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Tissue-specific and *cis*-regulatory changes underlie parallel, adaptive gene expression evolution in house mice

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Abstract

Changes in gene regulation have long been appreciated as a driving force of adaptive evolution, however the relative contributions of *cis*- and *trans*-acting changes to gene regulation over short evolutionary timescales remain unclear. Instances of recent, parallel phenotypic evolution provide an opportunity to assess whether parallel patterns are seen at the level of gene expression, and to assess the relative contribution of *cis*- and *trans*- changes to gene regulation in the early stages of divergence. Here, we studied gene expression in liver and brown adipose tissue in two wild-derived strains of house mice that independently adapted to cold, northern environments, and we compared them to a strain of house mice from a warm, southern environment. To investigate gene regulatory evolution, we studied expression in parents and allele-specific expression in F1 hybrids of crosses between warm-adapted and cold-adapted strains. First, we found that the different cold-adapted mice showed both unique and shared changes in expression, but that the proportion of shared changes (i.e. parallelism) was greater than expected by chance. Second, we discovered that expression evolution occurred largely at tissue-specific and *cis*-regulated genes, and that these genes were over-represented in parallel cases of evolution. Finally, we integrated the expression data with scans for selection in natural populations and found substantial parallelism in the two northern populations for genes under selection. Furthermore, selection outliers were associated with *cis*-regulated genes more than expected by chance; *cis*-regulated genes under selection influenced phenotypes such as body size, fat content, immune functioning, and skeletal morphology. These results demonstrate that parallel patterns of gene expression in mice that have independently adapted to cold environments are driven largely by tissue-specific and *cis*-regulatory changes, providing insight into the mechanisms of adaptive gene regulatory evolution at the earliest stages of divergence.

Author summary

The parallel movement of organisms into novel environments provides an opportunity to

understand the molecular basis of adaptation and the repeatability of this process. Mutations

affecting the expression of genes are known to underlie much of adaptive evolution. Such

mutations can arise in *cis-* (near the gene of interest) or in *trans-* (at a distant locus), but the

relative contribution of these different kinds of changes to adaptation is poorly understood,

especially during very recent divergence. Here, we compared evolved gene expression

differences between a warm-adapted house mouse strain and two different cold-adapted strains

that have independently evolved similar phenotypic traits, such as increased body size and

decreased extremity length during the last few hundred years. Using crosses between warm-

adapted and cold-adapted mice, we found that mutations acting in a context specific manner (*cis-*

regulatory and tissue-specific changes) predominate expression divergence and are more likely

to be involved in parallel evolution. We used population level selection scans in wild animals to

identify regions of the genome under selection and combined these findings with the gene

expression data to identify candidate genes underlying adaptation to novel environments.

Together, our work describes the gene regulatory dynamics of rapid environmental adaptation,

and the repeatability of these patterns over multiple instances of adaptation.

Introduction

Understanding the genetic architecture of adaptive evolution is a long-standing goal in

evolutionary biology. Differences in gene regulation are known to underlie adaptation to new

environments across a diverse set of organisms and phenotypes including armor plating and

pelvic spine reduction in sticklebacks, coat color differences in deer mice, and the ability to

digest lactose in humans [1–4].

Evolved changes in gene expression can occur via changes in *cis*-regulatory elements,

which act locally in an allele-specific manner, or *trans*-regulatory elements, which act distally

and can potentially affect many genes [1,5]. Since *cis*-regulatory changes can modulate gene

expression in a tissue-specific and temporal-specific manner, these variants are expected to be

less pleiotropic and may therefore evolve more easily [1,5]. In contrast, *trans*-acting changes

may affect the expression of many genes and thus are expected to be more constrained.

However, alterations to the wider regulatory environment via *trans*-acting changes may be

favored during early stages of adaptation, when populations are further from their fitness optima

[6,7].

Given that changes in gene expression underlie much of adaptive evolution,

understanding the contributions of *cis*- and *trans*-changes to gene regulation will help shed light

on the molecular mechanisms and genetic architecture of evolutionary change. Several studies

have evaluated the contributions of *cis*- and *trans*-acting mutations to gene expression by

studying allele-specific expression in hybrid individuals or by mapping expression quantitative

trait loci (eQTL) (reviewed in Signor and Nuzhdin 2018; Hill et al. 2020). One emerging pattern

is that *cis*- variants often contribute more to expression divergence between species, while *trans*-

variants dominate within-species expression variance [9–13]. This observation is usually

attributed to the larger mutational target for *trans*-acting variants compared to *cis*-acting variants.

Between species, *cis*-acting variants constitute a greater proportion of regulatory variants at

increasing levels of evolutionary divergence in both yeast [14] and *Drosophila* [11]. Despite

these patterns, some studies have found a larger role for *cis*-acting changes over short

evolutionary timescales. For example, comparisons between subspecies of house mice have

revealed a greater proportion of *cis*-regulatory changes compared to *trans*-regulatory changes in

liver [15] and in testes [16]. Comparisons among lines of *Drosophila melanogaster* have also

revealed a preponderance of *cis*-regulatory effects [17]. Different studies on the same species

have sometimes reached different conclusions. For example, in comparisons between marine and

freshwater populations of stickleback fish, Hart et al. [18] found a greater role for *trans*-acting

changes in governing expression differences in pharyngeal dental tissue, while Verta and Jones

[19] found *cis*-acting changes to predominate expression differences in the gills. In sum, it

remains unclear whether less pleiotropic changes (*cis*-regulated or tissue specific genes) or more

pleiotropic changes (*trans*-regulated or broadly-expressed genes) are most likely to contribute to

adaptive gene expression evolution over short time scales.

Recent, repeated colonization of novel environments not only provides an opportunity to

assess the nature of evolutionary changes over short time scales, but also to study parallel

evolution. When different populations have experienced similar environments and selection

pressures, repeated patterns provide evidence that the observed changes are driven by selection.

Situations in which phenotypes have evolved in parallel provide an opportunity to ask whether

parallelism is similarly seen at the molecular level.

House mice (*Mus musculus domesticus*) represent a useful system in which to explore the

gene regulatory basis of environmental adaptation and the degree of parallelism in expression

divergence. House mice are found throughout inhabited regions of the world [20] and display

morphological, physiological, and behavioral phenotypes reflective of their environment [21,22].

For example, mice from northern latitudes have larger bodies, shorter extremities, and build

larger nests, conforming to well-documented ecogeographic patterns in mammals [21–23].

Shortened extremities and increased body size are viewed as thermoregulatory adaptations since

they decrease the ratio of surface area to volume, thereby minimizing heat loss [24]. Importantly,

these phenotypes have evolved repeatedly in response to cold temperatures in multiple

populations of house mice [25], representing cases of parallel independent adaptation. Finally,

previous studies have shown that gene regulation is likely to be a primary mediator of adaptive

evolution in house mice, as scans for selection have identified adaptive mutations primarily in

non-coding regions of the genome [22].

Here, we analyze gene expression in inbred strains of house mice derived from two,

independently-colonized northern populations and one equatorial population to address several

key questions related to gene expression evolution, including the degree to which expression

divergence is shared between parallel cases of adaption, whether this expression evolution is

governed by primarily *cis*- or *trans*-acting changes, as well as whether those changes are largely

tissue-specific or broadly expressed. We also integrate expression data with scans for selection in

wild-caught mice to connect expression differences identified in lab-reared animals to selection

acting in natural populations. We find strong evidence for parallel adaptive evolution due to

changes in the expression of *cis*-regulated and tissue-specific genes in the early stages of

adaptation to novel environments.

Results

Phenotypic divergence between cold-adapted and warm-adapted mice

Previous work based on phylogenetic analysis of house mouse populations across eastern

and western North America showed that mice in upstate New York and mice in Western Canada

represent independent range expansions into northern habitats from southern locations and

independent cases of adaptation to cold climates with parallel differences in body size [25]. We

thus chose one strain from Saratoga Springs, New York, USA (SARA) and one strain from

Edmonton, Alberta, Canada (EDMA), and compared these to one strain from Manaus, Brazil

(MANA) (Fig 1A). Lab-reared inbred strains of mice from these localities display divergent,

environmentally adaptive phenotypes under common conditions, suggesting that they have a

genetic basis (Fig 1B-1E). In particular, mice from New York and Alberta are larger but have

shorter tails, ears, and feet when compared to mice from Manaus. These differences conform to

Bergmann's Rule (larger size in cold environments) and Allen's Rule (shorter extremities in cold

environments) and are thought to reflect thermoregulatory adaptations.

Expression divergence between cold-adapted and warm-adapted mice

To study expression evolution between cold-adapted and warm-adapted mice, we

generated RNA-seq data from the liver and brown adipose tissue (BAT) of six males each from

the SARA, EDMA, and MANA strains. We chose liver and BAT, as liver underlies many

metabolic processes involved in environmental adaptation in house mice [22,26], and BAT is

involved in cold adaptation via its role in non-shivering thermogenesis [27,28]. Principal

component (PC) analysis of expression separates samples primarily by tissue-type (S1A Fig),

agreeing with studies investigating divergent gene expression across multiple tissues [29,30].

Within each tissue, PC analysis separates individuals by strain with PC1 and PC2 two explaining

34.8% and 26.9% of expression variation in liver, respectively (Fig 1F), and 30.3% and 27.9% of

expression variation in BAT, respectively (S1B Fig). The differences in expression between

strains undoubtedly reflects both strain-specific differences as well as population-level

differences, although previous work has shown that expression variation in wild-derived inbred

mice from different populations mostly reflects population-level differences [22].

To quantify the proportion of unique and shared changes associated with independent

instances of adaptation to northern environments, we compared evolved gene expression changes

between SARA and MANA to evolved changes between EDMA and MANA using DESeq2

[31]. For liver and BAT, respectively, we found 4,121 and 4,160 significantly differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) between SARA and MANA, and 4,936 and 4,585 DEGs between

EDMA and MANA (FDR < 5% for all differential expression analyses). Of these genes, 2,361

and 2,231 were shared between SARA and EDMA comparisons for liver and BAT, respectively

(Fig2A, S2A Fig). Thus, roughly half of the DEGs were shared between populations and roughly

half were unique to each population. Nonetheless, the number of shared genes is 1.68 and 1.72

times greater than expected by chance in liver and BAT, respectively, as measured through

permutation tests (see methods for details, Fig 2B, S2B Fig). Shared changes might reflect

parallel evolution in New York and Alberta house mice, or unique changes along the lineage

leading to Manaus, as discussed in more detail in the "*Signals of selection*" section.

To further assess the degree of parallel expression evolution, we measured the correlation

between SARA-MANA expression differences and EDMA-MANA expression differences. Log_2

fold changes between SARA and MANA are highly correlated to those between EDMA and

MANA (Fig 2C, Spearman's r = 0.54 for liver, S2C Fig, Spearman's r = 0.53 for BAT).

Moreover, significant DEGs for both comparisons have larger correlation coefficients than the

transcriptome as a whole (Fig 2C, S2C Fig). Because spurious correlations can occur when

comparing two ratios that share the same denominator, we reanalyzed the RNA-seq data using

different subsets of the MANA mice to define differential expression in the two comparisons (i.e.

EDMA mice were compared to MANA mice 1, 2, and 3, while SARA mice were compared to

MANA mice 4, 5, and 6) and all significant correlations were recapitulated (S3 Fig).

To investigate the importance of these expression changes to phenotypic changes

between cold-adapted and warm-adapted mice, we next asked whether genes involved in

increased body size were implicated in parallel expression evolution to a greater degree than the

transcriptome more generally, since larger body size is a trait that has evolved independently in

New York and Alberta mice [25]. We defined a list of 412 "increased body size genes" using

phenotypes defined by the mouse genome informatics (MGI) database (MP code: 0001264).

Supporting this hypothesis, we found that expression divergence in increased body size genes

was highly correlated between the comparisons in both BAT and liver (Fig 3, Spearman's r =

0.82 for both tissues), showing greater correlation coefficients than for either the transcriptome

as a whole or for DEGs.

Enrichment of immune related functions among differentially expressed genes

To categorize the potential function of genes involved in gene expression evolution in

cold-adapted mice, we used gene ontology analyses via PANTHER [32]. We found high

enrichment for biological processes related to immune functioning for both the SARA and

EDMA comparisons in both BAT and liver, such as antigen processing, response to interferon-

beta, and regulation of T cells (Fig 2D-2E, S2D-S2E Fig). Additionally, we found enrichment for

metabolism related processes across comparisons and tissues, including lipid metabolism, small

molecule metabolism, and various other metabolic processes, which may be indicative of

metabolic evolution related to cold adaptation at the transcriptomic level.

Expression divergence is primarily governed by *cis*-regulatory changes

We next asked whether gene expression differences are primarily governed by *cis*-

regulatory changes or *trans*-regulatory changes by measuring allele-specific expression (ASE) in

liver and BAT from F1 hybrids between SARA X MANA and EDMA X MANA. Because F1

hybrids possess one allele from each parent within the same *trans*-acting environment, genes

showing allele-specific differences in expression in F1s are governed by a *cis*-acting change [33].

For both comparisons and both tissues, we found that *cis*-acting changes underlie most

expression divergence. While most gene expression was conserved between cold-adapted and

warm-adapted mice, in the liver we found that 8.6% and 8.0% of all genes were regulated in *cis*-

only, while 1.7% and 4.6% were regulated in *trans*- only for SARA vs. MANA and EDMA vs.

MANA, respectively (Fig 4A-4B). Expression in BAT showed similar trends (S4A-S4B Fig).

We also found that *cis*-acting changes generally have larger effect sizes, as measured by absolute

$\log_2$ fold change, consistent with previous studies in house mice (Fig 4C-4D, S4C-S4D Fig) [16].

The difference in effect size between *cis*-only and *trans*-only was significant in both SARA and

EDMA in BAT, but only in EDMA in liver (T-tests, Liver: SARA-MANA p=0.12, EDMA-

MANA p=0.01, BAT: SARA-MANA p=0.04, EDMA-MANA p=0.002). Overall, we found that

large-effect changes in *cis*- underlie much of expression evolution in this system.

Different degrees of parallelism in *cis*- and *trans*-regulatory changes

Given that most expression evolution was due to changes in *cis*-, we hypothesized that

cis-acting changes would also be more likely to contribute to expression differences that have

evolved in parallel in both New York and Alberta mice. To test this hypothesis, we first

compared the expected overlap between SARA and EDMA for DEGs in general to the observed

overlap for genes defined as *cis*-regulated in both comparisons via permutation tests (see

methods). The same test was done with *trans*-regulated genes. We focused on genes defined as

"*cis*-only" and "*trans*-only", and not those that contained significant levels of both *cis*- and

trans-regulation because the number of genes falling in those categories was small. Both *cis*- and

trans-regulated genes showed significant enrichment for parallel evolved DEGs (Fig 4E-4F,

S4E-S4F Fig, liver: p = ~0 for *cis*, p = 0.02 for *trans*, BAT: p = ~0 for *cis*, p = 0.002 for *trans*;

observed values of overlap that are outside of the permuted expected distribution are reported as

p = ~0).

To more directly compare the degree of parallelism in *cis*-regulated and *trans*-regulated

genes, we analyzed the difference in proportion of shared genes via a chi-square test of

independence. The average proportion of *cis*-regulated genes shared between comparisons was

0.25 for liver and 0.24 for BAT, while the average proportion shared for *trans*-regulated genes

was 0.08 for liver and 0.09 for BAT (Fig 4E-F, S4E-S4F Fig). This difference in proportions is

significant in both tissues (p < 0.0001 for liver and BAT). Additionally, for genes that were *cis*-

regulated in both comparisons, we found that $\log_2$ fold changes between SARA and MANA and

EDMA and MANA were highly correlated (S5 Fig, Spearman's r = 0.89 for liver, 0.96 for

BAT). Because *cis*-regulated genes represent independent cases of expression divergence,

whereas *trans*-regulated changes may influence the expression of many genes, this strong

correlation in *cis*-regulated genes provides further evidence of significant parallelism among

northern house mice. Together, these results suggest that while both *cis-* and *trans-*regulated

genes are more likely than expected by chance to contribute to parallel expression divergence,

*cis-*regulated genes are shared between parallel comparisons to a greater extent than *trans-*

regulated genes.

254   Tissue-specific genes are largely *cis-*regulated, exhibit high amounts of

255   expression divergence, and are involved in parallel evolution

256   To investigate the importance of tissue-specificity in expression evolution, we integrated

our liver and BAT RNA-seq data with a published adult mouse expression dataset [34] including

seven tissues (brain, cerebellum, heart, kidney, liver, ovary, and testis), and calculated tissue

specificity using the value Tau (see methods). Tau ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 corresponding to a

gene evenly expressed across all tissues and 1 corresponding to a gene with expression restricted

to one tissue [35]. For the SARA-MANA and EDMA-MANA comparisons, respectively, we

identified 516 and 526 liver-specific genes, 161 and 161 BAT-specific genes, and 793 and 798

broadly expressed genes.

264   We then investigated the mode of regulatory control (i.e. *cis-* vs. *trans-*) for genes of

differing tissue specificities using the regulatory categories determined via ASE in F1 hybrids.

These analyses were done with a smaller set of genes for which we had gene regulatory data (see

methods). Below we highlight the results for liver, but similar patterns were observed for BAT

(S6 and S8 Fig). In liver, the vast majority of broadly expressed genes have conserved

expression patterns between cold-adapted and warm-adapted mouse strains (SARA-MANA:

90.6%, EDMA-MANA: 87.4%). This proportion of conserved genes is greater than that seen

across all genes (SARA-MANA: 80.9%, EDMA-MANA: 74.9%) (Fig 5A, S7A Fig).

In contrast, for tissue-specific genes, only 46.7% and 35.8% were conserved for SARA-

MANA and EDMA-MANA, respectively. Moreover, we found that a higher proportion of

tissue-specific genes were regulated in *cis-* (SARA-MANA: 31.4%, EDMA-MANA: 33.9%) as

compared to all genes (SARA-MANA: 11.6%, EDMA-MANA: 11.4%) and broadly expressed

genes (SARA-MANA: 5.8%, EDMA-MANA: 4.6%, Fig 5A, S7A Fig). Further, using a

permutation approach to estimate the expected number of DEGs, we found that tissue-specific

genes are highly enriched for DEGs, suggesting that expression evolution is occurring in tissue-

specific genes to a greater extent than in broadly expressed genes or in the transcriptome as a

whole (Fig 5B-C, S7B-S7C Fig). Conversely, broadly expressed genes were under-enriched for

DEGs, which is consistent with the large amount of conserved expression in this gene set (Fig

5C, S7C Fig). Finally, tissue-specific genes also showed larger effect sizes, as measured as

absolute $\log_2$ fold change (Fig 5D, S7D Fig).

Given the high parallelism in *cis*-regulated genes, we hypothesized that differentially

expressed, tissue-specific genes would be more likely to be involved in parallel evolution as

compared to differentially expressed genes as a whole. Using permutation tests, we found that

tissue-specific DEGs are more likely to be shared between SARA and EDMA than DEGs more

generally for both liver and BAT (Fig 5E, S6E Fig, liver-specific: p = ~0, BAT-specific: p = ~0).

Signatures of selection to northern environments

While gene expression differences speak to patterns of regulatory evolution, they do not

directly address whether these differences are adaptive. To link expression variation in SARA

and EDMA lab mice to selection in natural populations, we used a normalized version of the

population branch statistic (PBSn1), which identifies significant allele frequency shifts in a focal

population in relation to two outgroup populations [36,37]. For focal populations analogous to

SARA and EDMA lab mice, we utilized published whole exome data from New Hampshire /

Vermont (NH/VT) (which is geographically close to Saratoga Springs, NY) and Edmonton,

Alberta, Canada (EDM) [22,25], and used published whole genome data from Eurasia,

specifically Iran and France, to serve as outgroup comparisons [38]. Iran and France are both

ancestral populations to house mice in North America, making them suitable populations to serve

as outgroups [20,25,39].

First, we performed two separate PBSn1 tests with NH/VT and EDM as the focal

population and France and Iran as outgroup populations. However, EDM mice and NH/VT mice

are more closely related to each other than they are to mice from Europe and the Middle East

[25]. Therefore, shared outliers in the two PBSn1 tests with France and Iran can either be due to

1) shared ancestry between EDM and NH/VT or 2) true instances of parallel adaptation to a

northern environment. To distinguish between these two possibilities, we performed a second

(nested) set of PBSn1 tests focused on identifying outliers in NH/VT and EDM that are not

associated with shared ancestry by using Arizona (AZ) and Iran as outgroups for EDM, and by

using Florida (FL) and Iran as outgroups for NH/VT. NH/VT and FL mice form a clade, and

EDM and AZ mice form a clade [25]. Therefore, shared outliers identified through this second

set of tests reflect parallel adaptation to northern environments, as opposed to evolution

occurring since the introduction of house mice into North America.

The percentage of hits retained between the EDM-France-Iran test and the EDM-AZ-Iran

test (or the NH/VT-France-Iran test and the NH/VT-FL-Iran test) gives an estimate of the

amount of shared PBSn1 outliers in the first test that are due to shared ancestry vs. true repeated

instances of adaptation to a similar environment. Using this nested approach, we found that

approximately 50% of outlier genes identified in the first tests were also identified in the nested

tests (S9 Fig), suggesting that half of the outlier genes identified in the first tests were due to

shared ancestry, while half represent instances of parallel adaptation.

Enrichment of parallelism and *cis*-regulation among genes under positive

selection

To identify selection acting on differential expression in cold-adapted house mice, we

focused on the second set of PBSn1 tests above using Iran and AZ or FL as outgroups. For these

tests we calculated PBSn1 over 82,809 and 100,602 non-overlapping 5-SNP blocks for NH/VT

and EDM, respectively, and we used BEDTools [40] to identify the closest gene to each SNP-

block (Fig 6A). Mirroring the extensive parallelism identified in the expression data, we found

that NH/VT and EDM PBSn1 outliers (top 5%) at the gene level were more likely to be shared

than expected by chance (Fig 6B, $p = \sim 0$). Second, we hypothesized that there would be

significant overlap between PBSn1 outliers and *cis*-regulated genes because we found *cis*-

regulation to largely underlie expression divergence, and because *cis*-regulatory elements have

long been hypothesized to be involved in adaptive evolution [1,7]. For both the SARA and

EDMA comparisons in liver and BAT, using permutation tests (see methods) we found that *cis*-

regulated genes overlapped PBSn1 outliers more than would be expected by chance (Fig 6C,

liver: $p = 0.0031$ for SARA, $p = \sim 0$ for EDMA, BAT: $p = 0.0033$ for SARA, $p = \sim 0$ for EDMA).

Importantly, there was not significant overlap of PBSn1 outliers and *trans*-regulated genes ($p >$

0.05 for both tissues in each comparison), which agrees well with *trans*-regulatory elements

being unlinked from the genes they influence. To address whether the parallelism seen among

cis-regulated genes (Fig 4E, S4E Fig) was due to shared ancestry among New York and Alberta

mice, we performed another test for parallelism between SARA and EDMA *cis*-DEGs using only

cis-DEGs that overlap an outlier gene in the nested PBSn1 tests. Similar to the original tests for

parallelism, we found significant parallelism between SARA and EDMA for *cis*-regulated genes

under selection in both liver (p = 0.0002) and BAT (p = 0.0134) (S10 Fig).

To identify specific genes that may be directly involved in parallel adaptation to northern

environments, we looked for overlap among genes that are *cis*-regulated in both SARA and

EDMA, and under selection in both comparisons (Fig 6D). Of this set of 10 genes, almost half

are implicated in body size and body fat variation (*Sdr9c7, Ahnak, Slc12a7, Angptl2*), and the

others are involved in skeletal morphology differences (*Ndc1*), coat abnormalities (*Gtpbp4*), and

immune functioning (*Itgb1*). Overall, we found significant parallelism in genes evolving under

positive selection in cold-adapted house mice, that these genes are often associated with *cis*-

regulatory elements, and that parallel, *cis*-regulated genes are involved in phenotypes such as

body size differences, immune functioning, and elements of skeletal morphology.

Discussion

Studying gene expression patterns in populations that have recently adapted to differing

climates allowed us to characterize adaptive evolution during the earliest stages of divergence.

Using allele-specific expression in two cold-adapted strains of mice in two tissues involved in

metabolic functioning and thermogenesis, we sought to understand patterns of *cis*- and *trans*-

regulation and tissue specificity during parallel adaptation to similar environmental conditions.

SARA and EDMA mice have evolved both unique and shared gene expression changes

compared to MANA mice, however the proportion of shared changes was greater than expected

by chance. Further, expression changes at genes associated with increased body size were highly

similar between SARA and EDMA mice, suggesting that New York and Alberta populations of

house mice evolved the shared phenotype of increased body size through some shared molecular

mechanisms. We found that tissue-specific and *cis*-acting changes formed the basis of most gene

expression divergence between cold-adapted and warm-adapted strains of mice, and that these

changes were more likely to contribute to parallel expression evolution. Lastly, comparison

between the expression data and scans for selection in wild populations revealed significant

parallelism in genes under positive selection in cold-adapted house mice and that these genes

were enriched for *cis*-regulated genes. Together, these results provide strong evidence of

adaptive expression evolution and lend insight into the nature of gene regulatory changes during

rapid parallel adaptation to cold environments.

Parallel gene expression and genomic changes underlie adaptation to cold

environments

Repeated phenotypic changes in response to similar selective pressures provides an

opportunity to study the repeatability of evolution at the molecular level. Additionally, repeated

phenotypic change suggests that evolution is likely adaptive, and not a result of genetic drift.

New York and Alberta house mice have independently evolved larger body sizes and shortened

extremities while adapting to a cold environment. These phenotypes are highly polygenic, and

thus one might expect that at the genic level the degree of parallelism involving these traits

would be low [41]. In contrast to this expectation, we found expression evolution to be highly

similar in EDMA and SARA mice in both liver and BAT, with approximately half of all

differentially expressed genes being shared between comparisons.

Importantly, mice from New York and Alberta are more closely related to each other than

they are to mice from Manaus (S11 Fig). Thus, some of the shared expression differences

undoubtedly reflect shared ancestry, while some reflect true instances of parallel evolution.

While we have no formal means for distinguishing between instances of parallel evolution and

shared ancestry in the gene expression data directly, several of the expression analyses are

consistent with the notion that a substantial fraction of the shared expression differences reflect

parallel evolution. For example, the correlation between SARA-MANA expression differences

and EDMA-MANA expression differences is greatest for genes involved in increased body size,

a trait that is known to have evolved independently in New York and Alberta mice [25] (Fig 3).

Additionally, we found significant overlap between *cis*-regulated genes and genes under

selection in the nested PBSn1 test, which was designed to identify independently evolved

differences in the two cold-adapted populations (Fig 6C). Lastly, we found that the signal of

parallelism among *cis*-regulated genes was maintained when using only *cis*-regulated genes that

overlapped a PBSn1 outlier identified in the nested test (S10 Fig), suggesting that *cis*-regulated

genes are under independent selection in both cold-adapted populations of house mice. The

substantial parallelism between cold-adapted house mice is consistent with selection on shared

standing genetic variation, which is expected to increase the degree of similarity seen between

independent cases of adaptation [41].

Cis-regulated and tissue-specific changes dominate parallel expression

evolution

We found evidence for a predominance of *cis*-regulated changes governing gene

expression evolution in two instances of adaptation to northern environments. *Cis*-changes are

generally thought to be less pleiotropic by allowing for tissue- and context-specific gene

expression regulation [1,5,8]. Consistent with this, we also found that tissue-specific

differentially expressed genes were largely *cis*-regulated and frequently contributed to expression

evolution.

These results stand in contrast to the commonly reported finding that intraspecific gene

expression variation is largely governed in *trans*-, while interspecific variation is largely

governed in *cis*- [5,8–11]. However, the proportion of *cis*-regulatory variation that is discovered

within species likely depends on many factors that differ among studies. First, studies that have

found a predominance of *trans*-changes governing intraspecific variation have often focused on

comparisons among individuals within a population such as inbred lab strains of *Drosophila* [9]

or *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strains derived from the same isolate [10,42]. In contrast, in

intraspecific comparisons where the groups have experienced directional selection, such as in

freshwater vs. marine sticklebacks [19] or cold-adapted vs. warm-adapted *D. melanogaster* [43],

cis-changes have sometimes been found to govern the majority of expression variation. These

contrasting patterns can be explained if expression variation under stabilizing selection is largely

governed in *trans*- while expression variation under positive directional selection is largely

governed in *cis*-. Therefore, it seems important to consider whether the groups being compared

are under divergent selection when interpreting the relative amounts of *cis*- and *trans*-regulation

observed in intraspecific comparisons.

Second, the relative amount of *cis*- and *trans*-regulation that is discovered may depend on

whether expression is studied in a specific tissue or in a whole organism. A bias could arise in

two ways. First, because *cis*-acting changes are often associated with tissue-specific gene

expression, measuring RNA at the level of the entire organism, such as an entire fly [9,11], could

dampen the signal of tissue specific *cis*-changes, therefore minimizing the level of *cis*-regulation

detected. Second, changes in cellular composition (i.e. changes in the proportions of different

kinds of cells) will appear as *trans*-changes when studying expression in whole organisms. For

example, flies with bigger brains will express more brain-specific transcripts simply as a

consequence of having more brain cells. Interestingly, in studies that have analyzed the head and

body separately in *Drosophila*, *cis*-acting changes were found to predominate [17].

While there are contrasting trends represented across various divergence times and

organisms, here we present a case of nascent divergence (within ~500 years) facilitated largely

by *cis*-changes; this trend was similarly demonstrated by Ballinger et al. [44] in their comparison

of New York and Brazil house mice. Together, these studies lend support to the importance of

cis-regulatory elements even during very early instances of intraspecific differentiation.

Further supporting a large role for *cis*-acting and tissue-specific changes, we found these

modes of regulation to predominate in both SARA and EDMA mice, consistent with the idea that

less pleiotropic changes are more likely to contribute to parallel divergence. Recent studies on

gene regulatory patterns during parallel evolution have come to contrasting conclusions, with

two studies finding a greater degree of parallelism in *cis*-acting changes [19,43] and another

study finding a greater degree of parallelism in *trans*-acting changes [18]. Considerable previous

theoretical and empirical work has suggested that less pleiotropic loci are more likely to

contribute to parallel and convergent evolution [7,45–48]. However, some recent work in locally

adapted stickleback populations has suggested that genes with intermediate levels of pleiotropy

(identified through mapping studies and expression networks) may be more likely to underlie

parallel adaptive evolution [49]. Genes with intermediate degrees of pleiotropy may be favored

in situations where selection is acting on standing variation repeatedly in opposing directions.

The distinction between *cis-* and *trans-* changes in our study does not allow us to assess

"degrees" of pleiotropy, but future studies aimed at using gene co-expression networks could be

used to ask whether genes with intermediate levels of connectedness are most likely to underlie

parallel evolution.

Identifying strong candidate genes for complex traits

Uncovering the genetic basis of adaptation for complex traits is challenging because these

phenotypes are controlled by a large number of genes of mostly small effect. Here we combined

multiple experimental approaches including differential gene expression, scans for selection and

the use of parallel instances of adaptation, that, in aggregate, provide more information on the

genetic basis of adaptive, polygenic traits than any one method alone. Through this approach we

were able to identify several strong candidate genes that are differentially expressed, controlled

in *cis-*, and under selection in both northern populations. These genes are related to known

phenotypic differences in northern and southern house mice including body size (*Sdr9c7,*

Slc12a7), body fat variation (*Ahnak, Angptl2*), skeletal morphology (*Ndc1*), and coat differences

(*Gtpbp4*). Interestingly, both the candidate gene approach and gene ontology analyses (Fig 2D-

2E, S2D-S2E Fig) also revealed an enrichment for immune related genes during adaptation to

northern environments. This result agrees with previous work showing novel pathogens as a

strong selective force on organisms invading new environments, often shaping the response at

the genomic level [50].

Our results show that selection is acting on *cis*-regulatory elements in natural populations

to modulate gene expression levels that are then maintained in animals reared under common lab

conditions. This work provides a detailed account of the gene regulatory changes underlying

repeated instances of adaptation to cold environments and the degree of similarity between these

cases of repeated adaptation. Ultimately, our findings underscore the importance of *cis*-regulated

and tissue-specific changes in facilitating rapid adaptive evolution in organisms facing novel

environmental conditions.

Materials and methods

Animal husbandry and mice used for this study

All mice were housed under a 12:12 light cycle at 70-72°C and fed standard rodent food

ab libitum. This work was conducted in accordance with the University of California, Berkeley

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (AUP-2017-08-10248).

Wild derived, inbred strains of house mice used in this study were originally collected

from 43°N in Saratoga Springs, New York (SARA), 54°N in Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

(EDMA), and at 3°S in Manaus, Brazil (MANA). Information on the establishment of these

inbred strains is described in Phifer-Rixey et al. [22] and Ferris et al. [25]. In brief, live mice

were collected from New York, Alberta, and Manaus, brought back to the lab, and unrelated

individuals were mated to create the N1 generation. Inbred strains were generated via subsequent

sib-sib mating. SARA, EDMA, and MANA mice in this study were past generation 10 of sib-sib

mating and considered fully inbred.

We crossed SARA dams to MANA sires and EDMA dams to MANA sires to generate

SARA x MANA and EDMA x MANA F1 hybrids, respectively. All mice were housed singly

from weaning (3 weeks) until adulthood. The SARA, MANA, and SARA x MANA male F1

hybrids were previously generated in Ballinger et al. [44].

Phenotyping, sample preparation and RNA-sequencing

At 11 weeks of age, six males of each group [SARA, EDMA, MANA,

(SARAxMANA)F1, and (EDMAxMANA)F1] were sacrificed. Body weight, total body length,

tail length, ear length, and hind foot length were measured, and liver and brown adipose tissue

(BAT) were collected for RNA-sequencing. Further information for all mice used in this study

can be found in S1 File. Liver and BAT were immediately placed in RNAlater, kept at 4°C for

24 hours and then stored at -80°C until RNA-extraction. We extracted RNA using the Qiagen

RNeasy minikit following the manufacturer's instructions. We validated RNA integrity using an

Aligent Bioanalyzer and only RNA with RIN > 8 was used for library preparation. We generated

cDNA libraries using the KAPA Stranded mRNA-Seq kit starting with 2ug of total RNA

measured using Nanodrop, and uniquely indexed libraries using dual indexes from Illumina. We

assessed library size and quality using an Aligent Bioanalyzer with a desired insert size of 300bp.

Tissue-specific libraries were then pooled and sequenced across two lanes of Illumina 150bp

paired-end NovaSeq, one using an S4 flow cell, and one using an S1 flow cell at the Vincent J.

Coates Genomics Sequencing Center at UC Berkeley.

Gene expression quantification and analysis

All analyses for the liver and BAT were performed identically, but separately unless

otherwise noted. Resulting RNA-Seq reads were cleaned and trimmed with FastP [51] (v.0.19.6,

parameters = --n_base_limit 5, --qualified_quality_phred 15, --unqualified_percent_limit 30, --

detect_adapter_for_pe, --cut_window_size 4, --cut_mean_quality 15, --length_required 25), and

then mapped to the mouse reference genome (GRCm38/mm10) with STAR [52] (v2.7.7a,

parameters = --outFilterMultimapNmax 1, --outFilterMismatchNmax 3). After alignment, reads

were counted using HTseq [53], and count files from each sample were merged using the python

script merge_tables.py (Dave Wheeler, github link). This merged table was the input for

downstream differential expression analyses.

Differential expression between mouse strains was quantified using DESeq2 in R [31],

and only genes with a mean greater than 10 reads across samples were retained for analysis. This

resulted in a set of 14,514 and 14,703 genes that were expressed in our liver and BAT datasets,

respectively. The contrast parameter in the result command was used to isolate SARA vs MANA

and EDMA vs MANA comparisons, and differential expression between strains was determined

using Wald tests followed by a Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple testing with a false

discovery rate (FDR) of 5%. DESeq2 was also used to generate principal component plots (Fig

1F, S1 Fig).

To confirm that the correlation in $\log_2$ fold change observed between the SARA vs

MANA comparison and the EDMA vs MANA comparison (Fig 2C, S2C Fig) was not a spurious

correlation due to both variables having the same denominator, we re-quantified differential

expression between the mouse strains as described above using different subsets of MANA mice

in each comparison (ie. EDMA vs MANA samples 1-3 and SARA vs MANA samples 4-6).

Correlations were maintained (S3 Fig), suggesting parallel changes.

Gene set and gene ontology analyses

To test for increased gene expression parallelism associated with a parallel evolved

phenotype, we compiled a list of genes linked to increased body size using the Mammalian

Phenotype Browser on the Mouse Genome Informatics database (MP ID: 0001264). This

returned a list of 412 genes to be used in downstream analyses (S2 File). We conducted gene

ontology enrichment analyses separately for SARA and EDMA comparisons on differentially

expressed genes at an FDR < 5% and a log$_2$ fold change greater than $\pm$ 1 using PANTHER [32].

Variant calling from transcriptomic data

We called single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) using the Genome Analysis Tool Kit

(GATK) [54] on our RNA-seq data following the RNA-seq best practices for germline short

variant discovery. Reads were cleaned, trimmed, and aligned as described in the section above.

We prepared BAM files for variant calling using Picard tools MarkDuplicates and

AddOrReplaceReadGroups, and by running SplitNCigarReads. We then ran HaplotypeCaller on

each individual separately passing both the liver and BAT RNA-seq libraries as inputs. Separate

gVCF files were combined using CombineGVCFs and genotypes were called on all individuals

together using GenotypeGVCFs. We selected just SNPs using SelectVariants and filtered for

high quality variants using the command VariantFiltration (parameters = QD >2, FS < 60, MQ >

40, MQRankSum > -12.5, ReadPosRankSum > -8).

Allele specific expression analysis

To assign parental alleles for reads in F1 hybrids, we first had to identify fixed and

different SNPs between the parent groups for each comparison. Starting from the high quality

variants described above, we generated separate MANA, EDMA, and SARA VCF files using

bcftools and filtered for SNPs present in at least 85% of individuals using VCFtools [55]. We

then created two VCF files for each parent group: one that contained SNPs fixed for the non-

reference allele, and one that contained SNPs fixed for the reference allele. We then merged the

resulting VCF files to generate a file for each comparison that only contained fixed and different

SNPs between parent groups using vcf-merge. For example, for the EDMA vs MANA

comparison, fixed non-reference allele EDMA SNPs were merged with fixed reference allele

MANA SNPs, and vice versa for reference EDMA SNPs and non-reference MANA SNPs. These

two resulting files were combined using bcftools concat to generate a VCF file of only fixed and

different SNPs between EDMA and MANA mice.

To differentiate between alleles in F1 hybrids, we called variants for F1s as described

above, and then filtered for only heterozygous calls using bcftools. To generate a set of ASE

informative SNPs, we retained only variants present in each F1 individual and present in the

fixed and different parent group VCF files. This resulted in a set of 30,000 ASE informative

SNPs for the SARA vs MANA comparison and 25,229 SNPs for the EDMA vs MANA

comparison. We phased the resulting VCF files for each comparison to indicate whether MANA

or SARA/EDMA contained the reference or alternate allele using custom scripts. We then

generated two separate pools of reads for each F1 hybrid (one of MANA reads and one of

SARA/EDMA reads) by aligning the F1 reads using STAR with WASP [56], specifying the ASE

informative SNPs as the variant file. WASP adds a SAMtag to each read indicating its phase

status in the provided VCF, here corresponding to the parental group to which the read maps. We

selected for the different SAMtags using grep, generating two separate BAM files for each

individual corresponding to reads of the different parental groups, which were subsequently

counted using HTSeq count as described above. Reads from F1 hybrids equally mapped to both

the MANA and SARA/EDMA allele, suggesting that there was no mapping bias toward either

mouse strain (S12 Fig).

Cis- and *trans*-regulatory assignment

We determined the relative amount of *cis*- and *trans*-regulated genes similarly to

McManus et al. [57]. We performed three hierarchical statistical tests for differential expression

using DESeq2 in R [31] only retaining genes with a mean count greater than 10 reads across all

samples. Ultimately, we were able to test for ASE in 4,811 genes in liver and 4,502 genes in

BAT for the SARA vs MANA comparison and 4,320 genes in liver and 3,864 genes in BAT for

the EDMA vs MANA comparison.

Three separate tests were used to analyze 1) differential expression between parental samples

via Wald tests (P), 2) differential expression between the separate alleles of the F1 hybrids via

Wald tests (H), and 3) the presence of *trans*- effects (T), which was determined using a

likelihood ratio test comparing the ratios of mouse strain expression difference between the

parents and between the alleles of an F1 hybrid. A significant difference between ratios indicates

that the expression difference between alleles in an F1 does not recapitulate the expression

difference between the parents, pointing to the presence of *trans*-regulation. Genes were

categorized into different regulatory modes based on their significance at an FDR of 5% in the P,

H, and T statistical tests as described below.

• *cis*- only: significant in P and H, not significant in T

• *trans*- only: significant in P, not significant in H, significant in T

• *cis + trans*: significant in P, H and T. Expression divergence direction in P and H is the

same.

• *cis x trans*: significant in P, H and T. Expression divergence direction in P and H is not the

same.

• compensatory: significant in H, not significant in P, significant in T. No expression

divergence due to compensation

•   conserved: not significant in H, P, or T. No expression divergence

•   ambiguous: Genes not encapsulated by above parameters.

Genes falling into each regulatory category (excluding ambiguous) for both comparisons

and both tissues are listed in S3-S6 Files.

Tissue specificity

To identify liver-specific and BAT-specific genes, we integrated our RNA-seq data with

a published *Mus musculus* RNA-seq dataset from Cardoso-Moreira et al. [34] that analyzed

expression from four mice (2 males and 2 females) in seven tissues: brain (forebrain/cerebrum),

cerebellum (hindbrain/cerebellum), heart, kidney, ovary, testis, and liver. The Cardoso-Moreira

et al. [34] dataset started as EdgeR generated reads per kilobase mapped (RPKM) values. To

make our dataset comparable, we re-analyzed our HTSeq generated read counts (described in the

"*Gene expression quantification and analysis*" section) as described in Cardoso-Moreira et al.

[34]. Briefly, we used the TMM method in EdgeR [58] to normalize read counts, and generated

RPKM values using the EdgeR rpkm function. We analyzed congruence between our dataset and

the published dataset by comparing the separate liver RPKM values for each gene. Liver gene

expression was highly correlated between the datasets (Pearson's R=0.75, $p < 2.2e^{-16}$),

suggesting that our approach is reasonable.

We used tau to determine tissue specificity [35]. Tau captures the deviation in expression

level for a gene in a particular tissue compared to its average FPKM across tissues. Tau ranges

from 0-1, with 1 representing a gene only expressed in one tissue, and 0 representing a gene

evenly expressed across all tissues [35]. Genes were defined as BAT- or liver-specific if tau >

0.85 [59] and if the highest FPKM was in BAT or liver, respectively. Genes were defined as

broadly expressed if tau < 0.35. Because we had liver expression values both from the published

dataset and our dataset, we calculated tau twice: once including our liver data, and once with the

Cardoso-Moreira et al. [34] liver data. Only genes defined as liver-specific in both calculations

were used in downstream analyses. Liver-specific, BAT-specific, and broadly expressed genes

are listed in S7-S12 Files.

To investigate the relationship between tissue specificity and mode of regulation, we

determined the regulatory class for each gene using the assignments generated in the "*cis- and*

trans-regulatory assignment" section above. Genes of "ambiguous" regulatory class were not

included. For the SARA vs MANA and EDMA vs MANA comparisons, respectively, we were

able to use 169 and 174 liver-specific genes, 20 and 12 BAT-specific genes, 277 and 237 broadly

expressed genes in the liver dataset, and 279 and 242 broadly expressed genes in the BAT

dataset that had both regulatory type data and tissue specificity data.

Permutation tests of enrichment

To test for enrichment of parallelism in differentially expressed genes (DEGs), we

performed permutation tests using the sample function in R without replacement with 10,000

iterations. Specifically, to test for parallelism in DEGs in liver, we randomly sampled 4,121genes

from the total of those expressed in the SARA vs MANA comparison (representing the number

of DEGs between SARA vs MANA) and 4,936 genes from the total of those expressed in the

EDMA vs MANA comparison. We then calculated the overlap between the randomly sampled

gene sets and tabulated a p-value using the proportion of the simulated distribution that was

outside the observed value. We calculated the degree of enrichment by dividing the observed

overlap by the mean of the simulated overlap. Parallelism in *cis-* and *trans*-regulated genes was

done in a similar manner by randomly sampling gene sets of the appropriate size for each

comparison and each tissue from the total of those significantly differentially expressed (FDR <

0.05). We also tested for parallelism in *cis*-regulated genes that showed signatures of

independent selection in the nested PBSn1 test for each tissue separately by randomly sampling

gene sets of the same size as the number of *cis*-regulated genes under selection in EDMA and

SARA from the total of those significantly differentially expressed (FDR < 0.05). Lastly, we

tested for parallelism in differentially expressed tissue-specific genes analogously to that

described above by randomly sampling from the set of genes significantly differentially

expressed (FDR < 0.05).

We also tested for enrichment of expression divergence in tissue-specific and broadly

expressed genes by comparing the observed vs. expected amount of DEGs in each gene set using

a similar permutation approach as described above. This was carried out separately for the

SARA vs MANA and EDMA vs MANA comparisons. More specifically, for liver-specific

genes, we randomly sampled 230 genes (representing the number of liver-specific DEGs) from

the total genes tested for tissue specificity, and then tabulated how many were significantly

differentially expressed at an FDR < 5%. We repeated this analysis for BAT-specific and broadly

expressed genes and calculated p-values and degree of enrichment as described in the paragraph

above.

PBS test for selection

To identify loci under selection in cold-adapted populations of house mice, we used a

normalized version of the population branch statistic (PBSn1), which identifies significant allele

frequency shifts in a focal population in relation to two outgroup populations [36,37]. We

conducted two sets of PBSn1 tests for both cold-adapted populations, for a total of four tests. For

the first test we used previously published population level exome data from Edmonton, Alberta,

Canada (EDM) [25], New Hampshire/Vermont (NH/VT), which is geographically close to

Saratoga Springs, NY [22], and genomic data from European *M. m. domesticus* mice,

specifically from France and Iran downloaded from

https://wwwuser.gwdg.de/~evolbio/evolgen/wildmouse/ [38]. France and Iran were chosen as

comparison populations as they are ancestral to house mouse populations in the Americas

[20,25,39]. SNPs were called on the North American exomes together using GATK [54]. We ran

HaplotypeCaller on each individual separately, and then combined gVCF files using

CombineGVCFs. Genotypes were called on all individuals together using GenotypeGVCFs. We

selected just SNPs using SelectVariants and filtered for high quality variants using the command

VariantFiltration (parameters = QD >2, FS < 60). We then selected for only the autosomes and

combined the resulting VCF with the published VCF containing France and Iran mice. We

filtered variants for those present in more that 80% of individuals and excluded those with a

minor allele frequency < 5%, resulting in a set of 558,934 biallelic SNPs.

We used VCFtools [55] to calculate pairwise Weir and Cockerham Fst for each

population comparison (see details below), and calculated PBSn1 in non-overlapping 5-SNP

blocks as in Crawford et al. [37]. This SNP block approach results in a less diffuse signal,

allowing us to identify regions of clear differentiation between the populations of interest. We

then used BEDTools closest [40] to identify the closest gene in the mm10 Ensembl mouse

genome annotation to each SNP block.

We calculated the parameters of the PBSn1 test shown below separately for EDM and

NH/VT as the focal population with France and Iran as the outgroup populations.

$$T = -\log(1 - F_{ST}) \qquad PBS = \frac{T^{pop1pop2} + T^{pop1pop3} - T^{pop2pop3}}{2}$$

$$PBS_{n1} = \frac{PBS_1}{1 + PBS_1 + PBS_2 + PBS_3}$$

In the PBS calculation, pop1 refers to the focal population, and in the PBSn1 calculation,

PBS1 refers to the PBS value when EDM or NH/VT is the focal population, while PBS2 and

PBS3 refer to the PBS value when France and Iran are used as the focal populations,

respectively.

To address the confounding factor of shared ancestry of EDM and NH/VT, and to

identify independent, parallel allele frequency changes in these two populations, we performed a

"nested" PBSn1 test with two additional previously published North American population level

exome samples, one from Arizona and one from Florida [22,25]. This second set of tests

consisted of one with EDM as the focal population and Arizona and Iran as outgroups, and one

with NH/VT as the focal population with Florida and Iran as outgroups. Because mice from

EDM and NH/VT are more closely related to mice from Arizona and Florida, respectively, than

they are to one another [25], PBSn1 hits identified in this second test that are shared between the

EDM and NH/VT comparisons are most likely to be independent cases of parallel adaptation as

opposed to shared ancestry. SNP calling and PBSn1 calculation was done similarly to that

described for the first test. After all filtering steps, we retained a set of 667,423 biallelic SNPs.

Ensembl IDs for genes overlapping outlier SNPs identified using BEDTools and for *cis*-

regulated genes can be found in S13 File.

729 Tests for enrichment for parallel evolved PBSn1 hits (FDR <0.05) between EDM and

730 NH/VT and overlap between PBSn1 hits and *cis-* and *trans*-regulated genes were performed at

731 the gene level analogously to that described in the "*Tests of enrichment*" section.

Phylogenetic tree construction

734 To describe the phylogenetic relationship between focal mouse groups, we used whole

735 genome data from Iran and France from Harr et al. [38] as described above, the whole exomes of

736 EDM as NH/VT as described above, and 10 samples from Manaus, Brazil (Gutierrez-Guerrero et

737 al. *In prep*) prepared analogously to the other whole exome data. We constructed a neighbor

738 joining tree with these five populations, specifying Iran as an outgroup, using vcfR [60], poppr

739 [61], and adegenet [62] in R, and visualized with iTOL [63].

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Fig 1: Morphological and gene expression variation in focal mouse strains.
A). Variation in minimum annual temperature of original sampling localities for focal mouse
strains. Data from WorldClim. B-E). Morphological variation in male mice collected for RNA-
seq reflects environmental adaptation to differing climates. F). Principal component analyses for
liver RNA-seq data separates samples based on original sampling locality. BAT data shown in
S1 Fig.

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Fig 2: Parallel gene expression evolution in liver.
A). Overlap of significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between SARAvMANA and
EDMAvMANA comparisons (FDR < 5%). B). Expected vs. observed overlap between
SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA DEGs. C). Correlation between SARAvMANA log$_2$ fold
change and EDMAvMANA log$_2$ fold change for all genes (black), SARAvMANA DEGs (blue)
and EDMAvMANA DEGs (green). Correlation coefficients are Spearman's R. D-E). Gene
ontology enrichment for SARAvMANA DEGs (D) and EDMAvMANA DEGs (E).

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915 **Fig 3: Parallel expression evolution in increased body size genes.**
916 Correlation between SARAvMANA log_2 fold change and EDMAvMANA log_2 fold change in
917 liver (A) and BAT (B) for all genes (black) and increased body sized genes (red).

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Fig 4: Parallel gene regulatory evolution in liver.
A-B). Correlation between parental differential expression and differential expression between
alleles in F1 hybrids for SARAvMANA (A) and EDMAvMANA (B) comparisons. Genes are
colored based on regulatory mode (see methods of details). C-D). Effect size as measured as $\log_2$
fold change for different regulatory classes in SARAvMANA (C) and EDMAvMANA (D)
comparisons. P-values calculated using paired t-tests. E-F). Expected vs. observed overlap
between SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA *cis*-regulated (E) and *trans*-regulated (F) genes.
Dashed line indicates observed overlap. Proportion of overlap shown in venn diagrams is
significantly higher for *cis*-regulated genes as compared to *trans*-regulated genes (Chi-square test
of independence, p < 0.0001).

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Fig 5: Patterns of tissue-specific gene expression evolution between SARA and MANA mice in liver.
A). Percentage of each regulatory type in liver-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes. Genes of ambiguous regulatory type are not included. EDMAvMANA and BAT results can be found in S6-S8 Figs. B-C). Expected vs. observed number of significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in liver-specific (B) and broadly expressed (C) genes. Dashed line indicates observed value. D). Effect size as measured as $\log_2$ fold change for liver-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes. E). Overlap of liver-specific DEGs between SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA comparisons (FDR < 5%) and expected vs. observed overlap between SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA liver-specific DEGs. Dashed line indicates observed value.

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Fig 6: Natural selection on *cis*-regulated genes and parallel expression divergence.
A). PBSn1 values for selection scans with New Hampshire/Vermont (NH/VT) (top) and
Edmonton (EDM) (bottom) as the focal population. Line indicates the top 5% of 5-SNP blocks.
Red points are PBSn1 outliers that overlap with a *cis*-regulated gene. *cis*-regulated genes
identified in either liver or BAT are shown. Blue points are PBSn1 outliers that are present in
both the NH/VT and EDM tests. Yellow points indicate SNPs associated with the 10 genes that
are *cis*-regulated and PBSn1 outliers in both comparisons. B). Expected vs. observed overlap
between NH/VT and EDM PBSn1 outliers. Blue dot indicates observed value. C). Expected vs.
observed overlaps between PBSn1 outliers and *cis*-regulated genes (red) and *trans*-regulated
genes (purple). Colored dot indicates observed value. D). Venn diagram of PBSn1 outliers and
cis-regulated genes (in either tissue) for both comparisons.
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959 # Supporting Information

965 **S1 Fig: Gene expression variation across tissues and samples.**
966 A). Principal component analyses for all RNA-seq data separates samples first on tissue type,
967 and second on original sampling locality. B). Principal component analyses for BAT RNA-seq
968 data separates samples based on original sampling locality.

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S2 Fig: Parallel gene expression evolution in BAT.
A). Overlap of significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between SARAvMANA and
EDMAvMANA comparisons (FDR <5%). B). Expected vs. observed overlap between
SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA DEGs. C). Correlation between SARAvMANA log$_2$ fold
change and EDMAvMANA log$_2$ fold change for all genes (black), SARAvMANA DEGs (blue)
and EDMAvMANA DEGs (green). Correlation coefficients are Spearman's R. D-E). Gene
ontology enrichment for SARAvMANA DEGs (D) and EDMAvMANA DEGs (E).

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S3 Fig: Parallel expression evolution with subsets of MANA data.
A-B). Correlation between SARAvMANA (MANA samples 4-6) $\log_2$ fold change and
EDMAvMANA (MANA samples 1-3) $\log_2$ fold change in liver (A) and BAT (B). All expressed
genes are in black, SARAvMANA DEGs are in blue and EDMAvMANA DEGs are in green.
Correlation coefficients are Spearman's R. All significant correlations found using the full
MANA data for each comparison are recapitulated.

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S4 Fig: Parallel gene regulatory evolution in BAT.
A-B). Correlation between parental differential expression and differential expression between
alleles in F1 hybrids for SARAvMANA (A) and EDMAvMANA (B) comparisons. Genes are
colored based on regulatory mode (see methods of details). C-D). Effect size as measured as $\log_2$
fold change for different regulatory classes in SARAvMANA (C) and EDMAvMANA (D)
comparisons. P-values calculated using paired t-tests. E-F). Expected vs. observed overlap
between SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA *cis*-regulated (E) and *trans*-regulated (F) genes.
Dashed line indicates observed overlap. Proportion of overlap shown in venn diagrams is
significantly higher for *cis*-regulated genes as compared to *trans*-regulated genes (Chi-square test
of independence, p < 0.0001).

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1000 **S5 Fig: Parallel expression evolution in *cis*-regulated genes.**
1001 Correlation between SARAvMANA log$_2$ fold change and EDMAvMANA log$_2$ fold change in
1002 liver (A) and BAT (B) for genes that are *cis*-regulated in both comparisons. Correlation
1003 coefficients are Spearman's R.

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S6 Fig: Patterns of tissue-specific gene expression evolution between SARA and MANA
mice in BAT.
A). Percentage of each regulatory type in BAT-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes. Genes
of ambiguous regulatory type are not included. B-C). Expected vs. observed number of
significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in BAT-specific (B) and broadly expressed
(C) genes. Dashed line indicates observed value. D). Effect size as measured as $\log_2$ fold change
for BAT-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes. E). Overlap of BAT-specific DEGs between
SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA comparisons (FDR < 5%) and expected vs. observed
overlap between SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA BAT-specific DEGs. Dashed line indicates
observed value.

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S7 Fig: Patterns of tissue-specific gene expression evolution between EDMA and MANA
mice in liver.
A). Percentage of each regulatory type in liver-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes. Genes
of ambiguous regulatory type are not included. B-C). Expected vs. observed number of
significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in liver-specific (B) and broadly expressed
(C) genes. Dashed line indicates observed value. D). Effect size as measured as log$_2$ fold change
for liver-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes.

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S8 Fig: Patterns of tissue-specific gene expression evolution between EDMA and MANA
mice in BAT.
A). Percentage of each regulatory type in BAT-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes. Genes
of ambiguous regulatory type are not included. B-C). Expected vs. observed number of
significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in BAT-specific (B) and broadly expressed
(C) genes. Dashed line indicates observed value. D). Effect size as measured as $\log_2$ fold change
for BAT-specific, broadly expressed, and all genes.

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1036 **S9 Fig: Shared outlier genes in nested PBSn1 tests.**
1037 A-C). Overlap of the top 10% (A), 5% (B) and 1% (C) of outlier genes shared between the
1038 NH/VT-France-Iran and NH/VT-FL-Iran PBSn1 tests. D-F). Overlap of the top 10% (D), 5% (E)
1039 and 1% (F) of outlier genes shared between the EDM-France-Iran and EDM-AZ-Iran PBSn1
1040 tests.

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1043 **S10 Fig: Parallelism in independently evolved *cis*-regulated genes.**
1044 A-B). Expected vs. observed overlap between SARAvMANA and EDMAvMANA for
1045 independently evolved *cis*-regulated genes (*cis*-regulated genes that overlap a PBSn1 outlier hit
1046 in the nested test) in liver (A) and BAT (B). Dashed line indicates observed overlap.

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1049 **S11 Fig: Relationship among focal populations.**
1050 Neighbor joining tree of focal house mouse populations from the ancestral range and North and
1051 South America. The tree is rooted using eight samples from Iran.

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S12 Fig: Lack of mapping bias in F1 hybrids.

A-D). Ratio of F1 hybrid reads mapping to the MANA allele vs. all mapped reads is centered around 0.5 in each tissue for SARAxMANA (A-B) and EDMAxMANA (C-D) F1 hybrids, suggesting there is no mapping bias for reads preferentially mapping to the allele of one parent.

S1 File: Phenotypic data and metadata for mice used for RNA sequencing. Unique identifiers, sample names, other metadata, and phenotypic measurements of mice used for RNA sequencing.

S2 File: Increased body size genes. Ensembl IDs for increased body size genes identified using the Mammalian Phenotype Browser on the Mouse Genome Informatics database (MP ID: 0001264).

S3 File: SARAvMANA liver gene regulatory categories. Genes (Ensembl IDs) falling into different regulatory categories. Log2 fold changes and adjusted p-values for DESeq2 tests on parental differential expression, F1 allele differential expression, and trans expression. Parental base mean also listed.

S4 File: SARAvMANA BAT gene regulatory categories. Genes (Ensembl IDs) falling into different regulatory categories. Log2 fold changes and adjusted p-values for DESeq2 tests on parental differential expression, F1 allele differential expression, and trans expression. Parental base mean also listed.

S5 File: EDMAvMANA liver gene regulatory categories. Genes (Ensembl IDs) falling into different regulatory categories. Log2 fold changes and adjusted p-values for DESeq2 tests on parental differential expression, F1 allele differential expression, and trans expression. Parental base mean also listed.

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1090 **S6 File: EDMAvMANA BAT gene regulatory categories.** Genes (Ensembl IDs) falling into
1091 different regulatory categories. Log2 fold changes and adjusted p-values for DESeq2 tests on
1092 parental differential expression, F1 allele differential expression, and trans expression. Parental
1093 base mean also listed.
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1096 **S7 File. Liver-specific genes in the SARAvMANA comparison**. Published RPKM means
1097 (prefix "pub"), liver and BAT RPKM means from this study (prefix "local"), and calculated tau
1098 values using both published and locally generated liver mean expression values.
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1100 **S8 File. BAT-specific genes in the SARAvMANA comparison**. Published RPKM means
1101 (prefix "pub"), liver and BAT RPKM means from this study (prefix "local"), and calculated tau
1102 values using both published and locally generated liver mean expression values.
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1105 **S9 File. Broadly expressed genes in the SARAvMANA comparison**. Published RPKM means
1106 (prefix "pub"), liver and BAT RPKM means from this study (prefix "local"), and calculated tau
1107 values using both published and locally generated liver mean expression values.
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1110 **S10 File. Liver-specific genes in the EDMAvMANA comparison**. Published RPKM means
1111 (prefix "pub"), liver and BAT RPKM means from this study (prefix "local"), and calculated tau
1112 values using both published and locally generated liver mean expression values.
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1115 **S11 File. BAT-specific genes in the EDMAvMANA comparison**. Published RPKM means
1116 (prefix "pub"), liver and BAT RPKM means from this study (prefix "local"), and calculated tau
1117 values using both published and locally generated liver mean expression values.
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1120 **S12 File. Broadly expressed genes in the EDMAvMANA comparison**. Published RPKM
1121 means (prefix "pub"), liver and BAT RPKM means from this study (prefix "local"), and
1122 calculated tau values using both published and locally generated liver mean expression values.
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1125 **S13 File: Summary of genes overlapping PBSn1 outlier hits and *cis*-regulated genes.**
1126 Ensembl IDs for NH/VT and EDM PBSn1 outliers (FDR <0.05), parallel outliers, outliers
1127 overlapping *cis*-regulated genes, and *cis*-regulated genes generally.
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