



Genetic and epigenetic disease modifiers: non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and alcoholic liver disease (ALD)

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Abstract: Inter-individual and inter-ethnic differences and difference in the severity and progression of liver disease among patients with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and alcoholic liver disease (ALD) suggests the involvement of genetic and epigenetic factors in their pathogenesis. This article reviews the genetic and epigenetic modifiers in patients with NAFLD and ALD. Evidence regarding the genetic and epigenetic disease modifiers of NAFLD and ALD was reviewed by searching the available literature. Both genome wide association studies (GWAS) and candidate gene studies pertaining to the pathogenesis in both diseases were included. Clinical implications of the available information are also discussed. Several studies have shown association of both NAFLD and ALD with I148M *PNPLA3* variant. In addition to the higher prevalence of hepatic steatosis, the I148M *PNPLA3* variant is also associated with severity of liver disease and risk of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC). *TM6SF2* is the other genetic variant shown to be significantly associated with hepatic steatosis and cirrhosis in patients with NAFLD and ALD. The Membrane bound O-acyltransferase domain-containing 7 (*MBOAT7*) genetic variant is also associated with both NAFLD and ALD. In addition to these mutations, several variants related to the genes involved in glucose metabolism, insulin resistance, lipid metabolism, oxidative stress, inflammatory pathways, fibrosis have also been shown to be the disease modifiers in patients with NAFLD and ALD. Epigenetics involving several micro RNAs and DNA methylation could also modify the disease course in NAFLD and ALD. In conclusion the available literature suggests that genetics and epigenetics are involved in the pathogenesis of NAFLD and ALD which may affect the disease prevalence, severity and response to treatment in these patients.

Keywords: Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH); fatty liver; hepatic steatosis; cirrhosis; hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC)

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Introduction

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) has become the most common liver disease, the world over and encompasses a spectrum ranging from simple steatosis (non-alcoholic fatty liver or NAFL), non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), NASH related cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma

(HCC) (1,2). In some parts of the world, equally common problem is the alcoholic liver disease (ALD) with a similar spectrum of alcoholic steatosis, alcoholic steatohepatitis, cirrhosis and HCC (3). There are significant inter-individual differences in the severity and progression of liver disease in patients with NAFLD sharing similar metabolic and other environmental risk factors (4). Similarly severity

of liver disease differs among patients consuming similar type and quantity of alcohol over a similar duration (5). In addition to inter-individual differences, inter-ethnic differences in NAFLD and ALD and familial clustering points towards the role of genetic and epigenetic factors in the pathogenesis of these two diseases (6-11). In this review article, we discuss the role of genetic and epigenetic modifiers in NAFLD and ALD.

Genetic basis in the pathogenesis of NAFLD

NAFLD is a complex disease with multiple factors involved in the pathogenesis that include both environmental and genetic modifiers. Also, NASH and fibrosis progression varies with some patients being 'rapid progressors' (12,13). Risk factors for fibrosis progression in patients with NAFLD include metabolic syndrome, presence of type 2 diabetes mellitus, high body mass index (BMI)/obesity, age, steatosis grade, high insulin resistance, baseline biopsy showing inflammation and fibrosis (1,2,13). In a meta-analysis of studies including paired biopsies, Singh *et al.* showed that rate of fibrosis progression was twice as common in patients with NASH in comparison to patients with NAFL (12).

In addition to environmental and metabolic risk factors, familial clustering, studies involving the monozygotic twins and inter-ethnic differences point towards the role of genetics in the pathogenesis of NAFLD.

Familial clustering in NAFLD

Several studies have shown the clustering of cases of NAFLD among the families (8,14,15). Brouwers *et al.* compared 157 familial combined hyperlipidemia family members with 20 spouses. Fatty liver was more prevalent in probands (40%) and relatives (35%) compared to spouses (15%) (8). In a study, siblings and parents of overweight/obese children with and without NAFLD were compared with the help of magnetic resonance proton density fat fraction (MR-PDFF) (15). NAFLD was present in 17% of siblings and 37% of parents in non-NAFLD overweight/obese children group in comparison to presence of NAFLD in 59% of siblings and 78% of parents of overweight/obese children with NAFLD. The correlation of liver fat fraction to BMI was stronger in families of children with NAFLD than without NAFLD. The authors found heritability of NAFLD as 1.000 and that of liver fat fraction as 0.386 (15).

Twin studies

Prevalence studies in twins suggest a stronger genetic basis of NAFLD in comparison to that evident from familial clustering studies. Several twin studies have shown higher prevalence of NAFLD in monozygotic twins as compared to dizygotic twins. Makkonen *et al.* studied 313 twin pairs and observed significantly higher intra-pair correlations in monozygotic than the dizygotic twins for both alanine transaminases (ALT) (0.65 and 0.04 respectively) and fasting serum insulin (0.58 and 0.34 respectively). Heritability of ALT was 55% and that of fasting serum insulin was 61%. ALT and fasting serum insulin correlated with liver fat content in 66 subjects (measured by magnetic resonance spectroscopy) (16). In a study using ultrasonography for NAFLD and carotid intima media thickness in 208 (58 men and 150 women) Hungarian twins (63 monozygotic and 41 dizygotic pairs, aged 43.7±16.7 years), heritability was linked to cardiovascular risk, but not to NAFLD (17). However, it should be noted that ultrasound with its limitations may have categorized some patients with mild steatosis as normal on ultrasound. Loomba *et al.* studied 60 pairs of twins (42 monozygotic and 18 dizygotic) aged 45.7±22.1 years. Steatosis and fibrosis were measured by MR-PDFF and MR elastography (MRE) in the study subjects. Twenty-six (21.7%) had NAFLD, which correlated between monozygotic twins ($r^2=0.70$; $P<0.0001$) but not in dizygotic twins. The fibrosis also correlated between monozygotic twins ($r^2=0.48$; $P<0.002$) but not in dizygotic twins ($r^2=0.12$; $P=0.7$). The heritability of hepatic steatosis was 0.52 and of hepatic fibrosis was 0.5 (18). In a prospective study, Cui *et al.* studied 65 twin pairs (45 monozygotic, 20 dizygotic twin pairs, aged 47.1±21.9 years) and found that 20% ($n=26$) had hepatic steatosis and 8.2% ($n=10$) had hepatic fibrosis. Steatosis and fibrosis had a significant shared gene effect of 0.756 (95% CI, 0.716–1) (19).

Ethnic differences

Major evidence for having the genetic basis in NAFLD comes from studies showing the ethnic differences in the prevalence and severity of NAFLD. In a study including cryptogenic cirrhosis or NASH related cirrhosis, it was seen that prevalence of cirrhosis among Hispanic and African American patients was 3.1 times higher and 3.9 times lower than European American patients despite similar prevalence of type 2 diabetes mellitus among these groups (20). Wagenknecht *et al.* compared 795

Hispanic-American and 347 African-American adults, aged 49 [22–84] years. NAFLD was present in 24% of Hispanics versus 10% in African-American diagnosed on the basis of CT scan. NAFLD was independently associated with insulin sensitivity and visceral adipose tissue area in both ethnic groups, proportion of explained variance being higher in Hispanics (21). Browning *et al.* studied liver steatosis by proton magnetic resonance spectroscopy in 2,287 patients of multi-ethnic population comprising of 32.1% Whites, 48.3% African Americans and 17.5% Hispanics. NAFLD was present in 45% of Hispanics; 33% of Whites and 24% of African Americans. Higher prevalence of NAFLD in Hispanics in comparison to African Americans in spite of the presence of metabolic risk factors in later group suggested the genetic basis for the difference (6). A study analyzing 1,026 adults with biopsy proven NAFLD from the Nonalcoholic Steatohepatitis Clinical Research Network observed that HOMA-IR was not a significant risk factor for NASH among Latinos, but was significant among non-Latino Whites (22). In a systemic review of 34 studies (368,569 patients), NAFLD prevalence was highest in the Hispanics (relative risk 1.09) and lower in African Americans (relative risk 0.72) in comparison to Whites, with no difference in hepatic fibrosis (7). While most of data regarding ethnic differences is available in non-Asians, few studies have addressed this issue in the Asian population. Mohanty *et al.* showed that Asians had higher grades of histological ballooning in comparison to NAFLD patients of other ethnicities (OR 2.71, P=0.04). Hispanics on the other hand showed a higher prevalence of Mallory hyaline in comparison to patients of other ethnicities (OR 2.41, P=0.03) and African Americans had lower degree of hepatic steatosis (23). In another study from John Hopkins Hospital, Baltimore, Maryland, authors observed severe hepatic steatosis and a trend towards severe inflammation in Asian-Americans (24). Petersen *et al.* compared results of oral glucose tolerance test in Caucasians (n=292), Asian-Indians (n=59), Eastern Asians (n=49), African Americans (n=48) and Hispanics (n=34). The prevalence of insulin resistance was 2–3-fold higher in the Asian-Indians as compared to other ethnicities. There was approximately 2-fold increase in hepatic triglyceride content in Asians as compared to Caucasian men (25). The difference in the prevalence and severity among patients with different ethnicities is best explained by the difference in various gene variants.

Genetic modifiers in NAFLD

Two types of genetic studies are available in patients with NAFLD. Candidate gene studies are hypothesis-testing studies, which are done for a gene with known functions. Candidate gene studies look for difference regarding a polymorphism in cases and controls. A small sample size is needed for candidate gene studies but these studies are not able to find new genetic associations. On the other hand, genome wide association studies (GWAS) are hypothesis-generating studies. GWAS look at thousands to millions of short nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). GWAS are done in a large sample size, and are useful to find new genetic associations of a disease. GWAS studies in NAFLD are shown in *Table 1* and candidate gene studies are shown in *Table 2*.

Genetic association of NAFLD with PNPLA3, TM6SF2 and other gene variants

The strongest evidence for the genetic link in NAFLD has been shown to be related to Patatin-like phospholipase domain-containing protein 3 (*PNPLA3*) also known as adiponutrin (ADPN), acylglycerol O-acyltransferase or calcium-independent phospholipase A2-epsilon (*iPLA2-epsilon*), an enzyme that in humans is encoded by the *PNPLA3* gene located on chromosome 22. The *PNPLA3* variant (rs738409 C > G, p.I148M) is a cytosine to guanine nucleotide transversion mutation at codon 148 that causes isoleucine to methionine amino acid change (63) and has been shown to be strongly associated with increased hepatic steatosis. *PNPLA3* or Adiponutrin is a triacylglycerol lipase that possesses both lipolytic and lipogenic activities *in vitro*.

The I148M substitution has been shown to cause both gain and loss of function; loss of function by decreasing lipolytic activity, thus increasing triglyceride accumulation (64). Pirazzi *et al.* studied very-low-density lipoprotein (VLDL) kinetics in 55 overweight/obese men. The authors showed that *PNPLA3* I148M variant affected secretion of apoB-containing lipoproteins, suggestive of a loss-of-function mutation. The authors suggested that *PNPLA3* 148M promoted intracellular lipid accumulation by reducing the lipidation of VLDL (65). There is also evidence of increased lipid synthesis by I148M variant. In a study from Austria, it was shown that *PNPLA3* also acts as acyl-CoA-dependent lysophosphatidic acid acyltransferase (LPAAT); I148M variant showed elevated LPAAT

Table 1 Showing genome wide association studies (GWAS) in NAFLD

Author, year (reference)	n	Gene, SNP	Comments
Romeo, 2008 (26)	2,111	<i>PNPLA3</i> , rs738409[G]	Associated with steatosis and inflammation
Yuan, 2008 (27)	7,715	<i>CPN1-ERLIN1-CHUK</i> on chromosome 10 and <i>PNPLA3-SAMM50, HNF1A</i> on chromosome 12	Associated with ALT (first 2) and GGT levels
Rotman, 2010 (28)	1,117	<i>PNPLA3</i> , rs738409, two other SNP near same region Three SNPs on chromosome 10 near the <i>CHUK</i> gene were associated with fibrosis	rs738409 G associated with younger age at time of biopsy
Chalasani, 2010 (29)	226	rs2645424, rs343062, rs1227756, rs6591182, s887304 (multiple genes)	Associated with severity of disease (activity score, inflammation, fibrosis)
Chambers, 2011 (30)	61,089	Identified 42 loci and 69 candidate genes including <i>GCKR, HNF1A, PNPLA3</i>	Genes involved in biliary transport, glucose, carbohydrate and lipid metabolism, inflammation, immunity and glutathione metabolism were important
Speliotes, 2011 (31)	7,176	Variants in or near <i>NCAN, GCKR, LYPLAL1, and PNPLA3</i>	Association with serum lipids as well as glycemic and anthropometric traits
Kawaguchi, 2012 (32)	529 NAFLD and 932 population controls	<i>PNPLA3</i> (rs73840, rs738409)	Associated with severity
Feitosa, 2013 (33)	2,767	Variants of the <i>ERLIN1-CHUK-CWF19L1</i> gene cluster	Associated with steatosis and ALT levels
Kozlitina, 2014 (34)	2,736	<i>PNPLA3</i> (rs738409 and rs2281135), rs58542926 in <i>TM6SF2</i>	<i>TM6SF2</i> variant associated with decreased VLDL secretion
DiStefano, 2015 (35)	2,300	rs4823173, rs2896019, and rs2281135 (<i>PNPLA3</i>) and rs10401969 in <i>SUGP1</i>	Identified new loci

NAFLD, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; SNP, short nucleotide polymorphism; VLDL, very-low-density lipoprotein.

activity in comparison to the wild-type, thus promoting hepatic lipid synthesis by gain of function (66). *PNPLA3* also affects hepatic stellate cells (HSCs), which play an important role in the development of liver fibrosis. HSCs are the main reservoir of the retinoids. Upon activation, HSCs lose retinol content and differentiate into activated myofibroblasts, which produce collagen (fibrosis). *PNPLA3* also has retinyl-esterase activity and is involved in retinol metabolism. Expression of *PNPLA3* gene and protein remain increased in activated HSCs. While induction of wild type of *PNPLA3* is associated with reduced secretion of matrix metalloproteinase 2 and tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase (1,2), HSCs with I148M show higher expression and release of proinflammatory cytokines (67-69). Donati *et al.* showed that a different *PNPLA3* variant, rs2294918 E434K decreased the effect of the I148M variant (70). Lindén *et al.* studied antisense oligonucleotide

(ASO) mediated silencing of *PNPLA3* in a knock-in mice model. The ASO mediated silencing of *PNPLA3* led to the reduction of hepatic steatosis, inflammation, NAFLD activity score and fibrosis stage (71). This study provides the first evidence that a *PNPLA3* ASO therapy can improve all features of NAFLD including fibrosis.

Studying the ancestry-related and inter-individual differences in hepatic fat content and susceptibility to NAFLD, Romeo *et al.* conducted a genome-wide association scan of nonsynonymous sequence variations in Hispanics (n=383), African-Americans (n=1,032) and European-Americans (n=696). The authors found an allele of *PNPLA3* [rs738409 (G), encoding I148M] to be strongly associated with increased hepatic fat levels and inflammation. This allele was most common in Hispanics, which were most susceptible to NAFLD. The hepatic fat content was more than two times higher in *PNPLA3*

Table 2 Showing candidate gene studies in NAFLD

Pathway	Genes (reference)	Polymorphism	Results/comments
Glucose metabolism and insulin resistance	<i>ENPP1</i> (36)	ENPP1 121Gln; Associated with insulin resistance	Associated with fibrosis
	<i>Insulin-receptor substrate 1</i> (36)	IRS-1 972Arg; Associated with insulin resistance	Associated with fibrosis
	<i>GCKR</i> (37)	GCKR (rs780094 and rs1260326, encoding Pro446Leu); glucokinase regulatory protein (GCKR)	Associated with increased serum triglycerides and higher liver fibrosis
	<i>SLC2A1</i> (38)	SLC2A1, <i>in vitro</i> down-regulation promotes lipid accumulation, increased oxidative stress	Associated with NAFLD, no association with T2DM
	<i>Transcription factor 7-like 2</i> (39)	TCF7L2, predisposes to diabetes through modulation of beta-cell function, linked to adipocyte metabolism and lipid homeostasis	Associated with DM, NAFLD
Lipid metabolism	<i>PNPLA3</i> (40)	rs738409	More severe disease
	<i>TM6SF2</i> (41-43)	TM6SF2 rs10401969 (C); rs58542926 (C/T) E167K	Associated with NAFLD (steatosis, NASH, fibrosis/cirrhosis)
	<i>MBOTAT</i> (40,44)	rs641738	Associated with increased hepatic fat content, severe liver disease and increased risk of fibrosis
	<i>Fatty acid desaturase 1</i> (45)	FADS1	Alleles associated with decreased expression of FADS1 were associated with greater steatosis
	<i>Lipin 1</i> (46)	LIPIN1 (rs13412852 C>T)	Associated with severity and fibrosis, TT genotype protective
	<i>Nuclear receptor subfamily 1 group I member 2</i> (also known as pregnane X receptor) (47)	NR1I2 (rs7643645 and rs2461823)	Two SNPs associated with NAFLD severity
	<i>PPAR alpha</i> (48,49)	PPAR alpha (rs1800234, encoding Val227Ala)	PPAR alpha limits TG accumulation by increasing fattyacid oxidation
	<i>Phosphatidylethanolamine N-methyltransferase</i> (50,51)	PEMT (rs7946, encoding Val175Met)	Association with NAFLD
	<i>17-beta hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 13</i> (52)	rs6834314	Associated with increased steatosis but decreases severity
Fibrosis	<i>Type-1 angiotensin 2; Receptor</i> (53,54)	AGTR1 (rs3772622)	Associated with steatohepatitis and fibrosis
Oxidative stress	<i>GCLC</i> (55)	-129 C/T; polymorphism	Associated with steatohepatitis compared (OR 12.14)
	<i>SOD2</i> (56)	SOD2 A16V (rs4880)	Associated with NAFLD fibrosis, risk factor for severe alcoholic disease
	<i>Uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2)</i> (57)	UCP2 (-866 G > A, rs695366)	Associated with reduced risk of NASH

Table 2 (continued)

Table 2 (continued)

Pathway	Genes, (reference)	Polymorphism	Results/comments
Immune response	<i>TNF</i> (58,59)	TNF G238A (rs361525); G308A (rs1800629)	Susceptibility for insulin resistance, NAFLD and NASH
	<i>CD14</i> (60)	CD14 C (-159) T polymorphism	Patients with TT genotype had a 2.6-fold increased risk of developing NAFLD
Others	<i>Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1A</i> (also known as P21) (61)	CDKN1A (rs762623)	Associated with development but not progressive liver disease
	<i>KLF6</i> (62)	rs3750861, KLF6-IVS1, -27 G > A	Associated with fibrosis

NAFLD, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease.

rs738409 [G] homozygotes than in non-carriers. Another allele of *PNPLA3* [rs6006460 (T), encoding S453I] was associated with lower hepatic fat content in African-Americans (26). Palmer *et al.* studied variants associated with NAFLD in persons with European ancestry, Africans and Hispanics. The authors found that steatosis was 0.20–0.34 heritable in Africans and Hispanic-American families. The variants in or near *PNPLA3*, *neurocan* (*NCAN*, rs2228603), *glucokinase regulator* (*GCKR*; rs780094), *protein phosphatase 1, regulatory subunit 3B* (*PPP1R3B*, rs4240624) were significantly associated with NAFLD in African Americans while *PNPLA3* and *PPP1R3B* were significantly associated with NAFLD in Hispanic Americans (72). Table 1 (26–35) shows the GWAS studies in NAFLD. Rotman *et al.* analyzed data of 1,117 (894 adults and 223 children) individuals with histologically confirmed NAFLD. After adjustment for age, sex, diabetes mellitus (DM) and alcohol consumption, rs738409 C/G (*PNPLA3*-I148M) was associated with steatosis, portal inflammation, lobular inflammation, NAFLD activity score and fibrosis. Three SNPs on chromosome 10 near *CHUK* gene were independently associated with fibrosis. In children, no SNP was associated with histological severity (28). A meta-analysis of 16 studies showed that *PNPLA3* rs738409 GG homozygous had 73% higher fat content when compared with CC polymorphism. Also, GG homozygous had greater risk of higher necroinflammatory scores and greater risk of developing fibrosis when compared with CC homozygous (3.24- and 3.2-fold respectively). NASH was more common in GG than CC homozygous [odds ratio (OR) 3.488; 95% CI, 1.859–6.545, data from 2,124 patients) (73).

Genetic variation in *PNPLA3* is also associated with risk of HCC in NAFLD. Burza *et al.* showed for the first time,

that *PNPLA3* I148M allele is associated with risk of HCC. The authors compared bariatric surgery group to control group (conventional treatment for obesity) and found significantly higher incidence of HCC in the *PNPLA3* I148M variant group in comparison to the control group (log-rank P value =0.001) (74). Liu *et al.* compared *PNPLA3* rs738409 genotype in 100 European Caucasians with NAFLD related HCC to 275 controls with histological NAFLD. The multivariate analysis adjusted for age, gender, DM, BMI, and cirrhosis found that additive risk for HCC was 2.26 OR for each copy of gene. The GG homozygotes exhibited a 5-fold [1.47–17.29], P=0.01, increased risk over CC (75). Singal *et al.* performed a meta-analysis of 24 studies, which included 9,915 patients. *PNPLA3* was associated with severity of fibrosis, OR being 1.32 (95% CI, 1.20–1.45). *PNPLA3* increased fibrosis risk across all etiologies. Nine studies (n=2,937) showed increased risk of HCC in patients with cirrhosis (OR 1.40; 95% CI, 1.12–1.75), related to NASH or ALD, and not in other etiologies (76).

Transmembrane 6 superfamily 2 (*TM6SF2*) is a gene on chromosome 19p12, which functions as a lipid transporter. It is expressed predominantly in liver and intestine. The *TM6SF2* encodes a protein with transmembrane domains. *TM6SF2* is localized in the endoplasmic reticulum and ER-Golgi intermediate compartment of human liver cells. Functional studies were done in human hepatoma Huh7 and HepG2 cells, using siRNA inhibition and overexpression techniques. *TM6SF2* siRNA inhibition was associated with reduced secretion of triglyceride rich lipoproteins and increased cellular triglyceride concentration and lipid droplet content, while *TM6SF2* over expression reduced steatosis (77–79). *TM6SF2* activity is required for normal

VLDL secretion and impaired *TM6SF2* function causally contributes to NAFLD (32). The Glu167Lys missense mutation was shown to alter serum lipid profiles in humans and the knockdown of *TM6SF2* in mice was shown to have increase liver triglyceride content and decreased VLDL secretion (79). Prill *et al.* studied *in vitro* disease model based on 3D spheroids from human hepatocytes and found that the *TM6SF2*E167K variant increased hepatocyte fat content by reducing APOB particle secretion (80).

As *TM6SF2* controls hepatic lipid efflux, decreased effect by deletions or mutations reduces secretion of lipoprotein, causing hepatocellular triglyceride accumulation (81). *TM6SF2* rs58542926 T-allele mediated hepatic retention of triglycerides and cholesterol predispose to NAFLD related fibrosis, whereas C-allele carriage promotes VLDL excretion, thus increasing risk of CVD or atherosclerosis while protecting the liver (82). In an exome-wide association study, Kozlitina *et al.* identified a *TM6SF2* variant that conferred susceptibility to nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (34). Dongiovanni *et al.* confirmed that patients with *TM6SF2* E167K variant have severe fatty liver disease (more steatosis, inflammation, ballooning and fibrosis) and lower circulating lipids (thus having reduced risk of myocardial infarction). E167K carriers had higher ALT and lower lipid levels ($P < 0.05$), as well as a lower incidence of cardiovascular events (41). Liu *et al.* studied two histological NAFLD cohorts consisting of steatosis, steatohepatitis, fibrosis and cirrhosis ($n = 1,074$). The authors found significant association of *TM6SF2* to advanced fibrosis/cirrhosis. This association was independent of age, BMI, T2DM and *PNPLA3* rs738409 genotype (42). In contrast to association of *PNPLA3* to HCC; there is less data on *TM6SF2* and HCC risk. A recent study by Yang *et al.* included 1,020 HCC, 2,021 controls with chronic liver disease and 2,484 healthy individuals in discover cohort and 249 alcoholic cirrhosis and 268 hepatitis C cirrhosis in prospective cohort. The authors found significant association of *PNPLA3* and *TM6SF2* to risk of HCC. *PNPLA3* SNP was also significantly associated with HCC in non-fibrotic liver (OR = 2.19; 95% CI, 1.22–3.92, $P = 0.007$) (83).

Other genetic modifiers in NAFLD

The *Table 2* shows some of the candidate gene studies in NAFLD. The genetic associations based on candidate gene studies can be either specific to NAFLD (related to lipid metabolism, insulin resistance and glucose metabolism) or non-specific related to inflammation, oxidative stress and

fibrosis. *ENPP1* (ectoenzyme nucleotide pyrophosphate phosphodiesterase 1) and *IRS-1* (insulin receptor substrate-1) polymorphisms affect insulin sensitivity. Dongiovanni *et al.* compared 702 patients with biopsy-proven NAFLD and 310 controls. The ENPP1-121Gln and 972Arg-IRS-1 polymorphisms were independently associated with fibrosis in multivariate analysis. Both polymorphisms were associated with a marked reduction of AKT activation status, reflecting insulin resistance in obese patients with NAFLD (36). Glucokinase regulatory protein (*GCKR*) is associated with lipid and glucose metabolism and *GCKR* C > T SNP (OR 2.06) has been shown to be independently associated with significant liver fibrosis (37). A study observed that variants of *solute carrier family 2 [(facilitated glucose transporter) member 1]* (*SLC2A1*) were associated with NAFLD, and *in vitro* down-regulation *SLC2A1* promoted lipid accumulation and oxidative stress (38). The transcription factor 7-like 2 (*TCF7L2*) polymorphism predisposes to diabetes by modulating beta-cell function and modulates lipid levels in familial dyslipidemia. Musso *et al.* showed that *TCF7L2* polymorphism predisposed to NAFLD and significantly impacted liver injury, glucose homeostasis, postprandial lipoprotein and adipokine responses to fat ingestion (39). *Membrane bound O-acyltransferase domain-containing 7 (MBOAT7)*, which is also known as LPIAT1, is a protein involved in the acyl chain remodeling of phospholipids. Recently, it has been shown that *MBOAT7* is a multispinning transmembrane protein with six transmembrane domains (84). *MBOAT7* catalyzes transfer of polyunsaturated fatty acids, thus maintaining fluidity of cell membranes. *MBOAT7* is involved in the re-acylation of phospholipids. The rs641738 gene variant leads to a reduced *MBOAT7* expression favoring increase in free arachidonic acid, which is a driver of hepatic inflammation (85). Mancina *et al.* showed that rs641738 C > T variant of *MBOAT7* increased hepatic fat content, severity and fibrosis in comparison to subjects without the variant (44).

Ma *et al.* analyzed role of the SNP rs6834314 and its nearest gene, *17-beta hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 13 (HSD17B13)* in 768 adult Caucasians patients with NAFLD. The enzyme is lipid droplet-associated retinol dehydrogenase. The minor allele of rs6834314 was significantly associated with increased steatosis, but decreased severity (inflammation, ballooning, Mallory-Denk bodies) and liver enzyme levels (52).

The fatty acid transport protein 5 (*FATP5*) is involved in hepatic lipid and bile metabolism. Oxidative stress

plays an important role in pathogenesis of NASH and genes affecting oxidative stress have been shown to be associated with NASH. *GCLC* is involved in glutathione synthesis and variant is associated with steatohepatitis as compared to steatosis (55). Manganese-dependent superoxide dismutase (*MnSOD*) plays a role in protecting cells from oxidative stress. Al-Serri *et al.* showed that SOD2 C47T polymorphism was associated with more fibrosis in NASH (56). *Uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2)* is involved in mitochondrial lipid fluxes and reactive oxygen species production by the respiratory chain and it was observed that UCP2-866 A/A genotype was associated with increased hepatic UCP2 expression and reduced risk of NASH, particularly in subjects with normal glucose (57). Genes associated with inflammation also modify susceptibility of NAFLD/NASH. Valenti *et al.* analyzed 99 patients with NAFLD, 238 TNF-alpha polymorphism was higher in patients with NAFLD than in controls (31% vs. 15%; P=0.0001), and also these patients had had higher insulin resistance indices (58).

Iron overload is thought to be associated with severe forms of NAFLD; however, not all studies have found an association with *HFE* gene mutations (86-88). Apolipoproteins are proteins that bind to lipids to form lipoproteins, thus helping in transport of lipids and also have affinity to some receptors. While some studies have found an association of *Apolipoprotein C3* gene variants with NAFLD, other studies have not shown an association (89,90).

Genetic basis in the pathogenesis of ALD

As stated earlier, severity of liver disease differs among patients consuming similar type and quantity of alcohol over a similar duration. Even though alcoholic steatosis develops in majority, most patients consuming unsafe amount of alcohol escape from liver injury and do not develop significant liver disease (severe alcoholic hepatitis or cirrhosis). In fact, of all patients who consume alcohol in significant amount, cirrhosis develops only in 8–20% of patients (5,91,92). Bellentani *et al.* analyzed data of 6,534 subjects and observed that the risk of developing cirrhosis increased with increasing daily intake, drinking alcohol outside mealtimes and with use of different alcoholic beverages (91). Environmental factors other than heavy alcohol consumption which affect progression of ALD include gender (females are more susceptible), obesity and coexistence of viral hepatitis but are still not able to explain

the significant inter-individual differences in ALD (3). Thus, genetic and epigenetic factors may play an important role in the pathogenesis of ALD.

In a study comparing 580 cases and 279 controls (defined as free of significant liver disease despite similar alcohol consumption), cases were significantly more likely to report death of father due to ALD (odds ratio 2.53) (93). Reed *et al.* analyzed medical records of 15,924 twin-pairs from twin registry. The monozygotic twins had higher concordance of alcoholism (26.7 vs. 12.2 for dizygotic) and cirrhosis in comparison to dizygotic twins (6.9 vs. 5.3 for dizygotic, P<0.001) (11). In a meta-analysis of 12 twin and five adoption studies, heritability of alcohol use disorder was almost 50% (9). Analysing the inter-ethnic differences, Stinson *et al.* reported higher risk for alcoholic cirrhosis related mortality in Hispanics in comparison to African Americans non-Hispanics and white non-Hispanics (10).

Genetic modifiers in ALD

Multiple studies have shown *PNPLA3* gene polymorphisms to be associated with ALD. Tian *et al.* showed that rs738409 variant of *PNPLA3* was strongly associated with ALD (unadjusted OR =2.25) (94). Stickel *et al.* studied impact of rs738409 gene variant on manifestation of ALD in two German cohorts that included 1,043 alcoholic patients with or without ALD and in 376 at-risk drinkers. The rs738409 genotype GG was strongly over represented in patients with cirrhosis (OR 2.79) and in alcoholic patients with elevated ALT levels (OR 2.33). The population attributable risk of cirrhosis in carriers of *PNPLA3* rs738409 (G) was estimated to be 26.6% (95). Several studies have shown that *PNPLA3* is a risk factor for HCC in ALD (96-98). A study observed that patients with cirrhosis and HCC were more likely to be G/G homozygotes, and this happened more commonly in patients with alcohol/metabolic cirrhosis as compared to viral cirrhosis (96). Friedrich *et al.* studied I148M polymorphism in 421 Caucasian patients. The G allele of the I148M variant was significantly more common in patients with ALD and HCC. Also, transplant free survival was lower in these patients (97).

Data regarding the association of *TM6SF2* gene variant with ALD is less robust in comparison to NAFLD. Buch *et al.* performed a GWAS for alcohol related cirrhosis in 712 cases and 1,426 controls; the authors also validated results in two independent European cohorts (1,148 cases and 922 controls) and found that membrane bound O-acyltransferase domain containing 7 (*MBOAT7*), *TM6SF2* and *PNPLA3*

Table 3 Showing gene association studies in ALD

Pathway	Genes, (reference)	Polymorphism	Results/comments
Alcohol, metabolism	<i>ADH</i> (102,103)	ADH2*1 and ADH3*2	More frequent in cirrhosis
	<i>ALDH</i> (104)	ALDH2*1; ALDH2*1/1	More frequent in cirrhosis
	<i>Cytochrome P450</i> (105,106)	CYP2E1 5B; CYP2E1*c2	Interaction with other genes which are involved in detoxification of reactive oxygen species (GSTM1, GABRG2) increased risk
Lipid metabolism	<i>PNPLA3</i> (94-99)	PNPLA3 rs738409 C/G (amino acid change I148M)	Severity of disease and HCC
	<i>TM6SF2</i> (99-101)	TM6SF2 rs10401969 (C); rs58542926 (C/T) E167K	Severity of disease and HCC, not all studies have shown an association
	<i>MBOAT7</i> (99)	rs626283 (C)	Associated with cirrhosis
Oxidative stress	<i>SOD2</i> (107)	SOD2 A16V (rs4880)	Risk factor for severe alcoholic disease
Immune response	<i>TNF</i> (108)	TNF G238A (rs361525); G308A (rs1800629)	Susceptibility for alcoholic cirrhosis
	Interleukins and receptors (109)	IL1B	
	<i>CTLA4</i> (110)	CTLA4 G/G	Associated with cirrhosis

ALD, alcoholic liver disease.

gene variants were associated with alcohol related cirrhosis. As all these genes are involved in lipid metabolism, it appears that lipid turnover is also important in the pathogenesis of alcohol related cirrhosis (99). Mancina *et al.* studied 416 at-risk alcohol drinkers retrospectively. The authors observed that *PNPLA3*, *CD14* and *TM6SF2* were associated with prevalence of alcoholic cirrhosis but only *PNPLA3* and *CD14* (and not *TM6SF2*) were associated with incidence of alcoholic cirrhosis (100). Further, in an Eastern European population, *TM6SF2* rs58542926 and *MBOAT7* rs641738 were not found to be related to alcohol related cirrhosis (101).

The other genetic polymorphisms shown to be associated with ALD are shown in *Table 3* (94-110) and include alcohol metabolizing genes like alcohol dehydrogenase (*ADH*), aldehyde dehydrogenase (*ALDH*) and *Cytochrome P450 2E1* (*CYP2E1*). *ADH* oxidizes alcohol to acetaldehyde, and acetaldehyde is further oxidized to acetate by *ALDH*. Both these steps require NAD⁺ as cofactor and both these reactions lead to a reduced NAD⁺/NADH ratio, which favors fatty acid synthesis and fat accumulation. *CYP2E1* catalyzes ethanol oxidation to acetaldehyde, generating significant amount of reactive oxygen species, oxidative stress and inflammation. Formation of acetaldehyde and oxidative stress inhibit Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptor (PPAR) alpha

transcriptional activity, decreasing fatty acid oxidation (85). The genetic variants of *ADH*, *ALDH* and *CYP2E1* have also been shown to be associated alcoholic cirrhosis (102-106). The effect of *CYP2E1* variants increases in the presence of other genetic variants involved in detoxification of reactive oxygen species (105,106). Genes involved in inflammation like cytotoxic T-lymphocyte associated protein 4, tumor necrosis factor and interleukin 1 beta are also associated with higher risk of cirrhosis (108-110). *Figure 1* shows genetic modifiers of NAFLD and ALD.

Epigenetic modifiers in NAFLD and ALD

Epigenetics include a process that alters gene activity without changing the DNA sequence. These changes can be transmitted to daughter cells by cell division. Epigenetic modifications are caused by alterations in DNA methylation, modifications in histone proteins and by micro RNAs (miR) (111-113). Epigenetic changes have been shown to affect both NAFLD (114) and ALD (85); however, knowledge and data regarding epigenetic changes is limited at present. miRNAs are transcribed in cell nucleus and transported to the cytoplasm, where they are processed into mature miRNAs. miRNAs are 19-22 nucleotide non-coding sequences that bind to the complementary sequence of messenger RNA molecules and regulate gene expression

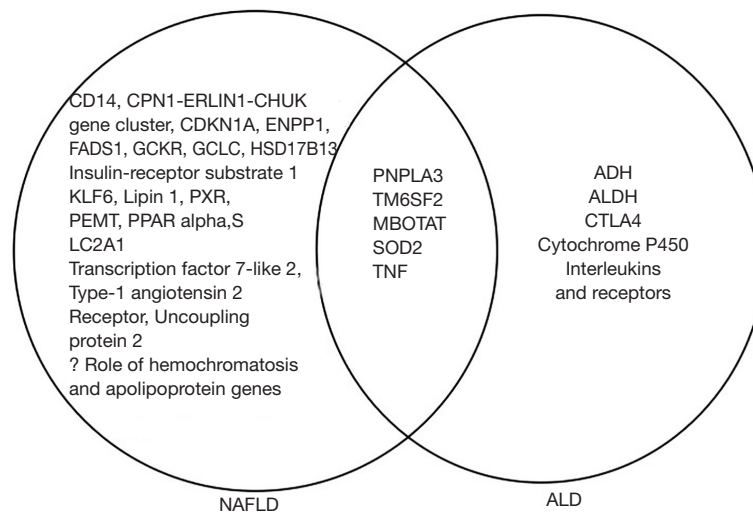


Figure 1 Venn diagram showing genetic factors associated with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and alcoholic liver disease. ADH, alcohol dehydrogenase; ALDH, Aldehyde dehydrogenases; Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 1A, CTLA4: cytotoxic T-lymphocyte associated protein 4, ENPP1, ectoenzyme nucleotide pyrophosphate phosphodiesterase 1; FADS1, fatty acid desaturase 1; GCKR, glucokinase regulatory protein; GCLC, Glutamate-Cysteine Ligase Catalytic Subunit; HSD17B13, 17-beta hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 13; KLF6, Kruppel-like factor; LPIN1, Lipin 1; MBOAT7, membrane-bound O-acyltransferase domain-containing 7; PNPLA3, patatin-like phospholipase domain-containing protein 3; PPAR alpha, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha; PEMT, phosphatidylethanolamine N-methyltransferase; PXR, pregnane X receptor; SLC2A1, solute carrier family 2 member 1; SOD2, superoxide dismutase 2; TM6SF2, transmembrane 6 superfamily 2; TNF, tumor necrosis factor.

by silencing or inhibition of translation. miRNAs play a role in many cellular processes. miRNA dysregulation has been shown to be associated with several liver diseases including ALD, NAFLD, viral hepatitis, fibrosis and HCC (111,112). miRNAs remain stable in the circulation (blood and urine) and thus represent potential biomarkers for diseases (115). Following miRNAs are shown to be up regulated in ALD (in humans or animal models); miR-155, miR-34a, miR-212, miR-21, miR-181a, miR-217, miR-223. Following miRNAs are down regulated in ALD; miR-122, miR-29, miR-199a, miR-125b, miR-126, mi200a, miR-375. These miRNAs are involved in increased intestinal permeability, liver injury, inflammation, steatosis, oxidative stress, fibrosis, cirrhosis and HCC, in humans or animal models (85,116-118). Data in NAFLD patients suggests that following miRNAs are upregulated in NAFLD: miR-21, miR-34a, miR-182 whereas miR-122 is down regulated (114). Other epigenetic mechanisms which affect NAFLD and ALD include DNA methylation. In a study of DNA methylation of 4 CpG islands (CpG99, CpG71, CpG26 and CpG101) in regulatory regions of PNPLA3, SAMM50, PARVB variant 1, and PARVB variant

2, Kitamoto *et al.* showed hypomethylation of CpG26 (PARVB variant 1) and hypermethylation of CpG99 in the regulatory region of PNPLA3 which was associated with fibrosis in NAFLD (119). Cordero *et al.* showed that liver fat accumulation induced by a high-fat-sucrose diet in male Wistar rats was prevented by methyl donor supplementation (120). Zeybel *et al.* showed that differential DNA methylation at specific CpGs within genes affecting fibrogenesis distinguished mild from severe fibrosis in both NAFLD and ALD (121). Hardy *et al.* compared biopsy proven NAFLD patients with controls; differential DNA methylation at PPAR γ promoter was detected within the pool of cell-free DNA of plasma. Similar changes were present in patients with alcoholic cirrhosis (122).

Modifications of the histone proteins are other epigenetic mechanism involved in the pathogenesis of NAFLD and ALD. The histones are involved in maintenance of chromatin structure and gene expression. Modifications described are the acetylation which causes activation of gene transcription and deacetylation causing repression of genes. The imbalance between enzymes causing acetylation and deacetylation may influence the phenotypic gene

expression (123). The aberrant histone modifications promote development of insulin resistance and diabetes mellitus (124). cAMP responsive element-binding protein (CREBH) is a hepatocyte specific transcription factor, which is localized in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane. CREBH is activated by ER stress or inflammation, which enters into the cell nucleus and activates expression of genes involved in acute-phase response, gluconeogenesis, lipogenesis, fatty acid oxidation, and lipolysis. Thus, modulation of CREBH acetylation can lead to altered lipid homeostasis associated with NAFLD (123,125). The activation of deacetylase sirtuin-1 has potential against the physiological mechanisms related to NAFLD (126). Alcohol also has been shown to affect acetylation and phosphorylation of histones in rat hepatocytes (127).

In an example of epigenetic change transmitted to offspring, Bruce *et al.* showed that maternal fat intake during gestation in female mice contributed to development of NAFLD in offspring (128). Female mice were fed with either a high-fat (HF) or control chow (C) diet before and during gestation, and during lactation. The offspring were fed either a C or a HF diet after weaning, thus generating four offspring groups: HF/HF, HF/C, C/HF, C/C. The liver histology was normal in C/C and HF/C offspring at 15 weeks. The C/HF offspring developed NAFL while HF/HF offspring developed NASH. Histological analysis at 30 weeks showed NAFLD in HF/C and C/HF groups, whereas the HF/HF had a more severe form of NASH. Thus, exposure to HF diet in utero and during lactation contributed to severe form of disease. Hepatic mitochondrial electron transport chain enzyme complex activity was reduced in offspring from HF-fed mothers. Also, lipogenesis, oxidative stress, and inflammatory pathways were up regulated at 15 weeks in offsprings of HF mothers (128).

Clinical implications of genetic and epigenetic modifiers in NAFLD and ALD

Genetic information can change occurrence of a disease in several ways. First, it may lead to behaviour change of a subject, thus decreasing risk of disease. Second, disease can be diagnosed timely or can be prevented by timely intervention. Third, pharmacotherapy can be tailored as per genetic information. As fibrosis progression in both NAFLD and ALD spans many years, a timely diagnosis/intervention of at risk subjects can prevent development of cirrhosis. As *PNPLA3* is associated with higher risk

of HCC, the knowledge of genetic modifiers may also help in identifying patients who would need strict HCC surveillance (75). A lower threshold may be kept in patients with *TM6SF2* variants for cardiovascular disease screening (82). Genetic and epigenetic modifiers may alter response to pharmacotherapy and thus may help in modifying the treatment options. Dongiovanni *et al.* looked at response to statins in 107 patients with NAFLD. Use of statins was significantly associated with protection from steatosis, NASH, and fibrosis, but this effect was stronger in patients without I148M *PNPLA3* risk variant. Thus, I148M *PNPLA3* variant limited efficacy of statins (129). Scorletti *et al.* studied 103 patients with NAFLD, randomized to omega-3 fatty acids (DHA + EPA) or placebo for 15–18 months. Fifty-five men and 40 women completed the study. *PNPLA3* 148M/M variant influenced the changes in liver fat and DHA tissue enrichment (130). Patients with *PNPLA3* polymorphism have been shown to respond better to life style modifications (131). Since pathogenesis of NAFLD is complex and is affected by several environmental and genetic factors, a single genetic variant is unlikely to have very strong role in risk prediction; however, a combination score of several genetic variants may provide useful insight into disease progression in future. Whether genetic information can modify disease risk of NAFLD or ALD, is yet to be seen. How genetic information can modify diet was shown by Nielsen *et al.* The authors conducted a double-blinded randomized controlled trial to examine the short- and long-term effects of genetic information on nutrition and dietary intake of caffeine, vitamin C, added sugars and sodium. The intervention group (n=92) received genetic information based dietary advice and the control group (n=46) received general dietary recommendations without genetic information for 12-month. At 12-month, the participants with a risk type of *ACE* gene in the intervention group significantly reduced sodium intake compared to the control group (132). The genetic information about risk of future development of NAFLD or ALD should lead to change of risk behavior and decrease of modifiable risk factors like diet, exercise, avoidance of weight gain or weight loss (if obese), decrease in amount/frequency of alcohol consumption.

Conclusions

A significant variability in disease severity of NAFLD and ALD occur due to genetic modifiers. Epigenetics changes may explain the phenotypic variability in patients with

similar gene polymorphism. Knowledge of genetic and epigenetic modifiers should lead to development of new therapeutic targets and more selected therapy for patients with NAFLD and ALD. Also, better risk prediction regarding development of cirrhosis and HCC should be feasible in future with better understanding of these factors.

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