

The haemochromatosis gene Hfe and Kupffer cells control LDL cholesterol homeostasis and impact on atherosclerosis development

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Aims

Imbalances of iron metabolism have been linked to the development of atherosclerosis. However, subjects with hereditary haemochromatosis have a lower prevalence of cardiovascular disease. The aim of our study was to understand the underlying mechanisms by combining data from genome-wide association study analyses in humans, CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing, and loss-of-function studies in mice.

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Methods and results

Our analysis of the Global Lipids Genetics Consortium (GLGC) dataset revealed that single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in the haemochromatosis gene *HFE* associate with reduced low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) in human plasma. The LDL-C lowering effect could be phenocopied in dyslipidaemic *ApoE*^{-/-} mice lacking *Hfe*, which translated into reduced atherosclerosis burden. Mechanistically, we identified HFE as a negative regulator of LDL receptor expression in hepatocytes. Moreover, we uncovered liver-resident Kupffer cells (KCs) as central players in cholesterol homeostasis as they were found to acquire and transfer LDL-derived cholesterol to hepatocytes in an *Abca1*-dependent fashion, which is controlled by iron availability.

Conclusion

Our results disentangle novel regulatory interactions between iron metabolism, KC biology and cholesterol homeostasis which are promising targets for treating dyslipidaemia but also provide a mechanistic explanation for reduced cardiovascular morbidity in subjects with haemochromatosis.

Keywords

Haemochromatosis • Atherosclerosis • LDL receptor • Kupffer cells • ABCA1

Translational perspective

Dyshomeostasis of iron metabolism has been linked to the development of cardiovascular disease. By mining data of genome-wide association studies, we show that *HFE* variants associate with plasma low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) in humans, which was corroborated in a meta-analysis comprising six epidemiological studies ($n = 24\,058$) where individuals carrying non-functional *HFE* displayed significantly reduced plasma LDL-C levels. Accordingly, *ApoE*^{-/-} mice lacking *Hfe* in a setting of dietary iron overload display reduced plasma LDL-C levels, translating into inhibition of atherosclerosis. We identify HFE as a negative regulator of LDL receptor expression in hepatocytes, while iron overload triggers both the uptake and subsequent *Abca1*-dependent transflux of cholesterol from Kupffer cells (KCs) to hepatocytes. Our data on the interaction between HFE, iron, KC, and LDL-C homeostasis may pave the way for the development of novel therapeutic strategies to combat cardiovascular disease in humans.

Introduction

Hypercholesterolaemia is a major risk factor for atherosclerosis, and reduction of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) has been shown to protect from the development of cardiovascular disease.¹ As current therapeutics do not always achieve this goal new therapeutic approaches to treat hypercholesterolaemia are needed.^{2,3}

Iron overload has been linked to an increased risk for atherosclerosis. However, current epidemiologic and experimental evidence is not consistent.^{4,5} A well-studied cause for parenchymal iron overload is hereditary haemochromatosis (HH) mostly being the consequence of a missense mutation of the gene *HFE* (C282Y), resulting in dysfunctional HFE retained in the endoplasmic reticulum,⁶ instead of being transported to the plasma membrane. Hereditary haemochromatosis represents one of the most frequent autosomal recessive genetic disorders in people of Northern and Western European ancestry with a C282Y (rs1800562) heterozygote frequency between 1:10 and 1:15.^{7,8} Thereby, HH subjects develop progressive parenchymal iron overload in parenchymal organs such as liver, pancreas, endocrine organs, and heart resulting in potential organ failure over time.^{7,9} Surprisingly, a recent study with 2890 European C282Y homozygous HH patients revealed a significantly reduced risk for cardiovascular disease compared to age-matched subjects.¹⁰ In line, both total cholesterol and LDL-C plasma levels were reduced in C282Y homozygotes compared to HFE wild-type study participants.¹¹ In contrast, a previous report found an increased risk for acute myocardial infarction in heterozygous patients carrying a C282Y mutation,¹² a group which is very unlikely to have significant iron overload.¹¹ Thus, further studies are urgently needed to disentangle the functional and clinical

association between LDL-C levels, iron homeostasis, HFE alleles, and atherosclerosis development.

The liver is central for the control of iron homeostasis¹³ but also pivotal for cholesterol metabolism.¹⁴ Thus, a physiological interplay between iron and cholesterol metabolism could be hypothesized. The liver is composed of numerous different cell types including parenchymal hepatocytes, but also resident myeloid cells, called Kupffer cells (KCs).¹⁵ Due to their micro-anatomical proximity, KCs appear to interact with hepatocytes in a paracrine manner.¹⁶ Kupffer cells critically contribute to clearance of aged erythrocytes and thus to maintenance of iron homeostasis in the body.¹⁷ So far, neither a role of iron on lipid homeostasis nor an impact of KCs on hepatocyte and whole-body cholesterol homeostasis has been systematically investigated.

Here, we uncover novel functions of KCs, iron, and hepatocyte HFE in the regulation of cholesterol homeostasis. We identify HFE as an important regulator of hepatocyte LDL receptor (LDLr) functionality and show that KCs contribute to LDL-C plasma clearance, which is affected by body iron levels. Our data identify novel physiological mechanisms with importance for cardiovascular diseases but also recommend KCs and HFE as novel therapeutic targets to prevent atherosclerosis.

Methods

ApoE^{-/-} *Hfe*^{-/-} mice on C57BL/6N background were fed a western-type diet supplemented with 25 g/kg (iron^{hi}) or 5 mg/kg carbonyl iron (iron^{lo}), respectively. Genome-wide association studies (GWASs) on *HFE* were performed using the Global Lipids Genetics Consortium (GLGC) dataset

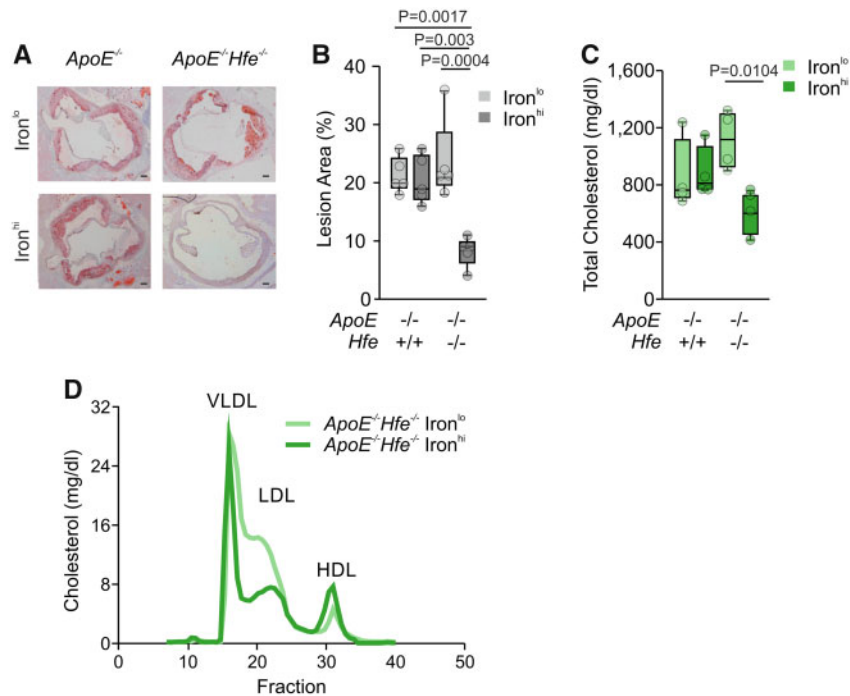


Figure 1 Dietary iron supplementation reduces atherosclerosis development in $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ mice. $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ mice were fed a western-type diet with low or high iron content (iron^{lo}, iron^{hi}) for 20 weeks. (A) The atherosclerotic burden was visualized in aortic sections stained with Oil-Red-O ($n = 5$ per group). Scale bar = 100 μ m. (B) Statistical comparison of the atherosclerotic lesion size of the aortic roots, respectively ($n = 5$ per group). (C) Plasma total cholesterol levels in $ApoE^{-/-}$ and $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ mice ($n = 4$ per group). (D) Fast protein liquid chromatography analysis of plasma pooled from $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ mice upon 10 weeks of diet ($n = 4$ per group).

($n = 196\,475$) and confirmed in further 24 058 individuals using a recessive model. Detailed methods and statistics are included in the [Supplementary material online](#).

Results

High iron diet decreases atherosclerosis formation in *Hfe*-deficient mice

To elucidate whether HFE and/or systemic iron levels would affect cholesterol metabolism and atherosclerosis development, we crossed dyslipidaemic $ApoE^{-/-}$ mice with $Hfe^{-/-}$ animals and fed both $ApoE^{-/-}$, and $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ mice a western-type diet, either high in iron (iron^{hi}, 25 g/kg carbonyl-iron), or low in iron content (iron^{lo}, 5 mg/kg carbonyl-iron) for 20 weeks. Surprisingly, the iron^{hi} diet led to a highly significant (>70%) reduction of atherosclerotic plaque formation in $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ animals, while $ApoE^{-/-}$ on the same diet did not benefit from iron supplementation (Figure 1A and B, and [Supplementary material online, Figure S1A–H](#)). Remarkably, and in accordance with the iron distribution pattern in *Hfe* related haemochromatosis, iron was stored in hepatic parenchymal cells^{7–9} of $Hfe^{-/-}$ mice on an iron rich diet but did neither accumulate in resident macrophages including hepatic KCs nor in foam cells within the atherosclerotic lesion ([Supplementary material online, Figure S2A–H](#)). Importantly, iron supplementation was not associated with reduced

plaque stability as compared to mice receiving a low iron diet ([Supplementary material online, Figure S3A–D](#)).

In line with the atherosclerotic burden, no reduction in plasma cholesterol levels was observed in $ApoE^{-/-}$ knockouts fed the iron^{hi} diet, whereas iron^{hi} diet led to a significant decrease in plasma cholesterol levels of $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 1C). Lipoprotein separation analysis via fast protein liquid chromatography revealed a clear reduction of the LDL-C fraction in mice with HFE deficiency and fed an iron-rich diet over time (Figure 1D, [Supplementary material online, Figure S4](#)), while no such changes were observed in wild-type mice receiving diets with different iron contents ([Supplementary material online, Figure S5](#)). Of note, iron supplementation decreased the amount of ApoB-containing lipoproteins, regardless of the amount of cholesterol in the diet ([Supplementary material online, Figure S6A and B](#)).

Thus, our results suggest a gene effect for *Hfe* on cholesterol homeostasis upon iron supplementation. Crucially, a cholesterol-lowering effect of *Hfe* deficiency was already detectable after 5 days of exposure of mice to either iron^{hi} or iron^{lo} diets ([Supplementary material online, Figure S7A and B](#)). Importantly, feeding an iron^{hi} diet for 10 weeks did not result in increased concentrations of circulating inflammatory cytokines in serum in $ApoE^{-/-}Hfe^{-/-}$ mice, neither did it modulate the numbers of circulating monocytes or macrophages, nor the expression of inflammatory markers on their surface, liver function tests, or the expression of M1/M2 type macrophage-specific

gene signatures within the plaque when compared with mice receiving an iron-deficient diet (Supplementary material online, Figure S8A–H), corroborating data obtained from whole-blood transcriptome of healthy and HH type 1 individuals^{18,19} (Supplementary material online, Figure S9A–C).

Of note, foam cell staining was even reduced within the plaques of *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice on iron^{hi} diet as compared to mice receiving a low iron diet (Supplementary material online, Figure S2D and F). In line, the expression of hallmark genes for regulatory T cells (Treg), Th2 and Th1 cells were found to be reduced in atherosclerotic lesions of iron^{hi} animals as compared to iron^{lo} mice (Supplementary material online, Figure S10A–G). Interestingly, reduced foam cell numbers together with dampened T-cell activation was not associated with altered plaque composition in terms of collagen and muscle fibre content when comparing *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice receiving either iron^{hi} or iron^{lo} diets (Supplementary material online, Figure S3A–C).

Identification of HFE as a regulator of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol

We mined the data from a published GWAS ($n > 188\,000$) for significant association signals in and close to the HFE gene (± 10 kbp).²⁰ The rs1800562 polymorphism showed a significant association with plasma LDL cholesterol (Figure 2A) but not with high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) (Supplementary material online, Figure S11A and B) suggesting a link of HFE expression to LDL-C levels (Supplementary material online, Figure S12A). Importantly, the allele of rs1800562 causes the C282Y mutation of the HFE gene, which leads to HH.^{6,9} We therefore performed a recessive model for rs1800562 on total cholesterol as well as LDL-C in 6 epidemiological studies (Supplementary material online, Table S1 and Figure S12B). We found a significant reduction of total cholesterol (-19.50 mg/dL, $P = 0.0004$; Supplementary material online, Figure S12C), and LDL-C (-15.25 mg/dL, $P = 0.001$; Figure 2B) in individuals carrying the homozygous minor allele genotype (AA) compared to GG/AG genotypes. In summary, GWAS and association analyses in humans strongly support the relationship between HFE and LDL-C observed in a mouse model of haemochromatosis.

In addition, we measured plasma HDL-C (Supplementary material online, Figure S13A), and plasma ApoA-I (Supplementary material online, Figure S13B) in *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} animals set on iron^{hi/lo} diet for 10 weeks. Hyperferric animals showed increased levels of HDL-C but no changes in plasma ApoA-I as compared to mice receiving a iron^{lo} diet. To test whether increased HDL-C content without changes in ApoA-I translates into increased HDL function, we performed macrophage-to-feces reverse cholesterol transport (RCT) studies in *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} set on iron^{hi/lo} diet for 3 weeks. After intraperitoneal injection of [³H]-cholesterol-labelled J774 macrophages, we detected no significant differences in plasma tracer levels over time (Supplementary material online, Figure S13C); as well as we did not observe any changes in faecal [³H]-sterol levels (Supplementary material online, Figure S13D), respectively. Taken together, iron^{hi} diet did increase plasma HDL-C levels but not the functionality of HDL particles in terms of RCT.

Genetic reconstitution of HFE in *Hfe*^{-/-} hepatocytes dramatically reduces low-density lipoprotein receptor expression

To understand the mechanisms underlying the associations between the HFE C282Y variant and LDL-C in humans and mice we created expression plasmids encoding either wild-type (*pCS2-HA-HFE(282C)*) or missense (*pCS2-HA-HFE(282Y)*) HFE for reconstitution experiments in primary hepatocytes derived from *Hfe*^{-/-} mice. As shown in Figure 3A–C, primary murine *Hfe*^{-/-} hepatocytes reconstituted with wild-type HFE displayed a marked reduction in the expression of the LDLr compared to non-transfected cells (arrow), and compared to hepatocytes reconstituted with the HFE C282Y variant (Figure 3D and F, integrated grey scale quantification in Figure 3G). These experiments demonstrate that HFE is a negative regulator of LDLr expression and suggest that the identified lead SNP rs1800562 is central for the significant changes in plasma cholesterol by altering hepatic LDLr expression in humans.

Hfe deficiency increases low-density lipoprotein receptor expression and function in hepatocytes independently of iron

To examine whether iron availability impacts on HFE regulated expression of LDLr in hepatocytes, we investigated the effect of dietary iron supplementation on hepatic LDLr protein expression both in wild-type and *Hfe*^{-/-} mice. In line with the LDL-C reduction observed in *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice fed an iron^{hi} diet (Figure 1C), we found a marked increase in total hepatic LDLr protein levels in *Hfe*^{-/-} mice on iron^{hi} but not in wild-type animals fed the same diet (Figure 4A, Supplementary material online, Figures S14A and B and S15A–C). Adequate dietary iron loading was confirmed by markedly increased iron concentrations in livers of mice exposed to iron^{hi} diet (Figure 4C), which was paralleled by increased hepatic expression of the iron storage protein ferritin (Figure 4A). In *Hfe*^{-/-} mice on iron^{hi} diet high intracellular iron levels were associated with increased ferritin levels and up-regulated ferroportin expression which promotes iron export from cells (Figure 4A).

To decipher the molecular mechanisms underlying the observed induction of the LDLr, we next performed studies using primary murine hepatocytes. In line with our reconstitution experiments, lack of *Hfe* led to increased levels of LDLr protein. Surprisingly, loading of isolated hepatocytes with holo-transferrin (holo-Tf; iron transport protein loaded with iron) did not alter LDLr protein expression any further, when compared with wild-type cells (Figure 4B and Supplementary material online, Figure S16A and B). Moreover, the use of the iron chelator deferiprone (DFP) to lower iron levels in our *in vitro* experiments, did not affect LDLr expression in hepatocytes. Furthermore, we did not observe differences in LDLr RNA expression between wild-type and *Hfe*^{-/-} hepatocytes making transcriptional regulation of LDLr by *Hfe* unlikely. Rather, treatment of cells with the translational inhibitor cycloheximide reduced increased LDLr protein levels over time, indicating a post-/translational regulation of LDLr by *Hfe* (Supplementary material online, Figure S17A–E).

Incubation of primary hepatocytes from wild-type and *Hfe*^{-/-} mice with BODIPY LDL-C for 1 h clearly showed enhanced LDL-C

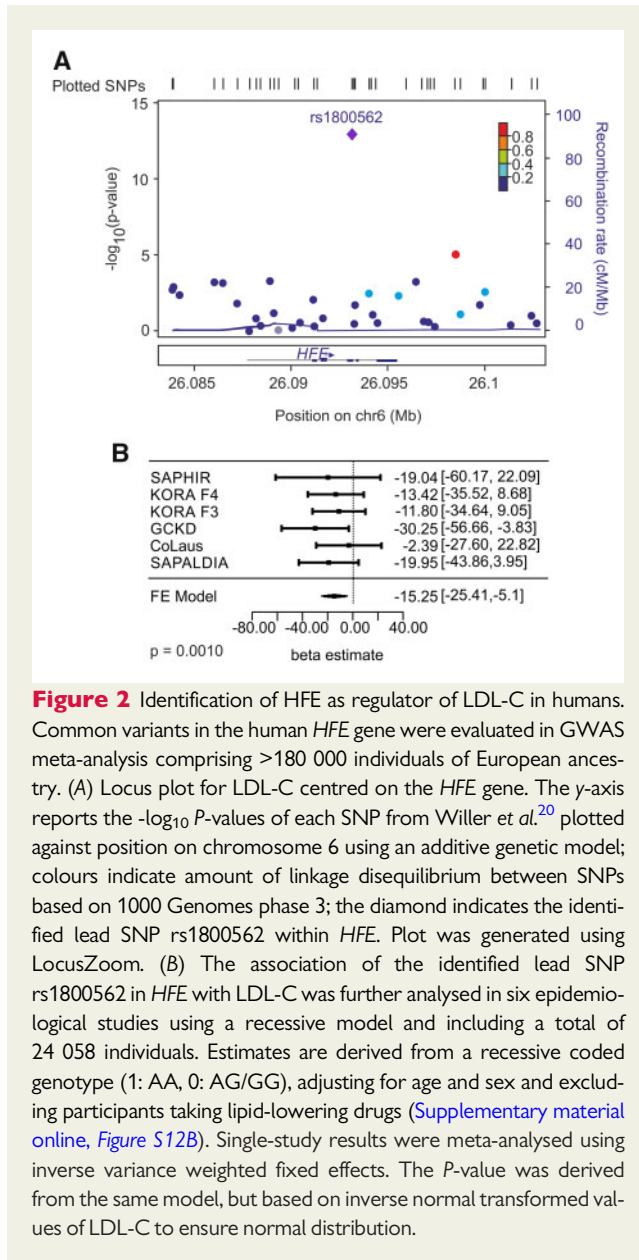


Figure 2 Identification of HFE as regulator of LDL-C in humans. Common variants in the human *HFE* gene were evaluated in GWAS meta-analysis comprising >180 000 individuals of European ancestry. (A) Locus plot for LDL-C centred on the *HFE* gene. The y-axis reports the $-\log_{10} P$ -values of each SNP from Willer *et al.*²⁰ plotted against position on chromosome 6 using an additive genetic model; colours indicate amount of linkage disequilibrium between SNPs based on 1000 Genomes phase 3; the diamond indicates the identified lead SNP rs1800562 within *HFE*. Plot was generated using LocusZoom. (B) The association of the identified lead SNP rs1800562 in *HFE* with LDL-C was further analysed in six epidemiological studies using a recessive model and including a total of 24 058 individuals. Estimates are derived from a recessive coded genotype (1: AA, 0: AG/GG), adjusting for age and sex and excluding participants taking lipid-lowering drugs (Supplementary material online, Figure S12B). Single-study results were meta-analysed using inverse variance weighted fixed effects. The *P*-value was derived from the same model, but based on inverse normal transformed values of LDL-C to ensure normal distribution.

uptake in *Hfe*^{-/-} cells compared to wild-type controls, which can be ascribed to higher LDLr expression (Figure 4D). To investigate cellular uptake of LDL-C at higher scrutiny, we performed time-course experiments measuring uptake of BODIPY LDL-C in primary murine hepatocytes (Figure 4E). Iron supplementation had no significant effect on BODIPY LDL-C uptake in either wild-type (Figure 4F) or *Hfe*^{-/-} hepatocytes (Figure 4G). To rule out any non-selective and LDLr-independent uptake of LDL-C, we blocked receptor-mediated endocytosis in *Hfe*^{-/-} hepatocytes by either incubating cells at 4°C, or pharmacologically using dynasore, a cell permeable, dynamin GTPase-blocking small molecule (Supplementary material online, Figure S18A and B).

To prove the pivotal role of LDLr in our model, we injected *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} animals with AAV8 expressing mPCSK9-D377Y (5 × 10¹² GC per kg animal). This approach was chosen to

overexpress PCSK9 in hepatocytes, and thereby silencing the hepatic LDLr (Supplementary material online, Figure S19A and B). Control littermates were injected with GFP-expressing AAV (AAV8-TBG-eGFP). Induction of a functional LDLr knockout reversed the LDL-C lowering effect observed in iron^{hi}-fed *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} animals at 3 (Figure 4H and I) and 9 weeks (Figure 4J and K) post-injection, respectively, confirming the central role of hepatic LDLr in *Hfe*-mediated control of lipid homeostasis. As shown in Supplementary material online, Figure S20A–E, abrogation of the cholesterol-lowering effect of iron overload in *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice also inhibited its beneficial effect on atherosclerosis. Taken together, these data demonstrate that both the hypolipidaemic as well as the anti-atherosclerotic effects observed in an animal model of haemochromatosis critically depend on hepatic LDLr expression.

Kupffer cells are crucially involved in low-density lipoprotein cholesterol uptake *in vitro* and *in vivo*

Kupffer cells interact with hepatocytes in a paracrine manner and are involved in several metabolic processes including iron homeostasis.^{16,17}

Therefore, we investigated the interplay between iron loading and regulation of cholesterol trafficking in KCs. Primary murine KCs were isolated (Supplementary material online, Figure S21) and subsequent immunoblot analysis showed for the first time that murine KCs express abundant amounts of LDLr (Figure 5A). The specificity of the employed LDLr antibody was verified using liver specimens from wild-type and *LDLr*^{-/-} mice (Supplementary material online, Figure S22).

Immunofluorescence staining of liver sections revealed cells that are double positive for C-type lectin domain family 4, member F (Clec4f), and LDLr (Figure 5B), and for Clec4f and ApoB-100 (Figure 5C), respectively. Clec4f is a specific marker for KCs,²¹ and ApoB-100 represents the main protein moiety of LDL particles, indicating a relevant uptake of LDL particles into KCs. To validate our findings on a functional level, we next performed uptake assays with BODIPY LDL-C using the immortalized murine KC cell line Kup5,²² which displayed a KC specific antigen pattern (Supplementary material online, Figure S23). Figure 5D shows accumulation of LDL-C in intracellular granules, demonstrating efficient uptake of BODIPY LDL-C into Kup5 KCs after 24 h of incubation. Moreover, using flow cytometry, we observed a time-dependent increase of LDL-C in Kup5 cells (Figure 5E and F). In line with our observations made in primary KCs isolated from iron^{hi} fed mice, challenge of Kup5 cells with iron led to a significant increase in mean fluorescence intensity compared to iron-depleted cells (Figure 5E). In addition, Kup5 cells showed an accelerated uptake of LDL-derived cholesterol due to increased expression of LDLr only if they were stimulated with iron (Figure 5F). Receptor-mediated endocytosis of LDL-C was completely abolished by incubating Kup5 cells at 4°C, or by using the clathrin-mediated endocytosis inhibitor dynasore (Supplementary material online, Figure S24A and B), excluding a potential non-selective uptake of LDL-C.

To estimate the ability of KCs to clear plasma LDL-C *in vivo*, we performed LDL-C turnover experiments in both wild-type and

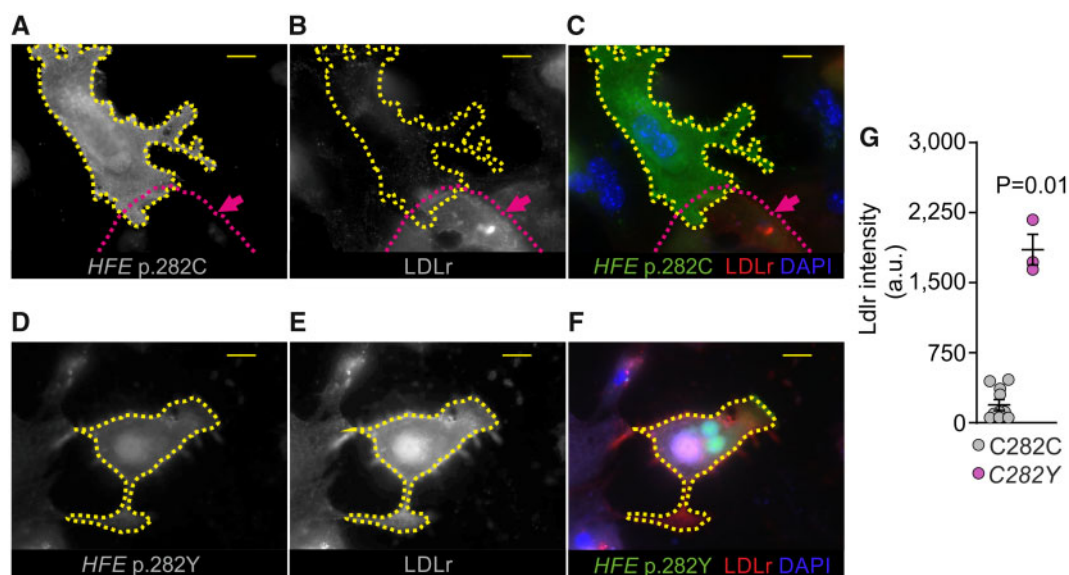


Figure 3 Reconstitution with human HFE down-regulates LDLr expression in *Hfe*^{-/-} hepatocytes. Primary murine hepatocytes isolated from *Hfe*^{-/-} mice were reconstituted with wild-type HFE (*HFE* p.282C; A–C) or with the common human dysfunctional variant *HFE* p.282Y (D–F). HFE was stained with Alexa Fluor 488 (green), LDLr with Alexa Fluor 594 (red), and the nucleus was stained with DAPI (blue). Fluorescent signal is depicted in grayscale in panels (A), (B), (D), and (E); panels (C) and (F) show the combined triple staining. (G) Plot showing individual cell values of integrated grey scale intensity of LDLr expression ($n = 83$ wildtype and $n = 56$ C282Y) and means (\pm SEM) of 10 (wild-type *HFE* p. C282C) and 3 (*HFE* p. C282Y) experiments. Statistics was performed on the means of the individual experiments using a *t*-test assuming unequal variances ($t_{(12)} = -9.5$, $P = 0.01$). Scale bar = 10 μ m.

Hfe^{-/-} mice fed either an iron^{lo} or iron^{hi} diet, respectively. Three weeks into treatment, mice were injected with fluorescently labelled TOPFLUOR LDL-C via the tail vein. One hour after injection of labelled LDL-C, KCs were isolated by collagenase I perfusion of the liver, and subjected to flow cytometry analysis (Supplementary material online, Figure S25). Iron^{hi} treatment led to significantly increased uptake of LDL-C in KCs, independently of the genotype, thus corroborating our results obtained in vitro (Figure 5G).

Depletion of Kupffer cells leads to plasma low-density lipoprotein cholesterol accumulation

To better understand KC-dependent cholesterol transport mechanisms induced by iron loading, we performed KC depletion experiments in wild-type and *Hfe*^{-/-} mice fed an iron^{hi} diet for 3 weeks. For KC depletion, we used a well-established protocol¹⁶ with intravenous injections of clodronate-containing liposomes which are phagocytosed by KCs resulting in their apoptosis (Supplementary material online, Figure S26A). Efficient KC depletion was ascertained by the absence of Clec4-positive cells in the livers of clodronate-treated mice, compared to animals injected with control liposomes (Supplementary material online, Figure S26B). On Day 3, the time point of complete KC depletion, mice were injected with [³H]-LDL-C via the tail vein. Subsequently,

[³H]-cholesterol levels were analysed in plasma and liver 4 h and 8 h post-injection. Notably, both *Hfe*^{-/-} and wild-type mice showed significantly increased [³H]-cholesterol levels in plasma upon KC depletion (Supplementary material online, Figure S26C), indicating accumulation of LDL-C. In contrast, no differences in liver [³H]-cholesterol levels were observed, suggesting a crucial role for KCs as first-pass checkpoint for plasma LDL-C clearance and delivery to hepatocytes (Supplementary material online, Figure S26D).

Next, we elucidated the impact of KC mobilization on plasma LDL-C levels under dyslipidaemic conditions by studying the effect of hepatic replenishment with KCs following clodronate-mediated depletion on plasma lipoprotein metabolism in *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice on iron^{lo/hi} diets (study design outlined in Figure 5H). Upon complete depletion of KCs (Day 3), dyslipidaemic *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice showed comparable plasma cholesterol distribution regardless of the dietary settings, i.e. iron^{lo} (Figure 5I) or iron^{hi} (Figure 5J). After replenishment of the hepatic niche with monocyte-derived KCs at 16 days,²¹ *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice on iron^{lo} diet still showed elevated LDL-C levels (Figure 5I), while those fed iron^{hi} diet displayed a marked decrease in the LDL-C fraction compared to Day 3 (Figure 5J).

Together, these data identify KCs as gatekeepers for hepatic LDL-C clearance, both under physiological as well as dyslipidaemic conditions. Of note, the effect of KCs on LDL-C turnover is controlled by systemic iron availability.

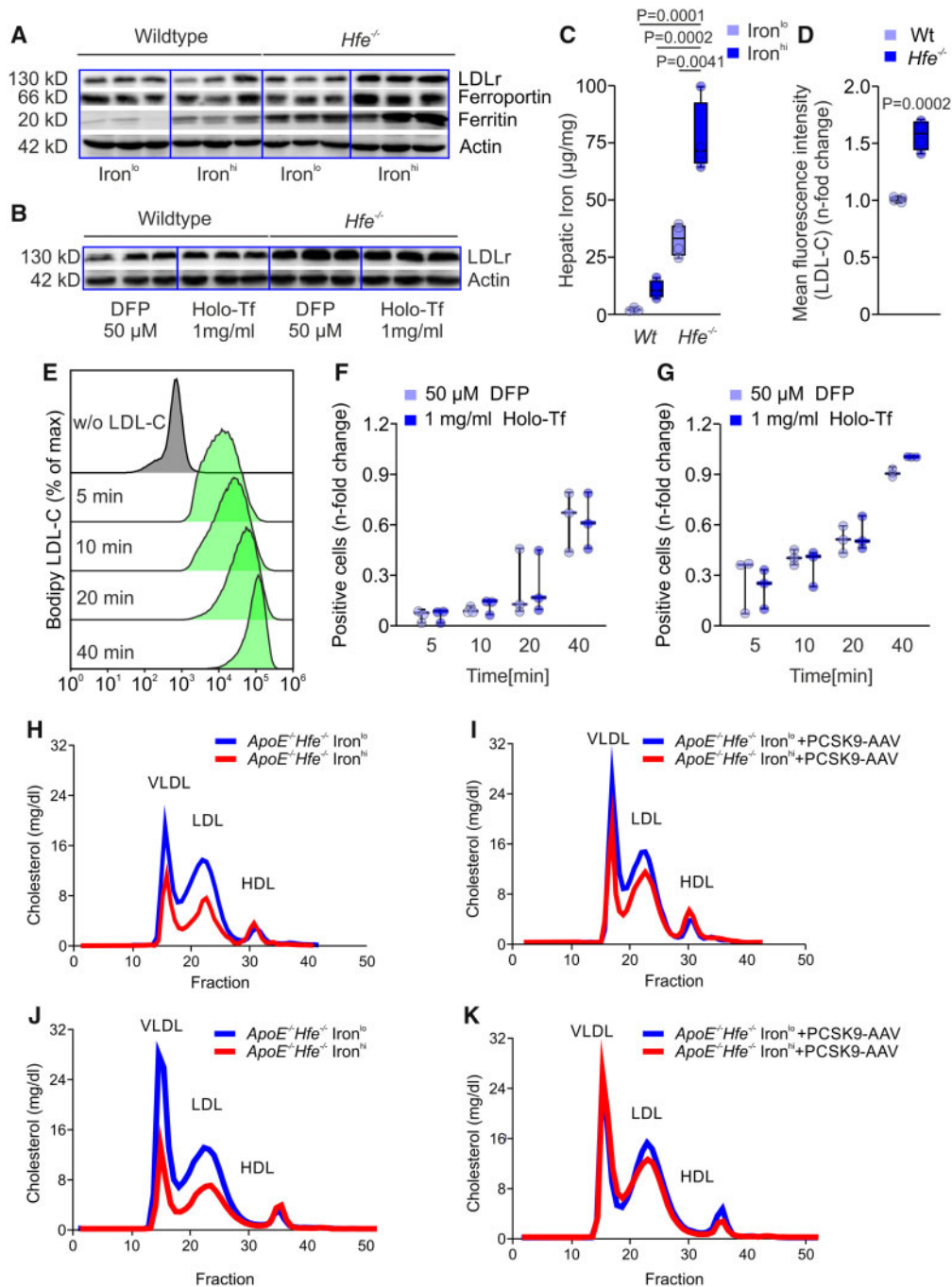


Figure 4 Hfe affects LDLr protein expression and function in murine hepatocytes. (A) Immunoblot analysis of LDLr, of the iron storage protein ferritin and the iron exporter ferroportin in livers of wild-type and *Hfe*^{-/-} animals fed an iron^{lo} or iron^{hi} diet for 3 weeks, respectively. Actin served as loading control. (B) Immunoblot analysis of LDLr in isolated primary murine hepatocytes of wildtype and *Hfe*^{-/-} mice, incubated with the chelator deferiprone (DFP) or with 100% saturated holo-Tf for 24 h, respectively. Actin served as a loading control. (C) Hepatic iron measurement of wild-type and *Hfe*^{-/-} animals fed iron^{lo} or iron^{hi} diet for 3 weeks, respectively (*n* = 4 per group). (D) Primary murine wild-type or *Hfe*^{-/-} hepatocytes were incubated with 5 μ g/mL BODIPY LDL-C for 1 h and analysed by flow cytometry (*n* = 4 per group). (E) Representative flow cytometry plot of primary hepatocytes incubated with BODIPY LDL-C for indicated time-points. (F) Primary hepatocytes isolated from wild-type and from (G) *Hfe*^{-/-} mice were co-incubated with 5 μ g/mL BODIPY LDL-C and 50 μ M deferiprone (DFP) or with 1 mg/mL holo-Tf for indicated time points. LDL-C uptake was measured by flow cytometry (*n* = 3 per group). Fast protein liquid chromatography analysis of plasma pooled from *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice on western-type diet either high in iron (iron^{hi}) or low in iron (iron^{lo}) (*n* = 5 per group), at 6 weeks (H and I) and 9 weeks (J and K) after AAV-mediated knock down of LDLr via introduction of a PCSK9 overexpressing plasmid as detailed in Methods section. *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice were injected iv with AAV8-TBG-eGFP (H and J), or AAV8-mPCSK9-D377Y (I and K).

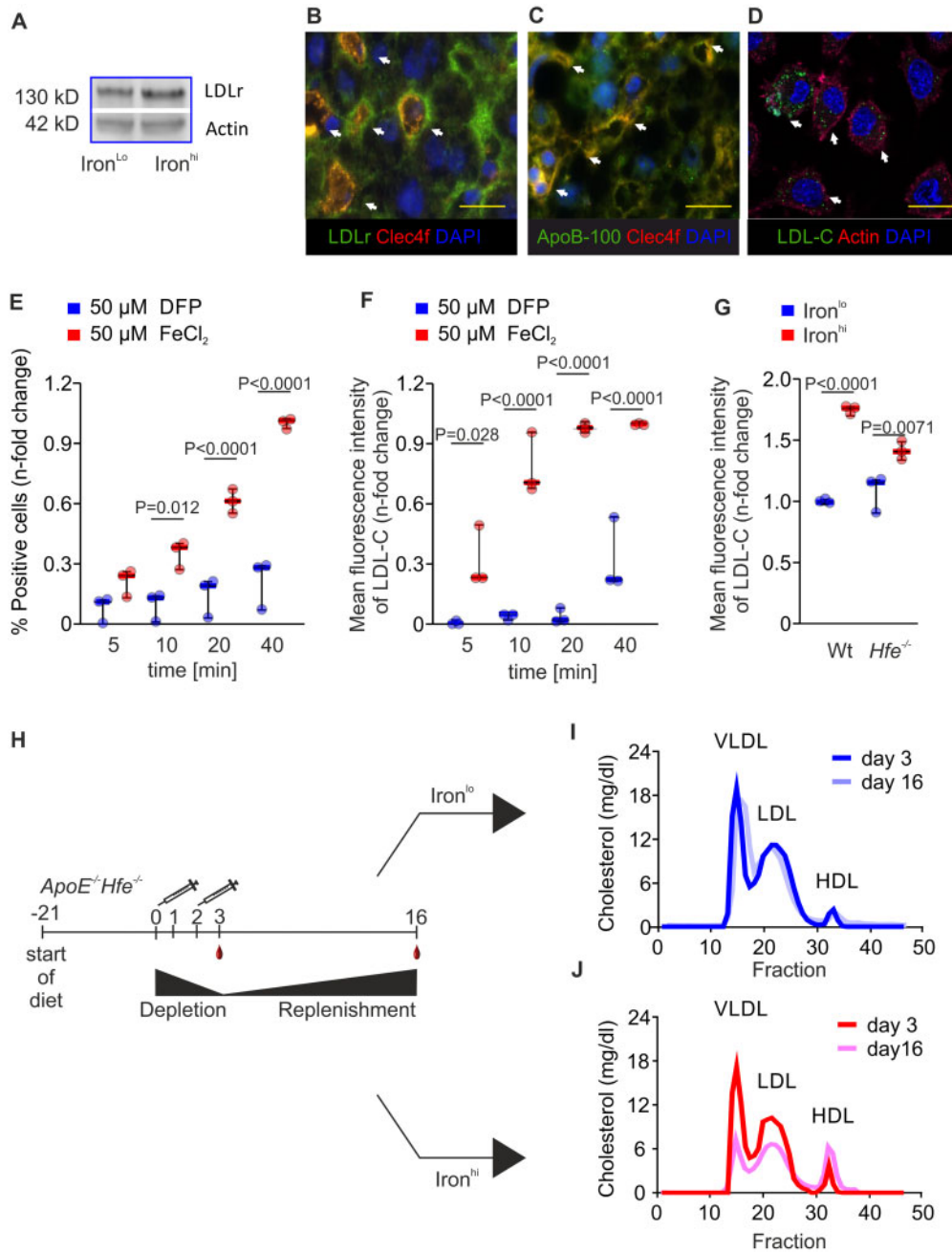


Figure 5 KCs serve as gate-keeper for hepatic LDL-C uptake. (A) Immunoblot analysis of LDLr in sorted primary KCs, isolated from mice set on iron^{Lo} or iron^{Hi} diet for 3 weeks, respectively. Actin served as loading control. (B) Immunofluorescence staining of Clec4f and LDLr in liver sections of 8 weeks old wild-type mice (green: LDLr AF488, red: Clec4f AF594, and blue: DAPI), and (C) of Clec4f and ApoB-100 (green: ApoB-100 AF488, red: Clec4f AF594, and blue: DAPI). Double positive cells are marked by arrows. Scale bar = 20 μ m. (D) Immunofluorescence staining of Kup5 cells incubated with 5 μ g/mL BODIPY LDL-C for 24 h (green: BODIPY LDL-C, red: phalloidin AF594, and blue: DAPI). Kup5 cells with efficient LDL-C uptake are marked by arrows. Scale bar = 10 μ m. (E and F) Kup5 cells were co-incubated with 5 μ g/mL BODIPY LDL-C and 50 μ M DFP or with 50 μ M FeCl₂ for indicated time-points. (E) LDL-C uptake in hepatocytes was determined using flow cytometry, and given as percentage, and (F) mean fluorescence intensity of LDL-C positive cells ($n = 3$ per group). (G) Wild-type and *Hfe*^{-/-} animals were fed an iron^{Lo} or iron^{Hi} diet for 3 weeks. The animals were injected with 200 μ L TopFluor LDL-C (1 mg/mL) via the tail vein. One hour after injection of labelled LDL-C, KCs were isolated and mean fluorescent intensity of TopFluor LDL-C in KCs was measured with flow cytometry ($n = 3$ per group). (H) Replenishment of the hepatic KC pool after depletion lowers LDL-C in iron^{Hi} fed double knockout mice. *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice were fed an iron^{Hi} or iron^{Lo} diet for 3 weeks, respectively. Animals were then injected iv with 200 μ L clodronate-containing liposomes at Day 0 and 2. Fast protein liquid chromatography analysis of pooled plasma of iron^{Lo} (I) and iron^{Hi} (J) fed *ApoE*^{-/-}*Hfe*^{-/-} mice was performed on the day of complete KC depletion, i.e. Day 3, and on day of the replenishment of the hepatic KC pool, i.e. day 16 ($n = 4-6$ per group).

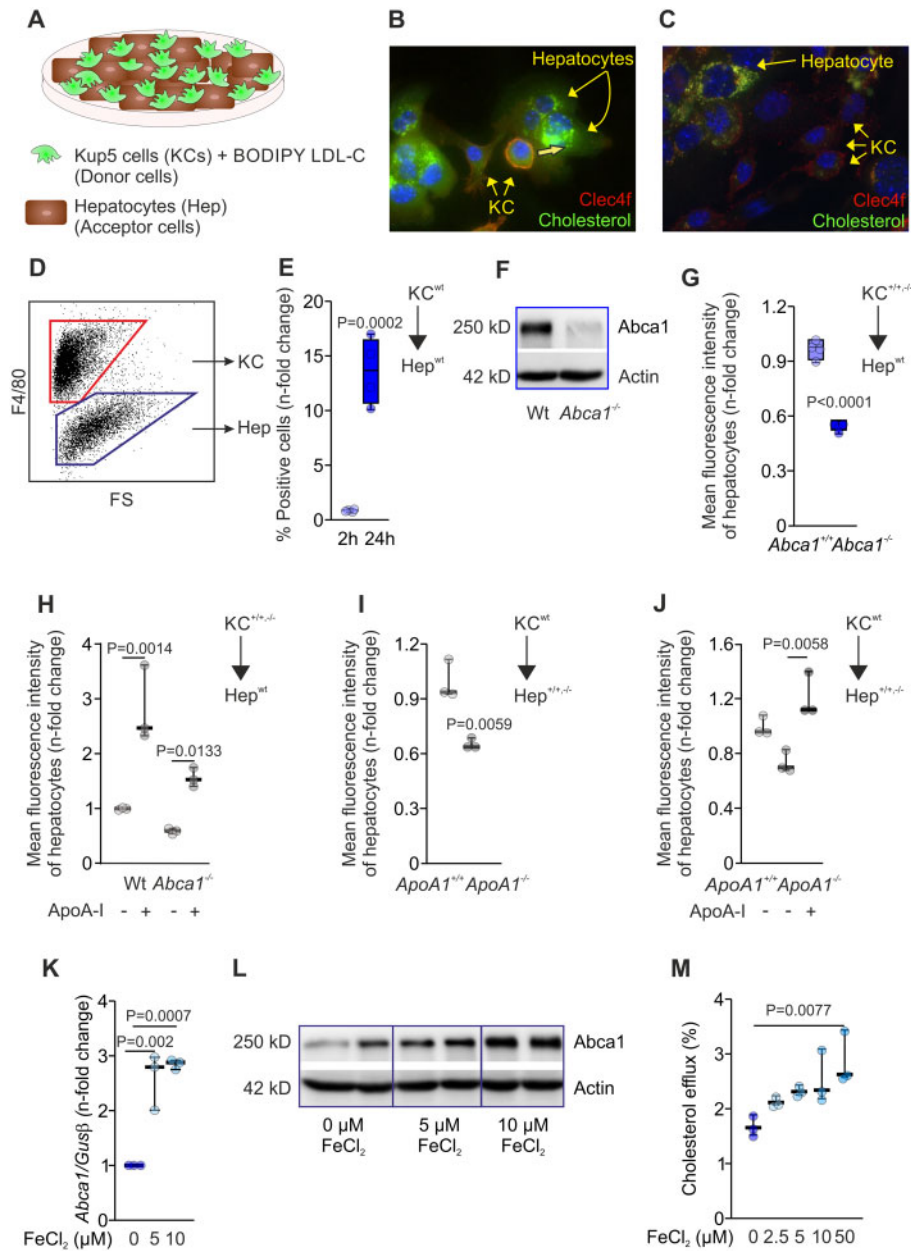


Figure 6 KCs mediate transflux of cholesterol to hepatocytes. (A) Kup5 cells were loaded with 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ BODIPY LDL-C for 24 h. Subsequently, cholesterol loaded Kup5 cells were co-incubated with primary murine hepatocytes for another 24 h. (B and C) Immunofluorescence staining of co-culture after (B) 24 h and (C) 48 h (red: Clec4f AF594, green: BODIPY LDL, and blue: DAPI). Positive cells are marked by arrows. (D) Representative flow cytometry plot of co-cultured cells after 24 h. Cell types were discriminated using F4/80 as specific marker for liver-resident macrophages, i.e. KCs. (E) LDL-C transfer from Kup5 cells to hepatocytes after 2 h and 24 h of co-culture was measured using flow cytometry. Values are depicted as median with interquartile range (boxes), whiskers represent $1.5 \times \text{IRQ}$. Two-way ANOVA ($n = 4$ per group) (unpaired Student's t -test; two-tailed). (F) Genetic knockout of the cholesterol efflux pump *Abca1* in Kup5 cells using the CRISPR/Cas9 technology was verified by immunoblot analysis. Actin served as loading control. (G) BODIPY LDL-C transfer from *Abca1*^{+/+} and *Abca1*^{-/-} Kup5 cells to primary murine hepatocytes after 24 h of co-culture was measured using flow cytometry ($n = 4$ per group). (H) BODIPY LDL-C transfer from *Abca1*^{+/+} and *Abca1*^{-/-} Kup5 cells to primary murine hepatocytes in the presence of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ recombinant ApoA-I was measured after 24 h of co-culture using flow cytometry ($n = 3$ per group). (I) BODIPY LDL-C transfer from wild-type Kup5 cells to primary murine hepatocytes derived from *ApoA1*^{-/-} or wild-type littermates after 24 h of co-culture was measured using flow cytometry ($n = 3$ per group). (J) BODIPY LDL-C transfer from wild-type Kup5 cells to primary murine hepatocytes derived from *ApoA1*^{-/-} or wild-type littermates incubated with 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ recombinant ApoA-I after 24 h of co-culture was measured using flow cytometry ($n = 3$ per group). (K) qRT-PCR analysis of *Abca1* in Kup5 cells treated with indicated concentrations of FeCl_2 for 24 h. (L) Immunoblot analysis of *Abca1* expression in Kup5 cells treated with indicated concentrations of FeCl_2 for 24 h. Actin served as loading control ($n = 3$ per group). (M) Cholesterol efflux of Kup5 cells to 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ recombinant ApoA-I treated with increasing concentrations of FeCl_2 ($n = 3$ per group).

Kupffer cells transfer cholesterol to hepatocytes in an *Abca1*-dependent fashion

To investigate the mechanisms by which KCs transfer plasma-derived LDL-C to hepatocytes, we performed co-culture experiments. To mimic first-pass clearance of plasma LDL-C by KCs, Kup5 cells were loaded with BODIPY LDL-C and subsequently co-cultured with primary murine hepatocytes (Figure 6A). Kupffer cells gradually transferred BODIPY cholesterol to hepatocytes over time, emptying their LDL-C cargo at 48 h of co-culture (Figure 6B and C), which is indicative of an unidirectional transport of excess cholesterol from KCs to hepatocytes over time. This finding was corroborated by flow cytometry experiments showing that hepatocytes accumulate cholesterol originating from KCs in a time-dependent manner (Figure 6D and E).

Cholesterol accumulation induces LXR-dependent transcription of ATP-binding cassette 1 (*Abca1*) in macrophages, leading to unidirectional efflux of cholesterol to ApoA-I particles, which are released into circulation by the liver.^{14,23} Assuming analogous mechanisms to prevent cholesterol accumulation in KCs, we performed a series of co-culture experiments using *Abca1*^{-/-} Kup5 cells and primary murine hepatocytes. Genetic knockout of *Abca1* in Kup5 cells was achieved by CRISPR/Cas9 technology (Figure 6F). Accordingly, hepatocyte-directed efflux of LDL-derived BODIPY cholesterol was significantly reduced in *Abca1*^{-/-} and in *Abcg1*^{-/-} KCs (Figure 6G and Supplementary material online, Figure S27A–C). Because *Abca1*-mediated cholesterol efflux needs ApoA-I as extracellular acceptor we investigated hepatocyte-directed transfer of BODIPY cholesterol in wild-type and *Abca1*^{-/-} KCs incubated with recombinant ApoA-I. Addition of ApoA-I drastically increased KC-to-hepatocyte cholesterol transflux in wild-type Kup5 cells, while it had only modest effects in *Abca1*^{-/-} Kup5 cells, indicative of a dysfunctional *Abca1*-mediated efflux mechanism (Figure 6H). Moreover, when measuring transfer of BODIPY cholesterol from Kup5 cells to hepatocytes lacking ApoA-I synthesis and secretion, i.e. primary murine *Apoa1*^{-/-} hepatocytes, cholesterol transfer was significantly decreased (Figure 6I), while it was restored by addition of recombinant ApoA-I (Figure 6J).

In our experiments with iron^{hi} treated mice, enhanced LDL-C clearance was traced back to increased LDLr expression in KCs. Accumulating intracellular cholesterol, in turn is thought to induce the expression of *Abca1* in KCs, promoting the transfer of cholesterol to hepatocytes. However, we wondered whether iron supplementation *per se* might have regulatory effects on *Abca1* expression in KCs, thereby accelerating the disposal of LDL-derived cholesterol in mice. As shown in Figure 6K and L, incubation of Kup5 cells with increasing doses of iron induced both, mRNA and protein expression of *Abca1* in this murine KC line, thus leading to an enhanced ApoA-I directed cholesterol efflux (Figure 6M).

Discussion

Hereditary haemochromatosis is one of the most frequent autosomal recessive diseases in people of European origin mostly originating from a loss-of-function mutation of *HFE*(C282Y), which results in parenchymal accumulation of excess iron over time and

subsequent tissue damage.^{7–9,11} Importantly, a recently published UK Biobank study involving more than 400 000 European subjects including individuals with homozygous C282Y mutation reported that *HFE* deficiency was associated with a lower prevalence of coronary artery disease.¹⁰

In a systematic approach implementing GWAS analyses in humans and mechanistic studies in cells and mice, we were able to identify novel pathways that link HFE, iron and KC biology to the control of cholesterol homeostasis and which provide a mechanistic explanation for the lower prevalence of cardiovascular disease in HH subjects.

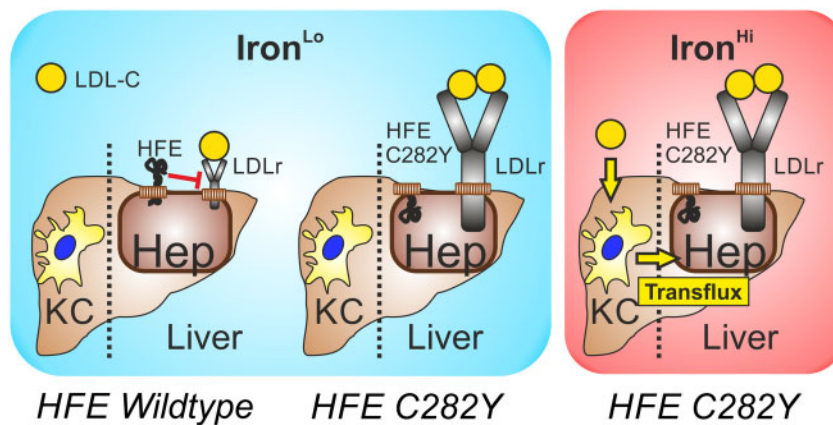
Using a mouse model of dyslipidaemia and HH, we found that *Hfe* deficiency protects from the development of atherosclerosis in a setting of overt iron overload. Mechanistically, we unravelled two atheroprotective mechanisms: first, iron overload leads to increased plasma clearance of LDL-C by liver-resident KCs and promotes its subsequent transfer to hepatocytes via *Abca1*; second, lack of *Hfe* leads to increased LDLr expression in hepatocytes, further accelerating LDL-C clearance. We confirmed this finding in humans by showing that *HFE* SNPs associate with LDL-C in human plasma in the GLGC dataset, to our knowledge, the largest genetic dataset on quantitative lipid traits. Importantly, these findings were replicated by performing an independent meta-analysis of six epidemiological studies containing >24 000 individuals using a recessive model. Moreover, the results also confirmed the previously published ARIC and HEIRS trials, which made the observation that individuals carrying the C282Y mutation of the *HFE* gene showed lower LDL-C levels than subjects carrying wild-type alleles.^{24,25}

Mechanistically, we show that HFE acts as repressor of LDLr expression, and that HFE depletion or non-functional C282Y mutated *HFE* translate into markedly increased LDLr levels on hepatocytes. Moreover, by inducing a functional knockdown of LDLr through AAV-mediated hepatic overexpression of PCSK9, the effects of *Hfe* on lipoprotein profiles were completely abolished in mice.

In summary, we prove that HFE controls LDL-C serum levels by affecting LDLr expression in hepatocytes. HFE-mediated regulation of hepatocyte LDLr was not affected by iron challenge, neither *in vivo* nor *in vitro*. This indicated that iron loading exerts its effects on lipid homeostasis by a different mechanism. Investigating the underlying mechanism, we found that KCs are centrally involved in transcellular fluxes of cholesterol and that this pathway is regulated by iron availability.

Here, we identified KCs to be pivotal for hepatic LDL-C clearance, an idea that has already been addressed in experiments employing injections of [¹²⁵I]-LDL in rabbits.^{26,27} Noteworthy, Nenseter *et al.*²⁷ showed that non-parenchymal hepatic cells including KCs may account for up to 30% of all radioactivity found in liver of hypercholesterolaemic rabbits, as compared to 6% in normolipidemic rabbits. In addition, iron overload led to decreased LDL-C levels in plasma of hypercholesterolaemic rats.²⁸ Together, the aforementioned studies were mainly descriptive, but confirming the mechanisms described herein by us.

Corroborating the physiological importance of KCs as temporary LDL-C storage prior to its disposal via hepatocytes, depletion of KCs caused a dramatic accumulation of LDL-C in plasma. Interestingly, dietary supplementation of KC-depleted mice with high iron concentrations led to a normalization of plasma LDL-C levels, which could



Take home figure HFE acts as repressor of LDLr expression: non-functional C282Y mutated HFE leads to markedly increased LDLr expression on hepatocytes and therefore to an enhanced clearance of LDL-C from circulation, when compared with a functional HFE. In addition, iron overload leads to increased plasma clearance of LDL-C by liver-resident Kupffer cells and promotes its subsequent transflux to hepatocytes.

be traced back to iron-dependent induction of trans-cellular cholesterol flux in KCs via (i) increased LDLr expression and function, and (ii) increased Abca1-mediated and ApoA-I-dependent transfer of cholesterol to hepatocytes. So far, Abca1/ApoA-I dependent cholesterol efflux was known to take place in atherosclerotic plaque macrophages upon intracellular cholesterol accumulation,²⁹ but it was not known that analogous mechanisms take place under physiological conditions in KCs. Moreover, the anatomical proximity of the main source of ApoA-I synthesis, i.e. hepatocytes, to KCs suggests the existence of such an important cell–cell interaction. Along this line, the over-expression of cholesteryl ester transfer protein in KCs was associated with a modulation of lipoprotein profiles towards a pro-atherogenic phenotype in mice.^{30,31}

Recent data employing a mouse model with a mutation in the iron export protein ferroportin (*C326S*) described a progression of atherosclerosis linked to toxic iron accumulation in vascular tissue, inflammation and cellular apoptosis.³² This is in line with the effects of excess non-transferrin bound iron as a catalyst for toxic radical formation.³³ Of note, this mouse model (*C326S*) differs in several aspects from the haemochromatosis model (*Hfe*^{−/−}) used in our study, at least due to the fact that the *C326S* mutation causes macrophage iron accumulation³⁴ whereas *Hfe*^{−/−} mice and C282Y humans are characterized by macrophage iron deficiency.^{35,36} However, both studies confirm the critical role of iron homeostasis for atherosclerosis development either by directly causing inflammation³² or by modifying lipid homeostasis as shown herein. Of interest, we found no differences in systemic inflammatory status and in macrophage polarization between *ApoE*^{−/−}*Hfe*^{−/−} mice on iron^{lo/hi} diet. However, iron loading resulted in altered lymphocyte gene signature within the lesions of animals after 10 weeks. Whether this is a direct consequence of iron levels—given that iron can impact on lymphocyte differentiation³⁷—or whether it just reflects a reduced atherosclerotic burden as a consequence of reduced cholesterol deposition in mice receiving a iron^{hi} diet remains to be elucidated. However, our experiments employing PCSK9-mediated depletion of hepatic LDLr (Supplementary material online, Figure S19A and B) unequivocally

show cholesterol lowering to be a main anti-atherosclerotic mechanism of HFE.

To summarize, we uncovered novel clinically relevant mechanisms by which dietary and genetic modulation of iron metabolism as well as KCs impact on circulating LDL-C levels in humans and mice (*Take home figure*). Our study indicates HFE and KCs as a promising target to reduce plasma LDL-C and to treat atherosclerosis.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at *European Heart Journal* online.

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Conflict of interest: none declared.

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