

EDITORIAL

CHOLESTEROL, CYTOKINES AND DISEASES

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Received June 10, 2011 – Accepted July 28, 2011

A high level of cholesterol is associated with obesity, cardiovascular diseases and atherosclerosis. Immune response in atherosclerosis is mediated by chemokines which attract monocytes, leading to the innate immune response characterised by the production of cytokines. The immunoregulatory cytokines are an important bridge between innate and adductive immunity. TH1 cytokines are involved as effector T cells in inflammatory response, while TH2 cytokines can be anti-inflammatory such as IL-10 and IL-4. It is well known that statins enhance the production of TH2 cytokines whereas the secretion of TH1 cytokines is suppressed. For this purpose, we studied the significance of anti-inflammatory effect and suppression of inflammation by statins. In this paper we revisited the role of cholesterol and cytokines IL-18, IL-10, IL-12, TNF- α , interferon- γ , and chemokines in inflammatory diseases.

Elevated cholesterol (lipids) is associated with obesity and an increased risk of heart attack. Cholesterol can be lowered by diet and/or medication in most patients. The main underlying pathology of cardiovascular disease, the formation of atherosclerotic lesions, can be described as a chronic inflammatory disease that proceeds in the context of enhanced plasma lipid levels (1-6). The inflammatory component of atherosclerosis can be divided into an innate immune response involving monocytes and macrophages that respond to the

excessive uptake of (modified) lipoproteins, and an adaptive immune response that involves antigen-specific T cells. The innate immune response in atherosclerosis is initiated by the response of arterial endothelial cells to modified lipoproteins, which leads to their activation and the production of chemokines that attract monocytes to the site of injury where monocytes take up (modified) lipoproteins, and the subsequent foam cell formation leads to an innate immune response characterized by the production of chemokines and interleukins (ILs).

Key words: cholesterol, cytokines, inflammation, chemokines

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The local production of these mediators enhances the influx of new immune cells and promotes the progression of the atherosclerotic lesion.

The adaptive autoimmune response is a complex response of the entire body and is not restricted to the actual site of injury, the atherosclerotic lesion, but also involves the activation of B and T cells within the lymphoid organs that drain from the atherosclerotic lesions. The B and T cells respond to antigens presented by dendritic cells that have migrated from the lesion to the lymph nodes. This may lead to the production of antibodies specific for the aforementioned antigens by B cells under the control of T-helper (Th) cells (1-6).

Immune cells are the gate keepers that detect cellular damage and initiate a response allowing our body to defend against 'offending' insults.

Endogenous danger signals are from intracellular or secreted extracellular products; some are constitutive, whereas others are inducible and require either neosynthesis or modifications before they can activate the innate immune system. Atherosclerosis is characterized by a chronic inflammatory state in which interplay between metabolic factors and cytokines leads to stimulation of the innate immune system when these signals are detected as a danger.

Circulating leukocytes adhere poorly to the normal endothelium under normal conditions. When the endothelium becomes inflamed, however, it expresses adhesion molecules that bind cognate ligands on leukocytes. Selectins mediate a loose rolling interaction of leukocytes with the inflammatorily-activated endothelial cells. Integrins mediate firm attachment. Chemokines expressed within atheroma provide a chemotactic stimulus to the adherent leukocytes, directing their diapedesis and migration into the intima, where they take residence and divide.

The immunoregulatory cytokine that favours the development of an effector Th1 cell phenotype and IL-12 forms an important bridge between the innate and adaptive immunity. The Th1 cytokines involved in the effector T-cell response aggravate atherosclerosis, whereas Th2 cytokines, such as IL-10, are anti-atherosclerotic.

The rationale to develop additional therapies that aim to diminish the inflammatory response in atherosclerosis is the fact that more than a decade

of cholesterol-lowering via statin therapy has successfully reduced the incidence of death from cardiovascular disease (CVD), but still a large percentage of individuals treated with statins suffer from cardiovascular complications.

Macrophages augment the expression of scavenger receptors in response to inflammatory mediators, transforming them into lipid-laden foam cells following the endocytosis of modified lipoprotein particles. Macrophage-derived foam cells drive lesion progression by secreting proinflammatory cytokines. T lymphocytes join macrophages in the intima and direct adaptive immune responses. These leukocytes, as well as endothelial cells, secrete additional cytokines and growth factors that promote the migration and proliferation of SMCs. In response to inflammatory stimulation, vascular SMCs express specialized enzymes that can degrade elastin and collagen, allowing their penetration into the expanding lesion. Endothelial cells (ECs) normally resist leukocyte adhesion.

Interleukin-18

Human preadipocytes of all differentiation stages spontaneously secrete IL-18, supporting the concept that adipocytes participate in innate immunity and that IL-18 mediates a fraction of the complications of obesity such as cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes (7). Importantly, IL-18 release from adipocytes of obese patients exceeds approximately 3-fold that from adipocytes of non-obese donors (7). Increased concentrations of IL-18 associate with a significantly increased risk of developing type 2 diabetes in middle-aged men and women after adjustment for classic risk factors such as age, body mass index, systolic blood pressure, and physical activity (8). In addition, IL-18 may predict development of the metabolic syndrome, with concentrations rising in parallel to increasing numbers of metabolic risk factors (9-13).

IL-18 is not currently considered a useful screening tool for the presence of subclinical atherosclerosis in the general population, on the basis of results from 2 large independent imaging studies (14-17). However, in the AtheroGene study, IL-18 serum concentration independently predicted cardiovascular death in patients with documented

coronary artery disease (18). In this patient population, those within the highest quartile of IL-18 had a 3.3-fold increase in hazard risk compared to those in the first quartile (18). In addition, data from the Prospective Epidemiological Study of Myocardial Infarction (PRIME) demonstrate an independent association between baseline plasma IL-18 concentration in healthy middle-aged men and future coronary events (19-21). This association remains after adjustment for classic cardiovascular risk factors. These studies suggest that IL-18 measurement may add prognostic information to lipid and inflammatory markers in patients with or without clinically established atherosclerotic disease.

Chemoattractant factors, which include monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 produced by vascular wall cells in response to modified lipoproteins, direct the migration and diapedesis of adherent monocytes (22-23). Monocytic cells directly interacting with human ECs increase monocyte matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP-9) production several fold, allowing for the subsequent infiltration of leukocytes through the endothelial layer and its associated basement membrane (24-26). Within the intima, monocytes mature into macrophages under the influence of macrophage colony-stimulating factor, which is overexpressed in the inflamed intima (27-30). Macrophage colony-stimulating factor stimulation also increases macrophage expression of scavenger receptors, members of the pattern-recognition receptor superfamily, which engulf modified lipoproteins through receptor-mediated endocytosis.

T cells, representing the adaptive arm of the immune response, also play a critical role in atherogenesis, entering lesions in response to the chemokine-inducible protein-10, monokine induced by IFN- γ , and IFN-inducible T cell chemoattractant (31). The CD4⁺ subtype, which recognizes antigens presented as fragments bound to major histocompatibility complex class II molecules, predominates in the lesion. Interestingly, human lesions contain CD4⁺ T cells reactive to the disease-related antigens associated with oxidized LDL (32). The atherosclerotic lesion contains cytokines that promote a T-helper 1 response, inducing activated T cells to differentiate into T-helper 1 effector cells (33-35). These cells amplify the local inflammatory activity by producing proinflammatory cytokines

such as IFN- and CD40 ligand (CD40L, CD154), which contribute importantly to plaque progression. Adiponectin also directly affects the function of endothelial cells, reducing VCAM-1 expression and macrophages, decreasing the expression of scavenger receptors and the production of TNF- α (36-40).

Foam cell accumulation characterizes fatty streaks, whereas deposition of fibrous tissue defines the more advanced atherosclerotic lesion. Smooth muscle cells (SMCs) synthesize the bulk of the extracellular matrix that characterizes this phase of plaque evolution (41). In response to platelet-derived growth factor released by activated macrophages and endothelial cells, and silent plaque disruptions that lead to clinically unapparent mural thrombi, SMCs migrate from the tunica media into the intima via degradation of the extracellular matrix mediated by MMP-9 and other proteinases (42-44). In the intima, SMCs proliferate under the influence of various growth factors and secrete extracellular matrix proteins, including interstitial collagen, especially in response to transforming growth factor- β and platelet-derived growth factor. This process causes the lesion to evolve from a lipid-rich plaque to a fibrotic and, ultimately, a calcified plaque that may create a stenosis.

Human atheromata express IL-18 and increased concentrations of its receptor subunits, IL-18R/ β (45-48). IL-18 occurs predominantly as the mature 18-kD form and colocalizes with mononuclear phagocytes, while ECs, SMCs and macrophages all express IL-18R/ β . Importantly, IL-18 signaling evokes essential effectors involved in atherogenesis, e.g., adhesion molecules (VCAM-1), chemokines (IL-8), cytokines (IL-6), and matrix metalloproteinases (MMP-1/-9/-13). In addition, IL-18, particularly in combination with IL-12, is a proximal inducer and regulator of the expression of IFN- γ , a major proinflammatory cytokine, during atherogenesis. Interestingly, IL-18 induces IFN- γ expression not only in T cells (49-53), but also in macrophages and, surprisingly, even in SMCs, thus activating in a paracrine mode several proinflammatory pathways operating during atherogenesis (54-57).

One study showed that a high-fat meal increases IL-18 concentrations and decreases adiponectin concentrations in both non-diabetic and diabetic subjects, and a high-carbohydrate high-fiber meal,

decreases IL-18. The high-carbohydrate low-fiber meal significantly decreases adiponectin concentrations in diabetic subjects, whereas IL-8 concentrations are not affected.

In another study, a 4-week consumption of 30 g/d of alcohol from red wine led to a significant decrease in serum concentrations of hsCRP (21%), as well as endothelial adhesion molecules (vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 [VCAM-1], ICAM-1) in healthy adult men. Also, most of the studies have reported effects on CRP, whereas few have focused on pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β , IL-6, or TNF- α . Future research needs to focus on the role of specific dietary factors on biomarkers of inflammation, because they may modulate inflammation through different mechanisms. Therapeutic lifestyle changes remain the cornerstone in modulating inflammation and cardiovascular disease and much further research is needed to define the anti-inflammatory or pro-inflammatory effects of specific dietary factors.

Immunization against endogenous proteins in atherosclerosis has been applied to cytokines. As outlined, Th1 cytokines such as TNF- α , IFN- γ and IL-12 play a pro-atherogenic role. More recent studies have, however, shown that a deficiency in TNF- α reduces atherosclerosis (58-61), whereas treatment with TNF blockers is associated with a lower incidence of first cardiovascular events in patients with rheumatoid arthritis (RA) (62-65). TNF neutralization therapy is accompanied by increased HDL-cholesterol levels and decreased C-reactive protein and IL-6 levels after 2 weeks of treatment (66), but prolonged therapy affects lipoprotein profiles in a pro-atherogenic fashion (67-70).

TNF- α is a pivotal cytokine in the pathogenesis in RA and TNF- α blockade has been shown to be very effective in controlling disease activity. TNF- α antagonists, frequently in combination with methotrexate, appear to be the most effective anti-rheumatic drugs and the data available to date do not indicate major safety problems.

At present, three anti-TNF α blockers are available for clinical use. Infliximab is a chimeric mouse/human anti-TNF α monoclonal antibody and binds to soluble as well as membrane-bound TNF α . Infliximab is intravenously administered, and after the initial infusion it is given at two, six and then

every 8 weeks. Etanercept consists of two human TNF- α receptors linked to each other and binds to circulating as well as cell-bound TNF- α molecules. Etanercept is given subcutaneously once or twice weekly. Adalimumab is a human immunoglobulin (Ig) G1 antibody and is administered subcutaneously once every two weeks.

There is an increasing number of reports regarding the effects of treatment with tumor necrosis factor (TNF) blocking agents on the lipid profile in RA patients with active disease. These investigations with TNF blocking agents reveal a transient increase of total cholesterol and HDL-C, mostly accompanied with improvement of the atherogenic index, during the first few months of the TNF blocking agents.

Immunization against IL-12 is accomplished by administering a complex of IL-12 with a T-cell epitope in combination with a water-soluble adjuvant. This immunization induces antibodies that functionally block IL-12, and specifically diminishes the induction of IFN- γ by IL-12 in vaccinated mice (71-75). The blockade of IL-12 by the vaccination of LDL receptor-deficient mice results in strongly reduced (70%) atherogenesis accompanied by a strong, beneficial reduction in circulating IFN- γ levels and expression in the lesion itself and an increase in plaque stability.

A recent study in which IFN- γ was blocked by the administration of a soluble interferon receptor also shows that interruption of the IFN- γ pathway inhibits the initiation and progression of atherosclerosis (76-79). The effect on plaque stability is explained by the observation that blockade of IL-12 may diminish the recruitment of T cells into the plaque (80-83).

Chemokine pathways

Annexin V and lamin A were potently decreased by homocysteine in HUVEC cells. Annexin V is an anti-thrombotic molecule. Mutations in nuclear lamin A result in perturbations of plasma lipids associated with hypertension. Genistein reversed the homocysteine-induced decrease of these anti-atherogenic proteins. Ox-LDL treatment increased ubiquitin conjugating enzyme 12, a protein involved in foam cell formation.

ET-1 is elevated in rats with genetically determined hypertension (84) and in hypertensive patients (85-88). Besides their vasoconstrictive

properties, endothelins stimulate the production of cytokines, growth factors (including vascular endothelial growth factor, VEGF) and extracellular matrix proteins (89-92). Furthermore, endothelins enhance neutrophil adhesion and platelet aggregation, and are chemotactic for monocytes/macrophages.

A number of studies during the past year have implicated an important role of Tregs in atherosclerosis (93-95). Tregs can counteract effector T cells and activation of Tregs may form an attractive new immunotherapy for atherosclerosis.

The main subsets of Tregs are CD4⁺CD25⁺Foxp3⁺ T cells (natural Tregs), type 1 Tregs and Th3 cells (adaptive Tregs) that may acquire Foxp3 expression in the periphery, and all these types of Tregs are essential for the maintenance of peripheral tolerance (93-96). Natural Tregs are thymus-derived, express the transcription factor forkhead box p3 (Foxp3) combined with the surface receptors cytotoxic lymphocyte-associated antigen 4 and the glucocorticoid-induced TNF receptor family-related gene (GITR), and mainly prevent autoimmunity. Type 1 Tregs regulate immune responses in transplantation, allergy and autoimmunity. The regulatory function of natural Tregs is mainly mediated by cell-cell contact via surface-bound transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β) and cytotoxic lymphocyte-associated antigen 4 (97), whereas type 1 Tregs and Th3 cells rely on soluble IL-10 and TGF- β , respectively, for their suppressive activity. The Treg subsets, type 1 Treg and Th3 cells, can be enhanced by nasal or oral tolerance induction, respectively.

A final class of immune cells that modulate atherosclerosis is NKT cells, which respond to lipid antigens. NKT cells express an invariant T-cell receptor composed of V α 14 and J α 18 subunits paired with a restricted set of V β chains. NKT cells recognize (glyco)lipid antigens presented by CD1d expressed on macrophages and dendritic cells (98-103). Upon recognition of a glycolipid antigen, invariant NKT cells rapidly produce a unique mixture of cytokines, including Th1 (IFN- γ , IL-12 and TNF- α) and Th2 (IL-4, IL-5, IL-10 and IL-13) cytokines (104-106). NKT cells can be activated by the *in-vivo* administration of α -galactosylceramide, and mature NKT cells respond with an early burst of IL-4 followed by IFN- γ , which are both pro-atherogenic cytokines (107-109). Repeated activation of NKT cells induces

an adaptive immune response polarized towards Th2 cytokines, which may be protective against experimental autoimmune diseases (110-113). NKT cells have so far been identified as pro-atherogenic: apoE^{-/-} or LDLr^{-/-} mice crossed with CD1d^{-/-} mice (NKT cell deficient) exhibit a 25% reduction in lesion size and NKT cell activation by treatment with α -galactosylceramide or OCH (a sphingosine-truncated analogue of α -galactosylceramide) in apoE^{-/-} mice results in an increased lesion size (114). NKT cells are found in the aortic arch of atherosclerosis-prone mice fed a western-type diet, and NKT cells have been identified in human lesions in the shoulder of the lipid core and in the fibrous cap (115), especially in close connection with dendritic cells. It was recently shown that the transfer of spleen-derived NKT cells from V α 14J α 18 T-cell receptor transgenic mice resulted in a 73% increase in lesion area (116). Interestingly, VanderLaan et al. (117) also demonstrated that an endogenous serum lipid carried by lipoproteins activates the NKT cells, which may provide a possibility to intervene in the recognition or level of this lipid and to modulate atherosclerosis.

A cluster of hormonal, metabolic, and cytokine changes that promote inflammation and chronic disease, including diabetes and CVD, accompany the accumulation of excess adipose tissue, particularly with adiposity of the visceral compartment.

Patients consuming the Mediterranean-style diet had higher intake of fruits, vegetables, nuts, whole grains, and olive oil in comparison to the control group. These patients showed a concomitant decrease in serum concentrations of hsCRP and cytokines (IL-6, IL-7, and IL-18, P<0.05), and decreased insulin resistance compared with the control group.

Statins

Competitive inhibitors of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase (statins) act at a rate-limiting step in cholesterol synthesis by strongly blocking conversion of HMG-CoA to mevalonate. Inflammatory processes play a crucial role in the initiation and progression of atherosclerosis and coronary heart disease such as myocardial infarction. Endothelial dysfunction with vascular injury in response to cardiovascular

risk factors is initiated by the migration of leukocytes, including monocyte/macrophages and T lymphocytes. Adhesion molecules, proinflammatory cytokines, and chemokines mediate the extravasation of inflammatory cells.

Within atherosclerotic sites, endothelial cells and leukocytes both have increased their expression of numerous adhesion molecules and their receptors, including intracellular adhesion molecule-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule-1, β_1 -integrin, β_2 -integrin and P-selectin (118-121). *In vivo* studies (122-123) have shown that blocking these adhesion molecule interactions by the administration of antibodies or gene targeting attenuates the formation of atherosclerotic lesions, indicating a potential therapeutic role for inhibition of leukocyte adhesion and extravasation. *In vitro* studies demonstrate the beneficial effects of statins by decreasing adhesion molecules, such as monocyte CD11b and the leukocyte function antigen-1 (124).

Furthermore, statins suppress the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines including IL- β and IL-6, but not TNF- α . These results support human studies suggesting that statins decrease the number of inflammatory cells in atherosclerotic plaque (125). Nitric oxide (NO) plays a crucial role in mediating this anti-inflammatory action.

The new statin, rosuvastatin, has significant anti-inflammatory effects via inhibition of P-selectin synthesis by endothelial cells. The protective action of the statin is mediated by vascular endothelial NO (126). Rosuvastatin has no effect on leukocyte-endothelium interactions in endothelial NOS nitric oxide synthase (eNOS)-deficient mice, emphasizing the important role of NO in anti-inflammation. Thus, increased NO production by statins could explain the modulation of these leukocyte-endothelium interactions. The suppression of inflammation by statin treatment reduces the production of high-sensitivity CRP, a clinical marker of inflammation produced by the liver in response to proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 (127). CRP expression is elevated in patients with coronary heart disease. Patients who clinically benefit from statin therapy also have abnormally elevated CRP concentrations (127). As statins decrease CRP concentrations in serum (127). Statin use would contribute to the prevention and remission of inflammatory diseases. Thus, statins

have beneficial effects as immunosuppressors after cardiac transplantation (128). Multiple sclerosis is believed to develop when the body's immune cells, such as T-helper cells, attack myelin, the insulating, fatty sheath around nerve cells. This damages the myelin and the underlying neurons in both the brain and spinal cord, leading to impaired transmission of nerve impulses and progressive physical disability. Youssef et al (2002) found that atorvastatin inhibits the expression by brain cells of a pivotal regulatory protein CIITA, which regulates the expression of MHC-II molecule (129).

Statins up-regulate eNOS expression (130-133), stimulate endothelial NO production (134) and increase the supply of the NO substrate L-arginine (135), important in cardiac function. In an animal study using magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) post-myocardial infarction (MI) to assess remodelling, the effect of cerivastatin on attenuating hypertrophy after MI was completely abrogated by NOS inhibition (136-138). Statins are also known to inhibit mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK), and to interfere with cellular proliferation (139-141), the integrity of the actin cytoskeleton and the induction of matrix proteins (142-143), all important in the development of heart failure.

The antifibrotic effects of statins are likely to be very important in the beneficial effects on mortality post-MI. Connective tissue growth factor (CTGF; also known as CCN2) is a profibrotic inducer of matrix proteins activated by the profibrotic factors transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) and AngII (144). This has been shown to be reduced with statins (145).

A major effect of statins on fibrosis is via its effect on the expression of the nuclear transcription factor NF- κ B, a controller of gene encoding cytokines, chemokines, interferons, MHC proteins, growth factors, cell adhesion molecules and viruses, which is activated by hypoxia and hyperglycaemia. Lastly, the pro-angiogenic properties of statins and their effects on re-endothelialization following vessel injury are many, and statins have been shown (146) to induce new blood vessel growth in ischaemic limbs in a manner similar to vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), an important effect in cardiac disease post-ischaemia.

Statins effectively repress the induced MHC-II

protein and gene expression by IFN- γ and, thus, act as direct repressors of MHC-II-mediated T-cell activation, whereas statins do not affect constitutive expression of MHC-II in APC, such as dendritic cells (DCs) and B lymphocytes.

It has also been shown that statins selectively block the β -2 integrin, leukocyte function antigen-1 (LFA-1) (147). Leukocyte function antigen-1 is constitutively expressed in an inactive state on the surface of leukocytes. In response to several stimuli, including the T-cell receptor cross-linking with MHC-II complex, LFA-1 binds to intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) and provides a potent costimulatory signal for activated T cells. The inhibitory effect of statins on LFA-1 is unrelated to the inhibition of HMG-CoA reductase, but occurs via the binding to a novel allosteric site within LFA-1 (148). Thus, statin-induced immunosuppression can also be related to the inhibition of LFA-1/ICAM-1 interaction.

Non-lipid related functions of statins might implicate a regulation of many different inflammatory molecules. Beneficial effect of statins could also be due to the type of immune response they induce. In a murine model of autoimmune encephalomyelitis, atorvastatin induced secretion of T_H2 cytokines (IL-4, -5, and -10) and transforming growth factor β (TGF- β), whereas secretion of T_H1 cytokines (IL-2, IL-12, IFN- γ , and TNF- α) was suppressed (129). It has been shown that lovastatin induced a reduction in T-cell proliferation and a decrease in IFN- γ production, whereas it had no effect on T_H2 cytokine production. In a patient with no known cardiovascular disease, pravastatin reduced proinflammatory cytokine production (148); furthermore, in a recent study, it has been observed that, whereas it has no effect on T_H2 cell functions, atorvastatin can reduce T_H1 development in patients with acute myocardial infarction, suggesting that reduction of T_H1 bias may be one of the mechanisms through which atorvastatin improves heart function after acute myocardial infarction. Taken together, these animal and human findings suggest that statins regulate T_H1/T_H2 imbalance both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Thus, all these observations could explain the beneficial effect of statins in atherosclerosis because it has been shown that the T_H2 cytokines have anti-atherogenic properties, and their overexpression

protects against atherosclerosis.

Statin-induced shift to a T_H2 immune response

Statins enhance secretion of T_H2 cytokines such as IL-4, IL-5, IL-10, and TGF- β , whereas secretion of T_H1 cytokines IL-2, IL-6, IL-12, IFN- γ , and TNF- α is suppressed by statins. Increasing evidence suggests a central role for the CD40-CD40L signaling pathway in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis (149), and it has been shown that blocking CD40-CD40L interactions significantly prevents the development of atherosclerotic plaques and reduces pre-established lesions (150). Moreover, CD40 signaling has been implicated in other chronic disorders such as rheumatoid arthritis, multiple sclerosis, and allograft rejection after organ transplantation (151). CD40 acts as costimulatory molecule to enhance T-cell activation by DCs. Dendritic cells are APCs with a unique ability to initiate a primary immune response. The activation of T cells by DCs requires the maturation of DCs with the upregulation of costimulatory molecules, such as CD40, and MHC-II molecules. A recent study that demonstrates the colocalization of DC and T cells, as well as the expression of MHC-II and costimulatory molecules on DCs in atherosclerotic plaques, suggests that DCs initiate an antigen-specific immune response, contributing to the progression of atherosclerosis (152). Yilmaz et al. (2004) recently showed that, in contrast to non-treated DCs, statin-pretreated DCs exhibited an immature phenotype and a significantly lower expression of the maturation-associated markers, CD40 and MHC-II molecules. The authors also showed that statins significantly reduced the ability of cytokine-stimulated DC to induce T-cell proliferation (153).

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