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Molecular mechanisms of host cell traversal by malaria sporozoites

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1. Introduction

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ABSTRACT

Malaria is a pernicious infectious disease caused by apicomplexan parasites of the genus Plasmodium. Each year, malaria afflicts over 200 million people, causing considerable morbidity, loss to gross domestic product of endemic countries, and more than 420,000 deaths. A central feature of the virulence of malaria parasites is the ability of sporozoite forms injected by a mosquito to navigate from the inoculation site in the skin through host tissues to infect the liver. The ability for sporozoites to traverse through different host cell types is very important for the successful development of parasites within the mammalian host. Over the past decade, our understanding of the role of host cell traversal has become clearer through important studies with rodent models of malaria. However, we still do not understand the stepwise process of host cell entry and exit or know the molecular mechanisms governing each step. We know even less about cell traversal by malaria parasite species that infect humans. Here, we review current knowledge regarding the role and molecular mechanisms of sporozoite cell traversal and highlight recent advances that prompt new ways of thinking about this important process.

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Malaria has been a scourge of humanity and is still responsible 48 49 for enormous loss of productivity and human life. In 2015, over 200 million infections occurred, which caused severe morbidity and the 50 loss of over 420,000 human lives (World Health Organization, 51 2015). Malaria is caused by Plasmodium parasites that are trans-52 53 mitted to humans via the bite of an infected female Anopheles mosquito. Once inoculated into the host, the sporozoite form of the 54 55 parasite migrates from the dermis to the circulating blood and is 56 carried to liver sinusoidal capillaries (Amino et al., 2006). Here, it penetrates the sinusoids to reach the liver parenchyma and then 57 to infect a hepatocyte (Pradel and Frevert, 2001; Frevert et al., 58 59 2005). Within the hepatocyte, a sporozoite differentiates inside a 60 parasitophorous vacuole membrane into exoerythrocytic forms (EEFs) that eventually become thousands of merozoites within 61 merosomes (Sturm et al., 2006). Following completion of develop-62 63 ment, merosomes exit the liver parenchyma and enter the bloodstream. Rupture of merosomes releases the large number of 64 65 merozoites, which subsequently infect erythrocytes and cause 66 the clinical pathogenesis of malaria.

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The path from the dermis to the liver is complex and consists of various physical host cellular barriers that must be navigated and overcome. These barriers include dermal fibroblasts, endothelial cells of blood vessels, phagocytes in the dermal and liver sinusoidal layers including Kupffer cells and hepatocytes. Sporozoites have evolved the remarkable ability to transmigrate through these host cells by a process known as cell traversal. Cell traversal involves active sporozoite entry into a host cell, rapid migration through the cytosol, and then exit through the host cell plasma membrane (Vanderberg et al., 1990; Mota et al., 2001). Although the entry step of traversal has historically been considered to involve lysis of the host cell membrane and entry without a parasitophorous vacuole, very recent evidence has demonstrated that traversing sporozoites can enter the hepatocytes through a transient vacuole, so called due to the rapid escape of the sporozoite from this compartment before exiting the cell (Risco-Castillo et al., 2015). This important advance raises a variety of mechanistic questions such as what are the proteins involved in the entry and exit steps of traversal, what factors determine the formation of the transient vacuole as opposed to the longer-lasting parasitophorous vacuole, and do sporozoites form these structures when traversing cells other than hepatocytes? Furthermore, since the majority of studies informing this fascinating area have been conducted with malaria parasites that infect rodents, there is a large gap in knowledge regarding the *Plasmodium* spp. responsible for the full human toll of malaria. It is clear that while extensive understanding has been

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A.S.P. Yang, J.A. Boddey/International Journal for Parasitology xxx (2016) xxx-xxx

gained over the past decade, our understanding of traversal is con tinually evolving and that there are many more fundamental ques tions still to be answered.

96 **2. Early observations of sporozoite traversal**

97 Sporozoite traversal of host cells was first observed by the 98 rodent-infecting malaria parasite Plasmodium berghei using rodent 99 macrophages (Vanderberg et al., 1990). Sporozoites were seen to actively enter and exit host cells rapidly, sometimes leading to cell 100 death. This process is highly dependent on motility of the parasite, 101 as traversal was not observed when sporozoites were immobilized 102 103 using anti-sporozoite antibodies. Mota and colleagues (2001) first showed that sporozoite traversal was not limited to macrophages 104 105 but could also be observed in hepatocytes and epithelial cells 106 (Mota et al., 2001). It was shown that the host cell membrane is 107 damaged during this process, using a cell wounding and mem-108 brane repair assay involving entry of fluorescent dextran; this 109 remains an important tool to study traversal to this day. In the 110 wounding assay, the normally cell-impermeant fluorescent tracer could be observed inside host cells by microscopy following incu-111 112 bation with sporozoites, demonstrating that the host plasma mem-113 brane had been breached, although the timing of rupture, i.e. upon 114 parasite entry or exit from the host cell, was unclear from this 115 assay alone. Electron microscopic analysis identified some hepato-116 cytes with intracellular sporozoites lacking a parasitophorous vac-117 uole membrane and, in rare cases, an apparent entry wound in the 118 host cell membrane of infected cells (Mota et al., 2001). This evi-119 dence suggested that sporozoites traverse hepatocytes by actively 120 wounding the host plasma membrane during the entry step, with-121 out the formation of a parasitophorous vacuole membrane, and 122 during exit from the host cell.

123 **3.** Role of cell traversal during infection of the rodent host

124 3.1. Sporozoite traversal at the dermis

125 The skin is the largest organ of the body and provides the first 126 line of protection from external pathogens. Before taking a bloodmeal, a parasite-infected female Anopheles mosquito will penetrate 127 the skin and dermal layer of a mammalian host with her proboscis 128 to find a blood vessel. During this time, she secretes saliva that 129 130 anesthetizes the dermal area and inadvertently injects a small inoculum of sporozoites from the salivary glands into the dermis 131 132 (Rosenberg et al., 1990; Amino et al., 2006) (Fig. 1). This location 133 presents various physical cellular barriers such as fibroblasts and 134 leukocytes that the sporozoite must surmount in order to enter a 135 blood vessel for transport to the liver. Following an infectious mos-136 quito bite, sporozoites migrate within the skin of mice for 137 extended time periods of up to 3 h (Vanderberg and Frevert, 2004; Yamauchi et al., 2007). Sporozoite migration out of the der-138 mis requires gliding motility, and mutation of the thrombospondin 139 related anonymous protein (TRAP) dramatically impairs motility 140 and sporozoite infectivity (Ejigiri et al., 2012). Navigation from 141 the dermis involves traversal through host cells (Coppi et al., 142 2007; Amino et al., 2008) and has been imaged and quantified in 143 rodents. One study observed that approximately 50% of the sporo-144 145 zoite inoculum leaves the site after 30 or more minutes, either by 146 invading the blood (70%) or the lymphatic (30%) vessels (Amino 147 et al., 2006). In contrast, traversal-deficient sporozoites (see Sec-148 tion 5.1 for a detailed description of these transgenic parasites) 149 were often found trapped in dermal fibroblasts or leukocytes and 150 were destroyed; thus, they were unable to reach the blood vessels 151 and liver infection did not ensue (Amino et al., 2008). Parasite 152 entry to blood vessels can be blocked by anti-sporozoite antibodies

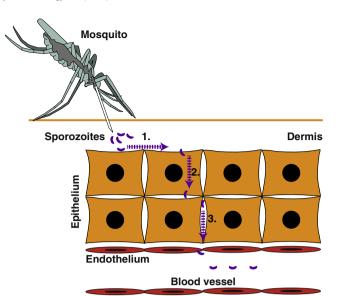


Fig. 1. Malaria sporozoite cell traversal at the dermis. During a blood meal by an infected *Anopheles* mosquito, a small number of sporozoites (purple) are deposited into the host's skin. The sporozoite must navigate the host cellular barriers present at this site in order to enter the blood circulation and be transported to the liver. To do so, they display a range of motility including gliding (1), host cell traversal (2) and transmigration between cells (3).

(Vanderberg and Frevert, 2004) and parasite exit from blood ves-
sels involves passage through endothelial cells (Tavares et al.,
2013). This provided important evidence that cell traversal is
required to breach dermal epithelial cells as well as to escape
phagocytosis to ensure successful access to a blood vessel for sub-
sequent infection of a hepatocyte (Fig. 1).153

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3.2. Sporozoite traversal at the liver sinusoids

Once the sporozoite enters a blood vessel near the dermis, it is 160 swiftly transported to liver lobules via the hepatic artery and arte-161 rioles, and then into sinusoidal capillaries. Here, the sporozoite 162 intimately attaches to the endothelium before crossing the blood 163 vessel by one of several possible routes. Sporozoites can either tra-164 verse sinusoidal resident Kupffer cells (Pradel and Frevert, 2001; 165 Ishino et al., 2004; Frevert et al., 2005; Tavares et al., 2013), or 166 migrate through endothelial cells (Tavares et al., 2013). They may 167 also migrate between endothelial cells, as the liver sinusoids are 168 comprised of a discontinuous, fenestrated endothelium. Exit from 169 the sinusoidal layer allows sporozoites to access the parenchyma 170 and infect hepatocytes (Fig. 2). Different experimental approaches 171 provided evidence that Kupffer cells are targeted by sporozoites as 172 the main gateway out of the liver sinusoids. Various microscopy 173 techniques showed sporozoite passage through Kupffer cells by 174 P. berghei and Plasmodium yoelii sporozoites (Pradel and Frevert, 175 2001; Frevert et al., 2005). Furthermore, infection with P. yoelii 176 sporozoites of op/op mice, which contain a point mutation in 177 macrophage colony stimulating factor (M-CSF) causing loss of the 178 majority of Kupffer cells, caused a five-fold reduction in liver infec-179 tion relative to wild type mice, suggesting that Kupffer cells are an 180 important barrier and target for sporozoites (Baer et al., 2007). 181 Using differential fluorescent labeling of Kupffer and endothelial 182 cells in mouse liver sinusoids, it was shown by intravital micro-183 scopy that while the majority of the traversal events involve Kupf-184 fer cells (approximately 60%), approximately 17% of events 185 occurred exclusively through endothelial cells (Tavares et al., 186 2013) (Fig. 2). This provided the first evidence of another gateway 187 used by sporozoites to exit the sinusoids. This study also showed 188

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