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miR-21 and miR-146a: the microRNAs of inflammaging and age-related diseases

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The first paper on “inflammaging” published in 2001 paved the way for a unifying theory on how
3 and why aging turns out to be the main risk factor for the development of the most common age-
4 related diseases (ARDs). The most exciting challenge on this topic was explaining how systemic
5 inflammation steeps up with age and why it shows different rates among individuals of the same
6 chronological age. The “epigenetic revolution” in the past twenty years conveyed that the assessment
7 of the individual genetic make-up is not enough to depict the trajectories of age-related inflammation.
8 Accordingly, others and we have been focusing on the role of non-coding RNA, *i.e.* microRNAs
9 (miRNAs) in inflammaging. The results obtained in the latest 10 years underpinned the key role of a
10 miRNAs subset that we have called inflammamiRs, owing to their ability to master (NF-κB)-driven
11 inflammatory pathways. In this review, we will focus on two inflammamiRs, *i.e.* miR-21-5p and miR-
12 146a-5p, which target a variety of molecules belonging to the NF-κB/NLRP3 pathways. The interplay
13 between miR-146a-5p and IL-6 in the context of aging and ARDs will also be highlighted. We will
14 also provide the most relevant evidence suggesting that circulating inflammamiRs, along with IL-6,
15 can measure the degree of inflammaging.

16

17 **Keywords.** MicroRNA; miR-146a-5p; miR-21-5p; inflammaging; cell senescence; NF-κB.

18

19 **1. Introduction**

20 The first paper that minted the portmanteau word “inflammaging” – published about twenty years ago – laid
21 the basis for a unifying theory on how and why aging is the major risk factor for the development of the most
22 common age-related diseases (ARDs), spurring research into innovative inflammation-related ARD
23 biomarkers (Franceschi et al., 2000a). The word “inflammaging” was coined to depict the building up of
24 chronic, low-level, systemic inflammation occurring along human aging, and to highlight how inflammation
25 boosts the susceptibility to chronic morbidity, disability, frailty, and premature death (Ferrucci and Fabbri,
26 2018; Franceschi et al., 2007; Furman et al., 2019; Piotrowicz and Gasowski, 2020). The most exciting
27 challenge on this topic was to explain why inflammation undergoes activation with age. The results obtained
28 so far emphasize that inflammation is fostered by a rife of external and internal stimulating factors that become
29 more likely to show up with aging. The complex reshaping of the immune system with aging, defined by Roy
30 Walford as immunosenescence (Pawelec, 2012; Pawelec et al., 2020; Walford, 1964) is likely to contribute to
31 this framework, by promoting increased age-related persistence of self and non-self antigens, which in turn
32 trigger long-lasting immune responses (Song et al., 2020a).

33 When the “epigenetic revolution” revealed that the genetic code is not enough to explain interindividual
34 differences in aging rate, many efforts were devoted to disentangling the epigenetic factors involved in the
35 modulation of the aging process. Consequently, others and we focused on short non-coding RNAs named
36 microRNAs (miRNAs) (Carthew and Sontheimer, 2009)). Following this approach we identified a subset of
37 miRNAs that master inflammatory pathways called inflammamiRs (Olivieri et al., 2013e). A number of these
38 inflammamiRs target molecules belonging to the nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) and (NOD)-like receptor
39 protein 3 (NLRP3) pathways. Lately, inflammamiRs have been identified as components the extracellular
40 vesicle (EV) payload and were proposed as circulating biomarkers of ARDs (Rusanova et al., 2018). These
41 data allowed us to put forth a nano-perspective of inflammaging (Mensa et al., 2020; Prattichizzo et al., 2017)
42 in which we posited that circulating EV-associated miRNAs mediate, at least in part, the crosstalk between
43 cellular senescence and aging at the systemic level (Olivieri et al., 2015a).

44 In this review, we will discuss how the discovery of the interaction between miRNAs and major inflammatory
45 pathways improved our understanding of the mechanisms that modulate inflammaging, as well as ARD
46 development and progression. We will focus on two prototypical inflammamiRs, i.e. miR-21-5p and miR-

47 146a-5p, that are able to target molecules belonging to the NF- κ B/NLRP3 pathways, and on the interplay
48 between miR-146a-5p and IL-6 in the context of aging and ARDs. Taking into account that miR-21-5p and
49 miR-146a-5p are easily detectable in the bloodstream, as well as in other biological fluids, we will provide the
50 most relevant and recent evidence about the role of circulating inflammamiRs, along with IL-6, as measures
51 of the degree of inflammaging. Finally, a brief discussion of the therapeutic potential of miR-146a-5p and
52 miR-21-5p in pro-inflammatory conditions and ARDs will be presented.

53

54 **2. Inflammaging: basic concepts**

55 Inflammaging is fostered by a number of external and internal stimulating factors: a plethora of non-self
56 antigens can trigger the innate and adaptive immune responses across the entire human life span (De Martinis
57 et al., 2005). Over the years, several basic mechanisms of inflammaging were identified. Among them, one of
58 the most extensively investigated is the age-related accumulation of senescent cells (Coppe et al., 2008; Song
59 et al., 2020b). Senescent cells release high amounts of soluble factors, collectively called as -senescence
60 associated secretory phenotype, SASP, which encompasses a wealth of pro-inflammatory cytokines and
61 chemokines, growth factors and extracellular matrix (ECM)-remodelling enzymes, thus contributing to a
62 phenomenon defined as “senoinflammation” (Chung et al., 2019; Tchkonina et al., 2013). A wide range of
63 molecular mechanisms converges on the acquisition of the senescent phenotype. One of the best characterized
64 is the activation of a persistent DNA damage response (DDR), mainly triggered by genomic lesions and
65 telomere attrition (Olivieri et al., 2015a; Rodier et al., 2009; Sulli et al., 2012). The activation of the unfolded
66 protein response (UPR), a mechanism taking place in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and sensing protein
67 biogenesis defects can also fuel inflammation (Gonzalez-Quiroz et al., 2020). In this latter case, the activation
68 of the endoribonuclease inositol-requiring enzyme 1 alpha (IRE1 α) can promote the degradation of a subset of
69 mRNAs and microRNAs through a process known as regulated IRE1 α -dependent decay of RNA (RIDD), thus
70 impacting on various biological processes, including cell death and inflammation (Dufey et al., 2020). Finally,
71 wide literature shows that the misplacement of nucleic acids into the cytoplasm is a powerful trigger of the
72 senescent phenotype as well as of the cognate SASP (reviewed in Storci et al., 2018). Overall, senescent cells
73 are characterized by the accumulation of DNA damage, unfolded proteins, and misplaced nucleic acids that
74 can be sensed by specific intracellular receptors activating NF- κ B (Storci et al., 2018). Noteworthy, SASP can

75 set off itself in neighboring cells, thereby creating a proinflammatory environment that propagates at the local
76 and the systemic level (Fafian-Labora and O'Loughlen, 2020; Olivieri et al., 2015a).

77 The genetic or pharmacological clearance of senescent cells in animal models not only can extend the health
78 span of prematurely and naturally aged mice, but also can taper chronic diseases and tissue inflammation
79 (Prieto et al., 2020). The build in of senescent cells in aged animals and humans may be facilitated by
80 immunosenescence (Burton and Stolzing, 2018). These data support the key role of senescent cells in fuelling
81 inflammaging and hindering healthy aging (Franceschi et al., 2000a; Prieto et al., 2020). The induction of
82 inflammation with aging has been claimed to depend on the excess of nutrients/energy that fuels an
83 inflammatory process orchestrated by metabolic cells – defined as “metaflammation” (reviewed in Prattichizzo
84 et al., 2018a). The increased burden of altered molecules deriving from damaged and/or dead cells and
85 organelles, defined as “garb-aging”, has been regarded to share in this scenario (Franceschi et al., 2017).

86 Regardless of the specific name by which these forms of inflammation have been called, they are all
87 characterized by the persistence of a chronic, low grade, and systemic inflammatory status, i.e. inflammaging
88 (Franceschi et al., 2000a; Franceschi and Cossarizza, 1995). The existence of a huge variety of stimuli able to
89 fuel inflammaging is explained by the observation that a reduced number of ancestral pathways, including NF-
90 κ B/NLRP3, can be activated by a variety of internal and external stimuli and converge on cytokines and IFN
91 gene transcription (Gritsenko et al., 2020; Meyers and Zhu, 2020; Ren et al., 2014; Sebastian-Valverde and
92 Pasinetti, 2020; Storci et al., 2020; Teodori et al., 2019).

93 The activation of these signalling systems constitutes the main arm of innate immunity, on the other side, their
94 chronic activation, as occurs in senescent cells, becomes detrimental for cell/organism homeostasis, making
95 aged people more susceptible to ARDs (Meyers and Zhu, 2020; Youm et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2015).

96 Another challenge found in studies on inflammaging was to explain why it proceeds at different rates among
97 individuals. Indeed, the concept that individuals do not age at the same pace entails the notion of biological
98 age which differs from chronological age (Hamczyk et al., 2020). Biological age results from the complex
99 interaction between the genetic make-up and the epigenetic modifications induced by environmental factors:
100 each individual is characterized by a unique combination of these intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Rose et al.,
101 2010). Therefore, subjects sharing the same genetic profile, like monozygotic twins, or the same chronological

102 age, like peers, can differ in biological age as well as in the degree of inflammaging owing to epigenetic factors
103 and mechanisms (Franceschi and Bonafe, 2003).

104

105 **3. Key roles of NF- κ B and NLRP3 in inflammaging**

106 NF- κ B signalling is the master regulator of innate immunity and the key hub of danger signals response
107 (Salminen et al., 2008).

108 Briefly, NF- κ B family is set up by inducible homo or hetero-dimeric transcription factors, including five
109 members, i.e. Rel (c-Rel), RelA (p65), RelB, NF- κ B1 (inactive precursor p105, mature protein p50), and NF-
110 κ B2 (inactive precursor p100, mature protein p52), present in the cytoplasm as inactive molecular complexes
111 (Liang et al., 2004). NF- κ B activation involves I κ B kinase (IKK), a complex of two catalytic subunits (α and
112 β), and a regulatory protein known as NF- κ B Essential Modifier (NEMO) (DiDonato et al., 1997). When cells
113 are stimulated, NF- κ B dimers translocate from the cytoplasm to the nucleus and activate a number of
114 responsive gene promoters containing highly divergent κ B-site sequences (Mulero et al., 2019). The activation
115 of NF- κ B is mainly promoted by two different signalings, named classical (or canonical) and alternative (or
116 non-canonical) activation (Hayden and Ghosh, 2004) (summarized in **Figure 1**).

117 The canonical NF- κ B signalling is rapidly and transiently activated by a number of ligands (PAMPS/DAMPS),
118 independently of protein synthesis (Beinke and Ley, 2004). The non-canonical signalling is slowly and
119 persistently activated by TNF superfamily members, such as macrophage colony-stimulating factor (M-CSF),
120 a growth factor that mediates the differentiation and proliferation of macrophages, and several RNA viruses
121 (Sun, 2017).

122 Importantly, though NF- κ B1 (p105) is constitutively processed to p50 following intense stimulation with
123 agonists, such as TNF-alpha and lipopolysaccharide (LPS), NF- κ B1 is completely degraded by the proteasome,
124 suggesting that this subunit can play an important regulatory role shifting NF- κ B activity from “on” to “off”
125 (Cartwright et al., 2016). Non-canonical NF- κ B2 is activated through proteasomal activation of p100 in
126 response to stimuli only partly overlapping with those activating NF- κ B1. Increasing evidence suggest that
127 NF- κ B1 mediates transient responses to a plethora of stimuli, whereas NF- κ B2 modulates prolonged pro-
128 inflammatory effects (Wirasinha et al., 2021).

129

130 The initial *in vivo* investigations showed that NF- κ B activity was upregulated in both naturally aged mice and
131 multiple progeroid mouse, and that p65 deletion and/or treatment with IKK pharmacological inhibitors delayed
132 the onset of age-related features and cellular senescence (Osorio et al., 2012; Tilstra et al., 2012). Subsequent
133 studies focused on the specific NF- κ B1 subunit deletion (Nfkb1 $-/-$ mice), showing surprisingly that the loss
134 of NF- κ B1 can accelerate the aging process. Nfkb1 $-/-$ mice were characterized by low-grade chronic
135 inflammation and premature aging, appearing as a model of genetically enhanced NF- κ B activity. This
136 apparent paradox can be explained by considering that the first p65 knockout mouse models carried only one
137 inactivated p65 allele (Osorio et al., 2012; Tilstra et al., 2012). Recent studies confirmed that the complete
138 knockout of p65 in mice promotes osteoarthritis (OA), while p65 haplo-insufficiency protects against OA,
139 suggesting that the partial down-regulation of canonical NF- κ B activity can exert beneficial effects (Kobayashi
140 et al., 2016).

141 Nfkb1 $-/-$ mice showed higher incidence of age-related phenotypes, an increased burden of senescent cells, and
142 a decrease in overall lifespan compared to Nfkb1 $+/+$ (Bernal et al., 2014). These features appeared to be
143 mediated by a Cox-2-mediated stabilization of ROS-induced DNA damages at telomeres (Jurk et al., 2014).
144 These observations were recently confirmed showing that Nfkb1 $-/-$ mice develop gastric mucosal disease
145 following the administration of tamoxifen, a process associated with an exaggerated DNA damage response at
146 the gastric epithelium level (Burkitt et al., 2017), as well as invasive gastric cancer with high levels of pro-
147 inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-6 and TNF α (Low et al., 2020). Moreover, during aging Nfkb1 $-/-$ mice
148 show an early onset of memory loss, combined with enhanced neuroinflammation and increased burden of
149 senescent cells in the hippocampus and cerebellum, strongly supporting the hypothesis that chronic
150 inflammation is a causal factor in the cognitive decline observed during aging (Fielder et al., 2020).

151 Overall, these data suggest that the complete loss of NF- κ B1 activity (as in Nfkb1 $-/-$ mice) leads to early
152 animal aging associated with reduced apoptosis and increased cellular senescence. Studies on cellular models
153 highlighted that the loss of Nfkb1 is not commensurate with inhibition of NF- κ B activity when it is analysed
154 as total activity, as Nfkb1 $-/-$ cells retain significant levels of DNA bound NF- κ B (Hoffmann et al., 2003).

155 NF- κ B2 has been involved in the pathogenesis of several human diseases characterized by age-related
156 persistent inflammatory condition, as suggested by the findings revealing that the RelB/NF- κ B2 pathway

157 regulates T cell migration to autoimmune targets through TGF β /TGF β R-dependent regulation of
158 CXCL12/CXCR4 signalling (Kurosawa et al., 2017).

159 Overall, these findings suggest that the increase in NF- κ B DNA-binding activity with age is related to p52/NF-
160 κ B2 rather than p50/NF- κ B1, and that the switch in the DNA binding from DNA-bound p50/NF- κ B1 to
161 p52/NF- κ B2 is a prominent feature of physiological aging.

162 A large number of stimuli can promote a very different transcriptional profile and physiological outcomes
163 according to the specific trigger and the cell type involved. The NF- κ B “barcode hypothesis” posits that cellular
164 network dynamics generate NF- κ B signal-specific post-translational modifications, mediating specific gene
165 expression pattern activation (Peng et al., 2016). These observations are relevant to explain the effects of the
166 complex epigenetic modulation of the NF- κ B signalling on aging.

167 NF- κ B activation promotes the hyper-expression of target genes involved in pro-inflammatory/stress-like
168 responses, including pro-IL-1 β and pro-IL-18. The proteolytic activation of these cytokines requires the
169 activation of the NLRP3 (also known as cryopyrin or NALP3) inflammasome (Jo et al., 2016). TLR-NF- κ B
170 pathway activation promotes the upregulation of NLRP3, which responds to a second signal consisting in
171 various pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) and damage-associated molecular patterns
172 (DAMPs), as well as multiple molecular and cellular events that finally activate the functional NLRP3
173 inflammasome (reviewed in Kelley et al., 2019). The activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome consists in the
174 assembly of the multi-protein complex NLRP3-ASC-CARD that induce the splicing of pro-IL-1 β and pro-IL-
175 18 precursors into mature active forms (Jo et al., 2016; Strowig et al., 2012). NLRP3 also interacts with NOD2-
176 activating NF- κ B and MAPK pathways, thus leading to a positive loop inducing that results in the transcription
177 of pro-inflammatory genes (Murray, 2009).

178 Overall, an efficient response to a variety of antigens strictly depends on two types of signals, i.e. a priming
179 signal that activates NF- κ B through membrane-bound receptors (TLRs, RAGEs, TNFR, RIG, NOD) and a second
180 signal that triggers the assembly of the NLRP3 complex.

181 When transiently activated, NF- κ B (mainly the canonical pathway) and NLRP3 orchestrate a timely
182 coordinated inflammatory response, whereas when their activation is prolonged over time (mainly non
183 canonical NF- κ B pathway) they drive cells into a growth arrest associated with enhanced p21 (cyclin-
184 dependent kinase inhibitor 1A) protein expression, fostering the acquisition of cellular senescence phenotype

185 (Penzo et al., 2009). Therefore, NF- κ B/NLRP3, the major signalling pathway inducing an inflammatory
186 response, also triggers SASP (Salminen et al., 2012), representing a link between innate immunity and cellular
187 senescence. Macrophages are the major source of IL-1 β and IL-18 through the activation of NF- κ B/NLRP3
188 (Man and Kanneganti, 2015). Thus, their prominent role in inflammaging, a phenomenon that we described
189 for the first time as “macroph-aging” has been envisaged (Franceschi et al., 2000b; Praticchizzo et al., 2016a;
190 Sebastian et al., 2005).

191 Indeed, the NLRP3 inflammasome is over-activated in aged individuals, in whom it leads to a hyper-response
192 of classically activated macrophages and subsequent increases in IL-1 β production (Lara et al., 2020).

193 Consistently with the hypothesis that NLRP3 activation fuels inflammaging and promotes ARDs, an
194 improvement of glycemic control and bone loss was observed in mice lacking the activity of the NLRP3
195 inflammasome-mediated caspase-1 (Youm et al., 2013). Interestingly, the abrogation of NLRP3
196 inflammasome was also correlated with reduced rate of age-related thymic atrophy, thus increasing T cell
197 repertoire diversity (Youm et al., 2012). These data demonstrate that preventing the inflammasome-dependent
198 caspase-1 activation prevents immunosenescence by increasing thymic lymphopoiesis. These observations
199 were recently corroborated by observations in NLRP3 inflammasome knockdown mice models, that can be
200 summarized as follow: 1) the promotion of healthy life-span, 2) the improvement of metabolic health and
201 lifespan in obese mice, 3) the prevention of cardiac dysfunction in aged male mice (Canadas-Lozano et al.,
202 2020; Marin-Aguilar et al., 2020a; Marin-Aguilar et al., 2020b).

203 To avoid an exacerbated inflammatory response, some inhibitors can act on NF- κ B and NLRP3 pathways. One
204 of the best characterized inhibitors of both pathways is A20, also named TNF inducible protein 3 (TNFAIP3),
205 a cytosolic inhibitor of NLRP3 inflammasome and of the NF- κ B and MAPK signalling cascades (Vande Walle
206 et al., 2014; Xue et al., 2019b). A20 limits the magnitude of inflammatory response triggered by different
207 stimuli and prevents spontaneous IL-1 β secretion. Accordingly, A20-deficient mice show excessive cytokine
208 secretion and caspase-1 processing in myeloid cells and exhibit enhanced arthritis pathology, which was
209 dependent on the NLRP3 inflammasome (Vande Walle et al., 2014), and spontaneously developed a systemic
210 inflammatory syndrome that culminated in premature death (Lee et al., 2000). Overall, the increasing evidence
211 obtained by *in vitro* and *in vivo* models confirmed that NF- κ B and NLRP3 are the key mediators of

212 inflammaging. Several inflammamiRNAs that can efficiently modulate these pathways are the best candidates
213 to serve as innovative functional biomarkers of human aging and ARDs.

214

215 **4. InflammamiRNAs that regulate NF- κ B and NLRP3: focus on miR-21-5p and miR-146a**

216 Several miRNAs have been proposed and validated for their ability to target molecules belonging to the NF-
217 κ B and NLRP pathways and take part in positive and negative feedback loops, along with different cell types,
218 timings and experimental conditions (reviewed in Poli et al., 2020). Here, we focus on the role of the two
219 inflammamiRs, namely miR-21-5p and miR-146a, both involved in the modulation of NF- κ B and NLRP
220 pathways. Notably, i) the presence of NF- κ B-binding sites in both miR-21-5p and miR-146a gene
221 transcriptional elements shows that these miRNAs are directly regulated by this transcription factor (Shin et
222 al., 2011; Taganov et al., 2006); ii) miR-21-5p and miR-146a levels significantly change both in tissues and in
223 the bloodstream during aging and are associated with a variety of inflammatory conditions and ARDs (Olivieri
224 et al., 2013c; Olivieri et al., 2015b; Olivieri et al., 2012).

225

226 **4.1 MiR-21-5p**

227 MiR-21 gene is abundantly expressed in multiple types of mammalian cells, and it is located on chromosome
228 17q23.2 (55273409–55273480) within the coding gene for vacuole membrane protein-1 (VMP1) gene, also
229 known as transmembrane protein 49 (TMEM49). Despite pri-miR-21 and TMEM49 are overlapping genes in
230 the same direction of transcription, pri-miR-21 is independently transcribed by its own promoter region. Thus,
231 miR-21 is a unique miRNA capable of being regulated by two independent promoters (Ribas et al., 2012).
232 MiR-21 is induced by a number of pro-inflammatory molecules, such as PAMPs and DAMPs able to activate
233 NF- κ B and NLRP3 (Fujita et al., 2008). MiR-21 orchestrates the fine-tuning of the inflammatory response
234 through direct and indirect activities on NF- κ B and NLRP3 pathways in a context-dependent manner. *In vitro*
235 and *in vivo* studies on animal models confirmed the essential role played by miR-21 in regulating this
236 inflammatory switch, both promoting or inhibiting NF- κ B/NLRP3 pathways. For all these reasons, miR-21
237 can be considered as a miRNA able to modulate the “switch on/off” of inflammation at appropriate times.
238 When the *in vivo* activity of miR-21 was examined in healthy mouse liver using array profiling and polysome
239 analysis, it turned out that miR-21 is functionally limited under normal physiological conditions compared to

240 other miRNAs, probably because the interaction between miR-21 and polysome-bound mRNAs is prevented
241 (Androsavich et al., 2012). In pathological conditions, when the mRNAs targeted by miR-21 are transcribed
242 at increased rate, miR-21 transcription significantly increases. Multiple evidence confirmed that miR-21-5p
243 can target transcripts of tumour suppressor genes, such as phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN) and
244 programmed cell death 4 (PDCD4) (Matsushashi et al., 2019). Importantly, PDCD4 takes part in the activation
245 of NF- κ B and enhances the production of IL-6, thereby limiting the production of the anti-inflammatory
246 cytokine IL-10 (Sheedy, 2015; Sheedy et al., 2010). Therefore, PDCD4 acts as a molecular switch that shifts
247 the balance towards a pro-inflammatory microenvironment. In this framework, by opposing the effects of
248 PDCD4, miR-21 attenuates persistent inflammation by restraining NF- κ B activation and IL-6 production and
249 augmenting the production of IL-10.

250 MiR-21 is among the most abundant and highly conserved recognized miRNAs, and it is highly expressed in
251 monocytes/macrophages (Jenike and Halushka, 2021). Alterations in the local or systemic expression of miR-
252 21 have been reported in a large range of cardiovascular diseases (Kura et al., 2020). On one side, the absence
253 of miR-21 in hematopoietic cells enhances the progression of atherosclerosis by promoting the formation of
254 foam cells (Canfran-Duque et al., 2017). On the other side, in mouse models of myocardial
255 ischemia/reperfusion injury, miR-21 expression is reduced in infarcted areas, while it is up-regulated in
256 borderline areas (Dong et al., 2009; Pan et al., 2018). Of note, the decreased expression of miR-21 in tissues
257 persists for two weeks, while the restoration of its expression abrogates cardiomyocyte apoptosis and pro-
258 fibrotic responses and results in reduced infarct size and improved cardiac remodelling (Gu et al., 2015). Worth
259 mentioning, miR-21-null mice had lower platelet and leukocyte counts, but higher megakaryocyte number in
260 the bone marrow, as well as the pharmacological inhibition of miR-21 reduced the platelet release of TGF- β 1,
261 overall restraining fibrosis (Barwari et al., 2018).

262 Nevertheless, miR-21 acts as a positive regulator of the NF- κ B/NLRP3 pathways by targeting its inhibitor A20
263 (Xue et al., 2019b). In murine models of septic shock or periodontitis, miR-21 promotes the activation of NF-
264 κ B and the NLRP3 inflammasome (Xue et al., 2019b; Zhou et al., 2018b). Similarly, in a mouse model of
265 diabetic nephropathy, miR-21 loaded into macrophage-derived EVs regulates pyroptosis-mediated podocyte
266 injury, by activating NF- κ B/NLRP3 (Ding et al., 2020b).

267 Beyond its regulatory role, miR-21 has been also demonstrated to act as an endogenous ligand of TLR8, a
268 receptor expressed on intracellular vesicular membranes and commonly involved in the recognition of GU-
269 rich single stranded RNA (Heil et al., 2004). TLR8, in turn, triggers both ERK (Zhang et al., 2018b) and NF-
270 κ B (Fabbri et al., 2012) activation to induce the secretion of inflammatory mediators.

271 Of note, nanoparticle-mediated delivery of miR-21 mimicking molecules to cardiac macrophages relieves
272 post-myocardial infarction remodelling and heart failure (Bejerano et al., 2018). Furthermore, long-term
273 inhibition of miR-21 favourably affects cardiac fibrosis supporting the idea of a biphasic, context- and time-
274 dependent effect of miR-21 on inflammatory pathways (Thum et al., 2008).

275 A similar framework applies also to another prototypical ARD, *i.e.* T2DM (Prattichizzo et al., 2016b). Indeed,
276 initial findings showed a decreased expression of miR-21 in diabetic patients (Olivieri et al., 2015b; Zampetaki
277 et al., 2010), albeit also the opposite has been reported (La Sala et al., 2019). Noteworthy, miR-21 loaded
278 CD31-positive circulating EVs increase in diabetic subjects and further augmented in those patients with
279 cardiovascular complications (Prattichizzo et al., 2021a). These data suggest that miR-21 shuttled in specific
280 vesicle might hold superior diagnostic potential for ARDs sensing when compared to its whole plasma
281 counterpart (Prattichizzo et al., 2021a; Prattichizzo et al., 2019). Mechanistically, metabolic alterations are
282 known to induce pro-inflammatory responses (Prattichizzo et al., 2020); interestingly glucose induces an
283 increase of miR-21 expression *in vitro* models thus suggesting its involvement in the above-mentioned
284 responses (La Sala et al., 2018). Accordingly, T2DM patients with longer diabetes duration are characterized
285 by a progressive, complex inflammatory remodelling and the development of specific vascular complications,
286 many of which modulate miR-21 levels (Prattichizzo et al., 2016b).

287 A further layer of complexity into the interpretation of miRNA biological roles comes from bioinformatic
288 analyses of small RNA-seq data revealing the existence of multiple miRNA isoforms, *i.e.* isomiRs, that can be
289 generated from the processing of each miRNA precursor. IsomiRs are characterized by the addition or deletion
290 of one or more nucleotides at the 5' and/or 3' ends of the canonical miRNA sequence (Telonis et al., 2015). In
291 addition, miRNAs can undergo post-transcriptional sequence modifications resulting in non-templated
292 adenylation or uridylation at the 3' end (Vitsios et al., 2017). Even if the relationships between these 3'
293 modifications and the targetome depending from the seed sequence are not so clear, increasing evidence
294 suggested that these modifications can affect the stability of the RNA sequence (van der Kwast et al., 2020),

295 and can affect miRNA loading into EVs (Koppers-Lalic et al., 2014). Notably, isomiR analysis unravelled
296 specific gender- and population-based patterns of expression in a variety of diseases (Loher et al., 2014). Two
297 mature biologically active miR-21 isomiRs are highly represented, with the cell-type specific ratio of the two
298 isoforms. The longer isoform, consisting of a 23-nt sequence, derives from the DICER1-mediated cleavage of
299 pre-miR-21, while the shorter isoform, corresponding to the 22-nt miRbase sequence, derives from a tailing
300 and trimming process of the former (Boele et al., 2014). This apparently redundant network, which allows for
301 a tight regulation of miR-21 degradation, plays a key role on the miRNA-based regulation of the p53 pathway,
302 providing an exploitable target in the treatment of human proliferative disorders (Shukla et al., 2019).
303 We recently performed a comprehensive analysis of miRNAs and isomiRs profile in HUVECs undergoing
304 replicative senescence in presence of metformin treatment, a glucose lowering drug being tested as a potential
305 aging-modifying compound (Prattichizzo et al., 2018b). Almost 40% of the total miRNAs pool was composed
306 by non-canonical sequences, and metformin significantly affected the relative abundance of a number of
307 isomiRs, including the non-canonical miR-21 forms, supporting the notion that the relative proportion of
308 isomiRs might also mark cellular aging and the relative interventions (Giuliani et al., 2020).

309

310 **4.2 MiR-146a**

311 The miR-146 family consists of 2 members, *i.e.* miR-146a and miR-146b, found on human chromosomes 5
312 and 10, respectively. *MIR146A* gene is found within a larger long noncoding RNA host gene – MIR3142HG
313 (chromosome 5q33.3) – while *MIR146B* is found in an intergenic region of human chromosome 10
314 (10q24.32). The miRBase database provides evidence for the mature -5p strand to be the bioactive “guide
315 strand” and the mature -3p strand to be the “passenger strand” for both miR-146a and miR-146b. Therefore,
316 the mention of miR-146a and miR-146b is usually referred to the -5p strands. The mature sequences for miR-
317 146a and miR-146b are highly conserved across species. Notably, the two miRNAs differ only by two
318 nucleotides on the 3'-end of the mature strand, not within the seed region. However, despite this similarity, the
319 two miRNAs are not functionally redundant *in vivo*.

320 MiR-146a was the first to be identified as NF- κ B-dependent miRNA, being up regulated in response to various
321 immune mediators, such as LPS, IL-1 β , and TNF- α (Taganov et al., 2006). In turn, miR-146a down-regulates
322 relevant proteins which share in the canonical NF- κ B pathway, such as Toll like receptor (TLR-)4, myeloid

323 differentiation primary response gene 88 (MyD88), Interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 1 (IRAK1) and
324 TNF receptor associated factor (TRAF6) (d'Adhemar et al., 2014; Olivieri et al., 2013b; Taganov et al., 2006).
325 Notably, miR-146a also targets RelB, a key factor of the non-canonical NF- κ B pathway, in macrophages
326 (Etzrodt et al., 2012) and lung fibroblasts (McMillan et al., 2013). Hence, its ability to modulate both NF- κ B
327 pathways makes it an eligible functional biomarker of inflammaging.

328 IRAK1 is a miR-146a target in different cells and experimental settings, whereas the relationship between
329 miR-146a and TRAF6 is likely to be context dependent (Bertolet et al., 2019). There is evidence that TRAF6
330 activates Akt and mTOR, thus explaining how these pathways are impacted by miR-146a (Yang et al., 2009).
331 TRAF6 itself localizes to the mitochondria during TLR activation, a process that is required for activation of
332 inflammation and ROS production by macrophages (West et al., 2011). Interestingly, miR-146a has been
333 showed to be overexpressed within mitochondria of ageing human endothelial cells where i) it down-regulates
334 Bcl-2 family members, ii) induces the opening of the permeability transition pore and the activation of caspases
335 1 and 3, iii) affects sensitivity to apoptosis and autophagy, thus modulating cell function and inflammaging
336 (Giuliani et al., 2018).

337 Defining the cells in which miR-146a exerts its action is fundamental to deepen our knowledge on the role
338 played by this miRNA in aging and ARDs. *In vitro* models convey that deficiency of miR-146a induces
339 deregulation of TRAF6 in synovial fibroblasts, leading to increased proliferation, metabolic shift towards
340 glycolysis, enhanced ability of synovial fibroblasts to support the generation of osteoclasts (Saferding et al.,
341 2017).

342 MiR-146a overexpression can be induced both by pro-inflammatory conditions, *i.e.* treatment with LPS, and
343 replicative or stress-induced senescence, reinforcing the hypothesis of the key role of miR-146a in
344 inflammation and senescence (Olivieri et al., 2013b; Sugimoto et al., 2016).

345 Mice with targeted miR-146a deletion represent one of the first genetic animal models with NF- κ B-driven
346 low-grade inflammation that spontaneously develops with aging. NF- κ B activation increases in miR-146a^{-/-}
347 mice, suggesting that miR-146a can negatively modulate inflammation by targeting key molecules in both NF-
348 κ B activation arms. Importantly, young miR-146a-null mice did not develop any disease, whereas exhibited
349 signs of multiorgan inflammation and immunoproliferative disease at 6–8 months (Boldin et al., 2011; Zhao
350 et al., 2011). These results provide a molecular connection between chronic inflammation, the development of

351 bone marrow failure and myeloproliferative neoplasms (Zhao et al., 2013). In animal models, the decline of
352 TRAF6 gene expression in miR-146a^{-/-} mice rescued aberrant myeloproliferation and autoimmunity
353 phenotypes (Magilnick et al., 2017). Recently, it was demonstrated that the administration of a DNA
354 oligonucleotide-conjugated miR-146a mimic binds Toll-like receptor 9 prevents excessive NF-κB activation
355 in myeloid cells, alleviating myeloproliferation and mice hypersensitivity to bacterial challenge (Su et al.,
356 2020). Notably, miR-146a was identified as an essential epigenetic switch that controls Wnt signalling-
357 dependent bone homeostasis during aging (Saferding et al., 2020). MiR-146a deficient mice develop early
358 onset and progression of osteoarthritis (Guan et al., 2018), whereas in humans, the levels of miR-146a are
359 increased in patients suffering of bone fractures (Saferding et al., 2020).

360 Further, miR-146a^{-/-} mice on high-fat diet showed exaggerated weight gain, increased adiposity,
361 hepatosteatosis, and dysregulated blood glucose levels compared to wild-type controls (Runtsch et al., 2019).
362 These observations suggest that, during inflammation, miR-146a represses TRAF6 not only to control
363 inflammatory gene expression, but also to limit the switch from oxidative phosphorylation to glycolytic
364 metabolism (Kelly and O'Neill, 2015). *In vivo* functional evidence suggested an anti-inflammatory role of miR-
365 146a in the pathogenesis of diabetic nephropathy (DN) (Bhatt et al., 2016): long-term hyperglycemia induces
366 miR-146a downregulation in the sciatic nerve of DN rats causing a loss of NF-κB inhibition, tissue damage,
367 TNF-α, and IL-1β release (Feng et al., 2018). Importantly, in mice model of DN the treatment with miR-146a
368 mimics as able to improve neurological function (Liu et al., 2017). Regarding a potential role of miR-146a in
369 modulating atherosclerosis, it was suggested a link between miR-146a and apolipoprotein E (ApoE): systemic
370 delivery of miR-146a mimetic can attenuate macrophage activation and atherosclerosis also in the absence of
371 plasma lipid reduction (Li et al., 2015a).

372 Finally, miR-146a-deficient mice have hyper-reactive and pro-inflammatory circulating neutrophils that are
373 more prone to form neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs), regardless of the stimulus (Arroyo et al., 2020).
374 NETs, which consist of cell-free DNA (cfDNA), histones, NE (neutrophil elastase), and myeloperoxidase, can
375 triggers the coagulation and inflammation underlying cardiovascular complications; in this framework miR-
376 146a modulation could be of clinical relevance in cardiovascular diseases (Arroyo et al., 2020).

377 Notably, it as demonstrated that miR-146a can modulate also the NLRP3 inflammasome related factors, such
378 as its downstream inflammatory factors and its upstream protein chloride intracellular channel protein 4
379 (CLIC4) expression both *in vitro* and in animal models (Zhang et al., 2018a).

380 Overall, the take-home message of the last ten years of studies on the relationship between miR-146a and
381 inflammation is that miR-146a exerts a number of beneficial effects on healthy aging, via a fine-tuning of
382 canonical and non-canonical NF- κ B pathways (**Figure 1**). It is therefore not surprising that the fates of miR-
383 146a and IL-6 seem to be intertwined, as it is detailed below.

384

385 **4.3 MiR-146a and IL-6 regulation**

386 Circulating levels of IL-6, “the cytokine for gerontologists” (Ershler, 1993), increase significantly with aging
387 and are associated with hampered chance to achieve healthy longevity and successful aging (Albani et al.,
388 2009; Bonafè et al., 2001; Bonafe et al., 2001; Ferrucci et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2012; Leng et al., 2005; Lin et
389 al., 2014; Maggio et al., 2006; Stenholm et al., 2011). Since high IL-6 circulating levels are associated with
390 increased mortality risk in frail and community-dwelling elderly individuals (Giovannini et al., 2011), whilst
391 low IL-6 serum levels are associated with successful aging (Akbaraly et al., 2013), IL-6 can be considered as
392 the most clinically relevant circulating biomarker of inflammaging (Bonafe et al., 2001; Ferrucci and Fabbri,
393 2018). The Cardiovascular Health Study, the InCHIANTI study, and the PolSenior study showed that both IL-
394 6 and CRP levels are good predictors of physical and cognitive performance and the risk of mortality in the
395 entire elderly population and in successfully aging individuals (Puzianowska-Kuznicka et al., 2016). Genetic
396 variability at the IL-6 locus, as well as in other cytokines have been positively or negatively associated with
397 longevity (Bonafe et al., 2001; Capri et al., 2014; Franceschi et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2014; Maggio et al., 2006;
398 Newman et al., 2010; Rosa et al., 2019; Stenholm et al., 2011).

399 IL-6 exerts its activity through binding to the IL-6 receptor (IL-6R), which consists of two types of subunits,
400 IL-6R α (gp80 or CD126), and IL-6R β (gp130 or CD130). The soluble IL-6R (sIL-6R), which is cleaved from
401 the cell membrane, can still bind IL-6 (Tanaka and Kishimoto, 2014). The paradigm of IL-6 signal transduction
402 via the membrane bound IL-6R is called “classic signalling”, whereas when IL-6 signal is activated by the link
403 with sIL-6R, it is referred to as “trans-signalling” (Garbers et al., 2012). The sIL-6R binds IL-6 with

404 comparable affinity as the membrane bound form and mediates gp130 activation. Notably, the regenerative or
405 anti-inflammatory activities of IL-6 are mediated by classic signaling whereas pro-inflammatory responses of
406 IL-6 are rather mediated by trans-signaling (Rabe et al., 2008; Scheller et al., 2011). A number of studies
407 performed about thirty years ago were focused on the complex regulatory mechanisms of IL-6 gene expression
408 induced by different transcriptional factors, such as NF- κ B and AP-1, and their synergistic combinations
409 (Libermann and Baltimore, 1990; Son et al., 2008; Wisdom, 1999). NF-IL6 is another nuclear factor that
410 specifically binds to the promoter of IL-6 gene; this nuclear factor has a high degree of homology to a liver-
411 and adipose tissue-specific transcriptional factor named CCAAT/enhancer binding protein beta (C/EBP- β)
412 (Akira et al., 1990). Notably, the involvement NF-IL6/C/EBP- β transcription factor in senescence-associated
413 enhancement of cytokine expression was described (Kuilman et al., 2008). C/EBP- β can enhance the binding
414 activity of p65 to IL-1 β promoter, thus suggesting a complex interaction between NF- κ B/NLRP3
415 inflammasome and IL-6 (Ma et al., 2018). Notably, NF-IL6 and C/EBP- β recognize the same nucleotide
416 sequence but exhibit distinct patterns of expression. NF-IL6 mRNA is normally not expressed, but it can be
417 induced by the stimulation with exogenous antigens, i.e. LPS, and also by endogenous molecules, i.e. IL-1,
418 synthesized after NF- κ B/NLRP3 activation. Interestingly, NF-IL6 was shown to bind the regulatory regions
419 of various acute phase protein genes and several other cytokine genes such as TNF, IL-8 and G-CSF, implying
420 that NF-IL6 has a role in the regulation not only of the IL-6 gene but also of several other genes involved in
421 acute-phase reaction, inflammation and hemopoiesis (Natsuka et al., 1992). Three isoforms of NF-IL6
422 (C/EBPL) are generated from a single mRNA, including LIP (liver-enriched inhibitory protein) and LAP
423 (liver-enriched activator protein). C/EBP homologous protein (CHOP), a member of the C/EBP family of
424 transcription factors, by forming heterodimers with LIP, can increase LAP activity and transactivational ability
425 (Zinszner et al., 1998). Overall, as described above, IL-6 transcription is regulated by a number of nuclear
426 factors that can act in independent or synergistic way, especially in the perpetuation of IL-6 increased release
427 for a long time. The recent research is aimed to disentangle additional layers in the complex mechanisms of
428 IL-6 epigenetic regulation, analysing DNA methylation and non-coding RNAs modulation (Servais et al.,
429 2019).

430 The transcription of both miR-146a and IL-1 β /IL-6 is under the control of NF- κ B, even if the two molecules
431 –IL-6 and miR-146a – play opposite roles in the inflammatory process. Therefore, one would expect a

432 proportional increase in IL-6 and miR-146 synthesis, in order to restrain the excessive IL-6 increase. As above
433 reported and discussed, although miR-146a does target neither IL-6 mRNA nor its receptors, a number of *in*
434 *vitro* and *in vivo* studies highlighted a negative relationship between miR-146a and IL-6 levels. These evidence
435 ere confirmed by functional studies demonstrating that miR-146a mimics decrease, while miR-146a inhibitors
436 increase the expression of IL-6 in LPS-stimulated macrophages (He et al., 2014; Luly et al., 2019) and activated
437 endothelial cells (Pfeiffer et al., 2017).

438 When the relationship between miR-146a and IL-6 was analysed in the framework of the aging process, an
439 age-related imbalance of miR-146a/IL-6 axis was observed (Jiang et al., 2012; Olivieri et al., 2013d). Aged
440 miR-146a^{-/-} mice display elevated serum levels of IL-6, thus supporting the functional link between miR-
441 146a and IL-6 levels (Boldin et al., 2011). However, miR-146a expression is modulated at a different extent
442 in response to LPS stimulation in macrophages of young and aged mice (Jiang et al., 2012). Despite
443 macrophages of aged mice release an increased amount of IL-6 compared with younger ones, miR-146a level
444 increases significantly in a cytokine dose-dependent manner only in macrophages of young mice (Jiang et al.,
445 2012). The same results can be observed in young and senescent endothelial cells stimulated with LPS (Olivieri
446 et al., 2013d; Olivieri et al., 2014). These results point out the imbalance between miR-146a and IL-6
447 production in senescent cells, suggesting that nuclear factors different from NF-κB could promote IL-6
448 transcription. For example, following the activation of the unfolded protein response (UPR) CHOP plays an
449 important role in IL-6 production without binding to its promoter, probably by trapping protein which would
450 otherwise inhibit IL-6 transcription (Hattori et al., 2003).

451 Concerning circulating miR-146a, its levels decline in old wild-type mice (Grants et al., 2020), as well as in
452 healthy aged people (Mensà et al., 2019), whereas in the same conditions IL-6 levels are increased. In patients
453 affected by T2DM this loop – low levels of miR-146a and increased IL-6 levels – is more evident. Notably,
454 COVID-19 patients showed increased IL-6 and reduced miR-146a-5p circulating levels compared to healthy
455 age-matched subjects, pointing again at the involvement of imbalanced IL-6/miR-146a-5p axis in the cytokine
456 storm observed in SARS-CoV-2 infection (Sabbatinelli et al., 2021). Noteworthy, a similar scenario was
457 reported in the context of sepsis (Benz et al., 2016).

458 We can hypothesize that, in physiological conditions, the miR-146a/IL-6 axis is under the control of NF-κB,
459 thus maintaining a functional balancing, whereas in the presence of relevant pro-inflammatory stimuli, IL-6

460 levels dramatically increase and miR-146a levels decline. Importantly, the age-related decline of miR-146a in
461 healthy subjects is particularly evident in males (Mensà et al., 2019), strongly supporting the increased
462 susceptibility of men to the detrimental effects of inflammaging. Notably, differences in immune functions can
463 contribute to health- and life-span disparities between sexes (Jaillon et al., 2019; Marquez et al., 2020).
464 Epigenomic signature of immunosenescence includes the decline of naïve T cell and the increase in monocyte
465 and cytotoxic cell functions (de Candia et al., 2021; Fulop et al., 2018). Notably, these features occur to a
466 higher extent in men than in women, suggesting that males are characterized by higher pro-inflammatory
467 activity and lower adaptive immune system activity (Marquez et al., 2020).
468 Overall, we can conclude that a weak age-related increase of circulating IL-6 levels can be observed in healthy
469 aging in association with declined miR-146a circulating levels. On the contrary, aged subjects affected by
470 ARDs showed a stronger age-related IL-6 increase and miR-146a decrease, suggesting that in these conditions
471 miR-146a levels are not sufficient to restrain inflammatory status.

472

473 **5. miR-21 and miR-146a as biomarkers of age-related diseases**

474 The identification of biomarkers of healthy/unhealthy aging trajectories is an urgent need, which could
475 contribute to an early diagnosis of ARDs and improve the monitoring of novel interventions (Guerville et al.,
476 2020; Newman et al., 2016). We are among the first researchers highlighting significant changes of miR-21-
477 5p and miR-146a circulating levels in healthy subjects of different ages, thus suggesting that some
478 inflammamiRs can contribute to track an healthy aging trajectory (Olivieri et al., 2017; Olivieri et al., 2013d;
479 Olivieri et al., 2012). Intriguingly, derangements from the levels observed in the healthy aging trajectory were
480 observed in patients affected by different ARDs, suggesting that miR-21-5p and miR-146a circulating levels
481 could be useful biomarkers of ARDs and their complications (Olivieri et al., 2017; Olivieri et al., 2013e;
482 Olivieri et al., 2012). Other studies on the same topic identified the age-related deregulation of a number of
483 circulating miRNAs (Balzano et al., 2017; Noren Hooten et al., 2013). For instance, when miR-21 and miR-
484 146a serum levels were measured in a sample of sprint-trained male athletes and associated with physical
485 performance, significant correlation with age were observed as well as significant associations with the 10-
486 year decline of physical performance (Kangas et al., 2017).

487 When miRNA expression signatures were analysed in Treg lymphocytes from patients with autoimmune
488 diseases, such as rheumatoid arthritis, the analysis allowed to identify miRNAs characteristic for naive Treg
489 population as well as for subpopulations of memory cells (Smigielska-Czepiel et al., 2014). Interestingly, miR-
490 146a belongs to signature common to naïve and memory Treg, whereas miR-21 belongs to signature of T
491 memory compartment (Smigielska-Czepiel et al., 2014). Of note, the miRNA repertoire of Tregs is reflected
492 in their EVs (Torri et al., 2017).

493 Another interesting implication of circulating inflammamiR analysis can be envisaged in the evaluation of
494 anti-inflammatory therapies efficacy. When serum miR-21-5p and miR-146a levels were analysed in twins
495 discordant for estrogen-based hormone replacement therapy (HRT), their concentrations were lower in HRT
496 users compared to their non-HRT using co-twins (Kangas et al., 2014).

497 Another example of the use of inflammamiRs as biomarkers of therapeutic intervention efficacy is suggested
498 in our work concerning innovative insights into the molecular mechanisms by which the antioxidant molecule
499 ubiquinol stems endothelial cell inflammatory responses and delays the SASP acquisition (Olivieri et al.,
500 2013b). We also observed a correlation between miR-146a circulating levels and clinical efficacy of TNF- α
501 inhibitor treatment in patients with psoriasis (Mensà et al., 2018). Quite similar results were reported in
502 rheumatoid arthritis patients treated with anti-TNF α (Castro-Villegas et al., 2015) and in patients affected by
503 myelodysplastic syndrome (Cerisoli et al., 2021). Furthermore, in our recent report previously cited on
504 COVID-19, we observed that miR-146a levels in patients observed a significant increase of miR-146a serum
505 levels only in patients classified as responders to anti-IL-6 receptor Tocilizumab treatment (Sabbatinelli et al.,
506 2021). These data strongly support the hypothesis that the adverse outcomes of the current pandemic of
507 COVID-19 could be related to the degree of inflammaging (Bonafe et al., 2020; de Candia et al., 2021).

508 Finally, few data were already reported on the association between genetic polymorphisms in gene coding for
509 inflammamiRNAs, including miR-21-5p and miR-146a, and the chance to undergo successful aging
510 (Franceschi et al., 2020). A common G/C SNP (rs2910164) of pri-mir-146a was first identified in samples of
511 papillary thyroid carcinoma patients and the C allele was associated with a reduction of miRNA expression in
512 human cells (Jazdzewski et al., 2008; Le et al., 2020; Papathanasiou et al., 2020). Not surprisingly, this SNP
513 was associated with an increased risk to develop different types of cancers and coronary artery disease (CAD)
514 (Bao et al., 2015; Lian et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2008). Notably, no conclusive results were

515 obtained regarding pri-miR146a SNP and risk of diabetes (Chen et al., 2019; Gholami et al., 2020).
516 Interestingly, this pri-mir-146a SNP was recently associated with an overactive immune response and an
517 increased risk to acquire infections (Keewan and Naser, 2020). This result is even more relevant in the current
518 efforts to understand susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2 infection and the development of COVID-19 adverse
519 outcomes.

520 Since the number of manuscripts reporting associations of circulating miR-21-5p and miR-146a levels with
521 human disease is rapidly increasing, we reviewed the PubMed literature from 2010 to 2020 and listed the main
522 studies on miR-146a and miR-21-5p circulating levels in patients affected by the most common ARDs,
523 including T2DM, CVD and neurodegenerative diseases. Studies related to cancer were not included. We
524 searched for ‘human circulating miR-146a’, ‘human circulating miR-21’, and ‘T2DM’ or ‘CVD’ or ‘dementia’
525 and selected the human-based research articles. Details on miR-146 studies are provided in **Table 1**, whereas
526 those on miR-21 are reported in **Table 2**.

527 MiR-146a measured in serum/plasma showed a trend toward decreased levels in patients with T2DM
528 compared to healthy controls, as also summarized in a meta-analysis (Alipoor et al., 2017), albeit miR-146a
529 circulating levels are strongly related to patient age, gender, health status and disease complications. However,
530 different relationships can be observed when considering whole blood (Morais Junior et al., 2017) or a peculiar
531 population of EVs (Prattichizzo et al., 2021a), reinforcing the notion that different results are obtained when
532 harvesting diverse blood components. Similarly, increased levels of miR-146a expression in CVD patients
533 compared to healthy controls were reported (**Table 1**). Such data are particularly significant as CVDs represent
534 a heterogeneous group of disorders; nevertheless, miR-146a appears a ‘stable’ indicator of the inflammatory
535 status. Declining miR-146a trend from healthy condition to CVDs were reported only by two studies, one on
536 hypertension (Hijmans et al., 2018) and the other on acute ischemic stroke (Li et al., 2017) in relatively small
537 populations. Concerning dementia, studies on miR-146a levels in both plasma/serum and CSF analysed in
538 patients with Alzheimer’s disease reported non conclusive results. A possible explanation for these non-
539 concordant results could be the different inclusion/exclusion criteria for the patient enrolment, as well as the
540 small sized cohorts. Moreover, CSF withdrawal is a critical methodology and contamination of CSF with blood
541 can influence study outcomes (Lusardi et al., 2017). Overall, even though the reproducibility of miRNA studies
542 could be still a challenge, miR-146a seems to mark the age-dependent deviation from healthy trajectory.

543 **Table 2** summarizes studies assessing miR-21-5p level in biological fluids, including serum, plasma, EVs, and
544 cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) in T2DM, CVDs and neurodegenerative diseases. MiR-21-5p is currently one of the
545 most broadly studied miRNAs in relation to CVD. Most of the studies – 19 out of 32 – showed an increase of
546 the circulating miRNA level in patients compared to healthy controls. Only four studies reported a down-
547 regulation of miR-21-5p, and one paper did not show a significant modulation (**Table 2**). The remaining seven
548 studies showed a modulation of miR-21-5p between clinical subgroups of a specific disease. On the other hand,
549 studies investigating miR-21-5p in T2DM and neurodegenerative diseases showed a greater level of
550 heterogeneity. The variability in the results could be related to analytical issues, to the different sample source
551 and to differences in the cohort composition in terms of specific disease features, e.g. disease duration, severity
552 and time after diagnosis. Moreover, the relatively small sample sizes analysed in part of the studies makes
553 difficult to draw definitive conclusions.

554

555 **6. miR-21- and miR-146a-based therapeutic interventions**

556 The extensive characterization of miR-146a function as a regulator of innate and adaptive immunity paved the
557 way to multiple studies investigating its therapeutic potential in inflammatory dysfunctions, including ARDs.
558 Event though miR-146a is induced as a compensatory response to acute inflammation, the extent of this
559 response is often insufficient to restrain inflammation and to prevent the progression of organ damage (Bobba
560 et al., 2021). In regard this issue, approaches that boost the endogenous miR-146a expression, or the selective
561 delivery of miR-146a mimics, via either EVs or other nanoparticles, have been proposed and tested as below
562 described.

563 Systemic administration of miR-146a has shown promising result in a murine model of diabetic peripheral
564 neuropathy, a condition associated with marked neurovascular dysfunction. The suppression of IRAK1,
565 TRAF6, and the downstream NF-kB pathway ameliorated endothelial dysfunction and improved peripheral
566 nerve perfusion, independently of blood glucose control (Liu et al., 2017). Subsequent studies showed that,
567 when administered in a form capable of crossing the blood-brain barrier, miR-146a could improve neurological
568 functional outcomes also by mediating remyelination and oligodendrocyte differentiation, (Zhang et al., 2019).
569 Accordingly, miR-146a administration has been demonstrated to prevent the detrimental outcomes related to
570 the hyperinflammatory state associated with sepsis by promoting M2 polarization of splenic macrophages

571 (Funahashi et al., 2019). Interestingly, a similar effect was achieved when mesenchymal stem cells were
572 stimulated by IL-1 β , which results in the enhanced release of miR-146a-enriched EVs (Song et al., 2017). This
573 evidence confirms that the intracellular mechanisms leading to miR-146a synthesis and release can be also
574 exploited to obtain an increase of the endogenous levels of this miRNA. The relevance of restricting the
575 delivery of miR-146a to specific cellular types comes from the conflicting results observed in osteoarthritis, a
576 typical ARD. Indeed, intrarticular administration of miR-146a resulted in accelerated destruction of articular
577 cartilage due to the suppression of major anabolic genes in chondrocytes (Zhang et al., 2017b). On the opposite,
578 miR-146a delivery to Ly6C^{high} monocytes, i.e. the murine counterpart of human classical monocytes, reduced
579 osteoclast differentiation and bone erosion without affecting joint inflammation (Ammari et al., 2018).

580 The intranasal delivery of miR-146a agomir was able to improve behavioral and cognitive dysfunction and
581 relieve the pathophysiological process in the AD mice model, suggesting the potential role of miR-146a as a
582 new target for AD (Mai et al., 2019). Furthermore, miR-146a administration through AAV9 (adeno-associated
583 virus serotype 9)-mediated gene delivery suggested potential therapeutic intervention in heart failure (HF),
584 since an abnormal SUMOylation has emerged as a characteristic of HF pathology and miR-146a was identified
585 as a SUMO1-targeting microRNA (Oh et al., 2018). As reported above, the delivery of DNA-oligonucleotide
586 conjugated/miR-146a molecule to a scavenger receptor/Toll-like receptor 9 agonist was proved to be effective
587 in animal and human models of NF- κ B-driven inflammation and in myeloid leukemia (Su et al., 2020).

588 Promising results were obtained inhibiting miR-21 expression in diabetic wounds, liver steatosis (Afonso et
589 al., 2018) and heart failure (Thum et al., 2008). Notably, encouraging results were also achieved by inducing,
590 rather than inhibiting, miR-21 function. Indeed, the administration of engineered EVs containing miR-21
591 accelerated diabetic wound healing by promoting re-epithelialization and angiogenesis, with limited side
592 effects and optimal miRNA bioavailability and intracellular delivery (Lv et al., 2020).

593 Despite broad clinical potential, only a few miRNA-based therapeutic agents entered clinical trials. Overall,
594 the translation of miRNA-based therapeutics into the clinical practice is still hampered by many factors,
595 including the rapid degradation of unmodified miRNA mimics/antagonists, the presence of biological barriers,
596 and the saturation of the miRNA processing apparatus in specific cell types, which adds to the intrinsic
597 immunogenicity of nucleic acids (Chen et al., 2015).

598

599 **7. Conclusion and future perspectives**

600 MiR-21 and miR-146 were first identified as immune system regulators in a systematic effort to find miRNAs
601 able to influence the mammalian response to pro-inflammatory stimuli. These miRNAs can modulate
602 inflammaging and were therefore named as inflammamiRs. Ten years of research efforts have substantiated
603 the potential clinical relevance of inflammamiRs to represent both functional innovative biomarkers and
604 therapeutic targets of inflammaging and ARDs.

605 A number of reasons have hampered until now the translation of circulating miR-21-5p and miR-146a as
606 biomarkers for ARDs. The common view about the search of biomarkers usually advocates disease specificity.
607 However, the gerontologic approach for ARDs prevention relies on the exactly opposite concept, i.e. a limited
608 number of “pillars” of aging promote or predispose to the development of all the most common ARDs
609 (Franceschi et al., 2018a; Furman et al., 2019). Thus, a biomarker that senses a pervasive phenomenon
610 underlying the development of multiple diseases should not be used to predict specific ARD, rather to track
611 deviations from a healthy aging trajectory (Olivieri et al., 2017). In addition, technical issues, mainly related
612 to the normalization method and the standardization of procedures, characterized the field of circulating
613 miRNAs as potential biomarkers (Micolucci et al., 2017; Prattichizzo et al., 2021b). Overall, some
614 inflammamiRs, especially miR-146a and miR-21, are able to track physiological and pathological aging
615 trajectories, and we believe that it will be possible in the next future to transfer these biomarkers from research
616 to clinical diagnostics. Emerging knowledge on inflammamiRs might also support the researchers towards the
617 exploration of how these findings can contribute to promote healthy aging and prevent or postpone ARD
618 development.

619 Since aging occurs heterogeneously among subjects and across multiple cells and tissues in the same organism
620 (Tuttle et al., 2020), it cannot be measured with a single unidimensional metric (Cohen et al., 2020; Schultz et
621 al., 2020). The observation that multiple un-healthy conditions coexist in the same patients, namely
622 multimorbidity (Johnston et al., 2019), supported the hypothesis of a continuum between healthy and unhealthy
623 aging and suggested that the level of inflammaging – strictly related to biological age rather than chronological
624 age – should be the best predictor of ARD development (Franceschi et al., 2018b). Accordingly, the clinical
625 approach to the elderly patient needs to take into account that every patient is a world apart, and therefore the
626 axiom of “one size fits all” is not applicable (Riondino et al., 2019). This tenet supports the increasing efforts

627 to develop precision medicine for elderly patients exploiting epigenetic markers such as miRNAs (Deelen et
628 al., 2019; Lehallier et al., 2019; Tanaka et al., 2020).

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Table 1. Summary of the studies evaluating miR-146a in different body fluids as a biomarker for type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, and neurodegenerative disorders.

Disease	Type of Sample	Study population	Levels in disease	Detailed findings	Ref.
<i>Type 2 diabetes</i>					
T2D	plasma	T2DM (n=188) healthy controls (n=144)	↓	- Lower in diabetic patients than in age-matched CTR - Overexpressed in T2DM patients treated with metformin	(Mensà et al., 2019)
Impaired glucose tolerance and T2D with and without complications	serum	pre-diabetic (n=16) T2DM without complications (n = 54) T2DM with presence of nephropathy (n = 18), diabetic foot (n = 3) or CVD (n = 7) healthy controls (n = 35).	↓ (pre-diabetes)	- Decreased in pre-diabetic patients compared to control group - Increased in T2DM patients compared to pre-diabetic patients - Decreased in T2DM patients with nephropathy and diabetic compared to T2DM patients without complications	(Garcia-Jacobo et al., 2019)
T2D	plasma	T2DM (n=30) healthy controls (n=30)	↓	- Decreased in T2DM compared to healthy participants - rs2910164-C allele is associated with reduced expression of miR-146a	(Alipoor et al., 2018)
Impaired Glucose tolerance and T2D	serum	prediabetes (n=21,10 lean + 11 with obesity) T2DM (n=17,2 lean + 15 with obesity) healthy controls (11 lean + 9 with obesity)	=	- Associated with diabetes independent of obesity and BMI - Increased in the T2DM group compared to the prediabetes group	(Nunez Lopez et al., 2016)
T2D	blood	T2DM (n=13) healthy controls (n=10)	↑	Increased expression in diabetic compared with nondiabetic patients, after a strength training intervention	(Morais Junior et al., 2017)
<i>Cardiovascular diseases</i>					
Coronary heart disease (CHD) with subclinical hypothyroidism (SCH) or without SCH	plasma	CHD+SCH (n=60) CHD (n=73) healthy controls (n=59)	↑	- Increased levels in CHD and CHD+SCH patients - Highest in CHD+SCH patients showing the largest increase - AUC=0.779 for the diagnosis of CHD	(Quan et al., 2018)

Acute myocardial infarction (MI)	plasma	LVR (n = 56) Non-LVR (n = 142)	↑	Higher in patients with LVR	(Liu et al., 2015)
Acute coronary syndrome (ACS) with or without chronic periodontitis (CP)	serum	ACS without CP (n=66) ACS with CP (n=66) CP only (n=66) healthy controls (n=66)	↑	Upregulated in all disease groups compared to controls	(Bagavad Gita et al., 2019)
Ischemic stroke (IS)		IS (n=60, acute or sub-acute phase) healthy controls (n=30)	↑/↓	- Decreased in acute IS compared with healthy individuals - Downregulated in acute IS but upregulated in subacute IS	(Li et al., 2015b)
Premature acute coronary syndrome (ACS), with or without a history of preeclampsia (PE)	plasma	ACS with prior PE (n = 30) ACS with prior normotensive pregnancy (n = 146)	=	Decreased in ACS women with prior PE compared to ACS women with prior normotensive pregnancy	(Dayan et al., 2018)
Coronary artery disease (CAD) with poor or good Coronary Collateral Circulation (CCC)	plasma	patients with poor CCC (n=34) patients with good CCC (n=34) healthy control subjects (n=34)	↑/↓	- Increased in CAD patients with good CCC - Decreased in patients with poor CCC	(Wang et al., 2016)
Acute coronary syndromes (ACS) with unstable angina (UA) and non-ST-elevation myocardial infarction (NSTEMI)	serum	ACS (n=106; UA, n = 24 and NSTEMI, n = 82) non-ACS (n=226)	↑	- Increased in ACS patients - Increased in UA and STEMI - Highest in NSTEMI patients	(Oerlemans et al., 2012)
Hypertension	plasma	hypertensive (n=15) normotensive (n=15)	↓	- Lower in the hypertensive vs normotensive group - Significantly related to both systolic and diastolic blood pressure	(Hijmans et al., 2018)
Acute myocardial infarction (AMI)	plasma	AMI (n=31) controls (n=27)	↑	- Increased in AMI patients - High diagnostic efficiency for predicting AMI by ROC analysis	(Xue et al., 2019a)

Dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM)	plasma	DCM (n=45) controls (n=39)	=	No difference between DCM and control groups	(Fan et al., 2013)
Heart failure	plasma (exosome)	heart failure (n=40) controls (n=20)	↑	- Higher circulating exosomal miR-146a/miR-16 ratio in heart failure patients - TNF α and GM-CSF increased miR-146a but not miR-486 in the cardiomyocyte cell line H9C2	(Beg et al., 2017)
Acute myocardial infarction (AMI)	plasma	AMI (n=31) controls (n=27)	↑	Considerable diagnostic efficiency for predicting AMI	(Xue et al., 2019a)
Acute ischemic stroke (AIS)	blood	AIS (n=30) Healthy controls (n=30)	↓	- Downregulated in AIS - Fbx110 was identified as a target of miR-146a - Upregulation of Fbx110 likely protects neurons from ischemic death	(Li et al., 2017)
Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM)	plasma	HCM (n=8; T1 < 470 ms, n=4; T1 \geq 470 ms, n=4) healthy controls (n=4)	↑	Upregulated in T1 \geq 470 ms compared to T1 < 470 ms and controls	(Fang et al., 2015)
<i>Neurodegenerative diseases</i>					
Alzheimer's disease (AD), mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and vascular dementia (VD)	serum	AD (n=127) MCI (n=30) VD (n=30) non-dementia controls (NDC, n = 123)	↓	- Decreased in AD patient serum compared with controls - Higher in MCI compared to controls	(Dong et al., 2015)
Alzheimer's disease	serum	AD (n=20) healthy controls (n=20)	↑	Higher in AD patients compared with control subjects	(Wu et al., 2017b)

Alzheimer's disease	plasma	AD (n=116) and healthy controls (n=40) ≥ 65 yrs	=	Significant positive correlation between CRP and miR-146a in AD patients	(Giuliani et al., 2021)
Alzheimer's disease	plasma CSF	AD (n=10) healthy controls (n=10)	↓	Plasma and CSF miR-146a levels in AD patients were significantly lower than in control subjects	(Kiko et al., 2014)
Alzheimer's disease	plasma CSF	AD (n=20) healthy controls (n=20)	↓ (plasma) ↑ (CSF)	- Lower plasma level in AD group compared to control group - Higher CSF miR-146a in AD compared to healthy controls	(Gong and Sun, 2020)
Alzheimer's disease	CSF	AD (n = 22) healthy controls (n = 28)	↑	- Upregulated in CSF of AD patients - Significant inverse correlation with tau and Aβ1-42	(Denk et al., 2015)
Alzheimer's disease	CSF	AD (n = 20) Healthy controls (n = 22)	↓	Low levels of miR-146a in CSF were associated with AD	(Muller et al., 2014)

CSF, cerebrospinal fluid.

Table 2. Summary of the studies evaluating miR-21-5p in different body fluids as a biomarker for type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases, and neurodegenerative disorders.

Disease	Type of sample	Study population	Levels in disease	Detailed findings	Ref.
<i>Type 2 diabetes</i>					
Heart failure and stable CAD in T2D	serum	T2D (n=45) T2D+CAD (n=45) T2D+HF (n=45) healthy controls (n=45)	↑	- Overexpression in patients with DM, CAD + DM, and HF + DM compared with controls - Higher in the HF + DM group compared to the CAD + DM group	(Al-Hayali et al., 2019)
Impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) and T2D	plasma	IGT (n=43) newly diagnosed, drug naïve T2D (T2D, n = 27) NGT (n=39)	↑	- Overexpression in IGT and in T2D compared to NGT subjects - Positive correlation with glycaemic parameters - High and accurate diagnostic performance	(La Sala et al., 2019)
IGT and T2D	plasma	21 with prediabetes (10 lean + 11 with obesity) 17 with T2D (2 lean + 15 with obesity) healthy controls (11 lean + 9 with obesity)	↑	- Increased in the T2D group vs. prediabetes and healthy control groups - Associated with diabetes independent of obesity and BMI status	(Nunez Lopez et al., 2016)
Diabetes (multiple etiologies)	plasma	prediabetes (n = 12) type 2 diabetes (T2D, n = 31) latent autoimmune diabetes of adults (LADA, n = 6) type 1 diabetes (T1D, n = 16) healthy control subjects (n = 27).	↑	- Increased in T2D and T1D vs. healthy controls - No significant difference among diabetes subtypes	(Seyhan et al., 2016)
Diabetic nephropathy (DN)	serum	T2D subjects categorized by Albumin Creatinine Ratio: normal albuminuria (n=11) microalbuminuria (n=17) overt proteinuria (n=21)	N/A	- Increased in patients with overt proteinuria compared with the patients with normal or micro- albuminuria. - Increased in subjects with lower eGFR	(Chien et al., 2016)
T2D with (T2D-C) or without (T2D-NC) complications	plasma	T2D (N=193) T2D-NC (n=76) T2D-C (n=117) healthy subjects (n=107)	↓	- Significant decline from CTR to T2D-NC and T2D-C - Higher in MACE compared to other complications	(Olivieri et al., 2015b)
T2D	plasma	T2D (N=80) healthy controls (n=80)	↓		(Zampetaki et al., 2010)
<i>Cardiovascular diseases</i>					

Recurrent CVD after ST-segment-elevation myocardial infarction (STEMI)	serum	MACE (n=70) non-MACE (n=140) healthy control (n=20)	↓	- Downregulated in MACE and non-MACE compared to healthy controls - Lower in MACE vs. non-MACE - Negative association with incident primary composite outcomes	(Yang et al., 2021)
Heart failure (HF)	plasma	HF (N=62) healthy controls (n=62)	↑	High diagnostic accuracy	(Ding et al., 2020a)
Hypertensive heart disease (HHD)	serum	HHD (n=10) controls (n=10)	↑	Correlation with serum myocardial fibrotic markers	(Watanabe et al., 2020)
Hypertension (HT) with asymptomatic organ damage (AOD)	plasma	HT (n=16) HT+AOD (n=16) healthy controls (n=32)	↑	- Upregulated in HT vs. controls - Upregulated in HT+AOD vs. HT - Correlations with clinical systolic and diastolic blood pressure, microalbuminuria, C-reactive protein, and carotid intima-media thickness	(Yildirim et al., 2019)
Myocardial infarction (MI)	serum	10-year observation period of 195 healthy participants: fatal MI (n = 36) non-fatal MI (n = 60) controls (n = 99) remained healthy	↑	Increasing serum miR-21-5p levels add significantly to Framingham risk score as a predictor of 10-year risk of MI	(Velle-Forbord et al., 2019)
Venous thromboembolism (VTE)	plasma	recurrent VTE (n=39) no-recurrent VTE (n=39)	N/A	Upregulated in recurrent VTE	(Wang et al., 2019)
Atrial fibrillation (AF)	plasma	acute new-onset AF (n = 5) well-controlled AF (n = 16) controls (n = 15)	↓	Downregulated in well-controlled AF compared to new-onset AF and control patients	(da Silva et al., 2018)
Hypertension (HT)	plasma	normotensive (n=15) hypertension (n=15)	↓	Significant correlation with systolic blood pressure	(Hijmans et al., 2018)
STEMI and SCAD	serum	STEMI (n=24) stable CAD (n=20)	N/A	Downregulated in STEMI	(Robinson et al., 2018)
Acute myocardial infarction (AMI)	plasma	post-AMI (n=44) controls (n=18)	↑	Early increase at day 4 compared to control patient levels, further increase up to day 9	(Grabmaier et al., 2017)

Ischemic stroke (IS) and Transient ischemic stroke (TIA)	serum	IS (n=177) TIA (n=81) controls (n=42)	↑	- Upregulated in IS vs. TIA and control patients - Higher in severe IS group vs. moderate IS and mild IS group	(Wu et al., 2017a)
Atrial fibrillation (AF)	serum	102 patients undergoing ablation for persistent AF	↑	- Correlation with extent of LVAs detected in the left atrium - Association with event-free survival after AF ablation	(Zhou et al., 2018a)
Lower extremity arterial occlusive disease (LEAOD)	plasma	LEAOD patients after interventional therapy (n=412)	N/A	- Higher in the restenosis group - Correlation with age, diabetes, and hypertension in the restenosis group	(Zhang et al., 2017a)
Acute coronary syndrome (ACS) and SCAD	serum	ACS (n=50) SCAD (n=50)	N/A	Higher in ACS vs. SCAD	(Darabi et al., 2016)
ACS	plasma	NSTE ACS (n=34) acute coronary syndromes without persistent ST-segment elevation (NSTE ACS)	N/A	- Inverse correlation with TC, LDL-C, and non-HDL-C - Independent predictor of non-HDL-C levels in patients with NSTE ACS with a less atherogenic lipid profile	(Miskowiec et al., 2016)
Congestive heart failure (CHF)	serum	HF (males, n=28)	N/A	Increase in response to an acute exhaustive exercise in CHF patients	(Xu et al., 2016)
Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM)	serum and plasma	HCM (n=28)	N/A	Upregulated in HCM patients with T1 < 470 ms vs. those with T1 ≥ 470 ms	(Fang et al., 2015)
Myocardial infarction (MI)	plasma	left ventricular remodeling (LVR) after MI (n=56) non-LVR after MI (n=142)	N/A	Higher in patients with LVR	(Liu et al., 2015)
Aortic stenosis and coronary artery disease	plasma	aortic stenosis (n=94) controls (n=101)	n.s.	- Increased in AS patients without CAD - No difference between groups with CAD	(Coffey et al., 2015)
Cardiac allograft vasculopathy (CAV)	plasma	CAD (n=80) CAV (n=52) healthy controls (n=25)	↑	- Increased in CAV vs. healthy controls - No increase in CAV-negative patients	(Singh et al., 2015)
Hypertension	plasma	HT (n=28) healthy controls (n=28)	↑	Positive correlation with systolic blood pressure, diastolic blood pressure, CRP and CIMT	(Cengiz et al., 2015)

CAD	plasma	CAD (n=32) healthy controls (n=20)	↑		(Han et al., 2015)
Congestive heart failure (CHF)	serum	stable CHF (n=20) decompensated CHF (n=22) healthy controls (n=15)	↑	Upregulated in patients with systolic heart failure	(Cakmak et al., 2015)
Coronary atherosclerosis (CA)	plasma	EH (n=13) ARAS (n=13) CA (n=11) healthy volunteers (HV; n=13)	↑	Higher in CA vs. other groups	(Park et al., 2015)
Atrial fibrillation (AF)	plasma	AF (n=112) after AF ablation (n=47) no AF (n=99)	↓	Increasing levels after AF ablation	(McManus et al., 2015)
Acute myocardial infarction (AMI)	plasma	AMI (n=17) healthy volunteers (n=20)	↑	Correlation with plasma cardiac troponin I (cTnI)	(Wang et al., 2014)
Unstable angina (UA)	plasma	UA (n=45) stable angina (n=31) Controls (n=37)	↑	Upregulated in microparticles isolated from plasma of UA patients (n=5) vs. controls (n=5)	(Ren et al., 2013)
Nonalcoholic Fatty Liver Disease (NAFLD)	serum	NAFLD (males, n=48) NAFLD (females, n=44) no NAFLD (males, n=90) no NAFLD (females, n=221)	↑	Higher in men with NAFLD vs. men without NAFLD	(Yamada et al., 2013)
CVD	plasma	CVD (n=34) healthy controls (n=111)	↑	Correlation with CRP and fibrinogen	(Olivieri et al., 2012)
Acute coronary syndrome (ACS)	serum	ACS (n=106) no ACS (n=226)	↑	- Increased in patients diagnosed with ACS when initial troponin was still negative or with symptom onset <3 h - Adds diagnostic value to high-sensitivity troponin T in suspected ACS patients	(Oerlemans et al., 2012)
Aortic stenosis (AS)	plasma	surgical controls (n=32) AS (n=25) healthy controls (n=75)	↑	Higher in AS vs. controls (surgical and healthy control)	(Villar et al., 2013)
NSTEMI	plasma	NSTEMI (n=92) CHF (N=81) healthy controls (n=99)	↑	- Upregulated in NSTEMI vs. controls - Upregulated in STEMI vs. CHF	(Olivieri et al., 2013a)

<i>Neurodegenerative diseases</i>					
Late onset myasthenia gravis (LOMG)	serum	generalized LOMG (n=50) ocular LOMG (n=23) all LOMG (n=73)	N/A	- Decreased with the improvement of MG - Lower in ocular vs. generalized late onset MG	(Sabre et al., 2018)
Alzheimer's disease (AD) and dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB)	plasma extracellular vesicles (EVs)	DLB patients (n = 18) AD patients (n = 10) healthy individuals (n = 15)	↓ (AD)	- Downregulated in AD vs. controls - Downregulated in AD vs. DLB	(Gamez-Valero et al., 2019)
Alzheimer's disease (AD)	plasma	AD (n=116) and healthy controls (n=40) ≥ 65 yrs	=	- Higher in AD patients compared to healthy controls - Significant positive correlation between CRP and miR-21 in AD patients	(Giuliani et al., 2021)
Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases	serum EVs	AD (n=53) PD (n=50) control subjects (n=62)	↓ (AD)	- Downregulated in AD vs. controls - Upregulated in PD vs. AD	(Burgos et al., 2014)
Parkinson's disease	plasma	newly diagnosed and treatment-naïve PD (n=25) healthy controls (n=25)	↓		(Chen et al., 2018)
Alzheimer's disease and other neurodegenerative disorders	CSF	AD (n=10) Vascular dementia (n=4) frontotemporal dementia (n=2) dementia with Lewy bodies (n=2)	N/A	Downregulated in AD vs. other neurodegenerative disorders	(Sorensen et al., 2016)
Age-related macular degeneration (AMD)	serum	AMD (150 wet form, n=150 and dry form, n=150) controls (n=200)	↑	No difference between AMD forms	(Szemraj et al., 2015)
Parkinson's disease	blood	PD (n=15) controls (n=15)	↑		(Fu et al., 2017)
Age-related macular degeneration (AMD)	plasma	AMD (n=33) controls (n=31)	↑		(Ertekin et al., 2014)

FIGURE LEGEND

Figure 1. MiR-146a and miR-21 molecular targets in canonical and non-canonical pathways of NF- κ B activation. In the canonical pathway, NF- κ B activation is induced through the IKK (α and β subunits)-mediated phosphorylation of the inhibitory molecule I κ B (I κ B α , I κ B β and I κ B γ), which in non-stimulated cells retains the NF- κ B dimers in the cytoplasm. IKK-mediated phosphorylation of I κ B α and the subsequent ubiquitin-dependent degradation by the 26S proteasome complex is needed to allow translocation of the hetero-dimeric p65(RelA)-p50 (derived from NF- κ B1-p105) complex into the nucleus, driving the expression of responsive pro-inflammatory genes (Karin and Ben-Neriah, 2000) and miR-146a and miR-21-5p which act as endogenous negative feedback inhibitors. Notably, NF- κ B1 (p105) is constitutively processed to p50 (Moorthy et al., 2006). In the non-canonical activation, NF- κ B inducing kinase (NIK) activated by the TNF receptor-associated factor 3 (TRAF3) activates IKK α (two α subunits) which phosphorylates NF- κ B2 (p100), so that it can be processed to the mature form p52. This allows for the assembly of the heterodimer RelB/p52(derived from NF- κ B2) which can translocate into the nucleus to activate responsive genes (Scheidereit, 2006; Senftleben et al., 2001). Therefore, the activation of non canonical pathway is I κ B-independent and requires active protein synthesis.

A20, tumor necrosis factor alpha-induced protein 3; Akt; protein kinase B; BAFFR, B-cell activating factor; BCR, B-cell receptor; C/EBP β , CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein beta; CLIC4, chloride intracellular channel protein 4; LTBR, lymphotoxin beta receptor; NIK, NF- κ B inducing kinase; NLRP3, NLR family pyrin domain containing 3; PDCD4, programmed cell death protein 4; PTEN phosphatase and tensin homolog; RANK, receptor activator of NF- κ B; TCR, T-cell receptor; TLR, toll-like receptor; TNFR, tumor necrosis factor receptor; TRIF, TIR-domain-containing adapter-inducing interferon- β .

