

Using stromal cells established from a tumor-like lesion of a NOMID patient, Almeida *et al.* demonstrated that activation of the cAMP/PKA/CREB pathway leads to caspase-1 activation, release of IL-1 $\beta$ , and consequently the proliferation of bone stromal cells. This suggests that bone lesions in NOMID are caused in an NLRP3 inflammasome-dependent manner. One explanation for the discrepancy between their data and ours is that no disease-causing *NLPR3* mutation was identified in the patient studied in this previous report; therefore, an unknown genetic alteration may have caused the NOMID phenotype. Another explanation is that different cell types were analyzed in the two studies. The previous study analyzed bone stromal cells established from a tumor-like lesion that might have been a heterogeneous population, while we focused on a single cell type, namely, chondrocytes. The lack of environmental factors and interactions with other cell populations in our model might have eliminated some contributions of the NLRP3 inflammasome and IL-1 $\beta$  pathway that occur in NOMID patients. Furthermore, our observations relied on an artificial differentiation system in which iPS cells were first differentiated into cells of neural crest character and then into chondrocytes by culture in the presence of various exogenous factors. Abnormal epiphyseal growth is specifically observed around the knee joints of NOMID patients; therefore, additional events might be required to trigger abnormal chondrocyte proliferation *in vivo*. It is also possible that specific factors produced by surrounding cells in non-affected joints prevent mutant chondrocytes manifesting their phenotype. Further analyses of patients or patient-derived samples would provide a better understanding of the pathophysiology of arthropathy in

NOMID.

The interaction between cAMP and NLRP3 has been studied in monocytes/macrophages, in which the NLRP3 inflammasome is activated following binding of extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  to  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -sensing receptors (CaSRs) (37, 38). One study reported that an increase in extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  is detected by CaSRs, which leads to phospholipase C activation and subsequently the release of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  from the endoplasmic reticulum and downregulation of cAMP. cAMP binds directly to NLRP3 and inhibits assembly of the NLRP3 inflammasome. Therefore, this decrease in the level of intracellular cAMP relieves this inhibition and thereby induces activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome (37). On the other hand, another study reported that an increase in the extracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration induces an increase in the intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  concentration, thereby leading to activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome, and this mechanism requires the CaSRs GPRC6A and CaSR, but not the downregulation of cAMP (38). Thus, the effects of cAMP on the NLRP3 inflammasome in monocytes/macrophages remain controversial. In the chondrocyte differentiation system used in the current study, mutated NLRP3 caused *SOX9* overexpression via the cAMP/PKA/CREB pathway, which is at odds with the relationship between cAMP and activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome in monocytes/macrophages. This discrepancy might be explained by the absence of other NLRP3 inflammasome components, such as ASC and procaspase-1, in the chondrocytes generated in the current study. Further analysis is needed to determine why cAMP/PKA/CREB signaling elicits different effects on mutated NLRP3 in chondrocytes and monocytes/macrophages, as well as how

intracellular cAMP is upregulated in chondrocytes derived from mutant iPS cells.

There have been many reports on the differentiation of chondrocytes from embryonic stem (ES)/iPS cells (39-41). However, previously, it was difficult to differentiate a sufficient number of chondrocytes with a relatively mature phenotype from ES/iPS cells, especially human ES/iPS cells. We have recently established a cartilage differentiation system in which iPS cells first differentiate into cells of neural crest character and then into chondrocytes, which enabled us to obtain a large number of chondrocytes with the phenotype of growth plate cartilage chondrocytes. An important aspect of the current study is that this differentiation system can generate a large number of chondrocytes that could share functional property causing the arthropathy observed in NOMID. This system could thereby be used to screen for novel therapeutic agents.

In conclusion, we showed that *SOX9* is overexpressed via the cAMP/PKA/CREB signaling pathway in chondrocytes with disease-causing mutations in *NLRP3*, and this causes overproduction of ECM independently of the NLRP3 inflammasome. iPS cell technology was used to elucidate the role of chondrocytes in the pathophysiology of the human disease NOMID.

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**Acknowledgments**

We are grateful to K. Hayakawa, M. Fukuta, S. Nagata, and M. Hiraga of Kyoto University for technical assistance and to N. Kambe of Chiba University for critically reading this manuscript.

**Authors' Contributions**

K.Y., M.I., K.U., R.N., and J.T. designed the experiments and prepared the manuscript. K.Y., S.N., K.I., K.H., and T.K. performed the experiments. H.O., T.T., Y.M., A.N., M.K.S., T.Y., O.O., N.N., and T.N. gave technical support and conceptual advice. T.H. and J.T. supervised the project.

**Competing Financial Interests**

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

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**Figure Legends**

**Figure 1.** Chondrocytes are successfully differentiated from iPS cells *in vitro*. **A**, Schematic presentation of the culture conditions used to differentiate chondrocytes from iPS cells. **B**, Immunohistochemical staining of chondrocytes differentiated from iPS cells. From left to right, Alcian blue staining of 2D micromass, Alcian blue staining of 3D pellet, higher magnification images of Alcian blue staining of 3D pellet, and anti-COL2 antibody staining of 3D pellet and mouse bladder (negative control). White scale bars: 2.0 mm; black scale bars: 0.2 mm. **C**, Quantitative analysis of the sizes of chondrocyte tissue masses in 2D micromass cultures (left panel) and 3D pellet cultures. **D**, Cartilage-specific gene expression in 3D pellet cultures. mRNA expression of each gene is shown relative to that in human cartilage (*SOX9*, *COL2A1*, *ACAN*, and *COMP*) or the osteosarcoma cell line ANOS (*IHH*, *MMP13*, *COL10A1*, and *VEGFA*), which were both set at 1. Bars and error bars represent the mean and SEM, respectively, of three independent clones, from which duplicate measurements (C) or triplicated measurements (D) were obtained. Data are representative of three independent experiments. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$ . Data shown used iPS cells from patient 1 (p.Tyr570Cys); similar data were obtained using iPS cells from patient 2 (p.Gly307Ser).

**Figure 2.** The formation of large cartilaginous masses by mutant iPS cells is owing to the overproduction of ECM, not to increased cell proliferation. **A**, Growth curves of chondroprogenitor cells differentiated from mutant and WT iPS cells. Error bars represent the SEM of three independent clones, from which

duplicate measurements were obtained. **B and C**, DNA concentration, GAG concentration, and the ratio of GAG concentration to DNA concentration in 2D micromass (**B**) and 3D pellet (**C**) cultures. Bars and error bars show the mean and SEM, respectively, of three independent clones. Triplicate (**B**) or duplicate (**C**) measurements were obtained. Data are representative of three independent experiments with consistent results. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$ .

**Figure 3.** *In vivo* maturation of 3D cell pellets. **A**, Images of 3D cell pellets derived from mutant (upper panel) or WT (lower panel) iPS cells following transplantation into immunodeficient mice. Images from left to right show gross appearance, HE staining, Alcian blue staining, von Kossa staining, and higher magnification images of von Kossa staining. Red circles indicate bone/cartilage pellets in gel form. White scale bars: 2.0 mm; black scale bars: 0.2 mm. Data shown used iPS cells from patient 1; similar results were obtained using iPS cells from patient 2. **B**, Quantitative analysis of the size of pellets when they were transplanted (Day 38) and harvested (Day 66). Bars and error bars represent the mean and SEM, respectively, of three independent clones, from which duplicate measurements were obtained. Data are representative of three independent experiments. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$ .

**Figure 4.** The enhanced chondrogenesis of mutant iPS cells is independent of the NLRP3 inflammasome.

The caspase-1 inhibitor Ac-YVAD-CHO (YVAD, 10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) or human recombinant IL-1Ra (1  $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ) were added to the 2D micromass cultures. As controls, cultures were incubated with DMSO or PBS containing

BSA. The diameter of the micromass (**B**), *SOX9* expression (**C**), DNA concentration, GAG concentration, and the ratio of GAG concentration to DNA concentration (**D**) were measured. Representative 2D micromass cultures are shown (**A**). Bars and error bars show the mean and SEM, respectively, of three independent clones. Triplicate measurements were obtained. Data are representative of three independent experiments. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$ . Data shown used iPS cells from patient 1; similar results were obtained using iPS cells from patient 2.

**Figure 5.** Expression of *SOX9* and *COL2A1* is upregulated in chondrocytes with mutated *NLRP3* during the chondroprogenitor cell stage. Expression of *SOX9*, *COL2A1*, *ACAN*, *COMP*, and *NLRP3* in each clone was measured in triplicate from Day -9 to 15. Expression levels of *SOX9*, *COL2A1*, *ACAN*, and *COMP* are shown relative to those in ANOS cells (set at 1), and the expression level of *NLRP3* is shown relative to that in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs; set at 1). Bars and error bars show the mean and SEM, respectively, of three independent clones. Data are representative of three independent experiments with consistent results. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$ . Data shown used iPS cells from patient 1; similar results were obtained using iPS cells from patient 2.

**Figure 6.** *SOX9* upregulation in mutant *NLRP3* chondrocytes is dependent on the cAMP/PKA/CREB pathway. **A**, *SOX9* promoter activity in mutant and WT chondroprogenitor cells following introduction of

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mutations into its transcription factor-binding sites. **B**, *SOX9* promoter activity and expression in mutant and WT chondroprogenitor cells treated with forskolin or SQ22536. **C**, Effects of forskolin and SQ22536 on 3D pellets of mutant and WT cells. White scale bars: 2.0 mm. Both reagents were used at a concentration of 10  $\mu$ M. **D**, The cAMP/PKA/CREB pathway is more active in mutant chondroprogenitor cells than in WT chondroprogenitor cells. cAMP concentration in mutant and WT iPS cells (Day 0) and chondroprogenitor cells (Day 15 and 36), and Western blot analysis of phosphorylated CREB (P-CREB) in mutant (MT1-3) and WT (WT1-3) chondroprogenitor cells. **E**, A schematic diagram summarizing the molecular mechanism elucidated in this study. Bars and error bars show the mean and SEM, respectively, of three independent clones. Triplicate (**A**, **B**, **D**) or duplicate (**C**) measurements were obtained. Data are representative of two independent experiments with consistent results. \* indicates  $p < 0.05$ . Data shown used iPS cells from patient 1; similar results were obtained using iPS cells from patient 2.



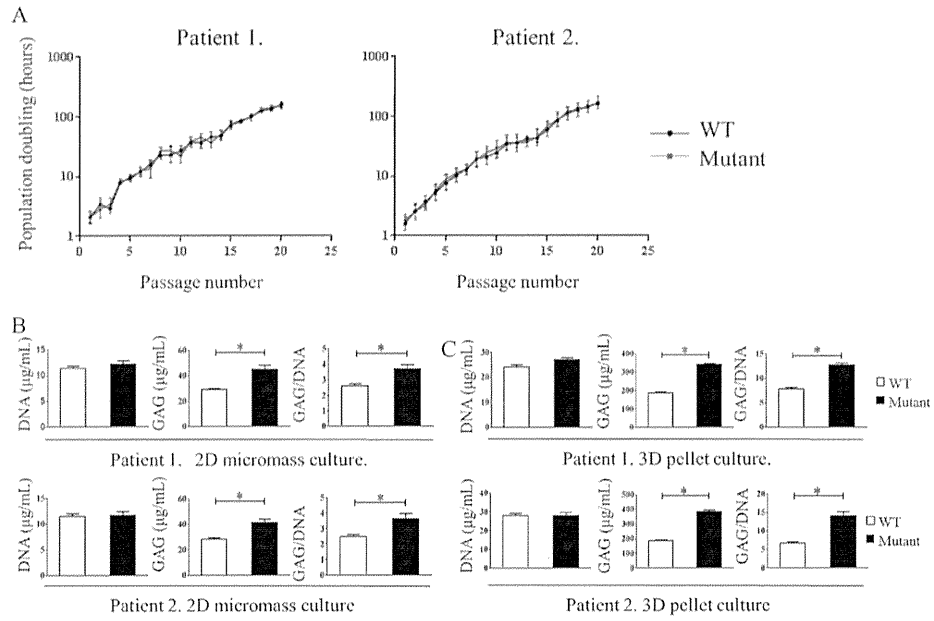


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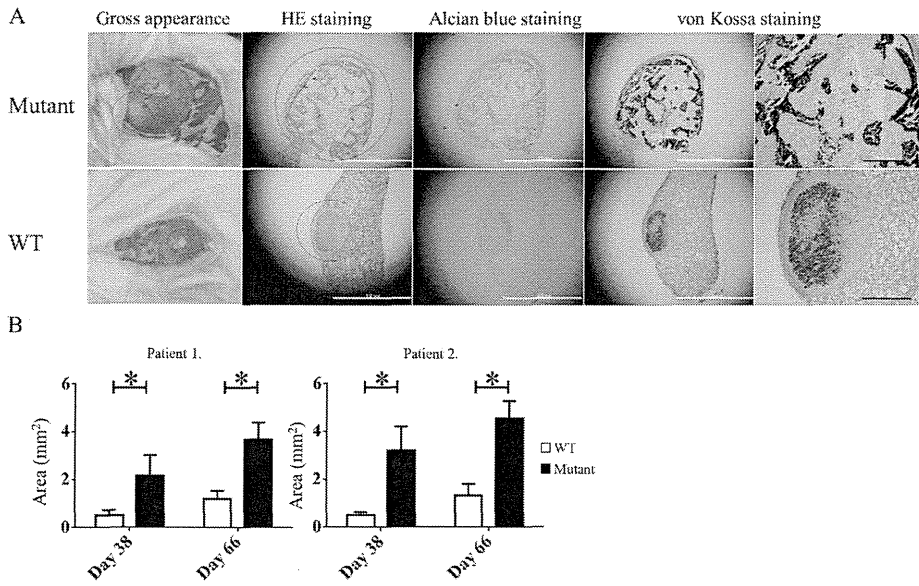


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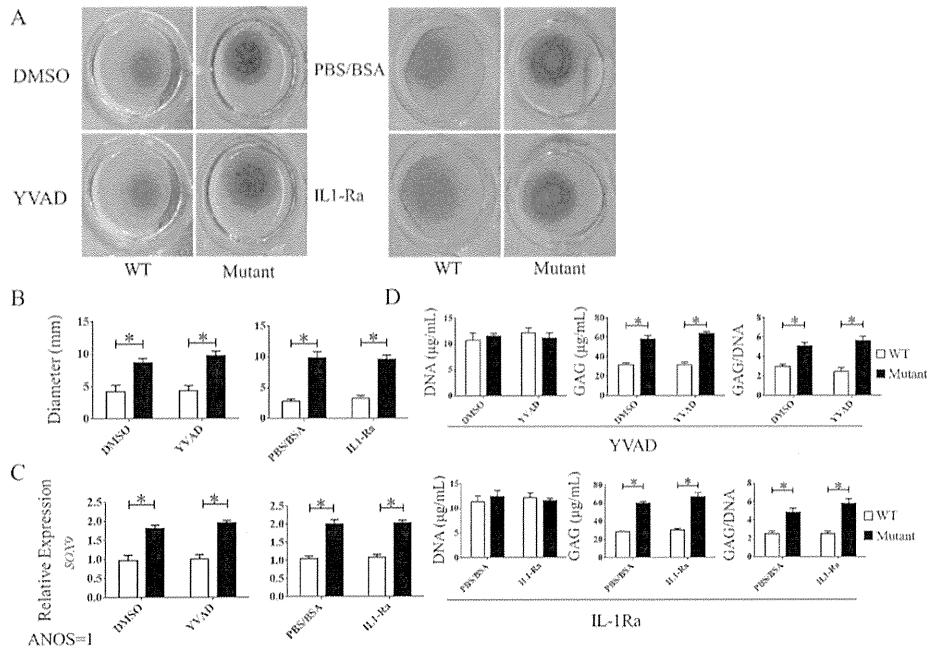


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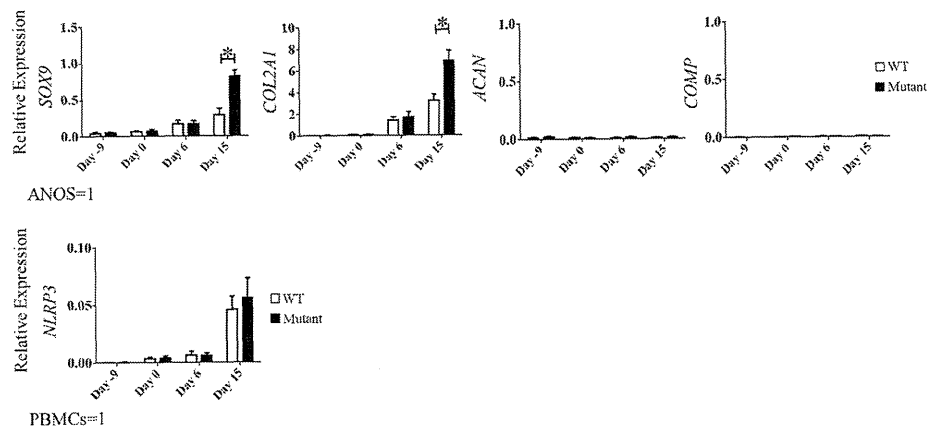


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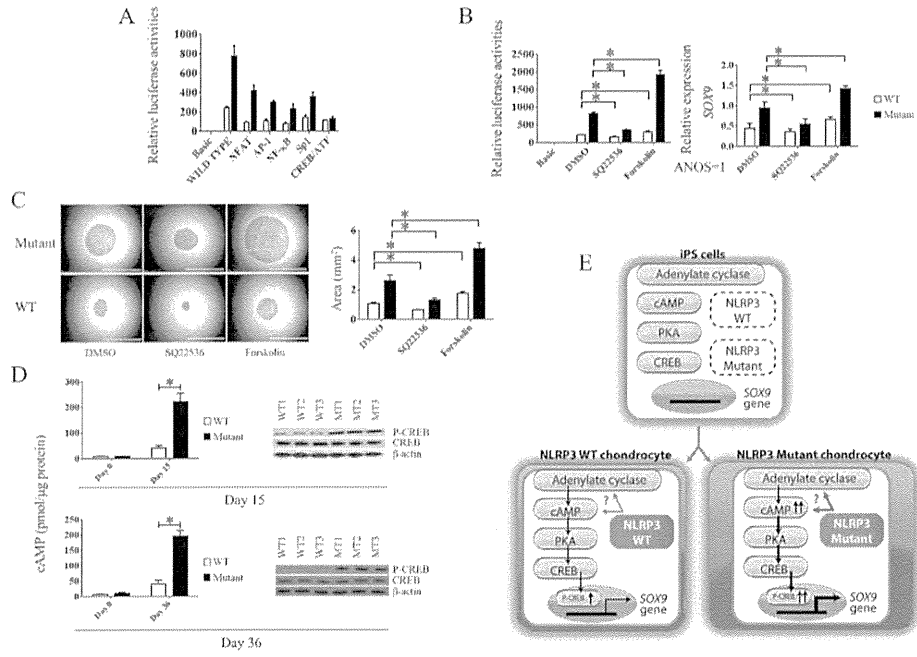


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## Aldehyde dehydrogenase-2 polymorphism contributes to the progression of bone marrow failure in children with idiopathic aplastic anaemia

Aplastic anaemia is a syndrome of bone marrow failure (BMF) that is characterized by peripheral pancytopenia and marrow hypoplasia. Injury to haematopoietic stem cells (HSCs), such as immune-mediated cytotoxicity, can cause aplastic anaemia; the successful treatment of aplastic anaemia using immunosuppressive therapy (IST) supports this hypothesis (Kulagin *et al*, 2014). Another proposed mechanism is an intrinsic defect of HSCs, which is the presumed major cause of congenital BMF. However, this has not been definitively established in idiopathic aplastic anaemia.

The aldehyde dehydrogenases (ALDHs) are a group of enzymes that are involved in critically important biological processes, such as detoxification of exogenous and endogenous aldehydes. ALDH2 deficiency, resulting from a Glu504Lys substitution (rs671, c.1510G>A) in the *ALDH2* gene, is prevalent in the Japanese population. AA homozygotes show very low catalysis of aldehydes, and GA heterozygotes display strongly reduced catalysis compared with GG homozygotes. Recently, ALDH2 deficiency was shown to be associated with accelerated progression of BMF in Japanese patients with Fanconi anaemia (FA), the most frequent inherited cause of BMF (Hira *et al*, 2013).

We hypothesized that ALDH2 deficiency underlies the progression of BMF in patients with idiopathic aplastic anaemia as well as in FA patients.

Seventy-nine Japanese children aged  $\leq 15$  years, referred to our institution between January 1990 and April 2011, were included in this study. Patients were excluded if they had paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria (PNH), exposure to toxic chemicals, chromosomal fragility, or mutations in *TERC*, *TERT*, *SBDS* or *SH2D1A* (Liang *et al*, 2006; Wang *et al*, 2007). Disease severity was classified based on the criteria of the International Aplastic Anaemia Study Group (Camitta *et al*, 1975; Bacigalupo *et al*, 1988). The *ALDH2* Glu504Lys polymorphism was genotyped using a duplex polymerase chain reaction with confronting two-pair primers (Tamakoshi *et al*, 2003). Statistical analysis was performed using the Fisher's exact test and the Kruskal-Wallis test. Failure-free survival (defined by survival in the absence of relapse, additional therapy, PNH, or secondary malignancy) was analysed with the Kaplan-Meier method. All statistical analyses were conducted using JMP Pro 10.0.2 software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). The study

was approved by the ethics committee of Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine.

The study included children whose disease type was classified as very severe ( $n = 10$ ), severe ( $n = 40$ ) and not severe ( $n = 29$ ). Regarding the *ALDH2* Glu504Lys polymorphism, 40 children were genotyped as GG, 29 as GA, and 10 as AA (Table I). This distribution of the *ALDH2* polymorphism was not significantly different from the reported allele frequencies in the healthy Japanese population (Matsuo *et al*, 2006) (GG = 1141, GA = 941, AA = 217;  $P = 0.5015$ ). However, the age at diagnosis was significantly younger in children harbouring AA (median 2 years, range 0.83–6 years) compared with children harbouring GG (median 9.5 years, range 1.6–15 years) and GA (median 9 years, range 1–14 years) ( $P = 0.0094$ ; Table I, Fig 1A). In contrast, the severity of the disease and peripheral blood cell counts were not significantly different among the *ALDH2* groups (Table I). Of the 56 children who received IST as the initial treatment, 14 of 34 in the GG group, 10 of 16 in the GA group, and 4 of 6 in the AA group underwent an HSC transplant later in the disease course. The failure-free survival rate at 10 years from IST was significantly lower in the GA/AA group (0.162, 95% confidence interval, 0.043–0.454) than in the GG group (0.467, 95% confidence interval, 0.282–0.661;  $P = 0.0465$ ; Fig 1B).

ALDH2 preferentially catalyses the breakdown of acetaldehydes and other aldehydes, such as 4-hydroxynonenal and malondialdehyde, that can be genotoxic due to DNA-protein crosslinking. Recent studies have revealed that ALDH2 dysfunction may contribute to a variety of diseases and biological processes. However, to date, no study has defined the role of ALDH2 deficiency in human haematopoietic diseases in the general population.

The accumulation of DNA damage partially explains the declining function of HSCs. The type of *ALDH2* variant is associated with accelerated progression of BMF in Japanese patients with FA, and patients carrying an AA allele develop myelodysplastic syndrome with BMF at a very young age (Hira *et al*, 2013), suggesting that aldehydes are an important source of genotoxicity in the human haematopoietic system. In an FA murine model, *Aldh2*<sup>-/-</sup> *Fancd2*<sup>-/-</sup> double mutant mice spontaneously develop

Table I. Patient characteristics.

	ALDH2 genotype			P
	GG	GA	AA	
Patients (N)	40	29	10	0.0094*
Age at Diagnosis, years, median (range)	9.5 (1.6–15)	9 (1–14)	2 (0.83–6)	
Gender (N)				
Male	23	16	8	0.8738
Female	17	13	2	
Disease Severity (N)				
Very severe	4	5	1	0.5453
Severe	22	12	6	
Non-severe	14	12	3	
CBC at Diagnosis				
Median WBC (x 10 <sup>9</sup> /l)	2.6	2.54	3.5	0.0587
Median ANC (x 10 <sup>9</sup> /l)	0.7	0.667	1.197	0.1879
Median Hb (g/l)	73	61	69	0.7765
Median Ret (%)	8	16	34	0.4654
Median PLT (x 10 <sup>9</sup> /l)	11	17.5	10.5	0.3184

ALDH2, aldehyde dehydrogenase 2; CBC, complete blood cell count; WBC, white blood cell count; ANC, absolute neutrophil count; Hb, haemoglobin; Ret, reticulocyte count; PLT, platelet count.

\* $P < 0.01$ .

aplastic anaemia due to disruption of DNA repair pathways that are required for HSC homeostasis. *Aldh2*<sup>-/-</sup> alone leads to a reduction in the HSC pool (Garaycoechea *et al*, 2012), indicating that endogenous aldehydes may cause an intrinsic defect in HSCs. In that study, aged *Aldh2*<sup>-/-</sup> *Fancd2*<sup>-/-</sup> double mutant mice that developed aplastic anaemia showed accumulation of damaged DNA within the HSC pool. Interestingly, *Aldh2* is dispensable for counteracting aldehydes in more mature haematopoietic precursors, suggesting that the emergence of BMF is possibly due to aldehyde-mediated genotoxicity that is restricted to HSCs.

Given that our cohort included only children (alcohol intake is not a factor), intrinsic aldehydes may play a role in accelerating BMF in children with idiopathic aplastic anaemia without other apparent genetic backgrounds that may cause intrinsic defects in HSCs. An intrinsic defect in HSCs, which is probably caused by endogenous aldehyde toxicity, may negatively affect the failure-free survival after IST in children whose aldehyde metabolism is suppressed. This intrinsic defect in HSCs is salvaged by additional treatment, most likely, HSC transplant. Our data suggest that patients with ALDH2 deficiency who are diagnosed with aplastic anaemia may need therapy in addition to

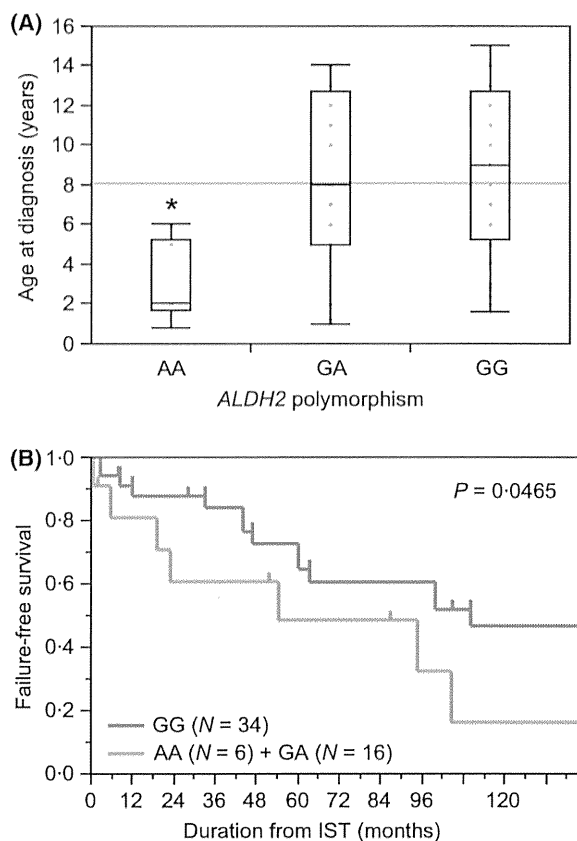


Fig 1. (A) Age at the diagnosis of idiopathic aplastic anaemia among ALDH2 polymorphism groups. Age at diagnosis was significantly lower in the AA group harbouring a null capacity of ALDH2 (median 2 years, range 0.83–6 years) than in the GG group harbouring full capacity (median 9.5 years, range 1.6–15 years) and the GA group harbouring approximately 1/16 capacity (median 9 years, range 1–14 years). \* $P = 0.0094$  with Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance. (B) Kaplan-Meier curve showing the failure-free survival (defined by survival in the absence of relapse, additional therapy, paroxysmal nocturnal haemoglobinuria, or secondary malignancy) of a cohort of 56 children who received immunosuppressive therapy (IST) for initial treatment of aplastic anaemia. The failure-free survival rate 10 years after beginning the treatment was significantly lower in the GA/AA group (0.162, 95% confidence interval, 0.043–0.454) than in the GG group (0.467, 95% confidence interval, 0.282–0.661;  $P = 0.0465$ , log-rank test).

conventional IST. ALDH inhibitors, such as disulfiram, may need to be avoided to retain residual ALDH2 activity in patients with low or absent ALDH2 activity. Importantly, a therapeutic approach with ALDH2 activators such as Alda-1 (Chen *et al*, 2014) may be beneficial for preventing a functional decline in HSCs.

In conclusion, endogenous aldehydes may damage HSCs, resulting in early-onset BMF in children with idiopathic aplastic anaemia. Our data suggest a novel therapeutic target for rescuing HSCs from genetic injury for the treatment of idiopathic aplastic anaemia and BMF.