m^{6}A-dependent microRNA binding to chromatin-associated RNA for transcriptional activation

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Abstract

For decades, microRNAs (miRNAs) have been canonically viewed as post-transcriptional repressors. We discovered extensive binding of microRNAs to chromatin-associated RNAs (caRNAs) and uncovered an N^6-methyladenosine (m^6A)–dependent transcriptional activation mechanism of microRNAs. We show that m^6A-binding proteins FXR1/2 anchor AGO1/2 at m^6A-marked caRNAs, where AAGUGC-seed microRNAs function as guide RNAs to direct AGO positioning. This dual anchoring stabilizes the AGO-microRNA/FXR-m^6A complex at specific loci, which in turn recruits the ATP-dependent chromatin remodeler SMARCA4 (BRG1) to promote local chromatin opening and TET1 for DNA demethylation, respectively. Together, these coordinated activities establish a transcriptionally permissive chromatin environment, enhancing accessibility and transcription across hundreds of genes in diverse cell types. Beyond the AAGUGC-seed family, additional microRNAs and siRNAs also enhance transcription, suggesting that caRNA binding and transcriptional activation may represent a broader property of small RNAs.

Introduction

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are endogenous ~22-nucleotide RNAs, initially discovered in C. elegans that associate with Argonaute (AGO) proteins to repress gene expression post-transcriptionally through mRNA degradation or translational repression (D. P. Bartel, 2004; W. Filipowicz, S. N. Bhattacharyya, N. Sonenberg, 2008; D. P. Bartel, 2009; R. C. Lee, R. L. Feinbaum, V. Ambros, 1993; B. J. Reinhart et al., 2000; J. Liu et al., 2004; F. V. Rivas et al., 2005; L. P. Lim et al., 2005; D. Baek et al., 2008; M. Selbach et al., 2008; H. Guo, N. T. Ingolia, J. S. Weissman, D. P. Bartel, 2010). This canonical, repressive framework places microRNAs almost exclusively in the cytoplasm. However, microRNAs biogenesis begins in the nucleus (Y. Lee, K. Jeon, J. T. Lee, S. Kim, V. N. Kim, 2002; G. Hutvagner et al., 2001; Y. Lee et al., 2003; R. Yi, Y. Qin, I. G. Macara, B. R. Cullen, 2003; R. I. Gregory et al., 2004; A. M. Denli, B. B. Tops, R. H. Plasterk, R. F. Ketting, G. J. Hannon, 2004; E. Lund, S. Guttinger, A. Calado, J. E. Dahlberg, U. Kutay, 2004; J. Han et al., 2004; J.-E. Park *et al.*, 2011), and AGO proteins are also found in the nucleus, predominantly or even exclusively in some cell types (K. C. Johnson et al., 2024; F. M. Cernilogar et al., 2011; M. Ameyar-Zazoua et al., 2012; L. Sala et al., 2023). These observations suggest that microRNAs and AGO proteins may also possess nuclear functions.

Indeed, nuclear small RNAs, including microRNAs, are recognized to contribute to transcriptional repression (F. M. Cernilogar et al., 2011; M. Ameyar-Zazoua et al., 2012; L. Sala et al., 2023; K. V. Morris, S. W.-L. Chan, S. E. Jacobsen, D. J. Looney, 2004; B. A. Janowski et al., 2006; D. H. Kim, L. M. Villeneuve, K. V. Morris, J. J. Rossi, 2006; A. A. Aravin et al., 2007; J. Han, D. Kim, K. V. Morris, 2007; D. H. Kim, P. Sætrom, O. Snøve Jr., J. J. Rossi, 2008; S. T. Younger, D. R. Corey, 2011; K. Skourti-Stathaki, K. Kamieniarz-Gdula, N. J. Proudfoot, 2014; A. A. Sarshad et al., 2018). Yet multiple studies have described RNA-induced gene activation (RNAa), in which synthetically engineered small duplex RNAs base-pair directly with promoter DNA to stimulate transcription (L.-C. Li et al., 2006; B. A. Janowski et al., 2007; R. F. Place, L.-C. Li, D. Pookot, E. J. Noonan, R. Dahiya, 200 8; M. Alló et al., 2014; V. Portnoy et al., 2016; M.

Shuaib et al., 2019; J. Cordero et al., 2024). These observations established that promoter-

proximal targeting by small dsRNAs can, under certain conditions, activate transcription.

Beyond RNAa, endogenous microRNA may also promote transcription through RNA-targeting

mechanisms(Matsui, M. et al. 2013, Shuaib, M. et al. 2019). In one study, a microRNA was

reported to activate gene expression by engaging promoter-associated RNAs and recruiting the

MLL histone methyltransferase complex to target loci (Matsui, M. et al. 2013). However, the

rules governing microRNA targeting on chromatin, the underlying molecular pathways, and the

overall prevalence of such activating events remain poorly defined, largely because the

chromatin-associated binding sites of endogenous microRNAs have not been systematically

mapped. Thus, although microRNAs are predominantly characterized as repressors of gene

expression, the mechanisms and conditions under which endogenous nuclear microRNAs may

activate rather than repress gene expression remain comparatively underexplored.

Understanding different regulatory roles of microRNAs requires clarifying where and how

they bind. It is therefore critical to map confident binding sites of individual microRNAs on

chromatin. Notably, such information cannot be accurately inferred from sequence-based

prediction alone, as additional regulatory layers beyond seed sequence complementarity are

likely to contribute to targeting specificity. One such layer may involve protein–protein

interactions, in which RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) may help recruit AGO proteins to particular

sites(S. Kim et al., 2021). Similarly, RNA modifications, such as N^6-methyladenosine (m^{6}A), may

act as a recruitment platform for regulatory machinery through m^{6}A-binding proteins.

m^{6}A, the most abundant internal RNA modification on messenger RNA (mRNA) in

mammals and plants, is installed by the METTL3–METTL14 writer complex (J. A. Bokar et al.,

1997; J. Liu et al., 2014; X.-L. Ping et al., 2014; X. Wang et al., 2016; Y. Yue et al., 2018; J.

Wen et al., 2018) and can be reversed by demethylases such as FTO (G. Jia et al., 2011) and

ALKBH5 (G. Zheng et al., 2013). Its regulatory functions are mediated by diverse m^{6}A-binding

proteins (readers) that direct RNA fate by recruiting downstream effectors (X. Wang et al., 2015;

X. Wang et al., 2014; H. Shi et al., 2017). Beyond these post-transcriptional roles, RNA

modifications such as m^6A and 5-methylcytosine (m^5C) on chromatin-associated RNAs

(caRNAs) have been implicated in modulating chromatin state and transcriptional activity (J. Liu

et al., 2020; J.-H. Lee et al., 2021; F. Xiong et al., 2021; J. Wei et al., 2022; W. Xu et al., 2022;

S. Deng et al., 2022; R. Li et al., 2023; T. Sun et al., 2023; Z. Zou et al., 2024; X. Dou et al.,

2023). In our previous work, we identified AGO1 and AGO2 as top-ranked m^6A-associated

proteins on chromatin (X. Dou et al., 2023), raising the possibility that m^6A may recruit

microRNA–AGO complexes to specific genomic loci to modulate transcription.

Here, we report extensive binding of chromatin-associated RNAs (caRNAs) by the

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs on caRNAs. We show that caRNA binding by these microRNAs

activates transcription through an m^6A-dependent pathway. We found that m^6A-binding proteins

FXR1/2 recognize m^6A-marked caRNAs and recruit AGO1/2 to these regions through direct

protein–protein interactions. AAGUGC-seed microRNAs then guide AGO1/2 to specific caRNA

sequences within this local environment. FXR1/2 recruit TET1 for DNA demethylation, while

AGO1/2 engage SMARCA4 (BRG1) to promote chromatin opening. This coordinated

epigenetic–epitranscriptomic crosstalk collectively drives chromatin opening and robust

transcriptional activation across hundreds of genes in diverse cell types. Our findings, therefore,

reveal an m^6A-dependent regulatory logic that may be harnessed for future transcriptional

upregulation using designed small RNAs.

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Result

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs activate *YTHDF2* transcription

The m^6A-binding YTHDF2 protein mediates the degradation of hundreds to thousands of

methylated mRNAs in an m^6A-dependent manner. It plays a critical role in acute myeloid

leukemia (AML) by regulating the degradation of *TNFRSF2* and other transcripts involved in

human leukemogenesis(J. Paris et al., 2019). To explore potential interplays between YTHDF2

and other noncoding factors in leukemia, we curated public CRISPR screening data in the AML

cell line K562(W.-W. Liang et al., 2024*)* and examined expression correlations with *YTHDF2*.

Among the top five essential noncoding elements identified, the host gene of the miR-17-92

cluster, *MIR17HG*, showed a strong positive correlation with *YTHDF2* expression (Extended

Data Fig. 1a,b). This cluster includes miR-17, a representative member of the AAGUGC-seed

(miR-17) family, previously implicated in global gene upregulation (K. Sun et al., 2023). Because

the miR-17 family is composed of six canonical AAGUGC-seed microRNAs encoded across

three paralogous clusters, miR-17/20a (*MIR17HG*), miR-93/106b (*MCM7*), and miR-106a/20b

(MIR106a–363 cluster), we extended our analyses to the entire AAGUGC-seed family(V. Olive, I.

Jiang, L. He, 2010). Consistently, *MCM7* also displayed significant positive correlation with

YTHDF2 across AML datasets, and expression of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs closely tracked

with *YTHDF2* levels (Extended Data Fig. 1b). Further analysis of patient samples revealed that

YTHDF2, *MIR17HG*, *MCM7*, and the corresponding AAGUGC-seed microRNAs are all

expressed at higher levels in AML relapse compared to primary disease (Extended Data Fig.

1c-f). These coordinated increases underscore their potential contribution to disease recurrence

and suggest a functional axis of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs and YTHDF2 in AML progression.

We were intrigued by this connection and proceeded to overexpress or knock down the

individual members of these microRNAs in K562 cells. Surprisingly, when we overexpressed

miR-17, miR-20a, miR20b, miR93, miR106a, or miR-106b, we observed an increase in *YTHDF2*

transcript level, respectively, while knockdown of each microRNA reduced the level of *YTHDF2*,

without affecting other *YTHDF* homologues (Fig. 1a and Extended Data Fig. 1g,h). RNA decay

assays using actinomycin D revealed minimal changes in *YTHDF2* mRNA stability, suggesting

these microRNAs do not regulate *YTHDF2* via the canonical post-transcriptional decay pathway

(Fig. 1b).

We next examined the subcellular localization of these microRNAs and found them also

located in the nucleus by microRNA fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) (Fig. 1c).

Chromatin RIP-qPCR targeting histone H3 further demonstrated their association with

chromatin (Fig. 1d). This nuclear and chromatin localization prompted us to investigate their

potential role in transcriptional regulation. Indeed, nascent RNA synthesis assays revealed

significantly elevated *YTHDF2* transcription upon miR17, miR20a, miR20b, miR93, miR106a, or

miR106b overexpression (Fig. 1e), whereas microRNAs knockdown reduced *YTHDF2*

transcription (Fig. 1f). A low-throughput kethoxal-assisted single-stranded DNA capture-qPCR

assay further showed increased single-stranded DNA at the *YTHDF2* promoter (Fig. 1g),

indicating enhanced promoter accessibility. Finally, chromatin RIP-qPCR using biotin-labeled

miR17, miR20a, miR20b, miR93, miR106a, and miR106b detected direct binding to *YTHDF2*

transcripts in the chromatin fraction (Fig. 1h). Together, these results revealed that these

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs may directly regulate *YTHDF2* expression at the transcriptional

level (Fig. 1i).

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote widespread transcriptional activation

To determine whether these AAGUGC-seed microRNAs broadly affect chromatin state and

transcription, we measured chromatin accessibility by DNase I–TUNEL (Fig. 2a,c and Extended

Data Fig. 2a,b) and nascent transcription by quantifying 5-ethynyl uridine (5-EU) nascent RNA

imaging (Fig. 2b,d and Extended Data Fig. 2c,d) and 4-thiouridine (4sU) incorporation with LC–

MS/MS (Fig. 2e). We observed increased chromatin accessibility and elevated nascent RNA

synthesis. We next performed the spike-in-calibrated assay for transposase-accessible

chromatin sequencing (ATAC-seq) and consistently observed global increases in chromatin

accessibility across K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (Fig. 2f).

Such an increase in chromatin accessibility was accompanied by elevated nascent transcription

of protein-coding genes (Fig. 2g). In contrast, knockdown of all AAGUGC-seed microRNAs

resulted in the opposite effect, with a global decrease in nascent RNA synthesis (Fig. 2h).

We also observed a widespread increase in the levels of these chromatin-associated

RNAs (caRNAs) in microRNA-overexpressing cells (Fig. 2i). Consistently, chromatin RIP-qPCR

targeting different histone modifications revealed significantly stronger enrichment of these

microRNAs by active histone modifications such as H3K4me3 but not repressive histone

modifications such as H3K9me3 and H3K27me3 (Extended Data Fig. 2e). These changes were

further validated by the cleavage under targets and tagmentation (CUT&Tag), which showed

globally elevated H3K4me3 and H3K27ac signals in miR17, miR20a, miR20b, miR93, miR106a,

or miR106b overexpressing cells, respectively (Fig. 2j,k). Together, these data indicate an

microRNA-mediated gene activation process. To understand the underlying pathways and

mechanisms, we, proceeded to identify RNA-binding proteins involved in this regulation.

AGO1/2 promotes transcription and chromatin accessibility facilitated by caRNA m^{6}A

The Argonaute protein family is known as the main microRNA-binding proteins that mediate

transcript silencing in the cytoplasm (J. Liu et al., 2004; Rivas, F. V. et al. 2005). Because

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote transcription and chromatin accessibility, we asked

whether AGO1/2 also interacts with these microRNAs and the *YTHDF2* transcript in the

nucleus. Chromatin AGO1/2 RIP-qPCR confirmed that AAGUGC-seed microRNAs and

YTHDF2 transcript are enriched in AGO1/2–bound chromatin fractions (Extended Data Fig.

3a,b). Additionally, transcript levels of *AGO1* and *AGO2* display positive correlation with that of

YTHDF2 across AML datasets (Extended Data Fig. 3c). Together, these observations indicate

that AGO1/2 and AAGUGC-seed microRNAs physically associate on chromatin, suggesting a

nuclear role for AGO1/2.

We further examined whether AGO1 and AGO2 depletion may affect chromatin state

and transcription at their binding sites. Using low-throughput assays, we first measured nascent

transcription by quantifying 4sU incorporation using LC–MS/MS. *AGO1/2* knockdown decreased

4sU incorporation into nascent RNA, indicating slower transcription (Extended Data Fig. 3d).

These findings were corroborated by high-throughput sequencing, which revealed a reduction in

chromatin-associated RNA expression and nascent RNA synthesis in AGO1/2-depleted cells

(Fig. 3a,b).

Computational analysis further revealed that AGO1/2 binding sites overlap extensively

with active histone modifications, including H3K4me3 and H3K27ac (Fig. 3c). Consistently,

Cut&Tag profiling in AGO1/2-depleted cells further confirmed decreased H3K4me3 and

H3K27ac occupancy (Fig. 3d). Together, these findings indicate that AGO1/2 regulate

chromatin state and activate transcription.

RNA modifications such as m^6A and m^5C are known to globally influence chromatin

organization and transcription (J. Liu et al., 2020; J.-H. Lee et al., 2021; F. Xiong et al., 2021; J.

Wei et al., 2022; W. Xu et al., 2022; S. Deng et al., 2022; R. Li et al., 2023; T. Sun et al., 2023;

Z. Zou et al., 2024; X. Dou et al., 2023). From our previous integrative analysis, AGO1 and

AGO2 emerged among the top m^6A-associated proteins on chromatin (X. Dou et al., 2023),

raising the possibility that they regulate transcription in an m^6A-dependent manner by

cooperating with m^6A and m^6A-binding proteins. To test this, we first confirmed that m^6A-

modified RNAs were significantly enriched in AGO-bound RNA pools (Fig. 3e). Consistently,

AGO-bound regions showed extensive overlap with m^6A-modified sites (Extended Data Fig. 3e).

Notably, AGO1/2 exhibited stronger binding intensity at genomic loci marked by m^6A (Fig. 3f

and Extended Data Fig. 3f).

We next analyzed AGO1/2-binding sites in microRNA-overexpressing K562 cells and

found that sites proximal to m^{6}A modifications exhibit increased chromatin accessibility

(Extended Data Fig. 3g), enhanced nascent RNA synthesis (Extended Data Fig. 3h).These

results all support caRNA binding by AGO1 and AGO2, likely guided by AAGUGC-seed

microRNAs, which facilitates transcription in an m^{6}A-dependent manner.

AGO1/2-microRNA binds hundreds of caRNA sites

Although AGO1- and AGO2-binding sites exhibited increased chromatin accessibility in cells

overexpressing microRNAs, it remains unclear whether microRNAs themselves are directly

involved in promoting local chromatin accessibility and gene transcription. Because Argonaute

proteins associate with many different microRNAs, AGO binding profiles represent the

combined activity of all bound microRNAs and do not distinguish the contribution of any single

microRNA. Mechanistically, how small RNAs induce gene activation has been a long-standing

puzzle, in large part due to the lack of their nucleic acid binding site information. It is therefore

critical to map the highly confident binding sites of these individual microRNAs on chromatin.

Conventional approaches to map microRNA binding sites like CLASH (Cross-linking,

Ligation, and Sequencing of Hybrids) rely on immunoprecipitation of AGO proteins followed by

proximal ligation, which can be limited by low ligation efficiency due to poor accessibility of the

microRNA 3′ end (S. W. Chi, J. B. Zang, A. Mele, R. B. Darnell, 2009; M. Hafner et al., 2010; S.

Grosswendt et al., 2014; M. J. Moore et al., 2015). A recently optimized ligation-based method,

chimeric enhanced CrossLinking and ImmunoPrecipitation (chimeric eCLIP), combines AGO2

immunoprecipitation with simple enrichment strategies, such as PCR or biotinylated antisense

oligonucleotides (ASOs) capture, that can selectively enrich for chimeric reads corresponding to

specific microRNAs in the cytoplasm (S. A. Manakov et al., 2022). The low ligation and poor

immunoprecipitation efficiencies, however, are still challenges when dealing with the low

abundant chromatin fraction.

We comprehensively mapped the chromatin-associated RNA binding sites of AAGUGC-

seed microRNAs in K562 cells using a customized method. We observed that these AAGUGC-

seed microRNA-binding sites with nearby m^{6}A exhibit accelerated transcription (Fig. 4a and

Extended Data Fig. 4a), enhanced caRNA expression (Fig. 4b), and increased H3K4Me3

signals (Fig. 4c), upon microRNA overexpression compared with controls. These results support

the direct involvement of m^{6}A in this chromatin and transcription regulation pathway through

these microRNAs.

AGO1/2 recruit SMARCA4 (BRG1) to promote transcription

To investigate the underlying mechanism, we studied interacting proteins of AGO1 and AGO2

and identified SMARCA4 (BRG1), the ATPase of the SWI/SNF nucleosome-remodeling

complex known to promote chromatin opening and facilitate transcriptional activation. We also

identified SMARCA4 (BRG1) binding as one of the top-enriched genomic features (Fig. 5a,b).

Functionally, *SMARCA4* (*BRG1*) knockdown not only reduced nascent RNA synthesis

but also reversed the transcriptional activation induced by the AAGUGC-seed microRNAs

(Extended Data Fig. 5a). *AGO1&2* double knockdown diminished SMARCA4 (BRG1)

recruitment, supporting that AAGUGC-seed microRNAs act via AGO proteins to engage

SMARCA4 (BRG1) (Fig. 5c).

Consistent with this model, overexpression of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs enhanced

SMARCA4 (BRG1) recruitment to chromatin (Fig. 5d and Extended Data Fig. 5b). Accordingly,

AAGUGC-seed microRNA-binding sites and AGO1/2-binding sites proximal to m^{6}A displayed

stronger SMARCA4 (BRG1) occupancy in microRNA-overexpressing K562 cells (Fig. 5e,f and

Extended Data Fig. 5c,d).

The m^{6}A-binding proteins FXR1/2 interact with AGO1/2 and recruit TET1

We also identified m^{6}A-binding proteins such as FXR1 and FXR2. These findings support the

involvement of m^{6}A methylation and indicate that m^{6}A-binding proteins may cooperate with the

AGO–microRNA complex in this newly discovered regulation. Knockdown of either *FXR1* or

FXR2 reduced AGO1/2 RNA binding (Extended Data Fig. 6a), suggesting cooperative roles of

FXR1/2 with AGO1/2. Consistently, across AML patient datasets, the expressions of *FXR1/2,*

METTL3, METTL14, DROSHA, and *AGO1/2* positively correlated with *YTHDF2* (Extended Data

Fig. 6g), supporting the functional relevance of this axis in YTHDF2 regulation.

Genome-wide mapping revealed that FXR1- and FXR2-binding sites display substantial

overlaps with those of AGO1/2 (Fig. 6a). Functionally, FXR1 or FXR2 depletion impaired

nascent RNA synthesis (Fig. 6b and Extended Data Fig. 6b). Additionally, FXR1 or FXR2

depletion also reduced transcriptional activation by AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (Fig. 6b and

Extended Data Fig. 6b). Therefore, these results indicate that FXR1/2 can be recruited by m^{6}A

and AGO1/2 to these loci for transcriptional activation.

Mechanistically, FXR1 is known to mediate crosstalk between RNA m^{6}A and DNA

modification (5mC) by recruiting the DNA demethylase TET1 (S. Deng et al., 2022), thereby

promoting DNA demethylation and chromatin accessibility. Consistently, we observed a high

degree of overlap between FXR1/2, AGO1&2, SMARCA4 (BRG1), and TET1 binding sites,

indicating frequent co-occupancy of the same genomic regions (Extended Data Fig. 6c).

Moreover, overexpression of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs enhanced TET1 recruitment to

chromatin (Fig. 6c and Extended Data Fig. 6d). Genome-wide distance analyses revealed that

TET1 genomic binding sites displayed stronger signals at binding sites of AAGUGC-seed

microRNAs and AGO1/2-binding sites proximal to m^{6}A (Fig. 6d,e and Extended Data Fig. 6d,e).

FXR1/2 depletion not only reduced TET1 occupancy but also markedly decreased

SMARCA4 (BRG1) recruitment to chromatin (Fig. 6f). Furthermore, the increased SMARCA4

(BRG1) occupancy induced by miR-93 or miR-106a expression was reversed upon *FXR1/2*

knockdown (Fig. 6g). These findings are consistent with a model in which both FXR1/2 and

AGO1/2 are required to stabilize this AGO1/2–microRNA/FXR1/2–m^6A complex at the m^6A-

marked, microRNA-binding caRNA loci. This complex engages SMARCA4 (BRG1) through

AGO1/2. SMARCA4 (BRG1), in turn, promotes deposition of active histone modifications,

including H3K4me3 and H3K27ac, consistent with their globally increased signals observed in

microRNA-expressing cells and decreases in AGO1/2-depleted cells . FXR1/2 recruit TET1 to

promote DNA demethylation, thereby further facilitating chromatin opening and transcriptional

activation. This coordinated action, anchored by two regulatory elements on caRNA, m^6A and

microRNA binding, establishes a robust transcriptionally active chromatin environment with high

specificity and tenability (Fig. 6h).

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs activate transcription in other cell types

To explore whether the transcriptional and chromatin-regulatory functions of AAGUGC-seed

microRNAs extend beyond AML, we also investigated their roles in cancer and early embryonic

systems. These AAGUGC-seed microRNAs tend to be upregulated the most in colon

adenocarcinoma (COAD) compared to other common cancers and are known to drive cancer

metastasis (Extended Data Fig. 7a) (J. Xu et al., 2019; S. P. Pitroda et al., 2018; S. J. Wang et

al., 2017; G.-J. Zhang et al., 2015). Notably, miR-20a-5p, a member of this seed family, is one

of only two microRNAs downregulated in patients with favorable clinical outcomes (Extended

Data Fig. 7b) (A. K. Busch, T. Litman, P. S. Nielsen, 2007). Consistent with our AML findings,

overexpression of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs increased *YTHDF2* expression (Extended Data

Fig. 7c). Additionally, overexpression of these microRNAs enhanced transcription as indicated

by increased 4sU incorporation (Extended Data Fig. 7d) and elevated chromatin-associated

RNA expression transcriptome-wide in HCT116 cells (Extended Data Fig. 7e). Functionally,

overexpression of these microRNAs promoted HCT116 cell proliferation and migration, effects

that could be partially reversed by *YTHDF2* knockdown (Extended Data Fig. 7f,g).

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs are also essential regulators of early embryogenesis in

mice. Among them, the miR-290–295 cluster is particularly dominant, with AAGUGC-seed

microRNAs collectively accounting for more than 70% of the total microRNA population in

mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) (Extended Data Fig. 7h). Overexpression of AAGUGC-

seed microRNAs in mESCs induced transcriptional activation and increased chromatin

accessibility patterns similar to those seen in K562 and HCT116 cells (Extended Data Fig. 7i-k).

Likewise, overexpression of miR-373, another AAGUGC-seed microRNA, also increased

chromatin accessibility (Extended Data Fig. 7j,k). Together, these results indicate that

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote chromatin accessibility and transcription and act as

conserved regulators of chromatin state across diverse cellular contexts.

Transcriptional activation by non-AAGUGC microRNAs

Although our study focused on AAGUGC-seed microRNAs, we asked whether microRNA-

mediated chromatin activation is restricted to this seed family. To address this question, we

examined additional abundant microRNAs with distinct seed sequences. We thus generated

knockout lines for multiple highly abundant microRNAs in colon cancer HCT116 cells. Loss of

multiple microRNAs resulted in reduced chromatin accessibility and diminished nascent RNA

synthesis, as measured by DNase I–TUNEL (Extended Data Fig. 8a,b), 4sU incorporation

(Extended Data Fig. 8c), and global nascent RNA-sequencing (Extended Data Fig. 8d),

suggesting that transcriptional activation may be a broader property of microRNAs.

This broader view is further supported by prior observations that transfection of diverse

microRNAs and siRNAs frequently resulted in gene upregulation (Extended Data Fig. 8e) (A.

Khan et al. 2029) an effect previously attributed to passive saturation of cytoplasmic AGO–RISC

complexes. Consistent with this, we found that many of these previously reported microRNAs

and siRNAs also increase chromatin accessibility and activate transcription in K562 cells

(Extended Data Fig. 8f-h). Together, these analyses suggest an alternative interpretation of

these earlier findings: that at least part of the reported global upregulation arises from

transcriptional activation at chromatin and provide a potential mechanistic explanation for why

microRNAs and siRNAs can induce gene upregulation across studies.

332 **Discussion**

In this study, we uncover a distinct nuclear regulatory mechanism by which microRNAs directly

regulate transcription in an m^6A-dependent manner. We identify hundreds of endogenous

microRNA-binding sites on chromatin-associated RNAs. These data reveal that a group of

AAGUGC-seed microRNAs, together with Argonaute proteins, act in the nucleus to modulate

chromatin state and transcription.

Our results support a model in which AAGUGC-seed microRNAs function as guide

RNAs for AGO1/2 by base pairing with chromatin-associated RNAs, while m^6A and its binding

proteins FXR1/2 provide an anchoring platform that stabilizes microRNA–AGO complexes

through direct protein–protein interactions. This coupling between sequence-specific RNA

recognition and RNA modification–dependent anchoring enables microRNA–AGO complexes to

engage chromatin-associated regulatory RNAs at defined genomic loci. Transcriptional

activation occurs selectively when both a microRNA-recognition sequence and m^6A methylation

are present on chromatin-associated RNAs, and this can be modulated through perturbation of

either the microRNA or the RNA m^6A pathway components. Together, these findings expand

the roles of caRNA m^{6}A in chromatin and transcription regulation by establishing microRNA–
AGO complexes as key co-regulators.

Although our mechanistic analyses focus on acute myeloid leukemia and AAGUGC-
seed microRNAs, microRNA-mediated chromatin activation is not restricted to a single disease
context or seed family. We observe similar chromatin accessibility and transcriptional activation
in additional biological systems, including colorectal cancer cells and early embryonic settings,
and find that other microRNAs or siRNAs with distinct seed sequences also increase chromatin
accessibility and nascent transcription. These results suggest that transcriptional activation
represents a more general nuclear property of microRNAs rather than a phenomenon unique to
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs or to leukemia.

While microRNAs are well known to inhibit translation and promote mRNA decay,
accumulating evidence indicate that small RNAs can also promote gene expression under
specific contexts, including translational upregulation (Vasudevan, S., Tong, Y. & Steitz, J. A.
2007, Dai, P. et al. 2019) and transcriptional activation (L.-C. Li et al., 2006; B. A. Janowski et al.,
2007; R. F. Place, L.-C. Li, D. Pookot, E. J. Noonan, R. Dahiya, 200 8; M. Alló et al., 2014; V.
Portnoy et al., 2016; M. Shuaib et al., 2019; J. Cordero et al., 2024, Matsui, M. et al. 2013,
Shuaib, M. et al. 2019). At the transcriptional level, small RNAs have been reported to activate
gene expression through promoter-targeting mechanisms, often referred to as RNA-directed
gene activation, although the underlying pathways have remained incompletely understood and,
in some cases, debated. A major limitation of earlier studies has been the lack of experimentally
defined binding sites for these small RNAs, particularly on chromatin-associated RNAs. By
systematically mapping these interactions, our study overcomes this limitation and provides
direct mechanistic insight into how endogenous microRNAs, in corporation with RNA m^{6}A
methylation, engage chromatin to regulate transcription.

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Method

Cell culture

mES cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 15% heat-inactivated stem-cell-
qualified FBS, 1× l-glutamine, NEAA, LIF, 1× β-mercaptoethanol, 3 µM CHIR99021, 1 µM
PD0325901, and penicillin–streptomycin.

K562 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 Medium with HEPES supplemented with 10% FBS,
2 mM l-glutamine, and penicillin–streptomycin.

HCT116 cells were cultured in McCoy's 5A (Modified) Medium with HEPES, supplemented with
10% FBS and penicillin–streptomycin;

Drosophila S2 cells were maintained in Schneider's Drosophila medium supplemented with 10%
heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin–streptomycin at 25 °C under standard
conditions

All mES, K562, and HCT116 cells were maintained at 37 °C with 5% CO_2.

siRNA, microRNAs mimics, microRNAs ASO and plasmid transfection

570 siRNA transfections in K562 cells were performed using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Transfection
571 Reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions. Transfection of microRNA mimics was
572 carried out under the same conditions for K562, HCT116, and mES cells.

573 Plasmid transfections in K562 and HCT116 cells were performed using Lipofectamine 3000
574 Transfection Reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions.

microRNAs fluorescence in situ hybridization

K562 cells were seeded onto 96-well glass-bottom plates, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde at
room temperature, permeabilized with Triton X-100, and washed with DPBS. Hybridization was
performed in RNA FISH Hybridization Buffer containing FAM-labeled microRNAs LNA probes,
with incubation in the dark. After hybridization, cells were washed with hybridization buffer and
nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst 33342. Imaging was performed using a Leica SP8
laser-scanning confocal microscope at the University of Chicago.

Co-immunoprecipitation

K562 cells were pelleted by centrifugation at 500g for 3 min and washed twice with PBS. For
co-immunoprecipitation of AGO1/2 or SMARCA4 (BRG1), The nuclear pellet was incubated in
cold lysis buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP40, 1:100 protease inhibitor
cocktail, and 20 U ml–1 RNase inhibitor) at 4 °C with rotation, followed by centrifugation at
15,000g for 15 min at 4 °C. Fifty microlitres of the supernatant was saved as input, and the
remaining supernatant was incubated with anti-AGO1/2, anti-SMARCA4 antibodies or control
IgG bound to Pierce™ Protein A/G Magnetic Beads 4 °C with rotation. Beads were washed five
times with lysis buffer, and both bead-bound and input samples were mixed with 4× LDS loading
buffer to a final concentration of 1× and heated before analysis by western blot.

Nascent RNA captures and sequencing using 5EU labeling

K562 cells were seeded into 6 cm dishes at equal density in triplicate. Cells were incubated
with 5-ethynyl uridine (5EU), followed by RNA extraction using TRIzol Reagent. The RNA pellet
was resuspended and treated with TURBO DNase™ to remove residual DNA, then purified
using the RNA Clean & Concentrator-25 kit (Zymo Research, R1017).

Drosophila 5EU-labeled spike-in RNA was added to an equal amount of total RNA from each
sample. The mixture was subjected to a click reaction. Biotinylated RNA was repurified with the
RNA Clean & Concentrator-25 kit (Zymo Research, R1017) and enriched using Dynabeads
MyOne Streptavidin C1.

For enrichment, Dynabeads™ MyOne™ Streptavidin C1 were washed three times with 1× C1
B&W buffer (5 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 1 M NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.2% Tween-20), then blocked in
200 µL blocking buffer (10% recombinant albumin, 1 µg/µL yeast tRNA, 1 µg/µL salmon
sperm DNA in 1× C1 B&W buffer). After washing, the blocked beads were incubated with the
purified RNA. The supernatant was removed, and the beads were treated with TURBO
DNase™ to eliminate residual salmon sperm DNA, followed by washing in 1× C1 B&W buffer.

To elute RNA, beads were washed twice with PBS, resuspended in elution buffer (95%
formamide, 10 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 1.5 mM biotin), and incubated at 70 °C for 10 min,
followed by 90 °C for 5 min. The supernatant was collected and diluted into 1 ml TRIzol. RNA
was purified according to the manufacturer's instructions and resuspended in 20 µL nuclease-
free water. During precipitation, 1 µL (20 µg) glycogen was added to the aqueous phase prior
to isopropanol addition.

The final RNA was used for RNA-seq library preparation using the SMARTer Stranded Total
RNA-Seq Kit v2 – Pico Input Mammalian. Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq X
Plus and an Element Biosciences Aviti system (NovaX-10B-300), both generating 150 bp
paired-end reads.

For low-throughput qPCR analysis, six synthetic 5EU-labeled RNA spike-in controls were used
in place of the Drosophila 5EU-labeled spike-in RNA. All other steps remained unchanged.

DNase I–TUNEL assay

K562 cells were resuspended and transferred to a 96-well glass-bottom plate prior to treatment. The DNase I–TUNEL assay was performed using the DeadEnd Fluorometric TUNEL System and Click-iT™ Plus TUNEL Assay Kits for In Situ Apoptosis Detection according to the manufacturer's instructions with an additional DNase I treatment step. Cells were treated with DNase I before rTdT labeling. Cell nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst 33342. More than eight images were acquired per experiment using a Leica SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope at the University of Chicago. Three independent experiments were performed. The fluorescence intensity across different samples was quantified with Fiji (ImageJ) software.

Nascent RNA imaging assay

Nascent RNA synthesis was assessed using the Click-iT RNA Alexa Fluor 488 Imaging Kit or Click-iT RNA Alexa Fluor 594 Imaging Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. K562 cells were incubated with 5-ethynyl uridine (5EU), then seeded onto a 96-well glass-bottom plate. Nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst 33342. Samples were imaged using a Leica SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope at the University of Chicago. Fluorescence intensity was quantified using Fiji (ImageJ). Total RNA synthesis per cell was calculated by multiplying the average fluorescence intensity by the cell area.

CUT&Tag analysis

Cleavage under targets and tagmentation (CUT&Tag) was performed using the CUT&Tag-IT Assay Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, equal amounts of Spike-In Control were added to each sample. Washed cells were bound to concanavalin A–coated beads, followed by incubation with primary antibodies against specific histone modifications. After secondary antibody binding, tagmentation was performed using a preassembled protein A–Tn5 transposase. Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq X Plus and an Element Biosciences Aviti system (NovaX-10B-300), both generating 150 bp paired-end reads.

ATAC–seq analysis

ATAC–seq was performed using the TruePrep DNA Library Prep Kit V2 for Illumina according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 50,000 cells were used per replicate, and an equal amount of Spike-In Control was added to each sample. Cells were permeabilized in buffer containing 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, and 0.1% IGEPAL CA-630. Accessible chromatin regions were tagmented using a pre-assembled Tn5 transposome. Genomic DNA was then extracted and PCR-amplified to generate sequencing libraries. Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq X Plus and an Element Biosciences Aviti system (NovaX-10B-300), both generating 150 bp paired-end reads.

Subcellular fractionation

Fractionation of K562 or HCT116 cells was performed as previously described, with an
optimized NP-40 concentration. Briefly, 2.5×10 to 5×10 cells were collected, washed
with 1 ml cold PBS, and centrifuged at 500 g for 5 min at 4 °C. The cell pellet was
resuspended in 200 µl ice-cold lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 0.05% NP-40, 150 mM
NaCl) by gentle flicking and incubating on ice for 5 min. Subsequently, 2.5 volumes (500 µl) of
ice-cold sucrose solution (24% RNase-free sucrose in lysis buffer) were gently added to the
bottom of each tube, and samples were centrifuged at 15,000 g for 10 min at 4 °C. The top
300 µl of the supernatant was collected as the cytoplasmic fraction.

The nuclear pellet was gently washed with ice-cold PBS without dislodging the pellet. Nuclei
were resuspended in 100 µl pre-chilled glycerol buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 75 mM
NaCl, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.85 mM DTT, 0.125 mM PMSF, 50% glycerol) by gentle flicking. An
equal volume (100 µl) of cold nuclear lysis buffer (10 mM HEPES, pH 7.6, 1 mM DTT,
7.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.2 mM EDTA, 0.3 M NaCl, 1 M urea, 1% NP-40) was added, followed by
two 2-second vortex pulses. Samples were immediately incubated on ice for 2 min, then
centrifuged at 15,000 g for 2 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was collected as the soluble
nuclear fraction (nucleoplasm).

The remaining pellet was gently rinsed with cold PBS without disturbing the pellet and collected
as the chromatin-associated fraction.

To assess fractionation efficiency, 1/10 of each fraction was analyzed by Western blot using
antibodies against GAPDH (cytoplasmic marker), SNRNP70 (nucleoplasmic marker), and
Histone H3 (chromatin-associated marker).

Chromatin-associated RNA-seq

The chromatin-associated fraction of K562 cells was collected as described above. The
chromatin pellets were treated with TURBO DNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM2238),
followed by proteinase K digestion to release chromatin-associated RNA (caRNA). The purified
RNA was further treated with TURBO DNase and subjected to a second round of phenol
extraction to ensure complete removal of genomic DNA.

After caRNA isolation, ERCC RNA Spike-In Mix was added to each sample according to the
manufacturer's recommended ratio. RNA-seq libraries were prepared using the SMARTer
Stranded Total RNA-Seq Kit v2 – Pico Input Mammalian (TaKaRa Bio, 634411) following the
manufacturer's protocol. Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq X Plus and an
Element Biosciences Aviti system (NovaX-10B-300), both generating 150 bp paired-end reads.

KAS-seq-qPCR

N³-kethoxal was synthesized according to a previously established protocol. An optimized KAS-
seq protocol was followed to ensure efficient N³-kethoxal labeling. Cell pellets were
permeabilized in ATAC Resuspension Buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM

MgCl$_2$) supplemented with 0.1% NP-40, 0.1% Tween-20, and 0.01% digitonin. After gentle
pipetting, cells were incubated on ice, washed with 1 ml ice-cold DPBS, and centrifuged at
500 g for 5 min at 4 °C. Following an additional DPBS wash, cells were labeled with N³-
kethoxal at 37 °C for 15 min with shaking at 1,300 rpm.

Genomic DNA was extracted and processed within 30 min to preserve N³-kethoxal
modifications. For the click reaction, genomic DNA was suspended in 100 µL of PBS
containing DBCO–PEG4–biotin in DMSO and 25 mM H$_3$BO$_3$ (pH 7.0) and incubated at 37 °C
for 1.5 h with shaking at 1,300 rpm. RNase A was then added, followed by a 5 min incubation
at 37 °C.

Biotinylated genomic DNA was purified using the DNA Clean & Concentrator-5 Kit (Zymo
Research, D4013) and eluted in 100 µL nuclease-free water supplemented with 25 mM
H$_3$BO$_3$ (pH 7.0). DNA was fragmented to 150–350 bp using a Bioruptor Pico (30 s on/30 s
off, 30 cycles). One percent of the fragmented DNA was reserved as input, and the remaining
99% was incubated with pre-washed Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin C1 in 1× C1 B&W buffer
at room temperature for 30 min to enrich biotin-labeled DNA. Beads were washed five times,
and bound DNA was eluted in 25 µL of nuclease-free water by heating at 95 °C for 10 min
with shaking at 1,300 rpm. Eluted DNA and corresponding input controls were used for
downstream qPCR analysis.

RNA modifications level quantification by LC-MS/MS

Approximately total RNA or ribosome-depleted RNA was digested with Nucleoside Digestion
Mix (NEB, M0649S) at 37 °C for 1 h. The digested sample was diluted to a final volume of
50 µL and analyzed by LC–MS/MS. Nucleosides were separated by reverse-phase ultra-
performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) on a C18 column and detected using an Agilent
6460 QQQ triple-quadrupole mass spectrometer operating in positive electrospray ionization
mode.

Cell proliferation assay

HCT116 cells were seeded into 96-well plates for proliferation assays using the CellTiter 96®
AQueous One Solution Cell Proliferation Assay, following the manufacturer's instructions.
MicroRNA transfection was initially performed in 6-well plates. At 8 h after transfection, cells
were resuspended in complete medium, and 2,000 cells per well were seeded into 96-well
plates (day 0). Cell proliferation was measured every 24 h by incubating cells with MTS
reagent at 37 °C for 1 h.

Cell migration assay

HCT116 cells were transfected as indicated and, 24 h after transfection, replated for migration
assays using a 96-well, 8 µm pore size cell migration/chemotaxis kit following the
manufacturer's instructions.

5EU ERCC spike-in preparation

To generate DNA templates, ERCC RNA standards (Invitrogen, 4456740) were first reverse transcribed into cDNA using the PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit (Takara, RR036A). Specific ERCC fragments were then amplified by PCR with primers containing a T7 promoter sequence, yielding double-stranded DNA templates for in vitro transcription. PCR products were purified using the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit for PCR Cleanup (Qiagen, 28104) according to the manufacturer's instructions, yielding double-stranded DNA templates for in vitro transcription. Double-stranded ERCC DNA templates containing a T7 promoter were subsequently transcribed in vitro using the HiScribe® T7 High Yield RNA Synthesis Kit (NEB, E2040S).

Transcription reactions were performed in a 20 µl volume containing UTP and 5-ethynyl UTP (5EUTP) and incubated overnight at 37 °C. Following transcription, the reaction mixture was treated with TURBO DNase™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM2238) for 30 min at 37 °C to digest residual DNA templates. The RNA products were then purified using the RNA Clean & Concentrator-25 kit (Zymo Research, R1017).

Drosophila 5EU-labeled spike-in preparation

Drosophila cells were incubated with 5-ethynyl uridine (5EU) to generate spike-in RNA with labeling levels suitable for normalization across K562 time-course samples (20, 40, and 60 min). This intermediate labeling duration was chosen to avoid excessive spike-in signal at early time points (e.g., 20 min) while ensuring sufficient signal at later time points (e.g., 60 min). Total RNA was extracted using TRIzol Reagent (Invitrogen, 15596026), treated with TURBO DNase™ (2 U/µL; Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM2238) to remove residual DNA, and purified using the RNA Clean & Concentrator-25 kit (Zymo Research, R1017).

Biotinylation of immunoprecipitated RNAs

Biotin labeling of immunoprecipitated RNA was performed based on a previously published protocol, with a modified RNase I concentration. To account for variable recovery of AGO1/2 during immunoprecipitation, eluates were first assessed by SDS–PAGE and Coomassie Blue staining, and RNA biotinylation was performed using equalized protein inputs.

AGO1 and AGO2 CLIP–LC–MS/MS

K562 cells were collected by centrifugation at 600 × g for 3 min and washed once with cold Dulbecco's PBS (DPBS). The cell pellet was resuspended in DPBS at a concentration of 10 million cells per ml. Cells were kept on ice and UV crosslinked.

The pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 100 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40 (Igepal CA-630), 0.1% SDS, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, and 1:200 Protease Inhibitor Cocktail III). The lysate was then treated with TURBO DNase (Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM2238) at 37 °C for 1 h to digest genomic DNA and release crosslinked protein–RNA

complexes. To further reduce viscosity and enhance complex release, the lysate was
sequentially passed through 16G, 21G, and 25G needles. Lysates were cleared by
centrifugation at maximum speed (≥16,000 × g) for 15 min at 4 °C.

The cleared lysate was treated with RNase I at 37 °C for 5 min with gentle shaking. The
RNase I concentration was carefully optimized to generate RNA fragments of approximately
1,000–2,000 nucleotides, thereby preserving long RNA fragments while reducing crosslinking of
a single RNA transcript to multiple proteins. This fragmentation improved the efficiency and
specificity of subsequent immunoprecipitation. An aliquot of input was saved and stored at –
80 °C.

The remaining lysate was incubated overnight at 4 °C on an end-to-end rotator with AGO
antibody–conjugated protein A beads. Following incubation, the supernatant was collected, and
the beads—containing immunoprecipitated AGO–RNA complexes—were washed five times with
1 ml of wash buffer (50 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 300 mM KCl, 0.05% [v/v] NP-40, 1× Halt
protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail, 1× RNaseOUT recombinant ribonuclease inhibitor).
Each wash was performed at 4 °C for 5 min with rotation.

Input, supernatant, AGO-bound fractions were treated with proteinase K at 55 °C for 2 h. RNA
was then purified using the RNA Clean & Concentrator kit (Zymo Research), including a size
selection step to retain RNA fragments longer than 200 nucleotides. This step was performed to
exclude small RNAs—such as microRNAs, snoRNAs, and tRNAs—which are generally much
shorter than 200 nt and not the focus of this analysis. The resulting purified RNA was used for
downstream sample processing followed by LC-MS/MS.

Total RNA decay assay by qPCR

K562 cells were seeded in 6-well plates and treated with actinomycin D for 6 h, 3 h, or 0 h
prior to RNA harvest. At each time point, cells were directly lysed in TRIzol Reagent (Invitrogen),
and the mixture was thoroughly vortexed until the pellet was fully dissolved to ensure complete
lysis. Total RNA was extracted according to the manufacturer's instructions , and mRNA was
subsequently purified using the Dynabeads™ mRNA Purification Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
61006). ERCC RNA spike-in controls (Invitrogen, 4456740) were added after total RNA
extraction. ERCC-specific qPCR was performed in parallel and used as an external reference
for normalization across samples. Three biological replicates were generated for each time point.

RT–qPCR

To quantify transcript expression, total RNA was reverse transcribed using PrimeScript RT
Master Mix (TaKaRa Bio, RR036A) with both oligo(dT) and random hexamer primers according
to the manufacturer's instructions. The resulting cDNA was analyzed by quantitative PCR
(qPCR) on a LightCycler 96 system (Roche) using FastStart Essential DNA Green Master

(Roche, 06402712001) and gene-specific primers. Relative expression changes were
determined using the ΔΔCt method.

Western blot

Protein samples were prepared from cells by lysis in RIPA buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
89900) supplemented with 1× Halt protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Fisher
Scientific, 78441) for 30 min at 4 °C with rotation. Protein concentration was determined using
a NanoDrop 8000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Equal amounts of protein were
mixed with 4× loading buffer (Bio-Rad, 1610747) to a final concentration of 1×, heated at 72 °C
for 15 min, and separated on 4–12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris gels (Invitrogen, NP0335BOX). Proteins
were transferred to PVDF membranes (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 88585), blocked in TBST
containing 3% BSA (Millipore-Sigma, A7030) for 30 min at room temperature, and incubated
with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight. Membranes were then washed three times in 1×
TBST (5 min each) and incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 h at room
temperature, followed by three additional washes in 1× TBST (5 min each). Protein bands were
visualized using the SuperSignal West Dura Extended Duration Substrate kit (Thermo Fisher
Scientific, 34075).

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Dr. Pieter W. Faber for assistance with high-throughput sequencing and to Drs. Benjamin Stein and Samuel Weng for assistance with proteomics. We thank Drs. Alana Beadell and Chenyou Zhu for comments on the manuscript. This work was partially supported by the National Institutes of Health. We thank The Ludwig Center for Metastasis Research at the University of Chicago for partial support (S.P.P., R.R.W. and C.H.). C.H. is an Investigator of the Howard Hughes Medical Institute.

Author contributions statement

C.H. and Y.Z. conceived the original idea and designed the initial studies. Y.Z. performed most of the experiments with assistance from J.L. and contributions from C.L., J.W., B.L., and E.B. F.Y. performed proteomic study. L.Z. performed most of the bioinformatics analyses with input from C.Y. and X.D. S.P.P. and R.R.W. contributed to colorectal cancer YTHDF2 observation. C.H. supervised the entire project. Y.Z., L.Z. and C.H. wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors have filed a provision patent application of findings reported in this paper through the University of Chicago. C.H. is a scientific founder, a member of the scientific advisory board, and equity holder of Aferna Bio, Inc. and Ellis Bio Inc., a scientific cofounder and equity holder of Accent Therapeutics, Inc., and a member of the scientific advisory board of Rona Therapeutics and Element Biosciences. R.R.W. has stock and other ownership interests with Boost Therapeutics, Immvira, Reflexion Pharmaceuticals, Coordination Pharmaceuticals, Magi Therapeutics and Oncosenescence. He has served in a consulting or advisory role for Aettis, Astrazeneca, Coordination Pharmaceuticals, Genus, Merck Serono S.A., Nano proteagen, NKMax America and Shuttle Pharmaceuticals. He has received research grant funding from Varian and Regeneron. He has received compensation including travel, accommodations, or

expense reimbursement from Astrazeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim and Merck Serono. The

remaining authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure.1 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs regulate *YTHDF2* at the transcriptional level.

a, Relative levels of *YTHDF2* transcripts quantified by qPCR in K562 cells after knockdown (left)
or overexpression (right) of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b,
miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with microRNA control or ASO control. **b**, *YTHDF2*
transcript half-life in K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17,
miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with microRNA control. The
relative levels of *YTHDF2* transcripts were normalized to the external RNA ERCC spike-in
control. P-values were determined using two-way ANOVA, Dunnett's multiple comparisons test.
c, Representative immunofluorescence images showing nuclear localization of endogenous
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93) in K562 cells. **d**, RNA
immunoprecipitation (RIP) in K562 cells using antibodies against histone H3 or IgG, followed by
qPCR quantification for mature miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a, or miR-106b.
IgG is the negative control for immunoprecipitation. Data is shown as fold enrichment relative to
IgG control. **e**, Relative level of nascent *YTHDF2* transcripts quantified by qPCR in K562 cells
after overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-
93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with microRNA control. **f**, Relative level of nascent
YTHDF2 transcripts quantified by qPCR in K562 cells after knockdown individual AAGUGC-
seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with
ASO control. **g**, Relative ssDNA levels at the *YTHDF2* promoter in K562 cells overexpressing
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b)
compared with microRNA control. **h**, Chromatin-associated RNA immunoprecipitation (RIP) to
capture transfected 3'-biotinylated microRNA mimics in K562 cells, followed by qPCR
quantification of the *YTHDF2* transcript. **i**, Model of transcriptional activation of *YTHDF2*
transcript by AAGUGC-seed microRNAs in the nucleus. For panels a, b, d, e, f, g, and h, p-
values were determined using unpaired two-tailed Student's t-tests (n = 3 biological replicates;
mean ± SD shown).

Fig.2 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote chromatin opening and overall transcription.

a, Representative DNase I–treated TUNEL assay images (red) showing increased chromatin accessibility in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, or miR-20b) compared with microRNA control cells; nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). **b**, Representative EU incorporation images (green) showing increased nascent RNA synthesis in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, or miR-20b) compared with microRNA control cells; nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). **c**, Quantification of chromatin accessibility corresponding to the DNase I–TUNEL images in (**a**). TUNEL intensity was quantified using ImageJ from ≥5 independent biological replicates. *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed t-tests. **d**, Quantification of nascent RNA synthesis corresponding to the representative EU incorporation images in (**b**). EU intensity was quantified using ImageJ from ≥5 independent biological replicates. *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed t-tests. **e**, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU (4-thiouridine) incorporation into total RNA from K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs after 20, 40 and 60 min of 4sU labeling of nascent transcripts (*n* = 3 biological replicates). **f**, Box-plots and cumulative distribution analysis of ATAC-seq $\log_2$ fold-change signals (OE versus microRNA control) upon overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs. Each microRNA OE results in a statistically significant increase in chromatin accessibility compared with microRNA control. (****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon's rank-sum test). **g**, Box-plots of Relative transcription efficiency upon overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs. Red dashed lines indicate levels in microRNAs control. Each microRNA OE results in a statistically significant increase in nascent RNA synthesis compared with microRNA control. (****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon's rank-sum test). **h**, Box-plots showing $\log_2$ fold changes in nascent promoter-associated RNA (paRNA) synthesis in K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with microRNA control. Each microRNA OE results in a statistically significant increase in nascent RNA synthesis compared with microRNA control. (****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test). **i**, Box-plots of relative transcription efficiency of pre-mRNA upon knockdown of all AAGUGC-seed microRNAs significantly reduces transcription efficiency compared with ASO control (****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon's rank-sum test). **j**, Box-plots showing $\log_2$ fold changes in H3K4me3 signals in K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with microRNA control. Each microRNA OE results in a statistically significant increase in H3K4me3 and H3K27ac signals compared with control. (****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test). **k**. Box-plots showing $\log_2$ fold changes in H3K27ac signals in K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with microRNA control. Each microRNA OE results in a statistically significant increase in H3K4me3 and H3K27ac signals compared with control. (****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test).

Fig.3 | AGO1/2 promote chromatin opening and overall transcription through paRNA m⁶A.

a, Cumulative fraction plots of $\log_2$ fold change in chromatin-associated RNA (caRNA) upon
AGO1/2 KD compared with siRNA control; box-plot (right) shows distribution across categories
including repeats, enhancer RNA (eRNA), chromatin-associated mRNA (camRNA), and
promoter-associated RNA (paRNA). The definition and annotation of caRNA categories are
provided in the Supplementary method section. *AGO1/2* KD showed a statistically significant
decrease in chromatin-associated mRNA (camRNA), and promoter-associated RNA (paRNA).
(****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon's rank-sum test). **b**, Box-plots of relative transcription
efficiency of chromatin-associated pre-mRNA and paRNA upon *AGO1/2* KD. **c**, Overlap ratio of
AGO1/2 peaks with histone modification ChIP–seq peaks across ENCODE datasets in K562
cells. **d**, Count of significantly different H3K4me3 (left) and H3K27ac (right) peaks in *AGO1/2*
KD versus siRNA KD control K562 cells. **e**, LC–MS/MS quantification of m⁶A level in RNAs
bound by AGO1, AGO2 in K562 cells. *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed
Student's t-tests ($n = 3$ biological replicates; mean ± SD shown). **f**, Heatmaps and metagene
profiles showing enrichment of AGO1/2 peaks around m⁶A sites in K562 cells.

Fig.4 | Capturing microRNAs binding sites on chromatin-associated RNAs.

a-c, Box-plots comparing AGO1/2-dependent AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites with
nearby m⁶A versus other sites. Shown are results for miR-17, miR-20a or miR-20b
overexpression, which display significantly elevated nascent RNA synthesis (**a**), paRNA
expression (**b**) and H3K4me3 signals (**c**). *p*-values were determined using Wilcoxon signed-rank
tests.

Fig.5 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote chromatin opening and activate transcription
by recruiting BRG1.

a, Jaccard index versus cosine similarity analysis of ENCODE ChIP datasets revealed strong
enrichment of SWI/SNF complex binding. **b**, Overlap between AGO1/2 and SMARCA4 (BRG1)
targets in K562 cells. **c**, Count of significantly different SMARCA4 (BRG1) peaks in *AGO1&2* KD
versus siRNA KD control K562 cells. **d**, Volcano plots of calibrated TET1 signal changes in
K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b)
compared with microRNA control. **e**, Box-plots showing SMARCA4 (BRG1) signals in K562 cells
overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b). The strongest
enrichment is observed at regions overlapping both AGO1&2 and AAGUGC-seed microRNAs
binding sites (AGO1&2(+) miRNA(+)), whereas sites overlapping only AGO1&2 (AGO1&2(+)
miRNA(−)), or only AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites (AGO1&2(−) miRNA(+)) show
weaker signals, and random genomic regions display minimal signals. **f**, Box-plots showing
SMARCA4 (BRG1) signals in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17-
5p, miR-20a-5p or miR-20b-5p). The strongest enrichment is observed at regions overlapping
both AGO1/2 and m^{6}A peaks (+/+), whereas sites overlapping only AGO1/2 (+/−) or only m^{6}A
(−/+) show weaker signals, and random genomic regions (Rnd) display minimal signals.

Fig.6 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote chromatin opening and activate transcription
by recruiting TET1.

a, Overlap of AGO1&2, FXR1 and FXR2 binding sites. **b**, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU (4-
thiouridine) incorporation into total RNA after 60 min of 4sU labeling of nascent transcripts,
showing that either *FXR1* or *FXR2* knockdown rescues the transcriptional activation induced by
overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b). *P*-values
were determined using unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests (n = 3 biological replicates; mean ±
SD shown). **c**, Volcano plots of calibrated TET1 signal changes in K562 cells overexpressing
individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b) compared with microRNA
control. **d**, Box-plots showing TET1 signals in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed
microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b). The strongest enrichment is observed at regions
overlapping both AGO1&2 and AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites (AGO1&2(+)
miRNA(+)), whereas sites overlapping only AGO1&2 (AGO1&2(+) miRNA(–)), or only
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites (AGO1&2(–) miRNA(+)) show weaker signals, and
random genomic regions display minimal signals. **e**, Box-plots showing TET1 signals in K562
cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17-5p, miR-20a-5p or miR-20b-5p). The
strongest enrichment is observed at regions overlapping both AGO1/2 and m^6A peaks (+/+),
whereas sites overlapping only AGO1/2 (+/–) or only m^6A (–/+) show weaker signals, and
random genomic regions (Rnd) display minimal signals. (**f**–**g**) Box-plots of $\log_2$ fold changes in
SMARCA4 (BRG1) signal. **f**, *FXR1/2* knockdown versus siRNA KD control in K562 cells,
showing a significant reduction in BRG1 occupancy (**** $p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon's rank-
sum test). **g**, BRG1 signals in K562 cells overexpressing miR-93 or miR-106a in the *FXR1/2*-
knockdown background, compared with their respective microRNA-overexpression condition.
The microRNA-induced BRG1 increase is significantly reversed upon FXR1/2 depletion (**** $p <$
0.0001, two-sided Wilcoxon signed-rank test). **h**, Schematic of the proposed pathway in which
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs, together with m^6A, regulate chromatin state and activate
transcription through the AGO1/2–microRNA–FXR1/2– m^6A axis.

Extended Data Fig. 1 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs upregulate *YTHDF2* transcript level.

a, Robust-rank aggregation (RRA) of lncRNAs in the K562 cells screens, based on consistent depletion of five gRNAs at 14 days after Cas13 induction. **b**, Scatter plots showing positive correlations between *YTHDF2* transcript levels and *MIR17HG*, *MCM7* and the average expression of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a and miR-106b) in the TCGA-AML cohort, with values categorized into 100 bins. PCC denotes Pearson's correlation coefficient, and *p*-values were calculated using the t distribution. **c**, Cumulative distribution analysis of expression changes (log$_2$ recurrence/primary) in acute myeloid leukemia, comparing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miRNA group) with all other microRNAs (Others). **d**, Box-plots of six AAGUGC-seed microRNAs expression in primary versus recurrent acute myeloid leukemia (AML) cohorts. **e**, The average expression of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a and miR-106b) in primary versus recurrent AML samples. **f**, Expression of *YTHDF2* transcripts in primary versus recurrent AML samples. (**g**-**h**) qPCR quantification of *YTHDF1* (**g**) and *YTHDF3* (**h**) transcript levels in K562 cells after knockdown of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) versus ASO control. *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests (*n* = 3 biological replicates; mean ± SD shown). **i**, Representative immunofluorescence images showing nuclear localization of endogenous AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) in K562 cells. For panels (**d**-**f**), the box plots show the median (centre line), the upper and lower quartiles (box limits) and 1.5× the interquartile range (whiskers).

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Extended Data Fig. 2 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote chromatin opening and overall
transcription.

a, Representative DNase I–treated TUNEL assay images (red) showing increased chromatin
accessibility in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93, miR-106a or
miR-106b) compared with control cells; nuclei counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue).
Quantification corresponds to data in (**b**). **b**, Box-plots showing relative DNase I-treated TUNEL
assay intensity measured in K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs
(miR-93, miR-106a, or miR-106b); quantification corresponds to representative images shown in
(**a**). TUNEL intensity was quantified using ImageJ from ≥5 independent biological replicates. *P*-
values were determined using unpaired two-tailed t tests. **c**, Representative EU incorporation
images (green) showing increased nascent RNA synthesis in K562 cells overexpressing
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with control cells; nuclei
counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Quantification corresponds to data in (**d**). **d**, Box-
plots showing relative nascent transcription intensity measured by EU incorporation in K562
cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93, miR-106a, or miR-106b);
quantification corresponds to representative images shown in (**c**). EU intensity was quantified
using ImageJ from ≥5 independent biological replicates. p values were determined using
unpaired two-tailed t tests. **e**, RNA immunoprecipitation (RIP) in K562 cells using antibodies
against histone H3K4me3, H3K27ac, H3K9me3, and H3K27me3 or IgG control, followed by
qPCR quantification for mature miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a, or miR-106b.
IgG is the negative control for immunoprecipitation. Data is shown as fold enrichment relative to
IgG control.

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a

Chromatin RIP-qPCR on miRNA

b

Chromatin CLIP-qPCR on *YTHDF2* transcript

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Extended Data Fig. 3 | AGO1/2 may bind m⁶A-containing loci to activate transcription.

a, Chromatin-associated RNA immunoprecipitation (RIP) in K562 cells using antibodies against
AGO1, AGO2, or IgG control, followed by qPCR quantification for mature miR-17, miR-20a,
miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a, or miR-106b. Data are shown as fold enrichment relative to IgG
control (*n* = 3 biological replicates). *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed
Student's t tests (*n* = 3 biological replicates; mean ± SD shown). **b**, Chromatin-associated RNA
immunoprecipitation (RIP) in K562 cells using antibodies against AGO1, AGO2, or IgG control,
followed by qPCR quantification of *YTHDF2* transcript. Data are shown as fold enrichment
relative to IgG control (*n* = 3 biological replicates). *P*-values were determined using unpaired
two-tailed Student's t tests (*n* = 3 biological replicates; mean ± SD shown). **c**, Correlation
between *AGO1*, *AGO2* and *YTHDF2* expressions in the TCGA-AML cohort. Scatter plots
(binned into 100 groups), showing strong positive correlations between *YTHDF2* and *AGO1* (top,
Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) = 0.95, *P* = 1.0 × 10^−16) and between *YTHDF2* and
AGO2 (bottom, PCC = 0.91, *P* = 1.0 × 10^−16). Shaded areas indicate 95% confidence
intervals. **d**, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU (4-thiouridine) incorporation into total RNA from
K562 cells with AGO1/2 depletion versus control after 15, 30 and 60 min of 4sU labeling of
nascent transcripts (*n* = 3 biological replicates). *P*-values were calculated by two-way ANOVA,
Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. **e**, Overlap between AGO1&2 and m⁶A sites in K562 and
HepG2 cells. **f**, Heatmaps and metagene profiles showing enrichment of AGO1&2 peaks around
m⁶A sites in HepG2 cells. (**g-h**) Box-plots comparing m⁶A sites with nearby AGO1&2 binding
sites versus m⁶A sites alone. Shown are results for overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed
microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b), which display
significantly increased chromatin accessibility (**g**), elevated nascent RNA synthesis (**h**). *P*-values
were determined using Wilcoxon signed-rank tests.

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Extended Data Fig. 4 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote chromatin opening and
activate transcription in an m⁶A-dependent manner.

a, Box-plots comparing AGO1/2-dependent AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites with
nearby m⁶A versus other sites. Shown are results for overexpression of miR-93, miR-106a or
miR-106b, which display significantly elevated nascent RNA synthesis. *p*-values were
determined using Wilcoxon signed-rank tests.

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Extended Data Fig. 5 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs recruit BRG1 to nearby m⁶A loci.

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a, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU (4-thiouridine) incorporation into total RNA after 60 min of
4sU labeling of nascent transcripts, showing that BRG1 knockdown rescues the transcriptional
activation induced by overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs. *P*-values were
determined using unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests ($n = 3$ biological replicates; mean ± SD
shown). **b**, Volcano plots of calibrated BRG1 signal changes in K562 cells overexpressing
individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with
microRNA control. **c**, Box-plots showing SMARCA4 (BRG1) signals in K562 cells
overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b). The strongest
enrichment is observed at regions overlapping both AGO1&2 and AAGUGC-seed microRNAs
binding sites (AGO1&2(+) miRNA(+)), whereas sites overlapping only AGO1&2 (AGO1&2(+)
miRNA(−)), or only AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites (AGO1&2(−) miRNA(+)) show
weaker signals, and random genomic regions display minimal signals. **d**, Box-plots showing
SMARCA4 (BRG1) signals in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93-
5p, miR-106a-5p and miR-106b-5p). The strongest enrichment is observed at regions
overlapping both AGO1&2 and m⁶A peaks (+/+), whereas sites overlapping only AGO1&2 (+/−)
or only m⁶A (−/+) show weaker signals, and random genomic regions (Rnd) display minimal
signals.

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Extended Data Fig. 6 | FXR1/2 mediate recruitment of AGO1/2 to nearby m⁶A loci and facilitate TET1 association.

a, Top: western blot showing nucleic acids cross-linked to AGO1 and AGO2 in RIP samples from knockdown of either *FXR1* or *FXR2* versus control K562 cells. Bottom: Coomassie blue staining of the immunoprecipitated fractions showing IgG heavy chain, confirming equal antibody input and comparable protein loading across samples for assessment of biotin–RNA–bound proteins. **b**, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU (4-thiouridine) incorporation into total RNA after 60 min of 4sU labeling of nascent transcripts, showing that either *FXR1* or *FXR2* knockdown rescues the transcriptional activation induced by overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs. *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests (n = 3 biological replicates; mean ± SD shown). **c**, Overlap of FXR1, FXR2, AGO1&2, BRG1 and TET1 peaks in K562 cells, indicating substantial overlap with TET1-bound regions. **d**, Volcano plots of calibrated TET1 signal changes in K562 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with microRNA control. **e**, Box-plots showing TET1 signals in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b). The strongest enrichment is observed at regions overlapping both AGO1&2 and AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites (AGO1&2(+) miRNA(+)), whereas sites overlapping only AGO1&2 (AGO1&2(+) miRNA(−)), or only AAGUGC-seed microRNAs binding sites (AGO1&2(−) miRNA(+)) show weaker signals, and random genomic regions display minimal signals. **f**, Box-plots showing TET1 signals in K562 cells overexpressing AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-93-5p, miR-106a-5p and miR-106b-5p). The strongest enrichment is observed at regions overlapping both AGO1&2 and m⁶A peaks (+/+), whereas sites overlapping only AGO1&2 (+/−) or only m⁶A (−/+) show weaker signals, and random genomic regions (Rnd) display minimal signals. **g**, miRNA–mRNA expression correlations in the TCGA-LAML cohort. Heatmap showing pairwise Spearman's correlation coefficients between AAGUGC-seed microRNAs and genes in the proposed pathway, including m⁶A-binding proteins (FXR1 and FXR2), the m⁶A writer METTL3, AGO proteins and chromatin factors. Red indicates positive correlation and blue indicates negative correlation. The significance of correlations is represented by square size (larger squares denote higher p values). Network edges highlight significant correlations (p < 0.001), with red edges indicating positive and blue edges indicating negative associations. For panels (**e**) and (**f**), the box plots show the median (centre line), the upper and lower quartiles (box limits) and 1.5× the interquartile range (whiskers).

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f

miR-17

miR-20a

miR-20b

miR-93

miR-106a

miR-106b

● Control, Control ● Control, miRNA OE ● *YTHDF2* KD, miRNA OE ● *YTHDF2* KD, Control

g

h

i

j

k

Extended Data Fig. 7 | AAGUGC-seed microRNAs promote chromatin opening and overall
transcription in colon cancer.

a, Box-plots of AAGUGC-seed microRNAs expression across TCGA pan-cancer cohorts,
showing significantly higher levels in tumors compared with matched normal tissues. Right,
specific enrichment of the average expression of six AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-
20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a and miR-106b) in colorectal adenocarcinoma (COAD) and
acute myeloid leukemia (LAML). The box plots show the median (centre line), the upper and
lower quartiles (box limits) and 1.5× the interquartile range (whiskers). **b**, Comparison of
miRNAs expression among COAD tumor subtypes, showing reduced expression of miR-20a-5p
in Subtype 2 relative to other subtypes. miR-20a-5p is one of only two miRNAs downregulated
in Subtype 2, which is associated with improved clinical outcomes. **c**, Relative levels of *YTHDF2*
transcripts quantified by qPCR in HCT116 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed
microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) compared with
microRNA control. *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests. ($n = 3$
biological replicates; mean ± SD shown). *P*-values were determined using unpaired two-tailed
Student's t tests. **d**, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU (4-thiouridine) incorporation into total RNA
from HCT116 cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs after 60 min of 4sU
labeling of nascent transcripts ($n = 3$ biological replicates). **e**, Box-plots showing $\log_2$ fold
changes in chromatin-associated mRNA expression in HCT116 cells overexpressing individual
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-20a, miR-20b or miR-106a) compared with microRNA control.
Each microRNA OE results in a statistically significant increase in cam-RNA compared with
microRNA control. (****$p < 0.0001$, two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test). The box plots show the
median (centre line), the upper and lower quartiles (box limits) and 1.5× the interquartile range
(whiskers). **f**, Proliferation curves showing that *YTHDF2* knockdown rescues the increased cell
growth induced by overexpression of individual AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a,
miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b). Statistical comparisons were shown relative to the
"control, miRNA OE" group at 120 h. *P*-values were calculated by two-way ANOVA, Dunnett's
multiple comparisons test. **g**, Relative migration capacity of HCT116 cells expressing individual
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-17, miR-20a, miR-20b, miR-93, miR-106a or miR-106b) ($n = 5$
biological replicates). **h**, microRNA expression ranking in mouse embryonic stem cells (mES).
Representative AAGUGC-seed microRNAs are highlighted. **i**, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU
(4-thiouridine) incorporation into total RNA from mES cells overexpressing individual AAGUGC-
seed microRNAs after 60 min of 4sU labeling of nascent transcripts ($n = 3$ biological replicates).
j, Box-plots of relative DNase I-treated TUNEL assay intensity measured in (**k**). TUNEL intensity
was quantified using ImageJ from ≥5 independent biological replicates. *P*-values were
determined using unpaired two-tailed t tests. **k**, Representative DNase I–treated TUNEL assay
images (green) showing increased chromatin accessibility in mES cells overexpressing
AAGUGC-seed microRNAs (miR-292-3p, miR-294-3p, miR-295-3p, or miR-373-3p) compared
with control cells; nuclei counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Quantification corresponds
to data in (**j**).

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Extended Data Fig. 8 | Transcriptional activation by additional microRNAs and siRNAs
with distinct seed sequences.

a, Representative DNase I–treated TUNEL assay images (red) showing increased chromatin
accessibility in HCT116 cells with microRNAs knockout (KO) compared with control cells; nuclei
counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Quantification corresponds to data in (**b**). **b**, Box-
plots of relative DNase I-treated TUNEL assay intensity measured in (**a**). TUNEL intensity was
quantified using ImageJ from ≥5 independent biological replicates. *P*-values were determined
using unpaired two-tailed t tests. **c**, LC–MS/MS quantification of 4sU (4-thiouridine) levels in
total RNA from HCT116 cells with miRNAs knockout after 60-minute 4sU labeling of nascent
transcripts. p values were determined using unpaired two-tailed Student's t tests (n = 3
biological replicates; mean ± SD shown). **d**, Box-plots showing $\log_2$ fold changes in nascent
RNA expression in HCT116 with microRNAs knockout (KO) compared with KO control. The box
plots show the median (centre line), the upper and lower quartiles (box limits) and 1.5× the
interquartile range (whiskers). All experiments and analysis were performed using two biological
replicates per condition. **e**, Effect of siRNAs and microRNAs transfection on gene expression.
Scatter plots showing $\log_2$ fold changes across 150 RNA-seq perturbation datasets previously
analyzed for individual siRNAs or microRNAs. The average gene expression of all transcripts
across conditions. **f**, Distribution plots of expression changes ($\log_2$ fold change) following siRNA
targeting of VHL, SOS1, MPHOSPH1 and IGF1R compared with control, showing that these
siRNAs induce global upregulation of gene expression. **g**, Box-plots of relative DNase I-treated
TUNEL assay intensity measured in K562 cells with siRNA transfection (**h**). TUNEL intensity
was quantified using ImageJ from ≥5 independent biological replicates. p values were
determined using unpaired two-tailed t tests. **h**, Representative DNase I–treated TUNEL assay
images (red) showing increased chromatin accessibility in K562 cells with siRNA transfection
(*VHL, SOS1, MPHOSPH1* and *IGF1R*) compared with siRNA KD control cells; nuclei
counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Quantification corresponds to data in (**g**).

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