The evolution of gene expression in seasonal environments

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Abstract

The biological activities of organisms are closely linked to seasonality. Phenology, the temporal orchestration of biological activities, is governed by gene expression, yet the evolutionary dynamics underlying seasonal gene expression remain unclear. To investigate these dynamics, we compared genome-wide expression dynamics (molecular phenology) in four dominant evergreen Fagaceae species in Asia (*Quercus glauca*, *Q. acuta*, *Lithocarpus edulis*, and *L. glaber*), using leaf and bud tissues over two seasonal cycles. We assembled high-quality reference genomes, identifying 11749 single-copy orthologous genes. Seasonal transcriptomic profiling of these orthologous genes revealed highly conserved gene expression across species in winter when temperatures fall below ~10°C. Rhythmic gene expression with significant periodic oscillations was more prevalent in buds (51.9%) than in leaves (40.6%), with most rhythmic genes (78.4–92.0%) exhibiting annual periodicity, while a smaller fraction (1.2–11.9%) followed half-annual cycles. The seasonal peaks of rhythmic genes were highly synchronized across species in winter but diverged during the growing season, reflecting species-specific timing of leaf flushing and flowering. These findings suggest that the four species share a common molecular calendar in winter, which constrains the evolution of gene expression under seasonal environments.

Introduction

Fundamental biological processes, such as growth, mortality, and reproduction, rarely remain constant over time; instead, they exhibit pronounced variation in response to seasonal environmental changes (Fretwell, 1972). This temporal organization of a series of biological activities, known as phenology, plays a critical role in the evolution of life histories in response to seasonal fluctuating environments (Forrest and Miller-Rushing, 2010; Morellato et al., 2013; Piao et al., 2019; Schwartz, 2013). Phenology is regulated by the coordinated expression of genes that enable organisms to exhibit essential functions at the appropriate times (Kudoh, 2016; Satake et al., 2024a, 2022). However, gene expression dynamics underpinning seasonal responses in organisms remain not fully understood.

To explore the evolution of gene expression, transcriptome analyses are widely employed to compare transcript profiles across organs, sexes, species, and developmental stages within a given environment. Such studies have been conducted in mammals (Brawand et al., 2011; Cardoso-Moreira et al., 2019; Naqvi et al., 2019), *Drosophila* (Lemos et al., 2005; Nuzhdin et al., 2004), and Tanzanian cichlids (El Taher et al., 2021), providing key insights into the evolutionary dynamics of gene expression and its central role in shaping phenotypic diversity. These studies have revealed that gene expression profiles tend to be more conserved across species within the same tissue, whereas the evolutionary rate of gene expression varies among organs. In mammals, for instance, nervous tissue exhibits a slower rate of gene expression change compared to the testis (Brawand et al., 2011; Cardoso-Moreira et al., 2019; Naqvi et al., 2019), suggesting the

presence of tissue-specific functional constraints that influence the evolution of
gene expression.
In addition to tissue-dependent constraints, seasonal environmental
changes may play a crucial role in shaping the evolution of gene expression,
particularly by influencing the temporal coordination of gene expression under
natural conditions. Gene expression responses to certain seasons may be more
resistant to change, whereas in other seasons, divergence in gene expression
timing across species may occur, contributing to temporal niche differentiation.
Despite its potential importance, the influence of seasonal environmental
fluctuations on the gene expression evolution remains poorly understood, largely
because most transcriptomic analyses have been conducted under tightly
controlled laboratory conditions.
To investigate the evolution of gene expression in seasonal environments,
we performed a molecular phenology analysis and phenological observation of leaf
flushing and flowering in Fagaceae tree species, which are widely distributed
across the Northern Hemisphere, with its center of diversity in subtropical
Southeast Asia (Hipp et al., 2020; Kremer et al., 2012; Manos et al., 2001; Zhou et
al., 2022). Molecular phenology refers to transcriptome analysis conducted under
natural fluctuating conditions (Komoto et al., 2024; Kudoh, 2016; Nagano et al.,
2019; Satake et al., 2023) and provides a valuable framework for studying gene–
environment interactions and their role in orchestrating the temporal biological
functions essential for adaptation to environmental fluctuations (Satake et al.,
2022). In this study, we selected four evergreen Fagaceae species—two *Quercus*
species (*Q. glauca* and *Q. acuta*) and two *Lithocarpus* species (*L. edulis* and *L.*
glaber)—that co-occur in the same locality in Japan. *Q. glauca*, *L. edulis* and *L.*
glaber inhabit nearly identical environment, while *Q. acuta* is restricted to the high-
altitude regions with slightly colder environment compared to the other three
species. Leaf flushing and flowering phenology vary across species, with *Q. glauca*
and *Q. acuta* flowering in early spring, almost simultaneously with leaf flushing, *L.*
edulis flowering in late spring, and *L. glaber* flowering in autumn, approximately
one to two months after leaf flushing. This setting enabled us to compare seasonal
gene expression profiles across species with diverse phenology, both within and
between genera, under nearly identical environmental fluctuations. By assessing
and comparing seasonal transcriptomic dynamics across Fagaceae species, our
study provides new insights into the evolution of gene expression and adaptation
to seasonal natural environments.
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Results
Genome assemblies of *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*. To quantify transcript
abundance of non-model Fagaceae species, we first constructed reference
genomes for *Q. glauca*, as a representative of genus *Quercus*, and *L. edulis,* as a
representative of genus *Lithocarpus* (Fig. 1A). To obtain high-quality chromosome-
level reference genomes, we conducted a hybrid genome assembly for the HiFi
reads and the high-throughput chromosome conformation capture (Hi-C) reads
(Table S1).The resultant scaffolds were 867.7 and 835.7 Mb and consisted of 797

and 750 scaffolds including 12 chromosome-level scaffolds with contig N50 of 71.7
Mb and 68.8 Mb for *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*, respectively (Table S1). Approximately
94.8% and 97.2% of the final assemblies were assigned to 12
pseudochromosomes of *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*, respectively (Fig. 1B). The
number of chromosome-scale scaffolds were identical to the known numbers in
other *Quercus* (Zoldos et al., 1999) and *Lithocarpus* species (Liu et al., 2023). The
genomes were estimated to contain 39758 and 34059 protein-coding genes
(33947 and 30246 genes were annotated within 12 chromosomes), covering
98.3% and 95.0% of complete Benchmarking Universal Single Copy Orthologs
(BUSCO) genes (eudicots_odb10) for *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*, respectively. The
genome sizes of *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis* were estimated to be 891.2 Mb and 868.7
Mb, respectively, using KmerGenie (Chikhi and Medvedev, 2014) and
GenomeScope2 (Ranallo-Benavidez et al., 2020).
Overall, the abundance and distribution of protein-coding genes, GC
content, and repeat sequences (Fig. 1C, D*; Table S1) and syntenic structure (Fig.
1B) were similar between *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*. This pattern of synteny
conservation appears to be broadly shared across Fagaceae, except for the genus
Fagus, which shows a distinct genome structure (Ikezaki et al., 2025). The
homology between different chromosomes within the genome suggests that small-
scale segmental duplications likely occurred, as previously proposed (Chen et
al., 2014). Using OrthoFinder2 (Emms and Kelly, 2019), we clustered genes from
the two newly assembled genomes into orthologous groups. We identified 13427
single-copy orthologs, enabling pairwise comparisons between species (Fig. 1E).
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Seasonal gene expression dynamics. To characterize the evolution of seasonal
gene expressions, we generated a total of 483 transcriptome profiles every four
weeks over two years using leaf and bud tissues from *Q. glauca*, *Q. acuta*, *L.
edulis*, and *L. glaber* during 2021–2023. Reads from the two *Quercus* species were
mapped to the newly constructed *Q. glauca* reference genome, achieving a mean
mapping rate of 92.6 ± 2.2% and 88.6 ± 2.3% for *Q. glauca* and *Q. acuta*,
respectively. Similarly, reads from the two *Lithocarpus* species were mapped to
the newly constructed *L. edulis* reference genome, with a mean mapping rate of
89.3 ± 2.7% and 84.3 ± 5.4% for *L. edulis* and *L. glaber*, respectively. The number
of reads uniquely mapped on the reference genome was 19.9 million reads per
sample, on average. We used single-copy orthologous genes for further analyses
because these genes exhibited significantly higher average expression levels than
multi-copy genes (Steel-Dwass test, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 1F, G). Among the single copy
orthologous genes, we excluded genes with low expression levels (mean of Reads
Per Kilobase (RPK) across samples for each species < 1) and normalized the
transcript count data using the GeTMM method (Smid et al., 2018). This process
resulted in a high-quality expression dataset for 11749 genes (Fig. S1A). For
further analyses, we used the mean expression levels across three biological
replicates (three individuals per species), except for *L. edulis*, where only one
individual was available. We confirmed that expression patterns of individual genes
were highly consistent across all the three biological replicates (Fig. S2) in *Q.*

glauca (Pearson's correlation *r* = 0.947), *Q. acuta* (*r* = 0.948) and *L. glaber* (*r* =
0.948).

To gain an initial overview of gene expression dynamics in a seasonal
environment, we assessed the relative magnitude of seasonal variation in
expression levels for each gene by calculating the standard deviation divided by
the mean for each gene (σ_i/μ_i) and compared it to the overall variation across all
genes in the genome (σ_g/μ_g) (Fig. S1B). A prior study using 3025 yeast RNA-seq
experiments reported that the dynamic range of individual genes across
experiments was considerably smaller than the overall genomic variation under
laboratory conditions (Zrimec et al., 2021). Consistently, our results demonstrate
that despite substantial seasonal fluctuations in environmental conditions (Fig. S3),
individual gene expression remains relatively conserved. On average, the
magnitude of genome-wide variation was 15.8 times greater than the seasonal
variation observed for individual genes (Fig. S1B).

To assess the similarity of gene expression profiles across tissues, species,
and seasons, we performed a hierarchical clustering of seasonal transcriptome
profiles from leaf and bud tissues across four species and identified five distinct
clusters (cluster L1, L2, B1–B3) according to the Elbow method (Fig. 2A; Fig. S4A;
Dataset S1). Transcriptional profiles first grouped into leaves (cluster L1 and L2)
and buds (cluster B1–B3), irrespective of seasons and species (Fig. 2A), except
that newly flushed leaf samples were grouped closely with buds (Fig. 2A; Fig. S5).
Within the leaf cluster, transcriptome profiles were first clustered by genus and
then by species in *Lithocarpus* (cluster L1; Fig. 2A). In contrast, samples from
Quercus species formed a mixture of two species (cluster L2; Fig. 2A). Notably,
the winter samples of *Q. acuta*, collected during periods of low mean temperatures,
were distinctly separated from those collected in other seasons (cluster L2; Fig.
2A). Within the bud cluster, transcriptome profiles were predominantly grouped by
season—winter (cluster B3; November to February, with the exception of a March
sample from *L. edulis*; Dataset S1) versus the other growing seasons (cluster B1
and B2; March to November; Dataset S1)—and subsequently organized by genus
and species. This suggests that the winter season exerts a stronger influence on
gene expression in buds than phylogenetic relationships. We confirmed the
robustness of our findings to differences in sampling periods between *Quercus* and
Lithocarpus species by reanalyzing expression data limited to common sampling
periods (Fig. S6). Even when using only the data from this shared period, the
clustering patterns were consistently reproduced. To assess whether the higher-
elevation site of *Q. acuta* introduced confounding environmental effects, we
reanalyzed the data after excluding this species. Hierarchical clustering still
revealed that winter bud samples formed a distinct cluster regardless of species
identity (Fig. S7), consistent with our original findings.

To assess the biological relevance of the clusters identified, we tested
whether the temperatures and photoperiod at the time of sample collection differed
significantly among the clusters. Within the bud cluster, transcriptional profiles in
the winter cluster (cluster B3) were associated with significantly lower
temperatures—approximately below 10 °C—compared to those in other seasons

(Fig. 2B; Fig. S8A). In contrast, no such temperature-related distinction was
evident within the leaf cluster (Fig. 2B). Additionally, photoperiods were markedly
shorter in the winter cluster in buds (Fig. S8B). These findings suggest that the
buds of the four species exhibit a conserved transcriptional response to
environmental cues, namely cold temperatures and short photoperiods,
characteristic of the winter season. To further investigate the relationships among
all samples, we conducted a principal component analysis (PCA). The first
principal component (PC1) clearly separated samples by tissue type, while the
second (PC2) and the third principal component (PC3) gradually differentiated
winter samples from those collected during other seasons (Fig. S9).
To investigate seasonal expression dynamics of each gene, we conducted
hierarchical clustering on the transcriptional dynamics of 11749 genes and
identified five distinct gene sets characterizing different transcriptional modes
(gene set I–V; Fig. 2C, D; Fig. S4B; Dataset S2). Gene set I exhibited predominant
expression in buds, with seasonal peaks during summer, whereas gene set II was
primarily expressed in leaves, highlighting clear tissue-specificity (Fig. 2C, D).
Gene sets III and V demonstrated genus-specific expression patterns, with higher
expression levels observed in *Lithocarpus* and *Quercus*, respectively (Fig. 2C, D).
In contrast, gene set IV was expressed during winter across both leaf and bud
tissues (Fig. 2C, D).
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Detection of rhythmic genes. To identify genes revealing seasonal expression
dynamics and determine the period and seasonal peaks in gene expression, we
applied the RAIN algorithm (Thaben and Westermark, 2014). This approach
enabled us to detect genes with rhythmic expression (hereafter rhythmic genes)
and analyze their periods and phases (peak months). Our analysis revealed that
44.6–58.8% of genes in bud tissues and 33.9–45.9% in leaf tissues exhibited
significant rhythmic expression across species (Fig. S10A; Dataset S3). Notably,
bud tissues demonstrated a higher proportion of rhythmic genes, with 51.9%
across four species on average, compared to 40.6% in leaf tissues (Fig. S10A).
Among the rhythmic genes, the majority (78.4–92.0%) exhibited annual
periodicity, with a period of 12 ± 1 month observed across species and tissues
(Fig. 3A, B, Dataset S3). Additionally, hundreds of genes (1.2–11.9%) displayed
half-annual periodicity (6 ± 1 month) with these genes being most frequently
observed in the bud samples of *L. edulis* (Fig. 3A, B). The fraction of genes
exhibiting other periodicities was relatively small (5.7–14.1%; Fig. 3A, B). Based
on the observed period distributions, we classified genes with periods within the
range of 8–16 months as exhibiting annual periodicity (96.0%) and those with
periods shorter than 8 months as having half-annual periodicity (4.0%), accounting
for detection noise (Fig. S10A). Rhythmic genes with longer periods (>17 months)
were also identified, although their periodicity may be less reliable due to the
limited number of time points. Many genes with annual periodicity were shared
across all species, including 1280 genes in leaves and 1894 genes in buds (Fig.

S10B). In contrast, most genes exhibiting half-annual periodicity were species-specific, with no genes shared among all the species (Fig. S10C).

Peak month distribution of rhythmic genes and intra-genus and inter-genera comparison. To determine the seasonal timing of gene expression peaks, we focused on genes with annual or half-annual periodicity and visualized the density and direction of these peaks throughout the year using a circular histogram (Fig. 3C, D; Dataset S3). On average, 34.9% and 41.3% of annual rhythmic genes peaked in winter (December–February) in leaf and bud samples, respectively. Additionally, another peak corresponding to or occurring slightly after leaf flushing and flowering events was observed, with its timing varying by species: April in *Q. glauca* (15.6%), July in *Q. acuta* (15.3%), June in *L. edulis* (16.0%), September in *L. glaber* (18.1%), for leaf tissues (Fig. 3C). Similar peaks corresponding to leaf flushing or flowering were also detected in bud samples, occurring approximately one to two months earlier than in leaf samples (Fig. 3D). For genes with half-annual periodicity, the majority (63.2 ± 4.8%) exhibited expression peaks both in spring (March–May) and autumn (September–November) in both tissues (Fig. S10D; Dataset S3), with the exception of *L. glaber*, an autumn flowering species. Interestingly, *WRKY22*, a transcription factor regulating ethylene biosynthesis and senescence (Zhu et al., 2024), exhibited half-annual periodicity in *L. glaber* (Fig. S10*E*). In addition, *SNF1-RELATED PROTEIN KINASE REGULATORY SUBUNIT GAMMA 1* (*KINγ1*), a subunit of SNF1-related kinase (*SnRK*) involved in stress response such as starvation (Emanuelle et al., 2016), showed two distinct peaks in *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*, occurring in both summer (July) and winter (January) (Fig. S10E). This result suggests that both summer and winter pose stressful conditions for these species.

To compare the peak month of gene expression with annual periodicity across species, we quantified the number of genes within each peak combination for both intra-genus (Fig. 4A) and inter-genera species pairs in buds (Fig. 4B) and leaves (Fig. S11A, B). During winter, a large number of genes exhibited highly synchronized expression peaks across species, with high pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients observed (Fig. 4A, B). In contrast, the peak timing of gene expression from spring to autumn varied across species, aligning with differences in leaf flushing and flowering times (Fig. 4A, B). Some genes exhibited pronounced divergence, showing negative Pearson's correlation coefficients (< -0.3) between species. Notably, the number of such genes was larger in inter-genera comparisons (11–77 genes; Fig. 4B) than in intra-genus comparisons (4–12 genes; Fig. 4A). A similar pattern was observed in leaf samples (Fig. S11A, B). When comparing seasonal expression peaks between tissues, the majority of genes were synchronously activated in winter in both tissues (Fig. S11C). During spring to summer, slight variations in seasonal expression peaks were observed among tissues (Fig. S11C).

We quantified the degree of divergence in seasonal gene expression patterns across species by calculating the peak month differences between two species, where one species exhibits an expression peak in the given month. We

defined the molecular phenology divergence index (D) for each month by
quantifying the proportion of genes with peak month differences greater than 2
months between two species, relative to the total number of genes with expression
peaks in that month. From spring to autumn, the mean of D over all species pairs
in buds ranged from 0.47 to 0.66, but it declined sharply during winter, reaching a
minimum of 0.12 in January in buds (Nemenyi test, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 4C). A similar
trend was observed in leaf samples, with another trough in summer (Fig. S11D).
This seasonal trend remained consistent even after excluding *Q. acuta*, which was
sampled from a slightly cooler environment than the other three species, from the
analysis (Fig. S12), indicating that the observed patterns are not drive by
environmental differences associated with elevation. The values of D were not
consistently smaller in inter-genera pairs compared to intra-genus pairs. These
findings suggest that there is a seasonal constraint in gene expression in which
the degree of molecular phenology divergence is not constant but varies
significantly across seasons, with the least divergence occurring in winter.
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Phylogenetic constraints in the evolution of seasonal gene expression. We
next investigated whether phylogenetic relationship influences the evolution of
seasonal gene expression by calculating pairwise Pearson's correlations of
seasonal expression for each gene across all species pairs (Dataset S4). The
median of Pearson's correlation coefficients across all genes were significantly
higher between species within the same genus compared to those between
species from different genera in both leaves (Steel-Dwass test, $p < 0.05$; Fig.
S13A; Fig. S14) and buds (Steel-Dwass test, $p < 0.05$; Fig. 5A; Fig. S14). The
intra-genus comparison in genus *Lithocarpus* exhibited the highest correlation in
their seasonal gene expression, despite their notable differences in flowering
phenology, with *L. edulis* flowering in spring and *L. glaber* in autumn. In contrast,
the intra-genus comparison in genus *Quercus* resulted in a relatively low
correlation in their gene expression regardless of relatively similar phenology in
leaf flushing and flowering. This difference may be attributed to environmental
factors, as *Q. acuta* is the only species found in the high-altitude study site with
colder climates compared to the other three species.
Rhythmic genes exhibited more conserved expression patterns than
arrhythmic genes in both tissues (Fig. 5*A*; Fig. S13A). In particular, genes with
seasonal expression peaks in winter showed high correlation across species in
both tissues (Fig. 5B; Fig. S13B). The proportion of rhythmic genes with annual
periodicity declined as the mean correlation coefficient across species decreased,
with a more rapid decline observed for genes peaking in winter compared to those
with peak expression during the growing seasons (Fig. 5B; Fig. S13B).
Additionally, the mean absolute difference in seasonal gene expression dynamics
was significantly smaller between species within the same genus than between
species from different genera in both tissues (Fig. S15A, B). The relationship
between the mean absolute difference and the proportion of rhythmic genes was
less clear compared to that of the mean correlation coefficient (Fig. S15C, D).
These findings suggest that, in addition to seasonal constraints, the overall

dynamics of seasonal gene expression are also shaped by phylogenetic
constraints.
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Functional annotation of genes with conserved or divergent expression
across species. To functionally annotate genes with conserved or divergent
expression across species, we extracted genes with the top and bottom 5% based
on the distribution of mean correlation (Fig. 5B; Fig. S13B) and conducted Gene
Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis. GO analysis revealed that the top 5% of genes
in leaves were associated with photosynthesis, while those in buds were linked to
cell fate determination (Fig. S16A; Dataset S5). The gene with the highest
correlation in leaves was *STRESS RESPONSE SUPPRESSOR1* (*STRS1*; mean
of pairwise correlation = 0.91; Fig. 5C), a DEAD-box RNA helicase previously
reported to enhance tolerance to abiotic stresses such as cold (Kant et al., 2007).
In buds, the most highly correlated gene was the histone deacetylase *HDA19*
(mean of pairwise correlation = 0.93; Fig. 5C), which plays a key role in
environmental stress responses through histone modification and chromatin
remodeling (Chen and Wu, 2010). These findings suggest that genes associated
with photosynthesis during the growing season and stress responses during winter
exhibit highly conserved seasonal expression patterns across species.
The bottom 5% of genes were predominantly associated with DNA
replication and cell division in leaves (Fig. S16B), aligning with the divergent leaf
phenology observed (Fig. 3B). In contrast, GO terms related to immune response
were weakly enriched in buds (Fig. S16B). Notably, we identified MADS-box genes
linked to floral transition among the bottom 5% of genes: *BROTHER OF FT AND*
TFL1 (*BFT*) in leaves (mean of pairwise correlation = -0.094) and *FRUITFULL*
(*FUL*) in buds (mean of pairwise correlation = -0.069). *BFT*, a floral repressor (Yoo
et al., 2010), was expressed in autumn in the spring-flowering species *L. edulis*
and in spring in the autumn-flowering species *L. glaber* leaves (Fig. 5D).
Meanwhile, *FRUITFULL* (*FUL*), a positive regulator of floral transition (Smaczniak
et al., 2012), was expressed in spring in *L. edulis* and in autumn in *L. glaber* (Fig.
5D), mirroring the timing of flowering. In *Q. glauca* and *Q. acuta*, *FUL* was
expressed in winter (Fig. 5D), nearly out of phase with their expressions in
Lithocarpus species. These results suggest that genes involved in reproductive
processes exhibit species-specific divergence in expression patterns in response
to seasonal environmental changes.
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Relating seasonal gene expression divergence to sequence divergence. If
divergence of seasonal timing of gene expression is related to selective constraint,
we would expect a correlation between sequence divergence patterns and the
divergence in seasonal expression peaks. To explore the relationship between the
divergence of seasonal gene expression and protein sequence evolution, we
calculated synonymous (dS) and non-synonymous substitution rates (dN) and their
ratio (dN/dS) for each gene using coding sequences from newly assembled
genomes of *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*. We first confirmed that the highly expressed
genes evolve more slowly by identifying a significant negative correlation between

evolutionary rate (dN/dS) and mean of the gene expression (r = -0.21, p = 1.8 ×
10^{-118} for dN/dS; Fig. S17A; Dataset S6). This finding aligns with previous studies
in yeasts, mammals, and plants (Drummond et al., 2005; Gaut et al., 2011; Liao
and Zhang, 2006; Yang and Gaut, 2011). By targeting the genes that exhibited
annual periodicity across both species and tissues, we examined the relationship
between these evolutionary measures and peak month differences in seasonal
gene expression between species ($\Delta\varphi$) in leaves and bud tissues using linear
regression. Assessment of the significance of the regression coefficient using a t-
test revealed that genes with smaller peak month differences between species
exhibited lower values of dN/dS in buds (p =2.6 × 10^{-2}) and marginally lower values
of dN/dS in leaves (p = 5.7 × 10^{-2}). The lower values were also found in dN in both
leaves (p = 8.1 × 10^{-3}) and buds (p = 7.8 × 10^{-3}), whereas no significant trend was
observed for dS in both tissues (Fig. 5E; Fig. S17B, C; Dataset S6). We further
investigated whether the association between the divergence in seasonal
expression peaks and sequence divergence patterns varies between genes
expressed in winter and in the growing season. We classified genes that exhibited
annual periodicity across both species and tissues into four groups based on their
expression peak timing (winter or growing seasons) and tissue specificity (leaves
or buds) and compared the extent of protein sequence divergence across these
groups. We found no significant differences in dN/dS (Kruskal Wallis test, p = 2.8
× 10^{-1}; Fig. S17*D*; Dataset S6) between genes expressed in winter in both tissues
and those in growing seasons. The same result was observed even when focusing
only on genes with conserved peaks (peak month difference < 2), with no
significant differences in dN/dS between these gene sets (Kruskal Wallis test, p =
3.5 × 10^{-1}; Fig. S17E; Dataset S6). These results suggest that coding-sequence
variation is unlikely to be the primary driver of seasonal gene expression patterns.
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Discussion

A central goal in biology is to unravel the molecular basis of phenotypic evolution,
with gene expression serving as a fundamental driver of this process. In this study,
we investigated the impact of seasonal environmental fluctuations on the evolution
of gene expression and its relationship with phenological traits in four dominant
Fagaceae tree species in forest ecosystems. We found that gene expression
profiles were more resistant to change during winter compared to the growing
season, indicating the presence of a seasonal constraint on the evolution of gene
expression. This constraint becomes particularly pronounced in buds during winter
when temperatures fall below approximately 10°C (Fig. 2B). This temperature
threshold aligns with previous findings, where winter-specific transcript profiles
were reported at temperatures below 8.7–11.3°C in cherry trees (Miyawaki ‐
Kuwakado et al., 2024), 11.3°C in ever-green *Fagaceae* (Satake et al., 2023), and
10.5°C in perennial *Arabidopsis* (Aikawa et al., 2010). These results suggest the
presence of a conserved mechanism for gene expression regulation under low-
temperature environments across different species. The greater conservation of
gene expression patterns in buds compared to leaves across species may be
attributed to their functional role protecting essential meristematic tissues,

including the shoot apex and leaf and flower primordia. Additionally, buds likely
play a crucial role in maintaining common physiological functions necessary for the
resumption of growth in spring. This functional consistency may impose
evolutionary constraints on gene expression, contributing to its conservation
across species.

It is intriguing to compare the seasonal constraints identified in this study
with developmental constraints in gene expression evolution, where evolutionary
conservation and variation across developmental stages during the life cycle have
been observed, such as in the early conservation model and the developmental
hourglass model (Fig. S18A)(Irie and Kuratani, 2011; Lotharukpong et al., 2024;
Quint et al., 2012). Previous studies have demonstrated that certain developmental
stages exhibit remarkably similar gene expression patterns (Drost et al., 2016;
Kalinka et al., 2010; Levin et al., 2016). Our findings highlight that such highly
similar gene expression patterns are observed during the winter season (Fig.
S18B), suggesting that a common physiological state is essential for enduring
harsh winter conditions. This seasonal constraint on gene expression evolution
may have the potential to limit temporal niche partitioning at the phenotypic level
and slow species divergence rates in seasonal environments (Cleland and
Wolkovich, 2024; Kubo and Iwasa, 1996). Although completely disentangling the
effects of developmental stages and seasonal changes on gene expression is
challenging when using molecular phenology data collected from natural
environments, the observation that species with different phenology—i.e., different
developmental timing in seasonal environments—exhibit convergent gene
expression patterns during winter underscores the profound influence of winter
environmental conditions on the evolution of gene expression. Future research is
needed to elucidate the mechanisms driving the establishment of such conserved
gene expression patterns, including the dynamic reorganization of chromatin
architecture in response to cold (Fischl et al., 2020; Nishio et al., 2020; Zhang et
al., 2023).

We found that the evolution of coding-sequences was only weakly
correlated with the divergence of seasonal peaks in gene expression across
species. To understand the evolutionary mechanism underlying the seasonal
constraint on gene expression that results in similar expression patterns during
winter, an important future direction is to explore the evolution of non-coding
sequences that modulate gene expression levels in response to seasonal
environmental changes. Regulatory variation has been recognized as a major
driver of evolutionary innovation (Prud'homme et al., 2007; True and Haag, 2001).
Recent deep learning studies utilizing genome and transcriptome data from yeast
and humans have highlighted the significance of co-evolution between coding and
non-coding sequences in shaping gene expression levels (Zrimec et al., 2021,
2020). Understanding how seasonal environments drive the co-evolution of coding
and regulatory sequences, as well as the divergence of molecular phenology and
its phenological outputs, will require expanding analyses to a broader range of
species. Such efforts will facilitate the development of predictive models for
evolutionary processes influenced by seasonal dynamics. Comparison of

molecular phenology across wide climatic zones, including both tropical and
temperate zones, will also be effective to identify key genes for the phenological
response to on-going climate change.
469

Materials and Methods
Sample collection for genome sequencing
472 To construct genomes of *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*, we collected approximately 5g
473 of fresh leaves from one individual in spring, respectively. We shipped these
474 samples to Dovetail Genomics, LLC (Scotts Valley, CA, USA) where Dovetail Staff
475 performed DNA extraction, library preparation, sequencing, and assembly steps.
476

Genome sequencing and assembly
DNA extraction was performed using the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen,
Germantown, MD, USA) using the manufacturer's recommended protocol. Mean
fragment length of the extracted DNA was 60 kbp for *Q. glauca* and 65 kbp for *L.*
edulis. DNA samples were quantified using Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Life
Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The library preparation, sequencing and
scaffolding were carried out by Dovetail Genomics (California, USA) according to
their standard genome assembly pipeline (https://dovetailgenomics.com/). The
PacBio SMRTbell library (~20kb) for PacBio Sequel was constructed using
SMRTbell Express Template Prep Kit 2.0 (PacBio, Menlo Park, CA, USA) using
the manufacturer's recommended protocol. The library was bound to polymerase
using the Sequel II Binding Kit 2.0 (PacBio) and loaded onto PacBio Sequel II.
Sequencing was performed on PacBio Sequel II 8M SMRT cells. PacBio CCS
reads were used as an input to Hifiasm1 v0.15.4-r347 with default parameters. For
Q. glauca, we also generated sequence data using PacBio Revio. BLASTn results
of the contigs obtained by Hifiasm assembly against the NCBI's NT database were
used as input for blobtools2 v1.1.1 and contigs identified as possible contamination
were removed from the assembly. Finally, purge_dups3 v1.2.5 was used to
remove haplotigs and contig overlaps.
496

Assembly scaffolding with HiRise
A proximity ligation library was generated by the Dovetail's Omni-C technique,
followed by sequencing on an Illumina HiSeqX platform. Chromatin was fixed in
place in the nucleus with formaldehyde before extraction
(https://dovetailgenomics.com/wp-content/uploads/2021/09/Omni-C-Tech-
Note.pdf). Fixed chromatin was digested with DNase I, and the fragmented
chromatin ends were repaired and biotinylated to adapters followed by proximity
ligation. Crosslinks were then reversed, the DNA purified, and the biotin
subsequently removed. The DNA library was prepared and sequenced to produce
2 × 150 bp paired-end reads (around 30× coverage). The Omni-C technology uses
a sequence-independent endonuclease which provides even, unbiased genome
coverage. The input *de novo* assembly and Omni-C library reads were used as
input data for HiRise, a software pipeline designed specifically for using proximity
ligation data to scaffold genome assemblies (Putnam et al., 2016). The Omni-C

library sequences were aligned to the contigs assembled by Hifiasm using bwa (Li
and Durbin, 2009). The separations of Omni-C reads from paired-end mapped
within the contigs were analyzed by HiRise to produce a likelihood model for
genomic distance between paired-end reads, and the model was used to identify
and break putative misjoins, to score prospective joins, and make joins above a
threshold.
517
Sample collection for RNA sequencing
To monitor the genome-wide gene expression profiles, we collected leaf, bud, and
flower samples from four Fagaceae species, *Q. glauca*, *Q. acuta*, *L. edulis* and *L.*
glaber, every four weeks for two years (October 2019 to October 2021 for the
Lithocarpus species and April 2021 to April 2023 for the *Quercus species*) across
Fukuoka and Saga prefectures in Kyushu, Japan. We targeted three individuals,
and each sample was collected from three branches per individual, except for *L.*
edulis. Given the consistent expression patterns observed among individuals in a
previous study (Satake et al., 2023), we focused on only one individual for *L. edulis*.
Study sites for *Q. glauca* is the biodiversity reserve on the Ito campus of Kyushu
University (33º35′ N, 130º12′ E, 20 to 57 m a.s.l). *L. edulis* and *L. glaber* were
studied at the Imajuku Field Activity Center (33º33′ N, 130º16′ E, 84 to 111 m a.s.l).
The Imajuku and Ito Campus study sites, located only 7.3 km apart, experience
nearly identical temperature conditions. *Q. acuta* was monitored in Sefuri
mountains (33º26′ N, 130º22′ E, 970 to 974 m a.s.l), a higher-altitude, cooler site.
Environmental data from Ito Campus and the Imajuku Field Activity Center were
obtained from the Japan Meteorological Agency, while data from Sefuri Mountain
were collected using a logger installed at the sampling site. Additionally, to assess
the potential impact of different sampling periods between the *Lithocarpus* and
Quercus species on the gene expression analysis, we conducted an additional
year of sampling for *L. edulis* and *L. glaber*, collecting leaf and bud samples from
November 2021 to November 2022, and used the samples collected within the
same period for all the four species (May 2021 to November 2022).
Samples for RNA-seq were taken from the sun-exposed crown
(approximately 2–5 m from the ground) using long pruning shears from 11:30 to
12:30 h. For each sample, 0.2–0.4 g of tissue was preserved in a 2 ml microtube
containing 1.5 ml of RNA-stabilizing reagent (RNAlater; Thermo Fisher Scientific,
Waltham, MA, USA) immediately after harvesting. The samples were transferred
to the laboratory within 2 hr after sampling, stored at 4°C overnight and then stored
at −80°C until RNA extraction. During transport to the laboratory, the samples were
kept in a cooler box with ice to maintain a low temperature.
549
RNA extraction and RNA-seq analysis
RNA was extracted independently from bud and leaf samples of each tree. Total
RNA of the leaf sample was extracted in accordance with the method described in
a previous study (Miyazaki et al., 2014). Total RNA of the bud sample was
extracted using the PureLink™ Plant RNA Reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
Waltham, MA, USA) and subsequently processed with DNase using the TURBO

DNA-free kit™ (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to their protocols and purified
using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to its RNA
cleanup protocol. RNA integrity was examined using the Agilent RNA 6000 Nano
kit on a 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies), and the RNA yield was
determined using a NanoDrop ND-2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher
Scientific). Five to six micrograms of RNA extracted from each sample were sent
to Hangzhou Veritas Genetics Medical Institute Co., Ltd., where a cDNA library
was prepared with a NEBNext Ultra II RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina, and 150
base paired-end transcriptome sequencing of each sample was conducted using
an Illumina NovaSeq6000 sequencer (Illumina).

The quantification of gene expression followed a three-step process. First,
quality filtering was performed using the fastp v0.23.2 with default options: phred
quality ≥15, the maximum number of N base in one read = 5 (Chen et al., 2018).
Second, RNA-seq reads were mapped to the reference genome using STAR
v2.7.10b (Dobin et al., 2013). Third, RNA-seq reads were quantified using RSEM
v1.3.1 (Li and Dewey, 2011). We excluded the genes with low expression level
using the threshold, the value of mean Reads Per Kilobase (RPK) < 1 for each
species. Then, we further normalized the expression level using the value of Gene
length corrected Trimmed Mean of M-values (GeTMM) (Smid et al., 2018) using
an R package "edgeR" v3.42.4. For the downstream analysis we calculated the
mean expression levels of GeTMM of each gene across multiple individuals and
transformed them to $\log_2$(GeTMM+1). To confirm that the effect of the difference
in sampling period is negligible, we added the RNA-Seq data of *L. edulis* and *L.*
glaber collected from December 2021 to December 2022. We extracted the same
genes in the existing data that curated based on the mean RPK values across two-
year sampling periods. Then we further normalized the expression level using
GeTMM.

583
Genome annotation
The RNA-seq reads of *Q. glauca* (8 samples obtained by a previous study (20)
collected from May to December 2017; GEO's accession number: GSE211384)
and *L. edulis* (20 samples covering leaf, bud and flower tissues collected in
January, April, July, and November 2021) were respectively mapped against the
scaffolds of *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis* obtained by HiRise with HISAT2 v2.1.0 (Kim
et al., 2019). The bam files generated by the mappings and amino acid sequences
of the 9 species obtained from NCBI (*Castanea mollissima*: GCA_000763605.2
(NCBI's accession number), *Q. lobata*: GCF_001633185.1, *Q. robur*:
GCF_932294415.1, *Q. suber*: GCF_002906115.1, *Carpinus fangiana*:
GCA_006937295.1, *Carya illinoinensis*: GCF_018687715.1, *Juglans macrocarpa*
× *J. regia*: GCF_004785595.1, *Juglans regia*: GCF_001411555.2, *Morella rubra*:
GCA_003952965.2) were used for ab initio gene prediction by Braker2 v2.1.6
(Brůna et al., 2021), and the genes with highest-score were selected to exclude
splicing variants. In parallel, the gene models were respectively constructed in *Q.*
glauca and *L. edulis* by GeMoMa v1.7.1 (Keilwagen et al., 2019) with RNA-seq
reads and amino acid sequences used for the gene prediction in Braker2, and the

genes with highest-score were selected to exclude splicing variants. The duplicated genes between Braker2 and GeMoMa were excluded by GFFcompare v0.11.2 (Pertea and Pertea, 2020). The remaining genes were searched against UniProtKB (Bateman et al., 2025) by DIAMOND v2.0.5 (Buchfink et al., 2014) in 'more-sensitive' option with E-value ≤10^{-20} and identity ≥25%. Next, gene expression analysis was performed by Salmon v1.4.0 (Patro et al., 2017), and the genes with TPM values >0.1 were considered as expressed. The orthologous genes were searched against EggNOG (Hernández-Plaza et al., 2023) using eggNOG-mapper v2.1.8 (Cantalapiedra et al., 2021) with E-value ≤10^{-10}. The genes were searched against protein sequences of *Castanea mollissima* (Accession: GCA_000763605.2), *Quercus lobata* (GCF_001633185.2), and *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Araport11 (Krishnakumar et al., 2015)) by BLASTp v2.13.0 (Camacho et al., 2009) with E-value ≤10^{-20}. According to these similarity searches, the genes whose product names contain keywords related to transposable elements (TEs) were categorized into TE. The genes having similarity hits and being expressed by Salmon were classified into high-confidence (HC) genes, while remaining genes were categorized into low-confidence (LC) genes. The genes categorized into HC were used for further analyses.

Genome synteny analysis

To investigate the syntenic relationship between *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*, we first performed an all-vs-all BLASTp search of the protein sequences, using a cut-off E-value of 10^{-5}. Collinearity blocks within and between the genomes were then identified using MCScanX (Wang et al., 2012) based on the results of the BLASTp searches. Finally, the collinearity blocks were visualized using SynVisio (https://synvisio.github.io).

Illumina short-read sequencing and library preparation

For genome size estimation and phylogenetic reconstruction, we also generated short-read sequencing of *Q. glauca*, *Q. acuta*, *L. edulis*, and *L. glaber.* DNA extraction was performed using a modified version of the method described previously (Satake et al., 2024b). The DNA samples were sent to Macrogen Inc. (Republic of Korea) for sequencing on the Illumina HiseqX platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). DNA was sheared to around 500 bp fragments in size using dsDNA fragmentase (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). Library preparation was performed using the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit (New England BioLabs) according to the manufacturer's protocol, and the libraries were individually indexed with the NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (New England BioLabs) by PCR. The quality and quantity of each amplified library were analyzed using the Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), the High Sensitivity DNA kit (Agilent Technologies), and the NEBNext Library Quant Kit for Illumina (New England BioLabs).

Genome size estimation

The genome size of *Q. glauca* was estimated by GenomeScope2 v2.0 (Ranallo-
Benavidez et al., 2020) using *k*-mer frequency plot obtained by kmc v3.2.4 (Kokot
et al., 2017) with *k*-mer size 61 against the HiFi reads. We also used pair-end short
reads for genome size estimation of *Q. glauca* and confirmed that resulted
estimates were not different. For *L. edulis*, paired-end short reads from four
individuals were merged and quality-trimmed using fastp v0.23.2 (Chen et al.,
2018). The genome size was then estimated using KmerGenie (Chikhi and
Medvedev, 2014) with a k-mer size of 55 applied to the trimmed reads.
653
Phylogenetic reconstruction
We constructed a phylogenetic tree using an alignment-free method (Fan et al.,
2015) based on short-read data from *Q. acuta* and *L. glaber* and genome assembly
data from *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*. Additionally, genomic data for *Fagus sylvatica*
was obtained from beechgenome.net (Mishra et al., 2022) and included as an
outgroup. Due to the large volume of short-read data for *Q. acuta* and *L. glaber*
(18 Gb each), we randomly subsampled half of the reads. Bootstrap values were
estimated through 100 resampling of the k-mer table.
662
Identification of orthologs
The prediction of orthogroups was based on a BLASTp all-against-all comparison
of the protein sequences (E-value < 10^{-5}) of 5 Fagaceae species: *L. edulis*, *Q.*
glauca, *Q. robur*, *Fagus sylvatica* and *Juglans regia*. Clustering was conducted
with OrthoFinder2, using version 2.2.6 for BLAST data generation and version
2.5.5 for orthogroup determination (Emms and Kelly, 2019). The genomic data of
Q. robur and *J. regia* were downloaded from NCBI (dhQueRobu3.1 and Walnut
2.0), while *F. sylvatica* data were sourced from beechgenome.net (Mishra et al.,
2022). Since the *F. sylvatica* dataset contained numerous predicted transposable
elements (TEs), we re-annotated genes using three databases—EggNOG5
(EggNOG-mapper), Pfam35.0 (HMMER v3.3.2), and UniRef90_2023_0628
(DIAMOND v2.1.8.162)—and excluded genes identified as TEs in at least one
database. In total, we identified 26692 orthogroups and focused on single-copy
orthogroups after filtering out genes mapped outside the 12 chromosomes. This
resulted in a final dataset of 11749 genes for further analysis (Data S2).
678
Hierarchical clustering and principal component analysis (PCA)
To assess the similarity of the genome-wide transcriptional profiles across
orthologous genes and 483 samples collected in different seasons, we performed
hierarchical clustering using the monthly time series data of 11749 orthologous
genes from October 2019 to April 2023. For each orthologous gene, there were 26
or 27 time points, with three individuals each for *Q. glauca*, *Q. acuta*, *L. glaber* and
one individual for *L. edulis*. We calculated the mean expression levels of each
orthologous gene across three individuals in each species and subsequently
normalized the values by adjusting the mean to zero and the standard deviation to
one. We performed hierarchical clustering using the Ward method and the
Euclidian distance using the pheatmap function in R (v 1.0.12). To determine the

number of the clusters, we calculated Within-Cluster-Sum of Squared Error (WSS)
and determined the number of clusters as an elbow point of it (Fig. S4). To assess
the seasonal expression dynamics of 11749 orthologous genes, we also
performed PCA of the gene expression profiles from all samples using the prcomp
function in R (v 4.3.1).
695
Identification of genes with rhythmic expression
To identify genes with rhythmic expression and determine the period and peak
month of gene expression, we applied the RAIN algorithm (Thaben and
Westermark, 2014) using the rain function in R (v 1.34.0). We set the following
settings: deltat = 1, period = 12, period.delta = 11, peak.border = (0,1), nr.series =
1, method= "independent", na.rm= T , adjp.method = "ABH". Based on the results
of the RAIN analysis, we identified genes with significant periodicity using a
Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) adjusted q-value threshold of < 0.01. Since the period
length and peak month in the RAIN output are expressed in terms of the number
of time points, we converted them into months using the sampling span (four
weeks) and sampling dates. Subsequently, we categorized the rhythmic genes into
three categories based on the period length T (in months): "half-annual" ($0 \leqq T <
8$), "annual" ($8 \leqq T \leqq 16$), and "long" ($T > 16$).
709
Calculation of Pearson's correlation coefficient across species
To quantify the similarity of seasonal gene expression pattern across species, we
calculated pairwise Pearson's correlations of seasonal expression for each gene
across all the species pairs. For species within the same genus, the monitoring
period was identical, allowing direct comparison. On the other hand, the monitoring
periods differed between *Quercus* and *Lithocarpus* species: *Q. glauca* and *Q.
acuta* were monitored from May 2021 to April 2023, while *L. edulis* and *L.
glaber* were monitored from October 2019 to October 2021 (Fig. S3). To ensure
comparable time series data for inter-genera comparisons, we extracted the time
series from *Q. glauca* and *Q. acuta* spanning May 19, 2021, to November 2, 2022,
and from *L. edulis* and *L. glaber* spanning May 13, 2020, to October 20, 2021, for
correlation analysis. The mean absolute differences for each gene across all the
species pairs were also calculated in a similar manner.
723
Molecular phenology divergence index (D)
To quantify the seasonal difference of peak month divergence across species, we
defined the molecular phenology divergence index (D) for each month t and
species pair A-B as the proportion of genes that peak in month t in the reference
species A but exhibit a peak month difference ($\Delta\varphi$) greater than two months in
species B using following formula:
730
731 $$D := \frac{\text{\# Genes with peak month } t \text{ in species A and } t \pm \Delta\phi (\geq 2) \text{ in species B}}{\text{\# Genes with peak month } t \text{ in species A}}.$$
732
Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis

First, we assigned GO terms for each gene in *Lithocarpus* and *Quercus* genomes
based on the annotation data of *Arabidopsis thaliana* orthologs downloaded from
PLAZA Database (http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/plaza/). Then, GO
enrichment analysis was conducted using the GOstats (Falcon and Gentleman,
2007) function in R (v 2.66.0) with the following settings: ontology = BP,
pvalueCutoff = 0.05, conditional = TRUE, and testDirection = over. The universe
gene set was defined as genes associated with GO terms common to both of the
genomes. Genes without annotated GO terms were removed from the universe
set, and those with differing GO term annotations between the two genomes were
also excluded. The BH adjusted *q*-values were calculated from the *p*-values
generated by GOstats to account for multiple testing.
745
Phenology measurement: leaf unfolding and flowering
To compare seasonal changes in genome-wide gene expression profiles with
phenology, we conducted observations of leaf unfolding and flowering phenology
on the three terminal branches of each of the three individuals used for gene
expression monitoring. Leaf unfolding was defined as the stage where both the
entire leaf blade and the leaf stalk were visible (Fig. S5). Flowering was defined as
the stage where either male or female flowers were visible (Fig. S5). We
subsequently plotted the proportion of branches exhibiting leaf unfolding and
flowering. The data are provided in Dataset S2.
755
Estimation of protein-coding sequence divergence
Pairwise distances for non-synonymous (dN) and synonymous (dS) substitutions,
as well as the dN/dS ratio, were estimated for each orthologous gene pair between
L. edulis and *Q. glauca* using codeml (PAML 4.0)(Yang, 2007). The analysis was
performed with the following settings: seqtype = 1, CodonFreq = 2, Runmode = -
2, and the transition/transversion ratio estimated from the data. To ensure
reliability, genes exhibiting signs of saturated divergence or underestimated dS
values were excluded, as codeml produces robust results only within a moderate
range of sequence divergence. Specifically, we removed 43 orthologs with dN/dS
≧ 99 and 483 genes with dS > 10, dS < 0.001, or dN < 0.0003. The thresholds of
dN and dS were determined by examining the relationship between dN and dS and
excluding outliers that deviated from the main distribution. After filtering, the final
dataset comprised 11223 orthologous genes.
Linear regression analyses were performed to examine the relationship
between dN, dS, dN/dS and peak month differences ($\Delta\varphi$) in gene expression
between *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis*, as well as mean expression levels. These
analyses were conducted using the lm function in R software (v 4.3.1). Specifically,
we modeled the evolutionary rates (dN, dS, and dN/dS) as the response variable
and the peak month difference ($\Delta\varphi$) or the mean levels in gene expression as the
predictor variable. To account for the skewed distributions of evolutionary rates,
logarithm transformations with base 2 were applied.
777
Data deposition and code availability

All sequencing data generated in this study have been deposited in the DNA Data
Bank of Japan (DDBJ) and are available under the BioProject accession number
PRJDB20498. RNA-seq reads used for expression analyses are available under
the DDBJ Sequence Read Archive (DRA) run accession numbers DRR659185-
DRR659374 and DRR664882-DRR665873, while DNA sequences used for
genome assembly, genome size estimation and phylogenetic reconstruction are
available under DRR659899-DRR659929. The assembled genomes are also
available from DDBJ: the *Q. glauca* genome under accession numbers
BAAHOF010000001-BAAHOF010000797, and the *L. edulis* genome under
BAAHOE010000001-BAAHOE010000750. All codes used in the analysis are
available   at   https://github.com/ku-
biomath/Evolution_of_gene_expression_in_seasonal_envrionment.
791

Acknowledgments

793 We thank Atsuko Miyawaki-Kuwakado for her valuable technical advice on RNA-
794 seq analysis. We also appreciate the technical support provided by Kayoko Ohta.
795 Additionally, we thank Koharu Yamaguchi, Yuta Aoyagi, and Ryosuke Imai for their
796 help with sample collection.

Additional information

Funding

800 This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Numbers JP23H04965 and
801 JP23H04966.

Author Contributions

804 S.N.K. and A.S. designed research; S.N.K., Y.I., J.K., H.H., S.I., and A.S.
805 performed research; S.N.K., Y.I., J.K., H.H., S.I., and A.S. analyzed data; S.N.K.
806 and A.S. wrote the paper with inputs from all the authors.
807

Competing Interest Statement

809 The authors declare no conflict of interest.
810

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Figures
Figure 1. Synteny and distribution of genomic features of *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis* genomes. (A) A phylogenetic tree of five Fagaceae species from three genera, *Quercus*, *Lithocarpus*, and *Fagus*. Bootstrap values for all branches are 100. (B) Synteny relationship between the *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis* genomes. The collinear blocks within the genomes were displayed by lines. Black lines show reverse alignment and gray lines represent regular. Numbers correspond to the 12 chromosomes. (C–D) Circos plots of the *Q. glauca* (C) and *L. edulis* genomes (D). Lanes depict circular representation of chromosome length (Mbp) (a), gene density (b), GC density (c), and repeat (d). Lines in the inner circle represent links between synteny-selected paralogs. (E) Orthogroup classification based on the orthogroup size difference between the *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis* genomes. The bar plot illustrates the number of genes in gene families categorized into 1:1 orthologs, N:N (many-to-many), 1:N (one-to-many), N:1 (many-to-one), and species-specific unique genes. (F–G) Mean gene expression levels in each copy number variation

1128　category for *Q. glauca* (F) and *L. edulis* (G). Different letters denote statistically
1129　significant differences ($p < 0.05$, Steel-Dwass test).
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Figure 2. Seasonal gene expression dynamics. (A) Hierarchical clustering of 213 time points encompassing two tissues (leaf and bud) and four species (*Q. glauca*, *Q. acuta*, *L. edulis*, and *L. glaber*), collected over two-year. Newly flushed leaf samples are indicated as asterisks. (B) Distribution of daily mean temperature on each sampling date across clusters, from L1 (top) to B3 (bottom). The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare daily mean temperature between cluster L1 and L2 (*p* = 0.136). The Steel-Dwass test was applied for multiple comparisons across clusters B1–B3 (*p* < 0.05). Different letters denote statistically significant differences (*p* < 0.05). (C–D) Hierarchical clustering of 11749 genes based on the similarity of gene expression dynamics. Daily mean temperature, flowering and leaf flushing phenology (proportion) are shown in the upper three panels of the heatmaps.

Figure 3. Distribution of period and peak month in rhythmic gene expression. (A–B) Distribution of period length (month) among the genes with significant rhythmicity calculated by RAIN for leaf (A) and bud (B) samples of each species. (C–D) Distribution of seasonal peaks among the genes with annual periodicity. The angle of each bar represents the peak month, while the bar height indicates the number of genes. Blue arrows indicate the month with the highest number of genes peaking during winter (December–February), while red arrows indicate the month with the highest number of genes peaking during the growing season (March–November). Purple and green squares around each rose plot denote the observed phenology of flowering and leaf flushing (proportion), respectively.

Figure 4. Comparison of peak months in seasonal gene expression across species in buds. (A) Intra-genus and (B) inter-genera comparisons of peak months in seasonal gene expression. The size and color of the circles represent the number of genes and the mean of Pearson's correlation, respectively. Genes with negative correlations lower than -0.3 are highlighted in blue, while the month of leaf flushing is highlighted in green. (C) Plot of molecular phenology divergence index D across months. Triangles and circles indicate the values of D calculated from intra-genus and inter-genera comparison, respectively. The line and shaded envelope indicate the mean and standard deviation (s.d.). Different letters denote statistically significant differences (Nemenyi test, $p < 0.05$).

Figure 5. Phylogenetic constraints in the evolution of seasonal gene expression
and the relationship between seasonal gene expression divergence and sequence
evolution. (A) Distribution of pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients for gene
expression across species (Le: *L. edulis*, Lg: *L. glaber*, Qg: *Q. glauca*, Qa: *Q.*
acuta; *n* = 11749). Colors indicate rhythmicity categories. Black bars show median
correlation values, and different letters indicate significant differences (Nemenyi
test, *p* < 0.05). (B) Heatmap of pairwise correlation coefficients for each gene, with
mean gene counts in four seasonal expression categories: (1) annual rhythmic
genes peaking in the growing season (March–November), (2) annual rhythmic
genes peaking in winter (December–February), (3) half-annual rhythmic genes,
and (4) arrhythmic genes. Genes are ordered by mean correlation across species
pairs. (C–D) Conserved (C) and diverged (D) gene expression patterns, based on
the top and bottom 5% of pairwise correlations. Solid lines and error bars indicate
mean ± SD. Numbers in parentheses show peak month differences between *Q.*
glauca and *L. edulis*. Peak month difference for *BFT* was not calculated due to
arrhythmic expression in *Q. glauca*. (E) Relationship between evolutionary rate
(dN/dS) and peak month difference ($\Delta\varphi$) for genes with annual periodicity in *Q.*
glauca and *L. edulis* (*n* = 951). Black lines and transparent bands represent
regression lines and 95% confidence intervals. The regression coefficient (β) and
corresponding *p*-value are shown in each panel.

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Supplementary figures

Figure S1. Dynamic range of gene expression in seasonal environments. (A) Dynamic range of seasonal gene expression in leaves and buds for *Q. glauca*, *Q. acuta*, *L. edulis*, and *L. glaber*. Each dot represents an expression level $(\log_2(\text{GeTMM}+1))$ on each sampling date, while black lines indicate the mean expression level of each gene over the entire sampling period. The bars on the left side of the panels distinguish between rhythmic (blue) and arhythmic (gray) genes. (B) Density plots showing the distribution of the ratio of standard deviation divided by the mean for each gene (σ_i/μ_i) and the overall variation across all genes in the genome (σ_g/μ_g) in leaves and buds for *Q. glauca, Q. acuta, L. edulis,* and *L. glaber*.

1206 **Figure S2.** Comparison of gene expression across individuals. Scatter plots
1207 showing the expression levels of each gene measured from different individuals
1208 for *L. glaber* (A), *Q. glauca* (B), and *Q. acuta* (C). The Pearson's correlation
1209 coefficient for each pair of individuals is shown in the corresponding panel.

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Figure S3. Seasonal fluctuations in environmental factors at the three study sites.
Daily mean temperature and photoperiods at the three study sites (Ito campus,
Kyushu university; Imajuku Field Activity Center; Mt. Sefuri in Kyushu, Japan)
during the monitoring periods. The solid lines indicate the daily mean temperature,
and the shaded area indicates the photoperiod. The study sites are located within
a relatively small region, with distances between them ranging from approximately
10 to 20 km. The elevations vary, with Ito Campus (20–57 m a.s.l.) and Imajuku
Field Activity Center (84–111 m a.s.l.) at lower altitudes, while Mt. Sefuri is at a
higher elevation (970–974 m a.s.l.). Environmental data from Ito Campus and the
Imajuku Field Activity Center were obtained from the Japan Meteorological
Agency, while data from Sefuri Mountain were collected using a logger installed at
the sampling site since July 15, 2021.
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Figure S4. Determining the optimal number of clusters in hierarchical clustering.
(A) Relationship between the number of clusters *k* and total Within-Cluster-Sum of
Squared Error (WSS) on the clustering of 213 samples. We adopted the optimal *k*
= 5 because it was the elbow point of the curve. (B) Relationship between the
number of clusters *k* and total WSS on the clustering of 11749 genes. The elbow
point was *k* = 4 or 5 and we selected the number of cluster *k* = 5. If *k* = 4 is selected,
gene set IV and V (Fig. 2D, E in main text) are merged.

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1236 **Figure S5.** Phenological observations of leaf flushing, flowering (male and
1237 female flower) and winter buds of the four target species.

	Q. glauca	*Q. acuta*	*L. edulis*	*L. glaber*
Newly flushed leaves	2024/4/22	2022/5/19	2020/5/13	2020/7/9
Male flowers	2024/4/22	2022/5/19	2020/6/11	2021/8/25
Female flowers	2022/4/22	2022/6/12	2020/7/9	2021/10/20
Winter buds	2022/12/30	2023/1/7	2021/1/14	2021/2/11

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Figure S6. Seasonal gene expression dynamics observed within the same
sampling period (from May 2021 to October 2022). (A) Hierarchical clustering of
160 time points encompassing two tissues (leaf and bud) and four species (*Q.*
glauca, *Q. acuta*, *L. edulis*, and *L. glaber*). Newly flushed leaf samples are
indicated as asterisks. (C–D) Hierarchical clustering of 11749 genes based on the
similarity of gene expression dynamics. Daily mean temperature is shown in the
top of the heatmaps.

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Figure S7. Seasonal gene expression dynamics under the identical environmental
condition. (A) Hierarchical clustering of 161 time points from two tissues (leaf and
bud) across three species (*Q. glauca*, *L. edulis*, and *L. glaber*) excluding *Q. acuta*
sampled at higher elevation. Newly flushed leaf samples are indicated as asterisks.
(C–D) Hierarchical clustering of 11749 genes based on the similarity of their gene
expression dynamics. Daily mean temperature is shown in in the top of the
heatmaps.

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Figure S8. Distribution of environmental factors across clusters. Distribution of
mean temperature for the 7 days prior to the sampling (A) and photoperiod for each
sampling date (B) across clusters identified through hierarchical clustering in Fig.
2A. The Mann-Whitney U test was used to compare climatic factors between leaf
clusters (L1 and L2), while the Steel-Dwass test was applied for multiple
comparisons among bud clusters (B1, B2, and B3). Newly flushed leaves were
included within cluster B1. Different letters denote statistically significant
differences ($p < 0.05$).

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Figure S9. 3D plot of PC1–PC3 resulting from the PCA of 11749 orthologous
genes in four Fagaceae species. Leaf samples are represented in a color gradient
from green to blue, while bud samples range from orange to yellow. The color
gradients indicate the mean temperature on the respective sampling dates for bud
and leaf samples. The percentages in parentheses on each axis denote the
variance explained by each principal component. The numbers within the plot
indicate sampling months.

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Figure S10. Number of rhythmic genes across species and distribution of peak
months across half-annual genes. (A) Number of genes classified into annual
(period range: 8-16 months), half-annual (< 8 month), and arrhythmic periodicity.
(B–C) Number of common rhythmic genes shared among species within each
species combination, categorized by annual (B) and half-annual (C) periodicity.
Black dots beneath each bar indicate the species included in each combination.
(D) Distribution of seasonal peaks across genes with half-annual periodicity. (E)
Seasonal expression patterns of *WRKY22* in leaves and *KINγ1* in buds. For each
gene, the species exhibiting a half-annual periodicity is highlighted with a thick,
dark line, while the expression patterns in the other species are shown with thin,
light lines.

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Figure S11. Comparison of peak months in seasonal gene expression across species in leaves. (A) Intra-genus and (B) inter-genera comparison of peak months in seasonal gene expression. (C) Comparison of peak months between leaves and buds. The size and color of the circles represent the number of genes and the mean of Pearson's correlation, respectively. Genes with negative correlations lower than -0.3 are highlighted in blue, while the month of leaf flushing is highlighted in green. (D) Plot of molecular phenology divergence index *D* across months. Triangles and circles indicate the *D* values calculated from intra- and inter-genera comparison, respectively. The line and shaded envelope indicate the mean and standard deviation (s.d.). Different letters denote statistically significant differences (Nemenyi test, *p* < 0.05).

  Figure S12. Seasonal difference of molecular phenology divergence index *D*
  calculated for species under the identical environmental condition. Plot of
  molecular phenology divergence index *D* across months in buds (A) and leaves
  (B) calculated from the gene expression in *Q. glauca*, *L. edulis*, and *L. glaber*.
  Triangles and circles indicate the values of *D* calculated from intra-genus and
  inter-genera comparison, respectively. The line and shaded envelope indicate the
  mean and standard deviation (s.d.). Different letters denote statistically significant
  differences (Nemenyi test, $p < 0.05$).

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Figure S13 Phylogenetic constraints in the evolution of seasonal gene expression
in leaves. (A) Distribution of pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients for gene
expression across species (*Le*: *L. edulis*, *Lg*: *L. glaber*, *Qg*: *Q. glauca*, *Qa*: *Q.*
acuta; *n* = 11749). Colors indicate three categories based on the presence or
absence of rhythmicity in gene expression. The median values of Pearson's
correlation across all the genes were depicted as black bars. Different letters
denote significantly different values (Nemenyi test, *p* < 0.05). (B) Heatmap of
pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients for each gene, along with the mean
count of genes in four categories of seasonal gene expression: (1) rhythmic genes
with annual periodicity peaking in the growing season (March–November), (2)
rhythmic genes with annual periodicity peaking in winter (December–February),
(3) rhythmic genes with half-annual periodicity, and (4) arrhythmic genes. The
mean count was calculated for each block of 100 genes. Genes were ordered
based on the mean Pearson's correlation of their expression across all species
pairs.

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Figure S14 Distribution of pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients for gene
expression across species under the identical environmental condition. Density
plot of pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients in buds (A) and leaves (B),
calculated from the gene expression in *Q. glauca*, *L. edulis*, and *L. glaber*
inhabiting nearly identical environments. Colors indicate rhythmicity categories.
Black bars show median correlation values, and different letters indicate
significant differences (Nemenyi test, *p* < 0.05).

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Figure S15. Pairwise mean absolute difference of gene expression dynamics. (A–
B) Distribution of mean absolute difference of gene expression dynamics
(Log₂(GeTMM+1)) in leaf (*A*) and bud samples (B) across species (Le: *L. edulis*,
Lg: *L. glaber*, Qg: *Q. glauca*, Qa: *Q. acuta*; *n* = 11749). Colors indicate three
categories based on the presence or absence of rhythmicity in gene expression.
The median values across all the genes were depicted as black bars. Different
letters denote significantly different values (Nemenyi test, *p* < 0.05). (C–D)
Heatmap of the mean absolute difference for each gene, along with the mean
count of genes in four categories of seasonal gene expression: (1) rhythmic genes
with annual periodicity peaking in the growing season (March–November), (2)
rhythmic genes with annual periodicity peaking in winter (December–February),
(3) rhythmic genes with half-annual periodicity, and (4) arrhythmic genes. The
mean count was calculated for each block of 100 genes. Genes were ordered
based on the mean absolute difference of their expression across all the species
pairs.

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Figure S16. Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis. (A) Top 5 GO terms
(ranked by the raw p-values) for the genes with conserved expression patterns
across species (a mean correlation in gene expression ranking in the top 5%) in
leaves and buds. (B) Top 5 GO terms for the genes with diverged expression
patterns across species (a mean correlation in gene expression ranking in the
bottom 5%) in leaves and buds. Genes used for the analysis are listed in Dataset
S5.

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Figure S17. Relationship between sequence divergence and gene expression
divergence. (A) Relationships between evolutionary measures (dN/dS, dN, dS),
and mean expression levels of genes except for the outliers (n = 11223). (B–C)
Relationships between the evolutionary measures (dN, dS) and peak differences
($\Delta\varphi$) between *Q. glauca* and *L. edulis* in leaves (B) and buds (C) using the same
gene set as in Fig. 5*E* (n = 951). The regression slope and corresponding p-value
are shown in each panel. Black lines and transparent bands represent regression
lines and 95% confidence intervals. (D–E) Comparison of the evolutionary
measures (dN/dS, dN, dS) among genes with conserved annual periodicity across
four categories (n = 951). Genes were classified into four categories: those
expressed in winter in both tissues, those expressed in winter only in buds, those
expressed in winter only in leaves, and others. (E) shows a subset of (D), including
only genes with conserved seasonal peaks (peak month difference < 2).

Figure S18. Developmental constraints and seasonal constraints in the evolution
of gene expression. (A)The hourglass model of developmental constraints,
illustrating similar gene expression during the mid-embryonic stage (40–45). (B)
Seasonal constraints identified in this study. Similar gene expression patterns were
observed during the winter season in both leaves and buds, as well as during the
summer in leaves. The vertical axis represents time (developmental stages or
seasons), while the horizontal axis represents the divergence of gene expression
patterns.

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1387 **Table S1.** The statistics for genome assemblies of two new sequenced species

	Q. glauca	*L. edulis*
Sequencing		
Raw bases of PacBio (Gb)	32.6	273.6 (subreads)
Raw bases of Hi-C (Gb)	24.8	50.1
Estimated genome size (Mb)	891.2	868.7
Assembly		
Final assembly size (Mb)	867.7	835.7
Number of chromosomes	12	12
Number of contigs	797	750
N50 of contigs (Mb)	71.7	68.8
GC percent	35.68	35.74
Annotation		
Number of predicted genes	39,758	34,059
Mean gene length (bp)	3,889.70	4,099.28
Mean CDS length (bp)	1,221.90	1,164.30
Annotated to EggNOG	37,408 (94%)	31,668 (93%)

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Other Supporting Information Files

Dataset S1
Summary of clustering 213 gene expression profiles

Dataset S2
Hierarchical clustering of 11749 gene expression dynamics

Dataset S3
Identification of genes with rhythmic expression

Dataset S4
Comparison of correlation and absolute difference among the species pairs

Dataset S5
List of genes with conserved and diverged gene expression across species.

Dataset S6
Statistical test of evolutionary rates