

慢加急性肝衰竭治疗新突破: 从传统疗法到新兴靶向治疗

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摘要: 慢加急性肝功能衰竭(acute-on-chronic liver failure, ACLF)是在慢性肝病基础上由急性损伤因素诱发的肝功能急剧恶化临床综合征,其核心特征为短期高死亡率和多器官功能衰竭,给社会和家庭带来沉重负担。目前ACLF缺乏特异性治疗手段,传统治疗以内科支持治疗、非生物型人工肝以及肝移植为主,存在疗效有限、供体短缺等多种局限。随着对ACLF病理生理机制研究的深入,系统性炎症、免疫功能障碍及多器官损伤等分子机制逐渐明确,为新兴靶向治疗提供了科学依据。本文系统性阐述了ACLF的定义标准、病理生理机制以及传统治疗(内科支持治疗、非生物型人工肝、肝移植)的方法和局限性。文章重点探讨了干细胞治疗、高级人工支持系统、免疫调节、基因治疗、肠道微生态干预及中药治疗等新兴疗法的作用机制、治疗潜力及研究进展。ACLF的治疗方案正在从传统对症支持治疗向精准靶向治疗转变,随着多组学研究的不断深入,个体化精准治疗将有望成为提高ACLF临床治愈率的关键方向。

关键词: 慢加急性肝衰竭;炎症通路;免疫调节;肠道微生态;精准治疗

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Therapeutic breakthroughs in acute-on-chronic liver failure: From conventional approaches to emerging targeted therapies

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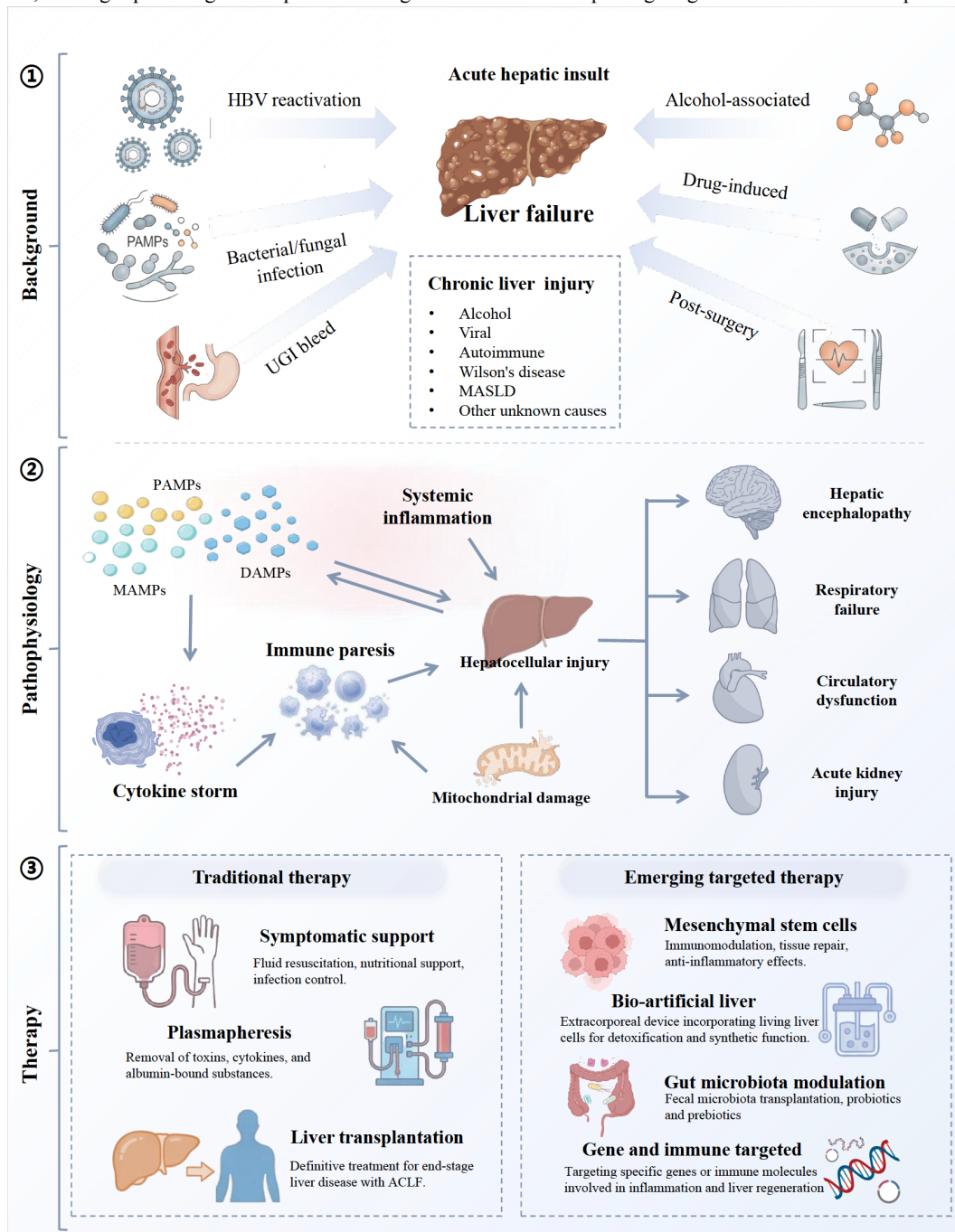
Abstract: Acute-on-chronic liver failure (ACLF) is a life-threatening syndrome characterized by acute decompensation of chronic liver disease, multisystem organ failure, and high short-term mortality. Current standard-of-care, including comprehensive medical management and non-biological artificial liver support, primarily focuses on symptomatic relief and bridging to transplantation. However, these traditional approaches are limited by donor shortages, high costs, and an inability to reverse the core pathological deterioration. This review aims to systematically analyze the pathophysiological mechanisms of ACLF and provide an in-depth evaluation of emerging targeted therapies that signal a paradigm shift from passive support to active functional regeneration. The article first delineates the evolving definitions and diagnostic criteria of ACLF, identifying systemic inflammation, immune paresis, and mitochondrial dysfunction as the central drivers of disease progression. Against this background, the review categorizes and critically assesses a wide array of novel therapeutic strategies. Key interventions discussed include: (1) stem cell therapies: the efficacy of mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) and gene-modified MSCs in modulating immunity and promoting tissue repair; (2) advanced support systems: the evolution from mechanical filtration to bioartificial livers (BAL) and 3D-printed hepatic organoids; (3) immunomodulation and molecular targeting: novel biologic agents and targets such as recombinant alkaline phosphatase (RecAP), gasdermin D (GSDMD)-mediated pyroptosis inhibitors, mitochondrial fusion protein 2 (Mfn2), and thrombospondin-1 (THBS1); and (4) microbiome interventions: the role of fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) in restoring the gut-liver axis. Additionally, the potential of traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) and network pharmacology is explored. While emerging therapies demonstrate significant potential to inhibit the "cytokine storm", restore metabolic homeostasis, and facilitate liver regeneration, challenges regarding safety protocols, standardization, and clinical translation remain. The authors propose that the future of ACLF treatment lies in precision medicine, facilitated by single-cell multi-omics analysis and artificial intelligence, to stratify patients for individualized

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regimens. Ultimately, the therapeutic landscape is transitioning from "organ replacement" to "functional regeneration" and "immune restoration", offering a promising roadmap for achieving clinical cures and improving long-term survival in ACLF patients.



Key words: acute-on-chronic liver failure; inflammatory pathway; immune regulation; gut microecology; precision therapy

慢加急性肝功能衰竭 (acute-on-chronic liver failure, ACLF) 是慢性肝病 (chronic liver disease, CLD) 患者因急性损伤出现短期高死亡率的临床综合征。这类患者有慢性肝病基础, 短时间内出现急性或亚急性肝功能失代偿, 伴有短期高死亡率, 可能同时出现肝外器官衰竭, 严重影响其健康^[1]。在我国, ACLF 主要病因有乙型肝炎病毒感染、酒精性肝

病等, 患者大多是中青年, 给个人生活和家庭带来沉重打击, 也给社会带来巨大的经济负担^[2]。

当前对 ACLF 尚无特异性治疗方法, 现有治疗手段都存在不足之处, 难以满足临床治疗需求。传统治疗方法的主要原则是找出病因的同时提供支持性治疗, 有条件的进行肝移植治疗^[3]。对症支持治疗虽然能在一定程度上维持患者生命体征, 但不能从

根本上改变肝功能恶化的趋势,治疗效果不稳定且不持久,ACLF病情复杂且进展迅速,患者仍面临较高死亡风险^[4,5]。肝移植有希望治愈ACLF,却面临供体严重不足的问题,仅有极少数患者能够获得手术机会^[6],此外,高昂的治疗费用、术后复杂的排斥反应和长期的免疫抑制治疗,也限制了肝移植的广泛使用。

随着对ACLF致病机制研究的不断深入,ACLF治疗有了新突破。一些研究发现系统性炎症和免疫功能障碍在ACLF进展中起关键作用,这为制定免疫治疗策略提供了科学依据^[7]。本文旨在对ACLF的传统疗法和新兴靶向治疗进行全面概述,分析ACLF治疗原理、疗效及局限性,探讨ACLF治疗的新发展方向,为临床治疗提供新的策略,提高患者的生存率和生活质量。

1 定义与标准

ACLF在全球均有发病,但其发病率和患病率地区差异明显。在欧美地区,慢性肝病主要是酒精性肝硬化和丙型肝炎病毒感染,ACLF的发病率稳定,病死率较高。在亚太地区,特别是在中国,乙型肝炎病毒感染是ACLF的主要病因^[8]。我国慢性肝病人口基数大,慢性乙肝患者多,住院肝硬化人群中ACLF的发病率为24%~40%^[9]。近年来,随着生活方式的改变和药物性肝损伤等因素的增加,ACLF的发病率呈上升趋势,严重威胁公众健康,对其防治已刻不容缓。

自1995年日本学者^[10]首次提出慢加急性肝衰竭这一概念以来,其定义和诊断标准不断演变。近三十年来,ACLF的定义和诊断标准在全球相继被不同地区、多个学会/组织提出,除中华医学会外^[11],国际上有亚太肝病研究学会^[12](Asia-Pacific Association for the Study of the Liver, APASL)、欧洲肝病研究协会慢性肝衰竭联盟^[13,14](European Association for the Study of the Liver-Chronic Liver Failure Consortium, EASL-CLIF)、北美终末期肝病研究联盟^[15](North American Consortium for the Study of End-Stage Liver Disease, NACSELD)、世界胃肠病学组织^[16]、美国胃肠病学会^[17](American College of Gastroenterology, ACG)及美国肝病学会^[18](American Association for the Study of Liver Diseases, AASLD)相继提出了不同的ACLF定义,并

进行了相应的更新(表1)。

在2025年更新的亚太肝病研究学会(APASL)共识中,ACLF被定义为慢性肝病或肝硬化患者发生的急性肝功能衰竭,核心标志物为总胆红素(TBil) >5 mg/dL且国际标准化比值(INR) ≥ 1.5 ,28天内出现腹水和(或)肝性脑病,可合并肾功能障碍(血清肌酐 >1.5 mg/dL),并新增A型(非肝硬化/代偿期肝硬化基础)和B型(失代偿期肝硬化基础)分型(图1),强调疾病的可逆性与高病死率特征。欧洲肝病学会-慢性肝衰竭联盟(EASL-CLIF)明确ACLF是肝硬化(伴或不伴失代偿)基础上的急性加重,区别于单纯急性失代偿性肝硬化,核心表现为肝脏、肾脏、脑、凝血、呼吸或循环等多器官或系统衰竭,28天病死率 $\geq 15\%$,其器官衰竭定义采用精细化量化标准(如肝脏衰竭TBil ≥ 12 mg/dL、凝血功能衰竭INR ≥ 2.5 等)。北美终末期肝病联盟(NACSELD)定义聚焦合并感染的肝硬化患者,要求出现至少2种肝外器官衰竭(包括休克、3~4级肝性脑病、需透析治疗或机械通气),以30天高病死率为主要预后特点,强调感染作为诱因和肝外器官受累的核心。

综合目前众多ACLF定义,结合我国临床实践需求,我国《慢加急性肝衰竭诊治指南(2025年版)》^[19]根据ACLF起病时临床表现,将ACLF分为2种类型^[20]。ACLF I型:慢性肝病(主要为慢性肝炎或代偿期肝硬化)基础上的急性严重肝损伤,出现总胆红素升高(TBil ≥ 12 mg/dL或每日升高 ≥ 1 mg/dL)、凝血功能障碍(INR ≥ 1.5 或PTA $\leq 40\%$),初诊可无肝外衰竭,但在病情进展中可出现感染、肝性脑病、腹水、消化道出血、急性肾损伤等并发症或肝外器官衰竭。ACLF II型:大多数在肝硬化基础上出现急性肝功能失代偿,胆红素明显升高和凝血功能障碍(INR ≥ 1.5 或PTA $\leq 40\%$);短期内(多数在1周内)出现肾功能障碍($132.6 \mu\text{mol/L} < \text{肌酐} < 176.8 \mu\text{mol/L}$)或肝外器官功能衰竭(包括肾脏、脑、呼吸和循环系统),器官衰竭诊断参考EASL-CLIF标准(表1)。

2 病理生理机制

ACLF是临床和病理生理学特征独特的综合征^[3,21,22],其发病机制复杂,核心是细菌、真菌感染和急性肝损伤(如药物、酒精、病毒性肝炎)引起的全身系统性炎症反应^[14,23],该炎症状态涉及病原相关分子模式(pathogen-associated molecular patterns,

表1 慢加急性肝功能衰竭的国际定义与诊断标准对比
Table 1 Comparison of international definitions and diagnostic criteria for acute-on-chronic liver failure

学术组织	慢性肝病基础	起病时器官衰竭类型	肝脏衰竭核心标志物	器官衰竭具体定义	预后特点	发布/更新年份
亚太肝病学会 (APASL)	慢性肝炎、代偿期肝硬化、失代偿期肝硬化(2025年新增B型, 含失代偿期肝硬化)	肝脏器官衰竭, 可伴肾功能障碍	TBil > 5 mg/dL, INR ≥ 1.5	肝衰竭: TBil > 5 mg/dL且INR ≥ 1.5; 肾功能障碍: 血清肌酐 > 1.5 mg/dL (1 mg/dL = 88.4 μmol/L); 需伴腹水和(或)肝性脑病(28天内出现)	28天高病死率, 强凋疾病潜在可逆性	2025(更新)
欧洲肝病学会-慢性肝衰竭联盟 (EASL-CLIF)	代偿期肝硬化、失代偿期肝硬化	肝脏器官衰竭和(或)肝外器官衰竭(含凝血、肾脏、脑、呼吸、循环系统)	TBil ≥ 12 mg/dL	肝脏: TBil ≥ 12 mg/dL; 凝血: INR ≥ 2.5; 肾脏: 肌酐 ≥ 2 mg/dL或需连续性肾脏替代治疗; 脑: 3~4级肝性脑病; 循环: 需使用血管活性药物; 呼吸: PaO ₂ /FiO ₂ ≤ 200或SpO ₂ /FiO ₂ ≤ 214	28天病死率 ≥ 15%, 区别于急性失代偿性肝硬化	2023
北美终末期肝病联盟(NACSELD)	代偿期肝硬化、失代偿期肝硬化(需合并感染)	至少2种肝外器官衰竭(肾脏、脑、呼吸、循环系统)	无明确肝脏衰竭单独标志物, 聚焦肝外器官	肾脏: 需透析或连续性肾脏替代治疗; 脑: 3~4级肝性脑病; 循环: 低血压休克; 呼吸: 需机械通气	30天高病死率, 强凋感染诱因	2014
美国胃肠病学会 (ACG)	非肝硬化、代偿期肝硬化、失代偿期肝硬化	肝脏器官衰竭和(或)肝外器官衰竭(肾脏、脑、呼吸、循环系统)	TBil升高, INR延长	肝衰竭: TBil升高+INR延长; 肝外器官衰竭参考EASL-CLIF序贯器官衰竭评估评分或NACSELD器官衰竭评分	90天高病死率, 部分患者可逆	2023
美国肝病学会 (AASLD)	非肝硬化、代偿期肝硬化、失代偿期肝硬化	肝脏器官衰竭+至少1种肝外器官衰竭(脑、循环、呼吸、肾脏)	TBil升高, INR延长	肝衰竭: TBil升高+INR延长(无具体数值阈值); 肝外器官衰竭, 含脑、循环、呼吸、肾脏功能障碍	未明确具体病死率, 强凋急性发作与病情快速恶化	2024

注: TBil为总胆红素, INR为国际标准化比值; 各组织定义中“高病死率”未统一具体数值, 均以同期普通慢性肝病患者病死率为参照, ACLF患者病死率显著更高。
Note: TBil: total bilirubin; INR: international normalized ratio. Although there is no unified specific threshold for “high mortality” across different definitions, it is generally referenced against the mortality rate of patients with ordinary chronic liver disease, with ACLF patients exhibiting significantly higher mortality.

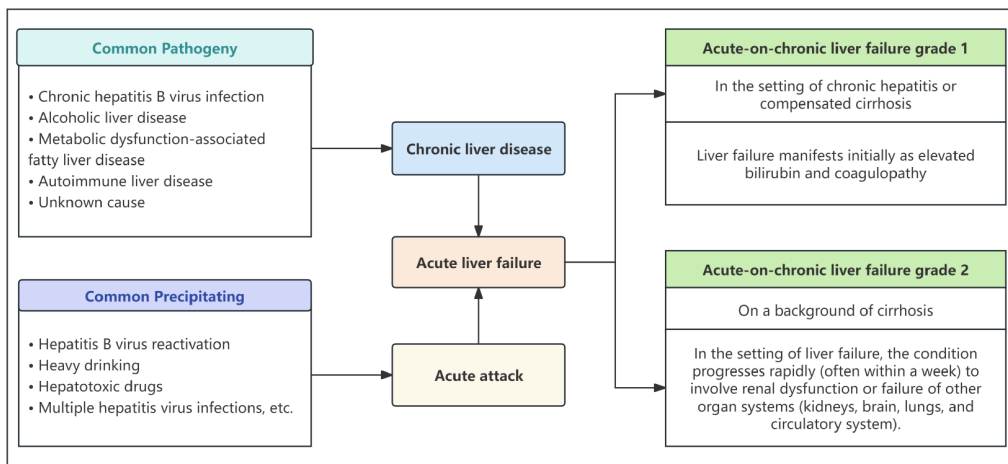


图1 国内ACLF临床表现分型示意图

Figure 1 Schematic diagram of clinical manifestations classification of acute-on-chronic liver failure in China

PAMPs)、损伤相关分子模式 (damage-associated molecular patterns, DAMPs) 和微生物相关分子模式 (microbe-associated molecular patterns, MAMPs), 会造成免疫代谢紊乱、线粒体功能障碍和免疫功能失调^[24]。肝脏炎症介质的释放、肝纤维化加重、细胞凋亡增加和肝细胞再生受阻^[25]是疾病进展的关键, 伴有肾、脑及其他器官的损伤, 形成多器官功能衰竭 (图2)。

2.1 系统性炎症是核心驱动因素

既往研究发现, 系统性炎症是ACLF发生和发展的核心环节, 主要由PAMPs (如来自细菌感染的脂

多糖) 和DAMPs (如来自坏死的肝细胞) 所触发^[26]。这些分子通过激活免疫细胞 (如巨噬细胞) 和炎症小体 (如NLRP3炎症小体), 导致大量促炎细胞因子 (如IL-6、TNF- α) 和脂质介质 (如白三烯、前列腺素) 释放, 引发“细胞因子风暴”^[27,28]。这种失控的炎症状态不仅直接损伤肝脏, 更是导致肝外器官衰竭的关键机制^[27,29]。

2.2 免疫功能障碍

ACLF的免疫状态有两方面特点, 炎症和“免疫麻痹”一起存在。存在过度炎症反应的同时伴随明显的免疫功能缺陷即免疫麻痹, 具体表现为外周血

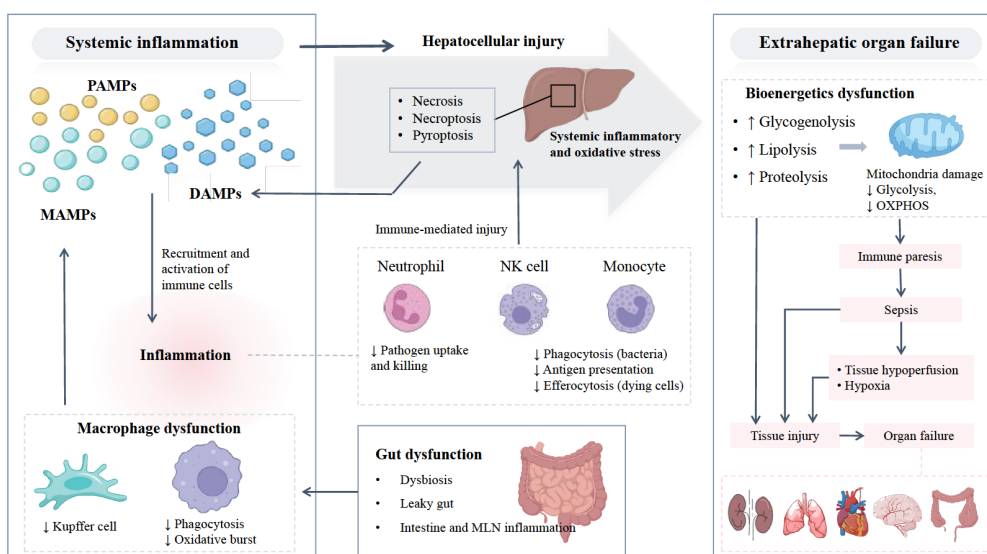


图2 慢加急性肝功能衰竭的病理生理机制

Figure 2 Pathophysiological mechanism of acute-on-chronic liver failure

淋巴细胞减少,免疫细胞功能下降^[22,30]。这种免疫功能失调让患者容易发生感染,而感染又是ACLF最常见、最重要的诱发因素之一,形成恶性循环^[22,31],在酒精性肝炎相关的ACLF中这种免疫反应不平衡更显著^[31]。

2.3 器官衰竭的多元机制

系统性炎症通过多种途径使多器官功能衰竭^[27]。第一,血流动力学紊乱:炎症介质诱导一氧化氮过度产生,致使全身血管舒张,内源性血管收缩系统被激活,肾脏等器官出现血管收缩和灌注不足,引起急性肾损伤(acute kidney injury, AKI)^[32]。第二,免疫介导的组织损伤:活化的中性粒细胞等免疫细胞在细胞因子作用下黏附在微血管内皮上,迁移到组织(如肝、肾、肺),直接造成组织损伤^[33]。第三,微循环障碍:炎症促进微血栓形成,降低组织氧合能力^[27]。第四,代谢竞争与线粒体功能障碍:剧烈的炎症反应消耗能量,可能让大脑为优先保障免疫能量供应,“关闭”其他器官(如肝、肾)的线粒体呼吸和氧化磷酸化,使得器官功能快速下降。第五,胆汁淤积性肾损伤:严重高胆红素血症会导致胆汁管型肾病,直接损害肾小管,是ACLF中AKI的独特机制之一^[34]。

3 传统治疗方法

ACLF传统治疗的核心原则是早诊断、早干预、多协同,主要包括内科综合治疗、非生物型人工肝支持治疗以及肝移植三大核心手段^[35]。传统治疗的目标是控制病因、维护器官功能、防治并发症、改善患者预后^[36]。即便采取传统治疗方法,仍有超过30%的患者在确诊后30天内进展为多器官功能衰竭并死亡。

3.1 内科综合治疗

内科综合治疗是ACLF治疗的基础,需要贯穿疾病的全过程,根据病因、病情阶段和患者个体差异实施精准化管理。

3.1.1 一般支持治疗

绝对卧床休息,减轻肝脏代谢负担,监测液体出入量、尿量及体质量变化,及时纠正低蛋白血症及水、电解质和酸碱平衡紊乱,强化消毒隔离措施与管路护理预防感染,患者常有焦虑、抑郁等心理障碍等,须及时进行必要的心理干预。

3.1.2 营养支持治疗

组建多学科营养支持团队^[37,38],用代谢车等工具

评估患者营养状态和代谢需求,每天目标能量摄入按静息能量消耗1.2~1.3倍算,或者按30~35 kcal/kg^[39,40]算。营养补充途径优先经口进食,推荐采用“日间分餐+夜间加餐”模式^[41,42];必要时联合口服营养补充剂、管饲或肠外营养支持。对于合并肝性脑病的患者,要根据病情分级情况来调整蛋白质摄入量。

3.1.3 对症治疗

可选用异甘草酸镁、多烯磷脂酰胆碱等抗炎保肝药物治疗,同时避免重复使用同类机制药物^[43,44];使用益生菌、益生元等微生态肠道调节剂,降低继发感染的风险。对于免疫炎症反应明显的ACLF I型前期和早期患者^[45],排除禁忌证后可以考虑短期小剂量应用糖皮质激素;当合并感染时,可以考虑用胸腺肽 $\alpha 1$ 辅助治疗^[46]。

3.1.4 病因与并发症治疗

治疗乙型肝炎病毒(hepatitis B virus, HBV)感染、酒精性肝病等基础肝病的病因,同时积极去除嗜肝病毒重叠感染、酒精、药物性肝损伤等急性诱发因素。感染、腹水、肝性脑病、急性肾功能损伤等常见并发症,要依照相关临床指南进行规范化防治,必要时用多学科协作诊疗(multidisciplinary team, MDT)模式。

3.2 非生物型人工肝支持治疗

非生物型人工肝是ACLF的重要支持治疗方法,可以暂时替代肝脏进行部分解毒和合成功能,为肝细胞再生或者肝移植争取宝贵时间,已被证明是有效的治疗措施^[47]。非生物型人工肝支持治疗主要适用于ACLF前驱期、早期、中期患者,以及肝移植术前等待供肝、术后发生排异反应或者移植肝无功能的患者。严重活动性出血、对血制品或治疗药物严重过敏、血流动力学不稳定、心脑血管非稳定期患者是相对禁忌人群^[48]。

ACLF前驱期、早期及中期患者,需要尽早启动人工肝治疗;ACLF晚期患者要充分评估治疗风险,在制定完善的应急预案后,依据患者临床特征选择治疗模式:如以胆红素显著升高为主,可选择不同机制的血液净化技术组合;如凝血功能严重障碍,选用含外源性血浆的治疗模式(如血浆置换、血浆透析);如合并肝性脑病,优先考虑含双重血浆分子吸附系统(double plasma molecular adsorption system, DPMAS)的方案^[47]。临床上常用组合模式包括DPMAS联合血浆置换、血浆置换联合血液透析滤过

等,旨在通过优势互补以增效减毒^[49]。

3.3 肝移植治疗

肝移植是目前唯一能够根治ACLF的手段,主要适用于内科综合治疗及人工肝支持治疗效果不佳、病情持续恶化的患者^[50]。

ACLF患者不论是否有禁忌证,都应该尽早进行肝移植可行性评估。临床上常采用MELD评分、CLIF-C ACLF评分动态评估患者治疗后反应,优先选择器官衰竭数目 ≤ 3 个或CLIF-C ACLF评分 < 64 分的患者^[51]。ACLF I型患者主要用终末期肝病模型(model for end-stage liver disease, MELD)评分进行筛选,伴有肝外器官衰竭的ACLF II型患者建议联合CLIF-C ACLF评分综合评估^[51-53]。合并急性呼吸窘迫综合征(acute respiratory distress syndrome, ARDS)或不可血运重建的严重冠心病患者,进行肝移植时需要格外谨慎。随着围手术期管理及移植技术的飞速发展,部分传统绝对禁忌证已慢慢变成相对禁忌,临床MDT精准筛选合适受者,优化稀缺医疗资源配置与利用。

4 ACLF的新兴疗法

随着对ACLF病理生理机制研究的不断深入,系统性炎症、免疫失衡、代谢紊乱等关键环节的认知更加清晰,出现了一系列新兴治疗方法,如干细胞疗法、体外肝脏支持系统、免疫调节治疗等^[54-56]。这些新兴疗法突破了传统以支持和替代治疗为主的局限性,通过精准靶向疾病进展中的关键分子、信号通路或细胞功能,在抑制炎症反应、改善肝细胞代谢、促进肝组织再生等方面展现出巨大潜力,为ACLF患者改善预后提供了新的希望,但也面临着疗效和安全的双重挑战。

4.1 干细胞(包括间充质干细胞)疗法

间充质干细胞(mesenchymal stem cells, MSCs)是指有多向分化潜能的成体干细胞,因为其具备免疫调节、抗纤维化和修复组织能力,成为终末期肝病,特别是ACLF治疗的研究热点^[57]。早期研究显示,骨髓来源MSCs对肝硬化具有治疗潜力^[58];后续临床研究进一步发现,脐带来源MSCs可显著改善ACLF患者肝功能^[59]。2017年, Lin等^[60]报道,在HBV相关ACLF患者中,经外周静脉输注骨髓MSCs($1 \times 10^5 \sim 1 \times 10^6/\text{kg}$)后可明显改善MELD评分,提高生存率,降低长期死亡风险。2020年一项随机对照试

验发现,外周血干细胞移植联合血浆置换能显著提升HBV相关ACLF患者90天生存率(85% vs. 50%)^[54]。综上, MSCs通过分化为肝样细胞、调节免疫应答、旁分泌效应等多重机制,在ACLF中展现出一定的治疗前景^[55]。2024年,王福生院士团队通过长期随访研究(75个月, $n=219$)发现,利用UC-MSCs治疗HBV相关的肝硬化失代偿,可明显提高总生存率($\text{HR}=0.68, P=0.02$),并持续改善白蛋白、凝血酶原活性等肝功能指标。但是,干细胞治疗的长期安全性与治疗效果仍需更多高质量、大样本的临床研究进一步证实^[56,61]。

4.2 高级人工支持系统

4.2.1 生物型人工肝

生物型人工肝(bioartificial liver, BAL)是在非生物型人工肝基础上整合具有活性的肝细胞,模拟肝脏的合成、代谢、解毒等复杂功能,是肝移植前过渡支持治疗的研究热点^[62-64]。生物型人工肝的核心是装载在生物反应器中的肝细胞,这些细胞可以是人源性的(如HepG2细胞系、诱导多能干细胞分化的肝样细胞),也可以是猪源性的^[65,66]。这种“功能性替代”被认为是其相较于纯机械式非生物型系统的关键潜在优势。尽管生物型人工肝在改善生化指标(如胆红素)和肝性脑病方面显示出潜力^[67],但目前尚无明确证据表明其能显著改善ACLF患者的总生存率。未来若能聚焦优化细胞平台^[65]、多重治疗机制、明确患者选择标准^[68]等方面,则有望克服现有技术瓶颈。

4.2.2 生物3D打印肝类器官

近年来,基于生物3D打印技术构建肝类器官为肝脏组织工程提供了新策略。清华大学庞媛、孙伟团队联合北京大学邓宏魁团队,采用细胞团簇打印(spheroid-based bioprinting)方法,用人化学诱导多能干细胞(human chemically induced pluripotent stem cells, hCiPSCs)来源的肝细胞类器官(hCiPSCs-hepatocyte organoids, hCiPSC-HOs),成功构建出高细胞密度、有血管化潜能的3D打印肝类器官(3D-printed hepatic organoids, 3DP-HOs)。该模型不仅表现出良好的细胞活性和功能,转录组分析及小鼠肝衰竭模型验证均显示其有显著的治疗效果。这项研究融合了干细胞技术、类器官培养技术和生物3D打印技术,创建了功能性可移植肝组织的新型构建范式,为肝脏再生医学和疾病模型构建提供了新的方向^[69]。

4.3 免疫调节

4.3.1 体外免疫调节装置

选择性细胞吸附装置(selective cytopheretic inhibitory device, SCD)是首个应用在ACLF患者身上的体外细胞定向免疫调节设备,通过降低循环白细胞活化水平和促炎细胞因子浓度,改善患者多器官衰竭。2024年,两例病例报告显示,SCD治疗后患者肾功能恢复,其中1例成功接受肝移植,另1例存活至90天等待移植评估^[70]。这一技术为高炎症状态的ACLF患者提供了直接干预手段,但SCD的长期疗效还需要更多样本进行验证。

4.3.2 肿瘤坏死因子

肿瘤坏死因子 α (tumor necrosis factor- α , TNF- α)是连接免疫紊乱与肝细胞死亡的关键因子。2002年,科学家首次揭示LPS诱导TNF- α /PLK介导的肝星状细胞中潜在转化生长因子 β (transforming growth factor- β , TGF- β)的水解激活,导致部分肝切除术后肝脏再生受损^[71],阻断TNF- α 、PLK或者活性TGF- β 可能可以逆转LPS对肝再生的抑制作用。2013年,Spencer等^[72]的研究颠覆了传统对TNF- α 产生过程的认知,阐明NOX-c-Src-NF- κ B信号通路是调控TNF- α 产生的关键上游机制,提示NOX1抑制剂、c-Src抑制剂、NF- κ B抑制剂、活性氧(reactive oxygen species, ROS)清除剂(如NAC)有望成为治疗ACLF的潜在靶点。2023年一项临床研究发现, TNF- α 与HBV-ACLF患者预后具有明显的相关性^[73]。2024年,ACLF大鼠动物模型研究发现, TNF- α 是触发肝细胞泛凋亡(PANoptosis)的重要上游信号^[74]。因此,靶向TNF- α 相关信号通路的干预,可能为ACLF治疗提供新的思路。

4.3.3 重组碱性磷酸酶

重组碱性磷酸酶(recombinant alkaline phosphatase, RecAP)是一种具有内毒素解毒和免疫调节双重功能的生物制剂,在重症炎症性疾病治疗中受到广泛关注。RecAP的核心机制是通过去磷酸化修饰有效灭活多种PAMPs,特别是LPS和游离核苷酸,使其激活免疫的能力下降^[75]。内源性肠道碱性磷酸酶(intestinal alkaline phosphatase, IAP)在正常生理状态下可水解LPS,维持免疫稳态;RecAP作为重组替代制剂,在脓毒血症、急性肾损伤等疾病模型中表现出明显的抗炎、器官保护作用,但目前处于临床开发阶段^[76]。

在ACLF中,LPS激活TLR4/NF- κ B通路,使TNF- α 、IL-6高表达,引发失控性的全身炎症反应综合征(SIRS)和多器官功能障碍。2017年,动物模型研究发现,RecAP可通过中和LPS毒性抑制TLR4,减少NF- κ B驱动的炎症反应,缓解RIPK3依赖性坏死性凋亡,从而减轻肝细胞损伤,提高生存率^[77,78]。尽管目前尚无针对ACLF的临床试验数据,但前期研究发现,RecAP靶向LPS-TLR4轴具有明确的抗炎与组织保护作用,若未来与再生疗法(如粒细胞集落刺激因子)联用,可能发挥协同治疗优势,有望成为干预ACLF进展的新型策略^[79]。

4.3.4 白细胞介素22

白细胞介素22(IL-22)是IL-10细胞因子家族的一员,在多种类型的白细胞中产生^[80]。IL-22通过与其在上皮细胞(肝细胞)和其他类型的肝细胞(如肝星状细胞和肝祖细胞)中表达的受体复合物相互作用,在肝脏中发挥多种作用(如组织保护、抗氧化、抗菌和代谢调节)^[81]。多项临床前和临床研究报告,IL-22可能是治疗几种疾病的潜在选择^[82-84]。2019年,Schwarzkopf等^[85]报道,与健康对照相比,ACLF患者血清IL-22水平升高。2020年,Xiang等^[86]开发了一种ACLF动物模型,该模型重现了ACLF的一些典型特征,如肝损伤、细菌感染、多器官损伤和高死亡率。在该模型中,研究者评估了IL-22Fc的治疗效果(IL-22Fc是一种由两个分子的人源IL-22与免疫球蛋白Fc段融合而成的重组蛋白),结果显示小鼠存活率显著提高,血清ALT水平降低,且细菌负荷量得到改善。此外,IL-22Fc治疗通过重构再生信号通路(即激活促进再生的STAT3通路,并抑制阻碍再生的STAT1通路),增强肝脏的再生能力^[87]。目前,F-652(重组人IL-22融合蛋白)已完成II期临床试验,在酒精性肝炎患者中表现出良好的安全性,并显著降低了MELD评分和促炎因子水平,进入临床开发阶段^[82]。IL-22有望成为ACLF的潜在治疗靶点,但仍需进一步临床研究验证^[88]。

4.3.5 粒细胞集落刺激因子

粒细胞集落刺激因子(granulocyte colony-stimulating factor, G-CSF)是否能用于治疗ACLF,目前存在较大争议。2013年,Duan等^[89]首次证明了G-CSF治疗HBV-ACLF能明显改善肝功能、降低感染风险,但后续研究对G-CSF的疗效仍存在争议。

2021年,一项多中心、随机对照II期试验表明G-CSF没有改善ACLF患者的生存率或其他临床终点^[90]。2024年,一项关于酒精诱导ACLF小鼠模型的动物实验首次揭示G-CSF在酒精性ACLF中发挥明显的负面作用,使用G-CSF处理后的酒精性ACLF小鼠出现肝损伤、全身炎症加重等反应^[91]。G-CSF可能对特定的ACLF人群具有治疗作用,其作用机制还有待进一步研究。

4.4 基因治疗

目前,ACLF的基因疗法整体处于临床前研究向早期临床试验过渡的阶段,呈现出动物实验成熟、早期临床尝试的特点,受限于载体递送的安全性(如避免病毒载体引起的免疫反应)暂未开展大规模的III期临床验证。

4.4.1 基因修饰的干细胞疗法

基因修饰的干细胞疗法(gene-modified MSCs)是一个“强强联合”的策略。利用MSCs本身的免疫调节能力,通过基因工程手段使其过表达特定的治疗蛋白。目前最为常见的基因修饰策略为MSC-HGF、MSC-IL-10、MSC-Bcl-2。2024年,Chen等^[92]通过Nrf2/DKK1共刺激机制修饰MSCs增强HGF/IL-10分泌,使ACLF小鼠生存率提升40%。

4.4.2 Gasdermin D

Gasdermin D(GSDMD)是细胞焦亡(pyroptosis)的关键执行蛋白。2015年,Kayagaki等^[93]揭示了其在炎症性细胞死亡中的核心地位。GSDMD在上游炎症性Caspase(如Caspase-1、4、5、11)的切割作用下,释放GSDMD-N,在细胞膜上寡聚化形成非选择性孔道,促进细胞渗透性裂解,同时伴随IL-1 β 、IL-18表达上调,驱动炎症反应^[94]。在HBV相关的ACLF中,NK细胞诱导GSDMD依赖焦亡,促进NETs形成,加剧炎症^[95]。

2015年,研究者发现在急性肝功能衰竭患者及D-galN/LPS模型小鼠肝组织中,GSDMD-N表达明显上调^[94]。2020年,有研究发现GSDMD基因敲除可减轻肝细胞死亡与炎症浸润,降低转氨酶水平^[96,97]。2022年,Yang等^[98]发现坏死磺酰胺(necrosulfonamide,NSA)可有效抑制GSDMD活化,缓解肝损伤。2024年,研究者们利用Caspase抑制剂、GSDMD拮抗剂在ACLF模型中进行治疗,取得良好疗效,提示其可能具备较高转化潜力^[70,99]。2025年,哈佛医学院研究发现,在酒精相关的ACLF

模型中,GSDMD缺失会抑制IL-6、MCP1等炎症因子表达,减少中性粒细胞浸润,抑制凋亡、焦亡和坏死性凋亡通路,同时下调纤维化标志物表达,减少胶原沉积^[100]。对于高炎症亚型的ACLF患者,靶向GSDMD或其上游通路有望成为新的治疗方法。

4.5 其他分子靶点

4.5.1 血栓反应蛋白1

血栓反应蛋白1(thrombospondin-1,THBS1)是一种多功能基质糖蛋白,与ACLF系统性炎症和肝功能损伤密切相关^[5]。2019年,研究者们通过动物模型发现,肝细胞特异性THBS1敲除可提高ACLF存活率,降低肝脏炎症(TNF- α 、IL-6、IL-1 β),促进抗炎因子(IL-10、TGF- β)表达,并抑制Caspase-3活化以及线粒体损伤,缓解肝细胞凋亡与组织损伤,揭示血浆THBS水平可能成为ACLF风险分层和个体化治疗的生物标志物^[101]。2025年,一项基于中国重症乙型肝炎研究组(Chinese Group on the Study of Severe Hepatitis B,COSSH)的多中心队列研究($n=330$)发现,ACLF患者外周血单核细胞中THBS1 mRNA表达上调,且与疾病严重程度正相关,提示THBS1可能成为ACLF短期死亡风险的预测指标^[102]。

4.5.2 线粒体融合蛋白2

线粒体融合蛋白2(mitofusin-2,Mfn2)是调控线粒体外膜融合的核心蛋白,在ACLF的病理生理过程中发挥关键作用^[103]。早在2015年,Max Planck Institute的Nils-Göran Larsson团队发现,Mfn2缺失导致线粒体呼吸链功能障碍、能量代谢紊乱^[104]。2017年,研究发现Mfn2通过抑制Drp1介导的过度分裂,减少线粒体碎片化,减轻氧化应激和肝细胞凋亡^[103]。而Mfn2过表达可激活ACLF模型中PI3K/Akt/mTOR通路,使LC3-II、ATG5和Bcl-2表达上调,降低p62与Bax水平,促进自噬流,抑制细胞死亡,显著改善肝功能与组织病理^[105]。2024年研究发现,Mfn2可以抑制NF- κ B信号,下调TNF- α 、IL-6等表达,缓解ACLF炎症^[106-108]。另外,Mfn2特异性激动剂B-A/L可恢复线粒体融合与运输功能^[109],这为ACLF的靶向干预治疗提供了新的方向。

4.5.3 3-硫酸-25-羟化胆固醇

3-硫酸-25-羟化胆固醇(25-hydroxycholesterol-3-sulfate,25HC3S)是一种内源性氧化固醇衍生物。研究发现25HC3S可能为肝脏X受体(LXRs)的内源

性配体,参与胆固醇逆向转运与脂代谢调控^[110]。在HBV相关ACLF患者中,25HC3S能通过抑制LXR α /SREBP-1c通路减少脂质合成,通过阻断PPAR γ /I κ B α 通路减轻NF- κ B驱动的炎症反应,抑制DNMT活性,诱导保护性基因启动子去甲基化,增强细胞存活信号^[14,111,112]。2021年,研究进一步证实,25HC3S可以使Bcl-2、LC3B、Beclin-1表达上调,使Bax、Caspase-3表达下调,维持线粒体膜电位,降低ROS与MDA水平^[113]。最新研究显示,25HC3S由25HC经SULT2B1b催化生成,定位于胞质与胞核,通过“肝细胞-巨噬细胞轴”介导系统性抗炎与代谢调节,抑制肝细胞中脂质合成基因^[114]。因此,25HC3S有望作为ACLF等代谢性肝病的新治疗靶点。

4.5.4 Bikunin

Bikunin,又称为尿胰蛋白酶抑制剂(urinary trypsin inhibitor, UTI),是由AMBIP基因(alpha-1-microglobulin/Bikunin precursor)编码的多功能血浆蛋白前体经蛋白水解后产生的活性片段之一,具有抗炎、抗氧化、抑制蛋白酶活性的作用^[115]。很早之前的研究就发现,Bikunin可抑制NF- κ B通路,促进TNF- α 、IL-6、IL-1 β 等表达,缓解炎症;抑制微血栓形成和肝内微循环障碍,改善ACLF相关的高凝状态^[116]。外源性补充Bikunin能降低血清ALT/AST水平,减少肝组织坏死和炎症浸润,从而起到保护肝脏的作用^[107]。2023年,Qin等^[117]发现在ACLF中,AMBIP基因表达及Bikunin水平明显下调。Bikunin的表达水平可能与ACLF的疾病严重程度相关,有望成为ACLF的潜在治疗靶点。

4.5.5 HMOX1

血红素加氧酶-1(heme oxygenase-1, HMOX1)是细胞氧化应激的关键限速酶。HMOX1基因敲除小鼠会表现出严重的肝损伤,出现广泛性坏死和炎症浸润;利用血红素预处理诱导HMOX1表达后,肝功能明显改善,肝细胞凋亡减少,小鼠生存率提高^[118]。2020年研究者收集151例HBV-ACLF患者的数据发现,HMOX1与患者90天生存率呈正相关^[119]。2023年进一步研究发现,HMOX1能激活Nrf2/HO-1通路,增强抗氧化能力,清除脂质过氧化物,抑制铁死亡;同时调节巨噬细胞,缓解“炎症风暴”,重塑肝脏免疫微环境^[120]。2025年,Zuo等^[121]发现HMOX1在HBV相关的ACLF中,是调节氧化应

激、炎症反应的关键节点,是极具潜力的治疗靶点与预后评估指标。

4.5.6 SLC7A11

溶质载体家族7成员11(solute carrier family 7 member 11, SLC7A11)是系统Xc⁻(System Xc⁻)胱氨酸/谷氨酸反向转运体的功能性核心亚基,能维持细胞氧化还原功能。2012年研究首次发现,SLC7A11能增强谷胱甘肽(glutathione, GSH)合成能力,降低ROS积累,防止肝细胞出现氧化性损伤,若SLC7A11功能受损,可能导致GSH耗竭、脂质过氧化物过度沉积,诱发铁死亡^[122]。2021年,研究者在LPS/D-GalN诱导的ACLF小鼠模型中发现,SLC7A11过表达可显著减轻肝损伤^[123]。一项151例HBV-ACLF的临床研究显示,患者SLC7A11表达水平与90天生存率呈明显的正相关,提示其可能具有较好的预后预测价值^[124]。2025年,南方医科大学团队发现SLC7A11在肠上皮细胞中高表达,能提升肠道GSH水平,减轻黏膜氧化损伤,维持屏障完整性,减少内毒素易位,从而缓解系统性炎症与肝损伤,提示SLC7A11可能在“肠-肝轴”中发挥重要作用,或能成为新的治疗靶点^[125]。

4.5.7 高迁移率族蛋白B1

高迁移率族蛋白B1(HMGB1)是细胞外的一种DAMP,能与TLR4和RAGE结合,激活NF- κ B通路,使TNF- α 、IL-6、IL-1 β 表达上调,触发细胞因子风暴^[126]。在HBV相关ACLF患者肝组织中HMGB1显著高表达,与细胞活力呈负相关,与肝损伤标志物CK18-M30呈正相关。另外,在败血症模型中,抑制HMGB1表达可明显缓解炎症,改善预后^[127,128]。2021年研究发现,HMGB1能通过激活Caspase-1/GSDMD信号轴诱导肝细胞焦亡,促进IL-1 β 和IL-18表达,形成“炎症-焦亡”正反馈循环^[129]。甘草酸(glycyrrhizin)能有效抑制HMGB1释放,减轻肝细胞损伤,促进肝细胞再生,改善肝功能^[130]。HMGB1在ACLF中具有致病性与标志物双重角色,有望成为ACLF的潜在治疗靶点和预后评估工具。

4.5.8 Caspase-3

Caspase-3是细胞凋亡的关键执行者,在ACLF患者肝组织中活性明显增高。2015年研究发现,ACLF患者血清中Caspase-3裂解产物CK18-M30水平与病情严重程度和预后有明显的相关性,可能成为ACLF进展的生物标志物和治疗新靶点^[131]。

2022年,首都医科大学团队通过ACLF小鼠模型揭示PINK1可通过调控mTORC2/AKT信号通路抑制Caspase-3活化,并改善MELD评分^[132]。2023年,中山大学彭亮教授团队进一步发现,Caspase-3能切割Gasdermin E(GSDME)诱导肝细胞焦亡。GSDME/Caspase-3通路激活程度与肝功能衰竭呈正相关,特异性阻断该通路可减少肝细胞程序性死亡,改善预后^[133]。针对Caspase-3上游调控或下游效应干预,有望成为ACLF新的治疗方法^[134]。

4.5.9 Toll样受体-4

Toll样受体-4(TLR-4)是先天免疫系统中的核心模式识别受体。在ACLF中,肠道来源的LPS与DAMP协同激活TLR-4触发NF- κ B与MAPK信号通路级联反应,促进TNF- α 、IL-6等表达,加速肝细胞死亡和炎症反应,进而加剧多器官功能障碍,形成恶性循环。在ACLF小鼠模型中,TLR-4拮抗剂TAK-242能降低肝肾功能损伤、缓解炎症,提高生存率。一项临床试验发现,ACLF患者肝组织中TLR-4与LPS水平同步增高^[135]。TAK-242还可以激活STAT3信号通路,促进肝细胞再生^[136]。因此,靶向TLR-4干预可能成为ACLF治疗的新方向。

4.6 肠道微生物生态制剂

随着“肠-肝轴”与疾病关系研究的不断深入,肠道微生态在ACLF发生发展中越来越受到重视,有益菌(如双歧杆菌、乳杆菌)数量减少或条件致病菌过度增殖都可能导致肠屏障完整性破坏和肠道菌群代谢紊乱,加重ACLF病情程度。

4.6.1 肠道菌群失调介导肝损伤的分子机制

研究发现,肠道屏障被破坏后,革兰氏阴性菌释放LPS会经门静脉系统进入肝脏,激活肝内库普弗细胞表面上的TLR4,进而激活NF- κ B信号通路,促进TNF- α 、IL-6等炎症因子表达^[137]。

4.6.2 粪便微生物群移植:重塑肠道生态的变革性疗法

粪便微生物群移植(fecal microbiota transplantation, FMT)通过移植健康供体的完整菌群结构,系统性重塑肠道微生态平衡。FMT引入的毛螺菌科、玫瑰菌属等功能性菌群,是SCFAs尤其是丁酸的主要合成来源^[138]。2022年,研究者在ACLF模型中发现,FMT衍生的SCFAs还能抑制免疫细胞异常活化,促进调节性T细胞(Treg)分化,重建免疫耐受,缓解全身炎症反应^[139]。动物实验发现,口服

FMT可显著提升肠道丁酸水平,丁酸能激活AMPK-P62-NRF2通路,从而抑制肝细胞铁死亡,减轻氧化应激和炎症损伤^[140]。

4.6.3 FMT的临床疗效证据与生存获益

尽管目前没有大样本、多中心的临床试验证明FMT治疗ACLF的有效性,但现有研究成果也能支持其成为ACLF的潜在治疗方案^[141]。2022年一项随机对照试验(NCT03827772)显示,酒精性肝炎相关的ACLF患者使用FMT治疗后28天生存率(100% vs. 60%, $P=0.01$)和90天生存率(53.84% vs. 25%, $P=0.02$)均明显提高,腹水(100% vs. 40%)与肝性脑病(100% vs. 57.14%)均得到明显缓解^[142]。2023年的研究进一步证实了FMT能精准靶向ACLF核心病理环节,有效缓解菌群失调、肠屏障损伤、内毒素血症等^[143]。FMT有望成为ACLF精准治疗的新方法。

4.7 中药治疗

4.7.1 中药复方的临床疗效与循证医学支持

凉血解毒颗粒、益气解毒颗粒等中药制剂治疗ACLF已被广泛应用。2020年,HBV-ACLF患者的一项多中心随机对照研究发现,在西医内科治疗基础上,增加中草药治疗(口服中药汤剂、中药保留灌肠)等能获得更好的治疗及安全性^[144]。2022年,Shi等^[145]通过Meta分析发现,凉血解毒疗法联合西医内科常规治疗可以提高对ACLF的疗效。

4.7.2 中药现代化研究的技术路径:网络药理学

2022年,研究人员采用网络药理学与体内外实验验证的技术路径,探究了温阳解毒化痰方(Wenyang Jiedu Huayu formula, WYJDHY)治疗ACLF的作用机制。他们先筛选出WYJDHY的核心物质基础,再挖掘与ACLF的共同靶点,然后通过GO功能富集分析和KEGG通路富集分析预测WYJDHY治疗ACLF的核心作用通路,最后再通过体外细胞实验和体内动物实验进行验证^[146]。这为中药制剂治疗ACLF的研究提供了新的技术方法。

4.7.3 中药精准治疗ACLF的应用前景

2025年,天津中医药大学团队研究发现黄芩素可通过调控PPAR α -KLF11-YAP1抑制糖酵解、减轻炎症,并通过动物实验证实了可缓解ACLF的炎症损伤^[147]。广州中医药大学团队^[148]发现栀子苷/京尼平苷酸能通过调控FXR通路调节肝脏胆汁酸代谢功能和解毒功能,但其在ACLF中是否能起到保肝

护肝作用还有待进一步研究。

4.8 单细胞多模态分析揭示了ACLF进展的动态免疫发病机制

2026年1月,浙江大学医学院第一附属医院Liang等^[149]利用单细胞RNA测序和单细胞蛋白质

组学的多模态分析,首次揭示了HBV-ACLF疾病的免疫应答动态变化和核心发病机制。这为今后ACLF免疫治疗、靶向治疗和个体化精准治疗提供了新的方向。

表2总结了目前备受关注的ACLF新兴疗法及其

表2 慢加急性肝功能衰竭新兴疗法及其核心靶点、作用机制及依据

Table 2 Emerging therapies for acute-on-chronic liver failure: core targets, mechanisms of action, and evidence

新兴疗法	核心靶点/关键分子	主要作用机制	文献参考依据	
干细胞治疗	间充质干细胞 (MSCs)	无特定单一靶点,作用于免疫紊乱、肝细胞再生障碍等环节	分化为肝样细胞,替代受损肝细胞;调节免疫应答及旁分泌效应;促进肝细胞再生、抗纤维化和组织修复	[54-61]
高级人工支持系统	生物型人工肝 (BAL)	肝细胞代谢功能	整合具有活性肝细胞(人源性或猪源性),模拟肝脏合成、代谢、解毒等复杂功能,进行“功能性替代”	[62-68]
	生物3D打印肝类器官	肝脏组织工程	利用细胞团簇打印方法,构建高细胞密度、有血管化潜能的3D打印肝类器官,实现肝脏组织修复	[69]
免疫调节治疗	体外免疫调节装置 (SCD)	循环白细胞、促炎因子	通过选择性细胞吸附,降低循环白细胞活化水平和促炎细胞因子表达,改善多器官衰竭	[70]
	肿瘤坏死因子 (TNF- α)	TNF- α /PLK、NOX- α /Src-NF- κ B	阻断TNF- α 及相关通路可逆转对肝再生的抑制;抑制肝细胞PANoptosis,减轻肝损伤	[71-74]
	重组碱性磷酸酶 (RecAP)	LPS、TLR4	通过去磷酸化修饰灭活LPS和游离核苷酸,抑制TLR4/NF- κ B通路,减少炎症反应,缓解坏死性凋亡	[75-79]
	粒细胞集落刺激因子 (G-CSF)	骨髓干细胞	动员骨髓干细胞,促进肝细胞再生和改善免疫(注:疗效存在争议,部分研究显示可能加重酒精性ACLF损伤)	[89-91]
基因治疗	基因修饰的干细胞 (Gene-modified MSCs)	HGF、IL-10、Bcl-2、Nrf2	通过基因工程使MSCs过表达特定治疗蛋白(如HGF/IL-10),增强抗炎和组织修复能力	[92]
	Gasdermin D (GSDMD)	Pyroptosis通路	GSDMD是细胞焦亡执行蛋白,靶向抑制其活化或上游Caspase可减少细胞膜孔道形成、抑制炎症因子释放及细胞裂解	[70,93-100]
其他分子靶点治疗	血栓反应蛋白1 (THBS1)	THBS1、TNF- α 、IL-6等炎症因子、Caspase-3、线粒体功能等	敲除THBS1可抑制TGF- β 表达和Caspase-3活化,减少炎症(TNF- α 、IL-6)和细胞凋亡	[5,101,102]
	线粒体融合蛋白2 (Mfn2)	线粒体功能、PI3K/Akt/mTOR通路、NF- κ B信号	抑制线粒体过度分裂,减轻氧化应激和凋亡;抑制NF- κ B信号下调炎症因子;促进自噬流	[103-109]
	3-硫酸-25-羟化胆固醇 (25HC3S)	LXR α /SREBP-1c通路、PPAR γ /I κ B α 通路、肝细胞-巨噬细胞轴	抑制脂质合成,阻断NF- κ B驱动的炎症反应,诱导保护性基因去甲基化,增强细胞存活	[14,110-114]
	Bikunin(AMBP基因衍生蛋白)	丝氨酸蛋白酶、NF- κ B	抑制NF- κ B通路缓解炎症,减少微血栓形成,改善微循环障碍	[107,115-117]
	血红素加氧酶1 (HMOX1)	Nrf2/HO-1、氧化应激	激活抗氧化通路,清除脂质过氧化物,抑制铁死亡,调节巨噬细胞缓解“炎症风暴”	[118-121]
	溶质载体家族7成员11 (SLC7A11)	System Xc ⁻ 、铁死亡	增强谷胱甘肽合成,降低ROS积累,防止脂质过氧化导致的铁死亡,维持肠道屏障	[122-125]
	高迁移率族蛋白B1 (HMGB1)	TLR4、RAGE、Caspase-1	抑制其释放可阻断NF- κ B激活和“炎症-焦亡”循环,减轻肝细胞损伤,促进再生	[126-130]
	Caspase-3	GSDME、mTORC2/AKT信号通路	细胞凋亡的关键执行者,亦可切割GSDME诱导焦亡;阻断该通路可减少程序性细胞死亡	[131-134]
	Toll样受体-4(TLR-4)	NF- κ B与MAPK信号通路、STAT3信号通路	拮抗TLR-4可阻断LPS引发的级联炎症反应,降低器官损伤,激活STAT3促进再生	[135,136]
肠道微生物制剂	粪便微生物群移植 (FMT)	肠-肝轴、肠道菌群	重塑肠道微生态,恢复有益菌(如产丁酸菌),修复肠屏障,减少内毒素易位,通过SCFAs调节免疫	[138-143]
中药治疗	中药复方/单体	多靶点 (如PPAR-KLF11-YAP1、FXR)	通过网络药理学机制,发挥抗炎、调节代谢(如胆汁酸代谢)、抗氧化及解毒作用	[144-148]

注: TNF- α 为肿瘤坏死因子- α ; PANoptosis为泛凋亡; LPS为脂多糖; TLR4为Toll样受体4; HGF为肝细胞生长因子; IL-10为白细胞介素-10; Bcl-2为B细胞淋巴瘤-2蛋白; Nrf2为核因子E2相关因子2; Pyroptosis为细胞焦亡; Caspase为一类存在于胞质溶胶中的结构上相关的半胱氨酸蛋白酶; TGF- β 为转化生长因子- β ; System Xc⁻为胱氨酸/谷氨酸反向转运体; ROS为活性氧。

Note: TNF- α : tumor necrosis factor-alpha; PANoptosis: a unique form of programmed cell death (pan-apoptosis); LPS: lipopolysaccharide (also known as endotoxin); TLR4: Toll-like receptor 4; HGF: hepatocyte growth factor; IL-10: interleukin-10; Bcl-2: B-cell lymphoma-2 protein; Nrf2: nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2; Pyroptosis: a form of inflammatory programmed cell death; Caspase: a family of structurally related cysteine proteases present in the cytosol; TGF- β : transforming growth factor-beta; System Xc⁻: cystine/glutamate antiporter (functional core subunit: SLC7A11); ROS: reactive oxygen species.

核心靶点、作用机制和相关研究依据。

5 挑战与展望

尽管目前关于ACLF的新兴疗法已取得了一定成果,但在疾病的机制研究和临床转化中仍面临诸多挑战。

ACLF的病理生理机制复杂,传统治疗侧重于支持与替代,核心思想是为肝脏自我再生和肝移植赢得更多的缓冲时间,无法有效地逆转ACLF核心的病理生理过程,无法逆转系统性炎症和免疫紊乱,使得患者最终还是出现多器官功能衰竭,死亡率居高不下。随着科学技术的发展,新兴疗法的目标已从支持器官转向机制治疗,缓解炎症和坏死,促进肝细胞再生。

在新兴疗法中,干细胞治疗是最有前景的疗法之一,但干细胞来源、治疗流程还有待标准化,安全性仍需要进一步验证。在免疫调节治疗中,G-CSF能动员骨髓干细胞促进肝细胞再生,但目前临床试验结果仍存争议。生物型人工肝虽能模拟肝脏合成、代谢、解毒等功能,但生物安全仍是巨大难题,且目前研究仍处于研发和早期临床试验阶段。肠道微生物制剂是近年来的研究热点,但是FMT的作用机制尚未完善,还有待进一步探究。

随着人工智能的发展,ACLF的新疗法也迎来了新的机遇。代谢组学有助于ACLF致病机制的进一步探索;AI+影像组学+风险预测模型有助于早期诊断ACLF,进行早期干预;AI+临床数据精准分层,有助于针对不同患者实施个体化治疗方案和管理。

6 结论

ACLF的治疗正在从被动的对症支持治疗转向主动的病因治疗。传统治疗方法是ACLF治疗的基石,但以干细胞疗法、高级人工支持系统、免疫调节疗法、基因疗法、其他分子治疗、肠道微生物制剂疗法、中药治疗等为代表的新兴疗法,则绘制出了充满希望的治愈蓝图。ACLF的治疗将会步入一个崭新的阶段,从器官替代到组织再生,从单一疗法到多疗法协同,从维持等待到可控可管可调,最终目标是实现ACLF的临床治愈,为无数患者带来真正的生机。

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