

Urinary arsenic profile affects the risk of urothelial carcinoma even at low arsenic exposure[☆]

Yeong-Shiau Pu^a, Shu-Mei Yang^b, Yung-Kai Huang^c, Chi-Jung Chung^b, Steven K. Huang^{c,d}, Allen Wen-Hsiang Chiu^{d,e}, Mo-Hsiung Yang^f, Chien-Jen Chen^g, Yu-Mei Hsueh^{h,*}

^a Department of Urology, National Taiwan University College of Medicine, Taipei, Taiwan

^b Graduate Institute of Public Health, Taipei Medical University, Taipei, Taiwan

^c Graduate Institute of Medical Sciences, Taipei Medical University, Taipei, Taiwan

^d Department of Urology, Chi-Mei Medical Center, Tainan, Taiwan

^e Department of Urology, Taipei City Hospital, Taipei, Taiwan

^f Department of Nuclear Science, National Tsing-Hua University, Hsinchu, Taiwan

^g Graduate Institute of Epidemiology, College of Public Health, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan

^h Department of Public Health, School of Medicine, Taipei Medical University, Taipei, No. 250 Wu-Hsing Street, Taipei 110, Taiwan

Received 13 July 2006; revised 22 September 2006; accepted 23 September 2006

Available online 10 November 2006

Abstract

Arsenic exposure is associated with an increased risk of urothelial carcinoma (UC). To explore the association between individual risk and urinary arsenic profile in subjects without evident exposure, 177 UC cases and 313 age-matched controls were recruited between September 2002 and May 2004 for a case–control study. Urinary arsenic species including the following three categories, inorganic arsenic ($\text{As}^{\text{III}} + \text{As}^{\text{V}}$), monomethylarsonic acid (MMA^{V}) and dimethylarsinic acid (DMA^{V}), were determined with high-performance liquid chromatography-linked hydride generator and atomic absorption spectrometry. Arsenic methylation profile was assessed by percentages of various arsenic species in the sum of the three categories measured. The primary methylation index (PMI) was defined as the ratio between MMA^{V} and inorganic arsenic. Secondary methylation index (SMI) was determined as the ratio between DMA^{V} and MMA^{V} . Smoking is associated with a significant risk of UC in a dose-dependent manner. After multivariate adjustment, UC cases had a significantly higher sum of all the urinary species measured, higher percent MMA^{V} , lower percent DMA^{V} , higher PMI and lower SMI values compared with controls. Smoking interacts with the urinary arsenic profile in modifying the UC risk. Differential carcinogenic effects of the urinary arsenic profile, however, were seen more prominently in non-smokers than in smokers, suggesting that smoking is not the only major environmental source of arsenic contamination since the UC risk differs in non-smokers. Subjects who have an unfavorable urinary arsenic profile have an increased UC risk even at low exposure levels.

© 2006 Published by Elsevier Inc.

Keywords: Bladder neoplasms; Contamination; Carcinogenesis; Synergy; Tobacco

Introduction

Urothelial carcinoma (UC) arises exclusively from the urothelium including the renal pelvis, ureter, bladder and urethra, with bladder cancer being the most common form. In

most developed countries, it is among the top 10 leading cancers. The most well known risk factor for UC is cigarette smoking (Brennan et al., 2000; Zeegers et al., 2000). Current cigarette smokers have approximately a two- to three-fold risk compared to non-smokers. The mechanism by which cigarette smoking causes bladder cancer has yet to be determined. It seems likely that the risk is related to a large number of carcinogenic chemicals in cigarette smoke.

We have previously shown that chronic arsenic intoxication due to contamination of artesian well water with inorganic arsenic compounds is responsible for elevated mortality rates

[☆] Grant support: NSC91-3112-B-038-0019, NSC92-3112-B-038-001, NSC93-3112-B-038-001, NSC94-2314-B-038-023 and NSC95-2314-B-038-007 from the National Science Council, Executive Yuan, ROC.

* Corresponding author. Fax: +886 2 27384831.

E-mail address: ymsueh@tmu.edu.tw (Y.-M. Hsueh).

from cancers of the bladder, renal pelvis and/or ureter, lung and other organs in Taiwan (Chen et al., 1985). More specifically, we have demonstrated that bladder cancer mortality rates for patients who consumed well water with arsenic levels of 600 µg/L or higher had a mortality rate of over 30 to 60 times greater than the unexposed population (Chen et al., 1988). Evidence from elsewhere in the world also suggests that ingested inorganic arsenic very likely causes internal cancers (Morales et al., 2000; Bates et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2006). It has also been shown that combined cancer mortality rates are as high as 1 out of 100 people from drinking water containing 50 µg/L of arsenic (Smith et al., 1992). Two reports from the National Research Council (USA) have also affirmed that cancer risks might be of the order of 1 in 100 at an arsenic level of 50 µg/L (National Research Council, 1999, 2001). This estimated cancer risk is more than 100 times greater than that for any other contaminant in drinking water at the maximal contaminant level (US EPA, 1998). Thus, within the U.S., the maximum contaminant level for arsenic in public water supplies will be lowered from 50 µg/L, a level that was established in 1942, to 10 µg/L in 2006 (Smith et al., 2002). The arsenic concentration allowance in public water supplies in Taiwan was 50 µg/L; in 2000, a new standard of 10 µg/L was then announced. According to the Taipei Water Department of Taipei City Government, the average arsenic concentration of tap water in Taipei is 0.7 µg/L ranging from non-detectable to 4.0 µg/L. Whether cancer risks are higher at 50 µg/L than at 10 µg/L is still debatable. Even without confounding factors, reduction of cancer risks with the new standard of 10 µg/L will not be seen for decades. However, should it be shown that arsenic metabolic capability affects cancer risks in subjects exposed 50 µg/L of arsenic, it might still be carcinogenic for some genetically predisposed subjects.

Arsenic is usually found in drinking water in the form of arsenate (As^{V}) or arsenite (As^{III}) (Andreae, 1977). Inorganic arsenic is bio-transformed in humans to monomethylarsonic acid (MMA^{V}) and dimethylarsinic acid (DMA^{V}). Previously, methylation of inorganic arsenic has always been considered a detoxification mechanism because pentavalent MMA (MMA^{V}) and pentavalent DMA (DMA^{V}) have relatively low toxicity (Yamauchi and Fowler, 1994) and are rapidly excreted in the urine (Vahter, 2002). However, recent studies have confirmed the existence of trivalent intermediates and products of monomethylarsonous acid (MMA^{III}) and dimethylarsinous acid (DMA^{III}) that are more toxic than inorganic arsenite (Thomas et al., 2001; Mass et al., 2001; Styblo et al., 2002). For a more accurate assessment of arsenic metabolism, it is therefore necessary to determine specific arsenic species in urine.

The capability of metabolizing inorganic arsenic differs among individuals. We have previously shown that the capability of arsenic methylation is related to the risks of skin cancer (Hsueh et al., 1997; Chen et al., 2003a) and bladder cancer in high arsenic-exposed subjects (Chen et al., 2003b). Whether or not urinary arsenic profile affects UC risks among subjects who had no evident arsenic exposure history is an important issue. We hypothesized that, if an arsenic level of 50 µg/L in the water supply is still “unsafe”, the UC risk may

significantly differ between people with favorable and unfavorable arsenic methylation profile. We therefore conducted a hospital-based case–control study to investigate the association of urinary arsenic profile with the risk of UC. The possible interactions between urinary arsenic profile and cigarette smoking were also explored.

Material and methods

Study subjects and questionnaire interview. One hundred and seventy-seven patients with pathologically proven UC (age range 24 to 93 years) were recruited from the Department of Urology, National Taiwan University Hospital, between September 2002 and May 2004. Pathological verification of UC was done by routine urological practice including endoscopic biopsy or surgical resection of urinary tract tumors followed by histopathological examination by board-certified pathologists. Cytological evidence alone was not accepted as an adequate diagnosis of UC. A total of 313 age-matched control subjects with no evidence of UC or any other malignancy were accrued from a hospital-based pool, including those receiving senior citizen health examinations at Taipei Medical University Hospital and those receiving adult health examinations at Taipei Municipal Wan Fang Hospital. All three hospitals are located in Taipei approximately 200 to 300 km away from the arsenic-contaminated areas in Taiwan. No case subjects or controls came from arsenic-contaminated areas in southwestern (Chen et al., 2003b) or northeastern (Chiou et al., 2001) Taiwan.

Well-trained personnel carried out standardized personal interviews based on a structured questionnaire. Information collected included demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, general potential risk factors for malignancies such as lifestyle, alcohol consumption, cigarette smoking in quantified details, exposure to potential occupational and environmental carcinogens such as hair dyes and pesticides, chronic medication history, consumption of conventional and alternative medicines and personal and family history of urological diseases. Frequent alcohol drinkers referred to those who consumed alcohol three or more days per week, continuing for at least 6 months. Those who consumed less than this level were classified as occasional drinkers. Pesticide users were farmers who used pesticides for agricultural purposes. The Research Ethics Committee of National Taiwan University Hospital, Taipei, Taiwan, approved the study. All patients provided informed consent forms before sample and data collection. The study was consistent with the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki. Urine samples were stored at -20°C until further use for urinary arsenic speciation. Bladder cancer was staged into three groups: superficial (Ta, T1 and Tis), locally advanced (T2–4N0M0) and metastatic (N+ or M+). Tumor grading was based on the WHO (1999) classification system (WHO, 1999).

Determination of urinary arsenic species. It has been shown that urinary arsenic species is stable for at least 6 months when preserved at -20°C (Chen et al., 2002); thus, the urine assay was performed within 6 months post-collection. Frozen urine samples were thawed at room temperature, dispersed by ultrasonic wave, filtered through a Sep-Pak C_{18} column (Mallinckrodt Baker Inc., NJ) and levels for As^{III} , As^{V} , MMA^{V} and DMA^{V} were determined. A urine aliquot of 200 µL was used for the determination of arsenic species by high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Waters 501, Waters Associates, MA) with columns obtained from Phenomenex (Nucleosil, Torrance, CA). The contents of inorganic arsenic and their metabolites were quantified by hydride generator-atomic absorption spectrometry (HG-AAS) (Hsueh et al., 1998). The concentration of four arsenic species in standard solution, sample and sample spiked standard solution was determined by using on-line HPLC-HG-AAS respectively. Recovery rates of the four arsenic species were calculated by [(sample spiked standard solution concentration)–sample concentration]/standard solution concentration $\times 100$ respectively. Recovery rates for As^{III} , DMA^{V} , MMA^{V} and As^{V} ranged between 93.8% and 102.2% with detection limits of 0.02, 0.06, 0.07 and 0.10 µg/L, respectively. Urinary concentration of the sum of inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA was normalized against urinary creatinine levels (µg/g creatinine). The standard reference material, SRM 2670, contains 480 ± 100 µg/L inorganic arsenic and was obtained from the National

Table 1
Sociodemographic characteristics of 177 urothelial carcinoma cases and 313 age-matched non-cancer controls

| Variables | Groups | Controls <i>n</i> (%) | UC cases <i>n</i> (%) | Age and gender adjusted OR (95% CI) |
|--------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|---|
| Gender | Male | 201 (64.2) | 124 (70.1) | 1.0 |
| | Female | 112 (35.8) | 53 (29.9) | 0.8 (0.5–1.1) ^a |
| | Total | 313 (100) | 177 (100) | |
| Age (years) | | 64.4±0.7 | 63.9±0.9 | 0.9 (0.9–1.0) ^b |
| Blood type | A | 80 (28.0) | 47 (29.0) | 1.0 |
| | B | 57 (19.9) | 37 (22.8) | 1.1 (0.6–1.9) |
| | O | 133 (46.5) | 64 (39.5) | 0.8 (0.5–1.3) |
| | AB | 16 (6.6) | 14 (8.7) | 1.6 (0.7–3.7) |
| | Not available | 27 | 15 | |
| Marital status | Single | 16 (6.3) | 13 (7.3) | 1.0 |
| | Married | 237 (75.6) | 139 (78.5) | 0.8 (0.4–1.7) |
| | Divorced | 14 (4.4) | 6 (3.4) | 0.6 (0.2–2.0) |
| | Widowed | 46 (13.7) | 19 (10.7) | 0.6 (0.2–1.7) |
| | | | | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.35$ |
| Educational level | Elementary school or below | 83 (26.7) | 73 (41.3) | 1.0 |
| | High school | 105 (33.8) | 65 (36.7) | 0.6 (0.4–0.9) |
| | College or above | 123 (39.5) | 39 (22.0) | 0.3 (0.2–0.4) |
| | | | $P_{\text{trend}}<0.0001$ | |
| Paternal ethnicity | Fukien Taiwanese | 177 (56.5) | 147 (73.1) | 1.0 |
| | Hakka Taiwanese | 28 (9.0) | 19 (9.5) | 8 (0.4–1.5) |
| | Mainland Chinese | 108 (34.5) | 35 (17.4) | 0.4 (0.2–0.6) |
| | | | $P_{\text{trend}}<0.0001$ | |
| Maternal ethnicity | Fukien Taiwanese | 180 (57.5) | 31 (17.6) | 1.0 |
| | Hakka Taiwanese | 28 (9.0) | 15 (8.5) | 0.8 (0.4–1.5) |
| | Mainland Chinese | 103 (32.9) | 35 (17.5) | 0.4 (0.3–0.7) |
| | | | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.0001$ | |
| Alcohol drinking | Never | 164 (52.4) | 107 (60.5) | 1.0 |
| | Frequent | 52 (16.6) | 41 (23.1) | 1.0 (0.6–1.7) |
| | Occasional | 97 (31.0) | 29 (16.4) | 0.4 (0.2–0.7) |
| | | | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.0006$ | |
| Hair dye usage | No | 188 (60.7) | 122 (68.9) | 1.0 |
| | Yes | 122 (39.3) | 55 (31.1) | 0.7 (0.5–1.1) |
| Pesticide usage | No | 299 (95.8) | 150 (85.2) | 1.0 |
| | Yes | 13 (4.2) | 26 (14.8) | 4.0 (2.0–8.0) |

^a Age-adjusted odds ratio by logistic regression.

^b Gender-adjusted odds ratio by logistic regression.

Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST, Gaithersburg, MD). SRM 2670 was used as a quality standard and analyzed along with urine samples. The mean value of SRM 2670 determined by our system was 507±17 (SD) µg/L (*n*=4). Arsenic methylation index was assessed by percentages of various urinary arsenic species in the sum of inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA. The primary methylation index (PMI) was defined as the ratio between MMA^V and inorganic arsenic (As^{III}+As^V) levels and the secondary methylation index (SMI) was defined as the ratio between DMA^V and MMA^V (Tseng et al., 2005).

Statistical analysis. Continuous variables are expressed as mean±standard error. Student's *t*-test was used to compare differences in the urinary arsenic profile between case subjects and controls. ANOVA and Student–Newman–Keuls multiple comparison correction was applied to compare urinary arsenic profiles between varied exposure strata. Multiple logistic regression models were used to estimate the multivariate adjusted odds ratio (OR) and the 95% confidence interval (CI). Cutoff points for continuous variables were the respective tertiles of the controls. Significance tests for linear trend among ORs across exposure strata were calculated by categorizing exposure variables and treating scored variables as continuous. For the joint effect analysis, the cutoff points for the percentages of arsenic species, PMI and SMI were the respective medians of the controls. The joint effects of urinary arsenic species and cigarette

smoking on the UC risk were evaluated on both multiplicative and additive scales. The binary interaction terms were calculated by multiplying the indicators for two explored risk factors and were added to the main effect models. Their significance was then tested by the likelihood ratio statistic based on a multiplicative model. The synergy index proposed by Rothman was computed to assess the empirical deviation from the additive interaction relationship (Rothman, 1986). The synergy index is equal to the calculation of $[\text{OR}(\text{AB})-1]/[(\text{OR}(\text{Ab})-1)+(\text{OR}(\text{aB})-1)]$, where A and B denote the presence of the two risk factors and a and b are designated as the absence of the risk factors, respectively. An observed synergy index value that departs substantially from the expected additive null, *i.e.*, synergy index not equal to 1, suggests an additive interaction effect. The OR values and their variance covariance matrix were then used to calculate values for synergy index and 95% CIs (Hosmer and Lemeshow, 1992). SAS version 8.2 was used for all statistical analyses.

Results

The sociodemographic characteristics of cases and controls are shown in Table 1. Subjects who had higher educational levels had a lower risk than those with lower educational levels. Mainland Chinese had a significantly lower UC risk than the Fukien Taiwanese. Age, ABO blood type, marital status or use of hair dye did not affect the UC risk. Occasional alcohol drinkers had a significantly lower UC risk than non-drinkers and frequent drinkers. Pesticide users had a significantly higher UC risk than non-users.

Comparing cases and controls in terms of smoking duration, daily smoking amount and cumulative smoking in pack-years,

Table 2
Comparison of detailed smoking behavior between cases and controls^a

| Variables | Controls <i>n</i> (%) | UC cases <i>n</i> (%) | Age and gender adjusted OR (95% CI) | Multivariate adjusted OR ^b (95% CI) |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|--|
| Non-smoker | 196 (62.6) | 85 (48.0) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| Former smoker | 66 (21.1) | 65 (36.7) | 2.6 (1.5–4.3) | 2.6 (1.5–4.7) |
| Current smoker | 51 (16.3) | 27 (15.3) | 1.3 (0.7–2.3) | 1.3 (0.6–2.5) |
| <i>Duration of cigarette smoking (years)</i> | | | | |
| 0 | 196 (65.1) | 86 (51.5) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 0.1–33 | 50 (16.6) | 34 (20.4) | 1.4 (0.8–2.6) | 1.4 (0.7–2.7) |
| >33 | 55 (18.3) | 47 (28.1) | 2.2 (1.3–3.9) | 2.4 (1.2–4.6) |
| | | | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.005$ | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.01$ |
| <i>Amount of cigarette smoking (pack/day)</i> | | | | |
| 0 | 196 (65.1) | 86 (51.5) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 0.1–0.75 | 49 (16.3) | 23 (13.8) | 1.0 (0.6–2.0) | 1.5 (0.8–3.0) |
| >0.75 | 56 (18.6) | 58 (34.7) | 2.5 (1.5–4.3) | 2.2 (1.2–4.2) |
| | | | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.0007$ | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.01$ |
| <i>Cumulative cigarette smoking (pack-years)^c</i> | | | | |
| 0 | 196 (65.1) | 85 (50.9) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 0.1–22 | 49 (16.3) | 28 (16.8) | 1.4 (0.7–2.5) | 1.1 (0.6–2.3) |
| >22 | 56 (18.6) | 54 (34.7) | 2.4 (1.4–4.0) | 2.5 (1.3–4.7) |
| | | | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.002$ | $P_{\text{trend}}=0.004$ |

^a Detailed quantified smoking history was unavailable in twelve (3.8%) controls and ten (5.6%) case subjects.

^b Multivariate adjusted ORs: adjusted for age, gender, education, paternal and maternal ethnicity, alcohol drinking and pesticide usage.

^c Cumulative smoking=(amount in pack/day)×(duration in years).

cigarette smokers had a significantly higher UC risk than non-smokers in a dose-dependent manner (Table 2). Heavy smokers who smoked for more than 33 years, 0.75 packs per day and 22 pack-years had a 2.4-, 2.2- and 2.5-fold risk, respectively, compared to non-smokers by multivariate adjusted logistic regression. Modest dose smokers, however, did not have a significantly increased risk compared to non-smokers.

Table 3 compares the urinary arsenic profile between varied exposure strata. Among non-cancer controls, male subjects had a lower sum of inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA level, higher MMA percentage and lower DMA percentage than females. Current smokers had a higher MMA percentage and lower DMA percentage than non-smokers. No significant differences were found in urinary arsenic profiles between subjects consuming varied amount of alcohol. Pesticide users had an insignificantly higher MMA percentage than non-users.

UC cases had a significantly higher sum of inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA levels, higher MMA percentages, lower DMA percentages and higher PMI levels than controls (Table 3). Inorganic arsenic percentage was marginally higher in cases than in controls ($P=0.052$). To examine if various cancer stages affect urinary arsenic profile, we performed an analysis showed that urinary arsenic profile did not differ between patients of various tumor stages or grades in case subjects (Table 3). With trend analysis on exposure strata in tertiles, all urinary arsenic parameters, with the exception of inorganic arsenic percentage, were found to be significantly associated with the UC risk after the multivariate analysis (Table 4).

Since both smoking and urinary arsenic indices affect the UC risk, further analyses were carried out to assess joint effects of the two risk factors (Table 5). Trend analysis revealed progressively increased risks through exposure to no risk factor, either one of the factors, or both of the two risk factors.

Table 3
Comparison of urinary arsenic species between varied exposure strata

| Variables | <i>n</i> | Sum of inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA ($\mu\text{g/g}$ creatinine) | Inorganic arsenic percentage | MMA percentage | DMA percentage | Primary methylation index | Secondary methylation index |
|---|----------|---|------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| <i>Non-cancer controls</i> | | | | | | | |
| <i>Gender</i> | | | | | | | |
| Male | 189 | 23.3 \pm 1.2 | 5.8 \pm 0.4 | 9.4 \pm 0.6 | 84.8 \pm 0.8 | 2.9 \pm 0.8 | 12.8 \pm 1.7 |
| Female | 112 | 27.9 \pm 1.8 | 5.1 \pm 0.7 | 5.7 \pm 0.5 | 89.2 \pm 0.8 | 1.7 \pm 0.2 | 16.6 \pm 3.1 |
| <i>P</i> * | | 0.03 | 0.39 | <0.0001 | <0.0001 | 0.14 | 0.29 |
| <i>Cigarette smoking</i> | | | | | | | |
| Non-smoker | 196 | 25.9 \pm 1.4 | 5.3 \pm 0.5 | 6.9 \pm 0.5 ^{‡,§} | 87.8 \pm 0.7 [*] | 1.8 \pm 0.2 | 16.2 \pm 2.2 |
| Former smoker | 59 | 25.1 \pm 2.2 | 4.8 \pm 0.6 | 10.2 \pm 1.1 [§] | 85.0 \pm 1.4 | 5.1 \pm 2.4 | 12.4 \pm 2.9 |
| Current smoker | 46 | 21.3 \pm 1.8 | 7.3 \pm 1.2 | 9.9 \pm 1.4 [‡] | 82.7 \pm 1.6 [‡] | 1.8 \pm 0.3 | 8.2 \pm 1.2 |
| <i>P</i> [†] | | 0.27 | 0.11 | 0.002 | 0.003 | 0.03 | 0.18 |
| <i>Alcohol drinking</i> | | | | | | | |
| Very little | 161 | 25.0 \pm 1.4 | 5.3 \pm 0.5 | 7.2 \pm 0.6 | 87.4 \pm 0.7 | 1.8 \pm 0.2 | 15.7 \pm 2.6 |
| Occasional | 89 | 24.9 \pm 2.4 | 6.4 \pm 0.9 | 9.7 \pm 1.1 | 83.9 \pm 1.4 | 2.2 \pm 0.3 | 10.5 \pm 1.9 |
| Frequent | 115 | 25.2 \pm 1.9 | 5.4 \pm 0.7 | 8.6 \pm 0.8 | 86.1 \pm 1.1 | 3.7 \pm 1.6 | 15.6 \pm 2.2 |
| <i>P</i> [†] | | 0.99 | 0.61 | 0.09 | 0.08 | 0.21 | 0.50 |
| <i>Pesticide usage</i> | | | | | | | |
| No | 288 | 24.9 \pm 1.1 | 5.5 \pm 0.4 | 7.9 \pm 0.4 | 86.6 \pm 0.6 | 2.4 \pm 0.5 | 14.5 \pm 1.7 |
| Yes | 12 | 28.1 \pm 1.9 | 5.2 \pm 0.8 | 11.8 \pm 2.5 | 83.0 \pm 2.7 | 2.4 \pm 0.9 | 9.5 \pm 2.8 |
| <i>P</i> * | | 0.15 | 0.76 | 0.07 | 0.22 | 0.99 | 0.14 |
| <i>UC cases[¶]</i> | | | | | | | |
| <i>Tumor stage</i> | | | | | | | |
| Superficial | 100 | 38.7 \pm 3.6 | 6.7 \pm 0.7 | 13.4 \pm 1.4 | 79.9 \pm 1.7 | 3.2 \pm 0.5 | 11.2 \pm 4.2 |
| Locally advanced | 38 | 42.2 \pm 9.2 | 7.0 \pm 1.2 | 13.4 \pm 1.7 | 79.6 \pm 1.8 | 7.4 \pm 2.9 | 9.8 \pm 2.4 |
| Metastatic | 20 | 36.5 \pm 6.5 | 7.0 \pm 1.3 | 13.4 \pm 4.1 | 79.7 \pm 4.0 | 9.0 \pm 6.7 | 4.9 \pm 1.2 |
| <i>P</i> [†] | | 0.91 | 0.67 | 0.99 | 0.94 | 0.19 | 0.77 |
| <i>Tumor grade</i> | | | | | | | |
| I | 29 | 30.6 \pm 3.1 | 6.0 \pm 1.1 | 13.2 \pm 3.2 | 80.7 \pm 3.6 | 2.6 \pm 0.7 | 10.4 \pm 3.3 |
| II | 65 | 38.9 \pm 5.0 | 7.1 \pm 0.9 | 12.8 \pm 1.1 | 80.1 \pm 1.5 | 2.7 \pm 0.5 | 8.0 \pm 2.5 |
| III | 72 | 41.4 \pm 5.5 | 6.7 \pm 0.8 | 13.8 \pm 1.9 | 79.5 \pm 2.0 | 7.6 \pm 2.5 | 13.7 \pm 5.8 |
| <i>P</i> [†] | | 0.63 | 0.75 | 0.96 | 0.99 | 0.17 | 0.78 |
| <i>UC cases and non-cancer controls</i> | | | | | | | |
| Controls | 313 | 25.0 \pm 1.0 | 5.5 \pm 0.4 | 7.9 \pm 0.4 | 86.6 \pm 0.6 | 2.4 \pm 0.5 | 14.3 \pm 1.5 |
| Cases | 177 | 38.7 \pm 3.1 | 6.7 \pm 0.5 | 13.5 \pm 1.0 | 79.9 \pm 1.1 | 4.8 \pm 1.1 | 10.5 \pm 2.6 |
| <i>P</i> * | | <0.0001 | 0.052 | <0.0001 | <0.0001 | 0.04 | 0.22 |

*Student's *t*-test.

[†]ANOVA.

^{‡,§} $P<0.05$ by Student–Newman–Keuls multiple comparisons.

[¶]Information of tumor staging and grading was not available in 16 and 9 UC patients, respectively.

Table 4
Urinary arsenic profiles of 177 UC patients and 313 non-cancer controls

| Variables | Controls <i>n</i> (%) | UC cases <i>n</i> (%) | Age and gender adjusted OR (95% CI) | Multivariate adjusted OR ^a (95% CI) |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Sum of inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA (μg/g creatinine)</i> | | | | |
| ≤15.4 | 104 (33.2) | 24 (13.6) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 15.5–26.4 | 104 (33.2) | 44 (24.8) | 1.9 (1.1–3.4) | 1.6 (0.8–3.0) |
| >26.4 | 105 (33.6) | 109 (61.6) | 5.3 (3.1–9.0) | 3.2 (1.8–5.9) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 |
| <i>Inorganic arsenic percentage</i> | | | | |
| ≤2.4 | 93 (29.7) | 40 (22.6) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 2.5–5.2 | 113 (36.1) | 56 (31.6) | 1.2 (0.7–1.9) | 1.6 (0.9–2.7) |
| >5.2 | 107 (34.2) | 81 (45.8) | 1.7 (1.1–2.7) | 1.2 (0.7–2.0) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.024 | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.70 |
| <i>MMA percentage</i> | | | | |
| ≤3.0 | 89 (28.4) | 37 (20.9) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 3.1–9.2 | 111 (35.5) | 36 (20.3) | 0.8 (0.4–1.3) | 0.9 (0.5–1.9) |
| >9.2 | 113 (36.1) | 104 (58.8) | 2.2 (1.3–3.5) | 2.8 (1.6–4.8) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.0002 | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 |
| <i>DMA percentage</i> | | | | |
| ≤85.0 | 114 (36.4) | 105 (59.3) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 85.1–92.5 | 102 (32.6) | 44 (24.9) | 0.5 (0.3–0.7) | 0.6 (0.4–0.9) |
| >92.5 | 97 (31.0) | 28 (15.8) | 0.3 (0.2–0.5) | 0.4 (0.2–0.7) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.0004 |
| <i>Primary methylation index</i> | | | | |
| ≤0.3 | 91 (29.1) | 42 (23.7) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 0.4–2.0 | 113 (36.1) | 53 (29.9) | 1.0 (0.6–1.6) | 1.3 (0.7–2.2) |
| >2.0 | 109 (34.8) | 82 (46.4) | 1.6 (1.0–2.6) | 3.1 (1.7–5.6) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.029 | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 |
| <i>Secondary methylation index</i> | | | | |
| ≤4.8 | 98 (31.3) | 84 (47.5) | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| 4.9–12.7 | 111 (35.5) | 70 (39.5) | 0.7 (0.5–1.1) | 0.9 (0.5–1.4) |
| >12.7 | 104 (33.2) | 23 (13.0) | 0.3 (0.2–0.4) | 0.3 (0.2–0.6) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.001 |

^a Multivariate adjusted OR: adjusted for age, gender, education, father and mother ethnicity, alcohol drinking, and pesticide usage.

Although cigarette smoking tended to interact additively with urinary arsenic species in modifying the UC risk, the interactions were all statistically insignificant as shown by the absence of a substantial deviation from 1 in the synergy index. Likelihood ratio tests, however, revealed that smoking effects interact synergistically with PMI ($P=0.003$).

Since both PMI and SMI levels were associated with an altered UC risk, they were jointly analyzed. Subjects with a PMI ≤1.1 and an SMI >8.2 served as the referent group. A significant trend of progressively increased risks was observed in subjects who had none, either one, or both of the two unfavorable indices (Table 6). More specifically, subjects with both high PMI and low SMI were associated with a significantly increased risk compared to the referent group by logistic regression analysis. Interestingly, the association was statistically significant in both non-smokers and smokers. The UC risk in non-smokers who had a high PMI and a low SMI was 6.6-fold higher (95% CI 2.5–17.4) than that of the referent group.

Discussion

Our data are consistent with other published reports that smoking is associated with an increased risk of UC in a dose-dependent manner (Zeegers et al., 2004). Of particular note, our data showed that those who were medium-dose smokers had an insignificantly elevated risk compared to non-smokers. Only those who were heavy smokers had a significantly increased risk compared to non-smokers. It has been reported that exposure to certain carcinogens in cigarette smoke may contribute to DNA damage, including DNA adducts from arylamines (Vineis et al., 1996). The mechanism of arsenic intoxication also involves the formation of DNA adducts (Tezuka et al., 1993) and DNA damage (Schwerdtle et al., 2003b). The additive and even synergistic interaction between the two risk factors may be a consequence of shared mechanisms of intoxication. Indeed, the following factors have been reported and may explain the synergistic carcinogenic effects observed between benzo(a)pyrene, major component of cigarette smoking and arseniasis: (1) both benzo(a)pyrene and arsenic co-treatment increase benzo(a)pyrene DNA adducts (Evans et al., 2004); (2) arsenite and MMA^{III} increase benzo(a)pyrene-7,8-diol,9,10-epoxide (BPDE)-DNA adduct formation and diminish repair (Schwerdtle et al., 2003a); (3) arsenite inhibits DNA adduct excision induced by different DNA-damaging agents (Chien et al., 2004); and (4) arsenic inhibits the repair of DNA damage induced by benzo(a)pyrene (Tran et al., 2002).

A recent study showed that mortality from bladder cancer declined gradually after improving the supply system of drinking water in southwest Taiwan to eliminate arsenic exposure from artesian well water (Yang et al., 2005). This finding substantiates the association between arsenic exposure and bladder cancer risk. A former study evaluating the association between inorganic arsenic and UC risk focused on the estimated total arsenic ingested from drinking water (Chiou et al., 2001). It would be more relevant if the proportion of urinary arsenic species was used as an indicator of arsenic metabolism. In the study, we demonstrated that urinary arsenic profile indices are significantly associated with the risk of UC. A higher PMI and lower SMI indicate accumulation of MMA by an increased upstream input and reduced downstream output of the arsenic methylation pathway. Recently, MMA^{III} and DMA^{III} have been identified in human urine (Le et al., 2000; Mandal et al., 2001). Many studies have demonstrated that these trivalent methylated arsenic species are more toxic than the inorganic compounds (Petrick et al., 2000; Mass et al., 2001). In addition, MMA^{III} is a potent and irreversible inhibitor of thioredoxin reductase (Lin et al., 2001) that regulates cellular response to oxidative stress in rat hepatocytes. However, the trivalent methylated arsenic metabolites are not stable. Whether they can be detected or not depends on the conditions and temperature of sample storage and concentrations in the urine. The reason why we did not observe any trivalent methylated metabolites in the study is that the analytical method used lacks the requisite specificity. In general, arsenic methylation is

Table 5
Interaction between urinary arsenic indices and cigarette smoking^a

| Variables | | <i>n</i> of controls/UC cases | Age and gender adjusted OR (95% CI) | Synergy index (95% CI) | Likelihood ratio test |
|-------------------|---|-------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Cigarette smoking | Sum of inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA (μg/g creatinine) | | | | |
| No | ≤20.3 | 95/17 | 1.0 | 1.35 (0.70–2.66) | χ^2 0.021; <i>P</i> =0.88 |
| No | >20.3 | 101/68 | 4.4 (2.3–8.5) | Estimated OR 0.83 | |
| Yes | ≤20.3 | 56/21 | 2.9 (1.3–6.5) | | |
| Yes | >20.3 | 49/61 | 8.2 (3.8–17.8) | | |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | | |
| Cigarette smoking | Inorganic arsenic percentage | | | | |
| No | ≤3.7 | 99/39 | 1.0 | 1.21 (0.36–4.05) | χ^2 0.038; <i>P</i> =0.84 |
| No | >3.7 | 97/46 | 1.1 (0.7–1.9) | Estimated OR 1.01 | |
| Yes | ≤3.7 | 44/27 | 2.0 (1.0–4.3) | | |
| Yes | >3.7 | 61/55 | 2.4 (1.3–4.7) | | |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.007 | | |
| Cigarette smoking | MMA percentage | | | | |
| No | ≤6.1 | 105/25 | 1.0 | 0.86 (0.42–1.77) | χ^2 3.34; <i>P</i> =0.07 |
| No | >6.1 | 34/20 | 3.3 (1.4–7.6) | Estimated OR 0.96 | |
| Yes | ≤6.1 | 34/20 | 3.3 (1.4–7.6) | | |
| Yes | >6.1 | 71/62 | 4.7 (2.3–9.5) | | |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | | |
| Cigarette smoking | DMA percentage | | | | |
| No | >89.1 | 101/24 | 1.00 | 1.09 (0.53–2.24) | χ^2 2.08; <i>P</i> =0.15 |
| No | ≤89.1 | 95/61 | 2.9 (1.7–5.2) | Estimated OR 1.03 | |
| Yes | >89.1 | 37/16 | 2.9 (1.2–6.9) | | |
| Yes | ≤89.1 | 68/66 | 5.1 (2.5–10.5) | | |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | | |
| Cigarette smoking | Primary methylation index | | | | |
| No | ≤1.1 | 103/29 | 1.0 | 0.93 (0.43–2.03) | χ^2 11.78; <i>P</i> =0.003 |
| No | >1.1 | 93/56 | 2.2 (1.3–3.8) | Estimated OR 0.88 | |
| Yes | ≤1.1 | 39/27 | 2.8 (1.3–6.0) | | |
| Yes | >1.1 | 66/55 | 3.8 (1.9–7.5) | | |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.0002 | | |
| Cigarette smoking | Secondary methylation index | | | | |
| No | >8.2 | 106/30 | 1.0 | 1.31 (0.60–2.85) | χ^2 2.14; <i>P</i> =0.16 |
| No | ≤8.2 | 90/55 | 2.6 (1.5–4.5) | Estimated OR 0.97 | |
| Yes | >8.2 | 43/18 | 2.1 (0.9–4.9) | | |
| Yes | ≤8.2 | 62/64 | 4.5 (2.3–8.9) | | |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | | |

^a Yes includes current and former smokers.

considered a detoxification process where MMA^V and DMA^V are generally considered non-toxic. In fact, inhibition of the secondary methylation process, resulting in higher MMA^V and lower DMA^V percentages in the urine, has been reported to be associated with an increased risk of skin cancers in Mexico (Hopenhayn-Rich et al., 1996). In summary, DMA is the end methylation and detoxification product. UC cases have lower DMA percentages and lower SMI, suggesting weaker detoxification capabilities that lead to a higher cancer risk.

Seaweed contains appreciable amounts of arsenosugars. Consuming arsenosugars present in seaweed (Ma and Le, 1998) or synthetic forms of arsenosugars (Francesconi et al., 2002) may increase urinary DMA concentration. Our previous study,

however, has shown that the frequencies of fish, shellfish and seaweed intake do not significantly correlate with urinary arsenic species in Taipei residents (Hsueh et al., 2002). In addition, a study based on people living in southwestern Taiwan revealed that there were no increases in urinary inorganic arsenic, MMA^V or DMA^V levels in subjects who ate seafood (Lin, 1986). This evidence suggests that seafood or seaweed intake does not influence urinary arsenic profiles in our population.

All our cases and controls were intentionally recruited from geographical regions away from the two arsenic-contaminated areas in Taiwan. Thus, the exposure levels should be fairly low in both cases and controls. The sum of

Table 6
Interaction of primary and secondary methylation indices stratified by cigarette smoking status

| Primary methylation index | Secondary methylation index | n of controls/UC cases | Age and gender adjusted OR (95% CI) | Multivariate adjusted OR ^a (95% CI) |
|--|-----------------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| <i>All subjects (case n = 177, control n = 313)</i> | | | | |
| ≤1.1 | >8.2 | 70/21 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| >1.1 | >8.2 | 88/31 | 1.2 (0.6–2.3) | 2.0 (1.0–4.3) |
| ≤1.1 | ≤8.2 | 77/41 | 1.9 (1.0–3.3) | 1.5 (0.7–3.0) |
| >1.1 | ≤8.2 | 78/84 | 3.6 (2.0–6.5) | 5.0 (2.5–9.9) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 |
| <i>Non-smokers (case n = 85, control n = 196)</i> | | | | |
| ≤1.1 | >8.2 | 53/11 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| >1.1 | >8.2 | 53/19 | 1.8 (0.8–4.2) | 2.5 (0.9–7.2) |
| ≤1.1 | ≤8.2 | 50/18 | 1.7 (0.7–4.4) | 1.4 (0.5–3.7) |
| >1.1 | ≤8.2 | 40/37 | 4.7 (2.1–10.6) | 6.6 (2.5–17.4) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} <0.0001 | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.0004 |
| <i>Current and former smokers (case n = 92, control n = 117)</i> | | | | |
| ≤1.1 | >8.2 | 17/10 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| >1.1 | >8.2 | 35/12 | 0.5 (0.2–1.5) | 1.1 (0.4–3.7) |
| ≤1.1 | ≤8.2 | 27/23 | 1.3 (0.5–3.4) | 1.0 (0.3–2.9) |
| >1.1 | ≤8.2 | 38/47 | 2.1 (0.9–5.1) | 3.1 (1.1–8.6) |
| | | | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.004 | <i>P</i> _{trend} =0.01 |

^a Multivariate adjusted OR: adjusted for age, gender, education, paternal and maternal ethnicity, alcohol drinking, and pesticide usage.

inorganic arsenic, MMA and DMA levels of UC cases and non-cancer controls in this study were 26.6 ± 1.4 and 22.1 ± 1.8 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (data not shown), respectively. These values were significantly lower than those in our previous study, where the levels for skin cancer patients and healthy controls from the arsenic-contaminated area in Taiwan were 104.1 ± 15.2 and 89.5 ± 7.2 $\mu\text{g/L}$, respectively (Hsueh et al., 1997). Taken together, these values indicate that our cases and controls were subjects of low exposure. Nonetheless, we still observed an elevated UC risk in subjects with unfavorable urinary arsenic profile. More strikingly, unfavorable PMI and SMI levels confer an increased risk in non-smokers, suggesting that undetectable or negligible environmental arsenic still plays an important role.

Although the allowed arsenic levels in drinking water were not greater than 50 $\mu\text{g/L}$ prior to year 2000, there may be minor differences in arsenic levels between various regions in Taiwan. According to the Taipei Water Department of the Taipei City Government, the average arsenic concentration in Taipei tap water is 0.7 $\mu\text{g/L}$ and ranges from non-detectable to 4.0 $\mu\text{g/L}$. We do not know whether differential exposure within a low allowable range affects UC risk. However, we have demonstrated that differential urinary arsenic profile in subjects with no arsenic exposure history who had consumed low allowable levels of arsenic in water significantly affected UC risk. This finding suggests that low arsenic levels in drinking water may still be unsafe for susceptible subjects.

Smoking was found to interact with urinary arsenic profile in affecting the UC risk. The synergy indices of the two factors ranged from 0.86 to 1.35, although they were all statistically insignificant. The likelihood ratio test, however, revealed sig-

nificant synergistic interactions between smoking and inorganic arsenic and PMI. This finding is similar to a recent study that demonstrated a significant interaction between smoking and SMI on the risk of bladder cancer (Chen et al., 2005). These data indicate that subjects who have unfavorable urinary arsenic profile are at a greater risk if they smoke.

Our previous study has shown that as concentrations of urinary selenium and serum alpha-tocopherol increased, percent inorganic arsenic significantly decreased and percent DMA increased (Hsueh et al., 2003). Bangladesh study found that the plasma folate was positively and negatively associated with the DMA and MMA percentage, respectively (Gamble et al., 2005). Several antioxidants, including *N*-acetylcysteine, zinc, methionine and cysteine, when used in conjunction with standard chelating agents, can improve the mobilization and excretion of arsenic compounds (Patrick, 2003). Heavy medications especially those which induce or inhibit cellular glutathione contents, glutathione *S*-transferase, multi-drug resistance-1, multi-drug resistance associated protein-1, etc. may all significantly affect arsenic metabolism. For the vast majority (>95%) of our patients, however, the chance of getting interfered by medications in case subjects was no different from that of controls. Understanding the arsenic methylation pathway has important clinical implications. Chemoprevention for high-risk populations is thus feasible by facilitating the arsenic methylation process and increasing the excretion of toxic metabolites.

References

- Andreae, M.O., 1977. Determination of arsenic species in natural waters. *Anal. Chem.* 49, 820–823.
- Bates, M.N., Rey, O.A., Biggs, M.L., Hopenhayn, C., Moore, L.E., Kalman, D., Steinmaus, C., Smith, A.H., 2004. Case-control study of bladder cancer and exposure to arsenic in Argentina. *Am. J. Epidemiol.* 159, 381–389.
- Brennan, P., Bogillot, O., Cordier, S., Greiser, E., Schill, W., Vineis, P., Lopez-Abente, G., Tzonou, A., Chang-Claude, J., Bolm-Audorf, U., Jockel, K.H., Donato, F., Serra, C., Wahrendorf, J., Hours, M., T'Mannetje, A., Kogevinas, M., Boffetta, P., 2000. Cigarette smoking and bladder cancer in men: a pooled analysis of 11 case-control studies. *Int. J. Cancer* 86, 289–294.
- Chen, C.J., Chuang, Y.C., Lin, T.M., Wu, H.Y., 1985. Malignant neoplasms among residents of a blackfoot disease-endemic area in Taiwan: high-arsenic artesian well water and cancers. *Cancer Res.* 45, 5895–5899.
- Chen, C.J., Kuo, T.L., Wu, M.M., 1988. Arsenic and cancers. *Lancet* 1, 414–415.
- Chen, Y.C., Amarasiwardena, C.J., Hsueh, Y.M., Christiani, D.C., 2002. Stability of arsenic species and insoluble arsenic in human urine. *Cancer Epidemiol., Biomarkers Prev.* 11, 1427–1433.
- Chen, Y.C., Guo, Y.L., Su, H.J., Hsueh, Y.M., Smith, T.J., Ryan, L.M., Lee, M.S., Chao, S.C., Lee, J.Y., Christiani, D.C., 2003a. Arsenic methylation and skin cancer risk in southwestern Taiwan. *J. Occup. Environ. Med.* 45, 241–248.
- Chen, Y.C., Su, H.J., Guo, Y.L., Hsueh, Y.M., Smith, T.J., Ryan, L.M., Lee, M.S., Christiani, D.C., 2003b. Arsenic methylation and bladder cancer risk in Taiwan. *Cancer Causes Control* 14, 303–310.
- Chen, Y.C., Su, H.J., Guo, Y.L., Houseman, E.A., Christiani, D.C., 2005. Interaction between environmental tobacco smoke and arsenic methylation ability on the risk of bladder cancer. *Cancer Causes Control* 16, 75–81.
- Chien, Y.H., Bau, D.T., Jan, K.Y., 2004. Nitric oxide inhibits DNA-adduct excision in nucleotide excision repair. *Free Radical Biol. Med.* 36, 1011–1017.
- Chiou, H.Y., Chiou, S.T., Hsu, Y.H., Chou, Y.L., Tseng, C.H., Wei, M.L., Chen,

- C.J., 2001. Incidence of transitional cell carcinoma and arsenic in drinking water: a follow-up study of 8,102 residents in an arseniasis-endemic area in northeastern Taiwan. *Am. J. Epidemiol.* 153, 411–418.
- Evans, C.D., LaDow, K., Schumann, B.L., Savage Jr., R.E., Caruso, J., Vonderheide, A., Succop, P., Talaska, G., 2004. Effect of arsenic on benzo[a]pyrene DNA adduct levels in mouse skin and lung. *Carcinogenesis* 25, 493–497.
- Francesconi, K.A., Tanggaar, R., McKenzie, C.J., Goessler, W., 2002. Arsenic metabolites in human urine after ingestion of an arsenosugar. *Clin. Chem.* 48, 92–101.
- Gamble, M.V., Liu, X., Ahsan, H., Pilsner, R., Ilijevski, V., Slavkovich, V., Parvez, F., Levy, D., Factor-Litvak, P., Graziano, J.H., 2005. Folate, homocysteine, and arsenic metabolism in arsenic-exposed individuals in Bangladesh. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 113, 1683–1688.
- Hopenhayn-Rich, C., Biggs, M.L., Smith, A.H., Kalman, D.A., Moore, L.E., 1996. Methylation study of a population environmentally exposed to arsenic in drinking water. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 104, 620–628.
- Hosmer, D.W., Lemeshow, S., 1992. Confidence interval estimation of interaction. *Epidemiology* 3, 452–456.
- Hsueh, Y.M., Chiou, H.Y., Huang, Y.L., Wu, W.L., Huang, C.C., Yang, M.H., Lue, L.C., Chen, G.S., Chen, C.J., 1997. Serum beta-carotene level, arsenic methylation capability, and incidence of skin cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol., Biomarkers Prev.* 6, 589–596.
- Hsueh, Y.M., Huang, Y.L., Huang, C.C., Wu, W.L., Chen, H.M., Yang, M.H., Lue, L.C., Chen, C.J., 1998. Urinary levels of inorganic and organic arsenic metabolites among residents in an arseniasis-hyperendemic area in Taiwan. *J. Toxicol. Environ. Health, Part A* 54, 431–444.
- Hsueh, Y.M., Hsu, M.K., Chiou, H.Y., Yang, M.H., Huang, C.C., Chen, C.J., 2002. Urinary arsenic speciation in subjects with or without restriction from seafood dietary intake. *Toxicol. Lett.* 133, 83–91.
- Hsueh, Y.M., Ko, Y.F., Huang, Y.K., Chen, H.W., Chiou, H.Y., Huang, Y.L., Yang, M.H., Chen, C.J., 2003. Determinants of inorganic arsenic methylation capability among residents of the Lanyang Basin, Taiwan: arsenic and selenium exposure and alcohol consumption. *Toxicol. Lett.* 137, 49–63.
- Le, X.C., Ma, M., Cullen, W.R., Aposhian, H.V., Lu, X., Zheng, B., 2000. Determination of monomethylarsonous acid, a key arsenic methylation intermediate, in human urine. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 108, 1015–1018.
- Lin, S.M., 1986. Diagnostic usefulness of trace arsenic in human urine, whole blood, hair and fingernails. *Gaoxiong Yixue Kexue Zazhi* 2, 100–113.
- Lin, S., Del Razo, L.M., Styblo, M., Wang, C., Cullen, W.R., Thomas, D.J., 2001. Arsenicals inhibit thioredoxin reductase in cultured rat hepatocytes. *Chem. Res. Toxicol.* 14, 305–311.
- Ma, M., Le, X.C., 1998. Effect of arsenosugar ingestion on urinary arsenic speciation. *Clin. Chem.* 44, 539–550.
- Mandal, B.K., Ogra, Y., Suzuki, K.T., 2001. Identification of dimethylarsinous and monomethylarsonous acids in human urine of the arsenic-affected areas in West Bengal, India. *Chem. Res. Toxicol.* 14, 371–378.
- Mass, M.J., Tennant, A., Roop, B.C., Cullen, W.R., Styblo, M., Thomas, D.J., Kligerman, A.D., 2001. Methylated trivalent arsenic species are genotoxic. *Chem. Res. Toxicol.* 14, 355–361.
- Morales, K.H., Ryan, L., Kuo, T.L., Wu, M.M., Chen, C.J., 2000. Risk of internal cancers from arsenic in drinking water. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 108, 655–661.
- National Research Council, 1999. *Arsenic in Drinking Water*. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.
- National Research Council, 2001. *Arsenic in Drinking Water Update*. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.
- Patrick, L., 2003. Toxic metals and antioxidants: Part II. The role of antioxidants in arsenic and cadmium toxicity. *Altern. Med. Rev.* 8, 106–128.
- Petrick, J.S., Ayala-Fierro, F., Cullen, W.R., Carter, D.E., Vasken, A.H., 2000. Monomethylarsonous acid (MMA(III)) is more toxic than arsenite in Chang human hepatocytes. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 163, 203–207.
- Rothman, K.J., 1986. *Modern Epidemiology*. Litter Brown and Company, Boston, MA.
- Schwerdtle, T., Walter, I., Hartwig, A., 2003a. Arsenite and its biomethylated metabolites interfere with the formation and repair of stable BPDE-induced DNA adducts in human cells and impair XPAz β and Fpg. *DNA Repair (Amst.)* 2, 1449–1463.
- Schwerdtle, T., Walter, I., Mackiw, I., Hartwig, A., 2003b. Induction of oxidative DNA damage by arsenite and its trivalent and pentavalent methylated metabolites in cultured human cells and isolated DNA. *Carcinogenesis* 24, 967–974.
- Smith, A.H., Hopenhayn-Rich, C., Bates, M.N., Goeden, H.M., Hertz-Picciotto, I., Duggan, H.M., Wood, R., Kosnett, M.J., Smith, M.T., 1992. Cancer risks from arsenic in drinking water. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 97, 259–267.
- Smith, A.H., Lopipero, P.A., Bates, M.N., Steinmaus, C.M., 2002. Public health—Arsenic epidemiology and drinking water standards. *Science* 296, 2145–2146.
- Smith, A.H., Marshall, G., Yuan, Y., Ferreccio, C., Liaw, J., von Ehrenstein, O., Steinmaus, C., Bates, M.N., Selvin, S., 2006. Increased mortality from lung cancer and bronchiectasis in young adults after exposure to arsenic in utero and in early childhood. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 114, 1293–1296.
- Styblo, M., Drobna, Z., Jaspers, I., Lin, S., Thomas, D.J., 2002. The role of biomethylation in toxicity and carcinogenicity of arsenic: a research update. *Environ. Health Perspect.* 110 (Suppl. 5), 767–771.
- Tezuka, M., Hanioka, K., Yamanaka, K., Okada, S., 1993. Gene damage induced in human alveolar type II (L-132) cells by exposure to dimethylarsinic acid. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 191, 1178–1183.
- Thomas, D.J., Styblo, M., Lin, S., 2001. The cellular metabolism and systemic toxicity of arsenic. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 176, 127–144.
- Tran, H.P., Prakash, A.S., Barnard, R., Chiswell, B., Ng, J.C., 2002. Arsenic inhibits the repair of DNA damage induced by benzo(a)pyrene. *Toxicol. Lett.* 133, 59–67.
- Tseng, C.H., Huang, Y.K., Huang, Y.L., Chung, C.J., Yang, M.H., Chen, C.J., Hsueh, Y.M., 2005. Arsenic exposure, urinary arsenic speciation, and peripheral vascular disease in blackfoot disease-hyperendemic villages in Taiwan. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* 206, 299–308.
- US EPA, 1998. Arsenic, inorganic (CASRN 7440-38-2). Ref Type: Internet Communication.
- Vahter, M., 2002. Mechanisms of arsenic biotransformation. *Toxicology* 181–182, 211–217.
- Vineis, P., Talaska, G., Malaveille, C., Bartsch, H., Martone, T., Sithisarankul, P., Strickland, P., 1996. DNA adducts in urothelial cells: relationship with biomarkers of exposure to arylamines and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons from tobacco smoke. *Int. J. Cancer* 65, 314–316.
- WHO, 1999. *Histological Typing of Urinary Bladder Tumours*. International Classification of Tumours. World Health Organization, Geneva.
- Yamauchi, H., Fowler, B.A., 1994. Toxicity and metabolism of inorganic and methylated arsenicals. In: Nriagu, J.O. (Ed.), *Arsenic in the Environment, Part 2: Human Health and Ecosystem Effects*. John Wiley and Sons, New York, pp. 33–43. Ref Type: Serial (Book, Monograph).
- Yang, C.Y., Chiu, H.F., Chang, C.C., Ho, S.C., Wu, T.N., 2005. Bladder cancer mortality reduction after installation of a tap-water supply system in an arsenious-endemic area in southwestern Taiwan. *Environ. Res.* 98, 127–132.
- Zeegers, M.P., Tan, F.E., Dorant, E., van Den Brandt, P.A., 2000. The impact of characteristics of cigarette smoking on urinary tract cancer risk: a meta-analysis of epidemiologic studies. *Cancer* 89, 630–639.
- Zeegers, M.P., Kellen, E., Buntinx, F., van den Brandt, P.A., 2004. The association between smoking, beverage consumption, diet and bladder cancer: a systematic literature review. *World J. Urol.* 21, 392–401.