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RUNX2 associated long non-coding **RNA** characterization

Caratterizzazione di long non-coding RNA associati a RUNX2

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ABSTRACT

RUNX2 is a lineage-specific transcription factor (TF) known to promote cancer progression. However, the molecular mechanisms that control RUNX2 expression in cancer remain widely unknown. Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) are a novel class of transcripts that do not code for proteins and are often engaged in gene expression regulation.

Using the ENCODE annotation data, we identified a previously uncharacterized family of lncRNAs within the RUNX2 locus, that we named RAIN (RUNX2 Associated Intergenic Non-coding RNA). We showed that RAIN comprises 4 major variants that share a common central region but differ at the 5'- and 3'ends. The longest isoform (I-RAIN) is nuclear and strongly associated with chromatin, suggesting a role of RAIN in gene expression regulation. Expression analysis in cancer cell lines and patient samples demonstrated that RAIN correlates with RUNX2. Furthermore, RAIN silencing resulted in a significant RUNX2 repression demonstrating that this lncRNA is required for the expression of this TF in cancer. We showed that RAIN promotes RUNX2 expression at least through two distinct mechanisms. Interacting with WDR5 and directing its recruitment to the RUNX2-P2 promoter, RAIN modifies its transcriptional activation status, bursting transcription initiation. In parallel, RAIN sequesters NELFe preventing the binding of the NELF complex to the RUNX2 P2 promoter and restraining its inhibitory function on nascent transcripts elongation. Finally, we investigated the RAIN associated transcriptional profile in thyroid cancer showing that beside RUNX2, this IncRNA controls a panel of cancer associated TFs. Overall, our data characterize the function of a novel lncRNA and identify an additional layer in the complex of RUNX2 regulation in cancer.

INTRODUCTION

RUNX family

The Runt-related transcription factors (RUNX) belong to a family of metazoan transcription factors essential during development. The *Runt* gene was first identified in *Drosophila* melanogaster [1] as a transcription factor important for the development of the limbs, eye and antennae. In mammals, there are three proteins belonging to this family: RUNX1, also known as CBFA2 (Core-Binding Factor subunit α -2), AML1 (Acute Myeloid Leukemia 1) and Pebp2 α b (Polyomavirus Enhancer Binding Protein 2 subunit α b); RUNX2, also known as CBFA1, AML3 and Pebp2 α a; RUNX3, also known as CBFA3, AML2 and Pebp2 α c. In human, these genes localized on 21q22.12, 6p21.1 and 1p36.11, respectively [2-4].

The three RUNX genes share a common gene organization and a common protein structure likely since they arise from single gene duplications and functional diversification. In particular, they share a highly conserved Runt domain. This is a DNA binding domain of 128 aminoacids that recognizes a specific DNA sequence PyGPyGGTPy (Py=pyrimidin) and is essential for RUNX heterodimerization with the transcriptional co-activator CBF β (Core-Binding Factor β)/PEBP2 β (Polyomavirus Enhancer Binding Protein 2 β) [5]. All RUNX factors have two alternative transcriptional starting sites, within two different promoters: the distal P1 promoter and the proximal P2 promoter. These promoters are selectively activated during development and give rise to two alternative proteins with different N-terminal. In addition, the RUNX factors share a carboxyl terminus (VWRPY) and present several activation domains (AD) and inhibitory domains (ID) that can interact with other transcription factors either with activatory or inhibitory functions [6;7] (Fig.1) (reviewed in [8]).



Figure 1 The RUNX family structure RUNX genes have two promoters (P1 and P2), a common RUNT homology domain, activation and inhibition domain (AD/ID) and a VWRPY (Valine-Tryptophan-Arginine-Proline-Tyrosine) domain.

For example, the RUNX2 AD/ID domain has been shown to interact with transcription promoting factors including YAP (Yes-Associated Protein) [9], HES-1 (Enhancer of Split-1) [10], MOZ (Monocytic leukemia Zinc finger) and MORF (MOZ-Related Factor) [11], or with repressor factors like HDAC6 (Histone Deacetylase 6) [12] and TLE (Transducin Like Enhancer Of Split 1) [13].



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Figure 2 The RUNX family interaction landscape The RUNX family can interact with different targets belonging to several pathways; these can be functionally redundant and can impact on distinct transcriptional programs to regulate cell development, differentiation and proliferation. These pathways can be deregulated in cancer, promoting tumor aggressiveness and metastatization (Image from [23]).

In some cases, changes in one of the RUNX factor may alter the levels of the others. For example, in B cells RUNX1 and RUNX3 are inversely correlated [2]. As well an inverse correlation between RUNX2 and RUNX1 has been observed during skeletal development [24], while in breast cancer RUNX1 is inversely related to RUNX2 and RUNX3 [25].

RUNX2

The human RUNX2 gene stretches 227.766 nucleotides on chromosome 6p21.1 and the most represented splicing isoform consists of 8 exons. As all RUNX genes, it presents two major isoforms, starting from the two different promoters: the RUNX2 I-type (also called mesenchymal) is transcribed from the proximal P2 promoter and it originates a 507 aminoacids protein, while the RUNX2 II-type (also known as osteoblastic) starts from P1 and is translated in a 521 aminoacids protein [26]. These promoters are separately activated during different developmental processes and are able to generate two different proteins with different amino-termini: MASNS (Methionine-Alanine-Serine-Asparagine-Serine) and MRIPV (Methionine-Arginine-Isoleucine-Proline-Valine), respectively. In addition, both RUNX2 isoforms present a QA-rich (glutamine-arginine) domain, a NLS (Nuclear Localization Signal) and a NMTS (Nuclear Matrix Targeting Signal) [27-28] (Fig.3).



Figure 3 RUNX2 structure The two RUNX2 isoforms share common domains to the other RUNX family members (RUNT domain, AD/ID and VWRPY motif) but present also peculiar domains. P1-isoform II present a MASNS motif at N-terminus, while the P2-isoform I have one less exon than RUNX2-II and have a MRIPV motif at N-terminus. The two RUNX2 isoforms also share common domains: QA-rich motif, NLS and NMTS

The expression of the two RUNX2 isoforms is finely regulated and highly dependent on the activity of the two promoters. The P1-derived isoform is mainly expressed throughout the entire bone morphogenetic process, from osteoblast precursors to mature osteoblasts and terminal differentiated chondrocytes, while the P2-derived isoform is more widely expressed. Its expression is enriched in early precursor of chondrocytes and osteoblasts [29] but also in non-osseous tissues, such as thyroid, breast, prostate and lung. Within the RUNX2 promoter sequence, there are several RUNX consensus binding sites implying that *runx* proteins are able to cross-regulate themselves and the other RUNX paralogues [8; 30-32].

RUNX2 expression is tightly regulated by different signaling pathways.

A critical role in maintaining bone mass and in promoting osteoblast differentiation is played by the WNT (Wingless-type MMTV integration site)/LRP5 (low-density lipoprotein receptor related protein5)/ β -catenin pathway [33-34]. Activation of the canonical WNT signaling lead to multiple events that induce TCF1 (T-cell factor 1) expression and the translocation of β -

catenin into the nucleus where it forms a complex with TCF1 on the RUNX2 promoter for its induction [35].

BMP2 (Bone Morphogenetic Protein 2) induces osteoblast differentiation and bone formation through ligation with its receptor and resulting Smad1/5/8 phosphorylation and generation of a nuclear complex with Smad4 that is able to activate RUNX2 gene [36]. A similar signaling cascade is activated by TGF β (Transforming Growth Factor β) [37]. On the other hand, TNF (Tumor Necrosis Factor) have a contrary effect on RUNX2 acting on MAPK (Mitogen-Activated Protein Kinase)/p38 signaling cascade leading to inhibition of osteoblast differentiation and to bone mass loosening [38-39].

RUNX2 is also regulated through post-transcriptional modifications, such as acetylation, sumoylation, phosphorylation and ubiquitination. RUNX2 phosphorylation is usually mediated by ERK (Extracellular signal–Regulated Kinases)/MAPK cascades in the nucleus and can lead to positive [40] or negative [41-42] regulation. Even ubiquitination of RUNX2 is able to regulate its activity both positively [43] and negatively [44].

Finally, RUNX2 is regulated post-transcriptionally by both miRNA (microRNA) and small non-coding RNAs. Different studies have linked diverse miRNAs to RUNX2 activity in normal and in tumor cells; for example, mir-30a [45] and miR-103a [46] inhibit osteolysis through RUNX2 down-regulation; miR-204/211 regulates RUNX2 promoting adipogenesis and inhibiting osteogenesis of mesenchymal progenitor cells [47].

RUNX2 and cancer

Several studies, including our [48], have linked the over-expression of RUNX2 to tumor development and progression. Isoform I, encoded by the P2 promoter,

is by far the most prominent (and in epithelial derived cancer the solely) RUNX2 expressed isoform, being associated with development of osteosarcoma [49-50], prostate cancer [51], melanoma [52], ovarian cancer [53] and thyroid cancer [48]. Furthermore, many scientific evidence associate RUNX2 expression to bone metastatization in breast and thyroid cancer through TGF β [54-55] and WNT pathways [35], in addition to estrogen signaling [56-57].

Cancer cells that metastasize to bone are able to activate a genetic pathway similar to the bone cells one, this phenomenon is called "osteomimcry" (reviewed in [58]). The ability of RUNX2 to promote bone metastasis is associated to the induction of bone-related genes (BRGs [59]) leading to bone-like phenotype of cancer cells. Bellahcène [60] and Kang [61] have previously demonstrated that breast cancer metastases present a specific gene signature, with the over-expression of BSP (Bone Sialoprotein), ALP (Alkaline Phosphatase), Col1A1 (Collagen 1 α 1) and OPN (Osteopontin) and other genes.

RUNX2 is also the master-regulator of several genes associated to matrix degradation and cells motility [62], such as MMP-13 (metalloproteinase-13) and OPN [63]. Furthermore, RUNX2 is able to promote tumor angiogenesis by regulating factors such as VEGF (Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor) [64] and MMP-9 [65]. Thanks to its ability to regulate all these target genes, RUNX2 has been associated with tumor progression. Furthermore, RUNX2 over-expression has been linked to epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) program, especially in breast and thyroid cancer [59; 66-67], which further underlines the contribution of RUNX2 to the acquisition of aggressive features and tumor progression. A previous study, in our lab, demonstrated that the expression of CDH6 is under the control of RUNX2 and correlates with EMT and invasion potential [55].

The oncogenic potential of RUNX2 has been also associated with the inhibition of p53 activity. Indeed, p53 is able to arrest cell cycle progression in G1/S and/or G2/M, if there is a repairable DNA damage, or to activate cells apoptosis if a severe DNA damage occurs [68-69]. Several studies have determined that RUNX2 inhibits apoptosis through Bcl-2 (B-cell lymphoma 2) induction [70] and neutralizing p53 [71] and p21 collaborating with HDAC6 [12;72].

Because of its role in cancer promotion, RUNX2 is a promising target for anticancer strategies. Indeed, we have recently shown that the cytotoxic effects of epigenetic drugs like HDAC and BET (Bromodomain and Extraterminal Domain) inhibitors (HDACi and BETi, respectively) [73-74] are associated with a profound reduction of RUNX2 expression. Thus, understanding the molecular mechanisms that drive RUNX2 expression in cancer is important not only to get insights into the processes that support cancer progression but also to develop better strategies to counteract the activity of this transcription factor in cancer.

Long non-coding RNAs (IncRNAs)

In recent years, increasing evidence indicate that the non-coding genome plays fundamental roles in the regulation of coding-genes. In particular, in 2003 the US National Human Genome Research Institute (NHGRI) launched the ENCODE (Encyclopedia of DNA Elements) project, which involves research groups worldwide. This project aims to characterize all functional elements in the human genome; in 2007 they published the first results of their analyses [75]. One of the most exciting and surprising observation has been the wide transcriptional activity of the non-coding genome. They identified many noncoding transcripts, comprising new regulatory elements and new transcription starting sites, overlapping protein-coding region and "silent" DNA region.

Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) are molecules longer than 200 nucleotides that do not encode for proteins [76-78]. These transcripts share the same transcriptional biogenesis as the mRNAs, being transcribed by the RNA polymerase II (RNA-Pol II) and containing exons. They also have 5' terminal methylguanosine cap and are frequently spliced and polyadenylated. By contrast, lncRNAs lack or have limited open reading frames (ORFs), are less expressed than mRNAs and display a higher tissue-specific expression pattern [79-80]. Furthermore, lncRNAs are poorly conserved during the evolution, even if they may present conserved secondary structures or short domains [81]. As for proteins, the identification of structurally conserved domains could represent a useful tool for the functional annotation and classification of these new molecules. However, differently from proteins, this seems to be a very difficult challenge for lncRNAs determined primarily by the high sequence heterogeneity and by the still limited information on their biological function. Several bioinformatic tools have been recently developed to identify potential domains able to mediate the functional interaction of lncRNAs with specific proteins. Some of them are derived from mRNA analyses, as MEMERIS (Multiple Em for Motif Elucitation in RNA's Including secondary Structures) [137], a tool that integrate information from sequence motif and secondary structure to unveil RNA binding proteins interaction, and GraphProt [138], a tool to unveil binding sites of RNA-interacting protein. Only a few software are specific for lncRNAs; one of them is based on the analyses of CLIP-seq data combined with RNA-seq and GWAS (Genome-Wide Association Study) data [139]. Nevertheless, the application of these tools is still limited and will surely be implemented when we will reach a more consistent knowledge on the lncRNAs' domains functionality. Anyway, implementing these tools to further characterized lncRNAs would be very useful and it would be of great interest to make these tools easier for not-bioinformatic researcher.

LncRNAs can be transcribed from different functional elements in the genome. Actually, diverse non-coding transcripts originate from enhancers, promoters or intron regions. Otherwise, lncRNA can be named on the basis of their genomic localization; in particular, they can be intergenic, it means they are between protein-coding genes or gene-associated. Moreover, in this case, lncRNAs can be transcribed either in sense or anti-sense relatively to their associated coding gene (Fig.4).



Figure 4 The multiplicity of lncRNAs in mammalian genome LncRNAs divided on the basis of their transcription site, the sense of the transcription and the post-transcriptional processes. Abbreviation: lincRNA (Large Intergenic Non-coding RNA), NAT (Natural Antisense Transcript), eRNA (enhancer RNA), PROMPT (Promoter Upstream Transcript), sno-lncRNA (lncRNA with Small Nucleolar RNA ends), ciRNA (Circular Intronic RNA), circRNA (Circular RNA) (Image from [82]).

LncRNAs are finely regulated at various levels: localization, chromatin state and post-transcriptional regulation works together to determine the cell-, tissuedevelopmental-, disease- state (reviewed in [83] and [84]). It is also known that lncRNAs are controlled at different levels of their genesis, maturation and degradation. Analysis of histone modification patterns have been largely used for the identification of active lncRNA-transcription sites. Similar to proteincoding genes, actively transcribed lncRNA loci are enriched in H3K4me3, H3K9ac, H3K27ac. LncRNAs are subjected to special post-transcriptional processing different from those of mRNA and similar to the one of tRNA (transfer RNA): RNase P is able to cleave the 3'-termini of some lncRNAs, such as MALAT1 (Metastasis-Associated Lung Adenocarcinoma Transcript 1) and NEAT1 (Nuclear-Enriched Abundant Transcript 1) to obtain mature lncRNA and to increase their stability [85]. One more mechanism include the stabilization of non-coding transcripts through the transcription of proteinintrons and the formation of sno-lncRNA: a lncRNA transcript, lacking 5'cap and polyadenylated, flanked by two snoRNAs (small nucleolar RNA).

Another mechanism of lncRNA post-transcriptional regulation, is the circularization of some RNAs (circRNAs) that can also have sponge-like features to retain miRNAs, as CDR1as (Cerebellar Degeneration-Related protein 1 Antisense) which is able to retain more than 70 miRNAs [86].

Classification of lncRNAs

The great effort in mapping functional elements within the genome lead to a massive annotation of novel lncRNAs, the majority of which are still functionally uncharacterized.

Now a day, the number of identified lncRNA exceeds 30.000. Their wide number and high expression specificity, qualify lncRNAs as promising biomarkers in different diseases. Many annotation databases have been recently developed representing precious tools for the study of lncRNA biology. Beside the ENCODE project, which results were pivotal for the comprehension of genomic function, other databases relevant in the field of lncRNAs are FANTOM (Functional Annotation of the mammalian genome), GTEx (Genotype-Tissue Expression) and GENCODE (Encyclopædia of genes and gene variants). The FANTOM project, started in 2000, allocates functional annotations to the full-length cDNAs first in mouse [87] and later in mammalian [88-89]. This consortium intent is to identify and characterize the non-coding genome elements in different cells types, revealing what genome portions are actively transcribed during the development phases and cells differentiation. In 2017, FANTOM5 (fifth phase of the project) also generated a comprehensive atlas of more than 27.000 lncRNAs, with independent cell-typespecific expression profiles, using a CAGE (5' Cap Analysis of Gene Expression) approach [90]. Moreover, also the GENCODE project keep on studying the human genome to integrate and expand human annotation from the ENCODE project [91], adding information on lncRNA expression, structure and function [79].

The massive amount of novel ncRNAs and their great variety make difficult their functional characterization, while their heterogeneity complicates their possible classification based on common features. Nevertheless, first attempts of classification for these molecules have been suggested. To simplify, noncoding RNAs have been firstly categorized by their size: short non-coding RNA (less than 200 base pairs in length), including transcripts as snoRNAs, tRNA, miRNA, siRNA (short/small interfering RNA); and long non-coding RNA (more than 200 base pairs in length), that includes, for example, lincRNAs, pseudogenes, ciRNAs and many others. Furthermore, lncRNAs have been stratified based on their genomic localization. These classifications are continuously updated, the categorization is not accepted worldwide, and the borders are flaky (Fig.5).

Category	Abbrevlation	Refs	Specific examples
Classification based on transcript length		1500.0003	Bel. Medistrite Contraction of Contr
Long noncoding BNA	IncBNA	[38.39]	
Long-Intergenic noncoding RNA; large intervening noncoding RNA, long-intervening noncoding RNA	lincRNA	[18]	ANRIL [117], H19 [147], HOTAIR [18], HOTTIP [148], lincRNA-p21 [149], XIST [150], Paupar [151]
Very long intergenic noncoding RNA	vlincRNA	[29]	HELLP transcript [42], Vlinc_21, vlinc_185, vlinc_377, vlinc_500 [29]
macroRNA		[28,152]	Airn, Gtl2lt, KCNQOT1, Lncat, Nespas (reviewed in [152]), STAIR1 [28]
Promoter-associated long RNA	PALR	[38]	
Classification based on association with annotated protein-coding ge	enes		
Intronic ncRNA; stable intronic sequence RNA; totally intronic RNA, partially intronic RNA	sisRNA, TIN, PIN	[49,50,54] additional references in the text	
Circular intronic RNAs	ciRNAs	[55]	
Sense ncRNA		[44]	
Natural antisense IncRNA	asRNA, NAT	[67]	BACE1-AS [153], aHIF [154], Tsix [155]
Mirror antisense		[44,67]	Globin antisense [67]
Exonic circular RNAs	ecircRNAs	1621	cANRIL [118]
Chimeric RNAs trans-spliced RNAs exon juxtanosition	-	[44.63-65]	
Stand slope mRNAs made from %UTRs	10 RNA	[60]	
Chromatia interligidan BNA	dRNA	[68]	
Transprintion start alte appreciated Philas	TCC: DNA:	(60)	
Classification broad on president with other DNA elements of know	15 38-mines	[100]	
Classification dased on association with other block elements of knot	-DNA	(*****)	
Ennancer-associated RNA	enna	[107]	
Promoter-associated long RNA	PALR	[30]	
Upstream antisense RNA	US RINA	(168)	
PROMoter uPstream Transcript	PROMPT	[89]	
Telomeric repeat-containing RNA	TERRA	[159]	
Classification based on protein-coding RNA resemblance			
mRNA-like noncoding RNAs	mincRNAs	[18]	
Long-Intergenic noncoding RNA; Isrge intervening noncoding RNA, Iong-intervening noncoding RNA	lincRNA	[18]	ANRIL [117], H19 [147], HOTAIR [18], HOTTIP [148], lincRNA-p21 [149], XIST [150]
Classification based on association with repeats			
C0T-1 repeat RNA		[160]	
Long interspersed nuclear element	LINE1/2	[161]	
Transcribed endogenous retroviruses		[81]	
Expressed Satellite Repeats		[162]	
Non-coding RNA driven by promoters within repeats	vlincRNAs, NASTs	[29,76]	Vlinc_21, vlinc_185, vlinc_377, vlinc_500 [29]
Polypurine-repeat-containing RNA	GRC-RNA	[163]	
Transcribed pseudogenes		[83]	PTENP1 and KRASP1 [86]
Classification based on association with a biochemical pathway or st	tability		
Nrd1-unterminated transcript	NUT	[164]	
miRNA primary transcripts		[165]	H19 [166]
niRNA primary transcripts		(167)	1000
Cryntic unstable transcrint	CUT	(SRI	
PROMotor uPetrosm Transcript	PROMPT	1901	
Vm1 seesitive unstable transmint	VIT	1011	
Stable Understatized Transmit Ctable Unsenstated Transmit	SUT	[92]	
Classification based on sequence and structure conservation	301	(ve)	
Transcribed-ultraconserved regions	T-UCR	[95]	UCR106 [95]
Hypoxia-induced popoding ultraconserved transcript	HINCLIT	[100]	
Long-intergenic noncoding RNA; large intervening noncoding RNA, long-intervening noncoding RNA	lincRNA	[18]	HOTAIR [18], HOTTIP [148]
RNA-Z regions		[97]	
EvenEeld regions		[98]	
E YOY ON I SHOTH		10.01	

Category	Abbreviation	Refs	Specific examples
Classification based on expression in different biological states			
Long stress-induced noncoding transcript	LSINCT	[101]	
Hypoxia-induced noncoding ultraconserved transcript	HINCUT	[100]	
Non-Annotated Stem Transcript	NAST	[76]	
Classification based on association with subcellular structures			
Chromatin-associated RNA	CAR	[102]	
Chrometin-Interlinking RNA	ciRNA	[68]	
Nuclear bodies associated RNAs		[168]	
PRC2 associated RNAs		[19,103]	
Classification based on function			
Long noncoding RNAs with enhancer-like function; ncRNA-activating	ncRNA-a	[108]	ncRNA-a7 [108]
miRNA primary transcripts		[165]	H19 [166]
pIRNA primary transcripts		[167]	
Competing endogenous RNA	ceRNA	[109]	PTENP1 and KRASP1 [86]

Figure 5 LncRNAs category Examples of classifications hypothesized on different characteristics (Image from: [92]).

Enhancer-Associated IncRNAs

For many decades, gene expression regulation has been considered as a monodimensional process in which each gene was controlled by the activity of the nearest promoter. Systematic functional analysis of non-coding genome has revealed that gene expression requires a continuous and widespread regulatory landscape involving a specific genomic architecture and the hierarchical interactions of multiple interspersed regulatory elements.

Many factors collaborate to regulate the gene expression, so that genes are expressed in the right place in the right moment [93]. Among all these, there are the enhancers (ENHs), DNA sequences containing multiple binding sites for transcription factors, RNA-PoIII (RNA-Polymerase II) and co-factors. ENHs are able to activate transcription independently from their distance from the promoter and the strand orientation; they can also act on genes located on different chromosomes [94-95]. These genome elements can recruit transcription factors and bring them in contact to the gene promoter enhancing transcription through the formation of chromatin loops.

In recent years, it has been observed that enhancers are also transcribed into non-coding RNAs. Whether these molecules contribute to the ENHs function is still under debate. ENHs can be transcribed into two distinct classes of noncoding transcripts: eRNA short RNA coded in both orientation or lncRNA called as ENH-associated lncRNA. In 2010 Kim TK and colleagues [96] and Ørom UA and colleagues [97] used genome-wide analysis and GENCODE to define features of ENH-Associated ncRNA. They showed that transcribed enhancers have peculiar chromatin marks, like high levels of RNA-PolII, binding of CBP (CREB-Binding Protein) and p300, H3K4Me1 high and H3K4Me3 low. Furthermore, they found that these lncRNAs were able to regulate *in cis* neighboring protein-coding genes as well as control genes *in trans*, that is the control of genes located far in the linear sequence of the genome.

Currently, the main hypothesis about the role of these lncRNAs is that they serve as a chromatin hub interacting with other factors, such as histone modification complex and TFs. It has been demonstrated that lncRNAs are able to interact with WDR5 (WD Repeat Domain 5-a subunit of methyltransferase complex) to regulate genes activation [98-99].

Further, some of these lncRNAs exhibit also the role to stabilize the engagement between promoter and enhancers, interacting with Mediator complex [100] and cohesion [101].

Moreover, ENH-associated lncRNAs are able to assist the recruitment of TFs and to maintain them at their regulatory sites. For example, YY1 (Yin-Yang 1) is a transcription factor able to bind both promoter-/enhancers-associated elements and RNA transcribed from those, suggesting that these nascent RNAs can stabilize the engagement of this TF [102]. CCAT-1L (Colorectal Cancer Associated Transcript 1-long isoform) is an ENH-associated lncRNA, positively associated to MYC transcription, that interacts with CTCF (CCCTC-

binding factor) modulating its binding to chromatin leading to correct looping of the locus [103].

Finally, recently evidence have proposed that eRNA may control also transcription elongation by sequestering and inhibiting the Negative Elongation Factor (NELF) complex. Acting as decoy for NELFe, the RNA-binding subunit of the NELF complex, eRNA restrains the binding of the NELF complex downstream to the gene TSS (Transcription Starting Site) relieving RNA-PolII pausing and activating transcript elongation. However, whether this is a common property for lncRNA is still to be defined [104].

Localization and function of lncRNAs

LncRNAs are ubiquitously distributed in the cell compartments: they have been found to localize in cytosol, nuclear fraction or associated with chromatin; they can also shuttle between the nucleus to the cytosol. However, lncRNAs are more enriched in the nucleus rather than in the cytosol, differing from mRNA, that are more abundant in the cytosol [105-106]. LncRNAs and mRNAs differ also for the mechanism of degradation. Being mainly nuclear, lncRNAs are exposed to nuclear exosome and in minor degree to cytosolic nonsense-mediated decay (NMD). Instead, mRNAs only head towards the ribosomes in the cytoplasmic compartment and are degraded by decapping and 5'-to-3' exonuclease activity.

LncRNAs can be cleaved to form other short RNAs, as miRNAs and siRNAs [107], or tRNAs [108] that are able to shuttle to the cytosol.

The different localizations affect lncRNAs function. Furthermore, lncRNAs present binding-domain for DNA, RNA and proteins and the binding with

respective targets lead also to conformational changes. It has been demonstrated that presence of specific RNA motif lead to different localization: BORG (BMP2-OP1-Responsive Gene) is a lncRNA that present a pentamer sequence AGCCC and T or A at position -8 and G or C at -3 specific for nuclear localization [109].

LncRNA nuclear-localized/ chromatin-associated are often gene regulators. Indeed, lncRNAs are physically related to their genomic locus and make them able to exert their activity without been previously exported to the cytoplasm for post-transcriptional modification. In fact, lncRNAs are able to recruit histone modification complex to induce or inhibit specific genes both in *cis* or in *trans* [110]. For example, KCNQ1OT1 (Potassium voltage-gated Channel subfamily Q member 1 opposite strand/antisense transcript 1) is able to interact with histone modification complexes: G9a (also known as EHMT2-euchromatic histone lysine methyltransferase 2) and PRC2 (Polycomb Repressive Complex 2), both presenting methyltranferase activity, to mediate specific silencing of gene during fetal development [111]. HOTAIR (HOX Antisense Intergenic RNA) is another lncRNA that is able to interact with two different histone modification complexes, PRC2 and LSD1 (Lys-Specific Demethylase 1), in two different domains: PRC2 with a domain located in 5' and LSD1 with a 3'domain [112].

LncRNAs are also implicated in the organization of nucleus and subnuclear compartments, such as speckles and paraspeckles. In particular, speckles are nuclear bodies that contain pre-mRNA splicing factor; instead, paraspeckles have a relevant role in the modulation of mRNA and protein levels because they are able to sequester them into nuclear bodies. MALAT1 is a lncRNA localized in the speckles that indirectly interacts with pre-mRNAs through serine/arginine

(SR) RNA splicing proteins; its down-regulation reduce the recruitment of SR proteins [113] and affect alternative splicing [114].

NEAT1 is a lncRNA fundamental for the architecture of paraspeckles; its depletion lead to the disassemble of these structures [115].

LncRNAs in cancer

A potential function for lncRNAs in human diseases has been proposed. Among these, lncRNAs associated to cancer is one of the best studied branch: more than 4900 papers about this, can be found in PubMed. This is due to the different roles and the multiple interactions that lncRNAs exhibit in cells, and due to the wide expression of these transcripts.

As previously described, lncRNAs act as fine regulators of gene transcription and chromatin accessibility. So, rearrangements and activating/inhibitory mismatch could lead to aberrant expression and function of onco-suppressor and oncogenic genes. Basically, deregulation of cell cycle, chromatin and epigenetic state, changes in RNA/DNA/proteins interactions and in their activity, could induce neoplastic transformation leading to carcinogenesis.

Many studies demonstrated that some lncRNAs are associated to specific cancer, while others are associated with several tumors originating from different tissues (fig.6).



Figure 6 Examples of lncRNAs cancer-associated Red represents lncRNAs up-regulated in cancer compared to normal tissue, while blue represents lncRNA down-regulated in cancer (Image from [116]).

Examples of the first group are PCGEM1 (Prostate-specific transcript 1) [117], PCA3 (Prostate Cancer gene 3) [118] and PRNCR1 (Prostate cancer Non-Coding RNA 1) [119] that are expressed only in prostate cancer; thanks to their specificity they have been proposed as markers for prostate cancer progression.

MALAT1 belongs to the second group, lncRNAs that has been found to be associated with different tissues: lung, both early-stage of NSCLC (Non-Small Cell Lung Cancer) [120] and adenorcinoma [121], bones [122], colon [123] and other cancer sub-types.

HOTAIR is another lncRNA associated with different tumor types, e.g. liver [124], gastric [125] and cervical [126] carcinoma, and with metastasis onset [127].

Furthermore, some lncRNAs are associated with metastasis or more aggressive cancer, but not with normal tissue or low-grade cancer. For example, HULC (Highly Upregulated in Liver Cancer) is a lncRNA highly expressed in liver metastasis of CRC (Colorectal Cancer) and in hepatocarcinoma, but not in primary CRC or in non-liver metastasis [128-129].

Due to their relevance in the biological and clinical field, lncRNAs have been proposed as diagnostic/prognostic biomarkers (reviewed in [130] and [116]), as PCGEM1 and PCA3. In addition, considering their importance in tumor onset and development, some lncRNAs have been proposed as therapeutic targets for the design of new therapies. Up to now there are four clinical trials that are enrolling patient in studies from Phase 1 to Phase 3, that set to use lncRNA as biomarker of drug response and to progression of disease.

RAIN: a novel RUNX2 Associated Intergenic non-coding RNA

We have previously demonstrated that the major RUNX2 isoform expressed in cancer cells is the isoform I, transcribed form the proximal-promoter P2 and that its overexpression promotes aggressiveness and metastatic potential of cancer cells [48]. However, we also showed that the P2 promoter is an indolent region and does not contains the elements required for the high levels of expression of RUNX2 in cancer.

To unveil the molecular mechanisms that lead to deregulation of RUNX2 in cancer, we recently identified three previously uncharacterized RUNX2 ENHs downstream to the P2 promoter: ENH3, ENH11 and ENH13 [74]. Being aware of the ability of active ENHs of being transcribed into lncRNA we searched the ENCODE annotation data to discover RUNX2 associated lncRNA. Several

potential transcripts were described downstream of the RUNX2 locus, overlapping with the regions of the RUNX2 ENH11-ENH13 (Fig.7).



Figure 7 Genome Browser image with ENCODE data Focusing on ENCODE data downstream of RUNX2 locus, there are several predicted non-coding transcripts within the enhancer region that we have characterized.

However only one of these predicted molecules (TCONS00011820) was expressed in thyroid and mammary cancer cells. The annotate transcript was short and formed by two exons. Using a 5'- and 3'-RACE approach, we mapped the full length of this transcript in TPC1 cells. We found 4 major transcripts that presented a widely variable central region, two different starting sites, located in correspondence of the ENH10 and ENH11, and two different 3' end, a short and a long one. The long isoform is 3010bp longer than the short isoform. We named this lncRNA RAIN (RUNX2-Associated Intergenic Non-coding RNA) (Fig.8).



Figure 8 RAIN full transcript characterization RACE approach using TCONS00011820 as template to find the full transcript. RAIN family is composed of four members with a common central region (grey) and two different 5'- and two different 3'-ends. 5'-ends are within previously identified ENH 10 and 11; 3'-ends differ for about 3000bp of length.

RUNX2 and RAIN are co-regulated

We have previously demonstrated that RUNX2 enhancers are binding sites for different transcription factors, and the master regulator of ENH3, ENH11 and ENH13 is c-Jun [74]. Furthermore, RAIN's TSS are within RUNX2 ENH regions, in particular, correspond to ENH10 and ENH11. So, we wanted to determine if RUNX2 and RAIN can be regulated by the same elements.

We used siRNA approach and the use of a dominant negative (DN) c-Jun plasmid to interfere with this TF.

With both systems, we observed that RUNX2 and RAIN expression was down-regulated (Fig.9 a-c).



Figure 9 RUNX2 and RAIN expression quantification after c-Jun downregulation a-b) TPC1 cell line was transfected with increasing concentration (100ng and 20ng) of c-Jun dominant negative (DN) plasmid and RNA was extracted. RUNX2 (a) and RAIN (common) (b) expression was quantified by qRT-PCR, c) TPC1 cell line was reverse transfected with 25nM of siRNA against c-Jun and after 24h RNA was extracted and the expression of RUNX2 and RAIN was quantified by qRT-PCR. * p-value<0.05

BET proteins are a family of protein that interact with acetylated histones to recruit histone acetylation complex to enhance the protein-coding gene transcription. In particular, BRD4 (Bromodomain 4) present a major role in control of distal enhancer regions, especially in cancer. A recent study, has demonstrated that BET-inhibitor drugs, such as JQ1, are able to antagonize the synthesis of non-coding eRNAs [131]. We wanted to confirm this hypothesis on our ENH-associated lncRNA, even because we have previously demonstrated that JQ1 treatment lead to repression of RUNX2 expression [74]. We treated

TPC1, BCPAP, MCF7 and MDA-MB 231 cells with 1μ M of JQ1 and we extracted RNA. The quantification of the expression of RAIN showed that the JQ1 treatment induce a down-regulation of RAIN (Fig.10).



Figure 10 RAIN expression after JQ1 treatment TPC1, BCPAP. MDA-MB231 and MCF7 cell lines were treated with 1μ M of JQ1. After 24h RNA was extracted and the expression of RAIN (common) was quantified by qRT-PCR. * p-value<0.05

All these observations suggest a possible relevant function of RAIN in controlling RUNX2 expression in cancer.

AIM OF THE PROJECT

We have recently discovered RAIN (RUNX2 Associated Intergenic Non-coding RNA) a new ENH-associated lncRNA within the RUNX2 locus; we have, also, observed that RAIN and RUNX2 are co-regulated.

The aim of this project was to characterize the function of RAIN, its interplay with RUNX2 and its potential relevance in cancer. We performed our analysis on a panel of different cancer cell lines, focusing on thyroid and breast tumor cell lines. In fact, in these tumor types, RUNX2 has been shown to be a marker of aggressiveness and its overexpression has been correlated with progression and metastasization.

First, we characterized the functional interaction between RAIN and RUNX2 promoter and enhancers with the intent of defining the effect and the mechanism of action of this lncRNA on RUNX2 expression regulation in the context of cancer cells. Finally, using RNA-Sequencing approach, we investigated the possibility that RAIN have other targets beside RUNX2 in thyroid cancer cells.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Cells culture

Thyroid cancer cell lines (BCPAP, TPC1, WRO, 8505C, CAL62) were obtained from Prof. Massimo Santoro (University of Naples, Naples, Italy); FTC-133 (Thyroid follicular carcinoma cell line) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich; SW579 (Thyroid papillary carcinoma cell line) were purchased from ATCC. All cancer cell lines were cultured at 37°C/5% CO₂ in DMEM (Life Technologies), supplemented with 10% FBS (Life Technologies) and 1% penicillinstreptomycin (Life Technologies).

Breast cancer cell line MDA-MB-231 was obtained from Dr. Adriana Albini (Scientific and Technology Pole, IRCCS MultiMedica, Milan), MCF7 was obtained from Dr. Massimo Broggini (IRCCS-Istituto di Ricerche Farmacologiche Mario Negri, Milan, Italy), ZR-75-1 were obtained from Prof. Bertolini (IEO, Milan, Italy) and HCC1428 were purchased from ATCC. Breast cancer cell lines were cultured at 37°C/5% CO₂ in RPMI (ZR-75-1, HCC1428) or DMEM (MDA-MB-231, MCF7) supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin.

NCI-H1299, A549, NCI-H1650, NCI-H1975 (lung adenocarcinoma cell lines) were purchased from ATCC and cultured at $37^{\circ}C/5\%$ CO₂ in RPMI (Life Technologies) supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin.

LNCap, PC-3, DU145 (prostate cancer cell lines) were obtained from ATCC and were cultured at 37°C/5% CO₂ in RPMI (PC3 and LNCaP) or DMEM (DU 145) supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin.

Patient samples

52 fresh frozen patient samples, comprising 26 couples of matching normal and tumor tissues, were obtained from the Research Tissue Biobank of Arcispedale Santa Maria Nuova-IRCCS of Reggio Emilia after written informed consent obtained from all the patients involved in this project. The project was approved by the local Ethical Committee (protocol no.: 2014/0014425 of 06/05/2014).

RNA isolation and qPCR Assays

Cell lines RNA samples were extracted using Trizol (Ambion) protocol and DNase (Roche) digestion was performed during purification of RNA samples. Patient tissues RNA samples were extracted using Trizol and further purified with RNeasy extraction kit (Qiagen) following the RNA clean up protocol and

performing on-column DNase (Qiagen) digestion.

Subsequently, cDNA was prepared by reverse transcription using the iScript cDNA kit (Bio-Rad); quantitative Reverse Transcription-PCR (qRT-PCR) was conducted using Sso Fast EvaGreen Super Mix (Bio-Rad) in the CFX96 Real Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad).

The Real-Time protocol used is: 98°C for 2'; [98°C for 2", 59°C for 5"] repeated for 40 times, followed by melting curve production: from 70°C to 95°C with an increment of 0.5°C, and 1" of plate read.

Primers sequences are listed in the table below.

Protein extraction and western blot

Total proteins were extracted with Passive Lysis Buffer (Promega) supplemented with a cocktail of protease inhibitors (Roche). Protein amount was quantified by Bradford (Bio-Rad) reagent. $15\mu g$ of proteins were loaded on any Kd SDS-PAGE gel (Bio-Rad). The proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose filters using the Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System (Bio-Rad); after blocking with 5% milk (Bio-Rad)/PBST (PBS, with 0.1% Tween-20 (Sigma-Aldrich)), membranes were stained with primary antibodies over night at 4°C, while secondary antibody staining was performed for 1 hour at room temperature. Primary antibodies used were mouse anti- α -Tubulin (Santa Cruz, sc-8035), mouse anti-RNA Polimerase II (Abcam, ab817), anti-NELFe (F-9,

SC377052 SCBT) and anti-β-actin (A1978 Sigma-Aldrich) while the secondary antibody was Mouse IgG HRP-Linked Whole Ab (GE Healthcare, NXA931).

RACE (Rapid Amplification of cDNA Ends)

RAIN full transcripts were determined performing 5' RACE and 3' RACE through the SMARTer RACE 5'/3' (Clontech) kit following the producer's instructions. Briefly, 1 µg of TPC1 cells' DNAse-treated RNA was retro-transcribed to generate 5' RACE-ready and 3' RACE-ready cDNA. 5'-ends and 3'-ends of RAIN transcripts were amplified using specific primers and a touchdown PCR program. Amplified fragments were extracted from agarose gel, cloned into the pRACE plasmid and sequenced.

Cells fractioning

Cells were fractionated to obtain cytosol, nucleus and chromatin fractions. Briefly, cells were harvested and washed twice with PBS (Sigma-Aldrich). Cells were resuspended in PBS and divided in three Eppendorf tubes and spinned at 3000rpm for 5' at 4°C; PBS was removed and cells were resuspended in Lysis Buffer (Promega) and protease inhibitor cocktail (bimake.com) to obtain total protein lysate, Trizol to obtain total RNA, or Cytosol Buffer (10mM HEPES pH7.9, 1.5mM MgCl₂, 10mM KCl, 0.5% NP-40, RNase inhibitor, protease inhibitor) for further processing. Cells were incubated with Cytosol Buffer for the appropriate time for each cell line (8' MCF7 and TPC1; 4' MDA-MB 231; 2' BCPAP) and spinned for 2' at 4°C. The supernatant was collected in two different Eppendorf tubes (cytosolic protein and RNA), centrifuged for 15' at 3000rpm to eliminate nuclear debris and transferred in two new Eppendorf tubes. Trizol was added to the RNA sample. The pellet was washed three times with Wash Buffer (10mM HEPES pH7.9, 1.5mM MgCl₂, 10mM KCl, RNase inhibitor, protease inhibitor, protease inhibitor, protease inhibitor at 3000rpm for 10 eliminate nuclear debris and transferred in two new Eppendorf tubes. Trizol was added to the RNA sample.

2' at 4°C. Then, the pellet was resuspended in Nuclear Buffer (20mM HEPES pH7.9, 25% glycerol, 0.42M NaCl, 1.5mM MgCl₂, 0.2mM EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich), RNase inhibitor, protease inhibitor) on ice for 30' with frequent vortexing; after incubation, pellet was spinned at 14500rpm for 10' at 4°C and supernatant was divided in two Eppendorf tubes to obtain nuclear protein and RNA. Trizol was added to extract nuclear RNA. The chromatin-containing pellet was resuspended in Trizol and further processed.

At least three biological replicates were conducted for each cell line.

Small interfering RNA (siRNA) and gapmeRs transfections

Select siRNA interference oligos against RAIN (common locus), NELFe, c-Jun and negative control oligos (Ambion) were used for transfections. GapmeRs against RAIN (targeting specifically the long isoforms) and negative control (Exiqon), both comprising LNA nucleotides, were used to specifically silence the RAIN long isoforms. Transfections were performed using the RNAiMax Lipofectamine (Thermo Fisher Reagent) reagent using the reverse transfection following the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, RNAiMax, Opti-MEM (Life Technologies) and 25nM of siRNA or gapmeRs were prepared and incubated for 20'; cells were harvested, resuspended in medium without antibiotics, and added to transfection reagents in culture plates. Next day, medium was replaced with complete fresh medium. Cells were harvested and analyzed 24 or 48 hours after transfection. GapmeRs and siRNA oligos sequences are indicated in the table below.

Plasmid vectors and transfection

c-Jun DN (Dominant Negative) expressing vector was kindly gifted by Dr. Mirko Marabese (IRCCS-Istituto di Ricerche Farmacologiche Mario Negri, Milan, Italy). Cells were transfected with increasing concentration of c-Jun or empty vector using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Scientific) following procedure's protocol. Briefly, TPC1 were plated at 70% of confluence in 24-well plate, next day increasing dilutions (100ng and 20ng) of plasmid vector or empty vector, were diluted in Opti-MEM medium and then lipofectamine 2000 was added. After 20' of incubation, reagents were added to the cells' medium (complete medium without antibiotics). After 48h hours cells were detached and further analyzed.

Cell proliferation assay

24 hours after cells transfection, $2x10^3$ cells for each cell line were seeded in triplicate in a 96-well plate in regular growth medium. Viable cells were counted every 24 hours for 4 days using trypan blue staining and Burker chamber. Three biological replicates were conducted for each cell line.

Scratch wound healing assay

24 hours after reverse transfection, each cell line was seeded at 70% confluence in a six-well plate. Next day, scratches were applied after cell adhesion by using a pipette tip. Healing areas were photographed at different time-point (0, 6 hours, 12 hours and 24 hours) and measured using ImageJ software. Three biological replicates were conducted for each cell line.

Analysis of mRNA stability

Actinomycin D (Sigma-Aldrich) was used to inhibit nascent RNA synthesis. $6x10^4$ cells/well (MDA-MB 231) or $5x10^4$ cells/well (TPC1) were seeded in each well of a 24-well plate and were treated with 5 µg/ml actinomycin D or DMSO (Sigma-Aldrich). Samples were collected at the time of treatment and after 30', 2 hours, 4 hours, 8 hours, 12 hours and 24 hours and RNA was isolated.
Fluorescence in situ hybridization

For *in situ* hybridization, 1.5×10^5 cells were plated on a coverslip in each well of a 6-well plate; next day, cells were washed twice shortly with PBS. Cells were fixed for 10' with 4% PFA (paraformaldehyde, Santa Cruz) at room temperature. Cells were washed three times for 5' with PBS and rinsed once with ice cold 70% EtOH (Carlo Erba); then, ice cold 70% EtOH was added and cells were kept at -20°C for at least one night. On the next day, cells were rehydrated by washing twice with PBS for 5' each. Cells were permeabilized with permeabilizing solution (0.5% triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS, RNase inhibitor) for 10' at room temperature with gentle swirl. Cells were washed three times for 5' with PBS and twice for 5' with 2xSSC,0.05% tween20.

Coverslips were incubated with blocking solution (1% BSA (Sigma-Aldrich), 2xSSC, 0.05% Tween 20) for 30' at room temperature in a humid chamber. Probes containing LNA nucleotides (Exiqon) were diluted to 50nM in hybridization buffer (50% deionized formamide (Carlo Erba), 2xSSC, 50mM Sodium phosphate pH 7 (Sigma-Aldrich), 10% dextran sulphate (MW>500,000 Alfa Aesar)) and added to each coverslip. Then, coverslips were incubated in HYBrite Genetic Analysis System (Abbott Laboratories) for 2' at 80°C followed by 1 hour at 57°C (negative control) or 54°C (positive control and RAIN probes) to denature nucleic acids, as indicated in the datasheets.

After incubation, coverslips were washed twice for 30' at 37°C, with a prewarmed wash solution (50% formamide, 1x SSC, 0.025% Tween 20, pH 7.0); then, coverslips were washed twice for 5' at 37°C, and once at room temperature, with 2x SSC, 0.05% Tween 20.

Anti-digoxigenin (Abcam ab420) diluted 1:1000 (1 μ g/ml) in TNB buffer (100mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150mM NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.5% BSA), was incubated in a dark humid chamber, at room temperature, for 30'. Then,

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coverslips were washed three times for 5' with 2x SSC, 0.05% Tween 20 at room temperature.

Anti-mouse immunoglobulin Alexa488 (Thermo Fisher Reagents A11001) diluted 1:1000 (1 μ g/ml) in TNB, was incubated in a dark humid chamber, at room temperature, for 30'. Then, coverslips were washed twice for 5' with 2x SSC, 0.05% Tween 20 at room temperature.

Coverslips were stained with DAPI (D9542 Sigma-Aldrich) 1:1000 (1 μ g/ml) in TNB for 5' at room temperature; then the coverslips were washed shortly with PBS and mounted using SlowFade Gold antifade (Invitrogen).

Three biological replicates were conducted.

Probes sequences are listed in the table below.

ChIRP (Chromatin Isolation by RNA Purification)

ChIRP was performed following the protocol of Chu et colleagues [132] with minor adaptations. Eight biotin 3'-end TEG probes (Eurofins Genomics), matching the 3'long locus of RAIN, were used for the experiment; eight 3'- end biotin TEG probes against LacZ transcript (Eurofins Genomics) were used as negative control. Probes sequences are listed in the table below.

Briefly, 4x10⁷ cells were collected and divided in four different tubes and crosslinked for 10' at room temperature with 1% glutaraldehyde (Carlo Erba) in 10ml of final volume. Cross-linking reaction was quenched with 1.25 M glycine (Sigma-Aldrich) at room temperature for 5' and cells pellet was washed twice with ice-cold PBS and flash-frozen at -80°C. Next, pellet was thawed and resuspended in Lysis Buffer (50mM TRIS-Cl pH7.0, 10mM EDTA, 1% SDS (Sigma-Aldrich)) supplemented with RNase inhibitors and protease inhibitors. Cells were sonicated for 4 times: each time was composed of 10 cycles 30" ON-30" OFF in water sonicator Bioruptor Pico (Diagenode). To avoid different rates of sonication in the different tubes, lysates were pooled together every 10

cycles and redistributed into original tubes to ensure homogeneity. After sonication, lysates were centrifuged for 10 minutes 13000rpm at 4°C to clarify the lysate and 2% RNA and 2% DNA input were taken. Then, 1ml of chromatin was supplemented with 2ml of hybridization buffer, RNase inhibitor, proteinase inhibitor and 1.5µl of 100pmol/µl probes. The mix were incubated for 4 hours at 37°C with shaking. After incubation, 100µl of magnetic beads (C1 magnetic beads, Invitrogen) were added and incubated for 30' at 37°C with shaking. After that, beads were washed five times with wash buffer using Magna GrIP magnetic strip (Millipore) to separate beads from supernatant. At last wash, well resuspended beads were divided into 100µl for RNA isolation (10% of volume) and 900µl for DNA isolation (90% of volume).

RNA purification: Proteinase K buffer (100mM NaCl, 10mM TrisCl pH 7.0, 1mM EDTA, 0.5%SDS, 5% proteinase K (Promega 20mg/ml)) was added to 100µl of bead samples and RNA input for 45' at 50°C with end-to-end shaking; then, after centrifugation, samples were boiled for 10' at 95°C, chilled on ice and Trizol was added. Further, RNA extraction protocol with Trizol was followed and RNA was extracted with miRNeasy kit following procedure's protocol.

DNA isolation: bead samples and DNA input were supplemented with 10µl RNase A (10mg/ml) (Thermo Scientific) and 10U/µl RNase H (Thermo Scientific) per ml of DNA elution buffer (50mM NaHCO₃, 1% SDS) and incubated for 30' at 37°C with shaking. After, the supernatant derived from beads IPs was kept using Magna GrIP. A second round with RNAse A and H step was performed on beads and DNA input and supernatant derived from beads IPs was separated using Magna GrIP and collected with the previous. Collected supernatant and DNA input were incubated for 45' at 50°C with shaking with 15µl of proteinase K. All the DNA samples were transferred to phase-lock gel tubes (Eppendorf) and phenol:chloroform:isoamyl (Carlo Erba)

was added and shaken for 10'. Then, samples were spinned and the aqueous phase was kept and supplemented with glycogen (Thermo Scientific) and 100% EtOH and stored overnight at -20°C. Next day, samples were spinned and supernatant was let decant. 70% EtOH was added, vortexed and spinned down. Supernatant was removed, and pellet was air dried, then resuspended in 30µl of Elution Buffer; samples were used for further qPCR analysis.

Three biological replicates were conducted for each cell line.

ChIP (Chromatin Immunoprecipitation)

For Chromatin Immunoprecipitation, $4x10^6$ cells were reverse transfected and plated in a 150mm (3.7×10^6) petri dish and in a well of 6-well plate (3×10^5) (to control RUNX2 down-regulation before performing ChIP assay). 48 hours after reverse transfection, cells were cross-linked in PBS with 1% formaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich) solution for 10' in gentle rotation. Subsequently, they were treated with 2.5 M glycine for 5' to quench the cross-link. Cells were washed twice with PBS and scraped. After that, cells were collected in a tube and centrifuged for 5' at 4 °C. Cells were lysed in Cell Lysis Buffer (10mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 85mM KCl, 0.5% NP-40) supplemented with Protease Inhibitor Cocktail for 10' at 4 °C. Nuclei were pelleted for 5' at 4 °C and pellet was incubated for 10' on ice in Nuclei Lysis Buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 10mM EDTA, 10% SDS) supplemented with protease inhibitors. Nuclei were sonicated with 2 cycles 30" ON -30" OFF and cell debris were pelleted for 10' at 4°C. Lysate was diluted in ChIP dilution buffer (0.01% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, 1.2mM EDTA, 16.7mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 167mM NaCl) supplemented with protease inhibitors and 10 µL were kept as input. Diluted lysate was divided and in each tube was added a different antibody and incubated overnight at 4°C in gentle rotation. Next day, Dynabeads Protein G (Invitrogen) were added and incubated at 4°C for 2 hours with gentle rocking. Then, the

beads were washed with Low salt wash buffer (20mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 150mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 2mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100) and with High salt wash buffer (20mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 500mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, 2mM EDTA, 1% Triton X-100). Subsequently, the beads were washed once with a LiCl solution (10mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 250mM LiCl, 1% NP-40, 1mM EDTA) and twice with TE Buffer (10mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1mM EDTA). Elution was performed using Elution Buffer (0.5M NaHCO₃, 10% SDS) added to each IP and incubated for 15' at room temperature with gentle rocking; elution was performed twice.

Reverse cross-link was performed overnight at 65°C adding 12 μ L NaCl 5M. Samples were treated with 2 μ L proteinase K (10 mg/mL), 12 μ L EDTA (0.5M) and 6 μ LTris pH 6.5 (1M) for 1 hour at 45°C.

DNA was isolated with PCR purification kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's protocol. Then, qPCR was performed.

Antibodies used for ChIP were against H3K4me3 (Abcam-ab8580), H3K27Ac (ab4729-Abcam), RNA polymerase II phospho-S5 (ab5408- Abcam), total H3 (ab180727, Abcam), WDR5 (A302-429A-bethyl) and NELFe (F-9, SC377052-SCBT) IgG (as negative control, IgG mouse sc-2025-SCBT; IgG rabbit 2729-Cell Signaling).

Three biological replicates were conducted.

RIP (RNA ImmunoPrecipitation)

RIP was performed modifying Hendrickson et al. [133] protocol.

Briefly, cells were collected and fixed in 0.1% formaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich) solution for 10' with gentle rotation at room temperature. Cross-link was quenched with 0.125mM glycine for 5' with gentle swirl. Cells pellet was washed twice with PBS and resuspended in Nuclear Isolation Buffer (1.28M sucrose, 40mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 20mM MgCl₂, 4% Triton X-100)

supplemented with protease and RNase inhibitors and kept on ice for 20'. After centrifugation, nuclei were resuspended in RIP Buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 5mM EDTA, 0.5mM DTT (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.5% NP-40) supplemented with protease and RNase inhibitors and sonicated for one cycle 30"ON - 30"OFF. After sonication, nuclei debris were spinned and supernatant was kept. 10% of lysate were used for the input sample and 5×10^6 cells were used for each IP with 6µg of NELF-e (F-9, SC377052 SCBT), 4µg of WDR5 (A302-429A, Bethyl) or BRD4 (A301-985A50, Bethyl) antibodies and the relative IgG control (mouse IgG SC2025 SCBT and rabbit IgG 2729S Cell Signaling). After overnight incubation with gentle rocking at 4°C, 20µl of Dynabeads protein G were added to each IP and incubated for 2 hours and 30' at 4°C in rotating wheel. IPs were subsequently washed twice with RIP wash buffer (150mM KCl, 25mM Tris pH7.5, 5mM EDTA, 0.5% NP-40, 0.5mM DTT) supplemented with protease and RNase inhibitors. Reverse cross-link was performed adding to each IPs and input samples, diluted to 1X the 3X reversecrosslinking buffer (3X PBS (without Mg²⁺ or Ca²⁺), 6% N-lauroyl sarcosine (Sigma-Aldrich), 30mM EDTA), 15mM DTT (added fresh), 10µl of proteinase K and RNase inhibitors for 1 hour at 42°C and 1 hour at 55°C. Supernatant was collected by Magna GrIP magnetic separation, Trizol was added and RNA was isolated as previously described.

At least three biological replicates were conducted for each cell line.

RNA Sequencing and bioinformatic analysis

For RNA-seq analysis, RNA was extracted using Trizol from cells pellet of TPC1 treated with gapmeRs against l-RAIN or control-Oligos and TPC1 treated with siRNA against RUNX2 or scramble. RNA quality and quantity were assessed by Bioanalyzer using Agilent RNA 6000 nano kit and by Nanodrop respectively. RNA-seq libraries were prepared using the TruSeq Stranded

mRNA Sample Preparation Kit (Illumina) starting from $1\mu g$ of RNA. Next generation sequencing was performed using NextSeq500 platform (Illumina). We loaded the pooled libraries in a 150 cycles High Output cartridge, in order to obtain a minimum of 20 million of sequencing reads for each sample replicate.

The bioinformatic data analysis included sequence adapters removal, that was performed by Trimmomatic, quality checks, performed using FastQC, and RNA sequences alignment, performed using STAR. After that, reads count and normalization were conducted applying Cufflink RNA-Seq workflow. Differential gene expression was calculated by Cuffdiff pipeline as fold-change (TPC1 treated with I-RAIN gapmeRs vs control-Oligos and TPC1 treated with RUNX2 siRNA vs scramble). Genes with a p-value < 0.05 were considered significantly deregulated. Next, the results of these two analyses were merged, in order to identify genes specifically deregulated by I-RAIN or commonly affected by I-RAIN and RUNX2 down-regulation. Bioinformatic data analyses were performed using R software (version 3.4.2). RNA-seq results investigation was conducted by Kegg pathways enrichment analysis.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism Software (GraphPad). Statistical significance was determined using the Student's t-test.

gapmeRs	
negative control	AACACGTCTATACGC
1-RAIN	CTATGATTAGAACGTC

siRNA	
negative control	Ambion cat.4390847
RAIN common	AAAGAAGUCAGUUAAAAUCAG
NELFe	Ambion cat.4392420 ID s15489
c-Jun	Ambion cat.4392420 ID s7660

E

ChIRP probes	
RAIN#1	AAGCCATAACAGCCCTAAAG
RAIN#2	TACACCATGTGAGTGACCAT
RAIN#3	GTTGTGACAGTGCTATTGAC
RAIN#4	CTTTGACCCACAGTACTACT
RAIN#5	AATGGCAATGCACACTGGTT
RAIN#6	TGCTACCAAGAGGAAGTCTA
RAIN#7	ATTGACCTTAAAGGGCCTAG
RAIN#8	CTTGGACCTTGGGATACTAA
LacZ#1	CCAGTGAATCCGTAATCATG
LacZ#2	GTAGCCAGCTTTCATCAACA
LacZ#3	AACGAGACGTCACGGAAAAT
LacZ#4	ACCATTTTCAATCCGCACCT
LacZ#5	AGACGATTCATTGGCACCAT
LacZ#6	ATTTAGCGAAACCGCCAAGA
LacZ#7	TTTACCTTGTGGAGCGACAT
LacZ#8	TAAGGTTTTCCCCTGATGCT

qRT-PCR primers	
RUNX2 F	GTGCCTAGGCGCATTTCA
RUNX2 R	GCTCTTCTTACTGAGAGTGGAAGG
RAIN common F	CTCAAAGCAAGTCGCCAAAG
RAIN common R	CCTGTGATCTGCCCTTTAGC
1-RAIN F	TCTTTCTTTAGGGCTGTTATGG
1-RAIN R	AGGAGGAACACTGGGGTCTC
1-RAIN RIP F	ACCAAAAGGACATCTGCACA
1-RAIN RIP R	ACCTCCTAACCTTGCACACA
Cyclophilin F	GACCCAACACAAATGGTTCC
cyclophilin R	TTTCACTTTGCCAAACACCA
GUSB F	TTGAGCAAGACTGATACCACCTG
GUSB R	TCTGGTCTGCCGTGAACAGT
XIST F	GGCCAAGCTCCAGCTAATCT
XIST R	CGTCAAAGGGAATGGATCAC
C-Jun F	TGACTGCAAAGATGGAAACG
C-Jun R	CAGGTCATGCTCTGTTTCA
NELFe F	AAGTCAGGAGCCATCAGTGC
NELFe R	CTGGAAAGTGGGGACTGGTC
WDR5 F	AGTGCCTGAAGACGCTCATC
WDR5 R	TGGCGGCCAGGATGTATTTG
CCNE2 F	TGCAGAGCTGTTGGATCTCTGTG
CCNE2 R	GGCCGAAGCAGCAAGTATACC
RUNX2 P2 F	ACCATGGTGGAGATCATCG
RUNX2 P2 R	GGCAGGGTCTTGTTGCAG
enh3 F	GCTGGGAAGATAGCCAAGAA
enh3 R	CCTTGCATCAGTTCCACAGA
enh11 F	CCCAAACCCCAAAGCAGAGA
enh11 R	CCCAAGTTCTCACCAGGCAT
enh13 F	GTGGAGTGGAGAGAGAGAA
enh13 R	TGGCTTCATCTCACCCTCAG
ctrl- ChIP F	TCTCAAGGTGCCTGTCTGC
ctrl- ChIP R	TGAAGTTTGGCCTCTGGTCT
MALAT1 F	TGTTGGCACGAACACCTTCA

MALAT1 R	TGGCCTACTCAAGCTCTTCTG
KCNQ1ot1 F	GGCTACGCCACAGGTGAAA
KCNQ1ot1 R	GTCTGCTGGCTTGTGTGTTG
5.8S F	GGTGGATCACTCGGCTCGT
5.8S R	GCAAGTGCGTTCGAAGTGTC
GAPDH F	CAATTCCCCATCTCAGTCGT
GAPDH R	GCAGCAGGACACTAGGGAGT
- 1100 RUNX2 TSS F	CGCTCCTTCATCCTCTCGAC
- 1100 RUNX2 TSS R	AAAATGCTTCCGTGGCTGT
- 500 RUNX2 TSS F	CTCTCTGGTGTCTCGGCTTC
- 500 RUNX2 TSS R	CAGACTAGGGGCAATCTCGC
TSS RUNX2 F	TGGACTGCTGAACCCACAC
TSS RUNX2 R	TGAGTTTGCAGCTTGGAATG
+700 RUNX2 TSS F	ACCATGGTGGAGATCATCG
+700 RUNX2 TSS R	GGCAGGGTCTTGTTGCAG
+1300 RUNX2 TSS F	CTCTCACCCGCTTCCCTCA
+1300 RUNX2 TSS R	CCAGGACCGCTGAACTCTG

RESULTS

RUNX2 and RAIN expressions are correlated

Our preliminary evidence indicated that RAIN was co-regulated with RUNX2 in both thyroid and breast cancer cells. Thus, to explore a potential correlation between these two transcripts, we analyzed their expression in a panel of epithelial cancer cell lines, including lung-, prostate-, breast- and thyroid-derived cancer, which are the tumors in which RUNX2 has been shown to play relevant functions (Fig.11 a, b).



Figure 11 RUNX2 and RAIN expression in cancer cell lines Quantification of the expression of RUNX2 (a) and RAIN (b) in epithelial cancer cell lines: lung (green-H1299, H1975, H1650, A549), prostate (blue- PC3, LNCaP, DU145), thyroid (red- 8505C, BCPAP, TPC1, CAL62, FTC133, SW579, WRO) and breast (grey- MCF7, HCC1428, ZR-75-1, MDA-MB 231).

As shown in figure 11, RUNX2 and RAIN expression was significantly positive correlated, with a correlation coefficient $R^2 = 0.8752$ and a p-value<0.0001 (Fig.12).



Figure 12 RUNX2 and RAIN correlation The graph shows the relative expression of RUNX2 and RAIN in a panel of cancer cell lines.

We have previously demonstrated that RUNX2 overexpression is associated with cancer development and aggressiveness in thyroid cancer. We extracted RNA from 26 thyroid cancer patients and we compared RUNX2 and RAIN expression in normal and tumor tissue. RUNX2 and RAIN were both overexpressed in cancer tissue as compared with normal thyroid. Next, we correlated the expression of RUNX2 and RAIN in tumor samples. We confirmed that also *in vivo* the expression of these transcripts was significantly correlated (fig 13 a, b).



Figure 13 RUNX2 and RAIN expression in patient's samples We compared the expression of these transcripts in normal and tumor samples of the same patient (a). We also assessed the correlation of RUNX2 and RAIN in tumor samples and we obtained a significant positive correlation (b). *** p-value <0.001

Analysis of RAIN stability

ENH-associated lncRNAs are averagely stable transcripts, more stable than eRNA but less than the mRNAs to which they are associated. We assessed the stability of RAIN, along with RUNX2 and c-MYC mRNA stability, by treating TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines with 1μ g/ml of actinomycin D to interfere with mRNA synthesis. We collected RNA at different time points: 0, 30', 2 hours, 4 hours, 8 hours, 12 hours, 24 hours. We compared the expression of each RNA at each time point with the expression at the corresponding time 0. We observed that RAIN is less stable than RUNX2 but more stable of c-MYC which is known to be rapidly degraded (Fig.14). We used KCNQ1ot1 and MALAT1, two lncRNAs, as control.



Figure 14 RAIN stability The RNA stability has been evaluated through qRT-PCR analysis, administrating actinomycin D to cultured cells and extracting RNA at different time points.

We also calculated the half-life rate of each RNA using linear regression analysis in GraphPad Prism Software. The half-life of RAIN was about 7 hours in TPC1 cells and 9 hours in MDA-MB 231, while RUNX2 half-life was 11 hours and 13 hours, respectively (Fig.15). These differences were probably due to the different replication rate of the analysed cell lines (TPC1 cells are more actively proliferating than MDA-MB 231) and to the lower expression of RAIN and RUNX2 in MDA-MB 231 cells compared to the expression in TPC1 cells (Fig.11).



Figure 15 Half-life rate calculation 50% of RNA decay was calculated through linear regression analysis of relative expression of each RNA using GraphPad Prism software.

RAIN long isoforms are chromatin-associated

Because the different cellular localization of lncRNAs is associated with diverse function, we next investigated the subcellular localization of RAIN. To this end, we performed cell fractioning and separated cytosolic, nuclear and chromatin fractions. We performed western blot to ensure we have correctly separated the different phases. We controlled total RNA-PolII and α -Tubulin, as nuclear and cytosolic markers respectively. Then, we extracted RNA and analyzed RAIN distribution in the different fractions. We used two different primer pairs that recognized different regions of RAIN. One pair recognized the common central region and detected both the long and the short RAIN isoforms. The second pair was specific for the long isoform. The chromatin-associated lncRNA XIST was used as control.

Noticeably, the long RAIN isoform (l-RAIN) was largely enriched in the nuclear and chromatin fractions, while the short RAIN isoform distributed homogeneously in the cytoplasm and nucleus (fig. 16).



Figure 16 RAIN subcellular localization TPC1, MDA-MB231, BCPAP and MCF7 cell lines were fractionated, RNA and proteins were extracted in subcellular fractions and analyzed for the presence of RAIN. RAIN common means that qRT-PCR primers recognized the common central region, l-RAIN means that primers recognize only the long isoform.

We confirmed this different subcellular localization in TPC1 cells, through fluorescent *in situ* hybridization, using two different probes: one recognizing the common region and one only the long isoform (fig.17).



Figure 17 RAIN localization by *in situ* hybridization FISH analysis were performed to confirm the subcellular localization of RAIN in TPC1 cell line. RAIN-common means that probes recognize the common central region, while l-RAIN means that probes recognized only the long isoform.

Knockdown of RAIN impairs RUNX2 expression

We showed that RAIN is a chromatin-associated lncRNA and that its expression correlates with RUNX2. Thus, we reasoned that RAIN may take part to RUNX2 regulation. To test this hypothesis, we used two different approaches: siRNA (small interfering RNA) and gapmeRs (Fig.18).



Figure 18 siRNA, gapmeRs and qRT-PCR primers localization siRNA probes were designed to recognize the common central region. While gapmeRs were designed to recognized only the long isoform because they are in the nucleus and gapmeRs are able to target nuclear lncRNA better than siRNA. Grey arrows indicate qRT-PCR primers that recognize common region (RAIN common), black arrows indicate the primers that recognize the long isoform (l-RAIN).

First, we used, siRNA to knockdown both short and long RAIN isoforms. The target RNA degradation mechanism of siRNA, is based on the perfect complementarity with target mRNA. SiRNA and target RNA coupled and are cleaved by RISC (RNA-induced silencing complex) in the cytosol.

TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cells were transfected with siRNA targeting RAIN common region or with scramble oligos, as control, and RAIN and RUNX2 expression was assessed by qRT-PCR 24 hours after transfection. Noticeably, in both cell types RAIN silencing reduced RUNX2 expression. (Fig.19).



Figure 19 RAIN and RUNX2 expression after siRNA transfection TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines were reverse transfected with 25 nM of siRNA against the common region. After 24 hours of transfection, RNA was extracted and RAIN and RUNX2 expression was quantified by qRT-PCR. * p-value<0.05.

Next, we used gapmeRs, oligos with nucleotide LNA (locked nucleic acid) modification, to target the long isoforms of RAIN. These oligos recognized and paired to target RNA recruiting RNase H, an endonuclease present both in the cytosol and in the nucleus, that selectively degrade RNA of the DNA-RNA heteroduplex. Using nuclear RNAse to degrade target RNA, gapmeRs should be more efficient than siRNA to target the chromatin-associated lncRNA.

We transfected TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 with gapmeRs or scramble oligos and we observed a significant down-regulation of RAIN and RUNX2, with a more efficient downregulation of 1-RAIN, that is the isoform associated with the chromatin (Fig.20). We also observed a consequent more effective downregulation of RUNX2.



Figure 20 RAIN and RUNX2 expression after gapmeRs transfection TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines were reverse transfected with 25 nM of gapmeRs against the 3'-long region. After 24 hours of transfection RNA was extracted and RAIN and RUNX2 expression was quantified by qRT-PCR. * p-value<0.05

To ensure that was the RAIN interference that lead to RUNX2 down-regulation, we also transfected our cells with siRNA against RUNX2 and we did not observe any difference in RAIN expression.

I-RAIN interacts with RUNX2 locus

Next, we investigated the mechanism by which RAIN controls RUNX2 expression in cancer cells. First, we used ChIRP approach to define whether RAIN interacts with RUNX2 P2 promoter. To immunoprecipitate RAIN, we designed eight probes that mapped on the long 3'-end. As negative control, we designed eight probes that mapped on LacZ, which is not expressed in mammalian cells. We performed our experiments on both TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines. After IP, regions specifically bounded to target RNA were measured by qRT-PCR. In both cell lines, RAIN significantly interacted with the RUNX2 P2 promoter in a region spanning from the TSS and exon 1, 700bp

downstream of the transcription starting site (Fig.21). Furthermore, we used GAPDH and 5.8S promoter regions as negative control for RAIN interaction.



Figure 21 ChIRP analysis of RAIN and P2 interaction TPC1 (a) and MDA-MB 231 (b) cell lines were used for ChIRP approach to demonstrate that RAIN was able to interact with the genomic locus of RUNX2. L-RAIN interacted with P2 promoter of RUNX2-isoform I: we mapped the interaction site between TSS and 700bp downstream of the TSS. Promoters of GAPDH and 5.8S were used as negative control. * p-value<0.05.

The interaction was specific for RAIN probes, since RAIN was not immunoprecipitated with LacZ probes (Fig.22).



Figure 22 ChIRP control TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 RNA was extracted, during ChIRP protocol, to evaluate the correct procedure, to exclude that the ChIRP probes recognize and pull-down the wrong RNA. RAIN and LacZ IPs were analyzed for the presence of RAIN.

I-RAIN interacts with WDR5 and NELFe

LncRNAs have the ability to interact with histone modification complexes to regulate the transcription of protein-coding genes. WDR5 is a subunit of MLL1/MLL complex that mediate the trimethylation of Lys-4 of histone H3 (H3K4Me3) and gene activation.

We used a RIP approach to evaluate the interaction of l-RAIN with WDR5 on TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines. We observed that l-RAIN interacted with WDR5 in a significant manner, while it did not interact with BRD4. We used IgG as negative control (Fig.23).



Figure 23 RIP approach to evaluate I-RAIN interaction TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines were used for RIP analysis to evaluate the potential interaction of 1-RAIN with histone modification complex. IgG were used as negative control of assay. * p-value<0.05, n.s. means not-significative.

As previously mentioned, NELF is a protein complex, that inhibits elongation promoting RNA-PoIII pausing 0-60 nucleotides downstream of TSS, consequently inhibiting the transcription. It has been demonstrated that NELF can interact with eRNA, but the interaction with lncRNA it has been only hypothesized. Thus, we used RIP to test if RAIN was able to associate also with NELFe in TPC1 and MDA-MB231 cells. NELFe is the RNA-binding subunit of the NELF complex and its activity is critical for NELF function. We showed that IPs with NELFe antibody resulted in a significant enrichment of 1-RAIN indicating that this lncRNA can also interact with the NELF complex (Fig.24).



Figure 24 RIP approach to evaluate l-RAIN interaction TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines were used for RIP analysis to evaluate the potential interaction of l-RAIN with NELFe. IgG were used as negative control of assay. * p-value<0.05

Down-regulation of I-RAIN decreases the activation of P2

Based on our data, we hypothesized that l-RAIN positive activity on RUNX2 expression was mediated by the interaction with WDR5. To verify this hypothesis, we performed ChIP experiments on TPC1 cell line, after down-regulation of l-RAIN through gapmeRs transfection.

First, we investigated whether knockdown of 1-RAIN affected the recruitment of WDR5 on the P2 promoter. As expected, WRD5 binding on the P2 promoter was significantly reduced upon 1-RAIN_Kd (knock down) confirming that RAIN was required for the recruitment of this factor on the P2 promoter. Then, we assessed whether the inhibition of WDR5 by 1-RAIN_kd had consequences on the transcriptional activity of the P2 promoter by assessing both H3K27 acetylation enrichment and RNA-PoIII phospho-5S binding. We examined this RNA-PoIII modification because serine 5 phosphorylation is associated with the initiation of transcription and it is associated with the transcription complex downstream of the TSS of the genes. As well, since WRD5 mediates trimethylation of H3K4, we also analyzed the amount of this modification on the P2 promoter 48 hours after l-RAIN_Kd, that is the time in which we observed the most efficient l-RAIN down-regulation. Noticeably, reduction in the levels of l-RAIN significantly reduced both the RNA-PoIII phospho-5S binding and H3K27Ac levels on the P2 promoter; as well, the amount of H3K4me3 on the P2 promoter was reduced upon l-RAIN_Kd, while the overall amount of H3 was not modified (Fig.25).



Figure 25 ChIP analysis on P2 of RUNX2 after I-RAIN down-regulation We performed ChIP analysis on TPC1 cell line 48 hours after reverse transfection with 25nM of gapmeRs against I-RAIN. We focused on P2 promoter (primers are located 700bp downstream of the TSS) and used an intronic region downstream of P2 as negative control. * p-value<0.05

By contrast, 1-RAIN_kd have not relevant effect on the chromatin organization of RUNX2 ENH3, ENH11 and ENH13 (Fig.26).



Figure 26 ChIP analysis on ENHs region of RUNX2 after I-RAIN down-regulation We performed ChIP analysis on TPC1 cell line after reverse transfection with 25nM of gapmeRs against I-RAIN. We focused on ENH3, ENH11 and ENH13 regions.

We used ChIP approach also to evaluate the effect of l-RAIN down-regulation on NELFe interaction with RUNX2 P2. We divided the P2 locus to obtain the precise region where NELFe interact with the promoter (Fig.27).



Figure 27 ChIP analysis on RUNX2 P2 to evaluate the interaction of NELFe TPC1 cell lines were reverse transfected with 25 nM of gapmeRs against 1-RAIN and after 48hours we employ ChIP approach. P2 promoter region was subdivided to locate the region of interaction between NELFe and RUNX2. * p-value<0.05

We observed that NELFe interact with RUNX2 TSS and that the 1-RAIN downregulation lead to an increasing interaction of NELFe with this region.

Down-regulation of NELFe leads to up-regulation of RUNX2

Since we showed that I-RAIN can also interact with NELFe, we explored the effect of NELFe silencing on RUNX2 expression. If I-RAIN binding to NELFe restraining the inhibitory effect of the NELF complex on transcription elongation, we may expect that NELFe silencing is associated with a positive effect on RUNX2 expression. We used siRNA to down-regulate NELFe in both TPC1 and MDA-MB231. We controlled the efficacy of down-regulation both by qRT-PCR and western blot analyses (Fig.28).



Figure 28 NELFe down-regulation We used siRNA approach to down-regulate NELFe in TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell line. We reverse transfected cells with 50nM of siRNA against NELFe and after 48 hours we extracted RNA and quantified RUNX2 and CCNE2 (positive control) expression. * p-value<0.05.

We observed that the down-regulation of NELFe leads to the upregulation of RUNX2 confirming the hypothesis that RAIN may act as decoy of NELF complex restraining its function. CCNE2 (Cyclin E2), which expression requires NELFe, was used as control of the functionality of the assay.

I-RAIN down-regulation affects cells' migration and proliferation

We demonstrated that 1-RAIN is required for RUNX2 expression. Since RUNX2 over-expression in cancer cell is correlated with cancer development and progression, we hypothesized that RAIN may also affect aggressiveness of thyroid and breast cancer. In a previous work, we demonstrated that RUNX2 silencing lead to impairment of migration and invasiveness of thyroid cancer cells and that its overexpression increased these phenomena [48]. Thus, we analyzed the effect of RAIN silencing on proliferation and migration of TPC1 and MDA-MB231 cells.

We transfected cell lines with gapmeRs and count cells number every 24 hours, from 0 to 96 hours (Fig.29).



Figure 29 Proliferation assay after I-RAIN down-regulation TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines were reverse transfected with 25nM of gapmeRs against I-RAIN and 24 hours later, cells were plated in 96-well plate. Every 24h hours cells were detached and counted. *p-value<0.05

Transfected cells were also tested for their ability to wound healing in scratch test. Cells were photographed at 0, 6 hours, 12 hours and 24 hours (Fig.30).



Figure 30 Wound healing assay after I-RAIN down-regulation TPC1 and MDA-MB 231 cell lines were reverse transfected with 25nM of gapmeRs against I-RAIN and 24 hours later, cells were plated in 6-well plate. After cells attachment, we scratched the well and photographed the scratches at different time point. We measured the scratches and compared them to T0. * p-value<0.05.

RUNX2 and RAIN down-regulation and analysis of their interplay in down-regulated cells

We have demonstrated that RUNX2 and RAIN are co-regulated and coexpressed in cancer, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. We have also demonstrated that RAIN interacts with WDR5 and NELFe to regulate the expression of RUNX2. Following these results, we wanted to assess if RAIN is able to regulate other pathways not associated with RUNX2. We performed two RNA-sequencing experiments to define the gene expression profile of cells in which either RAIN or RUNX2 were silenced. Comparing the expression profile of cells silenced for RAIN with the profile of scramble transfected cells, we identified a list of 706 differentially expressed gene: 224 genes were up-regulated and 482 downregulated. As well, differential analysis of the gene expression profile of TPC1 cells transfected with siRUNX2 or siCTRL identified 1754 gene of which 574 were up-regulated and 1180 down-regulated. Merging these lists, we observed that 163 of the 706 RAIN target genes were also affected by RUNX2 silencing suggesting that these genes could represent RAIN indirect-RUNX2 mediated targets (Fig.31).



Figure 31 Diagrammatic representation of gene differential expressed in RNA-Seq analyses TPC1 cell line was reverse transfected with siRNA against RUNX2, gapmeRs against l-RAIN and control negative oligos.

We analyzed the list of RAIN-RUNX2 common genes using DAVID (Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery) searching for enriched pathways (KEGG pathway analysis) (Fig.32).



Figure 32 KEGG pathway analysis on functional annotation enrichment We submit our 163 differential-expressed genes on DAVID software and we focused on KEGG pathway functional annotation tool.

We observed that "transcriptional misregulation in cancer" was the most enriched pathway in common genes. Genes belonging of this pathway are: BCL2A1, CXCL8, HIST1H3E, IGFBP3, IL1R2, RUNX2, SPINT1 and TGFBR2. Other pathways enriched in this analysis are correlated to tumor aggressiveness and tumor microenvironment involvement, as cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction, MAPK, TGF- β and NF-kB pathways.

Among the 163 genes, 84 were down-regulated and 14 were up-regulated in both experiments. Focusing on genes down-regulated, we looked for the functional annotation on KEGG pathway and we obtained that the enriched pathways are "osteoclast differentiation" and "cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction", strengthen the hypothesis that these are direct-RUNX2 mediated targets.

Next, we focused on those genes that resulted as RAIN specific (RUNX2 unrelated) targets. Of the 543 RAIN target genes 65% were down-regulated and 35% up-regulated, confirming an overall positive role of RAIN on gene expression. Of these genes 38 were on chromosome 6 and likely controlled *in cis* by this lncRNA. Among the 543 genes, there were also 9 long intergenic non-coding RNA (2 up-regulated and 9 down-regulated).



Figure 33 KEGG pathway analysis on functional annotation enrichment We submitted our 543 differential-expressed genes on DAVID software and we focused on KEGG pathway functional annotation tool.

DAVID and KEGG pathway analyses (Fig.33) reveled that RAIN-associated pathways were related to transcriptional misregulation in cancer and other cancer specific pathways, including the FOXO, Hippo and Jak-Stat pathways. We decided to focus on "transcriptional misregulation in cancer" because of the high expression of RAIN in tumor samples. Genes belonging to this group are: MMP3, MYC, ETV6, AFF1, PLAT, EYA1, CDKN2C, BCL6, ID2, JUP, HPGD, PAX5 and RUNX2. In particular, some of these genes were down-regulated after 1-RAIN_kd even more that RUNX2, suggesting a role of RAIN in direct regulation of other genes, beyond RUNX2 (Fig.34).



Figure 34 "Transcriptional misregulation in cancer" pathway enriched in l-RAIN_kd cells TPC1 cell line reverse transfected with gapmeRs against l-RAIN showed a differential expression of 13 genes. Relative expression is related to the expression of not-silenced TPC1 (scramble).

Further investigation and validation is needed to evaluate the impact of RAIN on these other target genes. We also would like to confirm the indirect-RUNX2 effects, down-regulating l-RAIN and expressing RUNX2 ectopically. However, these preliminary data suggest that the role of RAIN in cancer may be wider than the regulation of RUNX2 expression.

RAIN model of function

Thanks to our results, we hypothesized a model of action that can explain the mechanism of RAIN regulation on RUNX2.

RAIN is transcribed from RUNX2 ENH10 and ENH11 regions and it is able to interact with RUNX2 P2. Moreover, RAIN can recruit WDR5, bringing it in contact with the promoter of RUNX2-isoform I. WDR5 belong to the MLL complex that trimethylates H3K4 and enhance the transcription. Furthermore, RAIN can sequester NELFe, removing it to RNA-PoIII. This detachment let the switch of RNA-PoIII from paused to active state (Fig.35).



Figure 31 RAIN function model RAIN is transcribed from RUNX2 ENH10 and ENH11, then it collaborates to RUNX2 regulation interacting with WDR5 and NELFe enhancing RUNX2 transcription. Purple dots are H3K4 trimethylation, green triangles are H3K4 acetylation.

DISCUSSION

Long non-coding RNAs are non-coding elements which are gaining attention for their relevance in gene expression regulation. However, due to the limited information on the mechanisms of action of these molecules their role in gene regulation remain an open question. Some have hypothesized that the act of transcription of lncRNA rather than their sequence is required for the 3D architecture of genome, and for the topological organization of transcriptional domains [134]. The limited number of lncRNAs that have been functionally characterized have been shown to regulate the recruitment of chromatin remodeling complexes or transcription factors affecting transcription both in a positive or negative fashion.

Here we described RAIN, a novel family of lncRNAs, and we showed that not only its expression but also its specific functions are required to sustain RUNX2 expression in cancer. Some of the previously characterized chromatinassociated lncRNAs are able to interact with histone modification complex, in particular with members of Polycomb group (PcG), PRC1 and 2 (Polycomb Repressive Complex 1 and 2) or Trithorax group (TrxG). This two groups of proteins have opposite role in gene regulation. PcG having mainly a repressors function while TrxG activates transcription. Because RAIN expression is positively associated to RUNX2 expression, we reasoned that its function in controlling RUNX2 could be mediated by the interaction with members of the TrxG group. Some studies had previously demonstrated the functional interaction of WDR5 with other lncRNAs including BLACAT 2 (bladder cancer-associated transcript 2) [135], GClnc1 (gastric cancer-associated IncRNA 1) [98], HOTTIP (HOXA transcript at the distal tip) [136], HOXD-AS1 (HOXD antisense 1) [99]. Similarly, we demonstrated that RAIN interacts with WDR5 promoting its recruitment to the RUNX2 P2 promoter. The interaction between RAIN and WDR5 is functional since silencing of RAIN resulted in a marked reduction WDR5 binding on the RUNX2 promoter. As a

consequence, the levels of H3K4Me3, H3K27Ac and RNA-PolII binding on the RUNX2 promoter was significantly decreased upon RAIN knockdown with a consequential effect on RUNX2 transcription.

Furthermore, we also demonstrated that RAIN interacts with NELFe and restrains its binding within the RUNX2 promoter. The idea that ncRNAs could also affect elongation was recently proposed based on the evidences that eRNAs promote transcription of immediate early genes in neurons without affecting chromatin structure [104]. These authors demonstrated that sequestering NELFe, eRNAs restrain the binding and the inhibitory function of the NELF complex on target genes, promoting RNA-PolII progression and elongation. Similarly, we showed that silencing of RAIN increases binding of NELFe on the P2 promoter and silencing of NELFe results in increased RUNX2 expression. We observed that the decrease of RNA-PolII phospho-S5 binding was 700bp downstream of the TSS, while the NELFe binding was enriched on TSS of RUNX2 and that complied with the stop of initiation of transcription. To ensure that the RUNX2 downregulation is due to the NELFe binding, we should conduct more experiments to confirm the increase of RNA-PolII total on TSS and the decrease of RNA-PolII phospho-S2 (marker of late stage of transcription) at 3'end of the gene.

Before our work, the ability of interfering with the NELF complex activity was shown only for eRNAs. Thus, at the best of our knowledge, this is the first demonstration of a functional interaction between the NELF complex with an ENH-associated lncRNA. Furthermore, we can also affirm that this is the first evidence that lncRNA can play multiple function in the expression regulation of target genes thanks to the interaction with different functional complexes.

Finally, we provide evidence that RAIN not only affects RUNX2 expression but acts also on other targets and through this multiple transcriptional effect promote cancer cells phenotype. By performing RNA-Seq on thyroid cancer
cells, in which the expression of RAIN was down-regulated, we showed that RAIN controls a large panel of genes of which only a fraction (about 20%) were co-shared in regulation with RUNX2. By contrast, more than 500 genes were differentially regulated selectively after 1-RAIN knock-down. Further experiments are needed to validate these results and to fully define the 1-RAIN mechanism of action on these targets.

In conclusion, 1) we found and characterized a novel lncRNA family, 2) we functionally proved that RAIN is able to regulate RUNX2 expression through two different mechanisms (one of this never characterized before), and 3) we provided preliminary evidences that RAIN has additional, RUNX2-independent, downstream targets in cancer.

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