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The dark genome investigating pseudogenes and non-coding regions in genetic regulation

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Abstract

The “dark genome,” comprising pseudogenes and various non-coding DNA elements, has historically been overlooked due to the assumption of its non-functionality. Recent advances in genomics and epigenetics have overturned this view, revealing that these sequences play crucial roles in genetic regulation, development, disease, and evolution. Pseudogenes, once dismissed as evolutionary relics, are now recognized for their regulatory potential via RNA interference, decoy functions, and epigenetic modulation. Non-coding regions such as long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), enhancer RNAs (eRNAs), and other untranslated elements contribute to transcriptional control and chromatin architecture. This review explores the biological functions of these components, their implications in health and disease, and their growing relevance in biomedical research. Furthermore, we examine how emerging technologies such as single-cell sequencing, CRISPR-based editing, and integrative multi-omics are shedding light on the regulatory functions of the dark genome. Despite significant progress, many challenges persist, including functional validation, annotation inconsistency, and interpretation of non-coding variants. This paper aims to synthesize current findings, highlight biomedical applications, discuss limitations, and propose future research directions, emphasizing the need to embrace the dark genome for a more comprehensive understanding of gene regulation and genome complexity.

Key words: Dark genome, Pseudogenes, Non-Coding DNA, Gene regulation, Long Non-Coding RNAs, Genome evolution, Transcriptomics

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1. Introduction

The human genome comprises approximately 3 billion base pairs, yet only about 1.5% codes for proteins. The remaining 98.5%, often referred to as non-coding DNA, was historically regarded as “junk DNA” due to its apparent lack of function. This view has changed dramatically over the past two decades with the advent of high-throughput genomic technologies, which have uncovered the functional complexity and regulatory significance of these regions (Palazzo and Lee, 2015). Of particular interest is a subset of the non-coding genome collectively termed the “dark genome,” encompassing pseudogenes, regulatory elements, and various classes of non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs).

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Pseudogenes are genomic DNA sequences similar to functional genes but typically lack the ability to encode proteins due to disabling mutations or lack of transcriptional machinery. However, recent research has shown that some pseudogenes are transcriptionally active and may function in gene regulation through multiple mechanisms, including acting as competing endogenous RNAs (ceRNAs) (Poliseno *et al.*, 2010). Similarly, long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), microRNAs (miRNAs), and enhancer RNAs (eRNAs) have emerged as vital regulators of gene expression, development, and cellular differentiation (Rinn and Chang, 2012). The dark genome's relevance extends to numerous fields including developmental biology, oncology, and evolutionary genetics. Misregulation of non-coding regions is increasingly implicated in diseases such as cancer, neurological disorders, and cardiovascular conditions (Esteller, 2011). Moreover, evolutionary conservation and selection patterns in non-coding sequences underscore their functional importance across species.

This review explores the components of the dark genome, their regulatory roles, biomedical applications, current challenges, and future research directions, aiming to provide a comprehensive overview of this burgeoning area in genetic science.

2. Core concepts or technologies

The central dogma of molecular biology, DNA to RNA to protein, has long shaped our understanding of gene expression. However, emerging evidence has drastically reshaped this paradigm by emphasizing the significance of the "dark genome," which comprises genomic regions that do not code for proteins yet exert considerable regulatory influence on cellular processes. This section delineates the core components of this cryptic yet functional genomic landscape: pseudogenes, long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), microRNAs (miRNAs), and enhancer RNAs (eRNAs).

2.1. Pseudogenes: Evolutionary relics with functional potential

Traditionally considered "junk DNA," pseudogenes are genomic sequences that resemble known genes but harbor mutations or deletions rendering them incapable of producing functional proteins, see Figure 1. Pseudogenes can be categorized into three major types:

- Processed pseudogenes: Resulting from retrotransposition events, lacking introns and often flanked by direct repeats.
- Unprocessed pseudogenes: Arise from gene duplication followed by deleterious mutations.
- Unitary pseudogenes: Formed when a functional gene becomes inactivated without duplication.

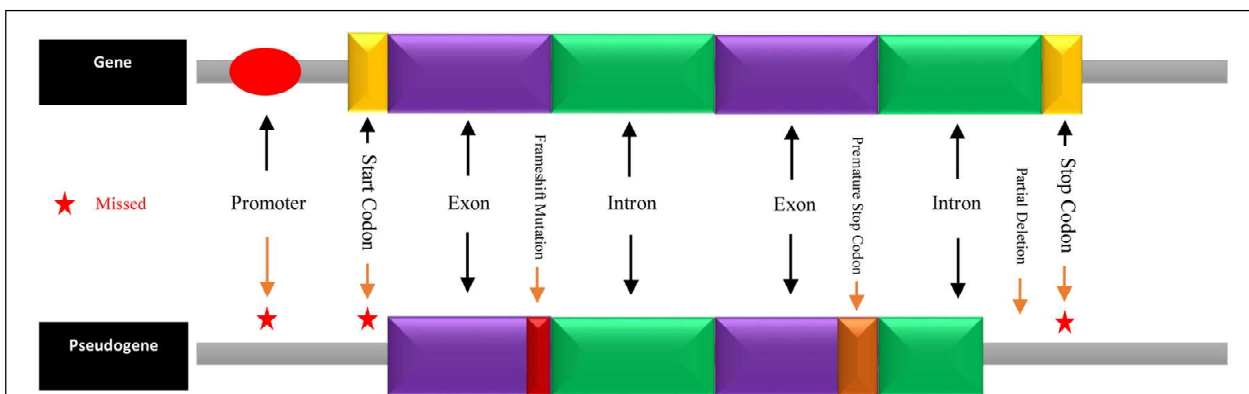


Figure 1: Structural comparison between functional genes and pseudogenes: key mutational disruptions

Though once regarded as genomic fossils, pseudogenes have been shown to participate in regulatory networks. Many transcribe RNA molecules that act as competing endogenous RNAs (ceRNAs), effectively sponging miRNAs and modulating gene expression of their ancestral counterparts (Palazzo and Lee, 2015; Poliseno *et al.*, 2010).

2.2. Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs)

lncRNAs are transcripts longer than 200 nucleotides that do not encode proteins. They function through diverse mechanisms including:

- Chromatin remodeling by interacting with epigenetic modifiers like PRC2 (polycomb repressive complex 2) (Rinn and Chang, 2012).
- Transcriptional interference by directly binding to transcription factors.
- Post-transcriptional regulation, including splicing and mRNA decay.

Their tissue-specific expression patterns and dysregulation in diseases, particularly cancer, underscore their importance in genetic regulation (Esteller, 2011).

2.3. Small regulatory RNAs: miRNAs and siRNAs

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are ~22 nucleotide long RNAs that suppress gene expression by targeting mRNAs for degradation or translational repression. They are integral to developmental timing, cell cycle regulation, and immune responses (Bartel, 2009).

Small interfering RNAs (siRNAs), typically exogenous or experimentally introduced, share a similar mechanism and are utilized in gene silencing technologies (Fire *et al.*, 1998).

2.4. Enhancer RNAs (eRNAs) and chromatin architecture

Enhancer RNAs are transcribed from active enhancer regions and are thought to facilitate enhancer-promoter looping and chromatin remodeling, allowing efficient transcriptional activation (Kim and Shiekhhattar). In addition, 3D genome mapping techniques (Hi-C, ChIA-PET) reveal that topologically associating domains (TADs) and chromatin looping play crucial roles in orchestrating gene expression by spatial organization of non-coding regions (Dixon *et al.*, 2012).

2.5. Technologies uncovering the dark genome

The functional annotation of non-coding regions has been enabled by high-throughput and integrative approaches (Table 1).

Table 1: Key technologies for functional annotation of the dark genome	
Technology	Application
RNA-Seq	Transcriptome profiling of non-coding RNAs
ChIP-Seq	Identifying transcription factor binding sites
ATAC-Seq	Mapping chromatin accessibility
Hi-C/3C	Studying 3D genome architecture
CRISPR interference (CRISPRi)	Functional dissection of non-coding elements

Together, these tools have revolutionized our ability to decode previously unannotated genomic territories and assign regulatory roles to the so-called “junk DNA.”

3. Application across sectors

Understanding the functional implications of non-coding DNA and pseudogenes has revolutionized diverse fields, from biomedical research to agricultural biotechnology and environmental sciences. This section highlights practical applications and emerging innovations driven by the exploration of the dark genome.

3.1. Healthcare and precision medicine

3.1.1. Biomarkers for Disease Diagnosis

Non-coding RNAs and pseudogenes have emerged as reliable **biomarkers** for early detection and prognosis of various diseases, particularly cancer. For instance, the pseudogene **PTENP1** acts as a ceRNA to regulate PTEN expression in prostate and breast cancer, serving as a potential tumor suppressor (Poliseno and Pandolfi, 2015). Similarly, **HOTAIR**, a lncRNA, is overexpressed in breast, colorectal, and liver cancers and correlates with poor prognosis (Gupta *et al.*, 2010).

3.1.2. Therapeutic targets

RNA-based therapeutics targeting non-coding elements are advancing into clinical pipelines:

- Antisense oligonucleotides (ASOs) targeting lncRNAs like MALAT1 are being tested in preclinical cancer models ([Arun et al., 2018](#)).
- CRISPR/Cas9-based gene editing is being repurposed to silence lncRNAs or modify enhancer regions linked to genetic disorders ([Liu et al., 2017](#)).

3.1.3. Neurodegenerative and rare genetic disorders

Misregulated non-coding RNAs have been implicated in Alzheimer's disease, Huntington's disease, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS). For example, **BACE1-AS**, an antisense RNA, stabilizes BACE1 mRNA, promoting amyloid-beta plaque formation in Alzheimer's disease ([Faghihi et al., 2008](#)). These insights are fueling RNA-based diagnostics and interventions in neurology.

3.2. Agriculture and crop engineering

3.2.1. Regulatory elements for trait optimization

Crops engineered with specific non-coding RNAs or modified pseudogenes show enhanced resistance to environmental stresses. For instance:

- Overexpression of **miR393** in rice confers improved drought resistance by regulating auxin signaling ([Si-Ammour et al., 2011](#)).
- lncRNAs modulating flowering time or phosphate uptake are being harnessed in plant breeding programs ([Ariel et al., 2015](#)).

3.2.2. Transgene-free editing

CRISPR interference systems (CRISPRi) targeting regulatory lncRNAs allow **epigenetic modifications** in crops without introducing foreign DNA – offering a **non-GMO alternative** for agricultural enhancement ([Lowder et al., 2015](#)).

3.3. Environmental science and microbial genomics

3.3.1. Stress Adaptation in Microbial Communities

Metagenomic studies have revealed that **non-coding RNAs and pseudogenes** play adaptive roles in microbial communities facing extreme environments. In hydrothermal vents and hypersaline lakes, pseudogenes exhibit regulatory activity under stress ([Rodríguez-Valera et al., 2016](#)).

3.3.2. Environmental monitoring using eDNA and lncRNA signatures

Environmental DNA (eDNA) profiling increasingly includes analysis of **non-coding RNA transcripts** to track ecosystem health and biodiversity. Changes in microbial lncRNA profiles can serve as early indicators of environmental perturbations such as pollution or climate shifts ([Odah, 2025](#)).

3.4. Industry and Synthetic Biology

3.4.1. Designing regulatory RNA circuits

Synthetic biology has begun leveraging non-coding RNAs to build programmable RNA-based regulatory circuits. lncRNAs are being engineered to control gene expression in microbial cell factories producing biofuels, bioplastics, and pharmaceuticals ([Odah, 2025](#)).

3.4.2. Biocomputing and RNA logic gates

Non-coding elements are essential in developing RNA-based logic gates and molecular switches for biosensing applications. These biocomputational systems use lncRNA scaffolds to process environmental inputs and generate outputs like fluorescence or enzymatic activity ([Odah, 2025](#)) (Table 2).

Table 2: Applications of the dark genome across sectors		
Sector	Application example	Key molecule
Healthcare	PTENP1 in tumor suppression	Pseudogene
Agriculture	miR393 enhances drought resistance in rice	miRNA
Environment	eDNA-based stress markers in marine microbiomes	lncRNAs
Industry	RNA-based logic gates for biosensors	Synthetic lncRNAs

4. Challenges and limitations

While the exploration of the dark genome holds transformative potential across biology and biotechnology, significant obstacles impede the full realization of its utility. These challenges span technical, interpretative, and translational domains.

4.1. Annotation and functional characterization

Challenge: Many pseudogenes and non-coding RNAs lack functional annotation in existing genome databases.

- The human genome contains over 15,000 pseudogenes and tens of thousands of lncRNAs, yet less than 5% have confirmed biological roles (Odah, 2025).
- Tools like ENCODE and FANTOM5 have improved mapping, but experimental validation remains limited.

4.1.1. Potential solutions

- Develop standardized functional assays for non-coding RNA screening.
- Incorporate machine learning to predict function from sequence and structure (Odah, 2025).

4.2. Context-dependent activity and tissue specificity

Challenge: Non-coding elements often exhibit cell type- and condition-specific expression, complicating generalization.

- For instance, lncRNAs such as NEAT1 and MEG3 may be oncogenic in one tissue and tumor-suppressive in another (Pei et al., 2012).

4.2.1. Potential solutions

- Employ single-cell RNA sequencing to resolve context-specific roles.
- Use conditional knockout models for in vivo validation.

4.3. Genetic redundancy and compensation

Challenge: Functional redundancy across pseudogenes and ncRNAs can mask phenotypic consequences in knockout studies.

- Loss of a pseudogene may be buffered by the presence of homologous sequences, making loss-of-function phenotypes difficult to interpret (Zhou and Troyanskaya, 2015).

4.3.1. Potential solutions

- Use multiplex CRISPR systems to knock out entire gene families or ncRNA clusters simultaneously.
- Apply synthetic lethality screens to uncover dependencies.

4.4. Translational and therapeutic hurdles

Challenge: Delivering ncRNA-based therapeutics remains difficult due to:

- Instability in circulation.
- Off-target effects and poor tissue-specific delivery.

4.4.1. Potential solutions

- Develop RNA stabilization chemistries and ligand-targeted delivery systems (e.g., aptamer-conjugates).
- Apply exosome-based delivery platforms for precision targeting (Zhang *et al.*, 2010).

4.5. Ethical and regulatory ambiguities

Challenge: Genome editing targeting non-coding regions poses ethical concerns and lacks clear regulatory pathways.

- Modifying enhancers or pseudogenes may have unintended long-range effects on gene expression (Schmitz *et al.*, 2016).

4.5.1. Potential solutions

- Introduce predictive modeling frameworks to simulate genome-wide effects before interventions.
- Promote international bioethical consensus on non-coding genome editing (Table 3).

Table 3: Key challenges and mitigation strategies		
Challenge	Description	Proposed Solution
Poor functional annotation	Limited understanding of roles of ncRNAs/pseudogenes	Functional assays, ML-based prediction
Context specificity	Varying function across tissues	Single-cell transcriptomics
Redundancy and compensation	Masking of phenotypes by similar elements	Multiplexed CRISPR screens
Therapeutic delivery limitations delivery vehicles	Instability and off-target effects	RNA modifications, targeted
Ethical and regulatory uncertainties	Editing regulatory DNA with unknown consequences	Simulation models, ethical frameworks

5. Future directions

The burgeoning interest in the non-coding genome promises to reshape the future of biology and medicine. As research tools become more precise and computational models more predictive, novel strategies are emerging to decode and harness the functional roles of pseudogenes and non-coding RNAs.

5.1. AI-powered functional annotation

The integration of **artificial intelligence (AI)** and **deep learning** has revolutionized genome interpretation. Predictive models like DeepSEA and Basenji are being employed to:

- Forecast the **regulatory impact** of non-coding variants.
- Infer **enhancer-promoter interactions** and **ncRNA function** from sequence alone (Li and Rana, 2014).

In the future, AI-driven annotation pipelines will accelerate the identification of disease-associated regulatory RNAs and streamline biomarker discovery.

5.2. CRISPR-based functional genomics in non-coding regions

The use of CRISPR tools is evolving beyond protein-coding genes:

- **CRISPRi (interference)** and **CRISPRa (activation)** allow targeted regulation of lncRNAs, pseudogenes, and enhancers without altering DNA sequence.
- **CRISPR tiling screens** offer high-resolution maps of functional non-coding elements in disease loci (Cwiklinska *et al.*, 2021).

These approaches will be pivotal in assigning biological meaning to vast intergenic territories.

5.3. Single-Cell and Spatial Transcriptomics

Recent innovations enable **in situ mapping** of non-coding RNA expression:

- **Single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq)** reveals lncRNA heterogeneity across individual cells.
- **Spatial transcriptomics** captures tissue-specific expression of regulatory elements, vital for developmental biology and cancer studies (Kelley *et al.*, 2018).

These tools will clarify how the dark genome orchestrates spatiotemporal gene regulation.

5.4. Multi-omics and systems biology approaches

Combining **epigenomics**, **transcriptomics**, **proteomics**, and **metabolomics** enables a systems-level understanding of ncRNA-mediated control. This integrative view is essential for:

- Dissecting complex regulatory networks.
- Modeling genotype-to-phenotype transitions driven by non-coding elements (Sanjana *et al.*, 2016).

Future studies will increasingly adopt multi-omics platforms for comprehensive analysis of regulatory landscapes.

5.5. Synthetic biology and ncRNA engineering

Synthetic biology is now applying ncRNAs as programmable tools:

- Engineered lncRNAs can act as scaffolds, decoys, or sponges in synthetic gene circuits.
- Riboregulators – RNA-based switches – are being used to control gene expression in response to environmental cues (Stahl *et al.*, 2016).

Such synthetic constructs will support the development of smart therapeutics and biosensors.

5.6. Clinical translation and personalized medicine

Non-coding variants are gaining attention in genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and personalized risk prediction. The next decade may see:

- Routine inclusion of pseudogene and lncRNA panels in diagnostic assays.
- Personalized therapies targeting individual ncRNA profiles for precision oncology and neurology.

5.7. Ethical frameworks and governance

With increasing power to edit and interpret the dark genome, there arises a need for robust **ethical frameworks**. Future directions include:

- Developing predictive ethics models for genome editing.
- Establishing regulatory policies that account for non-coding genome manipulation, especially in clinical settings (Hasin *et al.*, 2017), (Table 4).

Table 4: Emerging trends in ethical governance and technological advances in dark genome research

Domain	Emerging Direction
AI & Bioinformatics	Predictive ncRNA function and variant annotation
CRISPR Technology	Targeted manipulation of non-coding elements
Single-Cell Biology	Context-specific ncRNA mapping
Multi-Omics	Integrated regulatory network modeling
Synthetic Biology	Engineered lncRNAs for smart applications
Clinical Translation	Diagnostic panels & RNA-targeting therapies
Ethics & Governance	Non-coding genome editing regulations

6. Conclusion

The historical neglect of non-coding and pseudogenic sequences as mere “junk” or evolutionary debris has yielded to a deeper appreciation of their vast and nuanced regulatory roles. As demonstrated throughout this review, the dark genome – encompassing pseudogenes, long and small non-coding RNAs, and regulatory intergenic elements – plays a central part in orchestrating gene expression, maintaining genomic architecture, and modulating developmental, physiological, and pathological processes.

Breakthroughs in transcriptomics, chromatin profiling, and genome editing have illuminated the functional relevance of these elements, with pseudogenes acting as competitive endogenous RNAs and lncRNAs modulating transcription, splicing, and chromatin state. This non-coding machinery is increasingly implicated in cancer, neurodegeneration, metabolic syndromes, and microbial adaptation.

Beyond human health, the implications of dark genome research span agriculture, synthetic biology, and environmental science – paving the way for transgene-free crop improvements, biocomputational circuits, and novel biosensors.

However, despite the promise, challenges persist. The context-specificity of expression, redundancy, limited annotation, and ethical uncertainties around editing non-coding DNA demand a balanced approach, integrating technical innovation with responsible governance.

Looking forward, the convergence of artificial intelligence, CRISPR technologies, spatial transcriptomics, and multi-omics systems will catalyze a new era of functional genomics. This will not only demystify the regulatory logic encoded in the dark genome but will also translate into clinical, ecological, and industrial innovations with far-reaching impact.

The imperative now is to continue investing in interdisciplinary research, open genomic data repositories, and ethical consensus frameworks to ensure that the dark genome is not only mapped but meaningfully understood and responsibly harnessed.

Conflicts of interest

The author declare no conflicts of interest related to this study. No competing financial interests or personal relationships could have influenced the content of this research review.

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AI Declaration

No artificial intelligence (AI) tools or automated writing assistants were used in the research, drafting, or editing of this manuscript. The content, including the literature review, analysis, and writing, was entirely produced by the authors. All conclusions and interpretations are based on human expertise, critical evaluation of the literature, and independent scholarly work.

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Ethical approval

As this is a review article, no new human or animal data were collected, and thus, ethical approval was not required.

Data availability

No new datasets were generated or analyzed during this study. All data supporting this review are derived from previously published sources, which have been appropriately cited.

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