

JACC FOCUS SEMINAR: FUTURES OF CARDIOLOGY

JACC REVIEW TOPIC OF THE WEEK

Clinician's Guide to Reducing Inflammation to Reduce Atherothrombotic Risk

JACC Review Topic of the Week

Paul M Ridker, MD, MPH



ABSTRACT

Life-threatening cardiovascular events occur despite control of conventional risk factors. Inflammation, as measured by high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP) concentration, is associated with future vascular events in both primary and secondary prevention, independent of usual risk markers. Statins are powerful lipid-lowering agents with clinically relevant anti-inflammatory effects. Recent data support targeting the interleukin (IL)-1-to-IL-6-to-CRP signaling pathway as an adjunctive method for atheroprotection. The CANTOS (Canakinumab Anti-inflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study) trial showed that reducing inflammation through IL-1 β inhibition significantly reduced vascular risk, beyond that achievable with lipid lowering. CANTOS further demonstrated a 31% reduction in cardiovascular mortality and all-cause mortality among patients treated with canakinumab who achieved the largest reductions in hsCRP, as well as efficacy in high-risk patients with chronic kidney disease and diabetes. This review outlines the clinical implications of CANTOS for patients with "residual inflammatory risk," the potential benefits and risks associated with anti-inflammatory therapy, and the importance of CANTOS for future drug development. (J Am Coll Cardiol 2018;72:3320-31)

© 2018 by the American College of Cardiology Foundation.

Smoking cessation, exercise, dietary discretion, blood pressure control, and aggressive reduction of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDLC) are critical interventions in preventive cardiology; yet many patients experience life-threatening first and recurrent cardiovascular events despite control of conventional risk factors. Epidemiologic data from the mid 1990s indicated that inflammation, as measured either by high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (hsCRP) or interleukin (IL)-6, was strongly associated with future vascular events in both primary and secondary prevention, independent of usual risk markers (1-4). Immediately thereafter, statins were proven to be powerful lipid-lowering agents with clinically relevant anti-inflammatory effects (5,6).

Modern vascular biology now posits that both the innate and adaptive immune systems contribute importantly to the development and progression of atherothrombosis, along with lipid accumulation within plaque. Together, these findings implicate the IL-1-to-IL-6-to-CRP signaling pathway as at least 1 major target for vascular protection (7-9). The recent 10,000-patient CANTOS (Canakinumab Anti-inflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study) provides proof-of-principle in humans that reducing inflammation through IL-1 β inhibition reduces vascular risk in the absence of any lipid-lowering effects (10). CANTOS has further demonstrated large and statistically significant reductions in cardiovascular and all-cause mortality among patients treated



Listen to this manuscript's audio summary by Editor-in-Chief Dr. Valentin Fuster on JACC.org.

From the Center for Cardiovascular Disease Prevention, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Boston, Massachusetts. Dr. Ridker has received research support for CANTOS from Novartis; has consulted for Novartis, Pfizer, Inflazome, and Corvidia; and holds patents assigned to Brigham and Women's Hospital, licensed to AstraZeneca and Siemens.

Manuscript received May 10, 2018; revised manuscript received June 22, 2018; accepted June 25, 2018.

ISSN 0735-1097/\$36.00

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jacc.2018.06.082>

with canakinumab who achieved the largest reductions in IL-6 or hsCRP, as well as efficacy in high-risk groups such as those with chronic kidney disease and diabetes.

This review describes the clinical implications of CANTOS for patients with “residual inflammatory risk,” the potential benefits and risks associated with canakinumab, and the implications of CANTOS for the development of new anti-inflammatory agents which may serve as adjuncts to lipid-lowering therapy.

RESIDUAL RISK: WHY MEASURE BOTH LDLC AND hsCRP IN PATIENTS WITH KNOWN ATHEROSCLEROSIS?

In primary prevention, evaluation of the inflammatory biomarker hsCRP adds prognostic information to conventional measurements of cardiovascular risk with a magnitude of effect comparable to that of LDL or high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL) (Figure 1A) (11,12). Initial observations from the Physicians Health Study in 1997 (3) and the Women's Health Study in 2000 (13) indicated that hsCRP independently predicted future heart attacks, stroke, and cardiovascular death among apparently healthy individuals, data extending the observations made in unstable angina (2,4). These data have since been confirmed in >30 prospective epidemiologic cohorts worldwide. Current prevention guidelines suggest that use of hsCRP is most appropriate when clinical decisions to initiate statin therapy are uncertain (14). This recommendation is based largely on data from the 2008 JUPITER (Justification for the Use of statins in Primary prevention: an Intervention Trial Evaluating Rosuvastatin) trial in which 20 g of rosuvastatin daily, compared to placebo, was found to reduce the rate of first myocardial infarction, stroke, or cardiovascular death by 47% when administered to patients with LDLC <130 mg/dl and hsCRP >2 mg/l (hazard ratio [HR]: 0.53; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 0.40 to 0.69; $p < 0.00001$) (15). Comparable data demonstrating the clinical relevance of reduced hsCRP after lipid lowering have been presented from the PROVE-IT (Pravastatin or Atorvastatin Evaluation and Infection Therapy), A to Z (Aggrastat to Zocor), REVERSAL (Reversal of Atherosclerosis with Aggressive Lipid Lowering), and IMPROVE-IT (Improved Reduction of Outcomes: Vytorin Efficacy International Trial) trials (16-19). Many preventive cardiologists additionally screen for hsCRP in primary prevention as a method of conveying risk and encouraging lifestyle changes related to diet, exercise, and smoking cessation (20,21). Contrary to common misperceptions, hsCRP levels are stable over time as long as they are not

measured during acute infection. Among 8,901 patients followed over 4 years, variability and tracking results of hsCRP levels over time were virtually identical to those of LDLC and superior to those of blood pressure (22) (Figures 1B and 1C).

As also demonstrated in multiple cohorts, hsCRP predicts recurrent vascular events with at least as much fidelity as first events. hsCRP provides clinically relevant prognostic information for those with acute coronary ischemia, stable atherosclerosis, in the immediate post-angioplasty setting, following coronary artery bypass surgery, and in the setting of renal failure where LDLC no longer has predictive utility (23-26). Despite this evidence, screening for inflammation in secondary prevention has remained infrequent. This conservative approach partially reflects the fact that, at least until recently, no data were available proving that reducing hsCRP in the absence of lipid lowering would reduce rates of recurrent cardiovascular events.

This situation fundamentally changed with publication of the CANTOS trial (10). This multinational trial has proven that inflammation reduction in humans, at least by targeting IL-1 β , significantly reduces vascular event rates in proportion to the magnitude of hsCRP reduction achieved and in the absence of any effects on atherogenic lipids. It is, thus, no longer appropriate to use the term “residual risk” to describe the high rate of recurrent cardiovascular events among those who experienced prior myocardial infarction. Rather, to provide best care, clinicians must now distinguish between patients with “residual cholesterol risk” and those with “residual inflammatory risk” (27).

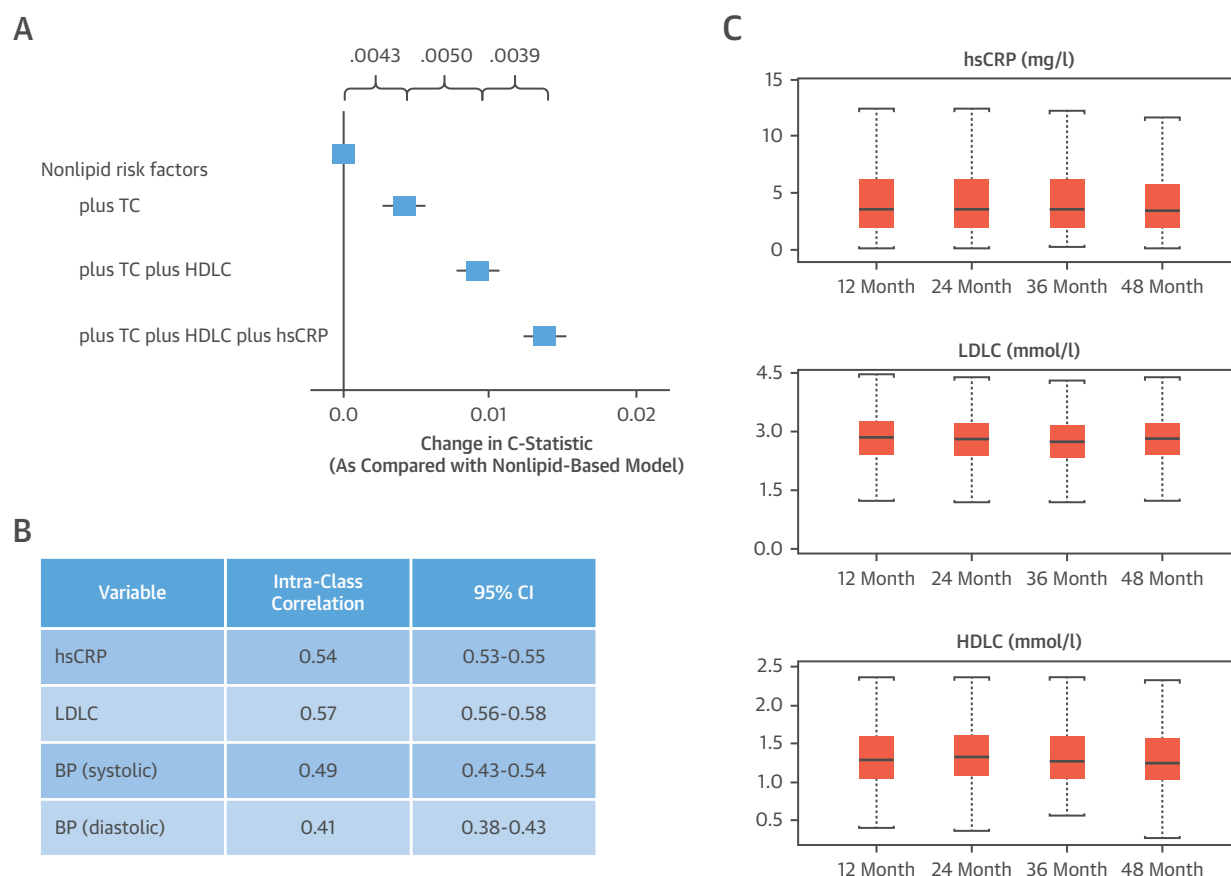
In the first instance of “residual cholesterol risk” (such as when LDLC remains >100 mg/dl despite aggressive statin therapy), trial evidence indicates that ezetimibe and PCSK9 inhibitors can further lower vascular event rates by 6% to 15%, respectively (28-30); yet, the LDLC-lowering effects of PCSK9 inhibition vary widely for individual patients. Thus, one strategy for clinicians to consider for “residual cholesterol risk” is to give a short course of PCSK9 inhibition and then continue long-term treatment only among those who achieved large additional reductions in LDLC. This is a thoughtful approach, as the utility of PCSK9 inhibition among those with only a small adjunctive LDLC response is unlikely to justify costs.

In the second instance, “residual inflammatory risk,” for example, when LDLC is already near 70 mg/dl after statin therapy, attention should turn to

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

HDLC = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol
hsCRP = high-sensitivity C-reactive protein
IL = interleukin
LDLC = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol
NLRP3 = NOD-like pyrin-containing 3 inflammasome
PCSK9 = proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9

FIGURE 1 Clinical Utility of Risk Prediction and Stability Over Time of hsCRP Are Virtually Identical to Those of LDLC



(A) The change in C-statistic for risk prediction models incrementally including hsCRP is virtually identical to that of models incrementally including total and HDLC. Data from Kaptoge et al. (11). **(B, C)** Intraclass correlations and stability tracking over time in 8,901 patients with repeated measurements of hsCRP, LDLC, HDLC, and BP over a 4-year period. Data from Glynn et al. (22). BP = blood pressure; HDLC = high-density lipoprotein cholesterol; hsCRP = high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; LDLC = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; TC = total cholesterol.

inflammation rather than hyperlipidemia as a potential biological process driving recurrent events. For patients with “residual inflammatory risk,” defined as an hsCRP concentration remaining >2 mg/l despite aggressive LDLC lowering, recurrent event rates are high. Although it is often under-diagnosed by clinicians who do evaluate hsCRP in secondary prevention, high-risk patients with “residual inflammatory risk” are common; in the PROVE IT and IMPROVE-IT trials, one-third of all patients had post-statin hsCRP levels >2 mg/l, despite achieving LDLC concentrations <70 mg/dl (31) (Central Illustration panel A). As described below, a clinical strategy in which potentially eligible patients receive a single test dose of canakinumab to ascertain whether they achieve a robust reduction in hsCRP may, in a manner analogous

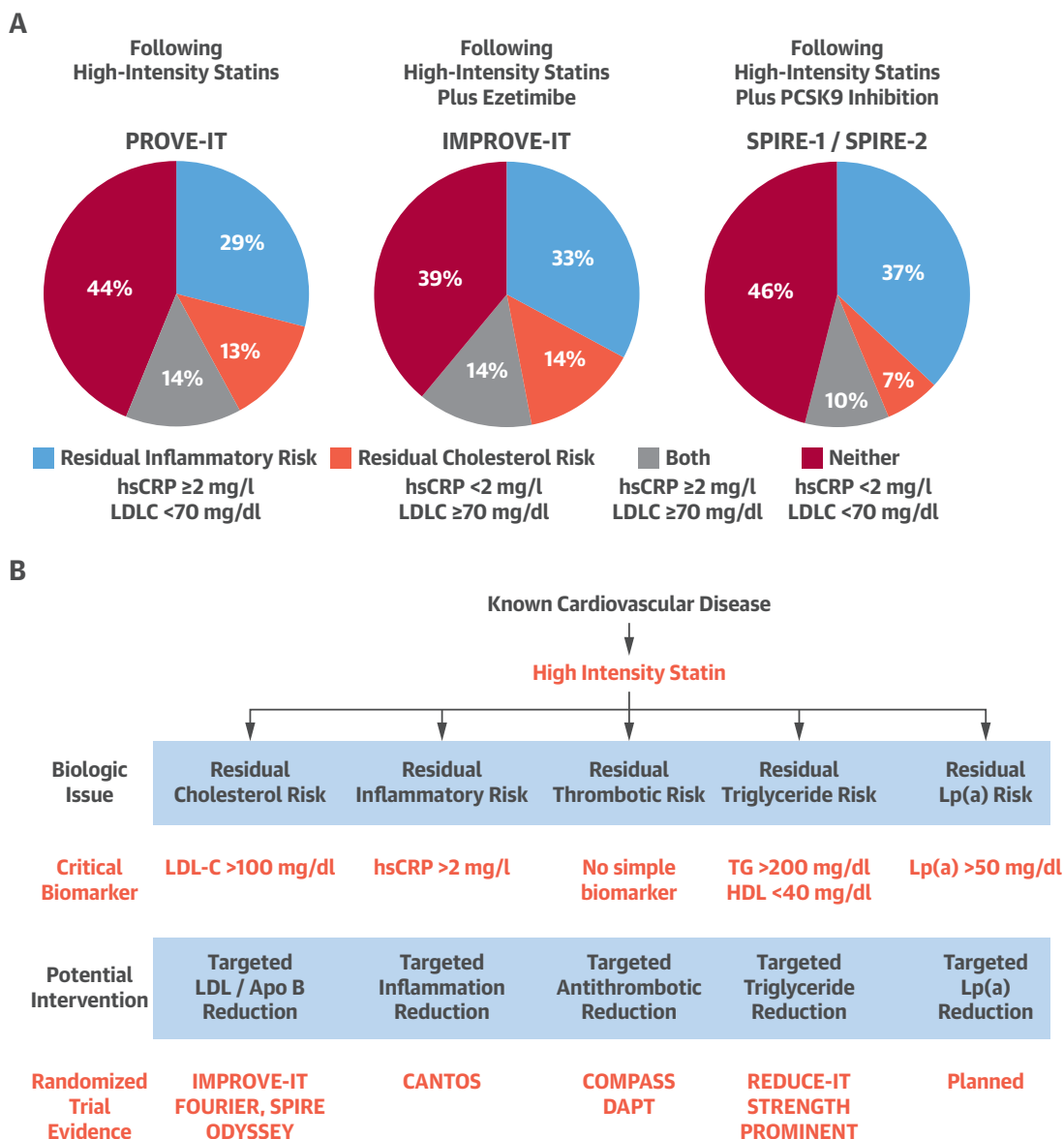
to LDLC lowering, provide a thoughtful clinical approach to long-term inflammation inhibition.

Very recent data indicate that “residual inflammatory risk” remains even among those treated with both high-intensity statins and PCSK9 inhibitors; in both the FOURIER (Further Cardiovascular Outcomes Research With PCSK9 Inhibition in Patients With Elevated Risk) and the SPIRE trials, hsCRP remained a common and strong predictor of future cardiovascular risk, despite LDLC levels as low as 20 to 30 mg/dl (32,33) (Central Illustration panel A, Figure 2).

WHY TARGET IL-1 β RATHER THAN CRP?

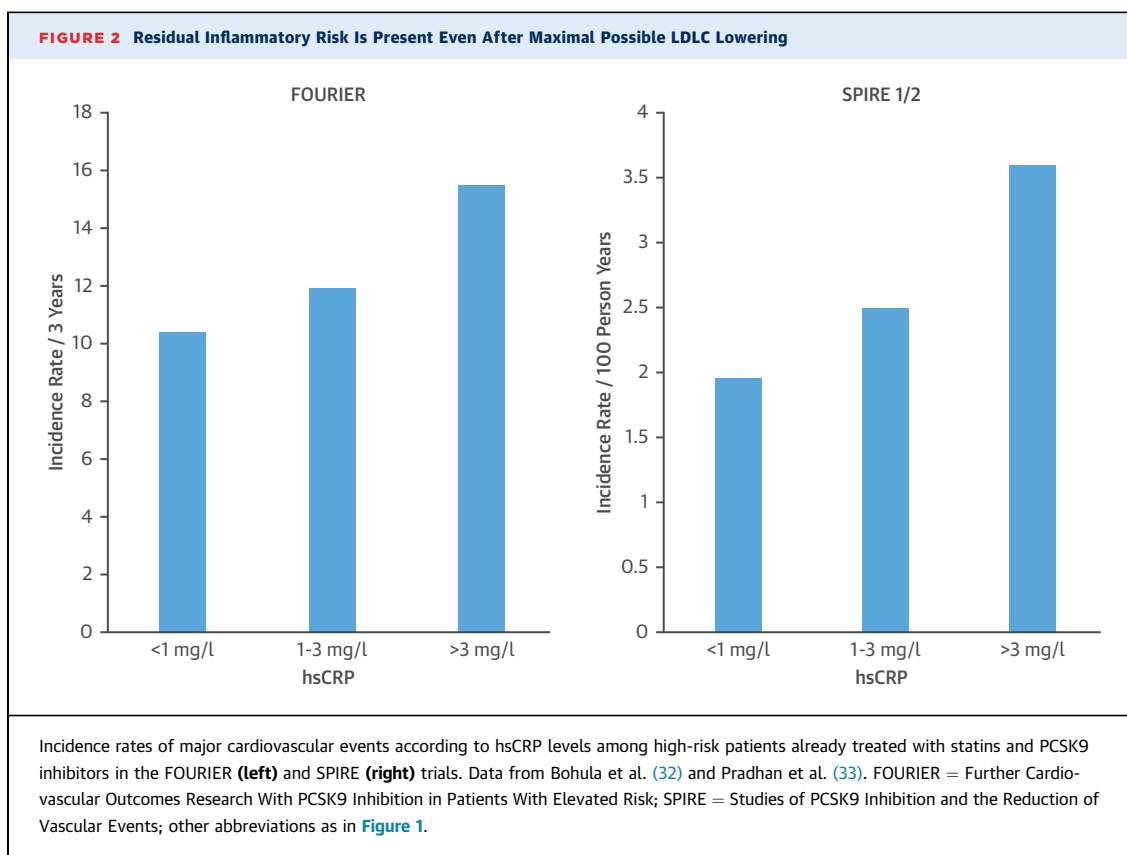
CRP, a pentraxin derived hepatically, is a useful downstream clinical biomarker that integrates innate

CENTRAL ILLUSTRATION Residual Risk and a Movement Toward Personalized Medicine



Ridker, P.M. J Am Coll Cardiol. 2018;72(25):3320-31.

(A) Atherosclerosis patients with "residual inflammatory risk" are more common than patients with "residual cholesterol risk." Plots show proportions of patients with hsCRP > or =2 mg/l and/or LDLC >70 mg/dl or <70 mg/dl after treatment with statins (**left**), statins plus ezetimibe (**center**), or statins plus PCSK9 inhibition (**right**). Data from Ridker (31) and Pradhan et al. (33). **(B)** Redefining residual risk: moving towards personalized medicine for cardiovascular therapeutics. Following initiation of statin therapy, patients remain at high residual risk for recurrent cardiovascular events for different underlying pathophysiologic reasons, including "residual cholesterol risk," "residual inflammatory risk," "residual thrombotic risk," "residual triglyceride risk," and "residual Lp(a) risk," as examples. Relevant biomarkers to identify patient groups are provided as are completed, ongoing, or planned outcome trials for each group. CANTOS = Canakinumab Anti-inflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study; COMPASS = Cardiovascular Outcomes for People Using Anticoagulation; DAPT = Dual Antiplatelet Therapy; FOURIER = Further Cardiovascular Outcomes Research With PCSK9 Inhibition in Patients With Elevated Risk; hsCRP = high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; IMPROVE-IT = Improved Reduction of Outcomes: Vytarin Efficacy International Trial; LDLC = low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; Lp(a) = lipoprotein(a); ODYSSEY = ODYSSEY Outcomes: Evaluation of Cardiovascular Outcomes After an Acute Coronary Syndrome During Treatment with Alirocumab; PROMINENT = Pemefibrate to Reduce Cardiovascular Outcomes by Reducing Triglycerides in Patients with Diabetes; PROVE-IT = Pravastatin or Atorvastatin Evaluation and Infection Therapy; REDUCE-IT = Reduction of Cardiovascular Events with EPA - Intervention Trial; SPIRE = Studies of PCSK9 Inhibition and the Reduction of Vascular Events; STRENGTH = Outcomes Study to Assess Statin Residual Risk Reduction with EpaNova in High CV Risk Patients with Hypertriglyceridemia.



immune function. However, CRP itself is unlikely to be an active participant in atherothrombosis (34-37). By contrast, experimental data and human genetic studies strongly suggest that the upstream cytokines IL-1 and IL-6 are likely to play causal roles in atherothrombosis (8,9).

IL-1 was first cloned in 1984 in pioneering work related to fever (38). Two genetically encoded proteins, IL-1 α and IL-1 β , both bind to the IL-1 receptor. Of these, IL-1 β is the dominant circulating form of IL-1 and is among the most powerful inducers of innate immunity (39). IL-1 β is produced from pro-IL-1 β through caspase cleavage and activation in the NLRP3 inflammasome, a group of intracellular proteins critical for pattern recognition in innate immunity (40). The NLRP3 inflammasome in turn is activated by several physiological processes including contact with crystalline structures, the most prominent of which for atherosclerosis is crystalline cholesterol (41). As recently reviewed, IL-1 β plays multiple roles in atherogenesis, plaque growth, and subsequent rupture (8). IL-1 also induces IL-6 which in turn has additional direct vascular effects including leukocyte adhesion to endothelial cells, reduced smooth muscle proliferation, and production of collagenases (42). Furthermore, polymorphisms in the IL-6 signaling

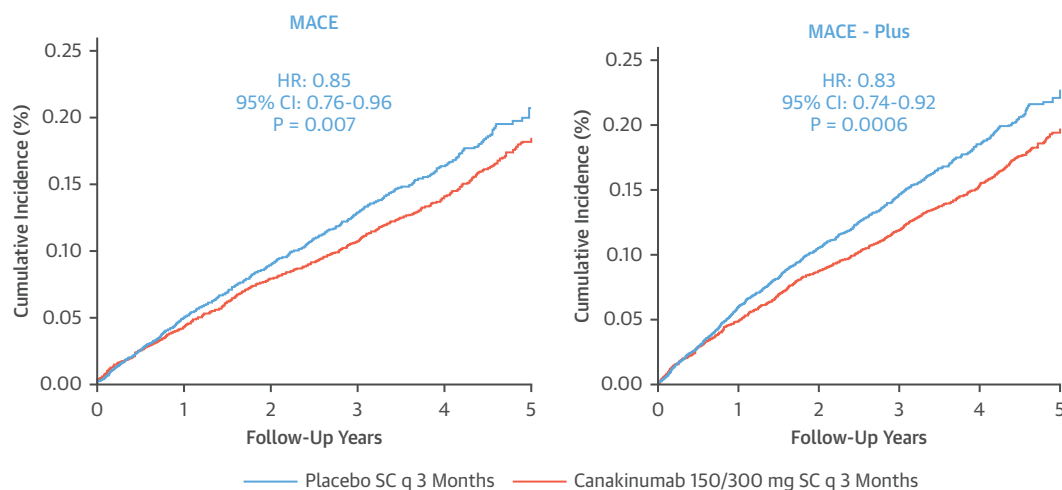
pathway are associated in Mendelian randomization studies with reduced lifelong vascular event rates and reduced levels of hsCRP (43,44).

Several agents that inhibit IL-1 are currently in use to treat rare inherited periodic fever syndromes and certain refractory arthritis cases. These agents include anakinra (an IL-1 receptor antagonist that blocks both IL-1 α and IL-1 β), rilonacept (an IL-1 trap that additionally inhibits the IL-1 receptor), and the monoclonal antibodies gevokizumab and canakinumab, which are highly specific for IL-1 β . The latter of these two therapeutic monoclonal antibodies, canakinumab is currently approved by the U.S. Food and Drug Administration for cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes and systemic juvenile idiopathic arthritis (45).

WHO WAS STUDIED IN CANTOS?

CANTOS randomized 10,061 stable post-myocardial infarction patients who had hsCRP levels ≥ 2 mg/l despite aggressive use of statins, anti-platelet agents, and renin-angiotensin inhibitors (10). Two-thirds of CANTOS participants had previously undergone coronary revascularization; 54% of the qualifying myocardial infarction events were ST-segment

FIGURE 3 Reducing Inflammation to Reduce Cardiovascular Risk: CANTOS Trial Findings



Cumulative incidence of MACE (e.g., myocardial infarction, stroke, or cardiovascular death) (left) or MACE-Plus (e.g., myocardial infarction, stroke, hospitalization for unstable angina requiring urgent revascularization, or cardiovascular death) (right) in the CANTOS trial. Data are shown for the placebo and groups receiving 150 mg and 300 mg (SC every 3 months) of canakinumab. These dosage of canakinumab resulted in 35% to 40% reductions in hsCRP and IL-6 with no effect on LDLC. CANTOS = Canakinumab Anti-inflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study; IL = interleukin; MACE = major adverse cardiac event(s); SC = subcutaneous; other abbreviations as in Figure 1.

elevation myocardial infarctions, 34% were non-ST-segment elevation myocardial infarctions, and 12% were of unknown type. The mean age in CANTOS was 61 years old, 26% were women, 24% were current smokers, and 40% had diabetes. All of these characteristics are common in a high-risk atherosclerosis population.

What distinguished CANTOS from other contemporary trials was screening for **hsCRP** to ensure that all participants were at risk at least in part due to a **persistent pro-inflammatory response**. Due to this screening process, the median entry hsCRP in CANTOS was 4.2 mg/l, a value above the 85th percentile of the normal distribution. By contrast, the median LDLC level in CANTOS was only 82 mg/dl, lower than that in any of the major PCSK9 trials. The CANTOS trial was thus unique in that it focused specifically on atherosclerosis patients with “residual inflammatory risk” rather than “residual cholesterol risk.”

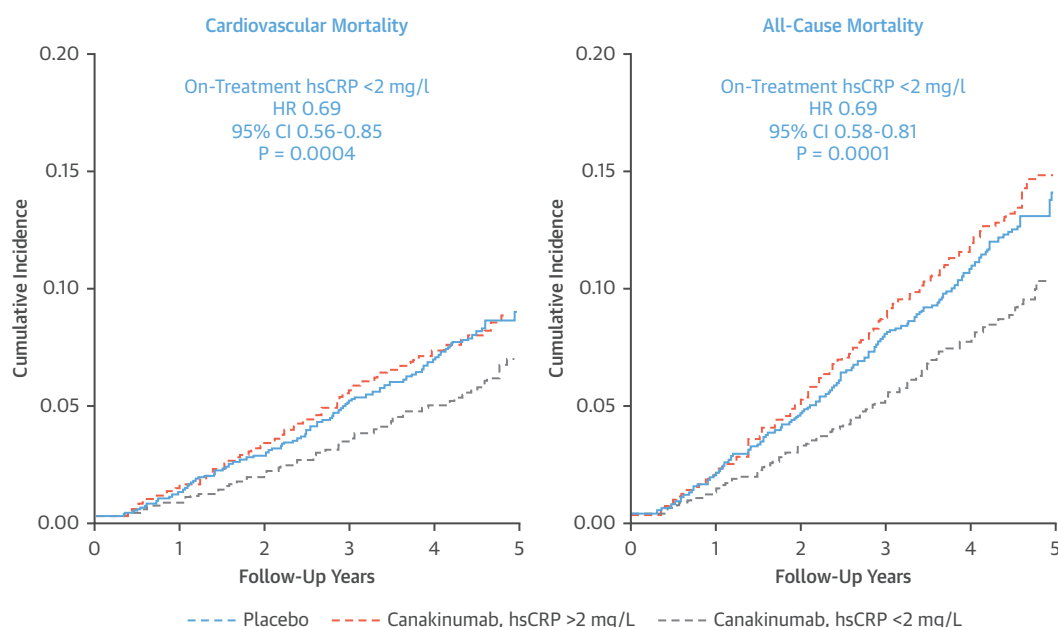
WHAT DID CANTOS SHOW?

CANTOS randomly allocated eligible participants to placebo or canakinumab at 1 of 3 doses (50, 150, or 300 mg) administered subcutaneously once every 3 months. As shown in the CANTOS pilot study, canakinumab is a fully human monoclonal antibody

targeting IL-1 β , which in turn will lower IL-6 and hsCRP but has no effect on LDLC (46). CANTOS patients were followed for incident major cardiovascular events, cancer, adverse events, and mortality over a 5-year period (median: 3.7 years). The trial was conducted in 39 countries. Of the >10,000 patients randomized, <30 were lost to follow-up.

An underappreciated but clinically important finding in CANTOS was that placebo event rates were high despite aggressive contemporary care. This demonstrates that **“residual inflammatory risk” patients are a unique group with a substantially unmet clinical need.**

The primary finding from CANTOS was of a statistically **significant 15% reduction in nonfatal myocardial infarction, nonfatal stroke, and cardiovascular death** (major adverse cardiovascular events [MACE]) and a 17% reduction in this endpoint plus the addition of unstable angina requiring urgent coronary revascularization (MACE+), among those **allocated** to 150 mg of **canakinumab** administered subcutaneously (SC) **once every 3 months**. Virtually identical effect estimates were observed at the 300-mg dose level (Figure 3). By contrast, the 50-mg dose of canakinumab was associated with a nonsignificant reduction in risk of 7%. This suggestion of dose-dependency is of interest because it closely parallels the magnitude of hsCRP and IL-6 reduction achieved, which was

FIGURE 4 Lower is Better for Inflammation Reduction: CANTOS Trial On-Treatment Findings

Greater risk reductions were seen in CANTOS with greater hsCRP reduction, including 31% relative risk reductions in cardiovascular mortality (**left**) and all-cause mortality (**right**) for those treated with placebo or canakinumab who achieved hsCRP levels <2 mg/l after initiation of drug therapy. Adapted with permission from Ridker (97). Abbreviations as in Figure 1.

between 35% and 40% at the 2 higher doses but only 25% at the lowest dose.

The relative risk reductions observed in CANTOS, which are virtually identical to those observed in the major PCSK9 trials, were achieved with no change in LDLC. Effects of canakinumab on risk were consistent across all pre-specified subgroups; it must be remembered, however, that all CANTOS participants had elevated levels of hsCRP at study entry.

One of the most intriguing cardiovascular aspects of CANTOS was the observation that **coronary revascularization**, an endpoint reflective of plaque progression and development of angina, was **reduced by 30% with canakinumab** ($p < 0.001$). This benefit of canakinumab was observed at all canakinumab doses.

Recent CANTOS analyses have affirmed the ability of **canakinumab** to **reduce cardiovascular events** among those with **diabetes** (47) and those with **stage 3 kidney disease** (baseline estimated glomerular filtration rate of **30 to 60 ml/min/1.73 m²**) (48). The latter data in moderate chronic kidney disease are **important** because **few if any nonhemodynamic agents have demonstrated cardiovascular efficacy** in this group. It is, thus, hoped that a trial of IL-1 or IL-6 inhibitors for cardiovascular protection in **stage 4**

renal failure (baseline estimated glomerular filtration rate of **15 to 30 ml/min/1.73 m²**) can soon commence.

WHY IS MEASUREMENT OF ON-TREATMENT hsCRP IMPORTANT?

Clinicians routinely measure on-treatment levels of blood pressure and on-treatment levels of LDLC as a method to monitor therapies for hypertension and hyperlipidemia. This practice has a firm biological basis as the efficacy of treatment in each case tracks with the magnitude of blood pressure and lipid reduction, respectively.

In parallel fashion, pre-specified analyses of CANTOS demonstrated that the benefits of inflammation reduction tracked directly with the magnitude of hsCRP lowering achieved, at least with canakinumab. Among CANTOS patients treated with canakinumab who **achieved hsCRP levels <2 mg/l after the first dose**, long-term rates of **major cardiovascular events were reduced by 26%**, whereas rates of both cardiovascular mortality and all-cause **mortality** were reduced by **31%** (all $p < 0.001$) (49). In contrast, risk reductions were smaller and no longer significant for these endpoints among those treated with canakinumab who did not achieve hsCRP levels <2 mg/l after

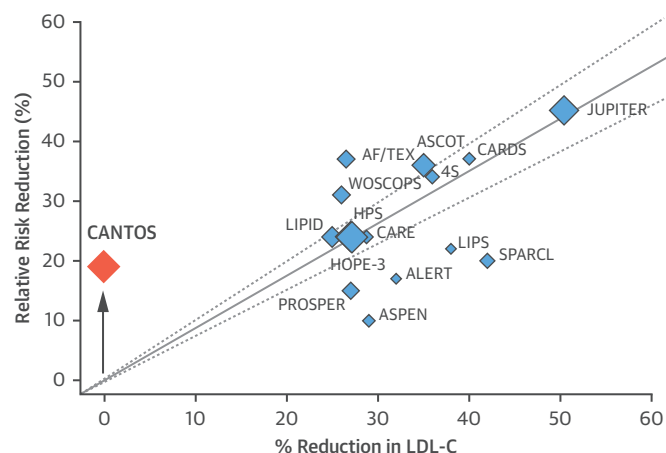
the initial dose (Figure 4). These differential effects according to biological response were robust to multivariate adjustment, were of similar magnitude using several alternative thresholds (including reductions in hsCRP of greater or lesser than 50%) and were virtually identical in causal inference analyses. All these sensitivity evaluations suggest that the physiological impact of canakinumab on hsCRP substantially outweighs residual confounding in these post-randomization analyses. The clinical strategy of sampling a single canakinumab dose in eligible patients and then treating on a long-term basis only those whose hsCRP is reduced by >50% or have on-treatment hsCRP levels <2 mg/l may provide a simple clinical method to predict long-term benefit; for example, the number needed to treat to prevent a major vascular event was 16 among “robust canakinumab responders” compared to 57 among “less robust responders.”

On-treatment levels of IL-6 was also a potent method within CANTOS to predict efficacy of canakinumab (50). Those data suggest that novel agents that directly reduced IL-6 might be of further benefit in high-risk atherosclerosis patients. The highly concordant data for on-treatment hsCRP and on-treatment IL-6 support the hypothesis that “lower is better” for inflammation in a manner analogous to that of LDLC. IL-6 levels, like hsCRP, predict future cardiovascular events and efficacy of therapy in both primary prevention, acute coronary ischemia, and secondary prevention (51-53). However, measurement of IL-6 is not clinically available. As such, clinicians are currently limited to using hsCRP for baseline screening (to determine the presence of “residual inflammatory risk”) and for on-treatment evaluation (to predict therapeutic efficacy).

WHAT WERE THE EFFECTS OF CANAKINUMAB ON INFECTION, CANCER, AND OTHER ADVERSE EVENTS? Compared to placebo, canakinumab allocation in CANTOS resulted in no significant adverse hepatic or renal effects. There were small dose-dependent reductions in platelet counts but no significant increase in bleeding. Injection site reactions were rare. Consistent with the role of IL-1 in multiple rheumatologic disorders, rates of incident arthritis, osteoarthritis, and gout were reduced by canakinumab (10).

Canakinumab was associated with mild leukopenia. The most important adverse effect of canakinumab was a small but statistically significant increase in fatal infection that occurred in approximately 1 in every 1,000 patients treated. Most of these events were due to common gram-positive organisms and were more prevalent in older diabetic patients (10).

FIGURE 5 Cardiovascular Event Reduction With No Change in LDLC: Additive Effects of Inflammation Inhibition to Lipid Lowering



Plot shows the relative risk reduction in cardiovascular events (y-axis) as a function of the percent of reduction in LDLC (x-axis) from completed placebo-controlled statin trials.

(Left) Relative risk reduction were observed in CANTOS, with 0% reduction in LDLC but large reductions in hsCRP and IL-6. Virtually all CANTOS participants were already taking maximal doses of statin therapy, demonstrating the additive effects of inflammation inhibition to aggressive lipid lowering. 4S = Scandinavian Simvastatin Survival Study; AF/TEX = Air Force/Texas Coronary Atherosclerosis Prevention Study; ALERT = Assessment of Lescol in Renal Transplantation; ASCOT = Anglo-Scandinavian Cardiac Outcomes Trial; ASPEN = Atorvastatin Study for Prevention of Coronary Heart Disease Endpoints; CARDS = Cardiac and Renal Disease Study; CARE = Cholesterol and Recurrent Events; HOPE = Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation; HPS = Heart Protection Study; JUPITER = Justification for Use of Statins in Prevention: an Intervention Trial Evaluating Rosuvastatin; LIPID = Long-term Intervention with Pravastatin in Ischaemic Disease; LIPS = Lescol Intervention Prevention Study; PROSPER = Pravastatin in Elderly Individuals at Risk of Vascular Disease; SPARCL = Stroke Prevention by Aggressive Reduction in Cholesterol Levels; WOSCOPS = West of Scotland Coronary Prevention Study; other abbreviations as in Figure 1.

Cardiologists considering the use of anti-inflammatory therapies, thus, need to ensure that patients who develop early signs or symptoms of infection receive early attention. There was no increase in opportunistic infections or reactivation of tuberculosis.

Rates of cancer mortality and incident lung cancer were significantly reduced with canakinumab. These beneficial effects were dose-dependent with relative hazard reductions of 67% ($p < 0.0001$) for total lung cancer and 77% ($p = 0.002$) for fatal lung cancer (54). New trials of canakinumab are being planned to evaluate whether these preventive effects on cancer can be exploited directly as adjunctive therapy in the treatment of certain tumors, particularly in non-small cell lung cancer. Evidence of reduced cancer incidence with canakinumab is consistent with experimental work indicating that cytokines such as IL-1 β are involved in the growth, progression, and metastasis of certain inflammatory tumors (55-59).

WHAT ARE FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR THE INFLAMMATION HYPOTHESIS OF ATHEROTHROMBOSIS?

Among patients with stable atherosclerosis, the CANTOS trial provides **proof that IL-1 β inhibition with canakinumab can reduce cardiovascular events** beyond that achievable with lipid lowering. Whether IL-1 α signaling is important for this process remains untested. Similarly, no current data address the utility of canakinumab during acute coronary ischemia (60). However, small studies with anakinra (an IL-1 receptor antagonist) and tocilizumab (a monoclonal antibody targeting IL-6) suggest potential benefits in this setting on remodeling and inflammatory biomarkers in the setting of heart failure and stroke (61-65).

Although CANTOS provided **mechanistic evidence that targeting the IL-1-to-IL-6 pathway of innate immunity has a role in atherosclerosis** treatment, it remains unknown whether inhibition of alternative inflammatory pathways will produce similar benefits. For example, the **IL-1 pathway is not directly affected by low-dose methotrexate** (which has been tested in the recently completed Cardiovascular Inflammation Reduction Trial) (66) or by **nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory agents** (agents which have **not shown cardiovascular efficacy**).

The NLRP3 inflammasome activates IL-1 β and promotes induction of IL-18 (40,41). It is thus not surprising that oral NLRP3 inhibitors are being considered as potential future therapies for both chronic and acute coronary ischemia (67-69). NLRP3 inhibition could also have theoretical benefits for nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and severe kidney disease (70,71). Preliminary data support a role for colchicine in atheroprotection, an interesting observation as colchicine also has some NLRP3-inhibiting effects (72). Formal randomized placebo-controlled trials of **colchicine** are ongoing. It is important to recognize that agents **targeting inflammation outside the IL-1-to-IL-6 pathway have failed to lower vascular event rates**. As examples, neutral data have been reported in large-scale trials of the MAP-kinase inhibitor losmapimod and of the LpPLA₂ inhibitor darapladib (73,74).

Whereas NLRP3 inhibition represents a step upstream from direct IL-1 inhibition, agents such as tocilizumab and sirukumab that inhibit IL-6 represent a potential downstream form of inhibition (75). IL-6 may also represent a new target for vascular therapy; data from CANTOS indicate that the **cardiovascular benefits of canakinumab relate directly to the magnitude of IL-6 reduction** achieved (50).

Vaccination strategies designed to activate anti-inflammatory components of the adaptive immune response remain under investigation (76,77). Recent work in mice suggests that agents such as erlotinib, an agent that selectively inhibits epidermal growth factor receptor, may limit experimental atherosclerosis (78). As such, although CANTOS has demonstrated the effectiveness of inhibiting 1 critical component of the innate immune system, work will continue to address adaptive immunity as well (79).

Finally, recent evidence suggests that clonal hematopoiesis, a normal effect of aging in which certain white blood cell lines mutationally come to dominate others, is also associated with increased cardiovascular risk (80,81). At least 1 mutation associated with this process in the *Tet2* gene, which leads to both clonal hematopoiesis and activation of IL-1 β inflammasomes in macrophages. *Tet2* in turn has been associated with accelerated atherosclerosis and heart failure in mouse models (82). Other data using parabiotic mouse models implicate IL-1 β as a critical mediator of immune changes linking atherosclerosis, bone marrow, and splenic function (83), effects that can be seen following acute coronary syndromes by fluorodeoxyglucose-labeled positron-emission tomography (84). Modest but nonsignificant effects of canakinumab on measurements of vascular structure or function have been reported in cardiac magnetic resonance imaging studies of the carotid arteries and aorta (85). All these observations provide mechanistic insight into the success of CANTOS.

REDEFINING RESIDUAL RISK: LESSONS FROM CANTOS AND PERSONALIZED MEDICINE

Diet, exercise, and smoking cessation reduce systemic inflammation and are associated with reduced cardiovascular event rates. These interventions, along with blood pressure and aggressive lipid lowering, remain critical for atherosclerosis prevention (**Central Illustration panel B**).

Moving beyond basic preventive efforts, multiple commentators have noted that, in addition to providing proof-of-principle for the inflammation hypothesis of atherothrombosis, CANTOS is likely to open multiple new directions for therapeutic targeting (8,60,86-96). As principle investigator of CANTOS, this author agrees with this sentiment but believes there are 2 further major lessons to be gleaned.

First, the inflammation hypothesis of atherothrombosis neither conflicts nor competes with the lipid hypothesis. The exceptional success of lipid lowering in cardiovascular disease is among the most

important success stories of preventive medicine over the past 40 years, and a **nearly linear relationship between LDLC reduction and cardiac risk has been repeatedly demonstrated.** In CANTOS, a secondary prevention trial conducted in 39 countries, baseline levels of LDLC were only 82 mg/dL, a testament to aggressive and widespread pharmacologic interventions for LDL lowering. However, CANTOS also reported, for the first time, clear event reduction in the absence of any lowering of LDLC. This observation opens considerable optimism for a disease that continues to rank at the very top in terms of global burden of disease (Figure 5).

Second, CANTOS should open a clinical dialog about **personalized medicine**, based on the underlying biology affecting individual patients. The use of biomarker-targeted trials, of which JUPITER (15) and CANTOS (10) are examples, represents a **break from the concept that all patients need all therapies**; yet, just as there is “residual cholesterol risk” and “residual inflammatory risk,” so too is there

“residual thrombotic risk,” “residual triglyceride risk,” and “residual lipoprotein(a) risk,” as well as fully unexplained disease. Each of these conditions has either a proven therapy or major trials underway or planned (Central Illustration panel B). From this perspective, the CANTOS trial also teaches that we must consider individual patients for specific therapies. The **concept that “one size fits all” is no longer viable** in the post-CANTOS and post-PCSK9 era. Rather, **through judicious use of biomarker screening, we are now able to begin the process of “providing the right drug to the right patient at the right time.”**

ADDRESS FOR CORRESPONDENCE: Dr. Paul M Ridker, Director, Center for Cardiovascular Disease Prevention, Brigham and Women’s Hospital, 900 Commonwealth Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02215. E-mail: pridker@partners.org. Twitter: [@BrighamWomens](https://twitter.com/BrighamWomens), [@BWHResearch](https://twitter.com/BWHResearch).

REFERENCES

- Ridker PM. A test in context: high-sensitivity C-reactive protein. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2016;67:712-23.
- Berk BC, Weintraub WS, Alexander RW. Elevation of C-reactive protein in “active” coronary artery disease. *Am J Cardiol* 1990;65:168-72.
- Ridker PM, Cushman M, Stampfer MJ, Tracy RP, Hennekens CH. Inflammation, aspirin, and the risk of cardiovascular disease in apparently healthy men. *N Engl J Med* 1997;336:973-9.
- Liuzzo G, Biasucci LM, Gallimore JR, et al. The prognostic value of C-reactive protein and serum amyloid A protein in severe unstable angina. *N Engl J Med* 1994;331:417-24.
- Ridker PM, Rifai N, Pfeffer MA, et al., for the Cholesterol and Recurrent Events (CARE) Investigators. Inflammation, pravastatin, and the risk of coronary events after myocardial infarction in patients with average cholesterol levels. *Circulation* 1998;98:839-44.
- Ridker PM, Rifai N, Clearfield M, et al., for the Airforce/Texas Coronary Atherosclerosis Prevention Study Investigators. Measurement of C-reactive protein for targeting statin therapy in the primary prevention of acute coronary events. *N Engl J Med* 2001;344:26:1959-65.
- Hansson GK. Inflammation, atherosclerosis, and coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352:1685-95.
- Libby P. Interleukin-1 beta as a target for atherosclerosis therapy. Biological basis of CANTOS and beyond. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2017;70:2278-89.
- Ridker PM. From C-reactive protein to interleukin-6 to interleukin-1: moving upstream to identify novel targets for atheroprotection. *Circ Res* 2016;118:145-56.
- Ridker PM, Everett B, Thuren T, et al. Anti-inflammatory therapy with canakinumab for atherosclerotic disease. *N Engl J Med* 2017;377:1119-31.
- Kaptoge S, Di Angelantonio E, Pennells L, et al. C-reactive protein, fibrinogen, and cardiovascular disease prediction. *N Engl J Med* 2012;367:1310-20.
- Kaptoge S, Seshasai SR, Gao P, et al. Inflammatory cytokines and risk of coronary heart disease: new prospective study and updated meta-analysis. *Eur Heart J* 2014;35:578-89.
- Ridker PM, Hennekens CH, Buring JE, Rifai N. C-reactive protein and other markers of inflammation in the prediction of cardiovascular disease in women. *N Engl J Med* 2000;342:836-43.
- Goff DC Jr., Lloyd-Jones DM, Bennett G, et al. 2013 ACC/AHA guideline on the assessment of cardiovascular risk: a report of the American College of Cardiology/American Heart Association Task Force on Practice Guidelines. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2014;63 Suppl B:2935-59.
- Ridker PM, Danielson E, Fonseca FA, et al. Rosuvastatin to prevent vascular events in men and women with elevated C-reactive protein. *N Engl J Med* 2008;359:2195-207.
- Nissen SE, Tuzcu EM, Schoenhagen P, et al. Statin therapy, LDL cholesterol, C-reactive protein, and coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352:29-38.
- Ridker PM, Cannon CP, Morrow D, et al. C-reactive protein levels and outcomes after statin therapy. *N Engl J Med* 2005;352:20-8.
- Morrow DA, de Lemos JA, Sabatine MS, et al. Clinical relevance of C-reactive protein during follow-up of patients with acute coronary syndromes in the Aggrastat-to-Zocor trial. *Circulation* 2006;114:281-8.
- Bohula EA, Giugliano RP, Cannon CP, et al. Achievement of dual low-density lipoprotein cholesterol and high-sensitivity C-reactive protein targets more frequent with the addition of Ezetimibe to Simvastatin and associated with better outcomes in IMPROVE-IT. *Circulation* 2015;132:1224-33.
- Martin SM, Johnson AE, Blumenthal RS. Use of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein for risk assessment. In: Ballantyne CM, editor. *Clinical Lipidology: A companion to Braunwald’s Heart Disease*. 2nd edition. Elsevier, 2015:135-45.
- Koenig W. High-sensitivity C-reactive protein and atherosclerotic disease: from improved risk prediction to risk-guided therapy. *Int J Cardiol* 2013;168:5126-34.
- Glynn RJ, MacFadyen JG, Ridker PM. Tracking of high-sensitivity C-reactive protein after an initially elevated concentration: the JUPITER study. *Clin Chem* 2009;55:305-12.
- Held C, White HD, Stewart RAH, et al. Inflammatory biomarkers, interleukin-6 and C-reactive protein and outcomes in stable coronary heart disease: experiences from the STABILITY (Stabilization of Atherosclerotic Plaque by Initiation of Darapladib Therapy) Trial. *J Am Heart Assoc* 2017; 6. pii: e005077.
- Lindahl B, Toss H, Siegbahn A, Venge P, Wallentin L. Markers of myocardial damage and inflammation in relation to long-term mortality in unstable coronary artery disease. FRISC Study

- Group. Fragmin during Instability in Coronary Artery Disease. *N Engl J Med* 2000;343:1139-47.
25. Braunwald E. Creating controversy where none exists: the important role of C-reactive protein in the CARE, AFCAPS/TexCAPS, PROVE IT, REVERSAL, A to Z, JUPITER, HEART PROTECTION, and ASCOT trials. *Eur Heart J* 2012;33:430-2.
 26. Yeun JY, Levine RA, Mantadilok V, Kaysen GA. C-reactive protein predicts all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in hemodialysis patients. *Am J Kidney Dis* 2000;35:469-76.
 27. Ridker PM. Residual inflammatory risk: addressing the obverse side of the atherosclerosis prevention coin. *Eur Heart J* 2016;37:1720-2.
 28. Cannon CP, Blazing MA, Giugliano RP, et al. Ezetimibe added to statin therapy after acute coronary syndromes. *N Engl J Med* 2015;372:2387-97.
 29. Sabatine MS, Giugliano RP, Keech AC, et al. Evolocumab and clinical outcomes in patients with cardiovascular disease. *N Engl J Med* 2017;376:1713-22.
 30. Ridker PM, Revkin J, Amarenco P, et al. Cardiovascular efficacy and safety of bococizumab in high-risk patients. *N Engl J Med* 2017;376:1527-39.
 31. Ridker PM. How common is residual inflammatory risk? *Circ res* 2017;120:617-9.
 32. Bohula EA, Giugliano RP, Leiter LA, et al. Inflammatory and cholesterol risk in the FOURIER trial (Further Cardiovascular Outcomes Research With PCSK9 Inhibition in Patients With Elevated Risk). *Circulation* 2018;137:131-40.
 33. Pradhan A, Aday AW, Rose LM, Ridker PM. Residual inflammatory risk on treatment with PCSK9 inhibition and statin therapy. *Circulation* 2018;137:141-9.
 34. Lane T, Wassef N, Poole S, Mistry Y, Lachmann HJ, Gillmore JD, Hawkins PN, Pepys MB. Infusion of pharmaceutical-grade natural human C-reactive protein is not pro-inflammatory in healthy adult human volunteers. *Circ Res* 2014;114:672-6.
 35. Noveck R, Stroes ES, Flaim JD, et al. Effects of an antisense oligonucleotide inhibitor of C-reactive protein synthesis on the endotoxin challenge response in healthy human male volunteers. *J Am Heart Assoc* 2014;3. pii: e001084.
 36. Elliott P, Chambers JC, Zhang W, et al. Genetic loci associated with C-reactive protein levels and risk of coronary heart disease. *JAMA* 2009;302:37-48.
 37. Zacho J, Tybjaerg-Hansen A, Jensen JS, Grande P, Sillensen H, Nordestgaard BG. Genetically elevated C-reactive protein and ischemic vascular disease. *N Engl J Med* 2008;359:1897-908.
 38. Dinarello CA. Demonstration of a human pyrogen-inducing factor during mixed leukocyte reactions. *J Exp Med* 1981;153:1215-24.
 39. Dinarello CA. Interleukin-1 in the pathogenesis and treatment of inflammatory diseases. *Blood* 2011;117:3720-32.
 40. Latz E, Xiao TS, Stutz A. Activation and regulation of the inflammasomes. *Nat Rev Immunol* 2013;13:397-411.
 41. Duweil P, Kono H, Rayner KJ, et al. NLRP3 inflammasomes are required for atherogenesis and activated by cholesterol crystals. *Nature* 2010;464:1357-61.
 42. Loppnow H, Libby P. Adult human vascular endothelial cells express the IL-6 gene differentially in response to LPS or IL-1. *Cell Immunol* 1989;122:493-503.
 43. Sarwar N, Butterworth AS, Freitag DF, et al. Interleukin-6 receptor pathways in coronary heart disease: a collaborative meta-analysis of 82 studies. *Lancet* 2012;379:1205-13.
 44. Swerdlow DI, Holmes MV, Kuchenbaecker KB, et al. The interleukin-6 receptor as a target for prevention of coronary heart disease: a mendelian randomisation analysis. *Lancet* 2012;379:1214-24.
 45. Van Tassell BW, Toldo S, Mezzaroma E, Abbate A. Targeting interleukin-1 in heart disease. *Circulation* 2013;128:1910-23.
 46. Ridker PM, Howard CP, Walter V, et al. Effects of interleukin-1beta inhibition with canakinumab on hemoglobin A1c, lipids, C-reactive protein, interleukin-6, and fibrinogen: a phase IIb randomized, placebo-controlled trial. *Circulation* 2012;126:2739-48.
 47. Everett BM, Donath MY, Pradhan A, et al. Anti-inflammatory therapy with canakinumab for the prevention and management of diabetes. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;71:2392-401.
 48. Ridker PM, MacFadyen JG, Glynn RJ, et al. Inhibition of interleukin-1 β by canakinumab and cardiovascular outcomes in patients with chronic kidney disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;71:2405-14.
 49. Ridker PM, MacFadyen JG, Everett BM, et al., for the CANTOS Trial Group. Relationship of C-reactive protein reduction to cardiovascular event reduction following treatment with canakinumab: a secondary analysis from the CANTOS randomized controlled trial. *Lancet* 2018;391:319-28.
 50. Ridker PM, Libby P, MacFadyen JG, et al., for the CANTOS Trial Group. Modulation of the interleukin-6 signalling pathway and incidence rates of atherosclerotic events and all-cause mortality: analyses from the Canakinumab Anti-inflammatory thrombosis Outcomes Study (CANTOS). *Eur Heart J* 2018;39:3499-507.
 51. Fanola CL, Morrow DA, Cannon CP, et al. Interleukin-6 and the risk of adverse outcomes in patients after an acute coronary syndrome: observations from the SOLID-TIMI 52 (Stabilization of Plaque Using Darapladib-Thrombolysis in Myocardial Infarction 52) trial. *J Am Heart Assoc* 2017;6. pii: e005637.
 52. Lindmark E, Diderholm E, Wallentin L, Siegbahn A. Relationship between interleukin 6 and mortality in patients with unstable coronary artery disease: effects of an early invasive or noninvasive strategy. *JAMA* 2001;286:2107-13.
 53. Ridker PM, Rifai N, Stampfer MJ, Hennekens CH. Plasma concentration of interleukin-6 and the risk of future myocardial infarction among apparently healthy men. *Circulation* 2000;101:1767-72.
 54. Ridker PM, MacFadyen JG, Thuren T, et al., on behalf of the CANTOS Trial Group. Effect of interleukin-1 β inhibition with canakinumab on incident lung cancer in patients with atherosclerosis: exploratory results from a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet* 2017;390:1833-42.
 55. Coussens LM, Werb Z. Inflammation and cancer. *Nature* 2002;420:860-7.
 56. Grivennikov SI, Greten FR, Karin M. Immunity, inflammation, and cancer. *Cell* 2010;140:883-99.
 57. Apte RN, Dotan S, Elkabets M, et al. The involvement of IL-1 in tumorigenesis, tumor invasiveness, metastasis and tumor-host interactions. *Cancer Metastasis Rev* 2006;25:387-408.
 58. Balkwill FR, Mantovani A. Cancer-related inflammation: common themes and therapeutic opportunities. *Semin Cancer Biol* 2012;22:33-40.
 59. Dinarello CA. Why not treat human cancer with interleukin-1 blockade? *Cancer Metastasis Rev* 2010;29:317-29.
 60. Crea F, Liuzzo G. Addressing acute coronary syndromes: new challenges and opportunities after the CANTOS trial (Canakinumab Anti-inflammatory Thrombosis Outcomes Study). *Circulation* 2018;137:1100-2.
 61. Morton AC, Rothman AM, Greenwood JP, et al. The effect of interleukin-1 receptor antagonist therapy on markers of inflammation in non-ST elevation acute coronary syndromes: the MRC-ILA Heart study. *Eur Heart J* 2015;36:377-84.
 62. Kleveland O, Kunszt G, Brattlie M, et al. Effect of a single dose of the interleukin-6 receptor antagonist tocilizumab on inflammation and troponin T release in patients with non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled phase 2 trial. *Eur Heart J* 2016;37:2406-13.
 63. Abbate A, Van Tassell BW, Biondi-Zoccai G, et al. Effects of interleukin-1 blockade with anakinra on adverse cardiac remodeling and heart failure after acute myocardial infarction [from the Virginia Commonwealth University-anakinra remodeling trial 2 (VCU-ART2) pilot study]. *Am J Cardiol* 2013;111:1394-400.
 64. Abbate A, Salloom FN, Vecile E, et al. Anakinra, a recombinant human interleukin-1 receptor antagonist, inhibits apoptosis in experimental acute myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 2008;117:2670-83.
 65. Smith CJ, Hulme S, Vail A, et al. SCIL-stroke (Subcutaneous Interleukin-1 Receptor Antagonist in Ischemic Stroke): a randomized controlled phase 2 trial. *Stroke* 2018;49:1210-6.
 66. Everett BM, Pradhan AD, Solomon DH, et al. Rationale and design of the Cardiovascular Inflammation Reduction Trial: a test of the inflammatory hypothesis of atherothrombosis. *Am Heart J* 2013;166:199-207.
 67. van Hout GP, Bosch L, Ellenbroek GH, et al. The selective NLRP3-inflammasome inhibitor MCC950 reduces infarct size and preserves cardiac

function in a pig model of myocardial infarction. *Eur Heart J* 2017;38:828-36.

68. van der Heijden T, Kritikou E, Venema W, et al. NLRP3 inflammasome inhibition by MCC950 reduces atherosclerotic lesion development in apolipoprotein E-deficient mice—brief report. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 2017;37:1457-61.

69. Toldo S, Abbate A. The NLRP3 inflammasome in acute myocardial infarction. *Nat Rev Cardiol* 2018;15:203-14.

70. Anders H-J, Murave DA. The inflammasome in kidney disease. *J Am Soc Nephrol* 2011;22:1007-18.

71. Hutton HL, Ooi JD, Holdsworth SR, Kitching AR. The NLRP3 inflammasome in kidney disease and autoimmunity. *Nephrology* 2016;21:736-44.

72. Nidorf SM, Eikelboom JW, Budgeon CA, Thompson PL. Low-dose colchicine for secondary prevention of cardiovascular disease. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2013;61:404-10.

73. O'Donoghue ML, Braunwald E, White HD, et al. Effect of darapladib on major coronary events after an acute coronary syndrome: the SOLID-TIMI 52 randomized clinical trial. *JAMA* 2014;312:1006-15.

74. O'Donoghue ML, Glaser R, Cavender MA, et al. Effect of losmapimod on cardiovascular outcomes in patients hospitalized with acute myocardial infarction: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA* 2016;315:1591-9.

75. Ridker PM, Luscher TF. Anti-inflammatory therapies for cardiovascular disease. *Eur Heart J* 2014;35:1782-91.

76. Shah PK, Chyu KY, Dimayuga PC, Nilsson J. Vaccine for atherosclerosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2014;64:2779-91.

77. Kimura T, Tse K, Sette A, Ley K. Vaccination to modulate atherosclerosis. *Autoimmunity* 2015;48:152-60.

78. Zeboudj L, Maitre M, Guyonnet L, et al. Selective EGF-receptor inhibition in CD4(+) T cells induces anergy and limits atherosclerosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;71:160-72.

79. Libby P, Hansson GK. Taming immune and inflammatory responses to treat atherosclerosis. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;71:173-6.

80. Fuster JJ, MacLauchlan S, Zuriaga MA, et al. Clonal hematopoiesis associated with TET2 deficiency accelerates atherosclerosis development in mice. *Science* 2017;355:842-7.

81. Jaiswal S, Natarajan P, Silver AJ, et al. Clonal hematopoiesis and risk of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease. *N Engl J Med* 2017;377:111-21.

82. Sano S, Oshima K, Wang Y, et al. Tet2-mediated clonal hematopoiesis accelerates heart failure through a mechanism involving the IL-1 β /NLRP3 inflammasome. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;71:875-86.

83. Sager HB, Heidt T, Hulsmans M, et al. Targeting interleukin-1 β reduces leukocyte production after acute myocardial infarction. *Circulation* 2015;132:1880-90.

84. Enami H, Singh P, MacNabb M, et al. Splenic metabolic activity predicts risk of future cardiovascular events: demonstration of a cardiosplenic axis in humans. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2015;8:121-30.

85. Choudhury RP, Birks JS, Mani V, et al. Arterial effects of canakinumab in patients with atherosclerosis and type 2 diabetes or glucose intolerance. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2016;68:1769-80.

86. Baylis RA, Gomez D, Mallat Z, Pasterkamp G, Owens GK. The CANTOS trial. One important step for clinical cardiology but a giant leap for vascular biology. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 2017;11:212.

87. Hansson GK. Inflammation and atherosclerosis. The end of a controversy. *Circulation* 2017;136:1875-7.

88. Ibanez B, Fuster V. CANTOS. A gigantic proof-of-concept trial. *Circ Res* 2017;121:1320-2.

89. Weber C, von Hundelshausen P. CANTOS trial validates the inflammatory pathogenesis of atherosclerosis. Setting the stage for a new chapter in therapeutic targeting. *Circ Res* 2017;121:1119-21.

90. Koenig W. Inflammation revisited: atherosclerosis in the post-CANTOS era. *Eur Cardiol Rev* 2017;12:89-91.

91. Harrington RA. Targeting inflammation in coronary artery disease. *N Engl J Med* 2017;377:1197-8.

92. Lembo G. From clinical observations to molecular mechanisms and back to patients: the successful circuit of the CANTOS study. *Cardiovasc Res* 2018;114:e3-5.

93. Verma S, Leiter LA, Bhatt DL. CANTOS ushers in a new calculus of inflammasome targeting for vascular protection—and maybe more. *Cell Metab* 2017;26:703-5.

94. Abbate A. Why the CANTOS is a game changer in cardiovascular medicine. *J Cardiovasc Pharm* 2017;70:353-5.

95. Verma S, Verghese M, Farkouh ME. Targeting inflammation in the prevention and treatment of type 2 diabetes. Insights from CANTOS. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;21:2402-4.

96. Cherney DZI, Lytvyn Y, McCullough PA. cardiovascular risk reduction in patients with chronic kidney disease. Potential for targeting inflammation with canakinumab. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2018;21:2415-8.

97. Ridker PM. Mortality differences associated with treatment response in CANTOS and FOURIER: insights and implications. *Circulation* 2018;137:1763-6.

KEY WORDS atherosclerosis, canakinumab, CANTOS, inflammation, interleukin-1