Field microenvironments regulate crop diel transcript and metabolite rhythms

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Summary

- Most research in plant chronobiology was done in laboratory conditions. However, they usually fail to mimic natural conditions and their slight fluctuations, highlighting or obfuscating rhythmicity. High-density crops, such as sugarcane (*Saccharum* hybrid), generate field microenvironments with specific light and temperature due to mutual shading.

- We measured the metabolic and transcriptional rhythms in the leaves of 4-month-old (4 mo) and 9 mo sugarcane grown in the field. Most of the assayed rhythms in 9 mo sugarcane peaked >1 h later than in 4 mo sugarcane, including rhythms of the circadian clock gene, *LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL* (*LHY*).

- We hypothesized that older sugarcane perceives dawn later than younger sugarcane due to self-shading. As a test, we measured *LHY* rhythms in plants on the east and the west side of a field. We also tested if a wooden wall built between lines of sugarcane changed their rhythms. The *LHY* peak was delayed in the plants in the west of the field or beyond the wall; both shaded at dawn.

- We conclude that plants in the same field may have different phases due to field microenvironments, impacting important agronomical traits, such as flowering time, stalk weight and number.

Keywords: circadian clock, crops, field experiments, microenvironments, *Saccharum* hybrid, shading, sugarcane

Introduction

Plants are sessile organisms living in constantly changing environments. Some of those changes are rhythmic due to the movements of the tilted Earth around the sun, bringing seasons, and around itself, bringing day and night. The circadian oscillator is an adaptation for life in rhythmic environments. It is an internal regulatory network that allows plants to track the time of the day by generating responses on both metabolism and physiology levels. The ability to anticipate the rhythmic changes in the environment increases plants fitness (Green *et al.*, 2002; Dodd *et al.*, 2005). Plants that cannot keep their rhythms desynchronize with the environment and assimilate less carbon (C), accumulate less biomass and have lower water use efficiency (Dodd *et al.*, 2005).

The circadian oscillator network comprises a central oscillator, input pathways and output pathways. The central oscillator generates rhythms independently of environmental cues (zeitgebers), such as light and temperature. Input pathways continuously feed the central oscillator with internal and external information, synchronizing it with environmental rhythms (Webb *et al.*, 2019). Output pathways gather temporal information from the interactions between the central oscillator and the input pathways and translate it into timely regulated metabolic and physiologic responses. The plant central oscillator includes several interlocked feedback loops based on the regulation of transcription and translation. For example, dawn is marked by an increase in transcripts of *CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED 1* (*CCA1*, not found in monocots), *LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL* (*LHY*) and *REVEILLE 8* (*RVE8*) expression (Alabadí *et al.*, 2001; Rawat *et al.*, 2011; Gray *et al.*, 2017), which in turn regulate and are regulated by the expression of members of the PSEUDO RESPONSE REGULATOR (PRR) gene family during the day (Nakamichi *et al.*, 2010; Huang *et al.*, 2012). In monocots, this includes *PRR1*, *PRR37*, *PRR59*, *PRR73*, and *PRR95* (Hotta *et al.*, 2013; Calixto *et al.*, 2015; Dantas *et al.*, 2020). As LHY expression declines during the day, the expression of PRR1, usually called TIMING OF CAB

EXPRESSION (TOC1), increases, leading to a peak near dusk (Alabadí *et al.*, 2001). In

Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh., TOC1 degradation is regulated by an interplay between

ZEITLUPE (AtZTL) and GIGANTEA (AtGI) (Kim *et al.*, 2007; Cha *et al.*, 2017). In eudicots, a

protein complex called EVENING COMPLEX (EC) is composed of LUX ARRHTHMO (LUX),

EARLY FLOWERING 3 and 4 (ELF3 and ELF4) and is assembled during the night, repressing

many other central oscillator genes (Herrero *et al.*, 2012). The EC still needs to be confirmed in

monocots, even though *ELF3* is present and functional (Zhao *et al.*, 2012; Huang *et al.*, 2017).

Experiments done in laboratory conditions frequently fail to fully mimic natural conditions,

especially their rhythms (Annunziata *et al.*, 2017; Song *et al.*, 2018). For example, in rice (*Oryza*

sativa L.), mutations in homolog *OsGI* lead to a delay in flowering in short days and long days in

laboratory conditions. However, this phenotype was not observed in long days in the field (Izawa

et al., 2011). In *Arabidopsis*, flowering under artificial conditions does not fully mimic flowering

in nature due to the light quality and spectra and the temperature gradients found in natural

conditions (Song *et al.*, 2018). *Arabidopsis* that was grown under artificial light also had different

metabolic profiles than plants grown under natural light (Annunziata *et al.*, 2017). Rhythms in the

transcription of plants grown in natural conditions or the field are regulated by the circadian

oscillator and by changes in external conditions, such as temperature, light intensity, humidity,

and photoperiod, or internal conditions, such as plant age and plant physiology (Nagano *et al.*,

2012, 2019; Matsuzaki *et al.*, 2015; Panter *et al.*, 2019; Dantas *et al.*, 2020). A better

understanding of plant rhythms in the field is essential to translate this knowledge to agriculture

(Steed *et al.*, 2021).

Here we have measured metabolic and transcriptional rhythms in sugarcane leaves grown in the

field. We show that transcript and metabolite rhythms in 4-months-old (4 mo) sugarcane have

earlier peaks in the day than 9 mo sugarcane, with phase shifts ranging from 2 h to 12 h. These

phase shifts are correlated with changes in the peak of expression of circadian oscillator genes.

Such variation in the timing of the peaks was confirmed by experiments done on plants grown on

the east and west sides of the field or on plants that were separated by a wooden wall. We

conclude that external rhythms in field microenvironments regulate metabolite rhythms and

transcripts associated with the sugarcane circadian oscillator.

Materials and Methods

Field conditions, plant growth, and harvesting

All three assayed sugarcane fields were located in the same area, at the Federal University of São

Carlos, campus Araras, in São Paulo state, Brazil (22°21′25″ S, 47°23′3″ W; altitude of 611 m).

The soil was classified as a Typic Eutroferric Red Latosol. Sugarcane from the commercial

variety SP80 3280 (*Saccharum* hybrid) was used in all experiments. The environmental

conditions for the three experiments were collected from a local weather station or from within

the field using a handheld lux meter and a thermometer at the height of the leaves (Fig. S1). Light

intensity was measured with the sensor parallel to the ground. Plants were sampled every 2 h for

26 h, starting 1.5 h before dawn. The leaves +1 of nine sugarcane individuals were harvested and

separated into three pools for all experiments, each with three individuals, and each pool was

considered a biological replicate. The leaves +1 are the first fully photosynthetically active leaf in

sugarcane. Each sampling took less than 30 min, and the harvested tissue was immediately frozen

in liquid nitrogen. In the first experiment, sugarcane was planted in April/2012 and sampled in

August/2012 (4-months-old), during winter, and in January/2013 (9-months-old), during summer.

In the winter harvesting, dawn was at 6:30, and dusk was 18:00 (11.5 h day/12.5 h night). In

summer harvesting, dawn was at 5:45, and dusk was 19:00 (13.3 h day/10.7 h night). For the

second experiment (east and west margins), plants were planted in October/2014 and harvested in

March/2015 (5 months old) (12.0 h day/12.0 h night). In the third experiment, plants (the wall

experiment) were also planted in October/2014 but harvested in April/2015 (6 months old) (11.3

h day/12.7 h night). The orientation of the sugarcane was north to south. In the wall experiment, a

2 m high wall made of plywood sheets was built between the first and the second rows on the east

side of the field two days before harvest day. The time of harvesting was normalized to a

photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night using the following equations to compare the rhythms of

samples harvested in different seasons: for times during the daytime, $ZT = 12*T*Pd^{-1}$, where

ZT is the normalized time, T is the time from dawn (in hours), and Pd is the length of the day (in

hours); for times during the nighttime, $ZT = 12 + 12*(T - Pd)*Pn^{-1}$, where ZT is the

normalized time, T is the time from dawn (in hours), Pd is the length of the day (in hours), and Pn

is the length of the night (in hours).

Metabolome

Metabolites were extracted from all 3 biological replicates. First, 50 mg of the grounded tissue

was used for MTBE: methanol: water 3:1:1 (v/v/v) extraction, as described previously

(Giavalisco *et al.*, 2011). Next, the 100 μl of the organic phase was dried and derivatized as

previously described (Roessner *et al.*, 2001). Finally, 1 μl of the derivatized samples were

analyzed on a Combi-PAL autosampler (Agilent Technologies, St. Clara, USA) coupled to an

Agilent 7890 gas chromatograph coupled to a Leco Pegasus 2 time-of-flight mass spectrometer

(LECO, St. Joseph, MI, USA) in both split (1:40) and splitless modes (Weckwerth *et al.*, 2004;

Ferreira *et al.*, 2018). Chromatograms were exported from Leco ChromaTOF software (version

3.25) to R-3.1.x (R Core Team, 2021). Peak detection, retention time alignment, and library

matching were performed using *Target Search R-package* (Cuadros-Inostroza *et al.*, 2009).

Metabolites were quantified by the peak intensity of a selective mass. Metabolites intensities were

normalized by dividing the fresh-weight, followed by the sum of total ion count and global outlier

replacement as described previously (Giavalisco *et al.*, 2011). Each metabolite value was further

normalized to Z-score. The principal component analysis was performed using *pcaMethods*

Bioconductor R package. Data ellipses were drawn for the samples harvested during the day and

the night (0.85 confidence level).

Oligoarray hybridizations

Oligoarrays were hybridized as described before (Hotta *et al.*, 2013; Dantas *et al.*, 2020). Briefly,

frozen samples were pulverized in dry, and 100 mg were used for total RNA extraction using

Trizol (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA). The RNA was treated with DNase I (Life

Technologies, Carlsbad, USA) and cleaned using the RNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden,

Germany) following the supplier's recommendations. The total RNA quality was assayed using

an Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit Bioanalyzer chip (Agilent Technologies, St. Clara, USA).

Labelling was done following the Low Input Quick Amp Labelling protocol of the Two-Color

Microarray-Based Gene Expression Analysis system (Agilent Technologies, St. Clara, USA).

Hybridizations were done using a custom 4×44 k oligoarray (Agilent Technologies, St. Clara,

USA) previously described (Lembke *et al.*, 2012; Hotta *et al.*, 2013). Two hybridizations were

done for each time point against an equimolar pool of all samples of each organ. Each duplicate

was prepared independently using dye swaps. Data were extracted using the Feature Extraction

software (Agilent Technologies, St. Clara, USA). Background correction was applied to each

dataset. A nonlinear LOWESS normalization was also applied to the datasets to minimize

variations due to experimental manipulation. Signals that were distinguishable from the local

background signal were taken as an indication that the corresponding transcript was expressed.

The GenBank IDs of all sugarcane genes mentioned here can be found in the Supplemental

Material (Table S1). The complete dataset can be found at the Gene Expression Omnibus public

database under the accession number GSE129543 and GSE171222.

Data analysis

For further analysis, only expressed transcripts in more than 6 of the 12 time points were

considered to be expressed. Identification of rhythmic transcripts was made using an algorithm

described in previous work (Dantas *et al.*, 2020). Analyses were done in R-3.1.x (R Core Team,

2021). All the time series from expressed transcripts were grouped in co-expressed modules using

the R package *weighted correlation network analysis* (*WGCNA*) (Langfelder & Horvath, 2008)

with the same parameters as before (Dantas *et al.*, 2020). Co-expression modules were considered

rhythmic or non-rhythmic using JTK-CYCLE (*P*-value of < 0.75) (Hughes *et al.*, 2010). LOESS

(locally estimated scatterplot smoothing) regression was used to establish the timing of the peak,

or the phase, of each rhythmic time series (Dantas *et al.*, 2019). As controls, we also analyzed

rhythms using only JTK-Cycle (*P*-value of < 0.05) (Hughes *et al.*, 2010) and identified only

transcripts with significant gene expression profile differences using the R package *maSigPro*

(Nueda *et al.*, 2014). Euler diagrams were done using the R package *eulerr*. Code to fully

reproduce our analysis is available on GitHub (https://github.com/LabHotta/Microenvironments)

and archived on Zenodo (http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4645464).

RT-qPCR analysis

Frozen leaf samples were pulverized on dry ice using a coffee grinder (Model DCG-20, Cuisinart,

Stamford, USA). 100 mg of each pulverized samples were used for total RNA extractions using

Trizol (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA), according to the manufacturer's protocol. Total RNA

was treated with DNase I (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, USA) and cleaned using the RNeasy

Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen). Both RNA quality and concentration were checked using Agilent RNA

6000 Nano Kit Bioanalyzer chip (Agilent Technologies, St. Clara, USA). 5 µg of the purified

RNA was used in the reverse transcription reactions using the SuperScript III First-Strand

Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Life Technologies Cuisinart). The RT-qPCR reactions were done

using Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Waltham, USA), 10× diluted

cDNA, and specific primers as previously described (Hotta *et al.*, 2013). Reactions were placed in

96-well plates and read with the Fast 7500/7500 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems,

Waltham, USA). Ct determination was performed using the Fast 7500/7500 Real-Time PCR

System built-in software (Applied Biosystems, Waltham, USA). The $2^{-\Delta CT}$ method was used to

calculate relative expression, using *GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE*

(*ScGAPDH*) as a reference gene (Hotta *et al.*, 2013). All primers used can be found in the

Supplemental Material (Table S2).

Results

We have measured transcriptional rhythms of leaves, internodes 1&2 and internodes 5 of 9-

months-old (9 mo) commercial sugarcane (*Saccharum* hybrid, cultivar SP80 3280) grown in a

field in previous work (Dantas *et al.*, 2020). We noticed that the circadian clock gene *LATE*

ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL (*ScLHY*) peaked hours after dawn, which is unusual, as this gene is

light-induced in *Arabidopsis* (Mockler *et al.*, 2007). To further investigate this disparity, we

measured *ScLHY* rhythms in 4 mo sugarcane leaves that had been harvested from the same field

(Fig. 1a). *ScLHY* peaked 0.2 h after dawn in 4 mo sugarcane leaves but peaked 2.7 h after dawn in

9 mo sugarcane leaves (Fig. 1b). We also observed a second *ScLHY* peak that starts increasing

between 18.0 h and 20.0 h in 4 mo sugarcane (Fig. 1b). In contrast, *ScTOC1* peaked at 11.0 h and

11.3 h after dawn in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves, respectively (Fig. 1b). All plants were

harvested from the middle of the field to avoid margin effects.

Fig. 1. Sugarcane leaves have different *ScLHY* phases in field-grown sugarcane. (a) Leaves from
sugarcane grown for 4 months old (mo) (upper photo) and 9 mo (lower photo) in the field were harvested
for 26 h. Bar = 0.5 m. **(b)** Leaves from sugarcane grown for 4 mo and 9 mo in the field were harvested for
26 h. (A) Diel rhythms of *LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL* (*ScLHY*) and *TIME OF CAB EXPRESSION*
1 (*ScTOC1*) in the leaves of 4 mo (dark green) and 9 mo (light green) sugarcane leaves. When sugarcane is
4 months old (left), there is little shading between plants. In comparison, 9 mo sugarcane shade each other
when the sun is at a low angle (right). Bar = 0.5 m. All biological replicates and their LOESS curve
(continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the maximum value of the LOESS
curve. Time series were normalized using Z-score. To compare the rhythms of samples harvested in
different seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The
light-grey boxes represent the night periods. Transcript levels were measured using RT-qPCR. Relative
expression was determined using *GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE*
(*ScGAPDH*).

To check if other transcriptional rhythms showed a peak change similar to *ScLHY*, we used

custom Agilent oligoarrays to measure transcript accumulation in 4 mo sugarcane leaves. We

used the transcriptomic data to detect rhythms in 4 mo sugarcane leaves using WGCNA to

generate co-expression modules and JTK-Cycle to identify rhythmic modules (Fig. S2). There

were 8,553 expressed transcripts in 4 mo sugarcane leaves, 86% of the expressed transcripts

found in 9 mo sugarcane leaves (9,891) (Fig. 2a). We considered 4,143 of the expressed

transcripts were rhythmic in 4 mo sugarcane leaves (48.4%), lower than in 9 mo sugarcane leaves

(68.3%, Fig. S3a). About half of the transcripts that were rhythmic in both 4 mo and 9 mo

sugarcane leaves peaked earlier in the older plants (51.5%), whilst 48.2% peaked within 1 h of

each other (1.65 ± 1.8 h, median ± MA, n = 4,110) (Fig. 2b). Thus, the phase changes can be seen

in transcripts peaking during the whole 24 h cycle, and not just at the same time as *ScLHY* peaks

(Fig. S3b). These phase changes were also observed using only JTK-Cycle to identify rhythmic

transcripts with phase estimates using JTK_Cycle (1.56 ± 1,9 h, median ± MA, n = 1,014) or

using LOESS (3.62 ± 0.4 h, median ± MA, n = 1014) (Figs S4a-d). If only transcripts with

significant gene expression profile differences identified with maSigPro were used, the phases

differences were 1.65 ± 1.7 h (median ± MA, n = 1,539) using LOESS, and 1.55 ± 2.1 h (median

± MA, n = 527) using JTK-Cycle (Fig. S4e).

Fig. 2. Field-grown sugarcane has transcriptional rhythms with different phases. Leaves from sugarcane grown for 4 months old (4 mo) and 9 mo in the field were harvested for 26 h. **(a)** Euler diagrams of all expressed transcripts and expressed transcripts that are rhythmic in 4 mo (dark green) and 9 mo (light green) sugarcane leaves in diel conditions. **(b)** Distribution of phase differences between rhythmic transcripts from 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane. Phase differences under ±1 h are not considered significant (red dashed line). **(c)** The proportion of rhythmic transcripts in different functional categories in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves. The size of the circles shows the total number of expressed transcripts in each category. The colour of the circles shows if there is an increase in the proportion of rhythmic transcripts in 4 mo

(light green) or in 9 mo sugarcane leaves (dark green). The dotted lines represent the proportion of
rhythmic transcripts among all annotated transcripts. **(d***) FLOWERING LOCUS D* (*ScFLD*), **(e)** *SHORT*
VEGETATIVE-1 (*ScSVP*-1), (**f**) *SUPPRESSOR OF CONSTANS OVEREXPRESSION* (*ScSOC1*), and (**g**)
FLOWERING LOCUS T (*ScFT*) rhythms measured in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane. All biological replicates
and their LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the
maximum value of the LOESS curve. Time series were normalized using Z-score. To compare the rhythms
of samples harvested in different seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of
12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes represent the night periods.

Among the other central oscillator genes investigated, *PSEUDO RESPONSE REGULATOR 73*

(*ScPRR73*), *ScPRR59*, *ScGI*, *REVEILLE 8* (*ScRVE8*) and *EARLY FLOWERING 3* (*ScELF3*) also

peaked at similar times in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves, while *ScPRR95* had an earlier peak (-

2.6 h) in 9 mo sugarcane leaves (Fig. S5). We also have analyzed the proportion of rhythmic

transcripts in different functional categories (Figs 2c and S3c). The *Circadian Clock*,

ABA/drought signalling, *Gibberellin Signalling*, *Transporters*, and *Flowering* are examples of

functional categories with a higher proportion of rhythmic transcripts than the average.

Conversely, *Chromatin Remodeling* and *RNA Synthesis and processing* are functional categories

with lower rhythmic transcripts than the average. Among the disproportionately rhythmic

categories in either 4 mo or 9 mo sugarcane leaves, *Auxin Signalling* and *Ethylene Signalling*

have a higher proportion of rhythmic transcripts in 4 mo sugarcane leaves. In comparison, *Protein*

Synthesis has a higher proportion of rhythmic transcripts in 9 mo sugarcane leaves (Figs 2c and

S3c).

One important pathway that could be affected by phase changes in rhythmic genes is flowering

signalling. Several sugarcane genes associated with flowering had their transcription patterns

changed. For example, *FLOWERING LOCUS D* (*ScFLD*), a histone acetylase, is only expressed

in 9 mo sugarcane leaves, with a peak at ZT9 (Fig. 2d). Mutation of *FLD* in Arabidopsis (He *et*

al., 2003) and RNA interference of its homolog in rice(Shibaya *et al.*, 2016) delays flowering.

The flowering genes: *CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENIC 1* (*ScCOP1*) (Tanaka *et al.*,

2011), *CYCLING DOF FACTOR1* (*ScCDF1*)(Higgins *et al.*, 2010), *SHORT VEGETATIVE*

(*ScSVP-1* and *-3*) (Higgins *et al.*, 2010), *SUPPRESSOR OF CONSTANS OVEREXPRESSION 1*

(*ScSOC1*) (Higgins *et al.*, 2010), *FLOWERING LOCUS T* (Sc*FT*) (Abdul-Awal *et al.*, 2020), and

APETALA (*ScAP1*) (Preston & Kellogg, 2006) peak an average 2 h earlier in 4 mo sugarcane

leaves, except for *ScSVP-2* (Figs 2e-f and S6).

We also measured metabolite rhythms in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves (Fig. 3). The metabolic

profiles of plants harvested during the day and the night cluster separately, except for the leaves

harvested 21 h after dawn (zeitgeber time 21, ZT21) in 4 mo sugarcane and leaves harvested at

ZT01 in 9 mo sugarcane (Fig. 3a). 31 out of 57 metabolites (54.4%) were found rhythmic in 4 mo

sugarcane leaves, whereas 33 out of 51 metabolites (64.7%) were found rhythmic in 9 mo

sugarcane leaves. Most of the 20 metabolites that were rhythmic in both plants (75%) peaked

later in 9 mo sugarcane (Figs 3b and S7). Thus, the phase changes observed in *ScLHY*, but not in

ScTOC1, are also widespread among transcriptional and metabolic rhythms. Only 2 metabolites,

Sucrose and myo-Inositol, peaked later in 4 mo sugarcane than in 9 mo sugarcane (Figs 3b and

S8a). As myo-Inositol has a broader peak, possibly due to a second peak, in 4 mo sugarcane

compared to 9 mo sugarcane, this phase-estimate might not be accurate (Fig. S8a). Three

metabolites peaked within a 1 h difference (Figs 3d and S8b-c), 10 metabolites peaked 1.5 h to 6

h later in 9 mo sugarcane (Fig. 3e and Fig. S9), and 5 metabolites peaked 8 h to 13 h later in 9 mo

sugarcane (Figs 3f and S10). The atypical night peak seen in *ScLHY* was also observed in

metabolites such as Alanine (Fig. 3e), Phenylalanine (Fig. S8b), Leucine (Fig. S9b) and Glycerate

(Fig. S9e).

(dark green) and 9 mo plants (light green). **(g)** When sugarcane is 4 months old (left), there is little shading
between plants. In comparison, 9 mo sugarcane shade each other when the sun is at a low angle (right). All
biological replicates (circles in 4 mo or triangles in 9 mo) and their LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE)
are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the maximum value of the LOESS curve. Metabolite levels
were normalized with Z-score. To compare the rhythms of samples harvested in different seasons, the time
of harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes represent
the night period.

In Arabidopsis, *AtLHY* is responsive to light and temperature, marking the perception of dawn by

the plant circadian oscillator(Martínez-García *et al.*, 2000; Gould *et al.*, 2006). Thus, we

hypothesized that the observed phase changes result from the circadian oscillator of 9 mo

sugarcane perceiving dawn later than 4 mo sugarcane due to shading effects from neighbouring

plants. While young sugarcane plants interact little with their neighbours due to their short height,

mature sugarcane plants usually grow densely surrounded by other plants and senescent leaves

(Fig. 1a), shading each other, and making it difficult for low angle sunlight to reach leaves

uniformly in the entire field (Fig. 3g). This hypothesis also explains why the metabolic profile of

9 mo sugarcane leaves harvested at ZT01, before the *ScLHY* peak, was closer to the leaves

harvested during the night than the plants harvested during the day (Fig. 3a).

If our hypothesis were correct, plants that grow on the east side, which receives direct sunlight at

dawn, and the west side of a field would have *ScLHY* rhythms with different phases (Fig. 4a).

Using leaves from 6 mo plants, we estimated that *ScLHY* from sugarcane peaked 0.6 h after dawn

on the east side of the field and 1 h later on the west side (Fig. 4b). Light levels were also around

1 h late on the west side in the morning (Fig. S1c). Moreover, the *ScLHY* transcript levels

changed around 800 x during the day in sugarcane on the east side and 350 x in sugarcane on the

west side. The peak of ScLHY was 4.5 x higher in sugarcane on the east side, affecting the phase

and amplitude of downstream rhythms (Ni *et al.*, 2009). *ScPRR73* and *ScPRR37* on the east side

show one broad peak, while they have two smaller peaks on the west side (Figs S11a,b). In

contrast, *ScTOC1* rhythms had similar phases (Fig. 4b). We concluded that the location of a plant within a field could change the perception of dawn by the circadian clock due to differences in the inner field microenvironment, even if no developmental differences between plants on each side of the field could be detected. In a similar experiment, grape berries (*Vitis vinifera* L.) harvested from the east and the west side of a vine had different phases in sucrose rhythms (Reshef *et al.*, 2019).

To further confirm our hypothesis, we created artificial shading by building a wooden wall between the first two lines of 5 mo sugarcane on the east side of the field (Fig. 4c). The wall was built two days before harvesting to avoid developmental effects and any long-term shade avoidance responses caused by shading. Plants ahead the wall received direct sunlight at dawn, while plants beyond the wall received direct sunlight 0.7 h later (Fig. S1e), affecting the local temperature (Fig. S1f). In sugarcane growing ahead of the wall, *ScLHY* expressed in leaves peaked 1.1 h after dawn, whereas *ScLHY* peaked 2.4 h after dawn in leaves beyond the wall (Fig. 4d). The *ScLHY* transcript levels changed 400 x during the day in sugarcane ahead of the wall and 950x in sugarcane beyond the wall. The peak of *ScLHY* was 1.7 x higher in sugarcane ahead of the wall. The *ScPRR73* and *ScPRR37* amplitudes are lower in sugarcane beyond the wall. *ScPRR37* also peaks 1.3 h later in sugarcane beyond the wall (Figs S11c,d). *ScTOC1* peaked at the same time in both conditions (Fig. 4d). These last two experiments show that the phase changes seen in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves are not a consequence of seasonal or developmental differences, as plants of the same age that were harvested simultaneously were used. Combining the three experiments, the peaks of *ScLHY* and *ScTOC1* happened 10.4 ± 0.5 h (n = 3) apart in plants not subjected to shading at dawn, and 8.7 ± 0.5 h (n = 3) apart in plants shaded at dawn, which could be enough to trigger photoperiodic responses.

Fig. 4. Sugarcane leaves have different *ScLHY* phases when shaded at dawn. (a) Leaves from
sugarcane grown on the east side (upper photo) and the west side (bottom photo) of the field were
harvested for 26 h. Bar = 0.5 m. **(b)** Diel rhythms of *LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL* (*ScLHY*) and
TIME OF CAB EXPRESSION 1 (*ScTOC1*) in the leaves of sugarcane grown on the east side (purple) and
the west side (pink) of the field. **(c)** Leaves from sugarcane grown before a wooden wall and after the
wooden wall were harvested for 26 h. The photo was taken 1 h after dawn and horizontally flipped. Bar =
0.5 m. **(d)** Diel rhythms of *ScLHY* and *ScTOC1* in sugarcane leaves grown ahead of the wall (dark blue)
and beyond the wall (light blue). All biological replicates and their LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE)
are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the maximum value of the LOESS curve. Time series were
normalized using Z-score. To compare the rhythms of samples harvested in different seasons, the time of
harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes represent
the night periods. Transcript levels were measured using RT-qPCR. Relative expression was determined
using *GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE* (*ScGAPDH*).

Discussion

We found that the location of a plant within a field can change the perception of dawn by the

circadian clock due to differences in field microenvironments. The circadian clock regulates

carbon allocation, which may impact agronomic traits (Yazdanbakhsh *et al.*, 2011; Kölling *et al.*,

2015). Among the circadian clock genes, only *ScLHY* and *ScPRR95* had their phase changed

when comparing 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves, explaining why only half of the rhythmic

genes had phase changes. However, change in the expression of these two genes can trigger

changes that affect the timing of a vast number of output rhythms, as hundreds of genes are

regulated directly by *AtLHY* and *AtPRR95* in Arabidopsis (Harmer *et al.*, 2000; Liu *et al.*, 2016;

Adams *et al.*, 2018).

Diel rhythms could be driven by environmental rhythms, the circadian oscillator, or their synergic

combination. Among the external factors, temperature, light quality and quantity, photoperiod

and photosynthesis are known to be essential regulators of plant rhythms (Martínez-García *et al.*,

2000; Gould *et al.*, 2006; Frank *et al.*, 2018; Dantas *et al.*, 2019). While it is tempting to attribute

the phase differences to light, temperature may be an important factor driving sugarcane rhythms.

In *Brachypodium dystachion* (L.) P. Beauv., another grass species, changes in temperatures were

found to be the main environmental cue driving rhythmic behaviour (Matos *et al.*, 2014;

MacKinnon *et al.*, 2020). In sugarcane, temperature also regulates the rate of *ScLHY* isoform

formation by alternative splicing (Dantas *et al.*, 2019). Temperature rhythms were very different

when 4 mo sugarcane was harvested (temperature between 10°C and 27°C) from when 9 mo

sugarcane was harvested (temperature range between 16°C and 30°C) (Fig. S1b). This

temperature difference may also explain the differences in the number of rhythmic transcripts and

metabolites (Pyl *et al.*, 2012; Annunziata *et al.*, 2018). In Arabidopsis, differences in

temperatures affected the levels of *AtLHY*, *AtCCA1* and *AtPRR9* (a probable ortholog of

ScPRR95), which included a delay in peak time (Bieniawska *et al.*, 2008; Gould *et al.*, 2013;

Annunziata *et al.*, 2018). We should also stress that the 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves were

under different photoperiods (11.5 h day/12.5 h and 13.3 h day/10.7 h night, respectively), which

could be another factor explaining some differences among rhythms, as seen in *Arabidopsis*

halleri subsp. *gemmifera* (Matsum.) O'Kane & Al-Shehbaz in natural conditions (Nagano *et al.*,

2019). However, plants in the other experiments were harvested at the same time.

Sugarcane rhythms may also be regulated by shade avoidance responses, as the R: FR ratio could

be altered due to shading from other plants. Even though little is known about the regulation of

the circadian clock by shade-avoidance responses, changes in plant density have been correlated

to changes in the circadian clock genes. In *Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench. at high and low

densities, changes in transcription levels of *SbLHY* and *SbTOC1* were correlated with differences

in internode length (Kebrom *et al.*, 2020). As only one time point was sampled in that study, if

sorghum had similar phase differences as the ones we detected, they would be seen as differences

in expression levels, as seen when only one timepoint is considered in our experiments (Fig. S12).

When row spacings in sugarcane fields were changed between 1.5 m and 2.3 m, cane yields (t/ha)

were maintained, as the stalk numbers and weight would change in response to different plant

densities (Garside *et al.*, 2009; Chiluwal *et al.*, 2018).

Microenvironment changes due to shading also affect photosynthesis. In *Arabidopsis*,

photosynthetic soluble sugars have been shown to regulate the circadian oscillator (Haydon *et al.*,

2013; Frank *et al.*, 2018). Hence, the phase changes seen in *ScLHY* could be driven by changes in

photosynthesis or, specifically, by carbon assimilation into sucrose. Moreover, photosynthesis is

one of the factors that impact rhythms in gene expression in *A. halleri* subsp. *gemmifera* in

natural conditions (Nagano *et al.*, 2019). It is unclear how the circadian oscillator and metabolites

rhythms are interconnected in sugarcane. However, Sucrose was one of the only metabolites with

an earlier phase in the leaves of 9 mo sugarcane (Figs 3b,c). Indeed, Sucrose levels in the first 4 h

of the day were similar in 4 mo and 9 mo plants. Thus, Sucrose from photosynthesis might not be

the factor explaining the observed phase changes, but our analysis only covered a few

photosynthetic metabolites. As rhythmic differences in Sucrose were distinct from the changes

observed in other metabolites, it is possible that it is dependent on a different internal or external

factor. One possible explanation is a reduction of the photosynthesis in the afternoon due to

shading of sugarcane in the middle of the field, or the inhibition of photosynthesis due to Sucrose

accumulation in the leaves and internodes (McCormick *et al.*, 2008).

In 4 mo sugarcane leaves, *ScLHY* and other transcripts showed an unexpected transcriptional peak

in the middle of the night in 4 mo sugarcane (Figs 1b and S3a). We do not know what could have

triggered this peak in transcript expression, but metabolites, such as Alanine, Glycerate and

Phenylalanine, showed the same peak. A similar peak in the middle of the night was found in

Coffea arabica L. and attributed to moonlight effects (Breitler *et al.*, 2020). In our experiment,

the increase in transcriptional and metabolic levels during the night started minutes after the

crescent moon was set (ZT17-18). Thus, we do not think moonlight or other artificial lights with

similar intensity or spectrum were the factors driving these increases. However, this night peak of

unknown origin shows that metabolites and transcripts are interconnected and that the metabolic

changes brought by photosynthesis and light signalling are not the only force driving rhythms

during the day. For example, we have seen significant phase shifts in metabolites (> 8h) between

4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane. The differences, seen in Glutamate, GABA, Serine, 5-Oxoproline,

Tagatose and GABA (Figs 3f, S9i and S10), may be due to differences in plant age. In *Nicotiana*

tabacum (L.), a similar phase change was observed in the rhythms of Glutamate and GABA in the

sink and the source leaves (Masclaux-Daubresse *et al.*, 2002). This change was associated with

the rhythmic expression of *GLUTAMATE DEHYDROGENASE 1* (*NtGDH1*) in the source leaves

but no expression in sink leaves. In 4 mo sugarcane, an *ScGDH1* was arrhythmic, with expression

below the detection levels in many time points (Fig. S5i). In 9 mo sugarcane, *ScGDH1* was

rhythmic, and expression was above detection levels in all time points.

Flowering is a necessary process that could be affected by phase changes in rhythmic genes. As

the vegetative stage is harvested, flowering is usually undesired in sugarcane, as it reduces

sucrose yield due to decreased growth, increased side-shoot production, and pithiness (Rao,

1977). Sugarcane enters the reproductive phase in response to the shortening of the photoperiod

over 15 days, and just a 0.5 h difference in photoperiod can trigger flowering in most genotypes

(Midmore, 1980; Moore & Berding, 2013; Glassop *et al.*, 2014). Thus, the correct measurement

of dawn and dusk is essential for flowering in sugarcane. Among those genes, *ScSVP*-1, *ScSVP*-3,

ScSOC1, *ScFT*, and *ScCDF1* peak before dawn in 4 mo sugarcane leaves and after dawn in 9 mo

sugarcane leaves (Figs 2e-g and S6). In Arabidopsis, AtLHY and AtCCA1 reduce AtSVP protein

levels, a repressor of flowering (Fujiwara *et al.*, 2008). A change in the relative phase between

ScLHY and *ScSVP* may change the ScSVP protein levels, impacting flowering. We also found

that *ScPRR37* and *ScPRR73* show different expression patterns in plants shaded in the morning

that could be explained by the changes in the phase of two peaks during the day. In sorghum, the

second peak in *SbPRR37*, during the evening, regulates flowering (Murphy *et al.*, 2011). Thus,

neighbour shading could trigger flowering earlier than the actual critical photoperiod. In

sugarcane, the spindle, a whorl of immature leaves on the top of the plant, perceives photoperiod,

which could be a strategy to reduce the effects of shading from neighbour plants (Moore &

Berding, 2013; Glassop *et al.*, 2014; Glassop & Rae, 2019).

The circadian clock increases the productivity of plants when its phase matches the phase of

environmental rhythms (Dodd *et al.*, 2005). It is usually accepted that the rhythms of plants under

the same photoperiod have matching phases. However, we have evidence that field

microenvironmental rhythms and not astronomical rhythms regulate the plant circadian oscillator

of plants in natural, fluctuating conditions and transcriptional and metabolic rhythms. This

phenomenon can probably be observed in plants grown in natural or artificial environments, such

as crops, forests, and gardens, with microenvironments. Thus, rhythms in field

microenvironments are another factor to consider when translating knowledge from the lab to the

field, especially agriculture.

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Author Contributions

Conceptualization, LLBD, MSC, CTH; Methodology, LLBD, CTH; Software, CTH, MYN;

Validation, LLBD, NOL; Investigation, LLBD, NOL, CTH, CC; Resources, MSC, C. C.; Data

Curation, CTH, MYN; Writing – Original Draft, LLBD, CTH; Writing – Review & Editing,

LLBD, MSC, CC, CTH; Visualization; C. T. H.; Project Administration, CTH; Funding

Acquisition, CTH.

Data availability

The complete dataset can be found at the Gene Expression Omnibus public database under the

accession number GSE129543 and GSE171222. Code to fully reproduce our analysis is available

on GitHub (https://github.com/LabHotta/Microenvironments) and archived on Zenodo

(http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4645464).

Competing Interests

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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Supplemental Figure 1

Fig. S1 – Environmental conditions in Araras (SP, Brazil). (a) Light intensity and **(b)**
temperature on the day of harvesting 4 months old (4 mo) (green) and 9 mo (light green)
sugarcane. Data was taken from a meteorological station nearby the sugarcane field, which
underestimates microenvironmental changes. **(c)** Light intensity and **(d)** temperature on the day of
harvesting 6 mo sugarcane in the east (purple) or the west side (pink) of the field. Data was taken
from a handheld light meter and thermometer next to the plants inside the field. **(e)** Light intensity
and **(f)** temperature on the day of harvesting 5 mo sugarcane in the east side of the field (dark
blue) and sugarcane shaded by an artificial wall (light blue). Data was taken from a handheld
light meter and thermometer next to the plants inside the field. All data and their LOESS curve
(continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the maximum value of the
LOESS curve. To compare the rhythms of samples harvested in different seasons, the time of
harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes
represent the night period.

Supplemental Figure 2

Fig. S2 – Rhythmic co-expression modules that were identified in 4-months-old sugarcane
leaves. Weighted correlation network analysis was used to group co-expressed transcripts in
modules. Rhythmic modules were identified using JTK-cycle. The time course generated from
the median of all time points is in red.

Supplemental Figure 3

Fig. S3 – ~~Rhythmic co-expression modules that were identified in 4-months-old sugarcane leaves.~~ ~~9-months-old sugarcane has more rhythmic transcripts than 4-months-old sugarcane.~~ **(a)** The number of expressed and rhythmic transcripts detected in the leaves of 4-months-old (4 mo) and 9 mo sugarcane in field-grown (diel) conditions and 3 mo leaves in circadian conditions published in Hotta et al. (2013)(Hotta *et al.*, 2013). **(b)** Distribution of the peak time of rhythmic transcripts in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane. **(c)** Distribution of the functional categories of expressed and rhythmic transcripts in 4 mo (dark green) and 9 mo (light green) sugarcane.

Supplemental Figure 4

Fig. S4 – Phase changes between rhythmic transcripts in 4-month-old and 9-month-old
sugarcane leaves. (a-b) Rhythmic transcripts were identified using JTK-Cycle (blue) and
compared with the WGCNA and JTK-Cycle used in Dantas et al. (2020) transcripts (red) in **(a)** 4-
month-old (4 mo) and **(b)** 9 mo sugarcane leaves using Euler diagrams. **(c)** Euler diagram of the
rhythmic transcripts identified by JTK-Cycle in 4 mo (dark green) and 9 mo sugarcane leaves
(green). **(c-d)** Distribution of phase differences between rhythmic transcripts from 4 mo and 9 mo
sugarcane using **(d)** JTK-Cycle and **(e)** maSigPro. Phase differences were estimated using JTK-
Cycle (red) or LOESS (blue). Differences under ±1 h are not considered significant (red dashed
line).

Supplemental Figure 5

Fig. S5 – Rhythms of circadian clock genes and N metabolism genes in the leaves of 4
months old and 9 months old sugarcane. Rhythms were measured using custom Agilent oligo
arrays in the leaves of 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane grown in the field. All biological replicates and
their LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the
maximum value of the LOESS curve. Time series were normalized using Z-score. To compare
the rhythms of samples harvested in different seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was
normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes represent the night
periods.

Fig. S6 – Rhythms of genes associated with flowering in the leaves of 4 months old and 9
months old sugarcane. Rhythms of **(a)** *CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENIC 1* (*ScCOP1*),
(b) *CYCLING DOF FACTOR1* (*ScCDF1*), **(c)** *SHORT VEGETATIVE-1* (*ScSVP*-2), **(d)** *ScSVP*-3,
(e) *APETALA1*-1 (*ScAP1*-1), and **(f)** *ScAP1*-2 were measured using custom Agilent oligo arrays
in the leaves of 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane grown in the field. All biological replicates and their
LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the
maximum value of the LOESS curve. Time series were normalized using Z-score. To compare
the rhythms of samples harvested in different seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was
normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes represent the night
periods.

Supplemental Figure 7

Fig. S7 – Euler diagram of detected and rhythmic metabolites. Euler diagrams of all **(a)**
detected metabolites and **(b)** rhythmic metabolites in 4 mo (dark green) and 9 mo (light green)
sugarcane leaves in diel conditions.

Supplemental Fig. 8

Fig. S8 – Metabolite rhythms that had an early phase or no phase change in 9 months old
sugarcane compared to 4 months old sugarcane. Leaf +1 of sugarcane grown for 4 months old
(4 mo, dark green) and 9 mo (light green) in the field were harvested for 26 h. Rhythms of **(a)**
myo-Inositol, **(b)** Phenylalanine and **(c)** Pyruvate in 4 mo and 9 mo Metabolite levels were
normalized with Z-score. All biological replicates (circles in 4 mo and triangles in 9 mo) and their
LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the
maximum value of the LOESS curve. To compare the rhythms of samples harvested in different
seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The
light-grey boxes represent the night period.

Supplemental Fig. 9

Fig. S9 – Metabolite rhythms that had a phase increase smaller or equivalent to 6 h in 9 months old sugarcane compared to 4 months old sugarcane. Leaf +1 of sugarcane grown for 4 months old (4 mo, dark green) and 9 mo (light green) in the field were harvested for 26 h. Rhythms of **(a)** Valine, **(b)** Leucine, **(c)** Isoleucine, **(d)** Citrate, **(e)** Glycerate, **(f)** Malate, **(g)** Aspartate, **(h)** Glycine, and **(i)** GABA in 4 mo and 9 mo sugarcane leaves. Metabolite levels were normalized with Z-score. All biological replicates (circles in 4 mo and triangles in 9 mo) and their LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the maximum value of the LOESS curve. To compare the rhythms of samples harvested in different seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes represent the night period.

Supplemental Figure 10

**Fig. S10 – Metabolite rhythms that had a phase increase larger than 6 h in 9 months old
sugarcane compared to 4 months old sugarcane.** Leaf +1 of sugarcane grown for 4 months old
(4 mo, dark green) and 9 mo (light green) in the field were harvested for 26 h. Rhythms of **(a)**
Threonine, **(b)** Serine, **(c)** Tagatose and **(d)** Oxoproline in 4 mo and 9 mo Metabolite levels were
normalized with Z-score. All biological replicates (circles in 4 mo and triangles in 9 mo) and their
LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the
maximum value of the LOESS curve. To compare the rhythms of samples harvested in different
seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The
light-grey boxes represent the night period.

Supplemental Figure 11

Fig. S11 – Sugarcane leaves have different *ScPRR73* and *ScPRR37* patterns when shaded at
dawn. (a-b) Diel rhythms of **(a)** *PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 73* (*ScPRR73*) and **(b)**
ScPRR37 in the leaves of sugarcane grown on the east side (purple) and the west side (pink) of
the field. **(c-d)** Diel rhythms of **(c)** *ScPRR73* and **(d)** *ScPRR37* in the leaves of sugarcane grown
ahead of the wall (dark blue) and beyond the wall (light blue). All biological replicates and their
LOESS curve (continuous lines ± SE) are shown. Inverted triangles show the time of the
maximum value of the LOESS curve. Time series were normalized using Z-score. To compare
the rhythms of samples harvested in different seasons, the time of harvesting (ZT) was
normalized to a photoperiod of 12 h day/ 12 h night. The light-grey boxes represent the night
periods. Transcript levels were measured using RT-qPCR.

  Supplemental Figure 12

Fig. S12 – Transcript levels of *ScLHY* in the first hours of the morning. In the Age
experiment, 4-months-old (dark green) and 9-months-old (light leaves) sugarcane leaves were
used. In the Margins experiment, sugarcane leaves from the East side (purple) or the West side
(pink) of the sugarcane field were taken. In the Wall experiment, sugarcane leaves were taken
from plants ahead of the wall (dark blue) and beyond the wall (light blue) on the east side of the
field. Sugarcane leaves were harvested between ZT0 and ZT2 (n=3). Transcript levels were
measured using RT-qPCR. Relative expression was determined using *GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-*
PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE (*ScGAPDH*).

Table S1 – Sugarcane genes and GenBank IDs.

Gene Symbol	Gene Name	SAS*	GenBank ID
AP1	APETALA1	SCQGLR1085G10.g	CA124279.1
CDF1	CYCLING DOF FACTOR1	SCMCCL6053D03.g	CA098046.1
COP1	CONSTITUTIVE PHOTOMORPHOGENIC 1	SCCCCL6003C08.g	CA096699.1
ELF3	EARLY-FLOWERING 3	SCEZLB1009F09.g	CA113166.1
FLD	FLOWERING LOCUS D	SCEQRT2090F09.g	CA138853.1
FT	FLOWERING LOCUS T	SCBFSD2035E11.g	CA278114.1
GAPDH	GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE	SCQGAM2027G09.g	CA086777.1
GI	GIGANTEA	SCJFAD1014B07.b	CA067312.1
LHY	LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL	SCCCLR1048E10.g	CA167119.1
PRR37	PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 37	Contig 0151209	-
PRR59	PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 59	SCACLR1057G02.g	CA116370.1
PRR73	PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 73	SCACLR1057C07.g	CA116387.1
PRR95	PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 95	SCCCLR1077F09.g	CA120437.1
RVE8	REVEILLE 8	SCSGST1070F10.g	CA179134.1
SVP-1	SHORT VEGETATIVE-1	SCCCLR1C05A05.g	CA189804.1
SVP-2	SHORT VEGETATIVE-2	SCCCLR1072F01.g	CA119595.1
SVP-3	SHORT VEGETATIVE-3	SCCCLR2001F11.g	CA127026.1
SOC1	SUPPRESSOR OF CONSTANS OVEREXPRESSION 1	SCCCLR2C03H07.g	CA127525.1
TOC1	TIME OF CAB EXPRESSION 1	SCCCSB1002H04.g	CA167119.1

837   * Sugarcane Assembled Sequence.

 Table S2 – Sugarcane primers pairs used to validate oligo arrays expression levels using
 RT-qPCR.

Gene Symbol	SAS	Oligonucleotide sequence (5' -> 3')	Reference
ScGAPDH	SCQGAM2027G09.g	FWD CACGGCCACTGGAAGCA RVS TCCTCAGGGTTCCTGATGCC	Papini-Terzi et al. (2005)[a]
ScLHY	SCCCLR1048E10.g	FWD CCACCACGGCCTAAAAGAAA RVS TGGTTTTGTTGACTTGTCATTTGG	Hotta et al. (2011)b
ScPRR37	Contig 0151209	FWD CCCTGCTATGTGGTTCCTC RVS ATTCTGCCCCTTGGTTCC	
ScPRR73	SCACLR1057C07.g	FWD CAAGTAATTCACCCCAAATCAGAGATA RVS TCCCATAGATTCATCTTTATTCTCCTTAT	
ScTOC1	SCCCSB1002H04.g	FWD TTCTGCCTGAATTTGGCAAGTG RVS GGCATCGAGCACACCAATGC	Hotta et al. (2011)b

[a] Papini-Terzi et al. (2005) *DNA Research* 12:27, https://doi.org/10.1093/dnares/12.1.27

[b] Hotta et al. (2013) *PloS one* 8:e71847, https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0071847