). Integrating functional data to prioritize causal variants in statistical fine-
mapping studies. PLoS Genet *10*, e1004722. 10.1371/journal.pgen.1004722.
35. Kichaev, G., and Pasaniuc, B. (2015). Leveraging Functional-Annotation Data in Trans-ethnic
Fine-Mapping Studies. Am J Hum Genet *97*, 260-271. 10.1016/j.ajhg.2015.06.007.
36. Zhang, T., Choi, J., Kovacs, M.A., Shi, J., Xu, M., Program, N.C.S., Melanoma Meta-Analysis, C.,
Goldstein, A.M., Trower, A.J., Bishop, D.T., et al. (2018). Cell-type-specific eQTL of primary
melanocytes facilitates identification of melanoma susceptibility genes. Genome Res *28*, 1621-
1635. 10.1101/gr.233304.117.
37. Bendl, J., Musil, M., Stourac, J., Zendulka, J., Damborsky, J., and Brezovsky, J. (2016).
PredictSNP2: A Unified Platform for Accurately Evaluating SNP Effects by Exploiting the Different
Characteristics of Variants in Distinct Genomic Regions. PLoS Comput Biol *12*, e1004962.
10.1371/journal.pcbi.1004962.
38. Zhang, T., Choi, J., Dilshat, R., Einarsdottir, B.O., Kovacs, M.A., Xu, M., Malasky, M., Chowdhury,
S., Jones, K., Bishop, D.T., et al. (2021). Cell-type-specific meQTLs extend melanoma GWAS
annotation beyond eQTLs and inform melanocyte gene-regulatory mechanisms. Am J Hum
Genet *108*, 1631-1646. 10.1016/j.ajhg.2021.06.018.
39. Himeji, D., Horiuchi, T., Tsukamoto, H., Hayashi, K., Watanabe, T., and Harada, M. (2002).
Characterization of caspase-8L: a novel isoform of caspase-8 that behaves as an inhibitor of the
caspase cascade. Blood *99*, 4070-4078. 10.1182/blood.v99.11.4070.
40. Consortium, G.T., Laboratory, D.A., Coordinating Center -Analysis Working, G., Statistical
Methods groups-Analysis Working, G., Enhancing, G.g., Fund, N.I.H.C., Nih/Nci, Nih/Nhgri,
Nih/Nimh, Nih/Nida, et al. (2017). Genetic effects on gene expression across human tissues.
Nature *550*, 204-213. 10.1038/nature24277.
41. Cancer Genome Atlas, N. (2015). Genomic Classification of Cutaneous Melanoma. Cell *161*,
1681-1696. 10.1016/j.cell.2015.05.044.
42. Hoadley, K.A., Yau, C., Hinoue, T., Wolf, D.M., Lazar, A.J., Drill, E., Shen, R., Taylor, A.M.,
Cherniack, A.D., Thorsson, V., et al. (2018). Cell-of-Origin Patterns Dominate the Molecular
Classification of 10,000 Tumors from 33 Types of Cancer. Cell *173*, 291-304 e296.
10.1016/j.cell.2018.03.022.
43. Choi, J., Xu, M., Makowski, M.M., Zhang, T., Law, M.H., Kovacs, M.A., Granzhan, A., Kim, W.J.,
Parikh, H., Gartside, M., et al. (2017). A common intronic variant of PARP1 confers melanoma
risk and mediates melanocyte growth via regulation of MITF. Nat Genet *49*, 1326-1335.
10.1038/ng.3927.
44. Roadmap Epigenomics, C., Kundaje, A., Meuleman, W., Ernst, J., Bilenky, M., Yen, A., Heravi-
Moussavi, A., Kheradpour, P., Zhang, Z., Wang, J., et al. (2015). Integrative analysis of 111
reference human epigenomes. Nature *518*, 317-330. 10.1038/nature14248.

45. Verfaillie, A., Imrichova, H., Atak, Z.K., Dewaele, M., Rambow, F., Hulselmans, G., Christiaens, V.,
Svetlichnyy, D., Luciani, F., Van den Mooter, L., et al. (2015). Decoding the regulatory landscape
of melanoma reveals TEADS as regulators of the invasive cell state. Nat Commun *6*, 6683.
10.1038/ncomms7683.
46. Choi, J., Zhang, T., Vu, A., Ablain, J., Makowski, M.M., Colli, L.M., Xu, M., Hennessey, R.C., Yin, J.,
Rothschild, H., et al. (2020). Massively parallel reporter assays of melanoma risk variants identify
MX2 as a gene promoting melanoma. Nat Commun *11*, 2718. 10.1038/s41467-020-16590-1.
47. Long, E., Yin, J., Funderburk, K.M., Xu, M., Feng, J., Kane, A., Zhang, T., Myers, T., Golden, A.,
Thakur, R., et al. (2022). Massively parallel reporter assays and variant scoring identified
functional variants and target genes for melanoma loci and highlighted cell-type specificity. Am J
Hum Genet *109*, 2210-2229. 10.1016/j.ajhg.2022.11.006.
48. Xu, M., Mehl, L., Zhang, T., Thakur, R., Sowards, H., Myers, T., Jessop, L., Chesi, A., Johnson, M.E.,
Wells, A.D., et al. (2021). A UVB-responsive common variant at chromosome band 7p21.1
confers tanning response and melanoma risk via regulation of the aryl hydrocarbon receptor,
AHR. Am J Hum Genet *108*, 1611-1630. 10.1016/j.ajhg.2021.07.002.
49. Thakur, R., Xu, M., Sowards, H., Yon, J., Jessop, L., Myers, T., Zhang, T., Chari, R., Long, E., Rehling,
T., et al. (2025). Mapping chromatin interactions at melanoma susceptibility loci uncovers
distant cis-regulatory gene targets. Am J Hum Genet *112*, 1625-1648.
10.1016/j.ajhg.2025.04.015.
50. Rizos, H., Diefenbach, E., Badhwar, P., Woodruff, S., Becker, T.M., Rooney, R.J., and Kefford, R.F.
(2003). Association of p14ARF with the p120E4F transcriptional repressor enhances cell cycle
inhibition. J Biol Chem *278*, 4981-4989. 10.1074/jbc.M210978200.
51. Dai, J., Lv, J., Zhu, M., Wang, Y., Qin, N., Ma, H., He, Y.Q., Zhang, R., Tan, W., Fan, J., et al. (2019).
Identification of risk loci and a polygenic risk score for lung cancer: a large-scale prospective
cohort study in Chinese populations. Lancet Respir Med *7*, 881-891. 10.1016/S2213-
2600(19)30144-4.
52. Schumacher, F.R., Al Olama, A.A., Berndt, S.I., Benlloch, S., Ahmed, M., Saunders, E.J., Dadaev, T.,
Leongamornlert, D., Anokian, E., Cieza-Borrella, C., et al. (2018). Association analyses of more
than 140,000 men identify 63 new prostate cancer susceptibility loci. Nat Genet *50*, 928-936.
10.1038/s41588-018-0142-8.
53. Berndt, S.I., Skibola, C.F., Joseph, V., Camp, N.J., Nieters, A., Wang, Z., Cozen, W., Monnereau, A.,
Wang, S.S., Kelly, R.S., et al. (2013). Genome-wide association study identifies multiple risk loci
for chronic lymphocytic leukemia. Nat Genet *45*, 868-876. 10.1038/ng.2652.
54. Zhang, X., Qin, N., Fan, J., Zhang, C., Sun, Q., Gu, Y., Zhu, M., Zhang, E., Dai, J., Jin, G., et al. (2022).
A causal variant rs3769823 in 2q33.1 involved in apoptosis pathway leading to a decreased risk
of non-small cell lung cancer. Cancer Biol Med *19*, 1385-1396. 10.20892/j.issn.2095-
3941.2022.0068.
55. Camp, N.J., Lin, W.Y., Bigelow, A., Burghel, G.J., Mosbruger, T.L., Parry, M.A., Waller, R.G., Rigas,
S.H., Tai, P.Y., Berrett, K., et al. (2016). Discordant Haplotype Sequencing Identifies Functional
Variants at the 2q33 Breast Cancer Risk Locus. Cancer Res *76*, 1916-1925. 10.1158/0008-
5472.CAN-15-1629.
56. Long, E., Yin, J., Shin, J.H., Li, Y., Li, B., Kane, A., Patel, H., Sun, X., Wang, C., Luong, T., et al.
(2024). Context-aware single-cell multiomics approach identifies cell-type-specific lung cancer
susceptibility genes. Nat Commun *15*, 7995. 10.1038/s41467-024-52356-9.
57. Choi, E., and Cho, C. (2011). Expression of a sperm flagellum component encoded by the
Als2cr12 gene. Gene Expr Patterns *11*, 327-333. 10.1016/j.gep.2011.03.003.

58. Leyva-Diaz, E., Stefanakis, N., Carrera, I., Glenwinkel, L., Wang, G., Driscoll, M., and Hobert, O.
(2017). Silencing of Repetitive DNA Is Controlled by a Member of an Unusual Caenorhabditis
elegans Gene Family. Genetics 207, 529-545. 10.1534/genetics.117.300134.
59. Reddy, K.C., Dror, T., Sowa, J.N., Panek, J., Chen, K., Lim, E.S., Wang, D., and Troemel, E.R. (2017).
An Intracellular Pathogen Response Pathway Promotes Proteostasis in C. elegans. Curr Biol 27,
3544-3553 e3545. 10.1016/j.cub.2017.10.009.
60. Kischkel, F.C., Lawrence, D.A., Tinel, A., LeBlanc, H., Virmani, A., Schow, P., Gazdar, A., Blenis, J.,
Arnott, D., and Ashkenazi, A. (2001). Death receptor recruitment of endogenous caspase-10 and
apoptosis initiation in the absence of caspase-8. J Biol Chem 276, 46639-46646.
10.1074/jbc.M105102200.
61. Sprick, M.R., Rieser, E., Stahl, H., Grosse-Wilde, A., Weigand, M.A., and Walczak, H. (2002).
Caspase-10 is recruited to and activated at the native TRAIL and CD95 death-inducing signalling
complexes in a FADD-dependent manner but can not functionally substitute caspase-8. EMBO J
21, 4520-4530. 10.1093/emboj/cdf441.
62. Wang, J., Chun, H.J., Wong, W., Spencer, D.M., and Lenardo, M.J. (2001). Caspase-10 is an
initiator caspase in death receptor signaling. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 98, 13884-13888.
10.1073/pnas.241358198.
63. Fischer, U., Stroh, C., and Schulze-Osthoff, K. (2006). Unique and overlapping substrate
specificities of caspase-8 and caspase-10. Oncogene 25, 152-159. 10.1038/sj.onc.1209015.
64. Horn, S., Hughes, M.A., Schilling, R., Sticht, C., Tenev, T., Ploesser, M., Meier, P., Sprick, M.R.,
MacFarlane, M., and Leverkus, M. (2017). Caspase-10 Negatively Regulates Caspase-8-Mediated
Cell Death, Switching the Response to CD95L in Favor of NF-kappaB Activation and Cell Survival.
Cell Rep 19, 785-797. 10.1016/j.celrep.2017.04.010.
65. Irmler, M., Thome, M., Hahne, M., Schneider, P., Hofmann, K., Steiner, V., Bodmer, J.L., Schroter,
M., Burns, K., Mattmann, C., et al. (1997). Inhibition of death receptor signals by cellular FLIP.
Nature 388, 190-195. 10.1038/40657.
66. Humphreys, L., Espona-Fiedler, M., and Longley, D.B. (2018). FLIP as a therapeutic target in
cancer. FEBS J 285, 4104-4123. 10.1111/febs.14523.
67. Leverkus, M., Neumann, M., Mengling, T., Rauch, C.T., Brocker, E.B., Krammer, P.H., and
Walczak, H. (2000). Regulation of tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-inducing ligand
sensitivity in primary and transformed human keratinocytes. Cancer Res 60, 553-559.
68. Wachter, T., Sprick, M., Hausmann, D., Kerstan, A., McPherson, K., Stassi, G., Brocker, E.B.,
Walczak, H., and Leverkus, M. (2004). cFLIPL inhibits tumor necrosis factor-related apoptosis-
inducing ligand-mediated NF-kappaB activation at the death-inducing signaling complex in
human keratinocytes. J Biol Chem 279, 52824-52834. 10.1074/jbc.M409554200.
69. Siegmund, D., Hadwiger, P., Pfizenmaier, K., Vornlocher, H.P., and Wajant, H. (2002). Selective
inhibition of FLICE-like inhibitory protein expression with small interfering RNA oligonucleotides
is sufficient to sensitize tumor cells for TRAIL-induced apoptosis. Mol Med 8, 725-732.
70. Zhang, T., Klein, A., Sang, J., Choi, J., and Brown, K.M. (2022). ezQTL: A Web Platform for
Interactive Visualization and Colocalization of Quantitative Trait Loci and GWAS. bioRxiv.
71. Weissbrod, O., Hormozdiari, F., Benner, C., Cui, R., Ulirsch, J., Gazal, S., Schoech, A.P., van de
Geijn, B., Reshef, Y., Marquez-Luna, C., et al. (2020). Functionally informed fine-mapping and
polygenic localization of complex trait heritability. Nat Genet 52, 1355-1363. 10.1038/s41588-
020-00735-5.
72. Kircher, M., Witten, D.M., Jain, P., O'Roak, B.J., Cooper, G.M., and Shendure, J. (2014). A general
framework for estimating the relative pathogenicity of human genetic variants. Nat Genet 46,
310-315. 10.1038/ng.2892.

73.   Quang, D., Chen, Y., and Xie, X. (2015). DANN: a deep learning approach for annotating the
1299   pathogenicity of genetic variants. Bioinformatics *31*, 761-763. 10.1093/bioinformatics/btu703.

1300   74.   Shihab, H.A., Rogers, M.F., Gough, J., Mort, M., Cooper, D.N., Day, I.N., Gaunt, T.R., and
1301   Campbell, C. (2015). An integrative approach to predicting the functional effects of non-coding
1302   and coding sequence variation. Bioinformatics *31*, 1536-1543. 10.1093/bioinformatics/btv009.

1303   75.   Fu, Y., Liu, Z., Lou, S., Bedford, J., Mu, X.J., Yip, K.Y., Khurana, E., and Gerstein, M. (2014).
1304   FunSeq2: a framework for prioritizing noncoding regulatory variants in cancer. Genome Biol *15*,
1305   480. 10.1186/s13059-014-0480-5.

1306   76.   Ritchie, G.R., Dunham, I., Zeggini, E., and Flicek, P. (2014). Functional annotation of noncoding
1307   sequence variants. Nat Methods *11*, 294-296. 10.1038/nmeth.2832.

1308   77.   Drozdetskiy, A., Cole, C., Procter, J., and Barton, G.J. (2015). JPred4: a protein secondary
1309   structure prediction server. Nucleic Acids Res *43*, W389-394. 10.1093/nar/gkv332.

1310   78.   Cheng, J., Novati, G., Pan, J., Bycroft, C., Zemgulyte, A., Applebaum, T., Pritzel, A., Wong, L.H.,
1311   Zielinski, M., Sargeant, T., et al. (2023). Accurate proteome-wide missense variant effect
1312   prediction with AlphaMissense. Science *381*, eadg7492. 10.1126/science.adg7492.

1313   79.   Delaneau, O., Ongen, H., Brown, A.A., Fort, A., Panousis, N.I., and Dermitzakis, E.T. (2017). A
1314   complete tool set for molecular QTL discovery and analysis. Nat Commun *8*, 15452.
1315   10.1038/ncomms15452.

1316   80.   Dobin, A., Davis, C.A., Schlesinger, F., Drenkow, J., Zaleski, C., Jha, S., Batut, P., Chaisson, M., and
1317   Gingeras, T.R. (2013). STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. Bioinformatics *29*, 15-21.
1318   10.1093/bioinformatics/bts635.

1319   81.   Li, Y.I., Knowles, D.A., Humphrey, J., Barbeira, A.N., Dickinson, S.P., Im, H.K., and Pritchard, J.K.
1320   (2018). Annotation-free quantification of RNA splicing using LeafCutter. Nat Genet *50*, 151-158.
1321   10.1038/s41588-017-0004-9.

1322   82.   Wingett, S., Ewels, P., Furlan-Magaril, M., Nagano, T., Schoenfelder, S., Fraser, P., and Andrews,
1323   S. (2015). HiCUP: pipeline for mapping and processing Hi-C data. F1000Res *4*, 1310.
1324   10.12688/f1000research.7334.1.

1325   83.   Langmead, B., and Salzberg, S.L. (2012). Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat
1326   Methods *9*, 357-359. 10.1038/nmeth.1923.

1327   84.   Langmead, B., Wilks, C., Antonescu, V., and Charles, R. (2019). Scaling read aligners to hundreds
1328   of threads on general-purpose processors. Bioinformatics *35*, 421-432.
1329   10.1093/bioinformatics/bty648.

1330   85.   Cairns, J., Freire-Pritchett, P., Wingett, S.W., Varnai, C., Dimond, A., Plagnol, V., Zerbino, D.,
1331   Schoenfelder, S., Javierre, B.M., Osborne, C., et al. (2016). CHiCAGO: robust detection of DNA
1332   looping interactions in Capture Hi-C data. Genome Biol *17*, 127. 10.1186/s13059-016-0992-2.

1333   86.   Li, D., Hsu, S., Purushotham, D., Sears, R.L., and Wang, T. (2019). WashU Epigenome Browser
1334   update 2019. Nucleic Acids Res *47*, W158-W165. 10.1093/nar/gkz348.

1335   87.   Naumova, N., Smith, E.M., Zhan, Y., and Dekker, J. (2012). Analysis of long-range chromatin
1336   interactions using Chromosome Conformation Capture. Methods *58*, 192-203.
1337   10.1016/j.ymeth.2012.07.022.

1338   88.   Spruijt, C.G., Baymaz, H.I., and Vermeulen, M. (2013). Identifying specific protein-DNA
1339   interactions using SILAC-based quantitative proteomics. Methods Mol Biol *977*, 137-157.
1340   10.1007/978-1-62703-284-1_11.

1341   89.   Makowski, M.M., Willems, E., Fang, J., Choi, J., Zhang, T., Jansen, P.W., Brown, K.M., and
1342   Vermeulen, M. (2016). An interaction proteomics survey of transcription factor binding at
1343   recurrent TERT promoter mutations. Proteomics *16*, 417-426. 10.1002/pmic.201500327.

90. Cox, J., and Mann, M. (2008). MaxQuant enables high peptide identification rates, individualized
p.p.b.-range mass accuracies and proteome-wide protein quantification. Nat Biotechnol *26*,
1367-1372. 10.1038/nbt.1511.
91. Nsengimana, J., Laye, J., Filia, A., O'Shea, S., Muralidhar, S., Pozniak, J., Droop, A., Chan, M.,
Walker, C., Parkinson, L., et al. (2018). beta-Catenin-mediated immune evasion pathway
frequently operates in primary cutaneous melanomas. J Clin Invest *128*, 2048-2063.
10.1172/JCI95351.
92. Du, P., Kibbe, W.A., and Lin, S.M. (2008). lumi: a pipeline for processing Illumina microarray.
Bioinformatics *24*, 1547-1548. 10.1093/bioinformatics/btn224.

1353