

Development of RNA Interference–Based Therapeutics and Application of Multi-Target Small Interfering RNAs

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RNA interference (RNAi) has been proven in recent years to be a newly advanced and powerful tool for development of therapeutic agents toward various unmet medical needs such as cancer, in particular, a great attention has been paid to the development of antineoplastic agents. Recent success in clinical trials related to RNAi-based therapeutics on cancer and ocular disease has validated that small interfering RNAs (siRNAs) constitute a new promising class of therapeutics. Currently, a great wealth of multi-target based siRNA structural modifications is available for promoting siRNA-mediated gene silencing with low side effects. Here, the latest developments in RNAi-based therapeutics and novel structural modifications described for siRNAs—in particular multi-target siRNAs—are reviewed.

Introduction

RNA INTERFERENCE (RNAi) is the process of post-transcriptional highly specific gene silencing triggered by 19–23 base pairs (bp) double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) present in different organisms (Fire et al., 1998; Hammond et al., 2000; Elbashir et al., 2001a). The process is initiated upon cleavage of long dsRNA into small interfering RNA (siRNA) duplexes with two overhanged nucleotides at 3' ends by specific ribonuclease Dicer (Zhang et al., 2002; MacRae et al., 2008; Noland et al., 2011). Then siRNA duplexes incorporate into RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) (Tomari et al., 2004a; Sakurai et al., 2011). In RISC, one strand (“sense” or “passenger”) undergoes cleavage and dissociates from the complex upon RISC activation, the other strand (“antisense” or “guide”) which remains in the complex recognizes and cleaves RNA targets with the help of Argonaute-2 (*AGO-2*) (Song et al., 2004; Hutvagner et al., 2008) and other related RISC proteins: R2D2 (Liu et al., 2003), protein kinase RNA activator (Kok et al., 2007), and TAR RNA binding protein (Tomari et al., 2004b; Chendrimada et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2006; Kini and Walton, 2009; Gredell et al., 2010). The discovery of RNAi has broadened scientists' perspectives in the development of therapeutic drugs. An approach to address multigenic targets simultaneously by using combined siRNAs in one payload is considered to be a better way of controlling complex disease systems (Zimmermann et al., 2007), and thus such a strategy as applying multi-target siRNAs has become popular in RNAi-based therapeutic research (Sharp, 2001). In

this review, the focus is on recent development of multi-target siRNAs for applications in RNAi-based therapeutics, novel siRNA structural designs and modifications.

RNAi-Based Therapeutics

RNAi technology used to suppress expression of pathologically and physiologically important genes is applicable for the treatment of human diseases caused by specific genes that are difficult to treat through traditional approaches. Since the first description of RNAi phenomenon in mammals, development of RNAi-based therapies has rapidly been advanced with many powerful new drug candidates in clinical trials against various human diseases, such as age-related macular degeneration (AMD) (McFarland et al., 2004; McCullough et al., 2005; Gu et al., 2010), respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) infection (Bitko et al., 2005), neurodegenerative disorders (Raoul et al., 2006) and various cancers (Takeshita and Ochiya, 2006; Aigner, 2007; Davidson and McCray, 2011).

Candidates of RNAi-based drugs

Increasing popularity in the development of RNAi-based therapeutics over recent years has evidenced many siRNA preclinical and clinical trials, currently with about 30 siRNA therapeutic candidates reaching various clinical trials stages for treatment of at least 16 diseases (DeVincenzo et al., 2008; Davis et al., 2010; Leachman et al., 2010; Burnett et al., 2011; Davidson and McCray, 2011; Burnett and Rossi, 2012). Some major global pharmaceutical companies such as Novartis

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TABLE 1. CURRENT STATUS OF siRNA THERAPEUTICS IN CLINICAL TRIALS

Drug	Disease	Delivery	Route	Target	Phase	Status	Company
siRNA-EphA2-DOPC	Advanced cancer	Neutral liposome	IV	EPHA2	1	Not yet recruiting	UT MDA/OCRF
iPsiRNA SV40 vectors carrying siRNA	Advanced solid tumors	Electroporation SV40 vectors	Ex vivo, Intradermal IV	LMP2, LMP7, MECL1 BCR-ABL	1	Active Completed	Duke University HMO/DOD
CALAA-01	Solid cancer	RONDEL	IV	RRM2	1	Active	Calando
Atu027	Advanced solid cancer	AtuPLEX	IV	PKN3	1	Completed	Silence
QPI-1007	Optic atrophy	Naked siRNA	IVT	CASPASE-2	1	Completed	Quark
PRO-040201	Hypercholesterolemia	SNALP	IV	APO B	1	Terminated	Tekmira
TKM-080301	Cancer	SNALP	IV	PLK1	1	Recruiting	Tekmira
ND-L02-s0201 injection	Liver cirrhosis	VA-lip	Interventional	HSP47	1	Recruiting	NDT
TD101	Pachyonychia congenital	Naked siRNA	Interventional	Keratin 6A (N171K)	1	Completed	TransDerm/ IPCC
ALN-TTR01	ATTR	SNALP	IV	TTR	1	Completed	Alnylam
EZN-2968	Carcinoma: lymphoma	Naked LNA	IV	HIF-1A	1	Completed	Enzon
EZN-2968	Neoplasms: liver metastases	Naked LNA	IV	HIF-1A	1	Completed	NCI
ALN-PCS02	Hypercholesterolemia	SNALP	IV	PCSK9	1	Completed	Alnylam
ALN-VSP02	Liver cancer/solid tumors	SNALP	IV	KSP and VEGF	1/1	Completed	Alnylam
I5NP	AKI/DGF	Naked siRNA	IV	P53	1/1	Completed/terminated	Quark
SYL1001	Ocular pain	Naked siRNA	Ophthalmic drops	TRPV1	1/2	Recruiting	Sylentis
I5NP	Dry eye syndrome	Naked siRNA	IV	P53	1/2	Active, not recruiting	Quark
AGN211745/Sirma-027	DGF/other Complication of kidney transplant	Naked siRNA	IVT	VEGF-R1	2	Terminated	Allergan/Sirma
Bevasiranib/Cand5	AMD	Naked siRNA	IVT	VEGF	2	Completed	Opko Health
SYL040012	Ocular hypertension, Open angle glaucoma	Naked siRNA	Ophthalmic drops	ADRB2	2	Completed	Sylentis
siG12D LODER	Pancreatic ductal Adenocarcinoma	LODER	EUS biopsy needle	KRASG12D	2	Not yet recruiting	Silenseed
PF-04523655	Pancreatic cancer	Naked siRNA	IVT	RTP801	2	Active, not recruiting	Quark/Pfizer
ALN-RSV01	RSV infection after lung transplantation	Naked siRNA	Nebulization	RSV Nucleocapsid	2	Completed	Alnylam
PF-04523655	Wet AMD	Naked siRNA	IVT	RTP801	2	Completed	Quark/Pfizer
FANG vaccine	Ovarian cancer	Electroporation	Interventional	FURIN and GM-CSF	2/2	Recruiting, Recruiting	Gradalis
Bevasiranib	Wet AMD	Naked siRNA	IVT	VEGF	3	Terminated	Opko Health
ALN-TTR02	ATTR	SNALP	IV	TTR	3	Recruiting	Alnylam

ADRB2, adrenergic receptor beta-2; AKI, acute kidney injury; AMD, age-related macular degeneration; APOB, apolipoprotein B; ATTR, amyloidosis; BCR-ABL, breakpoint cluster region-abelson murine leukemia; CML, chronic myeloid leukemia; DGF, delayed graft function; DME, diabetic macular edema; DOD, Department of Defense; DOPCC, 1,2-dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine; EPHA2, ephrin type-A receptor 2; EUS, endoscopic ultrasound; GM-CSF, granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor; HIF-1A, hypoxia-inducible factor 1-alpha; HMO, Hadassah Medical Organization; HSP47, heat shock protein 47; IPCC, International Pachyonychia Congenita Consortium; iPsiRNA, inducible Proteasomal subunit-specific siRNA; IV, intravenous; IVT, intravitreal; KRASG12D, K-Ras mutation G12D; KSP, kinesin spindle protein; LMP2, large multifunctional protease 2; LMP7, large multifunctional protease 7; LNA, locked nucleic acid; LODER, local drug eluter; MECL1, multicatalytic endopeptidase complex-like 1; NCI, National Cancer Institute; NDT, Nitto Denko Corporation; OCRF, Ovarian Cancer Research Fund; PCSK9, proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9; PKN3, protein kinase N3; PLK1, polo-like kinase 1; RONDEL, RNA/oligonucleotide nanoparticle delivery; RRM2, ribonucleoside-diphosphate reductase subunit M2; RSV, respiratory syncytial virus; siRNA, small interfering RNA; SNALP, stable nucleic acid lipid particle; TRPV1, transient receptor potential vanilloid 1; TTR, transthyretin; UT MDA, M.D. Anderson Cancer Center; VA-lip, vitamin A-coupled liposome; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; VEGF-R1, vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1.

and Merck have also been involved in clinical applications of RNAi-based therapeutics. RNAi is considered to be an exceptional technology for knock-down or silencing of disease related target genes, and scientists anticipate that it will significantly shorten the drug development timeline. Furthermore, clinical pipelines of RNAi-based therapies using siRNAs have been gradually growing since approximately 2011 as the technology matures. As shown in Table 1, there are many candidates of RNAi-based drugs under clinical development in 2013.

RNA delivery systems

RNAi-based drugs rely on safe and efficient delivery systems without unwanted side effects. Up to now, there are a number of efficient delivery systems which can be categorized as *ex vivo*, topical/local and systemic methods (Peer D and Lieberman, 2011; Vicentini et al., 2013). Local delivery of siRNA is practicable for tissues that are external and/or locally restricted including ocular, epidermal, pulmonary, and bladder. Additionally, local delivery may be suitable for noninvasive therapies that require administration by patients, such as eye drops and nasal sprays. The treatment of AMD and diabetic macular edema using intravitreal injections were the first clinical applications of siRNAs as these drugs could be delivered directly to ocular tissue (Barakat and Kaiser, 2009; Kaiser et al., 2010). Other therapeutic applications using siRNAs have been developed via topical delivery and are currently in clinical trials (QPI-1007, TD101, SYL040012, SYL1001, ALN-RSV01). In the past 5 years, the development pipeline has shifted from local to systemic delivery as more advanced delivery vehicles become available for systemic ap-

plications, including stable nucleic acid lipid particles (SNALP) (Zimmermann et al., 2006) and RNA/oligonucleotide nanoparticle delivery (RONDEL) (Heidel et al., 2007; Davis et al., 2010). These technologies have demonstrated to be effective *in vivo* (Zimmermann et al., 2006; Judge et al., 2009; Davis et al., 2010), and significant progress is being achieved in some clinical trials (PRO-040201, TKM-080301, ALN-TTR01, ALN-PCS02, ALN-VSP02, CALAA-01) (Table 1).



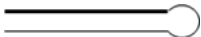



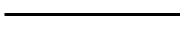


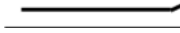
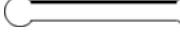


Structural Modifications of siRNA

To improve the silencing efficiency of siRNAs, researchers tried different ways to modify structures of siRNAs. A variety of structural siRNA modifications has been reported for gene silencing (Table 2).

Shorter siRNAs mimicking Dicer cleavage products

The structure of most canonical siRNAs mimics features of the products from Dicer natural cleavage, which comprises two annealed strands, one is a 21-nucleotide (nt) guiding strand antisense to a target RNA and the other is a complementary passenger strand. These two strands form an siRNA duplex upon annealing with a 19-bp dsRNA stem and 2-nt 3'-overhangs at both ends (Elbashir et al., 2001b). Depending on sequence features, some studies reported that siRNAs shorter than canonical siRNAs could efficiently trigger RNAi in mammalian cells and sometimes led to better silencing effect even than that of canonical siRNAs. Reduction of nonspecific responses and immune stimulation as well as enhanced internalization with shorter siRNAs has also been reported. Some variations in the shorter modification on siRNAs include blunt 19-bp siRNA (Czauderna et al., 2003; Prakash

TABLE 2. STRUCTURAL MODIFICATIONS OF siRNA WITH DIFFERENT FEATURES

Structural siRNAs	Structures ^a	Reference
Canonical siRNA		Elbashir et al., 2001a,b
Blunt-ended siRNA		Czauderna et al., 2003; Prakash et al., 2005; Hogrefe et al, 2006; Ghosh et al., 2009
shRNA		Siolas et al., 2005; Ge et al., 2010
16 nt siRNA		Chu and Rana, 2008
asiRNA		Sun et al., 2008
aiRNA		Sun et al., 2008
ss-siRNA		Martinez et al., 2002; Holen et al., 2003; Hall et al., 2006
dgRNA		Hossbach et al., 2006
sisiRNA		Bramsen et al., 2007
Fork siRNA		Hohjoh, 2004; Petrova Kruglova et al., 2010
Dumbbell siRNA		Abe et al., 2007
Bulge siRNA		Dua et al., 2011
25- to 27-mer siRNA		Doré-Savard et al., 2008

^a*Bold line*: sense strand, *thin line*: antisense strand.

aiRNA, asymmetrical siRNA; dgRNA, double-guide siRNAs; shRNA, short hairpin RNA; sisiRNA, small internally segmented interfering RNA; ss-siRNA, single-stranded siRNA.

et al., 2005; Hogrefe et al., 2006; Ghosh et al., 2009), short hairpin siRNA (Siolas et al., 2005; Ge et al., 2010), 16-mer siRNA (Chu and Rana, 2008), asymmetrical shorter-duplex siRNA (Sun et al., 2008), and asymmetrical siRNA (Sun et al., 2008). Other modified siRNAs used in research and drug development are single-stranded siRNAs (Martinez et al., 2002; Holen et al., 2003; Hall et al., 2006), double-guide siRNAs (Hossbach et al., 2006), small internally segmented interfering RNAs (sisiRNA) (Bramsen et al., 2007), fork siRNAs (Hohjoh, 2004; Petrova Kruglova et al., 2010), dumbbell-shaped circular siRNA (or dumbbell siRNA) (Abe et al., 2007), and bulge-siRNA (Dua et al., 2011).

Long dsRNA designed as Dicer-substrate for gene silencing

RNAi effectors longer than standard siRNA were reported in 2005 by Kim et al. and Hannon et al. These longer siRNAs that structurally mimic various Dicer substrates to enhance incorporation into RNAi pathways, are termed “Dicer-substrate siRNA” (Kim et al., 2005; Rose et al., 2005; Siolas et al., 2005; Amarguioui et al., 2006; Collingwood et al., 2008; Hefner et al., 2008; Tanudji et al., 2009). An investigation of cellular interferon induction caused by *in vitro* transcribed siRNAs showed that limited concentrations of some 25- to 27-mer siRNAs had greater potency than all of the possible synthetic 19-bp duplex and 2-base 3'-overhangs siRNAs that could be generated from the larger duplex (Kim et al., 2005). Hannon et al. (2005) also found that synthetic dsRNA with 25- to 30-mer lengths could be up to 100-fold more potent than corresponding conventional 19-bp duplex and 2-base 3'-overhangs siRNAs and would not activate protein kinase R or induce interferon (*IFN*). The enhanced potency of the longer duplexes is attributed to the fact that they are substrates of Dicer, linking the production of siRNAs to incorporation in the RISC. Foster et al. (2012) evaluated the *in vitro* and *in vivo* activities of siRNAs and dual-target siRNAs (dsiRNAs) targeting phosphatase and tensin homolog and factor 7 with over 250 compounds representing both siRNA and dsiRNA structures. They identified highly active compounds from 25-/27-mer dsiRNAs both *in vitro* and *in vivo* (Foster et al., 2012). This study further demonstrated that *in vitro* processing by Dicer is direct, starting predominantly from the open end of the stem and generating a mixture of 19-bp duplex and 2-base 3'-overhangs cleavage products. Increased potency could be attributed to Dicer processing, which might promote more efficient incorporation into RISC through physical association of Dicer with Ago proteins, the effectors of RNAi. This interpretation is supported by biochemical evidence in *Drosophila melanogaster*, indicating a role for Dicer in the initial stages of RISC assembly (Pham et al., 2004).

Although structurally modified siRNAs have been utilized successfully, more investigations and development may be required to further validate such modified and functionalized siRNAs as therapeutic agents. Some of these siRNAs could be loaded directly into RISC whereas others serve as substrates for Dicer and can be processed into shorter species before loading into the RISC. Doré-Savard et al. (2008) demonstrated that a low dose of 27-mer Dicer-substrate siRNA resulted in effective silence of target genes that are related to central nervous system disorders.

Multi-targeting siRNAs for Therapeutics

Drugs designed to act on individual molecular targets cannot usually address multigenic or multi-factor diseases such as cancer, or diseases that affect multiple tissues or cell types such as diabetes and immune-inflammatory disorders (Zimmermann et al., 2007). Thus, multi-targeting therapeutics has been considered to be an attractive approach toward complex diseases. Such an approach as addressing multiple targets has been used to regulate multiple nodes of disease network resulting in a synergistic effect (Bolognesi et al., 2009; Efferth and Koch, 2011) and to design medications against atherosclerosis (Lahoute et al., 2011), cancer (Lu et al., 2012), depression (Maes et al., 2012), and psychosis (Kroken et al., 2014) as well as neurodegenerative diseases (Flight, 2013). Another approach focused on “systemic” drugs suggested that development of novel computational and mathematical concepts be certainly required for suitable modeling of complex data (Schratzenholz et al., 2010).

Combination of multi-target siRNAs for disease therapeutics

Various design strategies with multiple-target siRNAs have been used in many gene-mediated disorders or viral infectious research (Sharp, 2001; Holen et al., 2002). Use of multiple siRNA duplexes in targeting CXC chemokine receptor type 4 (*CXCR4*) and fatty acid synthase ligand (*FASL*) was first reported to prevent human immunodeficiency virus-1 (HIV-1) infection. An enhanced gene silencing with the multiple siRNAs was demonstrated not only at protein or mRNA expression level, but also at functional level by evoking greater inhibition of HIV infection as well as more reduction of *FASL*-mediated apoptosis than that using single siRNA (Ji et al., 2003). Menendez et al. (2004) identified a molecular link between fatty acid synthase (*FAS*) and human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (*HER2*) oncogene by using concurrent RNA-mediated silencing of *FAS* and *HER2* genes, they found that simultaneous inhibition of *FAS* and *HER2* genes by corresponding siRNAs led to apoptosis synergistically in *HER2* overexpressing cancer cells. In an anti-prostate cancer study, multi-target siRNAs based on the homologous region of the DNA methyl transferases 3A and 3B (*DNMT3A/B*) family were designed and their effects on proliferation, migration, and invasion of TSU-PR1 prostate cancer cells were investigated *in vitro* (Du et al., 2012). The results showed that *DNMT3B* alone apparently played a key role in maintaining unfavorable behavior of prostate cancer cells, thereby implying the potential significance of *DNMT3B* as a promising therapeutic target, while *DNMT3A* was simply a helper. To evaluate the effect of dual gene silencing from heat shock protein 27 (*HSP27*) and cellular Fas-associated death domain protein (*FADD*)-like interleukin-1 β -converting enzyme inhibitory protein (*C-FLIP*) on doxazosin-induced apoptosis of prostate cancer cell, Kim et al. (2013) used a mixture of siRNAs corresponding to *HSP27* and *C-FLIP*. They showed that dual silencing of *C-FLIP* and *HSP27* enhanced apoptosis even under 1 μ M—a rather low concentration—of doxazosin in prostate cancer PC-3 cells. In another study (Tai et al., 2010), dual silencing of *HER2* and vascular endothelial growth factor (*VEGF*) genes by multi-target siRNAs exhibited significant changes in cell morphology and substantial suppression on migration, spreading, cell adhesion, and proliferation *in vitro*.

TABLE 3. COMBINATION OF MULTI-TARGET siRNAs FOR DISEASE THERAPEUTICS

Targets	Disease	Delivery route	References
<i>CXCR4</i> , <i>FAS</i> -ligand (<i>FASL</i>)	HIV infection	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Ji et al., 2003
<i>FAS</i> , <i>HER2</i>	Breast and ovarian cancer	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Menendez et al., 2004
<i>C-MYC</i> , <i>MDM2</i> , <i>VEGF</i>	Melanoma	Protamine-antibody fusion protein, IT/IP	Song et al., 2005
<i>XIAP</i> , <i>BCL2</i> , <i>BCL-X(L)</i>	Bladder cancer	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Kunze et al., 2008
<i>EPHA2</i> , <i>FAK</i> , <i>SRC</i>	Ovarian cancer	siRNA-DOPC liposomes, IP	Shahzad et al., 2009
<i>EZH2</i> , <i>P110α</i>	Prostate cancer	siRNA-atelocollagen, IV	Takeshita et al., 2005
<i>N-RAS</i> , <i>EREG</i>	Hepatocellular carcinoma	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Zhao et al., 2009
<i>HER2</i> , <i>VEGF</i>	Breast cancer	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Tai et al., 2010
<i>DNMT3A</i> , <i>DNMT3B</i>	Prostate cancer	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Du et al., 2012
<i>HSP27</i> , <i>C-FLIP</i>	Prostate cancer	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Kim et al., 2013
<i>VEGF</i> , <i>KSP</i>	Liver cancer	SNALP, IV	Taberero et al., 2013
<i>VEGF</i> , <i>HER2</i>	Gastric cancer	siRNA, transfection <i>in vitro</i>	Liu et al., 2014

BCL-X (L), B-cell lymphoma-extra large; *C-FLIP*, cellular Fas-associated death domain protein-like interleukin-1 β -converting enzyme inhibitory protein; *CXCR4*, CXC chemokine receptor type 4; *DNMT3A*, DNA methyltransferases 3A; *DNMT3B*, DNA methyltransferases 3B; *EREG*, epiregulin; *EZH2*, enhancer of zeste homolog 2; *FAK*, focal adhesion kinase; *FAS*, fatty acid synthase; *FAS-ligand (FASL)*, FAS ligand; *HER2*, human epidermal growth factor receptor-2; HIV, human immunodeficiency virus; *HSP27*, heat shock protein 27; IP, intraperitoneal; IT, intratumoral; *MDM2*, mouse double minute 2 homolog; *P110 α* , phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase, catalytic subunit alpha; *XIAP*, X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis protein).

breast cancer model. These results suggested that *HER2* positive breast cancer could be treated more effectively by inhibition of both *HER2* and *VEGF* genes simultaneously. Also in gastric cancer, Liu et al. (2014) demonstrated that co-down-regulation of *VEGF* and *HER2* by a siRNA cocktail resulted in significant inhibition of gastric cancer growth and migration *in vitro*. Thus, inhibition of *VEGF* and *HER2* expression could induce apoptosis of gastric cancer cells. Other examples of applying combinations or cocktails of siRNAs for multiple genes targeting are presented in Table 3. These investigations showed that two or more siRNAs could be synthesized and mixed for therapeutic purposes.

Dicer substrate-based designs for multi-target siRNAs

Alternatively to the above modification methods, conventional double-stranded siRNAs can be structurally modified to bear multiple targeting RNA sequences. In a number of studies, such siRNAs with quite unique structures have been designed and used as Dicer substrates for therapeutic evaluations (Table 4).

Short hairpin siRNAs

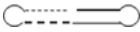
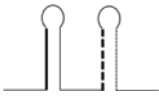

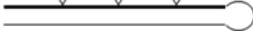
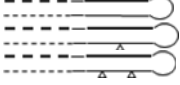

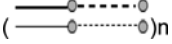
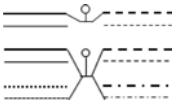
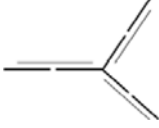

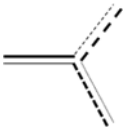

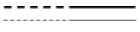

Anderson et al. (2003) reported that bispecific short hairpin siRNAs containing an 8-nucleotide intervening spacer targeted against either *CXCR4* and cluster of differentiation 4 or C-C chemokine receptor type 5 (*CCR5*) and *CXCR4*, which are known HIV-1 cell surface receptors. After being transfected with the bispecific siRNAs, *MAGI-CXCR4* and *CCR5* cells exhibited significant downregulation of their respective coreceptors. In other approach, a double siRNA structure with a single construct called hairpin RNA (hpRNA)—produced by a cytomegalovirus promoter-driven DNA template—was used to block expression of matrix metalloproteases (*MMP*)-9 and cathepsin B genes (Lakka et al., 2004). The hpRNAs were found to reduce the invasive behavior of glioblastoma cell line, which was attributed to the inhibition of the *MMP*-9 and cathepsin B expression. Direct intratumoral (IT) injections of plasmid DNA expressing hpRNA inhibited growth of established glioma tumor model significantly and reduced invasion

of intracranial tumors in *in vivo* models. On the other hand, intraperitoneal (IP) injections of plasmid DNA expressing hpRNA not only repressed preestablished tumors greatly without any indication of tumor cells present but also kept its effect for a period of 4 months. Gondi et al. (2004) showed that, in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* models, glioma cell invasion and angiogenesis could be inhibited when an hpRNA targeting the receptor of urokinase-type plasminogen activator (*UPAR*) and cathepsin B was used, IT injections of plasmid vectors expressing the hpRNA for *UPAR* and cathepsin B resulted in the suppression of preestablished intracranial tumors. Other hpRNAs designed for targeting *UPAR*, *MMP*-9, and *UPAR* were also tested for treatment of meningioma (Tummalapalli et al., 2007; Kargiotis et al., 2008) and breast cancer (Kunigal et al., 2007). All these studies showed satisfactory inhibition effects of multi-target hpRNAs on cancers *in vivo*.

Long hairpin siRNAs

Long siRNAs with hairpins for multiple gene targets were designed to achieve sustained gene silencing. DNA-directed RNAi (ddRNAi) technology, by which long siRNA with hairpin transcripts were expressed after introduction of ddRNA constructs into cells, had recently been developed (Rice et al., 2005) and successfully applied for anti-hepatitis-C (HCV) therapeutics in a clinical trial (Denise et al., 2014). Others also reported various designs of long siRNAs with hairpin structures (Akashi et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2007; Sano et al., 2008). Novel modified hairpin RNAs (mRNAs) more than 100 bp in length were designed (Akashi et al., 2005) and featured by multiple specific point mutations in the sense strand. Such mRNAs induced RNAi and suppressed replication of multiple HCVs effectively without inducing the *IFN* pathway. Liu et al. (2007) introduced the so-called extended short hairpin RNAs (e-shRNAs) that encode two effective siRNAs against HIV-1 variants in a construct. The study indicated that, from activity assays and RNA processing analyses, positioning of the two siRNAs on the hairpin stem was critical to generation of the two corresponding functional siRNAs. Efficient processing of the e-shRNAs into

TABLE 4. DICER SUBSTRATE-BASED DESIGNS FOR MULTI-TARGET siRNAs

<i>Multi-target siRNA</i>	<i>Structure</i>	<i>Targets</i>	<i>References</i>
Bispecific-siRNA		<i>CD4, CXCR4, CCR5</i>	Anderson et al., 2003
hpRNA		<i>MMP-5, cathepsin B, UPAR</i>	Gondi et al., 2004; Lakka et al., 2004, 2005; Tummalapalli et al., 2007; Kunigal et al., 2007; Gondi et al., 2007; Kargiotis et al., 2008
ddRNAi		<i>β-ACTIN, hRluc</i>	Rice et al., 2005
mhRNA ^a		Hepatitis C virus	Akashi et al., 2005
e-shRNAs ^a		HIV-1 <i>gag, pol, net</i> gene	Liu et al., 2007
lhRNA		HIV-1 <i>tat, rev</i> gene	Sano et al., 2008
DGT multi-siRNA ^b		<i>VEGF, SURVIVIN, BCL2</i>	Lee et al., 2011
Branched RNA ^c		<i>TNF-α</i>	Aviñó et al., 2011
T-tiRNAs		<i>SURVIVIN, STAT3</i>	Chang et al., 2012a
Branched RNA		Firefly luciferase gene	Nakashima et al., 2011
tiRNA		<i>LAMIN A/C, DBP, TIG3</i>	Chang et al., 2012b
tsiRNA		EGFP, renilla luciferase	Shin et al., 2009
dsiRNA		<i>TIG3, LAMIN</i>	Chang et al., 2009
DGT siRNA multi-siRNAs		<i>NET-1, VEGF; SURVIVIN, BCL2</i>	Peng et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2013

^a Δ, point mutations in sense (mhRNA) or antisense strand (e-shRNAs).

^b ●, DTME, a cleavable crosslinker.

^c ○, dT or RNA, DNA nucleosides.

DBP, D site of albumin promoter (albumin D-box) binding protein; ddRNAi, DNA-directed RNAi; DGT siRNA, dual gene targeting siRNA; DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid; dsiRNA, dual-target siRNA; dT, deoxythymidine; DTME, dithiobismaleimidoethane; EGFP, enhanced green fluorescent protein; e-shRNAs, extended short hairpin RNAs; hpRNA, hairpin RNA; lhRNA, long hairpin siRNA; mhRNA, modified hairpin RNA; multi-siRNA, multimeric siRNA; RNA, ribonucleic acid; tiRNA, tripartite-interfering RNA; tsiRNA, tandem siRNA; T-tiRNAs, tripodal interfering RNAs.

two effective siRNAs could be achieved, which led to better inhibition of virus reproduction. A similar form of long hairpin siRNAs (lhRNAs), termed promoter-expressed long hairpin RNAs, was evaluated (Sano et al., 2008). Long hairpin RNA could be processed into multiple siRNAs that are deemed as effective agents for treatment of rapidly mutating viruses such as HIV. Human U6 promoter-driven lhRNAs of 50, 53, and 80 bp targeting contiguous sequences

within the *tat* and *rev* genes of HIV-1 have been generated and the results showed that such lhRNAs could be stably and functionally expressed for a long time (48 days) in HIV-1 susceptible T cells, where they provided potent inhibition of HIV replication against both nonmutant and mutant variants of HIV-1.

With rapid advancement in chemical synthesis and modification methods, chemically synthesized siRNAs other than

vector-based siRNAs have been widely used for investigations of RNAi-based therapeutics. In addition, synthetic multi-target siRNAs could also be conjugated with other moieties by linkages. In one case, Lee et al. (2011) reported that use of conjugates formed from dual gene targeting multimeric siRNA (DGT multi-siRNA) provided more effective inhibition of the two corresponding target genes simultaneously than that from a cocktail of mixed multimerized siRNA conjugates. The DGT multi-siRNA conjugates, which were chemically cross-linked via cleavable disulfide linkages, exhibited significantly higher gene silencing efficiency with negligible stimulation of immune response against *VEGF* and green fluorescent protein (GFP) genes at expression levels of both mRNAs and proteins than a physical mixture of naked siRNAs. DGT multi-siRNAs against *SURVIVIN* and *BCL2* genes were shown to induce enhanced apoptotic effect in a similar fashion.

Branched siRNAs

Branded siRNAs are another class of novel structural designs that could be obtained by using symmetric doubler phosphoramidites (Frieden et al., 2004) to form branches with two or four strands from RNAs. The branched siRNAs had similar inhibitory capacity to those of unmodified siRNA duplexes, as evidenced by tumor necrosis factor- α (*TNF- α*) gene silencing experiments (Aviñó et al., 2011). A variant of branched siRNAs, called tripodal interfering RNAs (T-tiRNAs) (Chang et al., 2012a), was constructed on a treble-phosphoramidite core structure (Shchepinov et al., 1997) and extended with short DNA linker. Such T-tiRNAs could silence simultaneously up to three different mRNAs or miRNAs by harboring three siRNA or antagomir units. T-tiRNAs could be incorporated into RISC efficiently and trigger efficient RNAi in mammalian cells and achieve greater gene silencing and delivery efficiency than conventional siRNAs. There were also other branched RNAs with three- or four-way junctions (Nakashima et al., 2011) designed by assembling single-stranded RNA for RNA interference. These unique RNAs could be cleaved by Dicer as well into about 20-bp conventional siRNA species that lead to a potent silencing effect. Thus, a branched, nonlinear tripartite-interfering RNA (tiRNA) structure was designed by Chang et al. (2012b), and the study showed that the tiRNA could induce better silencing potency on multiple target genes than the corresponding classical siRNAs. Surprisingly, the gene silencing observed on the use of tiRNA did not require Dicer-mediated processing into smaller RNA units and was thought to be triggered by the 38-nt-long guide strands through the RNAi machinery in mammalian cells.

Linear multi-target siRNAs

In contrast to the above hairpin and branched structures of siRNAs, linear multi-target siRNAs have also been designed and evaluated for silencing of various gene targets. Tandem siRNA (tsiRNA) (Shin et al., 2009), which was composed by a duplex RNA harboring two siRNA units by using an expression system with convergent H1 and U6 polymerase 3 promoters, was used to target HCV (Lavender et al., 2012; Suhy et al., 2012). TsiRNAs were optimized to be processed by the intracellular ribonuclease Dicer into functional siRNAs targeting different sequences in a given gene or different genes. *In vitro*, inhibition of HCV protein could be achieved

by tsiRNAs as efficiently as a single 19-bp duplex and 2-base 3'-overhangs siRNA without affecting miRNA maturation or induction of an *IFN* response. Chang et al. (2009) showed that synthetic dsRNA with a length as long as 38 bp could induce specific silencing of two target genes simultaneously without causing nonspecific antiviral *IFN* responses. Long double-stranded dual-target or multiplex siRNAs (DGT-siRNAs or multi-siRNAs) (Wu et al., 2013; Peng et al., 2013) were reported for gene silencing through a sequence-specific RNAi process without inducing significant immune responses. A gap feature structurally designed in either of the nucleotide strands of the multi-siRNAs was essential toward silencing target genes and avoiding immune responses.

Conclusion and Perspectives

Here, we have summarized the current states of RNAi therapeutics and development of siRNA structural modifications, in particular multi-target siRNAs. By using these structurally modified siRNAs, gene silencing efficiency has been improved with low or even no induction of innate immune responses. Some of them can even enhance delivery efficiency compared with canonical siRNA. With rapid growth of RNAi therapy applications, many RNAi-based drug candidates have moved into clinical trials in recent years. Although significant progress has been made toward delivering siRNAs for therapeutic applications as evidenced by the clinical trials, much more effort is still needed to ensure safe and efficient means of delivery of siRNAs *in vivo*. siRNA agents have been successfully delivered into many organs in clinical trial studies, such as eyeball, skin, liver, and lung which may be easier targets than solid tumors in internal organs.

With better understanding of disease mechanisms, novel multi-target drugs have been developed against multiple sites within the pathological process. The RNAi-based therapeutics has also been investigated for multi-target therapies by many researchers. A number of applications using multi-target siRNAs for antiviral and antitumor therapeutics have achieved substantial efficacy and safety outcomes. Some of them have moved into the clinic trials (Table 1). Multi-target-based siRNA therapeutics opens up new therapeutic possibilities and may help to improve treatment effectiveness. Additionally, single- or multi-target siRNA could be used as a pharmaceutical ingredient by combining with other biomedical and/or chemical agents such as monoclonal antibody drugs and/or chemotherapy agents for diseases treatments.

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