The translational landscape of SARS-CoV-2 and infected cells

Maritza Puray-Chavez[1,*], Kasyap Tenneti[1,*], Hung R. Vuong[1,*], Nakyung Lee[1], Yating

Liu[2], Amjad Horani[3], Tao Huang[4], James Brett Case[5], Wei Yang[2], Michael S.

Diamond[1,5,6], Steven L. Brody[4], Joseph Dougherty[2,7], Sebla B. Kutluay[1]

[1] Department of Molecular Microbiology, Washington University School of Medicine,

Saint Louis, MO 63110, USA

[2] Department of Genetics, Washington University School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO

63110, USA

[3] Department of Pediatrics, Allergy, Immunology and Pulmonary Medicine, Washington

University School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO 63110, USA

[4] Department of Medicine, Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Washington University

School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO 63110, USA

[5] Department of Medicine, Infectious Disease Division, Washington University School of

Medicine, Saint Louis, MO 63110, USA

[6] Department of Pathology & Immunology, Washington University School of Medicine,

Saint Louis, MO 63110, USA

[7] Department of Psychiatry, Washington University School of Medicine, Saint Louis, MO

63110, USA

Correspondence: Kutluay@wustl.edu

Highlights

• Ribo-seq reveals key translationally regulated events in SARS-CoV-2 replication

• SARS-CoV-2 frameshifting is substantially more efficient than HIV-1

• SARS-CoV-2 infection results in transcriptional upregulation of inflammatory and

interferon-stimulated genes

• SARS-CoV-2 disarms host responses at the level of mRNA translation

Summary

SARS-CoV-2, a betacoronavirus with a positive-sense RNA genome, has caused the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. Although a large number of transcriptional profiling studies have been conducted in SARS-CoV-2 infected cells, little is known regarding the translational landscape of host and viral proteins. Here, using ribosome profiling in SARS-CoV-2-infected cells, we identify structural elements that regulate viral gene expression, alternative translation initiation events, as well as host responses regulated by mRNA translation. We found that the ribosome density was low within the SARS-CoV-2 frameshifting element but high immediately downstream, which suggests the utilization of a highly efficient ribosomal frameshifting strategy. In SARS-CoV-2-infected cells, although many chemokine, cytokine and interferon stimulated genes were upregulated at the mRNA level, they were not translated efficiently, suggesting a translational block that disarms host innate host responses. Together, these data reveal the key role of mRNA translation in SARS-CoV-2 replication and highlight unique mechanisms for therapeutic development.

KEYWORDS: SARS-CoV-2, ribosome profiling, ribo-seq, mRNA translation, virus replication, ribosomal frameshifting, virus-host interaction, immune response, translational repression

INTRODUCTION

The Coronavirus (CoV) group encompasses of a number of single-stranded, positive-sense RNA viruses with unusually large genomes (27-32 kb), which infect a wide range of animal species, including humans (Masters, 2006, Weiss and Navas-Martin, 2005). Previously, outbreaks of two members of this group, severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS-CoV) and Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS-CoV), have caused lethal respiratory illnesses in 2002 and 2012, respectively (de Wit et al., 2016). Presently, SARS-CoV-2, the causative agent of the ongoing Coronavirus Disease-2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, has infected millions of people worldwide and has devastated the global economy. Currently, there are limited options for antiviral or immunomodulatory treatment against SARS-CoV-2, with only few therapies being currently recommended for more severe COVID-19 cases. A basic understanding of the replicative mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 and associated host responses potentially can foster the development of virus-specific therapies.

The first two-thirds of the 5' end of the SARS-CoV-2 genome is composed of two overlapping open reading frames (ORFs), ORF1a and ORF1b, which encode for two polyproteins, pp1a and pp1ab (Nakagawa et al., 2016). Pp1a is produced when translation of the genomic RNA terminates at the stop codon of ORF1a. Pp1ab is generated via a programmed -1 ribosomal frameshift (PRF) that occurs at the overlap between ORF1a and ORF1b, permitting the elongating ribosomes to bypass the termination signal in ORF1a (Plant and Dinman, 2008). Following synthesis, pp1a and pp1ab are cleaved by viral proteases to generate 15-16 mature nonstructural proteins (nsp) (Nakagawa et al., 2016). Many proteins encoded in ORF1b, are part the replication complex, thus making the -1 PRF to generate pp1ab a critical translational event for SARS-CoV-2 replication. Frameshifting in coronaviruses is regulated by a

highly conserved heptanucleotide slippery sequence (UUUAAAC) and an RNA

pseudoknot structure a few nucleotides downstream (Plant and Dinman, 2008). The

current models of PRF suggest that ribosomes stall upon encountering the pseudoknot

(Plant et al., 2003, Korniy et al., 2019). This event presumably enhances the efficiency of

ribosomal frameshifting by forcing the ribosomes to pause on the slippery sequence,

which in turn promote the -1 slippage. Once the pseudoknot unwinds and resolves, the

ribosome goes on to translate the alternate ORF.

Another well-known frameshifting mechanisms in human viruses is employed by

retroviruses through a stem-loop structure that regulates the expression of Gag/Gag-Pol

transcripts (Jacks et al., 1988, Wilson et al., 1988). Frameshifting here is thought

essential for maintenance of the ratio of Gag and Gag-Pol polyproteins as well as viral

infectivity (Shehu-Xhilaga et al., 2001, Garcia-Miranda et al., 2016). While frameshifting

is thought to be highly inefficient in HIV-1, with only 5-10% of ribosomes continuing into

the Pol ORF (Baril et al., 2003, Dulude et al., 2006, Jacks et al., 1988), CoV

frameshifting is thought to occur at a much higher efficiency (Irigoyen et al., 2016).

However, to date, the behavior of ribosomes within the frameshifting element for neither

SARS-CoV-2 nor HIV-1 in infected cells has been empirically assessed.

In addition to hijacking the host translational machinery, SARS-CoV-2 can modulate host

mRNA translation so as to suppress the immune system to ensure efficient propagation.

Indeed, several viral proteins reportedly impair host gene expression post-

transcriptionally (Lokugamage et al., 2012, Xiao et al., 2008, Kopecky-Bromberg et al.,

2006, Huang et al., 2011, Zhou et al., 2008, Kamitani et al., 2009, Narayanan et al.,

2008, Nakagawa et al., 2016). SARS-CoV nonstructural protein nsp1 induces

endonucleolytic cleavage in the 5'-UTR of cellular mRNAs, accelerating their turnover,

but not in viral mRNAs (Kopecky-Bromberg et al., 2006). Furthermore, nsp1 tightly binds

to the 40S ribosomal subunit and blocks translation initiation (Kamitani et al., 2009). This

dual capacity to cleave host mRNAs and directly inhibit their translation may allow

SARS-CoV-2 to overcome the type I IFN response in infected cells, as has been

demonstrated for SARS-CoV (Narayanan et al., 2008). On the other hand, the bulk of

published research on SARS-CoV- and SARS-CoV-2-host interactions has relied on

transcriptional profiling to study the immune response to infection (Blanco-Melo et al.,

2020, Butler et al., 2020, Menachery et al., 2014, Mitchell et al., 2013, Wilk et al., 2020,

Zhou et al., 2020). Such approaches may not fully capture the host immune response to

infection, in the face of viral mechanisms that block host mRNA translation.

Here, we have conducted in-depth ribosome profiling studies to gain insight into the role

of translational regulation in SARS-CoV-2 replication and the resulting host responses.

We found that ribosome occupancy on viral mRNAs was temporally regulated and partly

dependent on RNA abundance. In addition, ribosomes engaged with novel translation

initiation sites (TIS) and other potential regulatory elements on SARS-CoV-2 RNAs.

Viral mRNAs encoding E, S and ORF1ab were more efficiently translated than other viral

mRNAs, but the overall translation efficiency of viral mRNAs was not substantially

different than cellular mRNAs. In addition, we found that ribosomes were depleted rather

than enriched on the SARS-CoV-2 frameshifting site and SARS-CoV-2 frameshifting

was more efficient than HIV-1. Remarkably, while numerous inflammatory chemokines,

cytokines and ISGs were upregulated transcriptionally in SARS-CoV-2-infected cells, we

found that many were not efficiently translated. Overall, our study defines the

translational landscape of SARS-CoV-2-infected cells, revealing novel events that may

promote viral replication and disarm host immune responses at the level of mRNA

translation.

RESULTS

Ribosome profiling reveals key features of SARS-CoV-2 translational program

To study the relationship between transcriptionally and translationally regulated events

at early and late phases of SARS-CoV-2 infection, Vero E6 cells infected at low and high

multiplicity of infection (MOIs, 0.1 and 2 plaque forming units [PFU]/cell, respectively))

were monitored by RNA-seq and ribo-seq during the course of infection (**Fig. 1A**). High

quality duplicate sequencing libraries with favorable mapping statistics were generated

(**Tables S1-S4)**. Of note, the length of sequences derived from ribo-seq ranged between

28-33 nucleotides (**Table S1-S4**), within the expected range of ribosome protected

fragments (Ingolia et al., 2012, Ingolia et al., 2009), and the majority of ribo-seq reads

mapped to coding sequences and 5' UTRs as expected (data not shown). For low MOI

infections, ~50% of the uniquely mapping RNA-seq reads were derived from SARS-CoV-

2 mRNAs by 24 hours post infection (hpi) (**Fig. 1B**). By 48 hpi >80% of the uniquely

mapping reads were viral (**Fig. 1B**) demonstrating that viral mRNAs quickly dominate the

total cellular mRNA pool. The percentage of SARS-CoV-2-derived mRNAs did not

increase further at 72 hpi (**Fig. 1B**), partly due to virus-induced cytotoxicity.

Comparatively, a smaller percentage of ribosome-associated mRNAs were derived from

SARS-CoV-2, approximating 20 to 40% at early and late time points in infection,

respectively (**Fig. 1C**). Despite their relative abundance in the cytosol, viral RNAs were

not specifically enriched in ribosome-bound pool. As we observed significant levels of

cytotoxicity at 72 hpi, we focused our analyses on the earlier 24 and 48 hpi time points.

Plotting of RNA-seq reads on the viral genome demonstrated that N and ORF10-derived

mRNAs were highly abundant throughout infection (**Fig. 1D-E, and S1**), a finding

consistent with previous RNA-seq studies (Kim et al., 2020, Huang et al., 2020).

Relatively low numbers of antisense transcripts, generally proportional to the amount of

sense transcripts, were also captured despite the polyA-based RNA purification (**Fig.**

S1). Furthermore, ribosomes were enriched on N mRNAs, with a high peak surrounding

the translation start site, at 24 hpi (**Fig. 1D**). We noted that ribosome occupancy fell

abruptly after the N stop codon, although footprints were still detectable within the

ORF10 coding sequence, with an average read count of 136 per nucleotide. A second

high ribosome occupancy site was observed within the M ORF at 24 hpi, again with a

distinct peak around the translation start site (**Fig. 1D**). ORFs downstream from S also

were bound by ribosomes, albeit at lower levels (**Fig. 1D**). By 48 hpi, we found that high

ribosome occupancy sites shifted from the N ORF to upstream ORFs, and numerous

high ribosome occupancy sites were observed throughout the viral RNAs (**Fig. 1E**). In

particular, at 48 hpi, ORF1a and ORF1b translation appeared to be particularly efficient,

considering the low level of mRNA abundance observed by RNA-seq (**Fig. 1E and**

S2B). Ribosome occupancy within ORF1a and ORF1b was non-uniform and did not

correlate with proteolytic cleavage events occurring within these polyproteins (**Fig. S2A-**

B). Ribosome footprints also were observed on antisense transcripts (**Fig. S3**), albeit

infrequently.

Similar to other CoVs, SARS-CoV-2 frameshifting is thought to be regulated by the

conserved heptanucleotide slippery sequence (UUUAAAC) and a RNA pseudoknot

downstream from it spanning nucleotides 13408-13540 (**Fig. 1F**). Of note, ribosome

occupancy was fairly low within the frameshifting site but increased immediately

following it (**Fig. 1G**), suggesting a relatively high efficiency of frameshifting. In addition,

ribosome density was also depleted ~100 nucleotides upstream of the frameshifting site

(**Fig. 1G**). We speculate that the pseudoknot structure may sterically hinder translating

ribosomes upstream of the frameshifting site or that the RNA structure may extend to

upstream sequences.

Kinetics of early translationally regulated events in SARS-CoV-2 replication

To identify early translationally regulated events in SARS-CoV-2 replication, we

conducted similar experiments in Vero E6 cells infected at a higher MOI but monitored at

earlier times in infection (**Fig. 1A**). At 2 hpi, only a small fraction of mRNAs was derived

from SARS-CoV-2 RNAs, though by 12 hpi, nearly 80% of the total mRNA pool was viral

(**Fig. 2A**). Viral RNAs were more abundant in the ribosome bound pool at 2 hpi and by

12 hpi ~50% of the ribosome-protected fragments contained viral sequences (**Fig. 2B**).

As before, viral RNAs did not appear to be specifically enriched in the ribosome-bound

pool (**Fig. 2B**).

N and ORF10-derived sequences were the most abundant viral RNA species throughout

the infection (**Fig. 2C-G**) and consistent results were obtained from replicate

experiments (**Fig. S4-S5**). Analysis of ribosome footprints on viral RNAs at 2 hpi

revealed the presence of a high occupancy site (**Fig. 2C, Fig. S6A, and S7A**), which

accounted for the majority of ribo-seq reads derived from viral RNAs (**Fig. 2B**). This

region, spanning nucleotides 27371-27457 is located between ORF6 and ORF7, is not

fully conserved between SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV (**Fig. S8A**), and is predicted to

form a structured hairpin loop with high probability (**Fig. S8B**). Reads that mapped to this

region displayed a length distribution around 29-34 nt, suggesting that they are authentic

ribosome protected fragments rather than aberrant products of PCR or digestion bias.

High ribosome occupancy in this region was maintained throughout the infection (**Fig.**

S8C) and across biological replicates (**Fig. S6A and S7A**).

Following a high MOI infection, ribosome occupancy on viral RNAs increased

significantly by 6 hpi, featuring N and M coding mRNAs constituting as the most

frequently translated RNAs (**Fig. 2D, Fig. S6B, and S7B**). Ribosome occupancy across

viral RNAs increased further by 12 hpi (**Fig. 2E, S6C and S7C**) and remained high

during the remainder of infection (**Fig. 2F, 2G, S6D, S6E, S7D and S7E**). Ribosome

footprints were non-uniform with numerous high and low frequency binding sites

observed reproducibly across viral RNAs (**Fig. 2C-G, S6, S7**). Of note, the frameshifting

element had a generally low ribosome density compared to the surrounding sequences

throughout the infection (**Fig. S9A-E**). Ribosome occupancy was low upstream of the

frameshifting site (**Fig. S9A-E**), again suggesting the possibility of an alternative RNA

structure and/or steric hindrance by the frameshifting element on translating ribosomes.

Analogous to SARS-CoV-2, HIV-1 also utilizes -1 ribosomal frameshifting, in this case

for generation of the Gag-Pol polyprotein (Jacks et al., 1988, Wilson et al., 1988). HIV-1

frameshifting is regulated by a slippery sequence followed by a structured hairpin loop

(Mouzakis et al., 2013, Staple and Butcher, 2005) (**Fig. S10B**). To compare the

frameshifting efficiency of SARS-CoV-2 to HIV-1, we next performed paired ribo-seq and

RNA-seq experiments in HIV-1-infected CD4+ T-cells (**Table S5 and S6**). In contrast to

SARS-CoV-2, ribosome occupancy was high within the HIV-1 frameshifting element but

dropped substantially 3' to it and remained low throughout the Pol ORF (**Fig. S10A and

10C**). This suggests that ribosomes may pause and accumulate within the frameshifting

site but only a small fraction of them continue translating into the Pol ORF, a finding that

agrees with prior estimates of low (5-10%) HIV-1 frameshifting efficiency (Biswas et al.,

2004, Dulude et al., 2006, Shehu-Xhilaga et al., 2001, Baril et al., 2003, Jacks et al.,

1988). Thus, we conclude that programmed ribosomal frameshifting is regulated through

distinct mechanisms between HIV-1 and SARS-CoV-2, despite the similar structural

elements that regulate this process.

We next tested whether SARS-CoV-2 can utilize alternative translation initiation, which is

increasingly recognized as a key post-transcriptional regulatory mechanism (Kwan and

Thompson, 2019, James and Smyth, 2018). To do so, ribo-seq experiments were

performed as in Fig. 2 but in the presence of harringtonine, which results in the

accumulation of ribosomes at translation initiation sites. In addition to accumulation of

ribosomes at the canonical start codons, harringtonine treatment resulted in

accumulation of ribosomes at alternative translation initiation sites during the course of

infection, albeit at generally lower frequencies. For example, at 6 hpi, an internal

noncanonical start codon 'UUG' within M ORF was utilized at ~30% of the time,

predicted to result in an out-of-frame peptide of 53 amino acids long (**Table S7**). An

alternative translation initiation codon 'AGG' at 21868 nt appeared to be utilized within S

at 6, 12 and 24 hpi, which would result in a short 18 amino acid peptide (**Table S7**).

Finally alternative translation initiation sites were observed within M, resulting in an out-

of-frame peptide and a truncated version of M (**Table S7**). Together, these results

provide the high resolution map of ribosomes on viral mRNAs during different stages of

infection and reveal key sequence and structural elements that influence SARS-CoV-2

translational program.

Ribo-seq in primary HBECs reveal a similar SARS-CoV-2 translational program

To corroborate these findings in a more relevant cell culture system, we performed ribo-

seq studies in primary human bronchial epithelial cells (HBEC) grown at air-liquid

interface. Cells inoculated at an MOI of 0.5 were processed for RNA-seq and ribo-seq at

6, 24, 48 and 72 hpi. A parallel set of experiments were done at MOI of 1 and followed

during a shorter time course. In contrast to Vero cells, the progression of infection in

HBECs was relatively slow and a small percentage of the cells were infected (**Fig. S11**).

In line with this, the amount of newly synthesized viral RNAs was low at 6 hpi, although

by 24 hpi numerous virally derived sequences were present (**Table S8 and S9**). Similar

to experiments done in Vero E6 cells (**Fig. 1 and 2**), the majority of these sequences

were derived from subgenomic viral mRNAs coding for N and to a lesser extent

upstream ORFs including M, ORF6, ORF7 and ORF8 (**Fig. 3A**). The lower

permissiveness of these cells to infection resulted in few viral RNAs bound to ribosomes

at 6 hpi (**Table S8**). Ribosomes bound by viral RNAs were readily detected at 24, 48,

and 72 hpi, with N and M ORFs being the most frequently translated (**Fig. 3B-D**). We

found distinct accumulation of ribosomes within N, M and ORF1a translation start sites

as well as 5' end of ORF1a (**Fig. 3B-D**). Overall, these results suggest the presence of a

similar gene expression cascade in the primary HBECs in comparison to Vero E6 cells.

Inflammatory and innate immune mRNAs are inefficiently translated in SARS-CoV-

2 infected cells

Several studies have focused on the transcriptional landscape of innate responses to

SARS-CoV-2 (Blanco-Melo et al., 2020, Butler et al., 2020, Menachery et al., 2014,

Mitchell et al., 2013, Wilk et al., 2020, Zhou et al., 2020). However, currently there is little

evidence as to whether transcriptionally induced mRNAs are actually translated in the

setting of a virus that can in principle induce translational arrest (Nakagawa et al., 2016)

and ISGs (e.g. IFIT1 and PKR) that can inhibit mRNA translation (Li et al., 2015). Using

ribo-seq, we next assessed how cells respond to SARS-CoV-2 infection at a

translational level.

Paired RNA-seq and ribo-seq data (for high MOI infections) obtained from independent

and reproducible experiments (**Fig. S12**) were analyzed for differential gene expression

patterns. As early as 2 hpi, we found transcriptional upregulation of several chemokine

ligands (i.e.CXCL1, CXCL3, CXCL8) and transcription factors involved in cell cycle

regulation and induction of inflammation (i.e.NR4A3 and EGR3) (**Fig. 4A**). In contrast,

we noted a general trend in RNA downregulation (**Fig. 4A**), which persisted throughout

the infection (**Fig. 4B-C, and S13**). 6 hpi timepoint was also marked by upregulation of

chemokine ligands (CXCL1, CXCL3, CXCL8, CXCL11) (**Fig. 4B**) and by 12 hpi

numerous ISGs (e.g. IFIT family members, MX1, IFI44), IL1A and IFN-λ were also

upregulated (**Fig. 4C**). Remarkably, the majority of these transcript level changes were

not apparent in Ribo-seq data (**Fig. 4D-F and S14**), suggesting that mRNAs encoding

genes in the host defense responses may not be efficiently translated. Of note, this

pattern was not global. For example, EGR1, EGR3 and IFIH1, were induced at

equivalent levels both in RNA-seq and ribo-seq experiments (**Fig. S14**). This pattern

grossly continued at 24 and 48 hpi, though by 48 hpi upregulated genes were primarily

associated with cell death, likely reflecting viral and immune-mediated cytotoxicity (**Fig.**

S15A, B).

Time-course gene set enrichment analysis corroborated the differences between

transcriptional and translational responses in infected Vero cells. For example,

numerous sets of genes involved in chemokine, cytokine and interferon signaling were

upregulated at 2 hpi in the RNA-seq data set (**Fig. 5A**), but these changes were not

evident in the ribo-seq data set (**Fig. 5B**). Although at later time points both RNA-seq

and ribo-seq data sets were enriched in gene sets related to interferon responses,

inflammatory responses, IL2 and IL6 signaling, these responses appeared to be lower in

magnitude for ribo-seq data, with fewer genes enriched in each family and a significant

delay in kinetics (**Fig. 5A-B**). Together, these findings suggest that immune response

genes are translationally repressed and their expression significantly delayed in infected

cells.

Many of these findings held consistent for the low MOI infections. Analysis of

independent and reproducible RNA-seq (**Fig. S16A**) and Ribo-seq (Fig. **S16B**)

experiments revealed that transcription factors ATF3 and EGR1, key regulators of

inflammatory responses, were upregulated at 24 hpi alongside with numerous

chemokine ligands (i.e. CXCL1, CXCL8, CXCL10) and interleukin 6 (**Fig. 6A**). Of note,

despite the fact that Vero cells are known to be deficient in type-I IFN production, we

noted the upregulation of numerous ISGs (i.e. IFIT1, IFIT2, IFIT3) as well as IFN-lambda

at 24 hpi (**Fig. 6A**). The 48 hpi timepoint was marked by upregulation of genes involved

in cell cycle regulation and apoptosis (i.e. FOS, NR4A3), as well as inflammatory

cytokines such as IL-31 and ISGs including OASL (**Fig. 6B**). In line with our above

observations, the great majority of the transcriptionally upregulated genes were not

translationally upregulated at 24 hpi (**Fig. 6C**) and 48 hpi (**Fig.6D**). Interleukins IL11 and

IL1A stood out as immune-related genes that were translationally upregulated at 24 and

48 hpi, respectively (**Fig. 6C, D**)

Although a small percentage of cells in the primary airway culture system described

above were infected, analysis of differentially expressed transcripts revealed significant

and consistent trends in gene expression profiles upon infection. For example, we found

that gene sets involved in inflammatory response, interferon alpha, interferon gamma,

IL2 and IL6 signaling were upregulated as early as 6 hpi by RNA-seq, despite the lack of

observable virus replication (**Fig. S17A**). At 48 hpi, the transcriptional landscape was

marked by the upregulation of other sets of genes involved in IL2 and IL6 signaling,

inflammation, complement and hypoxia, amongst others (**Fig. S17A**). Many of these

responses were tuned down or non-existent in the ribo-seq data set (**Fig. S17B**),

suggesting that mRNA translation may similarly be repressed in this more relevant cell

culture system.

SARS-CoV-2 infection also induced significant alternative translation initiation from

numerous cellular mRNAs (**Table S10**). Of note, a highly significant increase in

utilization of a downstream start codon was observed within the S100A4 mRNA and an

mRNA coding for an unknown protein (LOC103221995) at 2 hpi (**Table S10**). Other

alternative translation initiation events were observed for S100A10, EXOSC7, and in

mRNAs coding for proteins with unknown functions including C11H12orf75 and

LOC103221995 as listed in Table S10. Taken together, these findings suggest that

alternative translation initiation may help diversify host responses and immunity.

Comparison of SARS-CoV-2 and host mRNA translation efficiencies

We next assessed the translational efficiency of cellular host response genes in infected

cells and how this compared to viral mRNA translation. In mock-infected cells, most

cellular mRNAs were translated at levels proportional to their mRNA abundance (**Fig.**

7A). Notable outliers included mRNAs encoding for ribosomal subunits, which were

translated less efficiently as observed before (Riba et al., 2019), and DDX25 RNA

helicase, which constituted one of the most efficiently translated mRNAs (**Fig. 7A**). The

translational efficiency of viral mRNAs was not substantially different than the majority of

cellular mRNAs with ORF1AB, S and E mRNAs translated at a modestly higher

efficiency and the remainder of viral mRNAs at a lower efficiency than average, a pattern

that did not vary with progression of infection (**Fig. 7B-F**). Thus, the high abundance of

viral mRNAs, as opposed to a specific regulated mechanism, likely ensures the

abundance of viral proteins. Consistent with our earlier observations, we found that the

differentially expressed chemokine ligands and ISGs generally were translated less

efficiently (**Fig. 7C-D and S14**). Of note numerous cellular genes with unknown

functions were translationally upregulated in infected cells (**Fig. 7B-F**).

DISCUSSION

Here we utilized ribosome profiling (ribo-seq) coupled with RNA-seq to study the

translational events that regulate viral gene expression and host responses over the

course of SARS-CoV-2 infection. SARS-CoV-2 replicates rapidly, with viral RNAs

constituting the great majority of the total mRNA pool soon after infection. Our data show

that viral mRNA abundance is the main determinant of viral protein expression and

SARS-CoV-2 mRNAs sequester ribosomes from the translating pool by competition,

simply outnumbering the host counterparts. Notwithstanding certain viral mRNAs (i.e.

those encoding S, E and ORF1ab) were translated more efficiently translated than

others. In addition, we show that ribosome occupancy on viral RNAs is uneven, changes

during the course of infection, and alternative translation initiation sites and RNA

structural elements may be utilized. Analysis of mRNA translation in infected cells

uncovered that inflammatory and innate responses can be dampened by inefficient

mRNA translation in SARS-CoV-2 –infected cells. Together, our study provides an in-

depth picture of translationally regulated events in SARS-CoV-2 replication and reveal

that impairment of host mRNA translation may allow SARS-CoV-2 to evade host

immunity.

We observed that SARS-CoV-2 RNA structure is designed to employ efficient

frameshifting to speed replication. Ribosomal frameshifting requires a heptanucleotide

slippery sequence and a RNA pseudoknot, generally a H-type, positioned six to eight

nucleotides downstream (Giedroc and Cornish, 2009). Multiple models for ribosomal

frameshifting posit that the ribosome pauses at the slippery sequence upon

encountering the pseudoknot, which is resistant to unwinding (Farabaugh, 1996,

Dinman, 2012). While paused, ribosomes either stay in-frame or slip -1 nt before

resuming translation. A corollary of this notion is that the stimulatory structure, in turn,

enhances frameshifting efficiency by promoting ribosomal pausing. In line with this, we

observed low ribosome occupancy in the SARS-CoV-2 frameshifting site (**Fig. 1G and**

S9). Notably, ribosome pausing extended 100 nucleotides upstream of the frameshifting

site, suggesting an alternative frameshifting structure that includes upstream sequences

or steric hindrance imposed by the pseudoknot structure. Ribosome density downstream

of the frameshifting site within the ORF1b was remarkably high, suggesting high

efficiency of frameshifting in spite of ribosomal pausing.

The behavior of ribosomes was drastically different between the SARS-CoV-2 and HIV-1

frameshifting sites. In contrast to SARS-CoV-2, ribosomes accumulated within the HIV-1

frameshifting element and only a small fraction of them continued into the Pol ORF,

suggesting a significantly lower efficiency of frameshifting. We hypothesize that both

sequence-specific and structural features contribute to SARS-CoV-2 frameshifting

efficiency. It is thought that HIV-1 has a particularly slippery sequence (UUUUUUA) as

compared to SARS-CoV-2 (UUUAAAC), which may underlie this difference (Giedroc and

Cornish, 2009). In addition, structures downstream of the slippery sequence may have

an impact (Plant and Dinman, 2008). For example, the HIV-1 frameshifting element is

predicted to have a simpler pseudoknot (Chang et al., 1999, Parkin et al., 1992, Brierley

and Dos Ramos, 2006, Huang et al., 2014) or hairpin loop structure (Mouzakis et al.,

2013, Staple and Butcher, 2005). In particular, previous studies suggest that

frameshifting efficiency positively correlates with the mechanical stability and

thermodynamic stability of the pseudoknot and stem loop, respectively (Hansen et al.,

2007, Chen et al., 2009, Bidou et al., 1997). In addition, host proteins can also affect

frameshifting. Of note, an interferon-stimulated gene (ISG) product, known as C19orf66

(Shiftless), has recently been demonstrated to impair HIV-1 replication through inhibition

of HIV-1 programmed frameshifting (Wang et al., 2019). Altogether, our data suggest

that SARS-CoV-2 and HIV-1 frameshifting occurs through distinct mechanisms. It

remains to be determined how distinct elements within the frameshifting site affect and

whether other viral or cellular proteins are involved in modulating the frameshifting

efficiencies of these viruses.

SARS-CoV-2 mRNA translation may be regulated by other structural elements. For

example, we observed a high ribosome occupancy site that is present throughout the

course of infection and located between ORF6 and ORF7 (**Fig. 2C, S8**). This site is

computationally predicted to form a structured hairpin loop that may trigger ribosomal

pausing during translation of genomic viral RNA and thus lead to the observed high

ribosome occupancy (**Fig. S8**). Of note, ribosome occupancy within this region fell after

harringtonine treatment, suggesting that it may serve a function other than translation

initiation (not shown). While the biological role of this RNA structure is not apparent, it

may play a role in regulating the relative expression of ORF6 and ORF7 (depending on if

the structure persists in subgenomic mRNAs), or serve as a translation pause site within

the genomic RNA. Other potential functions of this element include co-translational

protein folding, protein targeting, or co-translational degradation of both mRNA and

nascent peptide following pausing.

In addition, our study demonstrates that alternative, non-canonical translational start

sites internal to several viral genes such as S, E and M, can result in truncated isoforms

or short peptides (**Table S7**). While their presence still needs to be validated, this raises

the question of whether viral protein isoforms may play important biological role during

infection. Utilization of alternative translational initiation sites in response to infection also

appeared to be utilized within host mRNAs (**Table S10**), including members of the S100

family, which play key roles in regulation of cell cycle progression, cell motility, invasion,

autophagy, angiogenesis and membrane trafficking (Donato et al., 2013, Marenholz et

al., 2004). Of note, extracellular S100A4 may function as a regulator of inflammation and

can stimulate tumor cells to secrete proinflammatory cytokines (Bettum et al., 2014, Li et

al., 2020). On the other hand, S100A10 may function as a pro-viral factor (Bharadwaj et

al., 2013, Liu et al., 2015, Taylor et al., 2018) and has also been suggested to play

important roles in the life cycle of numerous viruses that target epithelial cells (Taylor et

al., 2018).

Our study provides the first in depth picture of how host cell responses to SARS-CoV-2

are regulated at a post-transcriptional level. This is of utmost importance given that

several SARS-CoV proteins have been reported to suppress host translation and that

numerous genes involved in innate immunity act to block mRNA translation. Such

regulatory events would be completely neglected in transcriptomic screens. In fact, we

observed upregulation of proinflammatory chemokines as early as 2 hpi followed by a

more delayed induction of ISGs, a finding in line with previous observations in

immortalized lung cell lines (Blanco-Melo et al., 2020). However, the increase in

transcript abundance did not correlate with higher levels of translation and majority of

them appeared to be translated at a low efficiency (**Fig. 7 and S14**).

The apparent low translation efficiency of host response mRNAs may be mediated by

the SARS-CoV-2 protein nsp1 that was reported to associate tightly with the 40S

ribosomal subunit to prevent binding of capped mRNA and thus inhibit the formation of

the translation initiation complex (Narayanan et al., 2015). We cannot rule out that the

translational suppression may also be contributed by the host's attempt to curb viral

replication, including members of the IFIT family with known functions in translation

inhibition (Hyde and Diamond, 2015, Fensterl and Sen, 2015, Reynaud et al., 2015,

Daffis et al., 2010, Diamond and Farzan, 2013). A further alternative is that the

translation of these mRNAs is inherently inefficient due to presence of unique 5' UTR

structures.

While COVID-19 pathogenesis is in part due to virus-induced destruction of infected

cells, elevated production of inflammatory mediators and the virus-induced

immunopathology are thought to play a big role in SARS-CoV-2-induced lung injury

(Channappanavar and Perlman, 2017, Perlman and Dandekar, 2005). Our findings

suggest that immune responses in actively infected cells may be dampened or delayed

for SARS-CoV-2 to efficiently replicate and release viral progeny. As such, it is possible

that the elevated levels of inflammatory mediators in vivo is due to infection of immune

cell subsets, such as monocytes and macrophages, that are less permissive to SARS-

CoV-2 but can sense and respond to infection by secretion of immune modulatory

molecules (Jafarzadeh et al., 2020).

Taken together, we provide novel insight into how translational regulation shapes SARS-

CoV-2 replication and host responses. Our finding that induction of inflammatory and

innate immune responses can be limited at the level of mRNA translation provides a

paradigm shifting mechanism of how SARS-CoV-2 can encounter immune responses.

Modulation of viral RNA structures and proteins that regulate mRNA translation will

undoubtedly provide a unique avenue for therapeutic development.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: We would like to thank members of the Diamond lab for reagents and support. This work was supported by Washington University startup funds for SBK, R21 AI145669 to SBK and JD, National Science Foundation Graduate Research Fellowship under Grant No. DGE-1745038 to KV, Stephen I. Morse postdoctoral fellowship to MPC, Helen Hay Whitney Foundation postdoctoral fellowship to J.B.C., and the Dorothy R. and Hubert C. Moog Professorship to SLB.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS: MPC, HRV, AH, TH, JBC conducted the experiments. KT,
NL, YL, WY conducted the bioinformatics analysis. HRV and SBK wrote the original
manuscript with input from MSD, SLB, JD, JBC.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Ribo-seq reveals uneven ribosome occupancy on SARS-CoV-2 RNAs
during low MOI infection. (A) Schematic diagram of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq
experiments conducted in this study. Vero E6 cells were infected at 0.1 pfu/cell and cells
were processed for RNA-seq and Ribo-seq at 24, 48 and 72 hpi. (B, C) Percentage of
RNA-seq (B) and Ribo-seq (C) reads uniquely mapping to SARS-CoV-2 and cellular
transcripts at the indicated time points post infection. Individual data points indicate
biological replicates. (D, E) Ribo-seq and RNA-seq reads (counts) along the viral
genome at 24 hpi (D) and 48 hpi (E). Schematic diagram of SARS2 genome features
shown below is co-linear. Red arrows denote translation initiation sites. (F) Predicted
secondary structure of the frameshifting site is depicted. (G) Ribo-seq read counts at
48hpi within the SARS2 frameshifting site. The position of the frameshifting element is
indicated with the red rectangle.

Figure 2. Changes in ribosome occupancy on the SARS-CoV-2 genome during

high MOI infection. Vero E6 cells were infected at 2 pfu/cell and processed for RNA-

seq and Ribo-seq at 2, 6, 12, 24 and 48 hpi. (A, B) Percentage of RNA-seq (A) and

Ribo-seq (B) reads uniquely mapping to SARS-CoV-2 and cellular transcripts at the

indicated time points post-infection. Individual data points indicate biological replicates.

(C-G) Ribo-seq and RNA-seq reads (counts) mapping to the viral genome at 2 hpi (C), 6

hpi (D), 12 hpi (E), 24 hpi (F) and 48 hpi (G) are shown. Schematic diagram of SARS2

genome features illustrated below in co-linear.

Figure 3. Ribo-seq experiments in primary HBEC cultures grown at ALI. HBECs

grown at ALI were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at a MOI of 0.5 i.u./cell and processed for

RNA-seq at 24 hpi (A) and ribosome profiling at 24 (B), 48 (C) and 72 (D) hpi. Ribo-seq

reads (counts, y-axis) along the viral genome (x-axis) is shown. Schematic diagram of

SARS2 genome features shown below is co-linear.

Figure 4. Differentially transcribed and translated host genes in SARS-CoV-2-

infected cells (high MOI). Vero E6 cells were infected at 2 pfu/cell and processed for

RNA-seq at 2 hpi and Ribo-seq at 2 hpi (A, D), 6 hpi (B, E), and 12 hpi (C, F). Heatmaps

show the $\log_2$ counts per million mapped reads (cpm) of the top differentially expressed

genes (FDR<0.05, fold change>2) derived from two independent experiments. Scale of

each graph is shown below.

Figure 5. Expression dynamics of differentially transcribed cellular mRNAs in

response to SARS-CoV-2 infection. Time-course gene set analysis (TcGSA) was

performed on the RNA-seq (A) and Ribo-seq (B) data derived from the above

experiments. The heatmap shows an under (blue) or an over (red) expression for each

significant gene set. The numbers next to each gene set indicate a particular subset of

genes which trend differently from other genes within the same gene set.

Figure 6. Differentially transcribed and translated host genes in SARS-CoV-2-

infected cells (low MOI). Vero E6 cells were infected at 0.1 pfu/cell and cells were

processed for RNA-seq (A, B) and Ribo-seq (C, D) at 24 and 48 hpi. Heatmaps show the

counts per million mapped reads (cpm) of the top differentially expressed genes

(FDR<0.05, fold change>2) derived from two independent experiments. Scale of each

graph is shown below.

Figure 7. Comparison of SARS-CoV-2 and host mRNA translation efficiencies.

Translation efficiencies of viral and host mRNAs were assessed as described in

Materials and Methods. Plots show translational efficiencies of host mRNAs in mock

infected cells (A), 2 (B), and 48hpi (C) as these samples all had low or zero viral

replication, as well as viral and host mRNAs in infected cells at 6 hpi (C), 12 hpi (D) and

24 hpi (E). Translational efficiencies of key differentially expressed genes derived from

RNA-seq and Ribo-seq are represented by orange circles. Reference genes with notably

high and low translational efficiencies are represented by blue circles. Viral genes are

represented by red circles.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals and reagents. Standard laboratory chemicals were obtained from reputable suppliers such as Sigma-Aldrich. Cycloheximide (CHX) was obtained from Sigma, dissolved in ethanol and stored at -20°C. Harringtonine (HT) was purchased from LKT Laboratories, Inc., resuspended in DMSO and stored in aliquots of 2 mg/mL at -20°C.

Plasmids and viruses. A proviral plasmid encoding the full length HIV-1 genome was obtained from NIH AIDS Reagents. HIV-1 stocks were generated by transfection of Human embryonic kidney cell line, HEK293T, with proviral plasmids and collection of cell culture supernatants two days after. Viruses were treated by DNase to avoid plasmid carryover and concentrated by Lenti-X concentrator. HIV-1 stocks were titered on TZM-bl cells by conventional methods. CD4$^+$ T-cells activated for 4-5 days were used for HIV-1 infections. SARS-CoV-2 strain 2019-nCoV/USA-WA1/2020 was obtained from Natalie Thornburg at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), propagated in Vero CCL-81 cells and titrated on Vero E6 cells by focus-forming assays.

Cells and infections. HEK293T and TZM-bl cells were obtained from ATCC and NIH AIDS Reagent Program respectively and were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) (high glucose), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) in a humidified incubator at 37°C with 5% CO_2. For isolation of primary CD4$^+$ T-cells, buffy coats (from anonymous healthy blood donors from Mississippi Blood Center) were separated by Ficoll and CD4$^+$ T-cells purified using RosetteSep Human CD4+ T-cell enrichment kit (STEMCELL Technologies). CD4$^+$ T-cells cells were maintained in Roswell Park Memorial Institute 1640 medium (RPMI) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS and L-glutamine. Activation of CD4$^+$ T cells was achieved by addition of 25 U/ml of interleukin-2 (IL-2) and CD4$^+$ T-cell activation Dynabeads (Life Technologies).

CD4^{+} T-cells activated for 4-5 days were used for HIV-1 infections. Vero CCL-81 and

Vero E6 were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 10 mM HEPES pH

7.4. For SARS-CoV-2 infections, Vero E6 cells were incubated with SARS-CoV-2

inoculum in DMEM-supplemented with 2% FBS for an hour in a humidified incubator at

37°C, after which the initial inoculum was removed and replaced by cell culture media.

Primary human bronchial epithelial cells (HBECs) grown at air-liquid interface (ALI).

Human airway epithelial cells were isolated from surgical excess of tracheobronchial

segments of lungs donated for transplantation as previously described and were exempt

from regulation by US Department of Health and Human Services regulation 45 Code of

Federal Regulations Part 46 (Horani et al., 2012). Tracheobronchial cells were expanded

in culture, seeded on supported membranes (Transwell; Corning, Inc.), and

differentiated using ALI conditions as detailed before (You et al., 2002, Horani et al.,

2018).

Ribosome profiling. Ribosome profiling (Ribo-seq) was performed as described before

with the following modifications (Ingolia et al., 2009, Ingolia et al., 2012). Mock- and HIV-

1- or SARS-CoV-2-infected cells were treated with complete cell culture media

supplemented with 0.1 mg/mL CHX for 1 min at room temperature followed by one

round of wash in ice-cold PBS supplemented with 0.1 mg/mL CHX. Cells were lysed in

1X mammalian polysome lysis buffer (20 mM Tris·HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl, 5 mM

$MgCl_2$, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% NP-40, 1 mM DTT, 10 units of DNase I, with 0.1 mg/mL

CHX). The cells were then triturated by repeated pipetting and incubated with lysis buffer

for at least 20 min to ensure virus inactivation. Lysates were centrifuged for 10 min at

≥20,000 g at 4°C for clarification. The supernatants were split into multiple aliquots, with

SDS added to one aliquot to a final concentration of 1% for downstream RNA-seq

sample preparation, and flash frozen in a 70% ethanol/dry ice bath or directly placed at -

80°C. Lysates were treated with RNase I ($5U/OD_{260}$) and ribosome-protected fragments

were isolated via centrifugation through Microspin S-400 HR columns (GE Healthcare)

and purified using the RNA Clean and Concentrator kit (Zymo Research). Recovered

ribosome-bound fragments (RBFs) are then subjected to rRNA depletion using RiboZero

beads from the TruSeq Stranded Total RNA Library Prep Gold kit (Illumina) and purified

using Zymo RNA Clean and Concentrator kit. Fragments were then end-labeled with γ-

^{32}P-ATP using T4 polynucleotide kinase (NEB), separated on 15% TBE-Urea gels and

visualized by autoradiography. RNA fragments of ~30 nt were excised from the gels and

purified as detailed before in 400 µL of 0.4 M NaCl supplemented with 4 µL

SUPERaseIN. 3' and 5' adapters were sequentially ligated as in a previously described

protocol (Kutluay et al., 2014, Kutluay and Bieniasz, 2016), reverse transcribed and PCR

amplified. Libraries were then sequenced on HiSeq-2000 or NextSeq 500 platforms

(Illumina) at the Genome Technology Access Center or the Edison Family Center for

Genome Sciences & Systems Biology, respectively, at Washington University School of

Medicine.

RNA-seq. An aliquot of cell lysates harvested from ribosome profiling (Ribo-seq)

experiments above was processed in parallel for RNA-seq using TruSeq Stranded

mRNA library prep (Illumina). RNA-seq libraries were constructed using TruSeq RNA

single-index adapters and deep sequenced as above at Washington University in St.

Louis.

Data analysis.

Mapping. Generated RNA-seq and Ribo-seq data were analyzed by publicly available

software and custom scripts. In brief, for Ribo-seq, reads were separated based on

barcodes and the adapters trimmed using BBDuk (http://jgi.doe.gov/data-and-

tools/bb-tools/) and FastX Toolkit (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_toolkit/).   The

resulting reads were mapped to the viral genome/transcriptome using the Bowtie aligner

(Langmead et al., 2009), and to the African green monkey (AGM) genome (*Chlorocebus*

sabaeus) in STAR (Dobin et al., 2013).   For AGM alignments, reads were first mapped

to rRNA to remove any rRNA-derived reads not completely removed by depletion kits,

and then mapped to the AGM genome. RNA-seq reads were similarly mapped to the

viral and AGM genomes using STAR, although the rRNA alignment step was omitted.

For AGM alignments, mapped reads were annotated using the featureCounts package

and GTF files freely available from NCBI and Ensembl.

Statistical Analysis: Differential gene expression analysis was carried out using the

featureCounts output files via the edgeR package (Robinson et al., 2010), available from

Bioconductor. Efforts in this area focused on determining upregulated genes using

individual Ribo-seq and RNA-seq experiments, as well as the analysis of log-fold change

differences between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq to discover translationally regulated genes.

These same files and packages were also used to generate quality control plots and

graphics highlighting differentially expressed genes. The calculation of translational

efficiency involved normalizing counts to account for library size in edgeR to generate

log2 counts-per-million (log$_2$CPM) estimates for each gene in Ribo-seq and RNA-seq,

and subtracting log2CPM RNA-seq from log2CPM Ribo-seq to provide an estimate of

the difference in expression level between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq for a given gene.

Additionally, the R package TcGSA was used to determine individual host genes and

gene sets differentially regulated over time (Hejblum et al., 2015). The normalized gene

counts at each time-point were provided as input, along with the 'hallmark' Gene Matrix

file containing annotated sets of processes and associated genes, downloaded from

GSEA (Subramanian et al., 2005, Mootha et al., 2003). As output, the program provides

clusters of genes within each gene set, which follow particular trends. From these

clusters, individual genes differentially regulated over time were extracted and plotted as

heatmaps in R.

Downstream analysis of sets of differential genes involved the use of goseq (Young et

al., 2010) and KEGGREST R packages (Tenenbaum, 2020). These programs use a list

of differential genes generated by edgeR to provide gene ontology analysis and enriched

biochemical pathways. Additionally, the R package biomart was used to retrieve

annotations and generate counts within the UTRs of human genes, after removing

repetitive low-complexity elements such as LINEs and retroviral sequences using the

hg19RepeatMasker GTF from UCSC. The R package riboWaltz (Lauria et al., 2018)

was utilized to determine the location of ribosomal P-sites with respect to the 5' end of

reads, as well as illustrating triplet periodicity and determining the percentage of reads

within each frame in CDS and UTR . Finally, the metagene R package (Beauparlant,

2020) was applied to generate an aggregate analysis of ribosomal density downstream

of start codons and upstream of stop codons in the corresponding genome.

Alternative TIS sites in both host and viral reads were found using the Ribo-TISH

package (Zhang et al., 2017). For viral TIS, analysis was carried out in the 'predict' mode

comparing samples mock-treated or treated with harringtonine at each timepoint (with

replicates). This was replicated for host analysis, although with the additional step of

analysis in the 'diff' mode to predict TIS differentially regulated between infected and

uninfected cells.

Viral Counts: Viral read density plots were generated using the SAM file from viral

genome alignment. The SAMtools (Li et al., 2009) package was used to create an

mpileup file containing information about the read density, strandedness, mapping

quality, and nucleotide identity at each position. Custom scripts then were utilized to

create files providing only the nucleotide identity and number of counts at each position

for both sense and antisense reads. These were then visualized by scripts written in R.

As SARS-CoV-2 generates chimeric subgenomic mRNAs (sgRNAs) in addition to its

genomic RNA (gRNA), featureCounts could not be used to accurately estimate viral

gene counts from RNASeq due to the presence of nested 3' sequences. Therefore, in

order to visualize and enumerate such chimeric sequences the BWA aligner (Li and

Durbin, 2009) was used in 'mem' mode on viral RNASeq reads. After generating this

alignment using the default parameters and same reference SARS-CoV-2 FASTA file as

above, chimeric reads were isolated by searching for all reads containing the 'SA' tag

and the SARS TRS sequence, 'AAACGAAC'. SARS-CoV-2 gRNAs were extracted by

searching for all reads containing the first 15-20 bases of the ORF1A coding sequence

(CDS), as these sequences would only be present in full-length SARS-CoV-2 genomes.

This provided the sequences and alignment locations of the chimeric and genomic

reads, which were then visualized using R. For sgRNAs, the viral gene corresponding to

each transcript was determined by locating the CDS with the nearest downstream start

site. This data, together with the number of gRNAs was used to calculate relative

percentages of viral transcripts and, together with the total number of mapped viral

reads, allowed for the tabulation of viral gene counts at each time point. For ribosome

profiling data, featureCounts was used to enumerate the number of viral reads, as

ribosomes only translate the first gene on each transcript and so footprints from nested

3' gene were low enough to be negligible.

 SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure S1. RNA-seq on sense and antisense SARS-CoV-2 transcripts during low

MOI infection (Supplemental to Figure 1). Data derived from experiments described in

Figure 1 and a replicate experiment were plotted to demonstrate the number of reads

that map to sense vs. antisense transcripts at 24 (A) and 48 (B) hpi. Schematic diagram

of SARS-CoV-2 genome features shown below is co-linear.

Figure S2. Ribosome occupancy on the SARS-CoV-2 genome during low MOI

infection (Supplemental to Figure 1). Vero E6 cells were infected at 0.1 pfu/cell and

cells were processed for RNA-seq and Ribo-seq as in Figure 1. Ribo-seq and RNA-seq

reads (counts) mapping to the first 20000 nucleotides (ORF1ab) of the viral genome at

24 (A) and 48 (B) hpi with constituent non-structural proteins (NSPs) shown below is co-

linear.

Figure S3. Ribosome occupancy on sense and antisense SARS-CoV-2 transcripts

during low MOI infection (Supplemental to Figure 1). Ribo-seq data derived from the

two independent experiments described in Figure 1 were plotted to demonstrate the

number of reads mapping to sense and antisense transcripts at 24 (A, C) and 48 (B, D)

hpi. Schematic diagram of SARS2 genome features shown below is co-linear.

Figure S4. RNA-seq on sense and antisense SARS-CoV-2 transcripts during high

MOI infection (Supplemental to Figure 2). RNA-seq data derived from experiments

described in Figure 1 were plotted to demonstrate the number of reads that map to

sense and. antisense transcripts at 2 hpi (A), 6 hpi (B), 12 hpi (C), 24 hpi (D) and 48 hpi

(E). Schematic diagram of SARS2 genome features shown below is co-linear.

Figure S5. Reproducibility of RNA-seq experiments (Supplemental to Figure 2).

RNA-seq data derived from a replicate experiment described in Figure 1 were plotted to

demonstrate the number of reads that map to sense vs. antisense transcripts at 2 hpi

(A), 6 hpi (B), 12 hpi (C), 24 hpi (D) and 48 hpi (E). Schematic diagram of SARS2

genome features shown below is co-linear.

Figure S6. Ribosome occupancy on sense and antisense SARS-CoV-2 transcripts

during high MOI infection (Supplemental to Figure 2). Ribo-seq data derived from

experiments described in Figure 1 were plotted to demonstrate the number of reads that

map to sense vs. antisense transcripts at 2 hpi (A), 6 hpi (B), 12 hpi (C), 24 hpi (D) and

48 hpi (E). Schematic diagram of SARS2 genome features shown below is co-linear.

Figure S7. Reproducibility of Ribo-seq experiments (Supplemental to Figure 2).

Ribo-seq data derived from a replicate experiment described in Figure 1 were plotted to

demonstrate the number of reads that map to sense vs. antisense transcripts at 2 hpi

(A), 6 hpi (B), 12 hpi (C), 24 hpi (D) and 48 hpi (E). Schematic diagram of SARS2

genome features shown below is co-linear.

Figure S8. Properties of the high ribosome occupancy site located between 27371-

27457 nt (supplemental to Figure 2). (A) Sequence homology of the high ribosome

occupancy site between SARS-CoV-2 27371-27457nts and SARS-CoV (27243-27336).

(B) Predicted secondary structure of the SARS-CoV-2 sequence at 27371-27457nts

using RNAstructure. (C) Ribosome occupancy surrounding nucleotides 27371-27457 at

the indicated time points post-infection.

Figure S9. Ribosome occupancy remains low within the SARS-CoV-2

frameshifting site throughout infection (supplemental to Figure 2). Ribosome

occupancy surrounding and within the frameshifting site at the indicated time points

post-infection (derived from Ribo-seq experiments in Figure 2) is shown. Red bars

indicate the position of the frameshifting element.

Figure S10. Ribo-seq in HIV-1-infected cells reveals structural elements that

regulate translation (supplemental to Figure 2). Primary CD4+ T-cells were infected

with HIV-1$_{NL4-3}$/VSV-G at an MOI of 2 and infected cells processed for RNA-seq and

Ribo-seq at 24 hpi. (A) Ribo-seq and RNA-seq reads (counts) mapping to the HIV-1

genome is shown. Schematic diagram of HIV-1 genome features shown below is co-

linear. (B) Secondary structure prediction of the HIV-1 ribosome frameshifting element is

shown. (C) Ribosome occupancy within the frameshifting site is shown.

Figure S11. SARS-CoV-2 infection of primary HBECs grown at ALI (supplemental

to Figure 3). Primary HBEC cultures were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 0.5

i.u./cell and fixed at 72 hpi. Cells were probed with anti-spike (anti-S) and anti-

nucleoprotein (anti-N) antibodies and imaged by microscopy.

Figure S12. Reproducibility of RNA-seq and ribo-seq data sets (supplemental to

Figure 4). (A) Correlation of log$_2$(counts per million mapped reads) for each gene

derived from RNA-seq experiments is shown. **(B)** Correlation of log$_2$ counts per million

mapped reads for each gene derived from ribo-seq experiments is shown.

Figure S13. SARS-CoV-2 infection induces a general decrease in host mRNA

expression (high MOI, supplemental to Figure 4). Vero E6 cells were infected at 2

pfu/cell and cells were processed for RNA-seq. Volcano plots show the $\log_2$ fold-change

(x-axis) vs. significance (-log(Pvalue), y-axis) of host genes at 2 hpi (A), 6 hpi (B), 12 hpi

(C), 24 hpi (D) and 48 hpi (E). Top differentially expressed genes (FDR<0.05, fold

change>2) are indicated by blue dots.

Figure S14. SARS-CoV-2 infection results in lower translation rates for mRNAs

coding for immune responses (supplemental to Figure 4). Expression levels (fold

change over mock) of select immune-related mRNAs that were significantly upregulated

in RNA-seq data set were compared to expression levels derived from ribo-seq data set.

Figure S15. Differentially transcribed and translated host genes in SARS-CoV-2-

infected cells (supplemental to Figure 4). Vero E6 cells were infected at 2 pfu/cell and

processed for RNA-seq at 2 hpi and Ribo-seq at 24 hpi (A, C) and 48 hpi (B, D).

Heatmaps show the $\log_2$ counts per million mapped reads (cpm) of the top differentially

expressed genes (FDR<0.05, fold change>2) derived from two independent

experiments. Scale of each graph is shown below.

Figure S16. Reproducibility of RNA-seq and ribo-seq data sets (supplemental to

Figure 7). (A) Correlation of $\log_2$(counts per million mapped reads) for each gene

derived from RNA-seq experiments (low MOI) is shown. **(B)** Correlation of $\log_2$ counts

per million mapped reads for each gene derived from ribo-seq experiments (low MOI) is

shown.

Figure S17. Transcriptional responses of HBECs to SARS-CoV-2. HBECs grown at

ALI were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at a MOI of 0.5 i.u./cell and processed for RNA-seq

(A) and ribo-seq (B) at 6, 24 and 48 hpi. Data were analyzed for trends in gene set

enrichment over the period of infection.

REFERENCES

BARIL, M., DULUDE, D., GENDRON, K., LEMAY, G. & BRAKIER-GINGRAS, L. 2003.
Efficiency of a programmed -1 ribosomal frameshift in the different subtypes of
the human immunodeficiency virus type 1 group M. *RNA,* 9**,** 1246-53.
BEAUPARLANT, C. J., LAMAZE, F.C., SAMB, R., LIPPENS, C., DESCHENES, A.L.,
DROIT, A. 2020. metagene: A package to produce metagene plots. R package
version 2.20.0. .
BETTUM, I. J., VASILIAUSKAITE, K., NYGAARD, V., CLANCY, T., PETTERSEN, S. J.,
TENSTAD, E., MAELANDSMO, G. M. & PRASMICKAITE, L. 2014. Metastasis-
associated protein S100A4 induces a network of inflammatory cytokines that
activate stromal cells to acquire pro-tumorigenic properties. *Cancer Lett,* 344**,** 28-
39.
BHARADWAJ, A., BYDOUN, M., HOLLOWAY, R. & WAISMAN, D. 2013. Annexin A2
heterotetramer: structure and function. *Int J Mol Sci,* 14**,** 6259-305.
BIDOU, L., STAHL, G., GRIMA, B., LIU, H., CASSAN, M. & ROUSSET, J. P. 1997. In
vivo HIV-1 frameshifting efficiency is directly related to the stability of the stem-
loop stimulatory signal. *RNA,* 3**,** 1153-8.
BISWAS, P., JIANG, X., PACCHIA, A. L., DOUGHERTY, J. P. & PELTZ, S. W. 2004.
The human immunodeficiency virus type 1 ribosomal frameshifting site is an
invariant sequence determinant and an important target for antiviral therapy. *J
Virol,* 78**,** 2082-7.
BLANCO-MELO, D., NILSSON-PAYANT, B. E., LIU, W. C., UHL, S., HOAGLAND, D.,
MOLLER, R., JORDAN, T. X., OISHI, K., PANIS, M., SACHS, D., WANG, T. T.,
SCHWARTZ, R. E., LIM, J. K., ALBRECHT, R. A. & TENOEVER, B. R. 2020.
Imbalanced Host Response to SARS-CoV-2 Drives Development of COVID-19.
Cell, 181**,** 1036-1045 e9.
BRIERLEY, I. & DOS RAMOS, F. J. 2006. Programmed ribosomal frameshifting in HIV-1
and the SARS-CoV. *Virus Res,* 119**,** 29-42.
BUTLER, D. J., MOZSARY, C., MEYDAN, C., DANKO, D., FOOX, J., ROSIENE, J.,
SHAIBER, A., AFSHINNEKOO, E., MACKAY, M., SEDLAZECK, F. J., IVANOV,
N. A., SIERRA, M., POHLE, D., ZIETZ, M., GISLADOTTIR, U., RAMLALL, V.,
WESTOVER, C. D., RYON, K., YOUNG, B., BHATTACHARYA, C., RUGGIERO,
P., LANGHORST, B. W., TANNER, N., GAWRYS, J., MELESHKO, D., XU, D.,
STEEL, P. A. D., SHEMESH, A. J., XIANG, J., THIERRY-MIEG, J., THIERRY-
MIEG, D., SCHWARTZ, R. E., IFTNER, A., BEZDAN, D., SIPLEY, J., CONG, L.,
CRANEY, A., VELU, P., MELNICK, A. M., HAJIRASOULIHA, I., HORNER, S. M.,
IFTNER, T., SALVATORE, M., LODA, M., WESTBLADE, L. F., CUSHING, M.,
LEVY, S., WU, S., TATONETTI, N., IMIELINSKI, M., RENNERT, H. & MASON,
C. E. 2020. Shotgun Transcriptome and Isothermal Profiling of SARS-CoV-2
Infection Reveals Unique Host Responses, Viral Diversification, and Drug
Interactions. *bioRxiv*.
CHANG, S. Y., SUTTHENT, R., AUEWARAKUL, P., APICHARTPIYAKUL, C., ESSEX,
M. & LEE, T. H. 1999. Differential stability of the mRNA secondary structures in
the frameshift site of various HIV type 1 viruses. *AIDS Res Hum Retroviruses,*
15**,** 1591-6.
CHANNAPPANAVAR, R. & PERLMAN, S. 2017. Pathogenic human coronavirus
infections: causes and consequences of cytokine storm and immunopathology.
Semin Immunopathol, 39**,** 529-539.
CHEN, G., CHANG, K. Y., CHOU, M. Y., BUSTAMANTE, C. & TINOCO, I., JR. 2009.
Triplex structures in an RNA pseudoknot enhance mechanical stability and

increase efficiency of -1 ribosomal frameshifting. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A,* 106**,**
12706-11.
DAFFIS, S., SZRETTER, K. J., SCHRIEWER, J., LI, J., YOUN, S., ERRETT, J., LIN, T.
Y., SCHNELLER, S., ZUST, R., DONG, H., THIEL, V., SEN, G. C., FENSTERL,
V., KLIMSTRA, W. B., PIERSON, T. C., BULLER, R. M., GALE, M., JR., SHI, P.
Y. & DIAMOND, M. S. 2010. 2'-O methylation of the viral mRNA cap evades host
restriction by IFIT family members. *Nature,* 468**,** 452-6.
DE WIT, E., VAN DOREMALEN, N., FALZARANO, D. & MUNSTER, V. J. 2016. SARS
and MERS: recent insights into emerging coronaviruses. *Nat Rev Microbiol,* 14**,**
523-34.
DIAMOND, M. S. & FARZAN, M. 2013. The broad-spectrum antiviral functions of IFIT
and IFITM proteins. *Nat Rev Immunol,* 13**,** 46-57.
DINMAN, J. D. 2012. Mechanisms and implications of programmed translational
frameshifting. *Wiley Interdiscip Rev RNA,* 3**,** 661-73.
DOBIN, A., DAVIS, C. A., SCHLESINGER, F., DRENKOW, J., ZALESKI, C., JHA, S.,
BATUT, P., CHAISSON, M. & GINGERAS, T. R. 2013. STAR: ultrafast universal
RNA-seq aligner. *Bioinformatics,* 29**,** 15-21.
DONATO, R., CANNON, B. R., SORCI, G., RIUZZI, F., HSU, K., WEBER, D. J. &
GECZY, C. L. 2013. Functions of S100 proteins. *Curr Mol Med,* 13**,** 24-57.
DULUDE, D., BERCHICHE, Y. A., GENDRON, K., BRAKIER-GINGRAS, L. &
HEVEKER, N. 2006. Decreasing the frameshift efficiency translates into an
equivalent reduction of the replication of the human immunodeficiency virus type
1. *Virology,* 345**,** 127-36.
FARABAUGH, P. J. 1996. Programmed translational frameshifting. *Microbiol Rev,* 60**,**
103-34.
FENSTERL, V. & SEN, G. C. 2015. Interferon-induced Ifit proteins: their role in viral
pathogenesis. *J Virol,* 89**,** 2462-8.
GARCIA-MIRANDA, P., BECKER, J. T., BENNER, B. E., BLUME, A., SHERER, N. M. &
BUTCHER, S. E. 2016. Stability of HIV Frameshift Site RNA Correlates with
Frameshift Efficiency and Decreased Virus Infectivity. *J Virol,* 90**,** 6906-6917.
GIEDROC, D. P. & CORNISH, P. V. 2009. Frameshifting RNA pseudoknots: structure
and mechanism. *Virus Res,* 139**,** 193-208.
HANSEN, T. M., REIHANI, S. N., ODDERSHEDE, L. B. & SORENSEN, M. A. 2007.
Correlation between mechanical strength of messenger RNA pseudoknots and
ribosomal frameshifting. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A,* 104**,** 5830-5.
HEJBLUM, B. P., SKINNER, J. & THIEBAUT, R. 2015. Time-Course Gene Set Analysis
for Longitudinal Gene Expression Data. *PLoS Comput Biol,* 11**,** e1004310.
HORANI, A., DRULEY, T. E., ZARIWALA, M. A., PATEL, A. C., LEVINSON, B. T., VAN
ARENDONK, L. G., THORNTON, K. C., GIACALONE, J. C., ALBEE, A. J.,
WILSON, K. S., TURNER, E. H., NICKERSON, D. A., SHENDURE, J., BAYLY,
P. V., LEIGH, M. W., KNOWLES, M. R., BRODY, S. L., DUTCHER, S. K. &
FERKOL, T. W. 2012. Whole-exome capture and sequencing identifies HEATR2
mutation as a cause of primary ciliary dyskinesia. *Am J Hum Genet,* 91**,** 685-93.
HORANI, A., USTIONE, A., HUANG, T., FIRTH, A. L., PAN, J., GUNSTEN, S. P.,
HASPEL, J. A., PISTON, D. W. & BRODY, S. L. 2018. Establishment of the early
cilia preassembly protein complex during motile ciliogenesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*
U S A, 115**,** E1221-E1228.
HUANG, C., LOKUGAMAGE, K. G., ROZOVICS, J. M., NARAYANAN, K., SEMLER, B.
L. & MAKINO, S. 2011. SARS coronavirus nsp1 protein induces template-
dependent endonucleolytic cleavage of mRNAs: viral mRNAs are resistant to
nsp1-induced RNA cleavage. *PLoS Pathog,* 7**,** e1002433.

HUANG, J., HUME, A. J., ABO, K. M., WERDER, R. B., VILLACORTA-MARTIN, C., ALYSANDRATOS, K. D., BEERMANN, M. L., SIMONE-ROACH, C., OLEJNIK, J., SUDER, E. L., BULLITT, E., HINDS, A., SHARMA, A., BOSMANN, M., WANG, R., HAWKINS, F., BURKS, E. J., SAEED, M., WILSON, A. A., MUHLBERGER, E. & KOTTON, D. N. 2020. SARS-CoV-2 Infection of Pluripotent Stem Cell-derived Human Lung Alveolar Type 2 Cells Elicits a Rapid Epithelial-Intrinsic Inflammatory Response. *bioRxiv*.

HUANG, X., YANG, Y., WANG, G., CHENG, Q. & DU, Z. 2014. Highly conserved RNA pseudoknots at the Gag-Pol junction of HIV-1 suggest a novel mechanism of -1 ribosomal frameshifting. *RNA,* 20**,** 587-93.

HYDE, J. L. & DIAMOND, M. S. 2015. Innate immune restriction and antagonism of viral RNA lacking 2-O methylation. *Virology,* 479-480**,** 66-74.

INGOLIA, N. T., BRAR, G. A., ROUSKIN, S., MCGEACHY, A. M. & WEISSMAN, J. S. 2012. The ribosome profiling strategy for monitoring translation in vivo by deep sequencing of ribosome-protected mRNA fragments. *Nat Protoc,* 7**,** 1534-50.

INGOLIA, N. T., GHAEMMAGHAMI, S., NEWMAN, J. R. & WEISSMAN, J. S. 2009. Genome-wide analysis in vivo of translation with nucleotide resolution using ribosome profiling. *Science,* 324**,** 218-23.

IRIGOYEN, N., FIRTH, A. E., JONES, J. D., CHUNG, B. Y., SIDDELL, S. G. & BRIERLEY, I. 2016. High-Resolution Analysis of Coronavirus Gene Expression by RNA Sequencing and Ribosome Profiling. *PLoS Pathog,* 12**,** e1005473.

JACKS, T., POWER, M. D., MASIARZ, F. R., LUCIW, P. A., BARR, P. J. & VARMUS, H. E. 1988. Characterization of ribosomal frameshifting in HIV-1 gag-pol expression. *Nature,* 331**,** 280-3.

JAFARZADEH, A., CHAUHAN, P., SAHA, B., JAFARZADEH, S. & NEMATI, M. 2020. Contribution of monocytes and macrophages to the local tissue inflammation and cytokine storm in COVID-19: Lessons from SARS and MERS, and potential therapeutic interventions. *Life Sci***,** 118102.

JAMES, C. C. & SMYTH, J. W. 2018. Alternative mechanisms of translation initiation: An emerging dynamic regulator of the proteome in health and disease. *Life Sci,* 212**,** 138-144.

KAMITANI, W., HUANG, C., NARAYANAN, K., LOKUGAMAGE, K. G. & MAKINO, S. 2009. A two-pronged strategy to suppress host protein synthesis by SARS coronavirus Nsp1 protein. *Nat Struct Mol Biol,* 16**,** 1134-40.

KIM, D., LEE, J. Y., YANG, J. S., KIM, J. W., KIM, V. N. & CHANG, H. 2020. The Architecture of SARS-CoV-2 Transcriptome. *Cell,* 181**,** 914-921 e10.

KOPECKY-BROMBERG, S. A., MARTINEZ-SOBRIDO, L. & PALESE, P. 2006. 7a protein of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus inhibits cellular protein synthesis and activates p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase. *J Virol,* 80**,** 785-93.

KORNIY, N., SAMATOVA, E., ANOKHINA, M. M., PESKE, F. & RODNINA, M. V. 2019. Mechanisms and biomedical implications of -1 programmed ribosome frameshifting on viral and bacterial mRNAs. *FEBS Lett,* 593**,** 1468-1482.

KUTLUAY, S. B. & BIENIASZ, P. D. 2016. Analysis of HIV-1 Gag-RNA Interactions in Cells and Virions by CLIP-seq. *Methods Mol Biol,* 1354**,** 119-31.

KUTLUAY, S. B., ZANG, T., BLANCO-MELO, D., POWELL, C., JANNAIN, D., ERRANDO, M. & BIENIASZ, P. D. 2014. Global changes in the RNA binding specificity of HIV-1 gag regulate virion genesis. *Cell,* 159**,** 1096-1109.

KWAN, T. & THOMPSON, S. R. 2019. Noncanonical Translation Initiation in Eukaryotes. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol,* 11.

LANGMEAD, B., TRAPNELL, C., POP, M. & SALZBERG, S. L. 2009. Ultrafast and
memory-efficient alignment of short DNA sequences to the human genome.
Genome Biol, 10**,** R25.
LAURIA, F., TEBALDI, T., BERNABO, P., GROEN, E. J. N., GILLINGWATER, T. H. &
VIERO, G. 2018. riboWaltz: Optimization of ribosome P-site positioning in
ribosome profiling data. *PLoS Comput Biol,* 14**,** e1006169.
LI, H. & DURBIN, R. 2009. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-
Wheeler transform. *Bioinformatics,* 25**,** 1754-60.
LI, H., HANDSAKER, B., WYSOKER, A., FENNELL, T., RUAN, J., HOMER, N.,
MARTH, G., ABECASIS, G., DURBIN, R. & GENOME PROJECT DATA
PROCESSING, S. 2009. The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools.
Bioinformatics, 25**,** 2078-9.
LI, M. M., MACDONALD, M. R. & RICE, C. M. 2015. To translate, or not to translate:
viral and host mRNA regulation by interferon-stimulated genes. *Trends Cell Biol,*
25**,** 320-9.
LI, Z., LI, Y., LIU, S. & QIN, Z. 2020. Extracellular S100A4 as a key player in fibrotic
diseases. *J Cell Mol Med,* 24**,** 5973-5983.
LIU, Y., MYRVANG, H. K. & DEKKER, L. V. 2015. Annexin A2 complexes with S100
proteins: structure, function and pharmacological manipulation. *Br J Pharmacol,*
172**,** 1664-76.
LOKUGAMAGE, K. G., NARAYANAN, K., HUANG, C. & MAKINO, S. 2012. Severe
acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus protein nsp1 is a novel eukaryotic
translation inhibitor that represses multiple steps of translation initiation. *J Virol,*
86**,** 13598-608.
MARENHOLZ, I., HEIZMANN, C. W. & FRITZ, G. 2004. S100 proteins in mouse and
man: from evolution to function and pathology (including an update of the
nomenclature). *Biochem Biophys Res Commun,* 322**,** 1111-22.
MASTERS, P. S. 2006. The molecular biology of coronaviruses. *Adv Virus Res,* 66**,** 193-
292.
MENACHERY, V. D., EISFELD, A. J., SCHAFER, A., JOSSET, L., SIMS, A. C., PROLL,
S., FAN, S., LI, C., NEUMANN, G., TILTON, S. C., CHANG, J., GRALINSKI, L.
E., LONG, C., GREEN, R., WILLIAMS, C. M., WEISS, J., MATZKE, M. M.,
WEBB-ROBERTSON, B. J., SCHEPMOES, A. A., SHUKLA, A. K., METZ, T. O.,
SMITH, R. D., WATERS, K. M., KATZE, M. G., KAWAOKA, Y. & BARIC, R. S.
2014. Pathogenic influenza viruses and coronaviruses utilize similar and
contrasting approaches to control interferon-stimulated gene responses. *mBio,* 5**,**
e01174-14.
MITCHELL, H. D., EISFELD, A. J., SIMS, A. C., MCDERMOTT, J. E., MATZKE, M. M.,
WEBB-ROBERTSON, B. J., TILTON, S. C., TCHITCHEK, N., JOSSET, L., LI, C.,
ELLIS, A. L., CHANG, J. H., HEEGEL, R. A., LUNA, M. L., SCHEPMOES, A. A.,
SHUKLA, A. K., METZ, T. O., NEUMANN, G., BENECKE, A. G., SMITH, R. D.,
BARIC, R. S., KAWAOKA, Y., KATZE, M. G. & WATERS, K. M. 2013. A network
integration approach to predict conserved regulators related to pathogenicity of
influenza and SARS-CoV respiratory viruses. *PLoS One,* 8**,** e69374.
MOOTHA, V. K., LINDGREN, C. M., ERIKSSON, K. F., SUBRAMANIAN, A., SIHAG, S.,
LEHAR, J., PUIGSERVER, P., CARLSSON, E., RIDDERSTRALE, M., LAURILA,
E., HOUSTIS, N., DALY, M. J., PATTERSON, N., MESIROV, J. P., GOLUB, T.
R., TAMAYO, P., SPIEGELMAN, B., LANDER, E. S., HIRSCHHORN, J. N.,
ALTSHULER, D. & GROOP, L. C. 2003. PGC-1alpha-responsive genes involved
in oxidative phosphorylation are coordinately downregulated in human diabetes.
Nat Genet, 34**,** 267-73.

MOUZAKIS, K. D., LANG, A. L., VANDER MEULEN, K. A., EASTERDAY, P. D. & BUTCHER, S. E. 2013. HIV-1 frameshift efficiency is primarily determined by the stability of base pairs positioned at the mRNA entrance channel of the ribosome. *Nucleic Acids Res,* 41**,** 1901-13.

NAKAGAWA, K., LOKUGAMAGE, K. G. & MAKINO, S. 2016. Viral and Cellular mRNA Translation in Coronavirus-Infected Cells. *Adv Virus Res,* 96**,** 165-192.

NARAYANAN, K., HUANG, C., LOKUGAMAGE, K., KAMITANI, W., IKEGAMI, T., TSENG, C. T. & MAKINO, S. 2008. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus nsp1 suppresses host gene expression, including that of type I interferon, in infected cells. *J Virol,* 82**,** 4471-9.

NARAYANAN, K., RAMIREZ, S. I., LOKUGAMAGE, K. G. & MAKINO, S. 2015. Coronavirus nonstructural protein 1: Common and distinct functions in the regulation of host and viral gene expression. *Virus Res,* 202**,** 89-100.

PARKIN, N. T., CHAMORRO, M. & VARMUS, H. E. 1992. Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 gag-pol frameshifting is dependent on downstream mRNA secondary structure: demonstration by expression in vivo. *J Virol,* 66**,** 5147-51.

PERLMAN, S. & DANDEKAR, A. A. 2005. Immunopathogenesis of coronavirus infections: implications for SARS. *Nat Rev Immunol,* 5**,** 917-27.

PLANT, E. P. & DINMAN, J. D. 2008. The role of programmed-1 ribosomal frameshifting in coronavirus propagation. *Front Biosci,* 13**,** 4873-81.

PLANT, E. P., JACOBS, K. L., HARGER, J. W., MESKAUSKAS, A., JACOBS, J. L., BAXTER, J. L., PETROV, A. N. & DINMAN, J. D. 2003. The 9-A solution: how mRNA pseudoknots promote efficient programmed -1 ribosomal frameshifting. *RNA,* 9**,** 168-74.

REYNAUD, J. M., KIM, D. Y., ATASHEVA, S., RASALOUSKAYA, A., WHITE, J. P., DIAMOND, M. S., WEAVER, S. C., FROLOVA, E. I. & FROLOV, I. 2015. IFIT1 Differentially Interferes with Translation and Replication of Alphavirus Genomes and Promotes Induction of Type I Interferon. *PLoS Pathog,* 11**,** e1004863.

RIBA, A., DI NANNI, N., MITTAL, N., ARHNE, E., SCHMIDT, A. & ZAVOLAN, M. 2019. Protein synthesis rates and ribosome occupancies reveal determinants of translation elongation rates. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A,* 116**,** 15023-15032.

ROBINSON, M. D., MCCARTHY, D. J. & SMYTH, G. K. 2010. edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics,* 26**,** 139-40.

SHEHU-XHILAGA, M., CROWE, S. M. & MAK, J. 2001. Maintenance of the Gag/Gag-Pol ratio is important for human immunodeficiency virus type 1 RNA dimerization and viral infectivity. *J Virol,* 75**,** 1834-41.

STAPLE, D. W. & BUTCHER, S. E. 2005. Solution structure and thermodynamic investigation of the HIV-1 frameshift inducing element. *J Mol Biol,* 349**,** 1011-23.

SUBRAMANIAN, A., TAMAYO, P., MOOTHA, V. K., MUKHERJEE, S., EBERT, B. L., GILLETTE, M. A., PAULOVICH, A., POMEROY, S. L., GOLUB, T. R., LANDER, E. S. & MESIROV, J. P. 2005. Gene set enrichment analysis: a knowledge-based approach for interpreting genome-wide expression profiles. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A,* 102**,** 15545-50.

TAYLOR, J. R., SKEATE, J. G. & KAST, W. M. 2018. Annexin A2 in Virus Infection. *Front Microbiol,* 9**,** 2954.

TENENBAUM, D. 2020. KEGGREST: Client-side REST access to KEGG. R package version 1.6.4.

WANG, X., XUAN, Y., HAN, Y., DING, X., YE, K., YANG, F., GAO, P., GOFF, S. P. & GAO, G. 2019. Regulation of HIV-1 Gag-Pol Expression by Shiftless, an Inhibitor of Programmed -1 Ribosomal Frameshifting. *Cell,* 176**,** 625-635 e14.

WEISS, S. R. & NAVAS-MARTIN, S. 2005. Coronavirus pathogenesis and the emerging
pathogen severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus. *Microbiol Mol Biol*
Rev, 69**,** 635-64.
WILK, A. J., RUSTAGI, A., ZHAO, N. Q., ROQUE, J., MARTINEZ-COLON, G. J.,
MCKECHNIE, J. L., IVISON, G. T., RANGANATH, T., VERGARA, R., HOLLIS,
T., SIMPSON, L. J., GRANT, P., SUBRAMANIAN, A., ROGERS, A. J. & BLISH,
C. A. 2020. A single-cell atlas of the peripheral immune response in patients with
severe COVID-19. *Nat Med,* 26**,** 1070-1076.
WILSON, W., BRADDOCK, M., ADAMS, S. E., RATHJEN, P. D., KINGSMAN, S. M. &
KINGSMAN, A. J. 1988. HIV expression strategies: ribosomal frameshifting is
directed by a short sequence in both mammalian and yeast systems. *Cell,* 55**,**
1159-69.
XIAO, H., XU, L. H., YAMADA, Y. & LIU, D. X. 2008. Coronavirus spike protein inhibits
host cell translation by interaction with eIF3f. *PLoS One,* 3**,** e1494.
YOU, Y., RICHER, E. J., HUANG, T. & BRODY, S. L. 2002. Growth and differentiation of
mouse tracheal epithelial cells: selection of a proliferative population. *Am J*
Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol, 283**,** L1315-21.
YOUNG, M. D., WAKEFIELD, M. J., SMYTH, G. K. & OSHLACK, A. 2010. Gene
ontology analysis for RNA-seq: accounting for selection bias. *Genome Biol,* 11**,**
R14.
ZHANG, P., HE, D., XU, Y., HOU, J., PAN, B. F., WANG, Y., LIU, T., DAVIS, C. M.,
EHLI, E. A., TAN, L., ZHOU, F., HU, J., YU, Y., CHEN, X., NGUYEN, T. M.,
ROSEN, J. M., HAWKE, D. H., JI, Z. & CHEN, Y. 2017. Genome-wide
identification and differential analysis of translational initiation. *Nat Commun,* 8**,**
1749.
ZHOU, B., LIU, J., WANG, Q., LIU, X., LI, X., LI, P., MA, Q. & CAO, C. 2008. The
nucleocapsid protein of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus inhibits
cell cytokinesis and proliferation by interacting with translation elongation factor
1alpha. *J Virol,* 82**,** 6962-71.
ZHOU, Z., REN, L., ZHANG, L., ZHONG, J., XIAO, Y., JIA, Z., GUO, L., YANG, J.,
WANG, C., JIANG, S., YANG, D., ZHANG, G., LI, H., CHEN, F., XU, Y., CHEN,
M., GAO, Z., YANG, J., DONG, J., LIU, B., ZHANG, X., WANG, W., HE, K., JIN,
Q., LI, M. & WANG, J. 2020. Heightened Innate Immune Responses in the
Respiratory Tract of COVID-19 Patients. *Cell Host Microbe,* 27**,** 883-890 e2.
1186

Figure 1

Figure 2

HBECs

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure S1

Figure S2

RNA-seq (Experiment 1)

Figure S4

Figure S5

Ribo-seq (Experiment 1)

Figure S6

Ribo-seq (Experiment 2)

Figure S7

Figure S8

Figure S10

mock
SARS-CoV-2

anti-Spike

anti-N

Merge + DAPI

Figure S11

Figure S12

Figure S13

Figure S14

A
RNA-seq

B
Ribo-seq

Figure S15

A

RNA-seq

Mock-24 hpi   r= 0.781

Mock-48 hpi   r= 0.801

24 hpi   r= 0.79

48 hpi   r= 0.917

Exp #2

Exp #1

B

Ribo-seq

Mock-24 hpi   r= 0.89

Mock-48 hpi   r= 0.914

24 hpi   r= 0.895

48 hpi   r= 0.94

Exp #2

Exp #1

Figure S16

Figure S17

Input Reads	Post filtering	Sample (Replicate)	Post split	After rRNA Removal	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to SARS2	average input/mapped read length	Successfully Annotated
240119926	113512372	Mock-24 hpi (1)	18556130	12531252	4414181	2931147	1121087		30/30.39	3626181
		Mock-48 hpi (1)	15268068	9110461	3502306	2406928	1254006		30/30.51	2880349
		Mock-72 hpi (1)	22968629	9812576	3599181	3236894	2157977		30/30.96	2955853
		SARS2-24 hpi (1)	27048479	15329273	3515977	5008162	1236987	441312	29/28.92	2551729
		SARS2-48 hpi (1)	22153135	11600758	2847544	2505902	1614050	2099541	30/29.13	1727442
		SARS2-72 hpi (1)	7932753	5073911	661869	2846591	397944	205771	26/26.93	320947
284101233	236485610	Mock-24 hpi (2)	37263056	23908072	2302059	13609879	6711424		29/29.79	501818
		Mock-48 hpi (2)	32581794	20005244	3509329	9430008	6037787		29/30.58	1952500
		Mock-72 hpi (2)	36353119	20697301	2042733	11283854	5479310		29/29.27	600854
		SARS2-24 hpi (2)	48602708	24784599	3685011	10174801	6376524	3032246	28/28.27	674390
		SARS2-48 hpi (2)	33969369	22335764	5177096	6073398	3612968	938445	28/28.49	2708996
		SARS2-72 hpi (2)	357375	205990	33058	75522	80661	69651	22/21.72	9620

Table S1. Ribosome profiling sequencing data statistics from Vero cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI: 0.1 pfu/cell.

Sample (Replicate)	Total reads	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to SARS2	Successfully Annotated
Mock-24 hpi (1)	16048877	11413147	2630393	96339	59	11413147
Mock-48 hpi (1)	31612110	20002220	2778616	102813	11	20002220
Mock-72 hpi (1)	31952785	22320398	3732850	93381	5690	22320398
SARS2-24 hpi (1)	24121125	12909565	2385337	94751	5460088	12909565
SARS2-48 hpi (1)	32038486	5744279	1044482	238260	23016982	5744279
SARS2-72 hpi (1)	35236256	20231898	3693507	89574	9809262	20231898
Mock-24 hpi (2)	53793235	46438482	6620570	91230	9997	1968195
Mock-48 hpi (2)	47305437	38324150	8204723	87923	338	1805809
Mock-72 hpi (2)	48680470	40742009	7321941	68043	74	1893306
SARS2-24 hpi (2)	44708066	8578965	1204848	13755	33552464	334906
SARS2-48 hpi (2)	53161052	6493865	1288835	20240	43222520	154923
SARS2-72 hpi (2)	29667661	7382521	807606	23561	18796772	189256

Table S2. RNA-seq data statistics from Vero cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI:0.1 pfu/cell.

Input Reads	Post filtering	Sample (Replicate)	Post-split	After rRNA Removal	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to SARS2	average input/mapped read length	Successfully Annotated
311081973	284076850	Mock (1)	14980667	10468680	2332999	5042224	1944977		33/33.94	741593
		2hpi (1)	27948924	22987682	4611214	12532389	4660725	1103692	32/34.08	1092933
		6hpi (1)	43526992	31134860	6217750	15596849	6093470	1551175	33/34.69	1462573
		12hpi (1)	37963432	26927124	4503233	10892917	4384290	5832731	34/31.17	1159517
		24hpi (1)	24746845	18792952	2460916	6608054	2435334	5858205	31/30.97	579551
		48hpi (1)	47283375	32729127	5341138	6459001	2412853	15287830	34/30.21	1479158
		Mock-HT (1)	9112514	8438963	994059	4777203	2058895		29/27	121991
		2hpi-HT (1)	7082983	5896103	936276	3289668	1010619	691198	29/29.26	169394
		6hpi-HT (1)	18740076	15280202	2883116	8218937	3316821	585565	33/34.38	409827
		12hpi-HT (1)	19310811	12901743	2312025	4882964	1837394	3491991	33/33.86	635033
		24hpi-HT (1)	29678661	21459301	2792375	7756678	2698415	8634953	33/31.96	686946
		48hpi-HT (1)	14199519	10678404	1385954	4241454	783749	3039381	30/29.81	333460
302437108	252792018	Mock (2)	23882901	14876437	1593575	8022889	4456008		29/28.8	513234
		2hpi (2)	19952834	9464529	1216490	5498407	2357078	66373	29/29.46	632221
		6hpi (2)	21574214	9619099	2080250	3646810	2207937	1182070	29/29.51	1517931
		12hpi (2)	50510944	17377874	3061812	7240744	5017851	1981913	29/29.25	2024693
		24hpi (2)	38403494	11341635	3541582	4081631	2366571	1070940	28/29.14	869048
		48hpi (2)	25175115	14942682	2431154	3996162	2864413	1548449	29/28.34	168514
		Mock-HT (2)	8369058	3752674	457124	2059322	953044		27/28.89	640700
		2hpi-HT (2)	11915163	5605698	996293	2799659	1467487	50089	28/29.6	799494
		6hpi-HT (2)	13866165	6852270	1180711	2971693	2012911	531969	29/29.22	880599
		12hpi-HT (2)	26438207	10749682	1648622	4807596	2396330	1028862	28/28.54	547327
		24hpi-HT (2)	13571409	6799631	942796	3822987	1295491	376636	28/28.1	110219
		48hpi-HT (2)	5224843	3311123	309371	1901201	402832	39080	24/24.39	2914659

Table S3. Ribosome profiling sequencing data statistics from Vero cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI: 2 pfu/cell.

Sample (Replicate)	Total reads	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to SARS2	Successfully Annotated
Mock (1)	37338927	31386146	5097968	60972	137	24411347
2hpi (1)	39713421	32167841	6635685	93605	5407	23438814
6hpi (1)	40516822	25114962	4525106	289009	9282471	18691668
12hpi (1)	37495946	10030544	1485647	15536	24273710	7650043
24hpi (1)	33692344	7288444	1118072	12573	23763640	5373931
48hpi (1)	49883029	9347159	1506486	27129	35156367	5806389
Mock-HT (1)	41732306	35407035	5590106	67501	342	27359651
2hpi-HT (1)	44082008	35280488	7788544	104779	6530	25541881
6hpi-HT (1)	45287025	28567578	4746019	55177	10551939	21754880
12hpi-HT (1)	38446206	9752825	1517583	16417	24821029	7526819
24hpi-HT (1)	39400410	7611935	1461503	306045	27505404	5417568
48hpi-HT (1)	50666409	8922574	1460623	31493	36519410	5573917
Mock (2)	37957138	30881275	6510403	68029	3244	21996800
2hpi (2)	36931129	30307432	6062939	67821	15067	21302828
6hpi (2)	35739671	12063334	1605738	20351	20925729	8596919
12hpi (2)	35311033	6470764	964035	18383	26505428	4630209
24hpi (2)	37104973	6513153	1111441	18498	28093183	4456958
48hpi (2)	42559697	4312593	529394	30146	34667088	1395334
Mock-HT (2)	37169747	29712344	6712049	71090	1100	21043171
2hpi-HT (2)	36268071	29846077	5793295	71890	11623	21047522
6hpi-HT (2)	37249573	12149668	1609833	19346	22215946	8760261
12hpi-HT (2)	38131757	8689865	1195175	15108	26884923	6215283
24hpi-HT (2)	39217273	8648495	1279753	20230	27889992	6086821
48hpi-HT (2)	37002102	5245805	605373	15322	28210143	1731200

Table S4. RNA-seq data statistics from Vero cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI: 2 pfu/cell.

Input Reads	Post filtering	Sample (Replicate)	Barcode splitting	Post rRNA Removal	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to HIV-1	average input/mapped read length	Successfully Annotated
132858214	128522303	D1 (1)	7101140	5580026	1102964	2060579	1746294		32/33	667418
		D1 (2)	7798062	6235670	1294570	2293363	2012644		32/32.51	856489
		D2 (1)	16709968	11754019	2394829	4352369	3995087		32/32	1572955
		D2 (2)	26637844	18965602	4027477	7593265	6387969		31/31.5	2860211
		D1+HIV(1)	21586713	16868602	3852355	6008176	6147839	58291	31/31.94	2896027
		D1+HIV(2)	18173066	14643680	2848808	6687803	4470512	20468	31/31.82	2093160
		D2+HIV(1)	5205872	3519549	859274	1333760	935731	2750	31/31.52	661646
		D2+HIV(2)	24724089	18546729	3535632	8090065	6028637	17062	31/31.35	2498892

Table S5. Ribosome profiling sequencing data statistics derived from primary CD4+ T-cells infected with HIV-1.

Sample (Replicate)	Total reads	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to HIV-1	Successfully Annotated
D1 (1)	20269815	16369761	3410629	91242		13350127
D1 (2)	17116347	13933060	2772236	73881		11423077
D2 (1)	13812584	11094042	2384786	59683		9185642
D2 (2)	16505434	13325514	2786310	68489		11084833
D1+HIV (1)	24954570	19121960	3810089	93496	1316706	14289511
D1+HIV (2)	17196463	13666425	2833187	71674	262213	11115813
D2+HIV (1)	13974451	11131234	2413665	60807	83150	9116782
D2+HIV (2)	12881842	10353187	2078523	55890	134218	8374759

Table S6. HIV-1 RNA-seq data statistics derived from primary CD4+ T-cells infected with HIV-1.

Gene ID (hpi)	Genome Position	Start Codon	Start	Stop	TisType	TIS Group	TIS Counts	Fisher Pvalue	AA Sequence
S (6)	21867-21924:+	AGG	305	362	Internal	0	298	9.39E-07	RLDFWYYFRFEDPVPTYC*
E (6)	26388-26472:+	GTG	144	228	Truncated	0	359	1.10E-06	VSLVKPSFYVYSRVKNLNSSRVPDLLV*
M (6)	26710-26872:+	TTG	188	350	Internal	1	663	1.78E-09	LFCACCCLQNKLDHRWNCYRNGLSCRLDVA QLLHCFFQTVCAYAFHVVIQSRN*
M (6)	26522-27191:+	ATG	0	669	Annotated	1	2393	1.19E-07	-
S (12)	21867-21924:+	AGG	305	362	Internal	0	3845	7.85E-08	RLDFWYYFRFEDPVPTYC*
S (24)	21867-21924:+	AGG	305	362	Internal	0	8900	1.10E-06	RLDFWYYFRFEDPVPTYC*
M (24)	26657-27191:+	TTG	135	669	Truncated	1	10606	3.81E-08	LYIIKLIFLWLLWPVTLACFVLAAVYRINWITGG IAIAMACLVGLMWLSYFIASFRLFARTRSMWS FNPETNILLNVPLHGTILTRPLLESELVIGAVIL RGHLRIAGHHLGRCDIKDLPKEITVATSRTLS YYKLGASQRVAGDSGFAAYSRYRIGNYKLNT DHSSSSDNIALLVQ*
N (24)	28273-29533: +	ATG	0	1260	Annotated	3	16308	1.03E-13	-

Table S7. Alternative translation initiation sites in SARS-CoV-2

Input Reads	Post filtering	Sample	Post-split	After rRNA Removal	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to SARS2	average input/mapped read length	Successfully Annotated
308599155	119266100	Mock	25072235	15945881	2041440	9123215	4173203	80	30/29.9	1061875
		6 hpi-MOI 0.5	12311716	6608269	983034	3625454	1487254	54	28/30.8	503754
		24 hpi-MOI 0.5	12787860	7800876	1144968	4169483	2024458	368	27/31	737704
		48 hpi-MOI 1	14759739	7902584	1114747	4350379	1868168	1249	28/31.1	748352
		72 hpi-MOI 0.5	15027944	9048779	1297674	4578063	2210898	1769	27/30.5	825972
		6 hpi-MOI 1	20194457	14194684	2065907	8457729	3328549	395	31/30.8	806193
		24 hpi-MOI 1	10316817	5766743	848917	3219550	1303416	291	27/31.2	563571
		48 hpi-MOI 1	9134078	4430741	758036	2391285	1013765	3429	29/33	418854

Table S8. Ribosome profiling sequencing data statistics from SARS-CoV-2 infected HBEC cells grown at ALI.

Sample	Total reads	Uniquely mapping	Multi-mapping	Too many mapping	Mapped to SARS2	Successfully Annotated
Mock	28366491	25311325	2811636	17644	232	20264703
6 hpi-MOI 0.5	29463488	26131689	3089144	20206	446	20480479
24 hpi-MOI 0.5	27100847	23809149	3010618	17839	42072	18990623
48 hpi-MOI 0.5	29043346	25844515	2892927	19871	87624	20135178
72 hpi-MOI 0.5	32065372	28369753	3272020	19289	161387	22898524
6 hpi-MOI 1	31640182	28129394	3262290	20587	820	22289459
24 hpi-MOI 1	32742734	29230705	3169512	22209	48104	23442713
48 hpi-MOI 1	31835471	28026215	2768743	20868	753566	21740521

Table S9. RNA sequencing data statistics from SARS-CoV-2 infected HBEC cells grown at ALI.

Gene ID (hpi)	Tid	GenomePos	Codon	Start	Stop	TisType	Fold Change	DiffPvalue
S100A4 (2)	XM_007977084.1	chr20:10259218:+	ATG	123	429	Annotated	1420	4.67E-245
LOC103221995 (2)	XM_007973466.1	chr17:45986443:+	ATG	564	975	Annotated	407.07	4.08E-224
C11H12orf75 (6)	XM_008004514.1	chr11:100538651:+	CTG	317	410	Internal:CDSFrameOverlap	0.0053	4.20E-101
S100A10 (6)	XM_007977149.1	chr20:11698268:+	ATG	493	787	Annotated	0.0027	1.15E-74
C11H12orf75 (12)	XM_008004514.1	chr11:100538651:+	CTG	317	410	Internal:CDSFrameOverlap	0.0025	1.19E-112
S100A10 (12)	XM_007977149.1	chr20:11698268:+	ATG	493	787	Annotated	0.0099	4.81E-66
OST4 (12)	XM_007971186.1	chr14:80546921:+	ATG	112	226	Annotated	0.000	3.86E-64
C11H12orf75 (24)	XM_008004514.1	chr11:100538651:+	CTG	317	410	Internal:CDSFrameOverlap	0.0077	1.76E-93
S100A10 (24)	XM_007977149.1	chr20:11698268:+	ATG	493	787	Annotated	0.02444	1.28E-51
BNIP3L (24)	XM_007961972.1	chr8:24497429:+	ATG	119	779	Annotated	0.0043	3.29E-51
OST4 (24)	XM_007971186.1	chr14:80546921:+	ATG	112	226	Annotated	0.0123	6.36E-47
LOC103215555 (24)	XM_007962062.1	chr8:27134847:-	ATG	185	740	Annotated	0.0141	2.64E-29
ID3 (24)	XM_007980074.1	chr20:109120977:+	ACG	575	929	Internal	0.02490	9.64E-25
EXOSC7 (24)	XR_495184.1	chr22:6479255:+	CTG	609	840	Novel	0.00186	1.35E-21
EXOSC7 (24)	XM_007983908.1	chr22:6479255:+	CTG	609	972	Internal	0.0019	1.35E-21

Table S10. Alternative translation initiation sites in host.