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Article

## Plastid RNA Editing in *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*: Landscape Characterization and Comparative Assessment of RNA-Seq Library Strategies for Detection

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### **Abstract**

**Background**: Plastid RNA editing is widespread in angiosperms, yet remains underexplored in the medicinal non-model species Glycyrrhiza uralensis. This study aimed to: (i) comprehensively identify plastid RNA editing sites in G. uralensis; and (ii) compare the detection performance of three library construction strategies: total RNA sequencing, rRNA-depleted RNA sequencing, and mRNA sequencing. Methods: Three individuals were resequenced for plastome assembly with GetOrganelle and annotation by PGA. Strand-specific RNA-seq libraries were mapped to sample-matched plastomes using HISAT2. Variants were called by REDItools2 under uniform thresholds. Candidates were visually verified in IGV and read origins confirmed by BLAST; artefacts were removed via strand-specific filtering. Results: After stringent filtering, 38 high-confidence RNA editing sites were identified across 19 genes. Total RNA seq performed best, detecting 37/38 sites consistently, whereas rRNA depleted libraries detected fewer genuine sites and produced numerous rRNA linked, noncanonical, noncoding strand dominant artefacts. Despite very low plastid mapping, mRNA seq recovered a large fraction of bona fide sites under stringent, strand aware filtering. Conclusions: This study establishes a set of 38 high-confidence plastid RNA editing sites in G. uralensis and reveals the potential adaptive implications of editing in ndh-related genes. Methodologically, total RNA-seq is recommended in de novo RNA editing identification for optimal sensitivity and low false-positive rates, and datasets from mRNA-seq can be reutilized in reliable retrieval of RNA editing sites, provided that stringent strand-specific filtering is applied.

Keywords: plastid RNA editing; library strategy; Glycyrrhiza uralensis

### 1. Introduction

RNA editing serves as a crucial post-transcriptional mechanism that modifies specific nucleotides in RNA. In land plants, this process occurs predominantly within plastids and mitochondria, where it mainly involves cytidine-to-uridine (C→U) conversions, and less commonly, U→C changes [1–4]. These edits often restore evolutionarily conserved codons, rectify genomic mutations, and influence RNA stability or processing, thereby playing an indispensable role in organellar gene regulation and function [5,6]. In chloroplasts, RNA editing targets key photosynthetic components, electron transport chains, and ATP synthesis machinery, directly affecting photosynthetic performance and plant stress adaptation [7].

The advent of high-throughput RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) has revolutionized genome-wide profiling of RNA editing, enabling comparative studies across species, tissues, and environments. Accurate detection, however, demands high sequencing depth, strand-specificity, and meticulous

bioinformatic removal of genomic polymorphisms and technical artifacts—including sequencing errors, misalignment, and nuclear copies of organellar DNA. Library preparation strategy represents a frequently underestimated variable in editing studies. Although poly(A) selection excels in enriching polyadenylated nuclear transcripts [8], it poorly represents non-polyadenylated plastid RNAs. In contrast, rRNA depletion and total RNA protocols retain a broader spectrum of organellar transcripts, yet differ in background noise, rRNA removal efficiency, and cost, leading to substantial variation in editing detection performance. Strand-specific methods, such as dUTP-based library construction, are particularly effective in keeping strand information of transcripts [9], facilitating accurate gene expression quantification and variant calling.

While previous comparisons of library types have largely focused on nuclear transcriptomics [10–13], systematic evaluations aimed at plastid RNA editing remain limited. Most studies in model plants and crops employ either total RNA or rRNA-depleted libraries to maximize organellar coverage, yet comparative assessments of all three strategies, poly(A)-selected, rRNA-depleted, and total RNA, using matched genomic controls and strand-specific transcriptional data are still scarce. Library selection critically influences the detection sensitivity, reproducibility, and accuracy of RNA editing analyses, highlighting the need for empirical, species-specific guidance.

Legumes are of considerable ecological and economic importance. Although plastid RNA editing has been characterized in some legume species [14,15], the impact of library construction strategies on RNA editing detection remains poorly explored in non-model legumes—especially those with medicinal value or adapted to stressful environments. In the study of RNA editing in *Vigna* species [14,15], two different approaches—rRNA-depleted RNA-seq and poly(A)-enriched mRNA-seq—yielded a comparable number of RNA editing sites (41 vs. 34). This result suggests the potential utility of reusing mRNA-seq data for RNA editing studies, an especially valuable opportunity given the rapidly expanding volume of mRNA datasets in public databases. *Glycyrrhiza uralensis*, a perennial legume, is a medicinally important species widely used in traditional medicine for its tonic properties. It thrives across northern regions of the Yellow River basin in China, including Shaanxi, Gansu, Inner Mongolia, and Qinghai, where it holds significant medicinal and ecological value.

In the present study, we conducted a systematic evaluation of three RNA-Seq library methods, poly(A) selection, rRNA depletion, and total RNA sequencing, for detecting chloroplast RNA editing sites in *G. uralensis* and verify the reliability of mRNA-seq in RNA editing identification. By integrating sample-specific plastome assemblies derived from genomic resequencing with strand-specific RNA-Seq data from the same individuals, we implemented a standardized analysis pipeline that incorporated rigorous quality control, strand-aware mapping, and variant filtering using REDItools [16]. We assessed how each library method influences plastid transcript coverage, editing detection sensitivity and specificity, consistency across biological replicates, and the abundance of antisense artifacts. We further examined the feasibility of reusing mRNA-Seq data in editing analyses. Our results provide practical guidance for experimental design in organellar RNA research and enhance the utility of publicly available transcriptomic datasets in plastid RNA editing studies.

### 2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sample Collection, Nucleic Acid Extraction, Library Preparation and Sequencing

Fresh leaves of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* were collected from three wild individuals in Qingyang, Gansu Province, China. Samples were rinsed briefly with deionized water, blotted dry, flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen on site, and transported on dry ice to the laboratory, then stored at -80 °C until processing. Collection complied with local regulations and no endangered species were sampled.

Each sample was used for both DNA and RNA extraction. Total genomic DNA was extracted from frozen leaf tissue per sample using a modified cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) protocol [17]. Qualified DNA were used for library preparation with an insert size of ~450bp and sequenced on Novaseq 6000 in paired-end 150 bp mode (PE150).

### 2.2. Plastid Genome Assembly, Annotation, Alignment and Variant Calling

Raw reads (genomic and RNA) were processed with Fastp v0.23.4 [18] to remove adapters, trim low-quality bases and filter short reads. Plastid genomes were assembled from cleaned genomic reads with GetOrganelle v1.7.0 [19]. Plastid genome annotation was performed with PGA v1.2.3 (Plastid Genome Annotator) [20] using a published *G. uralensis* reference plastome (Accession number: MZ329070.1) and curated manually to confirm gene boundaries, intron/exon structure and start/stop codons. tRNA boundaries were verified with tRNAscan-SE v2.0.8 [21].

Because the three plastid genomes showed few structural variations, we aligned the complete plastome sequences with MAFFT v7.505 [22]. Alignments were manually checked and confirmed in MEGA v12 [23]. The reason for aligning plastomes was to ensure a consistent coordinate system for comparing RNA editing sites across samples.

### 2.3. Identification of RNA Editing Sites

Cleaned RNA-Seq reads from each library type were mapped to the corresponding sample's plastid genome using HISAT2 v2.2.1 [24] with parameters optimized for spliced, strand-specific mapping (--dta --rna-strandness RF). SAMtools v1.15.1 [25] was used to sort alignment file and mark up PCR duplicates.

Putative RNA editing sites were identified using REDItools 2.0 [16]. Candidate sites were then filtered using custom scripts with the following conservative criteria for reporting high-confidence editing sites: (1) site covered by  $\geq 3$  uniquely strand-specific supporting reads; (2) variant allele fraction  $\geq 10\%$  in at least one RNA library.

To further reduce false positives arising from mapping or library-prep artifacts, we performed: (i) alignment inspection in IGV v2.12.3 [26] for a subset of candidate sites; (ii) cross-library comparison to assess whether sites were reproducibly detected across library types (mRNA, rRNA-depleted, total RNA) and samples; (iii) BLAST-based checks [27] to ensure reads supporting editing sites did not map better to nuclear or mitochondrial paralogs. The mitochondrial genome (Accession number: NC\_053919.1, MZ066515.1) and nuclear genome (GCA\_027886165.1) of *G. uralensis* were downloaded from NCBI. We also used an in-house perl script to validate strand concordance at each candidate site by counting variant-supporting reads on the expected strand vs the opposite strand; sites with >10% variant reads were all manually inspected.

### 3. Results

### 3.1. Plastid Genome Assembly, Comparisons and Annotation

With whole-genome resequencing, we obtained 253 to 352 million paired-end genomic reads for the three *G uralensis* individuals. Using GetOrganelle, we assembled complete circular plastid genomes for all three samples based on the cleaned genomic reads. The three plastid assemblies ranged from 127,670 to 127,716 bp in length and differed by 20–34 single-nucleotide variations and 11–17 short insertions/deletions, totaling 61–110 variable sites in each pairwise comparison after MAFFT alignment. The *G. uralensis* plastid genome, annotated using PGA, encoding 76 proteins, 30 tRNAs, and four rRNAs.

**Table 1.** Statistics of whole-genome resequencing data and plastid assembly for the three *G. uralensis* samples.

Sample	Raw reads	Plastid genome	Plastid-mapped reads	Plastid mapping ratio
HS1_5B	292305370	127702 bp	16070696	0.0549
HS2_6B	252953068	127716 bp	7911608	0.0312
QC1_5B	327037602	127670 bp	19483022	0.0595

### 3.2. RNA-Seq Alignment

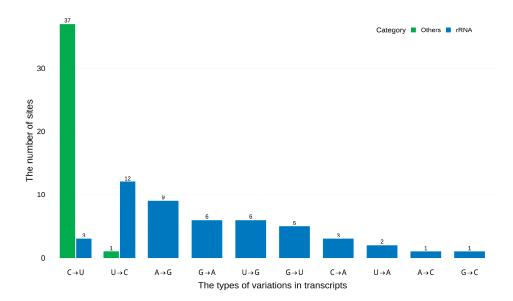
We used HISAT2 to align each sample's RNA-seq reads to its corresponding plastid genome. Mapping rates were highest for rRNA-depleted RNA-seq (33%, 23%, 39%), intermediate for total RNA-seq (25%, 20%, 29%), and very low for mRNA-seq (0.14–0.48%). The extremely low mapping rate in mRNA-seq is consistent with its poly(A) selection, which enriches nuclear transcripts but excludes most plastid RNAs that lack poly(A) tails. Because plastid coverage in the mRNA-seq data was shallow and incomplete, we first benchmarked plastid RNA editing using reads from the rRNA-depleted and total RNA-seq libraries, and then evaluated the detection performance of mRNA-seq separately.

**Table 2.** Statistics of RNA-seq data and mapping to the assembled plastid genomes for the three *G. uralensis* samples.

Sample	Library	Raw reads	Plastid-mapped reads	Plastid mapping ratio
HS1_5B	Total RNA-seq	127089854	32020931	25.19%
HS1_5B	rRNA-depleted RNA-seq	70544244	23316279	33.05%
HS1_5B	mRNA-seq	100743972	434781	0.43%
HS2_6B	Total RNA-seq	123558206	25053748	20.27%
HS2_6B	rRNA-depleted RNA-seq	63621904	14703453	23.11%
HS2_6B	mRNA-seq	103140076	147072	0.14%
QC1_5B	Total RNA-seq	112646262	33606579	29.83%
QC1_5B	rRNA-depleted RNA-seq	66603282	26073981	39.14%
QC1_5B	mRNA-seq	124564614	608462	0.48%

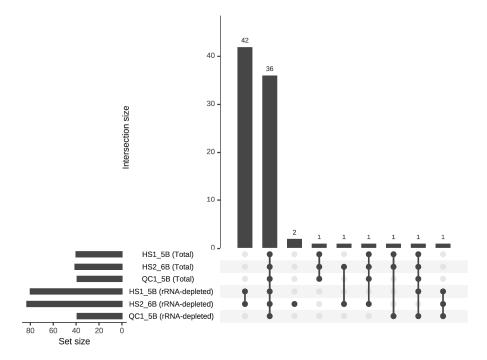
Benefiting from strand-specific RNA-seq, we could accurately resolve sequence variation on each strand. We used REDItools2 to extract strand-aware variant profiles. Applying uniform thresholds of at least three strand-specific supporting reads and a minimum variant allele fraction of 10% per strand, we detected a total of 90 single-nucleotide variants (SNVs). All candidates were visually inspected in IGV, and the read origins were further verified by BLAST against the *G. uralensis* plastid, mitochondrial, and nuclear genomes to confirm best-hit loci. This process excluded four questionable variants caused by alignment artefacts at intron boundaries, yielding 86 RNA editing candidates.

Of the 86 candidate sites, 37 were located in protein-coding regions (including 34 at nonsynonymous or synonymous codon positions, one in the 5' UTR, one in the 3' UTR, and one within an intron), 48 were in rRNA regions, and one was intergenic. Outside rRNA regions, editing events were almost exclusively  $C \rightarrow U$ , with a single  $U \rightarrow C$  change in the 3' UTR. In contrast, within rRNA regions, we observed 10 distinct substitution types (Figure 1), with  $C \rightarrow U$  accounting for only 6.25% of events; other substitutions such as  $U \rightarrow C$ ,  $A \rightarrow G$ , and  $G \rightarrow A$  were more frequent. Since canonical RNA editing in plant plastids primarily involves  $C \rightarrow U$  (and occasionally  $U \rightarrow C$ ) transitions, the diverse substitution spectrum in rRNA regions suggests that most candidates derived from these regions are likely technical artefacts.



**Figure 1.** Substitution-type counts for transcript variants classified by genomic context: rRNA regions (blue) versus non-rRNA regions (green). Canonical plastid edits (C→U) are concentrated outside rRNA, whereas rRNA-mapped variants show diverse, noncanonical changes.

At the sample level, total RNA-seq detected 39–44 candidate sites, while rRNA-depleted RNA-seq detected 39–83 (Figure 2). The increase observed in rRNA-depleted libraries was largely attributable to numerous candidates within rRNA regions, which exhibited low cross-library reproducibility and atypical substitution patterns. Outside rRNA genes, however, rRNA-depleted RNA-seq detected fewer candidates than total RNA-seq, indicating that rRNA depletion does not enhance detection in protein-coding regions and may introduce artefacts near rRNA loci.



**Figure 2.** UpSet plot of variant-site intersections across the three samples and two library types (Total and rRNA-depleted). Bars above indicate intersection sizes; left bars show per-set sizes.

Notably, one of the 36 universally detected sites lies within an rRNA region and shows an unconventional U $\rightarrow$ A substitution at exceptionally high read depth with approximately 50% editing frequency (14,211/33,551 in HS1\_5B; 12,265/25,329 in HS2\_6B; 15,188/29,855 in QC1\_5B for total RNA-

seq). This site was therefore excluded. After removing all 48 rRNA-region sites, 38 RNA editing candidates remained.

Among these 38 sites, 35 were detected in all six experiments; one was detected in five experiments and was present in the sixth at 9% editing frequency (just below the 10% threshold); one was detected in four experiments and present in a fifth at 5% editing (absent in one rRNA-depleted library, likely due to its proximity—731 bp—to a 16S rRNA gene on the same strand); and one was detected in two experiments and present in the other four at editing frequencies of 3%–8%. Collectively, these 38 sites represent a high-confidence set of RNA editing candidates.

These 38 candidates are distributed across 19 protein-coding genes. ndhB harbors the most RNA editing sites (8), followed by rpoB (4) and ndhD (3), with the remaining genes each containing 1–2 sites (Table 3). At the codon level, the amino acids encoded by codons subject to RNA editing were most frequently serine (18 codons), followed by proline (10) and histidine (4) (Figure 3). After editing, leucine became the most frequently encoded amino acid (21 codons), with tyrosine and phenylalanine each encoded by 7 codons. With the exception of one codon (GUC), RNA editing occurs at the first and second positions of all other codons.

**Table 3.** Summary of the 34 RNA editing codons in the plastid genome of *G. uralensis*.

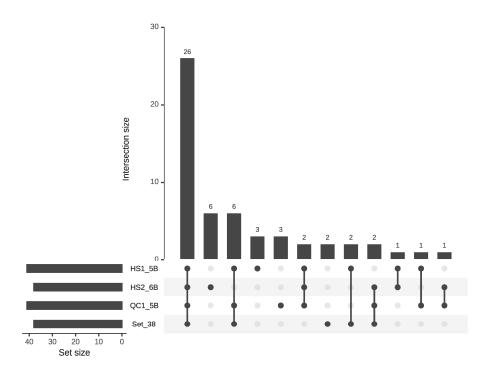
Gene	Position	Codon	Amino Acid	Codon	Editing	Supporting
	on Gene	Change	Change	Position	Efficiency	reads
accD	794	TCG→TTG	S→L	2	0.34~0.53	362~1036
accD	1403	CCT→CTT	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.57~0.84	273~1684
atpA	791	CCC→CTC	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.79~0.89	611~3605
ndhA	341	$TCA \rightarrow TTA$	S→L	2	0.57~0.9	156~3556
ndhA	1073	$TCT \rightarrow TTT$	S→F	2	0.42~0.71	193~3303
ndhB	95	$TCA \rightarrow TTA$	S→L	2	0.45~0.77	188~2474
ndhB	413	CCA→CTA	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.38~0.78	129~1469
ndhB	532	$CAT \rightarrow TAT$	H→Y	1	0.16~0.31	47~751
ndhB	692	$TCT \rightarrow TTT$	S→F	2	0.42~0.79	182~2172
ndhB	782	$TCA \rightarrow TTA$	S→L	2	0.18~0.64	81~1491
ndhB	1058	$TCA \rightarrow TTA$	S→L	2	0.34~0.75	157~2515
ndhB	1201	$CAT \rightarrow TAT$	$H \rightarrow Y$	1	0.19~0.49	87~1711
ndhB	1427	CCA→CTA	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.35~0.68	234~2531
ndhD	383	CCA→CTA	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.13~0.31	18~538
ndhD	674	$TCG \rightarrow TTG$	S→L	2	0.2~0.58	81~438
ndhD	878	$TCA \rightarrow TTA$	S→L	2	0.33~0.53	51~696
ndhE	230	CCG→CTG	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.4~0.88	546~3135
ndhF	290	$TCA \rightarrow TTA$	S→L	2	0.69~0.89	38~199
ndhG	50	TCG→TTG	S→L	2	0.4~0.86	393~1980
ndhG	347	CCA→CTA	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.45~0.71	253~3126
ndhH	505	$CAT \rightarrow TAT$	$H \rightarrow Y$	1	0.5~0.68	246~702
petB	12	GTC→GTT	$V \rightarrow V$	3	0.12~0.2	446~3317
petB	611	CCA→CTA	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.92~0.98	3888~19280
petL	5	CCG→CTG	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.36~0.5	147~2038
psaI	79	$CAT \rightarrow TAT$	$H \rightarrow Y$	1	0.38~0.62	484~2556
psbF	77	$TCT \rightarrow TTT$	$S \rightarrow F$	2	0.66~0.86	1960~6852
psbL	2	ACG→ATG	$T \rightarrow M$	2	0.93~0.96	2429~9780
psbZ	50	$TCC \rightarrow TTC$	$S \rightarrow F$	2	0.27~0.74	376~6873
rpoA	200	$TCT \rightarrow TTT$	$S \rightarrow F$	2	0.71~0.9	206~889
rpoB	338	$TCT \rightarrow TTT$	$S \rightarrow F$	2	0.51~0.82	68~361
rpoB	551	$TCA \rightarrow TTA$	S→L	2	0.55~0.8	62~442
•						

rpoB	566	TCG→TTG	S→L	2	0.51~0.76	66~620
rpoB	2000	$TCT \rightarrow TTT$	S→F	2	0.68~0.79	59~382
rps14	80	CCA→CTA	$P \rightarrow L$	2	0.93~0.98	4660~14663



**Figure 3.** Codon and amino acid distributions for the 34 edited codons before (top) and after (bottom) RNA editing. Each stacked bar shows the number of sites per codon contributing to each amino acid class. The color of each codon corresponds to its type prior to RNA editing. Edited codons retain the same color as their unedited counterparts.

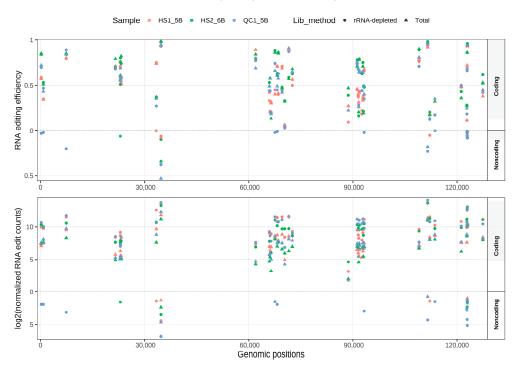
Using the same criteria, we analyzed RNA editing in the mRNA-seq data from all three samples. Despite the low mapping rates, each mRNA-seq library yielded 38–41 candidate sites, among which 28–34 overlapped with the set of 38 high-confidence editing sites (Figure 4). In total, 28 variants were shared across all three mRNA-seq datasets, 26 of which belonged to the high-confidence set. Among the 39 variants shared by any two samples, 34 were also included in this high-confidence set. Three out of the remaining five variants were present in Total/rRNA-depleted RNA-seq at sub-threshold editing efficiency; the other two were uncanonical substitutions of A→G and T→G might result from sequencing on modified nucleotide and should be excluded from RNA editing. These results demonstrate that appropriately analyzed mRNA-seq data can recover a large proportion of high-confidence plastid RNA editing sites with high accuracy.



**Figure 4.** UpSet plot comparing mRNA-seq variant sites from the three samples (HS1\_5B, HS2\_6B, QC1\_5B) with the curated set of 38 high-confidence plastid RNA-editing sites. Bars above indicate intersection sizes; left bars show per-set sizes.

Since both strands of plastid DNA are transcriptionally active, we further investigated whether RNA editing also occur on transcripts complementary to coding genes. Among the 38 high-confidence sites, 15 exhibited nucleotide substitutions on both the coding and noncoding strands. However, unlike the coding-strand variants, which were consistently detected across all six experiments, noncoding-strand substitutions were only observed in a few datasets (Figure 5). Moreover, their editing frequencies were substantially lower than those on the coding strand at the same positions, typically ranging from approximately 1 in 2840 to 1 in 63 reads. Notably, all noncoding-strand substitutions were  $G \rightarrow A$ , which are complementary to the  $C \rightarrow U$  changes on the coding strand. This pattern suggests that the apparent noncoding-strand signals likely arose from incomplete degradation of the second cDNA strand during the dUTP-based library preparation. Collectively, these findings reinforce the conclusion that bona fide plastid RNA editing is strand-specific and occurs exclusively on the coding strand.





**Figure 5.** Strand-specific plastid RNA editing across the 38 high-confidence sites. Top: editing efficiency; Bottom: log2-normalized counts of edited reads. Points are colored by sample and shaped by library type (circles, rRNA-depleted; triangles, Total). Signals on the coding strand are plotted above the x-axis by genomic position; mirrored noncoding-strand signals are shown below.

### 4. Discussion

### 4.1. Divergent RNA Editing Landscapes Between Glycyrrhiza uralensis and Vigna radiata

In this study, we report the first systematic identification of plastid RNA editing in the medicinal plant *G. uralensis*, establishing a high-confidence set of 38 editing sites. A comparative analysis with *Vigna radiata*, which possesses 41 known editing sites [14], revealed both conserved and lineage-specific characteristics. Although the total number of sites is similar between the two species, their distribution differs markedly. Specifically, *G. uralensis* undergoes editing in ndhF, ndhG, ndhH, psbL, psbZ, and ycf2, which are unedited in *V. radiata*. Conversely, editing occurs uniquely in *V. radiata* at clpP, rps2, rps18, and rpl23. Furthermore, *V. radiata* exhibits a greater number of edited codons in ndhB (10 versus 8 in *G. uralensis*). Divergent editing patterns were also observed at the ndhD locus: in *G. uralensis*, editing affects UCG, CCA, and UCA codons, whereas in *V. radiata*, the edited codons include ACA, ACG, and two distinct UCA sites.

Such interspecific variation in plastid RNA editing has been widely reported across angiosperms [6,28,29], including within Fabaceae [14,15]. These differences may stem from lineage-specific acquisition or loss of editing sites [9,20,30], or from changes in cis-elements accompanied by turnover of trans-acting factors such as PPR proteins [30,31]. Whether the divergence observed here reflects neutral evolutionary processes or adaptive responses to environmental pressures remains unclear. Notably, *G. uralensis* inhabits arid and often saline–alkali soils, conditions under which RNA editing in plastid genes, particularly those related to the NDH complex [32–34], may contribute to the modulation of redox homeostasis and stress tolerance. Further studies linking editing efficiency at specific sites to environmental factors, along with expression profiling of nuclear-encoded editing factors, could help clarify the roles of genetic divergence and adaptive plasticity in shaping the RNA editing landscape.

### 4.2. Distinguishing Authentic RNA Editing from Multiple Sources of Technical Artefacts

Accurate identification of bona fide plastid RNA editing events requires rigorous filtering of technical artifacts. Potential sources of false positives include organellar genomic polymorphisms, RNA base modifications, residual second-strand cDNA incorporation in dUTP-based libraries, and mapper- or caller-specific biases. In this study, we assembled the plastid genome for each sample, thus obviate the complication of genomic polymorphism. Nevertheless, through systematic analysis, we identified and excluded four major classes of artifacts:

First, misalignment of reads [35] spanning intron-exon junctions can generate spurious mismatches that resemble RNA editing sites near splice boundaries. We eliminated four such artifacts by cross-referencing gene annotations and filtering mismatches adjacent to splice junctions. Second, incomplete removal of the second cDNA strand in dUTP-based libraries [11,36] can lead to antisense signals complementary to true coding-strand editing events—manifesting as G→A changes on the noncoding strand (Figure 5). These artifacts were characterized by inconsistent detection across replicates, low variant fractions, limited read depth, and strand complementarity. They were filtered by enforcing strand specificity and minimum read-support thresholds. Third, we identified 48 variant sites within rRNA genes, predominantly on the noncoding strand and involving noncanonical substitutions. These likely arise from reverse transcriptase misincorporation opposite modified rRNA bases [37-42], with residual second-strand signals contributing to noncoding-strand detection in rRNA-depleted libraries. Although such sites typically fall below detection thresholds in total RNA due to low proportions (< 1%) of rRNA with base modifications, we conservatively excluded all rRNA-mapping, noncanonical [43], and noncoding-strand-dominant calls as technical artifacts. Forth, in rare instances, REDItools misreported  $C \rightarrow U$  changes as  $G \rightarrow A$ . We corrected six such sites (three in ndhD, one in ndhH and one in intergenic) by manual inspection of strand-specific read counts across replicates.

Together, these filtering steps underscore that true plastid RNA editing events are confined to the coding strand, consist primarily of C→U and infrequently U→C changes, and are supported by sufficient read depth and reproducibility. Although rRNA-derived variants were excluded as technical artifacts in the analysis of RNA editing, we acknowledge that dynamic rRNA modifications may contribute to ribosomal heterogeneity and cellular adaptation [44,45], a biologically significant phenomenon distinct from canonical plastid RNA editing.

# 4.3. Evaluating Library Strategies: Superior Performance of Total RNA-Seq and Utility of mRNA-Seq in RNA Editing Identification

Although rRNA-depleted RNA-seq is often considered advantageous for organellar transcriptome studies, our findings demonstrate that total RNA-seq offers comparable sensitivity, higher reproducibility, and significantly fewer rRNA-derived artifacts for the detection of plastid RNA editing.

Total RNA-seq detected 37 out of 38 high-confidence editing sites (editing efficiency >10%) consistently across all three replicates, whereas rRNA-depleted RNA-seq recovered 35. Artifactual rRNA-associated variants were minimal in total RNA-seq (only 3 sites in total, with 2 reproducible across all samples), but were substantially more prevalent in rRNA-depleted libraries (47 sites, only 2 of which were reproducible in all samples). In both library types, authentic editing events were consistently confined to the coding strand. In contrast, the vast majority of rRNA-linked variants in rRNA-depleted libraries exhibited noncoding-strand dominance (46 out of 47), consistent with technical artifacts derived from rRNA modifications and library construction.

These results collectively indicate that total RNA-seq is a more robust strategy for plastid RNA-editing studies. It better preserves native transcriptomic architecture—including strand specificity and abundance ratios—thereby improving the accuracy of editing quantification and enhancing the biological interpretability of results.

Additionally, although standard poly(A)-selected mRNA-seq is inherently suboptimal for capturing non-polyadenylated plastid transcripts, our results demonstrate that even without

organellar enrichment, this method can still reliably recover a substantial subset of editing sites. Specifically, 26 out of 38 high-confidence sites were consistently detected across libraries, and 34 were identified in the union of any two replicates—despite lower overall mapping efficiency. This reliable detection may be attributed to the polycistronic nature of plastid transcription and the transient polyadenylation of plastid RNAs during degradation [15,46,47], which could facilitate partial capture by poly(A)-based protocols. These findings indicate that, when combined with stringent strandaware bioinformatic filtering, poly(A)-selected mRNA-seq can yield credible plastid RNA editing calls. Nevertheless, for comprehensive and artifact-resistant genome-wide profiling, total RNA-seq remains the superior approach. Importantly, the vast amount of publicly available mRNA-seq data represents a valuable and largely untapped resource that could be repurposed for large-scale exploratory analyses of RNA editing.

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