Investigation of Genetic Variation in Scavenger Receptor Class B, Member 1 (SCARB1) and Association with Serum Carotenoids

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Objective: To investigate association of scavenger receptor class B, member 1 (SCARB1) genetic variants with serum carotenoid levels of lutein (L) and zeaxanthin (Z) and macular pigment optical density (MPOD).

Design: A cross-sectional study of healthy adults aged 20 to 70.

Participants: We recruited 302 participants after local advertisement.

Methods: We measured MPOD by customized heterochromatic flicker photometry. Fasting blood samples were taken for serum L and Z measurement by high-performance liquid chromatography and lipoprotein analysis by spectrophotometric assay. Forty-seven single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) across SCARB1 were genotyped using Sequenom technology. Association analyses were performed using PLINK to compare allele and haplotype means, with adjustment for potential confounding and correction for multiple comparisons by permutation testing. Replication analysis was performed in the TwinsUK and Carotenoids in Age-Related Eye Disease Study (CAREDS) cohorts.

Main Outcome Measures: Odds ratios for MPOD area, serum L and Z concentrations associated with genetic variations in SCARB1 and interactions between SCARB1 and gender.

Results: After multiple regression analysis with adjustment for age, body mass index, gender, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol, triglycerides, smoking, and dietary L and Z levels, 5 SNPs were significantly associated with serum L concentration and 1 SNP with MPOD ($P<0.01$). Only the association between rs11057841 and serum L withstood correction for multiple comparisons by permutation testing ($P=0.014$). Independent replication was also observed in the CAREDS cohort with rs10846744 ($P=2\times10^{-4}$), an SNP in high linkage disequilibrium with rs11057841 ($r^2 = 0.93$). No interactions by gender were found. Haplotype analysis revealed no stronger association than obtained with single SNP analyses.

Conclusions: Our study has identified association between rs11057841 and serum L concentration (24% increase per T allele) in healthy subjects, independent of potential confounding factors. Our data supports further evaluation of the role for SCARB1 in the transport of macular pigment and the possible modulation of age-related macular degeneration risk through combating the effects of oxidative stress within the retina.

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meso-Z has still to be elucidated. Diet L and Z are absorbed with fats in the gut and are transported to the liver, whereupon they form carotenoid–lipoprotein complexes that facilitate their transport through the vascular system. Macular pigment confers powerful antioxidant protection and also filters actinic short wavelength, blue light, limiting the (photo-)oxidative damage to retinal cells. These properties of MP are believed to limit the development and/or progression of AMD. Although MP is dietary derived, its concentration at the macula is, in part, determined by genetic factors with heritability estimated at 67% to 85% in a cross-sectional study of individual MP levels. More recently, longitudinal response to L and Z supplementation has estimated genetic influence approximating 27%, although this may have been influenced by the composition of the L supplement used. Genetic variation in scavenger receptor class B member 1 (SCARB1) has previously been reported in association with AMD, implicating a role for cholesterol and MP metabolism in the disease process. The gene, located at 12q24.31, is a region of interest for AMD originating from linkage analysis. The SCARB1 gene encodes a multiligand cell-surface receptor that mediates selective cholesterol uptake and efflux. Reverse cholesterol transport is a major process required for the clearance of excess cholesterol from the body and the high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDLc) pathway genes, LIPC and CETP, have been implicated in AMD pathogenesis through large genome-wide association studies. Other studies have also reported common variants in SCARB1 in association with development of coronary heart disease and lipid profiles, with several studies providing evidence of a gender-related effect. Both coronary heart disease and dyslipidemia have been reported to share common pathogenic pathways with AMD. In addition, SRB1, the protein encoded by SCARB1, has also been detected in the retinal pigment epithelium and in intestine cells where it mediates cholesterol efflux and xanthophyll uptake.

In light of the strong evidence implicating cholesterol metabolism in AMD pathogenesis, coupled with a relative lack of MP in association with a clinically confirmed family history of AMD, we sought to evaluate common genetic polymorphisms within SCARB1 and how they might contribute to variation of this putatively protective pigment.

Materials and Methods

Participants

Three hundred two subjects were recruited for this study, which was carried out in the Macular Pigment Research Group laboratory at Waterford Institute of Technology, Ireland. Subjects were recruited after local advertisement in various media. This study was approved by the Research Ethics Committee of Waterford Institute of Technology, and subjects gave written informed consent before participation. All experimental procedures adhered to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Inclusion criteria for participation in this study were the following: age between 20 and 70 years, no clinical evidence of ocular pathology, no dietary supplementation with the MP carotenoids, and visual acuity of ≥20/40. The following information was recorded for each subject: demographic details, family history of AMD (confirmed in writing by the diagnosing ophthalmologist), personal smoking history measured in pack-years, and dietary intake of L and Z, assessed using a validated 170-item food frequency questionnaire (FFQ). Examination included visual acuity (Snellen and logarithm of the minimum angle of resolution), body mass index (BMI [calculated as kg/m²]), MP optical density (MPOD) measurement by customized heterochromatic flicker photometry (cHFP) using the Macular Densitometer, nonmydriatic fundus photography using a NIDEK AFC-210 nonmydriatic auto fundus camera to screen for ocular pathology, and 12-hour fasting blood samples to quantify serum concentrations of L and Z using high-performance liquid chromatography and for genotyping.

FFQ

Dietary intake of L and Z was assessed by a self-administered, semiquantitative FFQ developed by the Scottish Collaborative Group at the University of Aberdeen, Scotland, UK. This semiquantitative FFQ, including validation, is described in detail in a separate study.

Measurement of MPOD

We measured MPOD psychophysically by cHFP, a technique that has been validated against the absorption spectrum of MP in vitro. The cHFP is based on the fact that MP absorbs short-wavelength blue light, with peak absorption occurring at a wavelength of 458 nm. The subject is required to make isoluminance matches between 2 flickering lights, a green light (not absorbed by MP) and a blue light (maximally absorbed by MP). The log ratio of the amount of blue light absorbed centrally, where MP peaks, to that absorbed at a peripheral retinal locus (the “reference point,” where MPOD is assumed to be zero), gives a measure of the subject’s MPOD.

In this study, we used the Macular Densitometer (Brown University, Providence, RI), a cHFP instrument that is slightly modified from a device described previously. The subject is required to observe a flickering target, alternating in square-wave counterphase between a green light (with a wavelength of 564 nm) and a blue light (with a wavelength of 460 nm), and to make isoluminance matches between these flickering lights. The luminance of the green and blue lights is varied in a yoked manner, which avoids a change in the overall luminance of the test target. When an isoluminant (“null flicker”) match has been made between these flickering lights, flicker is no longer perceived, and this is the desired endpoint of the test. Different sized targets enable measurement of MPOD at 0.25°, 0.5°, 1°, and 1.75° retinal eccentricity, relative to a reference point at 7° retinal eccentricity (where MPOD is assumed to be zero). Targets are presented on a blue background test field (wavelength 468 nm) that saturates the S-cone pathway. A minimum of 3 null-flicker readings, with a coefficient of variance ≤10%, were recorded for each subject at each of the test loci (0.25°, 0.5°, 1°, 1.75°, and 7° retinal eccentricity). Measurement of MPOD at these points of retinal eccentricity enabled us to plot the spatial profile of MP across the macula. We then calculated the area of MPOD under the spatial profile (MPODArea), using the trapezium rule, which approximates the area by a series of trapeziums constructed by assuming linearity in the relationship between MPOD values and retinal eccentricity between adjacent measurement angles:

$$MPOD_{\text{Area}} = 0.25 \times \left( (MPOD_{0.25} + MPOD_{0.5})/2 \right) + 0.50 \times \left( (MPOD_{0.5} + MPOD_{1})/2 \right) + 0.75 \times \left( (MPOD_{1} + MPOD_{1.75})/2 \right) + 5.25 \times \left( (MPOD_{1.75} + MPOD_{7})/2 \right).$$
The MPOD\textsubscript{Area}, a weighted average of the MPOD value at the various points of retinal eccentricity, should offer improved accuracy of the quantity of MP across the macula compared with a single eccentricity measurement alone. We measured MPOD under conditions of dimmed light (ambient illuminance: 4 lux, as measured with an Iso-Tech ILM 350 Lux Meter; RS Components, Corby, UK) at a viewing distance of 18.5 inches (47 cm).

The major advantage of cHFP over standard HFP instruments is that the flicker frequency of each test target is customized for each individual subject, minimizing variance between consecutive measurements and thus increasing the accuracy and ease of use of the test. Further information on the technique and advantages of cHFP has been published previously.\textsuperscript{33}

Blood Sample Collection

A 12-hour fasting blood sample was collected from each subject in a 4-ml Z Serum Sep Clot Activator Vacutette tube (Greiner Bio-One GmbH, Kremsmünster, Austria) at the beginning of the study visit. This whole blood sample was immediately refrigerated at 2°C to 8°C, before centrifugation at approximately 1800 g for 10 minutes. Centrifugation was performed within 4 hours of phlebotomy. After centrifugation, the supernatant serum sample was aliquoted into 1.5-ml amber (light-sensitive) microcentrifuge tubes (Brand GmbH, Wertheim, Germany) and stored at minus 70°C before analysis.

Serum L and Z Analysis

Serum L and Z were quantified using reverse phase high-performance liquid chromatography. We used an Agilent 1200 series LC system (Agilent Technologies Ireland Ltd, Dublin, Ireland), with photodiode array detection at 295 nm (detection of the internal standard, alpha tocopherol acetate) and 450 nm (detection of L and Z). A 5-µm analytical/preparative 4.6×250 mm 201TP specialty reverse phase column (Vydac, Hesperia, CA) was used with an in-line guard column. The mobile phase consisted of 97% methanol and 3% tetrahydrofuran, and was degassed using an in-line degasser. The flow rate was 1 ml/min, and the total run time was 15 minutes. All carotenoid peaks were integrated and quantified using Agilent Chem Station software. Further detail on the methodology used for this analysis is provided in a separate publication.\textsuperscript{30}

Serum Lipoprotein Analysis

Lipoprotein analysis (HDLc, LDLc, triglycerides [TGs]) was performed using the ACE Clinical Chemistry System (Alfa Wasserman, Woerden, The Netherlands) with reagents and consumables supplied by Randox Laboratories Ltd (Antrim, UK). Analyses were performed on 200-µL serum samples by spectrophotometric analysis at 37°C. The analysis module uses a holographic diffraction grating spectrophotometer to measure absorbance at 16 different wavelengths. Measurements for each assay were recorded at wavelengths and times preprogrammed for each test with results calculated as specified by the test parameters. The protocol used included daily, 2-level quality control assessments and duplicate analyses on 50 (16.6%) samples, to ensure the precision of the results.

SNP Selection and Genotyping

Common variants were selected from Phase III, release 2 HapMap (available at http://www.hapmap.org; accessed October 30, 2009) CEPH data (Utah residents with ancestry in northern and western Europe; CEU) using Haploview (available at http://www.broadinstitute.org/haplovie; accessed October 30, 2009) to visualize linkage disequilibrium (Fig 1A). Tag SNPs were selected using multimarker tagging where \( r^2 > 0.8 \) (log of odds threshold 3.0) for all downloaded SNPs with a minor allele frequency \( \geq 5\% \), genotype call rate \( \geq 95\% \), and no significant deviation from Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium.

Genotyping was performed by MassARRAY iPLEX (Sequenom, San Diego, CA) assays according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Quality filters for exclusion of SNPs included call rates below 95% and deviation from Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (\( P < 0.001 \)). DNA samples were excluded if missing genotypes exceeded 10%. Other quality control measures included duplicates.
on plates, random sample allocation to plates, independent scoring of problematic genotypes by 2 individuals, and resequencing of selected DNAs to validate genotypes.

Replication Cohorts

Replication of the most significant SNP was undertaken in the TwinsUK adult twin cohort (n = 199) and in the Carotenoids in Age-Related Eye Disease Study (CAREDS; n = 1643), an ancillary study of the Women’s Health Initiative Observational Study.34 TwinsUK genotyping had been undertaken previously using an Illumina HumanHap 610 Quad array35 and the CAREDS cohort using a customized Illumina array. In CAREDS, MPOD was estimated using cHFP,36 using protocols similar to those implemented in the discovery cohort described, and serum samples were estimated using cHFP,36 using protocols similar to those implemented in the discovery cohort.37 The TwinsUK study used HFP (Maculometer) and an imaging method (2-wavelength fundus autofluorescence) to estimate MPOD with serum analysis in the same laboratory as that implemented in the discovery cohort.10 All procedures conformed to the Declaration of Helsinki and were approved by the institutional review board at each university.

Statistical Analysis

Chi-square tests and 1-way analysis of variance tests for trend were used to investigate differences in qualitative and quantitative traits, respectively, between genotype subgroups. Analyses were performed using an additive genotypic model (SPSS, version 18, SPSS, Inc, Chicago, IL). Multiple regression analysis was used to adjust for potential confounders (age, gender, smoking status in pack years, BMI, dietary L and Z estimates, LDLc, HDLc, and TGs). Serum and dietary L and Z concentrations and TGs were log base 10 transformed in light of heavy positive skew in their distributions and were summarized using geometric means and interquartile ranges. The genotype regression coefficients (and their confidence limits) for these transformed quantitative traits were anti-logged and interpreted as proportionate changes in concentration per allele. Given previous evidence suggesting a gender-related effect at SCARB1,21–23 a term for genotype by gender interaction was also included within the regression model. Correction of the quantitative trait comparisons for multiple SNPs was performed in PLINK (version 1.07)22 by permutation testing (n = 100 000). The level of statistical significance used to assess the permutation test P values was S/5 = 1.67% to allow for the analysis of the 3 quantitative traits (serum L, serum Z, and MPODarea).

Results

Genotype data were available for 47 SNPs from 301 of the 302 (99.7%) subjects included in the study (Table 1; available at http://aaojournal.org). A total of 7 SNPs were excluded for failing to meet the quality filters of call rates below 95% or deviation from Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium (P<0.001). The average call rate for the remaining SNPs was 98.8%. No duplicate inconsistencies were observed.

Table 2. Anthropometric and Lifestyle Data for All Genotyped Subjects in the Discovery Sample for rs11057841

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristic</th>
<th>All Samples (n = 298)</th>
<th>CC (n = 228)</th>
<th>CT (n = 64)</th>
<th>TT (n = 6)</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age (yrs)</td>
<td>48.0 (11.1)</td>
<td>47.8 (11.4)</td>
<td>48.4 (10.2)</td>
<td>51.2 (10.4)</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male gender, n (%)</td>
<td>91 (31%)</td>
<td>66 (29%)</td>
<td>22 (34%)</td>
<td>3 (50%)</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BMI (kg/m²)</td>
<td>26.8 (4.6)</td>
<td>26.6 (4.5)</td>
<td>27.3 (5.0)</td>
<td>24.7 (2.4)</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPOD area</td>
<td>0.718 (0.431)</td>
<td>0.713 (0.436)</td>
<td>0.734 (0.411)</td>
<td>0.735 (0.507)</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPOD 0.25°</td>
<td>0.482 (0.207)</td>
<td>0.477 (0.208)</td>
<td>0.494 (0.201)</td>
<td>0.500 (0.231)</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPOD 0.5°</td>
<td>0.379 (0.173)</td>
<td>0.376 (0.171)</td>
<td>0.392 (0.185)</td>
<td>0.348 (0.253)</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPOD 1°</td>
<td>0.239 (0.128)</td>
<td>0.239 (0.128)</td>
<td>0.249 (0.129)</td>
<td>0.223 (0.132)</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPOD 1.75°</td>
<td>0.126 (0.097)</td>
<td>0.126 (0.097)</td>
<td>0.125 (0.095)</td>
<td>0.138 (0.106)</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pack-years smoked</td>
<td>5.7 (11.3)</td>
<td>6.0 (11.9)</td>
<td>4.8 (9.2)</td>
<td>5.7 (9.1)</td>
<td>0.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serum lutein (µg/ml)</td>
<td>0.079 [0.060–0.104]</td>
<td>0.075 [0.057–0.102]</td>
<td>0.093 [0.066–0.127]</td>
<td>0.111 [0.077–0.160]</td>
<td>2×10⁻⁴</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serum zeaxanthin (µg/ml)</td>
<td>0.013 [0.009–0.020]</td>
<td>0.013 [0.009–0.020]</td>
<td>0.014 [0.009–0.020]</td>
<td>0.016 [0.010–0.027]</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dietary lutein (mg)</td>
<td>1.063 [0.698–1.725]</td>
<td>1.077 [0.683–1.806]</td>
<td>1.061 [0.738–1.630]</td>
<td>0.679 [0.403–0.922]</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dietary zeaxanthin (mg)</td>
<td>0.157 [0.109–0.231]</td>
<td>0.158 [0.109–0.238]</td>
<td>0.158 [0.111–0.215]</td>
<td>0.127 [0.087–0.198]</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LDLc (mg/dl)</td>
<td>5.22 (3.92)</td>
<td>3.21 (0.91)</td>
<td>3.27 (0.97)</td>
<td>2.78 (1.02)</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HDLc (mg/dl)</td>
<td>1.50 (0.38)</td>
<td>1.50 (0.38)</td>
<td>1.51 (0.37)</td>
<td>1.72 (0.51)</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triglycerides (mg/dl)</td>
<td>1.19 [0.88–1.51]</td>
<td>1.17 [0.87–1.49]</td>
<td>1.28 [0.88–1.73]</td>
<td>0.94 [0.63–1.24]</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total cholesterol (mg/dl)</td>
<td>5.41 (1.10)</td>
<td>5.38 (1.09)</td>
<td>5.52 (1.15)</td>
<td>5.55 (0.93)</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive family history of AMD, n (%)</td>
<td>118 (40%)</td>
<td>83 (36%)</td>
<td>31 (48%)</td>
<td>4 (67%)</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AMD = age-related macular degeneration; BMI = body mass index; HDL = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDL = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; MPOD = macular pigment optical density.

Data presented as mean (standard deviation), geometric mean [interquartile range] or n (%).
In a univariate analysis, 5 SNPs were significantly associated with serum L (rs11057841, \( P = 2 \times 10^{-4} \); rs10773109, \( P = 0.001 \); rs11057830, \( P = 0.002 \); rs11608336, \( P = 0.001 \); rs12581963, \( P = 0.003 \)), although only rs11057841 was significant (\( P < 0.0167 \)) after correction for multiple testing by permutation. Multiple regression analysis was performed on MPOD area, serum L and Z concentrations both before and after adjustment for age, BMI, gender, HDLc, LDLc, TGs, smoking status, and dietary L and Z estimates (Table 1; Fig 2; MPOD area, serum Z and serum L). One SNP (rs11057820, \( P = 0.008 \)) was associated with MPOD, although this did not remain significant after correction for multiple testing. No significant interactions by gender were found. Haplotype analysis revealed no stronger associations than were obtained with the single SNP analysis. No associations were identified for serum Z.

Anthropometric and lifestyle data are presented in relation to rs11057841 genotype for all 298 successfully genotyped subjects (Table 2). The mean values ± standard deviation (range) for age was 48.0 ± 11.1 years (range, 21–66) and 69% were female. There was no significant difference between rs11057841 genotypes for any of the following variables: age, BMI, cigarette smoking, dietary L intake, dietary Z intake, serum Z concentration, HDLc, LDLc, and TGs (1-way analysis of variance \( P > 0.05 \)). Neither was there any significant difference in the male/female ratio between the genotype groups. Significant differences in serum L concentration (increase in geometric mean per T allele by a factor of 1.24 [95% confidence interval, 1.11–1.39]; \( P = 2 \times 10^{-4} \)) and in the ratio of positive:negative family history of AMD (\( P = 0.03 \)) were detected between the 3 rs11057841 genotypes (Table 2; Fig 3).

### Evaluation of rs11057841 in the Independent Replication Cohorts

Replication of association for rs11057841 with serum L concentration was undertaken in the TwinsUK adult cohort (\( n = 199 \)) using a likelihood ratio chi-square test accounting for familial relatedness with support for the association detected in the discovery cohort (Table 3; beta coefficient = 0.252, \( P = 0.014 \)). Although CAREDS did not genotype rs11057841 directly, there was data available for rs10846744, a SNP in high LD with rs11057841 (\( r^2 = 0.93 \); available at [http://www.1000genomes.org/](http://www.1000genomes.org/); accessed July 30, 2012), providing further support to the size and direction of effect observed at this locus (Table 3; beta coefficient = 0.0395, \( P = 2 \times 10^{-4} \)).

### Discussion

Age-related macular degeneration is a common, complex disease; 1 strategy proposed for a reduction in associated risk includes modification of nutrient intake. Several studies have shown that an increased intake of the macular carotenoids L and Z through foods rich in these nutrients (e.g., spinach and egg yolk) tends to reduce the risk of the development and/or progression of late AMD. This study has investigated the relationship between common variants in SCARBI, MPOD, and serum concentrations of L and Z in 302 healthy subjects aged between 21 and 66 years. The mean MPOD of all genotyped subjects recorded at 0.5° retinal eccentricity was 0.38 ± 0.17 optical density units, a value comparable with previous studies that used cHFP to measure MPOD at this eccentricity.\(^\text{8,29}\) Genotype data were available on 99.7% of our sample and association of rs11057841 with serum L concentration survived correction by permutation for multiple testing, showing a 24% increase per T allele, further supported after replication in the independent TwinsUK and CAREDS studies. Whereas Wang et al\(^\text{11}\) reported transportation of serum L preferentially on HDLc, we found association of rs11057841 and serum L independent of HDLc and other factors such as BMI, smoking, gender, LDLc, and TGs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cohort</th>
<th>Allele</th>
<th>MAF</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Change Per Allele (CI)*</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Waterford (Discovery)</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>0.094</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>1.24 (1.11–1.39)</td>
<td>2 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TwinsUK (Replication)</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>0.252</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>1.79 (1.13–2.83)</td>
<td>0.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAREDS (Replication)</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>1640</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>1.10 (1.04–1.15)</td>
<td>2 × 10^{-4}</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CI = 95% confidence intervals; MAF = major allele frequency; SE = standard error.
The effect on serum lutein concentration (log base 10 scale) was estimated from an additive genetic model without adjustment for covariates in discovery and replication cohorts.

1Genotype regression coefficients (and their confidence limits) were anti-logged and interpreted as proportionate serum lutein changes in concentration per allele.

1Genotype data were not available for rs11057841 for the Carotenoids in Age-Related Eye Disease Study (CAREDS) dataset. Effect size and direction was estimated using rs10846744, reported to be in high linkage disequilibrium (\( r^2 = 0.93 \)) with rs11057841 according to the 1000 Genomes dataset ([http://www.1000genomes.org/](http://www.1000genomes.org/); accessed July 30, 2012). Note the T allele at rs11057841 is in linkage disequilibrium with the C allele at rs10846744.
Early stage AMD is characterized by hallmark lesions of cholesterol and lipid-rich drusen and basal linear deposits, which accumulate with age between the retinal pigment epithelium and the choroid. Bruch’s membrane forms the inner margin of the choroid, effectively acting as a vessel wall. During the atherosclerotic process, lipoproteins traverse the vascular endothelium and accumulate in the arterial wall on binding to proteoglycans, culminating in deleterious processes, which include inflammation and neovascularization. In many respects, these atherosclerotic plaques mimic the accumulation of drusen and basal lamina deposits in a manner similar to that observed in early AMD. Most studies of early AMD are often predominated by younger adults and have reported either a protective association or no association with elevated HDLc levels, in contrast with studies of late-stage AMD, characterized by elderly participants, which have tended to report the opposite. As such, although HDLc has been widely studied and implicated in AMD disease etiology, the mechanisms and timing involved with respect to participant age and disease status remain unresolved.

Previously reported associations of \textit{SCARB1} SNP rs5888 with AMD implicated a role for cholesterol and antioxidant metabolism, identifying L in particular, in AMD disease etiology. Recent identification of the hepatic lipase (\textit{LIPC}) and cholesterylsterol transfer protein (\textit{CETP}) genes provide further evidence in support of cholesterol metabolism and AMD pathogenesis, particularly given previous association of these genes with HDLc levels in blood. Although multiple common alleles near \textit{CETP} and \textit{LIPC} have been independently associated with HDLc levels, they have also shown modest association in a smaller AMD cohort with less power.

Alternatively, the associations with \textit{SCARB1} variants in this and other studies might reflect variation in carotenoid uptake into the body and eye. There is evidence that transport of carotenoids in the retina and intestine is a facilitated process mediated by the scavenger receptor class B type I. The direct association of rs11057841 genotypes with increasing T alleles and level of L and Z in the serum are mediated by the scavenger receptor class B.

Several studies have provided evidence of a gender-related effect at this locus. In a community-based cohort of postmenopausal women, \textit{SCARB1} polymorphisms were associated with decreased HDLc and elevated TG levels in an estrogen-dependent manner. Although the majority of female participants in our study were likely to be premenopausal, we found no evidence to suggest a gender-specific interaction between serum L concentration and MPOD and \textit{SCARB1} SNPs.

Interestingly, analyses originating from the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis has shown association between rs10846744 and common carotid intimal-medial artery thickness, a surrogate marker for subclinical atherosclerosis, and increased risk of cardiovascular disease. The association observed in our study between rs11957841 and increased serum L concentration is a variant known to share high linkage disequilibrium with rs10846744, a proxy SNP tested in the CAREDS replication study \((r^2 = 0.93)\). Manichaikul et al suggest that genetic variants within \textit{SCARB1} may exert \textit{cis} or \textit{trans} regulatory effects, possibly influencing endothelial function or inflammatory pathways. In view of the common pathways shared between AMD and cardiovascular disease, these data implicate \textit{SCARB1} in both disease processes.

Although our study was limited in that participants were too young to characterize symptoms associated with AMD, identification of a positive family history of AMD showed a positive correlation with serum L concentration and rs11957841. Although our study has identified common variants in \textit{SCARB1} associated with serum L concentration, we were unable to assess potential effects exerted by rare or low frequency variants. Despite copy number variation reported at \textit{SCARB1} (Database of Genomic Variants, available at http://projects.tcag.ca/variation/; accessed November 22, 2012), its rare observation is unlikely to have a significant impact at a population level.

Given that genetic variation attenuates cholesterol levels, which may influence drusen formation and modulate AMD risk, and given the poor correlation observed between serum L and Z concentration and MPOD in this study and elsewhere, further studies on the influence of genetic variants in \textit{SCARB1} on cholesterol transport and AMD are warranted. Accumulation of MP in the central retina is reliant on a complex process originating from ingested foodstuff, digestion, absorption, and transport in the serum, and ultimately capture by and stabilization in the retina. Although our study examines a key gene implicated in this process, assessment of additional genetic components of this pathway should be undertaken and their potential influence evaluated. Our data indicates an important role for \textit{SCARB1} in serum L concentration, but this seems to be a poor surrogate for MPOD. It would be particularly interesting to examine the genetic influence of \textit{SCARB1} polymorphisms in an elderly population and their respective influences on serum L concentration and associated AMD risk.

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