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Article

Divergent IncRNAs Regulate Gene Expression and Lineage Differentiation in Pluripotent Cells

Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- Genomic organization of divergent IncRNAs correlates strongly with regulatory genes
- Divergent IncRNAs regulate the expression of adjacent genes in pluripotent cells
- The IncRNA Evx1as binds locally to chromatin and promotes EVX1 transcription in cis
- Evx1as acts upstream of EVX1 to mediate mesendodermal lineage differentiation

Authors

Sai Luo, J. Yuyang Lu, Lichao Liu, ..., Jianlong Wang, Yong E. Zhang, Xiaohua Shen

Correspondence

xshen@tsinghua.edu.cn

In Brief

Based on broad genomic analysis and specific functional characterization in pluripotent cells, Luo and colleagues suggest that a major class of IncRNAs that is arranged divergently to nearby genes plays a role in transcriptional regulation to fine-tune gene expression and lineage differentiation.

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Divergent IncRNAs Regulate Gene Expression and Lineage Differentiation in Pluripotent Cells

Sai Luo,¹ J. Yuyang Lu,¹ Lichao Liu,¹ Yafei Yin,¹ Chunyan Chen,² Xue Han,¹ Bohou Wu,¹ Ronggang Xu,¹ Wei Liu,¹ Pixi Yan,¹ Wen Shao,¹ Zhi Lu,³ Haitao Li,¹ Jie Na,¹ Fuchou Tang,⁴ Jianlong Wang,⁵ Yong E. Zhang,² and Xiaohua Shen^{1,*}

¹Tsinghua-Peking Center for Life Sciences, School of Medicine, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

²Key Laboratory of Zoological Systematics and Evolution, Institute of Zoology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing 100101, China ³School of Life Sciences, Tsinghua University, Beijing 100084, China

⁴Biodynamic Optical Imaging Center, Peking-Tsinghua Center for Life Sciences, Peking University, Beijing 100871, China

⁵The Black Family Stem Cell Institute, Department of Developmental and Regenerative Biology, Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai, New York, NY 10029, USA

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SUMMARY

Divergent IncRNAs that are transcribed in the opposite direction to nearby protein-coding genes comprise a significant proportion (\sim 20%) of total IncRNAs in mammalian genomes. Through genomewide analysis, we found that the distribution of this IncRNA class strongly correlates with essential developmental regulatory genes. In pluripotent cells, divergent IncRNAs regulate the transcription of nearby genes. As an example, the divergent IncRNA Evx1as promotes transcription of its neighbor gene, EVX1, and regulates mesendodermal differentiation. At a single-cell level, early broad expression of Evx1as is followed by a rapid, high-level transcription of EVX1, supporting the idea that Evx1as plays an upstream role to facilitate EVX1 transcription. Mechanistically, Evx1as RNA binds to regulatory sites on chromatin, promotes an active chromatin state, and interacts with Mediator. Based on our analyses, we propose that the biological function of thousands of uncharacterized IncRNAs of this class may be inferred from the role of their neighboring adjacent genes.

INTRODUCTION

Much of the developmental complexity of higher eukaryotes is thought to arise from gene regulation rather than from an increase in the number of protein-coding genes (Morris and Mattick, 2014). RNA may represent a hidden layer of regulatory information in complex organisms, as increasing amounts of genetic information are expressed as and transacted by RNA (Taft et al., 2007; Yin et al., 2015). Genome-wide transcriptome analyses have identified thousands of long noncoding RNAs (IncRNAs) (Derrien et al., 2012). It has been proposed that IncRNAs may serve as versatile regulators of diverse aspects of biology in physiological and pathological contexts (Batista and Chang, 2013; Sauvageau et al., 2013). However, the functionality of vast majorities of IncRNAs is unknown. Identifying



functional IncRNAs and then inferring biological pathways in which they act in represent major challenges in understanding genome complexity and RNA-mediated gene regulation.

Various methods based on chromatin features, genome distribution, expression pattern, and subcellular localization have been used to categorize IncRNAs and to characterize their function (Cabili et al., 2011; Derrien et al., 2012; Mondal et al., 2010; Ponjavic et al., 2009). However, a unified approach to classify all IncRNA genes and link IncRNA biotypes with function is still lacking. Initial evidence of genomic juxtaposition and co-expression of tissue-specific IncRNAs and protein-coding genes was reported. For example, brain-expressed IncRNAs show regionally enriched expression profiles that are similar to those of adjacent protein-coding genes of neurological importance (Mercer et al., 2008; Ponjavic et al., 2009). A few IncRNAs expressed in the lung and foregut endoderm are positioned adjacent to transcription factors critical for lung development (Herriges et al., 2014). Studies of subsets of IncRNAs expressed in human or mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs) showed coordinated expression with genomically associated developmental genes during differentiation (Dinger et al., 2008; Sigova et al., 2013).

Evidence suggests that antisense transcription may be associated with promoters of genes encoding transcriptional regulators (Cabili et al., 2011; Derrien et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2014; Lepoivre et al., 2013; Sigova et al., 2013). However, the biological significance of these observations is not understood. It has been a matter of debate whether IncRNA expression correlates with neighboring (*cis*) or distal (*trans*) protein-coding genes and whether IncRNAs can regulate their protein-coding neighbors in *cis* (Cabili et al., 2011; Derrien et al., 2012; Mondal et al., 2010; Ørom et al., 2010; Sigova et al., 2013).

Here we revealed a non-random distribution of lncRNAs in the genome through comprehensive locus categorization. Divergent lncRNAs that are transcribed on the opposite strand from their neighboring protein-coding genes represent an interesting class comprising \sim 20% of total lncRNAs in mammalian genomes. However, no clear function for this lncRNA class has yet been identified. An interesting hypothesis is that divergent gene organization may allow lncRNA transcripts to regulate their adjacent coding genes. However, the mechanisms by which divergent lncRNA transcripts regulate their nearby sense mRNAs are not fully understood.

^{*}Correspondence: xshen@tsinghua.edu.cn



In-depth characterization of the *Evx1as/EVX1* locus reveals a coupled transcription activation of *Evx1as* and *EVX1* in an *Evx1as*-dependent manner during ESC differentiation. *Evx1as* RNA promotes *EVX1* transcription by coating its own locus on chromatin and modulating local chromatin state and configuration. An early, broad expression pattern of *Evx1as* prior to *EVX1* activation supports *Evx1as* as an upstream pilot factor regulating *EVX1* expression. Remarkably, knocking down 18 of 24 divergent lncRNAs led to downregulation of nearby genes. *Evx1as* depletion or deletion elicited global expression changes in lineage differentiation known to involve *EVX1*. Our work suggests that divergent lncRNAs, or at least a subset of them, can positively regulate the transcription of nearby genes in *cis* and participate in biological processes similar to those controlled by the nearby protein-coding genes.

RESULTS

LncRNA Locus Classification Reveals a Non-random Genomic Distribution

In an effort to classify all IncRNA genes and reveal their potential biological roles, we determined their genomic distribution patterns relative to protein-coding loci. Pairwise Pearson correlation analysis revealed that IncRNAs, but not protein-coding genes, exhibit a significantly higher expression correlation ($p < 10^{-38}$) with the closest positioned (#1) gene than with other distal nearby genes (#2-#10) (Figure 1A). Interestingly, within a 5-kb distance range, the proportion of protein-coding genes observed to neighbor a IncRNA rather than a coding gene is much higher than expected from a random distribution (t test, $p < 1.29^{-9}$) (Figure 1B). We therefore chose a distance cutoff of 5 kb from a protein-coding gene to define two classes of IncRNA genes: intergenic (henceforth called "lincRNAs") and genic IncRNAs (Figure 1C; Table S1). Genic IncRNAs exhibit significantly greater expression correlation with their nearest coding genes than lincRNA/coding pairs and genic coding/ coding pairs (Figures 1D and S1A).

The set of genic IncRNAs was further classified into six locus biotypes (Figure 1C; Tables S1 and S2). We first considered IncRNAs transcribed in an antisense direction (designated "X") and designated those that are positioned head-to-head to protein-coding genes as the divergent or "XH" biotype. Antisense IncRNA/coding gene pairs in the tail-to-tail position are designated convergent or "XT." The gene body of an antisense IncRNA can be located within a protein-coding gene (anti-

sense-inside, "XI") or can completely encompass a protein-coding gene (antisense-outside, "XO"). For IncRNAs transcribed in the same direction as the nearest gene (designated "S"), the transcription start site (TSS) of the IncRNA gene can be located (<5 kb) downstream ("SD") or upstream ("SU") of the TSS of the neighboring coding gene.

Divergent XH and antisense-inside XI IncRNAs comprise 19%–27% and 20%–21% of total IncRNAs, respectively, representing the two largest genic IncRNA biotypes in human and mouse genomes (Figure S1B; Tables S1, S2, and S3). Antisense IncRNAs are more likely to be co-expressed with nearby genes than control *linc*RNA/coding pairs and neighboring coding/coding pairs (Wilcoxon $p < 5 \times 10^{-6}$), whereas sense IncRNAs show no obvious difference (Figure S1C).

Divergent IncRNAs Associate with Transcription and Development

Gene Ontology (GO) analysis revealed that protein-coding genes associated with divergent XH IncRNAs are strongly enriched in regulatory functions, including transcription factor activity, pattern specification, and embryonic development (>1.5-fold, $p < 10^{-6}$) (Figures 1E and S1D). The 400 overlapping genes that neighbor divergent IncRNAs in both human and mouse exhibit higher enrichment in these functions than those in each species considered separately (>3-fold, $p < 3 \times 10^{-8}$) (Figure 1F). About 42% (168 genes) of them encode transcription factors and developmental regulators (Table S4). This suggests that many divergent IncRNAs may be conserved at the syntenic level across mammalian species. In comparison, divergent proteincoding/coding genes (XHc/c) are significantly enriched in housekeeping activities (Figure 1E; Table S3).

Mutations of genes neighboring divergent XH and XI IncRNAs are more likely to produce mouse developmental and survival phenotypes than other IncRNA biotypes and divergent coding/ coding gene pairs (Figure 1G). The local chromatin environments of divergent IncRNAs in ESCs exhibit strong and specific enrichments of bivalent (H3K27me3 and H3K4me3) and enhancer (H3K27ac and H3K4me1) marks compared with the promoters of IncRNAs from other biotypes (Figure 1H). Strong enrichments of regulatory chromatin marks correlate with enriched development-related functions in nearby coding genes and imply that divergent IncRNAs may be developmentally regulated.

Interestingly, divergent IncRNAs originated relatively early and show a skewed distribution toward older evolutionary ages compared with *lincRNAs* (Figures 1I and S1E–S1G). The mean

Figure 1. Divergent IncRNAs Correlate with Genes That Have Essential Regulatory Functions in Transcription and Development

(I) Evolutionary age distributions of human IncRNAs. The x axis shows the age assignment at which a IncRNA first appears.

See also Figure S1 and Tables S1, S2, S3, and S4.

⁽A) Expression correlation analysis of genes with their ten nearest genes in 23 human tissues.

⁽B) A comparison of the observed (obs) versus expected (exp) distributions of genes in the genome. The y axis shows the percentage of coding genes that lies next to a lncRNA gene or a coding gene.

⁽C) LncRNA classification. Gene numbers in human and mouse are indicated sequentially in parenthesis.

⁽D) Genic lncRNAs exhibit significantly greater expression correlation with their nearest neighbors (p < 4×10^{-40}).

⁽E and F) GO analysis of coding genes neighboring various biotypes of lncRNAs. Selected GO terms in XH lncRNAs (>1.5-fold and $p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$) in the upper panel of (E) or in the overlapping set of XH lncRNAs in both mouse and human ($p < 3 \times 10^{-8}$) in (F) are shown. Divergent coding/coding genes (XHc/c) serve as a control. The numbers of genes associated with a XH lncRNA or in a particular GO term in the genome are indicated sequentially.

⁽G) Mammalian phenotype analysis of coding genes neighboring lncRNA biotypes. The heatmap is plotted as (-log10(p value)). Darker colors indicate more significant p values.

⁽H) Chromatin marks in regions surrounding the TSS of various IncRNA biotypes (upper) and coding genes (lower) in human ESCs.



Figure 2. Divergent IncRNAs Regulate Nearby Transcription in Pluripotent Stem Cells

(A) Co-activation of selected divergent lncRNA/coding gene pairs in ESCs on days 0 to 6 (D0 to D6) of LIF withdrawal and in lineage-committed cells. NPCs, neural precursor cells; NSCs, neural stem cells.

(B, C, and E) RT-qPCR analysis of effects of IncRNA knockdown by RNAi on the divergent coding genes in various culture conditions as indicated.

(D) Heatmap of the expression of genes within ±500 kb of the Fendrr/FOXF1 locus upon Fendrr RNAi.

Relative positioning of IncRNAs (in red) and protein-coding genes (in blue) is shown in (A)–(C) and (E). The y axis represents relative mean expression normalized to *GADPH* and the scramble shRNA control (Ctrl) cells. Data are shown as mean \pm SD (n = 4, including two technical repeats for two independent knockdown). *p < 0.05. See also Figure S2 and Table S5.

evolutionary age of divergent IncRNAs is significantly older than lincRNAs (4.8 versus 5.7 in human [Wilcoxon p < 2×10^{-16}]; 5.8 versus 6.3 in mouse [Wilcoxon p < 3×10^{-9}]), implying that divergent IncRNAs might be functional and maintained by long-term selection.

Divergent IncRNAs Regulate Nearby Transcription in Pluripotent Stem Cells

Pluripotent ESCs have been established as an ideal system to study the fine details of transcriptional and epigenetic regulation during cell-fate switches (Shen et al., 2009). Withdrawal of leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) induces ESC differentiation into three germ layers, namely mesoderm, endoderm, and neuroectoderm. Mesendoderm (ME) is a transient cell state prior to further differentiation into mesoderm and endoderm. By analyzing RNAseq data from differentiating ESCs and lineage-committed cells (Yin et al., 2015), we found that several divergent pairs of IncRNAs and protein-coding genes are specifically co-expressed (Figure 2A). To test whether divergent juxtaposition manifests a regulatory interaction, we selected three divergent IncRNAs and studied the effects of IncRNA knockdown by RNAi on nearby transcription.

which encodes a transcription factor critical for early embryonic development and ESC self-renewal, are co-expressed in ESCs but are downregulated upon differentiation (Figure S2A). Interestingly, Foxd3as depletion led to a decrease of FOXD3 mRNA in ESCs (Figure 2B). In addition, during ESC differentiation, knockdown of the divergent IncRNA Evx1as attenuated activation of its nearby even-skipped gene, EVX1 (Figures 2C and S2B). Consistently, knockdown of another divergent IncRNA Fendrr led to attenuated activation of its nearest neighbor gene FOXF1 upon ESC differentiation (Figures 2C and S2A). Importantly, Fendrr RNAi failed to affect other genes within ±500 kb of the Fendrr locus (Figure 2D; Table S5). In addition, Fendrr is specifically correlated with FOXF1 in expression, but not with other nearby genes across diverse tissues (Figure S2C), arguing against a consequence of chromosome proximity in dictating nearby gene expression.

The divergent IncRNA Foxd3as and its neighbor gene FOXD3,

Moreover, an opposite experimental setting to ESC differentiation is cellular reprogramming to the pluripotent state. Knockdown of the divergent IncRNA *Ccnyl1as* led to decreased expression of *CCNYL1* in induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) during reprogramming (Figure 2E).

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Prevalent Transcriptional Regulation of Nearby Genes by Divergent IncRNAs

We then wondered how many randomly selected IncRNAs would have an effect on neighbor genes when knocked down. Many divergent IncRNAs are expressed in ESCs treated with retinoic acid (RA), providing enough candidates for a small-scale RNAi screen. Of 41 randomly selected IncRNAs (Table S5), we successfully knocked down 16 with >50% efficiency (Figures 3A, 3B, S2D, and S2E). Of these 16 IncRNAs, depletion of 10 led to decreased expression of the divergent coding gene, while 6 had no effect, suggesting context-dependent IncRNA regulation.

To ask whether this phenomenon is conserved across species, we studied three divergent IncRNAs in the human breast cancer cell line MCF7, a differentiated mammary cell line distinct from the mouse embryonic cells we analyzed previously. RNAi knockdown of *Gata3as*, *Nbr2*, and *Igf1ras* downregulated their corresponding divergent protein-coding genes, *GATA3*, *BRCA1*, and *IGF1R*, which are known to be involved in tumorigenesis (Figures 3C and S2F).

Finally, we investigated divergent regulation in an in vivo setting during early embryonic development. *Gata6as* and *GATA6* are co-activated at the morula and blastocyst stages of mouse embryos (Figure S2G). Microinjection of siRNAs against *Gata6as* into one-cell or two-cell embryos significantly attenuated transcriptional activation of *GATA6* and decreased the number of cells expressing *GATA6* in blastocysts by RT-qPCR and immunostaining (Figures 3D–3F and S2H).

In summary, among 24 divergent IncRNAs that we successfully knocked down, depletion of 18 (75%) led to downregulation of nearby protein-coding genes. Interestingly, knockdown of all 12 IncRNAs neighboring a transcription factor gene had a negative effect on their coding partners (Figure 3G). These results suggest that positive regulation on nearby transcription by divergent IncRNAs is a prevalent phenomenon in mouse and human. In comparison, among 20 genes in 12 divergent coding/coding pairs tested, only 4 (in three pairs) appeared to regulate nearby mRNA expression upon depletion (Figures 3G, S2I, and S2J).

Evx1as Is Required for Proper Activation of EVX1

To determine a true regulatory role of divergent IncRNAs, we characterized the *Evx1as/EVX1* locus in depth. Their expression is highly correlated during development (Figures S3A and S3B). In ESCs, both genes are repressed but are activated to peak expression on day 4 of LIF withdrawal and are specifically enriched in ME cells (Figures 4A–4C). RACE analysis revealed two isoforms of *Evx1as*. Both initiate within the first exon of *EVX1* and overlap by 8 nt with the *EVX1* mRNA in day 4 differentiated ESCs, while only the long isoform (~2,788 nt) can be detected by northern blot (Figure 4C).

We showed that *Evx1as* RNAi by seven shRNAs attenuates *EVX1* activation (Figure S2B). To control for possible off-target effects of RNAi, we used an alternative knockdown approach by antisense oligonucleotides (ASOs), which induce RNA degradation by recruiting RNase H to their target RNAs (Wheeler et al., 2012). We assayed the effect of *Evx1as* ASOs while we artificially activated *Evx1as* and *EVX1* by CRISPR-on (Konermann et al., 2015). Co-expression of sgRNAs targeting to the promoter region of *Evx1as/EVX1* with the transcription activator dCas9-VP64 increased levels of both transcripts by ~30- to 60-fold in

undifferentiated ESCs (Figures 4D and 4E). Consistent with RNAi, *Evx1as* knockdown by ASO attenuated *EVX1* activation during CRISPR-on (Figure 4E). In addition, inhibition of transcription elongation of *Evx1as* by CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) significantly downregulated both pre-mRNA and mRNA levels of *EVX1* (Figures S3C and S3D).

We next inactivated *Evx1as* or *EVX1* through genomic deletion (Figures 4D and S3E–S3I). *EVX1* activation during ESC differentiation or CRISPR-on is significantly blocked or attenuated in *Evx1as* null ESCs (Figures 4F and S3J). Importantly, nuclear run-on revealed that *Evx1as* ASOs, which degrade *Evx1as* RNA transcripts, attenuate the transcription rate of *EVX1* during CRISPR-on (Figures 4G). In addition, the decreased level of *Evx1as* nascent transcripts upon its depletion suggests a positive feedback of *Evx1as* RNA to regulate its own transcription. These results suggest that besides its DNA sequences, *Evx1as* RNA and/or transcription regulate transcriptional activation of *EVX1*. In contrast, *EVX1* knockout or RNAi failed to affect *Evx1as* expression (Figures 4F, S3I, and S3K).

Evx1as Promotes EVX1 Transcription in cis

Next, we studied whether overexpression of *Evx1as* or *EVX1* in ESCs affects the transcription of the other gene. Ectopic expression of *Evx1as* failed to alter *EVX1* mRNA levels (Figure S4A), arguing against *trans* regulation of *EVX1* transcription. To assess the *cis* effect, we knocked in a strong constitutive promoter (CMV early enhancer/chicken β actin [CAG] promoter) upstream of the *Evx1as* or *EVX1* TSS (Figures 4H, S4B, and S4C). Interestingly, CAG-knockin ESCs that overexpress *Evx1as* exhibited a 5-fold upregulation of *EVX1* mRNA (Figures 4I and S4D), suggesting a role of *Evx1as* in *cis* promoting the basal transcription of *EVX1* in ESCs. In comparison, neither *trans* nor *cis* overexpression of *EVX1* affected *Evx1as* transcript levels (Figures 4I and S4A), indicating that *EVX1* is dispensable for *Evx1as* expression.

Considering that genomic alterations may disrupt regulatory DNA in the Evx1as/EVX1 promoters, we sought to guide and tether the Evx1as RNA to the Evx1as/EVX1 locus by a CRISPRmediated strategy (Shechner et al., 2015). We co-transfected a catalytically dead dCas9 with an RNA transcript fused with an sgRNA (Figure 4H). Compared with controls targeting a nonrelated locus (the TSS of REX1), tethering Evx1as RNA (both short and long isoforms) to the promoter of Evx1as/EVX1 significantly increased the levels of EVX1 pre-mRNAs and mRNAs (Figures 4J and S4E). In comparison, the levels of EVX1 mRNA, but not pre-mRNA, were elevated to a less extent by tethering a reverse sequence of Evx1as RNA (Figure 4J). Tethering GFP, HOTTIP, or EVX1 RNA to the Evx1as/EVX1 locus failed to increase EVX1 transcription (Figures S4E and S4F). Tethering Evx1as RNA to the REX1 promoter had no effect on the level of REX1 mRNA (Figure S4G), indicating context- or sequencedependent IncRNA regulation. Thus, RNA tethering demonstrates a direct role for Evx1as RNA in cis regulation of EVX1 transcription.

Evx1as Binds to Its Own Locus and Promotes Chromatin Looping

Subcellular fractionation detected *Evx1as* RNA present in both cytoplasm and nucleus, and most of the nuclear *Evx1as* is bound



Figure 3. Prevalent Transcriptional Regulation of Nearby Genes by Divergent IncRNAs

(A) Heatmap of the expression of 16 randomly selected divergent IncRNA/coding gene pairs during RA-induced ESC differentiation. Gene names in red or blue indicate that IncRNA knockdown affected or failed to affect the nearby mRNA, respectively.

(B and C) Representative knockdowns for genes (B) shown in (A) or in MCF7 cells (C). The y axis represents relative mean expression normalized to *GADPH* and the scramble shRNA (Ctrl) cells. Data are shown as mean \pm SD (n = 4, including two technical repeats for two independent knockdown). *p < 0.05. (D) *Gata6as* RNAi in mouse zygotes attenuates the activation of *GATA6* in blastocysts (E4.25). The y axis represents relative expression normalized to *TUB4* (n = 4 independent injection). *p < 0.05.

(E and F) *Gata6as* RNAi decreases the number of cells expressing *GATA6* in blastocysts (E3.75). siRNAs were co-injected with *H2B-GFP* mRNA into one cell of two-cell embryos. GATA6 staining is in red and GFP in white; the dotted yellow lines indicate the inner cell mass of blastocyst embryos. The y axis (F) shows the ratio of GATA6⁺, GFP⁺ double-positive cells versus the total number of GATA6⁺ cells. Each symbol represents one injected embryo. *p < 0.05. (G) Statistical summary of the IncRNAs and protein-coding genes analyzed by RNAi.

See also Figure S2 and Table S5.

to chromatin (Figure S5A). Consistent with its association on chromatin, RNA fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) typically detected one or two nuclear signals from *Evx1as* transcripts (Figures 5A, S5B, and S5C). RNA FISH failed to detect cytosolic *Evx1as*, likely resulting from their diffused presence and low cytosolic concentrations.

To reveal the DNA targets of *Evx1as* transcripts, we performed chromatin isolation by RNA purification (ChIRP) using antisense oligos tiling along the entire *Evx1as* transcript sequence that does not overlap with *EVX1* (Chu et al., 2011) (Figure S5D). Undifferentiated ESCs that do not express *Evx1as* failed to yield any significant DNA peaks, demonstrating the specificity of RNA affinity capture in our ChIRP-seq assay (Figures 5B and S5E).

ChIRP-seq analysis of day 4 differentiated ESCs revealed that *Evx1as* RNA transcripts coat their own gene locus and extend >50 kb downstream of its annotated transcript end site (TES) (Figure S5E). In contrast, polyA and ribominus total RNA-seq show no or few signal reads beyond the annotated TES of *Evx1as* (Figures 4A and S5F). In addition, analysis of chromatin-bound RNA in macrophages failed to detect significant signals beyond cleavage and polyadenylation sites of genes (Bhatt et al., 2012). Thus, it is less likely that *Evx1as* ChIRP-seq captures a rare nuclear, chromatin-bound transcript that goes beyond the annotated boundary of *Evx1as*.

Evx1as ChIRP-seq show signals concentrated around the last exon and the 3' downstream region that overlaps with a potential enhancer site, which is enriched in DNase I hypersensitivity signals, H3K4me3, H3K4me1, and H3K27ac marks, as well as multiple chromatin and transcription regulators in ESCs (Figures 5B and S5F). While moderate binding observed at the promoters, ChIRP-qPCR confirmed that *Evx1as* RNA, but not *EVX1* mRNA, binds strongly to this 3' regulatory site (Figure 5C). Its deletion from the genome resulted in attenuated activation of *Evx1as* and *EVX1* for ~2-fold during ESC differentiation (Figures S5G and S5H), suggesting its role as an enhancer in regulating the expression of *Evx1as/EVX1*.

CRISPR-on by sgRNAs targeting to this potential enhancer site increased the levels of both *Evx1as* and *EVX1* transcripts by ~10- to 17-fold in WT ESCs, whereas no obvious increase was observed in ESCs treated with *Evx1as* ASO (Figure 5D). Tethering *Evx1as* RNA to this site moderately increased the level of *EVX1* mRNA (Figure S5I). Thus, chromatin association of *Evx1as* RNA may promote enhancer activity. Interestingly, this potential enhancer site interacts with the promoter of *Evx1as*/*EVX1* by SMC1 ChIA-PET analysis in ESCs (Dowen et al., 2014) (Figures 5B and S5F). We performed chromatin conformation capture (3C) and found that differentiation further enhances their interaction by 2-fold (Figure 5E). However, this increase was not detected in *Evx1as* null ESCs, suggesting a role of *Evx1as* in modulating the enhancer-promoter interaction (Figure 5E).

Evx1as Facilitates Mediator Binding and an Active Chromatin State

LncRNA-mediated recruitment of epigenetic regulators on chromatin has been described previously (Lai et al., 2013; Trimarchi et al., 2014). MED1 and MED12 are the core and kinase components of Mediator, a multiprotein complex that functions as a transcriptional coactivator, respectively (Malik and Roeder, 2010). Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) showed that both MED1 and MED12 bind to the promoter and potential enhancer of *Evx1as/EVX1* in ESCs, and differentiation further enhances their chromatin association (Figures 5F and S5J). This increase correlates with activation of *Evx1as/EVX1* at day 4 differentiation; however, it is completely blocked in *Evx1as* null ESCs (Figure 5G). In comparison, CTCF binds to the potential enhancer but not the promoter in an *Evx1as*-independent manner (Figure S5K).

We then wondered whether *Evx1as* might interact with regulatory proteins bound locally on chromatin. We performed RNA immunoprecipitation (RIP) of Mediator, CTCF, WDR5, and EZH2 as well as FLAG-tagged EVX1. Interestingly, only MED1 and MED12 captured *Evx1as* RNA transcripts but not *EVX1* or *T* mRNA in differentiated ESCs (Figure 5H; data not shown). Consistently, biotin-labeled *Evx1as* transcripts but not the control *GFP* RNA captured MED1 and MED12 in vitro (Figure S5L). Moreover, *MED12* knockdown by RNAi resulted in attenuated activation of *Evx1as* and *EVX1* during ESC differentiation (Figure S5M).

Activation of *Evx1as/EVX1* in day 4 differentiation is accompanied by an increased binding of H3K4me3 and H3K27ac at the promoter region (Figures 5I and 5J). However, differentiated *Evx1as* null ESCs failed to increase these active histone modifications despite normal levels of H3K27me3 at the promoter (Figures 5I and 5J; data not shown). In addition, the level of H3K27ac at the potential enhancer site is also increased during differentiation in WT ESCs, but not in *Evx1as* null ESCs (Figure 5I). Based on these results, we propose that chromatin association of *Evx1as* transcripts may facilitate the binding of the Mediator complex to shape a local, active chromatin environment required for activation of *EVX1*.

Evx1as and *EVX1* Show Distinct Expression Dynamics in Single Cells

Next, to distinguish between the cause and consequence of IncRNA expression, we sought to investigate whether Evx1as and EVX1 are differentially regulated at the single-cell level during the time course of ESC differentiation (Figures 6A, S6A, and S6B). During the early stage of ESC differentiation, Evx1as exhibits low-level expression in 17%-26% of cells with a median of 17 molecules per cell on day 0 and 23 molecules on day 2 (Figures 6B-6D). On days 3 and 4, 55% to 62% of cells express Evx1as with 56 and 65 transcripts per cell, respectively. In comparison, EVX1 RNA transcripts are not detected on days 0 and 2 but reach a median of 326 molecules per cell in ${\sim}14\%$ cells on day 3, suggesting a rapid and synchronous activation of EVX1. On day 4, 19% of cells express EVX1, with 411 transcripts per cell. On day 6, only 4% of cells express EVX1 with 614 transcripts per cell, whereas 59% of cells still express Evx1as with 44 transcripts per cell. Thus, Evx1as exhibits a gradual increase in transcript abundance and an early, broad, yet low-level expression pattern during ESC differentiation, whereas EVX1 exhibits a burst of high-level transcription in a relatively confined population of cells.

Interestingly, most of the *EVX1*-expressing cells co-express *Evx1as* (Figure 6C). *Evx1as* expression accompanies the time course of *EVX1* activation and deactivation, suggesting that *Evx1as* modulates both the extent and kinetics of *EVX1* expression. On the other hand, many *Evx1as*-expressing cells do not



Figure 4. Evx1as Promotes EVX1 Transcription in cis

(A) The Evx1as/EVX1 gene locus. Two Evx1as isoforms are detected by rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE).

(B) Co-activation of *Evx1as* and *EVX1* during ESC differentiation induced by LIF withdrawal.

(C) Northern blot detected the long isoform of Evx1as.

(D) Schematic diagram of CRISPR/Cas9-mediated activation (CRISPR-on) and knockouts (KO). Arrowheads indicate relative locations of sgRNAs.

express *EVX1*, indicating that *Evx1as* alone may not suffice for *EVX1* activation. Alternatively, *Evx1as* might inhibit *EVX1* transcription in some contexts that do not need *EVX1* expression. Nevertheless, the distinct expression profiles revealed by single-cell time-course analysis support the notion that *Evx1as* functions upstream to facilitate rapid, high-level transcription of *EVX1* when required.

Evx1as and *EVX1* Help to Regulate Mesendodermal Differentiation

In vitro differentiation of ESCs induced by LIF withdrawal resembles gastrulation of the early post-implantation embryo (Keller, 2005). ME cells in vivo are transiently present in the primitive streak of early embryo prior to further differentiation into mesoderm/posterior streak and endoderm/anterior streak (Tam and Loebel, 2007). EVX1, a homeodomain transcription factor, is a concentration-dependent repressor (Briata et al., 1995; Dush and Martin, 1992). It promotes mesoderm differentiation by inhibiting *GSC*, an endoderm/anterior streak gene (Kalisz et al., 2012).

Interestingly, Evx1as RNAi blocked activation of all ME-related marker genes analyzed, including T, GSC, EOMES, and SOX17 (Figure 7A). Consistently, RNA-seq and gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed global underrepresentation of ME genes in day 4 differentiated Evx1as null and knockdown ESCs compared with the WT control (Figures 7B-7D and S6C-S6E; Table S6). This result indicates a role of Evx1as RNA and its DNA locus in regulating ESC differentiation. GO analysis showed that downregulated genes are significantly enriched in terms related to mesendodermal development (Figure 7C). In comparison. EVX1 null and knockdown cells exhibit moderate decreases in expression of a subset of ME and mesoderm/ posterior streak genes, including T and WNT5a, but aberrant upregulation of markers known to be expressed in cells toward the anterior of the streak (GSC, LHX1, CXCR4, EOMES) and definitive endoderm (SOX17 and FOXA2) (Figures 7D and S6E-S6G; Table S6). Expression changes revealed by RNA-seq were confirmed by analysis of marker genes (Figures 7E and 7F).

Moreover, consistent with the failure to fully activate ME differentiation, *Evx1as* null ESCs show increased expression of a subset of neural genes and pluripotency genes, whereas only moderate increases were observed in *EVX1* null ESCs (Figures 7B and 7D). In comparison, overexpression of *Evx1as in trans* had no effect on the expression of differentiation genes (Figure S6H), suggesting that the role of *Evx1as* in lineage differentiation likely results from its *cis*-regulatory function and may be partly mediated through *EVX1*. As mesoderm and endoderm development are tightly coupled, the divergent *Evx1as/EVX1* gene locus helps to regulate mesoderm or endoderm fate choices through coordinated expression of *Evx1as* and *EVX1*, leading to orchestrated lineage differentiation of ESCs (Figure 7G).

DISCUSSION

Proteins are believed to be the major functional executors in cells and organisms. It is intriguing how their expression might be regulated by the noncoding portions of the genome, including thousands of IncRNA transcripts, resulting in greater morphological diversity in higher eukaryotes. A non-random distribution of IncRNAs in the genome suggests that locus classification is an effective first step toward a genome-wide understanding of RNA-mediated gene regulation. To unravel the functional linkage between IncRNAs and nearby coding genes, we focused on one class of IncRNA-the divergent biotype. These IncRNAs are particularly interesting because (1) they comprise a significant proportion of all IncRNA genes in mammalian genomes, (2) they tend to co-localize and co-express with developmental and transcription regulator genes, (3) they associate with regulatory epigenetic marks, and (4) they have deeper evolutionary origins than intergenic lincRNAs. However, the prevalence of divergent IncRNA-mediated transcription regulation has been underappreciated, and the functions and mechanisms of action of divergent IncRNAs are not fully understood.

Divergent IncRNAs Mediate Genuine *cis* Regulation of Nearby Transcription

The evolutionary origins and maturation of divergent IncRNAs suggest that they are advantageous to organisms and have thus become fixed in populations. In yeast and bacteria, genes that must respond in a switch-like manner, such as stressresponse and environment-specific genes, are enriched for antisense expression (Qi and Arkin, 2014; Xu et al., 2011). In metazoans with compact genomes, such as C. elegans and Drosophila, 64% to 71% of IncRNAs are positioned divergently to protein-coding genes (Table S1). These neighbor genes are enriched in functions related to morphogenesis, transcription, chromatin organization, and locomotion (data not shown). Thus, divergent IncRNA/coding gene organization tends to be ancient and conserved, reflecting selection to preserve its functionality. It has been hypothesized that divergent IncRNAs might represent an evolutionary intermediate between upstream antisense RNAs and protein-coding genes (Wu and Sharp, 2013).

The genomic loci and flanking regions of developmental and transcription factor genes tend to be replete with conserved noncoding sequences (Ponjavic et al., 2009; Woolfe et al., 2005). Some divergent IncRNA loci, including *Fendrr* and *Mdgt*, appear to be essential for animal development and survival (Grote et al.,

⁽E and G) Effects of *Evx1as* knockdown by ASO on steady-state RNA levels (E) or nascent transcripts in nuclear run-on (G) during CRISPR-on. The sgRNAs *a* and *b* target the promoters of *Evx1as*/*EVX1*, and "nc" targets to a random sequence.

⁽F) Analysis of knockout ESCs. Four independent clones are shown for each gene.

⁽H) Schematic diagram of CAG knockin (KI) and RNA tethering.

⁽I) Analysis of CAG knockin ESCs. The y axis represents the fold change compared with WT ESCs. n = 4 independent knockin ESC clones.

⁽J) The effect of tethering *Evx1as* transcripts to the *Evx1as/EVX1* promoters. *Evx1as* (a short isoform [s]; or a reverse short isoform [rs]) or *GFP* RNA fused with either of sgRNA *a* and *b* or with an sgRNA targeting the TSS of *REX1*. The y axis represents the fold enrichment of RNA tethering to the *Evx1as/EVX1* promoters normalized to the corresponding RNA tethering to the *REX1* TSS (*p < 0.05).

In (B), (E)–(G), (I), and (J), RT-qPCR data are shown as mean ± SD (n = 3 biological replicates unless otherwise indicated). *p < 0.05 compared with the controls. See also Figures S3 and S4.



2013; Sauvageau et al., 2013). One might propose that the function of divergent IncRNAs may result from its sequence overlap with DNA motifs shared with nearby genes or reflect coupled transcription across neighboring loci because they are subject to common regulatory sequences and local chromatin features (Ebisuya et al., 2008). However, we discounted this notion for the following reasons.

First, the fact that genic IncRNA/coding gene pairs exhibited significantly higher expression correlation than genic coding/ coding pairs argues against a simple proximity effect. Second, Fendrr knockdown specifically affected its divergently positioned gene FOXF1, but not other nearby genes. Third, EVX1 appears to be dispensable for Evx1as expression. Fourth, depletion of Evx1as transcripts by loss-of-function approaches without altering genomic sequences, including CRISPRi, RNAi, and ASOs, led to downregulation of EVX1. On the other hand, tethering of Evx1as RNA alone to the Evx1as/EVX1 locus increased the basal transcription of EVX1. Fifth, Evx1as transcripts bind to their own locus on chromatin and interact with Mediator, providing a mechanistic evidence for IncRNA-mediated cis regulation. Sixth, differences in expression levels and activation kinetics between Evx1as and EVX1 in single cells support the hypothesis that IncRNAs transcriptionally regulate the divergent locus. Finally, compared with 75% of IncRNAs exhibiting a cis regulatory effect, only ~20%-25% of divergent coding/coding genes analyzed appear to have an effect on nearby transcription upon depletion. Although we cannot rule out the idea that divergent coding transcripts have a regulatory role, it appears more common for the divergent IncRNA/coding pairs than the coding/coding pairs, at least in the subset that we studied. Rare cases have been reported that the mRNA of a divergent protein-coding gene, Wrap53, functions as a noncoding transcript to regulate nearby p53 gene transcription (Mahmoudi et al., 2009; Saldaña-Meyer et al., 2014). Thus, functional interaction between nearby IncRNAs and protein-coding genes likely reflects genuine cis regulation by IncRNAs rather than being a simple consequence of transcriptional coupling due to proximity.

Mechanistic Investigation of *Evx1as* Function on *EVX1* Transcription

While coating chromatin, *Evx1as* RNA appears to simultaneously assemble relevant chromatin complexes and promote chromatin looping. Our results support a hypothesized role for divergent transcripts in signaling or guiding chromatin complexes to shape

local chromatin state and structure. Despite its low-level expression, the *cis* tethering of *Evx1as* RNA to transcription sites suggests that local, effective concentration of divergent RNA transcripts may be sufficient to modulate expression of both the lncRNA and its nearest neighbor. Thus, divergent lncRNAs may provide another layer of transcription regulation in addition to promoters, enhancers, and terminators. Compared with *cis*regulatory DNA elements, lncRNA transcripts that lack coding potential are more flexible, mobile, and transient, thus providing a convenient means to precisely regulate nearby gene expression in a site-specific manner.

Early, broad expression of Evx1as in single cells suggests that Evx1as may have a "window of opportunity" in which to integrate multiple regulatory signals and to prime a permissive yet poised chromatin and/or transcription state, allowing for rapid activation of nearby EVX1 in response to induction signals. Interestingly, EVX1 exhibits an abrupt, synchronous activation in day 3 differentiated ESCs, which correlates with the early induction of ME. Synchronous activation of EVX1 has also been identified in mouse pre-gastrulation embryos (Dush and Martin, 1992). EVX1 transcripts are not detected at embryonic day E6.0 but are present a short time later at approximately E6.25 in a localized region of epiblast cells that will soon be found in the primitive streak. The importance of transcription synchrony has been demonstrated in fly (Lagha et al., 2013). Replacement of the strongly paused snail promoter with non-paused promoters causes stochastic activation of snail expression and disrupted mesoderm invagination during fly morphogenesis. We speculate that synchronous activation of EVX1 mediated by Evx1as may be similarly required for coordinated cell behavior during ME induction in vitro and in vivo.

Evx1as Modulates ME Differentiation

The fact that both *Evx1as* and *EVX1* promote ME differentiation toward mesoderm/posterior streak fates is consistent with a regulatory role of *Evx1as* on *EVX1* transcription. Intriguingly, *Evx1as* null ESCs show severe downregulation of ME, mesodermal, and endodermal genes, whereas *EVX1* null ESCs show a modest decrease in few ME genes but significant upregulation of endodermal and anterior streak genes. A convenient explanation is that *Evx1as* might have functions beyond controlling *EVX1* expression, as supported by the fact that a significant proportion of *Evx1as* is found present in cytoplasm by cell fractionation. However, other protein substrates of *Evx1as* await further analysis if they exist. In addition, ChIRP-seq did not reveal additional

Figure 5. Evx1as Modulates Local Chromatin State and Configuration

(A) Evx1as RNA FISH in day 4 differentiated ESCs. Scale bar represents 10 $\mu m.$

⁽B) The *Evx1as/EVX1* locus in genome browser. The upper tracks show normalized read densities of *Evx1as* ChIRP-seq in day 0 and day 4 differentiated ESCs. Tracks below show signals of DNase I hypersensitivity, ChIP-seq, and SMC1 ChIA-PET in ESCs. The potential enhancer is boxed in light green.

⁽C) Chromatin association of *Evx1as* or *EVX1* RNA. The y axis shows fold enrichment in day 4 ESCs to an unrelated region ("nc," primers *CSa*) and ChIRP signals in day 0 ESCs.

⁽D) Effects of *Evx1as* knockdown by ASO during CRISPR-on at the potential enhancer in ESCs. Relative locations of sgRNAs g and h are shown as arrowheads in (B).

⁽E) 3C analysis in WT and *Evx1as* null ESCs on days 0 and 4 of LIF withdrawal. Relative locations of 3C primers upstream of each *Bcll* or BgIII site (vertical lines) are shown at the bottom of (B).

⁽F, G, I, and J) ChIP-qPCR of Mediator (F), MED12 (G), H3K27ac (I), and H3K4me3 (J). The y axis shows fold enrichment normalized to the "nc" (CSa) and the input. In (J), promoter primers are shown sequentially on the top of (B).

⁽H) RIP-qPCR of Mediator. The y axis shows fold enrichment relative to the input and GAPDH mRNA.

In (C)–(J), data are shown as mean ± SD (n = 3 biological replicates unless otherwise indicated). *p < 0.05. See also Figure S5.



Figure 6. Single-Cell Time-Course Analysis of *Evx1as* and *EVX1* Expression during ESC Differentiation (A) The scheme.

(B) Single-cell scatter plots showing the abundance of *Evx1* as and *EVX1* RNA. Dotted lines indicate thresholds set at more than two RNA molecules per cell. The total number (*n*) of cells analyzed is shown on the top. The inset tables show the number of cells in three of the four quadrants delineated by the thresholds. Cells subjected to a preamplification or without amplification before qPCR detection are represented by red or blue dots, respectively. (C) The percentages of cells expressing *Evx1* as and/or *EVX1* during differentiation.

(D) Plot of the number of *Evx1as* and *EVX1* molecules per cell during differentiation. Cells expressing *Evx1as* and *EVX1* are shown by red and blue dots, respectively. Median numbers of RNA molecules per cell are indicated only if a cell population contained five or more cells at each time point. See also Figure S6.



(legend on next page)

genomic targets of *Evx1as*, ruling out its *trans* activity in regulating different target gene(s) on chromatin.

Alternatively, the precise spatiotemporal expression of *EVX1* may be required for ME-related differentiation. In *Drosophila*, the pair-rule segmentation gene *even skipped* (eve), the fly homolog of *EVX1*, acts as a concentration-dependent morphogen repressing different genes at different concentrations in different locations (Fujioka et al., 1995; Jaynes and Fujioka, 2004). Although it is specifically expressed in odd-numbered stripes, *eve* null alleles completely abolish all segmentation, while weak *eve* mutations cause deletions of alternate segments (Manou-kian and Krause, 1992).

Knockout of EVX1 in ESCs likely affects only a small subset of cells co-expressing Evx1as and EVX1. In contrast, deletion of Evx1as, the upstream regulator of EVX1, may affect a broader population of cells, resulting in stochastic and low-level expression of EVX1 in cells that should either express EVX1 at high levels or not express EVX1. Dysregulated expression of EVX1 in Evx1as null ESCs may elicit a severe, pleiotropic effect on mesendodermal cells and the subsequent differentiation of mesoderm and endoderm lineages than a simple, complete loss of the EVX1 gene in EVX1 null ESCs. Consistent with the cis-regulatory role of Evx1as in controlling EVX1 transcription, this model supports the notion that the overall level and extent of EVX1 expression must be tightly regulated by Evx1as and reinforces the importance of IncRNA-mediated transcriptional control to ensure that genes are expressed in the right amounts at the correct times in cell populations.

Prevalence and Functional Inference of *cis*-Regulatory IncRNAs

In diverse in vitro and in vivo contexts we tested, including pluripotency maintenance, lineage differentiation, reprogramming, human cancer, and zygotic development, IncRNA depletion caused decreased expression of nearby genes in most cases. Cases of transcriptional inhibition by divergent IncRNAs have been reported (Ariel et al., 2014; Han et al., 2014; Latos et al., 2012). The outcome of IncRNA-mediated control can be activation or silencing dependent on the biological context required for the function of a IncRNA. We propose that divergent IncRNAmediated transcription regulation of nearby genes may represent a common mechanism that is utilized to finely tune the spatiotemporal expression of pleiotropic developmental loci, thus contributing in part to the increased phenotypic complexity of higher eukaryotes (Figure 7G).

Evidence shows that IncRNAs as a class are preferentially located in the chromatin and nucleus of the cell when compared with protein-coding mRNAs (Derrien et al., 2012). Analysis of chromatin-associated RNAs suggested that IncRNAs, as an integral component of chromatin, may regulate various biological functions through fine-tuning the chromatin architecture (Mondal et al., 2010). We suspect that IncRNA-mediated cis regulation is unlikely to be limited to the divergent IncRNA biotype and might be prevalent among protein-coding genes with a nearby IncRNA. Lack of Evx1as causes global defects in activating ME-related differentiation programs known to involve nearby EVX1, suggesting that divergent IncRNAs may participate in biological processes similar to those controlled by the nearby protein-coding genes. From this point of view, the functionality of many uncharacterized IncRNAs can be rapidly predicted from the function of their neighboring protein-coding genes. We believe that this functional inference will help to generate meaningful hypothesis and better experimental designs when investigating IncRNA transcripts whose functions are largely unknown.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Additional experimental procedures and details are provided in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures. DNA sequences for primers, shRNAs, siRNAs, ASOs, sgRNA, and ChIRP probes are listed in Table S7.

LncRNA Classification

LncRNAs were classified into locus biotypes based on their transcription orientation and the positions of their transcription start and end sites with respect to nearby protein-coding loci (5-kb distance cutoff).

Bioinformatics Analysis

The observed fraction of protein-coding genes that are located in a defined genomic distance from a neighboring IncRNA or coding gene was compared with simulated distributions by random positioning. Pairwise Pearson correlation analysis of each IncRNA with its nearest ten genes was performed across 23 human tissues. GO and phenotype terms with $p < 1 \times 10^{-6}$ were considered significant. In evolutionary age analysis, we dated IncRNA genes on the vertebrate phylogenetic tree by following a previous strategy (Zhang et al., 2010). We filtered out sequences overlapping with protein-coding exons to avoid bias caused by neighboring genes. All RNA-seq and ChIP-seq datasets used in this study are listed in Table S8.

Cell Culture and Knockdown Analysis

ESC differentiation, reprogramming, and knockdown are described in the Supplemental Experimental Procedures. *Evx1as* ASOs were transfected to cells carrying CRISPR-on transfection. siRNAs were injected into mouse one-cell

Figure 7. *Evx1as* and *EVX1* Are Required for Mesendodermal Differentiation

(A) Marker gene analysis of Evx1as knockdown by RNAi during ESC differentiation.

(B) *Evx1as* null ESCs show global downregulation of ME genes and upregulation of ESC genes by GSEA. Normalized enrichment score (NES) and nominal p values are shown.

(C) GO analysis of downregulated genes in day 4 differentiated Evx1as null cells.

(G) A *cis*-regulatory model. *Evx1as* RNA stays attached on chromatin to its site of transcription and the downstream regulatory region and locally facilitates the binding of the transcription coactivator Mediator, which may help assembly of relevant chromatin and transcription machineries, thereby promoting an open chromatin configuration and contacts at the shared promoter and enhancer ("E") that are required for efficient transcription of *EVX1*. The role of *Evx1as* in ESC differentiation may be partly mediated through EVX1 and/or through functions beyond controlling *EVX1* expression (indicated by the dotted arrow). Nevertheless, the entire *Evx1as/EVX1* gene locus is required for orchestrated lineage differentiation of ESCs. TF, transcription factor; PIC, the preinitiation complex. See also Figure S6 and Table S6.

⁽D) Heatmap of the expression of representative genes on day 4 ESC differentiation.

⁽E and F) RT-qPCR analysis of *Evx1as* null (E) and *EVX1*-null (F) ESCs on day 4 differentiation. The y axis shows expression relative to *GADPH* and the control. Data are shown as mean \pm SD (n = 3 biological replicates). *p < 0.05 compared with the control.

or two-cell embryos. Mouse work follows the animal ethics rules at Tsinghua University.

CRISPR/Cas9-Mediated Genome Editing, Activation, and RNA Tethering

CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knockout and knockin, CRISPR-on, and RNA tethering were performed as previously described (Konermann et al., 2015; Shechner et al., 2015; Yin et al., 2015).

Nuclear Run-On, ChIRP, and 3C

Nuclear run-on, ChIRP, and the 3C analysis were performed as previously described (Patrone et al., 2000; Yin et al., 2015).

Single-Cell Analysis, Northern Blotting, and RNA FISH

Single-cell analysis was performed as described previously (Tang et al., 2010). A threshold of two RNA molecules per cell and five or more cells expressing more than two molecules of the corresponding RNA was chosen for calculating the median expression levels. About 1 μ g of enriched polyA+ RNA was loaded per lane in Northern blot analysis. In FISH, a total of 48 probes labeled with Quasar570 were used to target *Evx1as* RNA (Stellaris).

ACCESSION NUMBERS

The accession numbers for ChIRP-seq and RNA-seq reported in this paper are GEO: GSE70420, GEO: GSE70419, GEO: GSE62899, and GEO: GSE58514.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, six figures, and eight tables and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.stem.2016.01.024.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

X.S. conceived of and supervised the study. X.S. and S.L. designed the experiments. S.L., J.Y.L., L.L., Y.Y., X.H., B.W., R.X., W.L., P.Y., and W.S. performed experiments. J.Y.L. performed bioinformatics analyses. C.C. and Y.E.Z. performed evolutionary analysis. Z.L., H.L., J.N., F.T., and J.W. contributed reagents/technical assistance/suggestions. X.S. wrote the manuscript with help from S.L. and J.Y.L.

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