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Pharmacological aspects of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 inhibitors: New therapeutic approaches for the treatment of atherogenic dyslipidemia

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### Abstract

Among the determinants of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD), genetic and experimental evidence has provided data on a major role of angiopoietin-like proteins 3 and 4 (ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4) in regulating the activity of lipoprotein lipase (LPL), antagonizing the hydrolysis of triglycerides (TG). Indeed, beyond low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), ASCVD risk is also dependent on a cluster of metabolic abnormalities characterized by elevated fasting and post-prandial levels of TG-rich lipoproteins and their remnants. In a head-to-head comparison between murine models for ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4, the former was found to be a better pharmacological target for the treatment of hypertriglyceridemia. In humans, loss-of-function mutations of ANGPTL3 are associated with a marked reduction of plasma levels of VLDL, low-density lipoprotein (LDL) and high-density lipoprotein (HDL). Carriers of loss-of-function mutations of ANGPTL4 show instead lower TG-rich lipoproteins and a modest but significant increase of HDL. The relevance of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 as new therapeutic targets is proven by the development of monoclonal antibodies or antisense oligonucleotides. Studies in animal models, including non-human primates, have demonstrated that short-term treatment with monoclonal antibodies against ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 induces activation of LPL and a marked reduction of plasma TG-rich-lipoproteins, apparently without any major side effects. Inhibition of both targets also partially reduces LDL-C, independent of the LDL receptor. Similar evidence has been observed with the antisense oligonucleotide ANGPTL3-LRX. The genetic studies have paved the way for the development of new ANGPTL3 and 4 antagonists for the treatment of atherogenic dyslipidemias. Conclusive data of phase 2 and 3 clinical trials are still needed in order to define their safety and efficacy profile.

<b>Keywords</b>	angiopoietin-like 3 angiopoietin-like 4 antisense oligonucleotide evinacumab ANGPTL3-LRX
<b>Corresponding Author</b>	Massimiliano Ruscica
<b>Corresponding Author's Institution</b>	Università degli Studi di Milano
<b>Order of Authors</b>	Massimiliano Ruscica, Francesca Zimetti, Maria Pia Adorni, Cesare Sirtori, Maria Giovanna Lupo, Nicola Ferri
<b>Suggested reviewers</b>	Maciej Banach, Patrizia Tarugi, Amirhossein Sahebkar

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No data was used for the research described in the article

Dear Editor,

please find enclosed copy of the last version of the review article "Pharmacological aspects of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 inhibitors: new therapeutic approaches for the treatment of atherogenic dyslipidemia" by Massimiliano Ruscica et al. to be considered for publication on Pharmacological Research.

We have answered all the issues have been raised. Moreover, we have added two tables and described the most recent study on ANGPTL3 antisense oligonucleotide (evinacumab) published few days ago on Journal of Lipid Research.

We are most grateful for your help and interest and we wish you a pleasant holiday time.

Massimiliano Ruscica

This is an excellent, well written manuscript addressing a very timely and important subject. Bravo, my ongratulations to the authors.

We really appreciated this comment. Thank you.

#### Comments:

**1. In the paragraph, lines 140-150, please rewrite to represent a summary of the current understanding of the mechanism of TG related risk:**

- a. Hepatic hypersecretion of TG enriched VLDL particles, VLDL itself being atherogenic,**
- b. Excess accumulation of remnant VLDL particles, especially emphasizing the type III dyslipiemia and role of RLP in general in hyperTG dyslipidemias in general,**
- c. Formation of small, dense LDL particles with discordantly high LDL particle concentrations for given LDL-C, Overall non-HDL particle load being the major mediator of risk.**
- d. reductions in HDL-C are largely driven by mass action exchange of cholesterol ester and TG between non-HDL and HDL particles via CETP, not a a causal mechanism of risk, shown not to be in the causal pathway by Mendelian**

#### **Randomization experiments.**

We thank the reviewer for this constructive comment, we agree with. The text has been amended as follows "TG levels are the sum of the TG content in nascent very-low-density lipoproteins (VLDL) and in their remnants in the fasting state, together with TG in chylomicrons and their remnants in the postprandial state. Thus, TGRL remnants, encompassing a mixture of chylomicrons and VLDL particle, can be considered as a surrogate biomarker for plasma levels of both newly secreted TGRL and their remnants (7). As reported in the recent European Guidelines, desirable fasting TG levels are  $\leq 150$  mg/dL (1.7 mmol/L) and the use of drugs to lower TG should be considered in high-risk patients with TG  $> 200$  mg/dL (2.3 mmol/L) and when TGs cannot be lowered by lifestyle changes (8). As TG levels rise over this range, large VLDL become the major TG-rich species due to either a rise in the hepatic production or a decrement in lipoprotein lipase (LPL) activity. In this scenario, LPL subsequently hydrolyzes VLDL to form smaller and denser lipoprotein particles, believed to be at least as atherogenic as LDL, being enriched in cholesteryl esters (9). Overall, with the exception of very large particles, e.g. chylomicrons, TGRL can enter the arterial wall contributing to the deposition of cholesterol content in the atherosclerotic plaque (10). In individuals with normal TG, for every chylomicron remnant particle there are approximately 10 VLDL particles, that have a short half-life compared to LDL. Considering that for every VLDL particle there are approximately 9 LDL particles, this proportion could explain why a rise in plasma TG will lead to many more LDL particles than VLDL particles (11). This ratio is not exactly maintained in type III hyperlipoproteinemia, a rarer phenotype characterized by abnormal apoB48 remnant particles plus abnormal VLDL apoB100 remnant particles, present at concentrations 30–50 times higher than normal remnant particles (12). The association between TG lowering and reduction of ASCVD risk has been recently reaffirmed in a meta-regression analysis of three classes of therapies (fibrates, niacin, and marine-derived omega-3 fatty acids) in addition to 25 statin trials, showing that TG lowering associates with a lower risk of major vascular events, even after adjustment for LDL-C lowering: Relative Risk (RR) 0.84; 95% CI, 0.75-0.94; per 1-mmol/L (40 mg/dL) TG reduction (13). Although similar conclusions have been reached by genetic studies supporting the causal role of raised TG levels on ASCVD risk (14, 15), it is worth mentioning that, in addition, the clinical benefit of lowering TG and LDL-C levels is proportional to the absolute change in apoB (16)."

**2. Lines 266-70, please expand discussion of mechanism of PPAR and interaction with ANGPTL providing greater detail for the reader to better frame the regulatory effects of PPAR at the nuclear level and the peripheral effects of ANGPTL 3/4/8 peripherally.**

Thank you. The text now reads as follows “ANGPTL4 expression is also induced by ligands of all peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPAR- $\alpha$ , - $\delta$ , and  $\gamma$ ) (77), although the fold induction of mRNA in tissues may vary, possibly due to individual variations among animal or in vitro models (78, 79).”

**3. Line 288: "...TR?? dependent manner..." is unclear.**

We thank the reviewer. The text has been amended and now reads as follows “Thyroid hormones suppress the gene expression of *ANGPTL3* but not that of *ANGPTL4* via activation of the thyroid hormone receptor  $\beta$ , thus providing a potential mechanism explaining the hypotriglyceridemic properties of thyroid hormone receptor  $\beta$  agonists (74). In patients with clinical and subclinical hypothyroidism, high *ANGPTL3* levels have been described, an observation fitting with the negative correlation among *ANGPTL3*, total tri-iodothyronine and free tri-iodothyronine (81).”

**4. In conclusions section, it would be informative to the reader to briefly mention the problems that have arisen with both mAb or RNA interference strategies aimed at apoC3 suppression resulting in thrombocytopenia. Thus far, to my knowledge, this problem has not emerged as a problem with strategies using ANGPTL 3/4 as target of therapy.**

Thank you, this part has been added and the text now reads as follows “The ASO was safe, an important aspect, considering the thrombocytopenia found in patients given volanesorsen, an ASO against apoC-III, reducing chylomicron TG by roughly 83% (150).”

## **Reviewer 2**

The manuscript of Ruscica and coll. is a revision regarding the pathophysiology and the emerging therapeutic approaches for the atherogenic dyslipidemia, a condition characterized by an abnormal increase of TG-rich lipoproteins (TRL). The work is interesting, well documented and written, focused on really new aspects of the metabolism of TRL that will be surely an important target for the development of future therapies in the cardiovascular field. I have only few comments, generally aimed to improving the fluidity and the clarity of the message. They are listed here below:

**Graphical abstract: the role of LPL should be better represented in the image, with the list of activator/inhibitors of the enzymatic activity. ANGPTL 3 and 4 should be graphically magnified, to stress the concept that they will be the main object of discussion.**

A modified graphical abstract has been added.

**Abstract: the first sentence (L 64-67) should focus on the residual risk in the statins era, i.e on the so-called “atherogenic dyslipidemia” largely determined by a deranged TRL**

**metabolism.** Thank you for this comment we agree with. The text now reads as follows “Among the determinants of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD), genetic and experimental evidence has provided data on a major role of angiopoietin-like proteins 3 and 4 (*ANGPTL3* and *ANGPTL4*) in regulating the activity of lipoprotein lipase (LPL), antagonizing the hydrolysis of triglycerides (TG). Indeed, beyond low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), ASCVD risk is also

dependent on a cluster of metabolic abnormalities characterized by elevated fasting and post-prandial levels of TG-rich lipoproteins and their remnants.”

**L 78-79: the sentence may be shortened (“ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 are new therapeutic targets of biological therapies, *i.e.* monoclonal antibodies or antisense oligonucleotides”).**

Thank you. The text has been amended *as per* suggestion.

**L 87: Please cut “thus suggesting their potential use in homozygous familial hypercholesterolemia”, a comment that is not useful in Abstract but in Discussion .**

Thank you. The text has been amended *as per* suggestion

**Introduction: as above indicated, the relevance of the topic is largely dependent on the “residual risk after statins”. The remaining text is indeed fully in line with this consideration. Part 3, L 281: what does it mean “Thyroid hormones ... to suppress ANGPTL3 mRNA in a TR??-dependent manner” In particular TR??- dependent manner? Please specify.**

Thank you. The text has been amended accordingly and now reads as follows “Thyroid hormones suppress the gene expression of *ANGPTL3* but not that of *ANGPTL4* via activation of the thyroid hormone receptor  $\beta$ , thus providing a potential mechanism explaining the hypotriglyceridemic properties of thyroid hormone receptor  $\beta$  agonists (74). In patients with clinical and subclinical hypothyroidism, high *ANGPTL3* levels have been described, an observation fitting with the negative correlation among *ANGPTL3*, total tri-iodothyronine and free tri-iodothyronine (81).”

**In the same phrase the classification ( i - ii- iii) does not appear logical; it may be better grouped in “This observation fits well (i) with the negative correlation between *ANGPTL3*, total tri-iodothyronine (TT3) and free tri-iodothyronine (FT3) (69) and (ii) with the high *ANGPTL3* levels.....”**

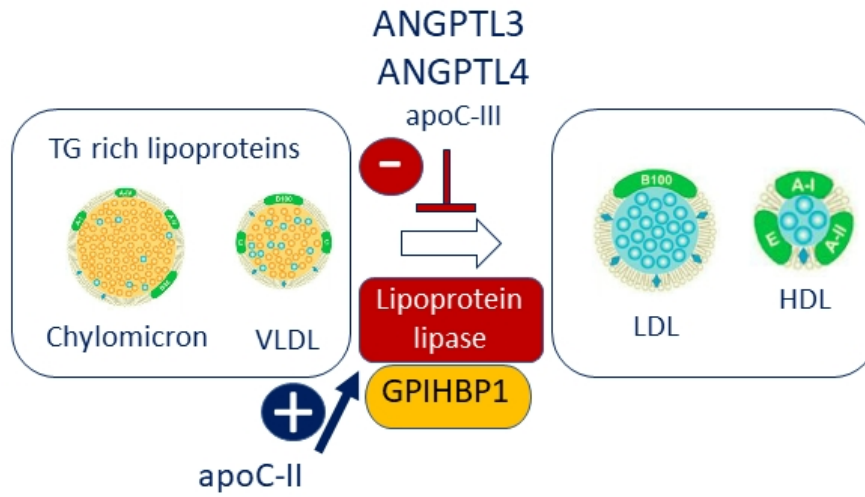
We thank the reviewer for this comment we agree with and the text has been amended accordingly.

**Part 4 , L 342: please write ” in extenso” the acronymus BAT and WAT**

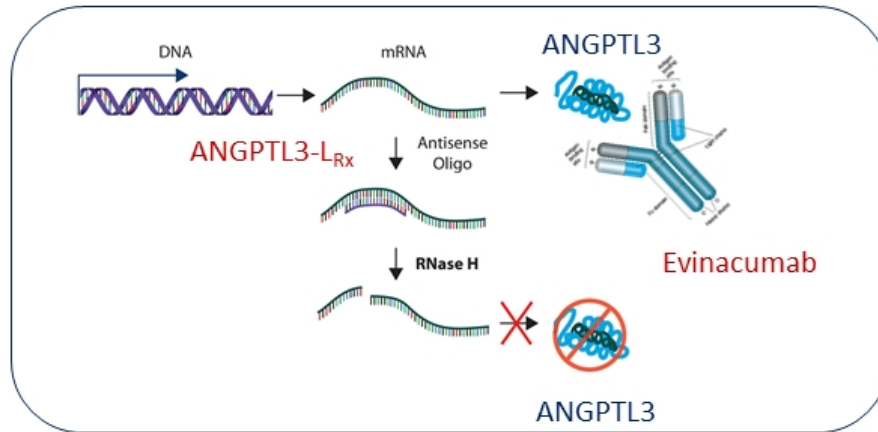
Thank you. BAT and WAT have been reported in extenso throughout the manuscript.

**PART 7, L603: please specify that Fh is in the large majority of patients due to the loss of the LDL RECEPTOR..**

Thank you. The text has been amended accordingly and now reads as follows “Evinacumab was also tested in nine adults with homozygous familial hypercholesterolemia for LDLR, including two null homozygotes and one compound heterozygote with two null alleles.”



### Pharmacological Inhibition of ANGPTL3





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3 **Pharmacological aspects of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 inhibitors:**  
4  
5 **new therapeutic approaches for the treatment of atherogenic dyslipidemia**  
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7 <sup>1</sup>Massimiliano Ruscica, <sup>2</sup>Francesca Zimetti, <sup>2</sup>Maria Pia Adorni, <sup>3</sup>Cesare R. Sirtori, <sup>4</sup>Maria Giovanna Lupo,  
8 <sup>4</sup>Nicola Ferri  
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11 <sup>1</sup>Dipartimento di Scienze Farmacologiche e Biomolecolari, Università degli Studi di Milano, Milan, Italy;

12 <sup>2</sup>Dipartimento di Scienze degli Alimenti e del Farmaco, Università di Parma, Parma, Italy; <sup>3</sup> Dyslipidemia  
13 Center, A.S.S.T. Grande Ospedale Metropolitano Niguarda, Milan, Italy; <sup>4</sup>Dipartimento di Scienze del  
14 Farmaco, Università degli Studi di Padova, Padua, Italy  
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21 Correspondence:

22 Massimiliano Ruscica

23 Università degli Studi di Milano

24 Via Balzaretti 9

25 20133 – Milan - Italy

26  
27 e-mail: [massimiliano.ruscica@unimi.it](mailto:massimiliano.ruscica@unimi.it)  
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62 **Abstract**  
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64 Among the determinants of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD), genetic and experimental  
65 evidence has provided data on a major role of angiopoietin-like proteins 3 and 4 (ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4) in  
66 regulating the activity of lipoprotein lipase (LPL), antagonizing the hydrolysis of triglycerides (TG). Indeed,  
67 beyond low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), ASCVD risk is also dependent on a cluster of metabolic  
68 abnormalities characterized by elevated fasting and post-prandial levels of TG-rich lipoproteins and their  
69 remnants. In a head-to-head comparison between murine models for ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4, the former  
70 was found to be a better pharmacological target for the treatment of hypertriglyceridemia. In humans, loss-  
71 of-function mutations of *ANGPTL3* are associated with a marked reduction of plasma levels of VLDL, low-  
72 density lipoprotein (LDL) and high-density lipoprotein (HDL). Carriers of loss-of-function mutations of  
73 *ANGPTL4* show instead lower TG-rich lipoproteins and a modest but significant increase of HDL. The  
74 relevance of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 as new therapeutic targets is proven by the development of monoclonal  
75 antibodies or antisense oligonucleotides. Studies in animal models, including non-human primates, have  
76 demonstrated that short-term treatment with monoclonal antibodies against ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4  
77 induces activation of LPL and a marked reduction of plasma TG-rich-lipoproteins, apparently without any  
78 major side effects. Inhibition of both targets also partially reduces LDL-C, independent of the LDL receptor.  
79 Similar evidence has been observed with the antisense oligonucleotide ANGPTL3-L<sub>RX</sub>. The genetic studies  
80 have paved the way for the development of new ANGPTL3 and 4 antagonists for the treatment of atherogenic  
81 dyslipidemias. Conclusive data of phase 2 and 3 clinical trials are still needed in order to define their safety  
82 and efficacy profile.  
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95 **Keywords:** angiopoietin-like 3, angiopoietin-like 4, antisense oligonucleotide, evinacumab, ANGPTL3-L<sub>RX</sub>  
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## 1. Introduction

A series of modifiable and non-modifiable risk factors contributes to the atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD). Among them, the pharmacological control of hypercholesterolemia has represented the most effective therapy in the prevention of CVD. The 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase inhibitors, statins, successfully lower low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) and reduce the rate of CV events in many patients. Despite the fact that LDL-C is causal in the development of atherogenesis and ASCVD, new options are required to control high levels of triglyceride-rich lipoproteins (TGRL) (1) or lipoprotein (a)(2). Beyond LDL-C, ASCVD risk is also dependent on a cluster of metabolic abnormalities characterized by elevated fasting and post-prandial levels of TGRL and their remnants (3), low levels of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL) and elevated small dense LDL (4). Thus, besides therapies directed at reducing only LDL-C levels, pharmacological approaches targeting other lipoproteins, e.g. triglycerides (TG) and/or HDL-C (5), can be considered in order to reduce the CV residual risk (6).

TG levels are the sum of the TG content in nascent very-low-density lipoproteins (VLDL) and in their remnants in the fasting state, together with TG in chylomicrons and their remnants in the postprandial state. Thus, TGRL remnants, encompassing a mixture of chylomicrons and VLDL particle, can be considered as a surrogate biomarker for plasma levels of both newly secreted TGRL and their remnants (7). As reported in the recent European Guidelines, desirable fasting TG levels are  $\leq 150$  mg/dL (1.7 mmol/L) and the use of drugs to lower TG should be considered in high-risk patients with TG  $> 200$  mg/dL (2.3 mmol/L) and when TGs cannot be lowered by lifestyle changes (8). As TG levels rise over this range, large VLDL become the major TG-rich species due to either a rise in the hepatic production or a decrement in lipoprotein lipase (LPL) activity. In this scenario, LPL subsequently hydrolyzes VLDL to form smaller and denser lipoprotein particles, believed to be at least as atherogenic as LDL, being enriched in cholesteryl esters (9). Overall, with the exception of very large particles, e.g. chylomicrons, TGRL can enter the arterial wall contributing to the deposition of cholesterol content in the atherosclerotic plaque (10). In individuals with normal TG, for every chylomicron remnant particle there are approximately 10 VLDL particles, that have a short half-life compared to LDL. Considering that for every VLDL particle there are approximately 9 LDL particles, this proportion could explain why a rise in plasma TG will lead to many more LDL particles than VLDL particles (11). This ratio is not exactly maintained in type III hyperlipoproteinemia, a rarer phenotype characterized by abnormal apoB48 remnant particles plus abnormal VLDL apoB100 remnant particles, present at concentrations 30–50 times higher than normal remnant particles (12).

The association between TG lowering and reduction of ASCVD risk has been recently reaffirmed in a meta-regression analysis of three classes of therapies (fibrates, niacin, and marine-derived omega-3 fatty acids) in addition to 25 statin trials, showing that TG lowering associates with a lower risk of major vascular events, even after adjustment for LDL-C lowering: Relative Risk (RR) 0.84; 95% CI, 0.75-0.94; per 1-mmol/L (40 mg/dL) TG reduction (13). Although similar conclusions have been reached by genetic studies supporting

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180 the causal role of raised TG levels on ASCVD risk (14, 15), it is worth mentioning that, in addition, the clinical  
181 benefit of lowering TG and LDL-C levels is proportional to the absolute change in apoB (16).  
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183 Catalyzing the partial hydrolysis of the core TG of circulating chylomicrons and VLDL to non-esterified  
184 fatty acids and 2-monoacylglycerol for tissue utilization, LPL represents the ideal target to control  
185 hypertriglyceridemia (17). TGRL are too large to cross capillary endothelia and thus, in order to gain access  
186 to triacylglycerols in these particles, LPL must be exposed to the luminal surface of the capillary endothelial  
187 cells. Once produced and correctly folded in myocytes and adipocytes, LPL is secreted into the subendothelial  
188 space and translocated to the lumen of capillaries by the glycosylphosphatidylinositol-anchored HDL binding  
189 protein (GPIHBP1) (18, 19), that retains LPL anchored to the endothelium (20-23). Highly charged, membrane  
190 bound chains of heparan sulphate-proteoglycans (HSPG) also contribute to anchor LPL on the luminal surface  
191 (17, 24), but since this binding is weak, LPL is shuttled to GPIHBP1 (25): the enzymatically active form of LPL  
192 is a 1:1 heterodimeric complex with GPIHBP1 (26, 27). Nevertheless, GPIHBP1 stabilizes LPL, thus enhancing  
193 its lipase activity (28, 29), an effect confirmed in GPIHBP1 knockout mice and patients with loss-of-function  
194 mutations of *GPIHBP1* which associated with hyperchylomicronemia (21, 23). GPIHBP1 is expressed highly in  
195 heart, adipose tissue and skeletal muscle, the same tissues that express high levels of LpL. In each of these  
196 tissues, GPIHBP1 is located on the luminal face of the capillary endothelial cells and not in the endothelium  
197 of brain capillaries (18, 21). This suggests a more important role for HSPG in tethering LPL to atherosclerosis-  
198 prone vessels (30). The identification of autoantibodies against GPIHBP1 has explained the reason why  
199 patients who have a clinical manifestation of familial chylomicronemia syndrome (about 3%), are negative to  
200 the genetic screening of five canonical genes for monogenic chylomicronemia (31, 32).  
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202 Rare loss-of-function mutations of genes involved in TG metabolism, such as *LPL* (33, 34), are  
203 associated to higher plasma TG levels and CV risk, whereas genetic inactivation of *ApoC3*, *Angptl3* and  
204 *Angptl4* genes, which encode for natural inhibitors of LPL, are associated with lower TG levels and a  
205 corresponding lower CVD risk (35-37). Importantly, some variants of *LPL* and *LDL receptor (LDLR)* are  
206 associated to similar lower coronary heart disease (CHD) risk per unit and to lower levels of apoB-containing  
207 lipoproteins (16). This association is additive and proportional to the absolute change in apo-B, indicating  
208 that the clinical benefit of TG lowering is similar to the clinical benefit of LDL-C lowering (16). Based on these  
209 findings, several novel therapies that potentially reduce TGRL are currently in development (38-40). Although  
210 many pharmacological targets can be envisioned to reduce TGRL levels, lipase antagonism may represent a  
211 successful example of clinical relevance (41).  
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213 In this complex scenario, another main player is represented by the apolipoprotein (apo)C-II.  
214 Synthesized in the liver and intestine, it is secreted as a surface component of chylomicrons, VLDL and HDL  
215 representing a specific activator/cofactor of LPL (42). The presence of apoC-II is required for a proper  
216 enzymatic activity of LPL, whereas three proteins from the angiopoietin-like (ANGPTL) family - ANGPTL3,  
217 ANGPTL4 and ANGPTL8 (37, 38, 43-45) as well as apoC-III are its physiological inhibitors (46). Thus, the  
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239 present review will discuss the current development of new pharmacological inhibitors of ANGPTL3 and  
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241 **ANGPTL4** as potential treatments for treating hypertriglyceridemia and associated CVD risk.  
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## 243 244 **2. Biology of AGPTL3, ANGPTL4 and ANGPTL8**

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246 Angiopoietins are members of the vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) family (47-49). ANGPTL3  
247 is a 70kDa protein mainly expressed and secreted by the liver (43, 50), and to a lesser extent by the kidney  
248 (50), from which it is released at higher levels in case of renal damage (51-53). ANGPTL3 shares with its family  
249 members a N-terminal and a C-terminal fibrinogen-like domain (FLD), conserving the fibrinogen domain  
250 (~40% of sequence identity), except for a signal peptide (16 amino acids) required for its secretion (54, 55)  
251 (Figure 1). A linker region between N- and C-terminal domains is necessary for the ANGPTL3 biological  
252 activation. After intracellular and extracellular cleavages by furin (PCSK3) and PACE4 (PCSK6), respectively  
253 (56), the N-terminal domain is released being able to inhibit the activity of LPL more efficiently than full-  
254 length ANGPTL3 (54, 57): ANGPTL3 circulates in the plasma as full-length and truncated forms.  
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260 The human ANGPTL4 glycoprotein (~45-65 kDa) contains an N-terminal coiled-coil structure and a C-  
261 terminal FLD (58) (Figure 1). ANGPTL4 shares with ANGPTL3 31% of the amino acid sequence identity as well  
262 as modular structure. ANGPTL4, discovered independently during a search of additional angiopoietin-related  
263 proteins (59), is induced by fasting (60) and during preadipocyte differentiation (61). ANGPTL4 is produced  
264 in many cells and tissues, including adipose tissue, liver, intestine and muscle (61). Before secretion ANGPTL4  
265 forms dimers and tetramers, whereas after secretion it undergoes cleavage at a canonical proprotein  
266 convertase cleavage site, *i.e.*, 161-Arg-Arg-Lys-Arg-164 (62). After cleavage, the N-terminal fragment, which  
267 remains oligomerized, is allowed to bind transiently to LPL. This process converts LPL from catalytically active  
268 dimers to inactive monomers, thus reducing the LPL activity (63).  
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274 Differently from the above described members of the same family, ANGPTL8 (also known as  
275 betatrophin) lacks the FLD leading to a protein of 22 kDa, *i.e.* less than half the size of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4  
276 (45, 64) (Figure 1). The comparison between the ANGPTL8 sequence and the N-terminal domains of ANGPTL3  
277 and ANGPTL4 highlighted the presence of a Specific Epitope1 (SE1) region, also mapped on ANGPTL3 and  
278 ANGPTL4, as necessary and sufficient to inhibit LPL activity (65-67). ANGPTL8 is a feeding-induced  
279 hepatokine, highly expressed in liver, white adipose tissue and brown adipose tissue (45, 68, 69).  
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## 284 285 **3. Transcriptional regulation of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4**

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287 ANGPTL3 is transcriptionally regulated by Liver X receptors (LXRs) and Hepatocyte Nuclear Factor 1 $\alpha$   
288 (HNF1 $\alpha$ ) (70). This evidence derived from mice fed to a high-cholesterol diet and treated with a synthetic  
289 LXR-selective agonist (T0901317); this raises the hepatic gene expression of *Angptl3* (70). The analysis of the  
290 transcriptional response elements of mouse and human ANGPTL3 genes identified an LXR binding site,  
291 required for the regulation by LXR transcription factors (70, 71). LXR also drives the expression of LPL (72)  
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298 and ANGPTL8 (73), thus suggesting the presence of a common regulatory pathway. In contrast, HNF1 $\alpha$   
299 indirectly inhibits the expression of ANGPTL3, *i.e.* through the activation of the thyroid hormone receptor  
300 (74). A repressive stimulus on the transcriptional activity of ANGPTL3 is mediated by insulin and leptin, thus  
301 supporting the hypothesis of a possible link between diabetic condition and dyslipidemia (75, 76). In adipose  
302 tissue and liver, *ANGPTL4* expression is regulated by feeding, fasting, with a strong induction under this latter  
303 condition, suggesting a pivotal role in fat metabolism (60). *ANGPTL4* expression is also induced by ligands of  
304 all peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPAR- $\alpha$ , - $\delta$ , and  $\gamma$ ) (77), although the fold induction of mRNA  
305 in tissues may vary, possibly due to individual variations among animal or *in vitro* models (78, 79).

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309 A head-to-head comparison between ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 clearly pointed out that, although both  
310 inhibit LPL activity and raise plasma TG levels, they are regulated by different nuclear receptors (78). In  
311 particular, ANGPTL4 expression is induced in many tissues, including heart and skeletal muscle, whereas LPL  
312 hydrolyzes circulating lipoproteins for energy expenditure (78). Consistently, ANGPTL4 overexpression in the  
313 heart reduces the use of lipoprotein-derived free fatty-acids (FFA) in cardiac tissue, a mechanism mediated  
314 by a repression of the LPL activity (80).

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Thyroid hormones suppress the gene expression of *ANGPTL3* but not that of *ANGPTL4* via activation  
of the thyroid hormone receptor  $\beta$ , thus providing a potential mechanism explaining the hypotriglyceridemic  
properties of thyroid hormone receptor  $\beta$  agonists (74). In patients with clinical and subclinical  
hypothyroidism, high *ANGPTL3* levels have been described, an observation fitting with the negative  
correlation among *ANGPTL3*, total tri-iodothyronine and free tri-iodothyronine (81).

#### 4. Role of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 on lipid metabolism

Both ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 are involved in the regulation of breakdown and lipid storage. ANGPTL3  
decreases VLDL-TG clearance by different mechanisms: by inhibiting LPL activity (82) and by a direct  
activation of lipolysis in adipocytes (83), a process resulting in FFA and glycerol release into the circulation  
(83). LPL is involved in lipid-related pathological conditions, including atherosclerosis (84), diabetes and  
obesity, Alzheimer's disease and cachexia (17). Beyond LPL, evidence coming from experimental models  
suggested an inhibitory effect of ANGPTL3 on endothelial lipase (EL) (85). This enzyme is expressed by  
endothelial cells and acts in the plasma similar to LPL (85, 86).

Since the N-terminal domain of ANGPTL3 interacts directly with LPL (65) and EL (85), it is not  
surprising that the presence of this domain is required for the inhibitory activity (54). This feature is  
completely abolished in the absence of the heparan sulphate-proteoglycans (HSPG) that anchor EL to  
endothelial cells (85). However, the molecular mechanism underlying the inhibition of LPL by ANGPTL3 is still  
unclear. It has been hypothesized that ANGPTL3 may induce LPL cleavage by the way of proprotein  
convertases PACE4 and furin, an effect specific for LPL but not for EL (87). Overall, the mechanism of ANGPTL3  
is thus to foster TG to adipose tissue for storage during feeding through the tissue specific expression of the

355  
356  
357 modulator ANGPTL8 (64). Regarding ANGPTL8, its inhibitory activity on LPL is observed only in the presence  
358 of ANGPTL3 (88-90). Beyond LPL, ANGPTL3 inhibits EL, a crucial enzyme regulating plasma HDL levels (91). In  
359 humans, ANGPTL3 concentration positively correlated with HDL-C (85), a finding dependent on the inhibition  
360 of EL activity.  
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362  
363 All-in-all, it is possible to envision that ANGPTL3, 4 and 8 regulate TG metabolism by inhibiting LPL in  
364 different tissues and under different nutritional status. During fasting an induction of ANGPTL4 and a  
365 suppression of ANGPTL8 (92-94) were observed, a condition affecting ANGPTL3 activity. The suppression of  
366 ANGPTL8 during fasting state is mediated by the increased levels of glucocorticoids and their binding to  
367 negative glucocorticoid responsive elements in the promoter region (94). Downregulation of ANGPTL8 leads  
368 to a higher activity of LPL in the skeletal muscle and heart (95), thus promoting TG hydrolysis and increased  
369 circulating FFA concentrations. Conversely, increased ANGPTL4 protein reduces LPL activity in the adipose  
370 tissue (96), promoting lipolysis in the adipocytes (97). This site-specific modulation of LPL activity leads the  
371 circulating TG toward peripheral tissues for utilization. Conversely, feeding leads to the upregulation of  
372 ANGPTL8 and the downregulation of ANGPTL4, directing plasma TG to adipose tissues for storage. Apart from  
373 fasting, during physical exercise, ANGPTL4 is induced in non-exercising skeletal muscle, likely serving to divert  
374 plasma TG to exercising muscle to be used as energy source (98). In addition, during cold exposure, ANGPTL4  
375 is suppressed in brown adipose tissue and induced in white adipose tissue, thus ensuring an adequate  
376 energetic provision of TG to brown fat cells (96, 99). Overall, ANGPTL4 is to be considered as part of a  
377 shuttling mechanism directing fatty acids derived from circulating TGRL to brown adipose tissue during  
378 sustained cold exposure (96).  
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### 389 **5. Phenotype of *Angptl3* and *Angptl4* knock-out and transgenic mice**

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391 The first genetic evidence of the role of ANGPTL3 on lipid metabolism was made by Koishi *et al* who identified  
392 an insertion mutation of the *Angptl3* gene associated with a hypolipidemic phenotype in obese KK mice (100).  
393 Levels of TG, total cholesterol and free fatty acids (FFA) in these mice were lower than those of wild type  
394 mice. Overexpression of *Angptl3* in murine models, e.g. by injection of adenovirus or human ANGPTL3 or  
395 administration of recombinant ANGPTL3, led to significant increases of TG, total cholesterol and FFA levels  
396 within one day post injection, reaching a peak after about four days (100). Generation of *Angptl3* knock-out  
397 mice corroborated its role in lipid metabolism (101). The absence of ANGPTL3 reduces TG, total cholesterol  
398 and FFA concentrations with a concomitant rise in LPL activity, i.e. +1.57 fold compared to wild type mice  
399 (101). In addition, the *Angptl3*-null mice fed a high fat diet had lower adipose tissue weight despite no  
400 differences in adipocyte size (101). The same experimental model showed a significant fall in the uptake of  
401 circulating VLDL-TG into white adipose tissue, rather than into skeletal muscle, brown adipose tissue and heart  
402 (102). The effect on the adipose tissue has been further corroborated by observations that in the absence of  
403 ANGPTL3 or ANGPTL8 fat mass is reduced after a +1°C increase in temperature in the fed (not fasted)  
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416 condition, without any change in physical activity or food intake (103). In addition, short-term cooling was  
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418 shown to increase plasma ANGPTL4, ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL8 levels in young, healthy, lean men (104). These  
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420 ANGPTLs are thought to act in concert to facilitate TG partitioning among tissues in response to cold (104).

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422 Thus, ANGPTL3 or ANGPTL8 are essential for an efficient storage of dietary TG and deletion of these  
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424 genes increases energy use and feeding-induced thermogenesis (103). In fed mice, the pharmacological  
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426 inactivation of ANGPTL3 by the use of antibodies leads to a reduced hepatic secretion and plasma levels of  
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428 TG (105). Besides TG, ANGPTL3 inactivation reduced LDL-C and apoB levels, despite no changes in hepatic  
429  
430 apoB secretion, thus suggesting an increased clearance of apoB-containing lipoproteins (105). Similar lipid-  
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432 modifying effects have been described, in a model of dyslipidemic *Cynomolgus* monkeys, after the  
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434 administration of an antibody against ANGPTL3 (106).

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436 Considering the ability of ANGPTL4 to inhibit LPL, knock-out mice showed a decrement of plasma TG  
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438 and a faster initial weight gain when these were fed with a HFD (107, 108). Unexpectedly, the growth of  
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440 *Angptl4*-null mice reached a plateau after 12 weeks of age, after that an opposite effect was seen, *i.e.* weight  
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442 loss associated to an anorexic state. This condition led to a premature death between weeks 15 and 25 due  
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444 to the development of severe fibrinopurulent peritonitis with ascites (107). In the same model, an intestinal  
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446 fibrosis was observed, with a compressed liver and a hyperplastic spleen. Moreover, mesenteric lymph nodes  
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448 underwent dramatic expansion and contained numerous lipid-laden macrophages (107).

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450 The regulation of LPL by ANGPTL4 is essential for the protection from the proinflammatory effects  
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452 induced by saturated fatty acids, leading to lipid accumulation into macrophages within mesenteric lymph  
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454 nodes. This effect is associated to foam cell formation and a massive inflammatory response characterized  
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456 by severe mesenteric lymphadenitis. These data suggest that the homozygous carrier status of the E40K  
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458 mutation in *Angptl4*, associated to higher LPL activity and lower plasma TG (62, 109), may be more sensitive  
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460 to the proinflammatory effects of dietary saturated fat. Even more intriguingly, recent evidence highlighted  
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462 a relevant anti-inflammatory action of ANGPTL4, exerted by modulating macrophage polarization by  
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464 mesenchymal stem cells during cardiac repair (110).

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466 Finally, relative to glucose metabolism findings are not conclusive. In transgenic mice overexpressing  
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468 *Angptl4* it has been reported (i) no impairment on glucose levels, (ii) a rise in blood glucose levels (44, 111),  
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470 and (iii) an improvement or an impairment in glucose tolerance (112-114). In contrast, the functional studies  
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472 on *Angptl4*-null mice demonstrated an improvement in insulin sensitivity and glucose homeostasis (115),  
suggesting that the inhibition of ANGPTL4 may reduce the risk of type 2 diabetes.

## 464 465 **6. Preclinical development of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 inhibitors**

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467 The identification of individuals carrying rare loss-of-function variants in *Angptl3* has confirmed the relevant  
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469 role of this protein in the metabolism of TGRL, also considering that these subjects have lower TG levels, LDL-  
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471 C and HDL-C (43, 116-119). This lipid profile is defined familial combined hypolipidemia and it seems not  
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475 associated with peculiar pathological manifestations (120). Similar findings in the lipid profile were described  
476 for variants of ANGPTL4, although these subjects had reduced TG but elevated HDL-C (78).  
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478 Interestingly, the use of a humanized mouse model deficient in the *Ldlr* highlighted that silencing of  
479 ANGPTL3 led to a modest reduction on LDL-C, thus suggesting that the LDL-C lowering was linked to *Ldlr* (92).  
480 This observation has been supported in *Ldlr*<sup>+/-</sup> mice injected with silencing *Angptl3* and PCSK9. Reduction of  
481 total cholesterol (TC) and LDL-C levels were larger than those achieved from silencing *Angptl3* or *PCSK9* alone  
482 (121). Currently, an open question is how inactivation of ANGPTL3 leads to the reduction in LDL-C levels.  
483 Some hypotheses have been raised: (i) changes in VLDL apoB production rate or LDL apoB fractional catabolic  
484 rate (86), (ii) reduced apoB secretion and enhanced uptake of apoB-containing lipoproteins (93), and (iii)  
485 increased LDL clearance due to a rise in the inactive form of PCSK9 (94). On the other hand, the raising effect  
486 of ANGPTL3 on HDL seems to be the direct consequence of the inhibitory phospholipase activity on EL (122).  
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492 A role of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 has also been documented with respect to the HDL promoting-  
493 cholesterol efflux. A direct correlation has been in part observed between plasma levels of these proteins  
494 and the HDL cholesterol efflux capacity in humans (123-125). Overall, the plasma concentrations of HDL of  
495 the studied subjects mainly accounted for the variation observed in HDL cholesterol efflux capacity.  
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498 Genetic variants leading to reduction in the levels of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 are associated with a  
499 reduced CHD risk, with odds ratios ranging between 0.61 and 0.66 (11, 12, 14). In particular, null variants of  
500 ANGPTL3 lead to a unique form of familial hypobetalipoproteinemia, characterized by lower levels of all  
501 lipoproteins (116) and enhanced insulin sensitivity without an increased prevalence of fatty liver disease  
502 (116).  
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506 The explanation for a reduced CVD risk may be related to a life-long exposure to low levels of LDL-C.  
507 However, the extent of risk reduction in ANGPTL3 loss-of-function variants is estimated to be larger than the  
508 one predicted by the LDL lowering effect, suggesting that the stimulation of LPL-promoted lipolysis might  
509 translate into additional cardiovascular protection (126). These genetic observations strongly support the  
510 utility of developing new ANGPTL3 and 4 inhibitors to reduce TG and the incidence of CVD. A summary of the  
511 pre-clinical evidence relative to ANGPTL3 or ANGPTL4 inhibitors is shown in Table 1A.  
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515 Evinacumab (REGN1500) is a fully human monoclonal antibody directed to ANGPTL3 (Box1)(127). By  
516 using surface plasmon resonance, Gusarova et al. measured the relative affinity of evinacumab to human,  
517 monkey, rat and mouse ANGPTL3 (106) and showed that the drug binds ANGPTL3 with comparable affinities  
518 in all four species ( $K_d=0.26\div 1.28$  nM). In addition, evinacumab reverted the inhibition of LPL mediated by  
519 ANGPTL3 with  $IC_{50}$  values of  $2.9\div 9.6$  nM (106). In an experimental model of hypercholesterolemic mice, the  
520 injection of 25 mg/kg once weekly of evinacumab for 8 weeks dramatically reduced TG (-53%), total  
521 cholesterol (-35%) and LDL-C (-45%) (106). These findings were then reproduced in nonhuman primates  
522 (Cynomolgus monkeys) treated with single doses of evinacumab (106). The 3 mg/kg dose reduced by 48%  
523 plasma TG levels, with a doubling of effect with 10 mg/kg (-89%). The lipid lowering effect was maintained  
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534 for 33 days after the single injection (106). Very recently, in APOE\*3-Leiden.CETP mice, triple treatment with  
535 atorvastatin + alirocumab + evinacumab was superior to atorvastatin in reducing plasma total cholesterol (-  
536 68%), non-HDL-C (-84%), and TG levels (-67%). Relative to atheroma formation and composition, the effect  
537 of triple combo blocked progression and led to a stronger regression of atherosclerotic lesion size, resulting  
538 in a further -56% macrophage content compared with control, in parallel with a rise in  $\alpha$ -smooth muscle cells  
539 and collagen content (128).  
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544 In addition to evinacumab, antisense oligonucleotides (ASOs) targeting ANGPTL3 messenger RNA are  
545 under clinical evaluation (Figure 2). ANGPTL3<sub>Rx</sub> is a second-generation 2'-O-methoxyethyl (2'-MOE) chimeric  
546 antisense oligonucleotide targeted to ANGPTL3 mRNA consisting of the nucleotide sequence 5'-  
547 GGACATTGCCAGTAATCGCA-3'. ANGPTL3-L<sub>Rx</sub> is a second-generation ASO drug targeting ANGPTL3 mRNA with  
548 the same sequence and sugar modifications as ANGPTL3<sub>Rx</sub> but the addition of a covalent linkage with a  
549 triantennary N-acetyl galactosamine (GalNAc) cluster, conferring high affinity for the hepatocyte-specific  
550 asialoglycoprotein receptor (ASGPR)(129) (Box2). The GalNAc cluster enhances delivery of ANGPTL3-L<sub>Rx</sub> to  
551 hepatocytes over other cell types and consequently increases drug potency for targets expressed by these  
552 cells (130).  
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557 Mouse *Angptl3* ASO has been tested in different animal models, including the *Ldlr*<sup>-/-</sup> and *Apoc3*<sup>-/-</sup>  
558 mice, and mice expressing human apoC-III, either fed with chow diet or Western diet (131). Administration  
559 of the murine *Angptl3* ASOs led to a drop in *Angptl3* mRNA expression between 69 and 91% corresponding  
560 to a decrement in protein levels of 50-90% in each of these mouse models. Relative to the lipid profile, TG,  
561 LDL-C and HDL-C were all reduced, i.e. between 35-85%, 7-64% and 3-23%, respectively (131). These findings  
562 show that the TG and LDL-C lowering driven by the silencing of ANGPTL3 is independent of the LDLR pathway  
563 and occurs in the absence or presence of an excess of apolipoprotein C-III which exhibits inhibitory LPL  
564 activity (46).  
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570 Experiments on the *Ldlr*<sup>-/-</sup> model allowed to verify that upon a Western-diet administration, the  
571 *Angptl3* ASO (50 mg/kg) halved the progression of *en face* atherosclerosis compared to the group receiving  
572 control ASO: 5.4% vs 11.4%. In these animals, administration of the GalNAc modified ASO resulted in a 20  
573 fold more potent suppression of ANGPTL3 with an ED<sub>50</sub> value equal to 10.4 mg (131).  
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576 Importantly, ANGPTL3-L<sub>Rx</sub> also reduces hepatic TG secretion, suggesting that a drug targeting  
577 ANGPTL3 would ameliorate hepatic steatosis, frequently associated to hypertriglyceridemia and insulin  
578 resistance. This effect was observed in diet-induced obese mice and ANGPTL3 deficient humans (131).  
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581 The monoclonal antibody anti-ANGPTL4 was developed by immunizing *Angptl4*<sup>-/-</sup> mice with the  
582 recombinant mouse protein for preclinical studies (132). The mAb 14D12 is directed to amino acids Gln29-  
583 His53 of the specific epitope 1 (SE1) (65). Hybridomas have been generated by the fusion of splenocytes  
584 which were isolated from an immunoresponsive mouse with NS1 myeloma cells. From this fusion, the  
585 hybridoma was identified to express IgGs that specifically inhibit LPL enzymatic activity. C57BL/6J mice  
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593 treated with mAb anti-ANGPTL4 had lower fasting TG when maintained on chow and HFD (-50% and -59%,  
594 respectively) compared to vehicle-treated mice (132). Interestingly, mAb anti-ANGPTL4 reduces TG also in  
595 *Ldlr*<sup>-/-</sup>, *ApoE*<sup>-/-</sup> and db/db mice (132). Importantly, the inhibition of ANGPTL4 reduces instead total cholesterol  
596 in C57BL/6J mice. This effect was partially recapitulated in *Ldlr*<sup>-/-</sup> and db/db mice, but not in *ApoE*<sup>-/-</sup> mice  
597 (132). Interestingly, inhibition of ANGPTL4 showed a rapid drop in serum TG after an i.v. lipid challenge,  
598 indicating an increase of TG clearance. The inhibition of ANGPTL4 appears to decrease VLDL production,  
599 although this data was not confirmed by overexpressing ANGPTL4 with adenoviral (133) or transgene in  
600 adipose tissue and skeletal muscle (114).  
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605 Finally, gene editing through the CRISPR-Cas9 technology represents a new approach able to induce  
606 an ANGPTL3 permanent LOF mutation. A proof-of-concept study reported that injection of base editor 3  
607 *Angptl3* into 5-week-old male mice resulted in a 49%, 31%, and 19% fall in the levels of ANGPTL3, TG and  
608 total cholesterol, respectively. When editing was carried on hyperlipidemic *Ldlr*<sup>-/-</sup> mice the reduction in TG  
609 and total cholesterol were 56% and 51%, respectively (134). However, clinical application of the gene editing  
610 approach as a pharmacological tool for preventing CVD remains questionable due to potential off-target  
611 mutagenesis, unknown toxicity or immunogenicity (135).  
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## 618 **7. Clinical development of ANGPTL3 inhibitors**

619 In a phase 1, first-in-human, clinical trial, safety and efficacy of evinacumab were tested after s.c. or i.v.  
620 injections in subjects with raised TG (150 ≤ TG ≤ 450 mg/dL) and/or LDL-C levels (≥ 100 mg/dL). The ascending  
621 single-dose were fixed to 75 mg, 150 mg or 250 mg for s.c. administration and to 5 mg/kg, 10 mg/kg or 20  
622 mg/kg for the i.v. ones. Evinacumab was well tolerated and the most frequent emergent adverse events were  
623 headache (11.3%) and increase in ALT/AST2 enzymes, *i.e.* 2 treated subjects experiencing with >3X ULN.  
624 Compared to placebo, evinacumab reduced TG in a range between 1% (the lowest dose) to 75% (the highest  
625 dose) and LDL-C between 3.4% to 25.5% (136) (Table 2).  
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631 The results of two additional phase 1 trials with evinacumab have been recently reported (137).  
632 Subjects with TG levels between 150 and 450 mg/dL were randomized to two different treatment protocol,  
633 a single ascending dose study and a multiple ascending dose study. In the single ascending dose study, TG  
634 reduction was dose-dependent and rapid, with maximum drops at day 3. Dose-dependent reductions in TG  
635 were observed in both studies, with maximum reductions of 76.9% at day 3 with 10 mg/kg i.v. in the single  
636 ascending dose and of 83.1% at day 2 with 20 mg/kg i.v. Q4W in the multiple ascending dose study. Significant  
637 reductions were also observed in non-HDL-C, apoB, total cholesterol, HDL-C and apoA-I levels in most  
638 evinacumab treatment groups compared to placebo (137). Interestingly, evinacumab treatment in both  
639 studies did not result in significant changes in Lp(a) levels (137) (Table 2).  
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645 Evinacumab was also tested in nine adults with homozygous familial hypercholesterolemia for LDLR,  
646 including two null homozygotes and one compound heterozygote with two null alleles. Patients, already  
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652 taking aggressive lipid-lowering therapy, received evinacumab 250 mg s.c. at baseline and 15 mg/kg *i.v.* at  
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654 week 2. After 4 weeks of treatment, evinacumab decreased LDL-C by a mean of  $49\pm 23\%$  (range, 25 to 90),  
655  
656 with an absolute decrease from baseline of  $157\pm 90$  mg per deciliter (range, 71 to 323) (39). An approximately  
657 significant 48% reduction of apoB, non HDL-C and TG was also observed (39) (Table 2). Treatment was well  
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659 tolerated, all nine patients reporting the occurrence of at least one adverse event, but no event led to  
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661 treatment discontinuation. Thus, evinacumab was shown to efficiently reduce LDL-C and TG in homozygous  
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663 patients already under intensive lipid lowering therapies. This evidence is in line with the fact that the lipid  
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665 lowering effect of ANGPTL3 inhibitors are obtained in a LDLR-independent manner.

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667 A phase 1 trial, in healthy volunteers aged 18 to 65 years, tested the pharmacokinetics, safety,  
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669 tolerability and pharmacodynamics of single and multiple ascending doses of ANGPTL3-L<sub>Rx</sub> (131).  
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671 Pharmacokinetic analysis of ANGPTL3-L<sub>Rx</sub> shows a linear and dose-dependent increase of maximum plasma  
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673 concentrations ( $C_{max}$ ) within 10 and 60 mg doses, after a rapid distribution phase. As the ANGPTL3-L<sub>Rx</sub>  
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675 concentrations decreases, ANGPTL3 protein concentrations return toward baseline values. The calculated  
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677 half-life ( $t_{1/2}$ ) was approximately 3-5 weeks (131). ANGPTL3-L<sub>Rx</sub> administered in a multiple-dose design was  
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679 effective at day 43 to lower TG (from -33.2% to -63.1%), LDL-C (from -1.3% to -32.9%), VLDL-C (from -27.9%  
680  
681 to -60%), non-HDL-C (from -10% to -36.6%), apoB (from -3.4% to -25.7%) and apoC-III (from -18.9% to -58.8%)  
682  
683 compared to placebo group. At day 43, ANGPTL3 levels were reduced from baseline by 46.6% (10 mg), 72.5%  
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685 (20 mg), 81.3% (40 mg) and 84.5% (60 mg). No clinical signs of prothrombotic effects, bleeding episodes,  
686  
687 significant decreases in platelet counts and of liver or renal function damages were found (131) (Table2).

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### 8. Conclusions

The magnitude of contribution of TG to CVD risk is evident both from long-term prospective studies (138) and genetic analyses (16). TGRL may penetrate the arterial wall by interacting with the positive charged residues on apoB and the negative charged groups on the arterial wall proteoglycans. This process allows TGRL to be retained within the sub-endothelial space and to undergo an oxidative modification which favors the development of atherosclerotic plaques and ASCVD (139). The lipolysis of TGRL rich in cholesterol and apoE releases oxidized FFA and lysolecithin which induce endothelial cell inflammation and coagulation (140). Recently, we have listed ANGPTL3 as an early predictor of peripheral artery disease, influencing the endothelial cell adhesion and stimulating the proliferation of haematopoietic stem cells, both processes exacerbating atherosclerosis (141).

Among pharmacological targets envisioned to reduce TG levels, activators of PPARs (*i.e.* fibrates being mild PPAR $\alpha$  agonists) (10) have shown possible benefit in patients with primary hypertriglyceridemia, mixed hyperlipidemia and type 2 diabetes with raised TG and low HDL-C (6, 142-144). The efficacy of controlling the hypertriglyceridemia was also recently confirmed by the use of icosapent ethyl in patients with elevated TG levels despite the use of statins (145). The REDUCE-IT (Reduction of Cardiovascular Events with Icosapent

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711 Ethyl-Intervention) trial demonstrated that after a median follow-up of 4.9 years, the primary endpoint, *i.e.*  
712 a composite of CV death, non-fatal MI, non-fatal stroke, coronary revascularization, or unstable angina, was  
713 reduced by 25% in the icosapent ethyl group vs placebo. Furthermore, icosapent ethyl was also superior to  
714 placebo to reduce total events, namely the occurrence of first and all recurrent major CV events by 30%.  
715 Specifically, first events fell by 25%, second ones by 32%, third ones by 31% and fourth ones or more by 48%  
716 (146). Of note, lomitapide, a first-in-class microsomal triglyceride transfer protein (MTP) inhibitor (147), has  
717 been shown to significantly control TG levels; it prevented pancreatitis in a patient with an inactivating  
718 mutation on the LPL, although with a potential long-term cost of hepatotoxicity (148). Despite these  
719 pharmacological opportunities, very effective and safe drugs for reducing TG levels are still missing. Within  
720 this scenario and along with the inhibition of apoC-III protein (149), the evidence of the role of ANGPTL3 and  
721 ANGPTL4 for controlling LPL activity and TG levels indicates a promising pharmacological target, although the  
722 adverse phenotype observed in *Angptl4<sup>-/-</sup>* mice (107, 112, 113), highlights ANGPTL3 as a better target.  
723 Although we are still at phase 1 of clinical development, the use of monoclonal antibodies and/or ASO  
724 directed to ANGPTL3 have shown very effective in lowering TG and LDL-C and increasing HDL-C (Figure 2).  
725 The ASO was safe, an important aspect, considering the thrombocytopenia found in patients given  
726 volanesorsen, an ASO against apoC-III , reducing chylomicron TG by roughly 83% (150). Thus, these therapies  
727 can be considered as a future valid implementation of the current use of PPAR- $\alpha$  agonists in the management  
728 of this very frequent clinical condition, namely hypertriglyceridemia.  
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## Figure legends

**Figure 1. Schematic representation of ANGPTL3, ANGPTL4 and ANGPTL8 protein structures.** ANGPTL3 (Angiopoietin-like protein 3) is composed by an N-terminal domain involved in the inhibition of lipoprotein lipase (LPL) and endothelial lipase and by a C-terminal fibrinogen-like domain. ANGPTL4 shares with ANGPTL3 both the coiled-coil domain and the fibrinogen-like domain (FLD). ANGPTL8 is paralog of the N-terminal region of ANGPTL3 and it is required for ANGPTL3 activation. All isoforms contain a Specific Epitope1 (SE1) required to inhibit LPL activity. LR stands for linker region. Modified from Lupu et al. (49)

**Figure 2. Biology and pharmacological inhibition of ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4.** ANGPTL3 (Angiopoietin-like protein 3) is secreted by hepatocytes and inhibits lipoprotein lipase (LPL) in peripheral tissues, such as skeletal muscle and adipose tissues. Differently, ANGPTL4 is induced by fasting or physical exercise; it is released by the liver, the skeletal muscle and the white adipose tissue. ANGPTL3 and ANGPTL4 inhibit LPL and endothelial lipase (EL), thus increasing the levels of TG-rich-lipoproteins, FFA and glycerol. Phase I clinical trials with monoclonal antibodies (evinacumab) and antisense oligonucleotide (ASO) against anti-ANGPTL3 are ongoing, while an antibody anti-ANGPTL4, 14D12, is still in preclinical development. ER: endoplasmic reticulum; FFA, free fatty acids; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; TG, triglycerides; TGRL, triglyceride-rich lipoproteins.

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**Table 1.** Effect of ANGPTL3 or ANGPTL4 inhibition on lipid profile in pre-clinical studies.

Treatment	Model	Efficacy
Evinacumab	Wild type and LDLr <sup>-/-</sup> mice (105)	TG -40%; TC -33%; reduced apoB, increased clearance of apoB-containing lipoproteins
	Wild type mice fed High fat diet (106)	TG -53%; TC -35%; LDL-C -45%
	Spontaneous hypertriglyceridemic Cynomolgus monkey (106)	TG -48% (3mg/Kg) /-89% (10mg/Kg); non-HDL-C -44%; LDL-C: no changes
	ApoE3-Leiden CETP mice fed Western diet (128)	In combination with alirocumab and atorvastatin: TG -67%; TC -68%; non-HDL-C -84% compared to atorvastatin; stronger regression of atherosclerosis lesion size, improved plaque composition compared to control
Angptl3 ASO	(i) LDLr <sup>-/-</sup> and apoC-III <sup>-/-</sup> mice fed chow and high fat diets	TG -35/-85%; LDL-C -7/-64%; delayed <i>en face</i> atherosclerosis progression in LDLr <sup>-/-</sup> mice Fed Western-diet
	(ii) mice expressing human apoC-III (13)	
Angptl3 CRISPR-Cas9 base editing	Wild type mice (134)	TG -31%, TC -19%
	Hyperlipidemic LDL <sup>-/-</sup> mice (134)	TG -56%, TC -51%
anti-Angptl4 mAb 14D12	Wild type mice fed chow and high fat diets (132)	TG:-50/-59%; TC ≈-30%; rised TG clearance; reduced VLDL production
	apoE <sup>-/-</sup> , LDLr <sup>-/-</sup> and db/db mice (132)	TG ≈ -55%; TC ≈ -25% in LDLr <sup>-/-</sup> and db/db mice, no changes in apoE <sup>-/-</sup> mice

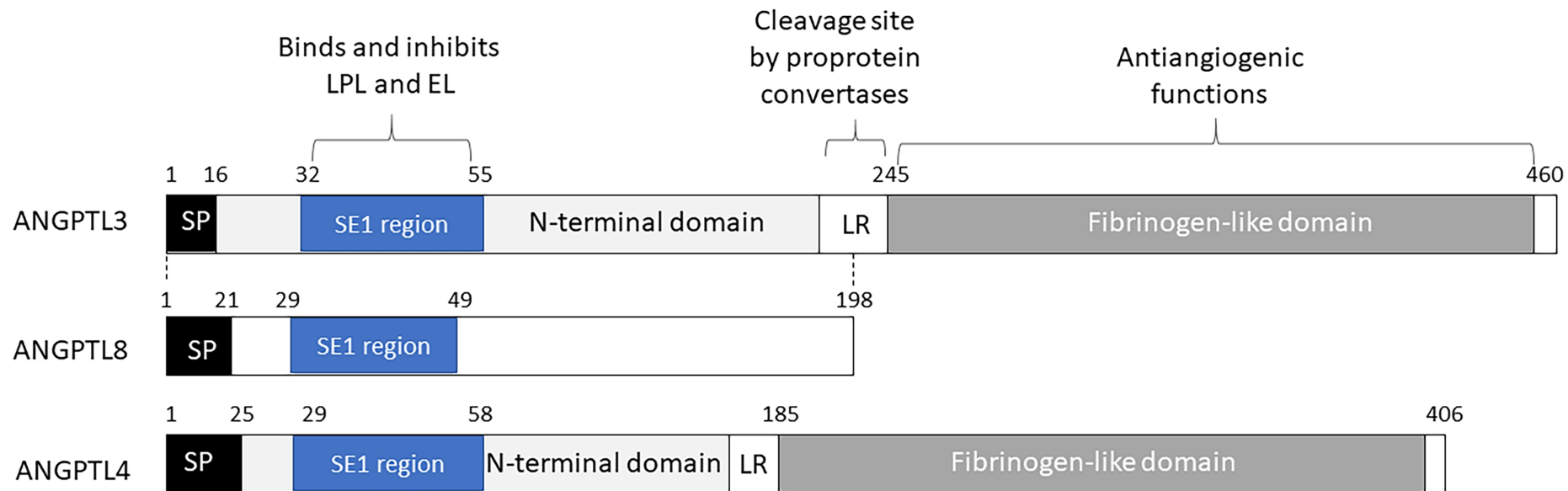
Angptl3, angiopoietin like 3; apoB, apolipoprotein B; apoE, apolipoprotein E; ASO, Antisense Oligonucleotide; CETP, cholesteryl transfer protein; HDL, high density lipoproteins; LDL, low density lipoproteins; TC, total cholesterol; TG, triglycerides; VLDL, very low-density lipoproteins

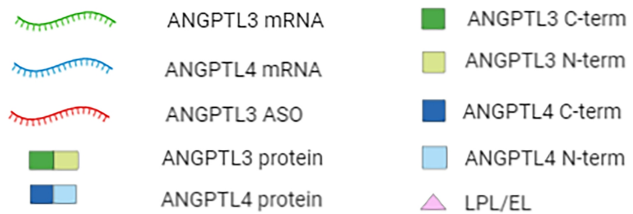
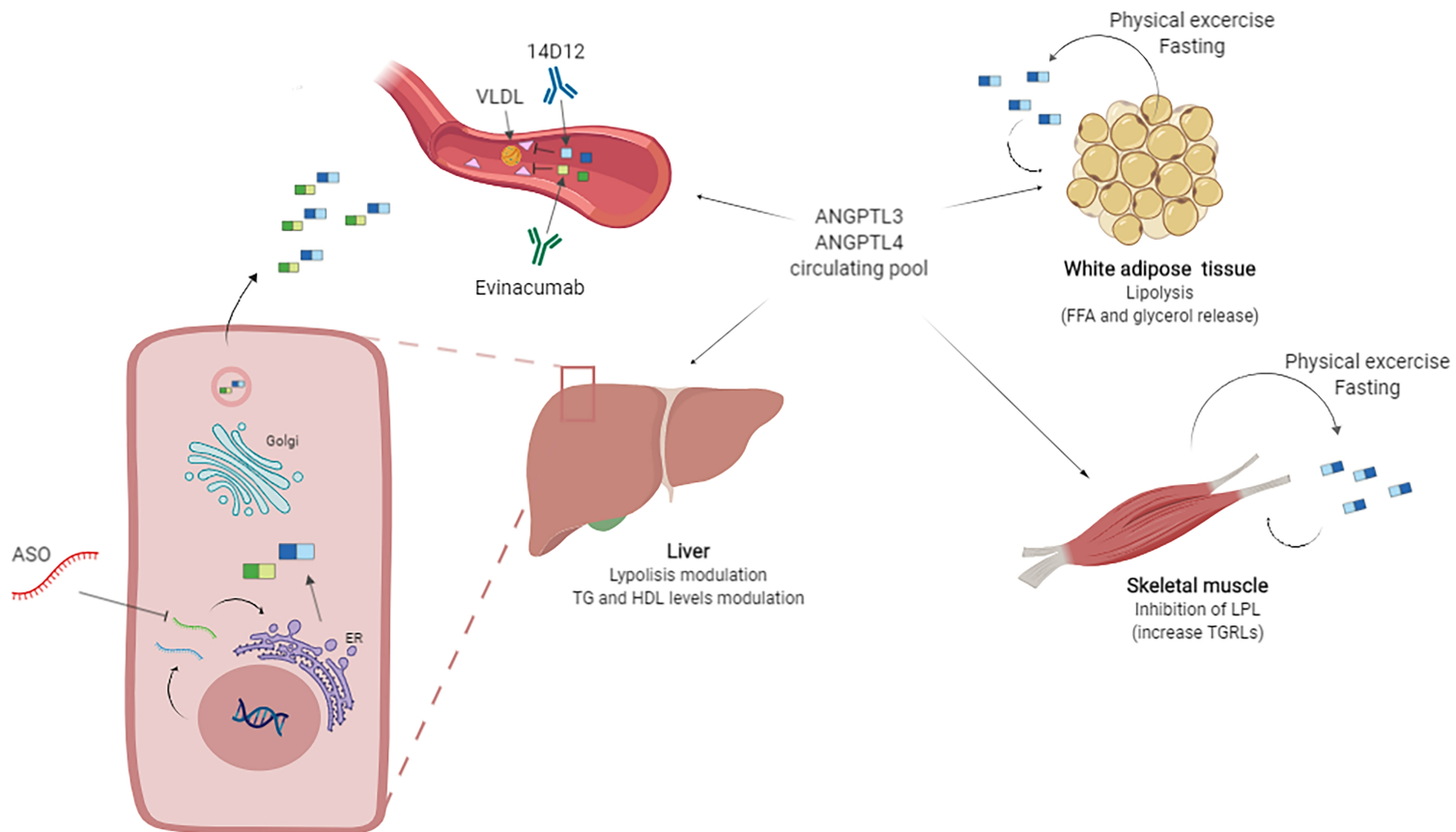
**Table 2.** Effect of ANGPTL3 inhibition on lipid profile in clinical studies.

Treatment	Dose	Efficacy
Evinacumab in subjects with 150 ≤ TG ≤ 450 mg/dL (136)	Ascending single-dose 75, 150, 250 mg for s.c. or 5, 10, 20 mg/Kg for i.v.	TG -1% (lowest dose) to -75% (highest dose) LDL-C -3.4% (lowest dose) to -25.5% (highest dose)
Evinacumab in subjects with 150 ≤ TG ≤ 450 mg/dL (137)	Ascending single-dose 75, 150, 250 mg for s.c. or 5, 10, 20 mg/Kg for i.v. Multiple ascending dose 150/300/450 mg once weekly, 300/450 mg every 2 weeks for s.c. or 20 mg/kg once every 4 weeks i.v.	TG maximum reduction of 76.9% with 10 mg/kg i.v. TG maximum reduction of 83.1% with 20 mg/kg i.v. once every 4 weeks
Evinacumab in adults with homozygous familial hypercholesterolemia (39)	250 mg s.c. at baseline and 15 mg/kg i.v. at week 2	LDL-C -49% (range, 25 to 90) TG -47% (interquartile range, 38 to 57)
ANGPTL3-L <sub>Rx</sub> in healthy volunteers aged 18-65 years with TG > 150 mg/dL (131)	Multiple-ascending dose 10, 20, 40 or 60 mg per week for 6 weeks	TG from -33.2% to -63.1%, LDL-C from -1.3% to -32.9% VLDL-C from -27.9% to -60%

ANGPTL3, angiotensin like 3; i.v., intravenous; LDL, low density lipoproteins; TC, total cholesterol; TG, triglycerides; s.c., subcutaneous; VLDL, very low-density lipoproteins







Relative to the manuscript “Pharmacological aspects of ANGPTL3 and AGPTL4 inhibitors: new therapeutic approaches for the treatment of atherogenic dyslipidemia” the Authors declare no conflict of interests.