

# Influence of GSTT1 and GSTP1 polymorphisms on type 2 diabetes mellitus and diabetic retinopathy risk in the Chinese population: a case control study

**Xinqian Geng**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Ling Zha**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Yuxin Xiong**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Fan Xu**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Bo Xu**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Feiying Wang**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Xiaoling Wang**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Ke Yang**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Wenyu Tao**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Yiping Li**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Taicheng Zhou**

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

**Ying Yang** (✉ [yangying2072@126.com](mailto:yangying2072@126.com))

Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province

---

## Research Article

**Keywords:** Glutathione S-Transferase, single nucleotide polymorphism, type 2 diabetes mellitus, diabetic retinopathy

**Posted Date:** February 22nd, 2021

**DOI:** <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-52199/v3>

**License:**  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

---

# Abstract

**Background:** Studies have revealed the association of glutathione S-transferases (GSTM1 and GSTT1) deletion (null) polymorphism with the risks of developing type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) and its complications. The present study aimed to investigate the relationship between GSTT1/ GSTP1 gene polymorphisms and the risks of T2DM and diabetic retinopathy (DR) in a Chinese population.

**Methods:** In this case-control study, a total of 336 subjects with T2DM and a defined ophthalmologic status were recruited from the Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province between June 2014 and October 2016. Seventy-two age-matched healthy controls were also enrolled. Physical examinations and laboratory tests were performed. The frequencies of GSTT1 genotypes in all participants were determined by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) followed by agarose gel electrophoresis. Genotyping of GSTP1 gene was identified by PCR amplification followed by sequencing.

**Results:** Compared with healthy controls, the GSTT1-null genotype was significantly more common in diabetic patients with or without DR (all  $P < 0.05$ ). However, there was no difference in the frequencies of the GSTP1 genotype (AA, GA, GG) between diabetic patients with or without DR and healthy controls. Furthermore, neither the GSTP1 nor GSTT1 genetic polymorphism was associated with the development of DR. In the present study, the risk of developing T2DM was significantly higher in subjects carrying the combined heterozygous GSTP1 (AG) and null GSTT1 genotypes (OR = 0.40, 95% CI = 0.21-0.74,  $P = 0.02$ ).

**Conclusions:** The deletion of the GSTT1 genotype was associated with a higher risk of developing T2DM, whether alone or in combination with GSTP1, indicating that the null genotype of GSTT1 may serve as a potential biomarker for T2DM in the Chinese population, which is helpful for clinicians to make more effective risk-based decisions.

## Background

Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is an endocrine metabolic disorder that is characterized by impaired insulin action in target tissues and/or insulin secretion (1). By 2040, 642 million people are expected to suffer from T2DM (2). Notably, long-term hyperglycemia results in many complications, such as coronary artery disease, stroke, diabetic nephropathy, peripheral diabetic neuropathy, and diabetic retinopathy (DR), all of which carry high medical and socioeconomic costs (3). T2DM is well recognized as a multifactorial disease determined by both genetic and environmental factors (3, 4). Although genetic studies have demonstrated that some genetic markers are associated with T2DM susceptibility and provided new insights into diabetes pathogenesis, including  $\beta$ -cell function, adipocytokine signaling and cell cycle regulation, the genetic basis of T2DM and the mechanisms of the observed genetic associations of T2DM still need further investigation (4-7).

Oxidative stress is an important factor in the development of diabetes and its complications (8, 9), and individuals with impaired antioxidant capacity were found to be at greater risk of T2DM (10, 11). Since the retina needs more oxygen than other tissues in the body, oxidative stress may also play a pivotal role

in the etiology of DR (12). Glutathione S-transferases (GSTs), a well-known multigenic superfamily of detoxification enzymes, can effectively modulate systemic oxidative stress levels in humans (13, 14). GSTM1 and GSTT1 are polymorphic, and the null genotypes (deletion of both alleles) are associated with reduced enzyme activity (15). For GSTP1, there is a missense substitution from the A/G base at codon 105 in which isoleucine is replaced by valine (Ile105Val), resulting in an alteration of specific enzyme activity (16). Several GST polymorphisms, especially GSTM1, GSTT1 and GSTP1, have been intensively studied in different diseases due to their potential effects on individual susceptibility to some environmentally induced diseases (17, 18). Recent studies have revealed the association of GSTM1/GSTT1 deletion (null) polymorphism with the risk of developing T2DM (13, 17, 19-22). Moreover, the null genotypes of GSTM1/GSTT1 were also considered risk factors for various T2DM complications, including essential arterial hypertension, neuropathy, retinopathy, nephropathy, etc. (17, 20, 23, 24). However, few studies have focused on the relationships between GSTP1 single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) and the development of T2DM and its related complications, especially in the Chinese population. On the other hand, whether the GSTM1/GSTT1 polymorphisms are associated with risk of T2DM as well as DR is still controversial and inconsistent in the existing studies (17, 25-27).

Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate the relationships between GSTP1/GSTT1 genetic polymorphism and the risks of diabetes and DR in a Chinese population from Yunnan Province, a plateau area of Western China.

## Methods

### Study population

In this case-control study, a total of 336 subjects with T2DM and a defined ophthalmologic status were recruited from the Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province between June 2014 and October 2016. The diagnosis of diabetes was in accordance with the 1999 World Health Organization (WHO) criteria (fasting plasma glucose >7.0 mmol/L, 2h plasma glucose >11.1 mmol/L, or both) (28). A complete ophthalmological examination (including corrected slit-lamp microscopic examination, fundoscopic examination and fundus photography) was performed by senior ophthalmologists blinded to the T2DM status of the participants following a standardized protocol. DR was defined and staged according to the proposed Clinical International Classification Systems (29). The T2DM group consisted of 124 subjects with proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR), 70 subjects with non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy (NPDR) and 142 diabetic subjects without clinical signs of diabetic retinopathy (NDR). To avoid the confounding effect of other vascular diseases, patients with malignancy, type 1 diabetes, hypertension preceding T2DM, cardiac, primary renal and liver diseases were excluded from our study. Seventy-two age-matched healthy controls were also enrolled from the physical examination center of the Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province. In this study, the inclusion criteria for the control participants were: (1) no diabetes symptoms; (2) no history of dyslipidemia, coronary artery diseases, cerebral stroke, etc.; (3) no family history of diabetes, hypertension; (4) normal glucose tolerance assessed by a standard 75 g OGTT (fasting plasma glucose < 6.1 mmol/L, 2 h plasma glucose < 7.8 mmol/L).

## Ethical principles

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province and Yunnan University and was conducted in accordance with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki. Written informed consent was provided by each participant prior to the study.

## Clinical evaluation and biochemical assays

All participants received an interviewer-administered questionnaire to collect general information regarding age, sex and history of diabetes and underwent a basic physical examination [e.g., weight, height, waist-to-hip ratio (WHR), systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure] by trained nurses. Heparinized blood samples were collected after an overnight fast for at least 8 h. Lipid profiles [including total cholesterol, triglycerides, high-density lipoprotein (HDL), and low-density lipoprotein (LDL)], blood urea nitrogen (BUN), creatinine (CRE) and uric acid (UA) were measured by an auto-analyzer (Hitachi 7600, Tokyo, Japan). Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c) was estimated by high-performance liquid chromatography (HLC-73G7, Tokyo, Japan). All reagents and kits used for testing were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA).

## DNA extraction and GST genotyping analysis

DNA was extracted from the collected EDTA blood samples using a standard procedure of perchlorate/chloroform extraction (30). The quality of DNA extraction was done using spectrophotometric measurement (Nanodrop 2000, Wilmington, USA) (31). The frequency of the GSTT1 genotypes was determined by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) followed by agarose gel electrophoresis. PCR amplification was carried out on the GeneAmp PCR system 9700 (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA). The genotyping of GSTP1 was performed by providing the PCR products to Shanghai Sangon Biological Engineering Technology & Services Co, Ltd (Shanghai, China) for sequencing. The albumin locus was used as an internal control to distinguish the null genotype of GSTT1 from the aborted PCRs. The primers used in the present study were as follows: GSTT1, 5'-TTC CTT ACT GGT CCT CAC ATC TC-3' (forward) and 5'-TCA CCG GAT CAT GGC CAG CA-3' (reverse); GSTP1, 5'-ACC CCA GGG CTC TAT GGG AA-3' (forward) and 5'-TGA GGG CAC AAG AAG CCC CT-3' (reverse); and Albumin, 5'-GCC CTC TGC TAA CAA GTC CTA C-3' (forward) and 5'-GCCCTAAAAAGAAAATCGCCA ATC-3' (reverse) (21). PCR primers were offered by Dalian Bao Biological Engineering Technology & Services Co, Ltd (Dalian, China) and reagents were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, USA).

## Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD) for normally distributed variables or as median (interquartile range 25-75%) for variable with a skewed distribution. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine data normality. The genotype frequencies were tested for the Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) using Pearson's chi-square test (32). For continuous variables, differences between the healthy control group and T2DM group were evaluated using Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U test.

Comparisons among diabetic groups were evaluated by one-way ANOVA or the Kruskal–Wallis test as appropriate, with post hoc Tukey test for multiple comparisons (33). For categorical variables, data were presented as n (%), and comparisons between groups were analyzed by Chi-square test or Fisher's exact test as appropriate. The relationships between GSTT1 and GSTP1 genotypes and the risks of T2DM and DR were assessed by the means of the odds ratio (OR) with 95% confidence interval (CI) limits calculated by logistic regression analysis. All tests were two-tailed, and values of  $P < 0.05$  were considered statistically significant. Statistics were performed with SPSS version 13.0 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

## Results

In the present study, some cases failed genotyping for the detection of the GSTP1 genotypes (NDR,  $n = 57$ ; NPDR,  $n = 18$ ; PDR,  $n = 62$ ; control,  $n = 10$ ). Thus, a total of 199 T2DM patients with/without DR (NDR,  $n = 85$ ; NPDR,  $n = 52$ ; PDR,  $n = 62$ ) and 62 healthy controls were included in the later analysis for GSTP1 genotypes. All participants were included in the final analysis about the associations between the GSTT1 polymorphism and the risk of T2DM and DR.

### Characteristics of the study population

The demographic and clinical characteristics of T2DM patients and healthy controls are illustrated in Table 1. Compared with healthy controls, diabetic patients tended to have a longer duration of diabetes, higher BMI and WHR. In addition, HbA1c, total cholesterol, triglyceride, LDL-C, BUN and CRE were significantly higher in the T2DM diabetes group (all  $P < 0.05$ ). No significant differences were observed in the proportions of sex, age, SBP and DBP between the two groups. Among the 336 T2DM patients, 142 (42.26%) had no signs of DR, 70 (20.83%) had NPDR, and 124 (36.90%) had PDR. DR was significantly associated with lower triglyceride levels but higher CRE (all  $P < 0.01$ ).

### The frequency distributions of GSTP1 in T2DM and controls

The frequency of GSTP1 polymorphism did not deviate from HWE for any of the groups (all  $P > 0.05$ ). However, HWE was not suitable for the GSTT1 variants because heterozygous individuals could not be distinguished from the homozygous wild type in the present study. The distributions of GSTP1 genetic polymorphisms among (1) patients with T2DM and healthy controls and (2) diabetic patients with and without DR are displayed in Table 2. There were no differences in the frequency of the GSTP1 genotypes between T2DM patients and controls ( $P = 0.88$  for AA vs. GA/GG,  $P = 0.27$  for GA vs. GG/AA,  $P = 0.16$  for GG vs. GA/AA), as well as diabetic patients with and without DR ( $P = 0.32$  for AA vs. GA/GG,  $P = 0.38$  for GA vs. GG/AA,  $P = 0.70$  for GG vs. GA/AA).

### The frequency distributions of GSTT1 in T2DM and controls

For GSTT1, a significantly higher frequency of the GSTT1-null genotype was found in patients with T2DM compared with healthy controls (OR = 1.84, 95% CI = 1.08-3.12,  $P = 0.02$ ). Moreover, the GSTT1-null genotype was significantly more frequent in diabetic patients without DR than in healthy controls (OR =

1.88, 95% CI = 1.05-3.38,  $P = 0.03$ , Table 3). However, we did not find statistically significant differences in the genotype distribution of GSTT1 among NDR, NPDR, and PDR.

### **Associations between the GSTP1/GSTT1 polymorphism and the risk of T2DM and DR**

The frequency distributions of the combination of GSTP1 and GSTT1 in healthy controls and in T2DM patients with or without DR are presented in Table 4. The combination of the GSTT1-null and GSTP1 (AG) genotype conferred the highest risk of developing T2DM (OR = 0.40, 95% CI = 0.21-0.74,  $P = 0.02$ ). However, the combination of the two genotypes (GSTT1 and GSTP1) showed no increased risk for developing DR in diabetic patients.

## **Discussion**

To our knowledge, this study is the first to explore the associations of GSTP1/GSTT1 genetic polymorphism with the risks of diabetes and DR in a Chinese population. In the present study, the GSTT1 null genotype was found to be an independent risk factor for the development of T2DM, whereas no significant association with DR was observed. GSTP1 also had no relationship with the development of T2DM and DR.

It has been documented that the antioxidant enzyme-related gene variants are involved in the pathogenesis of diabetes mellitus and its related complications in previous studies (8, 9). The GSTT1 gene is one of the most widely studied members of the GST family for its protective ability against oxidative stress in  $\beta$ -cells (34). The present study firstly confirmed that the frequency of null GSTT1 was higher in T2DM patients than in controls, indicating an association of the GSTT1 null genotype and the risk of T2DM in the Chinese population. This result was consistent with studies conducted on the Indian population (21), Egyptian population (35) and Japanese population (36). Considering the activity of GSTs in the detoxification of oxidative stress products and the low levels of antioxidant enzymes expressed by  $\beta$ -cells, deletion polymorphism of GSTT1 could contribute to susceptibility to T2DM (19), which was confirmed by the finding in our research. In vitro studies have revealed decreased expression of GSTA and GSTM in adipose tissues of obese insulin-resistant C57BL/6J mice (37). Furthermore, Liu et al have identified that activation of GST protein (A and M) expression can prevent 4-hydroperoxy-nonanal induced insulin resistance (38). These findings could support the significant association of this SNP with T2DM susceptibility identified in the present study. Therefore, measurement of GSTT1 polymorphism would appear to be valuable in the clinical management of T2DM at the early stages.

However, some studies reported different conclusions and showed that there was no association of null GSTT1 with increasing risk for the development of T2DM (26, 34, 36). In addition, although several studies have reported the association between the deletion polymorphism of GSTT1 and the risk for diabetic retinopathy in ethnic-based populations, controversial results have been identified (17, 36). In this study, we found that the GSTT1-null genotype conferred a 1.8-fold increased risk of T2DM in subjects with and without DR compared to healthy controls. However, there was no significant difference in the frequencies of the GSTT1-null genotype between T2DM patients with and without DR, indicating that

there may be no association between GSTT1 null genotypes and DR in T2DM in the Chinese population. Such discrepancies may result from small sample sizes, ethnicity and methodology. Thus, larger prospective studies of this variant are needed to confirm our findings in the Chinese population.

Considering that GST enzyme activity was significantly lower among individuals with the 105Val allele and that genetic polymorphisms reducing the activity of antioxidant enzymes could increase a person's susceptibility to some disease, it seems that the GSTP1 polymorphism may be associated with susceptibility to T2DM (39, 40). But the molecular mechanisms and physiological functions of GSTs in this pathway is still unknown. It has been reported that the rs614080 SNP near GSTP1 gene was associated with higher BMI and GSTP1 expression levels in subcutaneous adipose tissue in the Mexican population, which indicating the role of GSTP1 in human obesity (41). Moreover, the deficiency of GSTP1 could induce glucose intolerance via JNK (its activation can trigger insulin resistance)-dependent enhancement of hepatic gluconeogenesis (42). These findings could partly provide an explanation for the association between the variant of GSTP1 genotypes and the higher risk of T2DM (20-22). However, the comparison of T2DM patients with healthy controls did not reveal a significant difference in the frequency of GSTP1 genotypes in our study, which was in accordance with previous studies (23, 34, 43, 44). Additionally, no association was observed between the GSTP1 polymorphism and susceptibility to DR in individuals with T2DM in the present study, which was consistent with the existing study (25). These conflicting results may be attributed to the relatively small sample size and different ethnic backgrounds of the participants. Gene-environment interactions may also result in the controversial findings with different populations experiencing various environment, such as pesticide use among individuals with GSTT1 and GSTM1 polymorphisms was associated with an increased risk of renal cell carcinoma (21, 45). Thus, exploring the relationship between GSTP1 polymorphism and the risks of T2DM and DR in different populations is necessary.

For the combined effect of the GSTT1 and GSTP1 genotypes and the risk of progression of T2DM and DR, a significantly higher frequency of combined GSTT1 null genotype and GSTP1 heterozygous (A/G) was observed in the whole T2DM group compared with the control group, which was consistent with previous researches (20). This result manifests the value of investigating the interaction or synergistic effect between each genotype in population studies, which may be more discriminating as risk factors for certain diseases.

It should be noted that there were several limitations. Firstly, the sample size is relatively small in this study. Further large-scale studies are warranted to confirm our findings, especially in respect of the relationship between the GSTP1 polymorphism and DR. Secondly, although the method used for GSTT1 genotype in the present study could be found in previous studies, it was not possible to distinguish homozygous and heterozygous carriers of GSTT1 alleles. Thus, it would be better if genotyping of GSTT1 gene was identified by sequencing in future studies.

## Conclusions

In summary, the frequency of the GSTT1-null genotype was much higher in T2DM patients than in healthy controls, whereas there was no difference in the distribution of GSTT1 polymorphism between T2DM patients with and without DR. Additionally, no association was observed between GSTP1 polymorphisms and the risks for T2DM or DR. In a word, GSTT1 may serve as a candidate gene for T2DM in Chinese populations, which could help clinicians make more effective risk-based decisions and may be worth promoting in future medical research.

## **Declarations**

### **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

The study was approved by the institutional review board of the Second People's Hospital of Yunnan Province and Yunnan University and was conducted in accordance with the principles of the Declaration of Helsinki.

### **Consent for publication**

Not applicable.

### **Availability of data and materials**

The datasets used in the present study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

### **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

### **Funding**

This work was supported by grants from the Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 81760734 and No.31660313), the Natural Science Foundation of Yunnan Province (No.2017FA048), the fund of Diabetic Innovation Team (2019HC002), and the fund of Medical Leader in Yunnan Province (No. L-201609). The corresponding author, Ying Yang, was the founder of all fundings.

### **Authors' contributions**

TCZ and YY were responsible for the planning of the study and revising the manuscript for important intellectual content. XQG and LZ wrote the manuscript and analyzed and interpreted the data. XYX, FX, BX, FYW, XLW, KY, WYT and YP L performed the research. All authors reviewed the manuscript and approved the final draft.

### **Acknowledgements**

Not applicable.

# Abbreviations

T2DM: type 2 diabetes mellitus; DR: diabetic retinopathy; PCR: polymerase chain reaction; GSTs: glutathione S-transferases; PDR: proliferative diabetic retinopathy; NPDR: non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy; NDR: diabetic subjects without clinical signs of diabetic retinopathy; SNP: single nucleotide polymorphism; WHR: waist-to-hip ratio; HDL: high-density lipoprotein; LDL: low density lipoprotein; BUN: blood urea nitrogen; CRE: creatinine; UA: uric acid; HbA1c: glycated hemoglobin; SD: standard deviation; OR: odds ratio; CI: confidence interval; HWE: Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium.

# References

1. Tuomi T, Santoro N, Caprio S, Cai M, Weng J, Groop L. The many faces of diabetes: a disease with increasing heterogeneity. *Lancet*. 2014;383(9922):1084-94.
2. Zimmet P, Alberti KG, Magliano DJ, Bennett PH. Diabetes mellitus statistics on prevalence and mortality: facts and fallacies. *Nature reviews Endocrinology*. 2016;12(10):616-22.
3. Antonioli L, Blandizzi C, Csoka B, Pacher P, Hasko G. Adenosine signalling in diabetes mellitus—pathophysiology and therapeutic considerations. *Nature reviews Endocrinology*. 2015;11(4):228-41.
4. Bonnefond A, Froguel P, Vaxillaire M. The emerging genetics of type 2 diabetes. *Trends in molecular medicine*. 2010;16(9):407-16.
5. Steinthorsdottir V, Thorleifsson G, Sulem P, Helgason H, Grarup N, Sigurdsson A, et al. Identification of low-frequency and rare sequence variants associated with elevated or reduced risk of type 2 diabetes. *Nature genetics*. 2014;46(3):294-8.
6. Morris AP, Voight BF, Teslovich TM, Ferreira T, Segre AV, Steinthorsdottir V, et al. Large-scale association analysis provides insights into the genetic architecture and pathophysiology of type 2 diabetes. *Nature genetics*. 2012;44(9):981-90.
7. Billings LK, Florez JC. The genetics of type 2 diabetes: what have we learned from GWAS? *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*. 2010;1212:59-77.
8. Nowotny K, Jung T, Hohn A, Weber D, Grune T. Advanced glycation end products and oxidative stress in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Biomolecules*. 2015;5(1):194-222.
9. Folli F, Corradi D, Fanti P, Davalli A, Paez A, Giaccari A, et al. The role of oxidative stress in the pathogenesis of type 2 diabetes mellitus micro- and macrovascular complications: avenues for a mechanistic-based therapeutic approach. *Current diabetes reviews*. 2011;7(5):313-24.
10. Baynes JW, Thorpe SR. Role of oxidative stress in diabetic complications: a new perspective on an old paradigm. *Diabetes*. 1999;48(1):1-9.
11. Gallou G, Ruelland A, Legras B, Maugendre D, Allannic H, Cloarec L. Plasma malondialdehyde in type 1 and type 2 diabetic patients. *Clinica chimica acta; international journal of clinical chemistry*. 1993;214(2):227-34.
12. Kowluru RA, Kowluru V, Xiong Y, Ho YS. Overexpression of mitochondrial superoxide dismutase in mice protects the retina from diabetes-induced oxidative stress. *Free radical biology & medicine*.

- 2006;41(8):1191-6.
13. Wang G, Zhang L, Li Q. Genetic polymorphisms of GSTT1, GSTM1, and NQO1 genes and diabetes mellitus risk in Chinese population. *Biochemical and biophysical research communications*. 2006;341(2):310-3.
  14. Hayes JD, Flanagan JU, Jowsey IR. Glutathione transferases. *Annual review of pharmacology and toxicology*. 2005;45:51-88.
  15. Josephy PD. Genetic variations in human glutathione transferase enzymes: significance for pharmacology and toxicology. *Human genomics and proteomics : HGP*. 2010;2010:876940.
  16. Saadat M. Evaluation of glutathione S-transferase P1 (GSTP1) Ile105Val polymorphism and susceptibility to type 2 diabetes mellitus, a meta-analysis. *EXCLI journal*. 2017;16:1188-97.
  17. Dadbinpour A, Sheikhha MH, Darbouy M, Afkhami-Ardekani M. Investigating GSTT1 and GSTM1 null genotype as the risk factor of diabetes type 2 retinopathy. *Journal of diabetes and metabolic disorders*. 2013;12(1):48.
  18. Katoh T, Yamano Y, Tsuji M, Watanabe M. Genetic polymorphisms of human cytosol glutathione S-transferases and prostate cancer. *Pharmacogenomics*. 2008;9(1):93-104.
  19. Pinheiro DS, Rocha Filho CR, Mundim CA, Junior Pde M, Ulhoa CJ, Reis AA, et al. Evaluation of glutathione S-transferase GSTM1 and GSTT1 deletion polymorphisms on type-2 diabetes mellitus risk. *PloS one*. 2013;8(10):e76262.
  20. Stoian A, Banescu C, Balasa RI, Motataianu A, Stoian M, Moldovan VG, et al. Influence of GSTM1, GSTT1, and GSTP1 Polymorphisms on Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and Diabetic Sensorimotor Peripheral Neuropathy Risk. *Disease markers*. 2015;2015:638693.
  21. Mastana SS, Kaur A, Hale R, Lindley MR. Influence of glutathione S-transferase polymorphisms (GSTT1, GSTM1, GSTP1) on type-2 diabetes mellitus (T2D) risk in an endogamous population from north India. *Molecular biology reports*. 2013;40(12):7103-10.
  22. Rao DK, Shaik NA, Imran A, Murthy DK, Ganti E, Chinta C, et al. Variations in the GST activity are associated with single and combinations of GST genotypes in both male and female diabetic patients. *Molecular biology reports*. 2014;41(2):841-8.
  23. Orlewski J, Orlewska E. Effects of genetic polymorphisms of glutathione S-transferase genes (GSTM1, GSTT1, GSTP1) on the risk of diabetic nephropathy: a meta-analysis. *Polskie Archiwum Medycyny Wewnętrznej*. 2015;125(9):649-58.
  24. Petrovic D, Peterlin B. GSTM1-null and GSTT1-null genotypes are associated with essential arterial hypertension in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Clinical biochemistry*. 2014;47(7-8):574-7.
  25. Cilensek I, Mankoc S, Petrovic MG, Petrovic D. GSTT1 null genotype is a risk factor for diabetic retinopathy in Caucasians with type 2 diabetes, whereas GSTM1 null genotype might confer protection against retinopathy. *Disease markers*. 2012;32(2):93-9.
  26. Bid HK, Konwar R, Saxena M, Chaudhari P, Agrawal CG, Banerjee M. Association of glutathione S-transferase (GSTM1, T1 and P1) gene polymorphisms with type 2 diabetes mellitus in north Indian population. *Journal of postgraduate medicine*. 2010;56(3):176-81.

27. Datta SK, Kumar V, Pathak R, Tripathi AK, Ahmed RS, Kalra OP, et al. Association of glutathione S-transferase M1 and T1 gene polymorphism with oxidative stress in diabetic and nondiabetic chronic kidney disease. *Renal failure*. 2010;32(10):1189-95.
28. Alberti KG, Zimmet PZ. Definition, diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus and its complications. Part 1: diagnosis and classification of diabetes mellitus provisional report of a WHO consultation. *Diabetic medicine : a journal of the British Diabetic Association*. 1998;15(7):539-53.
29. Wilkinson CP, Ferris FL, 3rd, Klein RE, Lee PP, Agardh CD, Davis M, et al. Proposed international clinical diabetic retinopathy and diabetic macular edema disease severity scales. *Ophthalmology*. 2003;110(9):1677-82.
30. Gonul N, Kadioglu E, Kocabas NA, Ozkaya M, Karakaya AE, Karahalil B. The role of GSTM1, GSTT1, GSTP1, and OGG1 polymorphisms in type 2 diabetes mellitus risk: a case-control study in a Turkish population. *Gene*. 2012;505(1):121-7.
31. Angthong P, Uengwetwanit T, Pootakham W, Sittikankaew K, Sonthirod C, Sangsrakru D, et al. Optimization of high molecular weight DNA extraction methods in shrimp for a long-read sequencing platform. *PeerJ*. 2020;8:e10340.
32. Li Y. A comparison of tests for Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium in national genetic household surveys. *BMC genetics*. 2013;14:14.
33. Midway S, Robertson M, Flinn S, Kaller M. Comparing multiple comparisons: practical guidance for choosing the best multiple comparisons test. *PeerJ*. 2020;8:e10387.
34. Yalin S, Hatungil R, Tamer L, Ates NA, Dogruer N, Yildirim H, et al. Glutathione S-transferase gene polymorphisms in Turkish patients with diabetes mellitus. *Cell biochemistry and function*. 2007;25(5):509-13.
35. Amer MA, Ghattas MH, Abo-Elmatty DM, Abou-El-Ela SH. Influence of glutathione S-transferase polymorphisms on type-2 diabetes mellitus risk. *Genetics and molecular research : GMR*. 2011;10(4):3722-30.
36. Moasser E, Azarpira N, Shirazi B, Saadat M, Geramizadeh B. Genetic polymorphisms of glutathione-s-transferase M1 and T1 genes with risk of diabetic retinopathy in Iranian population. *Iranian journal of basic medical sciences*. 2014;17(5):351-6.
37. Grimsrud PA, Picklo MJ, Sr., Griffin TJ, Bernlohr DA. Carbonylation of adipose proteins in obesity and insulin resistance: identification of adipocyte fatty acid-binding protein as a cellular target of 4-hydroxynonenal. *Molecular & cellular proteomics : MCP*. 2007;6(4):624-37.
38. Liu KL, Kuo WC, Lin CY, Lii CK, Liu YL, Cheng YH, et al. Prevention of 4-hydroxynonenal-induced lipolytic activation by carnolic acid is related to the induction of glutathione S-transferase in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. *Free radical biology & medicine*. 2018;121:1-8.
39. Makuc J, Petrovic D. A review of oxidative stress related genes and new antioxidant therapy in diabetic nephropathy. *Cardiovascular & hematological agents in medicinal chemistry*. 2011;9(4):253-61.

40. Watson MA, Stewart RK, Smith GB, Massey TE, Bell DA. Human glutathione S-transferase P1 polymorphisms: relationship to lung tissue enzyme activity and population frequency distribution. *Carcinogenesis*. 1998;19(2):275-80.
41. Villamil-Ramirez H, Leon-Mimila P, Macias-Kauffer LR, Canizalez-Roman A, Villalobos-Comparan M, Leon-Sicairos N, et al. A combined linkage and association strategy identifies a variant near the GSTP1 gene associated with BMI in the Mexican population. *Journal of human genetics*. 2017;62(3):413-8.
42. Ghosh Dastidar S, Jagatheesan G, Haberzettl P, Shah J, Hill BG, Bhatnagar A, et al. Glutathione S-transferase P deficiency induces glucose intolerance via JNK-dependent enhancement of hepatic gluconeogenesis. *American journal of physiology Endocrinology and metabolism*. 2018;315(5):E1005-E18.
43. Moasser E, Kazemi-Nezhad SR, Saadat M, Azarpira N. Study of the association between glutathione S-transferase (GSTM1, GSTT1, GSTP1) polymorphisms with type II diabetes mellitus in southern of Iran. *Molecular biology reports*. 2012;39(12):10187-92.
44. Amer MA, Ghattas MH, Abo-Elmatty DM, Abou-El-Ela SH. Evaluation of glutathione S-transferase P1 genetic variants affecting type-2 diabetes susceptibility and glycemic control. *Archives of medical science : AMS*. 2012;8(4):631-6.
45. Karami S, Boffetta P, Rothman N, Hung RJ, Stewart T, Zaridze D, et al. Renal cell carcinoma, occupational pesticide exposure and modification by glutathione S-transferase polymorphisms. *Carcinogenesis*. 2008;29(8):1567-71.

## Tables

**Table 1** Characteristics of patients with T2DM with/without DR and healthy controls

	NDR	NPDR	PDR	T2DM	Control
<b>Sample (n)</b>	142	70	124	336	72
<b>Age (years)</b>	54.40±14.20	53.80±13.13	57.20±15.43	52.20±10.31	55.11±11.23
<b>Sex (male/female)</b>	52/58	33/45	54/51	151/142	53/47
<b>Duration of diabetes (months)</b>	87.21±55.08	104.85±65.02	124.65±58.11	92.65±73.26*	0
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	24.56±3.37	25.27±3.65	25.02±3.34	24.89±3.45*	22.41±2.12
<b>WHR</b>	0.92±0.07	0.94±0.07	0.93±0.06	0.93±0.07*	0.82±0.01
<b>SBP (mmHg)</b>	129.51±16.95	134.63±19.89	142.32±19.89	134.67±19.36	120.21±14.21
<b>DBP (mmHg)</b>	81.94±10.35	81.99±12.28	85.66±10.88	83.02±11.17	79.30±9.24
<b>HbA1c(%)</b>	9.08±2.45	9.75±2.42	9.44±2.21	9.38±2.38*	5.52±0.43
<b>Total cholesterol (mmol/L)</b>	4.79±1.29	5.06±1.38	5.34±1.64	4.70±1.21*	3.41±1.21
<b>Triglyceride (mmol/L)</b>	3.26±3.33	2.58±2.41†	2.41±1.45†	3.52±2.32*	1.61±0.32
<b>HDL-C (mmol/L)</b>	1.01±0.65	0.98±0.24	1.01±0.13	1.01±0.46	0.86±0.25
<b>LDL-C (mmol/L)</b>	2.44±0.92	2.67±0.91	2.72±0.93	2.59±0.93*	2.18±0.52
<b>BUN (mmol/L)</b>	5.27±2.24	5.71±2.25	7.34±3.14†	5.84±0.81*	4.32±2.23

UA (umol/L)	349.62±102.17	354.39±105.94	368.02±94.24	356.43±102.34*	307.60±26.11
CRE (umol/L)	71.64±26.29	73.08±38.54†	103.85±76.32†	84.47±55.57*	67.96±6.04

Data were expressed as mean ± standard deviation (SD). \*,  $P \leq 0.05$  compared with normal group. †,  $P \leq 0.01$  compared with NDR group.

T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus; DR, diabetic retinopathy; NDR, diabetic subjects without clinical signs of diabetic retinopathy; NPDR, subjects with non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy; PDR, subjects with proliferative diabetic retinopathy; BMI, body mass index; WHR, waist to hip ratio; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; HbA1c, glycated hemoglobin; HDL-C, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL-C, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; BUN, blood urea nitrogen; CRE, creatinine.

**Table 2** Genotype and allele distributions of GSTP1 between T2DM patients with/without DR and healthy controls

		Genotype frequency						Allele frequency	
		<i>n</i> (%)						<i>n</i> (%)	
		AA	GA/GG	GA	GG/AA	GG	GA/AA	A	G
(1)	<b>T2DM</b>	152(76)	47(24)	30(15)	169(85)	17(9)	182(91)	334(84)	64(16)
	<b>Control</b>	47(76)	15(25)	13(21)	49(79)	2(3)	60(97)	107(86)	17(14)
	<b><i>P</i></b>	0.88		0.27		0.16		0.52	
	<b>OR (95%CI)</b>	1.04(0.63-1.73)		0.93(0.81-1.07)		1.06(0.99-1.13)		0.83(0.47-1.48)	
(2)	<b>DR</b>	90(79)	24(21)	15(13)	99(87)	9(8)	105(92)	195(86)	33(14)
	<b>NDR</b>	62(73)	23(27)	15(18)	70(82)	8(9)	77(91)	139(82)	31(18)
	<b><i>P</i></b>	0.32		0.38		0.70		0.31	
	<b>OR (95%CI)</b>	1.29(0.78-2.12)		0.95(0.84-1.07)		0.98(0.90-1.07)		1.32(0.77-2.25)	

Data were presented as number (n) and percentage (%) of observations.

AA, individuals carrying the homozygous AA in the GSTP1 gene; GA, individuals carrying the heterozygous GA in the GSTP1 gene; GG, individuals carrying the homozygous GG in the GSTP1 gene; DR, diabetic retinopathy; NDR, diabetic subjects without clinical signs of diabetic retinopathy; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.

**Table 3** Genotype distributions of GSTT1 between T2DM patients with/without DR and healthy controls

Group	Genotype distributions <i>n</i> (%)		$\chi^2$	<i>P</i>	OR (95%CI)
	Null	Present			
(1) Control	25(34.72)	47(65.28)	5.13	<b>0.02</b>	1.84(1.08-3.12)
T2DM	166(49.41)	170(50.60)			
(2) Control	25(34.72)	47(65.28)	4.51	<b>0.03</b>	1.88(1.05-3.38)
NDR	71(50.00)	71(50.00)			
(3) NDR	71(50.00)	71(50.00)	0.61	0.43	0.80(0.45-1.4)
NPDR	31(44.29)	39(55.71)			
(4) NDR	71(50.00)	71(51.00)	0.07	0.79	1.07(0.66-1.73)
PDR	64(51.61)	60(48.39)			
(5) NPDR	31(44.29)	39(55.71)	0.96	0.33	1.34(0.75-2.42)
PDR	64(51.61)	60(48.39)			
(6) NDR	71(50.00)	71(51.00)	0.04	0.85	0.96(0.62-1.48)
DR	95(48.97)	99(51.03)			

Data were expressed as number (n) and percentage of observations.

T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus; DR, diabetic retinopathy; NDR, diabetic subjects without clinical signs of diabetic retinopathy; NPDR, subjects with non-proliferative diabetic retinopathy; PDR, subjects with proliferative diabetic retinopathy.

OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.

**Table 4** Combination of distributions of GSTP1 and GSTT1 in T2DM patients with/without DR and healthy controls

Genotypes	(1)				(2)			
	T2DM <i>n</i> (%)	Control <i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i>	OR (95%CI)	NDR <i>n</i> (%)	DR <i>n</i> (%)	<i>P</i>	OR (95%CI)
<b>T1(+)</b> GG	6(3.22)	1(2.00)	0.55	0.60(0.10- 3.70)	5(5.88)	6(5.17)	0.85	0.95(0.55- 1.65)
<b>T1(+)</b> AG	72(38.71)	25(50.00)	0.56	1.14(0.74- 1.78)	23(27.06)	41(35.34)	0.18	1.18(0.93- 1.51)
<b>T1(+)</b> AA	12(6.45)	7(14.00)	0.16	1.62(0.86- 3.05)	5(5.88)	9(7.76)	0.58	1.13(0.75- 1.71)
<b>T1(-)</b> GG	9(4.84)	1(2.00)	0.30	0.41(0.06- 2.68)	3(3.53)	5(4.31)	0.29	1.29(0.88- 1.89)
<b>T1(-)</b> AG	75(40.32)	10(20.00)	<b>0.02</b>	0.40(0.21- 0.74)	39(45.88)	49(42.24)	0.68	0.95(0.75- 1.21)
<b>T1(-)</b> AA	12(6.45)	6(12.00)	0.32	1.45(0.72- 2.89)	10(11.76)	6(5.17)	0.10	0.64(0.33- 1.21)

Data were expressed as number (n) and percentage of observations.

T1(+), the GSTT1 gene was present in individuals; T1(-), the GSTT1 gene was null in individuals. T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus; DR, diabetic retinopathy; NDR, diabetic subjects without clinical signs of diabetic retinopathy; OR, odds ratio; CI, confidence interval.