Inflammasome Profiling in Human Natural Killer Cells under Pro-inflammatory Stimuli and Solid Organ Transplantation

Antonio Astorga-Gamaza[1,2,*], Inés Muela-Zarzuela[1], Juan Miguel Suárez-Rivero[1], Alexis Varin[3],

Maarten Naesens[4], Alessandra Tammaro[6], Jesper Kers[5,6,7], Juan López-Pérez[8,9], Raquel de la Varga-

Martínez[8,9], Auxiliadora Mazuecos[9], Baptiste Lamarthée[3], and Mario D. Cordero[1,10, &]

[1] Department of Molecular Biology and Biochemical Engineering, Universidad Pablo de Olavide, 41013 Seville, Spain.

[2] Department of Medical Microbiology and Infection Prevention, Amsterdam University Medical Center (UMC), University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam, the Netherlands.

[3] Inserm UMR1098 Right, University Marie and Louis Pasteur, EFS BFC, Besançon, France.

[4] Department of Microbiology, Immunology and Transplantation, Nephrology and Kidney Transplantation Research Group, KU Leuven, Leuven, Belgium; Department of Nephrology and Kidney Transplantation, University Hospital Leuven, Leuven, Belgium.

[5] Department of Pathology, Amsterdam University Medical Center, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

[6] Department of Pathology, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden, The Netherlands

[7] Department of Pathology, Erasmus Medical Center, Rotterdam, The Netherlands

[8] Instituto de Investigación e Innovación Biomédica de Cádiz, INiBICA, Hospital Universitario Puerta del Mar, Cádiz, Spain.

[9] Department of Immunology, Puerta del Mar Hospital, 11009 Cádiz, Spain.

[10] CIBER de Enfermedades Respiratorias (CIBERES), Instituto de Salud Carlos III, 28220 Madrid, Spain.

&Corresponding author: Mario D. Cordero, PhD

Department of Molecular Biology and Biochemical Engineering, Universidad Pablo de Olavide, 41013 Seville, Spain. Email: mdcormor1@upo.es.

*Co-Corresponding author: Antonio Astorga Gamaza, PhD

Department of Molecular Biology and Biochemical Engineering, Universidad Pablo de Olavide, 41013 Seville, Spain. Email: antonio.medina93@gmail.com.

Summary

Innate immunity relies on inflammasomes as key mediators of host defense, orchestrating the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines and triggering pyroptotic cell death in response to harmful stimuli. Although inflammasome activity has been extensively studied in myeloid cells, its role in natural killer (NK) cells remains underexplored. This study demonstrates that human primary NK cells can functionally activate inflammasomes both in vitro and in vivo, including in patients undergoing organ transplantation. Ex vivo stimulation with nigericin and the dipeptidyl peptidases (DPP) inhibitor Talabostat (Val-boroPro) induces pyroptotic cell death in a subset of NK cells. This is marked by the cleavage and activation of gasdermin D, a lytic pore-forming protein essential for pyroptosis. Accompanying gasdermin D activation, significant levels of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) and residual amounts of interleukin-18 (IL-18) are released. The detection of activated caspase-4 further indicates that these processes are mediated through non-canonical inflammasome pathways in NK cells. Notably, CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cell subsets exhibit distinct responses to pro-inflammatory stimulation. In patients with renal dysfunction, sustained inflammasome activation, particularly involving NLRP1 and NLRP3, is observed in NK cells, with a shift toward a more pro-inflammatory phenotype following kidney transplantation. Single-cell RNA sequencing analyses further reveal persistently elevated expression of caspase-4 and gasdermin-D in transplant recipients experiencing rejection and microvascular inflammation. These findings highlight the underappreciated role of NK cells in inflammasome-driven inflammation, underscoring their importance in both basic research and clinical contexts.

Introduction

Inflammation is part of the body's defense response to harmful stimuli. However, exacerbated inflammation is also associated with a range of diseases. In this regard, the activity of natural killer (NK) cells has been shown to highly depend on the context, helping to reduce or even promote inflammatory processes [1].

NK cells are innate lymphoid cells characterized by a huge diversity of phenotypes and functions [2, 3], although they are primarily categorized into two main subpopulations based on the neural cell adhesion molecule CD56 density. CD56^{dim} NK cells are known for their potent cytolytic activities, and CD56^{bright} NK cells are distinguished by their cytokine secretion capabilities [4]. They play a pivotal role in immune surveillance, effectively targeting malignant and infected cells to control intracellular pathogens and shaping adaptive immune responses [5]. Equipped with a huge array of cell surface receptors, NK cells sense stress signals in target cells, distinguishing between 'self' and 'non-self' or 'aberrant' targets under normal physiological conditions [6]. Upon activation, NK cells release cytotoxic granules containing perforin and granzyme. Also, they secrete interferon (IFN)-γ and tumor necrosis factor (TNF), and immunoregulatory molecules such as interleukin (IL)-10 and the growth factor GM-CSF, as well as chemokines including CCL3 (MIP-1α), CCL4 (MIP-1β), CCL5 (RANTES), and CXCL8 (IL-8) [7]. Through these mechanisms, NK cells can drive inflammation and modulate the activity of other immune cells.

A key part of the inflammatory process and the innate immune response is the assembly of inflammasomes. These cytosolic multi-protein complexes regulate tissue inflammation in response to multiple cellular stress patterns, including pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) such as bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS), or cellular damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), which include extracellular ATP and changes in intracellular ion concentrations. In this regard, inflammasome biology has been mostly characterized in macrophages and at least partially studied in other cell types such as endothelial cells, fibroblasts, epithelial cells, and T cells [8-11]. However, it is unknown whether NK cells are equipped with functional inflammasome components, and thus, this could represent an underexplored arm of the diverse immune mechanisms mediated by these cells and an important source of inflammation.

The first steps in the triggering of inflammasomes comprise the detection of the damage patterns via sensors of several families such as the NOD-like (NLR), Toll-like (TLR), AIM2-like (ALR),

or the caspase recruitment domain (CARD)-containing family of proteins, that include the members

NLRP1, NLRP3, NLRC4, AIM2, and CARD8, among others [12]. Following activation, some sensors

interact with adaptor proteins such as ASC (apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a

CARD), composing a pre-complex that then recruits inflammatory caspase-1. Next to terminal

assembly, the activation of caspase-1 in the inflammasome can lead to the proteolytic cleavage and

maturation of the IL-1 family cytokines IL-1β and IL-18 [13]. This pathway is known as the "canonical"

activation. Another usual key event after the inflammasome activation is the cleavage of

gasdermins, a family of pore-forming proteins, into its N-terminal active domain, which induces a

proinflammatory form of regulated cell death termed pyroptosis [14]. Inflammasome activation can

also occur in a named "non-canonical" way, with caspases-4 and -5 in humans directly promoting

pyroptosis [15, 16].

Herein, we conducted a transcriptomic analysis of NK cells derived from various tissues,

revealing the expression of genes encoding several components of the inflammasome. Additionally,

we provide proteomic evidence demonstrating the expression of all the components for the NLRP3

and NLRP1 inflammasome in both CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cell subsets. More importantly, we

demonstrate the functionality of these inflammasomes in NK cells, mainly evidenced by the

induction of pyroptotic cell death and activation of gasdermin-D. Interestingly, we observe distinct

responses to pro-inflammatory stimuli between the two NK cell subpopulations. Furthermore, we

identify signs of inflammasome activation in NK cells from patients with renal dysfunction, which

persist despite immunosuppression after kidney transplantation. Our findings suggest that NK cells

should be considered in inflammation research and as potential therapeutic targets, as they might

play a role in both pathogen defense and inflammatory disorders through inflammasome signaling

and pyroptosis.

RESULTS

Expression of inflammation-related genes in human NK cells from different tissues

To gain insight into the potential of human NK cells in shaping inflammatory responses and

constituting functional inflammasomes, we conducted a transcriptomic analysis of NK cells from

diverse tissues using a publicly available RNA-seq dataset [3]. Cells were isolated from donors

without cancer or any other chronic disease, and seronegative for hepatitis B, C, and HIV viral

infections [3]. We assessed the expression of a list of genes related to inflammation, considering a

reference list [17]. From a total of 2,686 genes, we found expression of 1,619 in NK cells from blood,

bone marrow, lymph nodes, lungs, and spleen. These genes appeared to be involved in different

processes such as the regulation of the NF-κB activity, apoptosis, TNF signaling, cellular response to

lipopolysaccharide, NOD-like and Toll-like receptor signaling, IL-6 and IL-1β production (adjusted p

value < 0.05) (**Figure 1A**). Next, we performed a detailed analysis of the expression of short-listed

genes reported to play a role in activating inflammasome multiprotein complexes at different stages

(**Figure 1B, C, D, E, and F**). Interestingly, we noticed the expression in NK cells of guanylate-binding

proteins (GBP), which target intracellular pathogens and can mediate host defense via

inflammasome induction [18, 19]. Moreover, we found expression of other receptors of DAMPs and

PAMPs such as *TLR-2-3* and *4*, *NLRP1*, *NLRP3*, *NLRP6*, *NLRC3*, and *NLRC4,* the interferon-inducible

protein *AIM-2* and *CARD*. NK cells also expressed *PYCARD*, the gene coding for ASC protein, required

to constitute canonical inflammasomes, and the serin proteases *DPP8* and *DPP9*, whose

pharmacological inhibition by Val-boroPro (Vbp) (Talabostat) is reported to activate both NLRP1 and

CARD8 inflammasomes [20, 21]. Furthermore, NK cells from all analyzed tissues expressed

downstream effectors in the inflammasome pathway such as *CASPASE-1*, *IL-1β*, *IL-18*, and

GASDERMIN D genes (**Figure 1B, C, D, E, and F**). Some significant differences were noticed between

the NK subpopulations CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright}. This was the case for *GBP5* and *TLR3* in the blood

(**Figure 1B**), and *CASPASE-1* in the lung (**Figure 1C**), with higher expression in CD56^{dim} NK cells.

However, larger datasets are needed to confirm and reveal differences between different NK

subpopulations as NK cells exhibit an intrinsic, highly heterogeneous nature intra- and inter-

individually [2].

Next, we aimed to assess the expression of the protein sensors NLRP1 and NLRP3, which have

been implicated in the regulation and pathogenesis of many conditions. We studied the expression

of the proteins NLRP1, NLRP3, and the adaptor ASC in NK cells by flow cytometry, using blood-

derived primary NK cells from healthy donors previously isolated by FACS (fluorescence-activated

cell sorting) (**Supplementary Figure 1A**). The median purity of the cells was 90.7% and 94.8% for

CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells, respectively. A representative example of staining can be found in

Supplementary Figure 1B-C. These proteins were widely expressed in circulating NK cells, with

slightly higher frequencies of ASC and NLRP1 in the CD56^{bright} subpopulation (**Figure 1G and H**), but

no differences in the percentage of NLRP3 (**Figure 1I**) nor in the intensity of expression (mean

fluorescence intensity, MFI) of any of them (**Figure 1J, K, and L**). Our results indicate that both the

two main CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} subpopulations of NK cells express the components needed to

constitute functional inflammasomes, and particularly NLRP3 and NLRP1 inflammasomes,

suggesting that they may play a role in NK cell-mediated immunity.

NK cell pyroptosis triggered by specific NLRP1 and NLRP3 inflammasome activators

As a next step, we directly tested the functionality of inflammasomes in NK cells. For that, we

treated blood-derived NK cells from healthy volunteers, previously isolated by FACS, with

pharmacological activators of the NLRP3 and NLRP1 inflammasomes ex vivo. We included conditions

of cells cultured with lipopolysaccharide (LPS) plus ATP (LPS-ATP), nigericin (Nig), and the

DPP8/DPP9 inhibitor Vbp for both CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK subpopulations separately. Cytokine

secretion was barely detected, with minimal amounts of IL-18 upon stimulation of CD56^{dim} cells with

nigericin (**Figure 2A**) or CD56^{bright} cells with Vbp (**Figure 2B**). No increment was detected in any of

the subpopulations after LPS-ATP stimulation (**Supplementary Figures 2A and B**). IL-1β was also not

induced *in vitro*, except for one donor that also showed higher levels of IL-6 (**Supplementary Figures**

2C, D, and E). Besides, we measured other immune mediators by a multiplex Luminex immunoassay.

The secretion of IL-10, GM-CSF, and the NK-associated cytotoxic and regulatory molecules IFN-γ,

IFN-α, or TNF-α was not detectable in our assay conditions, suggesting that in vitro treatment with

nigericin and Vbp does not induce unspecific NK cytotoxicity. Interestingly, ICAM-1, the adhesion

receptor and regulator of inflammation, seemed to increase its concentration after LPS-ATP and

nigericin treatment of CD56^{dim} cells (**Supplementary Figures 2F and G**). These results suggest that

different pro-inflammatory stimuli might differentially affect distinct NK subpopulations.

Next, we assessed cell death by pyroptosis, a key process induced after inflammasome

activation. Notably, we detected the activation of the N-terminal fragment of gasdermin D (GSDMD-

Cleaved) by western blot after nigericin and Vbp treatment of NK cells (**Figure 2C**). Of note, this was

successfully detected only in CD56^{dim} NK cells. However, the release of LDH, which confirms cell

death, was more prominent in the CD56bright subpopulation (**Figure 2D and E**), raising the possibility

that more aggressive death of CD56bright NK cells may hinder the detection of active gasdermin D.

Both pro-inflammatory cytokine secretion and gasdermin-dependent pyroptosis rely on the

previous cleavage of inflammatory caspases into their active form [13]. Here, we failed to observe

increased active fragments of caspase-1 in NK cells stimulated with nigericin and Vbp in 6 out of 7

experiments. Importantly, in additional experiments we aimed to measure activated caspase-4, and

it was successfully detected (**Figure 2F**), suggesting the non-canonical activation of the

inflammasomes in NK cells. Moreover, the inhibition of NLRP1 and NLRP3 using the dual inhibitor

ADS032 lowered the amount of activated caspase-4 in NK cells (**Figure 2F**).

NLRP1 and NLRP3 undergo protein reorganization in NK cells under pro-inflammatory stimuli,

and their activation does not require ASC oligomerization

To gain further insight into the activation of inflammasomes in NK cells, we assessed the

expression of proteins within control and treated cells. The purity of the cells employed in these

assays was always higher than 90.0%. Moreover, any remaining cell contaminants in the culture

were discarded from our analysis using lineage markers for NK cells in the flow cytometry panel.

Treatment of NK cells, CD56dim or CD56bright, with LPS-ATP, nigericin, or Vbp, did not alter the

frequency of cells expressing NLRP3 (**Figures 3A and B**), NLRP1 (**Figures 3C and D**), or ASC (**Figures**

3E and F). However, changes in the intensity of expression (MFI) were detected in the case of

nigericin exposure of CD56bright NK cells, with a reduction in NLRP3 levels (**Figure 3G**). This was not

observed for the other proteins or stimuli (**Supplementary Figures 3A, B, C, D, and E**). This may

indicate that nigericin and Vbp promote the reorganization of these molecules to assemble the

inflammasomes rather than drastically changing their expression levels. Additionally, nigericin may

promote a more aggressive pyroptotic death of CD56bright NK cells, which could explain the lower

levels of NLRP3 and higher LDH release (as shown in Figure 2D and E). Moreover, we studied the

formation of specks by flow cytometry, as previously reported [22]. In the formation of

inflammasomes, when canonical activation occurs, ASC interacts with upstream sensors such as

NLRP1 and NLRP3, which subsequently trigger its assembly into a structure known as a speck

composed of multimers of ASC dimers. The speck can be detected by flow cytometry using the time-

of-flight (TOF) signal of ASC, as it correlates with a higher pulse height-to-area (H:A) ratio (**Figure**

3H). Despite consistent signs of speck in CD56dim NK cells after nigericin stimulation, specking levels

were very low (**Figure 3I**). Treatment with Vbp also slightly induced specks in 5 out of 7 independent

assays in CD56^{bright} NK cells (**Figure 3J**). We did not detect any sign of speck in LPS-ATP or Vbp-treated

CD56^{dim} NK cells (**Supplementary Figures 3F and G**), nor consistently in LPS-ATP and nigericin treated

CD56^{bright} subpopulation (**Supplementary Figures 3H and I**). Next, we directly explored and

visualized the specking of ASC through fluorescent flow cytometry imaging (Amnis®). Primary

monocytes and NK cells treated with nigericin, with or without previous treatment with the NLRP1

and NLRP3 dual inhibitor ADS032, were acquired and gated based on the expression of CD3, CD56,

and CD14. As expected, we observed a fraction of monocytes with a cytosolic diffusion pattern of

ASC expression (**Figure 3K**), but also a significant fraction showing ASC assembly (**Figure 3L**), which

was lower in the presence of the dual inflammasome inhibitor ADS032 (**Figure 3M**). Unlike

monocytes, even though we still detected some NK cells with ASC specking (**Figures 3N and O**), ASC

assembly was rare in NK cells (**Figure 3P**), confirming the results of our flow cytometry assay.

Overall, our results indicate that activated gasdermin-D is inducible and functional in NK cells,

particularly by the NLRP3 and NLRP1 activators nigericin and Vbp. CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells

behave differently under pro-inflammatory stimulation. Of note, based on our mechanistic

exploration assays, we believe that the non-canonical pathway leads to the activation of

NLRP1/NLRP3 inflammasomes in NK cells. Alternatively, pyroptosis of NK cells activating these

inflammasomes may be hindering/underestimating the detection of the canonical pathway.

NK cells display inflammasome activation in patients with kidney disease and undergoing

organ transplantation

To elucidate if NK cells participate in the orchestration and maintenance of inflammatory

processes through inflammasome signaling *in vivo*, we studied this in the context of kidney disease

and organ transplantation. Recent data support the hypothesis that imbalanced inflammation might

be an important driver of kidney disease that may persist even after organ transplantation [23-27].

We collected PBMCs from patients with chronic kidney disease (**Supplementary Table 1**). Western

blotting studies showed high protein levels of NLRP1, active caspase-1, and gasdermin-D in the

blood of these patients before and during the first week after kidney transplantation (**Figure 4A and**

Supplementary Figure 4), confirming the activation of inflammasomes and pro-inflammatory cell

death by pyroptosis of circulating immune cells. We then specifically studied NK cells from these

PBMC. Importantly, flow cytometry analyses (as represented in **Supplementary Figures 5A and B**)

confirmed that nearly 100 % of NK cells in these patients expressed NLRP1 (**Figure 4B**), about 50 %

expressed ASC (**Figure 4C**), and a smaller fraction NLRP3, which increased three days after

transplantation (**Figure 4D**). We also detected a fraction of NK cells with signs of speck, which was

enriched three days post-transplantation (**Figure 4E and Supplementary Figure 5C**). Speck levels in

NK cells were much lower than those detected in monocytes, as expected (**Supplementary Figure**

5D). Additional analyses distinguishing between specking versus non-specking cells showed higher

levels of NLRP1 and NLRP3 in speck$^+$ cells (**Figures 4F, G, H and I**), suggesting the activation of both

inflammasomes in NK cells from patients with renal dysfunction and shortly after undergoing organ

transplantation.

Microvascular inflammation (MVI) is a hallmark of immune-mediated injury of renal allografts,

characterized by immune cell infiltration into glomerular and peritubular capillaries. Traditionally,

MVI has been associated with antibody-mediated rejection (ABMR), but many MVI cases lack

detectable donor-specific antibodies (DSA), suggesting the involvement of other immune

mechanisms or alternative triggers such as ischemia/reperfusion and viral infections [28]. Recent

studies have emphasized the role of NK cells in this lesion [29-31]. To further dissect the molecular

expression patterns associated with the MVI observed in a fraction of kidney-transplanted

individuals, we conducted single-cell RNA-seq analyses of PBMC samples from a previous study on

kidney transplant recipients [32]. Clinical data of the patients are shown in **Supplementary Table 2**.

Several circulating immune cell clusters were analyzed (**Supplementary Figure 6A and B**). A pro-

inflammatory phenotype of NK cells in these individuals was confirmed, with more frequent

expression of *CASPASE-1*, *CASPASE-4*, *PYCARD/ASC*, *GASDERMIN-D*, *IL-18*, *GBP1*, *GBP5*, *STING*, and

IFI16, in both circulating CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells, compared to individuals lacking a

microvascular inflammatory signature in the biopsy (**Figure 4J**). This was detected despite a long

follow-up period after the transplant of up to 5.5 years for some of the patients participating in the

study. Notably, a significant increase in the intensity of expression of caspase-4 and gasdermin-D

was noticed in NK cells from patients with MVI, standing out over other immune cell subsets, and

confirming non-canonical inflammasome activation and pyroptosis in these cells, even after long

periods following transplantation (**Figure 4J**). Indeed, further classification of the data based on the

time after transplant in *mid-* (363-730 days) and *long-term* (+731 days) showed a peak of expression

of caspase-4 in NK cells at mid-term, approximately two years after receiving the organ

(**Supplementary Figure 7**).

Last, we investigated the transcriptional changes occurring in NK cells at the single-cell level in

kidney biopsies from transplanted patients with or without MVI, and the relationship with this

outcome. Single-cell RNA-seq publicly available datasets [30] of biopsies showing MVI or not were

selected as described in the Materials and Methods section. Structural compartments and several

immune cell clusters of the human transplanted kidney were analyzed (**Figure 5A and B**). scRNASeq

is not efficient to capture *NCAM1* expression encoding CD56, so we also used CD16 (*FCGR3A*) to

distingüish CD56^{dim} and and CD56^{bright} NK subpopulations. In addition, CD16 (*FCGR3A*+) NK cells

represent a subpopulation with potential to mediate antibody-dependent cell cytotoxicity (ADCC)

responses, highly relevant in the context of ABMR [31]. Clinical data from patients is summarized in

Supplementary Table 3. Similar to the results in peripheral blood, higher levels of caspase-4 were

found in CD16 (*FCGR3A*+)-expressing NK cells (**Figure 5C-D**), as well as higher NLRP1 and lower levels

of DPP8 and DPP9 in both CD16$^+$ and CD16$^-$ NK cells in biopsies with inflammatory lesions (**Figure**

5C). We did not observe an increase in gasdermin-D in renal NK cells, which could be attributed to

the cells undergoing pyroptosis more rapidly and thus dying. This inflammatory flux might promote

the migration of lymphocytes from circulation to inflamed kidneys and explain the higher

frequencies of immune effectors such as NK cells and T cells in biopsies showing MVI (**Figure 5E**).

Discussion

In this study, we shed light on the biology of inflammasomes in human NK cells, as dedicated

studies are lacking. These multiprotein complexes are involved in innate defense and inflammatory

responses to pathogens. Similarly, NK cells constitute a first line of defense against aberrant targets.

However, whether inflammasomes encompass one of their multiple immune mechanisms of action

and how it may impact health are unknown. Inflammasomes are composed of sensors, adaptors,

and effectors components, and their activation triggers the release of inflammatory cytokines and

pyroptosis [33]. Here, we show the expression of transcripts encoding several inflammasome-

forming proteins in NK cells distributed across different tissues. Sensors of several inflammasomes,

including the members of the NALP family NLRP3 and NLRP1 were found expressed. Consistent with

a prior report [34], we found a high constitutive expression of NLRP3. We also noticed high levels of

NLRP1 and the adaptor protein ASC in NK cells. More importantly, we prove here that

inflammasomes are functional in these cells and non-canonical activation can occur.

Several activators of the NLRP3 and NLRP1 inflammasomes have been identified, being reported

potassium ion (K$^+$) efflux as one of the most potent in the case of NLRP3 [35], and recently also

proven to activate NLRP1 [36], and inhibition of the serin dipeptidyl peptidases DPP8 and DPP9 for

NLRP1 activation [20, 21]. Here, we used Nigericin, a toxin derived from *Streptomyces hygroscopicus*

that facilitates H^+/K^+ anti-port across cell membranes and thereby causes potassium efflux [37], and

Vbp, an inhibitor of the inhibitory interaction between DPP8/DPP9 and NLRP1 [38], to assess the

functionality of both inflammasomes in NK cells. Our results revealed changes that are compatible

with inflammasome activation, including prominent signs of pyroptosis. Moreover, our experiments

seemed to indicate that the components of the NLRP3 and NLRP1 inflammasomes are more likely

to undergo a reorganization rather than upregulation upon stimulation with nigericin or Vbp.

Besides, we found differences in the response of CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells to both compounds.

This is not completely unexpected given the high plasticity and diversity in phenotypes and functions

of NK cells [2, 3]. Regarding the pore-forming protein gasdermin D, capable of inducing pyroptosis,

its active form was detected in CD56^{dim} NK cells treated with nigericin and Vbp. LDH levels were also

increased in the culture of these cells, particularly in those treated with nigericin. Of note, although

we could not detect active gasdermin D in CD56^{bright} cells, a notable release of LDH by these cells

was observed. The release of LDH is considered a surrogate of cell pyroptosis as large proteins are

usually filtered out in the absence of cell death [39]. Thus, it may be plausible that CD56^{bright} NK cells

undergo more aggressive pyroptosis upon *in vitro* activation of the NLRP3/NLRP1 inflammasomes,

hindering the detection of active gasdermin-D. Also, the low numbers of these cells in the blood,

which usually represent less than 10% of circulating NK cells [40], may pose a technical challenge

for the detection of proteins. Alternatively, other forms of cell death could be involved. Different

frequencies and proportions of NK cell subpopulations can be found in tissues like the bone marrow,

spleen, lung, liver, lymph nodes, tonsils, and intestines [3]. Thus, further studies with different tissue

samples, NK subpopulations, and inflammasome-triggering agents or conditions could add valuable

insight into the biology of these lymphocytes and the inflammatory field.

To our knowledge, this is the first report clearly showing the inflammasome activation and

pyroptosis in human NK cells. Nevertheless, prior results in mice support our results, showing that

burn injury and radiation exposure induce the activation of caspase-1 in many cell subsets including

NK cells [41, 42]. Importantly, Fong et al also showed that the human pathogen group B

Streptococcus directly interacts with NK cells and suppresses a pyroptotic-like response via the

interaction with siglec-7 [43]. In this regard, our results did not show a typical inflammasome

response after the LPS-ATP stimulation of NK cells. However, this could be explained by the low

surface expression of TLR4 in these cells [44]. Thus, we do not rule out the possibility that direct

bacterial infection might activate some of the inflammasomes in NK cells. In fact, our transcriptomic

analysis showed that many other inflammasome sensors are transcriptionally expressed in these

cells, including NLRP6, NLRC4 or AIM-2, although if they are functional remain unknown and could

be more suitable after direct infections. Moreover, this evidence supports the notion that in vivo

different microenvironments and pathologic threads could trigger different inflammasome routes

in NK cells. Thus, the results presented here provide new insight into the biology of NK cells that

might support the role of these lymphocytes in different contexts via inflammasome activation.

Elucidating when these responses take place and whether they are beneficial or harmful could help

in the identification of new targets in inflammatory disorders.

Inflammasome activity has been associated with chronic kidney disease and kidney allograft

rejection, particularly linked to AIM-2, NLRP3, and more recently NLRP1 [23-27]. Here, we observed

signs of NLRP3 and NLRP1 inflammasome activation as well as activation of gasdermin-D in

circulating immune cells, including NK cells, in patients with end-stage kidney disease before and

after receiving a donor's kidney. Previously, it has been shown that post-transplantation NK cells

subsets can change even at the peripheral level, with variations in number and phenotype, and that

they are enriched in biopsies from patients with antibody-mediated rejection (ABMR) and

associated with inflammatory lesions in the microvascular compartment [30, 45].

Herein, we show the acquisition of a proinflammatory phenotype in NK cells shortly post-

transplantation, characterized by higher levels of NLRP1, NLRP3, and ASC, which persist long-term

marked by upregulated caspase-4. This suggests that different inflammatory milieus in vivo could

induce the activity of inflammasomes not only in classically studied subsets such as monocytes and

macrophages but also in innate lymphoid cells such as NK cells. Until now, two mechanisms have

been considered the main drivers for graft rejection in transplanted patients, T-cell-mediated

rejection, and/or antibody-mediated rejection. In both, NK cells have been shown to cooperate,

through the maturation of dendritic cells, activation of T cells, the triggering of missing-self

activation due to mismatches in HLA class I loci and NK inhibitory killer immunoglobulin-like

receptors (KIR), and mediating a pathogenic ADCC response triggered by anti-HLA antibodies in

CD56^{dim} CD16-expressing NK cells [46]. Our results add evidence that NK cells might also contribute

to pathogenic inflammation in renal injured patients through pro-inflammatory activity via

inflammasome signaling. Although larger studies and longer follow-up periods are needed, our

results are tempting to speculate that inflammasome is a pathway by which NK cells might influence
renal disease and graft outcomes.

Recent studies have associated the activity of NK cells, particularly by Fc-receptor mediated
activation and ADCC, with graft injury patterns and ABMR, the principal process associated with MVI
[29-31, 47, 48]. This scenario requires the production of DSA able to mediate ADCC. Nevertheless,
many MVI cases lack detectable DSA [49, 50], suggesting the existence of multiple and alternative
immune mechanisms responsable for this inflammation. Both, DSA-positive (ABMR) and DSA-
negative MVI have been associated with similar NK cell burden [51], so they might be impacted by
similar NK cell activation mechanisms [28]. Some mechanisms have been proposed, including the
"missing-self" activation of NK cells, the IFN-γ response, and a particular receptor repertoir
potentially driving strong immune responses, although they do not fully explain the diverse and
complex nature of MVI [28]. Given the multifaceted role NK cells could play in MVI, targeting these
cells and their effector mechanisms could help reduce MVI. Indeed, in a recent phase 2 trial
conducted in late HLA DSA-positive ABMR patients, the anti-CD38 antibody "felzartamab", showed
promising results, substantially reducing MVI scores and with most patients converting to "no
ABMR" or an "inactive" ABMR phenotype [52]. Interestingly, this effect was accompanied by marked
decreases in the number of circulating NK cells and particular NK cell transcript sets [53]. Based on
our results, it could be hypothesized that NK cells are also relevant immune sensing effectors and
orchestrators of a pro-inflammatory response through inflammasome activation, potentially
recruiting other cell subsets such as monocytes/macrophages, neutrophils and T cells to the site of
inflammation, and thus sustaining this response. In this case, targeting inflammasomes and
preventing pyroptosis could represent an effective mechanism to reduce MVI. In this sense, several
inhibitors of gasdermin-D are being tested [54]. Moreover, in light of our results, both NLRP1 and
NLRP3 inflammasomes could be active and associated with MVI. Unfortunately, up to date, only one
dual-action molecule inhibitor targeting both the NLRP1 and NLRP3 inflammasomes has been
reported but it has not been clinically approved yet [55]. Thus, the development of dual
inflammasome-targeting pharmacological approaches could be highly beneficial in the context of
MVI and organ rejection.

Finally, we would light to emphasize that NK cells might play a role in several other inflammatory
diseases such as ischemic stroke, sepsis, or cancer, where persistent inflammasome activity and
activation of gasdermin D have been observed to cause undesired effects including organelle

dysfunction, cell lysis, and persistent release of cytokines [14]. Also, it will be relevant to determine

other contexts where inducing inflammasome activity of NK cells could be beneficial.

In conclusion, our findings underscore the importance of including NK cells in future studies

investigating inflammasome functionality in different clinical contexts.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization: A.A.G, M.D.C; Methodology: A.A.G, I.M.Z, AV, BL; Investigation: A.A.G, JM.S.R,

AT, JK, M.D.C; Resources: A.A.G, J.L.P, R.V.M, MN, AM, M.D.C; Visualization: A.A.G, I.M.Z, AV, AT, JK,

BL, M.D.C; Supervision: A.A.G, M.D.C; Funding acquisition: M.D.C; Writing – Original Draft: A.A.G;

Writing –Review & Editing: A.A.G, M.D.C.

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

The authors declare no competing interest.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. RNA-Seq analysis of inflammatory transcriptional signatures in circulating and tissue-
resident human NK cells, and protein expression of the NLRP1 and NLRP3 inflammasome sensors.
Cells were isolated from donors without cancer or any other chronic disease, and seronegative for
hepatitis B, C, and HIV viral infections. **A)** Significance of the most represented immune pathways
according to the expression of a list of 2,686 inflammation-related genes. Functional gene
annotation was performed using DAVID. **B)** Heatmap of the expression of short-listed genes key in
the activation and triggering of effector functions of inflammasomes in circulating NK cells. An
analysis of the differential expression of these genes between CD56^{bright}CD16$^-$ and CD56^{dim}CD16$^+$ NK
cell subsets is also shown, and genes showing a different expression pattern between both NK
subpopulations are marked with a red box. The same is shown for **C)** NK cells in the lung, **D)** NK cells
in the lymph nodes, **E)** NK cells in the bone marrow, and **F)** NK cells in the spleen. Differentially
expressed genes were identified using linear models (Limma-Voom) and P values adjusted for

multiple comparisons by applying the Benjamini-Hochberg correction. **G)** Frequency (%) of
expression of ASC in sorted CD56^{dim}CD16$^+$ and CD56^{bright}CD16$^{-/dim}$ NK cells (n=8), **H)** Frequency of
NLRP1, and **I)** Frequency of NLRP3. Mean Fluorescence Intensity (MFI) signal for each marker in **J)**,
K), and **L)**. Median with range is represented. Statistical comparisons were performed using the
Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test.

Figure 2. **Activation of the NLRP1 and NLRP3 inflammasomes and induction of pyroptosis in human**
NK cells ex vivo. Isolated NK cells from blood samples were cultured in the presence of the
inflammasome activators LPS (1 µg/ml for 4 hours) and ATP (5 mM for 30 mins), nigericin (10 µM
for 30 mins) or Vbp (1 µM for 4 hours). After that, the concentration of cytokines of the IL-1 family
IL-18 and IL1β as well as lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) release were measured in the culture
supernatants. Changes in the cell expression of downstream effectors in the inflammasome cascade
such as caspase-1, caspase-4, and gasdermin D were also measured by western blot. **A)**
Concentration of IL-18 in cell cultures of untreated CD56^{dim} NK cells or treated with nigericin (n=6).
B) IL-18 concentration in cell cultures of CD56^{bright} NK cells stimulated with Vbp (n=5). **C)** Western
blot analysis of the full length and cleaved form of gasdermin D in CD56^{dim} NK cells in basal
conditions and after nigericin and Vbp exposure. Representative result from n=5 independent
experiments. **D)** LDH release in cell cultures of stimulated CD56^{dim} NK cells (n=6), and **E)** stimulated
CD56^{bright} NK cells (n=6). **F)** Western blot analysis of the active forms of caspase-1 and caspase-4 in
NK cells after nigericin exposure and previous treatment with the NLRP1/NLRP3 inflammasome
inhibitor ADS032 before the nigericin stimulation.

Figure 3. **NLRP1, NLRP3, and adaptor ASC inflammasome protein levels in NK cells under different**
proinflammatory stimuli. **A)** to **G)** represent the frequency and MFI signal for the expression of
NLRP1, NLRP3 and ASC in CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells in non-stimulated and under pro-
inflammatory stimuli with LPS-ATP, nigericin, and Vbp conditions (n=8), measured by flow
cytometry. Graphs represent median with range. Statistical comparisons were performed using the
Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test. **H)** Representative flow cytometry plots of the time-of-
flight signal for ASC in NK cells, showing an increase in ASC area: height pulse, indicative of specking,
after nigericin in vitro stimulation. **I)** Graph showing the frequency of CD56^{dim} NK cells with signs of
ASC specking after nigericin stimulation. **J)** The same for CD56^{bright} NK cells stimulated with Vbp.
Statistical comparisons were performed using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test. **K)** and
L) Representative images of ASC expression in nigericin-stimulated monocytes CD14$^+$ obtained by
fluorescent imaging flow cytometry. Both patterns can be observed, diffuse ASC expression (**K**) and
speck structures (**L**). **M)** Frequency of monocytes with signs of ASC specking in nigericin-stimulated
cells with or without previous treatment with the dual NLRP1/NLRP3 inhibitor ADS032. The same
for NK cells (CD56$^+$) in **N)**, **O)** and **P)**.

Figure 4. **Inflammasome activation in NK cells from patients with chronic kidney disease and organ**
transplantation. Cells from peripheral blood samples of patients with renal disease collected at
different time points before and after kidney transplantation were studied. Activation of the
inflammasomes in these patients was investigated using western blotting, flow cytometry, and
single-cell RNA sequencing. **A)** Western blot representative results in total peripheral blood

mononuclear cells (PBMCs) from one renal-injured patient (#FJP in **Supplementary Table 1**), showing the expression of NLRP1, NLRP3, pro-active caspase-1, the active fragment of caspase-1, full-length gasdermin D, active gasdermin D, and the control β-actin, pre-transplantation and 3 and 7 days after being transplanted. **B)** Frequency of expression of NLRP1 in total CD56$^+$ NK cells (n=7). **C)** Frequency of ASC. **D)** Frequency of NLRP3. **E)** Percentage of ASC specking in NK cells. Graphs represent median with range. Statistical comparisons were performed using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test. Graphs in **F)** and **G)** show the percentage and MFI of NLRP1 within speck$^-$ and speck$^+$ NK cells at different time points. The same for NLRP3 in **H)** and **I).** Graphs represent median with range. P values shown in the graphs represent ANOVA Friedman test, and asterisks denote the multiple comparisons Dunn's test. *p<0.05; **p<0.01. Moreover, comparisons between the speck$^-$ and speck$^+$ NK cells at the same time points were performed using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test. **J)** Single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNAseq) analysis on 12 peripheral blood samples, n=6 samples from kidney transplant recipients with a diagnosis of microvascular inflammation (MVI), and n=6 patients without MVI. We show the expression of genes implicated in the inflammasome pathways across the peripheral blood cells. cDC, conventional dendritic cell; ILC2, innate lymphoid cell; NK, natural killer cell; NKT, natural killer T cell; PBMC, peripheral blood mononuclear cell; pDC, plasmacytoid dendritic cell.

Figure 5. **A)** Analysis of scRNAseq data from kidney allograft biopsies (*n* =9 biopsies from 4 transplant recipients with a diagnosis of microvascular inflammation (MVI), and 5 patients without MVI (normal). Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) plot of 20,607 cells passing QC filtering. The main kidney cell types are represented, including loop of Henle (LOH), podocytes, vascular smooth muscle and pericytes (vSMp), proximal tubule (PT), intercalated cells (IC), three endothelial cell subsets comprising vasa recta (ECvr), glomerular (ECg) and peritubular capillaries (ECptc), myeloid cells, and lymphoid cells such as FCGR3+ and FCGR3- NK cells. **B)** Dot plot showing average gene expression values of canonical lineage markers (log scale) and percentage of major cell types represented in the dataset and UMAP plot. **C)** Graph showing the expression of genes implicated in the inflammasome pathways across the different cell types analyzed and comparing between "normal" biopsies and those showing microvascular inflammation (MVI). **D)** Caspase-4 expression in *FCGR3*+ NK cells according to time after transplantation in kidney biopsies (Early: 0-31 days; Mid: 32-365 days; Late: >366 days). **E)** Relative proportions of the different cell types identified in the kidney transplant biopsies.

Supplementary Figure 1. A) Example of the gating strategy for the identification of NK cells. **B)** Example of the purity of the CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells after cell sorting. **C)** Flow-cytometry plots showing a representative example for the expression of NLRP1, NLRP3, and ASC in CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells, and the corresponding Fluorescence Minus One (FMO) control for the proper gating.

Supplementary Figure 2. A) Concentration of IL-18 after the stimulation of CD56^{dim} NK cells with LPS-ATP. **B)** The same for CD56^{bright} NK cells. **C)** Concentration of IL-1β after stimulation of CD56^{dim} NK cells with nigericin, or **D)** with Vbp. **E)** Concentration of IL-6 in cell cultures of CD56^{dim} NK cells stimulated with Vbp, and **F)** concentration of ICAM-1 after LPS-ATP or **G)** nigericin stimulus.

Supplementary Figure 3. A) to **E)** Mean Fluorescence Intensity (MFI) signal for NLRP1, NLRP3 and
ASC in separate cultures of CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright} NK cells basally and after pro-inflammatory
stimulation with LPS-ATP, nigericin or Vbp. Graphs represent median with range. **F)** to **I)** Frequency
(%) of specking cells within CD56^{dim} or CD56^{bright} NK cells after stimulation with LPS-ATP, nigericin or
Vbp. Statistical comparisons were performed using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test.

Supplementary Figure 4. Results from the analysis by western blot of the expression of several
inflammasome proteins in PBMCs from two patients with renal dysfunction (#MCB and #MFS in
Supplementary Table 1). This figure shows the expression of NLRP1, NLRP3, pro-active caspase-1,
the active fragment of caspase-1, full-length gasdermin D, active gasdermin D, and the control β-
actin, pre-transplantation and 3- and 7-days post-transplant.

Supplementary Figure 5. A) Representative example of the gating strategy used for the
identification of monocytes and NK cells in samples from patients with kidney dysfunction. **B)**
Representative plots of the expression of ASC, NLRP1 and NLRP3 in NK cells from these patients.
FMO controls are shown. **C)** Representative plot of the specking levels within NK cells from renal-
injured patients by the time-of-flight signal for ASC, showing an increase in ASC area: height pulse.
D) Frequency of speck$^+$ monocytes in the samples from patients with renal dysfunction pre- and
post-transplant (n=7). The graph represents median with range and statistical comparisons were
performed using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test.

Supplementary Figure 6. Single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNAseq) analysis on 12 peripheral blood
samples, n=6 samples from kidney transplant recipients with MVI, and n=6 patients without MVI. **A)**
Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) representing several circulating immune
cell types, including lymphoid and myeloid cells. **B)** Dot plot showing average gene expression values
of canonical lineage markers (log scale) and percentage of major cell types represented in the
dataset (Figure 4J) and UMAP plot.

Supplementary Figure 7. Caspase-4 expression in **A)** CD56^{bright}CD16^{low} NK cells and **B)**
CD56^{dim}CD16^{bright} NK cells, according to time after transplantation in the different samples (*Mid*: 363-
730 days; *Late*: >731 days).

Supplementary Table 1. Clinical data of patients with renal dysfunction included in the study, and
sex and age of the organ donors.

Supplementary Table 2. Clinical data of patients included in the single cell transcriptomic analysis
of peripheral blood samples from kidney transplant recipients, comparing clinical parameters
between those with signs of MVI and those lacking MVI signature.

Supplementary Table 3. Clinical data of patients included in the scRNAseq analysis from kidney
allograft biopsies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

<u>Human Samples</u>

In this study, we used primary cells obtained from blood samples from healthy donors or patients

with kidney disease and undergoing transplantation. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs)

were obtained from the Hospital Puerta del Mar in Cádiz, Spain. Study protocols were approved by

the corresponding Ethical Committees of the Hospital. All subjects recruited for this study were

adults who provided written informed consent. Information on renal disease parameters from

affected patients is summarized in Supplementary Table 1. Gender and age are also indicated in

Table S1 unless not available. Since we utilized samples from donors of different genders in our

experiments, we can conclude that the results reported here apply to both men and women. PBMCs

were obtained by Ficoll-Paque density gradient centrifugation. PBMCs were cultured in RPMI

medium (Gibco) supplemented with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (Gibco), 1% streptomycin-penicillin

(Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA, 11548876) (R10 medium), and maintained at 37ºC in a 5% CO_2

incubator, when needed. NK cells were isolated from PBMCs by FACS (fluorescence-activated cell

sorting) (MELODY sorter) or using a commercial kit (MagniSort™ Human NK cell Enrichment;

eBioscience). The purity of the cells was always higher than 90%.

Transcriptomic analysis of a publicly available RNAseq data

We analyzed publicly available RNA-seq datasets. Data are available from Gene Expression

Omnibus (GEO) corresponding to the study with accession number GSE133383. This study provides

valuable transcriptomic data of two subpopulations of NK cells, CD56^{dim} and CD56^{bright}, in tissues

difficult to obtain [3]. R version 4.1.2 was used to perform all bioinformatic analyses. Count values

were imported and processed using edgeR

[https://academic.oup.com/bioinformatics/article/26/1/139/182458?login=false]. Expression

values were normalized using the trimmed mean of M values (TMM) method and lowly-expressed

genes (<1 counts per million) were filtered out. Differentially expressed genes were identified using

linear models (Limma-Voom) [https://academic.oup.com/nar/article/43/7/e47/2414268], and P

values adjusted for multiple comparisons by applying the Benjamini-Hochberg correction. Heatmaps

were generated using the heatmap3 package [https://github.com/slzhao/heatmap3]. Glimma

[https://github.com/Shians/Glimma] was used for interactive visualizations. Functional gene

annotation was performed using DAVID [https://david.ncifcrf.gov].

Single-cell transcriptomic data analysis

Publicly available datasets corresponding to kidney allograft biopsies showing MVI or not were

selected from E-MTAB-12051 [30] as followed: EXT217 = Normal, EXT230 = MVI, EXT240 = MVI,

EXT241 = MVI, NEPH006 = Normal, NEPH011 = Normal, NEPH012 = Normal, NEPH014 = Normal,

NEPH015 = MVI. Publicly available datasets corresponding to PBMCs from kidney transplant

recipients showing MVI or not at the time of blood sample (Supplementary Table 2) were gathered

from E-MTAB-11450 [32]. Analysis was performed as previously described [30, 32], notably for

UMAP, grey scale dot plots and proportions. Viridis colored clustered dot plots were generated using

the DotPlot_Heatmap function from the R package RightOmicsTools: Varin, A.: An R Package

Providing Complementary Tools for the Manipulation and Visualization of Single Cell RNA-Seq Data.

Preprint at https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.12518909 (2025).

<u>Human NK cell isolation by FACS</u>

For Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorting (FACS), 80 million PBMCs were stained with LIVE/DEAD

AQUA viability (Invitrogen) for 20 minutes at RT. After washing with staining buffer (PBS 3% FBS),

cells were surface stained with anti-CD56-FITC (B159, Becton Dickinson), anti-CD3-PE-Cy7 (SK7,

Becton Dickinson), anti-CD16-BV786 (3G8, Becton Dickinson) and anti-CD4-APC (RPA-T4, Becton

Dickinson) antibodies for 20 minutes at RT. Cells were then washed with staining buffer and

immediately sorted using the MELODY Cell Sorter. We sorted the live populations $CD4^-CD3^-CD56^{dim}$

($CD56^{dim}$ NK cells) and $CD4^-CD3^-CD56^{bright}$ ($CD56^{bright}$ NK cells). The purity of the cells was >90% in all

cases.

<u>In vitro inflammasome activation assays</u>

For in vitro pro-inflammatory stimulation, NK cells were treated with 1µg/ml LPS (Sigma-Aldrich, St.

Louis, MI, USA, L4391-1MG) for 4 hours and 5 mM ATP (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA,

USA, sc-214507A) for 30 mins. NK cells were also stimulated with 1 µM Val-boroPro (Sigma-Aldrich,

St. Louis, MI, USA, 5314650001) for 4 hours or 10 µM nigericin for 45 mins. As the number of isolated

NK cells varied between donors, we maintained the conditions of the cell culture, stimulating the

cells at a concentration of approximately 0,1M/ml, in 24-well plates for the $CD56^{dim}$ subpopulation

and 96-well plates for the $CD56^{bright}$ subpopulation. After the incubation, we collected culture

supernatants for LDH and cytokine measures, and cells for proteomics analyses by flow cytometry

or western blot. Controls consisting of cells previously treated with the dual NLRP1/NLRP3

inflammasome inhibitor ADS032 (100 µM, MedChemExpress) were included.

<u>Flow cytometry</u>

For studying the protein expression, before and after pro-inflammatory stimulation, NK cells were

stained with LIVE/DEAD AQUA viability (Invitrogen) for 20 minutes at room temperature (RT). After

washing once with staining buffer (1X PBS 3% FBS), cells were surface stained with anti-CD56-FITC

(B159, Becton Dickinson), and anti-CD3-PE-Cy7 (SK7, Becton Dickinson) antibodies for 20 mins at RT.

Next, we performed a washing step, and cells were fixed and permeabilized with

Fixation/Permeabilization Solution (Becton Dickinson) for 20 minutes at 4ºC and then washed with

BD Perm/Wash buffer. After, cells were stained with rabbit anti-NLRP1 (A16212 ABclonal) for 20

mins at RT, washed, and detected by staining with an anti-rabbit secondary AF750 (ab175735,

Abcam) antibody for an additional 20 mins at RT. Another washing step was performed and staining

with anti-NLRP3-AF700 (768319, R&D Systems) and anti-ASC-PE (HASC-71, Biolegend) was carried

out for 20 minutes at RT. Finally, cells were washed with BD Perm/Wash.

We also studied the expression of the inflammasome components in NK cells and monocytes from

kidney-injured patients, before and after being subjected to kidney transplantation. PBMCs from

these patients were stained with LIVE/DEAD AQUA viability (Invitrogen), and then, with anti-CD56-

FITC (B159, Becton Dickinson), anti-CD3-PE-Cy7 (SK7, Becton Dickinson), anti-CD4-BV605 (RPA-T4,

Becton Dickinson), anti-HLA-DR-PE-Da594 (L243, Biolegend), and anti-CD14-APC-H7 (M5E2, Becton

Dickinson) antibodies. Cells were subsequently fixed and permeabilized with

Fixation/Permeabilization Solution (Becton Dickinson) and intracellularly stained with anti-NLRP1-

AF647 (vwr), anti-NLRP3-AF700 (768319, R&D Systems) and anti-ASC-PE (HASC-71, Biolegend).

Samples were acquired on a CELESTA flow cytometer, and data was analyzed using FlowJo V10

software. Gating was performed according to the different FMO controls.

<u>Western blot assays</u>

Western blotting was performed using standard methods. Total PMBCs or NK cell extracted proteins

were used for standard protein electrophoresis and Western blot assays. Gel electrophoresis was

performed using 4–20% Mini-PROTEAN® TGX Stain-Free™ Protein Gels, Biorad at 200V in Tris-

Glycine-SDS buffer for 40 mins. Protein transfer was made using a TurboTransfer (Biorad, Hercules,

CA, USA) at 25V for 7 mins. After transferring the proteins to 0.45 µM nitrocellulose membranes

(Biorad, Hercules, CA, USA), these were incubated for 1 hour in BSA 5% in PBS-Tween20 0.05% and

then overnight at 4ºC with primary antibodies at 1:1,000 dilution. Then washed twice with PBS-

Tween20 and incubated with the corresponding secondary antibody coupled to horseradish

peroxidase diluted 1:10,000 for 1h at RT. Protein loading was checked using stain-free gel activation

and tubulin protein amount. Stripping was not used.

The following primary antibodies were used: NLRP1 (ABclonal, A16212), NLRP3 (ABclonal, A5652),

Caspase-1 (Cell signaling, 3866S), Gasdermin D (Santacruz, sc-393581), Caspase-4 (F4T9L) (Cell

signaling, 42264T), GADPH (Cell signaling, 5174S). Anti-rabbit or anti-mouse IgG secondary antibody

from Calbiochem was used.

Analysis of cytokine and immune factor secretion

Concentrations of the cytokines and molecules GM-CSF, IFN-γ, IL-1β, IL-6, IL-10, TNF-α, IL-18, IFN-α,

and ICAM-1 were quantified in 50 μL of supernatant from stimulated NK cells using a bead-based

multiplex immunoassay (ProcartaPlex; Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's

recommendations. Measurements were performed using a Luminex Intelliflex instrument

(ThermoFisher Scientific) and analyzed using a standard curve for each cytokine.

LDH cytotoxicity assay

Cell death was measured by lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) release in the supernatant following the

manufacturer's instructions (abcam). In these experiments, cells were plated and stimulated in

RPMI 1640 without FBS to not interfere with the assay.

Fluorescent flow cytometry imaging for ASC specking analyses.

Isolated NK cells and monocytes stimulated with Nigericin (10 μM, 50 minutes) with and without

previous treatment with the NLRP1/NLRP3 dual inhibitor ADS032 (100 μM, 45 mins before adding

Nigericin) were stained in 100 μl of staining buffer (PBS 3% FBS) with CD14-PE-Cy7 (HCD14,

Biolegend), CD3-AF488 (SP34-2, BD), CD56-BV421 (NCAM16.2, BD). Cells were then washed and

fixed and permeabilized with Fixation/Permeabilization Solution (Becton Dickinson) for 20 minutes

at 4ºC. After a wash with BD Perm/Wash buffer, cells were intracellularly stained with ASC-PE (HASC-

71, Biolegend), and NLRP1-AF647 (vwr) or NLRP3-AF700 (768319, R&D Systems) antibodies. Cells

were acquired with an AMNIS ImageStreamX imaging flow cytometer (Merck), and data was

analyzed using IDEAS v6.1 software.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed with Prism software, version 6.0 (GraphPad). A P value <0.05

was considered significant. The statistical details for the different experiments can be found in each

figure legend.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 1

A

B

C

From isolated CD56dim NK cells

From isolated CD56bright NK cells

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 6

A

B

Supplementary Figure 7

A

B