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Title
Associations between cytokine gene variations and self-reported sleep disturbance in women following breast cancer surgery.

Permalink
https://escholarship.org/uc/item/0q44q636

Journal
European Journal of Oncology Nursing, 18(1)

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Publication Date
2014-02-01

DOI
10.1016/j.ejon.2013.08.004

Peer reviewed

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Author Manuscript
Eur J Oncol Nurs. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2015 February 01.

Published in final edited form as:
Eur J Oncol Nurs. 2014 February ; 18(1): 85–93. doi:10.1016/j.ejon.2013.08.004.

ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN CYTOKINE GENE VARIATIONS AND SELF-REPORTED SLEEP DISTURBANCE IN WOMEN FOLLOWING BREAST CANCER SURGERY

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Abstract

Purpose of the research—To attempt to replicate the associations found in our previous study of patients and family caregivers between interleukin 6 (IL6) and nuclear factor kappa beta 2 (NFKB2) and sleep disturbance and to identify additional genetic associations in a larger sample of patients with breast cancer.

Methods and sample—Patients with breast cancer (n=398) were recruited prior to surgery and followed for six months. Patients completed a self-report measure of sleep disturbance and provided a blood sample for genomic analyses. Growth mixture modeling was used to identify distinct latent classes of patients with higher and lower levels of sleep disturbance.

Key results—Patients who were younger and who had higher comorbidity and lower functional status were more likely to be in the high sustained sleep disturbance class. Variations in three cytokine genes (i.e., IL1 receptor 2 (IL1R2), IL13, NFKB2) predicted latent class membership.

Conclusions—Polymorphisms in cytokine genes may partially explain inter-individual variability in sleep disturbance. Determination of high risk phenotypes and associated molecular markers may allow for earlier identification of patients at higher risk for developing sleep disturbance and lead to the development of more targeted clinical interventions.

Keywords

sleep disturbance; breast cancer; cytokine genes; growth mixture modeling; symptom trajectories; insomnia

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INTRODUCTION

Findings from several studies suggest that women with breast cancer experience a significant amount of sleep disturbance or insomnia (Davidson et al., 2002; Palesh et al., 2010; Savard et al., 2011; Savard et al., 2009). For example, in one large cross sectional study that evaluated the prevalence of sleep disturbance in patients with a variety of cancer diagnoses (Davidson et al., 2002), patients with breast cancer reported the highest rate of insomnia (37.8%). In another study of a heterogeneous sample of oncology patients receiving chemotherapy (CTX) (Palesh et al., 2010), breast cancer patients had the highest rates of insomnia (i.e., 84% reported insomnia symptoms). Of the patients who reported insomnia symptoms, 45% met the diagnostic criteria for insomnia.

Recent work from our research team used growth mixture modeling (GMM) to identify subgroups of patients with distinct self-reported sleep disturbance trajectories prior to and for six months following breast cancer surgery (Van Onselen et al., 2012). Three distinct latent classes of patients were identified (i.e., high sustained (55.0%), low sustained (39.7%), and decreasing (5.3%) levels of sleep disturbance). Women in the high sustained class were significantly younger and had more comorbidities and poorer functional status than women in the low sustained class. These findings suggest that GMM can be used to identify subgroups of patients with distinct sleep disturbance trajectories, as well as specific phenotypic characteristics associated with increased risk for higher levels of sleep disturbance.

While an evaluation of differences in phenotypic characteristics is important to identify patients at highest risk for sleep disturbance before and during cancer treatment, an equally important consideration is whether genomic markers can distinguish among these patient subgroups. As noted by Cirelli (2009), specific candidate genes are associated with sleep regulation and sleep disorders like restless leg syndrome and narcolepsy. In addition, recent evidence suggests that cytokine dysregulation is associated with sleep disturbance in humans (for reviews see Cirelli (2009) and Sehgal and Mignot (2011)).

However, only a limited number of studies have evaluated the association between cytokine gene polymorphisms and sleep disturbance. For example, in one study that examined single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in interleukin 6 (IL6), IL1, and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNFA) in patients newly diagnosed with obstructive sleep apnea syndrome (OSAS) (Popko et al., 2008), the only cytokine gene that was associated with OSAS was a polymorphism located in the promoter region of IL6 (rs1800795). In addition, this association was found only in male patients with OSAS compared to unaffected males. A higher percentage of men with OSAS (35.1%) were homozygous for the rare C allele compared to men in the control group (10.3%; p=.004). Recent work from our research team found associations between IL6 rs35610689 and nuclear factor kappa beta (NFKB2 rs7897947) and self-reported sleep disturbance in patients and family caregivers prior to and following radiation treatment. Carrying one or two doses of the rare allele for these two SNPs was associated with a decreased odds of belonging to the higher sleep disturbance class (Miaskowski et al., 2012b).

The purpose of the current study was to attempt to replicate the associations between IL6 and NFKB2 and sleep disturbance found in our previous study (Miaskowski et al., 2012b) and to identify additional associations in a larger sample of patients with breast cancer. To achieve this objective, we evaluated for differences in phenotypic and genotypic characteristics between breast cancer patients who were classified into the high sustained (58.1%) and low sustained (41.9%) GMM classes (Figure 1). Patients in the decreasing class

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were not included in this analysis because the sample size (n= 21) was too small to allow for meaningful comparisons among the three latent classes (Miaskowski et al., 2012b).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients and Settings

This analysis is part of a larger, longitudinal study that evaluated neuropathic pain and lymphedema in women who underwent breast cancer surgery (McCann et al., 2012; Miaskowski et al., 2012a; Miaskowski et al., 2013; Van Onselen et al., 2013). Patients were recruited from breast care centers located in a Comprehensive Cancer Center, two public hospitals, and four community practices.

Patients were eligible to participate if they: were adult women (18 years) who were scheduled to undergo breast cancer surgery on one breast; were able to read, write, and understand English; agreed to participate; and gave written informed consent. Patients were excluded if they were having breast cancer surgery on both breasts and/or had distant metastasis at the time of diagnosis. A total of 516 patients were approached, 410 were enrolled (response rate 79.5%), and 398 completed the baseline assessment. The most common reasons for refusal were: too busy, overwhelmed with the cancer diagnosis, or insufficient time available to do the baseline assessment prior to surgery.

Instruments

The demographic questionnaire obtained information on age, marital status, education, ethnicity, employment status, and living situation. The Karnofsky Performance Status (KPS) scale is widely used to evaluate functional status in patients with cancer and has well established validity and reliability (Karnofsky et al., 1948). Patients rated their functional status using the KPS scale that ranged from 30 (I feel severely disabled and need to be hospitalized) to 100 (I feel normal; I have no complaints or symptoms).

The Self-Administered Comorbidity Questionnaire (SCQ) is a short and easily understood instrument that was developed to measure comorbidity in clinical and health service research settings (Sangha et al., 2003). The questionnaire consists of 13 common medical conditions that were simplified into language that could be understood without any prior medical knowledge. Patients were asked to indicate if they had the condition using a “yes/no” format. If they indicated that they had a condition, they were asked if they received treatment for it (yes/no; proxy for disease severity) and did it limit their activities (yes/no; indication of functional limitations). Patients were given the option to add two additional conditions not listed on the instrument. For each condition, a patient can receive a maximum of 3 points. Because the SCQ contains 13 defined medical conditions and 2 optional conditions, the maximum score totals 45 points if the open-ended items are used and 39 points if only the closed-ended items are used. The SCQ has well-established validity and reliability and has been used in studies of patients with a variety of chronic conditions (Brunner et al., 2008; Cieza et al., 2006).

The 21-item General Sleep Disturbance Scale (GSDS) was used to evaluate self-reported sleep disturbance during the past week. Each item is rated on a scale that ranges from 0 (never) to 7 (everyday). The total GSDS score can range from 0 (no disturbance) to 147 (extreme sleep disturbance). A total GSDS score of 43 indicates a clinically meaningful level of sleep disturbance (Fletcher et al., 2008; Lee, 1992). Cronbach’s alpha for the GSDS total score was 0.86.

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Study Procedures

The study was approved by the Committee on Human Research at the University of California, San Francisco and by the Institutional Review Boards at each of the study sites. During the patient's preoperative visit, a clinician explained the study and determined the patient's willingness to participate. For those women who were willing to participate, the clinician introduced the patient to the research nurse. The research nurse met with the women, determined eligibility, and obtained written informed consent prior to surgery. After obtaining consent, patients completed the enrollment questionnaires an average of 4 days prior to surgery. Patients completed the GSDS at enrollment and monthly for 6 months (i.e., 7 assessments). Medical records were reviewed for disease and treatment information.

Genomic analyses

Gene selection—Cytokines and their receptors are classes of polypeptides that mediate inflammatory processes. Cytokine dysregulation is associated with sleep disturbance (Cirelli, 2009; Sehgal and Mignot, 2011). These polypeptides are divided into pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines. Pro-inflammatory cytokines promote systemic inflammation and include: interferon gamma (IFNG), IFNG receptor 1(IFNGR1), IL1R1, IL2, IL8, IL17A, NFKB1, NFKB2, and TNFA. Anti-inflammatory cytokines suppress the activity of pro-inflammatory cytokines and include: IL1R2, IL4, IL10, and IL13. Of note, IFNG1, IL1B, and IL6 possess pro- and anti-inflammatory functions (Seruga et al., 2008).

Blood collection and genotyping—Of the 398 patients who completed the baseline assessment, 310 provided a blood sample from which DNA could be isolated from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs). Genomic DNA was extracted from PBMCs using the PUREGene DNA Isolation System (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). DNA was quantitated with a Nanodrop Spectrophotometer (ND-1000) and normalized to a concentration of 50 ng/μL (diluted in 10 mM Tris/1 mM EDTA). Genotyping was performed blinded to clinical status and positive and negative controls were included. Samples were genotyped using the Golden Gate genotyping platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA) and processed according to the standard protocol using GenomeStudio (Illumina, San Diego, CA). Two blinded reviewers visually inspected signal intensity profiles and resulting genotype calls for each SNP. Disagreements were adjudicated by a third reviewer.

SNP selection—A combination of tagging SNPs and literature driven SNPs (i.e., reported as being associated with altered function and/or symptoms) were selected for analysis. Tagging SNPs were required to be common (defined as having a minor allele frequency ≥0.05) in public databases (e.g., HapMap). In order to ensure robust genetic association analyses, quality control filtering of SNPs was performed. SNPs with call rates <95%, or Hardy-Weinberg p-values of <.001 were excluded. As shown in Table 1, a total of 82 SNPs among the 15 candidate genes (IFNG1: 5 SNPs, IFNGR1: 1 SNP; IL1B: 12 SNPs; IL1R1: 4 SNPs; IL1R2: 3 SNPs; IL2: 3 SNPs; IL4: 2 SNPs; IL6: 9 SNPs; IL8: 3 SNPs; IL10: 7 SNPs; IL13: 4 SNPs; IL17A: 5 SNPs; NFKB1: 11 SNPs; NFKB2: 4 SNPs; TNFA: 9 SNPs) passed all of the quality control filters and were included in the genetic association analyses. Potential functional roles of SNPs associated with sleep disturbance were examined using PUPASuite 2.0 (Conde et al., 2006), a comprehensive search engine that tests a series of functional effects (i.e., non-synonymous changes, altered transcription factor binding sites, exonic splicing enhancing or silencing, splice site alterations, microRNA target alterations).

Statistical Analyses for the Phenotypic Data

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 19 (SPSS, 2010) and STATA Version 9 (StataCorp, 2005). Descriptive statistics and frequency distributions were generated for sample

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characteristics. Independent sample t-tests (for continuous variables), Mann-Whitney U tests (for continuous variables not normally distributed), and Chi square analyses (for categorical variables) were used to evaluate for differences in demographic and clinical characteristics between the two latent classes. All calculations used actual values. Adjustments were not made for missing data. Therefore, the cohort for each analysis was dependent on the largest set of available data between groups.

Unconditional GMM with robust maximum likelihood estimation was carried out to identify latent classes with distinct sleep disturbance trajectories using Mplus Version 5.21. These methods are described in detail elsewhere (Van Onselen et al., 2012). In brief, a single growth curve that represented the "average" change trajectory was estimated for the whole sample. Then, the number of latent growth classes that best fit the data was identified using guidelines recommended in the literature (Jung and Wickrama, 2008; Nylund et al., 2007; Tofighi and Enders, 2008).

Statistical Analyses for the Genetic Data

Allele and genotype frequencies were determined by gene counting. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was assessed by the Chi-square or Fisher Exact tests. Measures of linkage disequilibrium ((LD), i.e., D' and r^2) were computed from the participants' genotypes with Haploview 4.2. The LD-based haplotype block definition was based on D' confidence interval (Gabriel et al., 2002).

For SNPs that were members of the same haploblock, haplotype analyses were conducted in order to localize the association signal within each gene and to determine if haplotypes improved the strength of the association with the phenotype. Haplotypes were constructed using the program PHASE version 2.1 (Stephens et al., 2001). In order to improve the stability of haplotype inference, the haplotype construction procedure was repeated 5 times using different seed numbers with each cycle. Only haplotypes that were inferred with probability estimates of .85, across the five iterations, were retained for downstream analyses. Only inferred haplotypes that occurred with a frequency estimate of 15% were included in the association analyses, assuming a dosage model (i.e., analogous to the additive model).

Ancestry informative markers (AIMs) were used to minimize confounding due to population stratification (Halder et al., 2008; Hoggart et al., 2003; Tian et al., 2008). Homogeneity in ancestry among patients was verified by principal component analysis (Price et al., 2006), using HelixTree (GoldenHelix, Bozeman, MT). Briefly, the number of principal components (PCs) was sought which distinguished the major racial/ethnic groups in the sample by visual inspection of scatter plots of orthogonal PCs (i.e., PC 1 versus PC2, PC2 versus PC3). This procedure was repeated until no discernable clustering of patients by their self-reported race/ ethnicity was possible (data not shown). The first three PCs were selected to adjust for potential confounding due to population substructure (i.e., race/ethnicity) by including them in all logistic regression models. One hundred and six AIMs were included in the analysis.

For association tests, three genetic models were assessed for each SNP: additive, dominant, and recessive. Barring trivial improvements (i.e., delta <10%), the genetic model that best fit the data, by maximizing the significance of the p-value was selected for each SNP. Logistic regression analysis, that controlled for significant covariates as well as genomic estimates of and self-reported race/ethnicity, was used to evaluate the association between genotype and sleep disturbance class membership. Only those genetic associations identified as significant from the bivariate analyses were evaluated in the multivariate analyses. A backwards stepwise approach was used to create the most parsimonious model. Except for genomic estimates of and self-reported race/ethnicity, only predictors with a p-value of <.05 were

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retained in the final model. Genetic model fit and both unadjusted and covariate-adjusted odds ratios were estimated using STATA version 9 (StataCorp, 2005).

As was done in our previous studies (Dunn et al., 2013; Illi et al., 2012; Miaskowski et al., 2012b), based on the recommendations of Rothman (Rothman, 1990), the implementation of rigorous quality controls for genomic data, the non-independence of SNPs/haplotypes in LD, and the exploratory nature of the analyses, adjustments were not made for multiple testing. In addition, significant SNPs identified in the bivariate analyses were evaluated further using logistic regression analyses that controlled for differences in phenotypic characteristics, potential confounding due to population stratification, and variations in other SNPs/ haplotypes within the same gene. Only those SNPs that remained significant were included in the final presentation of the results. Therefore, the significant independent associations reported are unlikely to be due solely to chance. Unadjusted (bivariate) associations are reported for all of the SNPs that passed quality control criteria in Table 1, to allow for subsequent comparisons and meta-analyses.

RESULTS

Differences in Demographic and Clinical Characteristics

As summarized in Table 2, no differences were found between the low sustained and high sustained sleep disturbance classes for the majority of the demographic and clinical characteristics. However, patients in the high sustained class were significantly younger, had a lower KPS score, and a higher SCQ score (all p <.0001). In addition, a lower percentage of patients in the high sustained class were employed (p=.04) and had undergone a sentinel lymph node biopsy (SLNB; p=.053). A higher percentage of patients in the high sustained class had received adjuvant CTX during the first 6 months after breast cancer surgery (p=. 02).

Candidate gene analyses of the two GMM classes

As summarized in Table 1, the minor allele frequency was significantly different between the two latent classes for 5 SNPs and one haplotype: IL1R2 haplotype (HapA2), IL6 rs35610689, IL10 rs1878672, IL13 rs1881457, IL13 rs1800925, and NFKB2 rs1056890. For IL6 rs35610689 (p=.037) and IL10 rs1878672 (p=.043), a recessive model fit the data best. For IL13 rs1881457 (p=.011), IL13 rs1800925 (p=.002), and NFKB2 rs1056890 (p=.025), a dominant model fit the data best. Dosage of the IL1R2 haplotype (composed of rs11674595-rs7570441) was found to be significantly different between the two latent classes (p=.037).

Regression analyses for IL1R2, IL13, and NFKB2 genotypes and low sustained versus high sustained sleep disturbance classes

In order to better estimate the magnitude (i.e., odds ratio, OR) and precision (95% confidence interval, CI) of genotype on the odds of belonging to the high sustained as compared to the low sustained sleep disturbance class, multivariate logistic regression models were fit. In these regression analyses that included genomic estimates of and self-reported race/ethnicity, the phenotypic characteristics that remained significant in the multivariate model were: age (in 5 year increments), KPS score (in 10 point increments), SCQ score, receipt of adjuvant CTX in the six months following breast cancer surgery, and having undergone a sentinel node biopsy (SLNB).

The only genetic associations that remained significant in the multivariate logistic regression analyses were for IL1R2 Hap A2, IL13 rs1800925, and NFKB2 rs1056890 (Table 3, Figures 2 and 3). In the regression analysis for IL1R2 Hap A2, that is composed of alleles at two SNPs (i.e., rs11674595 [T major allele], rs7570441 [A rare allele]), each additional dose of

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IL1R2 Hap A2 was associated with a 2.08-fold increase in the odds of belonging to the high sustained sleep disturbance class (p=.024).

In the regression analysis for IL13 rs1800925 (see Figure 3A), carrying one or two doses of the rare T allele (i.e., CC versus CT+TT) was associated with a 2.21-fold increase in the odds of belonging to the high sustained sleep disturbance class (p=.005). In the regression analysis for NFKB2 rs1056890 (see Figure 3B), carrying one or two doses of the rare T allele (i.e., CC versus CT+TT) was associated with a 47% decrease in the odds of belonging to the high sustained sleep disturbance class (p=.028).

DISCUSSION

This study is the first to evaluate associations between a number of phenotypic characteristics and variations in cytokine genes and sleep disturbance in breast cancer patients following surgery. Consistent with previous reports of sleep disturbance in patients with breast cancer, women in the high sustained class were younger (Davidson et al., 2002) and reported higher levels of comorbidity and lower levels of function (Foley et al., 2010). In addition, consistent with work by Berger and colleagues (2010), the receipt of adjuvant CTX was associated with being classified into the higher sustained sleep disturbance class. Of note, decreased age and poorer functional status were associated with membership in the high sleep disturbance class in our previous study of oncology patients and family caregivers (Miaskowski et al., 2012b). Taken together, these findings suggest that younger age, lower functional status, and higher levels of comorbidity place individuals at higher risk for sleep disturbance.

A primary aim of this study was to replicate the genetic associations identified in our previous study (Miaskowski et al., 2012b). In our previous study, carrying one or two doses of the rare allele for NFKB2 rs7897947 was associated with a 74% decrease in the odds of belonging to the higher sleep disturbance class. In the current study, an association was found in the same cytokine gene, but with a different SNP. Women who carried one or two doses of the rare allele in NFKB2 rs106890 had a 47% decrease in their odds of belonging to the high sustained sleep disturbance class. While the SNPs in NFKB2, in both of our studies, were different, carriers of the rare allele were less likely to be classified in the higher sleep disturbance class. The differences in the SNP associations identified may be related to differences in sample sizes and/or phenotypic characteristics (e.g., gender) between the two studies. Finally, the SNPs identified in our prior and current studies may be in LD with an unmeasured causal SNP(s) in NFKB2.

NFKB2 is a cytokine that belongs to the nuclear factor-kappa beta family that is made up of transcription factors that regulate various biological processes including immunity, stress responses, apoptosis, and cellular differentiation (Oeckinghaus et al., 2011). Inappropriate activation of NFKB is linked to inflammatory processes such as autoimmune arthritis, asthma, lung fibrosis, and septic shock (Oeckinghaus et al., 2011). Prior to our recent work (Miaskowski et al., 2012b), polymorphisms in NFKB2 were not linked directly to sleep disturbance. The SNP identified in the current study (rs1056890) has no known function. It is located in the 3’ untranslated region that occurs in an evolutionarily conserved region of the gene. Findings from our two studies suggest a role for NFKB2 in inflammatory processes that are associated with the development of sleep disturbance.

In this study, variation in IL13 rs1800925 was associated with sleep disturbance class membership. Carrying one or two doses of the rare allele was associated with a 2.21-fold increase in the odds of belonging to the high sustained sleep disturbance class. This SNP is located in the promoter region of IL13. While it occurs in an evolutionarily conserved region

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of the gene, this SNP has no known function (e.g., is not predicted to alter known transcripton factor binding). However, it was associated with the development of psoriasis (Chang et al., 2008). In addition, variations in IL13 are associated with a number of inflammatory conditions including asthma and eczema (Chen et al., 1999; Zhu et al., 2004). Why this association was not identified in our previous study (Miaskowski et al., 2012b) warrants investigation in future studies with larger samples of oncology patients.

The third association identified in this study was between sleep disturbance and the IL1R2 HapA2 that is composed of two SNPs (i.e., rs11674595, rs7570441). Each additional dose of IL1R2 HapA2 was associated with a 2.08 increase in the odds of belonging to the high sustained sleep disturbance class. Prior to this study, no associations were found between this haplotype and sleep disturbance. However in another study from our research team (Dunn et al., 2013), a different haplotype in the same region (i.e., a 3-SNP haplotype composed of the rare C allele of rs4141134, the common T allele of rs11674595, and the rare A allele of rs7570441) was associated with a 2-fold increase in the odds of belonging to the class with a higher level of depressive symptoms.

While the functions of each of the individual SNPs in the haplotype are not known, both of these two SNPs in IL1R2 HapA2 (rs11674595 and rs7570441) are located in introns in regions of the gene that are evolutionarily conserved. IL1R2 is an anti-inflammatory cytokine that blocks inflammatory signaling and inhibits pro-inflammatory IL1 activity by acting as a decoy receptor (Colotta et al., 1993). Therefore, IL1R2 plays a role in the regulation of inflammatory pathways and its association with sleep disturbance requires further study.

Lastly, we did not replicate the association found in our previous study between IL6 and sleep disturbance. In our prior study (Miaskowski et al., 2012b), carrying one or two doses of the rare G allele in IL6 rs35610689 was associated with a 78% decrease in the odds of belonging to the higher sleep disturbance class. In our current study, while an association between IL6 rs35610689 and sleep disturbance group membership was found in the bivariate analysis ($p=.037$), it was no longer significant after adjusting for covariates. Given this preliminary association, as well as recent findings that higher serum levels of IL6 are associated with sleep disturbance in patients with ovarian cancer (Clevenger et al., 2012), additional research is warranted on the associations between genetic variations in IL6 and sleep disturbance.

A number of limitations need to be acknowledged. While our sample size was adequate, future studies with larger sample sizes are needed to confirm these findings and identify additional latent classes and/or significant phenotypic predictors. Differences in demographic (e.g., gender) and clinical (e.g., homogenous versus heterogeneous cancer diagnoses) characteristics between participants in this study and our previous study (Miaskowski et al., 2012b) may partially explain why some of our findings were not replicated. While, the genotypic findings were somewhat consistent, additional investigations are warranted on the associations between variations in candidate genes and sleep disturbance.

Despite these limitations, these findings provide evidence to support distinct sleep disturbance phenotypes in breast cancer patients prior to and following surgery. In addition, in this sample, the higher risk phenotype was associated with higher levels of depression and fatigue prior to surgery (Van Onselen et al., 2013). It is important that these higher risk patients be identified early in order to evaluate the need for pre-emptive and ongoing treatment. As part of their initial and ongoing assessments, oncology nurses need to systematically evaluate for the co-occurrence of sleep disturbance, fatigue, and depression.

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Women with high levels of all three symptoms need a more comprehensive evaluation to determine if pharmacologic and nonpharmacologic interventions are warranted. The findings of associations between cytokine genes and sleep disturbance trajectories suggest a role for inflammation in the development and maintenance of sleep disturbance in patients prior to and following surgery for breast cancer. If the genetic associations are replicated in an independent cohort, these findings may be used to identify patients who are at higher risk for the development of sleep disturbance.

Acknowledgments

This study was funded by grants from the National Cancer Institute (CA107091 and CA118658). Dr. Christine Miaskowski is an American Cancer Society Clinical Research Professor. Dr. Dhruva is funded through NIH Mentored Patient-Oriented Research Career Development Award (K23 AT005340). Dr. Langford is supported by a Department of Defense Breast Cancer Research Program Postdoctoral Fellowship. Mr. Merriman is supported by an NINR fellowship (F31 NR012604), an ACS Doctoral Degree Scholarship (DSCN-10-087), an Oncology Nursing Foundation Doctoral Scholarship, and a UCSF Nursing Alumni Association Scholarship. This project is supported by NIH/NCRR UCSF-CTSI Grant Number UL1 RR024131. Its contents are solely the responsibility of the authors and do not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

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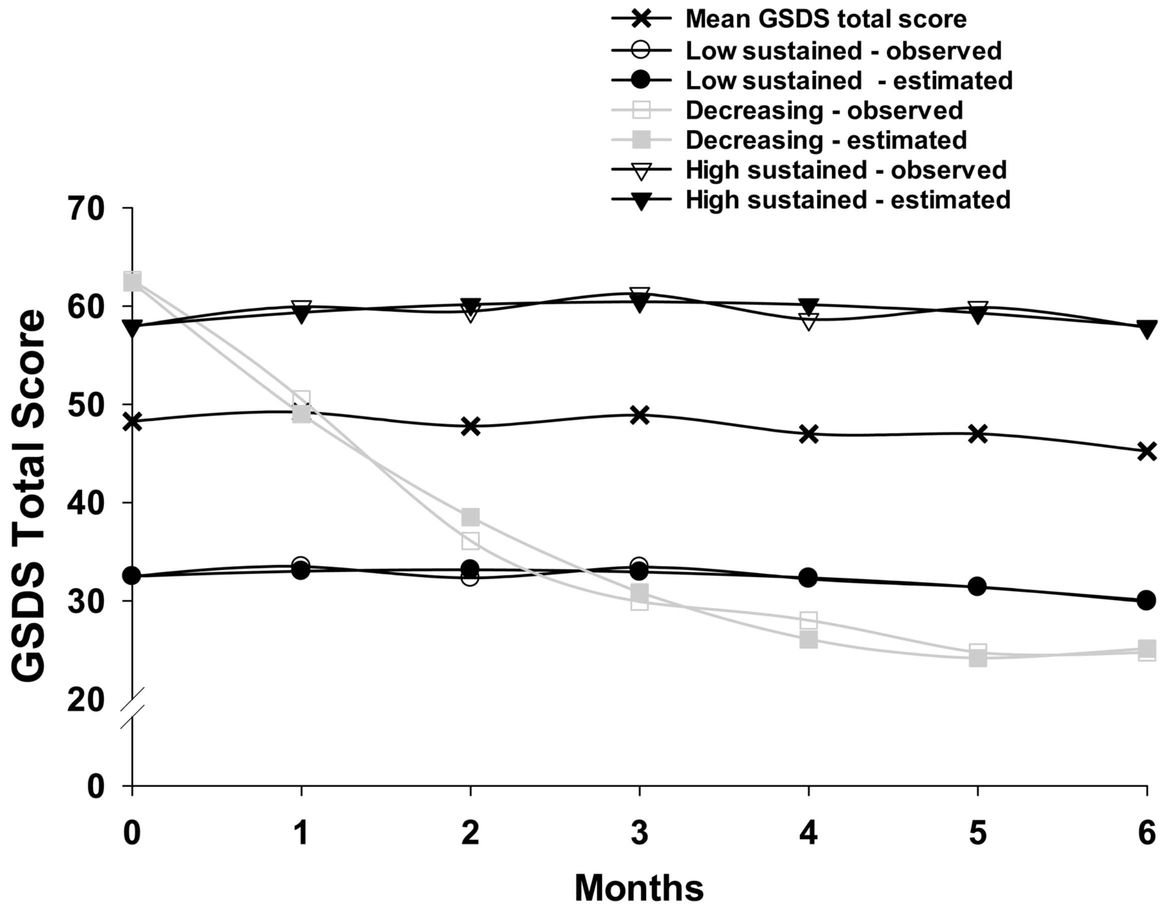

Figure 1.
Observed and estimated General Sleep Disturbance Scale (GSDS) trajectories for patients in each of the latent classes, as well as the mean GSDS scores for the total sample (Adapted from Van Onselen et al., 2012).

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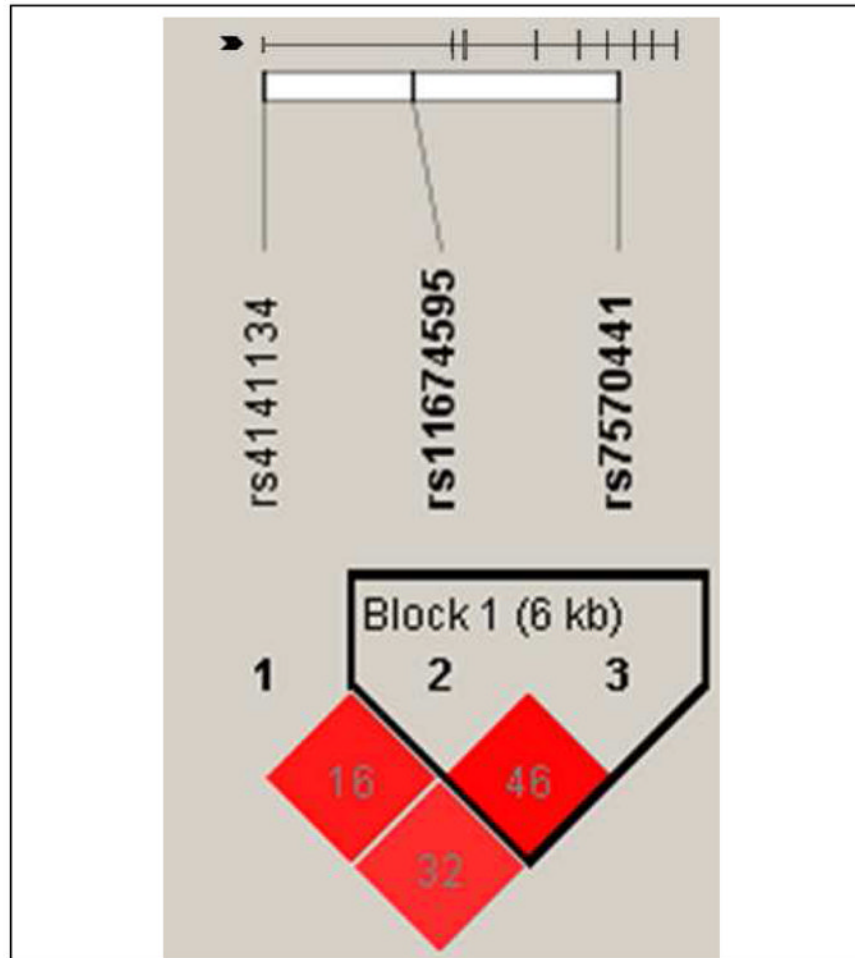

Haplotype	Low Sustained	High Sustained
A1: T-G	157 (59.5%)	183 (57.5%)
A2: T-A	***37 (14.0%)***	***63 (19.7%)***
A3: C-G	1 (<0.0%)	0 (0.0%)
A4: C-A	69 (26.1%)	74 (23.1%)

Figure 2.

IL1R2 linkage disequilibrium-based heatmap and haplotype analysis. In the figure embedded in the top row of the table, an ideogram of interleukin 1 receptor 2 (IL1R2) is presented above the white bar that represents the physical distance along human chromosome 2 (position 31, 96,370,336 to 96,380,807; genome build 36.3, contig NT_022171.14). Exons are represented as tick marks. Gray lines connecting the exons represent introns. The black chevron indicates the direction of gene transcription. Reference sequence identifiers (rsID) for each single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) are plotted both in terms of their physical distance (i.e., the white bar at the top of the figure) and also equidistantly to render the pairwise linkage disequilibrium (LD) estimates that were

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calculated and visualized with Haploview 4.2. The gene structure for IL1R2 (i.e., reference sequence NM_004633) was rendered with FancyGene 1.4. The correlation statistics (r^2 and D') are provided in the heatmap. LD-based haplotype block definition was based on the D' confidence interval method. The haploblock is indicated in a bolded triangle and its component SNPs are rendered in bold font. Pairwise D' values (range: 0–1, inclusive) were rendered in color, with darker red diamonds representing D' values approaching 1.0. When the r^2 values (range of 0–100, inclusive) are not equal to 0 or 100, they are provided in a given diamond. The haplotypes observed in the haploblock are listed in each row, starting with the nucleotide composition across the two SNPs that compose the haplotype (i.e., rs11674595, rs7570441) and both the count (n) and frequency (%) of each haplotype observed in the two GMM Sleep Disturbance groups. The T-A haplotype identified in the bivariate analyses (Table 1) that remained significant after controlling for relevant confounders is rendered in bold and italicized.

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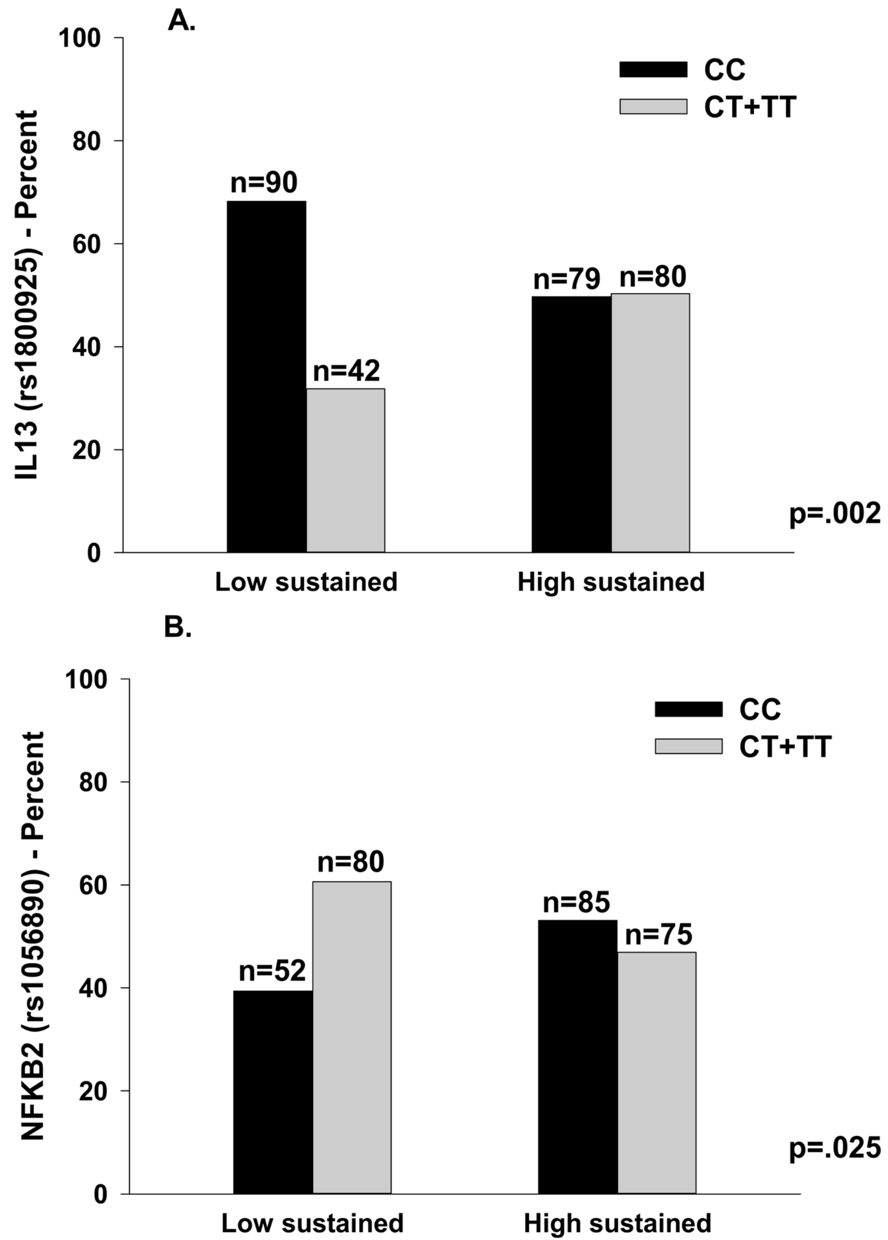

Figure 3.

Figure 3A. Differences between the latent classes in the percentages of patients who were homozygous for the common allele (CC) or heterozygous or homozygous for the minor allele (CT+TT) for rs1800925 in interleukin 13 (IL13). Values are plotted as unadjusted proportions with corresponding p-value.

Figure 3B - Differences between the latent classes in the percentages of patients who were homozygous for the common allele (CC) or heterozygous or homozygous for the minor allele (CT+TT) for rs1056890 in nuclear factor kappa beta 2 (NFKB2). Values are plotted as unadjusted proportions with corresponding p-value.

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Table 1

Summary of Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms Analyzed for Pro- and Anti-Inflammatory Cytokine Genes and Self-reported Sleep Disturbance

Gene	SNP	Position	Chr	MAF	Alleles	Chi Square	p-value	Model
IFNG1	rs2069728	66834051	12	.079	G>A	0.737	.692	A
IFNG1	rs2069727	66834490	12	.411	A>G	0.729	.694	A
IFNG1	rs2069718	66836429	12	.442	C>T	0.454	.797	A
IFNG1	rs1861493	66837463	12	.264	A>G	1.866	.393	A
IFNG1	rs1861494	66837676	12	.279	T>C	1.892	.388	A
IFNG1	rs2069709	66839970	12	.008	G>T	n/a	n/a	n/a
IFNG1	HapA3					1.837	.399	
IFNG1	HapA5					0.812	.666	
IFNGR1	rs9376268	137574444	6	.246	G>A	0.597	.742	A
IL1B	rs1071676	106042060	2	.189	G>C	0.859	.651	A
IL1B	rs1143643	106042929	2	.383	G>A	0.086	.958	A
IL1B	rs1143642	106043180	2	.082	C>T	3.049	.218	A
IL1B	rs1143634	106045017	2	.187	C>T	0.871	.647	A
IL1B	rs1143633	106045094	2	.392	G>A	0.283	.868	A
IL1B	rs1143630	106046282	2	.115	C>A	3.951	.139	A
IL1B	rs3917356	106046990	2	.450	G>A	0.355	.837	A
IL1B	rs1143629	106048145	2	.389	T>C	1.749	.417	A
IL1B	rs1143627	106049014	2	.397	T>C	1.828	.401	A
IL1B	rs16944	106049494	2	.386	G>A	2.266	.322	A
IL1B	rs1143623	106050452	2	.277	G>C	0.021	.990	A
IL1B	rs13032029	106055022	2	.448	C>T	0.809	.667	A
IL1B	HapA1					0.379	.827	
IL1B	HapA4					0.106	.948	
IL1B	HapA6					0.875	.645	
IL1B	HapB1					1.452	.484	
IL1B	HapB6					0.301	.860	
IL1B	HapB8					0.427	.808	

Gene	SNP	Position	Chr	MAF	Alleles	Chi Square	p-value	Model
IL1R1	rs949963	96533648	2	.223	G>A	3.293	.193	A
IL1R1	rs2228139	96545511	2	.053	C>G	2.659	.265	A
IL1R1	rs3917320	96556738	2	.047	A>C	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL1R1	rs2110726	96558145	2	.317	C>T	1.118	.572	A
IL1R1	rs3917332	96560387	2	.187	A>T	1.514	.469	A
IL1R1	HapA1					0.059	.971	
IL1R1	HapA2					0.329	.848	
IL1R1	HapA3					1.426	.490	
IL1R2	rs4141134	96370336	2	.362	T>C	0.011	.995	A
IL1R2	rs11674595	96374804	2	.247	T>C	0.993	.609	A
IL1R2	rs7570441	96380807	2	.408	G>A	1.357	.507	A
IL1R2	HapA1					1.572	.456	
IL1R2	HapA2						.037	
IL1R2	HapA4					0.544	.762	
IL2	rs1479923	119096993	4	.308	C>T	0.391	.822	A
IL2	rs2069776	119098582	4	.184	T>C	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL2	rs2069772	119099739	4	.241	A>G	0.222	.895	A
IL2	rs2069777	119103043	4	.047	C>T	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL2	rs2069763	119104088	4	.277	T>G	1.565	.457	A
IL2	HapA1					0.580	.748	
IL2	HapA2					1.613	.446	
IL2	HapA3					0.222	.895	
IL4	rs2243248	127200946	5	.086	T>G	2.604	.272	A
IL4	rs2243250	127201455	5	.269	C>T	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL4	rs2070874	127202011	5	.245	C>T	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL4	rs2227284	127205027	5	.387	C>A	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL4	rs2227282	127205481	5	.390	C>G	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL4	rs2243263	127205601	5	.124	C>G	1.503	.472	A
IL4	rs2243266	127206091	5	.237	G>A	n/a	n/a	n/a

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Gene	SNP	Position	Chr	MAF	Alleles	Chi Square	p-value	Model
IL4	rs2243267	127206188	5	.237	G>C	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL4	rs2243274	127207134	5	.261	G>A	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL4	HapA1					0.390	.823	
IL4	HapA3					0.454	.797	
IL4	HapX1					2.939	.230	
IL6	rs4719714	22643793	7	.255	A>T	3.053	.217	A
IL6	rs2069827	22648536	7	.069	G>T	4.431	.109	A
IL6	rs1800796	22649326	7	.134	C>G	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL6	rs1800795	22649725	7	.285	C>G	1.583	.453	A
IL6	rs2069835	22650951	7	.130	T>C	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL6	rs2066992	22651329	7	.091	G>T	0.889	.641	A
IL6	rs2069840	22651652	7	.333	C>G	4.107	.128	A
IL6	rs1554606	22651787	7	.319	G>T	0.187	.911	A
IL6	rs2069845	22653229	7	.319	A>G	0.187	.911	A
IL6	rs2069849	22654236	7	.024	C>T	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL6	rs2069861	22654734	7	.056	C>T	2.473	.290	A
IL6	rs35610689	22656903	7	.259	A>G	FE	.037	R
IL6	HapA1					1.280	.527	
IL6	HapA5					3.623	.163	
IL6	HapA8					1.471	.479	
IL8	rs4073	70417508	4	.455	T>A	0.888	.642	A
IL8	rs2227306	70418539	4	.366	C>T	2.088	.352	A
IL8	rs2227543	70419394	4	.368	C>T	1.847	.397	A
IL8	HapA1					0.888	.642	
IL8	HapA4					1.903	.386	
IL10	rs3024505	177638230	1	.129	C>T	1.987	.370	A
IL10	rs3024498	177639855	1	.204	A>G	0.259	.878	A
IL10	rs3024496	177640190	1	.421	T>C	5.439	.066	A
IL10	rs1878672	177642039	1	.416	G>C	FE	.043	R

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Gene	SNP	Position	Chr	MAF	Alleles	Chi Square	p-value	Model
IL10	rs3024492	177642438	1	.161	T>A	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL10	rs1518111	177642971	1	.303	G>A	2.561	.278	A
IL10	rs1518110	177643187	1	.301	G>T	2.213	.331	A
IL10	rs3024491	177643372	1	.408	G>T	4.998	.082	A
IL10	HapA1					2.493	.287	
IL10	HapA2					2.930	.231	
IL10	HapA8					0.329	.849	
IL13	rs1881457	127184713	5	.210	A>C	FE	.011	D
IL13	rs1800925	127185113	5	.233	C>T	FE	.002	D
IL13	rs2069743	127185579	5	.019	A>G	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL13	rs1295686	127188147	5	.265	G>A	2.902	.234	A
IL13	rs20541	127188268	5	.212	C>T	1.010	.604	A
IL13	HapA1					3.247	.197	
IL13	HapA4					0.727	.695	
IL17A	rs4711998	51881422	6	.346	G>A	2.290	.318	A
IL17A	rs8193036	51881562	6	.327	T>C	4.927	.085	A
IL17A	rs3819024	51881855	6	.372	A>G	1.002	.606	A
IL17A	rs2275913	51882102	6	.361	G>A	2.172	.338	A
IL17A	rs3804513	51884266	6	.023	A>T	n/a	n/a	n/a
IL17A	rs7747909	51885318	6	.217	G>A	1.470	.479	A
NFKB1	rs3774933	103645369	4	.409	T>C	2.139	.343	A
NFKB1	rs170731	103667933	4	.397	A>T	1.457	.483	A
NFKB1	rs17032779	103685279	4	.023	T>C	n/a	n/a	n/a
NFKB1	rs230510	103695201	4	.366	T>A	0.249	.883	A
NFKB1	rs230494	103706005	4	.477	A>G	0.772	.680	A
NFKB1	rs4648016	103708706	4	.017	C>T	n/a	n/a	n/a
NFKB1	rs4648018	103709236	4	.025	G>C	n/a	n/a	n/a
NFKB1	rs3774956	103727564	4	.479	C>T	0.502	.778	A
NFKB1	rs10489114	103730426	4	.025	A>G	n/a	n/a	n/a

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Gene	SNP	Position	Chr	MAF	Alleles	Chi Square	p-value	Model
NFKB1	rs4648068	103737343	4	.366	A>G	0.752	.687	A
NFKB1	rs4648095	103746914	4	.052	T>C	FE	1.000	A
NFKB1	rs4648110	103752867	4	.205	T>A	2.612	.271	A
NFKB1	rs4648135	103755716	4	.060	A>G	FE	1.000	A
NFKB1	rs4648141	103755947	4	.188	G>A	4.570	.102	A
NFKB1	rs1609798	103756488	4	.337	C>T	1.531	.465	A
NFKB1	HapA1					0.156	.925	
NFKB1	HapA9					1.261	.532	
NFKB2	rs12772374	104146901	10	.157	A>G	1.312	.519	A
NFKB2	rs7897947	104147701	10	.229	T>G	0.554	.758	A
NFKB2	rs11574849	104149686	10	.085	G>A	1.360	.507	A
NFKB2	rs1056890	104152760	10	.317	C>T	FE	.025	D
TNFA	rs2857602	31533378	6	.341	T>C	0.864	.649	A
TNFA	rs1800683	31540071	6	.390	G>A	0.119	.942	A
TNFA	rs2239704	31540141	6	.335	G>T	1.020	.601	A
TNFA	rs2229094	31540556	6	.278	T>C	1.562	.458	A
TNFA	rs1041981	31540784	6	.386	C>A	0.076	.963	A
TNFA	rs1799964	31542308	6	.224	T>C	4.349	.114	A
TNFA	rs1800750	31542963	6	.016	G>A	n/a	n/a	n/a
TNFA	rs1800629	31543031	6	.149	G>A	1.219	.544	A
TNFA	rs1800610	31543827	6	.100	C>T	1.258	.533	A
TNFA	rs3093662	31544189	6	.074	A>G	2.396	.302	A
TNFA	HapA1					3.187	.203	
TNFA	HapA5					2.905	.234	
TNFA	HapA6					2.526	.283	

A = additive model, Chr = chromosome, D = dominant model, IFNG = interferon gamma, IL = interleukin, MAF = minor allele frequency, n/a = not assayed because SNP violated Hardy-Weinberg expectations, NFKB = nuclear factor kappa beta, R = recessive model, SNP= single nucleotide polymorphism, TNFA = tumor necrosis factor alpha

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Table 2

Differences in Demographic and Clinical Characteristics Between Low (n=158) and High (n=219) Sustained Sleep Disturbance Classes

Characteristic	Low Sustained n=158 (41.9%) Mean (SD)	High Sustained n=219 (58.1%) Mean (SD)	Statistic and p-value
Age (years)	57.7 (12.1)	53.0 (10.9)	t=3.93, p<0.0001
Education (years)	15.5 (2.6)	15.9 (2.7)	t=−1.34, p=0.18
Karnofsky Performance Status score	96.5 (6.8)	90.9 (11.7)	t=5.76, p<0.0001
Self-administered Comorbidity Questionnaire score	3.7 (2.4)	4.8 (3.1)	t=−3.86, p<0.0001
Total number of breast biopsies in the past year	1.5 (0.9)	1.5 (0.8)	U, p=0.62
	N (%)	N (%)	
Ethnicity			χ^2=4.46, p=0.22
White	102 (65)	136 (62.4)	
Black	11 (7.0)	28 (12.8)	
Asian/Pacific Islander	24 (15.3)	24 (11.0)	
Hispanic/Mixed ethnic background/Other	20 (12.7)	30 (13.8)	
Married/partnered (% yes)	62 (39.5)	92 (42.6)	FE p=0.60
Lives alone (% yes)	37 (23.7)	50 (23.1)	FE p=0.90
Working for pay (% yes)	86 (54.4)	93 (43.1)	FE p=0.04
Stage of disease at diagnosis			U p=0.24
Stage 0	25 (15.8)	40 (18.3)	
Stage I	72 (45.6)	74 (33.8)	
Stage IIA and IIB	50 (31.6)	84 (38.4)	
Stage IIIA, IIIB, IIIC, and IV	11 (7.0)	21 (9.6)	
Type of Surgery			FE p=0.69
Breast Conservation	131 (82.9)	177 (80.8)	
Mastectomy	27 (17.1)	42 (19.2)	
Gone through menopause (% yes)	104 (68.0)	130 (61.0)	FE p=0.19
Sentinel node biopsy (% yes)	138 (87.3)	174 (79.5)	FE p=0.053
Axillary lymph node dissection (% yes)	52 (32.9)	92 (42.2)	FE p=0.07
Breast reconstruction at time of surgery (% yes)	30 (19.1)	45 (20.5)	FE p=0.79
Neoadjuvant chemotherapy (% yes)	27 (17.1%)	48 (22.0)	FE p=0.30
Radiation therapy during first 6 months (% yes)	99 (62.7%)	117 (53.4)	FE p=0.09

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Characteristic	Low Sustained n=158 (41.9%) Mean (SD)	High Sustained n=219 (58.1%) Mean (SD)	Statistic and p-value
Chemotherapy during first 6 months (% yes)	43 (27.2)	86 (39.3)	FE p=0.02

Abbreviations: FE = Fisher's Exact test, SD = standard deviation, U = Mann Whitney U test

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Table 3

Multiple Logistic Regression Analyses for IL1R2, IL13, and NFKB2 candidate gene markers

Predictor	Odds Ratio	Standard Error	95% CI	Z	p-value
IL1R2 haplotype	2.08	0.673	1.101, 3.921	2.26	0.024
Age	0.85	0.055	0.747, 0.964	−2.52	0.012
KPS score	0.52	0.095	0.362, 0.744	−3.57	<0.001
SCQ score	1.15	0.069	1.025, 1.298	2.38	0.006
Adjuvant CTX	2.43	0.745	1.330, 4.427	2.89	0.004
SLNB	0.31	0.126	0.141, 0.690	−2.88	0.004
Overall model fit: $\chi^2 = 60.40$, $p < .0001$ $R^2 = 0.1548$					
IL13 rs1800925	2.21	0.619	1.277, 3.827	2.83	0.005
Age	0.85	0.056	0.743, 0.963	−2.54	0.011
KPS score	0.55	0.098	0.384, 0.776	−3.37	0.001
SCQ score	1.17	0.070	1.036, 1.311	2.54	0.011
Adjuvant CTX	2.19	0.670	1.203, 3.987	2.56	0.010
SLNB	0.38	0.152	0.171, 0.829	−2.42	0.015
Overall model fit: $\chi^2 = 63.34$, $p < .0001$ $R^2 = 0.1624$					
NFKB2 rs1056890	0.53	0.153	0.306, 0.935	−2.19	0.028
Age	0.84	0.056	0.739, 0.958	−2.61	0.009
KPS score	0.54	0.098	0.378, 0.769	−3.41	0.001
SCQ score	1.16	0.070	1.034, 1.309	2.51	0.012
Adjuvant CTX	2.32	0.706	1.274, 4.208	2.75	0.006
SLNB	0.35	0.140	0.161, 0.769	−2.62	0.009
Overall model fit: $\chi^2 = 60.05$, $p < .0001$ $R^2 = 0.1539$					

Multiple logistic regression analysis of candidate gene associations with lower sustained versus higher sustained sleep disturbance groups. For each model, the first three principal components identified from the analysis of ancestry informative markers as well as self-report race/ethnicity were retained in all models to adjust for potential confounding due to race or ethnicity (data not shown). Predictors evaluated in each model included genotype (IL1R2 haplotype A2 composed of rs11674595-rs7570441: zero, one, or two doses of the T-A haplotype); IL13 rs1800925: CC versus CT + TT; NFKB2 rs1056890: CC versus CT + TT), age (in 5 year increments), KPS score (in 10 point increments), SCQ score, receiving adjuvant chemotherapy in the six months following surgery for breast cancer, and having undergone a SLNB.

Abbreviations; CI =confidence interval; CTX = chemotherapy; IL13 = interleukin 13; IL1R2= interleukin 1 receptor 2; KPS = Karnofsky Performance Status; NFKB2 = nuclear factor kappa beta 2; SCQ = Self-administered Comorbidity Questionnaire; SLNB = sentinel lymph node biopsy