

Nanopore direct RNA sequencing provides additional insight into transcriptome differentiation during transition to the aquatic environment of amphibious liverwort *Riccia fluitans* L. (Marchantiales)

Mateusz Maździarz

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Katarzyna Krawczyk

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Mateusz Kurzyński

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Łukasz Pauksto

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Joanna Szablińska-Piernik

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Monika Szczecińska

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Paweł Sulima

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Jakub Sawicki

jakub.sawicki@uwm.edu.pl

University of Warmia and Mazury in Olsztyn

Research Article

Keywords: *Riccia fluitans*, gene expression, transcript expression, methylation, poliadenylation, non-adenine residue, environmental adaptation

Posted Date: March 13th, 2024

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-4043135/v1>

License:  This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License.
[Read Full License](#)

Additional Declarations: No competing interests reported.

Abstract

Background

Riccia fluitans, an amphibious liverwort, exhibits a fascinating adaptation mechanism to transition between terrestrial and aquatic environments. Utilizing nanopore direct RNA sequencing, we try to capture the complex epitranscriptomic changes undergo in response to land-water transition.

Results

A significant finding is the identification of 45 differentially expressed genes (DEGs), with a split of 33 downregulated in terrestrial forms and 12 upregulated in aquatic forms, indicating a robust transcriptional response to environmental changes. Analysis of N6-methyladenosine (m6A) modifications revealed 173 m6A sites in aquatic and only 27 sites in the terrestrial forms, indicating a significant increase in methylation in the former, which could facilitate rapid adaptation to changing environments. The aquatic form showed a global elongation bias in poly(A) tails, which is associated with increased mRNA stability and efficient translation, enhancing the plant's resilience to water stress. Significant differences in polyadenylation signals were observed between the two forms, with nine transcripts showing notable changes in tail length, suggesting an adaptive mechanism to modulate mRNA stability and translational efficiency in response to environmental conditions. This differential methylation and polyadenylation underline a sophisticated layer of post-transcriptional regulation, enabling *Riccia fluitans* to fine-tune gene expression in response to its living conditions.

Conclusions

These insights into transcriptome dynamics offer a deeper understanding of plant adaptation strategies at the molecular level, contributing to the broader knowledge of plant biology and evolution. These findings underscore the sophisticated post-transcriptional regulatory strategies *Riccia fluitans* employs to navigate the challenges of aquatic versus terrestrial living, highlighting the plant's dynamic adaptation to environmental stresses and its utility as a model for studying adaptation mechanisms in amphibious plants.

Background

Direct native RNA sequencing is a novel method for sequencing RNA molecules in their native form without needing to first reverse transcribe them into cDNA. This is made possible by Oxford Nanopore Technologies' nanopore sequencers which can directly sequence native RNA strands as they pass through a protein nanopore [1, 2]. Unlike traditional sequencing methods, direct RNA sequencing can identify RNA modifications, which are typically erased by widely used sequencing-by-synthesis (SBS) methods [3]. This method has been used to document nucleotide modifications and 3' polyadenosine tails on RNA strands without added chemistry steps [4]. Direct RNA sequencing allows for the analysis of

native RNA strands without reverse transcription or amplification, avoiding biases introduced by these steps (Vacca et al. 2022, Soneson et al. 2019).

Over the past few years, direct RNA sequencing accuracy and throughput have improved to the point that it can offer valuable biological insights. For example, it has revealed capping patterns in human mRNAs [5], detected novel pseudouridine sites in yeast [6], and quantified changing modification levels under stress [7]. As the technology continues advancing, direct sequencing of full-length native RNA strands promises to transform transcriptomics.

Direct RNA sequencing has some limitations to consider. Current protocols require high-quality input RNA, with recommendations of at least 50ng of intact mRNA for optimal throughput [8]. This high RNA input requirement could pose challenges for studies with limited biological material [9]. Additionally, the protocols rely on the poly(A) tail for adapter ligation, restricting the analysis to polyadenylated transcripts and limiting the characterization of non-polyadenylated RNAs [10]. The throughput of direct RNA sequencing is also currently lower than short-read methods based on cDNA sequencing. This can restrict the depth of characterization possible for complex transcriptomes [11]. Finally, computational tools tailored for analyzing the direct sequencing data are still in early development, making data analysis more difficult than established pipelines for short-read data [12]. Further advances in methods and tools will help address these current limitations of direct RNA sequencing, including increased output and error reduction in incoming RNA004 kits.

While direct RNA sequencing has some limitations, it also presents exciting opportunities to advance transcriptome profiling, especially in non-model organisms exhibiting remarkable environmental adaptability like amphibious plants that exhibit remarkable adaptability, adjusting their morphology and physiology to thrive in fluctuating aquatic and terrestrial environments. Recent advances in genomics and transcriptomics have shed light on the genetic mechanisms underlying aquatic adaptation. Comparative transcriptomics of amphibious plants grown submerged versus on land reveal differentially expressed genes involved in underwater acclimation like cuticle and stomatal development, cell elongation, and modified photosynthesis [8]. Genomics has also uncovered key roles of plant hormones in regulating heterophylly [13]. Moreover, comparative genomics between aquatic and terrestrial species identify genomic signatures enabling adaptation to submerged life, including changes in submergence tolerance, light sensing, and carbon assimilation genes [14]. However, genomic resources for amphibious plants remain scarce especially in the non-vascular evolutionary lineage.

Riccia fluitans is an aquatic liverwort that serves as an excellent model for studying amphibious plants. As one of the earliest diverging land plants, liverworts represent a critical transition point between aquatic and terrestrial environments [15]. *R. fluitans* possess remarkable adaptability, growing floating mats in water or moist soil [15, 16]. When submerged, *R. fluitans* adopts a specialized water form with thin thalli to maximize surface area for gas exchange. Within days of emerging from the water, it can completely alter its morphology into a land form with thicker thallus that reduces water loss. It also stockpiles starch preparing for periodic drought [16, 17]. This extreme plasticity enables the exploitation of both aquatic

and terrestrial realms. Its ability to dynamically transform morphology and physiology demonstrates exceptional environmental responsiveness. Elucidating the adaptations underlying such plasticity provides perspective on water-to-land transitions of early land plants over 400 million years ago [15, 16]. As an amphibious plant that flourishes both submerged and on moist land, *R. fluitans* serves as a prime model for examining adaptive mechanisms to alternating hydrological regimes. The recent establishment of genetic transformation methods unlocks additional potential for exploring the genetic basis of aquatic acclimation in this liverwort [15].

In this study, we analyze land and water forms of *Riccia fluitans* using nanopore native RNA sequencing technology to verify if this technology could provide additional insight into short-read characterized transcriptomes as well as potential epitranscriptomics changes during adaptation to aquatic environments, which wasn't studied in liverworts so far.

Results

Native RNA unveils additional DEGs and DETs compared to cDNA.

Sequencing procedures produced 2 x 580 290 571 and 9 238 584 short- and long reads, respectively. The eight sequencing libraries for both technology distributed 72 536 321 and 1 154 823 mean raw reads per library. After trimming short raw reads, 2 x 514 565 651 sequences survived the quality checkpoint (Additional file 2: Table S1).

Using direct RNA sequencing, the genes were characterized according to coding potential to 12 051 expressed active regions, of which 8 043 were classified as protein coding, 1 326 as long non-coding RNAs, and 2 677 were classified as other RNAs. DE analysis provided information about 76 significant genes between land and water *Riccia* form. The 45 genes were signed as DEGs, of which 33 were downregulated (land-specific) and 12 were upregulated (water-specific). The logarithmic value of fold change ($\log_2FC$) for DEGs ranged from - 7.02 to 3.54. Deep transcriptome analysis revealed 9 DELs (8 down- and 1 upregulated) under land-water environmental change. The $\log_2FC$ values for DELs were in the range from - 6.98 to 1.76. Additionally, the differential analysis revealed 18 land-specific (with the lowest $\log_2FC$ = -6.13) and four water-specific (with the highest $\log_2FC$ = 1.89) expression fluctuations for other RNA (Additional file 2: Table S2). Co-expression analysis revealed 8 trans-interactions between DEGs - DELs, 25 *trans*-interactions between DEG and other RNA, and 4 *trans*-interactions between DELs - and other RNAs. All interactions were positively correlated based on the Pearson coefficient (Additional file 2: Table S3). The expression profiles of all DEGs, DELs, and other RNAs were presented in a volcano plot (Fig. 1D) MA-plot (Fig. 1E) and heatmap enriched by *trans*-interactions (Fig. 1C). All significant 76 genes were checked by Illumina RNA-seq results (Additional file 2: Table S4). The correlation across the expression modification (obtained by Illumina and Nanopore) for these genes was calculated and the coefficient showed a high value equal to 0.72. (Fig. 1B). Interesting that one DEG - *evm.TU.utg2036_2952540_3002010__5* (annotated as Chlorophyll A-B binding family protein) was expressed in Nanopore direct RNA only in plants grown under terrestrial conditions, but has no

transcription in any group sequenced by Illumina technology. The log₂FC of 6 significant genes (with Gene ID; CL.12695, CL.21377, CL.25655, CL.29541, CL.31779, CL.32326) from direct RNA sequencing did not overlap with the signature of genes from Illumina sequencing. Ontology analysis revealed significance for 192 functional processes which included cytoplasm (GO:0005737; 19 genes), response to stimulus (GO:0050896; 16), plastid (GO:0009536; 14), chloroplast (GO:0009507; 12), response to stress (GO:0006950; 10), and response to abiotic stimulus (GO:0009628; 8.) (Additional file 2: Table S5 and Fig. 1A).

Information on the expression of specific transcripts was also revealed by direct RNA. An analysis of transcript expression showed similar results, while differences in *Riccia fluitans* response to environmental changes were found to be significant and more detailed. The transcript level analyses revealed expression of 17 064 mRNAs in both land and aquatic form of *Riccia fluitans*. The 61 transcripts were classified as significant, of which 46 transcripts increased expression in land condition and 15 had higher expression in aquatic condition. The distribution of log₂FC values ranged from - 7.8 to 5.39. Among DETs, 38 were identified as protein coding, while 7 and 16 were classified as DELs and other RNAs (Additional file 2: Table S6). The distributions of DETs, DELs, and OtherRNA were presented in a MA-plot (Fig. 2C and Additional file 1: Fig. S1) and a circular plot with a heatmap (Fig. 2D). The direct RNAs expression values for DETs, DELs and other RNAs were correlated with Illumina sequencing data. In the result the Pearson coefficient was equal to 0.6 (Fig. 2B). Among DELs, two transcripts with unknown function (CL.16392,CL.16402; CL.16392.1 and evm.model.group3.1783) exhibited expression solely in *Riccia fluitans* grown under land conditions, while Illumina sequencing failed to detect any expression for both transcripts. Interestingly, our results revealed the eight transcripts with opposite expression trends in the use of Nanopore and Illumina sequencing. The most divergent expression profile detection showed transcript (CL.12695; evm.model.group2.1430) with largest log₂FC (form - 3.95 to 2.32) fluctuations in Illumina and Nanopore, respectively (Fig. 2E and Additional file 2: Table S6 and S7). The transcripts were annotated to the 201 GO terms (FDR < 0.05), such as response to stimulus (GO:0050896), cytoplasm (GO:0005737), response to stress (GO:0006950), cellular response to stimulus (GO:0051716), and plastid (GO:0009536) (Fig. 2A and Additional file 2: Table S8). Native RNA revealed 27 additional statistically significant genes (Fig. 1D and Fig. 1E and Additional file 2: Table S2, Table S4 and Additional file 1: Fig. S2 and Fig. S3) and 28 statistically significant transcripts (Fig. 2C and Additional file 2: Table S6 and Table S7 and Additional file 1: Fig. S1, Fig. S4 and Fig. S5) through gene and transcript differential analysis, respectively, when compared to cDNA.

Water environmental increases RNA methylation

Information on 2 190 probable aquatic methylation sites and 464 terrestrial methylation sites was revealed by analysis of raw Nanopore signals. Identifying 173 sites from 126 transcripts as significant in the water form (Additional file 2: Table S9) and 27 from 24 transcripts as significant in the land form (Additional file 2: Table S10) was based on the previously mentioned sites. The 16 methylation biases shared both forms (Fig. 3A and 3B). The CL.22551.1 transcript coded cytochrome-c oxidase/electron carrier was the most methylated transcript in the aquatic form, with five significant methylation sites. In

the terrestrial form, the most frequently significantly methylated transcripts were CL.33843.1 encoded ribosomal protein S11 family protein, CL.6664.1 encoded papain family cysteine protease and CL.8794.1 translated 2-oxoglutarate (2OG) and Fe(II)-dependent oxygenase superfamily protein, each with two significant sites. Among the detected methylation sites in the aquatic form, CL.33844.1, encoded ribosomal protein S4 (RPS4A) family protein, exhibited the highest probability of methylation (0.97). Whereas, in the terrestrial form, CL.303.1 (Ribosomal protein S14p/S29e family protein) showed the highest methylation probability of approximately 0.9. Methylation was most frequently detected in the GAACT motif in both forms of *Riccia fluitans* (Fig. 3C). Transcripts with significant methylation sites in the aquatic form were involved in the following gene ontology processes (FDR < 0.05): aerobic (GO:0019646) and cellular respiration (GO:0045333) (Fig. 3D and Additional file 2: Table S11), while transcripts methylated frequently in the land form were involved in the chloroplast envelope (GO:0009941) and located within plastoglobules (GO:0010287) (Fig. 3E and Additional file 2: Table S12). An overlap was identified between aquatic methylation positions and unique DEGs identified by Illumina technology CL.28438 (Gamma vacuolar processing enzyme), CL.28820 (Low temperature and salt responsive protein family), CL.3354 (Disease resistance-responsive family protein), CL.19054 (Peroxidase superfamily protein), and Nanopore technology CL.8117 (Chitinase family protein). Notably, the CL.2289 (Unknown) gene was shared between the methods. Similarly, terrestrial methylation positions showed overlap with Illumina DEGs and Nanopore DEGs. The unknown CL.3752 (Unknown) gene was identified as DEGs only in Nanopore sequencing technology. Other common elements, including genes CL.19794 (Unknown), CL.21493 (Unknown), CL.2593 (Mitochondrial import inner membrane translocase subunit Tim17/Tim22/Tim23 family protein), CL.31915 (Carbonic anhydrase 2), were found to be relevant for both sequencing methods (Additional file 1: Fig. S6). Additional, transcript encoded Cytochrome P450 superfamily protein, which is DETs in short-read analysis, also revealed significant methylation modification in water environment (Additional file 1: Fig. S7). Three methylations of transcript CL.6664.1 were detected in aquatic *Riccia* and two other epitranscriptome events of the same transcript in the land form.

Transition to aquatic environment results in longer poly(A) tails and different non-adenine modification patterns to mRNA transcripts

Deep transcriptomic direct RNA analysis revealed information on 156 906 polyA tails in *Riccia fluitans*, with 50 694 being identified in terrestrial and 106 212 in aquatic form of plants (Additional file 2: Table S14). Globally, the elongation bias of poly(A) tails was observed in the aquatic form of *Riccia fluitans* (Fig. 4C and 4D). Nine transcripts exhibited significant differences in tail length, including CL.26773.1 (transcript coding - galactose oxidase/kelch repeat superfamily protein, CL.12661.2 (hydroxycinnamoyl-CoA shikimate/quinic acid hydroxycinnamoyl transferase), CL.34006.3 (Enoyl-CoA hydratase/isomerase family), CL.20497.1 (UDP-glucosyl transferase 73B1) and two unknown (CL.33217.1 and CL.7501.1) (Additional file 2: Table S15). The mentioned transcripts displayed elongated tails in their terrestrial environment, while CL.22730.2 (coding ABC-2 type transporter family protein), CL.20863.3 (serine carboxypeptidase-like 20), and CL.34882.1 (Rab5-interacting family protein) in the aquatic condition

(Fig. 4A and 4B). The CL.22730.2 had the most tails isoform detected among statistically significant transcripts. In detail, 31 polyA tails were specific to aquatic form and 8 to the terrestrial variants (Fig. 4B).

We have shown that non-A modifications also occur in *Riccia fluitans*. 8884 non-a observations were detected in water and 4609 in land form. The most frequent non-A was cytosine with 3979 observations in water-form *Riccia* and guanine with 1976 observations in the land form (Fig. 5A). The unknown CL.7154.1 was marked as the most abundant non-A transcript in the aquatic environment, while the unknown CL.7156.1 in the land environment. Summarized number of non-A events in both environments, the highest amount of non-A modifications were annotated in Cold, circadian rhythm, and rna binding 2 transcript (CL.11266.1) (Additional file 2: Table S16). Transcripts with non-a were involved in GO processes such as cytoplasm (GO:0005737), cytosol (GO:0005829), plastid (GO:0009536), organelle envelope (GO:0031967), and chloroplast (GO:0009507) (Fig. 5B and 5C and Additional file 2: Table S17 and S18).

Discussion

Certain modifications like m6A, m5C, pseudouridine, and hm5U have been shown to increase error rates and reduce fidelity during reverse transcription into cDNA [18–20]. This is likely due to interference with proper Watson-Crick base pairing, causing misincorporations of incorrect nucleotides. RNA modifications can also cause premature termination or stalling of the reverse transcriptase enzyme upstream of the modification site [20, 21], leading to truncated cDNA products with reduced sequence coverage. Additionally, some modifications like pseudouridine may induce deletions or mutations in the synthesized cDNA sequence under certain conditions [21, 22], further reducing accuracy.

In the case of the evm.model.group2.1430 transcript, applied methods didn't reveal any m6A events that can impact reverse transcription, but other types of modification, due to lack of proper trained model weren't identified. While RNA modifications can directly impact reverse transcription fidelity and coverage, gene expression analyses are still generally comparable between direct RNA sequencing and cDNA sequencing approaches [23]. However, properly accounting for modifications is important for accurate transcriptome characterization. Fasciclin-like domains are found in a subclass of arabinogalactan proteins (AGPs) known as FASCICLIN-LIKE ARABINOGLACTAN PROTEINS (FLAs) in plants. These domains are essential for FLA function and are associated with cell adhesion functions [24–26]. Fasciclin domains are typically 110 to 150 amino acids long and contain two highly conserved regions, H1 and H2, of approximately 10 amino acids each. FLAs are widely distributed in plant tissues and play roles in plant growth, development, and stress response. In *Arabidopsis*, they have been found to impact secondary cell wall development, stem biomechanics, and cell wall architecture [24]. They are also involved in responses to stress and are thought to be involved in cell adhesion [24–27]. However, their function and structure in non-seed plants is poorly explored.

N6-methyladenosine (m6A) RNA modification is a prevalent and dynamic modification in eukaryotic RNA, playing a crucial role in various physiological aspects of living organisms, including growth, development,

and stress responses [7]. The m6A modification is involved in the regulation of mRNA stability, alternative splicing, translation, export, and maturation of microRNA, which can influence the plant's ability to adapt to environmental changes [28]. In plants, m6A RNA modification has been linked to abiotic stress responses, such as salt and osmotic stress, drought, cold and UV radiation [29–32]. For example, in *Arabidopsis thaliana* the m6A modification has been important for salt stress tolerance [31]. In the context of amphibious plants like analyzed *Riccia fluitans*, which exhibit remarkable adaptability to fluctuating aquatic and terrestrial environments, m6A RNA modification could potentially play a role in their fast adaptation to changing environments. Papain family cysteine proteases are involved in the response to abiotic stress. Zang et al. showed that transgenic *Arabidopsis* overexpressing the gene encoding a papain family cysteine protease exhibited stronger drought tolerance under water-stressed conditions than the wild type, suggesting that the gene plays a role in mediating dehydration tolerance [33]. The sweet potato papain family cysteine proteases 2 gene was involved in the response to darkness. In addition, the same gene in *Arabidopsis* increased resistance to drought and salt stress [34]. On the other hand, overexpression of the sweet potato papain family cysteine proteases 3 gene in *Arabidopsis* conferred sensitivity to drought stress [35]. Despite differences in methylated sites between water and land forms (Fig. 3A), the expression on gene complexes involved in m6A methylation processes is similar (Additional file S1: Table 13). Both environmental forms of *R. fluitans* did not differ in expression of homologs identified in *A. thaliana* as writers (MTA, MTB), readers (YTH) or erasers (ALKBH9B, ALKBH10B), which can be explained by high abundance modified transcripts in mRNA.

The poly(A) tail is not a static, simple entity that merely denotes the 3' end. Rather, the poly(A) tail should be viewed as a dynamic and variable part of the transcript [36]. Polyadenylation, characterized by the addition of poly(A) tails to mRNA molecules, is a critical post-transcriptional modification influencing mRNA stability, nuclear export, and translation efficiency [37, 38]. In plants, the regulation of poly(A) tail length plays a pivotal role in responding to various stress conditions, thereby facilitating adaptive responses that ensure survival in changing environments [39]. Poly(A) tails, by influencing the mRNA's metabolic fate, act as a dynamic regulatory mechanism that can be modulated in response to stress, thus impacting gene expression patterns crucial for stress adaptation. Research has demonstrated that alternative polyadenylation (APA) leading to the generation of mRNA isoforms with differing poly(A) tail lengths, is a novel strategy for the regulation of gene expression in response to stresses in plants [39–41]. APA contributes to the diversification of the transcriptome and proteome under stress conditions, enabling plants to fine-tune the expression of genes involved in stress responses [37, 38]. For instance, in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, the poly(A) tail length of specific mRNAs has been shown to vary in response to heat shock, suggesting that the modulation of poly(A) tail length is a mechanism through which plants respond to thermal stress by controlling the stability and translation of heat shock protein (HSP) mRNAs [41]. This modulation ensures the rapid accumulation of HSPs, crucial for protein folding and protection under heat stress. Furthermore, the study of full-length RNA molecules across different tissues has revealed tissue-specific and evolutionarily conserved regulation of poly(A) tail length, indicating that this mechanism is fundamental to plant development and stress responses [42]. Changes in polyA tail length can significantly impact also the ability to withstand water stress in *Arabidopsis thaliana* [40]. The

mRNAs with longer poly(A) tails are generally more stable and efficiently translated, leading to an increased accumulation of proteins essential for stress response [37, 38]. This adaptive strategy enhances the plant's resilience to water stress by improving its water retention and stress signaling pathways, ultimately contributing to its survival under adverse environmental conditions. Further studies on the role of polyA tail length in environmental adaptations of early land plants could shed new light in the molecular processes behind terrestrialization. The influence of U and G non-A at the end of poly(A) tails on mRNA stability regulation has been demonstrated, where they can either inhibit or promote poly(A) tail degradation [43, 44]. In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, non-adenine nucleotides have been found in the polyA tail, suggesting that more uniform poly(a) tails in poly(A)-binding proteins may increase translation efficiency [45]. It will be interesting to investigate the dynamics of poly(A) tails in this liverwort under environmental changes, as we see clear differences in tail lengths under environmental changes and a global change in the number and proportion of non-A mutations in poly(A) tails.

Conclusions

The comprehensive study on *Riccia fluitans* utilizing nanopore direct RNA sequencing has unveiled critical insights into the plant's transcriptomic adjustments in response to environmental transitions between terrestrial and aquatic habitats. Analysis of native mRNA sequences revealed variations in poly(A) tail lengths, m6A modifications, and differential expression profiling, which collectively underscore the complex regulatory mechanisms *Riccia fluitans* employs to adapt to changing environments. The identification of specific transcripts with altered poly(A) tail lengths and m6A modifications suggests a fine-tuned post-transcriptional regulatory layer that responds to environmental cues. The differential poly(A) tail length, particularly in transcripts involved in stress responses and metabolic processes, indicates a strategic modulation of mRNA stability and translational efficiency as an adaptation strategy. Similarly, the variability in m6A modifications, especially in transcripts coding for ribosomal proteins and enzymes, hints at a sophisticated mechanism to adjust mRNA processing, translation, and decay in response to aquatic versus terrestrial conditions. The differential expression analysis further complements these findings by highlighting genes that are upregulated or downregulated depending on the environment. The downregulation of specific genes in terrestrial conditions and upregulation in aquatic conditions reflects a robust transcriptional response to environmental stresses and challenges. This differential expression not only pertains to coding RNAs but also to long non-coding RNAs and other RNA types, suggesting a broad and integrated gene regulatory network that encompasses various RNA molecules.

Material and methods

In vitro cultures of *Riccia fluitans*

Plant material was obtained from an axenic *in vitro* culture of *Riccia fluitans* RF.1 from a previous experiment [46]. Based on literature data and previous experiments [15, 16, 46] the *R. fluitans* plants grew on the ½GB5 medium with 20 g · l⁻¹ sucrose, 8 g · l⁻¹ agar-agar and pH 6.0. The upper fragments of sterile

plants of *R. fluitans* were used as secondary explants and were placed on the medium in the form of five small clumps separated by approx. 1–2 cm. Plants were grown in climate chambers at 24°C under long-day conditions with a 16:8 photoperiod (16 h light; 8 h dark). After four weeks of plant growth, one part of the *in vitro* cultures was overlaid with sterile diH₂O, and the second part was maintained unchanged. The proper part of the experiment was set up in four replicates and conducted for two weeks.

RNA extraction, library preparation and sequencing

Total RNA was extracted using RNA Plant Mini Spin (Qiagen) kit according to the manufacturer protocol. Adequate RNA quality and quantity of RNA samples were ensured by Tapestation (Agilent) analysis using High Sensitivity RNA screening tape kit and Qubit 4 fluorimeter using HS RNA Assay kit. The purified total RNA was used for sequencing library preparation. Long-read native RNA libraries were prepared from 50 ng of poly(A)-tailed mRNA per sample using Direct RNA Sequencing Kit SQK-RNA002 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies) according to the manufacturer's protocol. To remove rRNA from total RNA, NEBNext® Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module (New England Biolabs) was used. In the first step of library preparation SuperScript III Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used to synthesize the strand complementary to RNA and thus to prepare RNA-cDNA hybrid. In the next step sequencing adapters were attached using T4 DNA Ligase 2M U/ml (New England Biolabs) together with NEBNext® Quick Ligation Reaction Buffer. The libraries were quantified with Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (ThermoFisher) and sequenced using MinION MK1C portable device (ONT) and FLO-MIN 106 Flow Cells R.9.4.1 (ONT) prepared for sequencing with Flow Cell Priming Kit EXP-FLP002 (ONT). The raw reads were basecalled using Dorado 0.4.3 (ONT) using the rna002_70bps_hac@v3 model on the NVIDIA RTX4090 GPU. The raw reads were deposited in the ENA EMBL-EBI database at the following numbers PRJEB72691.

Total RNA for short read procedure was extracted using RNA Plant Mini Spin (Qiagen) kit according to the manufacturer protocol. Adequate RNA quality and quantity of RNA samples were ensured by Tapestation (Agilent) analysis and High Sensitivity kit. The purified total RNA was used for sequencing library preparation. Short-read RNA-seq libraries were prepared using Truseq RNA library with Ribo-Zero option and sequenced using Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform at Macrogen Inc. (Seoul, Korea). The raw reads from were deposited in the ENA EMBL-EBI database at the following numbers PRJEB72692.

Expression profiling based on short-reads

Sequencing quality was assessed using FastQC software (<http://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/>). After RNA-Seq, Illumina adaptors and poly-A segments were excised using the Trimmomatic tool v.0.39 [47]. Reads shorter than 120 nucleotides (nt) and with a quality score PHRED < 20 were removed from the dataset. Next, high-quality reads were mapped to the draft genome (preprint Mazdziarz et al., 2023) using the STAR v.2.7.11a tool. Obtained BAM files were used to create annotations using the stringtie v.2.2.1 software [48]. Splicing variants of individual genes were obtained using the genomic annotations (GTF

file) and the count values for genes and transcripts were calculated by featureCounts v.2.0.6 [49]. For transcript expression level, Salmon v.0.13.1 tool was implemented as a mapper [50]. The numeric values of expressed transcripts were estimated by the tximport v.1.30.0 package [51]. The statistical test (based on a negative binomial model) implemented in the DESeq2 v.1.42.0 R library was used to compare expression profiles of water and land transcripts [52]. The following cut-off values for significant differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and transcripts were set: logarithmic fold change ($\log_2\text{FoldChange}$) > 1 and adjusted p-value (padj) < 0.05.

Expression profiling based on long-reads

The long-read digital MinION signals were converted from POD5 to the FAST5 format using the pod5-file-format program (<https://github.com/nanoporetech/pod5-file-format>). Next, the transcriptomic sequences were basecalled by Guppy v.6.0.0 (<https://nanoporetech.com/support>). The FASTQ raw reads were quality-checked and passed to the mapping steps (as a reference *Riccia fluitans* genome), supported by minimap2 v.2.26 software with default parameters [53]. Similar to short-reads analysis, the gene expression profiles produced by the long-reads sequencing method were also estimated using stringtie, featureCounts and DESeq2 softwares. For transcript level expression quantification, the above proceed BAM files were used again by bambu v3.2.4 software to estimate the transcript count expression matrix for multiple samples [54]. The differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and differentially expressed transcripts (DETs) statistical significance was determined with the following parameters: $\text{padj} < 0.05$ and absolute $\log_2\text{FoldChange} > 1$. The results from both methods (short - and long-reads) were intersected and only common results were considered as final transcriptomic DEGs and DETs results. Additionally, the transcriptomic sequences were divided into coding and non-coding groups. Two potential coding prediction softwares, CPC2 v.1.0.1 [55] and PLEK v.1.2 [56], classified transcripts into separate groups. According to those classifications, significant genes were named differentially protein-coding genes and differentially long non-coding RNAs (DELs). If there were discrepancies in identification of coding potential between the two programs, those RNA were signed as OtherRNA. Relationships between DEGs, DELs and OtherRNA were estimated by co-expression analysis. Pairs of DEGs-DELs, DEGs-OtherRNA, and DELs-OtherRNA with similar transcriptomic profiles were characterized based on the Pearson correlation coefficient ($r > 0.8$ and $p < 0.05$). The results were visualised using the ggplot2 v.3.4.4 [57] and circlize v.0.4.15 [58] R Bioconductor v.3.18 packages.

Differential adenylation and non-adenine residue analysis

The FASTQ files were remapped with default `-ax map-ont` flags to the *Riccia fluitans* transcriptome, which was created by compilation of stringtie and gffread v.0.12.7 script [59]. The nanopolish v.0.14.1 program (<https://github.com/jts/nanopolish>) was used to extract tail information for each transcript. Finally, the nanotail v.0.1.0 package (<https://github.com/smaegol/nanotail>) was applied to run a statistical method based on the general linear model (glm) to determine the significance of any differences in tail length. Transcripts with an adjusted p-value < 0.05 were considered as statistically significant. Previously generated nanopolish outputs, sequencing summary generated by the Guppy

bascaller, and fast5 files were used to identify non-adenine (non-A) sites in the poly(A) tail by the ninetails v.1.0.0 program (<https://github.com/LRB-IIMCB/ninetails>).

Methylation profiling analysis

The long-reads and transcriptome mapping results were indexed with Samtools 1.7.2 (<https://github.com/samtools/samtools>). Nanopolish eventalign was designed to work on FAST5 files, which rely on the HDF5 library, hindering efficient parallel analysis. To address this, FAST5 files from the previous step were converted to BLOW5 using slow5tools v.1.0.0 [60] F5c v.1.1 [61] supports BLOW5 and enables the use of Nanopolish modules for indexing and eventalign. The m6A identification was performed with m6anet v.2.0.1 [62], with the -num_iterations 1000 flag. Results selected for further analysis - comprising the probability of modification at each position for each transcript - were thresholded at 0.6.

Functional annotations of DEGs, DETs, methylation, polyadenylation and non-adenine profiles

All DEGs, DETs, transcript with significant polyA tail difference and methylation profile changes were annotated by blastp v.2.12.0 [63]. Due to a lot of *Marchantia polymorpha* gene symbol annotations are incomplete and uncharacterized in databases, the identification process of *Riccia fluitans* translated genes/transcripts was based on *Arabidopsis thaliana* protein sequences. For blastp homology searching an e-value < 10e-5 was set as the cut-off threshold. This comparison facilitated the acquisition of descriptions and symbols for newly annotated *Riccia* proteins. The resulting gene signatures, DEG, DET and other epitranscriptome candidates were subsequently scanned for enrichment in Gene Ontology (GO) function annotations using g:Profiler v.0.2.2 R library [64]. Biological processes (BP), cellular components (CC), and molecular functions (MF) were annotated as ontological terms for the essential genes. Enrichment analysis with a false discovery rate (FDR) cut-off < 0.05 was employed to identify GO and pathway annotations regulated by differentially genes. The functional connection between DEG, DET and other epitranscriptome modifications of *Riccia fluitans* were visualized by highlighting those events using the ggplot2 R package.

Abbreviations

APA
Alternative Polyadenylation
BP
biological processes
CC
cellular components
DEG
differentially expressed gene
DET

differentially expressed transcript
FDR
False Discovery Rate
FLA
Fascilin–like arabinogalactan protein
GO
gene ontology
hm5A
5–hydroxymethyluridine
HSP
heat shock protein
m6A
N6–methyladenosine
m5C
5–methylcytosine
MF
molecular functions
mRNA
messenger RNA
polyA
polyadenylation
SBS
sequencing by synthesis

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Funding

The study was financially supported by The National Science Center Kraków, Poland: Grant No. 2020/39/B/NZ8/02504

Author Contribution

Conceptualization: MM, JS;; Investigation: MS, KK, J S-P, PS; Data analysis: MM, ŁP, MK, JS; Methodology: MM, ŁP, KK, MK, PS, JS. Supervision: JS; Writing – original draft: MM, ŁP, KK, JS-P, MK, PS, MS,JS; Writing – review & editing: MM, JS; Project administration: JS; Funding: JS

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The raw reads from were deposited in the ENA EMBL-EBI database at the following numbers PRJEB72691 and PRJEB72692.

References

1. Nguyen TA, Heng JWJ, Kaewsapsak P, Kok EPL, Stanojević D, Liu H, et al. Direct identification of A-to-I editing sites with nanopore native RNA sequencing. *Nat Methods* 2022. 2022;19:7.
2. Wongsurawat T, Jenjaroenpun P, Wanchai V, Nookaew I. Native RNA or cDNA Sequencing for Transcriptomic Analysis: A Case Study on *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. *Front Bioeng Biotechnol*. 2022;10:842299.
3. Smith AM, Jain M, Mulroney L, Garalde DR, Akeson M. Reading canonical and modified nucleobases in 16S ribosomal RNA using nanopore native RNA sequencing. *PLoS ONE*. 2019;14.
4. Jain M, Abu-Shumays R, Olsen HE, Akeson M. Advances in nanopore direct RNA sequencing. *Nat Methods*. 2022;19:1160–4.
5. Parker MT, Knop K, Sherwood AV, Schurch NJ, Mackinnon K, Gould PD et al. Nanopore direct RNA sequencing maps the complexity of arabidopsis mRNA processing and m6A modification. *Elife*. 2020;9.
6. Marchand V, Pichot F, Neybecker P, Ayadi L, Bourguignon-Igel V, Wacheul L et al. HydraPsiSeq: a method for systematic and quantitative mapping of pseudouridines in RNA. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2020;48.
7. Rudy E, Grabsztunowicz M, Arasimowicz-Jelonek M, Tanwar UK, Maciorowska J, Sobieszczuk-Nowicka E. N6-methyladenosine (m6A) RNA modification as a metabolic switch between plant cell survival and death in leaf senescence. *Front Plant Sci*. 2023;13:1064131.

8. Rich MK, Vigneron N, Liboure C, Keller J, Xue L, Hajheidari M, et al. Lipid exchanges drove the evolution of mutualism during plant terrestrialization. *Science*. 2021;372:864–8.
9. Oszolak F, Milos PM. RNA sequencing: advances, challenges and opportunities. *Nat Rev Genet*. 2011;12:87–98.
10. Ibrahim F, Oppelt J, Maragkakis M, Mourelatos Z. TERA-Seq: true end-to-end sequencing of native RNA molecules for transcriptome characterization. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2021;49:E115.
11. Gleeson J, Leger A, Praver YDJ, Lane TA, Harrison PJ, Haerty W, et al. Accurate expression quantification from nanopore direct RNA sequencing with NanoCount. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2022;50:e19–19.
12. Furlan M, Delgado-Tejedor A, Mulroney L, Pelizzola M, Novoa EM, Leonardi T. Computational methods for RNA modification detection from nanopore direct RNA sequencing data. *RNA Biol*. 2021;18:31–40.
13. Kisnieriene V, Tr bacz K, Pupkis V, Koselski M, Lapeikaite I. Evolution of long-distance signalling upon plant terrestrialization: comparison of action potentials in Characean algae and liverworts. *Ann Bot*. 2022;130:457–75.
14. Shi H, Ernst E, Heinzl N, McCorkle S, Rolletschek H, Borisjuk L et al. Mechanisms of metabolic adaptation in the duckweed *Lemna gibba*: an integrated metabolic, transcriptomic and flux analysis. *BMC Plant Biol*. 2023;23.
15. Althoff F, Zachgo S. Transformation of *riccia fluitans*, an amphibious liverwort dynamically responding to environmental changes. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2020;21:1–16.
16. Althoff F, Wegner L, Ehlers K, Buschmann H, Zachgo S. Developmental Plasticity of the Amphibious Liverwort *Riccia fluitans*. *Front Plant Sci*. 2022;13:909327.
17. Andersen T, Pedersen O. Interactions between light and CO₂ enhance the growth of *Riccia fluitans*. *Hydrobiologia*. 2002;477:163–70.
18. Zhang Y, Lu L, Li X. Detection technologies for RNA modifications. *Exp Mol Med*. 2022;54:1601.
19. Debnath TK, Xhemalçe B. Deciphering RNA modifications at base resolution: from chemistry to biology. *Brief Funct Genomics*. 2021;20:77.
20. Vilfan ID, Tsai YC, Clark TA, Wegener J, Dai Q, Yi C, et al. Analysis of RNA base modification and structural rearrangement by single-molecule real-time detection of reverse transcription. *J Nanobiotechnol*. 2013;11:1–11.
21. Motorin Y, Helm M. General Principles and Limitations for Detection of RNA Modifications by Sequencing. *Acc Chem Res*. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ACS.ACCOUNTS.3C00529>/. SUPPL_FILE/AR3C00529_SI_001.PDF.
22. Schaefer M, Kapoor U, Jantsch MF. Understanding RNA modifications: the promises and technological bottlenecks of the ‘epitranscriptome’. *Open Biol*. 2017;7.
23. Khoddami V, Yerra A, Mosbrugger TL, Fleming AM, Burrows CJ, Cairns BR. Transcriptome-wide profiling of multiple RNA modifications simultaneously at single-base resolution. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*

U S A. 2019;116:6784–9.

24. Ma Y, Shafee T, Mudiyansele AM, Ratcliffe J, MacMillan CP, Mansfield SD, et al. Distinct functions of FASCICLIN-LIKE ARABINOGALACTAN PROTEINS relate to domain structure. *Plant Physiol.* 2023;192:119–32.
25. Johnson KL, Jones BJ, Bacic A, Schultz CJ. The fasciclin-like arabinogalactan proteins of *Arabidopsis*. A multigene family of putative cell adhesion molecules. *Plant Physiol.* 2003;133:1911–25.
26. Liu E, MacMillan CP, Shafee T, Ma Y, Ratcliffe J, van de Meene A, et al. Fasciclin-Like Arabinogalactan-Protein 16 (FLA16) Is Required for Stem Development in *Arabidopsis*. *Front Plant Sci.* 2020;11:615392.
27. Guerriero G, Mangeot-Peter L, Legay S, Behr M, Lutts S, Siddiqui KS, et al. Identification of fasciclin-like arabinogalactan proteins in textile hemp (*Cannabis sativa* L.): In silico analyses and gene expression patterns in different tissues. *BMC Genomics.* 2017;18:1–13.
28. Hu J, Manduzio S, Kang H. Epitranscriptomic RNA methylation in plant development and abiotic stress responses. *Front Plant Sci.* 2019;10:430649.
29. Zhu C, Zhang S, Zhou C, Xie S, Chen G, Tian C, et al. Genome-Wide Investigation of N6-Methyladenosine Regulatory Genes and Their Roles in Tea (*Camellia sinensis*) Leaves During Withering Process. *Front Plant Sci.* 2021;12:702303.
30. Shinde H, Dudhate A, Kadam US, Hong JC. RNA methylation in plants: An overview. *Front Plant Sci.* 2023;14.
31. Hu J, Cai J, Park SJ, Lee K, Li Y, Chen Y, et al. N6-Methyladenosine mRNA methylation is important for salt stress tolerance in *Arabidopsis*. *Plant J.* 2021;106:1759–75.
32. Rudy E, Grabsztunowicz M, Arasimowicz-Jelonek M, Tanwar UK, Maciorowska J, Sobieszczuk-Nowicka E. N6-methyladenosine (m6A) RNA modification as a metabolic switch between plant cell survival and death in leaf senescence. *Front Plant Sci.* 2022;13.
33. Zang Q-W, Wang C-X, Li X-Y, Guo Z-A, Jing R-L, Zhao J, et al. Isolation and characterization of a gene encoding a polyethylene glycol-induced cysteine protease in common wheat. *J Biosci.* 2010;35:379–88.
34. Chen HJ, Su CT, Lin CH, Huang GJ, Lin YH. Expression of sweet potato cysteine protease SPCP2 altered developmental characteristics and stress responses in transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants. *J Plant Physiol.* 2010;167:838–47.
35. Chen H-J, Tsai Y-J, Shen C-Y, Tsai T-N, Huang G-J, Lin Y-H. Ectopic Expression of Sweet Potato Cysteine Protease SPCP3 Alters Phenotypic Traits and Enhances Drought Stress Sensitivity in Transgenic *Arabidopsis* Plants. *J Plant Growth Regul.* 2013;32:108–21.
36. Jalkanen AL, Coleman SJ, Wilusz J. Determinants and implications of mRNA poly(A) tail size—does this protein make my tail look big? *Semin Cell Dev Biol.* 2014;34:24–32.
37. Rodríguez-Molina JB, Turtola M. Birth of a poly(A) tail: mechanisms and control of mRNA polyadenylation. *FEBS Open Bio.* 2023;13:1140.

38. Tudek A, Lloret-Llinares M, Jensen TH. The multitasking polyA tail: nuclear RNA maturation, degradation and export. *Philosophical Trans Royal Soc B: Biol Sci.* 2018;373:20180169.
39. Wu J, Ma L, Cao Y. Alternative Polyadenylation Is a Novel Strategy for the Regulation of Gene Expression in Response to Stresses in Plants. *Int J Mol Sci* 2023. 2023;24(4727):24:4727.
40. Sun HX, Li Y, Niu QW, Chua NH. Dehydration stress extends mRNA 3' untranslated regions with noncoding RNA functions in Arabidopsis. *Genome Res.* 2017;27:1427–36.
41. Wu X, Wang J, Wu X, Hong Y, Li QQ. Heat Shock Responsive Gene Expression Modulated by mRNA Poly(A) Tail Length. *Front Plant Sci.* 2020;11:555049.
42. Jia J, Lu W, Liu B, Fang H, Yu Y, Mo W et al. An atlas of plant full-length RNA reveals tissue-specific and monocots-dicots conserved regulation of poly(A) tail length. *Nat Plants.* 2022;8.
43. Lim J, Kim D, Lee YS, Ha M, Lee M, Yeo J, et al. Mixed tailing by TENT4A and TENT4B shields mRNA from rapid deadenylation. *Science.* 2018;361:701–4.
44. Lim J, Ha M, Chang H, Kwon SC, Simanshu DK, Patel DJ, et al. Uridylation by TUT4 and TUT7 Marks mRNA for Degradation. *Cell.* 2014;159:1365.
45. Zhao T, Huan Q, Sun J, Liu C, Hou X, Yu X, et al. Impact of poly(A)-tail G-content on Arabidopsis PAB binding and their role in enhancing translational efficiency. *Genome Biol.* 2019;20:1–12.
46. Sawicki J, Krawczyk K, Kurzyński M, Maździarz M, Pauksto Ł, Sulima P, et al. Nanopore sequencing of organellar genomes revealed heteroplasmy in simple thalloid and leafy liverworts. *Acta Soc Bot Pol.* 2023;92:172516.
47. Bolger AM, Lohse M, Usadel B. Trimmomatic: a flexible trimmer for Illumina sequence data. *Bioinformatics.* 2014;30:2114–20.
48. Pertea M, Pertea GM, Antonescu CM, Chang TC, Mendell JT, Salzberg SL. StringTie enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq reads. *Nat Biotechnol.* 2015;33:290.
49. Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for assigning sequence reads to genomic features. *Bioinformatics.* 2014;30:923–30.
50. Patro R, Duggal G, Love MI, Irizarry RA, Kingsford C. Salmon: fast and bias-aware quantification of transcript expression using dual-phase inference. *Nat Methods.* 2017;14:417.
51. Soneson C, Love MI, Robinson MD. Differential analyses for RNA-seq: transcript-level estimates improve gene-level inferences. *F1000Res.* 2015;4.
52. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* 2014;15:550.
53. Li H. Minimap2: pairwise alignment for nucleotide sequences. *Bioinformatics.* 2017;34:3094–100.
54. Chen Y, Sim A, Wan YK, Yeo K, Lee JJX, Ling MH, et al. Context-Aware Transcript Quantification from Long Read RNA-Seq data with Bambu. *Nat Methods.* 2023;20:1187.
55. Kang Y-J, Yang D-C, Kong L, Hou M, Meng Y-Q, Wei L, et al. CPC2: a fast and accurate coding potential calculator based on sequence intrinsic features. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2017;45:W12–6.

56. Li A, Zhang J, Zhou Z. PLEK: a tool for predicting long non-coding RNAs and messenger RNAs based on an improved k-mer scheme. *BMC Bioinformatics*. 2014;15:311.
57. Wickham H. *ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis*. New York: Springer; 2016.
58. Gu Z, Gu L, Eils R, Schlesner M, Brors B. circlize implements and enhances circular visualization in R. *Bioinformatics*. 2014;30:2811–2.
59. Pertea G, Pertea M. GFF Utilities: GffRead and GffCompare. *F1000Res*. 2020;9:304.
60. Gamaarachchi H, Samarakoon H, Jenner SP, Ferguson JM, Amos TG, Hammond JM, et al. Fast nanopore sequencing data analysis with SLOW5. *Nat Biotechnol*. 2022;40:1026–9.
61. Gamaarachchi H, Lam CW, Jayatilaka G, Samarakoon H, Simpson JT, Smith MA, et al. GPU accelerated adaptive banded event alignment for rapid comparative nanopore signal analysis. *BMC Bioinformatics*. 2020;21:343.
62. Hendra C, Pratanwanich PN, Wan YK, Goh WSS, Thierry A, Göke J. Detection of m6A from direct RNA sequencing using a multiple instance learning framework. *Nat Methods*. 2022;19:1590–8.
63. Camacho C, Coulouris G, Avagyan V, Ma N, Papadopoulos J, Bealer K, et al. BLAST+: Architecture and applications. *BMC Bioinformatics*. 2009;10:1–9.
64. Kolberg L, Raudvere U, Kuzmin I, Adler P, Vilo J, Peterson H. g:Profiler—interoperable web service for functional enrichment analysis and gene identifier mapping (2023 update). *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2023;51:W207–12.

Figures

B. The dotplot illustrates the correlations between statistically significant genes from nanopore sequencing and genes from Illumina sequencing. The x-axis represents log2FoldChange values for nanopore sequencing, while the y-axis depicts log2FoldChange values for Illumina sequencing. The red line highlights the Pearson correlations. The R value is displayed in the upper left corner.

C. Circular plot depicting the relationships between significant genes. The first track shows 3 heatmaps, which show the expression level in each of the significant genes. The green-black-red scale represents the expression of DEGs, the blue-black-red scale represents the expression of DELs, and the green-black-yellow scale represents the expression of other RNAs. The second track describes the log2FoldChange values of upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) genes. The third track shows the unique genes that were found in the nanopore data analysis (purple color) as well as the common genes (gold color) to the differential analysis in Illumina and Nanopore. The internal track depicts the correlation relationships, where the blue link represents the correlations between DEGs and DELs, green for DEGs and other RNAs, and orange for DELs and other RNA.

D. The MA plot visualizes the association between log2FoldChange and log2 from the average of normalized counts. The x-axis displays the log2 of the average of the normalized gene counts, while the y-axis illustrates the log2FoldChange for the gene. Squares represent irrelevant transcripts, triangles represent upregulated transcripts, circles represent downregulated transcripts, and the green color indicates DELs, red indicates DEGs, blue indicates other RNAs, and grey indicates no significant genes.

E. Volcano plot depicting log2 Fold Change (log2FC) for significant genes. The x-axis displays the log2FC values for each gene, while the y-axis shows the negative log-adjusted p-value (p-adjusted). The horizontal dashed line represents the negative logarithmic p-adjusted cutoff value (0.05), and the two vertical lines equal the absolute value of 1 log2FC. Colored points indicate statistically significant genes, while grey points represent non-significant genes.

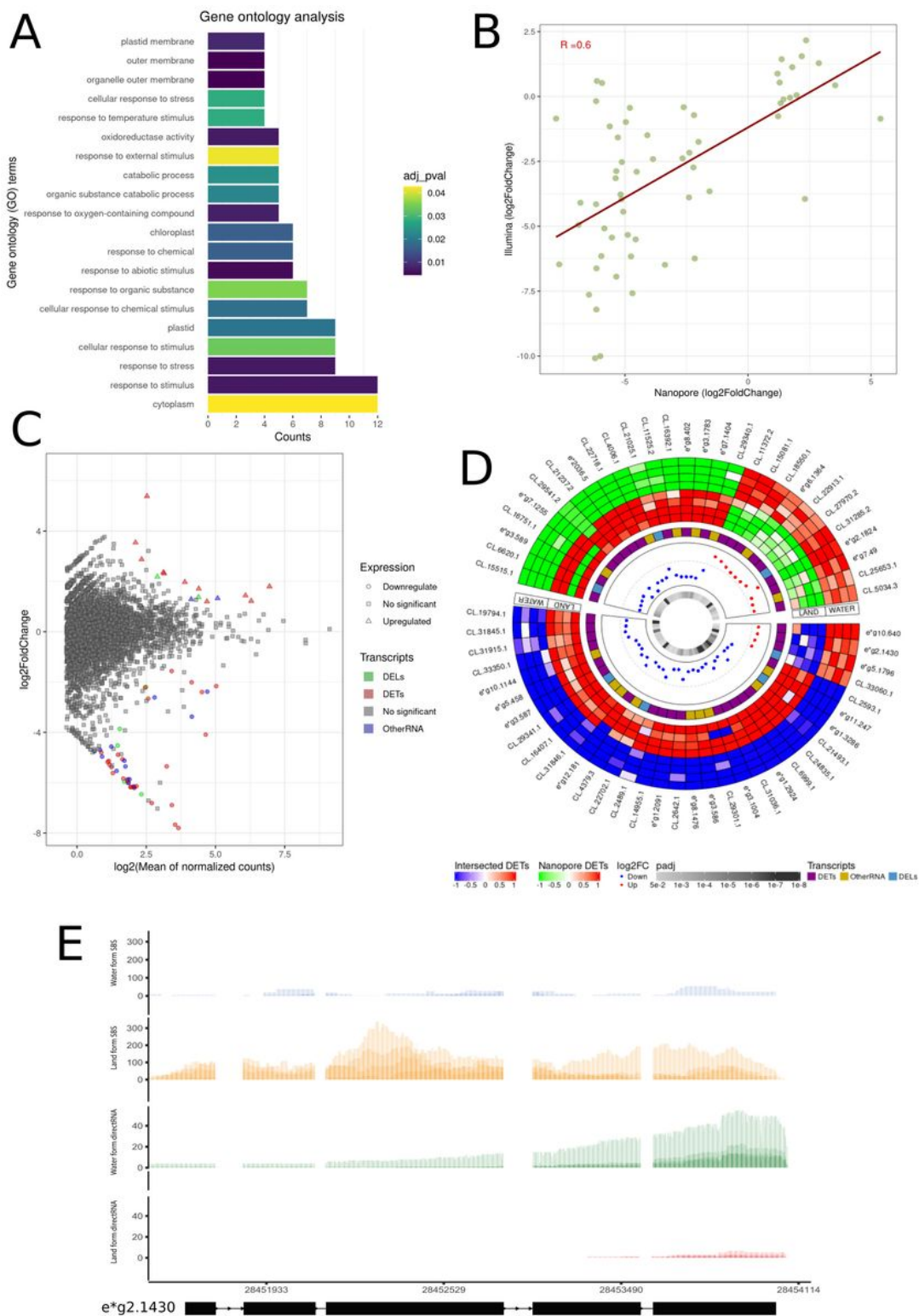


Figure 2

The barplot depicts the GO annotation distribution for genes exhibiting statistically significant expression differences. The 20 most enriched GO terms were presented. The bars represent the number of genes involved in a particular process. The colors correspond to different adjusted p-values.

B. The dotplot illustrates the correlations between statistically significant transcripts from nanopore sequencing and transcripts from Illumina sequencing. The x-axis represents log2FoldChange values for nanopore sequencing, while the y-axis depicts log2FoldChange values for Illumina sequencing. The red line highlights the Pearson correlations. The R value is displayed in the upper left corner.

C. The MA plot visualizes the association between log2FoldChange and log2 from the average of normalized counts. The x-axis displays the log2 of the average of the normalized transcript counts, while the y-axis illustrates the log2FoldChange for the transcript. Squares represent irrelevant transcripts, triangles represent upregulated transcripts, circles represent downregulated transcripts, and the green color indicates DELs, red indicates DETs, blue indicates other RNA, and gray indicates no significant transcripts.

D. A circular chart depicting two circular heatmaps representing the expression levels of significant genes in eight samples encompassing four terrestrial and four aquatic forms of *Riccia fluitans*. The heatmaps correspond to Illumina-intersected DETs (Intersected DETs) and unique DETs to Nanopore (Nanopore DETs). The green-white-red color scale represents Nanopore DETs, while the blue-white-red color scale signifies intersected DETs. The subsequent track exhibits a heatmap showcasing purple for DETs, gold for other RNA, and light blue for DELs. The third track illustrates the differential expression values (log2FoldChange) between upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) genes in each comparison group. The inner heatmap depicts the p-value adjusted for each gene.

E. Incongruent results of SBS and direct RNA DEG analysis. Gene evm.model.group2.1430 of unknown function (containing fasciclin-like domain) is downregulated in water form based on SBS RNA-seq analysis and upregulated in nanopore direct RNA sequencing.

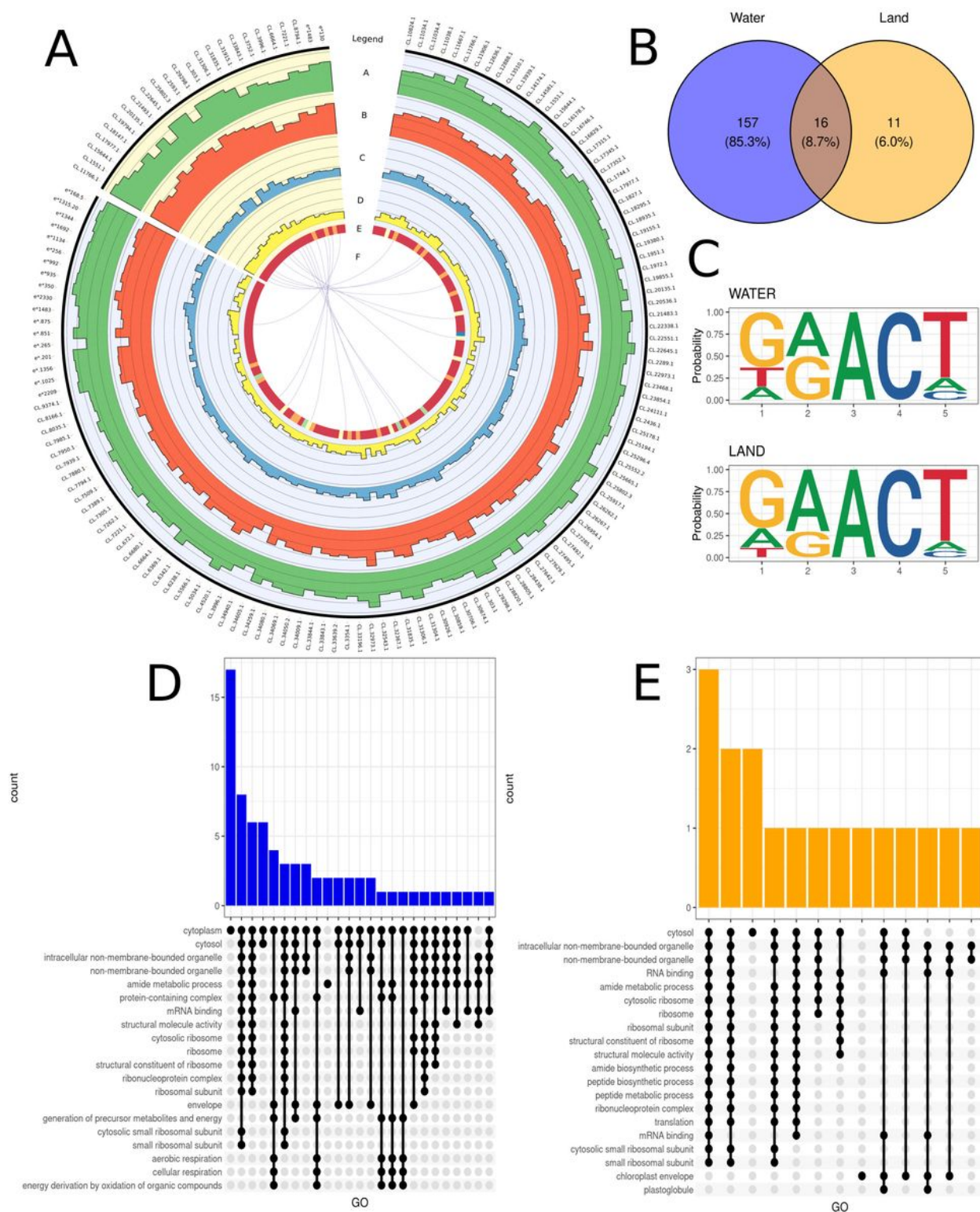


Figure 3

Methylation signature of land and water form of *Riccia fluitans*

A. The histogram tracks (A-D) depict the logarithmic mean of expression patterns from the Illumina (A,B) and Nanopore (C,D) sequencing of the frequency water (A,C) and land (B,D) forms of *Riccia fluitans*. The heatmap (E) represents the methylation levels of the transcript, with red indicating one methylation,

orange indicating two methylations, yellow indicating three methylations, green indicating four, and blue indicating five methylations. The innermost track (F) presents the correlation links between experimental groups, where purple links depict intersected transcripts with methylations.

B. The Venn diagram depicts the number and percentage of unique methylations in terrestrial (orange), aquatic (blue), and common to both sets (dark orange) *Riccia fluitans*.

C. A logo diagram depicts the probability of a nucleotide appearing in the first five positions of the significant methylation motif in both the water (upper diagram) and land (lower diagram) forms. The larger the letter representing the nucleotide, the higher the probability of its appearance.

D. Upset plot of GO annotations for genes indicated high methylation probability in water environment. High bars describe the number of genes engaged in common GO terms. The dots and lines merge GO terms with common genes.

E. Upset plot of GO annotations for genes indicated high methylation probability in land environment. High bars describe the number of genes engaged in common GO terms. The dots and lines merge GO terms with common genes.

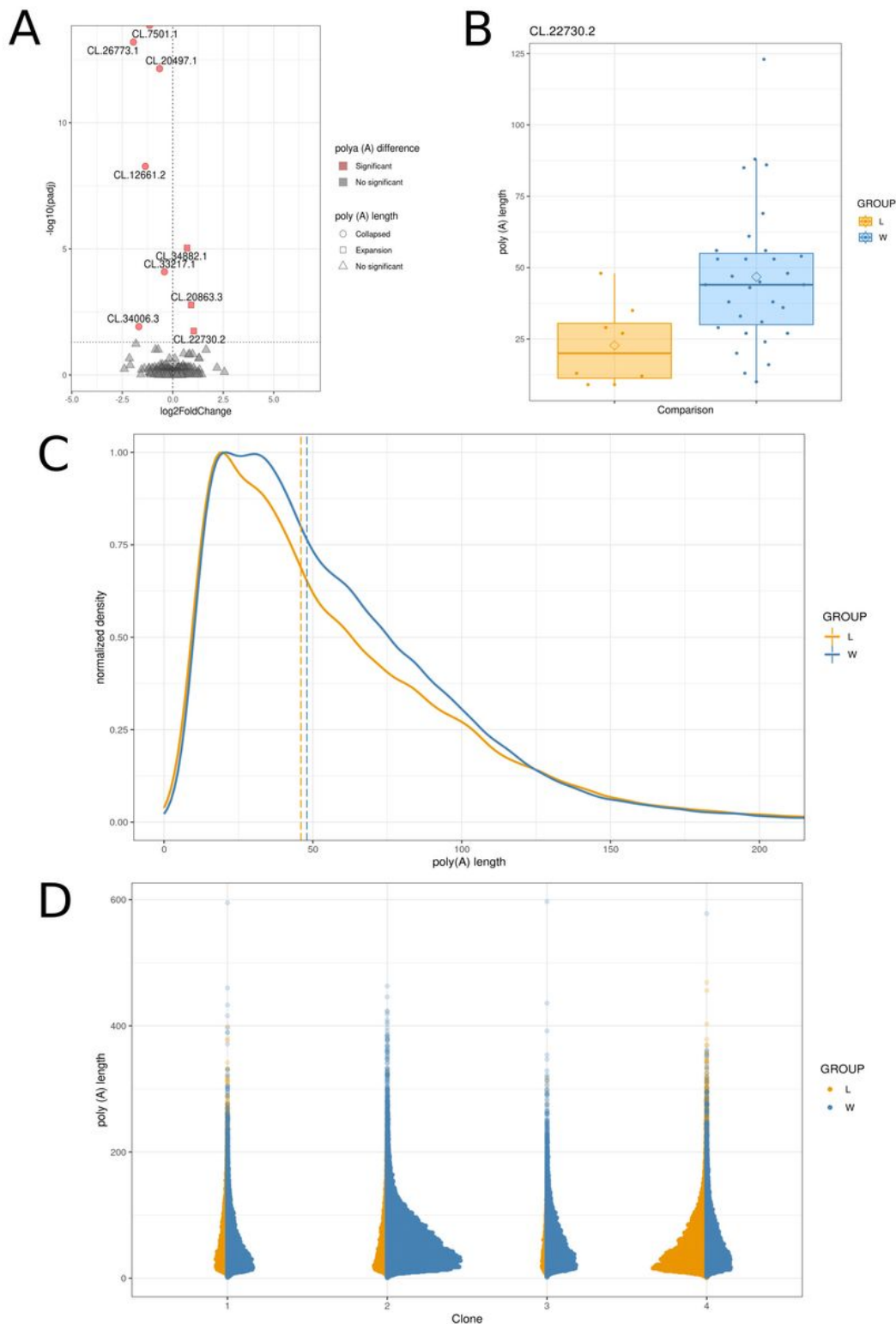


Figure 4

Polyadenylation signals detected by direct RNA sequencing

A. Volcano plot depicting $\log_2$ Fold Change ($\log_2\text{FC}$) for genes with significant poly (A) tail. The x-axis displays the $\log_2\text{FC}$ values for each gene, while the y-axis shows the negative log-adjusted p-value (p-adjusted). The horizontal dashed line represents the negative logarithmic p-adjusted cutoff value (0.05),

and the vertical line equals the value of 0 $\log_2FC$. Red points indicate statistically significant genes, while gray points represent non-significant genes.

B. Boxplot comparing the distribution of poly(A) tail lengths in the CL.22730.2 transcript across study groups, water (blue) and land (orange). The boxplot depicts the median, first and third quartiles (lower and upper hinges), largest and smallest value (upper and lower whisker).

C. Poly(A) tail length profiling of *Riccia fluitans* mRNA depending on the living environment. A density distribution plot is shown for the mRNA of all transcripts detected in *Riccia fluitans* cells in the aquatic environment (blue) and in the terrestrial environment (orange). The vertical dashed lines represent the median poly(A) tail length (in nucleotides).

D. Scatter plot of poly(A) tail length for different *Riccia fluitans* clones, representing all transcripts from poly(A) tail length profiling. Each point represents the length of poly(A) from a clone grown in either an aquatic (blue) or terrestrial (land) environment.

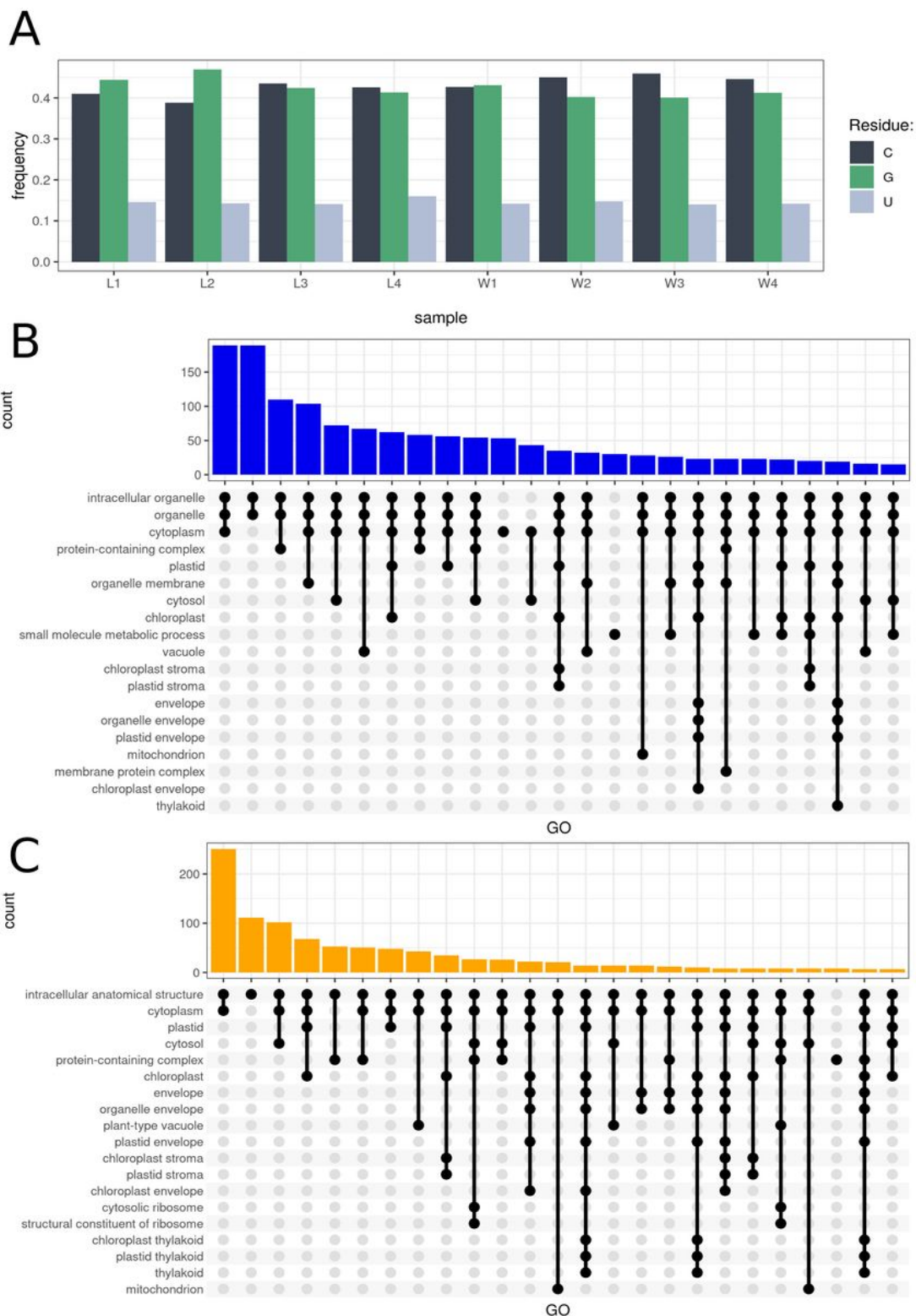


Figure 5

Non-adenine signals detected by direct RNA sequencing

A. Barplot depicts the frequency of non-adenine events in each sample. Dark green bars represent cytosine, light green bars represent guanine, and silver bars represent uracil.

B.Upset plot of GO annotations for transcripts with non-adenine residues detected in the water environment. High bars describe the number of transcripts engaged in common GO terms. The dots and lines merge GO terms with common genes.

C.Upset plot of GO annotations for transcripts with non-adenine residues in land environment. High bars describe the number of transcripts engaged in common GO terms. The dots and lines merge GO terms with common genes.

Supplementary Files

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

- [Additionalfile1.docx](#)
- [Additionalfile2.xlsx](#)