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2 transcriptional regulation during rice hypoxic germination

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39 Abstract

40 Post-transcriptional mechanisms, including alternative splicing (AS) and alternative 41 translation initiation (ATI), have been used to explain the protein diversity involved in 42 plant developmental processes and stress responses. Rice germination under hypoxia 43 conditions is a classical model system for the study of low oxygen stress. It is known 44 that there is transcriptional regulation during rice hypoxic germination, but the 45 potential roles of AS and ATI in this process are not well understood. In this study, a 46 proteogenomic approach was used to integrate the data from RNA sequencing, 47 qualitative and quantitative proteomics to discover new players or pathways in the 48 response to hypoxia stress. The improved analytical pipeline of proteogenomics led to 49 the identification of 10,253 intron-containing genes, 1,729 of which were not present 50 in the current annotation. Approximately 1,741 differentially expressed AS (DAS) 51 events from 811 genes were identified in hypoxia-treated seeds in comparison to 52 controls. Over 95% of these were not present in the list of differentially expressed 53 genes (DEG). In particular, regulatory pathways such as spliceosome, ribosome, ER 54 protein processing and export, proteasome, phagosome, oxidative phosphorylation 55 and mRNA surveillance showed substantial AS changes under hypoxia, suggesting 56 that AS responses are largely independent of traditional transcriptional regulation. 57 Massive AS changes were identified, including the preference usage of certain 58 non-conventional splice sites and enrichment of splicing factors in the DAS datasets. 59 In addition, using self-constructed protein libraries by 6-frame translation, thousands 60 of novel proteins/peptides contributed by ATI were identified. In summary, these 61 results provide deeper insights towards understanding the underlying mechanisms of 62 AS and ATI during rice hypoxic germination.

Keywords: alternative splicing, hypoxia, *Oryza sativa*, proteogenomics, seed
germination, splicing factor, translation initiation.

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66 **INTRODUCTION**

67 Rice is a staple food that provides dietary nutrition for more than two billion people 68 around the world (Yang and Zhang, 2006). In addition, rice is a model monocot plant 69 used in modern research. Rice has been reported to have the ability to survive periods 70 of submergence from seed germination to adult plants (Atwell et al., 2015). In 71 particular, it has been documented as one of the few species that can germinate under 72 anoxia by elongating its coleoptile to reach the water surface (Berta and Ismail, 2013). 73 This adaptation to oxygen deprivation caused by flooding can be used as a model to 74 study molecular mechanisms in response to hypoxic or anoxic conditions. Flooding is 75 becoming one of the most severe abiotic stresses worldwide (Sasidharan et al., 2017). 76 As the primary stresses due to flooding, hypoxia and anoxia have drawn much 77 attention in the past decade. Under normal oxygen concentrations, oxygen gradients 78 have been reported in dense plant organs, including seeds, fruits and tubers 79 (Sasidharan et al., 2017). Thus, studying the molecular mechanisms during hypoxic or 80 anoxic conditions may facilitate an understanding of the function of O_2 molecules in 81 both stress response and plant development. In recent years, a N-end rule protein 82 degradation pathway has been proposed to be an important oxygen sensing 83 mechanism in Arabidopsis (Gibbs et al., 2011; Licausi et al., 2011). Its downstream 84 components, plant ethylene-responsive transcription factors, are affected by this 85 pathway to activate or deactivate their target genes in response to hypoxia (Weits et al., 86 2014; Giuntoli et al., 2017). Increasing numbers of loci involved in flooding responses 87 have been characterized, including those in lipid signalling (Xie et al., 2015), 88 jasmonic acid and antioxidant pathways (Yuan et al., 2017), protein kinase (Chang et 89 al., 2012) and transcription factor (Giuntoli et al., 2017). However, few studies are 90 related to functional characterization of rice genes during flooding germination. In

addition to the classical CIPK15-SnRK1A-MYBS1- mediated sugar-sensing pathway
(Lu et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2009), a mitochondrion-localized protein (OsB12D1) has
been reported to enhance flooding tolerance in rice germination and subsequent
seedling growth (He et al., 2014). In addition, a rice trehalose-6-phosphate (T6P)
phosphatase (OsTPP7) gene has been proposed to increase sink strength in response
to flooding germination (Kretzschmar et al., 2015).

97 With the development of large profiling techniques, considerable efforts have 98 been made to study the global transcripts changes, protein abundance and metabolic 99 variation during rice hypoxic germination (Lasanthi-Kudahettige et al., 2007; Narsai 100 et al., 2009; Narsai et al., 2011; Sadiq et al., 2011; Narsai et al., 2015; Hsu and Tung, 101 2017). Although comparative analysis indicates that part of the hypoxic responsive 102 pathways are conserved among several species (Narsai et al., 2011), the mechanism of 103 adult flooding tolerance may be largely different from that of seed flooding tolerance 104 (Lu et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2009). Furthermore, recent RNA seq analysis using eight 105 Arabidopsis ecotypes suggests that alternative splicing could be another pivotal factor 106 involved in hypoxic responses (Van et al., 2016). Alternative splicing results from 107 post-transcriptional control of eukaryotic intron-containing genes. Recent 108 advancement reveals that more than 95% of genes have splicing isoforms in mammals 109 (Eckardt, 2013). Two major types of splicing complex have been documented that can 110 determine the splicing site sequences. One is the U2 complex, which can splice at a 111 5'-GT-AG-3' exon-intron junction. The other is called the U12 complex and is able to 112 utilize 5'-AT-AC-3' as a splicing junction (Zdraviko J et al., 2005; Will and Luhrmann, 113 2011). Alternative splicing from multiexonic genes has been regarded as a potential 114 way to increase plant genome coding ability (James et al., 2012; Ruhl et al., 2012; 115 Chang et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2015). In addition to alternative splicing, another type 116 of post-transcriptional regulation defined as alternative translation initiation (ATI) is

117 involved in contributing to protein diversity (Sonenberg and Hinnebusch, 2009). 118 Recent identification of translation initiation sites using advanced technology such as 119 ribosome sequencing and MS-based proteomics reveals that a large number of these 120 sites are not conventional AUG sequences (Sonenberg and Hinnebusch, 2009; Ingolia 121 et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2012). In comparison to AS regulation (James et al., 2012; 122 Ruhl et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Zhan et al., 123 2015; Thatcher et al., 2016), the function of ATI has been seldom reported in plants 124 (de Klerk and t Hoen, 2015). The above techniques have demonstrated that the 125 eukaryotic genome has the ability to encode short peptides, including upstream open 126 reading frames (uORFs) and other small ORFs, that are located in previously marked 127 non-coding regions of the genome (Tavormina et al., 2015). Several peptides have 128 been characterized to show crucial roles in regulating plant development and stress 129 responses (Simon and Dresselhaus, 2015; Tameshige et al., 2016).

130 In summary, although stress-induced genome-wide AS changes have been 131 extensively documented in various plant species (Yang et al., 2015; Thatcher et al., 132 2016; Van et al., 2016; Fesenko et al., 2017), the quantification of corresponding AS 133 isoforms at the protein level have seldom been reported. In this study, a parallel RNA 134 seq and proteomic approach defined as proteogenomic has been applied to achieve 135 integrative analysis using both transcriptome and proteome data. Given our previous 136 experience in ABA-regulated AS analysis (Zhu et al., 2017), we further improved our 137 analytical pipeline for the determination of AS- and ATI-induced genome coding 138 ability. The results from this study further expand our understanding of genome 139 coding ability in rice seeds, suggesting an underlying regulatory network resulting 140 from AS and ATI during rice hypoxic germination. Understanding this hidden network 141 may facilitate the agricultural production of rice that is suitable for direct seeding 142 systems and provide guidelines for improving hypoxic tolerance in other crop species.

143 Materials and methods

144 Plant material, growth conditions and hypoxic treatment

Seeds of *Oryza sativa* (Nipponbare) were surface-sterilized with 20% bleach and 0.05% Tween-20 before treatments. Seeds (~30-50 individuals) were placed on petri dishes with wet filter paper and then were transferred to air control or hypoxia conditions under complete darkness. The hypoxia treatment was carried out using the Whitley H35 Hypoxystation (Don Whitley Scientific Limited, UK) with 3% O₂ level at 28°C. Seed samples were harvested at 6 h after treatments and used for further transcriptomic and proteomic analysis.

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153 Rice seed RNA extraction and RNA sequencing

154 Rice seed total RNA were ground in liquid nitrogen and extracted using a Plant 155 RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. 156 RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) experiments were conducted as previously described 157 with minor modifications (Zhu et al., 2017). The resulting cDNA library constructed 158 from rice seed RNA samples (Air_6 h and Hypoxia_6 h) were used for paired end (2 x 159 125 bp) sequencing on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 platform by Annoroad Gene 160 Technology Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China). Three replicates for each sample were trimmed 161 to obtain clean reads for subsequent analysis (Supplemental Table 1).

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163 Analysis of RNA sequencing and proteomic data

The rice (Nipponbare) reference genome annotation file (Oryza_sativa.IRGSP-1.0.32) was downloaded from the Ensembl website (<u>http://www.ensembl.org/index.html</u>). Clean reads mapping and subsequent bioinformatic analysis was as described previously (Zhu et al., 2017). The analytical pipeline is summarized in Supplemental Fig. 1. As mentioned previously (Zhu et al., 2017), significant changes of

169 differentially expressed genes (DEG) (Supplemental Table 2) and differentially 170 expressed alternative splicing events (DAS) (Supplemental Table 3) were determined 171 as $Log_2FC > 2$ and q-value (false discovery rate, FDR < 5%). Identification and 172 quantification of AS events were conducted by using the software ASprofile 173 (http://ccb.jhu.edu/software/ASprofile) (Florea et al., 2013). Splicing junctions 174 reported in this study was generated by default settings of TopHat v2.1 aligner. The 175 AS events with no expression values were filtered out before subsequent analysis 176 (Zhu et al., 2017). Gene ontology analysis (GO, http://geneontology.org/) and Kyoto 177 encyclopedia of genes and genomes (KEGG, http://www.kegg.jp/) enrichment 178 classification were carried out using both DEG and DAS datasets. Heatmaps were 179 BAR generated using the HeatMapperPlus tool 180 (http://bar.utoronto.ca/ntools/cgi-bin/ntools_heatmapper_plus.cgi). The splicing sites 181 conservation analysis was performed using WebLogo v3 182 (http://weblogo.threeplusone.com/) (Crooks et al., 2004).

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184 Total protein extraction, digestion and qualitative identification

Total protein of rice seeds was extracted and digested as described previously (Chen et al., 2014) with minor modifications. In general, approximately 5 g of rice seed tissues of each sample were ground in liquid nitrogen for subsequent proteomic analysis. The precipitated protein pellets were digested by trypsin and desalted using a Sep-Pak C₁₈ column (Waters). The resulting peptides were then separated and characterized in a TripleTOF 5600⁺ (AB SCIEX) splitless Ultra 1D Plus (Eksigent) system (Andrews et al., 2011).

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193 Peptide dimethyl labelling and quantitative proteomics

194 The quantitative proteomics was conducted as described previously with minor

195 modifications (Zhou et al., 2015). Digested peptides were dissolved with 0.1 M 196 sodium acetate (pH \approx 6, best below 6) (*i.e.*, 500 µg peptides per 0.25 mL sodium 197 acetate). Either 4% formaldehyde or formaldehyde-d2 (40 μ L per 500 μ g peptides) 198 were added and mixed. Then, 40 µL / 500 µg peptides of 0.6 M NaBH₃(CN) were 199 added. The solution mixture was shaken for 0.5 h. Furthermore, 160 μ L / 500 μ g 200 peptides of 1% NH₄OH, was added and mixed for 5 min. Then, 5% formic acid (160 201 μ L per 500 μ g peptides) was added and mixed. The solution was placed in 4°C for at 202 least 1 h. The light and heavy dimethyl labelling peptides were combined in a 1:1 203 ratio and desalted using a Sep-Pak C_{18} column (Waters).

204 Mixed peptides were subsequently fractionated by using a C_{18} -ST column (2.0 mm \times 205 150 mm, 5 µm particle size) (TechMate) on the Agilent 1260 system (Agilent 206 Technologies). An elution gradient of 60 min was used for peptide separation with 20 207 mM ammonium formate in H₂O (adjusted to pH 10 by 25% NH₃.H₂O) as solvent A 208 and 20 mM ammonium formate in 80% ACN (adjust pH to 10 by 25% NH₃.H₂O) as 209 solvent B. The gradient elution profile was composed of 5%-25% B for 20 min, 210 25-45% B for 15 min, 45-90% B for 1 min, then maintained at 90% B for 4 min, 211 followed by 10-95% A for 1 min, and ending with 95% A for 14 min. The flow rate 212 was 0.2 mL/min. UV absorbance was monitored at 216 nm. A total of 60 0.2 mL 213 fractions were collected, then concatenated and mixed to obtain 20 fractions. 214 Fractions were dried *via* speed-vacuum and desalted by the StageTip C_{18} method.

RPLC-ESI-MS/MS was used to detect the sample. LC-MS/MS detection was carried
out on a hybrid quadrupole-TOF LC/MS/MS mass spectrometer (TripleTOF 5600⁺,
AB Sciex) equipped with a nanospray source. Peptides were first loaded onto a C₁₈
trap column (5 µm, 5 x 0.3 mm, Agilent Technologies) and then eluted into a C₁₈
analytical column (75 µm × 150 mm, 3 µm particle size, 100 Å pore size, Eksigent).
Mobile phase A (3% DMSO, 97% H2O, 0.1% formic acid) and mobile phase B (3%

221 DMSO, 97% ACN, 0.1% formic acid) were used to establish a 100 min gradient, 222 which consisted of 0 min of 5% B, 65 min of 5-23% B, 20 min of 23-52% B, 1 min of 223 52–80% B, and the gradient was maintained in 80% B for 4 min, followed by 0.1 min 224 of 80–85% B, and a final step in 5% B for 10 min. A constant flow rate was set at 300 225 nL/min. MS scans were conducted from 350 to 1500 amu, with a 250 ms time span. 226 For MS/MS analysis, each scan cycle consisted of one full-scan mass spectrum (with 227 m/z ranging from 350 to 1500 and charge states from 2 to 5) followed by 40 MS/MS 228 events. The threshold count was set to 120 to activate MS/MS accumulation, and 229 former target ion exclusion was set for 18 s.

230

231 Library construction and mass spectrometry database searching

232 An AS junction library (576,570 entries) was constructed as described previously 233 (Sheynkman et al., 2013; Castellana et al., 2014; Walley and Briggs, 2015) with minor 234 modifications. In brief, six-frame translations, including 3 frames on the forward 235 strand and 3 frames on the reverse complement strand, were used construct the AS 236 junction library. Additionally, a frame library was constructed using all transcripts 237 annotated in the reference annotation file by 6 frames. The redundant sequences were 238 then removed from translated sequences at the first step. Peptide sequences longer 239 than 6 amino acids were attached to the UniProt rice japonica database for subsequent 240 database search. Raw spectrum data generated from both qualitative and quantitative 241 proteomics were searched with the ProteinPilot software (v5.0, AB SCIEX) using 242 preset parameters. All data were filtered at 1% FDR with at least 1 peptide at 95% 243 confidence level calculated automatically by the ProteinPilot software (Zhu et al., 244 2017). For quantitative proteomics, data were searched against UniProt and 245 self-constructed databases using the following parameters: sample type, dimethyl (0, 246 +4) quantitation; cys alkylation, iodoacetamide, digestion, trypsin. The search effort

- 247 was set to rapid ID. For DEP analysis, proteins with a fold change of >1.2 or <0.8 (P
- 248 value <0.05) are considered as DEP in this study.
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250 Quantitative real-time PCR validation of AS transcripts

Total RNA (~5 μg) was reverse-transcribed into cDNA by using the Superscript First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) was conducted as described previously (Zhu et al., 2013). Resulting products of qRT-PCR were subjected to DNA sequence analysis. Isoform-specific primers used for AS isoforms identification are listed in Supplemental Table 5.

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258 Data submission.

- 259 The rice transcriptome data have been uploaded to Sequence Read Archive
- 260 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra) under Bioproject PRJNA451248. The raw data of
- 261 qualitative and quantitative proteomics have been submitted to the PRIDE
- 262 PRoteomics IDEntifications (PRIDE) database with accession number PXDxxxxx
- 263 and PXDxxx, respectively.
- 264
- 265 Results

266 Improvement of analytical pipeline and experimental conditions

The analytical pipeline used in this study is presented in Supplemental Fig. 1. Improvements have been made since the last bioinformatic flowchart (Zhu et al., 2017). The identification and quantification procedures of AS events were simplified for subsequent GO and KEGG analysis. In addition, refinement of redundancy and error check steps further improved the accuracy of identification. In this study, AS events such as AFE (alternative first exon) and ALE (alternative last exon) purely

273 caused by alternative transcription start and poly adenylation has been removed to 274 further differentiate AS modification from other transcriptional or post-transcriptional 275 mechanisms. To distinguish 5' donor sites and 3' acceptor sites, we further divided AE 276 (alternative exon) events into AE5' and AE3' for further bioinformatic analysis. 277 Furthermore, incorporation of quantitative proteomics yielded more information on 278 steady protein levels in comparison to qualitative proteomic profiling, which can only 279 identify the presence of translated peptides (Zhu et al., 2017). For testing samples, we 280 chose dry seeds of japonica rice (Nipponbare) treated with hypoxia $(3\% O_2)$ for 6 h in 281 comparison to air controls under complete darkness. This treatment will help us to 282 understand the short-term responses at both transcripts and protein levels during 283 hypoxia when seeds start to germinate. Plenty of samples were harvested for the 284 following three profiling experiments: short-read RNA sequencing (RNA seq), 285 qualitative and quantitative proteomics. Prior to these experiments, we have compared 286 49 up-regulated anaerobic marker genes highlighted in previous publications to our 287 dataset (Lasanthi-Kudahettige et al., 2007; Narsai et al., 2009). Among 21 genes 288 detected in this study, 19 of these genes showed consistency on their differential 289 regulation, but at a lower magnitude (Supplemental Fig. 2A). We used qRT-PCR to 290 further validate those expressions. In total, 18 of 19 genes showed similar expression 291 pattern as the result of our RNA seq data (Supplemental Fig. 2B), indicating the 292 efficacy of hypoxic treatment using $3\% O_2$ in our system.

293

294 Completely different set of genes undergo alternative splicing (AS) in response to 295 hypoxia during rice seed germination

Approximately 1.32 billion raw reads in total averaging 200 million reads per sample were obtained from RNA sequencing (Supplemental Table 1). Among these, 1.25 billion clean reads were subjected to the mapping process. On average, approximately

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299 95% were uniquely mapped to the genome and used for subsequent bioinformatic 300 analysis (Supplemental Table 1). For AS identification, each sample identified over 301 75,000 AS events. In total, 10,253/26,848 (38.2%) annotated intron-containing genes 302 in rice seed were observed to exist as AS events in rice seeds. Approximately 6.4% 303 (1,729/26,848) more intron-containing genes were observed in comparison to the 304 original annotation file. Slightly differ from previous AS analysis in ABA-treated 305 Arabidopsis seedlings (Zhu et al., 2017), alternative first exons (AFE), alternative last 306 exons (ALE) and intron retention (IR) remained as the most abundant three AS events 307 through all the samples (Fig. 1A). Among these three AS event types, AFE and ALE 308 caused variable 5'- and 3'-untranslated ends, which may affect the efficiency of 309 translation or stability of corresponding transcripts (Andreassi and Riccio, 2009; 310 Sonmez et al., 2011; Jenal et al., 2012). For example, hidden small open reading 311 frames (sORF) from the 5'-end of transcripts encoding short peptides have the ability 312 to regulate translational efficiency of target transcripts (Laing et al., 2015), whereas 313 polyadenylation at the 3'-end of transcripts is well known to affect the localization 314 and stability of the transcripts (De et al., 2017). When the dataset of differentially 315 expressed genes (DEG) (Supplemental Table 2) was compared to the dataset of 316 differentially expressed AS genes (DAS) (Supplemental Table 3), over 95% were not 317 the same (Fig. 1B). Only 23 genes were differentially regulated at both transcription 318 and post-transcriptional levels (Fig. 1B). This suggests that alternative splicing may 319 play an important and distinctive role during rice hypoxic germination. Subsequent 320 gene ontology enrichment analysis also confirmed the result from the Venn diagram 321 (Fig. 1B, Supplemental Fig. 3). In several cases, DEG and DAS genes did not coexist 322 in the same secondary GO category (Supplemental Fig. 3). Fourteen isoforms of 7 323 genes in the DAS dataset were assembled and validated by quantitative real-time PCR 324 (qRT-PCR). In total, 6 of these genes were consistent to the data from RNA seq

325 analysis, suggesting the reliability of AS identification and quantification from the 326 analytical pipeline (Supplemental Fig. 4). Except for categories related to linoleic acid 327 metabolism, the majority of DEG and DAS genes were not enriched in the same 328 KEGG category (Supplemental Fig. 3), suggesting that DAS category is a different 329 group of genes in response to hypoxic germination. The majority of pathways 330 enriched in DEG dataset were closely related to cellular metabolisms (e.g. pentose 331 phosphate pathway, glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, fructose and mannose metabolism 332 etc.) and cell growth (meiosis, DNA replication and cell cycle etc.). Whereas some 333 regulatory pathways were specifically over-represented in DAS dataset, such as 334 spliceosome, ribosome, ER protein processing, protein export, proteasome, 335 phagosome, oxidative phosphorylation and mRNA surveillance pathway, implying 336 that these pathways may play essential role in AS-mediated responses under rice 337 hypoxic germination. Gene members in several pathways have been selected for 338 RT-PCR and qRT-PCR validation (Fig. 1D and Fig. 2). Some splicing isoforms of 339 corresponding gene showed differential expression under hypoxic treatment, 340 indicating their potential role in response to rice hypoxic germination.

341

342 Qualitative proteomic identification reveals that hypoxia-regulated AS events are 343 more likely to be translated

To further characterize the translational products of identified AS events, we carried out a qualitative proteomic profiling using tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) for both control and hypoxia-treated samples (Alfaro et al., 2014; Tavares et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2017). Proteomic analysis this time generated 547,545 and 485,392 high-quality spectra for control and hypoxia-treated samples, respectively. Approximately 5,549 and 5,385 proteins were identified using the UniProt database (Fig. 3A). Among these, 18.6% and 16.1% of identified proteins were uniquely 351 present in control or hypoxia-treated samples, respectively, serving as good candidates 352 for further functional characterization. Subsequent AS junction library search 353 identified 4,431 / 4,313 peptides from AS events (41,887) and 510 / 490 peptides from 354 DAS events (1,742) for control / hypoxia-treated samples, respectively (Fig. 3A, B). 355 Among these, approximately 70% of peptides were shared by both samples. 356 Intriguingly, much fewer AFE events could be detected at peptide level in comparison 357 to ALE events (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, 13.5% of the total AS events (5,652/41,887) 358 were translated into peptides, suggesting that the majority of AS transcripts may be 359 degraded by RNA surveillance mechanisms such as nonsense-mediated mRNA decay 360 (NMD) (Nicholson et al., 2010; Drechsel et al., 2013). In contrast, an elevated 361 percentage (38.3%) of DAS events could be translated into peptides in all AS types 362 (Fig. 3B), indicating their potential role in response to hypoxic stress during rice 363 germination. Similar observations have been reported in ABA-treated Arabidopsis 364 seedlings, which indicates that thousands of AS proteins are translated under hypoxic 365 conditions during rice germination, and most of these were not present in the DEG 366 dataset analysed by a conventional RNA seq pipeline.

367 In addition, approximately 68.3% of AS events identified in this study were not 368 annotated in the genome and thus were marked as new features for rice genome 369 annotation (Fig. 3B). Additionally, 40.9% of the DAS peptides were not present in the 370 current version of the annotation, which suggests the translation of new protein 371 isoforms during rice germination in response to hypoxia. DAS peptides were 372 subjected to KEGG enrichment analysis (Fig. 3C). For example, some KEGG terms 373 including ribosome, proteasome and oxidative phosphorylation, were repeatedly 374 enriched in both RNA seq and qualitative proteomic datasets, giving protein evidence 375 of these splicing isoforms in response to hypoxia treatment.

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377 Quantitative proteomics indicates that the expression of protein and transcripts

378 are correlated at the AS level

379 To find relationship between the protein abundance and corresponding transcripts at 380 the AS level, quantitative proteomics were conducted using the dimethyl labelling 381 method. In total, 10,946 proteins were identified from this approach and 4566 of them 382 were quantified (Supplemental Table 4). Among these, 278 differentially expressed 383 proteins (DEP) and 29 differentially regulated AS peptides (DASP) were identified 384 (Fig. 4A-B). Thirteen DASP were found to be differentially expressed in quantitative 385 proteomics and referred as DASDP. Amongst these, none of them were shared with 386 DEP dataset (Fig. 4C). Similar to previous parallel analysis (Bai et al., 2015; 387 Marmiroli et al., 2015), much less overlap was observed between DEP and DEG, DAS 388 and DASP as well as DEP and DASDP (Fig. 4A-C). Only 11 genes were identified as 389 both DEG and DEP with low correlation ($R^2=0.18$) of their expression levels (Fig. 4D, 390 E), suggesting the existence of post-transcriptional regulation for most of the 391 transcripts. Although 2 genes were detected in both DAS and DASP datasets, the 392 expression of their transcripts and proteins were at the same trend (Fig. 4F), indicating 393 that quantification at AS isoform level may provide more accurate data representation 394 for both transcripts and proteins than conventional quantification method used in RNA 395 seq and proteomics. However, more data is required to confirm this hypothesis. In 396 addition to the effect of post-transcription, the low overlap of DEP/DASDP with 397 DEG/DAS datasets may be explained by the relatively low throughput and coverage 398 of the MS-based proteomic method.

399

400 Construction of a customized protein library leads to novel proteins 401 identification and quantification during rice hypoxic germination

402 Similar to previous findings (Zhu et al., 2017), the spectra usage for protein

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403 identification was approximately 40-50% in this study (Fig. 5A) using both UniProt 404 and AS junction libraries as input files. An increasing number of publications suggest 405 that single transcripts are able to be translated into multiple proteins by using 406 alternative translation initiation (ATI) sites (Brar and Weissman, 2015). This indicates 407 that a large number of novel proteins or short peptides are yet to be identified, and this 408 is caused by incomplete genome annotation (Kim et al., 2014). Thus, a 6-frame 409 translation library was constructed using the combination of assembled cufflink files 410 during RNA seq analysis and reference annotation files based on previously published 411 methods (Castellana et al., 2008; Zhu et al., 2017). The outcomes from the database 412 searching identified thousands of novel proteins and peptides, with 74.6% of proteins 413 longer than 80 amino acids (a. a.), 24.0% of proteins/peptides from 11-80 amino acids 414 and 1.4% of peptides from 6-11 amino acids (Fig. 5B, C). Among these, 2294 / 1432 415 novel proteins (> 80 a.a.) and 310 / 774 novel proteins or peptides (6-80 a. a.) were 416 identified in control / hypoxia-treated samples, respectively (Fig. 5D). This 417 observation provides further evidence of increment coding ability for proteins and 418 short peptides by using ATI sites. Additionally, an increasing number of short peptides 419 (774) were detected in hypoxia-treated samples in comparison to air controls (310), 420 suggesting that short peptides may play an important role in response to hypoxia 421 during rice germination. Intriguingly, 137 novel proteins were quantified at a second 422 frame of known transcripts. Few of these overlapped with DEG and DEP datasets, 423 indicating that most of these proteins can only be detected by proteomic analysis 424 using the customized library. This set of genes served as a source of novel candidates 425 for further investigation of hypoxic responses during rice germination.

426

The conventional 5'-splicing sites are less conserved in rice seeds at normal
condition and under hypoxia treatment

429 To further investigate the splicing characteristics between total AS and 430 hypoxia-affected DAS datasets, statistical analysis of splicing sites (ss) conservation 431 was performed. Conventionally, U2-type splicing sites (5'-GT-AG-3') are conserved 432 and account for 90% of total splicing sites among plant species (Will and Luhrmann, 433 2011). In this study, the 3'-splicing site (AG) was relatively conserved and accounted 434 for over 80% in both control and hypoxia-treated samples (Fig. 6A). An extra 'C' was 435 identified as a conserved sequence in both AS and DAS datasets (Fig. 6B). Thus, 436 3'-splicing sites were identified as 'CAG' in rice seeds, and the hypoxia treatment did 437 not change this signature (Fig. 6B). However, there was a decrease in the 'AG' 438 proportion in hypoxia-treated samples, which was associated with the increase in the 439 proportions of several other ss sequences especially 'AC'. In contrast, the 440 conventional 5'-splicing site (GT) accounted for only 50% of total AS and was 441 increased to approximately 60% in the hypoxia-affected DAS dataset (Fig. 6A). 442 Meanwhile, non-conventional 5'-splicing sites such as 'AA' and 'CT' was was largely 443 reduced in the DAS dataset by comparing with AS dataset, suggesting its role in 444 response to hypoxia stress (Fig. 6A). In addition, similar results were obtained by 445 conservation analysis; 'GGT' signature was obtained in both AS and DAS datasets 446 (Fig. 6B). Further investigation of ss among AS types demonstrated that AFE was 447 responsible for the 'GT' reduction in both AS and DAS datasets (Supplemental Fig. 5). 448 Although 3'-ss were more conserved, certain types of non-conventional splicing sites 449 were induced among the specific AS types in the DAS dataset in comparison to the 450 AS dataset such as 3'-TG and 3'-TT in AE5', 3'-AC and 3'-GG in AE3', 3'-GC and 451 3'-TG in IR and 3'-GC in SKIP (Supplemental Fig. 5). This result indicates that the 452 AS regulation under hypoxia stress may be caused by alternative recognition of 453 sequence of splicing sites.

454

455 Splicing factors are enriched in differentially expressed AS events

456 To further understand the underlying mechanism of DAS regulation under hypoxia 457 stress, splicing factors in rice were summarized and subjected to further analysis. 458 Three genes were found in the DEG dataset (Fig. 7A). In contrast, a total of 105 AS 459 events from 21 splicing factor-related proteins were observed in the DAS dataset (Fig. 460 7A, B), and none of them were found in the DEG dataset. Amon these, 60 AS events 461 were up-regulated, whereas 45 AS events were down-regulated (Fig. 7B). In detail, 462 43.8% of AS events were AFE and ALE accounting for 28.6% (Fig. 7C). The 463 remaining three AS types accounted for 27.7% of the total AS events (Fig. 7C). 464 According to the classification in the splicing-related gene database (SRGD, 465 http://www.plantgdb.org/SRGD/index.php), the 21 genes observed in the DAS dataset 466 were classified into 11 subgroups (Fig. 7D) from core splicing components to 467 auxiliary factors. And those SFs enriched in KEGG term of spliceosome (Fig. 1C) 468 were chosen for qRT-PCR validation (Fig. 7E). Some isoforms of selected SFs were 469 differentially expressed under hypoxia treatment, suggesting that the change of AS in 470 splicing components may be crucial in response to hypoxia stress during rice 471 germination.

472

473 Discussion

474 The discovery of a hidden network of AS in response to hypoxic stress during 475 rice germination provides additional targets in the study of hypoxia

Alternative splicing produces multiple RNA isoforms for each locus. Each isoform
may encode one protein isoform as well, which greatly expands the genome coding
ability. Additionally, the discovery of two new AS types, AFE and ALE, has revealed
the great potential to generate AS isoforms (Yan and Marr, 2005; de Klerk and t Hoen,
2015; Zhu et al., 2017). In this study, approximately 97.2% (787/810) of the DAS

481 genes had no differences at the gene expression level, suggesting AS control of 482 transcripts is completely separated from the conventional DEG group (Fig. 1B). 483 Moreover, increasing evidence reveals that protein isoforms generated by AS 484 transcripts have the ability to alter protein subcellular localization, protein-protein 485 interaction networks and protein stability due to the presence or absence of certain 486 motifs (Buljan et al., 2012; Ellis et al., 2012). Thus, the 667 AS peptides identified in 487 both control and hypoxia-treated samples provided protein evidence of AS transcripts 488 and may serve as good candidates for further functional characterization (Fig. 3A, B). 489 These genes were distributed in a variety of biological pathways, including amino 490 acid biosynthesis, ribosome and proteasome pathway, pantothenate and CoA 491 biosynthesis and oxidative phosphorylation, and were not selected for further 492 investigation by the first round of screening using DEG as criteria amongst large scale 493 transcriptome analysis, suggesting that AS responses are embedded in various 494 biochemical processes under hypoxia stress.

495 Transcriptomic studies have shown that low oxygen induces a myriad of gene 496 responsiveness in terms of transcript abundance (Lasanthi-Kudahettige et al., 2007; 497 Narsai et al., 2009; Narsai et al., 2011; Sadiq et al., 2011; Narsai et al., 2015; Hsu and 498 Tung, 2017). Accordingly, transcriptional regulation in oxygen sensing pathways has 499 been extensively studied in plants. Key regulators, such as ERFVII transcription 500 factors, have been substantially characterized (Fukao et al., 2009; Hattori et al., 2009; 501 Hinz et al., 2010; Licausi et al., 2010). However, few studies have been carried out to 502 unravel the AS regulation under hypoxia. In the current study, AS analysis indicates 503 that the conventional splicing sites are not conserved at the 5' position in rice seeds 504 (Fig. 6A, B and Supplemental Fig. 5). Major regulators defined as splicing factors 505 within assembled spliceosome have been characterized to participate in AS site 506 determination (Golovkin and Reddy, 1996; Kalyna et al., 2006; Krummel et al., 2009;

507 Will and Luhrmann, 2011; Kondo et al., 2015; Yoshida et al., 2015). Although several 508 splicing factors have been reported to be involved in stress responses (Ruhl et al., 509 2012; Feng et al., 2015), none of them are related to hypoxia responses. In our results, 510 a 7-fold increase in the number of splicing factors (21 in DAS to 3 in DEG) were found in comparison to the DEG dataset (Fig. 7), suggesting the importance of those 511 512 proteins in splicing site recognition. Over 100 AS events in these 21 splicing factors 513 were affected during hypoxia treatment, which may greatly alter the protein isoforms 514 of these proteins in comparison to the control group. Subsequently, hypoxia may 515 change the composition and conformation of spliceosomes by recruiting different 516 protein isoforms of splicing factors, which may in turn lead to a different choice of 517 splicing site sequence recognition. This may explain the increment of the proportion 518 of certain non-conventional splicing sites during rice hypoxic germination 519 (Supplemental Fig. 5). Furthermore, the integration of qualitative proteomic data 520 implies that hypoxia-responsive AS events are more likely to be translated in 521 comparison to non-responsive ones (Fig. 3B, lower panel), providing protein evidence 522 for the potential role of these AS isoforms in response to hypoxia stress. Therefore, 523 our results suggest that alternative splicing is an independent pathway other than 524 transcriptional repression in response to hypoxia during rice germination. The 525 majority of members in this pathway remain to be elucidated.

526

527 Alternative cellular pathways are activated by AS under hypoxia treatment

528 Several pathways were found to be over-represented under AS-mediated responses 529 during rice hypoxic germination. mRNA surveillance, such as NMD, has long been 530 demonstrated to play an important role in controlling mRNA stability and abundance 531 before translation (Nicholson et al., 2010; Drechsel et al., 2013). It has been reported 532 that NMD is closely related to exon junction complex (EJC) of splicing machinery in

533 both animals and plants (Shaul, 2015). In Arabidopsis, hypoxia-responsive ERFs, 534 HRE1 and HRE2, have been proposed to be likely regulated by post-transcriptional 535 mechanisms for their mRNA stability (Licausi et al., 2010). From our dataset, 536 isoforms of several components belong to EJC complex (e.g. Os08g0305300, 537 OsSMG7 and Os05g0140500, OsY14a) were observed to be differentially regulated 538 (Nyikó et al., 2013), indicating their potential function in surveillance of newly 539 spliced RNA isoforms under hypoxia. Evidence shows that the status of spliceosome 540 will be affected under hypoxia in animal tissues (Schmidtkastner et al., 2008). 541 Splicing factors like serine-arginine (SR) proteins is activated under hypoxic 542 condition by phosphorylation (Jakubauskiene et al., 2015). However, the 543 responsiveness of spliceosome under hypoxia treatment remains to be elucidated in 544 *planta*. In this study, a variety of splicing components have been identified to show 545 differential expression under hypoxia treatment. Among these, six isoforms from two 546 SR proteins (Os03g0344100, SR32 and Os02g0610600, RSZ23) were induced by 547 hypoxia treatment (Fig. 7E). Although multiple isoforms of SR proteins have been 548 detected in different rice tissues (Peng et al., 2013), no evidence links them to hypoxia 549 stress responsiveness before. Here, we hypothesize that SF changes under hypoxia is 550 crucial for downstream AS regulation under hypoxia. However, less information can 551 be found by annotation and datamining of these SFs that we have identified in this 552 study. Further functional characterization is required to confirm their roles in response 553 to hypoxia. Besides post-transcriptional regulatory pathways, processes related to 554 protein export, lysosome and proteasome were observed to play a role during hypoxic 555 germination (Figs. 1 and 2). The enhancement of some splicing isoforms in protein 556 export process (Fig. 2C) may effectively help plants to survive during hypoxia 557 conditions. Furthermore, lysosome is a place where cell to recycle building materials 558 or detoxification (Chen et al., 2015). Recent study shows that hypoxia may rapidly

559 induce autophagy, which is a highly conserved mechanism in eukaryotes to target 560 cellular components to lysosome for recycling purpose (Chen et al., 2015). Thus, the 561 newly formed isoforms of lysosomal gene may be responsible for the survival under 562 hypoxia stress. Similarly, protein degradation has been considered as a major 563 responsive mechanism in response to hypoxia in both animals and plants (Huang et al., 564 1998; Gibbs et al., 2011; Licausi et al., 2011). Significant protein will be degraded as 565 an alternative energy source and remodelling during hypoxia treatment. Isoforms 566 formed in this process may efficiently degrade misfolded proteins for synthesis of 567 proteins isoforms that can confer hypoxia tolerance. Intriguingly, transcriptional 568 regulation focused on the control of cellular metabolic levels and growth factors, 569 whereas alternative splicing aims to produce new protein isoforms that is mainly 570 involved in degradation, post-transcriptional regulation and transport processes. These 571 two complementary mechanisms may facilitate rice seeds to survive under hypoxia 572 during germination.

573

574 Thousands of novel proteins or peptides resulting from alternative translation 575 participate in the hypoxia response during rice germination

576 In addition to AS-resulting protein diversity, proteins encoded from a second frame of 577 the same transcript or from annotated non-coding regions contribute to genome 578 coding ability as well (Jensen et al., 2013; Wade and Grainger, 2014). Specifically, a 579 considerable number of unannotated proteins were detected using a customized 580 library by six-frame translation (*i.e.*, 3 in the forward strand and 3 in the reverse 581 complement strand). The coding ability of one transcript using a second frame has 582 been widely studied in animals but is rarely reported in plants (de Klerk and t Hoen, 583 2015). One example from plant systems is an alpha-enolase gene (LOS2) in 584 Arabidopsis that encodes an MBP-like protein by alternative translation. This

585 MBP-like protein affects ABA responses and its protein level is regulated by E3 ligase 586 SAP5 (Kang et al., 2013). Furthermore, the existence of uORFs in the 5'-untranslated 587 regions of certain transcripts may lead to a feedback regulation of translation 588 efficiency (Laing et al., 2015). From our results, a total of 2,660 putative proteins over 589 80 amino acids and 904 proteins/peptides ranging from 6 to 80 amino acids have been 590 identified (Fig. 5D). A total of 960 of these proteins/peptides were specifically 591 induced under hypoxia treatment, suggesting that they are new players involved in 592 hypoxia responses. Furthermore, a total of 137 novel proteins were quantified by 593 proteomic analysis, 128 of which were not present in the DEG and DEP lists (Fig. 5E), 594 demonstrating that the usage of a customized library combined with quantitative 595 proteomics is essential for this kind of novel protein/peptide identification.

596

597 Proteogenomic approach evolves as a new generation method to analyse 598 omics-based datasets

599 Large profiling methods have been applied in plant research to study various 600 developmental processes or stress responses. However, individual approaches such as 601 transcriptome or proteome analysis are restricted by their defects in experimental 602 conditions and analytical pipelines. For example, pure transcriptome analysis is 603 affected by the corresponding reference genome annotation. Pure proteomic methods 604 are limited by currently available protein libraries, which were generated based on 605 incomplete genome information (Zhu et al., 2017). Thus, proteogenomics, a method 606 incorporating transcriptomic and proteomic datasets, represents a new generation of 607 analytical approaches for deeper understanding of the functional importance of 608 potential genome coding ability (Castellana et al., 2008; Kumar et al., 2016). First, 609 this analytical approach is able to determine which AS isoforms will be translated into 610 proteins and thus can differentiate between mRNA degradation regulation and

611 translational control (Nicholson et al., 2010; Drechsel et al., 2013). Second, in 612 combination with quantitative proteomics, proteogenomic analysis links the protein 613 evidence to their transcript changes to give an accurate footprint for each transcript 614 isoform during the analysis. Low correlation of the expression levels between proteins 615 and transcripts will be improved when using this type of analytical pipeline (Fig. 4D, 616 E). This in turn will reveal valuable targets that are truly regulated at transcript and 617 protein levels in the same trend. At last, coupled with a self-constructed protein library, 618 this method enhances the identification of novel proteins/peptides (Fig. 5) that are 619 potential hidden regulatory components in plant development or stress responses. 620 However, this approach can be further improved from its current version. For example, 621 using strand-specific library construction in short-read RNA seq analysis can enhance 622 the accuracy and reduce redundancy of subsequent protein library construction. Furthermore, using the 3rd generation of sequencing methods, such as single molecule 623 624 long-read sequencing, can aid in the precise identification of full-length transcripts for 625 accurate AS identification (Zhu et al., 2017). In addition, the low overlap between 626 DEG and DEP or DAS and DASP can be improved by increasing the throughput and 627 coverage of proteomic analysis. The incorporation of SWATH (sequential window 628 acquisition of all theoretical spectra-mass spectrometry)-based quantitative 629 proteomics (Zhu et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2016) and two or more enzyme digestion 630 steps may achieve better results than those of the current study.

631

632 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study expands our understanding of the genome coding ability
of rice under hypoxic germination. Two post-transcriptional mechanisms, alternative
splicing and alternative translation initiation, have major contributions to protein
diversity during hypoxia (Figure 8). Alternative splicing may function in parallel with

24

637 transcriptional control in response to hypoxia stress during rice germination. 638 Specifically, low oxygen conditions extensively affect AS and ATI patterns in parallel 639 with conventional transcriptional regulation during rice germination. The 640 compositional change of spliceosomes may result in the preferred usage of 641 non-canonical splicing sites under hypoxia treatment. In this case, the conservation of 642 5'-splicing sites was largely affected by the hypoxia treatment. In addition, 643 hypoxia-affected DAS events were more likely undergo protein translation in 644 comparison to AS events identified under normal conditions. The above results 645 indicate the existence of a large underground network of hypoxia responses at the 646 post-transcriptional level. This newly discovered underlying response mechanism is 647 mediated by AS and ATI. The members of this network need to be further 648 characterized. This case study using hypoxic germination as a model demonstrates 649 how modern technology and bioinformatic analysis improves our understanding of the 650 plant genome coding ability and its features during stress responses.

651

652 Supplemental Data

- Supplemental Fig. 1. Analytical pipeline of AS identification, quantification andvalidation in this study.
- Supplemental Fig. 2. Comparison of previous published datasets and qRT PCR
 validation.
- 657 Supplemental Fig. 3. GO enrichment analysis between DAS and DEG datasets from658 RNA sequencing.
- 659 Supplemental Fig. 4. qRT-PCR validation of selected genes from DAS events.
- 660 Supplemental Fig. 5. Comparison of splicing sites (ss) recognition between AS and
- 661 DAS events.
- 662

- 663 **Supplemental Table 1.** Summary of the basic parameters in RNA sequencing dataset.
- 664 Supplemental Table 2. List of differentially expressed genes.
- 665 **Supplemental Table 3.** List of the differentially expressed AS events.
- 666 **Supplemental Table 4.** Summary of quantified proteins in proteomic analysis.
- 667 **Supplemental Table 5.** Primers used in this study.
- 668

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683 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

684 M.X.C., F.Y.Z., J.H.Z., Y.G.L. designed experiments. M.X.C., F.Y.Z., F.Z.W., N.H.Y.,

685 T.F., Y.Y.C., T.Y.L. S.S.Z performed experiments. M.X.C., F.Y.Z., B.G., K.L.M.,

686 G.Y.F., Z.Z.S., L.J.X., Q.J.H., H.J.W. analysed data. F.Y.Z., M.X.C., N.H.Y. wrote the

687 manuscript. S.X., J.H.Z., Y.G.L. critically commented and revised it.

688

689 COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

690 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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933	Figure Legends
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935	expressed genes (DEG) and differentially expressed alternative splicing (DAS)
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946	KEGG enrichment analysis. DAS events involved in categories of (A) mRNA
947	surveillance pathway and lysosome, (B) lysosome, (C) protein export, (D) proteasome
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951	than that in air control (Air), P<0.01 and P<0.05, respectively. Gene models of each

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954 Figure 3 Qualitative proteomic identification of AS peptides. (A) Venn diagram 955 representation of qualitative proteomic identification using UniProt, AS and DAS 956 databases. (B) AS peptides identification and classification (upper panel). ALE, 957 alternative last exon; AFE, alternative first exon; SKIP, exon skipping; IR, intron 958 retention; AE5', alternative donor; AE3', alternative acceptor. Summary of identified 959 AS/DAS events and peptides (lower panel). (C) KEGG pathway enrichment analysis 960 of DAS peptides in qualitative proteomics. '*' marked pathway is repeatedly found in 961 both transcriptome and qualitative proteomic datasets. 962 963 Figure 4 Comparison between proteomic and transcriptomic datasets. Venn 964 diagram representation of (A) differentially expressed genes (DEG) vs. differentially 965 expressed proteins (DEP), (B) differentially expressed AS events (DAS) vs. 966 differentially expressed AS peptides (DASDP), (C) DEP vs. DASDP. Heatmap 967 representation (D) and correlation analysis (E) of overlapping genes between DEG 968 and DEP. (F) Heatmap representation of overlapping genes between DAS and DASDP. 969 ALE, alternative last exon; '*' represents the regulation of transcripts and proteins at 970 the same trend in corresponding datasets; H: L, hypoxia vs. air control. 971 972 Figure 5 Novel protein/peptide identification. (A) Summary of the spectrum usage

973 of the data from qualitative proteomics using UniProt, AS and DAS databases. (B)974 Spectrum usage of the data from qualitative proteomic using the 6-frame translated

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- 976 novel proteins/peptides. (D) Venn diagram representation of identified novel
- 977 proteins/peptides in control and hypoxia-treated samples. (E) Venn diagram represents
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999 Figure 8 Model of alternative splicing and alternative translation initiation 1000 involved in the hypoxic germination pathway.

- 1001 Summary model of the rice genome using its coding ability to produce diverse
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- 1005 isoforms in response to hypoxia treatment. In the third pathway of alternative
- 1006 translation initiation (ATI, violet), upstream open reading frames (uORFs) and small
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- 1008

Figure S1 Analytical pipeline of AS identification, quantification and validation in this study.

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1012 Figure S2 Comparison of previous published datasets and qRT PCR validation.

1013 (A) Heatmap comparison of previous published microarray datasets (Pub) to our RNA 1014 seq analysis (Our). (B) qRT-PCR validations of the selected and marker genes during 1015 hypoxic germination from three biological replicates. OsACTIN1 was used as an 1016 internal reference gene. '*' and '**' denote that the relative mRNA level is 1017 significantly higher in hypoxia-treated samples (grey bars) in comparison to air 1018 control (black bars) in complete darkness, P<0.05 and P<0.01, respectively. Locus 1019 **IDs** (**Bolded**) represent genes have similar expression pattern in qRT-PCR analysis in 1020 comparison to previous transcriptome or microarray analysis.

1021

1022 Figure S3 GO enrichment analysis between DAS and DEG datasets from RNA

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1024

1025Figure S4 qRT-PCR validation of selected genes from DAS events. Primers used in1026the experiment are listed in Supplemental Table 5. OsACTINI was used as an internal1027reference gene. '*' and '**' denote that the relative mRNA level is significantly higher1028or lower in hypoxia-treated samples in comparison to air control, P<0.05 and P<0.01,1029respectively. AS events in bold form represent the consistency between RNA seq and1030qRT-PCR data.

1031

1032 Figure S5 Comparison of splicing sites (ss) recognition between AS and DAS

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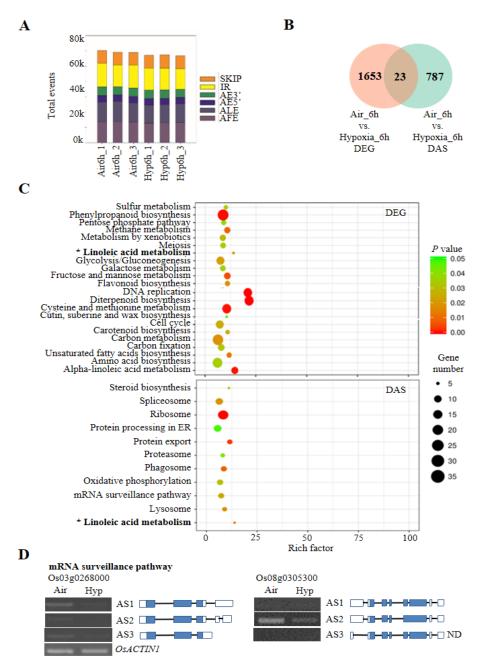


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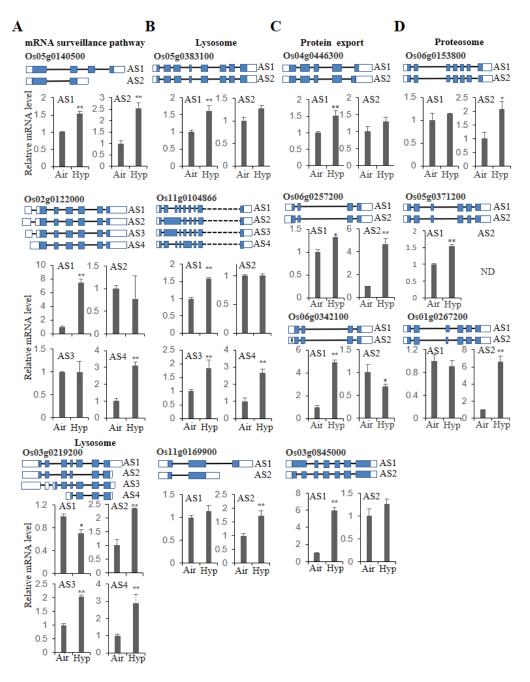


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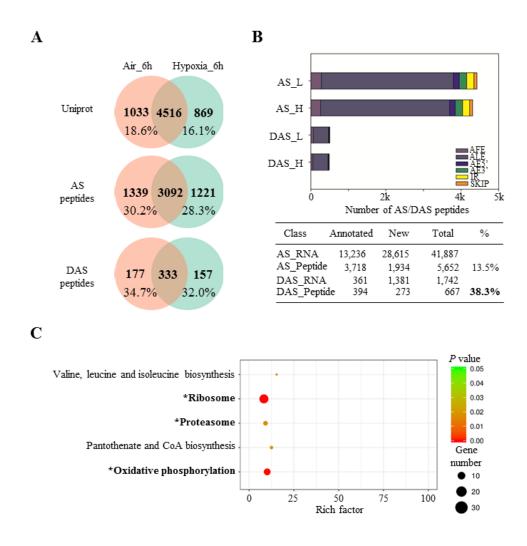


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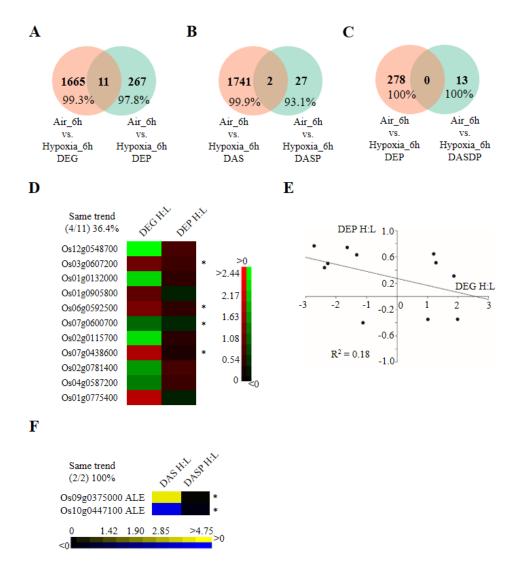


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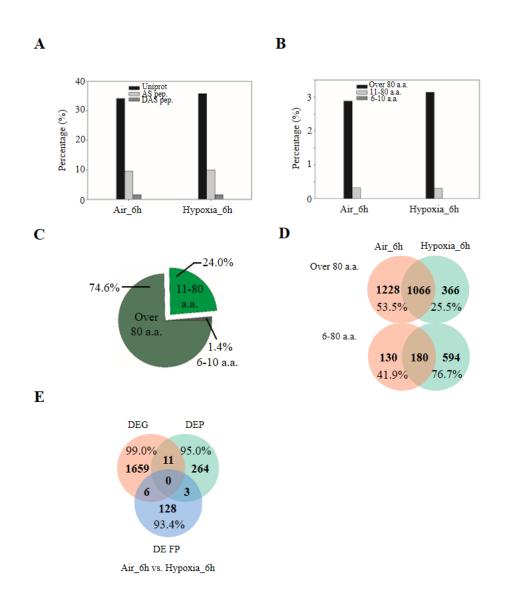


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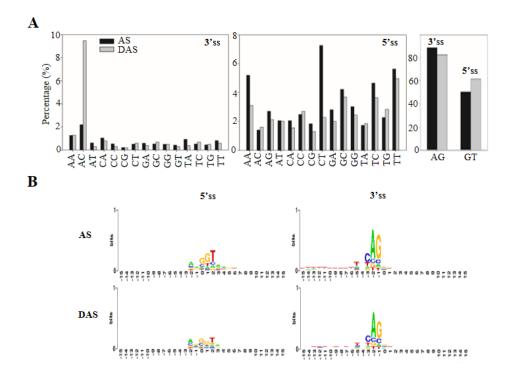


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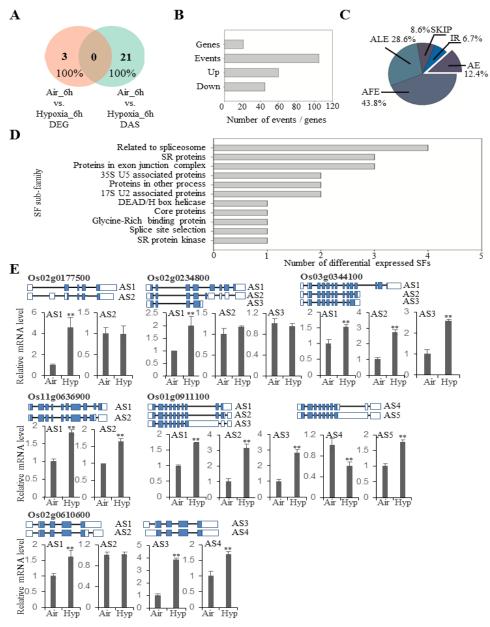


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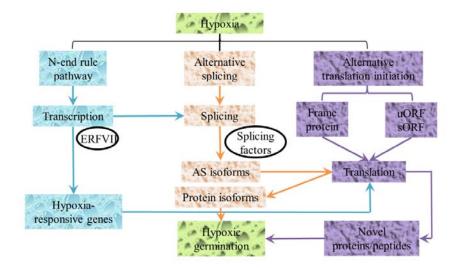


Figure 8 Model of alternative splicing and alternative translation initiation involved in the hypoxic germination pathway.

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