

Editorial

miRNA: Licensed to Kill the Messenger

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ABSTRACT

Current developments have brought non-coding genes under limelight together with their better-known siblings, the coding genes or mRNA. The 2006 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine was awarded to Andrew Fire and Craig Mello for their 1998 discovery that double-stranded RNA triggers suppression of gene activity in a homology-dependent manner, a process named RNA interference (RNAi). Post-transcriptional regulation of genes was generally regarded as an odd regulatory mechanism for several years until it was learnt that regulatory trans-acting antisense RNAs exist in several species. Identification of a large number of small RNA molecules called microRNAs (miRNAs) elevated the overall field of biomedical RNAi to the striking level of current recognition. miRNAs represent a class of endogenous small (~22 nucleotides) RNA molecules that can repress protein synthesis. It is estimated that there are over 600 miRNAs in mammalian cells, and that about 30% of all genes are regulated by miRNA. Current understanding of the molecular mechanism of any disease would be incomplete without factoring in the functional significance of miRNA. In the category of the futuristic RNAi drugs, miRNA-based therapies are promising. The field has progressed rapidly as it relates to cancer research (highlighted in *DNA and Cell Biology* Volume 26, Number 4), while development in most other areas (highlighted in *DNA and Cell Biology* Volume 26, Number 3) of biomedical research remains in its infancy, offering significant opportunity for researchers. Approaches to interfere with miRNA function *in vivo* offer novel therapeutic opportunities. Lessons in gene therapy have taught us that tinkering with the genetic machinery comes with its own set of risks, especially in a clinical setting. miRNA-based therapies are also subject to such risks, which need to be prudently managed. Having acknowledged the potential risk, we have to recognize that new knowledge about the functional roles of miRNA is revolutionizing cell biology and will have a major impact on biomedical research imminently.

THE BIOLOGY OF NON-CODING GENES arguably represents the hottest topic in biomedical research today (Mattick and Makunin, 2006). The 2006 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine was shared by Professor Andrew Z. Fire at Stanford University, CA, and Professor Craig C. Mello at the University of Massachusetts Medical School in Worcester. They received the prize for their 1998 discovery that double-stranded RNA triggers suppression of gene activity in a homology-dependent manner, a process named RNA interference (RNAi) (Fire *et al.*, 1998). Inhibition of translation by small RNA molecules, approximately 100 nucleotides in length, was reported in *Escherichia coli* over 2 decades ago (Mizuno *et al.*, 1984). Regulatory trans-acting antisense RNAs are commonly known today (Gottesman, 2004a, 2004b). An important leap closely

relevant to biomedical research was made in 1993 when it was reported that regulation of translation by antisense RNA also occurs in the eukaryote *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Lee *et al.*, 1993; Wightman *et al.*, 1993). Post-transcriptional regulation of genes was generally regarded as an odd regulatory mechanism for several years until it was learnt that regulatory trans-acting antisense RNAs exist in several species. Identification of a large number of small RNA molecules called microRNAs (miRNAs) elevated the overall field of biomedical RNAi to a striking level of recognition (Lagos-Quintana *et al.*, 2001; Lau *et al.*, 2001; Lee and Ambros, 2001).

miRNAs represent a class of endogenous RNA molecules, of the same size in worms, flies, mice, and humans. miRNAs can repress protein synthesis and regulate the development of

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organisms. The small miRNAs are processed from larger hairpin-like precursors. Most miRNA genes come from regions of the genome quite distant from previously annotated genes, implying that they derive from different transcription units. The miRNAs within a genomic cluster are often related to each other, but not always. Through specific base pairing with mRNAs, these tiny (approximately 22 nucleotides) RNAs induce mRNA degradation, translational repression, or both. Because an miRNA can target numerous mRNAs, often in combination with other miRNAs, miRNAs operate highly complex regulatory networks. It is estimated that there are over 600 miRNAs in mammalian cells, and that about 30% of all genes are regulated by miRNAs (Rajewsky, 2006; Shilo *et al.*, 2007). Over 3000 identified mature miRNAs exist in species ranging from plants to humans, suggesting that they are ancient players in gene regulation (Wang *et al.*, 2007). Experimental identification of miRNAs is slow since some miRNAs are difficult to isolate by cloning due to low abundance, stability, and expression pattern. Computational identification of miRNAs from genomic sequences provides a valuable complement to cloning. Precursors of miRNA possess stem loop structure. Thus, computational methods aimed at finding miRNA searches for hairpins. Identification of sets of cognate mRNA for any given miRNA is a challenging task experimentally. Thus, there has been significant effort to develop computational algorithms to address that important need. While several such computational algorithms are useful hypothesis-generating tools, conclusive verification must be performed experimentally in the biology laboratory (Ioshikhes *et al.*, 2007). Prudent integration of mRNA and miRNA sequence and expression data with other comparative genomic data will lead to global and yet specific insights into post-transcriptional control.

Current understanding of the molecular mechanism of any disease would be incomplete without factoring in the functional significance of miRNA. Further, in the category of the futuristic "RNAi drugs" (Liu *et al.*, 2007) miRNA-based therapies are promising (Petit-Zeman, 2006; Slack and Weidhaas, 2006). The field has progressed rapidly as it relates to cancer research (Slack and Weidhaas, 2006; Osada and Takahashi, 2007), while development in most other areas of biomedical research remains in its infancy, offering significant opportunity for researchers. Approaches to interfere with miRNA function *in vitro* and *in vivo* based on synthetic anti-miRNA oligonucleotides offer novel therapeutic opportunities (Ford, 2006; Hammond, 2006; Rodriguez-Lebron and Paulson, 2006; Weiler *et al.*, 2006; Mattes *et al.*, 2007). Lessons in gene therapy have taught us that tinkering with the genetic machinery comes with its own set of risks especially in a clinical setting. miRNA-based therapies are also subject to concerns regarding various types of side effects that may restrict the use of this technology in human therapy. Having acknowledged the potential risk, we have to recognize that new knowledge about the functional roles of miRNAs as regulators of many cellular processes, including proliferation, differentiation, development, and neuronal function, is revolutionizing cell biology and will have a major impact on biomedical research imminently.

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