# 1 Supplemental Information

2	Non-Coding RNAs Improve the Predictive Power of Network Medicine
3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 2 1 3 1 4 5 6 7 8 9 0 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Deisy Morselli Gysi and Albert-László Barabási
10	Table of Contents
19 20	1 Non-Coding RNAs: A Short Review2
21	2 Database Construction5
22	2.1 Non-coding RNA Databases5
23	2.2 Gene Disease Databases7
24	2.3 Degree Distribution9
25	3 Gene Co-expression Networks10
26	4 The effect on non-coding RNAs in Drugs11
27	5 Tables
28	6 Figures
29	7 References

### **1** NON-CODING RNAS: A SHORT REVIEW

The non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) are responsible for different biological functions, such as the maintenance of gene expression. In brief, gene expression relies on DNA as a template for RNAs which then migrate to the cytoplasm, where they are translated into proteins. Yet, not all RNAs will be translated into proteins, and many ncRNAs are needed for diverse cell functions<sup>1</sup>.

The small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs) are mainly involved with the mRNA splicing, 37 Transfer RNAs (tRNAs) are the decoders from mRNAs into peptides or proteins, they recognize 38 three nucleotide sequences in the mRNA (codons) and recruit amino acids in the same 39 sequence to ribosomes; Ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs), the most abundant RNA molecules in the 40 cell, are the building blocks for ribosomes, essential for protein translation (housekeeping 41 RNAs). Some housekeeping RNAs can carry modifications, added by small nucleolar RNAs 42 (snoRNAs)<sup>2</sup>. Small double-stranded RNAs (dsRNAs) are known to mediate post-43 transcriptional gene silencing of mRNAs, by a process known as RNA interference (RNAi)<sup>3</sup>. 44 Additionally, some ncRNAs were also discovered to be involved in regulatory processes such as 45 46 micro RNAs (miRNAs), piwi-associated RNAs (piRNAs), and small interfering RNAs (siRNAs).

47 **MicroRNAs (miRNAs)** are a family of small nonprotein coding RNAs, that contain ~ 22 48 nucleotides<sup>4</sup>, and function as important regulators of gene expression (activating or repressing 49 their translation<sup>4,5</sup>, and mainly act at the post-transcriptional level<sup>6</sup>A mature miRNA can 50 recognize their mRNA targets by base-pairing the seed region (2-8 of the miRNA nucleotides) 51 to the complementary region on the targeted mRNA<sup>7</sup>. Each miRNA can have hundreds of

targets and has been estimated that the human genome has more than 1000 miRNAs and 52 about 10 to 30% of all human genes may be regulated by miRNAs<sup>8</sup>. One can use Argonaute 53 (AGO) immunoprecipitation followed by high-throughput sequencing, termed AGO CLIP-seq, 54 to examine the association between miRNA and mRNAs in a very specific manner<sup>9,10</sup>. 55 56 However, this technique does not provide a direct linkage between miRNA and its mRNAs targets, but it uses as an intermediate the argonaute protein (AGO), which binds to miRNAs. 57 To overcome this issue, a new technology called CLASH (crosslinking, ligation, and sequencing) 58 of hybrids) has been proposed<sup>11</sup>, which ligates the 5 end of an AGO-bound miRNA to the 3 59 end of an AGO-bound mRNA, and as consequence, it provides direct linkage information of the 60 two RNAs<sup>12,13</sup>. Because miRNAs function in a similar manner as Transcription Factors (TF), they 61 have an intertwined and well-regulated network<sup>14</sup> that can contribute to disease 62 development<sup>15</sup> such as asthma<sup>16</sup> and schizophrenia<sup>17</sup>, when mutated or dysregulated miRNAs 63 are highly associated with lack of function, such as neurogenesis<sup>18</sup>. 64

**PIWI-interacting RNAs (piRNAs)**, were discovered from germlines, and are a little bit 65 66 longer than miRNAs (24-32 nucleotides), piRNAs originate from single-strand RNAs, as 67 opposed to miRNAs that originate from double-stranded RNAs and require post-processing. 68 piRNAs act by directly cleaving mRNAs<sup>19</sup>. Until 2018 more than 8 million piRNAs have been discovered in humans<sup>20</sup>. Similarly, **small interfering RNA (siRNA)**, like miRNAs, are part of the 69 RNAi class. Those are double-stranded ncRNAs with ~ 20-25 nucleotides and they are involved 70 with the cell defense against undesired transcripts<sup>21</sup> and external invasion<sup>22</sup> and probably being 71 our first biological mechanism that acted as the immune system<sup>22</sup>. siRNAs are highly 72 sequence-specific, and in theory, can silence any disease-related genes, by mediating targeted 73

mRNA. Given that, three drugs using siRNAs have been already approved to treat hereditary amyloidogenic transthyretin and acute hepatic porphyria diseases<sup>22,23</sup> and several others are in clinical trials for hemophilia, acute kidney injury, and others are being studied for IBD<sup>24</sup> and Ocular Diseases<sup>25</sup>; for a review see <sup>26</sup>.

Long non-coding RNAs (IncRNA) are a family of nonprotein coding RNAs that exceed 78 200 nucleotides<sup>27</sup>, present a poly-A tail, similar to mRNAs, and have potential to be spliced. 79 Even though only a small number has been well-characterized<sup>28</sup>, it is known that lncRNAs are 80 involved in a wide range of biological functions, such as X-chromosome inactivation<sup>29,30</sup>, 81 imprinting<sup>31,32</sup>, they can act as Gene Regulatory Factors (GRFs), and interact with one or more 82 proteins<sup>33–35</sup>, they also can bind to chromatin<sup>36</sup>, enhancers<sup>37</sup> and act as sponges for miRNA<sup>38</sup>. 83 Moreover, IncRNAs are associated with multiple diseases<sup>39</sup>, including different types of 84 85 cancers<sup>40</sup>, autoimmune neuropathies<sup>14</sup>, and neurodegenerative diseases<sup>41</sup>. Due to their function as GRF, IncRNAs can physically interact with proteins, and the measurement of the 86 physical binding started by the low-throughput assays such as RNA electrophoretic mobility 87 88 shift assay<sup>42</sup>, RNA pull-down assay<sup>43</sup>, oligonucleotide-targeted RNase H protection assay<sup>44</sup>, and FISH co-localization<sup>45</sup>. However, these methods offer only limited information, mainly due 89 to the many-to-many bindings that occur between proteins and RNAs. Nowadays, several 90 different high-throughput methods exist, that can be classified into protein-focused and RNA-91 focused<sup>28</sup>. The protein-focused focus is on the binding of RNAs to a protein of interest and can 92 be further classified into in vitro or in vivo. In the in vitro approaches, RNA libraries are tested 93 against a protein, and high-affinity RNAs are isolated after rounds of selection. In the in vivo 94 methods, RNAs bound to the protein of interest in a sample are pulled down using variants of 95

96 immunoprecipitation techniques. In RNA-focused approaches, the goal is to identify all 97 proteins bound to an RNA of interest. For a review with a complete description and 98 comparison of the methods, see <sup>28</sup>. Of note, the IncRNA CRNDE has been identified as a 99 promising target for the therapeutic treatment of prostate cancer by targeting miR-146a-5p<sup>46</sup>. 100

100

### 101 2 DATABASE CONSTRUCTION

102 2.1 NON-CODING RNA DATABASES

We combine data from nine publicly available datasets that compile experimentally validated non-coding interactions. We describe each dataset, its data, and its normalization procedure. Table S 1 details their gene composition and interactions.

106 **DIANA Tools**<sup>47</sup> ranges from target prediction algorithms to databases of 107 experimentally verified miRNA targets on coding and non-coding RNAs. In total it provides 108 91,249 interactions between 12,254 genes (10,087 proteins, 2,167 ncRNAs).

IncBook<sup>48</sup> carries information on IncRNAs, from functions, and associations to diseases
 and interactions from IncRNAs to other elements (proteins and miRNAs). The interactions are
 experimentally validated or predicted. In total, the database provides 21 interactions between
 30 ncRNAs.

IncRNome<sup>49</sup> is a knowledge graph on human IncRNAs and provides predicted and
 experimentally validated interactions from IncRNAs and other RNAs. We only retrieved the
 database of experimentally validated targets, which offers information about 978 interactions
 between 521 genes (130 proteins, 391 ncRNAs).

mirTARbase<sup>50,51</sup> is a collection of experimentally validated miRNAs and their targets,
 validated by reporter assay, western blot, microarray, and next-generation sequencing
 experiments. After gene name conversion, it provides 6,667 interactions between 3,022 genes
 (2,511 proteins, 511 ncRNAs).

miRecords<sup>52</sup> is a manually curated database of experimentally validated miRNA-target
 interactions. It provides 975 validated interactions between 818 genes (651 proteins, 167
 ncRNAs).

miRNet<sup>53</sup> aggregates information from miRTarBase v8.o, TarBase v8.o, and miRecords
 and allows for the selection of experimentally validated miRNA-targets. In total miRNet
 provides 2,546 interactions between 1,264 genes (917 proteins, 347 ncRNAs).

NPinter4<sup>54</sup> contains only experimentally validated interactions from ncRNA to DNA,
 TF, proteins, and other RNAs using CLIP-seq, AGO CLIP-seq, ChIRP-seq, and literature-mined
 interactions. For humans, it provides binding information for 1,153 interactions between 1,023
 genes (538 proteins, 485 ncRNAs)

RAIN<sup>55</sup> contains experimentally validated and predicted interactions. Here we
 considered only experimentally validated interactions with a confidence score higher than 0.15
 (as suggested by the authors), resulting in 391,209 interactions between 16,244 genes (13,271
 proteins, 2,973 ncRNAs)

RISE<sup>56</sup> focuses on RNA-RNA interactions, which come from transcriptome-wide sequencing-based experiments such as PARIS, SPLASH, LIGRseq, and MARIO, and targeted studies like RIAseq, RAP-RNA, and CLASH. RISE also aggregates data from other databases

with experimental validation, 64,084 validated interactions between 20,660 genes (15,559
proteins, 5,101 ncRNAs).

Note that, during the construction of the PPI some databases reported protein and ncRNA binds, we included those interactions only in the NCI. The Table S 1 provides a complete overview of how many genes and interactions exist in each final database, along with the number of experimentally validated interactions present in each network.

144 2.2 GENE DISEASE DATABASES

To link genes to diseases, we rely on several databases. We start by normalizing gene and disease names. A description of the gene-disease association in each database is presented in Table S 4.

148 **ClinGen**<sup>57</sup> is a worldwide effort to associate genes with diseases along with data 149 curation from a panel of experts. Although it provides different levels of evidence, for each 150 entry we focused only on the ones with strong or weak evidence. Overall, it accounts for 523 151 associations from 446 genes and 138 diseases.

152 **ClinVar**<sup>58</sup> reports relationships among human variations and phenotypes, with 153 supporting evidence. It accounts for 6,769 associations between 3,847 genes and 917 diseases.

The **Comparative Toxicogenomics Database (CTD**<sup>59</sup>) is a well-established database of chemicals, genes, phenotypes, exposures, and diseases. All its 24,857 entries are annotated with publication information, allowing for transparency and for tracing any of its 7,327 genes and 7,711 diseases.

158 **Disease Enhancer**<sup>60</sup> is a manually curated database, based on literature, for disease-159 associated enhancers. It provides 518 associations between 303 genes and 121 diseases.

DisGeNet<sup>61,62</sup> integrates expert-curated databases with text-mined data and covers information on Mendelian and complex diseases. Here, we focus only on the curated databases based on genes or variants. The gene-based data source contains 36,317 associations, from 8,912 genes to 2,099 diseases.

**GWAS catalogue**<sup>63</sup> combines information across multiple GWAS studies extracted from literature and goes through a double curation process, where only associations with sufficient evidence are kept. We removed inferred and imputed SNPs and retrieved 8,957 associations, between 4,254 genes and 434 diseases.

HMDD<sup>64</sup>, Human microRNA Disease Database, focuses only on the association of
 miRNAs and diseases. Its data is experimentally validated through miRNA circulation, tissue
 differential expression, genetics, epigenetics, or targeted analysis. HMDD accounts for 13,662
 associations between 916 miRNAs and 622 diseases.

LncBook<sup>48</sup>, used in the construction of the NCI, also provides information on IncRNAs'
 associations with diseases. It contains 1,478 associations between 669 genes and 246 diseases.
 IncRNADisease<sup>65,66</sup> is a knowledge base that focuses on associations between diseases

and IncRNA, it provides different levels of evidence for its associations. In our study, we focus
on 3,146 associations with experimental evidence between 1,533 genes and 286 diseases.

Leiden Open Variation Database (LOVD)<sup>67</sup> is an integrative project connecting expert curated variants and genes with multiple phenotypes. LOVD includes 2,931 associations from
 2,113 genes to 664 diseases.

180 Monarch is an integrative project that connects phenotypes and genotypes in several 181 species. It does provide experimental evidence for part of its results and includes text-mining 182 information. In total, provides 19,542 associations between 8,059 genes and 1,058 diseases.

**Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM**<sup>68</sup>) is a continuous catalog of human genes and traits, with a focus on the molecular relationship between genetic variation and phenotype. OMIM includes 3,517 associations based on peer-reviewed biomedical literature from 2,578 genes to 751 diseases.

187 **Orphanet** is a manually-curated database that focuses on experimentally validated 188 associations from rare diseases to genes. It contains 3,787 associations from 2,555 genes to 721 189 rare diseases.

PheGenl<sup>69</sup> is the Phenotype-Genotype Integrator from NCBI and combines multiple of
 its hosted databases (such as Gene, dbGaP, OMIM, eQTL, and dbSNP). From this integrator,
 we retrieved 11,232 associations from 5,929 genes and 485 diseases.

**Psygenet**<sup>70</sup> is a database that focuses on psychiatric disorders. A gene is associated with a disease if it plays a role in the disease pathogenesis or is a marker for the disease. For that, the associations are identified using a text-mining tool, and later manually curated. It provides 2,924 associations between 1,324 genes in 40 mental disorders.

197

198

#### 199 2.3 DEGREE DISTRIBUTION

We analyzed the degree distribution of the PPI and the PPI & NCI networks, following 200 201 the methodology defined in <sup>71</sup>. We find that while the inclusion of the NCI does not affect the power law nature of the network, it does alter the degree exponent, which is crucial for 202 determining the properties of the network. Specifically, we find that the degree exponent for 203 the PPI & NCI network is  $\gamma_{PPI \& NCI} = 2.54$ , less than the degree exponent for the PPI 204 network,  $\gamma_{PPI} = 2.71$ . We also calculate  $\gamma$  for each element type and present its results on 205 206 Table S 6. We find that Protein Coding Genes behave differently than TFs in the PPI & NCI network. This difference is important because a  $\gamma < 3$  indicates a scale-free property with a 207 diverging second moment, which has significant implications for the network robustness. 208

209

#### 210 2.4 DISEASE MODULE SIGNIFICANCE

Disease modules significances were calculated using both a degree preserving and a non-degree preserving randomization. Results referring to the degree preserving randomization indicate that 41 diseases are statistically significant only using the PPI, while the PPI & NCI alone finds 65 diseases with statistical significance, and 109 diseases are identified in both networks.

216

#### 217 3 GENE CO-EXPRESSION NETWORKS

Gene co-expression networks are often used to shed light on the molecular mechanisms that underlie biological processes and how changes in those interactions can lead

to a disorder<sup>72</sup>. These networks are inferred using the association between pairwise gene 220 221 expression, measured using RNAseg or microarray. The association is often derived from a correlation, such as Pearson correlation, or a transformation, such as WGCNA<sup>73</sup> or Weighted 222 Topological Overlap (wTO)<sup>74,75</sup>, which calculates the co-expression between two genes based 223 on their correlation normalized by their commonalities, and removes false positives. The 224 former focuses on positive correlations, while the latter allows for the inclusion of positive and 225 226 negative correlations. Here, we construct a gene co-expression network from whole blood samples provided by  $GTEx^{76}$ , using Pearson Correlation ( $\rho$ ) and the wTO<sup>74</sup> ( $\omega$ ). 227

Using the physical networks we derived from the PPI and the PPI & NCI (iNCI), we 228 compared the co-expression values for both the Pearson Correlation and the wTO. We 229 observed higher co-expression values on the physical networks (PPI, iNCI, and PPI & iNCI), 230 leading us to ask whether the co-expression weights are predictive of physical binding. We 231 calculated the Area Under the ROC (AUROC), for both co-expression values in the three 232 physical networks, and we find that the AUCs increased from 0.59 in the PPI to 0.63 in the iNCI 233 and PPI & iNCl networks for  $\rho$  (Figure 4 F) and from 0.58 in the PPI to 0.63 in the iNCl and PPI & 234 iNCI networks for  $\omega$  (Figure S 7 B). 235

236

### 237 4 THE EFFECT ON NON-CODING RNAS IN DRUGS

Traditionally, drug-targets are proteins, currently, there is no ncRNA in DrugBank<sup>77</sup> listed as a drug-target. Yet, some ncRNAs are used as drugs – such as Bevasiranib<sup>78</sup>, a small interfering RNA (siRNA) that targets the VEGF-A gene, currently in clinical trial for treating macular degeneration and diabetic retinopathy, or Inclisiran, an LDL cholesterol lowering
 siRNA that targets PCSK9, the first approved ncRNA-based drug <sup>26,79</sup>.

Here, we explore the potential effect of ncRNAs on the drug-target network, by exploring the neighborhood of drug-targets. For that, we explore the differences in gene classes (protein-coding, TF, miRNA, lncRNA, etc) each drug-target interacts with, compared to non-drug-targets. We find that drug target proteins interact with more miRNAs, Proteincoding, and TF than proteins not targeted by drugs (Mann Whitney Test, p-adj < 0.05; FDR corrected, Table S 7), meaning that targets are, on median, more connected to miRNAs, protein-coding and TFs than not drugged proteins.

We begin by evaluating the effect of ncRNAs on drug proximity. For that, we calculate 250 the average proximity of drug targets to the RA disease module in both networks. We first 251 focus on three drugs used to treat RA: Adalimumab, Abatacept, and Penicillamine. 252 253 Adalimumab targets the TNF gene which is also located in the RA disease module. In other words, both the PPI or the PPI & NCI disease modules already embed this gene in its network, 254 meaning its average proximity is already zero. Abatacept, in turn, targets CD8o and CD86 in 255 256 the PPI. The average proximity of those genes to the RA disease module is 2.34 in the PPI and 2.11 in the PPI & NCI, indicating that by adding non-coding interactions, we observe a 257 258 reduction of the proximity values. Penicillamine targets only the gene SLCO1B1, having average proximity of two in the PPI, while the distance decreases to one in the PPI & NCI 259 260 (Figure S 10 A). We next test the change in distance for all drugs indicated for RA in Drug Bank, finding that the average proximity reduces its proximity values from PPI to PPI & NCI. In other 261

words, the inclusion of ncRNAs into the interactome reduces the distance between drugtargets and disease modules.

264 Even though the correlation between the proximity in the PPI and the PPI & NCI 265 networks is high ( $\rho = 0.97$ ), we still find a significant reduction of the average proximity in 266 drugs indicated for RA the PPI & NCI (p < 0.01; Mann-Whitney's test). We next compare the 267 average proximity between drugs indicated for RA compared to drugs without official 268 indication for RA, finding that the proximity is statistically smaller for RA-indicated drugs than the ones not indicated to treat RA (Wilcoxon test; p < 0.01, (Figure S 10 B), both in the PPI and 269 the PPI & NCI. Meaning that drugs used to treat RA are, on median, closer to the disease 270 module than drugs not indicated for the RA treatment, in both PPI and PPI & NCI. 271

#### **TABLES** 5 273

274 Table S 1 Descriptive of Databases Genes and Reported Binding Experimental Interactions. Gene names were normalized 275 276 to Gene Symbols and if no official name was found the gene was removed from the final database along with all its interactions. We kept only experimentally validated interactions and classified the interactions according to gene type 277 (protein-coding - PC, non-coding – NC).

2	-	Q
2	/	0

DATABACE	GENES		INTERACTIONS		
DATABASE	NC	PC	NC <-> NC	PC <-> NC	PC <-> PC
APID	411	15930	32	3151	169730
BIOGRID	616	15308	31	9883	194221
BIOPLEX	386	13547	177	3912	104600
COFRAC	19	2959	3	205	13689
DIANA	2167	10087	15189	76060	0
DIP	2	1389	1	1	1285
ENCODE	1229	13808	1412	101569	23473
HI-UNION	165	8882	17	1703	61969
HINT	320	14576	66	2528	116789
HIPPIE	100	8520	17	1437	121691
INATEDB	153	5548	1	251	13378
INSIDER	17	3362	18	12	3939
INSTRUCT	206	11234	45	774	50456
INTACT	56	4567	10	131	9102
INTERACTOME3D	68	7327	108	135	15071
INWEB	67	10530	43	94	58507
KINOMENETWORKX	7	2340	0	25	7367
LITBM17	20	6020	1	46	13320
LNC_BOOK	30	0	21	0	0
LNCRNOME	391	130	0	733	245
MINT	42	4871	6	121	10616
MIRECORDS	167	651	7	967	1
MIRNET	347	917	14	2532	0
MIRTARBASE	511	2511	51	6616	0
NPINTERV4	485	538	210	860	83
PHOSPHOSITEPLUS	7	2840	0	7	7014
PINA	282	14895	12	958	163068
QUBIC	34	5271	7	241	27453
RAIN	2973	13271	7840	383213	156
RISE	5101	15559	2333	26660	35091

279 280

Table S 2 Network proprieties comparison between PPI and PPI & NCI. The PPI has smaller network diameter and average 281

shortest path length. The PPI & NCI, on its turn has smaller network density and transitivity.

CHARACTERISTIC	PPI	PPI & NCI
DIAMETER	7	9
DENSITY	0.00324	0.00316
COMPONENTS	13	52
TRANSITIVITY	0.04785	0.02594
LARGEST CLIQUES	57	57
LCC	18204	26483
AV. DEGREE	58.13	83.32
MEDIAN DEGREE	32	34
AV. SHORTEST PATH	2.66131	2.79465

282

## 284 285 286 Table S 3 Median and interquartile ranges for each gene category in all two networks. TFs and protein-coding genes

increase their degree median when we include the NCI in the PPI.

GENE CATEGORY	PPI	PPI & NCI
PROTEIN-CODING	30 [12; 64]	54 [20; 107]
TF	48 [20; 102]	90 [41; 168]
LNCRNA		3 [1; 6]
MIRNA		52 [16; 224.75]
OTHER		11 [3; 25]
PSEUDOGENE		2 [1; 4]

287 288

289 290 291

Table S 4 Descriptive of Databases Genes and Reported Disease Associations. Gene names were normalized to Gene 292 Symbols and disease names were matched to MESH terms.

293

		FINAL	-		ORIGI	NAL
DATABASE	Associations	Genes	Diseases	Associations	Genes	Diseases
CLINGEN	523	446	138	896	695	352
CLINVAR	6,769	3,847	917	57,941	9,230	30,925
CTD	24,857	7,327	1,912	35,997	8,745	5,806
DISEASE ENHANCER	518	303	121	650	349	165
DISGENET (GDA)	36,317	8,912	2,099	95,959	10,147	11,181
GWAS CATALOG	8,957	4,254	434	70,192	12,786	2,339
HMDD	13,662	916	622	15,968	945	862
LNCBOOK	1,478	669	246	1,952	863	369
LNCRNA DISEASE	3,146	1,533	286	4,546	2,251	402
LOVD	2,931	2,113	664	6,611	3,910	4,860
MONARCH	19,542	8,059	1,058	33,549	11,531	8,593
OMIM	3,517	2,578	751	12,333	7,132	7,349
ORPHANET	3,787	2,555	721	8,252	4,324	3,784
PHEGENI	11,232	5,929	485	24,926	9,635	1,001
PSYGENET	2,924	1,354	40	3,621	1,493	108

294 295 296 297 298 Table S 5 Genes with physical binding have higher co-expression in the physical networks. Genes with a direct or indirect physical binding (PPI, PPI & NCI, or co-regulated by a ncRNA) have, in median, higher co-expression values than genes that do not physically interact. Kruskal-Wallis Test, Dunn's Post hoc test.

		CORRELATION	١		WTO	
COMPARISON	Р	P adj	Kruskal- Wallis	Р	P adj	Kruskal- Wallis
DIRECT - NONE	p < 0.001	p < 0.001		p < 0.001	p < 0.001	
INDIRECT - NONE	p < 0.001	р<0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001	p < 0.001
INDIRECT + DIRECT - NONE	р < 0.001	p < 0.001		p < 0.001	p < 0.001	

- 300 301 Table S 6 Power Law fit for each element in their respective networks. The inclusion of the NCI does not change the PL
- nature of the network, but does change the coefficients of the degree exponent for  $\gamma_{PPI} = 2.71$  to  $\gamma_{PPI\&NCI} = 2.54$ .

NETWORK	ТҮРЕ	K <sub>CUT</sub>	K <sub>SAT</sub>	γ
PPI	PPI	2427	90	2.71
	PPI	2427	90	2.71
	TF	1564	100	2.42
	Protein Coding	1688	83	2.84
PPI & NCI	PPI & NCI	3918	100	2.54
	Protein Coding	1801	100	3.00
	TF	2632	100	2.43
	IncRNA	1618	1	1.59
	miRNA	4413	77	1.62
	Pseudogenes	123	1	1.76

302 303 304 305 306 307 308 Table S 7 First Neighbors of drug-targets distribution. Drug-Targets are more connected to miRNAs, TFs and Protein-coding Genes than non-drugged genes.

	DRUGGED	NON-DRUGGED	Р	P-ADJ
PROTEIN-CODING	35 [15, 76]	15 [4, 41]	<0.0001	<0.0001
TF	9 [4, 21]	6 [2, 16]	<0.0001	<0.0001
LNCRNA	1[1, 2]	1 [1, 2]	0.3875	0.3975
MIRNA	19 [5, 50]	16 [4, 43]	<0.0001	<0.0001
PSEUDOGENE	1[1, 2]	1 [1, 2]	0.3237	0.2590

### 310 6 FIGURES



Figure S 1 Network Validation: Gene-Interaction Overlap. The upset plot depicts the number of binding interactions in each dataset, and how it overlaps across all PPI and NCI databases. Most of the interactions are database specific and do not occur in multiple sources, which provide us with complementary information. Interactions among proteins are represented in purple,

while interactions involving at least one ncRNA are represented in turquoise.



Figure S 2 Network Validation: Gene Overlap. The upset plot depicts the number of genes in each dataset, and how it

316 317 318 319 320 overlaps across all PPI and NCI databases. Most of the genes are reported in multiple datasets. Proteins are represented in purple, while ncRNAs are represented in turquoise.



321 322

Figure S 3 Degree distribution of different genomic elements. The degree distribution on the three networks changes when 323 324 325 326 we include non-coding elements into the PPI, the inclusion of miRNAs shows that they tend to have a higher degree, acting as regulatory factors and possibly as master regulators. Both PPI and PPI & NCI follow assintotically, for high (k), a power-law distribution. The diameter of the PPI is 7, while the diameter of the PPI & NCI is 9. Therefore, the diameter of the network increases with the NCI inclusion. Even though it might be counter intuitive, the PPI is more densely connected than the PPI & 327 NCI. Meaning that, the inclusion of ncRNA mediated interactions more than double the number of interactions, and include <u>3</u>28 more genes, creating a less dense network, where nodes are more dispersed and less closely connected.

- 329 330 331 332
- 333 334 335 336

- 337





346 347 348 Figure S 4 Degree distribution and power law fit (in red) for the network-based genomic elements. The degree distribution and the power law for each genomic element was fitted independently. We fitted a Power-Law for real data as (k + k)349 350  $k_{sat}$ )<sup>- $\gamma e^{\frac{-k}{k_{cut}}}$ </sup>, where k is the degree,  $k_{cut}$  is defined by the low-k saturation and is and  $k_{sat}$  is the large-k cutoff. The identified  $k_{cut}$  and  $k_{sat}$  can be found on Table S 6.



360 361 362 363 364 Figure S 5 Gene completion mapped in the PPI and the combined network. In the combined PPI & NCI we retrieve 86.3% of miRNAs, 99.6% of transcription factors and 38.5% of IncRNAs, increasing the interactions and coverage of the human

transcriptomic.



Figure S 6 Disease Associated genes and their classification. A) Rainplot of Number of disease-associated genes classified by gene category. We calculate the number of disease-associated genes in each disease, for each gene category. We find that Protein-Coding genes are the most associated with diseases, followed by miRNAs, TFs and IncRNAS. B) Degree distribution of gene-disease associations. miRNAs have a fat tail, indicating that few miRNAs can be associated with multiple diseases. C) The % of genes in each category found in the LCC. The inclusion of ncRNAs in the PPI allows us to increase the percentage of protein-coding genes retrieved in the disease modules from 40 to 50%. On median, 90% of miRNAs associated with a disease are found in the disease module.





365 366

367

<u>3</u>68

369

37Ō

371



Figure S 7 Absolute co-expression values (wTO) are higher in physical networks. A) Genes with direct or indirect physical binding (PPI, PPI & NCI, or co-regulated by an ncRNA) have higher co-expression values than genes that do not physically interact in the wTO. The boxplot indicates that the absolute weighted Topological Overlap values are higher when there is physical interaction, compared to then non-existing links, indicating an association between physical binding and strength of co-expression. B) Co-Expression Networks Can Predict Physical Interactions. We use the wTO values between two transcripts to predict a direct or indirect binding, finding that the inclusion of ncRNAs increases the AUC in the iNCI and the PPI & iNCI.

388

389



Figure S 8 Absolute co-expression values (correlation and wTO) are higher in TF-TF physical network and Co-Expression Networks Can Predict TF-TF Physical Interactions. A) TFs with direct or indirect physical binding (PPI, PPI & NCI, or coregulated by an ncRNA) have higher co-expression values than genes that do not physically interact in the wTO. The boxplot indicates that the absolute correlation and B) weighted Topological Overlap values are higher when there is physical 395 396 397 398 interaction, compared to then non-existing links, indicating an association between physical binding and strength of coexpression (p < 0.01; Kruskal-Wallis Test, Dunn's Post hoc test). C) Co-Expression Networks Can Predict Physical Interactions. We use the corrletion and D) wTO values between two TFs to predict a direct or indirect binding, finding that the inclusion of ncRNAs slighlty increases the AUC in the iNCI and the PPI & iNCI.

399

400



402 403 Figure S 9 Disease Comorbidity and their separation. A) Relative Risk is significatively higher for diseases closer to each other. Diseases with a negative  $S_{ab}$  have significantly higher relative risks when compared to diseases with positive  $S_{ab}$  for 404 405 406 both the PPI and the PPI & NCI (Wilcoxon Test, p < 0.05). We observe for the PPI & NCI, on average, an increase on the RR of 9.5 for negative  $S_{a,b}$  (se 2.93), and a decrease to 6.5 (se 0.41) for positive  $S_{a,b}$  (Wilcoxon Test, p > 0.05). B) Network Separation 407 is predictive of comorbidity. We use the network separation as a predictor of a significant Relative Risk > 1, finding that the PPI 408 alone is as good as random (AUC = 0.5), while the PPI & NCI slightly increases the AUC to 0.55, even though the predictive 409 power is still close to random, it suggests that ncRNAs might hold the key for improving disease comorbidity and progression 410 identification.



Figure S 10 Average Proximity decreases for Rheumatoid Arthritis indicated drugs. A) The dumbbell plot shows in the x-axis
the average proximity for 14 drugs indicated to treat RA. In purple, the PPI values for each disease and in turquoise the PPI &
NCI values. For all drugs with proximity higher than 1 we find that the PPI & NCI network decreases the distance of the drugtargets to the disease module. B) Average proximity for drug-targets with more than 1 target is statistically significant smaller
for the PPI & NCI when compared to the PPI. The boxplots indicate a reduction on the proximity for drugs indicated to treat
RA.

#### REFERENCES 420 7

- 421 Hombach, S. & Kretz, M. Non-coding RNAs: Classification, biology and functioning. Advances in Experimental 1. 422 Medicine and Biology 937, 3–17 (2016).
- Matera, A. G., Terns, R. M. & Terns, M. P. Non-coding RNAs: Lessons from the small nuclear and small nucleolar 423 2. RNAs. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology 8, 209–220 (2007). 424
- 425 Hammond, S. M., Caudy, A. A. & Hannon, G. J. Post-transcriptional gene silencing by double-stranded RNA. Nature 3. 42ð *Reviews Genetics 2001 2:2* **2**, 110–119 (2001).
- John, B. et al. Human microRNA targets. PLoS Biology 2, 661–663 (2004). 4.
- . 427 428 Pillai, R. S., Bhattacharyya, S. N. & Filipowicz, W. Repression of protein synthesis by miRNAs: how many mechanisms? 5. 429 Trends in Cell Biology 17, 118–126 (Elsevier Current Trends, 2007).
- 430 6. Cui, C. & Cui, Q. The relationship of human tissue microRNAs with those from body fluids. Scientific Reports 10, 1–7 431 (2020).
- 432 Zhuo, Y., Gao, G., Shi, J. an, Zhou, X. & Wang, X. MiRNAs: Biogenesis, origin and evolution, functions on virus-host 7. 433 interaction. Cellular Physiology and Biochemistry 32, 499–510 (2013).
- 8. Lewis, B. P., Burge, C. B. & Bartel, D. P. Conserved seed pairing, often flanked by adenosines, indicates that thousands of 434 human genes are microRNA targets. Cell **120**, 15–20 (2005).
- 435 436 Lewis, B. P., Shih, I. H., Jones-Rhoades, M. W., Bartel, D. P. & Burge, C. B. Prediction of Mammalian MicroRNA 9. 437 Targets. Cell 115, 787–798 (2003).
- 438 Grimson, A. et al. MicroRNA Targeting Specificity in Mammals: Determinants beyond Seed Pairing. Molecular Cell 27, 10. 439 91-105 (2007).
- 440 Kudla, G., Granneman, S., Hahn, D., Beggs, J. D. & Tollervey, D. Cross-linking, ligation, and sequencing of hybrids 11. 441 reveals RNA-RNA interactions in yeast. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of 442 *America* **108**, 10010–10015 (2011).
- 443 Martin, M. M. et al. The human angiotensin II type 1 receptor +1166 A/C polymorphism attenuates microRNA-155 12. binding. Journal of Biological Chemistry 282, 24262–24269 (2007). 444
- 445 446 Zhao, Y., Samal, E. & Srivastava, D. Serum response factor regulates a muscle-specific microRNA that targets Hand2 13. during cardiogenesis. Nature 436, 214–220 (2005).
- ... 447 448 Martinez, N. J. & Walhout, A. J. M. The interplay between transcription factors and microRNAs in genome-scale 14. regulatory networks. *BioEssays* **31**, 435–445 (2009).
- 449 Ghafouri-Fard, S. et al. The interaction between miRNAs/IncRNAs and nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB) in human disorders. 15. 450 Biomedicine and Pharmacotherapy **138**, 111519 (2021).
- 451 16. Mattes, J., Collison, A., Plank, M., Phipps, S. & Foster, P. S. Antagonism of microRNA-126 suppresses the effector 452 function of T H<sub>2</sub> cells and the development of allergic airways disease. Proceedings of the National Academy of 453 Sciences of the United States of America 106, 18704–18709 (2009).
- 454 Topol, A. et al. Dysregulation of miRNA-9 in a Subset of Schizophrenia Patient-Derived Neural Progenitor Cells. Cell 17. Reports 15, 1024–1036 (2016).
- 455 456 18. Kutsche, L. K. et al. Combined Experimental and System-Level Analyses Reveal the Complex Regulatory Network of miR-124 during Human Neurogenesis. Cell Systems 7, 1–15 (2018).
- 457 458 459 460 Huang, X. & Wong, G. An old weapon with a new function: PIWI-interacting RNAs in neurodegenerative diseases. 19. Translational Neurodegeneration 10, (BioMed Central, 2021).
- 20. Wang, J. et al. PiRBase: A comprehensive database of piRNA sequences. Nucleic Acids Research 47, D175–D180 (2019).
- 461 21. Kutter, C. & Svoboda, P. miRNA, siRNA, piRNA: Knowns of the unknown. RNA Biology 5, 181–188 (2008).
- 462 Hu, B. et al. Therapeutic siRNA: state of the art. Signal Transduction and Targeted Therapy 5, (2020). 22.
- 463 Zhang, M. M., Bahal, R., Rasmussen, T. P., Manautou, J. E. & Zhong, X. bo. The growth of siRNA-based therapeutics: 23. 464 Updated clinical studies. *Biochemical Pharmacology* **189**, (2021).
- 465 466 D, B.-S. et al. siRNA-based identification of IBD-related targets in human monocyte-derived dendritic cells. Journal of 24. immunological methods **494**, (2021).
- 467 Moreno-Montañés, J. et al. siRNA therapeutics in ocular diseases. in Methods in Molecular Biology 2282, 417-442 25. 468 (Methods Mol Biol, 2021).
- 469 26. MM, Z., R, B., TP, R., JE, M. & XB, Z. The growth of siRNA-based therapeutics: Updated clinical studies. Biochemical 470 pharmacology 189, (2021).
- 471 Dahariya, S. et al. Long non-coding RNA: Classification, biogenesis and functions in blood cells. Molecular Immunology 27. 472 112, 82-92 (2019).
- 473 28. Ferrè, F., Colantoni, A. & Helmer-Citterich, M. Revealing protein-IncRNA interaction. Briefings in Bioinformatics 17, 106–116 (2016). 474

475 476 Tian, D., Sun, S. & Lee, J. T. The long noncoding RNA, Jpx, Is a molecular switch for X chromosome inactivation. Cell 29. **143,** 390–403 (2010). 477 Lee, J. T. Lessons from X-chromosome inactivation: Long ncRNA as guides and tethers to the epigenome. Genes and 30. 478 Development 23, 1831–1842 (2009). 479 480 Lyle, R. et al. The imprinted antisense RNA at the lqf2r locus overlaps but does not imprint Mas1. Nature Genetics 25, 31. 19–21 (2000). 481 Williamson, C. M. et al. Uncoupling antisense-mediated silencing and DNA methylation in the imprinted Gnas cluster. 32. <u>4</u>82 PLoS Genetics 7, (2011). 483 484 485 486 Zhu, J. J., Fu, H. J., Wu, Y. G. & Zheng, X. F. Function of IncRNAs and approaches to IncRNA-protein interactions. 33. Science China Life Sciences 56, 876–885 (2013). Wang, X. et al. Induced ncRNAs allosterically modify RNA-binding proteins in cis to inhibit transcription. Nature 454, 34. 126-130 (2008). 487 Geisler, S. & Coller, J. RNA in unexpected places: Long non-coding RNA functions in diverse cellular contexts. Nature 35. 488 Reviews Molecular Cell Biology 14, 699–712 (2013). <u>4</u>89 36. Rinn, J. L. et al. Functional Demarcation of Active and Silent Chromatin Domains in Human HOX Loci by Noncoding 490 RNAs. Cell 129, 1311–1323 (2007). 491 Wang, K. C. et al. A long noncoding RNA maintains active chromatin to coordinate homeotic gene expression. Nature 37. **472,** 120–126 (2011). 492 Cesana, M. et al. A long noncoding RNA controls muscle differentiation by functioning as a competing endogenous 493 38. RNA. Cell 147, 358–369 (2011). 494 Chen, Y., Li, Z., Chen, X. & Zhang, S. Long non-coding RNAs: From disease code to drug role. Acta Pharmaceutica Sinica 495 496 39. *B***11**, 340–354 (Chinese Academy of Medical Sciences, 2021). 497 Li, C. H. & Chen, Y. Targeting long non-coding RNAs in cancers: Progress and prospects. International Journal of 40. 498 Biochemistry and Cell Biology 45, 1895–1910 (2013). 499 Wu, P. et al. Roles of long noncoding RNAs in brain development, functional diversification and neurodegenerative 41. 500 diseases. Brain Research Bulletin **97,** 69–80 (2013). 501 Hellman, L. M. & Fried, M. G. Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) for detecting protein-nucleic acid 42. 502 interactions. Nature Protocols 2, 1849–1861 (2007). Wang, W., Caldwell, M. C., Lin, S., Furneaux, H. & Gorospe, M. HuR regulates cyclin A and cyclin B1 mRNA stability 503 43. during cell proliferation. EMBO Journal **19,** 2340–2350 (2000). 504 505 Günzl, A., Palfi, Z. & Bindereif, A. Analysis of RNA-protein complexes by oligonucleotide-targeted RNase H digestion. 44. <u>5</u>06 Methods 26, 162–169 (2002). 507 Shih, J. D., Waks, Z., Kedersha, N. & Silver, P. A. Visualization of single mRNAs reveals temporal association of 45. 508 proteins with microRNA-regulated mRNA. *Nucleic Acids Research* **39**, 7740–7749 (2011). 509 46. Fu, D. et al. Long non-coding RNA CRNDE regulates the growth and migration of prostate cancer cells by targeting 510 microRNA-146a-5p. *Bioengineered* **12**, 2469–2479 (2021). 511 Karagkouni, D. et al. DIANA-LncBase v3: Indexing experimentally supported miRNA targets on non-coding 47. 512 transcripts. *Nucleic Acids Research* **48**, D101–D110 (2020). 513 Ma, L. et al. Lncbook: A curated knowledgebase of human long non-coding rnas. Nucleic Acids Research 47, D128-48. 514 D134 (2019). 515 516 Bhartiya, D. et al. LncRNome: A comprehensive knowledgebase of human long noncoding RNAs. Database 2013, 49. (2013). Hsu, S. Da et al. MiRTarBase: A database curates experimentally validated microRNA-target interactions. Nucleic 517 50. 518 Acids Research (2011). doi:10.1093/nar/gkq1107 519 Huang, H. D. Y. et al. MiRTarBase 2020: Updates to the experimentally validated microRNA-target interaction 51. 520 database. Nucleic Acids Research 48, D148–D154 (2020). 521 Xiao, F. et al. miRecords: An integrated resource for microRNA-target interactions. Nucleic Acids Research 37, (2009). 52. 522 Chang, L., Zhou, G., Soufan, O. & Xia, J. miRNet 2.0: network-based visual analytics for miRNA functional analysis and 53. 523 systems biology. *Nucleic acids research* **48**, W244–W251 (2020). 524 Teng, X. et al. NPInter v4.o: An integrated database of ncRNA interactions. Nucleic Acids Research 48, D160–D165 54. 525 526 (2020). Junge, A. et al. RAIN: RNA-protein association and interaction networks. Database 2017, (2017). 55. 527 Gong, J. et al. RISE: A database of RNA interactome from sequencing experiments. Nucleic Acids Research 46, D194-56. 528 D201 (2018). 529 Rehm, H. L. et al. ClinGen — The Clinical Genome Resource. New England Journal of Medicine (2015). 57. 530 doi:10.1056/nejmsr1406261 531 58. Landrum, M. J. et al. ClinVar: Improvements to accessing data. Nucleic Acids Research (2020). doi:10.1093/nar/gkz972 532 Davis, A. P. et al. Comparative Toxicogenomics Database (CTD): update 2021. Nucleic Acids Research (2020). 59.

533		doi:10.1093/nar/gkaa891
534	60.	Zhang, G. et al. DiseaseEnhancer: A resource of human disease-associated enhancer catalog. Nucleic Acids Research
535		<b>46</b> , D78–D84 (2018).
536	61.	Piñero, J. et al. The DisGeNET knowledge platform for disease genomics: 2019 update. Nucleic Acids Research (2020).
537		doi:10.1093/nar/gkz1021
538	62.	Piñero, J. et al. DisGeNET: A comprehensive platform integrating information on human disease-associated genes
539		and variants. Nucleic Acids Research 45, D833-D839 (2017).
540	63.	Buniello, A. et al. The NHGRI-EBI GWAS Catalog of published genome-wide association studies, targeted arrays and
541		summary statistics 2019. Nucleic Acids Research (2019). doi:10.1093/nar/gky1120
542	64.	Huang, Z. et al. HMDD v3.o: A database for experimentally supported human microRNA-disease associations. Nucleic
543		Acids Research (2019). doi:10.1093/nar/gky1010
544	65.	Bao, Z. et al. LncRNADisease 2.0: An updated database of long non-coding RNA-associated diseases. Nucleic Acids
545	•	Research (2019). doi:10.1093/nar/gky905
546	66.	Chen, G. et al. LncRNADisease: A database for long-non-coding RNA-associated diseases. Nucleic Acids Research
547		(2013). doi:10.1093/nar/gks1099
548	67.	Fokkema, I. F. A. C. et al. LOVD v.2.0: The next generation in gene variant databases. Human Mutation 32, 557–563
549		(2011).
550	68.	McKusick, V. A. Mendelian Inheritance in Man and its online version, OMIM. American Journal of Human Genetics
551		(2007). doi:10.1086/514346
552	69.	Ramos, E. M. et al. Phenotype-genotype integrator (PheGenI): Synthesizing genome-wide association study (GWAS)
553		data with existing genomic resources. European Journal of Human Genetics 22, 144–147 (2014).
554	70.	Gutierrez-Sacristan, A. et al. PsyGeNET: a knowledge platform on psychiatric disorders and their genes.
555		Bioinformatics <b>31</b> , 3075 (2015).
556	71.	Barabási, AL. Network Science. (Cambridge University Press, 2016).
557	72.	Gysi, D. M. & Nowick, K. Construction, comparison and evolution of networks in life sciences and other disciplines.
558		Journal of the Royal Society Interface 17, 20190610 (2020).
559	73.	Langfelder, P. & Horvath, S. WGCNA: an R package for weighted correlation network analysis. BMC Bioinformatics 9,
560		559 (2008).
561	74.	Gysi, D. M., Voigt, A., Fragoso, T. de M., Almaas, E. & Nowick, K. wTO: an R package for computing weighted
562		topological overlap and a consensus network with integrated visualization tool. BMC Bioinformatics <b>19</b> , 392 (2018).
563	75.	Nowick, K., Gernat, T., Almaas, E. & Stubbs, L. Differences in human and chimpanzee gene expression patterns define
564		an evolving network of transcription factors in brain. <i>Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences</i> <b>106</b> , 22358–
565		22363 (2009).
566	76.	Ardlie, K. G. et al. The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) pilot analysis: Multitissue gene regulation in humans.
567		<i>Science</i> <b>348</b> , 648–660 (2015).
568	77.	Wishart, D. S. et al. DrugBank 5.0: A major update to the DrugBank database for 2018. Nucleic Acids Research (2018).
569		doi:10.1093/nar/gkx1037
570	78.	Singerman, L. Combination therapy using the small interfering RNA bevasiranib. <i>Retina</i> <b>29</b> , (2009).
571	79.	Ray, K. K. et al. Two Phase 3 Trials of Inclisiran in Patients with Elevated LDL Cholesterol. New England Journal of
572		Medicine <b>382,</b> 1507–1519 (2020).
573		
-		