

The huge world of small RNAs: Regulating networks of microRNAs (Review)

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MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a recently discovered class of small, non-coding RNAs which do not code proteins. MiRNAs regulate gene expression by inhibiting protein translation from the messenger RNA. MiRNAs may function in networks, forming a complex relationship with diseases. Furthermore, specific miRNAs have significant correlation with diseases of divergent origin. After identification of disease-associated miRNAs, their tissue expression could be altered in a beneficial way by inhibiting or mimicking their effects. Thus, modifying the expression of miRNAs is a potential future gene-therapeutic tool to influence post-transcriptional regulation of multiple genes in a single therapy. In this review we introduce the biogenesis, mechanism of action and future aspects of miRNAs. Research on the post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression by miRNA may reshape our understanding of diseases and consequently may bring new diagnostic markers and therapeutic agents. Therapeutic use of miRNAs is already under clinical investigation in RNA interference trials.

Keywords: microRNA, post-transcriptional gene silencing, nucleic acid therapy

Since the first description of the genetic material in 1953 by James Watson and Francis Crick (65) three discoveries honoured by a Nobel Prize have reshaped our understanding of gene-expression regulation. The “central dogma” of unidirectional genetic information flow (DNA→RNA→protein) by Francis Crick, 1958 (7) has been broken first in 1970 by David Baltimore’s discovery of reverse transcriptase (54), and than in 1982 by Stanley Prusiner’s description of a proteinaceous infectious substance (prion) (47). In 1986 Ecker and Davis described that antisense RNA can inhibit gene expression in plants (10) providing a new role for RNAs. However, the relevance of this discovery was not given wide attention until 1998 when Craig C. Mello and Andrew Fire described RNA interference (RNAi) in eukaryotes (*C. elegans*) (14). This discovery of small RNAs not coding proteins opened a brand new field in biology: investigating regulatory roles of RNAs, previously thought to merely pass information from DNA to proteins.

Analysis of the human transcriptome revealed that it contains thousands of functioning RNAs that are not included in protein synthesis (non-coding RNAs) (41). Some of these non-coding RNAs are short microRNAs (miRNAs) with gene expression regulatory function first described in 1993 (38). Genes encoding miRNAs have been shown to make up to 1% of the

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genome (5). MiRNAs are short: 18–25 nucleotide (nt), double stranded RNAs (58), and their action is achieved through RNAi, following DNA → RNA transcription (36). Understanding the effects of miRNAs could dramatically change our schemes of gene regulation.

Controlling functions in our body form networks, in which miRNAs might play a crucial role (30). A single miRNA can alter the expression of many messenger RNAs (mRNA), furthermore, expression of one mRNA might be under the control of several miRNAs. The disease and stage specific miRNA expression profile can be detected by multiplex methods, such as microarray or microbead hybridization methods (Luminex /Biomedica Hungaria/, Bioplex /Biorad/). Together with these methods, real time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) might give us more precise results on individual miRNA expressions leading to a better insight into the mechanism of miRNome network.

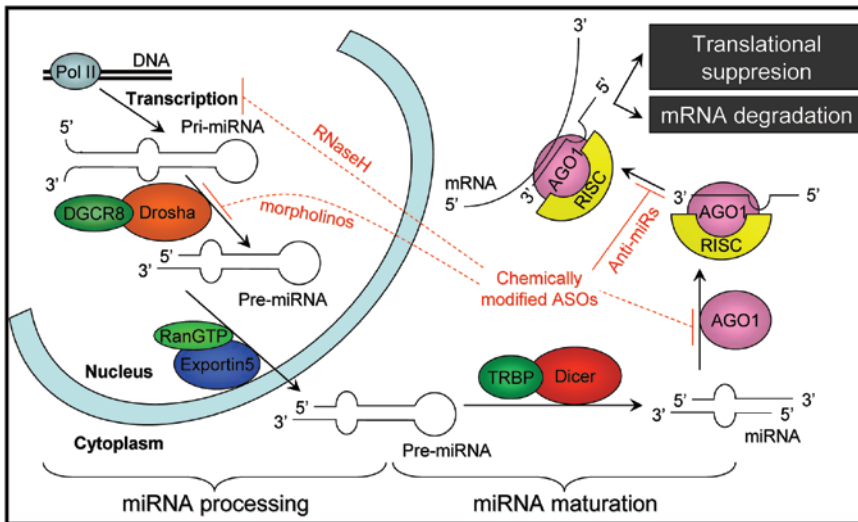


Fig. 1. MiRNA mechanism: biogenesis and function (9, 12, 20, 32, 44)

Micro RNAs function by post-transcriptional gene silencing, meaning silencing the messenger RNA also called RNA interference (RNAi). Micro RNAs bind to and inhibit the translation of the complementary sequence messenger RNAs. Molecular mechanisms of RNAi were first described in detail for short interfering RNAs (siRNAs). For further information on siRNAs we refer to our recent reviews (52, 53). Double-stranded (ds)RNA can also activate gene expression (RNAa) by targeting gene promoters thus, inducing transcriptional activation (37).

MiRNAs are generated from endogenously transcribed, hairpin structures (5). MiRNA coding genes are transcribed by RNA polymerase II (pol II) and the transcript is named primary miRNA (pri-miRNA) (39), from which nucleotides are cleaved by DROSHA (RNase III enzyme) inside the nucleus. This second product is called pre-miRNAs and is recognized by nuclear export factor Exportin-5 (Exp5/Xpo5), which traffics pre-miRNAs into the cytoplasm (40). The following steps are mediated by DICER (RNase III enzyme): it cleaves the hairpin structure and forms the miRNA-specific ends. The outcome of this processing is a double-stranded, 18–25 nt long dsRNA, named miRNA (28). The so-called guide (antisense) strand keeps its strong contact with the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), while the other strand is degraded (31). The guide strand binds the complementary messenger RNA (mRNA),

and is followed by the degradation of the complementary mRNA, a mechanism, that requires full match complementarity and predominantly occurs in plants (5). The mechanisms of post-transcriptional gene silencing mediated by miRNAs are summarized in Table I (27):

Table I. Possible gene silencing mechanisms of miRNAs

Inhibiting the translation: Blocking the initiation of translation (on eukaryotic initiation factor, eIF) Blocking the elongation
Degradation of newly synthesized <u>proteins</u>
Sequestration of <i>miRNAs</i> (i.e. in the P-bodies) (27)

Further silencing mechanisms of miRs

While miRNAs in plants direct cleavage of the targeted mRNA as described above, in animals there is usually a lack of extensive complementarity required for cleavage by Argonaute proteins (29), revealing prominent regulation at the protein level by ribosome drop off during elongation of translation (50). Furthermore, mRNA decreases are associated with poly(A)-tail shortening, leading to mRNA de-adenylation, de-capping and consequent rapid degradation (67). This indicates that microRNAs act as rheostats to make fine-scale adjustments of protein level (4). Further experiments suggest that miRNAs repress translation initiation by preventing 60S ribosome subunit joining to miRNA-targeted mRNAs (63). As to Guo and colleagues lowered mRNA levels account for most ($\geq 84\%$) of the decreased protein production, indicating that mRNA destabilization plays a key role in reduced protein translation (18). Thus, miRNA-mediated silencing manifests at both protein and mRNA levels. Although there are abundant data on the proposed model of influencing translation initiation by miRNAs (8), further experiments are needed to reveal the mechanism of action of miRNAs in eucariots.

Nomenclature of miRNAs

The correct naming of miRNAs necessitated the establishment of a universal nomenclature of miRNAs (Table II). There are many online data bases, which help scientists to explore the sequence of different miRNAs or the structure of their precursor pri-miRNA molecule. Other online tools may be useful in identifying possible miRNA–mRNA interactions (Table III) (23–25). The new identification number is activated when the article describing the new miRNA is published (2, 17).

Table II. Short summary of miRNA nomenclature

Abbreviation	Description
miR	Mature miRNA
Mir	Precursor micro RNA
Identifying number	Is given in the order of description
Prefix made up by 3–4 letters (hsa-miR, mmu-miR)	Host organism (Homo Sapiens, Mus Musculus)
Number in the suffix (hsa-miR-194-1, hsa-miR-194-2)	Chromosomal localization (of same miRNAs)
Small letter in the suffix (hsa-miR-200a, hsa-miR-200b, hsa-miR-200c)	Paralogous miRNA sequences (differing only in a few nucleotides from each other)

Table III. Online microRNA databases and target prediction tools

Database name	Website	Description
miRBase	http://www.mirbase.org	The miRBase database is a searchable database of published miRNA sequences and annotations. The miRBase Registry provides miRNA gene hunters with unique names for novel miRNA genes prior to publication of results.
microRNA.org (miRanda)	http://www.microrna.org/microrna/home.do	Contains predicted microRNA targets and target downregulation scores. Experimentally observed expression patterns (target sites by: miRanda, scores by: mirSVR).
PicTar	http://www.pictar.org	PicTar is an algorithm for the identification of microRNA targets.
miRNA – Target Gene Prediction at EMBL	http://www.russelllab.org/miRNAs	The website provides access to miRNA-Target predictions for <i>Drosophila</i> miRNAs
DIANA Lab	http://diana.cslab.ece.ntua.gr	The activities of the DIANA lab range from the analysis of expression regulation from deep sequencing data, the annotation of miRNA regulatory elements and targets to the interpretation of the role of miRNAs in various diseases.
TarBase	http://diana.cslab.ece.ntua.gr/tarbase/	Contains more than 1300 experimentally supported miRNA target interactions.
miRGen	http://diana.cslab.ece.ntua.gr/mirgen/	miRGen is an integrated database of miRNA gene transcripts, Transcription Factor Binding Sites, miRNA expression profiles and Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms associated with miRNAs
TargetScan	http://www.targetscan.org	On the TargetScan website one can search for predicted microRNA targets in mammals (human, mouse, worm, fly)

Table III (continued)

Database name	Website	Description
microCosm (miR-Base Targets)	http://www.ebi.ac.uk/enright-srv/microcosm/htdocs/targets/v5/	MicroCosm is a web resource developed by the Enright Lab at the EMBL-EBI containing computationally predicted targets for microRNAs across many species.
miRDB	http://mirdb.org/miRDB/	miRDB is an online database for miRNA target prediction and functional annotations in animals.
miR2Disease	http://www.mir2disease.org/	Provides a comprehensive resource of miRNA deregulation in various human diseases.
Human MiRNA & Disease Database (HMDD)	http://202.38.126.151/hmdd/mirna/md/	Contains miRNA names, disease names, dysfunction evidences, and the literature PubMed ID. The tissue expression pictures of some miRNAs in 40 tissues are also provided.
RegRNA	http://regrna.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/index.php	RegRNA is an integrated web server for identifying the homologs of Regulatory RNA motifs and elements against an input mRNA sequence.
miRNAMap	http://mirnamap.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/index.php	Collects experimental verified microRNAs and experimental verified miRNA target genes in human, mouse, rat, and other metazoan genomes.
miRacle	http://miracle.igib.res.in/miracle/	Predicts microRNA targets based on RNA secondary structure.
miRU	http://bioinfo3.noble.org/miRNA/miRU.htm	Predicts plant miRNA target genes.
RNA22	http://cbcsrv.watson.ibm.com/rna22.html	microRNA target detection and precursor prediction.
miRTar	http://mirtar.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/human/	An integrated web server for identifying miRNA-target interactions in human. (Mouse, rat and dog are in progress.)
RNAhybrid	http://bibiserv.techfak.uni-bielefeld.de/mahybrid/	RNAhybrid is a tool for finding the minimum free energy hybridisation of a long and a short RNA. The tool is primarily meant as a means for microRNA target prediction.
ViTa	http://vita.mbc.nctu.edu.tw/index.php	ViTa is a database which collects virus data from miRBase and ICTV, VirGne, VBRC., etc., including known miRNAs on virus and supporting predicted host miRNA targets by miRanda and TargetScan.

Function of microRNAs

MiRNAs have crucial role in divergent mechanisms, such as embryonic (*miR-51* family) (43, 56) and haematopoietic (*miR-155*) (16) development, apoptosis (*miR-15*, *miR-16*) (6), genesis and progression of malignancies (*miR-17-92* cluster, *miR-21*, *miR-372*) (42), electric functions of the heart (*miR-1*, *miR-2*) (69), cardiomyopathies (upregulated: *miR-23a* and *b*, *miR-24*, *miR-125b*, *miR-195*, *miR-199a*, *miR-214*, downregulated: *miR-93*, *miR-133a*, *miR-150*, *miR-181b*) (61) or endocrine mechanisms (*miR-375*) (51). Thus, miRNAs are associated to many physiological (5) and pathophysiological mechanisms (13).

Altering miRNA expression *in vivo*

Since miRNA expression is altered in many diseases, therapeutic influence on miRNA function may be beneficial. One major problem of *in vivo* nucleic acid (siRNA, miRNA, antisense oligodesoxynucleotide, plasmid DNA) therapy is the delivery of the nucleic acid to target organs and into cells (49). The issues of *in vivo* therapy are assessed in Table IV.

Table IV. Problems of *in vivo* nucleotide therapy

Instability of nucleic acids in extracellular fluids
Short half-life (seconds) due to nuclease degeneration in body fluids (22)
Fast filtration by the kidney (15)
Low cell membrane penetration due to negative charge (52)

Several methods have been investigated to support *in vivo* delivery of nucleotides, the main groups of which are summarized below:

Physical forces (high pressure, high volume): Local or systemic injection of nucleic acids dissolved in a large volume helps them to cross their cellular uptake (19), since the high volume diminishes the efficacy of nucleases, while high pressure presses the nucleotides into the interstitium of parenchymal organs, and then through the cell membrane into the cytoplasm, the place of RNAi. Similar pore openings can be achieved with sonoporation (60) or electroporation (21, 66).

Chemical modifications: Altering the structure of a nucleic acid with the aim of therapeutic application includes the modification of the ribose backbone (35) the terminals (by addition of methyl, alkyl (11) or cholesterol group (59) or synthetic molecules: non-ionic DNA analogues=morpholinos) (55) or locked nucleic acids (LNA) (62).

Vectors, plasmid DNA (pDNA): Viral and non-viral vectors, polycations (polyplexes (57): poly-ethylene-imine (PEI) (17), polyethylene glycol (PEG) or poly-L-lysine), complexing with molecules of lipid nature (developing liposomes with for instance Lipofectamine RNAiMax®) can enhance cellular nucleic acid uptake (68).

Conjugation with cell surface receptor ligands: enables cell specific uptake (45).

Depo-products (carriers, such as gelatine (46), hydrogels (33), atelocollagen (3) or chitosan) can elongate silencing effect.

Diagnostic value of miRNAs

Many disease-specific miRNA expression patterns and/or miRNA amounts could be clinically used in diagnosing and evaluating prognosis, for instance with real-time PCR (34). Human malignant tumor-specific miRNA chips are already commercially available (48). Huang and colleagues described that the plasma level of some miRNAs (*miR-29a*, *miR-92a*) have diagnostic value in advanced colorectal cancer (26). Other miRNAs (*miR-146a*, *miR-223*) have been shown to be significantly associated with sepsis (*miR-146a*, *miR-223*) (64). Furthermore, *miR-1* is a new biomarker of cardiac muscle ischemia, independent of many factors (age, sex, blood pressure, diabetes mellitus) (1).

Conclusions

MiRNAs play a crucial role in the development and course of diseases. Multiplex understanding of the miRNome may have diagnostic and therapeutic relevance.

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