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1 Proteomic profiling of the large-vessel vasculitis spectrum identifies shared 2 signatures of innate immune activation and stromal remodelling 3 4 **Short Title:** 5 Proteomic profiling of large-vessel vasculitis 6 7 **Authors:** Robert T. Maughan PhD^{1,2*}, Erin MacDonald-Dunlop PhD^{1*}, Lubna Haroon-Rashid BSc³, 8 Louise Sorensen PhD^{3,4}, Natalie Chaddock PhD³, Shauna Masters RGN⁵, Andrew Porter PhD 9 MRCP², Marta Peverelli MSc², Charis Pericleous PhD², Andrew Hutchings MSc⁶, James 10 Robinson PhD³, Taryn Youngstein MD MRCP², Raashid A. Lugmani DM FRCP⁵, Justin C. 11 Mason PhD FRCP2; †, Ann W. Morgan PhD FRCP3,4;, James E. Peters PhD MRCP1; 12 13 14 1. Department of Immunology and inflammation, Imperial College London, UK. 15 2. National Heart and Lung Institute, Imperial College London, UK 16 3. Leeds Institute of Cardiovascular and Metabolic Medicine, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK 17 4. NIHR Leeds Biomedical Research Centre, Leeds Teaching Hospitals NHS Trust, Leeds, UK. 18 5. Nuffield Department of Orthopaedics, Rheumatology and Musculoskeletal Science (NDORMs), 19 University of Oxford, Oxford, UK 20 6. Department of Health Services Research and Policy, London School of Hygiene & Tropical

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41 Disclosures

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48 49 J.E.P. has received travel and accommodation expenses to speak at Olink-sponsored academic meetings (none in the last 5 years). C.P. is a recipient of a research grant from Galapagos BV; unrelated to this study. A.W.M. previously received a research grant from Roche PLC, for unrelated work, and has undertaken consultancy or received honoraria for speaking at educational events on behalf of her institution from AstraZeneca, Roche and Vifor in the last 5 years. R.A.L has served on advisory boards for GSK and Roche; has received assistance to attend meetings from CSL Vifor; has received grants from Roche, Celgene/BMS and CSL Vifor, and has participated in clinical trials for Roche, GSK, Novartis, and InflaRx.

50	Abstract
51	Background: Takayasu arteritis (TAK) and giant cell arteritis (GCA), the most common forms
52	of large-vessel vasculitis (LVV), can result in serious morbidity. Understanding the molecular
53	basis of LVV should aid in developing better biomarkers and treatments.
54	Methods: Plasma proteomic profiling of 184 proteins was performed in two cohorts. Cohort 1
55	included patients with established TAK (n=96) and large-vessel GCA (LV-GCA, n=35) in
56	addition to healthy control participants (HCs, $n=35$). Cohort 2 comprised patients presenting
57	acutely with possible cranial-GCA in whom the diagnosis was subsequently confirmed (C-
58	GCA, $n=150$) or excluded (Not C-GCA, $n=89$). Proteomic findings were compared to published
59	transcriptomic data from LVV-affected arteries.
60	Results: In Cohort 1, comparison to HCs revealed 52 differentially abundant proteins (DAPs)
61	in TAK and 72 in LV-GCA. Within-case analyses identified 16 and 18 disease activity-
62	associated proteins in TAK and LV-GCA, respectively. In Cohort 2, comparing C-GCA versus
63	Not C-GCA revealed 31 DAPs. Analysis within C-GCA cases suggested the presence of
64	distinct endotypes, with more pronounced proteomic changes in the biopsy-proven subgroup.
65	Cross-comparison of TAK, LV-GCA and biopsy-proven C-GCA revealed highly similar plasma
66	proteomic profiles, with 26 shared DAPs including IL6, monocyte/macrophage related proteins
67	(CCL7, CSF1), tissue remodelling proteins (TIMP1, TNC) and novel associations (TNFSF14, $$
68	IL7R). Plasma proteomic findings reflected LVV arterial phenotype; for 42% of DAPs, the
69	corresponding gene was differentially expressed in tissue.
70	Conclusions: These findings suggest shared pathobiology across the LVV spectrum
71	involving innate immunity, lymphocyte homeostasis and tissue remodelling. Network-based
72	analyses highlighted immune-stromal crosstalk and identified novel therapeutic targets (e.g.
73	TNFSF14).
74	

Introduction

Takayasu arteritis (TAK) and giant cell arteritis (GCA), the most common forms of large-vessel vasculitis (LVV) in adults, are characterised by granulomatous arterial inflammation. Progressive damage to arterial walls typically results in stenotic remodelling with consequent tissue ischaemia and manifestations such as sight loss, stroke, myocardial infarction and limb claudication¹. Despite phenotypic similarities, TAK and GCA have different demographics, particularly age of onset, and, to a lesser extent, they affect different arterial territories. TAK affects the aorta and its major branches, while classically GCA has been described as involving the cranial arteries (C-GCA) such as the temporal artery. However, following advances in non-invasive vascular imaging techniques, it became clear that the aorta and other large vessels are frequently affected in GCA, and some patients have a large vesseltype presentation (LV-GCA) with non-specific constitutional symptoms and/or limb claudication similar to TAK^{2,3}. Frequent large vessel involvement in GCA and similar histopathological changes has led to debate regarding whether TAK and GCA represent varying manifestations of the same disease^{4,5}. This question has important implications for drug development and clinical trial design. However, such comparisons are currently limited by an incomplete understanding of the pathogenic underpinnings of these diseases and a lack of comparative molecular data across LVV phenotypes.

There are several important challenges in the clinical management of TAK and GCA. Both initial diagnosis and recognition of relapse may be delayed and are made more difficult by a lack of effective biomarkers⁶. Blood tests such as C-reactive protein (CRP) lack specificity while vascular imaging can be insensitive, particularly in glucocorticoid-treated patients, and impractical for frequent serial monitoring^{7,8}. In the era before widespread access to ultrasound scans (USS), the diagnosis of C-GCA was confirmed by performing a temporal artery biopsy (TAB). While considered the "gold standard" diagnostic test, the presence of skip lesions may lead to false negative results. A negative biopsy therefore does not exclude the diagnosis of GCA. Progress in the treatment of LVV, particularly the development of targeted biologic therapy, lags behind that of other rheumatic diseases. Accordingly, there is overreliance on long-term glucocorticoids to maintain disease control with resulting iatrogenic harm^{9,10}. Thus, there is a need for better biomarkers and novel therapeutics to improve patient outcomes.

Proteomic profiling has the potential to address these challenges¹¹. Proteins are the effector molecules of most biological functions and the targets of most drugs. Given the proximity of arterial tissue to the circulation, blood-based proteomics is likely to be informative in LVV.

Specifically, we hypothesised that the levels of inflammation- and cardiovascular-related proteins would provide a read-out of disease activity and arterial pathobiology in LVV patients and enable evaluation of molecular similarities and differences between GCA and TAK. To this end, we performed proteomic profiling of 184 circulating proteins in two independent cohorts that included 281 patients with TAK, LV-GCA or C-GCA. We identified protein signatures associated with each LVV type and with disease activity. Cross-disease comparison revealed a striking similarity between the proteomic profiles of active LVV types. Our data indicate the shared dysregulation of innate immune and tissue remodelling pathways and highlight the potential for therapeutics targeting immune-stromal cross-talk.

Methods

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Cohort 1 study participants

Patients with TAK or LV-GCA were recruited from the Hammersmith Hospital (Imperial College Healthcare NHS Trust, UK) between 2013 and 2020. TAK patients fulfilled EULAR/ACR 2022 classification criteria¹² and all had typical patterns of arterial involvement in radiological assessments. LV-GCA patients were >50 years at onset with radiological evidence of LVV, as defined previously¹³. Three LV-GCA patients had concurrent temporal artery involvement (confirmed by temporal artery USS and/or TAB). Healthy control participants (HCs) were recruited locally from hospital and college staff and had no history of inflammatory or cardiovascular disease. Citrate blood samples were centrifuged at 1000G for 10 minutes within 4 hours of venepuncture and plasma was stored at -80°C until use. Disease activity was assessed using the Indian Takayasu Clinical Activity Score (ITAS2010) for TAK14 and the National Institutes of Health (NIH) score for LV-GCA¹⁵. Active disease was defined as ITAS2010 score ≥ 1 or ITAS-CRP ≥ 2 for TAK and NIH score ≥ 2 for LV-GCA. All inactive cases were retrospectively confirmed to be relapse free for 1 year following sample collection. For the purpose of further investigation within inactive TAK cases, 'durable clinical remission' was defined as: (i) absence of all signs, symptoms, and laboratory features attributable to active TAK (as per EULAR definition¹⁶); (ii) absence of arterial progression on serial vascular imaging; (iii) criteria i and ii sustained for past 3 years; and (iv) successful cessation of all immunosuppressive treatment. Patients and HCs provided written informed consent, and samples were collected as a sub-collection registered with the Imperial College Healthcare Tissue Bank (licence: 12275; National Research Ethics Service approval 17/WA/0161).

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Cohort 2 study participants

The <u>Temporal Artery Biopsy</u> vs <u>UL</u>trasound in Diagnosis of GCA (TABUL) was an international, multicentre, prospective study which compared the sensitivity and specificity of temporal artery ultrasound to biopsy in 381 patients with suspected C-GCA¹⁷ [ClinicalTrials.gov: NCT00974883]. Reference diagnosis of C-GCA or Not C-GCA at 6 months was based on a combination of baseline signs and symptoms, blood tests, TAB, fulfilment of ACR 1990 GCA classification criteria, clinical course during the follow-up period, final consultant diagnoses and verification by an expert review panel, as described previously¹⁷.

Cranial ischaemic complications were defined as permanent ocular or non-ocular conditions at presentation. Ocular complications: anterior ischaemic optic neuropathy, branch retinal artery occlusion, cilioretinal artery occlusion, cranial nerve palsy (III, IV or V), central retinal artery occlusion, posterior ischaemic optic neuropathy relative afferent pupillary defect; irreversible visual loss; irreversible visual field defect; irreversible ocular motility or irreversible diplopia. Non-ocular cranial complications: scalp necrosis; tongue necrosis; cerebrovascular accident at presentation considered secondary to GCA). Polymyalgic symptoms at presentation are also reported but do not represent a confirmed diagnosis of polymyalgia rheumatica.

Citrated blood samples collected as soon as feasible after starting glucocorticoid treatment (median 2 days, IQR 1-4) and were centrifuged at 2500 G for 15 minutes within 1.5 hours of collection and plasma was stored at -80°C until use. Due to funding constraints and biosample availability, we performed Olink proteomic assays on 239 patient samples out of the 381 patients recruited to TABUL. We included all available samples from patients with a diagnosis of C-GCA. We selected a subset of sex and age (+/- 5 years) matched Not C-GCA cases such that the ratio of C-GCA to Not C-GCA was approximately 2:1. As part of the study design, we selected an equal proportion of cases with cranial ischaemic complications in the C-GCA group as in the Not C-GCA group. Overall study approval was granted by the Berkshire Research Ethics Committee (09/H0505/132) and approval was also granted at local participating clinical sites.

Proteomic analysis

184 proteins were measured by proximity extension assay using two Olink Target panels, 'Inflammation 1' and 'Cardiometabolic' at the Leeds Immunogenomics Facility, University of Leeds. In order to provide a succinct and standardised nomenclature, we report proteins by the symbols of the genes encoding them (see **Supplementary Data 1** for a full list of proteins and associated full names and accession numbers). Cohort 1 and 2 samples were processed

and analysed independently, but proteomic measurements were performed in the same facility. We designed assay plates such that samples were balanced across plates according to disease grouping and disease activity status, with randomisation to determine well position within plates. Proteomic data were normalised using standard Olink workflows, which includes inter-plate normalisation, to produce measures of relative protein abundance ('NPX') (log₂) scale). For visualisation, we transformed to Z-scores (mean=0, SD=1). Due to a technical fault with a PCR machine during the running of one plate on the Inflammation 1 panel for Cohort 2, it was necessary to re-run this plate as a separate batch. Principal component analysis (PCA) revealed a batch effect, with samples from this plate separated from samples on the other three plates run as part of the first batch. We therefore adjusted for this batch effect for proteins measured on the Inflammation 1 panel in Cohort 2, using batch (a binary variable) as a covariate in linear model based differential abundance analyses. For situations requiring batch-correction outside of differential abundance testing (e.g. visualisation of protein levels using violin plots and heatmaps and network analyses), the residuals from the linear model (in Wilkinson notation) NPX ~ Batch were used to generate batch-corrected protein values. Further PCA of these residuals confirmed that the batch effect had been removed. The residuals were then converted to Z scores prior to visualisation or other downstream analyses. Cardiometabolic panels for Cohort 1 were not affected by this issue and were analysed as a single batch.

Proteins with >75% of samples below the lower limit of detection were removed resulting in 158 and 167 protein measurements for Cohort 1 and 2, respectively. Sample-level quality control (QC) was performed using internal assay controls, boxplots of relative protein abundance values and PCA for outlier detection. In Cohort 1, three samples (1 HC and 2 TAK) were excluded from Inflammation panel measurements due to amplification failures. In Cohort 2, fifteen samples (9 C-GCA and 6 Not C-GCA) were excluded from Inflammation panel and 3 (all C-GCA) from the Cardiometabolic panel measurements due to amplification failures and flagged status in internal QC checks. Where possible all available data was analysed (e.g. differential abundance analyses) but some analyses (e.g. hierarchical clustering, PCA, multiple linear regression versus clinical parameters) necessitated using only complete data.

Differential protein abundance was performed using linear models (Im function in R). For a given protein, protein abundance was regressed on disease status (encoded as 0 or 1). The beta coefficient for the disease status term represents the estimated log_2 fold change in the protein level between groups under comparison. For example, for the analysis of TAK versus HCs, the regression model was NPX \sim D, where NPX was log_2 protein level (continuous variable) and D was a binary variable, encoded as 0 for HC and 1 for TAK. Correction for

multiple testing (multiple proteins) was performed using the Benjamini-Hochberg method (p.adjust function, method= "BH") and an adjusted P-value of < 0.05 (i.e. false discovery rate < 5%) was defined as significant.

Protein annotation

The 184 proteins measured were highly enriched for pathways related to immune function and cardiovascular homeostasis as demonstrated by Reactome pathway over-representation analysis (**Supplementary Data 2**). Due to this enrichment, proteins were manually classified as "Cytokine Related", "Growth Factor Related", "Chemokine, Other Immune/Inflammatory related protein", "Extracellular matrix Related" or "Other Function" to facilitate the annotation of differential abundance results. This was done using a combination of public resources including Gene Ontology terms, pathway and functional databases. The full list of proteins and associated classifications is provided in **Supplementary Data 1**.

Network analysis

The protein-protein interaction network between differentially abundant proteins was constructed using high confidence interactions (confidence \leq 0.9) sourced from STRING¹⁸. No additional filtering of interactions was performed. The protein co-expression network of differentially abundant proteins was created using inter-protein correlation of abundance values. Node edges were defined as Pearson $r \geq$ 0.6. Cohort 1 (TAK and LV-GCA) and Cohort 2 (C-GCA) networks were computed individually and then intersected so that only correlations present in both networks feature in the final network. Both networks were plotted using the igraph package in R¹⁹.

Tissue expression of differentially abundant proteins

GTEx bulk RNA-seq tissue expression data was accessed as median transcript per million values per tissue²⁰. Data pre-processing included: removal of sex-specific organ data (i.e. cervix, breast, vagina, testis, fallopian tubes), removal of purified cell data (e.g. cultured fibroblasts) and where there were multiple sample types per tissue group (e.g. Artery-Coronary or Artery-Aorta) the highest expression value was used for that tissue type. Enhanced tissue expression of differentially abundant proteins was defined as >4 fold higher than the average expression in other tissues as done previously by the Human Protein Atlas²¹.

RNA-seq analysis of LVV arterial tissue

A previous study compared the transcriptomic profile of inflammatory and non-inflammatory aortic aneurysms using bulk RNA-seq²². Gene-level count data was accessed and filtered for cases of inflammatory aneurysm associated with GCA (n=8) for comparison with non-

255	inflammatory cases (n=25). Data was normalised, genes with low expression were removed
256	and groups were compared using the standard edgeR package methodology ²³ . Differentially
257	expressed (DE) genes were defined using Benjamini Hochberg adjusted P < 0.05. DE genes
258	were then compared with LVV-associated plasma proteins with regards to overlap and
259	Pearson correlation of log ₂ fold change in each disease.
260	
261	Supervised learning
262	Predictive models to develop disease activity biomarkers in TAK and diagnostic markers in C-
263	GCA using the <i>glmnet</i> ²⁴ and <i>caret</i> ²⁵ R packages. For these analyses data were split into
264	Training and Test sets. Modelling fitting was performed on the Training Set using 5-fold cross-
265	validation and performance then evaluated in the Test set. Full details are provided in the
266267	Supplementary Methods.
268	Other analyses
269	Details of additional analyses are provided in Supplementary Information File .
270	betails of additional analyses are provided in Supplementary information inc.
271	Data and Code availability
272	The post QC proteomic data are available from figshare:
273	https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.26928211.v1
274	The raw proteomic data and the R code for QC and differential abundance analysis are
275	available from Github https://github.com/r-maughan/LVV Olink
276	
277	Results
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279	To identify proteins associated with LVV and to evaluate the presence of shared or distinct
280	molecular signatures across TAK, LV-GCA and C-GCA, we measured plasma levels of 184
281	inflammation- and cardiovascular-related proteins (Supplementary Data 1) in two
282	independent cohorts using the Olink Target antibody-based proximity extension assay (Figure
283	1). To provide a standardised nomenclature, we report proteins using the non-italicised HUGO
284	gene symbol of the encoding gene.
285	
286	Shared plasma proteomic profiles in TAK and LV-GCA
287	Cohort 1 included 96 TAK patients, 35 LV-GCA patients and 35 healthy controls (HCs)
288	(Supplementary Table 1). Patient characteristics were typical for TAK and LV-GCA with
289	regards to age and sex, with younger onset and greater female:male ratio in TAK. HCs were
290	well matched in terms of demographics to the TAK patients. LV-GCA patients were older and

had a higher proportion of individuals of White European ancestry. The patient samples analysed encompassed a broad range of disease activity, disease duration and treatment status, particularly in TAK where sample size was greater. Patients with active disease tended to have shorter disease durations and were receiving higher glucocorticoid doses, as might be expected (**Supplementary Data 3**). In Cohort 1, 158 proteins (86%) passed QC parameters (**Methods**) and were available for analysis.

Comparison of proteomic profiles between TAK patients and HCs identified 52 differentially abundant proteins (DAP), with 42 upregulated and 10 downregulated (**Figure 2A**, **Supplementary Data 4**). Cross-referencing of our results to those of a previous study²⁶ which used a different proteomic platform demonstrated that many of our proteomic associations were novel (**Figure S1**, **Supplementary Data 4**). We next compared LV-GCA to HCs, revealing 72 DAP, with 60 increased and 12 decreased (**Figure 2B**, **Supplementary Data 5**). The proteomic changes in TAK and LV-GCA in comparison to HCs were highly similar; 40 proteins were significantly altered in both diseases and 85% of all proteins had directionally concordant changes compared to HCs (**Figure 2C&D**). Proteomic similarity of TAK and LV-GCA was also reflected in principal component analysis (PCA), with TAK and LV-GCA clustering together and separated from HCs (**Figure S2A**).

As expected, many upregulated proteins in TAK and LV-GCA indicated immune activation including cytokines, chemokines, and growth factors (Figure S2B). Plasma IL6, the pleiotropic cytokine of known importance to LVV pathogenesis¹³, was significantly upregulated in both TAK and LV-GCA (Figure 2E), together with liver-derived inflammatory proteins such as SAA4 and FCN2. Prominent innate immune involvement in both TAK and LV-GCA was indicated by increased levels of neutrophil-derived proteins (S100A12, LCN2, DEFA1) and monocyte/macrophage activation and chemotactic factors (CSF1, CCL3, CCL5, CCL7, CCL14). Plasma levels of TNF (tumour necrosis factor), IL12B and IFNG were not significantly altered despite previous links to TAK pathogenesis²⁷. In contrast, we observed large increases in OSM (oncostatin M) and TNFSF14 (LIGHT), cytokines not previously associated with LVV (Figure 2E). In addition to the dysregulation of immune-related proteins, we observed the upregulation of proteins with functions related to the extracellular matrix (TIMP1, MMP1, CST3, TNC), fibrosis (TGFB1) and angiogenesis (VEGFA, HGF, ANG, COL18A1) in both diseases, likely reflecting a signature of arterial injury and remodelling. Six proteins were consistently downregulated in both diseases, including IL7R, KIT, TNXB and THBS4 (both extracellular matrix (ECM) related glycoproteins), DPP4 (a glucose metabolism and T-cell activation factor) and CR2 (the complement C3d receptor).

To evaluate whether there were disease-specific effects, we performed a direct comparison of TAK versus LV-GCA, which revealed 6 significant DAP (**Supplementary Data 6**). Visualising the relative abundance of these proteins in each group demonstrated that the dysregulation of these proteins appeared to be LV-GCA specific (**Figure S3A**). For example, in LV-GCA, but not TAK, CXCL9, CCL11 and CA3 levels were elevated compared to HCs. Similarly, CR2 and TNFSF11 (RANKL) were significantly reduced in LV-GCA but not in TAK. Changes specific to TAK were less prominent, with no proteins that had significant changes in TAK versus both HCs and LV-GCA. However, we observed that FGF23 and IL17A were significantly increased in TAK compared to HCs but were not significantly increased in LV-GCA versus HC (**Figure S3B**).

Signatures of active disease in TAK and LV-GCA patients

To identify proteins associated with disease activity in TAK and LV-GCA, we next compared the proteomic profile of active and inactive patients within each disease. In TAK, 16 proteins were significantly altered in active disease, with 11 upregulated and 5 downregulated (**Figure 3A**, **Supplementary Data 7**). Upregulated proteins included neutrophil-related factors (S100A12, CXCL5 CXCL1), liver-derived proteins (SAA4, CFHR5), ECM components (TNC, NID1, CRTAC1, COMP) and angiogenic factors (VEGFA, ANG), indicating innate immune activation and vascular remodelling (**Figure 3B**). To corroborate the results of the active versus inactive patient analysis and identify proteins whose levels vary with the degree of disease activity, we tested for association with the numerical ITAS2010 disease activity score¹⁴. 8 of the 158 proteins measured were significantly correlated (adjusted P<0.05) with the ITAS2010 score (**Figure S4A&C**), and 7 of these 8 were differentially abundant in the active versus inactive analysis.

Assessment of disease activity in TAK is currently based on the evaluation of clinical features, imaging, and clinical laboratory measures of inflammation, particularly CRP levels. However, CRP lacks both sensitivity and specificity for active TAK⁷. In keeping with this, 20 active TAK patients had normal CRP levels (<5mg/L). We found that 6 proteins (NID1, TNC, S100A12, CD274 (sPD-L1), DEFA1 and DPP4) were more strongly correlated with ITAS2010 than CRP (Figure S4). Motivated by this finding, we formally evaluated whether we could develop a multi-marker protein signature using supervised learning to improve classification of disease activity (Supplementary Material). Using LASSO regression, we generated a 10-protein signature which outperformed CRP (AUC 0.8 versus 0.72 respectively; Figure S5A&B). However, a simpler two-protein logistic regression model comprising CRP and COMP performed even better (AUC 0.9; Figure S5C), demonstrating proof-of-principle that even the

addition of a single protein could provide improved and clinically tractable biomarker-based assessment of disease activity in TAK.

In LV-GCA, 18 proteins were significantly associated with active disease, with 17 increased and 1 decreased (**Figure 3A**, **Supplementary Data 8**). Although two proteins (CFHR5 and VEGFA) were increased in active disease in both LV-GCA and TAK, the LV-GCA activity signature was mostly distinct to that of TAK (**Figure 3A&C**). A more prominent acute phase response was evident in active LV-GCA compared to TAK with large increases in IL6 and multiple liver-derived inflammatory proteins (MBL2, ST6GAL1, C2) (**Figure 3D**). There were also differences in the chemokines and other immunoregulatory proteins affected; CXCL5 and CXCL1 levels were not significantly changed in active LV-GCA (**Figure 3E**) but there were increases in the monocyte-attracting chemokines (CCL7, CCL14, CCL23) and the T-cell recruitment and activation factors (CCL18, GNLY, TIMD4). Lastly, there were activity-associated increases in remodelling associated proteins TIMP1, COL18A1 and NRP1 in LV-GCA but not TAK.

To determine whether proteomic differences persist despite clinically quiescent disease, we compared inactive TAK and LV-GCA patients to HC participants. This analysis identified 22 and 61 DAP in inactive TAK and LV-GCA, respectively, with 18 common to both diseases (Figure S6A-C, Supplementary Data 9-10). Examples of proteins which remained elevated in inactive disease include OSM, S100A12, TNFSF14 and AXIN1 (Figure S6D). Importantly, these proteins remained chronically elevated regardless of disease duration (Figure S6E), even in TAK patients who had withdrawn all treatment following durable clinical remission (Figure S6D; median time off treatment 2 years [inter-quartile range, IQR: 1.5-5.1], further details in Supplementary Data 11). Thus, our data indicate that some proteomic changes observed in TAK and LV-GCA patients represent persistent molecular derangements which do not normalise with clinical remission.

Biopsy proven C-GCA has a distinct proteomic endotype

We next performed proteomic profiling of an independent cohort (Cohort 2) of 239 patients presenting acutely with possible C-GCA, recruited to the TABUL study¹⁷. Blood samples were taken rapidly following initiation of high dose glucocorticoids; median treatment duration was 2 days (IQR: 1-4). All patients underwent both temporal artery biopsy (TAB) and ultrasound sonography (USS) and a diagnosis of C-GCA was subsequently confirmed or excluded (Not C-GCA). Patient characteristics were typical for suspected C-GCA, with the majority of cases being over 60 years old (87.4%), female (72%) and having White European ancestry (99.3%)

(Supplementary Table 2). Of patients diagnosed with C-GCA, 56 (37.3%) had a positive TAB, 78 (52%) had an abnormal USS and 53 (35.3%) were negative for both TAB and USS where diagnosis was based on clinical features. Compared to Not C-GCA patients, C-GCA patients were slightly older (median age 4 years greater) and had higher ESR, CRP and platelet levels (Supplementary Table 2). Proteomic profiling was performed using the same Olink platform. 167 proteins (91%) passed QC parameters and data from a minimum of 225 patients were available for analysis (Methods).

Proteomic comparison of C-GCA patients (n=150) to Not C-GCA cases (n=89) revealed 31 DAP (Figure 4A, Supplementary Data 12). Further investigation revealed heterogeneity of these protein profiles within C-GCA patients and that differences compared to Not C-GCA cases were mostly driven by the TAB positive (TAB+) C-GCA patient subset (Supplementary **Methods**, Figure S7). In analyses stratified by TAB result, comparison of TAB+ C-GCA (n=56) to Not C-GCA identified 62 DAP (Figure 4B, Supplementary Data 13), while only 1 DAP was identified in the TAB negative (TAB-) C-GCA (n=89) versus Not C-GCA comparison (Supplementary Data 14). The increase in significant associations when limiting to biopsyproven cases despite reduction in sample size and hence statistical power indicates that TAB+ C-GCA is enriched for proteomic signal, and that the TAB- group were diluting this signal in the analysis of all C-CGA versus Not C-GCA. Comparison of the estimated log₂ fold changes (log₂FC) and protein abundances from the TAB+ and TAB- stratified analyses confirmed larger magnitudes of effect in the former (Figure 4D & 4F). We additionally found that TAB+ C-GCA patients had higher levels of CRP, ESR, platelets and presence of polymyalgic symptoms compared to TAB- C-GCA patients (Figure 4C & Supplementary Data 15). Moreover, PCA of all proteins assayed indicated separation of TAB+ from TAB- C-GCA patients (Figure S7C). Together, these findings indicate that C-GCA can be stratified into biologically and clinically distinct subsets by TAB result.

Further exploration of TAB- patients with hierarchical clustering revealed that while the large majority did not share the TAB+ associated signature, 18 TAB- patients were similar to TAB+ patients (**Figure S8**). However, this pattern had no significant association with demographic or clinical parameters. Relatedly, the comparison of C-GCA TAB- patients who had abnormal USS (N=36) to Not C-GCA cases did not identify any significant proteins. Together, these results suggest that TAB rather than USS positivity more closely reflects the proteomic phenotype.

The 62 proteins associated with TAB+ C-GCA patients suggest both innate and adaptive immune activation with dysregulation of cytokines, growth factors, chemokines and other

immune-related proteins (**Figure 4E**). In a previous proteomic study²⁸, five of these proteins were identified as significantly altered in C-GCA (**Figure S9** & **Supplementary Data 13**). Similar to TAK and LV-GCA, many proteins involved in innate immune function were upregulated including acute phase response mediators (IL6, MBL2, SAA4, CFHR5, ST6GAL1) and factors involved in neutrophil and monocyte migration and activation (CXCL1, CCL14, CCL7, S100A12, CSF1). Several chemokines involved in T- and B-cell recruitment were also increased (CXCL9, CXCL10, CXCL11, CCL18) together with altered levels of lymphocyte survival and proliferation factors (increased IL7, decreased: IL7R, KITLG, TNFSF11). In addition, increases in ECM (MMP1, TIMP1, TNC, LTBP2), fibrosis (TGFB1) and angiogenesis-related proteins (VEGFA, HGF, NRP1) were indicative of vascular remodelling. The downregulated proteins with the lowest p-values were SERPINA5 and DPP4 (**Figure 4F**). In secondary analyses, we did not identify any proteins that were significantly associated with cranial ischaemic complications or polymyalgic symptoms within C-GCA patients when analysed both as a single group and when separated by TAB result.

Supervised learning to identify protein-based diagnostics for C-GCA

There are no specific diagnostic blood tests for C-GCA. While ESR and CRP are typically elevated, they are non-specific. For example, CRP was elevated (>5mg/L) in 69% of Not C-GCA cases in this study. We therefore tested whether a blood-based protein or proteomic biomarker could aid diagnosis of C-GCA, randomly splitting the data into training and test sets (Supplementary Material). Using logistic regression models, the best predictive univariate markers for biopsy-proven C-GCA were CXCL9, DPP4 and SERPINA5 (Figure S10A, **Supplementary Table 3**). Despite having one of the larger estimated LFCs in the differential abundance analyses (Figure 4A-B), IL6 was less effective as a predictor (Supplementary **Table 3).** We then explored whether predictive performance could be enhanced through a more sophisticated multivariate modelling approach. We supplied all proteins measured as input variables and trained a model using LASSO regression (which performs variable selection) and cross-validation. This resulted in an 11-protein model which provided improved diagnostic performance compared to the univariate models (accuracy 0.87, AUC 0.94) (Figure **S10B.** Supplementary Tables 3-4). The most important features in the LASSO model were CXCL9, DPP4 and SERPINA5 (Figure S10B), consistent with the findings of the univariate logistic regression analyses.

470 Correlated proteomic changes in active TAK, LV-GCA and biopsy-proven C-GCA with 471 IL6 and VEGFA identified as key hub proteins

We next explored similarities and differences in the plasma proteomic signatures associated with each form of LVV. We considered the possibility that our results might be impacted by differences in study design. In Cohort 2, C-GCA patients were sampled with active disease at the time of diagnosis, whereas in Cohort 1, patients were sampled during both active and inactive disease over a range of disease durations. To mitigate against this, we re-analysed Cohort 1 restricting case samples to active disease only. These analyses revealed 68 and 69 differentially abundant proteins for active TAK versus HCs and active LV-GCA versus HCs respectively, of which the majority had also been significantly altered in the corresponding previous analyses using all cases (80.9% and 81.6% respectively, **Supplementary Data 16-17**). We then compared the results of these TAK and LV-GCA analyses to the proteomic associations identified in the TAB+ C-GCA versus Not C-GCA comparison in Cohort 2.

112 DAP were identified in one or more LVV type (subsequently referred to as LVV-associated proteins, **Figure 5A**, **Supplementary Data 18**). Directional changes were highly similar with 74 (66.1%) having concordant changes (**Figure 5B**) and significant correlation between both TAK and LV-GCA profiles with that of TAB+ C-GCA (Pearson *r* 0.49 and *r* 0.69, respectively, both P<0.0001). Twenty-six proteins (23.2%) were dysregulated in all three diseases and 33 proteins (29.5%) were dysregulated in two. Of the 26 shared DAP, all had directionally concordant changes, including 20 upregulated and 6 downregulated proteins. We define these 26 proteins as the 'pan-LVV signature' (**Supplementary Data 18**). Upregulated proteins included IL6, acute phase proteins (SAA4, CFHR5, ST6GAL1), monocyte and neutrophil factors (S100A12, CSF1), monocyte and lymphocyte chemokines (CCL5, CCL7, CCL3, CCL18, CCL23) and TNFSF14. Also increased were proteins related to arterial remodelling including VEGFA, HGF, MMP1, TIMP1 and the ECM glycoprotein Tenascin C (TNC). Decreases included IL7R, KIT and KITLG, each involved in lymphocyte differentiation and proliferation, DPP4, CR2 and TNXB (another ECM tenascin).

Using the GTEx tissue transcriptome database²⁰, we explored the global tissue expression profile of each LVV-associated protein, defining enhanced expression as >4 fold higher than average tissue level as per Human Protein Atlas methodology²¹. 83 (74.1%) had enhanced expression in ≥1 tissue. The most represented tissues were liver, spleen and whole blood (**Figure S11**). 11 proteins had enhanced arterial expression including TNC, TIMP1, COL18A1 and TNFRSF11B (OPG), thereby indicating the possibility of blood-based measurement of arterial biomarkers in LVV.

To infer relationships between proteins, we constructed two networks using the 74 proteins with concordant changes using i) annotated protein-protein interactions (String-db¹8) (**Figure 5C**) and ii) co-expression (Pearson *r*≥0.6) (**Figure 5D**). The network of annotated interactions identified IL6 and IL10 as the central hubs with connections to proteins with distinct functions including chemotaxis (e.g. CCL5, CCL3), angiogenesis (e.g. VEGFA, HGF) and tissue remodelling (e.g. MMP1, TIMP1, TGFB1). In the network constructed using protein co-expression data, TIMP1 and VEGFA displayed even greater connectivity, appearing as central nodes with edges connecting both to other remodelling-related proteins (e.g. COL18A1, NRP1) and multiple immune-associated proteins (e.g. CSF1, TNFSF14, CCL14). These networks indicate the coordinated regulation of immune and vascular remodelling processes, highlighting immune-stromal cross-talk in LVV.

The most prominent inter-disease differences diseases were between TAK and LV-GCA profiles compared to TAB+ C-GCA (**Figure 5A**). In particular, the large increases in EIF4EBP1 and AXIN1 observed in TAK and LV-GCA were not seen in C-GCA. Similarly, increases in the neutrophil proteins DEFA1 and LCN2 were observed exclusively in TAK and LV-GCA (**Figure 5E**). There were also differences between LV-GCA and TAB+ C-GCA profiles compared to TAK which indicate some degree of divergence between diseases. For example, increases in CXCL9 and TIMD4 were seen only in the GCA groups while decreases in the ECM-related proteins COMP and THBS4 were only found in TAK (**Figure 5F**).

Plasma proteomic signatures reflect LVV arterial tissue phenotype

Plasma proteins arise not only from blood cells but also from a wide range of tissues and organs, including the vasculature which is in direct contact with the blood. We therefore sought to evaluate whether changes in patient plasma (**Figure 5A**) reflect the phenotype of arterial tissue affected by LVV. Using bulk RNA-seq data from a study which compared surgically resected aortic tissue of LV-GCA to non-inflammatory aortic aneurysms (NI-AA)²², we found that for 47 (42%) of the LVV-associated plasma proteins, the corresponding gene was differentially expressed in LVV arterial tissue (**Figure 6A**, **Supplementary Data 19**). Moreover, the log₂FCs of these 47 plasma proteins correlated with the log₂FC of the corresponding gene in LVV tissue versus NI-AA (**Figure 6B**), and 28 (59.6%) had directionally concordant changes across the transcriptomic analysis of LVV arterial tissue and the plasma proteomic analyses of all the 3 LVV types.

Using the blueprint and GTEx bulk RNA-seq datasets^{20,29}, we explored the cell-type and arterial expression profile of the 47 genes/proteins dysregulated in both plasma and arterial

tissue (**Figure S12A**). Macrophage and neutrophil expressed genes/proteins made up the largest subset (34%); this included CCL7, CSF1, CXCL9 and CDCP1 which were increased in both tissue and plasma (**Figure 6C**). Genes/proteins expressed by non-immune stromal cells such as TNC, MMP1, TIMP1 and NRP1 were also prominent (**Figure 6D**). This latter cluster was enriched for genes of high arterial expression (GTEx) and could be useful as markers of arterial remodelling. The remainder were lymphocyte-derived (**Figure 6E**) or had mixed expression profiles. Of note, despite the significant decreases in plasma protein DPP4, CR2 and IL7R in LVV, the expression of the corresponding genes was significantly increased in LVV arterial tissue (**Figure S12B**), emphasising that there may be directionally discordant effects between different tissue compartments and/or between intracellular mRNA expression and plasma protein levels. Overall, these findings indicate that plasma proteomic signatures can reflect aspects of LVV tissue phenotype and could provide a valuable non-invasive readout of pathogenic processes occurring in diseased arteries.

Discussion

TAK and GCA are currently classified as separate diseases^{12,30} but some investigators have proposed that they could represent varying manifestations of the same disease spectrum^{4,5}. This debate has largely focused on phenotypic similarities, reflecting patterns of arterial injury³. Genome-wide association studies reveal differences in the genetic risk factors that associated with TAK or GCA diagnosis³¹. However, a key unanswered question is whether the molecular effector pathways acting in these diseases are shared or distinct. This information is critical for the rational selection of new therapeutic strategies that target specific proteins.

Here, we address this by comparing the plasma proteomic profile of TAK, LV-GCA and C-GCA. In 281 patients with LVV, we measured 184 inflammation- and vascular-associated proteins to characterise the plasma proteome of each major LVV type and evaluate changes associated with disease activity states. We found that the proteomic profiles associated with active TAK, LV-GCA and biopsy-proven C-GCA were similar and identified a 26-protein 'pan-LVV' signature common to all three groups. This signature primarily included proteins of immunological function, but it also comprised proteins arising from or acting on the stroma, indicative of arterial injury and/or repair. Some of these proteins have well-established roles in LVV (e.g. IL6 and VEGFA)^{13,27}, but others have not been previously linked to LVV.

The signature reflected prominent innate immune activation, particularly with increases in several proteins related to monocyte and macrophage function. Importantly, co-expression

analysis revealed coordinated regulation of such proteins (e.g. CSF1, CCL18, CCL14) with multiple proteins involved in tissue remodelling (e.g. VEGFA, TIMP1 and TGFB1) thereby highlighting innate immune-stromal crosstalk in LVV. This is consistent with recent reports implicating pro-fibrotic macrophage subsets in the fibrotic and stenotic remodelling of arteries in TAK and GCA, cell types that are less affected by current treatments^{32,33}. These findings underscore the importance of macrophages in TAK and GCA pathogenesis and illustrate the need for markers and therapeutics which target macrophages beyond pro-inflammatory functions alone.

We also observed evidence for adaptive immune involvement, with changes in lymphocyterelated proteins like IL7R and TNFSF14. Plasma IL7R was decreased in all LVV groups irrespective of disease activity status. Its ligand IL7 was also significantly increased in TAK and C-GCA. IL7 is essential for T-cell development and homeostasis whilst soluble (sIL7R) potentiates IL7 activity by enhancing bioavailability³⁴. The pattern observed is similar to findings in ANCA-associated vasculitis and tuberculosis infection but contrasts with rheumatoid arthritis and lupus where sIL7R levels are increased^{35–37}. Interestingly, the mRNA expression of IL7R was increased in the transcriptomic analysis of LV-GCA aortitis and a recent study reported that IL7R expressing T-cells are involved in the persistence of vasculitic lesions in a mouse chimeric model ³⁸. Decreased IL7R in LVV patient plasma may therefore reflect the recruitment of specific T-cell subsets from the circulation to vasculitic lesions. As another example, TNFSF14 (LIGHT) was prominently elevated. TNFSF14 acts as a T-cell costimulatory factor and triggers T-cell activation and proliferation³⁹. TNFSF14 promotes systemic immunopathology, as demonstrated by transgenic animals with constitutive TNFSF14 expression in T-cells⁴⁰. Moreover, TNFSF14 can also act on non-haematopoietic structural cells including fibroblasts, endothelial and smooth muscle cells to drive tissue fibrosis⁴¹. Consistent with this, our co-expression network analysis identified an edge connecting TNFSF14 to VEGFA, a central hub node. Current treatment strategies in LVV are limited to suppression of inflammation and do not target fibrosis directly. Thus, TNSF14 antagonism may be a novel therapeutic approach in LVV that provides dual targeting of both the immune response and the consequent stromal reaction.

Lastly, the signature included tissue remodelling proteins expressed by immune cells (e.g. VEGFA) or stromal cells (e.g. TNC, TIMP1, MMP1); the latter may represent useful markers of arterial damage independent of inflammation. Increased plasma TNC in LVV is relevant given its enrichment in normal arteries and increased expression in arteries affected by LVV. TNC is an ECM protein primarily expressed by fibroblasts at sites of tissue damage where it

supports repair. It gained interest as a candidate marker of vascular injury, but its levels are also elevated in other disease states⁴². Although this lack of specificity to LVV may preclude its use as a diagnostic marker, TNC and other ECM proteins could be useful for monitoring arterial injury during follow-up and should be evaluated in longitudinal studies.

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Despite the overall similarity in LVV proteomic profiles, we identified differences which suggest some immunological divergence between diseases. For example, the chemokine CXCL9 was higher in LV-GCA and C-GCA compared to TAK. CXCL9 is produced by macrophages and other cell types in response to interferon-gamma and typically reflects activation of the Th1 pathway⁴³. Increased plasma CXCL9 has been shown previously in GCA and is associated with CXCR3+ cell infiltration into diseased arteries⁴⁴. Previous studies speculated that TAK and GCA differ in the susceptibility of T-cell pathways to glucocorticoids whereby Th1 responses persist in GCA and Th17 responses persist in TAK after treatment initiation^{45,46}. Our observation that CXCL9 was exclusively increased in GCA while IL17A was exclusively increased in TAK may support this theory.

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Beyond comparing LVV types, this study provided several disease-specific insights. We identified novel markers of active disease in TAK and in LV-GCA. Disease activity assessment is challenging in LVV, where existing markers like CRP have well-recognised limitations and there can be practical constraints regarding the frequent use of vascular imaging^{7,8}. In a proofof-principle analysis, we demonstrate that a single additional marker, the ECM glycoprotein COMP, used in combination with CRP markedly increases the accuracy of disease activity detection when compared to the use of CRP alone. Although further study is required to validate the novel markers identified here in independent cohorts, our findings suggest that significant improvements can be made toward this important challenge with simple additions to the laboratory testing regimes used for monitoring LVV. Importantly, we also found that many proteins remained altered in TAK and LV-GCA patients despite clinically quiescent disease. OSM and AXIN1 were elevated regardless of disease activity while activity markers like S100A12 and VEGFA were highest in active disease but remained increased despite clinical disease quiescence. These findings may parallel the inaccuracy of clinical disease activity assessment compared to histopathological or radiological evaluations of arterial inflammation^{47–49}. However, we observed similar derangements in TAK patients who had achieved durable clinical remission (defined here as the absence of any symptom, sign, laboratory feature or radiographic evidence for active TAK over last 3 years of monitoring and the safe cessation of all immunosuppressive treatments). Therefore, while the persistent changes observed likely indicate subclinical inflammation, future studies are required to determine whether their association with clinically important outcomes.

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668 669 Our results suggest that biopsy-positive and negative C-GCA are proteomically distinct. There are two possibilities that could explain our findings. First, despite a careful clinical phenotyping algorithm which included external expert review, there may be instances of misclassification within the TAB- C-GCA group, such that some patients were erroneously labelled as C-GCA. However, this cannot fully explain our findings since the TAB- C-GCA group included some patients with a positive USS. Alternatively, TAB positivity may reflect the burden of arterial disease. Skip lesions, with discontinuous segments of arterial inflammation, can occur in GCA and so a patient with lower burden of arterial disease is more likely to have a negative biopsy on the small biopsy section of artery sampled. Thus, it is possible that the proteomic read-out may reflect quantitative differences in the extent of arteritis. Our clinical lab data provided additional evidence of differences between TAB+ and TAB- patients, with higher ESR, CRP and platelet count in the former group, in keeping with previous studies⁵⁰⁻⁵². Other clinical differences in TAB+ and TAB- C-GCA have been described, including greater risk of visual loss^{52,53} and higher prevalence of PMR in TAB+ patients⁵⁰, although these findings have not replicated in all case series⁵⁴. Our data support the concept that C-GCA can be stratified by biopsy into biologically distinct endotypes, which may have implications for future trial design and precision medicine strategies.

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Our study had limitations. We used a targeted proteomic panel which was enriched for inflammatory and vascular proteins and thus our ability to compare between LVV groups is limited to the proteins measured. The HCs in Cohort 1 were well-matched to TAK patients but were younger than LV-GCA patients. Differences in study design between Cohort 1 and Cohort 2 mean that proteomic differences between C-GCA and the other LVV groups may be confounded by differences in disease duration and treatment history. In addition, the controls in Cohort 2 ("Not GCA") were individuals who presented with symptoms for which a diagnosis of C-GCA was considered but ultimately excluded, whereas the controls in Cohort 1 were healthy participants with no symptoms. In Cohort 1, there was heterogeneity in treatment, with varying use of steroids and other immunosuppressants which could potentially impact the plasma proteome. However, treatment (particularly glucocorticoid dose) is given in response to disease activity, reflected in the correlation between disease activity scores and prednisolone dose in Cohort 1. Thus attempting to statistically adjust for treatment risks overadjustment^{55,56}. For supervised learning, we split the data into training and test sets but the relatively modest sample sizes mean that estimates of model performance are more vulnerable to stochastic variation. We mitigated this by also estimating model performance through cross-validation in the larger training set. Finally, in the case of membrane-bound proteins that undergo cleavage to produce a soluble form, it is not always clear whether

plasma protein measurements are exclusively capturing the latter or also protein from cell membranes (for example, arising from *in vivo* sources such as exo-/ectosomes or *ex vivo* processes such as venepuncture or sample processing), complicating interpretation.

In conclusion, similarities in the plasma proteomic profiles of active TAK and GCA indicate common effector pathways resulting in inflammatory arterial damage despite differences in genetic aetiology. Our integrated analysis of plasma and arterial tissue highlight the role played by macrophages and their protein products in LVV and indicate significant potential for their targeting in novel treatments and biomarkers. Future work should expand the molecular characterisation of the LVV disease spectrum by extending the number of proteins measured via use of complementary proteomic platforms and by concurrent measurement of other -omic layers (e.g. RNA-seq of immune cells). Longitudinal studies characterising the temporal changes in the molecular profile across the disease course will be valuable in delineating acute from chronic changes and allowing intra-individual assessment of putative biomarkers identified here.

Main Figure Legends

Figure 1. Study Overview.

Schematic overview of study to investigate the plasma proteomic changes associated with each form of large-vessel vasculitis in two independent cohorts. Cohort 1: patients with established Takayasu arteritis (TAK) and large-vessel giant cell arteritis (LV-GCA) and healthy control (HC) participants. Cohort 2: patients presenting acutely with possible cranial giant cell arteritis in whom the diagnosis was subsequently confirmed (C-GCA) or ruled out (Not C-GCA). Disease-specific proteomic profiles defined by differential abundance analysis were compared. Network-based analysis of LVV-associated proteins and integrated analysis with published tissue and cell-type datasets was also conducted.

Figure 2. Plasma proteomic changes in TAK and LV-GCA compared to Healthy Control participants

Volcano plots showing results of differential protein abundance analyses: A) Takayasu Arteritis patients (TAK, N=96) vs healthy controls (HC, N=35) B) Large-Vessel Giant Cell Arteritis (LV-GCA, N=35) vs HC. -Log10(P_{adj}) = -log₁₀ Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value. Red and blue indicate proteins that are significantly (P_{adj} < 0.05) upregulated and downregulated, respectively. C) Venn diagram showing the overlap in proteins significantly altered in TAK vs HC compared to LV-GCA vs HC analyses. D) Comparison of log_2 fold changes in all proteins for TAK vs HC and LV-GCA vs HC analyses, diagonal lines represent line of identity and +/- 0.5 log_2 fold change. Blue = proteins significant in both analyses; orange = significant only in TAK vs HC; teal = significant only in LV-GCA vs HC; grey = non-significant in both analyses. E) Violin plots showing scaled protein levels (as Z-scores) for example proteins with prominent changes in both TAK and LV-GCA. P_{adj} < 0.05: *, P < 0.001: ***, P < 0.0001: ****, P < 0.0001: ****

Figure 3. Proteins associated with active disease within TAK and LV-GCA patients

A) Points indicating log_2 fold change estimate +/- standard error (horizontal bars) for proteins that were significantly (adjusted P < 0.05) differentially abundant in the active vs inactive patient analysis for Takayasu Arteritis only (TAK, N=56 vs N=40) (top panel), both diseases (middle panel) and Large-Vessel Giant Cell Arteritis only (LV-GCA, N=11 vs N=24) (bottom panel). B) Functional categories of differentially abundant proteins from TAK and LV-GCA activity analyses. Violin plots depict the scaled abundance values (Z-scores) for proteins associated with disease activity in both diseases (C) and for the proteins which had divergent associations with disease activity in TAK and LV-GCA (D & E). P-values adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg method; No symbol: non-significant, adjusted P < 0.05: *, $P \le 0.01$: ***, $P \le 0.001$: ***.

Figure 4. Proteomic changes associated with C-GCA are most pronounced in biopsy proven disease

A) Volcano plots for the differential protein abundance comparisons of Cranial Giant Cell Arteritis (C-GCA, N=150) cases vs Not C-GCA cases (N=89) and B) for the comparison of temporal artery biopsy positive C-GCA (C-GCA TAB+, N=56) versus Not C-GCA (N=89). -Log₁₀(P_{adj}) = -log₁₀ Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value. Red and blue indicate proteins that are significantly (P_{adj} < 0.05) upregulated and downregulated, respectively. C) Boxplot showing comparison of C-reactive protein (CRP), erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) and platelet count between Not C-GCA, C-GCA TAB- and C-GCA TAB+ patients. Median and IQR represented by line and box edges respectively, upper whisker represents the upper quartile plus 1.5 times the IQR, lower whisker represents lower quartile minus 1.5 times IQR. Statistical comparisons made with Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's post-hoc tests. D) Comparison of log_2 fold changes for differentially abundant proteins in C-GCA TAB+ vs Not C-CGA and C-GCA TAB- vs Not C-GCA, diagonal line represents line of identity. E) Functional categories of differentially abundant proteins in C-GCA TAB+ vs Not C-GCA comparison. F) Violin plots showing scaled protein levels (Z-score) for example proteins with prominent changes in C-GCA TAB+ cases. NS: non-significant, adjusted P < 0.05: *, P \leq 0.0001: *****.

Figure 5. Comparison of active TAK, LV-GCA and biopsy-proven C-GCA proteomic profiles

A) Heatmap showing log_2 fold changes (FC) of the 112 differentially abundant proteins (DAP) identified in active Takayasu Arteritis (TAK) vs healthy control (HC), active Large-Vessel Giant Cell Arteritis (LV-GCA) vs HC and temporal artery biopsy positive (TAB+) C-GCA vs Not C-GCA comparisons. Left: navy boxes represent proteins with statistically significant changes (Adjusted P < 0.05) in each disease. Right: annotated functional category for each protein. B) Comparison of disease log_2 FC for 112 DAP, diagonal lines represent the line of identity. Network plots of (C), known protein-protein interactions and (D), protein-protein co-expression for proteins with concordant changes in each disease (74). Node size corresponds to number of edges. For C, high confidence interactions (log_2 0.9) were sourced from STRING¹⁸ and for D, protein co-expression was defined as a Pearson correlation log_2 0.6 in both active TAK/LV-GCA patients and TAB+ C-GCA patients. E) Violin plots showing scaled abundance values (Z-scores) for selected proteins associated with active TAK and LV-GCA but not C-GCA (F) and those identified as different between active LV-GCA and C-GCA vs active TAK. P-values adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg method; No symbol: non-significant, Adjusted log_2 0.001: ***, log_2 0.001: ***, log_2 0.0001: ****, log_2 0.0001: ****, log_2 0.0001: ****

Figure 6. Correspondence of LVV plasma profile to arterial tissue phenotype

Comparison of plasma proteomic profiles associated with LVV and gene expression changes identified in aortic tissue affected by large-vessel vasculitis (LVV)²². A) Pie chart showing the proportion of 112 LVV-associated plasma proteins (Supplementary Data 18) that were also differentially expressed (Adjusted P < 0.05) in the comparison of large-vessel giant cell arteritis (LV-GCA) related aortic aneurysm (N=8) to non-inflammatory aortic aneurysm (NI-AA) by bulk RNA-seq (N=25). B) Comparison of plasma protein and aortic gene expression log₂ fold changes (Log₂FC) for the 47 proteins and corresponding genes that had significant changes in both LVV plasma and aortic tissue, each point represents a gene/protein pair. For proteomics (Y axes), Log₂FCs represent active Takayasu Arteritis (TAK) vs healthy control (HC), active LV-GCA vs HC and temporal artery biopsy positive cranial-GCA (TAB+ C-GCA) vs Not C-GCA comparisons. For transcriptomics (X axes), Log₂FCs represent LV-GCA associated aortitis vs NI-AA. (C-E), Dot plots showing aortic gene expression of genes/proteins DA in both LVV plasma and aortic tissue. Genes proteins typically expressed by macrophages (C), non-haematopoietic stromal cells (D) and lymphocytes (E). Gene expression measured in transcripts per million (TPM), cell-type expression classified using blueprint data (Figure S8). P-values were adjusted using Benjamini-Hochberg method.

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798	Supplemental Material
799	Supplementary Information File.docx
800	Supplementary Methods
801	Supplementary Table 1: TAK and LV-GCA cohorts
802	Supplementary Table 2: C-GCA cohort
803	Supplementary Table 3. Performance of predictive models for discrimination of biopsy-proven
804	C-GCA from Not C-GCA
805	Supplementary Table 4: Confusion matrix comparing model predictions from the 11-protein
806	LASSO model in the Test set versus true labels
807	Figure S1. Comparing TAK findings to those of a previous plasma proteomic study
808	Figure S2. TAK and LV-GCA vs HC comparison
809	Figure S3. Plasma protein differences between TAK and LV-GCA patients
810	Figure S4. Proteins associated with Disease Activity Score in TAK
811	Figure S5. Novel markers provide improved detection of disease activity compared to CRP
812	alone in TAK
813	Figure S6. Differentially abundant proteins in inactive TAK & LV-GCA
814	Figure S7. Proteomic changes in C-GCA are most pronounced in biopsy proven disease
815	Figure S8. Comparison of proteomic changes in TAB+ and TAB- C-GCA patients
816	Figure S9. Comparing biopsy proven C-GCA findings to those of a previous plasma proteomic
817	study
818	Figure S10. Supervised learning to identify diagnostic markers of biopsy-proven C-GCA

819	Figure S11. Tissue expression of LVV-associated plasma proteins
820 821	Figure S12. Cell-type expression profile of proteins/genes identified as dysregulated in both LVV plasma and tissue
822	Supplementary Data File.xlsx
823	Supplementary Data 1: Proteins measured in this study
824	Supplementary Data 2: Pathway enrichment of proteins measured in this study
825 826	Supplementary Data 3: Characteristics of TAK and LV-GCA patients with inactive and active disease
827	Supplementary Data 4: Differential protein abundance analysis TAK vs HC
828	Supplementary Data 5: Differential protein abundance analysis LV-GCA vs HC
829	Supplementary Data 6: Differential protein abundance analysis TAK vs LV-GCA
830	Supplementary Data 7: Differential protein abundance analysis Active TAK vs Inactive TAK
831 832	Supplementary Data 8: Differential protein abundance analysis Active LV-GCA vs Inactive LV-GCA
833	Supplementary Data 9: Differential protein abundance analysis Inactive TAK vs HC
834	Supplementary Data 10: Differential protein abundance analysis Inactive LV-GCA vs HC
835	Supplementary Data 11: Characteristics of TAK patients in durable clinical remission
836	Supplementary Data 12: Differential protein abundance analysis C-GCA vs Not C-GCA
837	Supplementary Data 13: Differential protein abundance analysis C-GCA TAB+ vs Not C-GCA
838	Supplementary Data 14: Differential protein abundance analysis C-GCA TAB- vs Not C-GCA
839 840	Supplementary Data 15: Characteristics of Not C-GCA cases and C-GCA patients stratified by TAB result
841	Supplementary Data 16: Differential protein abundance analysis Active TAK vs HC
842	Supplementary Data 17: Differential protein abundance analysis Active LV-GCA vs HC
843 844	Supplementary Data 18: Comparison of active TAK, active LV-GCA and C-GCA TAB+ proteomic profiles
845 846	Supplementary Data 19: Proteins & Genes dysregulated in both LVV plasma and arterial tissue

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1004