

Exhaustive Genotyping of the Interleukin-1 Family Genes and Associations with AIDS Progression in a French Cohort

Hervé Do,^{1,2} Alexandre Vasilescu,^{1,2} Wassila Carpentier,³ Laurence Meyer,^{4,5} Gora Diop,^{1,2} Thomas Hirtzig,^{1,2} Cédric Coulonges,^{2,6} Taoufik Labib,^{2,6} Jean-Louis Spadoni,⁶ Amu Therwath,² Mark Lathrop,¹ Fumihiko Matsuda,¹ and Jean-François Zagury^{2,6}

¹Centre National de Génotypage, Evry, ²Équipe Génomique, Bioinformatique et Pathologies du Système Immunitaire, INSERM U736, ³INSERM U543, CHU Pitié-Salpêtrière, ⁴INSERM U569, Université Paris XI, Faculté de Médecine Paris-Sud, ⁵AP-HP, Hôpital Bicêtre, Service de Santé Publique, Le Kremlin-Bicêtre, and ⁶Chaire de Bioinformatique, Conservatoire National des Arts et Métiers, Paris, France

(See the editorial commentary by Orr et al., on pages 1475–7.)

Interleukin (IL)–1 family members are key players in inflammatory processes but have been the subject of few studies of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). To better evaluate the impact of the IL-1 family on AIDS development, we genotyped the *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes in 245 slow progressor (SP) and 82 rapid progressor (RP) human immunodeficiency virus type 1–seropositive patients as well as in 446 control subjects, all of whom were of white ethnicity. One hundred sixteen frequent polymorphisms were identified, of which 23 were newly characterized by our study. Many putative associations were found between single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) or haplotype alleles and the extreme profiles of progression. Most of them corresponded to weak associations ($.01 < P < .05$); however, the SNP *IL1Ra*_2134 exhibited a consistent association, found at the level of the SNP, haplotypes, and haploblocks, when the SP and control populations were compared ($P = .0002$). The IL-1–dependent inflammatory response is, thus, likely to play a role in AIDS progression via the regulation of *IL-1Ra* expression. This association will need to be confirmed in other AIDS cohorts, and experiments will also have to be performed to unravel the biological mechanisms at work. The data presented here will be useful for future genomic studies of the IL-1 family members in other infectious and chronic inflammatory diseases.

Interleukin (IL)–1 is a key player in inflammatory responses and can induce various effects that range from fever induction to the increase of the lymphocyte response [1–3]. The term “IL-1” usually designates a group of 3 molecules; 2 of them, *IL-1 α* and *IL-1 β* , are biologically active, and the third member, *IL-1Ra*, is a receptor antagonist whose function is to moderate the effects of *IL-1 α* and *IL-1 β* [4, 5].

The role played by cytokines in the development of HIV-1 infection has been extensively investigated [6, 7], but relatively few studies have dealt with the members of the IL-1 family. This is surprising, in light of the importance of IL-1 in inflammation and in the response to infectious diseases, but it is understandable, given that AIDS is mainly known as a disease of adaptive immunity [8]. The balance between *IL-1 α / β* and *IL-1Ra* has been reported to modulate HIV-1 expression in monocytes [9, 10]—*IL-1Ra* has been shown to reduce HIV-1 levels in monocytes, whereas *IL-1 α / β* have been shown to induce HIV-1 expression [11, 12]. Similarly, antiretroviral therapy (ART) caused a reduction of *IL-1 α / β* levels and an increase of *IL-1Ra* levels in lipopolysaccharide-stimulated HIV-1–infected monocytes [13]. Other studies have pointed out interactions such as an activation of *IL-1 β* production in neuroblastoma cells in vitro by the gp120 protein of HIV-1

Received 13 October 2005; accepted 24 May 2006; electronically published 26 October 2006.

Potential conflicts of interest: none reported.

Financial support: AIDS-Cancer Vaccine Development Foundation and Neovacs (support to this work). The Centre National de Génotypage is supported by the Ministère de la Recherche et des Nouvelles Technologies.

Reprints or correspondence: Dr. Jean-François Zagury, Conservatoire National des Arts et Métiers, Chaire de Bioinformatique, 292 rue Saint-Martin, 75003 Paris (zagury@cnam.fr).

The Journal of Infectious Diseases 2006;194:1492–1504

© 2006 by the Infectious Diseases Society of America. All rights reserved.
0022-1899/2006/19411-0005\$15.00

envelope [14] and an inhibition of IL-1 α expression in vitro by the viral protein Tat [15]. Furthermore, it has been showed that caspase-mediated IL-1 β processing can play a major role in CD4⁺ T cell survival and HIV-1 proliferation [16].

Only few genetic association studies regarding the impact of IL-1 family members on AIDS have been conducted to date—the first study showed that a tandem-repeat polymorphism in the *IL1Ra* gene was associated with reduced HIV-1 levels [17], another study linked single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in *IL1 α* with the control of HIV viremia in patients receiving highly active ART (HAART) [18], and a third study investigating a few polymorphisms in *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* found no association with AIDS progression [19].

Our group previously completed the exhaustive genotyping of Th1/Th2 cytokines and their receptor genes [20, 21] and looked for associations with AIDS progression in the Genetics of Resistance to Immunodeficiency Virus (GRIV) cohort. As a continuation of this previous work and to clarify the role played by IL-1 family members in AIDS, we present here the extensive genotyping of the *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes and their associations with AIDS progression in the GRIV cohort, which is composed of 2 subpopulations of HIV-1–seropositive white individuals with extreme progression phenotypes and living in France: slow-progressor (SP) patients and rapid-progressor (RP) patients. We also genotyped healthy control subjects of similar ethnic origin. The GRIV patients correspond to the extreme 1% subset of a cohort of 30,000 seroconverter patients [22] and is, as far as we know, the largest cohort of its kind in the world. Its quality has already been confirmed for several gene polymorphisms, such as CCR5 [23–25] and HLA [26, 27].

The *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes are located in the 2q12–2q14 region of chromosome 2. *IL1 α* and *IL1 β* are spaced by 40 kb, *IL1Ra* is 280 kb telomeric from *IL1 β* , and *IL1R1* is 11 Mb centromeric from *IL1 α* (figure 1A). *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , and *IL1Ra* likely derive from the same ancestral gene [2, 3]. In the present study, SNPs and other genetic variations of the IL-1 family members were identified through sequencing. The data gathered were used to compute the genetic structure of the IL-1 family locus (linkage disequilibrium and haploblocks) and to evaluate associations with AIDS susceptibility and development.

SUBJECTS, MATERIALS, AND METHODS

The GRIV cohort. The GRIV cohort was established in 1995 in France to generate a large collection of DNA for genetic studies of candidate polymorphisms associated with rapid and slow progression to AIDS. Only white individuals of European descent living in France were recruited. These criteria limit the influence of the virogenetic and environmental factors (all subjects are infected by B strains and live in a similar environment) and puts emphasis on the genetic makeup of each individual to determine the various patterns of progression. SP patients

were defined as individuals who had been seropositive but asymptomatic for 8 or more years with a CD4⁺ cell count >500 cells/mm³ in the absence of ART. RP patients were defined as those who had a decrease in their CD4⁺ cell count to <300 cells/mm³ in <3 years after the last seronegative test. DNA was obtained from fresh peripheral-blood mononuclear cells or from Epstein-Barr virus–transformed cell lines. The control subjects were seronegative white individuals of European descent living in France. In the present study, we genotyped up to 245 SP patients, 82 RP patients, and 446 control subjects.

Genotyping. The primers and conditions used for polymerase chain reaction amplification of the different fragments are shown in table 2. Sequencing reactions were performed by the Dye Terminator method, using an ABI PRISM 3700 DNA analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Alignment, SNP discovery, and genotyping were done with the software Genalys (version 3.3.24a), developed by the Centre National de Génotypage [34].

For practical reasons, an initial screening was performed on 150 SP patients, 50 RP patients, and 150 control subjects for polymorphism discovery. The screening was then extended to include more subjects when a positive ($P \leq .05$) or borderline ($P < .1$) association was detected.

Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE). HWE analysis was performed for each SNP in each group according to the standard method: the experimental genotypic distribution was compared with the theoretical distribution estimated on the basis of the SNP allelic frequencies, and a P value could thus be derived. It is important to assess the deviations from HWE ($P < .05$), because it suggests an effect of the SNP if a deviation is observed in a case group, and it suggests a mistake in the genotyping otherwise [35, 36].

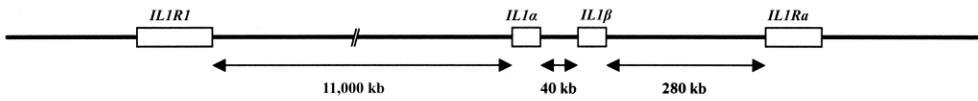
Haplotypes. Haplotype estimates were obtained using the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm [37] and the phase 2 algorithm [38, 39] either for all polymorphisms or for selected ones.

Linkage disequilibrium and haploblocks. Linkage disequilibrium was computed for each pair of polymorphisms by the standard r^2 method [40] or the standard D' method [41]. A haploblock is a genetic region for which no evidence of a historical recombination event can be found—in other words, the SNPs located in that region exhibit a significant level of linkage disequilibrium (D' close to 1). The haploblocks in the genes were computed using the method developed by Gabriel et al. [42], which is used by the software Haploview (version 3.2; available at: <http://www.broad.mit.edu/mpg/haploview/>) [43]. The haplotype tagging (HT) polymorphisms are the polymorphisms that are sufficient to describe the genetic variation inside a haploblock. These HT polymorphisms were also computed using Haploview and served as a basis for the estimation of subhaplotypes in the computed haploblocks.

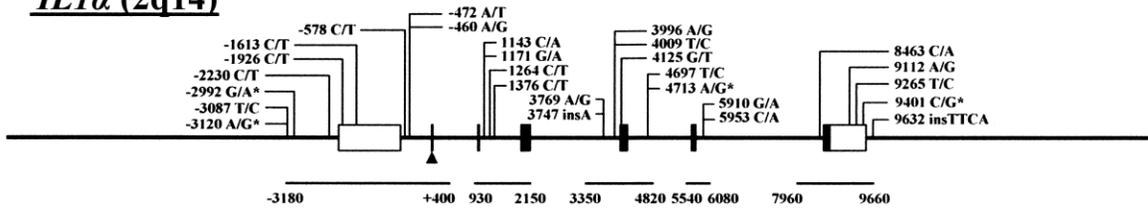
Statistical analyses. Statistical analyses were performed only

A Chromosomal map (2q12-2q14)

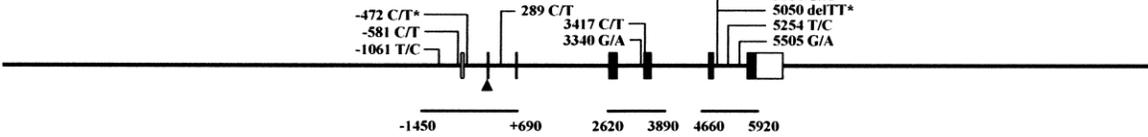
← Centromer



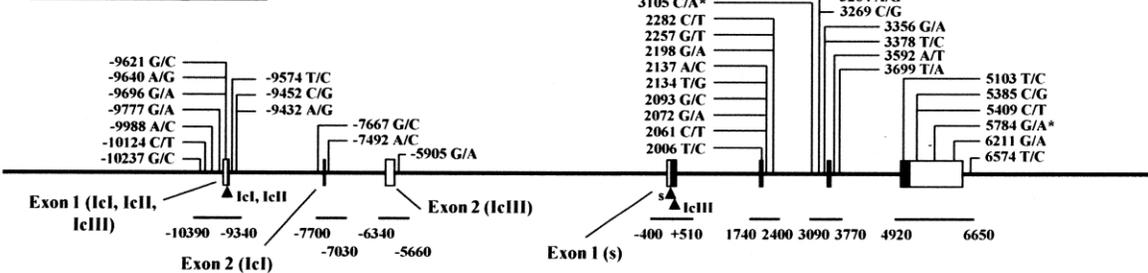
B *IL1α* (2q14)



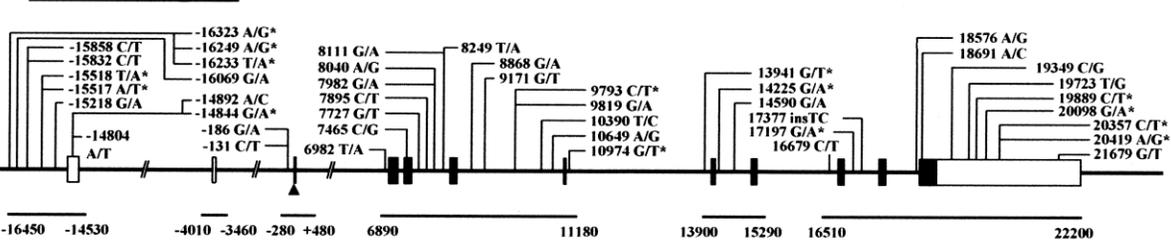
IL1β (2q14)



IL1Ra (2q14.2)



IL1R1 (2q12)



Scale: 0 1 2 kb

Figure 1. Genetic mapping. A, Positions of the *IL1α*, *IL1β*, *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes on the 2q12–2q14 locus. B, Map of the *IL1α*, *IL1β*, *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes. Coding and untranslated regions are respectively indicated by black and white rectangles. The regions that have been sequenced are indicated by a horizontal line, with start and end positions enumerated in reference to the first nucleotide of the initiation codon as +1. The initiation codon is indicated by a black triangle, and a name is provided for each isoform of interleukin (IL)–1Ra (soluble [s] and intracellular [l] isoforms). The polymorphism nos. are their positions relative to the initiation codon as +1 (correspondence with the dbSNP database is given in table 1). The newly characterized polymorphisms are indicated by an asterisk. The genomic sequence used for alignment of the 4 genes is NT_022135.14.

Table 1. *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* polymorphisms.

Gene	Position	A1	A2	Allelic frequency (A1), %			Localization ^a	Nominal <i>P</i> values and ORs from statistical tests ^b										References to previous studies of the variant and new IDs			
				CTR	RP	SP		SP vs. CTR			RP vs. CTR				SP vs. RP vs. CTR						
								AF	OR	D/R	OR	G	AF	OR	D/R	OR	G		AF		
<i>IL1α</i>	-472	A	T	30.97	28.70	24.48	Intron 1	.083	1.384	.064 (D)	1.550	.169	.716						.208	rs3783525	
<i>IL1Ra</i>	2134	T	G	81.75	74.62	71.17	Intron 2	.002	1.814	.0002 (R)	2.389	.001	.114		.088 (R)	0.587			.008	rs2232354	
	3105	C	A	77.27	82.81	80.34	Intron 2	.517		.064 (D)	0.155		.380					.595	ss52090882 (new)		
	5103	T	C	76.00	67.97	71.22	Exon 4 (Ser130Ser ^c)	.094	1.279	.071 (R)	1.399		.063	0.670	.080 (R)	0.606			.059	rs315952 [28]	
	5385	C	G	76.21	68.75	71.60	3'-UTR	.104					.079	0.687					.081	rs315951	
	5409	C	T	96.32	92.19	95.43	3'-UTR	.505					.054	0.451	.085 (R)	0.485			.095	rs4252041	
	5784	G	A	96.38	98.08	99.29	3'-UTR	.022	0.192	.021 (R)	0.186	.016	.530						.055	ss52090883 (new)	
<i>IL1R1</i>	-16233	T	A	81.49	83.02	82.31	Promoter	.833					.772					.077	.930	ss52090886 (new)	
	-16069	G	A	63.31	65.09	67.69	Promoter	.266		.049 (R)	0.629	.053	.815						.528	rs956730	
	-15858	C	T	63.31	65.09	67.69	Promoter	.266		.049 (R)	0.629	.053	.815						.528	rs2234650 [29]	
	-186	C	T	80.79	84.26	81.69	Intron 1	.833					.471					.023	.727	rs2287048	
	-131	G	A	63.64	66.67	70.50	Intron 1	.080	0.732	.010 (R)	0.531	.010	.641						.057	.211	rs2287047
	9171	G	T	68.21	72.55	71.58	Intron 6	.421					.457					.022	.576	rs2160227	
	10974	G	T	68.40	72.64	72.60	Intron 7	.276					.460					.024	.488	ss52090890 (new)	
	13941	G	T	68.09	72.12	72.54	Intron 7	.242					.464					.029	.462	ss52090891 (new)	
	19349	C	G	75.17	75.47	74.82	3'-UTR	.923		.039 (D)	3.378	.029	1.000						.990	rs3917324	

NOTE. Indicated for each polymorphism are the allelic frequencies in the different populations (control [CTR], rapid progression [RP], and slow progression [SP]), the localization and the amino acid change (when applicable), the *P* values from Fisher's exact tests (and odd ratios [OR] when applicable), and the relevant information known to date. A1 represents the nucleotide that is identical to the reference sequence, which is NT_022135.14 for the 4 genes. The amino acid positions are taken from the references sequences NP_000566.3 (interleukin [IL]-1 α), NP_000567.1 (IL-1 β), NP_000868.1 (IL-1R1), NP_776214.1 (soluble [s]IL-1Ra), NP_776213.1 (IL-1RaIcI), NP_000568.1 (IL-1RaIcII), and NP_776215.1 (IL-1RaIcIII). The polymorphism nos. correspond to their position relative to the initiation codon as +1, and the corresponding dbSNP numbers are also given in the far right column. The calculation modes for the Fisher's exact tests are indicated (AF, allelic frequency; D/R, dominant/recessive; G, genotypic distribution). Positive ($P \leq .05$) and borderline ($P < .1$) correlations are shown in boldface. For the dominant/recessive mode, the mode corresponding to the allele A1 is indicated in parenthesis. The *P* values for the dominant/recessive and genotypic distribution calculation modes are shown only if $< .1$. UTR, untranslated region.

^a Exon and introns are indicated for sIL1Ra, unless otherwise specified.

^b Bonferroni corrections were not performed on *P* values.

^c The amino acid change corresponds to all 4 isoforms, but the position corresponds only to the soluble isoform (sIL1Ra). The positions for the other isoforms are 133 (IcI), 112 (IcII), and 96 (IcIII).

Table 2. Primers used to amplify the exons of *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* by polymerase chain reaction (PCR).

The table is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

on the polymorphisms (and haplotypes) with a minor allele frequency >1% in our entire population, termed “frequent polymorphisms.” The differences in the allelic distributions (SNPs or haplotypes) between the 3 populations were examined as follows: for each allele (with a frequency >1% in the entire population), the expected numbers of individuals in each population with and without that allele were compared by a Fisher’s exact test. Four modes of calculation were used for the genetic analysis: allelic frequency, dominant mode, recessive mode, and genotypic distribution. For SNPs, there are only 2 alleles, and the *P* value for the dominant mode on one allele is identical to the *P* value for the recessive mode on the other allele. As a consequence, table 1, which concerns individual polymorphisms, combines the dominant and recessive modes. Bonferroni corrections were not performed because, in such candidate-gene association studies, confirmation in other cohorts is more relevant [22].

RESULTS

SNP discovery. We systematically screened the *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes for polymorphisms by sequencing the exons with their flanking regions as well as the promoter region. We identified 116 frequent polymorphisms (minor allele frequency >1% in our entire population) in these genes, most of them being SNPs (figure 1B). Of these 116 polymorphisms, 27 were in the *IL1 α* gene, 10 were in the *IL1 β* gene, 35 were in the *IL1Ra* gene, and 44 were in the *IL1R1* gene (figure 1B); 22 of these 116 polymorphisms were newly characterized in our study. On average, we found 1 polymorphism with a frequency

>1% in every 294 bp (table 3), which is consistent with the findings of previous studies [44, 45]. The allelic frequencies obtained in our study were compared with the data from the National Center for Biotechnology Information’s dbSNP database (available at: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/SNP/>) when the allelic frequencies were available for the European population. Our results are consistent with dbSNP allelic frequencies except for the SNPs *IL1 α _3769*, *IL1 β _289*, and *IL1R1_-16069*, whose allelic frequencies exhibit differences >10%, compared with those in dbSNP.

IL-1 family gene structure. The 4 genes *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* are neighbors in the same chromosomal region (figure 1A). *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , and *IL1Ra* are very close to each other (<300 kb) and, thus, were investigated for linkage disequilibrium between their polymorphisms by use of the software Haploview [43]. As shown in figure 2A, *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , and *IL1Ra* present strong intragenic linkage disequilibrium (>95%), but there is no intergenic linkage disequilibrium between them even though these genes lie relatively close to each other on the chromosome. Figure 2B–2E presents the haploblocks for each gene, which correspond to groups of polymorphisms that have never undergone any recombination; we found 1 haploblock for the gene *IL1 α* , 2 for *IL1 β* , 3 for *IL1Ra*, and 3 for *IL1R1*. As shown in table 4, all the SNPs fitted with Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in the SP, RP, and control populations.

Associations with AIDS progression: SNPs. The GRIV case-control study is based on the comparison of the allelic distributions of the polymorphisms between the patient populations (SP and RP patients) and the control subjects. Table 1 presents the allelic frequencies in each population, their locations, and *P* values (the abridged version of the table that appears in the print edition of the *Journal* includes only polymorphisms with positive [*P*<.05] or borderline [*P*<.1] associations; the complete results for all polymorphisms with a frequency >1% are given in the version of the table included in the electronic edition of the *Journal*).

Table 3. Frequency of polymorphisms identified in genes of the interleukin (IL)–1 family.

Parameter	Gene				Total
	<i>IL1α</i>	<i>IL1β</i>	<i>IL1Ra</i>	<i>IL1R1</i>	
Frequent polymorphisms	27	10	35	44	116
Newly identified	4	2	2	14	22
Located in exons	6	1	8	12	27
Synonymous	0	1	2	1	4
Nonsynonymous	1	0	0	1	2
UTR	5	0	6	10	21
bp sequenced	8510	4670	6380	14,600	34,160
Frequency, polymorphism/bp sequenced	1/315	1/467	1/182	1/332	1/294

NOTE. Data are no. of polymorphisms, unless otherwise specified. UTR, untranslated region.

Table 4. Genotypic frequencies and Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) *P* values for all identified polymorphisms in the *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes.

The table is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

In the *IL1 α* gene, no polymorphism exhibited any positive association, but the SNP IL1 α _-472 exhibited a borderline association (table 1). In the *IL1 β* gene, no polymorphism exhibited any positive or borderline association. In the *IL1Ra* gene, 2 SNPs exhibited positive associations (table 1). The lowest *P* value was obtained for the intronic SNP IL1Ra_2134 (*P* = .0002 in the dominant/recessive mode) for the comparison between the SP population and the control population (table 1). In the *IL1R1* gene, 8 polymorphisms exhibited positive associations (table 1). Two were located in the promoter region, 5 were located in introns, and one was located in the 3' untranslated region. The promoter SNPs did not correspond to known transcription factor binding sites. The lowest *P* value was obtained for IL1R1_-131, located in intron 1 (*P* = .010 in the dominant/recessive and genotypic distribution modes) for the comparison between the SP population and the control population.

Of note, of the 10 polymorphisms exhibiting positive associations, only IL1Ra_2134 remained significant for the simultaneous comparison of the 3 populations by the χ^2 test (table 1). This confirms that comparing the populations 2 \times 2 is more sensitive [21].

Associations with AIDS progression: haplotypes. For each gene, the haplotypes were estimated using the phase 2 and EM algorithms for the polymorphisms with a minor allelic frequency >5% and for the promoter polymorphisms as well. The haplotypes based on the nonsynonymous SNPs (protein variants) were not estimated, because each gene contained no more than 1 nonsynonymous SNP. Table 5 presents the haplotype data; the estimated haplotypes exhibiting a positive (*P* \leq .05) or borderline (*P* < .1) association for comparisons between the populations are shown in the abridged version of the table given in the print edition of the *Journal*, and the detailed composition of all haplotypes is shown in the complete version of the table given in the electronic edition of the *Journal*.

For the *IL1 α* gene, we identified positive associations for the haplotype IL1 α _over5%_3 (*P* = .013 in the dominant mode) for the comparison between the SP population and the control population. For the *IL1 β* gene, we identified positive associations for IL1 β _over5%_0 (*P* = .026 in the recessive mode) and IL1 β _over5%_1 (*P* = .048 in the dominant mode) for the comparison between the SP population and the control population. For the *IL1Ra* gene, we identified positive associations for 3 haplotypes. The lowest *P* value was found for

IL1Ra_over5%_0 (*P* = .0002 in the dominant mode) for the comparison between the SP population and the control population. The association for this haplotype can be entirely explained by the SNP IL1Ra_2134. No positive association was identified for the haplotypes of *IL1R1*, and no positive association was identified for the haplotypes based on the polymorphisms located in the promoter regions of the genes (data not shown).

We have presented here the results based on SNPs with a minor allelic frequency >5%, to clarify the presentation. We have also performed the haplotype analysis with all the polymorphisms found in each gene, and the results that we obtained were identical (data not shown).

Haploblocks. Haploblocks are presented in figure 2. HT SNPs were computed for the haploblocks IL1 α _Block1, IL1 β _Block2, IL1Ra_Block1, IL1R1_Block1, and IL1R1_Block3. The other haploblocks were only composed of 2 polymorphisms in linkage disequilibrium and, thus, did not present any interest for this calculation. We computed the haplotypes (which we have termed "HT haplotypes") derived from these HT SNPs and tested them for associations with AIDS progression (table 6). No positive association was found for the HT haplotypes of *IL1 α* or *IL1R1*, but some of them presented borderline associations (table 6). For *IL1 β* , the HT haplotypes H0 and H2 of the main haploblock presented positive associations for the comparison between the SP populations and the control population table 6: these HT haplotypes were subhaplotypes of the larger haplotypes that were derived from all the SNPs and that exhibited a positive association (table 5). The second haploblock of *IL1 β* is minor, because it contains only the 2 polymorphisms IL1 β _-1061 and IL1 β _-581, which were in linkage disequilibrium. For *IL1Ra*, the HT haplotype IL1Ra_H0 presented a positive association (*P* = .0001 in the allelic frequency mode and *P* = .00002 in the dominant mode) for the comparison between the SP population and the control population (table 6). A positive association was also obtained when the 3 populations were compared for this haplotype (*P* = .0005). IL1Ra_H0 was the only subhaplotype that presented the allele G for the SNP IL1Ra_2134. Furthermore, IL1Ra_H0 is a subhaplotype of IL1Ra_over5%_0, which also exhibited a positive association (table 5) and is linked to the SNP IL1Ra_2134. Thus, the association with AIDS progression for the HT haplotype IL1Ra_H0 is likely due to the effect of the SNP IL1Ra_2134. The HT haplotype IL1Ra_H1 also presented a positive association (*P* = .025) in the recessive mode

The figure is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

Figure 2. Haploblock analysis. The figure and legend are available in their entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

Table 5. (Continued.)

Polymorphism	Haplotype			
	C	C	T	T
3417	C	C	T	T
5014	G	G	A	A
5050	--	--	TT	TT
5254	C	C	C	C
5505	A	G	G	G
Global allelic frequency, %	45.33	18.34	16.23	2.12
Allelic frequency, %				
CTR	41.86	21.32	16.67	1.16
RP	40.48	21.43	19.05	1.19
SP	50.95	14.29	14.76	3.81
	Nominal <i>P</i> value			
SP vs. CTR				
AF	.051	.054	.612	.071
D		.048		.068
R	.026			
RP vs. CTR				
AF	.899	1.000	.620	1.000
R			.067	
SP vs. RP vs. CTR, AF	.094	.118	.652	.119
	IL1Ra_over5%			
	0	4	9	
-10237	G	G	C	
-10124	C	C	T	
-9988	A	A	C	
-9777	G	G	A	
-9696	G	G	A	
-9640	A	A	G	
-9621	G	G	C	
-9574	T	T	C	
-9452	C	C	G	
-9432	A	A	G	
-7667	G	G	C	
-7492	A	A	C	
-5905	G	A	G	
2006	T	T	C	
2061	C	C	T	
2072	G	G	A	
2093	G	G	C	
2134	G	T	T	
2137	A	A	C	
2198	G	G	A	
2257	G	G	T	
2282	C	T	C	
3105	C	C	C	
3264	A	A	G	

(continued)

Table 5. (Continued.)

Polymorphism	Haplotype
13941	G
14225	A
14590	A
17197	G
17377	--
18576	A
18691	A
19349	G
20098	A
20357	C
20419	A
21679	G
Global allelic frequency, %	2.36
Allelic frequency, %	
CTR	4.46
RP	2.50
SP	1.43
Nominal <i>P</i> value	
SP vs. CTR, AF	.090
RP vs. CTR, AF	.738
SP vs. RP vs. CTR, AF	.167

NOTE. Indicated for each haplotype are the global frequency, the frequency in each population (control [CTR], rapid progression [RP], and slow progression [SP]), the *P* value from Fisher's exact tests for the comparisons SP vs. CTR, RP vs. CTR, SP vs. RP, and SP vs. RP vs. CTR, and the calculation mode (allelic frequency [AF], dominant [D], and recessive [R]). Positive ($P \leq .05$) and borderline ($P < .1$) comparisons are shown in boldface. The *P* values for the D and R calculation modes are shown only if < 0.1 . The haplotypes presented are based on polymorphisms with a minor allelic frequency $> 5\%$. Tagging polymorphisms for the different haplotypes are shaded.

for the comparison between the SP population and the control population.

DISCUSSION

We undertook the exhaustive genotyping of the *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1* genes to look for genetic factors involved in AIDS progression. The interest in such a study is to provide clues to the molecular mechanisms of disease development and help for the rational design of new diagnostic or therapeutic targets.

Of 116 frequent polymorphisms detected in the IL-1 family genes, 22 were newly characterized in our study. We identified 10 polymorphisms exhibiting positive associations ($P \leq .05$) and 6 other polymorphisms exhibiting borderline associations ($P < .1$) with AIDS progression (table 1). We identified 6 haplotypes exhibiting positive associations (table 5). These positive associations were found by comparing the SP population with the control population or the RP population with the control

population, which was the basis of the present case-control study. It is noteworthy that comparison of the RP, SP, and control populations simultaneously appears to be less sensitive, given that only 1 association of 10 remained positive for the polymorphisms and 2 of 6 remained positive for the haplotypes.

Almost all polymorphisms involved in an association were located in introns, and their biological effect is, thus, difficult to interpret. Only 3 SNPs exhibiting a positive association were located in a promoter region, all in the promoter region of *IL1R1* (table 1). Two of these SNPs were in full linkage disequilibrium, and they belonged to the same haploblock. The

Table 6. Detailed information for the haplotypes derived from the haplotype tagging (HT) single-nucleotide polymorphism of haploblocks of *IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1*.

The table is available in its entirety in the online edition of the *Journal of Infectious Diseases*.

haplotypes derived from these promoter SNPs did not exhibit any positive or borderline associations (data not shown). The biological effect of the promoter SNPs on IL-1R1 expression is at present unknown, and we did not find any similarity with previously described transcription factor binding sites. Thus, it will be of interest to perform reporter gene experiments or competitive gel shift assays, to determine whether the alleles of these SNPs can have a differential effect on gene expression.

Most of the associations for the individual polymorphisms were rather weak, with *P* values between .01 and .05, except for the intronic SNP IL1Ra_2134 (*P* = .0002, in the dominant/recessive mode) for the comparison between the SP population and the control population. Similarly, most of the associations found for haplotypes and HT haplotypes were weak ($.01 < P < .05$), except for the ones linked with the SNP IL1Ra_2134 (table 5). We also evaluated whether sex, age, or route of infection could influence these results; there was no such influence (data not shown).

The allele IL1Ra_2134G was carried by 32.12%, 44.62%, and 53.06% of the control, RP, and SP populations, respectively. Because the *P* value comparing the RP and control populations was also low for this allele (*P* = .08), there was a possibility that this SNP could be associated with susceptibility to HIV-1 infection rather than with disease progression; we thus analyzed 180 seropositive subjects from the SEROCO cohort [46] and found that the distribution of the alleles for this SNP was identical to that of the control population (data not shown). The effect of IL1Ra_2134 is, thus, mainly associated with slow disease progression. This SNP is located next to a well-known variable-number tandem repeat of *IL1Ra* (located in the same intron) that has been associated with many diseases [4, 47], including AIDS [17]. This repeat is composed most often by two or by four 86-bp units, but it could not be genotyped in the present study because of technical reasons. There have been contradictory reports of the IL1Ra*2 allele (2-U repeat) being associated with higher [48, 49] or lower [50] levels of IL-1Ra. The association found for the IL1Ra_2134 SNP emphasizes the importance of this intronic region, and experiments will have to be performed to determine whether the effect is mediated solely through this SNP or through linkage disequilibrium with this variable-number tandem repeat.

Besides the study of this repeat conducted by Witkin et al. [17], there have been 2 other studies of the association between the IL-1 gene family and AIDS. Wang et al. [19] reported no association between AIDS and the SNPs IL1 β –1061 and IL1 β –3417, which is consistent with our results. Price et al. also identified associations between the control of HIV-1 replication and the SNPs IL1 α –1613 and IL1 α –4125 (which are in linkage disequilibrium) in patients receiving HAART [18]. Of note, the allele IL1 α –1613T has been associated with increased IL-1 α expression [51, 52] but none of these SNPs exhibited any as-

sociations in our study. The SNPs IL1 β –1061, IL1 β –581, IL1 β –3417, IL1 α –1613, IL1 α –4125, and IL1Ra_2006 have been associated with other diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis [30], osteoarthritis [53–55], periodontal disease [52], asthma [56, 57], allergic rhinitis [58], and lupus [59]. None of these SNPs presented a positive association in our study.

In the present study, we thoroughly investigated the genes of the IL-1 family (*IL1 α* , *IL1 β* , *IL1Ra*, and *IL1R1*), providing an important set of information. We identified new polymorphisms in these genes and also found putative associations between some polymorphisms, haplotypes, and haploblocks of these genes with AIDS progression. Of all the associations, one appears to be strongest, pointing to an intronic SNP in *IL1Ra*; this SNP definitely deserves more extensive analyses, either by genetic association investigations in other AIDS cohorts or by further biological experimentation to assess its impact on IL-1Ra expression. Another interesting methodological observation, which confirms the observation made in our previous work [21], is that use of the 2 \times 2 case-control comparisons is more sensitive for the detection of associations. On the other hand, it appears more robust to compare simultaneously the 3 populations.

Cytokine receptors are an assembly of 2 or more subunits, which are all required for efficient ligand binding and signal transduction. The α subunit IL-1R1 studied here is involved in both ligand binding and intracellular signaling, but the β subunit IL-1RacP (accessory protein) is required for efficient signal transmission [5]. There is another receptor in this family, IL-1R2, which preferentially binds to IL-1 β . Its intracellular domain is very short, and it apparently fails to initiate any biological response [60]. It is believed to act as a natural moderator for IL-1. Our work will, thus, need to be completed by the analysis of these last 2 members of the IL-1 family.

The important amount of data provided and the putative associations discovered in this work will be useful for future genetic association studies of the role IL-1 family members play in HIV-1 infection. Given the importance of IL-1 in the inflammatory process, this information should also prove to be useful for the study of other infectious and chronic inflammatory diseases.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to all the patients and medical staff who have kindly collaborated on this project.

References

1. Curfs JH, Meis JF, Hoogkamp-Korstanje JA. A primer on cytokines: sources, receptors, effects, and inducers. *Clin Microbiol Rev* 1997; 10: 742–80.
2. Dinarello CA. Interleukin-1 family [IL-1F1, F2]. In: Thomson A, Lotze

- M, eds. *The Cytokine Handbook*. 4th ed. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers, 2003.
3. Dinarello CA. Biologic basis for interleukin-1 in disease. *Blood* **1996**;87:2095–147.
 4. Arend WP, Evans CH. Interleukin-1 receptor antagonist [IL-1F3]. In: Thomson A, Lotze M, eds. *The Cytokine Handbook*. 4th ed. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers, 2003.
 5. Martin MU, Falk W. The interleukin-1 receptor complex and interleukin-1 signal transduction. *Eur Cytokine Netw* **1997**;8:5–17.
 6. Clerici M, Shearer GM. A TH1→TH2 switch is a critical step in the etiology of HIV infection. *Immunol Today* **1993**;14:107–11.
 7. Alfano M, Poli G. The cytokine network in HIV infection. *Curr Mol Med* **2002**;2:677–89.
 8. Fauci AS. Host factors and the pathogenesis of HIV-induced disease. *Nature* **1996**;384:529–34.
 9. Goletti D, Kinter AL, Hardy EC, Poli G, Fauci AS. Modulation of endogenous IL-1 beta and IL-1 receptor antagonist results in opposing effects on HIV expression in chronically infected monocytic cells. *J Immunol* **1996**;156:3501–8.
 10. Zavala F, Rimaniol AC, Boussin F, Dormont D, Bach JF, Descamps-Latscha B. HIV predominantly induces IL-1 receptor antagonist over IL-1 synthesis in human primary monocytes. *J Immunol* **1995**;155:2784–93.
 11. Poli G, Kinter AL, Fauci AS. Interleukin 1 induces expression of the human immunodeficiency virus alone and in synergy with interleukin 6 in chronically infected U1 cells: inhibition of inductive effects by the interleukin 1 receptor antagonist. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **1994**;91:108–12.
 12. Granowitz EV, Saget BM, Wang MZ, Dinarello CA, Skolnik PR. Interleukin 1 induces HIV-1 expression in chronically infected U1 cells: blockade by interleukin 1 receptor antagonist and tumor necrosis factor binding protein type 1. *Mol Med* **1995**;1:667–77.
 13. Sadeghi HM, Weiss L, Kazatchkine MD, Haeffner-Cavaillon N. Antiretroviral therapy suppresses the constitutive production of interleukin-1 associated with human immunodeficiency virus infection. *J Infect Dis* **1995**;172:547–50.
 14. Corasaniti MT, Bilotta A, Strongoli MC, Navarra M, Bagetta G, Di Renzo G. HIV-1 coat protein gp120 stimulates interleukin-1beta secretion from human neuroblastoma cells: evidence for a role in the mechanism of cell death. *Br J Pharmacol* **2001**;134:1344–50.
 15. Sharma V, Knobloch TJ, Benjamin D. Differential expression of cytokine genes in HIV-1 tat transfected T and B cell lines. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **1995**;208:704–13.
 16. Petit F, Corbeil J, Lelievre JD, et al. Role of CD95-activated caspase-1 processing of IL-1beta in TCR-mediated proliferation of HIV-infected CD4⁺ T cells. *Eur J Immunol* **2001**;31:3513–24.
 17. Witkin SS, Linhares IM, Gerber S, Caetano ME, Segurado AC. Interleukin-1 receptor antagonist gene polymorphism and circulating levels of human immunodeficiency virus type 1 RNA in Brazilian women. *J Virol* **2001**;75:6242–4.
 18. Price P, James I, Fernandez S, French MA. Alleles of the gene encoding IL-1alpha may predict control of plasma viraemia in HIV-1 patients on highly active antiretroviral therapy. *AIDS* **2004**;18:1495–501.
 19. Wang C, Song W, Lobashevsky E, et al. Cytokine and chemokine gene polymorphisms among ethnically diverse North Americans with HIV-1 infection. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* **2004**;35:446–54.
 20. Vasilescu A, Heath SC, Ivanova R, et al. Genomic analysis of Th1-Th2 cytokine genes in an AIDS cohort: identification of IL4 and IL10 haplotypes associated with the disease progression. *Genes Immun* **2003**;4:441–9.
 21. Do H, Vasilescu A, Diop G, et al. Associations of the IL2Ralpha, IL4Ralpha, IL10Ralpha, and IFN (gamma) R1 cytokine receptor genes with AIDS progression in a French AIDS cohort. *Immunogenetics* **2006**;58:89–98.
 22. Huber C, Pons O, Hendel H, et al. Genomic studies in AIDS: problems and answers: development of a statistical model integrating both longitudinal cohort studies and transversal observations of extreme cases. *Biomed Pharmacother* **2003**;57:25–33.
 23. Rappaport J, Cho YY, Hendel H, Schwartz EJ, Schachter F, Zagury JF. 32 bp CCR-5 gene deletion and resistance to fast progression in HIV-1 infected heterozygotes. *Lancet* **1997**;349:922–3.
 24. Hendel H, Henon N, Lebuane H, et al. Distinctive effects of CCR5, CCR2, and SDF1 genetic polymorphisms in AIDS progression. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr Hum Retrovirol* **1998**;19:381–6.
 25. Winkler CA, Hendel H, Carrington M, et al. Dominant effects of CCR2-CCR5 haplotypes in HIV-1 disease progression. *J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr* **2004**;37:1534–8.
 26. Hendel H, Caillat-Zucman S, Lebuane H, et al. New class I and II HLA alleles strongly associated with opposite patterns of progression to AIDS. *J Immunol* **1999**;162:6942–6.
 27. Flores-Villanueva PO, Hendel H, Caillat-Zucman S, et al. Associations of MHC ancestral haplotypes with resistance/susceptibility to AIDS disease development. *J Immunol* **2003**;170:1925–9.
 28. Guasch JF, Bertina RM, Reitsma PH. Five novel intragenic dimorphisms in the human interleukin-1 genes combine to high informativity. *Cytokine* **1996**;8:598–602.
 29. Bergholdt R, Larsen ZM, Andersen NA, et al. Characterization of new polymorphisms in the 5' UTR of the human interleukin-1 receptor type 1 (IL1R1) gene: linkage to type 1 diabetes and correlation to IL-1RI plasma level. *Genes Immun* **2000**;1:495–500.
 30. McDowell TL, Symons JA, Ploski R, Forre O, Duff GW. A genetic association between juvenile rheumatoid arthritis and a novel interleukin-1 alpha polymorphism. *Arthritis Rheum* **1995**;38:221–8.
 31. di Giovine FS, Takhsh E, Blakemore AI, Duff GW. Single base polymorphism at -511 in the human interleukin-1 beta gene (IL1 beta). *Hum Mol Genet* **1992**;1:450.
 32. Pociot F, Molvig J, Wogensen L, Worsaae H, Nerup J. A TaqI polymorphism in the human interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 beta) gene correlates with IL-1 beta secretion in vitro. *Eur J Clin Invest* **1992**;22:396–402.
 33. Sitara D, Olomolaiye O, Wood N, et al. Identification of novel single nucleotide polymorphisms in intron 1B and exon 1C of the human interleukin-1 receptor type I (IL-1RI) gene. *Genes Immun* **1999**;1:161–3.
 34. Takahashi M, Matsuda F, Margetic N, Lathrop M. Automated identification of single nucleotide polymorphisms from sequencing data. *J Bioinform Comput Biol* **2003**;1:253–65.
 35. Gomes I, Collins A, Lonjou C, et al. Hardy-Weinberg quality control. *Ann Hum Genet* **1999**;63:535–8.
 36. Salanti G, Amountza G, Ntzani EE, Ioannidis JP. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in genetic association studies: an empirical evaluation of reporting, deviations, and power. *Eur J Hum Genet* **2005**;13:840–8.
 37. Laird N. The EM algorithm. In: Rao C, ed. *Handbook of statistics*. Vol. 9: computational statistics. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science Publishers BV, 1993.
 38. Stephens M, Smith NJ, Donnelly P. A new statistical method for haplotype reconstruction from population data. *Am J Hum Genet* **2001**;68:978–89.
 39. Stephens M, Donnelly P. A comparison of bayesian methods for haplotype reconstruction from population genotype data. *Am J Hum Genet* **2003**;73:1162–9.
 40. Hill WG, Weir BS. Maximum-likelihood estimation of gene location by linkage disequilibrium. *Am J Hum Genet* **1994**;54:705–14.
 41. Devlin B, Risch N. A comparison of linkage disequilibrium measures for fine-scale mapping. *Genomics* **1995**;29:311–22.
 42. Gabriel SB, Schaffner SF, Nguyen H, et al. The structure of haplotype blocks in the human genome. *Science* **2002**;296:2225–9.
 43. Barrett JC, Fry B, Maller J, Daly MJ. Haploview: analysis and visualization of LD and haplotype maps. *Bioinformatics* **2005**;21:263–5.
 44. Cargill M, Altshuler D, Ireland J, et al. Characterization of single-nucleotide polymorphisms in coding regions of human genes. *Nat Genet* **1999**;22:231–8.
 45. Nelson MR, Marnellos G, Kammerer S, et al. Large-scale validation of single nucleotide polymorphisms in gene regions. *Genome Res* **2004**;14:1664–8.

46. Faure S, Meyer L, Costagliola D, et al. Rapid progression to AIDS in HIV+ individuals with a structural variant of the chemokine receptor CX3CR1. *Science* **2000**;287:2274–7.
47. Witkin SS, Gerber S, Ledger WJ. Influence of interleukin-1 receptor antagonist gene polymorphism on disease. *Clin Infect Dis* **2002**;34:204–9.
48. Danis VA, Millington M, Hyland VJ, Grennan D. Cytokine production by normal human monocytes: inter-subject variation and relationship to an IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Ra) gene polymorphism. *Clin Exp Immunol* **1995**;99:303–10.
49. Hurme M, Santtila S. IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Ra) plasma levels are co-ordinately regulated by both IL-1Ra and IL-1beta genes. *Eur J Immunol* **1998**;28:2598–602.
50. Dewberry R, Holden H, Crossman D, Francis S. Interleukin-1 receptor antagonist expression in human endothelial cells and atherosclerosis. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* **2000**;20:2394–400.
51. Dominici R, Cattaneo M, Malferrari G, et al. Cloning and functional analysis of the allelic polymorphism in the transcription regulatory region of interleukin-1 alpha. *Immunogenetics* **2002**;54:82–6.
52. Shirodaria S, Smith J, McKay IJ, Kennett CN, Hughes FJ. Polymorphisms in the IL-1A gene are correlated with levels of interleukin-1alpha protein in gingival crevicular fluid of teeth with severe periodontal disease. *J Dent Res* **2000**;79:1864–9.
53. Smith AJ, Keen LJ, Billingham MJ, et al. Extended haplotypes and linkage disequilibrium in the IL1R1-IL1A-IL1B-IL1RN gene cluster: association with knee osteoarthritis. *Genes Immun* **2004**;5:451–60.
54. Loughlin J, Dowling B, Mustafa Z, Chapman K. Association of the interleukin-1 gene cluster on chromosome 2q13 with knee osteoarthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* **2002**;46:1519–27.
55. Moos V, Rudwaleit M, Herzog V, Hohlig K, Sieper J, Muller B. Association of genotypes affecting the expression of interleukin-1beta or interleukin-1 receptor antagonist with osteoarthritis. *Arthritis Rheum* **2000**;43:2417–22.
56. Gohlke H, Illig T, Bahnweg M, et al. Association of the interleukin-1 receptor antagonist gene with asthma. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* **2004**;169:1217–23.
57. Pessi T, Karjalainen J, Hulkkonen J, Nieminen MM, Hurme M. A common IL-1 complex haplotype is associated with an increased risk of atopy. *J Med Genet* **2003**;40:e66.
58. Joki-Erkkila VP, Karjalainen J, Hulkkonen J, et al. Allergic rhinitis and polymorphisms of the interleukin 1 gene complex. *Ann Allergy Asthma Immunol* **2003**;91:275–9.
59. Parks CG, Cooper GS, Dooley MA, et al. Systemic lupus erythematosus and genetic variation in the interleukin 1 gene cluster: a population based study in the southeastern United States. *Ann Rheum Dis* **2004**;63:91–4.
60. Boraschi D, Bossu P, Macchia G, Ruggiero P, Tagliabue A. Structure-function relationship in the IL-1 family. *Front Biosci* **1996**;1:d270–308.