

Association of Pro12Ala polymorphism in the peroxisome proliferator–activated receptor γ 2 gene with small dense low-density lipoprotein in the general population

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Received 13 February 2007; accepted 4 May 2007

Abstract

The Pro12Ala polymorphism of the peroxisome proliferator–activated receptor γ 2 (PPAR γ 2) gene has been reported to predict a lower risk for developing type 2 diabetes mellitus. However, its effect on the lipid profile has been disputable. Among low-density lipoproteins, small dense low-density lipoprotein (sdLDL) particles have been linked to a greater risk for coronary artery disease. The purpose of this study was to investigate the genetic effect of the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene on the presence of sdLDL in the general Japanese population. In 379 subjects (aged 54 ± 13 years), body mass index, percentage of body fat, blood pressure, and biochemical profiles were measured. Pro12Ala polymorphism was genotyped by polymerase chain reaction–restriction fragment length polymorphism. The area of sdLDL subfractions (sdLDL4–7) was analyzed by high-resolution polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The frequency of the Ala12 allele in PPAR γ 2 was 0.04. There was no difference in total cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, and high-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels between genotypes. However, subjects with the X/Ala genotype (Pro/Ala + Ala/Ala) had significantly higher serum triglyceride levels ($P = .001$) and a larger area of sdLDL4–7 ($P = .002$) than those with the Pro/Pro genotype. Multiple regression analysis revealed that the Ala12 allele was a significant variable contributing to the variance in the increased area of sdLDL4–7 ($P = .040$). In conclusion, the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene was positively associated with an enlarged area of sdLDL4–7. This polymorphism may play a role in the genetic predisposition to increases in sdLDL4–7.

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1. Introduction

Peroxisome proliferator–activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) plays an important role in adipocyte differentiation, glucose, lipid metabolism, and fat-specific gene expression [1]. A common Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene has been well documented to predict lower risk for developing

type 2 diabetes mellitus. In fact, a recent classic meta-analysis based on data from nondiabetic individuals has revealed that in selected groups, such as whites and obese subjects, the Ala variant was associated with higher insulin sensitivity [2]. However, studies on the association between the Pro12Ala polymorphism and lipid profiles have been controversial. Several studies have shown the effect of Pro12Ala polymorphism on lower lipid and lipoprotein levels [3–6], but others have yielded inconsistent results [7–9].

Previous studies have demonstrated the clinical importance of small dense low-density lipoprotein (sdLDL) particles that are highly predictive of increased risk for coronary artery disease [10–12] and a risk factor for the

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future development of type 2 diabetes mellitus [13]. sdLDL particles possess a lower binding affinity for cellular low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptors and are more easily oxidized in vitro [14,15]. These findings suggest that sdLDL particles are more atherogenic than larger LDL particles because their lower binding affinity for LDL receptor reflects a longer plasma residence time for them to be oxidized and taken up by macrophages in extravascular spaces. In line with these findings in vitro, case-control studies have indicated that sdLDL particles are predominant in a high proportion of coronary artery disease patients, even those with normal LDL levels [10,16]. Subjects with sdLDL particles have a 2- to 3-fold greater risk of developing coronary artery disease [10,11]. To the best of our knowledge, no previous study has investigated whether the Pro12Ala polymorphism contributes to the presence of sdLDL. In the present study, the association of the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene with serum lipoprotein profiles accompanied by the predominance of sdLDL was investigated in the general Japanese population.

2. Methods

2.1. Subjects

A total of 379 subjects, aged 54 ± 13 years (mean \pm SD), were recruited from community-dwelling volunteers in an annual health checkup of residents of Ieshima town on the Inland Sea of Japan. The study protocol was approved by the ethics committee of Kobe University. All subjects were instructed about the study and gave their informed consent to participate. To evaluate lifestyle habits, each subject completed a self-administered questionnaire regarding the medical history, alcohol drinking, smoking, exercise habits, medications, and other lifestyle-related factors [17]. Alcohol drinking was assessed from the frequency of drinking on a weekly basis. With respect to smoking, individuals were classified according to whether the respondent was a non-smoker, a past smoker, or a current smoker. Exercise habits were determined from the frequency of physical exercise of more than 3 metabolic equivalents on a weekly basis. Other lifestyle factors including the consumption of balanced meals, breakfast, snacks between meals, and beverages containing caffeine were also checked. Eligible subjects had to be subjectively healthy without any known history and clinical features of metabolic, cardiovascular, kidney, or liver disease. After an overnight fast, body weight and height were measured using a body fat analyzer (Omron, Kyoto, Japan). Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight (in kilograms) divided by height (in meters) squared. Blood pressure was measured 3 times at 10-minute intervals using a mercury sphygmomanometer. Venous blood samples were then drawn to measure blood glucose and other serum profiles. Blood glucose was measured by the hexokinase method (Shino-Test, Tokyo, Japan). The serum total cholesterol (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Tokyo, Japan),

high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, and triglyceride levels were determined by enzymatic methods (Daiichi Pure Chemicals, Tokyo, Japan).

2.2. Determination of serum lipoprotein profiles

The lipoprotein profiles were measured with a LipoPrint system (Quantimetrix, Redondo Beach, CA) [18]. The profiles consist of 1 fraction of very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL), 3 of midbands, 7 of LDL, and 1 of HDL in the LipoPrint system. Briefly, 25 μ L of serum sample and 200 μ L of liquid loading gel containing a lipophilic dye to stain cholesterol in each lipoprotein were applied to a 3% polyacrylamide gel tube and then mixed several times by vigorously inverting. Afterward, these samples were photopolymerized at room temperature for 30 minutes and then electrophoresed for 65 minutes (3 mA per gel tube). After the electrophoresis, scanning was done with a ScanMaker i900 (Microtek, Osaka, Japan); and the analysis of lipoprotein subfractions, VLDL, midbands, LDL, and HDL was simultaneously performed by using a Quantimetrix proprietary software program. The various stained bands of lipoprotein fractions were identified by their mobility (relative mobility) using VLDL as the starting reference point (VLDL = 0) and HDL as the leading reference point (HDL = 1). *sdLDL* was defined as the LDL4 through LDL7 subfractions and was calculated relative to the total area proportion of the sdLDL subfraction.

2.3. Genotyping of the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood leukocytes. Polymerase chain reaction–restriction fragment length polymorphism (PCR-RFLP) amplification of the segment with the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene was carried out with a total volume of 25 μ L containing 100 ng of genomic DNA, 5 pmol of each primer, and Taq DNA polymerase. The PCR-RFLP conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 minutes followed by 40 cycles of denaturation for 30 seconds, annealing at 53°C for 30 seconds, and extension at 72°C, and a final extension at 72°C for 9 minutes. The polymorphism was genotyped using the following primers: 5'-GCCAATTCAAGCCCAGTC-3' (forward) and 5'-GATATGTTTGCCCTTCCG-3' (reverse). The samples were run on a 3.0% agarose gel, stained with ethidium bromide, and analyzed under ultraviolet light. The PCR product size is 273 base pairs. The RFLP was detected after digestion overnight with 2 units of *Bst*U1 [19].

2.4. Statistical analysis

All of the statistical analyses were performed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS for Windows, version 11.0; SPSS, Chicago, IL). Data are expressed as means \pm SD. The Student unpaired *t* test was used to analyze the difference in continuous variables between the genotypes. Allele frequencies were estimated

by the gene-counting method. Sex and smoking between the genotypes were compared with the χ^2 test. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was also checked by χ^2 test. A multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate the genetic impact of the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene on the area of sdLDL4-7. $P < .05$ was accepted as statistically significant.

3. Results

In Table 1, the distribution of the Pro/Pro, Pro/Ala, and Ala/Ala genotypes was 353, 25, and 1, respectively. The frequency of the Ala12 allele was 0.04. All genotypes were in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. Because the number of subjects with the Ala/Ala genotype was only one, the Ala/Ala genotype was combined with subjects with the Pro/Ala genotype (X/Ala genotype). There was no significant difference in age, BMI, percentage of body fat, blood pressure, total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, and HDL cholesterol between the 2 different genotypes. In this study, only 5% of diabetes was classified by the American Diabetes Association criteria [20]; and there was no difference in

Table 1

Physical, clinical, and lipoprotein profiles of subjects according to genotype of the PPAR γ 2 Pro12Ala polymorphism

| Genotype | Pro/Pro | X/Ala | P |
|----------------------------------|------------------|------------------|------|
| n | 353 | 26 | |
| Sex (male/female) | 75/278 | 3/23 | .237 |
| Smoking (never, past/current) | 289/64 | 22/4 | .725 |
| Age (y) | 54 \pm 13 | 53 \pm 16 | .177 |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 24.1 \pm 4.6 | 24.4 \pm 5.5 | .265 |
| Body fat (%) | 29.4 \pm 6.1 | 30.7 \pm 5.7 | .865 |
| Systolic blood pressure (mm Hg) | 130 \pm 17 | 129 \pm 16 | .542 |
| Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg) | 75 \pm 9 | 73 \pm 9 | .722 |
| Hemoglobin A _{1c} (%) | 5.2 \pm 0.5 | 5.3 \pm 0.5 | .781 |
| Fasting blood glucose (mmol/L) | 5.44 \pm 0.88 | 5.56 \pm 0.88 | .437 |
| Total cholesterol (mmol/L) | 5.66 \pm 0.97 | 5.61 \pm 0.96 | .699 |
| HDL cholesterol (mmol/L) | 1.60 \pm 0.37 | 1.64 \pm 0.46 | .673 |
| LDL cholesterol (mmol/L) | 2.86 \pm 0.75 | 2.77 \pm 0.70 | .711 |
| Triglyceride (mmol/L) | 3.20 \pm 2.27 | 3.78 \pm 3.55 | .001 |
| Area of large LDL (%) | | | |
| LDL1 | 12.84 \pm 3.75 | 11.73 \pm 4.08 | .677 |
| LDL2 | 10.40 \pm 4.29 | 10.39 \pm 3.78 | .067 |
| LDL 1-2 | 23.24 \pm 4.67 | 22.12 \pm 4.57 | .821 |
| Area of sdLDL (%) | | | |
| sdLDL3 | 2.18 \pm 2.27 | 2.10 \pm 2.38 | .903 |
| sdLDL4 | 0.39 \pm 0.90 | 0.60 \pm 1.43 | .048 |
| sdLDL5 | 0.06 \pm 0.29 | 0.22 \pm 0.77 | .001 |
| sdLDL6 | 0.00 \pm 0.04 | 0.07 \pm 0.025 | .001 |
| sdLDL7 | 0 | 0 | — |
| sdLDL 4-7 | 0.45 \pm 1.16 | 0.88 \pm 2.38 | .002 |
| VLDL (%) | 16.50 \pm 4.79 | 17.07 \pm 5.60 | .051 |
| LDL particle size (nm) | 26.77 \pm 0.43 | 26.65 \pm 0.56 | .266 |

Values are the means \pm SD. P values compare subjects carrying the wild genotype (Pro/Pro) with those carrying the X/Ala genotype, which is a combination of the heterozygous genotype (Pro/Ala) and homozygous genotype (Ala/Ala). Sex and smoking were compared between the genotypes with the χ^2 test.

Table 2

Multiple regression analysis with sdLDL as the response variable

| Explanatory variable | Regression coefficient (95% CI) | P |
|----------------------|---------------------------------|------|
| Age | −0.006 (−0.015 to 0.003) | .218 |
| Sex | 0.489 (0.023 to 0.955) | .150 |
| BMI | 0.038 (0.009 to 0.067) | .011 |
| Exercise habits | 0.016 (−0.011 to 0.042) | .381 |
| Alcohol drinking | 0.070 (−0.285 to 0.425) | .700 |
| Smoking | 0.109 (−0.423 to 0.460) | .545 |
| HDL cholesterol | −0.013 (−0.021 to 0.005) | .002 |
| LDL cholesterol | 0.014 (0.009 to 0.018) | .001 |
| Ala12 allele | 0.489 (0.023 to 0.955) | .040 |

Habitual exercise was scored as follows: almost every day = 0, twice a week = 1, once a week = 2, once a month = 3, and no exercise = 4. Alcohol drinking was scored as follows: never/sometimes = 0 and almost everyday = 1. Smoking was scored as follows: never/past = 0 and current = 1. CI indicates coefficient interval.

fasting blood glucose, hemoglobin A_{1c}, and the prevalence of diabetes between genotypes. However, subjects with the X/Ala genotypes had a significantly higher serum triglyceride level than those with the Pro/Pro genotype ($P < .001$). There was no significant difference in HDL, VLDL, and the area of large LDL (LDL1 and LDL2) between the 2 different genotypes. In the X/Ala genotypes, the area of sdLDL subfractions (sdLDL4-7) was significantly larger than that in the Pro/Pro genotype ($P < .01$). The average LDL particle size tended to be smaller than that in the X/Ala genotype, but there was no statistical significance. In addition, there was no difference between genotypes in lifestyle-related factors including exercise habits, alcohol intake, smoking, balanced meals, daily breakfast, snacks between meals, beverages containing caffeine, and medications for hyperlipidemia (data not shown).

In Table 2, a multiple regression analysis revealed that BMI and the Ala12 allele were significantly associated with an enlarged area of sdLDL4-7 ($P < .05$) when adjustments were made for age, sex, BMI, exercise habits, alcohol intake, smoking, and serum lipid concentration.

4. Discussion

The present study provided, for the first time, new information regarding the effect of the Pro12Ala polymorphism on sdLDL profiles among community-dwelling Japanese. The most important findings were that Pro12Ala polymorphism in its homozygous and heterozygous forms may itself increase the area of sdLDL4-7 independent of potential confounding factors such as age, sex, BMI, habitual exercise, alcohol intake, and lipid concentration. The present finding that subjects with the X/Ala genotype had a lipid atherogenic profile is consistent with some previous results [8,9] but not all [3-6]. It has been proposed that the PPAR γ 2 gene is one of the mediators of gene-environmental interactions. For example, the Ala12 allele has been supposed to be slightly protective against type 2 diabetes

mellitus [2], whereas there are findings that the Ala12 allele may predispose obese subjects to the development of type 2 diabetes mellitus without intervention through diet and exercise [21]. It could be that beneficial changes in diet, increased physical activity, and weight loss modify the genetic impact of the Ala12 allele, possibly because of a lower incidence of type 2 diabetes mellitus and improved insulin sensitivity [21]. Therefore, differences in confounding factors such as lifestyle or in the experimental design between the present and previous studies may also partly explain the divergent results.

Although the underlying mechanisms by which PPAR γ 2 and variation in its gene might actually influence sdLDL4-7 remain to be elucidated, the Pro12Ala polymorphism may be linked to previous findings indicating the role of PPAR γ in the lipid accumulation in atherogenesis through transcriptional induction of the scavenger receptor CD36 [22,23]. CD36 is expressed in adipose tissue and is directly induced during the differentiation of preadipocytes evoked by PPAR γ . It is activated by fatty acids and may act as a transmembrane transporter of long-chain fatty acids in adipose tissue [24]. CD36 functions in a feedback loop as a receptor for oxidized LDL in which lipid components of oxidized LDL activate PPAR γ and thereby induce CD36 expression [8,22,23]. In this respect, the Pro12Ala polymorphism may be associated with a reduced level of PPAR γ 2 activity [3]; and it is conceivable that this has an effect on the area of sdLDL4-7 in the X/Ala genotype. Furthermore, the PPAR γ 2 agonist pioglitazone improves LDL particle characteristics in a manner similar to diet/exercise without changing triglyceride, total cholesterol, or LDL cholesterol levels in obese, insulin-resistant, nondiabetic adults [25]. Because this effect may have implications for atherosclerotic risk [25,26], further examinations using PPAR γ 2 agonists in humans are needed to elucidate this point for the effect of the Pro12Ala polymorphism on the area of sdLDL4-7.

Body mass index was a significant and independent variable contributing to the variance in the increased area of sdLDL4-7. This suggests that the higher BMI as a marker of obesity may result in the increase in sdLDL4-7 independent of genetic factors. The exact mechanism behind this association is unclear. Obesity has been a major risk factor for insulin resistance, and sdLDL production may become an integral feature of insulin resistance [27,28]. Consequently, the finding raises the possibility that the area of sdLDL4-7 may increase through insulin resistance.

Based on a meta-analysis of nondiabetic individuals [2], the frequency of the PPAR γ 2 Ala12 allele in the present study was similar to that reported previously in Asians including Japanese and Koreans and in African American populations, but was lower than that reported in white populations including Spanish, Finnish, Danish, and Germans and in Pima Indians [2]. The prevalence of the Ala12 allele varies from 4% in Asian populations to 28% in white populations [2]. Thus, the difference in

frequency of the Ala12 allele among study populations may reflect the importance of different ethnic, environmental, or other factors.

In conclusion, the Pro12Ala polymorphism in the PPAR γ 2 gene was positively associated with an increased area of sdLDL4-7 in the general Japanese population. The present findings suggest that the Pro12Ala polymorphism may play a role in the genetic predisposition to increases in sdLDL4-7. Because only one homozygous genotype was identified among 379 subjects, the result must be interpreted with caution.

Acknowledgment

This study was supported in part by a grant-in-aid from the Foundation for the Development of the Community, Japan.

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