

1 **Functional Annotation of Human Long Non-Coding RNAs via Molecular Phenotyping**

2 Jordan A Ramilowski^{1,2#}, Chi Wai Yip^{1,2#}, Saumya Agrawal^{1,2}, Jen-Chien Chang^{1,2}, Yari Ciani³,
3 Ivan V Kulakovskiy⁴, Mickaël Mendez⁵, Jasmine Li Ching Ooi², John F Ouyang⁶, Nick
4 Parkinson⁷, Andreas Petri⁸, Leonie Roos⁹, Jessica Severin^{1,2}, Kayoko Yasuzawa^{1,2}, Imad
5 Abugessaisa^{1,2}, Altuna Akalin¹⁰, Ivan V Antonov¹¹, Erik Arner^{1,2}, Alessandro Bonetti²,
6 Hidemasa Bono¹², Beatrice Borsari¹³, Frank Brombacher¹⁴, Chris JF Cameron¹⁵, Carlo Vittorio
7 Cannistraci¹⁶, Ryan Cardenas¹⁷, Melissa Cardon¹, Howard Chang¹⁸, Josée Dostie¹⁹, Luca
8 Ducoli²⁰, Alexander Favorov²¹, Alexandre Fort², Diego Garrido¹³, Noa Gil²², Juliette Gimenez²³,
9 Reto Guler¹⁴, Lusy Handoko², Jayson Harshbarger², Akira Hasegawa^{1,2}, Yuki Hasegawa²,
10 Kosuke Hashimoto^{1,2}, Norihito Hayatsu¹, Peter Heutink²⁴, Tetsuro Hirose²⁵, Eddie L Imada²⁶,
11 Masayoshi Itoh^{2,27}, Bogumil Kaczkowski^{1,2}, Aditi Kanhere¹⁷, Emily Kawabata², Hideya
12 Kawaji²⁷, Tsugumi Kawashima^{1,2}, S. Thomas Kelly¹, Miki Kojima^{1,2}, Naoto Kondo², Haruhiko
13 Koseki¹, Tsukasa Kouno^{1,2}, Anton Kratz², Mariola Kurowska-Stolarska²⁸, Andrew Tae Jun
14 Kwon^{1,2}, Jeffrey Leek²⁶, Andreas Lennartsson²⁹, Marina Lizio^{1,2}, Fernando López-Redondo^{1,2},
15 Joachim Luginbühl^{1,2}, Shiori Maeda¹, Vsevolod J Makeev²¹, Luigi Marchionni²⁶, Yulia A
16 Medvedeva¹¹, Aki Minoda^{1,2}, Ferenc Müller¹⁷, Manuel Muñoz-Aguirre¹³, Mitsuyoshi Murata^{1,2},
17 Hiromi Nishiyori^{1,2}, Kazuhiro R Nitta^{1,2}, Shuhei Noguchi^{1,2}, Yukihiko Noro², Ramil Nurtdinov¹³,
18 Yasushi Okazaki^{1,2}, Valerio Orlando³⁰, Denis Paquette¹⁹, Callum JC Parr¹, Owen JL Rackham⁶,
19 Patrizia Rizzu²⁴, Diego Fernando Sánchez Martínez²⁶, Albin Sandelin³¹, Pillay Sanjana¹⁷, Colin
20 AM Semple⁷, Youtaro Shibayama^{1,2}, Divya M Sivaraman^{1,2}, Takahiro Suzuki^{1,2}, Suzannah C
21 Szumowski², Michihira Tagami^{1,2}, Martin S Taylor⁷, Chikashi Terao¹, Malte Thodberg³¹, Supat
22 Thongjuea², Vidisha Tripathi³², Igor Ulitsky²², Roberto Verardo³, Ilya Vorontsov²¹, Chinatsu
23 Yamamoto², Robert S Young³³, J Kenneth Baillie⁷, Alistair RR Forrest^{1,2,34}, Roderic Guigó¹³,
24 Michael M Hoffman³⁵, Chung Chau Hon^{1,2}, Takeya Kasukawa^{1,2}, Sakari Kauppinen⁸, Juha
25 Kere²⁹, Boris Lenhard⁹, Claudio Schneider³⁶, Harukazu Suzuki^{1,2}, Ken Yagi^{1,2}, FANTOM
26 consortium, Michiel de Hoon^{1,2*}, Jay W Shin^{1,2*}, Piero Carninci^{1,2*}

27
28 * Corresponding authors
29 michiel.dehoon@riken.jp (M.D.H.)
30 jay.shin@riken.jp (J.W.S.)
31 carninci@riken.jp (P.C.)

32
33 # these authors contributed equally to this work

34 Affiliations

- 35 1. RIKEN Center for Integrative Medical Sciences, Yokohama, Kanagawa 230-0045 Japan
2. RIKEN Center for Life Science Technologies, Yokohama, Kanagawa 230-0045 Japan
3. Laboratorio Nazionale Consorzio Interuniversitario Biotecnologie (CIB), Trieste 34127 Italy
4. Engelhardt Institute of Molecular Biology, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow 119991 Russia
5. Department of Computer Science, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON M5S 1A1 Canada
6. Program in Cardiovascular and Metabolic Disorders, Duke NUS Graduate Medical School, Singapore 169857 Singapore
7. MRC Human Genetics Unit, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh EH4 2XU UK

8. Center for RNA Medicine, Department of Clinical Medicine, Aalborg University, Copenhagen 9220 Denmark
9. Institute of Clinical Sciences MRC Clinical Sciences Centre, Faculty of Medicine, Imperial College London, London W12 0NN UK
10. Berlin Institute for Medical Systems Biology, Max-Delbrück-Center for Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz Association, Berlin 13125 Germany
11. Institute of Bioengineering, Research Center of Biotechnology, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow 117312 Russia
12. Graduate School of Integrated Sciences for Life, Hiroshima University, Higashi-Hiroshima City 739-0046 Japan
13. Bioinformatics and Genomics, Centre for Genomic Regulation (CRG), Barcelona 8003 Catalonia, Spain
14. International Centre for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (ICGEB), University of Cape Town, Cape Town 7925 South Africa
15. School of Computer Science, McGill University, Montréal, Québec H3G 1Y6 Canada
16. Biomedical Cybernetics Group, Biotechnology Center (BIOTEC), Center for Molecular and Cellular Bioengineering (CMCB), Center for Systems Biology Dresden (CSBD), Cluster of Excellence Physics of Life (PoL), Department of Physics, Technische Universität Dresden, Dresden 01062 Germany
17. Institute of Cancer and Genomics Sciences, College of Medical and Dental Sciences, University of Birmingham, Birmingham B15 2TT UK
18. Center for Personal Dynamic Regulome, Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305 USA
19. Department of Biochemistry and Rosalind & Morris Goodman Cancer Research Center, McGill University, Montréal, Québec H3G 1Y6 Canada
20. Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zurich 8093 Switzerland
21. Computational Systems Biology, Vavilov Institute of General Genetics, Russian Academy of Sciences, Moscow 119991 Russia
22. Department of Biological Regulation, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot 76100 Israel
23. Epigenetics and Genome Reprogramming Laboratory, IRCCS Fondazione Santa Lucia, Rome Italy
24. Genome Biology of Neurodegenerative Diseases, German Center for Neurodegenerative Diseases (DZNE), Tübingen 72076 Germany
25. Graduate School of Frontier Biosciences, Osaka University, Suita 565-0871 Japan
26. Department of Oncology, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland 21287 USA
27. RIKEN Preventive Medicine and Diagnosis Innovation Program (PMI), Saitama 351-0198 Japan
28. Institute of Infection, Immunity and Inflammation, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, Scotland UK
29. Department of Biosciences and Nutrition, Karolinska Institutet, Huddinge 14157 Sweden
30. Biological and Environmental Sciences and Engineering Division, King Abdullah University of Science and Technology, Thuwal 23955-6900 Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
31. Department of Biology and BRIC, University of Copenhagen, Denmark, Copenhagen N DK2200 Denmark
32. National Centre for Cell Science, Pune, Maharashtra 411007 India
33. Centre for Global Health Research, Usher Institute, University of Edinburgh, EH4 2XU UK
34. Harry Perkins Institute of Medical Research, QEII Medical Centre and Centre for Medical

Research, The University of Western Australia, Nedlands, Perth, WA 6009 Australia

35. Princess Margaret Cancer Centre, Toronto, ON M5G 1L7 Canada

36. Department of Medicine and Consorzio Interuniversitario Biotecnologie p.zle Kolbe 1
University of Udine, Udine 33100 Italy

37 **Abstract**

38 Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) constitute the majority of transcripts in the mammalian
39 genomes and yet, their functions remain largely unknown. We systematically knockdown 285
40 lncRNAs expression in human dermal fibroblasts and quantified cellular growth, morphological
41 changes, and transcriptomic responses using Capped Analysis of Gene Expression (CAGE).
42 Antisense oligonucleotides targeting the same lncRNA exhibited global concordance, and the
43 molecular phenotype, measured by CAGE, recapitulated the observed cellular phenotypes while
44 providing additional insights on the affected genes and pathways. Here, we disseminate the
45 largest to-date lncRNA knockdown dataset with molecular phenotyping (over 1,000 CAGE
46 deep-sequencing libraries) for further exploration and highlight functional roles for *ZNF213-AS1*
47 and *lnc-KHDC3L-2*.

48

49 **Introduction**

50 Over 50,000 loci in the human genome transcribe long non-coding RNA (lncRNA) (Hon et al.
51 2017; Iyer et al. 2015), which are defined as transcripts at least 200 nucleotides long with low or
52 no protein-coding potential. While lncRNA genes outnumber protein-coding genes in
53 mammalian genomes, they are comparatively less conserved (Ulitsky 2016), lowly expressed,
54 and more cell-type-specific (Hon et al. 2017). However, the evolutionary conservation of
55 lncRNA promoters (Carninci et al. 2005) and their structural motifs of lncRNAs (Xue et al.
56 2016), (Chu et al. 2015) suggest that lncRNAs are fundamental biological regulators. To date,
57 only a few hundred human lncRNAs have been extensively characterized (Quek et al. 2015;
58 Volders et al. 2015; de Hoon et al. 2015; Ma et al. 2019), revealing their roles in regulating
59 transcription (Engreitz, Ollikainen, et al. 2016), translation (Carrieri et al. 2012), and chromatin
60 state (Gupta et al. 2010; Guttman and Rinn 2012; Guttman et al. 2011); (Ransohoff et al. 2018;
61 Quinn and Chang 2016).

62

63 Our recent FANTOM 5 computational analysis showed that 19,175 (out of 27,919) human
64 lncRNA loci are functionally implicated (Hon et al. 2017). Yet, genomic screens are necessary to
65 comprehensively characterize each lncRNA. One common approach of gene knockdown
66 followed by a cellular phenotype assay typically characterizes a small percentage of lncRNAs for
67 a single observable phenotype. For example, a recent large-scale screening using CRISPR

68 interference (CRISPRi) found that approximately ~3.7% of targeted lncRNA loci are essential
69 for cell growth or viability in a cell-type specific manner (Liu et al. 2017). In addition, CRISPR-
70 Cas9 experiments targeting splice sites identified ~2.1% of lncRNAs that affect growth of K562
71 (Liu et al. 2018) and a CRISPR activation study revealed ~0.11% lncRNAs to be important for
72 drug resistance in melanoma (Joung et al. 2017). However, many of these studies target the
73 genomic DNA, potentially perturbing the chromatin architecture, or focus on a single cellular
74 assay, possibly missing other relevant functions and underlying molecular pathways.

75
76 As a part of the FANTOM 6 pilot project, we established an automated high-throughput cell
77 culture platform to suppress 285 lncRNAs expressed in human primary dermal fibroblasts (HDF)
78 using antisense LNA-modified GapmeR antisense oligonucleotide (ASO) technology (Roux et
79 al. 2017). We then quantified the effect of each knockdown on cell growth and morphology
80 using real-time imaging, followed by Cap Analysis Gene Expression (CAGE; (Murata et al.
81 2014) deep sequencing to reveal molecular pathways associated with each lncRNA. In contrast
82 to cellular phenotyping, molecular phenotyping provides a detailed assessment of the response to
83 an lncRNA knockdown at the molecular level, allowing biological pathways to be associated to
84 lncRNAs even in the absence of an observable cellular phenotype. All data and analysis results
85 are publicly available (see Data Access) and results can be interactively explored using our in-
86 house portal <https://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/zenbu/reports/#FANTOM6/>.

87

88 **Results**

89 **Selection and ASO-mediated knockdown of lncRNA targets**

90 Human dermal fibroblasts (HDF) are non-transformed primary cells that are commonly used for
91 investigating cellular reprogramming (Takahashi et al. 2007; Ambasudhan et al. 2011), wound-
92 healing (Li and Wang 2011), fibrosis (Kendall R., et al 2014), and cancer (Kalluri 2016). Here,
93 an unbiased selection of lncRNAs expressed in HDF was performed to choose 285 lncRNAs for
94 functional interrogation (Methods; Supplemental Table S1, Fig. 1A-C). Using RNA-seq profiling
95 of fractionated RNA, we annotated the lncRNA subcellular localization in the chromatin-bound
96 (35%), nucleus-soluble (27%), or cytoplasm (38%) (Fig. 1D). We then designed a minimum of
97 five non-overlapping antisense oligonucleotides (ASOs) against each lncRNA (Supplemental
98 Methods; Supplemental Table S2; Fig. 1E,F) and transfected them individually using an

99 automated cell culture platform to minimize experimental variability (Fig. 1G). The overall
100 knockdown efficiencies across 2,021 ASOs resulted in median value of 45.4%, and we could
101 successfully knockdown 879 out of 2,021 (43.5%) ASOs (>40% knockdown efficiency in at
102 least two primer pairs or >60% in one primer pair; Supplemental Table S2). ASOs targeting
103 exons or introns were equally effective, and knockdown efficiencies were independent of the
104 genomic class, expression level, and subcellular localization of the lncRNA (Supplemental Fig.
105 S1A–D).

106

107 **A subset of lncRNAs associated with cell growth and morphology changes**

108 To evaluate the effect of each lncRNA knockdown on cell growth and morphology, we imaged
109 ASO-transfected HDF in duplicates every 3 hours for a total of 48 hours (Supplemental Table
110 S3) and estimated their growth rate based on cell confluence measurements (Fig. 2A,B). First,
111 we observed across all ASOs that changes in cell growth and morphological parameters were
112 significantly correlated with knockdown efficiency (Supplemental Fig. S1E). Considering both
113 successful knockdown and significant growth inhibition (Student's two-sided t -test FDR ≤ 0.05),
114 246 out of 879 ASOs (~28%) showed cellular phenotype (Fig. 2C, Table S3).

115

116 To assess globally whether the observed growth inhibition is lncRNA-specific, we used all 194
117 lncRNAs successfully targeted by at least two ASOs (Supplemental Fig. S2A) and found that
118 ASOs targeting the same lncRNA were significantly more likely to have a concordant growth
119 response than ASOs targeting different lncRNA (empirical $p = 0.00037$; Supplemental Methods;
120 Supplemental Fig. S2B). However, different ASOs targeting the same lncRNA typically showed
121 different effects on growth, possibly due to variable knockdown efficiencies, differences in
122 targeted lncRNA isoforms, as well as off-target effects. To reliably identify target specific
123 cellular phenotype, we applied conditional cutoffs based on the number of successful ASOs per
124 each lncRNA (Supplemental Methods; Supplemental Fig. S2C) and identified 15/194 lncRNAs
125 (7.7%) with growth phenotype (adjusted background less than 5%; Supplemental Fig. S2D). We
126 validated *AIBG-AS1*, which was previously implicated in cell growth (Bai et al. 2019),
127 *CATG00000089639*, *RP11-195F19.9*, and *ZNF213-AS1* by measuring the MKI67 proliferation
128 protein marker upon knockdown with siRNAs and selected ASOs (Fig. 2D, Supplemental Fig.
129 S2E).

130
131 In addition to cell growth, we also explored changes in cell morphology (Fig. 2E). Using a
132 machine learning-assisted workflow (Methods), each cell was segmented and its morphological
133 features representing various aspects of cell shapes and sizes were quantified (Carpenter et al.
134 2006) (Fig. 2F; Supplemental Table S3). As an example, knockdown of 14/194 lncRNAs (7.2%)
135 affected the spindle-like morphology of fibroblasts, as indicated by a consistent decrease in their
136 observed eccentricity without reducing the cell number, suggesting possible cellular
137 transformation towards epithelial-like states. Collectively, we observed 59/194 lncRNAs (~30%)
138 affecting cell growth and/or morphological parameters (Fig. 2G; Supplemental Table S3)

139
140 **Molecular phenotyping by CAGE recapitulates cellular phenotypes and highlights**
141 **functions of lncRNAs**

142 Next, we selected 340 ASOs with high knockdown efficiencies (mostly greater than 50%;
143 median 71.4%) and sequenced 970 CAGE libraries to analyze 154 lncRNAs (Fig. 3A;
144 Supplemental Table S4). To assess functional implications by individual ASOs, we performed
145 differential gene expression, Motif Activity Response Analysis (MARA; (FANTOM Consortium
146 et al. 2009), and Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA; (Subramanian et al. 2005); Fig3B-E),
147 and compared them with cellular phenotype.

148
149 We globally observed significant knockdown-mediated transcriptomic changes (which generally
150 correlated with KD efficiency; Supplemental Fig. S3A), with ~57% of ASOs showing at least 10
151 differentially expressed genes ($FDR \leq 0.05$; $abs(\log_2FC) > 0.5$). For 84 divergent-antisense
152 lncRNAs (targeted by 186 independent ASOs) (Supplemental Methods), we found their partner
153 gene to be generally unchanged (median $abs(\log_2FC) = \sim 0.13$), with an exception of two
154 significantly downregulated and three significantly upregulated genes ($FDR \leq 0.05$;
155 Supplemental Fig. S3B). We have, however, noticed common response in a large number of
156 ASOs (~30-35% of all responding ASOs) such as down-regulation of cell-cycle related
157 pathways, upregulated stress genes and pathways or altered cell metabolism and energetics
158 (Supplemental Fig. S3C,D).

159

160 When comparing knockdown-mediated molecular and cellular response, we found that
161 transcription factor motifs that promote cell growth, including TFDP1, E2F1,2,3, and EP300,
162 were positively correlated with the measured cell growth rate while transcription factor motifs
163 known to inhibit growth or induce apoptosis (*e.g.* PPARG, SREBPF, and STAT2,4,6) were
164 negatively correlated (Fig. 3D; Supplemental Fig. S4A; Supplemental Table S6). Moreover,
165 correlations between GSEA pathways (Fig. 3F; Supplemental Fig. S4B; Supplemental Table S6)
166 and FANTOM5 co-expression clusters (Supplemental Fig. S4C) showed that cell growth and
167 replication related pathways were positively correlated with the measured growth rate, whereas
168 those related to immunity, cell stress and cell death were negatively correlated. We found that
169 amongst 53 ASOs implicated in growth inhibition pathway based on the CAGE profiles, only
170 43% of them showed growth inhibition in the real-time imaging. This might suggest better
171 sensitivity of transcriptomic profiling when detecting phenotypes as compared to live cell
172 imaging methods, which are more prone to a delayed cellular response to the knockdown.

173
174 Additionally, morphological changes were reflected in the molecular phenotype assessed by
175 CAGE (Supplemental Fig. S4D). Cell radius and axis length were associated with GSEA
176 categories related to actin arrangement and cilia, while cell compactness was negatively
177 correlated with apoptosis. The extensive molecular phenotyping analysis also revealed pathways
178 not explicitly associated with cell growth and cell morphology, such as transcription, translation,
179 metabolism, development and signaling (Fig. 3E).

180
181 Next, to globally assess whether individual ASO knockdowns lead to lncRNA-specific effects,
182 we scaled the expression change of each gene across the whole experiment and compared
183 differentially expressed genes (Fig. 3B) of all possible ASO pairs targeting the same lncRNA
184 target versus different lncRNAs (Supplemental Methods; Supplemental Table S5). We found that
185 the concordance of the same target group was significantly greater than that of the different
186 target group (comparing the Jaccard indices across 10,000 permutations; Supplemental Fig.
187 S5A), suggesting that ASO knockdowns are non-random and lead to more lncRNA specific
188 effects than the non-targeting ASO pairs. Further, by requiring at least five common DEGs (FDR
189 ≤ 0.05 , $\text{abs}(\log_2\text{FC}) > 0.5$, $\text{abs}(\text{Z-score}) > 1.645$) and ASO-pairs significantly above the non-
190 targeting ASO pairs background ($p \leq 0.05$), we identified 16 ASO-pairs, targeting 13 lncRNAs,

191 exhibiting reproducible knockdown-mediated molecular responses in human dermal fibroblasts
192 (Supplemental Fig. S5B). Corresponding GSEA pathways and MARA motifs of these 16 ASO-
193 pairs are shown in Supplemental Figure S5C.

194

195 **siRNA validation experiments**

196 To evaluate whether the lncRNA-specific effects can be measured by other knockdown
197 technologies, nine lncRNAs, with relatively mild growth phenotype, were subjected to siRNA
198 knockdown. We noted that higher concordance was observed for ASO modality alone
199 (Supplemental Fig. S5D). The observed discrepancies in the transcriptional response between
200 ASO and siRNA-mediated knockdowns could be contributed by their mode of action and
201 variable activities in different subcellular compartments. Next, a concordant response was found
202 for (5/36) ASO-siRNA pairs targeting three lncRNAs (Supplemental Fig. S5E; Supplemental
203 Table S5), enriched in the cytoplasm (*MAPKAPK5-ASI*), soluble nuclear fraction (*LINC02454*)
204 and in the chromatin-bound fraction (*AIBG-ASI*). While we cannot completely exclude the
205 technical artefacts of each technology, concordant cellular response exhibited by using ASOs
206 alone suggests that lncRNA, in part, are essential regulatory elements in cells. Yet, our study
207 generally warrants a careful assessment of specific findings from different knockdown
208 technologies, including CRISPR-inhibition, and demonstrates a requirement of using multiple
209 replicates in a given target per each modality.

210

211 ***ZNF213-ASI* is associated with cell growth and migration.**

212 Extensive molecular and cellular phenotype data for each ASO knockdown can be explored
213 using our portal <https://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/zenbu/reports/#FANTOM6>. As an example of an
214 lncRNA associated with cell growth and morphology (Fig. 2G), we showcase *ZNF213-ASI*
215 (*RP11-473M20.14*). This lncRNA is highly conserved in placental mammals, moderately
216 expressed (~8 CAGE tags per million) in HDF and enriched in the chromatin-bound fraction.
217 Four distinct ASOs (ASO_01, ASO_02, ASO_05, and ASO_06) strongly suppressed expression
218 of *ZNF213-ASI*, while expression of the *ZNF213* sense gene was not significantly affected in
219 any of the knockdowns. The four ASOs caused varying degrees of cell growth inhibition (Fig.
220 4A). ASO_01 and ASO_06 showed a reduction in cell number, as well as an upregulation of
221 apoptosis, immune and defense pathways in GSEA suggesting cell death. While cell growth

222 inhibition observed for ASO_02 and ASO_05 was confirmed by MKI67 marker staining (Fig.
223 2D; Supplemental Tables S7), the molecular phenotype revealed suppression of GSEA pathways
224 related to cell growth, as well as to cell proliferation, motility, and extracellular structure
225 organization (Fig. 4B), and consistent in two ASOs downregulation of related motifs, for
226 example, EGR1, EP300, SMAD1..7,9 (Fig. 4C).

227
228 As cell motility pathways were affected by the knockdown, we tested whether *ZNF213-AS1*
229 could influence cell migration. Based on the wound-closure assay after transient cell growth
230 inhibition (mitomycin-C and serum starvation), we observed a substantial reduction of wound
231 closure rate (~40% over a 24-hour period) in the *ZNF213-AS1* depleted HDFs (Fig. 4D,E). The
232 reduced wound healing rate should thus mainly reflect reduced cell motility, further confirming
233 affected motility pathways predicted by the molecular phenotype.

234
235 As these results indicated a potential role of *ZNF213-AS1* in cell growth and migration, we used
236 FANTOM CAT Recount 2 atlas (Imada et al. 2020), which incorporates the TCGA dataset
237 (Collado-Torres et al. 2017), and found relatively higher expression of *ZNF213-AS1* in acute
238 myeloid leukemia (LAML) and in low-grade gliomas (LGG) as compared to other cancers
239 (Supplemental Fig. S6A). In LAML, the highest expression levels were associated with mostly
240 undifferentiated states, whereas in LGG, elevated expression levels were found in
241 oligodendrogliomas, astrocytomas, and in IDH1 mutated tumors, suggesting that *ZNF213-AS1* is
242 involved in modulating differentiation and proliferation of tumors (Supplemental Fig. S6B–E).
243 Further, univariate Cox proportional hazard analysis as well as Kaplan-Meier curves for LGG
244 were significant and consistent with our findings (HR = 0.61, BH FDR = 0.0079). The same
245 survival analysis on LAML showed a weak association with poor prognostic outcome but the
246 results were not significant; (Supplemental Fig. S6F,G).

247
248 ***RP11-398K22.12 (KHDC3L-2) regulates KCNQ5 in cis***

249 Next, we investigated in detail *RP11-398K22.12* (ENSG00000229852) where the knockdowns
250 by two independent ASOs (ASO_03, ASO_05) successfully reduced the expression of the target
251 lncRNA (67-82% knockdown efficiency, respectively) and further downregulated its
252 neighboring genes, *KCNQ5* and its divergent partner novel lncRNA *CATG00000088862.1* (Fig.

253 5A). While the two genomic loci occupy Chromosome 6 and are 650kb away, Hi-C analysis
254 (Supplemental Methods; Supplemental Fig. S7) showed that they are located within the same
255 topologically associated domain (TAD) and spatially co-localized (Fig. 5B). Moreover,
256 chromatin-enrichment and single molecule RNA-FISH of *RP11-398K22.12* (Fig. 5C) suggested
257 its highly localized *cis*-regulatory role.

258
259 In FANTOM5 (Hon et al. 2017), expression levels of *RP11-398K22.12*, *KCNQ5* and
260 *CATG00000088862.1* were enriched in brain and nervous system samples, while GTEx (GTEx
261 Consortium 2015) showed their highly-specific expression in the brain, particularly in the
262 cerebellum and the cerebellar hemisphere (Fig. 5D). GTEx data also showed that expression of
263 *RP11-398K22.12* with *KCNQ5* and *CATG00000088862.1* was highly correlated across neuronal
264 tissues (Fig. 5E,F), with the exception of cerebellum and cerebellar hemisphere, potentially due
265 to relatively lower levels of *KCNQ5* and *CATG00000088862.1* while levels of *RP11-398K22.12*
266 remained relatively higher. Additionally, we found an eQTL SNP (rs14526472) overlapping with
267 *RP11-398K22.12* and regulating expression of *KCNQ5* in brain caudate ($p = 4.2 \times 10^{-6}$;
268 normalized effect size -0.58). All these findings indicate that *RP11-398K22.12* is implicated in
269 the nervous system by maintaining the expression of *KCNQ5* and *CATG00000088862.1* in a *cis*-
270 acting manner.

271

272 Discussion

273 This study systematically annotates lncRNAs through molecular and cellular phenotyping by
274 selecting 285 lncRNAs from human dermal fibroblasts across a wide spectrum of expression,
275 conservation levels and subcellular localization enrichments. Using ASO technology allowed
276 observed phenotypes to be associated to the lncRNA transcripts, while in contrast CRISPR-based
277 approaches may synchronically influence the transcription machinery at the site of the divergent
278 promoter or affect regulatory elements of the targeted DNA site. Knockdown efficiencies
279 obtained with ASOs were observed to be independent of lncRNA expression levels, subcellular
280 localization, and of their genomic annotation, allowing us to apply the same knockdown
281 technology to various classes of lncRNAs.

282

283 We investigated the *cis*-regulation of nearby divergent promoters, which has been reported as
284 one of the functional roles of lncRNA (Luo et al. 2016). However, in agreement with previous
285 studies (Guttman et al. 2011) we did not observe general patterns in the expression response of
286 divergent promoters (Supplemental Fig. S3B). Recent studies suggest that transcription of
287 lncRNA loci that do not overlap with other transcription units may influence RNA polymerase II
288 occupancy on neighboring promoters and gene bodies (Engreitz, Haines, et al. 2016), (Cho et al.
289 2018). Thus, it is plausible that transcription of targeted lncRNA was maintained, despite
290 suppression of mature or nascent transcripts using ASOs. This further suggests that the
291 functional responses described in this study are due to interference of processed transcripts
292 present either in the nucleus, the cytoplasm or both. While it is arguable that ASOs may interfere
293 with general transcription by targeting the 5'-end of nascent transcripts and thus releasing RNA
294 polymerase II followed by exonuclease-mediated decay and transcription termination (aka
295 “torpedo model”; (Proudfoot 2016)), most of the ASOs were designed across the entire length of
296 the transcript. Since we did not broadly observe dysregulation in nearby genes, interference of
297 transcription or splicing activity is less likely to occur.

298
299 We observed a reduction in cell growth for ~7.7% of our target lncRNA genes, which is in-line
300 with previous experiments using CRISPRi-pooled screening, which reported 5.9% (in iPS cells)
301 of lncRNAs exhibiting a cell growth phenotype (Liu et al. 2017). While these rates are much
302 lower than for protein-coding genes (Sokolova et al. 2017), recurrent observations of cell growth
303 (including cell death) phenotypes strongly suggest that a substantial fraction of lncRNAs play an
304 essential role in cellular physiology and viability. Further, when applying image-based analysis,
305 we found that lncRNAs affect cell morphologies (Fig. 2G), which has not been so far thoroughly
306 explored.

307
308 Several lncRNAs such as *MALAT1*, *NEAT1*, and *FIRRE* have been reported to orchestrate
309 transcription, RNA processing, and gene expression (Kopp and Mendell 2018), but are not
310 essential for mouse development or viability. These observations advocate for assays that can
311 comprehensively profile the molecular changes inside perturbed cells. Therefore, in contrast to
312 cell-based assays, functional elucidation via molecular phenotyping provides comprehensive
313 information that cannot be captured by a single phenotypic assay. Herein, the number of

314 overlapping differentially expressed genes between 2 ASOs of the same lncRNA targets,
315 indicated that 10.9% of lncRNAs exert a reproducible regulatory function in HDF.

316

317 Although the features of selected lncRNAs being generally similar to those of other lncRNAs
318 expressed in HDF (Fig. 1B-D), the cell type specific nature of lncRNAs and the relatively small
319 sampling size (119 lncRNAs with knockdown transcriptome profiles) used in our study may not
320 fully represent the whole extent of lncRNA in other cell types. However, lncRNA targets that did
321 not exhibit a molecular phenotype may be biologically relevant in other cell types or cell states
322 (Li and Chang 2014); (Liu et al. 2017). At the same time, our results showed that particular
323 lncRNAs expressed broadly in other tissues (e.g., in the human brain) were functional in HDF (in
324 case of *RP11-398K22.12*). Although the exact molecular mechanisms of *RP11-398K22.12* are
325 not yet fully understood, its potential role in HDF suggests that lncRNAs may be functionally
326 relevant across multiple tissues in spite of the cell-type-specific expression of lncRNAs.

327

328 Further, we used siRNA technology to knockdown lncRNA targets as a method for independent
329 validation. When comparing the transcriptomes perturbed by ASOs and siRNAs, concordance
330 was observed only for 3 out of 9 lncRNAs. This discrepancy is likely due to different modes of
331 actions of the two technologies. While ASOs invoke RNase H-mediated cleavage, primarily
332 active in the nucleus, the siRNAs use RNA-inducing silencing complex (RISC) mainly active in
333 the cytoplasm. lncRNAs are known to function in specific subcellular compartments (Chen
334 2016) and their maturity, secondary structures, isoforms and functions could be vastly different
335 across compartments (Johnsson et al. 2013). Since the majority functional lncRNA are reported
336 to be inside the nucleus (Palazzo and Lee 2018), (Sun et al. 2018), ASO-mediated knockdowns,
337 which mainly target nuclear RNAs, are generally more suitable for functional screenings of our
338 lncRNA (62% found in the nuclear compartment). Besides, the dynamics of secondary effects
339 mediated by different levels of knockdown from different technologies are likely to be observed
340 as discordance when considering the whole transcriptome, where this kind of discordance has
341 been reported previously (Stojic et al. 2018). In contrast, in the MKI67 assay where only a single
342 feature such as growth phenotype is assayed, siRNA knockdown revealed higher reproducibility
343 with ASO knockdown. This suggested that the growth phenotype might be triggered by different
344 specific pathways in ASO- and siRNA- knockdowns.

345

346 Previous studies suggests that lncRNAs regulate gene expression in *trans* epigenetically, via
347 direct or indirect interaction with regulators such as DNMT1 (Di Ruscio et al. 2013) or by
348 directly binding to DNA (triplex; (Mondal et al. 2015) or other RNA binding proteins (Tichon et
349 al. 2016). Analysis of cellular localization by fractionation followed by RNA-seq and *in situ*
350 hybridization can indicate whether a given lncRNA may act *in trans* by quantifying its
351 abundance in the nuclear soluble fraction as compared to cytoplasm. While most lncRNAs in
352 nuclear soluble fraction may affect pathways associated with chromatin modification, additional
353 experiments to globally understand their interaction partners will elucidate the molecular
354 mechanism behind *trans*-acting lncRNAs (Li et al. 2017); (Sridhar et al. 2017).

355

356 In summary, our study highlights the functional importance of lncRNAs regardless of their
357 expression, localization and conservation levels. Molecular phenotyping is a powerful and
358 generally more sensitive to knockdown mediated changes platform to reveal the functional
359 relevance of lncRNAs that cannot be observed based on the cellular phenotypes alone. With
360 additional molecular profiling techniques, such as RNA duplex maps in living cells to decode
361 common structural motifs (Lu et al. 2016), and Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) to annotate
362 the full-length variant isoforms of lncRNA (Hardwick et al. 2019), structure-to-functional
363 relationship of lncRNAs may be elucidated further in the future.

364

365 **Methods**

366 **Gene Models and lncRNA targets selections**

367 The gene models used in this study were primarily based on the FANTOM CAGE-associated
368 transcriptome (CAT) at permissive level as defined previously (Hon et al. 2017). From this
369 merged assembly, there were ~2,000 lncRNAs robustly expressed in HDF (TPM \geq 1). However,
370 we selected lncRNA knockdown targets in an unbiased manner to broadly cover various types of
371 lncRNAs (TPM \geq 0.2). Briefly, we first identified a list of the lncRNA genes expressed in HDF,
372 with RNA-seq expression at least 0.5 fragments per kilobase per million and CAGE expression
373 at least 1 tag per millions. Then we manually inspected each lncRNA locus in ZENBU genome
374 browser for 1) its independence from neighboring genes on the same strand (if any), 2) support
375 from RNA-seq (for exons and splicing junctions) and CAGE data (for TSS) of its transcript
376 models and 3) support from histone marks at TSS for transcription initiation (H3K27ac) and
377 along gene body for elongation (H3K36me3), from Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium
378 (Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium et al. 2015). A representative transcript model, which best
379 represents the RNA-seq signal, was manually chosen from each locus for design of antisense
380 oligonucleotides (ASOs). In total, 285 lncRNA loci were chosen for ASO suppression.
381 Additional controls (*NEATI*, protein coding genes Supplemental Table S1) were added including
382 *MALATI* as an experimental control. For details please refer to the Supplemental Methods.

383

384 **ASO design**

385 ASOs were designed as RNase H-recruiting locked nucleic acid (LNA) phosphorothioate
386 gapmers with a central DNA gap flanked by 2-4 LNA nucleotides at the 5' and 3' ends of the
387 ASOs. For details please refer to the Supplemental Methods.

388

389 **Automated cell culturing, ASO transfection and cell harvesting**

390 Robotic automation (Hamilton®) was established to provide stable environment and accurate
391 procedural timing control for cell culturing and transfection. In brief, trypsin-EDTA detachment,
392 cell number and viability quantification, cell seeding, transfection and cell harvesting were
393 performed with automation. All transfections were divided into 28 runs at weekly basis. ASO
394 transfection was performed with duplication. In each run, there were 16 independent

395 transfections with ASO negative control A (NC_A, Exiqon) and 16 wells transfected with an
396 ASO targeting *MALAT-1* (Exiqon).

397 The HDF cells were seeded in 12-well plates with 80,000 cells in each well 24 hours prior to the
398 transfection. A final concentration of 20 nM ASO and 2 μ l lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Thermo
399 Fisher Scientific) were mixed in 200 μ l Opti-MEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The mixture was
400 incubated at room temperature for 5 min and added to the cells, which were maintained in 1 ml
401 complete medium. The cells were harvested 48 hours post-transfection by adding 200 μ l RLT
402 buffer from the RNeasy 96 Kit (Qiagen) after PBS washing. The harvested lysates were kept at -
403 80°C. RNA was extracted from the lysate for real time quantitative RT-PCR (Supplemental
404 Methods).

405

406 **ASO transfection for real-time imaging**

407 The HDF cells were transfected manually in 96-well plate to facilitate high-throughput real time
408 imaging. The cells were seeded 24 hours before transfection at a density of 5,200 cells per well.
409 A final concentration of 20 nM ASO and 2 μ l lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Thermo Fisher
410 Scientific) were mixed in 200 μ l Opti-MEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific). After incubating at
411 room temperature for 5 min, 18 μ l of the transfection mix was added to 90 μ l complete medium
412 in each well. The ASOs were divided in 14 runs and transfected in duplicates. Each plate
413 accommodated 6 wells of NC_A control, 2 wells of *MALAT1* ASO control and 2 wells of mock-
414 transfection (lipofectamine alone) control.

415 Phase-contrast images of transfected cells were captured every 3 hours for 2 days with 3 fields
416 per well by the IncuCyte® live-cell imaging system (Essen Bioscience). The confluence in each
417 field was analyzed by the IncuCyte® software. The mean confluence of each well was taken
418 along the timeline until the mean confluence of the NC_A control in the same plate reached
419 90%. The growth rate in each well was calculated as the slope of a linear regression. A
420 normalized growth rate of each replicate was calculated as the growth rate divided by the mean
421 growth rate of the 6 NC_A controls from the same plate. Negative growth rate was derived when
422 cells shrink and/or detach. As these rates of cell depletion could not be normalized by the rate of
423 growth, negative values were maintained to indicate severe growth inhibition. Student's *t*-test
424 was performed between the growth rate of the duplicated samples and the 6 NC_A controls,
425 assuming equal variance.

426

427 **Cell morphology quantification**

428 For each transfection, representative phase-contrast image at a single time point was exported
429 from the Incucyte time-series. These raw images were first transformed to probability maps of
430 cells by pixel classification using ilastik (1.3.2) (Berg et al. 2019). The trained model was then
431 applied to all images where the predicted probability maps of cells (grey scale, 16 bits tiff
432 format) were subsequently used for morphology quantification in CellProfiler (3.1.5) (Carpenter
433 et al. 2006). For details please refer to the Supplemental Methods.

434

435 **MKI67 staining upon lncRNA knockdown**

436 For the selected four lncRNA targets showing >25% growth inhibition, we used two siRNAs and
437 ASOs with independent sequences. The transfected cells were fixed by adding pre-chilled 70%
438 ethanol and incubated in -20°C. The cells were washed by FACS buffer (2% FBS in PBS, 0.05%
439 NaN₃) twice. FITC-conjugated MKI67 (20Raj1, eBioscience) was applied to the cells and
440 subjected to flow cytometric analysis. Knockdown efficiency by siRNA was determined by real-
441 time quantitative RT-PCR using the same 3 primer pairs as for ASO knockdown efficiency. For
442 details please refer to the Supplemental Methods.

443

444 **Wound closure assay**

445 The HDF cells were transfected by 20nM ASO as described earlier in 12-well plates. The cells
446 were re-plated at 24 hours post-transfection into a 96-well ImageLock plate (Essen BioScience)
447 at a density of 20,000 cells per well. At 24 hours after seeding, cells form a spatially uniform
448 monolayer with 95-100% cell confluence. The cells were incubated with 5 µg/mL mitomycin-C
449 for 2 hours to inhibit cell division. Then, medium was refreshed and a uniform scratch was
450 created in each well by the WoundMaker™(Essen BioScience). The closure of the wound was
451 monitored by IncuCyte® live-cell imaging system (Essen Bioscience) every 2 hours for 24
452 hours. The RNA was harvested after the assay for real-time quantitative RT-PCR. For details
453 please refer to the Supplemental Methods.

454

455 ***Cap analysis of gene expression (CAGE)***

456 Four micrograms of purified RNA were used to generate libraries according to the nAnT-iCAGE
457 protocol (Murata et al. 2014). For details please refer to the Supplemental Methods.

458

459 *Chromosome conformation capture (Hi-C)*

460 Hi-C libraries were prepared essentially as described previously (Fraser, Ferrai, et al. 2015;
461 Lieberman-Aiden et al. 2009) with minor changes to improve the DNA yield of Hi-C products
462 (Fraser, Williamson, et al. 2015). For details please refer to the Supplemental Methods.

463

464 **Data Access**

465 All raw and processed sequencing data generated in this study have been submitted to the DNA
466 Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ; <https://www.ddbj.nig.ac.jp/>) under accession numbers (DRA008311,
467 DRA008312, DRA008436, DRA008511) or can be accessed through the FANTOM6 project
468 portal <https://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/6/datafiles>. The analysis results can be downloaded from
469 https://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/6/suppl/Ramilowski_et_al_2020/data/ and interactively explored
470 using our in-house portal <https://fantom.gsc.riken.jp/zenbu/reports/#FANTOM6/>.

471

472 **Acknowledgements**

473 General: We would also like to thank Linda Kostrencic, Hiroto Atsui, Emi Ito, Nobuyuki
474 Takeda, Tsutomu Saito, Teruaki Kitakura, Yumi Hara, Machiko Kashiwagi, Masaaki Furuno at
475 RIKEN Yokohama for assistance in arranging collaboration agreements, ethics applications,
476 computational infrastructure and the FANTOM6 meetings. The authors wish to acknowledge
477 RIKEN GeNAS for generation and sequencing of the CAGE libraries and subsequent data
478 processing.

479

480 Funding: FANTOM6 was made possible by a Research Grant for RIKEN Center for Life
481 Science Technology, Division of Genomic Technologies (CLST DGT) and RIKEN Center for
482 Integrative Medical Sciences (IMS) from MEXT, Japan. I.V.K. and I.E.V. were supported by
483 RFBR 18-34-20024, B.B. is supported by the fellowship 2017FI_B00722 from the Secretaria
484 d'Universitats i Recerca del Departament d'Empresa i Coneixement (Generalitat de Catalunya)
485 and the European Social Fund (ESF), A.V.F. was supported by NIH P30 CA006973 and RFBR

486 17-00-00208, D.G.M. is supported by a "la Caixa"-Severo Ochoa pre-doctoral fellowship
487 (LCF/BQ/SO15/52260001), E.L.I and L.M. were supported by NIH National Cancer Institute
488 Grant R01CA200859 and DOD award W81XWH-16-1-0739, M.K.S. was supported by Versus
489 Arthritis UK 20298, A.L. was supported by the Swedish Cancer society, The Swedish research
490 council, the Swedish Childhood Cancer fund, Radiumhemmets forskningsfonder, V.J.M. was
491 supported by the Russian Academy of Sciences Project 0112-2019-0001, Y.A.M. was supported
492 by RSF grant 18-14-00240, A.S. was supported by Novo Nordisk Foundation, Lundbeck
493 Foundation, Danish Cancer Society, Carlsberg Foundation, Independent Research Fund
494 Denmark, A.R.R.F. is currently supported by an Australian National Health and Medical
495 Research Council Fellowship APP1154524, M.M.H. was supported by Natural Sciences and
496 Engineering Research Council of Canada (RGPIN-2015-3948), C.S. was supported by CIB from
497 grants MIUR n.974,CMPT177780. J.L. was supported by Japan Society for the Promotion of
498 Science (JSPS) Postdoctoral Fellowship for Foreign Researchers. C.J.C.P. was supported by
499 RIKEN Special Post-Doctoral Research (SPDR) fellowship.

500

501 **Author Information**

502 Competing interests - all authors declare no competing interest

503

504 **References**

505

506 Ambasudhan, R., Talantova, M., Coleman, R., et al. 2011. Direct reprogramming of adult human
507 fibroblasts to functional neurons under defined conditions. *Cell Stem Cell* 9(2), pp. 113–118.

508 Bai, J., Yao, B., Wang, L., et al. 2019. lncRNA A1BG-AS1 suppresses proliferation and invasion
509 of hepatocellular carcinoma cells by targeting miR-216a-5p. *Journal of Cellular Biochemistry*
510 120(6), pp. 10310–10322.

511 Berg, S., Kutra, D., Kroeger, T., et al. 2019. ilastik: interactive machine learning for (bio)image
512 analysis. *Nature Methods* 16(12), pp. 1226–1232.

513 Carninci, P., Kasukawa, T., Katayama, S., et al. 2005. The transcriptional landscape of the
514 mammalian genome. *Science* 309(5740), pp. 1559–1563.

515 Carpenter, A.E., Jones, T.R., Lamprecht, M.R., et al. 2006. CellProfiler: image analysis software
516 for identifying and quantifying cell phenotypes. *Genome Biology* 7(10), p. R100.

517 Carrieri, C., Cimatti, L., Biagioli, M., et al. 2012. Long non-coding antisense RNA controls
518 Uchl1 translation through an embedded SINEB2 repeat. *Nature* 491(7424), pp. 454–457.

519 Chen, L.-L. 2016. Linking long noncoding RNA localization and function. *Trends in*
520 *Biochemical Sciences* 41(9), pp. 761–772.

521 Cho, S.W., Xu, J., Sun, R., et al. 2018. Promoter of lncRNA Gene PVT1 Is a Tumor-Suppressor
522 DNA Boundary Element. *Cell* 173(6), pp. 1398-1412.e22.

523 Chu, C., Zhang, Q.C., da Rocha, S.T., et al. 2015. Systematic discovery of Xist RNA binding
524 proteins. *Cell* 161(2), pp. 404–416.

525 Collado-Torres, L., Nellore, A., Kammers, K., et al. 2017. Reproducible RNA-seq analysis using
526 recount2. *Nature Biotechnology* 35(4), pp. 319–321.

527 Di Ruscio, A., Ebralidze, A.K., Benoukraf, T., et al. 2013. DNMT1-interacting RNAs block
528 gene-specific DNA methylation. *Nature* 503(7476), pp. 371–376.

529 Engreitz, J.M., Haines, J.E., Perez, E.M., et al. 2016. Local regulation of gene expression by
530 lncRNA promoters, transcription and splicing. *Nature* 539(7629), pp. 452–455.

531 Engreitz, J.M., Ollikainen, N. and Guttman, M. 2016. Long non-coding RNAs: spatial amplifiers
532 that control nuclear structure and gene expression. *Nature Reviews. Molecular Cell Biology*
533 17(12), pp. 756–770.

534 FANTOM Consortium, Suzuki, H., Forrest, A.R.R., et al. 2009. The transcriptional network that
535 controls growth arrest and differentiation in a human myeloid leukemia cell line. *Nature*
536 *Genetics* 41(5), pp. 553–562.

537 Fraser, J., Ferrai, C., Chiariello, A.M., et al. 2015. Hierarchical folding and reorganization of

- 538 chromosomes are linked to transcriptional changes in cellular differentiation. *Molecular Systems*
539 *Biology* 11(12), p. 852.
- 540 Fraser, J., Williamson, I., Bickmore, W.A. and Dostie, J. 2015. An Overview of Genome
541 Organization and How We Got There: from FISH to Hi-C. *Microbiology and Molecular Biology*
542 *Reviews* 79(3), pp. 347–372.
- 543 GTEx Consortium 2015. Human genomics. The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) pilot
544 analysis: multitissue gene regulation in humans. *Science* 348(6235), pp. 648–660.
- 545 Gupta, R.A., Shah, N., Wang, K.C., et al. 2010. Long non-coding RNA HOTAIR reprograms
546 chromatin state to promote cancer metastasis. *Nature* 464(7291), pp. 1071–1076.
- 547 Guttman, M., Donaghey, J., Carey, B.W., et al. 2011. lincRNAs act in the circuitry controlling
548 pluripotency and differentiation. *Nature* 477(7364), pp. 295–300.
- 549 Guttman, M. and Rinn, J.L. 2012. Modular regulatory principles of large non-coding RNAs.
550 *Nature* 482(7385), pp. 339–346.
- 551 Hardwick, S.A., Bassett, S.D., Kaczorowski, D., et al. 2019. Targeted, High-Resolution RNA
552 Sequencing Of Non-Coding Genomic Regions Associated With Neuropsychiatric Functions.
553 *Biorxiv*, p. 539882.
- 554 Hon, C.-C., Ramilowski, J.A., Harshbarger, J., et al. 2017. An atlas of human long non-coding
555 RNAs with accurate 5' ends. *Nature* 543(7644), pp. 199–204.
- 556 De Hoon, M., Shin, J.W. and Carninci, P. 2015. Paradigm shifts in genomics through the
557 FANTOM projects. *Mammalian Genome* 26(9–10), pp. 391–402.
- 558 Imada, E.L., Sanchez, D.F., Collado-Torres, L., et al. 2020. Recounting the FANTOM
559 cageassociated transcriptome. *Genome Research*.
- 560 Iyer, M.K., Niknafs, Y.S., Malik, R., et al. 2015. The landscape of long noncoding RNAs in the
561 human transcriptome. *Nature Genetics* 47(3), pp. 199–208.
- 562 Johnsson, P., Ackley, A., Vidarsdottir, L., et al. 2013. A pseudogene long-noncoding-RNA
563 network regulates PTEN transcription and translation in human cells. *Nature Structural &*
564 *Molecular Biology* 20(4), pp. 440–446.
- 565 Joung, J., Engreitz, J.M., Konermann, S., et al. 2017. Genome-scale activation screen identifies a
566 lncRNA locus regulating a gene neighbourhood. *Nature* 548(7667), pp. 343–346.
- 567 Kalluri, R. 2016. The biology and function of fibroblasts in cancer. *Nature Reviews. Cancer*
568 16(9), pp. 582–598.
- 569 Kopp, F. and Mendell, J.T. 2018. Functional classification and experimental dissection of long
570 noncoding rnas. *Cell* 172(3), pp. 393–407.
- 571 Lieberman-Aiden, E., van Berkum, N.L., Williams, L., et al. 2009. Comprehensive mapping of
572 long-range interactions reveals folding principles of the human genome. *Science* 326(5950), pp.

- 573 289–293.
- 574 Liu, S.J., Horlbeck, M.A., Cho, S.W., et al. 2017. CRISPRi-based genome-scale identification of
575 functional long noncoding RNA loci in human cells. *Science* 355(6320).
- 576 Liu, Y., Cao, Z., Wang, Y., et al. 2018. Genome-wide screening for functional long noncoding
577 RNAs in human cells by Cas9 targeting of splice sites. *Nature Biotechnology*.
- 578 Li, B. and Wang, J.H.-C. 2011. Fibroblasts and myofibroblasts in wound healing: force
579 generation and measurement. *Journal of tissue viability* 20(4), pp. 108–120.
- 580 Li, L. and Chang, H.Y. 2014. Physiological roles of long noncoding RNAs: insight from
581 knockout mice. *Trends in Cell Biology* 24(10), pp. 594–602.
- 582 Li, X., Zhou, B., Chen, L., Gou, L.-T., Li, H. and Fu, X.-D. 2017. GRID-seq reveals the global
583 RNA-chromatin interactome. *Nature Biotechnology* 35(10), pp. 940–950.
- 584 Luo, S., Lu, J.Y., Liu, L., et al. 2016. Divergent lncRNAs Regulate Gene Expression and
585 Lineage Differentiation in Pluripotent Cells. *Cell Stem Cell* 18(5), pp. 637–652.
- 586 Lu, Z., Zhang, Q.C., Lee, B., et al. 2016. RNA Duplex Map in Living Cells Reveals Higher-
587 Order Transcriptome Structure. *Cell* 165(5), pp. 1267–1279.
- 588 Ma, L., Cao, J., Liu, L., et al. 2019. LncBook: a curated knowledgebase of human long non-
589 coding RNAs. *Nucleic Acids Research* 47(D1), pp. D128–D134.
- 590 Mondal, T., Subhash, S., Vaid, R., et al. 2015. MEG3 long noncoding RNA regulates the TGF- β
591 pathway genes through formation of RNA-DNA triplex structures. *Nature Communications* 6, p.
592 7743.
- 593 Murata, M., Nishiyori-Sueki, H., Kojima-Ishiyama, M., Carninci, P., Hayashizaki, Y. and Itoh,
594 M. 2014. Detecting expressed genes using CAGE. *Methods in Molecular Biology* 1164, pp. 67–
595 85.
- 596 Palazzo, A.F. and Lee, E.S. 2018. Sequence Determinants for Nuclear Retention and
597 Cytoplasmic Export of mRNAs and lncRNAs. *Frontiers in genetics* 9, p. 440.
- 598 Proudfoot, N.J. 2016. Transcriptional termination in mammals: Stopping the RNA polymerase II
599 juggernaut. *Science* 352(6291), p. aad9926.
- 600 Quek, X.C., Thomson, D.W., Maag, J.L.V., et al. 2015. lncRNADB v2.0: expanding the reference
601 database for functional long noncoding RNAs. *Nucleic Acids Research* 43(Database issue), pp.
602 D168-73.
- 603 Quinn, J.J. and Chang, H.Y. 2016. Unique features of long non-coding RNA biogenesis and
604 function. *Nature Reviews. Genetics* 17(1), pp. 47–62.
- 605 Ransohoff, J.D., Wei, Y. and Khavari, P.A. 2018. The functions and unique features of long
606 intergenic non-coding RNA. *Nature Reviews. Molecular Cell Biology* 19(3), pp. 143–157.
- 607 Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium, Kundaje, A., Meuleman, W., et al. 2015. Integrative

- 608 analysis of 111 reference human epigenomes. *Nature* 518(7539), pp. 317–330.
- 609 Roux, B.T., Lindsay, M.A. and Heward, J.A. 2017. Knockdown of Nuclear-Located Enhancer
610 RNAs and Long ncRNAs Using Locked Nucleic Acid GapmeRs. *Methods in Molecular Biology*
611 1468, pp. 11–18.
- 612 Sridhar, B., Rivas-Astroza, M., Nguyen, T.C., et al. 2017. Systematic Mapping of RNA-
613 Chromatin Interactions In Vivo. *Current Biology* 27(4), pp. 602–609.
- 614 Stojic, L., Lun, A.T.L., Mangei, J., et al. 2018. Specificity of RNAi, LNA and CRISPRi as loss-
615 of-function methods in transcriptional analysis. *Nucleic Acids Research* 46(12), pp. 5950–5966.
- 616 Subramanian, A., Tamayo, P., Mootha, V.K., et al. 2005. Gene set enrichment analysis: a
617 knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. *Proceedings of the*
618 *National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 102(43), pp. 15545–15550.
- 619 Sun, Q., Hao, Q. and Prasanth, K.V. 2018. Nuclear long noncoding rnas: key regulators of gene
620 expression. *Trends in Genetics* 34(2), pp. 142–157.
- 621 Takahashi, K., Tanabe, K., Ohnuki, M., et al. 2007. Induction of pluripotent stem cells from
622 adult human fibroblasts by defined factors. *Cell* 131(5), pp. 861–872.
- 623 Tichon, A., Gil, N., Lubelsky, Y., et al. 2016. A conserved abundant cytoplasmic long noncoding
624 RNA modulates repression by Pumilio proteins in human cells. *Nature Communications* 7, p.
625 12209.
- 626 Ulitsky, I. 2016. Evolution to the rescue: using comparative genomics to understand long non-
627 coding RNAs. *Nature Reviews. Genetics* 17(10), pp. 601–614.
- 628 Volders, P.-J., Verheggen, K., Menschaert, G., et al. 2015. An update on LNCipedia: a database
629 for annotated human lncRNA sequences. *Nucleic Acids Research* 43(Database issue), pp. D174-
630 80.
- 631 Xue, Z., Hennelly, S., Doyle, B., et al. 2016. A G-Rich Motif in the lncRNA Braveheart Interacts
632 with a Zinc-Finger Transcription Factor to Specify the Cardiovascular Lineage. *Molecular Cell*
633 64(1), pp. 37–50.

634

635 **Figure legends**

636 **Figure 1.** Selection of lncRNA targets, their properties and the study overview. (A) CAGE
637 expression levels at log₂TPM (tags per million) and human dermal fibroblasts (HDF) specificity
638 of lncRNAs in the FANTOM CAT catalog (Hon, et al., Nature 2017; *N* = 62,873; grey),
639 lncRNAs expressed in HDF (*N* = 6,125; blue) and targeted lncRNAs (*N* = 285; red). The dashed
640 vertical line indicates most lowly expressed lncRNA target (~0.2 TPM). (B) Gene conservation
641 levels of lncRNAs in the FANTOM CAT catalog (grey), lncRNAs expressed in HDF (blue) and

642 targeted lncRNAs (red). Crossbars indicate the median. No significant difference is observed
643 when comparing targeted and expressed in HDF lncRNAs (Wilcoxon $p = 0.11$). (C) Similar to
644 that in B, but for genomic classes of lncRNAs. Most of the targeted lncRNAs and those
645 expressed in HDF are expressed from divergent promoters. (D) Subcellular localization (based
646 on relative abundances from RNA-seq fractionation data) for targeted lncRNAs. Chromatin-
647 bound ($N = 98$; blue); Nuclear soluble ($N = 76$; green); Cytoplasmic ($N = 108$; red). Black
648 contours represent the distribution of all lncRNAs expressed in HDF. (E) Example of *ZNF213-*
649 *AS1* loci showing transcript model, CAGE and RNA-seq signal along with targeting ASOs. (F)
650 Number of ASOs for target lncRNAs and controls used in the experiment. (G) Schematics of the
651 study.

652 **Figure 2.** Cell growth and morphology assessment. (A) Selected example (*PTPRG1-AS1*)
653 showing the normalized growth rate estimation using a matching NC_A (negative control). (B)
654 Correlation of the normalized growth rate for technical duplicates across 2,456 IncuCyte®
655 samples. (C) Density distribution of normalized growth rates (technical replicates averaged) 252
656 ASOs targeting lncRNAs with successful knockdown (KD) and growth phenotype (blue)
657 consistent in 2 replicates ($FDR < 0.05$ as compared to matching NC_A; 246 ASOs inhibited
658 growth), 627 ASOs targeting lncRNAs with successful KD (purple), 270 negative control
659 (NC_A) samples (grey) and 90 mock-transfected cells (lipofectamine only) samples (yellow).
660 (D) MKI67 staining (growth inhibition validation) for four selected lncRNA targets after siRNA
661 and ASOs suppression. (E) IncuCyte® cell images of selected distinct cell morphologies changes
662 upon an lncRNA KD. (F) An overview of cell morphology imaging processing pipeline using a
663 novel lncRNA target, *CATG000089639.1*, as an example. (G) lncRNAs ($N = 59$) significantly
664 ($FDR < 0.05$) and consistently (after adjusting for the number of successfully targeting ASOs)
665 affecting cell growth ($N = 15$) and cell morphologies ($N = 44$).

666 **Figure 3.** CAGE predicts cellular phenotypes. (A) RT-qPCR knockdown (KD) efficiency for
667 2,021 ASO-transfected samples (targeted lncRNAs only). Grey dashed line indicates 50% KD
668 efficiency generally required for CAGE selection. Purple dashed lines indicate median KD
669 efficiency (71.5%) for 375 ASOs selected for CAGE sequencing. After quality control, 340
670 ASOs targeting lncRNAs were included for further analysis. (B) Distribution of significantly
671 differentially expressed genes (up-regulated: $FDR < 0.05$, Z-score > 1.645 , $\log_2FC > 0.5$ and
672 down-regulated: $FDR < 0.05$, Z-score < -1.645 , $\log_2FC < -0.5$) across all 340 ASOs. (C) Motif

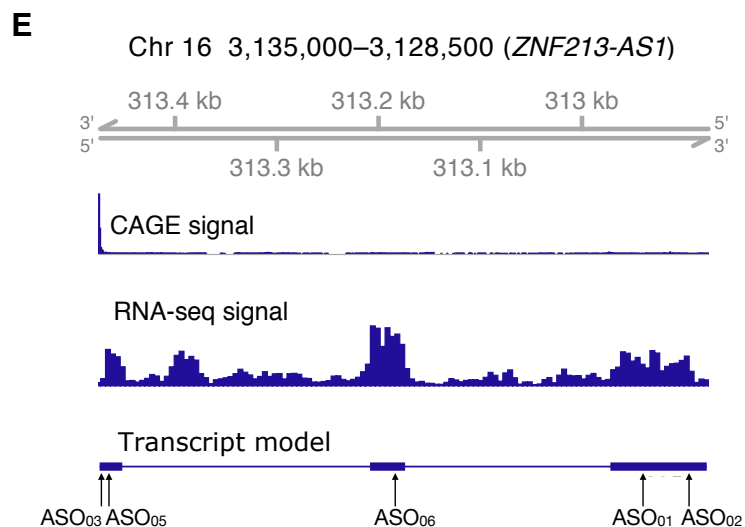
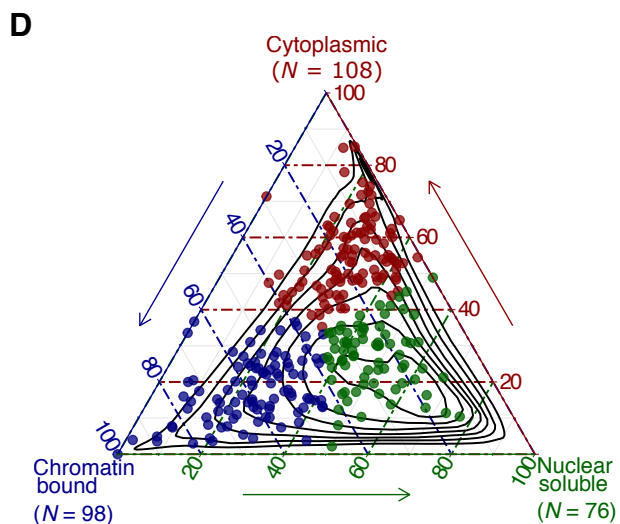
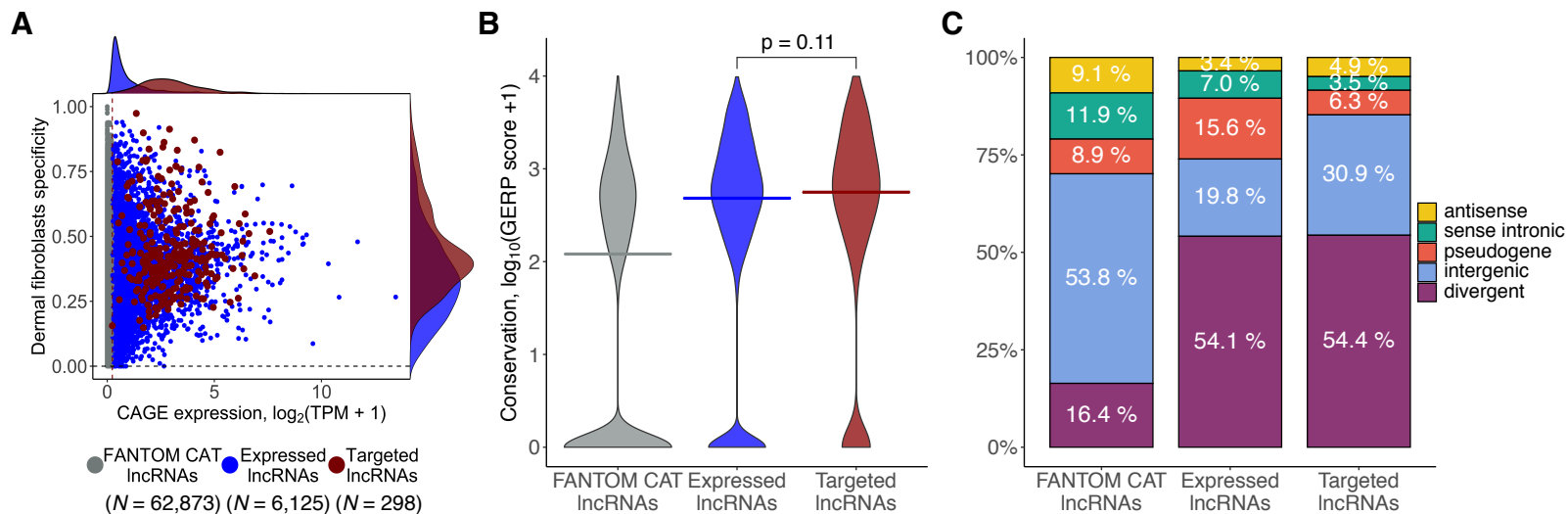
673 Response Activity Analysis (MARA) across 340 ASOs. Scale indicates Z-score of the relative
674 motif activity (the range was set to $\text{abs}(Z\text{-score}) \leq 5$ for visualization purposes). (D) Correlation
675 between normalized growth rate and motif activities across 340 ASOs targeting lncRNAs with
676 highlighted examples. Motifs sizes shown are scaled based on the HDF expression of their
677 associated TFs (range 1 to ~600 TPM). (E) Enriched biological pathways across 340 ASOs.
678 Scale indicates GSEA enrichment value calculated as $-\log_{10}(p) \times \text{sign}(\text{NES})$. (F) same as in D,
679 but for selected GSEA pathways. Pathways sizes are scaled based on the number of associated
680 genes.

681 **Figure 4.** *ZNF213-AS1* regulates cell growth, migration and proliferation. (A) Normalized
682 growth rate across four distinct ASOs (in duplicates) targeting *ZNF213-AS1* as compared to six
683 negative control samples (shown in grey). (B) Enrichment of biological pathways associated with
684 growth, proliferation, wound healing, migration and adhesion for ASO_02 and ASO_05. (C)
685 Most consistently down- and upregulated transcription factor binding motifs including those for
686 transcription factors known to modulate growth, migration and proliferation such as for example
687 EGR family, EP300, GTF2I. (D) Transfected, re-plated and mitomycin-C (5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$)-treated
688 HDF cells were scratched and monitored in the IncuCyte® imaging system. Relative wound
689 closure rate calculated during the 24 hours post-scratching shows 40-45% reduction for the two
690 targeting ASOs (ASO_02 ($N = 10$) and ASO_05 ($N = 13$)) as compared to NC_A transfection
691 controls ($N = 33$, shown in grey) and the representative images of wound closure assay 16 hours
692 post-scratching. (E) Knockdown efficiency measured by RT-qPCR after wound closure assay
693 (72 hours post-transfection) showing sustained suppression (65-90%) of *ZNF213-AS1*.

694 **Figure 5.** *RP11-398K22.12* down-regulates *KCNQ5* and *CATG00000088862.1* in cis. (A)
695 Changes in expression levels of detectable genes in the same topologically associated domain
696 (TAD) as *RP11-398K22.12* based on Hi-C analysis. Both *KCNQ5* and *CATG00000088862.1* are
697 down-regulated ($p < 0.05$) upon the knockdown of *RP11-398K22.12* by two independent ASOs
698 in CAGE analysis (left) as further confirmed with RT-qPCR (right). (B) (top) Representation of
699 the chromatin conformation in the 4Mb region proximal to the TAD containing *RP11-*
700 *398K22.12*, followed by the locus gene annotation, CAGE, RNA-seq and ATAC-seq data for
701 native HDFs. (bottom) Schematic diagram showing Hi-C predicted contacts of *RP11-398K22.12*
702 (blue) and *KCNQ5* (grey) (25Kb resolution, frequency ≥ 5) in HDF cells. Red line indicates
703 *RP11-398K22.12* and *KCNQ5* contact. (C) FISH image for *RP11-398K22.12* suggesting

704 proximal regulation. *TUG1* FISH image (suggesting trans regulation) is included as a
705 comparison; (bar = 10 μ m). (D) GTEx atlas across 54 tissues ($N = 9,662$ samples) shows
706 relatively high expression levels of *RP11-398K22.12* in 13 distinct brain regions samples
707 (highlighted). (E) Expression correlation for *RP11-398K22.12* and *KCNQ5* in 8 out of 13 distinct
708 brain regions, as highlighted in D. (F) Expression correlation for *RP11-398K22.12* and
709 *CATG00000088862.1* in 8 out of 13 distinct brain regions, as highlighted in D.

FIGURE 1



F

	All Targets	All ASOs	CAGE Targets	CAGE ASOs
Targeted lncRNAs	285	2,055	154	340
Positive Controls	18	97	13	28
Negative Controls	2	2	2	2
* <i>MALAT1</i>	1	1	1	1
*Experimental Control				

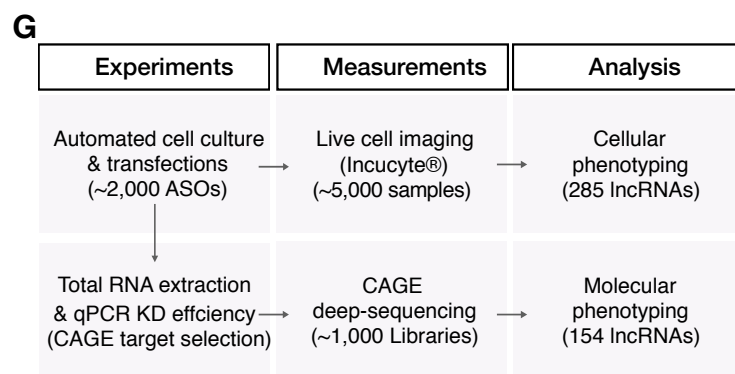


FIGURE 2

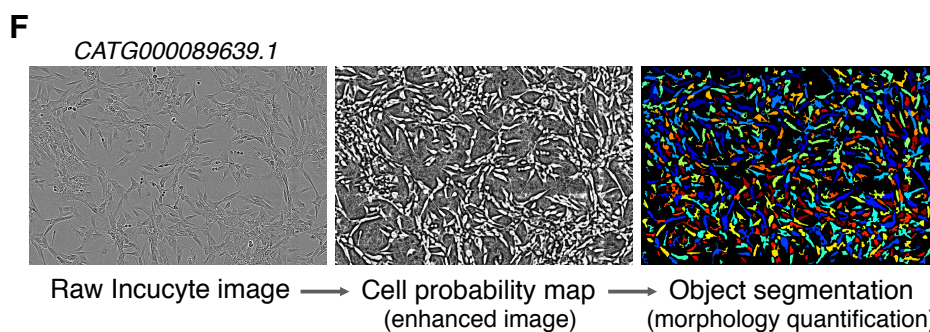
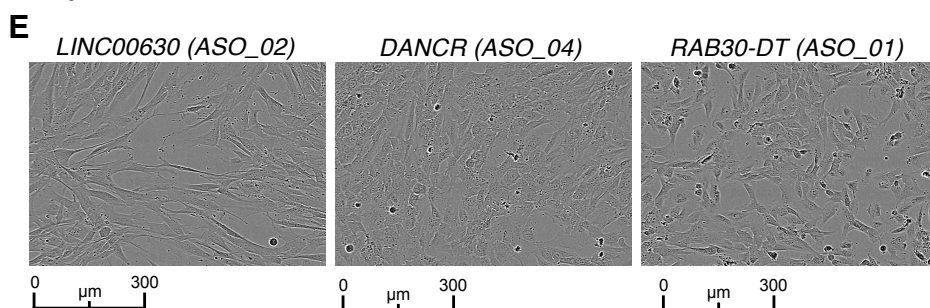
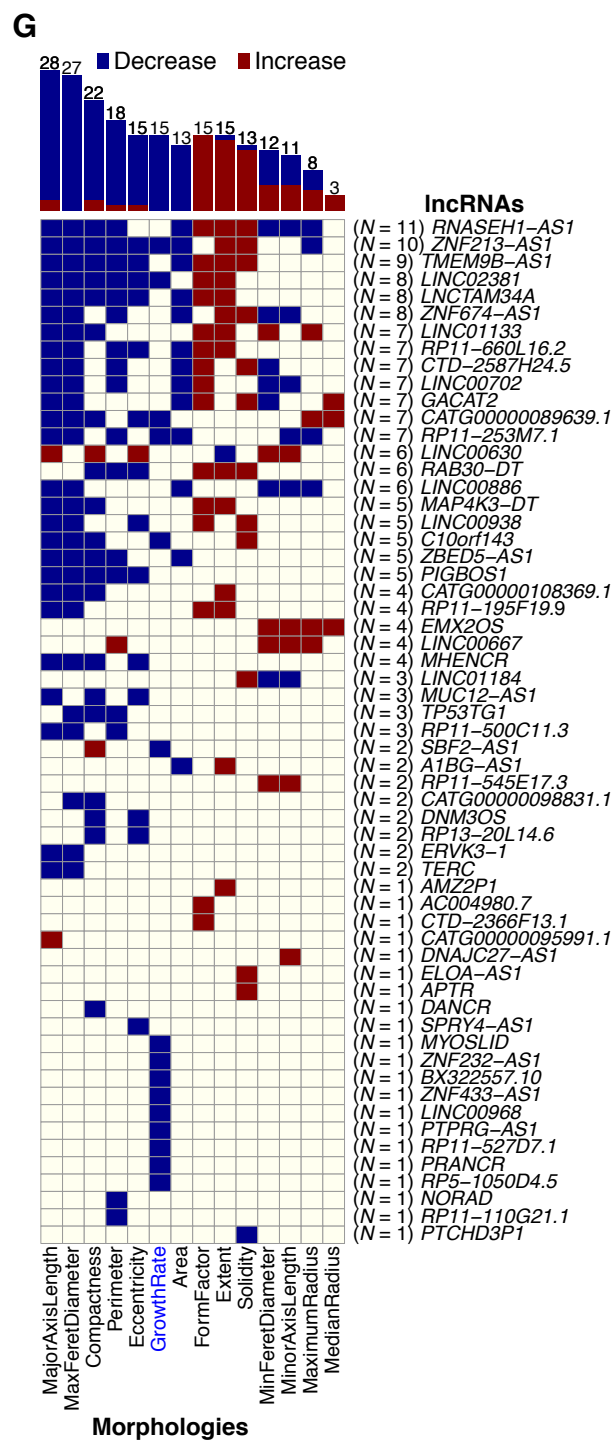
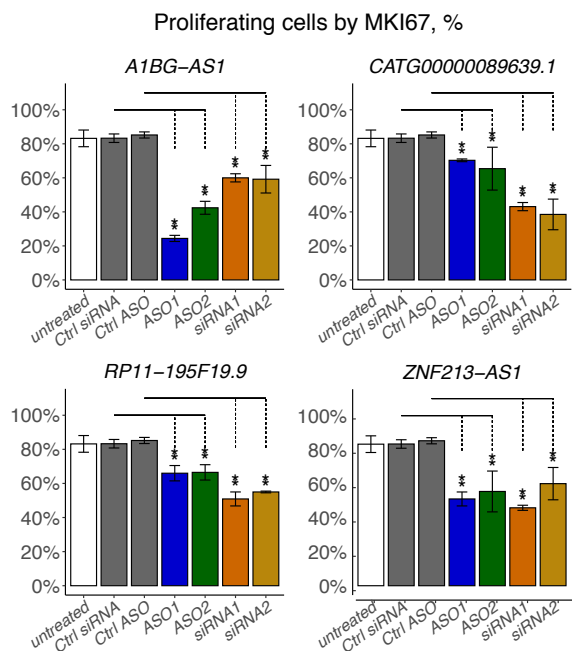
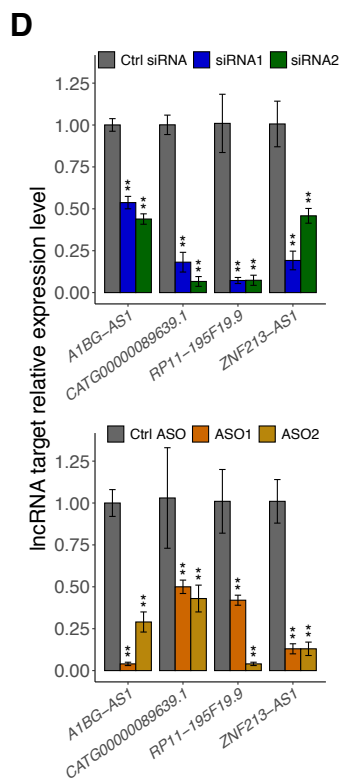
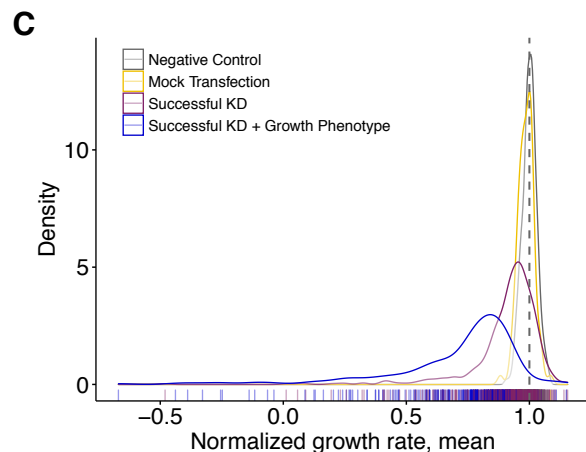
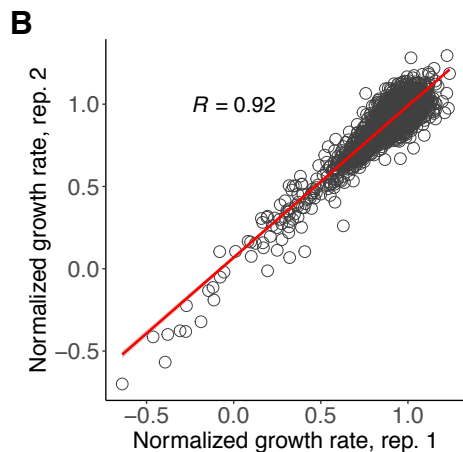
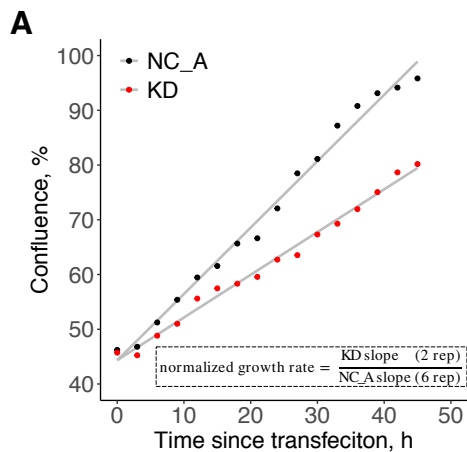


FIGURE 3

certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

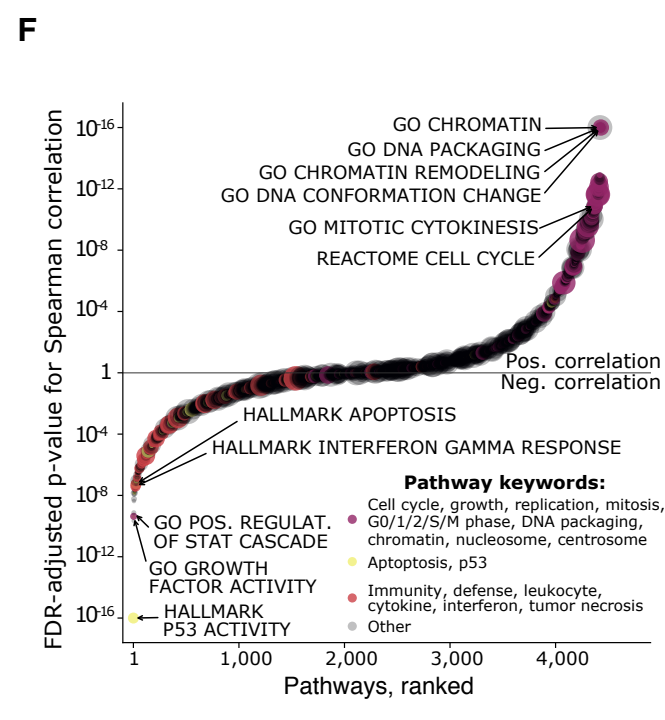
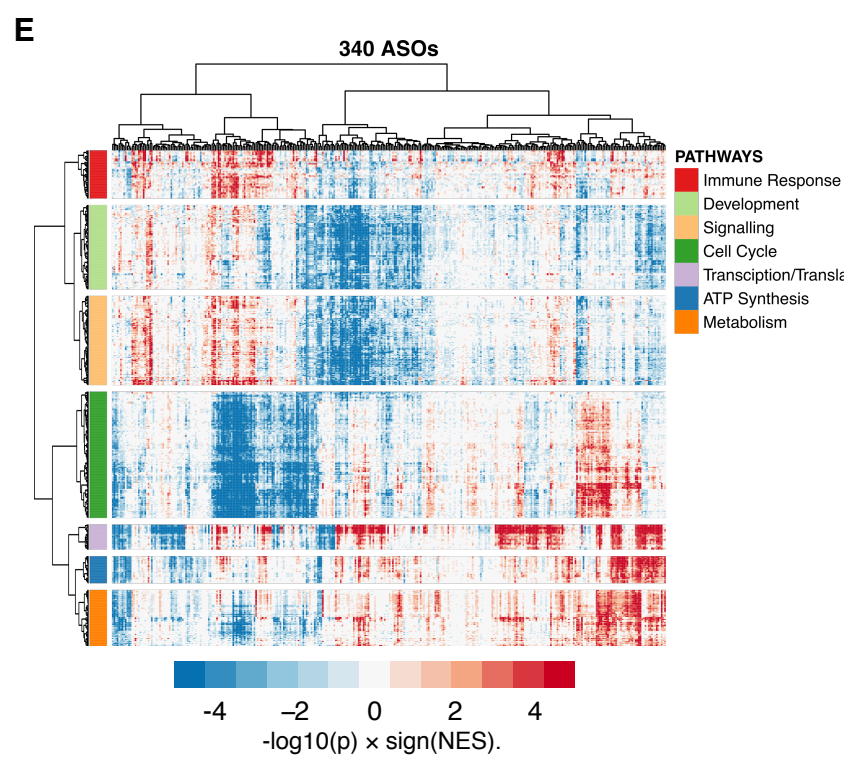
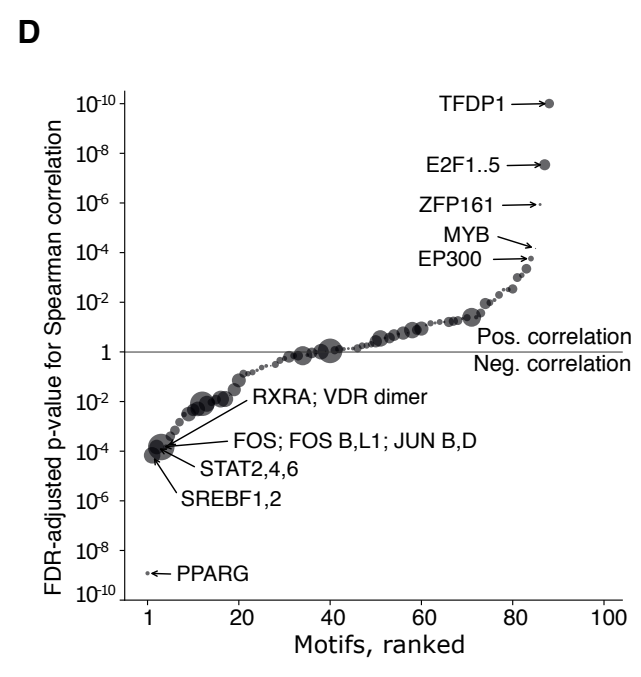
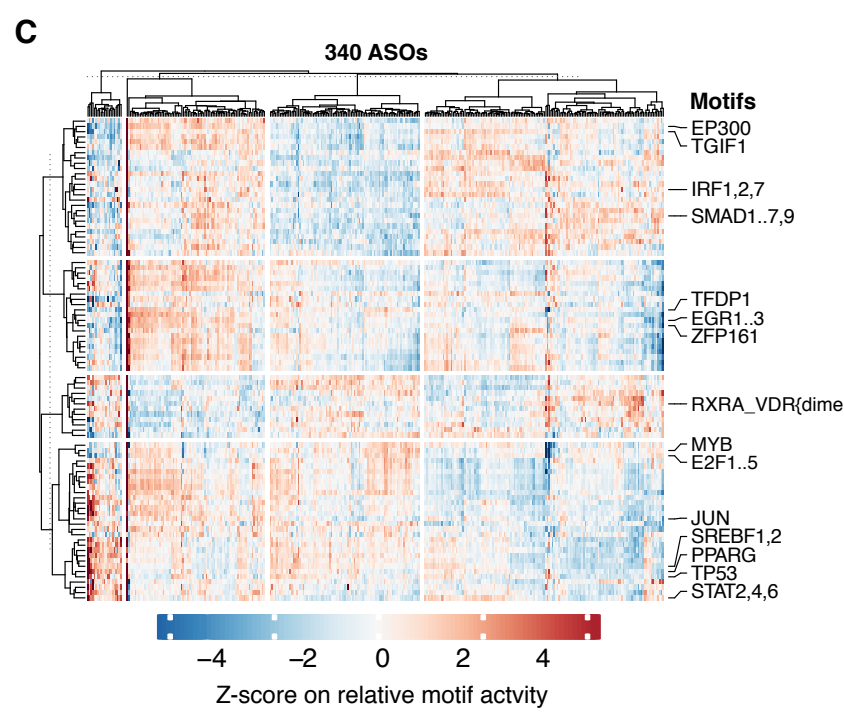
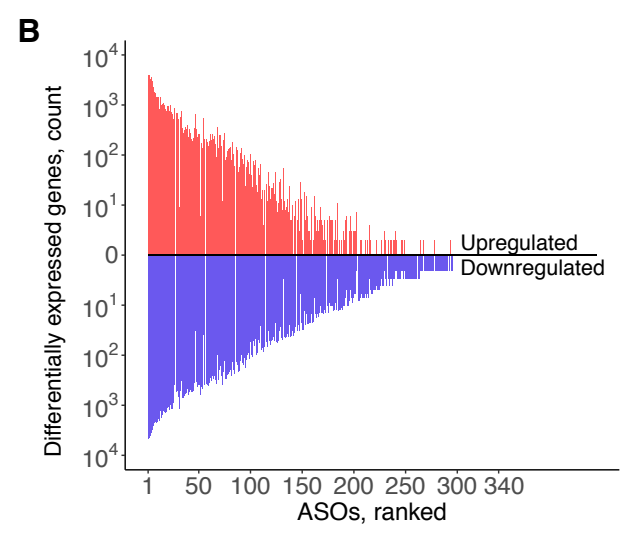
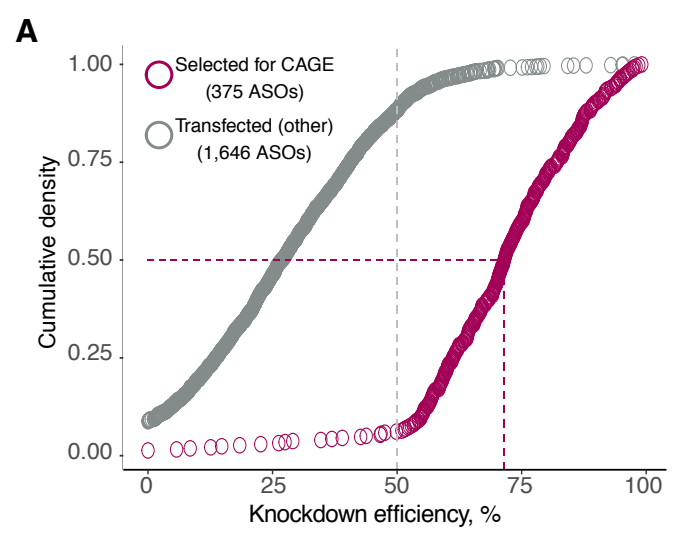


FIGURE 4

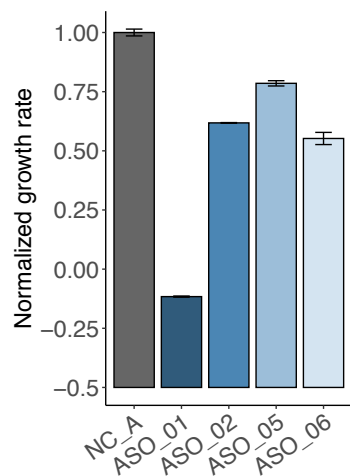
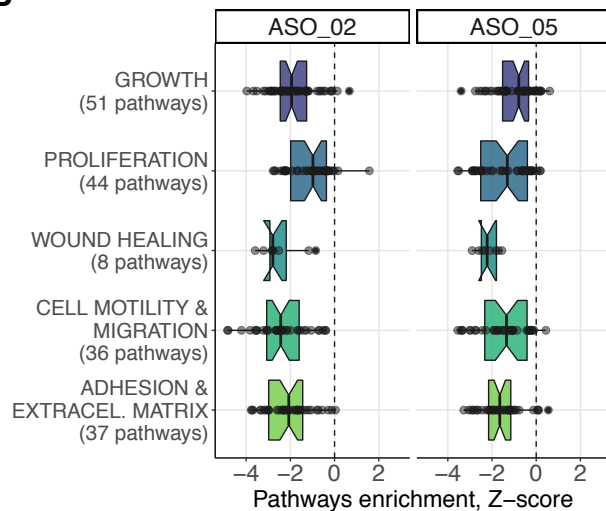
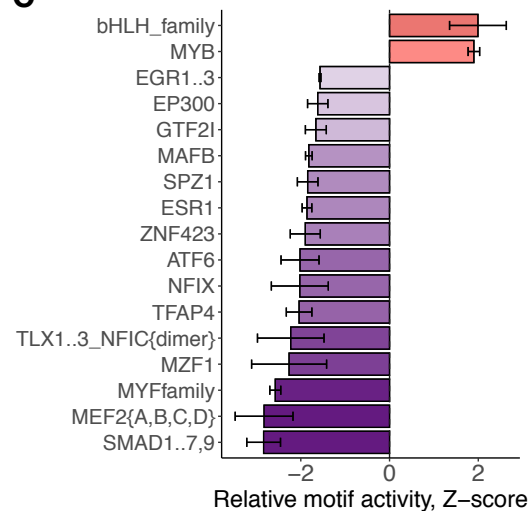
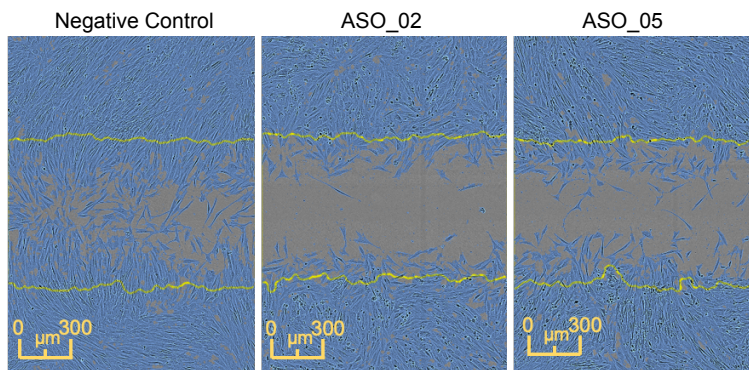
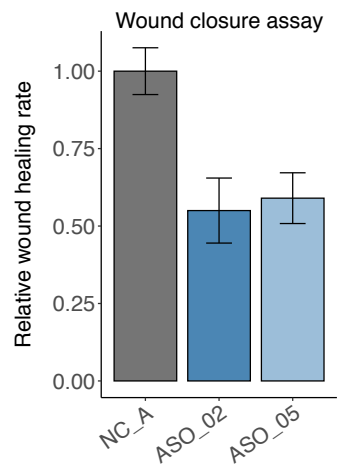
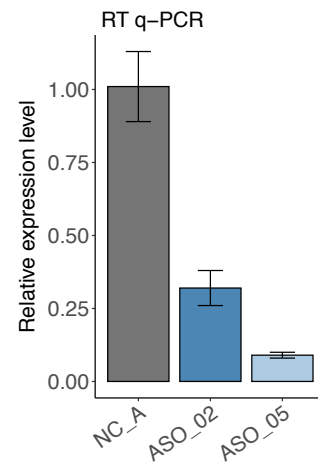
A**B****C****D****E**

FIGURE 5

