Arabidopsis and Maize Terminator Strength is Determined by GC Content, Polyadenylation Motifs and Cleavage Probability

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Abstract

The 3' end of a gene, often called a terminator, modulates mRNA stability, localization, translation, and polyadenylation. Here, we adapted Plant STARR-seq, a massively parallel reporter assay, to measure the activity of over 50,000 terminators from the plants *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Zea mays*. We characterize thousands of plant terminators, including many that outperform bacterial terminators commonly used in plants. Terminator activity is species-specific, differing in tobacco leaf and maize protoplast assays. While recapitulating known biology, our results reveal the relative contributions of polyadenylation motifs to terminator strength. We built a computational model to predict terminator strength and used it to conduct *in silico* evolution that generated optimized synthetic terminators. Additionally, we discover alternative polyadenylation sites across tens of thousands of terminators; however, the strongest terminators tend to have a dominant cleavage site. Our results establish features of plant terminator function and identify strong naturally occurring and synthetic terminators.

Introduction

A critical challenge is producing enough food for a growing world population that is likely to reach over 9 billion people by the year 2050 (Department of Economic and Social Affairs 2022). Food security can be bolstered through crop engineering, which can improve yields and increase tolerance to pathogens and environmental stresses (Hickey et al. 2019; Eshed and Lippman 2019). However, for crop engineering to be successful, precise control over transgene expression is required. In plants, past efforts to optimize critical *cis*-elements have mostly focused on the identification, characterization, and manipulation of upstream regulatory elements such as promoters (Jores et al. 2021, 2020; Zhou et al. 2023; X. Wang et al. 2021; Rodríguez-Leal et al. 2017). Although these upstream elements can produce large effects on gene expression, other sequence elements also contribute. For example, the 3' end of a gene contains sequence motifs necessary for mRNA 3' end maturation, cleavage, and polyadenylation (Kumar et al. 2019; A. G. Hunt 1994; Arthur G. Hunt 2011; Felipe F. de Felippes and Waterhouse 2023; Loke et al. 2005; B. Tian and Graber 2012; Rothnie, Reid, and Hohn 1994; Rothnie 1996). In keeping with established nomenclature (Brooks et al. 2023; Felipe F. de Felippes and Waterhouse 2023; C. Tian et al. 2022), throughout this manuscript, we refer to sequences surrounding a cleavage and polyadenylation site as terminators.

Terminators also affect mRNA stability, nuclear export, and translation (Felipe F. de Felippes
and Waterhouse 2023). Moreover, terminators play a central role in transgene silencing
mediated by small RNAs (Baeg, Iwakawa, and Tomari 2017; Allen and Howell 2010; Qin et al.
2012; Diamos and Mason 2018; F de Felippes et al. 2020).
Messenger RNA cleavage and polyadenylation are tightly linked to and initiate
transcription termination (Connelly and Manley 1988; Birse et al. 1998; Proudfoot 2011;
Whitelaw and Proudfoot 1986); however, termination occurs up to 1 kb downstream of the
mRNA cleavage site (Mo et al. 2021). The current model of how mRNA 3' end processing leads
to transcription termination combines features of two previously proposed models (Rosonina,
Kaneko, and Manley 2006; Luo, Johnson, and Bentley 2006; Eaton and West 2020; Krzyszton
et al. 2018): After mRNA cleavage, conformational changes of RNA polymerase II allosterically
reduce its elongation rate (allosteric model). At the same time, the cleavage site enables a 5′ to
3' exonuclease (Rat1 in yeast, XRN2 in humans, and XRN3 in *Arabidopsis*) to degrade the
downstream RNA and initiate transcription termination when it catches up with the RNA
polymerase (torpedo model). The exact site of transcription termination can further be affected
by RNA polymerase II pause sites, R loops formed between DNA and the nascent RNA, and
DNA-binding proteins (Eaton and West 2020; Yu, Martin, and Michaels 2019).
Although the choice of terminator significantly impacts transgene expression, only a few
terminators — often those derived from viruses or bacteria — are commonly used in crop
engineering. These viral or bacterial sequences make transgene silencing more likely (Dadami
et al. 2014; Diamos and Mason 2018). Compared to the commonly used *Agrobacterium*
tumefaciens nopaline synthase terminator (tNOS), the terminator from the *Arabidopsis thaliana*
heat shock protein 18.2 results in increased transgene expression and mRNA stability, and
decreased silencing (Nagaya et al. 2010; Hirai et al. 2011; Pérez-González and Caro 2018; F
de Felippes et al. 2020; Felipe Fenselau de Felippes, Shand, and Waterhouse 2022). This
finding highlights the need to characterize and optimize native plant terminators as building
blocks for crop engineering applications (Ingelbrecht et al. 1989; Diamos and Mason 2018; C.
Tian et al. 2022).
Plant terminators have been characterized by analysis of wild-type and mutated versions
of a handful of terminators, from both plant and non-plant sources, or by searching for motifs
enriched in genomic sequences surrounding mRNA cleavage sites. These studies established
three main *cis*-acting elements required for 3' end processing (A. G. Hunt 1994; Shen et al.
2008; Loke et al. 2005; Bernardes and Menossi 2020; Felipe F. de Felippes and Waterhouse
2023). The first element is the far upstream element (FUE), which resides in a U-rich region
located 30 – 150 nucleotides upstream of the cleavage site and often contains one or more
UGUA sequences. The second is the near upstream element (NUE), which resides in an A-rich
region located 10 – 30 nucleotides upstream of the cleavage site and contains the
polyadenylation signal AAUAAA. The third is the cleavage element (CE), which contains the
cleavage site, formed by a UA or CA dinucleotide embedded in a U-rich region. Although the
general pattern and nucleotide preferences of *cis*-acting elements in plant terminators are
known, their relative contributions to terminator strength and species specificity have not been
determined.
Here, we characterized over 50,000 terminators from the model plant *Arabidopsis*
thaliana and the crop plant maize (*Zea mays*). We identified sequence features contributing to
terminator strength and quantified their effect on transcript levels. By measuring terminator
strength in two assay systems—tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts—we detected similarities
and differences in the terminator grammar of monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous plants.
Leveraging our large dataset, we trained computational models that accurately predict
terminator strength. We used these models to design robust synthetic plant terminators for
future crop engineering efforts.

Results

Measuring the strength of plant terminators with Plant STARR-seq

To assess the strength of plant terminators at high throughput, we used Plant STARR-seq, a massively parallel reporter assay that measures the activity of cis-regulatory elements (Jores et al. 2020, 2021). The average 3' untranslated region (UTR) length in *Arabidopsis* and maize is 242 bp and 310 bp, respectively (Srivastava 2018; Jafar 2019). However, due to technical limitations in DNA array-synthesis, we were limited to sequences of 170 nucleotides. Previous studies on plant terminators revealed that most elements required for efficient mRNA 3' end processing reside within approximately 150 bp upstream of the cleavage and polyadenylation site (Loke et al. 2005; A. G. Hunt 1994; Shen et al. 2008; Bernardes and Menossi 2020; Felipe F. de Felippes and Waterhouse 2023; Rothnie 1996). Furthermore, studies in yeast and animals revealed that sequence elements downstream of the cleavage site can also affect polyadenylation (B. Tian and Graber 2012; Bernardes and Menossi 2020; Felipe F. de Felippes and Waterhouse 2023). Although such elements have not been reported in plants, we included the 20 nucleotides downstream of the cleavage site in our candidate sequences to test if they have an effect of terminator activity. For these reasons, we defined a terminator as the 170 nucleotide sequence from position -150 to +20 relative to a cleavage and polyadenylation site (position 0) in this study. We used experimentally derived primary cleavage sites to select terminator sequences from wild-type Arabidopsis and maize (Jafar et al. 2019; Thomas et al. 2012; Wu et al. 2011). For the 3,754 Arabidopsis genes that were not represented in these datasets, we used the end of the 3' untranslated region (UTR) annotation in TAIR10 as the cleavage site. Since alternative polyadenylation plays an important role in gene regulation by creating different mRNA isoforms (Arthur G. Hunt 2011), we sought to investigate the strength of both primary and secondary polyadenylation sites. Therefore, we included experimentally-derived, secondary cleavage sites supported by at least 30% of the total reads of a gene (Jafar et al. 2019; Thomas et al. 2012; Wu et al. 2011). As expected, the 24,529 Arabidopsis terminators and the 30,092 maize terminators displayed the distinctive nucleotide composition preferences of terminator sequences (Bernardes and Menossi 2020) and predominantly resided in the annotated 3' UTR region (Supplementary Fig. 1a-d).

The library of plant terminators was array-synthesized and cloned downstream of the coding sequence of a barcoded green fluorescent protein (GFP) reporter gene driven by the cauliflower mosaic virus 35S promoter (Fig. 1a). The plasmid library was transiently expressed in tobacco leaves or maize protoplasts. After 1 – 2 days of incubation, the reporter mRNA was extracted, and next-generation sequencing was used to count the reporter barcodes in the input DNA and the extracted RNA. Strong terminators yield higher transcript levels due to improved 3' end processing or transcript stability as compared to weak terminators (Felippes 2023; Bernardes 2020). The number of transcripts (i.e. RNA reads) per DNA template (i.e. DNA reads) is therefore a direct measure of the strength of a terminator. We define terminator strength as the enrichment of barcodes in RNA over DNA normalized to the enrichment of a control construct containing the 35S terminator. Thus, terminator strength in our assay reflects both transcriptional activity and RNA stability, and tends to have low values due to the normalization to the highly active 35S terminator.

We performed two biological replicates in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts. The results were highly correlated in both assay systems (Fig. 1b, c). Similarly, retesting of over 400 terminators in a second, independent library showed that the replicates in this validation experiment were highly correlated with each other and with the results of the first, large-scale experiment (Supplementary Fig. 2). Therefore, we used the average terminator strength from both replicates of the large-scale experiment for all further analyses. Terminator strength spanned a wide range of activity, allowing us to disentangle the signals that contribute to this

strength. In tobacco leaves, we observed more than 64-fold difference between strong and
weak terminators. Similar to previous studies (Jores et al. 2021, 2020), the dynamic range was
lower in maize protoplasts, in which we detected a 16-fold difference between strong and weak
terminators.
To ensure that we measured terminator strength, we included negative controls derived
from coding regions in *Arabidopsis* and maize and from randomized sequences. The random
sequences were generated such that their overall (global random) or per-position (positional
random) nucleotide frequencies resembled that of an average *Arabidopsis* or maize terminator
(Supplementary Fig. 1e-g). In both tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts, sequences derived
from plant terminators outperformed these coding sequences and random controls (Fig. 1d, e).
Of all control sequences, the positional random sequences showed the greatest strength, likely
because they most closely resemble actual terminators. Together, these findings demonstrate
that our assay captures *bona fide* terminator strength.
We sought to confirm our measure of terminator strength by Plant STARR-seq with an
orthogonal assay. To do so, we conducted a dual-luciferase assay in both tobacco leaves and
maize protoplasts for several weak, intermediate, and strong terminators. We observed a strong
correlation between terminator strength measured by the two assays (Supplementary Fig. 3b,
d). Strong terminators yielded higher nanoluciferase activity than weak terminators
(Supplementary Fig. 3a, c).
Most plant transgenes use viral or bacterial terminators, such as the 35S, Ag7, NOS,
and MAS terminators (Andreou et al. 2021). We included these terminators in our library in their
full form (not limited to 170 nucleotides) as a reference for the activity of the plant terminators.
The 35S terminator, the only viral sequence in our library, outperformed almost all plant
terminators. However, some plant terminators (8 in tobacco leaves and 20 in maize protoplasts)
exceeded the activity of the 35S terminator. The bacterial Ag7, NOS, and MAS terminators were
far weaker than the viral 35S terminator. In tobacco leaves, we found 2,224 plant terminators
that were stronger than the MAS terminator and 9,389 plant terminators that were stronger than
the NOS terminator. In maize protoplasts, we found 1,369 plant terminators that were stronger
than the MAS terminator and 19,585 terminators that were stronger than the NOS terminator.
The strongest plant terminators are attractive alternatives to the bacterial terminators commonly
used in plant transgenes.

Terminator strength correlates not with gene expression but with gene function

Next, we asked if our data could give insights into the importance of terminator strength
for gene expression. We compared terminator strength determined by Plant STARR-seq with
metrics related to mRNA levels, stability and degradation. We found only weak correlation
between terminator strength and gene expression (Sullivan et al. 2014), mRNA half-life (Szabo
et al. 2020), or nascent transcription (Liu, Zhu, and Dong 2021) (Supplementary Fig. 4). These
findings corroborate reports that upstream *cis*-regulatory elements, like enhancers, promoters,
and the 5' UTR, drive large-scale gene expression changes while the 3' UTR and terminators
fine-tune expression levels (Washburn et al. 2019; Zrimec et al. 2020). However, the choice of
terminator can have a significant impact on the expression of transgenes (F de Felippes et al.
2020; P.-H. Wang et al. 2020).
While the correlation between terminator strength and gene expression was low, we
wondered whether the function of a gene and the strength of its terminator were more
correlated. To address this question, we performed gene ontology (GO) term enrichment
analysis on the genes associated with the strongest 10% of terminators from *Arabidopsis* or
maize. For both species, we found a significant enrichment (adjusted *p* value < 0.05) for genes
related to metabolism and response to stimulus (Supplementary Fig. 5a-d). Terminators derived
from oxidoreductase-related and stress-responsive genes in *Arabidopsis* were overrepresented

in the top 10% of terminators ranked by strength in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts.
Maize terminators derived from genes involved in small molecule metabolic processes were
overrepresented in the strongest 10% of terminators in both systems. However, we found many
more significant GO terms associated with metabolism for the strongest maize terminators in
maize protoplasts than in tobacco leaves (Supplementary Fig. 5e, f). The latter finding pointed
to possible species-specific differences in terminator strength, prompting us to investigate this
possibility further.

Plant terminator strength is species-specific

mRNA 3' end processing may differ between monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous
plants, as suggested from studies in the 1980s. For example, the gene encoding the small
subunit of ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase (*rbcS*) from the monocot wheat is improperly
polyadenylated when tested in the dicot tobacco (Keith and Chua 1986). In contrast, the mRNA
of the *rbcS* gene from the dicot pea is efficiently polyadenylated in tobacco (Nagy et al. 1985).
Consistent with these earlier findings, we observed a relatively weak correlation (R^2 = 0.33)
between the strength of a given terminator in the dicot model tobacco leaves versus the
monocot model maize protoplasts (Fig. 2a). In tobacco leaves, terminators from the dicot
Arabidopsis performed significantly better than terminators from the monocot maize. Similarly, in
maize protoplasts, maize terminator sequences significantly outperformed *Arabidopsis*
terminators (Fig. 2b, c). These observations are consistent with species-specific differences in
plant terminator strength.
Based on these observations, we wanted to identify terminators with strong species-
specific activity. Since our assay systems show different dynamic ranges, we normalized
terminator strength within each assay system to a scale from 0 (weakest) to 1 (strongest). We
defined a variable Ψ as the difference between the normalized terminator strength in tobacco
leaves and in maize protoplasts, such that a high Ψ value denotes a terminator that was
considerably stronger in tobacco leaves than in maize protoplasts. We found that *Arabidopsis*
terminators show a higher average Ψ value than maize terminators (Fig. 2d). We selected the
top 10% of *Arabidopsis* terminators (*n* = 1,923) with highest Ψ values, *i.e.* tobacco-specific
strength, and the top 10% of maize terminators (*n* = 2,439) with the lowest Ψ values, *i.e.* maize-
specific strength, for GO term enrichment analysis. *Arabidopsis* terminators with highly tobacco-
specific strength tended to be derived from stimulus- and stress-responsive genes, while maize
terminators with highly maize-specific strength tended to be derived from metabolic genes (Fig.
2e).
To understand how species-specific terminator strength is mediated, we used STREME
(Bailey 2021) to search for RNA motifs that were enriched in the tobacco-specific *Arabidopsis*
terminators (high Ψ) relative to the maize-specific maize terminators (low Ψ), and *vice versa*.
The most enriched motifs in the tobacco-specific *Arabidopsis* terminators were dominated by
long stretches of U nucleotides, while the most enriched motifs found in maize-specific maize
terminators favored G and C nucleotides (Fig. 2f, g). These findings motivated us to further
analyze the effect of nucleotide composition on terminator strength.

Nucleotide composition affects terminator strength in a position-specific manner

Dicot genomes have a lower GC content than monocot genomes (Singh, Ming, and Yu
2016). This bias also holds true for *Arabidopsis* and maize terminator sequences (Fig. 3a).
Assessing the impact of GC content on terminator strength, we found that terminators with
either high or low GC content were weaker than those with intermediate GC content in both
tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts (Fig. 3b, c). There are, however, subtle differences
between the two assay systems. In tobacco leaves, terminators with a GC content around 30-

35% were the strongest, while in maize protoplasts, terminators with a GC content of
approximately 35-40% were the strongest. To substantiate these subtle differences, we
measured the terminator strength of random sequences with a GC content of 30%, 40%, 50%,
60%, or 70%. In tobacco leaves, the random sequences with a GC content of 30% performed
best, while in maize protoplasts, the random sequences with a GC content of 40% showed the
highest strength (Supplementary Fig. 6). These values coincide with the average GC content of
Arabidopsis terminators (32.5%; the average GC content of tobacco terminators is likely in a
similar range) and maize terminators (40.9%). Thus, we conclude that the cleavage and
polyadenylation machinery is likely attuned to the species-specific GC content of plant
terminators.
Since terminator strength is governed at the RNA level, G and C or A and U nucleotides
are not necessarily represented equally. Therefore, we teased apart the positional effect on
terminator strength for each of the four nucleotides (Fig. 3d, e). We found that C nucleotides
have little to no effect on terminator strength in tobacco leaves or maize protoplasts. High G
content was beneficial at the 5' end of our tested sequences but not tolerated near the cleavage
site, especially in tobacco leaves. Conversely, high U content near the 5' end was associated
with lower terminator strength. The system preferences diverged, however, for sequences with
high U content starting from 100 nucleotides upstream from the cleavage site: U-rich sequences
in this region were associated with increased terminator strength in tobacco leaves but not in
maize protoplasts. High A content around 20 nucleotides upstream of the cleavage site was
correlated with terminator strength in both systems, probably due to the canonical
polyadenylation signal — a short sequence often represented by the hexamer AAUAAA —
typically found at this location.
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Canonical cleavage and polyadenylation motifs contribute to terminator strength

Since the strength of a terminator is only partially explained by its nucleotide
composition, we searched for sequence motifs that contribute to terminator strength. To this
end, we conducted a motif enrichment analysis on the strongest 25% of terminators in both
assay systems. The most significantly enriched motifs match canonical cleavage and
polyadenylation signals: the UGUA sequence motif from the Far Upstream Element (FUE) and
the AAUAAA polyadenylation signal (Fig. 4a). While these motifs are known to affect cleavage
and polyadenylation, our assay allowed us to determine the quantitative contribution of each
motif to terminator strength.
The UGUA motif is highly prevalent in our library, with 60% to 80% (small differences
between the UGUA-containing motifs identified by STREME lead to different numbers of
positive terminators) of all terminators containing this motif. The UGUA motif is predominantly
located 30 to 40 nucleotides upstream of the cleavage site in both *Arabidopsis* and maize
terminators (Supplementary Fig. 7a, b). In tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts respectively,
terminators with a UGUA motif were on average 50% and 20% stronger than those without this
motif (Fig. 4b, c). Consistent with prior reports (Rothnie, Reid, and Hohn 1994), the number of
UGUA motifs also correlates with terminator strength and cleavage probability (Supplementary
Fig. 8e, f).
The polyadenylation signal is less prevalent in our library (15% to 35% of all terminators)
but shows a distinct localization profile, with a sharp peak about 20 nucleotides upstream of the
cleavage site (Supplementary Fig. 7c, d). The polyadenylation signal contributes significantly to
terminator strength. In tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts respectively, terminators with a
polyadenylation motif were 40% and 20% stronger than those without this motif (Fig. 4b, c).
Since fewer than half of the terminators in our library contain a canonical polyadenylation signal,
we asked if similar sequences are functionally equivalent. Terminators with a perfect AAUAAA

sequence were stronger than terminators with a sequence that differs by a single nucleotide
(carrying a single-nucleotide variant of this motif), although AAUAAG and AAUAAU motifs
performed nearly as well. Terminators without any AAUAAA-like sequence were considerably
weaker (Supplementary Fig. 8a, b).
In addition to the AAUAAA and UGUA motifs (A. G. Hunt 1994; F. de Felippes and
Waterhouse 2023), we found novel U- and G-rich motifs enriched in the strongest terminators
(Fig. 4a). These U/G-rich motifs are broadly distributed upstream of the polyadenylation signal
and at slightly higher frequency just upstream or downstream of the cleavage site
(Supplementary Fig. 7e, f). While the U/G-rich motifs share a similar localization pattern, there
are striking differences between the motifs discovered in the tobacco leaf and the maize
protoplast system. The motif detected in the tobacco leaf data is found in nearly 90% of all
terminators and consists of a G nucleotide surrounded by 2 to 3 U nucleotides. In contrast, the
motif identified in the maize protoplast data is much less prevalent (16% of all terminators) and
consists of alternating U and G nucleotides (Fig. 4a). Despite these differences, both motifs
have an influence on terminator strength, leading to a 40% and 20% increase in strength for
terminators with the motif as compared to those without, in tobacco and maize respectively (Fig.
4b, c).
While each individual motif contributes positively to terminator strength, we observed
additive effects when multiple motifs are present within the same terminator. Independent of the
assay system, the strongest terminators contain all three motifs and were on average 60% more
active than terminators without any motifs (Fig. 4d, e). To validate the effect of the identified
AAUAAA and UGUA motifs on terminator strength, we selected 20 terminators each with a
single strong AAUAAA or UGUA motif and generated single or double nucleotide mutations to
break the motif. The terminator strength of the original and mutated sequences was then
measured in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts. Most motif mutations lowered terminator
strength (Supplementary Fig. 8c, d). Mutations in the AAUAAA motif caused, on average, a 24%
decrease in terminator strength in tobacco leaves and a 16% decrease in maize protoplasts.
Mutations in the UGUA motif decreased terminator strength by approximately 13% and 7% in
tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts, respectively.
Next, we wondered if we could use the enriched motifs to improve the strength of weak
terminators. We selected randomized sequences from our initial data that showed low
terminator strength and did not contain an AAUAAA, a UGUA, or a U/G-rich motif. We then
inserted a CA dinucleotide at the predicted cleavage site (position 150) and added all possible
single, double, and triple combinations of the AAUAAA, UGUA, and U/G-rich motifs. All
sequences were then subjected to Plant STARR-seq in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts.
In most cases, adding motifs increased terminator strength and additive effects were observed
when multiple motifs were inserted into a terminator (Fig. 4f, g). On average, single motifs led to
a 5% to 20% increase in terminator strength. Terminators with all three motifs were
approximately 60% stronger than motif-less terminators in tobacco leaves and maize
protoplasts. Although the GUGUG motif was originally identified in data from the maize
protoplast system, it also increased terminator activity in tobacco leaves. Taken together, these
findings demonstrate that the motifs enriched in strong terminators are indeed contributing to
terminator strength.

Computational models accurately predict terminator strength

Computational models can successfully predict the activity of regulatory elements by
learning key sequence features (Cuperus et al. 2017; Griesemer et al. 2021; Jores et al. 2021).
To develop computational models that can predict terminator strength, we initially focused on
using k-mer counts as a proxy for terminator activity. To test the validity of this approach, we
counted the occurrence of all possible 6-mers (4,096 sequences) in the terminator sequences,

and calculated the correlation between terminator strength and how often a given 6-mer was
represented in a terminator sequence. As expected, we found that the 6-mers most correlated
with terminator strength in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts are variations of the canonical
cleavage and polyadenylation signals AAUAAA and UGUA (Fig. 5a, b). However, we observed
only a moderate conservation of the 6-mer rank orders between the two assay systems
(Spearman's ρ = 0.29; Fig. 5c). 6-mers that were highly correlated with terminator strength in
tobacco leaves but not in maize protoplasts were U-rich. Conversely, 6-mers with a high
correlation to terminator strength in maize protoplasts but not in tobacco leaves were rich in G
and C nucleotides (Fig. 5c, d). These findings are consistent with our prior observations on
sequence motifs associated with high terminator activity, both within and across the two assay
systems. Therefore, we used 6-mer counts as input features to train a lasso regression model to
predict terminator strength. The model was trained on 70% of our terminator data and tested on
30% of the data. The lasso regression model had moderate predictive power, explaining 28% of
the variance in terminator strength in tobacco leaves and 41% in maize protoplasts (Fig. 5e, f).
To build a model with increased predictive power, we turned to a convolutional neural
network with a DenseNet architecture (Huang et al. 2017), because this approach had worked
well with Plant STARR-seq data previously (Deng et al. 2023). Our DenseNet model uses the
sequence of a terminator as an input and predicts the strength of this sequence in tobacco
leaves and maize protoplasts. After the model was trained on 90% of the terminator data, it
could accurately predict terminator strength for the remaining 10% of the data. The features
learned by the model explained 76% and 67% of the variance in terminator strength in tobacco
leaves and maize protoplasts, respectively (Fig. 6a, b). To understand what features the
DenseNet model had learned, we used DeepLIFT and TF-MoDISco to extract consolidated
sequence motifs that positively or negatively impact terminator strength (Shrikumar, Greenside,
and Kundaje 2017; Shrikumar et al. 2018) prediction (Fig. 6c-f). According to this analysis,
AAUAAA and UGUA motifs are associated with increased terminator strength in both assay
systems. U-rich sequences decrease terminator strength in maize protoplasts, especially if they
surround a UGUA motif. In contrast, U-rich sequences increase terminator strength in tobacco
leaves, although this effect can be reversed by GG dinucleotides (Fig. 6e, f). These findings are
consistent with the results from our motif enrichment and k-mer analyses and indicate that the
DenseNet model has learned biologically relevant terminator features.
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In silico evolution of terminator sequences

While our previous attempts to improve terminator strength by adding polyadenylation
and cleavage motifs were successful, the gain in terminator strength was modest (Fig. 4f, g). *In*
silico evolution using convolutional neural network models can drastically improve the activity of
regulatory elements (Cuperus et al. 2017; Jores et al. 2021). Therefore, we used our DenseNet
model for *in silico* evolution of 222 terminators, 111 each from *Arabidopsis* and maize. As
starting sequences, we randomly selected terminators from the held-out test set used to validate
the DenseNet model. For each terminator, we generated every possible single-nucleotide
substitution variant and scored these variants with the DenseNet model. We kept the variant
with the highest predicted terminator strength and subjected it to another round of evolution for
a maximum of ten rounds (Fig. 7a). We performed this process three times using the prediction
for either tobacco leaves or maize protoplasts, or the sum of both predictions to identify the
strongest variant. To test the evolved elements experimentally, we synthesized the starting
sequences and those obtained after three and ten rounds of evolution, and experimentally
assayed their terminator strength in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts.
After three rounds of evolution (*i.e.*, after changing only three nucleotides), terminator
strength increased, on average, 5-fold in tobacco leaves and 1.6-fold in maize protoplasts (Fig.

7b, c). For sequences obtained after ten rounds of evolution, a further increase in terminator
strength was observed. Even though the original sequences and those obtained after *in silico*
evolution differed by only ten nucleotides, the difference in their terminator strength was 12-fold
in tobacco leaves and 4-fold in maize protoplasts (Fig. 7b, c). As expected, the increase in
terminator strength was most pronounced when the prediction used to score variants during *in*
silico evolution matched the experimental assay system (*i.e.* using the tobacco leaf prediction
for evolution, and testing the resulting terminators in tobacco leaves). Although all starting
sequences were weaker than the 35S terminator, our *in silico* evolution approach generated
several terminators of greater strength than this highly active viral terminator (Fig. 7b, c). We
tested selected evolved terminators with the dual-luciferase assay and found strong
correspondence with the Plant STARR-seq results (Fig. 7d, e). Furthermore, we observed that
the model favored the insertion of multiple UGUA motifs into the evolved, stronger terminators
(Supplementary Fig. 8g).
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Cleavage and polyadenylation efficiency affects terminator strength

Over 70% of the genes in *Arabidopsis* and maize contain more than one possible
polyadenylation site and can therefore give rise to transcript isoforms that differ in 3' UTR length
(Jafar et al. 2019; Wu et al. 2011). Alternative polyadenylation can have a strong effect on
transcript levels through the inclusion or exclusion of regulatory features such as binding sites
for microRNAs or RNA-binding proteins (Bernardes and Menossi 2020). We wondered whether
the terminator strength of putative polyadenylation sites affects the choice of which site is used.
To address this question, we measured the terminator strength of primary and secondary
cleavage and polyadenylation sites from over 5000 genes. However, there was no difference
between the terminator strength of primary and secondary polyadenylation sites for *Arabidopsis*
or maize terminators (Supplementary Fig. 9).
While terminator strength could not predict which potential polyadenylation site is more
likely to be used in a genomic context, we wondered if the reverse were true: Is the strength of a
terminator associated with the efficiency of its cleavage and polyadenylation? To determine the
cleavage and polyadenylation sites in our terminators, we subjected the output RNA from a
Plant STARR-seq experiment in tobacco leaves to 3' end sequencing (Fig. 8a). We defined the
cleavage and polyadenylation sites for each terminator as local maxima in the distribution of the
cleavage positions along the terminator sequence for all unique reads. As expected, the vast
majority of the cleavage and polyadenylation sites identified by this approach coincided with a
CA or UA dinucleotide (Fig. 8b) matching the known cleavage element (A. G. Hunt 1994; Loke
et al. 2005). Consistent with prior reports (Rothnie, Reid, and Hohn 1994; Mogen et al. 1992;
Sanfaçon, Brodmann, and Hohn 1991; Mogen et al. 1990) we observed near complete cleavage
of the 35S terminator with one major cleavage site at the same position as previously shown
(Supplementary Fig. 10b). We confirmed the cleavage pattern of several terminators with RT-
PCR and gel electrophoresis (Supplementary Fig. 10c).
The terminators in our library were designed to contain a cleavage site at position 150
(Fig. 1a). About 61% of the terminators showed a cleavage site within 5 nucleotides upstream or
downstream of this position, and for approximately half of these (32% of all terminators), this
was the primary cleavage site (Table 1). Of the 54,825 terminators for which we could call
cleavage sites, 68% had more than one cleavage sites, and of those, 20% (about 13% of all
terminators) had a prominent secondary cleavage site indicated by at least 30% of the reads
(Table 1; see Fig. 8c for examples). However, 17% of the tested sequences were not cleaved
and polyadenylated but showed read-through into the downstream T-DNA sequence.
We observed differences in the cleavage pattern between *bona fide* terminators and control
sequences (Fig. 8d, Table 1). Plant terminators were predominantly cleaved at position 150. In

contrast, randomized sequences showed a broad distribution of cleavage sites throughout their
sequence. However, for the positional random sequences which resemble terminators more
closely than the global random controls, the distribution was shifted towards an enrichment of
cleavage at or near position 150. Finally, control sequences derived from coding regions were
rarely cleaved and polyadenylated, consistent with a selection against potential cleavage sites.
These general trends held true when considering all cleavage sites, in addition to primary sites
(Supplementary Fig. 10a).
Next, we tested the association of terminator strength and cleavage probability (*i.e.*, the
likelihood of a terminator being cleaved and polyadenylated instead of allowing read-through
transcription). Cleavage probability was strongly correlated with terminator strength (Fig. 8e, h),
and terminators with a primary cleavage site within their sequence were approximately 40%
stronger than those without (Fig. 8g). Furthermore, terminators with a dominant cleavage site
(*i.e.*, most transcripts are cleaved at this site) were stronger terminators than those with multiple
weak cleavage sites (Fig. 8f). Taken together, the efficiency and accuracy with which a
terminator is cleaved and polyadenylated determines its strength. Strong terminators show a
dominant cleavage site and prevent read-through into downstream sequences.

Polyadenylation motifs and GC content control cleavage probability

Since cleavage probability and terminator strength were positively correlated, we asked
if the same features that influence terminator strength also affect cleavage probability. First, we
tested if biological terminator function was associated with a high cleavage probability. Indeed,
plant terminators showed a much higher cleavage probability than control sequences from
coding regions (Fig. 9a). Randomized control sequences with a nucleotide composition similar
to an average terminator were also significantly more likely to be cleaved and polyadenylated
than the coding region controls, but their average cleavage probability was still lower than that
of *bona fide* plant terminators. The cleavage probability for sequences derived from *Arabidopsis*
was higher than the one for maize sequences (Fig. 9a).
As GC content is one of the key differences between terminators from *Arabidopsis* and
maize, we asked if cleavage probability was affected by GC content. We observed a strong
negative correlation (Pearson's r = -0.65) between these two factors. While a high AT content
was associated with a high cleavage probability, increasing GC content led to decreased
cleavage probability (Fig. 9b). This finding likely explains why maize sequences, which show on
average an approximately 10% higher GC content than *Arabidopsis* sequences, were less likely
to be cleaved than *Arabidopsis* sequences. Our observation that AU-rich sequences show high
cleavage probability is consistent with previous reports that the insertion of AU-rich sequences
into transcripts can lead to their cleavage and polyadenylation in maize (Luehrsen and Walbot
1994). Although both terminator strength and cleavage probability were affected by GC content,
they followed different trends. Cleavage probability decreased monotonically with increasing GC
content, while terminator strength was highest at an intermediate GC content and lowest in very
AT- or GC-rich sequences (Fig. 3b, c). Similarly, we observed differing and position-specific
effects of local nucleotide composition on terminator strength, whereas for cleavage probability,
positional effects were much less pronounced, and A and T nucleotides behaved mostly similar
to each other as did G and C nucleotides (Fig. 9c).
Finally, we tested if the AAUAAA, UGUA and U/G-rich motifs affected cleavage
probability. While all three motifs increased cleavage probability, the AAUAAA motif clearly had
the largest effect (Fig. 9d). As for terminator strength, we observed additive effects of the motifs
on cleavage probability, and terminators with all three motifs were most likely to be cleaved and
polyadenylated.

Discussion

Here, we adapted Plant STARR-seq to characterize and optimize plant terminator
sequences. We find that thousands of *Arabidopsis* and maize terminators outperformed the
commonly used bacterial NOS and MAS terminators; a handful even outperformed the viral 35S
terminator. These results provide a large arsenal of diverse and strong plant terminators to use
with transgenes, which should alleviate transgene silencing (Diamos and Mason 2018) . The
optimal terminators to employ in constructing transgenes may be those with high cleavage
probability, as these prevent the read-through transcription implicated in silencing (F de
Felippes et al. 2020). Thus, for use in dicots, good terminators to choose would be those from
the *Arabidopsis* genes AT3G46230 (HEAT SHOCK PROTEIN 17.4), AT2G05530, and
AT4G39730 (PLAT DOMAIN PROTEIN 1); for use in monocots, good ones would be those from
the maize genes Zm00001d016542 (anthranilate 1,2-dioxygenase), Zm00001d047961, and
Zm00001d017119 (glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase 5).
In addition to these naturally occurring terminators, *in silico* evolved, synthetic terminator
sequences — several of which showed greater strength and higher reporter protein abundance
than the viral 35S terminator — resulted from this work. Use of the DenseNet prediction that
best matched the assay system (the tobacco leaf prediction for dicots, and the maize protoplast
prediction for monocots) led to the best results; however, a combination of both predictions can
generate terminators that are active across a broad range of plant species, tissues, and
applications. The iterative *in silico* evolution and testing of evolved elements in Plant STARR-
seq appears to be a promising generalizable path toward improving the features of plant
regulatory elements, as for core promoters (Jores et al. 2021; Jores et al. 2023).
Beyond the practical benefits of this study, we identified novel features of terminator
biology in plants. We found that GC content profoundly influences terminator strength and
cleavage probability in different ways. The strongest terminators had a GC content of
approximately 30 – 40% (depending on the assay system), with terminator strength lowest at
either higher or lower GC percentage in both assay systems. In contrast, cleavage probability
monotonically decreased with increasing GC content in tobacco leaves (and was not measured
in maize protoplasts due to technical challenges). This negative correlation is similar to the
effects of GC content on core promoter strength, which shows a strong negative correlation with
GC content in tobacco leaves but not in maize protoplasts (Jores et al. 2021). Taken together,
GC content appears to affect different regulatory elements in different ways, and these effects
vary across species, reflecting genomic GC content.
In addition to known polyadenylation motifs (A. G. Hunt 1994; Bernardes and Menossi
2020; Felipe F. de Felippes and Waterhouse 2023), we discovered novel motifs that increased
terminator strength and cleavage probability. These motifs are rich in U and G nucleotides and
reside broadly across terminator sequences, with a moderate enrichment immediately upstream
and downstream of the cleavage site. The precise composition of these U/G-rich motifs differed
between the tobacco leaf and the maize protoplast systems; however, the maize-specific motif
also contributed to terminator strength in tobacco leaves. Human terminators contain a GU-rich
element downstream of the cleavage site that is required for efficient polyadenylation and that is
bound by the cleavage-stimulating factor (CSTF) complex (Beyer, Dandekar, and Keller 1997;
Takagaki and Manley 1997; B. Tian and Graber 2012). Plant homologs for members of the
CSTF complex can form a similar complex and bind to RNA (Arthur G. Hunt, Xing, and Li 2012;
Yao et al. 2002; Bell and Hunt 2010). We speculate that the novel U/G-rich motifs identified here
serve as binding sites for the plant CSTF complex.
The assay design employed here provided insight into cleavage probability and
alternative polyadenylation. Alternative polyadenylation is a crucial mechanism to create diverse
transcripts in response to environmental change and in particular tissues (Bernardes and
Menossi 2020; Wu et al. 2011; Ye et al. 2019). Alternative polyadenylation produces transcripts

with altered 3' UTR length, resulting in different mRNAs and translation levels. Long 3' UTRs
decrease transcript stability by triggering nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (Kertesz et al.
2006), while short 3' UTRs make translation more efficient by promoting polysome formation
(Chang et al. 2015). When we compared the 170 nucleotide-terminator sequences of
Arabidopsis and maize genes derived from primary vs. secondary polyadenylation sites, we
observed no difference in terminator strength among sites derived from *Arabidopsis* or maize.
These comparisons suggest that the sequence surrounding a given polyadenylation site does
not fully explain alternative polyadenylation. T*rans*-acting factors such as the components of the
cleavage and polyadenylation complexes, RNA-binding proteins and non-coding RNAs are
involved in the choice of polyadenylation sites, presumably by recognizing sequence context
and secondary structure of the entire terminator sequence instead of the shorter terminator
sequences tested here (Zhang et al. 2020; Arthur G. Hunt 2022; Bernardes and Menossi 2020).
A comparison of all tested terminator sequences indicates that strong terminators tended to
contain a dominant cleavage site rather than multiple weaker ones.
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Methods

Library Design and Construction

For this study, we defined terminators as the sequence from 150 nucleotides upstream
to 20 nucleotides downstream of a cleavage and polyadenylation site. For *Arabidopsis*, we used
experimentally determined cleavage and polyadenylation sites described by Thomas *et al.*
(Thomas et al. 2012). We selected the primary cleavage and polyadenylation sites for each
gene (*n* = 18,450) in wild-type plants, as well as prominent secondary cleavage sites that had at
least 30% of total reads per gene (*n* = 2,325). For the 3,754 genes without an experimentally
defined cleavage site, we utilized the end of their 3' UTR annotation in the *Arabidopsis* TAIR10
annotation as the cleavage site. This yielded a total of 24,529 *Arabidopsis* terminator sequences
(Supplementary Table 1). For maize, we used cleavage and polyadenylation sites defined by
Jafar *et al. (Jafar et al. 2019)*. We selected primary cleavage sites for 25,685 maize genes, and
included 4,407 secondary cleavage sites (at least 30% of total reads per gene) for a total of
30,092 maize terminator sequences (Supplementary Table 1).
In addition to *bona fide* terminators, several control sequences were added to the library
(Supplementary Table 1). Since protein coding sequences should not contain cleavage and
polyadenylation motifs, 170-nucleotide long sequences (589 each from *Arabidopsis* and maize)
from coding regions with a similar GC content as the terminator library were included as
negative controls. Furthermore, we generated random sequences with global (200 sequences
per species) or position-specific (1,000 sequences per species) nucleotide frequencies derived
from the average *Arabidopsis* or maize terminator. Randomized sequences with a GC content
of 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%, or 70% (200 sequences of 170 nucleotides each) were added to test
effects of GC content on terminator strength. Finally, four commonly used non-plant terminators
(t35S, tAg7, tNOS, and tMAS) were added as a frame of reference in their full length (35S=204
nt, Ag7=208 nt, MAS= 253 nt, NOS=253 nt). The final library of sequences was ordered as an
oligo pool from Twist Biosciences (Supplementary Table 2).
To validate and extend our findings from the large-scale terminator library, we created a
second, smaller library. This library included 187 terminators from the original library to test the
correlation between results from the two libraries. Additionally, we added sequences to validate
the importance of the discovered motifs. We picked 20 sequences from the randomized control
sequences in our original library that had neither a CA dinucleotide at the predicted cleavage
site, nor an AAUAAA, a UGUA, or a GUGUG motif. For each validation sequence, we added a

CA dinucleotide at position 150 and all possible combinations of these three motifs at the
positions where they are found most often in our library. To test the importance of the AAUAAA
motif, we picked twenty terminators that had only one AAUAAA sequence and generated three
variants with a mutation in this sequence (ACTCAA, ACTCAA, ACTAAA). Similarly, we took
twenty sequences that had only one UGUA sequence and replaced it with mutated variants
(UGCA, CGUA, UCUA). Finally, we included the sequences from the *in silico* evolution (see
below) in this validation library (Supplementary Table 3).
The Plant STARR-seq plasmid pPSt (https://www.addgene.org/203590/) used in this
study is based on the pPSup plasmid (https://www.addgene.org/149416/) (Jores et al. 2020)
with adaptations to enable the characterization of terminators. The base plasmid pPSt contains
three consecutive Golden Gate cloning sites. To generate the terminator libraries, we first
inserted the 35S promoter together with a 5' UTR derived from the maize histone H3 gene
Zm00001d041672, an ATG start codon, and a 18-nucleotide random barcode
(VNNVNNVNNVNNVNN; V = A, C or G) into the upstream Golden Gate site using the restriction
enzyme BbsI-HF (NEB). Next, we cloned the array-synthesized terminator library into the
downstream Golden Gate site using the restriction enzyme Esp3I (NEB). In this step, the
plasmid library was bottlenecked to approximately 1,000,000 variants (approximately 16
barcodes per terminator) or 60,000 variants (approximately 30 barcodes per terminator) for the
large-scale or the validation library, respectively. Finally, we used BsaI-HFv2 (NEB) to replace
the central Golden Gate site with the coding sequence of GFP lacking the start codon. Two
versions of the library were created in this step: one with full-length GFP for use in Plant
STARR-seq (see https://www.addgene.org/203592/ for an example of a fully assembled Plant
STARR-seq plasmid with the 35S terminator.) and one with a truncated version of GFP lacking
the central 188 amino acids for subassembly (see below). The sequences of all primers used for
cloning and sequencing are included in Supplementary Table 4.
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Tobacco cultivation and transformation

Tobacco (*Nicotiana benthamiana*) was grown in soil (Sunshine Mix no. 4) at 25°C with a
long day photoperiod (16 h light and 8 h dark; cool-white fluorescent lights Philips TL-D
58 W/840; intensity 300 µmol $m^{-2}\,s^{-1}$). Plants were transformed approximately 3 weeks after
germination. The *Agrobacterium* transformation and induction method was previously described
(Jores et al. 2021). The terminator libraries were introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*
strain GV3101 (harboring the virulence plasmid pMP90 and the helper plasmid pMisoG) by
electroporation. *Agrobacterium* cultures were infiltrated into the first two mature leaves of
tobacco plants (12 plants/24 leaves per replicate for the large-scale library; 3 plants/6 leaves for
the smaller validation library). The plants were further grown for 48 hours under normal light
conditions before mRNA extraction. The input sample for Plant STARR-seq was obtained from
20 mL of the *Agrobacterium* solution that was used to infiltrate tobacco leaves. To this end, the
QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit was used according to the manufacturer's instructions.
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Maize mesophyll protoplast generation and PEG transformation

We used the PEG transformation method of maize mesophyll protoplasts as described in
(Tonnies et al. 2023). Maize (Zea mays L. cultivar B73) seeds were soaked in water overnight at
25°C. The seeds were germinated in soil for 3 days under long day conditions (16 hours light, 8
hours dark) at 25°C, then moved to complete darkness at 25°C for 10-11 days. From each
seedling, 10 cm sections from the second and third leaf were cut into thin 0.5 mm strips
perpendicular to veins and immediately submerged in 10 ml of protoplasting enzyme solution

(0.6 M mannitol, 10 mM MES ph 5.7, 15 mg/ml cellulase R10, 3 mg/ml macerozyme, 1 mM
CaCl2, 0.1% [w/v] BSA, and 5 mM beta-mercaptoethanol). The mixture was covered in foil to
keep out light, vacuum infiltrated for 3 min at room temperature (RT), and incubated on a shaker
at 40 rpm for 2.5 hours at RT. Protoplasts were released by incubating an extra 10 min at 80
rpm. To quench the reaction, 10 mL ice-cold MMG (0.6 M Mannitol, 4 mM MES ph 5.7, 15 mM
MgCl2) was added to the enzyme solution and the whole solution was filtered through a 40 µM
cell strainer. To pellet protoplasts, the filtrate was split into equal volumes of no more than 10
mL in chilled round-bottom glass centrifuge vials and centrifuged at 100 x g for 4 min at RT.
Pellets were resuspended in 1 mL cold MMG each and combined into a single round-bottom
vial. To wash, MMG was added to make a total volume of 5 mL and the solution was centrifuged
at 100 x g for 3 min at RT. This wash step was repeated two more times. The final pellet was
resuspended in 1-2 mL of MMG. A sample of the resuspended protoplasts was diluted 1:20 in
MMG and used to count the number of viable cells using Fluorescein Diacetate as a dye.
For each replicate, 20 million protoplasts were mixed with 200 µg of the terminator plasmid
library in a fresh tube, topped with MMG to a volume of 2,288 µL, and incubated on ice for 30
min. For PEG transformation, 2,112 µL of PEG solution (0.6 M Mannitol, 0.1 M CaCl2, 25%
[w/v] poly-ethylene glycol MW 4000) was added to reach a final concentration of 12% (w/v)
PEG. The mixture was incubated for 10 min in the dark at RT. After incubation, the
transformation solution was diluted with 22 mL (5 x 4.4 mL) incubation solution (0.6 M Mannitol,
4 mM MES pH 5.7, 4 mM KCl), and centrifuged at 100 x g for 4 min at RT. For the PEG
transformation with the validation library, we used 4 million protoplasts, 40 µg of the plasmid
library, and one fifth of the buffer volumes used for the large-scale library.
After transformation, the protoplast pellet was washed with 5 mL of incubation solution,
centrifuged at 100 x g for 3 min at RT, and resuspended in incubation solution to a
concentration of 500 cells/µL. Protoplasts were incubated overnight in the dark at RT to allow for
transcription of the plasmid library and then pelleted (4 min, 100 x g, RT). The pellet was
washed with 5 mL incubation solution and centrifuged (3 min, 100 x g, RT). The pellet was
finally resuspended in 5 mL incubation solution. An aliquot of the solution was used to check
transformation efficiency under a microscope (12.4% [replicate 1] and 49.5% [replicate 2]
transformation efficiency for the large-scale library; 62% [replicate 1] and 45% [replicate 2] for
the validation library). Cells were pelleted (4 min, 100 x g, RT) and resuspended in 2 mL Trizol
for subsequent mRNA extraction. An aliquot of the plasmid library used for PEG transformation
was used as the input sample for Plant STARR-seq.

Plant STARR-seq assay

For all Plant STARR-seq experiments, two independent biological replicates were
performed. Different plants and fresh *Agrobacterium* cultures were used for each biological
replicate.
Tobacco leaves were harvested 2 days after infiltration and partitioned into batches of 4 (large-
scale library) or 3 (validation library) leaves. The leaf batches were frozen in liquid nitrogen,
finely ground with mortar and pestle, and immediately resuspended in 12 mL Trizol. The
suspensions were cleared by centrifugation (5 min, 4,000 x g, 4°C) and each supernatant was
mixed with 2.5 mL chloroform. After centrifugation (15 min, 4,000 x g, 4°C), 7 mL of the upper,
aqueous phase was transferred to a new tube, and mixed by inversion with 3.5 mL high salt
buffer (0.8 M sodium citrate, 1.2 M NaCl) and 3.5 mL isopropanol. The solution was incubated
for 15 min at RT to precipitate the RNA and centrifuged (30 min, 4,000 x g, 4°C). The pellet was
washed in 10 mL ice-cold 70% ethanol, centrifuged (5 min, 4000 x g, 4°C), and air-dried. The
pellet was resuspended in 180 µL of warm (65°C) nuclease-free water and transferred to a new
tube. The solution was supplemented with 10 µL 20X DNase I buffer (1 mM CaCl2, 100 mM Tris
pH 7.4), 10 µL 200 mM MnCl2, 2µL DNase I (ThermoFisher Scientific), and 1 µL RNaseOUT

(ThermoFisher Scientific), and incubated for 30 min at 37°C. To precipitate the RNA, 20 µL 8M
ice-cold LiCl and 500 µL ice-cold 100% ethanol was added. After incubation for 15 min at -80°C,
the RNA was pelleted by centrifugation (20 min, 20,000 x g, 4°C). The pellet was washed with
500 µL ice-cold 70% ethanol, centrifuged (5 min, 20,000 x g, 4°C), air-dried for 10 min, and
resuspended in 200 µL nuclease-free water supplemented with 0.5 µL RNaseOUT. For cDNA
synthesis, eight reactions with 11 µL mRNA solution, 1 µL 2 µM GFP-specific reverse
transcription primer, and 1 µL 10 mM dNTPs were incubated at 65°C for 5 min then immediately
placed on ice. The reactions were supplemented with 4 µL 5X SuperScript IV buffer, 1 µL 100
mM DTT, 1 µL RNaseOUT, and 1 µL SuperScript IV reverse transcriptase (ThermoFisher
Scientific). To ensure that the samples were largely free of DNA contamination, four reactions
were used as controls, where the reverse transcriptase and RNaseOUT were replaced with
water. Reactions were incubated for 10 min at 55°C, followed by 10 min at 80°C. Sets of 4
reactions each were pooled. The cNDA was purified with the Zymo Clean&Concentrate-5 kit,
and eluted in 20 µL 10 mM Tris. The barcode was amplified with 10-20 cycles of polymerase
chain reaction (PCR) and read out by next generation sequencing.
For Plant STARR-seq in maize protoplasts, the protoplast-containing Trizol solution from PEG
transformation was transferred to 2 mL Phasemaker tubes (1 mL per tube; ThermoFisher
Scientific), mixed thoroughly with 300 µL chloroform, and centrifuged (5 min, 15,000 x g, 4°C).
RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (QIAGEN). The supernatant was
transferred to a QIAshrededer column and centrifuged (2 min, 20,000 x g, RT). The flowthrough
was transferred to a new 1.5 mL tube and mixed with 300 µL 100% ethanol. Up to 500 µL of the
solution was loaded on an RNeasy mini spin column. After centrifugation (10 seconds, 16,100 x
g, RT) the flowthrough was discarded. This was repeated until all the solution had been added
to the column. The column was washed once with 700 µL RW1 buffer and twice with 500 µL
RPE buffer. After each wash step, the column was centrifuged (30 sec, 16,100 x g, RT) and the
flowthrough was discarded. The column was dried with an extra centrifugation step (30 sec,
16,100 x g, RT) and transferred to a 1.5 mL collection tube. For elution, 50 µL of RNase-free
water was added, and the column was incubated for 1 minute, and centrifuged (1 min, 16,100 x
g, RT). This elution step was repeated with an additional 40 µL of RNase-free water. The eluate
was treated with DNase I (5 µL of 20x DNaseI buffer, 5 µL 200 mM MnCL2, 1 µL RNaseOUT,
and 2 µL DNase I) for 1 h at 37°C. The solution was supplemented with 20 µL 500 mM EDTA,
1 µL 20 mg/mL glycogen, 12 µL ice-cold 8M LiCl, and 300 µL ice-cold 100% ethanol. The
solution was incubated 15 min at -80°C, centrifuged (20 min, 20,000 x g, 4°C). The pellet was
washed with 500 µL ice-cold 70% ethanol, and centrifuged (3 min, 20,000 x g, 4°C). The pellet
was air-dried for 10 min and resuspended in 100 µL RNase-free water. Reverse transcription,
purification, PCR amplification and sequencing were performed as for the tobacco samples.
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Subassembly and barcode sequencing

Paired-end sequencing on an Illumina NextSeq 2000 platform was used to link
terminators to their respective barcodes. To facilitate sequencing, we created a shortened
version of the terminator library plasmid with a large deletion in the GFP gene. The terminator
region was sequenced using paired 151-nucleotide reads, and two 18-nucleotide indexing reads
were used to sequence the barcodes. The paired terminator and barcode reads were
assembled using PANDAseq (version 2.11) (Masella et al. 2012) and the terminator reads were
aligned to the designed terminator library using BowTie2 (version 2.4.1) (Langmead and
Salzberg 2012). Terminator-barcode pairs with less than 5 reads and terminators with a
mutation or truncation were discarded. For each Plant STARR-seq experiment, barcodes were
sequenced using paired-end reads on an Illumina NextSeq 2000 system. The paired barcode
reads were assembled using PANDAseq.

Computational methods

For calculating terminator strength, the reads for each barcode were counted in the input and cDNA (output) samples. Barcodes with less than five reads were discarded. For each terminator, the sum of the reads for all associated barcodes was calculated in the input and output samples. The input and output counts were normalized by dividing each by the sum of all counts in the output and input sample, respectively. Terminator strength was calculated as the normalized output counts divided by the normalized input counts. Terminator strength was normalized to the strength of the 35S terminator. We used the average terminator strength across two replicates for all analyses (Supplementary Tables 2 and 3). Spearman and Pearson's correlation were calculated using base R (version 4.3.0). Significance was calculated using the two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test and the ggsignif library (version 0.6.4) in R (Supplementary Table 5). GO term enrichment analysis was performed using the ggprofiler2 package (version 0.2.1) in R (Supplementary Table 6).

Discovery of terminator motifs

To find motifs enriched in strong terminators, we ranked terminators according to their strength in tobacco leaves or maize protoplasts. The sequences of the top 25% terminators were analyzed by STREME (version 5.5.1) (Bailey 2021) to find ungapped RNA motifs that are enriched in this set relative to the sequences of the bottom 25% terminators. To find tobacco-specific terminator motifs, we used STREME with the same parameters but using the top 10% *Arabidopsis* of terminators ranked by Ψ as positive and the bottom 10% of maize terminators ranked by Ψ as negative sequences. For maize-specific terminator motifs, we repeated the analysis but switched the positive and negative sequences. Meme files with all discovered motifs are available on GitHub (https://github.com/lampoona/Terminators-Plant-STARR-seq). All terminator sequences were analyzed using the universalmotif package (version 1.18.0) in R to find the position and frequency of the discovered motifs. For each sequence, the maximum motif score was identified and normalized to the minimum (set to 0) and maximum (set to 1) scores possible. Sequences with a score of at least 0.85 were considered to contain a motif match.

Computational modeling of terminator strength

In order to predict terminator strength, we first build a lasso regression model using the glmnet package (version 4.1.7) in R to predict terminator strength based on the counts of all possible, overlapping 6-mer counts. The regression model was trained on 70% of the data and tested on the remaining 30%.

For our second model, we built a convolutional neural net model using EUGENe (version 0.0.6) (Klie et al. 2022) and PyTorch ((Paszke et al. 2019); version 1.11.0) in Python (version 3.8.10). We used a "DenseNet" (Huang et al. 2017) architecture adapted from iCREPCP (Deng et al. 2023). The model takes one-hot encoded DNA as an input which is fed to a convolutional layer with 128 filters and a kernel size of 5. This layer is followed by four dense blocks consisting of 6, 12, 24, and 16 convolutional layers with 12 filters each and a kernel size of 3. In each dense block, the output of a convolutional layer is appended to its input and the combined output is used as the input for the subsequent layer. Between each dense block, the output feature map is reduced in size through convolution (using half as many filters as the input and a kernel size of 1) and average pooling (with a kernel size of 2). The output of the final dense block is fed into a fully connected layer with two outputs corresponding to the terminator

strength in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts, respectively. Terminator sequences from our
original library that were detected in tobacco leaves and maize protoplast STARR-seq
experiments (n = 53,409) were used for model training and evaluation. Of this data, 81% were
used to train the model, 9% were used as a validation set during training and the remaining 10%
were used to test the generalizability and accuracy of the trained model. Feature attributions for
sequences in the test set were calculated using the DeepLIFT method (Shrikumar, Greenside,
and Kundaje 2017) implemented in EUGENe. These feature attributions were used as input for
TF-MoDISco-lite (version 2.0.6) (Shrikumar et al. 2018) to extract motifs that increase or
decrease terminator strength. Since we were looking for RNA motifs, we modified the TF-
MoDISco-lite algorithm to not consider reverse complemented seqlets for clustering, alignments,
or pattern generation. The code for model training and evaluation, and the trained model are
available on GitHub (https://github.com/lampoona/Terminators-Plant-STARR-seq).

In silico evolution of terminator sequences

We used the DenseNet model to iteratively improve terminator strength. We randomly
selected 222 sequences (111 each from *Arabidopsis* and maize) from the test set of our model
to ensure that the model had not seen these sequences during training. In each iteration, we
generated every possible point mutation for each sequence, scored them with the DenseNet
model, and kept the sequence variant with the highest predicted strength in tobacco leaves,
maize protoplasts, or both (using the sum of the activity in the individual systems) systems for
the next iteration. We then experimentally determined the terminator strength of the sequences
after three and ten rounds of evolution using Plant STARR-seq in both tobacco leaves and
maize protoplasts.

3' end sequencing

We used 3' end sequencing to determine the cleavage and polyadenylation site for each
terminator. For cDNA synthesis, we incubated 5 µL of the extracted mRNA from the second
Plant STARR-seq replicate in tobacco leaves with 5 µL RNase free water, 1 µL 10 mM DNTPs,
and 2 µL 25 mM UMI-containing oligo-dT primer for 5 min at 55°C. The solution was
supplemented with 4 µL 5X SuperScript IV buffer, 1 µL 100 mM DTT, 1 µL RNaseOUT, and
1 µL Superscript IV reverse transcriptase. The reaction was incubated for 2 min each at 4°C,
10°C, 20°C, 30°C, 40°C and 50°C, and finally for 15 min at 55°C. The sample was
supplemented with 1 µL RNase H (NEB) and incubated for 30 min at 37°C. The cDNA was
purified using the Zymo Clean&Concentrate-5 kit and PCR-amplified using indexed sequencing
primers specific to the end of the GFP construct and the adapter added using the RT primer
(Fig. 8a). Terminators were sequenced using an Illumina NextSeq 2000 platform with a 222-
nucleotide read from the 5' end of the amplicon. The paired read was used to sequence the 8-
nucleotide UMI. UMIs and terminator reads were linked using UMI-Tools (version 1.1.2) (Smith,
Heger, and Sudbery 2017). Poly-A tails of each read were removed using CutAdapt (version
2.5) (Kechin et al. 2017). Terminators were aligned to the designed terminator library plus 52
nucleotide of plasmid backbone sequence using BowTie2 (version 2.4.1) (Langmead and
Salzberg 2012) and reads that had a map quality of 0 or 1 were removed using Samtools
(version 1.9) (Li et al. 2009). Duplicate terminator-UMI pairs were removed and terminators with
fewer than 20 supporting reads were discarded. Bam files for each terminator were generated,
and cleavage sites were determined using a custom R script available on GitHub
(https://github.com/lampoona/Terminators-Plant-STARR-seq). Briefly, the algorithm identifies
local maxima in the distribution of read lengths per terminator. Cleavage probability was
calculated on a per terminator basis as the percentage of reads shorter than 171 nucleotides

(Supplementary Table 2). Major cleavage and polyadenylation sites per terminator are reported
in Supplementary Table 8.

Dual-luciferase assay

For the dual-luciferase assay, terminators were cloned downstream of a nanoluciferase gene
under control of the 35S enhancer and minimal promoter in the plasmid pDLterm
(https://www.addgene.org/211903/). The plasmid also harbors a luciferase gene under control of
the *Arabidopsis UBQ10* promoter. For the dual-luciferase assay in tobacco, two independent
biological replicates, with two technical replicates each, were performed. The dual-luciferase
reporter plasmids were introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3101 (harboring
the virulence plasmid pMP90 and the helper plasmid pSoup) by electroporation and used for
transient transformation of tobacco leaves. Two days after the transformation, a total of 4 leaf
discs from the third and fourth leaf of the tobacco plants was collected using a cork borer (4 mm
diameter). The leaf discs were transferred to 1.5 mL tubes filled with approximately 10 glass
beads (1 mm diameter), snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and disrupted by shaking twice for 5 sec
in a Silamat S6 (Ivoclar) homogenizer. The leaf disc debris was resuspended in 100 µL 1X
Passive Lysis Buffer (Promega). The solution was cleared by centrifugation (5 min, 20,000 x g,
RT) and an aliquot of the supernatant was diluted 1:10 with 1X passive lysis buffer. Luciferase
and nanoluciferase activities were measured on a Biotek Synergy H1 plate reader using the
Promega Nano-Glo Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System according to the manufacturer's
instructions. Specifically, 10 µL of the diluted leaf extracts were combined with 75 µL ONE-Glo
EX Reagent, mixed for 3 min at 425 rpm, and incubated for 2 min before measuring luciferase
activity. Subsequently, 75 µL NanoDLR Stop&Glo Reagent were added to the sample. After 3
min mixing at 425 rpm and 12 min incubation, nanoluciferase activity was measured.
For the dual-luciferase assay in maize protoplasts, two independent biological replicates, with a
technical replicate for one of them, were performed. One million protoplasts were transformed
with 15 µg of the dual-luciferase reporter plasmid following the same transformation protocol as
used for Plant STARR-seq (see above). After incubation overnight in the dark, the transformed
protoplasts were washed twice with 1 mL incubation solution and lysed by adding 100 µL 1X
passive lysis buffer. The protoplast lysate was diluted 1:10 with 1X passive lysis buffer and used
to measure luciferase and nanoluciferase activities with the same protocol as used for the
tobacco leaf extracts. Raw values and calculated scores from assay are provided in
Supplementary Table 7.

RT-PCR and gel electrophoresis

To visualize terminator cleavage patterns, RNA was extracted from tobacco leaves transiently
transformed with dual-luciferase reporter constructs. A total of 8 leaf discs (4 mm diameter)
were collected two days after transformation. The fresh leaf discs were transferred to a 2 mL
tube containing a 5 mm stainless steel bead and 500 µL buffer RLT (QIAGEN). The leaf discs
were disrupted using a TissueLyser LT (QIAGEN) bead mill for 3 min at 50 Hz. Debris was
pelleted by centrifugation (2 mi, 20,000 x g, RT) and the supernatant was subjected to RNA
extraction using the QIAGEN RNease Plant Mini Kit according to the manufacturer's
instructions. Reverse transcription of the extracted RNA was performed in the same way as for
the 3' end sequencing. The resulting cDNA was PCR-amplified with primers binding to the 3'
end of the nanoluciferase gene and the 5' end of the reverse transcription primer. The PCR
products were separated by gel electrophoresis and visualized with SYBR green.
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Data availability

All sequencing results are deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under the BioProject accession PRJNA991151.

Code availability

The code used in this study is available on GitHub (https://github.com/lampoona/Terminators-Plant-STARR-seq).

Author contributions

All authors conceived and interpreted experiments; S.G., T.J., J.T., and N.A.M performed experiments; S.G., T.J., and K.B. analyzed the data; S.G., T.J., and T.W. did the *in silico* modeling. S.G., T.J., C.Q., and S.F prepared the manuscript and figures.

Fig. 1 | Plant STARR-seq measures terminator strength in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts. a Terminator sequences (bases -150 to +20 relative to the cleavage and

polyadenylation site) were array-synthesized and cloned downstream of a barcoded GFP
reporter gene driven by the 35S promoter. After transient expression of the plasmid library in
tobacco leaves or maize protoplasts, mRNA was extracted for barcode sequencing. We define
terminator strength as the enrichment of barcodes in the extracted mRNA over the input DNA
normalized to the strength of the 35S terminator. **b, c** Hexbin plots (color represents the count of
points in each hexagon) of the correlation between two biological replicates of Plant STARR-seq
in tobacco leaves (**b**) or maize protoplasts (**c**). Commonly used terminators are highlighted in
red. Pearson's R^2, spearman's ρ, and number (*n*) of terminators are indicated. **d, e** Violin plots,
box plots, and significance levels of terminator strength in tobacco leaves (**d**) or maize
protoplasts (**e**) for plant terminators (Terminators) compared to sequences from coding regions
(CDS) and randomized sequences with an overall (Global random) or per-position (Positional
random) nucleotide frequency similar to an average *Arabidopsis* or maize terminator. Violin
plots represent the kernel density distribution and the box plots inside represent the median
(center line), upper and lower quartiles and 1.5× the interquartile range (whiskers) for all
corresponding terminators. Numbers at the bottom of each violin indicate the number of
terminators in each group. Significant differences between two samples were determined by the
two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test and are indicated: *$p \leq 0.05$, **$p \leq 0.01$, ***$p \leq 0.001$, NS, not
significant. Exact p values are listed in Supplementary Table 5.

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Fig. 2 | Plant terminator strength is species-specific. a Hexbin plot comparing terminator
strength in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts. **b, c** Violin plots of the strength of terminators
derived from the indicated species in tobacco leaves (**b**) or maize protoplasts (**c**). **d** Violin plot of
Ψ, the difference between normalized (0, weakest; 1, strongest) log2(terminator strength) in
tobacco leaves (TobaccoN) and maize protoplasts (ProtoplastsN). Terminators are grouped by
their species of origin. The top 10% of *Arabidopsis* terminators with highest Ψ values (tobacco-

specific terminators) and the top 10% of maize terminator with the lowest Ψ values (maize-
specific terminators) are highlighted in yellow and green, respectively. **e** GO terms enriched in
genes associated with the tobacco-specific Arabidopsis terminators or the maize-specific maize
terminators highlighted in **d**. Only GO terms with adjusted p value ≤ 0.0001 are shown. The p
values were determined using the gprofiler2 library in R with gSCS correction for multiple
testing. All enriched GO terms and exact p values are listed in Supplementary Table 6. **f, g** Top
three motifs enriched in tobacco-specific Arabidopsis terminators relative to maize-specific
maize terminators (**f**) and vice versa (**g**), with percentages denoting how many terminators per
group had this motif. The hexbin plot in a and the violin plots, box plots, and significance levels
in **b-d** are as defined in Fig. 1.

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Fig. 3 | Nucleotide composition affects terminator strength in a species- and position-
specific manner. a Histogram of terminator GC content. The solid line indicates the mean GC
content of terminators (*Arabidopsis* = 32.53%, maize = 40.89%) and the dashed line indicates
the GC content of the genome (*Arabidopsis* = 36.06%, maize = 46.86%). **b, c** Violin plots and
box plots (as defined in Fig. 1) of terminator strength in tobacco leaves (**b**) or maize protoplasts
(**c**). Terminators were binned by GC content to yield groups of approximately the same size. **d,**
e Correlation (Pearson's *r*) between terminator strength in tobacco leaves (**d**) or maize
protoplasts (**e**) and the A, C, G, or U content of a ten-base window starting at the indicated
position in the plant terminators.
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Fig. 4 | Cleavage and polyadenylation motifs increase terminator strength. a Sequence
942 logo plots of the top four motifs enriched in the strongest terminators in tobacco leaves (left) or
943 maize protoplasts (right). For each motif, the percentage of *Arabidopsis* and maize terminators
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harboring it is indicated. **b-e** Violin plots of terminator strength in tobacco leaves (**b, d**) or maize
protoplasts (**c, e**) with or without AAUAAA, UGUA, or U/G-rich motifs individually (**b, c**) or in
combination (**d, e**). **f, g** Box plots (centre line, median; box limits, upper and lower quartiles;
whiskers, 1.5× interquartile range) and underlying data points for the strength of terminators
supplemented with the indicated motifs relative to the corresponding terminator without any
motif (set to 0). In **e-g,** each group is correlated with the reference group (the no motif control).
In **b-g**, red circles indicate presence of a motif and gray circles indicate its absence. Violin plots,
box plots, and significance levels in **b-g** are as defined in Fig. 1.

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Fig. 5 | K-mers can be used for species-specific terminator strength predictions. a, b
Correlation (Pearson's *r*) between terminator strength in tobacco leaves (**a**) or maize protoplasts
(**b**) and how often a given 6-mer is present in the terminators. The horizontal axis displays the 6-

mer "rank" based on Pearson's correlation. The sequences of the highest and lowest ranked 6-
mers are indicated. **c** Comparison of the 6-mer ranks in tobacco leaves and maize protoplasts.
6-mers highlighted in green and blue had the biggest differences in rank order between the two
assay systems. **d** Top 10 tobacco- or maize-specific 6-mers (highlighted in **c**) and sequence
logo plots generated from them. **e, f** Hexbin plot (as defined in Fig. 1) of the correlation between
terminator strength measured by STARR-seq in tobacco leaves (**e**) or maize protoplasts (**f**) and
terminator strength predictions from a lasso regression model based on 6-mer counts. Only the
terminators not used for model training are shown (30% of all terminators).
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Fig. 6 | A convolutional neural network accurately predicts terminator strength. a, b
Hexbin plot (as defined in Fig. 1) of the correlation between terminator strength measured by
STARR-seq in tobacco leaves (**a**) or maize protoplasts (**b**) and terminator strength predictions

from a DenseNet convolutional neural network trained on terminator sequences. Only the
terminators not used for model training are shown (10% of all terminators). **c, d** DeepLIFT
importance scores based on our DenseNet model predictions of terminator strength in tobacco
leaves (**c**) or maize protoplasts (**d**). The terminator of AT1G31180 is shown as an example. **e, f**
Motifs identified by TF-MoDISco that positively or negatively contribute to the DenseNet model
predictions of terminator strength in tobacco leaves (**e**) or maize protoplasts (**f**).
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Fig. 7 | *In silico* evolution of plant terminators. a Scheme of the *in silico* evolution. **b, c** Violin
plots, box plots, and significance levels (as defined in Fig. 1) of terminator strength measured in
tobacco leaves (**b**) or maize protoplasts (**c**) for unmodified terminators (start) and terminators
after three or ten rounds of *in silico* evolution. Groups are statistically compared to the "start"
sequence. The DenseNet model prediction for tobacco leaves (tobacco) or maize protoplasts

(maize), or the sum of both predictions (both) was used as a score during *in silico* evolution. The
dashed blue line indicates the strength of the 35S terminator (*t35S*). **d** Jitter plot of the
nanoluciferase activity of the *in silico* evolution of AT1G79150 and AT5G64270 terminators. The
dashed blue line indicates the average nanoluciferase activity of the 35S terminator (*t35S*), set
to 0. The gray dot denotes the mean and the gray line denotes the variance. **e** Dot plot and
Pearson's R^2 between terminator strength and nanoluciferase activity of evolved terminators in
(d). Raw values and calculated scores from assay are provided in Supplementary Table 7.

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Fig. 8 | Polyadenylation and cleavage affect terminator strength. a Polyadenylation and
cleavage sites for terminators in tobacco leaves were determined by 3' end sequencing. Using
an oligo-dT primer with a unique molecular identifier (UMI), cDNA was generated from
polyadenylated terminators. The cDNA was subjected to paired-end sequencing of the
terminator and UMI. Cleavage sites were defined as local maxima in a histogram of terminator
read length after trimming of the poly-A tail. **b** Sequence logo plots generated from the 10 bp
window around all cleavage sites (All sites), all primary sites (1° sites), or all secondary sites (2°
sites). **c** Histograms of cleavage site position for four representative terminators. Red dots

denote primary and alternative cleavage sites. **d** Kernel density distribution of the primary
cleavage site position for plant terminators (Terminators), sequences from coding regions
(CDS), and randomized sequences with an overall (Global random) or per-position (Positional
random) nucleotide frequency similar to an average *Arabidopsis* or maize terminator. **e**
Histogram of the primary cleavage site position for terminators grouped into deciles based on
terminator strength in tobacco leaves (decile 1 contains the strongest 10% of the terminators
and decile 10 the weakest 10%). Each decile contains approximately 5,300 terminators. The
shaded red area corresponds to cleavage in the T-DNA backbone (*i.e.* downstream of the
terminator sequence). **f** Violin plots of terminator strength. Terminators were grouped by the
percentage of reads that coincide with the primary cleavage site. **g** Violin plots of the strength of
terminators with a primary cleavage site within the terminator or in the T-DNA. **h** Violin plots of
terminator strength for terminators grouped by cleavage probability (percent of unique reads
showing cleavage within the terminator sequence). Violin plots, box plots, and significance
levels in **f-h** are as defined in Fig. 1. Major cleavage and polyadenylation sites per terminator
are reported in Supplementary Table 8.
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Fig. 9 | GC content and polyadenylation motifs influence cleavage probability. a Violin
plots, box plots, and significance levels of cleavage probability (percent of unique reads showing
cleavage within the terminator sequence) for plant terminators (Terminators) compared to
sequences from coding regions (CDS) and randomized sequences with an overall (Global
random) or per-position (Positional random) nucleotide frequency similar to an average
Arabidopsis or maize terminator. Each control group is correlated to the terminator group . **b**
Violin plots, box plots, and significance levels of cleavage probability. Terminators were binned
by GC content to yield groups of approximately the same size. **c** Correlation (Pearson's *r*)
between cleavage probability and the A, C, G, or U content of a ten-base window starting at the
indicated position in the terminators. **d** Violin plots, box plots, and significance levels of cleavage
probability for terminators with (red dot) or without (gray dot) the indicated motifs. Each group is
correlated to the no motif control. Violin plots, box plots, and significance levels in **a**, **b**, and **d**
are as defined in Fig. 1.

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1046 **Table 1 | Terminator polyadenylation and cleavage statistics.**

Terminator group	Cleavage site at position 150 ± 5 bp	Primary cleavage site at position 150 ± 5 bp	Multiple cleavage sites	Strong secondary cleavage site (≥ 30% of reads)	Cleavage in T-DNA backbone only
All terminators *n* = 54,825	33,700 (61%)	17,986 (32%)	37,301 (68%)	7,393 (13%)	9,525 (17%)
Arabidopsis terminators *n* = 22,587	15,331 (68%)	8,826 (39%)	16,827 (74%)	4,421 (20%)	1,082 (5%)
Maize terminators *n* = 27,733	16,931 (61%)	8,540 (31%)	18,008 (65%)	2,474 (9%)	6,879 (25%)
CDS *n* = 936	36 (4%)	6 (1%)	234 (25%)	17 (2%)	663 (71%)
Global random sequences *n* = 381	68 (18%)	15 (4%)	227 (60%)	53 (14%)	107 (28.1%)
Positional random terminators *n* = 1,865	773 (41)%	285 (15%)	1,250 (67%)	266 (14%)	388 (21%)

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1052 Supplementary Fig. 1 | Nucleotide composition for terminators in our library. a, b Per-
position nucleotide frequencies of *Arabidopsis* (**a**) or maize (**b**) terminators. **c, d** Pie charts
showing the distribution of the cleavage site location (annotated according to the *Arabidopsis*

TAIR10 and the maize B73v4 genome annotations) for the terminators from *Arabidopsis* (**c**) or
maize (**d**) in our library. **e** Per-position nucleotide frequencies for controls derived from coding
sequences (CDS) in *Arabidopsis* or maize. **f** Per-position nucleotide frequencies of randomized
sequences with an overall (Global random) nucleotide composition similar to average
Arabidopsis or maize terminator. **g, h** Per-position nucleotide frequencies for randomized
sequences with a per-position (Positional random) nucleotide composition similar to an average
Arabidopsis (**g**) or maize (**h**) terminator.
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Supplementary Fig. 2 | Plant STARR-seq yields highly reproducible results across libraries. a, b Hexbin plots (as defined in Fig. 1) of the correlation between two biological replicates of Plant STARR-seq with the validation library in tobacco leaves (**a**) or maize protoplasts (**b**). Commonly used terminators are highlighted in red. **c, d** Correlation between terminator strength as measured in the large-scale library and the validation library in tobacco leaves (**c**) or maize protoplasts (**d**). Pearson's R^2, spearman's ρ, and number (n) of terminators are indicated in all plots.

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Supplementary Fig. 3 | Nanoluciferase activity (protein abundance) reflects terminator
strength. Select weak (CDS), intermediate, and strong terminators are cloned immediately
downstream of nanoluciferase. The nanoluciferase/luciferase ratio is normalized to a mean of
the construct with the 35S terminator per experiment (35S average; log2 set to 0, dashed blue
line). **a,c** Jitter plot of nanoluciferase activity for selected terminators in tobacco leaves **(a)** and
maize protoplasts **(c)**. The gray dot denotes the mean and the gray line denotes the variance.
b,d Dot plot and Pearson's R^2 between terminator strength and nanoluciferase activity of tested
terminators in **(b)** tobacco leaves and **(d)** maize protoplasts. Linear regression line is shown as
a blue line, and the gray band around the regression line is the 95% confidence interval. Key:
{At mid 1= AT1G26300 ; AT mid 2= AT3G23110; Zm mid = Zm00001d012972_T002; At CDS
1=AT3G22360_CDS; At CDS 2= AT5G07380_CDS; Zm CDS = Zm00001d025717_T001_CDS;
Zm high = Zm00001d047961_T001; HSP17.4 = AT3G46230}. Raw values and calculated
scores from assay are provided in Supplementary Table 7.
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1097 **Supplementary Fig. 4 | Terminator strength is not correlated to gene expression, mRNA**
1098 **half-life, and nascent transcription.** Hexbin plots (as defined in Fig. 1) of the correlation
1099 between the strength of *Arabidopsis* terminators and the expression (**a**), mRNA half-life (**b**), or
1100 nascent transcription (**c**) of the corresponding genes. Pearson's R^2 is indicated.
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Supplementary Fig. 5 | Metabolic and stimulus-responsive genes frequently use strong
terminators. a-d GO terms enriched in genes associated with the top 10% of *Arabidopsis* (**a, c**)
or maize (**b, d**) terminators ranked by strength in tobacco leaves (**a, b**) or maize protoplasts (**c,**
d). Only the most significant GO terms are shown. The *p* values were determined using the
gprofiler2 library in R with gSCS correction for multiple testing. All enriched GO terms and exact
p values are listed in Supplementary Table 6. **e, f** GO terms for *Arabidopsis* (**e**) or maize (**f**)
terminators were collapsed into 5 major categories and counted for each assay system.
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1115 **Supplementary Fig. 6 | Optimal GC content for terminators is species-specific.** Violin plots,
1116 box plots, and significance levels (as defined in Fig. 1) of terminator strength in tobacco leaves
1117 (**a**) or maize protoplasts (**b**) for randomized sequences with the indicated GC content.
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Supplementary Fig. 7 | Polyadenylation motifs show distinct localization profiles.
Histograms showing the number of *Arabidopsis* and maize terminators with a UGUA motif (**a,
b**), an AAUAAA motif (**c, d**), or a U/G-rich motif (**e, f**) at the indicated position. The motifs were
discovered in terminators with high strength in tobacco leaves (**a, c, e**) or maize protoplasts (**b,
d, f**).

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Supplementary Fig. 8 | Cleavage and polyadenylation motifs are sensitive to mutations.
a, b Violin plots, box plots, and significance levels (as defined in Fig. 1) of terminator strength in
tobacco leaves (**a**) or maize protoplasts (**b**) for terminators with the indicated variants of the
AAUAAA motif. Terminators without any AAUAAA motif variant (None) are also shown. **c, d** Box

plots and significance levels (as defined in Fig. 4) of the strength of terminators with the
indicated variants of the AAUAAA (**c**) or UGUA (**d**) motif relative to the strength of the
corresponding wild type terminator (set to 0). **e-f** Violin plots, box plots, and significance levels
(as defined in Fig. 1) of terminator strength in **(e)** tobacco leaves and **(f)** maize protoplasts of
terminators with varying numbers of UGUA motifs. **g** Jitter plots of the average number of
UGUA per terminator through 0, 3, and 10 rounds of *in silico* evolution.

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1173 **Supplementary Fig. 9 | Terminators derived from primary or secondary polyadenylation**
1174 **sites are indistinguishable by terminator strength.** Violin plots, box plots, and significance
1175 levels (as defined in Fig. 1) of the terminator strength in tobacco leaves (**a**) or maize protoplasts
1176 (**b**) of the experimentally determined secondary polyadenylation site of *Arabidopsis* and maize
1177 genes relative to the primary polyadenylation site of the same gene (set to 0).

Supplementary Fig. 10 | Cleavage site positions differ between *bona fide* terminators and control sequences. a) Kernel density distribution of all cleavage site positions for plant terminators (Terminators), sequences from coding regions (CDS), and randomized sequences with an overall (Global random) or per-position (Positional random) nucleotide frequency similar to an average *Arabidopsis* or maize terminator. **b)** Cleavage site map of the CaMV 35S terminator (length=204). **c)** RNA was extracted from replicate 1 of the nanoluciferase assay (shown in Supplemental Fig 3A) and reverse transcribed using the same oligo(DT) primer for the 3' end sequencing method. cDNA was amplified and run on a 1.0% agarose gel to resolve cleavage. Red triangles denote the site of primary cleavage determined by 3'end sequencing. Key: {At mid 1= AT1G26300 ; AT mid 2= AT3G23110; Zm mid = Zm00001d012972_T002; At CDS 1=AT3G22360_CDS, At CDS 2= AT5G07380_CDS; Zm CDS = Zm00001d025717_T001_CDS, HSP17.4 = AT3G46230}

1213 **Supplementary Table 1 | Terminator library composition.**

Type	Count	Description
Arabidopsis terminators (main cleavage site)	22,204	Sequences surrounding main polyadenylation and cleavage site of *Arabidopsis* genes (-150 to +20 relative to cleavage site)
Arabidopsis terminators (secondary cleavage site)	2,325	Sequences surrounding secondary polyadenylation and cleavage site (≥30% of total reads) of *Arabidopsis* genes (-150 to +20 relative to cleavage site)
Maize terminators (main cleavage site)	25,685	Sequences surrounding main polyadenylation and cleavage site of maize genes (-150 to +20 relative to cleavage site)
Maize terminators (secondary cleavage site)	4,407	Sequences surrounding secondary polyadenylation and cleavage site (≥30% of total reads) of maize genes (-150 to +20 relative to cleavage site)
CDS	1,178	Coding sequences (170 bp) with similar overall GC content as *Arabidopsis* or maize terminators (589 from each species)
Fixed GC content	1,000	Randomized sequences (170 bp) with a GC content of: 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%, or 70% (200 each)
Global random sequences	400	Randomized sequences (170 bp) with overall nucleotide frequency similar to an average *Arabidopsis* or maize terminator (200 per species)
Positional random terminators	2,000	Randomized sequences (170 bp) with per-position nucleotide frequency similar to an average *Arabidopsis* or maize terminator (1,000 per species)
Commonly used terminators	4	35S, Ag7, NOS, and MAS terminators

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1217 **Supplementary Table 4 | Primers and DNA fragments used in this study.**

Sequence	Purpose
GTTCCACTTCTGTATAGGAGCCAATTG	linearize pPSup to build pPSt (fwd)
GGAATTCGATATCAAGCTTATCGATACCG	linearize pPSup to build pPSt (rev)
CGGTATCGATAAGCTTGATATCGAATTCCGCTGCCGTCTTCAG TGCCTGCAGGCATAGAAGACCCGTGACGAGACCACAAGGCGC GCCTAGTGGTCTCCTAAGGGAGACGGGATCCTACAGCTAGCC GTCTCGAGGTGTTCCACTTCTGTATAGGAGCCAATTG	Golden Gate cassettes for pPSt (dsDNA fragment)
GGTCGACGAAGACGGGCTG	amplify 35S promoter + Zm00001d041672 5'UTR (fwd)
GAGAGGAAGACGGTCACNNBNNGNNBNNGNNBNNBCATCGG GGAAGGCTGGG	amplify 35S promoter + Zm00001d041672 5'UTR (rev; contains barcode)
GCGCCGTCTCCTAAG<170bp_terminator>AGGTCGAGACGGTG C	terminator oligo pool
GCGCCGTCTCCTAAG	amplify terminator oligo pool (fwd)
GCACCGTCTCGACCT	amplify terminator oligo pool (rev)
CAGGTCGACGGTCTCCGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAG	amplify GFP (fwd)
TCCTCTAGAGGTCTCGCTTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGCC	amplify GFP (rev)
AGTTCAGCCACATGGTCCTGCTGGAGTTC	delete central portion of GFP (fwd)
GGACCATGTGGCTGAACTTGTGGCCGTTTA	delete central portion of GFP (rev)
GGACGACGTCGTCTCCTAAGCTCTAGCTAGAGTCGATCGACA AGCTCGAGTTTCTCCATAATAATGTGTGAGTAGTTCCCAGATA AGGGAATTAGGGTTCCTATAGGGTTTCGCTCATGTGTTGAGCA TATAAGAAACCCTTAGTATGTATTTGTATTTGTAAAATACTTCTA TCAATAAAATTTCTAATTCCTAAAACCAAAATCCAGTACTAAAAT CCAGATAGGTCGAGACGACGTCGTAC	template 35S terminator
GGACGACGTCGTCTCCTAAGCTCTAGCTAGAGTCGATCG	amplify 35S terminator (fwd)
GTACGACGTCGTCTCGACCTATCTGGATTTTAGTACTGGATTT TG	amplify 35S terminator (rev)
GGACGACGTCGTCTCCTAAGGATCGTTCAAACATTTGGC	amplify NOS terminator (fwd)
GTACGACGTCGTCTCGACCTGATCTAGTAACATAGATGACACC	amplify NOS terminator (rev)
GGACGACGTCGTCTCCTAAGCTTGGACTCCCATGTTGGCAAA GGCAACCAAACAAACAATGAATGATCCGCTCCTGCATATGGG GCGGTTTGAGTATTTCAACTGCCATTTGGGCTGAATTGTAGAC ATGCTCCTGTCAGAAATTCCGTGATCTTACTCAATATTCAGTAA TCTCGGCCAATATCCTAAATGTGCGTGGCTTTATCTGTCTTTGT ATTGTTTCATCAATTCATGTAACGTTTGCTTTTCTTATGAATTTT CAAATAAATTATCAGGTCGAGACGACGTCGTAC	template MAS terminator
GGACGACGTCGTCTCCTAAGCTTGGACTCCCATGTTG	amplify MAS terminator (fwd)

GTACGACGTCGTCTCGACCTGATAATTTATTTGAAAATTCATAAGAA	amplify MAS terminator (rev)
GGACGACGTCGTCTCCTAAGGCTAGCTATATCATCAATTTATGTATTACACATAATATCGCACTCAGTCTTTCATCTACGGCAATGTACCAGCTGATATAATCAGTTATTGAAATATTTCTGAATTTAAACTTGCATCAATAAATTTATGTTTTTGCTTGGACTATAATACCTGACTTGTTATTTTATCAATAAATATTTAAACTATATTTCTTTCAAGATGGGAATTAGGTCGAGACGACGTCGTAC	template Ag7 terminator
GGACGACGTCGTCTCCTAAGGCTAGCTATATCATCAATTTATG	amplify Ag7 terminator (fwd)
GTACGACGTCGTCTCGACCTAATTCCCATCTTGAAAGAAATATAGT	amplify Ag7 terminator (rev)
GAACTTGTGGCCGTTTACG	reverse transcription for barcode sequencing
AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACAC<8bp_index2>CCTCGGCCTCCCTGTCC	amplify barcode for NGS (fwd)
CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGAT<8bp_index1>CACCCCGGTGAACAGCTCC	amplify barcode for NGS (rev)
CCTCGGCCTCCCTGTCCCCAGCCTTCCCCGATG	NGS read 1 primer for barcode sequencing
CACCCCGGTGAACAGCTCCTCGCCCTTGCTCAC	NGS read 2 primer for barcode sequencing
GTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAGCTGTTCACCGGGGTG	NGS index 1 primer for barcode sequencing
CATCGGGGAAGGCTGGGGACAGGGAGGCCGAGG	NGS index 2 primer for barcode sequencing
ACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTNNNNNNNNTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTVN	reverse transcription primer for 3' end sequencing
AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACAC<8bp_index2>GGATCACTCACGGCATGGAC	amplify terminator 3' end (fwd)
CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGAT<8bp_index1>ACACTCTTTCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCT	amplify terminator 3' end (rev)
GGATCACTCACGGCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAGTAAG	NGS read 1 primer for 3' end sequencing
Illumina TruSeq read 1 primer (ACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCT)	NGS read 2 primer for 3' end sequencing
Illumina TruSeq index 2 primer (AGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTGTAGGGAAAGAGTGT)	NGS index 1 primer for 3' end sequencing
CTTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCATGCCGTGAGTGATCC	NGS index 2 primer for 3' end sequencing
AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACAC<8bp_index2>CCTCGGCCTCCCTGTCC	amplify terminator library for subassembly (fwd)
CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGCAACCAAGATGCATGTTGTCATCATTGGCTCC	amplify terminator library for subassembly (rev)
GGATCACTCACGGCATGGACGAGCTGTACAAGTAAG	NGS read 1 primer for subassembly sequencing
GATGCATGTTGTCATCATTGGCTCCTATACAGAAGTGGAACACCT	NGS read 2 primer for subassembly sequencing

CCTCGGCCTCCCTGTCCCCAGCCTTCCCCGATG	NGS index 1 primer for subassembly sequencing
CACCCCGGTGAACAGCTCCTCGCCCTTGCTCAC	NGS index 2 primer for subassembly sequencing
GAGTAACCATCAACGGAGTGACC	Amplify nanoluciferase terminators for gel
ACGACGCTCTTCCGATCT	Amplify nanoluciferase terminators for gel

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