PARKLAND MEMORIAL HOSPITAL Medical Grand Rounds September 19, 1974

TREATMENT OF HYPERLIPIDEMIC STATES

David W. Bilheimer, M. D.

TREATMENT OF HYPERLIPEMIC STATES

I. INTRODUCTION

Triglyceride, contained principally in adipose tissue, is an excellent form in which energy can be stored with the greatest economy of space. The body of a 70 Kg man contains an average of 15 Kg of triglyceride representing about 135,000 kcal of energy (1). The ability to store food energy for later use in believed to have played a significant role in that stage of man's evolutionary development when he was predominantly a hunter and therefore subject to varying periods of food excess or food scarcity (2). Though the problem is still unsettled, adipose tissue in man is not thought to be a quantitatively significant site of fatty acid biosynthesis (3) and the triglyceride stored there is largely delivered from both the intestine and liver in the form of lipoproteins, principally chylomicrons and very low density lipoproteins (VLDL). While modern man still retains the ability to store triglycerides this system of energy storage is no longer as critically Important as It once was and in many causes It has become an outright nulsance. In addition, this system has developed a number of flaws and those flaws dealing with the transport phase of triglyceride and cholesterol through plasma will be the subject of today's discussion.

II. LIPOPROTEINS IN PLASMA

A. Definitions and Physical Characteristics.

Four major lipoprotein families, defined primarily by their density and electrophoretic behavior on paper, are found in plasma (Table 1).

TABLE I

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS OF MAJOR
PLASMA LIPOPROTEIN FAMILIES

	LIPOPROTEIN	DENSITY g/ml	S _f +	MOBILITY*	MOLECULAR WEIGHT	SIZE Å
•	4CHYLOMICRONS	<0.96	>400	Origin .	10 ³ -10 ⁴ ×10 ⁶	750-10,000
	5 _{VLDL}	0.96-1.006	20-400	Pre-beta	5-27×10 ⁶	300-800
	5 _{LDL}	1.006-1.063	0-20	beta	2.2-3.5×106	200-220
	6 _{HDL}	1.063-1.21		alpha	1.5-2.6×10 ⁵	70-95

⁺Svedberg flotation units (10⁻¹³ cm/sec/dyne/g) in sodium chloride solution of density 1.063 g/ml (26°C)

^{*} paper electrophoresis

- 1) Chylomicrons largest and lightest lipoproteins normally not present after 14 hour fast. Increased plasma concentrations cause turbidity initially, followed by formation of a cream layer after overnight refrigeration.
- 2) Very Low Density Lipoproteins (VLDL) also called prebeta-lipoprotein because of electrophoretic behavior. Elevated plasma levels cause turbidity. (Rarely called $lpha_2$ VLDL).
- 3) Low Density Lipoprotein (LDL) also called betalipoprotein. Because of smaller size, elevated plasma levels do not produce turbidity.
- 4) High Density Lipoproteins (HDL) also called alphalipoprotein. Disorders attributable to high HDL levels have not been described.

Two abnormal lipoproteins occasionally found in plasma are listed below:

- 5) Floating BetaLipoprotein (FBL) only found in disease states. Thought to represent an intermediate form between VLDL and LDL (20). (Occasionally called β -VLDL)
- 6) Lipoprotein-X (LP-X) found in obstructive liver disease not present normally elevations produce hypercholesterolemia. Usually has beta mobility on electrophoresis (47).
- B. Composition: Knowledge of lipoprotein composition assists in interpreting plasma cholesterol and triglyceride levels, (Fig. 1, Ref. 6,7).

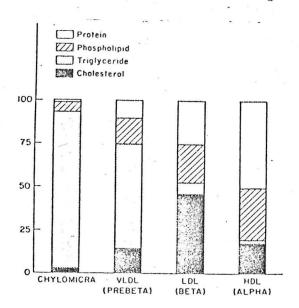


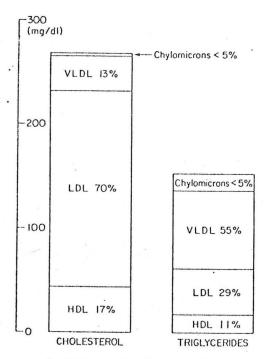
Figure 1

Average figures expressed as percent dry weight are listed below. Slight variation occurs among laboratories.

	Cholesterol	Triglyceride		
Chylomicrons	7%	80-95%		
VLDL .	20%	55-65%		
LDL	45%	103		
HOL	17%	83		
*FBL	33%	39% (4	14)	
+LP-X	25%	3% (4	47)	

Based on these values, hypertriglyceridemia is due to an elevation of chylomicrons, YLDL and/or FBL. Hypercholesterolemia is due to an elevation of LDL, FBL or LP-X. Raised HDL levels in the presence of normal levels of all other plasma lipoproteins rarely causes the total plasma cholesterol to be abnormally elevated.

In the normal fasting state most of the plasma cholesterol is in LDL while the major portion of triglyceride is in YLDL. (Fig. 2, Ref. 45)



Contribution of Each Lipoprotein Class to Total Plasma Cholesterol and Triglycerides in the Normal Subject.

Figure 2

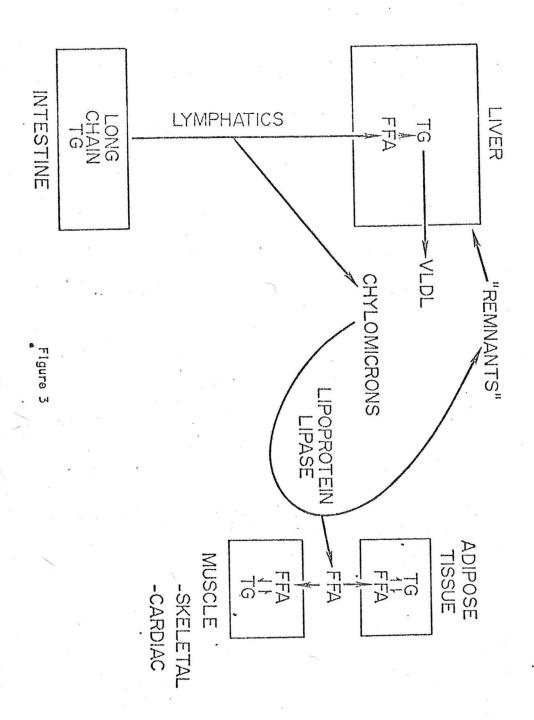
- C. Physiology: Metabolism of plasma lipoproteins in highly interdependent.
- 1) Chylomicrons (8, 9, 10, 11) (Fig. 3) Synthesized in the Intestine in response to ingestion of long chain triglycerides (C-14 and greater), these large particles travel via lymphatics to the thoracic duct where most directly enter plasma. A small portion are extracted from lymph by the liver. Here the TG is hydrolyzed to FFA which are re-esterified Into new TG and secreted as VLDL. Plasma half-life of chylomicrons is about 15 minutes and most are gone in 8 hours following a test meal. The triglyceride portion is hydrolyzed by lipoprotein lipase at the capillary endothellal surface of many tissues but especially adipose tissue and muscle. Resultant FFA are taken up by these tissues (some FFA are released directly into plasma, bind with albumin, and return to the liver), and the cholesterolrich "remnant" particle remaining is quickly taken up by the liver (12). Several hundred grams of triglyceride can be transported by this route daily (46). Hyperilpidemia caused by chylomicron excess is termed exogenous because the substrate directly driving chylomicron synthesis is derived from dietary fat.
- 2) VLDL (8, 9, 10, 11, 13) (Fig. 4) VLDL is produced in the liver from FFA liberated from adipose tissue or synthesized from dietary glucose. Medium chain FFA (C-10 or less) ingested as medium chain trigly-cerides (MCT) are absorbed directly into the portal vein and upon delivery to the liver, are packaged into VLDL (14). Thus MCT bypass chylomicron production and are useful as an energy source for patients with abnormally high chylomicron levels. Normally VLDL transport about 20 gm of trigly-ceride daily (46).

Hypertriglyceridemia due to high VLDL levels is termed endogenous because the FFA substrate is largely derived from endogenous energy sources (glycogen and adipose tissue triglyceride).

After secretion from the liver (only small amounts are contributed by intestine), VLDL triglyceride is hydrolyzed by lipoprotein lipase in a way similar to that for chylomicrons. The plasma half-life of VLDL is from 2-6 hours.

3) LDL - results from VLDL degradation (13, 15) and no evidence supports independent entry of LDL into plasma though the matter is not completely settled. Interest in the origin of LDL resides in its potent atherogenic effect and much effort has been expended finding ways to lower its concentration. The LDL half-life in plasma is 3 to 4 days. Its catabolic routes are not completely known but it may filter into arterial walls and/or be taken up by cells of the reticuloendothelial system (R.E.S.). The liver may take up a considerable amount.

CHYLOMICRON METABOLISM



J

VLDL METABOLISM

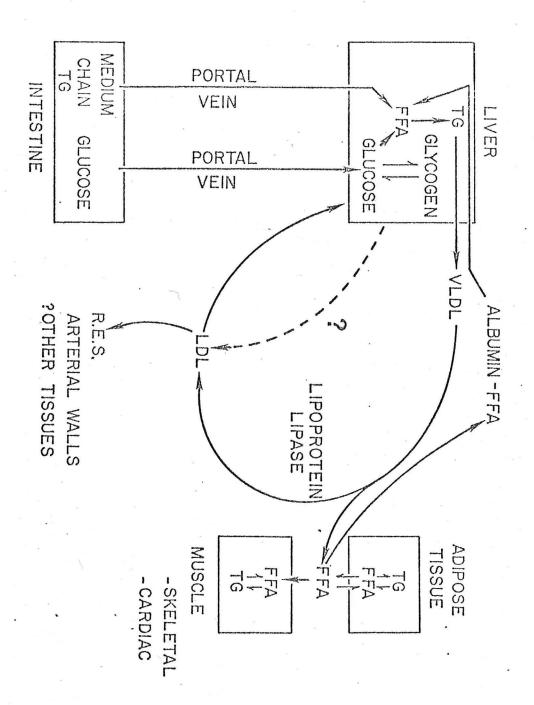


Figure 4

4) HDL (16) - Though not implicated in hyperlipidemia, HDL plays a central role in lipoprotein catabolism (Fig. 5).

Figure 5

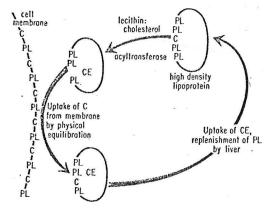
It functions in close association with a plasma enzyme called lecithin: cholesterol acyltransferase (LCAT) which transfer a fatty acid from lecithin to the hydroxyl group on the 3-position of cholesterol.

The hypothesis regarding the function of HDL and LCAT is as follows:

Schematic illustration showing equilibria between the unesterified cholesterol (UC) of plasma lipoproteins and plasma membranes and the effect of coupling these equilibria to the formation of HDL cholesteryl ester (CE) by the LCAT reaction.

Figure 6-a

Both chylomicrons and VLDL have their surfaces covered with phospholipid and protein that serve to function as detergent which permits the non-polar triglyceride cargo to be transported through the polar aqueous plasma. Unesterified cholesterol is closely associated with the phospholipid at the surface. As VLDL and chylomicrons reduce in size during hydrolysis of their triglyceride content, the excess protein and phospholipid surface material transfer directly to HDL while unesterified cholesterol is first esterified by LCAT before HDL accepts it. HDL thus functions as a "sink" or reservoir for the excess surface coat material. It is noteworthy that in Tangler Disease (congenital near-absence of HDL) (17) and in Familial LCAT Deficiency (16) lipoprotein metabolism is abnormal and both disease are associated with elevations of triglyceride - containing lipoproteins of an unusual type. These observations support the HDL-LCAT Hypothesis.



Postulated role of LCAT reaction in transporting cholesterol from peripheral tissues to the liver: LCAT reacts with HDL to form cholesteryl esters (CE) from unesterified cholesterol (C) and lecithin (PL); the HDL subsequently pick up unesterified cholesterol from cell membranes and release cholesteryl esters to the liver. (From Ref. 1.)

Figure 6-b

HDL may also function to remove unesterified cholesterol from cell membranes and HDL is believed responsible for transport of cholesterol from many body tissues to the liver where the sterol can be converted to bile acids or excreted directly into bile.

III. HYPERLIPIDEMIA AND HYPERLIPOPROTEINEMIA

A. Definition of Normal - normal values for cholesterol and triglyceride are nearly impossible to determine since large population studies reveal a broad range of values for these plasma lipids without division into normal and abnormal groups. (18, 19). Cholesterol and triglyceride values increase with

age through 60 years and differ in the sexes. For experimental and large population studies, the 95th percentile of control population levels has been used as the upper normal limit. Values from two such studies are shown in Table 2-a (20) and 2-b (21).

TABLE 2-a

PLASMA LIPIO CONCENTRATIONS, MG PER 160 ML, IN NORMAL* SUBJECTS

Age, yr	Cholesterol, mean and 90 percent limits	Triglyceride, mean and . 90 percent limits
0-19	175 (120-230)	65 (10–140)
20-29	180 (120-240)	70 (10–140)
30-39	205 (140-270)	75 (10-150)
40-49	225 (150-310)	85 (10–160)
50-59	245 (160-330)	95 (10–190)

• The population sample is derived from a total of 511 normal subjects (279 males, 232 females) and includes the smaller sample previously described [65]; the criteria for acceptance of patients were no evidence of metabolic disease or family history of hyperlipoproteinemia, and plasma triglyceride levels less than 200 mg per 100 ml; all samples were obtained 12 to 16 hr after the last (evening) meal. Some significant differences between the sexes were ignored [49, 68, 69].

TABLE 2-b

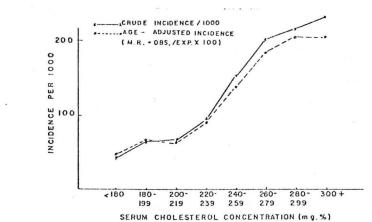
Unadjusted Plasma Lipid Levels in Controls

		950 Spou	se controls
		Cholesterol	Triglyceride
Age	No.	Mean ±SD	Mean ±SD
37		mg/100 ml	mg/100 ml
Men			
15-19	13	168 ±27	5.3 ±22
20-29	43	192:±33	76±37
30-39	62	212:E34	92:±56
40-49	116	226 ± 43	· 101 ±47
50-59	85	239 土42	109:E58
60-69	51	226±39	103±58
70-79	24	200 ±39	98 土 43
80-89	6	169 土21	93 ±19
Total	400		
Women		•	
15-19	11	183 ±17	71 ±27
20-29	47	199 ± 36	79 ± 40
30-39	88	196 土 39	73 ±38
40-49	168	215 土 42	87:±46
50-59	162	238 ± 43	107:±:55
60-69	55	250:449	98 土 47
70-79	19	230 ±32	146 ±78
Total	530		

1

Figure 7

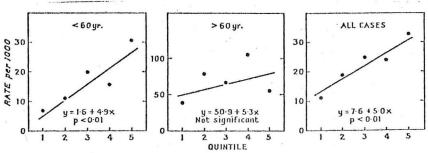
Evidence from the Framingham Study (22) suggests the 95th percentile values are too high. The incidence of heart disease in men aged 30-49 at entry into the study rises steeply with 20 mg% increments in plasma cholesterol from 200 mg% to 300+ mg% (Fig. 7).



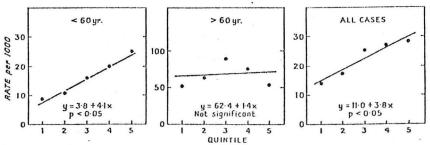
Risk of coronary heart disease (14 years) according to serum cholesterol concentration. Men aged 30 to 49 at entry, Framingham Study.

Forty percent of coronary disease in men developed in individuals with cholesterol values in the upper quartile of the distribution of lipids in the general population (between 250 and 350 mg%) (19). In other words, men in the upper 25% of the distribution curve for cholesterol values experienced 40% of the myocardial infarctions.

Similar results for triglyceride levels were obtained by Carlson and Böttiger (23). They observed an increased rate of new events, particularly in individuals less than 60 years old, as the triglyceride rose from low to high levels (Fig. 8).



"Linear regression analysis of the rate of new events in the prospective group of LH.D. (per 1000) in relation to plasmatriglyceride quintiles.



Linear regression analysis of the rate of new events in the prospective group of I.H.D. (per 1000) in relation to plasmacholesterol quintiles.

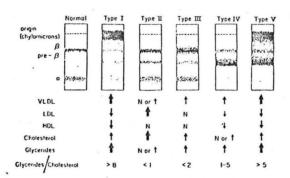
This study is especially important because:

- 1) It established elevated TG as a coronary risk factor.
- 2) It suggests the age-associated rise in plasma cholesterol and triglyceride may be abnormal.

Selection of upper normal limits is arbitrary in the absence of a clear-cut normal population. Fredrickson suggests that cholesterol values exceeding 220 mg% at any age may require attention (24), but this would require treatment of a majority of the population. We may eventually do that but at present, an upper limit of 250 mg% seem reasonable since it would focus attention on those individuals in the upper quartile who are most at risk for coronary disease (19).

The upper limit of normal for triglyceride in adults is generally taken at 150 mg% (24).

B. Classification: Gofman and co-workers first focused attention on the lipoproteins as carriers of lipids in plasma and devised methods of isolation and measurement of lipoproteins based on their density characteristics (25, 26, 27, 28). Elevations of LDL and VLDL were found in atherosclerotic individuals and Gofman's results stimulated a cooperative study (29) to investigate the predictive role of lipoprotein levels in coronary disease. The 2-year study suggested that neither lipoproteins nor cholesterol were of predictive value in atherosclerosis. Interest diminished until 1963, when Lees and Hatch described a simple paper electrophoretic method for plasma lipoprotein separation (30). Using this method, Fredrickson and Lees described 5 predominating types of lipoprotein patterns in their highly select hyperlipidemic patients at the National Institutes of Health (31) (Fig. 9).



Electrophoretic Patterns, Lipid and Lipoprotein Changes in Hyperlipoproteinemia.

The width of the arrows is proportional to the extent of the deviation from normal, and the direction of the arrows indicates increase or decrease of lipids. The usual glyceride-cholesterol ratio is given as an aid to diagnosis.

Figure 9

Lipoprotein elevations in each type are illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3

THE MAJOR ABNORMAL LIPOPROTEIN PATTERNS
AND THEIR TYPE NUMBERS

Туре	Chylo- microns	LDL (B-lp)	VLDL (pre-β-lp)	Floating B-lipoproteins b
I	+			
lla		+ '		-
lib		+	+	
111				+
IV			+	
v	+		+	

a+ indicates which lipoprotein "family" (families) occurs in concentration above "normal" in the different abnormal patterns. b Also known as "broad B-lipoproteins".

The simple typing system was attractive in a field filled with memory-taxing names and general confusion. In 5-years time, it was widely employed and in 1970, the World Health Organization (WHO) adopted it in modified form for global use (Table 3) (33).

The lipoprotein typing system was initially thought to have the following advantages:

- 1) Fairly simple and relatively inexpensive.
- 2) Definition of hyperlipidemia based on lipoprotein elevations was more physiologic.
- 3) Better classification would permit conduct of more accurate clinical and genetic studies.
 - 4) Dietary treatment could be outlined by physiologic principles.
 - 5) Drug treatment could be specified by type.
 - 6). Prognosis might be predictable by type.

After a period of critical appraisal, not all the advantages of this extensively used clinical tool have held up.

1) Lipoprotein typing is often uncertain. Pries, et.al. (37) found that five observers independently typing 20 lipoprotein electrophoretograms agreed in only six cases. The observers were "correct" in only 55-75% of the cases.

2) Goldstein and co-workers (35) studied clinical, genetic and blochemical characteristics of a large group of hyperlipidemic survivors of myocardial infarction initially chosen only by cholesterol and triglyceride values. They were able to delineate three monogenic disorders (Fig. 10).

Summary of Clinical, Genetic, and Biochemical Characteristics of Hyperlipidemic Survivors of Myocardial Infarction

	Typical L	ipid Level		1	
Disorder	Cholesterol (mg/100 ml)	Triglyceride (mg/100 ml)	Lipoprotein Types	Mode of Inheritance	Expression in Children
Monogenic Familial hypercholesterolemia	353	126 	11a, 11b	Autosomal dominant	Yes
Familial hypertriglyceridemia	241	267	IV, V	Autosomal dominant	Rarely
Combined hyperlipidemia	300	241	IIa, IIb, IV, ∨	Autosomal dominant	Rarely
Polygenic hypercholesterolemia	308	287	IIa, IIb	Polygenic	Not applicable
Sporadic hypertriglyceridemia	233.	243	IV, V	Nongenetic	Not applicable

Figure 10

After families were identified lipoprotein typing was performed and multiple lipoprotein types were found in each of the genetic disorders. Four lipoprotein types were found in families with combined hyperlipidemia. Though this disorder proved most common in the myocardial infarction survivors, its existence as an entity was not discovered by lipoprotein typing.

Similar reports from Finland (36) also illustrate the wide variability of lipoprotein types in families.

The genetic studies help explain earlier reports indicating failure to clearly separate on clinical or biochemical ground types III and IV (38) and types IV and V (39, 40, 41) as distinct entities.

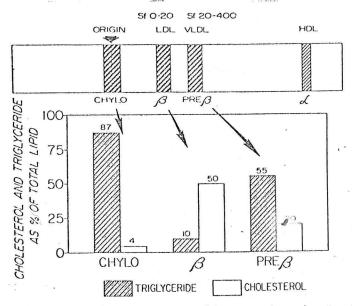
Since multiple lipoprotein types may be found in the same family with monogenic hyperlipidemia:

- Diet treatment by lipoprotein type may be difficult with regard to preparation of meals.
- 2) It may be possible that one drug is useful for all the types in a given family. Thus drug prescription by type may not always be necessary.

3) Prognosis would be indicated more by the genetic disorder than by the lipoprotein type.

In summary, lipoprotein typing has not proved as useful as anticipated but it was immensely helpful in focusing attention on lipoproteins as the transport vehicles for plasma lipids. It remains useful as a short-hand description of lipoprotein abnormalities in patients. It is most important to remember that lipoprotein types are not diseases and a given type is not unique for a given disease.

A simplified means of estimating lipoprotein levels in hyperlipemic patients has been proposed by Havel (43). First recall the cholesteroltriglyceride content of the major lipoproteins (Fig. II, Ref. 42).



Location of lipoproteins separated by paper electrophoresis with cholesterol and triglyceride content listed as a percentage of total lipid.

Figure II

Combining this information with the knowledge of the plasma cholesterol, trigly-ceride and appearance of chilled plasma permits a reasonable ascessment of lipoprotein elevation in a given patient (Fig. 12).

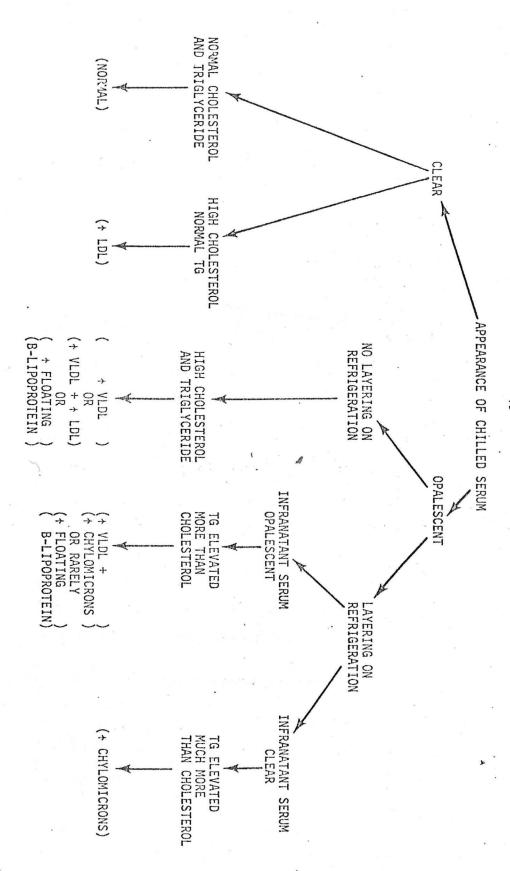


Figure 12

COMMENTS

- I) Blood collected using EDTA anticoaguicat (Lavender top vacutainer tubes) works best. Serum is less satisfactory since clot formation will trap many chylomicrons.
 - 2) Rough estimates of triglyceride concentration are as follows:

150-250 mg% - clear at room temperature, turbid at 4°C.

- > 250 mg% turbid at room temperature.
- 3) Obstructive liver disease patients with LP-X usually have clear plasma and high cholesterol levels.
- 4) Layering upon refrigeration is considered an excellent test for chylomicrons and it is often more helpful than ilpoprotein electrophoresis in detecting these particles.
- 5) Further definition of hyperlipidemia with regard to VLDL, LDL, and FBL requires more specialized techniques than are usually available and is not required for general clinical purposes.

C. Differential Diagnosis:

GENETIC HYPERLIPIDEMIA (PRIMARY)

Familial Hypercholesterolemia (monogenic)
Familial Hypertriglyceridemia
Familial Combined Hyperlipidemia
Broad Beta Disease (Familial Dysbetalipoproteinemia)
Familial Hypercholesterolemia (polygenic)
Lipoprotein Lipase Deficiency

SECONDARY HYPERLIPIDEMIA (ENDOCRINE RELATED)

Diabetes Mellitus Corticosteroid Treatment Hypothyroidism Hypopituitarism Estrogen or Oral Contraceptive Treatment

SECONDARY HYPERLIPIDEMIA (NON-ENDOCRINE)

Dietary and sporadic
Renal Disease - Nephrotic Syndrome, Uremia
Alcoholism
Dysglobulinemia
-Systemic Lupus Erythematosis
-Lymphoma

-Multiple Myeloma Congenital Lipodystrophy Biliary Cirrhosis Hepatoma

Lipoprotein-related findings for the primary and secondary hyper-Ilpidemias are summarized in Tables 3, 4, and 5 (adapted from Blerman and Glomset, Ref. 48). These are for reference and Illustrate the variability of lipoprotein changes in different disorders and in the same disorder at varying levels of severity. (eg. Diabetes Mellitus)

D. Primary Hyperlipidemias:

Two of these disorders -- lipoprotein lipase deficiency and broad beta disease are rare and will not be discussed here. They are well covered In Reference 20. Only broad beta disease is associated with atheroscierosis. Discussion will focus on the monogenic disorders associated with atherosclerosis.

- 1. Clinical Features The monogenic hyperlipidemias have only recently been described (21). Consequently clinical studies of patients grouped this way are lacking. Previous clinical descriptions based on lipoprotein type alone (20) are now less valid from a genetic point of view. Certain general points can be made however.
- a) The frequency of certain atherosclerotic risk factors diabetes mellitus, obesity and hypertension - is significantly higher in hypertriglyceridemic survivors of myocardial infarction (Table 6) (21).

Frequency of Risk Factors in Normolipidemic and Hyperlipidemic Survivorst

		Freq	uency	
Risk factor	All survivors (n = 500)	Normolipidemic survivors (n = 343)	Hypercholes- terolemic survivors§ (n = 78)	Hypertri- glyceridemic survivors§ (n = 118)
		9	76	
Diabetes mellitus	12.6	11.1	11.5	18.6
Hypertension¶	15.4	13.4	16.6	21.2*
Obesity**	17.2	14.0	25.5*	24.5
Hyperuricemiatt	13.8	13.1	14.1	19.5
Excessive smoking§§	39.5	38.5	44.0	40.8

Table 6

- * Denotes statistical level of significance at 0.05 (italicized number denotes 0.01) using Chi-square test to compare proportion with risk factor in hyperlipidemic with that in normolipidemic group.
- ‡ 95th percentile values used to define hyperlipidemia.

§ Independent of level of other plasma liquid.

- || Diagnosed if one of two criteria fulfilled: (a) survivor taking either insulin or an oral antihyperglycemic medication; or (b) fasting plasma glucose > 120 mg/100 ml. Considered present if past history of specific treatment with antihypertensive drug therapy. Frequency of hypertension by same criterion in controls was 6.2%. ** Weight in excess of 125% of ideal body weight by criteria of Metropolitan Life Insurance Company tables (51). Frequency of obesity by same criteria in controls
- ## Plasma uric acid \geq 7.0 mg/100 ml in women and \geq 8.0 mg/100 ml in men (52). §§ More than 20 cigarettes per day. Frequency of excessive smoking by same criterion in controls was 10.0%.
- b) In the monogenic disorders childhood expression is seen in familial hypercholesterolemia but rarely in the other two disorders (Fig. 10). Therefore, family screening should include children but fallure to find hyperlipidemia in a child from an affected family is no guarantee that the child has been spared since the lipids may rise when he or she becomes an adult.

TABLE 3

GENETIC HYPERLIPIDEMIA

LIPOPROTEIN LIPASE DEFICIENCY	FAMILIAL HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA (POLYGENIC)	BROAD BETA DISEASE	FAMILIAL COMBINED HYPERLIPIDEMIA	FAMILIAL HYPERTRIGLYCERIDEMIA	FAMILIAL HYPERCHOLESTEROLEMIA (MONOGENIC)	NAME
→		N or →	N or →	N or +		CHYLOMICRONS
	(Chance)		N or →	→	↑ (Chance)	VLDL
	+		→		→	LDL
		→				*FBL
‡	→	→	→	N or +	-	CHOL .
‡	N or +	+	→	+ or ++	N or →	TG
H	IIa, IIb	III	IIa, IIb, IV,	IV, V	IIa, IIb	WHO TYPE

^{*} FLOATING BETA LIPOPROTEIN

N = Normal

TABLE 4

SECONDARY HYPERLIPIDEMIA (ENDOCRINE RELATED)

ESTROGEN OR ORAL CONTRACEPTIVE RX	HYPOPITUITARISM	HYPOTHYROIDISM	CORTICOSTEROID RX High Dose Low Dose or Cushing's Syndrome	DIABETES Severe Moderate Mild	ENDOCRINE	CAUSE
N or →	N or +	N or +	N 0 7	N N 0 0 → 7 7 + →		CHYLOMICRONS
N or +	N or +	N or +	NN or or	N N N 0 0 0 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7		VLDL
~		N or →	N or →	N N 0 0 7 7 → →		LDL
		N or →		N N 0 0 7 → →		*FBL
N or →	N or →	- >	N N 0 0 7 7 → →	N N N 0 0 0 7 7 7 + + +		CHOL
→ or →	→ Or →→	N_{\bullet} + or ++	N or ++	+ + Or + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +		TG
IV. V	IV, V	IIa, IIb, III, IV, V	IV, V IIa, IIb, IV	IIb, III, IV, V		WHO ТҮРЕ

*FBL = Floating Beta Lipoprotein

N = Normal

TABLE 5

SECONDARY HYPERLIPOPROTEINEMIA (NON-ENDOCRINE)

НЕРАТОМА	BILIARY CIRRHOSIS	CONGENITAL LIPODYSTROPHY	GLYCOGEN STORAGE DISEASE	DYSGLOBULINEMIA -Systemic Lupus Erythematosis -Lymphoma -Multiple Myeloma	ALCOHOLISM	RENAL DISEASE Nephrotic Syndrome Uremia	CAUSE CAUSE	
Hyperchol	Abnormal'1	N or →	→	N 0 7 →	N or →	ZZ orr ++	CHYLOMICRONS	
Hypercholesterolemia - ? due to LP-X or LDL	Abnormal lipoprotein termed LP-X present.N	N or →	N or +	N or →	N or →	N N o o o o r o r	<u>VLDL</u>	
- ? due to	termed LP-			N or →		N or +	LDL	
or LDL	X present			N 0r →			* 78	
→	.N or +		N or →	N or →	N or →	N N 0 0 7 7 + +	СНОГ	
·->	→		→ →	N _s → or →	→ or →→	N, + or ++	TG	
	1	IV, V	I, V	↑ I,IIa, III, V	IV, V	IIa, IIb, IV, V IV, V	МНО ТҮРЕ	

c) Certain signs and symptoms relate to the lipoprotein or groups of lipoproteins elevated in plasma. Table 7 summarizes this information. Note, for example, that pancreatitis, lipemia retinalis and hepatosplenomegaly occur when chylomicrons are elevated but rarely, if ever, occur with elevation of other lipoproteins. In contrast various types of xanthomas occur with LDL and FBL elevations but only eruptive xanthomas have been definitely linked to chylomicrons.

Lipoproteins can also influence certain diagnostic tests. Some reported changes in hyperlipemic patients are listed in Table 8. Liver scan and UGI radiologic reports are not very convincing and the recommended approach in ascribing one of these abnormalities to hyperlipidemia is to do so by exclusion.

- 2. Dietary treatment: Over the years, studies have shown that lipoproteins generally respond to certain dietary factors in the following way:
 - a) High carbohydrate feeding = † VLDL levels.
 - b) High saturated fat, high cholesterol = † LDL levels.
- c) Fat (saturated or unsaturated) = t chylomicron production but high levels are not sustained in normal subjects.
- d) Hypercaloric Intake = † VLDL (occasionally chylomicrons form if VLDL levels become very high in hyperlipemic patients) (41).

Based on lipoprotein elevations and the above information, Fredrickson and co-workers devised 5 different diets to be used with the 5 lipoprotein types (24) (Table 9).

Summary of Diets for Types I to V Hyperlipoproteinemia

Table 9

Factor	Type I	Type II	Type III*	Type IV*	Type V
Dietary prescription	Low-fat, 25 to 35 g	Low-cholesterol, polyunsaturated fat increased	Low cholesterol approximately: 20% cal. protein 40% cal. fat 40% cal. CHO	Controlled CHO (approximately 40 to 45% cal- ories); moderately restricted cholesterol	Restricted fat (30% calories), controlled CHO (50% calories), moderately restricted cholesterol
Calories	Not restricted	Not restricted, except in type IIb where weight re- duction is often indicated	Achieve and main- tain "ideal" weight—reduc- tion diet if necessary	Achieve and maintain "ideal" weight—reduction diet if necessary	Achieve and maintain "ideal" weight—reduction diet if necessary
Protein	Total protein intake not limited	Total protein intake not limited	High protein	Not limited other than control of patient's weight	High protein
Fat	Restricted to 25 to 35 g; kind of fat not important	Saturated fat intake limited; polyun- saturated intake increased	Controlled to 40% to 45% calories (polyunsaturated fats recommended in preference to saturated fats)	Not limited other than control of patient's weight	Restricted to 30% calories (polyunsaturated fats recommended in preference to saturated fats)
Cholesterol	Not restricted	Less than 300 mg or as low as possible; only source of choles- terol is meat	Less than 300 mg, only source of cholesterol is meat	Moderately re- stricted to 300 to 500 mg	Moderately restricted to 300 to 500 mg
Carbo- hydrates	Not restricted	Not restricted (may be controlled in type IIb)	Controlled; most concentrated sweets eliminated	Controlled; most concentrated sweets eliminated	Controlled; most concentrated sweets eliminated
Alcohol .	Not recommended	May be used with discretion	Limited to 2 servings (sub- stituted for carbohydrate)	Limited to 2 servings (sub- stituted for carbohydrate)	Not recommended

^{*} Cal. = calories; CHO = carbohydrate.

TABLE 7

SIGNS + SYMPTOMS RELATING TO LIPOPROTEIN ELEVATION

*	CHYLOMICRONS	VLDL	LDL	FBL
XANTHELASMA			+	RARE
XANTHOMAS				
TENDON TUBEROUS TUBERO-ERUPTIVE ERUPTIVE PLANAR PLANAR-PALM CREASES SUBPERIOSTEAL	+	Occasional Occasional	+ + +	+ + + + + +
ARCUS CORNEAE		*	+	+ ,
HEPATOMEGALY	+	Occasional		Occasional
SPLENOMEGALY	+	,		?
LIPEMIA RETINALIS	+			
PANCREATITIS + ABDOMINAL PAIN	+	Occasional		Rare
ARTHRITIS		?	+ .	
TENDONITIS			+	
RETINAL CHANGES				,
HEMORRHAGES EDEMA YELLOW DEPOSITS DETACHMENT VESSEL DILATATION XANTHOMAS	+ + + +		+	

⁺ indicates that a sign or symptom occurs frequently when a particular lipoprotein is elevated.

TABLE 8

INFLUENCE OF LIPOPROTEINS ON DIAGNOSTIC TESTS

	CHYLOMICRONS	VLDL	LDL	FBL.
ESR		+	+	
ABNORMAL LIVER SCAN	+	+	?	?
UGI RADIOLOGIC FINDINGS -Mucosal Thickening -Antral Deformity -Bulbar Deformity -Pyloric Prolapse of Gastric Mucosa		+	?	?
FALSE DEPRESSION OF LABORATORY VALUES	+	<u>,</u>		?

Diets for the Type II, III and IV diet are nearly identical with only small differences in cholesterol intake. The Type V diet contains a 10% reduction in fat and a 10% increase in carbohydrates to help reduce chylomicron formation.

Although the diets make sense physiologically, it is cumbersome to work with four slightly different diets and no data is available to indicate that these small dietary differences significantly alter lipoprotein levels any more than a balanced diabetic diet would.

In most cases, therefore, a diabetic diet restricted in fats and low in cholesterol is satisfactory. It is virtually identical to the Type III diet of Fredrickson and its general composition is as follows:

Calorie Distribution

Protein						20	Z .
Carbohydrate						40	6
Fat	ž.					40	6
Cholesterol content						300	mg
P/S ratio		٥	1.5	to	2		

(enriched in polyunsaturated fats.)

Calories must be adjusted to achieve weight loss when necessary.

Diets are modestly effective in lowering lipids as illustrated in Table 10. Six representative studies are summarized. Fat content varied between 30-40% and all were enriched in polyunsaturated fats and restricted in cholesterol content. Taken together, these studies indicate that cholesterol levels can be reduced an average of 12% using such diets. Triglyceride results ranged from variable with but a slight average decrease to sizeable reductions of 11 to 17%. Triglyceride reduction was greatest in studies where weight loss occurred during dietary treatment and in general, TG reduction was greatest in those patients with higher initial levels.

Several problems and controversies exist with regard to these diets:

- a) Prevalence of cholelithiasis is increased in men ingesting serum cholesterol-lowering diets (55).
- b) Cancer incidence in men consuming high polyunsaturated fat diets was reportedly increased (56). This study was subsequently refuted (57) and controversy rages on.
- c). Some investigators (58) feel safety of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) has not been adequately proven and cite the following:
- Effectiveness of PUFA to reduce mortality from coronary disease is not convincing.
 - 11) PUFA given as corn oil can cause cancer in mice.
- III) Potentially carcinogenic lipid peroxides easily form in PUFA by auto-oxidation.

TABLE 10

EFFECTS OF DIET ON PLASMA LIPIDS

	MEITTINEN, ET.AL. (1972)	WILSON, ET.AL. (1971)	HALL, ET.AL. (1972)	BIERENBAUM, ET.AL. (1973)	OSLO DIET-HEART (1970)	DIET-HEART (1968)	STUDY
			N.				
	0 V (1)	0.1				B A	
	30-32% Fa† → P/S Ra†io Chol ∿ 250 mg/Day	16% Protein, 43% Chol 40% Fat P/S = 1.6 Chol 227 mg/Day	20% Protein, 30% Fat P/S 1.25, 300 mg Chol/Day	28% Fat, + P/S Ratio in half. 400 mg Chol/Day	Low Fat, ↑ P/S Ratio 300 mg Chol/Day	30% Fat, Low Chol + P/S Ratio 40% Fat, Low Chol ++ P/S Ratio	DIET
		. 1	Ĺ	9	-178	 22 34 54	CHOL
	= 1 8 + 0	9.63	12.	-7.3 to 9.7%	7	P6 P6	P
~		,					
	Variable +	111.78	-17.3%	Slight +	I	Variable Most + Variable Most +	<u>16</u>
CHD mortality + in men but only suggestive in women.	Diet trial in two mental hospitals over 12 years.	6 month study	2 year study	+ P/S did not improve results 17% greater survival rate.	+ MI Mortality	20-25% Poor Adherence	COMMENT
		0.88	₽ <i>q</i>	Yes	,1	Stable Stable	WEIGHT

- iv) Heating PUFA may produce carcinogenic substances such as polycyclic and aromatic hydrocarbons.
- v) PUFA (unheated) may potentiate tumor-inducing properties of other carcinogens.
- vi) PUFA ingestion may increase nutritional requirements for vitamin E and other vitamins.

These areas are under investigation but no conclusions can be drawn.

Several advantages to dlet in general can be cited:

- a) Weight reduction will reduce plasma triglyceride levels, triglyceride production rate, insulin resistance and hyperinsulinism (59).
- b) Lipid lowering diets produce regression of coronary artery atheromas in experimental atherosclerosis in the Rhesus mokey (60).
- c) Several human diet trials report reduced mortality from coronary artery disease in patients following lipid lowering diets (50, 51, 54).
- d) Certain coronary risk factors (cholesterol, blood pressure, blood glucose and uric acid) are reduced by weight loss with a concomitant improvement in chances of avoiding a heart attack (61) (Table II).

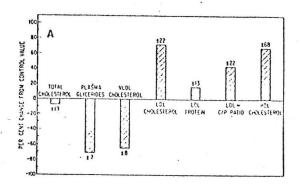
Table II

CORONARY	HEART	DISEASE	RELATIVE	ODDS	R-WOS
CORRESPONDING TO	GIVEN C	HANGES	IN RELATIV	E WEIG	THE

		Ma	iles	Fem	nales
Change in relative weight	Age:	35-44	45-54	35-44	45-54
20		0.57	0.62	0.62	0.83
-10		0.76	0.80	0.80	0.94
+10		1.38	1.31	1.31	1.20
+20		1.86	1.68	1.69	1.35

COMMENTS:

- In general patients do better who are counseled by a nutritionist.
 Simply handing a dlet manual to a patient is usually ineffective.
- 2) A weight-reduction diet alone in a hypertriglyceridemic patient often raises the LDL level in association with a decrease in VLDL levels, (62) (Fig. 13).



Effect of weight reduction on lipoprotein levels.

Figure 13

For this reason, caloric restriction is usually combined with a low cholesterolhigh polyunsaturated fat diet.

- 3) Patients with persistent hyperchylomicronemia may require replacement of part of their regular dietary fat by medium chain triglyceride (MCT).
 - 4) The following reference information may be useful in diet therapy:
 - Cholesterol content of foods (63).
 - 11) Use of medium chain triglycerides (64).
 - iii) Diets that Lower Plasma lipids in man (65).
- 3) Drug Treatment A variety of drugs are available for use in treating hyperlipidemia. The four most commonly used drugs are outlined here. None of the drugs is very specific and they vary with respect to their influence on lipoprotein levels as follows:

Nicotinic Acid - lowers VLDL and LDL

Clofibrate - lowers VLDL, variable effect on LDL

Cholestyramine - lowers LDL, may increase VLDL

D-Thyroxine - lowers LDL, little effect on VLDL

Major features of these drugs are summarized in Table 12 (Ref. 24).

a) Nicotinic Acid: Also termed miacin to avoid confusion with the completely unrelated compound, Nicotine. Nicotinic acid and Nicotinamide are effective in Peliagra but only Nicotinic acid lowers plasma lipids. (Nicotinamide was effective in one patient [67]). Liver function should be monitored during use. Reduction in cholesterol may range from 17-39%. Triglyceride reductions range between 30 and 90% (68, 69). Best results are seen in the most lipemic patients. For general discussion see references 68, 69, 24. Reference 70 is a lengthy treatise.

TABLE 12

HYPOLIPIDEMIC DRUGS*

	NICOTINIC ACID	CHOLESTYRAMINE	D-THYROXINE	CLOFIBRATE
EFFECT ON PLASMA LIPOPROTEINS	→ VLDL, → LDL → LDL synthesis	→ LDL, may → VLDL → LDL catabolism	→ LDL, little effect on VLDL, ↑ LDL catabolism	→ VLDL, effect LDL variable
INITIAL DOSE	100 mg orally, three times daily	4 gm orally four times daily	1 mg orally, daily. Increased by 1-2 gm at monthly intervals	0.5 - 1.0 gm twice daily
MAINTENANCE DOSE	1-2 gm orally, three times daily with meals	4-8 gm orally, four times daily	4-8 gm orally, daily	l gm orally, twice daily
ADVERSE EFFECTS	Flusing, pruritis, hyperuricemia, † glucose tolerance, hepatotoxicity	Constipation, bloating, nausea, fat malasorption at doses > 24 gm/day	Signs of hypermetab- olism, may \(\gamma\) angina. Potentiate effects of Warfarin + epine- phrine. May \(\gamma\) glucose in diabetics	Nausea, weight gain, myositis, alopecia, agranulocytosis. Abnormal liver function
CAUTION	Peptic ulcer patients. Safe use in pregnancy not established	Drug binds Warfarin, digitalis, thyroxin, + possibly thiazides. Safe use in pregnancy not established	+ Warfarin dose. Avoid in patients with mul- tiple ectopic prema- ture beats. Extreme caution in patients with coronary disease Safe use in pregnancy (?)	Potentiates effects of Warfarin. Safe use in pregnancy not established
USE	† VLDI, LDI + Floating beta lipoprotein levels (Types IIa, IIb, III, IV, V)	† LDL levels. (Type IIa, ? type IIb in combination)	<pre>† LDL, † Floating beta † VLDL, Floating lipoprotein. (Type IIa, beta lipoprotein III, ? IIb) (Types III, V, ?) in combination)</pre>	↑ VIDI, Floating beta lipoprotein (Types III, V, ?IIb in combination)

b) Cholestyramine: A quaternary ammonium anion exchange resin, with basic groups attached to a styrene-divinyl-benzene copolymer by carbon-to-carbon bonds. Molecular weight is greater than one million and it is neither digested nor absorbed from the GI tract. It binds bile salts tightly in the intestine, thereby promoting their increased rate of loss from the gut. All links between bile salt loss and cholesterol metabolism are not yet known.

Anticoagulation with Warfarin is difficult to control and another drug should be substituted for cholestyramine if clear-cut indications for anti-coagulation are present (24). It is most effective in lowering cholesterol in doses of 16-24 gm/day. An average 20% reduction in LDL cholesterol can be achieved in Familial Hypercholesterolemia. Rarely, doses of 32 gm may be needed (in homozygous familial hypercholesterolemia). Doses should be given 1/2 to one hour before meals and at bedtime. In some patients, mild hypertriglyceridemia results during treatment but this is no reason to stop its use in moderate to severe hypercholesterolemia. Weight reduction or clofibrate can be used if TG levels go above 200 mg%. Some patients require laxatives to overcome the constipating effect of cholestyramine. For references, see 24, 71, 72, 76, and 73. Treated hypothyroid patients requiring cholestyramine need periodic monitoring of thyroid function because thyroxine binds to cholestyramine and may not be absorbed (74).

- c) D-Thyroxine: Dextrorotatory form of thyroxine which retains its cholesterol-lowering effects while its calorigenic effects are much reduced but still present (24). Cardiac effects can be controlled by simultaneous treatment with propanolol (75). Though effective in reducing cholesterol (76), data from the coronary drug project (a large scale and long term study of drug regimens influencing lipid metabolism in men aged 30 to 64 years, who have recovered from one or more myocardial infarctions) indicated that after 36 months, patients receiving dextrothyroxine had an 18.4% higher proportion of deaths than did the placebo group. Mortality increased progressively with duration of treatment. In addition to higher rates of death from coronary and all-other cardiovascular causes, there was also a higher proportion of patients suffering recurrent non-fatal myocardial infarctions. Dextrothyroxine was discontinued from the study (77). It is still available as a hypocholesterolemic agent but it is contraindicated in patients with:
 - Any known organic heart disease.
 - 11) Hypertension
 - III) Advanced liver or kidney disease.

Maximum dose in patients receiving digitalis is 4 mg/day. Because of the cardiovascular contraindications, use of this drug is severely limited.

d) Clofibrate (Atromid-S): Probably the most widely used hypollpidemic drug. Its mechanism of action is uncertain but cholesterol balance data suggests that it may promote increased excretion of cholesterol stored in tissues (78). It has been used for long periods with good patient tolerance and few side effects (79, 80). In familial hypercholesterolemia (Type II) it produces only a 7% reduction in cholesterol (24). It is far more effective in hypertriglyceridemic states (81).

The results of three trials of clofibrate treatment in Ischemic Heart Disease have recently appeared, (82, 83, 84). These studies concluded that clofibrate had a favorable effect on morbidity in coronary heart disease which was not correlated with the hypolipidemia it produced. It was suggested that this beneficial effect might instead be due to some influence on one or several parameters of blood clotting, such as, platelet aggregation or fibrinolytic activity (81). These clinical trials have been critized by several biostatisticians who in general conclude that a beneficial effect of clofibrate on coronary heart disease morbidity is suggested but not conclusively shown by the data in these studies, (85, 86, 87). As a result, bigger and better studies are being proposed to settle this issue. Whatever the results, clofibrate remains an effective lipid-lowering drug with a good safety record.

Clofibrate has an ADH-like action (88) but significant water retention and weight gain have not been problematical. Use of clofibrate in nephrotic syndrome hyperlipidemia has been complicated by muscular pain, stiffness and general malaise (89). Those patients receiving maintainance Frusemide therapy developed a pronounced diuresis when clofibrate therapy was started. Most patients were hypoalbuminemic and it was postulated that reduced albumin binding sites lead to higher unbound clofibrate levels in sera with resultant toxic effects. The diuresis was thought due to displacement of Frusemide from its albumin-binding sites by the clofibrate. It was recommended that the clofibrate dosage not exceed 0.5 gm for each one gram percent serum albumin concentration.

e) Combination Drug Treatment: Experience is limited but several reports indicate combinations such as clofibrate + cholestyramine (or colestipol) or Nicotinic acid + cholestyramine work synergistically (90, 91). The latter combination is especially useful in homozygous familial hypercholesterolemia (24, 92). Additional combinations are found in references 93 and 94. In order to keep treatment programs simple, combinations should not be used except in very resistant cases of hyperlipidemia.

Mention of additional drugs can be found in reference 24 and in a recent review from the NIH group (95).

f) <u>Surgery</u>: Ileal bypass surgery has been proposed as an effective therapy for hypercholesterolemia and details are reviewed in reference 95.

The surgery promotes increased fecal loss of bile acids and may also cause a certain degree of malabsorption and diarrhea. Cholestyramine is the medical counterpart. I favor intensive medical treatment and consider surgery a last resort in hypercholesterolemic patients who, for one reason or another, are resistant to medical therapy.

Portacaval shunt surgery reportedly produced excellent results in a familial homozygous hypercholesterolemic child who was near death from atherosclerotic complications (97). Not only was cholesterol lowered considerably but xanthomas regressed as did atherosclerotic lesions. Much more information is needed but the results are promising.

SUMMARY - Suggested approach to Hyperlipidemia

- 1. Indications for testing lipids in a patient:
 - A. Family History of: Atherosclerosis before age 55

Diabetes Mellitus

Xanthomas or xanthelasmas

Hyperlipidemia

B. Personal History of: Atherosclerosis before age 55

Xanthomas or xanthelasmas

Diabetes Mellitus or abnormal GTT

Obesity Gout

Hypertension Hypothyroidism

Unexplained abdominal pain

Alcoholism

Turbid or milky plasma.

A routine test of plasma lipids is recommended as part of a general medical exam.

- 2. Conditions for base line testing
 - A. Fasting 12-14 hours
 - B. Stable weight for 2 weeks
 - C. Ordinary diet
 - D. No medications known to affect plasma lipids.

- E. No myocardial infarction within 2-3 months (98)
- 3. Indications for treatment: Treatment should be considered in anyone with a cholesterol level greater than 250 mg% and/or a triglyceride level greater than 150 mg%. In my opinion, secondary hyperlipidemias of chronic duration should also be treated.
- 4. Treatment plan: Estimates of lipoprotein elevation should be made using the scheme in Figure 12.
- A. DIET: The first step in treatment. A balanced diet (20% protein, 40% fat, 40% CHO) with a 300 mg cholesterol content and high P/S ratio (1.5 to 2) is generally successful. Caloric restriction is beneficial, particularly in hypertriglyceridemic states where obesity is more common. Severe hyperchylomicronemia may require further reduction in dietary fat from the above proportions. Cholesterol and FFA content of foods are given in Table 14 and ideal height/weight charts are reproduced in Tables 15-a and 15-b.
- B. Drug therapy is usually withheld for 4 to 6 weeks after starting diet treatment since lipid values may normalize on diet alone, particularly in

CHOLESTEROL CONTENT OF FOODS (mg/100 gm product)

	Whole	Skim	(18 Butterfat)	Fortified Skim	Butternilk	Milk	yolk	white	HAR	Thin	Thick	Cream	Butter	Dairy Products	Light meat	Dark meat	Chicken	Swiss	Roquefort	Parmesan	(part skim)	Mozarella	Limburger	Gouda	Cream Cheese	Creamed	Dry or Rinsed	Cottage Cheese	Cheddar	Blue	American Process	American	C'.reses	T rlow	Rur p Roast		Beef Chuck Boast
	11	less than 1 .	CI		ß		1370	0		40	140		249		OI,	76		16	73	-1	61		92	33	140	15		,	80	157	87	92		56	58	68	51
Veal	Sweetbreads	Liver, Beef	Kidney .	Brains, Calf	· Variety meats	Light ment	Dark meat	Turkey	Shrimp	Scallops	Oysters	Lobster	Cr.ıb ·	Clams	Shellfish	Tenderloin	Ham	Chops	Pork	Mutton	Chops	Lamb	Tuna	Trout	Salmon	Pike	Perch	Mackerel	Herring	Halibut	Haddock	Codfish	Fish	Peanut butter	Oils, vegetable	Margarine (vegetable)	Fats Lard
-	580	320	300	1810		61	96		161	300	600	83	99	490		57	45	50		77	66		51	57	55	.71	63	80	~] Oi	္ယ	79	46		c	C	c	05

COMPOSITION OF VARIOUS FATS AND OILS PER 100 CM PRODUCT

ш.				IV.				•••		•									III.	£	,H												
Peanut butter	B. Lard	A. Butter	Animal fats	Vegetable shortenings	products	of available	Representative	D. Whipped—	products	of available		products	other available	1. Sathower on	b. 5011		of available	A. Diet-Representative	Vegetable margarines	vegetable oil	Partially hydrogenated	II. Soybean	C. Safflower	F. Peanut	E. Olive	D. Cottonseed	C. Corn	B. Coconut	fat in chocolate)	A. Cocoa Butter(the	Vegetable oils		
50	100	80		100	80				80	á		80	•	2	C.	40		ve		100		100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100			(gm)	Total
1 છે.	38	Öt		10	17				17		:	7		11	,	Ó				14		15	os	18	11	l:o	10	SG	56				Salu-
55	.10	27		16	48				48		(£,	2	16				46		00	15	47	76	Io Io	8 19	7	:; -1			(gm) (gm)	Monoun-
15	11	ω		. 99	15				15			၁		, D	1	16				40		ය	.7 13	200	7	50	ħ.	1	lэ			saturated (gm)	Polium-
1.3	0.3	0.1		io	0.9				0.9		:	7 7		4.0		12.0				2.9		£ 0	9.0	1.6	0.6	12.0	Çī,	I	10.04			P-S Ratio	
96	61	37		94	88			*	88		100	201		101	1	108	•			114		132	144	95	18	109	123	о О	37			Iodine Number	
2, 5, 7, 8	 ~	1		ပ]	5,7		•		4, 5, 6, 7		,	A N		(.	•	,4 .5				c1		-	1	Н	ы	۳	۳	ы				Iodine Number Source	

Sources (for Table 8-III)

Home Economics Research Report #7.

Procter and Camble: Crisco Od*, Crisco shortening*, Jif Peanat Butter®, Anderson-Clayton and Company: Chillon® tub margarine.

4. Lever Brothers: Diet Imperial margarine, Solt Spread Imperial margarine, Cood Lucks. stick margarine, Spry in vegetable shortening.

5. Standard Brands: Diet Fleischmann's Buargarine, Soft Blue Bonnet margarine, Soft Fleischmann's margarine, Blue Bonnet stick margarine, Fleischmann's stick margarine,

Whipped Blue Bonnet® margarine, Planter's® peanut latter.

6. Kraft Foods: Soft Parkay® margarine, Parkay® stick margarine.

7. Best Foods Products Company: Mazola® stick margarine, Whipped Nucoa® margarine, Skippy 9 peanut butter. 8. Deiby Foods: Peter Pan® peanut butter.

^{*}Laboratory analysis by Connor.

TABLE 15A

Desirable Weights* Women of Ages 25 and Over

Weight in Pounds According to Frame (in Indoor Clothing)

Heigh

(with shoes on)

2 with heet.

,feet	Inches	Small Frame	Medium Frame	Large Frame
4	10	92 98	96-107	104 119
4	- 11	94-101	98-110	106-122
5	0	96-104	101-113	109-125
5	. 1	99-107	104-116	112-128
5	2	102-110	107-119	115-131
5	3	105-113	110-122	118-134
5	4	108-116	113-126	121-138
5	5	111-119	116-130	125-142
5	6	114-123	120-135	129-146
5	7	118-127	124 139	133-150
5	8	122-131	128-143	137-154
5	9	126-135	132-147	141-158
5	10	130-140	136-151	145-163
5	11 .	134-144	· 140·155	149-168
6	0	138-148	144-159	153-173

For girls between 18 and 25, subtract 1 pound for each year under 25,

Editor's Note. These body weights have been observed to be associated with the lowest mortality rates

Desirable Weights* Men of Ages 25 and Over

Weight in Pounds According to Frame (in Indoor Clothing)

Heigh

(with shoes on)

1-inch heels

Inches	Small Frame	Medium Frame	Large Frame
2	112-120	118-129	126-141
. 3	115-123	121-133	129-144
4	118-126	124-136	132-148
5	121-129	127-139	135-152
6	124-133	130-143	138-156
. 7	128-137	134-147	142-161
8	132-141	138-152	147-166
9	136-145	142-15#	151-170
10	140-150	146-160	155-174
11	144-154	150-165	159-179
0	148-158	154-170	164-184
1	152-162	158-175	168 189
2	156-167	162-180	173-194
3	160-171	167-185	178-199
4	164-175	172-190	182-204
	2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 0 1 2 3	2 112-120 3 115-123 4 118-126 5 121-129 6 124-133 7 128-137 8 132-141 9 136-145 10 140-150 11 144-154 0 148-158 1 152-162 2 156-167 3 160-171	2 112-120 118-129 3 115-123 121-133 4 118-126 124-136 5 121-129 127-139 6 124-133 130-143 7 128-137 134-147 8 132-141 138-152 9 136-145 142-154 10 140-150 146-160 11 144-154 150-165 0 148-158 154-170 1 152-162 158-175 2 156-167 162-180 3 160-171 167-185

 $^{^{\}circ}From$ Metropolitan Life Insurance Company; New Weight Standards for Men and Women. Statistical Bulletin, Vol. 40, 1959, p. 3.

hypertriglyceridemic patients. As a rough guide, cholesterols over 280 mg% and/or triglycerides over 250 mg% during diet treatment indicate that drug therapy is needed.

As a rule, hypercholesterolemia responds to cholestyramine 16 to 24 gm/day. Patients respond to a lesser degree to Atromid-S and an occasional patient responds very well to Atromid-S for reasons unknown.

Hypertriglyceridemia may respond to Atromid-S or Nicotinic acid. Atromid-S, in contrast to Nicotinic acid, is well tolerated and I usually start with it in doses of I gm twice daily.

- 5. General: Encourage weight reduction and cessation of smoking. Mild exercise may be helpful if coronary status permits. Control hypertension. These are all added risk factors.
- 6. Family studies should be performed whenever possible to detect other hyperlipidemic subjects.
- 7. Treatment in children: No control studies available. Generally diet alone is used until adolescence, at which time drugs are added if lipids increase. Familial Homozygous Hypercholesterolemia requires aggressive treatment from early age but fortunately this condition is rare. Though hyperlipidemic females develop atherosclerosis about a decade later than similarly affected males, I favor dietary treatment of affected females in childhood.

NOTE: A number of studies suggest that diet or drug treatment is beneficial with regard to improved morbidity and/or mortality from coronary heart disease. There is no conclusive proof that diet and/or drug treatment is beneficial. The recommendations above are made on the basis of epidemiologic studies of large populations. At present, it is the best information we have to use for guidelines.

Secondary Hyperlipidemia: Evidence is beginning to accumulate that certain forms of secondary hyperlipidemia may actually represent subclinical forms of familial hyperlipidemia that are unmasked by drug treatment or another superimposed illness. We will briefly comment on several secondary hyperlipidemias from this point of view. One hospital's experience regarding causes of hypertrigly-ceridemia are shown in Table 16, (105).

Table 16

-NUMBERS OF PATIENTS WITH HYPERTRIGLYCERIDÆMIA OF

C	use				No.
Familial					62
Diabetes mellitus					43
Alcoholism					. 31
Chronic renal dis	case				20
Hypothyroidism					14
Gout	• •				11
Hypopituitarism					10
Acromegaly					7
Cholestasis					4
Malabsorption					3
Oral contraceptiv	C3	• •			3
Cushing's syndro	me				1
Addison's disease	:	***			1
Gram-negative se	ptica	mia	••		' 1
Total					211

- A. Hypothyroidism: In one series hypercholesterolemia (>300 mg%) was found in 81% of 147 cases of hypothyroidism (99). Only 6% of the cases had cholesterols less than 250 mg%. This high degree of hyperlipidemia suggests that hypothyroidism has profound general affects on lipid matabolism irrespective of the presence or absence of a genetic predisposition to hyperlipidemia.
- B. Diabetes Mellitus: Nikkila has recently summarized the incidence of hyperlipidemia in diabetic patients in the diabetic clinic of Helsinki University Hospital (100). He found that hyperlipidemia varied with the state of diabetes as follows:
- 1) Diabetic ketoacidosis 91% had elevated triglyceride levels. Gross hyperlipidemia was not very common. Hyperlipidemia responded to insulintreatment.
- 2) Insulin-treated juvenile diabetes 20% exceeded the 90th percentile limit of a normal control population. Frequency of hypertriglyceridemia was twice that of controls.
- 3) Adult onset non-insulin treated diabetes 35% had triglyceride levels exceeding the 90th percentile of an age matched basic population. Triglyceride levels correlated poorly with glucose levels but fairly well with the degree of obesity. The association of obesity with hypertriglyceridemia in patients with diabetes mellitus has been stressed by Blerman and Porte (101). Reason for the association remains unknown and there is insufficient evidence to suggest the diabetes (or obesity) is unmasking a primary hyperlipidemia. The association has clinical importance since diabetics with coronary disease have a high prevalence for hypertriglyceridemia (102, 103). Because of this a more aggressive approach to the treatment of hyperlipidemia in adult onset diabetic is probably indicated, particularly with use of hypolipidemic drugs. Triglyceride metabolism in Diabetes Mellitus has recently been reviewed (104).
- C. Alcoholism: Chait and co-workers reported that alcohol did not interfere with uptake of triglyceride by peripheral tissues (105), and this led them to suggest that alcohol promoted lipoprotein secretion by the liver. Hyperlipemic alcoholics might then be those with relative triglyceride clearance defects - those individuals with a genetic predisposition to hypertriglyceridemia, Ginsberg, et.al. (106) studied the influence of ethanol (7½ oz/day) on triglyceride levels in hypertriglyceridemic and normal subjects. They found that fasting triglyceride levels rose only in hypertriglyceridemic subjects and suggested that alcohol be avoided in treating hypertriglyceridemic subjects. Finally Mendelson and Mello (107) studied the influence of up to 32 oz. of alcohol dally on serum lipid levels in 3 groups of alcoholics normals, carbohydrate - Induced hypertriqlyceridemics and familial hypertriglyceridemics. Results are shown in Figure 14. Triglyceride levels rose most sharply in the familial hypertriglyceridemic subjects to high levels. The authors suggest that several important features of alcoholism may be linked to this phenomenon.
- Fatty liver and possibly cirrhosis may develop mostly in alcoholics with a genetic hyperlipidemia.

- 2) Pancreatitis may develop in alcoholics with a genetic hyper-. lipidemia.
- 3) Alcohol may be a coronary risk factor in the hypertriglyceridemic patient.

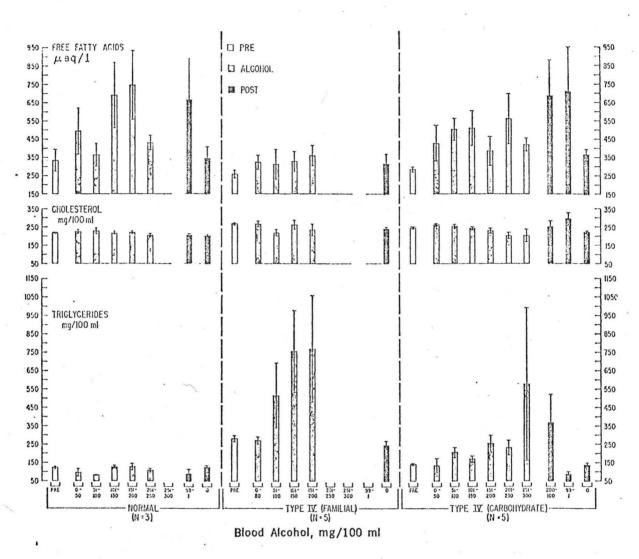


Figure 14

Families of hyperlipidemic alcoholics should be checked for evidence of genetic hyperlipidemia, particularly hypertriglyceridemia, to learn more about this issue.

D. Oral Contraceptives: These agents have a general effect on lipid metabolism which is exaggerated in certain patients with genetic lipid disorders. See reference 108 for review. Modest elevation of triglyceride is observed in large numbers of patients taking oral contraceptives and the degree of increase is dose-related to the estrogen content of the pill (Fig. 15) (109).

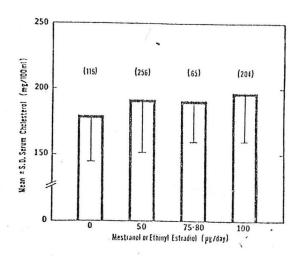


Figure 15

No change in serum triglyceride levels are seen when progesterone derivatives are used alone (IIO). In fact, progesterone derivatives can be effective in lowering plasma triglycerides in hypertriglyceridemic subjects presumably by increasing lipolytic activity (III). The estrogen component of oral contraceptives can produce massive hyperlipidemia, pancreatitis and death in susceptible individuals but this clinical situation may not be common (II2, II3).

In light of this information several suggestions can be made:

- 1) Estrogen containing medications should be given with caution to hyperlipidemic patients this also includes men receiving estrogen treatment for prostatic carcinoma. Optimally estrogen treatment should be avoided in such patients.
- 2) Hyperlipemic women requiring oral contraception should be given a progesterone derivative.
- 3). Consideration should be given to obtaining baseline lipids on women about to receive oral contraceptives along with follow-up values sometime later during their use.
- 4) Consideration must be given to the possibility of increasing atherosclerotic risk in women receiving long-term treatment with oral estrogen - containing contraceptives.

Secondary hyperlipidemias, particularly those associated with chronic conditions, will be receiving increasing clinical attention in the future in view of the atherogenicity associated with these macromolecules. Hyperlipidemia in renal disease including that seen in chronic renal failure (114), following renal transplantation (115) and possibly during maintainance hemodialysis (116) are currently active fields of interest.

REFERENCES

- 1. Felig, P., Marliss, E., et. al. Blood glucose and gluconeogenesis in Fasting Man. Arch. Int. Med. 123: 293-298, 1969.
- 2. Coon, C. S. The Origin of the Races. (Knopf, New York) 1963.
- 3. Patkin, J. K. and Masoro, E. J. Physiologic significance of fatty acid synthesis in metabolism of normal and cold acclimated rats. Federation Proc. 22: 341, 1963.
- 4. Zilversmit, D. B. Chylomicrons. In Structural and Functional Aspects of Lipoproteins in Living Systems. ed. Tria, E. and Scanu, A. M. (Academic Press, New York, 1969) pp. 329-368.
- 5. Margolis, S. Structure of Very Low and Low Density Lipoproteins In Structural and Functional Aspects of Lipoproteins in Living Systems. ed. Tria, E. and Scanu, A. M. (Academic Press, New York, 1969) pp. 369-424.
- 6. Scanu, A. M. and Wisdom C. Serum Lipoproteins Structure and Function. Ann. Rev. Biochem. 41: 703-730, 1972.
- 7. Stone, N. J. and Levy, R. I. Hyperlipoproteinemia and Coronary Heart Disease. Prog. in Cardiovasc. Dis. 14: 341-359, 1972.
- 8. Robinson, D. S. The Function of Plasma Triglycerides in Fatty Acid Transport. In Comprehensive Biochemistry ed. Florkin, M. and Stotz, E. H. (Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1970) Vol. 18, pp. 51-116.
- 9. Lewis, Barry. Metabolism of Plasma Lipoproteins in The Scientific Basis of Medicine Annual Reviews ed. Gilliland, I. and Francis, J. (Athlone Press, London, 1972) pp. 118-144.
- 10. Bilheimer, D. W. and Levy, R. I. Origin and Fate of Lipoproteins. In Human Hyperlipoproteinemias. ed. Fumagalli, R., Ricci, G. and Gorini, S. (Plenum Press, New York, 1973) pp. 39-52.
- 11. Langer, T., Strober, W. and Levy, R. I. The Metabolism of Plasma Lipoproteins In Plasma Protein Metabolism. ed. Rothschild, M. A. and Waldmann, T. (Academic Press, New York, 1970) pp. 483-503.
- 12. Redgrave, T. G. Formation of Cholesterol Ester-Rich Particulate Lipid during Metabolism of Chylomicrons. J. Clin. Invest. 49: 465-471, 1970.
- 13. Bilheimer, D. W., Eisenberg, S. and Levy, R. I. The metabolism of Very Low Density Lipoprotein Proteins. I. Preliminary in vitro and in vivo observations. Biochem. Biophys. Acta 260: 212-221, 19
- 14. Bloom, B., Chaikoff, I. L., Reinhardt, W. O. Intestinal lymph as Pathway for Transport of Absorbed Fatty Acids of Different Chain Lengths. Am. J. Physiol. 166: 451-455, 1951.

- 15. Gitlin, D., Cornwell, D. G. et. al. Studies on the Metabolism of Plasma Proteins in the Nephrotic Syndrome. II. The Lipoproteins. J. Clin. Invest. 37: 172-184, 1958.
- 16. Glomset, J. A. and Norum, K. R. The Metabolic Role of Lecithin: Cholesterol Acyltransferase: Perspectives from Pathology. Adv. Lipid Research 11: 1-65, 1973.
- 17. Fredrickson, D. S., Gotto, A. M., Jr., Levy, R. I. Familial Lipoprotein Deficiency (Abetalipoproteinemia, Hypobetalipoproteinemia and Tangier Disease). In The Metabolic Basis of Inherited Disease ed. Stanbury, J. B., Wyngaarden, J. B. and Fredrickson, D. S. (McGraw-Hill, New York, 1972) pp. 493-530.
- Carlson, L. A. and Lindstedt, S. The Stockholm Prospective Study.
 I. The Initial Values for Plasma Lipids. Acta Med. Scand. suppl. 493, 1968.
- 19. Kannel, W. B., et. al. Serum Lipid Precursors of Coronary Heart Disease. Human Pathology 2: 129-151, 1971.
- 20. Fredrickson, D. S. and Levy, R. I. Familial Hyperlipoproteinemia.
 In. The Metabolic Baiss of Inherited Disease ed. Stanbury, J. B.,
 Wyngaarden, J. B. and Fredrickson, D. S. (McGrad-Hill, New York, 1972 pp. 545-614.
- 21. Goldstein, J. L., et. al. Hyperlipidemia in Coronary Heart Disease.
 I. Lipid Levels in 500 Survivors of Myocardial Infarction.
 J. Clin. Invest. 52: 1533-1543, 1973.
- 22. Kannel, W. B. The Role of Cholesterol in Coronary Atherogenesis Med. Clin. N. Am. 58: 363-379, 1974.
- 23. Carlson, L. A. and Bottiger, L. E. Ischaemic Heart Disease in Relation to Fasting Values of Plasma Triglycerides and Cholesterol Stockholm Prospective Stydy. Lancet. i: 865-868, 1972.
- 24. Levy, R. I., Fredrickson, D. S. et. al. Dietary and Drug Treatment of Primary Hyperlipoproteinemia. Ann. Int. Med. 77: 267-294, 1972.
- 25. Gofman, J. W. et. al. The Role of Lipids and Lipoproteins in Atherosclerosis. Science 111, 166-186, 1950.
- 26. Gofman, J. W. et. al. Blood Lipids and Human Atherosclerosis. Circulation 2: 161-178, 1950.
- 27. Jones, H. B., Gofman, J. W. et. al. Lipoproteins in Atherosclerosis. Am. J. Med. 11: 358-380, 1951.
- 28. Gofman, J. W. et. al. Hyperlipoproteinemia. Am. J. Med. <u>17</u>: 514-520, 1954.
- 29. Evaluation of Serum Lipoprotein and Cholesterol measurements as Predictors of Clinical Complication of Atherosclerosis. Report of a Cooperative Study of Lipoproteins and Atherosclerosis. Circulation 14: 691-742. 1956.

- 30. Lees, R. S. and Hatch, F. T. Sharper Separation of lipoprotein Species by paper electrophoresis in albumin containing buffer. J. Lab. Clin. Med. 61: 518-528, 1963.
- 31. Fredrickson, D. S. and Lees, R. S. A System for Phenotyping Hyperlipoproteinemia. Circulation 31: 321-327, 1965.
- 32. Fredrickson, D. S., Levy, R. I. and Lees, R. S. Fat Transport in Lipoproteins An Integrated Approach to Mechanisms and Disorders. New Eng. J. Med. 276: 32-44, 94-103, 148-156, 215-226, 273-281, 196
- 33. Beaumont, J. L. et. al. Classification of Hyperlipidemias and Hyperlipoproteinemias. Bull. Wld. Hlth. Org. 43: 891-915, 1970.
- 34. The Dietary Management of Hyperlipoproteinemia. A Handbook for Physicians and Dietitians. DHEW Publication No. (NIH) 73-110. (1973)
- 35. Goldstein, J. L., et. al. Hyperlipidemia in Coronary Heart Disease. II. Genetic Analysis of Lipid Levels in 176 Families and Delineatio of a New Inherited Disorder. Combined Hyperlipidemia. J. Clin. Inve 52: 1544-1568, 1973.
- 36. Nikkila, E. A. and Aro, A. Family Study of Serum Lipids and Lipoproteins in Coronary Heart Disease. Lancet i: 954-959, 1973.
- 37. Pries, C., et. al. Primary Hyperlipoproteinemia: The Clinico-Che Classification of the Most Common types. Clin. Chim. Acta. 19: 181-191, 1968.
- 38. Matthews, R. J. Type III and Type IV Familial Hyperlipoproteinemia: Evidence that these two Syndromes are Different Phenotypic Expressions of the same mutant gene(s). Am. J. Med. 44: 188-199, 19
- 39. Borrie, P. and Slack, J. A. Clinical Syndrome characteristic of primary Type IV-V hyperlipoproteinemia. Brit. J. Derm. 90: 245-253, 1974.
- 40. Schonfeld, G. and Kuchzma, D. J. Type IV Hyperlipoproteinemia. A critical Appraisal. Arch. Int. Med. 132: 55-62, 1973.
- 41. Brunzell, J. D., et. al. Evidence for a Common, Saturable, Triglyceride Removal Mechanism for Chylomicrons and Very Low Densit Lipoproteins in Man. J. Clin. Invest. 52: 1578-1585, 1973.
- 42. Brown, D. F. Differential Diagnosis and Classification of the Hyperlipidemic State. In. Treatment of the Hyperlipidemic States. ed. Casdorph, H. R. (C. C. Thomas, Springfield, Ill., 1971) pp. 147-202.
- 43. Havel, R. J. Pathogenesis, Differentiation and Management of Hypertriglyceridemia. Advances in Internal Medicine. Vol. 15, ed. Stollerman, G. H. (Yearbook Pub., Chicago, 1969) pp. 117-154.
- 44. Quarfordt, S., et. al. On the Lipoprotein Abnormality in Type III Hyperlipoproteinemia. J. Clin. Invest. 50: 754-761, 1971.

- 45. Lees, R. S. and Wilson, D. A. The Treatment of Hyperlipidemia New Eng. J. Med. 284: 186-195, 1971.
- 46. Havel, R. J. and Kane, J. P. Drugs and Lipid Metabolism. Ann. Rev. Pharmacol. 13: 287-308, 1973.
- 47. Seidel, D. Hyperlipoproteinemias and Liver Disease. In. Human Hyperlipoproteinemias ed. Fumagalli, R., Ricci, G. and Gorini, S. (Plenum Press, New York, 1973) pp. 143-153.
- 48. Bierman, E. L. and Glomset, J. A. Disorders of Lipid Metabolism In. Textbook of Endocrinology, ed. Williams, R. H. (Saunders, Philadelphia, 1974) pp. 890-937.
- 49. Page, I. H. and Brown, H. B. Editorial: Some Observations on the National Diet Heart Study. Circulation 37: 313-315, 1968.
- 50. Leren, P. The Oslo Diet Heart Study: Eleven year report. Circulation 42: 935-942, 1970.
- 51. Bierenbaum, M. L., Fleischman, A. I. et. al. Ten-year Experience of Modified Fat diets on Younger Men with Coronary Heart Disease. Lancet i: 1404-1407, 1973.
- 52. Hall, Y., Stomler, J., et. al. Effectiveness of a Low Saturated Fat, Low Cholesterol, Weight-Reducing Diet For the Control of Hypertriglyceridemia. Atherosclerosis 16: 389-403, 1972.
- 53. Wilson, W. S., Huller, S. B., et. al. Serum Lipid and Lipoprotein Responses to the American Heart Association Fat-Controlled Diet. Am. J. Med. 51: 491-503, 1971.
- 54. Miettinen, M. Turpeinen, O., et. al. Effect of Cholesterol-lowering Diet on Mortality from Coronary Heart Disease and other causes. (A twelve-year clinical trial in Men and Women). Lancet ii: 835-838, 1972.
- 55. Sturdevant, R. A. L., Pearce, M. L. and Dayton, S. Increased Prevalence of Cholelithiasis in men ingesting a Serum cholesterol-lowering Diet. New Eng. J. Med. 288: 24-27, 1973.
- 56. Pearce, M. L. and Dayton, S. Incidence of Cancer in Men on a Diet high in polyunsaturated Fat. Lancet i: 464-467, 1971.
- 57. Ederer, F., Leren, P. et. al. Cancer Among Men on Cholesterollowering Diets. Lancet ii: 203-206, 1971.
- 58. West, C. E. and Redgrave, T. A. Reservations on the Use of Polyunsaturated Fats in Human Nutrition. Search <u>5</u>: 90-94, 1974 (Australia Publication available in Medical School Library).
- 59. Olefsky, J., Reaven, G. M. and Farquhar, J. W. Effects of weight Reduction on Obesity: studies of lipid and carbohydrate metabolism in normal and hyperlipoproteinemic subjects. J. Clin. Invest. 53: 64-76, 1974.

- 60. Armstrong, M. L. and Meagan, M. D. Lipid Depletion in atheromatons-Coronary Arteries in Rhesus Monkeys after Regression Diets. Circ. Res. 30: 675-680, 1972.
- 61. Ashley, F. W., Jr. and Kannel, W. B. Relation of weight change to changes in Atherogenic Traits: The Framingham Study. J. Chron. Dis. 27: 103-114, 1974.
- Wilson, D. E. and Lees, R. S. Metabolic Relationships among the Plasma Lipoproteins: Reciprocal changes in the Concentrations of Very Low and Low Density Lipoproteins in Man. J. Clin. Invest. 51: 1051-1057, 1972.
 - 63. Feeley, R. M. Criner, P. E. and Watt, B. K. Cholesterol content of foods. J. Am. Diet. Assoc. 61: 134-148, 1972.
 - 64. Schizas, A. A., Cremen, J. A., et. al. Medium Chain Triglycerides Use in Food Preparation J. Am. Diet. Assoc. 51: 228-232, 1967.
 - 65. Brown, H. B. Food Patterns that Lower Blood Lipids in Man. J. Am. Diet. Assoc. 58: 303-311, 1971.
 - 66. Connor, W. E. and Connor, S. J. Dietary Factors in the treatment of Hyperlipidemic Disorders. In. Treatment of Hyperlipidemic States ed. Casdorph, H. R. (C. C. Thomas, Springfield, Ill., 1971) pp. 205-239.
 - 67. Carlson, L. A., Froberg, S. and Oro, L. A Case of Massive Hypertriglycericemia Corrected by Nicotinic Add or Nicotinamide Therapy. Atherosclerosis 16: 359-368, 1972.
 - 68. Carlson, L. A. and Oro, L. Effect of Treatment with Nicotinic Acid for one month on a serum lipids in patients with different types of hyperlipidemia. Atherosclerosis 18: 1-9, 1973.
 - 69. Parsons, W. B., Jr. Use of Nicotinic Acid Compounds in Treatment of Hyperlipidemia. In. Treatment of Hyperlipidemic States ed. Casdorph, H. R. (C. C. Thomas, Springfield, Ill. 1971) pp. 335-375.
 - 70. Gey, K. F. and Carlson, L. A. editors. Metabolic Effects of Nicotini Acid and its Derivatives. Hans Huber Publishers (Bern, 1971).
 - 71. Casdorph, H. R. Cholestyramine. In. Treatment of Hyperlipidemic Stated. Casdorph, H. R. (C. C. Thomas, Springfield, Ill. 1971) pp. 243-267.
 - 72. Levy, R. I., Fredrickson, D. S., et. al. Cholestyramine in Type II Hyperlipoproteinemia. A Double-blind Trial. Am. Int. Med. 79: 51-58, 1973.
 - 73. Nazir, D. J., Horleck, L., et. al. Mechanisms of Action of Cholestyramine in Treatment of Hypercholesterolemia. Circulation 95-102, 1972.
 - 74. Northcutt, R. C., Stiel, J. N., et. al. The Influence of Cholestyramine on Thyroxin Absorption. JAMA 208: 1857-1861, 1969.

- 75. Krikler, D. M., Lefevre, D. and Lewis, B. Dextrothyroxine with propanolol in treatment of hypercholesterolemia. Lancet <u>i</u>: 934-936, 1971.
- 76. Owen, W. R. Dextrothyroxine. In. Treatment of Hyperlipidemic States. ed. Casdorph, H. R. (C. C. Thomas, Springfield, Ill. 1971) pp. 297-309.
- 77. The Coronary Drug Project: Findings Leading to Further Modifications of Its Protocol with respect ot Dextrothyroxine. JAMA 220: 996-1008, 1972.
- 78. Grundy, S. M. Ahrens, E. H., Jr., et. al. Mechanisms of Action of Clofibrate on cholesterol metabolism in patients with hyperlipidemia. J. Lipid Res. 13: 531-551, 1972.
- 79. Hunninghake, D. B., et. al. Long-term Effects of Clofibrate on Serum Lipids in Man. Circulation 39: 675-683, 1969.
- 80. Berkowitz, D. Long-term Treatment of Hyperlipidemic Patients with Clofibrate. JAMA 218: 1002-1005, 1971.
- 81. Furman, R. H. Clofibrate. In. Treatment of Hyperlipidemic States ed. Casdorph, H. R. (C. C. Thomas, Springfield, Ill. 1971) pp. 268-296.
- 82. Krasno, L. R. and Kidera, G. J. Clofibrate in Coronary Heart Disease Effect on Morbidity and Mortality. JAMA 219: 845-851, 1972.
- 83. Trial of Clofibrate in the Treatment of Ischemic Heart Disease: Five year Study by a group of Physicians of the Newcastle upon Tyne Region. Brit. Med. J. 4: 767-775, 1971.
- 84. Ischemic Heart Disease: A Secondary Prevention Trial Using Clofibrat Report by a Research Committee of the Scottish Society of Physicians Brit. Med. J. 4: 775-784, 1971.
- 85. Feinstein, A. R. Clinical Biostatistics. XVIII. The Clofibrate trial Another Dispute about contratrophic therapy. Clin. Pharm. and Therapeut. 13: 953-968, 1972.
- 86. Gillam, P. M. S. Editorial: The value of clofibrate in coronary heart disease. Am. Heart J. 87: 1-4, 1974.
- 87. Friedewald, W. T. and Halperin, M. Editorial: Clofibrate in Ischemic Heart Disease. Ann. Int. Med. 76: 821-823, 1972.
- 88. Moses, A. M., et. al. Clofibrate Induced Antidiuresis. J. Clin. Invest. 52: 535-542, 1973.
- 89. Bridgman, J. F., et. al. Complications During Clofibrate Treatment of Nephrotic-Syndrome Hyperlipoproteinemia. Lancet <u>ii</u>: 506-509, 1972
- 90. Howard, A. N. and Hyoms, D. E. Combined Use of Clofibrate and Cholestyramine or DEAE Sephadex in Hypercholesterolemia. Brit. Med. J. 3: 25-27, 1971.

- 91. Goodman, D. S., et. al. The Effects of Colestipol Resin and of Colestipol plus clofibrate on the turnover of plasma cholesterol in man. J. Clin. Invest. 52: 2646-2655, 1973.
- 92. Montafis, C. D., et. al. Cholestyramine and Nicotinic Acid in the Treatment of Familial Hyperbetalipoproteinemia in the Homozygous form. Atherosclerosis 14: 247-258, 1971.
- 93. Olsson, A. G., et. al. Clinical and Metabolic Effects of Pentaery-thritol Texranicotinate in Combination with cholesolvin or clofibrat Atherosclerosis 19: 407-415, 1974.
- 94. Howard, A. N. and Courtenay Evans, R. J. Secholex, Clofibrate and Taurine in Hyperlipidemia. Atherosclerosis 20: 105-116, 1974.
- 95. Levy, R. I., et. al. Drug Therapy. Treatment of Hyperlipidemia. New Eng. J. Med. 290: 1295-1301, 1974.
- 96. Buchwald, H., et. al. Surgical Treatment of Hyperlipidemia. Circulation 49: Supplement I, 1974.
- 97. Starzl, T. E., et. al. Portacaval Shunt in Hyperlipoproteinemia. Lancet ii: 940-944, 1973.
- 98. Fredrickson, D. S. Circulation 39 & 40: Suppl. IV, p. IV-99 to IV-111, 1969.
- 99. Wayne, E. J. Brit. Med. J. i: 1-11 and 78-90, 1960.
- 100. Nikkila, E. A. Proc. Roy. Soc. Med. 67: 662-665, 1974.
- 101. Bierman, E. L. and Porte, D. Ann. Int. Med. 68: 926, 1968.
- 102. Albrink, M. J., et. al. Ann. Int. Med. 58: 305-323, 1963.
- 103. Reinheimer, W., et. al. Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 20: 986-996, 1967.
- 104. Nikkila, E. A. Progr. Biochem. Pharmacol. 8: 271-299, 1973.
- 105. Chait, A., et. al. Lancet ii: 62-64, 1972.
- 106. Ginsberg, H., et. al. Ann. Int. Med. 80: 143-149, 1974.
- 107. Mendelson, J. H. and Mello, N. K. Science 180: 1372-1374, 1973.
- 108. Beck, P. Metabolism 22: 841-855, 1973.
- 109. Stokes, T. and Wynn, V. Lancet ii: 677, 1971.
- 110. Beck, P. J. Clin. Endocr. 30: 785, 1970.
- 111. Glueck, C. J., et. al. Ann. Int. Med. 75: 345-352, 1971.

- 112. Glueck, C. J., et. al. Metabolism 21: 657-666, 1972.
- 113. Molitch, M. E., et. al. JAMA 227: 522-525, 1974.
- 114. Bagdale, J. D., et. al. New Eng. J. Med. 279: 181-185, 1968.
- 115. Casaretto, A. A., et. al. Trans. Amer. Soc. Artif. Int. Organs. 19: 154-156, 1973.
- 116. Linder, A., et. al. New Eng. J. Med. 290: 697-701, 1974.