

Transcriptome-wide alterations in mRNA translation define breast cancer subtypes

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Abstract

Breast cancer, the most prevalent type of cancer in women, is characterized by multiple underlying molecular mechanisms. Tumor classification, including histological characteristics, receptor expression as well as expression of mRNA signatures, provide estimates of disease progression and guide treatment regimen. However, the role of post-transcriptional mechanisms, including mRNA translation, in establishing tumour proteomes, is unknown. Although there is ample support for transcript-selective alterations in mRNA translation as underlying cancer-associated phenotypes, due to technical challenges, their relevance in patients is unclear. Here, we employ polysome-profiling optimized for small samples to quantify transcriptome-wide patterns of mRNA translation in two cohorts of breast cancer patients. The first cohort revealed widespread variation in mRNA translation across patients and suggested six subsets of subtypes of breast cancer, independent of cell-composition, that were also validated in the second patient cohort. Mechanistically, altered translation in breast cancer subtypes is driven by interactions between translation programs downstream of translation initiation factors including eIF4E, eIF4A and DAP5, as well as key signalling pathways including mTOR, the integrated stress response (ISR) and extracellular matrix. Moreover, a plethora of cis-regulatory elements in both coding and non-coding sequences of targeted mRNAs associate with selective regulation of translation in each breast cancer translation-subtype. Therefore, transcript-selective modulation of mRNA translation is key characteristics of breast cancer that may be amendable for tailored treatments.

48 **Introduction**

49 Breast cancer, the most prevalent malignancy in women, affects more than 2 million
50 individuals each year(1) . Treatment of breast cancer is tailored depending on receptor
51 status but also activities of gene expression signatures, including the PAM50
52 classification(2). The PAM50 classification has contributed to the understanding of breast
53 cancer heterogeneity by identifying five intrinsic subtypes, differing in incidence,
54 disease progression, response to treatment and survival (3–6). Despite ample
55 therapeutic options for breast cancer, a significant proportion of patients either do not
56 respond to the therapies or develop resistance and therefore relapse (7).

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58 mRNA translation, a fundamental component of the gene expression program, allows
59 organisms to, in response to intra- and extracellular stimuli, rapidly adapt their proteome
60 by selectively controlling translation of mRNA transcribed from subsets of genes (8). This
61 dynamic process is tightly regulated e.g. at the initiation step, which is commonly
62 considered rate-limiting, by a repertoire of trans-acting factors, including translation
63 initiation factors, and cis-acting mRNA features such as secondary structures and RNA-
64 elements(9,10). Together, cis- and trans-acting factors underlie transcript-selective
65 regulation of mRNA translation depending on intracellular pathways and environmental
66 alterations. For instance, a significant proportion of mRNA molecules supporting
67 malignant phenotypes possess structured 5' untranslated regions (5'UTRs) and therefore
68 have a high requirement of the eIF4F-complex for initiation of mRNA translation(11).
69 Initiation is followed by elongation and termination, where elongation is influenced by

features in the coding sequence (CDS) of mRNA molecules such as codon composition that interact with the composition of the cellular tRNA pool (9,10,12–14).

Previous studies show that oncogenic pathways influence various mRNA translation steps to alter the translational efficiency of mRNAs transcribed from specific genes(10,15–20). For instance, the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway, which is often activated in malignancies, stimulates formation of the eIF4F translation initiation complex, which then bolsters cap-dependent translation. (21). Further supporting mRNA translation as a node downstream of cancer-associated pathways, transcription of genes encoding components of the eIF4F complex is activated by the MYC oncogene (19). In addition to their influence on translation initiation, oncogenic pathways have also been shown to affect elongation, for example by regulating the activity of elongation factors or tRNA modifications in cancer cells(23–26). Consistently, evidence from mouse and *in vitro* studies suggest a role of dysregulated mRNA translation in cancer (16,27–30).

Here we describe the, to our knowledge, first transcriptome-wide profiling of mRNA translation in human cancer tissues and reveal that transcript-selective alterations in mRNA translation is a feature of breast cancer. We further associate these mRNA translation-changes to cis-acting factors in 5'UTR and CDS as well as key upstream signalling events emanating from intracellular and extracellular queues. These alterations in mRNA translation underlie subtypes of breast cancer distinct from the PAM50 subtypes. Overall, these findings suggest a possibility for treatment of breast cancer via targeting mRNA translation in a precision medicine-fashion.

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96 **Methods**

97 **Polysome profiling of breast cancer samples**

98 Two cohorts of breast cancer samples (n=165, 135 in Cohort I and 30 in cohort II) were
99 obtained from the A.C. Camargo Cancer Center biobank (Sao Paulo, Brazil) with informed
100 consent obtained from the donors in accordance with ethical guidelines (A.C.Camargo
101 Cancer Center ref.1844/13 for sample collection and EPN ref.2018/1055-31 for data
102 analysis). Polysome fractionation of was performed using the optimized sucrose-
103 gradient method and single-end libraries were prepared following the Smart-Seq2
104 protocol as outlined (32). Sequencing was performed on the Illumina HiSeq2500
105 platform, generating 50 base single-end reads from prepared libraries.

106

107 **Preprocessing and quality control of RNA-sequencing data sets**

108 The quality of single-end RNA sequencing reads was assessed using FastQC v0.11.4.
109 Next, RNA sequencing reads that map to Nextera and Truseq adapter as well as
110 ribosomal RNA sequences were trimmed using BBMap (v.36.69; parameters: k=13,
111 ktrim=n, useshortkmers=t, mink=5, qtrim=t, trimq=10, minlength=25 and rRNA
112 reference sequences obtained from SILVA ribosomal RNA gene database). Post-
113 trimming, the reads were aligned to human reference genome (build hg38) using HISAT2
114 (v.2.1.0) with default parameters for single-end RNA sequencing. The “featureCounts”
115 function in Rsubread (v.2.6.4; parameters: isPairedEnd = allowMultiOverlap =
116 countMultiMappingReads=FALSE) R/Bioconductor package was used to summarize
117 aligned reads for each sample and gene. For each cohort, samples with fewer than 2.5
118 million reads and genes with 0 mapped RNA sequencing read in one or more samples

were excluded. Resulting count matrices were TMM-Log2 normalized by “calcNormFactors” and “voom” functions of edgeR (v.3.34.1) and limma (v.3.48.3) R/Bioconductor packages, respectively. Finally, principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using the “pca” function of PCAtools (v.2.4.0; <https://github.com/kevinblighe/PCAtools>; parameters: removeVar = 0.75 and scale = T) on normalized counts and the outlier samples were removed from downstream analyses. PCA plots were generated using the “biplot” function from the PCAtools package.

PAM50 subtyping of breast cancer samples

Molecular subtypes of breast cancer samples were initially determined by assessing the receptor status. Then, using RNA sequencing gene expression data for genes included in PAM50 panel, we computationally determined the PAM50 subtypes using “molecular.subtyping” function from geneFu (v.2.24.2) R/Bioconductor package (parameters : sbt.model=“pam50”, data = normalized counts for either total or polysomal mRNA, annot= annotation for each sample) (33).

Modelling of transcriptome-wide alterations in mRNA translation

Linear regression models were employed to determine the relationship between total cytosolic and polysome-associated mRNA levels. Potential influence from confounding factors, including cell composition of breast cancer samples or clinical covariates, were adjusted for. Cell composition of breast cancer samples were determined using CIBERSORTx in “absolute mode” where cell types included in the built-in LM22 signature

matrix and single cell signatures derived from human cell breast cancers (34,35). Univariate and multivariate regression models were then used to identify the cell types and clinical covariates that significantly associate with alterations in polysome-associated mRNA levels. Per gene and per patient residuals and slopes were collected from a final multivariate linear regression model that is corrected for library sizes, cell types and clinical covariates as follows:

$$EX_{Polysomal} = \gamma_{Lib.Size.Poly.}^{1...j} + \gamma_{Lib.Size.Total}^{1...j} + \gamma_{Clin.Cov.}^{1...j} + \gamma_{Cell.Abd.}^{1...j} + EX_{Total} + \varepsilon$$

Where $EX_{Polysomal}$ polysome associated mRNA levels for a gene across all samples that are corrected for polysome-associated mRNA library size ($\gamma_{Lib.Size.Poly.}$), total cytosolic mRNA library size ($\gamma_{Lib.Size.Total}$), clinical covariates ($\gamma_{Clin.Cov.}$) and cell types ($\gamma_{Cell.Abd.}$). EX_{Total} is the linear dependence of polysome-associated mRNA levels to total mRNA levels and ε is the error. Following this, using samples from the previous model we obtain residuals for a second cohort of patients using the following model per gene and per patient in which each patient is added to the model one at a time in each iteration:

$$\varepsilon_{Coh1} = \gamma_{Lib.Size.Poly.}^{1...k} + \gamma_{Lib.Size.Total}^{1...k} + \gamma_{Clin.Cov.}^{1...k} + \gamma_{Cell.Abd.}^{1...k} + EX_{Total} + \varepsilon$$

Sample classification using per-gene and across-patient translational efficiencies

To classify patients based on translation, residuals obtained from the multivariate linear regression models were used as input in the *cola* (v.2.10.0) R/Bioconductor package (36). Initial analysis using the “run_all_consensus_partition_methods” function with $k_{max}=10$ revealed that $k=6$ with ATC and mclust combinations yielded the most optimal clustering solution as evidenced by mean silhouette, concordance, Jaccard index and 1-PAC values, plotted by “select_partition_number” function (**Fig.S2**). Following this, clustering was

165 performed using the "consensus_partition" function (set.seed(1233) and parameters:
 166 top_value_metho="TC",partition_meth="mclust,max_k = 10 ,partition_repeat = 100).
 167 A heatmap of the clustering was plotted using the "get_signatures" function
 168 (parameters: k=6, silhouette=0.75, group_diff = log2(1.5), fdr_cutoff=0.01) of cola
 169 (v.2.19.0) R/Bioconductor package. Enrichment analysis of resulting gene signatures
 170 from this analysis was performed using "enrichGO" function (parameters: orgDb=
 171 org.Hs.eg.db, keyType: "ENSEMBL", ont="BP", pAdjustMethod="BH", pvalueCutoff=0.01,
 172 qvalueCutoff=0.01) and results were plotted using the "barplot" function (parameters:
 173 showCategory=5, color="p.adjust") from clusterProfiler (v.4.0.5.) R/Bioconductor package
 174 for top 5 terms for each gene signature cluster(37).

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176 **Measuring transcriptome-wide translational efficiencies of human triple-negative** 177 **breast cancer cell lines**

178 To quantify mRNA translation at a transcriptome-wide level in human triple-negative
 179 breast cancer cell lines we performed polysome-profiling in 6 cell lines starved for 16
 180 hours. Isolated mRNA was quantified using Affymetrix GeneChip Human Transcriptome
 181 Array 2.0 (HTA 2.0). Following this, normalized counts were obtained using the "rma"
 182 function from affy (v.1.70.0) R/Bioconductor package and log2-transformed expression
 183 estimates were obtained using the "exprs" function from Biobase (v.2.52.0)
 184 R/Bioconductor package(38,39). Following this, using the model of the first cohort, we
 185 obtain residuals for cell lines using the following model per gene and per replicate in
 186 which each sample is added to the model separately in each iteration:

$$\varepsilon_{Coh1} = \gamma_{Lib, i, oly}^{\square} + \gamma_{Lib, i, total}^{\square} + Ex_{Total} + \varepsilon$$

188

189 **Analysis of gene signatures in breast cancer samples and human breast cancer cell**
190 **lines**

191 To assess the link between observed alterations in mRNA translation and upstream
192 regulators of mRNA translation, empirical cumulative distribution functions were
193 employed. This approach provides information of whether a gene set, e.g. those that
194 were previously identified as translationally regulated by an upstream mechanism, were
195 regulated in a patient-selective fashion. The activity of the gene set was determined by
196 the shift of residuals for each regulated gene set relative to background genes (i.e. all
197 genes quantified not part of the gene set) at the 50th quantile (16,17,25,27,40–44) and
198 the significance of the shift was determined using the Wilcoxon rank sum test. Activities
199 in patient groups were assessed by calculating mean per-gene residuals across patients
200 within a subtype and then the shift and statistics relative to the background. Results were
201 visualized using the “Heatmap” function of ComplexHeatmap (v.2.8.0) R/Bioconductor
202 package(45).

203

204 **Comparison of mRNA translation between patients and cancer cell lines**

205 To compare translation in subtypes of breast cancer to cancer cell lines, the
206 predict_classess function (set.seed(123) and Parameters: nperm=100,
207 dist_method=“correlation”) from cola (v.2.10.0) R/Bioconductor package was used on an
208 input matrix that was prepared by calculating per-gene mean residual of 3 replicates
209 from each triple-negative breast cancer cell line, scaling of the matrix was performed by
210 “scale” function (Parameters: center = F). The results were plotted by the same function.

211

212 **Identification of mRNA features that associate with mRNA translation patterns in**
213 **subtypes of breast cancer**

214 For assessment of the association of 5'UTR and CDS features with mRNA translation
215 patterns, a three-step process implemented in the "featureIntegration" function from
216 the Anot2seqUtils package was applied on per-gene mean residuals calculated across
217 patients within a subtype. For each group of patients, two sets of genes composing of
218 500 genes with most activated translation and 500 genes with the most suppressed
219 translation were tested for 5'UTR features (GC content, length, G-quadruplexes identified
220 by pqs finder(46), presence of uORFs with strong Kozak context, presence of RBP-motifs
221 annotated in ATtRACT(47) database and folding energy calculated by Mfold algorithm(48)
222) and CDS features (codon, dicodon and amino-acid usage) separately using
223 corresponding functions from anota2seqUtils R/Bioconductor package. Following this,
224 5'UTR and CDS features that are identified as significantly associating with alterations of
225 translational efficiency were assessed in the same model. In addition to the network
226 plots generated by featureIntegration function, an "EffScore" was calculated:

227 1. $X = -\log_{10}(\text{p-value}) \times 1/r$ [p-value = p-value of correlation and r=correlation
228 coefficient]

229 2. $X_{\text{Absolute}} = \log_{10}(\text{absolute}(X))$

230 3. $\text{EffScore} = (\text{sign of } X) \times X_{\text{Absolute}}$

231 4. $\text{EffScore}_{\text{Adjusted}} = \text{EffScore} \times \text{Variance Explained}$ [Variance Explained = variance
232 explained by the feature of interest]

233 Heatmap of scaled EffScore_{Adjusted} values for features that were significant (FDR<XXX) in at
234 least two patient subtypes were plotted using the "Heatmap" function in the
235 ComplexHeatmap R/Bioconductor package. Similarly, the activities of signatures were
236 assessed and the heatmap of EffScore_{Adjusted} values were plotted in the same way.

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Results

Quantification of mRNA translation in breast cancer patients

Hitherto, mRNA translation has been a largely overlooked molecular characteristic of breast cancer patients, and no studies have been conducted to understand how mRNA translation is regulated at a transcriptome-wide scale. Although conventional proteomics approaches serve as an invaluable way to measure the proteome, after adjustments to variation in total mRNA levels, such methods do not distinguish alterations in the proteome arising via modulation of mRNA translation or protein stability. Consequently, in order to elucidate alterations in protein synthesis due to changes in mRNA translation, direct measurement of mRNA translation is required. To study mRNA translation in breast cancer patients, we used primary non-treated tumors from two patient cohorts (Cohort 1 includes all molecular subtypes of breast cancer while Cohort 2 is limited to triple-negative breast cancer) and performed polysome-profiling tailored for small samples, generating high quality RNA sequencing datasets for downstream analyses (**Fig. 1A-B, Fig. S1A-B**) (32). Polysome-profiling quantifies gene expression at two levels: mRNA associated with ribosomes (the methods enriches for association with >3 ribosomes) and the cytosolic (hereafter denoted "total") mRNA pool. Subsequently, we used a machine-learning approach to classify patients from Cohort 1 into PAM50 subtypes (33). This revealed that PAM50-classification of patients using total or polysome-associated mRNA was similar (**Fig. 1C**) and thereby confirms the limited post-transcriptional regulation of PAM50-genes observed in a study of breast cancer proteomes (49).

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265 **Abundant variation in mRNA translation across breast cancer patients**

266 To understand whether altered mRNA translation is a feature of breast cancer, we used a
267 linear regression-approach to calculate per-gene translation for each patient. The
268 approach calculates residuals as a measure of translation by comparing polysome-
269 associated mRNA to total mRNA levels in a model that is also adjusted for a set of clinical
270 parameters as well as cellular composition (including a repertoire of immune cells and
271 CAFs) of breast cancer samples (**Fig. 2A**). The distribution of slopes and the coefficient of
272 determination (proportion of variation in polysome-associated mRNA levels explained by
273 total mRNA levels) collected from per-gene analysis show that thousands of genes
274 undergo post-transcriptional regulation that affects their translation (**Fig. 2B**). Therefore,
275 alterations in mRNA translation appears to be an overlooked gene-expression
276 mechanism in breast cancer.

277

278 **Transcriptome-wide alterations in mRNA translation define breast cancer subtypes**

279 We next determined if there are shared patterns of translation across breast cancer
280 patients, which would suggest classes of breast cancer with rewired mRNA translation.
281 Analysis of translation residuals using the cola R/Bioconductor package and assessment
282 of clustering quality metrics such as 1-PAC, mean silhouette, concordance and Jaccard
283 index (**Fig. S2A-D**) suggested six classes (**Fig. 3A**). Importantly, these appeared to be
284 distinct from PAM50 subtypes and clinical parameters that were adjusted for (e.g. clinical
285 stage; **Fig 3A**). The analysis indicated four major gene sets as underlying classification

into the six subclasses (**Fig. 3A**). To understand which cellular functions might be affected by variation in translation across the subclasses, we assessed functions enriched among proteins encoded by mRNAs included in the 4 gene sets (**Fig. 3A**) using gene ontology analysis. This analysis identified many highly enriched functions including antigen processing, mRNA metabolism, histone modification and regulation of translation. (**Fig. 3B**). Therefore, translation modulated across the six translation subclasses appears to target core cellular functions.

To validate these putative subclasses of breast cancer defined by mRNA translation, we used the second cohort of triple-negative breast cancer patients and calculated per-gene and per-patient translational efficiencies (see materials and methods). Next, we predicted classes of newly added samples. This assigned individual patients from this new patient cohort to all identified putative classes of breast cancer, albeit some samples appeared to show some level of similarity to more than one subclass (**Fig. S3A**). As the translation subclasses could be detected in a separate dataset, we regard these as subtypes defined by translation. In summary, these studies uncovered shared patterns of translation across breast cancer patients that could be separated into six subtypes distinct from PAM50 subtypes.

Upstream regulators of mRNA translation associate with translation in breast cancer subtypes

Next we sought to identify mechanisms mediating variation in translation across breast cancer subtypes by first linking this heterogeneity to the activity of a upstream

regulators (e.g. mTOR signaling pathway, activity of subunits of eIF4F complex, cellular stress, DAP5-dependent translation, U34-modifications and ECM) of mRNA translation using a computational approach (16,17,25,27,40–44). To this end we assessed whether gene sets (“signatures”), whose translation is modulated when the activity of these regulators is altered, are regulated in each patient. Per-patient activity of each signature was measured as a shift in residuals relative to the background. This approach revealed large variation in activity of upstream regulators of mRNA translation across patients (**Fig. 4A**). A similar analysis for patients summarized within translation subtypes identified in figure 2 showed that each subtype had a distinct combination in activity of upstream regulators (**Fig. 4B**). For example, subtype 3 shows suppressed translation of e.g. mTOR and high-eIF4E signatures while translation of DAP5 and eIF2a signatures is activated whereas the opposite pattern is observed for subtype 2 (**Fig. 4B**). Taken together, the heterogeneity of mRNA translation across patients overlaps with effects on mRNA translation from key upstream regulators.

***In vitro* models of triple negative breast cancer recapitulate translation subtypes**

Although we sought to assess translation patterns in cancer cells by adjusting for variation in composition of e.g. immune cells and CAFs, it is possible that the observed patterns of translation in breast cancer subtypes originate from non-cancer cells. To assess if identified patterns of translation can arise in breast cancer cells, we sought to identify cancer cell lines mirroring the translation patterns observed in patient samples. To this end, we performed polysome-profiling in 6 triple-negative breast cell lines and derived residuals for each cell line as a measure of translational efficiency. Using the

same approach applied for detection of overlaps between the two patient cohorts, we identified triple-negative human breast cancer cell lines that recapitulate three translation subtypes both in terms of overall profile of mRNA translation as well as the activity of upstream regulators of mRNA translation (**Fig.5A-B**). This supports that observed patterns of translation can arise in cancer cells, also *in vitro*, and such *in vitro* models may therefore be used to study mechanisms underlying translation patterns observed in human breast cancer.

Cis- and trans-acting factors associate with altered mRNA translation in breast cancer subtypes

We next sought to gain a deeper mechanistic understanding of dysregulated translation in translation subtypes of breast cancer. Therefore, we identified and modelled cis- and trans-acting factors that regulate mRNA translation as factors underlying altered translation in breast cancer. This not only helped us to identify complex networks of cis-acting features (**Fig. S4A-F**) but also revealed that these features associate with translation heterogeneity observed across translation subtypes. (**Fig. 6A-B**). Strikingly, almost all translation subtypes had an indispensable effect exerted by the codon composition of the CDS. For example, genes with increased translational efficiency in subtype 3 were found to have an enrichment of AAT codons in their CDS. Conversely, in subtype 2, we observed that genes with decreased translational efficiency have an enrichment of AAT content. These observations support that codon usage may drive the heterogeneity in translational landscape of breast cancer. We also assessed the contribution of each trans-acting factor to the observed alterations of mRNA translation

by performing step-wise linear regression analysis. In contrast to the previous analysis (Fig.4A-B), this approach allows an assessment of the relative contribution of the selected repertoire of trans-acting factors. As a result, we characterized and quantified how each trans-acting factor associates with mRNA translation in each translation subtype (**Fig. 6C and Fig. S5A-F**). This revealed that at least 40% of the variance in mRNA translation can be explained by cis-acting features (referred to as mRNA features) alone (**Fig. 6D**). In contrast, signatures downstream of trans-acting features only explained a maximum of 45% of the variation in translation in translation subtypes (**Figure 6D**), suggesting that additional pathways are active. Overall, we unveiled complex networks of cis- and trans-acting factors and their influence on translation alterations in breast cancer.

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387 **Discussion**

388 Numerous studies have characterized the role of mRNA translation in cancer model
389 systems. In this study, we reveal that there are significant changes in mRNA translation in
390 breast cancer patients. Furthermore, we observed that these alterations contribute
391 significantly to the heterogeneity in breast cancer. This provides a novel molecular
392 characteristics not previously considered in efforts to understand the heterogeneity of
393 breast cancer. However, it remains to be discovered whether the identified translation
394 subtypes of breast cancer have prognostic value in predicting survival and disease
395 progression, an aspect that could not be addressed in this study due to the limited
396 number of patients and follow-up time available.

397

398 Furthermore, we linked variation in translation within breast cancer subtypes to activities
399 of known trans-acting modulators of mRNA translation. Our findings suggest a complex
400 interplay of these modulators in shaping the translational landscape of breast cancer.
401 Understanding the clinical implications of these patterns could open new avenues of
402 therapeutic strategies targeting identified modulators, which subsequently may provide
403 personalized treatment options. Although we identified triple-negative human breast
404 cancer cell lines that overlap with some of our translational subtypes, we believe that
405 including cancer cell lines from various molecular subtypes could help identify additional
406 human breast cancer cell lines that reflect the complex translational landscape of those
407 subtypes not represented in our study, potentially expanding the scope of different
408 treatment regimens that could be tested *in vitro*.

409

410 We identified cis-acting factors including codon composition and 5'UTR features as
411 strongly associating with alterations in mRNA translation in translation subtypes of
412 breast cancer. These findings provide leads towards a deeper understanding of how
413 alterations in mRNA translation arise. In particular, codon composition appears to be a
414 largely overlooked facet that requires further studies to understand how various steps of
415 mRNA translation are affected and orchestrated to drive cancer-associated alterations in
416 mRNA translation.

417

418 Overall, our study has revealed a translational landscape of breast cancer arising by an
419 interplay between cis- and trans-acting factors. Together with the identification of
420 translation subtypes of breast cancer and how each cis- and trans-acting factor is
421 associated with altered mRNA translation within these subtypes, our findings emphasize
422 the potential of mRNA translation as a therapeutic target. In addition, it is also important
423 to highlight the need for further studies to fully understand the clinical implications of
424 our results, particularly in predicting disease progression and treatment outcomes.

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434 **Figure Captions**

435 **Figure 1. Quantification of mRNA translation in breast cancer samples. A.**

436 Experimental procedure to study mRNA translation in breast cancer samples using the
437 optimized-sucrose gradient technique for polysome profiling **B.** Clinical characteristics of
438 Cohort I and II breast cancer patients. **C.** PAM50 subtypes determined by a machine-
439 learning based approach using total (first row) and polysome-associated mRNA (second
440 row).

441

442 **Figure 2. Multiple-regression analysis reveals alterations in translational**

443 **efficiencies across breast cancer patients. A.** Computational workflow to derive per-

444 patient and per-gene measurement of translation. **B.** Densities of slopes (top) and r^2

445 (bottom) from per-gene models of translation across patients in cohort I. The number of

446 genes showing more extreme values than those indicated with dotted lines is shown.

447

448 **Figure 3. Translation landscape of breast cancer. A.** A heatmap using per-gene and

449 per-patient translation residuals showing 6 translation subtypes of breast cancer. Shown

450 are also PAM50 subtypes as well as a selection of clinical parameters. **B.** Gene ontology

451 analysis using GO-BP terms for each gene set identified in 3A. The 5 most significant

452 functions are shown.

453

454 **Figure 4. Translation subtypes of breast cancer show distinct activities of trans-**

455 **acting factors A.** Heatmap of per-patient q50 shifts as a measure of patient-specific

456 activities of trans-acting factors. Samples are ordered by translation subtype and

clustered within subtype. **B.** Heatmap of q50 shifts as a measure of activity of each trans-acting factors in translation subtypes.

Figure 5. Breast cancer cell lines recapitulate translation subtypes of breast cancer.

A. Heatmap of correlations between triple-negative human breast cancer cell lines and translation subtypes (left). Shown is also a table (right) with the p-value of the correlation and the subtype each cell line is assigned to. **B.** Heatmap of q50 shifts as a measure of activities of trans-acting factors comparing patients to cell lines identified in A. Only translation subtypes with identified cell lines are included and the positions of the cell lines are indicated by dotted lines.

Figure 6. Cis and trans-acting factors distinctly influence mRNA translation in breast cancer

A. Heatmap of EffScore (see Methods for calculation method) for cis-acting factors across translation subtypes that are significantly associated with altered translation a single translation subtype. **B.** Similar as 6A, but showing cis-acting factors that overlap between patient subtypes. **C.** Heatmap of EffScore for significant trans-acting factors across translation subtypes. **D.** Table showing the percentage of variation in mRNA translation explained by mRNA features (i.e. cis-acting factors) and signatures (i.e. trans-acting factors).

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484 **Additional Files**

485 **Supplementary Figure 1. Data set characteristics.** **A.** Barplot of library sizes (i.e.
486 sequencing depth) with a red line indicating threshold of 2.5 million reads. **B.** PCA biplot
487 of samples generated by PCAtools biplot function, colored by library type.

488

489 **Supplementary Figure 2. Identification of stable patient clusters.** **A.** Plot showing k
490 (number of clusters) vs 1-PAC (score of consensus clustering) with optimal k plotted as
491 red. **B.** Plot showing k (number of clusters) vs mean silhouette with optimal k plotted as
492 red. **C.** Plot showing k (number of clusters) vs concordance with optimal k plotted as red.
493 **D.** Plot showing k (number of clusters) vs 1-PAC (score of consensus stability) with
494 optimal k plotted as red. All plots were generated by “select_partition_number” function
495 of cola R/Bioconductor package.

496

497 **Supplementary Figure 3. Translation subtypes of breast cancer are captured in**
498 **triple-negative breast cancer cohort.** **A.** Heatmap of correlations between triple-
499 negative human breast cancer samples and translation subtypes.

500

501 **Supplementary Figure 4. Networks of cis-acting features explain translation**
502 **pattern in translation subtypes of breast cancer.** **A-F.** Networks of cis-acting features
503 identified to correlate with alterations in translational efficiencies in subtype 1-6.

504

505 **Supplementary Figure 5. Networks of trans-acting features explain translation**
506 **pattern in translation subtypes of breast cancer.** **A-F.** Networks of trans-acting

features identified to correlate with alterations in translational efficiencies in subtype 1-6
.

**Supplementary Table 1. Data sets used as “signatures” to assess how upstream
regulators of mRNA translation associate with altered mRNA translation.**

Declarations

The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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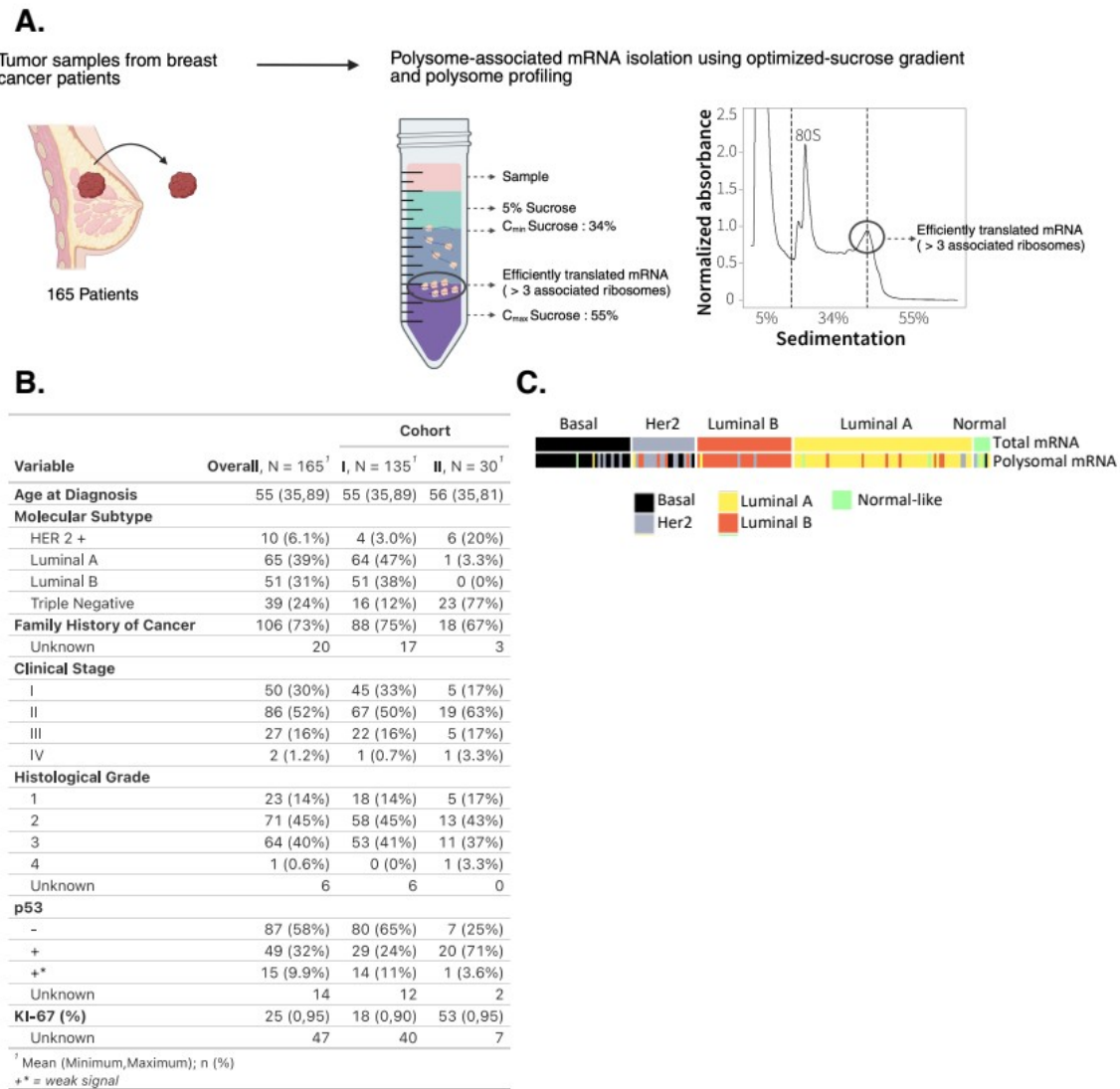
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Figure 1.



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Figure 2.

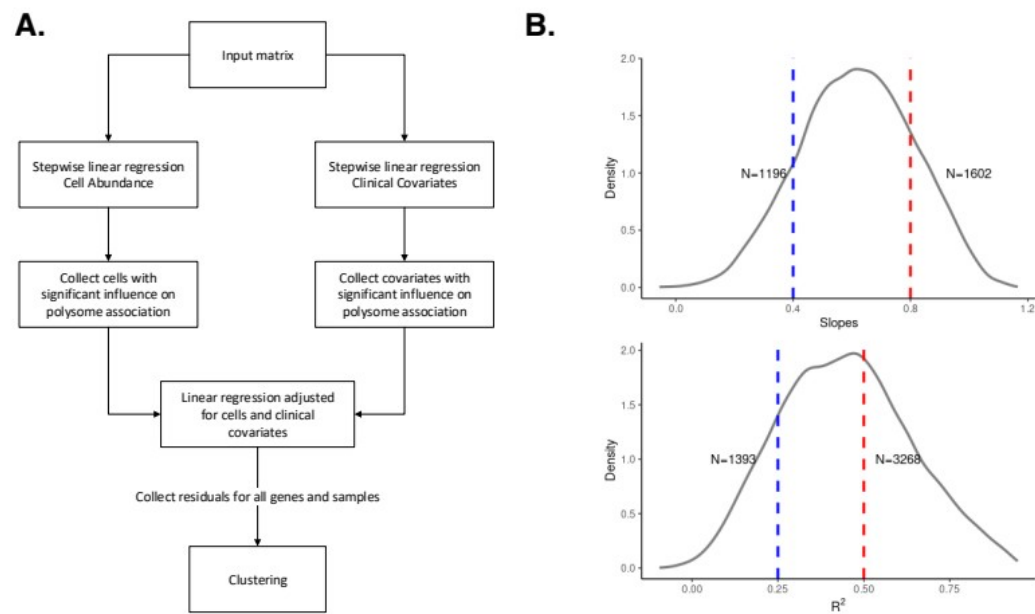
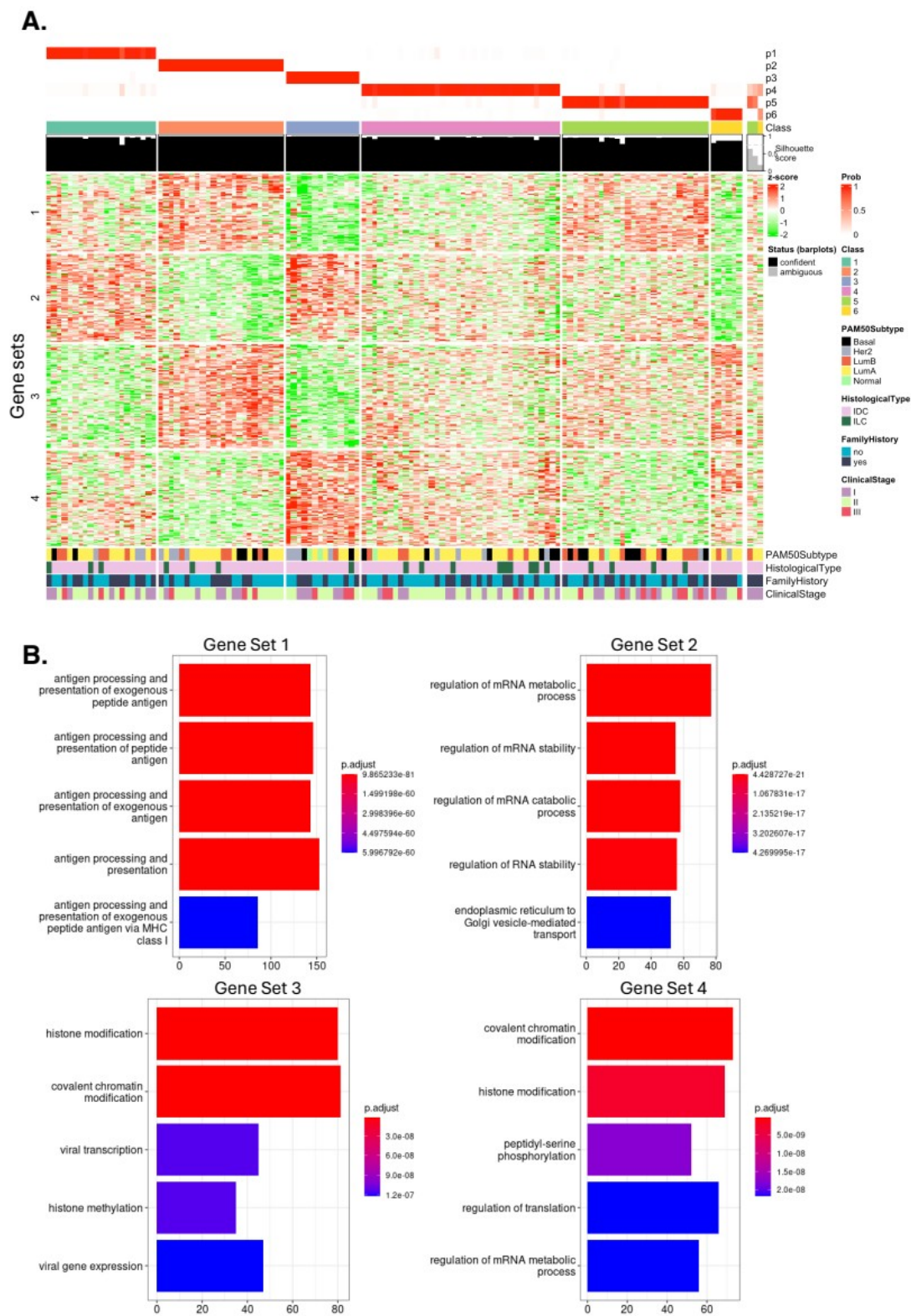


Figure 2. Multiple-regression analysis reveals alterations in translational efficiencies across breast cancer patients. A. Computational workflow to derive per-patient and per-gene measurement of translation. **B.** Densities of slopes (top) and r^2 (bottom) from per-gene models of translation across patients in cohort I.

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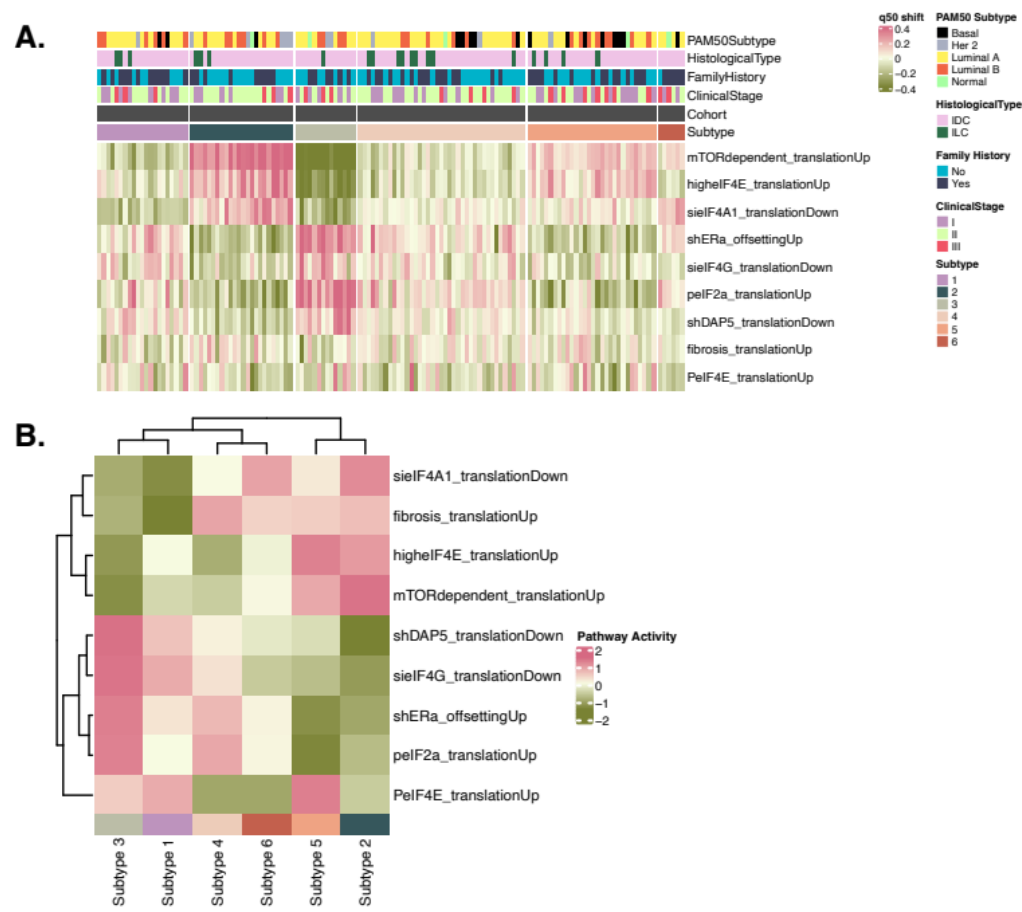
Figure 3.



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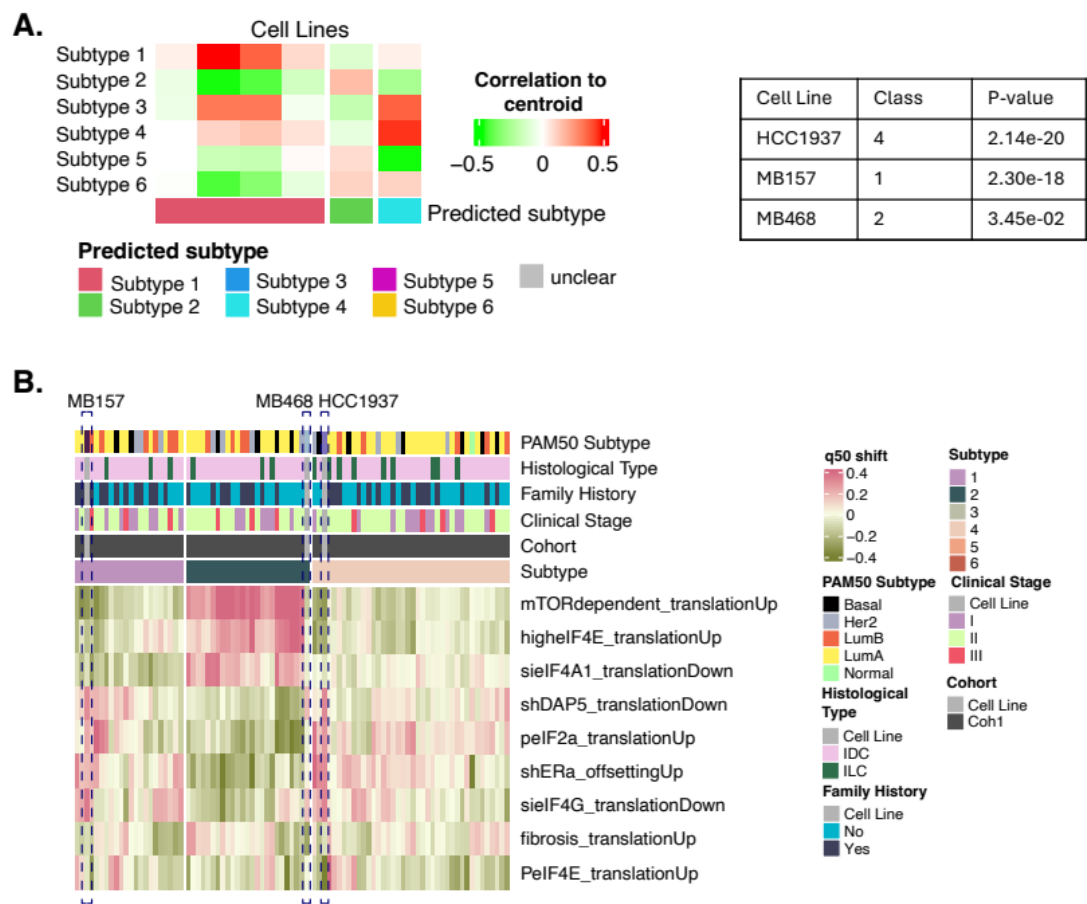
Figure 4.



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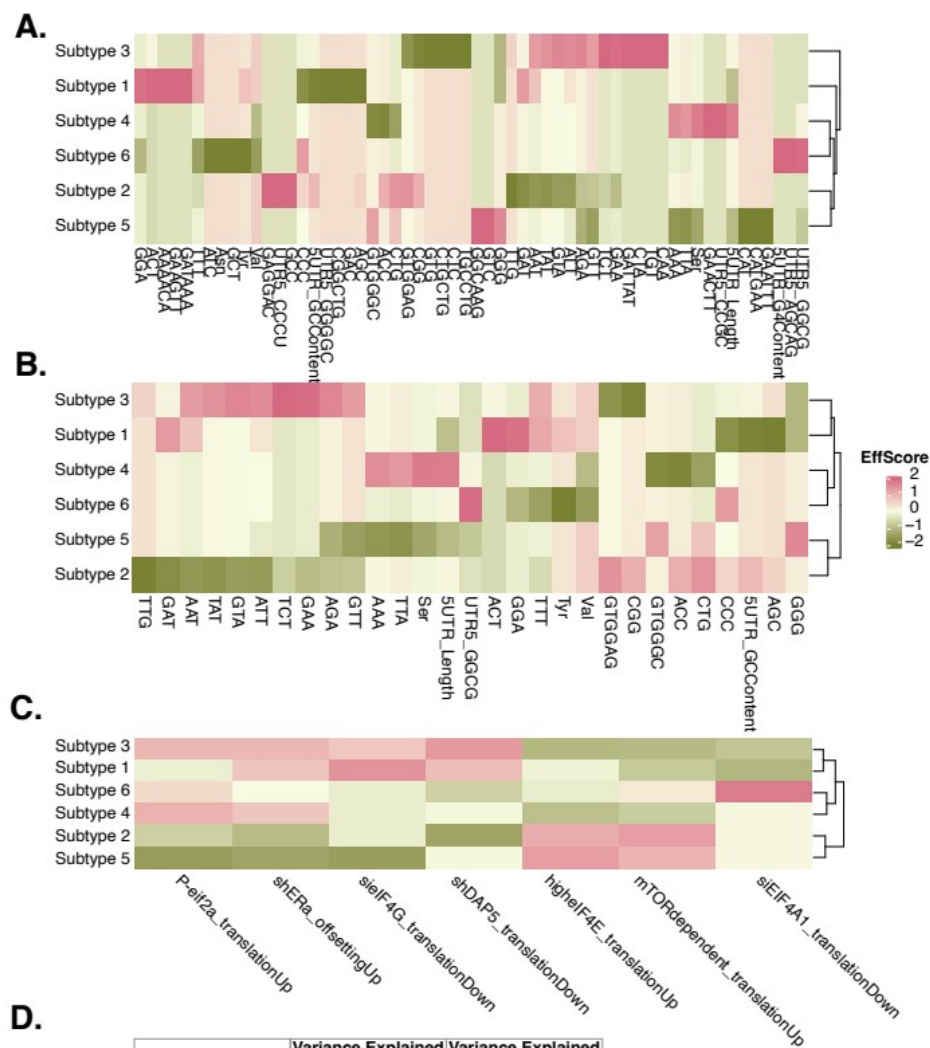
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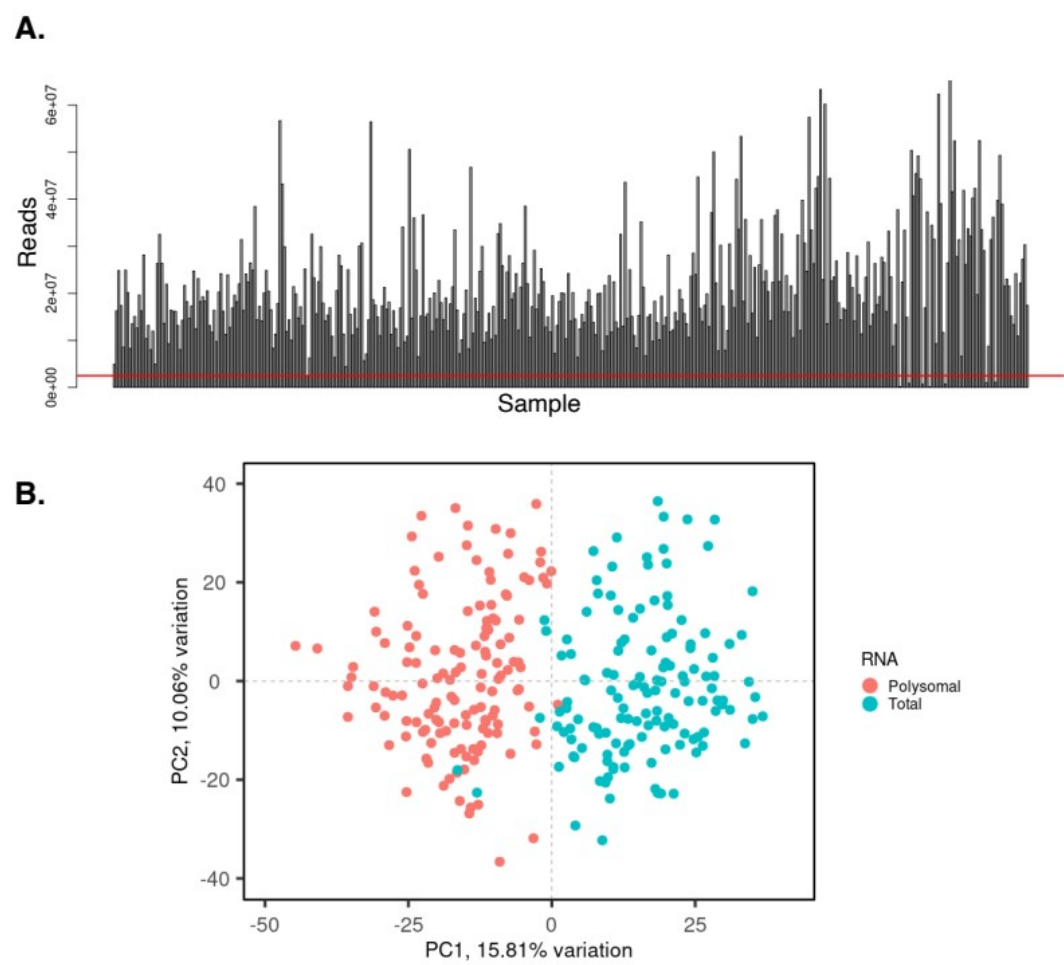
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Figure 6.



Subtype	Variance Explained mRNA features (%)	Variance Explained Signature (%)
Subtype 1	77.81	15.21
Subtype 2	88.1	38.2
Subtype 3	91.16	45.81
Subtype 4	52.72	28.3
Subtype 5	76.69	38.53
Subtype 6	44.14	6.07

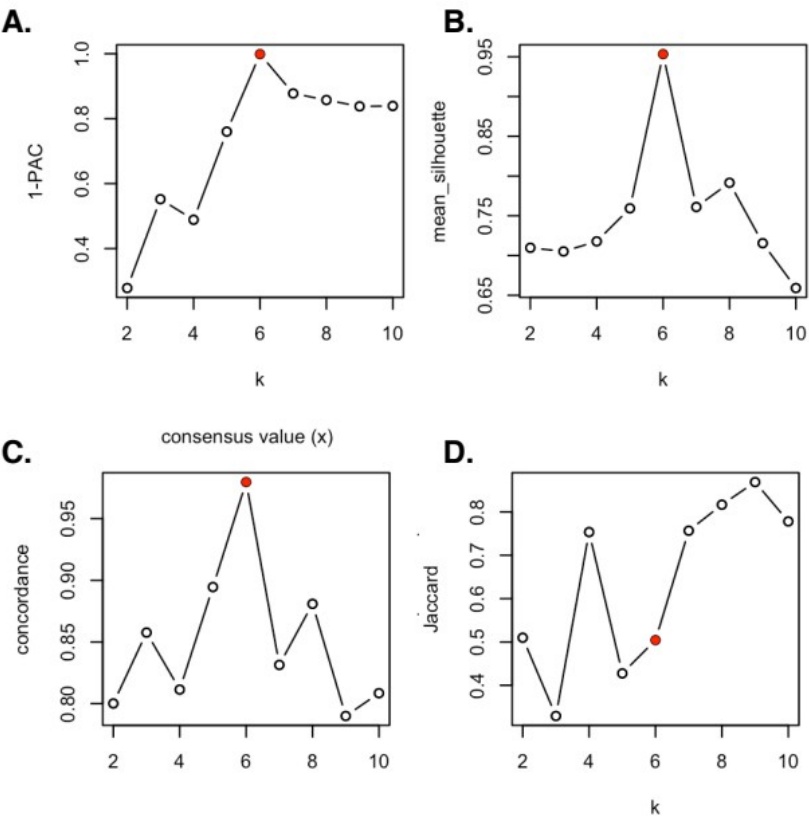
Figure S1.



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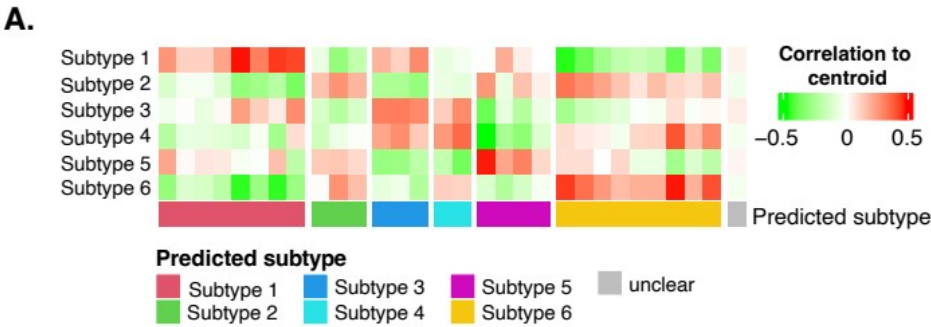
Figure S2.



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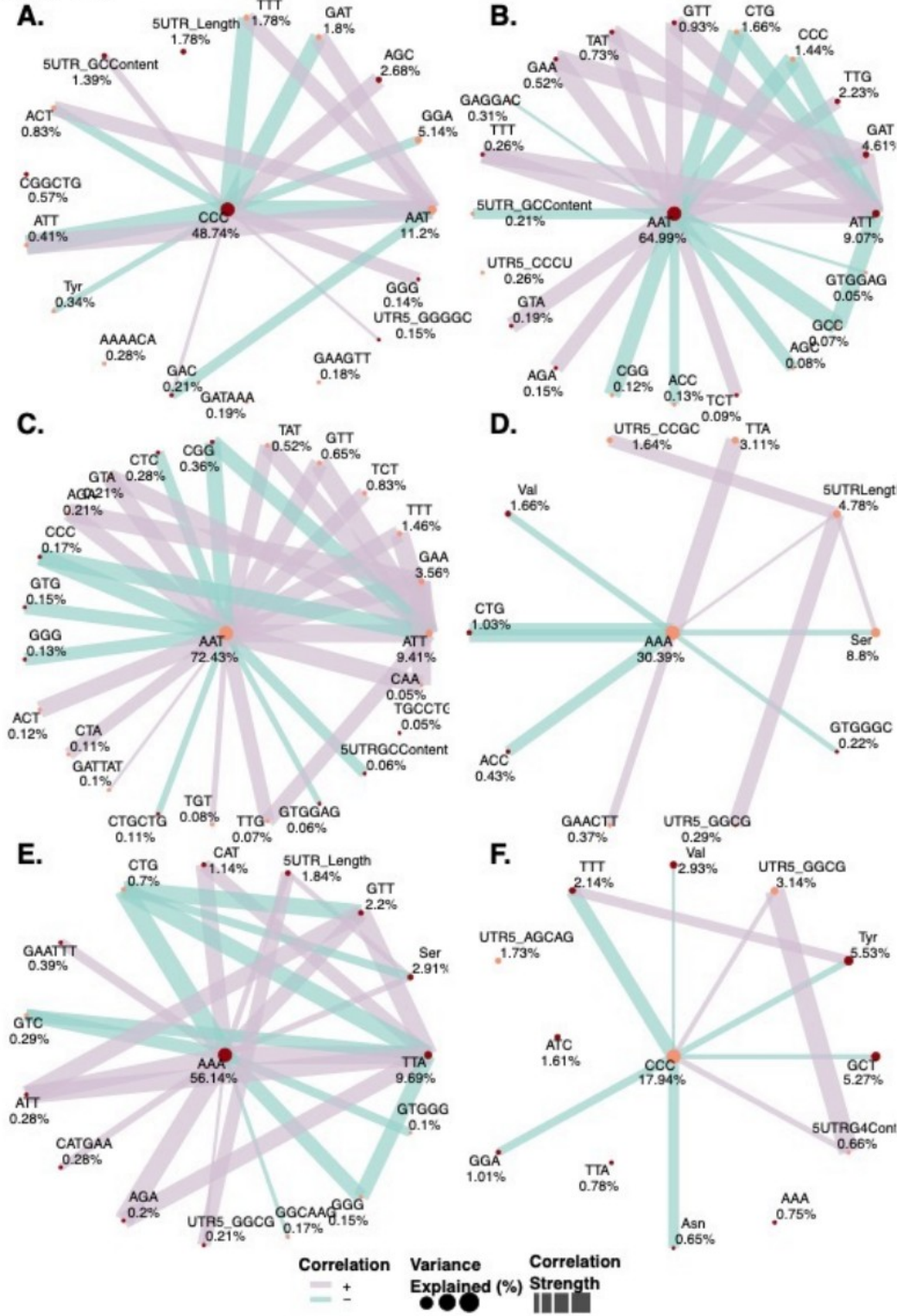
Figure S3.



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Figure S4.



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Figure S5.

