Assessment of cancer susceptibility in humans by use of genetic polymorphisms in carcinogen metabolism

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Prevention is an important and effective measure for reducing death caused by cancer. Thus information on individual susceptibility to cancer is valuable in suggesting high risk individuals to avoid intake of carcinogenic substances and receive frequent physical screening. To this end, polymorphisms found within cytochrome P450 (CYP) genes implicated in the metabolism of procarcinogens are expected to be good genetic targets in assessing human cancer susceptibility. We have found polymorphisms in the CYP2E1 and CYP1A1 genes associated with lung cancer susceptibility, though there were some discrepancies from observations made by other investigators. Discrepancies among investigators from different regions, however, are very common in these pharmacogenetic studies. We present an explanation for these discrepancies, difficulties associated with prediction of relative risk of individuals, and future directions.

Introduction

Prevention stands as ultimate strategy to conquer cancer. Information of individual susceptibility to cancer with a predictive value may lead to identification of high risk individuals, thereby decreasing possible development of cancer by recommending them to reduce their chance of exposures to carcinogenic substances (reviewed in Caporaso et al., 1991; Nebert, 1991). From the underlying basis that carcinogenic substances and viral agents are believed to cause most cancers (chemicals causing approximately 70% of the cases), the disease could be prevented by avoiding exposure to carcinogenic substances and viral agents (reviewed in Doll & Peto, 1981). To this end, pharmacogenetics, which is a field study of variability in individual responses to chemicals as a consequence of differences in individual genetic background, is an attractive resource rapidly gaining general acceptance. Indeed, polymorphic response to number of chemicals has been reported to date, and at least some of them fit criteria reasonably well as determinants for susceptibility to certain cancers

⁽reviewed in Caporaso et al., 1991; Nebert, 1991). Pharmacogenetics mainly uses two technologically different approaches, which are not mutually exclusive but rather complementary. One is assaying individual metabolic capacity for certain drugs and the other is directly genotyping gene(s) encoding enzymes involved in chemical metabolisms. The former approach, usually more laborious, expensive, and above all, possibly harmful to patients, gives a plausible biological basis for the relevance of the polymorphism and cancer susceptibility. However, it is confounded by other factors, such as age, sex, season, life style, treatment, etc. The genotyping approach is less laborious, less expensive, less potentially harmful, and relatively less confounding, although the biological basis for relevance of the polymorphism and cancer susceptibility is less apparent. It is also confounded by polymorphisms not having a causative role for determining cancer susceptibility, and may simply be linked by chance to a bona fide determinant for cancer susceptibility by linkage disequilibrium. Therefore, the establishment of reliable, inexpensive, harmless, and rapid methods which can be applied by massive screening to determine individual relative risk of developing cancer is a goal to be aimed at.

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Importance of prevention in reducing cancer

Although various advances in cancer therapy have made a significant portion of cancers curable, cancer still remains as the leading life-threatening disease among advanced nations, with treatment consuming tremendous resources (Coleman et al., 1993). Additionally, effective therapy is still limited in certain types of cancers. At present, approximately half of cancer patients are likely to die and half are likely to recover from the disease. Two thirds of the latter half may recover by surgical therapy, one fifth by radiotherapy, and the rest by chemotherapy (Fig. 1). Advances in radiotherapy are limited since its effectiveness is largely dependent on the site of the cancer. Combination therapy is also decreasing because of its ineffectiveness in many cases. Thus, the realization of reducing cancer death is dependent on increasing the recovery rate from surgical therapy, chemotherapy (including gene therapy), on reducing the incidence of cancer, or on developing totally different strategies for therapy (Fig. 1). In each category, pharmacogenetics is useful. Regarding chemotherapy, careful re-examination of human responses to drugs, one aspect of pharmacogenetics, will lead us to understand variability in individual responses to anti-cancer drugs, subsequently allowing physicians to determine appropriate dosage of the drugs for each patient. For surgical therapy, successful cure rates will be improved by increasing early diagnosis as a consequence of recommending careful and frequent screening, especially among high risk groups. Of course, the ultimate goal will be to reduce cancer incidence by preventing cancer. Since about 70% of the cancer causing agents are believed to be chemical substances (Doll & Peto, 1981). avoiding exposure to carcinogenic substances plays a central role in prevention, although the use of antagonistic drugs for prevention may also be considered in extremely high risk groups (Greenwald, 1994). Nevertheless, absolute exclusion of carcinogenic substances is impossible. Therefore, the solution is to identify high risk individuals and to recommend them to alter their occupations, life style, etc. to avoid unnecessary exposure to substances to which they are sensitive (reviewed in Nebert, 1991). The most striking case to date is the slow N-acetylator phenotype, which is a prevalent polymorphism comprising more than 50% of the population of the Western world. This phenotype is weakly associated with bladder carcinoma (OR ranging from 1–1.7 depending on researchers, reviewed in Caporaso et al., 1991). However, in chemical workers with bladder carcinoma, virtually all were found to be of the slow N-acetylator phenotype (Cartwright et al., 1982), suggesting that alteration of occupational exposure to lessen contact with such chemicals might be a beneficial preventive measure for these high risk groups. Prevention is all the more important because patients recovered from cancers are much more prone to develop secondary cancer (not metastasis), for the patient may be inherently more susceptible to cancer.

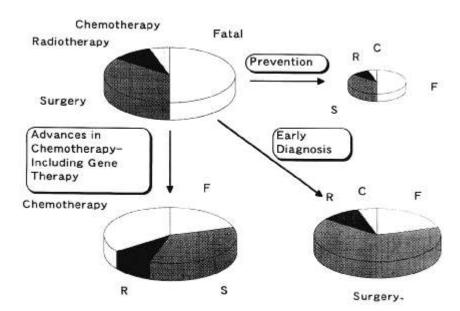


Fig. 1. Future directions for reducing cancer death. General fate of cancer patients is shown according to publications in Japan, although proportions are highly variable depending on hospitals. Absolute proportion, however, is not important for the sake of the discussion in the text. Note that the pie chart on top right corner is reduced in size to show reduction in cancer incidence. F, fatal; S, surgery; R, radiotherapy; C, chemotherapy.

Region		CC (%)	CD (%)	DD (%)	Total	Reference
Japan	Control	11 (14.5)	22 (28.9)	43 (56.6)	76	Uematsu et al., 1994
(Miyagi)	Lung cancer Smoking	2 (2.2)	42 (46.2)	47 (51.6)	91	
	history < 20 pyr Smoking	1 (4.0)	16 (64.0)	8 (32.0)	25	
	history > 20 pyr	1 (1.9)	21 (38.9)	32 (59.3)	54	
Finland	Control	1 (0.8)	24 (19.8)	96 (79.3)	121	Hirvonen et al., 1993
	Lung cancer	2 (2.0)	14 (13.9)	85 (84.2)	101	
Sweden	Control	2 (1.0)	38 (18.4)	166 (80.6)	206	Persson et al., 1993
	Lung cancer	0 (0.0)	33 (17.1)	160 (82.9)	193	

Table 1. CYP2E1 Dra I RFLP and lung cancer susceptibility

Finally, development of such methods to identify individual cancer susceptibility and use of the information in preventive strategies will enable us to reduce the cost of treatment as well as cancer death.

Mutations and polymorphisms determining cancer susceptibility

The existence of a certain population susceptibility to cancer is most pronounced in the hereditary predisposition to cancer (reviewed by White, 1992). The best example is familial retinoblastoma, a rare tumour of the retina occurring one out of 20000 births in Caucasians, in which more than 90% of affected individuals develop an average of six independent tumours in their eyes (reviewed in Zacksenhaus et al., 1993). Since they are at a great disadvantage for survival, they do not constitute a major part of the population (Ramel, 1992). Thus, these genetic alterations in the RB1 gene are called mutations, for the abnormalities are easily distinguishable from the normal allele. However, a less obvious predisposition to cancer (i.e. very low penetrance), is more frequently observed as late onset cancer gathering in close relatives. Ordinarily cancer is a late onset disease occurring after the reproductive period, therefore, a weak cancer susceptibility phenotype does not serve as a selective pressure against survival of the species and the cancer susceptibility allele would be considered neutral in terms of survival of the species (Kimura, 1981). Although, these weakly susceptible phenotypes are not a great risk factor for an individual, they may be widely distributed in a population and the total risk for the population would be large, particularly in societies with a significant aged population. Such alterations are called risk-associated factors and in many cases it is not possible to easily distinguish between normal and abnormal alleles. These low

penetrance genes are most likely to show multi-gene inheritance and are not suitable subjects for ordinary positional cloning or candidate gene methods. Nevertheless, such genes involved in the metabolism of carcinogens (reviewed in Kawajiri & Fujii-Kuriyama, 1991; Kawajiri et al., 1993) and DNA repair systems (reviewed in Weeda et al., 1993; Service, 1994), which are not essential for survival but may affect susceptibility to cancer are good candidate genes to start with. Methodology is straightforward: 1) choose candidate genes; 2) search for polymorphisms within them; 3) identify polymorphisms which are frequent among patients and infrequent among the normal population; and 4) find a biologically plausible explanation.

We will describe our efforts using such a strategy, in the identification of putative cancer susceptibility polymorphisms in genes involved in P450 systems, namely *CYP2E1* and *CYP1A1*, which are known to activate procarcinogens into ultimate carcinogens.

CYP2E1 polymorphisms and lung cancer susceptibility

CYP2E1 is an enzyme involved in the oxidation of ethanol and carcinogenic activation of low molecular weight nitrosamines existing in diets, cigarette smoke and air (Gonzalez, 1988; Guengerich et al., 1991). Among restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP), Taq I, Dra I, Rsa I, two Msp I and Pst I, found within CYP2E1, we previously reported that the Dra I RFLP is associated with lung cancer (Uematsu et al., 1991). The Dra I RFLP, located within intron 6 of the CYP2E1 gene, was detected by amplifying a 950 bp DNA fragment encompassing the Dra I RFLP. Distribution of the C allele, an allele without the Dra I site and allele D, an allele with the Dra I site, was studied among cancer patients and normal controls

(Table 1). The distribution among patients with cancer of digestive tract origin was not significantly different from that among normal controls. The distribution of heterozygote C/D alleles among lung cancer patients, however, was significantly more frequent than that of normal controls, giving an OR of 2.1 (Uematsu et al., 1991, 1994). Moreover, this tendency decreased in the group of patients with greater than 20 pack-years of smoking history (Uematsu et al., 1994), probably due to over-exposure to carcinogenic substances overriding the genetic component. This implies that high risk individuals need to avoid even a small amount of the susceptible carcinogens compelling vigorous restrictions in their life style, thus reducing the value of this polymorphism in the prevention of cancer. Furthermore, the odds ratio of 2.1 is usually not sufficiently compelling to recommend restrictions in life style. Therefore, although the result gives a hope for such a strategy in the prevention of cancer, at the same time, it demands us to identify new polymorphisms of more practical use. In addition, inconsistent observations have also been reported by other researchers (Table 1, references are given in the Table), which will be described in the next section. Incidentally, the tendency can be interpreted that the OR increased in the group of patients with less than 20 pack-years of smoking history because of exposure to, as yet unidentified, carcinogenic substances not contained in cigarette smoke.

Finally, *CYP2E1* mRNA expression was elevated in xenografted liver from patients heterozygous for the RFLP (Uematsu *et al.*, 1994). This observation hardly gives a biologically plausible explanation for the association of the RFLP and lung cancer, necessitating further investigations.

CYP1A1 polymorphisms and lung cancer susceptibility

CYP1A1 is the best studied P450 among P450s involved in activation of procarcinogens (Gonzalez, 1988; Guengerich, 1992). CYP1A1 is induced by aryl hydrocarbons (Ah), such as tetrachlorodibenzop-dioxin (TCDD), 3-methylcholanthrene, benzo[a]-pyrene, and it activates benzo[a]-pyrene which is a major carcinogenic substance in cigarette smoke. Human lung cancer, one of the most problematic cancers today, is known to be highly dependent on exposure to procarcinogens abundant in cigarette smoke (IARC, Tobacco smoking. IARC Monogr. Eval. Carcinog. Risk Chem. Hum. 1984: 38, 221–228). It is also known that DNA adducts appear as a consequence of the induction of CYP1A1 by smoking (Phillips et al., 1988; McLemore et al., 1990). Thus identification of the risk

associated with polymorphisms of Ah-metabolizing enzymes, such as CYP1A1 and GSTM1 (Nakachi et al., 1993), is invaluable for identifying preventive measures, and especially a polymorphism of practical use which can be applied to mass epidemiological screening. The association of such a polymorphism has been implicated since positives correlation between CYP1A1 inducibility and smoking related lung cancer susceptibility has been documented for decades (Kellermann et al., 1973a, b), although it still remains controversial (reviewed in Caporaso et al., 1991; Ingelman et al., 1992).

We started with reexamining the reported Msp I RFLP, which resides in the 3'-flanking region of the CYP1A1 gene. This Msp I RFLP is reported to be associated with lung cancer, especially in the case of Kreyberg I type lung cancers, which are highly associated with smoking history (Kawajiri et al., 1990). Distribution of recessive m2/m2 homozygotes (allele with and without the Msp I site, designated m1 and m2, respectively) is elevated in lung cancer, especially in Kreyberg I type lung cancer, giving an OR of 3.21 (Table 2). Analogous to the CYP2E1 described earlier. sub-classification of this group by amount of cigarette consumption has revealed that being homozygous for m2/m2 contributes to a further elevation of the OR to 7.31 in the low consumption group, however, this elevation of OR drops to 1.13 in the high consumption group (Nakachi et al., 1991). This effect of genetic constitution being overridden by exposure to a carcinogen, also reduces the value of this determinant in practical use. In addition, the Msp I RFLP is in close linkage with the Ile/Val polymorphism, the residue 462 polymorphism in the heme binding region of CYP1A1 (the m1 allele being closely linked to CYP1A1 (Ile) and the m2 allele to CYP1A1 (Val) in Japanese). CYP1A1(Val) is claimed to have elevated aryl hydrocarbon hydroxylase activity compared with CYP1A1(Ile), explaining the association of the Msp I RFLP to lung cancer susceptibility. This seems hardly a plausible explanation because the heterozygote individuals are not at elevated risk (Nakachi et al., 1991). One would expect the m1/m1 homozygote and m1/m2 heterozygote to exhibit different ORs depending on cigarette consumption.

Therefore, we performed a confirmatory study in the hope of identifying putative susceptibility determinants closely linked to the *Msp* I RFLP in Japanese that also play a causative role. Contrary to our first expectation, we obtained the opposite result: m1/m1 homozygotes were significantly prevalent in lung cancer patients in Miyagi, Japan (Table 2). Therefore, we are still continuing to investigate the RFLP as well as searching for a new polymorphism of practical value.

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Regarding this discrepancy, more than one group has reported a lack of association between the polymorphisms and lung cancer (Table 2, references are given in the Table). Discrepancies among investigators from different regions are quite common in this type of research, implying that these neutral genes, in terms of survival of the species, will fluctuate among populations (Kimura, 1981; Ramel, 1992). Indeed there are very few reports that can be generalized for many races (reviewed in Caporaso et al., 1991). Therefore, it is possible that regional genetic variations exist even within Japanese populations of the Miyagi prefecture and the Saitama prefecture, since the Japanese are very reluctant to move – in contrast to the general belief that they are a homogeneous population. Only a bona fide risk determinant that also plays a causative role in cancer susceptibility can evade this problem. In the cases where no association has been found, it may also be explained by the result being obscured by a stronger susceptibility determining allele - since a relatively subtle susceptibility determinant may be masked by a stronger susceptibility determinant.

Ah receptor polymorphisms and lung cancer susceptibility

There is also a possibility that genes involved in the induction of CYP1A1 are relevant to lung cancer

susceptibility. The mechanism of CYP1A1 induction is well-documented (reviewed in Hankinson, 1993; Nebert et al., 1993; Swanson & Bradfield, 1993). Ah receptor (AhR) by binding to Ah, releases hsp90 complexed with AhR, thereby allowing AhR to form a ternary complex with the AhR nuclear translocator (ARNT). This ternary complex in turn binds to the xenobiotic responsive element (XRE) which is present several times in the regulatory region of the CYP1A1 gene, triggering induction of expression (Hines et al., 1988; Kubota et al., 1991). Furthermore, mouse strains are classified into two groups, one highly sensitive to Ah insult, developing cancer of the lung and the skin, the other not (Kouri et al., 1973; Watanabe et al., 1975; Nebert & Jones, 1989). This strain difference is now known to be governed by four polymorphic alleles of AhR determined by a difference in the mobility of the protein through SDS-polyacrylamide gel (Poland & Glover, 1990; Swanson & Bradfield, 1993). By comparing the structure and TCDD binding properties of the AhR of a sensitive strain C57B6 and an insensitive strain DBA/2J, Fujii-Kuriyama and his colleagues have shown that the polymorphism is the determinant of the elevated binding constant between AhR and its ligand TCDD, thereby elevating cancer susceptibility in the sensitive strain. AhR is a ligand-dependent receptor expressed in various tissues and developmental stages and belongs to the *PAS* gene superfamily (which includes *per*,

Table 2. CYP1A1 Msp I RFLP and lung cancer susceptibility

Region		m1/m1 (%)	m1/m2 (%)	m2/m2 (%)	Total	Reference
Japan	Control	166 (44.3)	169 (45.1)	40 (10.7)	375	Nakachi et al., 1991
(Saitama)	Lung cancer	61 (40.4)	58 (38.4)	32 (21.2)	151	
	Squamous cell					
	Carcinoma	19 (33.3)	23 (40.4)	15 (26.3)	57	
	Adenocarcinoma	30 (50.0)	22 (36.7)	8 (13.3)	60	
Japan	Control	66 (51.2)	47 (36.4)	16 (12.4)	129	Kihara et al.,
(Kanagawa)	Lung cancer*	16 (45.7)	13 (37.1)	6 (17.1)	35	personal communication
Japan	Control	11 (25.6)	24 (55.8)	8 (18.6)	43	Ikawa et al.,
(Miyagi)	Lung cancer	35 (49.3)	26 (36.6)	10 (14.1)	71	unpublished result
USA	Control	43 (76.8)	11 (19.6)	2 (3.6)	56	Shields et al., 1993
	Lung cancer	33 (68.8)	12 (25.0)	3 (6.3)	48	
Finland	Control	95 (78.5)	24 (19.8)	2 (1.7)	121	Hirvonen et al., 1992
	Lung cancer	65 (74.7)	22 (25.3)	0 (0.0)	87	
Norway	Control	167 (78.8)	43 (20.3)	2 (0.9)	212	Tefre et al., 1991
	Lung cancer	172 (77.8)	47 (21.3)	2 (0.9)	221	

^{*}Small cell carcinoma only

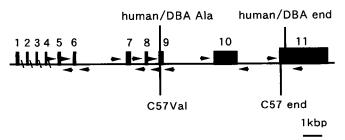


Fig. 2. Structure of the human *AHR* gene. The human *AHR* gene is shown schematically. Polymorphisms speculated to elevate TCDD binding affinity are shown below, and to reduce the affinity are shown over the gene. Solid boxes: exons; solid lines: introns; arrows: primers synthesized for PCR amplification.

AhR/ARNT, sim), whose other members are believed to function in the control of circadian rhythm and neural development (Swanson & Bradfield, 1993). This suggests that AhR should not solely exist for the binding of foreign ligands such as TCDD for induction of CYP1A1. Thus, a polymorphism impairing TCDD binding without impairing biological activity essential for AhR is possible, explaining the hyper-polymorphic allele in the mouse.

We have, therefore, sought to find a similar polymorphism within the human AHR gene, since it is possible that AhR polymorphism may also act as a bona fide cancer susceptibility determinant that plays a causative role in humans. We have started with the isolation of the human gene encoding AhR from a human cosmid library and determined the sequence surrounding the exons (Fig. 2). Although, we are still in the process of searching for polymorphisms using primers shown in Fig. 2 for polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification of the gene, so far we have identified two polymorphisms within intron 10. However, we have not yet been able to identify the polymorphisms residing in exons. In addition, we have not been able to identify the same polymorphisms found in the C57B6 and the DBA/2I strain of the mouse (Fig. 2).

Future directions

Assessing human susceptibility to cancer for prevention and early diagnosis may be a powerful tool in reducing cancer deaths and the financial burden of treatments. For this purpose, although it may take a long time as mentioned earlier, it is important to find a bona fide cancer susceptibility polymorphism which at the same time plays a causative role, enabling application of the polymorphism to mass screening in many races. Moreover, the number of factors influenc-

ing susceptibility may be large (multi-gene inheritance) and the number of candidate genes, polymorphisms and DNA samples to be analysed will grow enormously. Therefore, a carefully designed system is required which allows both the analyses of hundreds of DNA samples, and the efficient search for new polymorphisms to handle as many genes as possible (reviewed in Cotton, 1993). Finally, the susceptibility information thus obtained should only be used to give suggestion of high risk individuals, not to make obligations against their will and absolutely not for other purposes.

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