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Screening for Dyslipidemia in Younger Adults: Systematic Review to Update the 2008 U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation

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Structured Abstract

Background: This review updates prior reviews on screening for lipid disorders in adults, and will be used by the United States Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) to update their 2008 recommendation. Unlike prior USPSTF reviews, it focuses on screening in younger adults, defined as adults 21 to 39 years of age, as there is more uncertainty about the need to perform lipid screening in this population than in older adults.

Data Sources: We searched the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials, Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews, and Ovid MEDLINE from 2008 to November 2015, and manually reviewed reference lists.

Study Selection: Two investigators independently reviewed the literature for studies on screening and treatment of asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years for dyslipidemia, including randomized controlled trials, case-control studies, cohort studies, and good-quality systematic reviews.

Results: No study evaluated the effects of lipid screening versus no screening, treatment versus no treatment, or delayed versus earlier treatment on clinical outcomes in younger adults. In addition, no study evaluated the diagnostic yield of alternative screening strategies in younger adults (e.g., targeted screening of persons with a family history of hyperlipidemia versus general screening). Longitudinal studies suggest that lipid levels have a tendency to increase over time in younger adults, though no study evaluated how lipid levels changed according to different intervals between repeat testing or the proportion of patients who would move from one risk category to another.

Limitations: Lack of direct evidence in younger adults.

Conclusions: Direct evidence on benefits and harms of screening or treatment for dyslipidemia in younger adults remains unavailable.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

Purpose and Previous U.S. Preventive Services Task Force Recommendation

The purpose of this report is to update prior reviews¹⁻³ conducted for the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) on screening for lipid disorders in adults. It will be used by the USPSTF to update its 2008 recommendation.⁴

In 2008, the USPSTF strongly recommended lipid screening in all men 35 years and older and in women 45 years and older at increased risk for coronary heart disease (CHD) (*A Recommendation*) based on good evidence that lipid-lowering drug therapy decreases the incidence of CHD events in persons with abnormal lipids, resulting in substantial absolute benefits.⁴ The USPSTF recommended screening in men 20 to 35 years of age and women 20 to 45 years of age with risk factors for CHD (*B recommendation*) due to the lower incidence of CHD events in these populations, resulting in lower expected benefits. The USPSTF made no recommendation for or against lipid screening in men aged 20 to 35 or in women 20 and older not at increased risk (*C Recommendation*) due to small expected benefits.

A difference between this update and prior USPSTF reviews on lipid screening is that it focuses on screening in younger adults (defined for this report as adults 21 to 39 years of age). The USPSTF restricted the scope of this update to younger adults because in older adults, lipid levels are obtained as part of routine cardiovascular risk assessment, and the decision to initiate statins is often based on a global assessment of cardiovascular risk or presence of cardiovascular risk factors in addition to abnormal lipid levels. In younger adults, however, there is more uncertainty about the need to perform cardiovascular risk assessment, and lipid screening might identify those who would benefit from earlier interventions to lower lipid levels.⁵

A separate evidence review has been commissioned by the USPSTF on use of statins for prevention of cardiovascular disease (CVD) in adults 40 years of age and older.⁶

Condition Definition

Lipid disorders refer to abnormalities of cholesterol, including low-density lipoproteins (LDL-C), high-density lipoproteins (HDL-C), and triglycerides. The National Cholesterol Education Project (NCEP) Adult Treatment Panel III (ATP III) defined "optimal" LDL levels as <100 mg/dL and "high" as \geq 160 mg/dL; "desirable" total cholesterol as <200 mg/dL and "high" as \geq 240 mg/dL; "low" HDL-C as <40 mg/dL; and elevated triglycerides as >150 mg/dL; although thresholds for treatment varied depending on the presence of risk factors for cardiovascular disease.⁷

Prevalence and Burden of Disease/Illness

The prevalence of lipid disorders is high in the United States, with an estimated 53 percent (105.3 million) of adults affected.⁸ Specifically, 27 percent of Americans (53.5 million) have high LDL-C, 23 percent (46.4 million) have low HDL-C, and 30 percent (58.9 million) have high triglycerides. According to National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) data from 2003 to 2006, 13 percent of those adults with high LDL-C, 22 percent of adults with high non-HDL-C, and 8 percent of adults with the combination of high LDL-C, low HDL-C, and high triglycerides were in the 20 to 34 year age group.⁸ In 2003 to 2004, 64 percent of adults aged 20 to 29 and 57 percent of adults aged 30 to 39 met NCEP recommended levels for all lipids.⁹

Lipid disorders are associated with CHD, which may lead to sudden coronary death and myocardial infarction. Prevalence of CHD increases with age and is higher in men than in women at the same age.¹⁰ In 2010, the overall prevalence of CHD was 6.0 percent, and among those aged 18 to 44 the age-adjusted prevalence was 1.2 percent.¹⁰ Prevalence of CHD varies by race, with 11.6 percent of American Indians/Alaska Natives, 6.5 percent of blacks, 6.1 percent of Hispanics, 5.8 percent of whites, and 3.9 percent of Asian/Pacific Islanders affected. For young adults ages 20 to 39, the prevalence of CVD, including all diseases of the circulatory system as well as congenital CVD, was 14.9 percent in men and 8.7 percent in women.¹¹

CHD is the leading cause of death in the United States.^{12,13} In 2013, the American Heart Association (AHA) estimated that approximately 635,000 Americans would have a new myocardial infarction or CHD death and 280,000 would have a recurrent cardiovascular event, with an additional 150,000 persons having silent myocardial infarctions.¹⁴ The number of myocardial infarctions or fatal CHD events is estimated at 20,000 annually for men aged 35 to 44 years and 5,000 annually for women aged 35 to 44 years.¹⁴ In 2011, CHD caused 12 percent of deaths in persons aged 25 to 44 years.¹³ Estimates based on Framingham Heart Study participants from 1971 to 1996 indicated that the lifetime risks (through age 80 years) of CHD for 40 year old men with a total cholesterol of 200, 200 to 239, and \geq 240 mg/dL were 31, 43, and 57 percent, respectively, with 10-year cumulative risks of 3, 5, and 12 percent. For younger adults, data from the Chicago Heart Association study (from 1967 to 1973) with mortality followup in 2002, estimated 10-year CHD mortality in the highest risk decile of 0.58 percent in the 18 to 29 age group and 1.72 percent in the 30 to 39 age group.¹⁵

In 2010, heart disease was associated with 972 age-adjusted potential life-years lost per 100,000 persons under 75 years of age.^{16,17} In 2008, heart disease and stroke accounted for nearly 300 billion dollars in health care costs.¹⁸

Etiology and Natural History

Cholesterol is a lipid that is present in all animal cells; it is vital to cell membrane structure and acts as a precursor to vitamin D, adrenal and gonadal steroid hormones and bile acids.¹⁹ The body is able to absorb dietary cholesterol and also synthesize it *de novo*. In a typical Western diet, cholesterol intake is about 300 to 450 mg per day and endogenous cholesterol amounts to

800 to 1400 mg per day. A total of 1000 to 2000 mg of cholesterol can be absorbed by the small intestine. Plasma cholesterol levels depend on many factors including diet and genetics. In the general population, there is great variability in how cholesterol is synthesized and absorbed. Plasma cholesterol levels are the sum of intestinal cholesterol absorption and hepatic cholesterol synthesis balanced by net biliary excretion and cell use.

Cholesterol is transported in the body as particles of lipid and protein (lipoproteins).⁷ There are three classes of lipoproteins: LDL-C, HDL-C, and very low density lipoproteins (VLDL-C). LDL-C makes up 60 to 70 percent of total serum cholesterol, HDL-C contributes 20 to 30 percent, and VLDL-C contributes 10 to 15 percent. LDL-C is the primary atherogenic lipoprotein and is the primary target of cholesterol-lowering therapy, although some forms of VLDL-C are precursors to LDL-C and promote atherosclerosis. HDL-C is inversely related to risk for CHD.

LDL-C is atherogenic when it accumulates in blood vessels, contributing to plaque formation. The fully developed plaque consists of a core of cholesterol, surrounded by a capsule of connective tissue.²⁰ The plaque core is surrounded by foam cells, which are macrophages containing intracytoplasmic cholesterol. These cells produce procoagulant and inflammatory cell mediators. Early stage plaque formation is not associated with structural damage to the endothelium, but later stage plaque formation leads to endothelial erosion that exposes the underlying connective tissue and allows platelets to adhere to the site, potentially leading to plaque smooth muscle cell growth through release of growth factor. Further endothelial erosion and disruption contribute to thrombus formation. As the thrombus builds, blood flow sends clumps of platelets into the distal small arteries as emboli and the thrombus may continue to grow until it occludes the artery, resulting in myocardial infarction, cerebrovascular accident (CVA), or another ischemic event. Endothelial erosion and disruption result from enhanced inflammatory activity within the plaque produced by smooth muscle cells and macrophages. Certain plaque characteristics like a large lipid core, high density of macrophages, and low density of smooth muscle cells in the cap are markers of plaques that are more likely to undergo thrombosis. The risk of a person with coronary artery disease having a future thrombogenic event is more associated with the presence and number of vulnerable plaques than the total number of plaques.

Exposure to nonoptimal lipid levels in young adulthood is associated with atherosclerotic changes later in life. One prospective cohort study of 2,824 persons age 18 to 30 years with nonoptimal levels of LDL–C (defined as \geq 100 mg/dl) at baseline found an association between cumulative exposure to higher LDL or lower HDL levels and markers of atherosclerosis two decades later.²¹

People with familial hypercholesterolemia may have dramatically high levels of LDL-C, which can lead to accelerated atherosclerosis and, if untreated, early cardiovascular death.²²⁻²⁴ Familial hypercholesterolemia is caused by mutations in the LDL receptor gene, which reduce the number of LDL–C receptors or prevent LDL-C from binding to these receptors, thereby reducing LDL-C removal from the blood. Patients with two mutant copies of the LDL receptor gene have the homozygous form of familial hypercholesterolemia. This condition is rare, with a prevalence of about 1:1,000,000.²⁵ The characteristic clinical presentation includes skin and tendon

xanthomoas, total cholesterol levels between 500 and 1,000 mg/dL, and the onset in childhood of symptomatic coronary disease as well as aortic valve and proximal root disease.^{26,27} The heterozygous form of familial hypercholesterolemia is more common, with a prevalence of approximately 1:500 in the United States and United Kingdom. Total cholesterol levels in heterozygous familial hypercholesterolemia are less highly elevated than for homozygous familial hypercholesterolemia, averaging 325 to 450 mg/dL, but patients are also at increased risk for CHD and death in young adulthood due to prolonged exposure to high lipid levels that often starts in childhood.²³ The estimated proportion of persons with familial hypercholesterolemia who would have an early CHD event in the absence of recognition and treatment is 5 percent to 15 percent in men prior to 35 years of age, and 10 percent to 15 percent in women prior to 45 years of age.^{28,29} Many patients with severe hypercholesterolemia do not have an identifiable genetic defect.²⁴ Evidence suggests that the clinical consequences of severe hypercholesterolemia are the same regardless of the underlying cause.

Risk Factors

Risk factors for dyslipidemia (high LDL, low HDL, high triglycerides) include physical inactivity, obesity, abdominal obesity, metabolic syndrome, hypertension, an atherogenic diet (high in saturated fatty acids, cholesterol, and sodium), consumption of added dietary sugars, genetic factors (including family history of familial hypercholesterolemia), increased age, male sex, and hypothyroidism.^{7,8,30,31} Elevated triglycerides are associated with overweight and obesity, physical inactivity, smoking, excess alcohol intake, high carbohydrate diet, other diseases such as diabetes and nephritic syndrome, medications such as corticosteroids or estrogens, and genetic factors.⁷ Hyperlipidemia is also associated with human immunodeficiency virus infection, renal transplant, and use of antipsychotic medications and protease inhibitors.³²⁻³⁴

Dyslipidemia is a risk factor for CHD.⁷ Other modifiable risk factors for CHD include hypertension, smoking, thrombogenic/hemostatic state, diabetes, obesity, physical inactivity, and an atherogenic diet. Non-modifiable risk factors include age (male \geq 45 years, female \geq 55 years), male sex, and family history of early CHD.

Non-HDL-C (i.e., total cholesterol minus HDL-C) is a measure that includes all potentially atherogenic lipoprotein particles (LDL, VLDL, intermediate-density lipoprotein [IDL], and lipoprotein[a]), and it may be a more accurate predictor of CHD risk than LDL-C.^{32,34,35} Apolipoprotein-B directly measures the total number of atherogenic particles, although it is unclear whether it adds to HDL-C and total cholesterol as a marker of CHD risk.^{34,36-39} In addition, total and HDL-C are easier and less costly to measure. Other potential risk factors for CVD include alternative measures of lipid status such as total cholesterol-to-HDL ratio or other lipoprotein levels and non-lipid factors such as inflammatory markers (e.g., C-reactive protein,⁴⁰ homocysteine) and thrombogenic factors (e.g., fibrinogen, antithrombin III, factor V Leiden).⁷

In 2008, the USPSTF recommended screening with a fasting or nonfasting HDL, with either the total cholesterol or a measure of LDL.⁴ In 2009, a USPSTF evidence review of nine emerging risk factors including C-reactive protein, leukocyte count, homocysteine levels, and lipoprotein levels found that evidence was insufficient to support the use of these risk factors to reclassify

intermediate-risk persons for CHD as high-risk, although it found that evidence for C-reactive protein was promising.⁴⁰ Clinical practice guidelines continue to predominantly focus on LDL-C as the primary lipid risk factor.

Rationale for Screening/Screening Strategies

Due to the asymptomatic nature of lipid disorders, screening is required for detection. Detection of younger adults with lipid disorders could enable implementation of management strategies such as lifestyle modification or medications that could prevent negative cardiovascular outcomes in persons at immediate risk for an event, or decrease risk of future events. Screening could be of particular benefit for identification of young adults with markedly elevated lipid levels due to unrecognized familial hypercholesterolemia.

Screening involves blood tests which may be obtained fasting or non-fasting. Although current recommendations generally recommend testing of total cholesterol and LDL-C, they differ on other lipid components to be tested, the age to start testing, and frequency of screening. (See Recommendations of Other Groups section below).

Interventions/Treatment

Standard treatments for lipid disorders in adults include use of medications, diet, and/or exercise interventions, or a combination of these interventions. Prior to 2013, treatment in the United States generally followed recommendations from the Third Report of the NCEP ATP III, which recommended global cardiovascular risk evaluation including measurement of lipids starting at age 20 years to guide decisions regarding use of lipid lowering therapy.⁷ LDL-C thresholds for initiation of lipid lowering therapy following lifestyle intervention efforts varied from \geq 130 to 190 mg/dL depending on the assessed risk category (defined as low, based on estimated risk of <10% for a CVD event after 10 years; intermediate, based on estimated 10% to 20% risk; or high, based on estimated risk >20%). Drug options for lipid lowering included statins, bile acid sequestrants, nicotinic acid, and fibrates, although statins were designated as the initial drug of choice given proven efficacy for lowering LDL-C and evidence showing improved clinical outcomes. Therapy with a statin or other lipid-lowering therapy was targeted to achieve goal LDL levels that varied from <100 to <160 mg/dL depending on the risk category.

Updated guidelines from the American College of Cardiology (ACC) and the AHA on lipid lowering therapy were issued at the end of 2013, and differ from ATP III in a number of ways. In the new guideline, statins are the recommended first-line lipid-lowering therapy to reduce CVD risk, as evidence on effectiveness of lipid lowering therapies at improving clinical outcomes is strongest for statins.²⁷ Target populations for statin therapy were re-defined as four groups: persons with clinical CVD, persons 40 to 75 years of age with diabetes and LDL-C 70 to 189 mg/dL, persons with LDL-C \geq 190 mg/dL, or persons 40 to 75 years of age with an estimated 10year risk of CVD of 7.5 percent or higher. In patients in the latter group who do not meet criteria for one of the other target populations, a clinician-patient risk discussion is recommended prior to initiation of statin therapy. Rather than managing statin therapy to achieve an LDL-C target, the ACC/AHA recommends fixed dose statin therapy, with the intensity (based on the dose and potency of the statin used, and thus, the expected degree of LDL-C reduction) of therapy determined by the risk profile. The updated guideline also recommends the use of a newly developed global risk calculator to estimate risk.

In patients with familial hyperlipidemia, a guideline from the National Lipid Association recommends lifestyle modification, moderate to high potency statins as first-line drug therapy (alternative drugs or combination therapy is recommended in persons who cannot tolerate statins or do not meet LDL reduction of \geq 50% from baseline), and LDL apheresis in high-risk patients who do not meet lipid targets on lifestyle and drugs.⁴¹

Current Clinical Practice in the United States

A study based on 1996 to 2006 NHANES data from 2,587 adults aged 20 to 45 years found overall lipid screening rates of <50 percent.⁴² Screening rates varied based on the presence of cardiovascular risk factors. Lipid testing rates was 68 percent in those with CHD or CHD equivalents, 47 percent in those with \geq 2 risk factors, 45 percent in those with one risk factor, and 42 percent in those with no known risk factors. The presence of CHD or CHD equivalent was associated with increased likelihood of screening compared with presence of no risk factors (relative risk 1.5; 95 percent confidence interval 1.1 to 2.2). In addition, women were more likely to have undergone screening compared with men. Among those with a CHD or CHD equivalent, two or more risk factors, one, or no risk factors, screening rates for women were 69 percent, 53 percent, 36 percent, and 30 percent, respectively.^{4,43} A study based on a 2005 United States National Ambulatory Medical Care survey found disparities in rates of lipid screening in adults \geq 20 years of age, with higher rates in whites (40%) versus blacks (33%) or Hispanics (39%).⁴⁴ Results were not reported separately for younger adults.

Healthy People 2020 has set a target screening rate of 82 percent screening rate within the last five years for age >18 years (increased from 75% in 2008).⁴⁵

Recommendations of Other Groups

Recommendations for lipid screening in young adults without risk factors for CHD vary, with some guidelines recommending screening starting at age 20 and others not recommending screening until age 35 to 40 for men or 40 to 50 for women. In general, guidelines recommend screening younger adults with CHD, CHD equivalents, or one or more CHD risk factor.

The ATP III guideline recommends screening all persons ≥ 20 years old every 5 years with LDL-C, HDL-C, total cholesterol, and triglycerides.⁷ It recommends that clinicians perform a lipoprotein analysis and risk factor evaluation to assign risk status as part of the first patient visit for adults ≥ 20 years and, depending on the results, initiate efforts to control risk factors with reevaluation in 1 to 5 years or initiate lifestyle changes.⁷ The ACC and AHA guidelines of assessment of cardiovascular risk does not specifically address lipid screening, but recommends "as reasonable" assessment of traditional cardiovascular risk factors every 4 to 6 years starting at age 20 (grade IIa recommendation).⁵ Although the Pooled Cohort Equations CV Risk Calculator developed by the ACC and AHA estimates lifetime risk of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease in persons 20 years of age or older, the guideline does not make a recommendation to apply the Pooled Cohort Equations CV Risk Calculator in persons younger than 40 years of age.

The American Diabetes Association recommends lipid screening in patients with diabetes recommended at least annually, and every 2 years for adults with low-risk lipid values (LDL-C <100 mg/dL, HDL-C >50 mg/dL, and triglycerides <150 mg/dL).⁴⁶

The Task Force for the Management Dyslipidaemias of the European Society of Cardiology and the European Atherosclerosis Society recommend risk-level based screening depending on various risk factors (e.g., diabetes, established CVD, hypertension, smoking, body mass index >30 kg/m², family history of premature CVD and familial dyslipidemia, chronic inflammatory disease, chronic kidney disease). Assessment of lipid levels may be considered in men >40 and women >50 years of age.⁴⁷

The Canadian Working Group on Hypercholesterolemia and Other Dyslipidemias recommend screening men over 40 years of age, postmenopausal women, or women over 50 years of age, patients with diabetes mellitus, hypertension, smoking or abdominal obesity, or a strong family history of premature cardiovascular disease manifestations of hyperlipidemia (e.g., xanthelasma, xanthoma or arcus corneae), or evidence of symptomatic or asymptomatic atherosclerosis, or any patient for whom "lifestyle changes are indicated." This group further recommends use of NCEP ATP-III risk estimation algorithm with LDL and total HDL ratio as targets.⁴⁸

The American Academy of Family Physicians concurs with current USPSTF recommendations.⁴⁹

The American College of Physicians lists an inactive guideline from 1996 recommending screening in men >35 years old and women >45 years old with total cholesterol levels.⁵⁰

Chapter 2. Methods

Key Questions and Analytic Framework

Using the methods developed by the USPSTF^{51,52} the USPSTF and the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ) determined the scope and Key Questions for this review. In conjunction with the USPSTF, investigators created an analytic framework with the Key Questions and the patient populations, interventions, and outcomes reviewed (**Figure 1**).

Key Questions

- 1. What are the benefits of screening for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years on CHD- or CVA-related morbidity or mortality or all-cause mortality?
- 2. What are the harms of screening for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years?
- 3. What is the diagnostic yield of alternative screening strategies (e.g., universal screening versus risk-based screening) for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years?
- 4. What are the benefits of treatment (e.g., drug or lifestyle interventions) for dyslipidemia in adults ages 21 to 39 years on CHD- or CVA-related morbidity or mortality or all-cause mortality?
- 5. What are the benefits of delayed versus immediate treatment in adults ages 21 to 39 years with dyslipidemia on CHD- or CVA- related morbidity or mortality or all-cause mortality?
- 6. What are the harms of drug treatment for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years?

Two Contextual Questions were also requested by the USPSTF to help inform the report. Contextual Questions are not reviewed using systematic review methodology. Rather, the approach to Contextual Questions is to focus on evidence from key, high-quality studies.

Contextual Questions

- 1. What are the benefits of drug treatment in adults ages 21 to 39 years on intermediate outcomes (e.g., lipid levels, atherosclerosis)?
- 2. How do lipid levels change over time in adults ages 21 to 39 years?

Search Strategies

We searched the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials and Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (to November 2015), and Ovid MEDLINE (2008 to November 2015) for relevant studies and systematic reviews. Search strategies are available in **Appendix A1**. We also reviewed reference lists of relevant articles.

Study Selection

At least two reviewers independently evaluated each study to determine inclusion eligibility. Studies were reviewed on the basis of inclusion and exclusion criteria developed for each Key Question (**Appendix A2**). Includable studies were randomized trials, cohort studies, and case-control studies of lipid screening versus no screening, treatment for dyslipidemia versus no treatment, and delayed versus immediate treatment for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults 21 to 39 years of age that evaluated mortality, cardiovascular outcomes (CHD or cerebrovascular disease-related morbidity or mortality), or harms of screening or treatment. Studies that reported the diagnostic yield (number of true positives per number tested) of lipid screening in adults 21 to 39 years of age were also includable. Studies that enrolled older adults would be included if results were reported separately for the subgroup of patients younger than 40 years of age or if the mean age of the population was <40 years. Included interventions were drug as well as lifestyle interventions (e.g., exercise and diet changes).

Effects of treatment on intermediate outcomes (such as changes in markers of atherosclerosis or lipid levels) were evaluated for one of the Contextual Questions. Studies of individuals with prior cardiovascular events were excluded. The selection of literature is summarized in the literature flow diagram (**Appendix A3**). **Appendix A4** lists excluded studies with reasons for exclusion.

Data Abstraction and Quality Rating

We planned to have one investigator abstract details about each article's study design, patient population, setting, screening method, treatment regimen, analysis, followup, and results; a second investigator review data abstraction for accuracy; and two investigators independently apply criteria developed by the USPSTF⁵¹ to rate the quality of each study as good, fair, or poor (**Appendix A5**) with discrepancies resolved through consensus; however, no studies met inclusion criteria.

Data Synthesis

We planned to assess the aggregate internal validity (quality) of the body of evidence for each key question ("good", "fair", "poor") using methods developed by the USPSTF, based on the number, quality and size of studies, consistency of results among studies, and directness of evidence;⁵¹ however, no studies met inclusion criteria.

External Review

The draft report was reviewed by content experts (**Appendix A6**), USPSTF members, AHRQ Project Officers, and collaborative partners.

Chapter 3. Results

Key Question 1. What Are the Benefits of Screening for Dyslipidemia in Asymptomatic Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years on CHD- or CVA-Related Morbidity or Mortality or All-Cause Mortality?

We identified no studies on benefits of screening versus no screening for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years on cardiovascular outcomes.

Key Question 2. What Are the Harms of Screening for Dyslipidemia in Asymptomatic Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years?

We identified no studies on harms of screening versus no screening for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years that evaluated clinical outcomes.

Key Question 3. What Is the Diagnostic Yield of Alternative Screening Strategies (e.g., Universal vs. Risk-Based Screening) for Dyslipidemia in Asymptomatic Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years?

We identified no studies on the diagnostic yield of alternative screening strategies for dyslipidemia in asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years.

Key Question 4. What Are the Benefits of Treatment (e.g., Drug or Lifestyle Interventions) in Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years on CHD- or CVA-Related Morbidity or Mortality or All-Cause Mortality?

Summary

We identified no studies on benefits of treatment versus no treatment in adults ages 21 to 39 years on cardiovascular outcomes.

Evidence

We identified no studies on benefits of treatment versus no treatment in adults ages 21 to 39 years on cardiovascular outcomes. Although four trials of statins for primary prevention enrolled patients younger than 40 years of age, results were not reported separately for this subgroup and

they comprised a small part of the population.⁵³⁻⁵⁶ One cohort study evaluated efficacy of statins in patients with familial hypercholesterolemia, but the mean age at enrollment was 44 years.⁵⁷

Key Question 5. What Are the Benefits of Delayed Versus Immediate Treatment in Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years With Dyslipidemia on CHD- or CVA-Related Morbidity or Mortality or All-Cause Mortality?

We identified no studies on benefit of delayed versus immediate treatment of dyslipidemia in adults ages 21 to 39 years.

Key Question 6. What Are the Harms of Drug Treatment for Dyslipidemia in Asymptomatic Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years?

We identified no studies on harms of treatment for dyslipidemia versus no treatment in adults ages 21 to 39 years.

Contextual Question 1. What Are the Benefits of Drug Treatment in Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years on Intermediate Outcomes (e.g., Lipid Levels, Atherosclerosis)?

We identified no randomized trials, cohort studies, or case-control studies on effects of drug treatment in adults ages 21 to 39 years on intermediate outcomes, such as lipid levels or atherosclerosis.

Contextual Question 2. How Do Lipid Levels Change Over Time in Adults Ages 21 to 39 Years?

Few longitudinal studies have assessed how lipid levels change over time in adults ages 21 to 39 years. In the Framingham Heart Study, the average biennial difference among serial cholesterol measurements among individuals <45 years at enrollment was 4.4 +/-6.9 mg/dL in men and 7.5 +/-7.2 mg/dL in women.⁵⁸ Including all adults, the rate of change was higher in persons with lower total cholesterol (6.7 +/-5.6 mg/dL for men and 9.2 +/-6.6 mg/dL for women with initial cholesterol $\leq 200 \text{ mg/dL}$ versus 0.6 +/-7.4 mg/dL for men and 3.7 +/-11.2 mg/dL for women with initial cholesterol $\geq 240 \text{ mg/dL}$). Some evidence also suggests that young adults with low lipid levels often do not maintain them. The Coronary Artery Risk Development in Young Adults Study, which enrolled individuals in the United States 18 to 30 years of age, found that between 44 and 52 percent of those with total cholesterol levels below the 10th percentile remained below the same percentile 7 years later.⁵⁹

Several European studies have also evaluated stability of lipid levels over time in young adults. In general, lipid levels in young adults increased over time, though the magnitude of change varied depending on baseline age and sex. In the Nijmegen (the Netherlands) Cohort Study, the increase over a period of 18 years was largest for younger men, with total cholesterol increasing an average of 20 percent in men 20 to 24 years of age at baseline and 9.1 percent in men 35 to 39 years of age at baseline.⁶⁰ In women the pattern was in the opposite direction, at 9.8 percent for those 20 to 24 years of age at baseline and 16 percent for those 35 to 39 years of age at baseline. The proportion with cholesterol levels of 251 mg/dL or higher increased from 3 percent in men 20 to 24 years of age and 6 percent in women 20 to 24 years of age at baseline to 26 percent and 16 percent, respectively, 18 years later; and from 23 percent in men and 12 percent in women 35 to 39 years of age to 36 percent and 43 percent after followup. In the Tromso (Norway) Study, the tracking coefficient (a measure of the tendency of individuals to maintain their rank or position in a group over time) for HDL-C in men 20 to 38 years of age ranged from 0.52 to 0.56 and for women ranged from 0.51 to 0.62.⁶¹ The tracking coefficient was higher for total cholesterol, at 0.70 to 0.74 for men and 0.62 to 0.69 for women, and was lower for triglycerides, at 0.30 to 0.49 for men and 0.33 to 0.39 for women. Tracking was also higher for total cholesterol than triglycerides in younger adults in the Vorarlberg (Austria) Health Monitoring and Promotion Programme.⁶² A Spanish study of military recruits 20 years of age found that after 15 years, cholesterol increased an average of 68 mg/dL, LDL cholesterol 58 mg/dL, and HDL cholesterol -5.2 mg/dL.⁶³

Chapter 4. Discussion

Summary of Review Findings

As shown in **Table 1**, no study has evaluated the effects of screening versus no screening or treatment versus no treatment on clinical outcomes. In addition, no study evaluated the diagnostic yield of alternative screening strategies in younger adults (e.g., targeted screening of persons with a family history of hyperlipidemia versus general screening). Although some primary prevention trials have enrolled younger adults, ⁵³⁻⁵⁶ they comprised a small part of the population and results were not reported separately for this age group. In addition, because of the small numbers of cardiovascular events expected in this age group, even if the data were reported, the trials were probably underpowered to detect effects on clinical outcomes. Therefore, estimates of benefits of lipid-lowering therapies or lifestyle changes for dyslipidemia in younger adults require extrapolation from trials conducted in older populations. Even assuming that the relative benefits are the same for statins or other therapies in younger and older adults, the absolute benefits over the short-term (e.g., 5 to 10 years) would generally be lower in younger adults because of the lower incidence of CHD events. An exception may be young adults with familial hypercholesterolemia, who are at increased risk of CHD events at a younger age. However, the only study that compared effects of statins versus no statins for familial hypercholesterolemia enrolled persons with a mean age of 44 years and did not meet inclusion criteria⁵⁷

We also found no evidence on the incremental benefit of delayed versus earlier treatment. Earlier initiation of therapy might reduce risk of CHD events that occur later in life if the primary mechanism of lipid lowering therapy is regression of atherosclerosis. However, in trials of middle-aged and older populations, CHD event prevention appears to start within 1 to 2 years of statin initiation,⁶⁴ suggesting that long-term therapy started during early adulthood may not be required to experience benefits from treatment, which might be related in part to early plaque stabilization or other shorter-term effects.

Our findings are in accordance with prior USPSTF reviews,^{1,3} which also found no direct evidence on benefits or harms of screening or subsequent treatment in younger adults. Although individuals with familial hypercholesterolemia are at increased risk for early cardiovascular events, a factor limiting potential benefits for screening from this condition is that familial hypercholesterolemia is a low prevalence condition (estimated at 1 in 500 persons), and that even among this population the majority (85% to 90%) do not experience a CHD event prior to 40 years of age.^{28,29}

Longitudinal studies suggest that lipid levels have a tendency to increase over time in younger adults, ^{58,60} although no study evaluated how lipid levels changed according to different intervals between repeat testing, or the proportion of patients who would move from one risk category to another.

Limitations

The major limitation of this review is the lack of direct evidence in younger adults.

Emerging Issues/Next Steps

Statins have become the mainstay of lipid-lowering therapy. Although statins in middle-aged and older adults appear to be relatively safe, long-term adverse effects of statins (e.g., risk of developing diabetes) started in younger adulthood and taken for decades have not been well studied.

Relevance for Priority Populations

No evidence was identified for priority populations on the benefits and harms of screening or treatment for dyslipidemia

Future Research

Research is needed to understand effects of screening and treatment for dyslipidemia in younger adults. As very large, long-term trials would be required to evaluate screening of younger adults in the general population and may not be feasible, initial screening trials might target individuals with a family history of familial hypercholesterolemia or early CHD and initial treatment trials might target persons with highly elevated lipid levels (e.g., due to familial hyperlipidemia could be useful for understanding effects of treatment.⁶⁵ Trials of delayed versus immediate lipid lowering therapy in younger adults found to have dyslipidemia would also be helpful for understanding the effectiveness of earlier treatment, and studies are needed to understand harms associated with very long-term statin therapy.

Conclusions

Direct evidence on benefits and harms of screening or treatment for dyslipidemia in younger adults remains unavailable.

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Note: Numbers correspond to the Key Questions.

Abbreviations: CHD = coronary heart disease; CVA = cerebrovascular accident (stroke).

Main findings from prior		Lington	Ormeintenen	A He als life	Oursease of the diama	Overall
USPSTF reports	update	Limitations	Consistency	Applicability	Summary of findings	quality [⊺]
-		reening for dyslipid	demia in asympt	comatic adults ag	es 21 to 39 years on CHD- or CVA-related mo	rbialty or
mortality or all-cause mo No studies	No studies		I			
		- oning for dvalinida	-	- motio odulto ogo		-
Key Question 2. What are		ening for dyslipide	ania in asympto	matic adults age	S 21 to 39 years?	
No studies	No studies	-	-	-	-	-
		of alternative scre	ening strategies	s (e.g., universal	vs. risk-based screening) for dyslipidemia in	asymptoma
adults ages 21 to 39 year						
No studies	No studies	-	-	-	-	-
related morbidity or mort	ality or all-cause m				lipidemia in adults ages 21 to 39 years on CH	D- OI CVA-
related morbidity or mort No studies	ality or all-cause m No studies	ortality?	-	-	Although four trials of statins for primary prevention enrolled patients younger than 40 years of age, results were not reported separately for this subgroup and they comprised a small part of the population. One cohort study evaluated efficacy of statins in patients with familial hypercholesterolemia but the mean age at enrollment was 44 years.	-
related morbidity or mort No studies Key Question 5. What are	ality or all-cause m No studies	ortality?	-	-	Although four trials of statins for primary prevention enrolled patients younger than 40 years of age, results were not reported separately for this subgroup and they comprised a small part of the population. One cohort study evaluated efficacy of statins in patients with familial hypercholesterolemia but the mean age at	-
related morbidity or mort No studies Key Question 5. What are morbidity or mortality or	ality or all-cause m No studies e the benefits of de all-cause mortality	ortality?	-	-	Although four trials of statins for primary prevention enrolled patients younger than 40 years of age, results were not reported separately for this subgroup and they comprised a small part of the population. One cohort study evaluated efficacy of statins in patients with familial hypercholesterolemia but the mean age at enrollment was 44 years.	-
related morbidity or mort No studies Key Question 5. What are morbidity or mortality or No studies	Ality or all-cause m No studies the benefits of de all-cause mortality No studies	ortality? - layed versus imme ?	ediate treatment	- in adults ages 2 ⁴	Although four trials of statins for primary prevention enrolled patients younger than 40 years of age, results were not reported separately for this subgroup and they comprised a small part of the population. One cohort study evaluated efficacy of statins in patients with familial hypercholesterolemia but the mean age at enrollment was 44 years.	-
related morbidity or mort No studies	Ality or all-cause m No studies the benefits of de all-cause mortality No studies	ortality? - layed versus imme ?	ediate treatment	- in adults ages 2 ⁴	Although four trials of statins for primary prevention enrolled patients younger than 40 years of age, results were not reported separately for this subgroup and they comprised a small part of the population. One cohort study evaluated efficacy of statins in patients with familial hypercholesterolemia but the mean age at enrollment was 44 years.	-

39 years of age).

+ "Overall quality" is based on new evidence plus previously reviewed evidence.

Abbreviations: CHD= coronary heart disease; CVA= cerebrovascular accident (stroke).

Appendix A1. Search Strategies

Screening

Database: Ovid MEDLINE(R) without Revisions

- 1 exp Dyslipidemias/
- 2 Cholesterol/bl
- 3 Mass Screening/
- 4 (1 or 2) and 3
- 5 limit 4 to yr="2008 2015"
- 6 limit 5 to humans
- 7 limit 6 to English language
- 8 limit 6 to abstracts
- 9 7 or 8

Treatment

Randomized Controlled Trials and Controlled Observational Studies

Database: Ovid MEDLINE(R) without Revisions

- 1 exp Dyslipidemias/
- 2 Cholesterol, HDL/bl
- 3 Cholesterol, LDL/bl
- 4 Lipids/bl
- 5 Triglycerides/bl
- 6 or/2-5
- 7 Cardiovascular Diseases/pc
- 8 or/1-7
- 9 Hypolipidemic Agents/
- 10 Anticholesteremic Agents/
- 11 Hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA Reductase Inhibitors/
- 12 (atorvastatin or fluvastatin or lovastatin or pitavastatin or pravastatin or rosuvastatin or simvastatin).mp.
- 13 (lipitor or lescol or mevacor or livalo or pravachol or crestor or zocor).mp.
- 14 Gemfibrozil/
- 15 Fenofibrate/
- 16 Niacin/
- 17 or/9-16
- 18 Diet/ or Diet, Reducing/
- 19 Exercise Therapy/
- 20 Weight Loss/
- 21 (diet or exercise or lifestyle).ti,ab.
- 22 or/18-21
- 23 8 and (17 or 22)
- 24 23 and (random\$ or control\$ or cohort).ti,ab.
- 25 24 not (child\$ or pediatric\$ or adolescen\$ or teen\$).mp.
- 26 limit 25 to (English language and humans)
- 27 limit 26 to yr="2008 2015"

Database: Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials

- 1 exp Dyslipidemias/
- 2 Cholesterol, HDL/bl
- 3 Cholesterol, LDL/bl
- 4 Lipids/bl
- 5 Triglycerides/bl
- 6 or/2-5
- 7 Cardiovascular Diseases/pc
- 8 or/1-7

Appendix A1. Search Strategies

- 9 Hypolipidemic Agents/
- 10 Anticholesteremic Agents/
- 11 Hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA Reductase Inhibitors/
- 12 (atorvastatin or fluvastatin or lovastatin or pitavastatin or pravastatin or rosuvastatin or simvastatin).mp.
- 13 (lipitor or lescol or mevacor or livalo or pravachol or crestor or zocor).mp.
- 14 Gemfibrozil/
- 15 Fenofibrate/
- 16 Niacin/
- 17 or/9-16
- 18 Diet/ or Diet, Reducing/
- 19 Exercise Therapy/
- 20 Weight Loss/
- 21 (diet or exercise or lifestyle).ti,ab.
- 22 or/18-21
- 23 8 and (17 or 22)
- 24 limit 23 to yr="2008 2015"

Systematic Reviews

Database: Ovid MEDLINE(R) without Revisions

- 1 exp Dyslipidemias/
- 2 Cholesterol, HDL/bl
- 3 Cholesterol, LDL/bl
- 4 Lipids/bl
- 5 Triglycerides/bl
- 6 or/2-5
- 7 Cardiovascular Diseases/pc
- 8 or/1-7
- 9 Hypolipidemic Agents/
- 10 Anticholesteremic Agents/
- 11 Hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA Reductase Inhibitors/
- 12 (atorvastatin or fluvastatin or lovastatin or pitavastatin or pravastatin or rosuvastatin or simvastatin).mp.
- 13 (lipitor or lescol or mevacor or livalo or pravachol or crestor or zocor).mp.
- 14 Gemfibrozil/
- 15 Fenofibrate/
- 16 Niacin/
- 17 or/9-16
- 18 Diet/ or Diet, Reducing/
- 19 Exercise Therapy/
- 20 Weight Loss/
- 21 (diet or exercise or lifestyle).ti,ab.
- 22 or/18-21
- 23 8 and (17 or 22)
- 24 limit 23 to evidence based medicine reviews
- 25 limit 24 to (English language and humans)
- 26 limit 25 to yr="2008 2015"

Database: Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews

- 1 (lipid\$ or cholesterol).ti,ab.
- 2 1 not (child\$ or pediatric\$ or adolescen\$ or teen\$).mp.
- 3 limit 2 to full systematic reviews

	Include	Exclude
Population	KQs 1-3: Asymptomatic adults ages 21 to 39 years KQs 4-6: Adults ages 21 to 39 years with dyslipidemia	KQs 1-3: Adults with known dyslipidemia (primary or secondary) or prior CVD events KQs 4-6: Adults with prior CVD events
Diseases	Dyslipidemia (as defined according to clinical practice guidelines, levels above the 90th percentile for lipid components positively associated with CHD risk, or other specified criteria)	Lipid levels not meeting thresholds for dyslipidemia
Screening Interventions	Lipid panel (fasting or nonfasting lipid measurement: total or LDL cholesterol alone or in combination with HDL cholesterol, with or without measurement of other lipid markers)	Screening with family history onlyGenetic screening only
Screening Comparator	No screening or usual care delivered in a universal or selective screening strategy	Other comparators not listed as included
Treatment Interventions	Drug (e.g., statins) and lifestyle interventions (e.g., exercise and diet changes)	Other types of treatments not listed as included
Treatment Comparator	No treatment or usual care	Other comparators not listed
Outcomes	 KQs 1, 4, 5: CHD- and/or CVA-related morbidity or mortality; all-cause mortality KQ 2: Harms associated with the screening process (e.g., false-positives, false-negatives, psychosocial consequences such as anxiety, overdiagnosis, and others as identified in the literature) KQ 3: Diagnostic yield (true positives/number screened) KQ 6: Harms associated with drug treatment (e.g., myopathy, rhabdomyolysis, myalgia, cognitive loss, diabetes, elevations in liver function tests or creatine phosphokinase levels, and others as identified in the literature) 	 KQs 1, 4, 5: Outcomes not listed as included KQ 2: Adverse outcomes not associated with screening KQ 3: Outcomes not listed as included KQ 6: Other adverse outcomes not associated with drug treatment
Study Design	Randomized controlled trials, cohort studies, case- control studies, high-quality systematic reviews	Other study designs
Settings	 Publication date of 2008 to present; studies included in prior USPSTF reports Primary care or primary care–relevant 	Settings not generalizable to primary care; studies outside the stated timeframe

Abbreviations: CHD=coronary heart disease, CVA=cerebrovascular accident; CVD=cardiovascular disease, HDL=high density lipoprotein, KQ=Key Question; LDL=low density lipoprotein; USPSTF=United States Preventive Services Task Force.



*Cochrane databases include the Cochrane Central Register of Controlled Trials and the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews.

Wrong population
Wrong intervention
Wrong outcome
Wrong study design for Key Question
Not a study (letter, editorial, non-systematic review
article)
Wrong population: age >40 years
Wrong comparison

Key to Exclusion Codes

The Lipid Research Clinics Coronary Primary Prevention Trial results. I. Reduction in incidence of coronary heart disease. JAMA. 1984;251(3):351-64. Exclusion code: 3

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Appendix A5. U.S. Preventive Services Quality Rating Criteria

Criteria for Assessing Internal Validity of Individual Studies

The Methods Work Group for the US Preventive Services Task Force (USPSTF) developed a set of criteria by which the internal validity of individual studies could be evaluated. The USPSTF accepted the criteria, and the associated definitions of quality categories, that relate to internal validity at its September 1999 meeting.

This appendix describes the criteria relating to internal validity and the procedures that topic teams follow for all updates and new assessments in making these judgments.

All topic teams use initial "filters" to select studies for review that deal most directly with the question at issue and that are applicable to the population at issue. Thus, studies of any design that use outdated technology or that use technology that is not feasible for primary care practice may be filtered out before the abstraction stage, depending on the topic and the decisions of the topic team. The teams justify such exclusion decisions if there could be reasonable disagreement about this step. The criteria below are meant for those studies that pass this initial filter. Presented below are a set of minimal criteria for each study design and then a general definition of three categories: "good," "fair," and "poor," based on those criteria. These specifications are not meant to be rigid rules but rather are intended to be general guidelines, and individual exceptions, when explicitly explained and justified, can be made. In general, a "good" study is one that meets all criteria well. A "fair" study is one that does not meet (or it is not clear that it meets) at least one criterion but has no known "fatal flaw." "Poor" studies have at least one fatal flaw.

Systematic Reviews

<u>Criteria</u>:

Comprehensiveness of sources considered/search strategy used. Standard appraisal of included studies. Validity of conclusions. Recency and relevance are especially important for systematic reviews.

Definition of ratings from above criteria:

- *Good:* Recent, relevant review with comprehensive sources and search strategies; explicit and relevant selection criteria; standard appraisal of included studies; and valid conclusions.
- *Fair:* Recent, relevant review that is not clearly biased but lacks comprehensive sources and search strategies.
- *Poor:* Outdated, irrelevant, or biased review without systematic search for studies, explicit selection criteria, or standard appraisal of studies.

Randomized Controlled Trials and Cohort Studies

Criteria:

- Initial assembly of comparable groups:
 - For RCTs: adequate randomization, including first concealment and whether potential confounders were distributed equally among groups.

- For cohort studies: consideration of potential confounders with either restriction or measurement for adjustment in the analysis; consideration of inception cohorts.
- Maintenance of comparable groups (includes attrition, cross-overs, adherence, contamination).
- Important differential loss to follow-up or overall high loss to follow-up.
- Measurements: equal, reliable, and valid (includes masking of outcome assessment).
- Clear definition of interventions.
- All important outcomes considered.
- Analysis: adjustment for potential confounders for cohort studies, or intention to treat analysis for RCTs.

Definition of ratings based on above criteria:

- *Good:* Meets all criteria: Comparable groups are assembled initially and maintained throughout the study (follow-up at least 80 percent); reliable and valid measurement instruments are used and applied equally to the groups; interventions are spelled out clearly; all important outcomes are considered; and appropriate attention to confounders in analysis. In addition, for RCTs, intention to treat analysis is used.
- *Fair:* Studies will be graded "fair" if any or all of the following problems occur, without the fatal flaws noted in the "poor" category below: Generally comparable groups are assembled initially but some question remains whether some (although not major) differences occurred with follow-up; measurement instruments are acceptable (although not the best) and generally applied equally; some but not all important outcomes are considered; and some but not all potential confounders are accounted for. Intention to treat analysis is done for RCTs.
- *Poor:* Studies will be graded "poor" if any of the following fatal flaws exists: Groups assembled initially are not close to being comparable or maintained throughout the study; unreliable or invalid measurement instruments are used or not applied at all equally among groups (including not masking outcome assessment); and key confounders are given little or no attention. For RCTs, intention to treat analysis is lacking.

Case-Control Studies

<u>Criteria</u>:

- Accurate ascertainment of cases
- Nonbiased selection of cases/controls with exclusion criteria applied equally to both.
- Response rate.
- Diagnostic testing procedures applied equally to each group.
- Measurement of exposure accurate and applied equally to each group.
- Appropriate attention to potential confounding variables.

Definition of ratings based on criteria above:

Good: Appropriate ascertainment of cases and nonbiased selection of case and control participants; exclusion criteria applied equally to cases and controls; response rate equal to or greater than 80 percent; diagnostic procedures and measurements accurate and applied equally to cases and controls; and appropriate attention to confounding variables.

Appendix A5. U.S. Preventive Services Quality Rating Criteria

- *Fair:* Recent, relevant, without major apparent selection or diagnostic work-up bias but with response rate less than 80 percent or attention to some but not all important confounding variables.
- *Poor:* Major selection or diagnostic work-up biases, response rates less than 50 percent, or inattention to confounding variables.

Source: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Procedure Manual. Available at: http://www.uspreventiveservicestaskforce.org/uspstf08/methods/procmanual.htm. **Conrad B. Blum, MD** Professor of Medicine, Columbia University Medical Center

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