Deep sequencing analysis of the circadian transcriptome of the jewel wasp *Nasonia vitripennis*

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Abstract

The study of the circadian clock has benefited greatly from using *Drosophila* as a

model system. Yet, accumulating evidence suggests that the fly might not be the

canonical insect model. Here, we have analysed the circadian transcriptome of

the Jewl wasp *Nasonia vitripennis* by using RNA-seq in both constant darkness

and constant light (in contrast to flies, the wasps are rhythmic under continuous

light). We identify approximately 6% of the transcriptome as cycling under

constant conditions, revealing a bimodal distribution of phases and low cycling

amplitude. We examine the functions under circadian control in *Nasonia*,

identifying clock control of functions such as metabolism, light response, and a

variety of neural processes, drawing comparisons between *Nasonia* and

Drosophila. We characterise the transcriptional differences underlying

phenotypic differences in free-running circadian behaviour in constant darkness

and constant light, revealing significant down-regulation of catabolic processes

in constant light. We also profile levels of opsins transcription, gaining insight

into how *Nasonia* responds to light, which is a key question in circadian research

in the Hymenoptera.   Although there was little similarity between cycling genes

in *Drosophila* and *Nasonia*, the functions fulfilled by cycling transcripts were

similar in both species. Of the known *Drosophila* core clock genes, only *pdp1e*,

shaggy and *Clock* showed a significant cycling in *Nasonia*, underscoring the

importance of studying the clock in non-model organisms.

Introduction

The circadian clock regulates fundamental biological processes such as sleep (Huang, *et al.* 2011), metabolism (Huang, *et al.* 2011), and the immune system (Scheiermann, *et al.* 2013), and has implications for a wide range of human diseases. Notable examples of diseases linked to the circadian clock include cancer (Kelleher, *et al.* 2014), Alzheimer's disease (Musiek, *et al.* 2015), cardiovascular disease (Takeda and Maemura, 2011), obesity (Maury, *et al.* 2010), diabetes (Maury, *et al.* 2010), and depression (Quera Salva, *et al.* 2011). A primary output of the clock is circadian regulation of transcription, a trait which has been demonstrated in mammals (Hughes, *et al.* 2009), insects (McDonald and Rosbash, 2001a), plants (Schaffer, *et al.* 2001), and even bacteria (Woelfle and Johnson, 2006). Therefore, analysing transcriptional oscillations in clock-controlled genes (CCGs) is a key step in understanding how the daily rhythms produced by the clock are ultimately linked to behavioural phenotypes.

The genetic mechanisms underlying the animal circadian clock were first elucidated through studies of model animals; primarily the fruit fly *Drosophila*. The first clock gene to be identified, *period (per)*, was discovered through mapping the genetic basis of *Drosophila* mutants with aberrant locomotor and eclosion rhythms (Konopka and Benzer, 1971). The discovery of *period* was followed by the discovery of its heterodimeric partner *timeless* (*tim*) (Sehgal, *et al.* 1994). These two genes are joined by a roster of other genes working together to produce robust internal rhythms.

The discoveries made in *Drosophila* have been instrumental for understanding the mechanisms of the circadian clock in mammals (Yu and Hardin, 2006). As the principal insect model, *Drosophila* has been used to great

effect to model circadian phenomena in humans (Rosato, *et al.* 2006). However,

as circadian research into non-drosophilid insects has advanced, several

alternative clock models have been proposed (Yuan, *et al.* 2007), some of which

may better model aspects of the mammalian clock than *Drosophila*.

For example, a major difference between the various clock models in

insects concerns the light input pathway. The main light input to the clock in

Drosophila is mediated through *cryptochrome* (*cry1*) which is activated in

response to light (Ceriani, *et al.* 1999), binds to and promotes the degradation of

tim (Busza, *et al.* 2004), ultimately resulting in the degradation of *per* (Ko, *et al.*

2002,Grima, *et al.* 2002). In contrast, mammalian-like *cryptochrome* (*cry2*) is not

light-sensitive (Yuan, *et al.* 2007), but is a part of the core transcriptional

feedback loop suppressing its own transcription (and that of *per*) by interfering

with the actions of the CLK-BMAL1 heterodimer (Kume, *et al.* 1999,Jin, *et al.*

1999). Mammals also lack a homolog for *timeless*, possessing only a homolog of

the *Drosophila* gene *timeout* (Benna, *et al.* 2000), a gene whose potential role in

the clock is less clear and less crucial than that of *timeless* (Gustafson and Partch,

2015,Benna, *et al.* 2010).

The Lepidoptera harbour both types of *cryptochrome* (*Drosophila*-like

cry1 and mammal-like *cry2*) (Tomioka and Matsumoto, 2010), as well as

homologs of *timeless* and *timeout* (Tomioka and Matsumoto, 2015). The two

cryptochromes have been shown to act in a similar way to their *Drosophila* and

mammal counterparts; *cry1* functions as a light receptor and *cry2* serves as a

transcriptional repressor (Zhu, *et al.* 2008).

Of the major insect orders, the Hymenoptera arguably possess the most

mammalian-like core clock architecture, possessing *cry2* and *timeout* but neither

cry1 nor *timeless* (Tomioka and Matsumoto, 2015, Yuan, *et al.* 2007). In addition

to these molecular similarities, there is evidence that the transcriptional profiles

of these genes match more closely the mammalian model than the *Drosophila*

model (Rubin, *et al.* 2006). Light-entrained circadian rhythms have been

demonstrated in the Hymenoptera, but the question of light detection in the

Hymenopteran clock remains an open one.

Nasonia vitripennis is a parasitoid wasp, which as a research model offers

advantages over other hymenopterans, including a fully sequenced genome

(Werren, *et al.* 2010), systemic RNAi (Lynch and Desplan, 2006), a robust and

well-characterised circadian response (Bertossa, *et al.* 2013), a fully functional

DNA methylation kit (Park, *et al.* 2011), and a history as a model for

photoperiodism (Saunders, 1969).

In this study, we advance *Nasonia* as an alternative circadian model by

using RNA-seq to profile whole-transcriptome gene expression in the *Nasonia*

head. As the *Nasonia* clock free-runs in both constant darkness and constant light

(Figure 1), we profiled both of these conditions to examine how the two

circadian transcriptomes differ. To our knowledge, this is the first circadian

RNA-seq study performed in an insect other than *Drosophila*, and the first study

to profile the circadian transcriptome oscillating under constant light.

Results

Identifying rhythmic transcription

We first performed an unbiased clustering analysis to ascertain the kinds of

expression patterns present in the data. To this end, Mfuzz (Kumar and E

Futschik, 2007) was used to carry soft c-means clustering, a method which is less

sensitive to biological noise than traditional clustering (Futschik and Carlisle,

2005). After filtering (see Methods), thirty clusters were generated for each

condition (Supplementary figures S1 and S2), revealing a variety of potentially

rhythmic and non-rhythmic expression trends. Potential asymmetric wave forms

were detected in LL (e.g. Supplementary figure S2, clusters 22 and 26).

To identify rhythmic transcripts, we used the RAIN algorithm (Thaben

and Westermark, 2014). At false discovery rate (FDR) threshold of 0.1 we

identified 1,057 rhythmic transcripts in DD and 929 in LL (Table S1, S2).

Rhythmic transcripts (q < 0.1) were sorted by phase, peak shape, and

significance, and plotted (Figure 2A). Examining the phase distribution (Figure

2B), it is apparent that the majority of transcripts show peak expression early in

the subjective morning/afternoon or in the subjective night, with fewer

transcripts peaking at intermediate times. This disparity in phase is greater in

the transcripts which show rhythmic expression in both DD and LL; less than

12% of transcripts in DD and less than 5% in LL show peak expression at

intermediate times (Figure 2B). The majority of these transcripts (~87%) exhibit

a similar (+-4 hrs) phase in LL to their phase in DD.

Similarly to *Drosophila* (Hughes, *et al.* 2012) and mammals (Hughes, *et al.*

2009), the majority of transcripts show only small cyclic changes in expression

amplitude over the day; over 80% of reliably quantified (see Methods)

transcripts in both conditions have amplitudes (peak expression divided by

trough expression) of 2 or less. In both DD and LL, transcripts with exceptionally

high amplitudes (> 4) are transcripts with unusually low or high measurements

at isolated time-points with no obvious specific shared function. This is in

contrast with results in *Drosophila* and mammals, where some core clock genes

exhibit very high amplitude oscillations (Hughes, *et al.* 2009,Hughes, *et al.*

2012,Li, *et al.* 2015).

Canonical clock genes and comparison with *Drosophila*

The canonical clock genes were examined for rhythmicity both at the transcript

level and via an additional RAIN analysis at the gene level. The q-values (FDR

adjusted p-values) for the canonical clock genes are shown in supplementary

table S3. We found a rather limited evidence for rhythmicity in these genes

which included *pdp1e* (q ~ 0.1, LL and DD), *shaggy* (q < 0.1, DD), and *Clok* (q ~

0.1, LL). At a less stringent FDR (q< 0.2), *per*, *cyc*, *Dbt* and *cwo* were rhythmic in

DD, while *cry* and *cyc,* were oscillating in LL. For comparison between splice

variants and conditions, median expression levels of the canonical clock genes

and their transcripts for both DD and LL are shown in supplementary table S4.

We compared the transcripts identified as cycling in *Nasonia* heads with

the transcripts identified as cycling in *Drosophila* heads. For these purposes, we

used a list of genes identified in a meta-analysis study of *Drosophila* circadian

microarray data as being rhythmically expressed in either LD or DD (Keegan, *et*

al. 2007). Of 173 genes identified as rhythmic in *Drosophila*, 33 genes

(Supplementary table S5) were found to also be rhythmic in *Nasonia* (either in

LL or DD, q < 0.1), no more than would be expected by chance (p = 0.11,

hypergeometric test).

Functions of rhythmic genes

To capture the general functions that rhythmic genes may fulfil in *Nasonia*, we

tested a broader set of rhythmic genes (FDR < 0.2 in RAIN) for GO term

overrepresentation (Davies and Tauber, 2015a), revealing 94 GO terms

overrepresented for genes rhythmic in DD (including 'response to light stimulus',

'proteasome complex', and 'generation of neurons', Supplementary table S6) and

123 terms for genes rhythmic in LL (including 'locomotion','proteasome

complex', and 'response to external stimulus', Supplementary table S7), 25 of

which were shared between both conditions (Figure 3). Shared terms include

terms related to neurons, signal transmission, and responses to stimuli. Notably,

all four Nasonia opsins were found to exhibit similar transcriptional profiles in

LL and DD, with low expression in the morning and high expression in the

evening.

It has previously been demonstrated that the timing of different (or indeed

opposing) biological processes can be controlled through the circadian

regulation of groups of genes (Sancar, *et al.* 2015,Zhang, *et al.* 2014).

Unsupervised clustering methods have previously been established as a useful

method for functional characterisation of circadian genes (Nguyen, *et al.* 2014).

To establish whether temporal separation of functions occurs in *Nasonia*, we

therefore returned to the expression clustering analysis. Firstly, we employed

hypergeometric tests to identify clusters with an overrepresentation of rhythmic

genes (Figure 4, Supplementary table S8 and S9). Clusters which were found to

have a significant rhythmic component (q < 0.05, supplementary tables S8 and

S9) were analysed for overrepresented GO terms. Examples of clusters with

enriched functions include clusters DD7 and LL20 which are significantly

enriched for catalytic activity GO terms, especially genes involved in the

proteasome, and clusters DD24 and LL6 which are both involved in circadian

and neural processes. Other clusters (DD1 and DD2) did not turn up any

overrepresented GO terms and are thus likely comprised of genes with a wide

range of functions.

Transcriptional differences between constant darkness and constant light

To examine whether differences in circadian period seen in locomotor activity

between DD and LL could also be detected in transcriptional rhythms, we fitted

parametric models with a range of periods to transcripts rhythmic in both

conditions (q < 0.1). For those transcripts with statistically significant fits to the

model in both conditions (q < 0.1, see Methods), we took the period with the best

fit and compared these periods between conditions. Overall, transcripts in LL

showed a significantly (p < 3.9e-09, Wilcoxon rank sum test) shorter (median

24) period than those in DD (median 25.4), mirroring the behavioural

differences in period.

We have also tested for differential expression between DD and LL. In the

absence of biological replicates, we analysed differential expression using a fold-

change approach. We used 1.5 fold change as a cut-off for differential expression

(Dalman, *et al.* 2012), yielding 1,488 genes expressed higher in DD than LL and

971 genes expressed higher in LL than DD (Figure 5). Genes more highly

expressed in DD were significantly enriched (q < 0.01) for genes involved in

various forms of catalytic activity (Supplementary table S10), including the vast

majority of proteasome genes (>75%). Genes more highly expressed in LL were

enriched for a small number of terms including 'plasmalemma' and 'sequence-

specific DNA binding' (Supplementary table S11).

Discussion

This study provides the first insights into global transcriptional oscillation in *Nasonia*. With RNA-seq, we profiled the circadian transcription of >26,000 transcripts in *Nasonia* in either DD or LL. At a relatively stringent FDR (q < 0.1), we identified 1,057 cycling transcripts in DD and 929 cycling transcripts in LL. These transcripts correspond to a cycling fraction of 6.7% and 5.9% of all transcripts analysed in DD and LL respectively. These figures are comparable to cycling fractions reported in various organisms and tissues, generally between 2% and 10% of the transcriptome (Michael and McClung, 2003).

In both conditions, cycling transcripts were found to cycle at low amplitudes (mostly < 2 fold) and with a limited, bimodal, range of phases. This is in contrast to microarray/RNA-seq studies in *Drosophila*, where transcripts were found to cycle with a broader range of phases (Rodriguez, *et al.* 2013) and studies in both mammals and *Drosophila*, which have identified a group of high-amplitude (> 4-fold) cycling genes among the low-amplitude majority (Akhtar, *et al.* 2002). High amplitude cyclers typically include clock genes (Akhtar, *et al.* 2002,Hughes, *et al.* 2012). The low oscillations of the *Nasonia* head transcriptome render the expression profiles of the canonical clock genes difficult to resolve (Covington, *et al.* 2008). This issue may also contribute to the discordance between the various circadian microarray studies in *Drosophila* (Keegan, *et al.* 2007).

An emerging property of the circadian transcriptome in *Nasonia* is the temporal separation of function by phase (Fig 2). Notably, genes involved in catalytic activity were strongly overrepresented in morning-peaking transcripts. This is in line with other studies which show catalytic activity confined to the

morning in fungi (Sancar, *et al.* 2015), in agreement with a general observation

that an important (or even primary) function of circadian clocks (Hurley, *et al.*

2015) is to temporally separate catabolism and anabolism. Although we did not

detect an overrepresentation of anabolic genes within the cyclic transcripts,

expression clusters DD10 and LL24 (Supplementary figures S1 and S2) did show

strong overrepresentation (Supplementary tables S12 and S13) for genes

involved in cytosolic ribosomal genes (q < 3.e-56) and cellular anabolism (q < 2e-

06). These clusters exhibit an antagonistic expression pattern to the expression

clusters containing the catabolic genes, suggesting that catabolism and

anabolism are indeed separated by the circadian clock in *Nasonia*.

The comparison of expression between LL and DD reveals that a majority

of genes involved in the proteasome and a broader set of genes involved in

catabolism, are more highly expressed in DD than LL. As turnover rates of clock

proteins have shown to be coupled with changes in the circadian period (Syed, *et*

al. 2011,He and Liu, 2005), up-regulation of the proteasome may provide an

explanation for differences in period observed between DD and LL.

Although the genes which cycle in *Drosophila* largely differ from those

cycling in *Nasonia*, the functions fulfilled by CCGs in *Nasonia* are similar to the

functions filled by CCGs in *Drosophila*. Examples of functions shared by CCGs in

the *Drosophila* and *Nasonia* heads are: various aspects of metabolism (Rodriguez,

et al. 2013,Ueda, *et al.* 2002,Ceriani, *et al.* 2002,Claridge-Chang, *et al.* 2001),

phototransduction (Ueda, *et al.* 2002,Rodriguez, *et al.* 2013), synaptic/nervous

functions (McDonald and Rosbash, 2001b,Ceriani, *et al.* 2002,Claridge-Chang, *et*

al. 2001), oxidoreductase activity (Claridge-Chang, *et al.* 2001), mating behaviour

(Rodriguez, *et al.* 2013), and immunity (McDonald and Rosbash, 2001b,Ceriani,

et al. 2002).

We identified cycling of genes involved in response to light, particularly

all four *Nasonia* opsins. These opsins, along with associated gPCRs, cycle with a

similar phase and are all more highly expressed in LL than in DD (Supplementary

figure S6). Daily and circadian changes in opsin expression have been

demonstrated in other organisms (e.g. mice (Bowes, *et al.* 1988) , zebrafish (Li, *et*

al. 2005), honeybee (Sasagawa, *et al.* 2003)), and opsin expression is generally

found to be up-regulated in response to light (Yan, *et al.* 2014). Characterising

the opsins in *Nasonia* is likely to provide insights into the light input pathway

into the clock, particularly as *Nasonia* does not possess other obvious light input

candidate genes such as *Drosophila*-like *CRY1* (Bertossa, *et al.* 2014) or *Pteropsin*

(Velarde, *et al.* 2005) (Supplementary figure S6).

Data availability

We have made the expression profile for each transcript in both conditions

available on WaspAtlas (Davies and Tauber, 2015b). Data have been archived in

the NCBI short read archive (SRA), with accession number PRJNA318159.

Methods

Maintenance and sample collection

Stocks of *Nasonia vitripennis* (strain AsymCX) were maintained at 25°C on

blowfly pupal hosts in 12:12 light:dark cycles. To obtain male wasps for

experiments, groups of eight females were isolated at the yellow pupal stage and

transferred onto fresh hosts upon eclosion. The resulting male progeny were

collected upon eclosion and moved onto vials with a 30% sucrose agar medium,

in groups of 20. During entrainment (four full days in an LD 12:12 cycle) and

collection, wasps were kept in four light boxes in the same incubator at 19°C.

Starting at CT1, wasps were collected every four hours and snap-frozen in liquid

nitrogen and immediately transferred to -80°C. Wasps were collected

sequentially from light box to light box every four hours to minimise disturbance

of wasps, and so that wasps were collected from each light box once every 16

hours, thereby minimising the effect of variations within light boxes.

Temperature and light recordings were taken during the experiment, and can be

viewed in Supplementary file S2. To verify that wasps entrained correctly to the

experimental conditions and that free-running behaviour was as expected,

individual male wasps were isolated and locomotor activity was monitored.

Behavioural recordings of individual male wasps in experimental conditions can

be seen in Supplementary figure S7, ruling out behavioural differences caused by

inter light box variations in light intensity in LL, though not transcriptional

differences.

RNA extraction, sequencing, and read mapping

RNA was extracted from pooled groups of 50 heads for each sample, using Trizol

RNA extraction protocol, and followed by clean-up using the RNAeasy spin

column kit (Qiagen). Samples were polyA selected and sequenced at Glasgow

Polyomics (University of Glasgow, United Kingdom) on the Illumina NextSeq500

platform, resulting in approximately 20 million 75bp paired-end reads per

sample.

Read mapping was achieved with Tophat2 (v2.1.0)(Trapnell, *et al.* 2012)

against the *Nasonia* Nvit_2.1 NCBI annotation. As the purpose of this study was

not to identify novel splice variants or improve on existing annotation, novel

junction detection was disabled for accurate quantification of known transcripts.

Mean mapping efficiency was above 90% for both conditions (Supplementary

table S14). Read quantification was performing using the DEseq normalisation

method (Anders and Huber, 2010). All 24 samples from both conditions were

grouped together to allow comparison between as well as within conditions.

Expression profile clustering

Isoform expression profiles were first filtered to include only those isoforms

with no missing values at any time-point in either condition. Expression values

were standardised using the 'Standardise' function in Mfuzz (Kumar and E

Futschik, 2007). The 'cselection' function in Mfuzz was used to select an

appropriate c-value for the c-means clustering (default parameters; m=1.25).

Based on this analysis, thirty fuzzy clusters were generated for each condition

using the fuzzification parameter m=1.25.

Rhythmic expression analysis

RAIN (Thaben and Westermark, 2014) was used on all filtered isoforms (i.e.

those with no missing values at any timepoint) in either condition to detect

rhythmic isoforms at a period of 24 hours. As a non-parametric method, RAIN

only facilitates detection of rhythmic isoforms with periods which are a multiple

of the sample resolution (in this case 4 hr). The p-values produced by RAIN were

corrected to q-values using the Benjamini-Hochberg method (Benjamini and

Hochberg, 1995). This method was repeated using expression values for genes

rather than transcripts for the clock gene analysis (i.e. the summed expression

values for all known transcripts of a particular gene).

Maximum fold changes in expression were calculated by normalising per-

condition expression values by the median value and calculating the ratio from

the lowest expression over 48 hours to the highest. Reliably quantified

transcripts are defined as those those transcripts where the absolute FPKM

value is 5 or above at all timepoints, the threshold for this set at a similar level to

other analyses (Hughes, *et al.* 2012).

To analyse the period of rhythmic transcripts, we fitted parametric

waveforms with a variety of periods (20 to 28 hrs in steps of 0.2 hrs) to all

transcripts identified as rhythmic (q < 0.1) in both conditions. This FDR

threshold is in line with, or more strict, than thresholds chosen in other similar

studies (Hughes, *et al.* 2012,Huang, *et al.* 2013,Keegan, *et al.* 2007). Those

transcripts (85 in total) which showed a significant (q < 0.1) fit to the model in

both conditions were analysed in terms of their best fitting period.

GO term overrepresentation was performed in WaspAtlas (Davies and

Tauber, 2015b) using the Nvit_2.1 NCBI annotation dataset. All hypergeometric

tests were performed within R using the 'phyper' function. Clusters with

rhythmic components were identified by collapsing the fuzzy clusters into hard

clusters using the 'cluster' property of the Mfuzz object, performing

hypergeometric tests to identify clusters with enrichment for rhythmic

transcripts. Thirty tests were performed for each condition (i.e. for all clusters),

and were corrected per-condition using the Benjamini-Hochberg method in R (R

Development Core Team, 2008).

For comparison to microarray studies, orthologs for *Drosophila*

melanogaster were obtained from a meta-study of circadian microarray data

(Keegan, *et al.* 2007). The 214 obtained FlyBase identifiers were converted to the

latest identifiers using the validation tool, resulting in 218 unique identifiers (the

increase in identifiers can be attributed to previous identifiers referring to

multiple genes in the current annotation). Orthologs for these *Drosophila* genes

were obtained through WaspAtlas, retrieving orthologs for 135 genes which

mapped to 173 unique *Nasonia* genes due to gene duplications, etc. This set of

173 genes was compared with the number of genes with rhythmic transcripts

that would be expected by chance using a hypergeometric test.

Phylogenetic analysis of opsin genes

Opsin genes were searched for using NCBI BLASTP using six species; *Apis*

mellifera, *Bombyx mori*, *Drosophila melanogaster*, *Mus musculus*, *Nasonia*

vitripennis, and *Homo sapiens*, using the *Nasonia Lop1* protein sequence as a

query. BLAST results were inspected and 7e-19 was chosen as an appropriate

cut-off to include all opsin sequences. Sequences were aligned by ClustalW in

MEGA (Tamura, *et al.* 2007) and a maximum likelihood tree generated using

default parameters. Duplicated sequences were manually removed, and

sequences renamed for display on the tree. Full protein name to shortened

display name translations can be found in supplementary table S15.

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Figure 1. Free-run behavioural rhythm in *Nasonia*. Representative actograms of individual *Nasonia* males in DD (left) and LL (right). Activity counts were sorted into 30 minute bins and plotted in blue. Yellow and grey backgrounds indicate lights on and lights off respectively. Gray and black bars below the actogram indicate the 12 hr subjective day and night.

Figure 2. Circadian transcriptional rhythms. (**A**) Heatmap of median-normalised expression of rhythmic (q < 0.1) transcripts in both constant darkness and constant light. (**B**) Histograms and heatmap of phases of rhythmic transcripts (q < 0.1 in both conditions), showing bimodal phase distribution and overlap between the two conditions.

Figure 3. Enrichment of GO terms among cycling transcripts. (**A**) Bar plot of 10 top overrepresented GO terms (by gene proportion) for both DD and LL rhythmic genes. (**B**) Euler diagram showing the overlap of overrepresented terms in DD (blue) and LL (red).

Figure 4. Normalised expression of clusters with significant (q < 0.01) overrepresentations of rhythmic genes. Each transcript profile in each cluster is coloured by that gene's membership of the cluster.

Figure 5. Comparison of the DD and LL transcriptomes. (**A**) FPKM (log2) expression of transcripts in DD (x axis) and LL (y axis), showing genes classified

(> 1.5 median fold change) as differentially expressed up in DD (blue) and up in LL (red). (**B**) Selected overrepresented (q < 0.01) GO terms for genes more highly expressed in DD. (**C**) Heatmap showing median-normalised expression for differentially expressed transcripts, in DD (left) and in LL (right), sorted by fold change.

Figure 1

DD

LL

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Cluster membership

Figure 5