

Advance Research Journal of Cancer (ARJC)

Volume 3 Issue 1, 2022

Article Information

Received date : March 25, 2022 Published date: April 11, 2022

*Corresponding author

Karunanithi Rajamanickam, Associate Professor (Physics), Faculty of Allied Health Sciences, Chettinad Academy of Research & Education, Kelambakkam, Chennai 603 103, India

Keywords

MicroRNAs; Cancer; Nanoformulation; Drug Delivery; Immunotherapy

Distributed under Creative Commons CC-BY 4.0

Nanobiosensors for the Detection of Cell Free micro-RNA in Carcinogenesis – A Mini Review

Karunanithi Rajamanickam*

Associate Professor (Physics), Faculty of Allied Health Sciences Chettinad Academy of Research & Education India

Abstract

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small non-coding RNAs with small number of nucleotides and control gene expression primarily at post-transcriptional and transcriptional phases [1]. The target gene expression is regulated by these miRNAs by degrading or inhibiting translation of the respective messenger RNA. The primary functions of miRNAs include regulating immune system, differentiation and development, cell proliferation, cancer and cell cycle by as hitherto unknown mechanism. MiRNAs have significant contribution to malignancy by releasing tumour suppressors and oncogenes. Different miRNA profiles are responsible for various types of tumours, hence, could serve as phenotype signature for different cancers. This unique identification can be used in cancer diagnostics, prognostics and therapeutics. Hence, discovery of new miRNAs will pave novel path in understanding the cancer genetics. However, smaller size, low concentration, sequence homology and stability are some of the major challenges involved in classification and specific recognition of miRNAs. To overcome these problems, synthesis of a nano-biosensor might assist in detection of differentially regulated miRNAs with high sensitivity, specificity and cost-effective manner. A major complication for integrating nanoformulation into clinical application is the additional toxicity. This can be circumvented by using non-toxic shells along with surface modification which can also increases the ability of NPs to detect circulating cell free miRNAs in a non-invasive manner. This ultra-short review provides comprehensive information on nanoformulations suitable for detecting these miRNAs and their biogenesis, effects in disease and treatment condition especially in cancer.

Introduction

In cancer cells, miRNAs were heavily deregulated. MiRNA regulating lin-14 protein expression was discovered in Caenorhabditis elegans by Ambros et al. [2] and let-7 (developmental timing) [2,3] are few examples. There are several cascades of regulatory genes that are leading to controlling the expression pathways by deregulated miRNAs. At present there are about 1872 human miRNA precursor genes that are processed into approximately 2578 mature miRNA sequences that have been documented (http://www.mirbase.org). Many studies have reported the presence of free flowing (extracellular) miRNAs in plasma, serum, saliva, breast milk and cerebrospinal fluid [4-6], urine, tears, seminal fluid [7], and ovarian follicular fluid [8]. In contrast to cellular RNA, these free flowing miRNAs are highly stable, will not degrade at room temperature even for 80 hours and boiling or freezing and high or low pH conditions [9,10].

Need of Nanoparticles in miRNA Detection

Laboratory based sensing by utilizing novel microRNA biosensors for disease diagnosis has shown to have great promise. There are numerous studies which have been reported on the use of nanomaterials in sensor development [11] including for the detection of microRNA sequences [12]. Among these nanotechnology approaches have presented to overcome some limitations of conventional microRNA detection and quantification strategies such as qPCR, northern blotting, in situ hybridization microarray, next generation sequencing, isothermal exponential amplification [13]. These approaches have well known limitations such as poor reproducibility, cross-hybridization, low selectivity, poor sensitivity, time-consuming procedures, the requirement of large quantity of sample, expensive infrastructure equipments, or specific skills to apply the procedures. Micro RNAs were found to be up/down regulated in various disease conditions [14], specific miRNAs are known to be found in the blood stream as a result of in cancerous tumour present in different organ such as colorectal, breast, ovarian, and prostate cancers [1,15-19]. RNA interference (RNAi) technology or RNA technology facilitated therapeutic approach for various deadly diseases like cancer [20]. In this technology, the gene expression is regulated using a short 21–23 nucleotide double stranded RNA sequence. RNA nanoparticles harbouring EGFR aptamer when injected in animal model induced with breast cancer shown to effectively target tumour cells through receptor mediated endocytosis [21]. The anti-miRNA-21 after entering the tumour cell, binds to the target region and blocks the tumorrigenic properties of the miRNA-21 [22] and thus inhibit tumour growth [23].

RNA nanotechnology is versatile and can be used to construct 2D, 3D, and 4D structures for use in biosensing. Its applications are not limiting to pharmaceutical development but also to controlled release of functional agents by using their thermodynamic properties. RNA structure and chemistry negative charge disallows nonspecific cell entry and thus minimizes toxicity. Furthermore, it can harbor multiple functionalities while retaining their accurate folding. Applying RNA Aptamers for targeted therapeutic drug delivery or as potent inhibitors, immunotherapy and chemotherapeutic drug delivery proved to have greater clinical solution [24].



Future Perspective and Conclusion

Considering the advantage of these nanomaterials, multi-target enabled nanosensor devices which can sense quickly with high sensitivity can be developed with reduced costs. Diagnosing cancer onset and metastasis and to monitor the treatment response from blood derived factors can help the clinicians to prognosticate the disease conditions. Early stage cancer detection and more specific outcome is the need of this current scenario. Nanomaterials revolutionize the goals of cancer therapy and diagnosis overcoming the limitations and side-effects caused by chemotherapy. It also helps shaping the future development of treatments. Nanotechnology based molecular diagnostic and therapeutic methods are progressing rapidly in the recent times, it will further grow into a vital opportunity for cancer diagnosis and treatment in future. The major challenges to be met in nanoformulation are controlling batch wise variability and hence preventing the hampered reproducibility and stability in biological fluids and also, the small molecule drug loading capacity.

In conclusion, the increasing range of study dedicated to the understanding of nanotechnology based devises is having a remarkable power in the progress of nanosensors for the prompt diagnosis of malignancy and for the therapeutic dose monitoring. Thus, nano technology has the prospective to contribute confidently to retard, resist and remedy cancer.

References

- Casanova-Salas I, Rubio-Briones J, Calatrava A, Mancarella C, Masiá E, et al. 1. (2014) Identification of miR-187 and miR-182 as biomarkers of early diagnosis and prognosis in patients with prostate cancer treated with radical prostatectomy. The Journal of Urology 192(1): 252-259.
- Lee RC, Feinbaum RL, Ambros V (1993) The C. elegans heterochronic gene lin-4 2. encodes small RNAs with antisense complementarity to lin-14. Cell 75(5): 843-854.
- Reinhart BJ, Slack FJ, Basson M, Pasquinelli AE, Bettinger JC, et al. (2000) The 3. 21-nucleotide let-7 RNA regulates developmental timing in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature 403(6772): 901-906.
- Cogswell JP, Ward J, Taylor IA, Waters M, Shi Y, et al. (2008) Identification of 4. miRNA changes in Alzheimer's disease brain and CSF yields putative biomarkers and insights into disease pathways. Journal of Alzheimer's Disease 14(1): 27-41.
- Gallo A, Tandon M, Alevizos I, Illei GG (2012) The majority of microRNAs 5 detectable in serum and saliva is concentrated in exosomes. PloS One 7(3): e30679.
- 6. Zhou Q, Li M, Wang X, Li Q, Wang T, et al. (2012) Immune-related microRNAs are abundant in breast milk exosomes. International Journal of Biological Sciences 8(1): 118-123.
- Weber JA, Baxter DH, Zhang S, Huang DY, How Huang K, et al. (2010) The 7. microRNA spectrum in 12 body fluids. Clinical Chemistry 56(11): 1733-1741.
- da Silveira JC, Veeramachaneni DR, Winger QA, Carnevale EM, Bouma GJ (2012) 8. Cell-secreted vesicles in equine ovarian follicular fluid contain miRNAs and proteins: A possible new form of cell communication within the ovarian follicle. Biology of Reproduction 86(3): 71.

- Chen X, Ba Y, Ma L, Cai X, Yin Y, et al. (2008) Characterization of microRNAs in 9. serum: A novel class of biomarkers for diagnosis of cancer and other diseases. Cell Research 18(10): 997-1006.
- 10. Mitchell PS, Parkin RK, Kroh EM, Fritz BR, Wyman SK, et al. (2008) Circulating microRNAs as stable blood-based markers for cancer detection. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 105(30): 10513-10518.
- Kalantar-Zadeh K, Fry B (2008) Organic nanotechnology enabled sensors. Springer, 11 Germany
- 12. Degliangeli F, Pompa PP, Fiammengo R (2014) Nanotechnology-based strategies for the detection and quantification of MicroRNA. Chemistry-A European Journal 20(31): 9476-9492.
- 13. Chandrasekaran AR, Punnoose JA, Zhou L, Dey P, Dey BK, et al. (2019) DNA nanotechnology approaches for microRNA detection and diagnosis. Nucleic Acids Research 47(20): 10489-10505.
- Chaudhary V, Jangra S, Yadav NR (2018) Nanotechnology based approaches for 14. detection and delivery of microRNA in healthcare and crop protection. Journal of Nanobiotechnology 16(1): 40.
- Huang Z, Huang D, Ni S, Peng Z, Sheng W, et al. (2010) Plasma microRNAs are 15. promising novel biomarkers for early detection of colorectal cancer. International Journal of Cancer 127(1): 118-126.
- Iorio MV, Ferracin M, Liu CG, Veronese A, Spizzo R, et al. (2005) MicroRNA gene 16 expression deregulation in human breast cancer. Cancer Research 65(16): 7065-7070.
- Iorio MV, Visone R, Di Leva G, Donati V, Petrocca F, et al. (2007) MicroRNA 17. signatures in human ovarian cancer. Cancer Research 67(18): 8699-8707.
- Schaefer A, Jung M, Mollenkopf HJ, Wagner I, Stephan C, et al. (2010) Diagnostic 18. and prognostic implications of microRNA profiling in prostate carcinoma. International Journal of Cancer 126(5): 1166-1176.
- Kelly BD, Miller N, Sweeney KJ, Durkan GC, Rogers E, et al. (2015) A circulating 19. microRNA signature as a biomarker for prostate cancer in a high risk group. Journal of Clinical Medicine 4(7): 1369-1379.
- 20. Fire A, Xu S, Montgomery MK, Kostas SA, Driver SE, et al. (1998) Potent and specific genetic interference by double-stranded RNA in Caenorhabditis elegans. Nature 391(6669): 806-811.
- 21. Shu D, Li H, Shu Y, Xiong G, Carson III WE, et al. (2015) Systemic delivery of anti-miRNA for suppression of triple negative breast cancer utilizing RNA nanotechnology. ACS Nano 9(10): 9731-9740.
- Obad S, dos Santos CO, Petri A, Heidenblad M, Broom O, et al. (2011) Silencing of 22. microRNA families by seed-targeting tiny LNAs. Nature Genetics 43(4): 371-378.
- Binzel DW, Shu Y, Li H, Sun M, Zhang Q, et al. (2016) Specific delivery of miRNA 23. for high efficient inhibition of prostate cancer by RNA nanotechnology. Molecular Therapy 24(7): 1267-1277.
- Jasinski D, Haque F, Binzel DW, Guo P (2017) Advancement of the emerging field 24. of RNA nanotechnology. ACS Nano 11(2): 1142-1164.