Purifying selection provides buffering of the natural variation co-expression network in a forest tree species

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Abstract

Several studies have investigated general properties of the genetic architecture of gene expression variation. Most of these used controlled crosses and it is unclear whether their findings extend to natural populations. Furthermore, systems biology has established that biological networks are buffered against large effect mutations, but there remains little data resolving this with natural variation of gene expression. Here we utilise RNA-Sequencing to assay gene expression in winter buds undergoing bud flush in a natural population of *Populus tremula*. We performed expression

Quantitative Trait Locus (eQTL) mapping and identified 164,290 significant eQTLs associating 6,241

unique genes (eGenes) with 147,419 unique SNPs (eSNPs). We found approximately four times as

many local as distant eQTLs, which had significantly higher effect size. eQTLs were primarily located

in regulatory regions of genes (UTRs or flanking regions), regardless of whether they were local or

distant. We used the gene expression data to infer a co-expression network and investigated to what

degree eQTLs could explain the structure of the network: eGenes were present in the core of 28 of

38 network modules, however, eGenes were overall underrepresented in cores and overrepresented

in the periphery of the network, with a negative correlation between eQTL effect size and network

connectivity. We also observed a negative correlation between eQTL effect size and allele frequency

and found that core genes have experienced stronger selective constraint. Our integrated genetics

and genomics results suggest that prevalent purifying selection is the primary mechanism underlying

the genetic architecture of natural variation in gene expression in *P. tremula* and that highly connected

network hubs are buffered against deleterious effects as a result of regulation by numerous eSNPs,

each of minor effect.

Author summary

Numerous studies have shown that many genomic polymorphisms contributing to phenotypic

variation are located outside of protein coding regions, suggesting that they act by modulating gene

expression. Furthermore, phenotypes are seldom explained by individual genes, but rather emerge

from networks of interacting genes. The effect of regulatory variants and the interaction of genes can

be described by co-expression networks, which are known to contain a small number of highly

connected nodes and many more lowly connected nodes, making them robust to random mutation.

While previous studies have examined the genetic architecture of gene expression variation, few were

performed in natural populations with fewer still integrating the co-expression network.

We undertook a study using a natural population of European aspen (*Populus tremula*), showing that

expression variance is substantially smaller among individuals than between tissues within the same

individual, suggesting that stabilizing selection may act to restrict the scale of expression variation.

We further show that highly connected genes within the co-expression network are associated with

polymorphisms of lower than average effect size, suggesting purifying selection. These genes are

therefore buffered against large expression modulation, providing a mechanistic explanation of how

network robustness is created and maintained at the population level.

Introduction

A central aim of biology is to understand how emergent phenotypes are encoded in the genome and

how genetic variation engenders phenotypic variation within populations. While the biological

function of many genes can be ascertained through use of mutant screens, such approaches tend to

identify genes essential to a biological process. There is no clear consensus as to whether variation in

these genes underlies natural variation in phenotypic traits, how this relates to the evolutionary

history of the traits or to the properties of the associated transcriptional networks. Additionally,

many traits are complex, being controlled by the action and interaction of numerous genes, often

rendering mutational approaches inadequate or infeasible. In such cases, turning to nature and

employing population genetics and systems biology approaches (systems genetics) to uncover genetic

and genomic co-variation between assayed traits (genomic markers, gene expression, protein

abundance, metabolites etc.) and 'classical' phenotypes (physiognomy, morphology, physiology)

represents an appealing alternative.

The availability of massively parallel sequencing technologies affords new possibilities for addressing

biological questions, for example enabling the generation of *de novo* genome assemblies and

population-wide resequencing data that can be used to perform genome-wide association studies

(GWAS), even in species with large genomes that harbour high levels of polymorphism or that

display rapid linkage disequilibrium (LD) decay [1]. The use of genome-wide resequencing data

allows the discovery of, in theory, all genetic polymorphisms within an individual. These genetic

markers, of which single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are currently the most commonly

considered, can then be used to perform association or linkage mapping to identify the subset of

polymorphisms engendering phenotypic variation among individuals. While the majority of SNPs are

expected to have no, or insignificant, consequence for a given trait, an implication of the infinitesimal

model [2] is the expectation that the control of variation for any given trait will be contributed to by

a large number of loci, each of small effect size. It is not clear how this holds across the scale of

molecular to complex, integrative phenotypes (*e.g.* from transcription to morphology) or whether this

pattern contrasts between adaptive and selectively neutral phenotypic trait variation.

Advances in sequencing technologies have concordantly revolutionised transcriptomics studies,

particularly in non-model organisms. Following seminal work [3,4], numerous early studies in a range

of species established that there is a significant heritable component underlying natural variation of

gene expression levels among individuals within populations [5–17] and that this variation underlies a

number of phenotypes [18–25]. Given these findings, it became apparent that gene expression values

could be considered in the same way as any other quantitative phenotype and be subjected to linkage

or association mapping to identify polymorphisms contributing to expression level variation among

individuals [26], as first reported in [20], with the identified loci termed expression Quantitative Trait

Locus (eQTL; [7]) or, less commonly, expression level polymorphisms (ELPs; [27]). eQTLs are

classified as either local or distant acting depending on the physical location of the associated

polymorphism in relation to the gene that the eQTL is mapped for: local eQTLs are usually defined

as being located within a specified physical distance of the gene location (typically up to 2 Mbp,

although this varies depending on species) while distant eQTLs represent polymorphisms that are

located beyond that threshold distance or on another chromosome. eQTLs can further be classified

as acting in *cis* or *trans*: *cis* eQTLs act in an allele-specific manner and are usually considered to be

local, although long-range *cis* interactions can occur, for example when a polymorphism is located in

an enhancer that is physically distant from the gene of interest; *trans* acting eQTLs affect both alleles

of a gene and are most commonly located distant to that gene. There continues to be strong interest

in eQTLs as they can identify mechanistic links between phenotype and genotype [28,29].

Importantly, the majority of polymorphisms that have been associated to phenotypes using GWAS

in a wide range of species are located outside of protein coding or transcribed regions [30–33],

suggesting that they influence expression rather than altering protein or transcript function.

A number of previous eQTL studies have been conducted using plant species including *Arabidopsis*

thaliana [34–39], *Zea mays* [40–42] and *Oryza sativa* [43,44], and in forest tree species [8,45–47]. These,

together with studies in other eukaryotic systems, have yielded generalities concerning the genetic

architecture of gene expression variation, including that a greater number of local eQTLs are

typically identified and that these individually explain a larger proportion of gene expression variance

than do distant eQTLs [35,48–51]. With the exception of human studies, the majority of previous

work was conducted using controlled, often inter-specific, crosses and it is not clear how generally

applicable their conclusions are for natural populations of unrelated individuals. Few studies have

considered whether observed, heritable variation is adaptive [52,53] or whether signatures of

population differentiation are observed at the transcriptome level [53–58], and there is a lack of

consensus as to whether natural variation in gene expression is selectively neutral [53].

Species in the *Populus* genus have been established as a powerful model system for forest tree

genomics due to their relatively small genome, rapid growth, propensity for clonal propagation and

ease of genetic transformation [59]. *P. tremula* (European aspen) has many features that render it a

particularly useful model for population genetics and speciation studies [60,61]. To facilitate use of *P.*

tremula as a model system we have produced a draft *de novo* genome assembly of the *P. tremula*

genome (available at [62]) and resequencing data [63] for all individuals comprising the Swedish

Aspen (SwAsp) collection [64].

Here, we utilise this resource in combination with population-wide RNA-Seq data, assaying gene

expression in winter buds at the point of bud break. We performed eQTL mapping and constructed

a co-expression network, with the results integrated to provide insight into the genetic architecture of

natural variation in gene expression levels. Our analyses revealed a scale free and modular co-

expression network, with highly connected genes being under-represented for eQTLs and with

eQTL effect size being negatively correlated with both gene connectivity and minor allele frequency.

Patterns of polymorphism and divergence within highly connected genes demonstrate that these

experience stronger selective constraint relative to genes in the network periphery. Our results

therefore highlight the importance of purifying selection for explaining observed standing variation

in gene expression in natural populations in addition to explaining how buffering of the

transcriptional network may be achieved. We propose that network modules can be explained by

eQTLs in one or a few highly connected module genes and that these are evolving under strong

functional constraint compared to genes in the network periphery.

Results

Population level gene expression similarity

131 We utilised the northern common garden (located at 63.9° N, near Umeå, Sweden) of the SwAsp

132 collection [64], which comprises 116 *P. tremula* genotypes sampled across the species distribution

range in Sweden (56.2° to 66.4° N, **Fig 1**A). The SwAsp collection was previously shown to contain abundant genetic variation, with low linkage disequilibrium (LD) [61,65] and minimal population structure [66]. Based on whole genome re-sequencing data that were aligned to a *de novo* assembly of the *P. tremula* genome (available at PopGenIE.org; [62]), we called 4,509,654 SNPs after stringent filtering, which we utilised to perform eQTL mapping.

To enable examination of the genetic architecture of natural variation in gene expression within the SwAsp collection, we generated paired-end RNA-Seq expression data from winter buds at the point of spring bud flush for 219 individuals (clonal replicates), representing 86 genotypes, and first examined the distribution of broad-sense heritability (H^2) and population differentiation (Q_{ST}) (**Fig 1**B,C respectively) for all expressed, annotated genes. H^2 ranged from 0.0 to 1.0 with a mean (± s.d) of 0.30 (0.22) and with 5,924 genes (17%) having $H^2 > 0.5$. There was a weak positive correlation between H^2 and median expression (Pearson r = 0.09, p < 2.2×10^{-16}), and a relatively strong positive correlation to expression variance (Pearson r = 0.43, p < 2.2×10^{-16}). Q_{ST} ranged from 0.0 to 1.0 with a mean (± s.d) of 0.06 (0.12) and had a weak negative correlation with expression variance (Pearson r = -0.02, p < 4.5×10^{-4}) and a positive correlation with median expression (Pearson r = 0.18, p < 2.2×10^{-16}). To further examine whether population structure was apparent on the basis of expression variation among genotypes, we performed hierarchical clustering of all individuals (**Fig 1D**) or genotypes (**S1 Fig**). We observed some evidence of clustering among genotypes but this could not be explained by population structure.

We selected the 500 genes with the highest H^2 (0.88-1.0, 0.93 ± 0.03) and Q_{ST} (0.54-1.0, 0.71 ± 0.13) and subjected these to Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis to determine their biological relevance (see **S1 File** for all results). Genes with high H^2 were enriched for categories including protein phosphorylation (GO:0006468; p = 3.7×10^{-6}), while high Q_{ST} genes were enriched in terms

including translation (GO:0006412; p = 4.2×10^{-20}) and gene expression (GO:0010467; p = 4.6×10^{-12}).

Likewise, we considered the genes with the lowest values, which revealed enrichment of terms

including cell wall modification (GO:0042545; p = 2.6×10^{-7}) for the 2,289 genes with an H^2 of zero

and enrichment of terms including amino acid activation (GO:0043038; p = 0.0012) among the

11,895 genes with a Q_{ST} of zero.

We performed a regression analysis to ascertain whether a set of geographic (latitude, longitude,

elevation), climatic (temperature, precipitation) or other (time since sample collection) factors

significantly explained the global patterns of gene expression similarity among genotypes (**S2 Fig**), as

identified by performing a PCA of the expression data. None of the gene expression principal

components (PCs) were significantly explained by environmental factors, with the only significant

results found between PCs 2, 5 and 7 and the number of hours from collecting branches from the

field until bud sampling for RNA extraction, which explained 6.6%, 3.2%, and total 2.1% expression

variance, respectively.

We subsequently filtered expression values to remove unexpressed genes and uninformative

expression profiles with low variance. Of 35,154 annotated genes, 20,835 were expressed in all

samples, including biological replicates, and 23,183 were expressed in all genotypes when considering

genotype means. Filtering to remove uninformative expression retained 22,306 genes with the 12,848

removed genes representing those that were either not expressed in our bud samples (6,736 genes

with median expression of zero of which 2,385 had no detectable expression at all), or that were

weakly expressed (1,762 genes with variance < 0.05 and median expression < 2), together with genes

that had stable expression among genotypes (4,350 genes with expression variance < 0.05 and

median expression >= 2). The latter potentially represent genes with canalised gene expression.

Analysis of this set of stably expressed genes identified enrichment for GO categories including

protein transport (GO:0015031, p = 6.8×10^{-11}) and protein localisation (GO:0008104, p = 2.2×10^{-10}).

In contrast, the 500 genes with the highest variance across all samples were enriched for GO

categories related to protein phosphorylation (GO:0006468, p < 10^{-6}), chitin metabolic process

(GO:0006030, p < 10^{-4}), and cell wall macromolecule catabolic process (GO:0016998, p < 10^{-4}).

Comparing the variance of these 500 genes with mean F_{ST} calculated using SNPs within those genes

revealed no apparent relationship.

A recent reanalysis [67] of two existing datasets assaying gene expression among natural accessions

of *A. thaliana* [68,69] observed that thousands of genes displayed clear present/absent expression

among accessions. In contrast, we did not find any genes displaying such a pattern of expression

variation (**S3 Fig**), an observation that we also confirmed in an independent *P. tremula* dataset [70],

albeit containing substantially fewer genotypes.

eQTL mapping

We performed eQTL mapping, defining an eQTL as a significant association between a SNP

(termed an eSNP) and the expression of a gene (termed an eGene). Furthermore, we classified an

eQTL as *local* if the eSNP was located on the same chromosome and not more than 100 kbp from

the associated eGene, and as *distant* otherwise. We did not consider whether eQTLs acted in *cis* or

trans.

In total 164,290 eQTLs were identified at 5% empirical FDR: 131,103 local and 33,187 distant.

These eQTLs represented pairwise associations between 6,241 unique genes (eGenes) and 147,419

unique SNPs (eSNPs). The genomic context of eSNPs was determined by overlapping eSNP

positions with gene annotations. After normalising for feature length, the majority of local eSNPs

were located within untranslated regions (UTRs) and up- or down-stream (regulatory) regions of

genes, with distinctly lower representation within exons than introns (**Fig 2**B). The genomic context distribution of local and distant eSNPs was largely similar, although there were distinctly more eSNPs located within intergenic regions for distant eQTLs. Dividing the local eQTLs on the basis of whether they were located within or near to the associated eGene or within or near any other gene inside of our local distance threshold revealed that approximately half were located within or near to the eGene itself. There was a clear tendency for a local eSNP to be located proximal to the transcription start site (TSS) or the stop codon (**S4 Fig**). eGenes had significantly higher heritability (difference in median of 0.24, Mann-Whitney $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) than non eGenes (**Fig 2**D), with this trend being slightly higher for local than distant eQTLs (**S5 Fig**). There were no significant differences in median expression between eGenes and non eGenes or between eGenes with local and distant eQTLs. eGenes with at least one local eQTL were enriched for GO categories related to tRNA metabolic process (GO:0006399, $p = 1.5 \times 10^{-5}$), ncRNA metabolic process (GO:0034660, $p = 2.6 \times 10^{-5}$) and organonitrogen compound biosynthetic process (GO:1901566, $p = 2.2 \times 10^{-5}$), among others, while eGenes with at least one distant eQTL were enriched for categories including protein phosphorylation (GO:0006468, $p = 0.0064$; see **S1 File** for all results).

The vast majority of eSNPs were associated with a single eGene (132,258 eSNPs) with a maximum of six eGenes associated with a single eSNP (S6A Fig). In contrast only 1,248 of the 6,241 eGenes were associated with a single eSNP, while there were eGenes associated with up to 1,547 eSNPs (S6B Fig). To partially account for linkage, we fitted linear models between the expression of each eGene and all the significant eSNPs for that gene, both local and distant. The use of a linear model masks eSNPs that contain identical/redundant information and thus effectively identifies haplotype blocks present in all individuals (which we refer to as 'unique eSNPs'), while also producing a measure of how well the combination of eSNPs explains the expression of the corresponding eGene (in terms of

percentage variance explained, %VE). Of the 4,993 eGenes associated with more than one eSNP,

4,703 were also associated to more than one unique eSNP. The adjusted %VE for the combination

of eQTLs was, in general, higher than for single eSNPs. Local eSNPs explained significantly more of

the variance than did distant eSNPs (local mean adjusted %VE = 51, distant mean adjusted %VE =

47, Mann-Whitney p < $2.2×10^{-16}$, **Fig 2**A) and also had higher statistical significance (**Fig 2**E). There

was a positive correlation between the maximum %VE of the eSNPs associated with an eGene and

gene expression H^2 (Pearson r = 0.47, p < $2.2×10^{-16}$).

A number of previous studies in both plants and a range of other organisms have identified distinct

eQTL hotspots [20,35,37,48,51], which represent loci where large numbers of *trans*-acting variants are

co-located. To detect possible genomic hotspots, we plotted eSNP positions against the positions of

the associated genes (**Fig 2**C), as well as the number of eSNPs and eGenes for 100 kbp genomic

windows along the chromosome (**S7 Fig**). We did not identify any clear hotspots in our data.

Co-expression network

We used genotype mean gene expression values to calculate a co-expression network and

subsequently considered the network characteristics for genes with and without a mapped eQTL

(eGenes). In common with other biological networks, the network had a good scale-free fit (R^2 =

0.97). We compared our network with the *P. tremula* expression atlas (exAtlas; [62]), which represents

different tissues collected from a single genotype, and observed that the correlation distribution for

the exAtlas samples was much wider (mean correlation 0.01 ± s.d. 0.36) than that of our population

expression data (mean correlation 0.00 ± s.d. 0.12; Kolmogorov-Smirnov D = 0.14, p < $2.2×10^{-16}$;

Fig 3A).

Clustering analysis of the co-expression network identified 38 co-expression modules (two examples

are shown in **Fig 3**C). These were enriched for a number of Gene Ontology (GO) categories

including translation (modules 9, 10, and 14), photosynthesis (module 22) and oxidation-reduction

process (module 29; for all results see **S1 File**). Despite the narrow distribution of correlation values,

the modules were reasonably well defined, as indicated by the normalised connectivity difference

(k_{diff}), *i.e.* the difference between intra- and inter-modular connectivity. All modules exhibited a

positive mean k_{diff}, with only 157 genes (0.7%) having a negative k_{diff}. This was in stark contrast to

genes assigned to the 'junk' module (*i.e.* all genes not assigned to any well-defined module), where

there were 480 genes with negative k_{diff} (29%).

eGenes are under-represented in network module cores

To test whether eQTLs could explain expression variation of highly connected genes, which are

those that drive the network structure, we examined the relationship of eGenes to network

connectivity. In general, eGenes had lower connectivity and betweenness centrality than non-eGenes

(Mann-Whitney p < 2.2×10^{-16} for both, **Fig 3**B). Moreover, genes with a positive k_{diff} were

significantly under-represented for eGenes (hypergeometric test, p = 1.7×10^{-27}). We defined the core

of each module as the 10% of genes in a module with the highest normalised k_{diff} while also having

an intra-modular connectivity >1. Using this definition, all 38 modules contained at least one core

gene, with the percentage of core genes ranging from 2-10% (**S2 File**). Among these module cores,

28 contained at least one eGene, with 29 module cores being significantly under-represented for

eGenes (hypergeometric test, 5% FDR). This further emphasised that eGenes were not central in the

network. Subsequently, we tested whether the periphery of the network was overrepresented for

eGenes. Sixty-four of 142 peripheral genes were eGenes, representing a significant enrichment

(hypergeometric test p = 2.6×10^{-5}). On the other hand, network module cores were enriched for

both transcription factors (hypergeometric test, p = 5.6×10^{-7}) and phylogenetically conserved genes

(hypergeometric test, p = 8.6×10^{-5}) defined as genes with orthologs in *P. tremuloides*, *P. trichocarpa* and

A. thaliana (20,318 genes; [71]). Furthermore, *P. tremula*-specific genes, *i.e.* genes without orthologs in

P. tremuloides, *P. trichocarpa* or *A. thaliana* (1,614 genes), were slightly under-represented in network

module cores (hypergeometric test, p = 0.013) while being slightly over-represented among eGenes

(hypergeometric test, p = 0.010).

In addition to eGenes having generally lower connectivity, there was also a negative relationship

between eQTL effect size and co-expression connectivity, with eGenes having the highest

connectivity also having lower effect size (Pearson r = -0.15, p < 10^{-10}, **Fig 3**D). As expected,

eGenes also had higher expression heritability (H^2) than non-eGenes (difference in median

heritability 0.24, Mann-Whitney p < 2.2×10^{-16}). In addition, H^2 correlated positively with eQTL effect

size (Pearson r = 0.59, p < 2.2×10^{-16}) and negatively with connectivity (Pearson r = -0.30, p <

2.2×10^{-16}).

eGenes had higher expression variance than non-eGenes (median variance of 0.075 versus 0.048;

Mann-Whitney p < 2.2×10^{-16}). In particular, 60 of the 75 genes with variance > 2 (hypergeometric

test, p < 2.2×10^{-16}) and 178 of the 250 genes with variance > 1 (p < 2.2×10^{-16}), were eGenes (**S8 Fig**).

There was a weak negative relationship between network connectivity and gene expression variance

(Pearson r = -0.08, p < 2.2×10^{-16}). Transcription factors had higher connectivity than non-

transcription factors (Mann-Whitney p-value < 2.2×10^{-16}) and there was a slight overrepresentation

of TFs among core eGenes (p=0.017).

Paralogs with diverged expression are more likely to be eGenes

In *P. tremula* 3,910 paralog pairs were detected [71], with 2,140 of these (4,185 unique genes) passing our gene expression and variance filtering criteria. These paralogs were significantly under-represented for eGenes, with 1,078 of the 4,185 genes having at least one associated eSNP (hypergeometric test, p = 0.0004). Comparing the expression correlation of paralog pairs to that of random gene pairs showed that paralogs exhibited conserved regulation (permutation test, p < 0.001). We compared the expression correlation distributions of paralog pairs containing 0, 1, and 2 eGenes (**Fig 4**) and found that a higher number of eGenes in a pair was associated with lower expression correlation (linear model $\hat{\beta} = -10.52$, p < 10^{-16}). Excluding paralogs did not alter the fact that eGenes had significantly lower network connectivity than non-eGenes.

Population genetics signatures of eQTLs

We examined allele frequency distribution of eSNPs compared to all SNPs, finding that that eSNPs included proportionally fewer low-frequency variants and proportionally more intermediate frequency variants relative to the genome-wide level (S9A Fig). We detected a significant negative correlation between minor allele frequency and eQTL effect size (Spearman's rho = -0.285, p < 0.001; S9B Fig), indicating that variants of large effect were present only at relatively low frequencies with few large effect eQTLs detected. While purifying selection acting on eSNPs is a likely explanation for this pattern, limited statistical power to detect associations between low frequency variants and gene expression levels could also contribute to this observed pattern. However, as shown in [28], even if the pattern is confounded by statistical artefacts, it likely represents a true biological phenomenon, where large effect eQTLs are constrained to segregate at low frequencies.

We further compared patterns of genetic variation between genes with and without eQTLs (eGenes

vs. non-eGenes) and found that eGenes exhibited significantly higher genetic variation than non-

eGenes (**Fig 5**A). Furthermore, genes in network module cores harboured significantly lower genetic

variation compared to genes in the periphery of the network (**Fig 5**A and S10A Fig). To test whether

different gene categories were experiencing different levels of selective constraint, we also assessed

the site frequency spectrum across genes using Tajima's D [72]. Even if Tajima's D values are overall

negative in *P. tremula*, likely due to a historical range expansion [61], we would expect genes in

module cores to have lower values of Tajima's D compared to genome-wide averages if they are

indeed evolving under stronger purifying selection than peripheral genes. Likewise, if eGenes are

experiencing relaxed selective constraints, they should exhibit higher Tajima's D values relative to the

genome-wide average. Indeed, both of these expectations were supported by our data (**Fig 5**B, S10B

Fig): In accordance with stronger selective constraints for genes in network cores, we found

significantly reduced ratios of non-synonymous to synonymous polymorphisms ($\theta_{0\text{-fold}}/\theta_{4\text{-fold}}$) and

substitutions (d_N/d_S) for these genes compared to peripheral genes in the network (**Fig 5**C,D). For

peripheral genes, eGenes had significantly higher $\theta_{0\text{-fold}}/\theta_{4\text{-fold}}$ and d_N/d_S compared to non-eGenes,

again suggesting that genes with eQTLs in the network periphery might be under relaxed purifying

selection compared non-eGenes. In comparison, there was no significant difference of $\theta_{0\text{-fold}}/\theta_{4\text{-fold}}$ or

d_N/d_S between eGenes and non-eGenes located in network cores, suggesting that, within the

network core, both these classes of genes are evolving under comparably strong selective constraints.

Discussion

 Expression heritability and population differentiation

We present one of the first studies assaying gene expression in a natural outbreeding population. We

identified prevalent heritability in gene expression levels, in line with observations in a number of

species [5–17,53], with 5,924 genes (17%) having $H^2 > 0.5$. The majority of previous studies were

performed in controlled, often inter-specific, crosses, but our results confirm that there is also

substantial genetic variation contributing to gene expression in natural populations, demonstrating

the potential for selection to modulate expression levels.

In agreement with results reported for non-phenology related phenotypic traits in the SwAsp

collection [73], we observed no evidence of population structure, clinal variation or sub-population

differentiation (Q_{ST}) in our gene expression data, which is not surprising given the lack of population

structure present at the genome level [66]. Although some evidence of clustering was apparent (**Fig

1D**), this disappeared after hidden confounder removal (**S11 Fig**). Reassuringly, biological replicates

of a genotype clustered together for both the original and the adjusted data, indicating that our data

were reliable and that reproducible biological differences (corresponding to genetic differences) in

gene expression among genotypes could be detected. We were not able to identify the underlying

factors responsible for the clustering, but were able to exclude a set of climatic, environmental and

experimental factors that represented the most obvious candidates. However, it is of course possible

that environmental factors, especially latitude, may correlate with the expression of specific genes.

We did identify enrichment of GO categories in the set of the 500 most variable genes, suggesting

that this represents a signature with biological relevance. At the other extreme, for genes with

canalised expression, there was also enrichment for GO categories, with these potentially

representing genes having housekeeping functions.

eQTLs

In line with other published work, we found more local than distant eQTLs, with local eQTLs

explaining significantly more of the variance in gene expression than distant eQTLs [35,48–51] (**Fig**

2A). Although each eSNP was typically associated with only a single gene, many genes were

associated with more than one unique eSNP, with the combined variance explained by these eSNPs

being higher than for the individual eSNPs, both for local and distant eQTLs. This suggests that the

observed expression variation resulted from the combined effects of several eSNPs, consistent with

the infinitesimal model. Looking specifically at only the subset of 1,100 eGenes with both local and

distant eQTLs, we observed an average increase in the proportion of variance explained by all eSNPs

compared to only local eSNPs (an increase of 3.4 percentage points after adjustment).

Local eQTLs were most frequently located in regulatory regions (**Fig 2**B), with UTRs having the

highest density of local eSNPs (~1.5 eSNP per kbp sequence) followed by flanking regions (2 kbp

up- and downstream, ~1 per kbp sequence) and introns (~0.75 per kbp sequence), which is

consistent with previous findings in natural populations of humans, *Drosophila* and *Capsella grandiflora*

[28]. The distributions of genomic context for local and distant eQTLs were broadly similar, however

distant eQTLs were somewhat more common in exonic regions compared to local ones, as would be

expected by indirectly acting eQTLs, and were more frequently located in intergenic regions,

potentially representing distantly acting regulatory elements such as enhancers. It has previously been

reported that distant eQTLs in humans are most frequently located in introns, followed by intergenic

regions [74]. Our results only partially agree with this, with distant eQTLs being far more commonly

associated with UTRs and flanking regions, followed by introns and intergenic regions. Finally, the

global distribution of genomic contexts for all investigated SNPs was similar to that of local and

distant eSNPs, suggesting that SNPs affecting expression do not have a characteristic genomic

signature and most likely representing the concentration of SNPs to regions of active recombination

[61].

Co-expression

The pairwise expression correlations underlying our co-expression network were low, at least

compared to those observed in typical systems biology studies, for example in the *P. tremula* exAtlas

network [62], where samples originated from different tissues of a single genotype (**Fig 3**A). Our

results thus demonstrate that natural variation clearly only operates by inducing a small proportion of

the known possible variation in expression for a gene, potentially reflecting a substantial influence by

stabilizing selection on natural variation in gene expression. Despite the low correlations, our natural

variation co-expression network displayed characteristics typical to biological networks [75]; the

network was scale-free with hubs and distinct modules. Specifically, we identified 38 co-expression

modules that were enriched for a number of functional categories, suggesting that they represent

biologically meaningful units.

Genes with the highest expression variance, and the highest heritability, were enriched for eGenes.

Perhaps counterintuitively given that genetic variation underlies heritable gene expression variation,

genes co-expressed with many other genes (*i.e.* genes with high connectivity) were under-represented

for eGenes, while genes with few co-expression partners (located in the network periphery) were

enriched for eGenes (**Fig 3**B). Furthermore, eGene connectivity was negatively correlated with

variance explained by the associated eSNPs (**Fig 3**D). It has similarly been reported that conserved

genes and hubs in human protein-protein interaction networks were less likely to be associated with a

detectable eQTL and that the effect size of eQTLs was negatively correlated with connectivity in the

protein-protein interaction network [76].

The simplest explanation for the presence of natural variation in gene expression would be that each

unique expression pattern is caused by a single eSNP: In network modules, where many genes share

the same expression pattern, a single eSNP modulating the expression of a central regulator would

be sufficient to induce similar expression variation (i.e. co-expression) in the set of connected genes

within that network module; in our data, we observed at least one eGene in 28 of the 38 modules,

thus potentially accounting for the co-expression structure of a majority of the modules. In

contrast, a gene located in the network periphery would have low connectivity and a relatively unique

expression profile. An eSNP modulating expression of such a gene would likely therefore affect only

the peripheral eGene that it is associated with: Consistent with this, we observed an

overrepresentation of eGenes in the network periphery.

Regulatory networks are known to be redundant, scale-free and to have an inherent ability to buffer

against single mutations of large negative effect [77–79]. In our case, genes with the potential to

cause such large negative effects would be observed as hubs in the co-expression network, and we

would therefore expect hubs to be buffered against single polymorphisms of large effect size and, in

particular, the persistence of large negative effect mutations. As such, we could expect the expression

of highly connected genes to be subjected to both strong stabilizing and purifying selection, which

would result in them being controlled largely by eSNPs of small additive effects. However, due to

statistical limitations, many of these small-effect eSNPs would represent false negatives (*i.e.* would be

unobserved), likely explaining why the core of 10 of the 38 modules within our network did not

contain any eGenes. Additionally, several other types of complex regulatory mechanisms can

preclude our ability to detect eSNPs: Epistatic interactions between eSNPs, such as AND-logics,

would result in very little correlation between the individual AND-interacting eSNPs and the

expression of the controlled gene. Likewise, the expression of a gene will frequently not only be a

function of the associated eSNPs but also of the expression of the regulators acting through those

eSNPs, which are themselves affected by additional eSNPs. Furthermore, the regulator(s) that

initiated an observed co-expression module may no longer be expressed at the sampling point used

for RNA isolation, and thus the eSNPs that determined the expression variation of that regulator will

no longer be visible to us (or a 'ghost signature' may remain, but be too weak to reach significance),

which again could explain the lack of eGenes in some module cores.

Our results suggest that natural variation in gene expression follows the infinitesimal model, with few

examples of a single eSNP explaining a large proportion of the expression variance of a gene. As we

argue, this may arise from selective processes that maintain biological robustness. However, we

cannot extrapolate these findings to suggest whether this is the rule for all cases. For example, we

observed a snapshot of expression during the process of bud flush, a trait that does not appear to be

under strong directional selection. To ascertain the general relevance of our findings, similar studies

should be performed assaying expression for phenotypic traits that do show evidence of selection,

such as the timing of autumn bud set within the SwAsp collection [73], although the specifics of how

to sample comparative material while controlling for confounding effects to enable expression

profiling presents significant challenges in such a case.

The Salicaceae lineage underwent a recent whole-genome duplication shared by all member species

and that remains represented by a large number of paralogous gene pairs in the genomes of *Populus*

species. If many of these duplicated genes are functionally redundant or in the process of diverging,

one would expect them to be overrepresented for eGenes as sub- or neo-functionalisation requires

derived SNPs to drive expression differences. However, we saw an under-representation of eGenes

in paralog pairs, suggesting that SNPs which initially induced expression divergence have reached

fixation. Interestingly, we found progressively lower expression correlation between paralog pairs

containing zero, one or two eGenes (**Fig 4**) indicating that a subset of paralogs are still undergoing

sub- or neo-functionalisation, with their associated eSNPs driving expression divergence.

Signatures of selection

We observed that both eGenes and non-eGenes in network module cores had significantly reduced

genetic diversity compared to more peripheral genes (**Fig 5**). This suggests that network core genes,

which represent genes of high potential effect, have evolved under stronger evolutionary constraint

than genes in the periphery of the network. As genes in module cores generally have higher levels of

pleiotropy and lower levels of dispensability [77], they are consequently more constrained against

changes in both gene expression and protein sequence compared to genes in the periphery of the

network [80]. Furthermore, we show that eGenes are overrepresented in the periphery of the

network and that they have experienced lower levels of purifying selection relative to non-eGenes,

corroborating a relaxation of both expression and coding constraints for these genes. Relaxed

selection of peripheral eGenes is thus expected to result in an accumulation of weakly deleterious

mutations that will segregate as intra-specific polymorphisms.

Consistent with the observation that network core genes are evolving under stronger functional

constraint than genes in the network periphery, we found that conserved genes (*i.e.* old genes) were

significantly over-represented in network cores while *P. tremula* specific genes (*i.e.* young genes) were

under-represented. This is in agreement with previous studies that have shown that old genes tend to

be more central in regulatory networks, with increased constraints on expression and fewer

associated eQTLs [81,82]. Finally, we detected a significant negative correlation between eQTL effect

size and eSNP allele frequency (S9B Fig), suggesting that prevalent purifying selection may be acting

on expression variation of the eQTLs detected in our study, which is consistent with recent results

from *Capsella grandiflora* [28].

Conclusion

We present one of the first explorations of the genetic architecture of natural variation in a gene co-expression network within a natural, out-breeding population. We identified substantial heritability associated with gene expression, with eSNPs being most frequently located within regulatory regions, suggesting that they act by inducing expression variance rather than affecting protein function. We propose that the modular co-expression network is determined by a relatively small set of highly connected regulators displaying expression variation due to eSNPs. Since these regulators will be hubs, modulation of which would have potentially large negative effects, they are buffered by complex regulatory mechanisms. Supporting this hypothesis, we find that eGenes are underrepresented in module cores and that eSNP effect size is negatively correlated to network connectivity. Our results point towards stronger selection acting on network core genes compared to genes in the periphery of the co-expression network, with eSNP effect size being negatively correlated to allele frequency. This suggests that the majority of segregating variation associated with gene expression is slightly deleterious and that gene expression in general is under purifying selection.

Materials and Methods

Samples

We collected branches form the SwAsp collection common garden in north of Sweden on 27th May 2012, before natural bud break but as close to the point of natural spring bud break as possible. Branches were placed in the greenhouse facility at the Umeå Plant Science Centre under conditions selected to induce rapid bud break (24 h light, temperature of 20 °C and humidity 50-70 %). At a defined point of emergence (**S12 Fig**), buds were harvested, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and

stored at -80 ° C until used for RNA isolation. Only terminal buds were sampled (i.e. no lateral

buds were included). The time from the day branches were placed in the greenhouse until bud flush

sampling ranged from one day to eight days (S13A Fig) and there was a high, positive correlation to

bud flush date recorded in the field for the same year (S13B Fig; r=0.776, p < 2.2×10^{-16}). As has

previously been reported [73], there was no apparent Q_{ST} for bud flush, either in the field or for the

greenhouse material (Q_{ST} 0.13 and 0.07 respectively), however H^2 was high (H^2 = 0.82 and 0.71

respectively).

RNA isolation

One to two buds per clonal replicate were ground using one 3 mm stainless steel bead (Qiagen,

Redwood city, USA) in Corning® 96 well PP 1.2 ml cluster tubes (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA)

using a Mixer Mill MM400 (Retsch, Haan, Germany) at 20 Hz for 2 x 15 sec. Total RNA was

extracted from all samples according to [83] with the omission of the L spermidine. Buffer volumes

were adjusted according to starting material (70 - 130 mg). RNA isolation was performed using one

extraction with CTAB buffer followed by one chloroform : isoamyl alcohol IAA (24:1) extraction.

All other steps were performed as in [83]. DNA contamination was removed using DNA-free™

DNA removal Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA). RNA purity was measured using a

NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, USA) and RNA integrity was assessed using the

Plant RNA Nano Kit for the Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, USA).

RNA-Sequencing and analysis

RNA-Sequencing was performed as in [70]. Briefly, paired-end (2 × 100 bp) RNA-Seq data were

generated using standard Illumina protocols and kits (TruSeq SBS KIT-HS v3, FC-401-3001; TruSeq

PE Cluster Kit v3, PE-401-3001) and all sequencing was performed using the Illumina HiSeq 2000

platform at the Science for Life Laboratory, Stockholm, Sweden. Raw data is available at the

European Nucleotide Archive (ENA, [84]) with accession number ERP014886.

RNA-Seq FASTQ-files were pre-processed and aligned to v1.0 of the *P. tremula* reference genome

[71] as in [85]. In short, reads were quality and adapter trimmed using Trimmomatic v0.32 [86],

rRNA matching reads were filtered using SortMeRNA v1.9 [87], reads were aligned to the v1.0 *P.*

tremula reference genome using STAR 2.4.0f1 [88] and read counts were obtained using htseq-count

from HTSeq [89]. FastQC [90] was used to track read quality throughout the process. Normalised

gene expression values were obtained by applying a variance stabilising transformation (VST) to the

raw counts from HTSeq, as implemented in the DESeq2 R package [91].

Gene expression H^2 and Q_{ST}

We calculated repeatability as an assumed upper bound estimate of broad sense heritability of gene

expression (see [92] for discussion) from the variance estimates in our data according to the equation

520
$$H^2 = \frac{V_G}{V_P}$$

where V_G is the genetic component of the variance calculated as the expression variance between

genotypes for a particular gene (*i.e.* variance among genotype means) and V_P is the total phenotypic

variance calculated as the sum of V_G and V_E, where V_E is the environment component of the

variance calculated as the expression variance within genotypes for a particular gene (i.e. the mean

variance among clonal replicates). Point estimates of H^2 were obtained using the repeatability

function from the heritability v1.1 R package [93].

Population differentiation (Q_{ST}; [94]) was calculated as

$$Q_{ST} = \frac{V_{between}}{V_{between} + 2V_{genetic}}$$

where $V_{between}$ is the variance among populations and $V_{genetic}$ is the genetic variance among genotypes

as computed using the lmer function from the lme4 v1.1.12 R package [95] using the formula

`expression ~ 1 + (1|population) + (1|clone)`

where *expression* is the expression of a gene, *population* is a factor representing the population of each

sample, and *clone* is a factor representing genotype replicates. As we use repeatability as an upper

bound estimate of H^2, our Q_{ST} estimates are conservative [96].

Hidden confounder removal

Gene expression data was adjusted for hidden confounders before mapping eQTLs and constructing

the co-expression network. Hidden confounders in the gene expression data was accounted for by

regressing out the 9 first principal components (PCs) of the gene expression data [97–99]. The

number of components to remove was determined by running the eQTL mapping with 0 to 20 PCs

removed and selecting the number of components that yielded the largest number of significant

eQTLs (Benjamini-Hochberg p < 0.05) (**S14 Fig**). This approach is based on the assumption that the

number of identified eQTLs will increase if the removed PCs are removing unwanted, systematic

variation (i.e. noise) rather than informative biological variation [97–99].

eQTL mapping

eQTL mapping was performed by associating gene expression with biallelic SNPs using the R

package Matrix eQTL v2.1.1 [100]. The corresponding raw resequencing data for all SwAsp

genotypes is available at the NCBI SRA resource as BioProject PRJNA297202 (SRA: SRP065057)

and the resultant Variant Call Format (VCF) file used for association mapping is available from [63].

Before performing association mapping, genes were filtered on variance so that only genes with a

gene expression variance above 0.05 were included. SNPs were also filtered on minor allele

frequency (MAF) and major genotype frequency (MGF); any SNPs with MAF < 0.1 or MGF > 0.9

were excluded to avoid spurious associations. A motivating example for the MGF filtering can be

seen in **S15 Fig**. We also generated an LD-trimmed SNP set by removing one SNP from each pair of

SNPs with a between SNP correlation coefficient (r^2) >0.2 in blocks of 50 SNPs using PLINK v1.9

[101], yielding 217,489 independent SNPs that were retained for analyses of population structure.

The first genotype principal component based on the set of independent SNPs was used as a

covariate in the linear model used by Matrix eQTL to account for the weak signature of population

structure. Permutation testing was used to determine eQTL significance whereby genotype sample

labels were permuted 1000 times and the maximum absolute t-statistic from Matrix eQTL was

recorded for each gene across all SNPs for each permutation. Empirical p-values were calculated

with the empPvals function in the qvalue v2.4.2 R package [102], and q-values (empirical FDR) were

calculated with the qvalue function in the same package.

When determining the genomic context of eSNPs, there were some cases where introns overlapped

exons as a result of overlapping gene model being present on the same strand. These 41 eSNPs were

discarded from the counting. Another type of overlap that was discarded were cases where an eSNP

overlapped a gene feature, but no sub-feature inside that gene (e.g. UTR, exon or intron). These

1961 eSNPs were excluded from the counting. Since many of the features overlap (e.g. exon and

untranslated regions), the priority for counting was untranslated region, exon/intron,

upstream/downstream and intergenic.

Co-expression

The R package WGCNA v1.51 [103] was used for constructing a co-expression network. The input

gene expression values were per-gene genotype means. We chose to use the unsigned network type

for this study with the motivation that we did not want to discard negative relationships. By looking

at this from an eQTL perspective, an eSNP can be positively associated with one gene while

negatively associated with another. The relationship between these two genes would be missed if we

used the signed or the signed-hybrid approaches. Using the unsigned approach, we assure that genes

with strong negative correlation end up in the same network modules. A soft thresholding power of

5 was used to calculate adjacencies. The topological overlap matrix (TOM) was generated using the

TOMsimilarity function with the signed approach in order to take negative edges into account (see

[103] for details). In order to identify network modules, hierarchical clustering was applied to the

TOM dissimilarity matrix $(1 - TOM)$ and the resulting dendrogram was divided into modules using

the cutreedynamic function. The connectivity of the network was then defined as the adjacency sum

for each node, i.e. the weights of the edges that are connected to this node. This concept was applied

to modules as well to obtain measures of intra- and inter-modular connectivity, i.e. the connectivity

based on edges connecting the gene with other genes inside the same module, and connectivity based

on edges connecting the gene with genes outside of the module.

To define the periphery of the network we applied a hard edge-threshold to the network where only

gene-pairs with an absolute Pearson correlation > 0.22 were linked, which corresponded to the top

1% most correlated gene pairs. Genes were then classed as peripheral if they linked to only one other

gene.

Conserved genes and *P. tremula*-specific genes were inferred from gene family analysis based on

protein sequence similarity available on the PopGenIE FTP server [104].

 Population genetic analysis

The minor allele frequency (MAF) was compared between eSNPs (both local and distant) and all

SNPs throughout the genome. To test for the signature of selection on eQTLs, we also estimate the

correlation between minor allele frequency and eQTL effect size. Furthermore, we estimated and

compared nucleotide diversity (θ_π) and Tajima's D [72] between eGenes and non-eGenes, as well as

genes locating at central or peripheral in the gene network (core and peripheral genes). We only used

the reads with mapping quality above 30 and the bases with quality score higher than 20 for the

estimation of θ_π and Tajima's D by ANGSD [105]. Genes with less than 50 covered sites left from

previous quality filtering steps (Wang et al. In prep) were excluded. In the end, there were 131 and

1,563 eGenes and non-eGenes that were located in module cores, respectively. Similarly there were

5,759 eGenes and 12,893 non-eGenes located the periphery of the gene expression network. In

addition, θ_π and Tajima's D were also calculated for 0-fold and 4-fold degenerate sites within genes,

representing non-synonymous and synonymous sites, respectively. We further compared the

estimates of $\theta_{0\text{-fold}}/\theta_{4\text{-fold}}$ between different categories of genes. We used the transcript with the

highest content of protein-coding sites to categorize synonymous and non-synonymous sites within

each gene. Finally, a total of 33,039 orthologous genes were determined by best BLASTp sequence

homology searches between *P. tremula* and *P. trichocarpa* [71,104]. We estimated the ratio of non-

synonymous substitution and synonymous substitution rate (d_N/d_S) using gKaKs pipeline [106] with

codeml method [107] for 133 and 1,599 orthologous eGenes and non-eGenes within module cores

of gene expression network, and for 5,758 and 12,828 orthologous eGenes and non-eGenes locating

at peripheral in the gene network. Significance for the above statistical measurements between each

pair of gene categories was evaluated using Mann-Whitney tests.

Acknowledgements

PKI has been supported by a grant from Vetenskapsrådet. JW was supported by a scholarship from the Chinese Scholarship Council. NRS is supported by the Trees and Crops for the Future (TC4F) project. The authors also would like to acknowledge support from the Science for Life Laboratory, the National Genomics Infrastructure (NGI), and the Uppsala Multidisciplinary Center for Advanced Computational Science (UPPMAX) for providing assistance in massive parallel sequencing and computational infrastructure. We thank Dr Kathryn Robinson for her help sampling material, for providing environmental data and for informative discussion.

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Figures

Fig 1. Population location and gene expression overview. (A) Map of the original locations of the SwAsp populations. The red arrow points to the location of the common garden used in this study. (B) Distribution of gene expression heritability. (C) Distribution of gene expression Q_{ST}. (D) Sample clustering based on all samples, including biological replicates. The heatmap represents the sample correlation matrix based on the 500 genes with the highest expression variance. Darker colour indicates higher correlation. The coloured bar represents the populations the samples belong to. The small clusters on the diagonal correspond to biological replicates of each genotype.

Fig 2. eQTL overview. (A) Expression variance explained *(R^2)* for local and distant eQTLs. Box plots show the maximum variance explained by a single eQTL for each gene and the total variance explained by all eQTLs for each gene. The widths of the boxes are proportional to the number of genes represented. The pairwise significiance of a Mann-Whitney test is indicated by asterisks: ***p < 0.001, **p < 0.01. (B) Genomic context of local and distant eSNPs. When an eSNP overlapped with features on both strands, both of them were counted. For both local and distant eQTLs the features are based on the gene that is closest to the eSNP, and furthermore, for local eQTLs, the features are divided into whether the eSNP is located in or near the same gene that it is associated to or not. Flanking regions represent 2 kb upstream and downstream from the gene. (C) Scatter plot showing the positions of all significant eQTLs in this study. No evidence of eQTL hotspots can be observed. Numbers indicate chromosome. (D) Broad sense heritability distributions for eGenes and non-

eGenes. (E) Manhattan plots for local eQTLs (upper) and distant eQTLs (lower). Each point

represents an eQTL.

Fig 3. Pairwise gene expression correlation distribution and co-expression characteristics of

eGenes. (A) Co-expression correlation distribution of all pairs of genes for the SwAsp data and the

exAtlas data. (B) Distribution of co-expression connectivity for eGenes and non-eGenes. (C)

Network module 23 and module 22 with core genes coloured blue and eGenes are indicated by

square nodes. In module 23 (upper network), all core genes are eGenes, while for module 22, there

are very few eGenes in the core. Red edges indicate negative correlation in expression while blue

edges indicate positive correlation. (D) eGene connectivity plotted against the total variance

explained of all eQTL associated with each eGene. Colors indicate the effect size where more blue

represents a more positive effect and red is a more negative effect.

Fig 4. Correlation within paralog pairs as a function of the number of eGenes in the paralog

pair. The widths of the boxes are proportional to the number of genes in each set. The mean

correlations for paralog pairs with 0, 1, or 2 eGenes were 0.17, 0.10, and 0.06, respectively. The

pairwise significance of a Mann-Whitney test is indicated by asterisks: ***$p < 0.001$, **$p < 0.01$.

Fig 5. Measures of diversity and divergence. eGenes and non-eGenes were contrasted, as well as

core and peripheral genes from the gene expression network. (A) Nucleotide diversity, (B) Tajima's

D, (C) $\theta_{0\text{-fold}}/\theta_{4\text{-fold}}$ and (D) d_N/d_S. Significance between each pair of gene categories was evaluated

using Mann-Whitney tests and significance is indicated by asterisks above the boxplot: ***$p < 0.001$,

**$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$, n.s. $p > 0.05$.

Supporting information

S1 File. GO enrichment analysis results. Contains GO enrichment results for local and distant

eGenes, network module cores, and subsets of genes with extreme H^2 and Q_{ST} values.

S2 File. Various gene statistics. Contains statistics for all genes, as well as all genes included in the

generation of the co-expression network and the eQTL mapping.

S1 Fig. Clustering of genotypes. (Left) Heatmap of the sample correlation matrix based on the 500

most variably expressed genes. Darker colour indicates higher correlation. The coloured bar

represents the populations the genotypes belong to. (Right) The two first principal components from

a principal component analysis (PCA) based on all genes. Again, colours represent the genotype

population. The percentages in the axis labels indicate the amount of variance explained by each

component.

S2 Fig. Correlations between gene expression principal components (PCs) and

environmental variables. The values in each tile represent the Pearson correlation between the

gene expression PC (x-axis) and environmental variable (y-axis). Small asterisks represent a nominal

p-value < 0.05 while large asterisks represent Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) adjusted p-values < 0.05.

The only factor with significant correlations to expression PCs was "Hours to harvest", which is the

number of hours into the sampling period that the buds were harvested. It was significantly

associated with PC4 (BH-adjusted p = $4.6{\times}10^{-6}$), PC7 (BH-adjusted p = 0.030) and PC2 (BH-

adjusted p = 0.033).

S3 Fig. Relationship between gene expression ranks and the number of genotypes with

detectable expression of the genes. The number of genotypes that a gene was expressed in was

determined by counting the number of genotypes with non-zero expression for each gene. The gene

expression ranks were calculated by ranking the mean gene expression values where the mean was

calculated only considering samples with non-zero expression.

S4 Fig. Distribution of local eSNPs relative to the gene that they are associated to. The zero-

position represents both the start and the end of the gene feature, i.e. intragenic features are not

shown.

S5 Fig. Heritability distributions for four non-overlapping sets of genes: genes with both local

and distant eQTLs, genes with only distant eQTLs, genes with only local eQTLs, and genes with no

significant eQTLs. The box widths are proportional to the number of genes in each set.

S6 Fig. eSNPs per eGene and eGenes per eSNP. (A) Bar plot of the number of associated

eGenes per eSNP. (B) Histogram of the number of associated eSNPs per eGene.

S7 Fig. Sliding window approach to detect eQTL hotspots. The upper panel shows the number

of eSNPs in genomic windows of 100 kb for each of the 19 chromosomes. The lower panel shows

the number of unique genes that are associated to each genomic window (nominal eQTL p-value <

1×10^{-6}).

S8 Fig. Gene expression variance plotted against co-expression network connectivity. eGenes

are indicated by red points.

S9 Fig. Minor allele frequency of eSNPs. (A) Comparison of minor allele frequency between all

SNPs, distant eSNPs and local eSNPs. (B) The relationship between minor allele frequency and

effect size (absolute value of beta) of eQTLs.

S10 Fig. Measures of diversity and selection for 0-fold and 4-fold degenerate sites. eGenes and

non-eGenes were contrasted, as well as genes in network module cores and those not. Panel (A) and

(B) show values of mean nucleotide diversity (θ_π) and Tajima's D for genes in each categories,

respectively. Significance of a Mann-Whitney test comparing each pair of gene categories is indicated

by asterisks above the boxplot: ***$p < 0.001$, **$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$, n.s. $p > 0.05$.

S11 Fig. Heatmap representing the sample clustering based on gene expression values after

hidden confounder removal. The 500 most variable genes in the original expression data were used

for calculating the sample correlations (i.e. the same genes as in **Fig 1**D). The colour bar represents

the population of the samples with the same colour scheme as in **Fig 1**D. The small clusters on the

diagonal represent genotype replicates.

S12 Fig. Representative photo of the sampled bud flush stage.

S13 Fig. Sampling time and day of bud flush. (A) Box plot distributions of the Julian day of

sampling for the SwAsp sub-populations. (B) The relationship between Julian day of bud flush for

the greenhouse sampled buds and Julian day of bud flush in the field for the same year (2012).

S14 Fig. The number of eQTLs detected for different levels of hidden confounder removal.

The y-axis shows the number of eQTLs detected at 5% FDR (prior to the empirical FDR

calculation). The x-axis shows the number of principal components regressed out of the gene

expression data.

S15 Fig. Motivating example for major genotype filtering. In this case the SNP is heterozygous

in all samples but one, resulting in a minor allele frequency close to 0.5, but a major genotype

frequency close to one. The resulting association turns out very significant, but is only supported by

a single sample.

A

Population Latitude

B

rho = 0.766, P < 0.001

Day of year (Greenhouse 2012)

Day of year (Field 2012)