

The therapeutic response to D-penicillamine in rheumatoid arthritis: influence of glutathione S-transferase polymorphisms

M. A. Layton, P. W. Jones¹, J. E. Aldersea², R. C. Strange²,
A. A. Fryer², P. T. Dawes and D. L. Matthey

Staffordshire Rheumatology Centre, The Haywood, High Lane, Burslem,
Stoke-on-Trent, Staffordshire ST6 7AG, ¹Department of Mathematics and
²Clinical Biochemistry Research Group, School of Postgraduate Medicine,
North Staffordshire Hospital, Keele University, Staffordshire ST4 7QB, UK

Abstract

Objectives. To investigate whether the therapeutic response of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patients to D-penicillamine is associated with polymorphisms in genes of the glutathione S-transferase (GST) supergene family.

Methods. Disease activity in 81 patients with RA treated with D-penicillamine monotherapy was assessed using the Stoke Index, a validated index of disease activity, prior to treatment and at 6 months. GST typing was performed using a polymerase chain reaction-based approach and a logistic regression model was used to investigate any possible association between the therapeutic response to D-penicillamine and the GST genotype.

Results. A poor therapeutic response was associated with the GSTM1 null genotype [odds ratio (OR) 3.94], and in particular with the *GSTM1*0/GSTM3*A* haplotype (OR 7.63).

Conclusions. Our results suggest that GST polymorphisms may influence the response to D-penicillamine in RA, and that patients in possession of the *GSTM1*0/GSTM3*A* haplotype are significantly less likely to show a beneficial response to the drug.

KEY WORDS: D-Penicillamine, Rheumatoid arthritis, Therapeutic response, Glutathione S-transferase, Polymorphism.

Early and reliable identification of rheumatoid arthritis (RA) patients who are at risk of poor long-term outcome would be clinically useful if it allowed more aggressive treatment to be appropriately targeted. There has been considerable interest, therefore, in the identification of genetic markers of clinical outcome. Much of this work has been focused on genes of the HLA system. The HLA-DR genotype, and specifically the presence of the 'RA shared epitope', a conserved amino acid sequence (QKRAA or QRRAA) in positions 70–74 of the DRB1 molecule, has been related to disease severity [1]. It is suggested that resistance to drug therapy is a possible mechanism for this effect [2], although the influence of HLA status on the response to drugs in RA remains unclear. Thus, Ten Wolde *et al.* [3] reported that HLA typing is not helpful in predicting the therapeutic response to parenteral gold therapy. This is in contrast to the reported association of gold toxicity with HLA-DR3 [4]. There are little data on other genes that might influence the therapeutic response in RA.

Although a wide range of drugs, with varying mechanisms of action, are available for use in the treatment of RA, selection is often problematic because of adverse reactions or lack of response. Accordingly, drug treatment in RA is often pragmatic and it is not unusual for an individual patient to be prescribed a range of different drugs during the course of the disease. The identification of markers that indicate whether or not a particular drug is likely to be beneficial would therefore have important consequences for treatment.

The enzymes of the cytochrome P450 (CYP) and glutathione S-transferase (GST) supergene families utilize a wide range of drugs and chemicals as substrates, suggesting that they may mediate individual responses to drug therapy. There are little data on the influence of these enzyme families on the metabolism of drugs used to treat RA, although a recent study demonstrated that the activity of the glucocorticoid-inducible CYP3A4 in RA patients was not altered by various anti-rheumatic agents and substrates of this isoenzyme [5]. GST enzymes catalyse the detoxification of a wide range of electrophiles by catalysing their conjugation with reduced glutathione. They are also believed to play a critical role in the detoxification of various endogenous

Submitted 29 January 1998; revised version accepted 2 September 1998.

Correspondence to: D. L. Matthey.

chemicals, including products of oxidant stress such as lipid and DNA hydroperoxides [6]. Polymorphisms have been identified in genes of the mu (GSTM1, GSTM3), theta (GSTT1) and pi (GSTP1) families [7], and there is evidence that some allelic variants are associated with differences in detoxification efficiency. In several cancers, resistance to chemotherapy has been associated with increased GST activity in tumour cells [8].

Generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) is a marked feature of the inflammatory response in RA, and we have suggested that the ability to metabolize products of ROS may influence long-term outcome. Thus, our preliminary data indicate that polymorphisms in GST genes may have an influence on incidence and disease outcome in RA [9]. We propose that the ability to detoxify products of oxidant stress may also influence the response to certain drug therapies. In the present study, we examined the response to D-penicillamine, which has been suggested to act as an antioxidant by inhibiting lipid peroxidation [10], as well as demonstrating hydroxyl radical scavenging activity *in vitro* [11]. It has also been shown to increase levels of erythrocyte glutathione in RA patients [12]. We speculate that in RA patients with certain GST polymorphisms (e.g. GSTM1 null, GSTT1 null, GSTM3AA), there is a reduced capacity to detoxify the products of oxidative stress produced by the inflammatory process, and that increased oxidation of D-penicillamine occurs which renders it less effective. We have tested this view by investigating the association between GST polymorphisms and response to treatment as assessed by the Stoke Index [13].

Patients and methods

A study group of 81 patients (38 male, 43 female) meeting the 1987 ACR diagnostic criteria [14] for RA were selected. The mean age was 52.6 yr (s.d. 9.8) and the mean disease duration 6.1 yr (s.d. 5.8). Of this group, 48 patients (59.2%) were rheumatoid factor positive and 13 patients (16%) had rheumatoid nodules. All patients were unrelated Northern European Caucasians from North Staffordshire started on D-penicillamine monotherapy (non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs permitted) on clinical grounds [≥ 6 painful joints and erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) > 30 mm/h or C-reactive protein (CRP) > 20 mg/l]. All patients were assessed prior to therapy and 6 months after starting D-penicillamine according to our standard departmental clinical protocol. Treatment commenced with 250 mg daily, increasing at 4 week intervals by increments of 125 mg until either response occurred or the maximum tolerated dose was achieved (maximum 750 mg daily). All patients were advised to take the D-penicillamine as a single morning dose prior to the intake of food and there was no concomitant oral iron therapy. Patients were reviewed monthly in our drug monitor clinics in order to identify any problems of toxicity and monitor compliance with therapy. The 81 patients studied repre-

sent those completing 6 months of D-penicillamine therapy. The original study group was 86 patients, of whom four (4.6%) dropped out because of side-effects and one (1.2%) was non-compliant. Patients were assessed using the Stoke Index, a validated composite algorithm designed to give a global measure of disease activity in RA, which is sensitive to response to drug treatment [13, 15]. The Stoke Index grades disease activity on the basis of the Ritchie articular index, proximal interphalangeal joint synovitis (PIP) score, duration of morning stiffness, ESR and CRP. The algorithm consists of a 17-point scale with 1–3 representing minimal disease activity, 4–7 mild, 8–11 moderate and 12–17 severe.

In order to determine whether the D-penicillamine-treated patients represented a typical group of RA patients, we also compared the GST frequencies of the D-penicillamine-treated patients with a much larger group of RA patients untreated with this drug ($n = 194$), obtained from a study investigating the association between GST polymorphisms and disease outcome [16]. There were no significant differences between the two groups for any of the GST genotypes (data not shown).

Genotype data in the D-penicillamine-treated RA patients were also compared with those in 577 Northern European Caucasians resident in North Staffordshire. This group comprised 277 men and 300 women with a mean age of 70 yr. Patients with inflammatory pathologies such as ulcerative colitis, diabetes or asthma were excluded, although 30% of these controls suffered diseases including varicose veins, hernias, haemorrhoids, mild iron deficiency anaemia, mild hyperlipidaemia and benign ovarian cysts. The remainder suffered tension headaches (25%), benign skin papillomas (20%), benign breast lumps (5%), or cerebrovascular accidents (20%).

Outcome measures

The therapeutic response at 6 months was defined using the Stoke Index. Non-responders to therapy were defined as those patients who following 6 months treatment with D-penicillamine achieved either no change in their Stoke Index category or entered a worse category.

Genotyping

GST genotypes were identified in leucocyte DNA from whole blood collected in EDTA. The GSTM1 null, A, B and AB genotypes were identified using an amplification refractory mutation system (ARMS)-based polymerase chain reaction (PCR) approach with primer sets to intron 6/exon 7 and exon 4/exon 5. The assay identifies *GSTM1**A/*GSTM1**B heterozygotes and subjects with the GSTM1 A and GSTM1 B phenotypes. It does not distinguish the *GSTM1**0/*GSTM1**A and *GSTM1**A/*GSTM1**A genotypes or the equivalent GSTM1 B genotypes [17, 18]. The GSTM3 AA, AB and BB genotypes were identified by amplifying the exon 6/7 regions of *GSTM3**A and *GSTM3**B, and differentiating *GSTM3**A from *GSTM3**B by digestion

with *MnlI* to identify the three-base deletion in intron 6 of *GSTM3*B* [19]. The *GSTP1* AA, AB and BB genotypes were identified in leucocyte DNA after PCR amplification using primers to exon 5 as described by Harries *et al.* [20]. The resulting 176 bp fragment was digested with *AhaI* to identify the A–G transition as position 1578 in *GSTP1*B*. *GSTP1*A* was refractory to digestion whilst *GSTP1*B* gave fragments of 91 and 85 bp. The *GSTT1* null and *GSTT1* A expressing subjects were also identified using PCR [21].

Statistical analysis

Logistic regression was used so that any effect of the genotype on response could be corrected for age, sex, disease duration and initial Stoke Index. There was no significant difference between the responders and the non-responders for these factors individually, but they were included in the analysis in the case of a compound effect. The odds ratio (OR) was calculated from the exponential function of the regression coefficient as described by Altman [22]. Estimates of the parameters associated with the genotype are expressed in terms of OR and the associated 95% confidence interval (CI).

Results

Eighteen of the 81 patients did not respond to D-penicillamine at 6 months according to the definition given above. The characteristics of the non-responders and the responders are summarized in Table 1. There was no significant difference in age, disease duration, rheumatoid factor positivity or Stoke Index prior to treatment between the two groups. The GST genotype frequencies in the responders and non-responders are shown in Table 2. The frequencies in all the D-penicillamine-treated patients are also reported and compared to a control group of non-RA patients resident in North Staffordshire ($n = 577$). There were no significant differences between GST genotype frequencies in the D-penicillamine-treated RA group and the control non-RA group.

Using logistic regression analysis, we found that in D-penicillamine-treated patients the frequency of *GSTM1* null was significantly higher in the non-responders than the responders (72.2% vs 47.6%: OR 3.94, 95% CI 1.07–14.45, $P = 0.039$). The frequency of the

*GSTM1*0/GSTM3*A* haplotype was also significantly higher (OR 7.63, 95% CI 1.84–31.72, $P = 0.0052$) in the non-responders (72.2%) than responders (35.6%), although no significant effect of *GSTM3* AA alone was seen. Furthermore, all of the non-responders with the *GSTM1* null genotype were *GSTM3* AA positive, whilst only 70% of the *GSTM1* null responders possessed the *GSTM3* AA genotype. There was no significant difference between the two groups studied in the frequency of other GST genotypes. No significant correlation between GST genotype and rheumatoid factor positivity was found.

Discussion

The data presented suggest that RA patients with the *GSTM1* null genotype are significantly more likely than patients homo- or heterozygous for the *GSTM1*A* or *GSTM1*B* alleles to respond poorly to D-penicillamine during the first 6 months of treatment. Moreover, possession of the *GSTM1*0/GSTM3*A* haplotype further increases the likelihood of non-response compared to patients without this haplotype. The overall GST genotype distribution in the D-penicillamine-treated patients appears to be representative of the RA patient population in North Staffordshire since there were no significant differences in the genotype frequencies of these patients and a larger group of RA patients not treated with the drug.

A logistic regression model was used to correct for the effect of possible confounding factors such as age, gender and disease duration. The analysis does not exclude the possibility that the effect is mediated through another gene in linkage disequilibrium with *GSTM1* and/or *GSTM3*, or perhaps is due to an unrelated gene encoding a drug-metabolizing enzyme which can be modulated in association with the *GSTM1* null genotype. For example, the *GSTM1* null genotype has been shown to be associated with high inducibility of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme CYP1A1 [23].

In this study, we have no information on the activity of other enzyme systems, although the association of *GSTM1* null with a poor response appears to be linked with the presence of the *GSTM3* AA genotype. *GSTM3* AA alone was not associated with response. A similar association between these genotypes was found in a study of patients with multiple basal cell carcinoma, where *GSTM3* AA alone was not associated with increased risk of multiple tumours, but conferred increased risk in combination with *GSTM1* null [24]. Co-ordinated expression of the mu class (i.e. *GSTM1*, M2, M3, M4, M5) gene cluster on chromosome 1 has also been shown in the lung where homozygotes for *GSTM1*0* express less *GSTM3* than subjects with other *GSTM1* genotypes [25]. Although the mechanism for this is unclear, it may be related to the finding that *GSTM3*B* is in linkage disequilibrium with *GSTM1*A* and contains a recognition motif for the YY1 transcription factor [26], which influences the expression of many genes. The YY1 recognition motif is absent in

TABLE 1. Characteristics of responders and non-responders to D-penicillamine

	Non-responders $n = 18$ (M = 7 F = 11)	Responders $n = 63$ (M = 31 F = 32)
Mean age (yr) (s.d.)	52.3 (10.5)	52.9 (9.0)
Mean disease duration (yr) (s.d.)	5.6 (4.2)	6.3 (6.2)
Mean age of onset (s.d.)	48.4 (11.8)	47.2 (9.8)
Mean initial Stoke Index (s.d.)	9.5 (2.9)	10.4 (3.4)
Mean Stoke Index at 6 months (s.d.)	8.8 (3.1)	4.3 (2.5)

TABLE 2. Frequency distribution of GST genotypes in D-penicillamine-treated RA patients compared with non-RA controls

Genotype	Non-responders <i>n</i> (%)	Responders <i>n</i> (%)	All patients <i>n</i> (%)	Normal controls <i>n</i> (%)
GSTM1 null	13 (72.2)	30 (47.6)	43 (53.1)	345 (58.4)
GSTM1A	3 (16.7)	24 (38)	27 (33.3)	152 (25.7)
GSTM1B	2 (11.1)	8 (12.7)	10 (12.3)	72 (12.2)
GSTM1 AB	0 (0)	1 (1.6)	1 (1.2)	22 (3.7)
GSTM3 AA	16 (88.8)	41 (73.2)	57 (77.0)	221 (74.9)
GSTM3 AB	2 (11.1)	14 (25)	16 (21.6)	59 (20)
GSTM3 BB	0 (0)	1 (1.8)	1 (1.4)	15 (5.1)
GSTP1 AA	4 (28.6)	18 (36)	22 (34.4)	136 (45.8)
GSTP1 AB	9 (64.3)	25 (50)	34 (53.1)	118 (39.7)
GSTP1 BB	1 (7.1)	7 (14)	8 (12.5)	43 (14.5)
GSTT1 null	5 (27.7)	14 (22.2)	19 (23.5)	105 (18.9)
GSTT1 A	13 (72.2)	49 (77.8)	62 (76.5)	451 (81.1)
GSTM1*0/GSTM3*A	13 (72.2)	21/59 (35.6)	34/77 (44.2)	

*GSTM3**A, suggesting that those with either a *GSTM1**0/*GSTM3**A or *GSTM1**B/*GSTM3**A haplotype will express less *GSTM3* than those with the *GSTM1**A/*GSTM3**B haplotype. Thus, it has been suggested that assessment of the contribution of *GSTM1* genotypes as susceptibility markers for disease risk needs to take account of interactions with *GSTM3* [18]. The results of this study now indicate that interactions between these mu class genes may also be important in determining the response to D-penicillamine.

The mechanism for this effect is unknown, although we have speculated that it is related to the apparent importance of the mu class GST in the detoxification of lipid hydroperoxides, alkenals, DNA hydroperoxides and other products of oxidative stress. Thus, RA patients lacking the *GSTM1* enzyme and also possessing lower levels of *GSTM3* will have a reduced capacity to deal with these potentially cytotoxic chemicals. Consequently, since D-penicillamine may act as an antioxidant under some circumstances [10, 11, 27], it is possible that higher levels of ROS-derived products in patients with the *GSTM1**0/*GSTM3**A haplotype result in increased oxidation of the drug and render it less effective. A further factor may be the effect of intracellular redox balance on the action of D-penicillamine. Synovial fluid T cells have reduced levels of intracellular glutathione, prompting the suggestion that the hyporesponsiveness of these cells results from an altered redox state. Thus, agents that replenish glutathione, such as *N*-acetylcysteine, enhance antigen-specific and mitogen-induced proliferative responses [28].

It is unknown whether the GSTs mediate these responses, although it is possible that the antioxidant capacity of glutathione-deficient synovial fluid T cells is further reduced in RA patients who are homozygous for *GSTM1**0, leading to greater hyporesponsiveness. The inter-relationship between intracellular glutathione concentration and GST genotypes is not elucidated, but is suggested by unpublished studies from our laboratory showing an association between responsiveness to

chemotherapeutic agents in epithelial ovarian cancer and *GSTM1* genotypes. Thus, in women with this cancer, *GSTM1* null was associated with a failure to respond to platinum-based therapy and consequently significantly poorer outcome. Resistance to platinum-based treatment has been closely associated with cellular glutathione levels, although it is not known whether our observations reflect an influence of GST allelic variants on the expression of enzymes involved with glutathione synthesis [29, 30].

Although these mechanisms are purely speculative at present, the influence of GST polymorphisms in RA appear to be important in terms of disease outcome and the response to D-penicillamine. At present, we do not feel that there is sufficient evidence to recommend pre-treatment genotyping of RA patients in routine clinical practice. More work is required to confirm these findings and to determine whether the therapeutic response to other disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drugs relates to the GST genotype.

Acknowledgements

Dr Layton and Dr Matthey are supported by the Haywood Rheumatism Research and Development Foundation. We would also like to thank the Arthritis and Rheumatism Council for financial support.

References

1. Gough A, Faint J, Salmon M *et al.* Genetic typing of patients with inflammatory arthritis at presentation can be used to predict outcome. *Arthritis Rheum* 1994;37:1166–70.
2. Symmons DPM, Ollier WER, Brennan P, Silman AJ. Should patients with recent onset rheumatoid arthritis be offered genetic screening? *Ann Rheum Dis* 1996;55:407–10.
3. Ten Wolde S, Dijkmans BAC, Van Rood JJ *et al.* Human leucocyte antigen phenotypes and gold induced remission

- in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *Br J Rheumatol* 1995;34:343–6.
4. Panayi GS, Wooley P, Batchelor JR. Genetic basis of rheumatoid disease: HLA antigens, disease manifestations and toxic reactions to drugs. *Br Med J* 1978;2:1326–8.
 5. Beyeler C, Frey BM, Bird HA. Urinary 6 beta-hydroxycortisol excretion in rheumatoid arthritis. *Br J Rheumatol* 1997;36:54–8.
 6. Strange RC, Fryer AA. The glutathione S-transferases: influence of polymorphism on susceptibility to non familial cancers. In: Boffetta P, Caporaso N, Cuzick J, Lang M, Vineis P, eds. *Metabolic polymorphisms and cancer*. Lyon: IARC Scientific Publications, in press.
 7. Ketterer B, Taylor J, Meyer D *et al*. Some functions of glutathione transferases. In: Tew KD, Pickett CB, Mantle TJ, Mannerick B, Hayes JD, eds. *Structure and function of glutathione transferases*. Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press, 1993:15–27.
 8. Ranganathan S, Tew KD. Immunohistochemical localisation of glutathione transferases α , μ , and π in normal tissue and carcinomas from human colon. *Carcinogenesis* 1991;12:2382.
 9. Hassell AB, Plant MJ, Davis M *et al*. Influence of glutathione S-transferase polymorphisms on the incidence and severity of rheumatoid arthritis. *Br J Rheumatol* 1995;34:18.
 10. Benov LC, Ribarov SR, Monovich OH. Study of activated oxygen production by some thiols using chemiluminescence. *Gen Physiol Biophys* 1992;11:195–202.
 11. Pronai L, Ichikawa Y, Ichimori K *et al*. Hydroxyl radical-scavenging activity of slow acting antirheumatic drugs. *J Clin Biochem Nutr* 1990;9:17–23.
 12. Munthe E, Guldal G, Jellum E. Increased intracellular glutathione during penicillamine treatment for rheumatoid arthritis. *Lancet* 1979;ii:1126–7.
 13. Jones PW, Ziade MF, Davis MJ, Dawes PT. An index of disease activity in rheumatoid arthritis. *Stat Med* 1993;12:1171–8.
 14. Arnett FC, Edworthy SM, Bloch DA *et al*. The American Rheumatism Association 1987 revised criteria for the classification of rheumatoid arthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* 1988;31:315–24.
 15. Borg AA, Fowler PD, Shadforth MF, Dawes PT. Use of the Stoke Index to differentiate between disease-modifying agents and non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs in rheumatoid arthritis. *Clin Exp Rheumatol* 1993;11:469–72.
 16. Matthey DL, Hassell AB, Plant MJ *et al*. Association of radiological outcome in RA with polymorphisms in the glutathione S-transferase supergene family. *Arthritis Rheum* 1997;40:S330.
 17. Heagerty AHM, Fitzgerald D, Smith A *et al*. Glutathione S-transferase GSTM1 phenotypes and protection against cutaneous malignancy. *Lancet* 1994;343:266–8.
 18. Heagerty AHM, Smith A, English J *et al*. Susceptibility to multiple cutaneous basal cell carcinomas: Significant interactions between glutathione S-transferase GSTM1 genotypes, skin type and male gender. *Br J Cancer* 1996;73:44–8.
 19. Inskip A, Elexperu-Camiruaga J, Buxton N *et al*. Identification of polymorphism at the glutathione S-transferase, GSTM3 locus: Evidence for linkage with GSTM1*A. *Biochem J* 1995;312:713–6.
 20. Harries LW, Stubbins MJ, Forman D, Howard GCW, Wolf CR. Identification of genetic polymorphism at the GSTP1 locus and association with susceptibility to bladder, testicular and prostate cancer. *Carcinogenesis* 1997;18:641–4.
 21. Elexperu-Camiruaga J, Buxton N, Kandula V *et al*. Susceptibility to astrocytoma and meningioma: influence of allelism of glutathione S-transferase, GSTT1 and GSTM1 and cytochrome P450, CYP2D6 loci. *Cancer Res* 1995;55:4237–9.
 22. Altman D. *Practical statistics for medical research*. London: Chapman and Hall, 1991:352–4.
 23. Vaury C, Laine R, Noguez P, de Coppet P *et al*. Human glutathione S-transferase M1 null genotype is associated with a high inducibility of cytochrome P450 1A1 gene transcription. *Cancer Res* 1995;55:5520–3.
 24. Yengi L, Inskip A, Gilford J *et al*. Polymorphism at the glutathione S-transferase GSTM3 locus: Interactions with cytochrome P450 and the glutathione S-transferase genotypes as risk factors for multiple basal cell carcinoma. *Cancer Res* 1996;56:1974–7.
 25. Antilla S, Luostarinen L, Hirvonen A *et al*. Pulmonary expression of glutathione S-transferase M3 in lung cancer patients: association with GSTM1 polymorphism, smoking and asbestos exposure. *Cancer Res* 1995;55:3305–9.
 26. Flanagan JR. Autologous stimulation of YY1 transcription factor expression: role of an insulin like growth factor. *Cell Growth Differ* 1995;6:185–90.
 27. Ledson MJ, Bucknall RC, Edwards SW. Inhibition of neutrophil oxidant secretion by D penicillamine: scavenging of H₂O₂ and HOCl. *Ann Rheum Dis* 1992;51:321–5.
 28. Maurice MM, Nakamura H, van der Voort EA *et al*. Evidence for the role of an altered redox state in hyporesponsiveness of synovial T cells in rheumatoid arthritis. *J Immunol* 1997;158:1458–65.
 29. Tew KD. Glutathione associated enzymes in anticancer drug resistance. *Cancer Res* 1994;54:4313–20.
 30. Hamilton TC, Yao KS, Beesley JS *et al*. The relationship and regulation of glutathione in cancer cells resistant to chemotherapy. In: Vermeulen NP, Mulder GJ, Nieuwenhuys H *et al*, eds. *Glutathione S-transferases—structure, function and clinical implications*, TJ Press (Padstow) Ltd; Taylor & Francis, UK, 1996:173–85.

BRHEUM – MSS No. 8A0038

The therapeutic response to D-penicillamine in rheumatoid arthritis: influence of glutathione s-transferase polymorphisms *M. A. Layton, P. W. Jones,¹ J. Alldersea², R. C. Strange², A. A. Fryer², P. T. Dawes and D. L. Matthey* 000