

1 **Prostate cancer resistance leads to a global deregulation of translation factors and**
2 **unconventional translation of long non-coding RNAs**

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24

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Emerging evidence associates translation factors and regulators to tumorigenesis. Recent advances in
3 our ability to perform global translome analyses indicate that our understanding of translational
4 changes in cancer resistance is still limited. Here, we generated an enzalutamide-resistant prostate cancer
5 (PCa) model, which recapitulated key features of clinical enzalutamide-resistant PCa. Using this model
6 and polysome profiling, we investigated global translation changes that occur during the acquisition of
7 PCa resistance. We found that enzalutamide-resistant cells exhibit a discordance in biological pathways
8 affected in their translome relative to their transcriptome, a deregulation of proteins involved in
9 translation, and an overall decrease in translational efficiency. We also show that genomic alterations in
10 proteins with high translational efficiency in enzalutamide-resistant cells are good predictors of poor
11 patient prognosis. Additionally, long non-coding RNAs in enzalutamide-resistant cells show increased
12 association with ribosomes, higher translation efficiency, and an even stronger correlation with poor
13 patient prognosis. Taken together, this suggests that aberrant translation of coding and non-coding genes
14 are strong indicators of PCa enzalutamide-resistance. Our findings thus point towards novel therapeutic
15 avenues that may target enzalutamide resistant PCa.

16

17 **INTRODUCTION**

18 Translation is one of the last processes in the flow of genetic information. It is a multistep and highly
19 controlled protein synthesis process consisting of three major steps, namely initiation, elongation and
20 termination (Hershey et al. 2019). Translation initiation depends on a network of interacting translation
21 initiation factors (eIFs) which are highly regulated. In particular, regulation of the activity and
22 expression of two eIFs: eIF4F and eIF2A, is under extensive study, revealing an important role for
23 translation regulation in cellular processes such as cell differentiation, growth and cell stress response
24 (Holcik and Sonenberg 2005; Chang and Stanford 2008). Dysregulation of eIFs can be linked to various
25 cancers. Altered expression or activity of components of the eIF4F complex such as *EIF4E* and *EIF4G*,
26 have been observed to support cancer cell growth by activating translation initiation of mRNAs encoding
27 key cell cycle regulators, as well as survival and oncogenic factors (Bhat et al. 2015). Furthermore,

1 *EIF4E* phosphorylation promotes prostate tumorigenesis and is elevated in castrate resistant prostate
2 cancer (PCa). This correlates with disease progression and poor clinical outcomes in patients with PCa
3 (Furic et al. 2010). On the other hand, while phosphorylation of *eIF2A* blocks general translation in
4 cases of cellular stress, it allows the preferential translation of a specific set of target mRNAs involved
5 in cell adaptation to stress and survival (Pakos-Zebrucka et al. 2016). This is in line with recent evidence
6 associating alterations in the phosphorylated *EIF2A* translational pathway with cancer, a process highly
7 linked to the cellular stress response (Koshikawa et al. 2006). Moreover, altered phosphorylation of
8 *EIF2A* has been observed to occur as an adaptive stress response in both murine and humanized models
9 of aggressive and resistant PCa (Nguyen et al. 2018). Perturbations in translation regulation may
10 therefore represent key indicators of PCa severity.

11 PCa resistance is a highly prevalent and common cause of cancer-related death worldwide (Bray et
12 al. 2018; Siegel et al. 2020). Despite effective local treatments, many patients experience recurrences
13 and eventually develop metastases (Vickers et al. 2008; Boorjian et al. 2012; KRYGIEL et al. 2005).
14 Highly dependent on androgens for growth, recurrent or metastatic PCa is treated with androgen
15 deprivation therapy (ADT). Concomitant or subsequent use of enzalutamide (ENZ), a potent androgen
16 receptor (AR) antagonist, significantly delays the consequences of treatment failure (Beer et al. 2014;
17 Armstrong et al. 2019; Davis et al. 2019). However, not all patients benefit from the therapeutic effects
18 of ENZ and all eventually develop resistance (Buttigliero et al. 2015). This highlights an urgent need to
19 find reliable markers that can predict patient response and development of resistance. Recent genomics
20 studies have led to the discovery of promising PCa biomarkers (Mikropoulos et al. 2014; Ngollo et al.
21 2014; Peng et al. 2014). Due to the relative ease of nucleic acid sequencing, a large majority of existing
22 PCa-related data focuses on transcriptomic studies analysing total RNA abundance as a stand-in for
23 protein levels. This precludes discovery of many potential biomarkers whose protein expression relies
24 mainly on the translational rate. Indeed, it is now well established that transcriptomic estimates of RNA
25 abundance alone are insufficient to capture proteins whose differential expression critically impact
26 cellular differentiation and growth, environmental and pathological stress, or tumorigenesis
27 (Schwanhäusser et al. 2011; Maier et al. 2009). This is in part due to the complex regulatory mechanisms

1 that orchestrate the translation of RNAs. It is estimated that about 40 % of protein level variations are
2 due to translational regulation. Thus, accurate estimation and identification of relevant protein variations
3 occurring in various cancers including PCa calls for integrative methods that measure the transcriptome,
4 the RNAs associated with translating poly(ribo)somes (translatome), as well as the proteome.

5 Monitoring the translational status of entire transcripts via polysome profiling and RNA sequencing
6 (RNA-seq) is a powerful approach used to identify ribosome-associated RNAs (Coudert et al. 2014).
7 Indeed, several polysome profiling studies on cancer cell lines have recently succeeded to identify
8 cancer cell-specific signatures not detected by standard RNA-seq analyses (Lupinacci et al. 2019;
9 Kusnadi et al. 2020; Wahba et al. 2016). Hsieh *et al.* reported the first study in PCa using polysome
10 profiling (Hsieh et al. 2012); however, they analysed AR-negative PCa cells in their work, which may
11 not be a direct reflection of the acquisition of ENZ-resistance observed in patients. They found that
12 *eIF4F*, driven by its upstream mTORC1 signaling regulatory pathway, promotes a metastatic phenotype
13 in PCa through preferential translation of mRNAs encoding proteins involved in cell invasion and
14 metastases. This is consistent with data revealing the PI3K/AKT/mTOR translational pathway as a key
15 oncogenic pathway in treating resistant PCa (TOREN and ZOUBEIDI 2014). Even though accumulating
16 evidence supports a potential role played by translation regulation in the progression of PCa, the role of
17 translational changes in the acquisition of ADT resistance or ENZ-resistance in PCa remains unknown.

18 To investigate perturbations in the translatome acquired upon PCa ENZ-resistance, we utilize an
19 integrative approach merging global analysis of RNAs by RNA-Seq and of their association to
20 ribosomes through poly(ribo)some profiling in ENZ-sensitive and ENZ-resistant PCa cell lines. We
21 apply this method to a novel model of castration-resistant (ENZ-sensitive) and ENZ-resistant PCa we
22 developed from the well-known AR-positive VCaP prostate cancer cell line (Korenchuk et al. 2001).
23 These analyses are complemented by use of the ENZ-resistant MR49F cell line and its sensitive parental
24 cell line LNCaP (Bishop et al. 2017). These results were corroborated by mass spectrometry and publicly
25 available gene expression data, suggesting that translation is indeed globally altered during acquisition
26 of resistance. Furthermore, our analysis revealed enrichment of long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs)
27 associated to ribosomes, which may suggest aberrant translation of novel peptides in the context of ENZ-

1 resistant PCa. Our findings thus point towards novel biomarkers or therapeutic targets which are
2 involved in PCa resistance to treatment.

3 RESULTS

4 Recapitulation and characterization of ENZ-resistant PCa

5 With the advent of potent AR-antagonists such as enzalutamide as first line therapy for castration-
6 resistant prostate cancer (CRPC) patients, a few ENZ-resistant cellular models were developed (Simon
7 et al. 2021; Hoefer et al. 2016). Among the first and most widely characterized ENZ-resistant cells
8 (Kuruma et al. 2013; Toren et al. 2015; Bishop et al. 2017) were MR49F, generated through serial
9 passage of LNCaP cells (androgen-sensitive prostate adenocarcinoma cells) in ENZ-treated mice
10 (Kuruma et al. 2013). In an effort to develop a complementary model from human PCa cells with a wild-
11 type AR (AR in LNCaP is mutated (Veldscholte et al. 1992)) (Table 1) and a concomitantly passaged

12 castration-resistant control, we used a similar
13 approach with the VCaP cell line (Kuruma et al.
14 2013). VCaP cells were inoculated in male
15 athymic nude mice (Fig. 1A); mice were
16 surgically castrated, and cells termed VCaP^{CRPC}
17 were derived from tumors resistant to castration.

Table 1. Characteristics of AR in PCa cell lines

Cell line	Androgen Receptor	AR-V7 splice variant levels
VCaP	Wild-type	Low-moderate
VCaP ^{CRPC}	Wild-type	Low-moderate
VCaP ^{ER}	Wild-type*	High
LNCaP	T878A mutant	Very low
MR49F	T878A and F876L mutant	Very low

18 In parallel, castrate-resistant tumors were treated with ENZ until regrowth, at which time the VCaP^{ER}
19 cell line was established.

20 To confirm acquisition of ENZ-resistance in VCaP^{ER} cells, we performed proliferation assays for
21 VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER} in the presence or absence of ENZ. ENZ treatment reduced cell proliferation of
22 VCaP^{CRPC} cells while VCaP^{ER} cells were unaffected (Fig. 1B). Furthermore, we found that VCaP^{ER}
23 displayed both increased AR and AR-V7 splice variant (Antonarakis et al. 2014) expression (Fig. 1C;
24 Table 1). This variant encodes a truncated protein that lacks the C-terminal ligand-binding domain but
25 retains the N-terminal domain and could therefore constitutively activate downstream target genes
26 involved in PCa progression (Nadiminty et al. 2013; Mostaghel et al. 2011). AR-V7 expression is higher

Figure 1

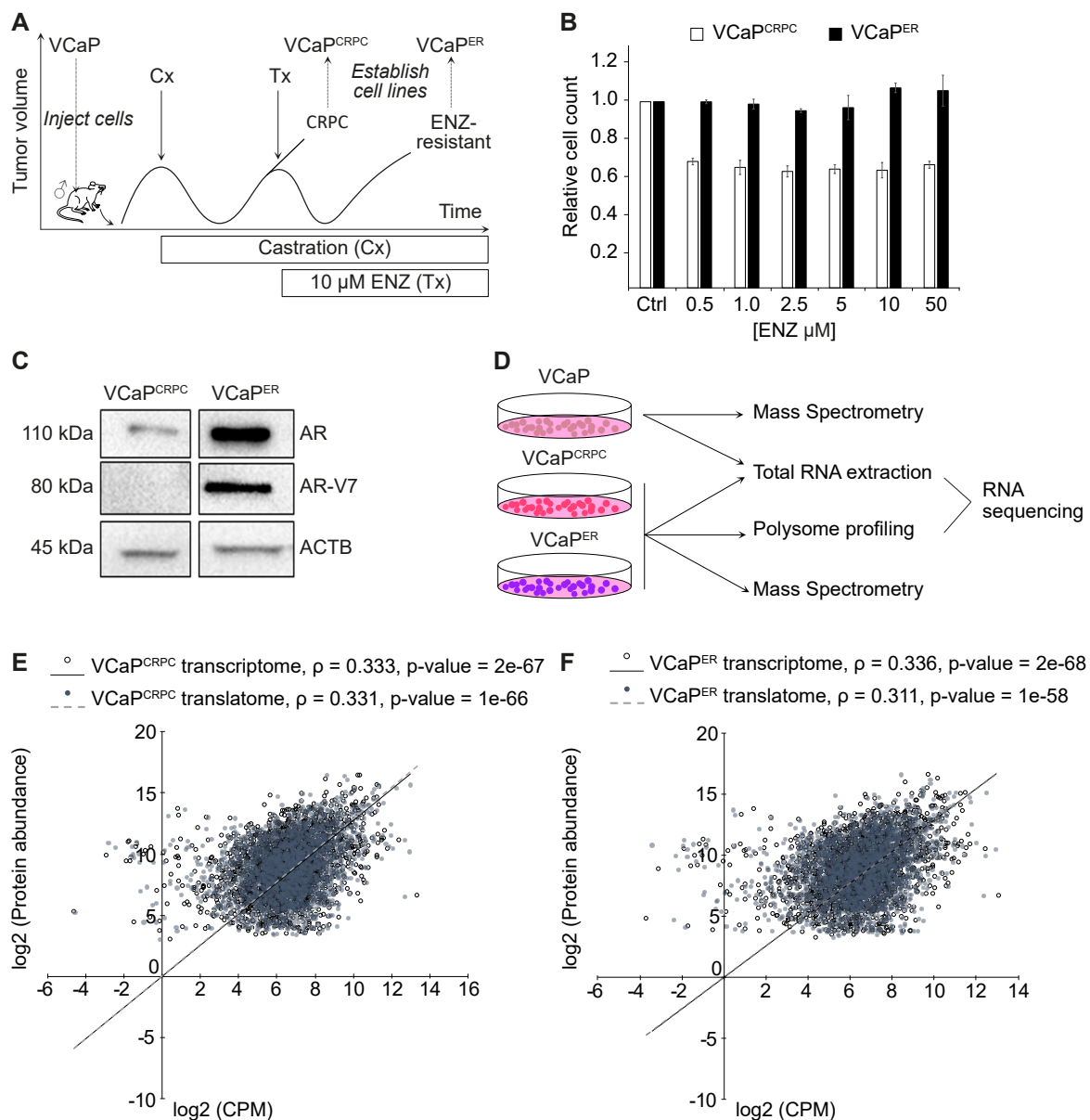


Figure 1. Establishment of Enzalutamide (ENZ)-resistant Prostate Cancer (PCa) cellular models. (A) Experimental approach to establish PCa resistance in mice model and to derive ENZ-sensitive and ENZ-resistant cell lines. Cx : surgical castration, Tx : ENZ treatment. **(B)** Cell proliferation assays on VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER} performed with increasing quantities of ENZ. **(C)** Western-Blot showing expression of Androgen Receptor (AR) and resistance-specific splice variant AR-V7 in VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC}. **(D)** Analysis of transcriptome, translome and proteome in PCa cell lines: Transcriptome and proteome from VCaP, VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER} and translome from VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER}. **(E)** Scatterplot and Pearson correlation analysis showing correlation between transcriptome and proteome (empty dots) and between translome and proteome (full dots) of the VCaP^{CRPC} **(F)** and the VCaP^{ER} cell lines. Correlation coefficients (ρ) and linear regression (grey lines) are indicated.

1 in advanced PCa and has been linked to ENZ resistance. These results indicate that our ENZ-resistant
2 VCaP^{ER} cell line recapitulates key characteristics of clinical ENZ-resistant prostate cancer.

3 To understand how transcription and translation are coordinated during acquisition of ENZ-resistance
4 in PCa, we analyzed the transcriptome (i.e. total RNA-seq), translome (i.e. Heavy polysome-bound
5 RNA-seq) and proteome (i.e. total proteins quantified by mass spectrometry (MS)) from the VCaP^{CRPC}
6 and VCaP^{ER} cell lines, and the transcriptome and proteome from the parental VCaP cell line (Fig. 1D;
7 Supplemental Table S1, Supplemental Table S2). Comparison of polysome profiles revealed no obvious
8 differences between VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER} (Supplemental Fig S1A, B). Additionally, through Pearson
9 correlation coefficient (ρ) analysis, we found that the transcriptome and translome correlated well in
10 both cell lines (Supplemental Fig. S1C, D). We further observed relatively moderate correlations
11 between transcriptome and proteome in VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER} ($\rho = 0.333$ and $\rho = 0.336$ respectively)
12 and between their translome and proteome ($\rho = 0.331$ and $\rho = 0.311$ respectively) (Fig. 1E, F).
13 Interestingly, although not significant, we do observe a modestly lower correlation between the
14 translome and proteome of the ENZ-resistant of VCaP^{ER} cell line ($\rho = 0.311$) relative to the other
15 comparisons. This may indicate a slight shift in the translational landscape during prostate cancer ENZ-
16 resistance.

17 **ENZ-resistance is accompanied by changes in the translome**

18 To provide a global view of changes to the translome that are related to ENZ resistance, we performed
19 differential expression analysis on total and heavy polysome-bound RNA-seq. We found several RNAs
20 differentially bound to ribosomes between VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC} (695 and 794, respectively) but not
21 differentially expressed (Fig. 2A, B). Meanwhile, only 489 and 225 RNAs were upregulated in VCaP^{ER}
22 and VCaP^{CRPC} respectively. Upon a GO term analysis, we observed similar GO term enrichment
23 between the translome and the transcriptome of VCaP^{CRPC}, with several processes linked to cell
24 membrane, cell adhesion, and development (Fig. 2C; Supplemental Fig. S2A; Supplemental Table S3).
25 In contrast, the translome and transcriptome of VCaP^{ER} showed different enriched GO terms.
26 Interestingly, the VCaP^{ER} transcriptome showed enrichment for GO terms similar to the ones in

Figure 2

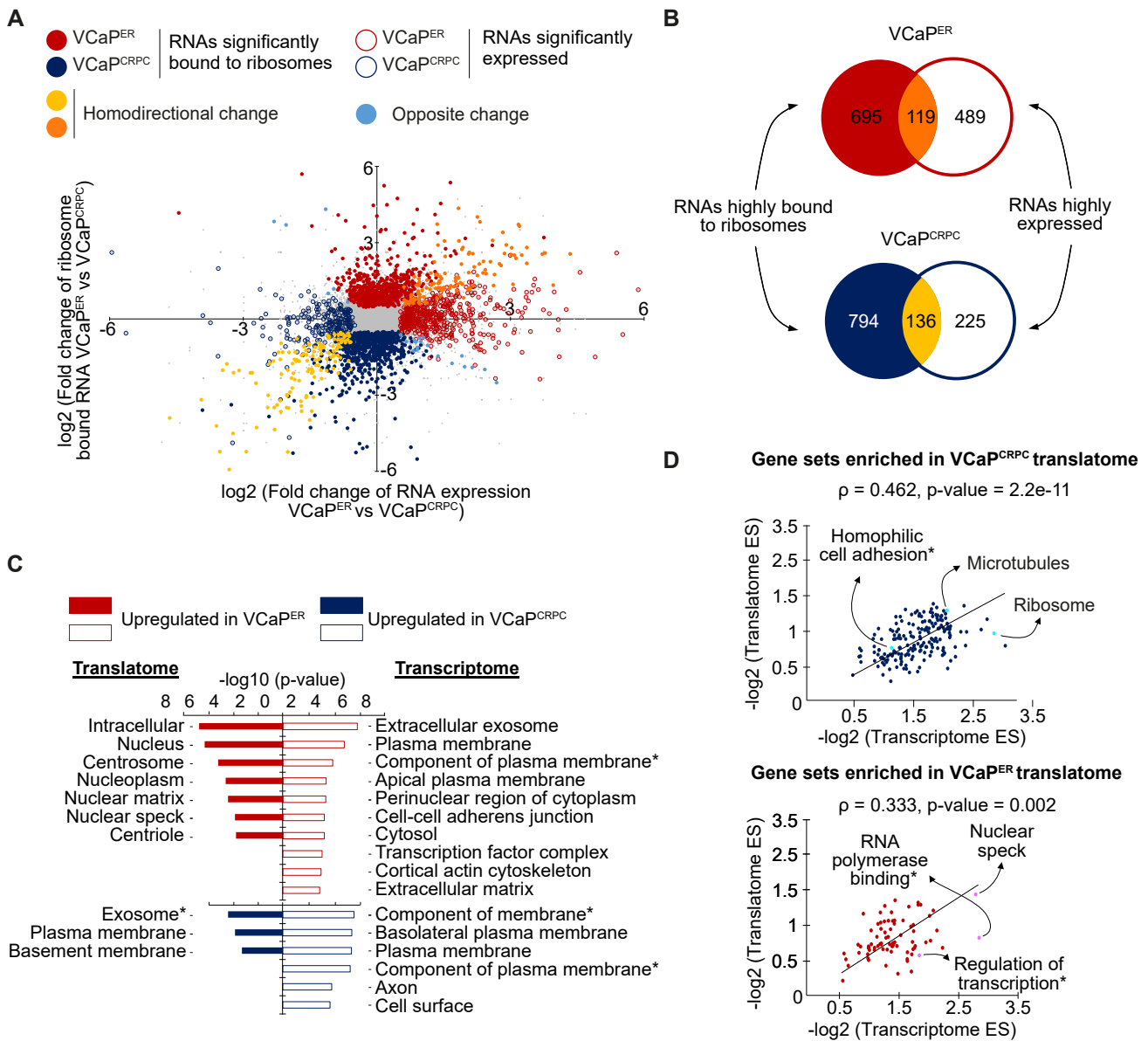


Figure 2. Transcriptome and translato analysis highlights variations in translated genes in VCaP^{ER}. (A) Scatterplot plot and (B) Venn diagram highlighting RNAs significantly up or downregulated (empty circles) or bound to ribosomes (full circles) in VCaP^{ER} (red) compared to VCaP^{CRPC} (blue). Significant genes are colored (adjusted p-value <0.05) (n=2 RNA-seq replicates for polysome profiling; n=2 RNA-seq replicates for total RNA sequencing). (C) GO term enrichment analysis shows top 10 significant cellular component terms (GOCC) enriched for genes upregulated in the translato

1 VCaP^{CRPC}, while the VCaP^{ER} translome GO terms were associated with transcription regulation and
2 proteins localized to the nucleus.

3 To corroborate these results, we performed gene set enrichment analyses (GSEA) comparing the
4 translome with the transcriptome in either VCaP^{ER} or VCaP^{CRPC}. We again observed cytoplasmic and
5 membrane-linked gene sets enriched in total and polysomal RNA of VCaP^{CRPC}, but also in total RNA
6 for VCaP^{ER} (Supplemental Fig. S2B-D; Supplemental Table S4). In contrast, polysomal RNA in VCaP^{ER}
7 was enriched for gene sets involved in nuclear processes such as transcription and RNA polymerase
8 binding (Supplemental Fig. S2E; Supplemental Table S4). Furthermore, enrichment scores (ES) for gene
9 sets enriched in the translome of VCaP^{ER} show only a moderate correlation ($\rho = 0.333$) with ES for
10 gene sets enriched in the transcriptome of VCaP^{ER} (Fig. 2D). However, in VCaP^{CRPC}, ES for gene sets
11 enriched in the translome correlated relatively well with ES corresponding to the transcriptome ($\rho =$
12 0.462). Again using GSEA, but this time considering gene sets that were enriched in the transcriptomes
13 of VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER}, we found a strong correlation between ES in the translome and
14 transcriptome for both cell lines ($\rho = 0.457$ in VCaP^{CRPC}, $\rho = 0.489$ in VCaP^{ER}) (Supplemental Fig. S2F).
15 This suggests that gene sets or pathways enriched within the translome of the ENZ-resistant cell line
16 VCaP^{ER} are unique to these cells and differ from both their transcriptome, and the translome and
17 transcriptome of VCaP^{CRPC}. Taken together, these results are indicative of perturbations in the
18 translational landscape during ENZ-resistance acquisition. This could potentially cause changes in the
19 expression of specific proteins and may therefore participate in promoting the resistant phenotype
20 exhibited by VCaP^{ER} cells.

21 **ENZ-resistant cells exhibit deregulated protein expression of translation regulators**

22 To understand how changes in ribosome association affect the resulting protein levels in ENZ-resistant
23 cells, we analyzed differential expression of total proteins. Using MS, we identified 2548 proteins of
24 which 485 were differentially expressed between ENZ-sensitive and resistant cell lines (Fig. 3A;
25 Supplemental Fig. S3A-C; Supplemental Table S2). To further validate that the proteins highly
26 expressed in VCaP^{ER} were linked to ENZ-resistance globally and not specific to our model, we
27 quantified the proteome of another ENZ-resistant cell line (MR49F), which was derived from LNCaP

Figure 3

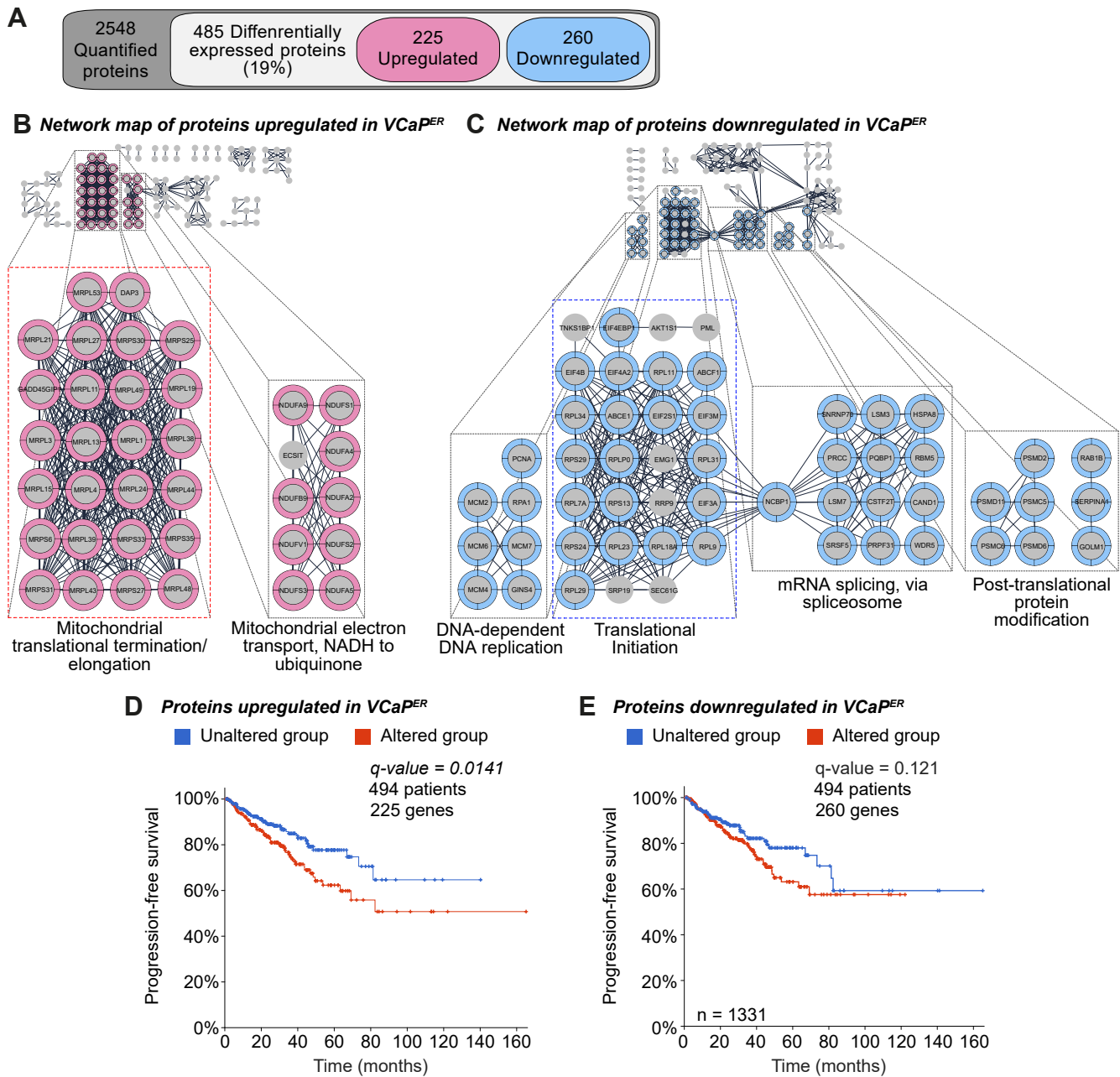


Figure 3. Changes occur in the proteomic landscape upon resistance acquisition. (A) Mass spectrometry results show differentially expressed proteins in VCaP^{ER} cells compared to VCaP^{CRPC} **(B)** Network analysis shows clusters formed by proteins up or **(C)** downregulated in VCaP^{ER}. Main clusters are identified and highlighted in pink (upregulated clusters) and blue (downregulated clusters). A switch between cytoplasmic and mitochondrial translation-associated networks is highlighted by dashed frames (blue for cytoplasmic and red for mitochondrial translation). **(E)** Kaplan-Meier graph of progression-free survival for patients according to alterations in genes coding for proteins up or **(F)** downregulated in VCaP^{ER}.

1 cells (Bishop et al. 2017). We show that proteins highly expressed in VCaP^{ER} corresponded well with
2 those highly expressed in MR49F, which was not the case for downregulated proteins (i.e. highly
3 expressed in VCaP^{CRPC}) (Supplemental Fig. S3D, E). We therefore focused on this set of differentially
4 expressed proteins as a starting point to identify gene pathways or biological processes implicated in
5 ENZ-resistant PCa. Hence, we performed a gene network analysis and found that ENZ-resistance
6 promoted up-regulation of two main clusters: mitochondrial translation factors, with multiple
7 mitochondrial ribosomal proteins upregulated, as well as mitochondrial electron transport, with
8 numerous subunits of the NADH: ubiquinone oxidoreductase complex (mitochondrial respiratory
9 complex I) (Fig. 3B; Supplemental Fig. S4A; Supplemental Table S5). Additionally, four main clusters
10 were observed for proteins downregulated in VCaP^{ER}, showing involvement in DNA-dependent DNA
11 replication, translational initiation, mRNA splicing and post-translational protein modification (Fig. 3C;
12 Supplemental Fig. S4B; Supplemental Table S5). Most notably, various core translation regulators such
13 as EIF4B and EIF4EBP1, and ribosomal proteins such as RPL9, RPL11, RPS13 and RPS24, which have
14 already been linked to malignant PCa (Mangangcha et al. 2019; Arthurs et al. 2017; Hernández et al.
15 2019; Hsieh et al. 2015), were found to be downregulated in VCaP^{ER} (Fig. 3C). These results were
16 corroborated by GSEA (Supplemental Fig. S4C; Supplemental Table S6) and together, suggest that
17 ENZ-resistance affects overall translation and promotes a switch from cytoplasmic to mitochondrial
18 translation.

19 To evaluate the correlation between proteins enriched in our ENZ-resistance model and patient tumor
20 data, we explored publicly available data sets through cBioPortal (Cerami et al. 2012; Gao et al. 2013).
21 However, due to lack of available ENZ-resistance proteomic datasets and the fact that PCa is a cancer
22 driven by copy number alterations (Fraser et al. 2017), we opted to correlate our data to genomic
23 alterations identified in PCa patients, which consisted mainly of gene amplifications or deep deletions
24 (Supplemental Fig. S5A). As such, we investigated copy number variations occurring in genomic loci
25 for differentially expressed proteins from our model, in relation to patient clinical outcomes in the TCGA
26 dataset. We found that these genomic alterations for proteins upregulated in VCaP^{ER} corresponded to
27 significantly lower disease-free survival in PCa patients (Supplemental Fig. S5B). This difference

1 between the altered and unaltered groups was also apparent with downregulated proteins but to a much
2 lesser extent (Supplemental Fig. S5C). However, a stronger link can be established between worse
3 progression-free survival and copy number variations in the VCaP^{ER} upregulated proteins, but not with
4 the downregulated proteins (Fig. 3D, E). Interestingly, for all differentially expressed proteins, either
5 up- or downregulated in VCaP^{ER}, significant correlation was found with low overall patient survival
6 (Supplemental Fig. S5D, E) and high Gleason score (Supplemental Fig. S5F, G). This suggests that
7 focusing on the genomic alterations of VCaP^{ER} upregulated proteins can distinguish between overall and
8 disease/progression-free survival of patients. We also attempted to validate our data to address the
9 effects of alterations on gene expression; however, analysis of genomic and transcriptomic data from
10 TCGA samples revealed that copy number variations were not always accompanied by changes in RNA
11 expression (Supplemental Fig. S6A, B). This implies that the association of the identified genes with
12 PCa severity and/or drug resistance could indeed be independent of transcription and RNA levels, and
13 hence depend on downstream processes such as post-transcriptional and translation regulation.
14 Altogether, these patient data suggest that all differentially expressed proteins from VCaP^{ER} and
15 VCaP^{CRPC} may be implicated in overall cancer aggressiveness. However, only the proteins upregulated
16 in VCaP^{ER} correlate with progression-free survival, which may indicate a link with the development of
17 cancer resistance, causing recurrence in PCa patients.

18 **Enzalutamide resistance coincides with decreased translation efficiency**

19 To further explore the origins of the altered protein landscape observed in ENZ-resistant cells, we
20 focused our analysis on translation efficiency (TE) of RNAs, which is determined by dividing read
21 counts per million mapped reads (CPM) of RNAs in polysome profiling by the CPM of the
22 corresponding genes in total RNA-seq ($CPM_{\text{Polysome profiling}}/CPM_{\text{Total RNA}}$) in VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC} cells.
23 We then calculated the TE ratio for each gene by taking the fold change in TE values between VCaP^{ER}
24 and VCaP^{CRPC} (Supplemental Table S7) to evaluate the global effect of ENZ-resistance on translation.
25 We found a negative shift in TE ratios in genes with significant differential TE values (DTE) between
26 VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC} cells (Fig. 4A; median value of -0.39) suggesting that ENZ-resistance has a
27 negative impact on overall translation. Moreover, GO term analysis of genes exhibiting a high TE ratio

Figure 4

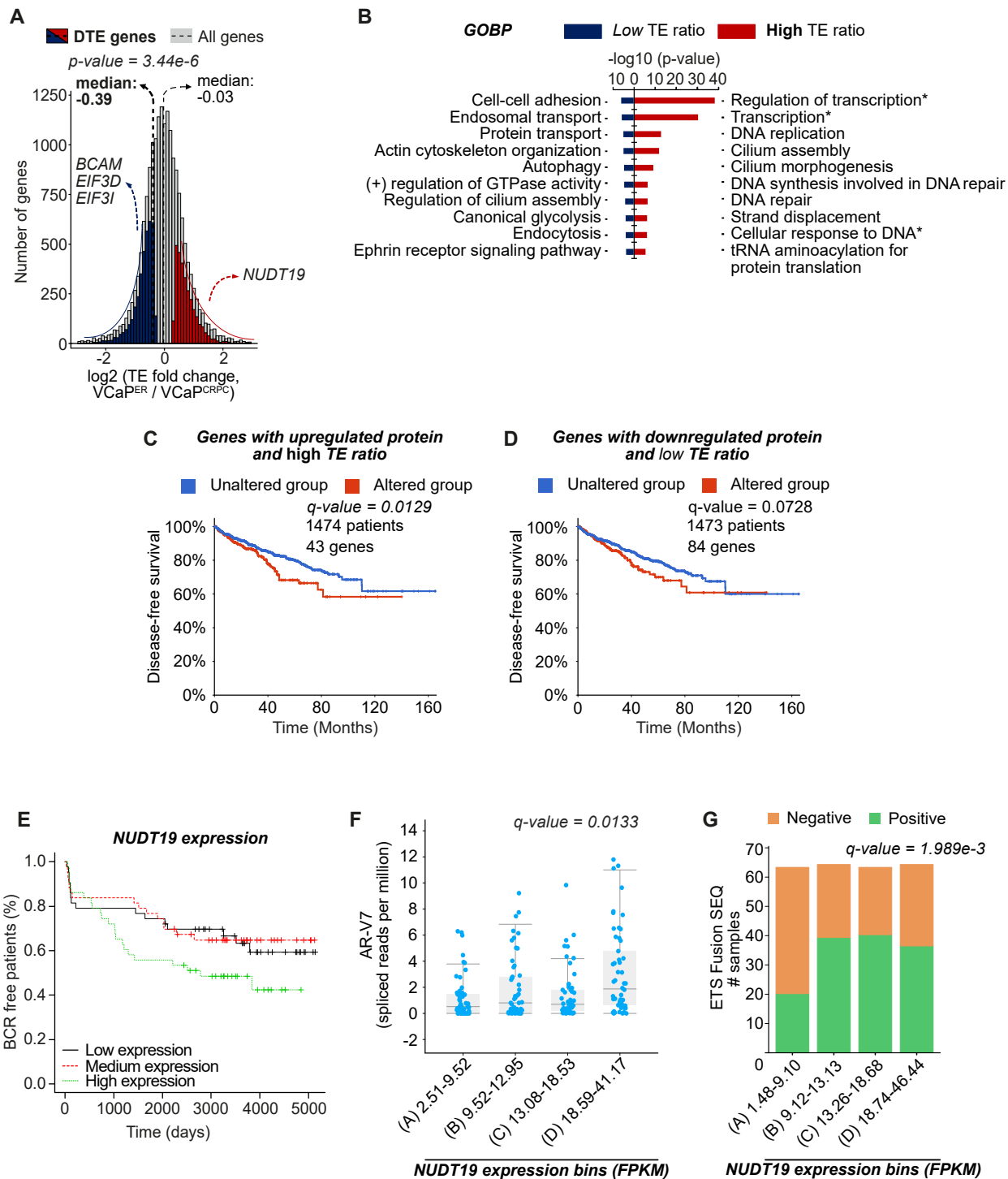


Figure 4. Enzalutamide resistance is accompanied by shifts in translation efficiency. **(A)** TE ratio distribution for all genes (pale grey) or genes with significant DTE in $VCaP^{ER}$ compared to $VCaP^{CRPC}$ (red for higher and blue for lower TE ratio). Medians are marked with dashed lines (thin lines for all genes, bold line for DTE genes). **(B)** GO term enrichment analysis shows top 10 significant biological process terms (GOBP) enriched in genes with low (blue) or high (red) TE ratios in $VCaP^{ER}$ compared to $VCaP^{CRPC}$. *Full names of GO terms: regulation of transcription, DNA-templated, transcription, DNA-templated, cellular response to DNA damage stimulus, (C) Kaplan-Meier graph of disease-free survival for PCa patients according to alterations in genes with either high or **(D)** low TE ratios. **(E)** Percentage of biochemical recurrence (BCR) for PCa patients expressing high, medium, or low protein levels of *NUDT19* in tissue microarrays. **(F)** Boxplot of *AR-V7* expression according to *NUDT19* expression in PCa patients. **(G)** Occurrence of ETS fusion according to *NUDT19* expression in PCa patients.

1 shows an enrichment in nuclear GO terms (e.g.: nucleus, nucleoplasm, regulation of transcription, DNA
2 replication and repair), whereas low TE ratio genes show enrichment for membrane or cytoplasmic GO
3 terms (e.g.: membrane, cytosol, cell-cell adhesion, endosomal transport) (Fig. 4B; Supplemental Fig.
4 S7A, Supplemental Table S8). This reflects our previously explored GO terms in the VCaP^{ER} and
5 VCaP^{CRPC} translome and underscores an ENZ-resistance induced reduction in translation efficiency.

6 To identify potential biomarkers of PCa ENZ-resistance, we combined TE ratio results with our
7 proteome data and focused on genes that possessed both differential protein expression as well as a
8 corresponding differential TE ratio (Supplemental Fig. S7B). We found several candidate genes with
9 high TE ratio (i.e higher TE in VCaP^{ER}), which are implicated in metabolic processes, such as *NUDT19*
10 (Nudix hydrolase 19) or *SHMT1* (Serine Hydroxymethyltransferase 1), whereas genes with lower TE
11 ratios were implicated in cellular adherence, for example: *BCAM*, or translation initiation, such as
12 *EIF3D* and *EIF3I* (subunits of the eIF3 core translation initiation factor). To evaluate their association
13 with PCa clinical features, we again used TCGA patient genomic alteration data to correlate to patient
14 related outcome. We observed that alterations such as copy number variations in genes from both
15 categories (either up or downregulated TE ratios and protein expression in VCaP^{ER}) were associated
16 with significantly lower overall patient survival and were frequent in intermediate to high grade PCa
17 (Supplemental Fig. S8A-D), underlining their potential role in PCa severity. Lower disease-free
18 survival, however, was observed exclusively in the case of alterations in genes with high TE ratios and
19 high protein expression in VCaP^{ER} (Fig. 4C, D). This highlights the fact that while genes with high
20 protein expression and TE in either VCaP^{ER} or VCaP^{CRPC} are generally linked to higher cancer
21 aggressiveness and lower patient survival, only those associated with VCaP^{ER} seem to be connected to
22 disease recurrence in patients. Moreover, only some genes show significant changes in RNA expression
23 according to copy number variation (Supplemental Fig. S9A, B). For example, *SHMT1* and *NUDT19*
24 exhibit high TE ratios in VCaP^{ER}, but show no significant changes in mRNA expression in cases of copy
25 number variations. This highlights the fact that post-transcriptional mechanisms such as altered
26 translation could potentially explain the link between these genes and decreased patient survival.

1 In order to see if the identified candidate genes with high TE ratios could act as potential biomarkers,
2 we investigated NUDT19, a protein involved in RNA de-capping (Song et al. 2013) which has not yet
3 been investigated in PCa and whose expression was validated in the ENZ-resistant MR49F cell line
4 (Supplemental Fig. S10A). Using patient tissue microarray analyses, we show that high NUDT19
5 expression corresponds with earlier biochemical recurrence (BCR) post-prostatectomy (Fig. 4E).
6 Furthermore, *NUDT19* expression correlated with a higher expression of the androgen receptor splice
7 variant *AR-V7* (Fig. 4F), a high AR score in patients (Supplemental Fig. S10B) and a higher occurrence
8 of the PCa-specific ETS fusion (Tandefelt et al. 2014) (Fig. 4G). Changes in *NUDT19* expression are
9 also observed to be linked to significant increases in both the total fraction of the genome that is altered
10 and the total mutation count in PCa samples, as well as inversely correlated to neuroendocrine PCa
11 (NEPC) markers (Supplemental Fig. S10C-F). Together, these results reveal that incorporating
12 proteome, translome and transcriptome data can lead to the discovery of potent novel biomarkers for
13 PCa severity or resistance.

14 **ENZ-resistance is linked to aberrant long non-coding RNA association to ribosomes**

15 Following our investigations demonstrating the perturbation of protein-coding genes in ENZ-resistance,
16 we next sought to investigate noncanonical associations with ribosomes. Indeed, many groups have put
17 forward that cancer cells translate peptides noncanonically, promoting tumor initiation or growth (Wu
18 et al. 2020; Sriram et al. 2018; Sendoel et al. 2017; Schuster and Hsieh 2019). We therefore first looked
19 at ribosome association for non-coding genes in our ENZ-resistance model. We found that, while coding
20 genes show no difference in association to ribosomes compared to what is expected, lncRNAs and
21 processed transcripts were significantly over-represented in the VCaP^{ER} heavy polysome bound RNA
22 (Supplemental Fig. S11A). We investigated if the previously observed global decrease in TE (Fig. 4A)
23 occurred in both coding and non-coding genes. Interestingly, while a similar decrease could be observed
24 for mRNAs (median = -0.41 for mRNAs with DTE), lncRNAs on the other hand, showed an inverse
25 pattern, with a generally higher TE ratio in VCaP^{ER} (median = 0.51 for lncRNAs with DTE) (Fig. 5A).
26 Consequently, the number of lncRNAs with significantly higher TE ratios in VCaP^{ER} was higher than
27 expected (Supplemental Fig. S11B). Taken together, these findings suggest that some lncRNAs may

Figure 5

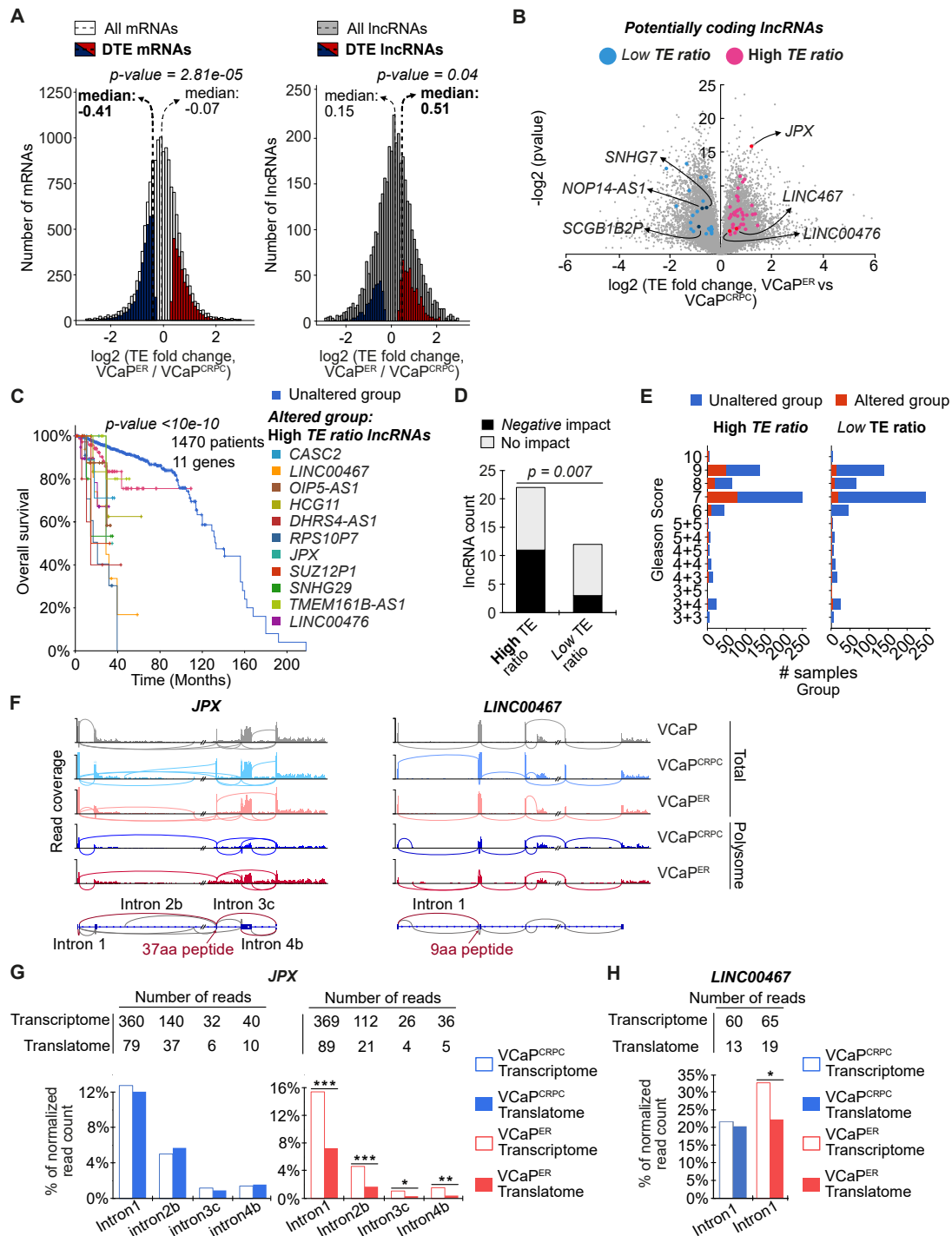


Figure 5. Aberrant association of lncRNAs to ribosomes in PCa drug resistance. **(A)** TE ratio distributions for all genes, or for genes with differential translation efficiency (DTE) in VCaP^{ER} compared to VCaP^{CRPC} (red for higher and blue for lower TE ratio) for mRNAs and lncRNAs. Medians are marked with dashed lines (thin lines for all genes, bold line for DTE genes). **(B)** Volcano plot of lncRNAs with high (pink) and low (blue) translation efficiencies in VCaP^{ER}, which were also detected in MS datasets. **(C)** Kaplan-Meier graph showing overall survival for PCa patients according to alteration of single lncRNAs with high TE ratios, correlating to poor patient outcome. **(D)** Quantification of lncRNAs with either high or low TE ratios, whose alteration positively or negatively correlate with PCa patient survival. **(E)** Distribution of Gleason scores for patients according to alterations in lncRNAs with high or low TE ratios in VCaP^{ER}. **(F)** Sashimi plots for two candidate lncRNAs in PCa cell lines showing read coverage and splice junction usage. Schematics show potential alternatively spliced introns (red) and putative peptides for JPX (left) and LINC00467 (right). **(G)** Quantification of JPX or **(H)** LINC00467 lncRNA split reads count for selected splicing events, corresponding to alternatively spliced transcripts in the transcriptome and translatome of VCaP^{CRPC} (blue) or VCaP^{ER} (red) (*: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$).

1 actually code for peptides or undergo aberrant translation in resistant PCa. To investigate this hypothesis,
2 we searched for putative peptides produced from lncRNAs with higher TE ratios in VCaP^{DER} in our MS
3 data of VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{DER}, as well as in other publicly available datasets (Chen et al. 2020a; Bazzini
4 et al. 2014; Slavoff et al. 2013), resulting in 189 lncRNA-encoded peptides being detected
5 (Supplemental Table S9). Of these lncRNA-encoded peptides, 41 exhibited higher TE ratios in VCaP^{DER},
6 while 23 lncRNAs with low TE ratio were also detected (Fig. 5B). To evaluate the importance of these
7 lncRNAs in PCa patient overall survival, we again used the TCGA PCa dataset, which contained data
8 for 22 high TE lncRNAs and 12 low TE lncRNAs. We observed that high TE lncRNAs were subject to
9 genomic alterations such as copy number variations much more frequently than low TE lncRNAs in
10 prostate tumors (Supplemental Fig. S12A). By investigating patient survival in cases of alterations for
11 these lncRNAs, we found that gene amplifications or deep deletions for both lncRNAs with high and
12 low TE ratios could correspond to poor overall patient survival (Supplemental Fig. S12B). In fact, of
13 the 22 lncRNAs with high TE ratios, 11 showed a strong negative correlation with overall survival (Fig.
14 5C, D; Supplemental Fig. S12C), whereas alterations in only 3 out of the 12 lncRNAs with low TE ratios
15 correlated with poor patient outcome (Fig. 5D; Supplemental Fig. S12D, E). This is a significantly lower
16 fraction compared to high TE ratio lncRNAs suggesting that lncRNAs with high TE detected in VCaP^{DER}
17 are more likely to be copy number altered in resistant PCa. We then investigated if alterations for these
18 lncRNAs could also be linked to PCa grade. Analysis of Gleason scores from PCa patients revealed a
19 high prevalence of alterations in intermediate to high grade cancer, most notably in lncRNAs with high
20 TE ratios but to a lesser extent for low TE ratio lncRNAs (Fig. 5E; Supplemental Fig. S12F).
21 Interestingly, for some of the identified lncRNAs, expression of the transcript was significantly altered
22 upon genomic alterations, (Supplemental Fig. S13A, B). For example, the expression of lncRNAs such
23 as *CRNDE*, *OIP5-ASI* (also known as *Cyrano*) and *JPX* vary following the type of alteration. Other
24 lncRNAs such as *LINC00467* and *TMEM147-ASI* do not seem to be affected, in terms of RNA
25 expression, by copy number variations, and a higher translation efficiency for these lncRNAs might
26 therefore explain their link with PCa and drug resistance. These findings underscore a novel link
27 between lncRNA association to ribosomes and high grade or resistant PCa.

1 We next asked what drives a nuclear lncRNA, such as *JPX*, to be shuttled into the cytoplasm to be
2 translated. One possibility resides in the production of alternative isoforms for these lncRNAs, for which
3 the subcellular localization could be cytoplasmic, a process under increasing scrutiny for various RNAs
4 (Zeng and Hamada 2020; Yoshimoto et al. 2017), which could lead to the production of peptides. We
5 found that some lncRNAs with high TE ratios such as *JPX*, *LINC00467* and *WARS_ASI*, showed several
6 events of alternative splicing in VCaP^{ER} (Fig. 5F-H; Supplemental Fig. S14A, B). Moreover, *JPX*
7 presents several variations in exon choice between the VCaP^{ER} translome and transcriptome (Fig. 5G;
8 Supplemental Fig. S14B). Interestingly, these changes are absent from VCaP^{CRPC} and may therefore
9 explain the increase in TE observed for *JPX* in VCaP^{ER}. Another lncRNA, *LINC00467*, shows similar
10 switches in isoform expression between VCaP^{ER} total and polysome-bound RNAs but not in VCaP^{CRPC}
11 (Fig. 5H; Supplemental Fig. S14B). Interestingly, the putative peptide-coding sequences in *JPX* and
12 *LINC00467* are on their fourth and second exons respectively and are both directly adjacent to splice
13 junctions whose activities differ between VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC} (Fig. 5F). Altogether, these results
14 show that alternative splicing of lncRNAs could lead to splice variants which may differentially bind to
15 ribosomes, to either be translated or affect translation of other genes. Existence of these lncRNA variants
16 could explain the aberrant association to ribosomes which is observed in VCaP^{ER} and grant coding
17 potential to otherwise non-coding genes in the context of PCa resistance.

18 **DISCUSSION**

19 Genomic alterations in cancer are often viewed as the top of the hierarchy driving cancer biology through
20 downstream transcription and subsequent translation to protein. However, it would be false to assume
21 that changes on one of these three levels (genomic, transcriptomic, and proteomic) are necessarily direct
22 and linear. Indeed, various regulatory mechanisms are responsible for finely controlling the processes
23 that leads to mature proteins in our cells, and several of these regulatory steps are altered in cancer. Here,
24 we report, to the best of our knowledge, the first detailed analysis of the translome in drug resistant
25 PCa, which we investigated using novel models of ENZ-resistance. We show that only 20% of RNAs
26 significantly more transcribed in our drug resistant PCa model are also upregulated in the polysomal
27 fractions (119 out of 608 genes). Additionally, both transcribed and polysome-associated RNAs only

1 moderately correlate with proteins detected by MS, which suggests post-transcriptional regulatory
2 mechanisms not detectable in genomic or transcriptomic data. Indeed, previous studies have also shown
3 low correlation between the abundance of specific RNA transcripts and of their related protein in cancer
4 (CPTAC et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2016a, 2014). This is due, at least in part, to translational control,
5 which remains one of the key checkpoints for regulating the expression of protein coding genes.
6 Mounting evidence further shows an association between cancer resistance and perturbation of
7 translation mechanisms, through upregulation or downregulation of certain translation factors and
8 signalling pathways such as mTOR, *EIF4B* or eIF2 (Hernández et al. 2019; Murugan 2019). Recent
9 publications have shown that affecting these pathways and regulators of translation is a promising target
10 for cancer therapy (Hua et al. 2019; Hernández et al. 2019). We found that the main pathways
11 deregulated in ENZ-resistant PCa cells were indeed implicated in translation, namely translation
12 initiation and mitochondrial translation. We show that the main genes upregulated in the context of PCa
13 drug-resistance are genes affecting mitochondrial translation and metabolism, for example
14 mitochondrial ribosomal proteins and subunits from the mitochondrial respiratory complex I. This is
15 consistent with previous data reporting clinical therapeutics targeting mitochondrial processes such as
16 Gossypol, the G3139 anti-sense oligonucleotide and 2-deoxy-d-glucose (Hsu et al. 2016; Yang et al.
17 2016; Kim et al. 2017; D'Souza and Minczuk 2018; Fulda et al. 2010; Zhang et al. 2011). Our model
18 highlights the dysregulation of certain ribosomal genes, for example *RPL9* and *RPS13*, and translation
19 regulators such as *EIF4B* and *EIF4EBP1*, which have already been found to be implicated in PCa
20 through the use of varied models (Hsieh et al. 2015; Verma et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2019; Guo et al. 2011;
21 Ren et al. 2013). Furthermore, the downregulation of genes implicated in translation may suggest that
22 development of drug resistance in PCa could benefit from this reprogramming of translation. Future
23 work will need to explore if and how current therapeutics targeting translation could affect the
24 emergence of drug resistance in castration resistant PCa. Indeed, all of the widely used therapies
25 currently employed to treat castration resistant prostate cancer ultimately lead to drug resistance
26 (Buttiglierio et al. 2015), and novel avenues of research therefore need to be explored. Studying the
27 differences between castration resistance and drug resistance could therefore guide the discovery of

1 therapeutic targets that would overcome the otherwise inevitable development of the drug resistant state
2 of this disease.

3 With an abundance of information from transcriptomics and genomics PCa data now available, the
4 relative paucity of detailed and specific data available on specific translational changes is remarkable.
5 Previous studies have demonstrated that focusing only on either genomic or transcriptomic data for
6 instance, paints an incomplete picture of cancer, and that work to integrate multiple types of data is
7 necessary for a better understanding of the disease (Sinha et al. 2019). Proteome and translome data
8 are hence essential for integrative approaches to discover novel biomarkers and therapeutic targets. We
9 demonstrate a pipeline for discovery of such potential new targets for drug resistant PCa, through the
10 combined transcriptomic, translomic and proteomic data from resistance models and publicly
11 available genomic data. We discovered several genes with altered translation efficiencies in the context
12 of resistance. Interestingly, we found that in our model, genes with a reduced association to ribosomes
13 and protein abundance in resistant cells still correlate with a higher cancer grade and worse overall
14 survival. This is most likely related to the fact that we compare drug resistant cells to castration resistant
15 PCa cells. Tumor castration resistance in patients already corresponds to a severe stage of the disease,
16 and genes upregulated in this stage are understandably already linked to poorer patient prognosis. The
17 novelty in our approach resides in the identification of a signature specific to ENZ-resistance, which is
18 composed of genes linked to cancer recurrence after treatment, as shown by our analyses of disease-free
19 survival and progression-free survival. These genes may be used in the future as markers to guide
20 therapeutic options. Out of the identified target genes, *NUDT19* represents a highly interesting
21 candidate, with elevated protein levels in resistant PCa and whose expression or alteration is linked to
22 various determinants of high grade and resistant PCa. *NUDT19* is part of a gene family involved, among
23 other things, in mRNA decapping, a process highly relevant for translation regulation as it renders
24 mRNAs repressed or degraded (Song et al. 2013). Further research will need to assess if affecting
25 *NUDT19* expression could represent a therapeutic target for combatting enzalutamide resistance, but
26 these early results are encouraging as to its potential value as a biomarker for PCa drug resistance.

1 Interestingly, our study also shows that translation perturbation is not limited to protein coding genes in
2 drug resistant PCa, but also affects non-coding genes. Indeed, while it is well known that disruptions in
3 the regulation of coding genes are important in cancers, recent evidence has shown that non-coding
4 genes can also play a major role (Schmitt and Chang 2016). In fact, we found that translation efficiency
5 is generally negatively affected in protein coding genes, which may be explained by the downregulation
6 of translation factors (such as EIF4B or EIF4EBP1) in VCaP^{ER} cells; but this does not explain the overall
7 increase in ribosome-bound lncRNAs and the positive shift in translation efficiency observed for these
8 otherwise non-coding transcripts. It has been shown that lncRNAs may bind ribosomes, and some have
9 been shown to produce functional peptides (Wu et al. 2020; Chen et al. 2020a; Ruiz-Orera et al. 2014).
10 We show that for some lncRNAs, different splice isoforms are bound by ribosomes in resistant cells
11 when comparing to sensitive cells, which is consistent with the previously observed deregulation of
12 splicing (Fig. 3C). This suggests that differences in the choice of lncRNA splice isoforms in drug-
13 resistant cells could affect the function of these lncRNAs. Furthermore, a recent study found multiple
14 of our identified lncRNAs (such as *JPX*, *LINC00467* and *CASC2*) bound by PCa-linked alternative
15 splicing regulators in LNCaP cells, which could play a role in the alternative splicing observed in
16 VCaP^{ER} (Fei et al. 2017).

17 Our study also highlights that subcellular compartmentalization of lncRNAs could play a role in PCa
18 drug resistance. For example, *JPX*, a well-known nuclear lncRNA implicated in X-chromosome
19 inactivation (Tian et al. 2010; Sun et al. 2013) was found in the ribosomal RNA fractions in our
20 polysome profiling data, as well as in other datasets (Chen et al. 2020a; Bazzini et al. 2014; Slavoff et
21 al. 2013). This association to ribosomes indicates that *JPX* transcripts can exit the nucleus, which
22 contrasts what has previously been reported. One possibility that would reconcile the mostly nuclear
23 localization of *JPX* and other nuclear lncRNAs with ribosome binding lies upon the alternative splicing
24 of RNAs, which often results in multiple isoforms with possibly diverse cellular localizations
25 (Yoshimoto et al. 2017; Zeng and Hamada 2020). Indeed, for some lncRNAs highlighted here,
26 significant association to ribosomes of specific splice variants was found exclusively in VCaP^{ER}, hinting
27 at potential mechanisms of nuclear export or ribosome binding exclusive to these isoforms. Whether the

1 observed alterations of RNA splicing may also be linked to higher expression of the AR-V7 splice
2 variant is topic for further research. Moreover, while ribosome binding does not guarantee translation
3 of an RNA, several peptides corresponding to *JPX* and the other identified lncRNAs are detected by MS
4 in diverse cellular contexts. However, the question remains as to whether these lncRNAs produce stable
5 and functional peptides in drug resistant PCa cells.

6 Nonetheless, we show that genomic alterations in select lncRNAs with potential coding capacity
7 strongly correlate with low patient survival and high PCa grades, underscoring their importance as
8 potential biomarkers and therapeutic targets. In some cases, copy number variations for these lncRNAs
9 has been linked to changes in RNA expression in patient samples suggesting that expression as well as
10 alterations of these lncRNAs could serve as novel prognostic biomarkers for prostate cancer drug
11 resistance. We therefore, for the first time, link the ribosome binding and possibly the coding potential
12 of these lncRNAs to PCa drug resistance. Our data corroborates previous studies linking some of our
13 candidate lncRNAs to PCa (Gao et al. 2019; Zhang et al. 2016b; Wan et al. 2015) and highlighting
14 potential novel roles for several others. Using lncRNAs for drug resistant PCa early detection and
15 treatment represents an avenue of high interest due to their highly restricted spatio-temporal expression
16 patterns and their relative ease of targeting, for example using specific anti-sense oligonucleotides
17 (Nandwani et al. 2020; Chen et al. 2020b; Bonetti and Carninci 2017). While research on cancer
18 therapies targeting lncRNAs has not yet reached clinical trials, several studies have shown promise and
19 widening the knowledge on lncRNAs of potential clinical importance therefore constitutes a priority for
20 the coming years. This new information could in turn lead to better targeted therapies and to a greater
21 ease of detection for drug resistant PCa.

22 In conclusion, our study highlights the occurrence of translation dysregulation during the development
23 of PCa drug resistance. We reveal an unusual shift in ribosome binding from protein coding genes to
24 lncRNAs in ENZ-resistant PCa cells. However, several questions remain to be answered: Is this
25 remodeling a consequence or driver of drug resistance? Do these lncRNAs code for functional peptides
26 or regulate translation, or can the fact that they bind to ribosomes lead to PCa drug resistance? Our study
27 brings forward novel concepts and prognostic biomarkers that relate to the translation output of drug

1 resistant cancer cells and enables the discovery of potential biomarkers hidden from previous
2 transcriptome and proteome analyses.

3 METHODS

4 **Cell culture and drugs**

5 LNCaP and VCaP cell lines were obtained from ATCC. All cell lines were cultivated at 37°C with 5%
6 CO₂. LNCaP and MR49F (ENZ resistant derivated from LNCaP) were cultivated in RPMI 10% FBS
7 whereas VCaP and VCaP^{ER} (ENZ resistant derivated from VCaP) were cultivated in DMEM 10% FBS
8 with 1mM sodium pyruvate. ENZ-resistant cell lines were maintained in 10 µM ENZ. ENZ (MDV3100)
9 purchased from MedChemExpress (Cat. No.: HY-70002).

10 **Generation of enzalutamide-resistant cell lines in mice**

11 All animal procedures were performed according to Canadian Council on Animal Care guidelines and
12 with approval of the Animal Care Committee of the University of British Columbia (protocol # A12-
13 0210). One million VCaP cells were inoculated on both flanks of six-week-old male athymic nude mice
14 (Harlan Sprague-Dawley, Inc). Two weeks later, when tumors reached an approximate volume of
15 200mm³, mice were surgically castrated. Castration resistance subsequently developed and when these
16 tumors were growing beyond their pre-castration size, tumors were freshly harvested, washed, passaged
17 and isolated from stromal cells in RPMI with 10% fetal bovine serum. Among several tumors
18 concurrently passaged this way, cells termed VCaP^{CRPC} were selected for further experiments. Mice with
19 castration-resistant tumor were then force-fed with 10mg/kg ENZ (or vehicle) 5 days per week until
20 tumor recurrence, at which point cells termed VCaP^{ER} were isolated as previously described, and
21 maintained in medium supplemented with 10µM ENZ. See Figure 1A.

22 **Statistical analysis**

23 Statistical significance of differences among groups was determined by two-tailed unpaired and paired
24 Student's t-test as well as analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc analysis
25 or Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparison test when assumption for equal variances could

1 not be met, using Sigma Stat (SPSS) or PRISM 5.0 (GraphPad). Correlation analyses employed Pearson
2 correlation coefficients, or Spearman correlation coefficients when assumption of equal variances could
3 not be satisfied. Analysis of expected and observed frequencies was accomplished via Chi-squared tests.
4 Differences with $P < 0.05$ were considered statistically significant.

5 **Proliferation of ENZ resistance cell model**

6 Cell proliferation was measured using Cell-Counting Kit-8 (CCK8) (Dojindo, Gaithersburg, MD) which
7 quantifies cellular dehydrogenase activity. Briefly, cells were seeded into 96-well plates and treated with
8 0.5 to 50 μM of ENZ. After 7 days, CCK-8 solution was added in media for a final concentration of
9 10% and incubated at 37°C for 3 hours. Cell growth was determined by optical density (OD)
10 measurements at 450 nm with TECAN Infinite F50. Calculations were performed according to
11 manufacturer's instructions. Experiment was repeated 3 times with each cell line.

12 **Western blot for AR and AR-V7**

13 VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER} cells were lysed in RIPA buffer containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors.
14 Total proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred on nitrocellulose membrane. After
15 blocking with 5% milk, membranes were blotted overnight with primary antibodies against AR, AR-V7
16 or ACTB as loading control (Cell signaling technologies) diluted 1:1000. Membranes were then
17 incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories Inc,
18 West Grove, PA) 2 hours in 5% milk (1:10 000). Proteins were imaged on Chemidoc MP (Bio-Rad,
19 Hercules, CA) with ECL reagent.

20 **Polysomal profiles and isolation of polysome-associated RNAs**

21 VCaP^{CRPC}, VCaP^{ER}, LNCaP and MR49F cells were grown as described above, in 100-mm tissue culture
22 dishes to ~ 80% confluence. Only VCaP^{ER} and MR49F were treated with ENZ at 10 μM . Cells were
23 scraped in 1 mL of polysomal buffer (20 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1.25 mM MgCl₂, 5 U/mL
24 RNasin, cOmplete™ EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche, Indianapolis, IN), and 1 mM
25 dithiothreitol), and Nonidet P-40 was added to a final concentration of 1% for lysis, 15 minutes on ice.
26 Extracts were clarified by centrifugation at 12,000 g for 20 minutes at 4°C. RNA concentration was

1 measured by spectrophotometry and ~20 OD₂₆₀ units of RNA were loaded onto a 15-55% sucrose
2 gradient. The gradients were centrifuged for 2.5 hours at 37,000 rpm (223 000g) (SW 40 TI Beckman
3 rotor) and then placed on an Automated Density Fractionation System to collect fractions. Each fraction
4 was collected into individual tubes with continuous monitoring of absorbance at 254 nm. Absorbance
5 was recorded on chart paper to generate polysomal charts. RNA from each fraction was extracted by
6 phenol-chloroform extraction and fractions corresponding to light or heavy polysomes were respectively
7 pooled together.

8 **RNA extraction and library preparation for RNA sequencing.**

9 VCaP, VCaP^{CRPC}, VCaP^{ER}, LNCaP and MR49F cells were grown in 100-mm tissue culture dishes to ~
10 80% confluence. Total RNA was extracted with Trizol reagent (Life Technology) and heavy polysomal
11 RNA was prepared by phenol-chloroform extraction. RNA quality was verified with the TapeStation
12 4200 (Agilent Technologies). RNA libraries were made from 0.2 ug of RNA in accordance with the
13 TruSeq stranded mRNA kit protocol (Illumina; # 20020594) and TruSeq RNA Single Indexes Set A and
14 B (Illumina, # 20020492 and 20020493). Library qualities and sizes were checked with the TapeStation
15 4200 and then quantified using the KAPA Library Quantification Kit for Illumina platforms (Kapa
16 Biosystems). Libraries were sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq500 sequencer to a depth of about 50
17 millions of 75-bp pair reads per library.

18 **Transcriptome and translome RNA sequencing analysis**

19 The reads were aligned to the GRCh37 human genome (Ensembl release 75) by STAR (v2.7.5)
20 (Dobin et al. 2013). Read alignments were merged and disambiguated, and a single BAM
21 (Binary Alignment Mapped) file output per library or sample was used. BAM files were then
22 additionally filtered to remove reads with a mapping quality (MAPQ) less than 13, and all
23 ribosomal and mitochondrial RNA reads. Alignments were assembled using Cufflinks (v2.2.1)
24 (Trapnell et al. 2010) using the -g parameter to construct a genome annotation file against the
25 reference gene model (Ensembl release 75) and to identify novel transcripts. Raw read counts
26 were obtained by mapping reads at the gene level using the Cufflinks assembled transcript

1 annotation file with the featureCounts tool from the SubRead package (version 2.0.0) (Liao et
2 al. 2014) using the exon counting mode. EdgeR R-package (v3.12.1) (Robinson et al. 2010)
3 was then used to normalize the data, calculate transcript abundance (as counts per million reads
4 (CPM)) and perform statistical analysis. Briefly, a common biological coefficient of variation
5 (BCV) and dispersion (variance) was estimated based on a negative binomial distribution
6 model. This estimated dispersion value was incorporated into the final EdgeR analysis for
7 differential gene expression, and the generalized linear model (GLM) likelihood ratio test was
8 used for statistics, as described in EdgeR user guide. Genes were considered as significantly up
9 or downregulated in either total or polysome-bound RNAseq if their fold change between
10 VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC} were superior to 1.25 fold, with a FDR ≤ 0.05 . Analysis of TE values
11 and significant differences between VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC} were done by dividing CPM in the
12 heavy polysome-bound RNA-seq by the corresponding CPM value in total RNA-seq.
13 Differential TE ratio was calculated by dividing TE values from VCaP^{ER} by TE from VCaP^{CRPC},
14 and significance was determined using R using the p.adjust function with the FDR settings. For
15 analysis of RNA splicing, normalized counts for split reads corresponding to exon-intron
16 junctions were quantified for select lncRNAs. Significance was determined by Chi-squared test
17 comparing expected and observed frequencies in the transcriptome compared to the
18 transcriptome. All statistical analyses and data visualization were done in R using R basic
19 functions and the following packages: gplots (3.1.1), stats4 (3.5.1), plyr (1.8.4), dplyr (0.8.1),
20 and ggplot2 (3.1.1). Raw RNA-seq data will be submitted to the NCBI Gene Expression
21 Omnibus before manuscript acceptance, and is available upon request in the meantime.

22 **Sample preparation for Mass Spectrometry**

23 Protein pellets were resuspended in 100 μ L of 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate, 0.5% deoxycholate and
24 sonicated on ice with a microprobe Sonic Dismembrator 550 (Fisher Scientific) as follow: 20 x 1 seconds
25 at power 2 followed by 5 x 3 seconds at power 4. The extract was centrifuged at 20,817 g for 15 minutes

1 at 4°C. The supernatants were transferred to new tubes and precipitated with acetone. The protein pellets
2 were then resuspended in 100 µL of 500 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate, 0.5% deoxycholate.
3 Protein concentrations of each sample was determined by colorimetric Bradford assay.

4 **Tryptic digestion and TMT labeling**

5 10 µg of each sample was used for TMT labeling (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Proteins were denatured
6 for 5 minutes at 95°C and then reduced with 50 mM TCEP for 30 minutes at 37°C before being alkylated
7 with 100mM iodoacetamide for 30 minutes at room temperature in the dark. Samples were digested with
8 0.5 µg of trypsin (V5111; Promega) for ~15 hours at 37°C. After digestion, peptides were acidified to
9 precipitate the deoxycholate and then purified with homemade C₁₈ Stage-Tip before being lyophilized.
10 The now dried peptides were dissolved in 30 µL of 100 mM triethylammonium bicarbonate and labeled
11 with TMT 10-plex reagent (Thermo Fischer Scientific). Labeling was performed for 1 hour at room
12 temperature and the reaction quenched with hydroxylamine for 15 minutes. The now labeled peptides
13 were combined in one tube and speedvac to dryness without heat. Samples were cleaned up using solid-
14 phase HLB cartridge (Water Corp.) before being speedvac to dryness.

15 **High pH - reverse phase fractionation**

16 Peptides were fractionated into 14 fractions using a High-pH (pH 10) reversed-phase chromatography
17 method using an Agilent 1200 HPLC system as previously described (Wang et al. 2011). The final
18 fractions were dried and resuspended in 0.1% formic acid before mass spectrometry analysis.

19 **Mass spectrometry analysis**

20 Approximately 1 µg of each fraction was injected and separated by online reversed-phase (RP)
21 nanoscale capillary liquid chromatography (nanoLC) and analyzed by electrospray mass spectrometry
22 (ESI MS/MS). The experiments were performed with a Dionex UltiMate 3000 nanoRSLC
23 chromatography system (Thermo Fisher Scientific / Dionex Softron GmbH, Germering, Germany)
24 coupled to an Orbitrap Fusion mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA)
25 equipped with a nanoelectrospray ion source. Peptides were trapped at 20 µL/min in loading solvent
26 (2% acetonitrile, 0.05% TFA) on a 5 mm x 300 µm C₁₈ PepMap cartridge pre-column (Thermo Fisher

1 Scientific / Dionex Softron GmbH, Germering, Germany) for 5 minutes. Then, the pre-column was
2 switched online with a 75 μ m x 50 cm Acclaim PepMap100 C₁₈ - 3 μ m column (Thermo Fischer
3 Scientific/ Dionex Softron GmbH, Germering, Germany) and the peptides were eluted with a linear
4 gradient from 5-40% solvent B (A: 0,1% formic acid, B: 80% acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid) in 90
5 minutes at 300 nL/min. Mass spectra were acquired using a data dependent acquisition mode using
6 Thermo XCalibur software version 3.0.63. Synchronous Precursor Selection-MS3 acquisition mode was
7 used for this analysis. Full scan mass spectra (380 to 1500m/z) were acquired in the Orbitrap at a 60 000
8 resolution and using an AGC target of 2e5, a maximum injection time of 50 ms. Internal calibration,
9 using lock mass on the m/z 445.12003 siloxane ion, was used. Precursors for MS2/MS3 analysis were
10 selected using a TopSpeed of 3s. The most intense precursor ions were isolated in the quadrupole at 0.7
11 m/z, fragmented with 35% CID and the fragments detected in the ion trap. Following acquisition of each
12 MS2 spectrum, an MS3 acquisition was performed by isolating of multiple MS2 fragment ions with a
13 multi-notch isolation waveform (McAlister et al. 2014). MS3 analysis was detected in the Orbitrap at a
14 60 000 resolution after 45% HCD, with an AGC target of 1e5 and a maximum injection time of 120 ms.
15 Dynamic exclusion of previously fragmented peptides was set for a period of 20 seconds and a tolerance
16 of 10 ppm.

17 **Data analysis for mass spectrometry-based proteome quantification**

18 Spectra acquired were processed using ProteomeDiscoverer 2.2 (Thermo). Files were searched against
19 Uniprot (The UniProt Consortium 2017) homo sapiens protein database (93634 entries). Trypsin was
20 set as enzyme and 2 missed cleavages were allowed. Deamidation (N, Q), oxidation (M), were set as
21 dynamic modifications and carbamidomethylation (C), and TMT10-plex label (N-ter, K) were set as
22 static modifications. Mass search tolerance were 10 ppm and 0.6 Da for MS and MS/MS respectively.
23 For protein validation, a maximum False Discovery Rate of 1% at peptide and protein level was used
24 based on a target/decoy search. MS3 spectra were used for quantification, with an integration tolerance
25 of 10 ppm. Unique and razor peptides are considered for protein quantification and isotopic correction
26 is applied on reporters. Data normalization was performed on total peptide amount. Peptides and protein
27 result tabs were exported in Excel and means of three replicates per group were calculated. A fold change

1 was calculated between the means of VCaP^{ER} and VCaP, VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP, or VCaP^{ER} and VCaP^{CRPC}.
2 Proteins or peptides with variations >1.1 fold with a $P \leq 0.1$ in either their VCaP^{ER}/VCaP or
3 VCaP^{ER}/VCaP^{CRPC} fold changes were considered as significant (either up or downregulated), so long as
4 no opposite variation was found in these two fold changes.

5 **Gene ontology and pathway enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes**

6 Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG)
7 (Kanehisa et al. 2020; Kanehisa 2019; Kanehisa and Goto 2000) pathway enrichment were assessed
8 using the Database for Annotation, Visualization and Integrated Discovery (DAVID 6.8) (Jiao et al.
9 2012). Biological processes (BP), cellular components (CC) and molecular functions (MF) annotations
10 were analyzed. An FDR <0.1 and $P < 0.05$ were set as cut-off for significant enrichment.

11 **Construction of biological network**

12 Interactions among identified differentially expressed proteins were mapped with the STRING database
13 (Szklarczyk et al. 2018). Two protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks were constructed (for
14 upregulated and downregulated proteins); experimentally validated interactions and databases with a
15 required interaction score a 0.9. Subsequently, the PPI networks were imported into Cytoscape (Shannon
16 et al. 2003) using stringApp (Doncheva et al. 2018). The identified hub genes related GO terms were
17 used to construct a complete PPI network.

18 **Gene set enrichment, modules and network analysis**

19 Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) was performed with Broad Institute's GSEA software (v4.1.0)
20 (Subramanian et al. 2005). Expression data sets were created as text files according to GSEA
21 specifications. We computed overlaps with the C2.cp.kegg (curated gene sets) and C5.go, C5.go.bp,
22 C5.go.cc and C5.go.mf (GO gene sets) collections. Gene set permutations were performed 1000 times
23 per analysis. An FDR <0.1 was set as cut-off for significant enrichment.

24 **Western blot for NUDT19**

25 VCaP^{CRPC} and VCaP^{ER} cells were lysed in RIPA buffer containing protease and phosphatase inhibitors.
26 Total proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred on PVDF membrane. After blocking with

1 5% milk, membranes were blotted overnight with primary antibodies against NUDT19 or TUBA1A as
2 loading control diluted respectively in 1:10 000 and 1:10 000 (Abcam). Membranes were then incubated
3 with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies 2 hours in 5% milk (1:15 000). Proteins were imaged by
4 revealing membranes on film with ECL reagent and quantified with the Image Studio Lite software.

5 **PCa patient cohort**

6 This study was approved by the research ethics committee of CHU de Québec-Université Laval (Project
7 2016-2811). A sub-cohort of the CPC-GENE cohort (Fraser et al. 2017) was used for this study. The
8 cohort comprised 136 men with intermediate risk PCa who underwent radical prostatectomy between
9 2005 and 2010 at CHU de Québec-Université Laval. Complete clinico-pathological data were available
10 for all 136 subjects with a median follow-up of 11.8 years. Archived formalin-fixed and paraffin
11 embedded specimens of radical prostatectomy from the 136 subjects were used to construct a tissue
12 microarray (TMA).

13 **Immunohistochemistry on prostate tumor microarray (TMA)**

14 Four micrometer-thick sections of the TMA blocks were first deparaffinized and rehydrated. Antigen
15 unmasking was carried out in a DAKO PT-Link for 20 minutes at 97°C using EnVision FLEX buffer of
16 appropriate pH for each antibody (Agilent). Then, peroxidases were inactivated in a 3% hydrogen
17 peroxide solution. After incubation with a blocking solution, slides were stained overnight with antibody
18 against Nudix Hydrolase 19 (NUDT19; 3.3µg/mL; Abcam) diluted in PBS containing 1% BSA. After
19 washed, staining was revealed using the IDetect Super strain HRP polymer kit (Agilent) following
20 manufacturer's protocol. After DAB revelation, slides were counterstained with hematoxylin. Tissue
21 samples were classified according to tumor staining intensity from 1 to 3. Intensity variation was also
22 considered. Result for each patient is a mean of 3 cores. Results were confirmed by a second reader.
23 Kaplan-Meier curves were established according to time to biochemical recurrence following
24 prostatectomy.

25 **DATA ACCESS**

1 All mass spectrometry files acquired in this study have been deposited to the MassIVE repository,
2 assigned the MSV000086670 identifier and can be accessed at <ftp://massive.ucsd.edu/MSV000086670/>.
3 The password to access them prior to publication is “prostate”. Processed data for all RNA sequencing
4 experiments are available as supplemental tables. Raw RNA-seq data will be submitted to the NCBI
5 Gene Expression Omnibus before manuscript acceptance, and is currently available upon request to the
6 corresponding author.

7 DISCLOSURE DECLARATION

8 The authors declare no competing interests.

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18 AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS

19 E.I.J.L. designed and performed experiments, analyzed and interpreted the data and wrote the
20 manuscript, P.A. designed, optimized and performed the polysome profiling experiments, F.H.J.
21 designed and performed experiments, G.K. analyzed and interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript,
22 V.S.G. designed, optimized and performed the polysome profiling experiments, A.Z. designed our cell-
23 line derivation protocol and provided feedback on the manuscript, J.P.L. designed and analyzed M.S.
24 experiments and wrote the manuscript, P.T. designed the ENZ-resistance model and other experiments
25 and wrote the manuscript, R.M. designed polysome profiling experiments and wrote the manuscript,
26 S.M.I.H designed experiments, analyzed and interpreted the data and wrote the manuscript.

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