

## Atherosclerotic Plaque and its Effects on Humans

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### Abstract

Metabolism plays a crucial role in regulating immune system functions. The range of plaque-resident myeloid cells that make up this review will be discussed, with a focus on their metabolic requirements and their intraplaque location. Key questions about the characteristics of plaque resident myeloid cells and their role in disease progression can be answered by defining their metabolic configuration in relation to their topologic distribution.

**Keywords:** Glucose; Atherosclerosis; Monocyte; Macrophage; Foamy cells; Immuno metabolism

### Introduction

A chronic inflammatory condition known as atherosclerosis is characterized by the accumulation of immune cells and lipids in the inner layers of blood vessels. According to the World Health Organization, atherosclerosis is the root cause of cardiovascular events like myocardial infarctions and strokes, which account for 17.9 million deaths annually worldwide. In conditions like hypercholesterolemia and dyslipidemia, the development of atherosclerotic plaque is preferred. It develops when intima-resident macrophages absorb additional lipids and form foam cells [1]. The steady inflow of monocytes from the blood circulation that fuels plaque macrophage accumulation is the foundation for subsequent plaque development [1]. Myelopoiesis, plaque macrophage proliferation, and efferocytosis have been identified as crucial factors defining both the development and regression of atherosclerosis by advancements in the field of atherosclerosis over the past two decades. More recently, it became clear that immune cell metabolism has an impact on these parameters. The development pattern of the atherosclerotic lesion defines a complicated microenvironment, at least partially. Close to the lumen, newly recruited monocytes are highly mobile cells. On the other hand, macrophages are sessile and can be found deeper within the plaque [2], where necrotic cores form and particular vitamins might be scarce. Based on the cell's intra-plaque localization, metabolic availability appears to be an additional potential regulator of plaque myeloid mobile metabolism and functions. The metabolic regulation of macrophage characteristics and inflammatory plaque properties is the subject of this article.

Pioneering research carried out in pre-clinical fashions and human subjects detected the presence of immune cells in atherosclerotic lesions. Multiple immune cells consisting of T cells, each CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup>, B cells, macrophages, monocytes and dendritic cells (DC) had existed in plaques [3-7]. These early reviews used immunostaining and microscopy to determine the mobile composition of the plaque. The fundamental problem of this science is the confined wide variety of markers that ought to be concurrently used to precisely outline the particular nature of plaque-residing cells. More recently, glide cytometry analysis, offering the possibility to significantly prolong the range of membrane markers simultaneously investigated, validated that plaque mobile composition was once more complex than in the beginning described. The presence of tertiary lymphoid organs, buildings enriched in T cells that increase in the vessel adventitia adjoining to plaques [8], may want to additionally make contributions to plaque immune cell contamination in float cytometry analyses.

Indeed, this method does not supply insights about the unique intra-plaque localization of the diverse immune cells. Intra-tissue localization is necessary considering the fact that it could have an effect on oxygen and metabolites furnish and consequently on immune telephone metabolism and activation country inside the plaque.

Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA seq) analyses similarly enriched our understanding about the phenotypic range of mouse and human plaque-residing immune cells [1, 9-13]. These research published that plaque mobile composition was once impressively complicated and contained many numerous myeloid and lymphoid cells. Macrophages had been the most abundant cells in the plaque. Several wonderful macrophage and monocyte subsets have been recognized in the plaque of atherogenic (LdlR<sup>-/-</sup> and ApoE<sup>-/-</sup>) mice and patients. Initially described as a key function of superior lesions, foamy macrophages, a populace of lipid-laden cells, were attributed a pro-inflammatory position mediated by means of the launch of cytokines and chemokines [14,15]. This dogma was once challenged when scRNA seq analysis established that monocytes and inflammatory macrophages, rather than foamy cells, had been enriched in mRNA encoding for pro-inflammatory mediators inclusive of il1 $\beta$ , il12, tnfa, ccl2 and cxcl2 [10].

Two predominant mechanisms account for lesion boom relying on the plaque stage development. Early lesions are frequently sustained through monocyte recruitment from the blood circulation and their nearby retention. In contrast, in superior plaques, in situ macrophage proliferation favors plaque development [12]. Whether these two strategies require a precise metabolic rewiring and count number on different metabolic pathways stays to be established. Macrophage intraplaque proliferation correlates with plasma lipoprotein ranges. Lowering plasma lipid stages and genetic ablation of lipoprotein uptake receptors in macrophages (Msr1 and CD36) lowered plaque macrophage proliferation fee [13]. However, the underlying molecular and metabolic mechanisms continue to be unknown. A latest find out about the use of multi-isotope imaging mass spectrometry discovered

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that plaque proliferating cells used preferentially glucose in evaluation to neighboring non-proliferating cells [15]. Surprisingly, foamy cells had been distinctly glucose consuming and this used to be correlated with extended proliferation. This remark is instead shocking due to the fact foamy cells are characterised by massive lipid accumulation, and they rather categorical genes associated with lipid metabolism. Whether glucose or lipids serve as the fundamental strength supply for foamy cells stays to be defined. To higher apprehend the metabolic configuration of plaque resident myeloid cells and foamy cells in particular, this set of records may want to be complemented the use of a new flow cytometry-based method named SCENITH that has currently been described [2]. This strategy gives insights into cell metabolic status with a single-cell resolution, permitting the evaluation of multiple cell kinds contained in a given sample. Although this approach requires relatively low numbers of cells, the evaluation of quiescent or over-stressed aortic cells after tissue digestion should be challenging.

Heterogeneity and metabolic manage of macrophages and monocytes during atherosclerosis. Metabolism emerged as a central regulator of macrophage and monocyte functions. Indeed, metabolic diversifications modulate key macrophage features along with cytokine production, efferocytosis and phagocytosis (for overview). In vitro studies, the usage of either interleukine-4 (IL-4) or lipopolysaccharide (LPS)/interferon (IFN)  $\gamma$  stimulation led to mimicry of precise macrophage activation states (M1 and M2). These easy fashions had been largely used to define macrophage metabolic adaptation to exterior stimuli.

Anti-inflammatory (M2-like) macrophages show off a mitochondrial oxidative metabolism whilst pro-inflammatory (M1-like) macrophages are characterised by way of a glycolytic metabolism. More than simply another polarization marker, metabolic rewiring is a key participant in these differentiations, and interfering with glucose flux or mitochondrial fitness prohibits M1 and M2 polarization respectively. Nevertheless, whilst such in vitro polarization fashions have fruitfully introduced ahead the significance of metabolism in immune phone selection processes, their translation to telephone selections interior complicated environmental prerequisites is not straightforward.

The expression of canonical M1 or M2 macrophages was shared by

one or both populations of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory macrophages in athermanous plaque, as demonstrated by recently generated scRNA-seq datasets (Figure 1). Plaque-resident macrophages exhibited a greater prevalence of canonical M2 markers (*mrc1*, *clec10a*, and *mg12*) than M1 markers (*cd11c*, *il1*, and *ccl2*). Surprisingly, the transcriptomic signature of M2-like macrophages, which are thought to be anti-inflammatory, was pro-inflammatory. The mRNAs encoding pro-inflammatory cytokines (*il1*, *tnf*) and chemokines (*ccl2*, *cxcl2*, and *cxcl1*) were highly expressed in these cells. The CANTOS trial perfectly demonstrated the clinical significance of inflammation, specifically IL-1, in cardiovascular diseases. Due to the limited local presence of IL-4 and IL-13, the surprising abundance of M2-like macrophages in the plaque. The concentration of IL-4 and IL-13 in plaques are both below the detection limit. In a similar vein, *LdlR*<sup>-/-</sup> mice's atherosclerosis development was unaffected by myeloid-specific IFN receptor deficiency, suggesting that IFN has little effect on plaque macrophage phenotype. In vitro studies of the effect of metabolites on the activation of macrophages have been attempted. An activated phenotype with characteristics of both M1 and M2 polarization was observed in macrophages stimulated with a combination of insulin, glucose, and palmitate, as reported by Kratz and colleagues. These phones were named "metabolically initiated macrophages" and showed upgraded articulation of the fiery cytokines TNF $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$  and IL-6. M2-associated lipid metabolism-related genes were induced in metabolically activated macrophages, whereas M2 markers were unaffected globally. As a result, it's possible that during plaque initiation and progression, locally available metabolites and metabolic reprogramming induced by M1/M2-polarizing cytokines could contribute to a specific and spatially defined metabolism and activation state of macrophages. 1.3. Macrophage activation is mediated by metabolites and associated pathways in 1.3.1. The metabolism of glucose and cellular carbohydrate plays a crucial role in the functional adaptation of macrophages. Spearheading work uncovered M1-and M2-like macrophage explicit glucose motions into the two significant pathways of cell starch digestion, in particular glycolysis and the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP). Glycolysis uses glucose to make energy in the form of ATP and important intermediates that can be used as substrates for other metabolic pathways. This includes pyruvate, which can be further transformed into lactate or Acetyl-CoA, two important metabolites for the metabolic adaptations of macrophages. Another example is the

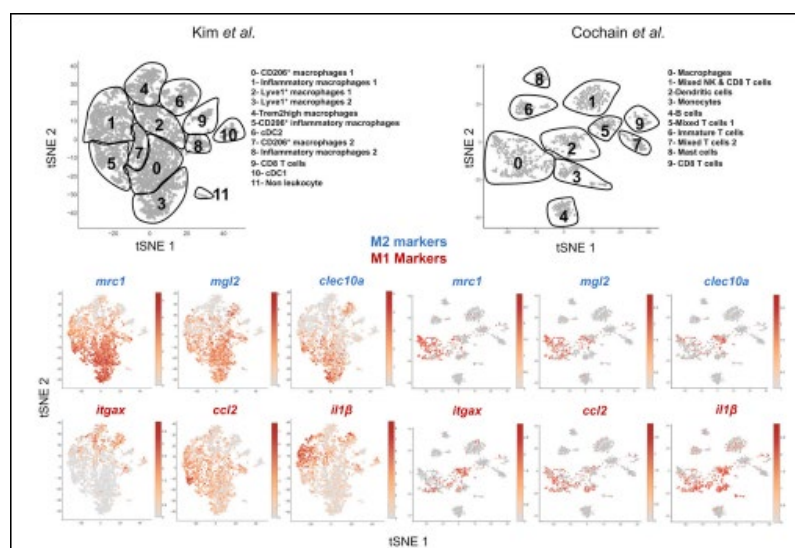


Figure 1: Single-cell analysis of plaque immune cell activation markers.

regulation of epigenetic reprogramming during macrophage activation by glycolysis-derived serine generation, which maintains cellular one-carbon metabolism. In order to maintain macrophage functions like ROS handling and anti-oxidative protection by the generation of reduced glutathione, glucose utilization by the PPP is essential for generating the necessary redox power through the formation of NADPH. Because it functions similarly to ATP as a universal energy carrier that is utilized by numerous enzymes throughout the metabolic networks of cells, NADPH is also an essential cofactor for lipid metabolism and other branches of metabolism. Likewise, redox-toughy protein motioning during macrophage actuation is subject to PPP action. Pentose molecules are another characteristic of the PPP; these molecules can either be reconverted into glycolytic intermediates in the PPP's non-oxidative branch or used as precursors for nucleotide metabolism. The distribution and function of important enzymes involved in these two pathways to the development of atherosclerosis were the subject of a recent comprehensive discussion. One basic component for this metabolic framework in macrophages, and in resistant cells by and large, is glucose take-up interceded by the layer carrier Glut1 (slc2a1) and resulting phosphorylation via carb kinases. The functional significance of Glut1-mediated glucose uptake was demonstrated by the selective Glut1 ablation that resulted in compromised glucose entry, despite the fact that it has been hypothesized that macrophages express several members of the Glut family. Increased glucose metabolism and Glut1 expression are seen in macrophages during inflammatory conditions, particularly atherosclerosis. Molecule-specific Glut1 deficiency has a significant impact on glycolysis and the PPP, decreasing metabolite content. Interestingly, when compared to control cells, Glut1 deficiency increased the level of some metabolites in the aforementioned pathways, including 2- and 3-phosphoglycerate. This suggests that compensatory pathways were able to generate metabolic blocks in glycolysis and the PPP independently of extracellular glucose and restore, at least partially, the absence of glucose entry in macrophages. However, plaque necrotic core area was increased and efferocytosis was impaired as a result of Glut1-macrophage deletion. In addition to efferocytosis, it is unknown whether monocyte plaque recruitment and local proliferation are affected by myeloid-cell specific Glut1 deletion. It is currently unknown whether glucose metabolism influences CCR2 expression, the essential chemokine receptor that facilitates monocyte recruitment into the expanding plaque. Understanding the role of Glut1-mediated glucose flux in disease progression or prevention will be improved with this information. In addition, it was demonstrated that glucose metabolism enhanced blood monocyte counts by enhancing bone marrow hematopoiesis and monocyte generation. Management of normal blood monocyte levels is a therapeutic option because monocytosis, or high circulating monocyte numbers, is an independent risk factor for the development of atherosclerosis. Efferocytosis efficiency and the development of the necrotic core may also be adversely affected by interfering with

macrophages' cellular glucose metabolism. The balance of glycolysis and PPP, which appears to adapt during immune activation to meet specific metabolic demands of the cells promptly, is another important aspect of glucose utilization by macrophages. In macrophages, their interfaces appear to be highly regulated, and these two pathways share crucial intermediates, making them highly interconnected. Glycolytic flux is increased when M1 activated macrophages express isoform 3 of 6-phosphofructo-2-kinase B (PFKFB3). Glycolysis is slowed down and glucose utilization is shifted toward the PPP when PFKFB3 is missing. Guidelines of chemical exercises shaping the oxidative part of the PPP are basic for incendiary initiation of macrophages, as freely displayed for G6PD or for PDG during hypercholesterolemia [2].

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