

Genome-wide mapping of alternative splicing in the elite wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6

Hude Mao (✉ mhd163com@163.com)

Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2484-9952>

Jin Zhang

Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University

Lijian Guo

Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University

Qing Chi

Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University

Fangming Mei

Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University

Xiangli Liu

Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University

Huixian Zhao

Northwest Agriculture and Forestry University

Research article

Keywords: wheat, Xiaoyan 6, RNA-seq, alternative splicing, seed development

Posted Date: March 13th, 2020

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-17098/v1>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.

[Read Full License](#)

1 ABSTRACT

2 **Background:** *Triticum aestivum*, or common wheat, is a globally important cereal
3 crop. Alternative splicing (AS) is an important post-transcriptional regulation
4 mechanism in higher eukaryotes, but the knowledge of AS in wheat is limited at
5 present.

6 **Results:** In this study, we performed AS mapping from the elite, high-yielding wheat
7 cultivar Xiaoyan 6. We identified 18,960 and 25,133 novel protein-coding genes and
8 transcript models that were not annotated in the draft genome of wheat cultivar
9 Chinese Spring. We also found that 18,868 genes were alternatively spliced, and
10 classified four major AS types, including alternative acceptor sites (AA), intron
11 retention (IR), alternative donor sites (AD), and exon skipping (ES). Further analysis
12 determined that differences in the AS frequency and AS types displayed a positive
13 correlation with exon number and intron length and were negatively correlated with
14 the GC content, but were not correlated with gene transcriptional level. Furthermore,
15 we identified 2,737 seed-specific AS genes in wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6, and
16 demonstrated that the number of AS genes in the grain decreased with seed
17 development, suggesting that the earlier developmental stages are more important and
18 complex than are the later stages. In addition, the grain-specific AS genes that were
19 ubiquitously significantly up-regulated during seed development were associated with
20 metabolism-related pathways, indicating that AS of metabolism-related genes is
21 crucial for grain filling in wheat.

22 **Conclusions:** Through transcriptome analysis, over ten thousand AS genes were
23 identified and characterized in wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6. Our study provides a
24 comprehensive view of AS in the wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6 and provides new insights
25 into the complexity of AS in wheat. The data generated in this study provides a
26 foundation for further studies of seed development in wheat.

27 **Keywords:** wheat, Xiaoyan 6, RNA-seq, alternative splicing, seed development

1 INTRODUCTION

2 Alternative splicing (AS) is a widespread mechanism in both animal and plant species
3 that significantly heightens the complexity of proteomes and transcriptomes, and
4 regulates development and environmental response in higher eukaryotes [1]. The
5 splicing process is performed by the spliceosome, which consists of five small nuclear
6 RNAs (snRNAs) as well as 180 proteins with varying purposes [2]. The AS profile
7 and transcriptome are both determined by the number of splicing factors in various
8 cell types, environmental conditions, development stages, and tissues. Additionally,
9 these alternative transcripts can regulate protein isoforms with different levels of
10 amino acids and domain structure, affecting their capacity for interaction, localization,
11 activity, stability, and ultimately, the proteome [3]. However, not all AS events are
12 functional. It has been estimated that premature termination codons (PTC) occur in
13 about one-third of AS events [4, 5], which are then possible targets for the nonsense-
14 mediated mRNA decay system [6, 7].

15 AS takes part in a wide range of plant functions, such as flowering, stress response,
16 circadian rhythm, and growth and development [8-10]. Recent analyses of
17 *Arabidopsis thaliana*, cotton (*Gossypium raiimondi*), soybean (*Glycine max*), rice
18 (*Oryza sativa*), and maize (*Zea mays*) have all demonstrated the presence of AS in
19 these plants and estimate that alternative splicing happens in approximately 60% of
20 intron-containing genes in *Arabidopsis*, approximately 40% in cotton, approximately
21 33% in rice, approximately 52% in soybean, and approximately 40% in maize [11-15].

22 AS events are primarily grouped as intron retention (IR), alternative acceptor sites
23 (AA), exon skipping (ES), and alternative donor sites (AD), relative to the main
24 transcript isoform [16]. Approximately 95% of genes are alternatively spliced in
25 humans, of which, ES events are the most commonly occurring AS type [17]. In
26 contrast, plant AS events predominantly involve IR [18, 5, 11, 13]. However, the
27 ratios of the different AS types can vary between monocots and dicots [14].

1 AS is catalyzed by the spliceosome, and the selection of intron removal is strongly
2 regulated by consensus splice sequences, where most plant introns have a 3' AG and a
3 5' GU. Compared to exons that are GC-rich, introns are more inclined toward AU;
4 some difference occurs between dicots and monocots [16, 9]. In the past two decades,
5 several research projects have sought to determine the regulators affecting AS [19-21].
6 Indeed, many regulators have been identified, like changes to chromatin [22, 23], the
7 promoter responsible for transcription [24, 25], alterations in the environment of
8 chromatin [26], and the addition of various transcription characteristics or
9 coactivators to promoters [27]. However, the process of AS is complex, and the
10 factors affecting the inhibition and activation of various forms of mRNA splices
11 require further research.

12 Following the detection of the first AS in the endogenous gene of a mammal, coding
13 for calcitonin [28], there has been an increase in the identification of alternatively
14 spliced genes in humans (~35%) due to the alignment of expressed sequence tag (EST)
15 contigs to genomic DNA [29]. The incidence of AS in plants is approximated using a
16 low EST count [30]. The AS levels that have been detected have increased with
17 increases in coverage of EST/cDNA [31-35, 5]. High-throughput sequencing results
18 in a large dataset for significant analyses, and, along with improved technologies,
19 increases the ability to study AS. While many studies examining transcriptomes using
20 high-throughput sequencing have been conducted in plants, few have research AS
21 [11-15].

22 *Triticum aestivum* L., or common wheat, is a crop grown worldwide and accounts for
23 20 percent of the calories that humans eat [36]. To investigate the global
24 characteristics of AS in wheat, we executed paired-end RNA sequencing of 20
25 samples from the elite wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6 using the Illumina HiSeq platform,
26 and generated ~ 1,445 million 125 bp pair-end reads. Wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6 has
27 good quality grain, a high and stable yield, as well as drought tolerance, and was also

1 used as one of the most important foundation parents in wheat breeding programs in
2 China for about 20 years. Through read mapping and transcript assemblies, we
3 classified new AS events and genes in Xiaoyan 6. In this study, we first describe the
4 characteristics of the different AS type events in wheat. We then identify the genomic
5 features that influence AS, such as the number of exons, the length of the introns, the
6 level of transcription, and the content of GC. We also found that differences in AS are
7 correlated with differences with gene expression regarding splicing factors. Finally,
8 we discuss the distribution, expression patterns, and functional enrichments of seed-
9 specific AS genes.

10 **RESULTS**

11 **Mapping the transcriptome of wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6**

12 To identify alternative splicing events in wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6, we executed a
13 high-throughput RNA-seq on 20 samples using the Illumina HiSeq 2500 DNA
14 sequencing instrument. The samples included RNA extracted from root (R), stem (S),
15 and leaf (L) of wheat seedlings at the five-leaf stage, young spikes at the early booting
16 stage (YS5), spikes at the heading stage (YS15), flag leaf at the heading stage (FL),
17 and grains at 5, 10, 15, and 20 days post-anthesis (GR5, GR10, GR15, and GR20,
18 respectively) (Additional file 1: Table S1). The Illumina sequencing generated nearly
19 1,445 million paired-end reads (~ 145Gb; 125-nt read length). We trimmed the
20 adaptor sequences and filtered out the low-quality reads, there remained ~ 1,387
21 million high-quality reads and an average per-sample read of 69.4 million reads (~
22 6.94 Gb) (Fig. 1A; Additional file 1: Table S1). We then mapped the reads to the
23 genome sequence of *T. aestivum* cv. Chinese Spring, which was used as a reference
24 (IWGSC RefSeq v1.0), after which we assembled the transcripts and performed
25 analyses of the gene expression and differential isoform via the Tuxedo RNA-seq data
26 analysis pipeline [37, 38]. The analysis yielded ~ 60 to 75% overall alignment rates

1 for the 20 samples (Additional file 1: Table S1). There were approximately 95%
2 unique reads, which were only mapped once to a particular genome, which indicates
3 high-quality sequencing (Fig. 1A). The number of aligned reads for a certain
4 chromosome displayed a high correlation with the total length of the gene in this
5 chromosome (Fig. 1B), implying extensive chromosome coverage. Additional file 2:
6 Figure S1 displays the distribution of the reads along each chromosome in the
7 windows of 1 kb. Additional examination demonstrated that most mapped reads were
8 found in exonic regions, while a smaller number of the reads were mapped to non-
9 gene or intronic regions (Fig. 1C). In addition, approximately 78% of the genes have
10 at least 60% coverage by mapped reads (Fig. 1D). The aligned reads from intronic and
11 exonic areas were then used to understand gene expression, and to determine the AS
12 events for the genes.

13 Along with the assemblies of our transcripts, the combined Xiaoyan 6 gene annotation
14 has ~ 120,770 transcripts among 103,480 gene loci. From these, ~ 18,960 (9%) and
15 25,133 (24%) were transcript and gene models that had been previously unannotated
16 (Fig. 1E). Each of these novel genes was used as a query in BLASTX searches (*E*-
17 value cutoff: 1e-10) and compared to databases of reference sequences that are
18 available to the public. This search found these transcripts as encoding putative
19 proteins having various characteristics, such as receptor-like kinase (XLOC_000629),
20 MYB-like protein (XLOC_002308), F-box protein (XLOC_000122), NBS-LRR
21 superfamily (XLOC_021305), NAC domain-containing protein (XLOC_023217), and
22 ABC transporter family (XLOC_081889) (Additional file 3: Table S2).

23 We then performed a global inspection of the isoform-level expression using the
24 CummeRbund program [37]. The isoform-level expression's density level (\log_{10}
25 FPKM) displayed a normal distribution across the 20 samples (Fig. 2A), with little
26 systematic bias. In addition, box plots, heatmaps, and pairwise scatter plots of the
27 isoform-level expression showed the higher correlations between each sample

1 replicate pair (Fig. 2B, C; Additional file 4: Figure S2). To better understand the
2 relationships between different transcriptomes, we performed principal component
3 analysis (PCA) based on the expression values of all identified genes in the 20
4 samples, which shows the similarities in development as well as the transcriptional
5 signatures graphically. The first part (49.6% of the variance explained) grouped the
6 samples based on their tissue, as well as separating developing seeds from young
7 spikes, with seedling roots, seedling stems, seedling leaves, and flag leaves located in
8 between (Fig. 2D). The second component (24.5% of the variance explained)
9 discriminated between different developmental stages of these tissues (Fig. 2D).
10 Together, these analyses demonstrated the robustness of the wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6
11 transcriptome data at isoform-level resolution.

12 **High-level detection of AS genes in the wheat genome**

13 The AS events were identified using Alternative Splicing Transcriptional Landscape
14 Visualization (ASTALAVISTA) tool [39]. Of the expressed genes, 18,868 genes
15 (18.23%) were predicted to be subject to AS. Our set of transcripts was validated
16 using an RT-PCR alternative splicing panel, where we examined 13 genes, all
17 containing AS events, and which were either obtained from the *T. aestivum* reference
18 genome, or newly found in this study (Additional file 5: Figure S3). These findings
19 demonstrate the ability of RNA-seq to identify new AS events. Within each tissue, the
20 number of AS genes greatly varied. More AS genes were found in the stems (S) and
21 leaves (L) of wheat seedlings at the five-leaf stage, flag leaf (FL), and spike at the
22 heading stage (YS15), while the number of AS genes were less in other tissues/organs
23 (Additional file 6: Figure S4A). This inconsistency could be due to the total number
24 of genes expressed in each singular tissue. We performed a correlation analysis of the
25 samples, which demonstrated that the gene number of the AS displayed a high
26 correlation with the gene number that was expressed (Additional file 6: Figure S4B),
27 after which we determined the AS gene ratio (number of AS genes/total number of

1 expressed genes) to remove any bias in the number of expressed genes. We also
2 determined that AS gene ratios were higher in young stems, young leaves, flag leaves,
3 and spike at the heading stage (Additional file 6: Figure S4C). Further analysis
4 suggested that the AS frequency might be associated with gene expression levels
5 (Additional file 6: Figure S4D). We also identified individual protein isoform domains
6 in each gene (Fig. 3A). Our findings showed that compared to non-AS genes, AS
7 genes contained more domains, which were consistent with previous research
8 performed on both *Arabidopsis* and rice [40]. After comparing the structural features
9 of non-AS genes and AS genes, we determined that AS genes were longer than the
10 non-AS genes (Fig. 3B), the exons of AS genes were also longer than those of non-AS
11 genes (Fig. 3C), and AS genes possess more exons (Fig. 3D), indicating that gene
12 structure might be the cause of the difference in domain number observed in non-AS
13 genes and AS genes.

14 Among the 18,868 AS genes, 709 were alternatively spliced in each sample examined
15 by our research (Fig. 3E). To identify which biological processes the alternatively
16 spliced genes could play a role in, we studied Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment
17 using all *T. aestivum* genes as controls. Our findings demonstrated that AS genes were
18 highly expressed in mechanisms involving metabolism and development, and RNA
19 splicing-related processes were also enriched, such as RNA processing (GO:0006396,
20 $P = 1.05E-04$), RNA splicing (GO:0008380, $P = 1.12E-04$), and RNA splicing
21 regulation (GO:0043484, $P = 1.62E-04$) (Fig. 3F).

22 **Frequency and features of different types of AS events**

23 AS types were also categorized with the ASTALAVISTA [39]. All 90,546 AS events
24 were identified and classified into: (1) IR (intron retention), (2) AA (alternative
25 acceptor sites), (3) AD (alternative donor sites), (4) ES (exon skipping), as well as (5)
26 alternate incidents. The “alternate incidents” are comprised of AS events involving

1 duplicated IR, AD, AA, and ES events, or a mix of some. Among the different AS
2 types, IR represented 32.90% of the sum and was most commonly found. The next
3 most common was AA (31.96%), AD (17.76%), and ES (9.51%) events (Fig. 4A).
4 Approximately 8% of the events were classified as complex AS events. These results
5 agreed with previous observations in *Arabidopsis* [11, 13]. The four AS types varied
6 remarkably in the individual tissues (Fig. 4B). Interestingly, we found that IR was the
7 predominant AS type in the FL, GR5, GR10, GR15, and GR20 samples, while in the
8 R, S, LYS5, and YS15 samples, AA was the predominant AS type (Fig. 4B;
9 Additional file 7: Figure S5).

10 A recent study of AS in soybean indicated that ratios of various AS types could differ
11 between dicots and monocots [14]. We analyzed the AS samples, along with the
12 relative proportion of AS types in four reference monocots to test the following:
13 wheat (this study), *B. distachyon* (Bd21v1.2), rice (*O. sativa*; MSU6.0), and maize (*Z.*
14 *mays*; AGPv3). Using the ASTALAVISTA program, we also analyzed four dicots as
15 controls: *Arabidopsis* (TAIR10), potato (*S. tuberosum*; SolTub3.0), soybean (*G. max*
16 Assembly, v1.0), and poplar (*P. trichocarpa*; JGI2.0). The results showed that the
17 proportions of various AS types and the landscapes of wheat were similar to maize,
18 rice, and *B. distachyon* (Fig. 4C). We found few differences in the proportion of
19 various AS types between dicots and monocots (Fig. 4C). Among the monocots and
20 dicots that we examined, IR events were the most prevalent AS type; AA types and
21 AD types were the next two. The least common AS type among plants were ES events
22 (Fig. 4C). These findings demonstrate that the mechanisms regulating intron
23 processing and AS are conserved across dicots and monocots, lending support to the
24 idea that IR events are more common in plants than in animals [9].

25 The use of specific locations to splice was an integral component of AS. Of the AS
26 events we found in our research, 78,901 were GT-AG splice locations (87.14%),
27 3,886 were GC-AG splice locations (4.30%), 235 were AT-AC splice locations

1 (0.26%), and 7,524 were other splice locations (8.31%). The GT-AG location was the
2 most common of the four kinds of AS, while GC-AG was the second most common
3 (Additional file 8: Figure S6), results that are consistent with those of other species
4 [41, 42, 11]. Although the GT-AG splice site was also the most common in the
5 different AS types, proportions of use for the splice sites differed among the four
6 kinds of AS. In ES, the proportion of GT-AG was ~ 97%, which was higher than in IR
7 (80.18%), AA (88.38%), and AD (92.64%) types. Another interesting phenomenon
8 was that the proportion of GC-AG sites (7.65%) in IR was higher than in the other AS
9 types (Additional file 8: Figure S6).

10 **Genomic features influence AS frequency and AS event types**

11 We grouped together the distribution of AS events, along with other characteristics of
12 the gene, across each of the 21 chromosomes in order to gain a better understanding
13 of the relationship of AS with other characteristics of the genome (Fig. 5A). A
14 previous study in soybean illustrated how the length of the intron, the number of
15 exons, the level of gene expression, and the content of GC can influence the AS
16 frequency [14]. To explore these relationships in wheat, we performed correlation
17 analysis between the number of AS events in individual genes with the length of
18 introns, the number of exons, the level of expression, and the content of GC. The
19 results demonstrated that the number of AS did not display a significant correlation
20 with the level of gene expression, but showed significant positive correlations for the
21 length of the introns and the number of exons, and displayed a significant negative
22 correlation with the content of GC (Additional file 9: Table S3). To further confirm
23 the correlations, we compared these characteristics with non-AS genes and AS genes.
24 The AS genes had significantly longer introns, more exons, and lower GC contents
25 than did the non-AS genes, however, we did not observe any significant differences in
26 the levels of expression between the AS and non-AS genes (Fig. 5B). This analysis
27 suggests that the frequency of AS in wheat displays a positive correlation with the

1 length of the intron and the number of exons, and displayed a negative correlation
2 with the content of GC.

3 We also determined the correlations between the gene features, including the length of
4 the intron, number of exons, levels of expression, and content of GC, as well as the
5 numbers of each type of AS event. The results showed that the frequency of these AS
6 events was significantly positively correlated with both the length of the intron and
7 the number of exons, and displayed a negative correlation with the content of GC
8 (Additional file 10: Table S4). This was comparable to our results for all AS events
9 (Additional file 9: Table S3). We chose genes that displayed only one of the four AS
10 types to compare, in order to understand the differences between AS types. Our
11 findings indicated that the AD, AA, and ES genes had relatively longer introns, a
12 higher number of exons, and higher levels of expression, but lower content of GC
13 than the IR types (Fig. 5C). These results indicate that different AS gene types have
14 different features, which might substantially influence the specific AS types.

15 **Changes in alternative splicing during seed development**

16 Some have indicated that AS differs significantly among tissues/organs. In this study,
17 we identified large numbers of AS genes in the developing grain samples, including
18 6,992, 7,952, 7,881, and 6,958 AS genes in the GR5, GR10, GR15, and GR20
19 samples, respectively (Additional file 6: Figure S4). From the expression data in the
20 four grain samples, we were able to gain a comprehensive view of the dynamic
21 expression changes in AS genes during grain development. Hierarchical clustering of
22 the expression of these genes shows that there are distinct patterns during
23 development (Additional file 11: Figure S7A), and further trend analysis showed that
24 there are 10 significant profiles for the expression of these AS genes ($P < 0.001$;
25 Additional file 11: Figure S7B). To obtain an overview of the biological processes
26 involved in the AS genes that are related to seed development, we performed Gene

1 Ontology (GO) enrichment analyses. Generally, several GO categories related to
2 metabolism and development, such as “primary metabolism” (GO:0044238), “lipid
3 metabolism” (GO:0006629), “nitrogen compound metabolism” (GO:0006807),
4 “nucleobase-containing compound metabolic” (GO:0006139), and “multicellular
5 organism development” (GO:0007275), were found to be overrepresented in the up-
6 regulated profiles (profiles 21, 23, 24) (Additional file 11: Figure S7C), while GO
7 categories related to signal transduction, cell structure organization, and cell cycle,
8 such as “anatomical structure morphogenesis” (GO:0009653), “cell cycle”
9 (GO:0007049), “cell differentiation” (GO:0030154), and “signal transduction”
10 (GO:0007165), were overrepresented in the down-regulated profiles (profiles 0, 1, 3,
11 4, 9) (Additional file 11: Figure S7C).

12 To further elucidate the important functions of AS in seed development, we screened
13 the grain-specific AS genes. Ten tissue/organ samples were divided into four groups
14 based on the similarity of growth and developmental stages: seedling, flag leaf, spike,
15 and grain. A search among the differentially expressed AS dataset identified a great
16 number of tissue/organ-specific AS genes, and 2,737 seed-specific AS genes were
17 found across all tissue/organ samples (Fig. 6A). Among these seed-specific AS genes,
18 1,456, 1,342, 1,245, and 1,160 AS genes were found in the GR5, GR10, GR15, and
19 GR20 samples, respectively (Fig. 7A). The number of AS genes in the earlier seed
20 developmental stages were significantly higher than in the later developmental stages,
21 and the changes that occur mirror the phases of development. GO enrichment analysis
22 revealed that GO categories related to metabolism and development, such as “primary
23 metabolism” (GO:0044238), “glycoprotein metabolism” (GO:0009101), “RNA
24 metabolism” (GO:0016070), “starch metabolism” (GO:0005982), and “post-
25 embryonic development” (GO:0009791) are overrepresented (Fig. 6B). Wheat grain
26 development includes three main phases; (1) fertilization, which initiates grain
27 development, (2) the formation stage of the grain between 0-10 days post-anthesis

1 (DPA), in which the embryos and endosperm cells form and proliferate rapidly, and
2 (3) the grain filling stage at 11-23 DPA, in which starch and other reserves
3 accumulate and the endosperm cells enlarge rapidly. Grain development reaches the
4 mature stage at 23 DPA [43]. We further performed GO enrichment analyses on the
5 first (GR5 and GR10) or second (GR15 and GR20) phase-specific AS genes (Fig. 7B).
6 Of the first phase-specific AS genes, GO categories related to “post-embryonic
7 development” (GO:0009791), “anatomical structure development” (GO:0048856),
8 “cell cycle” (GO:0007049), and “cellular component organization or biogenesis”
9 (GO:0071840), were enriched (Fig. 7C). For the second phase-specific AS genes, the
10 enriched GO categories were related to “nucleobase-containing compound metabolic”
11 (GO:0006139), “lipid metabolism” (GO:0006629), “nitrogen compound metabolism”
12 (GO:0006807), and “primary metabolism” (GO:0044238) (Fig. 7C).

13 Trend analysis of the seed-specific AS genes revealed 20 gene expression profiles
14 (Additional file 12: Figure S8), and six of these were identified as significant profiles
15 ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 6C, D). Of the 20 gene expression profiles, profiles 0, 6, 18, 19, and
16 20 contained much more AS genes than did the other profiles (Fig. 6C). We also
17 applied enrichment analysis to the seed-specific AS genes in the significant profiles.
18 Of the significant profiles, profile 6 had many more AS genes than the other profiles,
19 profile 19 contained the genes that were continuously up-regulated during grain
20 development, and profile 0 contained the genes that were continuously down-regulated
21 (Fig. 6C, D). In the GO annotation analysis of profile 0 (down-regulated profile; $P =$
22 $4.4E-165$), “response to external stimulus” (GO:0009605), “gene silencing”
23 (GO:0016458), “regulation of gene expression” (GO:0040029), “meristem structural
24 organization” (GO:0009933), “anatomical structure arrangement” (GO:0048532),
25 “microtubule-based process” (GO:0007017), “cell cycle process” (GO:0022402), and
26 “actin filament organization” (GO:0007015) were the most significantly enriched
27 terms; this suggested that the AS genes related to signal transduction, cell structure

1 organization, and cell cycle processes are active in the early phase of grain
2 development, but are gradually silenced as grain development progresses. However,
3 in profile 19 (up-regulated profile; $P = 1.5E-118$), “monocarboxylic acid metabolic
4 process” (GO:0032787), “cofactor metabolic process” (GO:0051186), “tetraterpenoid
5 metabolic process” (GO:0016108), “small molecule metabolic process”
6 (GO:0044281), and “starch metabolic process” (GO:0005982) were the most
7 significantly enriched GO terms (Additional file 13: Table S5). This is in line with the
8 process of reserve accumulation, which can provide energy for seed germination,
9 post-germination and growth, and is initiated in early grain development and ends
10 when the seed matures. Taken together, the changes in AS genes during grain
11 development corresponded to the physiological and biochemical processes of grain
12 development from the “division and expansion” to “grain filling” and finally the
13 “maturation and desiccation” stages.

14 **DISCUSSION**

15 Our analysis of RNA-seq is currently the most comprehensive study on alternatively
16 spliced transcripts in wheat, and will be extremely important when studying
17 expression regulation as well as the function of genes and proteins. We demonstrated
18 that 18,868 genes containing intron are alternatively spliced in wheat and that each AS
19 gene undergoes an average of five to six AS events (90,546 AS events/18,868 AS
20 genes) (Fig. 4A). As expected, the typical plant intron junctions GT-AG make up the
21 highest incidence of intron terminal dinucleotide signals within the AS events we
22 observed, with GT-AG introns representing the next biggest group (Additional file 8:
23 Figure S6). Unfortunately, the samples in this study were primarily obtained from
24 different tissues or the same tissues at varying stages of development, and didn't
25 include samples from plants exposed to stressful environmental conditions. Previous
26 research has found that a large number of AS events are brought on only by biotic and
27 abiotic stresses [10]. As such, AS events in wheat could be more widespread than we

1 first thought.

2 The assembling of transcripts out of short sequencing reads is a difficult process,
3 making it necessary to procure assistance for the transcriptome assembly. We used a
4 high-resolution alternative splicing RT-PCR panel to analyze a substantial dataset of
5 transcripts and AS events, attaining a high level of validation due to the experimental
6 assistance for 32 transcripts that were predicated by RNA-seq for the regions on the
7 RT-PCR panel (Additional file 5: Figure S3). Our analysis demonstrated that some of
8 the detected AS genes alternatively spliced in each sample we studied. Subsequent
9 GO analysis found that these AS genes were highly expressed in mechanisms
10 associated with metabolism, development, and RNA splicing (Fig. 3F). These findings
11 are partially backed up by the fact that genes related to RNA splicing are also
12 regulated by AS and other splicing characteristics [44, 45]. Other than these
13 constitutively alternatively spliced genes, there are many tissue/organ-specific AS
14 genes. Our study demonstrated that the total AS events, AS genes, and the frequencies
15 of the individual AS types differed significantly among the various tissues/organs (Fig.
16 3E; Fig. 4B; Additional file 6: Figure S4). The AS frequency was higher in spikes at
17 the heading stage (YS15) than in other tissues. Similar observations were made in
18 quickly growing tissues in soybean, like the meristem of the shoot or budding seeds
19 [14]. It is believed that AS is a primary factor involved in the regulation of the
20 expression of genes, in addition to increasing proteome diversity [9]. These
21 tissue/organ-specific AS events could serve in an organized fashion in particular
22 mechanisms or networks as gene groups co-regulated at the transcriptional level [46].
23 In seed development, the signal transduction-, cell structure organization-, and cell
24 cycle process-related AS genes are active early in the developing grains, but are
25 gradually silenced as the process of grain development proceeds. We also found that
26 reserve accumulation-related AS genes were up-regulated from the early to the middle
27 developmental stages of the wheat grain (Fig. 7; Additional file 11: Figure S7;

1 Additional file 13: Table S5).

2 The structure of plant and animal genes differ significantly in terms of the lengths of
3 the introns. In animals, the average relative length of the introns is large, but is much
4 smaller in plants [13]. The differences in the size of the introns between animals and
5 plants could be due to the different ways in which they process introns [47], which
6 then results in different levels of various AS types between animals and plants. In
7 animals, ES is the most commonly found AS event [19, 48,17], while in plants, IR is
8 the most commonly found [5, 11, 13, 14]. Our study demonstrated that IR is the most
9 common form of AS in wheat, which is similar to other plants. Our findings also
10 indicate that the ratios of the four different types of AS in plants could be different in
11 monocots and dicots (Fig. 4C). While IR typically accounts for most AS events in
12 plant genomes, the proportions of AS types show significant differences in various
13 species of plant (Fig. 4C). In our analysis, the ratios of both AD and AA were higher
14 than the ratio of ES (Fig. 4A), which aligns with the findings from *Arabidopsis* [5, 11,
15 13]. The differences between the ratios of the different types of AS in the four
16 monocots wheat, *B. distachyon*, rice, and maize, as well as in the four reference dicots
17 *Arabidopsis*, potato, soybean, and poplar demonstrate that the mechanisms relating to
18 the processing of the introns or AS could have diverged between monocots and dicots.

19 As the number of exons increases, the addition of splice variants is also thought to
20 increase [49]. Our results suggest that the structure of genes can have a significant
21 effect on the frequency of AS. An examination of the data from individual genes
22 showed that AS frequency displayed a positive correlation with both the length of the
23 introns and the number of exons, and displayed a negative correlation with the content
24 of GC (Fig. 5). Statistical analysis showed that AS genes possessed more exons and
25 longer introns than non-AS genes, indicating that changes in the length of the introns
26 and the number of exons could be the primary factors affecting variation in AS (Fig.
27 3). Our findings suggest that differences in the structure of the gene, particularly the

1 length of the introns and the number of exons, could have a meaningful effect on the
2 frequency of AS.

3 **CONCLUSION**

4 In summary, through transcriptome analysis, over ten thousand AS genes were
5 identified and characterized in wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6. Especially 2,737 seed-
6 specific AS genes were identified. the results of this study offer a significant amount
7 of important AS events across the genome, making it a particularly important source
8 of information for better understanding the regulation of genes. Further research is
9 needed to better understand the molecular processes governing the splicing factors,
10 their transcript targets, and the effects of isolated alternative splicing events.

11 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

12 **Plant growth conditions and sample collection**

13 We used the wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6 as experimental material in this study. We
14 grew the wheat plants during the traditional growing season at an experimental plot
15 located in Northwest A & F University, Yangling, Shanxi, China (longitude 108°E,
16 latitude 34°15'N) from 2014 to 2015. Ten tissue/organ samples including roots, stems,
17 and leaves of wheat seedlings at the five-leaf stage, young spikes at the early booting
18 stage, spikes at the heading stage, flag leaves at the heading stage, and grain at 5, 10,
19 15, and 20 DPA. We collected each specimen from a minimum of five separate plants
20 for two replicates, and the mixed samples were flash-frozen using liquid nitrogen
21 before RNA extraction.

22 **Isolation of RNA, construction of the cDNA library, and high-throughput 23 sequencing**

24 We isolated total RNA using the Total RNA Rapid Extraction Kit for Polysaccharides
25 Polyphenol Plant (BioTeke) according to the manufacturer's directions. The

1 preliminary determinations of both the purity and levels of the RNA samples were
2 performed using a NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo) and RNase-free
3 agarose gel electrophoresis, respectively. We then treated the extracted RNA with
4 RNase-free DNase I (New England Biolabs) at 37 °C for 30 min to remove the
5 residual DNA. We used the TruSeq paired-end mRNA-Seq kit, multiplex adapter
6 ligation, and 125-based paired-end sequencing on the Illumina HiSeq 2500 to prepare
7 a library from the resulting total RNA.

8 **Read alignment and putative transcript assemblies**

9 *T. aestivum* genome sequences and annotation (IWGSC RefSeq v1.0) were
10 downloaded from Ensemble Plants ([http://archive.plants.ensembl.org/Triticum_](http://archive.plants.ensembl.org/Triticum_aestivum/Info/Annotation/#assembly)
11 [aestivum/Info/Annotation/#assembly](http://archive.plants.ensembl.org/Triticum_aestivum/Info/Annotation/#assembly)). We used FASTQC tools to remove sequences
12 that were of poor quality, contained adapters, and contained nucleotide sequences that
13 were ambiguous from the successfully prefiltered reads. This filtered for additional
14 quality. We then used the Tuxedo RNA-seq analysis pipeline [37,38] to map the RNA-
15 seq reads to the reference genome of *T. aestivum*. This tuxedo pipeline is made of
16 Cuffdiff2 (differential gene and transcript expression, and differential splicing
17 analysis), Cufflinks2 (transcript assembly), Cuffmerge2 (transcript merging), and
18 TopHat2 (mapping). We used the Integrated Genome Viewer (Broad Institute) and
19 Seqmonk tools (Babraham Bioinformatics) to visualize, at the chromosome-level, the
20 read densities. These were performed according to the recommended program
21 documentation.

22 We used Cufflinks 2 [37] to piece together the genome-matched reads from each
23 RNA-seq library with two changes from the standard protocol: a maximum intron size
24 of 100,000 and a minimum intron size of 20. We used Cuffmerge 2 [37] to merge the
25 specific transcript groups into a single dataset of transcripts. Annotating the new
26 junctions needed a minimum of 10 reads, and all new transcripts had to represent a

1 minimum of 10% of the total gene abundance in a minimum of one library. Cuffnorm
2 [50] was used to count and analyze the new transcripts in each genotype and tissue,
3 using default parameters. We used the FPKM mapped fragments metric [37] to
4 normalize the RNA-seq expression.

5 **AS event identification**

6 We mapped the various assembled transcript isoforms to the related model of the gene
7 via Cuffcompare, a program included in the Cufflinks program and using a procedure
8 previously described [37], in order to detect AS events. We then used ASTALAVISTA
9 [39] to identify the AS, analyzing four kinds of AS events: AA, ES, AD, and IR [51].

10 **RT-PCR validation**

11 The selected AS events were analyzed, via a set of primers, by RT-PCR (Additional
12 file 14: Table S6) which we built for each AS event. Total RNAs from ten tissue/organ
13 samples, including root, stem, leaf of wheat seedling at five-leaf stage, young spike at
14 early booting stage, spike at heading stage, flag leaf at heading stage, and the grain of
15 5, 10, 15 and 20 DPA, were extracted using with TRIzol reagent, according to the
16 manufacturer's instructions, and then treated with DNAase I, after which they were
17 reverse-transcribed to cDNA (random priming).

18 **Statistical analysis**

19 We used Pearson's correlation with bootstrap resamplings to analyze the correlation
20 between the characteristics we studied. The method was the same as previously
21 described [52]. We also used an ANOVA *t*-test to compare the levels of expression
22 and characteristics of the genome between the AS and non-AS genes as well as
23 between the low-AS and high-AS genes. We used Fisher's LSD test to compare the
24 various characteristics of genes with different AS events, and between different kinds
25 of AS events.

1 **Accession numbers**

2 Raw data relating to the RNA-seq from the 20 specimens used in this study are
3 accessible from the Wheat transcriptome sequencing database (http://genedenovoweb.ticp.net:81/Wheat_GDR1246/index.php).

5

6

7 **Abbreviations**

8 AA: alternative acceptor; AD: alternative donor; AS: Alternative splicing; ES: exon
9 skipping; EST: expressed sequence tag; FPKM: Fragments Per Kilobase of exon
10 model per Million mapped fragments; GO: Gene Ontology; IR: intron retention; PCA:
11 principal component analysis; PTC: premature termination codon; snRNA: small
12 nuclear RNA

13 **Acknowledgements**

14 We would like to thank our colleagues who assisted us with alternative wheat splicing,
15 as well as the Bioinformatics Center of Northwest A & F University for their helpful
16 insight. We also thank Gene Denovo (Guangzhou) for their help with data analysis.

17 **Author Contributions**

18 HZ and HM designed the work. HM, JZ, LG, and FM analyzed the data. LG and QC
19 performed the experiments. XL helped in seedling planting and sample preparation.
20 HM and HZ wrote the manuscript with input from JZ, LG, QC, FM, and XL. Each
21 author has studied and authorized the final version of this study.

22 **Funding**

23 This work was supported by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of
24 China (31471482) and the Scientific Research Foundation of State Key Laboratory of

1 Crop Stress Biology for Arid Areas, Northwest A & F University
2 (CSBAAZD2016001).

3 **Availability of data and materials**

4 Raw data relating to the RNA-seq from the 20 specimens used in this study are
5 accessible from the Wheat transcriptome sequencing database (http://genedenovoweb.ticp.net:81/Wheat_GDR1246/index.php).

7 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

8 Not applicable

9 **Consent for publication**

10 Not applicable.

11 **Competing interests**

12 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

13 **Author details**

14 ¹ State Key Laboratory of Crop Stress Biology for Arid Areas, College of Plant
15 Protection, Northwest A & F University, Yangling, Shaanxi 712100, China. ² State
16 Key Laboratory of Crop Stress Biology for Arid Areas, College of Life Sciences,
17 Northwest A & F University, Yangling, Shaanxi 712100, China

18

19

20

21

22

1 **References**

- 2 1. Lareau LF, Green RE, Bhatnagar RS, Brenner SE. The evolving roles of
3 alternative splicing. *Curr Opin Struct Biol.* 2004;14(3):273-282.
- 4 2. Wahl MC, Will CL, Lührmann R. The spliceosome: Design principles of a
5 dynamic RNP machine. *Cell.* 2009;136(4):701-718.
- 6 3. Stamm S, Ben-Ari S, Rafalska I, Tang Y, Zhang Z, Toiber D, et al. Function of
7 alternative splicing. *Gene.* 2005;344:1-20.
- 8 4. Lewis BP, Green RE, Brenner SE. Evidence for the widespread coupling of
9 alternative splicing and nonsense-mediated mRNA decay in humans. *Proc Natl*
10 *Acad Sci USA.* 2003;100(1):189-192.
- 11 5. Wang BB, Brendel V. Genome wide comparative analysis of alternative splicing
12 in plants. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2006;103(18):7175-7180.
- 13 6. Kalyna M, Simpson CG, Syed NH, Lewandowska D, Marquez Y, Kusenda B, et
14 al. Alternative splicing and nonsense-mediated decay modulate expression of
15 important regulatory genes in *Arabidopsis*. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2012;40(6):2454-
16 2469.
- 17 7. Drechsel G, Kahles A, Kesarwani AK, Stauffer E, Behr J, Drewe P, et al.
18 Nonsense-mediated decay of alternative precursor mRNA splicing variants is a
19 major determinant of the *Arabidopsis* steady state transcriptome. *Plant Cell.*
20 2013;25(10):3726-3742.
- 21 8. Howard BE, Hu Q, Babaoglu AC, Chandra M, Borghi M, Tan X, et al. High-
22 throughput RNA sequencing of pseudomonas- infected *Arabidopsis* reveals
23 hidden transcriptome complexity and novel splice variants. *PLoS One.*
24 2013;8(10):e74183.
- 25 9. Reddy AS, Marquez Y, Kalyna M, Barta A. Complexity of the alternative splicing
26 landscape in plants. *Plant Cell.* 2013;25(10):3657-3683.

-
- 1 10. Staiger D, Brown JW. Alternative splicing at the intersection of biological timing,
2 development, and stress responses. *Plant Cell*. 2013;25(10):3640-3656.
 - 3 11. Filichkin SA, Priest HD, Givan SA, Shen R, Bryant DW, Fox SE, et al. Genome-
4 wide mapping of alternative splicing in *Arabidopsis thaliana*. *Genome Res*.
5 2010;20(1):45-58.
 - 6 12. Zhang G, Guo G, Hu X, Zhang Y, Li Q, Li R, et al. Deep RNA sequencing at
7 single base-pair resolution reveals high complexity of the rice transcriptome.
8 *Genome Res*. 2010;20(5):646-654.
 - 9 13. Marquez Y, Brown JW, Simpson C, Barta A, Kalyna M. Transcriptome survey
10 reveals increased complexity of the alternative splicing landscape in *Arabidopsis*.
11 *Genome Res*. 2012;22(6):1184-1195.
 - 12 14. Shen Y, Zhou Z, Wang Z, Li W, Fang C, Wu M, et al. Global dissection of
13 alternative splicing in paleopolyploid soybean. *Plant Cell*. 2014;26(3):996-1008.
 - 14 15. Thatcher SR, Zhou W, Leonard A, Wang BB, Beatty M, Zastrow-Hayes G, et al.
15 Genome-wide analysis of alternative splicing in *Zea mays*: landscape and genetic
16 regulation. *Plant Cell*. 2014;26(9):3472-3487.
 - 17 16. Black DL. Mechanisms of alternative pre-messenger RNA splicing. *Annu Rev*
18 *Biochem*. 2003;72:291-336.
 - 19 17. Wang ET, Sandberg R, Luo S, Khrebtkova I, Zhang L, Mayr C, et al. Alternative
20 isoform regulation in human tissue transcriptomes. *Nature*. 2008;456(7221):470-
21 476.
 - 22 18. Iida K, Go M. Survey of conserved alternative splicing events of mRNAs
23 encoding SR proteins in land plants. *Mol Biol Evol*. 2006;23(5):1085-1094.
 - 24 19. Modrek B, Lee C. A genomic view of alternative splicing. *Nat Genet*.
25 2002;30(1):13-19.
 - 26 20. Buratti E, Baralle FE. Influence of RNA secondary structure on the pre-mRNA

-
- 1 splicing process. *Mol Cell Biol.* 2004;24(24):10505-10514.
- 2 21. Luco RF, Allo M, Schor IE, Kornblihtt AR, Misteli T. Epigenetics in alternative
3 pre-mRNA splicing. *Cell.* 2011;144(1):16-26.
- 4 22. Schor IE, Rascovan N, Pelisch F, Alló M, Kornblihtt AR. Neuronal cell
5 depolarization induces intragenic chromatin modifications affecting NCAM
6 alternative splicing. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2009;106(11):4325-4330.
- 7 23. Luco RF, Pan Q, Tominaga K, Blencowe BJ, Pereira-Smith OM, Misteli T.
8 Regulation of alternative splicing by histone modifications. *Science.*
9 2010;327(5968):996-1000.
- 10 24. Cramer P, Pesce CG, Baralle FE, Kornblihtt AR. Functional association between
11 promoter structure and transcript alternative splicing. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.*
12 1997;94(21):11456-11460.
- 13 25. Pagani F, Stuani C, Zuccato E, Kornblihtt AR, Baralle FE. Promoter architecture
14 modulates CFTR exon 9 skipping. *J Biol Chem.* 2003;278(3):1511-1517.
- 15 26. Kornblihtt AR, de la Mata M, Fededa JP, Munoz MJ, Nogues G. Multiple links
16 between transcription and splicing. *RNA.* 2004;10(10):1489-1498.
- 17 27. Auboeuf D, Dowhan DH, Kang YK, Larkin K, Lee JW, Berget SM, et al.
18 Differential recruitment of nuclear receptor coactivators may determine
19 alternative RNA splice site choice in target genes. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.*
20 2004;101(8):2270-2274.
- 21 28. Rosenfeld MG, Amara SG, Roos BA, Ong ES, Evans RM. Altered expression of
22 the calcitonin gene associated with RNA polymorphism. *Nature.*
23 1981;290(5801):63-65.
- 24 29. Mironov AA, Fickett JW, Gelfand MS. Frequent alternative splicing of human
25 genes. *Genome Res.* 1999;9(12):1288-1293.
- 26 30. Brett D, Pospisil H, Valcarcel J, Reich J, Bork P. Alternative splicing and genome

-
- 1 complexity. Nat Genet. 2002;30(1):29-30.
- 2 31. Zhu W, Brendel V. Identification, characterization and molecular phylogeny of
3 U12-dependent introns in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome. Nucleic Acids Res.
4 2003;31(15):4561-4572.
- 5 32. Zhu W, Schlueter SD, Brendel V. Refined annotation of the *Arabidopsis* genome
6 by complete expressed sequence tag mapping. Plant Physiol. 2003;132(2):469-48.
- 7 33. Iida K, Seki M, Sakurai T, Satou M, Akiyama K, Toyoda T, et al. Genome-wide
8 analysis of alternative pre-mRNA splicing in *Arabidopsis thaliana* based on full-
9 length cDNA sequences. Nucleic Acids Res. 2004;32(17):5096-5103.
- 10 34. Xiao YL, Smith SR, Ishmael N, Redman JC, Kumar N, Monaghan EL, et al.
11 Analysis of the cDNAs of hypothetical genes on *Arabidopsis* chromosome 2
12 reveals numerous transcript variants. Plant Physiol. 2005;139(3):1323-1337.
- 13 35. Campbell MA, Haas BJ, Hamilton JP, Mount SM, Buell CR. Comprehensive
14 analysis of alternative splicing in rice and comparative analyses with *Arabidopsis*.
15 BMC Genomics. 2006;7:327.
- 16 36. Langridge P. Genomics: Decoding our daily bread. Nature. 2012;491(7426):678-
17 680.
- 18 37. Trapnell C, Roberts A, Goff L, Pertea G, Kim D, Kelley DR, et al. Differential
19 gene and transcript expression analysis of RNA-seq experiments with TopHat and
20 Cufflinks. Nat Protoc. 2012;7(3):562-578.
- 21 38. Trapnell C, Hendrickson DG, Sauvageau M, Goff L, Rinn JL, Pachter, L.
22 Differential analysis of gene regulation at transcript resolution with RNA-seq.
23 Nat Biotechnol. 2013;31(1):46-53.
- 24 39. Foissac S, Sammeth M. ASTALAVISTA: dynamic and flexible analysis of
25 alternative splicing events in custom gene datasets. Nucleic Acids Res.
26 2007;35:W297-W299.

-
- 1 40. Chen TW, Wu TH, Ng WV, Lin WC. Interrogation of alternative splicing events
2 in duplicated genes during evolution. *BMC Genomics*. 2011;12:S16.
- 3 41. Thanaraj TA, Clark F. Human GC-AG alternative intron isoforms with weak
4 donor sites show enhanced consensus at acceptor exon positions. *Nucleic Acids*
5 *Res*. 2001;29(12):2581-2593.
- 6 42. Churbanov A, Winters-Hilt S, Koonin EV, Rogozin IB. Accumulation of GC
7 donor splice signals in mammals. *Biol Direct*. 2008;3:30.
- 8 43. Johnson DR, Tanner JW. Calculation of the rate and duration of grain filling in
9 corn (*Zea mays* L.). *Crop Sci*. 1972;12:485-486.
- 10 44. Saltzman AL, Pan Q, Blencowe BJ. Regulation of alternative splicing by the core
11 spliceosomal machinery. *Genes Dev*. 2011;25(4):373-384.
- 12 45. Thomas J, Palusa SG, Prasad KV, Ali GS, Surabhi GK, Ben-Hur A, et al.
13 Identification of an intronic splicing regulatory element involved in auto-
14 regulation of alternative splicing of *SCL33* pre-mRNA. *Plant J*. 2012;72(6):935-
15 946.
- 16 46. Blencowe BJ. Alternative splicing: New insights from global analyses. *Cell*.
17 2006;126(1):37-47.
- 18 47. Hartmuth K, Barta A. In vitro processing of a plant pre-mRNA in a HeLa cell
19 nuclear extract. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 1986;14(19):7513-7528.
- 20 48. Sultan M, Schulz MH, Richard H, Magen A, Klingenhoff A, Scherf M, et al. A
21 global view of gene activity and alternative splicing by deep sequencing of the
22 human transcriptome. *Science*. 2008;321(5891):956-960.
- 23 49. Kopelman NM, Lancet D, Yanai I. Alternative splicing and gene duplication are
24 inversely correlated evolutionary mechanisms. *Nat Genet*. 2005;37(6):588-589.
- 25 50. Roberts A, Pimentel H, Trapnell C, Pachter L. Identification of novel transcripts
26 in annotated genomes using RNA-Seq. *Bioinformatics*. 2011;27(17):2325-2329.

-
- 1 51. Sammeth M, Foissac S, Guigó R. A general definition and nomenclature for
2 alternative splicing events. PLoS Comput Biol. 2008;4(8):e1000147.
- 3 52. Zhang L, Gaut BS. Does recombination shape the distribution and evolution of
4 tandemly arrayed genes (TAGs) in the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genome? Genome
5 Res. 2003;13(12):2533-2540.

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

1 **Figure Legends**

2 **Fig. 1 Summary of RNA-seq read alignment and gene identification in this study.**

3 **a** Table showing the number and percentagae of reads that aligned to the *T. aestivum*
4 genome. **b** The numbers of aligned reads and gene lengths across each chromosome.
5 The read numbers are shown by blue histograms, and the red line indicates the sum of
6 the gene lengths for each chromosome. **c** The distribution of reads based on the wheat
7 genome annotation. **d** Distribution of the relative coverage of individual genes by
8 mapped reads. **e** Overlap of computationally predicted genes and transcripts from
9 wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6 compared with the public *T. aestivum* genome annotation
10 (IWGSC RefSeq v1.0).

11 **Fig. 2 Global analysis of transcript expression in all 20 RNA samples from wheat**

12 **cultivar Xiaoyan 6. a** Expression density plots. **b** Expression box plots. **c** Heatmap
13 showing relative gene expression. **d** Principal component analysis. Together, these
14 analyses attest to the robustness of the *T. aestivum* transcriptome analysis, showing
15 little systematic bias between the pairs of repeated samples, and also enabling
16 identification of the significant differences present among the different tissues or the
17 same tissues sampled at different developmental stages at the genomic scale.

18 **Fig. 3 Characteristics of AS genes and GO analysis of ubiquitously alternatively**

19 **spliced genes. a-d** Comparisons between AS and non-AS genes. **a** Average domain
20 number. **b** Average gene length. **c** Average exon length. **d** Average exon number. **e**
21 Distribution of AS genes among all 10 tissues/organs included in the study. **f** GO
22 biological processes enriched ($P < 0.01$) among AS genes that were alternatively
23 spliced in all of the wheat RNA samples examined.

24 **Fig. 4 Statistics and distribution of the different AS types in the *T. aestivum***

25 **genome. a** Statistics of the different AS types: IR, intron retention; AA, alternative
26 acceptor sites; AD, alternative donor sites; ES, exon skipping. **b** Numbers of

1 individual AS types in the 10 different RNA samples. **c** Relative frequencies of the
2 different AS types in four monocots (*T. aestivum*, *B. distachyon*, rice, and maize) and
3 four dicots (*Arabidopsis*, potato, soybean, and poplar).

4 **Fig. 5 Comparisons of gene features with different AS events. a** AS, transcriptome
5 profiling, and the distribution of genomic features across the wheat genome. From
6 outside to inside, the circles represent the chromosome structure, gene location, AS
7 gene location, gene expression, gene length, and GC content. **b** Comparisons of four
8 gene features between AS and non-AS genes; intron length, exon number, gene
9 expression level, and GC content. **c** Comparisons of the gene features between the
10 different AS types. Intron length, exon number, gene expression level, and GC content
11 were compared for AS types IR, AA, AD, and ES . The bars indicate the SE.

12 **Fig. 6 Functional enrichment and expression patterns of seed-specific AS genes. a**
13 Venn diagrams showing the distribution of the AS genes in four stages of
14 development, including seedlings, flag leaves, spikes ,and seeds. RSL, roots (R) stems
15 (S) and leaves (L) of seedlings at the five-leaf stage; FL, flag leaves of plants at the
16 heading stage; YS, young spikes from plants at the heading stage; GR, seed samples
17 from spikes at 5, 10, 15, and 20 days post-anthesis. **b** GO biological processes
18 enriched ($P < 0.01$) among AS genes that were specifically alternatively spliced in
19 seeds during development. **c** Expression patterns of seed-specific AS genes. These AS
20 genes can be divided into 20 expression profiles (profile 0-20) according to heatmap.
21 **d** Expression profiles that were significantly enriched for seed-specific AS genes ($P <$
22 0.01).

23 **Fig. 7 Venn diagrams and GO analysis of seed-specific AS genes in four seed**
24 **development periods. a** Venn diagrams showing the distribution of the AS genes in
25 four seed development periods. **b** Venn diagrams of first (GR5 and GR10) or second
26 (GR15 and GR20) phase specific AS genes. **c** GO enrichment analyses of first (GR5

1 and GR10) or second (GR15 and GR20) phase specific AS genes. GR5-GR20, seed
2 samples from 5, 10, 15 and 20 days post-anthesis spikes.

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

1 **Additional file 1: Table S1. Statistics of aligned reads in each sample.**

2 **Additional file 2: Figure S1. Log₂ scale of median read density in windows of 1**
3 **kb for the 21 *T. aestivum* chromosomes.**

4 **Additional file 3: Table S2. Information about the novel genes detected in this**
5 **study.**

6 **Additional file 4: Figure S2. Pairwise expression scatter matrix for each pair of**
7 **repeated samples.**

8 **Additional file 5: Figure S3. Validation of splice variants by RT-PCR.** The primer
9 sequences used to validation of AS are listed in the Additional file 14: Table S6.

10 **Additional file 6: Figure S4. AS gene distributions and their relationships with**
11 **the expressed gene number and expression level in different tissues. a** AS gene
12 number in different tissues. **b** Plot of the AS gene number against the expressed gene
13 number in different tissues. **c** AS gene ratio in different tissues. **d** Plot of AS ratio
14 against gene expression level in different tissues.

15 **Additional file 7: Figure S5. Statistics and distribution of the different AS types**
16 **among all tissues examined.** IR, intron retention; AA, alternative acceptor sites; AD,
17 alternative donor sites; ES, exon skipping.

18 **Additional file 8: Figure S6. Splice site usage of the different types of AS events.**
19 Proportions of splice site usage of all AS events (All), intron retention (IR),
20 alternative acceptor sites (AA), alternative donor sites (AD), and exon skipping (ES)
21 are shown.

22 **Additional file 9: Table S3. Correlations of AS number with other features for**
23 **individual genes.**

24 **Additional file 10: Table S4. Correlations of AS number with gene features for**

1 **individual AS type.**

2 **Additional file 11: Figure S7. Expression patterns (a), trends analysis (b), and**
3 **GO enrichment (c) of AS genes during seed development. GR5-GR20, seed**
4 **samples from 5, 10, 15 and 20 days post-anthesis spikes.**

5 **Additional file 12: Figure S8. Expression profiles of seed-specific AS genes.**
6 **Different colour indicates the significantly enriched profiles ($P < 0.01$).**

7 **Additional file 13: Table S5. GO annotation of significantly enriched profiles of**
8 **seed-specific AS genes ($P < 0.01$).**

9 **Additional file 14: Table S6. Gene primers used for PCR and sequencing**
10 **analyses.**

11

12

13

14

Figure 1

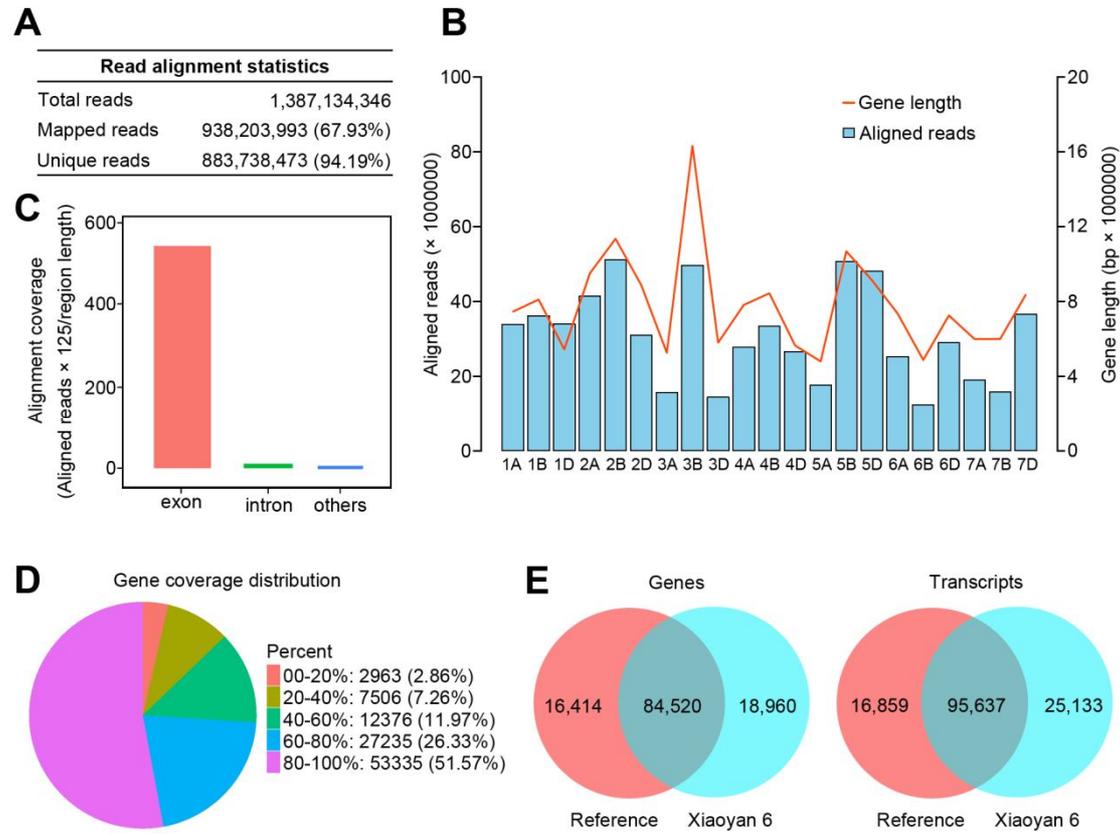


Figure 2

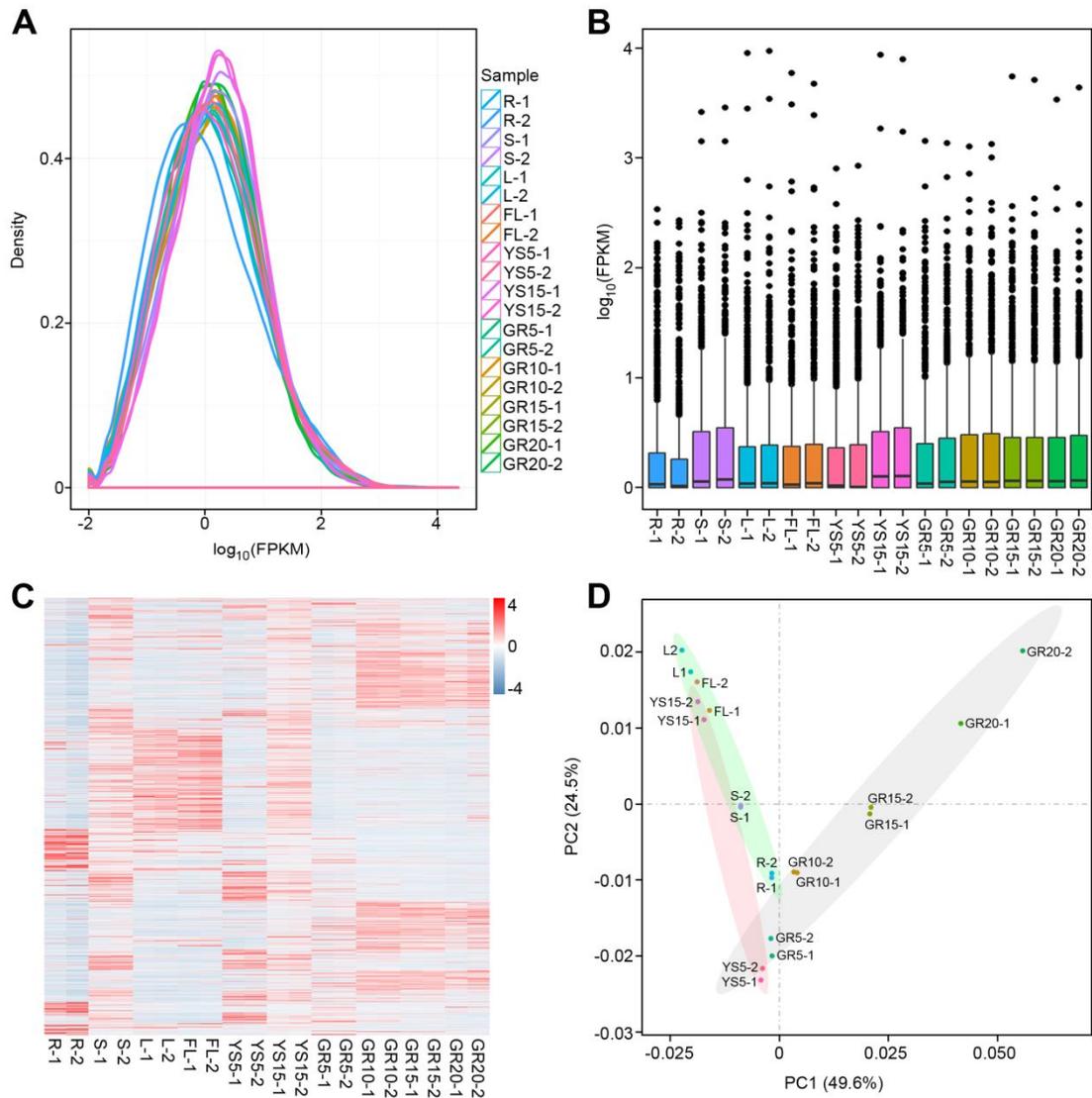


Figure 3

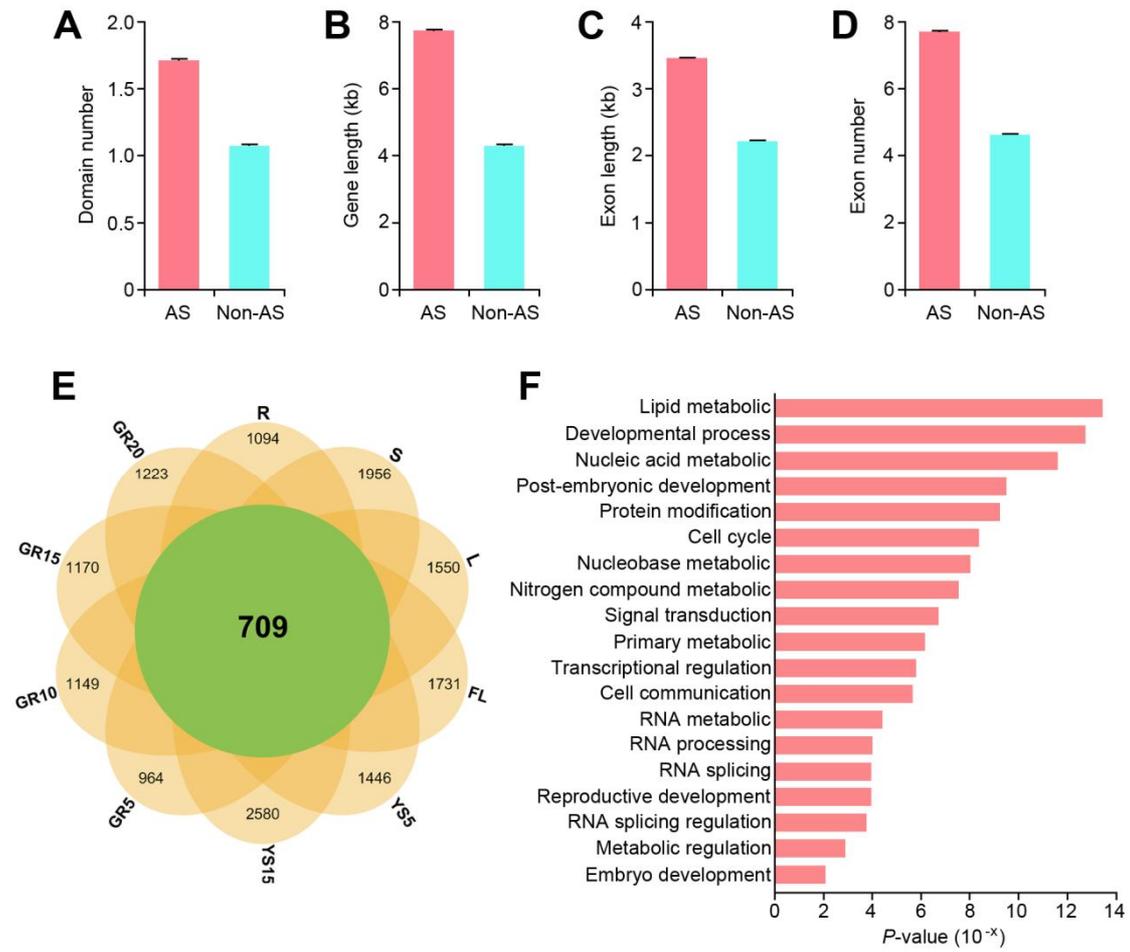


Figure 4

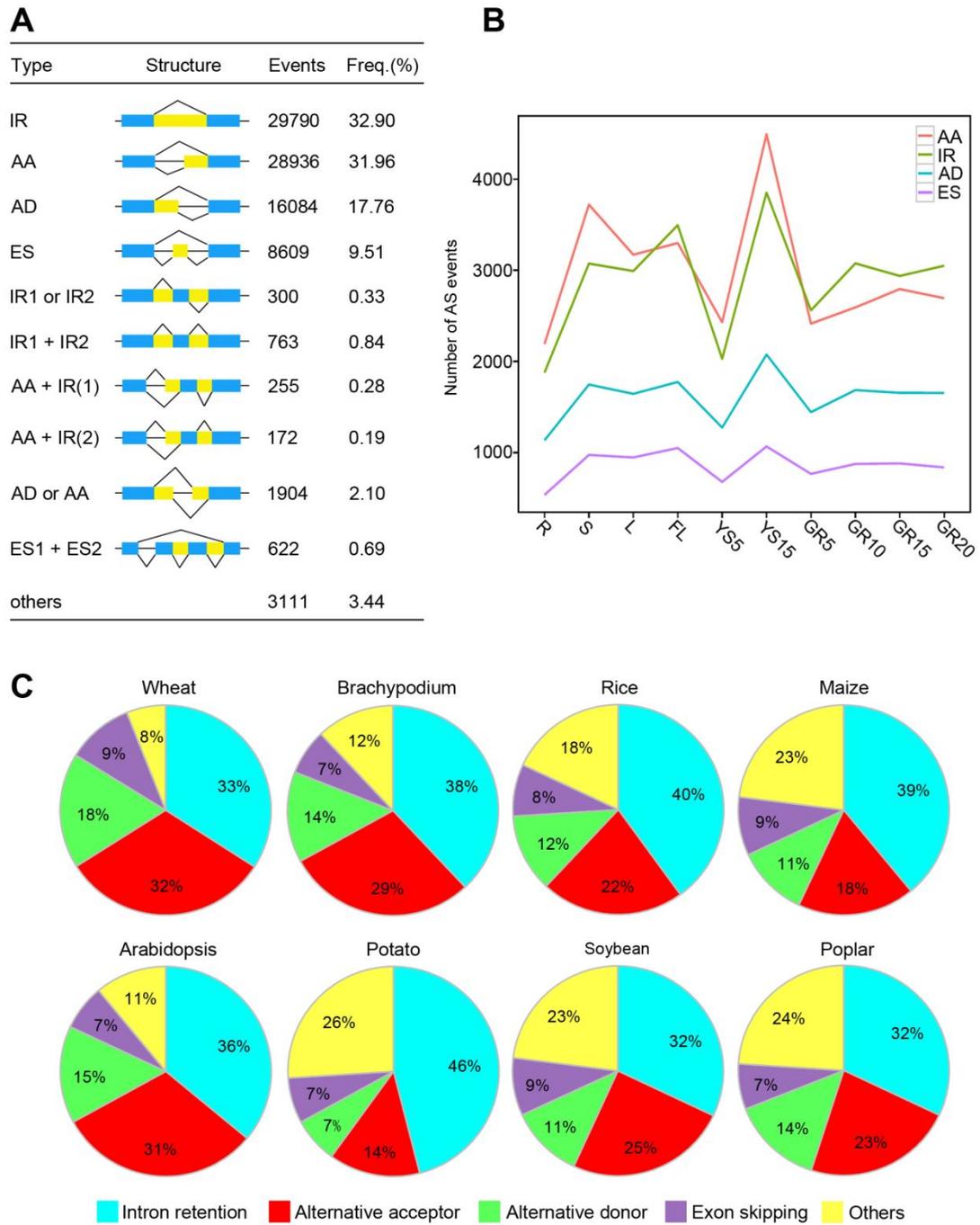


Figure 5

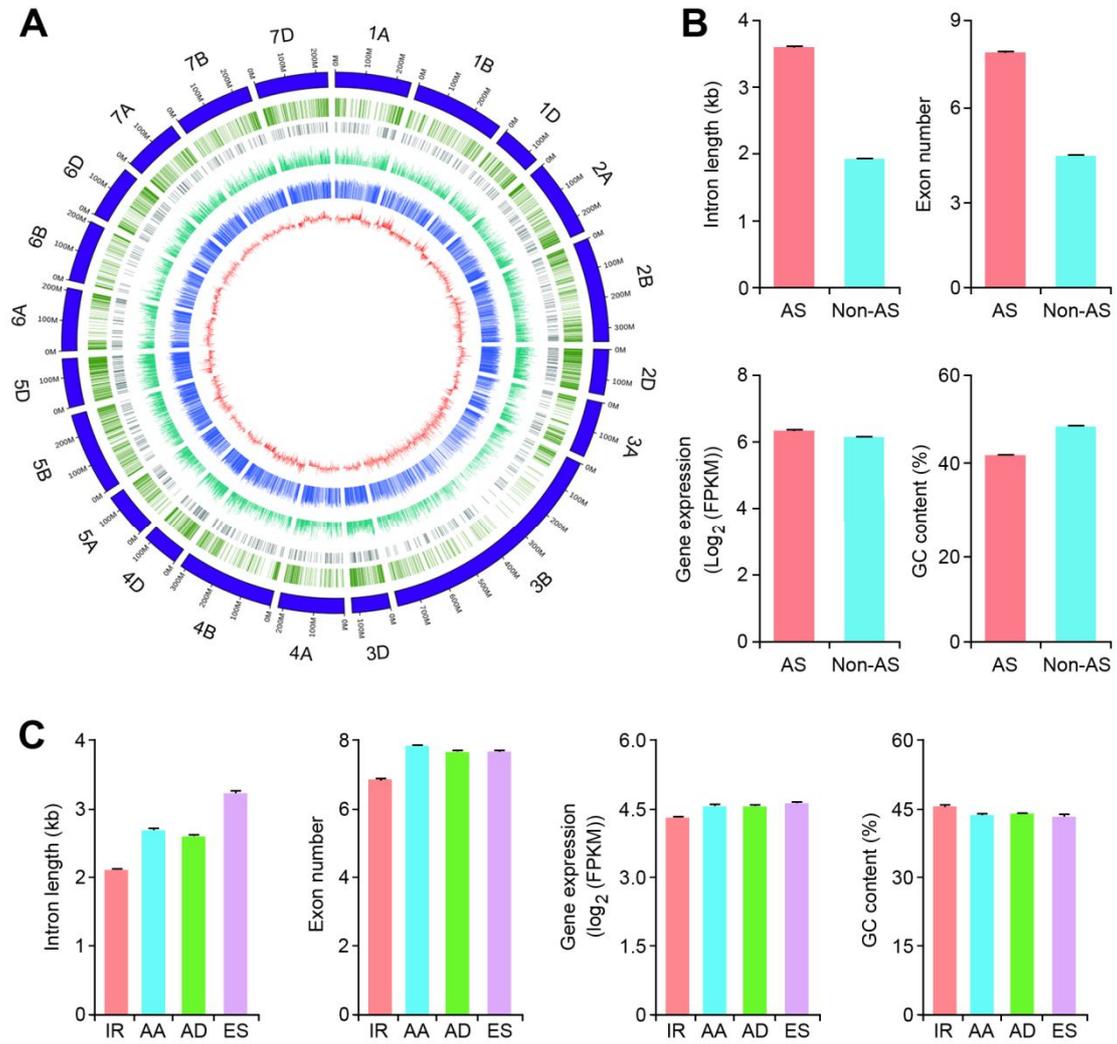


Figure 6

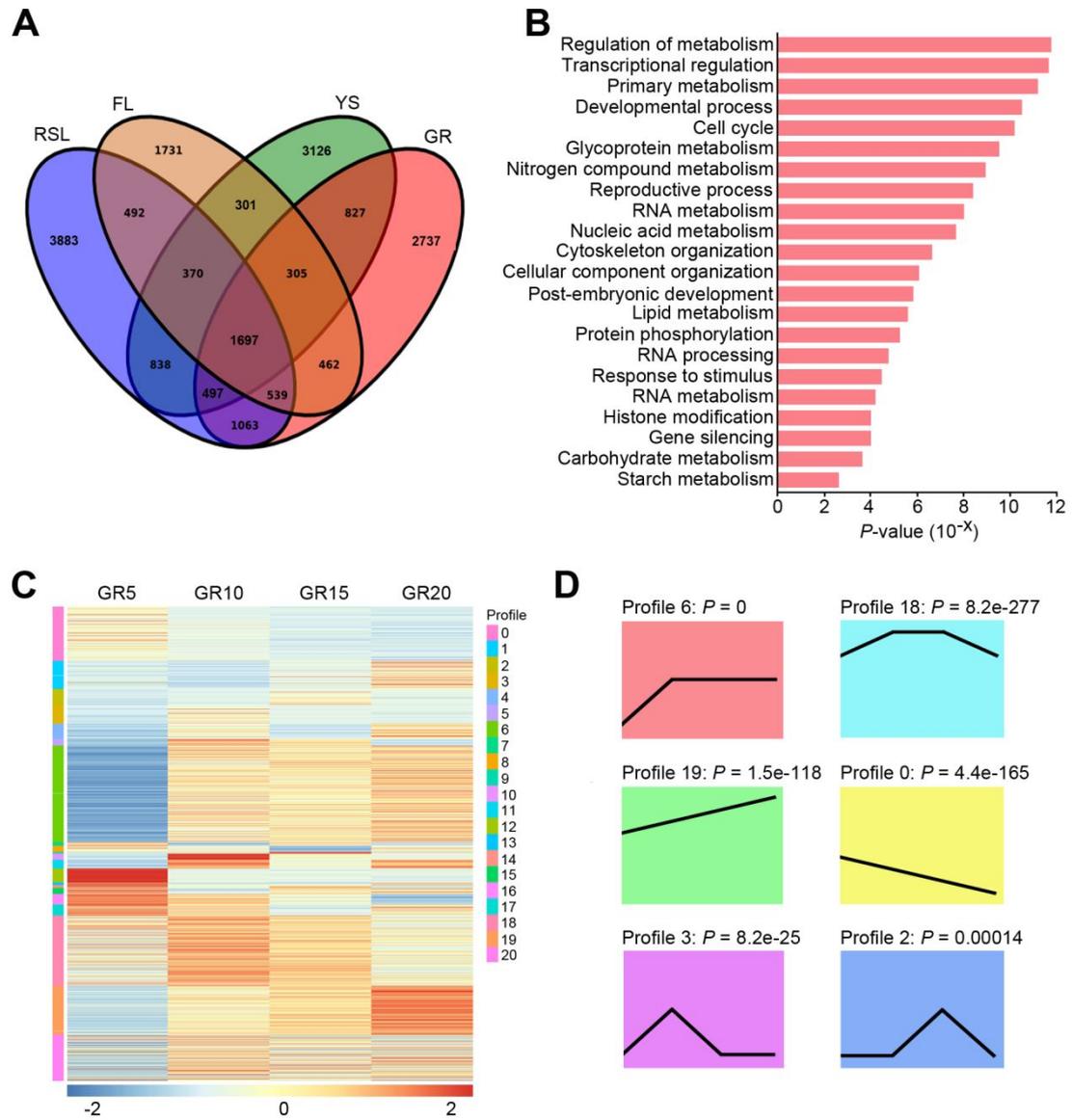
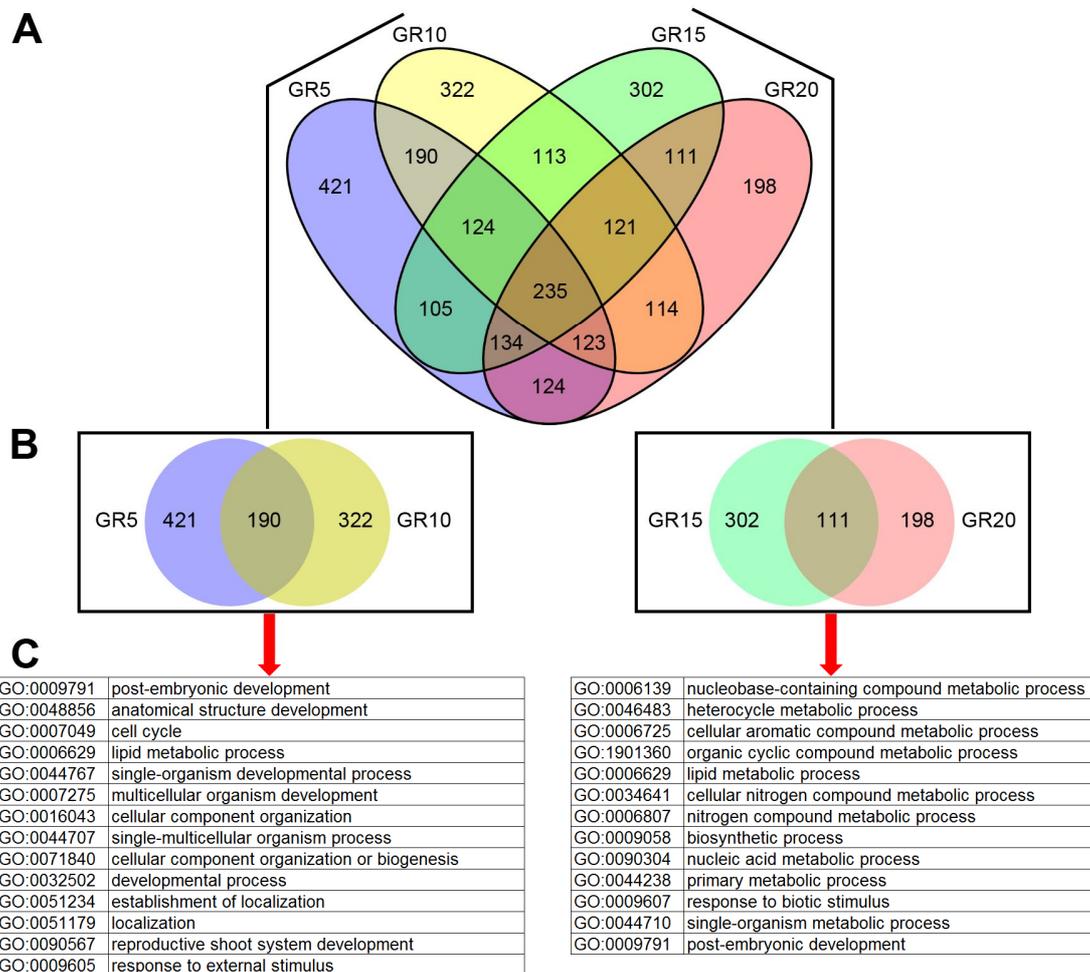


Figure 7



Figures

Figure 1

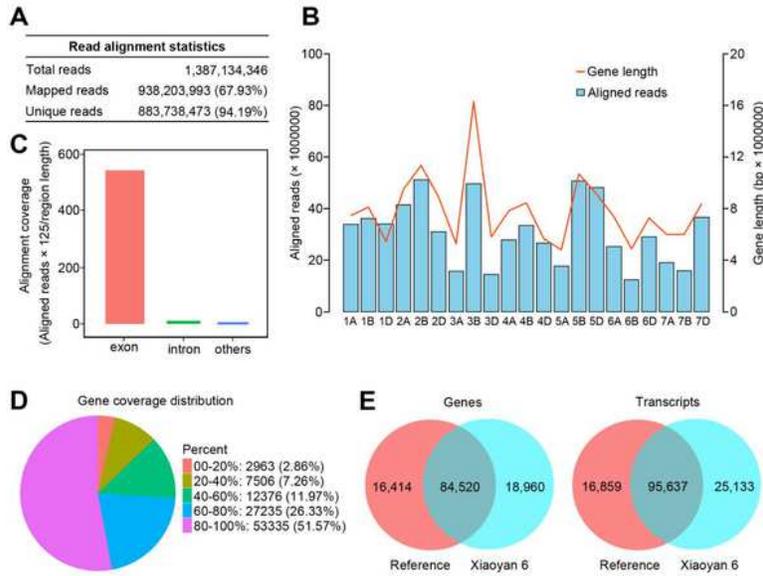


Figure 1

Summary of RNA-seq read alignment and gene identification in this study. a Table showing the number and percentages of reads that aligned to the *T. aestivum* genome. b The numbers of aligned reads and gene lengths across each chromosome. The read numbers are shown by blue histograms, and the red

line indicates the sum of the gene lengths for each chromosome. c The distribution of reads based on the wheat genome annotation. d Distribution of the relative coverage of individual genes by mapped reads. e Overlap of computationally predicted genes and transcripts from wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6 compared with the public *T. aestivum* genome annotation (IWGSC RefSeq v1.0).

Figure 2

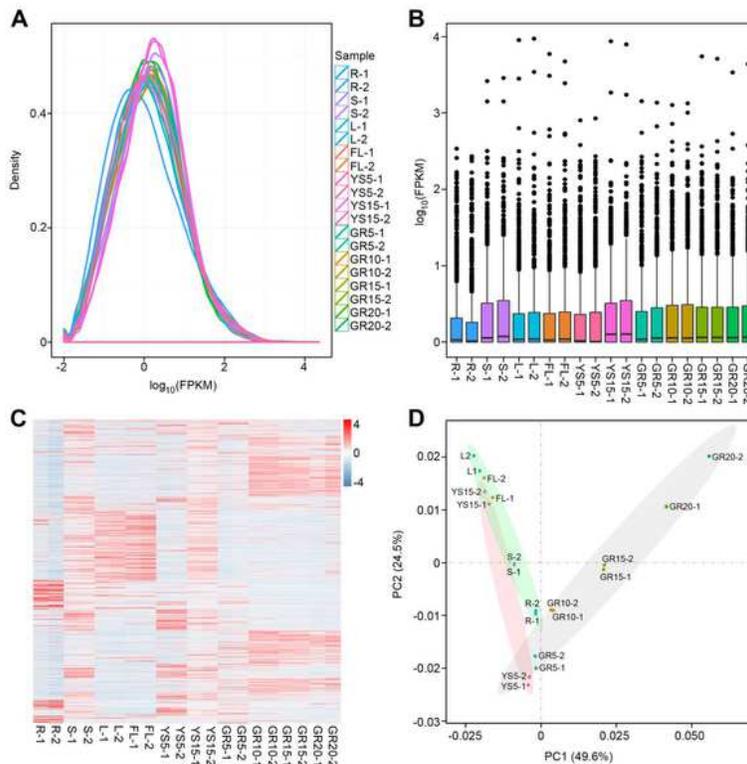
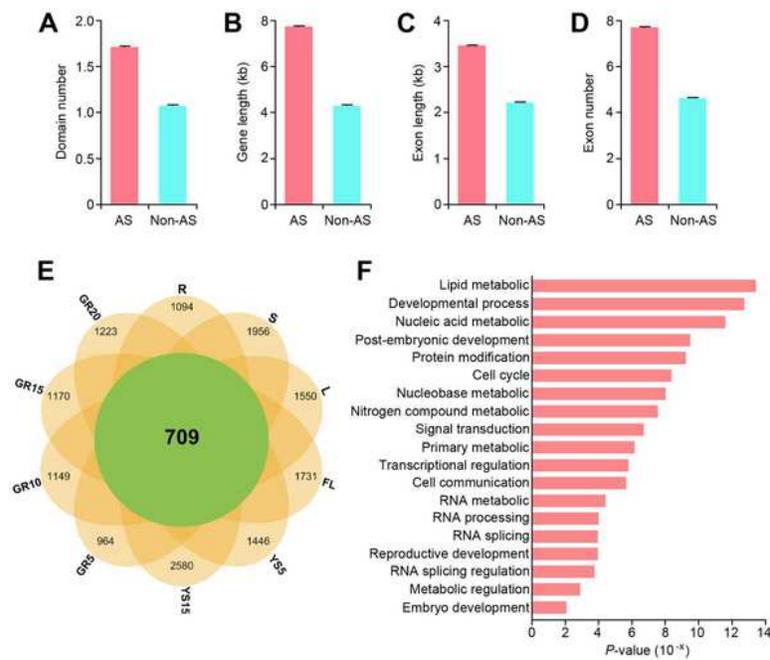


Figure 2

Global analysis of transcript expression in all 20 RNA samples from wheat cultivar Xiaoyan 6. a Expression density plots. b Expression box plots. c Heatmap showing relative gene expression. d Principal component analysis. Together, these analyses attest to the robustness of the *T. aestivum* transcriptome analysis, showing little systematic bias between the pairs of repeated samples, and also enabling identification of the significant differences present among the different tissues or the same tissues sampled at different developmental stages at the genomic scale.

Figure 3



Characteristics of AS genes and GO analysis of ubiquitously alternatively spliced genes. a-d Comparisons between AS and non-AS genes. a Average domain number. b Average gene length. c Average exon length. d Average exon number. e Distribution of AS genes among all 10 tissues/organs included in the study. f GO biological processes enriched ($P < 0.01$) among AS genes that were alternatively spliced in all of the wheat RNA samples examined.

Figure 4

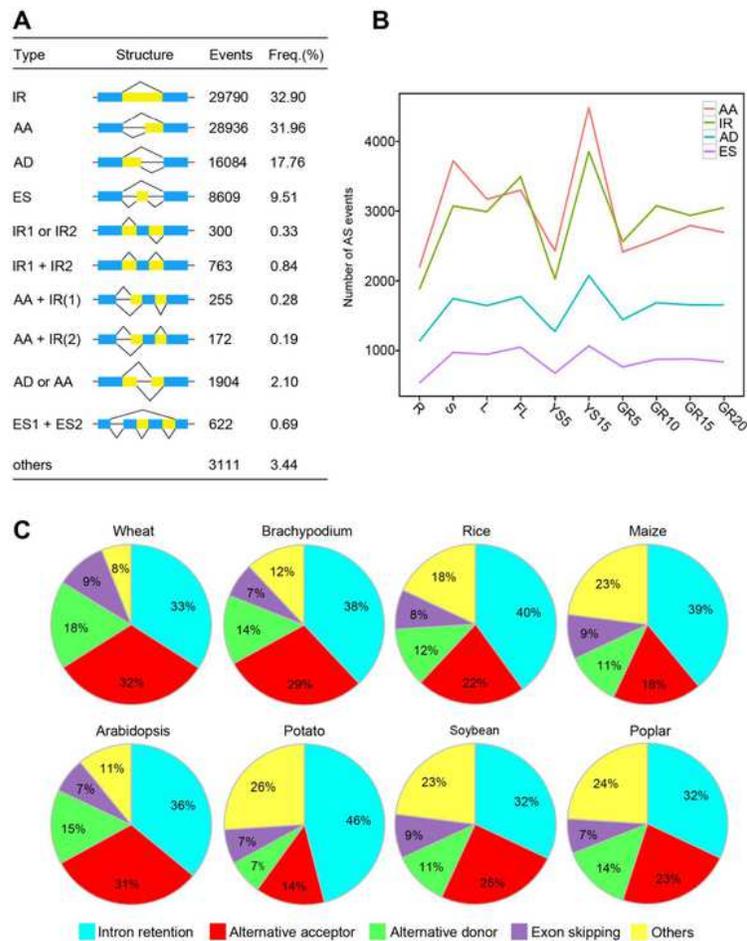
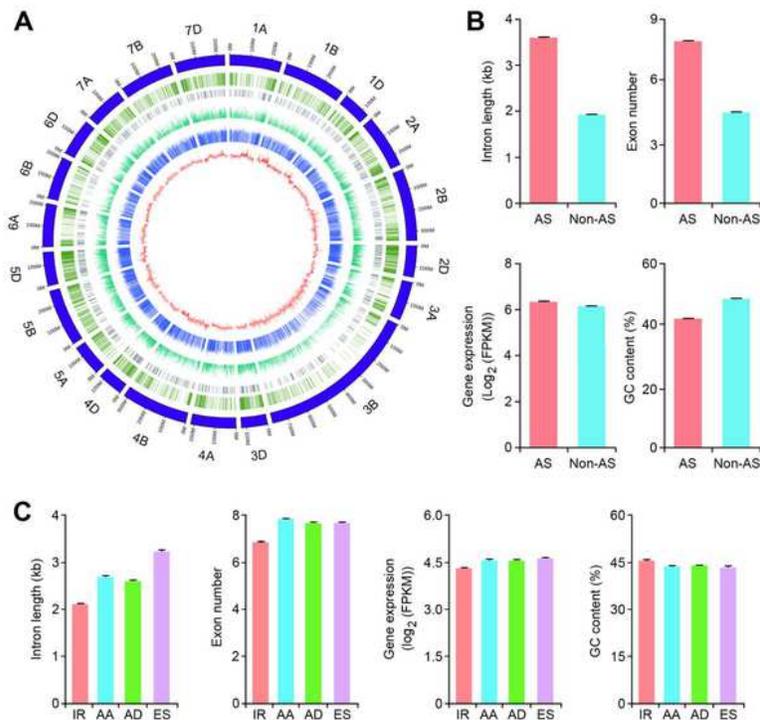


Figure 4

Statistics and distribution of the different AS types in the *T. aestivum* genome. a Statistics of the different AS types: IR, intron retention; AA, alternative acceptor sites; AD, alternative donor sites; ES, exon skipping. b Numbers of individual AS types in the 10 different RNA samples. c Relative frequencies of the different AS types in four monocots (*T. aestivum*, *B. distachyon*, rice, and maize) and four dicots (*Arabidopsis*, potato, soybean, and poplar).

Figure 5



Comparisons of gene features with different AS events. a AS, transcriptome profiling, and the distribution of genomic features across the wheat genome. From outside to inside, the circles represent the chromosome structure, gene location, AS gene location, gene expression, gene length, and GC content. b Comparisons of four gene features between AS and non-AS genes; intron length, exon number, gene expression level, and GC content. c Comparisons of the gene features between the different AS types. Intron length, exon number, gene expression level, and GC content were compared for AS types IR, AA, AD, and ES . The bars indicate the SE.

Figure 6

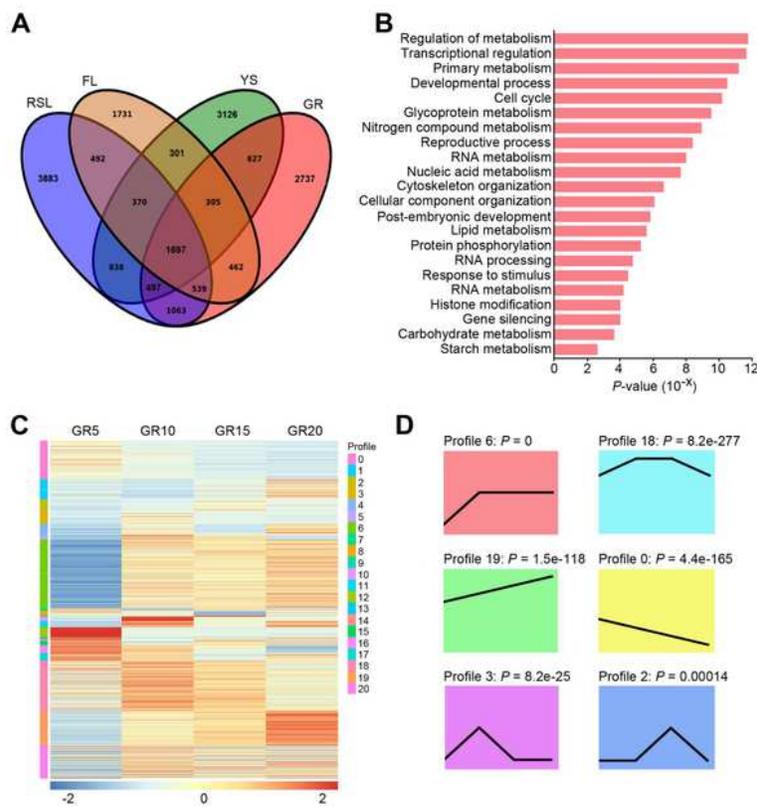
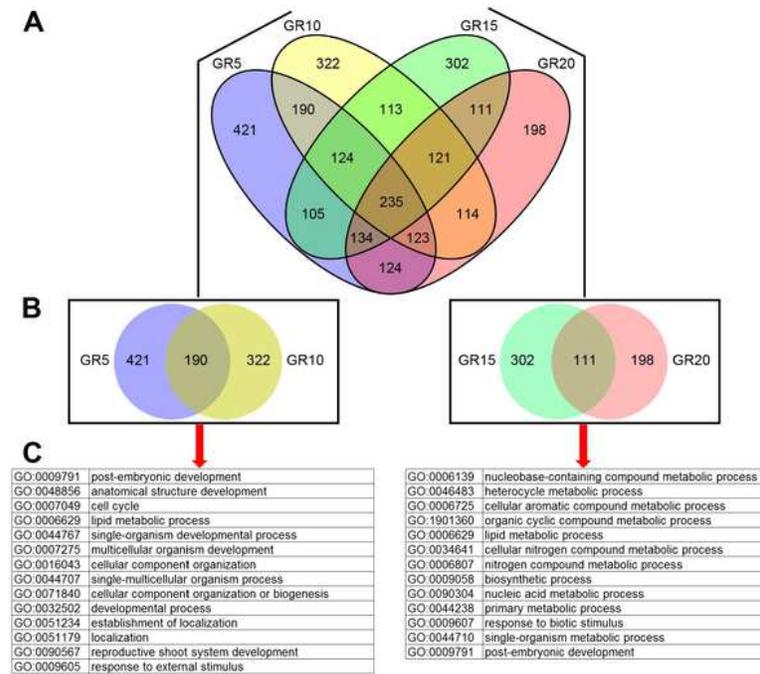


Figure 6

Functional enrichment and expression patterns of seed-specific AS genes. a Venn diagrams showing the distribution of the AS genes in four stages of development, including seedlings, flag leaves, spikes, and seeds. RSL, roots (R) stems (S) and leaves (L) of seedlings at the five-leaf stage; FL, flag leaves of plants at the heading stage; YS, young spikes from plants at the heading stage; GR, seed samples from spikes at 5, 10, 15, and 20 days post-anthesis. b GO biological processes enriched ($P < 0.01$) among AS genes that were specifically alternatively spliced in seeds during development. c Expression patterns of seed-specific AS genes. These AS genes can be divided into 20 expression profiles (profile 0-20) according to heatmap. d Expression profiles that were significantly enriched for seed-specific AS genes ($P < 0.01$).

Figure 7



1

Figure 7

Venn diagrams and GO analysis of seed-specific AS genes in four seed development periods. a Venn diagrams showing the distribution of the AS genes in four seed development periods. b Venn diagrams of first (GR5 and GR10) or second (GR15 and GR20) phase specific AS genes. c GO enrichment analyses of first (GR5 and GR10) or second (GR15 and GR20) phase specific AS genes. GR5-GR20, seed samples from 5, 10, 15 and 20 days post-anthesis spikes.

Supplementary Files

This is a list of supplementary files associated with this preprint. Click to download.

- [Additionalfile7FigureS5.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile12FigureS8.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile5FigureS3.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile11FigureS7.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile6FigureS4.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile4FigureS2.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile2FigureS1.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile3TableS2.xlsx](#)
- [Additionalfile8FigureS6.tif](#)
- [Additionalfile1TableS1.xls](#)
- [Additionalfile13TableS5.xlsx](#)
- [Additionalfile14TableS6.xlsx](#)
- [Additionalfile10TableS4.xlsx](#)
- [Additionalfile9TableS3.xlsx](#)