Research Article

LncRNA OIP5-AS1 Knockdown Facilitated the Ferroptosis and Immune Evasion by Modulating the GPX4 in Oesophageal Carcinoma

Junyi Hou,1 Qin Huang,2 Zhengyang Fan,3 Hongyang Sang,3 Song Wu,3 Shaofeng Cheng,3 and Qianping Li3

1Department of Gastroenterology, Shanghai Jiao Tong University Affiliated Sixth People’s Hospital, 200233, China
2Department of Pathology, Shanghai Jiao Tong University Affiliated Sixth People’s Hospital, 200233, China
3Department of Cardiothoracic Surgery, Shanghai Jiao Tong University Affiliated Sixth People’s Hospital, 200233, China

Correspondence should be addressed to Qianping Li; lqp2000cn@126.com

Received 22 April 2022; Revised 23 May 2022; Accepted 13 June 2022; Published 15 July 2022

Academic Editor: Min Tang

Copyright © 2022 Junyi Hou et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Objective. Oesophageal cancer (EC) is an extremely invasive malignancy, which has bad prognosis that requires safe and effective treatment modalities. Immunotherapy has provided new ideas for the treatment of EC in recent years. This project was conducted to probe into the role and mechanism of lncRNA OIP5-AS1 in ferroptosis and immunotherapy of EC.

Methods. Cell viability and multiplication were assessed through CCK-8, colony formation assays. Levels of Fe2+, MDA, and lipid ROS were applied to determine ferroptosis. GPX4 and OIP5-AS1 levels were examined through real-time PCR assay. The relationship between OIP5-AS1 and GPX4 was estimated through RNA immunoprecipitation assay. Flow cytometry was applied to examine the effect of OIP5-AS1 on CD8+ T cells.

Results. OIP5-AS1 inhibition significantly inhibited EC cell viability and proliferation, induced ferroptosis, and downregulated GPX4 levels, while GPX4 reversed these effects. OIP5-AS1/GPX4 induced CD8+ T cell interaction and induced apoptosis through PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoints. Flow cytometry was applied to examine the effect of OIP5-AS1 on CD8+ T cells. Results. OIP5-AS1 inhibition significantly inhibited EC cell viability and proliferation, induced ferroptosis, and downregulated GPX4 levels, while GPX4 reversed these effects. OIP5-AS1/GPX4 induced CD8+ T cell interaction and induced apoptosis through PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoints of CD8+ T cells. Conclusion. OIP5-AS1/GPX4 promotes EC development and relieved ferroptosis; furthermore, OIP5-AS1/GPX4 facilitated immune evasion via modulation of PD-1/PD-L1, suggesting aiming at OIP5-AS1 is a possible route which might enhance the effectiveness of immunotherapy.

1. Introduction

Oesophageal carcinoma (EC) acts as a malignant tumour, which occurs in the squamous or glandular epithelium of the oesophagus, and it is familiar in human cancers, occupying over 90% of oesophageal tumours, the incidence of which is increasing worldwide [1]. Despite improvements in available therapies, due to local infiltration and distant metastases, overall survival probability of sufferers with oesophageal cancer remains disappointed [2]. In a number of tumour suppressors and in the proceeding and development of EC, oncogenes have been confirmed to do a vital part [3], whereas in the carcinogenesis and progression of EC, the exact molecular mechanisms remain to be entirely expounded. Therefore, understanding the molecular mechanisms of EC will provide guidance for the treatment, screening, and early detection of oesophageal cancer.

Although the standard treatment options for EC are varied [4], the prognosis for patients with oesophageal cancer is still poor [5]. Immunotherapy has provided new treatment ideas for a variety of malignancies and has greatly relieved malignant melanoma, nonsmall cell lung cancer, liver cancer, and other tumours, and it improves the survival possibility of patients [6]. Many clinical trials have confirmed that immunotherapy combined with radiotherapy can enhance the antitumour effect of stage II and III patients [7]. Tumour immunotherapy targeting immune checkpoints is now a new hope for EC treatment [8]. Among the many immune checkpoint signaling factors, programmed death protein-1/programmed death protein-1 ligand (PD-1/PD-
Figure 1: Continued.
L1) plays an important role in the tumour immune process, inducing a tumour immunosuppressive microenvironment and promoting tumour proliferation and metastasis [9]. A study shows that high PD-L1 level is greatly related to survival rates in tumour patients [10], aiming at PD-1/PD-L1 is concerned with clinical prognosis.

Figure 1: OIP5-AS1 inhibited ferroptosis and promoted EC progression. (a, b) OIP5-AS1 regulated the inhibitory effect of Erastin and RSL3 on cell viability. (c–e) Markers of ferroptosis, including the enhanced levels of Fe2+, MDA, and lipid ROS. (f) In all four EC cell lines, the OIP5-AS1 level was detected by QRT-PCR. (g, h) CCK-8 and colony formation were applied to assess EC cell viability. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001. All experiments were repeated three times.
Figure 2: Continued.
Figure 2: Continued.
Long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) are not only important regulators of normal cell growth, differentiation, apoptosis, and tissue metabolism but also do a part in the proceeding of many diseases, and lncRNAs have become potential targets for disease therapy [11]. OPA-interacting protein 5 antisense transcript 1 (OIP5-AS1) is localized on chromosome 15q15.1, is well conserved during vertebrate evolution, and is involved in cancer progression [12]. A previous study has suggested that OIP5-AS1 regulates tumour progression as an oncogenic or pro-oncogenic gene [13]. A previous study has suggested that OIP5-AS1 promotes proliferation and metastasis of EC cells [14]. Furthermore, a research shows that OIP5-AS1 inhibits ferroptosis and promotes cancer progression in prostate cancer [15], whereas the importance needs to be further investigated of OIP5-AS1 in EC. In view of the above research basis, the regulation of OIP5-AS1 in EC cell ferroptosis and activity, as well as the regulation of immunotherapy, was explored in this study, and also the molecular mechanism of OIP5-AS1 action was explored, with a view to providing new ideas for the treatment of EC.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Cell Culture and Transfection. Human oesophageal cancer cell lines Eca109, TE-13, TE-1, and TTN and normal oesophageal epithelial cell line HEEC were bought from Shanghai Bogu Biotechnology Co. Cells were cultivated in a sterile incubating device under 37°C, 5% CO₂, and 5% v/v. The pcDNA3.1-OIP5-AS1/si-OIP5-AS1 vector plasmid and its negative control were constructed by GenePharma (Shanghai, China). Blank plasmids were used as controls. EC cells at logarithmic growth phase were inoculated in 6-well dishes and transfected with control and pcDNA3.1-OIP5-AS1/si-OIP5-AS1 at 70%-80% cell fusion through the instructions of Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen; ThermoFisherScientific, Inc.). After 48 h of transfection, all RNA was gotten and qRT-PCR was conducted to demonstrate the efficiency of transfection.

2.2. CCK-8 Assay. The cells were made into a single-cell suspension and counted. After the cells were attached to the wall, each plate was removed and 10 μL of CCK-8 reagent (Sigma, USA) was added to each well to measure the absorbance at different time points (24 h, 48 h, 72 h, 96 h). The absorbance (A) of each well was measured at 450 nm wavelength on an enzyme marker and repeated three times to obtain the average value.

2.3. QRT-PCR. The transfected hBMSCs were collected, all RNA was gotten from the samples by TRIzol method, RNA concentration was determined spectrophotometrically, and cDNA was synthesized by reverse transcription. QRT-PCR was performed according to SYBRPremix ExTaqTM II kit instructions (TaKaTa, Japan). Reaction conditions: 95°C, 0.5 min; 95°C, 5 s, 58°C, 0.5 min, 40 cycles; 95°C, 15 s, 58°C, 0.5 min, 95°C, 15 s. Using GAPDH as internal reference, the 2^−ΔΔCt way was utilized to get miR-103-3p, OIP5-AS1, and GPX4 levels. All primer sequences were synthesized by Guangzhou Ribo Bio (China).

2.4. Plate Clone Formation Assay. Cells were taken at logarithmic growth stage, digested routinely, and single-cell suspensions were prepared and counted. Cells were inoculated in a 6-well plate at 1000 cells/2 mL/well; the dish was gently shaken in a cross direction to disperse the cells and incubated routinely at 37°C in 5% CO₂ for 10–14 d. When clones were visible to the naked eye in the dish, the culture was terminated; the culture fluid was discarded, washed twice with PBS, and air dried. Methanol was fixed for 15 min, discarded, and air dried. Stained with Gimsa stain for 10 min, washed off the stain slowly under running water, air dried, photographed, and counted.

2.5. Western Blot. The transfected cells were lysed and protein extracted, protein content was measured, the volume
Figure 3: Continued.
Figure 3: Continued.
of the upper sample was determined, and 10% polyacryl-
amide gel was developed according to the size of Ki67 and
PCN1 molecular weight; anhydrous ethanol was used to
close the separation gel, anhydrous ethanol was poured o
ff after 40 min, ultrapure water was washed 3 times, with con-
centrated gel inserted into the comb, and electrophoresis was
started after 30 min of polymerization. After completion of
electrophoresis, the gel was removed and dipped into the
transfer solution, PVDF membrane was transferred and
closed for 1 h, then diluted primary antibody (1:800) was

Figure 3: OIP5-AS1 interacted with GPX4 in EC cells. (a) RNA immunoprecipitation was used to detect their interaction. (b) GPx4 was
detected by qRT-PCR. (c, d) si-OIP5-AS1 regulated the inhibitory effect of Erastin and RSL3 on cell viability. (e–g) Markers of
ferroptosis, including the enhanced levels of Fe$^{2+}$, MDA, and lipid ROS. (h, i) CCK-8 and colony formation were applied to assess EC
cell viability. ∗p < 0.05, ∗∗p < 0.01, ∗∗∗p < 0.001. All experiments were repeated three times.
added and incubated overnight at 4°C on a shaker. The strips were removed the next day, washed 3 times in TBST, placed in a centrifuge tube and incubated with secondary antibody for 1 h at room temperature, and washed 3 times in TBST. ECL detection reagent was prepared, dropped onto PVDF membrane, reacted for 1–2 min, and tested on the machine and the results were analyzed.

2.6. RNA Immunoprecipitation Assay. RNA immunoprecipitation was acted according to the Magna RIP RNA-binding protein immunoprecipitation. The experiments were performed according to the instructions of the Magna RIP RNA-binding protein immunoprecipitation kit (Millipore, Germany), with the addition of AGO2 and IgG antibodies added to the protein precipitates, and the target RNA was detected by PCR. The target RNA expression in the precipitates was detected by PCR.

2.7. Flow Cytometry. The cells were inoculated in 96-well plates at 1 × 10⁶ cells/well, incubated for 24 h, cleaned twice in PBS, subjected to fixation in 70% ethyl alcohol, and obtained all the night under 4°C. Cells were cleaned once in PBS and the cellular density was changed to 1 × 10⁶ cells/mL. Propidium iodide dyeing liquor was put to an eventual content of 0.05 mg/mL and stained for 30 min at 4°C. All groups were analyzed by flow cell technique. The cellular cycle was analyzed by flow cell technique. Three replicate wells were set up for all groups, and the similar test was made three times and the mean result was taken.

2.8. Statistical Analysis. According to SPSS 22.0 statistical program (America), statistic assay was completed. Measures were shown as average ± SD (x ± s), t-test was utilized to make a comparison of sample means between groups, one-way ANOVA was utilized for comparing several sample means, and SNK-q test was used for two-way comparison.

3. Results

3.1. OIP5-AS1 Inhibited Ferroptosis and Promoted EC Progression. Erastin and RSL3 are extensively used to be ferroptosis stimulator [16]. OIP5-AS1 significantly relieved Erastin and RSL3-exposed inhibition of cell vitality as shown in Figures 1(a) and 1(b). Later on, the markers of ferroptosis, including the enhanced levels of Fe²⁺, MDA, and lipid ROS (p < 0.05, Figures 1(c)–1(e)), were notably inhibited by OIP5-AS1, suggesting the inhibition of ferroptosis. In subsequence, vitality and multiplication of EC cells were examined caused by OIP5-AS1. Firstly, in all four EC cell lines, the OIP5-AS1 level was upregulated (p < 0.05, Figure 1(f)). Comparing with OIP5-AS1 negative control, OIP5-AS1 notably accelerated cell proliferation curve (p < 0.05, Figure 1(g)), as well as colony formation ability (p < 0.05, Figure 1(h)).

3.2. OIP5-AS1 Knockdown Promoted Ferroptosis and Inhibited the Progression of EC. Later on, in EC, the impact of OIP5-AS1 was estimated ulteriorly by transfecting si-OIP5-AS1 to construct OIP5-AS1 low-expressing EC cell lines. Erastin and RSL3-exposed inhibition of cell vitality was substantially exacerbated by si-OIP5-AS1 (p < 0.05, Figures 2(a) and 2(b)). Besides, the markers of ferroptosis, including the enhanced levels of Fe²⁺, MDA, and lipid ROS (p < 0.05, Figures 2(c)–2(e)), were particularly strengthened by si-OIP5-AS1, indicating the occurrence of ferroptosis. In subsequence, comparing with OIP5-AS1 negative control, si-OIP5-AS1 notably suppressed cell proliferation curve (p < 0.05, Figure 2(f)), as well as colony formation ability (p < 0.05, Figure 2(g)).

3.3. OIP5-AS1 Interacted with GPX4 in EC Cells. Furthermore, RNA immunoprecipitation results showed that OIP5-AS1 enriched more GPX4 mRNA compared to the IgG group (p < 0.05, Figure 3(a)). The results showed that GPX4 inhibited by si-OIP5-AS1 was promoted by GPX4 (p < 0.05, Figure 3(b)) and that GPX4 significantly attenuated the inhibition of cell viability induced by Erastin and RSL3 compared to the si-OIP5-AS1 group (p < 0.05, Figures 3(c) and 3(d)). GPX4 significantly inhibited si-OIP5-AS1-induced ferroptosis, including a decrease in Fe²⁺, MDA, and lipid ROS levels (p < 0.05, Figures 3(e) and 3(g)). Subsequently, GPX4 significantly increased the cell proliferation profile compared to the si-OIP5-AS1 group (p < 0.05, Figure 3(h)). Colony formation was enhanced (p < 0.05, Figure 3(i)).

3.4. Via PD-1/PD-L1 Immune Checkpoint, OIP5-AS1 Induced Apoptosis of CD8+ T Cells. Tumour cells interact with CD8+ T cells, which have been reported in the tumour microenvironment and interfere with their cytotoxic function [17]. Therefore, we hypothesized that CD8+ T cells could be altered via OIP5-AS1/GPX4 in EC. Later on, EC cells were co-cultured with CD8+ T cells, in order to imitate the tumour microenvironment. In CD8+ T cells, an upregulation in the percentage and a decrease in apoptosis were showed by flow cytometry analysis, whereas a reversal of GPX4 in the presence of OIP5-AS1 knockdown (p < 0.05, Figures 4(a) and 4(b)). In addition, as PD-1/PD-L1 interaction inhibits CD8+ T cell activity and enhances immune evasion in tumours [18], we hypothesized that via the PD-1/PD-L1 checkpoint OIP5-AS1/GPX4 could regulate CD8+ T cell alterations (p < 0.05, Figures 4(c) and 4(d)). In subsequence, in a co-culture system, antibodies opposing PD-1 and PD-L1 were adopted to block PD-1/PD-L1 in order to affirm our hypothesis. Thus, in TTN and TE-13 cells, OIP5-AS1 and GPX4 declined the CD8+ T cells proportion, meanwhile strengthened CD8+ T cells apoptosis, and anti-PD-1 or anti-PD-L1 treatment could reverse this condition (p < 0.05, Figures 4(e) and 4(f)). In a word, OIP5-AS1/GPX4 together induced EC cell-CD8+ T cell interactions and triggered CD8+ T cell apoptosis via PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoints.

4. Discussion

EC is one of the common malignancies of the upper gastrointestinal system and is currently ranked as the 8th most common cancer in the world [19]. In China, oesophageal cancer ranks 5th in incidence of malignant tumours, with
Figure 4: Via PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint, OIP5-AS1 induced apoptosis of CD8+ T cells. (a, b) Percentage and apoptosis of CD8+ T cells were showed by flow cytometry analysis. In a co-culture system, antibodies opposing PD-1 and PD-L1 were adopted to block PD-1/PD-L1. (a, b) Percentage and apoptosis of CD8+ T cells were showed by flow cytometry analysis in EC cells. ∗∗∗p < 0.001, ∗∗p < 0.01. All experiments were repeated three times.
In the current study, we found that OIP5-AS1 knockdown was able to inhibit EC cell proliferation by downregulating GPX4.

Currently, apoptosis, necrosis, pyroptosis, and ferroptosis have been identified. Ferroptosis is accompanied by a significant increase in intracellular iron ion flow, reactive oxygen species (ROS), and lipid peroxidation levels, culminating in membrane breakdown and cell death due to lipid peroxidation of the phospholipid lining of the cell membrane [26]. However, there is considerable evidence that GPX4 can be used as a reference marker for determining cellular ferroptosis [27]. Inactivation of GPX4 protein, which has the function of scavenging lipid peroxides, leads to disruption of oxidative homeostasis and disruption of membrane structure by lipid peroxides, triggering ferroptosis [28]. Fe²⁺, MDA, and lipid ROS as key markers of ferroptosis [29]. In the current study, we found that si-OIP5-AS1 significantly promoted Fe²⁺, MDA, and lipid ROS, suggesting that OIP5-AS1 inhibits ferroptosis, and furthermore, we found that GPX4 alleviated the ferroptosis-promoting effect of si-OIP5-AS1.

Tumour-induced immunosuppression is one of the main mechanisms by which tumours proliferate and evade the immune system. Tumour cells use multiple immunosuppressive pathways to resist tumour immunity, one of which is through the PD-1/PD-L1 axis, which is an important “immune checkpoint” [30]. The PD-1/PD-L1 pathway plays a key role in chronic infection, tumour immune escape, and the formation of the tumour microenvironment [31]. PD-L1 causes T-cell depletion and immune tolerance and is thought to be a major contributor to tumour immune escape [32]. In addition to being widely expressed on the surface of T lymphocytes, B lymphocytes, dendritic cells, and macrophages, PD-L1 is also found to be highly expressed on the surface of many tumour cells. Thus, a variety of cytokines and exosomes in the tumour microenvironment can induce PD-L1 expression and enhance PD-1/PD-L1 signaling to inhibit the activation of cytotoxic T lymphocytes in the tumour microenvironment, thereby promoting tumour escape [33]. In the current study, we applied antibodies against PD-1 and PD-L1 to block PD-1/PD-L1 in a co-culture system. Consequently, in TTN and TE-13 cells, OIP5-AS1 and GPX4 reduced the proportion of CD8+ T cells and promoted apoptosis of CD8+ T cells, a phenomenon that could be reversed by anti-PD-1 or anti-PD-L1 treatment. This suggests that OIP5-AS1/GPX4 together induces EC cell-CD8+ T cell interaction and triggers CD8+ T cell apoptosis via PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoints.

However, the present study has some limitations and the study of OIP5-AS1 in EC clinical samples needs to be further explored, in addition whether OIP5-AS1 acts other targets in EC cell ferroptosis and immunotherapy needs to be investigated. In summary, OIP5-AS1 knockdown promotes ferroptosis and immune evasion in oesophageal cancer through regulation of GPX4, and OIP5-AS1 may serve as a clinical prognostic marker in ferroptosis-based cancer research and immunotherapy.

Data Availability
No data were used to support this study.

Conflicts of Interest
The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Authors’ Contributions
Junyi Hou and Qin Huang have contributed equally to this work and share first authorship.
References

[1] J. Tang, H. Xu, Q. Liu et al., “LncRNA LOC146880 promotes esophageal squamous cell carcinoma progression via miR-328-5p/FSCN1/MAPK axis,” Aging (Albany NY), vol. 13, no. 10, pp. 14198–14218, 2021.

[2] Z. Jiang, J. Wang, Z. Shen, Z. Zhang, and S. Wang, “Characterization of esophageal microbiota in patients with esophagitis and esophageal squamous cell carcinoma,” Frontiers in Cellular and Infection Microbiology, vol. 11, article 774330, 2021.

[3] S. Mohata, H. S. Kumar, N. Sharma, S. L. Jhakhar, S. Beniwal, and K. K. Harsh, “Acute treatment-related toxicity in elderly patients with good performance status compared to young patients in locally advanced esophageal carcinoma treated by definitive chemoradiation: a retrospective comparative study,” Journal of Cancer Research and Therapeutics, vol. 16, no. 1, pp. 116–119, 2020.

[4] M. J. Qiu, S. L. Yang, M. M. Wang et al., “Prognostic evaluation of esophageal cancer patients with stages I–III,” Aging (Albany NY), vol. 12, no. 14, pp. 14736–14753, 2020.

[5] H. Liu, Q. Zhang, Q. Lou et al., “Differential analysis of LncRNA, miRNA and mRNA expression profiles and the prognostic value of LncRNA in esophageal cancer,” Pathology Oncology Research, vol. 26, no. 2, pp. 1029–1039, 2020.

[6] P. Zhang, K. Xiong, P. Lv, and Y. T. Cui, “Expression of LncRNA AK058003 in esophageal carcinoma and analysis of its intervention effect,” European Review for Medical and Pharmacological Sciences, vol. 24, no. 10, pp. 5404–5411, 2020.

[7] J. Zhang, S. L. Hu, C. H. Qiao et al., “LncRNA-NEF inhibits proliferation, migration and invasion of esophageal squamous-cell carcinoma cells by inactivating wnt/β-catenin pathway,” European Review for Medical and Pharmacological Sciences, vol. 22, no. 20, pp. 6824–6831, 2018.

[8] F. L. Huang and S. J. Yu, “Esophageal cancer: risk factors, genetic association, and treatment,” Asian Journal of Surgery, vol. 41, no. 3, pp. 210–215, 2018.

[9] M. Watanabe, R. Otake, R. Kozuki et al., “Recent progress in multidisciplinary treatment for patients with esophageal cancer,” Surgery Today, vol. 50, no. 1, pp. 12–20, 2020.

[10] A. Wakita, S. Motoyama, Y. Sato et al., “IGF2BP3 expression correlates with poor prognosis in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma,” The Journal of Surgical Research, vol. 259, pp. 137–144, 2021.

[11] H. Ishiguro, T. Wakasugi, Y. Terashita et al., “Decreased expression of CDH1 or CTNNB1 affects poor prognosis of patients with esophageal cancer,” World Journal of Surgical Oncology, vol. 14, no. 1, p. 240, 2016.

[12] L. M. Cuevas and A. I. Daud, “Immunotherapy for melanoma,” Seminars in Cutaneous Medicine and Surgery, vol. 37, no. 2, pp. 127–131, 2018.

[13] D. R. Camidge, R. C. Doebele, and K. M. Kerr, “Comparing and contrasting predictive biomarkers for immunotherapy and targeted therapy of NSCLC,” Nature Reviews. Clinical Oncology, vol. 16, no. 6, pp. 341–355, 2019.

[14] T. F. Greten, M. Mauda-Havakuk, B. Heinrich, F. Korangy, and B. J. Wood, “Combined locoregional-immunotherapy for liver cancer,” Journal of Hepatology, vol. 70, no. 5, pp. 999–1007, 2019.

[15] R. S. Riley, C. H. June, R. Langer, and M. J. Mitchell, “Delivery technologies for cancer immunotherapy,” Nature Reviews. Drug Discovery, vol. 18, no. 3, pp. 175–196, 2019.

[16] J. van den Bulk, E. M. Verdegaal, and N. F. de Miranda, “Cancer immunotherapy: broadening the scope of targetable tumours,” Open Biology, vol. 8, no. 6, 2018.

[17] Y. Baba, D. Nomoto, K. Okadome et al., “Tumor immune microenvironment and immune checkpoint inhibitors in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma,” Cancer Science, vol. 111, no. 9, pp. 3132–3141, 2020.

[18] H. Hirano and K. Kato, “Systemic treatment of advanced esophageal squamous cell carcinoma: chemotherapy, molecular-targeting therapy and immunotherapy,” Japanese Journal of Clinical Oncology, vol. 49, no. 5, pp. 412–420, 2019.

[19] F. K. Dermani, P. Samadi, G. Rahmani, A. K. Kohlan, and R. Najafi, “PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint: potential target for cancer therapy,” Journal of Cellular Physiology, vol. 234, no. 2, pp. 1313–1325, 2019.

[20] E. Jachetti, S. Sangiotti, C. Chiiodoni, R. Ferrara, and M. P. Colombo, “Modulation of PD-1/PD-L1 axis in myeloid-derived suppressor cells by anti-cancer treatments,” Cellular Immunology, vol. 362, article 104301, 2021.

[21] C. G. Kim, K. H. Kim, K. H. Pyo et al., “Hyperprogressive disease during PD-1/PD-L1 blockade in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer,” Annals of Oncology, vol. 30, no. 7, pp. 1104–1113, 2019.

[22] D. Zeng, Z. Ye, J. Wu et al., “Macrophage correlates with immunophenotype and predicts anti-PD-L1 response of urothelial cancer,” Theranostics, vol. 10, no. 15, pp. 7002–7014, 2020.

[23] J. M. Wolter, H. Mao, G. Fragola et al., “Cas9 gene therapy for Angelman syndrome tramps _Ube3a-ATS_ long non-coding RNA,” Nature, vol. 587, no. 7833, pp. 281–284, 2020.

[24] M. Munschauer, C. T. Nguyen, K. Sirokman et al., “The _NORAD_ LncRNA assembles a topoisomerase complex critical for genome stability,” Nature, vol. 561, no. 7721, pp. 132–136, 2018.

[25] Y. Li, X. Han, H. Feng, and J. Han, “Long noncoding RNA OIP5-AS1 in cancer,” Clinica Chimica Acta, vol. 499, pp. 75–80, 2019.

[26] Z. Wu, Y. Liu, L. Wei, and M. Han, “LncRNA OIP5-AS1 promotes breast cancer progression by regulating mir-216a-5p/GLO1,” The Journal of Surgical Research, vol. 257, pp. 501–510, 2020.

[27] Y. Liu, X. Cai, Y. Cai, and Y. Chang, “LncRNA OIP5-AS1 suppresses cell proliferation and invasion of endometrial cancer by regulating PTEN/AKT via sponging miR-200c-3p,” Journal of Immunology Research, vol. 2021, 4861716 pages, 2021.

[28] Q. Yan, L. Liu, H. Yang et al., “Long non-coding RNA OIP5-AS1 in cancer,” European Review for Medical and Pharmacological Sciences, vol. 257, no. 2, pp. 1313–1320, 2021.

[29] Z. Wu, Y. Liu, L. Wei, and M. Han, “LncRNA OIP5-AS1 promotes breast cancer progression by regulating mir-216a-5p/GLO1,” The Journal of Surgical Research, vol. 257, pp. 501–510, 2020.

[30] Y. Liu, X. Cai, Y. Cai, and Y. Chang, “LncRNA OIP5-AS1 suppresses cell proliferation and invasion of endometrial cancer by regulating PTEN/AKT via sponging miR-200c-3p,” Journal of Immunology Research, vol. 2021, 4861716 pages, 2021.

[31] R. Shintoku, Y. Takigawa, K. Yamada et al., “Lipoxygenase-mediated generation of lipid peroxides enhances ferroptosis induced by erastin and RSL3,” Cancer Science, vol. 108, no. 11, pp. 2187–2194, 2017.
[31] B. Farhood, M. Najafi, and K. Mortezaee, "CD8+ cytotoxic T lymphocytes in cancer immunotherapy: a review," *Journal of Cellular Physiology*, vol. 234, no. 6, pp. 8509–8521, 2019.

[32] V. C. Kok, "Current understanding of the mechanisms underlying immune evasion from PD-1/PD-L1 immune checkpoint blockade in head and neck cancer," *Frontiers in Oncology*, vol. 10, p. 268, 2020.

[33] M. DiSiena, A. Perelman, J. Birk, and H. Rezaizadeh, "Esophageal cancer: an updated review," *Southern Medical Journal*, vol. 114, no. 3, pp. 161–168, 2021.