

## Inflammasomes in liver diseases

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#### Summary

Inflammation is a common element in the pathogenesis of most chronic liver diseases that lead to fibrosis and cirrhosis. Inflammation is characterized by activation of innate immune cells and production of pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1a, IL-1β, and TNF $\alpha$ . Inflammasomes are intracellular multiprotein complexes expressed in both parenchymal and non-parenchymal cells of the liver that in response to cellular danger signals activate caspase-1, and release IL-1ß and IL-18. The importance of inflammasome activation in various forms of liver diseases in relation to liver damage, steatosis, inflammation and fibrosis is discussed in this review.

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#### Inflammasomes and their signal transduction pathways

The term "inflammasome", introduced by Tschopp and colleagues [1] refers to large multiprotein complexes that sense intracellular danger signals via NOD-like receptors (NLR) [2].

NOD-like receptors, members of the pattern recognition receptor family, contain a C-terminal leucin-rich-repeat (LRR) domain that plays a role in the recognition of ligands, a central NACHT domain that is responsible for the oligomerization and

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Abbreviations: NLR, NOD-like receptor; ASC, apoptosis-associated speck like CA-RD-domain containing protein; IL, interleukin; IL-1R, interleukin-1 receptor; IL-1Ra, interleukin-1 receptor antagonist; NK, natural killer; IFN, interferon; TLR, toll-like receptor; PAMP, pathogen associated molecular pattern; DAMP, damage associated molecular pattern; NALP1, NACHT, LRR, and PYD domains-containing protein 1; NALP3, NACHT, LRR, and PYD domains-containing protein 3/cryoporin; NLRC4, NLR-family CARD domain containing protein 4; AIM2, absent in melanoma 2; MDP, muramyl dipeptide; NFkB, Nuclear factor kB; MSU, monosodium urate: ROS, reactive oxygen species: NADPH, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; TXNIP, thioredoxin-interacting protein; RIG-I, retinoic acid-inducible gene-I; APAP, N-acetyl-p-aminophenol; I/R, ischaemia-reperfusion; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; ASH, alcoholic steatohepatitis; NASH, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis; MCD, methionine-choline deficient; HFD, high fat diet; CDAA, choline deficient amino acid defined; TNFα, tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$ ; MyD88, myeloid differentiation factor 88; CCl4, carbon tetrachloride; HCV, hepatitis C virus; HBV, hepatitis B virus.



Journal of Hepatology 2012 vol. 57 | 642-654

dNTPase activity, and an N-terminal CARD, pyrin (PYD), BIR (baculoviral inhibitory repeat), or acidic transactivation domain. Based on the NACHT domain, three subfamilies of proteins are defined: (a) NODs, (NOD1-5, CIITA), (b) NLRPs or NALPs (NLRP/ NALP 1-14), and (c) IPAF (IPAF, NAIP) subfamily [2] (summarized in Fig. 1). Other classifications, based on the N-terminal effector domain, are also known [3]. Several, but not all, NLRs play a role in the formation of inflammasomes. With the exception of AIM2, which is a member of the HIN-200 family, the nomenclature of inflammasomes is based on the NOD-like receptor (NLR).

#### **Key Points 1**

Nod like receptors (NLRs) contain a C-terminal leucin-richrepeat (LRR) domain that plays a role in the recognition of ligands, a central NACHT domain that is responsible for the oligomerization and dNTPase activity, and an N-terminal CARD, pyrin (PYD), BIR (baculoviral inhibitory repeat), or acidic transactivation domain. NLRs have been grouped into subfamilies by either the NACHT domain or the N-terminal domain. Several, but not all, NLRs play a role in the formation of a multiprotein complex called the inflammasome. In addition, non-NLR proteins, such as AIM2 can also form a complex with caspase-1

The sensor, NLR, forms a complex with the effector molecule, pro-caspase-1, with or without the contribution of an adapter molecule, such as the apoptosis-associated speck like CARDdomain containing protein (ASC) [1-4]. Inflammasome activation leads to auto-activation of the 45 kDa inactive pro-caspase-1 precursor into p20 and p10 subunits that form the active caspase-1 [1-4], resulting in the cleavage of pro-IL-1 $\beta$  and pro-IL-18 into mature forms, and inactivation of IL-33 [1–5]. IL-1 $\beta$  is a proinflammatory cytokine, a central regulator of inflammation that binds to the IL-1 receptor (IL-1R) to exert its broad biological effects. IL-1R also recognizes IL-1 $\alpha$  and binds IL-1R antagonist (IL-1Ra), the latter inhibiting IL-1R activation [6]. IL-18 activates natural killer (NK) cells to produce IFN $\gamma$  [6], while IL-33 is a chromatin-associated cytokine of the IL-1 family that drives Th2 responses [4,6]. The full-length active IL-33 is cleaved and inactivated by caspase-1 [5].

Inflammasome activation is thought to be a two-step process in which signal 1 (mostly from TLR activation) upregulates inflammasome expression and signal 2 triggers functional inflammasome activation by an inflammasome ligand [2,4]. A recent publication suggests that the priming step is required only for activation of NLRP3 and not other inflammasomes such as

Keywords: Inflammasomes; Interleukin-1ß; Caspase-1; Drug induced liver injury; Ischaemiareperfusion; Endotoxin; Steatohepatitis; Viral hepatitis; Fibrosis. Received 4 November 2011; received in revised form 6 March 2012; accepted 8 March 2012

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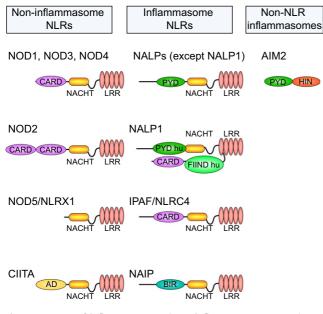


Fig. 1. Structure of inflammasome and non-inflammasome NLRs and non-NLR inflammasomes.

#### Table 1. Known activators of inflammasome NLRs.

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NLRC4 or AIM2 [7]. Inflammasome ligands include both pathogen-associated (PAMPs) and endogenous danger molecules (DAMPs) (summerized in Table 1) [1–4]. To date, four main prototypes of inflammasomes have been characterized: NLRP1 (NALP1); NLRP3 (NALP3, cryporin); NLRC4 (IPAF) and AIM2 [2,4]. They have different ligand recognition sites and utilization of adapter molecules but all culminate in caspase-1 activation.

#### NLRP1 inflammasome

NLRP1 (NACHT, LRR, and PYD domains-containing protein 1), the first inflammasome described, can directly interact with caspase-1 through its C-terminal CARD domain, and in humans, the presence of ASC enhances the activity of the complex [34]. Murine NLRP1 is unable to bind to ASC because it lacks a functional PYD domain [34]. Multiple alternatively spliced transcript variants of human NLRP1 exist [35].

NLRP1 is activated by the muramyl dipeptide (MDP) and the *Bacillus anthracis* lethal toxin [8–11]. An interaction was reported between NLRP1 and another NLR protein, NOD2, and Hsu *et al.* found that NLRP1 and NOD2 were both required for MDP or *B. anthracis* toxin-induced IL-1 $\beta$  secretion [11]. Potassium efflux plays a role in NLRP1 inflammasome activation [9] and NLRP1 can localize into the nucleus, and this feature is unique in

Inflammasome	Activator
NLRP1 (NALP1)	Bacillus anthracis lethal toxin [8-11] MDP [10,11]
NLRP3 (NALP3, cryoporin)	Large particles via phagocytosis Monosodium urate crystals (MSU) [12] CPPD (calcium pyrophosphate dehydrate) [12] Alum [13] Silica [14] Asbestos [15] Amyloid beta [16] Hyaluronan [17] Hemozoin [18] Vaccine adjuvants (poly lactide-co-glycolide and polystyrene microparticles) [19] Cholesterol crystals [20]
	Bacterial toxins (pore-forming) Listeria monocytogenes Lysteriolysin O [21,22] Staphylococcus aureus alpha-toxin [21-23] Aeromonas hydrophila aerolysin [21,22] Streptolysin [24] Nigericin [21] Maitoxin (Dinoflagellates) [22]
	lon channels and activators ATP(P2X7) [21] Influenza virus M2 channel protein [25]
	PAMPs (only if transferred to the cytoplasm by e.g. Streptolysin O pore-forming toxin) LPS, lipid A, PGN, MDP, LTA, Pam3, ssRNA, dsRNA, CpG DNA [26,27]
NLRC4 (IPAF)	Gram - negative bacteria (flagellin-dependent and independent) Salmonella typhymurium [28] Shigella flexneri [28,29] Legionella pneumophila [30] Pseudomonas aeruginosa [28]
AIM2	dsDNA bacterial [31,32] viral [31,32] mitochondrial [33] host [31]

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