

# Molecular BioSystems

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

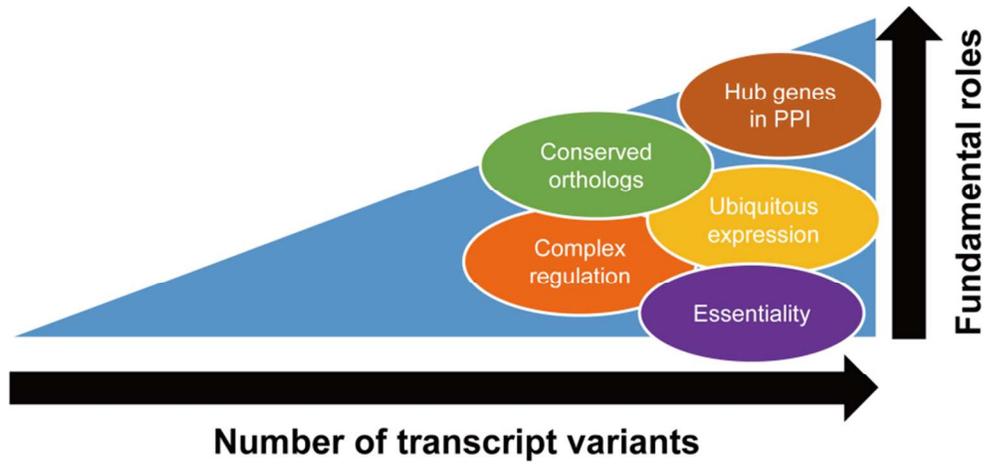
*Accepted Manuscripts* are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



[www.rsc.org/molecularbiosystems](http://www.rsc.org/molecularbiosystems)



Human genes with greater transcript variants are more likely to play functionally important roles such as cellular maintenance and survival.  
160x74mm (150 x 150 DPI)

1

2 **Human genes with a greater number of transcript variants tend**  
3 **to show biological features of housekeeping and essential genes**

4

5 Jae Yong Ryu,<sup>a</sup> Hyun Uk Kim<sup>abd</sup> and Sang Yup Lee<sup>\*abcd</sup>

6

7 <sup>a</sup> Metabolic and Biomolecular Engineering National Research Laboratory, Department of  
8 Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering (BK21 Plus Program), Center for Systems and  
9 Synthetic Biotechnology, Institute for the BioCentury, Korea Advanced Institute of Science  
10 and Technology (KAIST), Daejeon 305-701, Republic of Korea.

11 <sup>b</sup> BioInformatics Research Center, KAIST, Daejeon 305-701, Republic of Korea.

12 <sup>c</sup> BioProcess Engineering Research Center, KAIST, Daejeon 305-701, Republic of Korea.

13 <sup>d</sup> The Novo Nordisk Foundation Center for Biosustainability, Technical University of  
14 Denmark, Hørsholm, Denmark.

15 † Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available: Figures S1-S4 and Tables S1-S8.

16

17 Corresponding author: Sang Yup Lee. Mailing address: Department of Chemical and  
18 Biomolecular Engineering, KAIST, 291 Daehak-ro, Yuseong-gu, Daejeon 305-701, Republic  
19 of Korea. Phone: 82-42-350-3930. Fax: 82-42-350-3910.

20 \* e-mail: leesy@kaist.ac.kr

21

22

1 **Abstract**

2 Alternative splicing is a process observed in gene expression that results in a multi-exon gene  
3 to produce multiple mRNA variants which might have different functions and activities.  
4 Although physiologically important, many aspects of genes with different number of  
5 transcript variants (or splice variants) still remain to be characterized. In this study, we  
6 provide bioinformatic evidences that genes with a greater number of transcript variants are  
7 more likely to play functionally important roles in cells, compared with those having fewer  
8 transcript variants. Among 21,983 human genes, 3,728 genes were found to have a single  
9 transcript, and the remaining genes had 2 to 77 transcript variants. The genes with more  
10 transcript variants exhibited greater frequencies of acting as housekeeping and essential genes  
11 rather than tissue-selective and non-essential genes. They were found to be more conserved  
12 among 64 vertebrate species as orthologs, subjected to regulations by transcription factors  
13 and microRNAs, and showed hub node-like properties in the human protein-protein  
14 interaction network. These findings were also confirmed by metabolic simulations of 60  
15 cancer metabolic models. All these results indicate that genes with a greater number of  
16 transcript variants play biologically more fundamental roles.

17

1

## 2 **Introduction**

3 During the expression of a multi-exon gene, alternative splicing results in generation of  
4 multiple transcripts.<sup>1, 2</sup> In human, 92-97% of the multi-exon genes undergo alternative  
5 splicing.<sup>3</sup> These alternatively spliced variants from a gene can have important implications in  
6 mammalian physiology and have been a source of functional diversity of many human genes  
7 by providing multiple protein products with alternative functional domains.<sup>4</sup> In particular,  
8 correlations between the number of splice variants of a gene and its functional role have been  
9 important topics of human genomic studies. In recent years, advent of next-generation  
10 sequencing technology such as RNA-Seq with high resolution has facilitated elucidation of  
11 functional features of splice variants of genes.<sup>4, 5</sup> RNA-Seq data revealed that alternative  
12 splicing events are differentially regulated in human tissues, leading to tissue-specifically  
13 coordinated splicing events.<sup>6</sup> Such tissue-specific alternative splicing events allow the same  
14 gene to have different combinations of exons (i.e., splice variants) across the tissues, and  
15 therefore tissue-specifically generated splice variants can have differentiated protein  
16 structures and functions.<sup>7</sup> Importantly, the protein isoforms from the same gene can have  
17 different degrees of disorder (i.e., lack of a well-defined three-dimensional structure)  
18 depending on the inclusion of tissue-specific exons. Such protein isoforms can rewire the  
19 overall protein-protein interaction (PPI) network by interacting with different proteins.  
20 Recent studies on generic PPI<sup>8</sup> and tissue-specific PPI networks of human<sup>9</sup> revealed that  
21 proteins encoded by genes with a greater number of splice variants tend to have more  
22 neighbor nodes and higher centralities in contrast to those encoded by genes with fewer splice  
23 variants. The number of neighbor nodes and node centralities are indicators of biologically  
24 important functions, and their greater values tend to get greater for the functionally important

1 nodes (e.g., proteins).<sup>10</sup> Interestingly, tissue-specific exons, which are often observed in  
2 proteins with large values of neighbor nodes and node centralities, also appeared to be more  
3 associated with post-translational modifications and evolutionary conservations than  
4 constitutive exons.<sup>7</sup> More functional features of splice variants remain to be elucidated  
5 through combined experimental (i.e., RNA-Seq analysis) and theoretical studies.

6 In characterizing functional roles of genes, their expression patterns and essentiality  
7 are important criteria to consider. Genes can typically be categorized into housekeeping (HK)  
8 and tissue-selective (TS) genes depending on their expression patterns<sup>11,12</sup>; the former being  
9 defined as genes expressed across all tissues to maintain cellular functions and the latter  
10 being expressed in only certain tissues. Essential (ES) genes are those that are critical to cell  
11 growth and survival, whereas non-essential (NE) genes are not. There was a recent study on  
12 identifying human essential genes based on the essential orthologs of mouse.<sup>13</sup> Evaluation of  
13 the expression patterns in different tissues and essentiality of genes based on the different  
14 number of splice variants can be useful in determining their biological importance.

15 In this study, we provide systemic evidences through bioinformatic analyses that  
16 genes with a greater number of transcript variants (or splice variants) have a greater chance of  
17 playing biologically important roles than those with fewer transcript variants. First, genes  
18 were grouped based on the number of their transcript variants in order to identify correlations  
19 between the number of their transcript variants and their expression patterns (as HK and TS  
20 genes) / essentiality (as ES and NE genes). For the comparative analyses of genes with the  
21 different number of transcript variants, a series of analyses were carried out to elucidate the  
22 degree of their functional conservations *via* ortholog analysis across genomes of vertebrate  
23 species, regulations by transcription factors and microRNAs, and central hub-like network  
24 properties in human PPI network. Finally, we used 60 cancer metabolic models for

1 essentiality simulation of human metabolic genes upon their knockouts in order to further  
2 validate our findings on correlations between the number of transcript variants and gene  
3 functions. The present system-wide study provides additional evidences on the biological  
4 importance of transcript variants of human genes.

5

## 6 **Results and Discussion**

### 7 **Human genes with a greater number of transcript variants play biologically more** 8 **important roles**

9 In order to examine the distribution of human genes showing different number of transcript  
10 variants, the number of transcript variants for 21,983 human genes was examined (Table S1,  
11 ESI†). These genes were downloaded from the Ensembl BioMart (release 78), and only the  
12 protein-coding genes (covering both multi- and single-exon) and their transcripts including  
13 transcript variants were considered. Meanwhile, we considered all types of transcript variants  
14 for a gene, including both that have protein IDs and do not lead to protein products. The  
15 reason is that all types of transcript variants have the chance to influence cellular physiology,  
16 for instance in the form of microRNA sponge (see Experimental for details). On average,  
17 there were 6.95 transcript variants per human gene. Among 21,983 human genes, 3,728 genes  
18 were found to have a single transcript, and the remaining genes had 2 to 77 transcript variants  
19 (Fig. 1). Overall, 83% of the human genes had 2-28 transcript variants, and the rest 0.01%  
20 (219 genes) had 29 or more transcript variants. In order to investigate correlations between  
21 the number of transcript variants and functions of human genes, human genes were  
22 categorized into a total of 77 groups according to the number of transcript variants. Among  
23 them, 60 groups had at least one or more genes, and none of the human genes had the  
24 following numbers of transcript variants: 46, 51, 54, 59, 62, 63, 65, 66, 67, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73,

1 74, 75, and 76. Thus, there were 60 groups that were analyzed as below, excluding those 17  
2 groups having no genes belonging to.

3 First, these grouped genes having different number of transcript variants were  
4 analyzed with respect to the HK, TS, ES and NE gene categories by using gene expression  
5 pattern data covering 3,804 HK and 2,293 TS genes<sup>12, 14</sup> and gene essentiality data for 2,472  
6 ES and 3,811 NE genes<sup>13</sup> (Table S2, ESI†). Here, HK and ES genes can be considered to be  
7 biologically important and fundamental genes, compared with their counterparts (i.e., TS and  
8 NE genes). The numbers of transcript variants for HK, TS, ES and NE genes were  
9 determined and compared (Fig. 2A). The results show that HK and ES genes tend to have a  
10 greater number of transcript variants compared with TS and NE genes, respectively. Also, the  
11 average numbers (9.12 and 9.29) of transcript variants for HK and ES genes are greater than  
12 the average number (6.95) of transcript variants for all human genes. This observation  
13 suggests that genes having important roles (HK and ES) tend to have a greater number of  
14 transcript variants compared with their counterparts (6.95 for TS and 7.64 for NE). It should  
15 be noted that the lines inside the boxplots in Figure 2A are median values, not averages. In  
16 addition, our analysis on the correlation between the number of exons in all the genes  
17 considered in this study and the number of their transcript variants revealed that they were  
18 not significantly correlated (Fig. S1, ESI†; Pearson correlation coefficient = 0.39 in Fig. S1).  
19 This observation manifests that the greater number of transcript variants for the HK and ES  
20 genes was caused by various forms of alternative splicing events, not simply by a greater  
21 number of exons in their genes. Splice variants can arise from several different mechanisms,  
22 including exon skipping, mutual exclusion of exons, alternative 5' donor site, alternative 3'  
23 acceptor site, and intron retention.<sup>4</sup>

24 The finding that the HK and ES genes overall generated a greater number of

1 transcript variants was further supported by increasing percentages of HK, TS, ES and NE  
2 genes in each group as the number of transcript variants increased (Fig. 2B and C). The  
3 percentages of TS and NE genes showed somewhat different patterns; they did not increase  
4 as a function of the number of transcript variants. Statistical significances for the presence of  
5 HK, TS, ES and NE genes in each group with different numbers of transcript variants were  
6 calculated with Fisher's exact test, and are available in Table S3, ESI†.

7 In order to confirm that genes having more transcript variants are playing more  
8 important roles, we analyzed expression levels of the genes belonging to 60 groups using a  
9 recent proteomic study on 32 different human tissues by Uhlen et al.<sup>15</sup>; the percentages of  
10 genes in 60 groups that are expressed and appeared in proteome data were calculated (Fig. 3).  
11 Also, the percentages of HK, TS, ES, and NE genes in each tissue were calculated (Fig. 3). It  
12 was found that genes with a greater number of transcript variants were more ubiquitously  
13 expressed in all 32 different human tissues (red region in the heat map in Fig. 3), compared  
14 with those having fewer transcript variants (blue and green regions in the heat map in Fig. 3).  
15 As expected, the HK genes were ubiquitously expressed in all the 32 tissues, while 33-76%  
16 of the TS and NE genes were expressed in the 32 tissues (Fig. 3). Also, greater than 75% of  
17 the ES genes were expressed in all the tissues except for bone marrow and skeletal muscle  
18 (Fig. 3). In order to clearly show that the tissue-specific expression patterns of the examined  
19 genes were not affected by the presence of the HK, TS, ES and NE genes in each group, the  
20 gene expression patterns were re-examined by excluding all the HK, TS, ES and NE genes  
21 from each group, and the new results appeared to be consistent (Fig. S2, ESI†). These results  
22 confirm that expression of those genes having more transcript variants is more demanded in  
23 human cell compared with those having fewer transcript variants, which suggests that these  
24 genes with more transcript variants are likely play more important functional roles in the cell.

1

**2 Analysis of orthologs in gene groups having different number of transcript variants**

3 Next, we examined the number of conserved orthologs across 64 vertebrate species in each  
4 gene group (i.e., 60 groups having different number of transcript variants) to examine  
5 whether the functional conservation is correlated with the number of transcript variants (or  
6 splice variants). The number of orthologs would indicate the level of functional conservation  
7 across the examined species.<sup>16</sup> First, the orthologs in all 60 groups having different number of  
8 transcript variants were searched against genomes of 64 vertebrate species and counted (Fig.  
9 4). Also, the orthologs of the human HK, TS, ES, and NE genes were searched for these  
10 genomes. In this analysis, all the protein-coding genes known to be present in the 64  
11 vertebrates were obtained from the OrthoDB.<sup>17</sup> Among genes in the vertebrates, human  
12 orthologs were selected in order to examine the presence of conserved orthologs.

13 As a result, genes in groups having a large number of transcript variants appeared to  
14 be more conserved in 64 vertebrates compared with those having fewer transcript variants  
15 (Fig. 4). In particular, human orthologs were highly conserved in the orders such as  
16 *Carnivora*, *Cetartiodactyla*, *Glires*, and *Primates*, whereas human orthologs including HK  
17 and ES genes were not well conserved in the other orders such as *Ctenosquamata* and  
18 *Saurischia* (Fig. 4). High-level conservation of human orthologs in *Carnivora*,  
19 *Cetartiodactyla*, *Glires*, and *Primates* could be attributed to their common ancestor (the  
20 magnorder *Boreoeutheria*) according to the NCBI Taxonomy database<sup>18</sup>. Furthermore, a  
21 vertebrate species sharing orthologs with human to the greatest extent was olive baboon  
22 (*Papio anubis*), which appeared to have all genes from 32 groups and 92.3-99.6% genes from  
23 the remaining groups conserved in human. In contrast, sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*)  
24 had the lowest number of human orthologs, having all genes from 11 groups and 0-83.3%

1 from the remaining groups conserved in human. Sea lamprey (*Petromyzon marinus*) was  
2 found to be phylogenetically located in the farthest distance from the rest of the vertebrate  
3 species.<sup>19</sup> Groups having 42, 52, 55, 56 and 64 transcript variants, which are conserved  
4 among all the 64 vertebrates, had 7 genes in total (i.e., *AKT2*, *EEF1D*, *MOK*, *MYB*, *NDRG4*,  
5 *RUNXIT1* and *SORBS2*). These genes were associated with fundamentally important  
6 functions such as protein kinases (*AKT2* and *MOK*), eukaryotic translation elongation factor  
7 (*EEF1D*), transcription factors (*MYB* and *RUNXIT1*), cell cycle progression (*NDRG4*), and  
8 adaptor protein for signaling complex (*SORBS2*). The same consistent results were obtained  
9 from the ortholog conservation analysis conducted with the same gene groups, but by  
10 excluding all the HK, TS, ES and NE genes, in order to confirm that the conservation patterns  
11 were affected by the number of transcript variants (or splice variants), not by the HK, TS, ES  
12 and NE genes present in each group (Fig. S3, ESI†). Thus, analysis of the conserved  
13 orthologs of human genes across the vertebrate species suggested another clue that genes  
14 having many transcript variants are playing functionally more important roles (e.g.,  
15 conserved functions across vertebrates) due to their greater level of conservation across the  
16 examined species. On the contrary, genes with fewer transcript variants might play rather  
17 species-specific roles as shown by the lower level of conservation among the examined  
18 species for the group with a single transcript.

19

#### 20 **Regulation of genes by transcription factors and microRNAs for the genes having** 21 **different number of transcript variants**

22 We next investigated to what extent genes with different number of transcript variants (or  
23 splice variants) are subject to regulations by transcription factors and microRNAs, two  
24 important intracellular regulators. Transcription factors activate or repress their target genes

1 by binding to their promoter regions, whereas microRNAs repress target genes by binding to  
2 their seed sites (or microRNA-binding sites) in 3' UTR. Both transcription factors and  
3 microRNAs can regulate multiple genes.<sup>20</sup>

4 The average numbers of transcription factors and microRNAs that regulate genes in  
5 the 60 groups having different number of transcript variants, and the HK, TS, ES, and NE  
6 genes were calculated. Data on target genes regulated by transcription factors and  
7 microRNAs were obtained from HTRIdb<sup>21</sup> and miRTarBase,<sup>22</sup> respectively; both databases  
8 provide information on experimentally validated target genes regulated by transcription  
9 factors and microRNAs. Information on all the microRNAs and transcription factors  
10 available in the abovementioned databases was used for this analysis in order to grasp overall  
11 relationship between the average numbers of regulators and their target genes. A full list of  
12 microRNAs, transcription factors and their target genes are available Table S4 (ESI†).

13 For transcription factors, genes with a single transcript appeared to be regulated by  
14 1.49 transcription factors on average. The number of transcript variants and transcription  
15 factors regulating the corresponding genes showed a positive correlation up to the group with  
16 31 transcript variants; the genes in the group with 31 transcript variants were found to be  
17 regulated by 3.21 transcription factors per gene on average. Correlations could not be inferred  
18 for the groups having greater than 31 transcript variants because of the lack of sufficient  
19 number of genes in these groups; less than 0.01% of human genes belong to these groups.  
20 Nonetheless, the overall pattern observed was that genes with many transcript variants tend to  
21 be subject to regulations by more transcription factors (Fig. 5A).

22 In a similar manner, gene regulations by microRNAs were examined. Genes with a  
23 single transcript appeared to be subject to regulations by 0.92 microRNAs on average.  
24 Positive correlations between the number of transcript variants and the number of

1 microRNAs regulating the corresponding genes were observed for the gene groups having up  
2 to 30 transcript variants; the group with 30 transcript variants showed presence of 2.76  
3 regulatory microRNAs per gene (Fig. 5B). Similarly to the transcription factor case, groups  
4 having greater than 30 transcript variants could not be considered for inferring correlations  
5 due to too few genes in these groups. Interestingly, three genes (*AKT2*, *MOK* and *MYB*) in a  
6 group having 42 transcript variants appeared to be regulated by 7.33 transcription factors and  
7 7.67 microRNAs on average; this group showed the greatest number of regulators among all  
8 the gene groups having different number of transcript variants. In particular, *MYB*, known to  
9 be an essential gene crucial in hematopoiesis<sup>23</sup>, was found to be regulated by 13 transcription  
10 factors and 20 microRNAs.

11 Because transcription factors and microRNAs generate 9.12 and 9.29 transcript  
12 variants on average, respectively, the number of transcription factors and microRNAs  
13 regulating these gene sets were compared with genes in the group having 9 transcript variants.  
14 Interestingly, the HK (regulated by 3.02 transcription factors and 3.23 microRNAs) and ES  
15 (regulated by 3.54 transcription factors and 3.56 microRNAs) genes appeared to be more  
16 regulated than the group having 9 transcript variants regulated by 2.91 transcription factors  
17 and 2.17 microRNAs. This observation suggests that biologically more important genes such  
18 as HK and ES genes tend to be subject to more complex regulations.

19 Taken together, these results confirm that functionally important genes such as those  
20 with a greater number of transcript variants, and the HK and ES genes are subject to more  
21 complex regulations by more transcription factors and microRNAs. Genes with multiple  
22 transcript variants are likely to be involved in complex regulations through different promoter  
23 binding and polyadenylations by creating alternative 5' and/or 3' exons of the variant  
24 structures, and consequently help cells better adapt to environmental and/or genetic

1 perturbations.<sup>24</sup>

2

### 3 **Analysis of genes with different number of transcript variants from a network** 4 **perspective**

5 The above grouped genes (i.e., genes in 60 groups, and the HK, TS, ES, and NE genes) were  
6 then analyzed at large-scale protein level by utilizing a human PPI network from the PINA  
7 2.0 database.<sup>25</sup> This network consists of a total of 17,109 nodes and 166,776 edges, each  
8 representing proteins and their interactions, respectively. In the PPI network, the degree is  
9 defined as the number of interacting proteins. We examined average degrees of proteins  
10 encoded by genes in the 60 groups having different number of transcript variants (or splice  
11 variants), and the HK, TS, ES, and NE genes. It was hypothesized that genes having more  
12 splice variants are likely to be central hubs that have a large number of connections with  
13 other proteins, and are also related to cellular essentiality.<sup>26</sup> Consistent with the comparative  
14 analyses presented above, central hubs were more frequently mapped to proteins encoded by  
15 genes with a greater number of transcript variants, and the HK and ES genes (Fig. 6A). For  
16 proteins encoded by the HK and ES genes, the average degrees of interactions were 36.10  
17 and 49.07, respectively; these values are almost twice the average degree (20.29) of  
18 interactions for proteins encoded by genes having 9 transcript variants (i.e., similar to the  
19 average number of transcript variants for the HK and ES genes). Interestingly, genes with 14  
20 transcript variants showed proteins with average degree of 53.68, which is a value  
21 substantially greater than nearby gene groups. This outlier (group with 14 transcript variants)  
22 is due to the presence of *UBC* gene encoding ubiquitin which interacts with 9,136 proteins in  
23 the PPI network for protein degradation. Network hub nodes are in general known to be  
24 essential because of a large number of their connections with other nodes and hence greater

1 damages to the network stability upon their removal.<sup>26</sup> The observation that proteins encoded  
2 by the genes having a greater number of transcript variants are more likely to have central  
3 hub-like properties is not strange because multiple proteins are generated from such genes,  
4 and therefore allow more interactions with other proteins.<sup>10</sup> Consistently to these results, a  
5 previous study revealed that the number of degrees of protein nodes in human generic and  
6 tissue-specific PPI networks was positively correlated with the number of transcript variants  
7 for their respective genes.<sup>8,9</sup>

8 Finally, the correlation between the average degree of the PPI network and the  
9 number of transcript variants was examined for the proteins with similar levels of disorder.  
10 Intrinsically disordered proteins are known to interact with more diverse proteins than  
11 ordered proteins because of their structural flexibility, and they also have regions enriched for  
12 alternative splicing.<sup>27</sup> Therefore, it was important to confirm that the observed average  
13 degrees were purely caused by the number of transcript variants (or splice variants), and not  
14 the level of protein disorder. For this analysis, disorder levels of all the proteins in the PPI  
15 network were calculated using MobiDB 2.0.<sup>28</sup> As a result, the proteins with 0% and 50-70%  
16 disorders all consistently showed that their average degrees and the number of their transcript  
17 variants were correlated in a positive manner (Fig. 6B and C). The results were also similar  
18 for the proteins with > 50% and >70% disorders (Fig. S4, ESI†). Taken together, we found  
19 that genes having a greater number of transcript variants indeed followed patterns of the HK  
20 and ES genes. This should be useful additional information for better characterization of the  
21 human PPI network.

22

23 **Characterizing essentiality of metabolic genes having different number of transcript**  
24 **variants using *in silico* genome-scale metabolic models**

1 Comprehensive human genome-scale metabolic models have proven useful in human  
2 metabolic studies including the understanding of physiological phenomena<sup>29,30</sup>, prediction of  
3 disease-specific biomarkers,<sup>31</sup> and drug targeting.<sup>32,33</sup> To this end, we used recently reported  
4 60 different NCI-60 cancer cell line-specific metabolic models<sup>34</sup> to further validate that  
5 metabolic prediction outcomes are consistent with the observed functional characteristics of  
6 genes having different number of transcript variants (or splice variants). Here, cancer cell  
7 metabolic models, instead of generic metabolic or normal cell type-specific models, were  
8 used in simulations. This is because the objective of cancer cell can be assumed to be  
9 biomass maximization, while that of normal cell cannot be.<sup>35</sup>

10 In order to get the number of metabolic genes in each group having different number  
11 of transcript variants, metabolic genes in the human generic model Recon 2 were searched  
12 against all the genes in 60 groups. Recon 2 is the latest version of the large-scale human  
13 metabolic model that has information on 1,789 metabolic genes, which appear to be present  
14 in human genome and correspond to 7,440 reactions and 2,626 metabolites.<sup>36</sup> Metabolic  
15 genes were found to have 8.78 transcript variants on average, which is a value greater than  
16 the average of all human genes (6.95 transcript variants). The percentage of metabolic genes  
17 to the total genes in each group increased as the number of transcript variants increases (Fig.  
18 7A); this observation is reasonable because metabolism plays an important role in cellular  
19 growth through energy and biomass generation.

20 In order to confirm the aforementioned finding that genes with a greater number of  
21 transcript variants more frequently followed behaviors shown by the HK and ES genes, we  
22 next performed essentiality simulation for the metabolic genes using 60 cancer metabolic  
23 models; resulting growth rates of the cancer metabolic models were predicted using  
24 constraint-based flux analysis with each gene knocked out individually (see Experimental). In

1 each model, the deleted genes were considered to be essential if the resulting predicted  
2 growth rate is lower than 5% of the maximum growth rate. As a result, none of the genes with  
3 a single transcript were predicted to be essential, while genes having 2 to 7 transcript variants  
4 were increasingly predicted to essential; however, the percentages of essential genes in the  
5 groups having 2 to 7 transcript variants were low (Fig. 7B and Table S5, ESI†). Taken  
6 together, the results from the simulation of 60 cancer cell metabolic models support our  
7 hypothesis that genes having a greater number of transcript variants are more likely  
8 associated with cellular essentiality.

9

## 10 **Conclusions**

11 In this study, we examined functional characteristics of genes according to the number of  
12 transcript variants (or splice variants) at genome-scale. It was found that genes having a  
13 greater number of transcript variants showed characteristics more similar to those of the HK  
14 and ES genes, suggesting that these genes play biologically more important roles. Biological  
15 importance of these genes with a greater number of transcript variants was further supported  
16 by greater conservation of orthologs across vertebrates, more complex regulations by greater  
17 number of transcription factors and microRNAs, and more hub-like properties in the human  
18 PPI network compared with genes having fewer transcript variants. Finally, we employed 60  
19 cancer genome-scale metabolic models to further examine correlation between the  
20 essentiality of genes and the number of transcript variants. Genes having a greater number of  
21 transcript variants caused more deleterious effects on cell essentiality upon their knockouts.  
22 In summary, several different genome-wide analyses on the genes having different number of  
23 transcript variants consistently suggested that those genes having greater number of transcript  
24 variants indeed play biologically more important roles, and thus these genes and various

1 transcript variants produced from these genes should receive much more attention in  
2 biological studies.

3

## 4 **Experimental**

### 5 **Sources of data on human genes used for various comparative analyses**

6 Data on a total of 21,983 protein-coding genes (covering both multi- and single-exon) and  
7 their transcripts including splice variants were downloaded from the Ensembl BioMart  
8 (release 78).<sup>37</sup> Only the protein-coding genes, not pseudogenes, were considered, but in case  
9 of their transcript variants (or splice variants), those given any category of the Transcript  
10 Support Level (TSL) were considered because they all have the chance to influence cellular  
11 physiology. When only transcripts having the TSL category of ts11 were counted for the HK,  
12 TS, ES and NE genes, it was not possible to observe the differences in the number of their  
13 transcript variants; this contrasts with the data presented in Figure 2A. In fact, the percentage  
14 of the transcript variants with the ts11 category was only 27.1% among all the transcript  
15 variants theoretically and/or experimentally identified in human genes. Therefore, it was  
16 considered reasonable to treat all the transcript variants to more precisely grasp hidden  
17 features of transcript variants of the human genes.

18 Information on 3,804 HK and 2,293 TS genes were obtained from Eisenberg et al.  
19 (2013)<sup>14</sup> and Chang et al. (2011),<sup>12</sup> respectively. Information on 2,472 ES and 3,811 NE genes  
20 was collected from Georgi et al. (2013).<sup>13</sup> As to the analysis of metabolic genes, those defined  
21 in the human generic metabolic model Recon 2 were considered.<sup>36</sup> Finally, the orthologs data  
22 in 64 vertebrates were obtained from OrthoDB, and among them, only human orthologs were  
23 selected.<sup>17</sup> Tissue-specific proteome expression data were obtained from Uhlén et al (2015),<sup>15</sup>  
24 which were used to analyze tissue-specific expressions of protein-associated genes in 60

1 groups, and the HK, TS, ES and NE genes. The 32 human tissues were considered in this  
2 study.

3

#### 4 **Analysis of microRNA and transcription factor regulating human genes**

5 Information on target genes regulated by transcription factors and microRNAs was obtained  
6 from two experimentally validated databases, HTRIdb<sup>21</sup> and miRTarBase,<sup>22</sup> respectively.  
7 Ensembl gene IDs for genes obtained from the Ensembl BioMart were next converted to  
8 Entrez gene IDs used in the HTRIdb and miRTarBase using gene2ensembl available at the  
9 NCBI FTP Site (Feb. 2015) in order to map the genes onto those regulated by microRNAs  
10 and transcription factors. As a result of the gene ID conversion, 17,362 genes were  
11 considered for this analysis, and the numbers of microRNAs and transcription factors  
12 regulating them were counted. For the statistical significances, one-sided Wilcoxon rank sum  
13 tests were performed for each pair of the groups with different number of transcript variants  
14 presented in Figure 5 (Table S6 and S7, ESI†).

15

#### 16 **Analysis of protein-protein interaction network for the genes with a single transcript 17 and multiple transcript variants**

18 Protein interactome data were downloaded from the Protein Interaction Network Analysis  
19 (PINA) 2.0 database.<sup>25</sup> This network contains a total of 17,109 nodes and 166,776 edges,  
20 each representing proteins and their interactions, respectively. NetworkX version 1.8  
21 (<http://networkx.lanl.gov/>) python package was used to calculate degree distributions of protein  
22 nodes. The same statistical procedure used for the target genes regulated by microRNAs and  
23 transcription factors was used for this analysis to obtain statistical significances (Fig. 6). For  
24 the analysis of correlations between the degree of protein disorder and the number of

1 transcript variants, the degree of protein disorder was calculated using a python script  
2 available at MobiDB 2.0.<sup>28</sup>

3

#### 4 ***In silico* genome-scale metabolic simulation**

5 Metabolic simulations are typically conducted by using an optimization technique for a  
6 metabolic model that has stoichiometric coefficients of all the metabolites in metabolic  
7 reactions that appear to be present in an organism.<sup>38</sup> The genome-scale metabolic models are  
8 usually underdetermined systems for which the optimization is needed, and the objective  
9 function is typically set to maximization of biomass formation for human cancer cells and  
10 microorganisms.<sup>35</sup> In contrast to kinetic modeling, this genome-scale metabolic modeling  
11 does not require kinetic parameters, but optionally can take omics data which can be set as  
12 optimization constraints for a human system.<sup>39</sup> In this study, recently reported 60 NCI-60  
13 cancer cell line-specific metabolic models were used for the metabolic simulations.<sup>34</sup> Gene  
14 essentiality simulation was conducted using minimization of metabolic adjustment  
15 (MOMA).<sup>40</sup> Essential genes were defined as genes causing the cellular growth rate lower than  
16 5 % of its maximum value upon their knockouts. All the metabolic simulations were  
17 conducted under the COBRApy environment<sup>41</sup> with Gurobi Optimizer (Gurobi Optimization,  
18 Inc., Houston, TX).

19

#### 20 **Acknowledgements**

21 We thank Jae Ho Shin and Yun Sung Cho for critical comments on the manuscript. This work  
22 was supported by the Bio-Synergy Research Project (2012M3A9C4048759) of the Ministry  
23 of Science, ICT and Future Planning through the National Research Foundation.

24

## 1 Competing financial interests

2 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

3

## 4 References

- 5 1. T. Maniatis, *Science*, 1991, **251**, 33-34.
- 6 2. Y. Barash, J. A. Calarco, W. Gao, Q. Pan, X. Wang, O. Shai, B. J. Blencowe and B. J.  
7 Frey, *Nature*, 2010, **465**, 53-59.
- 8 3. Q. Pan, O. Shai, L. J. Lee, B. J. Frey and B. J. Blencowe, *Nat. Genet.*, 2008, **40**, 1413-  
9 1415.
- 10 4. H. D. Li, R. Menon, G. S. Omenn and Y. Guan, *Trends Genet.*, 2014, **30**, 340-347.
- 11 5. Z. Wang, M. Gerstein and M. Snyder, *Nat. Rev. Genet.*, 2009, **10**, 57-63.
- 12 6. E. T. Wang, R. Sandberg, S. Luo, I. Khrebukova, L. Zhang, C. Mayr, S. F. Kingsmore,  
13 G. P. Schroth and C. B. Burge, *Nature*, 2008, **456**, 470-476.
- 14 7. M. Buljan, G. Chalancon, S. Eustermann, G. P. Wagner, M. Fuxreiter, A. Bateman and  
15 M. M. Babu, *Mol Cell*, 2012, **46**, 871-883.
- 16 8. A. Sinha and H. A. Nagarajaram, *J. Proteome. Res.*, 2013, **12**, 1980-1988.
- 17 9. A. Sinha and H. A. Nagarajaram, *Proteomics*, 2014, **14**, 2242-2248.
- 18 10. C. J. Tsai, B. Ma and R. Nussinov, *Trends Biochem. Sci.*, 2009, **34**, 594-600.
- 19 11. A. J. Butte, V. J. Dzau and S. B. Glueck, *Physiol. Genomics*, 2001, **7**, 95-96.
- 20 12. C. W. Chang, W. C. Cheng, C. R. Chen, W. Y. Shu, M. L. Tsai, C. L. Huang and I. C.  
21 Hsu, *PLoS One*, 2011, **6**, e22859.
- 22 13. B. Georgi, B. F. Voight and M. Bucan, *PLoS Genet.*, 2013, **9**, e1003484.
- 23 14. E. Eisenberg and E. Y. Levanon, *Trends Genet.*, 2013, **29**, 569-574.
- 24 15. M. Uhlen, L. Fagerberg, B. M. Hallstrom, C. Lindskog, P. Oksvold, A. Mardinoglu, A.  
25 Sivertsson, C. Kampf, E. Sjostedt, A. Asplund, I. Olsson, K. Edlund, E. Lundberg, S.  
26 Navani, C. A. Szigartyo, J. Odeberg, D. Djureinovic, J. O. Takanen, S. Hober, T. Alm,  
27 P. H. Edqvist, H. Berling, H. Tegel, J. Mulder, J. Rockberg, P. Nilsson, J. M. Schwenk,  
28 M. Hamsten, K. von Feilitzen, M. Forsberg, L. Persson, F. Johansson, M. Zwahlen, G.  
29 von Heijne, J. Nielsen and F. Ponten, *Science*, 2015, **347**, 1260419.
- 30 16. R. L. Tatusov, E. V. Koonin and D. J. Lipman, *Science*, 1997, **278**, 631-637.
- 31 17. E. V. Kriventseva, N. Rahman, O. Espinosa and E. M. Zdobnov, *Nucleic Acids Res.*,  
32 2008, **36**, D271-275.
- 33 18. S. Federhen, *Nucleic Acids Res.*, 2012, **40**, D136-143.
- 34 19. J. J. Smith, S. Kuraku, C. Holt, T. Sauka-Spengler, N. Jiang, M. S. Campbell, M. D.  
35 Yandell, T. Manousaki, A. Meyer, O. E. Bloom, J. R. Morgan, J. D. Buxbaum, R.  
36 Sachidanandam, C. Sims, A. S. Garruss, M. Cook, R. Krumlauf, L. M. Wiedemann, S.  
37 A. Sower, W. A. Decatur, J. A. Hall, C. T. Amemiya, N. R. Saha, K. M. Buckley, J. P.  
38 Rast, S. Das, M. Hirano, N. McCurley, P. Guo, N. Rohner, C. J. Tabin, P. Piccinelli, G.  
39 Elgar, M. Ruffier, B. L. Aken, S. M. Searle, M. Muffato, M. Pignatelli, J. Herrero, M.  
40 Jones, C. T. Brown, Y. W. Chung-Davidson, K. G. Nanlohy, S. V. Libants, C. Y. Yeh,  
41 D. W. McCauley, J. A. Langeland, Z. Panzer, B. Fritzsche, P. J. de Jong, B. Zhu, L. L.  
42 Fulton, B. Theising, P. Fliccek, M. E. Bronner, W. C. Warren, S. W. Clifton, R. K.

- 1 Wilson and W. Li, *Nat. Genet.*, 2013, **45**, 415-421, 421e411-412.
- 2 20. M. S. Ebert and P. A. Sharp, *Cell*, 2012, **149**, 515-524.
- 3 21. L. A. Bovolenta, M. L. Acencio and N. Lemke, *BMC Genomics*, 2012, **13**, 405.
- 4 22. S. D. Hsu, Y. T. Tseng, S. Shrestha, Y. L. Lin, A. Khaleel, C. H. Chou, C. F. Chu, H. Y.  
5 Huang, C. M. Lin, S. Y. Ho, T. Y. Jian, F. M. Lin, T. H. Chang, S. L. Weng, K. W. Liao,  
6 I. E. Liao, C. C. Liu and H. D. Huang, *Nucleic Acids Res.*, 2014, **42**, D78-85.
- 7 23. M. L. Mucenski, K. McLain, A. B. Kier, S. H. Swerdlow, C. M. Schreiner, T. A.  
8 Miller, D. W. Pietryga, W. J. Scott, Jr. and S. S. Potter, *Cell*, 1991, **65**, 677-689.
- 9 24. D. D. Licatalosi and R. B. Darnell, *Nat. Rev. Genet.*, 2010, **11**, 75-87.
- 10 25. M. J. Cowley, M. Pinese, K. S. Kassahn, N. Waddell, J. V. Pearson, S. M. Grimmond,  
11 A. V. Biankin, S. Hautaniemi and J. Wu, *Nucleic Acids Res.*, 2012, **40**, D862-865.
- 12 26. H. Jeong, S. P. Mason, A. L. Barabasi and Z. N. Oltvai, *Nature*, 2001, **411**, 41-42.
- 13 27. M. Buljan, G. Chalancon, A. K. Dunker, A. Bateman, S. Balaji, M. Fuxreiter and M.  
14 M. Babu, *Curr Opin Struct Biol*, 2013, **23**, 443-450.
- 15 28. E. Potenza, T. Di Domenico, I. Walsh and S. C. Tosatto, *Nucleic Acids Res.*, 2015, **43**,  
16 D315-320.
- 17 29. T. Shlomi, T. Benyamini, E. Gottlieb, R. Sharan and E. Ruppin, *PLoS Comput. Biol.*,  
18 2011, **7**, e1002018.
- 19 30. A. Mardinoglu, R. Agren, C. Kampf, A. Asplund, M. Uhlen and J. Nielsen, *Nat.*  
20 *Commun.*, 2014, **5**, 3083.
- 21 31. T. Shlomi, M. N. Cabili and E. Ruppin, *Mol. Syst. Biol.*, 2009, **5**, 263.
- 22 32. R. Agren, A. Mardinoglu, A. Asplund, C. Kampf, M. Uhlen and J. Nielsen, *Mol. Syst.*  
23 *Biol.*, 2014, **10**, 721.
- 24 33. K. Yizhak, O. Gabay, H. Cohen and E. Ruppin, *Nat. Commun.*, 2013, **4**, 2632.
- 25 34. K. Yizhak, S. E. Le Devedec, V. M. Rogkoti, F. Baenke, V. C. de Boer, C. Frezza, A.  
26 Schulze, B. van de Water and E. Ruppin, *Mol. Syst. Biol.*, 2014, **10**, 744.
- 27 35. O. Folger, L. Jerby, C. Frezza, E. Gottlieb, E. Ruppin and T. Shlomi, *Mol. Syst. Biol.*,  
28 2011, **7**, 501.
- 29 36. I. Thiele, N. Swainston, R. M. Fleming, A. Hoppe, S. Sahoo, M. K. Aurich, H.  
30 Haraldsdottir, M. L. Mo, O. Rolfsson, M. D. Stobbe, S. G. Thorleifsson, R. Agren, C.  
31 Bolling, S. Bordel, A. K. Chavali, P. Dobson, W. B. Dunn, L. Endler, D. Hala, M.  
32 Hucka, D. Hull, D. Jameson, N. Jamshidi, J. J. Jonsson, N. Juty, S. Keating, I.  
33 Nookaew, N. Le Novere, N. Malys, A. Mazein, J. A. Papin, N. D. Price, E. Selkov, Sr.,  
34 M. I. Sigurdsson, E. Simeonidis, N. Sonnenschein, K. Smallbone, A. Sorokin, J. H.  
35 van Beek, D. Weichart, I. Goryanin, J. Nielsen, H. V. Westerhoff, D. B. Kell, P.  
36 Mendes and B. O. Palsson, *Nat. Biotechnol.*, 2013, **31**, 419-425.
- 37 37. R. J. Kinsella, A. Kahari, S. Haider, J. Zamora, G. Proctor, G. Spudich, J. Almeida-  
38 King, D. Staines, P. Derwent, A. Kerhornou, P. Kersey and P. Flicek, *Database*  
39 *(Oxford)*, 2011, **2011**, bar030.
- 40 38. J. D. Orth, I. Thiele and B. O. Palsson, *Nat. Biotechnol.*, 2010, **28**, 245-248.
- 41 39. J. Y. Ryu, H. U. Kim and S. Y. Lee, *Integr. Biol.*, 2015, DOI: 10.1039/c5ib00002e.
- 42 40. D. Segre, D. Vitkup and G. M. Church, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 2002, **99**, 15112-  
43 15117.
- 44 41. A. Ebrahim, J. A. Lerman, B. O. Palsson and D. R. Hyduke, *BMC Syst. Biol.*, 2013, **7**,  
45 74.

46

1

2 **Figures**

3 **Fig. 1** Distribution of genes with respect to the number of their transcript variants. Among  
4 21,983 genes obtained from Ensembl BioMart<sup>37</sup>, 3,728 genes were found to have a single  
5 transcript, while the remaining genes had 2 to 77 transcript variants. There were 6.95  
6 transcript variants per human gene on average. The inset shows distribution of 219 genes,  
7 each having more than 29 transcript variants, which represents 0.01% of human genes.

8

9 **Fig. 2** Correlations between the number of transcript variants of human genes and the  
10 functional characteristics (i.e., HK, housekeeping; TS, tissue-selective; ES, essential; and NE,  
11 non-essential). (A) Distribution of the number of transcript variants for the HK ( $n = 3,804$ ),  
12 TS ( $n = 2,293$ ), ES ( $n = 2,472$ ), and NE genes ( $n = 3,811$ ). Boxes represent the 25<sup>th</sup>-75<sup>th</sup>  
13 percentiles, while whiskers represent the 5<sup>th</sup>-95<sup>th</sup> percentiles. The line inside the box  
14 indicates the median value of the distribution. (B) The percentages of the HK and TS genes,  
15 and (C) ES and NE genes among all the genes present in each group according to the number  
16 of transcript variants. The  $x$ -axis is the group name corresponding to the number of transcript  
17 variants and the  $y$ -axis is the percentages of HK, TS, ES, and NE genes in each group.  
18 Statistical significances for the presence of HK, TS, ES and NE genes in each group with  
19 different number of transcript variants were calculated using Fisher's exact test (Table S3,  
20 ESI†).

21

22 **Fig. 3** A heat map showing percentage of the number of expressed genes in each group  
23 against each tissue. Tissue-specific expression data were obtained from proteomics studies on  
24 32 different human tissues.<sup>15</sup> The percentage represents the number of expressed genes

1 among all the genes in each tissue. Tissue names are shown in the *x*-axis, and group names  
2 corresponding to the number of transcript variants, and the HK, TS, ES, and NE genes are  
3 indicated on the *y*-axis. Abbreviations are: HK, housekeeping; TS, tissue-selective; ES,  
4 essential; NE, non-essential.

5  
6 **Fig. 4** A heat map showing the percentages of orthologs in gene groups having different  
7 transcript variants in 64 vertebrate species. Data on orthologs were obtained from OrthoDB.<sup>17</sup>  
8 The percentage represents the number of orthologs among all the genes present in the  
9 corresponding gene group and species. The *x*-axis shows the vertebrate species, which were  
10 clustered according to their order; the order names are shown only if it has more than 3  
11 relevant species. The *y*-axis is the group name corresponding to the number of transcript  
12 variants, and the HK, TS, ES, and NE genes. Abbreviations are: HK, housekeeping; TS,  
13 tissue-selective; ES, essential; NE, non-essential.

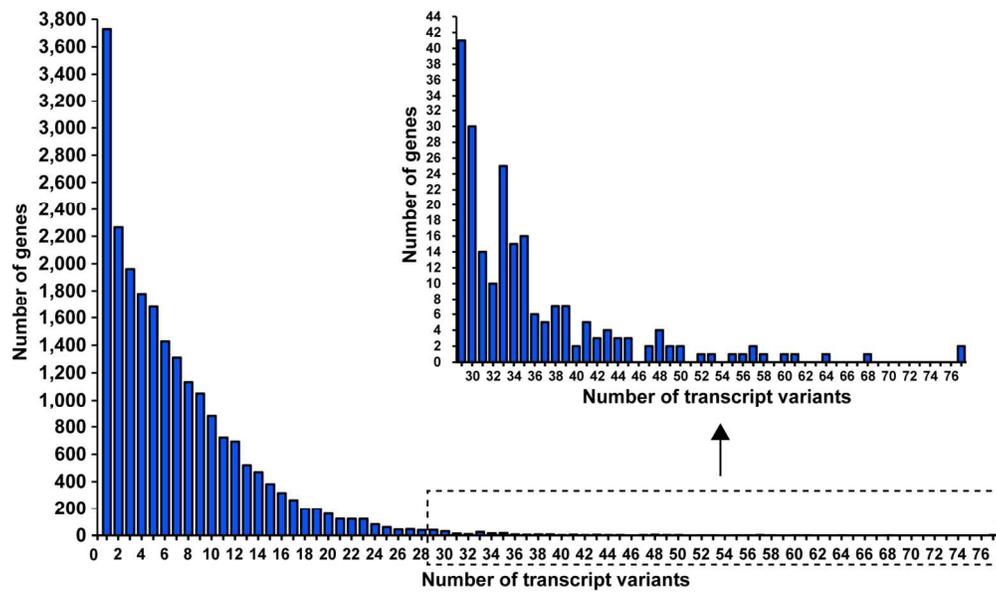
14  
15 **Fig. 5** Bubble plots representing average numbers of (A) transcription factors and (B)  
16 microRNAs regulating genes in each group. Information on target genes regulated by  
17 transcription factors and microRNAs was obtained from HTRIdb<sup>21</sup> and miRTarBase,<sup>22</sup>  
18 respectively. Average numbers of transcription factors and microRNAs increased for the  
19 genes having a greater number of transcript variants. Red and green bubbles represent groups  
20 having the HK and ES genes, respectively. Blue bubbles represent 60 groups classified by the  
21 number of transcript variants. The TS and NE genes (6.95 and 7.64 transcript variants on  
22 average, respectively) appeared to be regulated by 2.36 and 2.87 transcription factors, and  
23 1.19 and 1.94 microRNAs, respectively. The bubbles for these genes are not shown because  
24 they block those of genes in 60 groups. Bubble size indicates the number of genes in each

1 group. Statistical significances calculated for each pair of the groups using Wilcoxon rank  
2 sum test are available in Table S6 and S7, ESI†. Abbreviations are: HK, housekeeping; TS,  
3 tissue-selective; ES, essential; NE, non-essential.

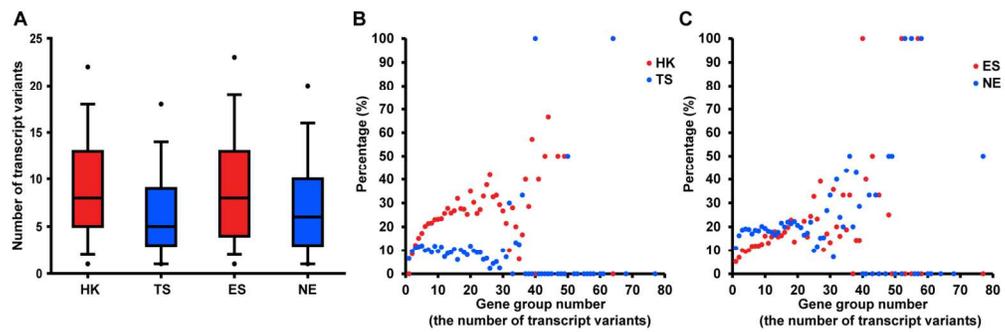
4  
5 **Fig. 6** Bubble plot showing the average degrees of proteins encoded by human genes in 60  
6 groups, and the HK and ES genes in human PPI network. Protein interactome data were  
7 downloaded from PINA 2.0 database.<sup>25</sup> This network contains 17,109 nodes and 166,776  
8 edges. The three bubble plots were presented for (A) all the proteins, and proteins with (B)  
9 0% disorder only and with (C) 50-70% disorder only. Red and green bubbles represent  
10 groups having the HK and ES genes, respectively. Blue bubbles represent 60 groups  
11 classified by the number of transcript variants. Proteins encoded by the TS and NE genes (on  
12 average 6.95 and 7.64 transcript variants, respectively) had average degrees of 13.87 and  
13 22.08, respectively. The bubbles for these genes are not shown because they block those of  
14 genes in 60 groups. Bubble size indicates the number of genes in each group. Statistical  
15 significances calculated for each pair of the groups using Wilcoxon rank sum test are  
16 available in Table S8, ESI†. Abbreviations are: HK, housekeeping; TS, tissue-selective; ES,  
17 essential; NE, non-essential.

18  
19 **Fig. 7** Bubble plots showing (A) the percentage of metabolic genes to the total genes found in  
20 each group having different number of transcript variants and (B) the percentage of predicted  
21 essential genes for each group in 60 NCI-60 cancer cell line-specific metabolic models. Red  
22 and green bubbles represent groups having the HK and ES genes, respectively. Blue bubbles  
23 represent 60 groups classified by the number of transcript variants. The HK and ES genes  
24 (9.12 and 9.29 transcript variants on average, respectively) had 13.3% and 10.6% metabolic

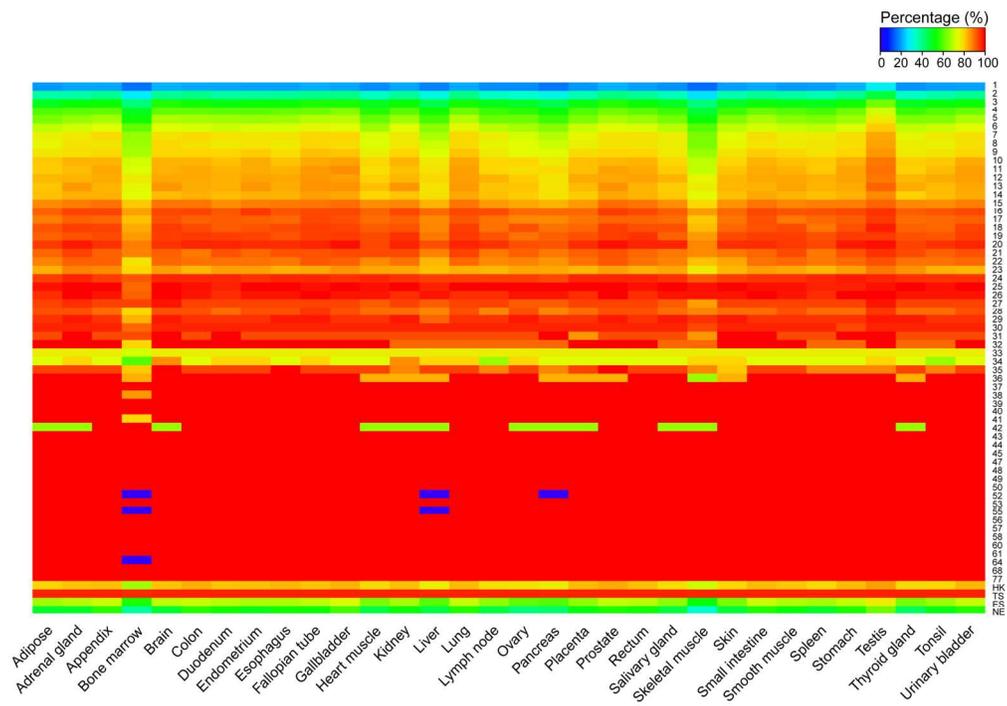
1 genes, and 4.5% and 4.4% essential genes, respectively. The TS and NE genes (6.95 and 7.64  
2 transcript variants on average, respectively) had 14.8% and 10.9% metabolic genes, and 1.4%  
3 and 1.2% essential genes, respectively. The bubbles for the TS and NE genes are not shown  
4 because they block those of genes in 60 groups. Bubble size indicates the number of genes in  
5 each group. Abbreviations are: HK, housekeeping; TS, tissue-selective; ES, essential; NE,  
6 non-essential.



342x209mm (150 x 150 DPI)

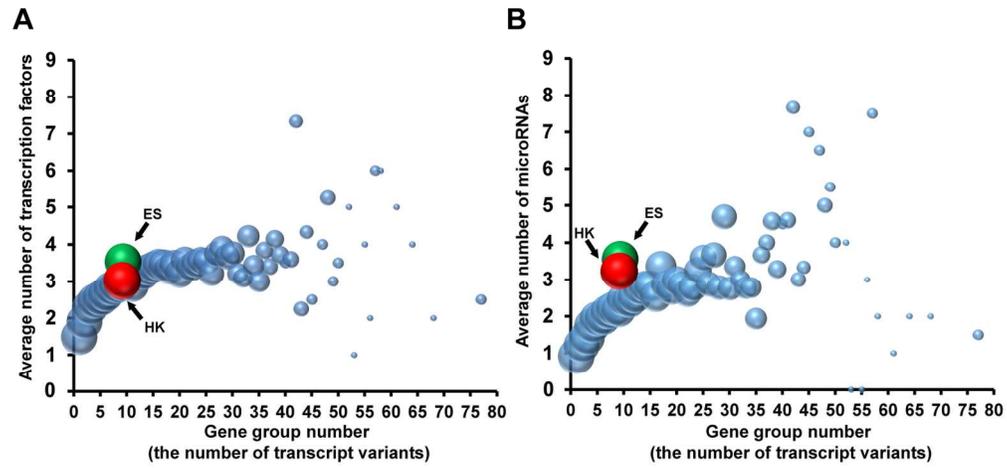


343x110mm (150 x 150 DPI)

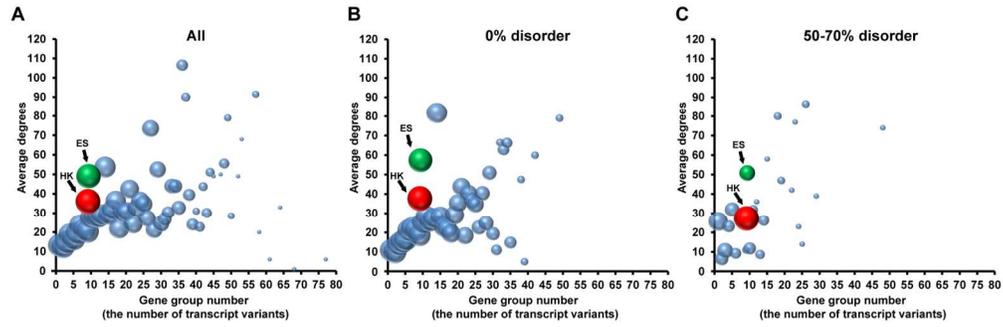


360x252mm (150 x 150 DPI)

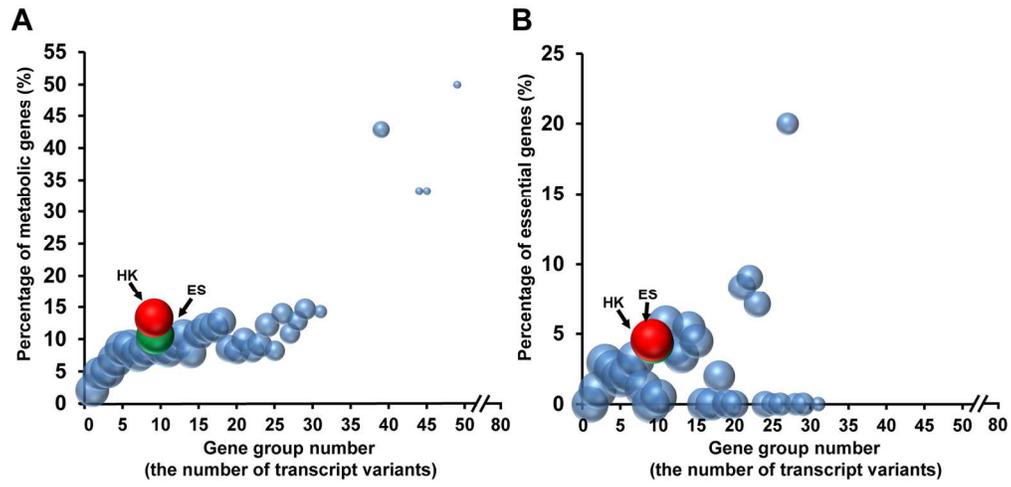




349x161mm (150 x 150 DPI)



355x113mm (150 x 150 DPI)



360x172mm (150 x 150 DPI)