

Atherosclerosis development

Citation for published version (APA):

van Kuijk, K., Baker, A. H., & Sluimer, J. C. (2017). Atherosclerosis development: lipoproteins and beyond. *Current Opinion in Lipidology*, 28(6), 520-521. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MOL.0000000000000462>

Document status and date:

Published: 01/12/2017

DOI:

[10.1097/MOL.0000000000000462](https://doi.org/10.1097/MOL.0000000000000462)

Document Version:

Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

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Atherosclerosis development: lipoproteins and beyond

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Even the most sceptical cardiovascular scientists can now rest assured: LDL demonstrates a causal relationship to atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (CVD) [1^{••}]. A combined dataset of meta-analyses of over 200 cohort-based, mendelian randomization, and randomized trials covering 2 million subjects, followed for more than 20 million person years with more than 150 000 major adverse cardiovascular events (MACEs) showed 1) a dose-dependent linear relationship between LDL-c levels and MACE, and 2) if LDL plasma particles are reduced without off-target effects, the risk of MACE is reduced. This is timely news in light of recent clinical outcomes concerning a new type of LDL-lowering compound, proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9 (PCSK9) antibody inhibitors, such as evolocumab, bococizumab, and alirocumab [2–4]. These antibodies prevent degradation of the LDL receptor, lower plasma LDL by ~60% on top of statin treatment, and associated MACE by 15% (reviewed in [5]). Although this represents one of the most effective and fastest developments in recent years, it remains that 74 patients need to be treated with evolocumab to prevent one major event. This leaves considerable room for new therapeutic approaches. This could possibly be provided by anti-inflammatory treatment, such as IL1- β inhibitor canakinumab, clinical results of which are eagerly awaited at ESC 2017 [6,7]. Nevertheless, more insight in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis is still warranted and a welcome recommendation on the design, execution, and reporting of murine atherosclerosis studies will ensure reproducibility of animal pathogenesis studies and, hopefully, improve translation of mechanisms to human disease [8,9^{••}].

Growing evidence points toward the highly plastic nature of vascular smooth muscle cells (SMCs) [10–12], endothelial cells [13], and macrophages [14] in the development of experimental atherosclerosis. Adding to recent insights on plaque macrophages originating, at least partly, from cholesterol-loaded SMC [10–12], recent papers now report on a reciprocal transition between adventitial progenitors and plaque-residing SMCs [15[•],16^{••}]. Majesky *et al.* show evidence to support SMCs as

the source of a subpopulation of adventitial progenitors [16^{••}], while previous reports support the reverse transition [15[•]].

In addition, the contribution of proliferation and clonal expansion of resident vessel wall cells receives increasing attention. Chappell *et al.* show conclusively that Acta2⁺ and MAC3⁺ SMC populations in lesions can arise from a subset of Myh11⁺ SMCs visualized by multicolor lineage labelling in mice [17^{••}]. However, Gomez and Owens addressed some further clarifications that are needed in their accompanying editorial, concerning clonal expansion versus clonal selection and the mechanistic contribution of such defined populations to SMC function and lesion development, necessitating further research [18[•]].

Related to clonal expansion, two studies now show compelling evidence that an ageing-associated mutation of TET2 in bone marrow can cause clonal hematopoiesis and accelerate murine atherosclerosis [19[•],20^{••}]. Moreover, patients with otherwise unexplained clonal hematopoiesis have a two-fold higher risk of coronary heart disease [20^{••}]. As this mutation is associated with early-onset myocardial infarction, monitoring of clonal expansion and mutation analysis might improve current risk prediction.

The amount of factors influencing plaque progression is still greatly underestimated and further research into key mechanisms including cell plasticity and clonal expansion is still needed. New therapy strategies to combine with existing therapies could greatly improve patient treatment.

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Curr Opin Lipidol 2017, 28:520–521

DOI:10.1097/MOL.0000000000000462

Acknowledgements

None.

Financial support and sponsorship

J.C.S. is funded by the Dutch heart foundation (2016T060) and member of a transatlantic network of excellence funded by the Leducq foundation. A.H.B. is supported by the British Heart Foundation as Chair of Translational Cardiovascular Sciences and the European Research Council.

Conflicts of interest

None.

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- of special interest
- of outstanding interest

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FURTHER RECOMMENDED READING

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