Title: Arabidopsis uORF-containing mRNAs behave differently from NMD targets

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ABSTRACT

Upstream ORFs (uORFs) are common regulatory elements in the 5' untranslated regions of eukaryotic mRNAs. In addition to repressing main ORF translation, uORF translation in animals also reduces mRNA stability through nonsense-mediated decay (NMD). In contrast, the roles of uORFs in plants are less understood. Here, we identified actively translated uORFs (TuORFs) in Arabidopsis through ribosome profiling and systematically examined their roles in gene expression. Like animal systems, Arabidopsis TuORFs are associated with 38%, 14%, and 43% reductions in translation efficiency, mRNA half-lives, and protein levels, respectively. However, we found TuORF-containing mRNAs have 51% higher transcript levels, and this phenomenon is persistent in diverse tissues and developmental stages across plants. We present multiple lines of evidence that indicate Arabidopsis uORF-containing mRNAs generally exhibit distinct behavior from known NMD targets. First, TuORF-containing mRNAs are not increased in NMD mutants. Second, TuORF-containing mRNAs and known NMD targets have distinct expression patterns, and they are translationally repressed via different mechanisms. Finally, TuORF-containing mRNAs and NMD targets are degraded through separate pathways. Our results suggest that Arabidopsis TuORFs reduce mRNA stability and translation through mechanisms different from NMD and highlight a fundamental difference in gene regulation mediated by TuORFs in plants and animals.

INTRODUCTION

Upstream open reading frames (uORFs) are cis-acting translational repressors that regulate many eukaryotic protein-coding transcripts. Mutations or modifications of uORFs are associated with human diseases and plant traits (Calvo et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2021). Considering AUG as a translation start codon, 30%–70% of genes contain at least one potential uORF in moss, Arabidopsis, fly, mouse, and human (Kim et al., 2007; Johnstone et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2021). Genes with predicted uORFs are enriched for signal transduction proteins, transcription factors, and membrane proteins in animals (Zhang et al., 2021) and for transcription factors and protein kinases in plants (Kim et al., 2007), underlining the potential importance of uORFs in modulating the expression of vital cellular regulators.

Many studies in eukaryotes have reported that uORF translation reduces main ORF (mORF) translation (Chew et al., 2016; Johnstone et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2019; Lin et al., 2019), and it is estimated to reduce protein production by 30%–80% (Calvo et al., 2009; Chew et al., 2016). According to the scanning model of mRNA translation, the 43S pre-initiation complex, which contains the small ribosomal subunit, several translation initiation factors, and initiator tRNA, binds the 5' cap and scans the 5' untranslated region (UTR) to search for an optimal initiation sequence (Hinnebusch et al., 2016). When a uORF is translated, the ribosome may stall during elongation or at termination, or it may dissociate from the mRNA after termination, thus reducing the translation of the downstream mORF (Dever et al., 2020). The mORFs downstream of uORFs may get translated through leaky scanning or reinitiation (Kozak, 1999).

uORF translation is also expected to trigger mRNA degradation, presumably through nonsense-mediated decay (NMD). NMD is an evolutionarily conserved regulatory mechanism to eliminate aberrant mRNAs, such as those that contain premature termination codons or unusually long 3' UTRs (He and Jacobson, 2015; Kurosaki et al., 2019). Two pathways have been established in mammals: the exon junction complex (EJC)-dependent and long 3' UTR pathways. Normally, EJC and two NMD factors (UP-FRAMESHIFT SUPPRESSOR 2 and 3; UPF2 and UPF3) deposited during splicing of mRNAs will be evicted by the ribosome in the first round of translation. In the presence of a premature termination codon, EJC-UPF2-UPF3 complexes downstream of the termination codon remain attached to the mRNA. This allows UPF1, which is part of the surveillance complex recruited at translation termination, to interact with UPF2 and UPF3 in proximity. The interaction of UPF1, UPF2, and UPF3 activates the SUPPRESSOR WITH MORPHOLOGICAL EFFECT ON GENITALIA1 (SMG1) kinase, which

phosphorylates UPF1. This establishes the first phase of NMD, substrate recognition, and

activates downstream signaling and eventually the second phase of NMD, substrate

degradation, which involves SMG5, SMG6, and SMG7. Phosphorylated UPF1 also inhibits

translation initiation (Isken et al., 2008). Alternatively, unusually long 3' UTRs, which result in

poor translation termination, are believed to promote NMD through phosphorylated UPF1

independent of EJC (Kurosaki et al., 2014).

The plant NMD pathway is best characterized in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. Arabidopsis

possesses homologous NMD factors involved in the first phase, including UPF1, UPF2, and

UPF3, and in the second phase, SMG7 (Raxwal and Riha, 2016). However, Arabidopsis is

missing the homologs of animal SMG1, SMG5, and SMG6 (Lloyd and Davies, 2013). The

absence of key NMD components in plants suggests significant variations in the NMD

mechanisms between plants and animals. It remains an open question how the differences in

NMD components affect substrate recognition and degradation in plants.

In Arabidopsis, putative NMD targets have been identified based on transcripts that

overly accumulate in NMD-defective mutants (Kurihara et al., 2009; Kalyna et al., 2012;

Drechsel et al., 2013; Degtiar et al., 2015). However, there is a concern that the upregulation of

some transcripts in NMD mutants might be caused by secondary effects of NMD (Raxwal et al.,

2020). For example, NMD mutants affect numerous aspects of plant physiology, and some

alleles cause severe growth retardation and lethality due to constitutive immune responses

(Jeong et al., 2011; Rayson et al., 2012; Riehs-Kearnan et al., 2012; Filichkin et al., 2015;

Merchante et al., 2015; Chiam et al., 2019; Yoine et al., 2006). Moreover, UPF1 has been

reported to have multiple functions in plants, such as alternative splicing regulation and

translational control, in addition to NMD (Raxwal et al., 2020). To identify *bona fide* NMD

targets, *upf1* and *smg7*, which are defective in the first and second phases of NMD,

respectively, were introduced into *pad4*, in which the immune response is inactivated (Riehs-

Kearnan et al., 2012; Raxwal et al., 2020). The 333 transcripts upregulated in both *upf1 pad4*

and *smg7 pad4* were defined as high-confidence NMD targets. It was shown these NMD targets

are translationally regulated by UPF1 and that their turnover requires decapping and 5' to 3'

decay (Raxwal et al., 2020).

As uORF translation could mimic a transcript with an unusually long 3' UTR, uORF-

containing mRNAs are predicted to be targeted by NMD (Kertész et al., 2006; Kurosaki et al.,

2019). Consistent with this expectation, genome-wide studies in zebrafish, mouse, and human

have found that transcripts with translated uORFs have lower mRNA levels globally (Chew et

al., 2016; Johnstone et al., 2016). Moreover, transcripts containing translated uORFs are

upregulated in knockdown of NMD factors in mouse embryonic stem cells and human cell lines

(Hurt et al., 2013; Baird et al., 2018), supporting the idea that these transcripts are NMD targets.

In plants, whether uORF translation triggers NMD is still under debate. Two genome-

wide studies suggest that uORF-containing mRNAs are targets of NMD, as transcripts

possessing predicted uORFs are enriched in the genes upregulated in Arabidopsis *upf1-1* and

upf3-1 mutants (Kurihara et al., 2009; Drechsel et al., 2013). In contrast, three studies

suggested that NMD only controls a small fraction of uORF-containing mRNAs in plants, such

as those containing uORFs with > 35 codons (~2% of uORF-containing genes), or those

responsive to certain environmental stimuli, such as polyamine or blue light (Nyikó et al., 2009;

Uchiyama-Kadokura et al., 2014; Kurihara et al., 2018). Moreover, evidence from several gene-

specific or genome-wide studies suggests that uORFs do not trigger NMD. First, the mRNA

levels of several uORF-containing transcripts, including *NIP5;1* and *AtMHX*, are not increased in

NMD mutants (Saul et al., 2009; Tanaka et al., 2016). Second, a genome-wide study reported

that genes with increasing numbers of uORFs did not show lower transcript abundances in

Arabidopsis and tomato (Li and Liu, 2020). Third, genes with predicted uORFs are not over-

represented in the consensus NMD target list identified from three NMD mutants, including

upf1-5, *upf3-1*, and *smg7-1* (Rayson et al., 2012). It was also reported that 47 mRNAs that

contain Conserved Peptide uORFs (CPuORFs) behave differently from NMD targets prior to

their degradation mediated by XRN4 (Nagarajan et al., 2019). It is unknown whether some

uORF-containing mRNAs escape NMD or whether uORF-containing mRNAs are generally not

targets of NMD in plants. It has been concluded that the mRNA features studied so far are

insufficient to infer NMD targetability in plants (Ohtani and Wachter, 2019). Overall, it remains

unclear how translated uORFs affect mRNA stability and what the role of NMD in this process is

in plants.

One limitation of the previous studies is that predicted uORFs, which include both

translated and untranslated uORFs, were commonly included in the analyses. Although many

uORFs have been predicted based on nucleotide sequences (Zhang et al., 2021), determining

which uORFs are actively translated still requires experimental evidence. Recently, deep

sequencing of ribosome footprints – known as ribosome profiling or Ribo-seq – has been

exploited to study genome-wide mRNA translation (Ingolia et al., 2009; Brar and Weissman,

2015). Several Ribo-seq studies in Arabidopsis have deployed different strategies to identify

translated uORFs (TuORFs) (Liu et al., 2013; Juntawong et al., 2014; Hsu et al., 2016; Hu et al.,

2016; Bazin et al., 2017; Kurihara et al., 2020). Among the parameters used, 3-nucleotide (3-nt)

periodicity, which corresponds to translating ribosomes deciphering 3 nts per codon, is

considered the most stringent criterion to identify high-confidence translation events (Ingolia et
al., 2009; Calviello et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2018; Harnett et al., 2021). Our previous work and a
recent study using RiboTaper (Calviello et al., 2016), which computes the statistical significance
of 3-nt periodicity, uncovered 187–1378 AUG-initiated TuORFs in Arabidopsis (Hsu et al., 2016;
Kurihara et al., 2020).

Here we further improved the Ribo-seq methodology and identified 2093 AUG-initiated
TuORFs in Arabidopsis seedlings. We systematically examined the assumed roles of TuORFs
in mORF translation and mRNA decay by integrating multiple genome-wide datasets. As
predicted, we found that TuORF mRNAs are associated with lower translation efficiency, shorter
mRNA half-lives, and lower protein abundance. Surprisingly, we found that, in contrast to the
animal paradigm, plant TuORF mRNAs are associated with higher steady-state mRNA levels,
and they are not increased in the NMD mutants. Examinations of additional parameters
revealed that uORFs and NMD regulate gene expression through separate mechanisms. Taken
together, our results reveal unexpected features and regulation of uORFs in Arabidopsis and
suggest that plants and animals have evolved different uORF-dependent mechanisms for gene
regulation.

RESULTS

Translated uORFs identified via an improved Ribo-seq method

Previously we optimized Ribo-seq to reach high 3-nt periodicity, and we exploited this unique feature of mRNA translation to identify translated ORFs in Arabidopsis (Hsu et al., 2016). Although the data revealed many unannotated translation events, the number of TuORFs uncovered was low, presumably due to insufficient Ribo-seq coverage within uORFs. We proposed that increasing Ribo-seq coverage could improve the efficiency of translated ORF identification, especially for relatively short ORFs, such as uORFs. Here we optimized the coverage of Ribo-seq in 7-day-old Arabidopsis seedlings by minimizing the potential loss of ribosome footprints during the purification process (see METHODS for details).

In addition to high correlations among biological replicates (**Figure S1A**), our new Ribo-seq data displayed characteristics expected for high-quality data, including strong 3-nt periodicity (92% in-frame reads), high enrichment for coding sequences (CDSs), and characteristic ribosome footprint lengths (**Figure 1A-C**). The improved coverage is evident when examining the number of unique ribosome footprints detected globally. At a sequencing depth of 20 million reads from randomly selected reads, the number of unique ribosome footprints in our new data is 4.01-fold higher than that in our previous dataset (**Figure 1D**). The coverage improvement is also evident in individual transcript profiles within both uORF and mORF regions. For example, a TuORF in *REPRESSOR OF GA1* (*RGA1*) was identified in our current data but missed in our previous study despite the mRNA levels being similar (**Figure S1B**).

The high-coverage data increased the number of TuORFs uncovered. In total, 2093 TuORFs were identified in 1768 genes based on significant 3-nt periodicity using RiboTaper (with the default cutoff of RiboTaper, Multitaper F-test, $p < 0.05$) and Araport11 annotation (**Figure 1E** and **Table S1A**). This result is in strong contrast to the relatively few TuORFs identified in Arabidopsis seedling shoots (93 TuORFs) and roots (138 TuORFs) from our previous data obtained using plants grown under similar conditions and using the same statistical analysis and annotations (**Figure 1E** and **Table S1B-C**). The new data also revealed translation from a higher number of Conserved Peptide uORFs (CPuORFs) and annotated coding sequences (mORFs of protein-coding genes) (**Figure 1E** and **Table S1D-F**). We manually plotted all TuORF genes to confirm strong 3-nt periodicity present in the expected uORF regions using RiboPlotR (Wu and Hsu, 2021) (examples shown in **Figure 1F-G, Figure S2**). Taken together, these results show that our enhanced-coverage Ribo-seq data dramatically improved the identification of TuORFs.

Previous analyses of predicted uORFs found that transcription factors and protein

kinases are overrepresented among uORF-containing genes (Von Arnim et al., 2014; Kim et al.,

2007). Consistent with these analyses, functions related to transcription factors and protein

kinases/phosphatases were identified as being enriched in our Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of

TuORF-containing genes (**Table S2**). We found that many TuORF-containing genes encode

extensively studied regulators of plant growth and environmental responses. For example, this

list included well-known transcription factors, such as those involved in hormone signaling

(RGA1 and AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR2/3/8), root development (SCARECROW), the

circadian clock (TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION1), and light signaling (PHYTOCHROME

INTERACTING FACTOR3/4/7) (Silverstone et al., 1998; Strayer et al., 2000; Di Laurenzio et al.,

1996; Ellis et al., 2005; Nagpal et al., 2005; Ni et al., 1998; Huq and Quail, 2002; Leivar et al.,

2008). The list also included well-characterized protein kinases, such as Phytochromes B and

E, ribosomal-protein S6 kinases (S6K1/2), and SNF1-related protein kinase 2 (SNRK2.1/2.5)

(**Figure S1B, S2A-N**) (Sharrock and Quail, 1989; Devlin et al., 1998; Zhang et al., 1994;

Mizoguchi et al., 1995; Park et al., 1993; Boudsocq et al., 2004). These results support the

notion that TuORFs control important cellular regulators in plants.

TuORF-containing genes have higher mRNA abundance but are associated with lower

translation efficiency, shorter mRNA half-lives, and lower protein abundance

To understand how uORF translation affects gene expression, we compared mRNA

abundance and translation efficiency of TuORF-containing genes (hereafter, TuORF genes),

genes containing sequence-predicted uORFs but undetected by RiboTaper (hereafter, UuORF

genes), and genes containing an annotated 5' UTR but no potential uORFs (hereafter, no-uORF

genes). Note that some UuORFs may be translated but missed in our analysis because their 3-

nt periodicity is insufficient to pass the statistical test: these include extremely short uORFs,

those translated at a low frequency, and those overlapping with mORF or other uORFs and thus

disrupting the 3-nt periodicity. To study the global effects of uORFs on mRNA stability and

protein abundance, we also compared genes with TuORFs, UuORFs, or no-uORFs, using

available mRNA half-life data determined by metabolic labeling in Arabidopsis seedlings and

two quantitative proteomics datasets from shoots and roots of Arabidopsis seedlings (Szabo et

al., 2020; Song et al., 2018). The growth conditions and source of the data are summarized in

Table S3. Below we presented the data in cumulative plots to show the trends of different gene

groups and in box plots to show the statistical results (**Figure 2A-H and S3**).

Studies in vertebrates have shown that uORF translation is associated with lower

steady-state mRNA abundance, consistent with the expectation that TuORF mRNAs are

regulated by NMD (Chew et al., 2016; Johnstone et al., 2016). Surprisingly, we found that

TuORF genes in Arabidopsis are associated with higher steady-state mRNA levels than those

of UuORF and no-uORF genes (**Figure 2A, 2E**), despite having shorter mRNA half-lives as

expected (**Figure 2C, 2G**). The median mRNA level of TuORF genes is 51% higher than that of

no-uORF genes (**Figure 2E**). The higher steady-state mRNA levels and shorter mRNA half-lives

together suggest that TuORF genes are highly transcribed. To examine whether the high

transcript levels of TuORF genes are conserved in other plant species, we reanalyzed our

previous tomato Ribo-seq data from seedling roots (Wu et al., 2019) and found the TuORF

genes in tomato also have higher steady-state mRNA levels relative to no-uORF genes (**Figure

S4A**). Given that Arabidopsis and tomato diverged more than 100 million years ago (Clarke et

al., 2011), our results suggest that TuORF-associated higher mRNA abundance could be

prevalent in plants. To investigate whether our observation is specific to seedlings or common to

different developmental stages/tissues/genetic backgrounds in Arabidopsis and tomato, we

examined the mRNA levels of the uORF-containing genes in 128 independent RNA-seq studies

collected by the EMBO-EBI expression atlas (Papatheodorou et al., 2020). Consistent with our

Arabidopsis seedlings and tomato seedling root data, we found the TuORF genes are

associated with higher mRNA levels in diverse tissues, developmental stages, and ecotypes in

Arabidopsis and tomato (**Figure 2I and S5A-C**), supporting the hypothesis that TuORF genes

are preferentially expressed at high levels in these plants under a wide range of sampling

conditions.

CPuORFs are uORFs that encode evolutionarily conserved peptides, and they were

identified independently from our approach by evolutionary conservation (Hayden and

Jorgensen, 2007; Jorgensen and Dorantes-Acosta, 2012; Takahashi et al., 2012; Vaughn et al.,

2012; Van Der Horst et al., 2019). Many CPuORFs were also identified as TuORFs in our study

(**Figure 1E, 1G**). We found that the median mRNA abundance of CPuORF genes is 2.2-fold of

that of no-uORF genes (**Figure S6**), consistent with our observations that genes with TuORFs

are expressed at higher levels.

Next, we examined the translation efficiency, mRNA half-lives, and protein levels of

TuORF, UuORF, and no-uORF genes. Consistent with the animal studies, we found

Arabidopsis TuORF genes are associated with lower translation efficiency, shorter mRNA half-

lives, and less protein accumulation than UuORF and no-uORF genes (**Figure 2B-D, 2F-H, S3,

S4B**). Interestingly, even though globally TuORF genes start with 51% more mRNAs than no-

uORF genes (**Figure 2E**), they produce 41%–43% less protein (**Figure 2H, S3**), on average,

likely due to the combined effects of a 38% reduction in translation efficiency (**Figure 2F**) and a

14% reduction in mRNA half-lives (**Figure 2G**). These observations suggest that the global

repression of TuORF gene protein synthesis is determined by multilayer post-transcriptional

regulation. Notably, for the four parameters examined here, UuORF genes consistently have

levels between those of TuORF genes and no-uORF genes: they show a 4% increase in mRNA

levels and 11%, 6%, and 21% reductions in translation efficiency, mRNA half-lives, and protein

abundance, respectively (**Figure 2A-H**). These results indicate that UuORFs have smaller

effects on gene expression than TuORFs and highlight the importance of distinguishing

TuORFs and UuORFs in genome-wide analysis.

TuORF genes are larger and likely evolutionarily older than other genes

We next investigated whether there are general structural differences among TuORF,

UuORF, and no-uORF mRNAs. Considering the directionality of ribosome scanning, we

hypothesized TuORFs might be associated with longer 5' UTRs. Indeed, we found that the

median 5' UTR length of TuORF mRNAs is 2.5-fold of that of no-uORF mRNAs (**Figure S7A**),

which is consistent with a previous report that uORFs in longer 5' UTRs are more likely to be

translated (Liu et al., 2013). However, unexpectedly, we found that TuORF mRNAs also have

longer CDSs and 3'UTRs, as well as longer transcript lengths, than UuORF mRNAs (**Figure**

S7B-D). No-uORF mRNAs are the shortest in all categories examined (**Figure S7A-D**). These

results support the hypothesis that TuORFs are more likely to be found in longer 5' UTRs and

reveal that TuORF mRNAs tend to encode larger proteins (**Figure S7B**). The enrichment of

TuORF genes for transcription factors, protein kinases, and related functions in GO term

analysis (**Table S2**) also implies TuORF genes tend to encode proteins with conserved

domains. It is known that evolutionarily older genes are generally longer, expressed at higher

levels, and have protein sequences that are under stronger purifying selection (Wolfa et al.,

2009; Cui et al., 2015). Our observations that TuORF genes possess many features of

evolutionarily older genes imply that older genes are more likely to be regulated through mRNA

translation and degradation mediated by TuORFs.

TuORF mRNAs are not upregulated in the NMD mutants

The established paradigm in vertebrates is that uORF translation triggers NMD and thus

results in low steady-state mRNA levels (Chew et al., 2016; Johnstone et al., 2016; Hurt et al.,

2013; Baird et al., 2018). Despite having higher steady-state mRNA levels (**Figure 2A and 2E**),

TuORF genes in Arabidopsis also have shorter mRNA half-lives (**Figure 2C and 2G**).

Therefore, we investigated whether TuORF-containing transcripts in Arabidopsis are still subject

to NMD.

If TuORFs trigger NMD, one would expect TuORF mRNAs to be among the known NMD

targets and their mRNA levels to be increased in NMD-deficient mutants. We first examined

whether TuORF mRNAs were reported in the high-confidence NMD target list (Raxwal et al.,

2020). Among the 333 NMD targets that were upregulated in both *upf1 pad4* and *smg7 pad4*

adult leaves (Raxwal et al., 2020), 248 genes with an annotated 5' UTR were expressed in our

data (**Table S4A**). However, only 49 of 1748 TuORF genes were identified in the high-

confidence NMD target list (**Table S4B**). The 49 genes represent 2.8% of TuORF-containing

genes and 20% of the NMD targets. These results suggest that TuORFs generally do not trigger

NMD; rather, NMD targets are more likely to be regulated by TuORFs than other genes (Chi-

square test with Yates' correction: p-value = 7.555e-10). One caveat is that the poor overlap

between the two gene lists could be due to differences in growth conditions, developmental

stages, and sample handling in different labs (**Table S3**).

To further investigate if TuORF mRNAs are NMD targets, we examined whether they are

upregulated in NMD-deficient mutants by analyzing four published RNA-seq datasets for NMD

mutants (Drechsel et al., 2013; Merchante et al., 2015; Raxwal et al., 2020; Gloggnitzer et al.,

2014). Although these datasets were collected from different NMD mutants and at various

developmental stages (**Table S3**), the high-confidence NMD targets are consistently and

significantly upregulated in all the NMD mutants examined compared with the control plants

(i.e., 3.05-, 1.54-, 4.98-, and 2.65-fold for NMD targets without TuORFs; 3.04-, 2.23-, 5.04-, and

2.66-fold for NMD targets with TuORFs) (**Figure 3A-D**). In contrast, TuORF mRNA levels show

no or little change in the NMD mutants (i.e., 1.01-, 0.98-, 1.10- and 1.10-fold). Thus, only the

NMD targets, but not TuORF mRNAs, are dramatically increased in the NMD mutants,

supporting the idea that uORF translation in Arabidopsis may not trigger NMD.

Given different uORFs are translated at various levels (See **Figure 1F-G, S1B, S2A-N**

for examples), it is possible only the highly repressive TuORFs efficiently trigger NMD. To test

this hypothesis, we split the TuORF genes into two groups based on their uORF relative

translation efficiency (RTE) (i.e., TE of an uORF is normalized to TE of its mORF). However,

even the higher TuORF RTE group shows no or little effects on the mRNA accumulation in the

NMD mutants (i.e., 1.13-, 0.99-, 1.15- and 1.11-fold) (**Figure 3E-H**). We also tested whether

having more TuORFs in a transcript efficiently triggers NMD by splitting the TuORF genes into

two groups based on the number of TuORFs detected. We found that even transcripts with 2~5

TuORFs do not lead to significant mRNA increase in the NMD mutants, either (i.e., 0.93-, 0.98-,

0.99- and 1.09-fold)(**Figure 3I-L**). Together, these results support the idea that NMD is not a

major mechanism for controlling uORF-containing mRNAs.

Lengths of the TuORF and 3' UTR alone are insufficient to predict NMD targetability

A previous study suggested that uORFs that encode a peptide longer than 35 amino

acids are likely to trigger NMD in Arabidopsis (Nyikó et al., 2009). To test whether TuORF

length is associated with NMD targetability, we analyzed TuORF lengths in the NMD targets and

non-NMD targets. We found that the NMD target TuORF genes tend to have longer uORF

peptides than non-NMD target TuORF genes (median length 28 amino acids vs. 20.5 amino

acids, p = 9.874e-07, Wilcoxon signed-rank test). However, the distributions of the uORF

peptide lengths in NMD targets and non-NMD targets largely overlap (**Figure S8**), indicating

that TuORF length alone is insufficient to predict whether a TuORF triggers NMD of a transcript.

We also examined whether the high-confidence NMD targets have longer 3' UTRs, a

feature that potentially triggers NMD. We found that the NMD targets do not have significantly

longer 3' UTRs, regardless of whether they contain TuORFs (**Figure S9**). Taken together, our

results are consistent with the notion that no definite RNA features studied to date are sufficient

to predict NMD targets in plants (Ohtani and Wachter, 2019).

TuORF mRNAs and NMD targets have distinct expression patterns

To further characterize the roles of NMD and TuORFs in gene expression regulation, we

compared the expression patterns of the NMD targets and TuORF mRNAs (**Figure 4**).

Consistent with the expectation that NMD targets are being actively degraded, we found that

NMD targets have lower mRNA abundance than other mRNAs; this is in strong contrast to

TuORF mRNAs, which have higher mRNA abundance than other mRNAs (**Figure 4A, 4E**).

While both NMD targets and TuORF mRNAs are associated with lower translation efficiency,

shorter mRNA half-lives, and lower protein abundance than other mRNAs (**Figure 4B-D, 4F-H**),

the NMD targets are associated with even lower protein levels than TuORF mRNAs (**Figure 4D,**

4H).

If TuORFs effectively trigger NMD, one would expect TuORF mRNAs to have translation

efficiency similar to that of NMD targets with TuORFs, which would inherently be repressed by

both TuORFs and NMD. However, we found that NMD targets with TuORFs have significantly

lower translation efficiency than either NMD targets without TuORFs or TuORF mRNAs not

identified as NMD targets (**Figure 4B, 4F**). This additive repression of translation efficiency in

NMD targets with TuORFs suggests that NMD and TuORFs suppress translation through

separate mechanisms. This result also supports that TuORFs do not effectively trigger NMD.

Our observation is consistent with the expectation that TuORFs prevent the scanning pre-

initiation complex from reaching the mORF, while NMD suppresses translation through UPF1

and/or other translational repressors (Isken et al., 2008; Raxwal et al., 2020; Zinshteyn et al.,

2021).

Together, the differences in the expression patterns between TuORF mRNAs and NMD

targets further support the idea that TuORF mRNAs behave differently from NMD targets in

Arabidopsis.

TuORF mRNAs and NMD targets are degraded through different mRNA decay

mechanisms

We next investigated the mechanisms underlying the decay of TuORF mRNAs and NMD

targets. mRNA decay can occur in the 5' to 3' or 3' to 5' direction, which is carried out by

different machinery (Sieburth and Vincent, 2018). A genome-wide survey of mRNA decay rates

in wild type and mutants defective in either 5' to 3' decay or 3' to 5' decay, or both, has been

conducted in Arabidopsis (Sorenson et al., 2018). In that survey, the *vcs-7* mutant, a null mutant

of *VARICOSE*, which encodes a scaffold protein for the mRNA decapping complex, was used to

examine the 5' to 3' mRNA decay; the *sov* mutant, defective in *SUPPRESSOR OF VARICOSE*,

which encodes a ribonuclease II, was used to examine 3' to 5' decay; and the *vcs/sov* double

mutant was used to examine decay affected in both directions (Deyholos et al., 2003; Goeres et

al., 2007; Xu et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2010). We exploited this published dataset (Sorenson et

al., 2018) to study the genetic requirements for the mRNA decay of TuORF mRNAs, NMD

targets, TuORF-containing NMD targets, and other mRNAs.

We first compared the decay rates of each gene group across the four genetic

backgrounds (**Figure 5**). Similar to mRNAs that are non-NMD targets and lack TuORFs (i.e.,

other mRNAs, **Figure 5D, 5H**), TuORF mRNAs have dramatically reduced decay rates in the

vcs mutant compared to the wild type (**Figure 5A, 5E**), indicating that decapping and 5' to 3'

decay are critical for degrading these transcripts. In the *vcs/sov* double mutant, TuORF mRNAs

have slightly but significantly lower decay rates than in the *vcs* mutant (**Figure 5A and 5E**),

suggesting *SOV* also plays a minor role in degrading TuORF mRNAs.

In contrast, the mRNA decay rates of NMD targets without TuORFs are only significantly

lower in the *vcs/sov* double mutant (**Figure 5B, 5F**), suggesting that NMD targets can be

efficiently degraded by either the 5' to 3' or 3' to 5' pathways. In other words, in the absence of

either *SOV* or *VCS*, the remaining pathway could completely take over the decay of NMD

targets (**Figure 5B, 5F**). Although there are fewer NMD targets containing TuORFs, which

resulted in small sample size and statistical insignificance (**Figure 5C, 5G**), the decay rates in

this group of genes in the four genetic backgrounds show trends similar to other NMD targets

without TuORFs (**Figure 5B, 5F**).

Next, we compared the decay rates of the four gene groups within each genetic

background (**Figure S10**). In all four genetic backgrounds, NMD targets with or without TuORFs

consistently have higher decay rates than TuORF mRNAs and other mRNAs (**Figure S10A-H**).

This pattern is still persistent in the *vcs/sov* double mutant **(Figure S10D, S10H)**, suggesting

additional decay pathway(s) is involved in degrading the NMD targets in the absence of both

VCS and SOV.

Taken together, our results suggest that TuORF mRNAs and NMD targets are

preferentially degraded through different decay pathways. Furthermore, NMD targets

consistently have higher decay rates than TuORF mRNAs and appear to be regulated by

additional pathway(s) other than VCS and SOV (see the model in **Figure 5I**).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we identified Arabidopsis TuORFs using improved Ribo-seq data and

systematically examined their roles in gene expression. While our results support the expected

roles of uORFs in repressing mORF translation and mRNA stability, our study reveals distinct

features and regulation of uORFs in plants compared with animals.

Our observations that plant TuORF genes are associated with higher expression levels

(**Figure 2**), encode larger proteins (**Figure S7B**), and are enriched for evolutionarily conserved

domains (**Table S2**) raised an interesting question as to whether older genes are more likely to

be controlled at the protein levels through mRNA degradation and translation via uORFs. Higher

mRNA abundance may allow TuORF mRNAs to be highly translated under certain conditions

that require a high level of specific proteins. For example, it has been suggested that

derepression of downstream translation is a general mechanism of uORF-mediated expression

under stress (Andreev et al., 2018). Thus, TuORFs could enable fast and dynamic regulation of

mORF translation. Future work monitoring the translation of TuORFs and their mORFs under

different conditions will help decipher the regulation and physiological roles of specific TuORFs.

If TuORFs trigger NMD in Arabidopsis, we would expect that TuORF mRNAs behave

similarly to NMD targets. In this report, we presented six observations suggesting that

Arabidopsis TuORF mRNAs and NMD targets are two distinct groups of transcripts: (1) NMD

targets, but not TuORF mRNAs, are upregulated in various NMD mutants (**Figure 3**). (2)

TuORF mRNAs have significantly higher transcript levels, while the NMD targets have lower

transcript levels than other genes (**Figure 4A and 4E**). (3) NMD and TuORFs additively repress

translation, suggesting they repress translation through separate mechanisms (**Figure 4B, 4F**).

(4) While NMD targets are efficiently degraded through both 5' to 3' and 3' to 5' decay, TuORF

mRNAs, like other genes, mainly rely on 5' to 3' decay (**Figure 5**). (5) The decay rates of NMD

targets are consistently higher than those of TuORF mRNAs (**Figure S10**). (6) NMD targets also

appear to be degraded by additional pathway(s) in the absence of both *VCS* and *SOV* (**Figure**

S10H). These differences between TuORF mRNAs and NMD targets suggest that NMD is not a

major mechanism regulating TuORF mRNAs.

The fact that Arabidopsis is missing key NMD factors found in animals, including SMG1,

SMG5, and SMG6, suggests significant variations in the NMD mechanisms between plants and

animals. In particular, SMG1 is the kinase responsible for UPF1 phosphorylation required for

substrate recognition in animal NMD (He and Jacobson, 2015; Kurosaki et al., 2019). The lack

of SMG1 and the use of an alternative kinase for Arabidopsis UPF1 phosphorylation (Kerényi et

al., 2013) may lead to a difference in substrate recognition: while TuORF mRNAs are

recognized as NMD targets in animals, plant TuORF mRNAs are not.

Despite the difference in NMD components in plants and animals, our findings that

Arabidopsis NMD targets are degraded through both 5' to 3' decay and 3' to 5' decay is

consistent with the two-directional decay of NMD targets in animals. Note that plant SOV is the

homolog of DIS3L2, the exonuclease responsible for 3' to 5' decay of NMD targets in animals

(Chang et al., 2013; Lubas et al., 2013). Two-directional decay could be advantageous to

quickly remove aberrant mRNAs from the cytoplasm to prevent further translation and facilitate

the recycling of NMD machinery.

It is well established that there is an important interplay between translation efficiency

and mRNA stability. Two mechanisms have been proposed to explain this phenomenon: the

"stalled ribosome-triggered decay model," which predicts that ribosome stalling or slowing

promotes mRNA degradation, and the "translation factor-protected model," which predicts that

active translation promotes mRNA stability because the translation initiation factors protect the

mRNA from the decapping complex (Presnyak et al., 2015; Radhakrishnan et al., 2016;

Beelman and Parker, 1994; LaGrandeur and Parker, 1999; Schwartz and Parker, 2000; Chan et

al., 2018). Consistent with the first model, several CPuORF-containing mRNAs in Arabidopsis

were reported to have strong ribosome stalling patterns, and the endonucleolytic cleavages

upstream of the stalled ribosomes were observed (Hou et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2016). While most

of the TuORFs we identified did not display clear stalling patterns (e.g., **Figure 1F-G, S1B,**

S2A-N), it remains possible that ribosomes have lower translation speeds, on average, during

uORF translation. Because ribosomes will quickly approach termination after initiation due to the

short length of uORFs, and because both initiation and termination are major time-consuming

steps in translation (Shah et al., 2013; Lawson et al., 2021), the average translation speed per

codon for uORFs is likely to be slower than that for longer ORFs. Alternatively, if cells mainly

monitor the translation efficiency of the mORF, then the poorer mORF translation caused by

uORFs could explain the faster degradation of TuORF mRNAs predicted by this model. In

contrast, since ribosomes actively engage with TuORFs, the "translation factor-protected" model

does not fit TuORF mRNAs, especially because their degradation relies on decapping and 5' to

3' decay in plants. Further investigation into TuORF-mediated mRNA degradation will help

elucidate the role of uORFs in regulating mRNA stability.

METHODS

Plant growth conditions and lysate preparation

Arabidopsis Col-0 seeds were surface sterilized with 70% ethanol for 5 min, followed by 33% bleach and 0.03% Tween 20 for 10 min, then rinsed with sterile water 5 times. The seeds were imbided at 4°C in the dark for 2 days, then grown hydroponically in sterile liquid media (2.15 g/L Murashige and Skoog salt, 1% sucrose, 0.5 g/L MES, pH 5.7) while shaking at 85 rpm under a 16-h light (75–80 µmol m^{-2}·s^{-1} from cool white fluorescent bulbs) and 8-h dark cycle at 22°C for 7 days. At Zeitgeber time 4 (4 h after lights on), DMSO corresponding to 0.1% of the media volume was added to the media (these were mock samples of our large-scale experiment). After 20 and 60 min, three biological replicates (~300 plants per sample) were harvested at each time point and immediately flash frozen in liquid nitrogen.

Plant lysates were prepared as previously described (Hsu et al., 2016). Briefly, per 0.1 g of ground tissue powder was resuspended in 400 µL of lysis buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8], 40 mM KCl, 20 mM MgCl$_2$, 2% [v/v] polyoxyethylene [10] tridecyl ether [Sigma, P2393], 1% [w/v] sodium deoxycholate [Sigma, D6750], 1 mM dithiothreitol, 100 µg/mL cycloheximide [Sigma, C4859], 100 µg/mL chloramphenicol [Sigma R4408], and 10 units/mL DNase I [Epicenter, D9905K]). The lysates were spun at 3,000 g for 3 min, and the supernatant was transferred to a new tube and subsequently centrifuged at 20,000 g for 10 min. The supernatant was transferred to a new tube and the RNA concentration was determined with 10x dilutions using the Qubit RNA HS assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Q32852). Aliquots of 100 µL and 200 µL of the lysates were made, and they were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until further processing.

Ribo-seq library construction

Ribosome footprints were obtained using 200 µL of the lysates described above, and sequencing libraries were constructed according to our previous method (Hsu et al., 2016) with the following modifications: briefly, after RNase I digestion (50 units nuclease per 40 µg of RNA; the nuclease was included in TruSeq Mammalian Ribo Profile Kit, Illumina, RPHMR12126), adding 15 µl of SUPERase-IN (Invitrogen, AM2696), and passing through a size exclusion column (Illustra MicroSpin S-400 HR Columns; GE Healthcare; 27-5140-01), RNA > 17 nt was isolated with the RNA Clean & Concentrator-25 kit (Zymo Research, R1017) and separated on 15% urea-TBE gels (Invitrogen, EC68852BOX). Gel slices between 28 and 30 nt were isolated, and the RNAs were purified as previously described. Next, rRNA depletion was performed using

RiboZero Plant Leaf kit (Illumina, MRZPL1224) in one quarter of the recommended reaction

volume. The major change we made here was to gel-purify the ribosome footprints prior to the

rRNA depletion. In our previous protocol, we purified the RNA twice (first >17 nt and then <200

nt) to enrich ribosome footprints before the rRNA depletion and gel purification. We reasoned

that some footprints might be lost during the two RNA purification steps. In addition, the rRNA

depletion step requires a limited amount of input RNA according to the manufacturer's

recommendations. Therefore, we expected modifying the order of these steps could maximize

the input and minimize the footprint loss during the processes. Ribo-seq libraries were then

constructed using the TruSeq Mammalian Ribo Profile Kit (illumina, RPHMR12126) as

previously described with nine cycles of PCR amplification. Libraries with equal molarity were

pooled and sequenced on a Hi-Seq 4000 sequencer using single-end 50-bp sequencing.

RNA-seq library construction

Total RNA greater than 200 nt was purified from 100 µL of the lysates described above using

the RNA Clean & Concentrator-25 kit (Zymo Research, R1017) as previously described (Hsu et

al., 2016). RNA integrity was evaluated using a Bioanalyzer (Agilent) RNA pico chip, and RNA

integrity numbers (RINs) ranging from 7.2 to 7.7 were observed among the samples. A total of 4

µg of RNA per sample was subjected to rRNA depletion using the RiboZero Plant Leaf kit

(Illumina, MRZPL1224) following the manufacturer's recommendations. Then, 100 ng of rRNA-

depleted RNA was fragmented to around 200-nt long based on the RIN reported by the

Bioanalyzer, and strand-specific sequencing libraries were made using the NEBNext Ultra II

Directional RNA Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs, E7760S) with eight cycles of

amplification. Libraries of equal molarity were pooled and sequenced on a Hi-Seq 4000 using

paired-end 100-bp sequencing.

Data pre-processing and analysis

Data pre-processing and analysis were performed similarly to that previously described (Hsu et

al., 2016), except that the Araport11 annotation was used in this study. Briefly, for Ribo-seq

libraries, the adaptor (AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCT) was clipped with fastx_clipper (FASTX

toolkit v0.0.14) (http://hannonlab.cshl.edu/fastx_tool- kit/). For both RNA-seq and Ribo-seq, we

used Bowtie2 (v2.3.4.1) (Langmead and Salzberg, 2012) to remove

rRNA/tRNA/snRNA/snoRNA sequences. Both the RNA-seq and Ribo-seq reads were mapped

to the transcriptome with STAR aligner (Dobin et al., 2013) (RNA-seq parameters: --

outFilterMismatchNmax 2 --outFilterMultimapNmax 20 --outFilterType BySJout --

alignSJoverhangMin 8 --alignSJDBoverhangMin 2; all parameters used for Ribo-seq were the

same except --outFilterMismatchNmax 1). We then used the bam files from both RNA-seq and

Ribo-seq for RiboTaper (v1.3.1a) (Calviello et al., 2016) to identify translated ORFs. The

distribution of Ribo-seq reads in different genome features was calculated using Ribo-seQC.

The Ribo-seq metaplot was created using the create_metaplots.bash function in RiboTaper.

The Ribo-seq read lengths and offsets for RiboTaper were 24, 25, 26, 27, 28 and 8, 9, 10, 11,

12, respectively. Combining both 20-min and 60-min samples, the total reads mapped to the

genome for Ribo-seq and RNA-seq were 298.01 million and 180.67 million, respectively. The

discovered uORFs and mORFs were extracted from the RiboTaper output ORF_max_filt file. To

calculate translation efficiency, we first used STAR to map the RNA-seq and Ribo-seq reads to

the CDS of annotated coding genes. The resulting bam files were used to quantify the

transcripts per million (TPM) of each gene with RSEM (v1.3.1) (Li and Dewey, 2011). Then,

translation efficiency was calculated by dividing the Ribo-seq TPM by the RNA-seq TPM. The

root and shoot data from Hsu et al., 2016 (Hsu et al., 2016) were reanalyzed using the

Araport11 annotation. The P_sites_all files from RiboTaper were processed using the following

code: cut -f 1,3,6 P_sites_all | sort | uniq -c | sed -r 's/^(*[^]+) +/\1\t/' > output.txt to combine the

read counts at each P-site. Data visualization and statistical analysis were performed in R

(v4.0.3) (R Core Team (2013), 2017). In particular, the gene levels from the Ribo-seq and RNA-

seq reads were visualized with RiboPlotR (Wu and Hsu, 2021).

The mRNA half-life and mRNA decay rate data were downloaded from Szabo et al. and

Sorenson et al., respectively (Szabo et al., 2020; Sorenson et al., 2018). The quantitative

proteomics data for Arabidopsis shoots and roots were downloaded from Song et al. (Song et

al., 2018). The expression levels (TPM) used for investigating mRNA levels of uORF genes in

different tissues, developmental stages, and ecotypes in Arabidopsis and in tomato were

directly downloaded from the EMBO-EBI expression atlas (E-MTAB-7978: Arabidopsis tissue

atlas, E-GEOD-53197: 17 Arabidopsis thaliana accessions, E-MTAB-4812: tomato root, leaf,

flower [two stages], and fruit [six stages], and E-MTAB-4813: three longitudinal sections of six

stages during tomato fruit development) (Papatheodorou et al., 2020). Our previous Ribo-seq

and RNA-seq data for Arabidopsis roots and shoots were described in (Hsu et al., 2016); our

previous Ribo-seq and RNA-seq data for tomato roots were described in (Wu et al., 2019). The

published RNA-seq data for the NMD mutants *upf1* (*lba1*) *upf3-1* and its wild-type control (GEO:

GSE41432), *smg7-1 pad4* and its *pad4* control (GEO: GSE55884), *upf1-3 pad4* and its *pad4*

control (GEO: GSE146340), and *upf2-10* and its wild-type control (SRA: SRP056795) were

downloaded, and the mRNA levels were quantified by Kalisto (Bray et al., 2016) and the TPM

values were further analyzed to compare the steady-state mRNA levels in different categories of

genes.

AVAILABILITY OF DATA AND MATERIALS

All raw and processed sequencing data generated in this study have been submitted to the

NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) under accession

number GSE183264. The genomic locations of TuORFs are available on TAIR genome browser

(https://www.arabidopsis.org). Codes for this study are available at

https://github.com/hsinyenwu/TuORF_vs_NMD_2022.

COMPETING INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

HLW and PYH designed the research, PYH performed the sequencing experiments, HLW

analyzed the sequencing data, HLW and PYH interpreted the data, and HLW and PYH wrote

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 FIGURES and FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1

Figure 1. Enhanced Ribo-seq coverage improves uORF identification

(A) Metagene analysis of 28-nt ribosome footprints mapped to regions near the start and stop codons of annotated ORFs. The reads are presented with their first nt at the P-site, which is the 13th nt for 28-nt footprints. The reads are colored in red, blue, and green to indicate they are in the first (expected), second, and third reading frames, respectively.

937  The majority of footprints were mapped to the CDS in the expected reading frame

938    (92.4% in frame).

939  (B) Genomic features mapped by ribosome footprints. Reads that mapped to nuclear (Nuc)-,

940    mitochondrial (Mt)-, and plastid (Pt)-encoded genes are shown.

941  (C) Length distribution of ribosome footprints. Reads that mapped to nuclear-encoded genes

942    are presented.

943  (D) Distinct P-sites detected in 1 to 20 million randomly selected ribosome footprints from

944    our current and previous datasets.

945  (E) Numbers of TuORFs, CPuORFs, and mORFs identified in our current and previous

946    datasets.

947  (F-G) RNA-seq and Ribo-seq profiles of *ATKAO1 and SAMDC1* from our current data. RNA-

948    seq coverage is shown with a light-yellow background. Ribo-seq reads are presented

949    with their first nt at the P-site, and they are colored in red, blue, and green to indicate

950    they are in the first (expected), second, and third reading frames, respectively. Within the

951    gene models, yellow boxes represent the TuORFs, black boxes represent the annotated

952    mORFs, and gray and white regions indicate 5' UTRs and 3' UTRs, respectively. The

953    specific isoform being considered is indicated to the left of the gene model. Within the

954    profiles, green and orange vertical dashed lines represent translation start and stop,

955    respectively, for the TuORF. Black and gray vertical dashed lines represent translation

956    start and stop, respectively, for the annotated mORF.

Figure 2

Figure 2. TuORF-containing genes have higher mRNA abundance but are associated with
lower translation efficiency, shorter mRNA half-lives, and lower protein abundance

(A-D) Cumulative plots and (E-H) boxplots for the mRNA levels, translation efficiency, mRNA

half-lives, and protein levels of TuORF, UuORF, and no-uORF genes in Arabidopsis seedlings.

The mRNA half-life data, which were measured with metabolic labeling in Arabidopsis

seedlings, were extracted from (Szabo et al., 2020), and the protein abundance as determined

by quantitative proteomics in Arabidopsis seedling shoots were extracted from (Song et al.,

2018). Within the boxplots (E-H), the dashed lines mark the median level of the no-uORF

genes; the number of genes in each category is listed below the lower whisker. The ratios

underneath the plots indicate the median of each group normalized to that of the no-uORF

genes. The statistical significance was determined by Wilcoxon signed-rank test. The adjusted

p-value was determined using the Benjamini and Yekutieli procedure to control for the false

discovery rate in multiple testing (* $0.05 > p > 0.01$, ** $0.01 > p > 0.001$, *** $0.001 > p > 1e-4$,

**** $1e-4 > p > 0$). These statistical analyses and graphic layouts were applied to all boxplots in

the study.

(I) The mRNA levels of TuORF, UuORF, and no-uORF genes in 46 Arabidopsis tissues and

developmental stages from independent studies. The TPM values from RNA-seq quantification

were downloaded from the EMBO-EBI expression atlas (Papatheodorou et al., 2020). Additional

82 Arabidopsis and tomato RNA-seq datasets were presented in Figure S5.

Figure 3

Figure 3: TuORF mRNAs are not upregulated in the NMD mutants

The ratios of mRNA levels between NMD mutants and their control plants from four RNA-seq

datasets (Drechsel et al., 2013; Merchante et al., 2015; Raxwal et al., 2020; Gloggnitzer et al.,

2014) were used to examine the effects of the NMD pathway on four gene groups: NMD targets

without TuORF (NMDt w/o TuORF), NMD targets with TuORF (NMDt w/ TuORF), TuORF

mRNAs not identified as NMD targets (TuORF non-NMDt) and other mRNAs. (A) *upf1* (*lba1*

allele) *upf3-1* double mutant compared with wild type (Col-0). (B) *upf2-10* compared with wild

type (Col-0). (C) *upf1-3 pad4* compared with *pad4*. (D) *smg7-1 pad4* compared with *pad4*. See

Table S3 for specific growth conditions for each dataset. (E-H) Same datasets as 4A-D, but the

TuORF mRNAs were grouped based on low or high relative TuORF translation efficiency (RTE)

(i.e., TE_{TuORF} / TE_{mORF}). (I-L) Same datasets as 4A-D, but the TuORF mRNAs were grouped

based on the number of TuORF(s). Within the boxplots, the dashed lines mark the median level

of other mRNAs; the number of genes in each category is listed below the lower whisker. The

ratios underneath the plots indicate the median of each group normalized to that of other

mRNAs. The statistical significance was determined as described in the Figure 2 legend.

Figure 4

Figure 4. Expression patterns of NMD targets and TuORF mRNAs.

Cumulative plots (A-D) and boxplots (E-H) for the mRNA levels (A, E), translation efficiency (B, F), mRNA half-lives (C, G), and protein levels (D, H) of NMD targets (NMDt) without or with TuORFs compared with those of TuORF mRNAs not identified as NMD targets and other mRNAs. Within the boxplots, the dashed lines mark the median level of other mRNAs; the number of genes in each category is listed below the lower whisker. The ratios underneath the plots indicate the median of each group normalized to that of other mRNAs. The statistical significance was determined as described in the Figure 2 legend.

Figure 5

Figure 5. TuORF mRNAs and NMD targets are degraded through different mRNA decay

mechanisms

Cumulative plots (A-D) and boxplots (E-H) showing the mRNA decay rates for NMD targets and

TuORF mRNAs in wild type and mutants defective in either 5' to 3' decay (*vcs-7*), 3' to 5' decay

(*sov*), or both (*vcs sov).* The mRNA decay rates were extracted from (Sorenson et al., 2018).

Because Col-0 is naturally an *sov* mutant, the wild type here is Col-0 carrying the functional

SOV allele from Landsberg *erecta* driven by its native promoter (Zhang et al., 2010; Goeres et

al., 2007). The *sov* mutant here is Col-0, and *vcs* is Col-0 with the *vsc-7* allele and the L*er SOV*

transgene. The *vcs sov* double mutant is Col-0 carrying the *vcs-7* mutation (Sorenson et al.,

2018). Within the boxplots, the dashed lines mark the median level of wild type; the number of

genes in each category is listed below the lower whisker. The ratios underneath the plots

indicate the median of each group normalized to that of wild type. The statistical significance

1027   was determined as described in the Figure 2 legend. (I) Model of mRNA decay for NMD targets,

1028   TuORF mRNAs, and other mRNAs. The orange packman indicates 5'-to-3' decay machinery,

1029   and the hot pink packman indicates 3'-to-5' decay machinery.

1030

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Figure S1. Correlations among samples and comparisons between our previous and current

datasets

Figure S2. Examples of TuORFs in important regulatory genes.

Figure S3. Protein abundance of the uORF-containing genes in Arabidopsis root

Figure S4. The mRNA levels and translation efficiency of TuORF mRNAs in tomato

Figure S5. mRNA levels of uORF-containing genes in different ecotypes, growth stages, and

tissues in Arabidopsis and tomato

Figure S6. mRNA levels of CPuORF-containing genes compared to those of no-uORF genes

Figure S7. TuORF genes are larger than other genes

Figure S8. Lengths of the uORF peptides for NMD target and non-NMD target TuORFs

Figure S9. Lengths of UTRs and CDS for NMD targets and TuORF genes

Figure S10. The mRNA decay rates of NMD targets and TuORF-containing mRNAs in different

genetic backgrounds

Table S1. Translated ORFs identified by RiboTaper

• **Table S1A-C.** Translated uORFs identified in the current dataset and our previous

Arabidopsis shoot and root datasets

• **Table S1D-F.** Translated mORFs identified in the current dataset and our previous

Arabidopsis shoot and root datasets

Table S2. GO-term analysis of TuORF genes

Table S3. Summary of the large-scale datasets used in this study

Table S4. NMD target gene list

• **Table S4A.** High-confidence NMD targets expressed in our data

• **Table S4B.** 49 genes identified as high-confidence NMD target TuORF genes

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