

Common variants at 30 loci contribute to polygenic dyslipidemia

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Blood low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol and triglyceride levels are risk factors for cardiovascular disease. To dissect the polygenic basis of these traits, we conducted genome-wide association screens in 19,840 individuals and replication in up to 20,623 individuals. We identified 30 distinct loci associated with lipoprotein concentrations (each with $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$), including 11 loci that reached genome-wide significance for the first time. The 11 newly defined loci include common variants associated with LDL cholesterol near *ABCG8*, *MAFB*, *HNF1A* and *TIMD4*; with HDL cholesterol near *ANGPTL4*, *FADS1-FADS2-FADS3*, *HNF4A*, *LCAT*, *PLTP* and *TTC39B*; and with triglycerides near *AMAC1L2*, *FADS1-FADS2-FADS3* and *PLTP*. The proportion of individuals exceeding clinical cut points for high LDL cholesterol, low HDL cholesterol and high triglycerides varied according to an allelic dosage score ($P < 10^{-15}$ for each trend). These results suggest that the cumulative effect of multiple common variants contributes to polygenic dyslipidemia.



Recent genome-wide association studies (GWASs) have localized common DNA sequence variants that contribute to many human phenotypes $^{\rm l}$. The success of this approach has been particularly notable for blood lipoprotein levels. We and others recently reported that at least 19 genetic loci harbor common DNA sequence variants associated with blood LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol and/or triglycerides $^{2-6}$. Those loci consist of genes previously shown to affect lipoprotein metabolism in humans, as well as eight loci that were newly reported at the time. However, each variant conferred a modest effect, and, together, the variants explained only a small fraction ($\sim 5\%$) of interindividual variability in lipoprotein levels. These observations suggested that additional loci harboring lipid-associated DNA sequence variants could be identified with larger samples and improved statistical power for gene discovery.

RESULTS

Meta-analysis and replication of genome-wide association scans We conducted a meta-analysis of seven GWASs of blood lipoprotein and lipid phenotypes, and we conducted follow-up replication analyses in up to five additional studies (Table 1; see Supplementary Fig. 1 online for study design). The Framingham Heart Study (FHS), a prospective epidemiologic cohort established in 1948, represents the largest GWAS sample⁷. Among the three generations of FHS participants who have been enrolled, we focused on second- and third-generation participants with fasting blood lipid phenotypes^{8,9}. The power of the sample was indicated by the observation that for each of eight SNPs recently associated with lipid levels (near *SORT1* for LDL cholesterol; *MMAB-MVK* and *GALNT2* for HDL cholesterol; and *GCKR*, *TRIB1*, *MLXIPL*, *NCAN* and *ANGPTL3* for triglycerides), association results in the FHS confirmed our earlier reports

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Table 1 Study design and participant characteristics

Design				Stage 1 GWASs	SS				St	Stage 2 replication studies	dies	
Study	FHSª	LOLIPOP	SUVIMAX	InCHIANTI	DGI	FUSION	SardiNIA	MDC-CC ^b	FINRISK97 ^b	FUSION Stage 2 ^b	METSIM ^b	^q SIS _p
n Ascertain ment scheme	7,423 Community- based cohort	7,423 1,050 Community- Community- based cohort based cohort	1,551 Community- based cohort	1,132 Community- based cohort	2,626 Cases, type 2 diabetes; controls, diabetes	1,874 Cases, type 2 diabetes; controls, diabetes free	4,184 Community- based cohort	5,519 Community- based cohort	7,940 Population- based cohort	2,224 Cases, type 2 dia- betes; controls, diabetes free	3,764 Community- based cohort	2,497 Cases, myocardial infarction; controls, myocardial infarction free
Genotyping platform	Affymetrix Affymetrix 5.0, 5.0c supplemental 50K	Affymetrix 5.0° al	Illumina 317K	Illumina 550K	Affymetrix 5.0	Affymetrix Illumina 317K 5.0	Affymetrix 5.0 Sequenom, TaqMan	Sequenom, TaqMan	Sequenom	Sequenom	Sequenom	TaqMan
No. directly genotyped SNPs	432,815	374,773	294,882	484,115	398,878	304,581	356,359	99	09	52	52	45
No. imputed SNPs Country of origin ^d	2,435,180 US	2,451,793 UK	2,490,255 France	2,461,089 Italy	2,361,966 Sweden, Finland	2,361,966 2,477,862 Sweden, Finland Finland	2,252,558 Italy	Sweden	— Finland	— Finland	— Finland	Š
Fasting lipids Mean age, years	Yes 38 ± 10	Yes 52 ± 10	Yes 50 ± 6	Yes 68 ± 16	Yes 62 ± 11	Yes ^e 61 ± 10	Yes 43 ± 17	Yes 58 ± 6	Yes 50 ± 13	Yes 59 ± 8	Yes 59 ± 6	No ^f 50 ± 9
Female gender, %	53	18	62	56	51	45	56	59	50	40	0 216 . 27	38
LDL cholesterol, mg/dl	133 ± 37 119 ± 34	135 ± 34	137 ± 32	132 ± 35	151 ± 40	223 ± 41 142 ± 36	206 ± 42 127 ± 36	239 ± 42 161 ± 38	214 ± 21 135 ± 36	131 ± 35	138 ± 32	22.5 ± 45 137 ± 37
HDL cholesterol, mg/dl Triglvcerides. mg/dl	53 ± 15 $107 + 91$	53 ± 14	64 ± 15 91 + 39	56 ± 15 $123 + 75$	50 ± 13 53 ± 16 146 + 104 145 + 91	53 ± 16	64 ± 15 86 + 60	53 ± 14	54 ± 14 $133 + 93$	55 ± 16 137 + 80	58 ± 16 $127 + 99$	47 ± 13 162 + 1158
Body mass index, kg/m ² Individuals with diabetes mellitus, %	26.0 ± 5.0 2.4		23.6 ± 3.2 0.8	27.1 ± 4.2 7.8	27.6 ± 4.2 49.3	27.6 ± 4.2 28.3 ± 4.5 49.3 41.3	25.0 ± 4.7 2.3	25.8 ± 3.9 8.4	26.7 ± 4.5 3.5	28.5 ± 5.0 43.5	27.0 ± 4.1 11.6	25.6 ± 4.1 3.6

Values with "±" are means ± s.d. To convert values for cholesterol to mM, multiply by 0.02586. To convert values for triglycerides to mM, multiply by 0.01129. Body mass index is weight (kg) divided by square of height (m).

**Participant characteristics from baseline examination of second and third generations (1971–1975 and 2001–2005, respectively) are provided. **Individuals with phenotype and at least one successful genotyped is presented because of exclusions and genotyping failures. *627 individuals were genotyped using Affinetrix 5.0, and 423 using a customized genome-wide array designed and genotyped by Perlegen Sciences.

**All individuals studied were of self-reported European ancestry. **all FIRIRISK97, individuals were instructed to fast for at least 4 h, with mean fasting time of 6 ± 4 h. Blood samples were nortanise. **Triglycerides were not analyzed. For controls free of myocardial infarction, all three lipid phenotypes were directly measured on nonfasting samples. **Triglyceride values are based only on controls free of myocardial infarction, all three lipid phenotypes were on nonfasting samples. **Triglyceride values are based only on controls free of myocardial infarction, all three lipid phenotypes were on nonfasting samples. **Triglyceride values are based only on controls free of myocardial infarction.

(P < 0.05; Supplementary Table 1 online)^{3,4}. Replication consisted of the same allele at the same SNP associated in the same direction.

To the FHS data for 7,423 individuals, we added GWAS data for 3,733 individuals of European ancestry from the London Life Sciences Prospective Population Cohort (LOLIPOP), Supplémentation en Vitamines et Minéraux Antioxydants (SUVIMAX) and Invecchiare in Chianti (InCHIANTI) studies (**Supplementary Methods** online) and 8,684 individuals from our previous studies of the Diabetes Genetics Initiative (DGI)^{2,3}, Finland–United States Investigation of NIDDM Genetics (FUSION)⁴ and SardiNIA Study of Aging

(SardiNIA)⁴ samples, to bring the total stage 1 sample size to 19,840 individuals (**Supplementary Fig. 1**).

We used genotyped SNPs from each study and phased chromosomes from the HapMap sample of Utah residents with ancestry from northern and western Europe (CEU) to impute autosomal SNPs with minor allele frequency > 1%. A total of \sim 2.6 million SNPs that were directly genotyped or imputed were tested for association with lipoprotein traits. Association statistics for each marker from each of the seven studies were combined using a weighted z statistic–based meta-analysis⁴. Genomic control parameters for the meta-analysis

Table 2 Genetic loci where common polymorphisms are associated with blood lipoprotein concentrations

					Associated interval Gene(s) of interest		nates ^a	
Trait	Chr.	SNP	P for combined stage 1 + 2 association	Combined Associated interval Gene(s) of interest stage 1 + 2 size, kb (no. of genes within or near Major allele, sample size within interval) associated interval minor allele (MAF)		Effect size for minor allele (s.e.m.) ^b		
Newly	identified co	ommon SNPs ^d						
LDL	2p21	rs6544713	2 × 10 ⁻²⁰	23,456	52 (2)	ABCG8	C, T (0.32) ^c	0.15 (0.02)
LDL	5q23	rs1501908	1×10^{-11}	27,280	153 (2)	TIMD4-HAVCR1	C, G (0.37)	-0.07 (0.02)
LDL	20q12	rs6102059	4×10^{-9}	28,895	104 (0)	MAFB	C, T (0.32) ^c	-0.06 (0.02)
LDL	12q24	rs2650000	2×10^{-8}	39,340	112 (3)	HNF1A	C, A (0.36)	0.07 (0.02)
HDL	11q12	rs174547	2×10^{-12}	40,330	84 (5)	FADS1-FADS2-FADS3	T, C (0.33)	-0.09 (0.02)
HDL	16q22	rs2271293	9×10^{-13}	31,946	620 (25)	LCAT	G, A (0.11)	0.07 (0.03)
HDL	9p22	rs471364	3×10^{-10}	40,414	55 (1)	TTC39B	T, C (0.12)	-0.08 (0.03)
HDL	20q13	rs1800961	8×10^{-10}	30,714	24 (1)	HNF4A	C, T (0.03)	-0.19 (0.05)
HDL	20q13	rs7679	4×10^{-9}	40,248	141 (5)	PLTP	T, C (0.19)	-0.07 (0.02)
HDL	19p13	rs2967605	1×10^{-8}	35,151	155 (5)	ANGPTL4	C, T (0.16)c	-0.12 (0.04)
TG	11q12	rs174547	2×10^{-14}	38,846	84 (5)	FADS1-FADS2-FADS3	T, C (0.33)	0.06 (0.02)
TG	20q13	rs7679	7×10^{-11}	38,561	141 (5)	PLTP	T, C (0.19)	0.07 (0.02)
TG	8p23	rs7819412	3×10^{-8}	33,336	550 (4)	XKR6-AMAC1L2	A, G (0.48)	-0.04 (0.02)
Loci w	ith definitive	e prior association	evidence					
LDL	1p13	rs12740374	2×10^{-42}	19,648	85 (4)	CELSR2, PSRC1, SORT1	G, T (0.21) ^c	-0.23 (0.02)
LDL	2p24	rs515135	5×10^{-29}	19,648	214 (1)	APOB	C, T (0.20)c	-0.16 (0.02)
LDL	19q13	rs4420638	4×10^{-27}	11,881	79 (4)	APOE-APOC1-APOC4-APOC2	A, G (0.16) ^c	0.29 (0.06)
LDL	19p13	rs6511720	2×10^{-26}	19,648	30 (1)	LDLR	G, T (0.10)c	-0.26 (0.04)
LDL	5q13	rs3846663	8×10^{-12}	19,648	476 (4)	HMGCR	C, T (0.38)	0.07 (0.02)
LDL	19p13	rs10401969	2×10^{-8}	19,648	503 (18)	NCAN, CILP2, PBX4	T, C (0.06) ^c	-0.05 (0.04)
LDL	1p32	rs11206510	4×10^{-8}	19,629	16 (1)	PCSK9	T, C (0.19)	-0.09 (0.02)
HDL	16q13	rs173539	4×10^{-75}	19,794	36 (1)	CETP	C, T (0.32) ^c	0.25 (0.02)
HDL	8p21	rs12678919	2×10^{-34}	19,794	126 (1)	LPL	A, G (0.10) ^c	0.23 (0.03)
HDL	15q22	rs10468017	8×10^{-23}	19,794	47 (0)	LIPC	C, T (0.30) ^c	0.10 (0.02)
HDL	18q21	rs4939883	7×10^{-15}	19,785	128 (1)	LIPG	C, T (0.17)	-0.14 (0.02)
HDL	11q23	rs964184	1×10^{-12}	19,794	138 (3)	APOA1-APOC3-APOA4-APOA5	C, G (0.14) ^c	-0.17 (0.03)
HDL	12q24	rs2338104	1×10^{-10}	19,793	315 (5)	MMAB, MVK	G, C (0.45)	-0.07 (0.02)
HDL	9q31	rs1883025	1×10^{-9}	19,371	48 (1)	ABCA1	C, T (0.26)°	-0.08 (0.02)
HDL	1q42	rs4846914	4×10^{-8}	19,794	53 (1)	GALNT2	A, G (0.40)	-0.05 (0.02)
TG	11q23	rs964184	4×10^{-62}	19,840	138 (3)	APOA1-APOC3-APOA4-APOA5	C, G (0.14) ^c	0.30 (0.03)
TG	8p21	rs12678919	2×10^{-41}	19,840	126 (1)	LPL	A, G (0.10) ^c	-0.25 (0.03)
TG	2p23	rs1260326	2×10^{-31}	19,840	465 (22)	GCKR	C, T (0.45) ^c	0.12 (0.02)
TG	8q24	rs2954029	3×10^{-19}	19,840	35 (0)	TRIB1	A, T (0.44) ^c	-0.11 (0.02)
TG	7q11	rs714052	3×10^{-15}	19,840	254 (5)	MLXIPL	A, G (0.12) ^c	-0.16 (0.03)
TG	2p24	rs7557067	9×10^{-12}	19,840	149 (1)	APOB	A, G (0.12) ^c	-0.16 (0.03) -0.08 (0.02)
TG	19p13	rs17216525	4×10^{-11}	19,840	448 (15)	NCAN, CILP2, PBX4	C, T (0.07) ^c	-0.11 (0.03)
TG	19013 1p31	rs10889353	3×10^{-7}	19,840	305 (3)	ANGPTL3	A, C (0.33) ^c	-0.11 (0.03) -0.05 (0.02)
10	1 h2 1	1310003333	3 × 10 ·	19,004	303 (3)	ANGI ILS	A, C (0.33)	-0.03 (0.02)

Chr., chromosome; MAF, minor allele frequency.

^aEffect size and direction from the FHS, the largest of the stage 1 studies, are presented for illustrative purposes. Alleles for the SNP on the forward strand of the human genome reference sequence (NCBI build 36.2) are shown, and the minor allele at each SNP was modeled. ^bEffect size shown is β-coefficient, which represents change in lipid levels measured in s.d. units (in a sex-stratified analysis after adjustment for age, age² and ten ancestry-informative principal components) per copy of the allele modeled. ^cResults for these SNPs are derived from imputed SNP data. ^cFor five of these loci (*TIMD4-HAVCR1, MAFB, FADS1-FADS3, TTC39B* and *XKR6-AMAC1L2*), there is no prior statistical evidence for association with blood lipoprotein concentrations. For the remaining six, there is at least some modest statistical evidence for common SNPs.



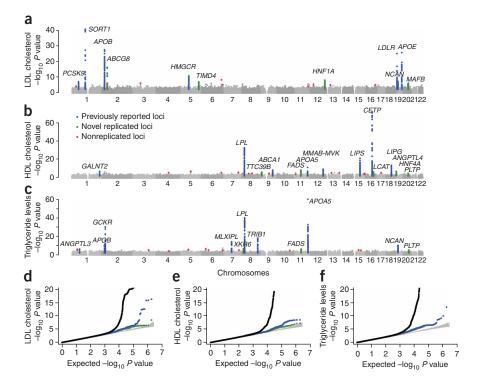


Figure 1 Summary of genome-wide association results for LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol and triglycerides from stage 1. (a–c) Chromosome number versus $-\log_{10}P$ values for LDL cholesterol (a), HDL cholesterol (b) and triglycerides (c). Green, 11 newly identified loci; blue, previously reported loci; gray, loci not subjected to follow-up; red, loci that did not replicate. (d–f) Quantile-quantile plot for test statistics, with observed association P values plotted as a function of expected P values. Black line, all test statistics; blue line, 19 previously reported loci excluded; green line, 11 loci confirmed in this study also excluded; gray area, 90% confidence region from a null distribution of P values (generated from 100 simulations). Blue and green lines are superimposed for triglycerides.

of the stage 1 studies were low, at 1.03 for LDL cholesterol, 1.04 for HDL cholesterol and 1.03 for triglycerides, suggesting little residual confounding caused by population stratification or unmodeled relatedness.

In the meta-analysis of seven stage 1 studies, 25 unique loci harbored variants associated with LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol or triglycerides at a significance level of $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ (corresponding to P < 0.05 after adjusting for ~ 1 million independent tests, the estimated multiple testing burden in GWAS of individuals of European ancestry¹⁰). To evaluate these and other less significantly associated SNPs from stage 1, we genotyped SNPs in a maximum of 20,623 individuals from five stage 2 studies: Malmö Diet and Cancer Study (MDC)¹¹, FINRISK97 (ref. 12), FUSION stage 2 (ref. 13), Metabolic Syndrome in Men (METSIM) and International Study of Infarct Survival (ISIS)¹⁴ (**Table 1** and **Supplementary Fig. 1**). These SNPs were selected to focus on loci that had not previously been associated with our lipoprotein phenotypes (see Methods).

In the analysis including stage 1 and stage 2 studies, SNPs at 30 loci were convincingly associated ($P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$) with LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol or triglycerides, including 11 loci that reached genome-wide significance for the first time (**Table 2** and **Fig. 1**). Each of the loci reached $P < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ in stage 1 and P < 0.05 in stage 2 (**Supplementary Table 2** online). The 11 loci definitively identified in this study included genes whose function in humans has previously been studied (*ABCG8* (ref. 15); *ANGPTL4* (ref. 16); *FADS1-FADS2-FADS3* (ref. 17); *HNF4A*¹⁸; *LCAT*¹⁹; *PLTP*²⁰; and *HNF1A*²¹) and genes whose function in humans is poorly

understood (TTC39B, TIMD4-HAVCR1, XKR6, AMAC1L2 and MAFB; Fig. 2).

We confirmed these 30 association signals by carrying out a uniform analysis strategy for all studies and then applying an inverse-variance weighted meta-analysis (Supplementary Table 3 online). This analysis also allowed us to test for heterogeneity in effect sizes across studies. No significant evidence for heterogeneity was detected for any of the newly identified loci (Supplementary Tables 4–6 online).

Lipid-associated SNPs and gene expression in human liver

The associated SNP at 1 of the 11 new loci was a nonsynonymous coding variant, HNF4A rs1800961 (T130I, 3% frequency), and the remaining 10 new associated SNPs were noncoding. We therefore explored whether lipid-associated variants might influence gene expression as cis-acting regulators of nearby genes. We genotyped DNA and profiled RNA expression of >39,000 transcripts in 957 human liver tissue samples²². We conducted expression quantitative trait locus analyses relating the SNPs in Table 2 with liver transcripts located within 500 kb to either side of the associated SNP (Table 3). Together, the lipoprotein association data and the expression quantitative trait locus analyses highlighted several biological insights.

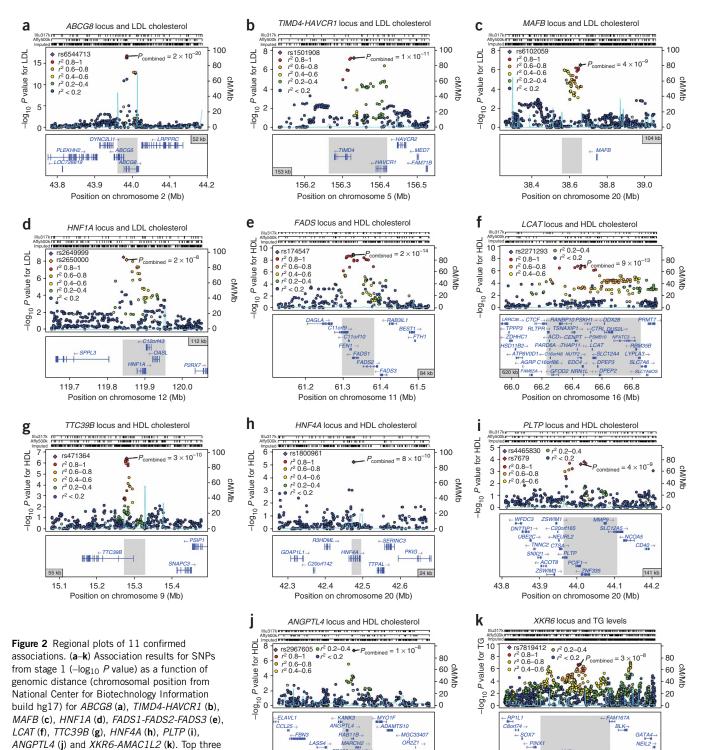
For example, among five genes at the 20q13 locus for HDL cholesterol and triglycerides,

expression of *PLTP* was associated with rs7679 ($P = 6 \times 10^{-17}$; **Table 3**). The rs7679 allele associated with higher *PLTP* transcript levels was also associated with higher HDL cholesterol and lower triglycerides (**Tables 2** and **3**). This is consistent with prior work in mice showing that *Pltp* overexpression leads to higher HDL cholesterol²³, whereas targeted deletion leads to lower HDL cholesterol²⁴. Consistency between the direction of effect on transcript levels and lipoprotein concentration was also evident at the *LIPC* locus. In agreement with earlier studies in which lower hepatic lipase activity and higher HDL cholesterol were associated with *LIPC* promoter variants²⁵, the minor T allele at *LIPC* rs10468017 was associated with lower *LIPC* expression in our study ($P = 2 \times 10^{-18}$; **Table 2**) and increased HDL cholesterol ($P = 8 \times 10^{-23}$; **Table 3**).

Another strong signal mapped to a cluster of three fatty acid desaturase genes (FADS1-FADS2-FADS3) on 11q12 (Fig. 2e). The cluster showed association with both HDL cholesterol and triglycerides (Table 2), and the expression quantitative trait locus data suggested that the associated SNP modulates expression of FADS1 and FADS3 (Table 3). The allele associated with increased FADS1 and FADS3 expression led to higher HDL cholesterol and lower triglycerides. Fatty acid desaturases convert polyunsaturated fatty acids into cell signaling metabolites, including arachidonic acid. SNPs at this locus have been previously related to levels of arachidonic acid in serum phospholipids and red blood cell plasma membranes¹⁷. In addition, dietary omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids—a key substrate for FADS1—are known to lower plasma triglycerides, possibly by decreasing very-low-density lipoprotein secretion²⁶.







indicate SNP at each locus with the strongest stage 1 association evidence. Each circle represents a SNP, with the color of the circle indicating the correlation between that SNP and the best stage 1 SNP at the locus (purple diamond). P_{combined} values indicate association evidence for the SNP based on the combined stage 1 and 2 data. In most cases, the best stage 1 SNP at the locus (purple diamond) was taken forward to stage 2; however, alternate SNPs (red or orange diamonds) were taken forward at two loci (*HNF1A* and *PLTP*). Light blue lines indicate estimated recombination hot spots in HapMap. Bottom panel shows genes at each locus as annotated in the UCSC Genome Browser Annotation Database as of September 16, 2008. Gray bar indicates associated interval spanning the SNP taken forward to stage 2. Associated intervals were determined as described in Methods. TG, triglyceride.

8.4

Position on chromosome 19 (Mb)

8.6

8.2

8.0

lines show genomic coverage at the locus, with each vertical tick representing directly genotyped

(Illumina (Illu317k) or Affymetrix (Affy500k)

platforms) or imputed SNPs. Purple diamonds

550 kb

10.8 11.0 11.2 11.4

Position on chromosome 8 (Mb)

du

Table 3 Cis-acting association of validated lipid polymorphisms with transcript levels in human liver

Lipid-associated SNP	Lipid trait	Locus	Gene(s) of interest in associated genomic interval	Transcript gene symbol	No. of liver samples	Major, minor alleles for SNP associated with liver transcript level	P for association evidence with liver transcript level	Allele modeled, direction of effect on transcript level, direction of effect on lipid level
rs7679	HDL	20q13	PLTP	PLTP	885	T, C	6 × 10 ⁻¹⁷	T, +, +
	TG							T, +, -
rs10468017	HDL	15q22	LIPC	LIPC	950	C, T	2×10^{-18}	T, -, +
				ALDH1A2	943	C, T	2×10^{-9}	T, -, +
rs174547 ^a	HDL	11q12	FADS1-FADS2-FADS3	FADS1	943	T, C	5×10^{-35}	T, +, +
	TG							T, +, -
	HDL			FADS3	925	T, C	1×10^{-8}	T, +, +
	TG							T, +, -
rs471364	HDL	9p22	TTC39B	TTC39B	955	T, C	3×10^{-8}	T, -, +
rs12740374 ^b	LDL	1p13	CELSR2, PSRC1, SORT1	SORT1	946	T, C	4×10^{-272}	T, -, +
				PSRC1		T, C	2×10^{-241}	T, -, +
				CELSR2		T, C	6×10^{-80}	T, -, +
rs2338104 ^c	HDL	12q24	MMAB, MVK	MMAB	957	A, G	4×10^{-43}	G, -, +
rs10889353	TG	1p31	ANGPLT3	DOCK7	952	A, C	2×10^{-27}	C, +, -
				ANGPTL3	903	A, C	2×10^{-11}	C, +, -

aSNP associated with liver transcript level was rs102275 ($r^2 = 1$ with rs174547 in HapMap CEU). bSNP associated with liver transcript level was rs646776 ($r^2 = 1$ with rs12740374 in HapMap CEU). cSNP associated with liver transcript level was rs2058804 ($r^2 = 1$ with rs2338014 in HapMap CEU).

At 9p22, an HDL-associated SNP was associated with expression of tetratricopeptide repeat domain 39B (TTC39B; $P=3\times10^{-10}$ for genotype–HDL cholesterol association and $P=3\times10^{-8}$ for genotype-expression association; **Fig. 2g** and **Tables 2** and **3**). The allele associated with lower TTC39B transcript levels was also associated with higher HDL cholesterol. Tetratricopeptides, in general, seem to function in protein-protein interactions²⁷, but TTC39B presently has no annotated function in humans.

Genes causing mendelian syndromes also harbor common SNPs

Among the other loci to reach genome-wide significance, ABCG8 and LCAT have been shown to cause mendelian forms of dyslipidemia^{28,29} (Fig. 2a,f). Loss-of-function mutations at ABCG8 and LCAT lead to sitosterolemia and fish-eye disease, respectively. Common SNPs at ABCG8 and LCAT have been studied for association with plasma LDL and HDL cholesterol, respectively. In our study, common variants at both loci reached genome-wide significance for the first time (Table 2). For example, we found the previously studied ABCG8 D19H variant to be associated with LDL cholesterol (rs11887534, $P = 1 \times 10^{-11}$) and found an even stronger common variant signal, a SNP in intron 2 of ABCG8 (rs6544713, 0.15 s.d. unit change per copy, $P = 2 \times 10^{-29}$; $r^2 = 0.02$ with ABCG8 D19H). Both D19H and a proxy for ABCG8 rs6544713 (rs4299376, $r^2 = 1$) were recently shown to affect risk for cholesterol gallstone disease³⁰; for both the coding and intronic variants, the allele corresponding to lower plasma LDL cholesterol in the present study has been associated with higher risk of gallstones.

The observed signals at *ABCG8* and *LCAT* further strengthen the connection between loci for mendelian dyslipidemic syndromes and those with common variants of modest effect. For at least 11 of the 30 loci in **Table 2** (*ABCG8*, *LCAT*, *APOB*, *APOE*, *LDLR*, *PCSK9*, *CETP*, *LPL*, *LIPC*, *APOA5* and *ABCA1*), a biologically relevant lipoprotein gene was implicated not only by common variants (>5% frequency) but also by low-frequency variants (0.5%–5% frequency) and/or rare mutations (variants unique to individual families).

Another connection between signals identified here and rare mendelian disorders occurred for *HNF4A* and *HNF1A*, two causes of maturity-onset diabetes of the young (**Fig. 2d,h**). Both genes encode

hepatic nuclear transcription factors that regulate numerous target genes involved in lipoprotein metabolism, including apolipoproteins, cholesterol synthesis enzymes and bile acid transporters³¹. Although mice lacking either *Hnf4a* or *Hnf1a* have altered plasma cholesterol levels^{32,33}, there has been only modest evidence to date connecting these genes to either HDL or LDL cholesterol concentrations in humans^{18,21}.

Other validated loci

At *ANGPTL4*, we found that a common variant (rs2967605, 16% frequency, $P=1\times 10^{-8}$ for stages 1 and 2) was strongly associated with HDL cholesterol but not in linkage disequilibrium with a previously reported low-frequency variant (*ANGPTL4* E40K, 3% frequency, $r^2<0.01$ with rs2967605)¹⁶. The gene is a strong mechanistic candidate because ANGPTL4 inhibits lipoprotein lipase in mice³⁴.

Among the novel loci, the 8p23 region associated with triglycerides contained one gene of particular interest, *AMAC1L2*, which encodes acyl-malonyl condensing enzyme 1–like 2 (**Fig. 2k**) in bacteria, acyl-malonyl condensing enzyme catalyzes fatty acid synthesis³⁵. At the 5q23 and 20q12 loci associated with LDL cholesterol, the mechanism of action is less clear. At 5q23, the associated interval spanned two genes, *TIMD4* and *HAVCR1* (also known as *TIMD1*; **Fig. 2b**). *TIMD4* and *HAVCR1* were recently identified as phosphatidylserine receptors on macrophages that facilitate the engulfment of apoptotic cells³⁶, and *HAVCR1* is annotated as a target for the transcription factor HNF1A³¹. At 20q12, the gene nearest to the associated SNP is *MAFB* (**Fig. 2c**), a transcription factor shown to interact with LDL-receptor–related protein³⁷. How genes at these two loci impact LDL cholesterol remains to be defined.

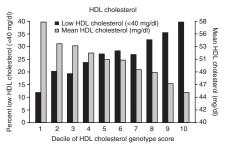
Specialized lipid phenotypes

To define the full spectrum of phenotypic consequences of lipid variants at 30 distinct loci, we studied the association of each index SNP with 21 specialized lipid phenotypes measured in FHS second-generation participants (**Supplementary Table 7** online). These phenotypes included apolipoproteins APOA-I, APOB, APOC-III and APOE; low-, high-, intermediate- and very low-density lipoprotein particle concentrations, as measured by nuclear magnetic resonance;

Triglycerides

Decile of trialvoerides genotype score





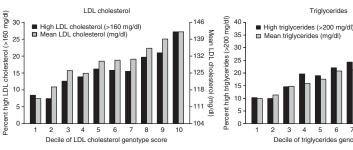


Figure 3 Mean lipoprotein concentrations and proportion of individuals with low HDL cholesterol, high LDL cholesterol or high triglycerides, as a function of allelic dosage score for HDL cholesterol, LDL cholesterol and triglycerides, respectively. Deciles of allelic dosage score are plotted on the x axis, and the y axis represents either mean lipoprotein concentrations within that decile (gray bars) or the proportion of individuals within that decile who met clinical criteria for 'high' or 'low' lipoprotein concentrations (black bars; cut points indicated in keys). Analyses were conducted for the following numbers of FHS second-generation participants: 3,206 for HDL cholesterol, 3,090 for LDL cholesterol and 3,216 for triglycerides. The allelic dosage score comprised 32 SNPs from the 30 loci shown in Table 2. For SNPs associated with HDL cholesterol, we modeled the allele associated with lower HDL cholesterol. For SNPs associated with LDL cholesterol or triglycerides, we modeled the allele associated with higher LDL cholesterol or higher triglycerides. Each of the six trends was highly significant ($P < 10^{-15}$).

HDL2 and HDL3 cholesterol subfractions after chemical precipitation; lipoprotein(a); and remnant lipoprotein cholesterol and triglycerides. A visual summary of the patterns of association is provided in Supplementary Figure 2 online. In several cases, we identified stronger signals for specialized phenotypes, suggesting mechanistic hypotheses. For example, the GCKR P446L allele (rs1260326) was associated with increased concentrations of APOC-III (0.20 s.d. unit increase per Leu allele; $P = 9 \times 10^{-12}$), an inhibitor of triglyceride catabolism that is synthesized in the liver³⁸.

For several loci, the strength of statistical evidence did not meet our prespecified threshold of $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$, but some of these loci may represent true associations. For example, LPA coding SNP rs3798220 (I4399M, 2% minor allele frequency) was associated with LDL cholesterol ($P = 3 \times 10^{-7}$ after stages 1 and 2). In addition, in the FHS, LPA rs3798220 was strongly associated with lipoprotein(a) level $(P = 2 \times 10^{-49})$, with each copy of the minor C allele increasing lipoprotein(a) level by a notable 1.8 s.d. units. These findings strongly replicate a previous observation that 4399M allele carriers have higher lipoprotein(a) concentrations³⁹. This same SNP has also been shown to increase risk for coronary artery disease, with the 4399M allele estimated to increase risk by two- to threefold³⁹. The association between LPA I4399M and risk for coronary artery disease might be mediated by elevated lipoprotein(a) and LDL cholesterol.

Allelic dosage and polygenic dyslipidemia

Having identified 30 loci, each with a modest effect, we next asked whether the cumulative allelic dosage of risk alleles at these loci contributes to the quantitative variation in lipoprotein levels seen in the population. We modeled the allelic dosage in each individual in the FHS second generation for the SNPs detailed in Table 2 (see Methods). Mean lipoprotein concentration decreased (for HDL cholesterol) or increased (for LDL cholesterol and triglycerides) in a stepwise fashion across deciles of genotype score (Fig. 3; $P < 1 \times 10^{-45}$ for each trend). The proportion of individuals exceeding clinical thresholds for 'high' or 'low' lipoprotein levels (HDL cholesterol < 40 mg/dl, LDL cholesterol > 160 mg/dl, or triglycerides > 200 mg/dl, as defined by the US national cholesterol treatment guidelines⁴⁰) increased across deciles of genotype score (**Fig. 3**; $P < 1 \times 10^{-15}$ for each trend).

Multiple independent common alleles at a locus

At each of the 30 identified loci, multiple independent common alleles may contribute to trait variation. To identify additional associated common SNPs at these loci, we repeated the genome-wide association analysis in the seven stage 1 studies, including each of the index SNPs in Table 2 as covariates. In contrast to our original meta-analysis, in which >1,000 SNPs at 25 loci reached genome-wide significance $(P < 5 \times 10^{-8})$, only 105 SNPs reached genome-wide significance in this conditional analysis. These SNPs provided evidence for additional HDL association signals in the CETP (peak SNP rs289714, $P=2 \times$ 10^{-25}), LIPC (rs2070895, $P = 6 \times 10^{-16}$) and APOA1-APOC3-APOA4-APOA5 (rs10892044, $P = 4 \times 10^{-10}$) loci; for additional LDL association signals in the APOE-APOC1-APOC4-APOC2 (rs1985096, $P = 7 \times 10^{-17}$), LDLR (rs2738446, $P = 1 \times 10^{-11}$) and ABCG8 (rs4953023, $P = 4 \times 10^{-8}$) loci; and for additional triglyceride signals in the LPL locus (rs894210, $P = 1 \times 10^{-10}$). After combining the seven SNPs representing these independent signals with those listed in Table 2, the proportion of variance explained in each trait was 9.3% for HDL cholesterol, 7.7% for LDL cholesterol and 7.4% for triglycerides.

DISCUSSION

Using a GWAS and large-scale replication, we have convincingly mapped 30 loci that contribute to variation in lipoprotein concentrations in humans. These results suggest regions of the genome that should be sequenced fully, as well as several new directions for functional investigation and potential clinical applications.

Sequencing the positional candidate genes within the associated intervals can help define the full spectrum of alleles that contribute to lipoprotein concentrations and, in some cases, identify null alleles that can provide clues to the *in vivo* consequences of loss of function⁴¹. PCSK9, for example, was initially identified using linkage mapping, and rare mutations with large effects (>100 mg/dl effect size) were described⁴². Subsequent sequencing of PCSK9 revealed low-frequency variants with more modest effects (such as PCSK9 R46L, 1% frequency, ~ 16 mg/dl effect size)⁴³. The same group found nonsense mutations in African-Americans, which proved that loss of PCSK9 function decreases LDL cholesterol⁴¹. In our study and a previous one⁴, PCSK9 also harbored a common variant with an even more modest effect (19% frequency, \sim 3 mg/dl effect size). Thus, other genes identified in our common variant screen may harbor low-frequency variants and/or rare mutations that cause mendelian syndromes. Deep sequencing of the new loci in populationbased samples and dyslipidemic families will be required to test these hypotheses.

Experimental manipulation of positional candidate genes in mice is an alternate approach to define the consequences of gain or loss of function. A variety of genetic techniques have been used to study lipoprotein-related genes in animal models and cell culture. Because lipoprotein metabolism is driven in large part by processes occurring in the liver, delivery of genetic modifiers by vectors that are preferentially taken up by liver can allow for analysis of the effects of genes on lipid traits. For example, multiple groups have overexpressed *PCSK9* in wild-type mouse liver through tail vein injections of recombinant adenoviruses bearing the gene^{44–46}; plasma LDL cholesterol was significantly higher in mice receiving the *PCSK9* vectors compared to mice receiving control vectors. Our work provides several new targets (*TTC39B*, for example) for such functional investigation.

Ultimately, with a full collection of DNA sequence variants in hand, we may be able to test the hypothesis that these variants can help to identify individuals at risk for cardiovascular disease and to better target preventive interventions. As lipid genotypes have been shown to add incremental information beyond plasma lipoprotein measurements^{47,48}, an allelic dosage score may allow for early identification and treatment of at-risk individuals, before atherosclerosis becomes advanced. Proving this hypothesis will require rigorous testing in randomized clinical trials.

METHODS

Stage 1 study samples, phenotypes and genotyping. A full description of each of the seven stage 1 studies is presented in **Supplementary Methods**. In each study, LDL cholesterol was calculated using the Friedewald formula, with missing values assigned to individuals with triglycerides >400 mg/dl. Individuals known to be on lipid-lowering therapy were excluded from association analysis for LDL cholesterol in all studies except the FHS. In the FHS, we imputed the untreated LDL cholesterol values using an algorithm described previously⁴⁹.

All participants provided informed consent. Local ethical committees at each participating institution approved the individual study protocols. The institutional review boards at Boston Medical Center, Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the University of Michigan approved this study.

Stage 1 genome-wide association analyses. In the FHS, we modeled phenotypes in the following manner. We log-transformed triglyceride levels. To account for potential confounding by population substructure within the FHS sample (Americans of European ancestry), we used EIGENSTRAT software to define principal components of ancestry. We inferred SNP weights for each principal component using a subset of unrelated FHS individuals (n=882) and then computed the principal component values for all others using the estimates obtained from the unrelated subset. The first two principal components showed gradients similar to those previously reported in individuals of European ancestry (northwest, southeast and Ashkenazi Jewish; Supplementary Fig. 3 online). Several principal components were associated with LDL cholesterol, so we adjusted for ten principal components in regression modeling.

For the second and third generations separately, we created sex-specific residual lipoprotein concentrations after regression adjustment for age, age² (age squared) and ten ancestry-informative principal components (mean age across multiple visits and the square of this mean age were used for second-generation participants). We standardized residuals to have a mean of 0 and s.d. of 1. These generation- and sex-specific residual lipoprotein concentrations served as the phenotypes in genotype-phenotype association analysis. Each directly genotyped SNP was tested for association with lipid residuals, assuming an additive mode of inheritance. To account for relatedness among two generations of participants, we used linear mixed-effects models that specified a fixed genotypic effect, a random polygenic effect allowing for residual heritability and a variance-covariance structure accounting for familial correlations⁵⁰. The genomic control parameters in FHS were low, at 1.01, 1.03 and 1.02 (for LDL cholesterol, HDL cholesterol and triglycerides, respectively).

In the SUVIMAX, LOLIPOP and InCHIANTI GWASs, lipoprotein concentrations were adjusted for the effects of sex, age and age². The SUVIMAX and

LOLIPOP samples did not include related individuals and were analyzed using linear regression. The InCHIANTI GWAS included a small number of related individuals and was analyzed using a variance component—based score test that models background additive polygenic effects. In each case, an additive model was used to model SNP effects.

Stage 1 imputation and meta-analysis for directly genotyped and imputed SNPs. Genotype imputation and meta-analysis were carried out with the MaCH and METAL packages, respectively. Details of imputation and meta-analysis are described in Supplementary Methods.

Stage 2 study samples, phenotypes and genotyping. Replication of promising association signals from stage 1 was attempted in up to 20,623 independent participants from five stage 2 studies (Table 1). Fasting lipid concentrations were available in each stage 2 study except ISIS; individuals known to be on lipid-lowering therapy were excluded. The ISIS study participants were examined in the early 1990s, before lipid-lowering therapies became common, so no exclusion based on drug therapy was necessary.

SNPs were genotyped using either the iPLEX Sequenom MassARRAY platform or allelic discrimination on an ABI 7900 instrument (Applied Biosystems). All genotyped SNPs had a genotyping call rate >95% on the replication samples and had a Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium P>0.001.

We tested for association in each replication study using linear regression adjusting for covariates as follows: age, age², sex and diabetes status for the MDC Cardiovascular Cohort (MDC-CC); age, age² and sex for FINRISK97; age, age², sex, birth province in Finland and study group with analysis stratified according to diabetes status for FUSION stage 2; age, age² and diabetes status for METSIM; and age, age², sex, sex \times age and sex \times age² with analysis stratified according to myocardial infarction status for ISIS.

The statistical evidence from each stage 2 sample was combined with the evidence from stage 1 using the fixed-effects z-statistic meta-analysis procedure described above. A combined $P < 5 \times 10^{-8}$ was deemed significant based on an estimated multiple testing burden equivalent to ~ 1 million independent common variants¹⁰.

SNP selection for stage 2 genotyping. We took forward SNPs into stage 2 primarily on the basis of P value in stage 1 after excluding SNPs from the 19 loci that had prior definitive association evidence^{3,4}. We selected a set of apparently independent SNPs by excluding SNPs with $r^2 > 0.2$ or within a distance of 1 Mb from other SNPs selected for follow-up genotyping. We successfully genotyped and attempted, respectively, 66 and 70 SNPs in MDC-CC, 60 and 64 SNPs in FINRISK97, 52 and 55 SNPs in FUSION stage 2, 52 and 53 SNPs in METSIM and 45 and 50 SNPs in ISIS. Different SNP lists were genotyped in each study according to cost, constraints on the design of multiplex assays and timing of SNP selections (some SNPs were selected based on interim meta-analyses).

Variance-weighted meta-analysis. As an additional analysis, we applied a uniform analysis strategy to all sample sets to estimate regression coefficients (measuring association between each SNP and lipid levels) and their corresponding standard errors and combined regression coefficients across samples using an inverse variance-weighted meta-analysis (Supplementary Methods).

Definition of associated interval. For each index SNP in **Table 2**, we defined the associated interval by first determining the set of HapMap SNPs in linkage disequilibrium of $r^2 > 0.5$ with the most significantly associated SNP. We then bounded the associated interval by the flanking HapMap recombination hotspots. These windows were likely to contain the causal polymorphisms explaining the associations.

Specialized lipoprotein-related phenotypes, *cis*-expression quantitative trait locus analyses and genotype score analysis in the FHS. Details for these are described in the Supplementary Methods.

URLs. Association results of our meta-analysis of seven GWASs, http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/public/lipids2008/; Markov chain haplotyping package, http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/MACH; METAL meta-analysis

tool for GWASs, http://www.sph.umich.edu/csg/abecasis/Metal/index.html; EIGENSTRAT method for population stratification correction, http://genepath.med.harvard.edu/~reich/Software.htm.

Note: Supplementary information is available on the Nature Genetics website.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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