1	Genome-wide identification and characterization of DNA/RNA differences
2	associated with Fusarium graminearum infection in wheat
3	Running title: RNA editome associated with FHB in wheat
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16 Abbreviations

17	Fg	Fusarium graminearum
18	FHB	Fusarium head blight
19	WGCNA	Weighted gene co-expression network analysis
20	dpi	Days post inoculation
21	DEG	Differentially expressed gene
22	DEEG	Differential expressed edited gene
23	GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
24	DON	Deoxynivalenol
25	MFE	Minimum free energy
26	TSS	Translational start site
27	GO	Gene ontology
28	KEGG	Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes

29

30 Abstract

31 RNA editing (DNA/RNA differences) as a post-transcriptional modification approach 32 to enrich genetic information, plays the crucial role in regulating diverse biological 33 processes in eukaryotes. Although it has been extensively studied in plant chloroplast 34 and mitochondria genome, RNA editing in plant nuclear genome, especially those 35 associated with Fusarium head blight (FHB), is not well studied at present. Here, we 36 investigated the DNA/RNA differences associated with FHB through a novel method 37 by comparing the RNA-seq data from *Fusarium*-infected and control samples from 4 38 wheat genotypes. A total of 187 DNA/RNA differences were identified in 36 wheat 39 genes, representing the first landscape of the FHB-responsive RNA editome in wheat. 40 Furthermore, all of these 36 edited genes were located in the FHB related 41 co-expression gene modules, which may involve in regulating FHB response. Finally, 42 the effects of DNA/RNA differences were systematically investigated to show that 43 they could cause the change of RNA structure and protein structure in edited genes. In 44 particular, the G to C editing (chr3A 487854715) in TraesCS3A02G263900, which is 45 the orthology of OsRACK1, resulted that it was targeted by *tae-miR9664-3p* to control 46 its expression in different genotype through different editing efficiency, suggesting 47 RNA editing could mediate miRNA to participate in the regulation network of FHB 48 tolerance. This study reported the first wheat DNA/RNA differences associated with 49 FHB, which not only contribute to better understand the molecular basis underlying 50 FHB tolerance, but also shed light on improving FHB tolerance through epigenetic 51 method in wheat and beyond.

52 Keywords Wheat DNA/RNA differences Fusarium head blight
53 (FHB) Weighted correlation network analysis (WGCNA) RNA secondary
54 structure

55 Introduction

56 Wheat is considered as one of the most important staple crops all over the world, 57 which accounts for approximately 30% of the global cultivated area, and provides 20% 58 of the world's food consumption (Shewry 2009). Wheat is also an important source of 59 human protein and mineral elements intake (Gill et al. 2004; Appels et al. 2018). 60 Continuous increased and stable production of wheat holds the promise for ensuring 61 global food security under the challenge of population booming and limited resource 62 input in future (Miransari and Smith 2019). Fusarium head blight (FHB), that is also 63 called scab and caused mainly by Fusarium graminearum, is one of the most 64 destructive diseases of wheat, resulting in huge loss of wheat yield and also imposing 65 great health threats on both human beings and livestock due to the DON toxin (Bai 66 and Shaner 1994; Dexter et al. 1996). More seriously, fusarium head blight has 67 gradually become the major hazard and limitation of wheat production in recent years 68 because of the climate change and the expansion of conservation agriculture (Zhu et 69 al. 2019). Thus, revealing the mechanism of FHB resistance and then breeding for 70 FHB-tolerant wheat varieties is crucial to cope with these problems. Extensive studies 71 have been carried out to survey resistant germplasm, map and locate the QTLs, 72 together with clone the major functional genes as well as illuminate the regulation 73 mechanisms of FHB response in wheat (Buerstmayr et al. 2009; Rawat et al. 2016; Jia 74 et al. 2018). The great breakthrough is the cloning and functional validation of the 75 *Fhb1* (syn Qfhs.ndsu-3BS) from cv. Sumai No.3, which is widely used in breeding 76 practice (Li et al. 2019; Su et al. 2019), as well as the Fhb7, which was horizontally 77 transferred from fungus in wheat (Wang et al. 2020). Additionally, based on RNA-seq 78 technology, the gene expression profiles and gene co-expression network analysis 79 have also been systematically performed to identify the FHB-responsive genes and to 80 discover regulators and genes associated with constitutive resistance (Pan et al. 2018; 81 Hofstad et al. 2016).

RNA editing (DNA/RNA difference) is a conserved post-transcriptional modification
mechanism that base change or modification is occurred when DNA transcribed into
RNA molecule (Keller et al. 1999; Stern et al. 2010). Together with alternative
splicing (AS), RNA editing process provides the indispensable approach for enriching
the genetic information and diversifying the transcriptome, which plays the vital role
in growth and development as well as stress tolerance in many organisms (Wang et al.
2016). Previous studies found that up to 55% of the genetic information in the mature

89 mRNA molecules were inconsistent with the initial DNA sequence (Takenaka et al. 90 2013; Wakasugi et al. 1996). RNA editing was firstly identified in the mitochondrial 91 genome of trypanosome in 1986, and now it has been widely reported in many species, 92 including animals, plants as well as fungi (Bock et al. 1994; Drescher et al. 2002; Liu 93 et al. 2016). In mammals, the common type of RNA editing is the deamination of 94 adenosine (A) to inosine (I), which is mainly mediated by the specific ADAR 95 (adenosine deaminase acting on RNA) family of enzymes (Savva et al. 2012). At the 96 same time, A to I conversion, independent of ADAR enzyme, is also identified in 97 fungi. In plants, which is lacking the ADAR gene family, RNA editing was mainly 98 found in the organelle genome through bioinformatic prediction and molecular 99 cloning approach, and they were generally regulated by pentapeptide repeat (PPR) 100 domain protein family (Drescher et al. 2002; Shikanai 2006). With the advances in 101 high-throughput sequencing, RNA-seq technology provides an efficient, unbiased and 102 economic way to identify RNA editing on a genome-wide scale. Using this method, a 103 large number of studies have been conducted to study the RNA editome or landscape 104 in human and other model species, illuminating the prevalence and importance of 105 RNA editing (Peng et al. 2012). However, the study of RNA editing in plants is 106 lagging behind, especially genome-wide identification of DNA/RNA differences in 107 plant nuclear genome only performed in Arabidopsis up to now (Meng et al. 2010). 108 The plant-pathogen system provides an ideal model to identify RNA editing targets 109 associated with pathogen based on RNA-seq method, in that the transcriptome 110 sequences of the pathogen-treated samples and the counterpart control samples of the 111 same genotype are generally produced, so as to exclude genotype-specific 112 polymorphisms and mutations to ensure the accuracy of DNA/RNA difference 113 identification. 114 Here, we systematically investigated the DNA/RNA differences of wheat in response 115 to F. graminearum using the publicly available RNA-seq samples of four wheat 116 genotypes (Nyubai, Wuhan 1, HC374, and Shaw), at 2 and 4 days post inoculation 117 (dpi) with F. graminearum infection to understand the roles of DNA/RNA differences 118 in regulating FHB tolerance in wheat. This study not only identified the DNA/RNA 119 difference sites associated with FHB resistance to enrich the epigenetic mechanism of 120 FHB response in wheat, but also pave the way to investigate RNA editione using

121 RNA-seq in wheat and beyond.

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123

124 Materials and methods

125 RNA-seq data and Reads Mapping

126 The transcriptional dynamics associated with resistance and susceptibility against

- 127 FHB of four wheat genotypes were performed by Pan et al (Pan et al. 2018). A total of
- 48 RNA-seq data of wheat spikes were provided by this study and publically available
- 129 from the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) database with the accession no. of
- 130 SRP139946. These datasets were downloaded and used in this study, including four
- 131 wheat genotypes inoculated with water and *Fusarium graminearum* (strain
- 132 DAOM233423) with 3 biological replicates at 2dpi and 4dpi for each genotype,
- 133 respectively. Then, the raw RNA-seq reads were filtered for contamination with
- 134 adaptor reads, low-quality reads, or unknown nucleotides using FastQC (version
- 135 0.11.8) and Trimmomatic (version 0.39). The cleaned RNA-seq reads were mapped
- against the reference genome (IWGSC RefSeq version 1.1) (Appels et al. 2018) using
- 137 2-pass mode of STAR (version 2.7.5c) (Dobin et al. 2012). The alignments were used
- 138 for transcript assembly with StringTie (version 1.3.5). Furthermore, we quantified the
- read coverage of each gene by HTSeq (version 0.11.2) (*htseq-count -f bam -m union*
- 140 $f_{sorted.bam} = f_{sorted.bam}$
- using DESeq2 tool with the adjusted P value was less than 0.05 and $|\log_2$ FoldChange| >

142 0 (Love et al. 2014).

143

144 DNA/RNA difference sites identification

- 145 Firstly, using the MarkDuplicates tool of Picard (http://picard.sourceforge.net/)
- 146 marked the repeated sequence in the bam files obtained by STAR (2-pass mode).
- 147 Then, the reads on the exon were separated by using the SplitNCigarReads tool in
- 148 GATK, and the N error base was removed and the read in the intron region was
- removed. HaplotypeCaller tool in GATK (Genome Analysis Toolkit) software was
- used to call SNPs with the parameter as follow: --genotype_likelihoods_model 'SNP',
- 151 --stand_call_conf '30', --stand_emit_conf '30' (Ramaswami et al. 2013). Then, the
- 152 SNP was obtained as the raw gVCF file of each sample, and further used for
- subsequent analysis. To obtaining high confidence sites, we filtered raw VCF files
- 154 step by step as follow: (1) Systematic error of the sequencing platform and software
- 155 were corrected by GATK VariantFiltration tool, and we select the initial filter
- 156 parameter *-filter* "FS > 30.0", *-filter* "QD < 2.0"; (2) To improve the accuracy, the

- 157 three biological replicates were intersected to obtain DNA/RNA differences that
- appeared in three replicates simultaneously and the each sequence information was
- verified by Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV); (3) To avoid genotype-specific
- 160 genomic SNP polymorphisms, we compared the DNA/RNA differences between
- 161 *Fg*-treated samples and their counterpart control samples of the same genotype, and
- the same DNA/RNA differences between them were removed.
- 163 Finally, the 654,653 SNP variations of 1,002 wheat genotypes include 717 genotyped
- by DARTseq platform and 285 genotyped by Wheat 660K SNP array (Zhou et al.
- 165 2018) were used to map the qualified DNA/RNA differences obtained from above
- analysis to filter out the putative SNP sites with the same genomic physical position.
- 167 Through these programs, the accuracy and high-reliability DNA/RNA differences
- 168 were finally obtained. They were annotated with SnpEff tool (version 3.6) with the
- 169 annotation file downloaded from Ensemble Plants database
- 170 (http://plants.ensem-bl.org/index.html). The orthologous genes of candidates in
- 171 *Arabidopsis* or rice were also obtained from Ensemble database.
- 172

173 **Co-expression network analysis**

Gene co-expression network analysis was conducted based on the all genes using theR package WGCNA tool (Langfelder and Horvath 2008). Genes with an average TPM

- value greater than 2 and at least one sample expressed were used. A Pearson
- 177 correlation coefficient matrix was computed. Then, we calculate $log_{10}[p(k)]$ and
- 178 $\log_{10}(k)$ separately, and fit the calculated results to determine 6 is easier to meet the
- 179 criterion of negative correlation between $log_{10}[p(k)]$ and $log_{10}(k)$. After determining
- 180 the beta value, we converted the relationship matrix into an adjacency matrix and
- 181 TOM similarity matrix was generated for each adjacency matrix. The different
- 182 coefficients and hierarchical clustering trees of different nodes are calculated and
- 183 constructed; hierarchical clustering was employed based on the similarity matrix to
- 184 cluster genes. To obtain the correct module number and clarify gene interaction, we
- set the restricted minimum gene number to 30 for each module and used a threshold
- 186 of 0.25 to merge the similar modules. Genes that have higher weight in important
- 187 modules were chosen to constructed co-expression network. The traits data publicly
- 188 available, including Fg treatment, Fg time, Fg percent, Fg GAPDH
- 189 (Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase) and DON (Deoxynivalenol) were used
- 190 for trait-module correlation analysis. GO and KEGG enrichment analysis was

191 conducted using KOBAS 3.0 software (Xie et al. 2011) with the annotation file of

192 Arabidopsis thaliana as background.

193

194 **RNA structure analysis**

195 RNAfold in the Vienna RNA Secondary Structure Package (Gruber et al. 2008) were 196 used to predict the secondary structure of candidate RNA editing genes before and 197 after editing. In order to compare the RNA structure of different genes reasonably, we 198 calculated the normalized free energy of RNA secondary structure by the method of 199 predecessors (Mao et al. 2013). Each candidate sequence was randomly shuffled 100 200 times to control base composition before and after editing. Then, normalized 201 minimum folding free energy (MFE) of each candidate was calculated using RNAfold 202 by

$$z\text{-score} = \frac{mfe_{native} - mfe_{random}}{\sigma}$$

Among equation, *mfe* _{native}, *mfe* _{random}, and σ is the free energy of native sequence,

204 mean MFE of 100 random sequences and standard deviation of the MFE of 100

205 random sequences, respectively.

206

207 miRNA target analysis

To determine whether DNA/RNA differences affected miRNA targeting sites, all of candidate editing genes transcripts were searched against the publish wheat miRNAs in the miRBase using psRNATarget tools (Dai and Zhao 2011) to predict whether they targeted by miRNAs. The possibility of miRNA targeted on edited genes was scored using Schema V2 (2017 release) schema, and selected the result with the minimum expected value as the optimal prediction.

214

215 Protein domain and structure analysis

216 The PFAM database (33.0 release) were used to predicted protein domain by

HMMER v3.3.1 tools (Finn et al. 2011) with E-value $< 1 \times 10^{-5}$. Protein 3D Structure

- 218 was predicted using homology modeling methods in SWISS-MODEL database
- 219 (https://swissmodel.expasy.org/). We selected the best result that the model has the
- highest agreement with the target protein and is greater than 30%.
- 221

222 Orthologous gene analysis

223 In order to better clarify the potential function of the RNA editing genes, the

224 functionally validated genes in Arabidopsis and rice were downloaded from the TAIR

225 (https://www.arabidopsis.org/) and Ricedata (https://www.ricedata.cn/gene/) databases

respectively. Then, we used validated genes as the query to search against the local

wheat proteins by BLASTP tool (Camacho et al., 2009) with the identity more than 40%

- and E-value of 1e-10 as threshold.
- 229

230 Results and Discussion

231 Identification of DNA/RNA difference using RNA-seq data

232 Based on the RNA-seq data, a total of 137,037 transcripts and 110,777 gene loci were 233 constructed for the four wheat genotypes, which covered more than 99% of the 234 reference genome of wheat IWGSC V1.1 (Fig. 1a). Then, the difference of sequence 235 between RNA and DNA were identified using the method described above, and 236 16,399 putative DNA/RNA difference sites associated with FHB were obtained, 237 suggesting massive difference events were occurred in wheat responding to FHB. In 238 detail, a total of 292 difference sites in wheat genotype HC374, 444 in Nyubai and 239 3,490 in Wuhan 1 as well as 3,836 in Shaw were found at 2 dpi, while at 4dpi 568, 240 490, 3,847 and 3,432 sites were identified in HC374, Nyubai, Wuhan 1 and Shaw, 241 respectively (Fig. 1b) (Table S1). Compared to 2dpi, the DNA/RNA difference sites at 242 4dpi always showed more abundant in all of three resistant genotypes, indicating that 243 the number of difference site increased with the extension of Fg injection in resistant genotypes while no found in susceptible genotype Shaw. Furthermore, 14,452 unique 244 245 DNA/RNA difference sites presenting in 8,346 genes were obtained through 246 removing the redundant sites, of which 5,361 genes have one sites, follow by 1,801, 247 633 and 244 genes with 2, 3 and 4 sites, as well as 307 genes with more than 5 sites. 248 Further studies to decipher the molecular basis underling DNA/RNA difference could 249 provide vital clues for the complex of transcription regulation as well as genetic 250 variations. The physical position of these difference sites mainly located about 10kb 251 upstream or downstream of the TSS of the corresponding correlation genes (Fig. 1c), 252 suggesting that difference events may have a large influence on these genes' 253 expression. Finally, we further annotated these DNA/RNA difference sites. Results 254 showed that 9,306, 206, 900 and 1,926 sites were located in CDS, intron, 3'UTR and 255 5'UTR, respectively. A total of 6,586 and 2,720 DNA/RNA difference sites emerged 256 as missense variant and synonymous variants, accounting for 45.57% and 18.82%

respectively, suggesting that missense variants would lead to one amino acid change
in the protein composition (Table S1). At the same time, there also 426 sites could
cause the amino acid substitution, particularly, 388 stop-gained variations were
identified. Although the DNA/RNA difference associated with FHB has been
identified, the false positive results still appeared because of the coverage of reads and

the existence of SNP. Therefore, further validation analysis was needed to obtain

263 reliable RNA editing sites related to FHB from DNA/RNA differences.

264

265 Identification of putative DNA/RNA differences associated with FHB tolerance

266 Based on all DNA/RNA differences results, we conducted a comprehensive screening 267 of FHB-related RNA editing sites using the IGV tools, and we focused on the 268 common RNA editing sites of four varieties and three resistant varieties to eliminate 269 false positives caused by genotype differences (see Materials and methods for more 270 details). In detail, a total of 206 RNA editing sites were identified in two stages and 271 four wheat genotypes, of which contained 187 unique RNA editing sites in 36 genes 272 (Fig. 1d and Table S2). Among them, 159 sites were common in four wheat genotypes 273 and 47 were common in three resistant genotypes. Compared to 2dpi, the editing sites 274 at 4dpi always showed more abundant, indicating that the number of RNA editing 275 sites increased with the extension of Fg injection in each genotype. Moreover, 13 276 common RNA editing events of TraesCS2D02G179300, TraesCS2D02G405500, 277 TraesCS3A02G263900, TraesCS4A02G107600 and TraesCS5A02G073800 were 278 found in 2dpi and 4dpi in four wheat genotypes, and 4 common RNA editing sites of 279 TraesCS5A02G073800 were identified in 2dpi and 4dpi in three resistant genotypes 280 (Table S2). These loci may play an important role in different stages of FHB response. 281 From the perspective of editing type (Fig. 1e), 95 editing sites (50.79%) were the type 282 of transition, of which the conversion between C and T accounted for 24.06%, and A 283 and G accounted for 26.74%, respectively, representing the two most abundant editing 284 types. These two types were also the two canonical RNA editing (Pachter 2012). 285 Among transversions, G to T (10.70%) and C to A (9.63%) were the most abundant, 286 following by C to G, G to C, T to G and A to C with all of the value of about 23.53%, 287 while T to A and A to T types are the lowest ones with the value of 2.67%, 288 respectively. It is obvious that base transition events were significantly lower than 289 transversion in these editing sites (Transition/Transversion ratio was 1.033) although 290 there are twice as many possible transversions on the fact of frequency. It is well

291 known to us that transitions are enriched over transversions at genome level as 292 transversions generally result in the amino acid substitution and are more likely to be 293 depleted due to evolutionary selection (Guo et al 2017). Then, we further annotated 294 these RNA editing sites. Results showed that 162 and 25 sites were located in protein 295 coding region and none coding region, respectively. A total of 45 and 117 editing sites 296 emerged as missense variant and synonymous variants, accounting for 24.06% and 297 62.57%, respectively (Fig. 1f), of which the editing sites could cause the amino acid 298 substitution might have important regulation roles in response to Fg infection in 299 wheat. Editing efficiency was reflected by the ratio of edited reads to total reads of 300 each edited sites. The RNA editing efficiency of each variety was significantly 301 different between control group and treatment group, of which the editing efficiency 302 of Shaw was the highest (Fig. 2a). The density of efficiency of three resistant varieties 303 showed left skewed distribution and Shaw showed right skewed distribution (Fig. 2b). 304 The difference of editing efficiency between different varieties may indicate the 305 difference of FHB tolerance.

306

307 Integration of RNA editing sites and gene expression

308 To further confirm the FHB-responsive RNA editing sites, we investigated the

309 expression patterns of these edited genes (Fig. 3) (Table S3). Among them,

310 TraesCS1A02G258800 and TraesCS1D02G258800 was differential expressed in each

311 stage of four varieties. Meanwhile, four differential expressed edited genes (DEEGs)

312 were shared by all of the four varieties in 4dpi. Compared with sensitive variety Shaw,

313 TraesCS3D02G328300 showed differential expression in 2dpi of three resistant

314 varieties, indicating the potential function of this gene in response to FHB. On the

315 contrary, six and three genes of Shaw were down regulated and up-regulated

316 respectively, and there was no difference in the expression of these genes in resistant

317 varieties after inoculation. Furthermore, TraesCS4D02G319400 is annotated to

318 encode a glycosyldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH). It has been

319 demonstrated that GAPDH involved in the protein aggregation and DNA repair due to

320 stress-related factors (Zaffagnini et al. 2019), indicating that RNA editing in GAPDH

321 might mediate glycolysis pathway to promote the FHB tolerance. Otherwise, the

322 differential expression of TraesCS3A02G263900 was found in 4dpi of Shaw,

323 indicating the potential function associated with Fg infection. Meanwhile, OsRACK1

324 was the orthologues of TraesCS3A02G263900 and it has been proved to have the

325 function of resistance to rice blast (Nakashima et al. 2008).

326 To preliminarily understand the function and regulatory network of these RNA editing 327 genes, we further constructed the WGCNA co-expression network based the 58,280 328 expressed genes and then linked the co-expression modules with the available 329 phenotypic data of the Fg infection, including percentage (Fg infection), DON 330 (Deoxynivalenol), GAPDH (Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase RNA level) 331 and infection time, which were referred from previous study (Pan et al. 2018). Totally, 332 34 co-expression gene modules were obtained by constructing a scale-free network 333 and dynamic tree cutting (Hierarchical Cluster) and modules were renamed M1-M34 334 according to the number of module genes, of which M1 module contained 12,301 335 genes, ranking the largest module, followed by M2 with the 7,217 genes, while M34 336 modules had only 39 genes (Fig. S2). Furthermore, Pearson correlation coefficient 337 matrix was calculated between the modules and phenotypes (Fig. S3 and Table S4). 338 Results showed that the M2 and M11 had high positive correlations with all the 5 339 phenotypes about F_g infection, which might be the key module associated with F_g 340 infection. And M12 and M33 had positive correlations with four phenotypes 341 (percentage, DON, GAPDH, infection time). M5, M16, M29 and M32 had positive 342 correlations with Fg infection and infection time.

343 Then, we identified the co-expression module of each editing gene (Table S4). M1 344 module contained most of the editing genes, following with M4. The co-expression 345 modules containing editing genes were associated with at least one FHB responsive 346 trait. It is worth noting that five co-expression modules (M1, M2, M5, M7, M11) of 347 the candidate genes were positively or negatively correlated with Fg infection, 348 indicating that these genes play a more important role in wheat scab response. GO 349 enrichment analysis of the edited genes found that most genes (77.78%, 28) were 350 enriched in the term of cytosol (GO:0005829, 4.36E-23), and 5 genes enriched in 351 defense response to fungus (GO:0050832, 2.20E-06) (Table S5). At the same time, the 352 candidate genes were also enriched into the terms related to structure of protein or 353 RNA, such as mRNA binding (GO:0003729, 2.82E-21), cellular response to unfolded 354 protein (GO:0034620, 2.69E-11), misfolded protein binding (GO:0051787, 5.41E-10), 355 cell wall (GO:0005618, 1.59E-06) (Table S5). For KEGG pathway enrichment, 3 356 genes (TraesCS4B02G178200, TraesCS3D02G328300, TraesCS4A02G126700) were 357 found to enriched in MAPK signaling pathway-plant (ath04016, 4.25E-04), which is a 358 crucial pathway related to abiotic and biotic stress (Zhang and Klessig 2001; Meng

and Zhang 2013; Pitzschke et al. 2009). In addition, these 3 genes were also

360 significantly enriched in plant-pathogen interaction (ath04626, 8.37E-04). These

results suggested RNA editing was widely occurred in the genes associated with Fg

362 infection, responding and tolerance in wheat. Further functional study of these RNA

363 editing sites will not only mine some vital resistance gene for genetic improvement,

and also contribute to enrich the epigenetic mechanism of FHB response in wheat.

365

366 The effect of RNA editing on RNA structure

367 RNA structure is crucial to its function that RNA mainly depends on its local structure 368 to interact with other proteins or molecules (Wan et al. 2011; Dethoff et al. 2012). The 369 secondary structure of mRNA is mainly involved in cell processes through two forms: 370 specific secondary structure binding to other molecules and conserved structural 371 protective functional elements (Keller et al. 2012). RNA editing events directly affect 372 the secondary structure of RNA (Solomon et al. 2017). Therefore, the RNA editing 373 events in response to FHB may lead to changes in RNA structure and affect its 374 function. Thus, RNA secondary structures of these FHB-responsive edited genes were 375 predicted by the minimum free energy model. Results showed that 162 candidate sites 376 in 32 editing genes could result in the change of RNA secondary structure (Table S6). 377 After editing, the average MFE value were basically the same as that of before editing, 378 but the average normalized MFE values had differences. Among these sites, the 379 minimum free energy of 75 sites increased after editing, while that of the other 87 380 sites decreased. The normalized MFE of chr6B_55695035 site in 381 TraesCS6B02G079200 increased by 40%, ranking the highest change. Meanwhile, 382 TraesCS6D02G401900 had the minimum normalized MFE after chr6D_470684693 383 site editing. In the minimum free energy model, organisms will fold RNA into a 384 secondary structure with minimum free energy, thus saving energy (DAWSON and 385 YAMAMOTO 1999; Mathews et al. 1999). Therefore, MFE can be used to measure 386 the stability of structures that the structure with low MFE value showed more stable. 387 According to our prediction, 75 candidate RNA editing sites could lead to the 388 instability of RNA, and then impair their normal function. On the contrary, the other 389 87 editing sites could lead the decrease of MFE value of the responding RNA 390 secondary structure, indicating these editing sites played the crucial roles in 391 maintaining or increasing the stability of their structure to perform their functions. 392 These results suggested that RNA editing could impact on the function of the target

393 genes through regulating their secondary structures. Further study the specific roles of

394 RNA editing playing in regulating RNA secondary structure when in response to Fg

infection might contribute to the genetic basis underling FHB tolerance.

396

397 The effect of RNA editing on binding ability and protein structure

398 It has been demonstrated that RNA editing as the conserved post-transcriptional 399 modification mechanism, could impact on binding ability, protein composition and 400 protein structure (Takenaka et al. 2013). microRNAs (miRNAs) are one class of 401 non-coding RNA to regulate gene expression through mediating targeted mRNAs 402 cleavage or translational inhibition (Meng et al. 2010). RNA editing generally caused 403 the mRNA sequence variations, which could impact on miRNA-mRNA binding (Mao 404 et al. 2018). To better understand the function of RNA editing under Fg infection, we 405 further investigated its effect on miRNA targeting. We identified seven RNA editing 406 sites (1: chr3A_487854715; 2: chr3A_487854745; 3: chr3A_487854754; 4: 407 chr3A 487854757; 5: chr3A 487854758; 6: chr3A 487854760; 7: chr3A 487854763) 408 occurring in TraesCS3A02G263900 (Fig. 4a and Fig. S4), of which six sites were 409 common to four varieties at 4dpi and site 2 were shared by four varieties at 2dpi and 410 4dpi (Table S2). Meanwhile, site 1 changed the amino acid from Glu to Asp and site 4 411 and 5 changed the common amino acid from Ala to Gly. Through analyzing the 412 binding ability of gene after editing, we found that the occurrence of site 1 editing 413 made the gene having the binding site of *tae-miR9664-3p* (Fig. 4a and Table S7) and 414 the RNA secondary structure of gene was also changed by this RNA editing sites, of 415 which the MFE of structure changed from -389.70 to -385.70 kcal/mol (Fig. 4b and 416 Fig. 4c), indicating the stability of RNA structure was decreased. Interestingly, the 417 editing efficiency of site 1 was significantly differential after editing in four varieties 418 and the efficiency in Shaw was the highest (Fig. 4d). At the same time, the expression 419 level of TraesCS3A02G263900 was down-regulated in HC374, Nyubai and Shaw, of 420 which the expression level was significantly differential in Shaw after editing (Fig. 421 4e). These results suggest that the change of editing gene expression level may be 422 caused by the change of miRNA binding ability caused by editing site. In general, the 423 stronger the binding ability of miRNA, the weaker the gene expression. Meanwhile, 424 there may be other regulatory mechanisms for the change of the expression level of 425 this gene in Wuhan 1. Furthermore, the analysis of orthologues and conserved domain 426 showed TraesCS3A02G263900 have a WD 40 domain and was also a orthologues

427 gene of OsRACK1 (Table S2 and S8). Component of the OsRACK1 regulatory 428 proteins that functions in innate immunity by interacting with multiple proteins in the 429 RAC1 immune complex. OsRACK1 also acts as positive regulator of reactive oxygen 430 species (ROS) production and is required for resistance against rice blast (M.grisea) 431 infection, indicating the potential function of TraesCS3A02G263900 in response to 432 FHB. 433 Tubulin is closely related to intracellular material transport, cell differentiation, cell 434 movement, signal recognition, cell division and development. At the same time, plant 435 tubulin is also related to the synthesis of cellulose microfibrils and plays a role in the 436 growth and development of plant secondary wall (Yoshikawa et al. 2003). Here, 437 TraesCS1D02G258800, belonging to Tubulin/FtsZ family and containing GTPase 438 conserved domain (Table S8), were found to have nine RNA editing sites (1: 439 chr1D_351247689; 2: chr1D_351247692; 3: chr1D_351247703; 4: 440 chr1D 351247708; 5: chr1D 351247769; 6: chr1D 351247770; 7: chr1D 351247778; 441 8: chr1D 351247793; 9: chr1D 351247799) (Fig. 5a and Fig. S5). Among these sites, 442 site 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 changed the amino acid from Ser to Ala, Ile to Val, Met to Ile, Arg 443 to Lys and Gly to Ser, respectively (Table S2). Furthermore, the RNA secondary and 444 protein 3D structure prediction showed differences after editing. Due editing, the 445 MFE of RNA secondary structure changed from -515.30 to -507.10 kcal/mol, 446 indicating the stability of RNA structure decreased (Fig. 5b and Fig. 5c). The torsion

447 448

449 Conclusion

450 This is the first study to identify DNA/RNA differences associated with Fg infection 451 in wheat at the whole transcriptome level. Totally, 187 unique DNA/RNA difference 452 events (RNA editing sites) in 36 genes were identified in four varieties. The canonical 453 G to A and C to T editing sites were found to be the most abundant, as well as other 454 editing types were also identified. Integration of the RNA editing and gene expression, 455 the differential expressed edited genes were also obtained, which could be considered 456 as the potential resource for discovering the key novel genes associated Fg infection 457 and tolerance. Finally, the effects of RNA editing were investigated and found that it 458 could change the RNA secondary structure, protein 3D structure as well as miRNA 459 targeting sites of edited genes to participate in the regulatory network of FHB 460 response and tolerance. This study lay the foundation for further functional studies to

of protein 3D structure changed from -1.81 to -2.20 (Fig. 5d and Fig. 5e).

- 461 reveal the roles of RNA editing playing in FHB response and tolerance in wheat,
- 462 which will enrich the molecular basis underlying FHB tolerance, and also facilitate
- 463 FHB tolerance improvement through epigenetic method in wheat and beyond.
- 464

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- 475

476 **Conflict of Interests**

- 477 Authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.
- 478

479 Data availability

- 480 The data that supports the findings of this study are available in the supplementary
- 481 material of this article.

482

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660	



662

663 Fig. 1 Characterization of DNA/RNA difference sites and RNA editing sites. (a)

664 The assembled genes and transcripts based on the RNA-seq using in this study against 665 the wheat reference genome IWGSC v1.1. (b) The numbers of DNA/RNA difference 666 sites were identified in four wheat varieties at 2dpi and 4dpi, respectively. (c) The

667 distribution of DNA/RNA difference sites distance from TSS (transcription start site)

668 of its related genes. (d) The number of RNA editing sites shared by four varieties

(HNWS: HC374, Nyubai, Wuhan 1, Shaw) and three resistant varieties (HNW: 669

670 HC374, Nyubai, Wuhan 1). (e) Distribution of all unique RNA editing site types. (f)

671 Distribution of RNA editing sites by transcription regions. The y axis represents the

672 different types of regions, and the x axis shows the abundances of RNA editing sites

673



674

675 Fig. 2 Comparison of RNA editing efficiency in different varieties (a) and the

- 676 distribution of RNA editing efficiency (b).
- 677





Fig. 3 The expression profiles of the 36 candidate RNA editing genes among

680 resistant and susceptible genotypes at two inoculation time points. The left block

- 681 diagram represents whether RNA editing occurred in these genes. Blank means no
- editing, while green means editing. The middle heatmap represents the expressions of
- 683 these genes in four varieties. CT: Control group. dpi: days post inoculation
- 684





686 Fig. 4 RNA editing effect on the miRNA targeting and RNA 2D structure on

TraesCS3A02G263900. (a) Seven editing sites were identified in the coding region

of TraesCS3A02G263900, of which site 4 and 5 was in the same amino acid and

- changed it, site 1 was found to changing the miRNA binding sites. (b) RNA secondary
- 690 structure of TraesCS3A02G263900 before Site 1 editing. (c) RNA secondary structure
- 691 of TraesCS3A02G263900 after Site 1 editing. (d) Editing efficiency of
- 692 TraesCS1B02G294300 in four genotypes. (e) Expression levels of
- 693 TraesCS1B02G294300 in four genotypes. *, P value < 0.05; **, P value < 0.01; ***,
- 694 P value < 0.001; N.S, not significant
- 695



696

697 Fig. 5 RNA editing effect on the mRNA 2D structure and protein 3D structure on

TraesCS1D02G258800. (a) There were nine RNA editing sites found in the coding region of TraesCS1D02G258800, of which site 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 caused the amino acid

change and then also changed its 3D structure. (b-c) RNA secondary structure of

- TraesCS1D02G258800 before and after editing. (d-e) Protein 3D structure of
- 702 TraesCS1D02G258800 before and after editing
- 703

Supplementary materials

Fig. S1 Sample dendrogram and trait heatmap of WGCNA. WGCNA was

analyzed based on the expression level of the 58,380 expressed genes

Fig. S2 Correlation of gene modules in WGCNA

Fig. S3 Correlation between gene modules and traits in WGCNA

Fig. S4 IGV results of RNA editing events in TraesCS3A02G263900. (a) Site 1 in 4dpi of HC374. (b) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of HC374. (c) Site 1 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (d) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (e) Site 1 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (f) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (g) Site 1 in 4dpi of Shaw. (h) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of Shaw. The numbers on reads represent the editing efficiency of RNA editing sites in each sample. CT: Control group. Fg: Treatment group

- Fig. S5 IGV results of RNA editing events in TraesCS1D02G258800. (a) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of HC374. (b) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of HC374. (c) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (d) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (e) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (f) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (g) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of Shaw. (h) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of Shaw. The numbers on reads represent the editing efficiency of RNA editing sites in each sample. CT: Control group. Fg: Treatment group
 Table S1. Summary of the identified DNA/RNA difference sites in this study.
- Table S2. Message of RNA editing sites.
- Table S3. Differential expressed level of RNA editing genes.
- Table S4. Distribution of RNA editing genes in co-expression modules.
- Table S5. Function enrichment of RNA editing genes.
- Table S6. Minimum free energy (MFE) of RNA secondary structure of candidate editing genes.

Table S7. Prediction of the miRNA targeting sites of the RNA editing genes.

Table S8. Prediction of the conserved domain of the RNA editing genes.

Supplementary Figures



Fig. S1 Sample dendrogram and trait heatmap of WGCNA. WGCNA was analyzed based on the expression level of the 58,380 expressed genes

Eigengene adjacency heatmap



Fig. S2 Correlation of gene modules in WGCNA



Module-trait relationships

Fig. S3 Correlation between gene modules and traits in WGCNA



Fig. S4 IGV results of RNA editing events in TraesCS3A02G263900. (a) Site 1 in 4dpi of HC374. (b) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of HC374. (c) Site 1 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (d) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (e) Site 1 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (f) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (g) Site 1 in 4dpi of Shaw. (h) Site 2-7 in 4dpi of Shaw. The numbers on reads represent the editing efficiency of RNA editing sites in each sample. CT: Control group. Fg: Treatment group



Fig. S5 IGV results of RNA editing events in TraesCS1D02G258800. (a) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of HC374. (b) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of HC374. (c) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (d) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of Nyubai. (e) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (f) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of Wuhan 1. (g) Site 1-4 in 4dpi of Shaw. (h) Site 5-9 in 4dpi of Shaw. The numbers on reads represent the editing efficiency of RNA editing sites in each sample. CT: Control group. Fg: Treatment group