

Molecular Biology of Atherosclerosis Formation, Diseases Mechanism and Diagnosis Application Development

Ahroosh K. Vydyula (Student)¹, Prof. Rajagopal Appavu (Mentor)²

¹Carrollwood Day School 1515 W Bearss Ave, Tampa, FL 33613

²Research Rising Stars, Tampa, Florida 33647 draraj@researchrisingstars.com

* Corresponding author email: ahrooshv@gmail.com

Abstract

Atherosclerosis is a disorder related to levels of lipids and cholesterol in the bloodstream. The process consists of irritation of the endothelium followed by a buildup of LDL cholesterol on artery walls. Over time these lipids form into plaques that block part of the bloodstream, and when plaques rupture, they cause thrombosis, or blood clots, which inhibit blood flow. This condition can be extremely dangerous, especially when it occurs in the coronary arteries. Common risk factors for atherosclerosis include hypertension and diabetes. Treatments include PCSK9 inhibitors, colchicine, and statins. These therapies lower LDL cholesterol levels by inhibiting proteins involved in LDL synthesis, acting as competing substrates, or reducing immune system activity. Other treatments, such as clot busters, destroy thrombosis after it occurs.

The main component of this research is viscosity. Viscosity is the measure of how thick a substance is, measured by viscometers, which are expensive instruments that use rotation or gravity to simulate flowing dynamics. Simple viscometers cannot calculate blood viscosity accurately because of shear rate. Shear rate refers to the concept that fluids can flow at different speeds at the center of a tube compared to friction on the outer walls.

Keywords

Biology; Molecular Biology; Cardiovascular Biology; Atherosclerosis Mechanisms; Plaque Formation Diagnostics

Introduction

Atherosclerosis was discovered in 1913 by Nikolai N. Anichkov, along with Semjon S. Chalato after the analysis of previous research from other scientists such as Rudolph Virchow¹. This research is important because it delves into methods of discovering plaque formation in the arteries before they can do harm². In the current medical field, research has been conducted on the study of different stages of atherosclerosis^{2,4}. This includes the study of thin-capped fibroatheromas, which is the stage where atherosclerosis is at its climax and

plaque rupture is imminent⁴. Plaque rupture is the process where a thin capped fibrous cap breaks causing lipid-rich fat to be exposed to the bloodstream^{5,4}. This causes blood to clot in the artery, which is called thrombosis⁵. Thrombus in the blood can lead to dangerous symptoms such as a pulmonary embolism⁶. This severely slows down blood flow and can lead to stroke, swelling, and long-term circulation problems⁶. If unfortunately caused in a coronary artery, this can block blood flow to the heart causing chest pain and death⁷. Atherosclerosis is an underlying cause of most CVDs, which continue to kill people across the globe¹. Heart attacks can kill within minutes or hours, making the prediction of plaque rupture an imperative topic in today's society⁶.

After the discovery of atherosclerosis, modern research has progressed with treatment tenfold¹⁶. This includes the discovery of stents, statins, and other medications⁹. Statins block HMG-CoA reductase, the enzyme required for cholesterol production¹¹. This causes liver cells to pack less cholesterol into LDL cholesterol as well as less cholesterol esters¹³. This means that less cholesterol is built up and smaller sizes of LDL molecules¹⁸. On a molecular level, statins serve as a competitor to HMG-CoA¹⁸. HMG-CoA is the substrate that causes the creation of LDL cholesterol molecules¹¹. Statins serve as an alternate substrate to take up space and prevent HMG-CoA substrates from inciting LDL creation¹⁸(Figure 1).

This discovery provided a revolutionary medication to prevent and slow down the progress of atherosclerosis¹⁶. However, they do not fully prevent it, meaning that rupture is still a chance⁶. This is why this research is so imperative. With atherosclerosis and CVDs being an almost inevitable disease, the prediction of fatal plaque ruptures is necessary to prevent many deaths across the globe¹. Atherosclerosis is also a genetic disorder²². Treatments such as PCSK9 inhibitors and more treat and slow the progress of atherosclerosis; however, they do not fully prevent the disease⁹. This is why the prediction of rupturing plaques is important to prevent many deaths across the globe⁶. Specifically, blood viscosity is a major component in predicting the risk of heart disease in any person^{6,8}. High blood viscosity poses threats of

cardiovascular diseases such as atherosclerosis and hypertension⁶. Rarer occurrences such as low blood viscosity can also show signs of different medical ailments⁶. Through this research, we will explain how the prediction of plaque rupture thrombosis is an imperative topic in the current medical world⁵. As well as explain different biomarkers, risk factors, medications, and processes of atherosclerosis⁴.

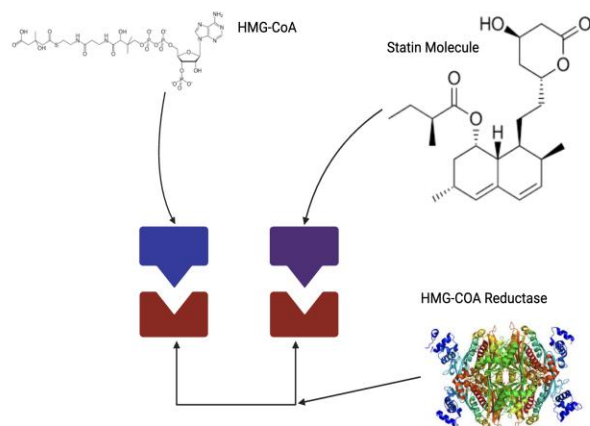


Figure 1: An illustration of how statin molecules act as a competing substrate for the enzyme HMG-CoA reductase. By serving as a competitor, they prevent HMG-CoA substrates from bonding with the enzyme, hindering LDL cholesterol synthesis.

Atherosclerosis is a multi-step process that occurs in the arteries. It begins with endothelial dysfunction. The endothelium is the inner layer of blood vessels¹. The endothelium of the plaque becomes damaged due to several risk factors². This signals possible inflammation in the artery³. The next stage of atherosclerosis is called fatty streak. In this stage, cholesterol enters damaged endothelium and gets oxidized¹¹. Macrophages ingest oxidized cholesterol and become foam cells³. Foam cells build up and turn into fatty streaks⁵. Macrophages are special leukocytes that consume pathogens in the body⁴(Figure 3).

During intermediate lesion, muscle cells migrate into the intima, the innermost layer of a blood vessel⁵. Due to this, foam cells and lipids build up in the endothelium³. After these events, in a stage called atheroma, a lipid core is formed and is covered by a fibrous cap which blocks off parts of the artery⁵. From here, the plaque begins to calcify and the fibrous cap hardens. In this stage, if the cap is thin and the lipid core is soft, then the plaque is unstable⁴. If no measures are taken to provide aid, then the plaque turns into a complicated lesion

which blocks off the artery and creates a thrombosis in the artery^{5,4}.

Some tools for basic prediction of atherosclerosis are biomarkers. Biomarkers such as C-reactive protein (hs-CRP), interleukin 6 (IL-6), and lipoprotein-associated phospholipase A2 (Lp-PLA2) can all show signs of atherosclerosis later during lifetimes^{18,5}. However, as stated before, atherosclerosis can be slowed down through different treatments. These include statins, PCSK9 inhibitors, and colchicine^{9,16}. Statins are a medication that fight LDL cholesterol production¹⁸. They do this by providing competition for the substrate HMG-CoA¹¹. By binding with the enzyme HMG-CoA reductase, they cause LDL cholesterol molecules to appear in smaller quantities and sizes¹⁸. PCSK9 inhibitors are used when statins aren't efficient enough⁹. They block the function of the protein PCSK9. This boosts the liver's ability to remove LDL cholesterol from the body⁹. They do this by raising the amount of LDL receptors on liver cells⁹. The last prevention medication is colchicine. Colchicine dampens inflammation on blood vessel lining¹⁶. This stabilizes plaques and slows down the progression of atherosclerosis³. In addition, colchicine hinders inflammatory markers such as C-reactive protein¹⁸. In dire situations, a medication called clot busters or thrombolytic drugs can be used⁶. This medication removes blood clots, freeing up arteries and preventing death or heart attack⁶.

In the primary stage of atherosclerosis, the endothelium becomes damaged¹. This causes LDL molecules and leukocytes to build up inside the artery walls^{11,3}. The process preceding this one is known as “fatty streak,” during which LDL molecules enter the intima and get trapped⁵. There, the molecules oxidize¹¹. Visually, the vessel appears to thicken. However, on most gross exams, the condition still appears asymptomatic⁶.

During foam cell construction, monocytes begin to attach to the endothelium and press together³. After this process, the monocytes transform into macrophages and begin to consume the oxidized LDL³. This causes them to appear fat and foamy as well as inciting the wall to start bulging⁵. These are early signs of a fatty lesion⁴. When foam cells amass, they create structures called yellow fatty streaks on the endothelium⁵.

The fibrous cap is formed by muscle cells from a deep arterial layer moving up and laying down different types of scar tissue such as collagen, elastin, and proteoglycans¹³. This narrows blood flow; however, it cannot cause any lethal damage⁶. From here, when foam cells die, the compositions of them are dispersed. This is what causes the lipid-rich necrotic cores to form plaques⁵.

In this stage, if the plaque calcifies and the fibrous cap thickens, then the plaque will be stable⁴. Some other underlying conditions can make you predisposed to atherosclerosis. Diabetes damages the inner wall of the endothelium². Damaged artery walls can lead to an increased amount of LDL and HDL cholesterol to sneak inside the artery wall¹¹(Figure2)

The immune system also plays a major role in the progression of atherosclerosis³. At the beginning, when the endothelium is damaged, it disperses special signals which cause white blood cells to travel to the site and enter the endothelium⁴. Macrophages attempt to control the situation by consuming LDL cholesterol to the point where they swell and become foamy; this, in turn, leads to more leukocytes being called to the endothelium³.

Special cells known as T-cells further worsen the issue; they prevent smooth muscle cells from creating a substance known as collagen, an abundant protein found in the body which specializes in connection and support^{4,13}. Collagen makes the fibrous caps on plaques tough and thick. Without this crucial substance, the fibrous caps grow thin and weak, greatly increasing the risk of plaque rupture⁴.

On top of this, another type of immune cell that further worsens the process is neutrophils³. Neutrophils break down the tissue in the fibrous cap by releasing enzymes and molecules. This further raises the risk of plaque rupture and the lethality of the condition³. These are some examples of how special immune cells can further worsen the problem⁴.

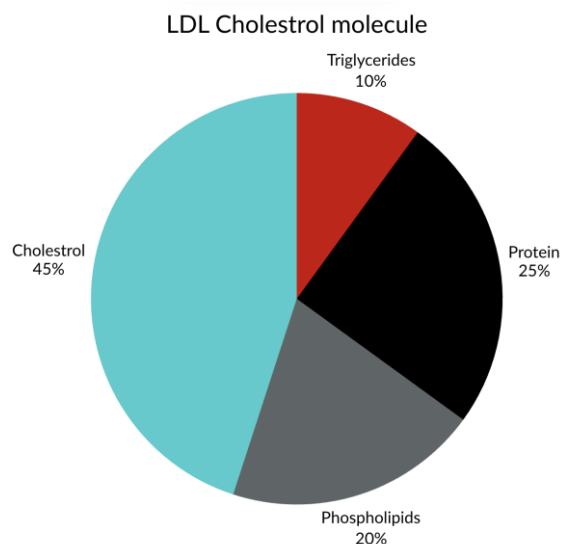


Figure 2: An outline of the components of an LDL cholesterol molecule. LDL cholesterol is made up of 45% cholesterol, 10% triglycerides, 25% protein and 20% phospholipids.

Mechanism of atherosclerosis plaques formation:

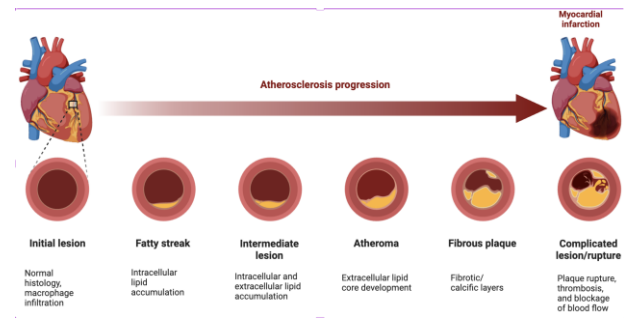


Figure 3: The atherosclerotic process is shown here. Atherosclerosis is gradual and asymptomatic; the diagram here shows that through lipid accumulation the artery starts to slowly fill up. At the end of the process when the plaque has ruptured and the thrombosis is present; we can observe a red blotch on the heart. This is because when the coronary arteries are blocked and as such, they stop blood-flow through the heart causing parts of it to die which can end up being a fatal outcome.

A major overlooked component is blood viscosity or the thickness of your blood⁶. But why does this matter? The blood viscosity of your blood can surface several underlying diseases or illnesses⁸, and most importantly, show key signs of atherosclerosis. When blood viscosity is thick, it means that blood is flowing slowly and is dragging on the endothelium⁶. This process causes the cholesterol and inflammatory cells to attach to the endothelium³.

On top of this, the slow flow of blood may cause minor injuries on the endothelium⁶. This can make the endothelium more prone to inflammation and atherosclerosis¹. Other than making atherosclerosis more prone, it makes the effects of it worse. Thick blood is more likely to clot, which means that during plaque rupture, the thrombosis that occurs from atherosclerosis is more condensed and hinders blood flow even further⁶. The analysis of blood viscosity can help patients maintain better hydration. Dehydration causes plasma volume to decrease while the concentration of red blood cells and plasma proteins is increased. This causes hyper viscosity and can contribute to vascular dysfunction to patients already prone to CVD's

With how important blood viscosity is in the fight against heart disease, it is a shame that it comes at such a high cost. The cost of an average rotational viscometer comes to an astonishing \$2000–\$5000⁶. This is unfortunate because it means that many rural hospitals cannot afford this costly equipment⁶.

To deduce if a patient has atherosclerosis, many factors are involved. These factors include blood pressure,

viscosity, sugar, cholesterol level, and BMI². Atherosclerosis cannot be explained by just one aspect of the body. It takes a combined effort of many different tests to discover signs of the progression of atherosclerosis⁵.

The reason that standard rotational viscometers are so complex is that blood is identified as a non-Newtonian liquid⁶. This means that it does not have constant flow⁶. Newtonian fluids such as water have a constant flow rate based on their surface⁶. The reason blood is non-Newtonian is due to a factor called shear rate⁶.

Mathematically, shear rate = velocity / distance⁶. But on a more descriptive level, shear rate is the factor of when liquid flows in a tube, the fluid on the edge of the tube flows slower than the fluid in the center⁶.

One untouched feature of atherosclerosis is that it is caused by inflammation in the arteries³. This means that it should be prominent everywhere in the arteries, correct? However, this introduces an aspect called laminar and tubular flow⁶. A brief definition of both is that laminar flow is straight. It occurs in tubes with parallel edges and is normally very smooth and orderly⁶. Turbulent flow, on the other hand, is the exact opposite. It occurs in tubes with swirls and turns. Turbulent flow is not smooth and can vary in speeds⁶.

This is important because in certain areas such as coronary arteries, aorta, and carotid bifurcation, blood flow has low shear stress³. Meaning it is extremely easy for cholesterol and lipids to stick to the endothelium as well as expediting inflammatory markers³. Low shear stress zones are extremely prone to develop atherosclerosis plaques, and blood viscosity can help us understand not only the overall risk of atherosclerosis, but where the atherosclerosis is and where plaque rupture may be imminent⁶(Figure 4)

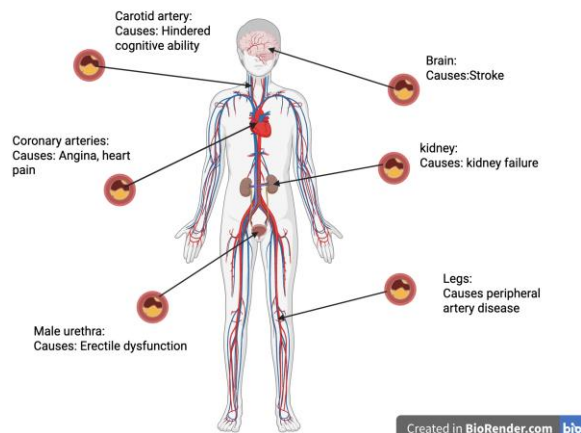


Figure 4: This outline of the human body shows the most common areas where atherosclerosis takes place.

It can be observed that different symptoms are observed in different areas. For example, when atherosclerosis occurs in the brain it can cause lethal strokes, on the other hand when it occurs in the kidney it can lead to kidney failure. Through the use of blood viscosity, we can help predict and prevent these dangerous plaques from forming and save countless lives.

High shear stress, on the other hand, is also, if not more harmful than low shear stress locations³. High shear stress causes lots of strain on artery walls, meaning that it can damage the endothelium, increasing permeability which causes more cholesterol to seep into the endothelium¹¹. High strain can weaken fibrous caps, making plaques more prone to rupture⁴.

Finally, hyper viscosity causes an increase of platelet activation in the bloodstream⁵. This means that after plaque rupture and the forming of the thrombus, more platelets will be activated, leading to an increase in size and raising the danger level for the patient⁵, this causes increased stress on the endothelium and activates inflammatory markers for atherosclerosis. High shear stress is most common in coronary bifurcations as well as arteries in the shoulder; overall it is most common in laminar vessels with extreme narrowing, mostly due to plaques³. High blood viscosity further amplifies the issues stated above, revealing how imperative it is to the quick suppression of dangerous and imminent plaque rupture^{6, 8}.

In addition, conditions such as anemia that lower hematocrit levels can decrease blood viscosity signaling illness before it fully takes place. On the other hand

This then leads to the development of my prototype: a smart Ostwald viscometer that specializes in the measurement of blood viscosity efficiently and effectively⁶. While unwieldy and exorbitant rotational viscometers already do this, they are extremely ineffective and very pricey⁶. With my smart viscometers measuring at an astonishing 100 × 65 × 40 mm, they can do the same calculations with the same accuracy at a fraction of the price⁶. This innovation can aid rural hospitals and healthcare facilities around the globe by providing an easy-to-use, cheap, and accurate substitute for extremely expensive rotational viscometers⁶.

Overall effects of atherosclerosis on the world

I have been explaining on and on about my research on atherosclerosis, but one thing that must be clarified is the effects on atherosclerosis across the globe to understand the gravity of the situation^{6, 7}.

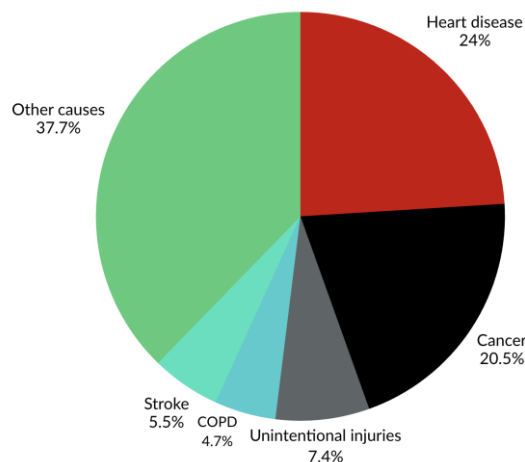


Figure 5: This pie chart consists of the 5 leading causes of death from 2024. This data shows that heart disease and stroke account for 29.5% of deaths worldwide. This makes atherosclerosis the deadliest condition known to man and further signifies the need for efforts to help prevent atherosclerosis.

From this graph, which shows data including the number of deaths from cardiovascular disease as well as stroke (also caused by atherosclerosis), it amounts to over a quarter of deaths around the world^{6,7}. This further emphasizes the need for research on atherosclerosis. Overall, heart disease is THE leading issue in today's society^{1,3}. A single step towards solving heart disease is bound to save millions of lives around the world^{1,18}(Figure 5).

But narrowing down on my research, you may ask the question: why blood viscosity, and how should we look more into this instead of other areas of heart disease? Blood viscosity is imperative to understand as it is a new frontier of exploration that is not viewed as much as other forms of atherosclerosis research such as blood pressure, genetics, and cholesterol levels^{6,22,14}. Predicting plaque rupture is not just a one-trick formula but a team effort from the observation of different factors^{8,5}. As explained in the text above, the different properties can reveal where plaques are most likely to form and the overall risk of atherosclerosis^{3,4}. In addition, my invention will help bring these ideas to fruition⁶.

Methods

The invention has only been talked about briefly; however, not in detail. The invention is a smart Ostwald viscometer⁶. An Ostwald viscometer is a tool used to measure the viscosity of Newtonian liquids⁶. A Newtonian liquid is a liquid that holds constant velocity regardless of the shear rate (e.g., water, oil)⁶.

For clarity, the Viscometer described here is a prototype that is currently in development meaning that no physical testing has been performed at this time. Validation of the device will be performed after development of the prototype is completed.

The shear rate is the theory that liquids flow at different speeds due to the friction of their container or vessel⁶. Blood is a non-Newtonian liquid, meaning that shear rate changes its viscosity, which necessitates more complicated tools to measure its viscosity, leading to the \$5000 rotational viscometers⁶.

Until now, the smart Ostwald viscometer devised uses technological components to calculate the shear rate of blood and produce an accurate viscosity⁶. The marvel is that the production cost is at most around \$100–\$125 per unit⁶. A fraction of the price of rotational viscometers, this means that rural hospitals and even the general public can use this device to accurately examine their blood viscosity⁶. In addition, the device itself is extremely small, meaning that it is easily portable, further boosting its utility and overall efficiency⁶.

The way that the viscometer works is as follows. First, blood from a blood bag is injected into the primary compartment of the viscometer⁶. When the person is ready, they will push a button that begins the test⁶. The blood will flow through a temperature-controlled tube and pass two sensors⁶. These sensors will time the flow from one to the other⁶. Once that has been measured, the viscometer will calculate the viscosity using shear-rate equations which have been coded into the viscometer's mainframe⁶. The viscometer includes heating technology and regulators to make sure that the tube represents human-like conditions and so that the viscometer does not overheat⁶(Figure 6)

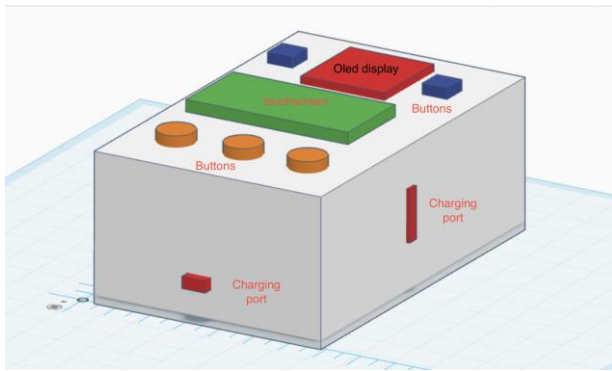


Figure 6: This is a diagram of the exterior of the designed viscometer. Several key components are outlined above. The orange circles and blue squares represent buttons. The orange buttons are designed for calibrations, temperature control and data recording. The blue buttons are for Test conduction. The red square is the OLED display. This will display test results and the calculated viscosity. The green rectangle is the touchscreen. This serves as the central control and the manipulation of temperature, calibration and test results. The red objects on the bottom and sides serve as chargers for the device. The viscometer does not require a significant amount of charge for the test meaning that it can conduct numerous tests until finally requiring a recharge.

Conclusion

Atherosclerosis is a leading cause of death around the world, causing 17.8 million annual deaths^{6,7}. Predicting plaque rupture is a new frontier of possibility that could save countless lives^{1,3}. In modern society, while research is being done to cure heart disease, there are aspects of the cardiovascular system that go largely untouched. Blood viscosity is a crucial part of atherosclerosis formation and process⁶.

Through deep research into how blood viscosity affects atherosclerosis, as well as other new factors of atherosclerosis, we can uncover major findings⁸. Areas of research other than blood viscosity include how the immune system plays a substantial role in atherosclerosis^{3,4}. From endothelial dysfunction to intermediate lesion, the immune system, in an effort to bring the body back to homeostasis, actually worsens the condition³. Macrophages, in an effort to remove the increasing amount of LDL cholesterol in the body, consume substantial amounts of LDL, which then turns them into foam cells that build the lipid plaques on artery walls^{5,11}. Other examples include how T-cells prohibit the production of collagen, which is required for plaques to be stable and relatively safe^{4,13}, and how neutrophils eat away at those fibrous caps, which further worsens the condition and expedites plaque rupture³.

Blood viscosity is an untouched horizon of possibility. It can be used to predict where and when atherosclerotic plaques will rupture^{6,8}. By using information such as laminar and tubular flow, we can correctly deduce the most probable location for plaque rupture as well as the imminence of the plaque rupture^{3,6}. With this information combined with our other methods for understanding atherosclerosis, we can collectively combine our information to save millions of lives^{5,18}.

In addition, to combat the egregious prices of modern-day healthcare equipment, the smart Ostwald viscometer brings a new revolutionary weapon to rural clinics and emergency centers across the world⁶. Healthcare is not a privilege, and through this tool, we can aid hospitals and clinics which are not able to afford standard viscometer technologies⁶. Not only that, but we can also help people individually by letting them examine their own bodies. This can alert those in imminent danger and stop disaster before it strikes⁶.

Viscosity provides such a powerful weapon in the battle against heart disease^{6,8}. On a general view, blood viscosity can communicate how predisposed someone is to the perpetuation of atherosclerosis⁶. A scientific explanation: dangerously high blood viscosity shows that when blood flows, it will drag on the endothelium. This, in turn, causes the endothelium to slowly be damaged and allows more cholesterol and lipids to seep into the artery walls³.

Going beyond the boundaries for atherosclerosis, low blood viscosity can unveil underlying issues such as anemia⁶. In addition, understanding blood viscosity correlates with understanding LDL and HDL cholesterol levels in the body^{7,11}. High viscosity reveals an increased number of inflammatory cells⁵. This means that through the higher inflation, more macrophages are called, which in turn further expedites the inflammatory process of atherosclerosis³. Vice versa, high viscosity levels indicate an absence of HDL cholesterol since HDL cholesterol stops the oxidation of LDL and overall reduces blood inflammation¹³. High viscosity levels can reveal that HDL cholesterol levels may be low¹³.

Other than LDL levels, high blood viscosity generally states high stress on the endothelium⁶. In addition, thick, slow-moving blood can inhibit platelet movement. This causes an increase in the amount of LDL that oxidizes³. Therefore, we can use blood viscosity to predict plaques and plaque rupture of atherosclerosis^{6,8}.

Acknowledgements

I would like to sincerely thank everyone who contributed to the completion of this research. I am especially thankful towards both Dr. Ravikanth Vydyula and Dr. Rajagopal Appavu for their indisposible guidance and mentorship through the completion of the research. In addition, I wanted to thank Dr. Rajagopal for providing such illustrative lessons and assistance during the research process as well as providing influential contacts for the creation of the viscometer. On that note I would like to thank Bob van work for his assistance in the generation of the physical outline of the viscometer. Lastly, I want to thank my friends and family for their outstanding motivation and support, especially my mother who gave her unwavering support during the entire process.

References

1. Hansson GK. Inflammation, atherosclerosis, and coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med*. 2005;352(16):1685–1695.
2. Libby P. Inflammation in atherosclerosis. *Nature*. 2002;420(6917):868–874.
3. Malek AM, Alper SL, Izumo S. Hemodynamic shear stress and its role in atherosclerosis. *JAMA*. 1999;282(21):2035–2042. doi:10.1001/jama.282.21.2035
4. Ridker PM, Rifai N, Rose L, Buring JE, Cook NR. Comparison of C-reactive protein and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels in the prediction of first cardiovascular events. *N Engl J Med*. 2002;347(20):1557–1565.
5. Tsimikas S. Biomarkers of inflammation and atherosclerosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2017;70(8):1060–1073.
6. Wilson A, Quemada D. Blood rheology: Clinical implications in cardiovascular disease. *Clin Hemorheol Microcirc*. 2020;75(3):237–253.
7. Xu J, Nie SP. T-cell activation and plaque vulnerability in coronary artery disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2021;77(6):735–747.
8. Zhang Y, Li X, Chen J, Huang S. High blood viscosity and risk of plaque rupture in coronary artery disease. *J Am Heart Assoc*. 2022;11(4):e023887.
9. Chaudhary R. PCSK9 inhibitors: A new era of lipid-lowering therapy. *World J Cardiol*. 2017;9(2):76–91.
10. Falk E. Pathogenesis of atherosclerosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;47(8 Suppl):C7–C12.
11. Hevonoja T, Pentikäinen MT, Hyvönen M, Kovanen PT, Ala-Korpela M. Structure of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) particles: Basis for understanding molecular changes in modified LDL. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2000;1488(3):189–210.
12. Kampoli AM, Chatzizisis YS, Perrea D, Toutouzas PK. Biomarkers of premature atherosclerosis. *Atherosclerosis*. 2009;206(2):321–328.
13. Kontush A, Chapman MJ. Structure of HDL: Implications for reverse cholesterol transport and beyond. *Circ Res*. 2014;114(1):24–35.
14. Lanktree MB, Guergachi A, Hegele RA. Genetic testing for atherosclerosis risk: Inevitability or pipe dream? *Curr Atheroscler Rep*. 2008;10(3):204–213.
15. Mariani L, Zivelonghi C, Scuzzarella R, Boveri S, Castiglioni B, Doronzo G, et al. Coronary plaque rupture in stable coronary artery disease vs non-ST elevation myocardial infarction: Comparison of morphology and local inflammatory activity by frequency-domain optical coherence tomography (FD-OCT). [Journal Title]. 2021.
16. Minelli S, Minelli P, Montinari MR. Reflections on atherosclerosis: Lessons from the past and future research directions. *J Multidiscip Healthc*. 2020;13:[pages not available].
17. Rafieian-Kopaei M, Setorki M, Douadi M, Baradaran A, Nasri H. Atherosclerosis: Process, indicators, risk factors and new hopes. *Int J Prev Med*. 2014;5(8):927–946.
18. Ridker PM. C-reactive protein: Eighty years from discovery to emergence as a major risk marker for cardiovascular disease. *Clin Chem*. 2009;55(2):209–215.
19. Shah SN. Atherosclerosis — overview. In: *eMedicine*. 2023 Jul 20.
20. Thompson RC, Allam AH, Bogachkov Y, Kavanaugh SM, et al. Atherosclerosis across 3800 years of human history: The HORUS study of four ancient populations. *ACC.org*. 2013 Aug 23.
21. Venugopal SK, Anoruo MD, Jialal I. Biochemistry, low density lipoprotein. In: *StatPearls* [Internet]. 2023 Apr 17.
22. Veljkovic N, Zaric B, Djuric I, Obradovic M, Sudar-Milovanovic E, Radak D, Isenovic ER. Genetic markers for coronary artery disease. *Medicina (Kaunas)*. 2018;54(3):36.
23. Cleveland Clinic. Atherosclerosis: Symptoms, causes & treatment. *MyClevelandClinic*. 2024 Feb 15.

24. Hopkins P. N. (2013). Molecular biology of atherosclerosis. *Physiological reviews*, 93(3), 1317–1542.
25. Tasouli-Drakou, V. (2025, February 6). Atherosclerosis: A Comprehensive Review of Molecular Factors and Mechanisms. PubMed. Retrieved February 16, 2026.
26. Jebari, S., & Grant, M. S. (2022, March 19). *Pathophysiology of Atherosclerosis*. MDPI. Retrieved February 16, 2026,
27. Zhu, B. (2026, January 07). *Molecular Mechanisms Underlying Atherosclerosis and Current Advances in Targeted Therapeutics*. MDPI. Retrieved February 16, 2026.
28. Perrotta I. (2022). Atherosclerosis: From Molecular Biology to Therapeutic Perspective. *International journal of molecular sciences*, 23(7), 3444.
29. Libby, P. (2024). Inflammation and the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis. *Vascular Pharmacology*, 154, 107255.
30. Montarello, N. J., Nguyen, M. T., Wong, D. T. L., Nicholls, S. J., & Psaltis, P. J. (2022). Inflammation in coronary atherosclerosis and its therapeutic implications. *Cardiovascular Drugs and Therapy*, 36(2), 347–362.
31. Ley, K. (2021). Inflammation and atherosclerosis. *Cells*, 10(5), 1197.
32. Waksman, R., Merdler, I., Case, B. C., Waksman, O., & Porto, I. (2024). Targeting inflammation in atherosclerosis: Overview, strategy and directions. *EuroIntervention*, 20(1), 32–44.
33. Lampsas, S., Xenou, M., Oikonomou, E., Pantelidis, P., Lysandrou, A., Sarantos, S., Goliopoulou, A., Kalogeras, K., Tsigkou, V., Kalpis, A., Paschou, S. A., Theofilis, P., Vavuranakis, M., Tousoulis, D., & Siasos, G. (2023). Lipoprotein(a) in atherosclerotic diseases: From pathophysiology to diagnosis and treatment. *Molecules*, 28(3), 969.
34. Tasouli-Drakou, V., Ogurek, I., Shaikh, T., Ringor, M., DiCaro, M. V., & Lei, K. (2025). Atherosclerosis: A comprehensive review of molecular factors and mechanisms. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 26(3), 1364.
35. Frostegård, J. (2024). Inflammation in atherosclerosis: Pathophysiology and mechanisms. *Nature Reviews Cardiology*.
36. Ooi, E. M., et al. (2023). HDL function and atherosclerosis: Reactive dicarbonyls as therapeutic targets. *Atherosclerosis*.
37. Liao, M., et al. (2023). Inflammatory pathways and immune responses in atherosclerosis. *Frontiers in Cardiovascular Medicine*.
38. Bentzon, J. F., et al. (2021). Mechanisms of plaque instability in atherosclerosis. *Journal of Clinical Medicine*.
39. Tsimikas, S., & Hall, J. L. (2024). Lipoprotein-associated biomarkers and cardiovascular risk prediction. *Frontiers in Cardiovascular Medicine*.

About the Student:

Ahroosh Vydyula is a sophomore at Carrollwood Day School. His research interests include biology, chemistry, and the study of cardiovascular disease.

About the Mentor:

Prof. Rajagopal Appavu is a dedicated mentor at Research Rising Stars, guiding students in STEM, biomedical research, artificial intelligence, scientific writing, and publication.

Peer-Review Decision: Unanimously Approved	
Reviewer 1:	✔ Approved
Reviewer 2:	✔ Approved
Reviewer 3:	✔ Approved
Final Status: Approved by all three peer reviewers.	