Phospholipase A₂ expression in tumours: a target for therapeutic intervention?

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Phospholipase A_2 (PLA₂) enzymes are involved in lipid metabolism and, as such, are central to several cellular processes. The different PLA₂s identified to date can be classified into three groups: secreted PLA₂ (sPLA₂), calcium-independent PLA₂ (iPLA₂) and calcium-dependent cytosolic PLA₂ (cPLA₂). In addition to their role in cellular signalling, PLA₂s have been implicated in diverse pathological conditions, including inflammation, tissue repair and cancer. Elevated levels of sPLA₂ and cPLA₂ have been reported in several tumour types. Here, we summarize the current views on the PLA₂s, and look at their expression, role in human malignancy and potential as targets for anticancer drug development.

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▼ A major drawback of anticancer agents used in the clinic today, is their lack of tumour specificity and their consequent activity against non-tumour cells. Therefore, a great deal of research is focused upon either increasing the tumour specificity of current therapeutics or developing new tumourspecific anticancer agents. Many of these strategies involve targeting of tumour vasculature, tumour hypoxia regions or tumour physiology. One area of tumour physiology under investigation for drug development is tumour-specific enzyme expression, either as a direct therapeutic target or as an activator of prodrugs to their cytotoxic derivative. This review highlights one potential group of enzymes, the phospholipase A₂ family (PLA₂), and examines their potential as targets for anticancer therapeutic agents.

The case for PLA₂s

Membrane phospholipids consist of a glycerol backbone, to which 2 long-chain fatty acids are bound at the sn-1 and sn-2 positions and a phosphate-containing head group at the sn-3

position (Fig. 1). The fatty acids located at position sn-2 are generally highly saturated, often possessing 1-5 double bonds, e.g. arachidonic acid (AA). The PLA2 family consists of a wide variety of enzymes that hydrolyze the sn-2 ester bond of phospholipids, creating a lysophospholipid and releasing a fatty acid predominantly AA [1]. Once released, AA is further processed by cyclooxygenases (COX-1 and COX-2) or lipoxygenase (LOX) to form eicosanoids, including prostaglandins and leukotrienes. Eicosanoids are central mediators of inflammation [2] and several, such as prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), are mitogenic [3]. The observation that many tumours have elevated eicosanoid levels [4,5] highlights their central role in tumour development and confirms their validity as potential targets for therapeutic intervention. Consequently, PLA2s can be seen as fulfilling a significant role in cancer development and treatment.

The mammalian PLA_2 enzymes have been broadly classified into three groups: (1) low-molecular-weight Ca^{2+} -dependent secretory phospholipase A_2 (sPLA₂); (2) high-molecular-weight Ca^{2+} -dependent cytosolic phospholipase A_2 (cPLA₂); and (3) Ca^{2+} -independent phospholipase A_2 (iPLA₂). These will each be discussed in turn.

Secreted PLA₂s (sPLA₂)

Characteristics of sPLA₂

The secretory phospholipases are the largest branch of the mammalian phospholipase A_2 family, with ten structurally different members identified so far [1,6]. They share several characteristics: all are between 14–19 kDa, require millimolar concentrations of Ca^{2+} for enzymatic activation, are secreted from cells

and are consequently found extracellularly. Despite these shared features, the sPLA2s demonstrate a diverse range of physiological functions and signalling properties, many of which appear to be tissue-specific [1,7].

The first sPLA₂ was discovered in pancreatic juice and is now termed 'group IB' sPLA₂ [1]. Following this, a second sPLA₂ enzyme was isolated from human arthritic synovial fluid and named sPLA2 or group IIA sPLA2 [1]. This family member has subsequently been shown to be induced during inflammation in a wide selection of tissues. A further eight sPLA₂ family members have been identified: these are groups IIC, V, X, IID, IIE, IIF, III and XII in historical order of identification (reviewed in [1]).

By definition, all sPLA₂s hydrolyze the ester bond at the sn-2 position of membrane phospholipids (Fig. 1) in the presence of millimolar concentrations of Ca²⁺. However, unlike other PLA2 family members, sPLA2s do not demonstrate any specific fatty acid selectivity. Differences also exist within the sPLA₂ subfamily with respect to the type of phospholipids cleaved. For example, group II sPLA2s (IIA, IIC, IID, IIE, IIF) preferentially act upon anionic rather than neutral phospholipids, whereas groups V and X demonstrate no such preference. These differences in substrate specificity suggest diverse cellular functions for the various sPLA2 enzyme subtypes [1]. With the exception of sPLA₂-IIA, little is known about the other group II sPLA₂ members (IID, IIE, IIF, V and X) with regards to their biological function, relationships to other cellular systems or roles in disease processes [8].

One of the main functions of sPLA₂-IIA and, potentially, other group II members, is in inflammation mediation (Fig. 2). The expression of sPLA2-IIA is inducible by proinflammatory cytokines, such as tumour necrosis factor α (TNF- α) and interleukin 1 β (IL-1 β) (Fig. 2) [9,10], and is downregulated by anti-inflammatory cytokines [11] and glucocorticoids [12] in several diverse cell and tissue types [8]. In addition to a pro-inflammatory role, sPLA2-IIA also has anti-bacterial and atherosclerotic properties [13,14].

*sPLA*₂ *expression in tumours*

More recently, sPLA2-IIA has been suggested to have a central role in both tumour development and progression [15-17]. The elevated gene and protein expression of sPLA₂-IIA observed in human colorectal adenomas from familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) patients, supported the hypothesis that sPLA2-IIA dysregulation is an early step in colorectal tumourigenesis [17]. Significantly higher levels of sPLA2-IIA have also been demonstrated in neoplastic prostatic tissue, compared with benign prostatic glands [15]. However, in this study, no correlation was observed between sPLA2-IIA expression and either

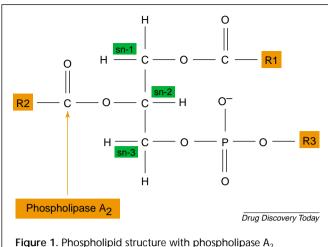


Figure 1. Phospholipid structure with phospholipase A₂ cleavage site.

Gleason grade (indicating severity of prostate cancer), patient age, tumour stage or presence of metastasis [15]. Conversely, Graff et al. demonstrated that sPLA2-IIA expression in the prostate increased with progression to androgen independence, and was inversely related to patient survival [16]. Taken together, these data also suggest sPLA₂-IIA upregulation as an early event in prostate tumourigenesis. Comparative expression of sPLA2-IIA protein expression was also observed in other organs and their malignant counterparts, such as the gastric mucosa [18,19], pancreas [20], small bowel and colon [21,22]: this further supports a central role for sPLA2 in human tumourigenesis.

sPLA₂ as a tumour suppressor gene?

Mutations of the Adenomatous Polyposis Coli (APC) gene have been associated with the development of both sporadic and familial human colorectal tumours [23]. Similarly, mice carrying a dominant mutation in their APC homologue are also predisposed to intestinal adenoma formation, a condition termed Min1 (multiple intestinal neoplasia). In these mice, a second locus was identified, termed Mom1 (modifier of Min1), which modifies both the number and size of polyps produced [23,24]. Interestingly, Mom1 has now been identified as the sPLA₂-IIA gene [23-25], highlighting it as a negative modifier of tumour development. Further to this, the addition of a cosmid transgene overexpressing sPLA2-IIA has the effect of reducing tumour multiplicity in Min1 mice [7]. These data strongly suggest a tumour-suppressive role for sPLA₂-IIA, albeit in murine colorectal carcinogenesis.

At present, information regarding sPLA2-IIA as a human tumour suppressor remains inconclusive. Hemizygous deletion of the sPLA₂-IIA gene, observed in

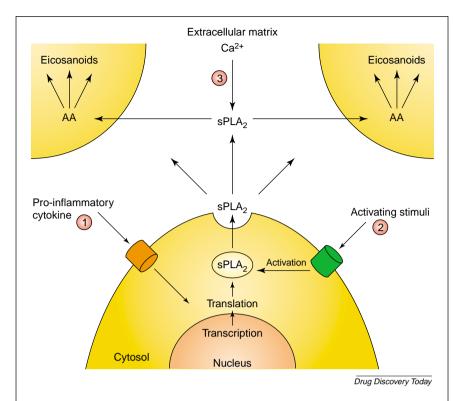


Figure 2. sPLA $_2$ participating in an inflammatory response. (1) Pro-inflammatory cytokines such as tumour necrosis factor α (TNF- α) or interleukin 1 β (IL-1 β) induce cellular expression of sPLA $_2$. (2) Activating factors cause release of sPLA $_2$ from secretory granules into the extracellular matrix. (3) In the presence of millimolar concentrations of Ca $^{2+}$, sPLA $_2$ hydrolyzes membrane-bound phospholipids of neighbouring cells. Released fatty acids, such as arachidonic acid, are further metabolized into eicosanoids, generating an inflammatory response in neighbouring cells.

human neuroblastoma and colorectal carcinomas [26,27], supports this theory, as do positive correlations between sPLA₂-IIA expression, prolonged patient survival and decreased metastatic frequency in human gastric adenocarcinoma [19]. By contrast, the lack of genetic mutations of sPLA₂-IIA in human colorectal carcinomas [23,27-29], neuroblastoma [26,29] or melanoma [29] tumours and cell lines would suggest the converse. Similarly, the elevated sPLA2-IIA levels observed in small bowel adenocarcinomas [22], and positive correlations observed between sPLA₂-IIA expression, proliferative index and increased tumour grade in the prostate [15,16], offer no support for sPLA₂-IIA as a tumour suppressor. Inhibition of sPLA₂ activity has been shown to inhibit proliferation, induce apoptosis and suppress angiogenesis [30-32], suggesting that sPLA₂-IIA expression is pro-tumourigenic rather than tumour-suppressive. Furthermore, the recent identification of a second Min1 modifier locus, termed Mom2 [33,34], demonstrates a stronger effect on polyp multiplicity in mice than Mom1. This, therefore, questions the putative tumour suppressor role of sPLA₂ (Mom1). Further studies are required to clarify whether the contradictory roles of sPLA₂-IIA are due to species, tissue- or cell-specific responses. Despite this, it is clear that sPLA₂-IIA has a potentially important role in tumour development and, thus, also in therapy.

sPLA₂ as a target for cancer therapy

As a result of its central role in eicosanoid formation and the inflammatory response (Fig. 2), inhibition of sPLA2-IIA expression and activity is currently under investigation as an anti-inflammatory therapeutic approach [35,36]. Several PLA₂ inhibitors have been proposed as potential anti-inflammatory drugs [37]. Of these inhibitors, those which do not enter the cell are proving most effective [35]: cell impermeable or extracellular PLA₂ inhibitors have the potential to limit inflammation by selectively inhibiting extracellular PLA2s, at the same time enabling the continued 'housekeeping' activities of intracellular PLA2s [35].

Recently, the increased expression and activity of sPLA₂-IIA observed in human tumours has been suggested as a putative target for anticancer therapeutics [35,38], with sPLA₂ inhibitors being shown to

significantly retard proliferation of intestinal tumour cells *in vitro* [30] and inhibit prostate tumour cell invasion [39]. Moreover, sPLA₂ inhibition has been shown to inhibit endothelial cell proliferation, retard endothelial cell migration and suppress blood vessel formation [32], suggesting the use of sPLA₂ inhibitors as anti-angiogenic therapeutics.

More recently, an sPLA₂-IIA-mediated anticancer therapeutic strategy was suggested by Davidsen *et al.* [38]. They proposed that the increased sPLA₂-IIA levels present in the tumour extracellular matrix could be used to enzymatically activate liposomal prodrugs to potent anticancer etherlipids [38]. The enzymatic cleavage of these inactive prodrugs by tumour-secreted sPLA₂ was shown to cause tumour growth inhibition, an effect that was significantly hindered by an sPLA₂ inhibitor [38]. This concept is also backed by Zerouga *et al.*, who synthesized a prodrug containing a fatty acid and the cytotoxic drug, methotrexate [40]: this was shown to cause dose-dependent inhibition of leukemia cell proliferation *in vitro* [40]. If this theory is valid, such liposomal prodrugs could be introduced systemically and should only be activated in

those regions of the body where high concentrations of sPLA2 would exist, such as in the microenvironment surrounding a tumour [38]. It is clear, however, that further research is needed to substantiate these theories.

Ca2+ independent enzymes (iPLA2)

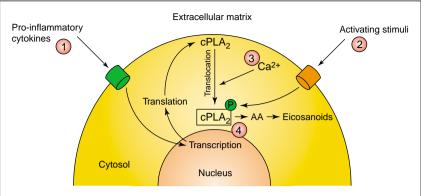
Characteristics of iPLA₂

The Group VIA or iPLA2s were first isolated from a murine macrophage-like cell line. At least three active forms of this 85-88 kDa enzyme have now been identified, termed VIA1, VIA2 and VIB (reviewed in [1]). Several other splice variants of these proteins have also been identified but these are believed to act as dominantnegative inhibitors for active iPLA₂s [1]. Both iPLA₂-VIA and -VIB are ubiquitously expressed in several cell and tissue types [1,41], show no requirement for Ca2+ to function, and show no clear phospholipid

substrate specificity [1,37,41]. Unlike other phospholipases, iPLA2s do not preferentially target phospholipids that will yield AA [42].

iPLA2 as a housekeeper enzyme

The main function of the iPLA2s is believed to be as a 'housekeeper' within cells, controlling phospholipid levels and maintaining homeostasis through remodelling of membrane structures [37,43]. In contrast to sPLA₂, iPLA2s do not appear to partake directly in the inflammatory response. Cells modified to express iPLA2 and then stimulated with IL-1\beta (a promoter of inflammation), show the same production of AA as wild-type cells [44]. Other than its housekeeping role, studies have suggested that iPLA2 might be involved in stimulus-coupled fatty acid release and apoptosis [1,45]. For example, agonistinduced PGE₂ production is attenuated by antisense oligonucleotides for iPLA2, whereas overexpression of iPLA2 leads to increased fatty acid release [1]. The link between iPLA2 and apoptosis is demonstrated by the observation that iPLA2 inhibition delays cell death induced by the Fas receptor, whereas Fas-induced apoptosis is accompanied by increased phospholipase activity [45]. Furthermore, in apoptotic cells, iPLA2-VIA is cleaved by caspase proteases resulting in iPLA2 activation and increased fatty acid release [45]. These findings would suggest that iPLA2 is active during apoptosis and might be responsible for the associated remodelling of cell membranes. Although iPLA₂ has been implicated in apoptosis, no study



Drug Discovery Today

Figure 3. Activation of cPLA₂-α. (1) Pro-inflammatory cytokines including tumour necrosis factor α induce expression of cPLA₂- α . (2) Activation leads to mitogen-activated protein kinase-pathway-directed phosphorylation of cPLA₂- α . (3) Extracellular influx or mobilization of intracellular stores of Ca2+ bring about cPLA₂-α translocation from the cytosol to perinuclear membranes. This brings cPLA₂-α in close proximity to both its substrate and enzymes involved with eicosanoid synthesis. (4) Activated cPLA₂-α lyses membrane phospholipids providing arachidonic acid (AA) to a range of enzymes involved with eicosanoid synthesis, specifically COX and LOX.

has yet identified differential activity in human tumours, suggesting a lack of suitability as an exploitable anticancer therapeutic target.

Calcium dependent PLA₂ (cPLA₂)

Characteristics of cPLA₂

Three different cPLA₂s – cPLA₂ α , β and γ – have been isolated and classified into groups IVA, IVB, IVC, respectively [6,46]. Of these isoforms, cPLA₂α has been studied most extensively. cPLA₂α is an 85 kDa serine esterase, which is found in a wide range of tissues except lymphocytes [6,47]. By contrast, cPLA₂β is a 114 kDa enzyme expressed predominantly in the cerebellum and pancreas, and cPLA₂γ is a 61 kDa enzyme expressed predominantly in skeletal muscle [46]. In its inactive state, cPLA₂α is located within the cytosol of the cell. Activation of cPLA₂ α is regulated by cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ levels and by phosphorylation, which, in turn, causes it to translocate from the cytosol to perinuclear membranes (Fig. 3), such as the golgi, endoplasmic reticulum and nuclear envelope [1,47]. Sufficient increased intracellular levels of Ca²⁺ to cause cPLA₂α translocation are brought about by mobilization of Ca2+ from internal cellular stores or from extracellular sources [48]. The translocation of cPLA₂ α is important for two reasons: first, it enables interaction between the enzyme and its substrate membrane phospholipids and, second, it brings the enzyme into close proximity to other downstream enzymes involved with eicosanoid synthesis, specifically COX and LOX [6].

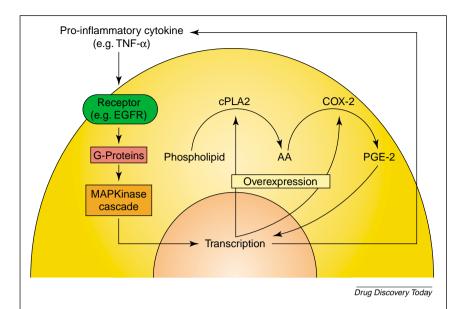


Figure 4. Model of constitutive overexpression of $cPLA_2$ and COX-2 in tumour cells (reviewed in [4]).

In addition to a requirement for Ca^{2+} , maximal activity of $cPLA_2\alpha$ requires sustained phosphorylation of defined amino acids within its structure. Examination of the molecular structure of $cPLA_2$ revealed four serine residues that might undergo phosphorylation (Ser^{437} , Ser^{454} , Ser^{505} , Ser^{727}) [49,50]. Further studies revealed that the phosphorylations of Ser^{505} and Ser^{727} were the most important for enzymatic activity: they are mediated by mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) and by MAPK-activated protein kinases, respectively [49,50]. Phosphorylated $cPLA_2\alpha$ is generally unable to release arachidonic acid without an accompanying increase in Ca^{2+} levels, indicating that both phosphorylation and sub-micromolar Ca^{2+} concentrations are required for activity.

cPLA $_2\alpha$ is highly selective towards phospholipids that have AA at the sn-2 position (Fig. 1) [48,51]. Sequence analysis of cPLA $_2\beta$ revealed regions homologous to the Ca $^{2+}$ and lipid-binding domains of cPLA $_2\alpha$, and Ca $^{2+}$ dependent activity [6]. cPLA $_2\gamma$ appears to be membrane-bound and, due to a lack of both the lipid and Ca $^{2+}$, binding domains would seem to be Ca $^{2+}$ independent [6]. Unlike cPLA $_2\alpha$, the substrate preferences and activity of cPLA $_2\beta$ and cPLA $_2\gamma$ are not as specific; both enzymes also demonstrate phospholipase A $_1$ activity [46]. Little is known about the cellular functions of cPLA $_2\beta$ and γ , therefore, the focus here will be specifically on cPLA $_2\alpha$.

The possible role for cPLA₂ in tumours

Although cPLA₂ α is expressed in several tissue types [47], elevated expression of cPLA₂ α has been shown in a range of

human tumour types, such as colorectal [22,52,53], small bowel [22] and lung [54]. Within these, high levels of AA and eicosanoids are observed as a consequence of increased activity of cPLA₂α and the COX and LOX enzymes (see Fig. 4) [4]. Like cPLA₂α, elevated levels of COX-2 have been associated with human tumourigenesis (Fig. 4) [22,52]. Accordingly, selective inhibition of COX-2 activity has gained considerable interest as an anticancer therapeutic strategy (reviewed in [55]). This serves to reinforce the importance of AA in human tumourigenesis and, thus, disturbance of AA metabolism as a potential anticancer therapeutic strategy.

The presence of mutated Ras genes is a common genetic characteristic of several human tumour types, including colon, prostate and lung [54,56]. Oncogenic Ras proteins in these tumours result in per-

sistent activation of intracellular signalling pathways involved in proliferation and transformation [54,56]. Recently, in human non-small-cell lung cancers, expression of oncogenic forms of Ras were associated with increased expression and activity of cPLA2 α [54,56] – a relationship that was strengthened by the observation that Ras inhibition led to decreased cPLA2 α expression and prostaglandin synthesis [54]. The ability of Ras to influence cPLA2 α activity is thought to be due to the effect of Ras on MAPK activity and subsequently, on cPLA2 α phosphorylation [56]. These data demonstrate the key role cPLA2 α might have in human tumourigenesis, and outline the potential use of specific cPLA2 α inhibitors as therapeutics for cancer treatment.

Is cPLA₂ an oncogene?

In direct contrast to the potential tumour-suppressive role of sPLA₂-IIA, cPLA₂ α expression in mice has been suggested to be pro-tumourigenic [57]. Homozygous deletion of the cPLA₂ α gene in Min1 mice resulted in an 83% decrease in small intestinal polyp number and an accompanying decrease in polyp size [57,58]. The intestinal epithelium in cPLA₂ α null mice contained numerous small ulcerative lesions, indicating that cPLA₂ α has a role in tumour promotion, rather than tumour initiation [58]. Furthermore, these studies support the notion that cPLA₂ α is the predominant source of AA for the COX-2 pathway (Fig. 4), and argue against a protective role for AA in tumour formation [57].

At present, there is little evidence for extrapolating this oncogenic role for $cPLA_2\alpha$ to humans. Although $cPLA_2\alpha$

has been demonstrated to be elevated in human small bowel and colorectal adenocarcinomas [22,53], the expression profile of other human tumour types or the presence of activating genetic mutations have yet to be reported.

Recently, studies have suggested that the effects of cPLA₂α on tumour formation might be tissue-specific [57-59]. Whereas homozygous deletion of cPLA₂α produced a significant reduction in tumour number in the murine small intestine, no significant effect was observed in the large intestine [57,58]. Overall, these findings suggest that the role of cPLA₂α in murine colon tumourigenesis might be fundamentally different from that observed in the small intestine and could be under the control of distinct physiological mechanisms [59]. Furthermore, a preliminary study showed diminished expression of cPLA₂α in human colonic tumours, compared with adjacent histologically normal tissue [59]. These findings suggest a tissue-specific variation in tumourigenesis, raising questions as to whether or not cPLA₂α is an oncogene that can be comprehensively addressed in all tumours.

Disruption of cPLA₂ activity as a potential therapeutic tool The blocking of eicosanoid production through the deactivation of enzymes downstream to cPLA₂α, has been exploited for some time. Indeed, the inhibition of the COX enzymes using non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) has therapeutic effects on several human tumour types [55]. However, as well as inhibiting the required target, COX-2, many of these drugs also inhibited the housekeeping enzyme COX-1, resulting in several serious side effects (discussed in [4,35]). Although the use of COX-2-specific inhibitors avoids the deleterious side effect of COX-1 inactivation, many of these selective drugs have complications [35]. These could be the consequence of shifting AA metabolism from the inhibited COX-2 enzyme to alternative pathways, such as COX-1 and LOX [35], which itself causes problems.

Based on this, an alternative therapeutic approach would be to avoid complications of COX-2 inhibition by limiting AA availability and subsequent eicosanoid production (see Fig. 4). In addition to being rate-limiting for eicosanoid biosynthesis, cPLA₂α has been suggested as a modulator of sPLA₂-IIA activity [60]. These data support inhibition of cPLA₂α activity as an attractive anticancer therapeutic strategy. Several cPLA₂α-specific inhibitors, both chemical and genetic, are currently in development (reviewed in [37]) and their effectiveness as anticancer agents is yet to be addressed.

Towards tumour-specific drug delivery

The role that each of the phospholipase A2 subtypes have in tumourigenesis is diverse, complex and, as yet, unresolved.

One feature that is common to all phospholipase A2 family members is their ability to hydrolyze the sn-2 ester bond of phospholipids, either intracellulary (cPLA₂ and iPLA₂), or extracellularly (sPLA2). Roles for phospholipase A2 members have been demonstrated on both sides of the tumourigenic equation, as tumour suppressors and oncogenes. A better understanding of the expression, activity and function of each family member in human tumourigenesis might lead to the design of drugs to either treat, inhibit or prevent human cancers. Such enzyme inhibitors or enzymeactivated prodrugs could enable tumour-specific drug delivery and activity, and as such a favourable therapeutic strategy.

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