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フェロトーシス

総説

Detecting ferroptosis: Tools, Markers, and **Applications**

Columbia University Jiewen Zheng, Brent R. Stockwell

生命科学の最前線~タイ王国研究者の現場から~ ①

Exploiting Acquired Vulnerability to Develop Novel Treatments for Cholangiocarcinoma

Mahidol University Sirayot Areewong, Sunisa Prasopporn, Siwanon Jirawatnotai Chulabhorn Royal Academy Orawan Suppramote

注目の研究

Whole-Organ に適用可能な酵素活性 3D マッピング技術の開発

株式会社同仁化学研究所 野口 克也

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Detecting ferroptosis: Tools, Markers, and Applications



Jiewen ZhengDepartment of Chemistry,
Columbia University



Brent R. Stockwell

Department of Chemistry,
Columbia University
Department of Biological Sciences,
Columbia University
Irving Institute for Cancer Dynamics,
Columbia University
Herbert Irving Comprehensive Cancer
Center, Columbia University
Data Science Institute, Columbia University
Department of Pathology and Cell Biology
and Columbia University Digestive and
Liver Disease Research Center, Vagelos
College of Physicians and Surgeons,
Columbia University Irving Medical Center

Abstract

Ferroptosis, a non-apoptotic cell death driven by iron-dependent phospholipid peroxidation, has been implicated in various biological contexts. It is important to develop reliable tools to detect and monitor ferroptosis in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* systems. In this review, we highlight current biochemical and immunodetection strategies used to identify ferroptosis and the organelle-specific regulators. We also outline the emerging technologies and future directions to advance ferroptosis research and their therapeutic and diagnostic potentials.

1. Introduction

Ferroptosis is a distinct form of regulated cell death driven by iron-dependent accumulation of peroxidized phospholipids, particularly those containing polyunsaturated fatty acyl (PUFA) tails¹⁾. Unlike apoptosis, necroptosis, or pyroptosis, ferroptosis is triggered by the disruption of antioxidant defense systems, most notably the glutathione peroxidase 4 (GPX4) axis, leading to oxidative damage of cellular membranes and ultimately cell death^{2),3)}.

Over the past decade, ferroptosis has emerged as a critical mechanism in both physiological and pathological contexts, including cancers, immune disorders, neurodegeneration, and aging4). The regulatory network underlying ferroptosis involves the crosstalk among iron metabolism, lipid peroxidation, and antioxidant defenses. Importantly, the discovery of smallmolecule or natural products regulating ferroptosis has unveiled the therapeutic potential of targeting ferroptosis in disease models⁵⁾. For example, the ferroptosis inducer imidazole ketone erastin (IKE), which selectively inhibits the cystine-glutamate antiporter system Xc⁻, demonstrates anti-tumor effects in lymphoma models⁶⁾. In contrast, inhibition of ferroptosis using radical-trapping antioxidant agents, such as liproxstatin-1, significantly attenuates disease progression in mouse models of disease, underscoring its potential in autoimmune and other disease indications7).

Given the growing therapeutic relevance of ferroptosis, there is a need for the development of robust, sensitive, and specific tools to detect and monitor ferroptosis in both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Current methods include biochemical assays for lipid peroxidation and labile iron accumulation, as well as immunodetection of ferroptosis-associated proteins such as GPX4, Acyl-CoA Synthetase Long Chain Family Member 4 (ACSL4), and transferrin receptor 1 (TfR1)⁸⁾. Moreover, the integration of nanotechnology and ferroptosis detection strategies has opened avenues for the mechanistic investigation of ferroptosis at the nanoscale and for clinical applications⁹⁾.

Here, we provide a focused overview of current methodologies for detecting ferroptosis. We highlight key tools, including chemical probes, immunodetection strategies, and organelle-specific approaches, and emerging biomarkers and their applications in disease models. We also discuss how ferroptosis can be detected in specific pathophysiological contexts and conclude by addressing the limitations and opportunities for standardizing ferroptosis detection in basic and translational research.

2. Methods and Markers for Detecting Ferroptosis

2.1. Biochemical Detection of Ferroptosis

Lipid peroxidation is a defining biochemical feature of ferroptosis and plays a central role in modulating ferroptosis. The accumulation of lipid-based reactive oxygen species (ROS), particularly lipid hydroperoxides, is a key indicator of ferroptotic cell death¹⁰. Several detection platforms have been developed to

detect and quantify the extent of lipid peroxidation in cellular and tissue systems undergoing ferroptosis.

One useful probe is C11-BODIPY^{581/591}, a lipophilic fluorescent dye that localizes into membranes and shifts its fluorescence emission from red (598 nm) to green (520 nm) upon oxidation¹¹⁾. This ratiometric change can be quantified by flow cytometry or live-cell imaging, offering a real-time readout of lipid peroxidation. However, C11-BODIPY^{581/591} has limited selectivity to lipid hydroperoxides relevant to ferroptosis.

To address this limitation, Liperfluo, a recently developed lipid hydroperoxide-selective probe, offers potentially improved specificity for ferroptosis²). Unlike C11-BODIPY, Liperfluo reacts directly with lipid hydroperoxides, while showing minimal cross-reactivity with general ROS or hydrogen peroxide. Liperfluo is complementary and potentially advantageous due to its improved selectivity, lower background, and minimal interference from other oxidative species. It can be used in both fixed and live cells and is compatible with high-content and confocal imaging¹²).

For a more comprehensive assessment of oxidized lipid species, oxidative lipidomics is a powerful technique. Mass spectrometry-based approaches, such as liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS), enable the precise, high-resolution identification and quantification of oxidized lipid species, particularly oxidized phosphatidylethanolamines (PEs), the major pro-ferroptotic lipid class¹³⁾. These approaches enable the detection of subtle lipidomic changes associated with ferroptosis in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models and can be further extended to profile oxidative protein modifications in parallel²⁾.

Iron overload contributes to ferroptosis through the Fenton reaction, which generates ROS that propagate lipid peroxidation¹⁴⁾. Labile iron pools can be detected using fluorescent probes such as FerroOrange, a selective cytosolic Fe²⁺ indicator. This probe allows for flow cytometry, live-cell imaging and quantification of intracellular iron levels. We treated SU-DHL-5 cells with a GPX4 inhibitor, RSL3, and measured labile Fe2+. We observed that RSL3 treatment significantly increased the accumulation of labile Fe2+ level, evidenced by a marked increase in FerroOrange fluorescence in flow cytometry measurement (Figure 1). An alternative method using Calcein-AM fluorescence quenching can also measure the labile iron pool¹⁵⁾. This method relies on the principle that Fe2+ quenches calcein fluorescence, allowing quantification of the labile iron pool. These complementary techniques provide critical insight into the iron driving lipid peroxidation and ferroptosis.

2.2. Organelles Specific Observations in Ferroptosis

Ferroptosis is a multifaceted process involving lipid metabolism, redox balance, and iron homeostasis across multiple subcellular compartments. Rather than occurring in isolation, ferroptosis involves dynamic interactions among organelles that collectively shape the cell's vulnerability to lipid peroxidation.

Mitochondria contribute to ferroptosis, including metabolic reactions, iron handling, stress response, and the biosynthesis of coenzyme Q10 (CoQ₁₀), a critical antioxidant and electron carrier¹⁶. Morphological hallmarks such as cristae shrinkage and outer membrane rupture are commonly detectable by

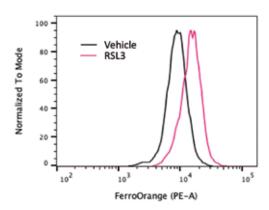


Figure 1. RSL3 treatment increases the labile Fe $^{2+}$ level Labile Fe $^{2+}$ measured by FerroOrange in SU-DHL-5 cells treated with vehicle or 10 μ M RSI 3 for 6 hr

transmission electron microscopy (TEM)1).

The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) serves as a central hub for lipid biosynthesis, including lipid desaturation, phospholipid synthesis, and lipid remodelling. Key lipid metabolic enzymes ACSL4 and lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase 3 (LPCAT3), localized to the ER, enable the incorporation of PUFAs into phospholipids, which are key substrates for lipid peroxidation¹⁶). In addition, the ER membrane is a key site of lipid peroxidation, and initially accumulates membrane peroxidation, which can then propagate to the plasma membrane¹⁷).

Lipid droplets (LDs), which are derived from the ER, regulate ferroptosis through lipid storage and trafficking. LDs have the unique ability to sequester excess PUFAs by esterifying them into triacylglycerols (TAGs), thereby protecting cells against lipid toxicity and ferroptosis¹⁸⁾. Moreover, the sequestration of autophagy-derived FAs in LDs also enables a precise regulation of FA-delivery to mitochondria through the lipolytic activity of adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL)¹⁹⁾. Dysregulation of this ATGL-dependent lipolytic pathway sensitizes cells to ferroptosis by enhancing the release of peroxidation-prone lipids.

Together, these organelle-specific events highlight the spatial complexity of ferroptosis regulation and offer insights for targeted detection and intervention strategies.

2.3. Immunodetection for Ferroptosis Markers

In addition to biochemical assays, immunodetection techniques offer essential tools for ferroptosis detection by targeting key protein markers involved in its regulation and execution. These techniques, including immunoblotting, immunofluorescence (IF), and immunohistochemistry (IHC), allow for the spatial and quantitative analysis of ferroptosis-associated protein markers in cells and tissues.

The enzyme GPX4, which reduces phospholipid hydroper-oxides to non-lethal lipid alcohols using glutathione (GSH) as a cofactor, acts as an important protector against ferroptosis²⁰. Therefore, loss or functional impairment of GPX4 can drive ferroptosis. Antibodies targeting GPX4 have been used for western blotting, IF, and IHC staining to quantify the level of the protein²¹. Moreover, since the expression and activity of GPX4 in ferroptosis rely on the system Xc⁻-mediated supply of the cysteine/cystine pool and subsequent GSH biosynthesis, regulation of SLC7A11, a component of the system Xc⁻

antiporter, has been used as a ferroptosis marker in some models²²).

ACSL4 is a critical protein implicated in ferroptosis sensitivity. ACSL4 facilitates the incorporation of PUFAs into phospholipids, thereby enriching cells with substrates for lipid peroxidation. Upregulation of ACSL4 promotes ferroptosis, while reduction of ACSL4 abundance confers resistance²³. Antibodies against ACSL4 have been used in immunoblotting and immunostaining to assess ferroptosis susceptibility.

In addition, TfR1, an iron import protein, is frequently upregulated during ferroptosis due to increased iron demand and altered iron homeostasis. A recent study validated that an antibody targeting TfR1 is effective as a selective ferroptosis-staining reagent²⁴).

Other immunodetection markers include hyperoxidized peroxiredoxin 3 (PRDX3), a mitochondrial peroxidase whose oxidation may reflect mitochondrial oxidative injury during ferroptosis²⁵, and malondialdehyde (MDA), a reactive aldehyde byproduct of lipid peroxidation, can be detected in ferroptotic cells using IF, IHC, or ELISA²⁶.

These immunodetection strategies provide complementary evidence for ferroptosis, particularly in *in vivo* studies and clinical samples, where lipid peroxidation probes may be limited by tissue penetration or specificity.

We summarize key ferroptosis detection methods, including biochemical detection, immunodetection, and other imaging methods, in Table 1. This overview serves as a practical guide for selecting appropriate tools in various experimental and translational contexts.

3. Disease Contexts and Translational Applications

Ferroptosis plays diverse roles in different pathological contexts, particularly in diseases characterized by dysregulated lipid metabolism, redox imbalance, and iron overload²⁷⁾. In

cancer treatment approaches, particularly for therapy-resistant cancer types and diffuse large B-cell lymphoma, ferroptosis represents a potential therapeutic vulnerability⁶). In contrast, excessive ferroptosis contributes to cell death in neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, and Huntington's disease with iron overload²⁸). Ferroptosis is also involved in acute injuries like ischemia-reperfusion injury (IRI) in the heart, liver, and kidney, where Wnt signaling-mediated oxidative stress bursts upon reperfusion²⁹).

Ferroptosis offers novel therapeutic and diagnostic opportunities. Ferroptosis inducers, such as IKE and cystine/ methionine deprivation, show antitumor effects in animal models, while inhibitors protect against neurodegeneration and IRI^{29],30]}. Diagnostic applications are also improving, whereby immunostaining for ferroptosis markers, including TfR1, MDA, and hyperoxidized PRDX3, aids in tissue-based diagnostics; radiological tools, such as MRI-based iron imaging, can detect iron accumulation in organs³¹⁾. Additionally, ferroptosis-related lipidomic signatures and protein markers hold promise as prognostic and predictive biomarkers²³⁾. Together, these therapeutic and diagnostic strategies highlight the clinical relevance of ferroptosis in diverse pathological settings.

4. Challenges and Future Directions

We have witnessed the development of techniques in understanding ferroptosis and their potential in clinical applications. However, there are limitations in the specificity and sensitivity of current methods. For example, lipid peroxidation byproducts and antioxidant proteins overlap with other oxidative stress pathways³²⁾. Also, since redox conditions vary between cell-based cultures and *in vivo* conditions, there is a lack of reliable ferroptosis-detecting tools for *in vivo* and tissue samples¹⁴⁾. Moreover, heterogeneity of ferroptosis regulation across cell types and disease contexts complicates therapeutic targeting, suggesting the necessity of personalized approaches.

Category	Method/Tool	Target/Marker	Readout	Advantages	Limitations
	Lipid ROS Probes (e.g., C11-BODIPY, Liperfluo)	Lipid peroxides	Fluorescence intensity (flow cytometry, microscopy)	Sensitive, real-time detection	Limited tissue penetration
Biochemical Detection	Iron probes (e.g., FerroOrange, calcein-AM)	Labile iron pool	Fluorescence, absorbance	Iron-specific detection	Can be influenced by other iron-related changes
	Oxidative lipidomics	Oxidized lipid species	Mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)	High sensitivity, high resolution	Requires specialized equipment and expertise
Immunodetection	Western blot / IHC / IF	GPX4, ACSL4, SLC7A11, TfR1, PRDX3, MDA	Protein level / location	High sensitivity and selectivity	Requires good antibodies, not quantitative
Others	TEM	Mitochondrial morphology	Cristae loss, membrane rupture	High resolution, direct observation of subcellular damage	Requires expertise, low-throughput
	MRI	Iron overload	Signal intensity in T2* images	Non-invasive, applicable for <i>in</i> <i>vivo</i> and clinical use	Low resolution, indirect

Table 1. Ferroptosis detection tools and markers

Note: ROS: reactive oxygen species; LC-MS/MS: liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry; IHC: immunohistochemistry; IF: immunofluorescence; TEM: transmission electron microscopy; MRI: magnetic resonance imaging.

Integrating multi-omic profiling, advanced imaging modalities, and organelle-specific markers will enhance the understanding of ferroptosis. Developing selective probes and therapeutics that target key ferroptosis regulators with high efficacy and low toxicity is critical. Finally, interdisciplinary efforts combining systems biology, nanotechnology, and clinical expertise will be essential to utilize ferroptosis as a diagnostic and therapeutic avenue in cancer and other acute settings.

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[Contact]

Jiewen Zheng (PhD student)

Email: jz3551@columbia.edu

Current research area: Ferroptosis, Lipid Metabolism, Diet, Cancer Biology

Brent R. Stockwell (Corresponding author)

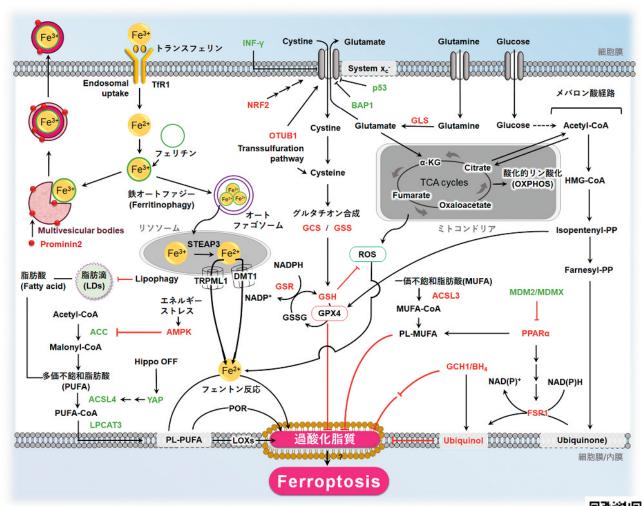
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Current research area: Ferroptosis, Lipid Metabolism, Diet, Cancer Biology, Chemical Biology, Mass Spectrometry, Neurodegeneration

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2012 年にコロンビア大学の Stockwell らにより、フェロトーシスは新しい細胞死の 1 つとして提案されました $^{1)}$ 。フェロトーシスは、鉄イオン依存性脂質過酸化物の蓄積によって引き起こされる非アポトーシス細胞死として研究されています $^{2)}$ 。 Stockwell らの研究において、小社の Liperfluo が過酸化脂質の検出用の蛍光プローブとして使用されています $^{3)}$ 。フェロトーシスに関わる指標と関連製品を紹介します。

- 1) B. R. Stockwell et al., Cell, 2012, 149, 1060-1072.
- 2) 豊國伸哉, DOJIN News, **2017**, 162, 1-3.
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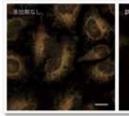
鉄は生体内で最も多く存在する遷移金属元素であり、様々な生理活性を示すことが報告されています。近年、タンパク質非結合型の鉄イオン(自由鉄)としての存在が注目されており、その高い反応性は細胞損傷や細胞死にも関与していることが示唆されています。生細胞内において、細胞内還元的環境、水溶性、トランスポーターの存在等を考慮すると鉄(Ⅲ)イオン(Fe³+)よりも鉄(Ⅱ)イオン(Fe²+)の挙動を知ることが重要であると考えられています。

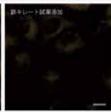
本製品は、蛍光顕微鏡およびプレートリーダーにて細胞内の二価鉄を簡便に検出することができます。試薬を培養細胞に添加するだけで細胞膜を透過し、細胞内の Fe^{2+} と選択的に反応し強い蛍光を発します。 $(\lambda_{ex}=543~\text{nm},~\lambda_{em}=580~\text{nm})$

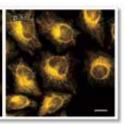
FerroOrange にはキレート能はありません。FerroOrange と Fe²⁺ は非可逆的に反応するため、Fluo 3 のようなカルシウムイオンプローブの検出原理とは異なります。

<蛍光顕微鏡によるイメージング例>

HeLa 細胞を用いて、細胞内に内在する Fe^{2+} および鉄キレート試薬 $Bpy(2,2'-Bipyridine、終濃度:100 \ \mu mol/l)$ と鉄(硫酸アンモニウム鉄(II)、終濃度:100 \ $\mu mol/l$)の添加有無により、細胞内の Fe^{2+} の変化を FerroOrange により確認した。鉄キレート試薬を添加することで無刺激の細胞に比べ蛍光強度が低下したことから、細胞内には内在性の Fe^{2+} が存在することが確認できた。







<検出条件> Ex = 561 nm、Em = 570-620 nm スケールバー: 20 μm

※本製品は、岐阜薬科大学薬化学研究室 永澤秀子先生、平山祐先生のご指導の下、製品化しました。

関連製品

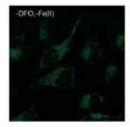
ミトコンドリア内鉄検出蛍光試薬

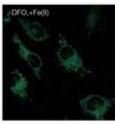
Mito-FerroGreen

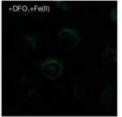
Mito-FerroGreen は、FeS クラスタやへム合成の場として知られるミトコンドリア内の鉄(II) イオン (Fe²+) と選択的に反応し強い蛍光 (λ_{ex} = 505 nm, λ_{em} = 535 nm) を発する試薬であり、細胞内鉄(II) イオンのライブセルイメージングに利用することが可能です。 Mito-FerroGreen にはキレート能はありません。Mito-FerroGreen と Fe²+ は非可逆的に反応するため、Fluo 3 のようなカルシウムイオンプローブの検出原理とは異なります。

<蛍光顕微鏡によるイメージング例>

HeLa 細胞を用い、ミトコンドリア内に内在する Fe^{2+} および鉄キレート試薬 DFO(Deferoxamine, **10 mmol/l**)と鉄(100 μ mol/l 硫酸アンモニウム鉄(II))の添加有無により、ミトコンドリア内の Fe^{2+} の変化を 5 μ mol/l Mito-FerroGreen により確認した。その結果、ミトコンドリアに内在する鉄(左図)は、鉄を添加した場合にはより強い蛍光(中央図)が見られ、鉄キレート試薬と鉄を添加した細胞では、Mito-FerroGreen の蛍光(右図)はほとんど見られなかった。







<検出条件> Ex = 488 nm、Em = 500-565 nm

※本製品は、岐阜薬科大学薬化学研究室 永澤秀子先生、平山祐先生のご指導の下、製品化しました。

品名	容量	希望納入価格(¥)	メーカーコード
Forma	1 tube ^{*1}	18,100	F374
FerroOrange	3 tubes	40,800	
Mito-FerroGreen	50 μg × 2 ^{ж2}	32,000	M489

<使用回数の目安 > % 1) 1 tube あたり、 μ -Slide 8 well 20 枚 % 2) 50 μ g あたり、 μ -Slide 8 well 6 枚

ミトコンドリア脂溶性過酸化物検出試薬

MitoPeDPP

MitoPeDPP は、細胞膜を透過してミトコンドリアに集積し、膜中の脂溶性過酸化物によって特異的に酸化され蛍光を発します。酸化体の励起および蛍光波長が長波長($\lambda_{ex}=452$ nm, $\lambda_{em}=470$ nm)であるため、測定試料への光によるダメージや試料由来の自家蛍光の影響を軽減できることから、蛍光顕微鏡を用いたミトコンドリアの脂溶性過酸化物のイメージングが可能です。

<Rotenone を用いた脂溶性過酸化物の検出例>

HeLa 細胞に本製品を添加した後、Rotenone 溶液を加え、蛍光顕微鏡を用いて観察した。Rotenone 添加により細胞内に発生する ミトコンドリアの脂溶性過酸化物を検出することを確認した。

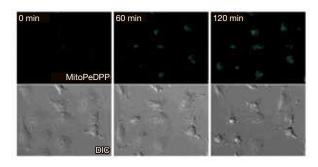


写真:

- 左)Rotenone 添加直後
- 中) Rotenone 添加 90 分後 右) Rotenone 添加 180 分後
 - 後 ト
- 上) 蛍光画像 下) 位相差画像

※本製品は福岡大学理学部 塩路先生らにより開発された製品です。

品名	容量	希望納入価格(¥)	メーカーコード
MitoPeDPP	5 μg × 3	24,500	M466

<使用回数の目安> 5 µg あたり、96 well plate 1-5 枚、35mm dish 5-25 枚

関連製品

脂質過酸化検出試薬

Lipid Peroxidation Probe -BDP 581/591 C11-

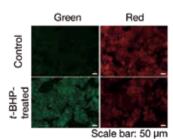
く特長>

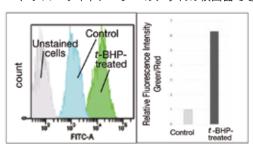
- ・脂質過酸化を高感度に検出できる
- ・顕微鏡、マイクロプレートリーダー、フローサイトメーターで検出可能

本製品は、酸化前は常時赤色の蛍光を発していますが、脂質周辺の ROS(Reactive Qxygen Species)によって酸化されることで、緑色の蛍光に変化します。赤色と緑色の 2 色の蛍光比率を算出することで、脂質の過酸化現象を高感度に検出することが可能です。また、プレートリーダーでの検出が可能であるため、蛍光の数値化やスクリーニングに適用が可能です。

<さまざまな検出器で検出可能>

HepG2 細胞を 200 μ mol/l tert-butyl hydroperoxide (t-BHP) で 2 時間処理後に本製品で脂質過酸化現象を検出した。 その結果、顕微鏡、プレートリーダー、フローサイトメーターのいずれの検出器でも検出できることが分かった。





【落射型蛍光顕微鏡】
Green:
Ex = 450-490 nm Em = 500-550 nm
Red:
Ex = 540-580 nm Em = 593-667 nm
【フローサイトメーター】
FITC フィルター
(Ex = 488 nm Em = 515-545 nm)
【プレートリーダー】
Green: Ex = 490 nm Em = 530 nm
Red: $Ex = 570 \text{ nm } Em = 610 \text{ nm}$

	10 ± 11 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	<u> </u>
Lipid Peroxidation Probe -BDP 581/591 C11- 200 test	s 33,500 L267	7

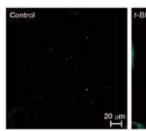
過酸化脂質検出蛍光試薬

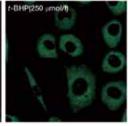
Liperfluo

Liperfluo は、酸化体の励起および蛍光波長が長波長(λ_{ex} = 524 nm, λ_{em} = 535 nm)であるため、測定試料への光によるダメージや試料由来の自家蛍光の影響を軽減できます。酸化体は水中ではほとんど蛍光性がありませんが、細胞膜等の脂溶性の高い部位では蛍光性となることから、蛍光顕微鏡による生細胞の過酸化脂質のイメージングやフローサイトメトリーによる細胞の過酸化脂質量の分析に使用することができます。また、Liperfluo は細胞死メカニズムの一つとして注目を集めるフェロトーシス研究において、鉄依存性の脂質過酸化物の検出用蛍光プローブとして使用されています。

< L929 細胞用いた検出例>

L929 細胞に本製品を含む新しい培地を添加 (終濃度: 1 μ mol/I) した (37 \mathbb{C} 、30 分)。培地除去後、t-BHP (tert-Butylhydroperoxide) を含む新しい培地を添加 (終濃度: 250 μ mol/I) し、2 時間後に共焦点レーザー顕微鏡を用いて観察した。





測定装置: Zeiss LSM510META フィルターセット: FITC(GFP, Alexa488)wide filter HFT UV/488, NFT490, BP505-550

生細胞を用いた過酸化脂質の共焦点顕微鏡イメージング データ提供:北里大学薬学部 今井浩孝先生、熊谷剛先生

品名	容量	希望納入価格(¥)	メーカーコード
Liperfluo	1 set (50 μ g $ imes$ 5)	27,200	L248

<使用回数の目安> 50 µg あたり、5-50 回(保存不可)

関連製品

マロンジアルデヒド測定キット

MDA Assay Kit

く特長>

- ・細胞や組織中のマロンジアルデヒド量が測定可能(蛍光/比色)
- ・試薬の秤量が不要なため溶液調製が簡便
- ・マイクロプレート測定に対応

MDA Assay Kit は、チオバルビツール酸(TBA)とマロンジアルデヒド(MDA)の反応により生成する化合物の吸光度または蛍光を測定することで、試料中の MDA 濃度を定量できます。なお、本キットには測定過程における試料の酸化を防ぐために酸化防止剤が付属しています。

<細胞や組織サンプルで測定可能>

細胞を測定試料とする場合は、蛍光法で測定できます。組織を測定試料とする場合は、サンプル量や予想される MDA 含有量より 測定方法(蛍光法もしくは比色法)を選択できます。

	蛍光法	比色法	必要サンプル量	測定可能 MDA 濃度範囲
細胞	0	×	$1-3 \times 10^7$ cells	1-10 µmol
組織	0	0	蛍光法:10-30 mg 比色法:20-50 mg	蛍光法:1-10 μmol 比色法:1-50 μmol

測定例や参考文献はこちらから

MDA 同仁	検索
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品名	容量	希望納入価格(¥)	メーカーコード
MDA Assay Kit	100 tests	34,900	M496

耐光性トータル ROS 検出キット

ROS Assay Kit -Photo-oxidation Resistant DCFH-DA-

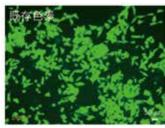
<特長>

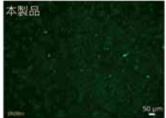
- ・励起光照射による自動酸化を低減
- ・染色後の固定化や免疫染色との共染色が可能
- ・既存の固定化可能な色素に比べ高感度

<自動酸化の比較>

断続的な励起光照射による自動酸化の様子を、本製品または既存色素で染色した HeLa 細胞で観察しました。その結果、既存色素では自動酸化により蛍光の上昇が認められるのに対して、本製品では蛍光の上昇が抑えられました。このことより、バックグラウンド上昇を最小限に抑えながら観察することが可能となります。

タイムラプスイメージングの様子は右の動画リンクから参照頂けます。







https://youtu.be/SME10sR3ZOs 観測光連続照射の比較

(12 回照射後)

品名	容量	希望納入価格(¥)	メーカーコード
ROS Assay Kit -Photo-oxidation Resistant DCFH-DA-	100 tests	40,500	R253

<使用回数の目安> 96 well plate 1 枚

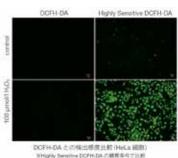
関連製品

トータル ROS 検出キット

ROS Assay Kit -Highly Sensitive DCFH-DA-

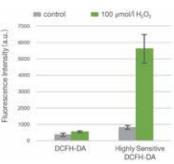
本製品は ROS(Reactive Oxygen Species)を蛍光プレートリーダー、蛍光顕微鏡、もしくはフローサイトメーターを使って蛍光法により検出するキットです。一般的に ROS により酸化されることで発蛍光する DCFH-DA が使用されますが、本キットに含まれる蛍光基質は細胞膜透過性が高く、DCFH-DA と比較してより高感度に ROS を検出することができます。また、DCFH-DA と同等の蛍光波長を有することから DCFH-DA と同じ検出器やフィルターを使用することができます。



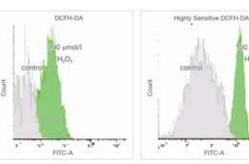


HeLa 細胞 , 1 × 10⁴ cells/well, 100 μmol/l-H₂O₂/HBSS 添加後 37℃, 30 min. インキュベート スケールバー:50 μm

プレートリーダー



フローサイトメーター



<測定条件> 蛍光顕微鏡(GFP フィルター) 露光時間 0.13 s マイクロブレートリーダー Ex = 490 nm, Em = 530 nm フローサイトメーター FITC Filter

品名	容量	希望納入価格(¥)	メーカーコード
ROS Assay Kit -Highly Sensitive DCFH-DA	100 tests	21,800	R252

<使用回数の目安> 96 well plate 1 枚

H₂O₂

新製品

リソソーム内鉄イオン測定試薬

Lyso-FerroRed

く特長>

- ・リソソームニ価鉄のライブセルイメージングが可能
- ・蛍光顕微鏡、蛍光プレートリーダー、フローサイトメーターで検出可能
- 二価鉄への高い選択性

二価鉄イオン (Fe²+) に依存した脂質過酸化物の蓄積により引き起こされる細胞死 (フェロトーシス) が Stockwell らに提唱されてから 10 年以上経過し、これまでにフェロトーシスに関する様々な研究がなされています。遊離した Fe²+ がフェントン反応により活性酸素を発生させ、脂質が酸化されることから、フェロトーシスは鉄依存性の細胞死であることが明らかになってきています。また最近では、脂質酸化により、リソソームの膜が損傷し、リソソーム中の鉄が漏出することによって、他の細胞小器官へ脂質酸化が広がっていくことが報告されています ¹)。本製品は岐阜薬科大学ケミカルバイオロジー研究室 平山祐先生ご指導の下、開発中です。

1) K. Yamada et al., Nat. Commun., 2025, 16, 2554.

<原理>

Lyso-FerroRed は細胞内のリソソームの遊離二価鉄を検出することができます。試薬を培養細胞に添加すると細胞膜を透過し、リソソームの Fe^{2+} と選択的に反応して強い蛍光を発します。Lyso-FerroRed にはキレート能はなく、Lyso-FerroRed と Fe^{2+} は非可逆的に反応するため、Fluo 3 のようなカルシウム蛍光プローブの検出原理とは異なります。

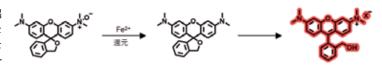


図 Lyso-FerroRed の原理

<二価鉄への高い選択性>

【実験条件】

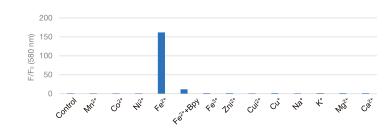
金属イオン濃度:20 μmol/l Lyso-FerroRed 濃度:2 μmol/l Buffer:50 mmol/l HEPES(pH 7.2)

反応時間:1時間

【検出条件】

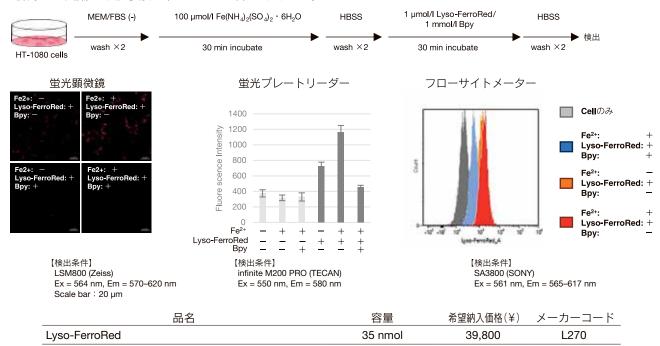
検出器: 蛍光プレートリーダー M200PRO (TECAN)

Ex = 550 nm, Em = 580 nm



<実験例:HT-1080 細胞内リソソームニ価鉄の検出>

硫酸アンモニウム鉄(II) 六水和物を用いて HT-1080 細胞に二価鉄を取り込ませ、各方法でリソソームの二価鉄を検出しました。その結果、いずれの検出器においても、二価鉄の取り込みによって細胞の蛍光強度が上がり、二価鉄のキレート剤 Bpy (2,2'-Bipyridyl) との併用により細胞の蛍光強度が下がることが確認されました。



Topics on Chemistry

Whole-Organ に適用可能な酵素活性 3D マッピング技術の開発

株式会社同仁化学研究所 野口 克也

酵素は生体機能の調節において重要な役割を担っており、その 異常はさまざまな疾患に関与することが知られている。たとえば アポトーシス時のカスパーゼ3活性や細胞老化時の SA-β-Gal 活 性など、酵素活性を測定・可視化することは病理生理学的プロセ スの理解を深めるうえで極めて有用である。近年、酵素活性を測 定するために多様な蛍光プローブが開発され、広く利用されてい る。

細胞レベルでの酵素活性イメージングは比較的容易である一方、組織レベルでは厚みが増すにつれて蛍光シグナルが減衰し、観察が困難になる。この課題を克服するために二光子顕微鏡法や近赤外蛍光プローブが開発されてきたが、特殊な装置を要するため一般の研究室では導入が難しい。また、組織透明化試薬も検討されているが、透明化過程の脱脂処理などで蛍光プローブが洗い流されてしまうという問題が残る。

そこで Yi らは、ペプチダーゼ活性の高解像度 3D マッピングを可能とするプローブを設計し、このプローブと透明化技術を組み合わせることで、全臓器(whole-organ)レベルでのペプチダーゼ活性 3D マッピングに成功した 11 。 Yi らはペプチダーゼの代表例としてアミノペプチダーゼ N(APN)を選択した。APN はペプチドの加水分解に関与し、消化、細胞シグナル伝達、免疫応答など幅広い生理機能を担ううえ、血管新生やがん細胞の浸潤・転移を調節することでがん進行にも関与すると報告されている 21 。

組織透明化処理でもプローブが洗い流されないよう、APN活性に応じて周辺タンパク質と共有結合を形成するプローブを設計した。具体的には2-または4-フルオロメチルアニリンを導入し、活性依存的に共有結合を形成する部位として利用した。この共有結合部位は、APNとの反応でフルオロメチルアニリンを生成し、続いてフッ化物脱離反応を経て高反応性中間体アザキノンメチドを生成する。生成した中間体が近傍タンパク質と共有結合することで、酵素活性がある周辺にプローブが残存する。この設計思想に基づき、アルキン基を有する4種類のプローブを合成した。アルキン基を導入することで、アジド基を持つ蛍光色素とのクリック反応により可視化が可能となる。

合成したプローブを APN を高発現する HT1080 細胞に適用し、アジド -BODIPY とクリック反応させたところ、ANA-o プローブが 最も 強い 蛍光 シグナル を 示した。阻害剤 (50 μ mol/I Phebestin) 存在下ではシグナルが大幅に減少し、特異性が確認された。その他のプローブでは膜透過性や非特異反応に課題が残った。

ANA-o-BODIPY

図 2 ANA-o-BODIPY

続いてマウス腎臓組織切片に ANA-o を適用したところ、ANA-o 由来のシグナルが観察され、APN 免疫染色の結果と一致した。あらかじめ APN 阻害剤を処理した組織ではシグナルが大幅に抑制され、ANA-o が APN 活性依存的に共有結合していることが示された。

さらに、クリック反応で BODIPY を結合した ANA-o-BODIPY を合成し、その特異性と透明化処理耐性を確認したうえでマウスへ静脈投与した。固定後に脱脂・透明化処理を行い、ライトシート蛍光顕微鏡で 3D 観察した結果、皮質および外髄質に強い蛍光シグナルが観察され、腎臓全体の立体的な APN 活性分布を取得できた。さらに APN 阻害剤(Phebestin, Actinonin)を用いたところ、阻害剤ごとに空間的に異なる抑制パターンが確認され、各阻害剤の吸収・代謝・組織透過性の差異を反映している可能性が示唆された。

以上より、酵素反応特異的に近傍で共有結合するプローブと組織透明化処理を組み合わせることで、従来困難であった全臓器レベルの酵素活性イメージングが可能となることが示された。プローブ設計を変更すれば APN 以外の酵素にも適用可能であり、複数酵素活性を同時に多色イメージングできる汎用性の高い技術と考えられる。本技術により空間的解析が可能となることで、阻害剤評価など創薬開発や疾患研究への応用が期待される。 [参考文献]

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図 1 APN プローブ (ANA-o) を使用したイメージング原理

連載

生命科学の最前線

~タイ王国研究者の現場から~ ①

小社が立地する熊本にある熊本大学とパートナーシップ協定を結んでいるタイの大学研究者によるライフサイエンス分野の連載(4回)をお届けします。

Exploiting Acquired Vulnerability to Develop Novel Treatments for Cholangiocarcinoma



Sirayot Areewong

Department of Pharmacology and Siriraj Center of Research Excellence for Cancer Precision Medicine & Systems Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University



Sunisa Prasopporn

Department of Pharmacology and Siriraj Center of Research Excellence for Cancer Precision Medicine & Systems Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University



Orawan Suppramote

Princess Srisavangavadhana College of Medicine, Chulabhorn Royal Academy



Siwanon Jirawatnotai

Department of Pharmacology and Siriraj Center of Research Excellence for Cancer Precision Medicine & Systems Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University

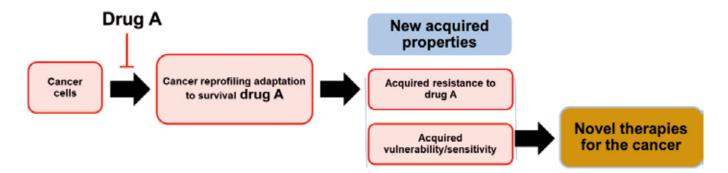
Abstract

Cancer's adaptive capacity under therapeutic pressure constitutes a fundamental challenge in oncology, frequently culminating in treatment failure due to acquired resistance. Drug-induced adaptation plays a critical role in various malignancies, including colorectal, liver, glioma, and cholangiocarcinoma (CCA). A comprehensive characterization of cancer adaptation trajectories in response to specific therapeutic interventions enables the preemptive circumvention of resistance *via* rational drug combinations or the strategic exploitation of acquired vulnerabilities through synthetic lethality. Our laboratory is at the forefront of advancing this paradigm, particularly in the context of CCA — a highly lethal malignancy with significant prevalence in Thailand and East Asian countries. Through rigorous screening methodologies, we have systematically identified emergent vulnerabilities in drug-resistant CCA and validated these findings using tumoroid models and *in vivo* systems. Additionally, we have delineated key resistance trajectories under diverse treatment regimens, providing a mechanistic foundation for the development of novel therapeutic strategies. Our ongoing research program remains committed to elucidating the molecular determinants that govern CCA's response to pharmacological interventions. By integrating experimental insights with translational applications, we aim to contribute clinically actionable solutions that enhance therapeutic efficacy and improve patient outcomes in the management of this disease.

Overview of CCA as a Therapeutic Challenge

CCA is the second most common primary hepatic malignancy. Known for its extensive heterogeneity, silent clinical manifestations, and frequent late diagnosis, most patients are diagnosed with unresectable tumors. Current treatment options rely primarily on pharmacological approaches rather than surgery. Standard first-line therapies such as the gemcitabine/cisplatin (GEM/CIS) combination yield only modest

improvements in overall survival (OS). Although efforts to enhance these results with additional agents (e.g., TS-1, nab-paclitaxel, or immune checkpoint inhibitors) have been made, the benefits remain limited. Second-line regimens, including FOLFOX (fluorouracil, oxaliplatin, and leucovorin), also only marginally extend survival, and targeted therapies addressing genetic mutations (e.g., FGFR2, IDH1/2) are applicable in only a small subset of patients¹⁾.



The concept of acquired vulnerability. Drug-naive cancer cells can develop resistance to drug A upon exposure. This resistance is accompanied by targetable molecular/pathway alterations, known as acquired vulnerabilities. These vulnerabilities may be exploited as novel therapies for the drug-resistance cancer in two ways: (1) by targeting acquired dependencies on survival mechanisms induced by drug A or (2) by targeting acquired decompensations where cancer cells cannot fully mitigate drug A-induced damage

The Need for Novel Strategies

Due to CCA's adaptability and rapid development of treatment resistance, there is an urgent need for alternative therapeutic paradigm. Instead of solely focusing on directly inhibiting oncogenic drivers or conventional survival pathways, we are exploring the concept of "acquired vulnerability." This approach turns the cancer's adaptive resistance into a therapeutic opportunity by targeting the weaknesses the cells acquire while evolving resistance. These insights may lead to designing combination regimens capable of achieving markedly improved clinical outcomes.

Defining Acquired Vulnerability

When cancer cells are exposed to initial drug treatments, they undergo significant molecular reprogramming to counteract therapeutic pressure. In doing so, the cells "pay a price" for their resistance by developing new weaknesses — referred to as acquired vulnerabilities or collateral sensitivities⁴⁾. Essentially, while resistant cells evade the effects of the primary drug, they become more susceptible to a secondary intervention that targets the reprogrammed survival mechanism (Figure 1).

Historical Context and Early Observations

Early studies dating back to the 1950s noted that resistance to one drug could lead to increased sensitivity to another. Initial work in leukemia models and subsequent microbial studies, like those by Szybalski and colleagues, established the principle of "collateral sensitivity." We expand upon these early observations by applying the concept of acquired vulnerability to cholangiocarcinoma, demonstrating how treatment-induced adaptations create new targetable weaknesses.

Mechanistic Underpinnings⁴⁾

Unlike classic genetic resistance mechanisms, which can be detected by DNA sequencing, acquired vulnerability typically arises from non-genetic adaptations — including altered gene expression, posttranslational modifications, and reorganization of cellular signaling networks. These changes force the cancer cells to become "addicted" to the alternative survival pathways they establish under treatment pressure, thereby opening a window for targeted secondary therapies.

Diverse Mechanistic Categories which cancer acquired vulnerabilities manifest:

1. Apoptotic Pathway Dysregulation:

Resistant cells may downregulate pro-apoptosis or exhibit upregulation of inhibitors of apoptosis proteins (IAPs). Such reprogramming can be exploited with agents like TRAIL receptor agonists or SMAC mimetics that induce apoptosis.

2. Cell Cycle Dysregulation:

Alterations such as the loss of CDKN2A or the overexpression of cyclins (e.g., cyclin D1) force cells to depend on compensatory cell cycle pathways. Combining CDK inhibitors with agents targeting these compensatory mechanisms has been shown to induce effective cell death.

3. Growth Signaling Rewiring:

When cells inhibit their primary survival pathways (e.g., receptor tyrosine kinases or MAPK pathways), they often become reliant on alternative pathways such as the PI3K/AKT/mTOR axis. This dependency can be targeted using specific inhibitors.

4. Oxidative and Metabolic Stress:

Many resistant cancer cells modulate their levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by altering antioxidant responses or metabolic pathways. Agents that either further disrupt this balance or force a metabolic shift (e.g., from glycolysis to mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation) can trigger lethal oxidative damage.

5. Protein Synthesis and Ribosomal Stress:

In response to certain inhibitors (e.g., CDK4/6 inhibitors), resistant cholangiocarcinoma cells may increase ribosomal biogenesis factors, making them particularly vulnerable to drugs that impair nucleolar function (e.g., oxaliplatin).

6. Hypoxic and DNA Repair Stress:

Prolonged treatment can induce dependencies on specific DNA repair mechanisms (such as the ATR/CHK1 pathway) or lead to intracellular hypoxia. Inhibiting these pathways can result in catastrophic DNA damage and cell death.

Identification Strategies and Combination Therapeutic Approaches⁴⁾

The identification of these vulnerabilities relies on a combination of comparative drug screening and high-throughput molecular analyses:

- · Comparative Drug Screening:
 - Researchers generate resistant cell clones by exposing CCA cell lines to primary drugs (e.g., GEM/CIS). These resistant clones are then compared alongside drug-naïve cells using a broad library of compounds. Agents that selectively impair the resistant cells are flagged as potential secondary treatments.
- Omics and Molecular Analyses:

Techniques such as proteomics, transcriptomics, and chromatin accessibility assays help elucidate the reprogrammed signaling networks. This process not only identifies critical pathways but also aids in discovering surrogate biomarkers that could be used clinically for patient stratification.

Validation Using Advanced Models

For clinical translation, findings from *in vitro* screens are validated using patient-derived organoids (PDOs) and patient-derived xenografts (PDXs), which serve as "avatar" models. These models capture the unique heterogeneity of individual tumors, enabling personalized validation of drug combinations and adjustments for each patient's specific tumor biology.

Combination Strategies and Regimen Scheduling

A key insight is that exploiting acquired vulnerabilities is most effective when secondary treatments are combined with the primary therapy rather than being used alone. Different scheduling approaches are considered:

- Sequential Dosing: Secondary agents are introduced only after resistance develops.
- Preconcomitant Dosing: Secondary agents are administrated at the outset alongside the primary drug to preempt resistance.
- Postconcomitant Dosing: Combination therapy is initiated only after the resistance phenotype is observed.

Continuous exposure to the primary therapy may be necessary to maintain the vulnerability, as intermittent dosing or prolonged drug holidays might allow cancer cells to revert to their original state.

Discoveries of the acquired vulnerability-targeting therapy in CCA

We have demonstrated distinguish targeting strategies for the CCA that developed drug resistance to the first-line treatment gemcitabine + cisplatin (GEM/CIS) and the CDK4/6 inhibitor.

SMAC Mimetic and GEM/CIS in CCA5)

We examined CCA cells that had acquired resistance to the standard GEM/CIS regimen. We observed that prolonged chemotherapy exposure led to upregulation of the anti-apoptotic protein cIAP2 — a key regulator in the inhibition of apoptosis. This reprogramming, while conferring resistance to GEM/CIS, simultaneously created a susceptibility to agents targeting cIAP2. Treatment with the SMAC mimetic LCL161 effectively downregulated cIAP2 levels. When combined with GEM/CIS, LCL161 not only restored sensitivity in resistant CCA cell lines but also produced a strong synergistic effect in both *in vitro* experiments and *in vivo* xenograft models. This combination inhibited the emergence of further multidrug resistance,

suggesting that exploiting the cancer's compensatory upregulation of anti-apoptotic proteins may enhance the efficacy of standard chemotherapy.

CDK4/6 Inhibition – Induced Vulnerability Exploited by Oxaliplatin/Palbociclib combination®

The second study focused on an alternative approach: inducing an acquired vulnerability by inhibiting CDK4/6. Treatment of CCA cells with a CDK4/6 inhibitor (palbociclib) resulted in adaptive reprogramming characterized by significant overexpression of the ribosomal protein RPL29. This elevation of RPL29 is associated with the resistance to CDK4/6 inhibition. However, this same reprogramming creates a dependency on the ribosomal biogenesis pathway — a vulnerability that can be exploited. When oxaliplatin, an agent known to disrupt nucleolar function and protein synthesis, was combined with palbociclib, the treatment induced RPL29 suppression. This triggered a cascade involving RPL5/11-mediated inhibition of MDM2, stabilization of p53, and ultimately, cancer cell apoptosis. The combination of oxaliplatin with palbociclib cleared resistant cells more effectively than when the drugs were used separately, highlighting the potential of leveraging an induced ribosomal stress vulnerability to overcome drug resistance.

Both of our studies highlighted a conceptual shift in cancer treatment strategies. They illustrate that the very adaptations cancer cells use to evade therapies can be exploited as weaknesses.vThese complementary approaches support the concept of "acquired vulnerability" as a means of designing combination regimens. Rather than considering drug resistance as an insurmountable barrier, these findings suggest that it represents an opportunity to intervene with secondary agents that specifically target the reprogrammed survival mechanisms in resistant cells. Both investigations relied on comprehensive in vitro assays, xenograft models, and — where available — patient-derived tumoroids/organoids to validate their observations. Their preclinical success paves the way for future clinical trials which might incorporate these drug combinations into treatment protocols for patients with CCA.

Challenges and Future Directions

Although the concept of acquired vulnerability is both innovative and promising, several challenges must be addressed before such strategies can be widely implemented in the clinic: Biomarker Development:

Acquired vulnerabilities often arise from non-genetic changes. Therefore, conventional genomic tests may be insufficient, and the discovery of reliable biomarkers is essential for proper patient selection and treatment monitoring. Tumor Heterogeneity:

Inherent variability within and between tumors makes the application of a single strategy difficult. Personalized approaches using PDOs or PDXs are necessary to tailor treatments, although this can complicate clinical trial designs. Optimization of Drug Combinations:

While preclinical studies have identified promising combinations that demonstrate synergy, translating these findings into the clinical setting requires careful balancing to reduce toxicity while maximizing efficacy. Dynamic Nature of Vulnerability: Acquired vulnerability is not a permanent trait; it

can fluctuate or disappear if the selective pressure of the primary therapy is removed. Maintaining this vulnerability through continuous or appropriately scheduled dosing is critical.

We envision an integrated strategy where innovative technologies — such as single-cell sequencing and cellular barcoding — are used to further elucidate and track acquired vulnerabilities over time. Expanding research into additional aspects of tumor biology, including epigenetic modifications and microenvironment interactions, may unlock new therapeutic targets. Well-designed clinical trials that incorporate adaptive treatment approaches based on these evolving vulnerabilities hold the potential for significantly improved patient outcomes.

Conclusion

We redefine drug resistance in CCA by demonstrating that the very process of acquiring resistance leads to the emergence of exploitable weaknesses. By classifying acquired vulnerabilities — from apoptotic and cell cycle dysregulation to metabolic reprogramming and ribosomal stress — and outlining robust strategies for their detection and exploitation, the paper sets a comprehensive framework for developing novel, adaptive combination therapies. Although challenges remain, the potential to transform management not only for CCA but for other treatment-resistant cancers is compelling, heralding a promising new direction in personalized oncology.

This paradigm shift — moving from a singular focus on genetic mutations to dynamically targeting adaptive cellular changes — could revolutionize how we treat various cancers. With continuous monitoring and adaptive drug scheduling, the approach of exploiting acquired vulnerability may lead to more durable responses and improved survival outcomes for patients facing aggressive and heterogeneous malignancies.

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[Contact]

Sirayot Areewong

Department of Pharmacology and Siriraj Center of Research Excellence for Cancer Precision Medicine & Systems Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University, 10700, Bangkok, Thailand Email: sirayot.are@student.mahidol.edu
Current research area: Acquired drug resistance in cancer

Sunisa Prasopporn

Department of Pharmacology and Siriraj Center of Research Excellence for Cancer Precision Medicine & Systems Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University, 10700, Bangkok, Thailand

Email: sunisa.prs@mahidol.ac.th

Current research area: Cancer acquired drug resistance, epigenetic controls in cancer cell, *in vivo* cancer models, cholangiocarcinoma

Orawan Suppramote

Princess Srisavangavadhana College of Medicine, Chulabhorn Royal Academy, 906 Kampangpetch 6 Rd., Talat Bang Khen, Lak Si, 10210, Bangkok, Thailand.

Email: orawan.sup@cra.ac.th

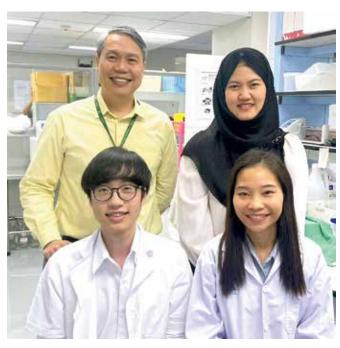
Current research area: Molecular oncology, systems pharmacology, proteomics

Siwanon Jirawatnotai

Department of Pharmacology and Siriraj Center of Research Excellence for Cancer Precision Medicine & Systems Pharmacology, Faculty of Medicine, Siriraj Hospital, Mahidol University, 10700, Bangkok, Thailand

Email: siwanon.jir@mahidol.ac.th

Current research area: Cancer acquired drug resistance, cell cycle regulations in cancer, cholangiocarcinoma, cancer genetics, epigenetic controls in cancer cell, cancer precision medicine



Cholangiocarcinoma acquired vulnerability research team

微量金属分析のご案内 - 同仁グローカル

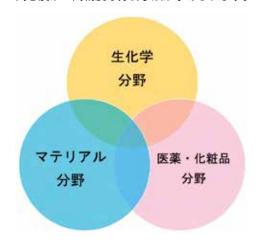
様々な分野・目的に沿った微量金属分析をご提案します。

設備や時間に制約があるなかで微量金属分析の有効なデータを得るためには、機器の準備や分析環境の整備、前処理を含む詳細な 条件設定など多くの労力を要します。よりスピーディーでよりスムーズなデータ取りとなるよう、豊富な知見で研究・開発・品質管 理をサポートいたします。

また、分析にあたっては、ご提案から結果の説明まで綿密なディスカッションを行っており、「新たな視点で結果をみることができた」とのお声も多くいただいております。

<微量金属分析の目的・分野>

現代の科学技術において、微量金属の正確な定量・定性分析は、環境保全、医療診断、材料開発、食品安全など多岐にわたる分野で不可欠な役割を果たしています。これらの金属元素は、極めて微量であっても生体や環境に大きな影響を及ぼすことがあるため、高感度かつ高精度な分析手法が求められます。



細胞内(培養細胞、動物、植物、藻類、微生物) における金属イオンの網羅的解析

材料中の微量金属不純物分析 電池・燃料電池、鉄鋼・非鉄金属、シリコン、 セラミックス、3D プリンター用金属粉末、肥料など

医薬品、化粧品、医薬品原料、化粧品原料、 サプリメントの微量金属イオンの網羅的分析 (毒性金属の含有量分析など)

<使用機器と弊社対応>

同仁グローカルでは、アジレント・テクノロジー株式会社の誘導結合プラズマ発光質量装置(Agilent 7850 ICP-MS)を導入し、2025年4月より稼働しております。

・検体の性状に応じた前処理

水質をはじめ、材料(原料)や生体サンプルなどに含まれる微量金属分析において、検体の性状に合わせた 検体の前処理方法をご提案致します。

・信頼できる分析結果

機器の定期校正とトレーサビリティはもちろん、分析における精度管理を行い、分析結果の信頼性を常に確認しております。

・柔軟な対応力

お客様の多様な目的に対応するため、特定のニーズに合わせた分析ができるよう、Webミーティングにて擦合せ、分析方法をご提案致します。



多検体の微量金属分析もお請けしております。詳細は同仁グローカル Web からごお問い合わせください。

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検索

バイオフィルム関連製品

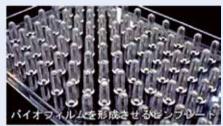
バイオフィルム関連製品群は、バイオフィルムの形成量や生存率を測定することで、バイオフィルムの形成を抑制する薬剤や素材の開発、殺菌剤の検討に利用することができます。既存法の課題であった均一なバイオフィルム形成をピンプレートや試験片に形成させることで、簡便に培養や形成量の測定、バイオフィルム中の微生物の生存率を、精度よく多検体で測定することができます。

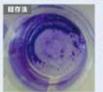
■ バイオフィルムの形成条件や形成量の測定用キット

Biofilm Formation Assay Kit



従来のマイクロプレート底面に形成させる方法では難しかった均一なバイオフィルムをピンプレートに形成させ測定することで、ばらつきの少ないデータを精度よく測定できます。バイオフィルム形成条件の検討にご利用できます。







■ バイオフィルム中の微生物生存率の測定用キット

Biofilm Viability Assay Kit



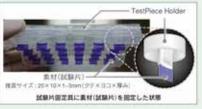


ピンプレートに形成させたバイオフィルム中の微生物生存率を WST 法によって測定できます。バイオフィルム内微生物に対する抗菌剤の検討などに利用できます。

■ 抗菌素材の開発に役立つ試験片用の測定キット

Biofilm TestPiece Assay Kit





試験片素材をホルダーに固定して均一なバイオフィルムを形成させ、クリスタルバイオレット法で測定することで、抗菌性素材の開発に利用できます。

品名	容量	希望納入価格(¥)	メーカーコード
Biofilm Formation Assay Kit	96 tests	19,600	B601
Biofilm Viability Assay Kit	96 tests	22,500	B603
Biofilm TestPiece Assay Kit	24 tests	30,200	B606



小社へのお問い合わせ等は下記 HP よりお願いします URL: https://www.dojindo.co.jp/

次号テーマ

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