

## Research Article

# Identification of Macrophage Genotype and Key Biological Pathways in Circulating Angiogenic Cell Transcriptome

Bert R. Everaert <sup>1,2</sup>, Steven J. Van Laere,<sup>3</sup> Robrecht Lembrechts,<sup>1</sup> Vicky Y. Hoymans <sup>2</sup>, Jean-Pierre Timmermans,<sup>1</sup> and Christiaan J. Vrints<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laboratory of Cell Biology and Histology, University of Antwerp, Antwerp, Belgium

<sup>2</sup>Laboratory of Cellular and Molecular Cardiology, Antwerp University Hospital, Edegem, Belgium

<sup>3</sup>Translational Cancer Research Unit, Oncology Center, St-Augustinus Hospital, Wilrijk, Belgium

Correspondence should be addressed to Bert R. Everaert; [berteveraert@me.com](mailto:berteveraert@me.com)

Received 22 August 2018; Revised 14 January 2019; Accepted 13 February 2019; Published 2 May 2019

Academic Editor: Tao-Sheng Li

Copyright © 2019 Bert R. Everaert et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

**Background.** Circulating angiogenic cells (CAC) have been identified as important regulators of vascular biology. However, there is still considerable debate about the genotype and function of CAC. **Methods and Results.** Data from publicly available gene expression data sets were used to analyse the transcriptome of *in vitro* cultured CAC (CAC<sub>iv</sub>). Genes and pathways of interest were further evaluated using qPCR comparing CAC<sub>iv</sub> versus CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytic cells. The CAC<sub>iv</sub> transcriptome strongly related to tissue macrophages, and more specifically to regulatory M2c macrophages. The cytokine expression profile of CAC<sub>iv</sub> was predominantly immune modulatory and resembled the cytokine expression of tumor-associated macrophages (TAM). Pathway analysis revealed previously unrecognized biological processes in CAC<sub>iv</sub>, such as riboflavin metabolism and liver X receptor (LXR)/retinoid X receptor (RXR) and farnesoid X receptor (FXR)/retinoid X receptor (RXR) pathways. Analysis of endothelial-specific genes did not show evidence for endothelial transdifferentiation. **Conclusions.** CAC<sub>iv</sub> are genotypically similar to regulatory M2c macrophages and lack signs of endothelial differentiation.

## 1. Background

Endothelial progenitor cell (EPC) therapy is an appealing strategy for the treatment of cardiovascular diseases. The concept of EPCs dates back to a landmark study published in 1997 by Asahara et al. [1], who isolated a ‘putative progenitor endothelial cell’ that could be found within the CD34<sup>+</sup> mononuclear blood cell fraction. These EPCs were able to differentiate *in vitro* into an endothelial phenotype and induce neovascularization *in vivo*. After more than a decade of vigorous research, during which the early findings of Asahara et al. have been extended, the dogma that postnatal neovascularization relies solely on the proliferation, migration and remodeling of fully differentiated endothelial cells, has been largely revised. Nowadays, neovascularization is considered to be a dynamic process in which local endothelial cell proliferation and circulating progenitor cells join forces to engage in the restoration of tissue perfusion.

However, there is still considerable debate about the phenotype and function of EPCs and much of the uncertainty is caused by a high degree of confusion about the definition of EPCs. First of all, over the years, different culture protocols have emerged, all claiming to produce EPCs from peripheral blood mononuclear cells. Furthermore, a variety of molecular marker combinations have been advocated for the characterization of circulating EPCs. Obviously, the ambiguity that surrounds the term ‘EPC’ has not facilitated the understanding and advancement of EPC biology.

In the present article, we have investigated an EPC subtype that has been renamed as circulating angiogenic cell (CAC) [2], early EPC [3] or early pro-angiogenic cell (EPC) [4]. For clarity reasons, we will use the term CAC<sub>iv</sub> for these *in vitro* cultured blood-derived mononuclear cells. The potential use of these cells to aid in the restoration of impaired neovascularization has been investigated [5]. We used gene expression profiling and transcriptome analysis

to identify the  $CAC_{iv}$ -specific gene signature, to determine the  $CAC_{iv}$  cytokine-cytokine receptor fingerprint and to investigate the biological processes that are important in  $CAC_{iv}$  biology. This approach is not unprecedented, since, for instance in oncology, genetic profiling has revolutionized tumor characterization and yielded new insights into tumor biology [6]. Using transcriptome analysis, several groups were able to make considerable progress in redefining the relationships between the different culture-derived EPC subtypes and other hematopoietic and mesodermal lineage populations. For instance, EPCs cultured with the culture protocol of Hill et al. [7] could be requalified as T-lymphocytes on the basis of their gene signature [8].

In the present paper, we provide evidence that  $CAC_{iv}$  strongly relate to tissue macrophages, and more specifically to regulatory M2 macrophages, without evidence for endothelial transdifferentiation.

The cytokine expression profile is predominantly immune modulatory and resembles the cytokine expression of tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs). Pathway analysis has revealed previously unrecognized biological processes in  $CAC_{iv}$ , such as riboflavin metabolism and liver X receptor (LXR)/retinoid X receptor (RXR) and farnesoid X receptor (FXR)/retinoid X receptor (RXR) pathways. Together, our findings provide novel insights into the field of CAC biology.

## 2. Methods

**2.1. Ethics Statement.** The data that is reported in this manuscript used publicly available published data sets from other studies. The data collected from GSE2040 involved cell cultures of human volunteers and the data obtained from GSE5099 involved cell material from blood donor buffy coats. Both studies were in compliance with the Helsinki Declaration on research involving human subjects, human material or human data and under the approval of an appropriate local ethics committee. For a qPCR study of  $CAC_{iv}$ , we collected blood of healthy volunteers. The  $CAC_{iv}$  culture protocols were reviewed and approved by the local ethics committee of the Antwerp University Hospital (EC number 12/10/101). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

**2.2. Microarray and Pathway Analysis.** To develop the  $CAC_{iv}$  gene signature, a publicly available gene expression data set (GSE2040) (HG-U95Av2 microarray (Affymetrix Inc.), see supplementary data file (available here)), targeting 9,670 human genes as selected from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Gene Bank database, was retrieved from the NCBI website (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>). This gene expression data set contained 3 gene expression profiles of  $CAC_{iv}$  and 3 gene expression profiles of CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes, all of which were included in the analysis. Raw expression data were normalized using GCRMA and probe sets with a fluorescence intensity above 100 in at least 25% of the arrays were filtered for further analysis. The gene signature was generated using the nearest shrunken centroid method implemented in the R-package Prediction Analysis of Microarrays (PAM). Using a leave-one-out

cross-validation procedure, a  $\delta$ -value was selected in such a way that the misclassification error rate was minimal. The global clustering pattern of the  $CAC_{iv}$  signature genes was evaluated using unsupervised hierarchical clustering (UHC) with the Euclidean distance as distance measure and complete linkage as the dendrogram drawing method. Using the global test [9] we evaluated global differences in expression for probe sets annotated to the KEGG pathway 'cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction' (map04060) between  $CAC_{iv}$  and CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes.

The Ingenuity Pathways knowledge base Analysis (IPA) (Ingenuity® Systems, <http://www.ingenuity.com>) software was used to identify biological networks, functions and canonical pathways important to  $CAC_{iv}$  biology. To appreciate the genetic resemblance of the  $CAC_{iv}$  gene expression profile in relation to other cell types of interest (i.e., macrophages, monocytes, endothelial cells), the expression of  $CAC_{iv}$  signature-related genes was analyzed using the Reference database for gene Expression Analysis (RefExA, <http://www.lsbm.org/database>), together with an extensive review of the literature.

The following strategy was adopted to evaluate the possible macrophage genotype of cultured  $CAC_{iv}$ . A microarray data set (GSE5099, HG-U133A (Affymetrix Inc.), see supplementary data file) including a total of 44928 entries representing more than 33,000 human genes containing expression data on the differentiation of monocytes into macrophages, and of macrophages into an M1 or M2 macrophage subtype was downloaded from Gene Expression Omnibus (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo>). Raw expression data were normalized using GCRMA and probe sets with a fluorescence intensity above 100 in at least 25% of the arrays were filtered for further analysis. Using PAM, we generated gene centroids for the monocyte, macrophage, M1 macrophage and M2 macrophage cell fractions. The leave-one-out cross-validation procedure was used to select a  $\delta$ -value in such a way that the misclassification error rate was minimal. The centroids were applied onto the GSE2040 data set using the nearest centroid classification routine. Samples were classified by correlating the centroid-specific gene expression profile of each sample in the data set with the shrunken centroids generated by the PAM algorithm. Positive correlation coefficients indicate resemblance of the tested sample to the cell fraction represented by the centroid. Mann-Whitney  $U$  tests were used to compare the resulting correlation coefficients between  $CAC_{iv}$  and monocytes.

To evaluate the degree of resemblance between  $CAC_{iv}$  and endothelial cells, we retrieved an endothelial-specific gene list reported by Bhasin et al. [10]. We used UHC analysis (Euclidean distance, complete linkage) to assess global differences between  $CAC_{iv}$  and endothelial cells with respect to the endothelial-specific gene list. In addition, we calculated the average gene expression of the endothelial-specific genes and compared this level between  $CAC_{iv}$  and CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes to evaluate whether a difference in expression existed between both cell types with respect to the set of endothelial-specific genes.

The data that is reported in this manuscript used publicly available published data sets from other studies. The data

collected from GSE2040 involved cell cultures of human volunteers and the data obtained from GSE5099 involved cell material from blood donor buffy coats. Both studies were in compliance with the Helsinki Declaration on research involving human subjects, human material or human data and under the approval of an appropriate local ethics committee.

**2.3. Cell Isolation and Cell Culture.** Mononuclear cells were extracted out of blood specimens of healthy volunteers ( $n = 4$ ) by density gradient centrifugation using lymphocyte separation medium (Lonza). The CD14<sup>+</sup> cell fraction was isolated by using CD14 MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec) according to the manufacturer's instructions. CAC<sub>iv</sub> were cultured out of the mononuclear cell fraction of blood specimens of healthy volunteers ( $n = 4$ ) according the method first described by Dimmeler et al. [4] In brief, 10<sup>6</sup> mononuclear cells were plated on human fibronectin-coated 24-well culture dishes and maintained in EBM-2 basal medium with EGM-2-MV SingleQuots and 20% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Lonza). After 3 days in culture, nonadherent cells were removed by washing with PBS and adherent cells were further incubated in fresh medium until day 7. Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC) were purchased from Lonza and cultured in EBM-2 basal medium with EGM-2 SingleQuots for 14 days ( $n = 2$ , technical replicates). Cells from passage 6 and 7 were used.

**2.4. RNA Extraction and Quality, cDNA Synthesis.** RNA was isolated using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. On-column DNase treatment (Qiagen) was used to remove contaminating DNA leftovers. RNA concentration and purity were analyzed using Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Nanodrop technologies) readings at 260 and 280 nm. Complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized using Invitrogen superscript kit according to the manufacturer's instructions and using random hexamer primers for reverse transcription. Reverse transcription was performed at 50°C for 55 minutes, followed by 5 minutes of incubation at 85°C to inactivate the reverse transcriptase enzyme. cDNA samples were placed on ice and stored at -20°C until further use.

**2.5. qPCR.** Taqman® gene expression assays (Applied Biosystems) were used for qPCR analysis on a LightCycler® 480 instrument (Roche). All primers were designed to be intron spanning. qPCR was performed using the LightCycler® Taqman® Master Mix (Roche) in a final reaction volume of 20 µl. We used the geNorm algorithm to determine an optimal combination of reference genes for internal normalization (i.e., *GAPDH* and *HPRT*). All qPCR reactions were carried out as follows: after an initial denaturation-activation step at 95°C for 10 min, amplifications consisted of 45 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 10s, annealing at 60°C for 15s and measurement of fluorescence at 72°C for 1s. Cycle number (Cq) was measured using the baseline-independent second derivative maximum method. Normalized relative gene expression was determined by the E<sup>-ΔΔCq</sup> method. Assay efficiency (E) was measured by serial dilution

of cDNA of pooled samples based on the slope of the standard dilution curve ( $E = 10^{(1/-\text{slope})-1}$ ).

**2.6. Statistical Analysis.** Statistical analysis was performed in PASW® statistics 18 (IBM Corp.). Graphs were created in GraphPad Prizm®. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Student's t-test was used for statistical analysis of relative expression data after logarithmic transformation because of non-normality of data subsets. A two-sided *p*-value of <0.05 indicated statistical significance.

### 3. Results

**3.1. CAC<sub>iv</sub> Gene Signature Closely Resembles M2 Macrophage Transcriptome, with Little Evidence of Endothelial Cell Transdifferentiation.** We composed a gene signature that discriminates between CAC<sub>iv</sub> and CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes using a publicly available gene expression data set (GSE2040) that has previously been used to investigate the neovascularization capacity [11] and production of cytokines by CAC<sub>iv</sub> [12] and to validate the proteomic characterization of CAC<sub>iv</sub> [4]. Using the nearest shrunken centroid method, we identified 70 genes that were significantly upregulated versus 107 genes that were significantly downregulated in CAC<sub>iv</sub> versus CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes ( $\delta = 2.85$ , misclassification error rate = 0) (Figure 1).

Comparison of the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature with the cell specific expression data in the RefExA database yielded abundant evidence for macrophage-associated gene expression or genes that were related to monocyte/macrophage differentiation, such as *GPNMB*, *APOE*, *APOC1*, *ACP2* and *CYP27A1*. In total, 43 of the 70 CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature genes showed to be highly expressed and/or specific for macrophages. Considering the downregulated genes, repression of the monocytic lineage transcriptome was evident (e.g. *RGS2*, *NR4A2*, *FCN1*, *IL1B* and *SELL*). Furthermore, the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature revealed the upregulation of several genes associated with the differentiation and function of DCs (*CD40*, *MARCO*, *FZD2*, *LILRB4* and *LGMN*) and osteoclasts (*ACP5*, *CTSK*, *LPXN*, *ATP6V1A* and *MITF*) (Figure 2).

Interestingly, the expression profile of the CAC<sub>iv</sub> evidenced a high resemblance to that of 'alternatively activated' M2 macrophages, and more specifically to the M2c subtype that is induced by the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL10 and is characterized by the upregulation of CD163 and CCL18 [13]. Both *CD163* and *CCL18*, together with other markers specific for M2 differentiation of macrophages, such as *SLCO2B1*, were identified in the CAC gene signature. The upregulation of the M2c trait was further substantiated with qPCR gene expression analysis of *CD163*, *CCL18* and *SCLO2B1* in CAC<sub>iv</sub> from healthy volunteers compared to CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes and HUVEC (Figure 3(a)).

Additionally, the expression of M1 inflammatory macrophage differentiation markers, such as *ATF3*, *IL1B* and *CCL3*, was found to be significantly downregulated in the microarray data. Interestingly, we identified several genes in the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature that are known to be implicated in lipid processing (*PLTP*, *NRIH3*) and plaque remodeling by atherosclerotic plaque-associated macrophages (*CTSK*, *LGMN*

Symbol	M	Φ	Mo														
GNPMB	*			TMEM63A				COL6A2				ARL4A			CDC42		*
APOE	*			CYB5A				EGR1				HHLA1			PSPHL		
NUPR1				CCL18	*			HNRNPA1				SMARCD3			BCL6		*
DFNA5				VSIG4		*		SFRS16				JUND			NR4A1		
FUCA1				GPR137B				APOBEC3B				PTP4A2			SCO2		*
LILRB4	*			ZFYVE26	*			NAMPT				BCL11A			CRIP1		
RGL1				GPRASP1				TNNT1				BCL2L11			QPCT	*	
VWA5A				ATP6V0A1		*		BHLHE40				CD52			CD83		
ACP2	*			VEGFB				ABHD5				CD44			RASGRP2		
RNASEH2B				MTSS1				CCDC69				LILRA3	*		ADORA1		
PLTP				ATP6V1A	*			SIK1				EIF1			FOS		*
CYP27A1	*			SLC7A8		*		NRGN				SEC23IP			PTGS2		
CD163				CD40				MCL1				BCL2A1	*		C15orf39		
RNASE1				ADORA3				JUNB	*			S100A4	*		S100A12		*
APOC1	*			MITF	*			SON				P2RY2			DUSP1		*
ACP5	*			TLR5	*			NA				VCAN			MTMR11		
SLCO2B1				CTSA				CD69				TMEM8B			SH2B2		
CTSK				DAB2	*			RGS1				S100A9	*		GOS2		
DDIT4				TDRD3	*			TULP1				RUNX1			ZFP36		*
PARG				HES2				CDKN1A	*			CDKN1C			CCL3		*
PLA2G7	*			YP2F1				ELF4				NA			FOLR3		
CMKLR1				GLA	*			HMHA1				MTRF1L			LGALS2		*
AMPD3				MARCO	*			MEF2D				OSM			STK17B		*
PLD3	*			CYP1B1		*		EREG				MAP2K3			PPP1R15A		
LGMN				PSEN1				RARA				HBEGF		*	MXD1		
FZD2				RARRES1				NLRP1				ACVR1B			NFE2		*
LPXN				LHFPL2	*			SLC11A1	*			C17orf91			FOSB		
ENPP2				RIN2				IER2				FMNL1	*		DUSP2		*
NR1H3				HIVEP2				MAP3K14				CFP			SELL		*
ACOT13				SNX1		*		KBTBD11				CDKN2D			IL1B		*
MERTK				KDM6A				IL1RN	*			KCNQ1			NIACR2		
IQGAP2				IL7R		*		STX11	*			SLCO3A1	*		ATF3		*
ABCC5				PLXNC1	*			PTGES				ASGR2			FCN1		*
SLC31A1	*			HSD17B4	*			OLFM1				KLF6	*		NR4A2		*
MYO7A				SEC22B		*		DUSP6	*			SERPINA1	*		RGS2		*
								ICAM3	*			NFIL3	*				

FIGURE 1: CAC<sub>iv</sub> gene signature. 70 genes were significantly upregulated versus 107 genes were significantly downregulated in CAC<sub>iv</sub> versus CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytic cells. The upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) genes express a close lineage relationship with macrophages and monocytes, respectively. We highlighted those genes of the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature that are specific for either macrophages or monocytes. \*: very specific. M $\phi$ : macrophage; Mo: monocyte.

and VSIG4), and additionally observed repression of several genes regulating transformation of macrophages into foam cells (RGS2, NR4A2 and S100A12).

To elaborate further on the resemblance of the M2 macrophage genotype and the transcriptome of cultured CAC<sub>iv</sub>, we used a microarray data set (GSE5099) on the differentiation of monocytes into macrophages, and of macrophages into the M1 or M2 macrophage subtype (macrophages cultured for 18 h with LPS and IFN- $\gamma$  or IL4, respectively). We found that the CAC<sub>iv</sub> expression profile was discordant with the monocytic cell signature ( $p = 0.001$ ) but significantly correlated with the signature of macrophages ( $p = 0.011$ ). Concerning M1 versus M2 differentiation, CAC<sub>iv</sub> exhibited a predominant M2 expression profile (Figure 4).

Surprisingly, however, our CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature revealed little to no evidence for endothelial cell (EC) differentiation. We compared the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature to the RefExA database and two published data sets of endothelial restricted genes [10, 14]. Except for RNASE1, we found no evidence for induction of endothelial-specific gene expression in the CAC<sub>iv</sub>. Furthermore, comparison of the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature to a published gene signature of tumor-derived endothelium (ovarian carcinoma) yielded only one tumoral vascular marker, GPNMB, which was upregulated in both profiles [15]. qPCR analysis of freshly cultured CAC<sub>iv</sub> from healthy volunteers confirmed RNASE1 and VEGFB upregulation in CAC<sub>iv</sub> versus CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes and HUVEC. However

TIE-2 (TEK) expression pertained exclusively to HUVEC whereas both CAC<sub>iv</sub> and CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes failed to show any TIE-2 expression (Figure 3(b)). This finding restricts CAC<sub>iv</sub> from transdifferentiating into the endothelial cell lineage.

To investigate whether the CAC<sub>iv</sub> transcriptome showed higher resemblance to endothelial cells than CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes, we performed UHC analysis using an endothelial cell-specific gene set (derived from [10]) to cluster CAC<sub>iv</sub> versus CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes. Overall, CAC<sub>iv</sub> did not demonstrate higher differentiation capacity towards the endothelial profile compared to CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes (Figure 5). RNASE1, also present in the EC signature, stood out in both the UHC and qPCR analysis as highly upregulated gene. This is interesting and may point to an important function of this gene in CAC biology.

Together, these findings do not seem to support the hypothesis that CAC<sub>iv</sub> give rise to cells with an endothelial genotype, but would rather suggest that CAC<sub>iv</sub> closely resemble M2c macrophages.

**3.2. CAC<sub>iv</sub> Express a Cytokine Profile Compatible with Regulatory M2 Macrophages and TAM.** To gain further insight into CAC<sub>iv</sub> biology, we investigated their cytokine and cytokine receptor expression. Using a global test, we evaluated differences in cytokine-cytokine receptor expression for genes annotated to the KEGG pathway 'Cytokine-

Symbol	Mφ	Mo	EC	DC	Ocl	Full name
GPNMB	*					Glycoprotein (transmembrane) nmb
APOE	*					Apolipoprotein E
DFNA5						Deafness, autosomal dominant 5
LILRB4	*					Leukocyte immunoglobulin-like receptor
ACP2	*					Acid phosphatase 2, lysosomal
PLTP						phospholipid transfer protein
CYP27A1						cytochrome P450, family 27, subfamily A, polypeptide 1
CD163						CD163 molecule
RNASE1						Ribonuclease pancreatic
APOC1	*					Apolipoprotein C-1
ACP5	*					Acid phosphatase 5, tartrate-resistant
SLCO2B1						Solute carrier organic anion transporter family, member 2B1
CTSK						Cathepsin K
PLA2G7	*					Phospholipase A2, group VII (platelet-activating factor acetylhydrolase, plasma)
CMKLR1						Chemokine-like receptor 1
AMPD3						Adenosine monophosphate deaminase 3
PLD3	*					Phospholipase D family, member 3
LGMN						Legumain
FZD2						Frizzled homolog 2 (Drosophila)
LPXN						Leupaxin
ENPP2						Ectonucleotide pyrophosphatase/phosphodiesterase 2
NRIH3						Nuclear receptor subfamily 1, group H, member 3
MERTK						C-mer proto-oncogene tyrosine kinase
IQGAP2						IQ motif containing GTPase-activating protein 2
ABCC5						Multidrug resistance-associated protein 5
SLC31A1	*					Solute carrier family 31 (copper transporters), member 1
CCL18	*					Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 18 (pulmonary and activation-regulated)
VSIG4						V-set and immunoglobulin domain-containing 4
ZFYVE26	*					Zinc finger, FYVE domain-containing 26
ATP6V0A1						ATPase, H <sup>+</sup> transporting, lysosomal V0 subunit a1
MTSS1						Metastasis suppressor 1
ATP6V1A	*					ATPase, H <sup>+</sup> transporting, lysosomal 70 kDa, V1 subunit A
SLC7A8						Solute carrier family 7 (amino acid transporter, L-type), member 8
CD40						CD40 molecule, TNF receptor superfamily member 5
ADORA3						adenosine A3 receptor
MITF	*					Microphthalmia-associated transcription factor
TLR5	*					Toll-like receptor 5
DAB2	*					Disabled homolog 2, mitogen-responsive phosphoprotein (Drosophila)
TDRD3	*					Tudor domain containing 3
GLA	*					Galactosidase, alpha
MARCO	*					Macrophage receptor with collagenous structure
CYP1B1						Cytochrome P450, family 1, subfamily B, polypeptide 1
PSEN1						Presenilin 1
LHFPL2	*					Lipoma HMGIC fusion partner-like 2
RIN2						Ras and Rab interactor 2
HIVEP2						Human immunodeficiency virus type I enhancer-binding protein 2
SNX1						Sorting nexin 1
IL7R						Interleukin 7 receptor
PLXNC1						Plexin C1
HSD17B4						Hydroxysteroid (17-beta) dehydrogenase 4
SEC22B						SEC22 vesicle trafficking protein homolog B ( <i>S. cerevisiae</i> ) (gene/pseudogene)

FIGURE 2: Expression of CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature related genes in myeloid cells. To demonstrate the lineage relationships between CAC<sub>iv</sub> and other cell types, we highlighted those genes of the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature that were found to be significantly upregulated and also specific for a particular cell type. \*: very specific for macrophages. Mφ: macrophage; Mo: monocyte; EC: endothelial cell; DC: dendritic cell; Ocl: osteoclast.

cytokine receptor interaction' and were able to demonstrate clear differences in interleukin, chemokine and chemokine receptor expression between CAC<sub>iv</sub> and monocytes. Monocytes exhibited a classical inflammatory genotype, with expression of inflammatory cytokines, such as IL1β, (IL6), IL8, (IL12α), IL12β and TNF (Figure 6(a)). CAC<sub>iv</sub>, on the other hand, showed significant upregulation of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL10 and the matrix remodeling,

pro-angiogenic cytokine IL23α. Increased *IL10* expression combined with reduced expression of inflammatory cytokines, is characteristic of the M2c macrophage subtype, in the literature referred to as regulatory macrophages [16].

CAC<sub>iv</sub> significantly expressed the chemokines CCL2 and CCL18 (Figure 6(b)). Other chemokines, such as CCL17 and CCL22, showed a trend towards increased expression in CAC<sub>iv</sub>. Interestingly, the chemokine combination of

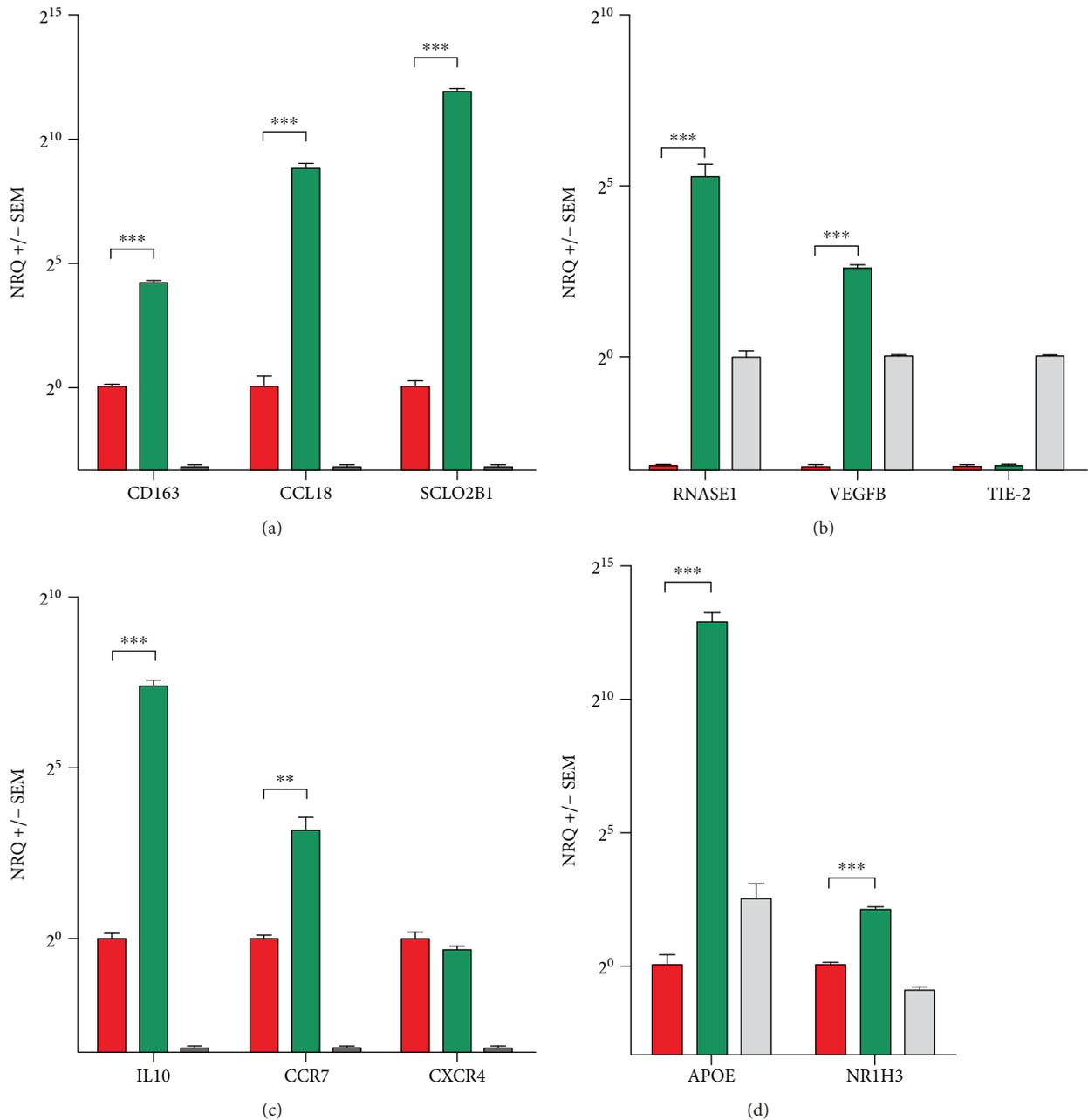


FIGURE 3: Gene expression analysis. Gene expression of (a) M2c macrophage-related, (b) endothelial, (c) cytokine/cytokine receptor and (d) cholesterol transporter pathway genes in CAC<sub>iv</sub> (green) vs. CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes (red) vs. human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC) (grey). Only the relevant statistical significance between CAC<sub>iv</sub> and CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes is depicted. NRQ: normalized relative quantity. \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ .

CCL17, CCL18 and CCL22, is a cluster that has been associated specifically with the M2 macrophage profile. However, because *CCL17* and *CCL22* expression did not reach statistical significance, this association in CAC<sub>iv</sub> remains speculative. Since also the M1 macrophage-associated chemokine *CCL2* was upregulated in CAC<sub>iv</sub>, this chemokine profile strongly resembles the chemokinetic fingerprint of TAM [17]. Moreover, TAM are characterized by low expression of inflammatory cytokines, such as *IL1 $\beta$* , *IL12 $\beta$*  and *TNF*, lending further support to the similar genotypic appearance of CAC<sub>iv</sub> and TAM.

Interestingly, CAC<sub>iv</sub> also expressed a number of M1 macrophage-associated pro-inflammatory markers, such as *IL1 $\alpha$*  and *IL23 $\alpha$* . Stimulation of cardiac myofibroblasts with *IL1 $\alpha$*  has been shown to lead to the production of extracellular matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), such as *MMP2* and *MMP9*, and inhibits the expression of *ADAMTS1*, an angiogenesis inhibitor [18]. *IL23 $\alpha$*  has also been shown to upregulate *MMP9* activity and enhance angiogenesis [19]. Together, the expression of these M1-associated cytokines could endow CAC<sub>iv</sub> with important tissue remodeling and angiogenic properties in the setting of MI.

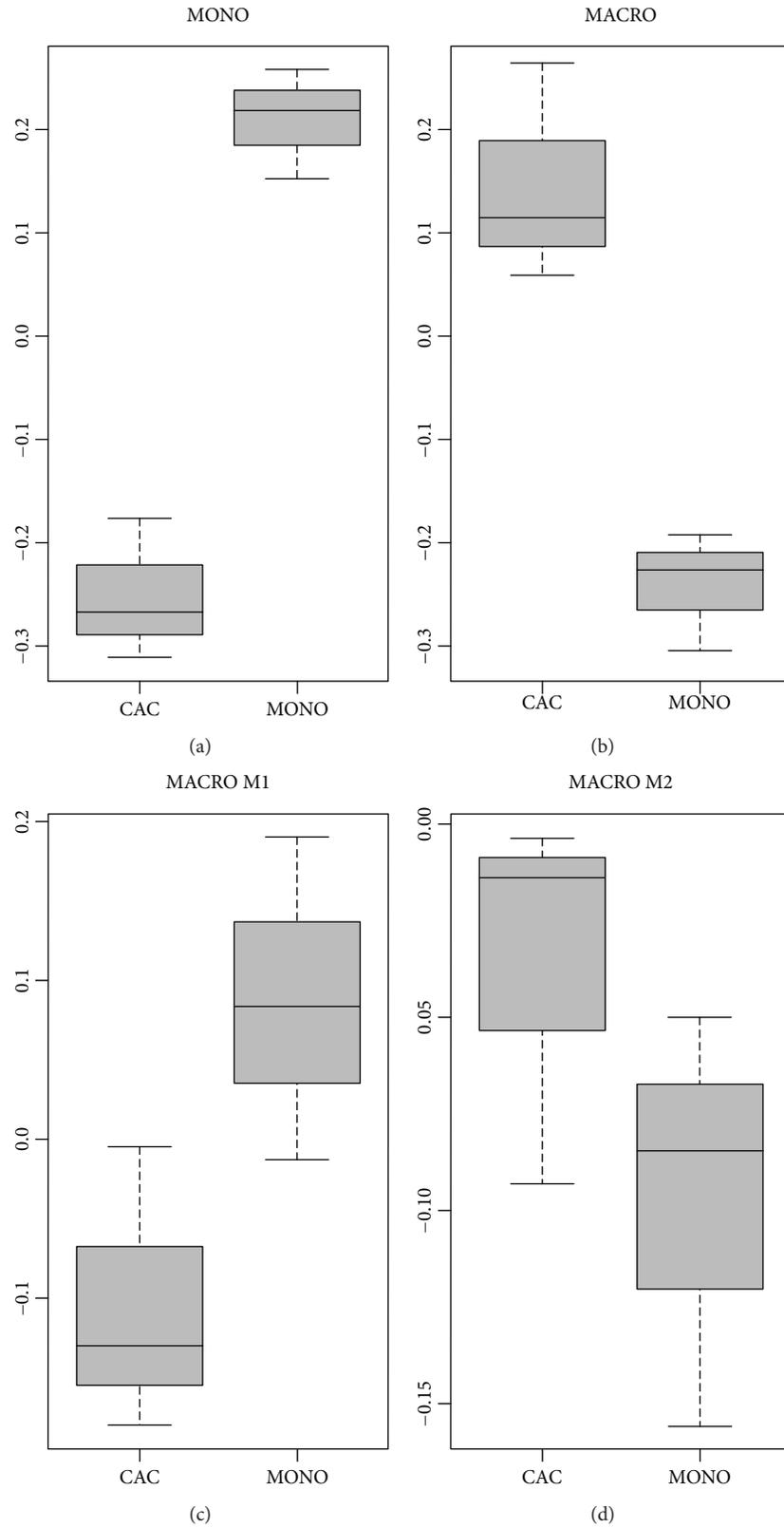


FIGURE 4:  $CAC_{iv}$  differentiate towards a predominantly M2 macrophage genotype. Boxplots comparing the relative expression of the genes in (a) the monocyte-specific gene signature (MONO), (b) the macrophage-specific gene signature (MACRO), (c) the LPS- and IFN- $\gamma$ -stimulated M1 macrophage-specific gene signature (MACRO M1), and (d) the IL4-stimulated M2 macrophage-specific gene signature (MACRO M2), between  $CAC_{iv}$  and  $CD14^+$  monocytic cells (MONO). Positive values signify a stronger degree of similarity of the genetic expression of  $CAC_{iv}$  or  $CD14^+$  monocytic cells to the specified cell type.

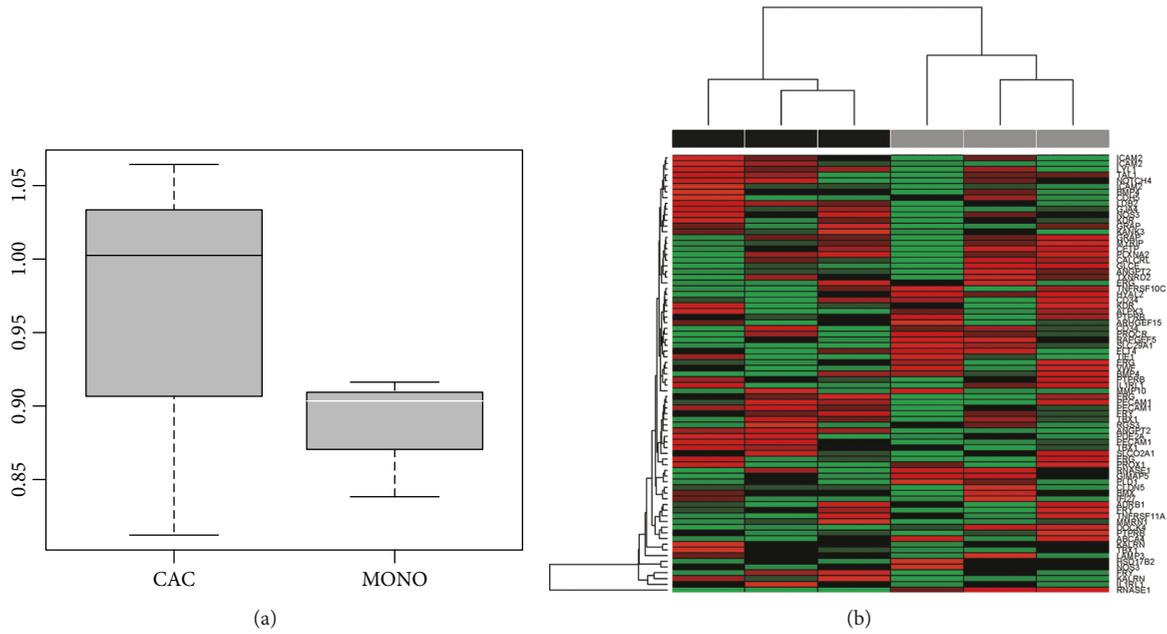


FIGURE 5: Analysis of EC-associated genes in the CAC<sub>iv</sub> profile. (a) Boxplot comparing the relative expression of an endothelial gene set between CAC<sub>iv</sub> and CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytic cells. There is no significant difference in similarity of the genetic expression of CAC<sub>iv</sub> or CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytic cells to an EC-specific gene signature. (b) UHC analysis highlighting the relative expression of EC-associated genes in CAC<sub>iv</sub> (grey) and monocytes (black). *RNASE1* is indicated as most differentially expressed in CAC<sub>iv</sub> compared to CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytic cells. We observed a lack of consistency in EC-associated gene expression between different CAC<sub>iv</sub> culture samples. Red: upregulation; green: downregulation.

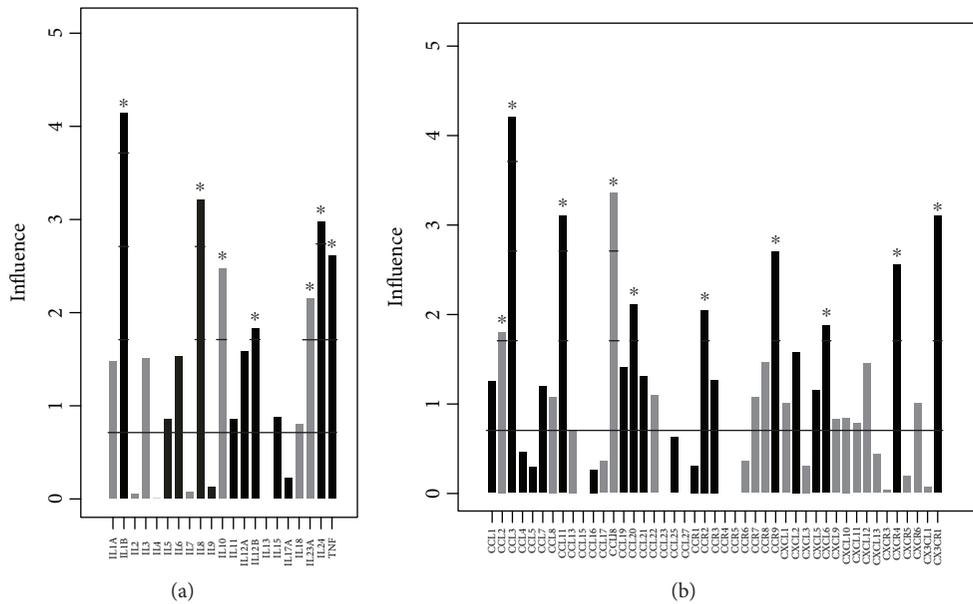


FIGURE 6: CAC<sub>iv</sub>-related cytokine and chemokine/chemokine receptor expression profile. Gene expression plot depicting (a) cytokines or (b) chemokines and chemokine receptors that were differentially overexpressed in CAC<sub>iv</sub> (grey) vs. monocytes (black). The influence (y-axis) represents the number of standard deviations (SD) the gene expression of each gene exceeds the null hypothesis that there would be no difference between both groups (z-score). Genes with an influence of  $\geq 1.96$  show a statistically significant differential gene expression ( $p < 0.05$ ). \*  $p < 0.05$ .

Finally, we identified the CCR7 chemokine receptor as the most differentially expressed chemokine receptor in Calthough its expression did not reach statistical significance.

This chemokine receptor is commonly found on mature DCs [20] and facilitates lymphoid tissue homing. Interestingly, CXCR4, the receptor for the hypoxia-inducible chemokine

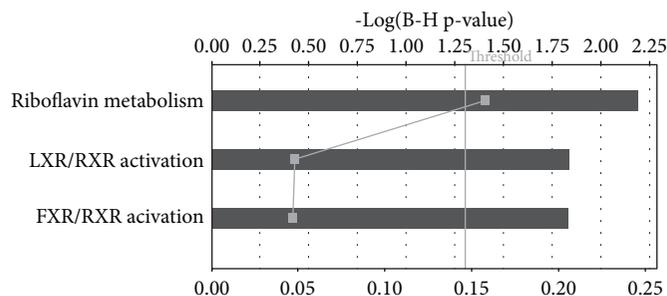


FIGURE 7: Summary of IPA analysis. The main upregulated canonical pathways are shown. Riboflavin metabolism and LXR/RXR and FXR/RXR activation remain statistically significant even after correction for multiple comparisons (Threshold indicates false discovery rate corrected p-value of 0.05). Bottom axis depicts the ratio of the number of genes upregulated in de CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature divided by the total number of genes involved in a given pathway (squares).

CXCL12, showed higher expression on monocytes than on CAC<sub>iv</sub>, suggesting that differentiated CAC<sub>iv</sub> do not display increased hypoxia-directed tissue homing capacity compared to CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytic cells. On qPCR analysis, the expression of *IL10* and *CCR7* was confirmed to be significantly upregulated in CAC<sub>iv</sub> (Figure 3(c)).

**3.3. Pathway Analysis.** Using IPA software, we determined the biological networks, functions and canonical pathways important to CAC<sub>iv</sub> biology. The main CAC<sub>iv</sub>-associated biological networks and molecular functions consisted of genes implicated in lipid metabolism, molecular transport, biochemistry of small molecules, inflammatory responses and cardiovascular disease. LXR/RXR (*APOC1*, *APOE*, *NR1H3*, *PLTP*;  $p = 2.9 \times 10^{-4}$ ) and FXR/RXR (*APOE*, *CYP27A1*, *NR1H3*, *PLTP*;  $p = 4.46 \times 10^{-4}$ ) signaling pathways and riboflavin metabolism (*ACP5*, *ACP2*, *ENPP2*;  $p = 6.54 \times 10^{-5}$ ) were significantly upregulated in CAC<sub>iv</sub> compared to CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes (Figure 7), whereas genes involved in inflammatory pathways and the acute phase response were repressed, highlighting the anti-inflammatory properties of CAC<sub>iv</sub>. Interestingly, a gene cluster consisting of IL10 antagonistic factors (*MAP3K14*, *FOS*, *DUSP1*, *IL1RN*, *CDKN1A*, *IL1B*, *PTGS2*, *CCL3*, *CDKN1C*;  $p = 3.24 \times 10^{-5}$ ), was found to be associated with the monocyte-like profile and appeared to be repressed during differentiation towards CAC<sub>iv</sub>. This finding is in accordance with the cytokine expression profile of CAC<sub>iv</sub> and is indicative of a shift towards immunomodulatory IL10 signaling pathways. The upregulation of the FXR/RXR and LXR/RXR associated genes *APOE* and *NR1H3* in CAC<sub>iv</sub> compared to CD14<sup>+</sup> monocytes was confirmed by qPCR analysis (Figure 3(d)).

#### 4. Discussion

In this article we used an in silico microarray analysis approach to explore the genotype of CAC<sub>iv</sub> and were able to identify a gene expression profile characteristic of CAC<sub>iv</sub>. The expression of several key genes was further substantiated with qPCR analysis. We compared the CAC<sub>iv</sub> transcriptome with microarray data sets dealing with monocyte-macrophage and endothelial cell differentiation and found considerable evidence for macrophage lineage differentiation

in the CAC<sub>iv</sub> genotype but, surprisingly, little evidence for endothelial transdifferentiation. Further analysis of the nature of CAC<sub>iv</sub> showed high correlation of the CAC<sub>iv</sub> gene signature with the M2 macrophage subtype. Because macrophage M1 and M2 subtypes merely represent the extremes on a wide spectrum of possibilities of macrophage polarization and since we also found some conserved M1 lineage characteristics in the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature, CAC<sub>iv</sub> most probably constitute a specific intermediate macrophage subtype, with predominant traits of regulatory M2c macrophages [16].

Several studies have dealt with the lineage commitment of EPC. A first study questioning the true progenitor cell nature of EPC was published by Rehman et al. [2], who revealed that mononuclear cells cultured for only a short period under EPC culture conditions mainly yielded cells that expressed monocytic markers, such as CD14, CD11b, CD11c and CD168, as such confining them to the monocyte/macrophage lineage. Considering the lack of evidence for endothelial cell differentiation, Rehman renamed these cells as CAC. Furuhashi et al. [21] compared the characteristics of cultured CD34<sup>+</sup> mononuclear cells with mature endothelial cells. Using hierarchical clustering, this group reported the absence of endothelial-specific marker expression, such as Tie2, angiopoietin-2, VE-cadherin, endoglin or KDR, even after 14 days in culture and found a high expression of macrophage-specific markers, such as GPNMB, matrix metalloproteinases 7 and 9, lysosomal acid lipase and APOE. Medina et al. [22], revealed a clear distinction in gene signature between CAC<sub>iv</sub> and (late) outgrowth endothelial cells (OEC), also known as endothelial colony-forming cells (ECFC). ECFCs were closely related to endothelial cells, whereas the CAC<sub>iv</sub> genotype clustered with monocytic cells and evidenced an alternative activated M2 macrophage genotype [23]. Finally, a UHC analysis study of Gremmels et al. [24] provided data on the relation of CAC<sub>iv</sub> and ECFC with various other cell types of hematopoietic and mesenchymal origin and concluded that CAC<sub>iv</sub> display a genotype that is restricted to the hematopoietic lineage, whereas ECFC, together with endothelial cell subtypes, belong to a large mesenchymal cell cluster.

The absence of endothelial markers in the CAC<sub>iv</sub> signature is evident and, together with the evidence from previous studies, almost excludes direct transdifferentiation of CAC<sub>iv</sub>

into EC. Most likely, as demonstrated by Prokopi et al. [25], this hypothesis of transdifferentiation is the result of assay misinterpretation due to the contamination with platelet-derived microparticles of conventional mononuclear cell isolation procedures.

Macrophages show a remarkable degree of plasticity in response to specific environmental stimuli and many distinct macrophage subsets have been described [26]. Broadly speaking, macrophages are polarized along a spectrum of two extremes, M1 and M2 macrophages, which have different genotypes and function. M1 macrophages produce inflammatory cytokines, such as IL1 $\beta$  and TNF, play a role in Th1 responses and in the killing of pathogens and tumor cells. M2 macrophages, on the other hand, display anti-inflammatory properties, facilitate Th2 responses and engage in active tissue remodeling and tumor promotion. Recently, this dichotomized view on macrophage differentiation was challenged by a new paradigm [16] according to which macrophages are classified based on physiological activities, such as host defence, wound healing and immune regulation. Moreover, macrophage subtypes are thought to reflect 'blends' of these basic macrophage 'flavors', resulting in a tissue or disease-specific macrophage genotype. Because we also found expression of markers specific for osteoclasts and DCs, the CAC<sub>iv</sub> profile probably reflects a macrophage subset with M2 predominance, closely resembling regulatory M2c macrophages. Still, CAC<sub>iv</sub> express some M1-associated pro-inflammatory markers, such as IL1 $\alpha$  and IL23 $\alpha$ , which could aid CAC<sub>iv</sub> to engage in important biological processes, such as tissue remodeling and angiogenesis. Additional studies, comparing the CAC<sub>iv</sub> transcriptome with these and other macrophage-related cell types, are warranted.

Using IPA analysis, we identified riboflavin metabolism and the LXR/RXR and FXR/RXR pathways as the most significantly upregulated biological processes in the CAC<sub>iv</sub> transcriptome.

LXRs are a family of cholesterol-sensing nuclear receptors regulating lipid homeostasis and cholesterol transport [27]. In macrophages, LXRA gene expression has been shown to be upregulated during monocyte to macrophage differentiation [28]. Treatment of ApoE-deficient atherosclerosis-prone mice with LXR agonists significantly reduced atherosclerotic lesion formation [29], highlighting the atheroprotective effects of LXR pathway induction. Interestingly, upregulation of the LXR pathways together with the DC chemokine receptor CCR7 has been reported in CD68<sup>+</sup>CD14<sup>-</sup> macrophages in normal intima devoid of atherosclerotic disease [30]. The CAC<sub>iv</sub> expression profile resembled that described by Trogan et al. [31], who showed in laser-capture microdissection-isolated foam cells that induction of the LXR pathway genes combined with increased CCR7 expression was a hallmark of atherosclerotic plaque regression and that atherosclerotic regression could be inhibited by targeting the CCR7 ligands CCL19 and CCL21. Our findings that LXR pathways and CCR7 are concomitantly upregulated in CAC<sub>iv</sub> biology, could hint a possible role for CAC in reverse plaque remodeling.

We also demonstrated upregulation of FXR/RXR cholesterol-sensing nuclear receptors in the CAC<sub>iv</sub> profile. Activation of FXR pathways in mouse models of

atherosclerosis could almost completely inhibit aortic atherosclerotic lesion formation [32], attenuated the pro-inflammatory expression of IL1 $\beta$ , IL6 and TNF [33] and negatively modulated NF $\kappa$ B-mediated inflammation [34]. Furthermore, upregulation of the ABCA1 cholesterol transporter by FXR agonists in ApoE-deficient macrophages, led to the induction of an anti-atherogenic cholesterol 'unloading' mechanism *in vivo* [33].

Finally, IPA analysis indicated riboflavin metabolism as significantly upregulated in CAC<sub>iv</sub> biology. Riboflavin or vitamin B2 is the central element of the cofactors flavin mononucleotide (FMN) and flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD). These cofactors are essential for mitochondrial oxidoreductase reactions, cellular oxidative stress resistance and endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) coupling and eNOS activity [35].

Together, the biological pathways observed in our CAC<sub>iv</sub> profile, seem to relate to reverse cholesterol transport, immunomodulation, energy metabolism, oxidative stress resistance and NO bioavailability. These findings hint at a possible beneficial effect of CAC<sub>iv</sub> therapy in the treatment of atherosclerotic and cardiovascular disease. Alternatively, pathophysiological conditions leading to impaired *in vivo* CAC function might induce endothelial dysfunction and atherosclerotic plaque formation and progression. However, future experimental studies are required to confirm these hypotheses.

In conclusion, our data indicate that CAC<sub>iv</sub> are genotypically related to regulatory M2c macrophages. CAC<sub>iv</sub>, however, show little evidence of endothelial cell transdifferentiation. We propose new mechanisms by which CAC<sub>iv</sub> could be efficiently applied in the broad field of cardiovascular pathophysiology, more specifically by immunomodulation, tissue remodeling, enhancement of cholesterol efflux and vasculoprotection.

## Data Availability

The microarray data used to support the findings of this study have been deposited and are publicly available in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository (GSE2040 and GSE5099).

## Disclosure

None.

## Conflicts of Interest

The author(s) declare(s) that they have no conflicts of interest.

## Funding

This work was supported by the Research Foundation - Flanders (FWO), grant No. G014906. B. Everaert was supported by a PH.D. fellowship of the Research Foundation - Flanders (FWO).

## Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge the efforts of D. Vindevogel and D. De Rijck in editing this text.

## Supplementary Materials

Basic statistical analysis of microarray data integrity. (*Supplementary Materials*)

## References

- [1] T. Asahara, T. Murohara, A. Sullivan et al., "Isolation of putative progenitor endothelial cells for angiogenesis," *Science*, vol. 275, no. 5302, pp. 964–966, 1997.
- [2] J. Rehman, J. Li, C. M. Orschell, and K. L. March, "Peripheral blood "endothelial progenitor cells" are derived from monocyte/macrophages and secrete angiogenic growth factors," *Circulation*, vol. 107, no. 8, pp. 1164–1169, 2003.
- [3] J. Hur, C. H. Yoon, H. S. Kim et al., "Characterization of two types of endothelial progenitor cells and their different contributions to neovascularization," *Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology*, vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 288–293, 2004.
- [4] C. Urbich, A. I. de Souza, L. Rossig et al., "Proteomic characterization of human early pro-angiogenic cells," *Journal of Molecular and Cellular Cardiology*, vol. 50, no. 2, pp. 333–336, 2011.
- [5] A. Aicher, C. Heeschen, C. Mildner-Rihm et al., "Essential role of endothelial nitric oxide synthase for mobilization of stem and progenitor cells," *Nature Medicine*, vol. 9, no. 11, pp. 1370–1376, 2003.
- [6] R. Liu, X. Wang, G. Y. Chen et al., "The prognostic role of a gene signature from tumorigenic breast-cancer cells," *The New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 356, no. 3, pp. 217–226, 2007.
- [7] J. M. Hill, G. Zalos, J. P. J. Halcox et al., "Circulating endothelial progenitor cells, vascular function, and cardiovascular risk," *The New England Journal of Medicine*, vol. 348, no. 7, pp. 593–600, 2003.
- [8] A. Desai, A. Glaser, D. Liu et al., "Microarray-based characterization of a colony assay used to investigate endothelial progenitor cells and relevance to endothelial function in humans," *Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology*, vol. 29, no. 1, pp. 121–127, 2009.
- [9] J. J. Goeman, S. A. van de Geer, F. de Kort, and H. C. van Houwelingen, "A global test for groups of genes: testing association with a clinical outcome," *Bioinformatics*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 93–99, 2004.
- [10] M. Bhasin, L. Yuan, D. B. Keskin, H. H. Otu, T. A. Libermann, and P. Oettgen, "Bioinformatic identification and characterization of human endothelial cell-restricted genes," *BMC Genomics*, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 342, 2010.
- [11] C. Urbich, C. Heeschen, A. Aicher et al., "Cathepsin L is required for endothelial progenitor cell-induced neovascularization," *Nature Medicine*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 206–213, 2005.
- [12] C. Urbich, A. Aicher, C. Heeschen et al., "Soluble factors released by endothelial progenitor cells promote migration of endothelial cells and cardiac resident progenitor cells," *Journal of Molecular and Cellular Cardiology*, vol. 39, no. 5, pp. 733–742, 2005.
- [13] J. A. Van Genderachter, K. Movahedi, G. H. Ghassabeh et al., "Classical and alternative activation of mononuclear phagocytes: picking the best of both worlds for tumor promotion," *Immunobiology*, vol. 211, no. 6–8, pp. 487–501, 2006.
- [14] M. Ho, E. Yang, G. Matcuk et al., "Identification of endothelial cell genes by combined database mining and microarray analysis," *Physiological Genomics*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 249–262, 2003.
- [15] C. Ghilardi, G. Chiorino, R. Dossi, Z. Nagy, R. Giavazzi, and M. R. Bani, "Identification of novel vascular markers through gene expression profiling of tumor-derived endothelium," *BMC Genomics*, vol. 9, no. 1, p. 201, 2008.
- [16] D. M. Mosser and J. P. Edwards, "Exploring the full spectrum of macrophage activation," *Nature Reviews Immunology*, vol. 8, no. 12, pp. 958–969, 2008.
- [17] A. Sica, T. Schioppa, A. Mantovani, and P. Allavena, "Tumour-associated macrophages are a distinct M2 polarised population promoting tumour progression: potential targets of anti-cancer therapy," *European Journal of Cancer*, vol. 42, no. 6, pp. 717–727, 2006.
- [18] N. A. Turner, P. Warburton, D. J. O'Regan, S. G. Ball, and K. E. Porter, "Modulatory effect of interleukin-1 $\alpha$  on expression of structural matrix proteins, MMPs and TIMPs in human cardiac myofibroblasts: Role of p38 MAP kinase," *Matrix Biology*, vol. 29, no. 7, pp. 613–620, 2010.
- [19] J. L. Langowski, X. Zhang, L. Wu et al., "IL-23 promotes tumour incidence and growth," *Nature*, vol. 442, no. 7101, pp. 461–465, 2006.
- [20] R. Förster, A. Schubel, D. Breitfeld et al., "CCR7 coordinates the primary immune response by establishing functional microenvironments in secondary lymphoid organs," *Cell*, vol. 99, no. 1, pp. 23–33, 1999.
- [21] S. Furuhashi, K. Ando, M. Oki et al., "Gene expression profiles of endothelial progenitor cells by oligonucleotide microarray analysis," *Molecular and Cellular Biochemistry*, vol. 298, no. 1–2, pp. 125–138, 2007.
- [22] R. J. Medina, C. L. O'Neill, M. Sweeney et al., "Molecular analysis of endothelial progenitor cell (EPC) subtypes reveals two distinct cell populations with different identities," *BMC Medical Genomics*, vol. 3, no. 1, p. 18, 2010.
- [23] R. J. Medina and C. O'Neill, "Myeloid angiogenic cells act as alternative M2 macrophages and modulate angiogenesis through interleukin-8," *Molecular Medicine*, vol. 17, no. 9–10, pp. 1–1055, 2011.
- [24] H. Gremmels, J. O. Fledderus, B. W. M. van Balkom, and M. C. Verhaar, "Transcriptome analysis in endothelial progenitor cell biology," *Antioxidants & Redox Signaling*, vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 1029–1042, 2011.
- [25] M. Prokopi, G. Pula, U. Mayr et al., "Proteomic analysis reveals presence of platelet microparticles in endothelial progenitor cell cultures," *Blood*, vol. 114, no. 3, pp. 723–732, 2009.
- [26] A. Mantovani, A. Sica, S. Sozzani, P. Allavena, A. Vecchi, and M. Locati, "The chemokine system in diverse forms of macrophage activation and polarization," *Trends in Immunology*, vol. 25, no. 12, pp. 677–686, 2004.
- [27] P. Tontonoz and D. J. Mangelsdorf, "Liver X receptor signaling pathways in cardiovascular disease," *Molecular Endocrinology*, vol. 17, no. 6, pp. 985–993, 2003.
- [28] T. Kohro, T. Nakajima, Y. Wada et al., "Genomic structure and mapping of human orphan receptor LXR alpha: upregulation of LXRA mRNA during monocyte to macrophage

- differentiation,” *Journal of Atherosclerosis and Thrombosis*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 145–151, 2000.
- [29] S. B. Joseph, E. McKilligin, L. Pei et al., “Synthetic LXR ligand inhibits the development of atherosclerosis in mice,” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, vol. 99, no. 11, pp. 7604–7609, 2002.
- [30] S. W. Waldo, Y. Li, C. Buono et al., “Heterogeneity of human macrophages in culture and in atherosclerotic plaques,” *The American Journal of Pathology*, vol. 172, no. 4, pp. 1112–1126, 2008.
- [31] E. Trogan, J. E. Feig, S. Dogan et al., “Gene expression changes in foam cells and the role of chemokine receptor CCR7 during atherosclerosis regression in ApoE-deficient mice,” *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, vol. 103, no. 10, pp. 3781–3786, 2006.
- [32] H. B. Hartman, S. J. Gardell, C. J. Petucci, S. Wang, J. A. Krueger, and M. J. Evans, “Activation of farnesoid X receptor prevents atherosclerotic lesion formation in LDLR<sup>-/-</sup> and apoE<sup>-/-</sup> mice,” *Journal of Lipid Research*, vol. 50, no. 6, pp. 1090–1100, 2009.
- [33] A. Mencarelli, B. Renga, E. Distrutti, and S. Fiorucci, “Anti-atherosclerotic effect of farnesoid X receptor,” *American Journal of Physiology. Heart and Circulatory Physiology*, vol. 296, no. 2, pp. H272–H281, 2009.
- [34] Y. D. Wang, W. D. Chen, M. Wang, D. Yu, B. M. Forman, and W. Huang, “Farnesoid X receptor antagonizes nuclear factor  $\kappa$ B in hepatic inflammatory response,” *Hepatology*, vol. 48, no. 5, pp. 1632–1643, 2008.
- [35] C. Antoniades, C. Shirodaria, N. Warrick et al., “5-methyltetrahydrofolate rapidly improves endothelial function and decreases superoxide production in human vessels: effects on vascular tetrahydrobiopterin availability and endothelial nitric oxide synthase coupling,” *Circulation*, vol. 114, no. 11, pp. 1193–1201, 2006.



**Hindawi**

Submit your manuscripts at  
[www.hindawi.com](http://www.hindawi.com)

