

Review

Endothelial senescence and microRNA

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Abstract

Cellular senescence occurs when cells lose the ability to divide and proliferate. Endothelial cell senescence is associated with vascular diseases, such as atherosclerosis. In this review, I discuss the factors affecting endothelial cell senescence. Then I describe the role of microRNAs (miRNAs) in endothelial cell senescence. Understanding miRNA pathways in endothelial senescence may lead to new treatments for endothelial dysfunction and atherosclerosis.

Keywords: endothelial cells; microRNA; senescence; SIRT1.

Introduction

Fifty years ago, Hayflick and Moorhead discovered that primary cells cannot proliferate forever *in vitro*. They defined cellular senescence as the catastrophic loss of viability for primary cells at the end of their life span (1). Somatic cells have an intrinsically limited potential to replicate, the Hayflick limit. Why does this happen? One answer is that each mitosis shortens telomeres, and telomere shortening finally stops cell division. A telomere is a repetitive DNA sequence at the end of each chromosome. Telomeres limit deterioration of chromosomes and chromosome fusion. Blackburn and Greider identified a specific telomere terminal transferase activity in *Tetrahymena* extract, which was named telomerase, and they showed a model that telomere length could be extended in the 1980s (2). This discovery of telomerase has important implications for aging research.

Senescence is the process of aging, and it can be observed in cultured cells. Cellular senescence is the limited capacity of cells to divide in culture. In cultured human fibroblasts, cellular senescence was first observed as a process that stops proliferation, which is called replicative senescence. In contrast, extrinsic stimuli, such as DNA damage and mitogen signals, also cause cellular senescence (premature senescence). Generally, senescent cells have a characteristic enlarged and flattened cell shape (3) and express senescence-associated β

galactosidase (SA- β -gal) (4). Senescent cells are resistant to mitogen-induced proliferation, show polyploidy, and altered gene expression (5). The tumor suppressors, p53, p16, and retinoblastoma protein (pRb) are increased by cellular senescence in normal somatic cells (6, 7).

Landmark studies of *Caenorhabditis elegans* and *Drosophila melanogaster* identified highly evolutionally conserved molecules that affect life span, dauer formation-16 (DAF-16) or the *Drosophila* DAF-16 (dFOXO). The insulin/insulin-like growth factor (IGF-1) pathway was the first pathway shown to be involved in aging in animals, and mutation within genes of the insulin/IGF-1 signaling pathway extend life span. In addition, yeast silent information regulator 2 (Sir2) was shown to regulate the aging process, and current aging studies have focused on its mammalian ortholog SIRT1. Aging also has been proposed to result from cumulative reactive oxygen-induced cellular damage (8).

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are molecules that regulate a variety of physiological and pathological functions in almost all tissues and cells. miRNAs have emerged as important modulators of aging. This short review focuses on endothelial senescence and vascular aging. We summarize several key molecules that regulate endothelial senescence, especially emphasizing the role of miRNAs.

Vascular aging

Healthy blood vessels have normal vascular function, maintaining vascular dilation, limiting thrombosis, and suppressing inflammation. In contrast, aging vessels have abnormal vascular function, with impaired vasodilation, expression of proinflammatory markers, and increased vascular calcification (9, 11). Aging is the major risk factor for atherosclerosis (10). With aging, especially after 40 years, atherosclerosis and systolic hypertension increase. Features of aging arteries include endothelial cell dysfunction, vascular smooth muscle cell (VSMC) proliferation and migration, matrix fragmentation, collagenization, and glycation. Angiotensin II signaling is upregulated in aged arterial walls. Angiotensin II, angiotensin-converting enzyme (ACE), and angiotensin receptor AT1 are markedly increased with aging in arterial walls (12). Moreover, aging promotes the production of several molecules, such as monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), transforming growth factor- β 1 (TGF- β 1), and matrix metalloproteinase type II (MMP-2) (12). Aging alters the structure and functions of endothelial cells. Endothelial dysfunction in aged arteries and senescence-associated phenotypes in atherosclerotic coronary arteries are observed (13).

Endothelial senescence

Endothelial cells play an essential role in maintaining vascular homeostasis, but endothelial senescence impairs vascular angiogenesis, resulting in vascular dysfunction, which is a step in atherosclerotic plaque development (14, 13). Reduction of endothelial-dependent dilation was observed in aging endothelial cells, and flow-induced nitric oxide (NO)-mediated dilation of coronary arterioles is significantly diminished in aged rats (15, 16). There are multiple factors through which aging contributes to endothelial dysfunction, including continuous vascular stress and damage to endothelial cells (17). When endothelial cells age, a significant decrease in cell size is observed.

There are no specific biomarkers for endothelial aging. As described above, SA- β -gal, a lysosomal hydrolytic enzyme, is the most accepted marker (4, 18). Endothelial cells positive for SA- β -gal were detected in human atherosclerotic plaques because of abundant senescent cells in the plaques (19, 20). Another marker is senescence-associated heterochromatin foci (SAHF) formation (4, 21). This is a chromosomal condensed heterochromatin locus, which is critical for senescence induction. SAHF can inhibit the expression of genes that increase cellular proliferation. In endothelial cells, SAHF formation is not well studied. An inhibitor of cyclin-dependent kinase, p16INK4a is also used as a marker for endothelial cell senescence (22, 23).

Regulators of endothelial senescence

Telomere and telomerase

The telomere hypothesis is one concept that can explain replicative senescence (24). Endothelial cells in culture have a limited capacity to divide and finally reach replicative senescence after shortening of telomeric DNA. Telomeres at the ends of chromosomes contain the repeated DNA sequence (TTAGGG) to protect the end of chromosomes from excessive shortening during DNA replication. Telomeric DNA shortens by 25–100 bp with each round of cell division. Shortening of telomere causes severe DNA damage and stops cell cycle forever (25). Telomere length in endothelial cells of human abdominal aorta shortens with age (26, 27), and critical telomere shortening by endothelial cell division causes endothelial senescence (28). The length of telomeres in endothelial cells implicated in coronary atherosclerosis was shorter than that in normal endothelial cells (29). These observations suggest a strong correlation between telomeres and senescence in endothelial cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Telomerase is a reverse transcriptase that synthesizes telomere DNA. This special enzyme can add telomere repeats to the 3' end of the chromosomal DNA. More than 90% of human tumors strongly express telomerase (30), and telomere shortening in the absence of telomerase leads to replicative senescence and apoptosis. Telomerase activity in endothelial cells from aorta or umbilical vein is much lower than that in cancer cells, but suppression of telomerase activity

in HUVEC by expressing a dominant negative of human telomerase (hTERT) catalytic subunit can reduce replicative capacity (31). Telomerase is associated with the survival and function of endothelial cells, and telomerase activity contributes to angiogenic properties and mitogenic activity in endothelial progenitor cells (EPC) (32, 33). The catalytic subunit of hTERT is a key molecule in the aging process, and PI3K-Akt signaling pathway plays an important role in regulating telomerase activity. Various therapeutic approaches have been tested to delay or stop endothelial cell senescence by controlling telomerase (20, 34, 35). For example, Moretti et al. demonstrated that VEGF increases hTERT expression and telomerase activity, and adenovirus-mediated transfer of hTERT promotes angiogenesis (36). Adenovirus-mediated hTERT transfer in ischemic rats induced the development of new capillaries and decreased apoptosis in vascular cells, suggesting that hTERT contributes to angiogenesis *in vivo*.

SIRT1

Yeast Sir2 family has been identified as regulators of life span as well as budding exhaustion in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* model (37, 38). The ability of Sir2 to increase longevity was shown to be dependent on deacetylation and activation of DAF-16 and dFoxO proteins in *C. elegans* (39). Later, Sir2 was recognized as a histone deacetylase (40). In mammals, there are seven homologs of Sir2 (SIRT1–7). Among those proteins, SIRT1 is a nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD)-dependent deacetylase that has potential protective effect on vascular endothelial cells (41). Loss-of-function and gain-of-function of SIRT1 in mice studies demonstrated that SIRT1 plays a key role in the effect of caloric restriction upon metabolism (42–44). Calorie restriction and resveratrol, red wine polyphenol, could promote longevity. In mammals, however, there is no apparent evidence that SIRT1 can directly regulate life span in mammals yet.

SIRT1 controls a variety of transcriptional factor, such as p53, forkhead box O (FoxO), NF- κ B, and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ coactivator-1a (PGC-1a) (45–47). SIRT1 inhibits senescence by the deacetylation of FoxO3a, FoxO4, and p53. Insulin and IGF signaling affects life span in mammals (48). The FoxO family is a set of important molecules in insulin/IGF signaling, and FoxO proteins are regulated by posttranslational modifications, such as phosphorylation, acetylation, and ubiquitination. SIRT1 has been identified as a regulator of FoxO acetylation in response to oxidative stress. Sirt1 can regulate heart aging and resistance to oxidative stress through FoxO (49), although modulation of cardiac FoxO function by Sirt1 failed to increase life span (50). FoxO1 and FoxO3a are the most abundant FoxO isoforms in endothelial cells, and overexpression of FoxO1 or FoxO3a inhibits endothelial cell migration and tube formation and represses endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) expression (51). Akt negatively regulates the life span of endothelial cells, and Akt-induced senescence-like growth arrest in human endothelial cells was prevented by introduction of FoxO3a mutant that was resistant to Akt (52). Moreover, FoxO proteins upregulates antioxidant and

cytoprotective enzymes, such as catalase and MnSOD and induces a metabolic switch. Those evidences suggest that SIRT1 and FoxOs are crucial regulators of vascular homeostasis, which can affect cellular senescence.

Reactive oxygen species (ROS)

Cellular senescence is linked to ROS. ROS can damage DNA, leading to rapid-onset senescence (premature senescence), which is not completely related to telomere shortening. Harman proposed that free radicals are linked to aging, and subsequent studies have supported this idea (53). Alterations in intracellular ROS or changes in oxygen tension or expression of antioxidants can change senescence in culture cells. Also, radicals mediate oncogene induction of senescence in some cells. Limited evidence suggests that free radicals are also linked to aging of organisms. As atherosclerosis is accompanied by increased vascular oxidant stress, it is plausible that senescence plays a role in atherosclerosis (54–58).

Endothelial cells produce ROS, such as superoxide and hydrogen peroxide. ROS mediate a variety of biological responses as signaling molecules, which causes endothelial cell dysfunction. The major source of ROS in endothelial cells is NADPH oxidase (NOX). NOX is activated by cytokines, growth factors, hypoxia, and shear stress. NOX is composed of two groups of subunits: the catalytic components Nox1, Nox4, gp91phox; and the modulating components p22phox, p47phox, p67phox. Overexpression of NOX4 accelerates senescence in fibroblast (59). In endothelial cells, senescence is induced by oxidative stress. The expression of NOX p47phox is increased with aging in healthy men without changing the levels of the oxidant enzyme xanthine oxidase and antioxidant enzymes (60).

A balance of ROS-generating enzyme and antioxidant enzymes is important to regulate intracellular ROS levels. There are a variety of antioxidant enzymes including superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase, glutathione peroxidase (GPx), heme oxygenase (HO), and thioredoxin-1 (Trx-1) system. The Trx-1 system has two oxidoreductases, thioredoxin reductase and Trx-1. Trx-1 is expressed in endothelial cells, and exerts antiapoptotic functions by scavenging intracellular hydrogen peroxide and by reducing sulfhydryl groups on proteins that have been oxidized. Trx-1 has been implicated in the regulation of senescence. Trx-1 and Trx reductase are decreased with age in rat kidney, but calorie restriction prevents these decreases (61). Trx-1 protein levels are also reduced in aged endothelial cells (62). Mitsui et al. has shown that transgenic mice overexpressing human Trx exhibited extended median and maximum life spans compared to wild-type mice (63).

Reducing oxidative stress prevents endothelial dysfunction with aging in human. Aging decreases peripheral conduit artery flow-mediated dilation, and ascorbic acid intravenous infusion restores this effect (64). Decreased endothelial cell-dependent vessel dilation is thought to contribute to age-associated development of cardiovascular disease. This endothelial cell senescence is associated with increased endothelial oxidative stress by upregulating NOX (60). These data suggest that ROS play a role in endothelial aging and dysfunction in humans.

Nitric oxide (NO)

NO is a free radical that regulates various functions in vascular cells. NO plays critical roles in regulation of endothelial function, vascular tone, and heart development (65–67). There are three isoforms of NO synthases (NOS) that catalyze the synthesis of NO; neuronal NOS (nNOS), inducible NOS (iNOS), and endothelial NOS (eNOS). In general, vascular endothelial cells express eNOS and, when inflamed, express iNOS. Endothelial cells relax the underlying VSMCs by releasing NO (67). This release of NO from endothelial cells is reduced in pathological conditions, such as diabetes or hypertension. Endothelium-dependent vasodilation and the basal release of NO are reduced during aging, as activity of eNOS is suppressed in senescent endothelial cells (68). Shear stress increases eNOS expression in young endothelial cells but not in aged endothelial cells (69). Akt protein level is reduced in senescent endothelial cells, causing low level of eNOS phosphorylation by Akt. *In vivo*, eNOS expression is downregulated in aorta of aged rats (70). Interestingly, NO has been shown to counteract senescence in vascular endothelial cells (69, 71, 72). One possible explanation for this is that NO can stimulate telomerase activity, which delays endothelial cell senescence (72). Ota et al. demonstrated that phosphodiesterase 3 (PDE3) inhibitor, cilostazol, promoted SIRT1 expression by increasing NO production in endothelial cells. This is another reason for the prevention of senescence by NO (73). Moreover, SIRT1 has been shown to deacetylate eNOS, which leads to more NO production and endothelial-dependent vasodilation (74). As SIRT1 is a positive regulator of cellular senescence, the function of SIRT1 to protect vascular aging may partially depend on the increase of NO by deacetylated eNOS.

Vascular miRNAs and endothelial senescence

What are miRNAs?

miRNAs are small noncoding RNAs that regulate gene expression by inhibiting translation or stability of their target mRNAs (75). miRNAs control a variety of cellular functions, such as proliferation, differentiation, apoptosis, and senescence (76–78). The biogenesis of miRNA is well studied. miRNA encoding genes are transcribed into primary transcript (pri-miRNA) by polymerase II and processed to smaller stem-loop structural miRNA precursor (pre-miRNA) by the microprocessor complex composed of RNase III enzyme, Drosha and diGeorge syndrome critical region gene 8 (DGCR8). Then, the pre-miRNA is exported to the cytoplasm by exportin-5 and diced into duplex mature miRNA by another RNase III, Dicer. This single-strand mature miRNA is incorporated into a special miRNA-protein complex (RISC), which binds to the 3'UTR of mRNAs when they have complementary binding sites to miRNA, leading either to translational suppression or degradation of target mRNAs. Therefore, two RNase III enzymes, Dicer and Drosha, are key enzymes to regulate miRNA biogenesis.

Some miRNAs are expressed in certain tissues or cell types (79). For example, miR-1 and miR-133 are considered to be muscle specific (80). Some miRNAs are highly expressed in endothelial cells (endothelial miRNAs) that modulate endothelial functions. We performed miRNA profiling in human aortic endothelial cells and found that miR-21, miR-126, miR-29 family, and let-7 family are relatively abundant in endothelial cells (Table 1). Although miR-21 and miR-29 are family-expressed ubiquitously, miR-126 is an endothelial-specific miRNA. Knockdown of miR-126 in zebrafish resulted in loss of vascular integrity and hemorrhage during embryonic development (81). Targeted deletion of miR-126 in mice causes leaky vessels and hemorrhaging because of a loss of vascular integrity and defects in endothelial cell proliferation, migration, and angiogenesis (82). Moreover, knockdown of miR-126 increased leukocyte adherence to endothelial cells by modulating vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 (VCAM-1) expression, suggesting that miR-126 controls vascular inflammation as well (83).

Drosha and Dicer affect senescence

How do Dicer and Drosha affect senescence? Global repression of miRNA maturation by knockdown of Dicer or Drosha or DGCR8 in mouse lung adenocarcinoma has been shown to promote cellular growth, transformation, and tumorigenesis (84). For primary cultured cells, a Dicer genetic knockout caused a rapid onset of cell senescence in mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) *in vitro* and *in vivo* (85). Dicer ablation increased the levels of p19Arf, p53, and phospho-p53. Those results suggested that loss of miRNA biogenesis induce premature cell senescence via p19Arf-p53 pathway. What is the role of Dicer and Drosha in cellular senescence? Srikantan et al. performed the experiments to touch this question. The expressions of Drosha and Dicer in senescent fibroblast cells are lower than those in young cells, indicating that aging makes less miRNA and more mRNA. Downregulation

of Dicer or Drosha lowered miRNA levels, however, and decreased global translation (86). Dicer knockdown, but not Drosha, induced senescent cells. Those results suggest that the effect of Dicer and Drosha on senescence is partially independent of miRNA biogenesis, and those enzymes may have other functions on the regulation of senescence. Endothelial cell-specific knockout of Dicer and Drosha significantly reduced capillary sprouting and tube-forming activity and silencing of Dicer, not Drosha, reducing angiogenesis *in vivo* (87, 88). Those findings suggested that miRNAs play important roles in maintaining function in endothelial cells, but the role of Dicer or Drosha in endothelial cell senescence is still unknown.

Longevity and miRNAs – profiling studies

Although several miRNAs have been identified as senescent-associated miRNAs, the relationship between aging and individual miRNAs is not well understood. The miRNA *lin-4* and its target *lin-14* have been shown to control the timing of larval development and life span in *C. elegans* through the insulin/IGF-1 pathway (89). The mammalian *lin-4* miRNA homologs, the miR-125 family, might be able to regulate life span process, although it is not proved yet. Especially in cancer, a variety of functions of miRNAs have been discovered. A set of miRNAs, such as miR-20a and miR-34a, induce growth arrest and senescence by modulating p53 and Rb in cancer (90, 91). Those miRNAs are called senescence-associated miRNAs (SA-miRNAs) and play an important role in tumor suppression (92). There are more than 10 SA-miRNAs reported by now (Table 2). They listed possible target genes for senescence; however, the real targets of SA-miRNAs are still unclear because each miRNA has many potential target mRNAs. Lafferty-Whyte demonstrated several major pathways regulated by the SA-miRNAs. Those pathways are involved in (1) cytoskeletal remodeling process, (2) cell cycle, (3) regulation of transcription in the CREB pathway, and (4) TGF and WNT signaling (92).

For human primary culture cells, profiling of senescent miRNAs was performed. Maes et al. demonstrated the miRNA profile data of various conditions of WI-38 fibroblasts (93). They compared miRNAs of (1) young replicating fibroblasts, (2) fibroblasts in reversible growth arrest state, (3) fibroblasts in replicative senescence, and (4) fibroblasts in hydrogen peroxide-induced premature senescence. Their results represented that senescence increases miR-34a, miR-624, miR-638, and miR-377 and decreases miR-365 and miR-512-5p. Bonifacio et al. performed miRNA profiling of replicative senescent fibroblasts to find the effects of telomerase activity on miRNAs (94). More than 80 miRNAs, including miR-34a, miR-146a, miR-424-503 polycistron, miR-450, miR-542-3p, and miR-542-5p are significantly upregulated in senescent human foreskin (BJ) cells. They also compared miRNAs between early passage and senescent BJ cells and early and late passage immortalized fibroblasts (BJ-hTERT) that stably express the human telomerase reverse transcriptase subunit hTERT and discovered that a set of miRNAs, such as miR-21 and miR-19a, are possibly regulated by hTERT.

Table 1 miRNA expression profiles in human primary endothelial cells.

HAEC		HUVEC	
1. miR-21	11. miR-30b	1. miR-21	11. miR-23a
2. miR-126	12. miR-34a	2. miR-126	12. miR-27a
3. miR-29a	13. miR-19b	3. miR-29a	13. miR-100
4. let-7a	14. miR-10b	4. miR-29b	14. miR-16
5. miR-29b	15. miR-23a	5. miR-424	15. let-7f
6. let-7g	16. miR-424	6. miR-217	16. miR-10a
7. miR-221	17. miR-16	7. miR-34a	17. miR-30a-5p
8. miR-15b	18. miR-216	8. miR-125b	18. miR-23a
9. miR-125b	19. miR-217	9. let-7a	19. miR-25
10. let-7f	20. miR-29c	10. let-7i	20. miR-15b

Total RNAs were extracted from HAECs and HUVECs and fractionated by size exclusion column chromatography and gel extraction. Small RNA (15–30 nt) were cloned into cloning vectors and sequenced. The number of miRNA was counted and ordered from the highest number of miRNAs. Data represent the top 20 miRNAs that are highly expressed in HAEC and HUVEC.

Table 2 miRNAs associated with endothelial senescence.

miRNA	Function	Target genes	References
miR-424	Cell cycle	MEK1, cyclin E1	Nakashima et al. (126)
miR-17	Cell cycle	p21/CDKN1A	Hackl et al. (127)
miR-20a	Cell cycle	p21/CDKN1A	Hackl et al. (127)
miR-106a	Cell cycle	p21/CDKN1A	Hackl et al. (127)
miR-34a	Cellular stress	SIRT1	Ito et al.; Zhao et al. (99, 100)
miR-217	Cellular stress	SIRT1	Menghini et al. (96)
miR-146a	Proliferation	NOX4	Vasa-Nicotera et al. (108)
miR-200c	Proliferation	ZEB1	Magenta et al. (105)

The miRNAs that regulate endothelial senescence and their potential target genes.

Overexpression of one senescence-upregulated miRNA, miR-143, induced growth arrest in young BJ cells but not in BJ-hTERT cells. Shin et al. identified SA-miRNAs in normal human keratinocytes (NHKs) (95). Most of altered miRNAs (>90%) were upregulated by replicative senescence, and they showed that ectopic expression of two SA-miRNAs, miR-137 or miR-668, induced senescence of NHKs.

miRNA profiling has been performed using senescent primary endothelial cells. According to the miRNA profiling data, several endothelial miRNAs including miR-17-5p, miR-21, miR-216, miR-217, miR-31b, and miR-181a/b were increased in human endothelial cells during aging (96). In contrast, some endothelial miRNAs, such as miR-146a, were downregulated in aging HUVEC. Among endothelial senescent-associated miRNAs, miR-217 expression was highly upregulated in aging HUVEC cells. Overexpression of miR-217 increases cellular senescence in endothelial cells, and SIRT1 is identified as a target of miR-217. Moreover, miR-217 is negatively correlated with SIRT1 expression in human atherosclerotic plaque, probably suggesting that miR-217 expression contributes to senescence in the development of atherosclerosis.

TERT1 and miRNAs

Bonifacio suggested that several miRNAs are controlled by TERT1 during aging (94). In cancer cells, the expressions of several miRNAs are altered by shorter telomeres (97). Human brain neuroepithelioma cell line, SK-N-MC with shortening telomeres, represents cellular senescence and increase miR-199a, miR-181a, miR-181b, miR-148a, and miR-143.

Do miRNAs regulate telomerase? miR-138 downregulates hTERT protein levels in thyroid carcinoma cells, and the expression of miR-138 is negatively correlated to hTERT expression, suggesting that miR-138 partially contributes to the development of thyroid carcinoma (98). As the expression of telomerase in endothelial cells is quite low, it would be interesting to find if knockdown of any endothelial miRNAs increases hTERT levels.

SIRT1 and miRNAs

As described above, miR-217 controls SIRT1 levels and induces senescence in endothelial cells. Many miRNAs have been identified to target SIRT1. miR-34a is the first

miRNA found to regulate SIRT1. We have shown that miR-34a induces senescence and cell cycle arrest in endothelial cells. Overexpression of miR-34a inhibits SIRT1 expression, which is a key molecule for senescence in endothelial cells (99). miR-34a expressions in heart and spleen are higher in older mice than those in younger mice. Conversely, SIRT1 expression decreased with age. Our data suggested that miR-34a is one regulator of endothelial senescence. miR-34a also inhibits EPC-mediated angiogenesis by induction of senescence (100). In cardiomyocyte, miR-195 and miR-199a regulates SIRT1 expression (101, 102). miR-132 controls SIRT1 in adipose tissue (103). These miRNAs are also expressed in endothelial cells and affect endothelial cellular function, suggesting that they might play a role in endothelial senescence.

ROS and miRNAs

miRNAs modulate endothelial cell response to oxidative stress. miR-200 family is induced by hydrogen peroxide in endothelial cells (104). Hydrogen peroxide causes rapid pRb dephosphorylation by the activation of protein phosphatase 2A and upregulation of p53, followed by CDK inhibitor p21. Overexpression of miR-200c inhibits endothelial cell proliferation by increasing apoptosis and senescence through inhibition of Zinc finger E-box binding homeobox 1 protein (ZEB1 protein) expression. An increase in miR-200 family is observed in hindlimb ischemia model mice. Although the induction of miR-200c by a mouse hindlimb ischemia was attenuated in p66ShcA^{-/-} mice, knockdown of miR-200 family partially rescues this effect of oxidative stress, suggesting miR-200 family is not sufficient to regulate endothelial senescence. Yang et al. provided that Trx1 upregulates miR-98, a member of the let-7 family in cardiomyocytes. Knockdown of miR-98 augmented angiotensin II-induced cardiac hypertrophy by modulating the expression of cyclin D2 (106). miR-98 inhibits the p53 pathway in lung adenocarcinoma epithelial cell line, suggesting that Trx1 might regulate senescence partially by miR-98 and p53 pathway in endothelial cells (105).

Dicer knockdown reduces ROS production by some stimuli, such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) in human microvascular endothelial cells (107). Shilo et al. demonstrated one possible mechanism that the decrease of miRNA content upregulates transcription factor HBP-1, which downregulates

expression of p47phox protein, causing the ROS level to lower. As the expression of NOX4 is much higher than that of other NOX family in endothelial cells, the role of endothelial NOX4 is important to control ROS generation. In kidney, miR-25 is identified as a regulator of NOX4, a major catalytic subunit of NOX under hyperglycemia. In endothelial cells, miR-146a regulates NOX4 expression (108). The expression of miR-146a is decreasing in aging, and knockdown of miR-146a in HUVEC increased the number of senescent cells, providing one possible mechanism for the decrease in NOX-4-derived ROS production during endothelial senescence. Another group has shown that phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) induces miR-146a expression in human microvascular endothelial cells (109). PMA enhances angiogenesis through the activation of protein kinase C (PKC) in cultured endothelial cells and also upregulates NOX4 expression and ROS production in HUVEC-derived EA.hy 926 cells (110). These data suggest that miR-146a is one of the major regulators of ROS in endothelial cells and contribute to endothelial senescence.

eNOS and miRNA

NO alters the expression of miRNAs. NO induces the miR-200 family (miR-200a, miR-200b, miR-200c, and miR-429) in mouse ES cells (mES). miR-200 family targets Smad-interacting protein-1 (Sip1/ZEB2). Sip1/ZEB2 is a transcriptional repressor of TERT and controls early differentiation of mES cells. Therefore, NO affects differentiation of mES cells through the miR-200 family (111).

As vascular dysfunction with decreased NO availability is a hallmark of aging arteries, it is possible that miRNA regulates eNOS. Zhang et al. proposed that 27 nt small RNA that forms the intron 4 of eNOS suppresses eNOS expression by inhibiting eNOS promoter activity (112). What about miRNAs that might target eNOS? There is no convincing evidence of direct regulation of eNOS by specific miRNAs. However, eNOS is indirectly regulated by some miRNAs. Dicer knockdown increased activation of eNOS expression and activity in endothelial cells. The suppression of eNOS by Dicer knockdown is partially restored by overexpression of miR-221 and miR-222, suggesting that miR-221 and miR-222 indirectly control eNOS protein levels (113). miR-217 modulates eNOS expression by suppressing SIRT1 as shown above. miR-92a also regulates eNOS expression and activity. The transcription factor Kruppel-like factor 2 (KLF2) is a critical factor of endothelial cell development and vascular functions and is induced by shear stress (114). Shear stress downregulates miR-92a in endothelial cells, which increases KLF2 expression and enhancing eNOS levels and activity. Bonauer et al. provided the supporting data that miR-92a overexpression downregulates eNOS expression probably by inhibiting its target integrin subunits $\alpha 5$ (ITGA5) in endothelial cells (115). Shear stress increases miR-21 levels and inhibits its target phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) in endothelial cells (116). Therefore, overexpression of miR-21 enhances Akt signaling, followed by increasing eNOS phosphorylation and NO production without changing eNOS expression.

p53 and miRNAs

How do miRNAs associated with aging regulate senescence? What are target genes of aging-associated miRNAs? We hypothesized that p53, tumor suppressor, is one possible candidate regulator for senescence-induced miR-34a. Activated p53 halts cell cycle progression, induces apoptosis, and accelerates cellular senescence in cancers. p53 functions not in cancer cells but in endothelial cells. The expression of p53 increases in endothelial cells of atherosclerotic lesions (117, 118). This elevation of p53 might limit neointimal thickening in atherosclerosis and angioplasty (119, 120). Knockdown of p53 pathway can cause senescence (121). Ectopic expression of p53 induces a senescent-like phenotype (122). We have shown that p53 induced miR-34a, and then, miR-34a increased senescence in endothelial cells, suggesting that endothelial cell senescence by p53 might be partially mediated by miR-34a, although more direct evidences are required.

Perspective

Manipulating miRNAs is a feasible therapeutic approach for human diseases (123). In mice, injection of antagomir, which is designed to knockdown a target miRNA, alters their phenotype. Systemic administration of antagomiR-92a enhanced blood vessel growth in mouse hindlimb ischemia model (115). In the same model, injection of antagomiR-126 reduced angiogenic response (124).

Can therapeutic miRNA modulate senescence? Many potential miRNAs can regulate endothelial senescence (Figure 1). Is it possible to slow the rate of aging by knocking down certain miRNAs? One challenge is that each miRNA has hundreds of target proteins, which makes a complicated miRNA-protein and miRNA-miRNA network. For example, p53 upregulates miR-34a expression, and miR-34a controls at least 100 gene expressions, including SIRT1. SIRT1 deacetylates and inactivates p53. When SIRT1 is downregulated by miR-34a, increased acetylated p53 makes more

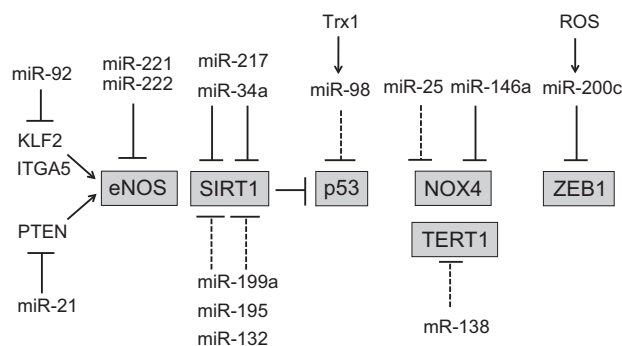


Figure 1 Regulation of endothelial senescence by miRNAs. The major molecules in endothelial senescence are regulated by a variety of miRNAs. Dashed lines indicate miRNAs reported in non-endothelial cells.

miR-34a. This is one network of miRNA-p53 positive feedback model.

There are more questions that remain. How could we measure the stage of aging in endothelial cells? As endothelial cells are located at the interface between the blood and the vessel wall, a set of parameters in the blood, including NO, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein, asymmetric dimethylarginine (ADMA) has been used for biomarkers of endothelial cell function. miRNAs circulating in the blood are not only fascinating tools to diagnose diseases but are also therapeutic targets. miR-126 levels in blood were inversely correlated with age, heart failure, and type-2 diabetes (125). Little is known about circulating miRNAs in aging, and further research will define useful biomarkers for endothelial cell senescence.

Expert opinion

Sir William Osler once pointed out that a man is as old as his arteries. Since then, many aging studies have focused on the vasculature. Vascular endothelial cells play a pivotal role in the control of vascular homeostasis. With aging, the ability of endothelial cells to maintain vascular function and integrity is weakened, causing vascular inflammation, stiffness, and atherosclerosis. The biological mechanisms that underlie endothelial dysfunction during aging remain unknown. Recent remarkable progresses in studying miRNAs in the vasculature may help us to understand senescence in endothelial cells and may help us to develop novel therapies for aging.

Outlook

Which molecules alter miRNAs levels in endothelial cells? In cancer cells, p53 strongly increased the expression level of miR-34 family by modulating transcription or miRNA processing. This discovery revealed the further function of miR-34a and new p53 complicated networks in cancer. In the near future, the key molecules that control senescent-associated miRNAs in endothelial cell may be discovered, and the manipulation of miRNAs by these factors will attenuate age-related endothelial dysfunctions.

Highlights

- Cellular senescence is the limited capacity of cells to divide.
- A variety of factors, such as ROS and telomerase modulate cellular senescence.
- Endothelial senescence is associated with cardiovascular disease.
- SIRT1, p53, and eNOS may play critical roles in endothelial senescence.
- miRNAs that control endothelial senescence may play a key role in atherosclerosis or other diseases.

- miRNAs regulate cellular functions by modulating mRNA stability.
- A set of miRNAs including miR-34a and miR-217 controls endothelial senescence.

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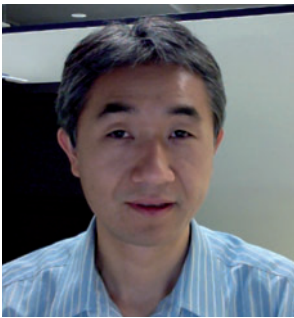
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