Evidence That STK19 Is Not an NRAS-dependent Melanoma Driver

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SUMMARY

STK19 was proposed to be a cancer driver, and recent work by Yin et al. (2019) in Cell suggested that the frequently recurring STK19 D89N substitution represents a gain-of-function change, allowing increased phosphorylation of NRAS to enhance melanocyte transformation. Here we show that the STK19 gene has been incorrectly annotated, and that the expressed protein is 110 amino acids shorter than indicated by current databases. The “cancer driving” STK19 D89N substitution is thus outside the coding region. We also fail to detect evidence of the mutation affecting STK19 expression; instead, it is a UV signature mutation, found in the promoter of other genes as well. Furthermore, STK19 is exclusively nuclear and chromatin-associated, while no evidence for it being a kinase was found. The data in this Matters Arising article raise fundamental questions about the recently proposed role for STK19 in melanoma progression via a function as an NRAS kinase, suggested by Yin et al. (2019) in Cell. See also the response by Yin et al. (2020), published in this issue.

INTRODUCTION

Analysis of large-scale exome data led to the identification of STK19 as a potential cancer driver gene, which harbors somatic hotspot mutations in melanoma (Hodis et al., 2012) and skin basal cell carcinoma (Bonilla et al., 2016). STK19 is also listed among the top melanoma driver genes (Lawrence et al., 2014). These studies specifically annotated an STK19 mutation (a C to T transition) causing a change at annotated amino acid 89 from aspartic acid to asparagine (D89N) as the melanoma driver. However, the mechanism underlying transformation to malignancy was unknown. A study by Yin et al. (2019) in Cell recently proposed that STK19 functions as an NRAS-activating kinase and that D89N represents a gain-of-function change, which increases STK19-mediated NRAS phosphorylation, thereby increasing the malignancy of NRAS-mutated melanomas (Yin et al., 2019).

We discovered STK19 in a multi-omic screening approach designed to uncover factors with a role in the cellular response to UV-generated DNA damage (Boeing et al., 2016). Given that it had previously been suggested that STK19 is a protein kinase, and that STK19 had been uncovered as a melanoma driver, this was potentially extremely interesting. However, it soon became evident to us that much of the information on the STK19 gene and its annotated protein product is mistaken. Here we present the evidence indicating that the STK19 gene has been incorrectly annotated, with the expressed gene-product being 110 amino acids shorter than indicated by current databases, so that the only product of note is a protein of 29 kDa, not 41 kDa. Indeed, the “D89N” mutation is neither a coding mutation nor a melanoma driver, and STK19 is a nuclear, DNA-binding protein, which does not appear likely to be a kinase. In light of these findings, we suggest that the conclusions on STK19 reported by Yin et al. (2019) need to be reconsidered.

RESULTS

A 41 kDa Isoform of STK19 Protein Does Not Exist

The paper by Yin et al. (2019) is entirely focused on the study of a 41 kDa STK19 isoform and its effect on NRAS activation. Indeed, western blots showing this 41kDa isoform are found throughout the paper, and almost all conceptually important experiments are based on its existence as the main form of STK19. The idea that STK19 is a 41 kDa protein originates in experiments based on its existence as the main form of STK19. The idea that STK19 is a 41 kDa protein originates in its initial annotation 30 years ago, and given the complexity of the locus in which the gene is located as well as the tools available at that time, mistakes are understandable. MHC III is the most gene-dense locus in the human genome (Xie et al., 2003), with the region around STK19 being particularly compact (Figure 1A). Near STK19, NELFE and DXO are located on the reverse strand, while SKIV2L, STK19 itself, and C4A are on the forward strand. The DXO gene is located between...
SKIV2L and STK19, but is so short (~2.4 kb in total) that transcrip-
tional readthrough from the upstream SKIV2L gene results in some mRNA from this gene being detected up to the begin-
ning of STK19 (Figure S1), underscoring the challenge in cor-
correctly annotating the 5' end of the STK19 gene, even with
the detail provided by genome browsers today.

A first, strong indication that the human STK19 gene is mis-an-
notated is provided by the fact that even though the STK19 pro-
tein is highly conserved in vertebrates, the first 110 amino acids are not. If the present annotation were correct, only the hominid
human STK19 protein would contain this N-terminal 110 amino acid region (Figure S2A). Indeed, the human and mouse proteins are almost identical, except for the N-terminal 110 amino acids, which are entirely absent in the mouse (Figure 1B and S2B). These findings are of particular relevance given that several experiments

Figure 1. Correcting STK19 Gene Annotation

(A) Schematic representation of the gene-dense region around STK19, drawn to scale. Black arrowheads indicate direction of transcription.

(B) Schematic representation of mouse and human STK19 protein homology, as the proteins are currently annotated. Black bars indicate what is being annotated as a conserved domain, whereas the white bar indicates a domain supposedly present only in the human isoform. Below, purple bars indicate amino acid identity (see also Figure S2). The position of amino acid D89 in the human STK19 is also indicated.

(C) Diagram of the 5' region of STK19 gene aligned to (top to bottom) CAGE (TSS) data from the FANTOM project, TT-seq data from HEK293 cells, and the proposed, corrected STK19 5' annotation. Reverse strand reads are in pink, and forward strand reads are purple.

(D) mRNA qPCR data on STK19 splice junctions 1 (J1), 2 (J2) and 3 (J3). Splice junction numbers refer to the current STK19 annotation shown above. Graphs show expression relative to GAPDH. Error bars represent ± SD. Statistically significant differences (p < 0.05, multiple t tests, Holm-Sidak correction) of three replicates are indicated with “*” when relevant. J1 is only detected at background level.

(E) Splicing junction reads found in melanoma patient samples (n = 81). Splice junction numbers refer to the current STK19 annotation (see D.).
Figure 2. Correcting STK19 Protein Annotation

(A) Graph showing STK19 peptide counts from Proteomics BD and Peptide Atlas, aligned to the amino acid position in STK19, above a schematic representation of STK19 as currently annotated showing the conserved domain, the miss-annotated domain and the position of “D89” mutation.

(B) As in (A), but showing average peptide intensity found by mass spectrometry analysis of overexpressed, immunoprecipitated 41 kDa STK19 protein.

(C) Fold change (Relative to untransfected) for siRNA STK19.

(D) Western blot showing expression of STK19 and Vinculin in HEK293, Hela, SK-MEL-2 and UACC62 cells.

(E) Western blot showing expression of STK19 and Vinculin in WT and KO HEK293 and Hela cells.

(F) mRNA expression of STK19 relative to HEK293 for J2 and J3.

(G) Western blot showing expression of STK19 and Vinculin in HEK293, Hela, and SK-MEL-2 UACC62 cells under high and low exposure conditions.

(legend continued on next page)
In light of the data reported by Yin et al. (2019), we checked whether the melanoma cell lines used in their study might show a different mRNA isoform expression from those described above. For this purpose, we used splicing of the first exon-exon junction (J1) of the current annotation as a readout, with junctions 2 and 3 (J2 and J3) as controls (see schematic in Figure 1D, upper panel). Given that Yin et al. (2019) detected a 41 kDa protein in these cells, the encoding mRNA isoform, containing J1, must obviously be expressed. However, in two different melanoma cell lines used by Yin et al. (SK-MEL-2 and UACC 62), as well as two commonly used human cell lines (HEK293 and HeLa), J1 was not detected above background level by quantitative PCR of STK19 cDNA, while J2 and J3 were clearly detected (Figure 1D), consistent with the actual TSS residing in the 2nd exon of the annotated STK19 gene.

We also tested if expression of the annotated transcript might be specific to melanoma samples by analyzing the relative abundance of J1 reads compared to reads from the other splice junctions in the transcript (J2 to J7) using melanoma RNA-seq data from 81 patients. As shown in Figure 1E, J1 is detected only at background levels, whereas all other splice junctions are detected at similar, much higher levels. Together, these data indicate that the 5’ region of STK19 gene is presently mis-annotated, with the actual TSS located markedly downstream (~490 bp) from the currently annotated TSS. These data indicate that the annotated 41 kDa STK19 isoform is not expressed as its initiation codon lies outside of the actual STK19 gene.

Nevertheless, in a further effort to investigate whether an endogenous 41 kDa STK19 isoform might exist, we first analyzed the STK19 peptides found in the large proteomics database Proteomics BD (Schmidt et al., 2018) and in the Peptide Atlas database (Deutsch et al., 2008). The latter database provides a unique tool for targeted proteomics as it only accepts raw data that is analyzed so that specific peptides can be reliably quantified across independent experiments. Importantly, neither database contains reliable, unique peptides mapping to the first 110 amino acids of the currently annotated 41 kDa STK19 protein, with the first peptide detected starting at amino acid 115 of the currently annotated form (Figure 2A), as expected if trypsin cuts STK19 on the C-terminal side of lysine 114 (i.e., lysine 4 in the corrected annotation). It could be argued that a lack of detection by mass spectrometry of peptides over a certain region might merely be due to the characteristics of the tryptic peptides originating from that region, i.e., that they are intrinsically difficult to detect. We therefore performed proteomic analysis of STK19 using HEK293 cells expressing a doxycycline-inducible, transgene encoding a flag-tagged 41 kDa isoform protein and found that peptides from the first 110 aa of the annotated STK19 protein can be detected when it is exogenously expressed at all different levels of expression (Figure 2B). The lack of peptide detection from this region in the protein databases further indicates that this region is simply not encoded and thus not part of the endogenous STK19 protein.

To follow up on these findings, we performed western blot analysis in four different cell lines, two of which were used by Yin et al. and showed endogenous STK19 as a 41 kDa protein. In an effort to faithfully reproduce their results, we used the same STK19 antibody as Yin et al. (NPB3-39395, Novus Biologicals). To assess antibody specificity, siRNA-mediated STK19 knockdown was performed, which was efficient, as detected by qPCR (Figure 2C) and western blot analysis (Figure 2D, red arrow; lanes 2, 4, 6, and 8). Western blot analysis of these samples showed various non-specific bands that were unaffected by STK19 siRNA knockdown, while the only specific STK19 band migrated at 29 kDa (Figure 2D). This result was further confirmed in STK19 CRISPR knockout (KO) cell lines (Figure 2E). Note that STK19 protein levels in HeLa and HEK293 cells are somewhat elevated compared to the melanoma cell lines, which correlates with relatively higher mRNA expression in these cells (compare Figure 2F and 2D).

These results are in agreement with the predictions from gene expression- and proteomics studies, but inconsistent with those reported by Yin et al. Therefore, in order to test whether the diverging western blot results might be due to a difference in experimental approach, we obtained the cell extraction and western blot protocols used in Yin et al. from the Cui laboratory and repeated the analysis using their protocol. Again, we only detected a 29 kDa isoform (Figure 2G, red arrows), with no detectable 41 kDa protein in the human cell lines used by Yin et al. (2019).

STK19 is very lowly expressed and we have only been able to detect the endogenous form with the antibody from Novus Biologicals. We took our study one step further to investigate whether a 41 kDa isoform might be expressed and detected when using a STK19-encoding construct containing the 5′ regulatory region, the first three exons with their intervening introns, followed by a cDNA fusion of the remaining, uncontroversial exons of the STK19 gene (Figure 3A). 3′-seq data (Gregersen et al., 2019) had previously identified a single, unique STK19 transcription termination site (TTT) (Figure S3B), making it straightforward to correctly place a 2x-triple-Flag tag after the final amino acid of STK19. This STK19 mini-gene, which contains
The "D89N" Mutation Is Not in the Coding Region and Does Not Affect Protein- or Gene-Expression

Whether a 41 kDa STK19 isoform exists or not is crucial as the amino acid alteration in STK19 D89N reportedly represents a cancer-driving change, which would not be encoded in the endogenous promoter (EPr) and maintains normal STK19 regulation, including splicing across the first three exons relevant for isoform expression. Importantly, it enables visualization of any isoform that might not have been detectable due to the low level of endogenous STK19 expression and the difficulty in detecting the encoded protein with anti-STK19 antibodies. The EPr mini-gene construct was overexpressed by transient transfection into the four different cell lines previously used (including two used by Yin et al.), and the resulting samples were analyzed by western blotting (Figure 3B) and RT qPCR (Figure 3C). Again, no evidence for a protein corresponding to the annotated 41 kDa protein isoform was observed. Rather, the slowest migrating, specific band detected by anti-FLAG antibody corresponds to the 29 kDa isoform (which migrates at 34 kDa due to the 2x triple-Flag tag) (Figure 3B, lanes 2, 4, 6, and 8). A weaker, slightly faster migrating band, corresponding either to expression from the downstream ATG3 or possibly a degradation product, was also detected. Importantly, qPCR analysis further showed that whereas splice junction 2 (J2) increased ~25-fold compared to the endogenous gene in the same cells, expression of J1 did not increase after overexpression (Figure 3C; see graphic representation in 3A, lower panel). This further supports our data that J1 is not expressed and thus that the annotated 41 kDa STK19 protein isoform is not produced.

The "D89N" Mutation Is Not in the Coding Region and Does Not Affect Protein- or Gene-Expression

29 kDa STK19 protein described here (see Figure 3A, lower panel). Indeed, Yin et al. (2019) compared the (41 kDa) STK19 D89N protein with the wild type counterpart and expressed the mutant in both human cells and in mice treated with an STK19-directed small molecule inhibitor.

Although we show above that the STK19 mutation annotated as "D89N" is not in the coding region of STK19, the mutation might conceivably affect STK19 expression, either at the level of transcription or translation. To address this possibility, we introduced the "D89N" (C→T) mutation in the EPr mini-gene system (Figure 3A). As above, STK19 gene expression was analyzed by RT qPCR after transient transfection, and splice junction 1 (J1) was used as a readout of isoform expression. Again, only background levels of J1 could be detected, both with mutant and WT STK19 (Figure 4A), indicating that the mutation has no effect on start-site selection and isoform splicing. Next, we analyzed the possible changes "D89N" might cause to mRNA- and protein-expression. To do so, we took advantage of the Flp-In system (ThermoFisher) to generate HEK293 cell lines containing a single copy of the EPr transgene in a defined genomic location, to ensure that any expression changes were not due to differences in the number of gene copies or the location of integration between cell lines. Analysis by RT qPCR and western blot analysis of 2 WT clones and 2 "D89N" clones showed no evidence for changes in gene- or protein-expression upon introduction of the "D89N" mutation (Figure 4B, upper and lower panels, respectively). No changes in expression of the upstream DXO gene were observed either (Figure 4C). Moreover, because "D89N" appears to be a UV-induced mutation (see below), we also tested whether it affects the expression of STK19 after UV irradiation. Again, western blot analysis showed little or no difference in STK19 expression after UV-irradiation, neither from EPr WT nor from EPr "D89N" (Figure 4D).
Stable cell lines

EPr over-expression

Fold change (relative to endogenous)

HEK293  Hela  SK-MEL-2  UACC62

WT  WT  WT  WT  WT

EPr WT  EPr WT  EPr D89N  EPr D89N

12  12  50  37  25

0.4  0.4  0.5  0.3

ATG2

Fold change

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Stable cell lines

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Because the “D89N” mutation has been detected only in melanoma samples, we also analyzed melanoma RNA-seq data from patients to compare STK19 expression levels in the presence or absence of “D89N.” Although the number of cancer samples is low (n = 8; the full available cohort of TCGA melanoma samples), statistical analysis showed no significant difference in gene expression in patient samples containing “D89N,” for either STK19 or the upstream DXO gene (Figure 4E; p = 0.95 and p = 0.078, respectively, Mann Whitney U test). We also used these data to investigate the expression of the first splicing junction in patient samples. “D89N” mutation does not increase the read number at the first splice junction; indeed, no J1 reads were found in the “D89N” samples (Figure 4F). Visual analysis of “D89N” and WT raw sequencing reads also further confirms no notable difference in isoform- or gene expression levels (see Figure 4G for a representative sample, and Figure S4 for all samples).

Taken together, these data indicate that the presence of the “D89N” mutation in the promoter of STK19 neither affects gene- nor protein-expression, and it therefore seems highly unlikely to be a melanoma driver mutation. Therefore, the data reported by Yin et al. (2019) on effects of this mutation on NRAS activation and melanoma progression may need to be reconsidered.

**Evidence That “D89N” Is a Common UV Signature Mutation**

The data above indicate that the “D89N” mutation is not in the STK19 coding region, and this promoter mutation does not affect isoform-, gene- or protein-expression either. However, the nature of the “D89N” mutation remained unclear.

Interestingly, Fredriksson et al. (2017) recently showed that certain recurrent promoter mutations in melanoma are defined by a context-specific mutational signature. These mutations, located around the TSS of several genes, are caused by UV-irradiation and occur almost exclusively at cytosines flanked by the sequence signature TTCCG, and they do not have a functional role in gene expression. These mutations can be induced simply by UV-irradiating cells (Elliott et al., 2018; Fredriksson et al., 2017). Moreover, this specific mutation type is typically found in genes that remain actively transcribed after UV-irradiation, presumably as a consequence of transcription factors binding to this motif (Elliott et al., 2018; Fredriksson et al., 2017), which might prevent the association of the repair machinery with specific DNA sequences, as previously reported (Elliott et al., 2018; Perera et al., 2016; Sabarinathan et al., 2016).

Interestingly, the STK19 “D89N” mutation fulfills all the criteria for being such a context-specific promoter mutation. The STK19 gene continues to be expressed after UV irradiation (Figure 5A); the “D89N” mutation is a UV-signature mutation (a C→T transition); and it is located near the TSS (Figure 5B). Strikingly, the STK19 mutation actually occurs at a TTCCG motif and has a frequency of occurrence similar to the other mutations of the same kind described by Fredriksson et al. (2017) (Figure 5C).

Viewed in light of the experimental results above, these observations suggest that a mutation which previously resulted in STK19 being classed as a cancer driver is merely a UV-signature promoter mutation that has no functional consequence.

**STK19 Is a Nuclear Protein; Has Little or No Effect on MEK-AKT Signaling; and Does Not Appear to Be a Kinase**

NRAS activates cytoplasmic signaling pathways by recruiting effectors to the plasma membrane (Prior and Hancock, 2012). However, we find that STK19 is nuclear and very tightly chromatin-associated (Figure 6A and B). Indeed, even at high levels of overexpression, we failed to observe GFP-tagged STK19 in the cytoplasm or at membranes (Figure 6B). This is at odds with the proposed role for STK19 in phosphorylation of oncogenic NRAS at the plasma membrane (Yin et al., 2019), but agrees with previous data on the presence of a bi-partite nuclear localization motif in the protein sequence of STK19 and its subcellular localization (Gomez-Escobar et al., 1998).

As described above, the majority of the data shown by Yin et al. (2019) were obtained using the 41 kDa D89N STK19 isoform, which we argue is a physiologically irrelevant protein isoform. We investigated the possibility that the 29 kDa STK19 isoform might have an effect on NRAS pathway activation, in spite of its predominantly nuclear localization. For this purpose, we...
repeated an experiment performed by Yin et al., which investigated the effect of STK19 knockdown on NRAS signaling to MEK and AKT kinases in cell lines that either carry WT NRAS or the NRAS Q61R mutation. In their paper (Figures S1B, S1E and S1F), Yin et al. (2019) showed that STK19 knockdown in cells with NRAS Q61R mutation dramatically decreased MEK and AKT phosphorylation. In our repeat of this straightforward knockdown/Western blot experiment, we were unable to detect any notable change in the phosphorylation events signifying NRAS activation, using the same cell lines as Yin et al. (2019), in spite of efficacious STK19 depletion (Figure 6C).

As indicated by its name, STK19 (serine-threonine kinase 19) is annotated as a protein kinase, and Yin et al. (2019) developed an STK19-targeted small molecule kinase inhibitor and provided evidence that this inhibitor blocks oncogenic, NRAS-driven melanocyte malignant transformation and melanoma growth. Unfortunately, the kinase assays in Yin et al. (2019) were performed only with crude STK19-precipitates from cell extracts, or with semi-purified 41 kDa protein, at least partly from a commercial source (which, according to the manufacturer (Signal Chem), is only “>70% pure” (see Figure 6D, lanes 2–3), but never with highly purified, recombinant protein, or across chromatography fractions to provide evidence that the activity is indeed due to STK19 rather than a co-precipitated/contaminating protein. In all their experiments, it was the 41 kDa STK19 protein that was tested. This “unnatural” STK19 version contains a (conceivably unfolded) N-terminal domain, which is not normally part of the protein. Indeed, in our hands, the 41 kDa protein isoform shows low solubility and is unstable. By contrast, 29 kDa STK19 protein can be purified to virtual homogeneity and is stable and soluble. We tested whether the 29 kDa STK19 protein might have kinase activity. We also tested the commercially available GST-STK19 successfully used by Yin et al. (Signal Chem; 41 kDa STK19), as well as STK19-FLAG (29 kDa version) from human cell extracts, isolated by immunoprecipitation employing Yin et al.’s conditions. The kinase assays were performed as described by Yin et al. as well, with highly purified NRAS as the substrate (Figure 6D). Although background, radioactively labeled bands of uncertain origin were detected when using the impure STK19 fractions (lanes 2–5), no NRAS-specific signal was detected in any of the reactions (Compare reactions containing NRAS to controls without it (lane 2 versus lane 3; lane 4 versus lane 5; and lanes 6–9 versus lane 10)
Together, these data again indicate that the conclusions made by Yin et al. (2019) need to be reconsidered.

DISCUSSION

In this report, we provide evidence that STK19 encodes a 29 kDa protein. This conclusion is based on multiple independent lines of evidence. First, STK19 amino acid conservation is strictly limited to the region encoding the 29 kDa protein; the N-terminal region of the presently annotated 41 kDa STK19 protein is absent in other metazoans. Second, genomic analyses (CAGE, TT-Seq, RNA-Seq, qPCR and deep-sequencing analysis of splice junctions) all indicate that the STK19 TSS is located downstream of the junction of presently annotated exon 1 and 2. Third, mRNA analysis and protein analysis by mass spectrometry and western blotting of cells expressing the endogenous STK19 gene or additionally containing a construct mimicking the exon structure at the beginning of the gene, confirm that only a 29 kDa STK19 protein is expressed, in a variety of cell lines. These conclusions hold true both in WT cells and in cells expressing the STK19 “D89N” mutation. Importantly, we show that the “D89N” mutation is a UV-signature mutation (a C→T transition) located near the STK19 TSS, which has no effect on neither transcription levels, mRNA splicing, nor translation. Together, these data indicate that the 41 kDa STK19 isoform is not expressed, and thus argue that experiments performed with the D89N “cancer driver” are physiologically irrelevant.

We also failed to find evidence that STK19 is an NRAS-directed protein kinase. It is obviously difficult to make strong conclusions based on negative results, but our repeated inability to detect kinase activity with STK19 in vitro prompted us to further investigate the basis for the idea that it is a protein kinase. This possibility was first suggested ~20 years ago based primarily on similarity between STK19 (then called G11 or RP1) and the tyrosine kinase-transforming protein (TKFB) from Fujinami virus (Gomez-Escobar et al., 1998; Sargent et al., 1994). However, much has happened in the area of protein homology-modeling over recent decades, and by today’s standards this similarity simply is not significant. Indeed, we have performed numerous comparisons with STK19 using current software and have failed to uncover any homology to Fujinami virus TKFB, or any other kinase. Importantly, the STK19 homology previously uncovered was actually not even with the kinase domain of TKFB, i.e., amino acids 611–865, but instead with amino acids 191–340 of that protein (Sargent et al., 1994). Indeed, despite the high structural conservation of the catalytic domain of kinases (Knight et al., 2007; Taylor and Kornev, 2011), the protein sequence of STK19 cannot be convincingly aligned to any known protein kinase with current structural prediction tools such as Phyre (Kelley et al., 2015).

Figure 6. Evidence That STK19 Is Chromatin-Associated and That It Binds DNA

(A) STK19 western blot analysis after sub-cellular fractionation. “Chromatin 150 mM” and “Chromatin 500 mM” contain proteins extracted from the chromatin using 150 mM or 500 mM NaCl, respectively. Vinculin and histone H3 (H3) are used as markers for predominantly cytoplasmic and chromatin localization, respectively.

(B) Detection of STK19-flag-GFP (green) by microscopy. Image is overexposed to enable detection of any possible GFP specific signal outside the nucleus. DAPI-stained nuclei (blue) and ER calnexin (red) are shown as controls.

(C) Western blot analysis of AKT and MEK phosphorylation (p473 AKT and p217/221 MEK) before and after STK19 knockdown and their respective unphosphorylated controls. Vinculin is used as control. Please note that the blot-strip depicting STK19 and the loading control, vinculin, are repeated from Figure 2D, as these came from the same experiment.

(D) STK19 kinase reactions, utilizing the conditions used by Yin et al., 2019, with highly purified NRAS protein as the substrate. STK19-FLAG (STK19-F) was isolated from cells using the procedures described by Yin et al., while GST-STK19 was purchased from SignalChem. The autoradiograph on the left was generated by exposure of the silver-stained gel on the right. The migration of relevant proteins is indicated between the images. Note the many proteins co-immunoprecipitating with STK19 using Yin et al.’s conditions (lanes 4–5).
on sequence homology to winged-helix domains from DNA binding proteins (Figure S5). In agreement with this prediction, the purified 29 kDa protein indeed binds DNA (M.R.-M. and M.N.G., unpublished data). The mechanistic relevance of this result is presently being investigated, but we note that this finding is consistent with our previous data indicating that STK19 is recruited to DNA regions with UV-induced lesions (Boeing et al., 2016) and with its strong association with chromatin (Figure 6A).

In this connection, we also note that the “active site mutation” used by Yin et al. (2019) to negate STK19 kinase activity in their overexpression experiments in vivo is a lysine to proline change (in the annotated, 41 kDa STK19 isoform; K207 in the new, corrected annotation (29 kDa)). In kinases, a lysine in the catalytic site is found in the context of a highly conserved AxK kinase signature motif, which coordinates the ATP phosphates (Taylor and Kornev, 2011). By contrast, the STK19 K317 residue is found in the context of KAK317, making it highly unlikely to be part of a kinase catalytic site. A lysine to proline change will also potentially dramatically change the folding of the protein domain in question and might affect the STK19 interactome as well. Finally, we note that the NRAS phosphorylation site mapped by Yin et al. as being the target of STK19 kinase activity in vitro, NRAS serine 89, has not previously been detected by protein phosphorylation site mapping and is thus not listed among the NRAS phosphorylation sites in Phosphosite Plus, for example, questioning the physiological relevance of this in vitro phosphorylation event. Taken together, although the observations described above obviously cannot be taken as final proof that STK19 is not a protein kinase, they definitely suggest that this is unlikely and that this key issue needs to be investigated much more thoroughly before STK19 inhibitors are further developed.

In conclusion, the current STK19 annotation is incorrect. The only STK19 gene product is a 29 kDa protein, and no convincing evidence to support the existence of a 41 kDa isoform was uncovered, neither in normal nor melanoma cells. Any data based on its exogenous expression is therefore arguably physiologically irrelevant. Moreover, the incorrect STK19 annotation has led to it being wrongly identified as a melanoma driver. This underscores the importance of careful, manual curation of any newly identified cancer driver gene, as well as studies on healthy tissue to rule out any events unrelated to cancer when calling new drivers. Taken together, the multiple datasets and observation described herein challenge the conclusions recently published by Yin et al. (2019) in Cell.

**METHODS**

Detailed methods are provided in the online version of this paper and include the following:

- **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**
- **RESOURCE AVAILABILITY**
  - Lead contact
  - Materials availability
  - Data and code availability
- **EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS**
  - Cell lines and culture conditions
- **METHOD DETAILS**
  - Plasmid construction
  - Protein alignment and protein structure prediction
  - Generation of stable cell lines
  - UV irradiation conditions
  - siRNA and transient transfections
  - Quantitative PCR (qPCR)
  - Whole cell extract preparation, cell fractionation and western blotting
  - Immunoprecipitations of misannotated STK19 for mass spectrometry analysis
  - Microscopy
  - Generation of STK19 (29 kDa) baculovirus and protein expression
  - Purification of STK19
  - NRAS cloning, expression and purification
  - Immunoprecipitation of STK19-Flag
  - Kinase Assays
- **QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**
  - Analysis of RT-qPCR data
  - STK19 database peptide analysis and mass-spectrometry analysis of STK19 peptide intensities
  - Human melanoma patient datasets
  - Processing of raw RNA-seq data
  - Splicing reads analysis

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2020.04.014.

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**AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS**

M.R.-M. performed the experiments, with help from T.B. and M.N.G., as well as J.W., S.K., and M.I. Bioinformatic analysis was performed by K.L. and M.R.-M. performed the experiments, with help from T.B. and M.N.G., as well as J.W., S.K., and M.I. Bioinformatic analysis was performed by K.L. and M.R.-M. and J.Q.S. wrote the paper with input from all authors. C.S., J.D., and J.Q.S. supervised the work.

**DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**

The authors declare no competing interests.

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## STAR★METHODS

### KEY RESOURCES TABLE

| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---------------------|--------|------------|
| **Antibodies**       |        |            |
| Mouse monoclonal to Flag | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#F3165; RRID: AB_259529 |
| Mouse monoclonal to Vinculin | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#V9131; RRID: AB_477629 |
| Rabbit polyclonal to STK19 | Novus Biologicals | Cat#NBP2-33955 |
| Rabbit polyclonal to Histone H3 | Abcam | Cat#ab1791; RRID: AB_302613 |
| Anti-mouse HRP | Santa Cruz | Cat#sc-516102; RRID: AB_2687626 |
| Anti-rabbit HRP | Jackson ImmunoResearch | Cat#711-035-152; RRID: AB_10015282 |
| Anti-calnexin alexa 647 | abcam | Cat#ab202572 |
| Rabbit polyclonal to AKT | Cell signaling Technology | Cat#9272; RRID: AB_329827 |
| Rabbit polyclonal to phosphor-AKT (ser473) | Cell signaling Technology | Cat#9271; RRID: AB_329825 |
| Rabbit polyclonal to MEK1/2 | Cell signaling Technology | Cat#9122; RRID: AB_823567 |
| Rabbit polyclonal to phosphor-MEK1/2 (ser217/221) | Cell signaling Technology | Cat#9121; RRID: AB_331649 |
| **Bacterial and Virus Strains** |        |            |
| NEB 5-alpha Competent E. coli | NEB | Cat#C2988J |
| Rosetta 2(DE3) pLacI Competent Cells | Novagen | Cat#71404 |
| **Biological Samples** |        |            |
| **Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins** |    |            |
| Doxycycline | Clontech | Cat#8634-1 |
| Blasticidin | TOKU-E | Cat#B007 |
| Hygromycin B | TOKU-E | Cat#H011 |
| N-Ethylmaleimide (NEM) | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#E3876 |
| STK19 purified protein | This study | N/A |
| ULP-1 | Kind gift from Peter Cherepanov | N/A |
| 3xFLAG peptide | Peptide Chemistry, The Francis Crick Institute | N/A |
| **Critical Commercial Assays** |        |            |
| RNeasy kit | QIAGEN | Cat#74104 |
| RNase-Free DNase Set | QIAGEN | Cat#79254 |
| Taqman Reverse Transcriptase Reagents | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#N8080234 |
| **Experimental Models: Cell Lines** |        |            |
| Flip-In T-Rex HEK293 cells | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#R78007 |
| Flip-In T-Rex HEK293 EPr-STK19-2x3 flag cells | This study | N/A |
| Flip-In T-Rex HEK293 STK19-flag-GFP cells | This study | N/A |
| Flip-In T-Rex HEK293 mis-annotated STK19-flag cells | This study | N/A |
| Flip-In T-Rex HeLa cells | Kind gift from Stephen Taylor | N/A |
| UACC62 cell line | NCI-60 collection | N/A |
| SK-MEL-2 cell line | NCI-60 collection | N/A |
| **Oligonucleotides** |        |            |
| siGENOME Human STK19 (8859) siRNA - SMARTpool | Dharmacol | Cat#M-005378-02 |

(Continued on next page)
### RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

**Lead contact**
Further information and requests for resources and reagents such as plasmids should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Jesper Q. Svejstrup (jesper.svejstrup@crick.ac.uk).

**Materials availability**
All materials and reagents generated in this paper are available upon request to the lead contact stated above.

| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---------------------|--------|------------|
| siGENOME Non-Targeting siRNA Pool #2 | Dharmacon | Cat#D-001206-14 |
| Full list in Table S2 |
| Recombinant DNA |
| pFRT/TO | Kind gift from Markus Landthaler | N/A |
| EPr-STK19_2x3flag | This study | N/A |
| pOG44 | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#V600520 |
| pSpCas9(BB)-2A-GFP | (Ran et al., 2013) Addgene | Cat#48138 |
| pET28-His-SUMO | Kind gift from Peter Cherepanov | N/A |
| Software and Algorithms |
| SGSSeq v1.16.2 | Goldstein et al., 2016 | http://www.bioconductor.org/packages/release/bioc/html/SGSeq.html |
| Other |
| SuperSignal West Pico PLUS ECI reagent | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#34577 |
| SuperSignal West Dura ECI reagent | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#34075 |
| Radiance Plus Femtogram HRP substrate | Azure Biosystems | Cat#AC2103 |
| High glucose DMEM | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#11965118 |
| RPMI-1640 with L-glutamine | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#R8758-500ML |
| Poly-lysine | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#P7280 |
| 4–15% TGX gels (18wells/26/wells) | BioRad | Cat#56711084/5 |
| Complete EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#05056489001 |
| PhosSTOP | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#04906837001 |
| Nitrocellulose membrane | GE Healthcare Life Sciences | Cat#10600002 |
| Benzonase | MerckMillipore | Cat#70746-4 |
| Lipofectamine 2000 | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#11668019 |
| Lipofectamine 3000 Reagent | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#L3000001 |
| Lipofectamine RNAiMAX Transfection Reagent | Thermo Fisher Scientific | Cat#13778150 |
| In-Fusion HD cloning Kit | Takara Clontech | Cat#639649 |
| iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix | BioRad | Cat#172-5124 |
| Q5 Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit | NEB | Cat#E0554S |
| Ni-NTA agarose | QIAGEN | Cat#30230 |
| HiTrap SP HP | GE healthcare | Cat#17115201 |
| Superdex 200 | GE healthcare | Cat#17517501 |
| ANTI-FLAG M2 Affinity Gel | Sigma-Aldrich | Cat#A2220 |
| VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium-DAPI | Vector Laboratories | Cat#H-1200 |
Data and code availability
This study did not generate new data. Public data used is specified under every method in the quantification and statistical analysis section.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Cell lines and culture conditions
SK-MEL-2 and UACC62 cells lines (NCI-60 collection) were maintained in RPMI-1640 with L-glutamine (Sigma R8758-500ML) supplemented with 10% v/v FBS, 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin. For simplicity purpose we refer to Flp-In T-REx HEK293 cells as HEK293 and to Flp-In T-REx HeLa cells as HeLa in the results and figures sections. Flp-In T-REx HEK293 cells (Thermo Fisher Scientific, R78007, human embryonic kidney epithelial, female origin) and Flp-In T-REx HeLa cells (these were a kind gift from Stephen S. Taylor, (Tighe et al., 2004)) were cultured in high glucose DMEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 11965118) supplemented with 10% v/v FBS, 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin and 100 μg/mL zeocin and 15 μg/mL blasticidin were cultured at 37°C with 5% CO2 and routinely passaged 2–3 times a week. All cell lines were confirmed to be mycoplasma-free.

METHOD DETAILS

Plasmid construction
The EPr mini-gene construct was generated by gene synthesis (Genscript). After removal of CMV promoter (NruI/XhoI) from pFRT/TO vector, EPr was cloned into pFRT/TO without CMV promoter by In-Fusion system (Takara 639649) following manufacturer instructions. C-terminal flag-tagged misannotated STK19 was generated by Genscript, and cloned into pFRT/TO (using EcoRV and xhoI sites). STK19 was generated by deleting the first 110 aminoacids of the misannotated STK19 using Q5 site directed mutagenesis (NEB, E0554S) and addition of GFP was done using In-Fusion system (Takara 639649). STK19 (29kDa) codon optimized for bacteria was generated by Genscript and cloned into pET28-His-SUMO using BamHI and EcoRI sites. Primers used for cloning and final DNA sequences are listed in Table S1.

Protein alignment and protein structure prediction
STK19 protein sequences from Homo sapiens (GenBank: NP_004188), Mus musculus (GenBank: NP_062315), Danio rerio (GenBank: NP_001108564) and Xenopus laevis (GenBank: NP_001088743) were aligned using MuscleWS (MUSCLE v3.8.31) (Edgar, 2004), visualized using Jalview 2 and colored by protein identity. Structure prediction for STK19 (UniProt P49842-4) was done using Phyre2 (Kelley et al., 2015) intensive modeling mode.

Generation of stable cell lines
Flp-In T-REx HEK293 cell lines expressing doxycycline inducible STK19-flag-GFP, misannotated STK19-flag or EPr-wt-STK19-2x3flag, EPr-D89N-STK19-2x3flag mini-genes and were generated as described previously (Gregersen et al., 2019). Briefly, Flp-In T-REx HEK293 cell lines maintained in 100 μg/mL zeocin and 15 μg/mL blasticidin prior to transfection, were co-transfected with a 9:1 ratio of pOG44 Flp-recombinase expression vector (Thermo Fisher Scientific, V600520) and pFRT/TO/STK19-flag-GFP, pFRT/TO/miss-annotated_STK19-flag or EPr-STK19-3x2flag hygromycin resistant constructs using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 11668019) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. 24 h after transfection, cells were seeded as single cells and after another 24 h the cell culture media was supplemented with 100 μg/mL hygromycin (H011, TOKU-E) and 15 μg/mL blasticidin (B007, TOKU-E). Expression of GFP-tagged proteins was induced overnight by the addition of doxycycline (Clontech, 8634-1, 1 μg/mL final concentration) and all clones were verified by western blotting using antibodies against GFP, flag and/or STK19. CRISPR-Cas9-nuclease-mediated genome editing was performed in Flp-In T-REx HEK293 and Flp-In T-Rex HeLa cell lines. The oligonucleotide encoding the gRNA for targeting the coding region of STK19 is described in Table S1. The gRNA was annealed and ligated into pSpCas9(BB)-2A-GFP ((Ran et al., 2013) Addgene, PX458), and plasmids were sequenced after cloning and transformation. To generate knockouts, cells were transfected with pSpCas9(BB)-2A-GFP plasmids expressing the gRNA, EGFP and Cas9 using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 11668019) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. 48 h after transfection, high GFP positive cells were sorted clonally by fluorescence activated cell sorting (FACS) into 96-well plates and cultivated until colonies were obtained. Genomic PCRs around the edited site were sequenced and analyzed using the Web tool “TIDE” (https://tide.deskgen.com). Cells containing Indels were expanded from the master plate for further analysis by western blot. The expression of the upstream gene DXO was analyzed by RT qPCR to confirm that the mutation in STK19 is not affecting the expression of the upstream gene.

UV irradiation conditions
For UV irradiation experiments, cells were irradiated using an in-house built conveyor belt with 10 or 15 J /m2 UVC for Flp-In T-REx HeLa cells and Flp-In T-Rex HEK293 cells respectively and analyzed 4 h later or indicated time points.
siRNA and transient transfections

Cells were transfected with STK19 siRNA (siGENOME SMARTpool, Dharmacon M-005378-02) or non-targeting control (siGENOME Non-Targeting siRNA Pool #2, Dharmacon D-001206-14) using RNAiMAX transfection reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific 13778030) following manufacturer instructions. Briefly, cells were seeded at 40% confluence in 6 well plates and transfected with 50nmol (Fiplin T-Rex HEK293) or 15nmol (Fiplin T-Rex HeLa, SK-MEL-2 and UACC_62) and knock down efficiency assayed 72 h after transfection. For transfection with EPr mini-gene constructs and empty vector controls, cells at 50% confluence were seeded in 6 well plates and transfected using Lipofectamine 2000 (ThermoFisher Scientific 11668027) following manufacturer instructions, and analyzed 24 h later.

Quantitative PCR (qPCR)

Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy kit (QIAGEN, 74104) for nascent and mature RNA, following the instructions of the manufacturer including an on-column DNase treatment (QIAGEN, 79254). Reverse transcription was performed using TaqMan Reverse Transcription Reagents (Thermo Fisher Scientific, N8080234). For detection of nascent transcripts, random hexamers were used manufacturer including an on-column DNase treatment (QIAGEN, 79254). Reverse transcription was performed using TaqMan Reverse Transcription Reagents (Thermo Fisher Scientific, N8080234). For detection of nascent transcripts, random hexamers were used for the reverse transcription step; for mature mRNA, oligo dT primers were used. cDNA was amplified using iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad, 172-5124) with 30 cycles of 15 s denaturation at 94°C for the reverse transcription step; for mature mRNA, oligo dT primers were used. cDNA was amplified using iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (BioRad, 172-5124) with 30 cycles of 15 s denaturation at 94°C, 15 s annealing at 58°C, and 20 s extensions at 72°C. Primers amplifying mature GAPDH were used as normalization control. Unless differently stated, ΔCT values were calculated relative to GAPDH before normalizing to the expression level in control sample and experiments were done in triplicate. Error bars show SD. Primers to amplify nascent RNA were spanning genomic exon-intron regions, and for mature RNA were spanning exon-exon junctions. Primer sequences are listed in Table S1.

Whole cell extract preparation, cell fractionation and western blotting

For whole cell extracts, cells pellets were lysed in NP-40 lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCL pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, 0.5% (v/v) NP-40, 0.5 mM DTT, PhosSTOP (Sigma-Aldrich, 04906837001) and Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, 05056489001). Cell fractionation was performed as previously described (Gregersen et al., 2019). 30–100 μg protein/lane was separated on 4%–15% TGX gels (BioRad, 56711084/5) and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, 10600002). Membranes were blocked in 5% (w/v) skimmed milk in PBS-T (PBS, 0.1% (v/v) Tween20) for 1 h at room temperature and incubated with primary antibody (in 5% (w/v) skimmed milk in PBS-T) overnight at 4°C. Primary antibodies are listed in key resources table. Antibody against vinculin were used to control loading. Membranes were washed several times in PBS-T, incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibody in 5% (w/v) skimmed milk in PBS-T and visualized using SuperSignal West Pico PLUS (for Vinculin and H3), Dura (for flag) Chemiluminescent Substrate ECL reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 34577 or 34075) or Radiance Plus Femtogram HRP substrate (for endogenous STK19) (Azure Biosystems, AC2103). When stated in the text, western blot were performed using the methods provided by Yin et al.

Immunoprecipitations of misannotated STK19 for mass spectrometry analysis

Fip-In T-REX HEK293 cells stably expressing doxycycline (Dox)-inducible misannotated STK19-flag were induced overnight by the addition of Dox (1000, 100, 10 or 1 ng/mL final concentration). Cells were harvested by scraping in ice-cold PBS, washed once in cold PBS and pelleted by centrifugation at 1,500 rpm for 5 min at 4°C. Cells were then fractionated as previously described and all nuclear fractions were pooled to enrich in STK19. Phosphatase inhibitors (PhosSTOP, Sigma-Aldrich, 04906837001) and Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, 05056489001) were added fresh to all buffers. Flag immunoprecipitation was done by incubating nuclear fractions with ANTI-FLAG M2 Affinity Gel (Sigma-Aldrich, A2220) at 4°C for 3 h. Beads were washed 5 times in IP wash buffer (150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCL pH 7.5, 1.5 mM MgCl2, 3mM EDTA, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 0.1% (v/v) NP-40, phosphatase inhibitors (PhosSTOP, Sigma-Aldrich, 04906837001) and protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, 05056489001)) with the last wash being on a spin column (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 69705). Immunoprecipitates were eluted using 1 mg/mL 3xFLAG peptide dissolved in IP wash buffer by incubation for 1 h at 4°C. FLAG elutions were fractionated on SDS-PAGE, analyzed by western blot, or stained using the SilverQuest Silver Staining Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, LC6070) to confirm immunoprecipitation of full-length misannotated STK19. Samples were then sent for mass-spectrometry analysis of detected peptides.

Microscopy

STK19-GFP expressing cells were seeded onto poly-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich, P7280) coated coverslips in Doxycycline-containing media (1 μg/mL). Cells were fixed using 4% (v/v) formaldehyde in PBS for 15 min, blocked in PBS-T-BSA (PBS, 0.1% (v/v) Tween20, BSA 1%) for 1 h at RT, incubated with anti-Calnexin Alexa Fluor-647 conjugated antibody (key resources table) for 1 h in PBS-T-BSA, washed 3 times in PBS and mounted onto slides using VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium containing DAPI (Vector Laboratories, H-1200) and visualized using an upright 780 confocal Zeiss microscope. FIJI was used to analyze the images.

Generation of STK19 (29 kDa) baculovirus and protein expression

The coding sequence of STK19 (110-368) with a 6xHis followed by a Twin Strep(II) tag (WSPHOQFEGGGSGGGS2WSHPQFEK) was inserted into the pFL vector (Fitzgerald et al., 2006) by Genescript. Sequence is available in Table S1. A HRV 3C protease cleavage site is present to proteolytically remove the tag. A baculovirus stock was generated by transposition of pFL_Stk19_3C_Strep into
DH10Bac cells (ThermoFisher). Bacmid DNA was prepared as previously described (Fitzgerald et al., 2006) and used to transfect Sf21 cells maintained in SF900-III medium (ThermoFisher) at 27°C with 120 rpm shaking. The baculovirus stock was passaged to a titer of approximately 10^8 pfu/mL and used to infect 1 L of Sf21 cells at 1 x 10^6 cells/mL with an MOI of 2 for 72 h. The infected cells were harvested by centrifugation at 1000 x g for 10 min and the pellet was flash-frozen and stored at -80°C.

**Purification of STK19**

The infected cells were re-suspended in 1/20th the original culture volume in a buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT. An EDTA-free protease inhibitor tablet (Roche) was added to each 50 mL of buffer. The cell suspension was briefly sonicated on ice, using a Branson 550 sonicator using 5 s pulse on/10 s pulse off cycles for a total of 1 min. Subsequently, 10 mM of EDTA (Expedeon) was added and incubated for 1 h at 4°C with gentle agitation. Thereafter, NaCl was added to a final concentration of 1 M to dissociate bound DNA from STK19. Additionally, EDTA was added to a final concentration of 1 mM and the lysate incubated for 2 h at 4°C. Insoluble material was removed by centrifugation at 80K x g for 30 min. The cleared lysate was filtered through a 0.45 µm filter and applied to a 1 mL StrepTrap column (GE Healthcare) using a running buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA. Upon washing, STK19 was eluted with a running buffer containing 10 mM des-thiobiotin (Sigma – D1411). The Twin-Strep and 6xHis tag was removed by digestion with recombinant GST-3C protease overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, the protein was diluted in 10 mM NaH2PO4, pH 7.0, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA before being applied to 1 mL Heparin column (GE Healthcare) using 100 mM NaH2PO4, pH 7.0, 20 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA as running buffer and eluting with a gradient from 20–1000 mM NaCl. STK19 eluted at 50 mS/cm. For further purity and to separate full-length STK19 from an N-terminally proteolytically clipped variant, STK19 was subjected to cation chromatography using a MonoS (5/50 GL) column (GE Healthcare). A buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA and 1 mM DTT was used as running buffer and again a NaCl gradient was applied from 50–1000 mM NaCl. Intact STK19 eluted at 55 mS/cm and was concentrated before being injected onto a Superdex75(GE Healthcare) column in a running buffer of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 250 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA. STK19 eluted as a monomer, (which was also confirmed by SEC-MALLS), and was concentrated to a final concentration of 1 mg/mL with a A280/A260 ratio of 0.6.

**NRAS cloning, expression and purification**

Human NRAS full-length cDNA was cloned into pGEX-6P-1, followed by transformation into BL2-CodonPus (DE3)-RIL (Agilent Technologies 230245). A single colony was picked and inoculated in LB (Lysogeny Broth) media overnight at 37°C. Human NRAS full-length cDNA was cloned into pGEX-6P-1, followed by transformation into BL2-CodonPus (DE3)-RIL (Agilent Technologies 230245). A single colony was picked and inoculated in LB (Lysogeny Broth) media overnight at 37°C. The infected cells were re-suspended in 1/20th the original culture volume in a buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT. An EDTA-free protease inhibitor tablet (Roche) was added to each 50 mL of buffer. The cell suspension was briefly sonicated on ice, using a Branson 550 sonicator using 5 s pulse on/10 s pulse off cycles for a total of 1 min. Subsequently, 10 mM of EDTA (Expedeon) was added and incubated for 1 h at 4°C with gentle agitation. Thereafter, NaCl was added to a final concentration of 1 M to dissociate bound DNA from STK19. Additionally, EDTA was added to a final concentration of 1 mM and the lysate incubated for 2 h at 4°C. Insoluble material was removed by centrifugation at 80K x g for 30 min. The cleared lysate was filtered through a 0.45 µm filter and applied to a 1 mL StrepTrap column (GE Healthcare) using a running buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA. Upon washing, STK19 was eluted with a running buffer containing 10 mM des-thiobiotin (Sigma – D1411). The Twin-Strep and 6xHis tag was removed by digestion with recombinant GST-3C protease overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, the protein was diluted in 10 mM NaH2PO4, pH 7.0, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA before being applied to 1 mL Heparin column (GE Healthcare) using 100 mM NaH2PO4, pH 7.0, 20 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA as running buffer and eluting with a gradient from 20–1000 mM NaCl. STK19 eluted at 50 mS/cm. For further purity and to separate full-length STK19 from an N-terminally proteolytically clipped variant, STK19 was subjected to cation chromatography using a MonoS (5/50 GL) column (GE Healthcare). A buffer consisting of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA and 1 mM DTT was used as running buffer and again a NaCl gradient was applied from 50–1000 mM NaCl. Intact STK19 eluted at 55 mS/cm and was concentrated before being injected onto a Superdex75(GE Healthcare) column in a running buffer of 50 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 250 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 1 mM EDTA. STK19 eluted as a monomer, (which was also confirmed by SEC-MALLS), and was concentrated to a final concentration of 1 mg/mL with a A280/A260 ratio of 0.6.

**Immunoprecipitation of STK19-Flag**

A plasmid expressing STK19-Flag was transfected into HEK293 cells, and STK19 was immunoprecipitated following the method of Yin et al., 2019. Briefly, cell pellets were collected from 3 x 100 mm dishes and lysed by gentle agitation for 1 h at 4°C with 10 ml ice-cold NETN buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5% Nonidet P-40) containing 10 mM β-glycerophosphate, 10 mM NaF, and 10 µg/mL leupeptin and aprotinin. Whole cell lysates were sonicated at 20% amplitude for 40 x 5 s in ice with 30 s cooling period between each burst. The lysate was centrifuged at 12,000 x g for 30 min at 4°C, and the recovered supernatant was mixed with 0.1 mL of 50% (v/v) prewashed M2 beads and incubated under gentle agitation in an end-over-end rotor at 4°C for 1 h. The beads were washed 3 times with 1 mL ice-cold NETN buffer and 3 times with 2 mL PBS. STK19-flag was eluted from M2 beads with 100 µl of elution buffer (1 mM flag peptide, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 10 mM MgCl2 and 1mM DTT) by gentle agitation for 1 h at 4°C, and the recovered supernatant was mixed with 0.1 mL of 50% (v/v) prewashed M2 beads and incubated under gentle agitation in an end-over-end rotor at 4°C for 1 h. The beads were washed 3 times with 1 mL ice-cold NETN buffer and 3 times with 2 mL PBS. STK19-flag was eluted from M2 beads with 100 µl of elution buffer (1 mM flag peptide, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 10 mM MgCl2 and 1mM DTT) by gentle agitation for 2 h at 4°C. The beads were collected by centrifugation and the supernatant was transferred to a new Eppendorf tube. The protein concentration was determined, and the elution was analyzed on a 12% SDS-PAGE gel followed by Coomassie and silver staining. The final fraction was diluted to 0.5 µg/µl with wash buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 10 mM MgCl2 and 1 mM DTT), aliquoted, snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at −80°C.

**Kinase Assays**

Kinase reactions contained 0.7 µg of highly purified NRAS bound to non-hydrolysable GTP (“active NRAS”), which was mixed with 2.5 µg of immunoprecipitated STK19-Flag, or with 0.25 µg of GST-STK19 (Signal Chem), or with increasing amounts of highly purified STK19 (70 ng, 240 ng, 700 ng and 1.4 µg respectively), essentially as described by Yin et al., 2019. Briefly, protein mixtures were
incubated in a total of 20 μl kinase buffer (50 mM HEPES-NaOH, pH 7.9, 20 mM MnCl2) supplemented with 300 μM AMP, 100 μM ATP and 5 μCi of γ-32P-ATP and incubated for 30 min @ 30°C. After 30 min, 2.4 μl of 0.5 M EDTA (60 mM final) were added to quench the reaction and incubated for 5 min. Reactions were then stopped with 5x Laemmli sample buffer, boiled for 10 min at 70°C, loaded into a 10% Bis-Tris gel and ran with MES buffer @ 100–150 V. After electrophoresis, the radiolabelled gel was fixed in 40% ethanol, 10% acetic acid for 30 min, then stained using SilverQuest (Novex), following the manufacturer’s recommendations. After staining, the gel was rinsed with water, exposed overnight to a phosphorimager screen and then scanned using a Typhoon FLA 9500 (GE Healthcare).

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Analysis of RT-qPCR data
Biological triplicates (each in technical triplicate) were assayed for each condition, and the data were analyzed using multiple t tests with Holm-Sidak correction. Analysis details are also included in figure legends.

STK19 database peptide analysis and mass-spectrometry analysis of STK19 peptide intensities
For database analysis, STK19 detected peptides were downloaded from peptide Atlas (Deutsch et al., 2008) and Proteomics DB (Schmidt et al., 2018) latest versions. To minimize unspecific mapping, peptides between 7 and 20, found in more than one experiment and with a maximum of one missed cut site were analyzed. Peptides with the same start or end position were merged for plotting. For the analysis of overexpressed mis-annotated STK19, eluted proteins from immunoprecipitations were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), until the running front had migrated approximately 1–2 cm into the gel (10% NuPAGE, Invitrogen, NP0301), and stained with colloidal Coomassie (InstantBlue, Expedeon). After excision of 8 horizontal gel slices per lane, proteins were in-gel digested with trypsin (Promega/Pierce) using a Janus liquid handling system (Perkin Elmer). Tryptic peptides were analyzed by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC–MS) using an Orbitrap Velos mass spectrometer coupled to an Ultimate 3000 uHPLC equipped with an EASY-Spray nanosource (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and acquired in data-dependent mode. The data were searched against the human Uniprot database using the Andromeda search engine. Raw data were processed using MaxQuant v1.6.0.1 (Cox and Mann, 2008). Peptide intensities were log2 transformed.

Human melanoma patient datasets
In order to analyze RNA-sequencing read coverage by exon (Figure 1E and Figure 4F/4G), we utilized raw RNA-seq data which we had available from four malignant melanoma cohorts: i) Van Allen et al. (Van Allen et al., 2015), ii) Snyder et al. (Snyder et al., 2014), iii) Hugo et al. (Hugo et al., 2016) and iv) a subset of the TCGA melanoma cohort with “D89N” mutation (from the total n = 8, raw data was available for n = 6). For cohorts with ii)-iii), all cases with both RNA sequencing and whole exome (DNA) sequencing data were utilized (n = 81, total across the three cohorts). For gene level expression analysis (Figure 4E), where raw data was not required, we utilized processed RNA-seq expression data for melanoma patients from the cancer genome atlas (TCGA) project, obtained from the TCGA GDAC Firehose repository (https://gdac.broadinstitute.org/). Upper-quartile normalized count values from RSEM were utilized. Somatic STK19 gene mutation calls for the same TCGA patient cohort were also obtained, from the cBioPortal. In total data from n = 473 patients were utilized, n = 465 wildtype (i.e., no D89N mutation) and n = 8 with D89N mutation.

Processing of raw RNA-seq data
Raw RNA-seq data was obtained in BAM format for all studies, and reverted back to FASTQ format using bam2fastq (v1.1.0). Sequence reads were aligned to hg19 genomic assembly, using bowtie pre-built index. Picard tools v1.107 was used to clean and sort the BAM files (http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard). Statistical analysis and figure plotting for the RNA-seq analyses were carried out using R3.5.1 (http://www.r-project.org/).

Splicing reads analysis
The Bioconductor package SGSeq [1] was used to construct a splice graph of the STK19 gene based on the Ensembl transcripts ENST00000466132 and ENST00000375331. The “analyzeFeatures” function was used to quantify the number of reads mapping to each exon and splice junction from available human melanoma patient dataset BAM files.
Figure S1. Promiscuous Transcription in the STK19 Gene Locus, Related to Figure 1
STK19 and relevant surrounding genes are shown. Forward strand genes are shown in blue (SKIV2L and STK19) and reverse strand genes are in pink (NELFE and DXO). The current annotation is aligned with the corrected annotation, TT-seq and mRNA-seq data are from WT HEK293 cells (Gregersen et al., 2019), and CAGE data from the FANTOM project to show TSSs. Red dashed box shows zoom-in of CAGE data of the STK19 promoter region. Annotated TSS and corrected TSS are marked by dashed black lines.
Figure S2. STK19 Protein Conservation, Related to Figure 1
(A) Alignment of the presently annotated STK19 protein from four different metazoans. Conservation ratio is shown as shades of purple as indicated in the legend below. (B) Alignment of mouse (Mus musculus) and the presently annotated human (Homo sapiens) STK19 proteins. Purple indicates identical residues.
Figure S3. **STK19 ESTs and Termination Site, Related to Figure 1**

(A) Genome browser view of STK19’s 5’ region. Current annotation and corrected annotation are aligned to spliced GeneBank ESTs. The reverse strand gene (DXO) and ESTs are shown in pink, and forward gene (STK19) and ESTs are shown in blue. The few ESTs upstream of the corrected annotation likely originate from transcriptional readthrough of SKIV2L or from promiscuous transcription of the locus. (B) Genome browser view of STK19, with current and corrected annotations shown aligned to transcription termination sites, mapped by 3’-seq in HEK293 cells (Gregersen et al., 2019), and transcription start sites (TSSs) mapped by CAGE by in the FANTOM database. Forward TSS are shown in blue and positive and reverse TSS in pink and negative.
Figure S4. mRNA-seq Data from Melanoma Patient Samples to Compare wt STK19 and “D89N” STK19, Related to Figure 4

Genome browser view of STK19’s 5’ region. STK19 5’ and DXO 5’ are visible. Current and corrected annotations are shown aligned to mRNA-seq of melanoma patient data. Data from two different datasets are shown for WT STK19 (18 samples each), and all 6 samples of “D89N” found in the CTGA database. TSS position is marked with a line for currently annotated (black) and corrected annotation (blue), and start codon (ATG) is marked by a dashed line for currently annotated (black) and corrected annotation (blue).
Phyre protein structure prediction

| Template Information | Alignment coverage | Confidence | % Identity | Times found homology |
|----------------------|--------------------|------------|------------|---------------------|
| Winged helix DNA-binding domain | 60-162 | 69.6 | 12 | 22 |
| gene regulation | 105-217 | 62.6 | 17 | 1 |
| unknown function | 180-215 | 62.3 | 8 | 1 |
| Lipid binding protein | 180-215 | 61.2 | 11 | 1 |

Figure S5. Table of the Phyre2 Prediction Results, Related to Figure 6
“Times found homology” corresponds to the times that Phyre finds that same prediction out of 100 results.