Methylation pattern of polymorphically imprinted *nc886* is not conserved across mammalia

Daria Kostiniuk[1¶], Hely Tamminen[1¶], Pashupati P. Mishra[2,3,4], Saara Marttila[1,5&], Emma Raitoharju[1,3,6&*]

[1]Molecular Epidemiology, Faculty of Medicine and Health Technology, Tampere University, Tampere, Finland

[2]Department of Clinical Chemistry, Faculty of Medicine and Health Technology, Tampere University, Tampere, Finland

[3]Finnish Cardiovascular Research Centre, Faculty of Medicine and Health Technology, Tampere University, Tampere, Finland

[4]Department of Clinical Chemistry, Fimlab Laboratories, Tampere, Finland

[5]Gerontology Research Center, Tampere University, Finland

[6]Tampere University Hospital, Tampere, Finland

*Corresponding author

Email: emma.raitoharju@tuni.fi (ER)

[¶]DK and HT are joint first authors.

[&] SM and ER are joint senior authors.

Abstract

Background: In humans, the *nc886* locus is a polymorphically imprinted metastable epiallele. Periconceptional conditions have an effect on the methylation status of *nc886*, and further, this methylation status is associated with health outcomes in later life, in line with the Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) hypothesis. Animal models would offer opportunities to study the associations between periconceptional conditions, *nc886* methylation status and metabolic phenotypes further. Thus, we set out to investigate the methylation pattern of the *nc886* locus in non-human mammals.

Data: We obtained DNA methylation data from the data repository GEO for mammals, whose *nc886* gene included all three major parts of *nc886* and had sequence similarity of over 80% with the human *nc886*. Our final sample set consisted of DNA methylation data from humans, chimpanzees, bonobos, gorillas, orangutangs, baboons, macaques, vervets, marmosets and guinea pigs.

Results: In human data sets the methylation pattern of *nc886* locus followed the expected bimodal distribution, indicative of polymorphic imprinting. In great apes, we identified a unimodal DNA methylation pattern with 50% methylation level in all individuals and in all subspecies. In Old World monkeys, the between individual variation was greater and methylation on average was close to 60%. In guinea pigs the region around the *nc886* homologue was non-methylated. Results obtained from the sequence comparison of the CTCF binding sites flanking the *nc886* gene support the results on the DNA methylation data.

Conclusions: Our results indicate that unlike in humans, *nc886* is not a polymorphically imprinted metastable epiallele in non-human primates or in guinea pigs, thus implying that animal models are not applicable for *nc886* research. The obtained data suggests that the *nc886*

44   region may be classically imprinted in great apes, and potentially also in Old World monkeys,

45   but not in guinea pigs.

47   **Key words:** nc886, vtRNA2-1, primates, imprinting, DNA methylation

Background

In mammalian genomic imprinting, only one parental allele is expressed, while gene expression from the other allele is suppressed in a parent-of-origin-dependent manner. Imprinting has been hypothesized to have evolved in response to a parent-offspring conflict, where the maternal and paternal genome differ in their interests regarding the supply of resources [1]. Paternal genomes favor the opportunistic strategy to enhance the growth of the developing offspring through the expression of growth-enhancing genes, while maternal genomes aim to conserve maternal resources over multiple pregnancies [2]. On the other hand, according to the trophoblast defense theory, suppression of genes that promote placental development or to activate genes that limit this process in oocytes are thought to protect the females from parthenogenetically activated oocytes and consequential malignant trophoblast [3,4]. The expression of imprinted genes in general has been associated with fetal and placental growth and suggested to a have a role in the development of cardiometabolic diseases in adulthood [2,4,5]. Imprinting arose relatively recently at most loci— while only a few imprinted genes in Eutherians are also imprinted in marsupials, to date no imprinting has been reported in the egg-laying monotreme mammals [6]. This supports the conflict-of-interest theory, as only in non-egg laying mammals the growing fetus directly consumes the maternal resources [4]. Genetic imprinting is best described in mice, and while the mouse is an informative proxy for human imprinted gene regulation, less than half of the 100 human imprinted genes have been shown to be similarly imprinted in mice (https://www.geneimprint.com/site/home). Distinct differences in placental evolution, physiology, and reproductive biology of the primate and murine groups may be responsible for these differences.

During gametogenesis and fertilization, the original DNA methylation pattern of imprinted genes is erased, and parent of origin-based methylation pattern is established. While most

imprinted genes are located in clusters that are regulated by insulators or long noncoding RNAs

[3], some unclustered imprinted genes can be regulated by differential promoter methylation

[4]. Parental imprints are maintained after fertilization through these mechanisms despite

extensive reprogramming of the mammalian genome [4]. A common feature of imprinted genes

is insulators, such as CCCTC binding factor (CTCF) binding sites, which block the enhancers

from interacting with gene promoters and/or act as barrier to the spread of transcriptionally

repressive condensed chromatin [7].

The locus harbouring non coding 886 (*nc886*, also known as VTRNA2-1) in chromosome

5q31.1 is a unique example of imprinting, as it is the only known polymorphically imprinted

locus across tissues in adult human population, where the polymorphism is not due to genetic

variation [8–12]. However, in the placenta polymorphic imprinting is more common [13,14].

The *nc886* differentially methylated region (DMR) is 1.9-kb long, and its boundaries are

marked by two CTCF binding sites [10,15]. This DMR has been shown to present maternal

imprinting in ~75% of individuals in several populations [10,12,16]. This means that while in

all individuals the paternal allele is unmethylated, in approximately 75% of individuals the

maternal allele is methylated (individuals present a 50% methylation level at *nc886* locus) and

in the remaining 25% of individuals the maternal allele is unmethylated (individuals present a

0% methylation level at the *nc886* locus).

The *nc886* gene codes for a 102nt long, non-coding RNA, which is then cleaved into two short

RNAs (hsa-miR-886-3p/nc886-3p [23 nt] and hsa-miR-886-5p/nc886-5p [24–25 nt]) [17–19].

There is no consensus on whether the effects of *nc886* expression is mediated by the 102 nt

long hairpin structure or the nc886-3p and -5p molecules, as the short molecules have been

indicated to function as miRNAs, while the hairpin loop has been shown to inhibit protein

kinase R (PKR) [17,20]. Expression of nc886 RNAs is strongly associated with the methylation

status of the *nc886* locus. Individuals with non-methylated *nc886* present approximately two-

fold levels of nc886 RNAs in blood, as compared to individuals with monoallelic methylation

[16], thus implying allele-specific expression. However, allele-specific expression has not been

experimentally shown, as the 102 nt transcript does not harbour SNPs [10].

The periconceptional environment has been suggested to affect DNA methylation patterns in

maternal alleles[21], including the *nc886* epiallele [10,15,16]. Season of conception, maternal

age and socioeconomic status have been linked to changes in the proportion of offspring with

unmethylated maternal allele [10,15,16]. On the other hand, lower levels of *nc886* methylation

have been linked to cleft palate [22], and a non-methylated *nc886* epiallele has been associated

with an elevated childhood BMI [23]. The methylation status of this epiallele has also been

associated with allergies [24], asthma [25], infections [26], and inflammation [27]. We and

others have also shown that both the *nc886* methylation status and RNA expression are

associated with indicators of glucose metabolism [16,28].

These results indicate that *nc886* could mediate the association between periconceptional

conditions and later metabolic health, in line with the Developmental Origins of Health and

Disease (DOHaD) hypothesis (aka the Barker hypothesis) [29]. More detailed analysis on

periconceptional conditions and *nc886* methylation status and investigations between *nc886*

and metabolic phenotypes, with less cofounding factors, would be needed to confirm this

hypothesis. As carcinogenesis [9] and pluripotency induction [16] affect the DNA methylation

pattern in *nc886* locus, *in vitro* work has its limitations. Animal models could be a feasible

option for this research. Unfortunately, rodents do not harbor the *nc886* gene, limiting the use

of traditional model organisms [10]. Thus, this study was set up to investigate 1) which animals

have *nc886* gene, 2) whether this gene is surrounded by similar CTFC elements as the human

homolog and 3) whether the methylation status of the *nc886* region suggest polymorphic

imprinting in non-human mammals.

Materials and methods

The presence of *nc886* gene was investigated in ensemble, in 65 amniota vertebrates Mercator-

Pecan collection and 24 primates EPO-extended collection [30]. To select species for further

investigation, we required the *nc886* gene have 80% sequence similarity with the human

homolog and to present the sequences for nc886-3p and nc886-5p RNAs, as well as the loop

structure, previously shown to mediate the binding of PKR [17,31] (S1 and S2 Figs). The

existence and sequence similarity of the centromeric (chr5:135415115-135415544) and

telomeric CTCF (chr5:135418124-135418523) binding site flanking *nc886* gene were also

investigated in species shown to harbor intact *nc886* gene. If homologous CTCF-binding sites

were not discovered, CTCFBSDB 2.0 [32] was utilized to predict possible non-homologous

sites. Interactions of the *nc886* flanking CTCF-sites were also investigated using K562 CTCF

ChIA-PET Interactions data and Hi-C data in genome browser [33] and Hi-C data in 3D

Genome Browser from HUVEC and K562 cell lines [34].

For species harboring the *nc886* gene, we investigated the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO)

repository [35] for available DNA methylation data, with both general and binomial name of

the species. DNA methylation data was available in apes from chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*,

n=83; GSE136296 [36] and n=5; GSE41782 [37]), bonobos (*Pan paniscus*, n=6; GSE41782

[37]), gorillas (*Troglodytes gorilla*, n=6; GSE41782 [37]) and orangutangs (*Pongo spp.*, n=6;

GSE41782[37]). In Old World monkeys, data was obtained from baboons (*Papio spp.* n=28;

GSE103287 [38]), rhesus macaques (*Macaca mulatta,* n=10; GSE103287 [38]), vervets

(*Chlorocebus aethiops*, n=10; GSE103287 [38]) and in New World monkeys, from marmosets

(*Callithrix jacchus*, n=6; GSE103287 [38]). From primates, only data from blood or femur was

utilized. In addition to primates, we obtained DNA methylation data from guinea pig

hippocampus (*Cavia porcellus,* n=36; GSE109765 [39]). As reference, we utilized data from

human (*Homo sapiens*) blood (n=1658; GSE105018 [40]), femur (n=48; GSE64490 [41]) and

hippocampus (n=33; GSE72778 [42]).

Methylation profiling data obtained by high throughput sequencing (guinea pigs, GSE109765)

was processed as follows. Quality of the paired-end reads in all the samples was assessed using

FastQC [43] and MultiQC [44]. Paired-end fastq files were trimmed using Trimmomatic-0.39

with a sliding window of size 4 set to remove bases with phred score lower than 20 [45]. The

trimmed samples were analyzed using Bismark-0.23.0 tools [46]. The reads were aligned to

the guinea pig genome (cavPor3). Duplicate alignments, which can arise for example by PCR

amplification, were removed. Methylation information was extracted from the alignment result

files using Bismark's methylation extractor. DNA methylation values for CpGs inside the gene

were first inspected and then a wider region (±2000nt) around the gene was investigated.

Primate DNA methylation data from GSE41782, GSE105018, GSE64490, GSE72778

(profiled with Illumina 450K) and GSE136296 (profiled with Illumina EPIC) were available

as processed data and was used as such. Primate DNA methylation data from GSE103271,

GSE103280, GSE103286, which are subseries of GSE103332 (profiled with Illumina EPIC),

were available as raw data, and were normalized by using minfi quantile normalization for each

species separately.

From primate data, the 14 CpGs in the *nc886* DMR previously reported to show bimodal

methylation pattern in humans were retrieved [10,16]. In all the primate species, for which

methylation data was available, the sequence on the binding site of the Illumina probes was

investigated. Only data from sites with the CG-sequence intact in the species in question were

further utilized. (S1 File). Similar process was repeated for 50 probes in paternally expressed

10 (*PEG10*) previously shown to be imprinted [47]. *PEG10* was used as evolutionally

conserved reference for a classically imprinted gene [6].

Results and Discussion

nc886 gene in non-human mammals

Human *nc886* has been suggested to be an evolutionarily young gene, producing a 102 nt long

RNA, which is then ineffectively cleaved to two miRNA-like RNAs [17]. In line with previous

reports [10]*, nc886* gene, with intact short RNA coding sequences and the hairpin loop, can be

found in primates, in guinea pig (*Cavia porcellus*), Eurasian red squirrel (*Sciurus vulgaris*),

and Alpine marmot (*Marmota marmota*), with two of the latter having insertions in the

centromeric end of the gene (Fig 1, Fig 2, S1 Fig, S1 Table). In humans, and all the other

species where *nc886* was found, *nc886* is located between *TGFB1* and *SMAD5*.

Fig 1. Schematic presentation of the similarity of the *nc886* gene and flanking CTCF

binding sites. Guinea pigs lack the whole centromeric flanking CTCF binding site, whilst the

marmosets have a region with sequence similarity, but lack the binding sequence of the CTCF.

Mouse genome does not contain either the *nc886* gene or the CTCF binding sites flanking it.

For detailed sequence comparisons, see S1 and S2 Figs.

Fig 2. Schematic presentation of the *nc886* locus. In red, the *nc886* gene (chr5:135416180-

135416287), in green the centromeric CTCF binding site (chr5:135415115-135415544) and in

blue the telomeric CTFC binding site (chr5:135418124-135418523). The binding motif of the

CTCF sites are presented in yellow and the 14 CpGs with bimodal methylation pattern in

human cohorts are presented according to their genomic location (GRCh37/hg19).

Upon further inspection of primate *nc886* gene, almost 100% sequence similarity was

identified in apes (*hominoidea*). The sequence similarity was high (over 97%) between humans

and the investigated Old World monkeys (*Cercopithecidae*), while less (over 90%) similarity

can be seen between humans and New World monkeys (*Ceboidea*) and even less (84-89%)

between humans and tarsiers (*Tarsiidae*) or lemurs (*Lemuroidea*). Sequences coding for the

short nc886 RNAs are identical within Old World anthropoids (*Catarrhini).* Differences

between human and New World monkey and prosimian *nc886* sequences can be found both in

the short nc886 RNA and the hairpin coding regions, but the most significant differences can

be found in the centromeric end of the gene (Fig 1 and S2 Fig).

CTCF binding site sequence in mammals with *nc886* gene

In humans, the *nc886* locus is flanked by two CTCF binding sites (Fig 2) [10]. The telomeric

CTCF binding site can be found in most vertebrates, with the binding motif being identical in

all species showed to have the *nc886* gene (S1 Table). The telomeric CTCF binding site was

shown to interact with a CTCF binding site (chr5:135222814-135223707) locating near the *IL9*

gene in the CTCF ChIA-PET data, the interaction is also supported by the Hi-C data from cell

lines (S3 Fig). This prediction is in line with our previous finding indicating that genetic

polymorphisms near *IL9* gene are associated with the expression of nc886 RNAs [16]. This

CTCF binding site locating near *IL9* can be found in all primates (S1 Table). Together these

results suggest that the evolutionarily conserved telomeric CTCF binding site of *nc886* interacts

with CTCF binding sites near *IL9* gene, possibly forming a topologically associating domain

(TAD), or an interaction within one (sub-TAD), and bringing the suggested enhancer area near

the *nc886* gene [48]. On the contrary, the centromeric CTCF binding site is present only in

primates and even in primates, the binding sequence cannot be identified in marmosets. As

CTCF binding sites can act as barriers to the spread of transcriptionally repressive condensed

chromatin [7], presence, or absence, of the CTCF binding site may be associated with the

methylation status of *nc886* locus in different species. For the centromeric CTCF binding site

no interactions were detected according to CTCF ChIA-PET data. There are also changes in

the CTFC binding motif in gorillas (position 9), in all Old World monkeys (position 4) and also

in New World monkeys (position 14) (S1 Table). According to the CTCFBSDB 2.0, the guinea

pig genome does not harbor any non-homologous predicted CTCF binding sites in the

centromeric side of the *nc886* gene.

Guinea pigs present a non-methylated *nc886* locus

One of the aims of this study was to investigate whether the information gathered from the

nc886 gene and DMR from cell culture and population studies could be supplemented with

research on animal models. In line with a previous report [10] we identified this gene only in

primates, guinea pigs and few members of the squirrel family, of which guinea pig was the

most promising candidate as a model organism. In data from Constantinof et al. [39], in guinea

pig hippocampi (n=36) the whole *nc886/vtRNA2-1* gene was non-methylated (S4 Fig). The

surrounding *nc886* region (Scaffold DS562872.1: 24,622,179-24,622,280) +/- 2000 nt was

mostly unmethylated, with only 2% of the reads in the region being methylated. It should be

noted that the number of reads in the region in the data utilized was low (max number of

reads=17, average number of reads=7). *nc886* methylation pattern in human hippocampi

presented the expected bimodal distribution, and thus the discovered methylation pattern in the

guinea pig hippocampi was most likely not due to the selection of tissue (S4 Fig). This

identified lack of methylation in the *nc886* locus is compatible with the absence of the telomeric

CTCF binding site, as CTCF binding sites can delineate the boundaries of an imprinted region

[49]. These results thus suggest that guinea pigs are not suitable model organisms for the

investigation of establishment of *nc886* methylation status.

Imprinted *nc886* region in great apes

The blood of chimpanzees, gorillas, bonobos and orangutans presented beta-values close to 0.5

with a unimodal distribution in the *nc886* region (Fig 3, S2 Table). This methylation pattern

closely resembles the methylation pattern in the known maternally imprinted gene *PEG10* (S5

Fig). The methylation levels are also very similar to those presented in humans with

monoallelic methylation (Fig 3). In these data sets, that include more than 110 apes, we did not

identify any individuals with methylation level close to 0 in the *nc886* locus, whereas in

humans 25% of the population present a methylation level close to 0 at this locus [10,16]. If

the prevalence on non-methylated individuals in apes was similar to humans, already 11

individuals would present at least one non-methylated individual with 95% probability. Of

individual species, we had the largest dataset for chimpanzees (n=83 in GSE136296 and n=5

in GSE41782). Again, assuming the same proportion of non-methylated individuals as in

humans (25%), probability of not identifying any non-methylated chimpanzees in a population

of 88 individuals is extremely low, $1.01*10^{-11}$. These results imply that the *nc886* locus is not

polymorphically imprinted in apes.

Figure 3. Blood DNA methylation beta values in *nc886* region in great apes (Hominidae).

In each graph, one dot represents one individual. In humans a bimodal methylation pattern can

be detected, in line with the expected population distribution of individuals with monoallelic

methylation (75% of the population, methylation level ~0.5) and non-methylated individuals

(25% of the population, methylation level close to 0) [10,16]. All of the other species present

a unimodal methylation pattern, with all individuals having methylation beta-values near 0.5

across the *nc886* locus. Number of individuals is 1658 for humans (GSE105018), 6 for bonobos

(GSE41782), 83 and 5 for chimpanzees (GSE136296 and GSE41782, respectively), 6 for

gorillas (GSE41782) and 6 for orangutans (GSE41782). For schematic representation of the

CpG sites in the *nc886* locus, see Fig 2.

Within species, median of standard deviation of the probe methylation of *nc886* is around 0.04,

which is comparable to that seen in *PEG10* in apes (median of SD 0.03) and in human blood

(0.02), indicating good data quality (S2 Table). In all apes the methylation levels of *nc886*

region resembled those seen in *PEG10,* which is an evolutionarily conserved maternally

imprinted gene [6]. It is thus reasonable to suggest that *nc886* could be classically imprinted in

other great apes, excluding humans.

nc886 region methylation patterns in Old World monkeys

The patterns of *nc886* region methylation are very similar in all of the Old World monkeys.

The median methylation level is close to 0.60, higher as compared to apes. The interindividual

variation is larger, especially in baboons, than in apes, with the median SD within a probe being

0.11. The SD within a probe is also higher in probes locating in *PEG10* in baboons, where the

median of probe SD is 0.05 (S2 Table). As the between individual variation in methylation

levels of a known evolutionarily conserved imprinted gene is also higher, this suggests a

technical bias in the data, potentially due to the use of Illumina Infinium 450K and EPIC

methylation assays, that are designed for humans. All methylation data available for Old World monkeys was from femur, but as the methylation pattern of *nc886* has been reported to be constant across tissues in humans [12] and in the human reference data set form femur samples both *nc886* and *PEG10* present similar methylation patterns as in blood (Fig 4 and S6 Fig), this phenomenon most likely is not caused by the tissue of origin. Regardless of the precise methylation levels of the Old World monkeys, in the 48 individuals we did not identify any presenting a non-methylated methylation pattern in *nc886* region, probability of which is $1.0*10^{-6}$, when assuming similar distribution as in humans. This implies that similar to non-human great apes, the *nc886* locus is not polymorphically imprinted in Old World monkeys.

Figure 4. Femur DNA methylation beta values in the *nc886* region in humans and in monkeys. In humans a bimodal methylation pattern can be detected, similar to blood and in line with the expected population distribution of individuals with monoallelic methylation (75% of the population, methylation level ~0.5) and non-methylated individuals (25% of the population, methylation level close to 0) [10,16]. In Old World monkeys the between individual variation is bigger than in apes. No individuals presenting a non-methylated *nc886* region are detected. In marmosets only 3 probes were considered to provide reliable methylation values and none of them present methylation levels near 0.5. Number of individuals is 48 for humans (GSE64490), 28 for baboons (GSE103287), 10 for macaques (GSE103287), 10 for vervets (GSE103287) and 6 for marmosets (GSE103287). For schematic representation of the CpG sites in the *nc886* locus, see Fig 2.

nc886 region methylation patterns in New World monkeys

Data from the six marmosets is not conclusive, as we found that only 3 of the probes in *nc886*

region bound to areas with no great sequence differences. The methylation levels of two of

these probes were around 0.8 and one 0.32, showing no indications of imprinting, while the

median of methylation beta values in the probes locating in the *PEG10* is 0.46 in marmosets

(Fig 4 and S6 Fig, S2 Table). The lack of imprinting of any kind in marmosets is further

supported by the finding that they lack the centromeric CTCF binding motif, which is thought

to have an important role in insulating the DMR [10]. To draw conclusions on the methylation

status of *nc886* in New World monkeys in general, methylation data from more species would

be needed.

Limitations of the study

Our study is purely descriptive in nature. In guinea pigs, the shallowness of the sequencing

data limits the ability to make conclusions of the methylation pattern. In non-human primates,

utilizing methylation arrays that have been designed for humans raises questions on data

quality, especially in marmosets. Concerns over data quality are however mitigated by the

observed methylation pattern in well-established imprinted gene, *PEG10*, as well as the

consistency of observed results across different species and data sets. In addition, while a

methylation level of 0.50 implies allele specific methylation, we were not able to confirm this

due to lack of suitable data.

Conclusions

330   We describe here an analysis on the methylation status of *nc886* region in non-human

331   mammals. A genetic locus, with more than 80% similarity to human *nc886* gene can be found

in primates, guinea pigs and some members of the squirrel family. We obtained DNA methylation data for 8 different non-human primate species and for guinea pigs, and in none of these species could we observe methylation pattern indicative of similar polymorphic imprinting, as could be observed, and has been reported [10,12,16], in humans. The observed methylation pattern in apes and in Old World monkeys implies that the *nc886* region might be classically imprinted, although these findings have to be interpreted with caution, as apart from chimpanzees the sample number were low, and in Old World monkeys the variation between individuals was notable. In guinea pigs, the most feasible potential model organism of those harboring the *nc886* locus, the data indicated that the locus is completely unmethylated. It is noteworthy that only primates, whose genome also contained the centromeric CTCF binding sequence flanking the *nc886* gene, had methylation levels indicative of genetic imprinting.

In conclusion, we were unable to identify an animal model suited to study the establishment of the methylation pattern of the polymorphically imprinted metastable epiallele *nc886*. Further studies on how this kind of unusual metastable developed, and how it links to the periconceptional conditions and later life health traits, are thus restricted to *in vitro* and population studies.

Declarations

Ethics approval

Datasets used in this study were retrieved from Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO, www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) repository. For human data sets, informed consent or "Consent for Autopsy" were given by all participants. For animal studies all protocols were approved by

354 the local ethical committees and/or the samples were collected during standard veterinary

355 checks or routine necropsies. Details can be found from the original publications [36–42].

Consent for publication

357   Not applicable

Availability of data and materials

359   All methylation data utilized are available in GEO, under accession numbers GSE136296,

360 GSE41782, GSE103287, GSE109765, GSE105018, GSE64490 and GSE72778.

Competing interests

362   The authors declare that they have no competing interests

Funding

This study has been supported by the Academy of Finland (https://www.aka.fi/en/) (grants

330809 and 338395 (E.R.)); the Tampere University Hospital Medical Funds

(shorturl.at/gsyV0) (grants 9AC077, 9X047, 9S054, and 9AB059 for E.R.); the Yrjö Jahnsson

Foundation (https://www.yjs.fi/en/) (S.M. and E.R); Orion Research Foundation

(https://www.orion.fi/en/rd/orion-research-foundation/) (E.R.); the Foundation of Clinical

Chemistry (https://www.juhaniahonlaaketieteensaatio.fi/) (E.R), Laboratoriolääketieteen

edistämissäätiö sr. (https://www.labes.fi/) (E.R.) and the Paulo Foundation

(https://www.paulo.fi/in-english) (S.M). The funders had no role in study design, data

collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Author Contributions

374   S.M. and E.R. designed the research; D.K., H.T., P.P.M., S.M. and E.R. performed research;

375   S.M. and E.R. provided resources; D.K., H.T., P.P.M., S.M. and E.R. curated data; S.M. and

376   E.R wrote the original draft manuscript; D.K., H.T., P.P.M., S.M. and E.R. reviewed and edited

377   the manuscript. Funding was acquired by S.M and E.R. All authors have read and agreed upon

378   the published version of the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

380   The authors wish to thank Jooseppi Järvinen (MSc) for his contribution to the probability

381   calculations, Nina Mononen (PhD) and Binisha Mishra (MSc) for their valuable input on the

382   manuscript and to acknowledge all the researchers who contributed towards the collection of

383   datasets utilized in this study.

References:

1.   Moore T, Haig D. Genomic imprinting in mammalian development: a parental tug-of-

war. Trends in Genetics. 1991. doi:10.1016/0168-9525(91)90230-N

2.   Smith FM, Garfield AS, Ward A. Regulation of growth and metabolism by imprinted

genes. Cytogenetic and Genome Research. 2006. doi:10.1159/000090843

3.   Varmuza S, Mann M. Genomic imprinting - defusing the ovarian time bomb. Trends in

Genetics. 1994;10. doi:10.1016/0168-9525(94)90212-7

4.   Barlow DP, Bartolomei MS. Genomic imprinting in mammals. Cold Spring Harbor

Perspectives in Biology. 2014;6. doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a018382

5.   Millership SJ, Van de Pette M, Withers DJ. Genomic imprinting and its effects on

postnatal growth and adult metabolism. Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences. 2019.

doi:10.1007/s00018-019-03197-z

6.   Renfree MB, Suzuki S, Kaneko-Ishino T. The origin and evolution of genomic

imprinting and viviparity in mammals. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society

B: Biological Sciences. 2013. doi:10.1098/rstb.2012.0151

7.   Lewis A, Reik W. How imprinting centres work. Cytogenetic and Genome Research.

2006. doi:10.1159/000090818

8.   Treppendahl MB, Qiu X, Søgaard A, Yang X, Nandrup-Bus C, Hother C, et al. Allelic

methylation levels of the noncoding VTRNA2-1 located on chromosome 5q31.1 predict

outcome in AML. Blood. 2012. doi:10.1182/blood-2011-06-362541

9.   Romanelli V, Nakabayashi K, Vizoso M, Moran S, Iglesias-Platas I, Sugahara N, et al.

Variable maternal methylation overlapping the nc886/vtRNA2-1 locus is locked

between hypermethylated repeats and is frequently altered in cancer. Epigenetics. 2014.

doi:10.4161/epi.28323

10.   Carpenter BL, Zhou W, Madaj Z, DeWitt AK, Ross JP, Grønbæk K, et al. Mother–child

transmission of epigenetic information by tunable polymorphic imprinting. Proceedings

of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2018.

doi:10.1073/pnas.1815005115

11.   Zink F, Magnusdottir DN, Magnusson OT, Walker NJ, Morris TJ, Sigurdsson A, et al.

Insights into imprinting from parent-of-origin phased methylomes and transcriptomes.

Nature Genetics. 2018. doi:10.1038/s41588-018-0232-7

12.   Carpenter BL, Remba TK, Thomas SL, Madaj Z, Brink L, Tiedemann RL, et al. Oocyte

age and preconceptual alcohol use are highly correlated with epigenetic imprinting of a

noncoding RNA (nc886). Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the

United States of America. 2021;118. doi:10.1073/pnas.2026580118

13.   Hanna CW, Peñaherrera MS, Saadeh H, Andrews S, McFadden DE, Kelsey G, et al.
Pervasive polymorphic imprinted methylation in the human placenta. Genome
Research. 2016;26. doi:10.1101/gr.196139.115

14.   Sanchez-Delgado M, Court F, Vidal E, Medrano J, Monteagudo-Sánchez A, Martin-
Trujillo A, et al. Human Oocyte-Derived Methylation Differences Persist in the Placenta
Revealing Widespread Transient Imprinting. PLoS Genetics. 2016;12.
doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1006427

15.   Silver MJ, Kessler NJ, Hennig BJ, Dominguez-Salas P, Laritsky E, Baker MS, et al.
Independent genomewide screens identify the tumor suppressor VTRNA2-1 as a human
epiallele responsive to periconceptional environment. Genome Biology. 2015.
doi:10.1186/s13059-015-0660-y

16.   Marttila S, Viiri LE, Mishra PP, Kühnel B, Matias-Garcia PR, Lyytikäinen L-P, et al.
Methylation status of nc886 epiallele reflects periconceptional conditions and is
associated with glucose metabolism through nc886 RNAs. Clinical Epigenetics.
2021;13. doi:10.1186/s13148-021-01132-3

17.   Fort RS, Garat B, Sotelo-Silveira JR, Duhagon MA. vtRNA2-1/nc886 produces a small
RNA that contributes to its tumor suppression action through the microRNA pathway in
prostate cancer. Non-coding RNA. 2020. doi:10.3390/ncrna6010007

18.   Kong L, Hao Q, Wang Y, Zhou P, Zou B, Zhang Y xiang. Regulation of p53 expression
and apoptosis by vault RNA2-1-5p in cervical cancer cells. Oncotarget. 2015.
doi:10.18632/oncotarget.4948

19.   Lee K, Kunkeaw N, Jeon SH, Lee I, Johnson BH, Kang GY, et al. Precursor miR-886,
a novel noncoding RNA repressed in cancer, associates with PKR and modulates its
activity. RNA. 2011. doi:10.1261/rna.2701111

20.   Lee YS. A Novel Type of Non-coding RNA, nc886, Implicated in Tumor Sensing and

Suppression. Genomics & Informatics. 2015. doi:10.5808/gi.2015.13.2.26

21.   Steegers-Theunissen RPM, Twigt J, Pestinger V, Sinclair KD. The periconceptional

period, reproduction and long-term health of offspring: The importance of one-carbon

metabolism. Human Reproduction Update. 2013. doi:10.1093/humupd/dmt041

22.   Gonseth S, Shaw GM, Roy R, Segal MR, Asrani K, Rine J, et al. Epigenomic profiling

of newborns with isolated orofacial clefts reveals widespread DNA methylation changes

and implicates metastable epiallele regions in disease risk. Epigenetics. 2019.

doi:10.1080/15592294.2019.1581591

23.   van Dijk SJ, Peters TJ, Buckley M, Zhou J, Jones PA, Gibson RA, et al. DNA

methylation in blood from neonatal screening cards and the association with BMI and

insulin sensitivity in early childhood. International Journal of Obesity. 2018.

doi:10.1038/ijo.2017.228

24.   Yu S, Zhang R, Liu G, Yan Z, Hu H, Yu S, et al. Microarray analysis of differentially

expressed microRNAs in allergic rhinitis. American Journal of Rhinology and Allergy.

2011. doi:10.2500/ajra.2011.25.3682

25.   Suojalehto H, Lindström I, Majuri ML, Mitts C, Karjalainen J, Wolff H, et al. Altered

microRNA expression of nasal mucosa in long-term asthma and allergic rhinitis.

International Archives of Allergy and Immunology. 2014. doi:10.1159/000358486

26.   Sharbati J, Lewin A, Kutz-Lohroff B, Kamal E, Einspanier R, Sharbati S. Integrated

microrna-mrna-analysis of human monocyte derived macrophages upon mycobacterium

avium subsp. hominissuis infection. PLoS ONE. 2011.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0020258

27.   Asaoka T, Sotolongo B, Island ER, Tryphonopoulos P, Selvaggi G, Moon J, et al.

467   MicroRNA signature of intestinal acute cellular rejection in formalin-fixed paraffin-

468   embedded mucosal biopsies. American Journal of Transplantation. 2012.

469   doi:10.1111/j.1600-6143.2011.03807.x

470   28.   Lin CH, Lee YS, Huang YY, Tsai CN. Methylation status of vault rna 2-1 promoter is a

471   predictor of glycemic response to glucagon-like peptide-1 analog therapy in type 2

472   diabetes mellitus. BMJ Open Diabetes Research and Care. 2021;9. doi:10.1136/bmjdrc-

473   2020-001416

474   29.   Barker DJP, Osmond C. INFANT MORTALITY, CHILDHOOD NUTRITION, AND

475   ISCHAEMIC HEART DISEASE IN ENGLAND AND WALES. The Lancet. 1986.

476   doi:10.1016/S0140-6736(86)91340-1

477   30.   Kent WJ, Sugnet CW, Furey TS, Roskin KM, Pringle TH, Zahler AM, et al. The Human

478   Genome Browser at UCSC. Genome Research. 2002;12. doi:10.1101/gr.229102

479   31.   Bou-Nader C, Gordon JM, Henderson FE, Zhang J. The search for a PKR code—

480   differential regulation of protein kinase R activity by diverse RNA and protein

481   regulators. RNA. 2019. doi:10.1261/rna.070169.118

482   32.   Ziebarth JD, Bhattacharya A, Cui Y. CTCFBSDB 2.0: A database for CTCF-binding

483   sites and genome organization. Nucleic Acids Research. 2013;41.

484   doi:10.1093/nar/gks1165

485   33.   Rosenbloom KR, Sloan CA, Malladi VS, Dreszer TR, Learned K, Kirkup VM, et al.

486   ENCODE Data in the UCSC Genome Browser: Year 5 update. Nucleic Acids Research.

487   2013;41. doi:10.1093/nar/gks1172

488   34.   Wang Y, Song F, Zhang B, Zhang L, Xu J, Kuang D, et al. The 3D Genome Browser:
489   A web-based browser for visualizing 3D genome organization and long-range chromatin
490   interactions. Genome Biology. 2018;19. doi:10.1186/s13059-018-1519-9

491   35.   Barrett T, Wilhite SE, Ledoux P, Evangelista C, Kim IF, Tomashevsky M, et al. NCBI
492   GEO: Archive for functional genomics data sets - Update. Nucleic Acids Research.
493   2013;41. doi:10.1093/nar/gks1193

494   36.   Guevara EE, Lawler RR, Staes N, White CM, Sherwood CC, Ely JJ, et al. Age-
495   associated epigenetic change in chimpanzees and humans. Philosophical Transactions
496   of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. 2020;375. doi:10.1098/rstb.2019.0616

497   37.   Hernando-Herraez I, Prado-Martinez J, Garg P, Fernandez-Callejo M, Heyn H, Hvilsom
498   C, et al. Dynamics of DNA Methylation in Recent Human and Great Ape Evolution.
499   PLoS Genetics. 2013;9. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1003763

500   38.   Housman G, Quillen EE, Stone AC. Intraspecific and interspecific investigations of
501   skeletal DNA methylation and femur morphology in primates. American Journal of
502   Physical Anthropology. 2020;173. doi:10.1002/ajpa.24041

503   39.   Constantinof A, Boureau L, Moisiadis VG, Kostaki A, Szyf M, Matthews SG. Prenatal
504   Glucocorticoid Exposure Results in Changes in Gene Transcription and DNA
505   Methylation in the Female Juvenile Guinea Pig Hippocampus Across Three
506   Generations. Scientific Reports. 2019;9. doi:10.1038/s41598-019-54456-9

507   40.   Hannon E, Knox O, Sugden K, Burrage J, Wong CCY, Belsky DW, et al. Characterizing
508   genetic and environmental influences on variable DNA methylation using monozygotic
509   and dizygotic twins. PLoS Genetics. 2018. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1007544

510   41.   Horvath S, Mah V, Lu AT, Woo JS, Choi OW, Jasinska AJ, et al. The cerebellum ages

511   slowly according to the epigenetic clock. Aging. 2015;7. doi:10.18632/aging.100742

512   42.   Horvath S, Langfelder P, Kwak S, Aaronson J, Rosinski J, Vogt TF, et al. Huntington's

513   disease accelerates epigenetic aging of human brain and disrupts DNA methylation

514   levels. Aging. 2016;8. doi:10.18632/aging.101005

515   43.   Andrews S. FastQC - A quality control tool for high throughput sequence data.

516   http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/. Babraham Bioinformatics.

517   2010.

518   44.   Ewels P, Magnusson M, Lundin S, Käller M. MultiQC: Summarize analysis results for

519   multiple   tools   and   samples   in   a   single   report.   Bioinformatics.   2016;32.

520   doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btw354

521   45.   Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: A flexible trimmer for Illumina

522   sequence data. Bioinformatics. 2014;30. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btu170

523   46.   Krueger F, Andrews SR. Bismark: A flexible aligner and methylation caller for

524   Bisulfite-Seq applications. Bioinformatics. 2011;27. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btr167

525   47.   Hernandez Mora JR, Tayama C, Sánchez-Delgado M, Monteagudo-Sánchez A, Hata K,

526   Ogata T, et al. Characterization of parent-of-origin methylation using the Illumina

527   Infinium MethylationEPIC array platform. Epigenomics. 2018;10. doi:10.2217/epi-

528   2017-0172

529   48.   Kentepozidou E, Aitken SJ, Feig C, Stefflova K, Ibarra-Soria X, Odom DT, et al.

530   Clustered CTCF binding is an evolutionary mechanism to maintain topologically

531   associating domains. Genome Biology. 2020;21. doi:10.1186/s13059-019-1894-x

532   49.   Dowen JM, Fan ZP, Hnisz D, Ren G, Abraham BJ, Zhang LN, et al. Control of cell

533   identity genes occurs in insulated neighborhoods in mammalian chromosomes. Cell.

534   2014;159. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2014.09.030

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Sequence alignment of the *nc886* gene in the 65 amniota vertebrates Mercator-

Pecan. To state that a species presents the *nc886* we required 80% sequence similarity with the

human *nc886* and presence of both nc886-5p and nc886-3p short RNAs and the hairpin loop

present in the 102nt long nc886 RNA. Species above the dashed line were considered to

harbour the full *nc886* gene. Note: Sequence alignment figures are presented in the direction

of the gene. Species with no identified alignment in this region were excluded from the figure

(Sauropsids, opossum (*Monodelphis domestica*) and platypus (*Ornithorhynchus anatinus*)).

S2 Fig. Sequence alignment of the *nc886* gene in the 24 primates in EPO-extended

collection. Sequence similarity to human *nc886* gene decreases as evolutionary distance

increases and greatest diverge is seen in the centromeric end of the gene. Note: Sequence

alignment figures are presented in the direction of the gene.

S3 Fig. Predicted interaction between *nc886* telomeric CTCF binding site and CTCF

binding site located near IL9. A) ChIA-PET data and in HI-C data in Genome browser cell

lines and in 3D genome browser. B) HUVEC and C) K562 cell lines. The suggested sub-TAD

has been indicated with a black square and interactions in HI-C data have been circumscribed.

The telomeric CTCF binding site is located at chr5:135418124-135418523 and the CTCF

binding site near *IL9* at chr5:135223050-135223420.

S4 Fig. Methylation of *nc886* region in hippocampi of A) guinea pigs (GSE109765) and

B) humans (GSE64509). In (A) each circle presents a CpG site with measured methylation

level and each line one individual guinea pig (n=36). The number of reads per site is low (on

average 7) but none of the samples provide data that would indicate anything but non-

methylated DNA methylation status around the guinea pig *nc886* gene. In human hippocampi

(B) the methylation pattern of *nc886* presents the expected binomial methylation pattern, which

is in line with reported frequency of 25% non-methylated individuals and 75% individuals with

monoallelic methylation in a population.

S5 Fig. Methylation pattern of Paternally expressed 10 (*PEG10*) in blood of great apes.

Only probes locating in sites with no clear sequence differences as compared to the human

PEG10 sequence are shown.

S6 Fig. Methylation pattern of Paternally expressed 10 (*PEG10*) in femur bone of humans

and Old and New World monkeys. Only probes locating in sites with no clear sequence

differences as compared to the human *PEG10* sequence are shown.

S1 File. Sequence alignment of the *nc886* region between human, bonobo, chimpanzee,

gorilla, orangutang, gibbon, baboon, macaque, vervet and marmoset. The sequence

comparison covers the region containing the 14 CpG sites presenting bimodal methylation

pattern in humans (chr5:135415593-135416666). These CpG sites are highlighted in yellow.

S1 Table. Sequence similarities of *nc886* gene and its centromeric and telomeric CTCF

binding sites, and the CTCF binding site located near Il9 gene in primates, marmot,

squirrel, guinea pig and in mouse investigated from NCBI BLAST and ensemble.

S2 Table. Methylation medians and standard deviations of the PEG10 and *nc886* regions

and individual probes in the *nc886* region in primates. Medians and standard deviations in

human *nc886* are not comparable to other species, as it is known to demonstrate bimodal

methylation pattern in humans.

Sequence similarity

- ▓ >95%
- ▨ 90-95%
- ▨ 85-90%
- ☐ <85%

- ■ Centromeric CTFC binding site
- ■ *nc886* gene
- ■ Telomeric CTCF binding site
- ⊠ Centromeric CTFC binding site lacking the CTCF binding motif
- | Highly altered binding motif without significant similarity in the CTCF binding site

Great apes
Lesser apes
Old world monkeys
New world monkeys
Rodents