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**microRNAs as potential therapeutic targets for muscle wasting during cancer cachexia**

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22 **Abstract:**

23 **Purpose of the review:** Muscle wasting in cancer cachexia remains an unmet clinical need due  
24 to lack of effective therapies associated with the complexity of the disease. Here, we discuss  
25 microRNAs, robust regulators of the expression of multiple genes, only recently characterised  
26 in cancer cachexia in humans and their therapeutic potential for muscle wasting.

27 **Recent findings:** Changes in microRNAs in muscle of cancer patients have been demonstrated  
28 for the first time and these are associated with networks dysregulated during muscle wasting.  
29 These data, together with studies in animal models, indicate that microRNAs are attractive  
30 candidate therapeutics for maintaining muscle mass, both during and following cancer  
31 treatment and improving patient outcomes.

32 **Summary:** Cancer cachexia is a complex metabolic condition associated with muscle wasting.  
33 Maintenance of muscle mass in cancer patients can improve their response to therapy and  
34 prognosis. microRNAs, which can act as oncogenes or tumour suppressors, are also  
35 dysregulated in muscle of cachexia patients. Studies in animal models of muscle wasting have  
36 demonstrated that microRNAs regulate muscle mass and strength. With more microRNA-  
37 based therapeutics in clinical trials and first RNA drugs approved, microRNAs present an  
38 attractive novel therapeutic avenue for maintaining muscle homeostasis in cachexia patients to  
39 improve their prognosis.

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41 **Keywords:** microRNA, cancer, cachexia, muscle, myomiRs

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## 51 **Introduction**

52 Skeletal muscle is the most abundant tissue in the body composing 35-50% of total body mass.  
53 While a lot of attention has been focused on skeletal muscle wasting as a primary disorder, for  
54 example during ageing (sarcopenia) or myopathies; muscle atrophy is also a common co-  
55 morbidity associated with cancer (1). Cancer cachexia is a complex metabolic syndrome, with  
56 research suggesting prevalence between 15% (e.g. breast cancer), 50% to 80% (e.g. colorectal,  
57 lung, pancreatic) of cancer patients, with large variations in weight and muscle loss depending  
58 on stage of disease and cancer location (2). In severe cases, cachectic patients may lose up to  
59 75% of their muscle mass (3). Low muscle mass is associated with poor prognosis, restoring  
60 muscle mass and function in cancer patients could not only improve their recovery following  
61 successful treatment but is also likely to improve the success of the therapy itself (4,5).  
62 Currently, there are few therapies for muscle wasting, with most approaches focusing on  
63 dietary and exercise-based interventions in addition to several pharmaceutical approaches  
64 available, including hormone therapy, androgen receptor modulators, orexigenics, myostatin  
65 inhibitors and anti-inflammatory drugs (6,7). These have shown limited success due to poor  
66 clinical trial performance and lack of long-term efficacy studies (8). Regardless of the  
67 associated pathophysiological process, there is a critically unmet need for muscle preservation  
68 strategies that can recapitulate muscle mass and strength. Small RNA drugs have been recently  
69 approved by FDA showing promise for neurodegenerative diseases (9,10) and research into a class of  
70 small non-coding RNAs: microRNAs (**miRs**), has shown that microRNAs may also hold a  
71 therapeutic potential.

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### 73 **microRNAs in muscle wasting during cachexia.**

74 The ability of microRNAs to extensively regulate gene expression has led to an increased  
75 interest in these small non-coding RNAs. miRs are a class of small ~22-nt RNAs that regulate  
76 gene expression in a post-transcriptional manner by recognising mRNA targets based on  
77 complimentary sequences and in most cases leading to mRNA degradation and/or inhibition  
78 of translation (11). Since their discovery, over 2500 miRs have been described in humans,  
79 estimated to regulate 60% of protein-coding genes (12). Of all the non-coding RNAs, miRs are  
80 the most studied, with nearly 12,000 miR-related papers being published in 2019 demonstrating  
81 the important roles of miRs in maintaining tissue homeostasis in health and disease (13). An  
82 important aspect of miRs is their potential to target the expression of multiple genes  
83 simultaneously, which in turn allows one miR to fine-tune multiple components of signalling  
84 pathways relevant to complex diseases associated with complex background. Muscle wasting

85 in cachexia is an example of such a complex disorder with multiple genes and signalling  
86 pathways involved in maintaining muscle homeostasis being dysregulated during cancer  
87 cachexia. Some of these pathways include, but are not limited to, TNF and IFN signalling, NF-  
88  $\kappa$ B and STAT transcription factors and their target genes, IGF1-AKT-FOXO signalling  
89 involved in proteostasis (14). These pathways are regulated on multiple levels, including post-  
90 transcriptional regulation of gene expression (15). miRs are attractive regulators of pathways  
91 involved in muscle homeostasis that can regulate the expression of multiple genes. To date,  
92 many miRs have been described as essential in muscle development, regeneration and  
93 maintaining muscle homeostasis (23). The expression of multiple miRs has been shown to be  
94 dysregulated during muscle wasting in ageing, myopathies or cachexia (16).  
95 Changes in miR levels in muscle of cachectic patients or in mouse models of cancer cachexia  
96 (17–19) have been recently reported. Narashiman and colleagues demonstrated upregulation  
97 of 8 miRs in muscle of cachexia patients with either pancreatic or colorectal cancer (n=22) as  
98 compared to muscle of cancer patients with no cachexia (n=20) (19). More recently, Worp *et*  
99 *al.* demonstrated changes in miR expression in the muscle of patients with lung cancer  
100 (cachectic n=15, non-cachectic n=11) (17). This is highly relevant as up to 60% of lung cancer  
101 patients experience cachexia (17). Limited overlap between the set of miRs differentially  
102 expressed in the two studies is likely due to different cancers studied, however both  
103 demonstrated that miRs altered in muscle during cachexia are associated with similar pathways,  
104 e.g. cell cycle regulation (17,19). A recent meta-analysis of available datasets on miRs in  
105 cachexia demonstrated miR:mRNA networks potentially associated with muscle wasting  
106 during cachexia, indicating some of the key genes involved in muscle wasting in cachexia are  
107 associated with mitochondrial dynamics, such as Bnip 3 involved in mitophagy, Polrmt  
108 involved in mitochondrial transcription or Ucp3 involved in energy balance (14). This meta-  
109 analysis also revealed the potential role of miR-181 in regulating muscle wasting (14). Our  
110 group and others have previously demonstrated the role of miR-181 in regulating mitochondrial  
111 dynamics and muscle wasting during ageing (20,21).

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### 113 **Conserved miR:target interactions between humans and animal models**

114 We have compared the published datasets to determine which miRs are altered in muscle of  
115 cancer patients, as well as in muscle of mouse models of cachexia (Table 1). Based on the  
116 published data, 7 miRs were consistently dysregulated during cancer cachexia in humans and  
117 in the mouse Lewis Lung Carcinoma (LLC)-induced model of cachexia. These miRs have an  
118 established role in cancer and predicted or established role in muscle homeostasis. We used

119 network analyses based on predicted target genes of these 7 miRs using metaboanalyst  
120 (omicsnet: [www. https://www.omicsnet.ca/](https://www.omicsnet.ca/)) (Fig. 1). We investigated miR:gene interactions,  
121 as well as interactions between the genes. Many genes were targets of more than one of the 7  
122 miRs and several genes formed hubs of interactions with each other, as well as with the miRs,  
123 highlighted in Fig.1. Several predicted miR targets are involved in multiple interactions with  
124 other genes including known oncogenes, tumour suppressors and genes involved in cancer  
125 metastasis, for example p53, Rab5a (a member of RAS oncogene family which promotes  
126 cancer invasion (22)), Grb2 (cell cycle and angiogenesis regulator (23)), Bhlhe40 (controls  
127 metastasis (24)), Bmi-1 (a member of the polycomb group family, oncogene (25)), Taok1  
128 (inflammation regulator (26)) or P53. Among the miRs downregulated in muscle of cancer  
129 patients and mouse models is miR-26 (Table 1, Figure 1). miR-26 has been shown to induce  
130 mitochondrial apoptosis mediated by p53 (27) and its function in muscle has been previously  
131 described (28). Interestingly, Cul3 associated with the global antioxidant transcription factor  
132 Nrf2 pathway. Nrf2 and oxidative homeostasis were among the predicted targets of miRs  
133 dysregulated in cachexia. Nrf2 pathway is important for muscle homeostasis and key to cellular  
134 sensitivity to carcinogenic stimuli and chemotherapeutic drugs (29). miR-144, downregulated  
135 in cachexia, is predicted to target Nrf2. Nrf2 is also associated with regulation of mitochondrial  
136 dynamics (30). The only effective to a degree intervention for muscle wasting, exercise, has  
137 been associated with changes in mitochondrial plasticity, further confirming the importance of  
138 healthy mitochondria for maintaining muscle mass and function (31). Exercise-induced  
139 adaptations include a shift towards more oxidative capacities, typically seen in advanced-  
140 trained athletes. Contrastingly, muscle wasting, atrophy, and disease are associated with  
141 changes in mitochondrial fusion: fission ratio (31). Disrupted mitochondrial dynamics and an  
142 altered redox environment resulting in altered signaling and adaptive responses have been  
143 postulated as a major determinant of muscle wasting (31,32). Altered mitochondria function  
144 can lead to impaired respiration, aberrant mitochondrial autophagy (mitophagy) and  
145 chronically elevated reactive oxygen species (ROS) (31). miR-based approaches could provide  
146 a way of fine-tuning key regulatory pathways such as mitochondrial dynamics and redox  
147 balance through controlling expression of multiple genes associated with antioxidant activity  
148 or mitochondria, and ultimately restore muscle homeostasis.

149 The existing data indicates that several miRs may be important in maintaining muscle mass.  
150 However, functional studies of miRs at the pre-clinical level are required to determine the  
151 therapeutic potential of miRs for the treatment of muscle wasting in cachexia. Currently  
152 available clinical trial data and recently approved RNA drugs provide promise for the future

153 use of miR therapies either as stand-alone or adjuvants to current treatments and interventions  
154 available for cancer cachexia.

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### 156 **microRNAs as therapeutics**

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158 The advantage of miR-based approaches in disorders with multifactorial background as  
159 compared to gene therapies is their potential to regulate the expression levels of multiple genes  
160 simultaneously. miRs have a similar mechanism of action to small interfering RNA (siRNA)-  
161 based RNA therapeutics: Nusinersen for the treatment of spinal muscular atrophy (33), and  
162 Patisiran for the treatment of hereditary transthyretin-mediated amyloidosis, which work  
163 through binding and subsequently degrading the mRNA (9,33). While miR-mediated targeting  
164 of multiple genes has been postulated to potentially yield off-target effects, it has been  
165 suggested to be similar to more traditional therapies targeting single genes, thus not excluding  
166 miRs from being potent future therapeutic agents (33). No miR drugs are currently in clinics,  
167 there are several ongoing phase 1 and 2 clinical trials (e.g. Clinical trial numbers:  
168 NCT02508090, NCT03603431, NCT03373786) investigating miR-based approaches for  
169 cancers, cardiovascular diseases and brain diseases (13). The development of miR-based drugs  
170 shows promise as a stand-alone or an adjuvant to current therapies for difficult to treat diseases  
171 of multiple organ systems.

172 However, for miR therapies to progress, several issues remain to be resolved. For example, re-  
173 expressing a miR can be used to restore miR function in disease using chemically modified  
174 miR mimics, however this may also result in uptake by tissues which do not normally express  
175 that miR and potential off-target effects (34). Optimal miR doses within physiological levels  
176 in order to minimise the potential of off-target effects by delivery of miRs to non-target tissues  
177 remain to be established. An alternative approach may be the use of anti-miRs (antagomiRs,  
178 miR sponges), antisense oligonucleotides with complementary reverse sequences to the  
179 endogenous miR to inhibit miR function. These are thought to have high specificity and affinity  
180 and less likely off-target effects (35). However, most miRs reported to change in cancer  
181 cachexia are downregulated limiting this approach (Table 1). Another significant challenge that  
182 faces the future of miR therapies is effective delivery. Typical modifications of synthetic miRs  
183 or their inhibitors include cholesterol conjugation, LNA oligos to facilitate cellular uptake, as  
184 well using adeno-associated viral (AAV) constructs. Furthermore, tissue-specific promoters  
185 can be used to enhance tissue- and cell-specific delivery of the construct (35). Ultimately, a  
186 deeper understanding of delivery, mechanisms of action, long-term efficacy,

187 pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics, as well as safety in humans remains paramount to  
188 the continued development and advancement of miRs as valid therapeutic compounds.

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### 190 **Conjugation of miR therapeutics with current exercise and dietary approaches**

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192 While there is promise of miRs as drug candidates, there may be further potential to be used in  
193 conjunction with current ‘gold standard’ approaches, enabling more effective restoration of  
194 muscle function at both physical and cellular levels. Current approaches for cancer cachexia  
195 include diet and exercise interventions, although the levels of fatigue and appetite loss  
196 associated with the disease make these interventions extremely difficult for most patients (36).  
197 A critical aspect of these approaches is the reliance on exercise and diet to reverse muscle loss  
198 in cachexia. Skeletal muscle responds to mechanical loads (e.g. resistance exercise), which in  
199 turn, stimulates the anabolic signalling cascade that increases muscle protein synthesis and  
200 promotes muscle growth (16). It has been shown that cancer patients have the potential to gain  
201 and stabilise muscle mass, however evidence appears to show that this is further impaired in  
202 more advanced stages of cancer and highly dependent on dietary protein intake (37). Moreover,  
203 a blunted anabolic response to protein ingestion in ageing has been demonstrated, and it has  
204 been suggested that a similar response to protein administration in cachectic patients exists and  
205 could be key to muscle loss in cancer (38). Furthermore, anorexia and appetite loss are  
206 frequently associated with cachexia (39), making nutritional approaches to combating muscle  
207 loss challenging for the patients. Mechanistically, the cachexia is largely associated with  
208 chronic systemic inflammation, increases in catabolic activity, such as in the ubiquitin-  
209 dependent pathway, as well deactivation of the target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway. These  
210 pathways affect the responses (e.g. insulin signalling) to physical activity and exercise (39,40)  
211 and several miRs altered in cachexia have been shown to regulate these pathways, e.g. miR-  
212 144 regulates insulin sensitivity (Table 1).

213 A direct approach at targeting the pathways associated with cachexia *via* miR-based  
214 therapeutics could restore the homeostasis of chronically deregulated networks and potentially  
215 condition the muscle to a more favourable response to diet and exercise. Therefore, miRs could  
216 potentially be used as adjuvants aiming at improving the efficacy of the existing interventions  
217 by restoring the balance of molecular signalling within muscle and making the tissue more  
218 responsive to the interventions.

219

### 220 **Conclusion**

221 Muscle wasting diseases, such as cancer cachexia, continue to be challenging for patients and  
222 clinicians, as no effective treatments for restoring muscle mass or function are available. miRs  
223 are robust regulators of gene expression which contribute to regulating muscle homeostasis  
224 during disease. As most muscle wasting conditions are multifactorial and complex, and miRs  
225 can regulate the expression of many genes simultaneously, miRs hold a therapeutic potential  
226 that allows the restoration of dysregulated networks involved in maintaining muscle mass and  
227 function. Furthermore, the use of miR-based interventions to restore muscle homeostasis could  
228 be considered a conjugated approach to the current clinical practice, with dietary and exercise  
229 prescriptions becoming more effective. While several obstacles with respect to formulation,  
230 delivery, and safety of miR therapeutics remain, miRs hold great promise of future translational  
231 medicine approaches to skeletal muscle health.

232 **Key points:**

- 233 - microRNA profiling has identified microRNAs altered in muscle of cancer cachexia  
234 patients and animal models of cancer cachexia.
- 235 - several microRNAs dysregulated in muscle during cancer cachexia act as tumour  
236 suppressors;
- 237 - these microRNAs may have a role in muscle regeneration and/or maintenance of  
238 muscle mass based on their studies in non-cachexia models of muscle wasting.
- 239 - microRNA-based approaches could be used as stand-alone or adjuvants to the current  
240 exercise and diet interventions for cachexia to improve their efficacy.
- 241 - further functional studies of microRNAs in models of cancer cachexia are needed to  
242 provide proof-of-principle for the use of miRs as therapies for cancer cachexia to  
243 improve patient prognosis.

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252 **Figure legends.**

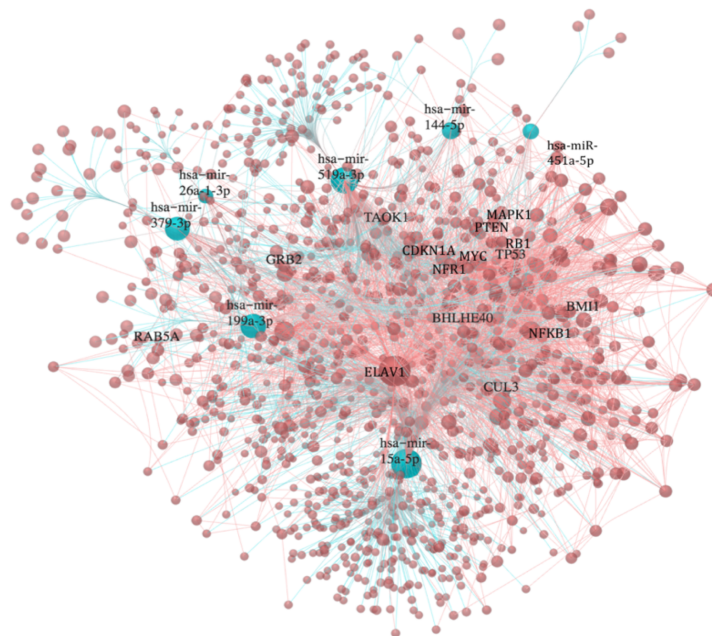
253 **Table 1.** Summary of up- or downregulated microRNAs and their function in muscle of lung  
 254 (17) or pancreatic or colorectal (19) cancer patients and muscle of mouse Lewis Lung  
 255 Carcinoma (LLC)-induced cachexia model; ↓ - downregulated; ↑ - upregulated.

256

microRNA/ miRbase accession	Expression in human cancer cachexia (lung (17) or pancreatic or colorectal (19))	Expression in mouse LLC- induced model of cachexia	Previously described function of miR in skeletal muscle and/or cancer
miR-451a-5p MIMAT0001631	↓ (17)	↓ (18)	Mitochondrial dynamics (41) Inhibits myogenic differentiation (42) Tumour suppressor (43–45)
miR-144-5p MIMAT0004600	↓ (17)	↓ (18)	Tumour suppressor (46) Regulates insulin resistance <i>via</i> IRS-1 (47)
miR-15-5p MIMAT0000068	↓ (17)	↓ (48)	Control mitochondrial-dependent apoptosis (49) Inhibits cell proliferation (50) Inhibits angiogenesis (51) Induces apoptosis Inhibits myogenesis (52) Induces muscle stem cell quiescence
miR-519-3p MIMAT0002869	↓ (17)	↑ (48)	Tumour suppressor (53) Inhibits cell proliferation
miR-26-3p MIMAT0004499	↓ (17)	↓ (48)	Tumour suppressor (54) Required for myogenesis (28) Limits muscle wasting (55) induces mitochondrial apoptosis mediated by p53 (27)
miR-379-3p (miR-411-3p)	↓ (17)	↓ (18)	Reduces proliferation and migration /invasion in cancer cell lines (56)

MIMAT0004690			
miR-199-3p MIMAT0000232	↑ (19)	↓ (48)	Inhibits cancer cell proliferation (57) Enhance cisplatin sensitivity (58) Tumour suppressor (59) Inhibits myogenesis (60)

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260 **Figure 1.** microRNA:gene network analysis of interactions of miRNAs altered in cancer cachexia  
 261 and their predicted and validated target genes indicating potential therapeutic candidates for  
 262 muscle wasting during cachexia. microRNAs altered in muscle of cachexia patients and  
 263 dysregulated in muscle of LLC-induced cachexia (Table 1) were used as input for network  
 264 analyses. microRNAs and their target genes were analysed for connections (including  
 265 miR:target and protein:protein interactions criteria) using Metaboanalyst omics net tool (61).  
 266 Blue hubs indicate microRNAs, red hubs indicate proteins. Proteins which have the highest  
 267 number of interactions with other proteins and miRNAs in the network are labelled. Blue lines  
 268 indicate miR:gene interactions, red lines indicate protein:protein interactions.

269

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276 **Conflicts of interest.**

277 None.

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