

Ferroptosis in neurodegenerative diseases: inhibitors as promising candidate mitigators

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Abstract. Ferroptosis is a new form of iron-dependent programmed cell death, characterized by intracellular iron overload and lipid peroxidation. Several studies have revealed that ferroptosis is associated with the occurrence and development of various neurodegenerative diseases (NDs). Therefore, this paper reviews the mechanism and related genes of ferroptosis, focusing on the research of ferroptosis drugs in NDs to provide theoretical support for future experimental research and clinical application.

This work focuses on ferroptosis, and the authors searched the literature on PubMed related to ferroptosis using the keywords “neurodegenerative diseases” and “neurons”. All articles were from August 2022 and earlier, excluding irrelevant or retracted articles, and articles from the last five years were used as the main inclusion criteria.

After collection and summary, it was found that ferroptosis in NDs was not only related to iron metabolism, lipid metabolism, and amino acid metabolism but also related to genes such as Nrf2, FSP1, VDACs, and p53. We also summarized drugs that inhibited ferroptosis in NDs and classified them according to their mechanism of action.

Ferroptosis was involved in the progression of NDs through its production mechanism and related genes. Targeting ferroptosis might be a new strategy for treating NDs.

Key Words:

Ferroptosis, Neurodegenerative diseases, Iron metabolism, Lipid metabolism.

Introduction

Programmed cell deaths (PCDs), such as apoptosis, autophagy, programmed necrosis, and pyroptosis, are active and orderly phenomena of cel-

lular self-destruction under gene regulation¹. Besides determining organism development, PCD regulates the removal of damaged or undesirable cells, an organism's evolution, and the stability of a cell's internal environment². It follows that PCD is diverse in its forms and carries a considerable deal of biological significance. However, PCD dysfunction has also been associated with various diseases, including neurodegenerative diseases (NDs)³. As a unique iron-reliant form of PCD, ferroptosis, first proposed by the Dixon team in 2012⁴, differs from the other forms of PCD in terms of morphology and biochemistry⁵. From morphological aspects, ferroptosis is characterized by smaller mitochondria with fewer mitochondrial cristae⁶, an increase in mitochondrial membrane density, and a rupture of the mitochondrial outer membrane without visible alterations to the nucleus⁷. From biochemical aspects, ferroptosis is characterized by excessive iron-dependent lipid peroxidation⁸. There is ongoing research⁹⁻¹⁴ showing that several compounds or drugs can induce ferroptosis, such as erastin⁹, lapatinib¹⁰, RAS-selective lethal 3 (RSL3)¹¹, haloperidol¹², and piperlongumine¹³, while the others inhibit ferroptosis, such as baicalein, deferoxamine (DFO), and ferrostatin-1 (Fer-1)¹⁴. Some recent studies¹⁵ have linked ferroptosis to several genes, such as nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2 (*Nrf2*), glutathione peroxidase 4 (*GPX4*), ferroptosis suppressor protein 1 (*FSP1*), *p53*, voltage-dependent anion channel (*VDAC*), NADPH oxidase 4 (*NOX4*), lipoxygenase (*LOX*), and acyl CoA synthase long-chain family member 4 (*ACSL4*), which are primarily involved in the iron metabolism pathway, lipid metabolism pathway, and the amino acid metabolism pathway.

Various diseases are also associated with ferroptosis¹⁶⁻²⁰, such as NDs²¹. Stroke, brain injury

(BI), and epilepsy are acute NDs²², while chronic NDs include Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's disease (PD), Huntington's disease (HD), and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS)²². Progressive neurological impairments resulting from neuronal cell death and loss commonly manifest in NDs²³. Ferroptosis has been associated with various NDs²⁴. First and foremost, iron accumulation in the brain, a prerequisite for developing neural ferroptosis, can be observed in patients with NDs such as AD²⁵ and PD²⁶. Neural cells are susceptible to oxidative damage because of their high metabolism and low antioxidant defenses. As a result, excessive iron accumulation catalyzes the reactive oxygen species (ROS) formation through the Fenton reaction, resulting in neuronal damage²⁷. Second, high levels of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) are prevalent in the brain, resulting in lipid peroxidation as the main form of neuronal oxidative damage²⁸. In addition, low activity of gpx4 and glutathione (GSH) was found in motor neuron degeneration, which is closely associated with ferroptosis²⁹. Taken together, inhibiting neuronal ferroptosis offers new therapeutic targets for NDs. Therefore, this review aims to summarize the mechanisms of ferroptosis and its closely related genes, then focuses on anti-ferroptosis drugs in NDs and categorizes them by mechanisms of action to provide theoretical support for future experimental research and clinical applications.

Mechanisms of Ferroptosis and its Targeted Drugs

Free Iron Accumulation and Iron-Targeted Ferroptosis Inhibitors

As one of the most abundant essential and traceable elements in the human body, iron exists as ferrous iron and ferric³⁰. Physiologically, iron is obtained from foods and primarily absorbed by the duodenum and upper jejunum through transferrin receptor 1 (TfR1)-mediated endocytosis of transferrin (Tf)-iron (III) (Fe³⁺) complexes³¹, and distal jejunal absorption of iron is possible in iron-deficient conditions³². Ferric is then converted to ferrous iron by the ferrireductase six-transmembrane epithelial antigens of prostate 3³³ and released into the cytoplasmic labile iron pool (LIP) divalent metal-ion transporter-1 (DMT1)³⁴. It is also essential to maintain iron homeostasis through intracellular iron export. As the iron export protein, ferroportin (FPN) transports ex-

cessive ferrous iron from cells into plasma *via* its interaction with hepcidin³⁵. Ceruloplasmin then oxidizes ferrous iron to ferric, binds to Tf in the plasma, and engages in the intracellular iron cycle again³⁶. Ferrous iron overload occurs when there is an imbalance in the iron metabolism, causing the Fenton reaction (ferrous iron and hydrogen peroxide interaction) to form hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$, the most toxic ROS)³⁷. A final consequence of ROS interacting with PUFA on lipid membranes is the generation of lipid ROS and lipid peroxides, leading to ferroptosis³⁸. There is a large amount of evidence that abnormal iron accumulation in the brain contributes to various NDs³⁹. For example, in early-onset AD patients, significant variations of iron distribution were observed and reflected the pattern of brain atrophy⁴⁰. Further, an obvious iron overload in deep gray nuclei was found in an atypical presentation of AD, which helped to identify this condition⁴⁰. Note that an intracellular iron overload can occur prior to developing senile plaques and neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs)⁴¹. A study⁴² conducted on patients with PD, the second most common ND after AD, found that iron levels increase with the disease progression. An autopsy and neuroimaging study⁴³ revealed elevated iron levels exclusively in the substantia nigra (SN) in patients with PD. Similarly, the iron overload resulting from chronically administering ferric citrate induces PD-like phenotypes in middle-aged mice⁴⁴. There has also been evidence⁴⁵ of increased iron levels in the basal ganglia of humans with manifest HD. Moreover, an iron overload following intracerebral hemorrhage (ICH) has been observed in both patients and animal models and has been linked to excessive ROS production around the hematoma⁴⁶. An iron overload can be linked to NDs, including its key manifestations and pathogens.

Various iron homeostasis genes, such as heat shock protein family B (small) member 1 (*HSPB1*)⁴⁷, *Nrf2*⁴⁸, and nuclear receptor coactivator 4 (*NCOA4*)⁴⁹ are involved in ferroptosis. For example, *HSPB1* (also called *HSP27*) negatively regulates TfR1, the portal for iron uptake, and is a marker of ferroptosis^{50,51}. The role of *HSPB1* in iron metabolism cannot be ignored either, as its phosphorylation blocks cytoskeleton-mediated iron absorption, leading to ferroptosis resistance⁵². Besides TfR1, *HSPB1* slightly induces ferritin heavy chain 1 (*FTH1*) expression⁵³, promoting the conversion of ferrous ions into ferric for storage in ferritin, thereby decreasing the free iron levels and inhibiting ferroptosis⁵⁴.

Using different behavioral tests^{55,56}, it was found that the overexpression of *hspb1* ameliorates the symptoms of AD in APP/PS1 mice⁵⁵ as well as decreases the intracellular iron level in murine cells⁵⁶. Moreover, a double transgenic mouse model overexpressing *APP^{swe}* and *HSPB1* produced similar results⁵⁷. There is evidence that the decrease in *hspb1* in ALS patients will result in motor neuron death, which may be avoided by overexpressing *hspb1*⁵⁸. Additionally, high-fat-diet-exacerbated PD animal models demonstrated decreased phosphorylation of *hsp27* in the SN⁵⁹. Therefore, NDs were strongly linked to *HSP27* abnormalities in these studies⁵⁵⁻⁵⁹.

Considered a major regulatory factor for antioxidant resistance, Nrf2 is also a transcriptional regulator of *FTH1*, regulating iron metabolism against NDs^{60,61}. For example, in PD and AD patients, the Nrf2 expression is altered in neurons, astrocytes, and in the brain of HD or stroke patients, respectively⁶². Similarly, the activation of Nrf2 inhibited neurodegeneration in several AD model mice⁶³. Furthermore, there is a decreased expression of *fth1* in PD model mice compared to that in healthy mice. In contrast, Nrf2 increases the expression of *fth1* and enhances the iron storage capacity, thereby reducing susceptibility to ferroptosis in PD-associated PC12 cells⁴³. Despite this, however, there is little evidence that Nrf2 influences ferroptosis through *FTH1*-mediated iron metabolism in NDs.

Nuclear receptor coactivator 4 (NCOA4), a ferritinophagy-specific cargo receptor, facilitates the transportation of *FTH1* to the autophagosome, where ferritinophagy occurs, and releases free iron into the cytosol⁶⁴. Thus, overexpression of *NCOA4* promotes ferritin degradation and results in ferroptosis, while the genetic inhibition of *NCOA4* exerts the opposite effect⁶⁵. For example, the reduction of *fth1* levels promotes ferroptosis in PD models *in vivo* and *in vitro*, whereas the overexpression of *fth1* suppresses *ncoa4* expression, thus suppressing ferroptosis⁶⁶. Furthermore, enhanced *NCOA4*-mediated ferritin (ferritinophagy) by dexmedetomidine protects HT-22 cells from neurotoxicity in a model of chemotherapy-induced cognitive dysfunction⁶⁷. ALS has also been linked to iron ferritinophagy mediated by *NCOA4*, which can play a major role in the disease⁶⁸. By increasing *ncoa4* expression and reducing *fth1* levels, formaldehyde can cause formaldehyde-related NDs⁶⁹. Interestingly, overexpression and knockdown experiments have revealed that autophagy-related Beclin1 induces ferroptosis by

increasing the free iron levels⁷⁰. Not only this but a significant decrease in Beclin1 levels was also observed in AD patients⁷¹, so the relationship between Beclin1 and ferroptosis deserves further investigation in NDs. Furthermore, Tal-Beclin1, a Beclin1 activating peptide, is depicted to promote the ferroptosis induced by erastin, a small molecule inducer of ferroptosis *in vivo* and *in vitro*⁷⁰. As the only known cellular iron exporter, FPN knockout also causes increased iron-dependent ROS and ferroptosis, suggesting its anti-ferroptosis properties⁷². In the PD model, the reduction of FPN resulted in SN iron aggregation, thereby triggering an increase in iron-dependent ROS in neurons⁷³. Meanwhile, the up regulation of FPN can decrease iron loading and ameliorate neuronal death after ICH⁷⁴. Similar results were also observed in the models of AD⁷⁵ and early brain injury after subarachnoid hemorrhage⁷⁶. In summary, iron metabolism involves multiple links, such as uptake, transport, storage, and export, and any disturbance in these links may lead to iron homeostasis imbalance and even ferroptosis. To prevent ferroptosis, it is, therefore, effective to regulate iron metabolism-related genes.

Current evidence⁷⁷ suggests that iron chelators, such as DFO, deferiprone (DFP), and ciclopirox olamine (CPX), can decrease the intracellular iron overload by binding ferrous iron, stimulating its excretion, preventing the generation of highly reactive ROS, and then inhibiting ferroptosis. For example, DFO can rescue iron overload-induced ferroptosis triggered by ferric ammonium citrate (FAC) in neuron-like PC12 cells by reducing iron levels⁷⁸. Furthermore, DFP is used as an oral hydroxypyridinone-derived iron chelator for treating thalassemia, Friedreich's ataxia, and kidney disease in clinical practice⁷⁹. According to the literature, DFP can also inhibit ferroptosis in the ketamine-sevoflurane-induced general anesthetic (GA) model by chelating iron as well as inhibiting the DMT1 expression⁸⁰. Interestingly, the use of sevoflurane and ketamine in GA for surgery affects the iron metabolism⁸⁰, contributing to a postoperative cognitive decline in the elderly⁸¹. Thus, ferroptosis is linked to cognitive impairment in older people following anesthesia, and DFP is a candidate for its therapy. CPX is a broad-spectrum antifungal agent identified to functionally chelate intracellular iron⁸². It is well known that glutamate excitotoxicity is often observed in several NDs, such as stroke⁸³. Studies⁴ have reported that CPX can inhibit ferroptosis by reducing iron ions and ROS in glutamate-induced

organotypic hippocampal slice cultures (OHSC). Moreover, Baf-A1, a ferritinophagy inhibitor, can block fth1-mediated ferroptosis by inhibiting ferrous iron, ncoa4, lipid peroxidation levels, and excessive GSH consumption in a neurotoxin 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA)-induced PD model⁶⁶. In light of the above, the role of iron chelators in inhibiting ferroptosis has been gradually discovered. To make definitive conclusions, however, further research is needed.

Lipid Peroxidation and Lipid Peroxidation-Targeted Ferroptosis Inhibitors

Lipids are the major components of cell membranes and organelle membranes, helping to maintain their integrity and molecular exchange functions⁸⁴. However, it is well established that lipids are susceptible to peroxidation through enzymatic or non-enzymatic processes⁸⁵. PUFA-containing phosphatidylethanolamine (PE) is more vulnerable to lipid peroxidation, particularly arachidonic acid (AA) and adrenal acid (ADA)⁸⁶. It is true that the oxidation of lipids is a free radical-driven chain reaction, where reactive ROS begins the oxidation of PUFAs⁸⁷. Non-enzymatic lipid peroxidation occurs when the ROS generated by the iron-dependent Fenton reactions oxidize the membrane phospholipids resulting in a lipid ROS accumulation⁸⁸. Under iron accumulation conditions, Fenton chemistry significantly initiates NDs, such as AD, PD, and HD, by promoting free radical formation in cells⁸⁹. A possible explanation for iron accumulation in the central nervous system (CNS) during NDs is inflammatory cells migrating into the affected areas and depositing iron there⁸⁹. Somewhat differently, enzymatic lipid peroxidation is mediated by multi-enzymatic reactions. First, *ACSL4* catalyzes the conversion of AA or ADA to AA-CoA and ADA-CoA⁹⁰ and is in turn esterified into AA-PE and ADA-PE by lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase 3 (*LPCAT3*)⁹¹, and lastly oxidized by LOX, particularly arachidonate lipoxygenase (*ALOX*) to the harmful lipid peroxidation product PE-AA-OOH or PE-ADA-OOH⁹². Lipid peroxides, once abundant, destroy the membrane bilayer and amplify their damage by reacting with the adjacent polyunsaturated lipids, thus causing ferroptosis⁹³. In this manner, delaying lipid peroxidation will be effective in inhibiting ferroptosis. There is no doubt that lipid peroxidation has been

identified as a pathological marker in almost all NDs, such as AD⁹⁴, PD⁹⁵, and ALS⁹⁶. In this context, the role of LOX in NDs is becoming more evident. For example, in AD models, the activation of LOX in microglia produces large amounts of ROS and causes enzymatic lipid peroxidation that affects microglia function⁹⁷. Consequently, ferroptosis inhibitors counteracting lipid peroxidation hold many promises in treating NDs, including radical-trapping antioxidants (RTAs), NOX inhibitors, and LOX inhibitors.

Some RTAs, such as liproxstatin-1 (Lip-1), Fer-1, edaravone, tetrahydronaphthyridinols (THN), 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-1-oxyl (TEMPO), phenothiazine, mitoquinone (MitoQ), BI-6c9, and resveratrol can inhibit ferroptosis by scavenging oxygen free radicals. For example, Lip-1 has been displayed to inhibit the RSL3-induced rat oligodendrocyte cell line (OLN-93) ferroptosis in a spinal cord injury (SCI) model by scavenging oxygen free radicals⁹⁸. Fer-1, an inhibitor of ferroptosis, produced a similar outcome in a collagenase-induced ICH model⁹⁹. A non-phenolic antioxidant, edaravone, acts as a powerful agent to improve neurological functions in disease conditions¹⁰⁰. It was found that edaravone attenuates hippocampal neuronal ferroptosis by the activation of the silent information regulator 2 homolog 1 (*Sirt1*)/*Nrf2*/heme oxygenase-1 (*HO-1*)/*GPX4* pathway in the chronic social defeat stress (CSDS) depression model mice¹⁰¹. As an RTA, THN, particularly lipophilic C12 THN, is highly effective against glutamate-induced ferroptosis in the hippocampal HT-22 cell line¹⁰². Furthermore, TEMPO¹⁰³ and phenothiazine¹⁰⁴ can inhibit ferroptosis in NDs by exploiting their ability to scavenge free radicals. The gasified form of TEMPO inhibits not only glutamate-induced ferroptosis in HT-22 cells but also protects neuronal cells from middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO) model-induced injury in CB-17 mice¹⁰³. Phenothiazine, particularly its derivative 51¹⁰⁴, as a diarylamine radical-trapping antioxidant, inhibits ferroptosis in an MCAO-induced ischemic stroke SD rat model by increasing GSH expression and reducing lipid peroxidation levels. MitoQ is a mitochondria-targeted ROS scavenger, and some experiments have demonstrated that mitoQ reverses RSL3-induced ferroptosis in an HT-22 brain ischemia model by inhibiting mitochondrial ROS production and then reducing the RSL3 toxicity¹⁰⁵. BI-6c9, a pro-apoptotic protein Bid inhibitor, also plays a unique role in inhibiting ferroptosis. It has been demonstrated that BI-6c9

reverses the mitochondrial impairment caused by the mitochondrial transactivation of Bid by scavenging mitochondrial ROS and finally reverses the RSL3-induced ferroptosis in HT-22 cells¹⁰⁶. A polyphenol found in many plants, resveratrol, is a potential therapeutic agent for NDs¹⁰⁷. Like Fer-1, it inhibits (OGD/R)-induced ferroptosis in primary cortical neurons by its powerful antioxidant effect, as well as in MCAO-induced SD rats and RSL3-induced primary cortical neurons¹⁰⁸. According to the abovementioned studies⁹⁸⁻¹⁰⁸, RTA can inhibit ferroptosis and improve neuron survival in several NDs models, particularly ICH and stroke.

As ROS is mainly generated by NADPH oxidase (NOX)¹⁰⁹, its inhibitors, such as diphenyleneiodonium chloride (DPI) and GKT137831, help inhibit ferroptosis by reducing ROS production¹¹⁰. For instance, paraquat and maneb co-exposure cause dopaminergic neurodegenerative disorders as well as ferroptosis in the neuroblastoma cellular line SHSY5Y. DPI and GKT137831, as an inhibitor of NOX, have some significant adverse effects on the abovementioned phenomenon by increasing the gpx4 levels and decreasing the intracellular MDA content¹¹¹. In addition, vildagliptin (vilda), originally acting as a selective DPP-4 inhibitor, exerts neuroprotective effects in NDs by inhibiting oxidative stress¹¹² and potently inhibits ferroptosis by blocking the DPP-4-mediated NOX activity in the ICH model¹¹³.

LOX inhibitors [e.g., vitamin E, baicalein, zileuton, and N-acetylcysteine (NAC)] can resist ferroptosis by inhibiting LOX-mediated lipid peroxidation. There is an increased expression of LOX enzymes in stroke, AD, epilepsy, and ICH models, such as 15-lipoxygenase (15-LOX), 5-LOX, and ALOX¹¹⁴⁻¹¹⁶. Treatment of NDs by inhibiting LOX enzymes is another exciting prospect. Natural lipophilic antioxidant vitamin E is considered an adjunctive treatment for epilepsy, particularly in children¹¹⁷. Further studies¹¹⁸ have depicted that it inhibits pentylentetrazol-induced neuronal ferroptosis in epileptic rats by suppressing the 15-LOX-mediated overoxidation of PUFAs. Baicalin, derived from the root of *Scutellaria baicalensis* Georgi¹¹⁹, has shown neuroprotective effects in posttraumatic epilepsy (PTE)¹¹⁶. Its treatment increases the gpx4 content by decreasing the 12/15-LOX levels, thereby reducing the FAC-induced lipid peroxidation in the HT-22 cell PTE model and further inhibiting ferroptosis. An effect consistent with this can also be observed in an *in vivo* model of FeCl₃-induced epilepsy¹¹⁶. Zileuton is an inhibitor of 5-LOX that

has pharmacologically demonstrated benefits in treating AD¹²⁰. In addition to this, Zileuton can attenuate oxidative stress by inhibiting the LOX5 expression, thereby protecting HT-22 cells from glutamate-induced ferroptosis¹²¹. Several chronic neurological disorders, including AD, have been demonstrated¹²² to benefit from NAC, a cysteine prodrug. According to recent studies¹²³, NAC inhibits ferroptosis by blocking the production of toxic lipids through ALOX in a heme-induced primary cortical neuronal ICH model.

There is a critical link between lipid peroxidation and acsl4, which is the target of rosiglitazone (ROSI)¹²⁴ and paeonol (PAN)¹²⁵. ROSI is a proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR γ) agonist that has been shown to have neuroprotective effects in various NDs¹²⁶. ROSI reduces lipid peroxidation levels and protects neurons from ferroptosis after an ischemic stroke by inhibiting acsl4¹²⁷. PAN is a natural product isolated from *Paeonia Lactiflora* pall¹²⁸ that inhibits ferroptosis in an ICH model *in vivo* and *in vitro*. For example, in ICH model mice, PAN alleviated neuronal ferroptosis by suppressing the expression of acsl4¹²⁵, which could be degraded by direct binding to upf1. Moreover, the overexpression of lncRNA HOX transcript antisense RNA reversed the protective effect of PAN on the neurons through the UPF1/ acsl4 axis¹²⁵. Consistent with this, in hemoglobin-induced primary cortical neurons or HT-22 cells, PAN was observed to protect neuronal cells from iron death through similar mechanisms¹²⁵.

Additionally, fatty acid synthesis is the upstream pathway that triggers ferroptosis¹²⁹; therefore, drugs can inhibit ferroptosis by inhibiting fatty acid synthesis. For example, the transaminase inhibitor AOA can inhibit ferroptosis by silencing acyl-CoA synthase family member 2 (acsf2), thereby regulating the upstream of ferroptosis⁴. Interestingly, phase contrast images reveal that AOA treatment also blocks glutamate-induced ferroptosis in HT-22 cells¹³⁰.

Collectively, targeting lipid peroxidation-targeted ferroptosis inhibitors is a promising way to treat NDs. Research results obtained in a laboratory and a fundamental understanding of ferroptosis inhibitors counteracting lipid peroxidation lay the groundwork for clinical trials.

Amino Acid Metabolism Disorder and Their Related Ferroptosis Inhibitors

System Xc⁻ cystine/glutamate antiporter is widely distributed in the phospholipid bilayer¹³¹ and works as an important component of the

antioxidant system¹³². In the brain, system Xc⁻ is expressed at the blood-brain barrier as well as throughout the brain parenchyma¹³³. By regulating the production of GSH as described below, system Xc⁻ stimulates many ROS-dependent pathways¹³⁴. First, cystine is taken up by system Xc⁻ in exchange for glutamate at a 1:1 ratio¹³⁵. Upon introduction into cells, cystine converts to cysteine for the synthesis of GSH¹³⁶, which is the only substrate of gpx4 in mammals that eliminates lipid-based ROS¹³⁷. In particular, gpx4 converts lipid peroxides into nontoxic lipid alcohols by oxidizing GSH to glutathione disulfide, blocking the lipid peroxidation chain reaction and thus playing a critical role in maintaining cellular redox homeostasis¹³⁸. In a substantial body of literature, the amino acid metabolism disorder has been linked to NDs, and the system Xc⁻, as well as the GPX4 proteins, has been proposed as the molecular therapeutic target¹³⁹. For instance, GSH levels are reduced in AD, which limits the activity of GSH-dependent enzymes, such as GPX4, leaving neurons vulnerable to oxidative stress damage¹⁴⁰. According to a post-mortem study¹⁴¹ on PD, reduced GSH levels and GSH depletion were found in the SN, which might be the first indicators of oxidative stress during the disease process. The results were similar for other NDs as well. Simultaneously, the inhibition of system Xc⁻ affects the glutamate release¹⁴²; excess glutamate has neurotoxic effects, can overstimulate nerve cells and cause death¹⁴³. For example, high glutamate concentrations have been detected in the cerebrospinal fluid of AD patients¹⁴⁴. In addition, neuronal death due to the excitotoxicity of glutamate can be observed in various diseases, such as PD¹⁴⁵, ALS¹⁴⁶, and stroke¹⁴⁷. Taken together, the inhibition of system Xc⁻ increases the impaired glutamate release and a decrease in GSH, and the low activity of GSH-dependent GPX4, leading to the accumulation of lipid ROS, lipid peroxides, and glutamate, ultimately leading to ferroptosis¹⁴⁸.

There are many chemosynthetic drugs that can inhibit ferroptosis by system Xc⁻ and up-regulating gpx4, such as 2-amino-5-chloro-N, 3-dimethylbenzamide (CDDO), dopamine (DA), β -mercaptoethanol (β -ME), sodium selenite (SS), idebenone, ebselen, and pioglitazone (PDZ). The triterpenoid CDDO blocks the gpx4 degradation by inhibiting the expression of heat shock protein 90, gpx4's chaperone protein, thus protecting the HT-22 cells from glutamate or erastin-induced ferroptosis¹⁴⁹. The neurotransmitter DA blocks the degradation of gpx4 in HT-22 cells, thereby exerting a similar effect as CDDO¹⁵⁰. A commonly used reducing

agent in experiments, β -ME, bypasses the system Xc⁻ restricted by glutamate induction to provide cysteine for the GSH synthesis, thereby inhibiting HT-22 cell ferroptosis^{102,150}. In SCI mice injected with SS, a common form of selenium, neurological recovery was observed by up-regulating the SP1/GPX4 pathway, thus avoiding neuronal and oligodendrocyte ferroptosis after SCI¹⁵¹. Idebenone is a synthetic coenzyme Q10 (CoQ10) analog that is regularly used in the clinical treatment of AD¹⁵². Recent studies¹⁵³ showed that idebenone reduces lipid peroxidation levels and inhibits neuronal ferroptosis in a rotenone-induced PD rat's model by up-regulating gpx4. Moreover, ebselen, a potent glutathione peroxidase mimetic and neuroprotective agent, exhibited antiferroptosis by increasing gpx4 in erastin or RSL3-induced N27 neuronal cell models^{154,155}. PDZ is a PPAR γ agonist with potent neuroprotective effects in various NDs¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁵⁸. Both *in vivo* and *in vitro* ICH models revealed that the PDZ activated PPAR γ and enhanced its antioxidant effects in concert with nrf2 while increasing the expression of nrf2 and gpx4-mediated ferroptosis suppressor genes¹⁵⁹.

Similarly, some natural drugs can inhibit ferroptosis by increasing the GPX4 expression, such as carvacrol (CAR), galangin, glycyrrhizin (GL), ginkgolide B (GB), paeoniflorin (PF), and forsythoside A (FA). For example, carvacrol, a monoterpene found in many aromatic plants, is neuroprotective^{160,161}. In gerbils, CAR reduces lipid peroxidation by up-regulating gpx4, thus inhibiting neuronal ferroptosis after ischemia/reperfusion (I/R)¹⁶². Galangin is the main component of the natural medicine galangal that has neuroprotective and antioxidant properties^{163,164}. Some studies¹⁶⁵ have found that galangin enhances the antioxidant capacity of neurons, thus inhibiting ferroptosis after I/R injury by activating slc7a11/gpx4. GL is a triterpenoid saponin extracted from licorice that is useful in AD, ICH, and so on¹⁶⁶. As a consequence of inhibiting the HMGB1 translocation dependent on ROS, GL elevates the GPX4 expressions in neonates with OGD-induced I/R brain injury and prevents the ferroptosis of cortical neurons due to oxidative stress¹⁶⁷. Among the main components of ginkgo biloba, GB, has neuroprotective effects in AD, stroke, and other brain diseases^{168,169}. In SAMP/8 mice (a model of AD), it activates the Nrf2/GPX4 pathway, enhancing the antioxidant capacity against ferroptosis¹⁷⁰. PF is a water-soluble monoterpene glycoside extracted from the root of *Paeonia Lactiflora*, which has been used in treat-

ing neurodegenerative diseases¹⁷¹. For example, in a 1-methyl-4-phenylpyridinium (MPP)-induced PD model of primary dopaminergic neurons, PF exerts its neuroprotective effect against ferroptosis by increasing the GPX4 expression through the regulation of the protein kinase B (Akt)/Nrf2/GPX4 pathway¹⁷². FA is a natural drug with various pharmacological properties, including anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, and neuroprotective properties, and is found in large quantities in *Forsythia suspensa*¹⁷³. There is now proof that FA protects erastin-exposed HT-22 cells from ferroptosis in AD models by targeting the activation of the Nrf2/GPX4 pathway¹⁷⁴.

Moreover, some drugs, such as curcumin, gastrodin (GAS), tetrahydroxy stilbene glycoside (TSG), alpha-lipoic acid (LA), and salidroside inhibit ferroptosis in NDs by activating nrf2-related signaling and up-regulating gpx4 or system Xc⁻. For example, curcumin, a natural antioxidant compound extracted from the plants of the *Zingiberaceae* and *Araceae* families, is a promising neuroprotective agent¹⁷⁵. Several studies¹⁷⁶ have reported that curcumin nanoparticles activate the Nrf2/HO-1 pathway to enhance the antioxidant capacity of erastin-induced HT-22 cells, avoiding ferroptosis after ICH. GAS, a major component of *gastrodia elata*, plays a similar role in glutamate-induced HT-22 cells through the Nrf2/HO-1 pathway¹⁷⁷. There is promising evidence that TSG, an extract of another natural medicine, *polygonum multiflorum*, helps treat AD¹⁷⁸. In an APP/PS1 transgenic AD mouse model, TSG intervention increased the GPX4 expression by activating the kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (Keap1)/Nrf2/antioxidant responsive element (ARE) pathway and inhibited neuronal ferroptosis¹⁷⁹. The universal antioxidant and iron chelator LA is known to be beneficial in inhibiting ferroptosis¹⁸⁰. In a PD model induced by MPP, LA decreased the ferrous iron levels and ROS, thereby inhibiting ferroptosis by activating the phosphoinositide 3-kinases (PI3Ks)/Akt/Nrf2 pathway¹⁸¹. Salidroside is a natural drug that has been reported to have potential therapeutic value in neurodegenerative diseases¹⁸². Salidroside also exerts neuroprotective effects by activating the Nrf2/HO-1 pathway to attenuate neuronal ferroptosis in Aβ1-42-induced AD mice and gluconate-exposed HT-22 cells¹⁸³.

Taken together, multiple drugs have been developed and tested in recent years with potential activity against ferroptosis, particularly by regu-

lating system Xc⁻ and GPX4. Note that the results of this study are based on laboratory research, but no clinical confirmation has been obtained (Table 1).

Ferroptosis-Related Genes

Nrf2

As is well known, Nrf2 is the master transcriptional regulator of the antioxidant gene expression that plays a critical role in the antioxidant response in cells¹⁸⁴. Under normal physiological conditions, Keap1 binds to and retains Nrf2 in the cytoplasm, preventing its nuclear translocation¹⁸⁵. In contrast, upon exposure to oxidative stress, the Nrf2-Keap1 complex is disrupted, and subsequently, Nrf2 is released and translocated to the nucleus¹⁸⁶. This process is regulated by the autophagy receptor p62 that binds to Keap1 and then promotes the activation of Nrf2¹⁸⁷. In the nucleus, Nrf2 binds to the antioxidant response elements and promotes the expression of antioxidant genes, such as *HO-1*, to counteract oxidative stress¹⁸⁸, as well as many ferroptosis-related genes such as *SLC7A11*, *GPX4*, and *FTH1*¹⁸⁹⁻¹⁹¹. Several studies¹⁹² have reported that Nrf2 has emerged as an important target for NDs because of its role in neuronal resistance to oxidative stress and glutamate-induced excitotoxicity and, finally, in maintaining neuronal survival in neurological injury. For example, it has been reported that Nrf2 expression is significantly reduced in the hippocampal neurons of AD patients¹⁹³. The same decrease can be observed in many NDs, such as PD¹⁹⁴ and ALS¹⁹⁵. Furthermore, the Nrf2 agonists EPI-743 and sulforaphane inhibit oxidative stress and ferroptosis by increasing the nuclear translocation of Nrf2 in the fibroblasts of Friedreich's ataxia patients¹⁹⁶. Therefore, Nrf2 has been widely viewed as the primary therapeutic target of NDs. (Figure 1).

FSP1

A study¹⁹⁷ in 2019 discovered that FSP1, also called apoptosis-inducing factor mitochondria-associated 2 (AIFM2, or PRG3), can inhibit ferroptosis independently of GSH. As a cotranslational lipidic modification, FSP1 is targeted to the plasma membrane through myristoylation, where it decreases CoQ10 to create ubiquinol through the FSP1/CoQ10 pathway. Known as a lipophilic antioxidant, ubiquinol traps radicals, halting lipid peroxidation and finally inhibiting ferroptosis¹⁹⁸.

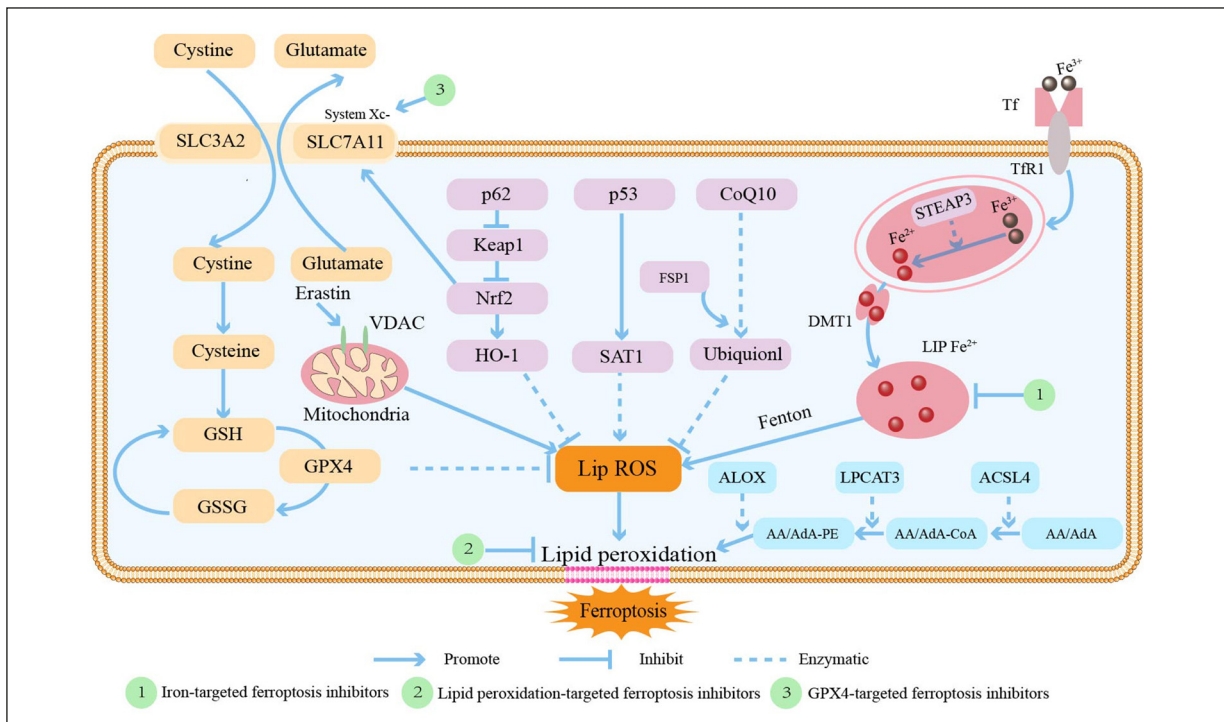


Figure 1. Overview of the mechanism of ferroptosis.

Interestingly, ferroptosis is related to FSP1 in brain disorders¹⁹⁹, which is also a potential neuro-protective target against ferroptosis in the models of neonatal hypoxic-ischemic brain injury, acute spinal cord injury, and PD²⁰⁰⁻²⁰². For example, FSP1 was up-regulated, and ferroptosis was observed in 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1,2,3,6-tetrahydropyridine (MPTP)-induced PD mice models. Apoferritin prevents MPTP-induced ferroptosis partly by inhibiting the downregulation of FSP1²⁰³. In general, the role of FSP1 in NDs is still in its infancy, and in-depth research is needed.

VDACs

VDACs are the most abundant proteins in the mitochondrial outer membrane in their three isoforms: VDAC1, VDAC2, and VDAC3²⁰⁴. VDAC, an ion channel protein, can regulate the exchange of metabolites, ions, and ATP between mitochondria and cytoplasm²⁰⁵. Erastin, as a ferroptosis activator, binds to VDAC2/3 and promotes its opening, generating hyperpolarization in the mitochondria, increasing ROS production, and eventually triggering ferroptosis²⁰⁶. Meanwhile, high levels of glutamate in HT-22 cells up-regulate the VDAC protein expression, resulting in a loss of the mitochondrial membrane poten-

tial, increased ROS production, and ATP consumption, finally leading to ferroptosis²⁰⁶. While 4,4'-diisothiocyanatostilbene-2,2'-disulfonate as a VDAC inhibitor can decrease mitochondrial ROS levels and effectively inhibit cell death²⁰⁶. In other words, VDACs are involved in ferroptosis occurrence and development and can be a potential target for its intervention.

p53

Tumor suppressor p53 is a transcription factor that plays a key role in regulating cell cycles²⁰⁷. In response to DNA damage, p53 engenders cell-cycle arrest, senescence, and apoptosis, which constrains cell growth²⁰⁸. Additionally, p53 increases the spermidine/spermine N1-acetyltransferase 1 (SAT1) expression, a rate-limiting enzyme in polyamine catabolism, facilitating the decomposition of polyamine spermine, which functions as a free radical scavenger^{209,210}. As a result, a p53-induced overexpression of SAT1 results in the peroxidation of lipids and ferroptosis by accelerating the decomposition of polyamine spermine²¹¹. SAT1 also produces a significant amount of hydrogen peroxide during the polyamine decomposition process, ultimately leading to ferroptosis that can be rescued by the ferro-

Table 1. Common ferroptosis inhibitors.

Drugs	Model	Dose	Mechanism or pathway of action	Signal	Refs.
DFO	FAC-induced PC12-NGF cell PD model	Unknown	Iron chelator	GPX4, FTH1 ↑ DMT1, TfR1, FPN, ACSL4, ROS ↓	[78]
DFP	Ketamine-and sevoflurane-induced-hippocampal neuronal GA model	100 μM	Iron chelator	GHS, SOD2 ↑ DMT1, MDA, ROS ↓	[80]
CPX	Glutamate-induced OHSC	5 μM	Iron chelator	ROS ↓	[4]
Baf-A1	6-OHDA-induced PC12 cell PD model	100 nM	Autophagy inhibitor	GPX4, FTH1 ↑ NCOA4 ↓	[66]
Lip-1	RSL3-induced OLN-93 cell line SCI model	1 μM	RTA	GPX4, GSH, FSP1 ↑ MDA, ROS ↓	[98]
Fer-1	Collagenase-induced C57BL/6 mouse ICH model Hb-induced OHSC ICH model	<i>In vivo</i> : 1 pmol of Fer-1 <i>In vitro</i> : 10 μM	RTA	MDA, 4-HNE, ROS, PTGS2 ↓	[99]
Edaravone	C57BL/6J mouse CSDS model	10 mg/kg	RTA	GSH, SOD, GPX4, GSH-PX, Nrf2, HO-1 ↑ MDA, ROS ↓	[101]
C12-THN TEMPO	Glutamate-induced HT-22 cells MACO-induced CB-17 mouse stroke model Glutamate-induced HT-22 cell stroke model	100 nM <i>In vivo</i> : 0.1-g cotton soaked in 5-mL tempo <i>In vitro</i> : 10 μL	RTA RTA	ROS ↓ ROS, 4-HNE ↓	[102] [103]
Phenothiazine derivative 51	MCAO-induced SD rat stroke model	0.01, 0.1, 1 μM	RTA	GSH ↑ ROS, MDA ↓	[104]
MitoQ	RSL3-induced HT-22 cells	0.1-1.5 μM	RTA	ROS, lipid peroxidation ↓	[105]
BI-6c9	Erastin- and glutamate-induced HT-22 cells	10 μM	BID inhibitor	ROS ↓	[106]
Resveratrol	MCAO-induced SD rat stroke model OGD/R-induced primary cortical neuron stroke model	<i>In vivo</i> : 30 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 5, 10, 20 μM	RTA	GPX4, GSH ↑ ROS, ACSL4, Fe ²⁺ ↓	[108]
DPI	PQ- and maneb-induced SHSY5Y cells	1 μM	NOX inhibitor	GSH, GPX4 ↑ ROS, MDA ↓	[111]
GKT137831	PQ- and maneb-induced SHSY5Y cells	0.5 μM	NOX inhibitor	GSH, GPX4 ↑ ROS, MDA ↓	[111]
Vilda	Collagenase-induced C57BL/6J mouse ICH model	50 mg/kg/d	DPP-4 inhibitor	GPX4 ↑ MDA, Fe ²⁺ ↓	[113]
Vitamin E	PTZ-induced SD rat chronic epilepsy model	200 mg/kg	ALOX inhibitor	GPX4, GSH ↑ MDA, ROS, 15-LOX ↓	[118]
Baicalein	FeCl ₃ -induced C57BL/6J mouse PTE model FAC-induced HT-22 cell PTE model	<i>In vivo</i> : 100 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32 μM	ALOX inhibitor	GPX4 ↑ ROS, PTGS2, 4-HNE, 12/15-LOX ↓	[116]
Zileuton	Glutamate-induced HT-22 cells	1, 10, 50, 100 μM	ALOX inhibitor	ROS, 5-LOX, lipid peroxidation ↓	[121]
NAC	Collagenase-induced ICH model Hemin-induced primary cortical neuronal ICH model	<i>In vivo</i> : 300 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 1 mM	ALOX inhibitor	GSH ↑ ALOX5 ↓	[123]

Continued

Table 1 (Continued). Common ferroptosis inhibitors.

Drugs	Model	Dose	Mechanism or pathway of action	Signal	Refs.
ROSI	MCAO-induced ischemic stroke model	0.4 mg/kg	Lipid peroxidation	GSH, SOD, GPX4 ↑ PTGS2, ROS, MDA, ACSL4 ↓	[127]
PAN	Collagenase-induced ICH model Hemin-induced primary cortical neuronal and HT-22 cell ICH model	<i>In vivo</i> : 5, 10, 15 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 10, 20, and 40 mM	ACSL4 inhibitor	GPX4, SLC7A11 ↑ ROS, MDA, Fe ²⁺ ↓	[125]
AOA	Glutamate-induced HT-22 cells	2 mM	Transaminase inhibitor	ACSF2 ↓	[130]
CDDO	Erastin- and glutamate-induced HT-22 cells	10 μM	HSP90 inhibitor	System Xc ⁻ , GSH, GPX4 ↑ ROS, MDA ↓	[149]
DA	Glutamate-induced HT-22 cells	5 μM	GPX4	GPX4 ↑	[130]
β-ME	Glutamate-induced HT-22 cells	100 nM	System Xc ⁻	GSH ↑	[150]
SS	Contusion SCI model	2.5 μM	GPX4	GSH ↑ MDA, 4-HNE, Fe ²⁺ ↓	[151]
Idebenone	Rotenone-induced PD model	200 mg/kg	GPX4	GSH, SOD ↑ MDA ↓	[153]
Ebselen	Erastin- or RSL3-induced N27 cell stroke model	10 μM	GPX4	GPX4 ↑	[155]
PDZ	Autologous blood-induced ICH model Heme-induced primary neuron ICH model	<i>In vivo</i> : 30 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 10 μM	PPARγ agonist	GPX4, Nrf2, SLC11A7 ↑ MDA, 4-HNE, NCOA4, SAT1 ↓	[159]
CAR	I/R-induced stroke model	25, 50, 100 mg/kg	GPX4	GSH, GSH-PX, FPN1, SOD ↑ ROS, Fe ²⁺ , TfR1, MDA ↓	[162]
Galangin	I/R-induced stroke model	25, 50, 100 mg/kg	SLC7A11/ GPX4 pathway ↑	GSH, SOD, GSH-PX ↑ MDA, 4-HNE, ROS, Fe ²⁺ ↓	[165]
GL	Hypoxia-ischemia-induced HIBD model OGD-induced primary cortical neuron HIBD model	<i>In vivo</i> : 20 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 55 μM	HMGB1/ GPX4 pathway ↑	SOD, GSH ↑ MDA, ROS ↓	[167]
GB	AD model	<i>In vivo</i> : 20, 30, 40 mg/kg	Nrf2/GPX4 signaling pathway ↑	SOD, HO-1, GSH, FTH1 ↑ Fe ²⁺ , MDA, TfR1, NCOA4, ROS ↓	[170]
PF	MPP-induced primary dopaminergic neuron PD model	10 μM	Akt/Nrf2/GPX4 signaling pathway ↑	GSH ↑ ROS ↓	[172]
FA	Erastin-exposed HT22 cells AD model	40 μM, 80 μM	Nrf2/GPX4 signaling pathway ↑	FTH, GSH ↑ DMT1, MDA, ROS ↓	[174]
Curcumin	Collagenase-induced ICH model Erastin-induced HT-22 cells ICH model	<i>In vivo</i> : 20 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 2.5, 5, and 10 μM	Nrf2/HO-1 signaling pathway ↑	GPX4 ↑ ROS ↓	[176]
GAS	Glutamate-induced HT-22 cells	1, 5, 25 μM	Nrf2/HO-1 pathway	FPN1 ↑ ROS, ACSL4, PTGS2, MDA, ACSL4, Fe ²⁺ ↓	[177]

Continued

Table I (Continued). Common ferroptosis inhibitors.

Drugs	Model	Dose	Mechanism or pathway of action	Signal	Refs.
TSG	AD model	60, 120, 180 mg/kg	Keap1/Nrf2/ARE signaling pathway ↑	GSH, GPX4 ↑ ROS, DMT1, ACSL4, NCOA4 ↓	[179]
LA	MMP-induced PC12 cell PD model	0, 0.1, 1, 10, 20 mM	PI3K/Akt/Nrf2 signaling pathway ↑	GPX4, SLC7A11, GSH ↑ MDA, 4-HNE, Fe ²⁺ , ROS ↓	[181]
Salidroside	Aβ ₁₋₄₂ -induced AD model glutamate-induced HT-22 cell AD model	<i>In vivo</i> : 50 mg/kg <i>In vitro</i> : 10, 20, 40, 80, 160, 320 μM	Nrf2/HO-1 pathway ↑	SOD, GSH, GPX4, SLC7A11 ↑ ROS, Fe ²⁺ , MDA ↓	[183]

ptosis inhibitor Fer-1 but not by other cell death inhibitors²¹². The p53-induced ferroptosis is also involved in the progression of NDs, such as the MPP-induced PD model *in vitro*²¹³. MPP reduces the levels of GSH, SLC7A11, and GPX4 through the amino acid pathway, resulting in ferroptosis in PC12 cells. Pretreatment with the p53 inhibitor pyrethrin- α reverses these phenomena, indicating that MPP-induced ferroptosis is p53-dependent²¹³. Overall, p53 inhibits cystine uptake and limits GSH synthesis, thereby increasing the ROS levels and the susceptibility of cells to ferroptosis by the downregulation of *slc7a11*²¹⁴.

This figure displays the three regulatory pathways of ferroptosis and the several genes that affect ferroptosis. The first one is regulated by iron metabolism. After ferric ions enter the cell through the Tf and TfR1-mediated transport to ferrous iron, they are transported by DMT1 to LIP, where excessive iron accumulation triggers an iron overload, which causes a Fenton reaction to generate ROS and further leads to ferroptosis. Drugs (i.e., DFO, DFP, and CPX) inhibit ferroptosis through this pathway. Furthermore, the regulatory mechanism of lipid metabolism is illustrated, taking AA as an example. AA is linked to CoA by the catalytic action of *acsl4* to form AA-CoA and, subsequently, AA-PE through LPCAT3. AA-PE formation can be converted to lipid peroxides through LOX-mediated enzymatic or non-enzymatic effects, ultimately leading to cellular ferroptosis. Drugs (i.e., Lip-1, Fer-1, edaravone, and AOA) can attenuate lipid peroxidation by trapping lipid ROS and inhibiting the activity of lipid peroxidation-related enzymes. The third category is the related pathways surrounding glutamate metabolism. System Xc⁻ regulates the uptake of cystine, which

is rapidly reduced to cysteine upon entry into the cell and is involved in the synthesis of GSH. GSH is an important substrate for the role of GPX4, which helps to scavenge lipid peroxides and thus inhibit ferroptosis. Drugs (i.e., CDDO, DA, and β -ME) can target system Xc⁻, GPX4, and their related pathways to inhibit ferroptosis. It is also advisable to introduce some genes affecting the occurrence of ferroptosis, such as *Nrf2*, *FSPI*, *VDAC*, and *p53*.

Conclusions

Ferroptosis, an iron-dependent cell death phenomenon, has attracted widespread attention in the scientific community since its discovery in 2012. Although originally observed in cancer cells, ferroptosis has been linked to different NDs. This article provided an overview of the ferroptosis-related mechanisms in NDs: iron metabolism, lipid peroxidation, and amino acid metabolism, as well as ferroptosis-related genes such as *Nrf2*, *FSPI*, *p53*, and *VDAC* (Figure 1). Moreover, we classified ferroptosis inhibitors targeting these mechanisms and elucidated their efficacy, targets, and signaling pathways in specific models (Table I). Taken together, ferroptosis inhibitors have overlapping and unique functions, showing considerable potential in treating NDs. In summary, this review is expected to help you understand the links between ferroptosis and NDs and how it can be targeted by therapeutics accordingly.

However, some challenges should be overcome. As a starting point, these inhibitors exhibit good anti-ferroptosis activity in the laboratory, but their clinical role is unknown. To further explore

their therapeutic effects on humans, clinical trials are required. Second, there are several inhibitors targeting the same disease or the same target, yet they are not compared in terms of efficacy. The third question is whether ferroptosis inhibitors effective in one ND are also effective in another. In conclusion, these findings must be further investigated for clarity to better understand the specificity of inhibitors and how to target ferroptosis biomarkers for more effective treatment of NDs.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that this work was conducted without any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Authors' Contribution

Ruifeng Zhang and Miao Zeng drafted the manuscript. Xijuan Jiang and Lin Yang designed and supervised the manuscript. Nuan Lv verified the contents and revised the manuscript. Luming Wang, Qiuyue Yang, Jiali Gan, Huhu Li, Bin Yu critically revised the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

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