Role of 3 Lipoprotein Lipase Variants in Triglycerides in Children Receiving Highly Active Antiretroviral Therapy

Cecilia Colombero, MSc, Gabriel Catano, MD,†‡ Carlos A. Rocco, MSc,* Débora Mecikovsky, MD,§ Rosa Bologna, MD,§ Paula C. Aulicino, PhD,*¶ Luisa Sen, MD,*¶ and Andrea Mangano, PhD*§¶*

Background: Lipoprotein lipase is a key enzyme in lipid metabolism, especially for plasma triglycerides (TGs). Genetic variants have been associated with lipid levels in healthy individuals, cardiovascular disease, obesity and diabetes. Our aim was to evaluate the influence of 3 polymorphisms: *Hind III*, *Pvu II* and S447X in plasma TG levels in human immunodeficiency virus-1-infected children under highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART).

Methods: Fifty-two children diagnosed with human immunodeficiency virus-1 between 2005 and 2009 were retrospectively selected with at least 1 plasma TG level assessment. TG levels were examined before and after 1 year of HAART. Hypertriglyceridemia was defined as TG > 150mg/dL. *Hind III* (H+/H−), *Pvu II* (P+/P−) and S447X (S/X) were determined by polymerase chain reaction and restricted fragment length polymorphism. The Wilcoxon sum-rank test was used to compare median plasma TG among groups. Also, allelic frequencies were estimated for these variants in an Argentinean population.

Results: Allelic frequencies for human immunodeficiency virus-1-infected children were: H−, 0.21; P−, 0.53; and X, 0.05 with no significant differences to controls. After 1 year of HAART, median TG levels were significantly lower in P−/P− (98.5mg/dL) when compared with P+/P+ (180mg/dL) (*P* = 0.039). The presence of the P− allele was associated with an 11-fold lower risk of hypertriglyceridemia. *Hind III* and S447X were not associated with TG at the selected time points.

Conclusions: Our findings suggest a protective effect of lipoprotein lipase polymorphisms against hypertriglyceridemia in children after 1 year of HAART. These results could endorse a prompt nutritional or pharmacological intervention in patients lacking the P− allele.

Key Words: lipoprotein lipase, triglycerides, highly active antiretroviral therapy, children, human immunodeficiency virus-1 infection

(*Pediatr Infect Dis J* 2015;34:155–161)

Highly active antiretroviral therapy (HAART) reduces clinical symptoms of human immunodeficiency virus-1 (HIV-1) infection, delays the onset of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome and improves the prognosis and quality of life in HIV-1-infected indi-

ISSN: 0891-3668/15/3402-0155

DOI: 10.1097/INF.0000000000000474

viduals.1–3 Given the long-term exposure to these drugs and in addition to several short-term and medium-term side-effects, a considerable number of patients experience metabolic complications such as insulin resistance, redistribution of body fat and dyslipidemia. These metabolic abnormalities occur in both adults^{$4-8$} and children.9–11 Lipid alterations include hypertriglyceridemia, decreased high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, increased total cholesterol (TC) and increased low-density lipoprotein cholesterol.12–16 These abnormalities may vary according to the antiretroviral (ARV) regimen received. For example, hypertriglyceridemia frequently occurs with the use of ritonavir used as a single drug or protease inhibitor (PI) booster;12,13 high low-density lipoprotein cholesterol or TC is associated with the use of PIs, nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, such as efavirenz and nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors, such as stavudine $(d4T)$.^{12,14–16} The same combination of ARV drugs, however, does not lead to the same extent and severity of dyslipidemia in all HIV-infected individuals; and these differences can be partially explained by the genetic background of the host, along with environmental and nutritional factors.

Among the many genes involved in lipid metabolism, the one coding for lipoprotein lipase (LPL) has been thoroughly studied. This is a key enzyme in lipid metabolism, responsible for the hydrolysis of circulating triglycerides (TGs), and has a bridging function that favors clearance of lipoproteins.17 Complete loss of enzyme activity results in the accumulation of chylomicrons and is mainly due to homozygosity or compound heterozygosity for missense, nonsense mutations, deletions or insertions in the LPL gene.18,19 Also, several single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been described in both exonic and intronic sequences,²⁰ and some have been studied in association with lipids, lipoproteins and risk for atherosclerosis. Three of the most explored SNPs are *Hind III* (T→G transversion in intron 8), *Pvu II* (T→C transition in intron 6) and Ser447X (a T→G mutation in exon 9 that introduces a premature stop codon) mainly due to their relatively high frequency among a Caucasian population as opposed to other coding SNPs, such as D9N and N291S.²¹

In an HIV-1-infected adult population, 2 genetic association studies assessing the impact of SNPs on lipid levels evaluated just 1 LPL variant (S447X or 1595 G→C), among other genes,^{22,23} yet the results were not conclusive. There are no studies in HIV-1-infected children. There is great concern about the metabolic abnormalities occurring early in the life of HIV-1 perinatally infected children,⁹ since abnormal lipid levels in childhood are associated with increased evidence of early atherosclerotic lesions.24–31 Thus, we aimed to characterize 3 genetic variants in the LPL gene (*Hind III*, *Pvu II* and S447X) in a group of HIV-1-infected children receiving highly antiretroviral therapy HAART and to evaluate their impact on plasma TG levels.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Population

A retrospective study was performed in a white-Hispanic population of Argentina composed of 52 HIV-1 perinatally infected children and 86 unrelated blood donors who were seronegative

Accepted for publication June 5, 2014.

From the *Laboratorio de Biología Celular y Retrovirus, Hospital de Pediatría "Dr. J.P. Garrahan", Buenos Aires, Argentina; †The Veterans Affairs Research Center for AIDS and HIV-1 Infection and Center for Personalized Medicine, South Texas Veterans Health Care System; ‡Department of Medicine, University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, TX; §Servicio de Epidemiología e Infectología, Hospital de Pediatría "Dr. J.P. Garrahan", Buenos Aires, Argentina; and ¶Concejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas (CONICET), Argentina.

This work was supported, in part, by Fogarty AITRP grant #D43TW001037 and by Fondo Nacional para Ciencia y Tecnología (FONCYT-ANPCyT, PICT 2006 No. 1235).

The authors have no funding or conflicts of interest to disclose.

Copyright © 2014 by Wolters Kluwer Health, Inc. All rights reserved. Address for correspondence: Andrea Mangano, PhD, Laboratorio de Biología Celular y Retrovirus, Hospital de Pediatría "Dr. J.P. Garrahan", Combate de los Pozos 1881 (1245), Ciudad Autónoma de Buenos Aires, Argentina. E-mail: amangano@garrahan.gov.ar; andreammangano@gmail.com

for blood-borne viruses, including HIV-1. All patients were diagnosed with HIV-1 according to the 1994 criteria of the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention³² and were followed up at the Hospital de Pediatría "J.P. Garrahan" of Buenos Aires, Argentina. Inclusion criteria for the study were 1) HIV-1 diagnosis between 2005 and 2009, 2) age under 18 years and 3) at least one blood lipid assessment between 2005 and 2010. The Ethics Committee and Institutional Review Board of the hospital approved the study. Written informed consent was obtained from blood donors and from parents or legal guardians of the children involved in this study.

TGs and Cholesterol Assessment

Lipid blood levels were determined on plasma samples obtained throughout patient follow-up. Parents received instructions so that children would fast at least 8 hours (in children older than 12 months). However, fasting status could not be confirmed during TG data acquisition through the electronic hospital database.

TC and TG plasma levels were assessed using an automated analyzer (Hitachi 912 analyzer, Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN) at the central laboratory of the hospital. TG levels were measured using enzyme-based colorimetric techniques (Triglycerides GPO-PAP, Roche Diagnostics). Results were recorded in a database and data from 2005 to 2010 were retrospectively collected. Since there was no fixed time schedule for lipid assessment in this retrospective study, each patient had a different number of lipid results. We selected lipid values before HAART initiation (baseline) ($n = 28$); when more than 1 value was available we chose the nearest to therapy start. And as close to 1 year after HAART initiation $(\pm 3 \text{ months})$, as these results were available in the majority of ourpatients ($n = 39$). For longer exposure times, the number of patients with available TG values dropped significantly (data not shown). Hypertriglyceridemia was defined as $TG > 150 \,\text{mg/dL}$ according to the NCEPIII guidelines.³³

LPL Genotyping

LPL genotypes were identified using polymerase chain reaction and restricted fragment length polymorphism assays. *Hind III* (rs320) (T/G), *Pvu II* (rs285) (T/C) and S447X (rs328) (T/G) genotypes were determined on DNA samples based on previous reports of Kosaka et al.34 Briefly, PCR amplicons of 350bp, 431bp and 315bp were subjected to 4 hours digestion with restriction enzymes *Hind III*, *Pvu II* and *Mnl I*, respectively. Afterwards, digested products were separated by electrophoresis on 2% agarose gel and visualized by ethidium bromide staining under UV light with the El Logic 200 Imaging System (Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, NY).

Statistical Analysis

Genotypic frequencies were estimated by direct allele counting. The fit to Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium was tested with Pearson's χ². Also, to analyze *Hind III* and S447X genotype distribution among groups, the Pearson test for 2×2 contingency tables was used. The Fisher–Freeman–Halton test was used for *Pvu II* in 2×3 contingency tables. Haplotype frequencies were estimated using the expectation maximization algorithm, and linkage disequilibrium was evaluated with the *D*′ statistic. Also, odds ratios for haplotypes and risk of hypertriglyceridemia were obtained by logistic regression; the alternative hypothesis for testing each locus was "any genotype shows a difference or any genotype is different from the rest (ie, codominant genetic model)." Additional genotypic and haplotypic analyses were carried out with the web tools available at www.bioinfo.iconcologia.net/snpstats

The Wilcoxon signed test was used to compare between median TG blood concentration at 2 times and the Wilcoxon sumrank test was used to compare differences among groups. Linkage disequilibrium was tested with Pearson's χ^2 , and P values were corrected for multiple testing with the Bonferroni method.

RESULTS

Study Population

The study included 52 patients diagnosed with HIV-1 between 2005 and 2009, with a fairly equal distribution between boys ($n = 24$) and girls ($n = 28$). The median age at diagnosis was 11 months (IQR 3.9–37.1). Except for 1 patient who remained naïve to treatment at the study end point, all started HAART between 2005 and 2010. We observed a wide range in the age of therapy initiation with a median age of 12 months (IQR 5.8–46.5). ARV treatment administered in the whole group included 2 nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors as a backbone, mainly zidovudine and lamivudine $(n = 41)$; plus (a) PI $(n = 40)$ or (b) nonnucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors ($n = 10$) or (c) a third nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitor ($n = 1$). Most PI regimens contained lopinavir/ritonavir $(n = 35)$ and the remaining 5 included nelfinavir. Efavirenz was used in 8 and nevirapine in 2 patients. TG values closest to 1 year of HAART ($n = 39$) were selected; similarly, at baseline $(n = 28)$ a single TG value was considered. TG data were available at baseline and after 1 year of HAART for only 20 patients. Hypertriglyceridemia was present in 14 out of 28 children at baseline and in 13 out of 39 after 1 year of HAART; only 3 patients had TG values over 150mg/dL both before and after 1 year of HAART (Table 1).

AZT, zidovudine; 3TC, lamivudine; NFV, nelfinavir.

TABLE 2. Genotype and Allele Frequencies of LPL *Hind III*, *Pvu II* and S447X SNPs in HIV-1-infected Children and Seronegative Blood Donors

All genotypic frequencies fitted to Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium.

*Pearson test for contingency 2×2 tables.

†Fisher–Freeman–Halton test for contingency 2×3 tables.

LPL Genotypes Distribution in Healthy Donors and HIV-1-infected Patients

 $=$

First we investigated whether the distribution of the 3 SNPs in the LPL gene, *Hind III* (H+/H−), *Pvu II* (P+/P−) and S447X, differed in HIV-1-infected children from the general population. Thus, the distribution of genotypes was studied in unrelated HIV-1 seronegative blood donors ($n = 86$). *Pvu II* was the most frequent polymorphism (P− allele ~ 50%), followed by *Hind III* (H− allele 21–25%), while the 447X SNP had the lowest allelic frequency $(5-8%)$. The only homozygote X/X was found in the control group; interestingly, this subject also carried H−/H− and P−/P− genotypes. Allelic frequencies for *Hind III*, *Pvu II* and S447X polymorphisms were similar between blood donors and HIV-1-infected children (Table 2). All genotypes fit Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium, suggesting that there was no population bias in the groups analyzed.

Out of the 8 possible haplotype combinations, we observed only 5 in HIV-1-infected children and 7 in healthy blood donors, as shown in Figure 1. The H+/P+/X haplotype was not observed in any of the groups. This stems from the fact that there was linkage disequilibrium among the SNPs in each group; *Hind III* and *Mnl I* were linked in HIV-1-infected children and in blood donors, $D' = 0.9986$ (*P* < 0.0001) and *D*′ = 0.7482 (*P* < 0.0001), respectively; and *Pvu II* was linked to *Hind III* and *Mnl I* in the first group, $D' = 0.7123$ $(P = 0.0004)$ and $D' = 0.9977$ $(P = 0.0308)$. The most frequent

FIGURE 1. Haplotype distribution in HIV-1-infected children and blood donors.

haplotypes were H+/P+/S and H+/P−/S; however, H−/P−/S and H−/ P+/S haplotypes were more common in HIV-1-infected patients and blood donor groups, respectively.

LPL Genotypes Influence on TG Levels After 1 Year of HAART

We first compared TG levels at baseline and after 1 year of HAART in the 52 HIV-1-infected children. The median TG level was 136 mg/dL (IQR: 90–209) at baseline ($n = 28$) and not statistically different from the median of 129mg/dL (IQR: 83–168) after 1 year of HAART ($n = 39$) ($P = 0.48$) (Fig. 2). There was no significant association among LPL polymorphisms and TG levels at baseline (data not shown). However, a statistically significant global level of association (Bonferroni corrected $P = 0.0022$) was found between TG values and *Pvu II* polymorphism after 1 year of HAART. Median TG levels were significantly lower in P−/P− [98.5mg/dL (IQR: 60.8–122.3)] carriers when compared with $P+/P+ [180 \text{mg/d}L (IQR: 137.8–220.3)]$ $(P = 0.039)$, with the lowest median TG values observed in the P−/ P− group. Even though there was no significant difference between P+/P− [131mg/dL (IQR: 82–164)] patients compared with P+/P+ (*P* > 0.05), there was a trend towards lower TG values when the P− allele appeared. The P− allele showed a gene dose-dependent effect on plasma TG. Interestingly, none of the 10 HIV-1-infected children carrying the P−/P− genotype had TG values over 150mg/dL; conversely, 7 out of 10 patients that were P+/P+ had TG values over 150mg/dL after 1 year of HAART (Fig. 3B). *Hind III* and S447X polymorphisms

FIGURE 2. Plasma triglyceride values before and after 1 year of HAART. No difference was found between median TG values before ($n = 28$) and after 1 year of HAART ($n = 39$).

DISCUSSION

were not significantly associated with TG levels after 1 year of HAART $(P > 0.05)$ (Fig. 3A and 3C). Nevertheless, a trend towards lower TG levels was detected in children carrying the H− allele. Notably, while almost 50% of H+/H+ carriers had TG levels over 150mg/dL, just 18% of H+/H− patients and none of the H−/H− carriers had hypertriglyceridemia. Given that ARV regimens containing PI were the most frequent in this group of children $(n = 31)$, we further analyzed whether the association between *Pvu II* and plasma TG levels after 1 year of HAART remained significant when excluding patients receiving non-PI regimens ($n = 8$). We confirmed that *Pvu II* was indeed associated with TG values only in patients receiving PI regimens $(P = 0.012)$. Also, the influence of the P− allele in TG values remained significant when corrected for viral load (*P* = 0.01; CI 95%:−102.65 to −14.6).

Given the findings of a significant protective role of the P− allele against hypertriglyceridemia and a trend towards lower TG levels in carriers of the H− allele, we further explored if LPL haplotypes explained any of the variation in the risk of developing hypertriglyceridemia after 1 year of HAART (Table 3). Remarkably, the presence of the P− allele was associated with up to an 11-fold lower risk of hypertriglyceridemia; additionally, when H− and P− were both present, this effect increased to over 16-fold. However, the additional existence of the X allele was not significantly associated with any protection against TG values over 150mg/dL.

We further assessed if HIV-1 viral loads and CD4⁺ T cells percentage in our study group were influenced by the LPL genotypes studied; no significant association was observed among these characteristics and the polymorphisms (data not shown).

TABLE 3. Risk of Developing Hypertriglyceridemia After 1 Year of HAART According to LPL Haplotype

LPL Haplotypes	OR (95% CI)	P
$H + /P + /S$	1.00	
$H + /P - /S$	$0.09(0.02 - 0.43)$	0.004
$H - /P - /S$	$0.06(0.01 - 0.74)$	0.033
$H - /P - /X$	$0.25(0.02 - 3.58)$	0.310

Global haplotype association *P* value: 0.0018.

Bold values are statistically significant.

In this study, we explored the role of 3 LPL genetic variants in plasma TG values in a group of HIV-1-infected children receiving HAART. We found that the P− allele had a diminishing effect on TG levels after 1 year of HAART in a gene dose-dependent manner. The presence of the P− allele alone significantly protected patients from developing hypertriglyceridemia, and the risk was even lower when the H− allele was also present.

Hypertriglyceridemia frequently occurred both before and after HAART initiation in this group of children. Hypertriglyceridemia at baseline was related to HIV-1 infection itself, consistent with prior reports establishing that HIV-1 infection alone increases plasma TG values.^{35,36} Hypertriglyceridemia after receiving HAART for 1 year was associated with low median viral loads and a high percentage of CD4⁺ T cell count, proxy indicators of medication adherence in children.

As there are no reports to date of the distribution of LPL variants in an Argentinean population, we first assessed it in a group of HIV-1 seronegative blood donors and found that the P− allele was very frequent (~50%), while H− (~25%) and 447X (~8%) were present in a smaller proportion. When compared with HIV-1-infected patients, no differences amid them were evident. Two of the SNPs, *Hind III* and S447X, were in linkage disequilibrium in both groups, as previously reported.³⁷⁻³⁹ The Argentinean population is considered to be white-Hispanic due to mostly European ancestry; accordingly we found no difference for the French population⁴⁰ or Brazilians of European descendants^{41,42} in any of the 3 SNPs analyzed. In Spanish³⁸ and Italian43 populations there was no difference in *Hind III* and S447X distribution. Also, no difference was found for *Hind III* variants when compared with Saudi⁴⁴ or Chinese⁴⁵ populations; conversely, there was a significant difference (*P* < 0.05) regarding *Pvu II* distribution, with a higher proportion of the P− allele in our population in both cases.

The role of LPL genetic variants has been explored in many pathological settings, such as cardiovascular disease, dyslipidemia and type two diabetes;^{46,47} however, in adult HIV-1-infected patients receiving HAART, data are scarce, and to our knowledge this is the first report in children. Our findings strongly indicate a protective effect of the P− allele against high plasma TG values in children receiving HAART. Moreover, this occurred in a gene dose-dependent manner; thus, children carrying the P−/P− genotype had the lowest TG values and none rose above 150 mg/dL. In a different setting, Sepetiba et al⁴² reported, in a group of pregnant women $(n = 88)$, that those carrying the P−/P− genotype had the lowest TG levels during puerperium and none above 150 mg/d L. Also, Wang et al⁴⁸ found in an adult population at risk of coronary artery disease (CAD) (n = 475) a dose-dependent relationship between the presence of the P− allele and low TG levels. However, there are several reports indicating that *Pvu II* does not have an association with plasma lipid levels⁴⁹⁻⁵² or CAD⁵³ in adults.

In our study an increase in the protective effect of the P− allele was encountered when H− appeared in the same haplotype; this is explained by an additive effect of both loci, since a trend towards lower TG values after 1 year of HAART in H− carriers was also observed, even though the association between *Hind III* and TG values neither at baseline nor after 1 year of HAART was statistically significant. Several studies found a relationship between *Hind III* and hypertriglyceridemia^{40,41,54} and hypercholesterolemia,⁵⁵ but others failed to encounter an association with lipid levels or CAD.^{43,44,56}

In a recent study, Marzocchetti et al²³ recruited 174 HIV-1-infected adults receiving HAART and evaluated the impact of S447X in the LPL gene, among other SNPs, in plasma lipid levels. A trend towards a lower risk of reaching high TG levels was associated when comparing the S447X mutant against the wild type. Nonetheless, they defined hypertriglyceridemia as TG > 500mg/dL. Also, a considerable number of reports in adults have shown significantly lower plasma TG levels and higher plasma HDL cholesterol levels among 447X carriers when compared with noncarriers.^{46,57-63}

In contrast, we did not find an overall association between the S447X genotype and plasma TG levels, either before or after 1 year of HAART. Studies that included healthy children by Chen et al, and children with or without a paternal history of CAD by Talmud et al have suggested that the effect of the S447X polymorphism in TG levels is more pronounced in adults and less perceptible in children.^{64,65} Changes in the penetrance of underlying genes as well as the effect of cumulative exposure to certain environmental factors are considered to affect variability in lipoprotein levels with age;^{66,67} still how aging affects the expression of this particular polymorphism remains to be determined. Additionally, the low number of patients carrying the 447X variant, only 4 S/X and no X/X, may not be enough to detect the presence of a true association between this SNP and plasma TG levels in this group of HIV-1-infected children.

Summarizing, there is growing evidence that these LPL polymorphisms have an effect on plasma lipids and risk to CAD. Whether they affect TG levels at baseline cannot be ruled out immediately in our group of patients, given the low number of children with data at this point. Thus, the association found between *Pvu II* and TG levels after 1 year of HAART may be due to an effect that was present before HAART started and enhanced after. Yet, the results point to an influence of this SNP when HAART has been present for at least a year. Various in vitro studies have addressed the impact of antiretroviral drugs in the expression of several genes that control the differentiation and lipid metabolism of adipocytes, such as the LPL gene.^{68,69} It is likely that polymorphisms in intronic sequences, like *Pvu II*, may act as regulatory elements or be in LD with such elements, probably having a different response to the effect that some PIs, such as nelfinavir, ritonavir and saquinavir, have on the expression of LPL mRNA.70

This study group was fairly homogeneous with a high percentage of children under the PI regimen. The use of PIs has been associated with hypertriglyceridemia and hypercholesterolemia, in both healthy volunteers⁷¹ and HIV-1-infected patients⁷²; yet, we were able to distinguish a group of patients carrying a particular SNP in the LPL gene (P−/P− genotype) that in spite of having the same kind and time of exposure to ARV drugs had significantly lower plasma TG values. This approach allowed us to evaluate the interaction between ARV treatment and the genetic background involved in lipid metabolism for the first time in children under HAART.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank Mrs. Carmen Gálvez for her excellent technical assistance. We are grateful to parents and legal guardians of the children for their participation in this study.

REFERENCES

- 1. Palella FJ Jr, Delaney KM, Moorman AC, et al. Declining morbidity and mortality among patients with advanced human immunodeficiency virus infection. HIV Outpatient Study Investigators. *N Engl J Med*. 1998;338:853–860.
- 2. Enanoria WT, Ng C, Saha SR, et al. Treatment outcomes after highly active antiretroviral therapy: a meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2004;4:414–425.
- 3. Berk DR, Falkovitz-Halpern MS, Hill DW, et al.; California Pediatric HIV Study Group. Temporal trends in early clinical manifestations of perinatal HIV infection in a population-based cohort. *JAMA*. 2005;293:2221–2231.
- 4. Shevitz A, Wanke CA, Falutz J, et al. Clinical perspectives on HIV-associated lipodystrophy syndrome: an update. *AIDS*. 2001;15:1917–1930.
- 5. Carr A, Cooper DA. Adverse effects of antiretroviral therapy. *Lancet*. 2000;356:1423–1430.
- 6. Dubé MP. Disorders of glucose metabolism in patients infected with human immunodeficiency virus. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2000;31:1467–1475.
- 7. Bergersen BM, Schumacher A, Sandvik L, et al. Important differences in components of the metabolic syndrome between HIV-patients with and without highly active antiretroviral therapy and healthy controls. *Scand J Infect Dis*. 2006;38:682–689.
- 8. Estrada V, Martínez-Larrad MT, González-Sánchez JL, et al. Lipodystrophy and metabolic syndrome in HIV-infected patients treated with antiretroviral therapy. *Metabolism*. 2006;55:940–945.
- 9. Alves C, Oliveira AC, Brites C. Lipodystrophic syndrome in children and adolescents infected with the human immunodeficiency virus. *Braz J Infect Dis*. 2008;12:342–348.
- 10. Krause JC, Toye MP, Fisher DJ, et al. Metabolic abnormalities in human immunodeficiency virus-infected children: two-year follow-up. *J Pediatr Endocrinol Metab*. 2009;22:345–351.
- 11. Bitnun A, Sochett E, Babyn P, et al. Serum lipids, glucose homeostasis and abdominal adipose tissue distribution in protease inhibitor-treated and naive HIV-infected children. *AIDS*. 2003;17:1319–1327.
- 12. Fontas E, van Leth F, Sabin CA, et al.; D:A:D Study Group. Lipid profiles in HIV-infected patients receiving combination antiretroviral therapy: are different antiretroviral drugs associated with different lipid profiles? *J Infect Dis*. 2004;189:1056–1074.
- 13. Périard D, Telenti A, Sudre P, et al. Atherogenic dyslipidemia in HIVinfected individuals treated with protease inhibitors. The Swiss HIV Cohort Study. *Circulation*. 1999;100:700–705.
- 14. Doser N, Sudre P, Telenti A, et al. Persistent dyslipidemia in HIV-infected individuals switched from a protease inhibitor-containing to an efavirenzcontaining regimen. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr*. 2001;26:389–390.
- 15. Martínez E, Arnaiz JA, Podzamczer D, et al.; Nevirapine, Efavirenz, and Abacavir (NEFA) Study Team. Substitution of nevirapine, efavirenz, or abacavir for protease inhibitors in patients with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *N Engl J Med*. 2003;349:1036–1046.
- 16. Young J, Weber R, Rickenbach M, et al. Lipid profiles for antiretroviralnaive patients starting PI- and NNRTI-based therapy in the Swiss HIV cohort study. *Antivir Ther*. 2005;10:585–591.
- 17. Murthy V, Julien P, Gagne C. Molecular pathobiology of the human lipoprotein lipase gene. *Pharmacol Ther*. 1996;70:101–135.
- 18. Hegele RA, Pollex RL. Hypertriglyceridemia: phenomics and genomics. *Mol Cell Biochem*. 2009;326:35–43.
- 19. Yuan G, Al-Shali KZ, Hegele RA. Hypertriglyceridemia: its etiology, effects and treatment. *CMAJ*. 2007;176:1113–1120.
- 20. Merkel M, Eckel RH, Goldberg IJ. Lipoprotein lipase: genetics, lipid uptake, and regulation. *J Lipid Res*. 2002;43:1997–2006.
- 21. Razzaghi H, Aston CE, Hamman RF, et al. Genetic screening of the lipoprotein lipase gene for mutations associated with high triglyceride/low HDLcholesterol levels. *Hum Genet*. 2000;107:257–267.
- 22. Arnedo M, Taffé P, Sahli R, et al.; Swiss HIV Cohort Study. Contribution of 20 single nucleotide polymorphisms of 13 genes to dyslipidemia associated with antiretroviral therapy. *Pharmacogenet Genomics*. 2007;17:755–764.
- 23. Marzocchetti A, Schwarz J, Di Giambenedetto S, et al. The effect of polymorphisms in candidate genes on the long-term risk of lipodystrophy and

dyslipidemia in HIV-infected white patients starting antiretroviral therapy. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses*. 2011;27:1299–1309.

- 24. Berenson GS, Srinivasan SR, Bao W, et al. Association between multiple cardiovascular risk Factors and atherosclerosis in children and young adults. *N Engl J Med*. 1998;338:1650–1656.
- 25. McGill HC Jr, McMahan CA, Zieske AW, et al. Associations of coronary heart disease risk factors with the intermediate lesion of atherosclerosis in youth. The Pathobiological Determinants of Atherosclerosis in Youth (PDAY) Research Group. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2000;20:1998–2004.
- 26. McGill HC Jr, McMahan CA, Herderick EE, et al. Effects of coronary heart disease risk factors on atherosclerosis of selected regions of the aorta and right coronary artery. PDAY Research Group. Pathobiological Determinants of Atherosclerosis in Youth. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2000;20: 836–845.
- 27. Strong JP, Malcom GT, McMahan CA, et al. Prevalence and extent of atherosclerosis in adolescents and young adults: implications for prevention from the Pathobiological Determinants of Atherosclerosis in Youth Study. *JAMA*. 1999;281:727–735.
- 28. McMahan CA, Gidding SS, Malcom GT, et al.; Pathobiological Determinants of Atherosclerosis in Youth Research Group. Pathobiological determinants of atherosclerosis in youth risk scores are associated with early and advanced atherosclerosis. *Pediatrics*. 2006;118:1447–1455.
- 29. Juonala M, Viikari JS, Rönnemaa T, et al. Associations of dyslipidemias from childhood to adulthood with carotid intima-media thickness, elasticity, and brachial flow-mediated dilatation in adulthood: the Cardiovascular Risk in Young Finns Study. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2008;28:1012–1017.
- 30. Mahoney LT, Burns TL, Stanford W, et al. Coronary risk factors measured in childhood and young adult life are associated with coronary artery calcification in young adults: the Muscatine Study. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 1996;27:277–284.
- 31. Li S, Chen W, Srinivasan SR, et al. Childhood cardiovascular risk factors and carotid vascular changes in adulthood: the Bogalusa Heart Study. *JAMA*. 2003;290:2271–2276.
- 32. US Center for Disease Control and Prevention Classification system for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection in children under 13 years of age. *Morb Mortal Wkly Rep*. 1994;43:1–10.
- 33. Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP). Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III) final report. *Circulation*. 2002;106: 3143–3421.
- 34. Kosaka T, Yoshino J, Inui K, et al. Impact of lipoprotein lipase gene polymorphisms on ulcerative colitis. *World J Gastroenterol*. 2006;12:6325–6330.
- 35. Hellerstein MK, Grunfeld C, Wu K, et al. Increased de novo hepatic lipogenesis in human immunodeficiency virus infection. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1993;76:559–565.
- 36. Grunfeld C, Pang M, Doerrler W, et al. Lipids, lipoproteins, triglyceride clearance, and cytokines in human immunodeficiency virus infection and the acquired immunodeficiency syndrome. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1992;74:1045–1052.
- 37. López-Miranda J, Cruz G, Gómez P, et al. The influence of lipoprotein lipase gene variation on postprandial lipoprotein metabolism. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2004;89:4721–4728.
- 38. Ariza MJ, Sánchez-Chaparro MA, Barón FJ, et al. Additive effects of LPL, APOA5 and APOE variant combinations on triglyceride levels and hypertriglyceridemia: results of the ICARIA genetic sub-study. *BMC Med Genet*. 2010;11:66.
- 39. Humphries SE, Nicaud V, Margalef J, et al. Lipoprotein lipase gene variation is associated with a paternal history of premature coronary artery disease and fasting and postprandial plasma triglycerides: the European Atherosclerosis Research Study (EARS). *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 1998;18:526–534.
- 40. Jemaa R, Fumeron F, Poirier O, et al. Lipoprotein lipase gene polymorphisms: associations with myocardial infarction and lipoprotein levels, the ECTIM study. Etude Cas Temoin sur l'Infarctus du Myocarde. *J Lipid Res*. 1995;36:2141–2146.
- 41. Rios DL, Vargas AF, Ewald GM, et al. Common variants in the lipoprotein lipase gene in Brazil: association with lipids and angiographically assessed coronary atherosclerosis. *Clin Chem Lab Med*. 2003;41:1351–1356.
- 42. Sepetiba RJ, Andrade J, Hirata RD, et al. Lipoprotein lipase PvuII polymorphism is associated with variations in serum lipid levels in non-diabetic pregnant women. *Braz J Med Biol Res*. 2007;40:919–926.
- 43. Baroni MG, Berni A, Romeo S, et al. Genetic study of common variants at the Apo E, Apo AI, Apo CIII, Apo B, lipoprotein lipase (LPL) and hepatic lipase (LIPC) genes and coronary artery disease (CAD): variation in LIPC

gene associates with clinical outcomes in patients with established CAD. *BMC Med Genet*. 2003;4:8.

- 44. Abu-Amero KK, Wyngaard CA, Al-Boudari OM, et al. Lack of association of lipoprotein lipase gene polymorphisms with coronary artery disease in the Saudi Arab population. *Arch Pathol Lab Med*. 2003;127:597–600.
- 45. Wang LN, Yu Q, Xiong Y, et al. Lipoprotein lipase gene polymorphisms and risks of childhood obesity in Chinese preschool children. *Eur J Pediatr*. 2011;170:1309–1316.
- 46. Lee J, Tan CS, Chia KS, et al. The lipoprotein lipase S447X polymorphism and plasma lipids: interactions with APOE polymorphisms, smoking, and alcohol consumption. *J Lipid Res*. 2004;45:1132–1139.
- 47. Jeppesen J, Hansen TW, Torp-Pedersen C, et al. Relationship between common lipoprotein lipase gene sequence variants, hyperinsulinemia, and risk of ischemic heart disease: a population-based study. *Atherosclerosis*. 2010;211:506–511.
- 48. Wang XL, McCredie RM, Wilcken DE. Common DNA polymorphisms at the lipoprotein lipase gene. Association with severity of coronary artery disease and diabetes. *Circulation*. 1996;93:1339–1345.
- 49. Thorn JA, Chamberlain JC, Alcolado JC, et al. Lipoprotein and hepatic lipase gene variants in coronary atherosclerosis. *Atherosclerosis*. 1990;85: 55–60.
- 50. Peacock RE, Hamsten A, Nilsson-Ehle P, et al. Associations between lipoprotein lipase gene polymorphisms and plasma correlations of lipids, lipoproteins and lipase activities in young myocardial infarction survivors and age-matched healthy individuals from Sweden. *Atherosclerosis*. 1992;97:171–185.
- 51. Mitchell RJ, Earl L, Bray P, et al. DNA polymorphisms at the lipoprotein lipase gene and their association with quantitative variation in plasma highdensity lipoproteins and triacylglycerides. *Hum Biol*. 1994;66:383–397.
- 52. Isbir T, Yilmaz H, Agachan B, et al. Cholesterol ester transfer protein, apolipoprotein E and lipoprotein lipase genotypes in patients with coronary artery disease in the Turkish population. *Clin Genet*. 2003;64:228–234.
- 53. Cagatay P, Susleyici-Duman B, Ciftci C. Lipoprotein lipase gene PvuII polymorphism serum lipids and risk for coronary artery disease: meta-analysis. *Dis Markers*. 2007;23:161–166.
- 54. Mattu RK, Needham EW, Morgan R, et al. DNA variants at the LPL gene locus associate with angiographically defined severity of atherosclerosis and serum lipoprotein levels in a Welsh population. *Arterioscler Thromb*. 1994;14:1090–1097.
- 55. Heizmann C, Kirchgessner T, Kwiterovich PO, et al. DNA polymorphism haplotypes of the human lipoprotein lipase gene: possible association with high density lipoprotein levels. *Hum Genet*. 1991;86:578–584.
- 56. Vohl MC, Lamarche B, Moorjani S, et al. The lipoprotein lipase HindIII polymorphism modulates plasma triglyceride levels in visceral obesity. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 1995;15:714–720.
- 57. Goodarzi MO, Taylor KD, Guo X, et al. Haplotypes in the lipoprotein lipase gene influence fasting insulin and discovery of a new risk haplotype. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2007;92:293–296.
- 58. Skoglund-Andersson C, Ehrenborg E, Fisher RM, et al. Influence of common variants in the CETP, LPL, HL and APO E genes on LDL heterogeneity in healthy, middle-aged men. *Atherosclerosis*. 2003;167:311–317.
- 59. Wittrup HH, Nordestgaard BG, Steffensen R, et al. Effect of gender on phenotypic expression of the S447X mutation in LPL: the Copenhagen City Heart Study. *Atherosclerosis*. 2002;165:119–126.
- 60. Ukkola O, Garenc C, Pérusse L, et al. Genetic variation at the lipoprotein lipase locus and plasma lipoprotein and insulin levels in the Québec Family Study. *Atherosclerosis*. 2001;158:199–206.
- 61. Corella D, Guillén M, Sáiz C, et al. Associations of LPL and APOC3 gene polymorphisms on plasma lipids in a Mediterranean population: interaction with tobacco smoking and the APOE locus. *J Lipid Res*. 2002;43: 416–427.
- 62. Talmud PJ, Hawe E, Robertson K, et al. Genetic and environmental determinants of plasma high density lipoprotein cholesterol and apolipoprotein AI concentrations in healthy middle-aged men. *Ann Hum Genet*. 2002;66(Pt 2):111–124.
- 63. Sass C, Zannad F, Herbeth B, et al. Apolipoprotein E4, lipoprotein lipase C447 and angiotensin-I converting enzyme deletion alleles were not associated with increased wall thickness of carotid and femoral arteries in healthy subjects from the Stanislas cohort. *Atherosclerosis*. 1998;140:89–95.
- 64. Talmud PJ, Berglund L, Hawe EM, et al. Age-related effects of genetic variation on lipid levels: The Columbia University BioMarkers Study. *Pediatrics*. 2001;108:E50.
- 65. Chen W, Srinivasan SR, Elkasabany A, et al. Influence of lipoprotein lipase serine 447 stop polymorphism on tracking of triglycerides and HDL cholesterol from childhood to adulthood and familial risk of coronary artery disease: the Bogalusa heart study. *Atherosclerosis*. 2001;159:367–373.
- 66. Snieder H, van Doornen LJ, Boomsma DI. Dissecting the genetic architecture of lipids, lipoproteins, and apolipoproteins: lessons from twin studies. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 1999;19:2826–2834.
- 67. Jarvik GP, Goode EL, Austin MA, et al. Evidence that the apolipoprotein E-genotype effects on lipid levels can change with age in males: a longitudinal analysis. *Am J Hum Genet*. 1997;61:171–181.
- 68. Zhang B, MacNaul K, Szalkowski D, et al. Inhibition of adipocyte differentiation by HIV protease inhibitors. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 1999;84:4274–4277.
- 69. Ranganathan S, Kern PA. The HIV protease inhibitor saquinavir impairs lipid metabolism and glucose transport in cultured adipocytes. *J Endocrinol*. 2002;172:155–162.
- 70. Lenhard JM, Furfine ES, Jain RG, et al. HIV protease inhibitors block adipogenesis and increase lipolysis *in vitro*. *Antiviral Res*. 2000;47: 121–129.
- 71. Purnell JQ, Zambon A, Knopp RH, et al. Effect of ritonavir on lipids and post-heparin lipase activities in normal subjects. *AIDS*. 2000;14:51–57.
- 72. Lainka E, Oezbek S, Falck M, et al. Marked dyslipidemia in human immunodeficiency virus-infected children on protease inhibitor-containing antiretroviral therapy. *Pediatrics*. 2002;110:e56.