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Non-coding RNAs in disease: from mechanisms to therapeutics

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Non-coding RNAs in disease: from mechanisms to therapeutics 1 2 Kinga Nemeth¹, Recep Bayraktar¹, Manuela Ferracin^{2,3†} and George A. Calin^{1,4†} 3 4 5 ¹ Translational Molecular Pathology Department, The University of Texas MD Anderson 6 Cancer Center, Houston, TX, USA 7 ² Department of Medical and Surgical Sciences (DIMEC), University of Bologna, Bologna, 8 Italy. 9 ³ IRCCS Azienda Ospedaliero-Universitaria di Bologna, Bologna, Italy. ⁴ The RNA Interference and Non-coding RNA Center, The University of Texas MD 10 Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX, USA 11 [†] correspondence to: gcalin@mdanderson.org and manuela.ferracin@unibo.it 12 13 14 15 Abstract | Non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) are a heterogeneous group of transcripts that, by 16 definition, are not translated into proteins. Since their discovery, ncRNAs have emerged as important regulators of multiple biological functions across a range of cell types and 17 18 tissues, and their dysregulation has been implicated in disease. Notably, much research 19 has focused on the link between microRNAs (miRNAs) and human cancers, although 20 other ncRNAs, such as long non-coding RNAs (IncRNAs) and circular RNAs (circRNAs), 21 are also emerging as relevant contributors to human disease. In this Review, we 22 summarize our current understanding of the role of miRNAs, IncRNAs and circRNAs in 23 cancer and other major human diseases, notably cardiovascular, neurological and 24 infectious diseases. We further discuss the potential use of ncRNAs as biomarkers of

- 25 disease and therapeutic targets.
- 26

27 Table of Contents (ToC) blurb (~40 words max)

In this review, the authors describe our current knowledge of the role of miRNAs, IncRNAs and circRNAs in disease, with a focus on cardiovascular, neurological, infectious diseases, and cancer. They further discuss the potential use of ncRNAs as disease biomarkers and as therapeutic targets.

32

33 [H1] Introduction

The majority of the human genome (76–97%) encodes for RNAs that are not translated 34 into proteins, termed non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs)¹⁻³. Since their discovery, the biological 35 36 importance of ncRNAs has become increasingly apparent, shifting the perspective of RNA as a simple intermediary of protein synthesis towards RNA as a functional molecule 37 with essential roles in the regulation of gene expression and genome organization. The 38 functional relevance of one class of ncRNAs in particular, microRNAs (miRNAs), has 39 40 received much attention, with important roles in a myriad of cellular processes, including 41 muscle differentiation and cardiac development^{4,5}, as well as neural stem cell differentiation and neurogenesis^{6,7}. Compelling evidence further implicated dysregulated 42 miRNAs in human diseases, particularly human cancers, such as by functioning as 43 oncogenes and/or tumor suppressors⁸. miRNAs have also been found to be differentially 44 expressed in a range of other human pathologies, including cardiovascular^{9,10}, 45 46 neurological^{6,7}, and infectious diseases¹¹. Most recently, their involvement in SARS-Cov-47 2 infection was demonstrated¹².

Over the years, high-throughput sequencing and other technologies have led to the identification of a wide range of ncRNAs of different types and sizes^{4,5}. These include ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs), small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs), small nucleolar RNAs (snoRNAs), transfer RNAs (tRNAs) and more recently miRNAs, long ncRNAs (lncRNAs), circular RNAs (circRNAs), heterogeneous nuclear RNA (hnRNAs), PIWI-interacting RNAs (piRNAs).

54 Long ncRNAs and circular RNAs are recognized as essential regulators in a variety 55 of biological processes. Similar to miRNAs, dysregulation of lncRNAs and circRNAs has been associated with various human diseases¹³⁻¹⁶. One of the biggest challenges in the field today is to elucidate the diverse functions and mechanisms of action of ncRNAs, which is essential for defining their clinical relevance and exploiting their potential use as biomarkers or therapeutic targets.

60 Here, we review the role of ncRNAs in human diseases that account for the highest 61 mortality worldwide, including cardiovascular diseases, cancer, neurodegenerative and infectious diseases, such as COVID-19. We place a focus on the disease-related ncRNAs 62 63 that have received the most research focus: miRNAs, IncRNAs, and circRNAs. Readers are referred to other review articles for insights into additional classes of ncRNAs and 64 their potential role in diseases¹⁷⁻²⁰. We first provide a brief overview of the different ncRNA 65 mechanisms and physiological roles, and then discuss the impact of ncRNA dysregulation 66 in human disease. Finally, we review the use of ncRNAs as diagnostic and prognostic 67 68 markers and targets of new therapeutic strategies.

69

70 [H1] Mechanisms of action and functions of ncRNAs

ncRNAs act through diverse mechanisms on target genes and interact with each other, creating a complex and dynamic regulatory RNA network²¹. Variations in the expression of a given ncRNA can affect the expression of other ncRNAs, altering many cellular processes including gene expression, RNA splicing, editing, intracellular transport, and translation²².

76

77 [H2] microRNAs

miRNAs are short ncRNAs that were first identified thirty years ago in Caenorhabditis elegans (*C. elegans*)^{23,24}. To date, more than 38,000 miRNAs from 271 species, including 2,654 human mature miRNAs, have been annotated in the miRNA archive <u>miRBase</u> (v22.1)²⁵. Functionally, it is predicted that the majority of the human transcriptome is under miRNA regulation²⁶. The complexity of such regulation is demonstrated by the fact that a single miRNA can target hundreds of different messenger RNAs (mRNAs) and that multiple miRNAs can target a single mRNA²⁷. Overall, miRNAs have a function in every fundamental biological process, including cell proliferation, differentiation, and embryonic
 development, and their tissue-specific functions have been demonstrated²⁸⁻³⁰.

87 The classic function of miRNAs involves binding to the 3' untranslated region (UTR) of target mRNAs, leading to their degradation or translational repression³¹. This process 88 requires miRNA association with an Argonaute (Ago) protein, which is the core 89 component of the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC). Once loaded onto an Ago 90 protein, a miRNA can guide the RISC to a complementary target mRNA for translational 91 92 repression or mRNA degradation. miRNAs also have the ability to inhibit protein 93 expression by binding to coding regions (CDS) or the 5' UTR of mRNA molecules. For 94 example, CDS-located miRNA interaction sites (miR-134, miR-296 and miR-470) in 95 Nanog, Oct4 and Sox2, modulate embryonic stem cell differentiation³⁰.

96 Although miRNAs typically inhibit gene expression, there are instances in which they 97 instead boost translation³². For example, human miR-369 has been shown to activate translation via a mechanism that involves direct binding to *TNF-a* and *FXR1*³². Moreover, 98 99 let-7 miRNA has been shown to upregulate the translation of its target mRNAs during cell cycle arrest and to repress translation in actively proliferating cells, indicating that miRNA 100 101 function alters between repression and activation during cell cycle³². Additional ways in 102 which miRNAs activate genes include their attachment to the CDS or the 5' UTR of mRNAs^{33,34}. Despite the fact that these alternative miRNA mechanisms of action are less 103 104 well studied, there is increasing evidence of their cellular relevance (Figure 1).

In addition to regulating transcription within the cells in which they are produced, miRNAs can act as intercellular communication molecules through their secretion in extracellular vesicles or by acting as hormones^{35,36}. Moreover, secreted miRNAs can directly target Toll-like receptor (TLR) proteins by acting as their ligands³⁷, a mechanism that activates TLR signaling transduction pathways and induces an immune response³⁸⁻ ⁴¹. Recent studies have also revealed their interaction with non-Ago proteins [G], although the mechanism is poorly understood (**Figure 1**).

- 112
- 113 [H2] Long non-coding RNAs

114 IncRNAs are a large and highly diverse class of ncRNAs that are >200 nucleotides in length⁴². The first IncRNAs identified in eukaryotes, H19 and Xist, were discovered long 115 116 before the genomic era^{43,44}; however, it took considerable time to recognize their broad 117 biological functions. Although many IncRNAs have been identified to date, only a handful have been functionally characterized. The human GENCODE project estimated that there 118 119 are 16,000 human IncRNAs, whereas the current version of the NONCODE database 120 (v6.0) has annotated 96,411 human IncRNA genes, generating 173,112 IncRNA transcripts, an amount several times larger than the number of coding genes (estimated 121 122 at around 20,000)45,46.

123 IncRNAs can be transcribed in sense or antisense directions from various genomic 124 regions, including introns or exons of overlapping protein-coding genes, intergenic regions (lincRNAs), pseudogenes (pseudogene-derived lncRNAs), transcribed 125 126 ultraconserved elements (T-UCRs), telomeres (telomeric repeat-containing RNAs), centromeric repeats (centromeric IncRNAs), ribosomal DNA loci (promoter and pre-rRNA 127 antisense, PAPAS), promoters (promoter-associated IncRNAs, PALRs), enhancers 128 129 (eRNAs) and 3'-UTRs (UTR-associated RNAs)⁴⁷. Similar to mRNAs, IncRNAs can be spliced; however, they usually contain fewer exons, are often retained in the nucleus and 130 131 their abundance can be 10 times lower than mRNAs^{48,49}. IncRNAs often show high tissue specificity and their expression alters dynamically during development⁵⁰. 132

The diversity of lncRNAs is also reflected in their function, which includes genomic, transcriptional, and translational regulation of neighboring and distant genes^{22,51-53}. IncRNAs can directly interact with DNA, forming R-loops⁵⁴, and can associate with enhancers or promoters, activating or suppressing their function⁵⁵⁻⁵⁸. By forming a complex with proteins, lncRNAs can also bind to the DNA and regulate chromatin by recruiting chromatin modifiers to the promoter region of their target genes⁵⁹⁻⁶¹.

As well as associating with DNA, IncRNAs can interact with various other RNAs, including mRNAs, circRNAs, and miRNAs. They can further influence RNA splicing and act as miRNA sponges **[G]** and thereby inhibit the target-repressing function of miRNAs^{62,63}. In addition, through their interaction with proteins, IncRNAs can serve as

scaffolds or guides to promote the colocalization of proteins or facilitate protein-protein
 interactions^{64,65} (Figure 2).

145

146 [H2] Circular RNAs

147 CircRNAs are generated by back-splicing of linear transcripts and can be derived from 148 exons, introns, exon-intron junctions, or intergenic regions of the genome⁶⁶⁻⁶⁸. Their 149 circular structure makes circRNAs unsuitable for further processing, reducing 150 susceptibility to exonuclease activity compared to linear RNAs, which results in a high degree of stability⁶⁹. circRNA expression is often unrelated to the expression of their host 151 genes⁷⁰, and due to their stability, they can be more abundant than their associated linear 152 153 mRNA71. With regards to their localization, circRNAs usually accumulate in the cytoplasm⁷²; however, they are also present in the nucleus, and similarly to IncRNAs, 154 circRNAs can also bind to the DNA and form circR-loops {Conn, 2023 #337}. Although 155 156 the turnover of circRNAs is largely unknown⁷⁰, it most likely involves secretion via exosomes⁷³. 157

CircRNAs can interact with miRNAs, mRNAs, or RNA-binding proteins (RBPs), 158 159 activate or repress gene expression, or act as miRNA or protein sponges⁷⁴. The complexity of the RNA network is well illustrated by the fact that circRNAs can sequester 160 miRNAs and thereby indirectly influence the expression of their mRNA targets⁷⁴. 161 162 circRNAs can also function as protein 'enhancers', either by forming a circRNA-protein complex⁷⁵, acting as protein scaffolds⁷⁶, or recruiting proteins to a specific loci or 163 164 subcellular compartment that facilitates their colocalization and thereby influencing protein-protein interactions^{77,78}. (Figure 3). 165

166

167 [H2] ncRNA-encoded peptides

Despite their original non-coding classification, it was uncovered in the last decade that some ncRNAs contain short open reading frames **[G]** (sORFs) that encode small regulatory peptides (sPEPs) **[G]**, or micropeptides, consisting of less than 100 amino acids (AA)⁷⁹⁻⁸¹. The first identified miRNA-encoded sPEPs (miPEP), miPEP171b (9 AA) and miPEP165a (18 AA), were described in plants in 2015⁸². Both pri-miR-171b and primiR-165a miRNA precursors encode small proteins that enhance the accumulation of
their corresponding mature miRNAs, leading to downregulation of their target mRNAs.
After their discovery in plants, several studies have reported human sPEPs derived from
ncRNAs and their potential roles in diseases⁸³⁻⁸⁵.

177 Ribosomal profiling [G] experiments have uncovered many unexpected associations between ncRNAs and ribosomes. Combined with the development of various 178 computational methods, these experiments have led to the discovery of thousands of 179 sORFs and many ncPEPs^{86,87}. Several of these ncPEPs have been experimentally 180 181 validated⁸⁸. For example, a muscle-specific IncRNA is translated into the 35 AA protein 182 DWORF, which was shown to regulate intracellular calcium signaling in heart tissue⁸⁷. 183 Moreover, the IncRNA Linc00116 encodes a small peptide (56 AA), MTLN, that supports 184 protein complex assembly in the mitochondria and inhibits the production of reactive oxygen species, thereby enhancing respiratory efficiency⁸⁹. The identification of novel 185 ncPEPs is ongoing, and their investigation can be facilitated by databases such as 186 FuncPEP⁹⁰, which currently lists 112 functional sPEPs encoded by ncRNAs and provides 187 188 details on the ncRNA 'host' transcripts. Another database, SPENCER, annotates cancer-189 associated sPEPs encoded by ncRNAs⁹¹.

190 Recent studies showed that, similarly to miRNAs and IncRNAs, some circRNAs can also encode proteins^{92,93}. Owing to the lack of the 5' end, translation initiation from 191 circRNAs requires N⁶-methyladenosine (m⁶A) modification⁹⁴ or an IRES, which is usually 192 193 rare in eukaryotic transcripts but has been identified in eukaryotes through systematic 194 investigations^{95,96}. Like the general function of many circRNAs, the function of their 195 encoded peptides is largely unknown. Several hypotheses have been put forward about 196 the role of translated circRNAs⁹⁷, including the generation of rapidly degraded peptides 197 that regulate immune surveillance, acting analogous to IncRNA-encoded proteins and, therefore, participating in nonsense-mediated mRNA decay, or inhibiting the translation 198 199 of other RNAs by sequestering ribosomes⁹⁷. Regardless of the precise biological role, it has been hypothesized that translated circRNAs might have evolutionarily conserved 200 201 functions, as their sequence is highly conserved across different species⁹³.

203 [H1] ncRNA dysregulation in human disease

Because their regulatory functions are crucial for normal cell activities, it is not surprising 204 that dysregulation of ncRNAs leads to human disease^{8,98}. Indeed, perturbations in ncRNA 205 biology have been linked to a wide range of conditions, including cancer, cardiovascular 206 207 diseases, neurological disorders, infectious diseases, and sepsis (Figure 4). Generally, 208 in diseased tissues, ncRNAs are dysregulated as a consequence of genomic structural and copy number variations, epigenetic modifications, or transcription factor alterations 209 ^{99,100}. Several databases, such as The Human MicroRNA Disease Database¹⁰¹ for 210 miRNAs, and LncRNADisease^{102,103} for IncRNAs and circRNAs, can be useful resources 211 212 for up-to-date information on disease-related ncRNAs. Ultimately, gaining a deeper 213 understanding of the involvement of ncRNAs in disease could pave the way for the 214 development of innovative diagnostic and therapeutic approaches.

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202

216 [H2] Non-coding RNAs in cancer

The first evidence of ncRNA involvement in human cancer came in 2002 from genetic 217 studies of patients with chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL)¹⁰⁴, the most common type of 218 leukemia in the Western world²⁷⁷. Loss of chromosome region 13q14 is a common feature 219 220 observed in CLL and is often the only genetic abnormality that is found in leukemic cells. Notably, the 13q14 region harbors genes encoding precursors of miR-15a and miR-16-1, 221 222 which were later characterized as tumour suppressors through their targeting of BCL-2¹⁰⁴ and MCL1¹⁰⁵. Soon after these discoveries, other miRNA-encoding loci were shown to be 223 frequently located in the fragile regions of chromosomes^{106,107} and lost or disrupted in 224 various cancer types^{108,109,52}. 225

Due to the complexity of miRNA regulation, one of the biggest challenges is understanding whether miRNA dysregulation is the cause or consequence of the disease. Nonetheless, pan-cancer analyses have uncovered that certain miRNAs, such as the oncogenic miR-21 and miR-155, or the tumour suppressors miR-16 and miR-145, are commonly dysregulated in several types of cancer ^{110,111}. These studies have identified 231 miRNA signatures that are consistent across 15 different cancer types and indicate a 232 major role in regulating the particular hallmarks of cancer. For example, miR-210, miR-233 21-3p, and let-7a-3p were associated with hypoxia gene signatures^{110,111}. The miR-29 234 family regulates the DNA demethylation pathway members TET1 and TDG^{110,111}. miR-21, which was shown to be overexpressed in a large variety of cancers^{112,113}, is involved in 235 therapy resistance¹¹⁴ and tested as a cancer biomarker¹¹⁵. miR-324 has an oncogenic role 236 both in malignant cells and the surrounding tumor microenvironment (TME), specifically 237 in neurons in mouse models of oral cancers¹¹⁶, where miR-324 (in conjunction with miR-238 239 21 and opposition of miR-34a) promotes neuritogenesis.

240 Certain miRNAs can function as either an oncogene or a tumor suppressor, depending 241 on tumor type, tumor stage, and the tumor microenvironment (TME), which further emphasizes that miRNA functions need to be investigated in a context-dependent 242 243 manner^{110,117}. For example, dysregulation of miR-324 was described in various cancer types including colorectal and gastric cancers, and its oncogene and tumor suppressor 244 functions have been both demonstrated depending on the cellular context¹¹⁸. Meanwhile, 245 several IncRNAs and circRNAs, including the IncRNA MALAT1 can act as a sponge for 246 247 miR-324¹¹⁸. miRNAs from the let-7 family have been also shown to exhibit dual 248 functionality, acting as tumor suppressors in cancer cells while concurrently exerting oncogenic effects within the TME¹¹⁹. Recently, an estrogen-driven mechanism was 249 250 discovered in which estrogen receptor-positive breast cancer cells eliminate the tumor 251 suppressor members of let-7 family via extracellular vesicles, and these have oncogenic 252 effects through the immunostimulatory (M1) macrophage activation and polarization in 253 the TME³⁶. Similarly, miR-21 released inside extracellular vesicles by glioblastoma cells 254 was demonstrated to act on microglial cells of the TME changing the levels of target genes, including *Btg2*, and consequently their phenotype¹²⁰. 255

Sequence conservation suggests positive selection during evolution and is therefore an important hint of potential functionality. Plenty of lncRNAs are transcribed from genomic regions that are perfectly conserved between humans, mice, and rats, termed ultraconserved elements (UCEs)¹²¹. However, newly-evolved, human, or primate-specific elements (pyknons) are also an interesting topic of research, and their non-coding transcripts were found to have a role in cancer progression¹²².

262 After their discovery, miRNA-encoded peptides (miPEPs) gained intense research interest, with several studies reporting the involvement of human ncPEPs in growth and 263 264 development, as well as disease. More recently, the pri-miR-34a-encoded miPEP133 265 (133 AA) has been demonstrated to positively regulate its own pri-miRNA in human cancer cell lines, in which it functions as a tumour suppressor¹²³. In contrast, pri-miR-31-266 encoded miPEP31 (44 AA) decreases the expression of miR-31 by binding to its promoter 267 region, inhibiting transcription initiation. miPEP31 is highly expressed in regulatory T cells 268 (Treg), promotes Treg cell differentiation, and suppresses experimental autoimmune 269 270 encephalomyelitis¹²⁴. Pri-miR-155-encoded miPEP155 (17 AA) does not influence the expression of pri-miR-155 but increases the expression of the oncogenic Rictor and 271 272 EGFR genes in HeLa cells¹²⁵. Pri-miR-147b-encoded MOCCI micropeptide seems to have a role in the immune response to viral infection¹²⁶, whereas miPEP200a (187 AA) 273 and miPEP200b (54 AA), encoded by pri-miR-200a and pri-miR-200b, respectively, 274 275 inhibited the migration of prostate cancer cells in vitro¹²⁷.

A IncRNA-encoded peptide identified to have a role in cancer is HOXB-AS3 (53 AA), translated from the IncRNA *HOXB-AS3*, which was shown to suppress colon cancer growth; its loss is a critical oncogenic event in metabolic reprogramming¹²⁸. Several IncRNA-encoded micropeptides have been further associated with cancer, such as the *LINC00665*-encoded CIP2A-BP (52 AA) and *LNC00908*-encoded ASRPS (60 AA), both of which inhibit breast cancer progression^{129,130}.

282 Through their roles in development, apoptosis, stress responses and cell cycle regulation, circRNAs-encoded peptides could be important in cancer initiation and 283 284 progression⁹⁴. Indeed, several circRNAs-encoded proteins, such as FBXW7-185aa, SHPRH-146aa, and PINT-87aa were shown to suppress glioma tumourigenesis^{84,131,132}. 285 286 Moreover, a recent study proposed a tumor suppressor role for the circRNA-encoded 287 protein circFGFR1p (87 AA), which negatively regulates the FGFR1 oncoprotein⁹⁷. Future 288 research should focus extensively on the functions of ncRNA-encoded peptides and their 289 coding mechanisms. Although there are still many challenges for such research, advances in coding prediction tools and genomics technologies should facilitate the 290 291 progress.

293 [H2] ncRNAs in cardiovascular diseases

Cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), including myocardial infarction, atherosclerosis, heart 294 failure, and cardiac hypertrophy, remain the leading cause of mortality and morbidity in 295 the world¹³³. ncRNAs are relevant for heart physiological activity and are involved in CVD 296 297 processes through their functions in regulating apoptosis, proliferation, migration, cardiac remodeling, fibrotic responses and cardiac hypertrophy^{134,135}. Emerging studies have 298 revealed that miRNAs are involved in the pathogenesis of CVDs. A notable example is 299 300 miR-21, which is upregulated in humans and mice with cardiac allograft vasculopathy (CAV), which is a complication of heart transplantation that limits long-term survival¹³⁶. 301 Moreover, miR-21 is also overexpressed in a mouse model of cardiac fibrosis caused by 302 myocardial infarction, and correlated with attenuated TGF8RIII levels¹³⁷, Silencing of miR-303 21 via antagomir-21 could disrupt CAV and prolong cardiac allograft survival¹³⁶ as well as 304 reduce hypertrophy and fibrosis and restore impaired cardiac function¹³⁸. It was also 305 306 recently demonstrated that anti-miR-21 treatment successfully suppressed miR-21 and improved cardiac function in a pig model of ischemia-reperfusion injury with reduced 307 308 cardiac fibrosis and hypertrophy¹³⁹.

309 miR-122 is abundantly expressed in various cardiovascular cell types. Upregulation 310 of miR-122 was shown in patients with systolic dysfunction, cardiovascular fibrosis and cardiovascular remodeling¹⁴⁰. Mechanistically, miR-122 was shown to directly inhibit the 311 312 anti-apoptotic protein Xiap in a mouse model of cardiovascular disease, promoting 313 endothelial cell apoptosis¹⁴¹. Moreover, circulating miR-122 level correlated negatively 314 with cardiac function and has been shown to be an important indicator with both predictive and prognostic value for cardiac recovery¹⁴⁰. In the same study, it was revealed that miR-315 122 inhibits the expression of the anti-apoptotic BCL2 and thereby decrease the viability 316 of cardiomyocytes¹⁴⁰. 317

The exact role of IncRNAs in CVDs has recently started to be elucidated. Notably, cardiac mesoderm enhancer-associated ncRNAs (CARMNs) are among the most thoroughly annotated IncRNAs. These IncRNAs are predominantly expressed in smooth muscle cells (SMCs) and are significantly upregulated in post-myocardial infarction^{142,143}.

322 Analysis of publicly available transcriptomic datasets has revealed a reduction in the expression of CARMNs in cerebral arteries with aneurysms and human atherosclerotic 323 324 arteries¹⁴². Downregulation of CARMNs in human coronary artery SMCs resulted in 325 enhanced cell proliferation and migration in vitro, and significantly attenuated the expression level of SMC-specific marker genes including MYH11, ACTA2, CNN1, 326 and TAGLN¹⁴². Furthermore, RNA immunoprecipitation assays confirmed that CARMN 327 could interact with MYOCD (Myocardin), an activator of SMC-specific genes and 328 transcriptionally active in cardiomyocytes as well as in SMCs¹⁴². 329

330 Adult mammalian hearts fail to regenerate after ischemic injury, primarily due to a 331 decline in cardiomyocyte mitosis. Yet, the specific molecular mechanisms that account 332 for the non-dividing nature of adult cardiomyocytes remain largely unknown¹⁴⁴. Cardiac regeneration-related IncRNA (CAREL) is increased in expression in postnatal hearts and 333 334 has been associated with regeneration during cardiac injury¹⁴⁴. Indeed, the capacity for cardiomyocytes to proliferate, an important step in regeneration, was attenuated in 335 transgenic mice that overexpress CAREL¹⁴⁴. In contrast, knocking down of CAREL in 336 337 cardiomyocytes by adenoviral shRNA increased the proliferation of cardiomyocytes and 338 enhanced cardiac regeneration after injury. Further experiments using biotin-avidin pull-339 down and luciferase assays in human embryonic kidney cells (HEK293) and neonatal cardiomyocytes have revealed that CAREL acts as a competing endogenous RNA to 340 miR-296, a positive regulator of cardiac replication and regeneration¹⁴⁴. Other IncRNAs, 341 such as ZFAS1145, SNHG3146, ExACT1147, MIAT148, CPhar148, Mhrt779148, H19149 and 342 CPR¹⁵⁰, have been implicated in myocardial ischemia-reperfusion injury, aortic valve 343 calcification, pathological hypertrophy, and heart failure, atherosclerosis in carotid 344 345 arteries, physiological cardiac hypertrophy, pulmonary arterial hypertension, and 346 cardiomyocyte proliferation, respectively.

147 It has also been reported that several circRNAs have an important role in heart failure and myocardial infarction. Global circRNA profiling demonstrated that the ultraconserved *circ-INSR*, derived from the gene encoding the insulin receptor (*INSR*), regulates mitochondrial functions in cardiomyocytes under doxorubicin stress¹⁵¹. In human and mouse failing heart tissue, the expression of *circ-INSR* was diminished, inducing apoptosis of cardiomyocytes and impairing metabolic activity¹⁵¹. Consistent with this observation, overexpression of *circ-INSR* successfully decreased doxorubicin-induced
 DNA damage and apoptosis of primary rat cardiomyocytes¹⁵¹.

In a recent study, researchers identified and investigated the function of *circHIPK3*, derived from exon 2 of the *HIPK3* gene within mouse heart. *CircHIPK3* negatively regulates the RBP Hur at the post-transcriptional level, which leads to the destabilization of *p21* mRNA in a rat cardiomyocyte cell line (H9C2) and primary mouse cardiomyocytes¹⁵². In addition, *circMAP3K5* is known to be associated with SMC differentiation by sponging miR-22-3p and thereby inducing the expression of *TET2* ¹⁵³.

361 A recent study demonstrated the protective effects of circSlc8a1 (a circular antisense RNA) in the context of heart injury, highlighting the important role of circSlc8a1 in 362 preserving physiological heart function¹⁵⁴. The experimental induction of cardiac-specific 363 expression of cA-circSlc8a1 in mice resulted in profound phenotypic alterations, notably 364 characterized by a substantial increase in body weight, hepatic steatosis, and impaired 365 cardiac function¹⁵⁴. Another study demonstrated that the *circNlgn*, along with its translated 366 product NIgn173, is a mediator of doxorubicin-induced cardiofibrosis ¹⁵⁵. Silencing 367 endogenous circNlgn has been found to reduce doxorubicin-induced cardiomyocyte 368 369 apoptosis and enhance cardiomyocyte viability. Moreover, the silencing of circNlgn 370 effectively inhibits collagen deposition and enhances the expression of fibrosis markers. 371 These findings suggest that targeting *circNlgn* could potentially alleviate the adverse 372 effects associated with doxorubicin, particularly its impact on fibrosis development¹⁵⁵.

In summary, ncRNAs have emerged as crucial regulators of cardiovascular
diseases¹⁵⁶ ¹⁵⁷, highlighting a promising research area that warrants further exploration.
Future research should continue to elucidate the molecular mechanisms and potential
therapeutic applications of ncRNAs, while large-scale, multicenter studies will have a
crucial role in validating their translational feasibility from the laboratory to the clinic.

378

379 [H2] Non-coding RNAs in neurodegenerative disorders

380 Neurodegenerative disorders, such as Alzheimer disease, Parkinson disease,
 381 amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), and Huntington disease, are characterized by

degeneration and loss of neurons in specific areas of the brain and the spinal cord. Neurodegenerative disorders are currently irreversible and tend to worsen over time with no effective treatment available; they are thus associated with severe morbidity and are considered one of the leading causes of death by the World Health Organization (WHO).

Dysregulation of miRNA expression has been frequently observed in the central 386 nervous system and is a powerful modulator of the onset of neurodegeneration¹⁵⁸. It has 387 been shown that increased expression of miR-29b-3p in striatal medium spiny neurons 388 389 (MSN) is associated with age and contributes to the degeneration of MSNs in Huntington disease by directly targeting the 3'-UTR of STAT3¹⁵⁹. Downregulation of STAT3 390 391 diminished autophagy and increased apoptosis in patient-derived MSNs. In Huntington 392 disease-MSNs, administration of anti-miR-29b-3p reduced neural cell death, whereas the 393 depletion of STAT3 counteracted the therapeutic effect of anti-miR-29b-3p treatment¹⁵⁹. 394 In other instances, miR-520f-3p, miR-135b-3p, miR-4317, miR-3928-5p, and miR-8082 have been found to be significantly differentially expressed in patients with Huntington 395 disease compared to the control group¹⁶⁰. Also, several miRNAs have been associated 396 397 with Alzheimer disease through directly regulating disease-associated risk factors, 398 including beta-site amyloid precursor protein cleaving enzyme 1 (BACE1), amyloid protein precursor (APP) cleavage, and presenilin-1 (PSEN1)¹⁶¹. Moreover, an elevated 399 miR-543 level was found in the white matter tissue of patients with early-stage Parkinson 400 disease, associated with a decreased level of SIRT1 protein, a potential target of mR-401 402 543. Subsequent in vitro experiments confirmed SIRT1 as a direct target of miR-543 and 403 the upregulation of miR-543 resulted in transcriptional downregulation of SIRT1 in a neuroblastoma cell line and foetal astrocytes¹⁶². 404

405 As many lncRNAs (~40%) are expressed in a brain-specific manner¹⁶³, experimentally 406 altering their expression might lead to important insights into neuronal development and 407 the pathogenesis of neurodegenerative disorders. However, only a small proportion of 408 IncRNAs have been studied with regard to their role in neurodevelopment and brain 409 function. For example, the IncRNA RUS, located upstream of the Slitrk3 gene, is predominantly expressed in neural tissues, and its level increases during the 410 differentiation of neural stem cells into neurons¹⁶⁴. Depletion of RUS resulted in 411 proliferation arrest and induced apoptosis in mouse embryonic cortical neural stem 412

413 cells¹⁶⁴. Another example is the IncRNA *TUNA*, which has been implicated in the neural 414 differentiation of mouse embryonic stem cells¹⁶⁵. When *TUNA* is depleted, embryonic 415 stem cell proliferation is compromised, although pluripotency is maintained. The *TUNA*-416 RNA binding proteins complex was detected at the promoters of important regulators of 417 embryonic stem cell differentiation, including *Nanog*, *Sox2* and *Fgf4*. Single knockdown 418 of each of these RBPs led to inhibition of neural differentiation of mouse ESCs, similar to 419 the effect of *TUNA* knockdown¹⁶⁵.

420 The role of circRNAs in the molecular pathogenesis of neurodegenerative disorders and brain aging was recently reviewed¹⁶⁶. Several circRNAs associated with 421 422 neurodegenerative diseases were shown to act as miRNA sponges, such as circHDAC9, 423 circSAMD4A, circDLGAP4, and circSLC8A1¹⁶⁶. The mechanisms of action of these circRNAs during normal conditions remain unknown, and it is therefore difficult to 424 425 determine their exact role in disease development. In rat spinal cord injury (SCI) models, the expression of circRNA-2960 was found to be significantly enriched and it was 426 suggested that circRNA-2960 might exacerbate secondary damage to the spinal cord. 427 Mechanistically, circRNA-2960 inhibits its target miR-124, a molecule that prevents 428 429 secondary injuries from SCI and promotes injury recovery. The regulation of miR-124 430 expression by circRNA-2960 could therefore represent a crucial mechanism that influences the prognosis of SCI¹⁶⁷. Overall, despite clear evidence of aberrant expression 431 of circRNAs in neurological disorders¹⁶⁸⁻¹⁷⁰, the functional significance of these alterations 432 433 remains to be thoroughly investigated. Because each ncRNA could be involved in 434 different pathways in neurons, further studies at the level of singular targets of specific ncRNAs are warranted to discover ncRNAs that could serve as biomarkers and 435 436 therapeutic targets for neurodegenerative disorders.

437

438 [H1] ncRNAs in infectious diseases and sepsis

Many studies have assessed how ncRNAs are involved in immune defense against
 microbial infections^{171,172}. When considered collectively, ncRNAs act as positive or
 negative regulators to encourage a balanced immune response for an effective defense

442 against pathogens¹⁷³. In **Box 1** we highlight the example of miR-155, which is functionally
443 involved in many types of diseases, and discuss its therapeutic use.

444 miRNAs have been functionally connected to the cellular response during microbial infections. For example, miR-718, which is encoded from the 5' UTR of IRAK1, was 445 shown to have an anti-inflammatory function through targeting PTEN¹⁷⁴. IRAK1 is an 446 important component of the TLR signaling pathways and thereby has a role in innate 447 immunity, whereas PTEN downregulation by miR-718 decreases proinflammatory 448 449 cytokine production through its downstream target molecules¹⁷⁴. Pre-miR-718 is highly 450 conserved across mammals and decreased miR-718 expression was shown to be associated with Neisseria gonorrhoeae infection¹⁷⁴. It was hypothesized that miR-718 can 451 452 help to evade recurrent bacterial infections and lower the lipopolysaccharide (LPS)induced mortality rate by establishing LPS-induced tolerance¹⁷⁴. On the same TLR 453 454 pathway, let-7i directly binds to and downregulates TLR4¹⁷⁵, participating in the immune response against Cryptosporidium parvum, a parasite that causes intestinal and biliary 455 infections. 456

457 It was shown that MALAT1 IncRNA is a key player in controlling macrophage M1/M2 458 polarization¹⁷⁶. Briefly, MALAT1 expression is upregulated in LPS-treated macrophages, which differentiate towards a proinflammatory M1 phenotype, and it is downregulated in 459 IL-4-treated cells, which differentiate in the M2 subtype. Notably, MALAT1 knockdown 460 461 decreases LPS-induced M1 macrophage activation, whereas IL-4-induced M2 differentiation and a macrophage profibrotic phenotype are increased by MALAT1 462 463 knockdown¹⁷⁶. Consistent with these observations, an independent study found that the 464 expression of Mirt2 IncRNA is elevated upon activation of the LPS-p38-Stat1 and LPS-465 IFN- α/β -Stat1 pathways in mouse macrophages¹⁷⁷. Increased levels of *Mirt2* upon LPS treatment inhibited the K63-ubiquitination of TRAF6 and relieved inflammatory responses 466 after TLR4 activation¹⁷⁷. Other early experiments found that treating M2 microglia cells 467 with IL-4 caused a dramatic decrease in the expression of IncRNA GAS5 compared with 468 469 resting microglia¹⁷⁸. Mechanistically, GAS5 negatively regulates the transcription of IRF4 by binding PRC2 to inhibit M2 polarization¹⁷⁸. Recently, it was reported that ablation of 470 471 the mouse IncRNA *Malat1* activates the antioxidant pathway and alleviates sepsis¹⁷⁹.

473 [H2] Sepsis and the balance between human and viral miRNAs

472

474 Sepsis, the final stage of full-body disequilibrium to pathogenic bacterial, viral or fungal infections, remains a leading cause of human death and currently has no pathogenesis-475 specific therapy¹⁸⁰. Since the initial discovery of downregulated miR-150 in peripheral 476 blood cells and plasma from patients with septic shock¹⁸¹, a substantial number of 477 dysregulated cellular miRNAs in sepsis have been identified¹⁸². Cellular overexpression 478 479 of miR-150 was sufficient to inhibit the pre-pro-B cell to pro-B cell transition by targeting MYB and FOXP1, respectively^{183,184}. The miR-212 and miR-132 cluster was found to 480 have a similar effect through negative regulation of FOXP1 and SOX4, respectively¹⁸⁵. In 481 482 another study, the loss of function of the miR-15 family, which comprises the miR-15a/miR-16-1, miR-15b/miR-16-2, and miR-497/miR-195 clusters, reduced normal pre-B 483 differentiation by directly targeting cyclin E1 and D3¹⁸⁶. Another recent study reported that 484 miR-146a-5p is highly enriched in Leishmania donovani-infected bone marrow-derived 485 486 macrophages (BMDMs), and positively correlates with dose and time of infection, which was further examined in an in vitro mouse model¹⁸⁷. In infected BMDMs, downregulation 487 488 of miR-146a-5p led to a decrease in Arg1 expression and abundance of iNOS. It was 489 observed that silencing BRD4 effectively restored miR-146a-5p expression and M2 polarization marker expressions in infected BMDMs¹⁸⁷. Another therapeutically important 490 sepsis-related miRNA, miR-93-5p, was uncovered by analyzing mouse and baboon 491 492 models of sepsis, in addition to human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) 493 obtained from patients with sepsis. In an in vivo mouse sepsis model, inhibition of miR-494 93-5p reduced inflammatory monocytes and increased circulating effector memory T 495 cells, resulting in longer survival¹⁸⁸.

Although investigation of a single miRNA can yield insight into its biological function, it does not capture the complex, interconnected network of miRNAs that control cell biology and disease. In patients with sepsis, the miRNA network exhibits significantly less connection when compared to that of healthy controls. Perhaps explaining this observation, several miRNAs, including miR-16, miR-29a, miR-146, miR-155, and miR- 501 182, were reported to be 'sponged' by their protein coding targets in patients with 502 sepsis¹⁸⁹.

503 Unexpectedly, it was discovered that Kaposi sarcoma virus (KSV)-produced miRNAs 504 are differentially expressed in sepsis and may be used for diagnostic and therapeutic purposes. Specifically, elevated levels of miR-K-10b and miR-K12-12* play a functional 505 506 role in sepsis as agonists of TLR8, leading to cytokine dysregulation characteristic of a cytokine storm¹⁹⁰. Moreover, the viral Epstein Barr miR-BHRF-1 and the KSV miR-K12-507 508 12 were detected in plasma during the early systemic response to injury and were 509 associated with unfavorable outcomes in polytrauma patients¹⁹¹. Starting from these 510 observations, we suggest considering non-human (particularly viral) ncRNAs when using 511 next-generation sequencing (NGS) methods to screen for ncRNAs involved in sepsis and 512 other human diseases. Although virus-encoded-ncRNAs have largely been linked to 513 immune evasion, virus life cycle regulation and virus-induced tumorigenesis¹⁹², there is a 514 considerable gap in understanding the specific mechanisms and processes underlying 515 these functions.

516

517 [H2] SARS-CoV-2 infection and ncRNAs

518 Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome 519 coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), has led to hundreds of millions of confirmed cases and 520 millions of deaths all over the world in the last few years¹⁹³. The importance of ncRNAs 521 in infectious diseases prompted scientists to swiftly investigate their potential role in 522 COVID-19 soon after the beginning of the pandemic¹⁹⁴. As a result, several studies 523 published in the last three years demonstrate the involvement of miRNAs and lncRNAs 524 in COVID-19^{12,195-197}.

A recent study reported that SARS-CoV-2 expresses a miRNA-like small RNA, termed CoV2-miR-O7a, which is derived from the coding region of the *ORF7a* transcript¹⁹⁵. CoV2-miR-O7a is associated with Ago proteins, seems to influence interferon signaling pathways, and may contribute to SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis¹⁹⁵. It has also been shown that IncRNAs, such as *CHROMR*, are overexpressed in patients with SARS-CoV-2

infection¹⁹⁸. Depletion of CHROMR resulted in attenuated interferon-stimulated gene 530 expression and the sequestration of the nuclear repressor complex, IRF-2/IRF2BP2¹⁹⁸. 531 In addition, other IncRNAs, such as PIRAT and LUCAT1 have been shown to be 532 upregulated in patients with COVID-19 and were implicated in the progression of the 533 534 disease. PIRAT appears to be preferentially expressed in myeloid cells and has been 535 connected to tissue infiltration in infectious and inflammatory diseases¹⁹⁷. Through the inhibition of alarmin expression, PIRAT creates a negative feedback loop with PU.1, 536 located in the nucleus of human monocytes¹⁹⁷. Consistent with this finding, negative 537 feedback regulation was observed between LUCAT1 and Jack-STAT-dependent IFN 538 539 immunity¹⁹⁹.

540 Coronavirus transcriptomes seem to contain additional components that contribute to 541 the intensified inflammatory responses observed in patients with SARS-CoV-2, SARS, and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) 200. circRNAs encoded by coronavirus 542 genomes have been identified and are implicated in viral pathogenesis²⁰⁰. For instance, 543 two SARS-CoV-2 circRNAs contain IRES signals and have the potential for translation²⁰⁰. 544 Moreover, in a study utilizing the human-pathogenic MERS-CoV as a model, the 545 interactions between circRNAs and key components of the host cell competing 546 547 endogenous RNA network were demonstrated, revealing several differentially expressed circRNAs during coronavirus replication²⁰¹. Downregulation of circFNDC3B and 548 549 circCNOT1 resulted in a substantial reduction in MERS-CoV viral load in human lung cancer cells (Calu-3) and fibroblast cells (HFL1), potentially related to the downregulation 550 of their target genes, specifically MAP3K9 and USP15²⁰¹. Further research is needed to 551 552 identify clinically applicable ncRNA signatures and explore the role of ncRNA in 553 immunological and peripheral system regulation. However, a signature composed of 6 IncRNAs including NRIR, BISPR, MIR155HG, FMR1-IT1, USP30-AS1, and U62317.2 554 555 has been shown to be associated with the regulation of SARS-CoV-2 infection¹⁹⁶. 556 Moreover, the importance of coronavirus infections as a source of interacting RNA and identifying novel drug targets for patients affected by SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, and 557 MERS patients remain important areas of investigation. 558

560 [H1] ncRNAs as disease biomarkers

561 Interest among the scientific community in the use of ncRNAs as disease biomarkers rely 562 on several critical observations and considerations. First, relevant changes in ncRNA 563 expression or activity have been detected in pathological tissues, rendering these molecules good indicators of underlying disease state or specific disease features²⁰². 564 565 Second, technologies are available for quantifying small and long ncRNAs in different tissue types and across different preservation methods (such as fresh frozen and fixed 566 567 tissue samples). These span from PCR-based assays, through hybridization-based methods to NGS-based technologies. Finally, it is possible to quantify specific ncRNA 568 569 molecules in cellular and subcellular compartments of diseased cells, as well as in 570 extracellular compartments (such as extracellular vesicles, body fluids including urine, saliva, cerebrospinal fluid, synovial fluid, placenta, and breast milk)²⁰³, which makes these 571 572 molecules suitable for liquid biopsy applications. MicroRNAs were recently found to be 573 selectively inserted in extracellular vesicles, that also display a moderate content of small ncRNAs, the distribution and composition of which depends on the size and isolation 574 575 method. Comprehensive review articles have recently been published covering the main discoveries on biomarker ncRNAs and human diseases^{8,204-210}. 576

577 Several considerations should be made regarding studies on IncRNA in liquid biopsy 578 samples. The levels of IncRNA in plasma and serum are particularly low compared to intracellular levels, their detection can be challenging, and their stability can be a 579 concern²¹¹⁻²¹³. Therefore, the preanalytical steps should be well-standardized, and the 580 appropriate reference genes should be selected carefully²¹¹⁻²¹³. Furthermore, the 581 582 examination of genome-wide miRNA expression profiles in both healthy and diseased 583 aging individuals has revealed that age has a significant impact on blood miRNA 584 composition, potentially compounding the interpretation of results in the older population^{214,215}. 585

586

587 [H2] ncRNAs as biomarkers in cancer

588 Each year, thousands of papers are published on the differential expression of ncRNAs 589 in various types of cancer. Although many of these studies suggest that the identified dysregulated ncRNAs have potential as biomarkers and/or therapeutic targets, only a small fraction will reach in clinical trials. The <u>NIH Early Detection Research Network</u> (EDRN) and the <u>ClinicalTrials.gov</u> database are useful to track the hundreds of ongoing clinical trials of ncRNAs as potential biomarkers for cancer and other diseases. **Table 1** provides examples of clinical trials that examine the use of ncRNAs as biomarkers of disease; a comprehensive summary of clinical trials at <u>ClinicalTrials.gov</u> is provided in **Supplementary Table 1**.

597

598 [H3] ncRNAs as tissue biomarkers

599 Among the small ncRNA biomarkers most broadly tested in cancer tissues is miR-21-5p, 600 which has been validated as a diagnostic or prognostic biomarker in most frequent 601 cancers, such as lung²¹⁶, breast²¹⁷, colorectal^{218,219}, and CLL²²⁰. miR-21 is also released 602 in circulation and detectable in extracellular vesicles, as described in the next section. 603 miR-506-3p is another miRNA that has demonstrated significant prognostic potential across multiple cancer types, including ovarian, pancreatic, and gastric cancer²²¹⁻²²³. 604 605 Likewise, miR-31-3p has predictive potential and has been shown to have clinical relevance in metastatic colorectal cancer (CRC). Specifically, low levels of miR-31-3p 606 have been identified as a predictor of response to anti-EGFR therapy in two clinical 607 studies^{224,225}. Currently, miR-10b-5p is the subject of investigation in an ongoing multi-608 609 site clinical trial on gliomas as a potential biomarker (NCT01849952) and has been 610 identified as a potential therapeutic target in advanced glioblastoma²²⁶.

611 Regarding IncRNA biomarkers, the most studied IncRNA in cancer tissues is HOTAIR. HOTAIR is involved in chromatin reprogramming, and its expression has been tested as 612 a diagnostic or prognostic and predictive biomarker in ovarian²²⁷, colorectal²²⁸, breast²²⁹, 613 esophageal²³⁰, and pancreatic²³¹ cancer. MALAT1 has been identified as an early 614 615 prognostic marker for metastasis development in surgically removed lung cancer²³², while 616 CCAT1 and CCAT2 have well-characterized mechanistic roles and serve as prognostic biomarkers for CRC^{233,234}. The detection of *PCA3* in urine is an FDA-approved diagnostic 617 biomarker for prostate cancer. Furthermore, the combined measurement of PCA3 and 618

the *TMPRSS2:ERG* gene fusion in prostate biopsy can improve the detection of prostate
 cancer²³⁵.

621

622 [H3] ncRNA biomarkers in liquid biopsies and extracellular vesicles

623 Circulating ncRNA biomarkers gained much attention in biomedical research when it was 624 discovered that several tumour-associated miRNAs, including miR-155 and miR-21, were 625 elevated in the serum of patients with diffuse large B cell lymphoma (DLBCL)²³⁶. 626 Additionally, serum levels of miR-141 were found to distinguish patients with prostate 627 cancer from healthy controls. It subsequently became clear that miRNAs are stable in a 628 large variety of biological fluids²⁰³.

629 As aberrant miR-21-5p expression is associated with inflammatory events, increased levels of this miRNA in serum or plasma have been reported in many human conditions, 630 spanning from cancer to cardiac disorders. In cancer, there is now convincing data on the 631 value of miR-21-5p as a biomarker for gastric, esophageal and prostate cancer^{218,237-239}. 632 633 Among the circulating miRNAs with the confirmed diagnostic value, miR-371-3p is highly 634 promising; indeed, a prospective multicentric study on testicular germ cell tumours²⁴⁰ 635 (teratoma excluded), revealed that miR-371-3p had a detection accuracy greater than 90%, higher than standard-of-care biomarkers, including alpha-fetoprotein in surgically 636 resected tumours²⁴¹. ncRNA biomarkers can be particularly useful in diseases that are 637 638 difficult to diagnose, and where no coding gene-based biomarkers have been identified²⁴². 639

640 A frequently explored opportunity in biomarker studies of circulating miRNAs is the 641 use of miRNA signatures, composed of miRNAs that are expressed concordantly. Two studies have proposed miRNA signatures consisting of 13 miRNAs for early detection of 642 643 lung cancer, to be used alone^{243,244} or in combination with low-dose Computer 644 Tomography (CT) scan²⁴⁵, with promising results in clinical trials. Another group validated an eight miRNA signature for the early diagnosis of esophageal squamous cell 645 carcinoma²³⁹ in different prospective cohorts. A circulating miRNA signature composed 646 of five miRNAs can distinguish more aggressive prostate cancers²⁴⁶. 647

The levels of miR-25-3p and miR-92a-3p were tested as prognostic biomarkers in patients with liposarcoma since they are secreted by liposarcoma cells through extracellular vesicles. The secreted miRNAs indeed act as proinflammatory signals for tumour-associated macrophages²⁴⁷.

Detection of unmethylated fragments of the IncRNA *XIST* in plasma has been associated with testicular cancer presence²⁴⁸ and proposed as a testicular germ-cell tumour biomarker²⁴⁹. Moreover, the IncRNA *ANRIL* was found to be upregulated in bone marrow mononuclear cells of patients with acute myeloid leukemia (AML) compared to healthy donors and suggested to serve as a valuable prognostic biomarker for AML²⁵⁰.

657

658 [H2] ncRNAs biomarkers in cardiovascular diseases

ncRNAs with a diagnostic role in cardiovascular disease have been extensively 659 investigated²⁰⁶. Cardiac tissue is not easily accessible; therefore, biomarkers of cardiac 660 661 disorders are commonly tested in the blood or blood derivatives (plasma and serum)²⁵¹. A prospective study tested the association between extracellular miRNA levels and heart 662 failure risk in approximately 2,400 individuals²⁵². Three plasmatic miRNAs (miR-17, miR-663 20a, and miR-106b) were associated with heart failure, such that individuals with higher 664 levels of these miRNAs had a 15% reduction in long-term incident heart failure, after 665 adjustments for other risk factors. 666

667 Cardiac tissue-specific miR-1, miR-133, and miR-208 (collectively known as myomirs) 668 have been tested as circulating biomarkers in different settings. These miRNAs are 669 collectively released to the circulation upon heart failure²⁵³ and were proposed as 670 diagnostic biomarkers to distinguish coronary artery disease (CAD, the primary cause of 671 mortality in the United States), acute coronary syndrome, and heart failure²⁵⁴. As 672 prognostic biomarkers, circulating miR-132, miR-140-3p, and miR-210 were validated as 673 survival predictors in CAD on 1112 individuals using a multivariate model²⁵⁵.

The detection of various lncRNAs in the bloodstream suggests that they are either protected from RNase-mediated degradation, similar to miRNAs or that they originate from a plentiful source with a continuous release. Two circulating lncRNAs, *ZFAS1* and *ICDR1AS*, have recently been identified as independent predictors of myocardial
infarction²⁵⁶. However, the precise origins and mechanisms linking these IncRNAs to
myocardial infarction remain uncertain, as they were derived from whole blood²⁵⁶.
Conversely, decreased levels of the IncRNA *HOTAIR* were observed in the plasma of
myocardial infarction patients and were described to be cardioprotective through
interaction with miR-1²⁵⁷.

CircRNAs are present in abundance in bodily fluids such as blood, urine, and 683 684 extracellular vesicles. These molecules have high stability and exhibit differential expression patterns in response to stress stimuli²⁵⁸. The circRNA MICRA, also known as 685 686 circ-ZNF609, was found to be significantly reduced in the blood of individuals who have experienced myocardial infarction and serves as a promising prognostic biomarker for left 687 ventricular dysfunction following myocardial infarction^{259,260}. Furthermore, circRNA 688 689 microarray analysis of PBMCs from patients with CAD has revealed hsa circRNA 0001879 and hsa circRNA 0004104 as potential diagnostic biomarkers 690 for this condition²⁶¹. Besides the IncRNAs and circRNAs mentioned above, additional 691 transcripts have been suggested as potential circulating biomarkers in CVD^{262,263}. The 692 693 testing of IncRNAs and circRNAs as biomarkers in CVD is still at an early stage, although their above-mentioned dysregulation points toward potential usefulness in the near future, 694 as it was recently reviewed^{264,265}. A large proportion of the findings that suggest IncRNAs 695 and circRNAs may serve as biomarkers for CVD are based on studies that involve limited 696 697 numbers of participants and therefore require independent validation in larger studies.

698

699 [H2] ncRNAs biomarkers in neurodegenerative diseases

As obtaining nervous tissue from living individuals can be challenging, body fluids are often used as the most reliable source of ncRNAs. Several studies investigated the use of circulating small RNAs as Alzheimer disease biomarkers, tested either in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), serum, or plasma, and derived extracellular vesicles. Serum miRNA signatures to differentiate frontotemporal lobar degeneration²⁶⁶ or other forms of dementia²⁶⁷ and Alzheimer disease were proposed. The neuronal-released miR-181a-5p was proposed as a circulating prognostic biomarker for ALS²⁶⁸. In this study, the authors performed longitudinal monitoring of miR-181 in 252 patients subdivided into discovery
and validation cohorts, and the potential of plasma miR-181 in predicting patients' death
risk was assessed.

A panel of IncRNAs, quantified in PBMCs, was proposed as a diagnostic biomarker for multiple sclerosis²⁶⁹. Two of these IncRNAs, *NRON* and *TUG1*, were validated in an independent cohort. As for discrimination of multiple sclerosis subtypes, both CSF- and blood-circulating miRNAs have been investigated. Specifically, high levels of CSF miR-181c were associated with conversion from clinically isolated syndrome to relapsingremitting (recovering) multiple sclerosis²⁷⁰. Serum miR-191-5p and miR-128-3p were associated with progressive forms (no recovery) of multiple sclerosis²⁷¹.

717 A total of 4,060 circRNAs with differential expression levels were identified in PBMCs derived from patients diagnosed with Alzheimer disease²⁷². In silico analysis showed that 718 719 the top 10 dysregulated circRNAs were strongly associated with various risk factors of 720 AD, including inflammation, metabolism, and immune responses. These findings suggest 721 that these circRNAs might play a potential role in the diagnosis of AD²⁷². As another example, high expression levels of three circRNAs, circFUNDC1, circPDS5B, and 722 723 circCDC14A, were found in patients with acute ischemic stroke (AIS) compared with healthy controls²⁷³. The elevated expression levels of these circRNAs were found to be 724 725 positively correlated with infarct volume. These findings suggest that the three circRNAs may serve as potential biomarkers for the diagnosis of AIS²⁷³. 726

727

728 [H1] Non-coding RNA therapeutics

729 The use of RNA-based therapies has emerged as a promising treatment approach for human diseases and vaccine development. Certain endogenous ncRNAs can regulate 730 731 the expression of genes involved in human diseases, and their dysregulated expression 732 can contribute to the onset of disease, highlighting the potential of these ncRNAs as 733 targets for drug development. ncRNAs play a dual role in cancer as either oncogenes or 734 tumour suppressors, leading to the abnormal inhibition or degradation of their target 735 mRNAs, and as a result, they serve as both direct therapeutic targets and potential 736 therapeutic candidates for cancer treatment. In this respect, the utilization of miRNA-

737 based therapeutics offers dual advantages. Firstly, as natural molecules found within human cells, miRNAs possess pre-existing mechanisms for their processing and 738 739 downstream target selection, in contrast to artificial chemotherapy compounds or 740 Antisense Oligonucleotides (ASOs). Secondly, miRNAs target multiple genes within a single pathway, leading to a more comprehensive and specific response. Several recent 741 742 reviews have extensively discussed a range of approaches to modulate the therapeutic 743 potential of ncRNAs, including the use of siRNAs, ASOs, shRNAs, anti-miRNAs, miRNA 744 mimics, miRNA sponges, therapeutic circRNAs, and CRISPR-Cas9-based gene editing^{52,274-278}. Currently, several ongoing clinical trials investigate the specific targeting 745 of miRNAs for therapeutic purposes (Table 2); it is expected that similar clinical trials for 746 747 IncRNAs and circRNAs will begin in the near future.

748

749 [H2] Approaches of non-coding RNA therapeutics

Currently, two main approaches exist for ncRNA-based therapeutic interventions, depending on the desired molecular outcome. The first is ncRNA antagonism, which involves inhibiting or repressing the expression or function of target ncRNA transcripts, often achieved by antisense RNAs. The second approach, known as ncRNA replacement therapy, aims to restore the expression or function of the target ncRNA and mostly involves the introduction of small RNAs.

One example of the former approach is Remlarsen (MRG-201), a molecule designed 756 to mimic the activity of miR-29, which was shown to reduce the expression of proteins 757 758 involved in skin fibrosis²⁷⁹. MRG-201 was investigated in a phase 2, double-blind, 759 placebo-controlled study (NCT03601052) to explore the efficacy, safety and tolerability of 760 the drug following intradermal injection in individuals with a history of scar fibrosis 761 (keloids). Furthermore, based on the reports that MRG-201 reduced fibrosis in animal 762 models, a peptide-conjugated MRG-229 mimic was developed as a potential therapy in humans with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis²⁸⁰. After detailed anti-fibrotic activity tested in 763 multiple models, including TGF-β1-treated human lung fibroblasts (NHLFs) and human 764 765 precision-cut lung slices (hPCLS), in vivo bleomycin studies and toxicology in rats and 766 non-human primates, the outcomes supports further clinical development²⁸⁰.

A recent example of directly targeting ncRNA transcripts is a phase 1 randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled study to assess the safety, pharmacokinetics, and pharmacodynamic properties of CDR132L, an antisense oligonucleotide-based inhibitor of miR-132, in patients with stable heart failure of ischaemic origin (NCT04045405). This trial described the linear plasma pharmacokinetics of miR-132, with no signs of accumulation, and was associated with cardiac functional improvements²⁸¹.

Additional developments in ncRNA-related therapeutics are of particular interest. A 773 774 new therapeutic option is to target the downstream pathways of master regulator ncRNAs, including their target coding genes. As an example, the miR-15a/16-1 cluster is an 775 776 essential player in CLL pathogenesis by targeting key anti-apoptotic proteins, BCL2 and MCL1²⁸². When this cluster is downregulated or deleted, as in CLL, the downstream 777 coding genes are upregulated, and the malignant cells lose anti-apoptotic potential and 778 779 survive for longer periods. This mechanism had made CLL a deadly disease, until the development of Venetoclax (ABT199), a BCL-2 homology 3 (BH3) mimetic that 780 specifically inhibits Bcl-2. Its use has fundamentally changed the natural history of the 781 782 disease. Today, the therapeutic combination of Venetoclax and inhibitors of Bruton tyrosine kinase (such as Ibrutinib) increase progression-free survival and overall survival 783 rates at 24 months to 95% and 98%, respectively²⁸³. As the downregulation of miR-15a/16 784 cluster is frequent also in other human cancers²⁸⁴, the identification of patients with 785 genomic deletions or mutations and/or with reduced expression of miR-15a/16 can 786 787 identify patients who might respond well to Venetoclax or other novel BH3 mimetics.

Due to different mechanisms of action, a specific microRNA can be considered either 788 789 a drug or a drug target in different pathologic conditions. For example, miR-16 was 790 discovered as a tumour suppressor miRNA and therefore restoration by a miR-16 mimetic 791 constitutes a suitable therapeutic strategy in cancers where this miRNA has reduced 792 expression. For example, the safety and activity of miR-16-loaded minicells in patients with recurrent malignant pleural mesothelioma showed an acceptable safety profile and 793 794 early signs of activity²⁸⁵. By contrast, recent studies showed that endothelium-targeted 795 deletion of the miR-15a/16-1 cluster ameliorates blood-brain barrier dysfunction in ischemic stroke²⁸⁶ and poststroke angiogenesis and improves long-term neurological 796 recovery²⁸⁷. In this setting, the use of anti-miR-16 agents can result in adequate 797

therapeutic progress. Another promising therapeutic target is miR-21, which, besides its 798 799 relevance to other diseases, has recently been demonstrated to be upregulated in 800 pulmonary macrophages of both patients with COVID-19 and mice exhibiting acute 801 inflammatory lung injury. The inhibition of miR-21 (using RCS-21) reversed the 802 pathological activation of the macrophages and prevented pulmonary dysfunction and fibrosis after acute lung damage in the mouse model²⁸⁸. The development of small-803 804 molecule inhibitors (SMIs) of miRNAs, which directly bind and inhibit the activity of an 805 oncogenic or disease-causing miRNA (Box 1), has important advantages over the use of 806 oligonucleotides, such as superior metabolic stability, solubility and bioavailability^{276,289-} 807 ²⁹¹. By use of small molecule inhibitors [G], effective inhibition of oncomiRs (such as miR-808 10b), as well as the upregulation of some important tumour suppressor targets (such as PTEN) has been achieved in pre-clinical studies²⁹². In addition, two small molecules 809 targeting specifically the triple-helical element for nuclear expression in Malat1 RNA, but 810 811 not other similar structures present in the IncRNA Neat1, were identified by high-812 throughput screening. The compounds significantly reduced Malat1 levels and activation 813 of its downstream genes and induced the phenotypic attenuation of mammary gland organoids branching²⁹³. This approach has great therapeutic potential as it can be 814 815 developed against small RNAs with very similar structures (as miR-21 and miR-10b), as 816 well as any large RNA that has a known secondary structure and that is involved in any 817 non-cancer disease including infectious diseases. An example of a potentially targetable RNA is the genome of SARS-CoV-2, which is the largest single-stranded RNA virus 818 819 known to infect humans²⁹⁴.

820

821 [H2] Challenges of non-coding RNA therapeutics

Although ncRNAs have demonstrated therapeutic potential in vitro and in vivo, their limited bioavailability in vivo presents a major challenge to their clinical translation²⁷⁵. To overcome this obstacle, advanced drug delivery strategies are urgently required. To address the problems of a short half-life, off-target effects, and low transfection efficiency associated with RNA delivery, various ncRNA carriers and systems have been proposed and extensively investigated, including several types of nanoparticles, ncRNA modification, and the oncolytic adenovirus strategy. These strategies represent promising
 approaches to enhance the delivery and efficacy of ncRNA-based therapies in vivo²⁷⁵.

830 In parallel to improving delivery systems, challenges regarding the safety of ncRNA therapies need to be addressed. Despite ongoing clinical trials evaluating miRNA 831 therapeutics for the treatment of human diseases, immune-related side effects still 832 present a significant challenge²⁹⁵. To illustrate, a phase I clinical study involving MRX34, 833 a liposomal miR-34a mimic, was prematurely terminated due to severe immune-related 834 835 side effects that resulted in the unfortunate deaths of four patients²⁹⁶. However, there is still uncertainty regarding the specific cause of the clinical effects (including both toxicity 836 837 and anti-tumor activity) observed in MRX34. Serious adverse events (SAEs) attributed to 838 the treatment were predominantly observed later in the treatment cycle, occurring after 839 the completion of daily MRX34 infusions. These SAEs included sepsis, hypoxia, cytokine 840 release syndrome, and hepatic failure, which collectively suggest a pattern indicative of immune-mediated toxicity²⁹⁶. It is unclear whether these effects are attributable to the 841 targeted gene-suppressing activity of the miR-34a nucleotide, a non-specific 842 843 inflammatory response triggered by the dsRNA present in the MRX34 formulation, or 844 possibly another underlying mechanism²⁹⁶. Considering the administration of 845 dexamethasone pre-medication and the absence of similar SAEs associated with the same liposomal carrier used for a different investigational oligonucleotide drug, it is not 846 likely that the severe toxicities observed in MRX34 were caused by the liposome 847 carrier^{297,298}. Moreover, the immune-related toxicities observed, along with the 848 849 unconventional response patterns occasionally seen with other immune-activating agents 850 such as CTLA-4 and PD-1/L1 immune checkpoint inhibitors, indicate an immune-851 mediated mechanism underlying the clinical effects of MRX34^{299,300}.

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853 [H1] Conclusions and outlook

Recent advancements in comprehensive functional genomics have improved our understanding of the mechanism of action of ncRNAs on fundamental pathways related to human diseases, thereby enhancing our knowledge of the clinical manifestations and natural history of human diseases including cancer. However, understanding the full 858 range of ncRNA functions in human diseases still necessitates extensive investigation and clarification. For example, the amount of ncRNA exploration in infectious diseases 859 860 could be widely expanded and such knowledge be used to prevent (through innovative biomarkers or vaccines) or control (through new therapeutics) future pandemics. This 861 862 review has exclusively focused on the ncRNAs that have garnered the most attention in the literature. It is important to recognize that many other ncRNA types were not 863 addressed here and therefore the impact of the entire ncRNA landscape in human 864 865 diseases is even broader. Conducting large-scale expression screens and clinically evaluating ncRNAs can aid in identifying new non-coding transcripts that have a role in 866 human diseases, potentially serving as therapeutic targets or biomarkers. 867

868 An essential question is: where is the field heading in the near future? We 869 anticipate at least three major areas of development. First, we need to catalog and 870 annotate all ncRNAs from each human cell type and body fluid in populations of millions of individuals from different races and ages, and possibly at the single-cell level. We are 871 witnessing the start of such a huge and beneficial effort³⁰¹. From a technological point of 872 view, ncRNA quantification methods and data analysis methods are already available, so 873 the bottleneck for this goal is more related to coordination and funding rather than 874 875 technology availability. Such a catalog will be essential for understanding new 876 mechanisms of diseases and even more so for biomarker development. Second, there is 877 a need to advance proteomics methodologies capable of accurately and consistently 878 identifying micropeptides ranging from 10-20 amino acids in length. These extremely 879 short peptides originated from ncRNAs could be in a far greater number than what is 880 currently known thus holding a more extensive biological relevance than previously 881 assumed. If this is the case, then we will witness another major transformation in the 882 ncRNA paradigm that will offer the scientific community an additional large category of 'micro' molecules to examine in-depth, carrying relevant translational implications. 883 Another pivotal potential advancement will be the development of secure and effective 884 ncRNA therapeutics. A revolutionary therapeutic breakthrough on par with the targeted 885 886 efficacy of Gleevec or the immunotherapeutic impact of anti-PD1/PD-L1 drugs could 887 substantially propel the field forward. One promising avenue in this domain involves

harnessing artificial intelligence to facilitate high-throughput development andinvestigation of small molecules that bind to coding and non-coding RNAs.

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- 1859 Author contributions
- 1860 The authors contributed equally to all aspects of the article.
- 1861
- 1862 Competing interest's statement
- 1863 G.A.C. is one of the scientific founders of Ithax Pharmaceuticals. The other authors1864 declare no competing interests.
- 1865
- 1866
- 1867 **Peer review information**
- 1868 Nature Reviews Genetics thanks Howard Chang, who co-reviewed with Hyerim Yi, and
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- 1870
- 1871

Commentato [MA1]: Copy editor and MPS: Please leave names written out in full in dedication.

1872 **Related links**

1873

- 1874 FuncPEP https://bioinformatics.mdanderson.org/Supplements/FuncPEP/database.html
- 1875 miRbase https://www.mirbase.org/
- 1876 NIH Early Detection Research Network <u>https://edrn.nci.nih.gov</u>
- 1877 GENECODE https://www.gencodegenes.org/
- 1878 NONCODE http://www.noncode.org
- 1879 SPENCER http://spencer.renlab.org
- 1880 The Human MicroRNA Disease Database http://www.cuilab.cn/hmdd
- 1881 LncRNADisease http://www.rnanut.net/Incrnadisease
- 1882
- 1883 Supplementary information
- 1884 Supplementary information is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s415XX-XXX-
- 1885 XXXX-X

cardiovascular disease, infectious diseases and neurogenerative disorders. For each miRNA, example 1889 trials were chosen based on a high number of study participants. COPD: Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary 1890

Table 1. Representative examples of clinical trials investigating ncRNA biomarkers in cancer, Disease.

NCT Number	Conditions	ncRNA	n=	Scope of the study		
Cancer		1	1			
NCT02618538	Breast cancer	miRNAs	26,600	Investigating whether circulating miRNAs are significantly altered in the plasma of patients with cancer compared to matched healthy controls.		
NCT05633342	Various cancer types	miRNAs	15,000	Characterizing intra-cellular multi-omic profiles of cancer and adjacent healthy tissues to aid the selection of circulating cancer biomarkers.		
NCT02338167	Breast cancer	miRNAs	13,500	Discovery of biomarkers that predict progression free survival of patients with breast cancer. Biomarkers include gene expression profiling of the priman tumor and the corresponding metastases, somatic mutations, germline genet variation, epigenetic changes and mIRNA variation.		
NCT03830619	Lung cancer	IncRNAs	1,000	Analysis of the sensitivity and specificity of serum exosome ncRNA as a biomarker for the diagnosis of lung cancer.		
NCT05397548	Gastric cancer	IncRNA- GC1	700	Investigating whether circulating, exosomal IncRNA-GC1 can be used to monitor gastric cancer.		
NCT05647941	Gastric cancer	IncRNA- GC1	700	Investigating whether IncRNA-GC1 can serve as a non-invasive biomarker monitoring the neo-adjuvant chemotherapy response to personalized medici for qastric cancer.		
NCT04584996	Pancreatic cancer, biliary tract cancer	circRNAs	186	Defining the circRNA expression profile of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinom (PDAC) tissues compared to controls, in an attempt to identify circRNA PDA biomarkers.		
NCT04464122	Neuroendocrine tumors	circRNAs	60	Identifying new circRNA biomarkers from tumor-educated platelets (TEPs) for the diagnosis and evaluation of treatment response in pulmonary and gastre entero-pancreatic neuroendocrine neoplasms.		
NCT05771337	Breast cancer	Circ- ELP3	80	Investigating the diagnostic value of hsa_circ_0001785 (Circ-ELP3) and hsa_circ_100219 (Circ-FAF1) in serum samples of patients with breast cancer.		
Cardiovascular	Diseases					
NCT05766046	Lung cancer, Cardiovascular diseases, COPD	miRNAs	7,324	Developing a diagnostic test analyzing miRNAs from blood of patients with cardiovascular diseases and lung cancer.		
NCT03049254	Various cardiovascular conditions	miRNAs	6,000	Investigating blood-based biomarkers that predict disease onset, disease progression, and the likelihood of arrhythmia.		
NCT04189029	Heart failure	miRNAs, IncRNAs	2,620	A prospective multicenter study to decipher phenotypic variability within patients with heart failure and preserved left ventricular ejection fraction.		
NCT03170830	Acute Myocardial Infarction	circRNA- Uck2	178	Evaluating the diagnostic value of circRNA-Uck2 in acute myocardial infarction.		
NCT02297776	Cardiac Arrest	miRNA, circRNA	160	Evaluating circRNA and miRNA plasma biomarkers for their ability to estimate the extent of brain injury after cardiac arrest.		
NCT03076580	Cardiomyopathies	miRNAs, IncRNAs	2,000	A multi-omics study of cardiomyopathies patients, aiming to determine genetic risk factors and serial biomarkers of cardiomyopathies in diagnosis and prognosis.		
NCT03225183	Cardiovascular Disease, Hypertension	IncRNAs	1,700	Characterizing the relationship between of IncRNAs and cardiovascular diseases and risk factors.		
Neurological Di		1				
NCT05418023	Autism spectrum disorder, developmental delay	miRNAs	6,604	Validating a salivary miRNA diagnostic test for autism spectrum disorder.		
NCT04961450	Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis, Frontotemporal Dementia, Motor Neuron Disease	miRNAs	2,500	Investigating miRNA biomarkers in blood, saliva, feces, cerebrospinal fluid, muscle tissue and nerve tissue of patients with motor neuron disease and frontotemporal dementia.		
NCT04509271	Alzheimer disease	miRNAs	1,300	Investigating miRNA biomarkers for the diagnosis of mild cognitive impairment due to Alzheimer disease.		
NCT03152630	Dementia	IncRNA	600	Investigating early and prognosis diagnosis of vascular dementia.		
NCT04807738	Multiple sclerosis	IncRNA	110	Studying the effect of virtual reality on upper limb function and postural stability in people with multiple sclerosis; incRNA biomarkers were analyzed to assess the biological effect of rehabilitation intervention.		
NCT05341453	Spinal muscular atrophy	IncRNA	16	A randomized controlled trial is aimed to discover Studying the effect of physiotherapy and hippotherapy effect and efficacy on children with SMA_with efficacy assessed in part using measurement of IncRNA in blood.		
NCT05098340	Acute Ischemic Stroke	circRNAs	500	Analyzing the expression pattern of circRNAs in patients with acute ischemic stroke and healthy controls, to identify detection and prognosis biomarkers.		
NCT04175691	Acute Stroke, Ischemic Stroke	miRNAs, IncRNAs, circRNAs	500	Analyzing the expression pattern of ncRNAs in patients with acute ischemic stroke and healthy controls, to identify detection and prognosis biomarkers.		

Commentato [MA2]: [Au: Please clarify how lncRNAs were studied in this clinical trial.]

Commentato [FN3R2]: MFerracin: George I don't know here- The lncRNA is just the target of the disease, I don't think it is correct to cite the study among the biomarkers

Commentato [FN4R2]: In this trial the efficacy of physiotherapy and hippotherapy is analyzed on children with SMA by biomedical measures, by molecular biological markers (IncRNA) in blood and by surface electromyography (EMG). The primary goal of this study is to compare two physiotherapeutic approaches - the

recommended form of classical physiotherapy and the method on a neurophysiological basis - hippotherapy.

I think this is a good example of how ncRNA biomarkers can be used to monitor therapy, however, we can change this to another example for IncRNAs if you prefer so.

Commentato [MA5R2]: OK - how is this for a description?

Commentato [MOU6R2]: George: this is fine for me

NCT04230785	Acute and Ischemic Stroke, Endovascular Treatment	ncRNAs	300	Analyzing the expression pattern of ncRNAs in patients with acute ischemic stroke before and/or after endovascular treatment.
Infectious Disea	ases and Sepsis			
NCT01780298	COPD	miRNAs	739	Investigating biomarkers for the differentiation of participants with COPD and three matched control groups: one of non-smoking subjects (never smoked), one of ex-smokers and one of current smokers.
NCT03280576	Sepsis	miRNAs	556	Analyzing the expression levels of miRNAs isolated from plasma, circulating exosomes and blood cells by next-generation sequencing to characterize epigenetic influences on programulin plasma levels.
NCT05398952	Post viral fatigue, viral myocarditis	miRNAs, IncRNAs, circRNAs	2,000	Examining circulating ncRNA biomarkers in patients with post-COVID-19 persisting symptoms to identify new diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers.

Related disease	Study ID	Treatment	Target(s)	Scope of the study	Phase
Cutaneous T-cell Lymphoma, Mycosis Fungoides (CTCL, MF)	NCT03837457	A synthetic locked nucleic acid-modified oligonucleotide inhibitor of miR-155 (MRG-106)	miR-155	Evaluation of MRG-106 impact on skin lesion severity, disease symptoms, quality of life, and the duration of stable or improved disease status, while ensuring no evidence of disease progression.	2
Cutaneous T-cell Lymphoma, Mycosis Fungoides (CTCL, MF)	NCT03713320	A synthetic locked nucleic acid-modified oligonucleotide inhibitor of miR-155 (MRG-106)	miR-155	Comparison of the effects of MRG-106 to vorinostat, a drug that has been approved for the treatment of CTCL.	2
Liver Cancer, Small Cell Lung Cancer, Lymphoma, Melanoma, Multiple Myeloma, Renal Cell Carcinoma, Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer	NCT01829971	A liposomal miR-34a mimic (MRX34)	Multiple oncogenic genes (such as, MEK1, MYC, PDGFR-α, CDK4/6, BCL2, WNT 1/3, NOTCH1, CD44)	Evaluation of MRX34 safety on patients with primary liver cancer, selected solid tumors, and hematologic malignancies.	1
Malignant Pleural Mesothelioma, Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer	NCT02369198	Targeted minicells containing a miR-16 mimic (TargomiRs)	EGFR- expressing cancer cells with an anti- EGFR bispecific antibody	Evaluating the safety, optimal dosing, and activity of TargomiRs in patients with malignant pleural mesothelioma	1
Colorectal Cancer	NCT03362684	Cetuximab, FOLFOX	miR-31-3p and miR-31- 5p	Identifying the prognostic role of miR- 31-3p and miR-31-5p in stage III colon cancer, specifically their potential as indicators of patient outcomes in the context of anti- EGFR therapy.	3
Coronary Heart Disease, Acute Myocardial Infarction	NCT02850627	Tongguan capsule	Global regulation of miRNA levels	Assessing the impact of Tongguan capsule on miRNA profiles in patients.	4
Preclinical Alzheimer Disease	NCT02045056	Gemfibrozil	miR-107	Examining the safety and efficacy of Gemfibrozil in regulating miR-107 levels as a potential strategy for	Early '

1893 Table 2. Examples of clinical trials investigating miRNA-targeting therapies.

				Alzheimer Disease prevention.	
Organ Protection	NCT05503043	Lidocaine	MiR-135a, Rock2, Add1	Investigating the impact of intravenous lidocaine on serum miR-135a levels and its downstream proteins (Rock2 and Add1) in patients.	NA
Alport Syndrome	NCT03373786	RG-012 (lademirsen)	miR-21	Assessing the impact of RG-012 on renal miR-21.	1
Keloid	NCT03601052	An oligonucleotide mimic of miR-29b (MRG- 201/Remlarsen)	Multiple multiple factors involved in the fibrotic response (eg, collagen)	Assessing the efficacy of Remlarsen in preventing or reducing Keloid formation	2
Endometriosis	Endometriosis NCT05331053 Atorva		Global regulation of miRNA levels	Investigating the role of miRNAs (let7-a, let7-b, let7-g, miR-98, miR- 590) in driving elevated LOX-1 receptor expression and function in endometriosis.	4

1896 Figure legends

1897

Figure 1. The classic and non-classic functions of miRNAs. | a) The classic function 1898 of miRNAs is to target the 3' UTR of sequence-specific mRNAs, causing mRNA 1899 1900 degradation or translational repression, as illustrated for miR34a targeting PDL1 1901 transcripts. b) Certain miRNAs can target the 5' UTR or coding sequence (CDS) of their 1902 target mRNA, resulting in either mRNA degradation, translational repression, or even increased translation of their target. For example, miR-24 can bind both to the 3' and 5' 1903 1904 UTR of Jab1 mRNA causing its posttranscriptional inhibition, whereas miR-10a binds to the 5' UTR of ribosomal-encoding mRNAs, such as Rps16, and enhances their 1905 translation. c) miRNAs can act as mediators of intracellular communication by being 1906 1907 secreted via extracellular vesicles (EVs) and acting as hormones³⁹. On immune cells, miRNAs can directly target Toll-like receptor (TLR) proteins by acting as their ligands, in 1908 turn activating TLR signaling pathways and inducing an immune response^{38,40 41}. For 1909 1910 example, let-7i can target TLR4, whereas miR-21 and miR-29a can target TLR8. d) Some 1911 miRNAs can also interact with non-Ago proteins, so-called miRNA-binding proteins 1912 (miRBPs), which can work in cooperation or competition with Ago, thereby enhancing or 1913 silencing miRNA function on its target molecule. Examples include miR-1 and the 1914 TNRC6B miRBP, and miR-21 and PDCD4 miRBP, respectively. miRNA can also be 1915 transported between Ago2 and miRBP; however this mechanism is less studied and not currently well understood. e) Some pri-miRNAs encode regulatory peptides that can 1916 1917 influence the expression of the mature miRNA.

1918

Figure 2. The main functions of IncRNAs. | a) DNA interaction. IncRNAs can directly bind to DNA, forming R-loops, or can have a role in chromatin regulation in a complex with DNA-binding proteins. For instance, GADD45A can bind to the R loop formed by the IncRNA *TARID* at the TCF21 promoter, triggering local DNA demethylation by recruiting TET1 to the DNA⁵⁹. *SWINGN* IncRNA, which is transcribed from an enhancer, modulates the activation of GAS6 oncogene by binding to SWI/SNF tumor suppressor complex and influences its ability to drive epigenetic activation of specific promoters⁶⁰. *Xist* IncRNA, 1926 which is responsible for X chromosomal inactivation, binds to SAF-A chromatininteracting protein and is thereby able to localize to sites on the X chromosome. Xist 1927 1928 directly binds to SHARP and the resulting complex recruits SMRT to these DNA regions 1929 and recruits HDAC3 to the X chromosome or induces HDAC3 enzymatic activity, which results in chromatin compaction and transcription silencing⁶¹. b) Various RNA 1930 interactions. IncRNAs can interact with mRNAs and affect translation, RNA stability or 1931 1932 block miRNA binding sites and thereby inhibit the effect of miRNAs. For example, the IncRNA GAS5 interacts with the translation initiation complex eIF4F, by directly binding 1933 to eIF4E and decreasing the translation of c-Myc³⁰². The *TINCR*-STAU1 complex seems 1934 1935 to mediate the stabilization of different mRNAs, such as KRT80³⁰³. PTB-AS substantially 1936 increases PTBP1 mRNA levels by directly binding to its 3' UTR and blocking miRNA binding sites³⁰⁴. c) Sponge activity by miRNA interaction. MALAT1 can act as a miRNA 1937 sponge for miR-34c and thereby upregulate SATB2 expression and alleviate the 1938 1939 symptoms of osteoporosis in mice⁶². HOTAIR can sponge the tumor-suppressor miR-1940 222-3p and thereby contribute to ovarian cancer progression⁶³. d) Protein interactions. 1941 IncRNAs can interact with proteins and act as their scaffolds or guides. For example, 1942 NFAT1 kinases are scaffolded by the IncRNA NRON⁶⁴, whereas HOTAIR specifically 1943 binds to YBX1, and promotes YBX1 nuclear translocation^{64,65}. e) Some IncRNAs can 1944 harbor 'coding' activity and produce micropeptides. For example, LINC0065 IncRNA can be translated to the CIP2a-BP micropeptide. 1945

1946

1947 Figure 3. The main functions of circRNAs. | a) CircRNAs have the potential to serve 1948 as sponges for miRNAs, as demonstrated by circTDRD3, which harbors target sites for 1949 miR-1231. b) CircRNAs can interact with specific mRNAs and regulate their stability 1950 and/or translation. An example is circZNF609 interaction with CKAP5 mRNA. c) CircRNAs can undergo translation and produce small peptides, as demonstrated by 1951 circCDYL2 translation into Cdyl2-60aa small peptide, which is approximately 7 kDa. d) 1952 CircRNAs that contain motifs capable of binding to RNA-binding proteins possess the 1953 1954 capacity to act as decoys or sponges for proteins, consequently modulating their activity. 1955 CircRNAs harboring motifs that facilitate binding between an enzyme and its substrate 1956 can act as scaffolds, enabling the co-localization of the two molecules and optimizing

reaction kinetics. CircRNAs can interact with gene promoters, recruit TET1 demethylase,
and initiate significant demethylation of CpG islands within the DNA. Additionally,
circRNAs can bind to U1 snRNP and subsequently engage with the RNA polymerase II
transcription complex, enhancing protein expression.

1961

1962 Figure 4. Examples of the different mechanisms of ncRNAs in human diseases. | a) 1963 H19 IncRNA acts as a miRNA sponge in breast cancer tissue and thereby reduces the level of miR200a and miR200b in tissues and circulation, resulting in ARF protein 1964 1965 accumulation that facilitates epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT). b) Dworf IncRNA has a heart-specific expression and is down-regulated in ischemic failing human hearts. 1966 Expression changes in DWORF small peptide, which is encoded by Dworf IncRNA and 1967 acts by regulating the Sarcoendoplasmic Reticulum Calcium ATPase (SERCA) calcium 1968 1969 pump in myocytes, have a potential role in heart failure. c) Cdr1as circRNA contains 73 1970 binding sites for let-7 and thereby acts as a miRNA sponge. As a consequence, reduced 1971 let-7 levels cause decreased UBE2A and increased SNCA protein levels that contribute to amyloid beta plaque accumulation and thereby to Alzheimer Disease. d) SARS-CoV-1972 1973 2 integrates and increases miR-2392 expression, promoting COVID-19 disease 1974 progression.

1975

1976 Figure 5. NcRNAs are important biomarkers and therapeutic targets.

1977 A. Various ncRNA species can be detected and analyzed in standard biopsy samples 1978 and liquid biopsy specimens through various techniques including quantitative PCR 1979 (qPCR), droplet digital PCR (ddPCR), RNA Sequencing or in situ Hybridization. All types of ncRNA species can be isolated from blood cells, serum, plasma, extracellular vesicles, 1980 1981 urine, saliva, breast milk, and cerebrospinal fluid among others. They have the potential 1982 to serve as diagnostic and prognostic biomarkers as well as to help monitor the diseases 1983 treatment and outcomes. B. Representative examples of the two main types of ncRNA 1984 therapies e investigated in pre-clinical and clinical stages. In response to cardiomyocyte 1985 stress, miR-132 is upregulated in the cardiac tissue of patients with cardiac stress or 1986 injury. Intravenous infusion of CDR132L containing antisense miR-132 is under clinical

- 1987 investigation to improve cardiac function. MesomiR 1 is a miR-16 mimic encapsulated in
- 1988 minicells that aim to restore the level of miR-16 tumour suppressor in cancer cells and is
- 1989 under clinical investigation to treat malignant pleural mesothelioma.

1991 Box 1. miR-155 regulation of the immune system and therapeutic use.

1992 The involvement of ncRNAs in the various facets of immune function is an extensively 1993 studied area³⁰⁵⁻³⁰⁷. Various well-characterized miRNAs, such as miR-146, miR-150 and 1994 miR-155, have been reported to be involved in regulating lymphocyte, monocyte and macrophage phenotypes, respectively³⁰⁸. From a clinical perspective, the most advanced 1995 therapeutic applications are related to miR-155, which has important roles in T and B cell 1996 proliferation and cytokine production³⁰⁹⁻³¹². Overexpression of miR-155 in activated T 1997 1998 helper (Th) cells can participate in Th2-mediated airway inflammation through targeting 1999 of sphingosine receptor S1PR1313. In addition, miR-155 is required for optimal proliferation of regulatory T cells (Treg) in vitro³¹⁴, which suggests an important role in 2000 2001 regulating T-cell expansion. In vivo studies also showed that miR-155 acts in regulating 2002 interferon (IFN) responsiveness and the CD8⁺ T cell response against pathogens³¹¹. 2003 Furthermore, overexpression of miR-155 has been shown to enhance cytokine responsiveness, engraftment, cytokine production and anti-tumour function³¹⁰. Consistent 2004 with these findings, overexpression of miR-155 directly suppresses SHIP1 levels, while 2005 enhancing Polycomb repressor complex 2 (PRC2) activity by promoting the expression 2006 of the PRC2-associated factor PHF19³¹⁰. 2007

2008 miR-155 has a central role in regulating serine/threonine kinase (Akt)-dependent M1/M2 activation of macrophages³¹⁵. In addition, miR-155 overexpression enabled 2009 successful reprogramming of tumour-associated macrophages (TAMs) into pro-2010 inflammatory M1 macrophages³¹⁶. Notably, miR-155 may contribute to the development 2011 2012 of resistance to chemotherapy, as evidenced by its role in the cross-talk between 2013 neuroblastoma cells and human monocytes in chemoresistance, involving cell-to-cell 2014 communications with malignant cells via an exosomic miR-21/TLR8-NF-kB/exosomic miR-155/TERF1 signaling pathway³¹⁷. Clinical applications related to suppressing miR-2015 155 for cancer therapy targeted to the TME were developed for DLBCL³¹⁸ using the 2016 2017 attachment of nucleic acid antimiRs to a peptide with a low pH-induced transmembrane structure (pHLIP). Further combinatorial therapeutics of anti-miR-155 with chemotherapy 2018 2019 for the treatment of lung cancers was reported using the non-toxic DOPC (1,2-dioleoyl-2020 sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine) Food and Drug Administration (FDA)-approved

nanoliposomes³¹⁹. Cobomarsen (also known as MRG-106) is a locked nuclei acid (LNA)based inhibitor of miR-155, used for the treatment of cutaneous T-cell lymphoma (CTCL), mycosis fungoides (MF) subtype. Promisingly, it is likely that this drug could be repurposed for any other non-cancer type of disease in which miR-155 has abnormally high expression, and is pathogenetically involved, such as autoimmune inflammatory disorders³²⁰. A phase I trial demonstrated that Cobomarsen was well-tolerated, had clinical activity and had the potential to improve patients' quality of life³⁰¹.

Small peptides (sPEP) Small peptides, also called micropeptides, are polypeptides that are encoded by small open reading frames (sORFs) and consist of less than 100-150 amino acids, sometimes

Glossary terms

2029

2033 translated from ncRNAs.

2034 Non-Ago proteins

2035 Argonaute (Ago) proteins are interactor partners of small ncRNAs, such as miRNAs and

- $2036 \qquad \text{siRNAs, which facilitate their target binding and thereby their effector mechanisms. It was$
- 2037 recently uncovered that miRNAs can interact with other, non-Ago proteins as well.

2038 Sponge

RNA molecules such as circRNAs that can bind and sequester RNAs or proteins andthereby inhibit their effects.

2041 **Ribosome profiling**

- 2042 A deep-sequencing-based method that reveals ribosome-associated mRNAs, thereby
- 2043 predicting regions subjected to translation.

2044 Small-molecule inhibitor (SMI)

2045 Compounds smaller than 500 Da developed to target any portion of a target molecule 2046 and to cause its inhibition.

2047 Short open reading frame (sORF)

- 2048 Also known as small ORF, these are 100 nucleotide-long putative protein-coding sites,
- 2049 which were previously overlooked as non-relevant regions.