

Pathogenesis of primary biliary cholangitis

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Disease overview of primary biliary cholangitis (PBC)

PBC is one of the main subgroups of chronic cholestatic liver disease. In 2015, the designation of PBC was changed from primary biliary cirrhosis to remove the “cirrhosis stigma” to more accurately reflect the disease and its natural course [1, 2]. PBC is a chronic cholestasis disease mediated by autoimmunity. It is characterized by a continuous autoimmune response leading to selective destruction of the small and middle bile ducts in the liver, intrahepatic cholestasis, which induces duct proliferation leading to bile duct cell death, liver fibrosis, cirrhosis, liver failure, and even hepatocellular carcinoma. The etiology and pathogenesis of PBC are still unclear. This paper, based on the factors leading to PBC immune disorders and the immune mechanism of PBC immune disorders, discusses the possible factors leading to immune disorders such as heredity, environment, drugs and intestinal flora disorders and the related immune pathogenesis.

Factors of PBC immune disorders

The diagnosis of PBC is marked by positive serum autoimmune antibodies, anti-mitochondrial antibodies (AMA), and anti-nuclear antibodies (ANA). This suggests that immune factors play an important role in the pathogenesis of PBC [3].

Genetic factors

PBC patients have familial clustering, and twin and familial risk assessments initially supported the idea that there is a strong genetic susceptibility to PBC, with monozygotic twins with PBC showing a 0.63 agreement rate, one of the highest reported in autoimmune. In addition, reported family history differences ranged from 1.33 to 99%

[4]. Genome-wide association studies have shown that multiple genes influence human leukocyte antigen (HLA) and non-HLA loci susceptibility to PBC [5]. The inheritance of PBC is also associated with DNA methylation, histone modification, and non-coding Rnas (micrnas and lnRnas) [13].

Environmental factors

Due to differences in genetic susceptibility, PBC is easily triggered by environmental factors such as infectious diseases and harmful chemicals [6]. Probert et al. found a man-made chemical in the soil around a garbage dump that had a structure similar to lipoic acid and was able to replace lipoic acid in mitochondrial proteins. Although further confirmatory studies are needed, these results identify an exogenous substance in the environment that may be an environmental trigger for PBC [7]. Environmental factors commonly associated with women (e.g. nail polish) are associated with increased susceptibility to PBC [8].

Female dominance of the PBC

PBC presents a significant female advantage, and its underlying mechanism remains to be elucidated [9]. It has a typical sex dimorphism, and the male to female ratio can be as high as 10:1. It mainly affects middle-aged women (40–60 years old). Changes in estrogen levels that occur in women after menopause make menopause and postmenopause the most common stages of PBC [10–12]. Estrogen has been shown to have an effect on microbiota and bile acid composition [13]. Li et al. found that bile duct cells secrete exosomes rich in long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) H19 during cholestasis, and estrogen increases the release of H19 and aggravates cholestatic liver injury [14]. In addition, estrogen can induce proliferation of bile duct cells [15].

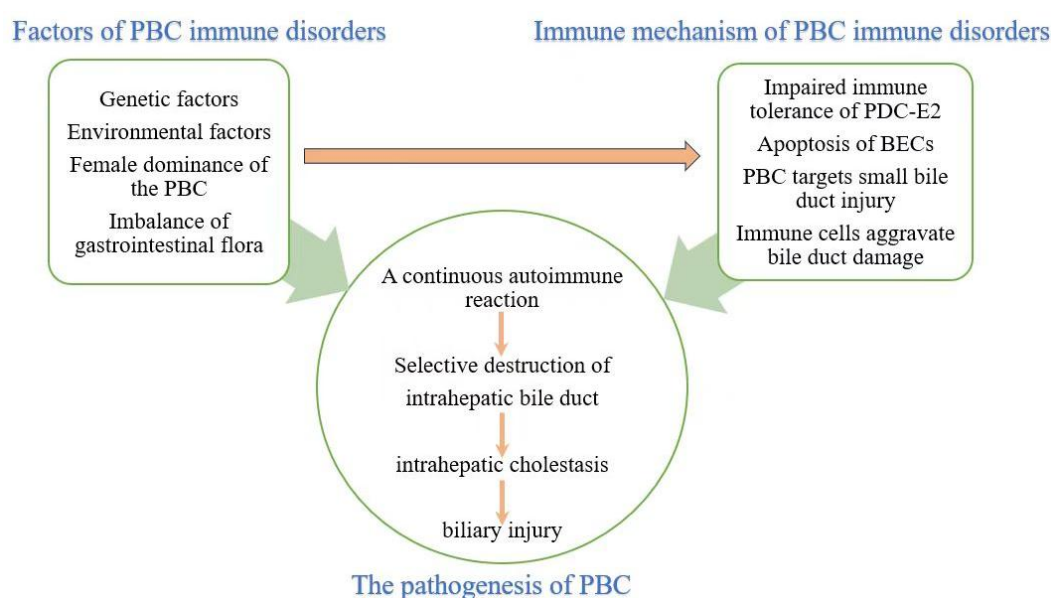


Figure 1: Immunopathogenesis and disease characteristics of PBC. PBC, primary biliary cholangitis.

Imbalance of gastrointestinal flora

Human intestinal flora has the basic function of regulating metabolism and immunity. PBC can alter the gut microbiota by causing intestinal motility disorders, immune disorders, deficiency of bile secretion, and portal hypertension [16]. Studies have shown that compared with the normal population, there are differences in the intestinal flora of PBC patients, with increased colonization of *pseudomonas*, *Verona* and *Clostridium*, and decreased colonization of *spirochaeta* and *Sucheri* [17].

Immune mechanism of PBC immune disorders

The occurrence and development of PBC require three important “ABC” elements [18]. A is AMA, antigen-presenting cells (APC), and apoptose (derived from apoptosis and epitope) that are not degraded or modified during apoptosis; B, blebs from apoptotic biliary epithelial cells (BECs); C is complex formation and cytokine secretion. See Figure 1 for details

Impaired immune tolerance of pyruvate dehydrogenase complex (PDC)-E2

Animal experiments confirmed that immunizing C57BL/6 mice with 2-OA-bovine serum albumin conjugate can produce AMA in mice [19]. The liver tissue of PBC was infiltrated by a large number of autoreactive CD4⁺ and CD8⁺T lymphocytes, all of which contained the PDC-E2 thioacyl domain. These findings suggest that breaking PDC-E2 tolerance can lead to the development of PBC.

Apoptosis of BECs in the liver

The expression of PBC anion exchange protein 2 (AE2) is down-regulated, and the BECs bicarbonate secretion is reduced, which increases the sensitivity of the unit for bile salt-induced apoptosis, accelerate their own apoptosis rate [20]. The high titer PDC-E2-specific IgA dimer in the bile of PBC patients can initiate the activation of caspase and participate in the apoptosis of BECs during the transport process to BECs. The PDC-E2-specific IgA dimer entering BECs can bind to PDC-E2 and participate in the pathological injury of BECs [22].

PBC targets small bile duct injury

The expression of MicroRNA (miR)-506 is up-regulated in BECs, and Mir-506 can promote epigenetic changes in BECs, accelerate the process of apoptosis and aggravate cholestasis [21].

Immune cells aggravate bile duct damage

The infiltrated immune cells around the small bile duct in the liver are closely related to the injury of the small bile duct, and these immune cells play different roles in the pathogenesis of PBC [22]. Natural killer cell (NK) can kill BECs efficiently. The activation of pathogenic NKT aggravated bile duct injury. A large number of mucosa-associated invariant T cell (MAIT) with high chemotactic infiltration in liver tissue, activated MAIT cells can aggravate bile duct injury, and MAIT cells migrating from peripheral blood to liver can mediate the progression of liver fibrosis [23]. Macrophages in liver tissue play an important role in initiating and maintaining PBC bile duct injury. Kupffer cells (KCs) exist in the hepatic sinuses, play a role in removing pathogens from the blood, and can recruit a large number of monocytes to the damaged liver tissue, further aggravates the existing bile duct injury of PBC [24].

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Competing interests

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Abbreviations

PBC, primary biliary cholangitis; AMA, anti-mitochondrial antibodies; PDC, pyruvate dehydrogenase complex; BECs, biliary epithelial cells; MAIT, mucosa-associated invariant T cell.

Citation

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