MINI-REVIEW

RNA Interference as a Plausible Anticancer Therapeutic Tool

Puthucode Venkatakrishnan Ramachandran, Savarimuthu Ignacimuthu*

Abstract

RNA interference has created a breakthrough in gene silencing technology and there is now much debate on the successful usage of RNAi based methods in treating a number of debilitating diseases. Cancer is often regarded as a result of mutations in genomic DNA resulting in faulty gene expression. The occurrence of cancer can also be influenced by epigenetic irregularities in the chromatin structure which leads to alterations and mutations in DNA resulting in cancer cell formation. A number of therapeutic approaches have been put forth to treat cancer. Anti cancer therapy often involves chemotherapy targeting all the cells in common, whereby both cancer cells as well as normal cells get affected. Hence RNAi technology has potential to be a better therapeutic agent as it is possible to deactivate molecular targets like specific mutant genes. This review highlights the successful use of RNAi inducers against different types of cancer, thereby paving the way for specific therapeutic medicines.

Keywords: siRNA treatment - miRNA - lung cancer - liver cancer - gynecologic cancers - urologic cancers

Asian Pacific J Cancer Prev, 13, 2445-2452

Introduction

RNA interference has emerged as an important tool in molecular medicine. This innovative technique which has been in existence in the biological machinery of organisms can be honed effectively as therapeutic modules in treating many debilitating diseases. Cancer is mostly considered as a genetic disease as it caused due to alterations in the genetic program involving a number of oncogenic pathways resulting in cancer cell transformation. Investigations on gene expression profiles have shown a number of alterations confirming the fact that many genes and pathways play a prominent role in carcinogenesis. RNAi can be used as a therapeutic agent as it can be used to target disease causing mutant genes as well as oncogenes. A number of in vitro as well as in vivo experiments have been successfully carried out using RNAi inducers which opens an insight on to develop RNAi based techniques in anti-cancer therapy.

Mechanisms of RNAi Action

RNA interference involves the silencing of a gene by the use of dsRNA with homologous sequences to that of the target mRNA. Small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) are generated by the cleavage of endogenous as well as exogenous dsRNA molecules with the help of an RNAse III enzyme called Dicer (Hamilton and Baulcombe, 1999; Zamore et al., 2000; Bernstein et al., 2001). Human dicer are proteins about ~200kDa in size with about 1,922 amino acids consisting of two RNase III domains (RIIIDa and RIIIDb) and a double stranded RNA binding domain (dsRBD) along with an N terminal segment that consists of a PAZ domain, RNA HELICASE DOMAIN and DUF283 domain. The 3' ends of small RNAs bind to the PAZ

domain and the RNA helicase domain hydrolyzes ATP resulting in unwinding of RNA duplex. The RISC complex consists of Argonaute family of proteins about $\sim \! 100 \rm kDa$ in size. It contains two domains namely the PAZ domain as well as the PIWI domain. PAZ domain is $\sim \! 130$ amino acids placed at the centre of the RISC to which the 3' end of the anti-sense RNA gets attached. The PIWI domain consists of $\sim \! 300$ amino acids and helps in the cleavage of the target mRNA (Hutvagner, 2005).

This dicer processes the dsRNA into short duplexes of about 19-21 nucleotides with symmetric 2 nucleotide overhangs along with hydroxyl group at the 3' end and a phosphate group at the 5' end. These siRNAs contain a sense strand as well as an anti-sense strand. The anti-sense strand alone gets incorporated into the RISC assembly and cleaves the complementary target mRNA (Alquist, 2002).

siRNAs

siRNAs are 19-21 nucleotides long duplexes which are produced from ds RNAs (double stranded RNAs) by the action of an enzyme RNase III Dicer as shown in Figure 1. These siRNA duplexes consist of a sense strand and a complementary anti-sense strand with a phosphate group at both the 5'ends along with hydroxyl groups as well as two nucleotide overhangs at the 3'ends. The siRNAs unwind due to helicase activity of the RISC assembly after which the anti-sense strand attaches to the RISC and targets the specific mRNA (Zhang et al., 2004).

shRNAs

Short hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) are a group of siRNAs which can be expressed with the use of U6 or H1 promoters (Brummelkamp et al., 2002a; Paul et al., 2002). Sh RNAs have a plethora of advantages when compared to siRNAs like long time silencing effects as well as efficient and easy

Entomology Research Institute, Loyola College, Chennai-600034, Tamilnadu, India *For correspondence: entolc@hotmail.com

delivery methods. These shRNAs contain a single stranded RNA molecule of about 50-100 bases. The complementary regions are spaced with the help of a hairpin loop which allows the transcript to fold back on itself thereby getting the name "short hairpin" RNA. This shRNA is processed by Dicer and gets converted to siRNAs which unwind due to helicase activity of the RISC assembly after which the anti-sense strand gets incorporated into the RISC which cleaves the target mRNA due to its endonuclease activity (Bernstein et al., 2001).

miRNAs

The microRNAs (miRNAs) are another group of RNAi inducers that play an important role in development of an organism. They form an integral part as an endogenous gene silencing machinery as seen in Figure 1. The primary precursors of miRNAs which are referred to as primary miRNAs (pri-miRNAs) are present in the genome and get transcribed by RNA pol II (Kim, 2005). The pri-miRNAs consists of 33 base stem-loop structures in which the miRNA is present in the 5' or 3'end of the stem. These primiRNAs get processed by Drosha an RNAse III enzyme, which cleaves the pri-miRNAs to form 70 nucleotide long precursor miRNAs (pre-miRNAs), which get transported from the nucleus into the cytoplasm with the help of a protein called Exportin-5. These pre-miRNAs get cleaved in the cytoplasm by Dicer to form functional miRNAs which are about 21-25 nucleotides in length. Further processing allows the antisense strand of the miRNA to get incorporated to the RISC assembly and leads to translational repression of the target mRNA (Zeng et al., 2005). MiRNAs play a major role in proliferation as well as apoptosis (Cheng et al., 2005). MiRNAs are also found to regulate a number of oncogenes and tumour suppressor genes.

Studies by Calin et al. (2004) have indicated that about 50% of miRNA genes are localized in genomic regions associated with cancer.

Another study by Calin et al. (2002) showed that miR15 as well as miR16 genes were found to be deleted in chronic lymphocytic leukemias (CLL). Another member of the miRNA family, miR-155 was overexpressed in Hodgkin's lymphomas, B-cell lymphomas, Burkitt's lymphomas as well as in human breast cancers confirming the fact that this miRNA acts as an oncogene (Metzler et al., 2004; Eis et al., 2005; Iorio et al., 2005; Kluiver et al., 2005). Another class of miRNAs namely the miR-21 miRNA was found to be overexpressed in highly malignant human brain tumor as well as in glioblastoma (Chan et al., 2005).

Based on this information we can precisely come to the conclusion that miRNA profiling can be very useful in Cancer diagnosis (Li et al., 2005b).

Delivery Methods for RNAi Inducers

The most important criteria for the success of RNAi based strategy depends on the efficient delivery of these biomolecules into the specific cell, tissue or organ. *In vitro* delivery of siRNAs is brought about using cationic liposome based methods whereas the same strategy cannot be successfully incorporated for *in vivo* delivery due to rapid clearance of these lipid molecules in the Liver. Studies by Sorenson et al. (2003) as well as those by Sioud and Sorenson, (2003) have reported that the successful systemic delivery of lipid based siRNA complexes and siRNAs using cationic polymer.

A number of successful *in vivo* delivery methods have been devised like combining siRNAs to antibody protamine fusion (Song et al., 2005),using the sense strand

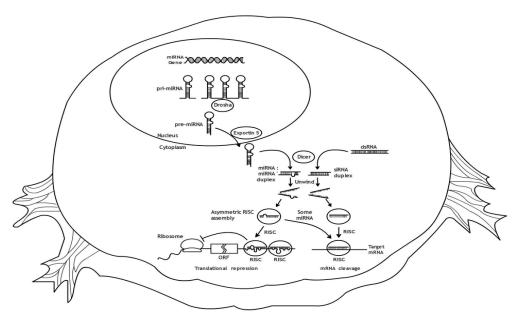


Figure 1. Mechanisms of siRNA and miRNA. The dsRNA molecules are processed by Dicer into short interfering RNA (siRNA) duplexes. The Anti-sense strand of the siRNA duplex is assembled into the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) and results in the cleavage of the target mRNA. The primary microRNA (pri-miRNA) transcripts get processed by drosha into 70-nucleotide precursor microRNAs (pre-miRNAs). These pre-miRNAs get transported from the nucleus to the cytoplasm with the help of Exportin 5 and get processed by Dicer to form dsRNAs. The anti-sense strand of this duplex gets incorporated to the RISC complex and results in translational repression or cleavage of the target mRNA.

DOI:http://dx.doi.org/10.7314/APJCP.2012.13.6.2445 RNA Interference as a Plausible Anticancer Therapeutic Tool

chemokine (C–X–C motif), receptor 4 (CXCR4) on breast cancer cell line MDA-MB-231 resulted in marked reduction in cell proliferation (Lapteva et al., 2004).

Signalling molecules can also be potential targets for RNAi based therapy. B-RAF is a serine/threonine-specific protein kinase which is found to be mutated in most human melanomas when targeted by siRNAs inhibited cell growth and enhanced apoptosis in melanoma cell lines (Karasarides et al., 2004).

of the siRNA in combination with Cholesterol conjugate (Soutschek et al., 2004), incorporating siRNAs into cyclodextrin nanoparticles (Hu-Lieskovan et al., 2005) as well as using aptamer siRNA conjugates (McNamara et al., 2006). Each of these combinations can be used to bring about successful *in vivo* delivery of siRNA biomolecules targeting specific genes.

Short hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) containing DNA-based expressed expression cassettes containing a sense and anti-sense strand along with Pol III promoters can also be successfully used as RNAi inducers (Brummelkamp et al., 2002a; Lee et al., 2002; Paddison et al., 2002; Sui et al., 2002).

Vector-based shRNA systems can be successfully delivered using viral vectors. Adenovirus and Adeno associated viral vectors (AAV) provide an excellent platform for delivery of shRNAs (Li et al., 2005a; Osada et al., 2005; Ragozin et al., 2005). Retroviral vectors like MLV(Murine leukemia Virus) (Hemann et al., 2003) and lentiviral vectors like HIV (Human Immunodeficiency Virus), FIV (Feline Immunodeficiency Virus), EIAV (Equine infectious anemia virus) have also been successfully used to deliver shRNAs to induce RNA interference (Dittgen et al., 2004; Bahi et al., 2005).

RNAi in Cancer Therapy

Cancer is a complex genetic disease which involves a multitude of oncogenic pathways. Many oncogenes and tumour suppressor genes play an important role in carcinogenesis. In order for the development of cancer, the cells proliferate uncontrollably, they resist apoptosis, tend to draw nutrients via angiogenesis and also invade the other parts of the biological entity by metastasis. Since cancer involves many pathways it becomes quite essential to target multiple genes. RNAi has emerged as a potent method to bring about gene silencing and can be used as a therapeutic tool to treat many diseases (Hosono et al., 2005). In majority of cancers RNAi can be used to specifically target mutant genes, cancer associated genes, receptors involved in oncogenic pathways as well as signaling molecules thereby opening new avenues in anti-cancer therapy.

A study by Brummelkamp et al. (2002b) showed that sequence specific siRNAs can inhibit mutant K-Ras gene excluding the wild type gene in human pancreatic carcinoma. Similarly specific siRNAs have been successfully used to target AKt isoforms 2 and 3 in uterine cancers thereby sensitizing the cells to cisplatin (Gagnon et al., 2004).

Cancer associated genes which are not mutated but overexpressed in a majority of cancers can also be potential target in RNAi based techniques. Clusterin is an antiapoptotic gene which is expressed in most cancers was successfully targeted by specific siRNAs which resulted in increased chemosensitivity of lung cancer cell lines to chemotherapeutic agents (July et al., 2004).

Oncogenic pathways include a large network of receptors which play an important role in malignancy. These receptors can be used as potential targets for gene silencing. The use of siRNAs to target chemokine receptor

RNAi in Tumorigenesis

Many genes have been targeted using RNAi based technology in different tumour cell models and the knock down of these genes have made new inroads in therapy. Some of the genes that have been studied include oncogenes, telomerase, growth factor receptor genes, signalling molecules and other genes.

An important oncogene Bcl-2 is over expressed in many human tumours. A study by Fu et al. (2005) demonstrated that siRNA targeting Bcl-2 induced apoptosis in 50% of the cells *in vitro* and shRNAs against Bcl-2 suppressed tumour growth by 60% in mice with xenograft tumour.

In vitro studies using synthetic siRNA specific for Bcl-2 when introduced in combination with cationic liposomes inhibited the expression of Bcl-2 protein and inhibited growth of human tumour cell lines. This combination of liposome complexed bcl-2 siRNA also exhibited strong anti-tumour activity in mouse models having liver metastasis as well as in xenograft models of human prostate cancer (Yano et al., 2004). A study by Lima et al. (2004) demonstrated that down regulation of bcl-2 or another antiapoptotic gene, X-IAP (X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis) by using specific siRNAs sensitized breast cancer MCF-7 cells to anticancer drugs like etoposide and doxorubicin.

In vitro studies by Ling and Li, (2004) showed that shRNAs specific against survivin, a gene which is upregulated in many cancers (Kim et al., 2003), silenced the expression of survivin and resulted in apoptosis of the transfected cells. RNAi induced down regulation of survivin in esophageal squamous cell carcinoma and caused significant inhibition of cancer cells both in vitro and in vivo (Wang et al., 2005). Human rhabdomyosarcoma xenografts when treated with a cocktail of survivin-shRNA encoding plasmids over two weeks resulted in 70% reduction in tumour growth (Caldas et al., 2006). In vivo studies by Takei et al. (2004) showed that siRNAs have been successfully used to reduce angiogenesis by targeting vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF).

A member of the signal transduction and activation of transcription (STAT), the STAT3 gene is frequently activated in different types of cancer. RNAi specific to STAT3 resulted in inhibition of DU-145 prostate cancer cell line by inducing apoptotic cell death (Lee et al., 2004). STAT3 siRNA inhibited the growth of Hep2 human laryngeal cancer cell line, resulting in apoptosis and down regulation of Bcl-2 expression (Gao et al., 2005).

The multiple drug resistance (MDR1) gene product P-glycoprotein is over expressed in cancer and poses a

major problem in chemotherapeutic treatment of cancer. Retroviral mediated shRNA specific to MDR1 sensitized cancer cells to cytotoxic drugs (Pichler et al., 2005). Similarly a study by Hua et al. (2005) reported that the suppression of MDR1 gene using siRNA expression vector reversed drug resistance to doxorubicin in human uterine sarcoma cell line.

Polo-like kinase 1(PLK1) is a serine/threonine kinase which plays an important role in mitosis as well as in malignant transformation. It has been found that siRNAs specific against PLK1 on Non-small cell lung cancer(NSCLC) cell lines resulted in reduced cell proliferation as well as increased cellular apoptosis and sensitized the cells to chemotherapy.

An important genetic alteration in the protein tyrosine kinase pathway leads to a disease called chronic myeloid leukemia (CML) which occurs as a result of recurrent chromosomal translocation between chromosome 9 and 22 leading to the formation of a hybrid BCR-ABL gene. This gene encodes for a deregulated protein tyrosine kinase which plays an important role in the pathogenesis of chronic myeloid leukemia. Sequence specific siRNAs were used to target BCR-ABL activity (Wilda et al., 2002; Wohlbold et al., 2003; Scherr et al., 2005; Withey et al., 2005). RNAi inhibited BCR-ABL dependent cell growth and induced apoptosis in CML cells. Further studies revealed that siRNAs against BCR-ABL increased the sensitivity of leukemia cells to a drug called imatinib which targets the deregulated protein tyrosine kinase (Wohlbold et al., 2003).

Another important gene cyclophilin A (CypA) is over expressed in most non-small lung carcinomas. Down regulation of CypA using specific siRNAs in human lung tumour cells resulted in reduced growth of Xenograft tumours along with decreased cancer cell proliferation and increased apoptosis both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Howard et al., 2005).

The potential anti-tumour applications of RNAi based techniques offer great hope in designing effective anti-cancer therapy.

Lung Cancer

Lung cancer is the most common of all cancers. There are two types of lung cancer namely small cell lung carcinoma and non-small cell lung carcinoma. The use of siRNA technology has increased the chances of combating lung cancer.

The use of specific siRNAs targeting survivin encapsulated in PEGylated LPD nanoparticles resulted in down regulation of survivin gene and showed pronounced anti-tumour effect as well as enhanced apoptosis along with inhibition of tumour cell growth in lung cancer cells (Li et al., 2006). Similarly the use of epidermal growth factor receptor specific siRNAs in combination with LPD nanoparticles in Lung cancer xenograft mice model resulted in tumour growth inhibition (Li et al., 2008).

In another study, the use of Akt1specific siRNAs into urethane induced lung cancer mice model showed downregulation of Akt1 gene thereby resulting in inhibition of tumour growth (Xu et al., 2008).

Liver Cancer

A known risk factor for liver cancer is infection with HBV or hepatitis C virus. Chronic infection with HBV could result in Hepatocellular carcinoma. RNA interference based techniques provide an effective strategy to target HBV infection (Arbuthnot et al., 2007). Specific siRNAs that target the HBV RNA were intravenously injected into mice infected with HBV which resulted in drastic reduction in serum HPV DNA levels (Morrissey et al., 2005). *In vivo* studies were carried out in liver metastasis nude mice by incorporating Bcl-2 specific siRNAs along with a cationic liposome LIC-101 which resulted in reduction of tumour size (Yano et al., 2004).

Gynecologic Cancers

Breast Cancer

Breast Cancer is the second most common of all Cancers and results in high mortality among women in western countries (Jemal et al., 2010). This disease condition is characterized by uncontrolled cell growth in the tissues of the breast. A plausible treatment for breast cancer is surgery in the case of localized tumour along with additional therapies such as chemotherapy as well as radiotherapy.

Sequence specific siRNA targeting cyclin D1 were seen to increase cellular apoptosis in MCF-7 breast cancer cell lines. siRNAs specific for plasminogen activator inhibitor type I also resulted in increased level of apoptosis in MDA MB 231 cells (Meryet-Figuières et al., 2007).

Successful use of siRNAs that target signaling peptide of secretory clusterin in combination with Copolymers of PEI and PEG (PEI-g-PEG) have resulted in reduced expression of clusterin thereby sensitizing human MCF-7 breast cancer cells to ionizing radiation (Sutton et al., 2006).

In another study the use of HER2/neu specific siRNA when complexed with chitosan nanoparticles encapsulating quantum dots resulted in the silencing of the HER2/neu gene and increased apoptotic levels in SKBR3 breast cancer cells (Tan et al., 2007).Bcl-2 targeting siRNAs when introduced into MDA-MB-231 human breast cancer cell line sensitized these cells to paclitaxel and increased cellular apoptosis (Wang et al., 2006).

An Important study was carried out by Valdehita et al. (2012) in which siRNAs were used to target VPAC1 in T47D as well as MDA-MB-468 breast cancer cell lines thereby inhibiting vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) which is responsible for stimulation of VEGF an important factor in angiogenesis.

In vivo delivery of c-raf specific siRNAs packed in synthetic cationic cardiolipin analogue (CCLA) liposomes into SCID mice with human breast xenograft tumours resulted in successful suppression of tumour (Chien et al., 2005).

Ovarian Cancer

RNA interference has been proposed as a therapeutic tool to fight different cancers. Many specific genes have been targeted using siRNA technology as possible

anticancer therapy. Ovarian cancer is considered to be the most deadly among other gynecologic cancers. A potential target has been the Her-2/neu gene. Invitro studies using sequence specific siRNAs to target Her-2/neu gene in ovarian cancer resulted in decreased cell proliferation, apoptosis and reduced tumour growth (Yang et al., 2004). siRNAs targeting the H-ras gene decreased the tumour volume in ovarian cancer models as well as increased apoptosis in ovarian cancer cell lines (Miyamoto et al., 2004).

Glutathione-S-transferase (GST) and p-glycoprotein (p-gp) are over expressed in ovarian cancer and are responsible for multiple drug resistance. Invitro studies in ovarian cancer cell lines revealed that sequence specific siRNAs targeting GST and p-gp resulted in sensitivity to Cisplatin (Zhang et al., 2005).

Cervical Cancer

Human papillomavirus (HPV) is a virus that belongs to the papillomavirus family and HPV infection is a cause of nearly all cases of cervical cancer. RNAi technology has been used to target HPV associated genes as potential targets against cervical cancer. Specific siRNAs that targeted HPV E6 gene expression resulted in the accumulation of p53 protein resulting in reduced cell growth whereas silencing of the HPV E7 gene by siRNAs resulted in apoptosis (Jiang et al., 2005; Yoshinouchi et al., 2003). In vivo studies using siRNAs targeting HPV18 E6 and E7 resulted in tumour suppression in cervical cancer xenograft mice model (Fujii et al., 2006).

Urologic Cancers

Prostate Cancer

Prostate Cancer is one of the most lethal cancers owing to male related cancer death. New modes of therapy become the need of the hour to treat this deadly form of

Prostate cancer cells show increased expression of pro-oncotic genes like polo-like kinase 1 (Eckerdt et al., 2005) and Bcl-2 (Cory and Adams, 2005). In vitro studies using siRNAs that specifically target polo-like kinase 1 and Bcl-2 have shown successful silencing of the targeted genes along with decrease in cell proliferation. In vitro studies using polo-like kinase-1 and Bcl-2 specific siRNAs in human prostate cancer cell induced athymic mice lead to decrease in tumour volume (McNamara et al., 2006).

An important receptor which is over expressed in prostate cancer is the insulin-like growth factor receptor which can be potential target for gene therapy studies. In vitro studies using sequence specific siRNAs targeting the type 1 insulin-like growth factor receptor in DU145, LNCaP and PC3 prostate cancer cell lines resulted in reduced cell proliferation and increased rate of apoptosis (Rochester et al., 2005).

In vivo studies using Raf-1 specific siRNAs in Prostate cancer xenograft mice model resulted in successful inhibition of tumour growth (Pal et al., 2005).

Another in vivo study using anti-integrin alpha V siRNA along with liposomes in human PC3 Prostate cancer cell line induced Xenograft mice models resulted

RNA Interference as a Plausible Anticancer Therapeutic Tool in inhibition of tumour growth (Bisanz et al., 2005). Similarly siRNAs targeting Bcl-2 when introduced into PC3 cell line induced Xenograft mice models resulted in decrease in tumour size (Yano et al., 2004).

siRNAs were successfully used to target the c-myc gene, a key regulator of cell

proliferation and death, which resulted in decreased growth of prostate cancer cells (Green et al., 2011).

Bladder Cancer

Bladder Cancer can be treated by transurethral removal of the tumour along with chemotherapy. The use of RNAi based technology has been successful in controlling the cell proliferation in a number of bladder cancer cell lines.

siRNAs that specifically target survivin showed a marked decrease in cell proliferation and increased apoptosis in bladder cancer cell lines (Ku et al., 2010).

In vitro studies in which many antiapoptotic proteins have been used as potential targets in bladder cancer cells to bring about some clinical significance which would pave the way for a successful therapeutic approach (Kunze et al., 2008).

Renal Cancer

In Renal cell carcinoma (RCC) the foremost therapeutic strategy involves surgery. Gene therapy especially those involving the use of RNAi technology have been the forerunners in the treatment of RCC. A plausible target is HuR gene which is an mRNA stabilization protein and is over expressed in RCC (Ronkainen et al., 2010). In vitro studies using siRNAs targeting HuR gene in RCC cell lines resulted in marked growth inhibition of RCC cells. Similarly in vivo studies with the same siRNAs in xenograft mice models resulted in reduced tumour growth (Danilin et al., 2010).

Another important gene namely osteopontin plays a significant role in metastasis and tumorigenesis of RCC. In vitro studies using siRNAs specific for osteopontin in Caki-1 human renal carcinoma cell line resulted in reduced cell proliferation and increased cellular apoptosis (Zhang et al., 2010).

Conclusion

RNAi technology has been an important tool in the analysis of gene function and in reverse genetics. The past era has witnessed a number of clinical trials involving RNAi as a potential therapeutic agent against a number of debilitating diseases. Cancer is a complex disease involving a network of oncogenic pathways. These pathways are regulated by a number of genes which can be used as potential targets using RNAi based techniques. There have been a number of in vitro studies that indicate that RNAi technology can bring about cell death in cancer cell lines but few to elaborate the success of this technique to destroy tumours in vivo. The effectiveness of RNAi in Cancer therapy is bound to increase as novel efficient methods of delivery have been devised which offer accurate delivery of the RNAi inducer to the target system. With the advent of RNAi based gene therapy, it is possible to combat cancer at the molecular level thereby

opening new avenues for an effective anticancer therapy.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to the Entomology Research Institute, Loyola College, Chennai, India for financial assistance. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

- Ahlquist P (2002). RNA-dependent RNA polymerases, viruses and RNA silencing. *Science*, **296**, 1270-3.
- Arbuthnot P, Longshaw V, Naidoo T, Weinberg MS (2007). Opportunities for treating chronic hepatitis B and C virus infection using RNA interference. *J Viral Hepat*, **14**, 447-59.
- Bahi A, Boyer F, Kolira M, Dreyer JL (2005). *In vivo* gene silencing of CD81 by lentiviral expression of small interference RNAs suppresses cocaine-induced behaviour. *J Neurochem*, **92**, 1243-55.
- Bernstein E, Caudy AA, Hammond SM, Hannon GJ (2001). Role for a bidentate ribonuclease in the initiation step of RNA interference. *Nature*, **409**, 363-6.
- Bisanz K, Yu J, Edlund M, et al (2005). Targeting ECM-integrin interaction with liposome-encapsulated small interfering RNAs inhibits the growth of human prostate cancer in a bone xenograft imaging model. *Mol Ther*, **12**, 634-43.
- Brummelkamp TR, Bernards R, Agami R (2002a). A system for stable expression of short interfering RNAs in mammalian cells. *Science*, **296**, 550-3.
- Brummelkamp TR, Bernards R, Agami R (2002b). Stable suppression of tumorigenicity by virus-mediated RNA interference. *Cancer Cell*, **2**, 243-7.
- Caldas H, Holloway MP, Hall BM, Qualman SJ, Altura RA (2006). Survivin-directed RNA interference cocktail is a potent suppressor of tumour growth in vivo. J Med Genet, 43, 119-28.
- Calin GA, Dumitru CD, Shimizu M, et al (2002). Frequent deletions and down-regulation of micro-RNA genes miR15 and miR16 at 13q14 in chronic lymphocytic leukaemia. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, **99**, 15524-29.
- Calin GA, Sevignani C, Dumitru, CD, et al (2004). Human microRNA genes are frequently located at fragile sites and genomic regions involved in cancers. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* USA, 101, 2999-3004.
- Chan JA, Krichevsky AM, Kosik KS (2005). MicroRNA-21 is an antiapoptotic factor in human glioblastoma cells. *Cancer Res*, 65, 6029-33.
- Cheng AM, Byrom MW, Shelton J, Ford LP (2005). Antisense inhibition of human miRNAs and indications for an involvement of miRNA in cell growth and apoptosis. *Nucleic Acids Res*, 33, 1290-7.
- Chien PY, Wang J, Carbonaro D, et al (2005). Novel cationic cardiolipin analogue-based liposome for efficient DNA and small interfering RNA delivery *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Cancer Gene Ther*, **12**, 321-8.
- Cory S, Adams JM (2005). Killing cancer cells by flipping the Bcl-2/Bax switch. *Cancer Cell*, **8**, 5-6.
- Danilin S, Sourbier C, Thomas L, et al (2010). Role of the RNA-binding protein HuR in human renal cell carcinoma. *Carcinogenesis*, **31**, 1018-26.
- Dittgen T, Nimmerjahn A, Komai S, et al (2004). Lentivirusbased genetic manipulations of cortical neurons and their optical and electrophysiological monitoring in vivo. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 101, 18206-11.
- Eckerdt F, Yuan J, Strebhardt K (2005). Polo-like kinases and

- oncogenesis. Oncogene, 24, 267-76.
- Eis PS, Tam W, Sun L, et al (2005). Accumulation of miR-155 and BIC RNA in human B cell lymphomas. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, **102**, 3627-32.
- Fu GF, Lin XH, Han QW (2005). RNA interference remarkably suppresses bcl-2 gene expression in cancer cells in vitro and *in vivo. Cancer Biol Ther*, **4**, 822-9.
- Fujii T, Saito M, Iwasaki E, et al (2006). Intratumor injection of small interfering RNA- targeting human papillomavirus 18 E6 and E7 successfully inhibits the growth of cervical cancer. *Int J Oncol*, **29**, 541-8.
- Gagnon V, Mathieu I, Sexton E, Leblanc K, Asselin E (2004). AKT involvement in cisplatin chemoresistance of human uterine cancer cells. *Gynecol Oncol*, **94**, 785-95.
- Gao LF, Xu DQ, Wen LJ, et al (2005). Inhibition of STAT3 expression by siRNA suppresses growth and induces apoptosis in laryngeal cancer cells. Acta Pharmacol. Sin, 26, 377-83.
- Green VA, Weinberg MS (2011). Small RNA-induced transcriptional gene regulation in mammals: mechanisms, therapeutic applications, and scope within the genome. *Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci*, **102**, 11-46.
- Hamilton AJ, Baulcombe DC (1999). A species of small antisense RNA in post transcriptional gene silencing in plants. *Science*, **286**, 950-2.
- Hemann MT, Fridman JS, Zilfou JT, et al (2003). An Epi-allelic series of p53 hypomorphs created by stable RNAi produces distinct tumor phenotypes *in vivo*. *Nat Genet*, **33**, 396-400.
- Hosono T, Mizuguchi H, Katayama K, et al (2005). RNA interference of PPARgamma using fiber-modified adenovirus vector efficiently suppresses preadipocyte-to-adipocyte differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells. *Gene*, **348**, 157-65.
- Howard BA, Furumai R, Campa MJ, et al (2005). Stable RNA interference-mediated suppression of cyclophilin A diminishes non-small-cell lung tumor growth in vivo. Cancer Res, 65, 8853-60.
- Hua J, Mutch DG, Herzog TJ (2005). Stable suppression of MDR-1 gene using siRNA expression vector to reverse drug resistance in a human uterine sarcoma cell line. *Gynecol Oncol*, 98, 31-8.
- Hu-Lieskovan S, Heidel JD, Bartlett DW, Davis ME, Triche TJ (2005). Sequence-specific knockdown of EWS-FLI1 by targeted, nonviral delivery of small interfering RNA inhibits tumor growth in a murine model of metastatic Ewing's sarcoma. Cancer Res, 65, 8984-92.
- Hutvagner G (2005). Small RNA asymmetry in RNAi: Function in RISC assembly and gene regulation. FEBS Lett, 579, 5850-7.
- Iorio MV, Ferracin M, Liu CG, et al (2005). MicroRNA gene expression deregulation in human breast cancer. *Cancer Res*, 65, 7065-70.
- Jemal A, Siegel R, Xu J, Ward E (2010). Cancer statistics. *Cancer J Clin*, **60**, 277-300.
- Jiang M, Milner J (2005). Selective silencing of viral gene E6 and E7 expression in HPV-positive human cervical carcinoma cells using small interfering RNAs. *Methods Mol Biol*, 292, 401-20.
- July LV, Beraldi E, So A, et al (2004). Nucleotide-based therapies targeting clusterin chemosensitize human lung adenocarcinoma cells both in vitro and in vivo. Mol Cancer Ther, 3, 223-32.
- Karasarides M, Chiloeches A, Hayward R, et al (2004). B-RAF is a therapeutic target in melanoma. *Oncogene*, **23**, 6292-8.
- Kim PJ, Plescia J, Clevers H, Fearon ER, Altieri DC (2003). Survivin and molecular pathogenesis of colorectal cancer. *Lancet*, **362**, 205-9.
- Kim VN (2005). MicroRNA biogenesis: coordinated cropping

- and dicing. Nature Rev Mol Cell Biol, 6, 376-85.
- Kluiver J, Poppema S, De Jong D, et al (2005). BIC and miR-155 are highly expressed in Hodgkin, primary mediastinal and diffuse large B cell lymphomas. *J Pathol*, **207**, 243-9.
- Ku JH, Seo SY, Kwak C, et al (2010). Cytotoxicity and apoptosis by survivin small interfering RNA in bladder cancer cells. BJU Int, 106, 1812-6.
- Kunze D, Wuttig D, Fuessel S, et al (2008). Multitarget siRNA inhibition of antiapoptotic genes (XIAP, BCL2, BCL-X(L)) in bladder cancer cells. Anticancer Res, 28, 2259-63.
- Lapteva N, Yang AG, Sanders DE, Strube RW, Chen SY (2004). CXCR4 knockdown by small interfering RNA abrogates breast tumor growth in vivo. Cancer Gene Ther, 12, 84-9.
- Lee NS, Dohjima T, Bauer G, et al (2002). Expression of small interfering RNAs targeted against HIV-1 rev transcripts in human cells. Nat Biotechnol, 20, 500-5.
- Lee SO, Lou W, Qureshi KM, et al (2004). RNA interference targeting Stat3 inhibits growth and induces apoptosis of human prostate cancer cells. Prostate, 60, 303-9.
- Li H, Fu X, Chen Y, et al (2005a). Use of adenovirus-delivered siRNA to target oncoprotein p28GANK in hepatocellular carcinoma. Gastroenterology, 128, 2029-41.
- Li S, Crothers J, Haqq CM, Blackburn EH (2005b). Cellular and gene expression responses involved in the rapid growth inhibition of human cancer cells by RNA interferencemediated depletion of telomerase RNA. J Biol Chem, 280, 23709-17.
- Li SD, Chen YC, Hackett MJ, Huang L (2008). Tumor-targeted delivery of siRNA by self assembled nanoparticles, Mol Ther, 16, 163-69.
- Li SD, Huang L (2006). Targeted delivery of antisense oligodeoxynucleotide and small interference RNA into lung cancer cells. Mol Pharm, 3, 579-88.
- Lima RT, Martins LM, Guimaraes JE, Sambade C, Vasconcelos MH (2004). Specific downregulation of bcl-2 and xIAP by RNAi enhances the effects of chemotherapeutic agents in MCF-7 human breast cancer cells. Cancer Gene Ther, 11,
- Ling X, Li F (2004). Silencing of antiapoptotic survivin gene by multiple approaches of RNA interference technology. Biotechniques, 36, 450-60.
- McNamara II JO, Andrechek ER, Wang Y, et al (2006). Cell typespecific delivery of siRNAs with aptamer-siRNA chimeras. *Nat Biotechnol*, **24**, 1005-15.
- Meryet-Figuières M, Resina S, Lavigne C, et al (2007). Inhibition of PAI-1 expression in breast cancer carcinoma cells by siRNA at nanomolar range. Biochimie, 89, 1228-33.
- Metzler M, Wilda M, Busch K, Viehmann S, Borkhardt A (2004). High expression of precursor microRNA-155/BIC RNA in children with Burkitt lymphoma. Genes Chromosomes Cancer, 39, 167-9.
- Miyamoto S, Hirata M, Yamazaki A, et al (2004). Heparinbinding EGF-like growth factor is a promising target for ovarian cancer therapy. Cancer Res, 64, 5720-7.
- Morrissey DV, Blanchard K, Shaw L, et al (2005). Activity of stabilized short interfering RNA in a mouse model of hepatitis B virus replication. *Hepatology*, **41**, 1349-56.
- Osada H, Tatematsu Y, Yatabe Y, Horio Y, Takahashi T (2005). ASH1 gene is a specific therapeutic target for lung cancers with neuroendocrine features. Cancer Res, 65, 10680-85.
- Paddison PJ, Caudy AA, Bernstein E, Hannon GJ, Conklin DS (2002). Short hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) induce sequencespecific silencing in mammalian cells. Genes Dev, 16, 948-58.
- Pal A, Ahmad A, Khan S, et al (2005). Systemic delivery of Raf siRNA using cationic cardiolipin liposomes silences Raf-1 expression and inhibits tumor growth in xenograft model of

- RNA Interference as a Plausible Anticancer Therapeutic Tool human prostate cancer. Int J Oncol, 26, 1087-91.
- Paul CP, Good PD, Winer I, Engelke DR (2002). Effective expression of small interfering RNA in human cells. Nat Biotechnol, **20**, 505-8.
- Pichler A, Zelcer N, Prior JL, Kuil AJ, Piwnica-Worms D (2005). In vivo RNA interference-mediated ablation of MDR1 P-glycoprotein. Clin Cancer Res, 11, 4487-94.
- Ragozin S, Niemeier A, Laatsch A, et al (2005). Knockdown of hepatic ABCA1 by RNA interference decreases plasma HDL cholesterol levels and influences postprandial lipemia in mice. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol, 25, 1433-8.
- Rochester MA, Riedemann J, Hellawell GO, et al (2005). Silencing of the IGF1R gene enhances sensitivity to DNAdamaging agents in both PTEN wild-type and mutant human prostate cancer. Cancer Gene Ther, 12, 90-100.
- Ronkainen H, Vaarala MH, Hirvikoski P, Ristimaki A (2011). HuR expression is a marker of poor prognosis in renal cell carcinoma. Tumour Biol, 32, 481-7.
- Scherr M, Battmer K, Schultheis B, Ganser A, Eder M (2005). Stable RNA interference (RNAi) as an option for anti-bcr-abl therapy. Gene Ther, 12, 12-21.
- Sioud M, Sorensen DR (2003). Cationic liposome-mediated delivery of siRNAs in adult mice. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 312, 1220-5.
- Song E, Zhu P, Lee SK, et al (2005). Antibody mediated in vivo delivery of small interfering RNAs via cell-surface receptors. *Nat Biotechnol*, **23**,709-17.
- Sorensen DR, Leirdal M, Sioud M (2003). Gene silencing by systemic delivery of synthetic siRNAs in adult mice. J Mol Biol, 327, 761-6.
- Soutschek J, Akinc A, Bramlage B, et al (2004). Therapeutic silencing of an endogenous gene by systemic administration of modified siRNAs. Nature, 432, 173-8.
- Sui G, Soohoo C, Affarel B, et al (2002). A DNA vector-based RNAi technology to suppress gene expression in mammalian cells. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 99, 5515-20.
- Sutton D, Kim S, Shuai X, et al (2006). Efficient suppression of secretory clusterin levels by polymer-siRNA nanocomplexes enhances ionizing radiation lethality in human MCF-7 breast cancer cells in vitro. Int J Nanomedicine, 1, 155-62.
- Takei Y, Kadomatsu K, Yuzawa Y, Matsuo S, Muramatsu T (2004). A small interfering RNA targeting vascular endothelial growth factor as cancer therapeutics. Cancer Res, 64, 3365-70.
- Tan WB, Jiang SY, Zhang Y (2007). Quantum-dot based nanoparticles for targeted silencing of HER2/neu gene via RNA interference. Biomaterials, 28, 1565-71.
- Valdehita A, Carmena MJ, Bajo AM, Prieto JC (2012). RNA interference-directed silencing of VPAC1 receptor inhibits VIP effects on both EGFR and HER2 transactivation and VEGF secretion in human breast cancer cells. Mol Cell Endocrinol, 348, 241-6.
- Wang Y, Gao S, Ye WH, Yoon HS, Yang YY (2006). Co-delivery of drugs and DNA from cationic core-shell nanoparticles self-assembled from a biodegradable copolymer, Nat Mater, **5**, 791-6.
- Wang Y, Zhu H, Quan L (2005). Downregulation of survivin by RNAi inhibits the growth of esophageal carcinoma cells. Cancer Biol Ther, 4, 974-8.
- Wang ZX, Dong X, Liu ZL, et al (2012). Overexpression of polo-like kinase 1 and its clinical significance in human nonsmall cell lung cancer. Int J Biochem Cell Biol, 44, 200-10.
- Wilda M, Fuchs U, Wossmann W, Borkhardt A (2002). Killing of leukemic cells with a BCR/ABL fusion gene by RNA interference (RNAi). Oncogene, 21, 5716-24.
- Withey JM, Marley SB, Kaeda J (2005). Targeting primary human leukaemia cells with RNA interference: Bcr-Abl

- Puthucode V Ramachandran et al
 - targeting inhibits myeloid progenitor self-renewal in chronic myeloid leukaemia cells. Br J Haematol, 129, 377-80.
- Wohlbold L, Van der Kuip H, Miething C, et al (2003). Inhibition of bcr-abl gene expression by small interfering RNA sensitizes for imatinib mesylate (STI571). Blood, **102**, 2236-9.
- Xu CX, Jere D, Jin H, et al (2008). Poly (ester amine)-mediated, aerosol delivered Akt1 small interfering RNA suppresses lung tumorigenesis. Am J Respir Crit Care Med, 178, 60-73.
- Yang G, Cai KQ, Thompson-Lanza JA, Bast Jr RC, Liu J (2004). Inhibition of breast and ovarian tumor growth through multiple signaling pathways by using retrovirus-mediated small interfering RNA against Her-2/neu gene expression. J Biol Chem, 279, 4339-45.
- Yano J, Hirabayashi K, Nakagawa S, et al (2004). Antitumor activity of small interfering RNA/cationic liposome complex in mouse models of cancer. Clin. Cancer Res, 10, 7721-6.
- Yoshinouchi M, Yamada T, Kizaki M, et al (2003). In vitro and in vivo growth suppression of human papillomavirus 16-positive cervical cancer cells by E6 siRNA. Mol Ther, 8,762-8.
- Zamore PD, Tuschl T, Sharp PA, Bartel DP (2000). RNAi: Double-stranded RNA directs the ATP-dependent cleavage of mRNA at 21 to 23 nucleotide intervals. Cell, 101, 25-33.
- Zeng Y, Yi R, Cullen B (2005). Recognition and cleavage of primary microRNA precursors by the nuclear processing enzyme Drosha. *EMBO J*, **24**, 138-48.
- Zhang A, Liu Y, Shen Y, et al (2010). Osteopontin silencing by small interfering RNA induces apoptosis and suppresses invasion in human renal carcinoma Caki-1 cells. Med Oncol, **27**, 1179-84.
- Zhang H, Kolb FA, Jaskiewicz L, Westhof E, Filipowicz W (2004). Single processing center models for human Dicer and bacterial RNase III. Cell, 118, 57-68.
- Zhang T, Guan M, Jin H, Lu Y (2005). Reversal of multidrug resistance by small interfering double-stranded RNAs in ovarian cancer cells. Gynecol Oncol, 97, 501-7.