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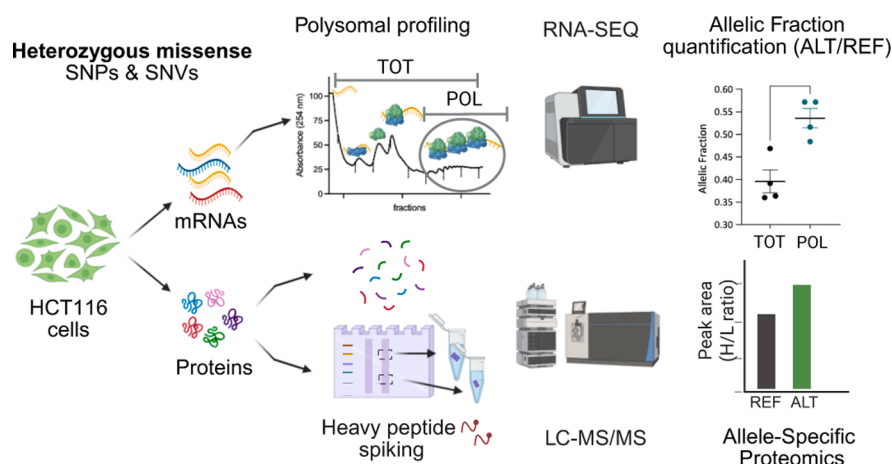
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Graphical Abstract

In Brief

This study demonstrates the feasibility of using allele-specific proteomics at the endogenous protein level, exploiting heterozygous coding variants to identify genetic variants that affect mRNA translation potential.



Highlights

- Polysomal RNA-seq and PRM proteomics map allele-specific mRNA translation instances.
- RNA-seq reveals 52 HCT116 coding variants with allele-specific polysome association.
- Label-free, high-pH fractionated PRM workflow quantifies allele-specific peptides.
- EIF4H rs1554710467 alternative allele has higher polysomal RNA and peptide levels.

Polysomal Profiling Coupled to Allele-Specific Proteomics Reveals an EIF4H TranSNP Allele Possessing Higher mRNA Translation Potential

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To search for genetic sources of allele-specific mRNA translation, we leveraged heterozygous polymorphisms and variants present in the exome of HCT116 colorectal adenocarcinoma-derived cells, computing allelic fractions from both total and polysome-associated RNA from RNA-Seq data. Allelic imbalance in polysomal RNA led us to nominate 52 coding variants associated with allele-specific mRNA translation, of which 16 are non-synonymous. To validate instances of allele-specific translation, a proteomics workflow was developed that combines label-free shotgun analysis, high-pH reversed-phase peptide fractionation, and targeted parallel reaction monitoring using isotope-labeled peptide standards. Using this approach, we provide proof-of-concept validation of the heterozygous G>A, R183H missense single-nucleotide variant rs1554710467 in the eukaryotic initiation factor 4H (EIF4H) gene. The variant is present in two EIF4H alternatively spliced variants, which showed equivalent translation efficiency in HCT116 cells but differ in abundance. The alternative peptide containing H183 was significantly more abundant than the corresponding reference peptide containing R183, consistent with the over-representation of the alternative allele in polysomal RNA in HCT116 cells. A dual-fluorescence ribosome-stalling assay confirmed the enhanced translation potential of the variant allele. The two EIF4H allelic proteins exhibited similar stability and subpolysomal localization. This study demonstrates the feasibility of using allele-specific proteomics at the endogenous protein levels by exploiting heterozygous coding variants. Overall, our approach extends the toolbox available to investigate allele-specific differences in mRNA translation potential, a relatively underexplored layer of gene expression regulation that could reveal interindividual differences in disease-relevant phenotypes.

Translational control of mRNAs has been consistently revealed as a crucial process in cancer (1, 2). Yet, relatively few studies focus on identifying germline and somatic sources of interindividual variation in the fate of specific cancer-relevant transcripts. To bridge this gap, we recently developed a pipeline to discover alleles associated with differences in mRNA translation potential (3, 4). Our approach relies on polysome isolation via sucrose-gradient fractionation, followed by RNA extraction and RNA-Seq (5–9). Heterozygous SNPs and single-nucleotide variants (SNVs) that are present in mRNAs are evaluated by computing allelic fractions (AFs) for polysome-bound RNA samples that are compared with the AF measured from total RNA and by annotating variations (delta AF) that are consistent among biological replicates and/or above experimental variance (3, 4). The method relies on the assumption that the *translatome*, that is, the repertoire of mRNAs bound to polysomes, is a proxy for the proteome, so that there is a direct proportionality between the translation efficiency of a given allele and its relative association with polysomes. In our previous studies, we focused on validating candidate SNPs, labeled as tranSNPs, located in the UTRs of mRNAs and for which we could also generate predictions of *trans*-factor binding, namely RNA-binding proteins (RBPs). Candidates were prioritized based on the magnitude and consistency of variations in AF, the frequency of the minor alleles in human populations, and the relevance of the gene for cancer, with particular interest in p53-dependent responses. Validation experiments comprised orthogonal approaches to calculate AF, cloning of UTR sequences in reporter plasmids to assess functional differences between the two alleles, and genome editing to derive potentially isogenic trios of genotypes for functional analysis at the endogenous gene level (3, 4). In the case of the rs1053639 T/A tranSNP in the 3'UTR

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of the DDIT4 gene, an inhibitor of mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) complex 1 (10, 11), the T allele was over-represented in the polysomes in heterozygous cells, and the derived T-homozygous clones exhibited higher DDIT4 protein levels and showed more effective repression of mTOR complex 1 responses upon endoplasmic reticulum stress. A-homozygous clones instead proliferated more in competition assays or when injected into zebrafish embryos.

In this study, we focused on tranSNPs, resulting in missense changes and developed a proof-of-concept approach to validate them by proteomics. Briefly, we compared whole proteome, fractionation, and targeted proteomics with or without the use of spiked-in heavy-isotope references to explore the possibility of quantifying biallelic peptides resulting from heterozygous nonsynonymous polymorphisms and variants.

Although the impact of genetic factors on the human proteome is still largely unexplored, previous proteomics studies have explored the possibility of identifying genetic variants associated with circulating protein concentrations, protein quantitative trait loci (*cis*-protein quantitative trait loci), and cancer-associated mutations, and developed methods to quantify proteomes across various biological samples (12–21).

Our approach differs as it exploits biallelic genetic variants present in the exome of a model cell line and uses a filtering approach based on AFs in polysome-bound RNAs from RNA-Seq to identify and prioritize candidate genetic sources (tranSNPs) of variation in protein levels. In our proof-of-concept study, peptide-encompassing tranSNP positions could be investigated for three targets, and in all cases, imbalances between reference or alternative peptides were observed, and these were consistent with the delta-AF measured in the polysomal RNA-Seq. In particular, we validated the rs1554710467 SNV in HCT116 cells, which results in the heterozygous expression of the R183H mutant of eukaryotic initiation factor 4H (EIF4H). Results established that the variant mRNA allele that is over-represented in polysomal RNA fractions is associated with a higher abundance of the corresponding peptide (single amino acid variant [SAAV], H183 *versus* R183). The difference is not dependent on a change in protein half-life and is not associated with variations in the protein's association with the translation initiation machinery. Although the variant we studied (rs1554710467) is rare, limiting its immediate clinical relevance, it served as a proof of concept for the strategy that can be applied to nonsynonymous variants and SNPs that are prevalent in populations.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Polysome Profiling, RNA Extraction, and Sanger Sequencing

HCT116 cells grown in 150 mm dishes till 80% confluence were incubated with 50 µg/ml cycloheximide (CHX) at 37 °C for 10 min to immobilize the ribosomes on mRNAs. Cells were rinsed with

ice-cold PBS containing 50 µg/ml CHX and then gently scraped using about 600 µl of ice-cold lysis buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], 100 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 0.5% Nonidet P-40, 0.2 U/µl RNasin Ribonuclease Inhibitor [Promega], cOmplete Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail 1X [Roche], and 100 µg/ml CHX). The lysates were then incubated on ice for 10 min and centrifuged for 10 min at 12,000g at 4 °C to remove the nuclei. The cytoplasmic lysates were loaded onto a 15 to 50% linear sucrose gradient prepared in salt buffer (100 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.5], and 5 mM MgCl₂) and separated to equilibrium density by ultracentrifugation using a Beckman SW41 rotor at 40,000 rpm for 1 h and 40 min at 4 °C. The sucrose gradients were then fractionated using a Teledyne ISCO model 160 gradient analyzer equipped with a UA-6 UV-visible detector, monitoring the absorbance at 254 nm. Thirteen fractions of 1 ml each were isolated using a 50% sucrose solution pumped at the bottom of the centrifuged tube. RNA was harvested from pooled fractions corresponding to either subpolysomal subunits, 80S monosomes, or light or heavy polysomes (polysome-associated RNA) using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen). An aliquot of the unfractionated cytoplasmic lysate was processed to obtain total RNA. The RNA was retro-transcribed, and the sequences containing the candidate tranSNPs were amplified by PCR using AmpliTaq Gold 360 Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and specific primers (Supplemental Table S6). The PCR products were purified by the spinNAker GEL&PCR DNA purification kit (Euroclone) and subjected to Sanger sequencing by the Mix2Seq Kit (Eurofins Genomics). Analysis of the electropherograms was performed by Fiji software. Quantification was performed by assessing the area under the peaks of the tranSNP nucleotides as a metric to calculate AF. The normalization process considered the relative efficiency of the four nucleotides' incorporation in the sequence context surrounding the SNP position. The AF for targeted genes was determined for at least three independent experiments. Student's *t* test was used to calculate the *p* value.

Analysis of EIF4H Isoform Expression and Polysome Association by Quantitative PCR

Cytoplasmic lysates of HCT116 cells were prepared and fractionated using linear 15 to 50% sucrose gradients as described in the polysome profiling method section above. About 0.5 ml from the individual 1 ml fractions collected by the Teledyne ISCO, corresponding to light ribonucleoparticles, ribosomal subunits, monosomes, and polysomes (fractions 4–10 in Fig. 2D), were processed to extract RNA. RNA was extracted using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen), checked for purity, and quantified by NanoDrop Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Complementary DNA (cDNA) was prepared using the RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and random primers, starting with 1000 ng of RNA. The resulting cDNA samples were diluted 1:8, and 1 µl, corresponding to 12.5 ng of starting RNA input, was used in 10 µl quantitative PCR (qPCR) with the qPCRBIO SyGreen Mix (PCR Biosystems). All PCRs were performed in triplicate using 384-well plates and a QuantStudio 5 Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems). Primers specific for the two EIF4H splicing isoforms, ENST00000265753 and ENST00000353999, were designed using Primer Blast (National Center for Biotechnology Information) and are listed in Supplemental Table S6. The relative expression of the two isoforms was calculated using the $\Delta\Delta C_q$ method, with beta-actin as the reference transcript (Fig. 2C). To map the relative abundance of the isoforms along the sucrose-gradient fractions, that is, their relative abundance with ribosomal subunits or polysomes of different densities (Fig. 2D), *Cq* values were processed as described (22).

Western Blot and CHX-Chase Assay

Cytoplasmic lysates were prepared and centrifuged on sucrose gradients and fractionated as described above. Proteins were isolated from the same volume from each fraction using a radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer containing a protease inhibitor cocktail (cOmplete Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail). Before Western blotting, the lysates were denatured by boiling at 95 °C for 10 min in 1x Laemmli Sample Buffer (Bio-Rad), then subjected to SDS-PAGE, and transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (Cytiva Amersham Reinforced Nitrocellulose Blotting Membrane). Each membrane was blocked with 5% dry milk in PBS and 0.1% Tween-20 for 1 h and then incubated with the indicated primary antibodies overnight at 4 °C. The membranes were rinsed and incubated with peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature. Secondary antibodies were used at 1:10,000 dilutions. Membranes were developed using ECL Select Western blot detection reagents (Amersham Biosciences) and imaged on the ChemiDoc XRS imaging system (Bio-Rad). Image processing and densitometric quantification of the bands were performed using the Image Lab software. Antibodies used for Western blot analysis are listed in [Supplemental Table S5](#). To estimate the EIF4H protein half-life, 6×10^5 HCT116 cells were seeded in a 6-well plate format. After 24 h, cells from one well were collected by trypsinization, and the cell pellet was resuspended in 50 μ l of RIPA lysis buffer supplemented with 1X protease inhibitors (Roche) to prepare the t0 sample, which was stored at -20 °C. In the meantime, the media were aspirated from the remaining wells and replaced with fresh media containing 100 μ g/ml of CHX (Cayman Chemical) to halt protein synthesis. After 2, 4, 6, and 8 h, cells were pelleted from the wells and lysed as the t0 sample. Once all the pellets were harvested, proteins were extracted by centrifugation at 15,000 rpm for 20 min at 4 °C, quantified by the Bicinchoninic Acid (BCA) Assay (Thermo Scientific, Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit), and a Western blot was performed. Time point t0 protein extract (35 μ g) was used for the Western blot. For the other time points, the protein amounts were loaded volumetrically to the reference t0. EIF4H and β -actin antibodies were used as primary antibodies. β -actin was found to be a stable protein throughout the time course of the experiment and was therefore used as a loading control.

Sample Preparation for Whole Proteome Analysis

HCT116 cells were harvested and lysed in RIPA buffer at 4 °C for 30 min, followed by centrifugation to clarify the samples. The protein concentration was determined using a BCA assay. Proteins (100 μ g) were then reduced by 10 mM DTT at 56 °C for 30 min and alkylated by 22.5 mM IAA at 25 °C for 30 min in the dark. The addition of 10 mM DTT quenched excess IAA. Protein digestion was performed using carboxylate magnetic beads (GE Healthcare) as described before (23). Briefly, washed SP3 beads were added to protein mixtures at a 1:10 ratio (w/w) protein to beads. Subsequently, acetonitrile (ACN) was added to a final concentration of 70% (v/v), and samples were mixed at room temperature for 18 min. The supernatant was removed with the assistance of a magnetic stand, and the beads were rinsed two times with 70% ethanol and once with ACN. Beads were then resuspended in 45 μ l of 50 mM NH_4HCO_3 , 5 mM CaCl_2 , supplemented with trypsin (enzyme:protein ratio of 1:20). After overnight digestion at 37 °C under mixing, the peptide mixture was collected by incubation on a magnetic rack, and the supernatant was subjected to SP2 peptide cleanup (23). Peptide mixtures were bound to magnetic carboxylate-modified beads (GE Healthcare) in a ratio of 1:15 by the addition of ACN, such that the final ACN concentration was exactly 95%. Beads were

then washed twice with 100% ACN, and the peptides were eluted with 50 μ l of 2% ACN in water by mixing at 1000 rpm for 10 min at 25 °C. Samples were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 10 s and placed on the magnetic rack. The supernatant was transferred to a clean tube and acidified with formic acid (final concentration of 0.1%) for LC-MS analysis or further processing. To increase proteome coverage, 50 μ g of digested peptides were fractionated using the High-pH Reversed-Phase Peptide Fractionation Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Peptides were diluted to 300 μ l with 0.1% TFA and fractionated as described in the manufacturer's manual. The resulting 10 fractions were then dried by vacuum centrifugation and reconstituted in 0.1% formic acid for LC-MS analysis. To enrich the proteins of interest (EIF4H, RPA1, and RBM17), HCT116 cell lysates or trichloroacetic acid-precipitated proteins from ribonucleoprotein (RNP) and 40S fractions were resolved by SDS-PAGE using Bolt 10% Bis-Tris minigel (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and stained with Coomassie (Imperial Protein Stain; Thermo Fisher Scientific). For each sample, the gel bands corresponding to the regions 20 to 30 kDa and 70 to 90 kDa were excised and cut into small pieces (~1 mm³). The gel pieces were then destained with 50% ACN in 100 mM NH_4HCO_3 , dehydrated by net ACN, and dried in a SpeedVac. Samples were subjected to reduction and alkylation with 10 mM DTT and 55 mM IAA, respectively. Gel pieces were washed repeatedly with 100 mM NH_4HCO_3 , followed by 100% ACN. After drying, the excised gel pieces were incubated with trypsin (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 12.5 ng/ μ l in 100 mM NH_4HCO_3 and placed on ice. After 45 min, the digestion continued at 37 °C overnight. The next day, the supernatant was transferred into a clean tube, and the peptides were sequentially extracted from the gels with 30% ACN, 3% TFA, and 100% ACN. All the supernatants were combined with the solution retrieved after digestion and dried in a SpeedVac. The peptides were then acidified with 1% TFA to a pH < 2.5, desalted on homemade C18 stage tips, and resuspended in 0.1% formic acid in water for LC-MS analysis. Cleaned-up peptides from all samples were stored at -20 °C until measurement.

Sample Preparation for Targeted Proteomics (Parallel Reaction Monitoring)

For the parallel reaction monitoring (PRM) LC-MS/mass spectrometry (MS) assay (tier 2) (24), a mixture of heavy-labeled reference allele or peptide (REF) and alternative allele or peptide (ALT) was added to trypsin-digested HCT116 samples to quantitatively compare their endogenous peptide counterparts. Briefly, heavy and light peptides were synthesized by Thermo Fisher Scientific (chemical purity > 70%) and resuspended in water containing 0.1% formic acid. A quantitative fluorimetric peptide assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to confirm the concentration of the synthetic peptides, which were prepared at a working concentration of approximately 500 nM for the spike-in assays. Heavy REF and ALT peptides were then spiked into total or enriched HCT116 cell digests at 50 fmol (injected on-column). The amount of spiked-in heavy peptide for each light peptide was chosen based on the following criteria: (i) to be as close as possible to the area of the endogenous peptide and (ii) to be within the concentration range in which a linear response of the peptide was observed. The performance of the PRM method (in terms of linearity, limit of quantification [LOQ], and limit of detection [LOD]) was assessed by generating a calibration curve. This was achieved by first spiking an equimolar mixture of unlabeled REF and ALT at known quantities into a bovine serum albumin digest (200 fmol on column) in order to yield concentrations of 0, 0.41, 1.02, 2.56, 6.40, 16.0, 40.0, 100, and 250 (fmol on-column). Second, the digest was spiked with the corresponding equimolar heavy peptides (to yield 50 fmol on-column). As previous studies have shown similar

calibration-curve slopes for different matrices, digested bovine serum albumin was chosen as the background for our assay (25). The effect of oxidation on PRM measurements was investigated by incubating a synthetic peptide mixture containing REF and ALT at a concentration of 0.45 mg/ml in a 0.5% H₂O₂ solution for 15 min. The samples were then acidified and desalted using C18 ZipTips prior to MS target analysis.

Selection of Peptides for Targeted Proteomics (PRM)

An *in silico* tryptic digestion was performed on the selected proteins to identify peptides containing the SNVs. Due to the constraints imposed by the biallelic positions, it was not always possible to fully comply with the general criteria for selecting quantotypic target peptides suitable for PRM analysis (26). In our specific case, two main limitations were encountered: (i) the presence of amino acid modifications, such as methionine oxidation, could not always be avoided and (ii) in the EIF4H protein, a change in peptide length (10 amino acids in the ALT isoform *versus* eight amino acids in the REF) occurred because of the absence of a trypsin-like cleavage site at arginine in the R183H variant. The optimal precursor charge state for each peptide was then selected based on manual inspection of the mass spectral response, including the signal-to-noise ratio, transition intensity, peak shape, and peak area.

LC-MS/MS Analysis

For shotgun label-free quantification analysis, digested samples were separated using an Easy-nLC 1200 system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and loaded onto a reversed-phase column (Acclaim Pep-Map RSLC C18 column, 2 μ m particle size, 100 $\text{\AA}$ pore size, id 75 μ m), heated at 40 °C. A two-component mobile phase system was used, consisting of 0.1% formic acid in water (buffer A) and 0.1% formic acid in ACN (buffer B). Peptides were eluted using the following gradient: 5 to 25% buffer B over 52 min, 25 to 40% over 8 min, 40 to 98% over 10 min, followed by 10 min at 98% of buffer B. The flow rate was set to 400 nL/min. Samples were injected into an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and data were acquired in data-dependent mode (2100 V). The ion transfer tube temperature was set to 275 °C. Full scans were performed at a resolution of 120,000 full width at half maximum (at 200 m/z) and an automatic gain control (AGC) target of 1×10^6 . The precursor mass range was 110 to 1100 m/z , with the first mass for fragments set at 140 m/z and a maximum injection time of 50 ms. The dynamic exclusion filter was enabled with a duration of 30 s. Each full scan was followed by MS/MS scans (higher-energy collisional dissociation, collision energy of 30%) over a 3-s cycle time, with a maximum injection time of 54 ms (Orbitrap) and an AGC target of 2.5×10^4 . In the ion prioritization method, selected ion masses and charge states were given priority (Supplemental Table S4A). Fractions were acquired using identical MS1 and MS2 parameters as described above. For PRM LC-MS/MS measurements, peptides containing the biallelic amino acid position of interest were targeted. LC settings were identical to those described above, except for the use of a 30 cm reversed-phase long column (inner diameter 75 μ m, 1.7 μ m particle size; MSWIL, the Netherlands), heated to 40 °C, with a flow rate of 200 nL/min. The isolation list for the heavy and light peptides was provided as a mass list with charge state information (Supplemental Table S4B). Targeted MSn scans were acquired in the Orbitrap at $R = 60,000$, with an AGC target value set to standard and a maximum injection time of 118 ms. Higher-energy collisional dissociation energy was set to 30%. Ion source parameters were as follows: spray voltage +2100 V and ion transfer tube temperature 200 °C. For all acquisitions, a blank and a quality control sample were run between samples to prevent carryover and monitor instrument

performance. QCloud was used to assess longitudinal instrument performance throughout the project (27).

Data Analysis

Extracted ion chromatograms for all transitions were inspected using Xcalibur Qual Browser (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For the shotgun analysis, peptide searches were performed using Proteome Discoverer 3.1 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific) against the *Human* proteome (UniProt proteome: UP000005640, reviewed, 20,408 protein entries, downloaded in June 2023) and a database of common contaminants. Proteins were identified using the MASCOT (Matrix Science, server, version 2.6.2.0) search engine with a mass tolerance of 10 ppm for the precursor and 0.02 Da for the product. Trypsin was specified as the digestion enzyme, allowing up to two missed cleavages. Carbamidomethylation of cysteine was set as a static modification, whereas oxidation (M) and acetylation (protein N-term) were considered variable modifications. The false discovery rate was filtered at <0.01 at the peptide-spectrum match, peptide, and protein levels. Potential contaminants were excluded from the results. Peak intensities were log₂-transformed, and data were normalized based on the average abundance within each sample to account for variation in sampling volumes (28). Raw data files of the fractions were processed in Proteome Discoverer 3.1 as a single contiguous input file using the same parameters described above. For the PRM analysis, the light-to-heavy ratio between heavy-labeled peptides and endogenous light peptides was determined using the open-source Skyline-daily software (29) (version 24.1). Transitions were selected based on the intensity ranking; others were excluded manually. For each peptide, four fragment ions were monitored. Data were normalized using the ratio-to-heavy method. Heavy peptides were labeled with ¹³C(6)¹⁵N(4) on the C-terminal residue (R). The data were log-transformed. Linearity between peak area and concentration (both expressed as the ratio to the heavy peptide) was assessed by linear regression analysis in log-transformed space. The LOD and LOQ were estimated as 3.3 Sa/b and 10 Sa/b, respectively, where Sa is the standard deviation of replicate measurements at low concentration levels and b is the slope of the calibration curve (30). The shotgun proteomics and PRM data have been deposited in the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository (31), with the dataset identifier PXD073180.

EIF4H Silencing

HCT116 cells were transfected with siRNAs targeting eIF4H 3'UTR (MISSION esiRNA, Merck) at a final concentration of 20 nM for 48 h. Control cells were transfected with a non-targeting siRNA (enhanced GFP) under the same conditions. INTERFERin (Polyplus) was used as a transfection reagent.

Relative Cell Proliferation

HCT116 cells were seeded at 2×10^3 per well onto 96-well plates and incubated at 37 °C under standard conditions. After attaching to the wells, the cells were treated with si-eIF4H or nontargeting siRNA as described previously. The cell number was followed by the high-content fluorescent microscope Operetta (PerkinElmer) in digital phase contrast (DPC) every 24 h for 144 h.

Ribosome Stalling Assay

HCT116 cells were seeded in a 96-well plate format and transfected with 100 ng of dual reporter stalling constructs (32) using the FuGene transfection reagent (Promega). Two sets of constructs were constructed to assess ribosome stalling induced by rs1554710467 in the EIF4H coding sequence (CDS). The first set was based on a 109-nucleotide fragment corresponding to a portion

of EIF4H exon 6, centered on either the reference or the alternative rs1554710467 allele. Those two sequences were cloned into a plasmid containing GFP-P2A-P2A-monomeric Cherry fluorescent protein (mChFP) cistrome (32) between the two P2A sites, exploiting a NotI and a KpnI site. The second set included the complete CDSs of EIF4H isoforms (201-ENST00000265753 and 202-ENST00000353999), with either reference or alternative rs1554710467 alleles. The corresponding cDNAs were amplified using specific primers (Supplemental Table S6) that introduced the restriction sites for cloning. The reverse primer left out the native stop codon. Amplicons were obtained using cDNA prepared from total RNA extracts of HCT116 cells. After DNA ligation and transformation in bacterial competent cells, candidate positive clones were identified by colony PCR using a diagnostic amplification to identify the isoform. The correct sequence of the insert and the rs1554710467 allele was confirmed by Sanger sequencing. Hence, each insert was cloned into a dual-fluorescence reporter plasmid positioned upstream of an mCherry sequence and downstream of GFP, with P2A peptide linkers separating the coding regions. These sequences induce ribosomal skipping without disrupting translation, enabling independent expression of GFP and mCherry from a single mRNA transcript. Control constructs included a known stalling sequence encoding 17 consecutive lysines as a positive control and a SEC61B fragment (106 amino acids) that allows efficient read-through as a negative control. GFP and mCherry fluorescence, together with DPC images, were acquired 36- and 48-h post-transfection using the Operetta High-Content Imaging System (PerkinElmer). mCherry/GFP fluorescence ratios were calculated and used as quantitative indicators of ribosome stalling, with a decreased ratio reflecting translational pausing events.

Image Analysis

Images were analyzed using Harmony 4.1 software (PerkinElmer). For each fluorescent channel, a basic flat-field correction was applied. The DPC channel was preprocessed using the texture second-order edge response method (filter second-order edge response ridge, scale 2px, unnormalized) to improve the cell segmentation (Find Cell, method P). For each cell, the intensity of GFP and mChFP was measured, and the ratio of mChFP/GFP was calculated. A morphological classification of the cells was applied to exclude round-detaching cells from the healthy ones, based on cellular roundness (<0.8).

Experimental Design of Proteomics Analysis and Statistics

The experimental design of the proteomics analyses is illustrated in Figure 6. For the shotgun analysis, three biological replicates ($n = 3$) and no technical replicates were used. The data were confirmed by PRM-based targeted MS under different conditions. As explained previously, the SNV-containing peptides have a methionine residue that can be oxidized during sample preparation. Thus, both unoxidized and oxidized peptides were quantified. For PRM-based targeted MS on untreated lysates, three biological replicates ($n = 3$) and seven technical replicates ($n = 7$) were included. For the PRM assay on protein extracts under CHX treatment, two biological replicates at t0 ($n = 2$) and three at t8 ($n = 3$) were used. For the PRM assay on RNPs and 40S fractions, two biological replicates ($n = 2$) and two technical replicates ($n = 2$) were analyzed. Results were plotted and statistically analyzed using GraphPad Prism, version 10 (GraphPad Software, LLC). A two-tailed paired Student's t test was used to quantify differences in the abundance of peptide variants. Details of the significance levels are provided in each figure legend.

RESULTS

Using Quantitative Proteomics of Whole Lysates to Validate Missense TransSNPs in HCT116 Cells

We leveraged RNA-Seq experiments we performed on four replicates of total cytoplasmic and polysome-bound mRNA extracts in HCT116 cells cultured in mock conditions or treated with the MDM2 inhibitor nutlin (33). We also leveraged an equivalent experiment performed on HCT116 cells stably depleted for PCBP2 and DHX30 RBP expression. These specific gene depletions and treatments were included because they can impact both global and mRNA-specific translation (33, 34) and could reveal or enhance instances of allele-specific differences in mRNA translation efficiency. Applying a recently developed pipeline (3, 4), we identified instances of variation in AF for heterozygous SNPs and SNVs in comparing total and polysomal extracts. While in a recent report we focused on instances of imbalances occurring at UTR sequences, here we focused on those that are coding and result in missense changes. We exploited a dataset comprising four biological replicates of three derivative HCT116 cells stably silenced for the RBPs DHX30, PCBP2, or control. For each cell clone, total cytoplasmic and polysomal RNAs were extracted from mock or nutlin-treated cultures and processed for single-end RNA reads. The raw dataset is deposited in Gene Expression Omnibus and was previously described (29). Based on the coverage of the RNA-Seq dataset and the filtering applied to define heterozygosity in RNA-Seq (AF value between 0.2 and 0.8; AF = alternative allele read/sum of alternative and reference allele) and coverage (at least 20x) in each biological replicate, 1753 SNP/cell line/condition combinations could be studied for differential allele-specific expression (Supplemental Table S1). To assess the presence of allelic imbalance, for each SNP, we exploited the concordance of differential AF measures across pairs of polysomal and total RNA biological replicates by performing a paired t test. This approach highlighted 120 SNP/cell line/condition combinations (Supplemental Table S2), of which 57 were exonic and comprised 52 unique SNPs/SNVs. Of these, 16 were nonsynonymous transSNPs showing differential allelic imbalance in RNA-Seq that could be interrogated for allele-specific variation in protein expression (Fig. 1A, Supplemental Fig. S1; Supplemental Table S3).

To explore the possibility of using proteomics to quantify the relative protein level expressed by the two alleles, we first exploited a label-free shotgun proteomics approach and evaluated the correlation between relative mRNA (transcripts per million) and protein abundance. As expected, a general positive correlation was observed between the two variables (Fig. 1B). A signal was found for 12 of the 16 proteins containing missense transSNPs.

Given that the protein resulting from the translation of a specific allele can be resolved only by the peptide containing

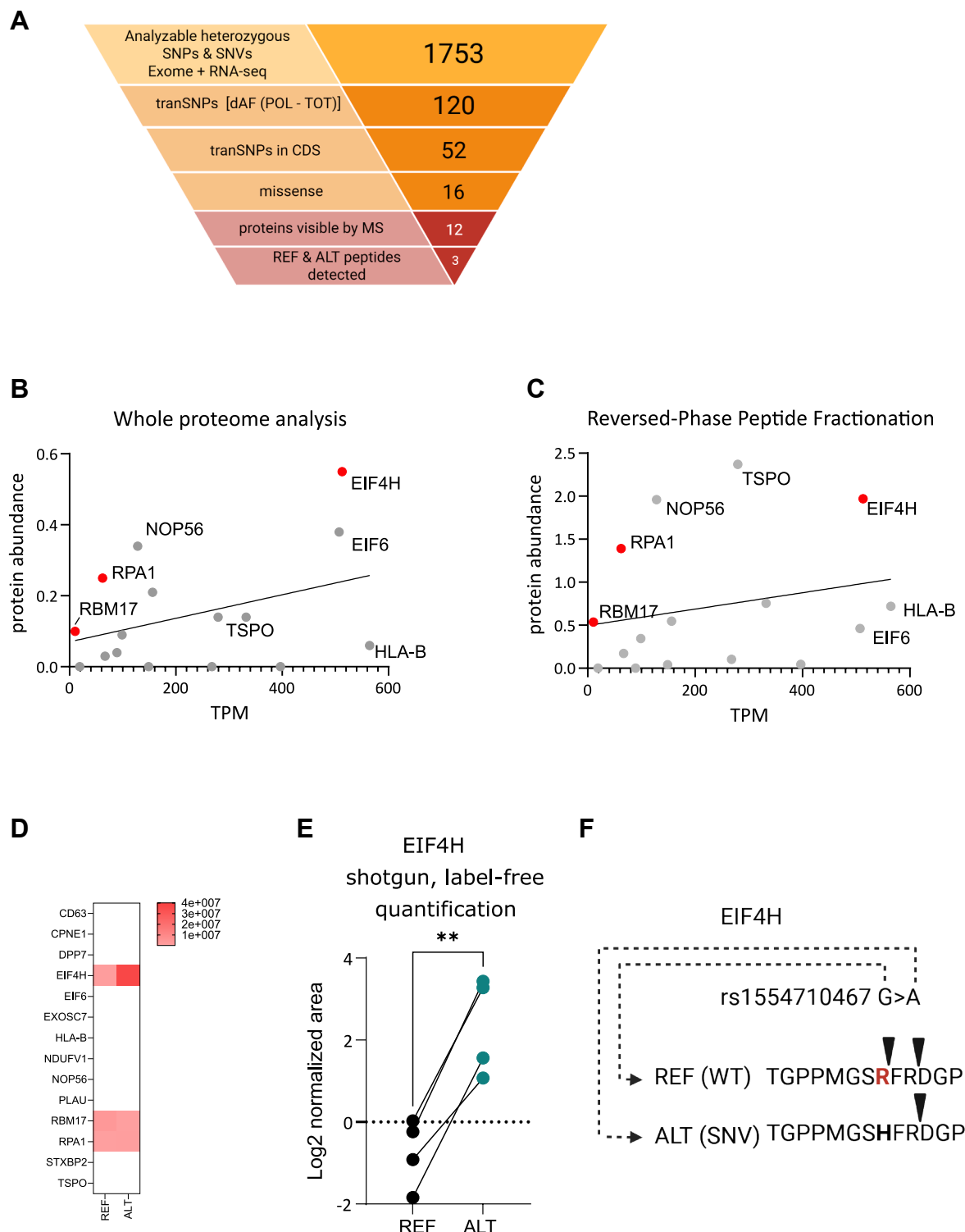


FIG. 1. Polysomal profiling and mass spectrometry identify nonsynonymous allelic variants associated with changes in protein expression. A, workflow of the experimental approach, starting with the number of heterozygous SNPs + SNVs that could be analyzed in HCT116 cells. TransSNPs are defined as heterozygous variants that show a significant imbalance in computed allelic fractions when comparing polysomal (POL) and total (TOT) RNA-Seq data. To be considered, a minimum threshold of 20 reads for each of the four biological replicates in both fractions was set. The number of transSNPs present in coding sequences and causing nonsynonymous amino acid changes is indicated. Twelve of 16 proteins containing missense transSNPs were identified by shotgun, label-free whole proteomics and 14 when a peptide fractionation kit was used prior to the analysis. For only three cases, peptides encompassing the heterozygous variants were detected.

the decoding of the missense SNP or SNVs, protein abundance is an imperfect matrix, given the contribution of additional variables to the possibility of observing a specific peptide from a protein, especially the availability and efficiency of proteolytic sites and enzymes. In fact, after trypsin digestion and LC–MS analysis, a peptide containing at least one of the two biallelic positions was identified in only three of the 12 proteins detected (Fig. 1B).

Next, to increase proteome coverage, digested peptides were first fractionated using a High-pH Reversed-Phase Peptide Fractionation Kit. The resulting 10 fractions were dried by vacuum centrifugation and reconstituted in 0.1% formic acid for LC–MS analysis. This procedure led to a slight increase in the sensitivity of the whole proteome approach, with 14 of the 16 proteins detected (Fig. 1C). This analysis also enabled the observation of two peptides corresponding to the protein sequence containing the transNP for RPA1, RBM17, and, especially, EIF4H (Fig. 1D). For the remaining 11 proteins, the detected peptides did not overlap with the SNP sites, although the abundance was relatively high for some of them, for example, NOP56 and TSPO. Based on these analyses, we selected EIF4H as the most promising candidate, given its transcript and protein abundance and the possibility of detecting peptides corresponding to the translation of the two alleles differing for the rs1554710467 SNV. We also considered RPA1 as an example of a lower-abundance protein.

To further enrich the proteins of interest, HCT116 cell total protein extracts were resolved by SDS-PAGE, stained with Coomassie, and the gel bands corresponding to the regions of 20 to 30 kDa (for EIF4H) and 70 to 90 kDa (for RPA1) were excised and cut into small pieces (~1 mm³). The gel pieces were destained and dehydrated, and in-gel digestion was performed using trypsin (see the [Experimental Procedures](#) section). Digested samples were then processed using shotgun label-free quantification proteomics. Using this approach, significant differences in the abundance of the REF (WT) and ALT (SNV) peptides were observed for EIF4H (Fig. 1E, Supplemental Table S4A). The REF peptide has two potential tryptic sites (8- and 10-amino acid long, respectively) (Fig. 1F). However, only the 8-amino acid version of the REF peptide was found in the LC–MS analysis (TGPPMGSR).

In the ALT peptide, the amino acid change introduced by the alternative allele generated only the 10-amino acid–long tryptic peptide (TGPPMGSHFR), which was more abundant than its REF 8-amino acid counterpart. Our finding is also supported by the presence of an aspartic acid (D) adjacent to a tryptic site (R), which has been reported to inhibit the cleavage efficiency of the enzyme (35, 36). By using the same workflow, we investigated the RPA1 protein. However, the results were inconclusive because of the low representation of the reference peptide (not shown).

rs1554710467 is Common to Two EIF4H Transcript Isoforms That Exhibit Uneven Abundance But Overlapping Translation Efficiency

Although present in the dbSNP database, the rs1554710467 is a rare variant, with a reported frequency of 2.75×10^{-6} based on exome sequencing from gnomAD (37). EIF4H is a translation initiation factor that, together with EIF4B, can participate in the unwinding of the 5'UTR motif supporting translation initiation (38). EIF4H expression is upregulated in some cancer types, and an oncogenic function has been proposed (39–41). For the EIF4H gene, multiple transcripts are annotated, among which two golden-pass coding ones in the Ensembl database differ in the skipping of exon 5, resulting in a protein that is 20 amino acids shorter (Fig. 2A). rs1554710467 is located in an exon that is common to both splice variants. According to a publicly available RNA-Seq dataset, the two coding splice variants account for over 95% of processed transcripts. Hence, we developed specific primers to study those two transcripts separately (Supplemental Table S6). qPCR revealed that the exon-5-skipped isoform 202 (ENST00000353999) is more abundant than the longer 201 isoform (ENST000002665753) (Fig. 2B). We also found a correspondence at the protein level by Western blot (Fig. 2C). We then examined the polysome association of those two transcripts by recovering RNA from sucrose-gradient density fractionation (Fig. 2D), followed by isoform-specific qPCR. The result revealed that the two isoforms have equivalent translation efficiency. To gain information on the potential impact of rs1554710467 alleles on mRNA structure and translation efficiency for the two coding isoforms, we exploited publicly available tools. No differences

B, comparison between mRNA expression (transcripts per million, average of the biological replicates) and relative protein abundance measured from whole proteome analysis of HCT116 cells. Highlighted in red are those proteins where the peptides comprising the biallelic variant were detected by mass spectrometry. C, same as B, except that the whole proteome data were obtained after fractionation of digested peptides by a High-pH Reversed-Phase Peptide Fractionation Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). D, heatmap presenting the relative abundance of the reference and alternative peptides differing by one amino acid, resulting from the decoding of the heterozygous genetic variants. Fourteen of the 16 proteins were detected by mass spectrometry, but for only three of them, the alternative and reference peptides were measurable by whole proteomics. E, relative quantification of the wildtype- and SNV-derived EIF4H peptides by label-free shotgun analysis. ***p* < 0.01, two-tailed paired *t* test. F, the rs1554710467 SNV results in the R183H amino acid change and modifies the cleavage pattern of the two variants, resulting in a 10-amino acid–long peptide for the alternative allele. Black triangles indicate the respective cleavage sites for trypsin. EIF4H, eukaryotic initiation factor 4H; SNV, single-nucleotide variant.

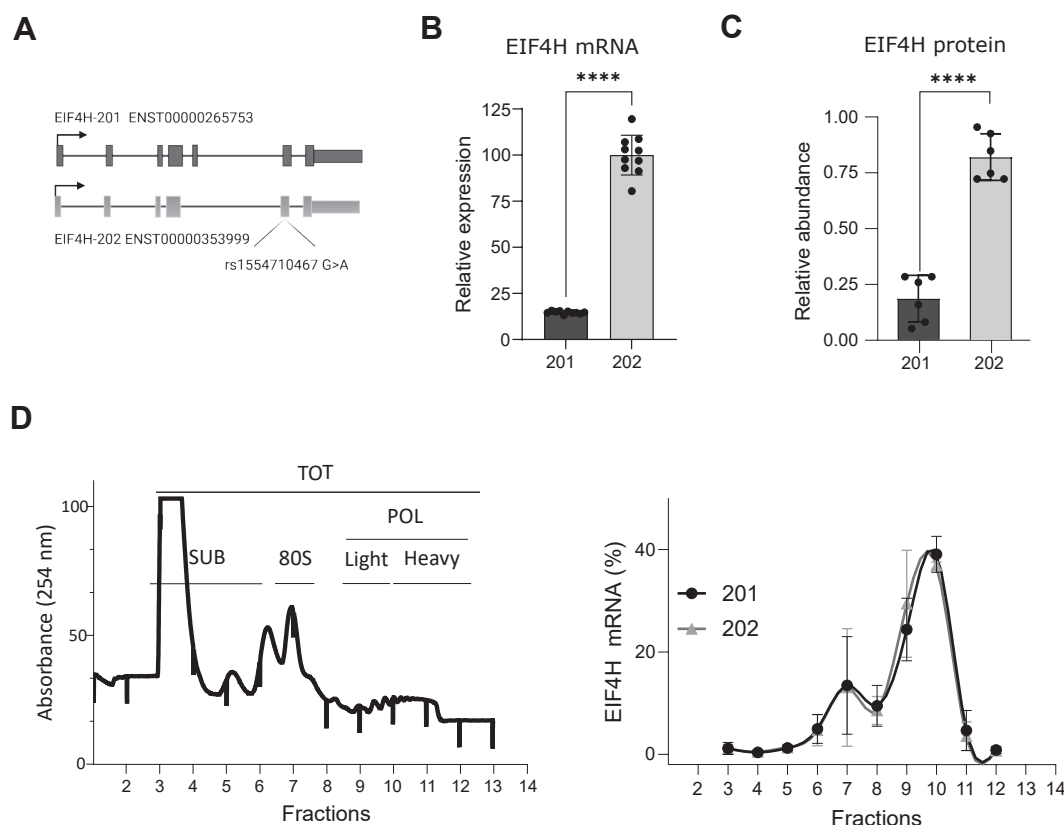


FIG. 2. rs1554710467 is located in EIF4H exon 6, that is, common to two splice isoforms. A, scheme of EIF4H alternative transcripts generated by exon 5 inclusion or skipping. The SNV resulting in the R183H amino acid change is present in an exon that is common to the two annotated coding transcripts. B, relative expression of EIF4H mRNA splicing isoforms in HCT116 cells. The bars show the average expression, normalized over beta-actin, the standard deviations of replicates, and the individual data points. **** $p < 0.0001$, unpaired t test with Welch's correction. C, relative abundance of EIF4H protein isoforms. Bars plot the average intensity of the two EIF4H-immunodetected bands resolved by acrylamide gel electrophoresis, the standard deviations, and the individual replicates. **** $p < 0.0001$, unpaired t test with Welch's correction. For representative images, see [Figures 4 and 6](#). D, left panel, polysome profile of sucrose-gradient density fractionation of HCT116 cytoplasmic lysate. Fractions corresponding to ribonucleoproteins and subpolysomal subunits (SUB), 80S monosomes, light and heavy polysomes are numbered as indicated. RNA was extracted from individual fractions and amplified using EIF4H isoform-specific qPCR primers. The relative abundance (percentage) of each isoform along the polysome profile is shown, following the protocol described ([22](#)). Average and standard deviations of three biological replicates are shown. EIF4H, eukaryotic initiation factor 4H; SNV, single-nucleotide variant.

were predicted by MutaRNA ([42](#)) ([Supplemental Fig. S2, B and C](#)). RiboNN, a deep learning model for translation efficiency prediction ([43](#)), showed variation in the translation efficiency of EIF4H transcripts across different cell lines and tissues but did not predict a clear difference among rs1554710467 alleles ([Supplemental Fig. S2D](#)). Furthermore, protein structure predictions by AlphaFold 3 ([44](#)) suggest that the R183 amino acid is part of a relatively long unstructured domain, and amino acid changes at that residue are predicted to be benign ([Supplemental Fig. S2, E and F](#)). Based on our RNA-Seq data, the alternative allele exhibited a higher allele frequency in the polysomal fraction compared with the total RNA fraction, suggesting that it would lead to higher relative protein expression ([Fig. 3A, Supplemental Table S1](#)). First, we decided to validate the allelic imbalance by exploiting additional biological replicates of polysomal profiling and using Sanger sequencing as an alternative approach to measuring

allelic imbalance with isoform resolution. AF calculation by Sanger sequencing was extended to total cytoplasmic RNA samples corresponding to the density of subpolysomal subunits, 80S monosomes, light, and heavy polysomes ([Supplemental Fig. S2A](#)). However, no significant differences in AF could be appreciated in these analyses. For the EIF4H isoform, including exon 5, a trend for higher AF in monosomes and polysomes compared with subpolysomal RNA was apparent.

rs1554710467 is a Coding TransSNP in the EIF4H Gene Associated With Differences in Protein Allelic Variants According to MS Analysis

Next, we returned to an MS approach to explore whether the two alleles could be better quantified. To this aim, a targeted proteomics approach was chosen. Heavy isotope-labeled synthetic peptides representing REF and ALT

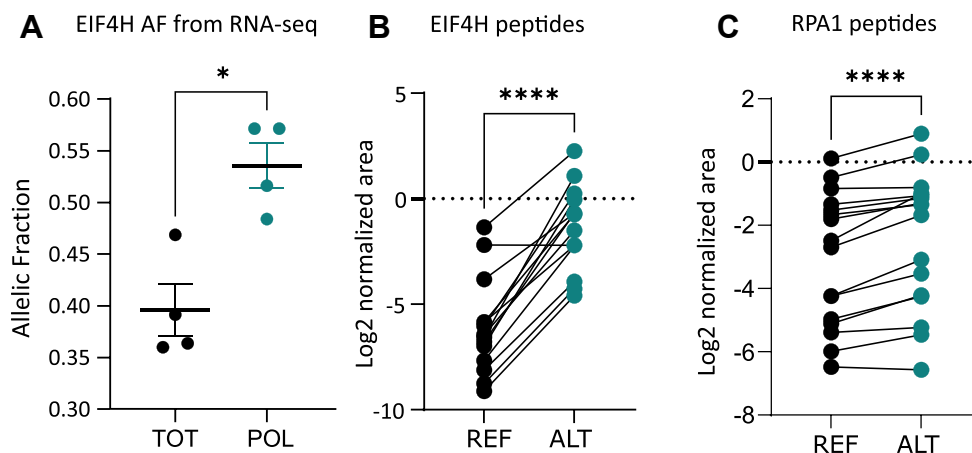


FIG. 3. The rs1554710467 is a heterozygous SNV showing consistent allelic imbalance at both mRNA and protein levels. A, plot comparing allelic fractions (AFs, defined as the ratio between the number of reads of the alternative over the total number of reads—reference (REF) and alternative (ALT)—for that nucleotide position) measured by RNA-Seq of total RNA (TOT) and polysome-associated RNA (POL, Figure 2D) recovered from sucrose-gradient fractionation. Mean AF, standard deviation, and the individual biological replicates are shown. * $p < 0.05$, two-tailed paired t test. B, relative quantification of the REF and ALT EIF4H peptide from targeted mass spectrometry analysis employing spiked-in isotope-labeled control peptides. **** $p < 0.0001$, two-tailed paired t test. The peptide under analysis contains a methionine that can be oxidized during sample preparation. Hence, the plot shows paired results for both the unoxidized and oxidized peptides. C, relative quantification of the REF and ALT RPA1 peptide by targeted mass spectrometry performed as in B. See Supplemental Table S1 for AF data of the nonsynonymous rs5030755 variant. Although highly significant (**** $p < 0.0001$, two-tailed paired t test), the difference in the relative abundance of the peptides derived from the two alleles is smaller compared with EIF4H. EIF4H, eukaryotic initiation factor 4H; SNV, single-nucleotide variant.

variants were spiked into the endogenous peptide mixture to increase the confidence of identification and quantification in LC-MS analysis. The relative abundance of the two peptides in the samples was estimated by the ratio of the endogenous (light) peptide to its spiked (heavy) synthetic counterpart, using the Skyline software to compute the peptide AF. In a first experiment, we analyzed the samples that had been enriched for the target protein of interest through in-gel digestion. The results of targeted proteomics confirmed a significant increase in the abundance of the alternative rs1554710467 protein allele (Fig. 3B, Supplemental Table S4B), as predicted by polysomal profiling (Fig. 3A). To exclude any artifacts introduced during the enrichment workflow, a significant difference in ALT abundance compared with REF was subsequently confirmed in the total lysate peptide mixture (Supplemental Fig. S3A). Since the adherence to all PRM rules is not always possible when analyzing specific digested peptides carrying mutations (see the *Experimental Procedures* section for details), further experiments were necessary to demonstrate that the different chemical properties of the two peptides of interest (REF, TGPPMGSR; ALT, and TGPPMGSHFR) did not affect the outcome. Using synthetic peptides, we first demonstrated that the ionization of the REF peptide is always greater than that of the ALT peptide at any given concentration (Supplemental Fig. S3B). As the ALT peptide is significantly more abundant than the REF peptide in our samples, this measurement cannot be attributed to a greater ionization. Second, we evaluated the impact of oxidation on the

quantification. Synthetic REF and ALT peptides were subjected to *in vitro* oxidation using hydrogen peroxide. The ratio of area between unoxidized and oxidized counterparts decreases over time (Supplemental Fig. S3C, left panel). Nonetheless, the peptide AF (ALT/total peptides) remains constant, indicating that changes in oxidation do not alter quantitation (Supplemental Fig. S3C, right panel). A linear regression analysis was performed to evaluate the linearity range and the LOD and LOQ of our analyses. To this end, a set of samples was prepared by serially diluting light isotope-labeled peptides in a relevant biological matrix, keeping the heavy peptide at a constant concentration (50 fmol). The amount of unoxidized forms exceeded the limit of the LOQ, whereas the amount of oxidized forms was predominantly below the LOQ (Supplemental Fig. S3, D and E). These results further support the notion that in our experiments, the contribution of oxidation may be negligible.

Overall, the MS results confirmed an allelic imbalance for the EIF4H rs1554710467, which was even higher than that measured by polysomal profiling RNA-Seq. The targeted approach, combined with the use of isotope-labeled peptides, enabled us to validate the imbalance even for the case of the low-abundant RPA1 rs5030755-spanning peptides (Fig. 3C, Supplemental Table S4B).

The rs1554710467 Variant Does Not Affect the EIF4H Protein Half-Life or Its Subpolysomal Localization

We wanted to exclude the possibility that the difference in relative abundance of the two EIF4H peptides could depend

on the effect of the amino acid substitution (R183H) on protein stability. To gain information in this respect, HCT116 cells were treated with CHX, and the EIF4H protein half-life was measured in a time-course experiment. Results established that EIF4H is a relatively long-lived protein with an estimated half-life of about 8 h in our experimental conditions (Fig. 4A). We then prepared protein extracts at time 0 and after 8 h of CHX treatment and performed the targeted MS

analysis again. Results showed an equivalent imbalance of the two peptides corresponding to the rs1554710467 alleles, suggesting that the two alternative peptides belong to proteins possessing similar half-lives (Fig. 4C).

Next, we explored whether the EIF4H alternative-allele protein could retain its function. To support this aim, proteins were retrieved after sucrose gradient fractionation of HCT116 cytosolic extracts. Western blot analysis revealed

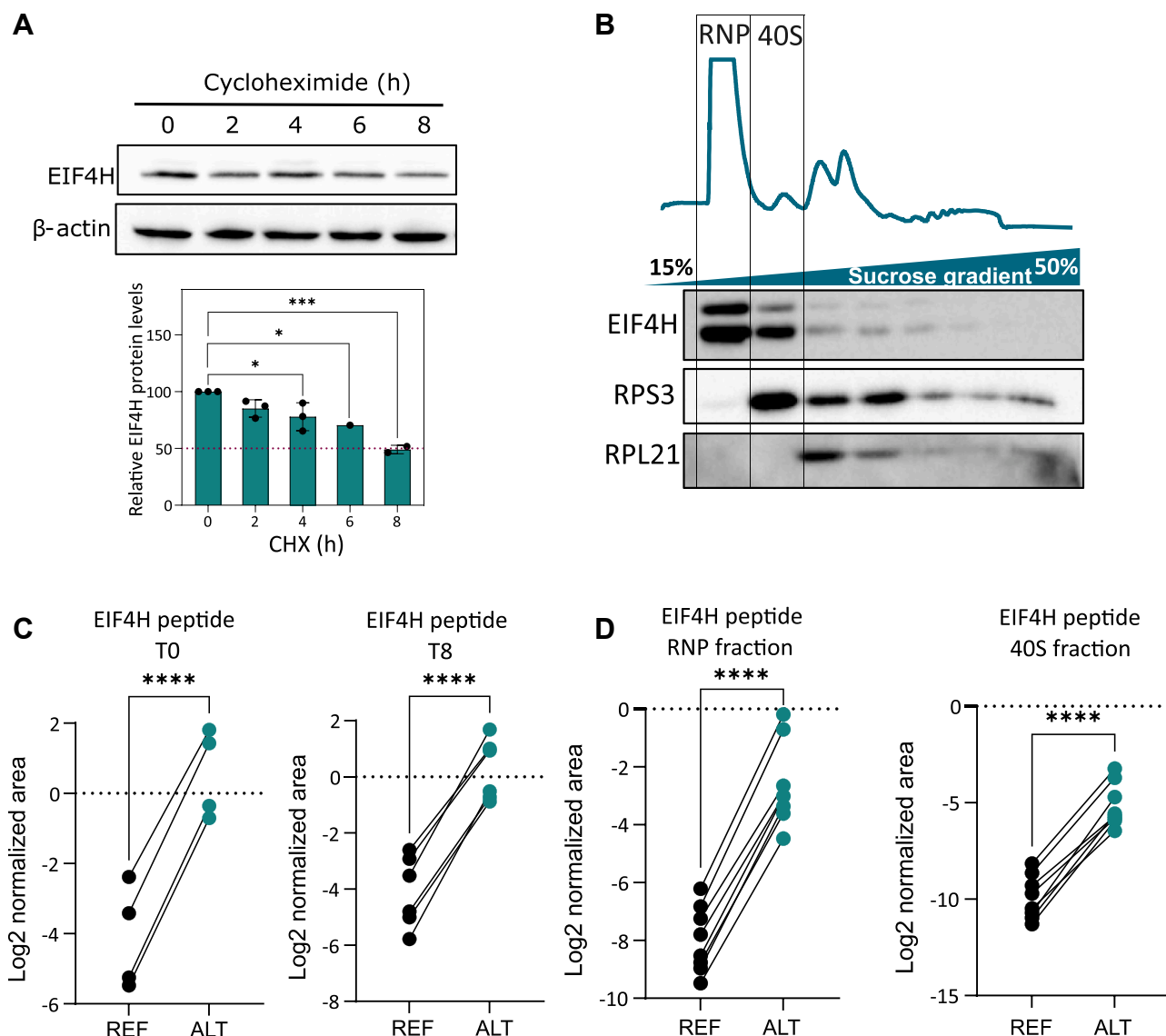


FIG. 4. The rs1554710467 SNV does not alter either EIF4H protein stability or its subpolysomal localization. A, a cycloheximide (CHX) chase assay was performed to estimate EIF4H protein half-life in HCT116 cells. The *top panel* shows a representative Western blot for EIF4H and beta-actin proteins. The *bottom panel* presents the relative EIF4H quantification based on densitometric analysis of the immunoblots. The average relative signal, the standard deviations, and the individual replicates are shown. * $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$, ordinary one-way ANOVA. B, HCT116 polysomal profiling was used to extract protein from each fraction and perform Western blot analysis for EIF4H, RPS3, and RPL21 proteins. Based on these results, proteins recovered from the RNP and 40S fractions were used for targeted proteomics. C, based on CHX-chase assay results, proteins at time 0 and at the 8-h time point (corresponding to half-life) were subjected to targeted proteomics. D, based on the EIF4H protein localization obtained in B, proteins recovered from the RNP and 40S fractions were used for quantitative targeted proteomics. **** $p < 0.0001$, two-tailed paired t test. EIF4H, eukaryotic initiation factor 4H; RNP, ribonucleoprotein.

that the EIF4H protein was primarily localized in the light fraction, corresponding to RNPs, and in the fraction corresponding to 40S subunits (Fig. 4B). Proteins recovered from these two fractions were subjected to targeted MS analysis, which again showed a significant imbalance between the two alleles (Fig. 4D). We concluded that the amino acid change associated with rs1554710467 seems to preserve protein half-life and polysomal localization, suggesting that the alternative R183H allele is functional and leads to higher protein levels.

The Alternative rs1554710467 Allele Shows Higher Translation in a Ribosome Stalling Assay

To investigate whether the amino acid change caused by the rs1554710467 could affect translation efficiency by some type of ribosome stalling, we cloned 109-nt sequences of EIF4H exon 6, comprising either the alternative or the reference allele of the rs1554710467 transNP, on a dual-fluorescence plasmid, between a GFP and an mCherry sequence and flanked by two P2A sequences (28). The SEC61B sequence, which is known to allow efficient

read-through, was cloned into the same plasmid and used as a negative control. A positive control for stalling, containing a sequence coding for a stretch of 17 consecutive lysine residues (polyK), was used (Fig. 5A). With these reporter constructs, the mChFP/GFP fluorescence ratio was used as a proxy for the translation efficiency of the sequences inserted between the two reporters. The two EIF4H alleles were similar to the SEC61B control, although they were about one-third in length. However, while the mChFP/GFP ratio for the REF EIF4H allele was not significantly different compared with the negative control, the ALT allele produced a significantly higher mChFP/GFP ratio, indicating that it is translated even more efficiently (Fig. 5B, Supplemental Fig. S4, constructs labeled “e6,” as rs1554710467 is located in exon 6, coding for 33 amino acids). To further validate this finding, we constructed additional reporter plasmids containing the complete CDSs of both EIF4H isoforms with either REF or ALT rs1554710467 alleles (Fig. 5B, constructs labeled “201” and “202,” corresponding to the two isoforms that differ for the inclusion of exon 5, coding for 248 and 228 amino acids, respectively). A slightly higher mChFP/GFP ratio was

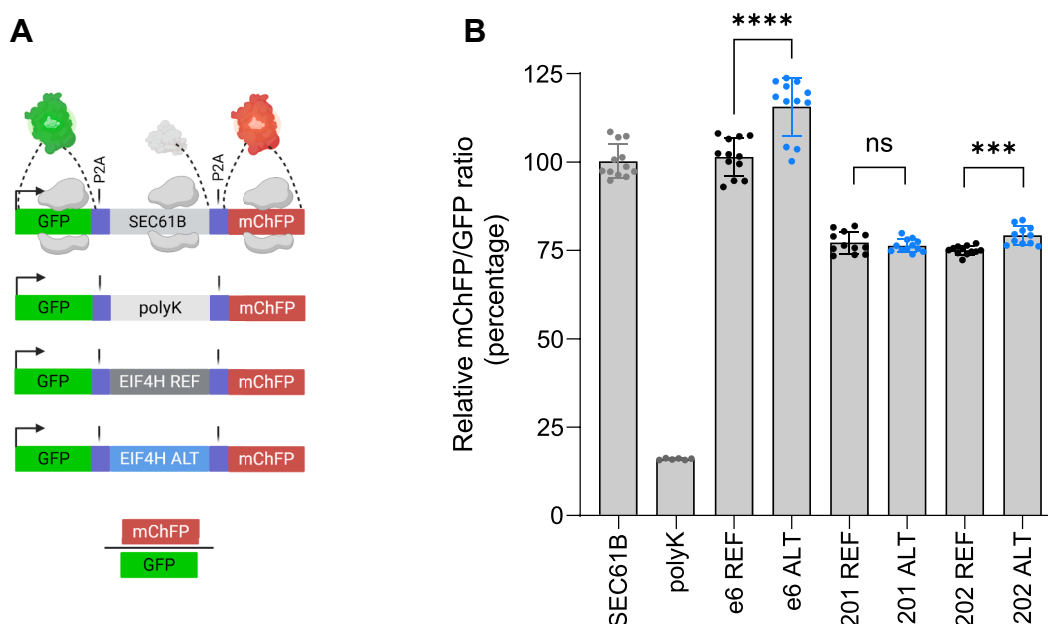


FIG. 5. The rs1554710467 variant shows higher translation efficiency in a ribosome stalling assay. A, scheme of the dual-fluorescence transcript used to evaluate the relative efficiency of translation of EIF4H constructs. The two separated rs1554710467 alleles were cloned as intervening sequences between a GFP coding sequence lacking a stop codon and the mChFP coding sequence. As indicated, the intervening cloned sequence is flanked by P2A sites. This configuration enables the production of GFP and mChFP by the decoding of a single transcript. Hence, the mChFP/GFP ratio can be used to measure differences in the translation efficiency of the cloned sequence. A 106-amino acid sequence from SEC61B is used as a control sequence that does not cause pronounced ribosome stalling. The addition of 17 lysine (AAA) codons was used as a positive control for stalling. B, EIF4H reference and alternative alleles were compared in these assays by developing three pairs of constructs: e6 contains a 33 amino acid stretch of exon 6, centered on the codon impacted by the rs1554710467 alleles. 201 and 202 refer to the complete cDNA for the two EIF4H splicing variants. mChFP/GFP fluorescence ratios were measured by Operetta, an HTS microscope. Bar plot, the average, the standard deviations, and individual values of independent replicates, setting to 100% the results obtained with the SEC61B control sequence. ns, not significantly different; **** $p < 0.0001$, unpaired t test with Welch's correction. The distribution of fluorescence ratios for individual cells is presented in Supplemental Figure S4A. cDNA, complementary DNA; EIF4H, eukaryotic initiation factor 4H; mChFP, monomeric Cherry fluorescent protein.

Allele-specific proteomics identify nonsynonymous genetic variants altering protein expression levels

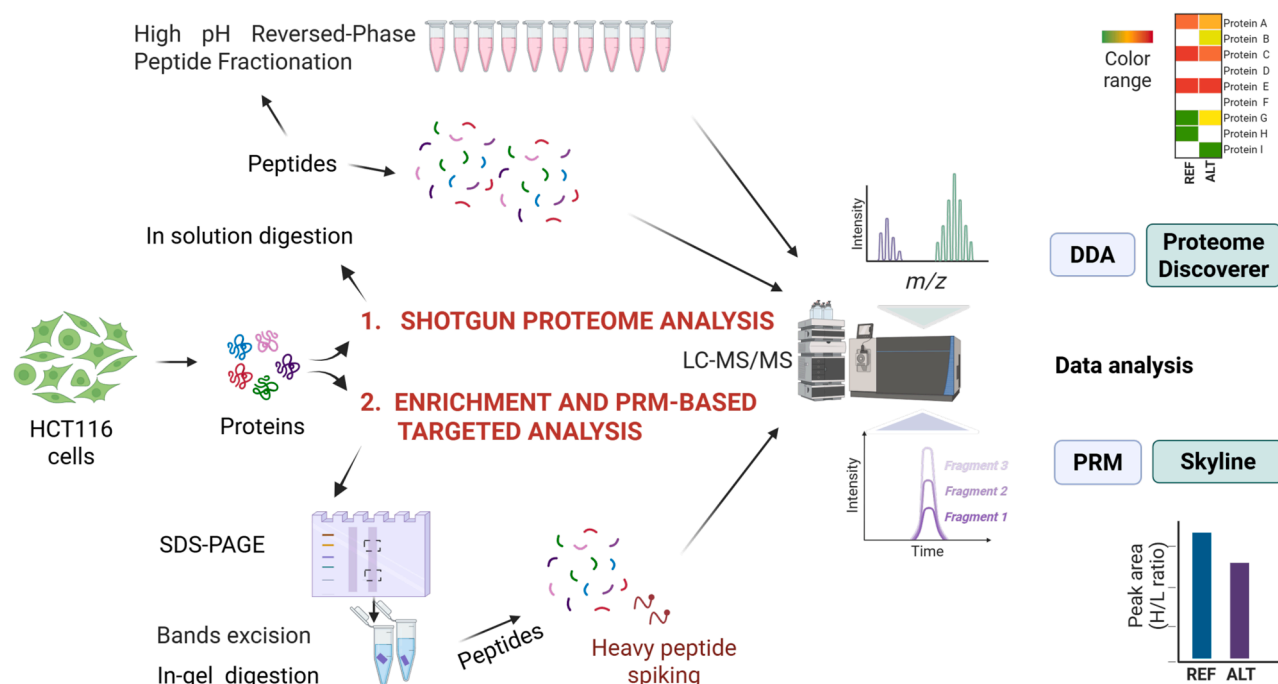


FIG. 6. Schematic representation of the allele-specific proteomic approaches used in this study. For the shotgun analysis (1), before the detection, digested peptides were also separated into 10 fractions using a High-pH Reversed-Phase Kit. Compared with the unfractionated peptide preparations, this approach slightly increased the number of proteins containing nonsynonymous variants that were detected. However, of 16 proteins that were followed based on the polysomal profiling RNA-Seq data, 14 were detected by the presence of at least one unambiguous peptide, but only in three cases, a peptide encompassing the target variant was revealed. To increase the sensitivity, a targeted proteomics approach was used (2) that relied on protein isolation after acrylamide electrophoresis, in-gel digestion, and spike-in of isotope-labeled peptides. This approach enabled the quantification of the reference and alternative transSNP peptides from total protein extracts or enriched samples.

observed for the 202, exon 5 skipped, isoform, whereas no difference was visible for the 201 one (Fig. 5B, Supplemental Fig. S4A). Overall, the results are consistent with both the allelic imbalance in RNA-Seq and the MS experiments, providing orthogonal evidence that the rs1554710467 ALT allele exhibits elevated translation potential. Time-course analysis confirmed that the translation advantage of the ALT allele persisted at 36- and 48-h post-transfection (Supplemental Fig. S4B). The positive control for ribosome stalling led to a low mChFP/GFP signal ratio, as expected (Fig. 5B, Supplemental Fig. S4A).

DISCUSSION

A broad change in cellular metabolism is one of the established hallmarks of cancer cells, as exemplified by altered expression or acquired somatic mutations leading to looser controls over cell growth and the balance between proliferation, autophagy, and cell death patterns. Along with the growing evidence for unexpected complexity and

variability in ribosome composition and function, these findings justify the growing interest in studying mRNA translation control in cancer and the opportunity for developing effective cancer therapies targeting translation initiation (45). Importantly, there is considerable evidence that transcripts coding for elements of the translation machinery in a broad sense are themselves subject to translational control mechanisms, such as regulation of translation initiation, including cap-independent translation or the interplay between overlapping open reading frames (46–49).

Along these lines, we are developing methods to annotate genetic variants associated with alterations in gene expression that appear to be linked to changes in mRNA fate in the cytoplasm. For example, our earlier studies revealed that the commitment to p53-dependent apoptosis can be modulated by an mRNA translation program comprising the RNA helicase DHX30, the RBP PCBP2 acting at a target *cis*-element present in the 3'UTR of proapoptotic mRNAs (6, 33). This finding stimulated us to annotate genetic sources of allele-specific mRNA translation potential in cancer-relevant genes

that were sought out by exploiting RNA-Seq data of matched polysomal and total RNA (3). The underlying assumption is that the translome is a good proxy of the proteome, not only at the gene level, as broadly supported in the literature (46, 50, 51), but also at the allelic level when the two alleles are expressed in a heterozygous cell line.

A consistent variation in the AFs in the comparison between polysomal and total RNA for heterozygous SNPs is the initial criterion we use to nominate a tranSNP, defined as a genetic variant associated with allele-specific mRNA translation. Using polysomal profiling, we had the opportunity to also study heterozygous SNPs and SNVs present in the UTRs and pursue underlying mechanisms. Indeed, UTR tranSNP could modify *cis*-elements for microRNA or RBP binding, which in turn can impact the transcript fate in terms of subcellular localization, translation efficiency, or stability.

In this study, we established the feasibility of using allele-specific proteomics to identify instances of variation in translation efficiency among nonsynonymous coding SNPs and SNVs present in the heterozygous state in the HCT116 cancer cell line. Compared with translome and RNA-Seq, the sensitivity of MS approaches remains limited, and the detection of SNV- and SNP-containing peptides can be hindered by their low abundance and limited protein coverage because of a lack of enzymatic cleavage sites. To enhance the monitoring of SNV-containing peptides, we have combined different strategies using fractionation and shotgun proteomics analysis as a first step, followed by targeted PRM proteomics to precisely and consistently measure relative changes between two peptides resulting from heterozygous missense variants. By using these methods, we were able to develop a proof-of-principle study for EIF4H and the rs1554710467 missense SNV. Our results consistently showed a pronounced difference in the relative abundance of the two allelic peptides produced by EIF4H protein digestion. The imbalance was consistent with the changes in AF observed in the RNA-Seq data. A consistent and significant difference in the mRNA translation potential was also measured by dual fluorescence assays originally developed to study ribosome stalling. Interestingly, the magnitude of the effect of the single R>H amino acid variant we studied is similar to the impact observed with 10 copies of GR repeats (32). However, the sensitivity of the reporter assay depended on the length of the EIF4H sequence that was inserted as a spacer between the GFP and mChFP reporters (Fig. 5). We provided evidence that the imbalance seen by MS cannot be explained by differences in protein stability among the two alleles (Fig. 4). Also, results based on protein extracts from sucrose-gradient fractionations suggest that the wildtype and variant proteins have equivalent subpolysomal localization (Fig. 4). Structural modeling does not predict that the R183H change has an overt impact on protein folding (Supplemental Fig. S2). However, we cannot exclude that the histidine change will lead to a more tightly structured motif elicited by

EIF4H interactions with a target protein. To begin exploring the potential functional consequences of rs1554710467, we attempted to partially deplete EIF4H in HCT116 cells by transient siRNA delivery. Although this approach was not allele specific, it was performed to explore the consequences of reducing EIF4H expression and thus counteract the proposed effect of the SNV (Supplemental Fig. S5). These preliminary results showed that EIF4H depletion was not associated with reduced cell proliferation. Instead, it was associated with reduced RPS6 levels, consistent with EIF4H's known function in unwinding structured 5'UTR motifs during translation initiation. Overall, we propose that the rs1554710467 SNV is a functional allele that increases EIF4H protein levels.

Several MS-based approaches have been developed to enhance the detection and quantification of protein biomarkers, especially cancer-associated mutant proteins, in complex biological samples, as well as in cancer cell lines (13, 14, 17–21, 52). However, there are limitations in MS-based techniques, such as selected reaction monitoring, multiple reaction monitoring, and PRM (15, 18, 53). In fact, global proteomics strategies typically detect only a fraction of the SAAVs identified *via* DNA-Seq or RNA-Seq because of issues, such as low peptide abundance, the lack of matching peptide sequences in databases, and relatively high false discovery rates (15, 18, 19, 53, 54).

Our proof-of-principle experiments aimed at integrating transcriptome, translome, and MS data, leveraging SNPs and SNVs present in the exome that, by being heterozygous, enabled us to quantify allele frequencies both in total RNA and polysome-associated fractions. Hence, the analysis of the variation in allele frequency between polysome-associated and total RNA allowed us to candidate nonsynonymous variants as potentially associated with allele-specific translational regulation (Fig. 1A and Supplemental Fig. S1A, Supplemental Tables S1 and S2). This preselection, combined with the fact that two alleles are expressed by the same cell, significantly reduced the number of instances that could be validated. However, it also empowered our MS approach, as it reduced sample-dependent variables that are unavoidable when comparing different cell extracts or, even more so, biological fluids. For example, a large-scale MS-based approach led to the detection of over 400 peptides with SAAVs. Matched RNA-Seq did not support the presence of heterozygous alleles, suggesting a high number of false positives. The correspondence with a biallelic state improved markedly when the analysis was restricted to high-abundance transcripts. For those cases (~50), allele-specific peptide expression showed greater variability than allele-specific RNA expression, a difference attributed to experimental variability in MS (54). Based on the results of our pipeline, we propose that a matched transcriptome and translome RNA-Seq experiment would have revealed a fraction of those instances of allele-specific peptide expression as evidence of *cis*-based mRNA

post-transcriptional regulation. A more recent study used an elegant system to produce standards for pairs of reference and alternative peptides to quantify the ratio between peptides derived from wildtype and variant alleles across different heterozygous samples to investigate the possibility of *cis*-regulatory variants contributing to allele-specific expression within a population (16). Focusing on the UGT2B15 gene, the study proposed that different *cis*-acting variants were at play, some affecting allele-specific mRNA expression, others allele-specific mRNA translation. Our approach, particularly using polysomal profiling to obtain translome data, is tailored to studying genetic sources of mRNA post-transcriptional regulation. In fact, the availability of haplotype data could enable the exploitation of nonsynonymous missense variants quantifiable in MS as markers of allele-specific protein expression that could be caused, for example, by SNP alleles in UTRs altering translation efficiency, for example, by changing RBP-binding sites.

In the case of EIF4H, no other SNPs are present in HCT116; hence, the proposal that the rs1554710467 SNV is causative of the observed differences in protein expression. EIF4H is an RNA helicase involved in translation initiation (55), in particular of transcripts featuring highly structured 5'-UTR, including cancer-relevant ones, such as c-MYC, Bcl-xL, and FGF2, possibly modulating cell proliferation, survival, or angiogenesis (40, 56). While considered as an alternative partner to EIF4A competing with EIF4B, recent structural studies suggest that both EIF4H and EIF4B can be simultaneously present at translation initiation complexes and also participate in the process of mRNA decoding beyond initiation (57). It has been proposed that EIF4H can be considered an oncogene in some cancer types (39–41). Hence, the translation potential of the alternative rs1554710467 could be advantageous to HCT116 cells. However, while highly exploratory, our EIF4H depletion experiment did not reveal an overt dependency of HCT116 cells on high EIF4H levels, although we observed a reduction in the steady-state expression of RPS6, considered a terminal oligopyrimidine mRNA (58), which is consistent with the canonical role of the EIF4H helicase.

To validate differences in AFs between total and polysomal RNA, we have used surrogate assays, such as Sanger sequencing, targeted resequencing, or reporter gene assays with cloned transcript portions of each of the two allele pairs (3, 4), and for the first time in this study, allele-specific proteomics. In principle, for those heterozygous transSNPs present in the CDS, Ribo-Seq data could also be used to measure allelic imbalance by comparing RNA-Seq with ribosome-protected fragments. To explore this possibility, we examined published datasets of HCT116 cells, starting from the GWIPS (Genome Wide Information on Protein Synthesis) database (59) and retrieving data visualized and analyzed by exploiting the Integrated Genome Viewer (Supplemental Fig. S6, Supplemental Table S7). While limited by low coverage, we evaluated 8 nonsynonymous and 10

synonymous transSNPs from our list. As a comparison, we used 20 SNPs that showed no evidence of imbalance in our dataset. Interestingly, we observed a difference in absolute delta AF comparing Ribo-Seq with RNA-Seq data. The difference was more evident when only nonsynonymous transSNPs were considered. The two groups (transSNPs and control SNPs) did not differ in terms of coverage, as shown for both RNA-Seq and Ribo-Seq (Supplemental Fig. S6D). This preliminary analysis suggests that Ribo-Seq datasets could be mined to search for allele-specific differences in ribosome footprints, although low coverage represents a limitation.

While the differences between the two rs1554710467 in terms of polysome association, translation stalling, and protein expression were consistent, the mechanisms by which the G>A nucleotide change in the mRNA or the resulting R183H amino acid change in the protein leads to higher translation potential remain to be established. RNA structure predictions by MutaRNA (42) did not show a profound effect of the SNV (ALT allele), considering the two transcripts that differ in the inclusion of exon 5 (Supplemental Fig. S2). Also, similar translation efficiency for the two EIF4H splice isoforms and rs1554710467 variants was predicted using a recently developed deep learning model (43). Mining of eClip data indicates that the SNV site overlaps with binding sites for RPS3 and G3BP1 (not shown), but the significance of these results remains to be established. At the protein level, the sequence surrounding the SNV (SAAV) site is surrounded by two PPX motifs, which can result in slower translation or even ribosome stalling (60–62), and the reference allele codes for the first arginine of an RFR motif. Although these features may indicate an impact on the efficiency of decoding that particular sequence context, further studies are needed to dissect the exact mechanism.

In conclusion, we employed various MS methods, including whole-proteome, fractionation, and targeted analyses, along with spiked-in isotype-labeled controls, to quantify allele-specific differences in protein expression associated with nonsynonymous genetic variants (Fig. 6). We validated this novel approach, although it showed lower sensitivity compared with the translome RNA-Seq analysis, which limited the analysis to abundant proteins. In fact, the need to quantify a specific peptide harboring the biallelic marker represents an additional limitation compared with other allele-specific proteomics approaches (12–17). This limitation could be partially reduced by using multiple proteases to increase the chance of detecting variant peptides (47). Instead, the possibility of studying biallelic markers from the same cell extract guided by translome data is a strength of our method, as it reduces experimental and biological variability compared with proteomic approaches to detect somatic mutations, such as cancer-specific biomarkers (18, 19, 21). However, it must be taken into account that, although superior to transcriptome analysis, translomes represent a proxy for the proteome, and post-translational events affecting

protein stability or the generation of protein isoforms can reduce the correlation between relative mRNA association with polysomes and protein expression (63, 64). This limitation could be particularly relevant when investigating cellular responses to specific stress conditions, such as the modulation of translation initiation, the mTOR pathways, or when comparing different cell types (63, 65–67). Future studies are needed to fully establish this experimental approach, starting from the validation of rs5030755 in RPA1. Higher-sequencing depth of matched transcriptome and translatome RNAs, to extend the catalog of mis-sense transSNPs, coupled to the use of multiple proteases, to focus on reference and alternative peptides that do not differ in length or oxidation potential, would enable us to establish whether whole proteome analysis could also be a reliable method to quantify relative allelic imbalance. Instead, to investigate the biological significance of transSNPs, the generation of derivative cell lines homozygous for either the reference or the alternative allele by genome editing would be required.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Data are available via ProteomeXchange ID PXD073180 (<https://proteomecentral.proteomexchange.org/cgi/GetDataset?ID=PX073180>).

Supplemental Data—This article contains [supplemental data](#).

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Abbreviations—The abbreviations used are: ACN, acetonitrile; AF, allelic fraction; AGC, automatic gain control; ALT, alternative allele or peptide; BCA, bicinchoninic acid; cDNA, complementary DNA; CDS, coding sequence; CHX, cycloheximide; DPC, digital phase contrast; EIF4H, eukaryotic initiation factor 4H; IAA, iodoacetamide; LOD, limit of detection; LOQ, limit of quantification; mChFP, monomeric Cherry fluorescent protein; MS, mass spectrometry; mTOR, mechanistic target of rapamycin; PRM, parallel reaction monitoring; qPCR, quantitative PCR; RBP, RNA-binding protein; REF, reference allele or peptide; RIPA, radioimmunoprecipitation assay; RNP, ribonucleoprotein; SAAV, single amino acid variant; SNV, single-nucleotide variant.

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