

## Review

# Role of NLRP3 Inflammasome in Parkinson's Disease and Therapeutic Considerations

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**Abstract.** Parkinson's disease (PD) is the second most common neurodegenerative disease, with two main pathological features: misfolded  $\alpha$ -synuclein protein accumulation and neurodegeneration. Inflammation has recently been identified as a contributor to a cascade of events that may aggravate PD pathology. Inflammasomes, a group of intracellular protein complexes, play an important role in innate immune responses to various diseases, including infection. In PD research, accumulating evidence suggests that  $\alpha$ -synuclein aggregations may activate inflammasomes, particularly the nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-leucine-rich repeat-pyrin domain-containing 3 (NLRP3) type, which exacerbates inflammation in the central nervous system by secreting proinflammatory cytokines like interleukin (IL)-18 and IL-1 $\beta$ . Afterward, activated NLRP3 triggers local microglia and astrocytes to release additional IL-1 $\beta$ . In turn, the activated inflammatory process may contribute to additional  $\alpha$ -synuclein aggregation and cell loss. This review summarizes current research evidence on how the NLRP3 inflammasome contributes to PD pathogenesis, as well as potential therapeutic strategies targeting the NLRP3 inflammasome in PD.

**Keywords:** Parkinson's disease, inflammasome, NLRP3,  $\alpha$ -synuclein, treatment

## INTRODUCTION

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disease characterized by movement disorders caused by aggregation of misfolded  $\alpha$ -synuclein ( $\alpha$ Syn) and neuronal loss, particularly of dopaminergic neurons

[1]. The pathogenesis of PD has long been understood by inflammatory changes in patients' brains, but it has recently been recognized that the cause of the progressive disease is both the central and peripheral immune system [2]. Inflammasomes are intracellular protein complexes that act as sensors of innate immune responses, activating the inflammatory cascade during various disease conditions such as infection [3]. The following evidence suggests the neuroinflammatory role of inflammasomes

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in PD pathogenesis [4]. In a postmortem study, increased constituent proteins of the inflammasome were found in the substantia nigra of PD brains [5, 6]. Furthermore, protein components of inflammasomes, which are abundant in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) in patients with PD, are considered potential biomarkers for PD [7]. In terms of  $\alpha$ Syn pathology, the inflammasome effector protein caspase-1 enhances  $\alpha$ Syn aggregation by inducing truncation of the  $\alpha$ Syn protein [8]. In an animal model, Gordon et al. found a direct link between nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain (NOD)-leucine-rich repeat (LRR)-pyrin domain (PYD)-containing (NLRP3) and PD pathogenesis induced by  $\alpha$ Syn preformed fibrils [6]. They also confirmed this theory by treating the mice with the small molecule MCC950 and observing its inhibitory effect on the NLRP3 inflammasome, which further reduced motor dysfunction, neurodegeneration, and  $\alpha$ Syn accumulation. The hypothesis of the PD–inflammasome axis suggests that the NLRP3 inflammasome may collaborate with other contributors to PD progression, inducing  $\alpha$ Syn spread and exacerbating neuroinflammation, which leads to more cell death.

In this review, we will explain how the NLRP3 inflammasome is activated in PD by discussing its priming and activation pathways and summarize some proposed PD treatments targeting this NLRP3 inflammasome based on its molecular pathways.

## WHAT IS AN INFLAMMASOME?

Inflammasomes were first identified as a molecular platform of the innate immune system in 2002 [9]. The inflammasome is a cytosolic multiprotein complex mostly present in immune cells that can be assembled in response to pathogen or damage-associated molecular pattern (PAMP or DAMP) signals by pattern recognition receptors [3]. The maturation of the inflammasome and release of proinflammatory cytokines guide immune cell reactions during inflammation [3].

Scientists discovered several types of inflammasomes, four of which were well characterized: NLRP1 in 2002, NLRP3 and NLR family caspase recruitment domain (CARD) domain-containing protein 4 (NLRC4) (also known as ice protease-activating factor) in 2006, and absent in melanoma 2 (AIM2) in 2009 [3]. A wide range of research has been conducted to better understand this pro-

tein complex, and it has become clear that these inflammasomes have been linked to various diseases, including neurodegenerative, autoimmune, metabolic, and infectious diseases [10]. Accordingly, clinical trials targeting the function of these proteins have been developed for various diseases [11]. In 2008, the Food and Drug Administration approved rilonacept, an interleukin (IL)-1 Trap, and canakinumab, an anti-IL-1 $\beta$  with an NLRP3 inhibitory effect, to treat cryopyrin-associated periodic syndrome (CAPS). Later in 2015, Coll et al. demonstrated that the MCC950, which was originally designed to block IL-1 $\beta$  production, can also inhibit the NLRP3 inflammasome and thus improve the symptoms of multiple sclerosis and CAPS [12]. These breakthroughs ushered in a new decade of inflammasome research, with scientists believing that inhibitors of inflammasome have beneficial effects on cardiovascular diseases, metabolic diseases, cancer, and neurodegenerative diseases [13].

## INVOLVEMENT OF INFLAMMASOME IN PD PATHOGENESIS

The activation of inflammasome was studied in various PD models. Table 1 summarizes the postmortem, *in vitro*, and *in vivo* characteristics of various inflammasomes found in the PD model. As shown in Table 1, the NLRP3 inflammasome was consistently found to be activated in animals, cells, human biofluids, and postmortem human studies of PD. However, other types of inflammasomes, such as NLRP1, NLRP2, NLRC4, and AIM2, showed little or no difference in activity in PD models.

It is unclear why only the specific phenotype of the inflammasome is activated, but it is assumed that different types of stimuli from specific diseases may cause distinct activations in the specific phenotype of the inflammasome [22].

Besides increased NLRP3 activation in PD, several studies support the link between the inflammasome and clinical features in the disease. Increased NLRP3 protein was found in the postmortem PD brain, particularly in the late disease stages, suggesting an association with disease severity [5]. To better understand the link between inflammasome activation and disease severity, Anderson et al. investigated the inflammasome in postmortem substantia nigra pars compacta at different stages of neurodegeneration [23]. Unexpectedly, immunoreactive NLRP3 constituent proteins were found in patients with the

Table 1  
Characteristics of Inflammasomes in various PD models

Type of inflammasome	Species	Sources	Models	Change in component of inflammasomes	Evaluation method	References
NLRP3	Rodent	Midbrain	MPTP	↑NLRP3/↑pro-CASP1/↑CASP1/↑pro-IL-1β/ ↑IL-1β	WB	[14]
		Striatum/Substantia nigra	6-OHDA/αSyn fibril	↑pro-CASP1/↑CASP1/↑ASC	WB	[6]
		Substantia nigra	Transgenic αSyn mutated A30*A53T	↑pro-IL-1β/↑IL-1β	WB/RT-qPCR	[15]
		Whole brain	AVV-αSyn	↑NLRP3/↑CASP1/↑ASC	WB	[16]
		Primary microglia	αSyn fibril	↑NLRP3/↑CASP1/↑pro-IL-1β/ ↑IL-1β	WB/ELISA	[16]
		↑IL-1β/↑NLRP3	ELISA/WB	[17]		
		Monomeric/oligomeric/ribbons αSyn	↑IL-1β/↑NLRP3/↑ASC	ELISA/WB	[18]	
		Primary astrocyte	MPP <sup>+</sup>	↑NLRP3/↑CASP1/↑pro-IL-1β/↑IL-1β	WB	[19]
		Primary cortical neurons	Rotenone	↑IL-1β/↑IL-18/↑CASP1	WB/RT-qPCR/ELISA/cytology	[15]
		Human	Monocytes	αSyn fibril	↑NLRP3/↑CASP1/↑pro-IL-1β/↑IL-1β	RT-qPCR/WB/ELISA
	PBMCs		Patients with PD	↑NLRP3/↑ASC/↑CASP1/↑IL-1β ↑NLRP3/ ↑CASP1	WB/RT-qPCR RT-qPCR/cytology	[7, 58]
	Monomeric/fibril αSyn		↑CASP1/↑IL-1β	ELISA/cytology	[21]	
	Primary microglia		αSyn fibril	↑NLRP3/↑ASC/↑CASP1/↑pro-IL-1β/↑IL-1β	WB/ELISA/cytology	[17]
	NLRP1	Rodent	Extracellular vesicle from plasma	Patients with PD	↑NLRP3/↑ASC/↑pro-CASP1/↑pro-GSDMD/↑GSDMD	WB
CSF			Patients with PD	↑IL-1β/↑IL-18	ELISA	[15]
Postmortem substantia nigra			Patients with PD	↑pro-CASP1/↑CASP1/↑ASC	WB/histology	[6]
Postmortem mesencephalic tissues			↑NLRP3/↑ASC	Histology	[23]	
↑NLRP3			Histology/RT-qPCR	[5]		
Midbrain			MPTP	↑NLRP1/↑pro-CASP1/↑CASP1/↑pro-IL-1β/↑IL-1β	WB	[14]
NLRP2	Human	PBMCs	Patients with PD	No differences	WB/RT-qPCR	[7]
NLRC4	Rodent	Brain	MPTP	No differences	WB	[14]
NLRC4	Human	PBMCs	Patients with PD	No differences	WB/RT-qPCR	[7]

B, western blot; RT-qPCR, reverse transcription-quantitative polymerase chain reaction; ELISA, enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; MPTP, 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine; MPP<sup>+</sup>, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (ion); PD, Parkinson's disease; PBMCs, peripheral blood mononuclear cells; CSF, cerebrospinal fluid; 6-OHDA, 6-hydroxydopamine hydrobromide; AAV-αSyn, adeno-associated virus expresses αSyn; NLRP, nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain-leucine-rich repeat-pyrin domain-containing; NLRC4, NLR family caspase recruitment domain (CARD) domain-containing protein 4; AIM2, absent in melanoma 2; IL-1β, interleukin 1 beta; IL-18, interleukin 18; ASC, apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD; CASP1, caspase-1; GSDMD, gasdermin D.

intermediate stage of cell loss, indicating that inflammasome activation is not merely a late event or a result of the disease. Fan et al. also reported that the plasma NLRP3 inflammasome effector protein and IL-1 $\beta$  levels in patients with PD were positively correlated with the severity of motor dysfunction assessed by the Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale part III scores and Hoehn and Yahr staging [7].

### NLRP3: STRUCTURE AND ACTIVATION PATHWAY

The NLRP3 inflammasome is derived from the sensor protein NLRP3 (Fig. 1). NIMA-related kinase 7 (NEK7) has recently been shown to activate NLRP3 by binding to the LRR domain and NOD [24, 25]. The NLRP3 PYD interacts with the apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD (ASC) adaptor PYD. This PYD then assembles ASC multimers to create a protein complex called ASC speck [26]. When activated, the ASC CARD recruits an effector pro-caspase-1, resulting in NLRP3 oligomerization and the formation of a full inflammasome structure. Mature caspase-1 then induces the release of proinflammatory cytokines IL-1 $\beta$  and IL-18, as well as pyroptosis, a type of programmed cell death, by cleaving gasdermin D (GSDMD) and forming a membrane pore [27, 28].

There are three types of NLRP3 inflammasome activation pathways: canonical, noncanonical, and alternative [29]. In the NLRP3-canonical pathway, two signals are required, corresponding to two processes: priming and activation. The priming pathway is produced when PAMPs or DAMPs activate the nuclear factor kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B) pathway via the toll-like receptors (TLRs) or tumor necrosis factor receptor (TNFR) cytokine ligands, promoting pro-IL-1 $\beta$  and pro-IL-18 transcription [30, 31]. The activation pathway starts with PAMP or DAMP signals to assemble the full structure of inflammasomes with caspase-1 maturation. Pathogens that induce PAMPs include viruses, fungi, and bacterial pore-forming toxins [32–34]. Some factors have been identified as DAMPs, including amyloid- $\beta$ , monosodium urate crystals, imidazoquinolinone compounds, and others [35–37].

Noncanonical NLRP3 activation, unlike canonical activation, is unrelated to caspase-1 activity. Caspase-11 in mice and its human orthologues, caspase-4/5, are involved in the intracellular lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-activating noncanonical pathway [38, 39].

When LPS activates a noncanonical NLRP3 pathway, caspases 4/5/11 cause pyroptotic cell death in a pattern similar to the canonical pathway, but proinflammatory cytokines are not directly secreted [40]. Ion flux following membrane pore formation could be the signal that recruits caspase-1 and cytokines [41].

Furthermore, for extracellular LPS, another activation pathway known as the “alternative pathway” exists in which caspase-8 (in humans) is activated via TLR4–adaptor protein TIR domain-containing adapter molecule 1 axis signals and directly triggers the assembly of NLRP3 without the involvement of a second signal [42].

### NLRP3 CANONICAL PATHWAY IN PD

#### *NLRP3 priming pathway in PD*

In postmortem studies, TLR2 was found to be increased in the brains of patients with PD [43, 44]. Fitz et al. found that  $\alpha$ Syn upregulated TLR gene expression in primary and BV-2 microglia [45]. They also found an increase in downstream MYD88 and NF- $\kappa$ B genes in primary microglia, indicating TLR activation. The hypothesis of  $\alpha$ Syn as a priming signal via TLRs was supported once more when TLR4 was thought to be unreplaceable for  $\alpha$ Syn-dependent activation of microglia and astrocytes [46]. TLR3 and TLR4 mRNA levels were higher in the brains of PD animal models, including 6-hydroxydopamine hydrobromide (6-OHDA), rotenone, and the LPS model [47]. The TLR4 deficiency in the 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) mouse model reduces NLRP3, ASC, pro-caspase-1, and IL-1 $\beta$  levels, supporting the role of TLRs and the NLRP3 axis in the PD context [48, 49]. Panicker et al. found a novel pathway in which  $\alpha$ Syn binds to TLR2 and cluster of differentiation (CD36) receptors, priming NLRP3 via Fyn kinase, leading to NF- $\kappa$ B transcription, and finally assembling the full structure by inducing reactive oxygen species (ROS) release [16]. Notably, Scheiblich et al. demonstrated that  $\alpha$ Syn monomer and oligomer could directly activate microglial NLRP3 to release IL-1 $\beta$  in primary microglia via TLR2/TLR5 and that the absence of NLRP3 also contributed to  $\alpha$ Syn clearance [18]. Interestingly, they found that TLR2 contributed to priming, whereas the novel TLR5 acted on activation via an unknown mechanism.

Taken together, PD pathology such as  $\alpha$ Syn may prime NLRP3 mainly via TLR2/4, leading to

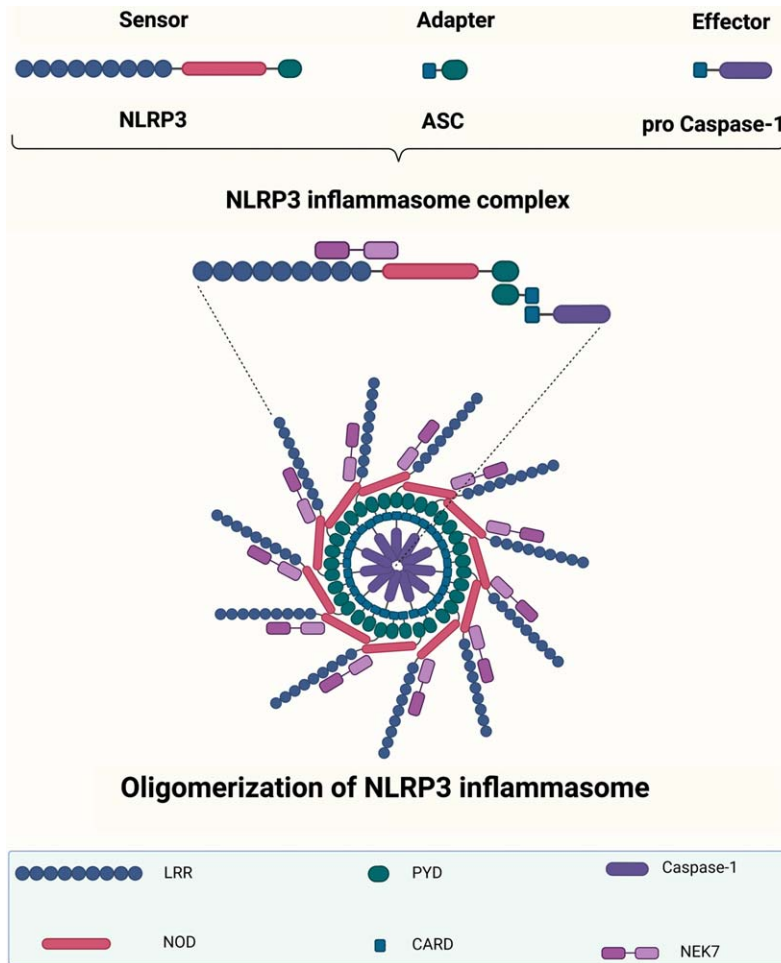


Fig. 1. NLRP3 inflammasome structure and oligomerization. The NLRP3 inflammasome complex includes a sensor NLRP3 protein, an adaptor ASC protein, and a pro-caspase-1 protein. When the NLRP3 inflammasome is activated, the adaptor protein ASC binds to the sensor NLRP3 protein via PYD–PYD polymerization. NLRP3 oligomerization occurs after this ASC recruits the effector protein pro-caspase-1 via its CARD. The first half of NEK7 binds to the NLRP3 LRR domain, whereas the second half interacts with the NOD. NLRP3, NOD-like receptor family-pyrin domain-containing 3; LRR, leucine-rich repeat; NOD, nucleotide-binding oligomerization domain; PYD, pyrin domain; ASC, apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD; CARD, caspase recruitment domain; NEK7, NIMA-related kinase 7. The graph was created using Biorender.com.

239 activation of NF- $\kappa$ B transcription and downstream  
 240 pathways. Other priming pathways in PD that are  
 241 mediated by different receptors, such as TNFR or  
 242 IL-1 R, have yet to be identified (Fig. 2).

#### 243 *NLRP3 activation pathway in PD*

##### 244 *Via ion flux*

245 The NLRP3 inflammasome is thought to be acti-  
 246 vated by ion fluxes, including  $K^+$  efflux,  $Na^+$  influx,  
 247 and  $Ca^{2+}$  mobilization [50, 51]. The ion flux is  
 248 linked to P2X purinoceptor 7 (P2X7), a member  
 249 of the plasma membrane receptor family known  
 250 as the P2 receptor family, which may be mediated

251 by extracellular adenosine triphosphate (ATP) [52].  
 252 After stimulation, P2X7 collaborates with the two-  
 253 pore-domain potassium channel  $K^+$  efflux channel to  
 254 further mediate NLRP3-induced inflammation [53].  
 255 In a genetic study, the P2X7 receptor gene polymor-  
 256 phism (1513A>C) is associated with an increased risk  
 257 of sporadic PD in the Han Chinese population [54].  
 258 This receptor is linked to the abundance of microglia  
 259 and the inflammasomes put this link to PD into  
 260 context [55]. Furthermore, P2X7 has recently been  
 261 identified as a neuroinflammatory marker in PD [56].  
 262 In rats injected with 6-OHDA, neuroinflammation  
 263 was marked by increased P2X7 colocalization with  
 264 microglia, but no differences were observed in the

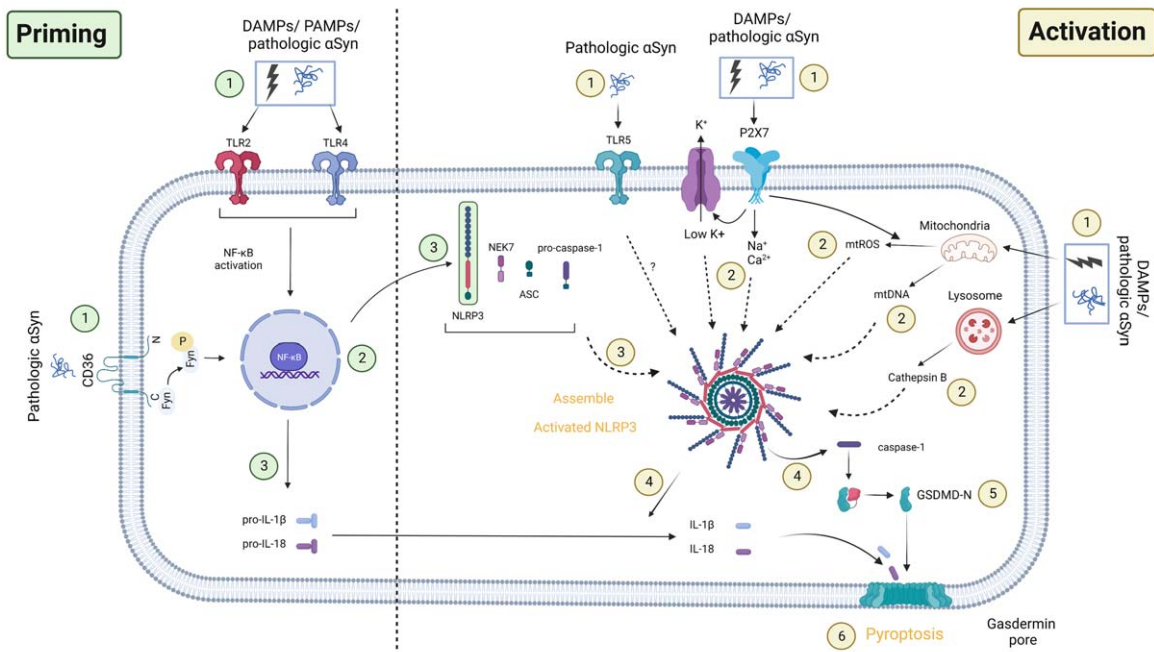


Fig. 2. Proposed NLRP3 priming and activation pathway in PD. Priming: (1) The first signals associated with the priming process may be caused by PAMPs/DAMPs or pathologic  $\alpha$ Syn binding to TLRs, followed by (2) activation of downstream NF- $\kappa$ B transcription. This induces the upregulation of (3) NLRP3 and (3) pro-IL-1 $\beta$ /pro-IL-18 transcription in the cell. Activation: The second signal corresponding to the activation process may come from (1) the novel TLR5/ion flux in association with the P2X7 receptor/lysosome/mitochondrial dysfunction. These events induced (2)  $K^+$  efflux in addition to  $Na^+/Ca^{2+}$  influx, cathepsin B release, or mtROS/mtDNA production in the cell. When this process is completed, (3) NLRP3's full structure will be recruited, releasing (4) caspase-1 and maturing (4) IL-1 $\beta$ /IL-18. Active caspase-1 now cleaves GSDMD (5) and forms gasdermin pores on the cell membrane, inducing programmed cell death known as (6) pyroptosis. Another novel pathway involves the facilitation of Fyn kinase, which allows (1) pathologic  $\alpha$ Syn to directly prime and activate NLRP3 via the CD36 receptor and TLR2, as well as (2) mtROS secretion. PAMPs/DAMPs, pathogen/damage-associated molecular pattern; TLRs, toll-like receptors; NF- $\kappa$ B, nuclear factor kappa B; CD36, cluster of differentiation 36; P2X7, P2X purinoceptor 7; NEK7, NIMA-related kinase 7; NLRP3, NOD-like receptor family-pyrin domain-containing 3; mtROS, mitochondrial reactive oxygen species; mtDNA, mitochondrial DNA; ASC, apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD; GSDMD, gasdermin D. The graph was created using Biorender.com.

265  $\alpha$ Syn over-expression models [57]. Recent research  
 266 on PBMCs of patients with PD revealed NLRP3  
 267 activation via P2X7, which could trigger down-  
 268 stream pathways of NLRP3 inflammasome activa-  
 269 tion [58]. Blocking this receptor with an antago-  
 270 nist reduced IL-1 $\beta$ /IL-18 release in primary microglia  
 271 from animal models or PBMCs from patients with PD [55, 58].  
 272 These findings indicate that PD pathology may acti-  
 273 vate the NLRP3 inflammasome via ion flux in relation  
 274 to the P2X7 receptor.

#### 275 Via lysosome

276 Several genes involved in autophagy-lysosomal  
 277 function have been linked to PD pathogenesis, includ-  
 278 ing *GBA1*, LRR kinase 2 (*LRRK2*), *GALC*, *GLA*,  
 279 *VPS35*, *SMPD1*, and others [59, 60]. Furthermore,  
 280 dysfunction in these genes may contribute to neuroin-  
 281 flammation. In Zebrafish, a loss-of-function mutation  
 282 in *GBA1* gene, which encodes for the lysoso-

283 mal enzyme  $\beta$ -glucocerebrosidase, resulted in early  
 284 microglial activation [61]. In the *GBA1* knock-out  
 285 mouse model, overexpressed human  $\alpha$ Syn continued  
 286 to induce microglial activation in the substantia nigra  
 287 region [62]. In mouse primary microglia, *LRRK2*  
 288 could promote microglia activation and release neu-  
 289 rotoxic mediators such as TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-6 [63].  
 290 These findings suggest that lysosomal damage may  
 291 contribute to neuroinflammation in PD pathogenesis,  
 292 although the precise pathway remains unknown.

293 A protease family of lysosomal cathepsins is  
 294 thought to be involved in  $\alpha$ Syn clearance and pro-  
 295 tein truncation [64, 65]. Furthermore, various types  
 296 of cathepsin have been shown to function in microglia  
 297 [66]. Interestingly, the relationship between cathep-  
 298 sin and NLRP3 activation was found in response  
 299 to different types of DAMP or PAMP stimuli [67].  
 300 The absence of cathepsins in an *in vitro* or *in vivo*  
 301 model reduced IL-1 $\beta$  release, indicating that they

302 have an effect on the NLRP3 activation process  
303 [68–70]. In human monocytes, monomeric  $\alpha$ Syn  
304 caused lysosomal leakage, resulting in the release of  
305 cathepsin B and the activation of NLRP3 [20]. These  
306 findings were confirmed in THP-1 cells, a human  
307 leukemia monocytic cell line, with the rupture of  
308 lysosome-induced cathepsin B and NLRP3 activa-  
309 tion [71]. Cathepsin B, NLRP3, caspase-1, and IL-1 $\beta$   
310 were found to be higher in A53T mutant microglial  
311 cells and animal models [72]. Overall, these studies  
312 proposed an activation mode of the NLRP3 inflam-  
313 masome via cathepsin B release when PD pathology  
314 causes lysosomal dysfunction.

### 315 *Via mitochondria*

316 Like the lysosome, mitochondrial gene mutations,  
317 such as *PINK1*, *PARK2*, and *VPS35*, have been linked  
318 to PD pathology in rare familial cases [73]. In general,  
319 it is known that mitochondria contribute to the innate  
320 immune system during the disease process, especially  
321 by regulating NLRP3 inflammasome activation [74].  
322 Interestingly, *PINK1* and *Parkin* have been shown  
323 to modulate NLRP3 activation by affecting the TLR  
324 downstream pathway in microglia [75].

325 ROS is one of the by-products of the mitochondrial  
326 cellular process that may be the missing puzzle piece  
327 of the mitochondrial damage–inflammasome axis.  
328 Mitochondrial ROS (mtROS) regulates microglia  
329 activation during inflammation via mitogen-activated  
330 protein kinase and NF- $\kappa$ B [76]. In PD,  $\alpha$ Syn  
331 caused mitochondrial damage-induced ROS release  
332 in human dopaminergic neurons [77]. Furthermore,  
333  $\alpha$ Syn could induce ROS release alongside NLRP3  
334 activation by releasing caspase-1 and IL-1 $\beta$  in a THP-  
335 1 cell line [71]. Suppression of ROS by the fungus  
336 *Antrodia amorphate* polysaccharide in the 6-OHDA  
337 animal model significantly decreased NLRP3, ASC,  
338 and caspase-1 [78]. Interestingly, the P2X7 receptor  
339 was also involved in  $\alpha$ Syn-induced mtROS release  
340 [79]. In addition to mtROS, mitochondrial DNA  
341 (mtDNA) is involved in the mitochondrial response  
342 to stress. Studies comparing nigrostriatal integrity  
343 using *in vivo* dopamine transporter imaging of the  
344 brains of patients with PD and patients with mtDNA  
345 homeostasis disease revealed the important role of  
346 mtDNA homeostasis in dopaminergic neurons in the  
347 substantia nigra. The newly synthesized mtDNA, in  
348 particular, is responsible for oxidized mtDNA, which  
349 is thought to activate the NLRP3 inflammasome [80,  
350 81]. The study of mtDNA release in serum revealed  
351 a significant difference between patients with idio-  
352 pathic PD and those with PD due to the *Parkin/PINK1*

353 mutation [82]. Furthermore, a postmortem study of  
354 mtDNA levels in the cerebrospinal fluid revealed  
355 distinct levels between PD and other diseases [83].  
356 However, direct evidence that mtDNA activates the  
357 NLRP3 inflammasome in PD using animal or cell  
358 models is still required for further investigation.

### 359 **NONCANONICAL PATHWAY OF NLRP3** 360 **IN PD**

361 In contrast to the canonical pathway, the non-  
362 canonical pathway of the NLRP3 in PD is poorly  
363 understood. For a decade, scientists assumed that  
364  $\alpha$ Syn only activated the NLRP3 inflammasome and  
365 released proinflammatory cytokines via caspase-1.  
366 In 2021, Pike et al. found that inhibiting caspase-1  
367 activation did not reduce IL-1 $\beta$  in primary human  
368 microglia induced by fibrillar  $\alpha$ Syn [17]. This was in  
369 contrast to their findings in primary mouse microglia,  
370 which were also induced by fibrillar  $\alpha$ Syn but were  
371 entirely dependent on caspase-1. The authors sug-  
372 gested that the noncanonical NLRP3 activation via  
373 different caspases (caspase-8/11) was the pathway  
374 underlying the  $\alpha$ Syn-induced PD model using human  
375 primary microglia. Caspase-11 was found to be  
376 involved in PD pathogenesis *in vivo*, but whether it is  
377 related to the inflammasome requires further investi-  
378 gation [84].

379 Taken together, we proposed that DAMPs (6-  
380 OHDA/MPTP/1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (ion)),  
381 PAMPs (LPS), or PD pathology ( $\alpha$ Syn) may prime or  
382 activate the canonical NLRP3 inflammasome path-  
383 way via the aforementioned patterns, as shown in  
384 Fig. 2. Because the noncanonical NLRP3 activation  
385 and alternative activation pathways in PD remain  
386 unknown, we excluded them in this figure.

### 387 **THERAPEUTIC TRIALS TARGETING** 388 **THE NLRP3 INFLAMMASOME**

389 Drug development for the NLRP3-related dis-  
390 ease mechanism typically aims to prevent canonical  
391 activation of this inflammasome by (1) detaching  
392 the structure, (2) ceasing transcription during the  
393 priming pathway, (3) hindering activation signals  
394 (DAMPs) during the activation pathway, and (4)  
395 deactivating this inflammasome via post-translational  
396 modification. In terms of NLRP3 activation in PD,  
397 finding treatment targets should be based on the  
398 mechanism of NLRP3 activation. Therefore, in this  
399 section, we will discuss the potential treatment targets

400 for inhibiting NLRP3 inflammasome activation that  
401 have been studied in other diseases as well as  
402 PD. Additionally, we will include the novel ther-  
403 apeutic candidates targeting the PD–NLRP3 axis  
404 with an unknown mechanism for future research  
405 consideration. Table 2 summarizes potential PD ther-  
406 apeutic candidates under consideration with known  
407 or unknown NLRP3 mechanisms.

#### 408 *Preventing NLRP3 assembly by targeting each* 409 *component protein*

410 To fully activate the NLRP3 inflammasome, all  
411 inflammasome compositions need to be assembled.  
412 Therefore, current research aims to inhibit this assem-  
413 bly by targeting each of the constituent proteins: (1)  
414 NEK7; (2) NLRP3; (3) ASC adaptor protein; and (4)  
415 effector proteins, including caspase-1, (5) IL-1 $\beta$ , and  
416 IL-18.

417 In terms of NEK7, it is thought to be an  
418 upstream regulator of NLRP3 activation by bind-  
419 ing to the LRR domain [24]. Therefore, preventing  
420 this association can reduce inflammasome activa-  
421 tion. Oridonin (ORIN1001), a bioactive compound  
422 extracted from *Rabdosia rubescens*, has been shown  
423 to directly inhibit the NLRP3-NEK7 association  
424 by interacting with the NLRP3 NOD [107]. This  
425 compound recently demonstrated neuroprotective  
426 activity in traumatic brain injury *in vivo* models by  
427 inhibiting NLRP3 [108]. In an inflammatory bowel  
428 disease *in vivo* model, Chen et al. discovered the  
429 ability to suppress NEK7 expression of 4-methyl-  
430 N1-(3-phenylpropyl)-1,2-benzenediamine, JSH-23,  
431 an NF- $\kappa$ B transcriptional activity inhibitor, thereby  
432 downregulating the NLRP3 activity [109]. C1-27,  
433 a glutathione transferase omega-1 inhibitor, was  
434 proposed to inhibit NLRP3 via NEK7 deglutathiony-  
435 lation in multiple sclerosis *in vivo* model [110].  
436 MCC950, a typical NLRP3 inhibitor, was recently  
437 shown to partially block NLRP3–NEK7 interaction  
438 in an *in vivo* lung ischemia–reperfusion model [111].  
439 Ceritinib and lorlatinib, two anaplastic lymphoma  
440 kinase inhibitors, are thought to indirectly suppress  
441 the NLRP3–NEK7 interaction in ATP-stimulated  
442 macrophages [112]. However, only MCC950 was  
443 investigated in the PD model [6].

444 Some compounds directly target the NLRP3 sub-  
445 unit to inhibit this inflammasome. He et al. found  
446 that 3,4-methylenedioxy- $\beta$ -nitrostyrene could bind  
447 to the LRR domain and NOD of NLRP3 and inhibit  
448 NLRP3 activation via its ATPase activity [113]. This  
449 hypothesis was recently validated by the finding

450 that MCC950 interacts with the Walker B motif  
451 within the NLRP3 NOD to inhibit ATP hydrolysis  
452 and NLRP3 activation [114]. A number of acrylate  
453 derivative compounds, including IFN58, IFN39, and  
454 BOT-4-one, have a direct inhibitory effect on NLRP3  
455 via its ATPase activity [115–117]. Two Inflazome  
456 candidates, IZD334 and Inzomelid, which have a  
457 direct inhibitory effect on NLRP3, have completed  
458 phase I trials in healthy volunteers and patients with  
459 CAPS (NCT04086602 and NCT04015076, respec-  
460 tively). OLT177 and CY-09 compounds were found to  
461 have an effect on osteoarthritis (OA) (NCT01768975)  
462 [118] and type 2 diabetes/CAPS *in vivo* models [119].  
463 Similarly, Tranilast (Kissei) is thought to bind to the  
464 NOD of NLRP3 and prevent its oligomerization, and  
465 it was marketed in Japan and South Korea for its  
466 anti-allergic ability to CAPS (NCT03923140) [120].  
467 However, with the exception of MCC950, no evalu-  
468 ation has yet been completed in PD [6].

469 The ASC adaptor protein may be a good target for  
470 inhibiting NLRP3 activation. The hydroxyl sulfon-  
471 amide analog 5-chloro-N-[2-(4-hydroxysulfamoyl-  
472 phenyl)-ethyl]-2-methoxy-benzamide (JC-171) dis-  
473 rupts the NLRP3–ASC interaction in multiple scler-  
474 osis animal models [121]. Additionally, fenamate,  
475 a nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drug, suppresses  
476 NLRP3 activation by inhibiting the ASC speck  
477 formation in Alzheimer's disease (AD) rodent mod-  
478 els [122]. Moreover, OLT1177, which suppresses  
479 NLRP3 via the NLRP3–ASC interaction, was found  
480 to be protective in an AD murine model [123].  
481 Furthermore, beta-hydroxybutyrate inhibited NLRP3  
482 activation by reducing ASC oligomerization to form  
483 specks in LPS-primed mouse macrophages [124].  
484 However, this mechanism has not yet been evaluated  
485 in PD.

486 VX-765, one of the caspase-1 inhibitors, demon-  
487 strated neuroprotective effects in AD animal models  
488 by reducing neuropathology and cognitive impair-  
489 ment [125]. Another inhibitor, VX-740, was in phase  
490 II trials for rheumatoid arthritis but was disconti-  
491 nued because of hepatotoxicity in long-term treatment  
492 [126]. In a 6-OHDA-induced PD rat model, inhibiting  
493 caspase-1 activity by Ac-YVAD-CMK suppressed  
494 NLRP3 activation, rescued dopaminergic neurons in  
495 the substantia nigra region, and improved behavioral  
496 deficit [85]. Given that there are currently no clini-  
497 cal trials aimed at caspase-1 in PD, except for some  
498 animal data, targeting this is a real challenge.

499 In terms of inflammasome effector proteins, the  
500 use of IL-1 $\beta$  antibodies or IL-1 receptor antagonists  
501 such as anakinra, canakinumab, and riloncepto



Table 2  
Current therapeutic trials targeting NLRP3 inflammasome in PD

Mechanism	Target	Candidate	Model	Phase	References	
Inhibiting NLRP3 constituents	NEK7	MCC950	Fibril $\alpha$ Syn	Preclinical	[6]	
	NLRP3	MCC950	Fibril $\alpha$ Syn	Preclinical	[6]	
Inhibiting NLRP3 priming pathway	Caspase-1	Ac-YVAD-CMK	LPS/6-OHDA	Preclinical	[85]	
		TLRs	Calycosin	MPTP	Preclinical	[86]
	NF- $\kappa$ B	Cordycepin	MPTP	Preclinical	[87]	
		Glaucoalyxin B	LPS	Preclinical	[88]	
NPT520-24		Fibril $\alpha$ Syn	Phase I	(NCT03954600) [89]		
Inhibiting NLRP3 activation pathway	P2X7	Papaverine	MPTP+LPS	Launched	[90]	
		Brilliant Blue G	MPTP	Preclinical	[91]	
	Cathepsin B	Memantine and dopamine receptor agonist	PBMCs of patients with PD	Launched	(NCT03918616) [58]	
		Ca074Me	N27/SH-SY5Y cells treated with fibril $\alpha$ Syn	Preclinical	[71]	
	ROS	<i>Antrodia camphorata</i> polysaccharide	6-OHDA	Preclinical	[78]	
		Bushen–Yizhi	MPTP	Preclinical	[92]	
		Tenuiginen	MPTP	Preclinical	[93]	
		Fingolimod (FTY720)	MPTP/BV2 cell+mouse primary microglia treated with MPP <sup>+</sup>	Preclinical	[94]	
	Inhibiting NLRP3 via post-translational modification	NLRP3	GSK-650394	MPTP/overexpressing $\alpha$ Syn+fibril $\alpha$ Syn	Preclinical	[95]
			DI-3-n-butylphthalide	MPTP/6-OHDA	Preclinical	[96]
Dopamine			MPTP/mouse BMDM treated with LPS	Launched	[97]	
ASC		SP600125	MPTP	Preclinical	[98]	
		Piceatannol	Fibril $\alpha$ Syn <i>in vitro</i>	Preclinical	[99]	
SIRT1 pathway	Unknown	Melatonin	MPTP/BV2 cell+mouse primary microglia treated with MPP <sup>+</sup> +ATP	Launched	[100]	
$\beta$ -Arrestin2 mechanism	Unknown	Novel DRD2 agonist (UNC9995)	MPTP/mouse primary cultured astrocyte treated with LPS+ATP	Preclinical	[101, 102]	
Nrf2 activation	Unknown	DDO-7263	MPTP/THP-1 cell treated with LPS+ATP	Preclinical	[103]	
Unknown	Unknown	Dimethylaminomylide (ACT001)	MPTP	Preclinical	[104]	
Unknown	Unknown	Edaravone (MT-1186)	LPS/BV2 cell treated with LPS	Phase III for ALS	(NCT04577404) [105]	
Unknown	Unknown	Ulinastatin	PC12 and SH-SY5Y cell treated with MPP <sup>+</sup>	Launched	[106]	

NEK7, NIMA-related kinase 7; NLRP3, NOD-like receptor family-pyrin domain-containing 3; TLRs, toll-like receptors; NF- $\kappa$ B, nuclear factor kappa B; P2X7, P2X purinoceptor 7; ROS, reactive oxygen species; ASC, apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; 6-OHDA, 6-hydroxydopamine hydrobromide; MPTP, 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine.; MPP<sup>+</sup>, 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (ion); PBMCs, peripheral blood mononuclear cells, ATP, adenosine triphosphate; DRD2, dopamine receptor D2; SIRT1, silence information regulator 1; Nrf2, nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2; ALS, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

502 treat NLRP3-related diseases has long been recog-  
503 nized [127]. However, its efficacy in targeting NLRP3  
504 is questionable because suppressing these effectors  
505 may not prevent the release of other effectors, such  
506 as caspase-1, when NLRP3 is activated. Furthermore,  
507 because IL-1 $\beta$  and IL-18 are involved in not only  
508 the NLRP3 pathway but also other immune path-  
509 ways, targeting this protein may accidentally increase  
510 infection risk in general.

#### 511 *Suspending NLRP3 activation by ceasing the* 512 *priming process*

513 Immunotherapy targeting TLR2/4, a ligand  
514 involved in the NLRP3 inflammasome transcrip-  
515 tion, can be applied to disrupt the priming process.  
516 Calycosin and cordycepin, two phytochemical com-  
517 pounds, showed neuroprotective effects in the MPTP  
518 model of PD by suppressing the TLR/NF- $\kappa$ B sig-  
519 naling pathway [86, 87]. Additionally, glaucocalyxin  
520 B, a diterpenoid, alleviated PD pathogenesis in the  
521 LPS model by inhibiting the same pathway [88].  
522 Tomaralimab (NM-101), developed by Neuramedy  
523 and originally known as OPN-35 by Opona Ther-  
524 apeutics, targets TLR2 and a phase II clinical trial  
525 in myelodysplastic syndrome (NCT02363491) was  
526 completed. Moreover, a small molecule, NPT520-24  
527 (Neuropore), which has completed a phase I clin-  
528 ical trial (NCT03954600), reduced TLR2 mRNA  
529 expression in PD transgenic mice and thus improved  
530 neuropathology and motor deficits in these animals  
531 [89]. Furthermore, Ibudilast (MN-166) (Medici-  
532 Nova), which has completed phase II trials in multiple  
533 sclerosis (NCT01982942) and amyotrophic lateral  
534 sclerosis (NCT02714036), is another potential TLR4  
535 antagonist. Notably, Ibudilast had a protective effect  
536 on the acute kidney injury model by inhibiting  
537 NLRP3 activation via the TLR4/NF- $\kappa$ B pathway  
538 [128]. Papaverine, a commercial drug, showed a pro-  
539 tective effect on the PD animal model by acting on the  
540 downstream pathway of TLRs, the NF- $\kappa$ B-mediated  
541 NLRP3 activation [90].

#### 542 *Terminating the NLRP3 activation process by* 543 *eliminating activation signals*

544 In PD, the NLRP3 canonical activation pathway  
545 requires second signals from (1) ion flux in asso-  
546 ciation with P2X7, (2) cathepsin B released in the  
547 ruptured lysosome, and (3) ROS. Therefore, it is cur-  
548 rently thought that these mediators could be potential  
549 therapeutic targets for NLRP3-related diseases.

550 In terms of P2X7, P2X7 antagonists are novel  
551 for neurological diseases. For instance, JNJ54175446  
552 and JNJ55308942, two candidates developed by  
553 Janssen, have completed phase I clinical trials  
554 (NCT02902601 and NCT03437590, respectively)  
555 and are expected to be used in major depressive  
556 disorder. However, CE-224535, another antago-  
557 nist developed by Pfizer, has discontinued its  
558 clinical trial for OA due to a lack of efficacy  
559 (NCT00418782). Also, AZD9056 from AstraZeneca  
560 has completed its clinical trial in patients with  
561 rheumatoid arthritis but was clinically ineffective  
562 (NCT00520572). Conversely, GSK1482160 (Glaxo-  
563 SmithKline), a CNS-penetrant antagonist, has  
564 completed a phase I clinical trial in inflammatory con-  
565 ditions (NCT00849134) and recently demonstrated a  
566 protective effect on the transgenic AD model [129].  
567 Furthermore, Brilliant Blue G showed a protective  
568 effect on amyotrophic lateral sclerosis *in vivo* models  
569 and specifically PD animal models by reducing neu-  
570 roinflammation caused by NLRP3 activation [130,  
571 91]. In PD, common clinically used drugs, memantine  
572 and dopamine receptor agonists, changed P2X7-  
573 inflammasome activation in patients with *de novo* PD  
574 after 1 year of therapy (NCT03918616) [58].

575 Cathepsin B, which is released from the lysosome,  
576 can also be targeted to suppress NLRP3 activation.  
577 After treating the AD *in vivo* model with a pro-  
578 drug CA074Me, which can inhibit cathepsin B after  
579 being converted into the active form, a protective  
580 effect for memory dysfunction and less amyloid- $\beta$   
581 plaque was observed [131]. Later, this inhibitor was  
582 found to inhibit ROS release in neuronal cells treated  
583 with aggregated  $\alpha$ Syn [71]. Furthermore, aloxistatin  
584 (E64d), another cathepsin B inhibitor, is considered a  
585 promising candidate for traumatic brain injury [132].  
586 In terms of the cathepsin B–inflammasome axis,  
587 the antimalaria drug hydroxychloroquine attenuated  
588 renal ischemia and reperfusion injury by preventing  
589 cathepsin release, resulting in NLRP3 inflammasome  
590 activation [133].

591 Preventing ROS released from damaged mito-  
592 chondria and ruptured lysosomes could also be a  
593 potential treatment for neurodegenerative disease.  
594 In the 6-OHDA/MPTP-induced PD model, *Antro-*  
595 *dia camphorata* polysaccharide, Bushen–Yizhi,  
596 and tenuigenin suppressed ROS-NLRP3 activation  
597 [78, 92, 93]. Notably, DI-3-n-butylphthalide and  
598 fingolimod (FTY720), a sphingosine-1-phosphate  
599 receptor antagonist, suppressed mtROS, which fur-  
600 ther mediated NLRP3 inflammasome activation in the  
601 PD animal model [94, 96]. Furthermore, Kwon et al.

602 proposed that GSK-650394, a serum/glucocorticoid-  
603 regulated kinase 1 inhibitor, could mitigate the  
604 pathogenesis of PD animal models by reducing  
605 mtROS and NLRP3 activation [95].

#### 606 *Abolishing NLRP3 activation via* 607 *post-translational modification*

608 Post-translational modifications such as phospho-  
609 rylation, dephosphorylation, ubiquitination, deubi-  
610 quitination, proteolytic processing, and others have  
611 been shown to positively and negatively regulate  
612 NLRP3 inflammasome activation. Each pathway uses  
613 a different mechanism to target the various NLRP3  
614 inflammasome constituent domains, such as NLRP3  
615 sensor protein, ASC adaptor protein, and caspase-1.  
616 This review will not go into detail but will instead sug-  
617 gest some therapeutic candidates based on evidence  
618 from previous PD research.

619 Yan et al. found that dopamine could suspend  
620 NLRP3 inflammasome activation by binding to  
621 dopamine receptor 1, mediating NLRP3 ubiq-  
622 uitination via E3 ubiquitin ligase MARCH7 [97].  
623 This suggests a novel therapeutic approach for PD  
624 and other diseases involving NLRP3. Addition-  
625 ally, SP600125, a small molecule, is believed to  
626 have a neuroprotective effect on an MPTP-induced  
627 PD model [98]. Notably, this c-Jun N-terminal  
628 kinase inhibitor could prevent NLRP3 oligomer-  
629 ization via suppressing c-Jun N-terminal kinase  
630 1-induced NLRP3 phosphorylation [134]. Further-  
631 more, piceatannol, a natural compound that inhibits  
632 NLRP3 activation via the spleen tyrosine kinase Syk-  
633 induced ASC phosphorylation pathway, could reduce  
634  $\alpha$ Syn aggregation [99].

#### 635 *Other novel NLRP3 inhibitors for PD with* 636 *known and unknown mechanisms*

637 Zheng et al. discovered that melatonin could  
638 reduce neuroinflammation in PD animal models  
639 by reducing NLRP3 inflammasome activation  
640 [100], which was modulated by silence information  
641 regulator 1 (SIRT1), a histone deacetylase. However,  
642 whether SIRT1 inhibits NLRP3 by targeting its con-  
643 stituent proteins or through the priming or activation  
644 process remains unknown. Two dopamine receptor  
645 D2 agonists, UNC9995 and LY171555, were also  
646 shown to inhibit NLRP3 in the PD *in vivo* model  
647 [101, 102]. The beta arrestin 2 pathway ( $\beta$ -arrestin2)  
648 was suggested as the underlying mechanism of this  
649 process due to the  $\beta$ -arrestin2 and NLRP3 interaction

650 and colocalization, but the direct mechanism of action  
651 of these compounds remains unknown. Another  
652 novel compound, 5-(3,4-difluorophenyl)-3-(6-  
653 methylpyridin-3-yl)-1,2,4-oxadiazole (DDO-7263),  
654 could reduce neuroinflammation in a PD *in vivo*  
655 model [103], by activating a transcription factor,  
656 nuclear factor E2-related factor 2. Nonetheless,  
657 the exact mechanism remains unknown. Further-  
658 more, three other candidates, dimethylaminomyli-  
659 de (ACT001), edaravone (MT-1186), and ulinastatin,  
660 were recently found to suppress NLRP3 activation  
661 via unknown mechanisms [104–106].

## 662 **DISCUSSION AND FUTURE** 663 **PERSPECTIVES**

664 To summarize, the NLRP3 inflammasome is acti-  
665 vated in PD. PD pathology, such as misfolded  $\alpha$ Syn,  
666 may activate the canonical pathway of NLRP3 via  
667 two processes: priming and activation. TLRs are the  
668 main sensor receptors in the priming pathway, and  
669 the activation pathway includes ion flux, mitochon-  
670 drial damage, and lysosome rupture. After activation,  
671 the NLRP3 inflammasome releases caspase-1 and  
672 mature IL-1 $\beta$ /IL-18, which contribute significantly  
673 to PD pathogenesis by inducing neuroinflammation.  
674 Therefore, based on this mechanism, developing ther-  
675 apeutic trials for PD targeting NLRP3 inflammasome  
676 activation would be beneficial.

677 Current therapeutic attempts targeting inflamma-  
678 some in PD are mostly in the preclinical stage, but  
679 this is changing because of the emerging mecha-  
680 nism involving inflammasome. However, because the  
681 inflammasome priming and activation pathways are  
682 diverse and the noncanonical pathway can replace  
683 the canonical pathway even in PD, targeting NLRP3  
684 constituents or assembly may be a more efficient  
685 way than targeting one part of the various inflama-  
686 some cascades. For instance, direct targeting on  
687 NLRP3 constituents or the upstream transcription  
688 pathway via TLRs is more favorable. This is because  
689 inhibiting the effector proteins (caspases, IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-  
690 18, or GSDMD) may only hinder the downstream  
691 events but may not completely hinder the NLRP3  
692 inflammasome activation pathway, which begins  
693 with pro-IL-1 $\beta$ /pro-IL-18 and NLRP3 upregulation  
694 (Fig. 2). Otherwise, we should look for the major  
695 stream among these alternatives or consider a drug  
696 with a multi-action mechanism on the inflammasome  
697 pathway or a drug with a general anti-inflammatory  
698 effect.

699 Reviewing previous and ongoing trials targeting  
700 inflammasomes in other diseases will help to find  
701 shortcuts for therapeutics in PD. Clinical trials target-  
702 ing constituent proteins, NEK7, NLRP3, and ASC,  
703 and inflammasome assembly have already been con-  
704 ducted in other diseases, and the results of those trials  
705 allow us to select the candidate with the highest pri-  
706 ority.

707 Previous research suggests that  $\alpha$ Syn, like DAMPs  
708 or PAMPs, may activate the inflammasome pathway,  
709 but the relationship between  $\alpha$ Syn and the inflam-  
710 masome pathway needs to be investigated further in  
711 various aspects. It is unclear whether different  $\alpha$ Syn  
712 species cause different patterns of NLRP3 inflamma-  
713 some activation. In PD rodent models,  $\alpha$ Syn fibril  
714 canonically activates the NLRP3 inflammasome [6,  
715 15]. Nonetheless, this pattern is not consistent in PD  
716 cell models. Although Panicker et al. suggested that  
717 fibrillar  $\alpha$ Syn can prime and activate the NLRP3  
718 inflammasome in mouse primary microglia in the  
719 absence of a priming signal (LPS), Scheiblich et al.  
720 later found that monomeric or oligomeric  $\alpha$ Syn was  
721 sufficient to induce priming and activation [15, 17].

722 The pathomechanism of PD is based not only  
723 on the inflammasome but also on its interaction  
724 with other complex mechanisms. Therefore, even if  
725 all the inflammasome-related pathways are blocked,  
726 it is possible that misfolded  $\alpha$ Syn accumulation,  
727 a dysfunctional protein clearance system, or other  
728 inflammation pathways and subsequent neurodegen-  
729 eration will not be hindered. That is, understanding  
730 integrated mechanisms in PD is more important than  
731 focusing solely on peripheral issues. Therefore, clin-  
732 ical trials targeting inflammasome in PD may take a  
733 long time to observe, delaying the clinical progres-  
734 sion of PD because of the impossibility of blocking all  
735 of these complex mechanisms. It implies that a strate-  
736 gic approach as well as reliable biomarkers to monitor  
737 disease progression is necessary for PD treatment.

738 Additionally, although the activation of the inflam-  
739 masome and its related pathway in PD has been  
740 studied in recent years, the relationship between  
741 inflammasome and clinical characteristics of PD,  
742 including disease stage or motor and nonmotor fea-  
743 tures, has yet to be investigated. The differential  
744 manifestations of the inflammasome based on the  
745 clinical features of PD would provide a thorough  
746 understanding of the inflammasome's role in PD.

747 Although the NLRP3 inflammasome is currently  
748 a promising target for PD treatment, there is a con-  
749 siderable knowledge gap in the complex interaction  
750 between the NLRP3 inflammasome and other PD

mechanisms and finding promising therapeutic candi-  
751 dates and demonstrating efficacy even in complex  
752 mechanisms. 753

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## 759 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

760 The authors have no financial conflict of interest  
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