REVIEW ARTICLE

MicroRNAs and target molecules in bladder cancer

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Abstract

Bladder cancer (BC) is considered as one of the most common malignant tumors in humans with complex pathogenesis including gene expression variation, protein degradation, and changes in signaling pathways. Many studies on involved miRNAs in BC have demonstrated that they could be used as potential biomarkers in the prognosis, response to treatment, and screening before the cancerous phenotype onset. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) regulate many cellular processes through their diferent efects on special targets along with modifying signaling pathways, apoptosis, cell growth, and diferentiation. The diverse expression of miRNAs in cancerous tissues could mediate procedures leading to the oncogenic or suppressor behavior of certain genes in cancer cells. Since a specifc miRNA may have multiple targets, an mRNA could also be regulated by multiple miRNAs which further demonstrates the actual role of miRNAs in cancer. In addition, miRNAs can be utilized as biomarkers in some cancers that cannot be screened in the early stages. Hence, fnding blood, urine, or tissue miRNA biomarkers by novel or routine gene expression method could be an essential step in the prognosis and control of cancer. In the present review, we have thoroughly evaluated the recent findings on different miRNAs in BC which can provide comprehensive information on better understanding the role of diverse miRNAs and better decision making regarding the new approaches in the diagnosis, prognosis, prevention, and treatment of BC.

Keywords miRNA · Bladder cancer · Cancer · Biomarker

Introduction

Bladder cancer (BC) is the most common urological malignancy and a major tumor in the urinary tract with a high risk of mortality [\[1](#page-27-0)]. In 2018, approximately 80,000 new cancers/ year were diagnosed in the United States and about 17,000

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patients/year died due to BC. The incidence and mortality rate of bladder cancer in men is four times higher than women. In addition, global cancer statistics have stated that bladder cancer causes 130,000 deaths annually [\[2](#page-27-1)]. Despite the advances made in many therapeutic approaches such as surgery, chemotherapy, and immunotherapy, the rate of

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relapse and progression remains within 5 years, the risk of metastasis is high and the prognosis is poor [[3–](#page-27-2)[5\]](#page-27-3). Recently, emerging biophysical methods have accelerated the process of identifying the mechanisms involved in the development of bladder cancer at the molecular level. Moreover, several studies have already shown and approved the correlation between microRNAs (miRNA/miR) and the pathogenesis of cancer, including bladder cancer [[6](#page-27-4), [7\]](#page-27-5). MicroRNAs are evolving between distinct species, and to date 38,589, miRNA molecules have been identifed in 271 species [\[8](#page-27-6)]. A map of microRNA genes includes approximately 1% of the genome of different species, yet each of them has hundreds of target genes and about 30% of the encoding genes are regulated by microRNAs [[9\]](#page-27-7). The miRNA biogenesis in mammals involves multiple stages which are summarized in Fig. [1.](#page-1-0)

miRNA clusters are small endogenous non-coding RNAs comprised of about 19–24 nucleotides that regulate the target genes after transcription [\[10](#page-27-8)–[12\]](#page-27-9). miRNAs play a key role in the growth, differentiation, metastasis, and apoptosis of tumor cells $[13]$ $[13]$ $[13]$. Studies have shown that miRNAs are involved in the development of several types of cancer including hepatic, gastric, and bladder cancer and gliomas in which miRNAs act as central regulators to gene expression [[14,](#page-27-11) [15\]](#page-27-12). Regarding the importance of microRNAs in the pathogenesis and control of bladder cancer, further studies are anticipated focusing on the controlling role of microR-NAs in carcinogenesis and the progression of bladder cancer.

Cellular function of microRNAs

The primary role of miRNAs is the suppression of mRNAs and afecting the translation pathway. miRNAs can fully bond to their target on the mRNA and cut in a paired area with 10–11 nucleotides. This incision causes the mRNA endonucleotide to become more susceptible to exo-nucleotide attacks. In most cases of animal cells, miRNAs are incompletely bonded to the targets; thus, miRNA increases through accelerating the removal of the poly-A tail. Along with de-adenylating, the protein bonded poly-A tail loses its function which accelerates the removal of the 5′cap; the

Fig. 1 The schematic pattern of the different steps of miRNAs production in the nucleus and cytoplasm. First, in the nucleus, PrimiRNAs are produced by RNA Polymerase II and then processed to pre-miRNAs by Drosha endonuclease. Second, in the cytoplasm the

transferred pre-miRNAs convert to mature microRNAs trough the Dicer enzyme. Then mature microRNAs are transferred to the RISC complex and bind to their complementary sequences in the target mRNA to inhibit translation or degradation

mRNA is thus exposed to digest exo-nucleotides from the end of 5'. Moreover, it has been indicated that under certain conditions, miRNAs can stimulate translation, but the mechanism has not yet been precisely determined [[9,](#page-27-7) [16\]](#page-27-13).

Role of microRNAs in cancer

Given that microRNAs play a major role in cell proliferation, apoptosis, cell development, and cell diferentiation, they are also noticeably detectable in the shift or control of cancers. Cancers afect so many well-known microRNAs, and in human chromosomes, many miRNAs were found to be connected to carcinogens. Approximately 52.5% of human genes are located in the chromosomal locus that is involved in human cancers [\[17](#page-27-14)]. For the frst time, the importance of miRNA in cancer was diagnosed with chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL) [[18\]](#page-27-15). miRNAs have two diferent roles in a pre-cancerous condition; In the first role, the high expression of one miRNA for any reason decreases the expression of the target gene resulting in a suppressor role; as an example, miR-21 decreases PECD1 and PTEN leading to reduced apoptosis and increased cellular growth [\[19](#page-27-16)]. In the second role, the low expression of one miRNA, for any reason, increases the target gene expression which acts as an oncogene, such as let-7 which increases the amount of RAS leading to increased cell proliferation [\[20](#page-27-17), [21](#page-27-18)].

Pharmacogenomics of miRNAs in bladder cancer (diverse response to drug therapy)

Common medicines in bladder cancer have shown different responses in patients. Due to some cases of drug resistance and toxicity in afected individuals, alternative dosage/ prescription utilization has been recommended for various patients with bladder malignancies. Pharmacogenomic studies have indicated that part of the diferences in cancer treatment results arise from the interaction between drugs and miRNAs with specifc types of polymorphism in their pre/mature sequences or related genes, generally known as miRSNPs. For example, rs1045385 $A > C$ in AP-2 α gene is associated with increased cisplatin sensitivity through direct interaction between miR-200 families and their target site in bladder cancer patients [[22](#page-27-19)]. Such drug – miR interactions, could be considered as the inhibitor or stimulator of cancerrelated miRNAs in cells, causing different trends of cell proliferation and/or apoptosis in cancer development. However, applying this approach requires the background knowledge of the potential altered genotype landscape of miRNAs and related target genes in diferent people and also advanced technologies for dealing with targeting miRNA activities inside cells, both in general and particular directions. Untargeted sequencing platforms like Sanger and RNA-Seq are employed for miRNA identification and profiling in different individuals [[23\]](#page-27-20). Examples of miRNA targeting drugs include the usage of Bevacizumab and some of intercalator medicines resulting in DROSHA, DICER, AGO2, etc. level alteration as the general modification of miRNA expression. Drugs with potential effect on bladder cancer normally involve miRNAs like Tretinoin and 5-Fluorouracil as miR-200 expression modifer and miR-96 expression inhibitor [[24](#page-27-21)[–26\]](#page-27-22). Furthermore, the variants in miRNAs, miRNA target genes, drug metabolizing enzyme genes, and drug transporter genes will affect the treatment safety and efficacy in different bladder cancer patients. Moreover, miRNA pharmacogenetics and miRNA drug-dedicated databases could be utilized in fnding drugs with a certain impact on specifc types of miRNAs (Pharmaco-miR and SM2miR) [\[27](#page-27-23), [28](#page-27-24)].

Molecular targets of microRNAs in bladder cancer

Studies have shown that miR expression is associated with bladder cancer besides regulating different tumoral pathways. miR studies in different stages and grades of bladder cancer have been performed and compared with each other [[29](#page-27-25)]. These studies have reported and approved the diferent expressions and functions of distinct miRs on target molecules. As a result, it is possible to say that there is a complex network of emerging interactions demonstrating the new factors in gene modulation in the pathogenesis of bladder cancer $[30]$ $[30]$. Various studies have shown that the irregular expression of miRNAs can act as an oncogenic miRNA (onco-miRNAs) or suppressor miRNA (TS-miRNAs) in bladder cancer [[31](#page-27-27)]. Since miRNA can play a role in the onset, survival, and invasion of the tumor, many researchers have focused on the miRNAs' targeting genes expressed in bladder cancer compared to bladder epithelium [\[32](#page-27-28)].

MiR-1 acts as a tumor suppressor by controlling oncogenic TAGLN2 (Transgelin peptide) in BC. MiR-1 transfection along with TAGLN2 knockdown can lead to reduction in bladder cancer cell survival and induction of apoptosis. Other studies have also shown that the loss of HuR/HOTAIR (HOX Transcript Antisense RNA) in bladder cancer prevents cell proliferation, migration, invasion, and apoptosis stimulation. HOTAIR is known to be a potential target for miR-1 in BC cells [[30,](#page-27-26) [32](#page-27-28)–[34\]](#page-28-0). In miR-9 studies on bladder cancer, CDH-1 (Cadherin 1), GSK-3β (Glycogen synthase kinase 3), and LASS2 (Longevity assurance homolog 2) have been more important. MiR-9 can target the CDH-1 gene and alter the expression of E-cadherin which facilitates tumor metastasis; MiR-9 inhibition can enhance the expression of GSK-3β, inhibit bladder cancer proliferation, and facilitate

apoptosis. In addition, miR-9 promotes BC chemoresistance by targeting LASS2 [[34](#page-28-0)[–36](#page-28-1)].

MiR-16 also plays a main role in bladder cancer by targeting CCND1 and COX-2. Elevated levels of COX-2 expression could promote cancer cell growth and the invasion of bladder cancer cells. Therefore, the administration of COX-2 inhibitors is a selective approach in the treatment of bladder cancer. Stimulating the expression of miR-16 leads to decreased COX-2 expression levels. Moreover, Cyclin D1 has a regulatory role in cell proliferation, and the non-coding microRNAs function is related to modulation of cyclin D1. Several studies have shown that miR-16 can target bladder cancer cell lines by targeting Cyclin D1. These data suggest that miR-16 plays an important role in regulating the proliferation of bladder cancer cells and acts as a tumor suppressor [[32,](#page-27-28) [36–](#page-28-1)[39\]](#page-28-2). Various studies on MiR-24 have shown that the function of MiR-24-1-FOXM1 axis is related to the proliferation of cancer cells in BC, and downstream signaling could cause unknown molecular mechanisms in BC oncogenesis. MiR-24 affects the downregulation of CARMA3 leading to the inhibition of cell invasion, proliferation, and EMT in bladder cancer cells. MiR-24-3p improves bladder cancer through the inhibition of DEDD [\[32](#page-27-28), [40](#page-28-3)].

Nevertheless, miR-101, as an important MircroRNA in bladder cancer, also has diferent target molecules. Several studies have shown that the reduction of miR-101 concentration is associated with bladder cancer progression; in fact, miR-101 can inhibit the invasion and migration of BC cells through FZD4 targeting. Another target molecule for miR-101 is EZH2 (Enhancer of Zeste Homolog 2) which causes the gene to be muted through H3 (histone 3) in K27 (lysine 27). The high expression of EZH2 in cancer is related with the downregulation of miR-101 that promotes cell proliferation and shift from the G-phase to S-phase in bladder cancer cells. MiR-101 could also suppress VEGF-C expression and increase cell invasion and migration. MiR-101 is a novel suppressor of T24 cell invasion and migration due to its negative modulation effect on c-Met. COX-2 expression is modulated by the miR-101 function, whereas on the other hand, bladder cell resistance to cisplatin is modulated through targeting COX-2 expression. Expression of miR-101 in BC by targeting the products of the FGFR3 gene afects cell proliferation, diferentiation and apoptosis. In addition, miR-101 could directly target c-FOS and decrease the invasion and proliferation of BC cells [\[41](#page-28-4)[–48](#page-28-5)].

Considering the role of miR-129 in bladder cancer, it could suppress SOX4 and GALNT1 as a tumor suppressor. SOX4 is an important regulator of bladder cancer stem cells and can be used as a biomarker in the aggressive form of bladder cancer. MiR-129 potentially targets MDM4 genes, the main negative regulator of p53, which affects its signaling. MiR-129 also has an effect on PKC that promotes stimulation of NF-κB activation and leads to cellular resistance

to apoptosis, thus increasing the tumorigenicity of bladder cancer. MiR-129 could also afect Protein Receptor 2 (Grb2) as an adapter, which is widely expressed in many tissues and is essential for the development of embryos and multicellular functions. Amplifcation of Grb2 protein plays an important role in the carcinogenesis of human bladder cancer. A novel study showed that transfection of miR-129 precursor in the T24 and SW780 bladder carcinoma cells significantly prevents growth and apoptosis induction [\[49](#page-28-6)[–56\]](#page-28-7).

MiR-145, as a tumor-suppressive factor, enables the direct regulation of oncogenic FSCN-1 in BC. MiR-145 indirectly regulates the pathway of Akt with targeting integrase linkage kinase (ILK); it is synergistically inhibited by cell growth in bladder cancer cells. In addition, miR-145 suppresses bladder cancer cells through targeting PAK1. Replacement of miR-145 can be an efective method for inhibiting PAK1 growth and treating tumors in bladder cancer. Excessive expression of SOCS proteins in various cells can inhibit signaling by a wide variety of cytokines. MiR-145 contributes to an increase in IFN-β cells via the SOCS7 injection leading to the transfer of the STAT3 nucleus, while SOCS7 stimulates the growth of bladder cancer cells via stimulating the PI3K/Akt signaling pathway. Insulin-growth factor receptor (IGF-IR) is a proto-oncogene with mitogenesis and antiapoptotic activity. MiR-145 stimulates cell apoptosis and prevents cell proliferation and migration by suppressing IGF-IR expression. It can also inhibit the onset of bladder cancer by afecting the IGF-IR signaling. MiR-145 silences KLF4 in bladder cancer cells and disrupts the Warburg effect by suppressing the path of KLF4 / PTBP1 /PKMs and inhibiting cell growth. In addition, miR-145 plays an important role in BC cells by adjusting UHRF1, which its expression may be regarded as a prognostic marker for the survival of patients with BC. MiR-145 is a new, strong, and direct target gene for HIF which can increase apoptosis in NMI BC cells. STAT3 expression and activation status are related to the human BC cells' response to miR-145 and its growth by modulating FOXO1 expression. Identifying the new molecular pathways and goals set by the miR-145 / UHRF1 axis may lead to a better understanding of progression and aggression in BC [[57–](#page-28-8)[66\]](#page-28-9).

MiRNA-34a also acts as a tumor suppressor gene in vari– ous types of cancer. In bladder cancer, miR-34a prevents cancer cells proliferation, migration, and invasion through several pathways. MiR-34a, as a tumor suppressor in bladder cancer, directly targets CD44, which can effectively prevent related metastasis. MiR-34a can prevent the survival, colonization, and invasion of tumor cells by reducing the expression of HNF4G. MiR-34a also affects Notch1 signaling, which inhibits cell migration and invasion. The renewal of miR-34a expression in cancer cells caused by aging is at least partly due to the targeting of CDK6. The higher concentration of miR-34a results in excessive expression of GOLPH3, a target gene for miR-34a, and the miR-34a/ GOLPH3 axis plays an important role in cancer stem-like cells (CSCs), which considered as a therapeutic approach in the treatment of drug-resistant UBC (urothelial bladder cancer). MiR-34a directly regulates the TCF1/LEF1 axis, which is involved in bladder cancer metastasis and chemoresistance; the modulation of miR-34a and TCF1/LEF1 axis may serve as a new strategy for treating drug-resistant BC with increased chemical sensitivity. In another study, miR-34a, as a suppressor for miRNA, afected the miR-34a/ TCF1/LEF1 axis and played a major role in the survival of BC cells. Therefore, the miR-34a/TCF1/LEF1 axis is a suitable candidate for treating drug-resistant BC through special targeting and increased chemosensitivity [[67–](#page-28-10)[70\]](#page-29-0). The role of other microRNAs in bladder cancer and their main functions are addressed in Table [1.](#page-5-0)

Use of microRNA in bio‑fuid to screen bladder cancer

The special properties and sensitivity of miRNAs as biological markers could be applied in cancer screening and diagnosis. For example, recent technology has developed a method for detecting miRNAs in the urine aimed at earlier screening of bladder cancer. Therefore, the clinical diagnosis and blad‑ der cancer prediction through body fuids such as urine and blood can be a major step in this respect [[78\]](#page-29-1). Body fuids, as a source of miRNAs and miRNAs, are very important for the early diagnosis of bladder cancer. Any change in the level of miRNAs in urine and blood further proves their role as novel biochemical markers for bladder cancer diagnosis [[79\]](#page-29-2). In 2010, Hank et al. published the frst report on miRNAs in urine specimens, as a diagnostic marker for bladder cancer. Therefore today, the existence of miRNAs in biological fluids is considered as an important biological marker with a high sensitivity and specificity [[80](#page-29-3)]. Regarding the various challenges ahead, more accurate and sensitive technological methodology is still required to focus on detecting circulating miRNAs as vital biomarkers in the diagnosis, categorization, and treatment of bladder cancer [\[78](#page-29-1)].

MicroRNAs in blood, urine, and tissues

Herein, we have investigated the studies focusing on vari– ations in general microRNAs or specific microRNAs expression [[81\]](#page-29-4). The latest and most important microRNAs expression variations in bladder cancer and the diferences of altered microRNAs in biological samples along with the target molecules of the microRNAs are presented in Table [2.](#page-7-0) Accordingly, it can be concluded that the profles of cancerrelated microRNAs expression in tumor samples, urine, and blood samples of bladder cancer patients are signifcantly diferent compared to healthy individuals.

miRNA expression difers among blood, urine, and tissue samples, whereas most studies on bladder cancer are mainly based on tissue samples [\[81](#page-29-4)]. In this paper, for the frst time, we have studied the main role of each miRNA separately in blood, urine, and cancerous tissue; these roles could be useful as a prognostic, diagnostic, or therapeutic tool in bladder cancer (Table [2](#page-7-0)).

microRNAs as diagnostic, prognostic, and therapeutic markers in bladder cancer

Screening

miRNAs in biological samples can provide valuable information regarding the oncogenesis of bladder cancer. Therefore, the usage of miRNA-based screening methods will gradually become a standardized approach in clinical diagnosis as an integral part of medical research. The development of new methods in recent years, enabling the measure– ment of small numbers of miRNAs, has provided a potential that could be used in screening for biomarkers.

Diagnosis

The diagnosis and follow-up of bladder cancer in afected patients depend on urine cytology and cystoscopy. Urine cytology with a high specificity (90–95%) is a reliable method for the diagnosis of bladder cancer. Many studies have shown that miRNAs are a new class of cancer diagnostic markers, with a mean sensitivity and specifcity of about 70 and 80%, respectively, indicating that microRNAs can serve as useful diagnostic markers.

Prognosis

Some miRNAs could potentially be considered as biological markers in the prognosis of bladder cancer. Many studies have shown the role of microRNAs as prognostic markers, and diferent miRNAs have a role in the prognosis of bladder cancer; miR-200, miR-145, and miR-214 are all important prognostic parameters for this type of cancer.

Treatment

In the recent years, many studies have shown that microR-NAs are afected during the development of bladder cancer and have suggested that some of them could be used as a potential therapeutic target for BC. Their results have shown that miRNAs targeting plays a signifcant role in the proliferation, migration, apoptosis, and invasion of bladder

1'S tumor suppressor, *EMT* epithelial-mesenchymal transition *TS* tumor suppressor, *EMT* epithelial-mesenchymal transition

Table 2 (continued)

cancer cells, and therefore, miRNAs can serve as novel targets in bladder cancer treatment.

The most comprehensive list of miRNAs and their target molecules that have been explicitly expressed in bladder cancer are displayed in Table [2.](#page-7-0) These molecules can be used as potential biomarkers in the diagnosis, prognosis, and development of new treatment strategies for bladder cancer.

Among all microRNAs, only miR-1, miR-99a, miR-100, and miR-143 have shown reduced expression in all tissues, blood, and urine samples. In contrast, only miR-21 and miR-210 levels have demonstrated increased expression in all three samples. However, in order to generalize these results, further studies on blood and urine samples of bladder cancer patients are required.

Expression of microRNAs, regulation in bladder cancer, target genes, and proposed mechanisms

The downregulation and upregulation of miRNAs have been reported in diferent studies. Furthermore, it has been shown that miRNAs regulate the expression of the target genes [[31\]](#page-27-27). Downregulation of some miRNAs and their effect on certain targets have also been investigated in bladder cancer; they include miR-1, miR-99a, miR-100, miR-143, and the miR-200 family. The upregulation of some miRNAs in bladder cancer such as miR-21 and miR-210 was also identifed. These miRNAs play a role in several cellular processes such as cell cycle growth, apoptosis, cell death programs, and signaling pathways in the downstream of cancer cells. To date, numerous miRNAs have been recognized that are responsible in the progression and metastasis of bladder cancer cells. In the current study, we have investigated several specifc cases and the role of microRNAs [\[32](#page-27-28)]. Studies have shown that the expression of miR-143 in bladder cancer is low and this low expression regulates the expression of RAS in this type of cancer. Some miRNAs such as miR-133a, miR-30-3p, and miR-199a are involved in the regula‑ tion of bladder cancer growth by regulating CRT7 activity [\[148–](#page-31-6)[152\]](#page-31-7).

miRNAs which afect the physiological activity of the cell (migration, invasion, proliferation, and survival) as a tumor suppressor include miR-106a, miR-223, and miR-613, respectively, which induce their efects by regulating MAPKs, NCOA1, and SPHK1. In addition, oncogenes such as miR-130, miR-200c, and miR-556, which imply their effect by regulating PTEN, RECK, and DAB2IP, respectively, play an important role in bladder cancer [[153](#page-31-8)[–155](#page-31-9)]. MiR-124-3p decreases the migration and progression of bladder cancer cells by targeting Rho-linked protein kinase 1 (ROCK1). Moreover, miR-124 has suppressive efects on cellular growth and angiogenesis of bladder cancer by targeting ubiquitin-like, containing PHD and UHRF1 [\[156](#page-31-10), [157](#page-31-11)]. Furthermore, miR-124 inhibits the growth of bladder cancer by its direct efect on Cyclin D Kinase (CDK-4) [[120\]](#page-30-13). MiR-409-3p, through targeting c-Met, decreases cell migration and progression in bladder cancer, [\[158\]](#page-31-12) and miR-150-5p, as a tumor promoter, acts by reducing the chemical properties and increasing invasion in bladder cancer by targeting PDCD4 [[159,](#page-31-13) [160](#page-31-14)].

Regarding previous studies, the downregulation of MIC-1 expression is signifcantly induced or enhanced in bladder cancer. This microRNA directly regulates the expression of the transgelin-2 protein (located on q21—1q25/exon 7) [\[59](#page-28-12), [161](#page-31-15)]. In recent years, the new MS-LC method has been used to extract the transgelin protein from bladder tumoral tissue indicating that transgelin is a useful biomarker for the diagnosis and evaluation of metastatic lymph nodes in patients afected by bladder cancer. A sevenfold increase in the expression of transgelin was reported in the BC tissue compared to the control group; immunohistochemistry studies also indicated a positive association between TAGLN 2 expression and tumor grade in clinical samples of bladder cancer [[162](#page-31-16)]. It has been reported that MIC-1 in bladder cancer acts via suppressing TAGLN 2 [[83\]](#page-29-11).

Recently, two microRNAs, 145 and 133a, have been identifed with a tumor suppressor role in bladder cancer. MicroRNA-133a, like mic-1, involves the regulation of transgelin and miR-145 plays a vital role in the regulation of the FSCN-1 protein. Actin-binding proteins play a crucial role in the integrity of intercellular connections and increase their motions. The high expression of this gene may have a part in bladder cancer metastasis by increasing cellular movements; it is believed that the Fscn-1 gene probably has an oncogenic role in the development of bladder cancer [\[163](#page-31-17)]. Therefore, considering the direct inhibitory role of FSCN-1 in BC through viral vectors of microRNA, it can be expected to inhibit this type of cancer. In addition, miR-145 infuences the PAK1 gene expression in bladder cancer which itself contributes to the progression and invasion of BC [\[129](#page-30-22)]. Mir-143 has also been evaluated in various studies revealing an interaction between 3′ UTR in the RAS-K gene and miR-143. RAS is considered an oncogene in tumors, and RAS gene regulation is done by using miR-143. These fndings indicate that miR-143 may have a regulatory role on the level of RAS following translation [[117](#page-30-10), [164\]](#page-31-18). Furthermore, miR-195 has a suppressor role in different malignant tumors including bladder cancer, but its precise function has not yet been fully understood. Incremental regulation of miR-195 with repressing cdc42 and possibly through the activation of the Stat3 pathway inhibits cancerous cell proliferation in bladder cancer. In addition, increased cdc42 level can reduce the inhibitory effect of miR-195; therefore, miR-195, through direct targeting of the cdc42/stat3 pathway, reduces bladder cancer cells proliferation [[135,](#page-30-27) [165\]](#page-31-19).

Several studies have been conducted on diferent types of microRNAs used in the prognosis and treatment of bladder cancer. Accordingly, Table [3](#page-10-0) presents a comprehensive database of the approved microRNAs and their mechanism in bladder cancer. In summary, these information could be used to diagnose the diferent microRNAs in order to better understand the pathophysiology of BC leading to its better control and treatment.

Conclusion

In conclusion, with respect to the aforementioned comprehensive information on the role and function of microRNAs in bladder cancer, the integrated analysis of BC is recommended for better treatment results. In the present study, the latest and most complete changes in miRNAs expression in bladder cancer were thoroughly reviewed. The contradictory results proved the need for more precise and systematic tests for this purpose. Our findings also provide useful information on the role and impact of miRNAs in bladder cancer for future studies, developing better strategies for the prognosis, diagnosis, and more promising treatments outcomes in bladder cancer. Better understanding of the mechanisms of action, signaling cascades and target molecules will allow us to develop efective drugs in the treatment and prevention of disease. In addition, early detection of miRNAs enables us to develop new screening and laboratory tests for healthy individuals.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare no competing fnancial and non-fnancial interests.

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