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The Role of Receptor-Interacting Serine/Threonine-Protein Kinase 1 (RIPK1) in CD4⁺ T Cell Necroptosis in HIV Patients: A Narrative Literature Review

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1. Introduction

The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) continues to be a major global health concern, affecting millions of individuals worldwide. HIV infection primarily targets CD4+ T cells, which are essential for immune system function. The depletion of these cells leads to a weakened immune response, making individuals susceptible to opportunistic infections and malignancies, ultimately progressing to acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). While antiretroviral therapy (ART) has significantly improved the prognosis for HIV-infected individuals, a cure remains elusive, and the virus continues to pose a threat to global health. Traditionally, apoptosis, a form of programmed cell death, has been considered the primary mechanism responsible for CD4+ T cell depletion in HIV infection. However, recent research has shed light on the critical role of necroptosis, a regulated form of necrosis, in this process. Necroptosis is a caspase-independent cell death pathway that is triggered by various stimuli, including viral infections. It is characterized by distinct morphological features, such as cellular swelling, membrane rupture, and the

Receptor-interacting serine/threonine-protein kinase 1 (RIPK1) has emerged as a central regulator of necroptosis. RIPK1 is a multifaceted protein with diverse functions in cell death, inflammation, and survival. Its activation and subsequent interactions with other signaling molecules initiate a cascade of

release of pro-inflammatory cellular contents.1,2

A B S T R A C T

The human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) remains a global health challenge, with its ability to deplete CD4⁺ T cells, leading to acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). While apoptosis has been extensively studied in CD4⁺ T cell depletion, recent research has highlighted the significant role of necroptosis, a regulated form of necrosis, in this process. Receptorinteracting serine/threonine-protein kinase 1 (RIPK1) has emerged as a central player in necroptosis, regulating both cell death and inflammatory responses. This review delves into the intricate mechanisms by which RIPK1 orchestrates necroptosis in CD4⁺ T cells during HIV infection. We explore the structural intricacies of RIPK1, its interactions with other signaling molecules, and the downstream events that culminate in necroptotic cell death. Additionally, we discuss the therapeutic potential of targeting RIPK1 to mitigate CD4⁺ T cell loss and control HIV disease progression. Understanding the multifaceted role of RIPK1 in HIV-induced necroptosis may pave the way for novel therapeutic interventions to combat this devastating disease.

events that culminate in necroptotic cell death. In the context of HIV infection, RIPK1-mediated necroptosis has been implicated in the depletion of CD4⁺ T cells, contributing to immune dysfunction and disease progression. This review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the role of RIPK1 in CD4+ T cell necroptosis during HIV infection. We will delve into the structural and functional aspects of RIPK1, its interactions with other signaling molecules, and the downstream events that lead to necroptotic cell death. Additionally, we will discuss the therapeutic potential of targeting RIPK1 to mitigate CD4+ T cell loss and control HIV disease progression. By understanding the intricate mechanisms by which RIPK1 orchestrates necroptosis in HIV infection, we can pave the way for novel therapeutic interventions to combat this devastating disease.2,3

HIV infection and CD4⁺ T cell depletion

Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection primarily targets CD4⁺ T cells, which are essential for adaptive immune responses. These cells play a crucial role in recognizing and eliminating pathogens, coordinating immune cell activities, and regulating immune responses. The depletion of CD4⁺ T cells is a hallmark of HIV infection and is a major factor contributing to the development of acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS). CD4⁺ T cells, also known as helper T cells, are a type of white blood cell that plays a central role in the adaptive immune response. They are characterized by the presence of the CD4 glycoprotein on their surface, which serves as a co-receptor for the T cell receptor (TCR). The TCR recognizes antigens, which are molecules that are foreign to the body, such as those found on pathogens. When a CD4⁺ T cell encounters an antigen presented by an antigen-presenting cell (APC), such as a dendritic cell or macrophage, it becomes activated. Activated CD4⁺ T cells then differentiate into different subsets, each with distinct functions. These subsets include Th1 cells, Th2 cells, Th17 cells, and regulatory T cells (Tregs). Th1 cells are involved in cell-mediated immunity, which is the immune response that targets

intracellular pathogens, such as viruses and bacteria. Th1 cells produce cytokines, such as interferongamma (IFN-γ) and interleukin-2 (IL-2), which activate other immune cells, such as macrophages and cytotoxic T cells, to kill infected cells. Th2 cells are involved in humoral immunity, which is the immune response that targets extracellular pathogens, such as bacteria and parasites. Th2 cells produce cytokines, such as interleukin-4 (IL-4), interleukin-5 (IL-5), and interleukin-13 (IL-13), which stimulate B cells to produce antibodies. Antibodies are proteins that bind to antigens and neutralize them or mark them for destruction by other immune cells. Th17 cells are involved in the immune response against extracellular bacteria and fungi. They produce cytokines, such as interleukin-17 (IL-17) and interleukin-22 (IL-22), which recruit neutrophils and other immune cells to the site of infection. Tregs are involved in suppressing immune responses and maintaining immune tolerance. They produce cytokines, such as interleukin-10 (IL-10) and transforming growth factorbeta (TGF-β), which inhibit the activity of other immune cells. The diverse functions of CD4⁺ T cells make them essential for a healthy immune system. They are involved in the defense against a wide range of pathogens, as well as in the regulation of immune responses to prevent autoimmunity and excessive inflammation.4,5

HIV infection primarily targets CD4⁺ T cells, leading to their depletion and a compromised immune system. The virus infects CD4⁺ T cells by binding to the CD4 receptor and chemokine co-receptors, such as CCR5 or CXCR4, on the cell surface. Once inside the cell, the virus uses its reverse transcriptase enzyme to convert its RNA genome into DNA, which is then integrated into the host cell's DNA. The integrated viral DNA can remain dormant for years, but it can also be activated to produce new viral particles, leading to the destruction of the host cell. The depletion of CD4⁺ T cells in HIV infection is a multifactorial process that involves both direct and indirect mechanisms. Direct mechanisms include viral cytopathic effects, which are the direct killing of infected cells by the virus. Indirect

mechanisms include chronic immune activation and inflammation, which can lead to the death of both infected and uninfected CD4⁺ T cells.5,6

HIV can directly kill infected CD4⁺ T cells through several mechanisms. One mechanism is the accumulation of viral proteins within the cell, which can disrupt cellular processes and lead to cell death. Another mechanism is the budding of new viral particles from the cell surface, which can damage the cell membrane and lead to cell lysis. HIV can also induce apoptosis, a form of programmed cell death, in infected CD4⁺ T cells. Apoptosis is a normal physiological process that is essential for maintaining tissue homeostasis. However, in HIV infection, apoptosis can be dysregulated, leading to excessive cell death. HIV proteins, such as Nef and Vpr, can directly activate the apoptotic pathway, leading to the death of infected cells.6,7

Chronic immune activation and inflammation are also major contributors to CD4⁺ T cell depletion in HIV infection. HIV infection triggers a persistent immune response, leading to the activation of immune cells and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines. This chronic inflammation can damage tissues and contribute to the death of CD4⁺ T cells through various mechanisms, including the induction of apoptosis and necroptosis. One of the key drivers of chronic immune activation in HIV infection is the translocation of microbial products from the gut into the bloodstream. HIV infection disrupts the integrity of the gut mucosa, allowing bacteria and other microbes to enter the bloodstream. These microbial products can activate immune cells and trigger inflammation. Another factor that contributes to chronic immune activation in HIV infection is the persistent presence of viral antigens. Even with ART, HIV can persist in reservoirs within the body, such as lymphoid tissues and the central nervous system. The persistent presence of viral antigens can stimulate immune cells and contribute to chronic inflammation.7,8

Apoptosis is a form of programmed cell death that is essential for maintaining tissue homeostasis. It is a highly regulated process that involves the activation of

caspases, a family of proteases that cleave cellular proteins and lead to cell death. In HIV infection, apoptosis can be dysregulated, leading to excessive cell death of both infected and uninfected CD4⁺ T cells. This dysregulation of apoptosis can be caused by various factors, including viral proteins, proinflammatory cytokines, and the loss of survival signals. HIV proteins, such as Nef and Vpr, can directly activate the apoptotic pathway by interacting with pro-apoptotic proteins, such as Bax and Bak. These proteins then oligomerize and form pores in the mitochondrial membrane, leading to the release of cytochrome c and other pro-apoptotic factors into the cytoplasm. This triggers a cascade of events that culminate in the activation of caspases and cell death. Pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF-α and IL-6, can also induce apoptosis in CD4⁺ T cells. These cytokines bind to their respective receptors on the cell surface and activate signaling pathways that lead to the activation of caspases. The loss of survival signals can also contribute to apoptosis in CD4+ T cells. CD4⁺ T cells require survival signals from other cells, such as cytokines and growth factors, to stay alive. In HIV infection, the production of these survival signals can be impaired, leading to the death of CD4+ T cells.^{8,9}

Necroptosis is a regulated form of necrosis that is triggered by various stimuli, including viral infections. Unlike apoptosis, which is a relatively silent form of cell death, necroptosis is characterized by the release of pro-inflammatory cellular contents, such as damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs). These DAMPs can activate immune cells and contribute to chronic inflammation, which is a hallmark of HIV infection. The necroptotic pathway is initiated by the activation of death receptors, such as tumor necrosis factor receptor 1 (TNFR1). Upon ligand binding, TNFR1 recruits several adaptor proteins, including RIPK1, to form a signaling complex. RIPK1, in turn, interacts with other signaling molecules, such as RIPK3 and mixed lineage kinase domain-like protein (MLKL), to form a necrosome complex. The necrosome complex then activates MLKL, which translocates to the plasma membrane and disrupts its

integrity, leading to cell death. Several studies have implicated RIPK1-mediated necroptosis in CD4⁺ T cell depletion during HIV infection. In vitro studies have shown that HIV infection can trigger necroptosis in CD4⁺ T cells, and this process is dependent on RIPK1 activity. Additionally, studies in animal models of HIV infection have demonstrated that inhibiting RIPK1 can reduce CD4⁺ T cell loss and improve immune function. The mechanisms by which HIV infection triggers

RIPK1-mediated necroptosis are still under investigation. One possibility is that HIV proteins, such as Nef and Vpr, can directly activate the necroptotic pathway. Another possibility is that HIV infection induces chronic immune activation and inflammation, which can indirectly trigger necroptosis through the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF-α.⁹

Table 1. HIV infection and CD4+ T cell depletion.

RIPK1: a central regulator of necroptosis

Receptor-interacting serine/threonine-protein kinase 1 (RIPK1) is a critical signaling molecule involved in various cellular processes, including cell death, inflammation, and survival. It is a member of the receptor-interacting protein (RIP) kinase family, which comprises serine/threonine kinases that interact with death receptors and other signaling molecules. RIPK1 has emerged as a central regulator of necroptosis, a regulated form of necrosis that is triggered by various stimuli, including viral infections, tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α), and Toll-like receptor (TLR) agonists. RIPK1 is a 671 amino acid protein that consists of several functional domains, each contributing to its diverse roles in cellular signaling. These domains include: the N-terminal Kinase Domain: This domain is responsible for the kinase activity of RIPK1, which is essential for its function in necroptosis. The kinase domain catalyzes the transfer of phosphate groups from ATP to serine and threonine residues on target proteins, leading to their activation or inactivation. In necroptosis, RIPK1's kinase activity is crucial for the phosphorylation of downstream signaling molecules, such as RIPK3 and mixed lineage kinase domain-like protein (MLKL), which are essential for the execution of necroptotic cell death. Intermediate Domain: This domain contains a RIP homotypic interaction motif (RHIM), which is a short peptide motif that mediates protein-protein interactions. The RHIM of RIPK1 is required for its interaction with RIPK3, another key player in the necroptotic pathway. This interaction is essential for

the formation of the necrosome, a multiprotein complex that is assembled upon activation of the necroptotic pathway. C-terminal Death Domain (DD): This domain is involved in the recruitment of RIPK1 to the TNFR1 signaling complex, which is initiated by the binding of TNF-α to TNFR1. The DD of RIPK1 interacts

with the DD of other signaling molecules, such as TNFR1-associated death domain protein (TRADD), to form a signaling complex that can initiate various cellular responses, including necroptosis, apoptosis, and NF-κB activation.10,11

The activation of RIPK1 is a critical step in the necroptotic pathway. Upon ligand binding, TNFR1 recruits RIPK1, along with other adaptor proteins, to form a signaling complex. This complex then undergoes a series of modifications, including ubiquitination and deubiquitination, which determine the fate of the cell. In the absence of caspase-8 activity, RIPK1 interacts with RIPK3 through their respective RHIM domains. This interaction leads to the formation of the necrosome complex, which consists of RIPK1, RIPK3, and MLKL, as well as other signaling molecules. The necrosome complex then activates MLKL, which translocates to the plasma membrane and disrupts its integrity, leading to cell death. The activation of MLKL by the necrosome complex is a critical step in necroptosis. MLKL is a pseudokinase that, upon phosphorylation by RIPK3, oligomerizes and translocates to the plasma membrane. At the plasma membrane, MLKL disrupts membrane integrity, leading to cell death. The precise mechanism by which MLKL disrupts the plasma membrane is still under investigation, but it is thought to involve the formation of pores or channels that allow the influx of ions and water, leading to cellular swelling and rupture.12,13

In addition to its role in necroptosis, RIPK1 is also a critical regulator of inflammation. It can activate NF- κB, a transcription factor that regulates the expression of various genes involved in inflammation and survival. The activation of NF-κB by RIPK1 can promote cell survival and protect against apoptosis. However, in the context of chronic inflammation, such as that seen in HIV infection, RIPK1-mediated activation of NF-κB may also contribute to tissue damage and disease progression. The activation of NFκB by RIPK1 is a complex process that involves the phosphorylation and ubiquitination of RIPK1, as well as the recruitment of other signaling molecules, such as the IκB kinase (IKK) complex. The IKK complex phosphorylates the inhibitor of NF-κB (IκB), leading to its degradation and the release of NF-κB, which then translocates to the nucleus and activates the transcription of target genes. RIPK1 can also promote cell survival through the activation of NF-κB and other signaling pathways. The activation of NF-κB by RIPK1 can induce the expression of anti-apoptotic genes, such as Bcl-2 and cFLIP, which protect cells from apoptosis. Additionally, RIPK1 can activate the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway, which is involved in cell proliferation and survival. The balance between RIPK1-mediated cell death and survival is tightly regulated by various posttranslational modifications, such as phosphorylation, ubiquitination, and cleavage. These modifications can

alter the activity and interactions of RIPK1, thereby determining the fate of the cell. In the context of HIV infection, RIPK1 has been implicated in both CD4⁺ T cell depletion and chronic immune activation. HIV infection can trigger RIPK1-mediated necroptosis in CD4+ T cells, leading to their death and contributing to immune dysfunction. Additionally, RIPK1-mediated activation of NF-κB can promote chronic inflammation, which further exacerbates CD4⁺ T cell depletion and disease progression. Several studies have shown that inhibiting RIPK1 can reduce CD4⁺ T cell loss and improve immune function in animal models of HIV infection. This suggests that targeting RIPK1 may be a promising strategy to mitigate CD4⁺ T cell depletion and control HIV disease progression.14,15

Table 3. Function of RIPK1.

RIPK1-mediated necroptosis in HIV infection

HIV infection is a complex interplay between the virus and the host's immune system. While the virus strives to replicate and spread, the immune system fights back to control the infection. In this battle, cell death plays a crucial role. Apoptosis, a form of programmed cell death, has long been recognized as a key mechanism in HIV-induced CD4+ T cell depletion. However, recent research has revealed that necroptosis, a regulated form of necrosis, also contributes significantly to this process. Necroptosis is a double-edged sword in HIV infection. On one hand, it can serve as a defense mechanism by eliminating infected cells and limiting viral spread. On the other hand, excessive necroptosis can lead to the loss of uninfected CD4⁺ T cells, contributing to immune dysfunction and disease progression. Receptorinteracting serine/threonine-protein kinase 1 (RIPK1) has emerged as a master regulator of necroptosis. It is a multifaceted protein with diverse functions in cell death, inflammation, and survival. The activation of RIPK1 is a critical step in the necroptotic pathway, and its interactions with other signaling molecules determine the fate of the cell. HIV encodes several proteins that can modulate the host's cellular processes, including cell death. Some of these proteins, such as Nef and Vpr, have been shown to directly activate the necroptotic pathway in CD4+ T cells. Nef, a multifunctional protein, can induce necroptosis by interacting with RIPK1 and promoting its activation. Vpr, another viral protein, can also trigger necroptosis by inducing mitochondrial dysfunction and activating the necroptotic pathway. The ability of HIV proteins to directly activate necroptosis suggests that the virus may have evolved to exploit this cell death pathway to its advantage. By inducing necroptosis in infected cells, HIV may be able to evade the immune system and promote its own survival. However, excessive necroptosis can also lead to the loss of uninfected CD4⁺ T cells, which can ultimately contribute to immune dysfunction and disease progression.15,16

Chronic immune activation and inflammation are hallmarks of HIV infection. The virus triggers a persistent immune response, leading to the activation of immune cells and the production of proinflammatory cytokines, such as TNF-α and IL-6. This chronic inflammation can damage tissues and

contribute to the death of CD4+ T cells through various mechanisms, including the induction of apoptosis and necroptosis. TNF-α, a potent pro-inflammatory cytokine, is a key player in HIV-induced necroptosis. It binds to its receptor, TNFR1, on the surface of CD4⁺ T cells and activates the necroptotic pathway through RIPK1. The binding of TNF-α to TNFR1 leads to the recruitment of RIPK1 to the receptor complex, where it interacts with other signaling molecules, such as TRADD, TRAF2, and cIAP1/2. This complex then undergoes a series of modifications, including ubiquitination and deubiquitination, which determine the fate of the cell. In the absence of caspase-8 activity, RIPK1 interacts with RIPK3 through their respective RHIM domains. This interaction leads to the formation of the necrosome complex, which activates MLKL and triggers necroptosis. However, in the presence of caspase-8 activity, RIPK1 can be cleaved and inactivated, preventing necroptosis and promoting apoptosis. RIPK3 and MLKL are downstream effectors of RIPK1 in the necroptotic pathway. RIPK3 is a serine/threonine kinase that is activated by RIPK1. Once activated, RIPK3 phosphorylates MLKL, which then oligomerizes and translocates to the plasma membrane. At the plasma membrane, MLKL disrupts membrane integrity, leading to cell death. The precise mechanism by which MLKL disrupts the plasma membrane is still under investigation. However, it is thought to involve the formation of pores or channels that allow the influx of ions and water, leading to cellular swelling and rupture. This process is accompanied by the release of DAMPs, which can activate immune cells and contribute to chronic inflammation.16,17

The identification of RIPK1 as a central regulator of necroptosis and inflammation in HIV infection has made it an attractive therapeutic target. Several RIPK1 inhibitors are currently under development, and some have shown promising results in preclinical studies. These inhibitors target different domains of RIPK1, such as the kinase domain and the RHIM domain. Necrostatin-1 (Nec-1) is a well-known RIPK1 inhibitor that has been shown to reduce CD4+ T cell loss and improve immune function in animal models of HIV infection. Nec-1 acts by inhibiting the kinase activity of RIPK1, thereby preventing the activation of downstream signaling molecules involved in necroptosis. Other RIPK1 inhibitors, such as GSK2982772 and DNL747, are also under investigation for their potential therapeutic effects in HIV infection. These inhibitors target different domains of RIPK1 and may have distinct mechanisms of action. While the development of RIPK1 inhibitors is still in its early stages, it holds great promise for the treatment of HIV infection. By targeting RIPK1, it may be possible to reduce CD4+ T cell loss, dampen chronic inflammation, and ultimately control HIV disease progression. However, further research is needed to fully understand the role of RIPK1 in HIV infection and to develop safe and effective RIPK1 inhibitors for clinical use.17,18

Challenges and future directions in RIPK1 inhibitor development for HIV treatment

Despite the promising results of preclinical studies demonstrating the potential of RIPK1 inhibitors in reducing CD4+ T cell loss and improving immune function in animal models of HIV infection, several challenges remain in translating these findings into effective therapies for humans. These challenges include the potential for off-target effects, the need to identify the optimal timing and duration of RIPK1 inhibition, and the development of safe and effective RIPK1 inhibitors for clinical use. One of the major challenges in developing RIPK1 inhibitors for HIV treatment is the potential for off-target effects. RIPK1 is a multifunctional protein that is involved in various cellular processes, including cell death, inflammation, and survival. Therefore, inhibiting RIPK1 may not only affect necroptosis but also other cellular processes, leading to unintended consequences. For example, RIPK1 is also involved in the activation of NF-κB, a transcription factor that regulates the expression of various genes involved in inflammation and survival. Inhibiting RIPK1 may therefore suppress NF-κB activation, which could impair the immune response and increase susceptibility to infections. Additionally, RIPK1 is involved in the regulation of apoptosis, another form of programmed cell death. Inhibiting RIPK1 may disrupt the balance between necroptosis and apoptosis, leading to unintended cell death or survival. To mitigate the risk of off-target effects, it is crucial to develop RIPK1 inhibitors that are highly specific for the necroptotic pathway. This can be achieved by targeting specific domains of RIPK1 that are essential for its function in necroptosis, such as the kinase domain or the RHIM domain. Additionally, it is important to carefully evaluate the effects of RIPK1 inhibitors on other cellular processes, both in vitro and in vivo, to identify potential off-target effects.18,19

Another challenge in developing RIPK1 inhibitors for HIV treatment is the need to identify the optimal timing and duration of inhibition. The timing of RIPK1 inhibition may be critical for its therapeutic efficacy. For example, inhibiting RIPK1 during the early stages of HIV infection may be more effective in preventing CD4⁺ T cell loss than inhibiting it during later stages of the disease. The duration of RIPK1 inhibition is also an important consideration. Long-term inhibition of RIPK1 may be necessary to maintain viral suppression and prevent disease progression. However, prolonged inhibition of RIPK1 may also increase the risk of offtarget effects. Therefore, it is important to determine the optimal duration of RIPK1 inhibition that maximizes therapeutic benefits while minimizing adverse effects. To address this challenge, future research should focus on identifying biomarkers that can predict the response to RIPK1 inhibitors. These biomarkers could be used to identify individuals who are most likely to benefit from RIPK1 inhibition and to determine the optimal timing and duration of treatment. The development of safe and effective RIPK1 inhibitors for clinical use is a major challenge. RIPK1 inhibitors must be able to effectively inhibit RIPK1 activity in vivo without causing significant toxicity. Additionally, they must be able to penetrate the blood-brain barrier to reach the central nervous system, where HIV can persist in reservoirs. Several RIPK1 inhibitors are currently under development, and some have shown promising results in preclinical studies. However, further research is needed to optimize the safety and efficacy of these inhibitors for clinical use. This includes conducting clinical trials to evaluate the safety and efficacy of RIPK1 inhibitors in HIV-infected individuals.17,19

Future research should focus on addressing the challenges outlined above and further elucidating the role of RIPK1 in HIV infection. This includes investigating the mechanisms by which HIV infection triggers RIPK1-mediated necroptosis and inflammation, as well as identifying biomarkers that can predict the response to RIPK1 inhibitors. Additionally, clinical trials are needed to evaluate the safety and efficacy of RIPK1 inhibitors in HIV-infected individuals. One promising area of research is the development of combination therapies that target both RIPK1 and other pathways involved in HIV pathogenesis. For example, combining RIPK1

inhibitors with ART may be more effective in controlling HIV infection than either therapy alone. Additionally, combining RIPK1 inhibitors with other immunomodulatory therapies may be able to further reduce inflammation and improve immune function. Another area of research is the development of RIPK1 inhibitors that can be delivered directly to the central nervous system. This may be necessary to target HIV reservoirs in the brain and achieve a functional cure for HIV. RIPK1-mediated necroptosis is a complex process that plays a significant role in CD4⁺ T cell depletion during HIV infection. The virus can directly activate the necroptotic pathway through its proteins, and chronic immune activation and inflammation can indirectly trigger necroptosis through the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines. The identification of RIPK1 as a central regulator of necroptosis has opened up new avenues for therapeutic intervention, and the development of RIPK1 inhibitors holds great promise for the treatment of HIV infection. However, further research is needed to fully understand the role of RIPK1 in HIV infection and to develop safe and effective RIPK1 inhibitors for clinical use. The development of RIPK1 inhibitors for HIV treatment faces several challenges, including the potential for offtarget effects, the need to identify the optimal timing and duration of inhibition, and the development of safe and effective inhibitors for clinical use. However, the potential benefits of targeting RIPK1 in HIV infection are significant, and further research in this area is warranted. By addressing these challenges and developing safe and effective RIPK1 inhibitors, we can potentially revolutionize the treatment of HIV infection and improve the lives of millions of people living with the virus.19,20

2. Conclusion

RIPK1-mediated necroptosis is a complex process that plays a significant role in CD4⁺ T cell depletion during HIV infection. The virus can directly activate the necroptotic pathway through its proteins, and chronic immune activation and inflammation can indirectly trigger necroptosis through the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines. The identification of RIPK1 as a central regulator of necroptosis has opened up new avenues for therapeutic intervention, and the development of RIPK1 inhibitors holds great promise for the treatment of HIV infection. However, further research is needed to fully understand the role of RIPK1 in HIV infection and to develop safe and effective RIPK1 inhibitors for clinical use.

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