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Cholesterol-lowering therapy for the treatment of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease:

an update

RUNNING HEAD: CHOLESTEROL-LOWERING AGENTS IN NAFLD

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Abstract

Purpose of review. To review recent human trials assessing cholesterol-lowering agents in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD).

Recent findings. Four randomized controlled trials assessed statins in NAFLD. In the only RCT with post-treatment biopsy, simvastatin did not change liver histology. In the remaining RCTs, atorvastatin was safe, significantly improved radiological/biochemical markers of steatosis and plasma lipids, with neutral effects on glucose metabolism; in the Greek Atorvastatin and Coronary Heart Disease Evaluation (GREACE) study, atorvastatin reduced incident CVD compared with both untreated

NAFLD patients and with statin-treated patients without NAFLD. Ezetimibe was evaluated in 2 uncontrolled trials and 2 RCTs, consistently improving liver histology and plasma lipids, while glucose metabolism was generally unaffected; however, HbA1c increased with ezetimibe in one RCT.

Summary. From the analysis of available trials it emerges that cholesterol-lowering agents may considerably benefit NAFLD patients. Statins are safe, and atorvastatin improved surrogate markers of liver disease, while their effect on liver histology is unknown. Furthermore, the GREACE study was the first trial to show clinical benefit from the use of a pharmacological agent in NAFLD. Ezetimibe improved liver histology. The benefit of combination therapy, as well as the safety on glucose metabolism, need further evaluation

Key words: NAFLD, cholesterol-lowering drugs, hyperlipidemia, ezetimibe, statins

Introduction

Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) can be encountered in up to 30% of the general adult population and is considered the hepatic manifestation of the metabolic syndrome, affecting up to 60-70% of diabetic and obese patients [1]. NAFLD encompasses a histological spectrum ranging from simple steatosis (SS) to steatosis plus necro-inflammation (non-alcoholic steatohepatitis, NASH), with or without fibrosis, that can only be differentiated by liver biopsy; NASH affects 3-5% of the general adult population and up to 20-40% of obese and diabetic subjects [1].

Patients with NAFLD have an increased risk of liver-related complications (largely confined to NASH), of cardiovascular disease (CVD) and of type 2 diabetes [2].

NAFLD frequently coexists with overt dyslipidaemia (hypercholesterolemia or atherogenic dyslipidemia, i.e. elevated triacylglycerol (TG) and/or low HDL-cholesterol levels) and is constantly associated with altered lipoprotein metabolism, as liver TG excess drives hepatic large very low density lipoprotein(VLDL)-1 subfraction oversecretion, which accumulate in the blood, compete with chylomicrons for lipoprotein lipase, exchange their TG with LDL and HDL particles, eventually leading to the atherogenic phenotype of small, dense LDLs, and low HDL-C(prevalently represented by HDL-3) [3]. Beyond these associations, growing animal and human evidence connects altered hepatocyte cholesterol metabolism and hepatic free cholesterol accumulation to the pathogenesis of liver injury in NAFLD. Mari et al first showed mitochondrial free cholesterol accumulation sensitizes the liver to inflammatory stimuli in rats through mitochondrial glutathione depletion [4**]. Other authors. demonstrated that cholesterol intake is essential for determining hepatic inflammation and NASH in hyperlipidemic mouse models fed a Western diet, likely through direct Kupffer cell activation upon scavenging of remnant cholesterol-rich lipoproteins; consistently, omitting cholesterol from the high-fat diet prevented hepatic free cholesterol accumulation, hepatocyte injury or apoptosis, macrophage recruitment, and the development of diet-induced NASH[5**,6**]. A recent study in Alms1 mutant (foz/foz) mice elegantly elucidated the mechanisms underlying hepatocyte free cholesterol accumulation: up-regulation of low density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) via activation of sterol regulatory element binding protein-2 (SREBP-2), reduced biotransformation to bile acids, and suppression of canalicular pathways for cholesterol and bile acid excretion in bile [6**]. Additionally, epidemiological studies linked excessive dietary cholesterol intake to the development and severity of NAFLD, independently of caloric and macronutrient intake, even in the absence of overt hypercholesterolemia [7*, 8], and lipidomic analysis of human livers has shown a progressive increase of hepatic free cholesterol during different stages of NASH [9*, 10].

Altogether, these features make cholesterol-lowering drugs an attractive therapeutic tool in NAFLD: we will review recent advances in cholesterol-lowering agents in NAFLD.

Statins

A recent Liver Expert Panel stated that patients with NAFLD are not at increased risk of statin hepatotoxicity and routine transaminase monitoring is not warranted in these subjects [11]. Even their feared potential for worsening glucose tolerance seems largely outweighed by their well-established cardiovascular benefit[12].

To date, safety and efficacy of statins in NAFLD have been evaluated in 4 randomized controlled trials (RCTs) (Table 1).

In the only, small RCT with post-treatment histology, 1 year of simvastatin did not change liver histology in 16 patients with NASH [13].

The Greek Atorvastatin and Coronary Heart Disease Evaluation (GREACE) study was a 3-year prospective, randomised, open label survival study enrolling 1600 patients (78% male, 20% diabetic, 45% with metabolic syndrome) with established coronary heart disease (CHD), serum LDL cholesterol >2.6 mmol/L and triglyceride <4.5 mmol/L, who were randomized to receive statins or usual care (lifestyle changes, such as a low-fat diet, weight loss, and exercise, and all necessary drug treatment, including statin) [14]. Primary end-point was the first occurrence of any cardiovascular event. In a post-hoc analysis of the GREACE study, safety and efficacy of statins were evaluated in 437 patients (80% male, 51% diabetic, 91% with metabolic syndrome) with abnormal (< 3 x ULN) baseline

transaminases, presumably due to NAFLD, based on ultrasonography and exclusion of other common causes of abnormal liver function tests.

The risk reduction in NAFLD patients was compared with the relative risk reduction seen between patients with normal liver tests who were treated with a statin and those not treated with a statin. Overall, statins (mainly atorvastatin 24 mg/d) were safe, with <1% patients discontinuing statin because of liver-related adverse effects (transaminase elevation >three-times the ULN). Importantly, diabetes incidence was low (4%) in statin-treated NAFLD patients and similar to that of patients not on statin (4.3%).

Statins improved liver function tests in NAFLD patients, normalizing AST, ALT and GGT in 89% of patients after 3 years, while liver tests worsened in NAFLD patients not receiving statins; Beside a reduction in LDL-C (-44% from baseline), statin-treated NAFLD patients also improved also plasma triglyceride (-32%), HDL-C (+8%) and estimated glomerular filtration rate (EGFR) (from 59 ml/min to 70 ml/min/1.73 m², p<0.0001). Most importantly, statin treatment was associated with a significant (-68%) risk reduction of CVD events compared with both NAFLD patients not on statin and with statin-treated patients with normal transaminases

With all the limitation of a post-hoc analysis and the methods used to detect NAFLD, some considerations can be drawn from this important study:

1)statins appear safe in NAFLD and improve biochemical markers of liver disease. The actual steatosis regression rate with statins is however unknown, as a substantial number of NAFLD patients still have significant liver fat infiltration despite normal liver enzymes.

1)the GREACE is the first RCT showing therapeutic benefit on clinical end-points in NAFLD. Statinrelated CVD risk reduction was greater in patients with presumed NAFLD than in those with normal liver tests, with a number needed to treat of 5 NAFLD patients to save 1 CVD event. Therefore, the risk-to-benefit ratio of long-term treatment with statins (mainly atorvastatin in this study) seems to favour statin administration for patients with NAFLD-related moderately abnormal liver tests. 2)consistently with the results of a recent meta-analysis, statins are safe and do not seem to affect the risk of incident diabetes[12], although their impact on insulin resistance and glucose metabolism in NAFLD requires further evaluation.

3)the benefit of statins in NAFLD appear to extend to renal function. Emerging evidence connects NAFLD, and more consistently NASH, to an increased risk of developing chronic kidney disease, defined as either an estimated glomerular filtration rate of <60 mL/min/1.73 m² of body surface area or abnormal proteinuria, independently of traditional risk factors, metabolic syndrome, and insulin resistance[15, 16, 17]. Mechanisms potentially linking obesity, NAFLD and kidney disease include altered fetuin-A, adiponectin and tissue 5'-AMP activated protein kinase (AMPK) expression [18**]. Mechanisms responsible for the beneficial effects of statins on renal function are still unclear, but may involve transcriptional regulation of organic anion transporters (OATs) localized in the basolateral side of proximal tubular cells, like SLCO4C1, which are involved in the renal elimination of uremic toxins and kidney inflammation[19,20**].

3)atorvastatin was the most widely used statin in the GREACE study. It is currently unknown whether different statins have different effectiveness in NAFLD: atorvastatin was assessed in all but 1 RCT in NAFLD and constantly improved biochemical and radiological surrogates of steatosis, while simvastatin did not change liver histology in the only RCT with post-treatment histology [13]. These differences may be related to the varying lipophilicity and related extrahepatic effects of different statins, which need to be further addressed by future research[21**] (Table 2; Table 3).

4) the median daily dose of statins (atorvastatin 24 mg, simvastatin 22 mg, pravastatin 31 mg, and fluvastatin 40 mg) in NAFLD patients who normalized liver tests was similar to that used in patients who did not normalize liver enzymes at the end of the study. Of the measured variables, only reduction in plasma triglyceride correlated with ALT improvement in the GREACE population (r=0.59, p=0.002). Therefore, a major issue for future RCTs would be the individuate predictors of response to statin in NAFLD patients. Patients with NAFLD are an heterogeneous population, with different mechanisms contributing to liver injury in the single patient. A major challenge for research will be to

individuate those genetic or environmental factors associated with a favourable response to statin treatment, to tailor treatment to individual patient characteristics.

In a subgroup of 80 NAFLD patients from the St Francis Heart Study Randomized Clinical Trial, the combination of atorvastatin 20 mg+vitamin C 1 g/d + vitamin E 1000 IU/d was safe and improved computed tomography(CT)-assessed steatosis after 3.6 years[22]. The St. Francis RCT was originally designed to evaluate the effect of this treatment on the risk of developing CVD in healthy individuals deemed high risk by coronary calcium score. Several observations can be made on this study. 1)The exclusion of individuals with baseline transaminases > $1.5 \times ULN$ likely excluded patients with moderate-to-severe NASH; furthermore, alcohol intake was not assessed, and some participants might actually have had alcoholic rather than nonalcoholic fatty liver.

2)Most importantly, it is unclear whether the post-treatment 2.2-fold reduction in NAFLD prevalence in the treatment arm compared to placebo was the effect of the combination of atorvastatin + antioxidants or of either agent alone, given that vitamin E showed significant benefit on liver disease in the 2 large PIVENS and TONIC trials[23, 24].

3)Significant reduction in NAFLD prevalence in the treatment group was still observed in patients with normal cholesterol and triglyceride levels at baseline and after controlling for age, sex, baseline BMI and blood pressure, and follow-up lipid values, suggesting that hyperlipidemia is not required for this treatment to be effective. Although the antioxidant effect of vitamins C and E may have contributed to the observed improvement, the documented antioxidant, anti-lipogenic, anti-inflammatory and antifibrogenic effects of statins may have played a relevant role (Table 2)[25**, 26**,27*, 28*, 29, 30*, 31, 32, 33*, 34, 35]. Consistent with this view, in a small RCT enrolling 29 normocholesterolemic overweight subjects, atorvastatin 80 mg/d reduced liver TG content by 40% compared with placebo; this effect was coupled with pervasive changes in hepatic expression of genes involved in lipogenesis, while fasting glucose, NEFA and insulin sensitivity were unchanged [26**] (Table 1).

Ezetimibe

Ezetimibe inhibits the Niemann-Pick C1 like 1 (NPC1L1) protein, which catalyzes absorption of cholesterol by enterocytes and hepatocytes in the gut and the liver, and showed promising results in animal models of NASH [36, 37].

In 2 nonrandomized trials, ezetimibe improved histological steatosis and necroinflammatory grade, but not fibrosis in NAFLD [38, 39]. These improvements were associated with an improvement in insulin resistance and with a favourable redistribution in plasma VLDL/LDL lipoprotein subfractions, in unsaturated/saturated fatty acid profile and in estimated desaturase activity index [38, 40] (Table 1). Two RCTs assessed ezetimibe in NAFLD. In abdominally obese NAFLD patients, ezetimibe plus a low-fat diet significantly reduced magnetic resonance (MR)-assessed liver fat content and plasma inflammatory markers compared to placebo, despite similar weight, waist and HOMA reduction [41] (Table 1). In the first RCT with post-treatment histology, ezetimibe significantly improved histological ballooning and fibrosis, but worsened HbA1c, suggesting the impact of this agent on glucose metabolism needs further evaluation [42*].

Combination therapy of ezetimibe with other agents may also have synergistic effects in NAFLD. To further reduce hepatotoxic free cholesterol accumulation, inhibition of cholesterol absorption by ezetimibe and synthesis by statins may offer additive benefits over either agent alone. Ezetimibe/simvastatin (10/20mg/d) significantly improved liver enzymes and atherogenic dyslipidemia in 19 diabetic patients with NAFLD [43].

The combination of ezetimibe with alpha-glucosidase inhibitors significantly improved liver histology compared with either drug alone, an effect at least in part explained by synergistic effects on intestinal incretin glucagon-like peptide-1 secretion and hepatic microsomal triglyceride transfer protein (MTP) and peroxisome proliferators-activated receptor- α 1 (PPAR- α 1) expression [44**, 45, 46]. Consistent with these experimental findings, Nagai et al. reported dramatic improvement in liver enzymes and insulin resistance with ezetimibe+voglibose in a patients with NASH, refractory to

ezetimibe+ursodeoxycholic acid [47]..

Conclusions. On the basis of mounting evidence, strategies aiming at reducing hepatic free cholesterol content show promise in NAFLD. Inhibition of cholesterol synthesis with statins and/or absorption by

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ezetimibe warrants assessment in larger RCTs; the benefits of cholesterol-lowering agents appear to extend beyond liver disease, and the combination of ezetimibe/statins with each other and with other agents acting on different steps involved in lipid (dys)metabolism and adipose tissue inflammation may also offer synergistic benefits over either agent alone.

Key points

-in the light of increasing evidence connecting increased hepatic free cholesterol content to liver disease in NAFLD, cholesterol-lowering agents are receiving much attention for the treatment of NAFLD -among statins, atorvastatin improved biochemical/radiological markers of steatosis in NAFLD, and reduced also CVD events in the GREACE study. The benefit of statins on CVD risk seem to be even greater in patients with NAFLD than in patients with normal liver enzymes. The impact of statins on liver histology is unknown.

-ezetimibe improved liver histology in the few trials available, but its glucose-related safety needs further evaluation

-these drugs may offer synergistic benefit when used in combination with each other or with other drugs targeting different steps of lipid/glucose metabolism.

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Statins								
Study population DesignAgent	Design		Duratio	Duratio Response				Comments
				Liver	Steatosis	Histology	Histology Cardio-metabolic parameters	
				enzymes ((imaging)			
16 NASH	RCT	Simvastati 12 mo		↓	NA	\$	↔ plasma lipids	First RCT to assess the effect
BMI 36		n 40 mg						9of statins on liver histology
44% DM								in NASH
437 NAFLD	RCT 8	RCT 8 Atorvastati36 mo	36 mo		NA	NA	↓↓C, TG	First trial reporting
BMI 29		n 24 mg						effectiveness of an afent on
51% DM		or other						clinical outcomes in NAFLD
		statins						
80 NAFLD	RCT 8	RCT 8 Atorvastati 3.6 yr		\$	ţ(CT)	NA		The association of statin with
		n 20mg					¢ C, LDL	antioxidants is safe and
BMI 33		+vit C 1						effective in NAFLD
MG%6		g+vit E						
19	RCT	Atorvastati4 wk		NA	NA	↓ St	↑ VLDL TG	Atorvastatin induced
Normocholestero		n 80 mg						substantial changes in hepatic

Table 1: recent trials with cholesterol-lowering drugs in NAFLD

uthor	elson 2009	thyros)10 ¹⁴	oster 2011	amfalk)11 ²⁶
Au	13 Ne		Fos	Pra 201

Ezetimibe)e						
Design	Agent	Duration	Response				Comments
	(daily						
			Liver	Steatosis	Histology	Histology Cardio-metabolic parameters	Inflammatory markers
			enzymes	(imaging)			BP
UNT	EZE10	6 mo	\rightarrow	+(CT)	↓St	↓ BMI visceral fat	First trial reporting
	mg+LJ					↓ TG. LDL-C, ,	effectiveness of ezetimibe
						↓ CRP/Type IV collagen 7s,	in NAFLD
RCT	EZE10	22 wk	\Rightarrow	+(MRS)	NA		First RCT assessing
	mg+diet					↓ IL-6, CRP	eezetimibe in NAFLD
INU	EZE 10	1024 mo	\rightarrow	NA	↓St Ne	↓ visceral fat and HOMA	Favourable impact on
	mg+diet					↓ TG/ total and LDL-	LDL-VLDL and LDL
						C, VLDL-1, \downarrow small LDL, \downarrow subfraction distribution and	subfraction distribution and
RCT	EZE 10	1024 wk	1	NA	↓ Ne Fi	↓ total cholesterol	The impact of ezetimibe on
	mg					↑ HbA1c	glucose metabolism needs

Author	Study
	population
Yoneda 201010	10
39	hyperlipidemic
	NASH
Chan	25 NAFLD
2010^{41}	BMI 32
Park 2011 ⁴⁰	45
	hyperlipidemic
	NAFLD
Takeshita	29 NAFLD BMI
2011^{42}	29

Abbreviations: UNT: uncontrolled trial; RCT: randomized controlled trial; HbA1c: glycated Haemoglobin A1c; M%: % males; DM: type 2 diabetes mellitus; St: steatosis; Ne: necroinflammation; Fi: fibrosis; NA: not available; CT: computed tomography; MRS: magnetic resonance spectroscopy; C: total cholesterol; LDL: low density lipoprotein; TG: triacylglycerolTNF: tumor necrosis factor, CRP: C-reactive protein; IL-6: interleukin-6; LI: lifestyle intervention; oxLDL: oxidized LDL; SCD-1: stearoyl-CoA desaturase-1; CE: cholesterol esters; EZE: ezetimibe; ANGPTL3: angiopoietin-like protein 3

Table 2 Pharmacological properties of statins which may favourably affect liver disease in

NAFLD

Mechanism	Functional consequences	Biological effect	Ref
↓ SREBP-1c	\downarrow hepatic <i>de novo</i>	↓ hepatic TG	26
	lipogenesis	\downarrow plasma VLDL TG	
↓ hepatic ANGPTL3 (inhibitor of LPL)	↑ hepatic lipolysis of	↓ plasma VLDL TG	26
	plasma VLDL		
↑ apolipoprotein C III clearance from	↑ VLDL TG clearance	↓ plasma VLDL TG	34
the blood		\downarrow hepatic TG uptake	
↓ hepatic glucokinase	↓ hepatic glycolysis,	\downarrow insulin resistance	26
	glycogen synthesis and	↓ hepatic TG	
	pentosephosphate		
	pathway		
↑ hepatic glucose-6-phosphatase	\downarrow hepatic gluconeogenesis	\downarrow insulin resistance	26
↑ hepatic acetyl-coenzyme A	\uparrow hepatic <i>de novo</i>	↑ hepatic TG	26
carboxylase 1	lipogenesis		
↑ ACSS2	↑ acetyl-CoA \rightarrow ↑ hepatic	↑ hepatic TG	26
	de novo lipogenesis		
↓ hepatic ChREBP	\downarrow hepatic <i>de novo</i>	↓ hepatic TG	25
	lipogenesis		

\downarrow hepatic fructokinase activity in	↓ fructose-induced	↓ hepatic TG	25
fructose-fed rats	lipogenesis and		
	gluconeogenesis		
\downarrow phosphorylated inhibitor of κB (p-	\downarrow nuclear factor- κ B (NF-	↓ hepatic necro-	25
ΙκΒ)	кВ) activation	inflammation	29
			30
↑ hepatic ATP-binding cassette	↑ apolipoprotein A-I	↑ plasma HDL-C levels	31
transporter A1 (ABCA1) expression by	lipidation and high-		
enhancing SREBP2 and PPAR α -	density		
expression	lipoprotein (HDL)		
	production		
↓ hepatic angiotensin II-induced	↓ HSC proliferation,	\downarrow hepatic inflammation	30
inflammation	↓NF-κB activation,	and fibrogenesis	
	\downarrow ICAM-1 expression,		
	↓interleukin-8 secretion,		
	\downarrow procollagen- $\alpha 1_{(1)}$ and		
	TGF-β1. expression		
↓ glyceraldehyde-derived AGE	↓ AGE-RAGE axis	↓ AGE-induced	28
production	activation	oxidative stress,	
		inflammation and	
		insulin resistance	
\downarrow hepatic nitrotyrosine production	↓ hepatic oxidative stress	\downarrow hepatic inflammation	33
$\downarrow \text{ HSC expression of TNF-}\alpha, \text{TGF-}\beta1$	\downarrow HSC activation and	and fibrogenesis	
TIMP-1, TIMP-2, MMP-2 and type I	fibrogenesis		
procollagen	10102010315		
proconagen			

\uparrow HSC expression of PPAR- γ			
\downarrow TLR4 activation by LPS in liver,	\downarrow downstream signalling	\downarrow hepatic, adipose	35
muscle and adipose tissue	pathways c-JNK and NF-	tissue and muscle	
	kB activation	inflammation	
	\downarrow unfolded protein	↓ cellular apoptosis	
	response		
↑ adiponectin secretion (hydrophilic	\downarrow hepatic lipogenesis,	\downarrow hepatic steatosis,	21
statins)	inflammation and	necroinflammation and	
	fibrogenesis	fibrosis	

Abbreviations: SREBP-1c: sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1c;

ANGPTL3: angiopoietin-like protein 3; LPL: lipoprotein lipase; ACSS2: acyl-CoA synthetase shortchain family member 2; ChREBP: Carbohydrate Response Element Binding Protein; AGE: advanced glycation end-products; RAGE: receptor for AGE; HSC: hepatic stellate cells; ICAM-1:

ntercellular adhesion molecule-1; TGF: transforming growth factor;

TIMP: Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase; MMP-2: matrix metalloproteinase-2; TNF-α: tumor necrosis factor-α; TLR-4: toll-like receptor-4; LPS: lipopolysaccharide

JNK: Jun N-terminal kinase

Table 3 Open issues in the use of statins for the treatment of NAFLD

The impact of statins on different histological features (steatosis, necroinflammation and fibrosis) in
NASH is unknown.
The effect of different statins on liver histology and cardio-metabolic profile in NASH may vary widely
and is currently unknown. The new statin pitavastatin seems more potent an inhibitor of cells involved
in fibrogenesis than older statins
The predictors of response to statins, as well as their effectiveness in normolipidemic patients with
NAFLD, are unknown.
The potential for combination therapies targeting multiple pathways involved in liver, metabolic and
cardiovascular disease in largely unexplored (i.e. statins+ezetimibe; cholesterol-lowering drugs+insulin
sensitizers; cholesterol-lowering drugs+angiotensin receptor blockers)
The impact of statins on glucose metabolism and risk of diabetes in NAFLD patients requires further
investigation
The benefits of statins on renal function, and their efficacy in preventing/slowing the development of
end-stage renal disease, as well as underlying mechanisms, needs further confirmation

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