CADTAD: CAncer Driver Topologically Associated Domains identify oncogenic and tumor suppressive lncRNAs

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Abstract

Cancer lncRNAs have been identified by both experimental and in silico methods. However, the current approaches for mining cancer lncRNAs are not sufficient and accurate. To deeply discover them, we focus on the core cancer driver lncRNAs (CDLs) which directly interact with cancer driver protein-coding genes. We investigated various aspects of cancer-related lncRNAs (CRLs), including their genomic locations, expression patterns, and their direct interactions with cancer driver protein-coding genes. We found that most CRLs located in cancer driver topologically associated domains (CDTs). Moreover, some CRLs showed a high tendency for co-expression and binding sites with cancer driver protein-coding genes. Utilizing these distinctive characteristics and integrating >4000 multi-omics data, we developed a pipeline CADTAD to unearth conserved candidate CDLs in pan-cancer, including 256 oncogenic lncRNAs, 177 tumor suppressive lncRNAs, and 75 dual-function lncRNAs, as well as some specific candidate CDLs in three individual cancer types and validated their cancer-related characteristics. Importantly, the function of 10 putative CDLs in prostate cancer was subsequently validated through cell studies. In light of these findings, our study offers a new perspective from the 3D genome to study the roles of lncRNAs in cancer. Furthermore, we provide a valuable set of potential lncRNAs that could deepen our understanding of the oncogenic mechanism of CDLs.

Introduction

Genetic[1] and epigenetic[2,3] features are commonly employed to discover cancer driver protein-coding genes, pivotal contributors to cancer progression[4]. However, the coding genes represent less than 2% of the entire genomic sequence, while most of the genome is transcribed into large number of noncoding RNAs, among which long noncoding RNAs (lncRNAs) stands out as a significant constitution. lncRNAs is a class of molecules exceeding 200 base pairs in length and typically has limited protein-coding potential[5]. They can engaged with DNA, RNA, or proteins to orchestrate the gene expression and chromatin architecture through various processes such as epigenetic regulation, transcription, or translation[6–11]. So it has been considered that lncRNAs may transcend the boundaries of genomics and epigenomics, assuming a supragenomic role[9], challenging the Central Dogma by exerting influence over DNA, RNA, and protein[11]. Numerous studies have reported the pivotal roles of the lncRNAs in cancer development[12–14]. Since subcellular localization of lncRNAs largely determines their function[15], most lncRNAs located in

the nucleus are strongly enriched within 3D proximity of their transcriptional loci[16] and can exert

cis-regulatory influence on neighboring genes. For example, lncRNA *CDKN2B-AS1* mediates the

epigenetic silencing of proximal genes *CDKN2A* and *CDKN2B* to increase cell proliferation[17,18].

Furthermore, certain lncRNAs in the nucleus can also affect distant genes expression, such as

HOTAIR repressing the expression of distant gene *HOXD* cluster by epigenetic silencing, resulting

in enhanced tumor metastasis[19,20]. On the other hand, some cytoplasmic lncRNAs can act as

microRNA sponges. For instance, *PTENP1* effectively sequesters specific microRNAs, thereby

preventing them from binding to *PTEN* and subsequently promoting its degradation[21]. Hence,

unraveling the function of lncRNAs is conducive to promoting our understanding of the initiation

and development of tumors and identifying the potential therapeutic targets for cancer.

The efficiency of experimental methodologies for identification cancer lncRNAs has

exhibited poor performance, while many bioinformatic approaches have predominantly yielded

cancer-related lncRNAs (CRLs) that have limited influence on tumorigenesis. The majority of

investigations about lncRNAs concentrated on individual molecules and their respective functions

in tumor[22,23]. Although this approach facilitates an in-depth exploration of specific functions of

lncRNA in tumors, it lacks the capacity for large-scale screening. Consequently, a limited subset

of lncRNAs can be examined in tumors due to insufficient detection, leaving the roles of numerous

other lncRNAs in tumors unexplored. In addition, large-scale experimental screening tools, such

as CRISPRi have been employed to silence all lncRNAs in order to assess their influence on tumor

development through cell proliferation[24]. While, this method is relatively reliable in identifying

lncRNAs with potential tumor-related effects, it is associated with substantial experimental costs.

Furthermore, the reproducibility of results may be compromised by variations in experimental

conditions and cellular environment. Moreover, a comprehensive understanding of the

mechanisms underlying the impact of lncRNAs on tumorigenesis remains unclear. One of the

bioinformatics methods entailed a meticulous manual curation process aimed at reviewing and

collating all lncRNAs associated with tumors. Subsequently, these curated lncRNAs were

integrated into CRL database[25,26]. It should be noted that this method relied exclusively on existing

literature and exhibited some leniency in the inclusion criteria for lncRNAs. The lncRNAs with

different expression patterns in tumor tissues compared with normal counterparts were considered

as CRLs. However, the only evidence of expression difference is not sufficient to prove the pivotal

roles of lncRNAs in tumorigenesis. An alternative approach was to utilize machine learning

techniques and combine multiple features to predict CRLs[27–32]. These predictive models only
identified CRLs reliant on training sets. Therefore, the current studies are not capable to
comprehensively and accurately discern cancer driver lncRNAs (CDLs), and not able to
distinguish between oncogenic and tumor suppressive lncRNA in silico.

In a wide range of eukaryotes, DNAs in the chromatin are folded into higher-ordered
structures. One of the fundamental structural entities of chromatin is the Topologically Associated
Domain (TAD), representing a discrete region of gene regulation. Within the confines of TAD,
DNA elements exhibited frequent interactions with one another, while inter-TAD chromatin
interactions tend to be relatively less pronounced. Perturbation of TAD boundaries can cause
profound consequences, including long-range transcriptional dysregulation and aberrant gene
expression[33,34]. Within the same TAD territory, lncRNA and protein-coding genes may frequently
engage in interactions and show similar functions.

Given the critical role of lncRNAs playing in cancer progression and the strong correlations
with the expression of proximate genes, acting as cis-regulatory elements [35], we link lncRNAs to
cancer driver protein-coding genes to deeply and accurately identify CDLs. CDLs are defined as
those lncRNAs capable of modulating the expression of cancer driver protein-coding genes,
thereby promoting tumorigenesis. These CDLs can be divided into oncogenic lncRNAs and tumor
suppressive lncRNAs according to their association with cancer driver protein-coding genes. In
this study, we first explored the interplay between CRLs and cancer driver protein-coding genes.
Notably, CRLs exhibited a pronounced propensity to localize within cancer driver topologically
associated domains (CDTs). Furthermore, our analysis of CRLs revealed enhanced co-expression
profile and exhibited an elevated degree of lncRNA-DNA interactions with cancer driver protein-
coding genes. We constructed a pipeline CADTAD and employed these insights to explore
potential CDL datasets across various cancer types. This endeavor yielded a subset of candidates
including 256 oncogenic lncRNAs, 177 tumor suppressive lncRNAs and 75 dual-function
lncRNAs for pan-cancer and putative CDLs in three individual cancer types (prostate cancer,
gastric cancer, and lung cancer). To validate the efficacy of identified CDLs, we utilized cancer
genomic, epigenomic, and phenotype data. Additionally, we conducted CRISPR-Cas9 knockout
experiments to confirm the function of 6 oncogenic lncRNAs and 4 tumor suppressive lncRNAs
specifically in prostate cancer.

Results

CDT is an important feature to identify CDLs.

We initially collected a set of 556 cancer driver protein-coding genes, which can be categorized as either oncogenes or tumor suppressor genes according to the Cancer Gene Census (CGC) database[36] v.94. Meanwhile, 426 and 822 CRLs were respectively obtained from Cancer LncRNA Census 2 (CLC2)[25] and Lnc2Cancer3.0[26]. We explored the relationship between these CRLs and cancer driver protein-coding genes within the context of cancer (See Methods).

It has been reported that lncRNA expression more extremely correlates with either neighboring (cis) or distal (trans) protein-coding genes compared to correlations of all-against-all protein-coding genes[5]. Therefore, our initial investigation focused on the associations between the expressions of CRLs and cancer-driver protein-coding genes. We found that CRLs obtained from both CLC2 and Lnc2Cancer exhibited significantly higher levels of co-expression with cancer driver protein-coding genes when compared to randomly selected lncRNAs or protein-coding genes (Fig. 1A). Furthermore, when considering the transcription start sites (TSSs) of cancer driver protein-coding genes or housekeeping genes as the center, we observed a notable predominance of CRLs in proximity to cancer driver protein-coding genes compared with their distribution around housekeeping genes across a series of extended genomic regions (Fig. 1B, Fig. S1A, see Methods). According to our findings, we proposed a scenario that lncRNAs may control their neighboring cancer driver protein-coding. Since TADs are characterized by high-density chromatin contacts and their alterations may cause aberrant gene expression[34], we consider TADs in cancer samples as functional units within which lncRNAs can potentially affect the expression of cancer driver protein-coding genes. TADs can be categorized into two groups: CDTs, which are defined as TADs that contain at least one cancer driver protein-coding gene, and the remaining TADs referred to as typical TADs. Our results revealed that the densities of CRLs were higher in CDTs than those in neighboring typical TADs or randomly selected typical TADs of similar length in prostate cancer cell line LNCaP (Fig. 1C-D, Fig. S1B-C, see Methods). In breast cancer cell line T47D, we observed the consistent results (Fig. 1E-F). These observations suggested that CRLs located close to cancer driver protein-coding genes, especially in the same TAD. Consistently, the known onco-lncRNA PVT1 is adjacent to the oncogene MYC in the same TAD in T47D cell line, and a previous study demonstrated that lncRNA PVT1 enhanced the stability of MYC, resulting in high protein level and promoted cancer progression, indicating a potent cis-regulatory

mechanism of PVT1 regulating MYC[23]. Also, lncRNA CCAT1 could regulate MYC

transcriptional expression through promoting loop interaction, and they are also found in the same

TAD in LNCaP cell line. However, lncRNA PCAT1, which overlapped with TAD boundary both

in LNCaP and T47D cell line, was co-amplified with MYC and induced MYC expression by a

post-transcriptional mechanism[12,13](Fig. 1G-H).

In addition, we observed almost half of the CDLs identified by a recent publication[37]

located in CDTs (Fig. 1I). It has been documented that the distance between lncRNA-mRNA

neighboring pairs could have an impact on coexpression[5]. Next, we divided CRLs into two

categories: I-CRLs, which were located in CDTs, and O-CRLs, which were discovered outside of

the CDT regions. When calculating the expression correlation between I/O-CRLs and cancer

driver protein-coding genes within CDTs, I-CRLs exhibited a higher degree of co-expression with

cancer driver protein-coding genes within the same TAD, as compared to O-CRLs (Fig. 1J, see

Methods). In addition, lncRNAs can play an important role in biological networks for

implementing specific biological functions, and there are many methods to infer lncRNA-mRNA

interaction networks based on their co-expression pattern[38]. So we employed the concept of

weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA) to construct a cancer-related lncRNA-

mRNA network[39,40] (Fig. S2A-B, see Methods). Then, we only focused on the interaction between

I/O-CRLs and the important genes (see Methods). While both I-CRLs and O-CRLs exhibited the

propensity to serve as hub-lncRNAs within the cancer-related lncRNA-mRNA network (Fig. 1K),

centrality score comparison and GSEA analysis revealed that I-CRLs showed a significantly

higher likelihood than O-CRLs to function as hub-lncRNAs (Fig. 1K-L). Thus, our findings

suggest that I-CRLs play more crucial roles in cancer-related processes.

Additionally, we examined the effectiveness of cancer lncRNAs identified by CDT and

expression correlation, and applying an expression correlation threshold of 0.5 was comparable to

mining lncRNAs with CDT (Fig. S3A-B).

All these results suggest that CDT is an important feature to discover CDLs, and lncRNAs

in CDTs may influence tumor suppressor or oncogene expression in the same CDT to enhance

cancer phenotypes.

CDLs directly interact with cancer driver protein-coding genes.

LncRNAs, which are located in proximity to protein-coding genes or associated regions,
play pivotal roles in the regulation of transcription and chromatin remodeling[5,8,9]. Given their
ability to interact with DNA, RNA, or protein to modulate many important cancer-related
processes[13], we are motivated to identify core driver lncRNAs in CDTs, which directly bind to
DNA sequences to influence the transcription of cancer driver protein-coding genes. So far,
lncRNAs have been discovered to directly bind DNAs in two ways: triplex and R-loops, which
may have different impacts on gene expression[41,42]. Triplex is a triple-helical structure in which
double-stranded DNA accommodates a single-stranded RNA in the major groove[43]. R-loop is a
three-stranded nucleic acid structure that forms RNA-DNA hybrid between a nascent guanine-rich
RNA transcript segment and a DNA template whilst leaving the non-template DNA strand in a
single-stranded conformation[44]. Here, we used Triplexator[43] and QmRLFS-finder[44] to predict
triplex and R-loops separately between lncRNAs and corresponding protein-coding genes.
Compared to randomly selected no matter protein-coding genes or lncRNAs, CRLs had more
potential triplex binding sites and R-loops with cancer driver protein-coding genes (Fig. 2A-B, see
Methods). The results suggested that CRLs have a higher affinity with cancer driver protein-coding
genes.

The expression levels of I-CRL were highly correlated with cancer driver protein-coding
genes as mentioned above. Here, we investigated whether I-CRLs also exhibited a higher affinity
for binding to the DNA sequences of cancer driver protein-coding genes. Indeed, our results
showed that I-CRLs contained obviously more binding sites in the context of both triplex and R-
loops structures compared with other groups (Fig. 2C-D). But there was a little difference of O-
CRLs between two structures: the triplex binding sites of O-CRLs were significantly less than I-
CRLs, while the R-loop number of O-CRLs was almost the same as I-CRLs. We infer triplex
primarily functions as cis-regulatory elements, whereas R-loops have the capacity to regulate gene
expression in both cis and trans contexts. In order to demonstrate the potential of these two RNA-
DNA interaction mechanisms to affect gene expression, we next categorized I-CRL into two
groups: one group comprised of I-CRLs that were predicted to bind to cancer driver protein-coding
genes in the same CDT and is known as 'bind' group; the remaining I-CRLs were 'no bind' group,
which were not predicted to bind to cancer driver protein-coding genes in the same CDT. We
examined the expression correlation values between the two groups and corresponding cancer
driver protein-coding gene pairs. No matter whether triplex or R-loop, potential binding pairs had

higher co-expression tendencies than no binding pairs (Fig. 2E-F). All these outcomes indicate

that these two RNA-DNA interaction mechanisms have the potential to function in cancer driver

protein-coding gene expression regulation by I-CRLs.

213 Discovery of pan-cancer driver lncRNAs by constructing CADTAD pipeline.

Given I-CRLs play important roles in cancers, we next identified CDLs through the

characteristics mentioned above in pan-cancer. First, we collected 139 TAD data from GEO and

did principal component analysis (PCA). We noticed that there was a difference in TAD among

normal solid tissue samples, solid tumors, normal blood samples, and hematological malignancies.

PC1 distinguished solid tissues and blood samples, and PC2 indicated the difference between

normal and cancer samples (Fig. 3A, see Methods). Taking into consideration the heterogeneity

between solid tumors and hematological malignancies and given the high prevalence of solid

tumor[45], we exclusively utilized TAD data of solid tumors to identify pan-cancer driver lncRNAs.

To accomplish this, we developed an integrated computational approach CADTAD to predict

CDLs potentially involved in regulating the expression of cancer driver protein-coding genes

within CDTs. As a result of our efforts, we identified a total of 256 oncogenic lncRNAs, 177 tumor

suppressive lncRNAs, and 75 dual-function lncRNAs (Fig. 3B, see Supplementary Data 5, see

Methods).

To ascertain the tumor-related attributes of the identified CDLs, we first examined the

overlap between CDLs and CRL datasets CLC2 and Lnc2Cancer. The analysis revealed a

significant enrichment of CDLs in both datasets, indicating that the mined CDLs retain certain

characteristics shared with CRLs, thus potentially shedding light on their deeper cancer-related

functions (Fig. 3C). Subsequently, we investigated the number of lncRNAs that were differentially

expressed in CCLE compared to HPA by using data from LncExpDB[46] including 1319 up-

regulated and 1755 down-regulated lncRNAs (Fig. S4A, see Methods). Potential oncogenic

lncRNAs exhibited enrichment in the up-regulated lncRNAs, while candidate tumor suppressive

lncRNAs were enriched among the down-regulated lncRNAs in cancer (Fig. 3D). As expected, we

observed no enrichment of potential oncogenic lncRNAs among down-regulated lncRNAs nor did

we find an enrichment of candidate tumor suppressive lncRNAs within up-regulated lncRNAs (Fig.

S4B-C). However, potential dual function lncRNAs were not enriched in either of the differentially

expressed lncRNA groups (Fig. S4D). Subcellular localization can provide valuable clues about

the function of lncRNAs[15]. To investigate this aspect, we leveraged the nucleus and cytosol-

featured lncRNAs from LncBook2.0[47]. Our analysis revealed that the identified CDLs displayed a

notable enrichment within the nucleus (Fig. 3E), whereas there was no significant enrichment in

the cytosol (Fig. S4E). These findings underscore the predominant role of our CDLs within the

nucleus.

Traditionally, researchers often rely on mutation data for the discovery of cancer driver

protein-coding genes. In our study, we sought to determine if candidate CDLs shared similar

characteristics. Remarkably, CDLs exhibited a higher number of SNPs classified as pathogenic

variation effects from COSMIC when compared to the remaining lncRNAs (Fig. 3F), suggesting

the pathogenic role of CDLs in cancer. Beyond mutation analysis, various other approaches are

used to identify cancer genes through epigenetic markers. For instance, broad H3K4me3 marks

are associated with tumor-suppressor genes[3], while broad H3K27me3 marks are indicative of

oncogenes[2]. Furthermore, our findings demonstrated that the mined oncogenic lncRNAs possessed

wider H3K27me3 marks, whereas candidate tumor suppressive lncRNAs exhibited broader

H3K4me3 marks (Fig. 3G-H). Collectively, these results provide compelling evidence for the

potential of our mined CDLs to drive cancer progression.

CADTAD analysis for discovery of putative cancer driver lncRNAs in individual cancers.

Given the heterogeneity inherent in tumors, CADTAD is applied to individual cancer types.

To decide which specific cancer to focus on, we considered the distribution of collected TAD

sample numbers across various tumors. Prostate cancer, which ranked at the top, was chosen for

identifying CDLs in an individual cancer context (Fig. 4A). We gathered cancer driver protein-

coding genes specific to prostate cancer from TUSON[1] and analyzed their distribution (Fig. 4B).

Next, we employed the pipeline for pan-cancer analysis to prostate cancer and identified a total of

97 candidate oncogenic lncRNAs, 29 tumor suppressive lncRNAs, and three dual-function

lncRNAs in prostate cancer (Fig. 4C, see Supplementary Data 6).

Leveraging functional data relevant to prostate cancer, like pan-cancer CDLs, we found

that the mined oncogenic lncRNAs in prostate cancer exhibited a pronounced enrichment in up-

regulated lncRNAs, while candidate tumor suppressive lncRNAs were enriched in down-regulated

lncRNAs (Fig. 4D, S5A). Meanwhile, the mined CDLs in prostate cancer displayed a higher

likelihood of being localized in the nucleus (Fig. 4E), and featured a greater number of SNPs

classified as pathogenic variations (Fig. 4F). Additionally, broader H3K27me3 and H3K4me3

marks have been respectively detected in putative oncogenic lncRNAs and tumor suppressive

lncRNAs in prostate cancer (Fig. 4G).

To further validate the tumor-specific characteristics of potential CDLs, we conducted

experimental evaluations. We randomly selected multiple candidate CDLs in prostate cancer and

experimentally assessed six prospective oncogenic lncRNAs and four tumor suppressive lncRNAs.

Each candidate lncRNA was disrupted by using two CRISPR-Cas9 guide RNAs. The cutting

efficiencies of each pair of guide RNAs were validated through T7 Endonuclease I assay (Fig. S6).

We also detected the expression level of each candidate lncRNA respectively by RT-qPCR.

Intriguingly, knockdown of each candidate oncogenic lncRNAs significantly inhibited the

proliferation of LNCaP cells as we expected (Fig. 5A). Conversely, we observed an obvious cell

growth increase in the LNCaPs which knockdown two out of four candidate tumor suppressive

lncRNAs, and one candidate tumor suppressive lncRNA had the same tendency (Fig. 5B).

Furthermore, knockdown of our candidate oncogenic lncRNAs slowed the wound closure in PC-

3 prostate cancer cells (Fig. 6A). However, cells with downregulation of tumor suppressive

lncRNAs closed the wound faster than the control groups (Fig. 6B). In addition, Kaplan–Meier

survival curve demonstrated that prostate adenocarcinoma (PRAD) patients with lower levels of

candidate oncogenic lncRNA expression showed extended survival compared to patients with high

levels of oncogenic lncRNA expression (Fig. S7A). Conversely, candidate tumor suppressive

lncRNAs exhibited the opposite effect in the terms of patient survival (Fig. S7B). Thus, these

survival outcomes underline the potential of these candidate CDLs as prognostic markers indicate

of prostate cancer progression.

Furthermore, we selected gastric cancer and lung cancer, which were ranked at the top

based on the distribution of TAD sample numbers to identify their respective CDLs (Fig. 4A).

Through the CADTAD approach, we successfully identified a total of 139 candidate oncogenic

lncRNAs, 193 tumor suppressive lncRNAs, and 18 dual-function lncRNAs for gastric cancer (Fig.

S8A-B, see Supplementary Data 7). We also identified 32 oncogenic lncRNAs, 254 tumor

suppressive lncRNAs, and 20 dual-function lncRNAs for lung cancer (Fig. S9A-B, see

Supplementary Data 8). The CDLs identified in these two cancer types exhibited consistent cancer-

related features, including enrichment of differentially expressed lncRNAs in cancer, nuclear

localization, a higher proportion of SNPs classified as pathogenic, and the presence of histone

markers associated with cancer genes (Fig. S5B-C, S8C-F, S9C-F).

All of these findings underscore the significance of the CDTs combined with expression

and interaction as a robust signature for the discovery of CDLs.

Discussion

LncRNAs can create an additional regulatory dimension superimposed over the genomic

and epigenomic programs by interacting with DNAs, RNAs, or proteins to orchestra gene

expression[9], defying the conventional Central Dogma of molecular biology[11]. In our investigation

into the relationship between CRLs and cancer driver protein-coding genes, we are the pioneer to

uncover that CRLs exhibit a proximity to cancer driver protein-coding genes within CDTs. This

finding represents a novel characteristic of cancer lncRNAs. Furthermore, the expressions of I-

CRLs demonstrated a notably correlation with the gene expression levels of cancer driver protein-

coding gene in the same TAD, indicating a potential regulation connection. Additionally, a

comprehensive comparison of lncRNA-DNA interactions further accentuated the likelihood that

I-CRLs play a role in regulating the expression of cancer driver protein-coding genes. By

establishing a direct link between lncRNAs and cancer driver protein-coding genes, we constructed

a pipeline CADTAD and identified potential core CDL datasets in pan-cancer analysis and across

three specific cancer types. To validate the effectiveness of these datasets, we used various

bioinformatics function datasets to unveil the cancer related characteristics associated with mined

CDLs. We also conducted in vitro assay using CRISPR-Cas9 system to validate the influence of

candidate CDLs on cancer phenotype. All these results proved that these CDL datasets indeed

exhibited features closely linked to cancer. Additionally, we classified CDLs into three distinct

categories: oncogenic lncRNA, tumor suppressive lncRNA, and dual-function lncRNA. Notably,

our method CADTAD represents the first in-silico approach to achieve this comprehensive

categorization.

In some studies, the identification of driver lncRNAs primarily revolves around a genomic

perspective. For instance, oncodriveFML[48] could identify both coding and non-coding cancer

driver mutations including mutations found in lncRNAs. This is achieved by estimating the

cumulative functional impact bias of somatic mutations within tumors, using signals of positive

selection as a guiding principle. Furthermore, ExInAtor1/2[37,49] provides a framework to identify

driver lncRNAs by discerning driver mutations within them. This identification is rooted in the

detection of signals of positive selection that act on somatic mutations, thereby considering the

mutational burden and functional impact. And mutations in these regions are presumed to affect

lncRNA function.

Other studies delve into exploring lncRNA function in tumors by focusing on lncRNA-

mediated regulation. For example, they may identify dysregulated lncRNA-TF-gene triplets in

glioblastoma[50], or develop methods like lncMAP[51] to reveal distinct types of lncRNA regulatory

molecules. Additionally, an effective approach to understanding lncRNA function in cancer

involves associating these lncRNAs with pivotal mutational driver events. In such case, lncRNAs

are often regarded as downstream effectors in oncogenic pathways[52]. DriverLncNet[53], on the other

hand, offers a comprehensive strategy that combines both genomic and regulatory features. This

method identifies cancer driver lncRNAs through the analysis of copy number alteration and the

construction of regulatory networks. These networks aim to capture key functional effectors,

thereby dissecting the functional role of driver lncRNAs. While numerous bioinformatics methods

already exist for mining cancer driver or associated lncRNAs, there remains room for improvement,

particularly in enhancing the precision of CDL prediction.

First, CDLs are typically classified into two categories based on their functions, namely,

oncogenic lncRNAs and tumor suppressive lncRNAs. The current methods for discovering CDLs

have primarily remained at the level of CRLs, lacking the specificity to differentiate their precise

roles in either promoting or inhibiting cancer progression. Second, the identification of driver

lncRNAs based on genomic characteristics has yielded relatively low numbers[37,48,49]. To address

this, we advocate approaching CDLs from a distinct perspective, one that is different from the

paradigm of cancer driver protein-coding genes. In this context, we define CDLs as lncRNAs that

directly regulate the expression of cancer driver protein-coding genes, with the objective of

uncovering the lncRNAs with the most significant potential impact on cancer. While our approach

CADTAD does not consider alterations within the CDLs themselves, such as mutations or

epigenetic modifications, it focuses on the crucial task of discerning CDLs that govern the core

drivers of cancer. CADTAD also facilitates the distinction of lncRNA-specific functions in either

promoting or inhibiting cancer progress.

Nonetheless, our exploration of CDLs was limited to just three cancer types due to

insufficient Hi-C data. In the future, the expansion of Hi-C data across various cancer types will

enable the comprehensive mining of CDLs in individual cancers, thereby enlarging the CDL

datasets. It is essential to emphasize that the present CDL dataset exclusively focuses on lncRNAs

that directly regulate the expression of cancer driver protein-coding genes through lncRNA-DNA

interaction prediction. On one hand, many novel experimental techniques, such as GRID-seq,

RADICL-seq[10], have been developed to detect RNA-chromatin interactions. These high

throughput sequencing can be integrated to enhance the accuracy of lncRNA-DNA interaction. On

the other hand, lncRNAs have the capacity to influence coding gene expression through various

mechanisms, including liquid–liquid phase separation[54] and miRNA sponging[55]. This CDL dataset

represents the core driver dataset within the broader spectrum of all CDLs capable of directly

modulating cancer driver protein-coding gene expression. While acknowledging the intricacies of

lncRNA regulatory mechanisms, there is an inherent need for a more comprehensive approach to

mining CDLs that encompasses all conceivable lncRNA regulatory pathways. This comprehensive

approach will enable us to explore the multifaceted landscape of CDLs more comprehensively.

In summary, this study effectively utilizes 3D genome interaction information to achieve

highly precise mining of CDLs. This pipeline CADTAD holds the potential for broader

applications in the study of other diseases, offering a new perspective on cancer biology. Notably,

it represents an innovative approach to identify new biomarkers and prognostic indicators for

cancer treatment.

Methods

Source of datasets analyzed in this project.

lncRNA gene and protein coding gene reference was from LncExpDB[46] and converted to hg19 using LiftOver downloaded from the UCSC Genome Browser website (https://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/downloads.html#utilities_downloads). Thus, we got 98410 lncRNAs and 19840 coding genes. The expression of lncRNA and protein coding genes also came from LncExpDB with combined CCLE and HPA TPM data. Fasta file hg19.fa was from UCSC (https://hgdownload.soe.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/bigZips/hg19.fa.gz) and used for later Hi-C mapping and lncRNA-DNA interaction prediction. Cancer-related lncRNA (CRL) datasets were collected from CLC2[25] and Lnc2Cancer3.0[26] and converted to LncBook lncRNA id according to LncExpDB reference, and we obtained respectively 426 and 822 CRLs to do the further analysis. Cancer driver protein-coding genes were from CGC database[36] v.94 and were classified as tumor suppressor gene or oncogene according to column 'Role in Cancer' containing 'TSG' or 'oncogene'. If one gene's column 'Role in Cancer' contained both 'TSG' and 'oncogene', it was classified as dual-function gene. We got a total of 556 cancer driver protein-coding genes according to the LncExpDB reference. 3804 housekeeping genes were extracted from a publication[56]. 1000 oncogenes and 1000 tumor suppressor genes were from a publication[1]. 531 genes in the PATHWAY IN CANCER (hsa05200) were downloaded from Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database[57] (see Supplementary Data 1).

Cancer driver protein-coding genes in individual cancer type were collected from a publication[1], remained under p values < 0.5, and converted from alias to gene symbol, getting both tumor suppressor genes, oncogenes and dual-function genes (Fig. 4B, S8A, S9A, see Supplementary Data 2). The statistic of individual cancer genes was calculated using python package upsetplot (v.0.8.0). RefLnc[58] was used to supplement the TCGA (PRAD, STAD, LUSC, and LUAD) and GTEx projects with combined FPKM data to obtain the expression of 26494 lncRNAs and 19490 coding genes in a single cancer type. The 17 driver lncRNAs identified by ExInAtor2 were from a publication[37].

Bioinformatics analysis of Hi-C data.

Hi-C raw data were collected from ENCODE and GEO, getting 139 samples (see Supplementary Data 3). Raw data were mapped to hg19 using bwa-mem2 (v.2.0) with parameters E=50, L=0, and

M, and then transferred to bam files using samtools[59] (v.1.6). The downstream analysis was

performed using HiCExplorer[60] (version 3.7.2). Each enzyme's specific restriction sites were

located using hicFindRestSite. Then, to obtain a Hi-C matrix h5 file, we utilized hicBuildMatrix

with the following parameters: binSize=1000, inputBufferSize=200000, corresponding enzyme's

restriction sites, and dangling sequence. Next, we merged each h5 file under parameters nb=40 to

create an h5 file with bin size 40kb, normalized them solely using hicNormalize with parameters

normalize=smallest, and corrected these files using hicCorrectMatrix with default parameters.

Finally, normalize them all using hicNormalize with parameters normalize=smallest.

We then utilized the normalized matrix to calculate topologically associated domain (TAD) using

hicFindTADs with parameters correctForMultipleTesting=fdr. Domains.bed files were used for

downstream TAD analysis. To distinguish TADs differences among normal and tumor samples,

we then converted h5 files to cool files using hicConvertFormat and chose the file with the largest

TAD number as the basis to calculate the interval scores using chromosight[61] (v.1.6.1). Then we

analyzed these interval scores to plot Principal Component Analysis (PCA) in R v.4.2.0.

pyGenomeTracks was used to plot TAD.

429   Method to define CDTs and calculation of lncRNA ratio.

Using the intersect function in bedtools[62] (v.2.30.0) with parameter F=1, we identified TADs as

cancer driver TADs (CDTs) if they entirely included at least one cancer driver protein-coding gene.

The rest TAD completely containing non-cancer genes, which excluded cosmic genes, top1000

TUSON OGs/TSGs, and genes about the PATHWAY IN CANCER, were defined as typical TADs.

Then we randomly selected the same number of typical TADs as CDTs with almost the same

length, and determined the ratio by dividing the total number of CRLs by the summed length of

the TAD in each TAD type (Fig. S1B). To compare with neighbor TADs around CDTs, we also

calculated the ratio of up-/down-stream 5 non-CDTs. Once there was one CDT in up-/down-stream

5 TADs, we skipped it until finding a total of 5 non-CDTs. If the up-/down-stream of CDTs didn't

have 5 non-CDTs, we then assigned a ratio of 0 in the non-TAD region (Fig. S1C).

441   Randomly select non-cancer genes and non-cancer lncRNAs.

For TAD ratio calculation (Fig. 1C-F), we chose typical TAD as a control, and this type of TAD

had to be overlapped with one non-cancer genes. We defined non-cancer genes there excluding

cosmic genes, top1000 TUSON OGs/TSGs, and genes about PATHWAY IN CANCER in KEGG.

For comparison of co-expression and binding (Fig. 1A, 2A-B), non-cancer genes and non-cancer

lncRNAs were chosen at random. Non-cancer genes were randomly selected with the same number

as cancer driver protein-coding genes from the genes which were located in typical TAD, while

non-cancer lncRNAs were selected with the same number as corresponding CRL datasets from

lncRNAs excluding both CRL datasets. For comparison of co-expression with cancer driver

protein-coding genes between I-CRL and O-CRL (Fig. 1J), we first got the pair between I-CRL

and cancer driver protein-coding gene in the same TAD, and then randomly selected the same

number O-CRL excluding I-CRL to replace I-CRL of the pair. For comparison among 4 type

lncRNAs (Fig. 2D), there was no random selection for the reason that we considered all binding

between each type of lncRNA and cancer driver protein-coding genes.

Expression correlation calculation and comparison of cancer lncRNA discovery effectiveness.

Here, we calculated the Spearman correlation between the expression of paired lncRNAs and

protein coding genes. We got mined 30289 cancer lncRNAs by CDT feature in pan-cancer. In

addition, we acquired cancer lncRNAs by calculating the expression correlation and choosing

different thresholds. Next, in order to assess the cancer lncRNA finding effectiveness by CDT and

co-expression characteristics, we performed enrichment analysis and calculated the ratio between

these two types of mined cancer lncRNAs and cancer-related lncRNA datasets.

lncRNA-DNA interaction analysis.

We were aware of two mechanisms in which the lncRNA might interact with DNA: triplex and R-

loop. We reviewed all relevant prediction techniques and finally chose classic methods Triplextor[43]

and QmRLFS-finder[44] to predict lncRNA-DNA interaction. Before prediction, we got lncRNAs'

and genes' sequences from hg19.fa using getfasta function in bedtools[62] (v.2.30.0). For triplex

prediction, we predicted the number between lncRNA and genes using the default parameter. For

R-loop prediction, we first predicted the R-loop structure in each lncRNA and then counted all

matched numbers of paired genes whose sense or antisense strand had RIZ sequence[22], as RIZ

sequence is most important to form R-loop.

Construction of a cancer-related lncRNA-mRNA network and definition of lncRNA centrality.

We calculated the Pearson correlation between the expression of all lncRNAs and all mRNAs getting a similarity matrix, and then transferred to an adjacency matrix by raising the similarity to a power[39,40]. We used the scale-free topology criterion for soft thresholding and the minimum scale-free topology fitting index R^2 was set as 0.9, so we got 6 as the soft threshold (Fig. S2A-B). To mine cancer-related functions, we defined important genes containing cancer genes from CGC database v.94, the top 500 oncogenes and tumor suppressor genes from TUSON, and genes in PATHWAY IN CANCER from KEGG. We used power 6 to calculate the network between all lncRNAs and important genes and summed the values of one lncRNA with all important genes to define lncRNA centrality. Then we only focused on the I-CRL's and O-CRL's rank in all lncRNA, so we did GSEA to compare them using the Python package GSEApy[63] (v.1.0.5).

Construct pipeline CADTAD to mine CDLs.

We constructed a pipeline to mine CDLs in pan-cancer and individual cancer types (Fig. 3B, 4C, S8B, S9B). First, we got all TAD completely covering cancer driver protein-coding genes, and then we merged all intersected TAD to define CDT using intersect and merge function in pybedtools[62,64] (v. 0.9.0). Then, we discovered lncRNAs located in these CDT with a reference of all lncRNAs and matched these lncRNAs with cancer driver protein-coding genes in the same CDT. Next, we predicted potential lncRNA-DNA interaction pairs of matched lncRNA-cancer driver protein-coding gene pairs by Triplexator and QmRLF-finder as soon as one of the methods predicted. Finally, we used tumor samples' RNA-seq expression data to calculate the expression correlation of remaining lncRNA-cancer driver protein-coding gene pairs and obtained lncRNAs with absolute correlation values greater than 0.5 as CDLs. We considered CDLs whose expression correlation values were only positive with oncogenes and/or negative with tumor suppressor genes as oncogenic lncRNAs, only positive with tumor suppressor genes and/or negative with oncogenes as tumor suppressive lncRNAs, and had the above two cases as dual-function lncRNAs. And we applied CADTAD to pan-cancer and individual cancers to identify CDLs (see Supplementary Data 5-8).

Bioinformatics methods related to cancer characteristics verification.

To obtain up-regulated and down-regulated lncRNAs in cancer, we compared cancer samples with

normal samples using the Wilcoxon test and calculating fold change, and lncRNAs whose p values

were less than 0.05 and |logFC| were more than 1 were considered as differential expressions.

Nucleus and cytosol-featured lncRNAs were taken from LncExpDB[46]

(ftp://download.big.ac.cn/lncexpdb/5-SubcellularLocalization/1-

SRP150867/deseq2_SRP150867.tar.gz) by using cutoff adjusted p-value < 0.05 and

log2FoldChange < -1 to obtain respectively 3770 nucleus and 38 cytosol-featured lncRNAs.

Variation data were extracted from LncBook2.0[47]

(https://ngdc.cncb.ac.cn/lncbook/files/variation_LncBook2.0.csv.gz) and we only used COSMIC

Variant Effect which was pathogenic to compare. H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 peak files were

downloaded from ENCODE (see Supplementary Data 4), and we calculated each lncRNA's peak

width by summing up the intersected peaks' length. Survival data were from UCSC Xena[65] and

survival analyses were conducted by Python package lifelines (v.0.27.7).

CRISPR gRNA and lentiviral vector design.

For each candidate lncRNA, two pairs of guide RNAs were designed to delete about 4 kb of the

promoter region defined as from 5 kb upstream to 1 kb downstream of transcription site (TSS).

The sequences of each guide RNAs were listed as follows:

Gene	pgRNA	gRNA1 sequence	gRNA2 sequence
L024	p1	AGGCTCCCTCTGAGCCGACA	GTGTGGCCACCGGAACACCA
	p2	AGGCTCCCTCTGAGCCGACA	CGTCCCCCTCCTAGTCTCCG
L873	p1	GCTCTGCTAGATAAATCTGG	AGGGCGCCGCTTAAAGTGTG
	p2	GCTCTGCTAGATAAATCTGG	CAGGGTGTGGAGCCGCACTG
L989	p1	GTCAGGACACAGATGACCGA	ACCTTGGCAAGTGAAGACGC
	p2	GTCAGGACACAGATGACCGA	AAACATTCAGGCCCCCACCG
L569	p1	GCTGTGTCAACCATGCCCCG	TTCCAACCAGAATAGGACCA
	p2	GCTGTGTCAACCATGCCCCG	CAGAGCTCGTAATTGCTGCG
L538	p1	GCTCTTCTGATACTGACCCG	TAGTAGGGCTCAAATCTCTG
	p2	CTAAGATGTCCAAGTCCTAG	TAGTAGGGCTCAAATCTCTG
L581	p1	GTCCACAGCAAGAGTGTCCG	CTTCCCTCCAAAAATCACCG

	p2	TGTTCCTGGGTGGCGACGTG	AGGTTTCTAGACGTGACCCA
L774	p1	GTTGCAGCCATCGTCCTGGG	TTTCGGCATGTGATCCGAGG
	p2	GTTGCAGCCATCGTCCTGGG	GCGGGACTTCCAGAGCCCGA
L614	p1	GGTGTGATAACTTTACTGAT	CTCGCCCGCTTCGCCCGGGT
	p2	ATGTTATCAGCCGCACACGG	CTCGCCCGCTTCGCCCGGGT
L011	p1	CACTTGGAAACAATTACTGT	AAGTCGCCGACAACTGCCTG
	p2	TTTCTGATATTAATCAGGCG	AAGTCGCCGACAACTGCCTG
L120	p1	GCTGAGGCTATTGTCCGGG	AGGACACTGTTAGACCACCT
	p2	TCACCCATCGACTACCCGGG	GTGAAACATTAACCCCCTCA

The oligos for each target site were annealed by heating to 95ºC for 5 minutes and cooling to 85

ºC at 2 ºC per second and then further down to 25 ºC at 0.1 ºC per second. The annealed oligos

were cloned into lentiCRISPR v2 plasmid and sequenced to confirm successful ligation.

Cell culture and lentiviral transduction.

LNCaP, PC-3 and HEK293T were purchased from ATCC. All cells were maintained in DMEM

medium supplemented with 10% FBS and cultured in 5% CO_2. These cell lines were mycoplasma

negative during routine tests.

Lentiviral was packaged by co-transfection of second packaging vectors pMD2.G, psPAX2 into

HEK293T cells. After 48 hours of transfection, the medium was harvest and centrifuged at 800 ×

g for 10 minutes to remove cell debris. Then the supernatant was used for infection when LNCaP

or PC-3 were grown to 70% confluence. The medium was changed 24 hours after viral transduction

and infected cells incubated for another 24 hours before puromycin selection. Positive cells were

collected for cell proliferation assay, woundheal assay and total RNA and genomic DNA

extraction.

PCR and RT-qPCR verification of CRISPR/Cas9 induced deletion at candidate lncRNAs

promoter.

Mutagenesis on candidate lncRNAs was verified by PCR using primers flanking the deletion

regions. RT-qPCR was used to detect the RNA levels of lncRNA candidates after CRISPR/Cas9

editing. Total RNA of edited cells was extracted and converted to cDNA. Then qPCR was

performed with ChamQ Universal SYBR qPCR Master Mix (Vazyme, Nanjing, China). The

primers used for PCR and RT-qPCR were listed as follows.

Gene	PCR primers	Real-time PCR primers
L024	F: TGAGACTACCTGCAGGACCA	F: CCTTCCTCAGCCATTGTCCA
	R: GGAAGTGACACTCCGTCCTC	R: TTGCTTCACAGTGCCCCTAA
L873	F: GTTCTGTCCGGCCATTCTGT	F: CCTAGGACGTCTCCATTGCG
	R: ATCATCTTCCATCTCCGCCG	R: ACTCCGCCTAGTAGTGACCG
L989	F: GCAGACAGAGGGGTCAACAG	F: TGGGGGCCATTCTCAATGTT
	R: CTCAGGTGCCTCTGGAACTC	R: AGAGAGCAACGCTCTGTGAG
L569	F: CCAGGGTGGAACCCAACTATT	F: CCAGCCATGTGGTGTAGACG
	R: ACATCCTGATGATGCCTCCA	R: AGATGCAATCGCAGATGTGG
L538	F: TGCGGGAGGAGAGACTACAT	F: GGCCCAGCGATGCTTCTTAT
	R: GGTTAGCTTCAGAGCTGCCA	R: TAGCTTCAGAGCTGCCAAGG
L581	F: GGGGACACCACTCCTCCATC	F: GAGAATGGAGCGGAGGAACC
	R: TGGCTCAGGAATTTGCTCCC	R: TGTGTCATGGCTGACATGCT
L774	F: CGGCTCTGACCTGAGCTATG	F: TGAGAGGCTACGCTGTATGG
	R: CCCCCTGCACTCTGAATAGG	R: GAGACATGGTACAGGGTGGG
L614	F: AGCCATGTGAAACAACACACA	F: ACCTGATTCTTTACGTGATTCCCA
	R: AGTTTCTGAAGCGTCCCTCG	R: TCAGGACGCAGAGGAATTAGT
L011	F: CCCTACAAACCTAACCCCAACA	F: AGAGGCACGTGGTTCGAAAT
	R: CATTTTGGCTTCAGGGGCTG	R: AGTCATTGGCATGGAGTGGG
L120	F: AGCCTGGGAAGTTCGCTTAC	F: CAGCCCGGTTTGGGAGTAAA
	R: AAAGATTGAGGGTCGGGCTG	R: AGCCAGACAGAAACTACGCC

Cell proliferation and wound healing assay.

551 LNCaP cells after viral transduction and puromycin selection were seeded in 96-well plates at a

552 density of 6000 cells per well and allowed to attach for 24 hours. Cell viability was measured

553 utilizing the CCK8 kit across four days. CRISPR/Cas9 guide RNA edited PC-3 were inoculated

554 into 6-well plate and the wound was created until the cell confluence arrived at 90%. The photos

555 were taken at the indicated time by using microscope.

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Author contributions

D.Z. conceived the project. D.Z. and Z.R. designed the bioinformatics analyses and interpreted the results. Z.R. performed the bioinformatics analyses, with assistance from S.H., C.W., and Y.Z. M.Z. designed and performed the experiments, and interpreted the results, with assistance from W.Z, and X.L. D.Z., M.Z., and Z.R. wrote the manuscript.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Figure legends

Figure 1

CRLs are more co-expressed and located near cancer driver protein-coding genes, especially in the same TAD, and play an important role in a cancer-related lncRNA-mRNA network.

A. Boxplot to show the difference of absolute Spearman correlation between the experimental pair and 2 control pairs. P values are determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

B. Line plot of the statistic of the lncRNA number in CLC2/Lnc2Cancer in regions whose step size is 100kb extending from 100kb to 50000kb near the TSS of cancer driver genes/housekeeping genes. The red line indicates cancer driver genes, while the blue line indicates housekeeping genes. P values are determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

C. Boxplot to indicate the TAD length of CDT and typical TAD are almost the same in LNCaP. P value is determined by two tail Wilcoxon test.

D. Bar plot to show the ratio that the number of CRLs divided by TAD length in each TAD of LNCaP. The red bar represents CDT, while the blue bar represents typical TAD. The grey bar represents flanking typical TAD. CDT: cancer driver TAD.

E. Boxplot to indicate the TAD length of CDT and typical TAD are almost the same in T47D. P value is determined by two tail Wilcoxon test.

F. Bar plot to show the ratio that the number of CRLs divided by TAD length in each TAD of T47D. The red bar represents CDT, while the blue bar represents typical TAD. The grey bar represents flanking typical TAD. CDT: cancer driver TAD.

G. The two-dimensional heatmap shows the normalized Hi-C interaction frequencies in LNCaP. Black line box out the calculated TAD. Blue rectangles represent genes.

H. The two-dimensional heatmap shows the normalized Hi-C interaction frequencies in T47D. Black line box out the calculated TAD. Blue rectangles represent genes.

I. Heatmap to show the CDT characteristic of the driver lncRNAs identified by ExInAtor2. The red box represents that lncRNA has this characteristic. The gray box represents that lncRNA doesn't have this characteristic. Underlined lncRNAs represent known driver lncRNAs.

J. Boxplot to show the difference of absolute Spearman correlation between I-CRLs/O-CRLs and cancer driver protein-coding genes in the same TAD. I-CRL: cancer-related lncRNAs in CDT. O-CRL: cancer-related lncRNAs outside CDT. P values are determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

K. GSEA analysis shows enrichment of the I-CRLs and O-CRLs in hub lncRNAs in a cancer-related lncRNA-mRNA network.

L. Boxplot to indicate the difference of centrality score between I-CRLs and O-CRLs. P value is determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

Figure 2

CRLs have a higher bind degree with cancer driver protein-coding genes in the same TAD.

A. Boxplot to show the difference of triplex number between the experimental pair and 2 control pairs. P values are determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

B. Boxplot to show the difference of R-loop number between the experimental pair and 2 control pairs. P values are determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

C. Cartoon pattern to show the definition of the 4 lncRNA type.

D. Boxplot to show the difference of triplex number and R-loop number among I-CRL, I-TL, O-CRL, and O-TL. I-CRL: cancer-related lncRNAs in CDT. I-TL: typical lncRNAs in CDT. O-CRL: cancer-related lncRNAs outside CDT. O-TL: typical lncRNAs outside CDT. P values determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

E. Boxplot to show the absolution Spearman expression correlation between predicted binding pairs and no binding pairs in the same CDT about triplex. P values are determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

F. Boxplot to show the absolution Spearman expression correlation between predicted binding pairs and no binding pairs in the same CDT about R-loop. P values are determined by one tail Wilcoxon test.

Figure 3

Mine of pan-cancer driver lncRNAs and validate their cancer characteristics using genomics and epigenomics data.

A. PCA plot to show the difference of TAD among normal blood samples, blood cancers, normal solid samples, and solid tumors. The blue dots represent normal blood samples. The yellow triangles represent blood cancers. The gray rectangles represent normal solid samples. The red crosses represent solid tumors.

B. The flowchart of mining pan-cancer driver lncRNAs.

C. Bar plot to show enrichment of the mined pan-cancer driver lncRNAs in CLC2 and Lnc2Cancer

CRL datasets. P values are determined by one tail Fisher's exact test.

D. Bar plot to show the enrichment of the mined oncogenic lncRNAs in up-regulated lncRNAs in

cancer, and mined tumor suppressive lncRNAs in down-regulated lncRNAs in cancer. P values

are determined by one tail Fisher's exact test.

E. Bar plot showing the enrichment of the mined pan-cancer driver lncRNAs in nucleus-featured

lncRNAs. P value is determined by one tail Fisher's exact test.

F. Empirical cumulative distribution plot to show the difference of pathogenic variations between

putative CDLs and the rest other lncRNAs. CDL: cancer driver lncRNAs. P value is determined

by one tail Wilcoxon test.

G. Empirical cumulative distribution plot to show the difference of H3K27me3 width between

candidate oncogenic lncRNAs and the rest other lncRNAs. P value is determined by one tail

Wilcoxon test.

H. Empirical cumulative distribution plot to show the difference of H3K4me3 width between

candidate tumor suppressive lncRNAs and the rest other lncRNAs. P value is determined by one

tail Wilcoxon test.

Figure 4

Mine of prostate cancer driver lncRNAs and validate their cancer characteristics using

genomics and epigenomics data.

A. Bar plot to show the statistics of TAD sample numbers about individual cancers.

B. Upset plot to show the statistic of tumor suppressor genes, and oncogenes in prostate cancer.

C. The flowchart of mining CDLs in prostate cancer.

D. Bar plot to show the enrichment of the mined oncogenic lncRNAs in up-regulated lncRNAs in

prostate cancer, and mined tumor suppressive lncRNAs in down-regulated lncRNAs in prostate

cancer. P values are determined by one tail Fisher's exact test.

E. Bar plot showing the enrichment of the mined CDLs about prostate cancer in nucleus-featured

lncRNAs. P value is determined by one tail Fisher's exact test.

F. Empirical cumulative distribution plot to show the difference of pathogenic variations between

putative CDLs and the rest other lncRNAs. CDL: cancer driver lncRNAs. P value is determined

by one tail Wilcoxon test.

G. Empirical cumulative distribution plot to show the difference of H3K27me3 width between
candidate oncogenic lncRNAs and the rest other lncRNAs, and H3K4me3 width between tumor
candidate tumor suppressive lncRNAs and the rest other lncRNAs. P values are determined by one
tail Wilcoxon test.
808

Figure 5

Depletion of identified putative CDLs impaired or promoted cancer phenotypes of tumor
cells.

LncRNA expression level and cell proliferation of prostate cancer cell line LNCaP with each
putative oncogenic lncRNA (**A**) or tumor suppressive lncRNA (**B**) disrupted by CRISPR-Cas9
guide RNA g1, g2, or under control condition. Bar plot to show lncRNA expression level and line
plot to show cell proliferation.
816

817   **Figure 6**

818   **Depletion of identified putative CDLs slowed or quickened wound closure of tumor cells.**
819   Wound healing assay of PC-3 prostate cancer cells with each putative oncogenic lncRNA (**A**) or
820   tumor suppressive lncRNA (**B**) disrupted by CRISPR-Cas9 guide RNA g1, g2, or under control
821   condition.

Fig 1

Fig 2

A **Triplex**

CLC2   p<1e-300   p<1e-300

Lnc2Cancer   p<1e-300   p<1e-300

Triplex number: E, C1, C2

B **R-loop**

CLC2   p=5.27e-46   p<1e-300

Lnc2Cancer   p=1.12e-205   p<1e-300

R-loop number: E, C1, C2

E: cancer lncRNAs & cancer driver genes
C1: cancer lncRNAs & random genes
C2: random lncRNAs & cancer driver genes

E: cancer lncRNAs & cancer driver genes
C1: cancer lncRNAs & random genes
C2: random lncRNAs & cancer driver genes

C

CDT
I-TL   I-CRL
CDG
O-CRL   O-TL

CDT: cancer driver TAD
I-CRL: cancer-related lncRNA in CDT
I-TL: typical lncRNA in CDT
O-CRL: cancer-related lncRNA outside CDT
O-TL: typical lncRNA outside CDT
CDG: cancer driver genes

D

p=2.23e-22   p=7.36e-18   p=1.31e-2
Triplex number: I-CRL, I-TL, O-CRL, O-TL

p=1.59e-3   p=0.31   p=1.56e-2
R-loop number: I-CRL, I-TL, O-CRL, O-TL

E

Triplex: CLC2   p=5.63e-2
Triplex: Lnc2Cancer   p=2.38e-2
|expression correlation|: bind, No bind

F

R-loop: CLC2   p=4.17e-3
R-loop: Lnc2Cancer   p=5.72e-4
|expression correlation|: bind, No bind

Fig 3

A Principal Component Analysis

Sample
- blood_N
- blood_T
- solid_N
- solid_T

B

556 cancer driver genes (CDGs)

536 CDGs have 474 CDTs

+ 94810 lncRNAs

474 CDTs contain 30289 lncRNAs;
46701 CDG-lncRNA pairs

QmRLF-finder: 5224 | Triplexator: 6740

10209 CDG-lncRNA pairs

CCLE

|Cor with oncogene| or
|Cor with tumor suppressor gene| > 0.5

Oncogenic lncRNA: 256
Tumor suppressive lncRNA: 177
Dual lncRNA: 75

C
Overlap with CLC2 — p=6.72e-23 — expected 2, observed 29
Overlap with Lnc2Cancer — p=7.49e-31 — expected 4, observed 45

D
Oncogenic lncRNAs & up-regulated lncRNAs — p=3.90e-6 — expected 4, observed 15
Tumor suppressive lncRNAs & down-regulated lncRNAs — p=1.79e-2 — expected 3, observed 8

E
Nucleus feature — p=2.18e-9 — expected 20, observed 51

F
Pathogenic variation — p=1.08e-71
Other lncRNAs / CDLs

G
H3K27me3 width — p=2.33e-38
Other lncRNAs / Oncogenic lncRNAs

H
H3K4me3 width — p=1.54e-32
Other lncRNAs / Tumor suppressive lncRNAs

Fig 4

A

TAD sample number of different cancer types

B

prostate cancer genes

C

Prostate cancer

289 prostate cancer genes (PCGs)

259 PCGs have 241 CDTs

+ 94810 lncRNAs

241 CDTs contain 9774 lncRNAs;
11668 PCG-lncRNA pairs

QmRLF-finder:
1126

Triplexator:
1324

2154 PCG-lncRNA pairs

TCGA

ICor with oncogenel or
ICor with tumor suppressor genel > 0.5

Oncogenic lncRNA: 97
Tumor suppressive lncRNA: 29
Dual lncRNA: 3

D

**Oncogenic lncRNAs &
up-regulated lncRNAs**

p=5.03e-4

**Tumor suppressive lncRNAs &
down-regulated lncRNAs**

p=2.77e-3

E

Nucleus feature

p=8.63e-9

F

Pathogenic variation

p=4.18e-8

G

H3K27me3 width

p=4.46e-2

H3K4me3 width

p=2.35e-2

Fig 6