Cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction: Distinctive features and clinical relevance

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Summary

The term cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction refers to the main syndromic abnormalities of immune function, immunodeficiency and systemic inflammation that are present in cirrhosis. The course of advanced cirrhosis, regardless of its aetiology, is complicated by cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction and this constitutes the pathophysiological hallmark of an increased susceptibility to bacterial infection, distinctive of the disease. Cirrhosis impairs the homeostatic role of the liver in the systemic immune response. Damage to the reticulo-endothelial system compromises the immune surveillance function of the organ and the reduced hepatic synthesis of proteins, involved in innate immunity and pattern recognition, hinders the bactericidal ability of phagocytic cells. Systemic inflammation, in form of activated circulating immune cells and increased serum levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, is the result of persistent episodic activation of circulating immune cells from damage-associated molecular patterns, released from necrotic liver cells and, as cirrhosis progresses, from pathogen-associated molecular patterns, released from the leaky gut. Cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction phenotypes switch from predominantly “pro-inflammatory” to predominantly “immunodeficient” in patients with stable ascitic cirrhosis and in patients with severely decompensated cirrhosis and extra-hepatic organ failure (e.g. acute-on-chronic liver failure), respectively. These cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction phenotypes represent the extremes of a spectrum of reversible dynamic events that take place during the course of cirrhosis. Systemic inflammation can affect the functions of tissue somatic cells and modify the clinical manifestation of cirrhosis. The best characterized example is the contribution of systemic inflammation to the haemodynamic derangement of cirrhosis, which correlates negatively with prognosis.

Introduction

The immune system plays a dual role in the pathogenesis of cirrhosis such that, besides the role of immune-mediated inflammatory mechanisms, cirrhosis itself also leads to immune system dysfunction. The immune system mediates hepatocyte damage due to alcohol, virus infection or autoimmunity, driving fibrogenesis through hepatic stellate cell activation. In addition, cirrhosis leads to impairment of the immune system with an inability to protect the host from bacterial infection and dysregulated immune cell activation.

This paper reviews the myriad of dynamic detrimental effects that cirrhosis has on the immune system that we have designated cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction (CAID). This concept includes two main syndromic alterations: (i) immunodeficiency, due to an impaired response to pathogens at different levels of the immune system, and (ii) systemic inflammation, as a consequence of persistent and inadequate stimulation of cells of the immune system (Fig. 1). CAID should be considered a complication of cirrhosis of any aetiology. It accounts for many distinctive features of cirrhosis such as a predisposition to bacterial infection and a poor response to vaccination [1–3]. It may also play an important role in endothelial activation and the haemodynamic disturbance of cirrhosis and contributes to other clinical manifestations, such as asthenia.

Contribution of the liver to the systemic homeostasis of the immune system

The liver regulates homeostasis of the immune system through two mechanisms. First, it plays a role in immune surveillance, defending against blood-borne pathogens via its double blood
supply, thereby avoiding the systemic spread of microbial and dietary antigens arriving from the gut [4]. This function of the liver is offset by the local immune tolerance to non-pathogenic exogenous material [5]. The second mechanism, used by the liver to drive homeostasis of the immune system, is the synthesis of soluble molecules that are essential for an effective immune response [6].

**Immune surveillance: Role of the liver**

The liver exerts its antimicrobial surveillance function through different populations of resident antigen presenting cells and lymphocytes. These are organized in a manner specifically designed to maximize screening for both systemic and gut-derived pathogens. The liver antigen presenting cells include Kupffer and sinusoidal endothelial cells, which comprise the reticulo-endothelial system of the liver, and dendritic cells. Kupffer cells reside within the sinusoidal vascular space and represent the largest group of fixed macrophages in the body, and sinusoidal endothelial cells form a sieve-like, fenestrated endothelium. Unlike macrophage populations of other organs, Kupffer cells occur on the intraluminal side of the vasculature and can capture bacteria under flow conditions. Kupffer cells are specialized to eliminate insoluble waste by phagocytosis through a variety of receptors. As such, Kupffer cells are endowed with unique complement receptors that can bind avidly to complement component 3b (C3b) under shear conditions [7]. Sinusoidal endothelial cells are responsible for the elimination of soluble macromolecules and colloidal waste by endocytosis. Kupffer and sinusoidal endothelial cells are also antigen presenting cells, constitutively expressing MHC class I and II and co-stimulatory receptors in addition to molecules that promote antigen uptake, including mannose and scavenger receptors [8,9]. Despite Kupffer cells being critical for microbial capture, their role in microbial killing seems to be dependent on the nature of the pathogen and on the recruitment of additional immune cells to the liver [10]. The liver also contains several populations of dendritic cells, which characteristically have a reduced capacity to drive the activation of T cells, in part due to both, their “immature” development status, and to the local cytokine milieu of the liver, including high interleukin (IL)-10 and low IL-12 levels [11].

Additionally, the liver contains populations of both resident and transiting T and B lymphocytes scattered throughout the parenchyma and the portal tracts that are important in the defensive adaptive immune response. Further, the liver is enriched in natural killer (NK) cells and unconventional lymphocytes (natural killer T and γδ T cells), which have roles in innate immune responses of the liver.

Besides conferring strong local innate immunity, the liver is a major site of induction of local and systemic adaptive immune responses, mediated by T lymphocytes, playing a critical role in the homeostatic regulation of the immune system. The delicate balance between immunity and tolerance, observed in the liver, is driven by several mechanisms. In the specific antigen challenging micro-environment of the liver, tolerance is maintained through: (i) the direct access of naïve CD8+ T cells to antigen presenting cells in the absence of CD4+ T cell activation [12], (ii) the constitutively low abundance of MHC expression by liver-resident cells [13], and (iii) high IL-10 production by Kupffer and sinusoidal endothelial cells [14]. All these mechanisms promote the non-activation and/or apoptosis of CD4+ T lymphocytes. Further, the expression of adhesion molecules facilitates the sequestering of circulating activated T cells, particularly CD8+ T cells, by the liver endothelium [4].

**Relevance of the liver in the systemic immune response**

The liver, primarily through its hepatocytes, is a major source of proteins involved in innate and adaptive immune responses, including complement components and many secreted pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs) [15]. Complement proteins play roles in the regulation and effector stage of the immune response, and their activation gives rise to a wide range of opsonic, inflammatory and cytotoxic activities. The liver is also the main source of soluble PRRs (e.g. C reactive protein, lipopolysaccharide [LPS]-binding protein [LBP], peptidoglycan-recognition protein, soluble CD14), which activate complement, induce opsonization and regulate immune cell function [16,17]. The liver also produces other acute phase proteins, such as hepcidin, fibrinogen and proteinase inhibitors, which participate in the innate immune response and in controlling tissue damage and repair during inflammation. Hepatocytes synthesize and secrete most of these proteins in response to different pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g. TNFα, IL-6), generated in the course of a systemic inflammatory responses.
In addition, liver cells express different membrane-bound or cytoplasmic PRRs, which recognize different bacterial and viral molecules. These include cell surface and endosomal toll-like receptors (TLRs), cytoplasmic nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain (NOD)-like receptors (NLRs), and RNA helicases. Interactions of these PRRs with their ligands in immune cells cause regulatory signals and activation, which in the specific case of bacterial products promotes NF-κB activation. The constitutive expression and low-level stimulation of these molecular systems is characteristic of the liver [18]. Specifically, TLR4 is expressed on all types of liver cells and is likely involved in the uptake and clearance of endotoxins, and the production of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines.

**Cirrhosis-induced immunodeficiency**

Cirrhosis is associated with several abnormalities in innate and adaptive components of the immune system’s response to microbial challenge, leading to a state of acquired immunodeficiency (Fig. 2).

**Fig. 1. Cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction.** Under bacterial challenge, in a healthy individual, antigen recognition (in red) and immune cell activation (in green) are tightly coordinated to mount an effective immune response against the pathogen. Cirrhosis progression from compensated to decompensated and then to further decompensated disease, i.e. acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF), is associated with mechanisms of mainly hepatic insufficiency and PAMPs- and DAMPs-driven stimulation. These mechanisms impair the regulatory and the effector immune response. In compensated cirrhosis, still in the absence of gut bacterial translocation, DAMPs released from necrotic hepatocytes may initiate activation of the immune system and sterile systemic inflammation (continuous green line). At the decompensated stage, the persistent episodic translocation of bacterial products, e.g. endotoxin, drives further the activation of the immune system, involving increased serum levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines and augmented surface expression of activation antigens on immune cells. The predominantly “pro-inflammatory” CAID phenotype occurs in response to continuous PAMPs signalling and downregulation of anti-inflammatory cytokines and negative feedback mechanisms (e.g. IL-10, IRAK-M, GSK3β) (dotted green line). In addition, progressive immunodeficiency occurs in “stable” decompensated cirrhosis, as a result of different mechanisms, including loss of the liver immune surveillance function, and impaired immune cell functions, such as phagocytosis ability (red line). At the terminal stage of cirrhosis, under persistent PAMPs pressure, the immune response is exhausted and the CAID phenotype switches to a predominantly “immunodeficient” phenotype of impaired innate and adaptive protective immune responses.

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**Predominant CAID phenotypes**

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<tr>
<th>Immune characteristic</th>
<th>Pro-inflammatory</th>
<th>Immunodeficient</th>
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<tr>
<td>Pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g., TNF-α, IL-6, IL-1β)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anti-inflammatory cytokines (e.g., IL-10, TGFβ)</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>↑↑</td>
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<td>Phagocytosis (e.g., dendritic cells)</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>↓</td>
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<td>HLA-DR/co-stimulatory molecules expression on monocytes/macrophages</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>↓</td>
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<td>Expression of negative regulators (e.g., IRAK-M)</td>
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**Damage to the liver’s immune surveillance function**

The immune surveillance function of the liver is compromised by a reticulo-endothelial system, damaged by sinusoidal fibrosis and capillarization, septal fibrosis with portal-systemic shunts, and Kupffer cell loss or damage [4]. This structural derangement reduces the clearance of endotoxin and bacteria from the blood, leading to bacteremia, metastatic organ infection, and persistent immune system stimulation. A lack of Kupffer cells or of their complement receptors results in uncontrolled bacteremia and increased host death in experimental models [19]. In agreement with these experimental findings, diminished reticulo-endothelial system function in cirrhosis has been associated with a greater risk of bacterial infection and lower survival [20].

Cirrhosis impairs the synthesis of innate immunity proteins and of PRRs, reducing the bactericidal capacity of phagocytic cells. Given the large functional reserve of the liver, lowered serum levels of these proteins are only evident in patients with advanced cirrhosis and ascites. Indeed, ascites due to cirrhosis increases the susceptibility to bacterial infection. This has been related to low opsonic activity as a result of reduced concentrations of C3,
C4 and CH50 in the serum and ascitic fluid [21,22]. The defensive relevance of PRRs synthesized by the liver is also highlighted by the fact that cirrhotic patients with a gene polymorphism, conferring them low serum levels of the recognition molecule mannose-binding lectin, or transplant recipients of a liver with this polymorphism, show an increased risk of bacterial infection [23,24].

Circulating immune cell damage

Besides modifying the local immune surveillance function of the liver and PRR synthesis, cirrhosis also compromises immune cell functions at the systemic level. Characterizing immunodeficiency, associated with cirrhosis, requires the systematic study of the main circulating populations of immune cells. The abnormalities in these populations described so far are:

1. Neutrophils. Besides being reduced in number due to sequestration by the spleen, the most commonly reported defect is the impaired phagocytosis of opsonized bacteria [25–28]. Accordingly, these cells show defective superoxide anion O2 production and myeloperoxidase activity and a lower response to the peptidoglycan recognition protein [25,29,30], which impairs their microbicidal capacity. These defects seem to be the result of intracellular signalling alterations, including impaired phosphorylation of a major NADPH oxidase 2 component, p47-phox (S345), by mitogen-activated protein kinases or defective phosphatidylinositol specific phospholipase C [29,30]. Neutrophils also show impaired chemotaxis to the infection focus, through...
regardless of the aetiology but not of the severity of cirrhosis, these monocytes with limited phagocytic activity is observed of the T cell activation in cirrhosis, as further discussed below. Remarkably, circulating monocytes are products that results from a leaky gut and an elevated enteric bacterial translocation and the increased passage of bacterial products that results from a leaky gut and an elevated enteric bacterial load. The consequence of this persistent stimulation is an increased number of activated monocytes, dendritic cells and T lymphocytes at the intestine and MLN [50–53]. In turn, these activated cells cause the augmented expression of pro-/anti-inflammatory cytokines at the lamina propria, mucosal epithelium and MLN, as well as increased phagocytosis by intestinal dendritic cells [50–52]. Bowel decontamination with non-absorbable antibiotics reduces the number of activated immune cells in the intestinal lamina propria and MLN [50–53]. This supports the pathogenetic role of enteric bacteria in intestinal inflammation.

The first major consequence of intestinal and MLN inflammation in cirrhosis is systemic inflammation. As described later, as cirrhosis progresses, the gut becomes a major source of activated immune cells and pro-inflammatory cytokines, promoting and maintaining a systemic inflammation [34,50]. In addition, this intestinal inflammation might perpetuate intestinal barrier failure. It is tempting to speculate that the increased pro-inflammatory cytokine production (e.g. TNFα, IFNγ, IL-6) by intestinal immune cells disrupts epithelial tight-junctions and favours further increased translocation of bacteria and bacterial products, creating a vicious circle. Indeed, a recent study has correlated increased activated macrophages in the duodenal lamina propria, augmented intestinal permeability, and altered intestinal tight-junction protein expression in patients with decompensated cirrhosis [54]. Besides intestinal immune cell damage, the findings of several experimental models of chronic liver damage point to deficiencies in the production of intestinal antimicrobial peptides, such as α-defensins and RegIII proteins. These peptides are needed to maintain microbiota-host homeostasis, and their deficiency could induce intestinal dysbiosis and bacterial translocation [55,56].

Cirrhosis-induced systemic inflammation

A distinctive feature of CAID in cirrhosis is the dynamic coexistence of acquired immunodeficiency and systemic inflammation. The latter results from the persistent stimulation of immune cells and is defined by increased production and enhanced serum levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines and the upregulated expression of cell activation markers.

Evidence of systemic inflammation

As shown in Table 1, the in vivo activation of circulating immune cells in cirrhosis is supported by the presence of: (i) neutrophils, showing an increased respiratory burst and enhanced expression of CD11b [27,31]; (ii) monocytes, featuring the enhanced surface expression of HLA-DR and activation/co-stimulatory molecules CD80 and CD86, as well as the upregulation of pathways and the increased production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g. TNFα, IL-6) [34,50,52,57,58], (iii) T lymphocytes, showing an increased surface expression of activation antigens that are polarized to augmented IFNγ, TNFα, and IL-17 production [34,50,59,60], and (iv) B lymphocytes, showing an upregulation of the activation/co-stimulatory markers, HLA-DR and CD86, and an increased responsiveness to cytokines and hypergloulinemia [61,62].

Activated circulating immune cells eventually become major contributors to increased serum concentrations of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNFα, TNFα soluble receptors I and II, IL-1β, IL-6 and IFNγ, IL-17, as well as ICAM-1 and VCAM-1, present in experimental and human cirrhosis.
and the TNF observed between serum levels of this critical effector cytokine [34,50,59–81]. Specifically, monocytes are a major source of driving the adaptive immune response (Table 1). Further consequences of the PRRs’ mediated immune cell activation responses include, with not limited to, enhanced phagocytic activity [27], vascular endothelial injury [34,69,70,76,79,80,88,89,92], synthesis of acute phase proteins by the liver [34,63,64–71,76,77,80], chemotaxis of leukocytes to the sites of inflammation, mainly the liver, and activation of leukocytes at the systemic level. The expression of PRRs, such as TLRs or NLRs, is distinctively upregulated on cells of the innate immune system in cirrhosis with ascites [27,93,94].

The increased translocation rate of enteric bacteria and/or their products is also a distinctive feature of advanced cirrhosis [95–97], arising from the breakdown of three interrelated levels of defence that constitute the intestinal barrier. Specifically, cirrhosis leads to increased intestinal permeability, due to compromised epithelial integrity, intestinal bacterial overgrowth and dysbiosis, caused by disruption of host microbiota homeostasis and intestinal and general immune defence impairment [97,98]. Concurrent damage to these three levels of defence explains the referred high rate of translocation of live bacteria and PAMPs from the gut that occurs in advanced human and experimental cirrhosis [34].

The contribution of enteric bacteria and PAMPs to the pathogenesis of immune cell activation and the inflammatory state of cirrhosis is supported by several findings: (i) the degree of expansion of activated monocytes, activated Th cells and memory B cells in the peripheral blood can be correlated with the presence of surrogate markers of bacterial translocation, such as increased LBP or sCD14 in the serum of patients with cirrhosis and ascites [34,39,84]. Similarly, the critical role of bacterial translocation, driving immune cell activation and inflammatory responses in cirrhosis, is supported by the correlation between bacterial growth in the MLN and the pro-inflammatory phenotype of circulating monocytes and T lymphocytes in cirrhotic rats with ascites [50]. In addition, elegant ex vivo experiments of TLR2 and TLR4 blockade or endotoxin removal abrogated B cell activation and neutrophil phagocytic dysfunction of cells from healthy donors, induced by plasma from patients with cirrhosis, respectively [27,99]. (ii) The expansion of B lymphocytes is restricted to clones that are responding to pathogens, as identified by the preferential increase of antibodies against Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Galα1-3Galβ1-3GlcNAc, a glycan epitope found in the bacterial cell wall galactosamine, or complex gut bacterial protein lysates [99–102]. And finally, (iii) The suppression of enteric aerobic bacterial load and gut bacterial translocation by intestinal decontamination with antibiotics normalizes the expansion of circulating activated immune cells and attenuates the pro-inflammatory cytokine production in MLN and blood in experimental models and in patients with cirrhosis and ascites [34,50,84].

Table 1. Evidences supporting persistent systemic inflammation in cirrhosis.

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<th>Finding</th>
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<tr>
<td>Neutrophils with increased respiratory burst</td>
<td>[27]</td>
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<td>Increased expression of surface antigens of activation/co-stimulation on circulating immune system cells (i.e., CD11b on neutrophils, HLA-DR or CD80/86 on antigen presentation cells, CD134 on T cells, loss of CD62L or of CD45RC on T cells)</td>
<td>[31,34,50-53]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Increased production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNFα, IFNy, IL-17) by circulating immune system cells (monocytes, T cells, B cells)</td>
<td>[34,50,59-61,66]</td>
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<td>Increased serum levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNFα, IL-1β, IL-6, IL-17, IL-18, IFNy) or receptors (sTNFRI, IL1sRI, IL1Ra, sCD14, Fas-R)</td>
<td>[34,50,59,63-81]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Increased serum levels of acute phase reactants (LBP, CRP)</td>
<td>[34,63,64,69–71,76,77,80]</td>
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<tr>
<td>Increased serum levels of molecules of endothelial activation (ICAM-1, VCAM-1, VEGF, nitrates/nitrites)</td>
<td>[34,69,70,76,79,80,88,89]</td>
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Aetipathogenesis of systemic inflammation

In advanced cirrhosis, the immune response leading to systemic inflammation is initiated when bacteria from the intestinal lumen reach the internal milieu (i.e. gut bacterial translocation). Pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) from enteric bacterial organisms and/or damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), originating from the host tissue upon injury, recognize PRRs, expressed on innate immune cells. Notably, not only live bacteria, but also the episodic, persistent inflow of PAMPs (including LPS, lipopeptides, glycopolymers, flagellin and bacterial DNA) into the hepatosplanchnic circulation contributes to the systemic inflammatory response [84,88–91] (Fig. 3). Immune recognition of bacteria and PAMPs in cirrhosis takes place both locally in the GALT and MLN and in the peripheral blood [50,52,92]. Furthermore, immune cells already activated in the GALT and MLN may enter the peripheral blood and spread the inflammatory response systemically [50,52].

Upon interaction, PRRs trigger a transcriptional response leading to gene expression and to the synthesis of a broad range of molecules, including numerous pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, cell adhesion molecules, and immunoreceptors that induce a panoply of cellular- and counter-responses, driving the adaptive immune response (Table 1). Further consequences of the PRRs’ mediated immune cell activation responses include, but are not limited to, enhanced phagocytic activity [27],
DAMPs and sterile particulates, released from necrotic hepatocytes, might also contribute to elicit an inflammatory response in cirrhosis [103]. Sterile inflammation, induced by DAMPs, is evident in the acute hepatic injury by acetaminophen, during ischemia/reperfusion, and in the low-chronic hepatic injury by alcoholic and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis [104–106]. Due to the size of the liver and the extent of its damage in cirrhosis, it is tempting to speculate that a significant amount of DAMPs from necrotic hepatocytes could spill to the circulation in cirrhosis of any aetiology and contribute to immune cell activation (Fig. 3).

Indeed, systemic inflammation is already present, albeit at a lower grade, in the pre-ascitic stage of human and experimental cirrhosis, when bacterial translocation is not yet critical [52,71,84]. In this regard, the hepatic lymph nodes, and not the gut, are the main source of activated circulating immune cells in rats with pre-ascitic cirrhosis, as shown by correlates between their frequencies in hepatic lymph nodes and peripheral blood [52].

As in other inflammatory conditions, genetic polymorphisms of cytokines and innate immunity pathways may lead to varying immune responses and bacterial infection susceptibilities in cirrhosis. Well-established correlates between intestinal and systemic immune responses and bacterial infections in cirrhosis have been demonstrated through variations in the genes coding for PRRs. Specifically, NOD2 and TLR2 variants impair innate host defence mechanisms, leading to increased SBP susceptibility and mortality in cirrhosis [107–111].

### Dynamic pattern of the CAID phenotypes

The response of the immune system to antigens and/or activation signals is characterized by a dynamic pattern of cellular activation and differentiation, as well as amounts and types of cytokine and antibody secretion. Temporal variations exist in the internal mechanism of immune response regulation that are also modulated by environmental and activation challenge features. A well-known mechanism that is triggered to regulate the pro-inflammatory environment is endotoxin tolerance, whereby monocytes, persistently exposed to low endotoxin concentrations, enter into a transient state of unresponsiveness to further endotoxin challenge [112].

The dynamic immune response pattern is clearly manifested in CAID. Indeed, the immune disturbance of cirrhosis varies according to disease stage (compensated, decompensated, acute-on-chronic liver failure [ACLF]), the extent of liver injury, and the presence of environmental stimulation, induced by signalling from persistent episodic bacterial translocation.

The immune system in patients and experimental models of “stable” decompensated cirrhosis faces the frequent challenge of different types and intensities of PAMPs originated in the gut (Figs. 1 and 3). In this setting, the immune system exhibits a predominantly “pro-inflammatory” phenotype, with increased expression of activation antigens on immune cells, and augmented production and increased serum levels of pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines. This unrestricted pro-inflammatory...
Review

phenotype is present in spite of persistent immune cell stimulation, indicating that “endotoxin tolerance” is a late event in the natural history of cirrhosis (Fig. 2). Potential explanations for this CAID phenotype could be (i) defective production of the anti-inflammatory cytokine, IL-10 [75], (ii) the non-induction of negative feedback loops after TLR4 stimulation, such as IRAK-M [57] or the constitutively active glycogen synthase kinase GSK3β [113] in response to LPS, and (iii) reduced plasma high-density lipoprotein levels and abolition of LPS downregulation of the scavenger-receptor SR-B1 in monocytes of patients with advanced cirrhosis, since high-density lipoproteins are able to bind and neutralize the bioactivity of LPS [114].

Finally, several lines of evidence indicate that immune response reprogramming occurs at the further decompensated stage of cirrhosis, after persistent LPS-driven stimulation. In the experimental setting, intestinal dendritic cells in rats with cirrhosis, ascites and intense gut bacterial translocation, thus subjected to high intestinal bacterial pressure, show decreased phagocytosis and TNFα production compared with rats without bacterial translocation, in which phagocytosis is clearly augmented [50]. In this model, bowel decontamination eliminates the bacterial stimulus and partially normalizes intestinal dendritic cell functions. This behaviour of dendritic cells could in part explain the fact that bowel decontamination in cirrhosis improves survival beyond mere infectious prophylaxis [115]. In the clinical setting, severe immune response reprogramming is maximally detectable at the very late stage of cirrhosis, i.e. in patients with acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF), who develop a state of immune paralysis that resembles that found in sepsis. This CAID phenotype is defined by defective HLA-DR monocyte expression, the inability of monocytes to produce TNFα in response to LPS, reduced T lymphocyte IFNγ production, and massive release of inflammatory and anti-inflammatory (e.g. IL-10) cytokines [116–119]. Importantly, this CAID phenotype, associated with defective HLA-DR monocyte expression, correlates with increased mortality, mostly owing to bacterial infection [116–118]. Thus, contrary to patients with “stable” decompensated cirrhosis, ACLF patients exhibit a predominantly “immunodeficient” CAID phenotype.

In summary, under persistent PAMPs challenge, the immune response pattern switches from a predominantly “pro-inflammatory” to a predominantly “immunodeficient” phenotype. CAID phenotypes represent the extremes of a spectrum of reversible dynamic events that take place during the course of cirrhosis, though the trend is that immunodeficiency predominates as the disease reaches its final stages.

Role of systemic inflammation in the clinical expression of cirrhosis

Immunodeficiency, coupled to systemic inflammation in CAID, is the pathophysiologic basis for several of the clinical manifestations of cirrhosis. The clinical spectrum of CAID in cirrhosis spans from a poor response to the bacterial challenge, with increased susceptibility to bacterial infection accompanied by high mortality, to multi-organ inflammatory damage. The clinical expression of bacteria-dependent events during cirrhosis includes both chronic systemic and organ-specific damage and intercurrent acute insults (i.e. acute-on-chronic) [120,121]. It has been demonstrated that the greater the intensity of the cellular and molecular CAID, the greater the risk of severe bacterial infection [84,122,123]. Specifically, the risk of bacterial infection is greater in patients with cirrhosis and ascites who show augmented serum level of molecules synthetized upon interaction of bacteria with the host immune system, such as LBP or IgA class anti-neutrophil cytoplasmic antibodies [122,123]. Further, the levels of some soluble immune mediators, such as TNFR-I and the adhesion molecule ICAM-1, are related to poor survival of patients with cirrhosis [76,78,81]. Another manifestation of CAID is also the non-protective response to vaccination [2,3,124].

The relevance of the systemic inflammation, distinctive of CAID, stems from the fact that circulating activated immune cells can be recruited by peripheral tissues and/or can produce soluble factors, such as pro-inflammatory cytokines. Via these mechanisms, inflammatory immune cells may damage somatic cells and contribute to the clinical expression of cirrhosis.

A well-characterized example of the consequence of systemic inflammation in the clinical expression of cirrhosis is the capacity of high pro-inflammatory cytokine levels to modulate the vascular tone. These pro-inflammatory cytokines worsen splanchic and systemic vasodilatation through nitric oxide overproduction [125]. Indeed, the severity of splanchic and peripheral vasodilatation is greater in patients and in experimental models of severe cirrhosis, associated with ascites and bacterial translocation, showing the most severe systemic inflammation [68,84,126]. The contribution of enteric bacteria-induced CAID to the haemodynamic derangement of cirrhosis is further supported by studies showing that selective bowel decontamination reduces nitric oxide and plasma renin activity, and improves peripheral vasodilatation in patients with cirrhosis, ascites and high serum LBP levels, and attenuates endothelial activation and expression of inflammatory cytokines in the aorta of rats with biliary cirrhosis [84,92,127].

Besides, direct signalling in the brain by pro-inflammatory cytokines or recruitment of activated immune cells into brain tissue, subsequently activates resident macrophages to produce TNFα, modifies cerebral function and contributes to the pathogenesis of encephalopathy and the fatigue distinctive of cirrhosis [128–130].

Systemic inflammation as well as PAMPs and DAMPs release may also compromise kidney function [131]. Increasing evidence indicates that inflammation-mediated microvascular dysfunction can reduce glomerular filtration rate, whereas the oxidative stress that results from the organized interaction between PAMPs/DAMPs and the tubular epithelial cell can hurt tubular function and cause acute kidney injury in patients with severe bacterial infection or even sepsis in the absence of overt signs of renal hypoperfusion [132,133]. We hypothesize that pro-inflammatory cytokines as well as PAMPs/DAMPs originated in the gut or other sites of injury (i.e. liver) can gain access to the renal tubules by glomerular filtration or by proximity to the peritubular capillaries, and elicit an inflammatory response when actively recognized by tubular epithelial cells through TLR-4, and ultimately contribute to episodes of acute kidney injury in cirrhosis.

Hypothesis

Cirrhosis-associated immune dysfunction is the result of two concurrent and interlinked processes, namely systemic inflammation and damage of the immune system response that come into play as cirrhosis progresses. In the compensated pre-ascitic
stage, DAMPs from stressed and damaged tissue, mainly necrotic hepatocytes, activate circulating immune cells. These activation signals add to those of the aetiologic agents of cirrhosis, such as alcohol or viruses. Cirrhosis progression distorts hepatic architecture and cellular organization and impairs its functional capacity. These events compromise the immune surveillance function of the liver, both locally by damaging the reticulo-endothelial system and systemically by impairing the bactericidal role of phagocytic cells through the reduced synthesis of proteins involved in the innate immune response and of PRRs. In the decompensated, ascitic stage of cirrhosis, gut bacterial translocation occurs at a high rate and PAMPs released from the leaky gut further activate the immune system and aggravate systemic inflammation. Immune response reprogramming occurs after constant PAMPs pressure and the predominantly “pro-inflammatory” CAID phenotype switch to the predominantly “immunodeficient” one of severely decompensated cirrhosis with extra-hepatic organ failure. CAID plays a critical pathogenic role in several clinical manifestations of cirrhosis, including bacterial infections, haemodynamic derangement, and organ inflammatory damage, and as such has emerged as a potential therapeutic target in cirrhosis. Identification and grading of CAID is challenging and could be pursued by measuring the activity of phagocytic, cytotoxic and regulatory immune cells, their activation/anergic and differentiation stage, and serum levels of circulating cytokines.

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Conflict of interest
The authors declared that they do not have anything to disclose regarding funding or conflict of interest with respect to this manuscript.

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Review


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