

The role of nitrate, nitrite and N-nitrosamines in carcinogenesis of colon tumours following ureterosigmoidostomy

T. Kälble¹, A. R. Tricker², K. Möhring¹, M. R. Berger², H. Geiss³, and G. Staehler¹

¹ Urological Department, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg,

² Institute of Toxicology and Chemotherapy, German Cancer Research Center, Heidelberg, and

³ Institute of Hygienics, University of Heidelberg, Heidelberg, FRG

Accepted: April 1, 1989

Summary. Urinary diversion in both a rat model for ureterosigmoidostomy and in ureterosigmoidostomy patients result in an increased incidence of colon tumours. Bacterial and chemical investigations on feces-urine mixtures from both the rat model and ureterosigmoidostomy patients showed the presence of a complex nitrate-reducing bacterial flora in both rats and humans. This bacterial flora actively reduced urinary nitrate to nitrite in humans and increased the endogenous formation of N-nitroso compounds. No evidence of urinary nitrate reduction and increased nitrosamine formation in the rectosigmoid of rats was found. The results support the N-nitrosamine theory of carcinogenesis of the colon following ureterosigmoidostomy in humans, but not in rats. As the rat model induces colon carcinomas, factors other than the increased endogenous formation of N-nitroso compounds in the rectosigmoid may contribute to the initiation of colon carcinomas following ureterosigmoidostomy.

Key words: Ureterosigmoidostomy – Colon carcinoma – Carcinogenesis – Nitrosamines

Ureterosigmoidostomy as a means of urinary diversion has been established worldwide for more than 70 years. This type of diversion is especially favoured for children with bladder exstrophy due to the psychological and social advantages of continence and missing stoma. A recognized complication of ureterosigmoidostomy is the development of adenocarcinomas of the colon at the site of ureterocolic anastomosis as first reported by Hammer in 1929 [18]. In a recent literature review by Stewart [38], 94 cases of such tumours have been published; 54 being adenocarcinomas and 26 adenomas of the colon, 4 urothelial tumours, 1 lymphoma and 8 colonic tumours of unclear classification. At present, at least 100 cases of colon tumours at the ureterocolic anastomosis are known [21, 38]. The incidence of developing colon carcinomas following ureterosigmoidostomy ranges be-

tween 3.5 to 13.3%, resulting in an 80–550 times increased risk as compared to the general population [13, 29, 35, 37, 39, 45]. As a result of this increased risk, several researchers have argued against the use of ureterosigmoidostomy in children [35, 37–39].

Several theories have been postulated to account for the carcinogenesis of colon tumours following ureterosigmoidostomy. These theories include irritative changes of the colonic epithelium caused by urine [16, 27, 35, 45], chronic urothelial irritation by feces, epithelial instability at the borderline between urothelium and colonic epithelium [14] and the influence of fresh colonic sutures exposed to the feces-urine mixture [14]. The theory favoured by most research is the increased formation of N-nitroso compounds in the colon as a result of bacterial reduction of urinary nitrate by the mixed bacterial flora of the intestine and bacterially catalyzed nitrosation of endogenous amines present in both feces and urine [4, 6, 37, 38, 40].

The following study was designed to investigate both the N-nitrosamine theory in ureterosigmoidostomy patients [36] and in a recognized animal model for ureterosigmoidostomy [5, 14]. Furthermore, the potential prophylaxis of colon carcinomas after ureterosigmoidostomy was investigated using the uroprotector sodium-2-mercaptoethanesulphonate (mesna) and the urothelial surfactant sodiumpentosanpolysulphate.

Materials and methods

Patients and human studies

Samples of rectal feces-urine mixtures were obtained from 24 ureterosigmoidostomy patients with a mean observation period of 13 years (2–46 years) attending the Urology Department of the University of Heidelberg for routine follow-up observation. Rectal feces-urine samples were obtained for chemical analysis of nitrate, nitrite, volatile and nonvolatile N-nitroso compounds. Aerobic bacterial assays were obtained from the colon contents of 18 of the 24 patients. A control group of 20 healthy volunteers without urinary diversions was obtained from the scientific staff of the German Cancer Research Center.

Table 1. Nitrate, nitrite, N-nitrosamines in urine-feces mixture from 24 ureterosigmoidostomy patients

	NO ₂ μmol/l	NO ₃ mmol/l	NDMA nmol/l	NPIP nmol/l	NPYR nmol/l	NMOR nmol/l	NSAR nmol/l	NMPA nmol/l	NAzCA nmol/l	NPRO nmol/l	NTCA nmol/l	NMTCA nmol/l	Total nmol/l
Positive:	20	23	24	7	11	8	20	7	3	24	24	24	24
Mean:	31.43	0.25	5.31	0.90	2.08	1.13	8.37	1.12	0.61	22.37	41.62	14.40	97.90
S.D.:	40.82	0.24	4.79	1.54	2.79	1.94	7.88	2.20	1.83	18.72	28.15	18.08	66.54
Range:													
Lower:	0	0	1.35	0	0	0	0	0	0	2.78	8.02	0.57	20.51
Upper:	147.83	0.92	20.30	4.39	10.0	7.33	25.76	8.22	7.69	85.42	114.81	69.32	290.97

Animals and experimental studies

One hundred and thirty outbred Wistar rats (Hanover, FRG), 200 g body weight at the start of the experiment were kept under conventional conditions (two animals per Makrolon III cage; temperature $23 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$; relative humidity $55 \pm 10\%$; illumination period 12 h/day). All animals received a low, nitrosamine diet (1,320 N Altromin, Lage, FRG). Animals ($n = 120$) were operated using a procedure similar to that described by Crissey and Gittes [5, 14]. The bladder neck was ligated, the bladder dome excised and anastomosis of the remaining patch and intact bladder trigonum to an opening cut in the anterior wall of the rectosigmoid. According to the recommendation of Gittes [14], rats received continuous antibiotic coverage (carbenicilline-indanyl, 127 mg/l in drinking water) to avoid ascending pyelonephritis and perianal ulceration. The calculated dose based on an average consumption of 30 ml drinking water per day was 19.1 mg/Kg/day. Two days after operation the rats were prospectively randomized into 3 groups of 40 animals. Group I acted as a control and received only continued antibiotic coverage. Group II animals received the uroprotector sodium-2-mercaptoethanesulphonate (Mesna) at a dose of 350 mg/kg/day, group III received the urothelial surfactant sodium pentosanpoly-sulphate (30 mg/kg/day). Group IV consisted of the remaining 10 animals which acted as an unoperated control group.

Feces-urine mixtures were randomly selected and aerobically cultured 4–247 days postoperatively from 14 animals in groups I and III and from 18 animals in group II. Feces samples were aerobically cultured from all 10 controls animals in group IV.

Collection and storage of urine and feces samples

Human samples. Mid-morning rectal feces-urine samples were collected in polyethylene containers containing 4 ml 2.5 M sodium hydroxide and 1 mM 2-(ethylmercurymercapto)benzoic acid (Janssen Chimica, Brüggen, FRG) to prevent artefact nitrosamine formation and bacterial growth. The samples were centrifuged at 5,000 r.p.m. for 30 mins at 10°C to separate solid feces and the clear supernatant removed for analysis.

Rat samples. Feces-urine samples were collected over 24-hours using metabolic cages to which 10 ml of 2.5 M sodium hydroxide containing 1 mM 2-(ethylmercurymercapto)benzoic acid and 1 mM morpholine (as a control for artefact formation) was added to the sample collection tubes prior to sample collection. After 24-hours, the metal cages were washed down with a further 5 ml of water. The feces-urine mixture was made up to 50 ml in volume with distilled water, thoroughly mixed and centrifuged as above to obtain a clear supernatant for analysis.

Urinary analysis of nitrate, nitrite and N-nitroso compounds

The analysis of nitrate, nitrite and volatile N-nitroso compounds was made using previously reported methods [44]. Nonvolatile N-

nitrosamino acids were analyzed using N-nitrosoisonipecotic acid (NiNIP) as an internal standard instead of N-nitrosoazetidine-4-carboxylic acid (NAzCA) as previously reported [44]. Additional gas chromatographic methods [43] were used to confirm the presence of nonvolatile N-nitrosamino acids in rectal urine samples.

Statistical analysis

Comparison of nitrate, nitrite and nitrosamine concentration in human urine was made using the two-tailed rank sum test according to Wilcoxon. Results obtained from animal experiments were evaluated using the exact test of Fisher.

Abbreviations of N-nitroso compounds:

NDMA	N-Nitrosodimethylamine
NDEA	N-Nitrosodiethylamine
NPIP	N-Nitrosopiperidine
NPYR	N-Nitrosopyrrolidine
NMOR	N-Nitrosomorpholine
NAzCA	N-Nitrosoazetidine-4-carboxylic acid
NiNIP	N-Nitrosoisonipecotic acid
NSAR	N-Nitrososarcosine
NMPA	3-(N-Nitroso-N-methylamino)propionic acid
NPRO	N-Nitrosoproline
NTCA	N-Nitrosothiazolidine-4-carboxylic acid
NMTCA	N-Nitroso-2-methylthiazolidine-4-carboxylic acid
NHPRO	N-Nitrosohydroxyproline

Results

Human studies

The concentrations of nitrate, nitrite and N-nitrosamines in the rectal feces-urine mixtures of 24 ureterosigmoidostomy patients are presented in Table 1 and the concentrations in urine samples from 20 control volunteers in Table 2. Urinary nitrite was not detected in 20 control urine samples whereas in rectal feces-urine samples from ureterosigmoidostomy patients a mean nitrite concentration of $31.43 \pm 40.82 \mu\text{mol/l}$ (range 0–147.83 $\mu\text{mol/l}$) was found. The mean nitrate concentration of $0.25 \pm 0.24 \text{ mmol/l}$ (range 0–0.92 mmol/l) in ureterosigmoidostomy patients was significantly lower ($p < 0.001$) than the mean concentration of $0.93 \pm 0.39 \text{ mmol/l}$ (range 0.33–1.82 mmol/l) found in control urine samples.

N-Nitrosodimethylamine (NDMA) was the only volatile nitrosamine detected, and was present in two urine samples in the control group at a concentration of 2.68 nmol/l in both urine samples, this level was signifi-

Table 2. Nitrate, nitrite, N-nitrosamines in urine from 20 control volunteers

	NO ₂ mmol/l	NO ₃ mmol/l	NDMA nmol/l	NDEA nmol/l	NPIP nmol/l	NPYR nmol/l	NSAR nmol/l	NPRO nmol/l	NTCA nmol/l	NMTCA nmol/l	Total nmol/l
Positive:	0	20	2	0	0	0	13	20	20	20	20
Mean:	0	0.93	0.22	0	0	0	2.29	9.69	24.95	20.19	57.33
S.D.:	0	0.39	0.70	0	0	0	2.34	3.12	16.34	18.55	33.87
Range:											
Lower:	0	0.33	0	0	0	0	0	5.45	6.14	7.62	25.16
Upper:	0	1.82	2.68	0	0	0	9.61	17.90	63.63	87.28	178.42

Table 3. Bacterial status of 18 ureterosigmoidostomy patients

	Proteus	Entero- cocci	Klebs.	E. coli	Citrob	Morgan morg.	Strepto- cocci	Aerobes spp.	Pseudo- monas	Staph. coagul
Positive:	3/18 16.7%	11/18 61.1%	6/18 33.3%	16/18 88.9%	3/18 16.7%	1/18 5.6%	2/18 11.1%	4/18 22.2%	1/18 5.6%	2/18 11.1%
CFU	10 ⁶ /g	10 ⁵ /g	10 ⁴ /g							
Positive:	13/18 72.2%	4/18 22.2%	1/18 5.6%							

CFU = Colony forming units

cantly increased to 5.31 ± 4.79 nmol/l (range 1.35–20.32 nmol/l) in ureterosigmoidostomy patients. Rectal urine samples also contained N-nitrosopiperidine (NPIP) at a mean concentration of 0.90 ± 1.54 nmol/l in 7/24 samples (range 0–4.39 nmol/l), N-nitrosopyrrolidine (NPYR) at a mean concentration of 2.08 ± 2.79 nmol/l in 11/24 samples (range 0–10.0 nmol/l) and N-nitrosomorpholine (NMOR) at a mean concentration of 1.13 ± 1.94 nmol/l in 8/24 samples (range 0–7.33 nmol/l).

A similar significant increase was found for the excretion of nonvolatile N-nitrosamino acids in ureterosigmoidostomy patients. N-Nitrosoarcosine (NSAR) was increased from 2.29 ± 2.34 nmol/l to 8.37 ± 7.88 nmol/l ($p < 0.009$), N-nitrosoproline (NPRO) from 9.69 ± 3.12 nmol/l to 22.37 ± 18.72 nmol/l ($p < 0.0001$) and N-nitrosothiazolidine-4-carboxylic acid (NTCA) from 24.95 ± 16.34 nmol/l to 41.62 ± 28.15 nmol/l ($p < 0.017$). a significant decrease in the excretion of N-nitroso-2-methylthiazolidine-4-carboxylic acid (NMTCA) from 20.19 ± 18.55 nmol/l in the control group to 14.40 ± 18.08 nmol/l in ureterosigmoidostomy patients ($p < 0.017$) was found. In addition to these nonvolatile N-nitroso compounds, 1.12 ± 2.20 nmol/l 3-(N-nitroso-N-methylamino)propionic acid (NMPA) and 0.61 ± 1.83 nmol/l N-nitrosoazetidine-4-carboxylic acid (NAzCA) were found in 3 and 7 rectal urine samples, respectively. The total concentration of both volatile and nonvolatile N-nitroso compounds was significantly increased from 57.33 ± 33.87 nmol/l (range 25.16–178.42 nmol/l) in the control group to 97.90 ± 66.54 nmol/l (range 20.51–290.97 nmol/l) in ureterosigmoidostomy patients ($p < 0.0052$).

Aerobic rectal feces-urine mixture cultures from ureterosigmoidostomy patients showed mixed bacterial flora in 94.4% (17/18) of the patients. In 94.4% (17/18) of patients, at least one strain of nitrate-reducing bacteria (Proteus mirabilis or vulgaris, Klebsiella pneumoniae or oxytoca and E. coli) was detected. The bacterial count was 10^6 colony forming units (CFU)/g in 72.2% (13/18), 10^5 CFU/g in 22% (4/18) and 10^4 CFU/g in 5.6% (1/18) of the rectal feces-urine samples (Table 3).

Animal studies

The concentrations of nitrate, nitrite and N-nitrosamines in the feces-urine mixture of operated animals (Groups I–III) and urine of unoperated rats (group IV) are shown in Table 4. The mean nitrate concentration of $918 \mu\text{g}/24 \text{ h}$ (range 395–1,345 $\mu\text{g}/24 \text{ h}$) and the mean nitrite concentration of $57 \mu\text{g}/24 \text{ h}$ (range 0–396 $\mu\text{g}/24 \text{ h}$) in the control urine samples (group IV) were significantly higher ($p < 10^{-6}$ – 10^{-8}) than in the feces-urine mixtures of the operated animals in groups I–III. Nitrate and nitrite were not detected in the feces of control animals in group IV. No significant differences in the nitrate and nitrite concentrations in feces-urine mixtures of operated animals in groups I–III were observed 5 days, 3 and 8 months following ureterosigmoidostomy.

There was no significant differences between the NDMA concentrations found in feces-urine mixtures in groups I–III and the separately collected feces and urine samples from animals in group IV. The mean levels of NDMA found were between 5.2 and 10.5 ng/24 h (range

Table 4. Nitrate, nitrite, N-nitrosamines in urine-feces from rats

	5 days			3 months			8 months		
	Nitrate (µg/day)	Nitrite (µg/day)	NDMA (ng/day)	Nitrate (µg/day)	Nitrite (µg/day)	MDMA (ng/day)	Nitrate (µg/day)	Nitrite (µg/day)	MDMA (ng/day)
<i>Group 1</i>									
Mean	8.04	3.21	9.80	28.5	12.0	8.75	1.0	∅	6.13
Positive	18%	14%	100%	50%	50%	100%	5%	∅	100%
Range	0–121	0–48	5–23.5	0–125	0–60	5–22.5	0–20	∅	2.5–12.5
<i>Group 2</i>									
Mean	19.7	6.7	8.82	6.42	0.83	7.08	∅	∅	5.25
Positive	21%	18%	97%	25%	8%	100%	∅	∅	95%
Range	0–175	0–67	0–21	0–36	0–10	5–10	∅	∅	10.0
<i>Group 3</i>									
Mean	13.69	1.88	9.05	11.27	10.91	8.64	8	∅	6.5
Positive	16%	16%	97%	36%	36%	100%	20%	∅	100%
Range	0–190	0–20	0–18	0–47	0–40	5–17.5	0–40	∅	5–7.5
<i>Group 4 (urine)</i>									
Mean	–	–	–	918	57	10.5	–	–	–
Positive	–	–	–	100%	95%	100%	–	–	–
Range	–	–	–	395–1345	0–396	7.5–15	–	–	–
<i>Group 4 (feces)</i>									
Mean	–	–	–	∅	∅	9.2	–	–	–
Positive	–	–	–	∅	∅	100%	–	–	–
Range	–	–	–	∅	∅	5–12.5	–	–	–

Group 1 = operated control (untreated); Group 2 = Mesna; Group 3 = Natriumpentosanpolysulphate; Group 4 = unoperated control

0–23.5 ng/24 h), the limit of detection was 2.5 ng/24 h. Analysis of randomly selected urine samples from control animals (group IV) and feces-urine mixtures from animals in groups I–III did not show the presence of nonvolatile N-nitroso compounds (e.g. NPRO and NSAR), the limit of detection was 0.1 µg/24 h. Aerobic cultures of feces-urine mixtures from animals in groups I–III and of feces from the control animals in group IV showed complex mixed bacterial flora containing *E. coli*, *Proteus*, *Enterococcus*, *Klebsiella*, *Aerococcus* spp., *Aerobe* spp., *Lactobacillus* spp., *Staph. spp.*, *Staph. aureus* and non-haemolysing *Streptococcus* (Table 5). The total bacterial counts in the four groups ranged from 10⁵ to 10⁷ CFU/g feces-urine mixture. There was no significant differences between the incidence of occurrence of *E. coli* in the operated animals (groups I–III) and the control group ($p > 0.2$). The occurrence of *Proteus* spp. in 64.3% (9/14) of the animals treated with sodiumpentosanpolysulphate in group III was significantly ($p = 0.05$) smaller than the 100% occurrence found in feces only cultures from control animals in group IV. No significant difference was found between the occurrence of *Proteus* spp. in control group IV and groups I and II ($p > 0.2$). *Klebsiella* was found in all operated animal groups, but was absent from the feces of control animals. In 100% (46/46) of the operated animals, at least one strain of nitrate reducing bacteria (*E. coli*, *Proteus* or *Klebsiella*) was found.

Discussion

The organotropic carcinogenic effects of different N-nitroso compounds in experimental animals and their metabolism are well understood [30]. In the rat, almost quantitative absorption of ingested doses of nonvolatile N-nitrosamines occurs in the upper gastrointestinal tract and 96–98% of an administered dose of NPRO, NSAR and N-nitrosohydroxyproline (NHPRO) is excreted unchanged in urine or feces [7, 28]. Following gastrointestinal absorption, volatile nitrosamines such as NDMA and NPYR are metabolically detoxified in the liver where they are also potent hepatocarcinogens [30], excretion of volatile nitrosamines does not usually occur in feces and/or urine [1, 12, 23].

The concentrations of nonvolatile N-nitrosamino acids found in urine samples from control volunteers (Table 2) are within the normally reported range [42, 44, 46]. The presence of trace levels of NDMA in two human urine samples cannot be explained. It may be speculated that the very low concentrations of NDMA (ca. 10 ng/24 h) found in urine samples from control animals (Table 4) may have resulted from the dropping of rat diet containing traces of NDMA into the urine collection containers during the collection period. This observation is supported by the fact that the rat diet was routinely analysed at monthly intervals during the experimental period and found to contain a mean concentration of 1.4 µg/kg NDMA (range 1.1–1.9 µg/kg). On three occa-

Table 5. Bacterial status of rats

	<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Proteus</i>	<i>Enterococci</i>	<i>Klebs.</i>	<i>Aerococcus spp.</i>	<i>Lactobacillus</i>	<i>Staph. spp.</i>	<i>Streptococci</i>	<i>Aerobes spp.</i>
Group 1, 14 Animals									
Positive: <i>n</i>	13	11	14	4	4	11	7	4	0
%	92.9	78.6	100	28.6	28.6	78.6	50	28.6	0
CFU: <i>Median</i>	2×10^7	5.3×10^5	1.8×10^8	1.3×10^6	5.7×10^5	1.3×10^3	6.3×10^6	1.6×10^9	0
Range: <i>Lower</i>	1.3×10^3	4.3×10^2	3.7×10^6	5.3×10^4	9.1×10^4	1.6×10^7	3.7×10^4	3.3×10^7	0
<i>Upper</i>	1.1×10^{10}	1.3×10^{10}	9.3×10^9	3.5×10^9	1.1×10^6	3.3×10^{10}	5.3×10^7	9.3×10^9	0
Group 2, 18 Animals									
Positive: <i>n</i>	18	18	18	9	8	11	16	8	2
%	100	100	100	50	44.4	61.1	88.9	44.4	11.1
CFU: <i>Median</i>	2×10^7	2.9×10^6	1.7×10^8	5.3×10^5	9.3×10^5	1.8×10^8	1.4×10^6	7.5×10^7	8.7×10^3
Range: <i>Lower</i>	4.5×10^2	3.4×10^3	4.2×10^6	1.7×10^4	7.2×10^4	1.4×10^6	7.2×10^4	1.4×10^7	2×10^2
<i>Upper</i>	1.9×10^{10}	1.2×10^{10}	2×10^{10}	3.7×10^8	2×10^8	1.4×10^{10}	2.3×10^8	2×10^{10}	1.7×10^4
Group 3, 14 Animals									
Positive: <i>n</i>	14	9	14	12	2	6	7	2	3
%	100	64.3	100	85.7	14.3	42.9	50	14.3	21.4
CFU: <i>Median</i>	9.3×10^7	4.6×10^6	6.3×10^8	3×10^6	5.8×10^6	5.6×10^8	1.8×10^6	7.5×10^7	6.9×10^7
Range: <i>Lower</i>	2.8×10^4	2.8×10^4	5.3×10^6	5.3×10^4	1.7×10^6	8.5×10^7	2.8×10^5	5.3×10^6	8×10^6
<i>Upper</i>	1.7×10^{10}	1.5×10^9	2.4×10^9	1.8×10^{10}	8.8×10^6	9.8×10^{10}	8.3×10^6	1.5×10^8	1.3×10^8
Group 4 (feces), 10 Animals									
Positive: <i>n</i>	10	10	10	0	1	7	8	0	4
%	100	100	100	0	10	70	80	0	40
CFU: <i>Median</i>	1.6×10^6	2.6×10^5	10×10^5	0	6.3×10^4	3.2×10^{10}	2.8×10^5	0	2.8×10^4
Range: <i>Lower</i>	3.2×10^4	1.6×10^4	8.5×10^4	0	—	1.9×10^{10}	8.5×10^3	0	1.6×10^3
<i>Upper</i>	5.1×10^7	2×10^6	3.2×10^6	0	—	7.7×10^{10}	2×10^6	0	5.6×10^4

CFU = Colony forming units

Group 1 = operated control (untreated); Group 2 = Mesna; Group 3 = Natriumpentosanpolysulphate; Group 4 = unoperated control

sions, NPYR was also found in the rat diet at concentrations between 0.1–0.4 µg/kg and traces of NPYR were also determined in urine samples collected from animals receiving diets containing NPYR.

The urinary excretion of nonvolatile N-nitroso compounds depends mainly on the dietary nitrate burden [24, 28, 42]. However experimental studies have shown that humans maintained on nitrate-free diets continues to excrete significant concentrations (26 ± 10 nmol/l) of endogenously formed N-nitroso compounds [46]. This suggests that endogenous sources of nitrate and nitrite produced by intestinal microorganisms [15, 17], peritoneal macrophages [11, 19, 20, 26, 41] and the oxidation of ammonia in the liver [10, 33] may also be involved in the endogenous formation of N-nitroso compounds. Approximately 60–70% of the ingested nitrate burden is excreted in the urine and only about 1% in feces [2]. In our investigations, we found mean urinary nitrate concentrations of 0.93 mmol/l in unoperated humans (Table 2) and 918 µg/24 h in unoperated rats. In the feces of unoperated control rats, no nitrate could be detected (Table 4).

Stewart [36, 38] first described a 10 fold increase in the excretion of 570 nmol/l total N-nitroso compounds in the urine-feces mixture of ureterosigmoidostomy patients compared to a total excretion of 56.8 nmol/l N-nitroso compounds in normal urines from healthy volunteers. On the basis of the results, and the fact that the concentrations of total N-nitroso compounds in rectal urine samples

positively correlated with the total bacterial counts for nitrate-reducing organisms, Stewart postulated that the formation of N-nitroso compounds from bacterially reduced urinary nitrate and endogenous amines in feces could be a possible explanation for colon carcinoma induction following ureterosigmoidostomy.

The increased endogenous formation of N-nitroso compounds in ureterosigmoidostomy patients and the increased risk of colon cancer is in many ways analogous to the situation in patients with chronic bacterial infections of the urinary tract [8, 31] or bilharziosis [44] in which an increased risk for bladder cancer occurs. Stewart's theory [36, 38] is supported by in vivo and in vitro experiments which show the formation of N-nitroso compounds from amines and nitrite by intestinal microorganisms [3, 22, 24, 48]. Using the rat model of Crissey and Gittes for ureterosigmoidostomy [5, 14], Cohen et al. [4] reported elevated concentrations of up to 0.275 µg/ml NDMA in the feces-urine mixture of operated rats as well as the formation of 0.15 µg/ml NDMA during in vitro incubation of rat urine and feces.

Our investigations on ureterosigmoidostomy patients show significant increases in the concentrations of nitrite and N-nitroso compounds, a significant decrease in nitrate and the presence of a mixed bacterial flora of nitrate-reducing bacteria in feces-urine mixtures compared to normal urine samples from control volunteers providing additional support for Stewart's nitrosamine

theory for carcinogenesis following ureterosigmoidostomy [36, 38]. Our results for investigations using experimental animals do not agree with the previously published results of Cohen et al. [4, 40]. The analysis of N-nitroso compounds in feces and biological samples has been a contentious area of research prone to problems arising from artefact nitrosamine formation and sample contamination [1]. In early investigations on human feces, Wang et al. [47] reported both NDMA and N-nitroso-diethylamine (NDEA) to be present in normal human feces, a finding which could not be validated by several other working groups [1, 12, 23] who suggested that the analytical method used resulted in artefactual nitrosamine formation. We have used established analytical methods to stabilize biological samples (the addition of sodium hydroxide as well as 2-(ethylmercurymercapto)benzoic acid as an antibacterial agent) and prevent artefact nitrosamine formation in addition to using a marker amine (morpholine) to check for artefact formation during sample collection and analysis. Analysis was also performed using a N-nitroso compound-specific detector (Thermal Energy Analyser). In the previously reported results by Cohen et al. [4] and Stribling et al. [40], feces-urine mixtures were not collected using suitable methods to prevent artefactual nitrosamine formation and a non-specific detection method was also used for the analysis of N-nitroso compounds. These differences in analytical methodology may well explain the contradictory results obtained in the two studies.

The absence of an increased excretion of nitrite and N-nitroso compounds in feces-urine mixtures from rats with ureterosigmoidostomy in contrast to humans with ureterosigmoidostomy may be due to the fact that nitrite as well as N-nitroso compounds (if formed endogenously) in the rat are almost totally absorbed in the rectosigmoid. In addition to which, nitrate and nitrite are metabolized by intestinal bacteria present in the rat [32, 34, 49–52]. In ureterosigmoidostomy patients, differences in the diet and availability of endogenous amines, as well as differences in the absorption characteristics of the rectosigmoid, may be responsible for the increased excretion of nitrate, nitrite and N-nitroso compounds in rectal urine samples as compared to the situation found in experimental animals.

An alternative explanation is that endogenous nitrosation does not occur in the rectosigmoid of rats with ureterosigmoidostomy. This theory is supported by both Lee's [23] *in vitro* and Mallet's [24, 25] *in vivo* experiments showing that nitrosation of amines by nitrite is not supported by an anaerobic intestinal bacterial flora. Nevertheless, adenocarcinomas of the colon at the urointestinal anastomosis in the rat model of Crissey et al. [5] and Gittes et al. [14] occur in both our experiments (unpublished results) and in the experiments of other authors [4–6, 14]. Failure to detect an increased level of endogenous nitrosamine formation in the rat rectosigmoid indicates that other factors may influence colon carcinogenesis following ureterosigmoidostomy such as the presence of fresh colonic sutures or instability of the borderline between colon epithelium and urothelium [14].

In conclusion, factors other than the endogenous formation of N-nitrosamines in the human rectosigmoid

seem to contribute to the induction of colon carcinomas following urosigmoidostomy. If this were not the case, the development of carcinomas only at the ureterocolonic anastomosis [6, 13, 14, 18, 21, 29, 35–40], and the protective effects of either an initial colostomy or the inter-position of ileum between urothelium and colon epithelium [14] could not be explained. Whilst the N-nitrosamine theory [36, 38] cannot be rejected and experimental evidence in human studies clearly show the increased endogenous formation of N-nitroso compounds, none of the detected nitrosamines found in feces-urine mixtures from both humans and rats has been shown to induce colon carcinomas in experimental animals [9, 30].

With regard to the excellent urological long-term results and the psychosocial advantages of ureterosigmoidostomy, especially in children and in Third World countries, further investigations concerning the carcinogenesis and prophylaxis of carcinomas following ureterosigmoidostomy in comparison to other methods for urinary diversion are necessary.

Acknowledgements. The authors are indebted to Dr. L. Edler, Institute of Epidemiology and Biometry, German Cancer Research Center, for providing the statistical analysis. The expert technical help of Mrs. D. Theis for the animal experiments is gratefully acknowledged.

References

1. Archer MC, Saul RL, Lee LJ, Bruce WR (1981) Analysis of nitrate, nitrite and nitrosamines in human feces. In: Bruce WR, Correa P, Lipkin M, Tannenbaum SR, Wilkins TD (eds) Banbury report 7 – Gastrointestinal cancer: endogenous factors. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York, p 321
2. Bartholomew B, Hill MJ (1984) The pharmacology of dietary nitrate and the origin of urinary nitrate. *Food Chem Toxicol* 22:789
3. Calmels S, Ohshima H, Rosenkranz H, McCoy E, Bartsch H (1987) Biochemical studies on the catalysis of nitrosation by bacteria. *Carcinogenesis* 8:1085
4. Cohen MS, Hilz ME, Davis CP, Anderson MD (1987) Urinary carcinogen (nitrosamine) production in a rat animal model for ureterosigmoidostomy. *J Urol* 138:449
5. Crissey MM, Steele GD, Gittes RF (1980) Rat model for carcinogenesis in ureterosigmoidostomy. *Science* 207:1079
6. Daher N, Gautier R, Abourachid H, Decaens C, Bara J (1988) Rat colonic carcinogenesis after ureterosigmoidostomy: pathogenesis and immunohistological study. *J Urol* 139:1331
7. Dailey RE, Braunberg RC, Blaschka AM (1975) The absorption, distribution, and excretion of (14C) nitrosoproline by rats. *Toxicology* 3:23
8. Davis CP, Cohen MS, Anderson MD, Gruber MB, Warren MM (1985) Urothelial hyperplasia and neoplasia. II. Detection of nitrosamines and interferon in chronic urinary tract infections in rats. *J Urol* 134:1002
9. Druckrey H, Preussmann R, Ivankovic S, Schmähl D (1967) Carcinogenesis and organotropic action of 65 different N-nitroso compounds in BD rats (in German). *Z Krebsforsch* 69:103
10. Dull BJ, Hotchkiss JH (1984) Activated oxygen and mammalian nitrate biosynthesis. *Carcinogenesis* 5:1161
11. Dull BJ, Gittes RF, Goldman P (1988) Nitrate production and phagocyte activation: differences among Sprague-Dawley, Wistar-Furth and Lewis rats. *Carcinogenesis* 9:625

12. Eisenbrand G, Spiegelhalter B, Preussmann R, (1981) Analysis of human biological samples for nitrosamine content. In: Bruce WR, Correa P, Lipkin M, Tannenbaum SR, Wilkins TD (eds) Banbury report 7 – Gastrointestinal cancer: endogenous factors. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York, p 275
13. Eraklis JA, Folkman MJ (1978) Adenocarcinoma at the site of ureterosigmoidostomies for exstrophy of the bladder. *J Pediatr Surg* 13:730
14. Gittes RF (1986) Carcinogenesis in ureterosigmoidostomy. *Urol Clin North Am* 13:201
15. Gomez RF, Tannenbaum SR, Savoca J, Ralt D, Rockowitz N (1980) Heterotrophic nitrification by intestinal microorganisms. *Cancer* 45:1066
16. Gracey M, Kay R, Bishop RF, Smith ED, Anderson CHM (1971) Mucosal morphology and bacterial flora of ileal conduits. *Invest Urol* 8:596
17. Green LC, Tannenbaum SR, Goldman P (1981) Nitrate synthesis in the germfree and conventional rat. *Science* 212:56
18. Hammer E (1929) Cancer of the sigmoid colon ten years after ureter implantation and bladder exstrophy (in French). *J Urol* 28:260
19. Hibbs JB Jr, Taintor RR, Vavrin Z (1987) Macrophage cytotoxicity: role for L-arginine deiminase and imino nitrogen oxidation to nitrite. *Science* 235:474
20. Iyengar R, Stuehr DJ, Marletta MA (1987) Macrophage synthesis of nitrite, nitrate, and N-nitrosamines: precursors and role of the respiratory burst. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 84:6369
21. Kälble T, Möhring K, Tricker AR, Ovelgönne H-R, Schlag P (1989) Adenocarcinoma of the colon following ureterosigmoidostomy (in German). *Aktuel Urol* 20:173
22. Klubes P, Cerna I, Rabinowitz AD, Jondorf WR (1972) Factors affecting dimethylnitrosamine formation from simple precursors by rat intestinal bacteria. *Food Chem Toxicol* 10:757
23. Lee L, Archer MC, Bruce WR (1981) Absence of volatile nitrosamines in human feces. *Cancer Res* 41:3992
24. Mallet AK, Rowland IR, Walters DG, Gangolli SD, Cottrell RC, Massey RC (1985) The role of oral nitrate in the nitrosation of (14C)proline by conventional micro-flora and germ-free rats. *Carcinogenesis* 6:1585
25. Massey RC, Key PE, Mallett AK, Rowland IR (1988) An investigation of the endogenous formation of apparent total N-nitroso compounds in conventional microflora and germ-free rats. *Food Chem Toxicol* 26:595
26. Miwa M, Stuehr DJ, Marletta MA, Wishnok JS, Tannenbaum SR (1987) Nitrosation of amines by stimulated macrophages. *Carcinogenesis* 8:955
27. Moorcraft J, DuBoulay CEH, Isaacson P, Atwell JD (1983) Changes in the mucosa of colon conduits with particular reference of the risk of malignant change. *Br J Urol* 55:185
28. Ohshima H, Bereziat J-C, Bartsch H (1982) Monitoring N-nitrosamino acids excreted in the urine and feces of rats as an index for endogenous nitrosation. *Carcinogenesis* 3:115
29. Parsons ChD, Thomas MH, Garrett RA (1977) Colonic adenocarcinoma: a delayed complication of ureterosigmoidostomy. *J Urol* 118:31
30. Preussmann R, Stewart BW (1984) N-Nitroso carcinogens. In: Searle CE (ed) Chemical carcinogens. ACS Monograph 182, American Chemical Society, Washington, DC, p 643
31. Radomski JL, Greenwald D, Hearn WL, Block NL, Woods FM (1978) Nitrosamine formation in bladder infections and its role in the etiology of bladder cancer. *J Urol* 120:48
32. Saul RL, Kabir SH, Cohen Z, Bruce WR, Archer MC (1981) Reevaluation of nitrate and nitrite levels in the human intestine. *Cancer Res* 41:2280
33. Saul RL, Archer MC (1984) Oxidation of ammonia and hydroxylamine to nitrate in the rat and in vitro. *Carcinogenesis* 5:77
34. Schultz DS, Deen WM, Karel SF, Wagner DA, Tannenbaum SR (1985) Pharmacokinetics of nitrate in humans: role of gastrointestinal absorption and metabolism. *Carcinogenesis* 6:847
35. Starting JR, Uehling DT, Gilchrist KW (1984) Value of colonoscopy after ureterosigmoidostomy. *Surgery* 96:784
36. Stewart M, Hill MJ, Pugh RCB, Williams JP (1981) The role of N-nitrosamine in carcinogenesis at the ureterocolic anastomosis. *Br J Urol* 53:115
37. Stewart M, Macrae FA, Williams CB (1982) Neoplasia and ureterosigmoidostomy: A colonoscopy survey. *Br J Surg* 69:414
38. Stewart M (1986) Urinary diversion and bowel cancer. *Ann Coll Surg Engl* 68:98
39. Silverman SH, Woodhouse CRJ, Strachan JR, Cumming J, Keighley MRB (1986) Long-term management of patients who have had urinary diversions into colon. *Br J Urol* 58:634
40. Stribling MD, Cohen MS, Davis CP, Anderson MD, Warren MM (1988) Decrease in carcinogen (nitrosamine) levels in an animal model for ureterosigmoidostomy with administration of ascorbic acid. *South Med J* 81:S96
41. Stuehr DJ, Marletta MA (1987) Synthesis of nitrite and nitrate in murine macrophage cell lines. *Cancer Res* 47:5590
42. Tricker AR, Preussmann R (1987) Influence of Cysteine and nitrate on the endogenous formation of N-nitrosamino acids. *Cancer Lett* 34:39
43. Tricker AR, Preussmann R (1988) The occurrence of N-nitroso compounds in zarda tobacco. *Cancer Lett* 42:113
44. Tricker AR, Mostafa MH, Spiegelhalter B, Preussmann R (1989) Urinary excretion of nitrate, nitrite and N-nitrosocompounds in schistosomiasis and bilharzia bladder cancer patients. *Carcinogenesis* 10:547
45. Urdaneta LF, Duffell D, Creevy CD, Aust JB (1966) Late development of primary carcinoma of the colon following ureterosigmoidostomy. *Ann Surg* 164:503
46. Wagner DA, Shuker DEG, Bilmazes Ch, Obiedzinski M, Baker I, Young VR, Tannenbaum SR (1985) Effect of vitamins C and E on endogenous synthesis of N-nitrosamino acids in humans: precursor-product studies with (15N) nitrate. *Cancer Res* 45:6519
47. Wang T, Kakizoe T, Dion P, Furrer R, Varghese AJ, Bruce WR (1978) Volatile nitrosamines in normal human faeces. *Nature* 276:280
48. Ward FW, Coates ME (1986) Nitrate reduction, gastro-intestinal pH and N-nitrosation in genotobiotic and conventional rats. *Food Chem Toxicol* 24:17
49. Witter JP, Balish E (1979) Distribution and metabolism of ingested nitrate and nitrite ions in germfree and conventional-flora rats. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 38:861
50. Witter JP, Gatley SJ, Balish E (1979) Distribution of nitrogen-13 from labeled nitrate ($^{13}\text{NO}_3$) in human and rats. *Science* 204:411
51. Witter JP, Gatley SJ, Balish E (1981) Evaluation of nitrate synthesis by intestinal microorganisms in vivo. *Science* 213:449
52. Witter JP, Balish E, Gatley SJ (1982) Origin of excess urinary nitrate in the rat. *Cancer Res* 42:3654

Dr. T. Kälble
Urologische Abteilung
Universität Heidelberg
Im Neuenheimer Feld 110
D-6900 Heidelberg
Federal Republic of Germany