

EDITORIAL

Phospholipase iPLA2 β acts as a guardian against ferroptosis

Ferroptosis, a form of iron-dependent regulated cell death caused by excessive accumulation of lipid hydroperoxides, has been associated with various pathological conditions and diseases [1]. Excessive ferroptosis has been causally associated with acute kidney injury, cardiovascular, neurodegenerative and hepatic diseases, whereas impaired ferroptosis in premalignant cells has been shown to contribute to tumor development [2,3]. To escape from ferroptotic cell death, cells have been equipped with several antioxidant defense systems against lipid peroxidation (Figure 1). Glutathione peroxidase 4 (GPX4) suppresses ferroptosis by converting lipid hydroperoxides into non-toxic lipid alcohols at the expense of its cofactor glutathione (GSH) [4]. Ferroptosis suppressor protein-1 (FSP1, also known as AIFM2), a NAD(P)H-dependent oxidoreductase located on the plasma membrane, catalyzes the reduction of ubiquinone to ubiquinol, a radical trapping antioxidant that suppresses ferroptosis independent of the GSH-GPX4 axis [5,6]. In addition, dihydroorotate dehydrogenase (DHODH), an enzyme involved in the *de novo* pyrimidine biosynthesis pathway, inhibits ferroptosis by reducing ubiquinone to ubiquinol in the inner mitochondrial membrane [7].

Most lipid peroxidation occurs in polyunsaturated fatty acid-containing phospholipids (PUFA-PLs; PUFAs are fatty acids that harbor more than one double bond). Due to the chemical features of double bonds in PUFAs, PUFA-PLs are exquisitely vulnerable to peroxidation in cellular environments rich in iron and oxygen. One major oxidized PUFA-PL species that is believed to trigger ferroptosis is 15-hydroperoxy-arachidonoyl-phosphatidylethanolamine (15-HpETE-PE) [8]. However, how cells neutralize 15-HpETE-PE (and other oxidized PUFA-PLs) and escape

from ferroptotic cell death remains incompletely understood.

The phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) gene family encodes protein enzymes that specifically hydrolyze the sn-2 ester bond on PLs, yielding free fatty acids and lysophosphatidic acids. Calcium-independent phospholipase A₂ β (iPLA₂ β), a member of the PLA₂ family, is a cytosolic protein that is catalytically active in the absence of calcium and can be stimulated by ATP. In response to stress or injury, iPLA₂ β preferentially releases free fatty acids (particularly PUFAs, such as arachidonic acid, eicosapentaenoic acid, and docosahexaenoic acid) from the sn-2 position of PLs. While iPLA₂ β was initially implicated as a house-keeping enzyme in membrane remodeling, recent studies have suggested an engaged role of iPLA₂ β in a variety of cellular processes, including calcium homeostasis, apoptosis, and inflammation, and its dysregulation has been genetically linked to diverse human diseases, such as Parkinson's disease (PD), male infertility, cardiovascular abnormalities, and cancer [9]. However, the underlying mechanisms by which iPLA₂ β dysregulation is linked to these human diseases or pathological conditions still remain largely unknown. Two recent studies revealed that iPLA₂ β preferentially hydrolyzes peroxidized PLs, such as 15-HpETE-PE, and acts as a GPX4-independent repressor of p53-driven ferroptosis [10,11]. These findings further suggest that iPLA₂ β is a promising therapeutic target for cancer therapy and that its mutation may be relevant to PD.

Sun et al. [10] examined the specific hydrolytic activity of iPLA₂ β , revealing that both 1-stearoyl (SA)-2-ETE-PE and 1-SA-2-15-HpETE-PE (one specific 15-HpETE-PE) were highly hydrolyzed by iPLA₂ β . Further studies from both experimental analyses and computational modeling suggested that 1-SA-2-15-HpETE-PE is likely the preferred substrate for iPLA₂ β . R747W is a loss-of-function mutant in iPLA₂ β that is associated with infantile neuroaxonal dystrophy and adult-onset dystonia-parkinsonism. Notably, the R747W mutant was shown to exhibit lower hydrolytic activity toward 1-SA-2-15-HpETE-PE than did the wild-type iPLA₂ β protein. Likewise, the phospholipase

Abbreviations: GPX4, Glutathione peroxidase 4; FSP1, Ferroptosis suppressor protein-1; DHODH, Dihydroorotate dehydrogenase; PUFA-PLs, polyunsaturated-fatty-acid-containing phospholipids; 15-HpETE-PE, 15-hydroperoxy-arachidonoyl-phosphatidylethanolamine; PLA₂, phospholipase A₂; iPLA₂ β , Calcium-independent phospholipase A₂ β ; PD, Parkinson's disease; 4-HNE, 4-hydroxynonenal

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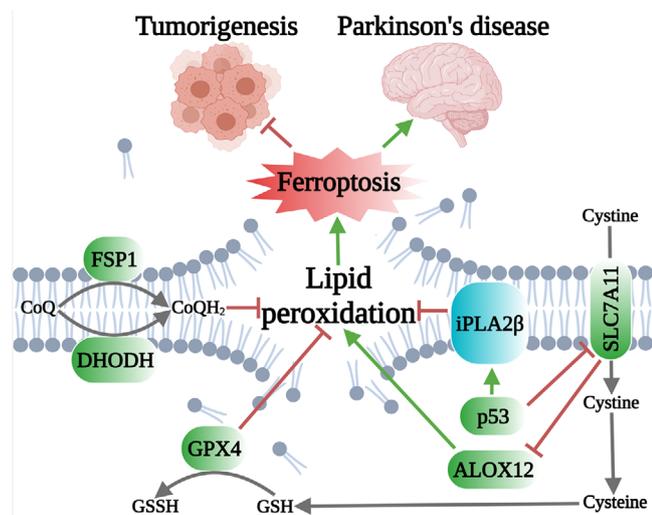


FIGURE 1 Several cellular defense systems against lipid peroxidation and ferroptosis, and the relevance of ferroptosis to tumorigenesis and Parkinson's disease. GPX4 detoxifies lipid hydroperoxides and represses ferroptosis by converting reduced GSH into GSSG. FSP1 and DHODH catalyze the reduction of CoQ to CoQH₂ on the plasma membrane and inner mitochondrial membrane, respectively; CoQH₂ acts as a radical trapping antioxidant to suppress lipid peroxidation and ferroptosis. p53 appears to have two opposing functions in ferroptosis. p53 promotes ferroptosis at least partly by suppressing the expression of SLC7A11, which inhibits ferroptosis through both GPX4-dependent (via GSH) and -independent (via ALOX12) pathways. On the other hand, p53 upregulates the expression of *iPLA2β*, which suppresses ferroptosis. *iPLA2β* inactivation suppresses tumorigenesis and promotes Parkinson's disease at least partly through promoting ferroptosis. Abbreviations: GPX4, glutathione peroxidase 4; GSH, glutathione; GSSG, oxidized glutathione; FSP1, ferroptosis suppressor protein-1; DHODH, dihydroorotate dehydrogenase; CoQ, ubiquinone; CoQH₂, ubiquinol; SLC7A11, solute carrier family 7 member 11; ALOX12, arachidonate 12-lipoxygenase; *iPLA2β*, calcium-independent phospholipase A_{2β}.

activity of *iPLA2β* toward 1-SA-2-15-HpETE-PE was dramatically lower in cells harboring PD-associated mutation (fPD^{R747W}) than in wild-type counterparts. Mechanistically, it was proposed that R747W *iPLA2β* mutant protein has less accessible catalytic site and weaker membrane association as compared with the wild-type *iPLA2β* protein, which likely explains its lower hydrolytic activity toward its substrate 1-SA-2-15-HpETE-PE. Given the important role of 15-HpETE-PE in driving ferroptosis, these studies further suggest that *iPLA2β* might suppress ferroptosis by hydrolyzing 15-HpETE-PE. In support of this hypothesis, Sun et al. [10] showed that fPD^{R747W} cells contained more oxidized PEs and exhibited more sensitivities to GPX4 inhibitor RSL3-induced ferroptosis than did wild-type cells.

In another study, Chen et al. [11] uncovered a role of *iPLA2β* in ferroptosis governance through their efforts to understand tumor suppressor p53's function in ferroptosis. Combined treatment of *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide (a ferroptosis inducer) and Nutlin (a p53 activator) was found to induce high levels of lipid peroxidation and to result in potent p53-dependent ferroptotic cell death; notably, p53-driven ferroptosis appeared to be independent of GPX4. This prompted the authors to identify additional downstream targets of p53 to control ferroptosis. Through mining RNA-sequencing data, Chen et al. [11] revealed that *iPLA2β* is a direct transcriptional target of p53; both pharmacological and genetic activation of p53 significantly upregulated *iPLA2β* mRNA levels, whereas p53 deficiency dampened Nutlin-induced *iPLA2β* expression. They further showed that *iPLA2β* depletion promoted ferroptosis in p53 wild-type cells but not in p53-null counterparts. In addition, overexpression of *iPLA2β*, but not its enzymatic inactive mutant, was found to reduce the levels of oxidized PEs and to inhibit p53-driven ferroptosis. Collectively, these data suggest that *iPLA2β* functions to suppress p53-induced ferroptosis likely through hydrolyzing oxidized PUFA-PLs. It should be noted that although p53 promotes *iPLA2β* expression, p53 and *iPLA2β* have opposite functions in regulating ferroptosis: p53 promotes whereas *iPLA2β* suppresses ferroptosis. Therefore, *iPLA2β* is unlikely the p53 transcriptional target that mediates p53's function in promoting ferroptosis; rather, it seems that *iPLA2β* as a p53's target serves to buffer p53's ability to induce ferroptosis (Figure 1).

The above two studies also examined the disease relevance of *iPLA2β*'s function in ferroptosis governance. Chen et al. [11] showed that *iPLA2β* deficiency suppressed xenograft tumor growth and increased ferroptosis marker expression in p53 wild-type but not in p53-null tumors, suggesting that *iPLA2β* could promote tumor growth in a p53-dependent manner and possibly through suppressing ferroptosis in vivo. It should be noted that while *iPLA2β* is a transcriptional target of p53, the dependency of *iPLA2β*-mediated regulation of ferroptosis and tumor growth on p53 suggests that somehow p53 can also operate downstream of *iPLA2β*, although the underlying mechanism remains unclear. Sun et al. [10] studied *iPLA2β* in the context of PD. *iPLA2β* is encoded by the *PNPLA9* gene. Since mouse *Pnpla9* R748W mutant corresponds to human *PNPLA9* R747W mutant (which is associated with PD), they developed *Pnpla9*^{R748W/R748W} mouse models and found that *Pnpla9*^{R748W/R748W} mice indeed developed behavioral defects related to PD pathogenesis, with increased levels of 15-HpETE-PE and 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE, a lipid peroxidation marker) in midbrains of these mice compared with those in wild-type mice. In addition, the levels of tyrosine hydroxylase, a biomarker for

dopaminergic neurons in the central nervous system and its product dopamine were found to be significantly lower in the midbrain of *Pnpla9^{R748W/R748W}* mutant mice than in control mice. These analyses suggest a causal effect of ferroptosis in mediating *iPLA2 β* mutation's function in PD pathogenesis.

Together, these two intriguing studies [10,11] reveal that *iPLA2 β* acts as a guardian against ferroptosis by hydrolyzing and thereby eliminating pro-ferroptotic oxidized PUFA-PLs, and further suggest that *iPLA2 β* deficiency or its loss-of-function mutation can suppress tumor growth or promote PD pathogenesis, potentially by inducing aberrant ferroptosis (Figure 1). These studies also raised several outstanding questions. Since the PLA2 gene family encodes multiple phospholipases, whether other PLA2 members are also involved in ferroptosis governance remains to be investigated. *iPLA2 β* normally localizes in the cytosol, but upon stimulation it can mobilize to organelles such as the endoplasmic reticulum, mitochondria, and nucleus. For example, *iPLA2 β* has been implicated in repairing mitochondrial phospholipids [12]. In light of recent findings suggesting separate ferroptosis defense systems on the plasma membrane and in the mitochondria in cells [7,13], whether *iPLA2 β* participates in ferroptosis defense in different subcellular compartments under diverse cellular conditions remains a fascinating area for future studies. In addition, although these two studies have causally linked ferroptosis to *iPLA2 β* 's functions in tumor biology and PD pathogenesis, the extent to which ferroptosis contributes to tumor suppression or PD-associated phenotypes caused by *iPLA2 β* deletion or mutation remains unclear. Considering the multifaceted roles of *iPLA2 β* in cellular signaling, other biological functions of *iPLA2 β* might also be involved. Rescue analyses by ferroptosis inhibitors such as liproxstatin-1 or ferrostatin-1 will help address this important question. Further, as a key transcription factor involved in ferroptosis regulation, p53's activity is tightly regulated by post-translational modifications such as phosphorylation and acetylation. For example, the suppressor of cytokine signaling 1 (SOCS1) reduces the expression of SLC7A11 through promoting p53 serine-15 phosphorylation and thereby sensitizes cells to ferroptosis [14]. In addition, p53 acetylation at lysine K98 is essential for its ability to inhibit SLC7A11 expression and to promote ferroptosis in mouse xenograft models [15]. Whether these post-translational modifications of p53 are also involved in regulating *iPLA2 β* expression remains to be tested. Likewise, it will be interesting to identify other transcription factors that regulate *iPLA2 β* expression and ferroptosis in future investigations. Finally, from a therapeutic perspective, the study by Chen et al. [11] suggests *iPLA2 β* inhibitors as potential therapeutic strategies in treating p53 wild-type tumors. However, the study by

Sun et al. [10] would argue that such therapeutic interventions might cause other complications, including promoting PDs. It remains to be established whether there exist appropriate therapeutic windows for *iPLA2 β* inhibitors to selectively kill tumors without inducing obvious toxicities in the brain and other organs. Future investigations will be directed to understanding these important questions.

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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

CM drafted the manuscript with additional support from GL for checking relevant literature. BG provided critical revision of the manuscript with additional manuscript editing support from LZ. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

BG is an inventor of patent applications involving targeting ferroptosis in cancer therapy. Other authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

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Chao Mao¹ 
Guang Lei¹ 
Li Zhuang¹
Boyi Gan^{1,2} 

¹ Department of Experimental Radiation Oncology, The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX 77030, USA

² *The University of Texas MD Anderson UTHealth
Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences, Houston, TX
77030, USA*

Correspondence

Boyi Gan, Department of Experimental Radiation
Oncology, The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer
Center, Houston, TX 77030, USA.
E-mail: bgan@mdanderson.org

ORCID

Chao Mao  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8685-8539>

Guang Lei  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3282-0666>

Boyi Gan  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8884-6040>

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