Splicing buffers suboptimal codon usage in human cells

Christine Mordstein^{1,2}, Rosina Savisaar^{2,3}, Robert S Young², Jeanne Bazile¹, Lana Talmane¹, Juliet Luft¹, Michael Liss⁴, Martin S Taylor¹, Laurence D Hurst², Grzegorz Kudla^{1*}

¹MRC Human Genetics Unit, Institute for Genetics and Molecular Medicine, The University of Edinburgh, Scotland, UK

²Milner Centre for Evolution, Department of Biology and Biochemistry, University of Bath, Bath, UK

³School of Communication and Information Technology, Nile University, Giza, Egypt ⁴Thermo Fisher Scientific, GENEART GmbH, Regensburg, Germany

4,024 words (main text)

6 Figures

6 Supplementary Figures

2 Supplementary Tables

*Corresponding author: Grzegorz Kudla (gkudla@gmail.com)

1 Abstract

2

3 Although multiple studies have addressed the effects of codon usage on gene 4 expression, such studies were typically performed in unspliced model genes. In 5 the human genome, most genes undergo splicing and patterns of codon usage are 6 splicing-dependent: guanine and cytosine (GC) content is highest within single-7 exon genes and within first exons of multi-exon genes. Intrigued by this 8 observation, we measured the effects of splicing on expression in a panel of 9 synonymous variants of GFP and mKate2 reporter genes that varied in 10 nucleotide composition. We found that splicing promotes the expression of adenine and thymine (AT)-rich variants by increasing their steady-state protein 11 12 and mRNA levels, in part through promoting cytoplasmic localization of mRNA. Splicing had little or no effect on the expression of GC-rich variants. In the 13 14 absence of splicing, high GC content at the 5' end, but not at the 3' end of the coding sequence positively correlated with expression. Among endogenous 15 16 human protein-coding transcripts, GC content has a more positive effect on 17 various expression measures of unspliced, relative to spliced mRNAs. We 18 propose that splicing promotes the expression of AT-rich genes, leading to 19 selective pressure for the retention of introns in the human genome.

21 Introduction

22

23 Mammalian genomes are characterised by large regional variation in base 24 composition (Bernardi, 1993). Regions with a high density of G and C nucleotides 25 (GC-rich regions) are in an open, transcriptionally active state, are gene-dense, 26 and replicate early. In contrast, AT-rich regions are enriched with 27 heterochromatin, contain large gene deserts and replicate late (Arhondakis et al., 28 2011; Lander et al., 2001; Vinogradov, 2003). The mechanisms that give rise to 29 this compositional heterogeneity have been under debate for years and many 30 researchers believe that the pattern originates from the process of GC-biased gene conversion (Duret and Galtier, 2009), though other neutral and selective 31 32 mechanisms have been proposed as well (Eyre-Walker, 1991; Galtier et al., 2018; 33 Plotkin and Kudla, 2011; Sharp and Li, 1987b).

34

35 The sequence composition of mammalian genes correlates with the GC-content 36 of their genomic location. Thus, introns and exons of genes located in GC-rich 37 parts of the genome are themselves GC-rich. This can potentially influence gene 38 expression in multiple ways: nucleotide composition affects the physical 39 properties of DNA, the thermodynamic stability of RNA folding, the propensity of 40 RNA to interact with other RNAs and proteins, the codon adaptation of mRNA to 41 tRNA pools, and the propensity for RNA modifications, such as m6A (Dominissini 42 et al., 2012) and ac4C (Arango et al., 2018). Strikingly, studies of the effects of 43 nucleotide composition on gene expression in human cells have led to opposing 44 conclusions. On the one hand, heterologous expression experiments typically 45 report large positive effects of GC content on protein production in a wide 46 variety of transgenes, including fluorescent reporter genes, human cDNAs, and 47 viral genes (Bauer et al., 2010; Kosovac et al., 2011; Kotsopoulou et al., 2000; 48 Kudla et al., 2006; Zolotukhin et al., 1996). As a result, increasing the GC content 49 of transgenes has become a common strategy in coding sequence optimization 50 for heterologous expression in human cells (Fath et al., 2011). On the other hand, 51 genome-wide analyses of endogenous genes typically show little or no 52 correlation of GC content with expression (Duan et al., 2013; Lercher et al., 2003; 53 Rudolph et al., 2016; Semon et al., 2005).

54

55 We hypothesized that the conflicting results in heterologous and endogenous 56 gene expression studies can be partially explained by RNA splicing. Most 57 transgenes used in heterologous expression systems have no introns, whereas 58 97% of genes in the human genome contain one or more introns. Splicing is 59 known to influence gene expression at multiple stages, including nuclear RNP 60 assembly, RNA export, and translation. If splicing selectively increased the 61 expression of AT-rich genes, it could account for the lack of correlation of GC 62 content and gene expression in previous genome-wide studies. We therefore 63 compared spliced and unspliced genes with respect to their (1) genomic codon 64 usage, (2) expression levels of reporter genes in transient and stable transfection 65 experiments and (3) global expression patterns in human transcriptome studies. 66 We show that splicing increases the expression of AT-rich genes, but not GC-rich 67 genes, in part through effects on cytoplasmic RNA enrichment.

68

- 69 **Results**
- 70

71 Codon usage of human protein-coding genes depends on RNA splicing

72 We first analysed the relationship between the nucleotide composition of human 73 genes and splicing. GC4 content (GC content at 4-fold degenerate sites) correlates negatively with the number of exons in humans (Figure 1A; Spearman's ρ = 74 75 -0.27; p < 2.2×10^{-16} ; see also (Carels and Bernardi, 2000; Ressayre et al., 2015; 76 Savisaar and Hurst, 2016)). In addition, GC4 content is highest in 5'-proximal exons (Figure 1B; Spearman's $\rho = -0.18$; p < 2.2×10⁻¹⁶), and first exons have a 77 higher GC4 content than second exons ($p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, one-tailed Wilcoxon test). 78 79 Although these patterns could result from proximity to CpG-rich transcription 80 start sites (TSSs)(Zhang et al., 2004), we found that first exons have significantly 81 higher GC4 content than second exons even when controlling for the distance 82 from the TSS (Figure 1C). This suggests that splicing contributes to the observed 83 enrichment of G and C nucleotides in the 5'-proximal exons in human.

84

To understand the causal links between splicing and nucleotide composition, we
studied the compositional patterns of retrogenes. Retrotransposition provides a

87 natural evolutionary experiment of what happens when a previously spliced 88 gene suddenly loses its introns. We first analysed a set of 49 parent-retrogene 89 pairs for which both the parent and the retrocopy ORFs have been retained in 90 human and mouse. Strikingly, we found that the retrocopies had a significantly 91 higher GC4 content than their parents (median $GC4_{retrocopy}$ - $GC4_{parent}$ = 11.5%; p 92 = 2.1×10^{-4} from one-tailed Wilcoxon test; Figure 1D). It thus appears that after 93 retrotransposition, newly integrated intronless genes come under selective 94 pressure for increased GC content. In a comparison of 31 parent-retrogene pairs 95 retained between human and macaque, the median GC4 difference is not 96 significant (0.09%; p = 0.13, Wilcoxon test), but this may be explained by 97 duplication events in macaques being more recent (dS \sim 0.06) than in mouse (dS 98 \sim 0.5) and therefore less evolutionary time has passed to allow changes in GC 99 composition to have occurred. As a control, we analysed the GC4 content of 100 retrocopies classed as pseudogenes (Figure S1A) and found it to be significantly 101 lower compared to their parental genes (-2.963%; $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, Wilcoxon test). 102 Furthermore, the genomic neighbourhood of functional retrocopies and 103 pseudogenes had significantly lower GC content than the neighbourhood of their 104 respective parental genes (Figure S1B). These observations suggest that 105 increased GC content is not intrinsically connected with retrotransposition, but 106 is required for maintaining long-term functionality of retrogenes. Taken 107 together, these results support a splicing-dependent mechanism shaping 108 conserved patterns of nucleotide composition across functional protein-coding 109 genes.

110

111 **GC-content is a strong predictor of expression of unspliced reporter genes**

112 The above analyses show a connection between splicing and genomic GC content 113 of endogenous human genes. To test whether splicing differentially affects the 114 expression of genes depending on their GC content, we designed 22 synonymous 115 variants of GFP that span a broad range of GC3 content (GC content at the third 116 positions of codons) (Mittal et al., 2018) (Figure S2). The collection encompasses 117 most of the variation in GC3 content found among human genes. All variants 118 were independently designed by randomly drawing each codon from an 119 appropriate probability distribution, to ensure uniform GC content and statistical

120 independence between sequences. We cloned these variants into two mammalian expression vectors: an intronless vector with a CMV promoter 121 122 (pCM3) and a version of the same vector with a synthetic intron located in the 5' 123 UTR (pCM4). The GC content profiles of the 5' UTRs were similar in both vectors 124 (Figure S2E,F). The vectors also encoded a far-red fluorescent protein, mKate2, 125 which we used to normalize GFP protein abundance (normalization reduced 126 measurement noise, but similar results were obtained with and without 127 normalization). Transient transfections of HeLa cells with three independent 128 preparations of each plasmid showed reproducible expression with a large 129 dynamic range: synonymous variants differed in GFP protein production 46-fold. Consistent with previous studies, GFP fluorescence was strongly correlated with 130 131 GC3 content, both in spliced and unspliced genes (Figure 2A,B). Interestingly, introduction of an intron into the 5' UTR increased the expression of most. but 132 133 not all variants. Typically, GC-poor variants experienced a large increase of 134 expression in the presence of an intron, whereas GC-rich variants were 135 unaffected or experienced a moderate increase (Figure 2C).

136

137 We obtained similar results in stably transfected HeLa and HEK293 cells (Figure 138 S3) and when expressing an independently designed collection of 25 139 synonymous variants of mKate2 in HeLa cells (Figure 2D-F, S2D). A Fisher's 140 exact test revealed that the percentage of variants whose expression was 141 increased by splicing significantly depended on GC3 content (p=0.02, N=47, GFP 142 and mKate variants combined). These experiments show that many AT-rich 143 genetic variants are expressed inefficiently in human cells, but low expression 144 can be partially rescued by splicing. Notably, the average GC content of the 145 human genome is 41% (Li, 2011). In our experiments, genes with GC content 146 below 41% are expressed extremely inefficiently, unless they contain an intron 147 (Figure 2). This may provide a strong selective pressure for the retention of 148 introns in many human genes.

149

To establish which stages of expression are responsible for this phenomenon, we first measured mRNA abundance of GFP variants in transiently transfected HeLa cells by quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR). High GC content may introduce

153 unwanted bias in RT-PCR, so to allow fair comparison of all variants irrespective 154 of their GC content, qRT-PCR primers were placed in the untranslated regions, 155 whose sequence did not vary. Similar to protein levels, mRNA abundance varied 156 widely between synonymous variants of GFP. GC-poor variants experienced a 157 large increase of expression in the presence of an intron, whereas GC-rich 158 variants were less affected (Figure 2G-I). The range of variation in mRNA 159 abundance was much smaller in constructs with an intron than without intron 160 (Figure 21), indicating that splicing buffers the effects of GC content on 161 expression.

162

163 We then asked if changes in mRNA abundance arose at transcriptional or post-164 transcriptional levels. As a proxy for transcriptional efficiency, we measured the abundance of intronic RNA for GFP variants expressed from the intron-165 166 containing plasmid. GC content did not correlate with intronic RNA abundance 167 (Figure 2J), suggesting that the rate of transcription does not depend on GC content of the coding sequence found downstream of the intron. Conversely, high 168 169 GC content was associated with stabilization in unspliced constructs (Figure 2K). 170 Taken together, these experiments show that splicing preferentially increases 171 the expression of GC-poor synonymous variants at a post-transcriptional level.

172

173 High GC content at the 5' end correlates with efficient expression

174 To further explore the sequence determinants of expression, we assembled a 175 pool of 217 synonymous variants of GFP that included the 22 variants studied 176 above, 137 variants from our earlier study (Kudla et al., 2009), and 58 additional 177 variants. We cloned the collection into plasmids with and without a 5' UTR 178 intron. We then established pools of HeLa Flp-In T-REx cells that stably express 179 these constructs from a single genomic locus under a doxycycline-inducible 180 promoter and measured the protein levels of all variants by Flow-Seq (Kosuri et 181 al., 2013). We also performed Flow-Seq in HEK293 cells using the intronless 182 constructs only. In Flow-Seq, a pool of cells is sorted by FACS into bins of 183 increasing fluorescence and the distribution of variants in each bin is probed by 184 amplicon sequencing to quantify protein abundance (Figure 3A). All variants 185 could be quantified with good technical and biological reproducibility and high

correlation was found between Flow-Seq and spectrofluorometric measurement
of individual constructs (Figure S4). Most variants showed the expected
unimodal distribution across fluorescence bins, but some variants showed
bimodal distributions, possibly indicative of gene silencing in a fraction of cells.

190

191 All Flow-Seq experiments showed substantial variation of expression between 192 synonymous variants of GFP (Figure 3B). GFP protein levels in HeLa cells (with 193 intron), HeLa cells (without intron), and HEK293 cells (without intron) were all 194 correlated with each other, but the moderate degree of correlation (r=0.51 195 HEK293 (without intron) vs HeLa (without intron); r=0.36 Hela (with intron) vs 196 HeLa (without intron)) suggests that the effects of codon usage on expression are 197 modulated by splicing and by cell line identity - in agreement with prior observations of tissue-specific codon usage (Burow et al., 2018; Gingold et al., 198 199 2014; Plotkin et al., 2004; Rudolph et al., 2016). Flow-Seq of unspliced variants in 200 HeLa and HEK cells confirms the positive correlation of synonymous site GC-201 content with expression (Figure 3C). In contrast to the results reported by us and 202 others in bacteria and yeast (Goodman et al., 2013; Kudla et al., 2009; Shah et al., 203 2013), but consistently with the positive correlation between GC content and 204 expression, strong mRNA folding near the beginning of the coding sequence 205 correlated with increased expression (Spearman's $\rho = 0.27$ in HeLa cells; $\rho = 0.4$ 206 in HEK293 cells). Expression was positively correlated with CpG content and 207 codon adaptation index (CAI), and negatively correlated with the estimated 208 density of ARE elements or cryptic splice sites. Because of the strong correlation 209 between GC content, CpG content, CAI and mRNA folding energy, a multiple 210 regression analysis could not resolve which of these properties was causally 211 related to expression. Interestingly, for intron-containing variants, there was no 212 correlation, or a weak negative correlation, between expression and GC content, 213 CpG content, CAI, and mRNA folding energy (Figure 3C).

214

Some of the variants analysed by Flow-Seq featured large regional variation in GC content (Figure S5A) and we asked whether the localization of low-GC and high-GC regions within the coding sequence influences expression. We found that the GC3 content in the first half of the coding sequence (nt 1-360), but not in

the second half (nt 361-720), was positively correlated with expression of intronless GFP variants in the HeLa and HEK293 cells (Figure 3D). The GC3 content in the first half of the gene showed no correlation with expression in the intron-containing constructs.

223

224 To further test whether the GC content at the 5' end of genes has a particularly 225 important effect on expression, we constructed in-frame fusions between GC-226 rich and GC-poor variants of GFP and mKate2 genes and quantified their protein 227 and mRNA abundance in transient transfection experiments. Expression levels 228 showed a striking dependence on the GC content profile. mKate2 GCpoor 229 showed undetectable expression on its own or as a 5'-terminal fusion with GC-230 rich GFP, but it was efficiently expressed as a 3'-terminal fusion with GC-rich GFP 231 (Figure 3E). By contrast, mKate2_GCrich was efficiently expressed both as 5'-232 terminal and 3'-terminal fusion. Analogous experiments with GC-rich and GC-233 poor variants of GFP fused to mKate2_GCrich led to similar conclusions (Figure 234 S5B). The differences in protein levels between the fusion constructs could be 235 explained by differences in mRNA abundance (Figure 3E).

236

High GC content leads to cytoplasmic enrichment of mRNA and higherribosome association

239 Using the pooled HeLa cells used in Flow-Seq, we then analysed the effects of GC 240 content on mRNA localization. We separated the pools into nuclear and 241 cytoplasmic fractions, isolated RNA and performed amplicon sequencing of each 242 fraction to analyse mRNA localization of each GFP variant. Analysis of fractions 243 showed the expected enrichment of the lncRNA MALAT1 in the nucleus, and of 244 tRNA in the cytoplasm, confirming the quality of fractionations (Figure 4A). For 245 each GFP variant, we calculated the relative cytoplasmic concentration of its 246 mRNA (RCC) as the ratio of cytoplasmic read counts to the sum of reads from 247 both fractions (RCC = c_cyto / (c_cyto+c_nuc); Figure 4B). A value of 0 therefore 248 indicates 100% nuclear retention, whereas a value of 1 indicates 100% 249 cytoplasmic localisation. In the absence of splicing, RCC scores ranged from 0.09 250 to 0.64 and RCC correlated significantly with GC content (r=0.51, $p=3.85\times10^{-13}$, Figure 4C). In the presence of a 5' UTR intron, we observed a significant increase 251

in RCC score for GFP variants with low GC content, but no increase in RCC for GCrich variants (Figure 4D). GC3 content at the beginning of the coding sequence was significantly correlated with RCC in the absence of splicing (r=0.5, $p=2.0\times10^{-11}$), but not in the presence of splicing (R<0.01, p=0.48; Figure S5). Thus, high GC content at the 5' end of genes increases gene expression in part through facilitating the cytoplasmic localization of mRNA.

258

259 To assess whether GC content also affects translational dynamics, we performed 260 polysome profiling on HEK293 GFP pool cells using sucrose gradient 261 fractionation (Figure 5A). qRT-PCR analyses of RNA extracted from all collected 262 fractions showed a broad distribution of GFP across fractions, with enrichment 263 within polysome-associated fractions. In order to determine distribution 264 patterns of individual GFP variants, RNA from several fractions was pooled (as 265 indicated in Figure 5B) and subjected to high-throughput sequencing. The 266 resulting read distribution indicates that GC-rich variants are associated with 267 denser polysomal fractions (ribosome density, Figure 5C, left panel; R²=0.55, p < 268 2.2×10^{-16}) and are more likely to be translated (ribosome association, Figure 5C, right panel; $R^2=0.28$, p<9.03×10⁻¹⁵), compared to GC-poor variants. This suggests 269 270 that enhanced translational dynamics also contribute to more efficient 271 expression of GC-rich genes.

272

The expression fate of endogenous RNA depends on splicing, nucleotidecomposition, and cell type

275 To test whether splicing- and position-dependent effects of codon usage can also 276 be observed among human genes, we turned to genome-wide measurements of 277 expression at endogenous human loci and related these measurements to codon 278 usage and splicing. Although the correlations between GC content and expression 279 depended on the experimental measure and type of cells under study, we find 280 that GC4 content usually has a more positive effect on gene expression in 281 unspliced genes relative to spliced ones (Figure 6, Table S1). In particular, 282 unspliced mRNAs show a more positive/less negative correlation of GC4 with 283 transcription initiation (GRO-cap data); cytoplasmic stability (exosome mutant); 284 RNA (whole cell RNA-seq); cytoplasmic enrichment (cell fractionation),

translation rate (ribosome profiling vs whole cell RNA-seq); and protein amount (mass-spec). These analyses suggest that GC4 content has an effect on the RNA abundance of intronless mRNA molecules, which is carried through to the protein expression. Taken together, these genome-wide analyses support our observation of a splicing-dependent relationship between codon usage and expression in human cells.

291

292 Discussion

293

294 We have shown that the effects of GC content on gene expression in human cells 295 are splicing-dependent (the effect is larger in unspliced genes compared to 296 spliced genes) and position-dependent (the effect is larger at the 5' end of genes 297 than at the 3' end). In addition, human genes show striking patterns of codon 298 usage, which differ between spliced and unspliced genes and between first and 299 subsequent exons. Our results have implications for the understanding of the 300 evolution of human genes and the functional consequences of synonymous 301 codon usage.

302

303 Mechanisms of splicing- and position-dependent effects of codon usage

304 Specific patterns of codon usage have previously been found at the 5' ends of 305 genes in bacteria, yeast and other species (Gu et al., 2010; Kudla et al., 2009; 306 Tuller et al., 2010). In bacteria and yeast, strong mRNA folding near the start 307 codon prevents ribosome binding and reduces translation efficiency, resulting in 308 selection against strongly folded 5' mRNA regions (Kudla et al., 2009; Shah et al., 309 2013). In addition a "ramp" of rare codons has been observed near the 5' end of 310 RNAs in multiple species, with a possible role in preventing a wasteful 311 accumulation of ribosomes on mRNAs (Tuller et al., 2010) or reducing the 312 strength of mRNA folding (Bentele et al., 2013). These phenomena cannot 313 explain our results in human, because both the folding energy and codon ramp 314 models predict low GC content near the start codon, whereas we observe high GC 315 content within first exons of human protein-coding genes (Figure 1B). 316 Furthermore, our experiments show that high GC content near the start codon

317 increases expression, whereas the folding energy and codon ramp models would

318 predict low expression.

319

320 We propose instead that splicing- and position-dependent effects of GC content 321 are explained by co-transcriptional or early post-transcriptional events in the 322 lifetime of an mRNA. Using matched reporter gene libraries, we show that most, 323 but not all, variants show an increase in expression when spliced. Splicing 324 typically increases the expression of AT-rich variants, but it does not further 325 increase the expression of GC-rich transcripts, which suggests that splicing and 326 high GC content influence expression through at least one common mechanism. 327 Splicing increases transcription (Kwek et al., 2002), prevents nuclear 328 degradation (Nott et al., 2003), facilitates nuclear-cytoplasmic mRNA export 329 through the Aly/REF-TREX pathway (Muller-McNicoll et al., 2016), and 330 stimulates translation (Nott et al., 2004). High GC content might increase RNA 331 polymerase processivity (Bauer et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2016); GC-rich variants 332 are less likely to contain cryptic polyadenylation sites (consensus sequence: 333 AAUAAA) or destabilizing AU-Rich Elements (AREs) (Higgs et al., 1983); and high 334 GC content near the 5' end may also facilitate cytoplasmic localisation of mRNA. 335 GC-rich sequence elements of endogenous unspliced genes were previously 336 shown to route transcripts into the splicing-independent ALREX nuclear export 337 pathway, allowing efficient cytoplasmic accumulation (Palazzo et al., 2007). In 338 agreement with this, low expression caused by inhibitory sequence features 339 (such as low GC-content) can be rescued by extending the mRNA at the 5'end 340 with a GC-rich sequence (Figure 3D,E, Figure S5). This may act as a 341 compensatory mechanism when gene expression cannot rely on the positive 342 regulatory effects of splicing (Palazzo and Akef, 2012). In contrast, it was 343 recently shown that binding of HNRNPK to the GC-rich SIRLOIN motif leads to 344 nuclear enrichment of lncRNAs (and also some mRNAs) (Lubelsky and Ulitsky, 345 2018). Our genomic analyses of lncRNA sequences do not show the same 346 splicing-dependent compositional patterns as observed in mRNAs and it is 347 therefore likely that antagonistic pathways act simultaneously in shaping the 348 RNA expression landscape. Thus, we propose that the genomic patterns and their

349 consequences on gene expression reported here are general features of protein-

350 coding genes.

351

352 Recent studies also highlight patterns of codon usage as major determinants of 353 RNA stability in yeast (Presnyak et al., 2015), zebrafish (Mishima and Tomari, 354 2016) and other species (Bazzini et al., 2016). The usage of less common, 'non-355 optimal' codons within transcripts was shown to control poly-A tail length and 356 RNA half-life in a translation-dependent manner through the coupled activity of 357 different CCR4-NOT nucleases (Radhakrishnan et al., 2016; Webster et al., 2018). 358 Consistent with these findings, we observed that CAI is positively correlated with 359 mRNA expression levels in human cells. However, it remains to be seen whether 360 the correlation of CAI with mRNA expression depends on translation. Because of 361 the strong correlation between GC content and CAI, it is difficult to disentangle 362 independent contributions of these variables. Additionally, we find that the 363 correlation between GC content (or CAI) and expression is position- and splicing-364 dependent, whereas no evidence for such context-dependence has been reported 365 for the CCR4-NOT-mediated mechanism.

366

367 Other instances in which the effects of codon usage are context-dependent have 368 been described. Most notably, tRNA populations and transcriptome codon usage 369 patterns were shown to differ between mammalian tissues (Dittmar et al., 2006; 370 Gingold et al., 2014; Plotkin et al., 2004; Rudolph et al., 2016). Intriguingly, genes 371 preferentially expressed in proliferating cells and tissue-specific genes tend to be 372 AT-rich, whereas genes expressed in differentiated cell types and housekeeping 373 genes are more GC-rich (Gingold et al., 2014; Vinogradov, 2003). Although these 374 differences have been interpreted in terms of the match between codon usage and cellular tRNA pools, it is plausible that translation-independent mechanisms 375 376 contribute to context-dependent effects of codon usage. Accordingly, in 377 Drosophila, codon optimality determines mRNA stability in whole cell embryos, 378 but not in the nervous system, independent of tRNA abundance (Burow et al., 379 2018). Recently, it was shown that Zinc-finger Antiviral Protein (ZAP) selectively 380 recognises high CpG-containing viral transcripts as a mechanism to distinguish 381 self from non-self (Takata et al., 2017). We speculate that similar regulatory 382 proteins and mechanisms exist for cellular expressed genes. The cell lines used in 383 the present study, HeLa and HEK293, are both rapidly proliferating and 384 experimental results are correlated (r=0.36, Flow-Seq data), but divergent 385 expression of some GFP variants was also observed. Similarly, the effect size of 386 GC content on the expression of endogenously expressed genes varies with cell 387 type. It would be interesting to compare the expression of our variants in other 388 cell types to further address the question of tissue-specific codon usage and 389 adaptation to tRNA pools.

390

391 Implications for the evolution of protein-coding genes

392 The fact that long, multi-exon genes are often found in GC-poor regions of the 393 genome might result from regional mutation bias. However, an alternative 394 explanation is possible: GC-poor genes may be under selective pressure to retain 395 their introns, and intronless genes may experience selective pressure to increase 396 their GC content. These possibilities are supported by multiple observations: 397 Firstly, endogenous intronless genes are on average more GC-rich than intron-398 containing genes. Secondly, the GC content of functional (but not non-functional) 399 retrogenes is higher compared to their respective intron-containing parental 400 genes, which cannot be explained by a systematic integration bias. Thirdly, in 401 genome-wide analysis, correlations between GC-content and expression are 402 generally more positive (or less negative) for unspliced compared to spliced 403 genes. Taken together, this suggests that for the long-term success of an 404 unspliced gene (i.e. stable conservation of expression and functionality) an 405 increase in GC content is essential. By contrast, splicing allows genes to remain 406 functional even when mutation bias or other mechanisms lead to a decrease of 407 their GC content.

409 Materials and Methods

410

411 **Genes and plasmids**

412 The library of 217 synonymous GFP variants used here consists of 138 variants 413 from an earlier study (Kudla et al., 2009), 59 new variants assembled using the 414 same PCR-based method as in (Kudla et al., 2009), and 22 variants that were 415 designed in silico and ordered as synthetic gene fragments (gBlocks) from 416 Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT) (Mittal et al., 2018). Each of the 22 variants 417 was designed by setting a target GC3 content (between 25 and 95%) and 418 randomly replacing each codon with one of its synonymous codons, such that the 419 expected GC3 content at each codon position corresponded to the target GC3 420 content. For example, to design a GFP variant with GC3 content of 25%, each glycine codon was replaced with one of the four synonymous glycine codons 421 422 with the following probabilities: GGA, 37.5%; GGC, 12.5%, GGG, 12.5%; GGT, 423 37.5%. We also generated 23 mKate2 sequences using an analogous procedure 424 and ordered the variants as gBlocks from IDT. All the genes were cloned into the 425 Gateway Entry vector pGK3 (Kudla et al., 2009).

426

427 **Construction of transient expression vectors**

428 Plasmids used in transient transfection experiments are based on pCI-neo 429 (Promega), a CMV-driven mammalian expression vector that contains a chimeric 430 intron upstream of the multiple cloning site (MCS) within the 5'UTR. This intron 431 consists of the 5' splice donor site from the first intron of the human beta-globin 432 gene and the branch and 3' splice acceptor site from the intron of 433 immunoglobulin gene heavy chain variable region (see pCI-neo vector technical 434 bulletin, Promega). This vector was adapted to be compatible with Gateway 435 recombination cloning by inserting the Gateway-destination cassette, RfA, using 436 the unique EcoRV and Smal restriction sites present within the MCS of pCI-neo, 437 generating pCM2. This plasmid was then further modified by removing the 438 intron contained within the 5'UTR by site-directed deletion mutagenesis using 439 Phusion-Taq (ThermoScientific) and primers 'pCI_del_F' and 'pCI_del_R' (see 440 Supplementary Table 2 for list of all primers used), generating plasmid pCM1.

441 To be able to normalise spectrophotometric measurements from single GFP transfection experiments, pCM1 and pCM2 were further modified to contain a 442 443 separate expression cassette driving the expression of a second fluorescent 444 reporter gene, mKate2. The mKate2 gene cassette from pmKate2-N (Evrogen) 445 was inserted via Gibson assembly cloning: First, the entire mKate2 expression 446 cassette was amplified using primers 'mKate2 gibs F' and 'mKate2 gibs R' which 447 add overhangs homologous to the pCM insertion site. Next, pCM1 and pCM2 were linearised by PCR using primers 'pCI gib F' and 'pCI gib R'. All PCR 448 449 products were purified using the Qiagen PCR purification kit and fragments with 450 homologous sites recombined using the Gibson assembly cloning kit (NEB) according to manufacturer's instructions (NEB). Successful integration was 451 452 validated by Sanger sequencing. This generated plasmids pCM3 (-intron, 453 +mKate2) and pCM4 (+intron, +mKate2).

454

455 **Transient plasmid transfections for spectrofluorometric measurements**

456 Plasmids for transient expression of fluorescent genes were transfected into 457 HeLa cells grown in 96-well plates. Per plasmid construct, 3 technical replicates 458 were tested by reverse transfection. Enough transfection mix for 4 wells was 459 prepared by diluting 280ng plasmid DNA in 40ul OptiMem (Gibco). 1ul 460 Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen; 0.25ul per well) was diluted in 40ul OptiMem 461 and incubated for 5min at room temperature. Both plasmid and 462 Lipofectamine2000 dilutions were then mixed (80ul total volume) and further 463 incubated for 20-30min. 20ul of transfection complex was then pipetted into 3 464 wells before adding 200ul of HeLa cell suspension (45,000 cells/ml; 9,000 465 cells/well) in phenol red-free DMEM (Biochrom, F0475). Media was exchanged 466 3-4h post-transfection to reduce toxicity. Cells were then grown for a further 24h 467 or 48h at 37C, 5% CO2.

After incubation, cells were lysed by removing media and adding 200ul of cell
lysis buffer (25mM Tris, pH 7.4, 150mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 1mM EDTA, pH
8). Fluorescence readings were obtained using a Tecan Infinite M200pro
multimode plate reader. The plate was first incubated under gentle shaking for
15min followed by fluorescence measurements using the following settings:

473 Ex486nm/Em 515nm for GFP and Ex588nm/Em633nm for mKate2; reading
474 mode: bottom; number of reads: 10 per well; gain: optimal.

For data analysis, measurements of untransfected cells were subtracted as background from all other wells. For comparability of different plates within a set of experiments, the same 3 genes were transfected on every plate to account for technical variability. In the screen of individual GFP variants (see Figure 2), GFP measurements were divided by mKate2 measurements from same wells to reduce noise caused by well-to-well variation in transfection efficiency, but similar results were obtained without normalisation.

482

483 **Transient transfections and RNA extraction for qRT-PCR analysis**

484 HeLa cells were reverse transfected in 12-well plates using 800ng plasmid DNA 485 and 2ul Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen). DNA and Lipofectamine 2000 were 486 diluted in 100ul OptiMEM (Gibco) each, incubated for 5min, mixed and further 487 incubated for 20min. The transfection complex was then added to each well 488 before adding 10⁵ HeLa cells. Cells were incubated for 24h at 37C, 5% CO2 before 489 harvesting. Cells were then harvested by adding 1ml Trizol reagent (Life 490 technologies). RNA was extracted according to manufacturer's instructions. 491 Resulting RNA was further treated with DNAse I using the Turbo DNase kit 492 (Ambion) to remove any residual plasmid and genomic DNA.

493

494 **qRT-PCR analysis**

495 cDNA for gRT-PCR analysis was prepared using SuperScript III Reverse 496 Transcriptase (Life technologies) according to the manufacturer's 497 recommendations with 500ng total RNA as template and 500ng random 498 hexamers (Promega). All qRT-PCRs were carried out on a Roche LightCycler 480 499 using Roche LightCycler480 SYBR Green I Master Mix and 0.3uM gene-specific 500 primers. Samples were analysed in triplicate as 20ul reactions, using 2ul of 501 diluted cDNA. Cycling settings: DNA was first denatured for 5min at 95°C before 502 entering a cycle (50-60x) of denaturing for 10sec at 95°C, annealing for 7sec at 503 55-60°C (depending on primers used), extension for 10sec at 72°C and data 504 acquisition. DNA was then gradually heated up by 2.20 °C/s from 65 to 95°C for 505 5sec each and data continuously collected (Melting curve analysis). Data was

506 evaluated using the comparative Ct method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). RNA

507 measurements from transient transfection experiments were normalised to the

508 abundance of neomycin RNA, which is expressed from the same plasmid, to

- 509 control for differences in transfection efficiency (primers 'Neo_F' and 'Neo_R').
- 510

511 Subcellular fractionation

512 This protocol is based on the cellular fractionation protocol published by 513 (Gagnon et al., 2014) but includes a further clean-up step using a sucrose cushion 514 as described by (Zaghlool et al., 2013) and a second lysis step as described by 515 (Wang et al., 2006). Cell lysis and nuclear integrity was monitored throughout by 516 light microscopy following Trypan blue staining (Sigma). Cells were grown in 517 10cm plates for 24h to about 90% confluency. Cells were then washed with PBS 518 and trypsinised briefly using 1ml of 1xTrypsin/EDTA. After stopping the reaction 519 with 5ml DMEM, cells were transferred into 15ml falcon tubes and collected by 520 spinning at 100g for 5min. Resulting cell pellets were resuspended in 500ul ice-521 cold PBS, transferred into 1.5ml reaction tubes and spun at 500g for 5min, 4°C. 522 The supernatant was discarded and cells resuspended in 250ul HLB (10mM Tris 523 (pH 7.5), 10mM NaCl, 3mM MgCl2, 0.5% (v/v) NP40, 10% (v/v) Glycerol, 0.32M 524 sucrose) containing 10% RNase inhibitors (RNasin Plus, Life Tech) by gently 525 vortexing. Samples were then incubated on ice for 10min. After incubation, 526 samples were vortexed gently, spun at 1000g for 3min, 4°C, and supernatants 527 and pellets were processed separately as indicated in a) and b) below.

528 a) Cytoplasmic extract:

The supernatant was carefully layered over 250ul of a 1.6M sucrose cushion and
spun at 21,000g for 5min. The supernatant was then transferred into a fresh
1.5ml tube and 1ml Trizol was added and mixed by vortexing.

b) Nuclear extract:

The pellets were washed 3 times with HLB containing RNase inhibitors by gently pipetting up and down 10 times followed by a spin at 300g for 2min. After the 3rd wash, nuclei were resuspended in 250ul HLB and 25ul (10%) of detergent mix (3.3% (wt/wt) sodium deoxycholate/6.6% (vol/vol) Tween 40) dropwise added while vortexing slowly (600rpm). Nuclei were then incubated for 5min on ice before spinning at 500g for 2min. The supernatant was discarded and pellets

resuspended in 1ml Trizol (Ambion) by vortexing. 10ul 0.5M EDTA are added to each nuclear sample in Trizol and tubes heated to 65°C for 10min to disrupt very strong Protein-RNA and DNA-RNA interactions. Tubes were then left to reach room temperature and RNA was extracted following the manufacturer's instructions.

544

545 **Transcription inhibition assay**

546 HeLa T-Rex Flp-in cell lines were grown to 80-90% confluency in 6 well for 24h 547 before treatment with 500nM Triptolide (Sigma). Cells were harvested at 548 indicated time points and RNA extracted using Trizol reagent (Ambion). Control 549 cells were treated with the equal volume of DMSO (drug carrier). To assess 550 transcript levels, qRT-PCR was performed as described above. GFP levels were 551 normalised to levels of 7SK, a RNA polymerase III-transcribed non-coding RNA, 552 whose expression levels are not affected by Triptolide treatment. Relative 553 transcript levels of c-Myc are shown as an example of a relatively unstable 554 transcript.

555

556 **Generation of stable Flp-in cell lines**

We adopted a multiplex-Gateway integration method to create a pool of 217 GFP plasmids which are compatible with the T-Rex Flp-in system (Invitrogen) for creating stable, doxycycline-inducible cell lines, in which each variant is expressed from the same genomic locus, allowing direct comparison of expression levels.

562 pcDNA5/FRT/TO/DEST (Aleksandra Helwak, University of Edinburgh) contains 563 the Gateway-compatible attB destination cassette to allow the subcloning of 564 genes from any Gateway-entry vectors. This plasmid was further modified to 565 contain the same 5'UTR intron sequence as in pCM4 used in transient expression 566 experiments using Gibson Assembly (NEB): the intronic sequence was amplified 567 from pCM4 by PCR using primers 'Gib_intr_F' and 'Gib_intr_R' using Q5 High-568 Fidelity Polymerase (NEB). The primers added 15nt overhangs which are 569 homologous to the ends of pcDNA5/FRT/TO/DEST when linearised with AfIII. 570 The Gibson assembly reaction was performed as per manufacturer's instructions 571 (NEB), generating pcDNA5/FRT/TO/DEST/INT.

572 217 individual GFP variants stored in Gateway-entry vector pGK3 were mixed 573 with a concentration of 0.06ng of each GFP variant. For each pcDNA5 destination 574 vector, a separate Gateway LR reaction was set-up in a total volume of 45ul using 575 500ng destination vector, 5ul LR Clonase enzyme mix, 38ul of the mixed 217 576 pGK3-GFP plasmids and TE (pH 8). The reactions were incubated at 25C 577 overnight followed by Proteinase K digest (5ul, LR Clonase kit) for 10min at 37C. 578 The total 50ul reaction mix was transformed into 2.5ml highly competent 579 DH5alpha in a 15ml Falcon tube by heat-shocking cells for 2min 30s at 42C, 580 followed by cooling on ice for 3min, before adding 10ml SOC medium and incubating while shaking for 1h at 37C. After incubation, cells were spun down at 581 582 3000g for 3min and resulting bacterial pellets resuspended in 1ml fresh SOC. 583 10x100ul were plated onto L-Ampicillin agar plates and incubated overnight at 584 37C resulting in >800 colonies per plate. Bacterial colonies were scraped off the 585 plates and collected in a falcon tube. Plasmid DNA was extracted using a Qiagen 586 Midiprep kit according to the manufacturer's instructions, resulting in two 587 plasmid pools: pCDNA5/GFPpool and pcDNA5/INT/GFPpool. Both pools were 588 subjected to high-throughput sequencing to confirm the presence of different 589 GFP variants.

590 HeLa T-Rex Flp-in cells (gifted by the Andrew Jackson lab, The University of 591 Edinburgh) and Hek293 T-Rex Flp-in (Thermo Scientific) were grown to 80% 592 confluency in 6 well plates. For GFP plasmid pool transfections, 593 pCDNA5/GFPpool or pCDNA5/INT/GFPpool were mixed in a 9:1 ratio with the 594 Flp-recombinase expression plasmid pOG44 (Invitrogen) to give 2ug in total 595 (1.8ug pOG44 + 0.2ug pCDNA5) and diluted in OptiMEM (Gibco) to 100ul. 596 Transfections were performed with 9ul Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen) and 597 91ul OptiMEM per well by incubating 5min at room temperature before mixing 598 with plasmid DNA and a further 15min incubation. The transfection mix was 599 then added dropwise to the cells. Media were replaced with conditioned media 600 4h post-transfection. Cells were incubated for further 48h before chemical 601 selection to select for successful gene integration using 10ng/ul Blasticidin S 602 (ThermoFisher) and 400mg/ml (HeLa T-Rex Flp-in) or 100mg/ml (Hek293 T-603 Rex Flp-in) Hygromycin B (Life Technologies). Successful selection was 604 determined by monitoring cell death in untransfected cells. Chemically resistant

605 cells represent pools of cell lines expressing different GFP variants from the

same genomic locus. High-throughput sequencing of the GFP integration site

- within each generated cell line pool confirmed the successful integration of allvariants.
- 609 HeLa T-Rex Flp-in and Hek293 T-Rex Flp-in cell lines expressing two individual
- 610 GFP variants (GC3=96% and GC3=36%; see Supplementary Figure 3) as spliced
- and unspliced transcripts were generated using the same protocol.
- 612

613 Flow-Seq: FACS sorting and genomic DNA extraction

614 80x15cm cell culture plates of HeLa T-Rex Flp-in GFP pool cells and 40x15cm cell culture plates of Hek293 T-Rex Flp-in GFP pool cells were induced with 1ug/ml 615 616 Doxycyline (Sigma, D9891) in phenol red-free DMEM (Biochrom, F0475) 617 supplemented with 10% FCS (Sigma, F-7524) and 2mM L-Glutamine. After 24h 618 or 48h, cells were harvested by gentle trypsinisation and cells were sorted into 8 619 fluorescence bins using a BD FACS Aria II cell sorter. To define the range of GFP 620 positive signal, cells without stable GFP expression were used as negative 621 control. 80% of HeLa and 90% Hek293 GFP pool cells fell into the GFP-positive 622 range. Each fluorescence bin was chosen to comprise roughly 10% of the GFP-623 positive population. The bin spacing was kept the same for the sorting of HeLa 624 cell pools expressing unspliced and spliced GFP variants to allow direct 625 comparisons of the fluorescence profiles of individual variants.

626 About 10⁷ cells per bin were collected in Polypropylene collection tubes (Falcon) 627 coated with 1% BSA/PBS, cushioned with 200ul 20%FBS/PBS. Cell suspensions 628 were decanted into 15ml tubes and cells collected by spinning 5min at 500g. The 629 supernatant was transferred into fresh 15ml tubes and precipitated using 2 630 volumes of 100% EtOH/0.1 volume Sodium Acetate (pH 5.3) and 10ul Glycoblue 631 (Ambion). Tubes were shaken vigorously for 10s before incubating at -20C for 632 15min, followed by spinning at 3000g for 20min. Resulting pellets were air-633 dried, resuspended in 1ml digest buffer (100mM Tris pH 8.5, 5mM EDTA, 0.2% 634 SDS, 200mM NaCl) and then combined with the respective cell pellet. 10ul RNAse 635 A (Qiagen, 70U) was added and samples gently rotated at 37C. After 1h, 1ul/ml 636 Proteinase K (20mg/ml, Roche) was added to the samples before rotating a 637 further 2h at 55C. Genomic DNA was purified 3 times by using 1 volume

638 Phenol:Chloroform:Isoamyl alcohol (PCI, 25:24:1, Sigma). After each addition of 639 PCI, samples were shaken vigorously for 10s before spinning at 3000g for 20min 640 (first extraction) or 5min (all following). The resulting bottom layers including 641 the interphase were removed before each PCI addition. After the last PCI 642 extraction, the upper layer was transferred into a fresh 15ml tube and 1 643 extraction performed using 1 volume chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (CI,24:1, 644 Sigma). After a 5min spin at 3000g, the upper layer was transferred into a fresh 645 15ml tube and DNA precipitated using EtOH/Sodium Acetate as before. After a 646 5min incubation on ice, DNA was collected by spinning for 30min at 3000g. The 647 resulting DNA pellets were washed 2 times with 75% EtOH before air-drying and resuspending in 200ul Tris-EDTA (10mM). The quality of the extracted genomic 648 649 DNA was assessed on a 0.8% Agarose/TBE gel.

650

651 **Polysome profiling**

Hek293 Flp-in GFP pool cell lines were grown to 90% confluency on 15cm 652 653 dishes. Cells were treated for 20min with 100ug/ul Cycloheximide before 654 harvesting cells by removing media, washing with 2x ice-cold PBS followed by 655 scraping cells into 1ml PBS and transferring into 1.5ml tubes. Cells were pelleted 656 at 7000rpm, 4°C for 1min and resulting cell pellet carefully resuspended by 657 pipetting up and down in 250ul RSB (10x RSB: 200mM Tris (pH 7.5), 1M KCl, 658 100mM MgCl2) containing 1/40 RNasin (40U/ul, Promega), until no clumps 659 were visible. 250ul of polysome extraction buffer was then added (1ml 10x RSB 660 + 50ul NP-40 (Sigma) + 9ml H2O + 1 complete mini EDTA-free protease inhibitor 661 pill (Roche)) and lysate passed 5x through a 25G needle avoiding bubble 662 formation. The lysate was then incubated on ice for 10min before spinning 663 10min at 10,000g, 4°C. The supernatant was then transferred into a fresh 1.5ml 664 tube and the RNA concentration estimated by measuring the OD at 260nm. 665 Sucrose gradients (10–45%) containing 20 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl2, and 666 100 mM KCl were made using the BioComp gradient master. 100ug of Lysate 667 were loaded on sucrose gradients and spun at 41,000rpm for 2.5h in a Sorvall 668 centrifuge with a SW41Ti rotor. Following centrifugation, gradients were 669 fractionated using a BioComp gradient station model 153 (BioComp 23

670 Instruments, New Brunswick, Canada) by measuring cytosolic RNA at 254 nm671 and collecting 18 fractions.

672 RNA from all fractions was precipitated using 1 volume of 100% EtOH and 1ul 673 Glycoblue (Ambion), before extracting RNA using the Trizol method (Life 674 Technologies). Equal volumes of RNA of each fraction was run on a 1.3% 675 Agarose/TBE gel to assess the quality of fractionation and RNA integrity. 676 Additionally, equal volumes of RNA of each fraction were used in cDNA synthesis 677 using SuperScript III (ThermoFisher) and 2uM gene-specific primers for GFP 678 ('pcDNA5-UTR_R') and GAPDH ('GAPDH_R') followed by qRT-PCR analysis. For 679 high-throughput sequencing, total RNA from collected fractions was combined in 680 equal volumes into 4 pools (as indicated in Figure 5B; free ribonucleoprotein 681 (RNP) complexes, monosomes, light polysomes (2-4) and heavy polysomes (5+)) before amplicon library preparation (as described below). 682

683

684 **High-throughput library preparation and sequencing**

685 Sequencing libraries were generated by PCR using primers specific for GFP 686 amplification (Supplementary Table 2) which carry the required adaptor 687 sequences for paired-end MiSeq sequencing, as well as 6nt indices for library 688 multiplexing. Between 6-10ug of total genomic DNA were used in multiple PCR 689 reactions (200ng per 50ul reaction). All PCRs were performed using Accuprime 690 Pfx (NEB) according to manufacturer's recommendations using 0.4ul Accuprime 691 Pfx Polymerase and 0.3uM of each primer ('PE PCR left' and 692 'S indexX right PEPCR'). The cycling conditions were as follows: Initial 693 denaturation at 95C for 2min, followed by 30 cycles of denaturation at 95C for 694 15sec, annealing at 51C for 30sec, extension at 68C for 1min. The final extension 695 was performed at 68C for 2min. After PCR, all reactions of the same template 696 were pooled and 1/3 of the reaction purified using the Qiagen PCR purification 697 kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was eluted in 50ul H20. Library size selection was performed using the Invitrogen E-gel system 698 699 (Clonewell gels, 0.8% agarose) followed by Qiagen MinElute PCR purification. 700 Correct fragment sizes were confirmed and quantified using the Agilent 701 Bioanalyzer 2100 system.

702 For library preparation of RNA samples, 500ng RNA was first converted into 703 cDNA using 2nmol GFP-specific primers ('S indexX right PEPCR') using 704 SuperScript III (Life technologies) according to manufacturer's protocol, using 705 50C as extension temperature. Resulting cDNA was then treated with 1ul 706 RNaseH (NEB) for 20min at 37C, followed by heat inactivation at 65C for 5min. 707 Samples were diluted 1:2.5 before using 2ul as template in PCR for library 708 preparation. A minimum of 8x50ul PCR reactions were set up and pooled for 709 each sample before PCR purification, followed by E-gel purification as described 710 above.

- High-throughput sequencing was conducted by Edinburgh Genomics (The
 University of Edinburgh) and Imperial BRC Genomics facility (Imperial College
 London) using the Illumina MiSeq platform (2x300nt paired-end reads).
- 714

715 Analysis of GFP pool experiments

Raw sequencing files (fastq files) were demultiplexed by 6nt indices by the
respective sequencing facility. To remove the plasmid sequence, the second
reads from paired-end sequencing were trimmed using flexbar (-as
ATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTCTTA -ao 4 -m 15 -u 30). Reads were then mapped to
the GFP library using bowtie2 (-X 750) and filtered using samtools (-f 99).

For Flow-seq data, only variants with a minimum of 1000 reads across all 8
sequencing bins were used for further analysis. For each GFP variant, the
number of reads in each bin (n(i)) was multiplied by the respective bin index (i)

before taking the sum and dividing by the total number of reads across all bins:

725 Fluorescence (variant) =
$$\sum_{i=1}^{8} i * n(i) / \sum_{i=1}^{8} n(i)$$

For cell fractionation experiments, only data with a minimum of 1000 reads across both cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions was used to calculate the relative

728 cytoplasmic concentration ('RCC') for each variant: $RCC = \frac{n(cyto)}{n(cyto) + n(nuc)}$

For polysome profiling, only variants with a minimum of 1000 reads across all 4
sequencing bins were used for further analysis. To estimate ribosome density,

for each GFP variant, the number of reads in each bin (n(i)) was multiplied by the

respective polysomal fraction index (i) before taking the sum and dividing by the

total sum of reads across all fractions:

- 734 Ribosome density(variant) = $\sum_{i=1}^{4} i * n(i) / \sum_{i=1}^{4} n(i)$
- Ribosome association for each variant was calculated as the sum of reads (n) in
- 136 light polysomes, heavy polysomes and monosomal fractions, divided by the sum
- 737 of reads found in the free RNP fraction:
- 738 Ribosome association(variant) = (n(monosomes) + n(light polysomes) +
- n(heavy polysomes)) / n(free RNPs)
- 740

741 **Definition of calculated sequence features**

- 742 GC3: GC content in the third position of codons
- 743 CpG: number of CpG dinucleotides
- 744 dG: The minimum free energy of predicted mRNA secondary structure around
- the start codon was calculated using the hybrid-ss-min program version 3.8
- 746 (default settings: NA = RNA, t = 37, [Na+] = 1, [Mg++] = 0, maxloop = 30, prefilter
- 747 = 2/2) in the 42-nt window (-4 to 38) as in (Kudla et al., 2009).
- 748 CAI: Codon Adaptation Index (H. sapiens) (Sharp and Li, 1987a) was calculated
- vising a reference list of highly expressed human genes collected from the EMBL-
- 750 EBI expression atlas https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gxa.
- tAI: tRNA adaptation index (dos Reis et al., 2004)
- ARE: top score of ATTTA motif match in each sequence.
- AT-stretch: number of times motif (AT){9} was identified in each sequence.
- 754 GC-stretch: number of times motif (GC){9} was identified in each sequence.
- 755 Poly_A: number of times the position-specific scoring matrix 756 ((47,3,0,50)(18,6,9,67)(53,12,12,23)(59,6,0,35)(70,6,6,18)) was identified in
- each sequence.
- 758 SD_cryptic: number of times RSGTNNHT motif was identified in each sequence.
- 759 SD_PSSM: number of times the position-specific scoring matrix
- 760 ((60,13,13,14)(9,3,80,7)(0,0,100,0)(0,0,0,100)(53,3,42,3)(71,8,12,9)(7,6,81,6)(1
- 761 6,17,21,46)) was identified in each sequence.
- 762
- FIMO (http://meme-suite.org) was calculated to identify and count sequence motifs. Open-source packages available for R were used for generating correlation matrices (corrplot), heatmaps (ggplot2), boxplots

766 (graphics/ggplot2), The GC3 of all human coding sequences (assembly:

767 GRCg38_hg38; only CDS exons) was calculated using R package 'seqinr'.

768

769 **Computation methods for analysis of endogenous gene expression**

770 Data Collection - see also Supplementary Table 1

- GC4 content was calculated for each protein-coding transcript annotated in GENCODE version 19 as the GC content of the third codon position across all fourfold-degenerate codons (CT*, GT*, TC*, CC*, AC*, GC*, GA*, CC*, GC*). The core promoter of each transcript is further defined as -300 bp/+100 bp around the annotated TSS.
- 776
 2. The level of transcription initiation was quantified in K562 and Gm12878
 777 cells as the number of GRO-cap reads from the same strand which overlap
 778 the core promoter.
- 779 3. Nuclear stability was assessed using CAGE data obtained in triplicate from 780 Egfp, Mtr4 and Rrp40 knockdowns (GSE62047; (Andersson et al., 2014)). 781 Similarly to the approach used for the GRO-cap data, we calculated the 782 RPKM across core promoters for each library separately. The baseMean 783 expression for each treatment was quantified using DESeq2, where 784 promoters with no reads across any replicate were first removed from 785 each comparison. Nuclear stability was then assessed as the fold-change 786 between the Egfp and Mtr4 knockdown and cytoplasmic stability by the 787 estimated fold-change between the Mtr4 and Rrp40 knockdowns.
- 788 4. The level of the mature mRNA was quantified using RNA-seq libraries 789 from whole cell samples (prepared as described elsewhere for HEK293 790 cells downloaded from and 791 http://hgdownload.cse.ucsc.edu/goldenPath/hg19/encodeDCC/wgEncod 792 eCshlLongRnaSeq for Gm12878, HepG2, HeLa, Huvec and K562 cells). 793 Reads were pseudoaligned against GENCODE transcript models using 794 Kallisto, set with 100 bootstraps. All other parameters were left at their 795 default. Transcript expressions were extracted as the estimated TPM 796 (tags per million) values.

The level of the mature mRNA in the nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions
was quantified using Kallisto as previously. As transcript stability was
similar in both fractions (linear regression coefficient 0.97, p < 2.2×10⁻¹⁶),
nuclear export was determined as the fraction TPM from these two
compartments which was present in the nuclear fraction.

- Ribosome-sequencing data from HEK293 (GSE94460) and HeLa
 (GSE79664) cells were used to quantify the level of mRNA translation in
 these two cells. Both of these measures were determined at the gene level,
 and so these observations were applied to all GENCODE transcripts
 annotated to these associated genes. These data were normalised to the
 mean mRNA expression in the relevant cell types (from step 4).
- 808
 7. Protein expression was assessed using mass-spectrometry data (Geiger et al., 2012) (Supp. Table 2) as the mean LFQ intensity across three replicates for each uniprot-annotated gene in each cell line for which data were available. Only data from genes where the UniProt ID is uniquely linked to a single transcript were considered in the analyses presented here.
- 814
 8. Protein stability was calculated as the level of the mature protein in
 815
 HEK293 and HeLa cells (step 7) relative to the mean rate of mRNA
 816
 translation in these cells (step 6).
- 817 **Regression modelling**

818 A pseudocount of 0.0001 was added to each measurement of gene expression 819 and, excluding the nuclear export data, these values were then log2-transformed 820 to generate a normal distribution of expression for subsequent analysis. 821 Transcripts with an expression value of 0 were removed from downstream 822 analysis and the resulting distributions used for regression analysis are displayed in Supplementary Figure 6. Transcripts were separated into unspliced 823 824 and spliced, where splicing was defined as containing more than one exon in the GENCODE transcript model. Expression measurements were then linearly 825 826 regressed against the GC4 content separately for each class of transcript and the 827 coefficients along with their associated standard errors. These data were then

828 bootstrapped by sampling with replacement and recalculating the regression

829 coefficients for spliced and unspliced transcripts. The 95% confidence interval of

these coefficients (discounting the standard error in these estimations) obtained

- by 1,000 samplings of this type was used to draw the ellipses shown in Figure 6.
- 832

833 Analysis of GC content variation in the human genome

834 The GRCh38 sequence of the human genome, as well as the corresponding gene 835 annotations (Ensembl release 85), was retrieved from the Ensembl FTP site 836 (Zerbino et al., 2018). The full coding sequences (CDSs) of protein-coding genes 837 were extracted, filtered for quality and clustered into putative paralogous families (see (Savisaar and Hurst, 2016) for full details). For all analyses, a 838 839 random member was picked from each putative paralogous cluster. In addition, 840 only one transcript isoform (the longest) was considered from each gene. Note 841 that exon rank was always counted from the first exon of the gene, even if it was 842 not coding. For Figure 1C, GC4 was averaged across all sites that were at the 843 same nucleotide distance to the TSS and within an exon of the same rank. For the 844 functional retrocopies analysis, the parent-retrocopy genes derived in (Parmley et al., 2007) were used. Pseudogenic retrocopies were retrieved from 845 846 RetrogeneDB (Rosikiewicz et al., 2017). Retrocopy annotations were filtered to 847 only leave human genes with a one-to-one ortholog in Macaca mulatta. Next, 848 only ortholog pairs where both the human and the macaque copy were 849 annotated as not having an intact reading frame and where the human copy was 850 annotated as *KNOWN PSEUDOGENE* were retained. For the analyses reported in 851 Supplementary Figure 1, the functional retrocopies were also retrieved from 852 RetrogeneDB, as we could not access genomic locations for the (Parmley et al., 853 2007) set. The functional retrogenes were retrieved similarly to pseudogenes, except that both the human and the macaque copy were required to have an 854 855 intact open reading frame and the human copy could not be annotated as 856 KNOWN_PSEUDOGENE.

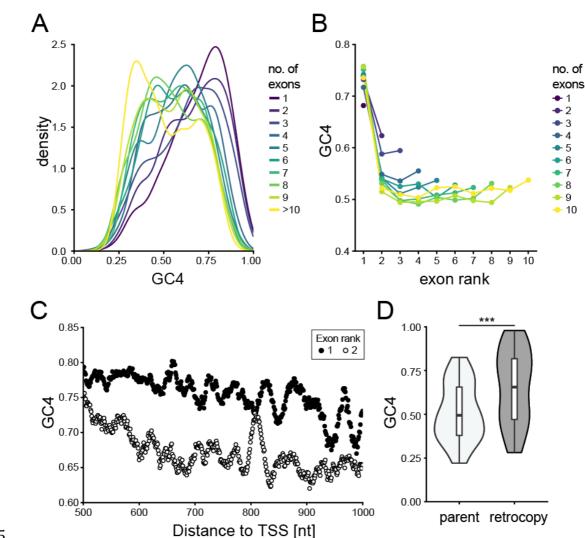
Python 3.4.2. was used for data processing and R 3.1.2 was used for statistics andplotting (R Development Core Team, 2005).

859

860 Acknowledgments

861 We thank Elisabeth Freyer for help with cell sorting; Andrew Jackson, Nick Gilbert and Aleksandra Helwak for gifts of cell lines and plasmids; James Brindle 862 for technical assistance; Michael Liss and members of Kudla and Hurst groups for 863 discussions; Edinburgh Genomics (University of Edinburgh) and the Imperial 864 865 BRC Genomics facility for next-generation sequencing; and Institute of Genetics 866 and Molecular Medicine technical support for help with media preparation and 867 sequencing. This work was supported by the Wellcome Trust (Fellowships 097383 and 207507 to G.K.), the European Research Council (Advanced grant 868 869 ERC-2014-ADG 669207 to L.D.H.), and the Medical Research Council (Grants 870 MC_UU_00007/11 to M.S.T. and MC_UU_00007/12 to G.K. and PhD studentship to 871 C.M.). 872

- 072
- 873



875

874

876

Figure 1. Splicing- and position-dependent patterns of nucleotide composition in human genes

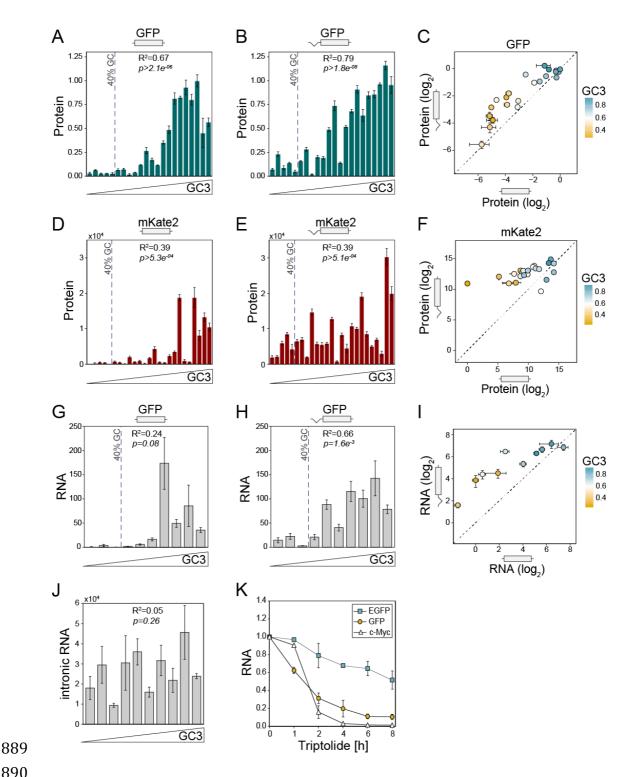
879 (A) GC4 distribution of human protein-coding genes, grouped by number of880 exons per gene.

(B) Mean GC4 content in protein-coding exons, grouped by exon position (rank)and by number of exons per gene.

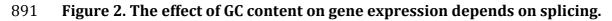
(C) Mean GC4 for individual codons within exons of rank 1 (black dots) or rank 2(white dots) downstream of the transcription start site (TSS).

885 (D) GC4 distribution of functional retrogenes (dark grey) and their 886 corresponding parental genes (light grey) conserved between mouse and human 887 ($p=2.1\times10^{-4}$, from one-tailed Wilcoxon signed rank test, n=49).

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/527440; this version posted January 22, 2019. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.

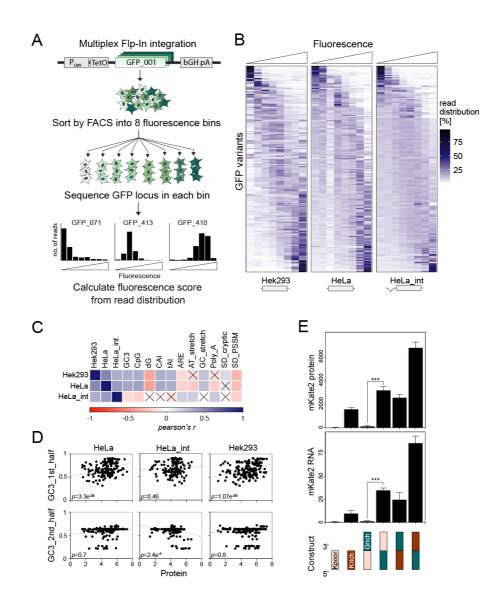


890



892 (A-B) Protein levels of 22 GFP variants when transiently expressed as unspliced 893 (A) or spliced (B) constructs were expressed in HeLa cells and quantified by 894 spectrofluorometry. Each data point represents the mean of 9 replicates, +/-895 SEM.

- 896 (C) Correlation of protein levels between unspliced and spliced variants of GFP
- 897 (n=22, R^2 =0.69, p=9.0×10⁻⁷). The dashed line indicates x=y.
- 898 (D-E) Protein levels of 23 mKate2 variants in the absence (A) or presence (B) of
- splicing. Each data point represents the mean of 9 replicates.
- 900 (F) Correlation of protein levels between unspliced and spliced variants of 901 mKate2 (n=23, $R^2=0.29$, $p=2.8\times10^{-4}$).
- 902 (G-H) mRNA levels of 10 GFP variants when transiently expressed as unspliced
- 903 (G) or spliced (H) constructs in HeLa cells and quantified by qRT-PCR. Data
- 904 points represent the mean of 3 replicates, +/- SEM.
- 905 (I) Comparison of mRNA expression from spliced and unspliced GFP variants.
- 906 (J) Intronic RNA levels of GFP variants measured by qRT-PCR.
- 907 (K) RNA stability time course of GC-rich (97% GC3; $t_{1/2}$ =8.6h) and GC-poor (33%
- 908 GC3, t_{1/2}=2.4h) GFP variants in stably transfected HeLa Flp-In cells after blocking
- 909 transcription with 500nM Triptolide. Results represent the averages of 2
- 910 independent experiments, +/- SD.



- 912
- 913

Figure 3. Splicing- and position-dependent effects of codon usage on protein production.

916 (A) Schematic outline of Flow-Seq experimental workflow. Stable HeLa and
917 HEK293 cell pools expressing 217 GFP variants were established using a
918 multiplex Flp-In integration approach. 24h post-induction, cells are sorted by
919 FACS into 8 fluorescence bins, genomic DNA extracted followed by high920 throughput sequencing of the GFP locus. Individual fluorescence scores for each
921 variant are calculated from normalised read distributions. (See Methods and
922 Figure S4).

(B) Heatmap representation of Flow-Seq results. Rows represent normalised
read distributions of individual GFP variants across 8 fluorescence bins
(columns). The average difference between lowest and highest fluorescence bin

equals about 100-fold. Data shown represents the average of 3 Flow-Seq
measurements for HeLa cells, the average of 3 Flow-Seq experiments for HeLa
with intron and 1 experiment for HEK293 cells.

929 (C) Pearson's correlation matrix of experimental measurements obtained by
930 Flow-Seq and sequence covariates. The colour of squares indicates the
931 correlation coefficient; crosses indicate non-significant correlations.

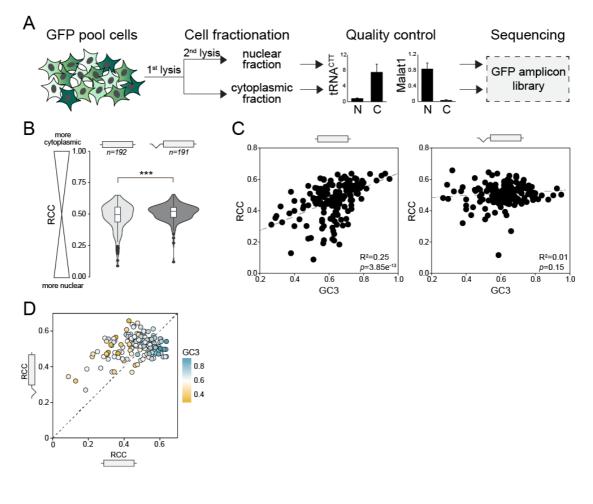
932 (D) Correlations between Flow-Seq measurements and GC3 content of 1st (nt 1-

- 933 360) and 2nd (nt 361 720) halves of GFP sequences.
- 934 (E) Protein and mRNA measurements of translational fusion constructs between

935 GC-poor (30% GC3, Kpoor) and GC-rich (85% GC3, Krich) variants of mKate2

with a GC-rich variant of GFP (97% GC3, Grich). Data represents the mean of 3

937 replicates + SEM (see also Figure S5).



939

940

941 **Figure 4. High GC content increases cytoplasmic localisation of mRNA.**

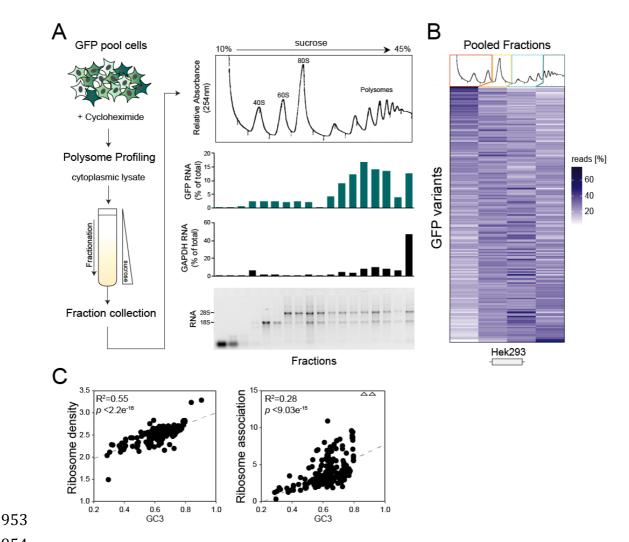
942 (A) Stable HeLa pools expressing 217 GFP variants +/- intron were fractionated
943 into nuclear and cytoplasmic portions before RNA extraction. Specific markers of

944 subcellular compartments were quantified by qRT-PCR before amplicon-library945 preparation (see also Methods).

946 (B) Relative cytoplasmic concentration (RCC) of unspliced and spliced GFP
947 variants. Data represents the mean of 2 replicates. ***p=2×10⁻⁶.

948 (C) Correlation between GC3 content and RCC for unspliced and spliced GFP

- 949 RNA. Data points represent the means of 2 replicates.
- 950 (D) Correlation between RCC scores of unspliced and spliced GFP ($R^2=0.1$, 951 p=2.6×10⁻⁵).



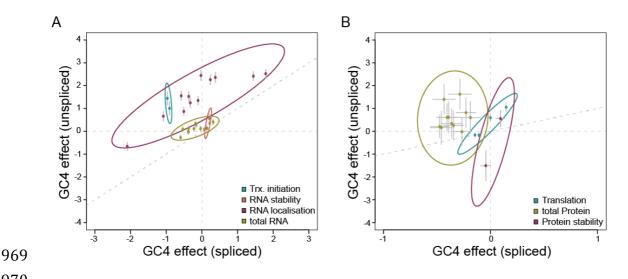
954

955 Figure 5. High GC content leads to increased ribosome association.

(A) (Left) A stable pool of HEK293 cells expressing 217 unspliced GFP variants 956 was subjected to polysome profiling using sucrose gradient centrifugation. 957 (Right, from top to bottom) UV absorbance profile, GFP mRNA abundance, 958 959 GAPDH mRNA abundance, ethidium bromide staining of gradient fractions. GFP 960 and GAPDH mRNA were quantified by qRT-PCR.

(B) RNA from collected fractions was combined into 4 pools (as indicated by 961 coloured boxes) before amplicon library preparation for high-throughput 962 963 sequencing: unbound ribonucleoprotein complexes (red), monosomes (yellow), 964 light polysomes (light green) and heavy polysomes (dark green). Resulting read 965 distributions (in %) for GFP variants are represented as heatmap. 966 (C) Correlation plot between mean ribosome density (left panel) and ribosome

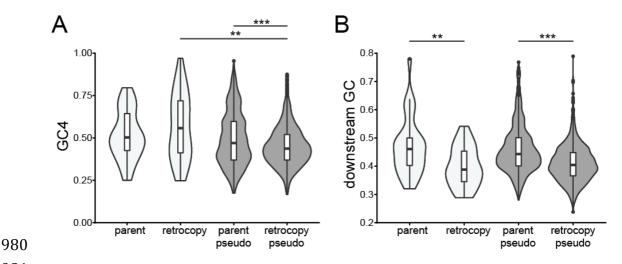
- 967 association (right panel) of GFP variants and their corresponding GC3 content.
- 968





971 Figure 6. Splicing-dependent codon usage shapes global gene expression.

972 Plots showing the effect of GC4 content on the expression of unspliced (x-axis) 973 and spliced (y-axis) endogenous human genes, both on RNA and protein level. 974 Each point corresponds to the regression coefficient of an individual experiment 975 (cell line and/or biological replicate). Error bars indicate the standard error of 976 these regression coefficients. Surrounding ellipses indicate the 95% confidence 977 interval for 1,000 bootstraps of underlying data (see Methods, Figure S6 and 978 Table S1). The diagonal indicates x=y.

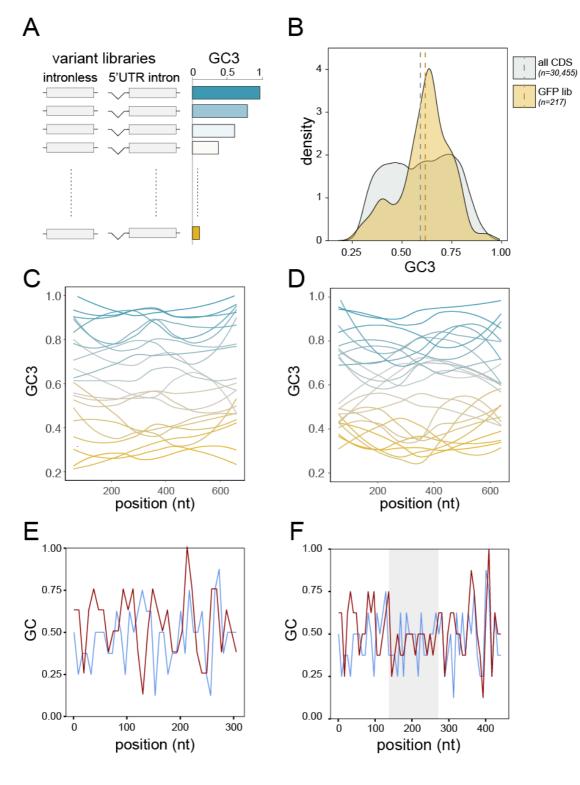


981

Supplementary Figure 1. GC4 variation amongst parent-retrogene pairs 982 983 and their downstream sequence.

(A) GC4 content distribution across parent and retrogene pairs conserved 984 985 between human and macaque. White violins indicate pairs for which retrocopies 986 are classed as functional (p=0.26, n=31, two-tailed Wilcoxon signed-rank test), 987 whereas grey violins correspond to pairs in which the retrocopy is classed as non-functional pseudogene (p < 2.2×10^{-16} , n=1562, two-tailed Wilcoxon signed-988 989 rank test). Note that a different retrogene dataset was used than in the main text 990 (see Methods for details). For the human-macaque set, the difference in GC4 991 between parents and functional copies is in the expected direction but not 992 significant.

993 (B) Violin plot showing GC content within a window between 2000 and 3000nt 994 downstream from the stop codons of functional (white, $p=9.27 \times 10^{-4}$, n=31, twotailed Wilcoxon signed-rank test) and non-functional (grey, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, n = 1562, 995 two-tailed Wilcoxon signed-rank test) parent-retrogene pairs conserved 996 997 between human and macaque.



999

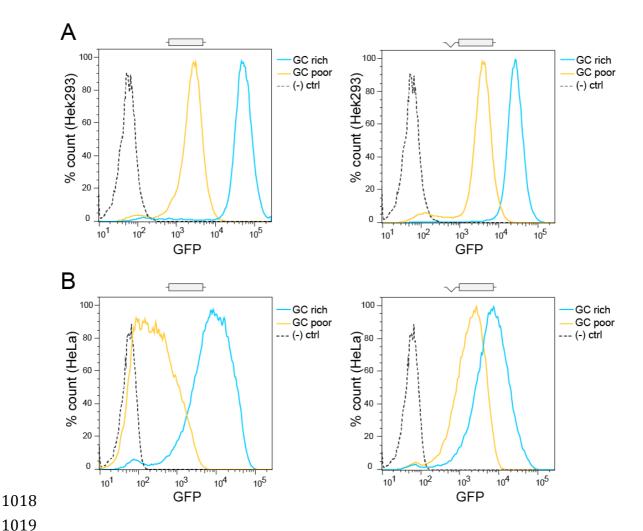
1000

1001 Supplementary Figure 2. GC content variation amongst endogenous genes1002 and reporter libraries.

(A) Libraries of reporter genes with random synonymous codon usage were
designed to cover a broad range of GC3 content variation. Variants were
expressed with and without a synthetic 5'UTR intron.

- 1006 (B) GC3 content distribution amongst human consensus coding sequences (CDS;
- 1007 grey) in comparison to the GFP variant library used in this study (GFP lib;
- 1008 orange). Dashed lines indicate the mean GC3 for each data set.
- 1009 (C-D) Loess-smoothed GC3 profiles along the 22 GFP variants (C) and 23 mKate
- 1010 variants (D) that were analysed by spectrofluorometry (Figure 2).
- 1011 (E) Sliding window analysis of GC content in 5'UTRs of intronless expression
- 1012 cassettes utilised in this study. Blue: pCM3 (transient transfection, no intron);
- 1013 red: pcDNA5/FRT/TO/DEST (stable transfection, no intron).
- 1014 (F) As above, intron-containing expression cassettes. Blue: pCM4 (transient
- 1015 transfection, with intron); red: pcDNA5/FRT/TO/DEST/INT (stable transfection,
- 1016 with intron). Grey shading indicates the position of the synthetic intron.

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/527440; this version posted January 22, 2019. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY 4.0 International license.



1019

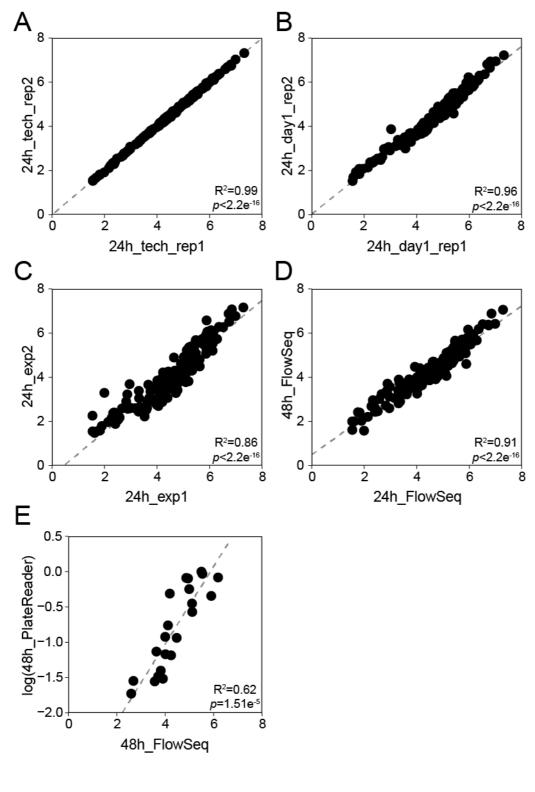
1020 Supplementary Figure 3. Effect of GC content on expression of fluorescent

1021 reporter genes in stably transfected cell lines.

1022 Flow cytometry measurements of two GFP variants in stably transfected HEK293

1023 Flp-in (A) and HeLa Flp-in (B). GC poor = 33% GC3; GC rich = 97% GC3; (-)ctrl =

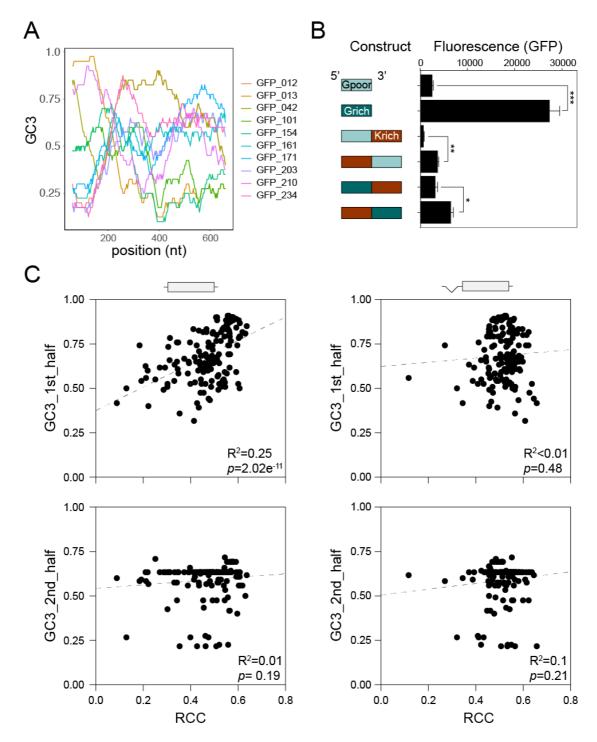
- 1024 untransfected cells. Data shows representative results of at least 3 experiments.
- 1025



1028 Supplementary Figure 4. Reproducibility of Flow-seq experiments in HeLa

- 1029 cells (unspliced GFP variants).
- 1030 (A) Re-sequencing of the same amplicon-library.
- 1031 (B-C) Replicate Flow-seq experiments performed on the same day (B) or
- 1032 different days (C).

- 1033 (D) Flow-Seq experiments performed on the same pool of cells, 24h and 48h
- 1034 after the induction of GFP expression.
- 1035 (E) Correlation between fluorescence measurements of 22 GFP variants obtained
- 1036 spectrofluorometry of transiently transfected HeLa cells and by Flow-Seq of
- 1037 HeLa GFP pool cell line.
- 1038



1039 1040

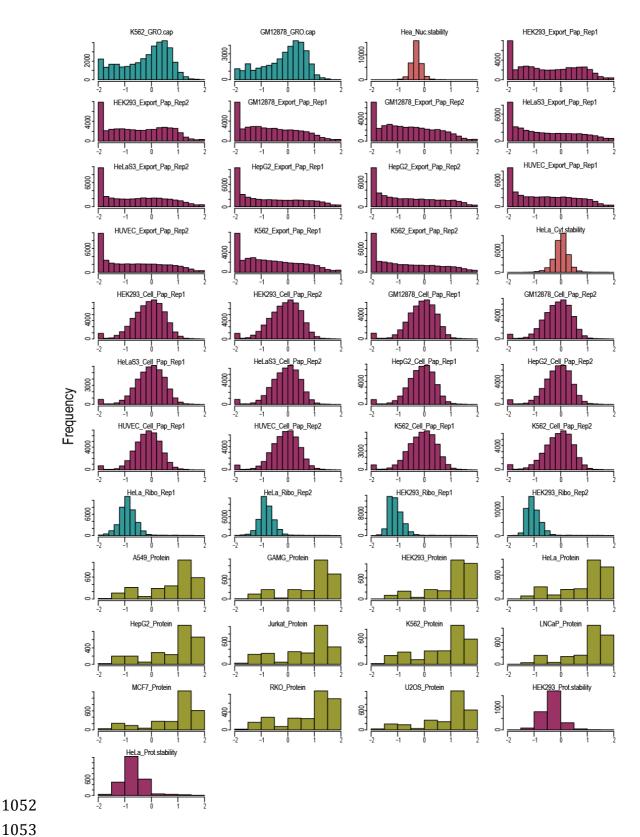
1041Supplementary Figure 5. Position-specific effects of GC content on1042expression.

1043 (A) Sliding window analysis of GC3 content in selected GFP variants used in the1044 pooled amplicon sequencing experiments.

1045 (B) Protein measurements of translational fusion constructs between GC-poor

1046 (33% GC3, Gpoor) and GC-rich (97% GC3, Grich) variants of GFP with a GC-rich

- 1047 variant of mKate2 (85% GC3, Krich), upon transient transfection into HeLa cells.
- 1048 Data represent the mean of 3 replicates + SEM.
- 1049 (C) Correlations between the GC3 content in the 1st (nt 1-360) and 2nd (nt 361-
- 1050 720) halves of GFP variants and their relative cytoplasmic mRNA concentrations.



1053

1054 Supplementary Figure 6. Distribution of RNA and protein expression data

1055 used in regression modelling.

1056 Human RNA and protein expression data were extracted from various databases,

1057 filtered and normalized as described in Supplementary Table 1 and in the

- 1058 Methods section. The histograms show the distributions of preprocessed
- 1059 expression measurements.
- 1060

1061 **Supplementary Table 1. Sources of human gene expression data.**

- 1062 The cellular process to be quantified is indicated above the table, and the
- 1063 experimental techniques and data sources are indicated below. Each dot
- 1064 indicates an experimental replicate measurement.
- 1065

	Trans	Sciption nucle	ear stability of open	asmic sability RM	Alevels RNA	export Trat	istation Protei	ntevels prote
K562	•			••	••		•	
Gm12878	•			••	••			
HeLa		•	•	••	••	••	•	•
Hek293				•	••	••	•	•
Huvec				••	••			
HepG2				••	••		•	
A549							•	
GAMG							•	
Jurkat							•	
LnCap							•	
MCF7							•	
RKO							•	
U2OS							•	
data type	GRO-cap	CAGE-seq: Mtr4 KD/ EGFP KD	CAGE-seq: Rrp40 KD/ Mtr4 KD	RNA-seq	RNA-seq	Ribo-seq	Mass-spec	Mass- spec/Ribo- seq
data source	ENCODE	Andersson et al., 2014	Andersson et al., 2014	Hek293: this study; all others: ENCODE	Hek293: this study; all others: ENCODE	ENCODE	Geiger et al., 2012	Geiger et al., 2012; ENCODE

1066

Supplementary Table 2. List of primers used.

MiSeq library + sequencing	5' → 3'
PE_PCR_left	AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACGCTGGCACGCGTAAGAAGGAGATATAACCAT G
S_index1_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATCGTGATGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCC GATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
S_index2_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATACATCGGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCC GATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
S_index3_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGCCTAAGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCC GATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
S_index4_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATTGGTCAGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCC GATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
S_index5_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATCACTGTGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCC GATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
S_index6_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATATTGGCGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCC GATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
S_index7_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATGATCTGGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCC GATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
S_index8_right_P EPCR	CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATTCAAGTGTGACTGGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCG ATCTATGTGCAGGGCCGCGAATTC
Read1_seq_prim er_GFP	GCTGGCACGCGTAAGAAGGAGATATAACCATG
cloning primers	
pCI_del_int_F (phospho)	GTGTCCACTCCCAGTTCAAT
pCI_del_int_R (phospho)	CTGCCCAGTGCCTCACGACC
mkate2_gibs_F	GATCCGCGTATGGTGGCCTTAAGATACATTGATGAG
mkate2_gibs_R	TGTAAGCGGATGCCGCACATGTTCTTTCCTGCG
pCI_gib_F	CGGCATCCGCTTACAGACAA
pCI_gib_R	CACCATACGCGGATCCTTATC
qPCR primers	
pcDNA5-UTR_F	GTTGCCAGCCATCTGTTGTT
pcDNA5-UTR_R	CTCAGACAATGCGATGCAATTTCC
pCI-UTR_F	CTTCCCTTTAGTGAGGGTTAATG
pCI-UTR_R	GTTTATTGCAGCTTATAATGGTTAC
pCI-mRNA_F	GCTAACGCAGTCAGTGCTTC
pCI-mRNA_R	ACACCCAGTGCCTCACGAC
pCI-premRNA_F	GAGGCACTGGGCAGGTAAGTATC
pCI-premRNA_R	GTGGATGTCAGTAAGACCAATAGGTG
Gapdh_F	GGAGTCAACGGATTTGG
Gapdh_R	GTAGTTGAGGTCAATGAAGGG
Neo_F	CCCGTGATATTGCTGAAGAG
Neo_R	CGTCAAGAAGGCGATAGAAG
LysCTT_F	TCAGTCGGTAGAGCATGAGAC
LysCTT_R	CAACGTGGGGCTCGAACC
Malat1_F	CAGACCCTTCACCCCTCAC
Malat1_R	TTATGGATCATGCCCACAAG

Reference list

Andersson, R., Refsing Andersen, P., Valen, E., Core, L.J., Bornholdt, J., Boyd, M., Heick Jensen, T., and Sandelin, A. (2014). Nuclear stability and transcriptional directionality separate functionally distinct RNA species. Nature communications *5*, 5336.

Arango, D., Sturgill, D., Alhusaini, N., Dillman, A.A., Sweet, T.J., Hanson, G., Hosogane, M., Sinclair, W.R., Nanan, K.K., Mandler, M.D., *et al.* (2018). Acetylation of Cytidine in mRNA Promotes Translation Efficiency. Cell *175*, 1872-1886 e1824.

Arhondakis, S., Auletta, F., and Bernardi, G. (2011). Isochores and the regulation of gene expression in the human genome. Genome Biol Evol *3*, 1080-1089.

Bauer, A.P., Leikam, D., Krinner, S., Notka, F., Ludwig, C., Langst, G., and Wagner, R. (2010). The impact of intragenic CpG content on gene expression. Nucleic Acids Res *38*, 3891-3908.

Bazzini, A.A., Del Viso, F., Moreno-Mateos, M.A., Johnstone, T.G., Vejnar, C.E., Qin, Y., Yao, J., Khokha, M.K., and Giraldez, A.J. (2016). Codon identity regulates mRNA stability and translation efficiency during the maternal-to-zygotic transition. EMBO J *35*, 2087-2103.

Bentele, K., Saffert, P., Rauscher, R., Ignatova, Z., and Bluthgen, N. (2013). Efficient translation initiation dictates codon usage at gene start. Mol Syst Biol *9*, 675.

Bernardi, G. (1993). The vertebrate genome: isochores and evolution. Mol Biol Evol *10*, 186-204.

Burow, D.A., Martin, S., Quail, J.F., Alhusaini, N., Coller, J., and Cleary, M.D. (2018). Attenuated Codon Optimality Contributes to Neural-Specific mRNA Decay in Drosophila. Cell reports *24*, 1704-1712.

Carels, N., and Bernardi, G. (2000). Two classes of genes in plants. Genetics *154*, 1819-1825.

Dittmar, K.A., Goodenbour, J.M., and Pan, T. (2006). Tissue-specific differences in human transfer RNA expression. PLoS Genet *2*, e221.

Dominissini, D., Moshitch-Moshkovitz, S., Schwartz, S., Salmon-Divon, M., Ungar, L., Osenberg, S., Cesarkas, K., Jacob-Hirsch, J., Amariglio, N., Kupiec, M., *et al.* (2012). Topology of the human and mouse m6A RNA methylomes revealed by m6A-seq. Nature *485*, 201-206.

dos Reis, M., Savva, R., and Wernisch, L. (2004). Solving the riddle of codon usage preferences: a test for translational selection. Nucleic Acids Res *32*, 5036-5044.

Duan, J., Shi, J., Ge, X., Dolken, L., Moy, W., He, D., Shi, S., Sanders, A.R., Ross, J., and Gejman, P.V. (2013). Genome-wide survey of interindividual differences of RNA stability in human lymphoblastoid cell lines. Scientific reports *3*, 1318.

Duret, L., and Galtier, N. (2009). Biased gene conversion and the evolution of mammalian genomic landscapes. Annu Rev Genomics Hum Genet *10*, 285-311.

Eyre-Walker, A.C. (1991). An analysis of codon usage in mammals: selection or mutation bias? J Mol Evol *33*, 442-449.

Fath, S., Bauer, A.P., Liss, M., Spriestersbach, A., Maertens, B., Hahn, P., Ludwig, C., Schafer, F., Graf, M., and Wagner, R. (2011). Multiparameter RNA and codon optimization: a standardized tool to assess and enhance autologous mammalian gene expression. PLoS One *6*, e17596.

Gagnon, K.T., Li, L., Janowski, B.A., and Corey, D.R. (2014). Analysis of nuclear RNA interference in human cells by subcellular fractionation and Argonaute loading. Nat Protoc *9*, 2045-2060.

Galtier, N., Roux, C., Rousselle, M., Romiguier, J., Figuet, E., Glemin, S., Bierne, N., and Duret, L. (2018). Codon Usage Bias in Animals: Disentangling the Effects of Natural Selection, Effective Population Size, and GC-Biased Gene Conversion. Mol Biol Evol *35*, 1092-1103.

Geiger, T., Wehner, A., Schaab, C., Cox, J., and Mann, M. (2012). Comparative proteomic analysis of eleven common cell lines reveals ubiquitous but varying expression of most proteins. Mol Cell Proteomics *11*, M111 014050.

Gingold, H., Tehler, D., Christoffersen, N.R., Nielsen, M.M., Asmar, F., Kooistra, S.M., Christophersen, N.S., Christensen, L.L., Borre, M., Sorensen, K.D., *et al.* (2014). A dual program for translation regulation in cellular proliferation and differentiation. Cell *158*, 1281-1292.

Goodman, D.B., Church, G.M., and Kosuri, S. (2013). Causes and effects of N-terminal codon bias in bacterial genes. Science *342*, 475-479.

Gu, W., Zhou, T., and Wilke, C.O. (2010). A universal trend of reduced mRNA stability near the translation-initiation site in prokaryotes and eukaryotes. PLoS Comput Biol *6*, e1000664.

Higgs, D.R., Goodbourn, S.E., Lamb, J., Clegg, J.B., Weatherall, D.J., and Proudfoot, N.J. (1983). Alpha-thalassaemia caused by a polyadenylation signal mutation. Nature *306*, 398-400.

Kosovac, D., Wild, J., Ludwig, C., Meissner, S., Bauer, A.P., and Wagner, R. (2011). Minimal doses of a sequence-optimized transgene mediate high-level and longterm EPO expression in vivo: challenging CpG-free gene design. Gene Ther *18*, 189-198.

Kosuri, S., Goodman, D.B., Cambray, G., Mutalik, V.K., Gao, Y., Arkin, A.P., Endy, D., and Church, G.M. (2013). Composability of regulatory sequences controlling transcription and translation in Escherichia coli. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *110*, 14024-14029.

Kotsopoulou, E., Kim, V.N., Kingsman, A.J., Kingsman, S.M., and Mitrophanous, K.A. (2000). A Rev-independent human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1)based vector that exploits a codon-optimized HIV-1 gag-pol gene. J Virol *74*, 4839-4852.

Kudla, G., Lipinski, L., Caffin, F., Helwak, A., and Zylicz, M. (2006). High guanine and cytosine content increases mRNA levels in mammalian cells. PLoS Biol *4*, e180.

Kudla, G., Murray, A.W., Tollervey, D., and Plotkin, J.B. (2009). Coding-sequence determinants of gene expression in Escherichia coli. Science *324*, 255-258.

Kwek, K.Y., Murphy, S., Furger, A., Thomas, B., O'Gorman, W., Kimura, H., Proudfoot, N.J., and Akoulitchev, A. (2002). U1 snRNA associates with TFIIH and regulates transcriptional initiation. Nat Struct Biol *9*, 800-805.

Lander, E.S., Linton, L.M., Birren, B., Nusbaum, C., Zody, M.C., Baldwin, J., Devon, K., Dewar, K., Doyle, M., FitzHugh, W., *et al.* (2001). Initial sequencing and analysis of the human genome. Nature *409*, 860-921.

Lercher, M.J., Urrutia, A.O., Pavlicek, A., and Hurst, L.D. (2003). A unification of mosaic structures in the human genome. Hum Mol Genet *12*, 2411-2415.

Li, W. (2011). On parameters of the human genome. J Theor Biol 288, 92-104.

Livak, K.J., and Schmittgen, T.D. (2001). Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) Method. Methods *25*, 402-408.

Lubelsky, Y., and Ulitsky, I. (2018). Sequences enriched in Alu repeats drive nuclear localization of long RNAs in human cells. Nature *555*, 107-111.

Mishima, Y., and Tomari, Y. (2016). Codon Usage and 3' UTR Length Determine Maternal mRNA Stability in Zebrafish. Mol Cell *61*, 874-885.

Mittal, P., Brindle, J., Stephen, J., Plotkin, J.B., and Kudla, G. (2018). Codon usage influences fitness through RNA toxicity. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *115*, 8639-8644.

Muller-McNicoll, M., Botti, V., de Jesus Domingues, A.M., Brandl, H., Schwich, O.D., Steiner, M.C., Curk, T., Poser, I., Zarnack, K., and Neugebauer, K.M. (2016). SR proteins are NXF1 adaptors that link alternative RNA processing to mRNA export. Genes Dev *30*, 553-566.

Nott, A., Le Hir, H., and Moore, M.J. (2004). Splicing enhances translation in mammalian cells: an additional function of the exon junction complex. Genes Dev *18*, 210-222.

Nott, A., Meislin, S.H., and Moore, M.J. (2003). A quantitative analysis of intron effects on mammalian gene expression. RNA *9*, 607-617.

Palazzo, A.F., and Akef, A. (2012). Nuclear export as a key arbiter of "mRNA identity" in eukaryotes. Biochim Biophys Acta *1819*, 566-577.

Palazzo, A.F., Springer, M., Shibata, Y., Lee, C.S., Dias, A.P., and Rapoport, T.A. (2007). The signal sequence coding region promotes nuclear export of mRNA. PLoS Biol *5*, e322.

Parmley, J.L., Urrutia, A.O., Potrzebowski, L., Kaessmann, H., and Hurst, L.D. (2007). Splicing and the evolution of proteins in mammals. PLoS biology *5*, e14.

Plotkin, J.B., and Kudla, G. (2011). Synonymous but not the same: the causes and consequences of codon bias. Nat Rev Genet *12*, 32-42.

Plotkin, J.B., Robins, H., and Levine, A.J. (2004). Tissue-specific codon usage and the expression of human genes. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *101*, 12588-12591.

Presnyak, V., Alhusaini, N., Chen, Y.H., Martin, S., Morris, N., Kline, N., Olson, S., Weinberg, D., Baker, K.E., Graveley, B.R., *et al.* (2015). Codon optimality is a major determinant of mRNA stability. Cell *160*, 1111-1124.

R Development Core Team (2005). R: A language and environment for statistical computing (Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing).

Radhakrishnan, A., Chen, Y.H., Martin, S., Alhusaini, N., Green, R., and Coller, J. (2016). The DEAD-Box Protein Dhh1p Couples mRNA Decay and Translation by Monitoring Codon Optimality. Cell *167*, 122-132 e129.

Ressayre, A., Glemin, S., Montalent, P., Serre-Giardi, L., Dillmann, C., and Joets, J. (2015). Introns Structure Patterns of Variation in Nucleotide Composition in Arabidopsis thaliana and Rice Protein-Coding Genes. Genome Biol Evol *7*, 2913-2928.

Rosikiewicz, W., Kabza, M., Kosinski, J.G., Ciomborowska-Basheer, J., Kubiak, M.R., and Makalowska, I. (2017). RetrogeneDB-a database of plant and animal retrocopies. Database (Oxford) *2017*.

Rudolph, K.L., Schmitt, B.M., Villar, D., White, R.J., Marioni, J.C., Kutter, C., and Odom, D.T. (2016). Codon-Driven Translational Efficiency Is Stable across Diverse Mammalian Cell States. PLoS Genet *12*, e1006024.

Savisaar, R., and Hurst, L.D. (2016). Purifying Selection on Exonic Splice Enhancers in Intronless Genes. Mol Biol Evol *33*, 1396-1418.

Semon, M., Mouchiroud, D., and Duret, L. (2005). Relationship between gene expression and GC-content in mammals: statistical significance and biological relevance. Hum Mol Genet *14*, 421-427.

Shah, P., Ding, Y., Niemczyk, M., Kudla, G., and Plotkin, J.B. (2013). Rate-limiting steps in yeast protein translation. Cell *153*, 1589-1601.

Sharp, P.M., and Li, W.H. (1987a). The codon Adaptation Index--a measure of directional synonymous codon usage bias, and its potential applications. Nucleic Acids Res *15*, 1281-1295.

Sharp, P.M., and Li, W.H. (1987b). The rate of synonymous substitution in enterobacterial genes is inversely related to codon usage bias. Mol Biol Evol *4*, 222-230.

Takata, M.A., Goncalves-Carneiro, D., Zang, T.M., Soll, S.J., York, A., Blanco-Melo, D., and Bieniasz, P.D. (2017). CG dinucleotide suppression enables antiviral defence targeting non-self RNA. Nature *550*, 124-127.

Tuller, T., Carmi, A., Vestsigian, K., Navon, S., Dorfan, Y., Zaborske, J., Pan, T., Dahan, O., Furman, I., and Pilpel, Y. (2010). An evolutionarily conserved mechanism for controlling the efficiency of protein translation. Cell *141*, 344-354.

Vinogradov, A.E. (2003). Isochores and tissue-specificity. Nucleic Acids Res *31*, 5212-5220.

Wang, Y., Zhu, W., and Levy, D.E. (2006). Nuclear and cytoplasmic mRNA quantification by SYBR green based real-time RT-PCR. Methods *39*, 356-362.

Webster, M.W., Chen, Y.H., Stowell, J.A.W., Alhusaini, N., Sweet, T., Graveley, B.R., Coller, J., and Passmore, L.A. (2018). mRNA Deadenylation Is Coupled to Translation Rates by the Differential Activities of Ccr4-Not Nucleases. Mol Cell *70*, 1089-1100 e1088.

Zaghlool, A., Ameur, A., Nyberg, L., Halvardson, J., Grabherr, M., Cavelier, L., and Feuk, L. (2013). Efficient cellular fractionation improves RNA sequencing analysis of mature and nascent transcripts from human tissues. BMC Biotechnol *13*, 99.

Zerbino, D.R., Achuthan, P., Akanni, W., Amode, M.R., Barrell, D., Bhai, J., Billis, K., Cummins, C., Gall, A., Giron, C.G., *et al.* (2018). Ensembl 2018. Nucleic Acids Res *46*, D754-D761.

Zhang, L., Kasif, S., Cantor, C.R., and Broude, N.E. (2004). GC/AT-content spikes as genomic punctuation marks. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences *101*, 16855-16860.

Zhou, Z., Dang, Y., Zhou, M., Li, L., Yu, C.H., Fu, J., Chen, S., and Liu, Y. (2016). Codon usage is an important determinant of gene expression levels largely through its effects on transcription. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A *113*, E6117-E6125.

Zolotukhin, S., Potter, M., Hauswirth, W.W., Guy, J., and Muzyczka, N. (1996). A "humanized" green fluorescent protein cDNA adapted for high-level expression in mammalian cells. J Virol *70*, 4646-4654.