Sapuła Klaudia, Gołacki Jakub, Marczak Aleksandra, Hordejuk Michalina, Iwaszko-Sochal Klaudyna. The role of chemokines in liver disease. Journal of Education, Health and Sport. 2022;12(7):493-503. eISSN 2391-8306. DOI http://dx.doi.org/10.12775/JEHS.2022.12.07.050 https://apcz.umk.pl/JEHS/article/view/JEHS.2022.12.07.050 https://zenodo.org/record/6833664

The journal has had 40 points in Ministry of Education and Science of Poland parametric evaluation. Annex to the announcement of the Minister of Education and Science of December 21, 2021. No. The journal has had 40 points in Ministry of Education and Science of Poland parametric evaluation. Annex to the announcement of the Minister of Education and Science of December 21, 2021. No. 32343. Has a Journal's Unique Identifier: 201159. Scientific disciplines assigned: Physical Culture Sciences (Field of Medical sciences and health sciences); Health Sciences (Field of Medical Sciences and Health Sciences).

Punkty Ministerialne z 2019 - aktualny rok 40 punktów. Załącznik do komunikatu Ministra Edukacji i Nauki z dnia 21 grudnia 2021 r. Lp. 32343. Posiada Unikatowy Identyfikator Czasopisma: 201159. Przypisane dyscypliny naukowe: Nauki o kulturze fizycznej (Dziedzina nauk medycznych i nauk o zdrowiu); Nauki o zdrowiu (Dziedzina nauk medycznych i nauk o zdrowiu).

© The Authors 2022;

This article is published with open access at Licensee Open Journal Systems of Nicolaus Copernicus University in Torun, Poland Open Access. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Noncommercial License which permits any noncommercial License stribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author (s) and source are credited. This is an open access article licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution Non commercial license Share alike. (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa4/40) which permits unrestricted, non commercial use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the work is properly cited. The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

Received: 22.06.2022. Revised: 22.06.2022. Accepted: 14.07.2022.

The role of chemokines in liver disease

Klaudia Sapuła, Jakub Gołacki, Aleksandra Marczak, Michalina Hordejuk, Klaudyna Iwaszko-Sochal

Klaudia Sapuła klaudiaa.em@gmail.com, https://orcid.org/ 0000-0003-2436-0150 Independent Public Clinical Hospital No. 4 in Lublin

Jakub Golacki jakub.golacki@gmail.com, https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8502-3030 Independent Public Clinical Hospital No. 4 in Lublin

Aleksandra Marczak aleksandramarczak26@gmail.com, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3025-5907 Independent Public Clinical Hospital No. 1 in Lublin

Michalina Hordejuk michalina.hordejuk@gmail.com, https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2473-1062 Provincial Specialist Hospital in Lublin

Klaudyna Iwaszko-Sochal klaudyna.iwaszko92@gmail.com, https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9228-6138 Independent Public Clinical Hospital No. 4 in Lublin **Abstract** (abstract): Chemokines are involved in many processes, including the normal immune response to infection, as well as pathological processes such as carcinogenesis, autoimmunity and inappropriate inflammatory responses. These processes represent an important aspect in the context of liver disease, its progression and the possibility of inhibiting fibrosis. Chemokines belong to low molecular weight proteins with a wide range of functions affecting cell migration, involving different physiological and pathological processes. Depending on whether they participate in the maintenance of homeostasis during periods of well-being or represent a type of intervention of the organism to its disorders, their secretion by cells is constitutive or induced. This article focuses on the classification, structure and functions of these molecules and their possible involvement in the pathogenesis of liver diseases, as well as the possibilities of therapeutic application of this knowledge.

Keywords: chemokines, liver disease, alcoholic liver disease

Chemokines - structure and function

Chemokines are a special type of cytokines that are signaling molecules of the immune system. Their unique role is to control cell migration. Considering their structure, they are small-molecule proteins (8-14 kD, 66-111 amino acids) [3], with a highly homologous structure containing 20-70% of the amino acid sequence [4]. Even the smallest changes in structure involve large changes in biological activity. Chemokines are encoded by 48 different genes. However, due to separate post-translational processing and other modifications, the final number of functionally different molecules created is much larger. [1]

Classification and nomenclature of chemokines and their receptors

Prior to the development of a uniform chemokine naming system, chemokines were mainly named after their first recognized function. Often new, much more important functions of the same molecules were discovered, making their original name obsolete. As already mentioned, these molecules are characterized by high stability and homologous structure. Therefore, despite their diversity, it has become possible to divide them into 4 main groups based on structure.

4 cysteines:

- CC group (first two cysteines next to each other, not separated by other amino acids)

- CXC group (first two cysteines separated by one amino acid)

- CX3C group (first two cysteines separated by three amino acids)

2 cysteines:

- Group C

There is an additional division in the CXC group that is related to the presence of an ELR fragment located between the N-terminus and the first cysteine residue. This fragment consists of three amino acids (Glu-Leu-Arg) and is responsible for interaction with CXCR1 and CXCR2 receptors present on neutrophils, which also determines the role of ELR-positive chemokines as chemotactic factors for neutrophils. In some simplification, it can also be assumed that ELR-positive CXC chemokines have proangiogenic properties, in contrast to most ELR-negative chemokines.

Division of the CC group into MIP and MPC

The current classification of chemokines and regulation of their nomenclature were established at the 1999 Keystone Symposium on Chemotactic Cytokines.

At the same time, the names of receptors for chemokines were systematized to be analogous to each other (the letter L stands for ligand, the letter R for receptor for a given chemokine, and the number indicates the order of discovery) [3].

The only exception to this rule is group C (containing only one cysteine), in which an X is given at the beginning of the ligand and receptor name, e.g. CX1L, CX1R. This difference is due to the need to distinguish the CR1 receptor for complement proteins from the previously named receptor.

Structure and function of receptors for chemokines

Receptors for chemokines show great structural similarity among themselves. The vast majority of them consist of a transmembrane 7-helix (a helix that crosses the cell membrane 7 times) - the so-called 7TM - this abbreviation can be found in worldwide nomenclature.

Each receptor has a unique ligand interaction profile. It can be specific for several or even a dozen chemokines, but always within a single group. At the same time, one chemokine can interact with several different receptors. [4] These mechanisms determine certain properties of chemokines, i.e. pleiotropism - one chemokine can exert different effects on individual cells via different receptors, and redundancy - the same effect on a cell can be obtained by different chemokines acting on the same receptor. These interactions are very complex, complicating the possibilities of therapeutic use of chemokines or blocking their receptors.

Based on current knowledge, these receptors can be divided into two main groups [5]:

- 1) Typical, G-protein-coupled
- 2) Atypical, acting through different mechanisms

G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) are linked to G protein through the endocytoplasmic portion of the second and third loops. [4] Atypical chemokine receptors (ACRs) are a heterogeneous group. Most of them have a standard structure like the other 7TMs, but lack signaling function or their signaling function is atypical (not involved in G-protein coupled transduction). This is usually due to the absence of the DRYLAIV sequence in the second loop of the helix, which deprives them of the ability to interact with the G protein. [Some of these receptors use their own alternative signal transduction pathways [6] [7], while others induce ligand internalization into the cell. [8]

Chemokine action profile and receptor expression

The aspect of action profile and receptor effectors of individual chemokines is closely related to the issue of expression of receptors for these molecules. The presence of particular receptors is closely related to the phenotype of immune cells.

To illustrate this situation, simplified relationships are shown in the following table [9],[10].

Type of effector cell	Receptor for
	chemokines
Neutrophils	CXCR1
	CXCR2
	CXCR4
Monocytes	CCR1
	CCR2
	CCR5
	CXCR4
Eosinophils	CCR1
	CCR3
Basophiles	CCR1
	CCR2
	CCR3
Th1 lymphocytes	CXCR3
	CCR5
Th2 lymphocytes	CCR3
	CCR4
B lymphocytes	CX3CR1
	CXCR5

The described mechanism allows for the mobilization of those cells that can contribute to the restoration of homeostasis at a given time. Moreover, the receptors for chemokines may be constitutive (permanently bound to a specific cell type) or inducible (released on the cell surface under the influence of specific stimulatory factors). Therefore, the division of their corresponding ligands into permanently produced homing chemokines and inflammatory chemokines can be distinguished [9]. The first type of chemokines is responsible for proper distribution and localization of individual immune cells during their maturation and subsequent relocation to organs, as in the process of hematopoiesis. The second type of chemokines is involved in the inflammatory response activated when homeostasis is disturbed or in certain physiological processes, but they are not produced continuously. Their secretion is triggered by various signaling molecules, including proinflammatory cytokines. [50].

The role of chemokines in liver disease

The role of inflammation in the pathogenesis of liver disease

Inflammation plays a key role in the development of many liver diseases, despite diverse etiologies and many predisposing factors. It is known that uncontrolled activation of the inflammatory process can lead to progression of many liver diseases [12].

An individual's inflammatory response profile, which may be indicated by levels of certain chemokines and other signaling molecules, may define the pathway for further progression of certain minor disorders to advanced fibrosis and HCC.

Among all liver cells, several types play a unique role in the context of damage and inflammatory processes. These include Kupffer cells, a particular type of hepatic macrophage, liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (LCEs), and local NK cells (natural killers).

The role of chemokines in initiating inflammatory processes in the liver - cell recruitment. The role of Kupffer cells

Kupffer cells are the largest population of organ-specific macrophages in the entire human body. They are located in the sinusoids of the liver and constitute the first line of response as part of the blood-gut barrier. In addition to their phagocytic role, they also have very important functions in innate immunity. Their activation is associated with the arrival of a signal - this signal are DAMP molecules or PAMPs (pathogen-associated molecular patterns PAMPs , danger-associated molecular patterns DAMPs - exogenous and endogenous activating factors), binding to receptors from the PRRs group (Multiple pathogen-recognition receptors), which include TLRs and NOD receptors. [49].

Kupffer cells have the ability to initiate a primary response to infectious and non-infectious damaging agents by promoting the production of cytokines (including the key TNF-alpha) via TLR receptors. The chemokines CXCL8 (IL-8), CXCL1 (KC), CXCL2 (MIP-2), CXCL3, CCL2, CCL3, and CCL4 produced by these cells call neutrophils and monocytes to the site of injury [13]. The chemokine CCL2 is actively involved in increasing the number of hepatic macrophages that derive directly from myeloid monocytes expressing the CCR2 receptor. [21].

Neutrophils are characterized by a strong cytotoxic effect. Their number must be particularly effectively controlled to prevent excessive inflammation in tissues [14]. Already in the initial phase of inflammation, excessive recruitment of these cells, also as a result of overexpression of the above-mentioned chemokines, can cause a lot of damage. Most neutrophil chemoattractants also play a role in stimulating the response of these cells, including enhancing oxidative stress [15].

In addition to the "calling" role itself, certain CXC chemokines are necessary for neutrophils recruited to sinusoidal vessels to internalize and pass from these vessels into the liver parenchyma. The recruitment and accumulation of neutrophils in liver sinusoidal vessels alone is not sufficient for them to cause damage [13]. The production of chemokines necessary to move cells out of the hepatic vasculature is involved not only in hepatic macrophages, but also in neutrophils already residing in the intercellular spaces of the liver. This demonstrates their sustaining role in this process [15]. Consequently, neutrophils generate intracellular oxidative stress, release proteases (e.g., cathepsin G and elastase) that lead to cell damage.

Neutrophil-dependent mechanisms play a central role in many types of liver injury, including alcoholic liver disease [16], endotoxemia [51], sepsis [19], ischemic injury and subsequent reperfusion [20].

Other cells that are involved in local defense mechanisms in the liver are NK cells. They are a subpopulation of lymphocytes, in the liver accounting for about 20-30% of the total residual leukocyte population.

NK cells are a very early response to inflammation. They appear in response to the chemokines CCL2, CCL5, CCL7, CCL8. [13]. CXCL16-CXCR6 axis-dependent accumulation of NK cells, associated with overexpression of these receptors, has been shown to be associated with an increased risk of developing chronic liver disease. Experimentally depriving mice of CXCR6 receptors had a protective effect on the development of organ fibrosis. [22].

As the disease process progresses, the initial role is played primarily by the recruited innate response cells described above. In subsequent stages, acquired response cells appear, which include CD8+ cytotoxic T cells, CD4+ helper T cells, and antibody-producing B cells. [21]. Helper T lymphocytes are further divided into subpopulations: Th1, Th2, the less numerous Th17, and regulatory T cells. This division is based on the profile of receptors present on the cells and the type of cytokines secreted, which implies functional differentiation [24].

Chemokines are also involved in the differentiation and recruitment of lymphocytes to the liver. This process is important because the balance between the type and subpopulation of T lymphocytes recruited to the area of inflammation is critical to the outcome of liver disease [23].

Dendritic cells present in the liver play an important role in lymphocyte differentiation. These phagocytic cells can originate from myeloid or plasma cells. Their main role is to recognize antigens through PPRs receptors and then transmit the information to peripheral lymphoid organs to stimulate T lymphocyte differentiation [13].

CXCR3 receptors are localized on T lymphocytes. The level of ligands for this receptor synthesized in the liver (CXCL9, CXCL10, CXCL11) has been shown to be responsible for enhancing Th1 responses. Production of these ligands is dependent on the presence of TNF-alpha and INF-gamma [23], which are released by numerous cells of the innate immune response, including Kupffer cells, other macrophages and infiltrating cells.

Role in inhibition of inflammation

In contrast to their huge role in enhancing inflammatory processes, some chemokines may also be involved in inhibiting or preventing inflammation. However, this role is less well known, having been demonstrated mainly for cytokines of the CXC group with an ELR motif.

In vivo, CXC ELR+ chemokines have already been shown to increase proliferation in many tissues, including liver cells [27], keratinocytes and epithelial cells.

Some of the CXC ELR+ chemokines show concentration-dependent effects: low concentrations are associated with repair and regenerative processes, high concentrations are hepatotoxic [25].

It has also been shown that ELR + CXC chemokines can improve liver regeneration under acute damage caused by paracetamol intoxication. [26]

Alcoholic liver disease

The immunological aspect of this disease is considered on many levels. The contribution of innate and acquired immunity is well known and fairly well understood. The involvement of individual cells, mechanisms and molecules has been known for many years. Chemokines are no exception. Interest in this topic has been ongoing since the publication shortly thereafter of two papers written in 1993 for the journal Hepatology, which demonstrated increased CXCL8 levels in patients with alcoholic liver disease [28] and alcoholic hepatitis[29]. A correlation was also found between the levels of this chemokine and the degree of neutrophilic infiltration of the organ [28]. Subsequent numerous studies have confirmed this correlation [30], [31], [32].

Subsequently, other multiple relationships between chemokine levels and expression of their receptors and the course of ALD were discovered. For example, comparing the expression of some CXC chemokines (CXCL8,CXCL5, CXCL1, CXCL6, CXCL10, CXCL4) and CCL2 in the liver and comparing it with a control group, increased secretion of these chemokines was found in ALD patients. The expression of CXC chemokines was associated with the degree of neutrophil infiltration and the risk of portal hypertension in patients. Moreover, higher expression of some of them (CXCL8, CXCL5, CXCL5, CXCL3, CXCL6) is associated with poor prognosis [33].

Among CC chemokines, elevated CCL2 levels in patient serum and its increased expression in the liver have been shown to correlate with disease severity, degree of neutrophil infiltration, and CXCL8 expression [34].

Also, hepatic CCL20 expression and serum levels were elevated in patients with alcoholic hepatitis and correlated with the degree of organ fibrosis, risk of portal hypertension, endotoxemia, overall disease severity and short-term mortality [35].

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)

This disease is the most common liver disorder in industrialized countries, affecting 20-30% of the population. The disease has a complex substrate consisting of genetic, metabolic and endocrine factors that modulate the immune response. Histologically, it encompasses a broad spectrum of lesions ranging from simple steatosis, steatohepatitis and cirrhosis to liver cancer [36]. When investigating the immunological basis of the disease, the chemokine CCL2, which is largely secreted by adipose tissue cells, was the first to be assigned an important role.

In obese mice, treatment with CCR2 receptor antagonists reduced macrophage accumulation in adipose tissue, improved insulin sensitivity, lowered body weight, and reduced fat accumulation in the liver [37]. This indicates a common role for CCL2 in the pathogenesis of both fatty liver disease and the metabolic changes leading to it - obesity and insulin resistance.

In humans, increased CCL2 expression has been shown in individuals with greater hepatic fat accumulation [38]. Serum CCL2 levels have also been shown to correlate with the degree of hepatic steatosis [39].

The chemokine CCL5 also plays a role in pathogenesis. Elevated expression of this chemokine has been shown in patients with simple steatosis and NASH. The role of this molecule in the development of liver fibrosis in this group of patients is also suspected, based in part on studies in which a CCL5 inhibitor effectively reduced the fibrotic process [40].

Viral hepatitis

This is one of the most thoroughly studied issues in terms of the involvement of chemokines, especially in hepatitis C. The number of publications and reports on this topic is so large that we give only brief mentions of the more important findings. For example, increased levels of CCR2 and its ligands (CCL2, CCL7, CCL8) have been demonstrated in HCV-infected liver tissue, which plays a role in cell recruitment to the site of infection [41]. Ligands for the CCR5 receptor (CCL3, CCL4, CCL5) are overexpressed, which has a role in Th1-type responses. [42]

Hepatic gene expression for CCL5 is increased in correlation with the severity of fibrosis and cirrhosis, inflammatory markers and liver damage in chronic HCV [43] and HBV infection [44].

Other chemokines shown to be involved in the pathogenesis of hepatotropic virus infection include CCL13-CCL16, CCL18-CCL21, CXCL8-CXCL13, CXCL16 [41].

Neoplastic liver tumors

The involvement of CXCL8 chemokine (IL-8) in the development of liver cancer has been repeatedly demonstrated, including the fact that serum CXCL8 levels have been shown to correlate with adverse prognosis in HCC patients [45] and with the degree of aggressiveness of the disease. A similar relationship has been observed for some other cancers, such as melanoma and renal cell carcinoma [46].

In HCC, increased tissue expression of CXCR4 is associated with risk of tissue metastasis and shorter survival [47]. The ligand for this receptor, CXCL12, and the entire CXCR4-CXCL12 axis have also been shown to play an important role in tumorigenesis, and blocking them with a synthetic antagonist is able to inhibit tumor cell migration and invasion [48].

Summary

The knowledge of chemokines is important because of their role in the pathogenesis of many diseases with diverse pathogenetic mechanisms. This allows for their potential use in diagnosis and therapy. Despite the discovery of many relationships between the concentrations of chemokines in various liver diseases, this topic seems to be still poorly studied and leaves much to be discovered.

References

[1] Ulvmar, M. H., Hub, E., & Rot, A. (2011). Atypical chemokine receptors. Experimental Cell Research, 317(5), 556-568.

[2] R. Thorpe et al, Chemokine/chemokine receptor nomenclature. (2003). Cytokine, 21(1), 48-49.

[3] Goldsmith A., Yoshie O., A New Classification Review System and Their Role in Immunity. Immunity: 2000, Vol. 12, 121-127.

[4] Mazur G., Jaskuła E., Kryczek I.: Participation of chemokines in neoplastic diseases Adv.Clin.Exp.Med. 2004 Vol.13 no.2; pp.315-325

[5] Murphy P.: Chemokines and chemokine receptors, Principles of the immune response, part one, chapter 10, 157-170

[6] Brzostowski, J. A., & Kimmel, A. R. (2001). Signaling at zero G: G-protein-independent functions for 7-TM receptors. Trends in Biochemical Sciences, 26(5), 291-297.

[7] Sun, Y., Huang, J., Xiang, Y., Bastepe, M., Jüppner, H., Kobilka, B. K., ... Huang, X.-Y. (2006). Dosage-dependent switch from G protein-coupled to G protein-independent signaling by a GPCR. The EMBO Journal, 26(1), 53-64.

[8] Nibbs, R., Graham, G., & Rot, A. (2003). Chemokines on the move: control by the chemokine "interceptors" Duffy blood group antigen and D6. Seminars in Immunology, 15(5), 287-294.

[9] Baggiolini, M. (2001). Chemokines in pathology and medicine. Journal of Internal Medicine, 250(2), 91-104.

[10] Henc I., Bryl E., Chemokines as important mediators of inflammation. Forum of Family Medicine 2013, vol. 7, no. 5, 251-262.

[11] Jaeschke, H., Farhood, A., & Smith, C. W. (1991). Neutrophil-induced liver cell injury in endotoxic shock is CD11b/CD18 dependent.

[12] Campo, J. A. D., Gallego, P., & Grande, L. (2018). The role of the inflammatory response in liver disease: Therapeutic strategies. World Journal of Hepatology, 10(1), 1-7.

[13] Liaskou, E., Wilson, D. V., & Oo, Y. H. (2012). Innate Immune Cells in Liver Inflammation. Mediators of Inflammation, 2012, 1-21. doi:10.1155/2012/949157

[14] Kennedy, A. D., & DeLeo, F. R. (2008). Neutrophil apoptosis and the resolution of infection. Immunologic Research, 43(1-3), 25-61.

[15] Jaeschke, H., & amp; Hasegawa, T. (2006) Role of neutrophils in acute inflammatory liver injury. Liver International, 26(8), 912-919

[16] Ziol, M., Tepper, M., Lohez, M., Arcangeli, G., Ganne, N., Christidis, C., ... Guettier, C. (2001). Clinical and biological relevance of hepatocyte apoptosis in alcoholic hepatitis. Journal of Hepatology, 34(2), 254-260. [17] Jaeschke, H. (2002). Neutrophil-mediated tissue injury in alcoholic hepatitis. Alcohol, 27(1), 23-27

[18] Jaeschke, H., Farhood, A., & amp; Smith, C. W. (1991). Neutrophil-induced liver cell injury in endotoxin shock is a CD11b/CD18-dependent mechanism. American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology, 261(6), G1051-G1056.

[19] Molnar RG, Wang P, Ayala A, Ganey PE, Roth RA, and Chaudry IH. The role of neutrophils in producing hepatocellular dysfunction during the hyperdynamic stage of sepsis in rats. J Surg Res 73:117-122, 1997.

[20] Jaeschke, H., Farhood, A., & amp; Smith, C. W. (1990). Neutrophils contribute to ischemia/reperfusion injury in rat liver in vivo. The FASEB Journal, 4(15), 3355-3359.

[21] Marra, F., & Tacke, F. (2014). Roles for Chemokines in Liver Disease. Gastroenterology, 147(3), 577-594.e1.

[22] Wehr, A., Baeck, C., Heymann, F., Niemietz, P. M., Hammerich, L., Martin, C., ... Tacke, F. (2013). Chemokine Receptor CXCR6-Dependent Hepatic NK T Cell Accumulation Promotes Inflammation and Liver Fibrosis. The Journal of Immunology, 190(10), 5226-5236.

[23] Oo, Y. H., Shetty, S., & Adams, D. H. (2010). The Role of Chemokines in the Recruitment of Lymphocytes to the Liver. Digestive Diseases, 28(1), 31-44.

[24] Hammerich, L., Heymann, F., & Tacke, F. (2011). Role of IL-17 and Th17 Cells in Liver Diseases. Clinical and Developmental Immunology, 2011, 1-12.

[25] Freeman, C. M., Wilson, G. C., Nojima, H., & Lentsch, A. B. (2015). Role of CXC Chemokines in Liver Repair and Regeneration. Liver Regeneration, 113-123.

[26] HOGABOAM, C. M., BONE-LARSON, C. L., STEINHAUSER, M. L., LUKACS, N. W., COLLETTI, L. M., SIMPSON, K. J., ... KUNKEL, S. L. (1999). Novel CXCR2-dependent liver regenerative qualities of ELR-containing CXC chemokines. The FASEB Journal, 13(12), 1565-1574.

[27] Colletti, L. M., Green, M., Burdick, M. D., Kunkel, S. L., & Strieter, R. M. (1998). PROLIFERATIVE EFFECTS OF CXC CHEMOKINES IN RAT HEPATOCYTES IN VITRO AND IN VIVO. Shock, 10(4), 248-257.

[28] Sheron, N., Bird, G., Koskinas, J., Portmann, B., Ceska, M., Lindley, I., & William, R. (1993). Circulating and tissue levels of the neutrophil chemotaxin interleukin-8 are elevated in severe acute alcoholic hepatitis, and tissue levels correlate with neutrophil infiltration. Hepatology, 18(1), 41-46

[29] Hill, D. L. B., Marsano, L. S., & McClain, C. J. (1993). Increased plasma interleukin-8 concentrations in alcoholic hepatitis. Hepatology, 18(3), 576-580.

[30] Maher, J. J. (1995). Rat hepatocytes and Kupffer cells interact to produce interleukin-8 (CINC) in the setting of ethanol. American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology, 269(4), G518-G523.

[31] Shiratori Y, Takada H, Hikiba Y, et al. Production of chemotactic factor, interleukin-8, from hepatocytes exposed to ethanol. Hepatology 1993;18:1477-1482

[32] Huang, Y.-S., Chan, C.-Y., Wu, J.-C., Pai, C.-H., Chao, Y., & Lee, S.-D. (1996). Serum levels of interleukin-8 in alcoholic liver disease: relationship with disease stage, biochemical parameters and survival. Journal of Hepatology, 24(4), 377-384.

[33] Dominguez, M., Miquel, R., Colmenero, J., Moreno, M., García-Pagán, J., Bosch, J., ... Bataller, R. (2009). Hepatic Expression of CXC Chemokines Predicts Portal Hypertension and Survival in Patients With Alcoholic Hepatitis. Gastroenterology, 136(5), 1639-1650.

[34] Degré, D., Lemmers, A., Gustot, T., Ouziel, R., Trépo, E., Demetter, P., ... Moreno, C. (2012). Hepatic expression of CCL2 in alcoholic liver disease is associated with disease severity and neutrophil infiltrates. Clinical & Experimental Immunology, 169(3), 302-310.

[35] Affò, S., Morales-Ibanez, O., Rodrigo-Torres, D., Altamirano, J., Blaya, D., Dapito, D. H., ... Sancho-Bru, P. (2014). CCL20 mediates lipopolysaccharide induced liver injury and is a potential driver of inflammation and fibrosis in alcoholic hepatitis. Gut, 63(11), 1782-1792

[36] Radwan, M. M., Radwan, B. M., Nandipati, K. C., Hunter, W. J., & Agrawal, D. K. (2013). Immunologic and molecular basis of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis. Expert Review of Clinical Immunology, 9(8), 727-738.

[37] Weisberg, S. P., Hunter, D., Huber, R., Lemieux, J., Slaymaker, S., Vaddi, K., ... Jr, A. W. F. (2006). CCR2 modulates inflammatory and metabolic effects of high-fat feeding. Journal of Clinical Investigation, 116(1), 115-124.

[38] Greco, D., Kotronen, A., Westerbacka, J., Puig, O., Arkkila, P., Kiviluoto, T., ... Yki-Järvinen, H. (2008). Gene expression in human NAFLD. American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology, 294(5), G1281-G1287.

[39] Haukeland JW, Damas JK, Konopski Z, Loberg EM, Haaland T, Goverud I, Torjesen PA, Birkeland K, Bjoro K, Aukrust P. Systemic inflammation in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease is characterized by elevated levels of CCL2. J Hepatol 44: 1167-1174, 2006.

[40] Li, B.-H., He, F.-P., Yang, X., Chen, Y.-W., & Fan, J.-G. (2017). Steatosis-induced CCL5 contributes to early-stage liver fibrosis in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease progression. Translational Research, 180, 103-117.e4.

[41] Fahey, S., Dempsey, E., & Long, A. (2013). The role of chemokines in acute and chronic hepatitis C infection. Cellular and Molecular Immunology, 11(1), 25-40.

[42] Katsounas A, Schlaak JF, Lempicki RA. CCL5: a double-edged sword in host defense against the hepatitis C virus. Int Rev Immunol 2011;30:366-378.

[43] Katsounas, A., Trippler, M., Wang, B., Polis, M., Lempicki, R. A., Kottilil, S., ... Schlaak, J. F. (2011). CCL5 mRNA is a marker for early fibrosis in chronic hepatitis C and is regulated by interferon- α therapy and toll-like receptor 3 signaling. Journal of Viral Hepatitis, 19(2), 128-137.

[44] Wei XQ, Wen ZF, Zheng FP, Yao JL. [Changes of RANTES levels in livers of patients with chronic hepatitis B: the clinical significance and the possible mechanisms]. Zhonghua Gan Zang Bing Za Zhi. 2007;15:585-588

[45] Ren Y, Poon RT-P, Tsui H-T, Chen W-H, Li Z, Lau C, et al. Interleukin-8 serum levels in patients with hepatocellular carcinoma: correlations with clinicopathological features and prognosis. Clin Cancer Res 2003;9:5996-6001

[46] Sanmamed, M. F., Carranza-Rua, O., Alfaro, C., Onate, C., Martin-Algarra, S., Perez, G., ... Melero, I. (2014). Serum Interleukin-8 Reflects Tumor Burden and Treatment Response across Malignancies of Multiple Tissue Origins. Clinical Cancer Research, 20(22), 5697-5707.

[47] Xiang, Z., Zeng, Z., Tang, Z., Fan, J., Zhuang, P., Liang, Y., ... He, J. (2009). Chemokine receptor CXCR4 expression in hepatocellular carcinoma patients increases the risk of bone metastases and poor survival. BMC Cancer, 9(1).

[48] Sutton, A., Friand, V., Brule-Donneger, S., Chaigneau, T., Ziol, M., Sainte-Catherine, O., ... Charnaux, N. (2007). Stromal Cell-Derived Factor-1/Chemokine (C-X-C Motif) Ligand 12 Stimulates Human Hepatoma Cell Growth, Migration, and Invasion. Molecular Cancer Research, 5(1), 21-33.

[49] Dixon, L. J., Barnes, M., Tang, H., Pritchard, M. T., & Nagy, L. E. (2013). Kupffer Cells in the Liver. Comprehensive Physiology.

[50] Bryniarski K., Immunology (2017)

[51] Gujral, J. S., Hinson, J. A., Farhood, A., & 11, H. (2004). NADPH oxidase-derived oxidant stress is critical for neutrophil cytotoxicity during endotoxemia. American Journal of Physiology-Gastrointestinal and Liver Physiology, 287(1), G243-G252.