

Sequence analysis

Accurate detection of short and long active ORFs using Ribo-seq data

Saket Choudhary [†], Wenzheng Li[†] and Andrew D. Smith^{*}

Computational Biology and Bioinformatics, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA 90089, USA

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed.

[†]The authors wish it to be known that, in their opinion, the first two authors should be regarded as Joint First Authors.

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Abstract

Motivation: Ribo-seq, a technique for deep-sequencing ribosome-protected mRNA fragments, has enabled transcriptome-wide monitoring of translation *in vivo*. It has opened avenues for re-evaluating the coding potential of open reading frames (ORFs), including many short ORFs that were previously presumed to be non-translating. However, the detection of translating ORFs, specifically short ORFs, from Ribo-seq data, remains challenging due to its high heterogeneity and noise.

Results: We present ribotricer, a method for detecting actively translating ORFs by directly leveraging the three-nucleotide periodicity of Ribo-seq data. Ribotricer demonstrates higher accuracy and robustness compared with other methods at detecting actively translating ORFs including short ORFs on multiple published datasets across species inclusive of *Arabidopsis*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Drosophila*, human, mouse, rat, yeast and zebrafish.

Availability and implementation: Ribotricer is available at <https://github.com/smithlabcode/ribotricer>. All analysis scripts and results are available at <https://github.com/smithlabcode/ribotricer-results>.

Contact: andrewds@usc.edu

Supplementary information: [Supplementary data](#) are available at *Bioinformatics* online.

1 Introduction

The process of translating messenger RNA into protein is among the greatest investments of energy by cells (Russell and Cook, 1995). Consequently, translation is highly regulated to ensure that each cell synthesizes the right amount of each protein. Our understanding of the mechanisms regulating the translational process remains limited, which has motivated the development of experimental approaches to profile the translation landscape globally. Ribo-seq (Ingolia *et al.*, 2009) is a technology that uses deep-sequencing to identify ribosome-protected fragments, revealing the positions of the entire pool of ribosomes engaged in translation.

Ribo-seq has led to the surprising discovery of prevalent translation through open reading frames (ORFs) which were previously presumed to be non-active (Jackson *et al.*, 2018). Such ORFs include the upstream ORFs (uORFs) located in the 5' untranslated region, the downstream ORFs located in the 3' untranslated region, and the ORFs within presumed non-coding genes (Olexiuk *et al.*, 2018).

Transcriptome-wide searches for pairs of in-frame start and stop codons defining potential ORFs in human, and mouse genomes reveal that the sizes of such ORFs are generally 10–20 fold shorter (Calvo *et al.*, 2009) than the known protein-coding sequences (CDS) (Supplementary Fig. S1). Their short size presents challenges in detecting the resulting peptides through proteomic approaches

(Fälth *et al.*, 2006). However, there is emerging evidence that these short ORFs, or the products of their translation, serve some function (Andrews and Rothnagel, 2014; Ingolia, 2016). In particular, the role of uORFs in regulating the translation of downstream CDS has been well documented (Barbosa *et al.*, 2013) for individual genes (Hinnebusch *et al.*, 2016), and they are correlated with substantial (30–80%) repression of protein production (Calvo *et al.*, 2009). The same mechanism is also used to encode condition-specific activation: in integrated stress response, where the repressed state is the default, uORF-associated repression is released following the stress stimulus (Andreev *et al.*, 2015).

Ribo-seq has been performed on multiple species ranging from prokaryotes to mammals. Studies over the years have observed that the choice of method of translation inhibition (Gerashchenko and Gladyshev, 2014; Hussmann *et al.*, 2015), the enzyme used for RNA digestion and its concentration (Aeschmann *et al.*, 2015; Gerashchenko and Gladyshev, 2017) and rRNA depletion (Weinberg *et al.*, 2016) can affect the overall signal and reduce its overall reproducibility (Diament and Tuller, 2016). Moreover, the presence of amplification bias, non-ribosomal RNA-protein complexes or other non-ribosomal contamination can often result in apparent ribosome-protected mRNA fragments (RPFs) that do not represent actively translating ribosomes. Some RNAs such as

telomerase RNA, RNase P, snRNAs and snoRNAs that are known to be ‘classical’ non-coding RNAs and are predominantly localized in the nucleus have also been reported as origin for RPFs (Guttman et al., 2013). This is an indication that not all RPFs represent actively translating ribosomes. Such fragments could represent non-ribosomal protected regions, such as those protected by RNA binding proteins. When drawing any conclusion about translational regulation from Ribo-seq data it is imperative to focus only on those fragments that represent actively translating ribosomes. However, the presence of noise in the data makes the task of identifying actively translated regions challenging. A shorter translation unit means less total data on average for inference, so detection of short ORFs in Ribo-seq has remained especially difficult.

Several methods exist for analyzing Ribo-seq data to determine the coding potential of the transcribed RNA. FLOSS (Ingolia et al., 2014), one of the earliest methods, identifies actively translating ORF by focusing on the read length distribution. The key assumption is that the distribution of sequenced fragments contains both RPFs and technical noise, and the true RPFs should exhibit a particular length distribution. FLOSS first learns a reference distribution of RPF lengths on a set of protein-coding genes likely to represent active translation, and then compares fragment lengths through the other regions in the transcriptome to this reference distribution. The idea of treating different fragment lengths separately has been adopted in several subsequent methods. Most other methods can be understood broadly through two paradigms. The first hypothesizes that the distribution of number of mapped fragments differs over actively translated regions, and compares this distribution with some selected null model. The other general approach exploits the periodic pattern in the mapped fragment profiles to distinguish actively translating regions.

In the first paradigm of methods, ORFscore (Bazzini et al., 2014) compares the distribution of reads falling in the three frames to a uniform distribution. ORF-RATER (Fields et al., 2015) uses a combination of regression and random-forest based classification to predict actively translating ORFs. It uses a non-negative least squares fit for regressing Ribo-seq read profile of the transcript against the profile obtained from known protein-coding genes. A random-forest classifier then uses these scores to predict the translational status of the ORF. RiboHMM (Raj et al., 2016), on the other hand, uses a hidden Markov model to detect translating ORFs. It models the contribution of each fragment length separately and then combines them to increase sensitivity. The hidden Markov model learns the distributions of Ribo-seq coverage over the start/stop codons and the translated CDS; the distributions are then used to predict translation status for candidate ORFs. Rp-Bp (Malone et al., 2017) uses probabilistic modeling to estimate if read counts at each position belong to an enriched model or a null uniform model. RiboCode (Xiao et al., 2018) uses a modified Wilcoxon signed-rank test (Wilcoxon, 1945) to assess periodicity by testing for differential enrichment in one of the frames against the other two.

The second paradigm typically leverages spectral approaches to examine the periodic pattern in Ribo-seq data. Mapping RPFs from Ribo-seq onto the mRNA is expected to reveal a ‘high-low-low’ pattern, owing to ribosome’s movement over codons, resulting in a three-nucleotide periodicity. RiboTaper (Calviello et al., 2016) uses multi-tapered windows for calculating a Fourier transform to assess periodicity in the Ribo-seq signal. Based on related principles in signal processing, SPECtre (Chun et al., 2016) makes use of spectral coherence to correlate Ribo-seq signal with the expected ‘high-low-low’ pattern. RiboWave (Xu et al., 2018) uses a wavelet transform based method to denoise the RPF profile by extracting the three-nucleotide periodicity. This denoised RPF profile leads to a better performance when identifying active translation.

Methods within both paradigms have enabled discovery of actively translating ORFs. Each method makes assumptions about the data that are not always satisfied in practice, for different datasets or different data analysis goals. The detection of short ORFs is an example of the latter. However, these methods provide a conceptual foundation that we borrow from to design a simplified method that is more robust to varying statistical features across datasets, and

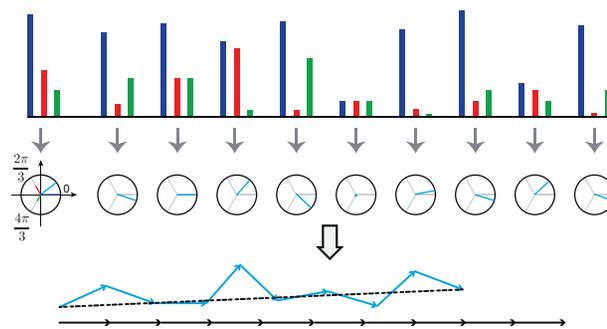


Fig. 1. Methodology design of ribotricer

that is capable of detecting both short and long ORFs. Our method, called ribotricer, directly assesses the three-nucleotide periodicity in Ribo-seq data. Ribotricer can account for read length specific P-site offsets and sparsity in Ribo-seq data. Its underlying model emphasizes consistency in the qualitative profile through each codon while down-weighting the influence of the magnitude of the individual values contributing to that profile. This approach helps ribotricer to overcome the challenge of detecting short ORFs in regions of low signal to noise ratio.

2 Materials and methods

To detect actively translating ORFs, ribotricer focuses on the characteristic three-nucleotide periodicity in Ribo-seq data. The workflow of ribotricer consists of five major steps. Ribotricer first prepares a candidate set of all potentially translatable ORFs by searching for pairs of start and stop codons genome-wide but inside annotated transcription units. This requires providing gene annotations and the reference genome but is only done once for each genome and gene annotation. Next, ribotricer partitions the mapped reads based on their length. The rationale for processing reads by their length is that each length may be associated with a different P-site offset relative to the 5' end of the mapped fragment. For each read length, ribotricer generates a metagene profile using 5' ends of the mapped reads (accounting for strand as appropriate). The metagene profiles are used to infer P-site offsets for different read-lengths by choosing the offsets that maximize the cross-correlation of these profiles with the profile for the most abundant read length. The read profiles corresponding to different read-lengths can then be merged using the corresponding inferred P-site offsets, an approach taken previously by Calviello et al. for RiboTaper (Calviello et al., 2016) and Xiao et al. for RiboCode (Xiao et al., 2018). The previous step produces a single RPF profile for each candidate ORF. In its final step, ribotricer assesses the periodicity of the merged RPF profile using a novel approach to predict its translation status.

Our key contribution is a novel method for assessing the three-nucleotide periodicity of RPF profile based on 3D to 2D projection (Fig. 1; Supplementary Fig. S26). Within each codon, we may observe reads with 5' ends at each of the three nucleotides, providing three unconstrained count values. These count values can be imagined as vectors in a 3D space with each nucleotide position representing 1D. We hypothesized that using the absolute read count at each nucleotide might obscure the signal of an entire profile when being evaluated for its periodicity. Though genes undergoing translation are expected to accumulate more reads in total, we hypothesized that for many genes an over-emphasis on total counts might amplify the effect of unknown artifacts or noise in the data. Actively translating regions exhibit a distinct ‘high-low-low’ pattern at each codon irrespective of their absolute read count values. Codons in a profile, however, might end up with a high abundance of reads because of the difference in ribosomal decoding speed (Ingolia, 2014), a ribosomal pause (Buskirk and Green, 2017) or presence of non-ribosomal fragments (Andreev et al., 2017). Hence, using absolute read count values at each nucleotide could lead to a non-stationary

profile. Applying any spectral method would require that the profiles satisfy conditions to ensure stationarity. Instead, we rely on using the qualitative information at each codon in the form of ‘high-low-low’ or related pattern. This approach discards much of the quantitative information associated with individual read counts but also simplifies the problem while eliminating the need to explicitly model random variation or systematic trend in total read counts along the RPF profile.

For a given ORF consisting of N codons, let x_{ij} denote the number of P-sites inferred from the reads of Ribo-seq experiment aligning to the i -th codon and j -th frame of the ORF, where $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ and $j = 1, 2, 3$. The RPF profile of the ORF can then be denoted as $P = (x_{11}, x_{12}, x_{13}, \dots, x_{N1}, x_{N2}, x_{N3})$. For each codon profile $x_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2}, x_{i3})$, a 3D vector, we perform the following transformation to convert it into a 2D unit vector $\phi_i = (a_i, b_i)^T$, more specifically, the angle of the unit vector which is inherently 1D:

$$\phi_i = \frac{wx_i^T}{\|wx_i^T\|}, \quad (1)$$

where

$$w = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cos(-2\pi/3) & \cos(-4\pi/3) \\ 0 & \sin(-2\pi/3) & \sin(-4\pi/3) \end{pmatrix}.$$

With this transformation, the three basis vectors $\{(1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1)\}$ are mapped as

$$\begin{aligned} (1, 0, 0) &\rightarrow (1, 0), \\ (0, 1, 0) &\rightarrow (\cos(-2\pi/3), \sin(-2\pi/3)), \\ (0, 0, 1) &\rightarrow (\cos(-4\pi/3), \sin(-4\pi/3)). \end{aligned}$$

The three mapped unit vectors lie $2\pi/3$ away from each other to ensure the direction of the transformed vector ϕ_i is equally determined by reads of each frame. These can be replaced by any three unit vectors that are equally spaced on the unit circle, and the results would not change.

For the transformation performed, the direction of the resulting vector is determined by the relative values of x_{i1} , x_{i2} , and x_{i3} . For an actively translating ORF, we expect to see a ‘high-low-low’ pattern for each codon. This is equivalent to observing x_{i1} as the largest value consistently over all codons. If this holds, we expect the directions of the resulting unit vectors ϕ_i to be consistent across codons. As indicated above, the motivation behind unit normalization of each vector is to help ensure that each codon contributes equally to our assessment of translation status, avoiding bias from the fraction of codons with an over-abundance of reads. This transformation disregards the total read counts at each of the three positions. For example, the two codon profiles (100, 20, 10) and (10, 2, 1) will result in the same unit vectors when applying Equation (1). Another example would be of profiles (100, 99, 99) and (100, 1, 1) which will both result in the same phase score, even though the difference between the first and the rest two frames is much higher in the latter. While this discards quantitative information, it still captures the qualitative ‘high-low-low’ pattern of the profile. This approach helps ribotricer handle the heterogeneous nature of Ribo-seq data where despite of pervasive active translation, different codons could have completely different coverages either because of the actual difference in ribosome’s dwell time or because of usage of drugs like cycloheximide which can alter codon-specific elongation rates (Husmann *et al.*, 2015).

The l^2 -norm of the mean vector of the transformed vectors can be used to assess the periodicity of RPF profile. More consistent directions of the vectors would result in a larger l^2 -norm. The mean vector of the transformed vectors is

$$\bar{\phi} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \phi_i,$$

and its l^2 -norm $\|\bar{\phi}\|$ is

$$\|\bar{\phi}\| = \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N a_i\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N b_i\right)^2},$$

which falls in $[0, 1]$, with a value of 1 if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} a_1 &= a_2 = \dots = a_N, \\ b_1 &= b_2 = \dots = b_N, \end{aligned}$$

in which case the directions for all vectors are the same.

Besides heterogeneity arising from uneven distribution of read counts across codons (O’Connor *et al.*, 2016), another key challenge in Ribo-seq data is sparsity leading to profiles with many empty codons, i.e. codons to which no reads map. We do not use empty codons for phase-score calculation. For a particular dataset with N codons, define the set V of non-empty codons as

$$V = \{i = 1, 2, \dots, N | x_i \neq (0, 0, 0)\},$$

and let $N_v = |V|$. If we define $\bar{\phi}^*$ as the mean vector including only non-empty codons, the ratio between $\|\bar{\phi}\|$ and $\|\bar{\phi}^*\|$ is

$$\frac{\|\bar{\phi}\|}{\|\bar{\phi}^*\|} = \frac{N_v}{N}.$$

With the reasoning outlined above, we use $\|\bar{\phi}^*\|$ as our measure for assessing the periodicity of the RPF profile of an ORF. This score describes how ‘aligned’ all the vectors are, and is equivalent to measuring how similar the phases are, i.e. the angles created by the resulting vectors with respect to the abscissa. We will refer to this score as the ‘phase score’ hereafter. Note that in theory, a high phase score may result from strong consistency of some pattern other than the anticipated ‘high-low-low’. In designing our approach, we hypothesized that the only source of consistency in the signal would be an active translation. A consistent ‘low-high-low’ or ‘low-low-high’ pattern would most likely result from an inaccurate estimate of the P-site offsets, in which case our assumptions add a layer of robustness.

The angles made by the resultant vectors when all the codons follow a ‘high-low-low’ pattern should be concentrated around 0. The distribution we observe for the Ribo-seq data is centered around 0 (Supplementary Figs S6 and S7), which confirms that most codons follow the ‘high-low-low’ pattern. For the RNA-seq data, the resulting angles follow a multimodal distribution with the highest peaks at $\{-2\pi/3, 0, 2\pi/3\}$ (Supplementary Figs S6 and S7) which corresponds to the three unit vectors. To interpret the multimodal distribution observed in RNA-seq data, we simulated read counts using a Poisson distribution. To account for variation in total data between genes, we simulated means of the Poisson distribution using the per nucleotide coverage from the RNA-seq. The resulting angle distribution of the simulated codon profiles is similar to that obtained from profiles of the RNA-seq data (Supplementary Figs S6 and S7) which explains the observed multimodality.

2.1 Learning cutoff of phase score

The phase score is indicative of how consistent the profile is through a defined region. We require some cutoff to distinguish phase scores that differentiate active from non-active translation, with the latter representing either some form of noise or inactive translation. Our approach is to learn this cutoff empirically using published datasets (Supplementary Table S1) with an assumed ground truth set for regions of active translation and regions lacking active translation. Taking this strategy, we used RPF profiles of expressed consensus coding sequence (CCDS) (Pruitt *et al.*, 2009) exons from Ribo-seq data as the true positives, and mapped read profiles from RNA-seq data for a negative control for human and mouse datasets, as previously described (Calviello *et al.*, 2016; Xiao *et al.*, 2018). In order to choose the best cutoff, we relied on maximizing the $F1$ score statistic. $F1$ score represents the harmonic mean of precision and recall and is considered a more realistic measure of a classifier’s performance than precision or recall in isolation. Since the CCDS annotated

regions serve as a high confidence ground truth, we first focused on human and mouse datasets for learning the cutoff and benchmarking ribotricer against other methods. The 10 datasets (five in human and five in mouse) are described in [Supplementary Tables S1–S5](#). We envisioned a cutoff that is applicable even if there is no matching RNA-seq sample available. The median phase scores of Ribo-seq samples, however, appear to vary across species ([Supplementary Table S7](#) and [Figs S27–S30](#)), and so, we decided to learn the cutoffs in a species-specific manner. Using two arbitrary datasets in human [SRA accession: SRP010679 ([Hsieh et al., 2012](#)) and SRP098789 ([Lintner et al., 2017](#))], and two arbitrarily chosen datasets in mouse [SRA accession: SRP003554 ([Guo et al., 2010](#)) and SRP115915 ([Mariotti et al., 2017](#))] we determined the human-specific and mouse-specific cutoff as 0.441 and 0.418, respectively ([Supplementary Table S6](#) and [Figs S8, S9](#) and [S31](#)). We use these cutoffs for the remaining three datasets in each species to assess ribotricer's performance. One might expect that learning a cutoff within each dataset would yield better performance. We found this not always to be the case ([Supplementary Tables S10](#) and [S11](#) and [Figs S35–S39](#)). Here we focus on results using species-specific cutoffs. We also benchmarked ribotricer using species- and dataset-specific cutoffs in *Arabidopsis*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Drosophila*, rat, yeast and zebrafish (Section 3.3).

3 Results

To evaluate the performance of ribotricer and other existing methods, acknowledging the heterogeneity and appreciable noise levels in Ribo-seq data, we first selected five human and five mouse datasets for performance comparison ([Supplementary Tables S1–S5](#) and [Figs S2–S5](#)). This includes the human HEK293 cells dataset (SRA accession: SRP063852) ([Calviello et al., 2016](#)), which was originally used as a benchmark dataset when RiboTaper was introduced ([Calviello et al., 2016](#)) and subsequently used in other studies. The phase scores of Ribo-seq samples show larger variation as compared to RNA-seq samples ([Supplementary Figs S27–S30](#)).

We followed the strategy previously established by [Calviello et al.](#) in assessing RiboTaper ([Calviello et al., 2016](#)) and [Xiao et al.](#) in assessing RiboCode ([Xiao et al., 2018](#)). For all the 10 datasets, we obtained the RPF profiles for all the CCDS from the results generated by RiboTaper and used the expressed CCDS profiles from Ribo-seq data as true positives and the corresponding CCDS profiles from RNA-seq data as true negatives. Since RiboTaper was designed and benchmarked for detecting active translation at the exon level, we split the existing methods for active translation detection into two groups; those that support detection at the exon level and those that only allow detection at the transcript level. We compared the performance of ribotricer at both the exon and transcript levels.

3.1 Ribotricer accurately detects translating ORFs at the exon level

We evaluated the performances of methods that support exon-level detection of translation, including ORFscore ([Bazzini et al., 2014](#)), RiboTaper ([Calviello et al., 2016](#)) and RiboCode ([Xiao et al., 2018](#)), and compared their performance with that of ribotricer.

We first compared the ability of each method to distinguish Ribo-seq profiles from RNA-seq using the area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) and precision-recall (PR) curve. For human HEK293 cells dataset (SRA accession: SRP063852) ([Calviello et al., 2016](#)), ribotricer achieved an area under the ROC (AUROC) of 0.97. The second best one was achieved by RiboCode with an AUROC of 0.93. RiboTaper and ORFscore achieved an AUROC of 0.88 and 0.87, respectively ([Fig. 2A](#)). For the mouse liver tissue dataset (SRA accession: SRP078005) ([Fradejas-Villar et al., 2017](#)), ribotricer achieved an AUROC of 0.99 while RiboCode, RiboTaper and ORFscore achieved AUROC of 0.97, 0.92 and 0.92, respectively ([Fig. 2A](#)). The difference between AUROC achieved by ribotricer and the next best method is statistically significant ($P < 0.001$, [Supplementary Table S8](#)). Ribotricer also outperformed the other three methods consistently under the PR metric ([Fig. 2A](#)).

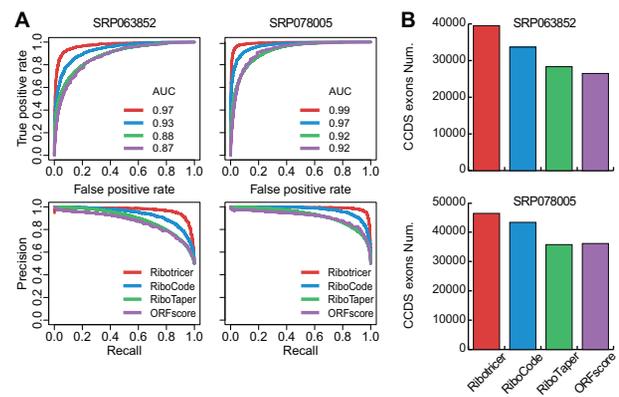


Fig. 2. Comparison of performance on detecting translating exons. The performance of ribotricer is compared with that of RiboCode, RiboTaper and ORFscore. (A) The ROC and precision-recall curves summarizing performance of ribotricer, RiboCode, RiboTaper and ORFscore on one human and one mouse dataset. (B) The number of translating exons recovered when controlling the false positive rate to be the same

Ribotricer displayed the best performance on almost all the 10 datasets at both ROC and PR metrics ([Supplementary Figs S10, S11, S32](#) and [S33](#) and [Table S8](#)).

Next, we compared the performance of ribotricer, ORFscore, RiboTaper and RiboCode by contrasting the number of true positives detected by each method while controlling the false positive rate at 0.1. We calibrated the cutoffs for each method so that the number of false positives reported by each method is 10% of the number of negatives. For human HEK293 cell dataset (SRA accession: SRP063852), ribotricer recovered 39 517 truly translating exons, while RiboCode recovered 33 665. RiboTaper, and ORFscore recovered 28 333 and 26 486 translating exons, respectively ([Fig. 2B](#)). For mouse liver tissue dataset (SRA accession: SRP078005), ribotricer recovered 46 380 truly translating exons, RiboCode recovered 43 332, while RiboTaper and ORFscore recovered 35 746 and 36 120 translating exons, respectively ([Fig. 2B](#)). We observed a similar performance for the other eight datasets where ribotricer consistently recovered more truly translating exons compared to the other three methods ([Supplementary Fig. S12](#)).

Short ORFs (<100 codons) ([Basrai et al., 1997](#)) are known to be abundant in mammals, insects, fungi and plants ([Frith et al., 2006](#); [Mat-Sharani and Firdaus-Raih, 2019](#)). However, they are often overlooked by proteomic approaches ([Fälth et al., 2006](#)). Ribo-seq data provide us with an avenue to bridge this gap. However, the length of shorter ORFs implies less total data on average for inference, making their detection particularly challenging. In order for ribotricer to be capable of detecting both short and long ORFs, the phase scores generated should be minimally dependent on the ORF length. We investigated the effect of ORF length on the scores or the P -values generated by each method. The phase score generated by ribotricer is unaffected by the length of ORF while RiboCode, RiboTaper and ORFscore generate a higher score or more significant P -value as the ORF gets longer ([Supplementary Fig. S13](#)). Ribotricer's phase score remains stable even if the original ORF is truncated to just 10% of its original length, whereas RiboCode and ORFscore show large deviations ([Supplementary Figs S24](#) and [S25](#)). Moreover, the difference between ribotricer's phase score of a profile against a 'downsampled' profile with fewer codons is negligible ([Supplementary Figs S22](#) and [S23](#)) with as few as 20 codons (see Section 4 and [Supplementary Section 5](#)).

Finally, we compared the performance of ribotricer with other methods in terms of $F1$ score using the default cutoff for each method ([Supplementary Fig. S33](#) and [Table S9](#)). Since we learned the cutoff for ribotricer from four real datasets, we summarized the performance of ribotricer on the remaining six datasets that were not used to learn the empirical cutoff ([Supplementary Figs S14–S17](#)). Notably, for human HeLa cell dataset (SRA accession: SRP029589) ([Stumpf et al., 2013](#)), all methods achieved relatively low $F1$ score with the best one to be 0.67 achieved by ribotricer.

We checked the angle distribution of the 3D to 2D projection described earlier for this dataset (Supplementary Fig. S6), and found that it displays high noise level compared to other datasets analyzed, which indicates low data quality. Consequently, we excluded this dataset from further analysis. For the other two human datasets, ribotricer achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.91, and RiboCode achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.84. RiboTaper and ORFscore achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.73 and 0.12, respectively. For the three mouse datasets, ribotricer achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.93, and RiboCode achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.90. RiboTaper and ORFscore achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.85 and 0.55, respectively.

3.2 Ribotricer accurately detects translating ORFs at the transcript level

ORF-RATER (Fields *et al.*, 2015), RibORF (Ji *et al.*, 2015), Rp-Bp (Malone *et al.*, 2017) and RiboWave (Xu *et al.*, 2018) only detect translating ORFs at the full transcript level. To evaluate ribotricer against these methods we use a similar to the comparison strategy as used for exon-level benchmarking. For transcript level comparison, we first used the area under ROC/PR curves to assess the ability of different methods to distinguish Ribo-seq profiles from those from RNA-seq data. For human HEK293 cell dataset (SRA accession: SRP063852), ribotricer correctly distinguished Ribo-seq profiles from the simulated RNA-seq profiles with an AUROC of 1.0, while both Rp-Bp and RibORF achieved an AUROC of 0.96. RiboWave achieved an AUROC of 0.90 (Fig. 3A). For human HeLa cell dataset (SRA accession: SRP098789) (Lintner *et al.*, 2017), ribotricer again perfectly distinguished Ribo-seq profiles from the simulated RNA-seq ones with an AUROC of 1.0, and Rp-Bp achieved an AUROC of 0.91. RibORF and RiboWave achieved an AUROC of 0.96 and 0.83, respectively (Fig. 3A). Ribotricer also consistently outperformed other methods under the PR metric (Fig. 3A). The complete results for all human and mouse samples can be found in Supplementary Figures S18 and S19. It is worth mentioning that RibORF (Ji *et al.*, 2015) uses a classification based method which trains its model by selecting one-third of the CDS profiles as true positives which might give it an extra advantage in this comparison. Notably, here we excluded ORF-RATER from the comparison because it always reports around half the number of detected ORFs compared with other methods, as noticed by Xiao *et al.* previously (Xiao *et al.*, 2018). The difference between ribotricer's AUROC and the second best method in 8 of the 10 human and mouse datasets is statistically significant (Supplementary Table S8).

Next, we compared the performances of different methods by checking the number of truly translating transcripts recovered when controlling the false positive rate to be the same as 0.1. For the human HEK293 cell dataset (SRA accession: SRP063852), ribotricer recovered 577 truly translating transcripts, while Rp-Bp, RibORF and RiboWave recovered 508, 542 and 459 translating transcripts, respectively (Fig. 3B). For the human HeLa cell dataset (SRA accession: SRP098789), ribotricer recovered 2251 truly translating transcripts, and Rp-Bp recovered 1730. RibORF and RiboWave recovered 2130 and 1308 truly translating transcripts, respectively (Fig. 3B and Supplementary Fig. S20).

Finally, we used the $F1$ score to assess the performance of ribotricer in detecting actively translating transcripts in comparison with other tools. For the two human samples, ribotricer achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.99, and Rp-Bp achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.89. RibORF and RiboWave achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.91 and 0.75, respectively. For the three mouse samples, ribotricer achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.99, and Rp-Bp achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.87. RibORF and RiboWave achieved an average $F1$ score of 0.97 and 0.69, respectively (Supplementary Fig. S21).

3.3 Ribotricer achieves high accuracy across species

We further tested the applicability of our method across different species including *Arabidopsis*, *C.elegans*, *Drosophila*, rat, yeast and zebrafish. Though the median scores of RNA-seq samples do not exhibit high levels of variation in the same species, the corresponding

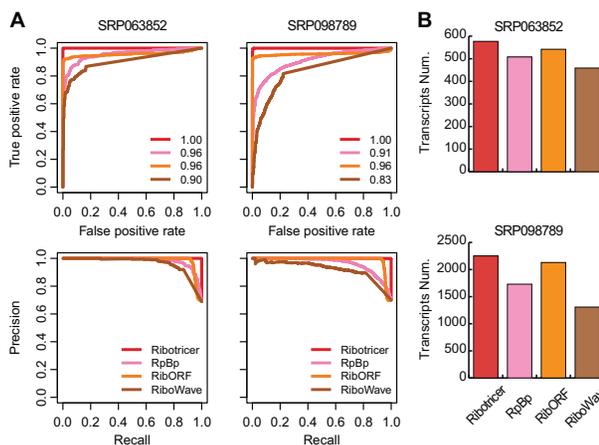


Fig. 3. Comparison of performance on detecting translating transcripts. The performance of ribotricer is compared with that of RibORF, RiboWave and Rp-Bp. (A) The ROC and precision-recall curves summarizing performance of ribotricer, RibORF, RiboWave and Rp-Bp on one human and one mouse dataset. (B) The number of translating transcripts recovered when controlling the false positive rate to be the same

Ribo-seq samples appear to have highly varied phase scores (Supplementary Figs S27–S30). Following our previous strategy of learning cutoffs from two datasets, we learned the cutoffs for each species separately. The species-specific cutoffs (Supplementary Table S6) were then used to determine the translation status of Ribo- and RNA-seq profiles.

Ribotricer consistently gives the best AUROC and $F1$ score for all samples in *Arabidopsis*, yeast and zebrafish at the exon level (Supplementary Figs S32 and S33 and Tables S8 and S9). Similarly, for *C.elegans*, ribotricer's $F1$ scores are the highest in all the four datasets. In *Drosophila*, where the difference between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores is low (Supplementary Figs S27–S30), ribotricer consistently results in the best $F1$ scores (Supplementary Figs S33 and S34 and Table S9).

In more challenging datasets, where the AUROC achieved by the best method is not close to one, ribotricer is able to perform well at both AUROC and $F1$ score metrics. Particularly, in *Arabidopsis* dataset SRP087624 (Xu *et al.*, 2017), ribotricer achieves an AUROC of 0.690 whereas the second best method, RiboTaper, achieves an AUROC of 0.523 (Supplementary Fig. S32 and Table S8) with the difference between them being statistically significant ($P < 0.001$). It is worth noting that in *Drosophila*, three datasets have AUROC in the range of 0.64–0.73, however ribotricer's AUROC is not the best amongst other methods (Supplementary Table S8). The failure of ribotricer in this case can be attributed to the diminished difference between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores in these samples (Supplementary Figs S27–S30 and S34). However, ribotricer still results in the highest $F1$ scores for all the datasets (Supplementary Figs S33 and S34 and Table S9).

4 Discussion

Ribo-seq has enabled transcriptome-wide monitoring of translation and has provided avenues for discovering tissue- or condition-specific ORFs. It has expanded the spectrum of translation beyond the annotated coding regions with the discovery of thousands of ORFs that were presumed to be non-active. The presence of amplification bias, non-ribosomal RNA-protein complexes or other contamination can often result in fragments that do not represent active translation. This has made the detection of actively translating ORFs from Ribo-seq data a challenging problem. The correct interpretation of Ribo-seq data requires that only actively translating regions be considered for drawing any conclusion. It is particularly important to do this separation for accurately identifying actively translating short ORFs, since their short length increases the impact

of noise. Multiple tools have been developed for detecting actively translating ORFs using Ribo-seq data. However, little focus has been placed on detection of short ORFs. Though the textbook definition of an ORF is a sequence having a multiplicity of three with its ends marked with a start (AUG) and stop codon, a more appropriate definition suggests that such a sequence just be bounded by stop codons (Sieber et al., 2018). As such, Ribo-seq based tools for determining active translation benefit from the capacity to identify translation in all potentially translatable ORFs rather than just known protein-coding regions. Moreover, the detection of true translating ORFs can be used to filter out reads not associated with translation events, which would benefit downstream read count based analysis, such as differential translation efficiency modeling using methods, such as Riborex (Li et al., 2017) and Xtail (Xiao et al., 2016).

Ribotricer assesses the periodicity of RPF profile by projecting the 3D read count vector of each codon to a 2D unit vector. There are several advantages of our method. First, by unit normalizing the projected vector, ribotricer performs a trend correction, allowing for non-uniform coverage across the profile. In particular, this avoids the bias caused by codons with a high number of mapped reads. Second, ribotricer checks the consistency of the pattern across the three frames of each codon but does not assume the exact translating frame which makes it unaffected by any P-site shift. Lastly, as we have demonstrated, the scores generated by ribotricer are not dependent on the length of the ORF.

A key challenge in detecting short ORFs lies in the limited length of the signal. Fourier transform based methods, such as RiboTaper are subject to the uncertainty principle (Donoho and Stark, 1989), which decreases frequency resolution when the signal length is short. Methods that utilize the absolute magnitudes of the count of the profile vector will tend to have a higher error rate in short regions due to the high variance associated with limited observations. Our method, on the other hand, relies on using the qualitative information at each codon in the form of ‘high-low-low’ pattern. This gives it the highest resolution and protects it from bias that might arise from codons with an over-abundance of reads. This explains ribotricer’s higher accuracy even at shorter regions (CCDS exons) as compared to other methods. Species-specific phase-score cutoffs result in good performance across all the datasets that we tested. However, depending on the availability and quality of data, dataset-specific cutoffs can also result in improved performance (Supplementary Tables S10 and S11 and Figs S35–S39).

The strength of ribotricer is derived from its simplicity: we make fewer assumptions about quantitative aspects of the data, and in the face of technically heterogeneous data, this is a positive. However, eventually technical characteristics of Ribo-seq data will converge. When that happens, we expect that by directly modeling those technical characteristics, more intricate methods will be able to more effectively leverage quantitative aspects of RPF profiles. The phase score specifically avoids modeling the distribution of absolute RPF counts along transcripts. If technical characteristics of Ribo-seq data stabilize in the near future, and can be modeled accurately, our approach can be adapted to weigh the contributions of codons based on their total number of reads.

By default, ribotricer searches for ORFs that are at least 60 nt or 20 codons long to build the candidate list but this minimum length can be set to a user-defined value. We arrived at the default value of 20 codons by performing a simulation using the Ribo-seq profiles of genes with total codons >100 and with at least 50% non-empty codons. In the simulation, we randomly sampled 10–100 codons and generated a ‘downsampled’ profile. The mean absolute difference between the original phase score calculated using the full length profile versus the ‘downsampled’ profile with 20 or more codons is smaller than 0.05 and does not change after increasing the number of codons (Supplementary Figs S22 and S23).

Ribotricer enables discovery of both short and long ORFs that will deepen our understanding of translational regulation across various biological contexts. We envision ribotricer’s phase score to become a commonly used quality control metric for assessing the quality of Ribo-seq datasets, especially for new datasets in species where no prior datasets exist (Supplementary Figs S40–S42).

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Supplementary Information: Accurate detection of short and long active ORFs using Ribo-seq data

Saket Choudhary*

Wenzheng Li*
{skchoudh, wenzhenl, andrewds}@usc.edu

Andrew D. Smith

1 Data description

To evaluate the performance of different methods in a comprehensive way, we selected multiple public datasets from *Arabidopsis*, *C. elegans*, *Drosophila*, human, mouse, rat, yeast, and zebrafish. These datasets span several tissues and cell lines. The treatment employed for inhibiting translation includes, flash freezing, cycloheximide, streptomycin, emetine, tunicamycin, and blasticidin (Supplementary Table S1).

The five *Arabidopsis* datasets include one dataset from inflorescence (SRA accession: SRP108862, unpublished), two datasets from leaf tissue (SRA accession: SRP087624 [50] and SRP059391 [29]). The other two datasets include a whole seedling (SRA accession: SRP029587 [24]) and an etiolated seedling (SRA accession: SRP018118 [28]).

In *C. elegans*, all the four datasets are from the n2 strain (SRA accession: SRP056647 [35], SRP026198 [45], SRP014427 [43], and SRP010374 [44]).

For *Drosophila*, we have four datasets spanning body wall muscle (SRA accession: SRP108999 [8]), embryo (SRA accession: SRP028243 [12]), oocytes (SRP076919 [14]), and S2 cells (SRA accession: SRP045475 ([3])).

The five human datasets include a prostate cancer cell line (PC3; SRA accession: SRP010679 [20]), two samples from HeLa cells (SRA accession: SRP029589 [46] and SRP098789 [27]), one sample from HEK293 (SRA accession: SRP063852 [7]), and one from H1933 cancer cell line (SRA accession: SRP102021 [42]).

The five mouse datasets include neutrophils cultured from mouse bone marrow (SRA accession: SRP003554 [17]), cultured hippocampal neurons (SRA accession: SRP062407 [9]), two samples from liver tissue (SRA accession: SRP078005 [15] and SRP115915 [30]), and embryonic stem cells (SRA accession: SRP091889 [47]).

For rat, we have three datasets including one in PC12 cell line (SRA accession: SRP056012 [1]), one in pheochromocytoma cells (SRA accession: SRP045777 [36]) and one from the BN/SHR strain (SRA accession: ERP007231 [39]).

For yeast, there are five datasets spanning strains by4743 (SRA accession: SRP075766[6]), by4176 (SRA accession: SRP028614 [2]), by4741 (SRA accession: SRP033499 [18], and SRP000637 [21]) and s288 (SRA accession: SRP028552 [32]).

In Zebrafish, all the three datasets from the tuab strain (SRA accession: SRP034750 [4], SRP010040 [5], and SRP023492 [25]).

*equal contribution

For additional benchmarking on completely independent datasets, we also used datasets from *C. albicans* treated with blasticidin (SRA accession: SRP032814 [34]), one from *S. pombe* treated with tunicamycin (SRA accession: SRP107240 [19]) and one each from chimpanzee and macaque lymphoblastoid cell lines involving flash freezing for inhibiting translation (SRA accession: SRP062129 [49]). To the best of our knowledge the datasets we selected for *C. albicans*, chimpanzee and macaque are the only public datasets available for these species.

2 Obtaining and pre-processing data

We downloaded the raw data (Supplementary Table S1) from NCBI’s Sequence Read Archive (SRA) using `pysradb` [10]. We used `cutadapt` [31] to perform adapter trimming. The specific adapters for each dataset are either obtained from the corresponding papers or were automatically inferred by checking for over-represented k -mers at the 3’ end. Sequences of the adapters for each dataset is documented in Supplementary Table S2. All the Ribo-seq and RNA-seq data were mapped using `STAR` [11] by allowing at most two mismatches (`--outFilterMismatchNmax 2`) and forcing end-to-end (`--alignEndsType EndToEnd`) read alignment. Only uniquely mapping reads were retained (`-outFilterMultimapNmax 1`). For human and mouse, we relied on the GENCODE [16] GTF for annotation. For all other species except *C. albicans*, we used ENSEMBL [38]. For *C. albicans*, both the FASTA and the GTF were obtained from the Candida Genomes database [41]. The assembly and GTF information is summarized in Supplementary Table S3. FASTA is handled using the `pyfaidx` package [40].

The strand-specific protocol, either forward stranded, reverse stranded or unstranded, is inferred by checking the first 20,000 reads from the mapping results. Since most tools we compared with can only deal with forward stranded protocol, our ten datasets are all forward stranded for both RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples. BAM files are processed using `pysam`, a python interface to `samtools` [26].

To create fragment length specific metagene profile, we counted the number of 5’ end of reads at each nucleotide per fragment length. Supplementary Figures S2 and S3 show the distribution of fragment lengths for Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples across different datasets in human and mouse, respectively. Metagene plots for individual fragment lengths which were retained for downstream analysis for different datasets are shown in Supplementary Figures S4 and S5.

The specific Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples used from each dataset for the benchmarking along with the read lengths and the corresponding P-site offsets used for the Ribo-seq samples can be found in Supplementary Table S4.

AUROC, F1 scores, and p-values for AUROC difference were calculated using the `pROC` [37] package in R. For calculating p-values, we used the `bootstrap` method and set `alternative='greater'`.

3 Learning species-specific cutoffs

Ribo-seq’s protocol was initially developed to profile the translational landscape in yeast [22], but it has been widely used to profile the translational status of ORFs in multiple species [33, 48]. We benchmarked `ribotricer` first using human and mouse datasets where we have access to CCDS annotated regions as a high confidence ground truth for known protein coding status (Supplementary Figures S12-S21). In order to further benchmark `ribotricer` against other methods, we used additional public Ribo-seq datasets from *Arabidopsis*, *C. elegans*, *Drosophila*, rat, yeast, and zebrafish (Supplementary Table S1). Unlike human and mouse, CCDS annotations are not available for these species. Hence, for such species, we considered the Ribo-seq profile of annotated CDS regions as the true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile

as the true negative. In order to establish if we needed to re-adjust our phase score cutoff for each species separately, we summarized the phase scores for both Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples from multiple public datasets (Supplementary Figure S30). We observed that phase scores of both RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples vary across species (Supplementary Figures S27, S28, and S29) with higher variation arising from the Ribo-seq samples. The variation in phase scores for RNA-seq samples in the same species is limited, though it also exhibits a species related trend (Supplementary Figure S29). Ribo-seq samples on the other hand exhibit higher intra-species and across-species heterogeneity. Hence, in order to capture this species-specific differences in RNA-seq and Ribo-seq scores, we learned cutoffs for each species separately (Supplementary Table S5 and S6; Supplementary Figure S31). It is worth noting that, human and mouse samples that we previously used for our benchmark exhibit similar variation in RNA-seq and Ribo-seq phase scores besides having higher Ribo-seq phase scores as compared to all other species. On the other hand, the difference between Ribo- and RNA-seq phase scores appears to be particularly low in *Drosophila* datasets (Supplementary Figure S29).

4 Learning dataset-specific cutoffs

In studies where both Ribo-seq and RNA-seq experiment are available, it is possible to fine-tune the phase-score cutoff to be dataset-specific. The Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples within the same species can show variation in terms of their phase score (Supplementary Figure S29) and hence, it is possible that learning dataset-specific cutoffs leads to an overall better performance (Supplementary Figures S35-S39). To learn the dataset-specific cutoffs, we calculated the median difference between phase scores of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq profiles for each dataset over only protein-coding regions. Using a sampling strategy where a one-third fraction of protein-coding profiles were used to determine the median difference between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq profiles with replacement ($n_{\text{bootstraps}} = 10000$) [13], the dataset-specific cutoff was assigned to be the median of these differences. It is worth mentioning that this approach is only viable for studies where both Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples are available. The dataset-specific cutoffs result in ribotricer achieving higher F1 scores in some but not all datasets (Supplementary Tables S9-S11; Supplementary Figures S35-S39). In all our datasets, a median difference of 0.25 or more between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq protein-coding profiles results in an F1 score greater than 0.73 (Supplementary Figure S38). Given a set of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq mapped files (BAM), the dataset-specific cutoffs can be determined by using `ribotricer learn-cutoff` (Section 8.5).

5 Ribotricer’s phase score remains stable on truncated ORFs

In order to test the ability of ribotricer to correctly predict the translation status of an ORF whose length has been shortened due to truncation we performed a simulation where for all candidate ORFs which have atleast 50% of non-empty codons, *i.e.* codons with non-zero reads, we truncated it from 3’ end such that the truncated length was 10 – 100% of the original length. For each such truncated ORF, we calculated ribotricer’s phase score and compared it with the corresponding RiboCode generated p-value. It is worth mentioning, that among the tools of capable of performing exon level classification, we were able to benchmark ribotricer against only RiboCode and ORFscore as RiboTaper requires bam files of both RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples.

Ribotricer’s score for the truncated ORF is negligibly different from the original ORF with a maximum difference of ± 0.05 (Supplementary Figure S24 and S25) as demonstrated using a human (SRA accession: SRP063852) and a mouse dataset (SRA accession: SRP003554). On the other hand, the RiboCode generated

p-values show a clear dependence on the ORF length with the deviation from original score being as high as ± 100 . It is worth mentioning that the differences between truncated and original profile for RiboCode are calculated on a \log_{10} scale as it outputs p-values, while for both ribotricer and ORFscore, the differences are calculated on the same scale as the scores.

6 Ribotricer can detect ORFs as short as 20 codons

In order to determine the minimum length of ORF that can be detected by ribotricer we performed a simulation using the Ribo-seq profiles of genes with total codons > 100 and with at least 50% non-empty codons. We then randomly sampled 10 – 100 codons, without maintaining their order explicitly, and generated a “downsampled” profile. The mean absolute difference between the original phase score calculated using the full length profile versus the “downsampled” profile with 20 or more codons is smaller than 0.05 and does not change after increasing the number of codons (Supplementary Figures S22 and S23).

7 Running ribotricer on a new species

We provide a list of recommended phase score cutoffs (Supplementary Table S6) for most species where there are at least three or more public Ribo-seq datasets (Supplementary Table S1). The cutoffs for each species were learned empirically by using Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples from two datasets and maximizing the F1 score by treating the Ribo-seq profiles of CCDS/CDS regions as ground true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profiles as true negatives (Supplementary Figure S31; Supplementary Table S5). However, this approach is only best suited for species where there are multiple datasets available. For a new species where there are only few or none datasets available and hence the cutoff cannot be learned empirically, we recommend using the median score difference between the profiles of annotated CDS regions of a Ribo-seq and the corresponding RNA-seq sample. This strategy is also used by RibORF [23] which tunes the parameters of its model by selecting one-third of the CDS profiles as true positives. We followed this strategy of using the median phase score difference as the phase score cutoff for each of the four species: *C. albicans*, chimpanzee, macaque and *S. pombe*. Except for *S. pombe*, all other species have only one public dataset available to the best of our knowledge (Supplementary Table S1).

We first generated candidate ORF list for each species using ribotricer over transcripts with annotated CDS regions. Phase scores were then calculated for each RNA-seq and Ribo-seq sample over these CDS annotated candidate ORFs (Supplementary Figure S42). The median differences in Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores for *C. albicans*, chimpanzee, macaque and *S. pombe* is summarized at the end of Supplementary Table S7. We used these differences as species-specific cutoffs for benchmarking ribotricer against other methods.

Ribotricer results in the best AUROC for all the four species with the difference between ribotricer and the second best method statistically significant in all the cases (Supplementary Figure S40; Supplementary Table S8). It is worth mentioning that the AUROC metric is not dependent on the choice of the learned cutoff. Furthermore, ribotricer is also the best method using the F1 score metric (Supplementary Figure S41; Supplementary Table S9).

We recommend using the species-specific cutoffs for all the species as listed in Supplementary Table S6. For any new species, we recommend using median phase score differences on ribotricer generated candidate ORFs over CDS annotated transcripts between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples (Supplementary Figure S42). This can be determined by `ribotricer` itself, using the `learn-cutoff` subcommand. (See Section 8.5).

8 Using ribotricer

In order to use `ribotricer`, the following three files are required:

- **GTF**: genome annotation file in GTF format (ENSEMBL/Gencode/others)
- **FASTA**: reference genome file in FASTA format
- **BAM**: alignment file in BAM format

Henceforth, we use the boldface acronyms above to refer to these files as such.

8.1 Preparing candidate ORFs list

`ribotricer` prepares a candidate list of ORFs given a GTF and FASTA file. For any species, given a reference and a fixed version of GTF, this step only needs to be done once. `Ribotricer` by default searches for ORFs defined by an ‘AUG’ start and an in-frame stop codon (‘UAG’, ‘UAA’, and ‘UGA’) and are a minimum of 60 nucleotides long. It is possible to expand the definition of ORF by supplying a list of all start codons using the `--start_codons` parameter. It is also possible to change the minimum length of an ORF by using the `--min_orf_length` option. If multiple potential in-frame start codons exist upstream of a stop codon, we always choose AUG if it exists, otherwise, we take the most upstream one as the start codon.

```
ribotricer prepare-orfs --gtf {GTF} \  
                        --fasta {FASTA} \  
                        --prefix {RIBOTRICER_INDEX}
```

The command above will create a list of candidate ORFs at the `RIBOTRICER_INDEX` location.

For this study, we used a total of ten codons with a maximum of one nucleotide difference from “ATG” as potential start codons including ATA, ATC, ATT, AAG, ACG, AGG, ATG, CTG, GTG, TTG. Note that we use ‘T’ as a nucleotide here instead of ‘U’ as the reference FASTA almost always contains DNA sequences.

8.2 Detecting actively translating ORFs using ribotricer

`Ribotricer`’s ORF list as created above can then be used along with the BAM to define the translation status of these ORFs:

```
ribotricer detect-orfs --bam {BAM} \  
                      --ribotricer_index {RIBOTRICER_INDEX}_candidate_ORFs.tsv \  
                      --prefix {OUT_PREFIX}
```

For each ORF in the candidate ORFs list, `ribotricer` calculates the phase score on the read profiles after performing read length appropriate offset shifts. These offsets are determined by maximizing the cross-correlation of these profiles with the profile for the most abundant read length. Additionally, `ribotricer` automatically infers the sequencing protocol (forward/reverse) and only uses unique mapping reads that conform to the strand orientation in the GTF. For example, a read uniquely mapping to a gene defined on the negative strand for a forward stranded protocol, will be discarded.

In order to assign ‘non-translating’ or ‘translating’ status, `ribotricer`, by default, uses a cutoff threshold of 0.428. ORFs with phase score above 0.428 are marked as translating as long as they have at least five

codons with non-zero read count. Ribotricer does not take coverage into account for predicting an ORF to be translating or not-translating. Apart from these two criteria, there is no other requirement for an ORF to be active. Though, a region with higher overall coverage as defined by number of reads per unit codon might be a more confident ‘hit’ for active translation, our method is designed to find evidence of active translation based on the qualitative pattern of “high-low-low” and hence our rankings are purely based on phase scores.

The default cutoff (0.428) was learned using public human and mouse Ribo-seq datasets, where the gap between Ribo- and RNA-seq phase scores is the highest amongst other species (Supplementary Table S7) and hence, it is a conservative cutoff for detecting active translation. We provide a list of species-specific recommended cutoffs (Supplementary Table S6), optimized for F1 score based performance.

The main output of the above command is a tab separated file consisting for each candidate ORF, its translation status, the corresponding transcript and gene and the ORF type. Different ORF types defined by ribotricer are described below:

- **annotated:** CDS annotated in the provided GTF file
- **super_uORF:** upstream ORF of the annotated CDS, not overlapping with any CDS of the same gene
- **super_dORF:** downstream ORF of the annotated CDS, not overlapping with any CDS of the same gene
- **uORF:** upstream ORF of the annotated CDS, not overlapping with the main CDS
- **dORF:** downstream ORF of the annotated CDS, not overlapping with the main CDS
- **overlap_uORF:** upstream ORF of the annotated CDS, overlapping with the main CDS
- **overlap_dORF:** downstream ORF of the annotated CDS, overlapping with the main CDS
- **novel:** ORF in non-coding genes or in non-coding transcripts of coding genes

8.3 Filtering actively translating ORFs using multiple criteria

In order to assign ‘non-translating’ or ‘translating’ status, ribotricer by default uses a cutoff threshold of ‘0.428’. ORFs with phase score above ‘0.428’ are marked as translating as long as they have at least five codons with non-zero read count. By default, ribotricer does not take coverage or count information explicitly into account for predicting an ORF to be translating or not-translating. However, this behavior can be changed by following filters:

- `--min_valid_codons` (default=5): Minimum number of codons with non-zero reads for determining active translation
- `--min_valid_codons_ratio` (default=0): Minimum ratio of codons with non-zero reads to total codons for determining active translation
- `--min_reads_per_codon` (default=0): Minimum number of reads per codon for determining active translation
- `--min_read_density` (default=0.0): Minimum read density (total reads/length) over an ORF total codons for determining active translation

For each of the above filters, an ORF failing **any** of the filters is marked as ‘non-translating’.

For example, to ensure that each ORF has at least 3/4 of its codons non-empty, we can specify `--min_valid_codons_ratio` to be 0.75:

```
ribotricer detect-orfs --bam {BAM} \  
                      --ribotricer_index {RIBOTRICER_INDEX}_candidate_ORFs.tsv \  
                      --prefix {OUTPUT_PREFIX} \  
                      --min_valid_codons_ratio 0.75
```

It might also often be desired to have some minimum density of reads over an ORF. The read density here is defined as the ratio of total number of reads over an ORF to its length. For example to ensure that each ‘translating’ ORF has at least a read density of 10, we will specify `--min_read_density` to be 10.

```
ribotricer detect-orfs --bam {BAM} \  
                      --ribotricer_index {RIBOTRICER_INDEX}_candidate_ORFs.tsv \  
                      --prefix {OUTPUT_PREFIX} \  
                      --min_read_density 10.0
```

The above filters can be combined to give ORFs that have high read density as well as have reads present over most of the codons in the profile. Note that increasing the value of any of the four filters will usually result in a smaller list of ORFs marked ‘translating’.

8.4 Downstream ranking and filtering

It is also possible to filter actively-translating ORFs after running ribotricer. Ribotricer produces a tab separated file with columns that include read-density, number and ratio of valid codons to total codons in the ORF besides the phase score. As such, filtering can be performed downstream using `awk` or any other programming language. Here we provide an example of filtering and sorting the output of a ribotricer run using Python using the `pandas` library:

Listing 1: **Filtering ORFs using python.** The function returns a filtered list of translating ORFs which have a read density of at least 2.5; a total read count of atleast 50; and the ratio of non-empty codons to total codons atleast 0.75.

```
import pandas as pd  
def filtered_df(df):  
    df_filtered = df.loc[df.status=='translating']  
    df_filtered = df.loc[(df['read_density']>=2.5) & \  
                        (df['read_count']>=50) & \  
                        (df['valid_codons_ratio']>=0.75)]  
    df_sorted = df_filtered.sort_values(by=['phase_score',  
                                           'read_density'],  
                                       ascending=[False,  
                                                  False])  
  
return df_sorted
```

```
# read ribotricer output
ribotricer_output_df = pd.read_csv('/path/to/translating_ORFs.tsv', sep='\t')
# filter and sort ribotricer output
ribotricer_filtered_df = filtered_df(ribotricer_output_df)
```

8.5 Learning cutoff empirically from data

Ribotricer can learn cutoff empirically from the data. Given at least one Ribo-seq and one RNA-seq BAM file, ribotricer learns the cutoff by running one iteration of the algorithm on the provided files with a pre-specified cutoff (`--phase_score_cutoff`, default: 0.428) and then uses the generated output to find the median difference between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores of only candidate ORFs with `transcript_type` annotated as `protein.coding`:

```
ribotricer learn-cutoff --ribo_bams ribo_bam1.bam,ribo_bam2.bam \
--rna_bams rna_1.bam \
--prefix ribo_rna_prefix \
--ribotricer_index {RIBOTRICER_ANNOTATION}
```

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9 Supplementary tables

Table S1: List of datasets.

| SRA Accession | Species | Cell type | Treatment | Citation |
|---------------|--------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------|
| SRP010679 | Human | PC3 | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [20] |
| SRP029589 | Human | HeLa | cycloheximide | [46] |
| SRP063852 | Human | HEK293 | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [7] |
| SRP098789 | Human | HeLa | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [27] |
| SRP102021 | Human | H1933 | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [42] |
| SRP003554 | Mouse | neutrophils cultured from bone marrow | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [17] |
| SRP062407 | Mouse | hippocampal neurons | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [9] |
| SRP078005 | Mouse | liver | 200 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [15] |
| SRP091889 | Mouse | ESC | cycloheximide | [47] |
| SRP115915 | Mouse | liver | 200 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [30] |
| SRP108862 | Arabidopsis | inflorescences | unavailable | unpublished |
| SRP087624 | Arabidopsis | leaf tissue | 50 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [50] |
| SRP029587 | Arabidopsis | whole seedlings | 50 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [24] |
| SRP059391 | Arabidopsis | leaf tissue | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [29] |
| SRP018118 | Arabidopsis | etiolated seedling | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [28] |
| SRP075766 | Baker's Yeast | strain by4743 | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [6] |
| SRP033499 | Baker's Yeast | strain: by4741 | 0.1 mg/ml cycloheximide | [18] |
| SRP028614 | Baker's Yeast | strain: by4176 | cycloheximide | [2] |
| SRP028552 | Baker's Yeast | strain: s288 | cycloheximide | [32] |
| SRP000637 | Baker's Yeast | strain: by4741 | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [21] |
| SRP056647 | <i>C. elegans</i> | strain: n2 | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [35] |
| SRP026198 | <i>C. elegans</i> | strain: n2 | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [45] |
| SRP014427 | <i>C. elegans</i> | strain: n2 | cycloheximide | [43] |
| SRP010374 | <i>C. elegans</i> | strain: n2 | cycloheximide | [44] |
| SRP108999 | Drosophila | body wall muscle | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [8] |
| SRP028243 | Drosophila | embryo | 20 μ g/ml emetine | [12] |
| SRP076919 | Drosophila | oocytes | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [14] |
| SRP045475 | Drosophila | S2 cell | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [3] |
| SRP056012 | Rat | PC12 Cells | 100 μ g/ml streptomycin | [1] |
| SRP045777 | Rat | Pheochromocytoma cells | streptomycin | [36] |
| ERP007231 | Rat | strain: bn/shr | 0.1 mg/ml cycloheximide | [39] |
| SRP034750 | Zebrafish | strain: tuab | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [4] |
| SRP010040 | Zebrafish | strain: tuab | 100 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [5] |
| SRP023492 | Zebrafish | strain: tuab | 50 μ g/ml cycloheximide | [25] |
| SRP032814 | <i>C. albicans</i> | strain: sc5314 | 10 μ g/mL Blastidicin S | [34] |
| SRP107240 | <i>S. pombe</i> | strain: WT | 0.15 μ g/ml tunicamycin | [19] |
| SRP062129 | Chimpanzee | Lymphoblastoid cell line | flash freezing | [49] |
| SRP062129 | Macaque | Lymphoblastoid cell line | flash freezing | [49] |

Table S2: Adapters trimmed from Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples for each dataset.

| SRA Accession | Ribo-seq adapter | RNA-seq adapter |
|---------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| SRP010679 | CTGTAGGCAC | CTGTAGGCAC |
| SRP029589 | CTGTAGGCACCATCAAT | CTGTAGGCACCATCAAT |
| SRP063852 | None | None |
| SRP098789 | CTGTAGGCACCATCAAT | CTGTAGGCACCATCAAT |
| SRP102021 | TCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTG | None |
| SRP003554 | TCGTATG | TCGTATG |
| SRP062407 | TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG | TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG |
| SRP078005 | TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG | TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG |
| SRP091889 | AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCT | AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCT |
| SRP115915 | TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG | TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGG |
| SRP108862 | TGGAATTCTCGG | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP087624 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP029587 | TCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTG | TGGAATTCTCGGGTGCCAAGGAACTCCAGTCAC |
| SRP059391 | TGGAATTCTCGG | TGGAATTCTCGG |
| SRP018118 | TGGAATTCTCGG | TGGAATTCTCGG |
| SRP075766 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP033499 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP028614 | AAAAAAAAAAAA_AGATCGGAAGAGC | AAAAAAAAAAAA_AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP028552 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP000637 | AAAAAAAA_AGATCGGAAGAGC | AAAAAAAA_AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP056647 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP026198 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP014427 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP010374 | AAAAAAA_AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP108999 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP028243 | CTGTAGGCACCATCAAT | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP076919 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | TGGAATTCTCGG |
| SRP045475 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP056012 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP045777 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| ERP007231 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP034750 | AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCTGAACTCCAGTCA | AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCTGAACTCCAGTCA |
| SRP010040 | ATCTCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTGAAAAAAAAA | ATCTCGTATGCCGTCTTCTGCTTGAAAAAAAAA |
| SRP023492 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP032814 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP107240 | AGATCGGAAGAGC | AGATCGGAAGAGC |
| SRP062129 | TGGAATTCTCGG | AGATCGGAAGAGC |

Table S3: Reference assemblies and GTF for each species

| Species | Reference assembly | GTF |
|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------------------|
| Human | GRCh38 | Gencode (v94) |
| Mouse | GRCm38 | Gencode (v94) |
| Arabidopsis | TAIR10 | ENSEMBL (v96) |
| <i>C.elegans</i> | WBcel235 | ENSEMBL (v96) |
| Drosophila | BDGP6 | ENSEMBL (v96) |
| Rat | Rnor6.0 | ENSEMBL (v96) |
| Zebrafish | GRCz11 | ENSEMBL (v96) |
| <i>C. albicans</i> | SC5314 | Candida Genomes Database (r27) |
| <i>S. pombe</i> | ASM294v2 | ENSEMBL (v96) |
| Chimpanzee | Pantro3 | ENSEMBL (v96) |
| Macaque | Mmul8 | ENSEMBL (v96) |

Table S4: Ribo- and RNA-seq samples used for the benchmarking along with the read lengths and P-site offsets used for Ribo-seq samples.

| SRA Accession | Ribo-seq sample | Read lengths (nt) | P-site offsets (nt) | RNA-seq sample | Species |
|---------------|-----------------|-------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|--------------------|
| SRP010679 | SRX118286 | 28,29,30 | 12,13,13 | SRX118285 | Human |
| SRP029589 | SRX345309 | 29,30,32 | 12,12,13 | SRX345311 | Human |
| SRP063852 | SRX1254413 | 28,29,30 | 12,12,12 | SRX426378 | Human |
| SRP098789 | SRX2536421 | 28,30 | 12,13 | SRX2536426 | Human |
| SRP102021 | SRX2647167 | 28,29,30,31 | 12,12,12,12 | SRX2647164 | Human |
| SRP003554 | SRX026871 | 28,29,30 | 12,12,12 | SRX026872 | Mouse |
| SRP062407 | SRX1149649 | 28,29,30,31 | 12,12,12,12 | SRX1149668 | Mouse |
| SRP078005 | SRX1900396 | 26,27,28,29,30 | 12,12,12,12,12 | SRX1900402 | Mouse |
| SRP091889 | SRX2255510 | 26,27,28,29,30 | 12,12,12,12,12 | SRX2255511 | Mouse |
| SRP115915 | SRX3110803 | 29,30,31,32,33,34 | 12,12,12,13,13,13 | SRX3110807 | Mouse |
| SRP108862 | SRX2896566 | 23 | 12 | SRX2896570 | Arabidopsis |
| SRP087624 | SRX2148419 | 28,29,30,31,32 | 12,12,12,12,12 | SRX2148418 | Arabidopsis |
| SRP029587 | SRX345240 | 26,27 | 12,12 | SRX345251 | Arabidopsis |
| SRP059391 | SRX1056790 | 27,30 | 12,12 | SRX1056791 | Arabidopsis |
| SRP018118 | SRX219170 | 28,29,30,31 | 11,12,13,13 | SRX347226 | Arabidopsis |
| SRP075766 | SRX1801603 | 26,27,28 | 11,12,13 | SRX1801650 | Baker's Yeast |
| SRP033499 | SRX386988 | 29,30,31 | 12,12,12 | SRX386983 | Baker's Yeast |
| SRP028614 | SRX333052 | 28,29,30 | 12,13,13 | SRX334053 | Baker's Yeast |
| SRP028552 | SRX332185 | 28,29,30 | 11,12,12 | SRX332188 | Baker's Yeast |
| SRP000637 | SRX003187 | 28,29,30,31 | 12,12,12,12 | SRX003191 | Baker's Yeast |
| SRP056647 | SRX971770 | 28,29,30,31,32 | 12,12,12,12,12 | SRX971774 | <i>C. elegans</i> |
| SRP026198 | SRX311784 | 29,30,31,32 | 12,12,12,12 | SRX311777 | <i>C. elegans</i> |
| SRP014427 | SRX160518 | 28,29,30,31,32 | 12,12,12,12,12 | SRX160149 | <i>C. elegans</i> |
| SRP010374 | SRX118118 | 28,29,30,31,32 | 12,12,12,12,12 | SRX118116 | <i>C. elegans</i> |
| SRP108999 | SRX2902857 | 29,30,31,32 | 12,13,10,12 | SRX2902867 | Drosophila |
| SRP028243 | SRX327686 | 28,29,30,32,33,34 | 12,12,12,12,12,13 | SRX327688 | Drosophila |
| SRP076919 | SRX1870218 | 34 | 12 | SRX1870191 | Drosophila |
| SRP045475 | SRX679371 | 28,29,30,31,32 | 12,12,12,12,12 | SRX679372 | Drosophila |
| SRP056012 | SRX915217 | 29,30,31,32 | 12,12,13,13 | SRX915210 | Rat |
| SRP045777 | SRX686499 | 28,29,30,31 | 12,12,12,13 | SRX686500 | Rat |
| ERP007231 | ERX609893 | 28,29,30,31,32 | 12,12,12,12,12 | ERX609898 | Rat |
| SRP034750 | SRX399800 | 28,29,30,31 | 12,12,12,12 | SRX399817 | Zebrafish |
| SRP010040 | SRX113357 | 27,28,30,31,33,34 | 12,12,12,12,12,12 | SRX113344 | Zebrafish |
| SRP023492 | SRX288475 | 28,29,30 | 12,12,12 | SRX288474 | Zebrafish |
| SRP032814 | SRX375317 | 28,29,30 | 12,12,12 | SRX375318 | <i>C. albicans</i> |
| SRP107240 | SRX2825796 | 28,29,30 | 12,13,13 | SRX2825805 | <i>S. pombe</i> |
| SRP062129 | SRX1135820 | 28,29,30 | 12,12,12 | SRX333018 (SRP028612) | Chimpanzee |
| SRP062129 | SRX1135825 | 28,29,30 | 12,12,12 | SRX333023 (SRP028612) | Macaque |

Table S5: Datasets used to learn ribotracer phase score cutoffs.

| SRA Accession | Species | Used to learn cutoff |
|---------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| SRP010679 | Human | Yes |
| SRP029589 | Human | No |
| SRP063852 | Human | No |
| SRP098789 | Human | Yes |
| SRP102021 | Human | No |
| SRP003554 | Mouse | Yes |
| SRP062407 | Mouse | No |
| SRP078005 | Mouse | No |
| SRP091889 | Mouse | No |
| SRP115915 | Mouse | Yes |
| SRP108862 | Arabidopsis | No |
| SRP087624 | Arabidopsis | No |
| SRP029587 | Arabidopsis | No |
| SRP059391 | Arabidopsis | Yes |
| SRP018118 | Arabidopsis | Yes |
| SRP075766 | Baker's Yeast | Yes |
| SRP033499 | Baker's Yeast | No |
| SRP028614 | Baker's Yeast | No |
| SRP028552 | Baker's Yeast | Yes |
| SRP000637 | Baker's Yeast | No |
| SRP056647 | <i>C. elegans</i> | No |
| SRP026198 | <i>C. elegans</i> | Yes |
| SRP014427 | <i>C. elegans</i> | No |
| SRP010374 | <i>C. elegans</i> | Yes |
| SRP108999 | Drosophila | Yes |
| SRP028243 | Drosophila | Yes |
| SRP076919 | Drosophila | No |
| SRP045475 | Drosophila | No |
| SRP056012 | Rat | Yes |
| SRP045777 | Rat | No |
| ERP007231 | Rat | Yes |
| SRP034750 | Zebrafish | Yes |
| SRP010040 | Zebrafish | Yes |
| SRP023492 | Zebrafish | No |

Table S6: Species specific recommended phase score cutoffs for ribotracer. A “#” indicates the cutoff for the species is taken to be the median phase score difference between CDS annotated Ribo-seq and RNA-seq profiles since they only had one dataset each.

| Species | Cutoff |
|----------------------|--------|
| Arabidopsis | 0.330 |
| Baker’s Yeast | 0.318 |
| <i>C. elegans</i> | 0.249 |
| Drosophila | 0.181 |
| Human | 0.440 |
| Mouse | 0.418 |
| Rat | 0.453 |
| Zebrafish | 0.249 |
| <i>C. albicans</i> # | 0.228 |
| <i>S. pombe</i> # | 0.409 |
| Chimpanzee# | 0.334 |
| Macaque# | 0.321 |

Table S7: Species wise mean, median and standard deviation of difference of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores. SD = Standard Deviation. A “#” indicates that the median phase score difference for these species is also considered as cutoff for ribotracer, since they only had one dataset each.

| species | number of samples | mean difference phase score | median difference phase score | SD |
|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|-------|
| Arabidopsis | 5 | 0.308 | 0.365 | 0.252 |
| Baker’s Yeast | 5 | 0.309 | 0.287 | 0.225 |
| <i>C.elegans</i> | 4 | 0.232 | 0.273 | 0.235 |
| Drosophila | 4 | 0.048 | 0.054 | 0.221 |
| Human | 5 | 0.385 | 0.428 | 0.240 |
| Mouse | 5 | 0.468 | 0.528 | 0.230 |
| Rat | 3 | 0.260 | 0.303 | 0.253 |
| Zebrafish | 3 | 0.325 | 0.388 | 0.309 |
| <i>C. albicans</i> # | 1 | 0.228 | 0.225 | 0.151 |
| <i>S. pombe</i> # | 1 | 0.380 | 0.409 | 0.176 |
| Chimpanzee# | 1 | 0.328 | 0.334 | 0.233 |
| Macaque# | 1 | 0.285 | 0.321 | 0.218 |

Table S8: **Best and second to best performing methods at AUROC metric for each dataset.** The p-values were calculated using pROC [37] package using bootstrap method and `alternative='greater'`. AUROC (B) and AUROC (SB) denotes area under ROC for the best and the second to best methods respectively. A * indicates the dataset was later used to learn the ribotricer cutoffs by maximizing the F1 score. The AUROC values however do not depend on any cutoff.

| SRP | Species | Best (B) | Second Best (SB) | AUROC (B) | AUROC (SB) | p-value |
|------------|--------------------|------------|------------------|-----------|------------|-------------------------|
| SRP018118* | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.982 | 0.923 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP029587 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.897 | 0.594 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP059391* | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | ORFscore | 0.690 | 0.632 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP087624 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboTaper | 0.697 | 0.523 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP108862 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.732 | 0.607 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP000637 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.921 | 0.837 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP028552* | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.986 | 0.951 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP028614 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.966 | 0.846 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP033499 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.947 | 0.783 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP075766* | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.996 | 0.962 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP010374* | <i>C. elegans</i> | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.867 | 0.776 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP014427 | <i>C. elegans</i> | ORFscore | ribotricer | 0.927 | 0.920 | 3.774×10^{-14} |
| SRP026198* | <i>C. elegans</i> | ORFscore | ribotricer | 0.956 | 0.908 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP056647 | <i>C. elegans</i> | RiboCode | RiboTaper | 0.745 | 0.745 | 0.247 |
| SRP028243* | Drosophila | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.725 | 0.587 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP045475 | Drosophila | ORFscore | RiboTaper | 0.633 | 0.522 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP076919 | Drosophila | ORFscore | ribotricer | 0.638 | 0.465 | 0.317 |
| SRP108999* | Drosophila | ribotricer | RiboTaper | 0.884 | 0.727 | 0.068 |
| SRP010679* | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.944 | 0.849 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP029589 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.846 | 0.701 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP063852 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.969 | 0.930 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP098789* | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.975 | 0.908 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP102021 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.961 | 0.927 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP003554* | Mouse | RiboCode | ribotricer | 0.974 | 0.972 | 2.045×10^{-6} |
| SRP062407 | Mouse | RiboCode | ORFscore | 0.986 | 0.981 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP078005 | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.989 | 0.968 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP091889 | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.981 | 0.966 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP115915* | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.926 | 0.923 | 1.095×10^{-11} |
| ERP007231* | Rat | RiboTaper | RiboCode | 0.955 | 0.953 | 3.321×10^{-9} |
| SRP045777 | Rat | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.793 | 0.746 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP056012* | Rat | ORFscore | RiboCode | 0.971 | 0.872 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP010040* | Zebrafish | ribotricer | ORFscore | 0.658 | 0.562 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP023492 | Zebrafish | ribotricer | ORFscore | 0.970 | 0.958 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP034750* | Zebrafish | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.995 | 0.977 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP032814 | <i>C. albicans</i> | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.953 | 0.842 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP062129 | Chimp | ribotricer | ORFscore | 0.918 | 0.883 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP107240 | <i>S. pombe</i> | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.972 | 0.939 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |
| SRP062129 | Macaque | ribotricer | ORFscore | 0.904 | 0.854 | $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ |

Table S9: **Best and second to best performing methods at F1 score metric for each dataset using dataset-specific cutoff.** F1 (B) and F1 (SB) denotes the F1 scores for the best and the second to best methods respectively. An asterisk (*) indicates that the dataset was used to learn the cutoffs by maximizing the F1 score. A # indicates the ribotricker phase score cutoff for the dataset is taken to be the median phase score difference between CDS annotated Ribo-seq and RNA-seq profiles.

| SRP | Species | Best (B) | Second Best (SB) | F1 (B) | F1 (SB) |
|------------|--------------------|-------------|------------------|--------|---------|
| SRP018118* | Arabidopsis | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.937 | 0.848 |
| SRP029587 | Arabidopsis | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.645 | 0.176 |
| SRP059391* | Arabidopsis | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.562 | 0.361 |
| SRP087624 | Arabidopsis | ribotricker | ORFscore | 0.675 | 0.338 |
| SRP108862 | Arabidopsis | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.628 | 0.333 |
| SRP000637 | Baker's Yeast | RiboCode | ribotricker | 0.680 | 0.503 |
| SRP028552* | Baker's Yeast | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.964 | 0.859 |
| SRP028614 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.855 | 0.738 |
| SRP033499 | Baker's Yeast | RiboCode | RiboTaper | 0.747 | 0.705 |
| SRP075766* | Baker's Yeast | ribotricker | RiboTaper | 0.951 | 0.877 |
| SRP010374 | <i>C. elegans</i> | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.799 | 0.517 |
| SRP014427 | <i>C. elegans</i> | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.826 | 0.776 |
| SRP026198* | <i>C. elegans</i> | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.828 | 0.636 |
| SRP056647 | <i>C. elegans</i> | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.690 | 0.634 |
| SRP028243* | Drosophila | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.693 | 0.562 |
| SRP045475 | Drosophila | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.561 | 0.391 |
| SRP076919 | Drosophila | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.667 | 0.125 |
| SRP108999* | Drosophila | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.769 | 0.400 |
| SRP010679* | Human | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.877 | 0.773 |
| SRP029589 | Human | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.651 | 0.599 |
| SRP063852 | Human | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.919 | 0.854 |
| SRP098789* | Human | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.932 | 0.824 |
| SRP102021 | Human | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.890 | 0.835 |
| SRP003554* | Mouse | RiboTaper | ribotricker | 0.901 | 0.899 |
| SRP062407 | Mouse | RiboTaper | ribotricker | 0.930 | 0.910 |
| SRP078005 | Mouse | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.951 | 0.901 |
| SRP091889 | Mouse | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.938 | 0.900 |
| SRP115915* | Mouse | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.853 | 0.842 |
| ERP007231* | Rat | ribotricker | RiboTaper | 0.879 | 0.874 |
| SRP045777 | Rat | RiboCode | ribotricker | 0.618 | 0.511 |
| SRP056012* | Rat | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.787 | 0.786 |
| SRP010040* | Zebrafish | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.670 | 0.377 |
| SRP023492 | Zebrafish | RiboCode | ribotricker | 0.838 | 0.826 |
| SRP034750* | Zebrafish | RiboCode | ribotricker | 0.920 | 0.894 |
| SRP032814# | <i>C. albicans</i> | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.883 | 0.752 |
| SRP062129# | Chimp | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.865 | 0.436 |
| SRP062129# | Macaque | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.842 | 0.635 |
| SRP107240# | <i>S. pombe</i> | ribotricker | RiboCode | 0.913 | 0.869 |

Table S10: **Best and second to best performing methods at F1 score metric for each dataset-specific cutoff.** F1 (B) and F1 (SB) denotes the F1 scores for the best and the second to best methods respectively. The cutoff was learned independently for each dataset as the median difference between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores over protein coding ORFs.

| SRP | Species | Best (B) | Second Best (SB) | F1 (B) | F1 (SB) |
|-----------|------------------|------------|------------------|--------|---------|
| SRP018118 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.920 | 0.848 |
| SRP029587 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.846 | 0.176 |
| SRP059391 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.678 | 0.361 |
| SRP087624 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | ORFscore | 0.671 | 0.338 |
| SRP108862 | Arabidopsis | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.695 | 0.333 |
| SRP000637 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.850 | 0.680 |
| SRP028552 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.928 | 0.859 |
| SRP028614 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.923 | 0.738 |
| SRP033499 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.904 | 0.747 |
| SRP075766 | Baker's Yeast | ribotricer | RiboTaper | 0.935 | 0.877 |
| SRP010374 | <i>C.elegans</i> | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.798 | 0.517 |
| SRP014427 | <i>C.elegans</i> | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.868 | 0.776 |
| SRP026198 | <i>C.elegans</i> | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.846 | 0.636 |
| SRP056647 | <i>C.elegans</i> | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.716 | 0.634 |
| SRP028243 | Drosophila | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.679 | 0.562 |
| SRP045475 | Drosophila | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.667 | 0.391 |
| SRP076919 | Drosophila | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.667 | 0.125 |
| SRP108999 | Drosophila | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.818 | 0.400 |
| SRP010679 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.878 | 0.773 |
| SRP029589 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.765 | 0.599 |
| SRP063852 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.919 | 0.854 |
| SRP098789 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.922 | 0.824 |
| SRP102021 | Human | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.900 | 0.835 |
| SRP003554 | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboTaper | 0.919 | 0.901 |
| SRP062407 | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboTaper | 0.936 | 0.930 |
| SRP078005 | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.944 | 0.901 |
| SRP091889 | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.924 | 0.900 |
| SRP115915 | Mouse | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.863 | 0.842 |
| ERP007231 | Rat | RiboTaper | RiboCode | 0.874 | 0.867 |
| SRP045777 | Rat | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.722 | 0.618 |
| SRP056012 | Rat | RiboCode | ribotricer | 0.786 | 0.738 |
| SRP010040 | Zebrafish | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.668 | 0.377 |
| SRP023492 | Zebrafish | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.918 | 0.838 |
| SRP034750 | Zebrafish | ribotricer | RiboCode | 0.937 | 0.920 |

Table S11: **Ribotracer’s performance at F1 score when considering species-specific or dataset-specific cutoff** F1 (SS) and F1 (DS) denotes the F1 scores for ribotracer when using species-specific and dataset-specific cutoffs respectively. Ribo-RNA indicates the median difference between phase score of protein coding ORFs in Ribo- and RNA-seq samples. ‘sampled’ indicates the median was calculated using 30% of protein coding ORFs per dataset with resampling ($n_{\text{bootstraps}} = 10000$) while ‘all’ indicates the median was calculated using the complete list of protein coding ORFs.

| SRP | species | F1 (SS) | F1 (DS) | Ribo-RNA (sampled) | Ribo-RNA (all) |
|-----------|------------------|---------|---------|--------------------|----------------|
| SRP018118 | Arabidopsis | 0.937 | 0.920 | 0.455 | 0.447 |
| SRP029587 | Arabidopsis | 0.645 | 0.846 | 0.206 | 0.191 |
| SRP059391 | Arabidopsis | 0.562 | 0.678 | 0.109 | 0.104 |
| SRP087624 | Arabidopsis | 0.675 | 0.671 | 0.233 | 0.145 |
| SRP108862 | Arabidopsis | 0.628 | 0.695 | 0.181 | 0.154 |
| SRP000637 | Baker’s Yeast | 0.503 | 0.850 | 0.186 | 0.179 |
| SRP028552 | Baker’s Yeast | 0.964 | 0.928 | 0.383 | 0.382 |
| SRP028614 | Baker’s Yeast | 0.855 | 0.923 | 0.267 | 0.263 |
| SRP033499 | Baker’s Yeast | 0.573 | 0.904 | 0.204 | 0.194 |
| SRP075766 | Baker’s Yeast | 0.951 | 0.935 | 0.694 | 0.671 |
| SRP010374 | <i>C.elegans</i> | 0.799 | 0.798 | 0.224 | 0.222 |
| SRP014427 | <i>C.elegans</i> | 0.826 | 0.868 | 0.343 | 0.334 |
| SRP026198 | <i>C.elegans</i> | 0.828 | 0.846 | 0.322 | 0.316 |
| SRP056647 | <i>C.elegans</i> | 0.690 | 0.716 | 0.141 | 0.135 |
| SRP028243 | Drosophila | 0.693 | 0.679 | 0.109 | 0.098 |
| SRP045475 | Drosophila | 0.561 | 0.667 | -0.019 | -0.020 |
| SRP076919 | Drosophila | 0.667 | 0.667 | -0.025 | -0.034 |
| SRP108999 | Drosophila | 0.769 | 0.818 | 0.363 | 0.360 |
| SRP010679 | Human | 0.878 | 0.878 | 0.421 | 0.404 |
| SRP029589 | Human | 0.651 | 0.765 | 0.234 | 0.223 |
| SRP063852 | Human | 0.919 | 0.919 | 0.522 | 0.498 |
| SRP098789 | Human | 0.932 | 0.922 | 0.526 | 0.514 |
| SRP102021 | Human | 0.891 | 0.900 | 0.427 | 0.417 |
| SRP003554 | Mouse | 0.900 | 0.919 | 0.542 | 0.526 |
| SRP062407 | Mouse | 0.910 | 0.936 | 0.588 | 0.568 |
| SRP078005 | Mouse | 0.951 | 0.944 | 0.603 | 0.591 |
| SRP091889 | Mouse | 0.939 | 0.924 | 0.509 | 0.497 |
| SRP115915 | Mouse | 0.854 | 0.863 | 0.372 | 0.361 |
| ERP007231 | Rat | 0.879 | 0.863 | 0.403 | 0.388 |
| SRP045777 | Rat | 0.511 | 0.722 | 0.176 | 0.173 |
| SRP056012 | Rat | 0.787 | 0.738 | 0.264 | 0.247 |
| SRP010040 | Zebrafish | 0.670 | 0.668 | 0.136 | 0.108 |
| SRP023942 | Zebrafish | 0.826 | 0.918 | 0.512 | 0.502 |
| SRP034750 | Zebrafish | 0.894 | 0.937 | 0.660 | 0.649 |

10 Supplementary figures

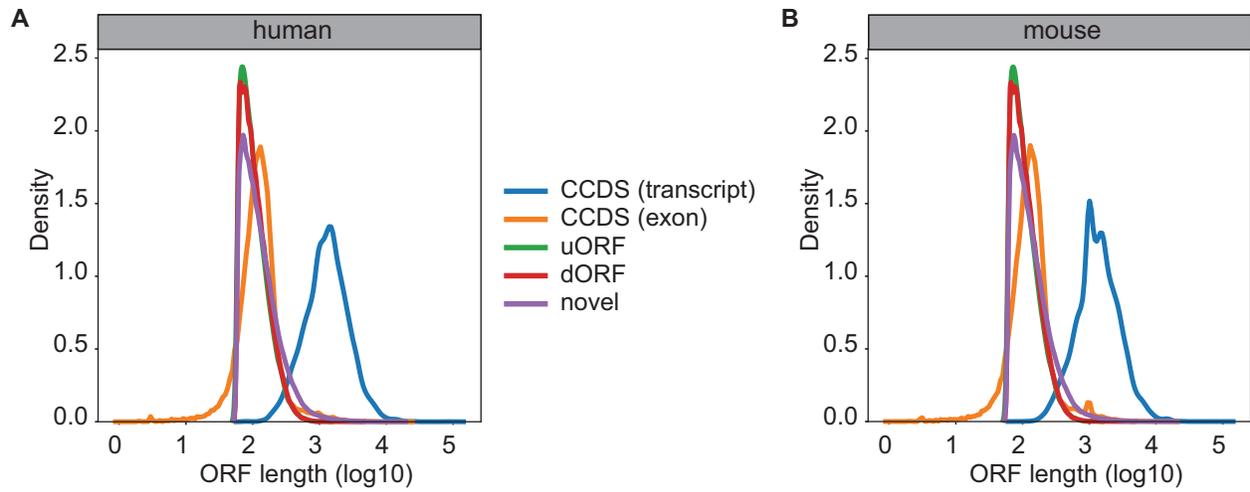


Figure S1: **Length distribution of candidate ORFs for human and mouse.** The length distribution of uORFs, dORFs, and novel ORFs predicted from presumably non-coding genes compared with the CCDS exon and CCDS transcript lengths (CCDS = Canonical Coding Sequence; uORF = upstream ORF in 5' UTR; dORF = downstream ORF in 3' UTR; novel = candidate ORFs in annotated non-coding genes.)

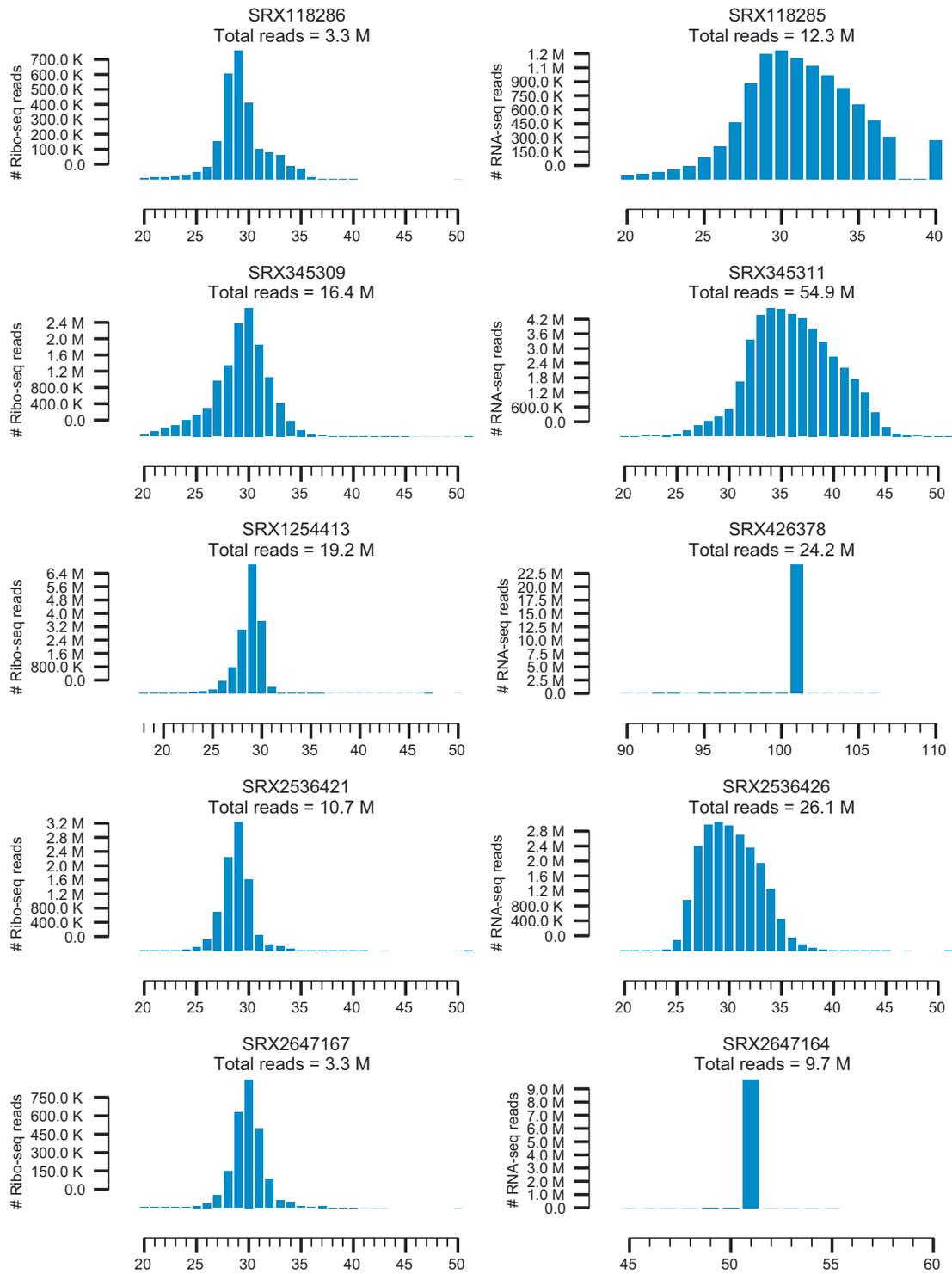


Figure S2: **Read length distribution of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples from human datasets.** SRA sample accession and total uniquely mapping reads are shown in individual subplots.

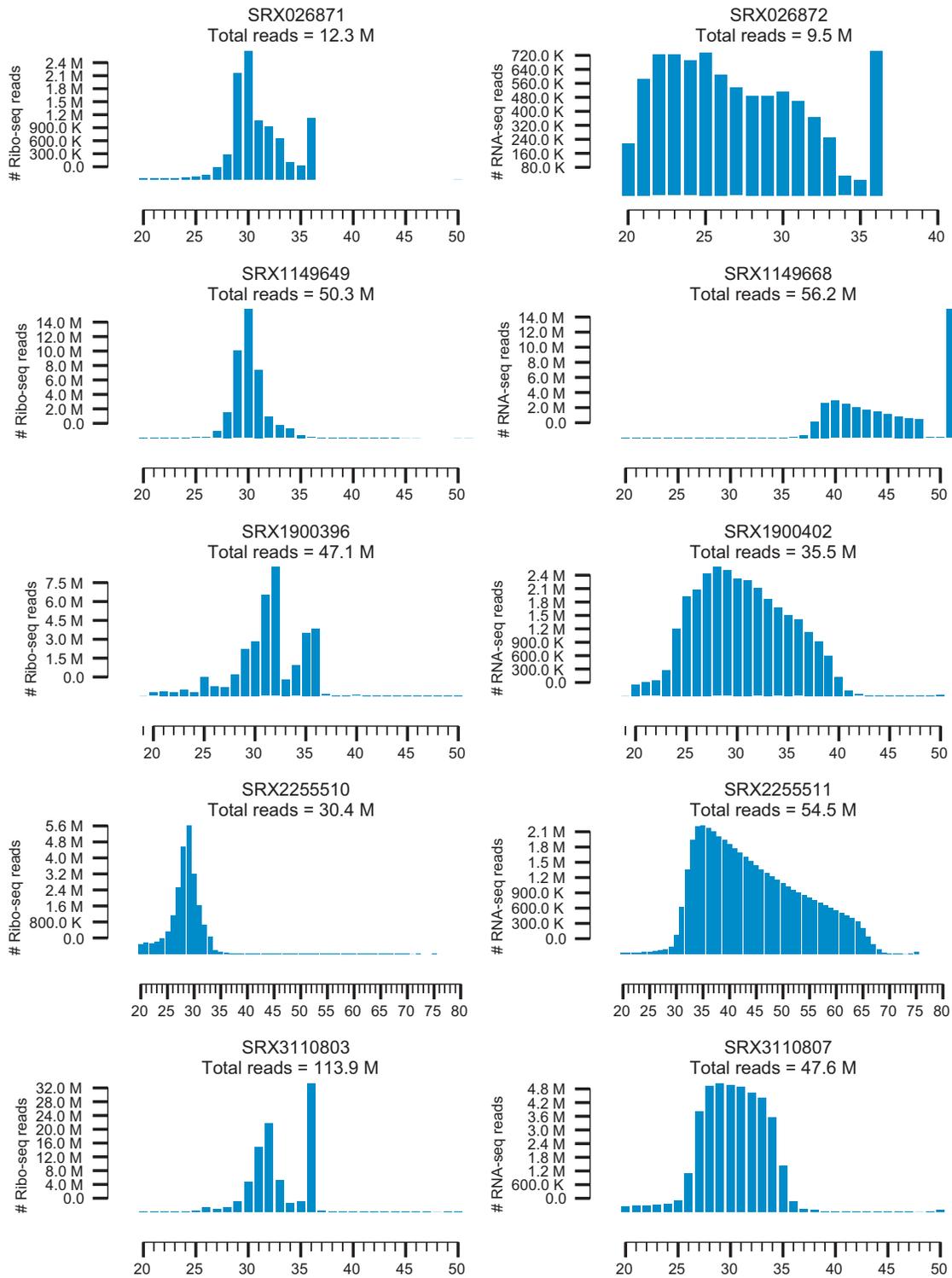


Figure S3: **Read length distribution of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq samples from mouse datasets.** SRA sample accession and total uniquely mapping reads are shown in individual subplots.

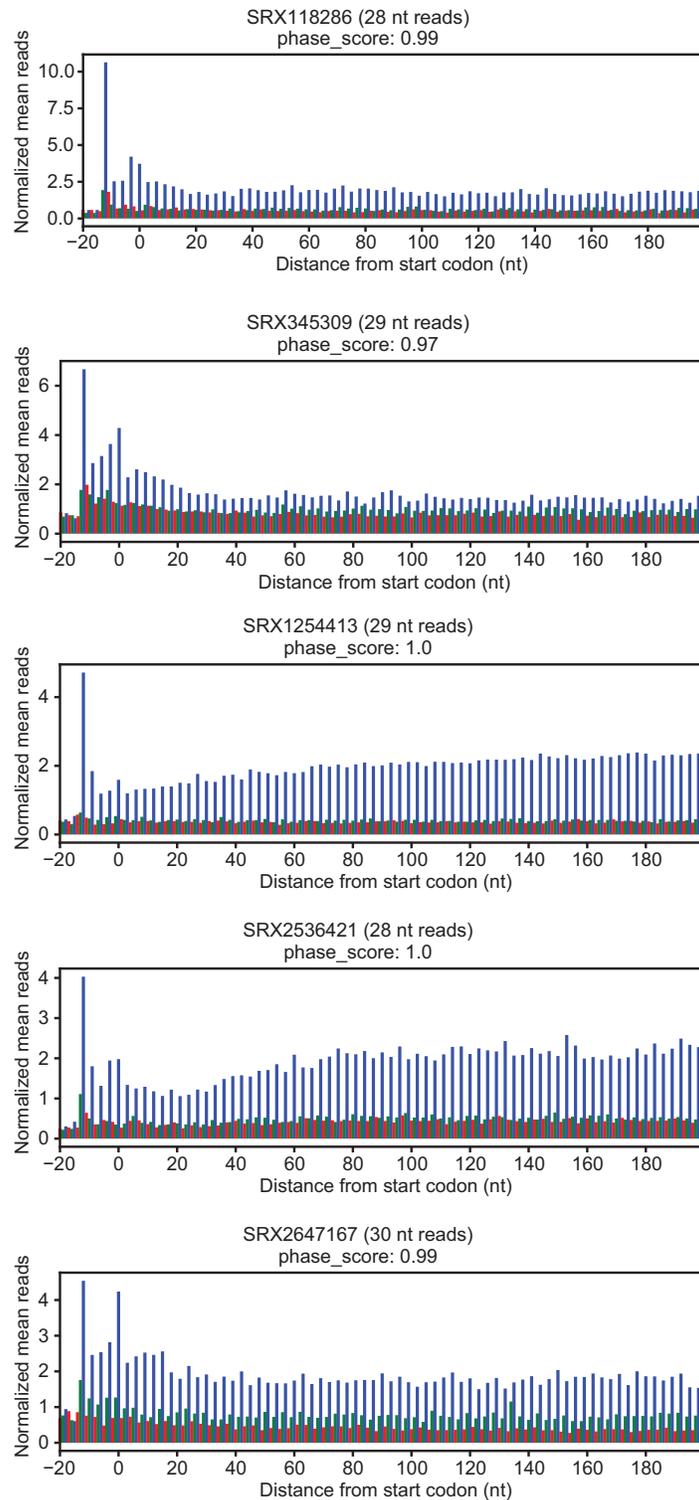


Figure S4: **Metagene plots for representative read lengths for human Ribo-seq samples.** SRA sample accession, read length and phase score are shown in individual subplots.

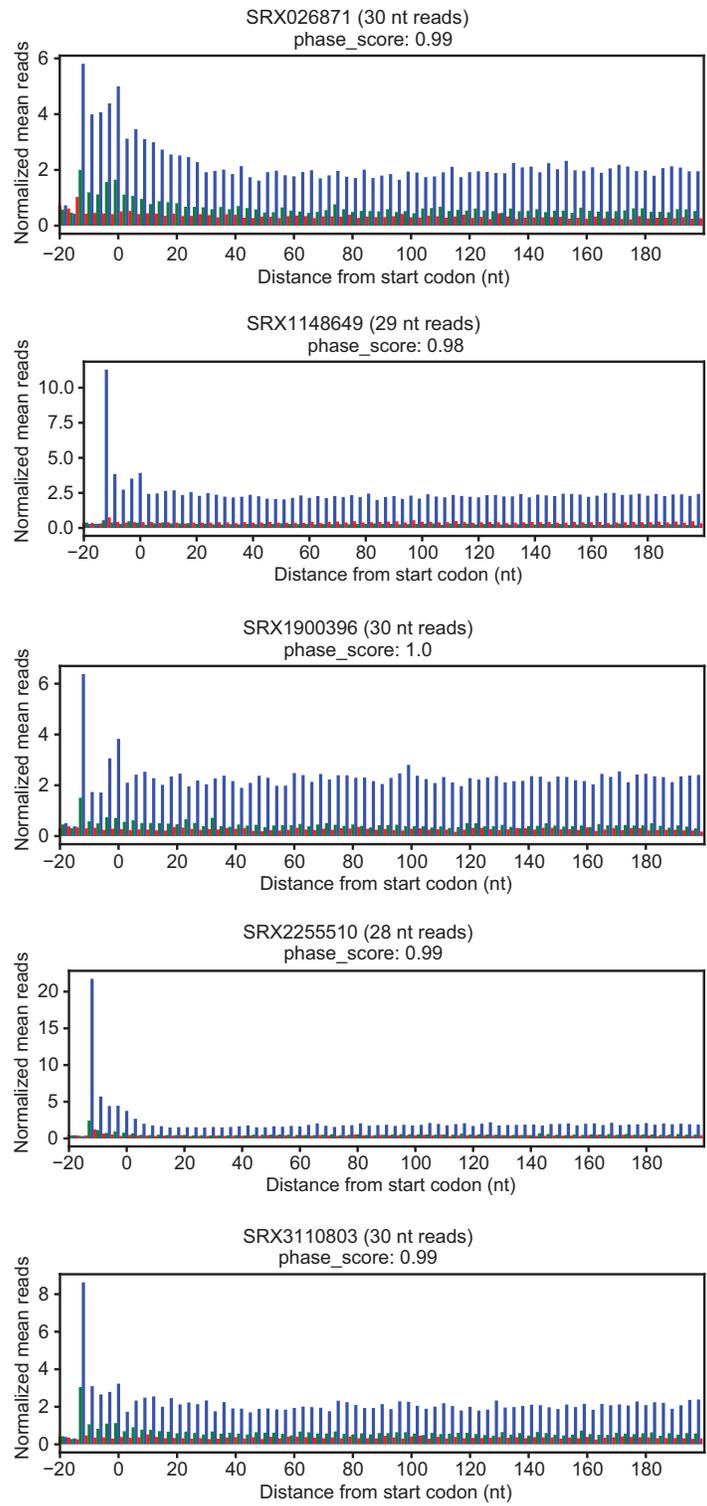


Figure S5: **Metagene plots for representative read lengths for mouse Ribo-seq samples.** SRA sample accession, read length and phase score are shown in individual subplots.

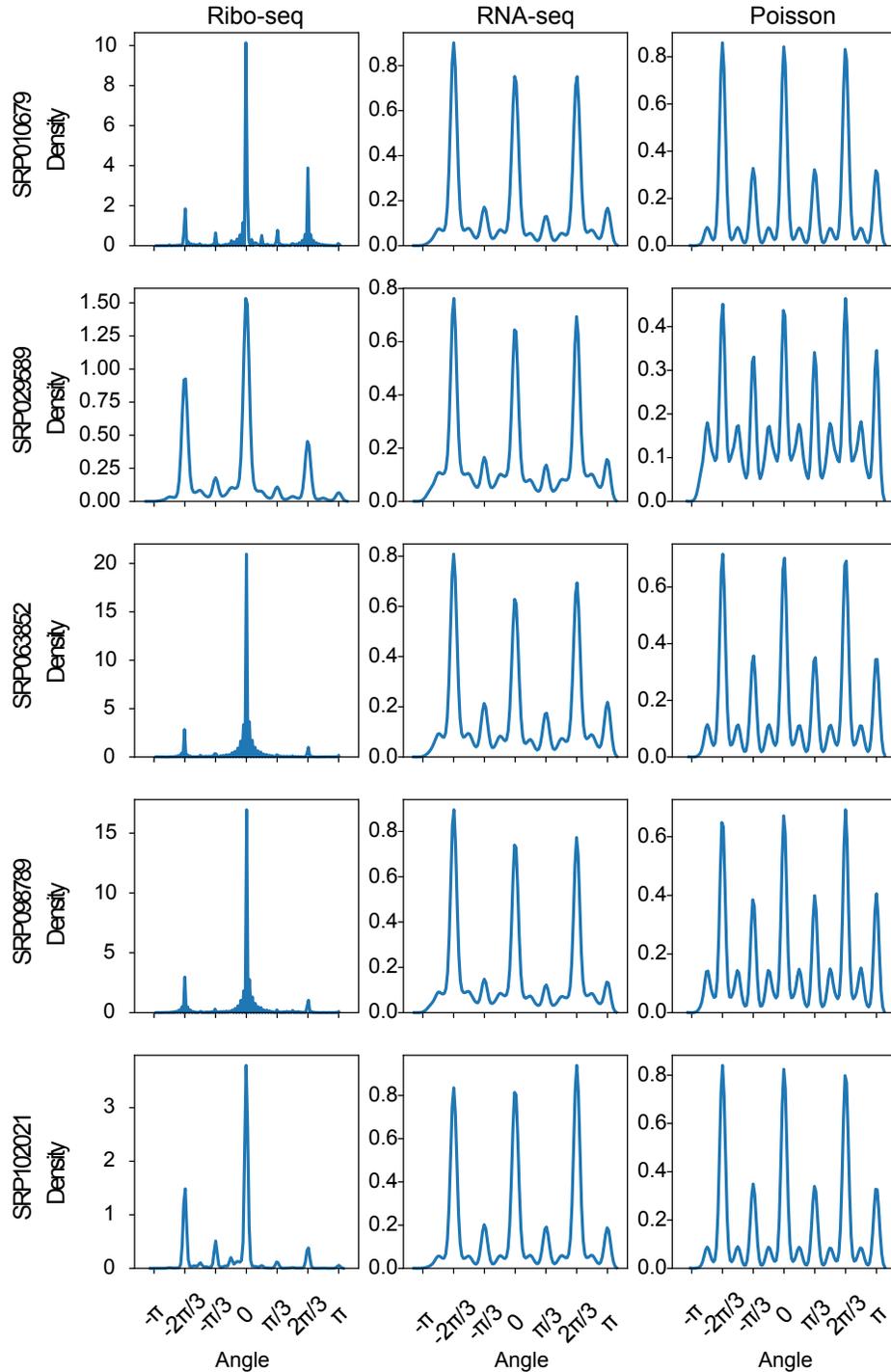


Figure S6: **Distribution of the resulting vector angles for datasets in human.** Angles are formed by projecting the CCDS 3D codon profiles to 2D unit vectors. The left sub-panel indicates the distribution for Ribo-seq sample; the center sub-panel shows the distribution for its corresponding RNA-seq sample; the right sub-panel shows the distribution of angles resulting from a RNA-seq profile simulated from a Poisson distribution with the mean parameter estimated from the RNA-seq data.

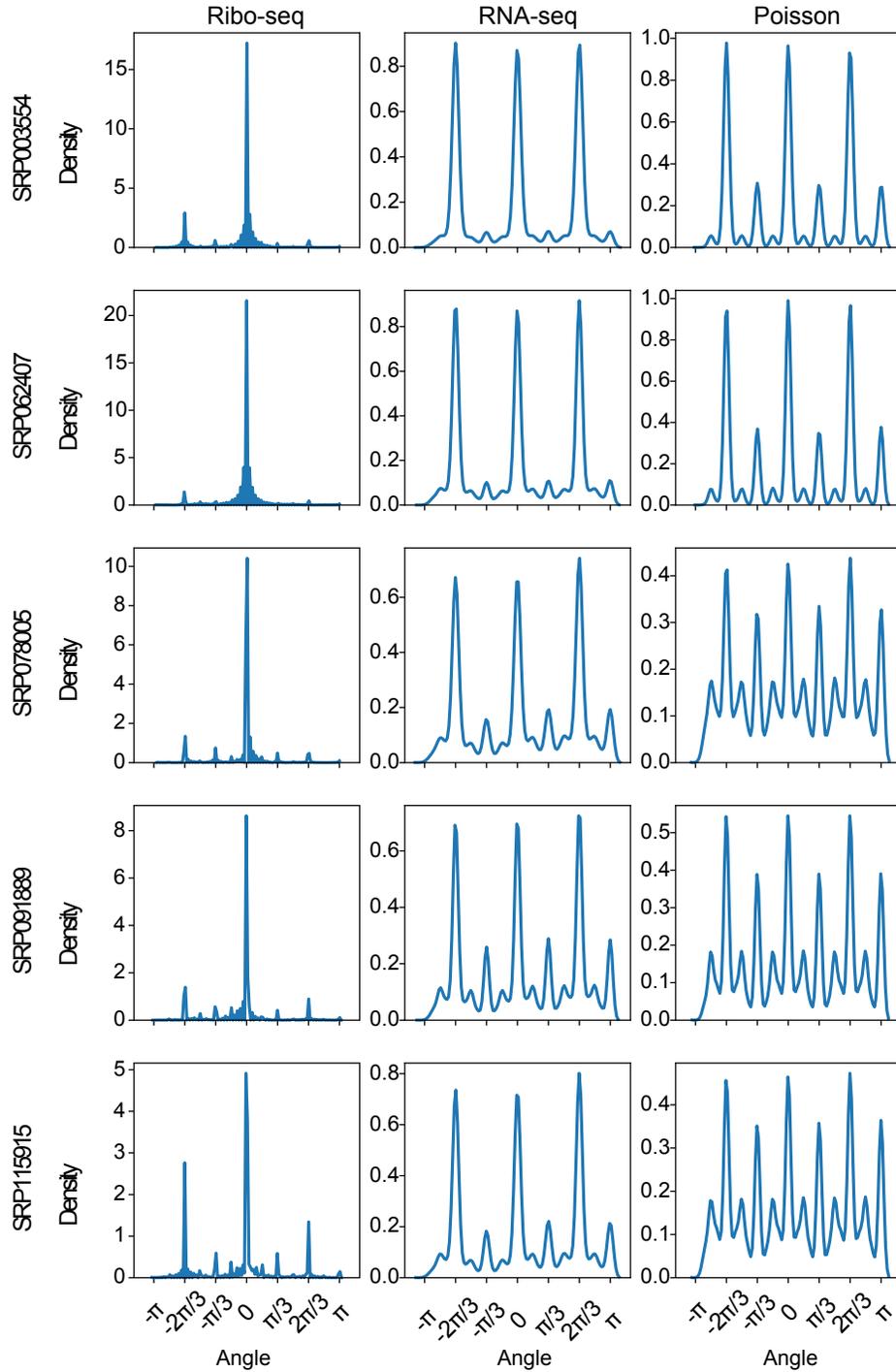


Figure S7: **Distribution of the resulting vector angles for datasets in mouse.** Angles are formed by projecting the CCDS 3D codon profiles to 2D unit vectors. The left sub-panel indicates the distribution for Ribo-seq sample; the center sub-panel shows the distribution for its corresponding RNA-seq sample; the right sub-panel shows the distribution of angles resulting from a RNA-seq profile simulated from a Poisson distribution with the mean parameter estimated from the RNA-seq data.

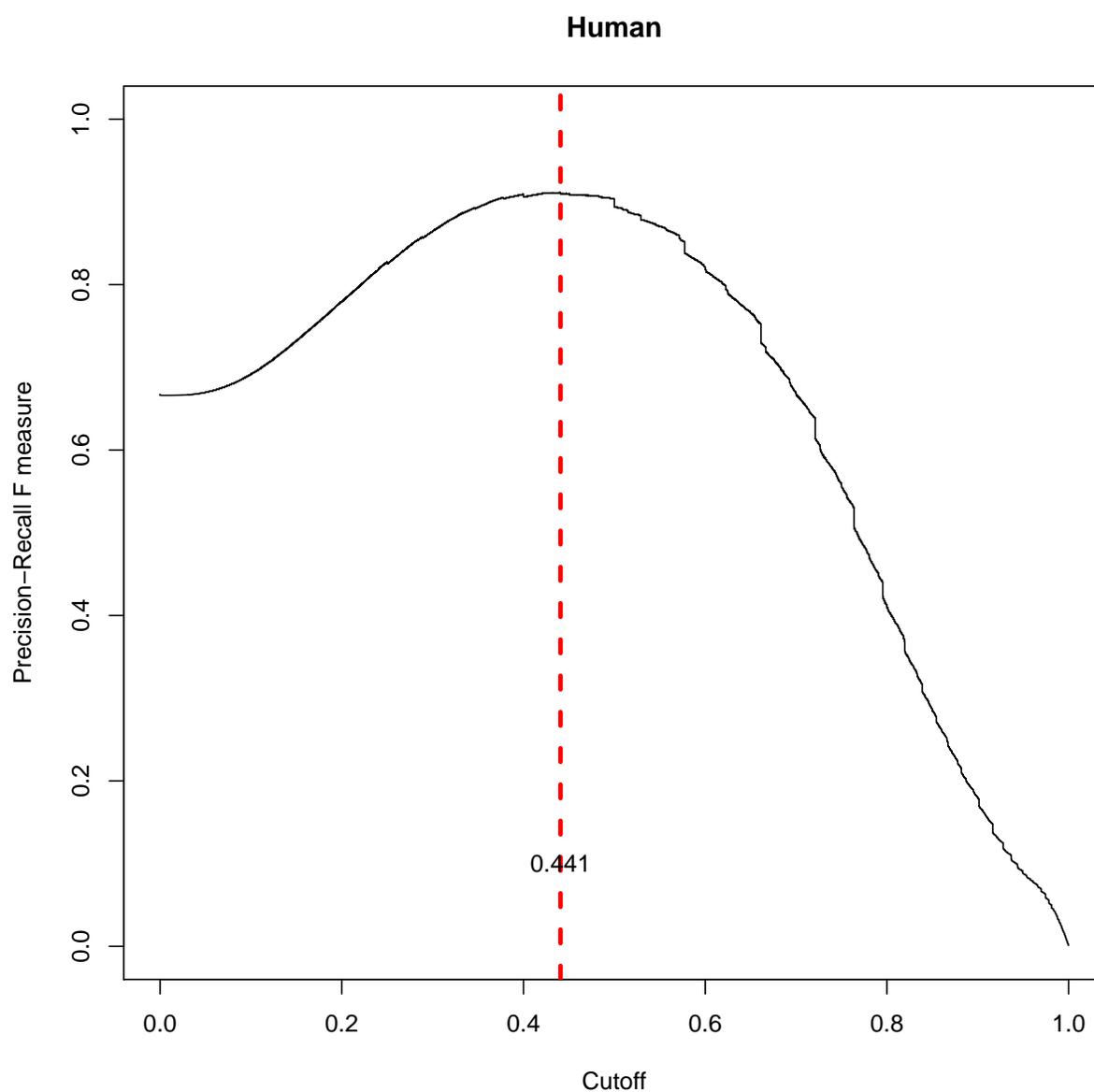


Figure S8: **Learning the cutoff for phase scores for human datasets.** The optimum cutoff for distinguishing actively translating regions from non-active translation was learned by maximizing the F1 score. The profiles from expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as positives and corresponding profiles from RNA-seq were treated as negatives. Two datasets in human (SRA accession: SRP010679, SRP098789) were used for learning this cutoff.

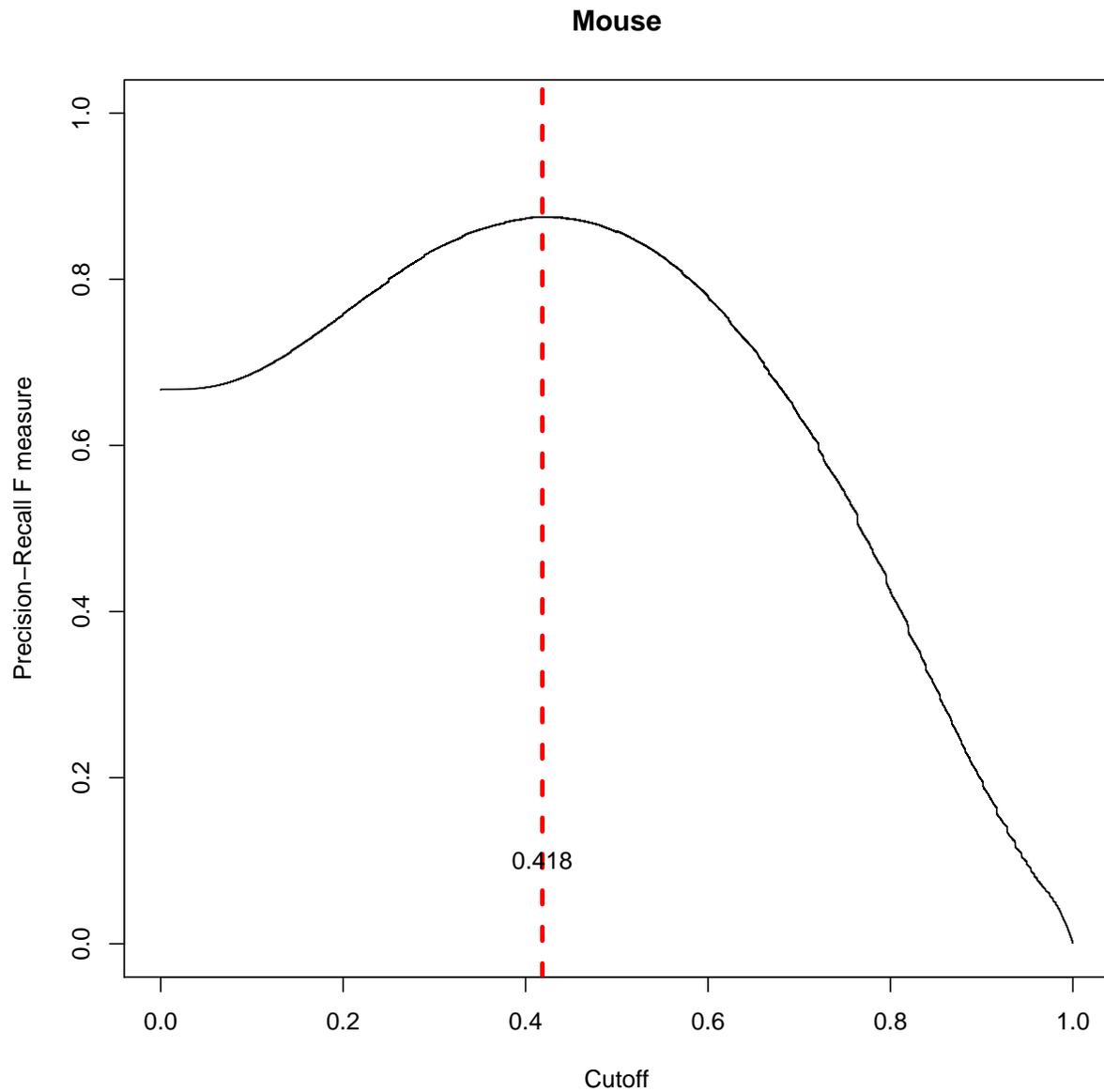


Figure S9: **Learning the cutoff for phase scores for mouse datasets.** The optimum cutoff for distinguishing actively translating regions from non-active translation was learned by maximizing the F1 score. The profiles from expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as positives and corresponding profiles from RNA-seq were treated as negatives. Two datasets in mouse (SRA accession: SRP003554, and SRP115915) were used for learning this cutoff.

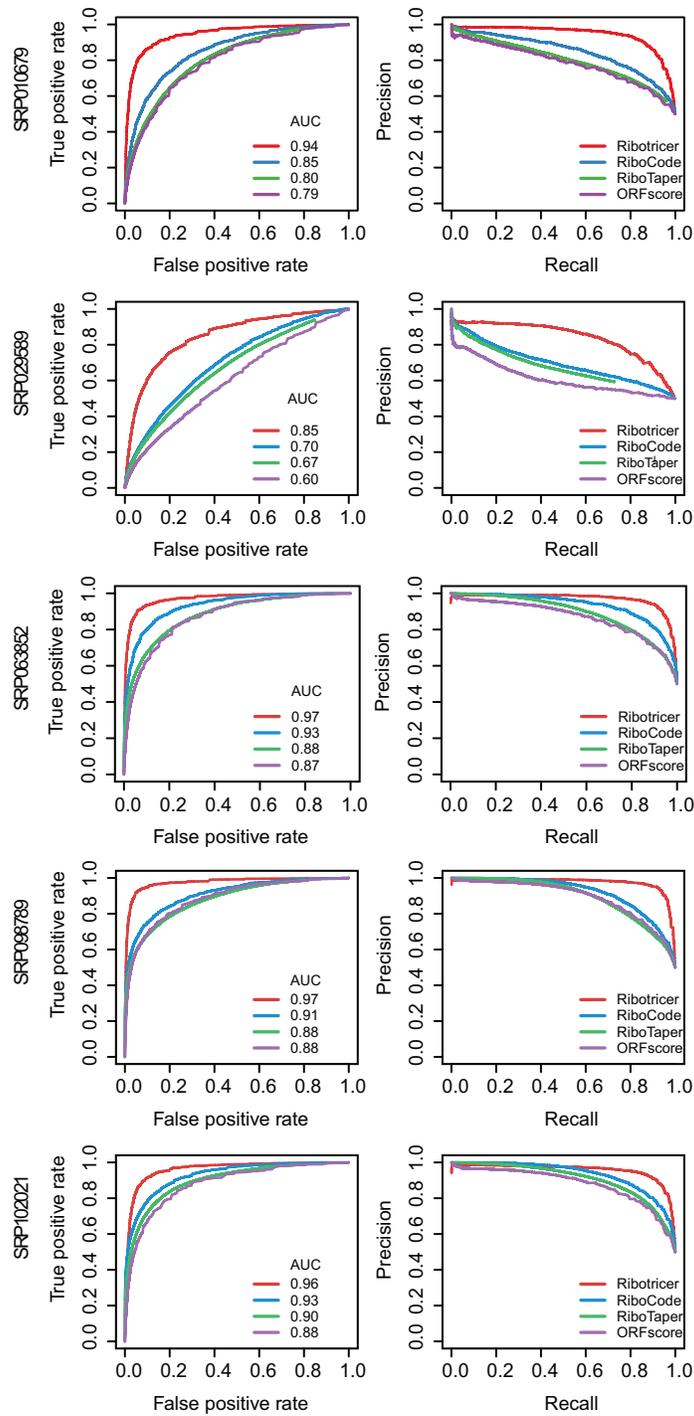


Figure S10: **ROC plots and Precision-Recall plots for human datasets for exon level classification.** Performance of ribotricer for detecting translating ORFs at exon level is compared with RiboCode, RiboTaper and ORFscore. The profiles of expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

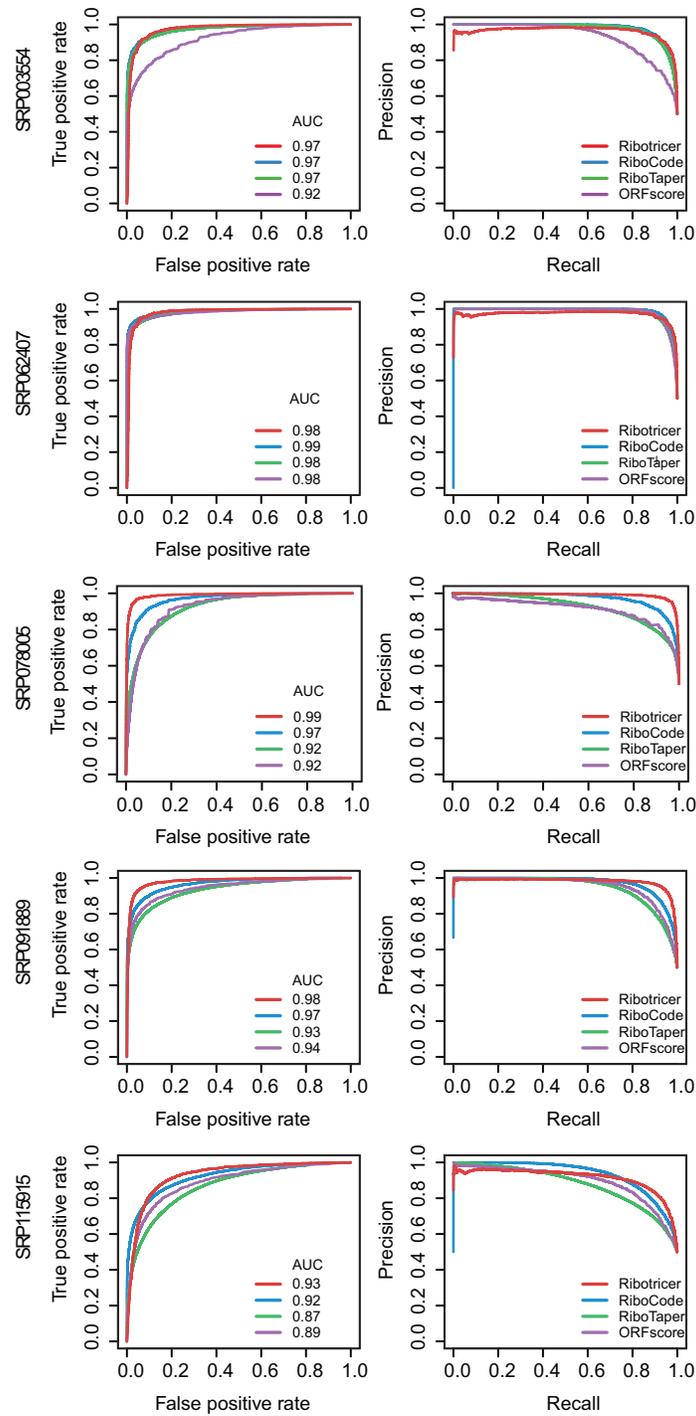


Figure S11: **ROC plots and Precision-Recall plots for mouse datasets for exon level classification.** Performance of ribotracer for detecting translating ORFs at exon level is compared with RiboCode, RiboTaper and ORFscore. The profiles of expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

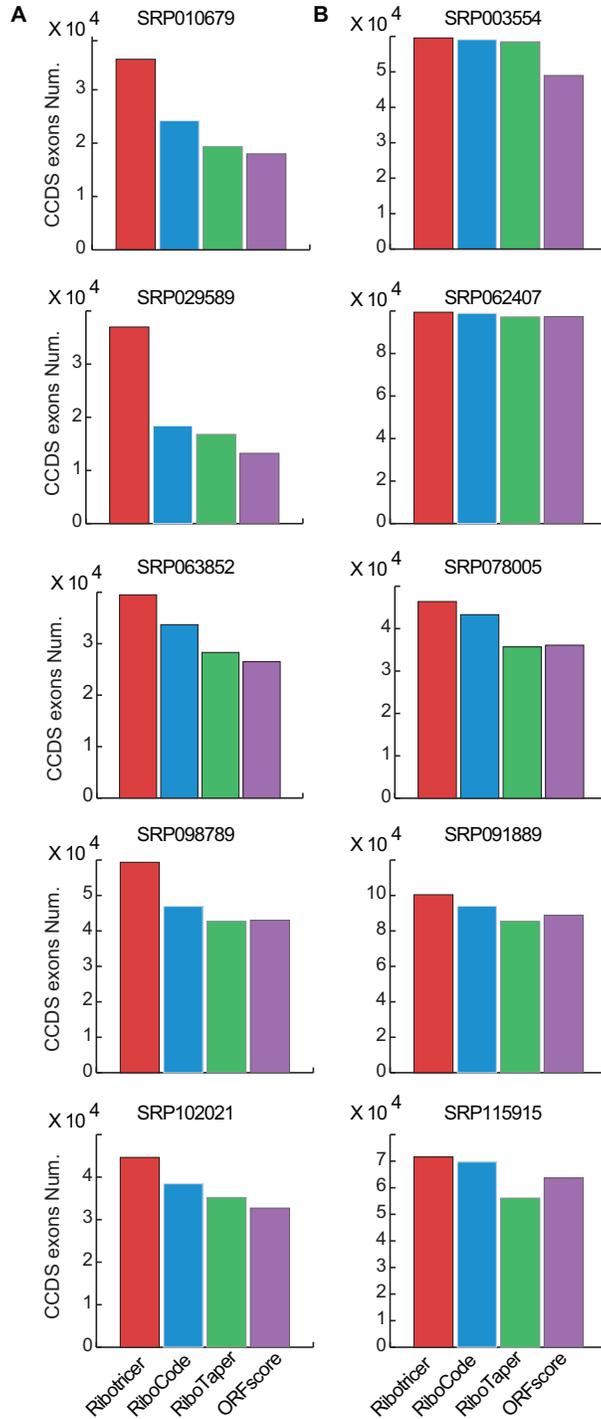


Figure S12: **Number of translating exons recovered when controlling the false positive rate to be the same.** Performance of ribotricker is compared with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore when the false positive rate is controlled to be 0.1. The number of truly translating exons are shown for both human (A) and mouse (B) datasets. The profiles of expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

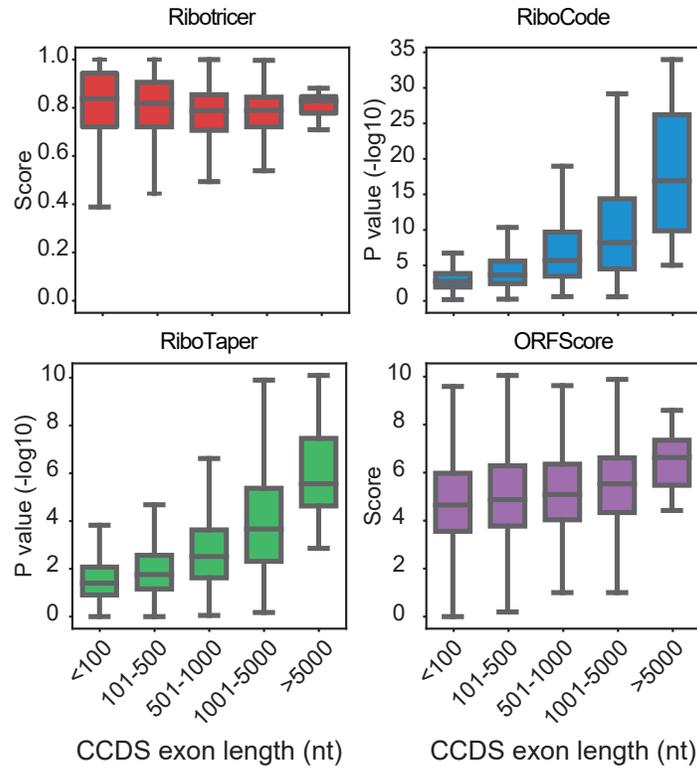


Figure S13: **Effect of ORF length on output scores.** Distribution of scores generated by ribotricer and ORFscore, and the P-values generated by RiboCode and RiboTaper over different CCDS exon lengths.

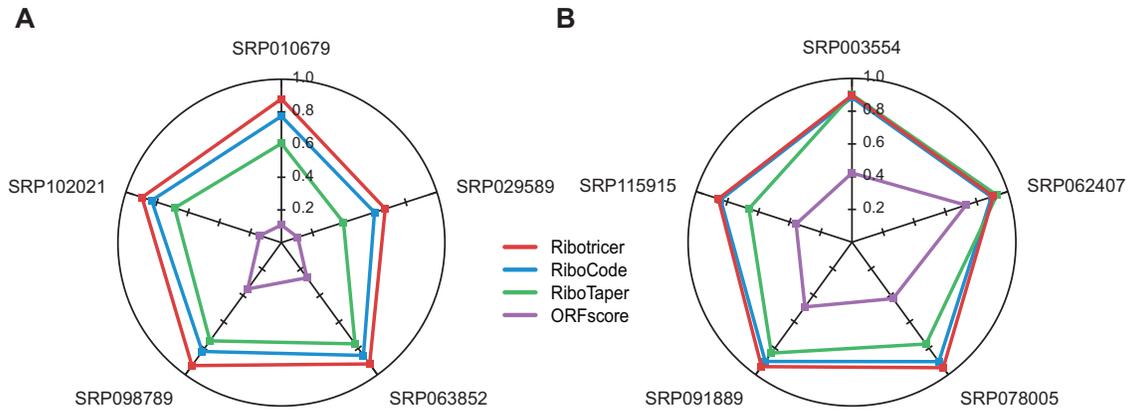


Figure S14: **Comparison of F1 score (exon level) of ribotricker with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore.** Performance of ribotricker is compared with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore in terms of F1 score when the default threshold score is used for each tool. Results are shown for human (A) and mouse (B) datasets. The profiles of expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

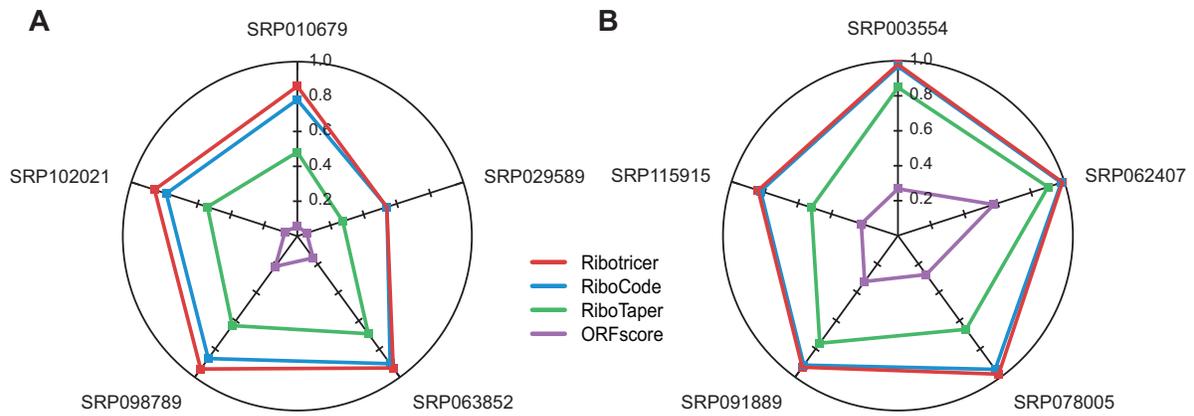


Figure S15: Comparison of sensitivity (exon level) of ribotricer with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore. Performance of ribotricer is compared with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore in terms of sensitivity when the default threshold score is used for each tool. Results are shown for human (A) and mouse (B) datasets. The profiles of expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

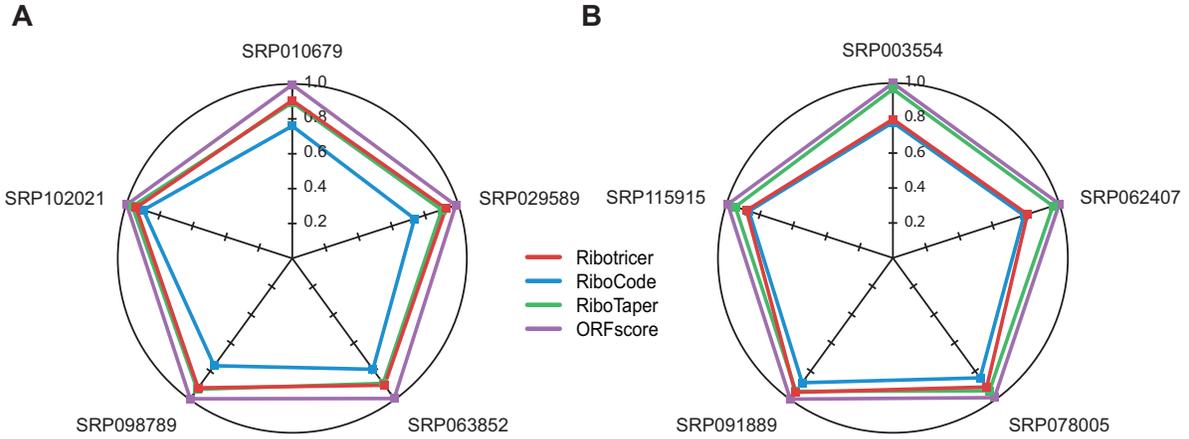


Figure S16: Comparison of specificity (exon level) of ribotricker with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore. Performance of ribotricker is compared with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore in terms of specificity when the default threshold score is used for each tool. Results are shown for human (A) and mouse (B) datasets. The profiles of expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

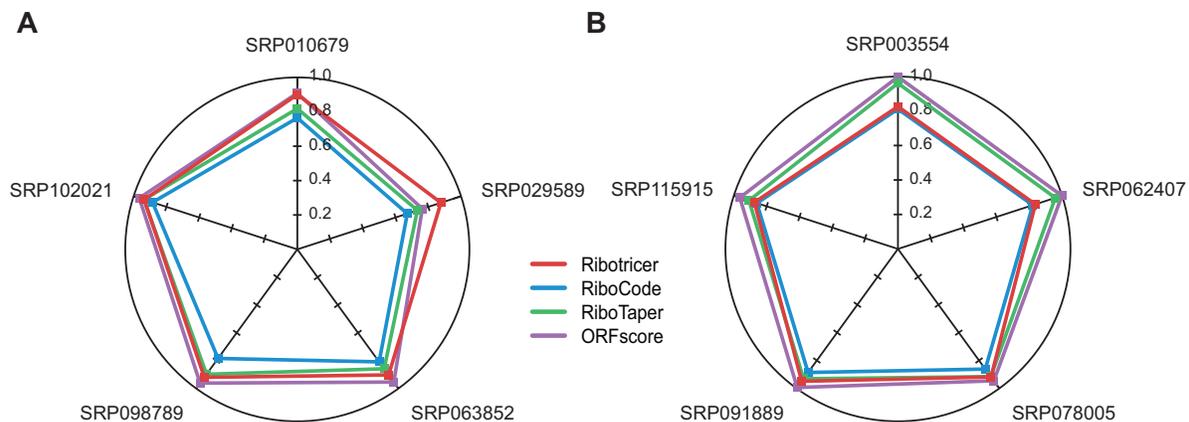


Figure S17: Comparison of precision (exon level) of ribotricer with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore. Performance of ribotricer is compared with RiboCode, RiboTaper, and ORFscore in terms of precision when the default threshold score is used for each tool. Results are shown for human (A) and mouse (B) datasets. The profiles of expressed CCDS exons in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

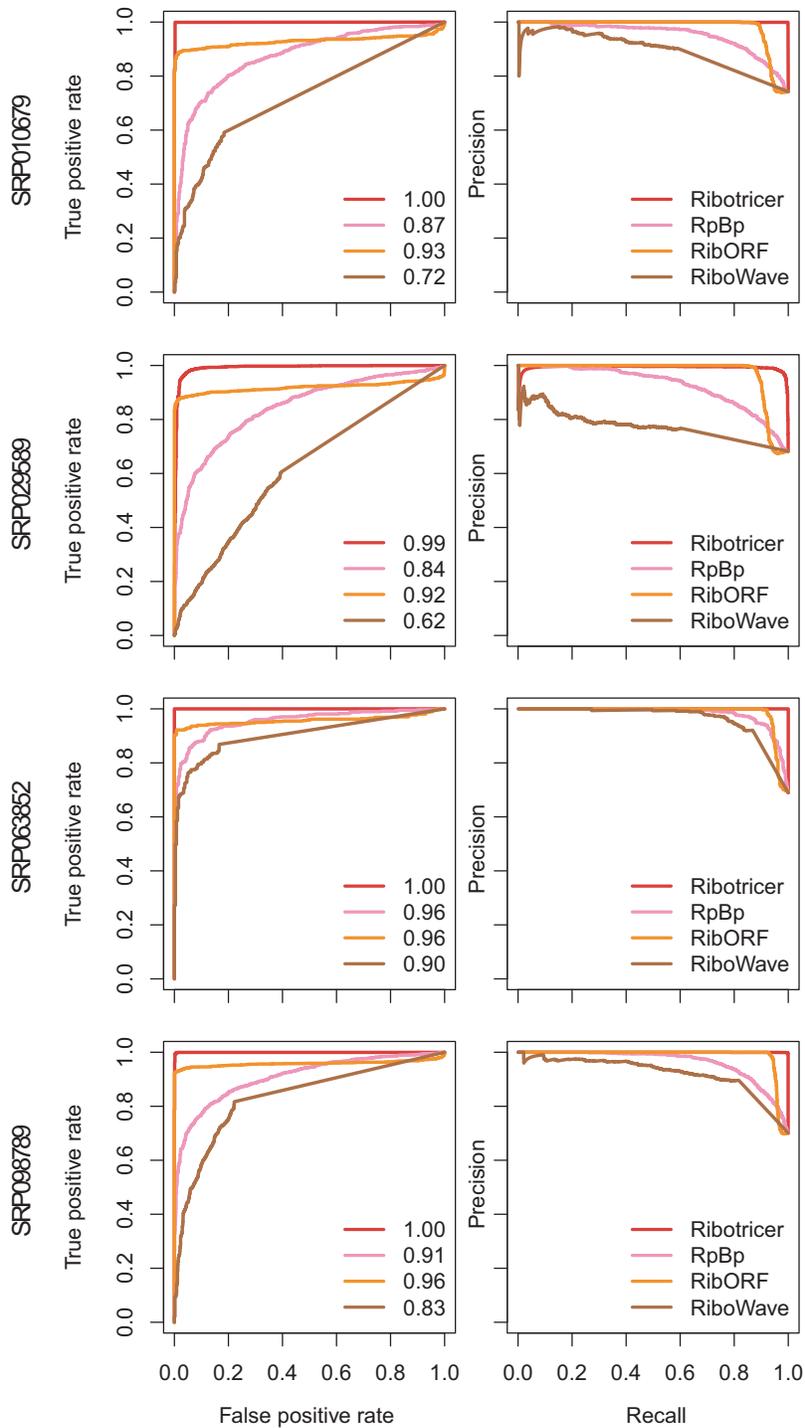


Figure S18: **ROC plots and Precision-Recall plots on transcript level for human datasets.** Performance of ribotracer for detecting translating ORFs at transcript level is compared with RpBp, ribORF and RiboWave. The profiles of expressed CCDS transcripts in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

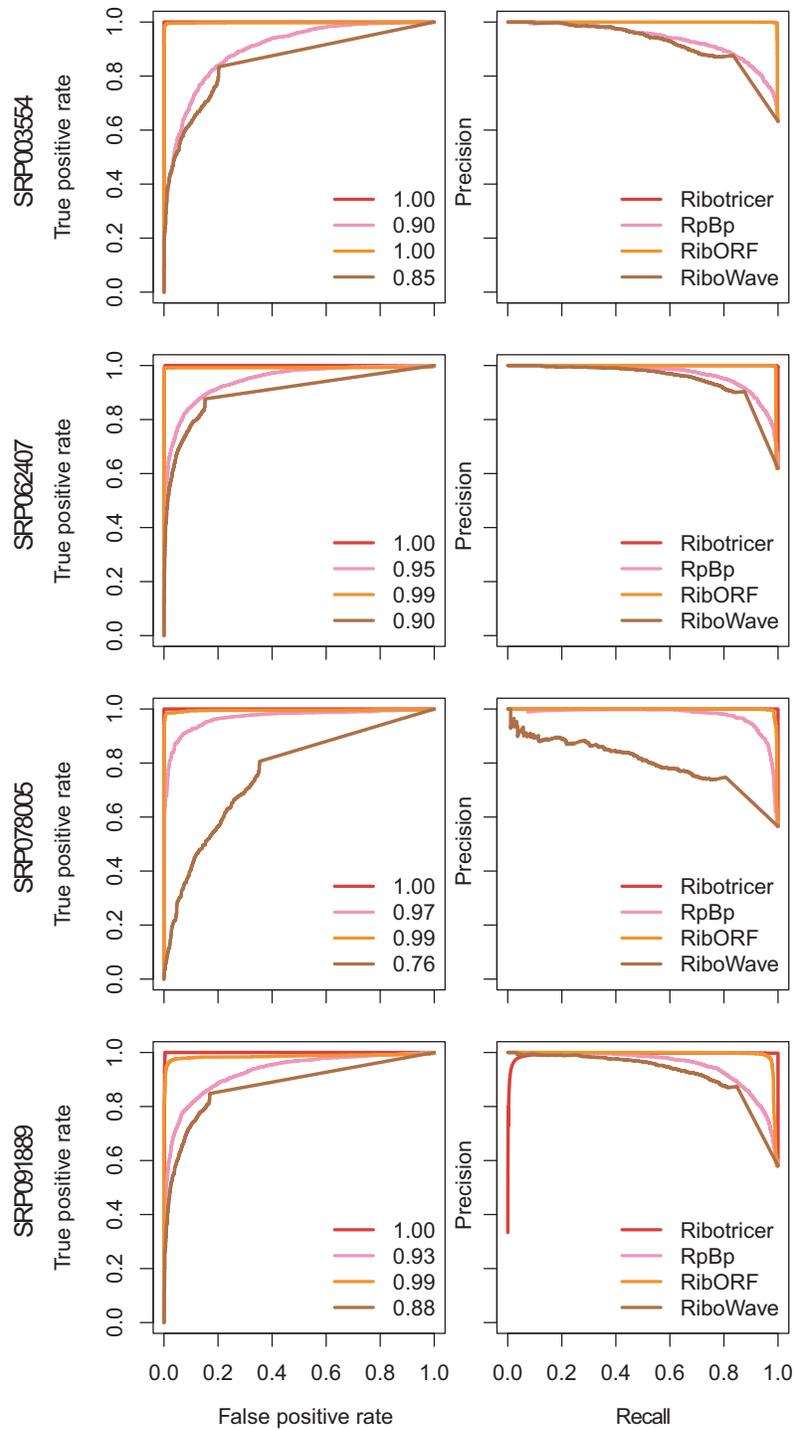


Figure S19: **ROC plots and Precision-Recall plots on transcript level for mouse datasets.** Performance of ribotricker for detecting translating ORFs at transcript level is compared with RpBp, ribORF and RiboWave. The profiles of expressed CCDS transcripts in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

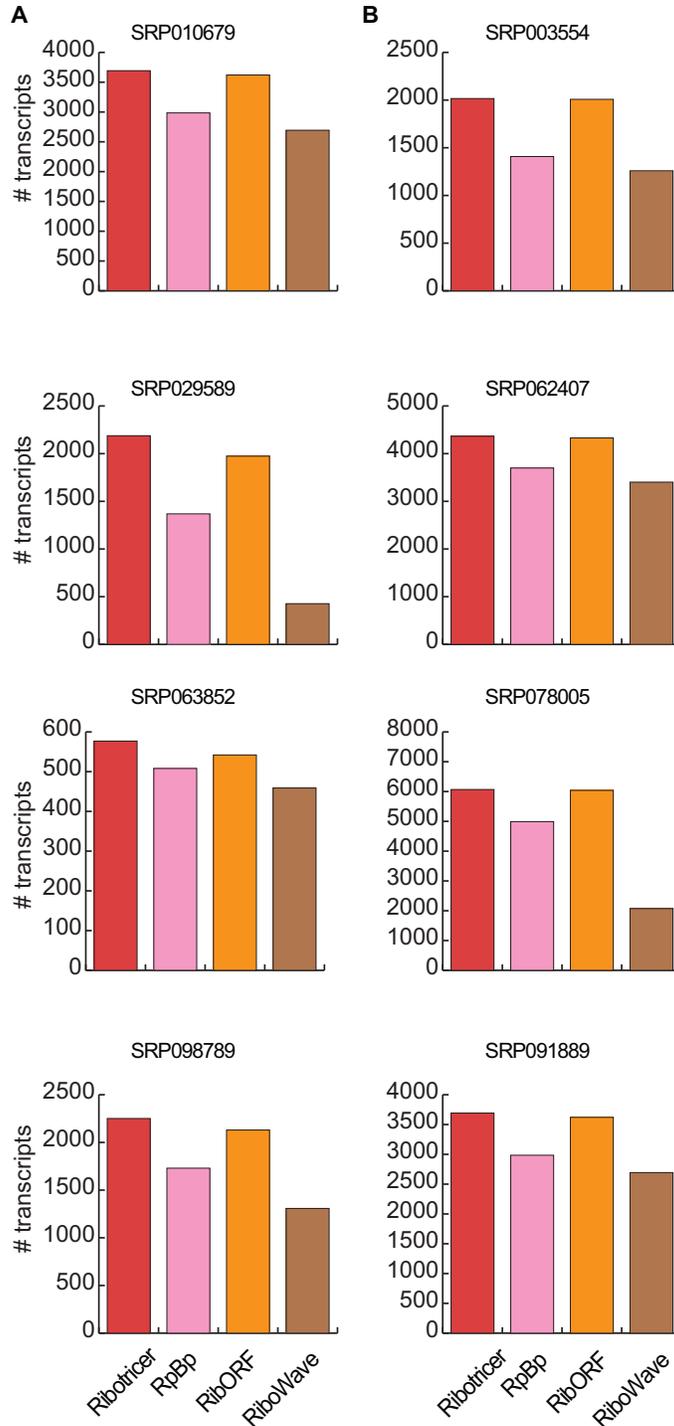


Figure S20: **Number of translating transcripts recovered when controlling the false positive rate to be the same.** Performance of ribotricer is compared with RpBp, ribORF, and RiboWave when the false positive rate is controlled to be 0.1. The number of truly translating transcripts are shown for both human (A) and mouse (B) datasets. The profiles of expressed CCDS transcripts in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

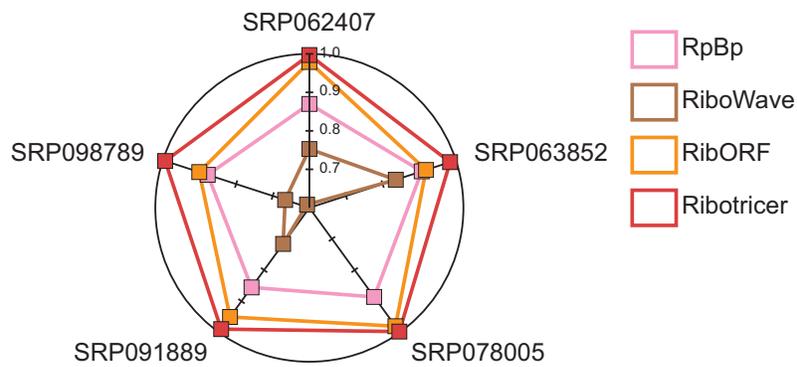


Figure S21: **Performance of different methods on transcript level measured using F1 score.** Performance of ribotricer is compared with RpBp, ribORF, and RiboWave in terms of F1 score when the default threshold score is used for each tool. The profiles of expressed CCDS transcripts in Ribo-seq data were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile as true negative.

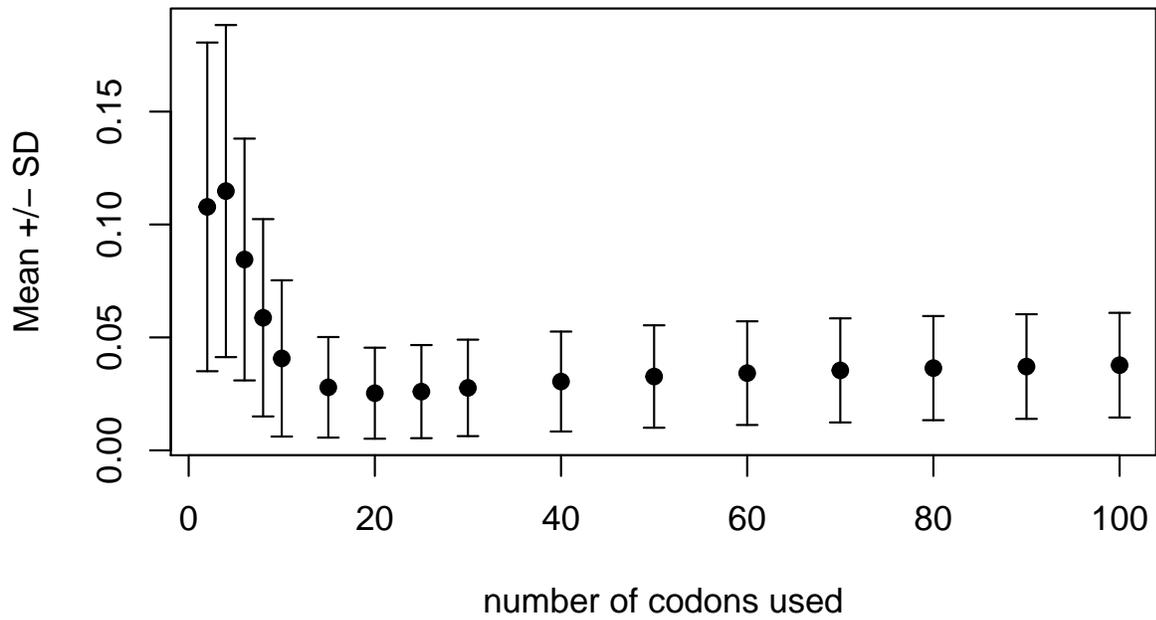


Figure S22: **Effect of number of codons on ribotricer's phase score in human dataset.** Mean absolute difference and standard deviation between original phase score using all codons and the one with down-sampled number of codons. The plot was generated on human dataset (SRA accession: SRP063852) using 5K genes with at least 50% valid codons, the down-sampling is repeated 100 times for each gene. Similar trend is observed for other human datasets.

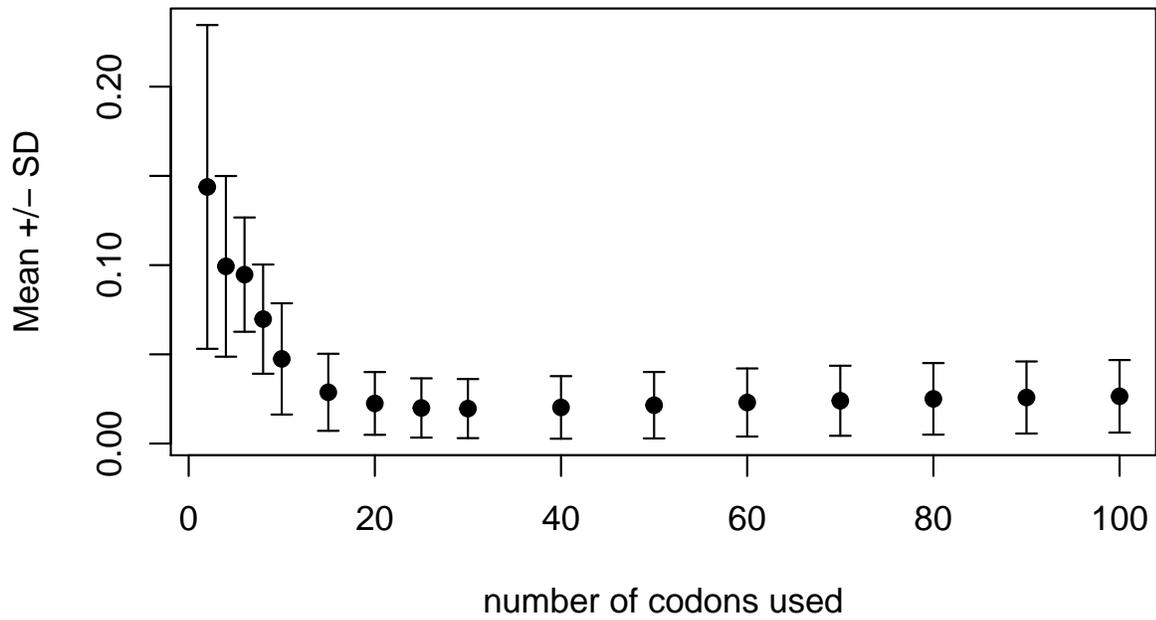


Figure S23: **Effect of number of codons on ribotracer's phase score in mouse dataset.** Mean absolute difference and standard deviation between original phase score using all codons and the one with down-sampled number of codons. The plot was generated on mouse dataset (SRA accession: SRP003554) using 5K genes with at least 50% valid codons, the down-sampling is repeated 100 times for each gene. Similar trend is observed for other mouse datasets.

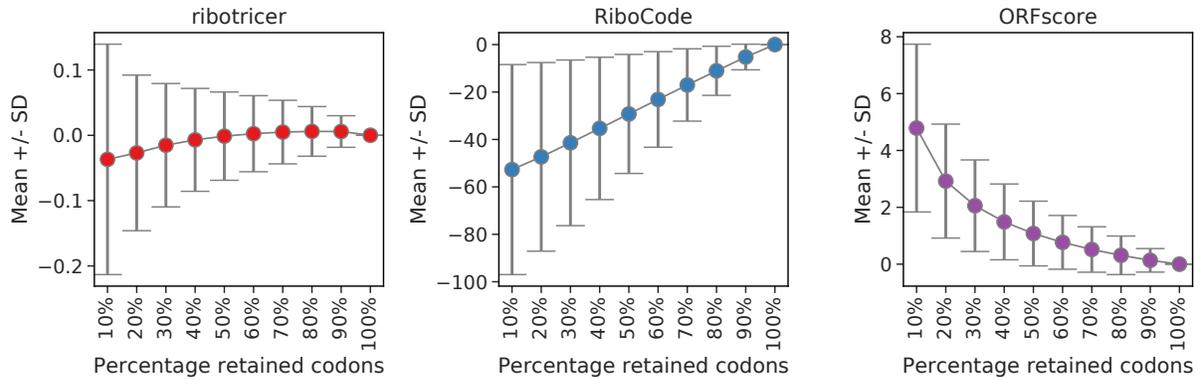


Figure S24: **Effect of truncating an ORF on ribotricker’s phase score, RiboCode’s p-values and ORF-score in human dataset.** Mean difference and standard deviation between original phase score using full length ORF and the ones after truncating it from the 3’ end. The plot was generated on human dataset (SRA accession: SRP063852) using 5K genes with at least 50% valid codons and truncating it to have indicated percentage (X-axis) of codons. The differences between truncated and original profile for RiboCode are calculated on a log₁₀ scale as it outputs p-values, while for both ribotricker and ORFscore, the differences are calculated on the same scale as the scores.

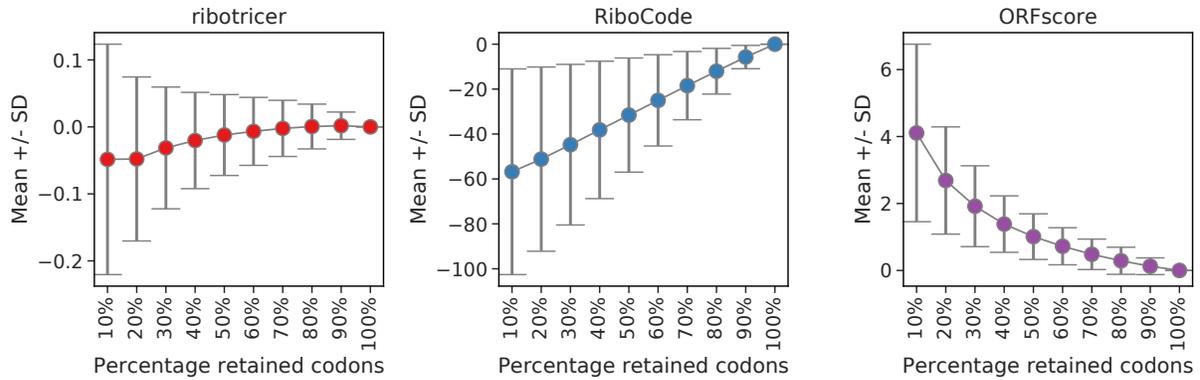


Figure S25: **Effect of truncating an ORF on ribotricer's phase score, RiboCode's p-values and ORF-score in mouse dataset.** Mean difference and standard deviation between original phase score using full length ORF and the ones after truncating it from the 3' end. The plot was generated on mouse dataset (SRA accession: SRP003554) using 5K genes with at least 50% valid codons and truncating it to have indicated percentage (X-axis) of codons. The differences between truncated and original profile for RiboCode are calculated on a \log_{10} scale as it outputs p-values, while for both ribotricer and ORFscore, the differences are calculated on the same scale as the scores.

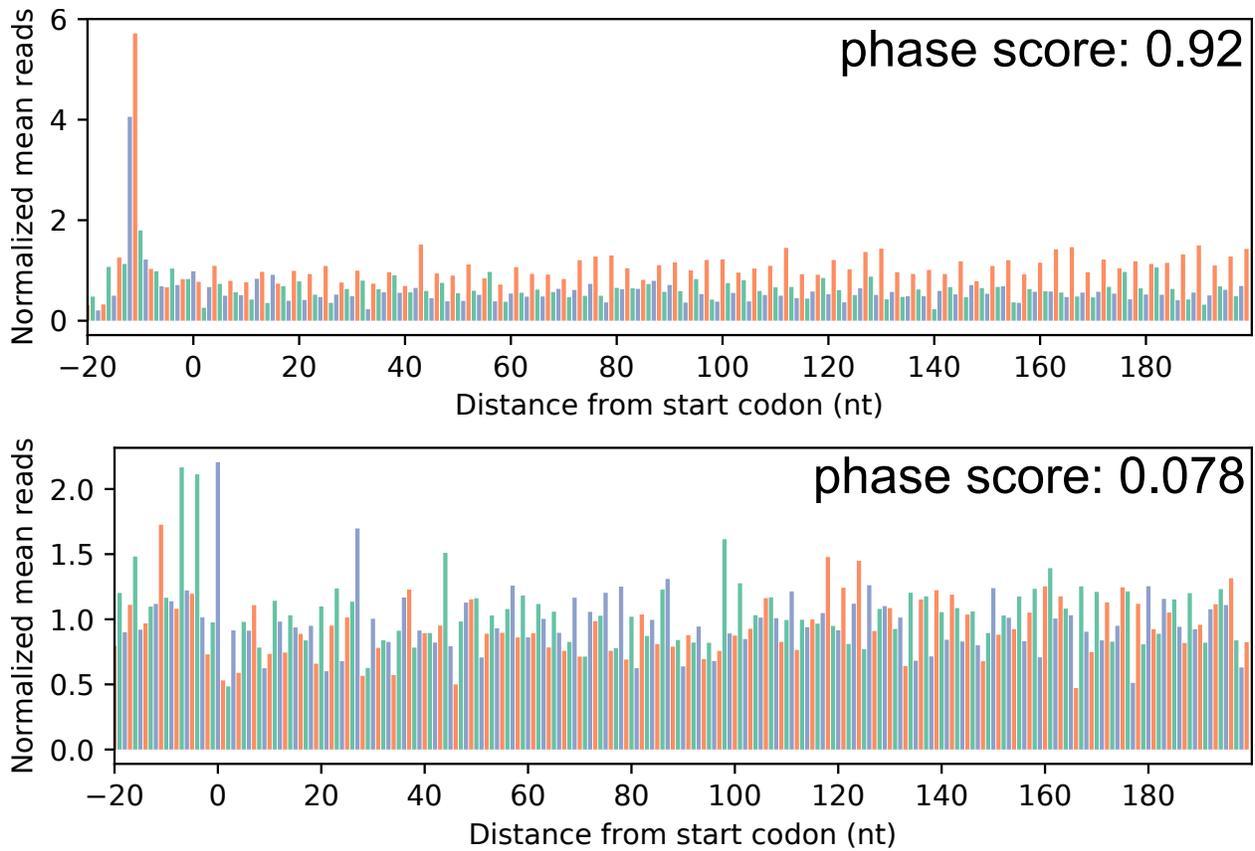


Figure S26: **Example of phase scores for an active and a non-active ORF.** Phase score generated by ribotricer for two different profiles.

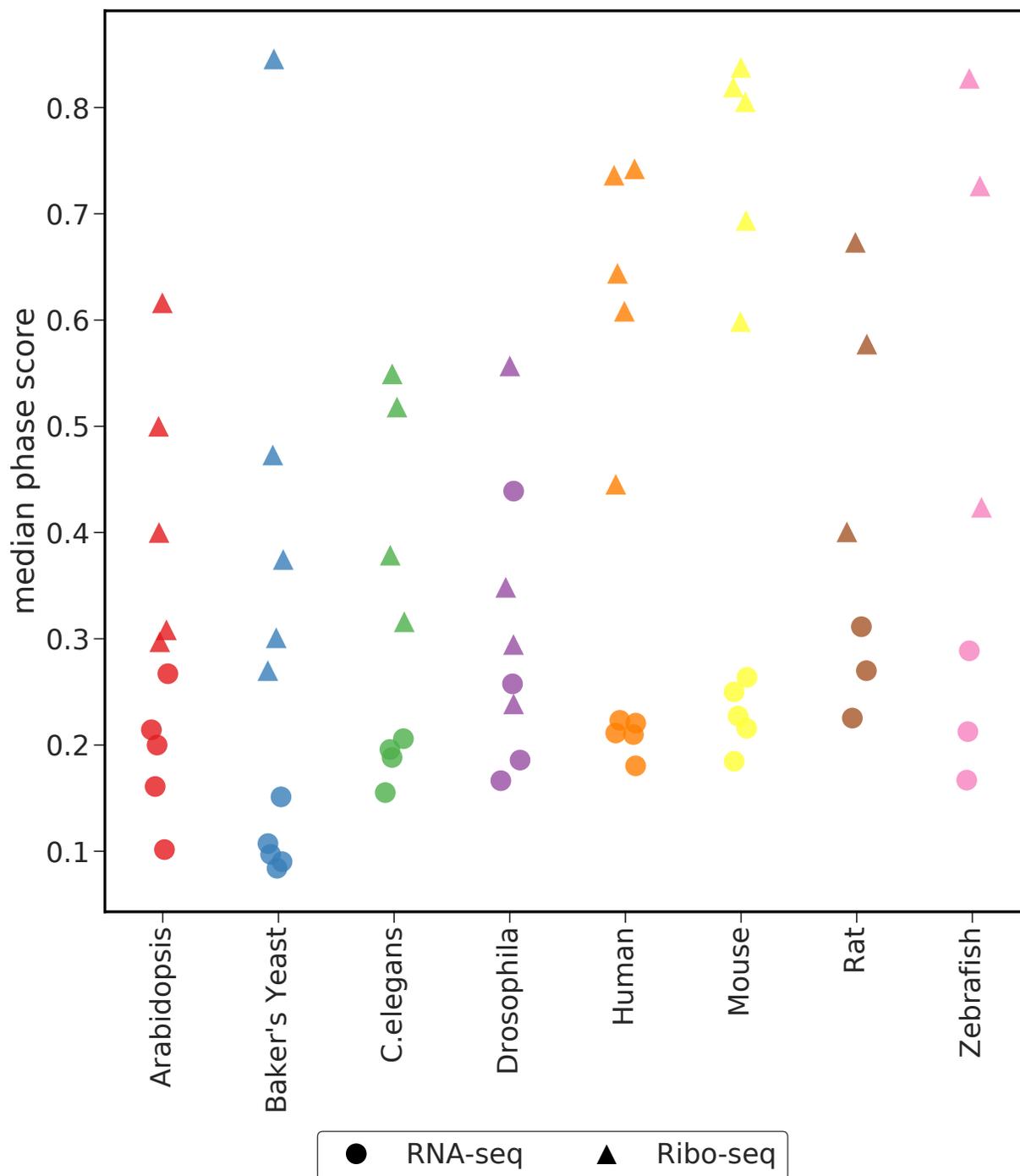


Figure S27: **Summarized median phase score for RNA-seq and Ribo-seq for all datasets.** For each dataset, the median phase score was calculated for all the candidate ORFs for both Ribo-seq and the corresponding RNA-seq sample.

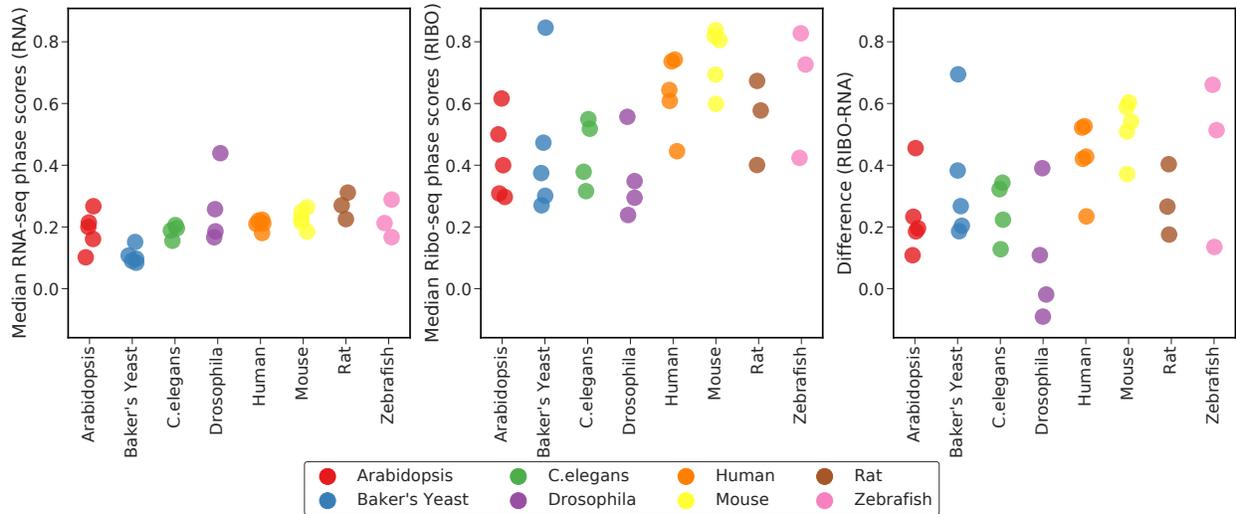


Figure S28: **Median phase score for RNA-seq and Ribo-seq and their differences across multiple species.** For each dataset, the median phase score was calculated for all the candidate ORFs for both Ribo-seq and the corresponding RNA-seq sample. Same as Supplementary Figure S27 except that the RNA- and Ribo-seq samples have been separated into individual panels.

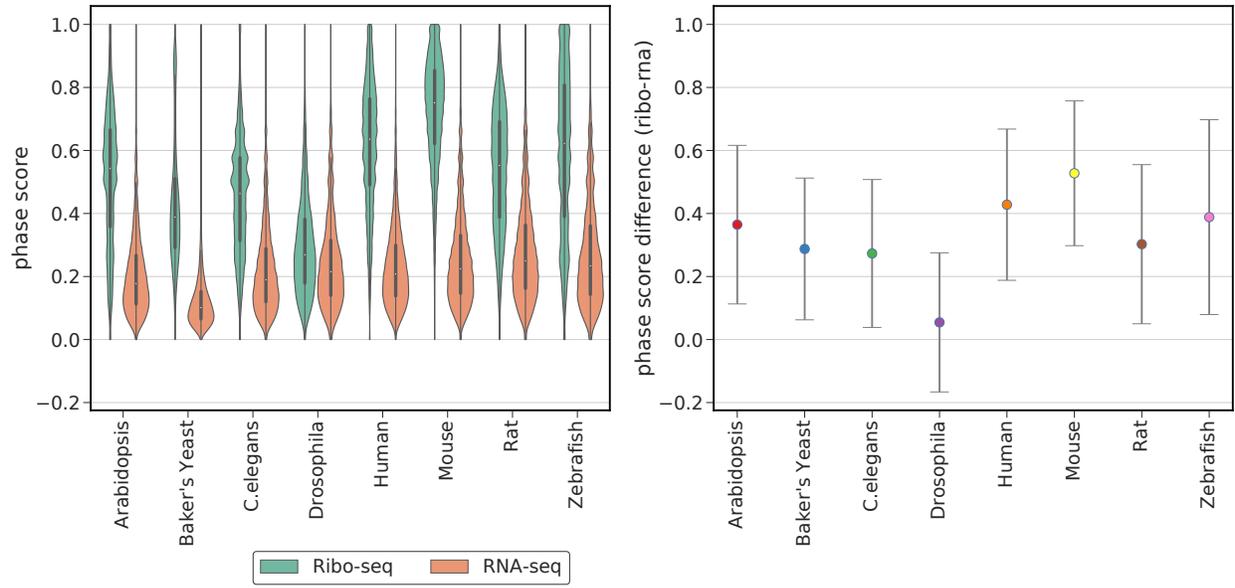


Figure S29: **Distribution of median phase scores for RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples and their differences across multiple species.** For each species, medians were calculated on the collection of merged datasets for that species.

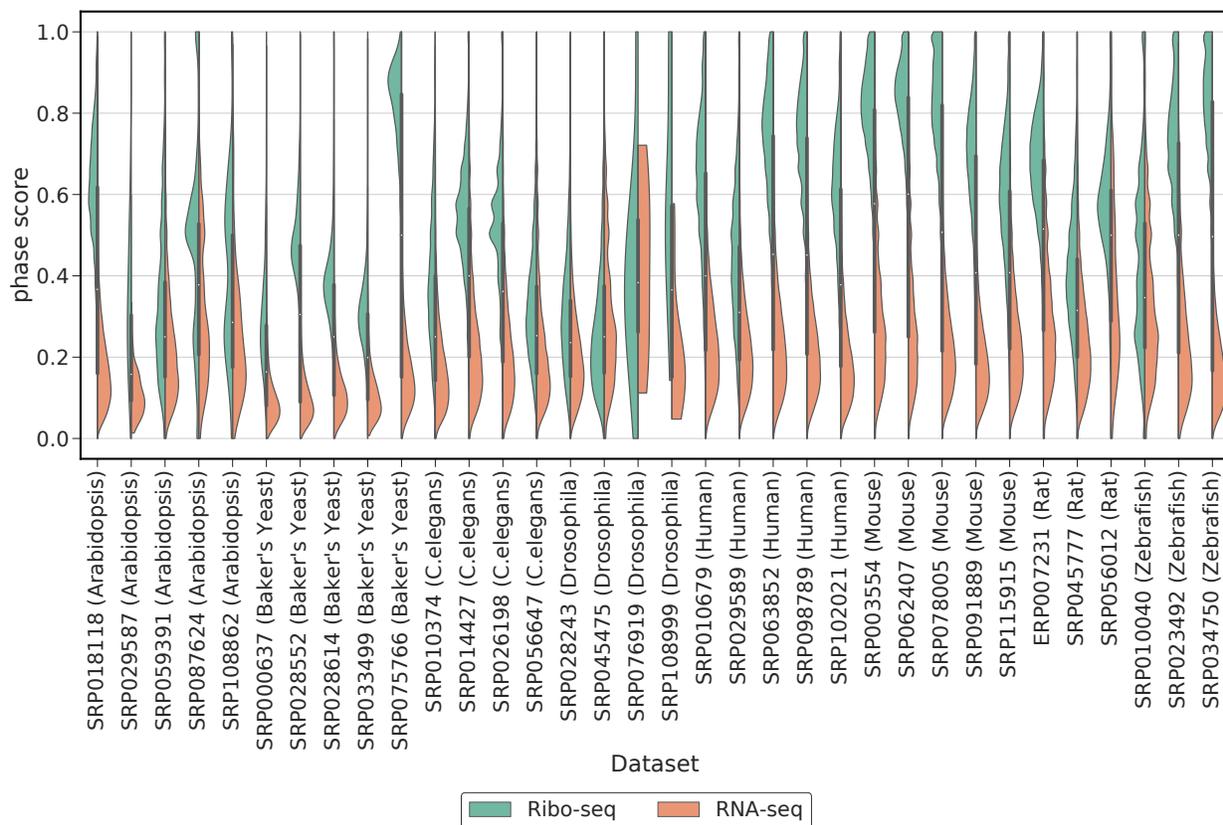


Figure S30: **Distribution of individual RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples' phase scores across species.** For each dataset phase scores were calculated for all candidate ORFs. For human and mouse, Ribo-seq CCDS profiles were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile was treated as true negative. For all other species Ribo-seq profile of annotated CDS regions were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile treated as true negative.

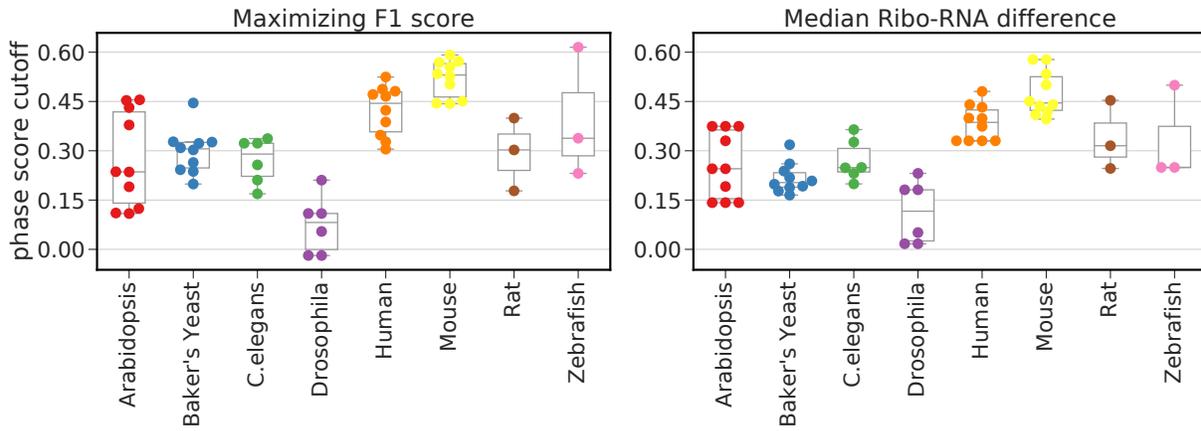


Figure S31: **Distribution of median difference between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq sample as determined using only two datasets per species.** For each species all possible combinations of two datasets were chosen and median difference between phase scores of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq determined.

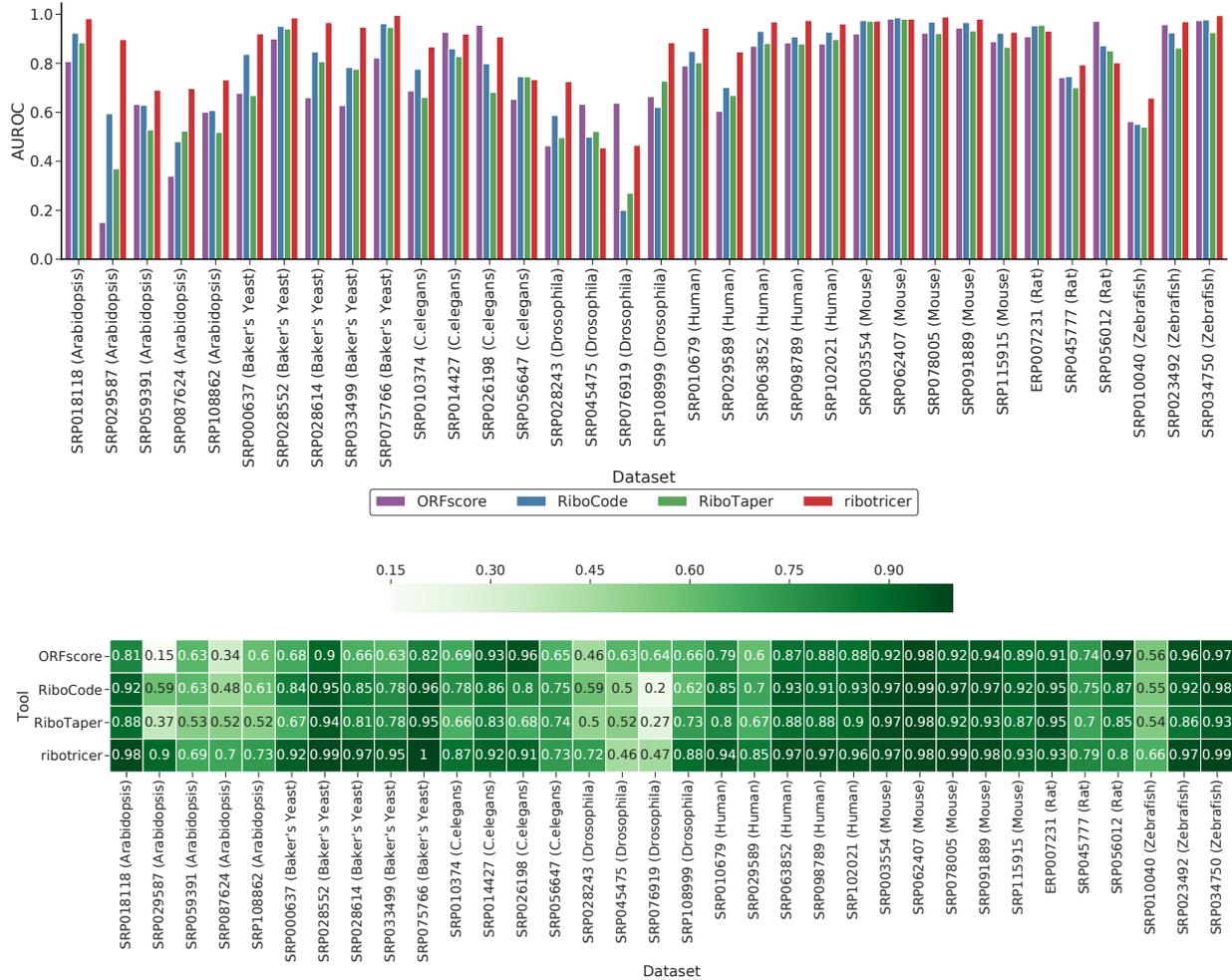


Figure S32: **Distribution of area under ROC (AUROC) across multiple species.** For each Ribo-seq and RNA-seq pair in a dataset, area under ROC was calculated for exon level classification using Ribotricer, Ribotaper, RiboCode and ORFScore.

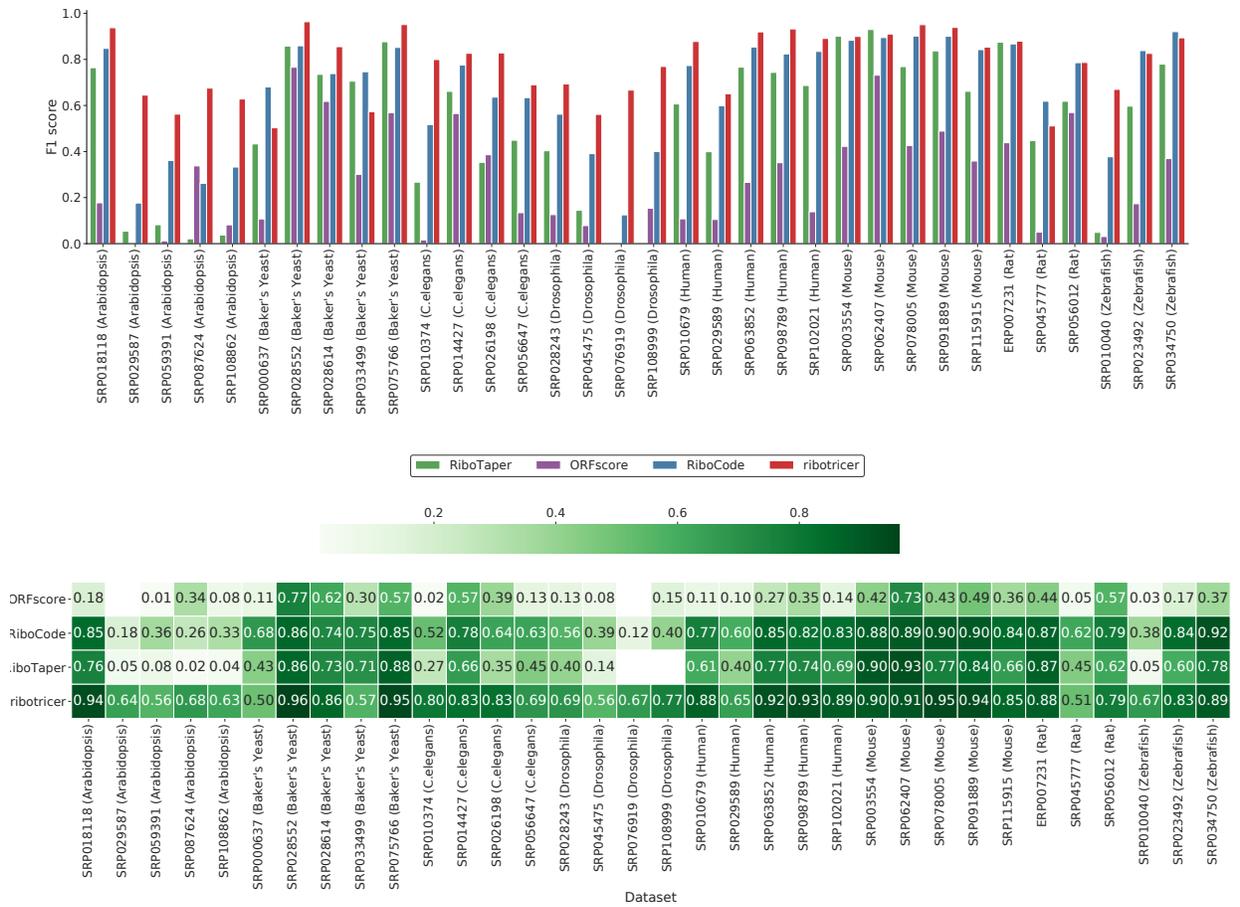


Figure S33: **Distribution of F1 scores across species using species-specific cutoff.** For each species two datasets were used to learn the cutoff score of ribotricer for that species.

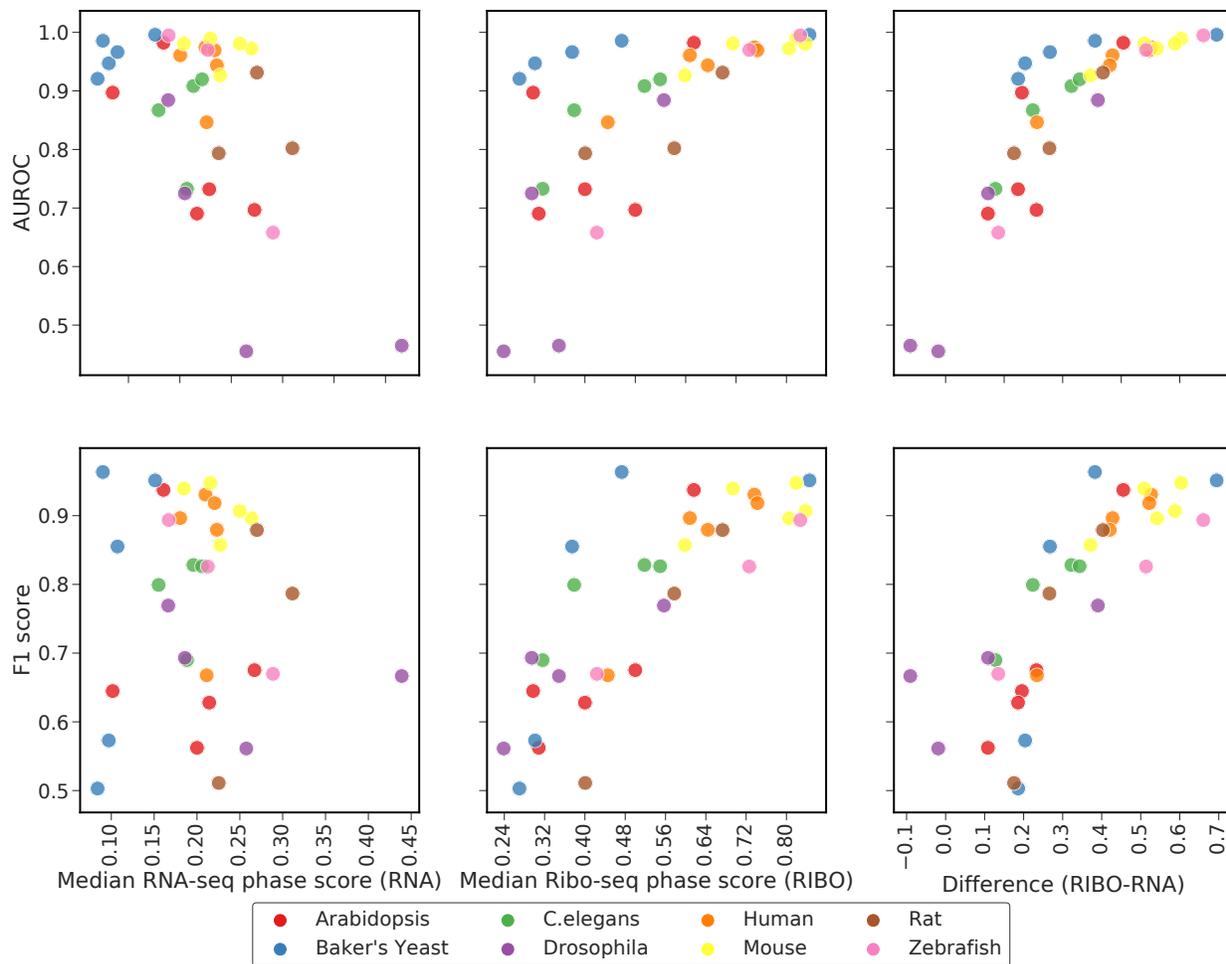


Figure S34: **Performance of ribotricker at AUROC and F1 scores metrics across species at different median phase scores of RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples using species-specific cutoff.** For each dataset, median phase score was calculated for both RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples for the same list of candidate ORFs.

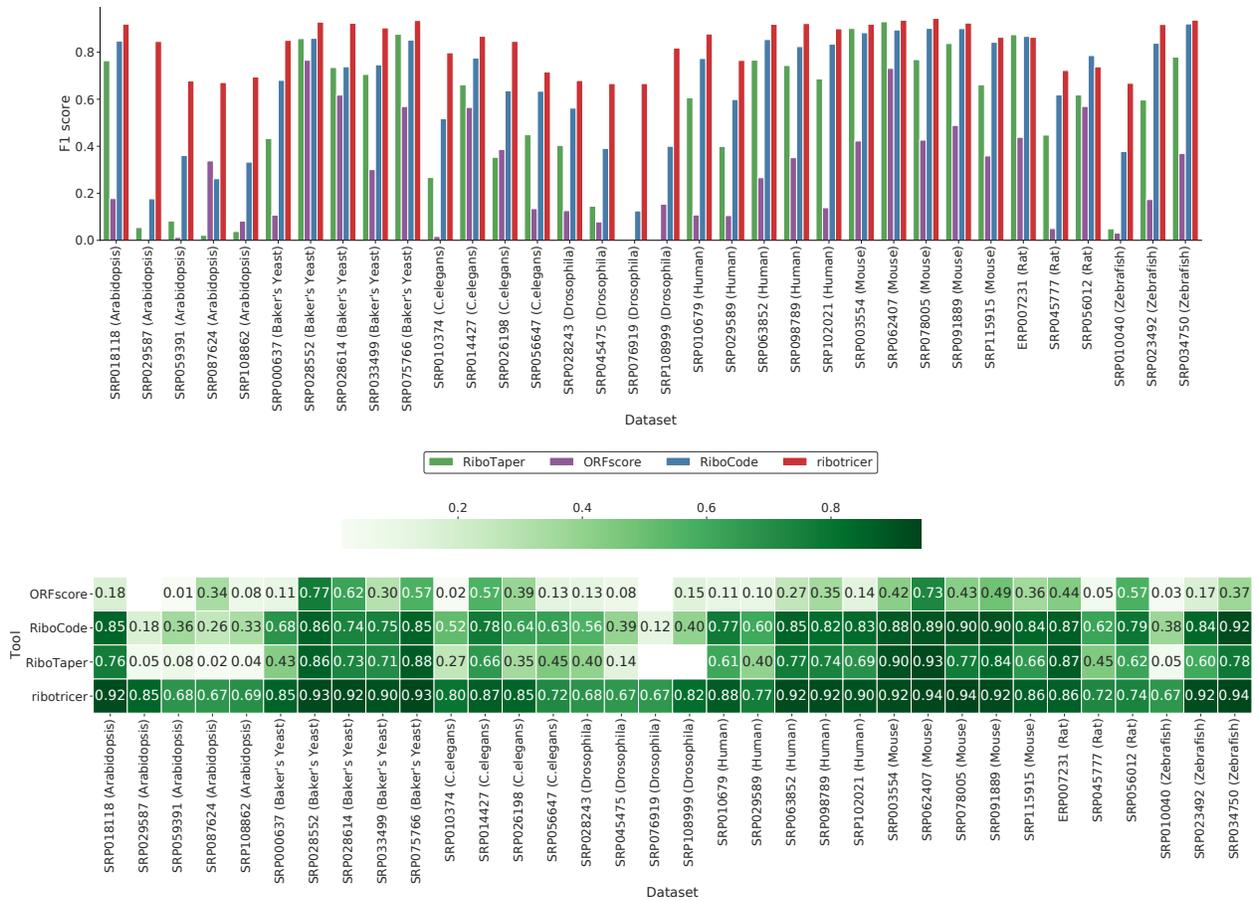


Figure S35: **Distribution of F1 scores across species using dataset-specific cutoff.** For each dataset, the cutoff was learned by determining the median phase score difference between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq profiles by sampling one-third of the total protein-coding transcripts $n_{\text{bootstrap}} = 10000$ times.

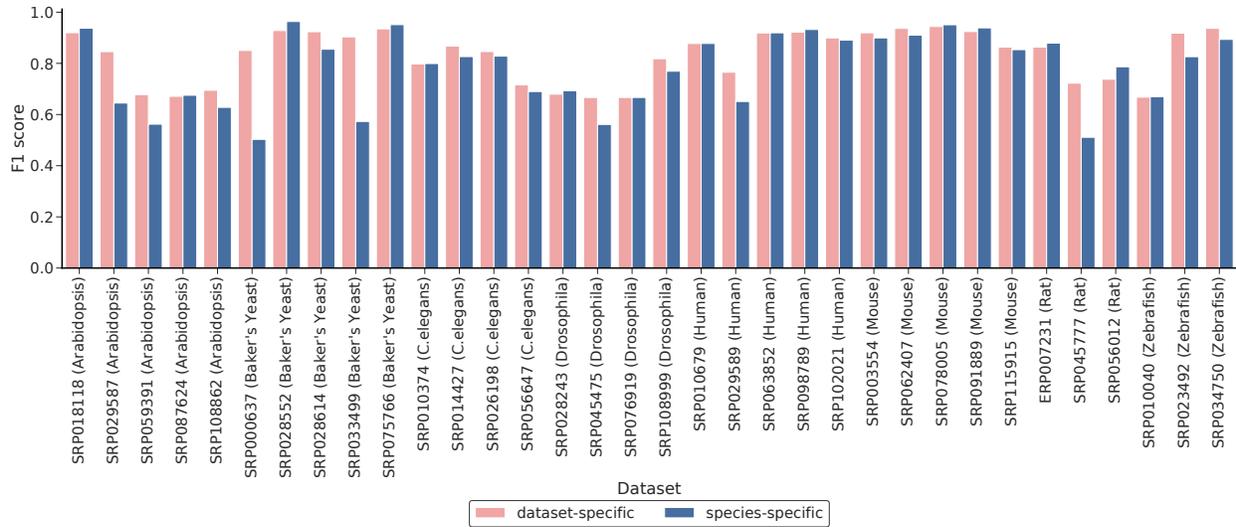


Figure S36: **Difference in performance of ribotricker using species-specific or dataset-specific cutoffs.** Species-specific cutoffs were learned by maximizing the F1 scores for two datasets per species while dataset-specific cutoffs were learned per dataset using the median difference of phase score of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq protein coding profiles.

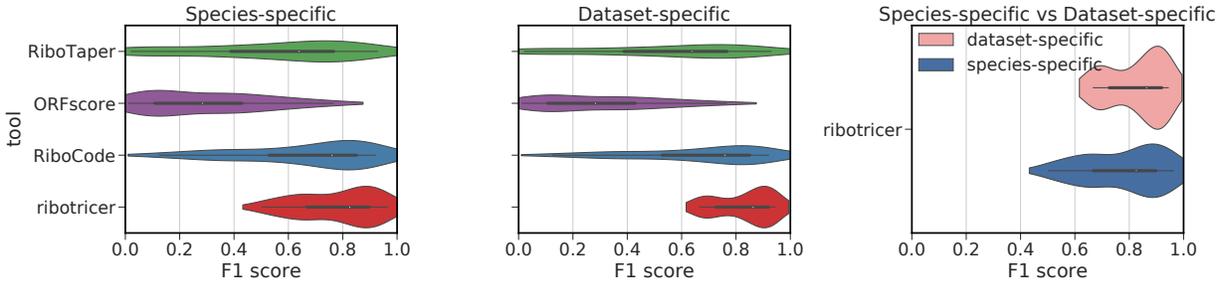


Figure S37: **Summarized performance of ribotricer using species-specific and dataset-specific strategies.** Species-specific cutoffs were learned by maximizing the F1 scores for two datasets per species while dataset-specific cutoffs were learned per dataset using the median difference of phase score of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq protein coding profiles. Species-specific and dataset-specific cutoffs only apply to ribotricer.

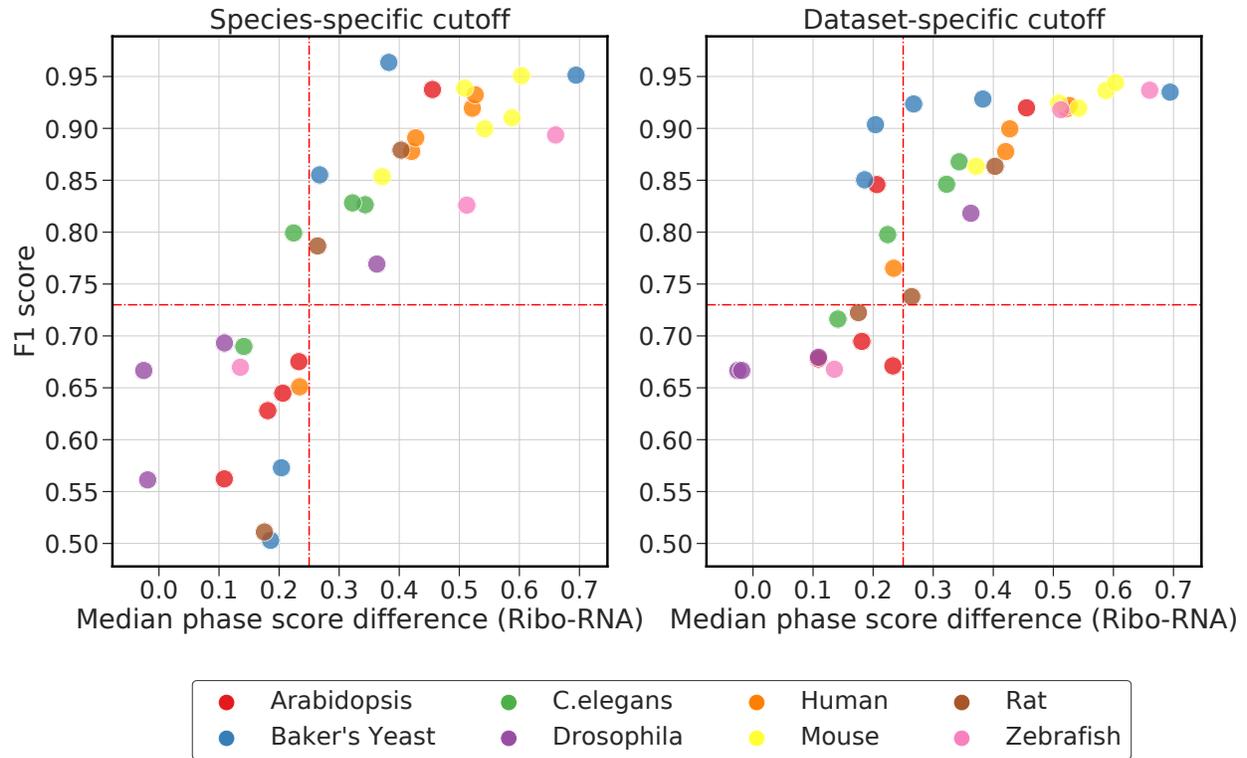


Figure S38: **Distribution of ribotricer’s F1 scores with respect to median phase score difference of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq, using species-specific and dataset-specific cutoffs.** Species-specific cutoffs were learned by maximizing the F1 scores for two datasets per species while dataset-specific cutoffs were learned per dataset using the median difference of phase score of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq protein coding profiles. The dashed red lines indicate a median difference of 0.25 between Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores results in a F1 score of 0.73 and above.

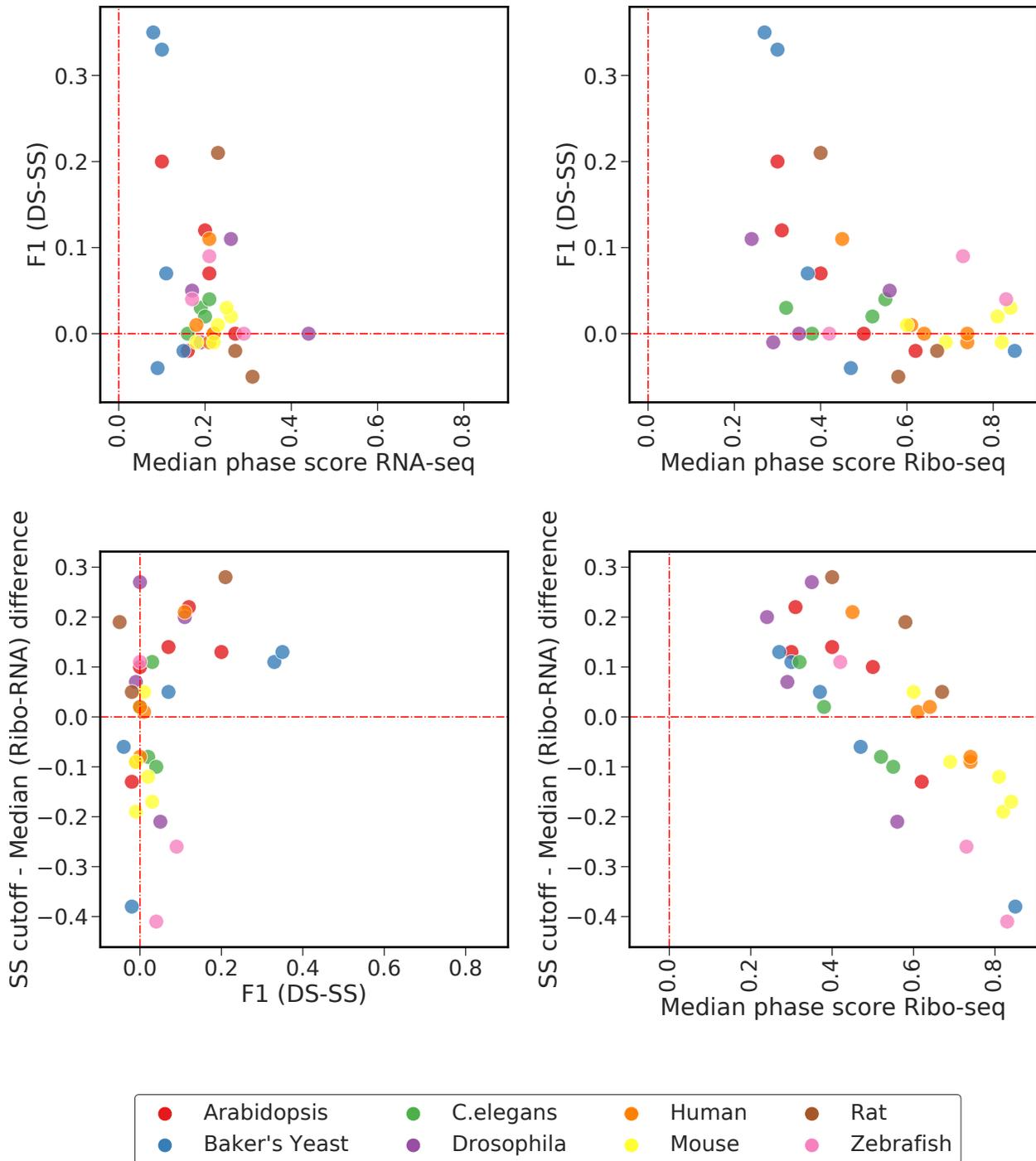


Figure S39: **Effect of Ribo-seq and RNA-seq phase scores on species-specific and dataset-specific based F1 performance.** F1 (DS-SS) indicates difference in F1 scores using species-specific (SS) or dataset-specific (DS) cutoff. Each single data point represents one dataset. Median phase scores were calculated using all the candidate ORF profiler of either RNA-seq or Ribo-seq sample.

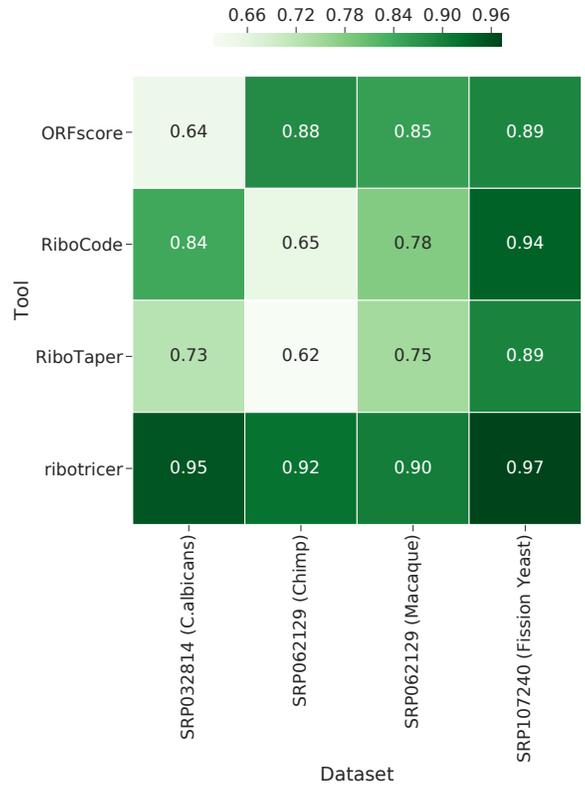
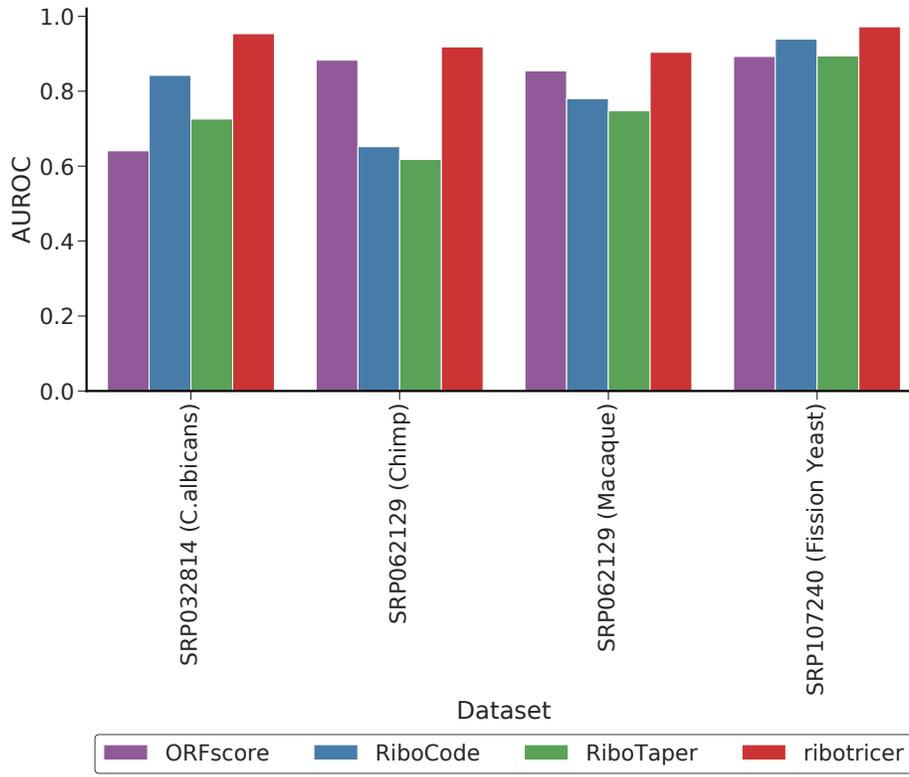


Figure S40: **Distribution of area under ROC in the independent datasets.** For each Ribo-seq and RNA-seq pair in a dataset, area under ROC was calculated for exon level classification using Ribotricer, Ribotaper, RiboCode and ORFScore.

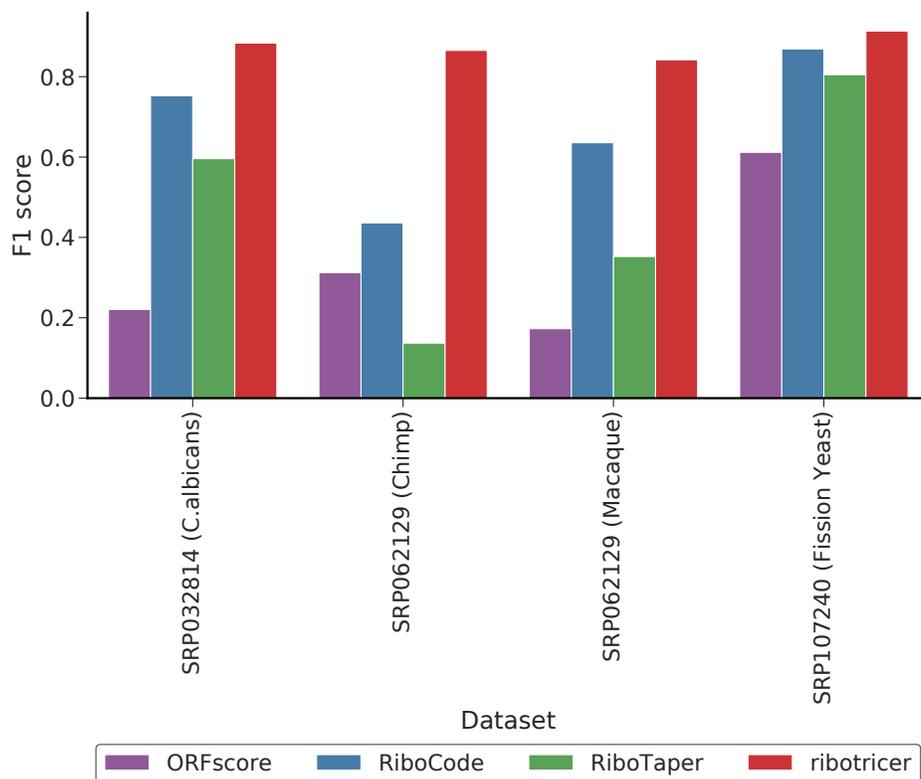


Figure S41: **Distribution of F1 scores in the independent datasets.** For each Ribo-seq and RNA-seq pair in a dataset, F1 score was calculated for exon level classification using Ribotricer, Ribotaper, RiboCode and ORFScore.

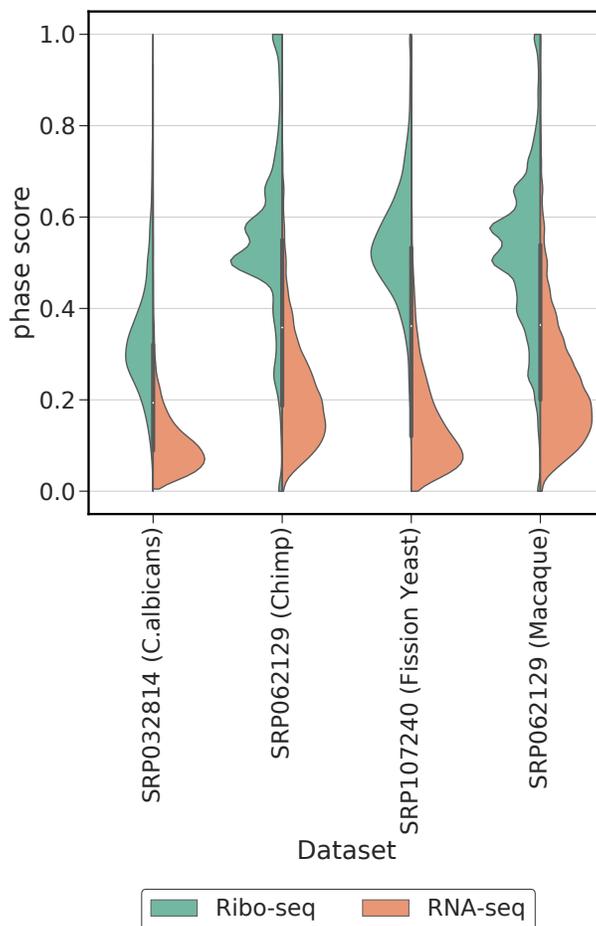


Figure S42: **Distribution of ribotricer’s phase scores for RNA-seq and Ribo-seq samples in the independent datasets.** For each dataset phase scores were calculated for all candidate ORFs. For human and mouse, Ribo-seq CCDS profiles were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile was treated as true negative. For all other species Ribo-seq profile of annotated CDS regions were treated as true positive and the corresponding RNA-seq profile treated as true negative.