Title

Circadian-period variation underlies the local adaptation of photoperiodism in the short-day plant

Lemna aequinoctialis.

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Summary

Phenotypic variation is the basis for trait adaptation via evolutionary selection.[1, 2, 3] However,

the driving forces behind the quantitative trait variations remain unclear owing to their complexity at

the molecular level.[4, 5, 6] This study focused on the natural variation of the free-running period (FRP)

of the circadian clock because FRP is a determining factor of the internal clock phase (chronotype),

which is responsible for physiological timing during a day.[7] Although natural variations in FRP have

been widely reported,[8, 9, 10, 11] few studies have shown the association between FRP and adaptive

temporal traits. As a clock-dependent physiological process, photoperiodism is a typical target of local

adaptation.[12, 13] *Lemna aequinoctialis* in Japan is a paddy-field duckweed exhibiting a latitudinal cline

of critical day-lengths (CDLs) for short-day flowering.[14] To investigate the relationship between FRP

and CDL, we collected 72 strains of *L. aequinoctialis* within a latitudinal range between 31.5°N to

43.8°N. We found a significant correlation (P = 7.5E-8) between FRPs and locally adaptive CDLs,

confirming that the variation in FRP-dependent chronotypes underlies geographically differentiated

photoperiodism. Diel transcriptome analysis revealed that the induction timing of a florigen gene is

key for connecting chronotypes to photoperiodism at the molecular level. Based on these results, we

propose a fundamental rule concerning the "chronotype effect" in evolution: the variation of FRP

functions as a resource for the variation of temporal traits. This study highlights the adaptive

significance of FRP variation and provides a reason for the maintenance of FRP variation in natural

populations.

Results and discussions.

       We investigated the influence of natural variations in circadian clock properties on the temporal phenotype of clock-dependent physiology. The circadian clock is an endogenous timing system that generates a self-sustained daily oscillation entrained to day-night cycles via environmental cues.[15] The eukaryotic circadian clock consists of feedback loops of multiple clock genes.[16] The free-running period (FRP) of the circadian clock is a polygenic trait that exhibits natural variation.[8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 17] These circadian clocks with different periods are entrained to 24 h day-night cycles.[18, 19] The peak timing (phase) of an entrained rhythm also shows natural variation. This phase phenotype is termed the chronotype.[7] In this study, we define the "chronotype effect" as the phenotypic effects on physiological traits originating from variations in chronotype. Previous studies suggest that chronotype determination is related to the FRP.[20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26] We hypothesized that FRP variation is associated with local adaptation of a clock-dependent physiology.

       Lemna aequinoctialis in Japan is a paddy-field duckweed with a latitudinal cline of critical day-lengths (CDLs) for short-day flowering.[14] To investigate the relationship between FRP and CDL, we collected 72 strains of *L. aequinoctialis* from 20 populations located between latitudes 31.5°N and 43.8°N (Figure 1A and Table S1). To estimate both intra-population and inter-population variation, 11–12 strains were collected from each of four populations (N32Ka, N35Ht, N35So, and N44Ha). The strains were aseptically maintained by clonal growth. Laboratory experiments using a clonal plant enabled the precise determination of multiple phenotypic traits of the natural genotype. The frond size showed intra-population and inter-population variation, suggesting heterogeneous genotypes, even within a population (Figure S1). The estimated genome sizes of all the strains were similar (Figure S2).

       These strains recognized day lengths with a resolution of 0.5 h and their CDLs ranged from 11.2 to 14.2 h (Figures 1B, 1C and 1D). As previously reported,[14] a latitudinal cline was observed in CDLs: 11.2–12.6 h in the south, 12.4–14.2 h in the north, and a large variation of CDLs was observed at approximately 35°N (Figure 1E). The longer CDL at higher latitudes is consistent with other short-day flowering species.[27, 28, 29] Intra-population differences of 1–1.5 h in CDLs were observed in each population of N32Ka, N35Ht, N35So, and N44Ha (Figure 1F). The significant differences between these populations suggest geographical differentiation of CDLs. The difference in CDL between the two 35°N populations, N35Ht and N35So suggests that the adaptive CDL at each site may differ even at the same latitude (Figure 1F). The flooding period of the paddy fields differed between the sampling sites depending on the cultivation schedule of the different rice cultivars. The longer CDL of N35So, corresponding to earlier flowering, is consistent with the earlier cessation of flooding at this site than that at the N35Ht site (Figure 1G). The CDL of the N32Ka population was shorter than that of the N35 population (Figure 1F). The CDLs of the three populations appeared to be linked to the cultivation schedule at each site (Figure 1G). Complete drainage of paddy fields during and after rice harvesting

is a potential selection pressure for duckweed.[30, 31] Although the rice-harvesting time at the N44Ha

site was comparable to that at the N35Ht site, the CDL of N44Ha was longer than that of N35Ht. At

the N44Ha site, the low-temperature season (<15 °C: lower limit for *L. aequinoctialis* growth)[32] began

before the rice harvest time, suggesting that low temperature, rather than rice harvest time, may be a

potential selection pressure. Overall, the CDLs of the four populations were likely to fit a suitable

season for reproduction at each site.

The natural variation in circadian rhythms was assessed using a luciferase reporter assay.[33]

Using particle bombardment, a luminescent reporter, *AtCCA1::LUC*,[34] was semi-transiently

introduced into plants grown under long-day conditions (15L9D; 15-h light / 9-h dark). The plants

were placed on an automatic luminescent monitoring system and released into constant light (LL) after

two days of 15L9D (Figure 2A). All strains showed clear diel luminescence rhythms with morning

peaks at 15L9D. Among the four populations, the peak time of N32Ka was significantly later than that

of the other three populations (Figure 2B). To estimate FRP under LL, fast Fourier transform-nonlinear

least squares (FFT-NLLS) analysis[35] was used (Figure 2C), in which the rhythm significance was

estimated by a relative amplitude error (RAE) that increased from 0 to 1 as the rhythm neared statistical

insignificance. Seven strains with a high RAE value (>0.1) or a high standard deviation (SD) of FRP

(>1.5 h) were excluded from the following analysis (Figure S3). The FRP of N32Ka was significantly

longer than that of the other populations, corresponding to its late peak time (Figures 2B and 2D). This

is consistent with the concept of chronotype: a positive correlation between FRP and peak time.[24]

Correlation analysis using data from all 72 strains (20 populations) suggested a chronotype

effect on photoperiodism (Figure 3A). A positive correlation between FRP and peak time was

confirmed at the genotypic level. In addition, CDL showed a negative correlation with both FRP and

the peak time. These results suggest that the variation in FRP-dependent chronotypes underlies the

variation in the CDL. The CDL shift can be explained as the chronotype effect on the florigen (floral

inducer), which responds to night-length (Figure 3B).[36] In this model, the activation of the florigen is

assumed to be gated by the circadian clock and permitted in the dark. A longer FRP causes a phase

delay in the gate timing and, consequently, a shorter CDL, resulting in a negative correlation between

FRP and CDL.[37]

To explore florigen genes, we obtained diel transcriptomes of *L. aequinictialis* pure line (Nd

strain[33]) under three photoperiod conditions. Five florigen homologues were detected by *de novo*

assembly and were named *LaFTh1–5* (Figures S4A and S4B). *LaFTh1* was induced before the end of

the night, and its expression level increased during longer-night conditions (Figures 3C and S4C). The

transgenic *Arabidopsis thaliana* carrying an *LaFTh1* overexpression construct showed an early

flowering phenotype, suggesting its florigen activity (Figure S4D). *LaFTh1* was induced even in

extended dark following a non-flowering long-day condition, suggesting that *LaFTh1* expression

directly responds to night lengthening. The timing of *LaFTh1* induction differed among the three

strains with different CDLs and the variation in induction timing appears to be responsible for the
CDL variation (Figures 3D and 3E). Thus, the induction timing of *LaFTh1* is key for connecting
chronotype to photoperiodism at the molecular level. Notably, the *LaFTh1* expression levels showed
a large difference. The *LaFTh1* expression in the N44Ha08 strain was 10-fold higher than that in the
other two strains (Figure 3E). This high basal level may have caused an extremely long CDL of 14.2
h (Figure 1F).

Our study demonstrated the chronotype effect on locally adapted traits: CDL variation is
tightly coupled with FRP variation, even in natural populations. Diel transcriptome analysis suggests
that florigen induction timing, which is likely to be related to the FRP-dependent chronotype, is a
determining factor for CDL and consequently for the flowering season. These results indicate the
importance of circadian phenotypes in the natural selection of seasonal phenotypes. This study also
provides new insights into the local adaptation of CDLs to the paddy-field environment. Consistent
with previous studies using short-day plants,[27, 28, 29] the populations of *L. aequnictialis* in Japan showed
a latitudinal cline in their CDLs, suggesting that the flowering season of this plant adapted to the local
climate, exhibiting a latitudinal cline in temperature.[12] Furthermore, their CDLs appeared to adapt to
the flooding season at each sampling site (Figure 1G). The improved drainage systems associated with
the agricultural modernization of Japan that began in the 1950s have resulted in dry paddy-field
environments in winter and consequently altered the weed flora.[38] The natural variation of the FRPs
possibly contributed to the adaptive evolution of the flowering season in response to the rapid artificial
shift of the flooding season. In addition to inter-population variations, CDLs also showed intra-
population variations (Figure 1F). The flooding period of paddy fields is highly dependent on the rice
cultivar grown. Such artificial fluctuations may promote intra-population variations in CDLs. In *A.*
thaliana, the recombinant inbred lines of two accessions with similar FPRs showed variation as
substantial as that observed among the global collection (22.0 to 28.5 h).[39] Such transgressive
segregation of FPR is caused by the complex interference among many quantitative loci,[40] and may
play an important role in providing the phenotypic variations for rapid evolutionary adaptation to
irregular environmental changes.[41] Interestingly, the estimated genome sizes of all *L. aequinoctialis*
strains used in this study were ~800 Mbp and considered to be tetraploid (Figure S2).[42, 43] Polyploidy
may generate phenotypic variations by increasing the rates of evolution and number of components in
gene regulatory networks.[44, 45]

Because the circadian clock regulates various physiologies,[7, 46] FRP variation potentially
contributes to the fine-tuning of their temporal traits in the process of local adaptation. Conversely,
selection pressure on the temporal traits of such clock-dependent physiologies may favor mutations in
clock-related genes that alter the FRP and, consequently, the chronotype (Figure 4). This is a possible
reason for the maintenance of FRP variation with standing genetic variations in clock-related genes in
natural populations.[8, 11, 12] Thus, the adaptive significance of FRP variation should be considered in

relation to the phase phenotype under day-night conditions.[7, 21, 25] Interestingly, a latitudinal cline of
FRP was reported in the linden bug, *Pyrrhocoris apterus*,[10] in which circadian clock genes are
responsible for the photoperiodic response of the reproductive diapause.[47] The circadian clock was
acquired for adaptation to day-night cycles and has evolved as a hub of environmental response
systems involving multiple input pathways.[48] As a result, in the process of adaptive evolution, the
circadian system can function as a source of variation for temporal traits through the chronotype effect
integrating many quantitative loci for FRP.[4, 39, 49, 50]

Data availability
The RNA-seq raw sequences (PRJDB12719) and LaFTh1 CDS (LC662606) were deposited at DDBJ.

Acknowledgements
We thank N. Emura for her support in collecting duckweed strains, I. Shibano for her support in
maintaining duckweed strains, M. Honjo and M. Hirata for their support with RNA-seq experiments
in the Joint Usage for Ecological Research, Kyoto University, and S. Kubota for her efforts to establish
the Nd strain. This research was supported by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science
KAKENHI [grant numbers JP16H06864 (T.M.), JP20K15861 (T.M.), JP20J00255 (T.M.),
JP20K06342 (S.I.), JP21H04977 (H.K), and 17KT0022 (T.O.)], Japan Science and Technology
Agency (JST) CREST (JPMJCR15O1, H.K.), JST ALCA (JPMJAL1108, T.O.), and JST SATREPS
(JPMJSA2004, T.M., S.I., T.O.).

Author contributions
T.M. and T.O. designed the study and wrote and revised the manuscript. T.M. performed the
experiments using *L. aequinoctialis* and all the analyses. S.I. performed the experiments using *A.*
thaliana and contributed to the particle bombardment experiments. H.K. contributed to RNA-seq
experiments and revised the manuscript. All authors have contributed to the text.

Competing interests
The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure 1 Local adaptation of critical day-length (CDL) in *Lemna aequinoctialis* strains isolated
in Japan. A, The locations from which 11–12 strains (circles) and 1–3 strains (triangles) were isolated.
The same colors and symbols apply to other panels. Examples of the strains in the four populations
are shown. Scale bars: 5 mm. **B,** A colony with floral buds (top). Colony of N35Oi03 strain bleached
by EtOH after one week of short-day (9L15D) treatment and imaged from the underside. Close-up
underside view around the meristematic tissue. Red circles indicate floral buds. **C,** Continuous
variation of photoperiodic response on flowering. Flowering rate after one week of photoperiodic
treatment is plotted against treated day-length. Eight strains in six populations are shown. **D**, Critical
day length (CDL) was determined as the day-length where 50% of the maximum flowering rate
(Fmax) is expected. See Methods for more detail. **E**, Latitudinal cline of CDL. The Pearson's
correlation coefficient and *P* value are shown. Dashed line represents day-length of summer solstice.
F, CDL variation among the four populations. Boxplots with points representing individual strains are
shown. **G,** Timing of CDLs in the year at four sampling sites. The dates for CDLs shown in panel c
are represented as a box plot at each site. Black horizontal lines represent the flooding period. The
background colors represent 30-year (1990–2019) mean of daily temperature. Vertical dotted lines
represent 15 °C.

Figure 2 Natural variation of circadian rhythms in *Lemna aequinoctialis* strains. A, Examples

of luminescence rhythms of *AtCCA1::LUC*. Solid and dashed lines represent mean and ± SD of three

replications, respectively. Gray boxes indicate dark period. The strain name is indicated in each plot.

B, Variation of the timing of the first peak in constant light (LL) among the four populations.

Boxplots with points for individual strains are shown. **C**, Relative amplitude error (RAE) of each

strain plotted against its free running period (FRP). Mean values of three replications are shown.

Error bars = SD. The crosses represent seven strains that showed unstable rhythms (SD of FRP > 1.5

h, Figure S3). Population names are represented in the graph legend. **D,** Variation of the free-running

period (FRP) in LL among the four populations. Boxplots with points for individual strains are

shown. Seven strains with unstable rhythms (SD of FRP > 1.5 h) were excluded from the plot.

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Figure 3 Chronotype effect on photoperiodic flowering. A, The correlations between FRP, peak
time, and CDL of *L. aequinoctialis* strains. The Pearson's correlation coefficient and *P* value are shown
in each graph. Black lines represent Deming regression lines. Plots of seven strains with unstable
rhythms (SD of FRP > 1.5 h) are excluded from graphs that include FRP. **B,** The hypothetical
mechanism for the negative correlation between FRP and CDL. The activation of the floral inducer is
assumed to be gated by the circadian clock and permitted in the dark. The dotted lines and filled
triangles schematically represent gate timing and activity of a floral inducer, respectively. The blue
and red colors correspond to strains with a short and long FRP, respectively. **C,** A photoperiodic
response of the *LaFTh1* expression. Means of four or two RNA-seq experiments are plotted. Gray box
indicates a dark period. **D,** Photoperiodic responses of flowering for three strains (purple, N44Ha08;
black, Nd; red, N32Ka06). The flowering rates are plotted against the night length of each photoperiod.
The critical night length (24 − CDL) of each strain is shown as dashed line. **E,** *LaFTh1* induction in
the three strains during constant dark following 15L9D. The mRNA accumulation quantified by qPCR
is plotted. The mRNA expression in N32Ka06 at 9 and 10 h were undetected. Colors are the same as
in panel d.

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Figure 4. The chronotype effect on local adaptation of clock-dependent temporal traits. FRP
variation functions as a resource for the variation of temporal traits in the process of local adaptation.
Genetic variations in many quantitative loci for FRP are selected based on their phenotypic effect on
temporal traits under day-night conditions. In *L. aequinoctialis*, the selection pressure for early-
flowering phenotype appeared to select a short-FRP genotype related to its early induction timing of
a florigen gene.

Figure S1. Intra- and inter-population variation of frond length in *L. aequinoctialis* strains. a,

Definition of a frond length. The length of the mother frond (from base to apex, dotted black line) of

eight colonies were measured for each strain of four populations (N32Ka, N35Ht, N35So, and N44Ha).

Scale bar indicates 5 mm. **b,** Intra-population variation of frond length of the four populations are

shown as boxplots. Different letters indicate significant differences based on Tukey's HSD test (*P* <

0.05). **c,** Inter-population variation of frond length among the four populations. Different letters

indicate significant differences based on pairwise Wilcoxon test (*P* < 0.05). Boxplots display a median

line, interquartile range boxes, min/max whiskers.

Figure S2. Similar genome sizes among 72 strains in different populations. Box plot displays a

median line, interquartile range boxes, min/max whiskers of estimated genome sizes of the strains in

a population (N32Ka, N35Ht, N35So, and N44Ha). "Others" includes 16 populations, which are

indicated by triangles in Figure 1A. The genome size of a strain was estimated by flow cytometer. A

dashed line represents the estimated genome size of *L. aequinoctialis* 6746 strain[33] isolated in

California, USA. No significant difference was detected based on pairwise Wilcoxon test.

Figure S3. Luminescence rhythms of the seven strains excluded from the analysis. Luminescence

intensity at each time point was normalized by the maximum intensity (first peak value). Solid and

dashed lines represent mean and SD of three replications, respectively. Same populations are

represented by the same colors.

Figure S4. FT homologues of *L. aequinoctialis* Nd strain. **A,** Multiple amino acid sequence
alignment of the five FT homologues (LaFTh1-5) with the florigen of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (AtFT and
AtTSF) and *Oryza sativa* (OsHd3a and OsRFT1). Colors represent physicochemical properties of
residues. **B,** Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree constructed with PhyML algorithm using full-
length amino acid sequences. **C,** The expression patterns of five FT homologues (LaFTh1 to LaFTh5
from top to bottom) under three photoperiods (14L10D, 12L12D, 9L15D from right to left). The
transcripts per kilobase million (TPM) values are plotted. Two (9L15D) or four (12L12D and 14L10D)
experiments were performed for each photoperiodic condition. Black lines represent the mean values
at each time point. Gray boxes indicate dark period. **D,** Early flowering phenotype of *Arabidopsis*
thaliana carrying an *LaFTh1* overexpression construct. Plants of an *LaFTh1* overexpression line (T2
generation) (left) and Col-0 wild type (right) on an agar plate at 22 °C and 24 days (10L14D) after
sowing.

#	Population name	Symbol in Figs	Sampling site	Water system	Latitude	Longitude	Number of isolated strains
1	N44Ha	N44Ha	Asahikawa, Hokkaido	Paddy field	43.80468	142.45088	12
2	N43Hi	Others North	Ishikari, Hokkaido	Paddy field	43.1943	141.45465	2
3	N41Ac	Others North	Hirosaki castle, Aomori	Castle moat	40.60337	140.46717	2
4	N40Im	Others North	Miyako, Iwate	Paddy field	39.56776	141.93836	1
5	N36Ky	Others Middle	Yokohama, Kanagawa	Paddy field	35.52783	139.52045	1
6	N35At	Others Middle	Togo, Aichi	Paddy field	35.11062	137.083	1
7	N35Ki	Others Middle	Iwakura, Kyoto	Paddy field	35.07706	135.78781	2
8	N35Ht	N35Ht	Taka, Hyogo	Paddy field	35.07304	134.90231	11
9	N35Kk	Others Middle	Kyoto, Kyoto	Paddy field	35.07206	135.74302	1
10	N35Sb	Others Middle	Biwako, Shiga	Lake	35.04908	135.87446	3
11	N35Kn	Others Middle	Nougaku, Kyoto	Paddy field	35.03259	135.7836	3
12	N35Kr	Others Middle	Kamogawa river, Kyoto	Rivier	34.9896	135.76769	1
13	N35So	N35So	Otsu, Shiga	Paddy field	34.95615	135.95493	11
14	N35Oi	Others Middle	Ibaraki, Osaka	Paddy field	34.85884	135.56461	3
15	N35Nn	Others Middle	NAIST, Nara	Paddy field	34.7317	135.73142	2
16	N35Nk	Others Middle	Kizugawa, Nara	Paddy field	34.7242	135.8158	1
17	N35Si	Others Middle	Iwata, Shizuoka	Paddy field	34.72128	137.89284	1
18	N34Mi	Others Middle	Ise, Mie	Paddy field	34.49805	136.67711	1
19	N32Ka	N32Ka	Aira, Kagoshima	Paddy field	31.77734	130.56278	12
20	N32Mk	Others South	Kushimoto, Miyazaki	Paddy field	31.51068	131.25419	1

281 **Table S1. Summary of twenty sampling sites.**

Methods

Plant materials and growth conditions. Seventy-two *L. aequinoctialis* strains were collected from 20 sites in Japan (Table S1). The collected plants were sterilized by washing with 5% sodium hypochlorite for several minutes, followed by washing with sterilized water. From the successfully sterilized plants, a single colony was isolated. Only one strain was isolated from a paddy field, and a maximum of 12 paddy fields were selected at each site. These strains were maintained aseptically in a growth medium (NF medium containing 1% sucrose[33]) under long-day conditions (15L9D; approximately 50 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}) in an incubator (LH350-SP, NK system, Japan) at 25 ± 1 °C. *L. aequinoctialis* 6746 [33] and *Lemna gibba* p8L [33] strains were maintained in the same conditions. Before the experiments, the plants were grown in a flask or 6-well plastic plate filled with 30 mL or 8 mL of growth medium, respectively.

Genome size estimation. The relative genome sizes of *L. aequinoctialis* strains were estimated based on 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole diacetate dye flow cytometry (DAPI-FCM) using a Partec CyStain UV Precise P reagent kit (Sysmex Partec GmbH, Germany) and a flow cytometer (Partec Ploidy Analyzer PA-I, Sysmex Partec GmbH). *Lemna gibba* p8L[33] was used as the standard. The relative genome sizes of th*e L. aequinoctialis* strains were calculated as the relative peak positions. The genome size of *L. gibba* has been estimated to be 486 Mbp.[43]

Frond-length measurements. The top view image of the plants was captured using a digital camera (EOS 5D mark3 [Canon, Japan] with SP 90 mm Di MACRO [Tamron, Japan] or EOS Kiss X5 with EF-S55-250 mm [Canon]). The frond length was manually measured as the length from the base to the apex of the mother frond using ImageJ 1.53c software (Figure S1A).[51] The frond lengths of the eight colonies were measured for each strain.

Measurement of the critical day length in photoperiodic flowering. A colony consisting of three or four visible fronds was placed in each well of a 24-well plastic plate filled with 2 mL of growth medium. These plants were subjected to a one-week photoperiodic treatment with day lengths of 9, 11, 11.5, 12, 12.5, 13, 13.5, 14, 14.5, and 15 h in an eight-chamber incubator (LH30-8-CT, NK system, Japan). The temperature was maintained at 25 ± 1 °C and the light intensity was approximately 30 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}. After treatment, the plants were bleached with 70% ethanol. The number of flowering and non-flowering fronds was counted for each colony under a stereoscopic microscope. Flowering rate was calculated as the percentage of flowering fronds to the total number of fronds in at least two replicates. The critical day length was determined as the day length where 50% of the maximum flowering rate (Fmax) was expected in a piecewise linear function for the obtained flowering rate (Figure 1D).

Meteorological data

Temperature data at each site were obtained from the Automated Meteorological Data Acquisition System (AMeDAS) data download service (https://www.data.jma.go.jp/risk/obsdl/index.php). Day lengths were calculated using the online service of the National Astronomical Observatory of Japan (https://eco.mtk.nao.ac.jp/cgi-bin/koyomi/koyomix_en.cgi).

Monitoring luminescence rhythms. Luminescence monitoring using a circadian luminescent reporter was performed as previously described[33]. Plasmid DNA carrying the luciferase reporter gene *pUC-AtCCA1::LUC+* (*AtCCA1::LUC*[34]) was coated on 0.48 mg of gold particles (1.0 mm diameter, Bio-Rad) and introduced into plants laid on a 60-mm plastic dish using a particle bombardment system (PDS-1000/He, Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer's instructions (vacuum, 27 mmHg; helium pressure, 450 psi). After particle bombardment, the plants were divided into three 35-mm dishes (approximately four colonies per dish) filled with 4 mL of growth medium containing D-luciferin (0.2 mM potassium salt, Wako). A luminescence dish-monitoring system with photomultiplier tubes (H7360-01; Hamamatsu Photonics K.K., Japan) was used for the luminescence measurements. To reduce the background chlorophyll fluorescence, a short-pass filter (SVO630; Asahi Spectra, Japan) was set at the detection site of the photomultiplier tubes. Each dish was subjected to 30 s of measurements every 20 min. The monitoring system was placed in an incubator (KCLP-1000I-CT; NK System, Japan) with fluorescent lamps (FL20SSW/18; Mitsubishi Electric Co., Japan). The temperature was maintained at 25 ± 1 °C and the light intensity was approximately 30 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}.

Time-series analysis. Peak detection and period estimation were performed as previously described.[33, 52] The peak positions were estimated by local quadratic curve fitting. For period estimation, the obtained luminescence time series were detrended by subtracting the 24-h moving average. Thereafter, the amplitude was normalized by dividing by the 24-h moving standard deviation. The normalized time series of 60 to 132 h was analyzed using fast Fourier transform-nonlinear least squares (FFT-NLLS) to determine the period.[35] FFT-NLLS was based on a multicomponent cosine fit. Rhythm significance was estimated by a relative amplitude error (RAE) that increases from 0 to 1 as the rhythm approached statistical insignificance. These analyses were performed using R scripts developed and run with R 3.6.3 (http://r-project.org/).[53]

RNA-seq analysis. The *L. aequinoctialis* Nd strain (6th generation of self-fertilization of the N35Kn04 strain)[33] was used for RNA-seq analysis. Plants were maintained under 15L9D conditions (approximately 50 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1}, white LED T5LT20W, Beamtec, Japan) in an incubator (HCLP-880, NK system, Japan) at 25 ± 1 °C. For the 14L10D and 12L12D experiments, the plants were divided

into 48 x 35-mm dishes (four colonies per dish) with 4 mL growth medium per dish. After one week

of photoperiodic treatment (14L10D or 12L12D), plants in each dish were collected every 2 h for 24

h (four replicates per sampling time). For the 9L15D experiment, plants were pre-cultured under

9L15D conditions for one week. Thereafter, these plants were divided into 24 x 35-mm dishes (six

colonies per dish) with 4 mL of growth medium per dish. After one week of photoperiodic treatment

(9L15D), plants in each dish were collected every 2 h for 24 h (two replicates at each sampling time).

The collected plants were wiped of moisture with paper, then immediately immersed in RNAlater

solution (Sigma Aldrich) at each time point and stored at -20 °C before RNA extraction. RNA-seq

library preparation was performed based on the BrAD-seq protocol, as follows.[54] Plants were

homogenized with a lysate buffer using a multi-bead shocker (MB755U, Yasui Kikai, Japan). mRNA

was extracted from the lysate using magnetic streptavidin beads (New England Biolabs) with a biotin-

20nt-20T oligo. The mRNA was subjected to heat fragmentation (94 °C for 1.5 min) and converted to

cDNA using RevertAid Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher) with a 3-prime priming adapter with

a random octamer sequence. The 5-prime adapter was then added to the cDNA and captured by the

terminus of the RNA-cDNA hybrid. Its incorporation into a complete library molecule was catalyzed

by DNA polymerase I (Thermo Fisher). The library was prepared using 16 (9L15D samples) or 18

(14L10D and 12L12D samples) PCR cycles with KAPA HiFi HS ReadyMix (Kapa Biosystems). The

fragment size was selected to range from 300 bp to 600 bp using Ampure magnetic beads (Beckman

Coulter). The quality of the library was checked using a bioanalyzer (Agilent). Paired-end 150 bp

sequencing was conducted using the HiSeq system (Illumina). The obtained sequences (total 554

million reads for the 120 samples) were filtered using Trimmomatic v0.39 with option "LEADING:24

TRAILING:24 SLIDINGWINDOW:30:20 AVGQUAL:20 MINLEN:100".[55] The filtered sequences

were assembled *de novo* into 322,899 contigs (isoforms of 186,102 genes) using Trinity v2.8.4.[56] The

183,102 contigs (isoforms of 84,206 genes) that were longer than 400 bp were used as a reference

sequence for mapping and read counting using RSEM v1.3.1 with bowtie2 v2.4.2.[57, 58] The mapped

reads were 3.46 ± 1.22 million reads / sample (mean $\pm$ SD).

Detection of *FT* homologues. *FT* homologues in the reference sequence (183,102 contigs) were

searched using tblastn 2.11.0+ [59] with a query for the OsHd3a amino acid sequence (UniProt-ID:

Q93WI9). The top five *FT* homologues were named as *LaFTh1-5* based on their position in the

maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree with their estimated amino acid sequences and AtFT (UniProt-

ID: Q9SXZ2), AtTSF (UniProt-ID: Q9S7R5), OsHd3a (UniProt-ID: Q93WI9), and OsRFT1(UniProt-

ID: Q8VWH2) (Figure S4B). LaFTh2 and LaFTh4 have the same sequence as previously reported FT

homologues, LaFTL1 and LaFTL3, respectively.[60] A phylogenetic tree was constructed using the

online tool ClustalW (https://www.genome.jp/tools-bin/clustalw) using the PhyML algorithm.

Colored multiple amino acid sequence alignments were generated using the online tool Clustal Omega

(https://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalo/).

qPCR analysis. Eight to 12 colonies grown under 15L9D conditions were placed in a 35-mm dish

with 4 mL of growth medium and maintained under the same conditions for a day, after which they

were released to constant darkness at the end of 15 h of light and sampled every hour from 9 to 15 h

after the light-off. The collected plants were wiped of moisture with paper, then immediately immersed

in RNAlater solution (Sigma Aldrich) at each time point and stored at -20 °C before RNA extraction.

Total RNA was extracted using the NucleoSpin RNA Plant (MACHEREY-NAGEL GmbH & Co.) and

converted to cDNA using ReverTra Ace qPCR RT Master Mix (TOYOBO). qPCR was performed

using the StepOnePlus Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) with THUNDERBIRD SYBR

qPCR Mix (TOYOBO). An *ACT2* homologue in *de novo* assembled sequences was determined using

tblastn 2.11.0+ with a query of the OsACT2 amino acid sequence (UniProt-ID: A3C6D7) and used as

a reference gene for the delta-delta Ct method. Primers for qPCR analysis were designed according to

the *de novo* assembled sequences as follows: LaFTh1_fwd, 5'-

ACCCTACCCTTAGAGAATATCTGC-3'; LaFTh1_rev, 5'-TAGGTGCTGGGCCTTCATAG-3',

LaACT2_fwd, 5'-ACACAGTGCCCATCTATGAAGG-3'; LaACT2_rev, 5'-

AGTAGCCTCGTTCGGTTAGGATC-3'.

***LaFTh1* overexpression in *Arabidopsis thaliana*.** To generate *LaFTh1* overexpressing transgenic

Arabidopsis plants, the coding region of *LaFTh1* was amplified from cDNA derived from *L.*

aequinoctialis Nd using the following primers: 5'-

CGCGGCCGCCACCATGACACCTCAGGATCCCTTGTG-3', and 5'-

CGGCGCGCCCTAGGTAAACCGCCTTCCACCAG-3'. The amplified PCR fragment was digested

with *Not*I and *Asc*I restriction enzymes and integrated into the pENTR-MCS cloning vector [pENTR-

D/TOPO vector (Invitrogen) containing the pBluescript II multi-cloning sites] using the conventional

linker ligation method. The sequence of *LaFTh1* CDS was transferred into the pK7WG2

overexpression binary vector,[61] which contained the *CaMV35S* promoter-driven expression cassette,

using Gateway LR clonase II (Invitrogen). This construct was introduced into *Arabidopsis* wild-type

plants Col-0 by the *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated floral dipping method.[62] Primary

transformants (T1) were selected on 1x Murashige and Skoog culture media containing 1% sucrose,

0.8% agar, and 25 μg mL^{-1} kanamycin sulfate. Seeds were sterilized using chlorine gas, stratified for

3 days at 4 °C, and then grown under short-day (10L14D) conditions to analyze the flowering

phenotype in parallel with the selection process. Seedlings developing relatively long primary and

lateral roots were regarded as kanamycin-resistant transgenic plants and transferred to a 1:1 mixture

of vermiculite and soil (Nihon Hiryo Co., Ltd.). Several independent lines ($N > 10$) were isolated for

further analysis of their morphological and flowering phenotypes. Most primary transformants could

not produce mature siliques or seeds; however, some transgenic plants produced T2 seeds. Flowering
phenotypes were also observed in the T2 generation.
431
432 **Statistics.** All boxplots in this manuscript display median lines, interquartile range boxes, and
433 min/max whiskers. Different letters indicate significant differences based on the pairwise Wilcoxon
434 test ($p < 0.05$). The pairwise Wilcoxon test was performed using the R built-in function
435 "pairwise.wilcox.test" with P value adjustment using the Holm method. In correlation analysis, the
436 Pearson's correlation coefficient and P value was calculated by the R-built-in function "cor.test".
437
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