METABOLIC ACTIVATION/INACTIVATION

Gökçe A. Törüner · Cemaliye Akyerli · Ahmet Uçar Tuncay Akı · Necmettin Atsu · Haluk Özen · Mesut Tez Mesut Çetinkaya · Tayfun Özçelik

Polymorphisms of glutathione S-transferase genes (GSTM1, GSTP1 and GSTT1) and bladder cancer susceptibility in the Turkish population

Received: 5 March 2001 / Accepted: 6 August 2001 / Published online: 20 September 2001 © Springer-Verlag 2001

Abstract We investigated the effect of the *GSTM1* and GSTT1 null genotypes, and GSTP1 313 A/G polymorphism on bladder cancer susceptibility in a case control study of 121 bladder cancer patients, and 121 age- and sex-matched controls of the Turkish population. The adjusted odds ratio for age, sex, and smoking status is 1.94 [95% confidence intervals (CI) 1.15-3.26] for the GSTM1 null genotype, and 1.75 (95% CI 1.03–2.99) for the GSTP1 313 A/G or G/G genotypes. GSTT1 was shown not to be associated with bladder cancer. Combination of the two high-risk genotypes, GSTM1 null and GSTP1 313 A/G or G/G, revealed that the risk increases to 3.91-fold (95% CI 1.88-8.13) compared with the combination of the low-risk genotypes of these loci. In individuals with the combined risk factors of cigarette smoking and the GSTM1 null genotype, the risk of bladder cancer is 2.81 times (95% CI 1.23-6.35) that of persons who both carry the GSTM1-present genotype and do not smoke. Similarly, the risk is 2.38-fold (95%) CI 1.12–4.95) for the combined GSTP1 313 A/G and G/ G genotypes and smoking. These findings support the role for the GSTM1 null and the GSTP1 313 AG or GG genotypes in the development of bladder cancer. Furthermore, gene-gene (GSTM1-GSTP1) and geneenvironment (GSTM1-smoking, GSTP1-smoking) interactions increase this risk substantially.

Keywords Bladder cancer · Gene polymorphism · Glutathione transferase

Introduction

Bladder cancer is the third most common cancer in males, and the eighth most common cancer in females of the Turkish population (Özsarı and Atasever 1997). Environmental risk factors play a substantial role in the development of this malignancy. They include cigarette smoke, chlornaphazine, phenacetin-containing analgesics, cyclophosphamide, arsenic, and occupational exposure to aromatic amines (Johansson and Cohen 1997). The type and amount of exposure to the carcinogen, and its metabolism in the body are important factors for cancer risk. Drug metabolizing enzymes carry out the metabolism of carcinogens in two phases. Phase I enzymes, such as the cytochromes P450, introduce an electrophilic centre, and hence activate the carcinogen. Phase II enzymes detoxify the activated carcinogen by introducing a hydrophilic group such as glutathione in to the metabolite (Lang and Pelkonnen 1999).

Glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), which conjugate glutathione, comprise a gene super-family made up of four individual gene families called α , μ , θ and π . Allelic polymorphisms in GST genes have been defined, and disease-association studies were conducted in different populations for various cancers (Strange and Fryer 1999). Among them, the most extensively studied are the GSTM1 null, the GSTP1 313 A/G and the GSTT1 null polymorphisms. The functional consequences of the GSTM1 and the GSTT1 null genotypes are obvious in terms of enzyme activity: no gene, no enzyme, and no activity. The GSTP1 313 A/G polymorphism at the nucleotide level leads to an amino acid variation of isoleucine/valine at codon 105 in the protein. The valine

G.A. Törüner · C. Akyerli · A. Uçar · T. Özçelik (⊠) Department of Molecular Biology and Genetics, Faculty of Science, Bilkent University, 06533 Bilkent, Ankara, Turkey

E-mail: tozcelik@fen.bilkent.edu.tr

Tel.: +90-312-2665081 Fax: +90-312-2665097

T. Akı · N. Atsu · H. Özen Department of Urology, Faculty of Medicine, Hacettepe University, Ankara, Turkey

M. Tez

Atatürk Chest Disease Research Hospital, Ankara, Turkey

M. Çetinkaya

Department of Urology, Ankara Numune Hospital, Ankara, Turkey

amino acid results in decreased enzyme activity (Ali-Osman et al. 1997). Despite this neat theoretical framework, the results of association studies between GST genotypes and bladder cancer are discordant in different populations (Bell et al. 1993; Zhong et al. 1993; Lin et al. 1994; Anwar et al. 1996; Brockmoller et al. 1996; Kempkes et al. 1996; Okkels et al. 1996; Golka et al. 1997; Harries et al. 1997; Katoh et al. 1999; Salagovic et al. 1999; Georgiou et al. 2000; Mungan et al. 2000; Steinhoff et al. 2000). Although methodological differences might be partially responsible for this discrepancy, the risk might be specific for the studied population because of differences in environmental factors, polymorphism frequencies and gene-gene interactions.

In this study, we determined the genotypic frequencies of the *GSTM1* null, *GSTP1* 313 A/G and *GSTT1* null polymorphisms in bladder cancer patients, age- and sex-matched controls, and randomly selected individuals to understand whether these polymorphisms are associated with bladder cancer in the Turkish population.

Materials and methods

Peripheral blood samples were collected from 121 patients with bladder cancer (transitional cell carcinoma) diagnosed at Hacettepe University Medical School, and Ankara Numune Hospital. The mean age was 60.15 years, standard deviation 11.10, range 25-87; 72.0% of the patients were smokers, and the male:female ratio was 5:1. Information about sex, age of individual patients, and histopathology of the tumours was obtained from their medical records. Non-smokers are defined as individuals who never smoked, and smokers are individuals who smoked at least one packet of cigarettes daily for 1 year (i.e. one pack-year). The age/sex-matched control group comprised of 121 individuals from Atatürk Chest Disease Research Hospital (non-cancer patients). The mean age was 59.33 years, standard deviation 13.58, range 23-79; 63.8% were smokers and the male:female ratio was 5:1. All three hospitals are in Ankara, and serve patients predominantly from Central Anatolia. Seventy-seven randomly selected Bilkent University students were also included in the study. Informed consent was obtained from all subjects. Genomic DNA was isolated from 700 µl blood by standard phenol-chloroform extraction.

GSTM1 genotyping was performed by simultaneous amplification of GSTM1 primers (Anwar et al. 1996) with CYP2E1 primers (Anwar et al. 1996) in the same polymerase chain reaction (PCR) tube. These primers were:

- G1, 5'-GAA CTC CCT GAA AAG CTA AAG C
- G2, 5'-GTT GGG CTC AAA TAT ACG GTG G
- CYP2E1F, 5'-CCA GTC GAG TCT ACA TTG TCA
- CYP2E1R, 5'-TTC ATT CTG TCT TCT AAC TGG

PCR products were electrophoresed in 2% agarose gels, and visualized by ethidium bromide staining. Null genotype was scored by the presence of a 412-bp *CYP2E1* band in the absence of a 215-bp *GSTM1* fragment.

A313G polymorphism in *GSTP1* was analysed using a previously described PCR-restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) method (Harries et al. 1997). Briefly, amplification was carried out using primers:

- p105F, 5'-ACC CCA GGG CTC TAT GGG AA
- p1051R, 5'-TGA GGG CAC AAG AAG CCC CT

The 176-bp amplified product was digested with *Alw*261 and electrophoresed in 3% NuSieve gel. Presence of the restriction site resulted in two fragments of 91 bp and 85 bp, which was indicative of the G allele.

GSTT1 genotype was determined by using the previously described primers (Bringuier et al. 1998):

- GSTT1F, 5'-AGG CAG CAG TGG GGG AGG ACC
- GSTT1R, 5'-CTC ACC GGA TCA TGG CCA GCA

in combination with the above mentioned GSTP1 primers. A *GSTT1*-specific 138-bp fragment was observed in positive individuals. Null genotype was scored after confirming with at least two independent experiments.

GSTM1 null, GSTP1 313 A/G or G/G, and GSTT1 null are defined as the risk genotypes for statistical analyses. Odds ratio (OR) with 95% confidence intervals (CI), and χ^2 analyses were performed (Daniel 1998). Age-, sex- and smoking-adjusted OR with 95% CI were calculated by a multiple logistic regression model (Hosmer and Lemeshow 1989). Two-gene interactions were calculated by using a previously described model (Yang and Khoury 1997). Analyses were done by using SPSS v.10.0 software.

Results

The genotype frequencies of the GSTM1, GSTP1 and GSTT1 polymorphisms in the patients, and the age/sexmatched control groups are summarized in Table 1. A group of randomly selected university students (n=77) was also genotyped to compare with the age/sex-matched control group. In the randomly selected group, the

Table 1 Distribution of the *GSTM1*, *GSTP1* and *GSTT1* genotypes in the age-and sexmatched controls and bladder cancer patients

Locus	Genotype	Group		Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals)			
		Bladder cancer (%) $n = 121$	Control (%) n=121	Crude	Adjusteda	P	
GSTM1	Present	46 (38.02)	66 (54.55)				
	Null	75 (61.98)	55 (45.45)	1.96 (1.18–3.22)	1.94 (1.15–3.26)	0.010	
GSTP1	A/A	67 (55.37)	83 (68.60)	,	,		
	A/G	42 (34.71)	33 (27.27)				
	G/G	12 (9.92)	5 (4.13)				
	A/G or G/G	54 (44.63)	38 (31.40)	1.76 (1.04–2.94)	1.75 (1.03–2.99)	0.034	
GSTT1	Present	97 (80.17)	100 (82.64)	,	,		
	Null	24 (19.83)	21 (17.36)	1.17 (0.61–2.22)	1.27 (0.66–2.47)	0.620	

^aAdjusted for age, sex and smoking status

frequency of GSTM1 null genotype was 46.7% (P=0.858), that of the GSTT1 null genotype was 17.25% (P = 0.936), and the GSTP1 genotype frequencies were 67.53% (A/A), 31.16% (A/G) and 1.31% (G/G) (P = 0.820). These results reveal that the genotype frequencies for the age/sex-matched control group and the randomly selected group are not significantly different, which indicates the absence of bias of ascertainment during the selection of the age/sex-matched control group. The distribution of GST genotypes was in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in all three groups. The odds ratio adjusted for age, sex, and smoking status was 1.94 (95% CI 1.15–3.26) for the GSTM1 null genotype. Since the GSTP1 313 G/G genotype frequency was too low in our population, GSTP1 313 A/G and G/G genotypes were combined for cancer risk estimation (Katoh et al. 1999). The OR was 1.75 (95% CI 1.03–2.99). Finally, the GSTT1 null genotype was found not to be a significant risk factor (OR 1.27, 95% CI 0.66-2.47) for bladder cancer.

Combination of the two high-risk genotypes, *GSTM1* null and *GSTP1* 313 A/G or G/G, revealed that the risk increases 3.91-fold (95% CI 1.88–8.13) compared with the combination of the low-risk genotypes of these loci (Table 2). We further investigated the risk associated with the combination of the risk-related genotypes of all three GST loci (Table 3), even though the *GSTT1* null genotype alone does not appear to be a significant risk factor for bladder cancer in the Turkish population. Individuals with all three putative low-risk genotypes, i.e. with the presence of *GSTM1* and *GSTT1* genotypes and the homozygous A/A genotype for *GSTP1*, were

designated as the reference group. The calculated odds ratio for the three high-risk genotypes versus no high-risk genotype was 8.00 (95% CI 1.52–287.10).

We evaluated the risk of bladder cancer from GST genotypes by smoking status (Table 4). Among nonsmokers we found a slight but statistically non-significant increased risk of bladder cancer associated with the GSTM1 null (OR 1.95, 95% CI 0.74-5.05), the GSTP1 A/G or G/G (OR 1.78, 95% CI 0.65-4.80), and the GSTT1 (OR 1.53, 95% CI 0.51–4.52) genotypes. Among smokers we found a significantly elevated risk of bladder cancer associated with the GSTM1 null genotype (OR 2.02, 95% CI 1.04-3.93). An association was not observed for either GSTP1 or GSTT1. The effect of the combined contributions of genotype and smoking status to bladder cancer risk is displayed in Table 5. Individuals with the GSTM1 null genotype who smoke have an increased risk of 2.81 (95% CI 1.23-6.35) compared with the individuals with the GSTM1 present genotype who do not smoke. Similarly, with respect to the GSTP1 locus, the risk factor is 2.38 (95% CI 1.12-4.95). An association with the GSTT1 locus was not found.

Discussion

GSTM1, GSTP1, and GSTT1 polymorphisms were analysed in 121 bladder cancer patients, and 121 age/sex-matched controls. When the two groups were compared, the odds ratio for the GSTM1 null genotype in bladder cancer patients is 1.94, and for the GSTP1 313 A/G or G/G genotypes is 1.75. The GSTT1 null geno-

Table 2 Combination of the *GSTM1* null with *GSTP1* 313 AG or GG genotypes and bladder cancer risk

Genotype of risk	GSTM1	GSTP1	Group		Odds ratio (95% confidence intervals)		
OI IISK			Bladder cancer $(n=121)$	Control $(n=121)$	Crude	Adjusted ^a	
None ^b One	Present Null Present	A/A A/A A/G, G/G	24 43 22	41 42 25	1.00 (reference) 1.75 (0.94–3.25) 1.50 (0.69–3.74)	1.00 (reference) 2.07 (1.00–4.30) 1.89 (0.91–3.93)	
Two	Null	A/G, G/G		13	4.20 (1.85–9.58)	3.91 (1.88–8.13)	

^aAdjusted for age, sex and smoking status

Table 3 GST genotype distribution and risk associated with genotype combinations

Combination	Locus			Group		Odds ratio (95%
	GSTM1	GSTP1	GSTT1	Bladder cancer $(n=121)$	Controls $(n=121)$	confidence interval)
Three high-risk genotypes	Null	A/G or G/G	Null	8	2	8.00 (1.52–287.10)
Two high-risk genotypes	Null	A/G or G/G	Present	24	11	4.36 (1.75–10.80)
6 6 71	Null	A/A	Null	7	8	1.75 (0.54–5.52)
	Present	A/G or G/G	Null	2	4	1.00 (0.16–5.58)
One high-risk genotype	Null	A/A	Present	36	34	2.11 (1.06–4.41)
0 71	Present	A/G or G/G	Present	20	21	1.90 (0.84–1.69)
	Present	A/A	Null	7	7	2.00 (0.60–6.61)
No high-risk genotype	Present	\mathbf{A}'/\mathbf{A}	Present	17	34	1.00 (reference)

^bGroup that includes the combination of no-risk genotypes and is used as the reference for odds ratio analysis

Table 4 Distribution of GST genotypes stratified according to smoking status in cancer cases and controls. For bladder cancer patients and controls, the number of cases of each genotype is shown together with percentage in parentheses

Locus	Genotype	Non smokers			Smokers		
		Bladder cancer	Control	Odds ratio (95%CI)	Bladder cancer	Control	Odds ratio (95%CI)
GSTM1	Present	12 (38.70)	21 (55.20)		27 (33.75)	34 (50.70)	
	Null	19 (61.30)	17 (44.80)	1.95 (0.74–5.05)	53 (66.25)	33 (49.30)	2.02 (1.04–3.93)
GSTP1	AA	18 (58.06)	27 (71.05)	,	45 (56.25)	45 (67.10)	`
	AG/GG	13 (41.94)	11 (28.95)	1.78 (0.65–4.80)	35 (43.75)	22 (32.90)	1.59 (0.83–3.03)
GSTT1	Present	22 (70.90)	30 (78.90)	,	66 (82.50)	56 (83.50)	`
	Null	9 (29.10)	8 (21.10)	1.53 (0.51-4.52)	14 (17.50)	11 (16.50)	1.08 (0.42–2.51)

Table 5 Combined risk of bladder cancer associated with smoking and GST genotypes

Smoking status	Odds raio (95% confidence intervals)							
	GSTM1		GSTP1		GSTT1			
	Present	Null	A/A	A/G or G/G	Present	Null		
No	1	1.95 (0.74–5.06)	1	1.77 (0.65–4.75)	1	1.53 (0.53–4.34)		
Yes	1.38 (0.73–2.58)	2.81 (1.23–6.35)	1.50 (0.72–3.06)	2.38 (1.12–4.95)	1.60 (0.83–3.06)	1.73 (0.77–3.74)		

type was not found to be associated with a significantly increased bladder cancer risk (Table 1). Our observation for the GSTM1 null genotype parallels that of a recent meta-analysis study, although our figure of 1.94 is higher than the reported OR of 1.5 in the meta-analysis (Johns and Houlston 2000). Association of the GSTP1 313 A/G or G/G genotypes with bladder cancer in the Turkish population is in accord with findings in the British population (Harries et al. 1997), but not with those in the Japanese (Katoh et al. 1999) or German (Steinhoff et al. 2000) populations. The lack of association between bladder cancer and the GSTT1 locus is in agreement with studies in the Greek (Georgiou et al. 2000) and German (Kempkes et al. 1996; Steinhoff et al. 2000) populations, but not with results for Slovaks (Salagovic et al. 1999).

Bladder cancer is a malignancy in which, in addition to the genetic status of the individual, gene-environment interactions are thought to play an important role. Smoking is one of the important environmental risk factors. Since GSTs are involved in the metabolism of smoking-related carcinogens such as epoxides and polycylic aromatic hydrocarbons (Lang and Pelkonnen 1999; Autrup 2000), we analysed the risk of bladder cancer from GST genotypes by smoking status (Table 4), and the combined risk of bladder cancer associated with smoking and GST genotypes (Table 5). In order to examine the genetic risk for bladder cancer independently by eliminating the contribution of smoking, we stratified the subjects by smoking status. An association was observed only in individuals who smoke and carry the GSTM1 null genotype (OR 2.02, 95% CI 1.04–3.93). However, we would like to note that the stratification process, which reduced the number of samples analysed, might have resulted in statistically

non-significant confidence intervals in the remaining groups. Combined analyses of smoking status and GST genotypes indicate an interaction between smoking and the *GSTM1* null genotype as well as the *GSTP1* A/G or G/G genotypes. The risk figures are 2.81 and 2.38, respectively. This observation is in accordance with the results from studies in the U.S.A. (Bell et al. 1993) but not with those from Dutch (Mungan et al. 2000) or Korean (Kim et al. 2000) studies. No data were available in the literature for the association of *GSTP1* locus and bladder cancer.

We observed that combination of the GSTM1 null and the GSTP1 313 A/G or G/G genotypes leads to approximately a four-fold increased risk of cancer compared with the combination of the low-risk genotypes of these loci. This observation suggests that genegene interactions may contribute to genetic susceptibility for bladder cancer. Simultaneous analysis of the GSTM1 and GSTP1 loci was conducted for bladder cancer in only one study from Germany (Steinhoff et al. 2000) in which an increased risk was not observed. On the other hand, in a Japanese lung cancer study (Kihara et al. 1999) and a U.S. breast cancer study (Helzlsouer et al. 1998) where the high-risk genotypes of the GSTM1 and GSTP1 loci were analysed simultaneously, an increased risk on combination of high-risk genotypes was detected. Interestingly, when we combined the three risk genotypes, the odds ratio figure increases to eight. However, this observation should be interpreted with caution and validated by further studies using a larger sample size.

The data from the age/sex-matched controls and the randomly selected individuals were combined since they did not differ significantly. These combined data were then compared with the previously reported data from

Caucasian populations by employing a test of homogeneity (Daniel 1998). Neither the GSTM1 nor the GSTT1 loci differed significantly (Vineis et. al. 1999) among the studies including a previously reported Turkish study (Oke et al. 1998). However, the frequency of the GSTP1 313 genotypes in the Turkish study differs from the previously reported British (Harries et al. 1997) (P=0.001), German (Steinhoff et.al. 2000) (P=0.008), Norwegian (Ryberg et al. 1997) (P=0.001), and European American (Watson et al. 1997) (P=0.015) population frequencies.

To our knowledge, this is the first genetic study on the association of GSTs with bladder cancer in the Turkish population. We have demonstrated a risk of bladder cancer associated with the *GSTM1* null and the *GSTP1* 313 A/G or G/G genotypes. Furthermore, genegene (*GSTM1-GSTP1*) and gene-environment (*GSTM1*-smoking, *GSTP1*-smoking) interactions increase this risk substantially.

Acknowledgements The authors gratefully acknowledge grant support from the Turkish Scientific and Technical Research Association (TÜBİTAK – SBAG 1948) and Bilkent University Research Fund, and the patient sample contributions from Drs. Mehmet Öztürk and Işık G.Yuluğ. We also thank Dr. Attila Halil Elhan for help in statistical analyses. All experiments were performed in accordance with Turkish law and regulations.

References

- Ali-Osman F, Akande O, Antoun G, Mao JX, Buolamwini J (1997) Molecular cloning, characterization and expression in *E. coli* of full-length cDNAs of three human glutathione S-transferase Pi gene variants. J Biol Chem 272:10004–10012
- Anwar WA, Abdel-Rahman SZ, El-Zein RA, Mostafa HM, Au WW (1996) Genetic polymorphisms of GSTM1, CYP2E1 and CYP2D6 in Egyptian bladder cancer patients. Carcinogenesis 17:1923–1929
- Autrup H (2000) Genetic polymorphisms in human xenobiotica metabolizing enzymes as susceptibility factors in toxic response. Mutat Res 464:65–76
- Bell DA, Taylor JA, Paulson DF, Robertson CN, Mohler JL, Lucier GW (1993) Genetic risk and carcinogen exposure: a common inherited defect of the carcinogen-metabolism gene glutathione S-transferase M1 (GSTM1) that increases susceptibility to bladder cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst 85:1159– 1164
- Bringuier PP, McCredie M, Sauter G, Bilous M, Stewart J, Mihatsch MJ, Kleihues P, Ohgaki H (1998) Carcinomas of the renal pelvis associated with smoking and phenacetin abuse: p53 mutations and polymorphism of carcinogen-metabolizing enzymes. Int J Cancer 79:531–536
- Brockmoller J, Cascorbi I, Kerb R, Roots I (1996) Combined analysis of inherited polymorphisms in arylamine *N*-acetyltransferase 2, glutathione S-transferases M1 and T1, microsomal epoxide hydrolase, and cytochrome P450 enzymes as modulators of bladder cancer risk. Cancer Res 56:3915–3925
- Daniel WW (1995) Biostatistics: a foundation for analysis in the health sciences, 6th edn. John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, pp 503–567
- Georgiou I, Filiadis IF, Alamanos Y, Bouba I, Giannakopoulos X, Lolis D (2000) Glutathione S-transferase null genotypes in transitional cell bladder cancer: a case-control study. Eur Urol 37:660–664
- Golka K, Reckwitz T, Kempkes M, Cascorbi I, Blaskewicz M, Reich SE, Roots I, Soekeland J, Schulze H, Bolt HM (1997)

- N-Acetyltransferase 2 (NAT2) and glutathione S-transferase μ (GSTM1) in bladder-cancer patients in a highly industrialized area. Int J Occup Environ Health 3:105–110
- Harries LW, Stubbins MJ, Forman D, Howard GC, Wolf CR (1997) Identification of genetic polymorphisms at the glutathione S-transferase Pi locus and association with susceptibility to bladder, testicular and prostate cancer. Carcinogenesis 18: 641–644
- Helzlsouer KJ, Selmin O, Huang HY, Strickland PT, Hoffman S, Alberg AJ, Watson M, Comstock GW, Bell D (1998) Association between glutathione S-transferase M1, P1, and T1 genetic polymorphisms and development of breast cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst 90:512–518
- Hosmer DW, Lemeshow S (1989) Applied logistic regression. John Wiley and Sons Inc., New York, pp 38–134
- Johansson SL, Cohen SM (1997) Epidemiology and etiology of bladder cancer. Semin Surg Oncol 13:291–298
- Johns LE, Houlston RS (2000) Glutathione S-transferase μ1 (GSTM1) status and bladder cancer risk: a meta-analysis. Mutagenesis 15:399–404
- Katoh T, Kaneko S, Takasawa S, Nagata N, Inatomi H, Ikemura K, Itoh H, Matsumoto T, Kawamoto T, Bell DA (1999) Human glutathione S-transferase P1 polymorphism and susceptibility to smoking related epithelial cancer; oral, lung, gastric, colorectal and urothelial cancer. Pharmacogenetics 9:165–169
- Kempkes M, Golka K, Reich S, Reckwitz T, Bolt HM (1996) Glutathione S-transferase GSTM1 and GSTT1 null genotypes as potential risk factors for urothelial cancer of the bladder. Arch Toxicol 71:123–126
- Kihara M, Kihara M, Noda K (1999) Lung cancer risk of the GSTM1 null genotype is enhanced in the presence of the GSTP1 mutated genotype in male Japanese smokers. Cancer Lett 137:53–60
- Kim WJ, Lee HL, Lee SC, Kim YT, Kim H (2000) Polymorphisms of *N*-acetyltransferase 2, glutathione *S*-transferase mu and theta genes as risk factors of bladder cancer in relation to asthma and tuberculosis. J Urol 166:209–213
- Lang M, Pelkonnen O (1999) Metabolism of xenobiotics and chemical carcinogenesis. In: Vineis P, Malats N, Lang M, D'Errico A, Caporaso N, Cuzick J, Boffetta P (eds) Metabolic polymorphisms and susceptibility to cancer, vol 148. IARC Scientific Publications, Lyon, pp 13–22
- Lin HJ, Han CY, Bernstein DA, Hsiao W, Lin BK, Hardy S (1994) Ethnic distribution of the glutathione transferase Mu 1-1 (GSTM1) null genotype in 1473 individuals and application to bladder cancer susceptibility. Carcinogenesis 15:1077–1081
- Mungan NA, Aben KK, Beeks E, Kampman E, Bunschoten A, Bussemakers M, Witjes JA, Kiemeney LA (2000) A germline homozygote deletion of the glutathione-S-transferase Mu1 gene predisposes to bladder cancer. Urol Int 64:134–138
- Oke B, Akbas F, Aydin M, Berkkan H (1998) GSTT1 null genotype frequency in a Turkish population. Arch Toxicol 72:454-455
- Okkels H, Sigsgaard T, Wolf H, Autrup H (1996) Glutathione S-transferase mu as a risk factor in bladder tumours. Pharmacogenetics 6:251–256
- Özsarı H, Atasever L (1997) Cancer registry report of Turkey 1993–1994, Turkish Ministry of Health, Ankara, pp 5–6
- Ryberg D, Skaug V, Hewer A, Philips DH, Harries LW, Wolf CR (1997) Genotypes of glutathione transferase M1 and P1 and their significance for lung DNA adduct levels and cancer risk. Carcinogenesis 18:1285–1289
- Salagovic J, Kalina I, Habalova V, Hrivnak M, Valansky L, Biros E (1999) The role of human glutathione S-transferases M1 and T1 in individual susceptibility to bladder cancer. Physiol Res 48:465–471
- Steinhoff C, Franke KH, Golka K, Thier R, Romer HC, Rotzel C, Ackermann R, Schulz WA (2000) Glutathione transferase isozyme genotypes in patients with prostate and bladder carcinoma. Arch Toxicol 74:521–526

- Strange RC, Fryer AA (1999) Metabolism of xenobiotics and chemical carcinogenesis. In: Vineis P, Malats N, Lang M, D'Errico A, Caporaso N, Cuzick J, Boffetta P (eds) Metabolic polymorphisms and susceptibility to cancer, vol 148. IARC Scientific Publications, Lyon, pp 231–250
- Vineis P, Malats N, Lang M, D'Errico A, Caporaso N, Cuzick J, Boffetta P (1999) Metabolic polymorphisms and susceptibility to cancer, vol 148. IARC Scientific Publications, Lyon, pp 409–506 Watson MA, Steward RK, Smith GBJ, Massey TE, Bell DA (1998)
- Human glutathione S-transferase P1 polymorphisms: relation-
- ship to lung tissue enzyme activity and population frequency distribution. Carcinogenesis 19:275-280
- Yang Q, Khoury MJ (1997) Evolving methods in genetic epidemiology. III. Gene-environment interaction in epidemiological research. Epidemiol Rev 19:33-44
- Zhong S, Wyllie AH, Barnes D, Wolf CR, Spurr NK (1993) Relationship between the GSTM1 genetic polymorphism and susceptibility to bladder, breast and colon cancer. Carcinogenesis 14:1821–1824