



Review

Human perivascular adipose tissue dysfunction as a cause of vascular disease: Focus on vascular tone and wall remodeling

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ABSTRACT

Obesity is one of the major risk factors for the development of cardiovascular diseases. It is characterized by excessive or abnormal accumulation of adipose tissue, including depots which surround the blood vessels named perivascular adipose tissue (PVAT). PVAT plays endocrine and paracrine roles by producing large numbers of metabolically vasoactive adipokines. The present review outlines our current understanding of the beneficial roles of PVAT in vascular tone and remodeling in healthy subjects supported by clinical studies, highlighting different factors or mechanisms that could mediate protective effects of PVAT on vascular function. Most studies in humans show that adiponectin is the best candidate for the advantageous effect of PVAT. However, in pathological conditions especially obesity-related cardiovascular diseases, the beneficial effects of PVAT on vascular functions are impaired and transform into detrimental roles. This change is defined as PVAT dysfunction. In the current review, the contribution of PVAT dysfunction to obesity-related cardiovascular diseases has been discussed with a focus on possible mechanisms including an imbalance between beneficial and detrimental adipokines (commonly described as decreased levels of adiponectin and increased levels of leptin or tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α)), increased quantity of adipose tissue, inflammation, cell proliferation and endothelial dysfunction. Finally, novel pharmacotherapeutic targets for the treatment of cardiovascular and metabolic disorders are addressed.

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1. Introduction

Obesity is one of the biggest epidemic health problems in the world and has been considered as a major risk factor for cardiovascular diseases. However, mechanisms of metabolic syndrome, diabetes mellitus and coronary artery disease in obese individuals are still under discussion. Obesity is characterized by excessive or abnormal accumulation of adipose tissue which is an active endocrine organ, secreting and producing many bioactive substances called adipokines (Boydens et al. 2012). It is well known that obesity-related cardiovascular diseases are accompanied by endothelial dysfunction which is characterized by a decrease in endothelium-dependent vasodilatory factors such as nitric oxide (NO), prostacyclin (PGI₂) and an augmentation of endothelium-derived contractile factors (Hadi et al., 2005). Recent studies have proposed that not only endothelial dysfunction but also adipose tissue dysfunction has a potent role in the pathogenesis of obesity-related cardiovascular diseases. Maintenance of healthy adipose tissue function might become as important as preservation of endothelial integrity for prevention of vascular diseases (Gollasch, 2012; Gu and Xu, 2013).

Almost every blood vessel apart from cerebral artery and pulmonary vessels are surrounded by various quantities of perivascular adipose tissue (PVAT) (Szasz et al., 2013). It is now well established that PVAT not only provides mechanical protection for blood vessels, but also secretes vasoactive adipokines such as adiponectin, leptin, resistin, visfatin or other bioactive mediators (Oriowo, 2015). These mediators secreted from PVAT could easily reach the adjacent blood vessel wall since there is no anatomical barrier between PVAT and adventitia. They play important roles in regulation of the vascular tone and wall remodeling via their paracrine or endocrine effects. In this review, we aim to discuss these roles of PVAT on vascular functions in both physiologic and pathological conditions.

2. Release of adipokines from PVAT

Adipokines released from PVAT have been shown to have a more inflammatory, proliferative and angiogenic profile compared to other adipose depots such as subcutaneous or visceral adipose tissues in humans (Mazurek et al., 2003; Chatterjee et al., 2009; Rittig et al., 2012; Schlich et al., 2013).

Recent studies have focused on modulation of adipokines release depending on pathological conditions. In humans, most studies for determining the role of adipose tissue in cardiovascular diseases have been performed in epicardial adipose tissue (EAT). EAT is the adipose tissue around the heart reaching from the myocardium to the pericardium. PVAT around coronary artery is a part of EAT. There is no obvious anatomical separation between coronary PVAT and EAT; however, PVAT releases greater levels of monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) than EAT (Chatterjee et al., 2009; Verhagen and Visseren, 2011). In coronary artery disease, inflammatory and proliferative adipokine expression or release such as interleukin-6 (IL-6), resistin, interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 β), MCP-1, chemerin, plasminogen activator inhibitor 1, tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α), visfatin and leptin are increased, whereas adipokines with anti-inflammatory, anti-proliferative and vasodilator properties (Terata et al., 2000; Xi et al., 2005) such as adiponectin or adrenomedullin are decreased in human EAT or PVAT surrounding coronary artery (Table 1). This imbalance between beneficial and detrimental adipokines may play a major role in cardiovascular diseases such as atherosclerosis, restenosis and hypertension by increasing vascular tone, inflammatory processes and vascular smooth muscle cell (VSMC) proliferation or migration.

3. Role of PVAT quantity in vascular disease

Recent studies have indicated a potential role of PVAT quantity in the development of coronary artery diseases. EAT thickness (Ahn et al., 2008; Demircelik et al., 2014; Eroglu et al., 2009) and also EAT volume (Mihl et al., 2014; Kaya et al., 2014; Mohar et al., 2014; Groves et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2014) were found to be higher in patients with coronary artery diseases. Total quantity of PVAT around coronary artery is strongly related to atherosclerotic plaque (Mahabadi et al., 2010; Maurovich-Horvat et al., 2011). More recently, extra media thickness has been suggested as a novel index of PVAT and associated with an increasing number of cardiovascular risk factors (Haberka and Gasior, 2015). A larger adipocyte size and increased density of differentiating preadipocyte are found in EAT obtained from coronary artery disease patients compared to healthy subjects (Silaghi et al., 2007).

It has been demonstrated that adipose tissue quantity is negatively correlated with microvascular coronary vasodilatation response and also coronary flow hyperemia in humans (Shen et al., 2013). EAT thickness is also negatively correlated with flow-mediated dilatation which has been established as a parameter of endothelial dysfunction (Temiz et al., 2015). Endothelial dysfunction has been indicated to be one of the critical initiating step in the development of atherosclerosis. Consistent with these studies, when there is no PVAT such as the intramyocardial portions of coronary arteries, less atherosclerosis has been observed (Ishikawa et al., 2006; Verhagen and Visseren, 2011).

PVAT surrounding human brachial artery is associated with insulin sensitivity; however, it is not correlated with local endothelial dysfunction (Rittig et al., 2008). Moreover, quantity of PVAT surrounding renal sinus is related to the number of prescribed antihypertensive medications and stage II hypertension (Chughtai et al., 2010). Framingham Heart study has indicated that higher thoracic and abdominal aortic dimensions are associated with PVAT quantity. This result has suggested that PVAT could induce aortic remodeling especially observed in aortic aneurysm (Thanassoulis et al., 2012).

4. Role of PVAT in vascular tone control *in vitro*

Firstly, Soltis and Cassis have shown that PVAT decreases the vascular contractile response to norepinephrine in rat aorta (Soltis and Cassis, 1991). Subsequently, it was confirmed that PVAT reduces vascular reactivity in response to not only norepinephrine but also serotonin, phenylephrine and angiotensin II (Lohn et al., 2002). This vasorelaxant effect of PVAT is mostly observed in animal tissues such as mesenteric arteries of rats/mice (Galvez et al., 2006; Takemori et al., 2007), venous rings of rats (Lu et al., 2011) and coronary arteries of pigs (Bunker and Laughlin, 2010).

The factors mediating the vasorelaxant effect of PVAT are not fully understood. This mediator named adipocyte-derived relaxing factor (ADRF) is abolished in the presence of ATP-dependent K channel blocker, whereas it is not modified by nitric oxide synthase (NOS) or cyclooxygenase (COX) inhibitors in rat aorta preparations (Lohn et al., 2002). However, in rat mesenteric arteries, voltage-dependent K channel blocker inhibits the vasorelaxant effect of PVAT (Galvez et al., 2006). It is suggested that regulation of vascular tone by PVAT is mediated by release of different adipokines from PVAT, depending on anatomic location of the adipose tissue depots and also the species: Hydrogen peroxide (Gao et al., 2007), hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) (Fang et al., 2009), adiponectin (Lynch et al., 2013), leptin (Galvez-Prieto et al., 2012) and methyl palmitate (Lee et al., 2011) have been considered as candidates for the vasorelaxant effect of PVAT in animal tissues. However, this vasorelaxant effect is abolished in several models of pathologies

Table 1
Increased (A) or decreased (B) level of adipokines (release/protein/mRNA) from human perivascular adipose tissue (PVAT) or epicardial adipose tissue (EAT) in coronary artery diseases comparing to healthy situation.

A. Increased level of adipokines			
Adipokine	Protein/mRNA/ Release	Adipose tissue	References
IL-1 β	mRNA	EAT	(Shimabukuro et al., 2013; Shibasaki et al., 2010)
TNF α	Release, mRNA	EAT	(Cheng et al., 2008; Gormez et al., 2011; Hirata et al., 2011)
Leptin	Release, mRNA	EAT	(Cheng et al., 2008; Shibasaki et al., 2010; Langheim et al., 2010)
Visfatin	Release, Protein	EAT, PVAT	(Cheng et al., 2008; Spiroglou et al., 2010)
IL-6	mRNA, Release	EAT	(Hirata et al., 2011; Langheim et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2008; Shibasaki et al., 2010)
Resistin	mRNA, Release	EAT	(Langheim et al., 2010; Rachwalik et al., 2014)
PAI	mRNA	EAT	(Langheim et al., 2010)
MCP-1	mRNA	EAT	(Langheim et al., 2010; Shibasaki et al., 2010; Hirata et al., 2011)
ADM	mRNA	EAT	(Silaghi et al., 2007; Shibasaki et al., 2010)
IL-10	mRNA	EAT	(Eiras et al., 2010; Hirata et al., 2011)
Chemerin	Protein, mRNA	PVAT	(Eiras et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2011)
B. Decreased level of adipokines			
Adipokine	Protein/mRNA/ Release	Adipose Tissue	References
Adiponectin	mRNA, Protein, Release	EAT, PVAT	(Gao et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2011; Langheim, et al. 2010; Gormez et al., 2011; Iacobellis et al., 2005; Spiroglou et al., 2010; Cheng et al., 2008)
MIF	mRNA	EAT	(Langheim et al., 2010)
ADM	mRNA, Protein	EAT	(Iacobellis et al., 2009)

IL-1 β , interleukin-1 beta; TNF- α , tumour necrosis factor-alpha; IL-6, interleukin-6; PAI-1, plasminogen activator inhibitor-1; MCP-1, monocyte chemotactic protein-1; IL-10, interleukin-10; MIF, macrophage migration inhibitory factor; ADM, adrenomedullin. Release indicates ELISA measurement. Protein indicates Western blot measurement.

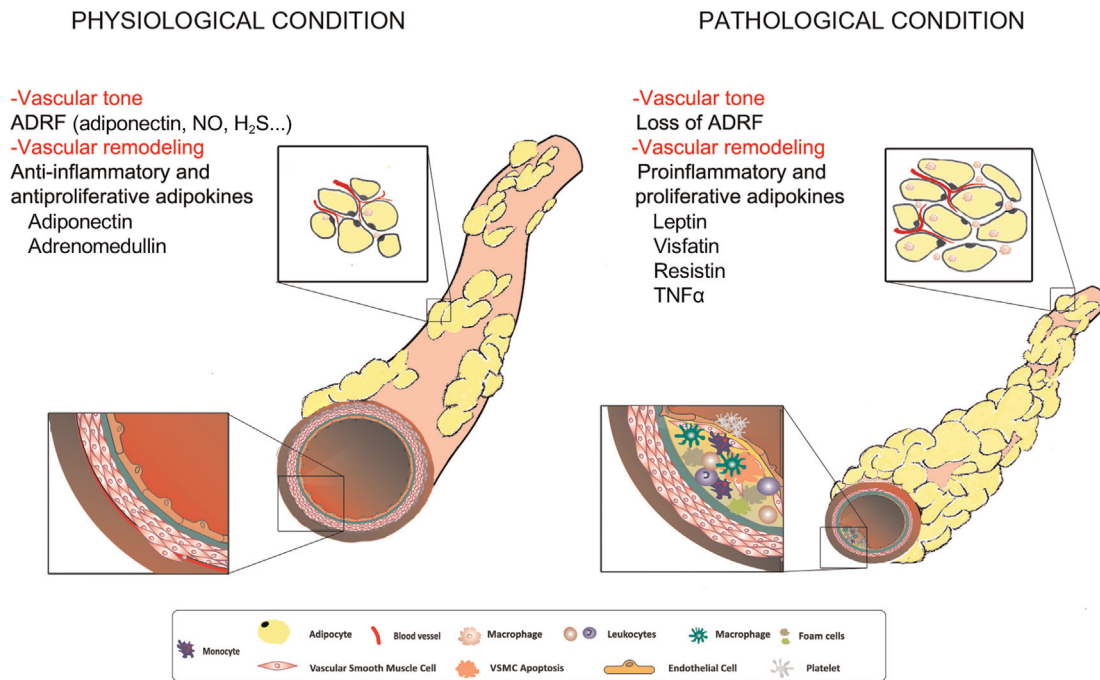


Fig. 1. Effects of perivascular adipose tissue (PVAT) in vascular functions under physiological and pathological conditions. PVAT releases vasodilator (Adipocyte Derived Relaxing Factor, ADRF such as adiponectin, nitric oxide (NO), hydrogen sulfide (H₂S)), anti-inflammatory and antiproliferative adipokines (adiponectin, adrenomedullin) in physiological condition and play important protective role in vascular tone and remodeling. However, in pathological conditions loss of ADRF and also increased release of proinflammatory and proliferative adipokines (leptin, visfatin, resistin, TNF α , IL-1 β , chemerin) lead to development of obesity related cardiovascular diseases.

such as spontaneously hypertensive rats (Lu et al., 2011), mice with diet-induced obesity (Meijer et al., 2013), leptin receptor deficient diabetic and insulin-resistant mice (Ketonen et al., 2010) and mice with metabolic syndrome (Marchesi et al., 2009). In pathological conditions such as obesity or metabolic syndrome, PVAT has been shown to cause endothelial dysfunction by increased NADPH oxidase-derived oxidative stress and/or increased production of pro-inflammatory adipokines such as leptin (Ketonen et al., 2010; Gil-Ortega et al., 2014; Payne et al., 2010). Based on this, a dual role of PVAT has been suggested, a beneficial and protective role in physiological conditions which could disappear or transform into a deleterious role in pathological situations due to proinflammatory and procontractile environment (Fernandez-Alfonso et al., 2013) (Fig. 1).

4.1. Role of PVAT in human vascular tone control *in vitro*

In human vessels, there are only few studies which have evaluated the role of PVAT on the regulation of vascular tone. These *in vitro* studies are mostly performed in small arteries from gluteal/visceral fat biopsy samples or human coronary bypass graft materials such as internal mammary artery (IMA) or saphenous vein (SV).

It has been shown that PVAT of small arteries isolated from subcutaneous gluteal fat biopsy samples from healthy subjects, reduces contractile response to norepinephrine of these vessels placed in a myograph system. Incubation with an adiponectin blocking peptide or inhibition of NOS abolished the vasodilator effect of PVAT from healthy subjects. However, this vasorelaxant effect disappears in obese patients with metabolic syndrome (Greenstein et al., 2009). Weight loss procedures (bariatric surgery, gastric bypass or diet) have been shown to improve vascular response by restoration of the vasorelaxant effect of PVAT and also reversal of endothelial dysfunction (Brethauer et al., 2011; Aghamohammadzadeh et al., 2013).

More recently, the role of TNF α on the endothelin-1/NO

imbalance in PVAT has been investigated in small arteries of visceral abdominal fat from obese patients. These results have suggested that PVAT could have role in the endothelial dysfunction observed in obesity (Virdis et al., 2015). Increased TNF α gene expression in obese-PVAT is associated with an increased vascular expression of endothelin-1 and endothelin receptors. In addition, this increased TNF α gene expression could be responsible for NOS uncoupling and decreased NO release due to NAD(P)H oxidase activation and increased reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation (Virdis et al., 2015). Finally, PVAT surrounding small abdominal arteries from obese subjects releases less NO compared to PVAT from non-obese subjects. This study highlights the vasorelaxant effect of PVAT in physiological conditions which transforms into an inflammatory pro-contractile phenotype in obesity (Virdis et al., 2015). This study highlights the vasorelaxant effect of PVAT in physiological conditions which transforms into an inflammatory pro-contractile phenotype in obesity (Virdis et al., 2015).

In IMA, the presence of PVAT reduces the contractile responses to both phenylephrine/norepinephrine and also U46619 (thromboxane mimetic) (Gao et al., 2005; Ozen et al., 2013). Another study also confirmed that PVAT of IMA attenuates the contractile response to serotonin and angiotensin II (Malinowski et al., 2013). In contrast to gluteal PVAT, the vasorelaxant effect of PVAT in IMA is not abolished in the presence of NOS inhibitor or COX inhibitor (indomethacin), which inhibits the production of PGI₂ (Malinowski et al., 2008; Ozen et al., 2013). However, incubation with a calcium-dependent potassium channel blocker abolishes the relaxing effect of PVAT in IMA preparations (Gao et al., 2005; Malinowski et al., 2008; Malinowski et al., 2013). These studies have shown that transferring PVAT of IMA or incubation of solution from PVAT-intact vessels to PVAT-removed vessels also causes vasodilatation. These results have suggested that this vasorelaxant effect of PVAT is independent of physical presence of PVAT (Gao et al., 2005; Malinowski et al., 2013).

In SV, it has also been demonstrated that PVAT reduces the contractile response or sensitivity to norepinephrine/serotonin

(Ford et al. 2006; Ozen et al., 2013). Contrary to IMA, incubation with indomethacin decreases vasorelaxant effect of PVAT in SV. PVAT of SV has been found as a source of prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) and PGI₂ that induce SV vasorelaxation via EP4 and IP receptor, respectively (Foudi et al., 2011; Ozen et al., 2013). Other research groups have shown the presence of endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) activity (Dashwood et al., 2007), the release or expression of leptin (Dashwood et al., 2011) and adiponectin (Margaritis et al., 2013) in the PVAT of human SV.

Several adipokines such as leptin, adiponectin, adrenomedullin, apelin induce dose-dependent vasodilatation in human vessels (Fesus et al., 2007; Greenstein et al., 2009; Momin et al., 2006; Salcedo et al., 2007; Terata et al., 2000; Xi et al., 2005) whereas TNF α , IL-6, IL-10 induce contraction in human vessels (Iversen et al., 1999). Chemerin causes a contraction in human mesenteric artery from obese patients where the endothelium is dysfunctional (Watts et al. 2013). In addition, IL-1 β and resistin reduce endothelium-dependent vasodilatation in human vessels (Bhagat and Vallance, 1997; Dick et al., 2006). However, there are few pharmacological studies showing that one of these substances could modify vasorelaxant effect of PVAT in human grafts.

4.2. Role of PVAT on human vascular tone control in vivo

Paradoxically, graft materials are mostly used as PVAT-removed in coronary artery bypass operation. However, intimal hyperplasia and vasospasm with a reduction of patency rate are common problems that occur after bypass surgery which may cause graft occlusion. (Mitra et al., 2006). Since PVAT of IMA/SV release vasorelaxant substances, retaining PVAT might be helpful in preventing these problems in the post-operative period. In this aspect, Souza and co-workers have investigated a no-touch technique to use the SV with surrounding PVAT. This new technique provides better endothelial cells preservation, reduced injury, increased eNOS expression, less VSMC differentiation, less atherosclerotic process and consequently better short and long-term patency rate have been observed (Souza et al., 2001; Verma et al., 2014). Although, no-touch studies were performed with only SV preparation, Malinowski et al. has suggested that preserving PVAT of IMA might also be beneficial by providing less surgical trauma and spasm to the artery (Malinowski et al., 2008).

5. Role of PVAT in remodeling of the vascular wall

PVAT may play a beneficial role in the physiological condition by not only reducing vascular tone, but also playing a protective role of vascular remodeling via the release of anti-inflammatory, antiproliferative and vasodilator adipokines such as adiponectin. Hypoadiponectinemia is associated with the complexity of atherosclerotic lesions in the coronary and acute coronary syndromes (Otsuka et al., 2006; Barseghian et al., 2011).

Atherosclerosis is one of the major complications of type II diabetes. In patients with type II diabetes, serum adiponectin levels are decreased while in the vascular wall of their IMA NADPH-oxidase activity is increased (Antonopoulos et al., 2015). In contrast, adiponectin levels produced by these PVAT of IMA are correlated with the level of NADPH-oxidase activity in IMA. This paracrine compensatory mechanism depends on oxidation products released by vascular NADPH-oxidase, which could up-regulate adiponectin gene expression via peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ (PPAR γ) activation in PVAT of IMA (Antonopoulos et al., 2015). This crosstalk could be deficient in patients with atherosclerosis associated with type 2 diabetes and could be a new therapeutic target. A similar protective role of PVAT was described when exacerbated atherosclerosis was obtained in a

mouse model lacking PVAT after deletion of PPAR γ (Chang et al., 2012).

Consistent with the previous studies, Takaoka et al. suggested that PVAT (via adiponectin release) could have a protective role against neointimal formation after angioplasty under physiological conditions in healthy mice (Takaoka et al., 2009). However, under pathological conditions, PVAT expands, becomes dysfunctional, inflamed and shows proliferative characteristics (Takaoka et al., 2010).

5.1. Role of PVAT in cell proliferation and migration

Recently, Lamers et al. showed that adipocyte-conditioned media derived from human pathologic epicardial fat biopsies induces proliferation and migration of VSMC (Lamers et al., 2011). It is well known that migration and proliferation of VSMC plays a major role in vascular remodeling which is observed during pathogenesis of atherosclerosis, restenosis and hypertension.

Identification of PVAT-derived proliferative factors and their *in vivo* roles have been mostly shown in animal models. The PVAT-derived visfatin (Wang et al., 2009) resistin (Shyu et al., 2011) and TNF α (Takaoka et al., 2010) were found to be VSMC growth factors. In addition to animal studies, direct effects of several adipokines on human cells have been demonstrated. Resistin, leptin and MCP-1 induce human aortic smooth muscle cell proliferation through ERK 1/2 or/and NF-kappa B (NF κ B) pathways (Mitchell et al., 2002; Li et al., 2005; Calabro et al., 2004). In contrast, adiponectin and adrenomedullin inhibit VSMC proliferation and/or migration (Kohno et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 2015; Horio et al., 1995).

Adipokines play a role not only in VSMC proliferation but also endothelial cell proliferation. *In vitro* studies have demonstrated that chemerin and leptin could promote endothelial cell proliferation, migration and mediate the formation of blood vessels to a similar extent as vascular endothelial growth factor in human endothelial cells. (Bozaoglu et al., 2010; Ferla et al., 2011; Kaur et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2013). Increased levels of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species, activation of PI3K/Akt and mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) pathways and/or increased matrix metalloproteinase activity in response to chemerin has been suggested to play a role in these effect (Bozaoglu et al., 2010; Kaur et al., 2010; Shen et al., 2013). Similarly visfatin and resistin have induced angiogenesis by promoting vascular endothelial growth factor via matrix metalloproteinase and PI3K/Akt (Adya et al., 2008; Xiao et al., 2009) and increase endothelial cell proliferation, migration and the expression of cell adhesion molecules in human endothelial cells, partly via NF κ B (Lee et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2008) and p38 MAPK-dependent pathway (Hsu et al., 2011; Mu et al., 2006). On the other hand, adiponectin and adrenomedullin suppresses human endothelial cell migration and proliferation (Mahadev et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2014). Altered release of proliferative and antiproliferative adipokines observed in obesity could lead to the development of vascular diseases.

5.2. Role of PVAT in fibroblast and inflammatory cells migration

In vessels, migration of vascular cells could be under the control of PVAT. Data have shown that adiponectin induces AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) phosphorylation and inhibits both the migration of cultured mouse adventitial fibroblasts and the expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase in response to lipopolysaccharide treatment (Cai et al., 2010). These authors suggested a protective role of adiponectin against development of coronary artery diseases. On the other hand, visfatin promotes proliferation of cardiac fibroblasts (Yu et al., 2010) and also upregulate endothelial fibroblast growth factor-2 in human endothelial cells (Bae et al., 2009).

EAT demonstrates higher macrophage infiltration compared with other adipose tissues (Baker et al., 2006; Eiras et al., 2008). This increased macrophage infiltration and inflammatory activity in adipose tissue surrounding vessels could contribute both to atherosclerosis and also abdominal aortic aneurysm pathogenesis (Henrichot et al., 2005; Police et al., 2009). Human PVAT induces CD14 expression and CD14 dependent chemotaxis, probably by IL-6, and promotes macrophage infiltration to induce aneurysmal development (Blomkalns et al., 2013). Another study has also indicated that human PVAT has strong chemotactic activity on monocytes, granulocytes, and T lymphocytes that is mainly mediated by MCP-1 and IL-8. These factors contribute to the infiltration of leukocytes at the interface between human PVAT and the adventitia of atherosclerotic aortas (Henrichot et al., 2005).

In coronary vessels of patients having bypass surgery, PVAT macrophages are associated with stenosis of the adjacent vessel. Either in coronary vessels with or without stenosis, anti-inflammatory M2 macrophages are more abundant than pro-inflammatory M1 macrophages in PVAT (Verhagen et al., 2014). This is in accordance with another study based on EAT in patients with or without coronary artery diseases, where M2 macrophage density is always greater than the M1 density (Hirata et al., 2011). In addition, in this last study the greatest increase of macrophage density in EAT was detected for M1 macrophage in patients with coronary artery diseases versus without coronary artery diseases.

6. Pharmacotherapeutic targets

Recent studies have focused on new therapeutic targets related to PVAT for the prevention and treatment of obesity-related cardiovascular disease. In this regard, different pharmacological treatments have been developed, targeting different PVAT intracellular pathways that are involved in the protection of vascular tone, the inhibition of VSMC proliferation and/or the inhibition of endothelial damage and proliferation. Activation of AMPK (metformin/thiazolidinediones; see review Almagrouk et al., 2014), mammalian target of rapamycin complex 2 (Lamers et al., 2011; Bhattacharya et al., 2013; Almagrouk et al., 2014) or NFκB/IKK/PPAR γ (Antonopoulos et al., 2015) have been suggested as pharmacotherapeutic targets in relation with dysfunctional PVAT. Inactivation of the renin angiotensin system (captopril/telmisartan) (Kawahito et al., 2013; Rosei et al., 2015) and inhibition of HMG-CoA reductase (atorvastatin) (Zeng et al., 2009) have been shown to improve PVAT vasorelaxant effect. Atorvastatin could play important role by increasing net H₂S production in PVAT (Wojcicka et al., 2011; Beltowski and Jamroz-Wisniewska, 2012). Inhibition of P-Selectin Glycoprotein Ligand-1 binding is another novel target for vascular disease associated with obesity by reducing PVAT inflammation (Wang et al., 2012).

Other studies are focused on adipokines released from PVAT. Adiponectin has protective effects against endothelial dysfunction, atherosclerosis and hypertension via AMPK pathway and/or eNOS activation. By contrast, adipocyte fatty acid binding protein and leptin mediate obesity-related vascular dysfunctions by potentiating lipid-induced inflammation (Xu and Vanhoutte, 2012). Adiponectin receptor agonists and adipocyte fatty acid binding protein (Xu and Vanhoutte, 2012) or leptin receptor antagonists (Payne et al., 2014) are defined as promising therapeutic targets for treatment of obesity-related cardiovascular disease.

7. Conclusions and perspectives

The studies discussed in this review highlight the evidence that preservation of PVAT function is necessary for vascular biology and

dysfunctional PVAT could be an important cause for vascular diseases.

More recently, meta analyses have indicated an obesity paradox, showing that low risk for cardiovascular mortality in overweight patients with heart failure (Sharma et al., 2015). Only overweight patients, not patients with severe obesity seem to be associated with an obesity paradox (Lavie et al., 2014). It could be due to protective effects of adipose tissue in overweight patient and this effect tends to disappear at more extreme levels of obesity.

In vitro studies have also indicated that beneficial effects of PVAT in the control of vascular functions in health is impaired and PVAT becomes dysfunctional in pathological conditions. Although there is a potential link between dysfunctional PVAT and vascular remodeling, mechanisms of action are still under discussion. We propose that the increased PVAT quantity observed in obesity could result in an imbalance of secretion between detrimental and beneficial adipokines released from PVAT (Fig. 1). This imbalance is commonly described as an increased level of leptin and decreased level of adiponectin (Payne et al., 2010). This could be a key pathway in the setting of obesity-related cardiovascular disease by accelerating inflammation, oxidative stress, VSMC proliferation and endothelial dysfunction.

Recently several therapeutic approaches related to PVAT were suggested; however, most of them were derived from animal studies. It is clear that the effects of PVAT on vascular function vary among species and vascular bed. More human studies are needed to determine accurate mechanisms by which PVAT-derived adipokines modulate vascular homeostasis in health or disease and consequently to discover new pharmacotherapeutic agents to preserve the beneficial function of healthy PVAT.

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