MINI-SYMPOSIUM: ROLE OF THE INFLAMMASOME IN BRAIN PATHOGENESIS: A POTENTIAL THERAPEUTIC TARGET?

What do we know about the inflammasome in humans?

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Abstract

The inflammasome complex is part of the innate immune system, which serves to protect the host against harm from pathogens and damaged cells. It is a term first proposed by Tschopp's group in 2002, with numerous original research articles and reviews published on the topic since. There have been many types of inflammasome identified, but all result in the common pathway of activation of caspases and interleukin 1β along with possible cell death called pyroptosis. Despite a growing body of research investigating the structure and function of the inflammasome in animal models, there is still limited evidence identifying inflammasome components in human physiology and disease. In this review, we explore the molecular structure and mechanism of activation of the inflammasome with a particular focus on inflammasome complexes expressed in humans. Inflammasome components have been identified in several human peripheral and brain tissues using both in vivo and ex vivo work, and the inflammasome complex has been shown to be associated with several genetic and acquired inflammatory and neoplastic disorders. We discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the information available on the inflammasome with an emphasis on the importance of prioritizing work on human tissue. There is a huge demand for more effective treatments for a number of inflammatory and neurodegenerative diseases. Modulation of the inflammasome has been proposed as a novel treatment for several of these diseases and there are currently clinical trials ongoing to test this theory.

INTRODUCTION

Inflammation is a protective immune response against pathogens and damaged host cells. The innate immune system must react rapidly and appropriately to harmful signals in order to eliminate threats whilst also preserving tissue function. The key step in this early inflammatory cascade is activation of the cytokine interleukin (IL) -1 β . IL1 β is an endogenous pyrogen, produced as a precursor protein (pro-IL1 β) and proteolytically processed to its active form by cysteine proteases, such as caspase 1. In 2002, Tschopp's group proposed for the first time that caspase 1 activates pro-IL1 β in a molecular complex termed the "inflammasome" (51).

THE INFLAMMASOME COMPLEX

The innate immune system senses pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), derived from infecting pathogens, and damageassociated molecular patterns (DAMPs), derived from damaged host cells and extracellular matrix, via sensor receptors called pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) (68). After sensing danger from PAMPs/DAMPs, specific PRRs will oligomerize and associate with an adaptor protein and a specific caspase, triggering caspase activation (68). Activation of the caspase then initiates the processing and maturation of proinflammatory cytokines $(IL1\beta$ and IL18) and/or inflammatory programmed cell death called pyroptosis. Therefore, the inflammasome is defined as an intracellular multimeric protein complex that contains (1) a sensor receptor (PRR), (2) an adaptor protein and (3) an effector enzyme (caspase), and catalyses a cellular reaction to protect against an immediate danger via cytokine secretion and cell death (68) (Figure 1). A variety of different harmful signals can activate a range of specific inflammasomes. Furthermore, specific inflammasomes can be divided into two groups based on the type of caspase involved: (1) the classical, canonical inflammasome that triggers activation of caspase 1 directly, and (2) and the non-canonical inflammasome, which uses other caspases to convey inflammation (Figure 1).

In this review, we will describe the concept embedded in the term "inflammasome." We will focus on evaluating current knowledge of this complex in humans, including molecular structure and associated genetics and disease processes.

MOLECULAR COMPONENTS OF THE INFLAMMASOME COMPLEXES

As stated above, the inflammasome encompasses a range of different molecular components. These will now be described in turn,

Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the inflammasome complex. (A) The different steps involved in inflammasome formation. Three main components of the inflammasome (sensor, adaptor and caspase) are shown in the yellow rectangle. Some PRRs, such as NLRP1, can bind caspase directly (large, curvy arrow), without need of the adaptor. (B)

with a specific focus on those found in humans. As the regulatory elements and activity of many genes of the immune system vary between mice and humans (43), it should come as no surprise that there are differences in the structural and biochemical elements of inflammasome complexes between the two species (Table 1).

PRR superfamily

Several families of PRRs exist and they can be divided into two groups, based on their cellular localization. Firstly, the transmembrane PRRs include toll-like receptors (TLRs) and C-type lectin (CTL) families. Secondly, the cytoplasmic PRRs include the nucleotide-binding and oligomerization domain (NOD)-like receptors (NLRs), retinoic acid inducible gene-I (RIG1)-like receptors (RLRs) and absent-in-melanoma (AIM)-like receptors (ALRs) (35). Recent studies have revealed that all PRRs may play a role in either the assembly or activation of inflammasome complexes (47).

NLR family

To date, 22 NLRs have been identified in humans (12, 35). The common structure of NLRs consists of a variable N-terminal effector domain (which exerts its function by interacting with other proteins), a central NACHT domain (which has dNTPase activity and mediates self-oligomerization) and a C-terminal LRR region (which plays a role in ligand binding or activator sensing). Four different N-terminal effector domains are used to classify NLRs into four respective subfamilies: (1) the acidic activation domain (NLRA subfamily: MHC class II transcription activator—CIITA); (2) the baculoviral inhibitory repeat(BIR)-like domain (NLRB subfamily: neuronal apoptosis inhibitory protein—NAIP); (3) the caspase The members of PRR superfamily as part of the inflammasome complex: directly (canonical) or indirectly (non-canonical). (C) The inflammasome pathways: canonical directly initiates caspase 1 activation, and non-canonical uses other caspases to facilitate inflammation.

activation and recruitment (CARD) domain (NLRC subfamily: NLRC1 or NOD1, NLRC2 or NOD2, NLRC3-5, NLRX1) and (4) the pyrin domain (PYD) (NLRP: NLRP1-14).

NAIP (38, 81)/NLRC4 (48), NLRP1 (51), NLRP3 (29, 49, 53), NLRP6 (32), NLRP7 (33) and NLRP12 (75) have been identified as sensors involved in the formation of different inflammasomes (Figure 1). Most NLRs recognize various ligands including microbial pathogens (eg, PAMPs derived from bacteria, viruses, fungi and protozoa), self-derived DAMPs from host cells (eg, ATP, cholesterol crystals, monosodium urate/calcium pyrophosphate dehydrate crystals, and amyloid- β) and environmental sources (eg, alum, asbestos, silica) (35).

Pyrin

Pyrin is a product of the MEFV gene. Human pyrin features an Nterminal PYD, two B-boxes, CCD and a C-terminal B30.2 domain (Table 1). B30.2 is specific to humans and a target of many mutations, including one that causes Familial Mediterranean fever, which is discussed later. Assembly of the pyrin inflammasome can be triggered by bacteria (eg, Burkholderia Cenocepacia) or bacterial toxins (eg, Clostridium difficile toxin B and Clostridium botulinum C3 toxin) (5, 8). Pyrin can also act as a regulator of inflammasome signaling by targeting NLRP1, NLRP3 and caspase 1 for autophagic degradation (36).

ALR family

ALRs can also be referred to as pyrin and HIN domain-containing (PYHIN) receptors. The common structure of ALRs consists of an N-terminal effector domain pyrin (PYD), which initiates

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Table 1. The molecular and biochemical characteristics of pattern-recognition receptors, adaptor protein ASC and caspases in mice and humans.

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Notes: known inflammasome components are underlined; comments related to the mouse are in italic letters. Information has been collected from: (12) (NLRs), (5) (Pyrin), (10) (ALRs), (28)

(TLRs), (4) (CTLs), (45) (RLRs), (52) (ASC), (47) (caspases). a: activator; h: human; I: initiator; m: mouse.

inflammasome formation, and a C-terminal HIN domain, which plays a role in double-stranded (ds)DNA binding (Table 1) (10). There are four known ALRs in humans: IFI16, IFIX, MNDA and AIM2. AIM2 is a cytoplasmic sensor that recognizes dsDNA of microbial (such as intracellular bacteria Francisella tularensis and Listeria monocytogenes) or host origin (self-DNA). AIM2 can assemble an inflammasome (6, 14, 22, 64) (Figure 1), and dsDNA was proposed to provide an oligomerization template (24). Regarding IFI16, one study has shown that it may activate an inflammasome by promoting caspase 1 activation (73).

TLR, CTL, RLR families

There is increasing evidence to suggest that other PRRs may also play a role in the activation (TLRs and CTLs) or assembly (RLRs) of inflammasomes, and that these may also promote caspase activation and an inflammatory response (46, 47) (Figure 1).

ASC

Apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD (ASC), also known as a PYCARD, is an adaptor protein common to several inflammasomes. It is composed of two protein-protein interaction domains: N-terminal PYD and C-terminal CARD (Table 1). The PYD and CARD domains are members of the sixhelix bundle death domain-fold superfamily that facilitates assembly of multimolecular complexes in inflammatory and apoptotic signaling pathways via the activation of caspases (52).

Caspase family

Caspases are members of a cysteine-aspartic acid protease family. There are 12 caspases identified in humans and traditionally these are divided into two groups: inflammatory and apoptotic (47). Several inflammatory caspases (caspase 1, caspase 4 and caspase 5) participate in assembly and/or activation of the inflammasome. The apoptotic caspases initiate (caspase 2, caspase 8, caspase 9 and caspase 10) and execute (caspase 3, caspase 6 and caspase 7) an immunologically silent form of programmed cell death known as apoptosis. The common structure of caspase consists of a Cterminal protease domain (PD). In addition, some caspases may possess a prodomain (CARD or DED; Table 1). Recent findings, neatly described in a review by Man and Kanneganti (47), have revealed a complex and synergistic role for caspases in maintaining homeostasis in the innate immune system. While caspase 1 is a key inflammatory caspase that has the ability to activate cytokines $IL1\beta$ and IL18, or pyroptotic mediator gasdermin D, other caspases can also facilitate cytokine release and pyroptosis. For example, human caspase 4 and caspase 5, which are orthologues of mouse caspase 11, are activated following recognition of Gram-negative bacteria and may directly cleave gasdermin D to induce pyroptosis, and ultimately activate the NLRP3 inflammasome (2, 69). Caspase 8 can mediate both inflammation and apoptosis. Upon ligand recognition by TLRs, caspase 8 may initiate NF- κ B signaling and the transcription of genes encoding pro-IL1 β and pro-IL18 (9, 70). At the same time, caspase 8 can be recruited by the NAIP/NLRC4, NLRP3 and AIM2 inflammasomes and indirectly mediate maturation of IL1 β , IL18 or gasdermin D (47). Finally, caspase 8 may be involved in the formation of a non-canonical caspase 8 inflammasome that directly mediates processing of pro-IL1 β independently of caspase

1. Indeed, fungi (eg, Candida spp) and mycobacteria (eg, Mycobacterium leprae) can bind to the transmembrane receptor Dectin 1, a PRR from the CTL family, and initiate assembly of a caspase 8 inflammasome which is composed of CARD9, BCL10, MALT1, ASC and caspase 8 (17).

ACTIVATION PATHWAYS OF THE INFLAMMASOME

Canonical inflammasome pathways

When NLRs, ALRs or pyrin detect PAMPs and DAMPs, they recruit ASC via a homotypic pyrin–pyrin domain interaction. Subsequently, pro-caspase 1 binds ASC through CARD–CARD domains, which completes the formation and activation of the canonical inflammasome, and drives IL1b/IL18 secretion and pyroptosis (Figure 2). In addition, caspase 8 may play a role in caspase 1-dependent processing of IL1_B via direct binding to ASC in the NAIP/NLRC4, NLRP3 or AIM2 canonical inflammasome (47).

Non-canonical inflammasome pathways

To date, only two non-canonical inflammasomes have been described in the literature (47). Firstly, LPS from Gram-negative bacteria, directly or via TLR4, activates human caspase 4 and caspase 5, which in turn cleaves gasdermin D to mediate pyroptosis and activate the NLRP3 inflammasome resulting in caspase 1-dependent processing of IL1 β (2, 69) (Figure 2). Secondly, noncanonical caspase 8 inflammasome can be promoted by certain microbes via CTL receptors, mediating maturation of IL1 β in a caspase 1-independent manner (17) (Figure 2).

To summarize, all components involved in the different inflammasomes are present on the gene and/or protein levels in humans (Tables 1 and 2). However, there are structural and molecular differences in some inflammasome components between humans and mice (Table 1). The majority of inflammasome components play a role in humans, especially in the field of host defence and tumor progression, as revealed by looking at distinct genetic disorders (Table 3). A comprehensive understanding of how and where inflammasomes are formed in humans remains elusive. However, we may be able to gain clues by reviewing specific human disorders caused by dysregulation of inflammasome activation.

INFLAMMASOMOPATHIES

An inflammasomopathy is defined by the presence of autoinflammatory disease caused by disruption of inflammasome activity. The term "autoinflammatory" has become widely used in the last decade to describe a set of diseases that satisfy the definition above and are distinct from autoimmune conditions (30). Familial inflammasomopathies are rare genetic disorders of childhood onset that typically manifest with dysregulated $IL1\beta$ release, leading to either enhanced or diminished inflammation (Table 3). Gain or loss-offunction mutations in several inflammasome-related genes have been linked with enhanced inflammation. For example, autosomal dominant, gain-of-function mutations in the NLRP3/CIAS1 gene (21) encoding cryopyrin, have been shown to be responsible for three autoinflammatory disorders (30): familial cold-induced auto-

Figure 2. Schematic representation of the two pathways and components involved in inflammasome activation. (A) The canonical pathway. Upon inflammasome formation, caspase 1 (red) directly activates cytokines IL1B, IL18 and pyroptotic gasdermin D. (B) The non-canonical pathways. (i) LPS can activate caspase 4/5 (blue) directly (large, curvy arrow) or via the TLR4 receptor, leading to gasdermin D maturation and pyroptosis. Cleaved Gasdermin D may then activate the NLRP3 inflammasome. (ii) Various pathogen signals (PAMPs), via CTL receptor, may initiate formation of the caspase 8 inflammasome (green). The product of both non-canonical inflammasomes is $IL1\beta$.

Table 2. Inflammasome genes, proteins and brain locations in humans (from<http://www.proteinatlas.org>).

	Gene	Protein-tissue	Brain location	Cell location
NAIP	Many organs	Many organs	Neocortex	Neurons
NLRC4	Many organs	Many organs	Neocortex	Endothelial cells, neurons
NLRP1	Many organs	Many organs	Neocortex	Endothelial cells, neurons, neuropil
			Hippocampus	Neurons
NLRP3	Many organs	Many organs	Hippocampus	Neurons
NLRP6	Gastrointestinal (GI)	Brain and GI	Cortex and hippocampus	Neurons
NLRP7	Testis	No detection	No detection	No detection
NLRP12	Immune system	Many organs	Cortex and hippocampus	Neurons
Pyrin	Immune system	No detection	No detection	No detection
AIM ₂	Bone marrow	Many organs	Cortex	Endothelial cells, neurons, neuropil, glia
			Hippocampus	Neurons, glia
ASC	Many organs	Many organs	Hippocampus	Glia
Caspase 1	Many organs	Many organs	Cortex	Endothelial cells, glia, neurons
			Hippocampus	Neurons, glia
Caspase 4	Many organs	Many organs	Cortex	Endothelial cells, neurons, neuropil
			Hippocampus	Neurons
Caspase 5	A few organs	Many organs	Cortex	Neurons, glia
			Hippocampus	Neurons
Caspase 8	Many organs	Many organs	Cortex	Endothelial cells, neurons
			Hippocampus	Neurons
Pro-IL1 β	Many organs	No detection	No detection	No detection
Pro-IL18	Many organs	Many organs	No detection	No detection
Gasdermin D	Many organs	Many organs	Cortex	Neuropil

Table 3. Familial disorders linked to inflammasome components.

DI, diminished inflammation (immunodeficiency). Information has AD, autosomal dominant; AR, autosomal recessive; GoF, gain-of-function; LoF, loss-of-function; EI, enhanced inflammation; DI, diminished inflammation (immunodeficiency). Information has AD, autosomal dominant; AR, autosomal recessive; GoF, gain-of-function; LoF, loss-of-function; EI, enhanced inflammation; been gathered from OMIM (<http://www.omim.org>). been gathered from OMIM (http://www.omim.org)

inflammatory syndrome 1 (FCAS 1), Muckle–Wells syndrome (MWS) and neonatal onset multisystem inflammatory disorder (NOMID). These three disorders are commonly known as cryopyrinopathies or cryopyrin-associated periodic syndromes (CAPS) and often cause periodic fever, rashes, arthralgia and cold sensitivity (12). The most severe phenotype of the three disorders is NOMID, also known in Europe as chronic infantile neurological, cutaneous and articular syndrome (CINCA), which typically presents with near-continuous fever and chronic aseptic meningitis that can result in hearing loss and mental retardation (30). In addition, autosomal dominant, gain-of-function mutations in the NLRC4 gene, encoding NLRC4, have been associated with two diseases: autoinflammation with infantile enterocolitis [AIFEC $(7, 65)$] and familial coldinduced autoinflammatory syndrome 4 [FCAS 4 (37)]. Likewise, autosomal recessive gain-of function mutations in MEFV, the gene coding for pyrin (formerly known as marenostrin), can result in conditions called Familial Mediterranean fever [FMF (8, 55, 67)] and autoinflammation with neutrophilic dermatosis (54). Additionally, mutations in the NRLP1 gene, encoding NLRP1, have been linked to susceptibility to develop a condition called vitiligoassociated multiple autoimmune disease 1 (25). Lastly, autosomal dominant gain-of-function mutations in NLRP12, encoding NLRP12, have been associated with familial cold-induced autoinflammatory syndrome 2 [FCAS 2 (23)].

Conversely, some mutations in genes coding for other inflammasome proteins may have the potential to cause immunodeficiency disorders. For instance, an autosomal recessive loss-of-function mutation in the CASP8 gene leaves the caspase 8 protein enzymatically inactive and causes a disease termed Caspase 8 deficiency state (CEDS), which is also known as autoimmune lymphoproliferative syndrome IIB [ALPS IIB (9, 70)]. Also, a loss-of-function mutation in the CLEC7A gene, encoding the Dectin 1 receptor, is responsible for chronic mucocutaneous candidiasis [candidiasis familial 4, CANDF4 (15)]. Finally, recurrent hydatidiform mole has been linked to numerous autosomal recessive loss-of-function mutations in the NRLP7 gene, encoding NLRP7, which plays role in imprinting of embryonic maternal genes as well as in negative regulation of IL1 β signaling (57).

Therapeutic interventions have targeted blockade of IL1B in the treatment of familial inflammasomopathies. Specifically, antibody mediated inhibition of $IL1\beta$ has been trialed in CAPS with two drugs now approved by the US Food and Drug Administration, following successful randomized controlled trials of Rilonacept (20) and Canakinumab (40). Other molecules currently in development are reportedly targeting several other inflammasome components, including NRLP3, IL18, caspase 1 and ASC (59).

HUMAN DISEASES ASSOCIATED WITH EXPRESSION OF THE INFLAMMASOME

The few years of research into the inflammasome have seemingly focused on establishing the presence and role of the complex in animal models of human disease. More recently, there has been a shift toward the application of these findings to human tissue and disease processes. Inflammasome proteins have now been identified on multiple peripheral and central cell types in humans and across a number of diseases (Table 2). However, the extent of literature available regarding the inflammasome based on human work is still

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Reference Method Location or cell type Disease Summary Reference $\overline{4}$ rreased NLRP3, caspase1, IL18 and IL18 in chronic rhino-42
sinusitis compared with control tissue. ncreased NLRP3, caspase1, IL18 and IL18 in chronic rhino-AIM2, ASC, pro-caspase 1 and pro- IL18 increased in aortic Increased NLRP3, caspase1, IL1b and IL18 in chronic rhino-AIM2, ASC, pro-caspase 1 and pro- IL1b increased in aortic aneurysm vessel wall compared with healthy controls. aneurysm vessel wall compared with healthy controls. sinusitis compared with control tissue. RT-PCR real time Polymerase Chain Reaction, ELISA Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay WB Western Blot, IHC Immunohistochemistry, RT-PCR real time Polymerase Chain Reaction, ELISA Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay. Summary Chronic rhinosinusitis Nasal epithelial cells Chronic rhinosinusitis with nasal polyps with nasal polyps Abdominal aortic RT-PCR Abdominal aortic aneurysm aneurysm **Disease** type dasal epithelial cells $\overline{\overline{e}}$ $\overleftarrow{\mathrm{o}}$ ocation **VB Western Blot, IHC Immunohistochemistry,** RT-PCR Vethod RT-PCR ELISA WB E_{\perp} caspase1, IL1B, NLRP3, caspase1, IL1b, Caspase 1, ASC, AIM2, Caspase 1, ASC, AIM2, Inflammasome Inflammasome components components NLRP3, IL1b IL18

very limited compared with the widening pool of published animal work. Inflammasome proteins identified to date in human cells or tissue, along with the associated disease when applicable, are summarized in Tables 4 and 5, along with the techniques used to identify the inflammasome component and a brief summary of the study findings.

In the periphery, inflammasome components have been shown to be expressed by a number of cell types, including innate immune cells (eg, macrophage, Kupffer cells), adaptive immune cells (eg, lymphocytes) and various tissues that function as the first line of defence against environmental pathogens (eg, lung epithelial cells, skin, nasal epithelial cells). This emphasizes the role the inflammasome may play in the innate immune response to environmental pathogens. In addition, several diseases associated with inflammation have been shown to be related to the expression of inflammasome components. Of note, several of these conditions, such as gout, diabetes mellitus and atherosclerosis, have been shown to be associated with the expression of NLRP3. This may be because the NLRP3 inflammasome has been the most studied type in humans, following the broad research base into this specific complex in experimental models. Also, the NRLP3 inflammasome has been shown to be particularly sensitive to activation by a variety of stimuli, including microbial and endogenous stimuli, and particulate matter such as urate crystals and beta-amyloid (16). These points may explain the broad expression of the NLRP3 inflammasome in conditions associated with inflammation.

Inflammasome proteins have been identified on a variety of cell types of the central nervous system, including microglia, astrocytes and neurons. However, much of this work appears to have been performed using in vitro cell models, which has limited direct applicability to human physiological and pathological conditions. In particular, the use of primary cell cultures and immortalized cell lines can result in the study of cellular models that markedly differ from those found within normal physiological and diseased human tissue (3). The extent of the literature identifying NLRP3 in the human central nervous system (CNS) appears to be much more limited compared with research in the human periphery.

When reviewing the specific inflammasome proteins identified in humans (Tables 4 and 5), it is possible to draw some notable conclusions. Firstly, in vitro studies have identified numerous inflammasome proteins across a number of different cell types. However, when considering only in vivo work, it appears that the components most frequently detected across a number of different cell types in the CNS and periphery are: NLRP3, caspase 1 and ASC. Thus, the NLRP3 inflammasome seems to be the most frequently studied complex in humans, as it is in animal models. Secondly, there does not appear to be an association between specific inflammasome proteins identified in human tissue and the location of their identification. For example, the inflammasome component ASC has been identified in Kupffer cells of the liver, vascular atherosclerotic plaques, skin cells and in the cerebrospinal fluid. No obvious pattern can be ascertained where certain inflammasome components are only identified in certain locations in the human body. Interestingly, this latter point suggests that many inflammasome proteins may be ubiquitous across central and peripheral areas of the human body. Lastly, there appears to be variability in the validation of findings in these studies. Many publications have shown the presence of all the components needed to form an inflammasome and used several techniques to confirm this, for

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Continued.

example using real-time polymerase chain reaction to confirm gene expression and Western blotting to confirm the presence of associated proteins. Some studies have also utilized immunohistochemical double staining to confirm the co-location of inflammasome proteins expressed in certain cell types (60, 80).

Overall, despite confirmation of the presence of inflammasome components in a variety of human cell types and tissues, there is still a lack of clear understanding regarding the significance of the different types of inflammasome in physiology and human disease. Direct imaging of an inflammasome complex may provide pointers to the exact location of the complex and its interactions with normal physiological processes. Electron microscopy has already allowed visualization of the NLRC4 inflammasome following reconstitution of the complex from an embryonic human cell line (18), but this has not yet been possible *in vivo*, perhaps due to the relative difficulty in applying this methodology to human tissue.

CONCLUSION

Research in the field of the inflammasome is expanding at a fast rate. Whilst much work has been performed in animal models, to date there is limited evidence of the role and function of the inflammasome in human tissue. Despite a proliferation of review articles compared with research articles in recent years, there is a need to focus efforts on examining the role of the inflammasome in human conditions. Animal work is important to develop our understanding of what the inflammasome is, but human work will allow us to grasp the importance of the role of these proteins in normal physiology and disease.

Intriguingly, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs have been shown to inhibit the NLRP3 inflammasome in rodent models (11). Recent review articles have suggested that the inflammasome may be a therapeutic target for inflammatory diseases and Alzheimer's disease (as reviewed by White and colleagues in this mini-symposium). This is an exciting era to be involved in inflammasome research, with the potential development of drugs to target the inflammasome as a treatment for a multitude of severe and disabling diseases.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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