# Uncovering the role of genomic "Dark Matter" in human disease

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#### **Abstract**

The human genome encodes thousands of long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs). Though many remain functionally un-characterized biological "Dark Matter," a subset of well-studied lncRNAs have garnered considerable attention for their diverse roles in regulation of important loci, including developmental and tumor suppressor gene clusters. Because a growing number of lncRNAs are associated with human disease, ongoing research efforts are focused on understanding their regulatory mechanisms. New technologies that enable rapid enumeration of lncRNA protein partners, secondary structures, and genomic binding sites are well positioned to drive deeper understanding of lncRNA regulation and involvement in pathogenesis.

#### Introduction

RNA is now recognized as a central regulator of biological systems. While its primary sequence can encode protein, RNA can also fold into non-protein coding structural motifs that perform catalysis [1], bind small molecules [2], or serve as protein scaffolds [3]. Non-coding RNAs can conditionally govern gene expression [4] and have impressive regulatory capacity; small non-coding RNAs may modulate the expression of > 60% of human coding genes [5]. Built upon the growing number of well-characterized regulatory RNAs, novel RNA-based control systems are now being applied in microbial ([6], [7]) and mammalian biotechnology. Gene networks have been programmed to recognize and respond to cancer-associated miRNA profiles [8], shRNA-based genetic switches may support gene-therapy applications [9], and drug-responsive RNA sensors have been developed for T-cell therapy [10].

Despite the remarkable progress in characterizing RNA-based regulation and the promise of RNA biotechnology, the vast majority of RNA transcribed by the human genome remains functionally uncharacterized biological "Dark Matter." The pervasiveness of eukaryotic transcription came to light through numerous studies in the wake human genome project. Approximately 90% of the human genome is transcribed, yet only  $\sim 1.5\%$  encodes for protein [11]. Increasingly sensitive sequencing technology has been used to catalog the human transcriptome, leading to the identification of many "long" non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), which are distinguished from short regulatory RNA pathways by a length cut-off of greater than 200 base pairs. Recent studies have classified > 8000 intergenic lncRNAs [12],

which are often spliced, polyadenylated, and transcribed by RNA polymerase II in a highly tissue-specific manner. Some of these lncRNAs map to regions associated with disease by genome wide association studies (GWAS) [12] and the number of papers discussing lncRNA disease-associations has been growing each year [13].

Here we organize the rapidly expanding literature by discussing lncRNAs that exert epigenetic, transcriptional, and post-transcriptional control over gene expression. We provide examples of mammalian lncRNAs at each level of control by highlighting their putative regulatory mechanisms and interaction partners. We review the evidence linking these lncRNAs to diseases (**Figure 1**) and discuss new technologies that will improve understanding of lncRNA roles in human health.

## **Epigenetic control**

Despite having identical genomes, different cell types exhibit unique and heritable gene expression patterns. Heritable variation ("-genetic") must be encoded in molecular signatures beyond ("-epi") DNA sequence itself [14]. These "epigenetic" signatures can be written to chromatin, the structural housing of genetic information in which DNA is wrapped around repeating octamers of histone proteins. Methylation of cytosine residues in DNA and post-translational histone modifications can specify the state of chromatin, resulting in transcriptional activation or silencing of the underlying DNA. In mammalian systems, the chromatin-remodeling machinery that write and erase these epigenetic signatures generally lack domains to specify DNA localization [15] and are thus dependent upon ancillary factors for their targeting to chromatin. Recent evidence suggests that lncRNAs encode this specificity by serving as scaffolds that tether chromatinremodeling machinery to specific regions of the genome ((reviewed by [16]). Considering that epigenetic signatures must constrain gene expression patterns throughout development and are often dysregylated in diseases such as cancer [17], lncRNAs have garnered considerable attention for their role in epigenetic regulation of important loci, including tumor suppressor and developmental gene clusters.

The INK4b-ARF-INK4a tumor suppressor locus highlights the importance of lncRNAs in both epigenetic regulation and disease. This locus encodes three tumor suppressors (p15, p16, and ARF) [18] and is altered in ~30-40% of human tumors [19]. The lncRNA ANRIL (antisense non-coding RNA of the INK4 locus) participates in transcriptional repression of this locus through recruitment of two chromatin-remodeling complexes – Polycomb repressive complex 1 (PRC-1) [20] and PRC-2 [21] – that modify histones with signals for heterochromatin formation (e.g., trimethylation of histone 3 lysine 27 or "H3K27me3") and transcriptional silencing. Common disease genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified ANRIL as a susceptibility locus for numerous pathologies, including cancers, cardiovascular disease, and type II diabetes [22]. Genetic aberrations may contribute to disease through ANRIL dysregulation, as ANRIL over-expression is observed in cancers, such as leukemia [23], and SNPs can alter ANRIL splicing [24]. Providing additional support for lncRNA-mediated regulation of this locus, the lncRNA HEIH (High

Expression In Hepatocellular Carcinoma) participates in repression of p15 and p16 genes through its association with PRC-2 [25]. Further studies on these lncRNAs, as well as enhancer elements [26], should provide additional insights into the complex regulatory interactions that govern this disease-associated locus.

In addition tumor suppressor loci, developmental gene clusters are wellstudied targets of lncRNA-mediated epigenetic activation and repression. Encoding a family of homeotic transcription factors critical for developmental patterning, HOX genes are an important example of activation by lncRNAs. Activation of HOX genes is correlated with H3K4 methylation, an epigenetic signal written by the lineage leukemia-1 (MLL-1) chromatin remodeling complex [27]. LncRNA-mediated targeting of MLL-1 for transcriptional activation of specific HOXA genes was first demonstrated by studies on the lncRNA HOTTIP (HOXA transcript at the distal tip) [28]. Chromosomal looping brings HOTTIP into close proximity with the 5' (distal) end of the locus, where HOTTIP recruits MLL-1 (by binding to its adapter protein WDR5) for transcriptional activation of distal HOXA genes. Further highlighting MLL-1 recruitment for HOXA gene activation, the lncRNA minstral (MIRA) directly binds MLL-1 and activates expression of HOXA6 and HOXA7 [29]. Future work may focus on the role of these lncRNAs in HOX-related developmental abnormalities [30], considering that HOTTIP knock-down is associated with distal forelimb shortening. In addition, it will be interesting to explore whether lncRNAs can recruit MLL-1 in cancers known to have aberrant activate chromatin domains [31].

Though epigenetic activation is a rather new paradigm, lncRNAs have long been associated with epigenetic silencing of developmental genes, including the HOX cluster. The lncRNA HOTAIR is expressed from the HOXC locus, but participates in transcriptional repression of HOXD loci [32] through recruitment of PRC-2 and LSD1 chromatin-remodeling complexes in *trans* [33]. The recruitment of these complexes simultaneously signals for heterochromatin formation (H3K27me3 via PRC-2) and removes H3K4me2 (via LSD1), a histone modification associated with transcriptional activation. Because it acts in trans. HOTAIR can target these complexes to different genomic regions [34], which is particularly important in the context of disease. The specificity of targeting is perturbed in breast cancer metastases, where HOTAIR is up-regulated ~ 100-fold and re-programs PRC2 localization so as to promote cell motility and matrix invasion, which are hallmarks of metastasis [35]. Paralleling its role in beast cancer metastasis, HOTAIR is also upregulated, re-targets PRC2, and promotes metastasis in colorectal cancers [36]. Moreover, a deeper mechanistic understanding of lncRNA-mediated programming of oncogenic chromatin states may lead to novel strategies in cancer therapy.

LncRNA-mediated epigenetic silencing of developmental genes extends beyond the HOX cluster, and is particularly important for imprinting in sex-linked dosage compensation. A canonical example of lncRNA involvement in sex-linked gene dosage compensation is the process of X-chromosome inactivation, which equalizes expression of X-linked genes between sexes through silencing of one X-chromosome in female cells. Uniquely expressed from the inactive X-chromosome,

the lncRNA Xist binds PRC-2 through several stem-loops ([37], [38]) at its 5' end [39], leading to transcriptional silencing in *cis*. Though its regulatory network remains an intense area of investigation (reviewed by [40]), differential Xist expression levels can serve as markers for testicular and ovarian cancer outcomes ([41], [42]) and may play a role in autoimmune disorders [43]. Paralleling the role of Xist in X-chromosome inactivation, lncRNAs H19 and Kcnq1ot1 recruit repressive chromatin-remodeling complexes ([44], [45]) to an imprinted gene cluster on chromosome 11p15.5, which encodes cell growth regulatory factors. Down-regulation of H19 [46] and up-regulation of Kcnq1ot1 [47] are frequently observed Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome, an over-growth disorder. H19 is also implicated in a number cancers, as it has been reported to serve as a tumor suppressor [48] .

Collectively, these examples demonstrate that lncRNAs help direct epigenetic signatures that constrain gene expression patterns in both development and disease. While these and other lncRNAs that template the epigenome remain very active targets of investigation, a growing number of lncRNAs have also been shown to exert regulatory control over transcriptional initiation at promoter DNA.

## Transcriptional and co-transcriptional control

In addition to serving as scaffolds between chromatin and chromatin-remodeling machinery, lncRNAs serve as scaffolds that govern the activity and localization of transcription factors. Eukaryotic transcription is initiated through RNA polymerase II (polII) association with general transcription factors at promoter DNA, which give rise to the pre-initiation complex (PIC). Transcription factors can direct assembly of the PIC and may themselves be modulated by ligands or coregulators (including co-activators or co-repressors) [49]. LncRNAs serve as coregulators in several disease-related transcription factor signaling pathways, including the p53 response and several nuclear-receptor (NR) pathways.

The p53 transcription factor signaling network is a canonical mode of tumor suppression in which several lncRNAs serve as co-regulators [50]. The lincRNA p21 is up-regulated by p53 and co-regulates repression of > 1000 target genes by binding the hnRNP-K transcriptional repressor complex [51]. Paralleling the role of HOTAIR in PRC-2 localization, lincRNA-p21 targets hnRNP-K to repressed genes and is required for p53-induced apoptosis, warranting its classification as a tumor suppressor. Like lincRNA-p21, the lncRNA PANDA is also up-regulated by p53 in response to cell stress and protects the cell from apoptosis by repressing with NF-Y, a co-regulator of p53 that activates pro-apoptosis genes [52]. Further underscoring the importance of lncRNAs in the p53 signaling network, the lncRNA MEG3 (maternally expressed gene 3) enhances p53 binding to target gene promoters [53] and serves as a tumor suppressor, as its expression is down-regulation in numerous cancers (reviewed by [54]). Beyond cancer, GWAS have mapped SNPs to intron 6 of MEG3, associating this lncRNA with type 1 diabetes susceptibility [55].

Similar to their role in the p53 pathway, lncRNAs serve as co-regulators in nuclear receptor (NR) transcription factor signaling, which is important for proper development and dysregulated in diseases, such as cancer [56]. SRA (steroid receptor RNA activator) was the first lncRNA co-activator characterized [57] and its function requires a scaffold composed of six RNA stem-loops that may nucleate colocalization of proteins involved in transcriptional activation [58]. Follow-up work has shown that SRA interacts directly with over a dozen different proteins, targeting both positive (e.g., SRC-1, p68 and p72, Pus1p and Pus3p) as well as negative (e.g. Sharp and SLIRP) transcriptional regulators to promoters (reviewed by [59]). While SRA appears to exert regulatory control across multiple NR signaling pathways, the lncRNA growth-arrest specific 5 (Gas5) appears to specifically target the glucocortioid receptor (GR) though several hairpins that mimic the GR DNA binding site [60]. Moreover, Gas5 acts as a decoy [16], sensitizing cells to apoptosis by suppressing GR-signaling under low nutrient conditions. Underscoring the clinical importance of these lncRNAs, SRA is up-regulated in numerous cancers (reviewed by [61]) and Gas5 is down-regulated in breast cancer tissues, potentially providing a way for the cells to escape apoptosis during the process of oncogenesis [62].

Co-regulatory lncRNAs are involved in tumor suppression and oncogenesis beyond NR and p53 signaling pathways. Transcriptional regulation of the cell-cycle regulator cyclin D1 (CCND1) is governed by a set of lncRNAs that are up-regulated in response to heat shock or DNA damage. These lncRNAs associate with chromatin and TLS (translocated in liposarcoma) protein, simultaneously targeting TLS to the CCND1 promoter and allosterically modifying its C-terminus. Though the C-terminus of TLS normally represses activity of the N- terminus, lncRNA-binding relieves this internal inhibition, allowing the N-terminus to repress co-activators (CBP and p300) of histone acetyltransferase CREB and silence the CCND1 gene [63]. Because CCND1 is over-expressed in a variety of tumors [64], these lncRNAs may serve as tumor suppressors. In contrast, the lncRNA metastasis-associated lung adenocarcinoma transcript 1 (MALAT-1) drives the proto-oncogene GAGE6 by repressing its transcriptional repressor, the hPSF tumor suppressor protein [65]. High MALAT-1 expression is associated with numerous cancers [66], including poor prognosis in lung cancer [67]. MALAT-1 also controls phospohrylation and localization of SR proteins, which dictate splicing patterns for many pre-RNA [68].

In addition to serving as transcriptional co-regulators, lncRNAs can also block PolII and general transcription factors (TFs) from interacting with promoter DNA and forming the pre-initiation complex (PIC). A well-studied example of PIC occlusion are Alu lncRNAs, which are expressed from prominent Alu repeats in the human genome [69]. Up-regulated under heat shock [70] and in cancers [71], Alu lncRNAs can bind to polII and block its association with promoter DNA [72]. Highlighting the role of Alu in disease, a recent study showed that accumulation of Alu lncRNAs in retinal cells leads to cytotoxicity and macular degeneration when Dicer1 is down-regulated [73]. Utilizing a different mechanism to inhibit PIC formation, lncRNAs expressed from the minor promoter of the human dihydrofolate reductase (DHFR) [74] gene can also repress PIC formation by establishing a

RNA:DNA triple helix at the major promoter [75], which blocks binding of general TFs. Because it is required for thymine biosynthesis in rapidly dividing cells, DHFR is the major target of cancer drug Methotrexate, which is used to treat childhood acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL); polymorphisms in the region encoding the DHFR lncRNA have been associated with poor outcomes in childhood ALL, potentially due to loss of repression over DHFR expression [76].

These examples show that lncRNA can serve as scaffolds that co-regulate transcription initiation and can repress transcription through direct interaction with polII or promoter DNA. Just as efforts have begun to explore the principles of lncRNA scaffold targeting in epigenetic regulation, it will be particularly interesting to understand how co-regulatory lncRNAs, such lincRNA-p21, can target specific promoters in transcription factor signaling networks. Beyond epigenetic and transcriptional control, lncRNAs also participate in post-transcriptional regulatory networks through their direct interaction with mRNAs and miRNAs.

## **Post-transcriptional control**

Small regulatory RNAs post-transcriptionally modulate the expression of thousands of human genes and participate in signaling networks [77] that are dysregulated in disease [78]. Several recent studies have shown that lncRNAs are enmeshed in miRNA signaling networks by serving miRNA "sponges", which bind to and titrate the abundance of miRNAs available to bind their bona fide target transcripts [79]. Highlighting the role of these "competing endogenous RNAs" (ceRNAs) in development, the lncRNA MD1 binds two miRNAs that modulate the expression of developmental transcription factors in muscle cells [80] and is strongly down-regulated in Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy. In contrast, other ceRNAs are up-regulated in disease, such as "highly up-regulated in hepatocellular carcinoma" (HULC). This lncRNA drives its own expression by sequestering miR-372, a repressor of PRKACB kinase [81]. Like HULC, the pseudogene lncRNA PTEN-P1 has a role in cancer by acting as a sponge for miRNAs that modulate expression of the tumor suppressor phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN). PTEN-P1 may act as a tumor suppressor, as copy number losses of PTEN-P1 are observed in cancer [82] and cancer susceptibility is driven by subtle changes in PTEN dosage [83].

In addition to titration of miRNA abundance, lncRNAs post-transcriptionally modulate the stability of target transcripts through direct hybridization. The lncRNA BACE1-AS (BACE1 antisense) modulates expression of BACE1, an enzyme that cleaves amyloid precursor protein (APP) into amyloid-beta, a peptide that has been implicated in numerous neurological disorders. In Alzheimer's disease (AD), BACE1-AS is up-regulated and stabilizes the BACE-1 mRNA [84], potentially through miRNA binding site occlusion [85]. Elevated BACE1 levels result in pathogenic accumulation of amyloid-beta peptide, which further drives BACE1-AS expression. Moreover, BACE1-AS may serve as a biomarker for early detection of AD and siRNAs targeting BACE1 is a potential strategy for Alzheimer's treatment [86].

#### **Future perspectives**

Collectively, these examples provide a compelling but incomplete view of lncRNA regulation and involvement in pathogenesis. Sequencing technology continues to improve exponentially [87], driving discovery of thousands of lncRNAs that are up-regulated in diseases such as prostate [88], liver [89], and hepatocellular [25] cancers. Though our ability to identify lncRNAs that correlate with disease far outpaces our ability to understand the mechanistic link, sequencing technologies also provide several ways to help close this gap. Because lncRNAs exert regulatory function through their interactions with other molecules, numerous sequencing based technologies have been developed for high-throughput mapping of the lncRNA interactome. RNA immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing (RIP-seq) identified thousands of cis and trans-acting lncRNAs that associate with PRC-2 [90] and direct cross-linking of RNA-protein interactions in vivo is a promising strategy to identify direct interactions [91]. Whereas these methods take a protein-centric view, chromatin isolation by RNA purification (ChIRP) takes an RNA-centric view. Using ChIRP, an RNA can be isolated from a cross-linked pool of chromatin to retrieve and enumerate associated DNA sequences and protein [34]. Emerging technologies for transcriptome-wide determination of RNA structure provide complimentary information [92] (**Figure 2a**), allowing researchers to associate interaction domains with the underlying structures that may encode function.

Just as advances in DNA sequencing have lowered the barrier to acquisition of large-scale observational data, advances in DNA synthesis will increase the scale of perturbations that researchers can make, providing powerful ways to test hypotheses generated from the abovementioned profiling methods. Programmable arrays of synthetic RNA molecules and high-throughput assays for binding affinity [93] may provide detailed biophysical maps of the lncRNA interactome *in vitro*. *In vivo* studies will benefit from synthetic shRNA libraries, enabling high-throughput loss of function profiling [94]. Gene synthesis technologies [87] should enable construction of synthetic lncRNAs for identifying minimal functional domains ([3], [39]), exploring structural and functional modularity ([70], [39], [95]), and testing structure-function relationships [96] (**Figure 2b**). Using the power of DNA synthesis to explore lncRNA functional composition is a major opportunity for the field [97].

Ongoing efforts to identify lncRNAs, quantitatively map their interactome, and understand their functional composition have at least three important clinical implications. First, lncRNAs serve as bio-markers for diseases including breast cancer [35], hepatocellular cancer ([98], [25]), liver cancer [99], prostate cancer [88], lung cancer [67], and Alzheimer's Disease [100]. Contributing to their potential utility as disease biomarkers, some lncRNAs are detectable in body fluids [101]. Second, understanding lncRNA functional composition should make it possible to predict the effect of mutations [102], just as knowledge of the genetic code now makes it possible to predict the impact of mutations within protein coding regions [103]. Finally, well-characterized motifs and rules for their composition may enable design of therapeutic lncRNAs for control over nuclear organization or the

epigenome [104]. Considering that well-studied lncRNAs regulate development of diverse tissues [105], can target specific regions of DNA [106], and associate with chromatin-remodeling machinery [38], synthetic lncRNAs may recombine this existing regulatory diversity in novel ways. Moreover, progress in lncRNA science should benefit the bourgeoning field of RNA biotechnology [107], resulting in new strategies for disease amelioration or regenerative medicine applications [108].

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### Figure legends

### Figure 1

Functions of known disease-linked lncRNAs

#### Figure 2

A) Differential expression profiling has been used to discover lncRNAs that are upregulated in specific tissues or diseases. Comparative genomics can be used to infer functional domains within these lncRNAs based upon conservation of RNA sequence or structure. Technologies provide unique windows into the features of lncRNAs, which are represented as amorphous gray bars. PARS, ChIRP, and CLIP-seq enable rapid enumeration of lncRNA structure, genomic binding sites, and protein partners, respectively. B) Perturbing lncRNA structure and organization is a powerful way to test hypotheses generated from high-throughput observational datasets. Directed deletion of lncRNA domains can identify the minimal sequence and structural motifs that are necessary for function. Compensatory mutations in binding motifs can be used to test whether structure, rather than sequence, is sufficient for function. Chimeric lncRNAs can explore motif modularity.

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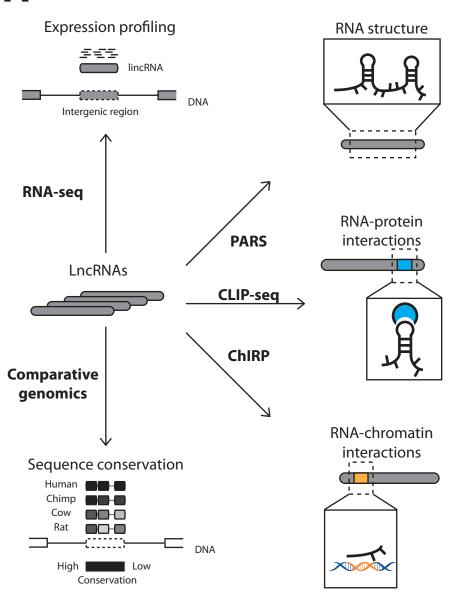
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General points of regulation	LncRNA	Interactions	Clinical relevance	References
	ANRIL	Binds PRC-1 and 2; Represses INK4b-ARF-INK4a tumor suppressor locus	Oncogenic; SNPs associated with susceptibility to coronary disease, type 2 diabetes, and cancers	20-24
Chromatin remodeling complex	H19	Potentially binds PRC-2; Represses imprinted genes in <i>trans</i> ; Generates miRNA	Tumor suppressor; Down-regulated in Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome, a growth disorder	44, 46, 48
	HEIH	Binds EZH2 sub-unit of PRC-2; Represses PRC2 target genes, including INK4b-ARF-INK4a locus	Oncogenic; Bio-marker for hepatocellular carcinoma recurrence and post-operative survival	25
Epigenetic	HOTAIR	Binds LSD1 and PRC-2; Represses of HOXD and other genomic loci in <i>trans</i>	Oncogenic; Over-expression mis-targets PRC2 Promotes breast / colorectal cancer metastasis	32-36
trans	HOTTIP	Binds WDR5 (adapter protein for MLL-1 complex); Activates distal HOXA genes	Down-regulation leads to shortening of distal forelimb bones; Possible role in HOX disorders / leukemia	28
$\Rightarrow \mathcal{A}  \mathcal{A}  \text{cis}  \text{can}$	Kcnq1ot1	Binds G9a and PRC-2; Represses imprinted genes at 11p15 locus	Up-regulated in Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome	45, 47
LncRNA Chromatin	MIRA	Binds MLL-1 complex; Activates HOXA6 and 7	TBD; Possible role in HOX disorders / leukemia	29
promoter	Xist	Binds PRC-2 and other proteins in X-chromosome inactivation (XCI) network; Repressive	Skewed XCI in disease (e.g., autoimmune disorders); Marker for testicular and ovarian cancer outcomes	37-43
	Alu	Bind to PollI; Represses transcription by blocked PollI-DNA interaction	Oncogenic; Up-regulated in hepatocellular carinoma; Accumulation drives macular degeneration	68-72
	CCND1	Binds TLS and chromatin; Represses transcription of CCND1	Tumor suppressor; CCND1 over-expressed in cancers	63-64
Ω Ω	DHFR	Binds promoter DNA via triple-helix; Represses transcription by blocking PIC formation	Tumor suppressor; Polymorpisms lead to increased DHFR expression / poor outcomes childhood leukemia	73-75
Auth_	Evf2	Binds transcription factors (DLX2 and MECP2)	Role in neuro-developmental disorders	105
Transcription	Gas5	Binds glucocortioid receptor (GR); Represses transcription of GR target genes	Tumor-suppressor; Down-regulated in breast cancer	60, 62
Transcriptional & Co-Transcriptional	MALAT-1 (NEAT2)	Binds and represses hPSF, a tumor suppressor; RNA scaffold for activation of E2F target genes	Oncogenic; hPSF repressor; Up-regulated in cancers (e.g., lung)	65-68
	MEG3	Binds p53; Activates p53 signaling and promotes growth suppression	Tumor suppressor; Down-regulated in cancers; SNPs increase susceptibility to type 1 diabetes	53-55
Promoter	lincRNA-p21	Binds hnRNPk, repressor complex in the p53 signaling pathway; Targets hnRNPk to promoters	Tumor suppressor; Mediates repression of > 1000 p53 target genes	51
	PANDA	Binds and represses NF-Y, an activator of pro-apoptotic genes in p53 pathway	Suppressor of p53-mediated apoptosis	52
	SRA	Binds steroid receptor and other NRs ; Co-regulates signaling in multiple NR pathways	Oncogenic; Up-regulated and drives NR signaling in cancers (e.g., breast, prostate)	57-59
A.A.	BACE1-AS	Binds BACE1 mRNA ; Activates expression by stabilizing BACE1 transcript	Over-expressed in Alzheimer's disease (AD)	84-86
Post-	HULC	Binds mi-372; Expression maintained by autoregulatory feedback	Highly-expressed in liver cancer	13, 81
Transcriptional	MD1	Binds miR-133 and miR-135, which modulate developmental transcription factors in muscle cells	TBD ; Down-regulated in Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy cells	80
mRNA	PTEN-P1	Binds miRNAs that modulate expression of PTEN tumor suppressor	Tumor suppressor; Copy number losses in cancers, driving changes in PTEN tumor suppressor dosage	82, 83

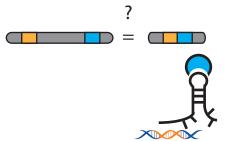
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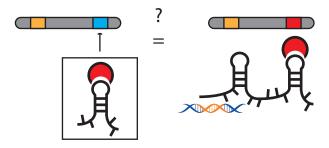
### **Deletion**

Find sequence / structure sufficient for function



# **Domain swapping**

Explore structural and functional modularity



# **Compensatory mutation**

Test whether structure encodes function

