

CYP1A2 CAFFEINE METABOLISM GENE ANALYSIS

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2 **Analysis of the CYP1A2 caffeine metabolism gene in the student population at Lake**

3 **Superior State University**

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22 **Keywords:** CYP1A2, gene, caffeine, caffeine metabolism

23

24 **Abstract**

25 85% of Americans drink caffeinated beverages on a daily basis. Each individual responds
26 differently to caffeine depending on age, gender, diet, and ethnicity. Caffeinated beverages cause
27 insomnia in some people, but not in others due to differences in the rate of caffeine metabolism.
28 This study examines the variation in the caffeine metabolism of Lake Superior State University
29 (LSSU) students. My hypothesis was that LSSU student allele frequencies would match those of
30 the general population: 47.5% fast, 41.0% medium, and 11.5% slow caffeine metabolism. 200
31 LSSU students were sampled via buccal swabs. DNA was successfully isolated from 164 samples.
32 Participants filled out a demographic questionnaire entailing caffeine intake, ethnicity, and sex.
33 The CYP1A2 gene was amplified via standard PCR prior to genotyping by restriction digest and
34 gel electrophoresis. The APAI restriction enzyme was used to determine the genotype of the
35 rs762551 single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), while the SACI enzyme was used as a positive
36 digestion control. Overall, results showed a total of 42.7% fast, 44.5% medium, and 12.8% slow
37 metabolizers. Of special note is that 24 of the 164 students sampled were of Native American
38 heritage, an important yet underrepresented group in human genomics. This study provides the
39 first reported look at the CYP1A2 variation within this North American subpopulation with
40 metabolism rates being 50% fast, 33.3% medium, and 16.7% slow. The results confirm my initial
41 hypothesis that the variation of caffeine metabolism gene frequencies for the LSSU student
42 population would be representative of published allele frequencies for the general population.

43 **Introduction**

44 Caffeine is a white powdery substance with a chemical structure of 1,3,7-
45 trimethylxanthine (Institute of Medicine (U.S.) Committee on Military Nutrition Research
46 (IMCMNR) 2001). Caffeine itself was first isolated in 1819 by Friedlieb Ferdinand Runge and is
47 now recognized as the most used psychoactive drug worldwide (Weinberg *et al.* 2001). In the
48 United States alone, 85% of individuals consume at least one caffeinated drink every day
49 (Mitchell *et al.* 2014). This chemical stimulates the central nervous system, creating a sense of
50 attentiveness once consumed (IMCMNR 2001). Caffeine is easily accessible, inexpensive, and
51 can be beneficial towards brain function (Nikolic *et al.* 2003). Each individual will respond
52 differently to caffeine depending on a variety of factors including age, sex, diet, and Body Mass
53 Index (Nehlig 2018).

54 As age increases, hepatic liver enzyme function decreases, resulting in an increased
55 sensitivity to caffeine among the elderly (Massey 1998). In contrast, hepatic enzymes are not yet
56 mature in newborns and caffeine will take longer to clear (Nehlig 2018). There is no significant
57 difference among caffeine metabolism between males and females (Nehlig 2018). In general,
58 higher amounts of caffeine consumption take longer to metabolize than smaller amounts. Some
59 people can consume a caffeinated beverage before bed and still fall asleep, while others will be
60 awake for hours. This difference in response is determined by the body's ability to metabolize
61 caffeine.

62 The gene that encodes for caffeine metabolism is found on the CYP1A2 gene, which can
63 be found on Chromosome 15, located at the loci 15q24 (Cornelis *et al.* 2011). This gene
64 metabolizes 95% of caffeine consumption, with N-acetyltransferase 2 (NAT2) responsible for
65 roughly the other 5% (NAT2 N-acetyltransferase 2 [Homo sapiens (human)]). The NAT2

66 enzyme is an acetylator that helps to metabolize drugs and carcinogens. Focusing on CYP1A2, a
67 hepatic cytochrome enzyme, which is responsible for the metabolism of a number of substrates
68 in addition to caffeine that are important in the human body. These substrates include
69 procarcinogens, hormones, drugs, endogenous compounds, as well as enzyme activity in tobacco
70 smokers (Chernyak *et al.* 2011). Procarcinogens like Benzo[a]pyrene, which is a harmless
71 chemical found in many foods like grilled meats and tobacco smoke (Zhou *et al.* 2009).
72 Hormones such as estrogen and progesterone, which are sex hormones, are involved in the
73 development of the female reproductive system and in the regulation of the menstrual cycle.
74 Drugs such as Clozapine (schizophrenia medication), Theophylline (asthma medication), as well
75 as Tylenol (pain medication). Endogenous compounds are substances that originate from inside
76 the human body. Examples of these include steroids and arachidonic acid (polyunsaturated fatty
77 acid present in phospholipids). Major substrate classes including irritable bowel syndrome
78 (Alosetron), Estrogen (Estradiol), and Anti-Parkinson: dopamine agonist (Ropinirole) to name a
79 few (Fankhauser 2013). Minor substrate classes include, but are not limited to, medications such
80 as Acetaminophen, Melatonin, Warfarin, and Progesterone (Fankhauser 2013).

81 In the late 1990's, various researchers began analyzing the base pair substitution from A
82 to C in the CYP1A2 gene to determine its importance. A German study by Sachse *et al.* (1999)
83 concluded that the base pair changes led to polymorphism variations, with the AA genotype
84 leading to increased gene activity. In 2007, a Canadian study pinpointed the differing rates of
85 caffeine metabolism related to variation in the gene (El-Sohemy *et al.* 2007). It was noted that a
86 base pair substitution of A to C at a key point in the CYP1A2 gene changes the metabolism rate.
87 The homozygous allele (AA) metabolizes caffeine at a fast rate, the heterozygous allele (CA)

88 metabolizes caffeine at a medium rate, and the homozygous allele (CC) metabolizes caffeine at a
89 slow rate (Zephyr and Walsh 2015).

90 A 2012 meta-analysis of 8,345 Caucasians showed the prevalence of the CYP1A2 gene
91 variations. This study's control population found that 50.3% Caucasians were fast metabolizers
92 (AA), 41.5% were medium metabolizers (CA), and 8.2% were slow metabolizers (CC). The
93 2,423 people of Asian descent sampled showed 40.8% AA, 44.8% CA, and 14.4% CC (Wang *et al.*
94 *al.*, 2012). A Japanese study (Shimada *et al.* 2009) of 403 Japanese nationals noted 40.4% AA,
95 46.2% CA, and 13.4% CC, while 389 Brazilians exhibited an allele frequency of 45.0% AA,
96 41.1% CA, and 13.9% CC.

97 The single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) that determines the differing levels of
98 enzyme function can be determined in multiple ways such as through high throughput SNP assay
99 chips, medium throughput qPCR probes, or lower throughout restriction fragment length
100 polymorphism (RFLP). The SNP in question occurs within a known restriction site (Zephyr and
101 Walsh 2015), the results of a simple restriction digest can be used to determine which SNP is
102 present. This particular SNP (rs762551) is in an intron of DNA that can increase transcription
103 rates and increase mRNA translation efficiency (Shaul 2017). The CYP1A2 gene consists of two
104 alleles. Whether there is a polymorphism of A or C base pair at this snip will determine the
105 metabolism rate at which caffeine is processed.

106 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) is recognized by the restriction
107 enzyme and cuts the DNA at specific sites. RFLP markers isolate as codominant alleles, allowing
108 for the comparison of genetic structure parameters using genetic variability (Yan *et al.* 1999).
109 Depending on the allele present, in this case the A or C on the CYP1A2 gene, the enzyme will or

110 will not cut at that site, resulting in three various fragment lengths: 249 bp, 494 bp, and 743 bp
111 (Figure 2).

112 Chi-square tests were used to compare and contrast the results from the expected results.
113 Expected results of allele frequencies were used from the 1000 Genomes Project Phase 3
114 (Ensembl 2021). Subpopulation frequencies used included African, Eastern Asian, European,
115 Finnish, and British frequencies.

116 The objective of this study was to examine the variation in the caffeine metabolism of
117 Lake Superior State University (LSSU) students. We hypothesized that the LSSU student allele
118 frequencies would match those of the European population, since a majority of the students are
119 of European descent. Those expected allele frequencies being 47.5% fast (AA), 41.0% medium
120 (AC), and 11.5% slow (CC) caffeine metabolizers (Ensembl 2021).

121 **Methods**

122 Lloyd, 2003 analyzed the C677T mutation in the MTHFR gene and employed similar
123 methods that were used in the analysis of the CYP1A2 gene. The study population, DNA
124 extraction, PCR amplification, restriction digest, and fragment analysis sections of Lloyd's paper
125 were used and adapted for the general methods and procedure of this study.

126 Study Population

127 To determine the variation of potential caffeine sensitivity within a local population, two-
128 hundred DNA samples were collected from students at LSSU in Sault Ste. Marie, Michigan.
129 Samples were numbered one through two-hundred and obtained by cheek swabs. All
130 participation was on a voluntary basis with IRB approval #05292020. The samples were
131 collected by visiting classrooms of participating professors and explaining my project. Each
132 subject received and signed a copy of the consent form approved through the Institutional

133 Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at LSSU. Students also filled out an
134 anonymous demographic questionnaire to accompany the study detailing questions regarding
135 age, gender, ethnicity, and caffeine consumption. Each student provided only one sample for this
136 study. Students were all at least 18 years of age and active full-time or part-time LSSU students.

137 Each participant was asked to gently scrape the inside of their own cheek using a sterile
138 mouth swab. The swab was then given to the primary investigator and placed in a 1.5 ml
139 microcentrifuge tube containing 400 μ l of Cell Lysis Buffer from the Monarch Genomic DNA
140 Purification Kit (NEB). Samples were stored in Cell Lysis Buffer at 4°C until processed.

141 DNA Extraction

142 Genomic DNA was isolated using the Monarch Genomic DNA Purification Kit (NEB)
143 Sample Lysis: Animal Tissue protocol. The modifications to the general procedure are as
144 follows: each sample contained 400 μ l of Cell Lysis Buffer and mouth swab; 3 μ l of RNase A
145 was added to the lysate of samples, excluding #80, 86-103 due to lack of supplies.

146 PCR Amplification

147 Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) amplification was performed using published primers
148 for the CYP1A2 gene (Table 2) and both the VWR Life Science Hot start PCR-to-Gel Taq
149 Master mix, 2X and the Thermo Science DreamTaq Green DNA Polymerase (5 U/ μ L). The total
150 volume of each reaction was 25 μ l and consisted of 12 μ l master mix, 2 μ l primer, 8 μ l deionized
151 water, and 5 μ l genomic DNA. This reaction was multiplied by three, to allow for multiple
152 restriction digests, for a total reaction volume of 81 μ l.

153 Amplification was completed using a Veriti Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems
154 International) using the parameters described by Zephyr and Walsh (2015). The PCR reaction
155 occurred as follows: 1 cycle of denaturation at 95°C for 5 minutes, followed by 35 cycles at

156 95°C for 30 seconds, 57.5°C for 30 seconds, and 68°C for 1 minute. The final stage had 1 cycle
157 occur at 68°C for 5 minutes. Post-PCR product was then refrigerated and stored at 4°C (Zephyr
158 and Walsh 2015).

159 Restriction Digest

160 The restriction enzymes used to digest the Post-PCR product were NEB CutSmart APAI
161 and SACI. The APAI enzyme was used to detect the SNP and did not digest alleles containing A,
162 which resulted in 743 bp, but APAI did digest alleles containing C (494 bp and 249 bp). The
163 SACI enzyme served as the positive control restriction digest with base pairs appearing in
164 fragment analysis at 249 and 494.

165 PCR products underwent restriction digest with a total volume of 50 µl each. Each
166 restriction digest consisted of 24 µl H₂O, 20 µl of PCR DNA product, 5 µl CutSmart Buffer, and
167 1 µl of each restriction enzyme: APAI or SACI. The restriction digests were set up in 200 µl
168 PCR tubes. The tubes were flicked gently to mix and centrifuged briefly. The SACI enzyme was
169 incubated at 37°C for 1 hour and the APAI enzyme was incubated at 25°C for 1 hour. 10 µl of
170 Purple Gel Loading dye was added to each 50 µl SACI reaction to stop reaction.

171 Results were visualized and genotyped via agarose gel electrophoresis using 1.5% gels
172 pre-stained with GelRed (Biotium). 10 µl of DNA ladder, 15 µl of PCR product, 15-20 µl of the
173 APAI samples, and 15 µl of the negative control SACI were added to the wells.

174 Data Collection & Analysis

175 Data was collected and each sample was classified as either homozygous uncut (AA),
176 heterozygous (AC), or homozygous cut (CC), based on the length of specific base pair
177 fragments. Homozygous uncut (AA) had two A alleles with two base pair lengths at 743.
178 Heterozygous (AC) had one A allele and one C allele with base pair lengths at 743 (A), 494 bp,

179 and 249 bp respectively (C). Homozygous cut (CC) had 2 C alleles with two sets of base pair
180 lengths at 494 and 249 (C). A Chi-squared test with 5% percent deviation (χ^2 value: 3.841) was
181 used to determine the accuracy of the collected data in comparison to published frequencies on
182 Ensemble.

183 **Results**

184 200 samples were collected from students. Of that, DNA was successfully extracted from
185 164 of the samples. The 36 samples that did not work were re-run from PCR with no results a
186 second time. Of the 164 samples, ethnicities were broken down into the major population types:
187 European, African American, Asian, and Native American, with European sub-populations of
188 comparable published allele frequencies of Finnish and British. For the European population
189 there was 139 students total with metabolisms of 43.8% fast, 43.2% medium, and 12.9% slow.
190 The experimental χ^2 value for Europeans was 0.3914. For the African American population there
191 was 8 students total with metabolisms of 25% fast, 50% medium, and 25% slow. The
192 experimental χ^2 value for African Americans was 0.2447. For the Asian population there was 7
193 students with metabolisms of 12.3% fast, 57.1% medium, and 28.6% slow. The experimental χ^2
194 value for Asians was 3.786. For the Native American population there was 24 students total with
195 metabolisms of 50% fast, 33.3% medium, and 16.7% slow. For the European sub-population of
196 Finnish, there were 11 students with metabolisms of 54.5% fast, 33.3% medium, and 18.2%
197 slow. The experimental χ^2 value for Finnish was 0.9642. For the European sub-population of
198 British, there were 28 students with metabolisms of 53.6% fast, 39.3% medium, and 7.1% slow.
199 The experimental χ^2 value for the British population was 0.1651. All χ^2 values were under 3.841,
200 showing that the data was not significantly different from the published allele frequencies.

201 Looking closer at the breakdown of the European regions, the overall European caffeine
202 metabolism was 43.8% fast, 43.2% medium, and 12.9% slow. The caffeine metabolism of each

203 region varied (Figure 1, Table 4). The Northern European demographic includes Finland,
204 Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. Of the 21 total individuals, 53% were fast metabolizers, 35%
205 were medium metabolizers, and 10% were slow metabolizers. The Eastern European
206 demographic includes Ukraine, Russia, and Armenia. Of the 5 total individuals, 66% were fast
207 metabolizers, 16% were medium metabolizers, and 16% were slow metabolizers. The Central
208 European demographic includes Germany, Switzerland, Poland, Hungary, Austria, and Slovakia.
209 Of the 107 total individuals, 11% were fast metabolizers, 68% were medium metabolizers, and
210 21% were slow metabolizers. The Western European demographic includes Belgium, France,
211 Germany, Switzerland, Netherlands, Czech Republic, Ireland, England, and Scotland. Of the 171
212 total individuals, 24% were fast metabolizers, 52% were medium metabolizers, and 22% were
213 slow metabolizers. The Southern European demographic includes Spain, Turkey, Italy. Of the 18
214 total individuals, 23% were fast metabolizers, 38% were medium metabolizers, and 38% were
215 slow metabolizers. In summary, Northern and Eastern Europe had the highest number of fast
216 caffeine metabolizers, Central and Western Europe had mostly medium metabolizers, and
217 Southern Europe had an equal distribution of medium and slow metabolizers.

218 There were 24 individuals that were of Native American heritage, comprising 14.6% of
219 the population. This population is understudied and I was not able to find any comparative
220 previously published data. In order to run the χ^2 test, the expected European χ^2 value was used to
221 compare the observed Native American data. The experimental χ^2 value was 0.923. The African
222 American population had an interesting caffeine metabolism population. It showed 50% fast
223 metabolizers, 33.3% medium, and 16.7% slow metabolizers. It had a larger population of fast
224 metabolizers, a smaller population of medium metabolizers, and a larger population of slow
225 metabolizers than the European population.

226 For sex, there was no significant difference and the data matched between the two groups
227 – 42.5% of females and 43.4% of males were fast metabolizers; 45.2% of females and 43.3% of
228 males were medium metabolizers, and 12.3% of females and 13.3% of males were slow
229 metabolizers.

230 For age, a significant amount of the population were of the Gen Z demographic (born
231 1997 to 2015), with 152 of the 164 samples (92.7%) being in the age range of 18 to 24. 43.4%
232 were fast metabolizers, 44.1% were medium metabolizers, and 13.2% were slow metabolizers.

233 **Discussion**

234 The Chi-Square Test results confirmed the hypothesis: LSSU students sampled were
235 representative of the European population, as their allele frequencies did not significantly vary
236 from the published frequencies. Predicted allele frequencies were 47.5% fast, 41.0% medium,
237 and 11.5% slow (Ensembl 2021). The actual allele frequencies of LSSU students were 42.7%
238 fast, 44.5% medium, and 12.8% slow. European, African American, Asian, Native American,
239 Finnish, and British population experimental Chi-Square values were less than the critical Chi
240 Square value of 3.841. Thus, the major population and the subpopulations at LSSU are not
241 significantly different from the general population. Age and sex also had no significant
242 differences from the European allele frequencies, as the CYP1A2 gene is not sex-linked.

243 The data gathered from the 7 Asian students showed a majority of medium metabolizers
244 (57.1%), second-most slow metabolizers (28.6%), and the fewest fast metabolizers (14.3%). The
245 experimental χ^2 value was 3.786. This value is less than the critical χ^2 value of 3.841, but not by
246 much. This gathered data was compared to the published Asian allele frequencies and were
247 found to be 32% fast metabolizers, 31% medium metabolizers, and 8% slow metabolizers. One
248 meta-analysis of 2,423 people of Asian descent showed caffeine metabolism levels of 40.8%
249 AA, 44.8% AC, and 14.4% CC (Wang *et al.* 2012). The difference between the populations can

250 be contributed to sample size variations. For the LSSU population, there was sample size of 2
251 fast metabolizers, 7 medium metabolizers, and 4 slow metabolizers. Based on the Ensemble
252 sample size, there was 229 fast metabolizers, 220 medium metabolizers, and 55 slow
253 metabolizers. The meta-analysis study (Wang *et al.* 2012) had 989 fast metabolizers, 1086
254 medium metabolizers, and 348 slow metabolizers.

255 The European distribution of caffeine metabolism throughout the different regions
256 showed remarkable differences between Sault Ste. Marie populations, some of this could be due
257 in part to sample size. This showed that the caffeine metabolism was dependent on geographic
258 location, as Northern and Eastern Europe had the most fast caffeine metabolizers, Central and
259 Western Europe had the most medium metabolizers, and Southern Europe had an equal
260 distribution of medium and slow metabolizers.

261 Of special note is that 24 of the 164 students sampled were of Native American heritage,
262 an important yet underrepresented group in human genomics. This study provides the first
263 reported look at the CYP1A2 variation within this North American subpopulation with
264 metabolism rates being 50% fast, 33.3% medium, and 16.7% slow. In order to run the χ^2 test, the
265 expected European χ^2 value was used to compare the observed Native American data. The
266 experimental χ^2 value was 0.923. It was noted that 19 of the 24 Native American population also
267 had an overlapping European heritage. Thus, the Native American results are not significantly
268 different from the European results.

269 Knowing your caffeine metabolism could improve your health. Consuming too much
270 caffeine can cause negative side effects such as: increased blood pressure, insomnia, heart
271 palpitations, dehydration, headaches, nervousness, irritability, and muscle tremors (Mayo Clinic
272 2020). Slow metabolizers should avoid excessive caffeine consumption as they are at risk for

273 heart attacks (El-Sohemy *et al.* 2007). There is the possibility of interactions with medications
274 and supplements. Such medications interactions include Quinolones antibiotics, which decrease
275 caffeine metabolism, and Bronchodilators, which are also stimulants (Mayo Clinic 2020). Other
276 medications include Tylenol, which the CYP1A2 is a minor substrate metabolizer. In turn, an
277 individual who takes longer to metabolize these substrates will experience the drug longer and is
278 at risk for various side effects (Fankhauser 2013).

279 The focus of this study was college students and looked at their caffeine metabolism,
280 their caffeine consumption, and how their ethnicity plays a role in their metabolism. College
281 students are known to consume large amounts of caffeine – whether it be drinking an energy
282 drink to pull an all-nighter to finish a paper or a coffee in the morning to get going. Slow,
283 medium, and fast metabolizers will have to consume different amounts of caffeine to ‘wake-up’
284 or get a caffeine buzz. For example, a fast metabolizer might have to get a coffee with two shots
285 of espresso whereas a slow metabolizer might have consumed the same drink and not be able to
286 sleep until 2AM. I would warn the slow metabolizers to be careful when consuming excess
287 amounts of caffeine because they are more at risk for heart attacks or to experience previously
288 mentioned side effects like jitteriness or heart palpitations (Mayo Clinic 2020). One should also
289 take into consideration that the hepatic liver enzyme function decreases as age increases,
290 resulting in an increased sensitivity to caffeine (Massey 1998). Thus, someone who was able to
291 down a 5-Hour Energy in college right before bed might not be able to do the same when they
292 are older.

293 **Conclusion**

294 The allele frequency of caffeine metabolizers in Lake Superior State University (LSSU)
295 students was determined. Gathered allele frequencies did not significantly differ from published
296 allele frequencies. Predicted allele frequencies were 47.5% fast, 41.0% medium, and 11.5%

297 slow. The actual allele frequencies of LSSU students were 42.7% fast, 44.5% medium, and
298 12.8% slow. The Chi-Square Test results confirmed the hypothesis: LSSU students sampled
299 were representative of the European population, as their allele frequencies did not significantly
300 vary from the published frequencies.

301 **Acknowledgements**

302 We would like to thank the following: Drs. Britton Ranson-Olson and Martha Hutchens
303 for their assistance with protocol development; Lake Superior State University for lab space and
304 infrastructure; the LSSU IRB Committee for providing oversight and allowing the research to
305 occur (IRB approval #05292020); the LSSU Undergraduate Research Committee for funding the
306 project; and the students that helped with their time and support - Haven Borghi, Hannah
307 Sawicki, and Jacob Pittsley.

308 **Funding**

309 This project was funded by the Lake Superior State University Undergraduate Research
310 Committee's Undergraduate Research Grant.

311 **Data Availability**

312 Raw genotyping data is available in the Supplemental File S2.

313 **Literature Cited**

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367 polymorphisms and the clinical impact of human cytochrome P450 1A2. *The AAPS*
368 *journal*. 11(3), 481–494.

369 Table 1. Metabolism rates according to population and subpopulation. All values less than the
370 critical Chi Square: 3.841. Not significantly different from published allele frequencies.

Population	Sample Size	Fast	Actual Medium	Slow	Experimental χ^2 Value
European	139	43.8%	43.2%	12.9%	0.3914
African American	8	25%	50%	25%	0.2447
Asian	7	12.3%	57.1%	28.6%	3.786
Native American	24	50%	33.3%	16.7%	0.923
Finnish	11	54.5%	33.3%	18.2%	0.9642
British	28	53.6%	39.3%	7.1%	0.1651

371

372 Table 2. Primers used in the PCR amplification of the CYP1A2 gene (Eshkoo et. al 2013).

Primer Name	Primer Sequence
CYP1A2:x (forward primer)	5'-GCT ACA CAT GAT CGA GCT ATA C-3'
CYP1A2:r (reverse primer)	5'-CAG TCT CTT CAC TGT AAA GTT A-3'

373

374 Table 3. Chi Square composing project allele frequencies from by ethnicity (Ensemble, 2021).

375 Critical Chi Square: all populations failed to reject the null hypothesis at alpha = 0.05.

European	Allele	Actual	Expected		
	AA	61	66	X2=	0.3914
	AC	60	57		
	CC	18	16		
	Total	139	139		
African American	Allele	Actual	Expected		
	AA	2	2.576	X2=	0.2774
	AC	4	3.84		
	CC	2	1.584		
	Total	8	8		
Asian	Allele	Actual	Expected		
	AA	1	3.178	X2=	3.788
	AC	4	3.059		
	CC	2	0.763		
	Total	7	7		
Native American*	Allele	Actual	Expected		
	AA	12	11.4	X2=	0.9327
	AC	8	9.84		
	CC	4	2.76		
	Total	24	24		
Finland	Allele	Actual	Expected		
	AA	6	5.445	X2=	0.9642
	AC	3	4.334		
	CC	2	1.221		
	Total	11	11		
England	Allele	Actual	Expected		
	AA	15	15.372	X2=	0.1651
	AC	11	10.164		
	CC	2	2.464		
	Total	28	28		

376

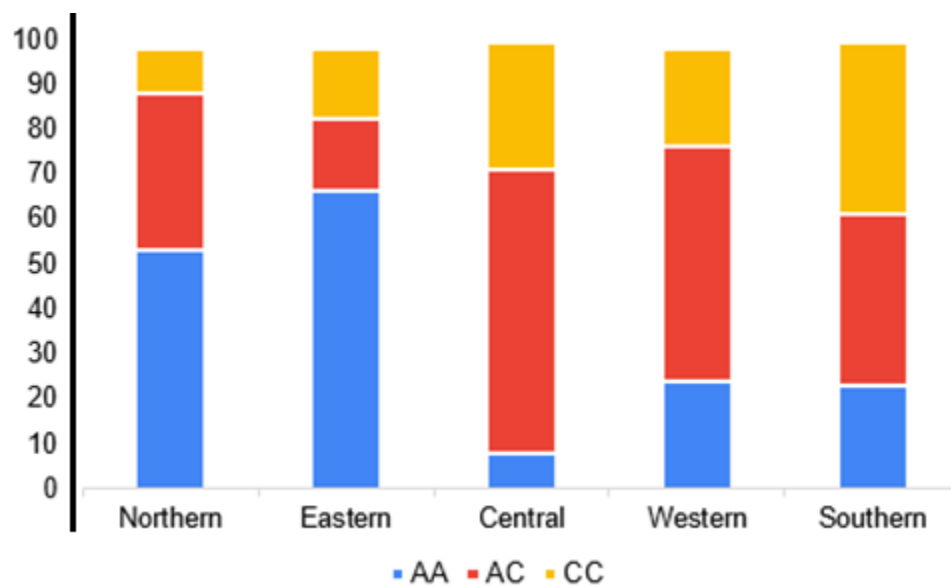
377 *Compared to European allele frequencies

378 Table 4. European Breakdown Statistics of caffeine metabolism variance across geographic
379 region.

Geographic Region	Northern Europe	Eastern Europe	Central Europe	Western Europe	Southern Europe
AA	53%	66%	8%	24%	23%
AC	35%	16%	63%	52%	38%
CC	10%	16%	28%	22%	38%

380

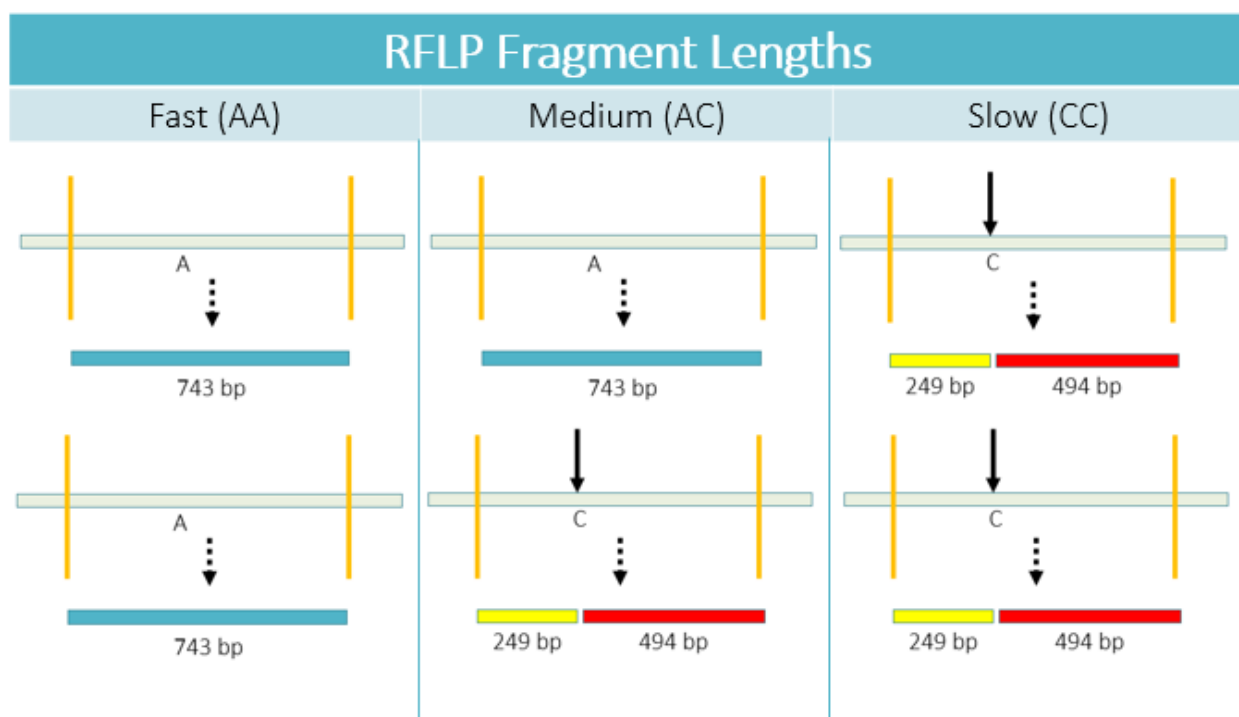
381 Figure 1: Breakdown of Europe into geographic regions. Caffeine metabolism varies across
382 European geographic distribution.



383

384

385 Figure 2. Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphisms: Fast, Medium, and Slow Fragment
386 Lengths.



387

388

389 Supplemental Data A

	AA	AC	CC	XX	Total Samples
Total Sample Gathered	70	73	21	36	200
Successful DNA Extraction of Samples	70	73	21		164
Overall Percentage	42.68	44.51	12.80		

390

Ethnicity	AA	AC	CC	Total	Percentage		
					AA	AC	CC
European	61	60	18	139	43.88	43.17	12.95
African American	2	4	2	8	25.00	50.00	25.00
Asian	1	4	2	7	14.29	57.14	28.57
Native American	12	8	4	24	50.00	33.33	16.67
African	1	1	0	2	50.00	50.00	0.00
Mexicans	1	1	0	2	50.00	50.00	0.00
Sex					AA	AC	CC
Female	31	33	9	73	42.47	45.21	12.33
Male	39	39	12	90	43.33	43.33	13.33
Unidentified	0	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Age					AA	AC	CC
Gen Z (1997-2015)	66	67	20	152	43.42	44.08	13.16
Millennials (1981-1996)	3	6	1	10	30.00	60.00	10.00
Generation X (1965-1980)	1	0	0	1	100.00	0.00	0.00

391

Breakdown by European Nationality	AA	AC	CC	Total	Percentage			
					AA	AC	CC	
Denmark	3	0	0	3	100.00	0.00	0.00	
England	15	11	2	28	53.57	39.29	7.14	
Finland	6	3	2	11	54.55	27.27	18.18	
France	3	3	6	12	25.00	25.00	50.00	
Germany	22	39	8	69	31.88	56.52	11.59	
Ireland	19	14	5	38	50.00	36.84	13.16	
Italy	5	7	2	14	35.71	50.00	14.29	
Netherlands	1	6	1	8	12.50	75.00	12.50	
Norway	1	2	0	3	33.33	66.67	0.00	
Poland	11	17	4	32	34.38	53.13	12.50	
Scandinavian	11	7	3	21	52.38	33.33	14.29	
Scotland	6	5	1	12	50.00	41.67	8.33	
Sweden	1	2	1	4	25.00	50.00	25.00	
					Average	42.95	42.67	14.38

392

393

Northern Europe	AA	AC	CC	Total	AA	AC	CC
Denmark	3	0	0	3	100.00	0.00	0.00
Finland	6	3	2	11	54.55	27.27	18.18
Norway	1	2	0	3	33.33	66.67	0.00
Sweden	1	2	1	4	25.00	50.00	25.00
Eastern Europe	AA	AC	CC	Total	AA	AC	CC
Armenia	1	0	0	1	100.00	0.00	0.00
Russia	1	0	1	2	50.00	0.00	50.00
Ukraine	1	1	0	2	50.00	50.00	0.00
Central Europe	AA	AC	CC	Total	AA	AC	CC
Austria	0	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Germany	22	39	8	69	31.88	56.52	11.59
Hungary	0	1	1	2	0.00	50.00	50.00
Poland	11	17	4	32	34.38	53.13	12.50
Slovakia	0	1	1	2	0.00	50.00	50.00
Switzerland	0	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Western Europe	AA	AC	CC	Total	AA	AC	CC
Belgium	0	2	0	2	0.00	100.00	0.00
Czech Republic	0	0	1	1	0.00	0.00	100.00
England	15	11	2	28	53.57	39.29	7.14
France	3	3	6	12	25.00	25.00	50.00
Germany	22	39	8	69	31.88	56.52	11.59
Ireland	19	14	5	38	50.00	36.84	13.16
Netherlands	1	6	1	8	12.50	75.00	12.50
Scotland	6	5	1	12	50.00	41.67	8.33
Switzerland	0	1	0	1	0.00	100.00	0.00
Southern Europe	AA	AC	CC	Total	AA	AC	CC
Italy	5	7	2	14	35.71	50.00	14.29
Spain	1	2	0	3	33.33	66.67	0.00
Turkey	0	0	1	1	0.00	0.00	100.00