

Supplementary material

ADDITIONAL PATHOGENETIC MECHANISMS PROPOSED FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF NAFLD-RELATED HCC

A critical but relatively new-identified link between cellular senescence and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) also play a role in NAFLD-related hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)^[1]. Senescence was thought to act protectively against the development of HCC. Obesity and NAFLD associated-activation of hepatic stellate cells and their differentiation into myofibroblasts could lead to excessive liver damage, stimulation of oncogenic pathways and expansion of the malignant clones of liver cells^[2]. Senescence of those cells mitigates their harmful effects and acts as a tumor suppressor mechanism^[3]. Intriguingly, senescence is a double-edge sword since it is strongly associated with DNA damage, activation of oncogenes and aggravation of hepatic fibrosis due to recruitment of fibroblasts by senescent cells^[3]. Importantly, a complex of cytokines, metalloproteases, chemokines, growth factors and matrix remodeling factors constitutes the senescence associated secretory phenotype (SASP) which further provokes the inflammation, induces senescence to neighboring cells and facilitates tumorigenesis^[4,5].

Moreover, the chronic hyper-caloric-mediated overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) along with increased endoplasmic reticulum stress leads to hepatocyte cell death. Upon hepatocytes apoptosis, the compensatory inflammation attracts adaptive and innate immune cells which facilitate the downregulation of hepatic genes involved in β -oxidation and lipolysis^[6]. Those processes along with chronic hepatocyte damage led to aggravated cell death, DNA damage, further activation of innate immunity with subsequent activation of hepatic stellate cells (HSCs), that favor fibrosis development and pre-malignant lesions^[7,8]. When antitumor immune surveillance is not adequate, those pro-carcinogenic lesions can ultimately lead to HCC arising.

In addition the altered composition of gut microbiota and their increased translocation contribute to the hepatic inflammatory response and may facilitate HCC onset^[9]. Findings from both animal and human studies demonstrated that

gram-negative bacteria producing lipopolysaccharide are accumulated inside the intestines of obese humans and rodents^[10]. The enriched bacterial community prevalence in gut microflora triggers the release of pathogen-associated molecular patterns which are recognized by Toll-like receptors leading to initiation of inflammatory cascade inducing the production of Tumor Necrosis Factor- α , interleukin-1 and interleukin-6^[11]. Consistent to that, Yoshimoto *et al*^[12] demonstrated that high-fat diet led to enriched presence of gram-positive bacteria in gut microbiota and increased the serum levels of deoxycholic acid in a DMBA-induced HCC murine model while depletion of those bacteria by pharmacological agents, namely vancomycin or ursodeoxycholic acid robustly suppressed HCC development^[12].

Most of the current studies have highlighted the critical role of several microRNAs (miRNAs), namely miR-122, miR-34a, miR19a, miR-21, miR-29, miR-23 in NASH-related HCC^[13]. A genome wide analysis assessing differentially expressed miRNAs among NASH patients, revealed downregulation of liver miR-122 expression leading to impaired lipid metabolism in NASH patients^[14]. Along this line, reduced expression of hepatic miR-122 was also observed in a NASH-related HCC mouse model, demonstrating the role of this molecule in the pathogenesis of NASH-related HCC^[15]. Moreover, miR-34a interplays transcriptionally with the tumor suppressor p53 gene, a key gene in the development of HCC, driving the inhibition of glycolysis, exacerbation of hepatic fat accumulation and promotion of oxidative phosphorylation^[16]. MiR19a and miR21 and others are involved in the PI3K/AKT/mTOR and PI3/AKT axes, the dysregulation of them mediates a wide spectrum of cellular processes essential for tumorigenesis including proliferation, cell survival and angiogenesis^[17]. Steatosis and hepatocarcinogenesis were observed in a PTEN deficient mouse model while downregulation of PTEN along with c-Met upregulation drives to development of poorly differentiated HCC in a Rictor conditional knockout animal model^[18,19]. Furthermore, PTEN also act as a negative regulator of insulin signaling via antagonism of the aforementioned PI3K-AKT pathway^[20]. Loss of PTEN function or PTEN depletion is associated with hepatic steatosis, steatohepatitis and liver cancer^[21]. In accordance with that, mutations in

PTEN have also been found in HCC patients^[22]. Reduced expression or even absence of PTEN has been identified in almost 50% of HCC and is associated with poor prognosis^[23]. In addition, upregulation of miR-216a and miR-217 mediates the activation of oncogenic pathways of PI3K/AKT and transforming growth factor beta by targeting PTEN and SMAD7 respectively leading to HCC recurrence in a rat model^[24]. Besides miRNAs, the long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) are also implicated in the development of NAFLD and its progression to HCC and beyond that, they interplay with the liver KCs. Wang *et al*^[25] demonstrated that small nucleolar RNA host gene 20 (SNHG20) expression was decreased in NAFLD hepatic tissue, but it was significantly upregulated in the NAFLD-related HCC tissue and in liver-derived KCs^[25]. Since SNHG20 acts as a regulator of M1/M2 polarization in KCs^[25], silence of SNHG20 in a mouse cell-line of macrophages (RAW264.7) led the shift of KCs towards M1 polarization, a tumor suppressor phenotype, provoking a delay in the progression of NAFLD to HCC^[25]. On the other hand, SNHG20 overexpression induced M2 polarization, which was mediated by signal transducer and activator of transcription-6 (STAT-6) pathway activation and facilitated hepatic tumorigenesis^[25].

Of importance, obesity, as a common feature of NAFLD, modulates several of the above-mentioned mechanisms, further promoting hepatic tumorigenesis. Excessive adipose tissue and an obese phenotype constitute a chronic low-grade inflammatory environment which seems to further promote HCC development as obesity is closely associated with elevated leptin and diminished adiponectin levels aggravating their actions^[26-28]. High saturated diet leads to increased lipid storage in the liver with subsequent increased de novo lipogenesis, production and accumulation of ROS and elevated ER stress while obesity-induced insulin resistance further facilitates HCC development through activation of the previously mentioned oncogenic pathways^[29,30]. Of note, new studies have highlighted the burdened effect of obesity and metabolic dysfunction on both histone post-translational modifications and chromatin modifiers, promoting dysregulated transcriptional function. Particularly, the hepatic expression of sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1, a major regulator of lipogenesis, and histone deacetylase 8 (HDAC8), a chromatin modifier were significantly upregulated in a high fructose high

carbohydrate murine model^[31]. More importantly, HDAC8 upregulation, via the activation of β -catenin signaling and suppression of Wnt antagonists, led to hepatic tumorigenesis in vivo, indicating the association of chromatin dysregulation with NAFLD-associated HCC^[31].

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