Title: Single-Nucleus Transcriptomics Reveals How Cell Type Shapes the Circadian

Transcriptome of the Arabidopsis Leaf

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Abstract

Circadian regulation enables plants to coordinate cellular processes with daily environmental

cycles, yet the dynamics and hierarchy of the clock across cell types remains poorly understood.

To characterize circadian regulation across cell types in the mature *Arabidopsis thaliana* leaf,

we performed a 24 hour single nucleus RNA-sequencing circadian time course. We captured

~30,000 nuclei across seven circadian time points, recovering all major leaf cell types. We

identified over 7,400 genes with cluster-resolved circadian regulation, and used coexpression

analysis to define five major temporal expression clades shared across all cell types. We

leveraged these assignments to identify genes with cell-type-specific temporal shifts in

expression. Single cell gene regulatory networks were generated for each cluster through

GENIE3, identifying many shared and unique transcription factor target interactions across

clusters. A close examination of core clock component targets identified complex light and

hormone signaling associated networks, capturing both broad cross-cell type regulation and cell-

type-specific target regulation. Our results demonstrate the extent to which circadian

transcriptional regulation is present in the mature Arabidopsis leaf, and highlight the immense

complexity in cell-type-specific regulation.

Background

The Earth's rotation on its axis generates predictable fluctuations in the day-night cycle. Organisms from unicellular to complex multicellular species, including humans, have evolved endogenous circadian oscillators (1). These autonomous time-keeping mechanisms allow organisms to anticipate and adapt to the dramatic yet predictable daily changes in light and temperature that arise from the day-night cycle that is a consequence of the Earth's rotation on its axis (1, 2). The circadian mediated alignment of cellular processes with external cues is central to survival and fitness (3). Although clock genes vary across kingdoms, the fundamental principles of circadian regulation, such as transcriptional-translational feedback loops and entrainment by environmental cues known as zeitgebers, are remarkably conserved (4–8).

In plants, the circadian clock is integral to coordinating physiological processes with daily environmental changes, ensuring optimal growth, metabolism and development (9–11). The plant circadian system consists of transcriptional regulators that function through transcriptional-translational feedback loops to generate rhythmic gene expression patterns with a roughly 24-hour period (12, 13). Dawn expressed *CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED 1* (*CCA1*) and *LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL* (*LHY*) MYB transcription factors (TFs) are followed by the sequential expression of the transcriptional repressors *PSEUDO RESPONSE REGULATORS PRR9, PRR7*, *PRR5,* and *PRR3,* and the evening-phased *TIMING OF CAB EXPRESSION 1 (TOC1)/PRR1* (14–19). Additional repressors include the Evening Complex (EC), consisting of *LUX ARRHYTHMO (LUX), EARLY FLOWERING 3 (ELF3)* and *ELF4* that contribute to circadian clock function and coordinating growth and development (20). *NIGHT LIGHT-INDUCIBLE AND CLOCK-REGULATED1 (LNK1)* and *LNK2* act as co-activators of *REVEILLE4* (*RVE4*) and *RVE8*

to positively regulate *PRR5, TOC1* and the EC (19, 21–23). *LIGHT-REGULATED WD1* (*LWD1*)

and *LWD2* are additional co-activators that along with *TEOSINTE BRANCHED 1-CYCLOIDEA-*

PCF20 (*TCP20)* and *TCP22* positively regulate *CCA1*, *PRR9,* and *PRR7 (24, 25)*. These regulatory

arrangements facilitate robust circadian gene expression across environmental variation, and allow

the clock to gate and influence target genes across time and cell types.

Unlike the centralized circadian control observed in mammals, where the suprachiasmatic nucleus

acts as the master pacemaker (26), plants possess a decentralized network of circadian oscillators

distributed across tissues and organs therefore creating a complex system to understand the

interplay between local clocks (27). Across certain cell types there is evidence to suggest a

complex hierarchical organization of circadian oscillators in plants. The shoot apical meristem

(SAM) appears to serve as a dominant clock (28), providing long distance signaling to the root

clock (29); however, detached roots can maintain rhythmicity (30), suggesting the SAM is not

required for sustained clock function. Cell-type-specific circadian clocks have been shown to

regulate distinct physiological processes, supporting the importance of local coupling of oscillators

within a cell type. For example, the vascular clock plays a pivotal role in controlling flowering

time via regulation of *FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT)* expression in phloem companion cells (31–

33), while epidermal clocks modulate temperature-dependent cell elongation (32). Local signaling

provides additional synchronization as observed in the leaf, where the vascular clock appears

dominant over the mesophyll clock (31).

Several studies have shown that different plant organs and cell types maintain distinct circadian

periods (27, 31, 34–38). In Arabidopsis seedlings, the cotyledon and hypocotyl have been found

to exhibit shorter periods than the root (27, 35, 37), whereas guard cells exhibited longer periods

compared to adjacent mesophyll and epidermal cells (39), and vascular cells maintained more

robust circadian rhythms compared to mesophyll cells (31, 35). Regions of high cell density, such

as shoot and root meristems, tend to have more tightly coupled clocks, whereas the leaf can

maintain independent phases of circadian clock gene promoter oscillations across itself (28, 36,

38). Single cell imaging of a pCCA1::CCA1-YFP fusion protein and bioluminescence recording

of a LUCIFERASE (LUC) reporter driven by the promoter for the clock component *GIGANTEA*

(*GI::LUC)* at near cellular level revealed cell-type-specific differences, such as the shorter periods

observed in root tips compared to other regions across the root (27, 37). These cell-type-variations

in clock behavior highlight the complexity of intra-tissue clock partitioning and emphasize the

need to understand the importance of these distinct oscillators.

Traditionally, the study of plant circadian rhythms has been limited to methods such as bulk RNA

sequencing (RNA-seq) and microarray based mRNA capture, both of which mask cell-type-

specific nuances by averaging signals across heterogeneous cell populations. Recent technological

advances, including single-cell and single-nucleus RNA-sequencing, have enabled unprecedented

resolution and provided an opportunity to unravel cell specific circadian regulation (40–42). A

snRNA-seq circadian time course on 8-day old Arabidopsis seedlings revealed highly conserved

rhythmic expression of the core clock genes across most cell types, yet their phase and amplitude

was highly variable. Consistent with cell-type-specific roles of the circadian clock, most circadian

regulated genes were identified in single clusters. Cotyledons exhibited more pronounced intra

tissue cycling gene similarity than the root, although phase differences were observed across

subclusters suggesting altered clock characteristics even within a cell type (43, 44). A

comprehensive understanding of how these cell-type-specific oscillators regulate distinct

biological processes over the continued development of the plant will facilitate more targeted

approaches for improving plant growth.

In this study, we captured the transcriptional profiles of over 30,000 nuclei across a 24 hour

circadian time course to investigate circadian regulation in mature leaves of Arabidopsis. This

high-resolution analysis revealed the existence of distinct circadian oscillators operating within

specific cell types and enabled us to identify five predominant phase dependent expression clades

present across all cell types. Through a single cell gene regulatory network analysis we resolved

cluster specific and conserved regulatory connections across cell types. Our findings provide new

insights into the intricate, decentralized nature of plant circadian clocks and will contribute as a

comprehensive resource for future research to understand tissue specific clock architecture.

Results

Construction and cell type identification of a circadian single nucleus time course in mature

leaves of Arabidopsis

To capture circadian clock regulated genes across different cell types in the Arabidopsis leaf, we

conducted a single nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) time course experiment on 13 day old

Arabidopsis plants. We entrained seedlings to a 12 hour photoperiod at 22°C for 11 days prior to

transfer to constant light (LL) (Fig. 1A). Pairs of samples were collected over 24 hours at four-

hour intervals starting at ZT48 (zeitgeber, hours after dawn), isolating above-ground tissue by

cutting over the root:shoot junction. Fresh tissue was immediately used for nuclei isolation and

10X Genomics-based single nuclei capture. Initial assessment of these libraries through Cellranger

(45) revealed promising nuclei capture rates ranging from ~2,000-4,000 for most libraries, and

median genes detected metrics were similar to several previously reported single nucleus libraries

in plants, ranging from ~1,000-1,500 genes detected (Table S1) (41, 44, 46). We observed higher

than expected levels of background RNA (as defined by the fraction of reads assigned to cells in

Cellranger), likely due to our sampling decision to minimize handling time by skipping both

fluorescence activated nuclei sorting and density gradient purification, and note that of the initial

14 snRNA-seq libraries, one library did not pass QC (ZT24B), and one library had reduced nuclei

capture rates (Table S1) (ZT04B).

Previous single cell circadian studies in Arabidopsis and mouse systems found that unguided

integration of time course datasets can lead to phase-specific clustering, where genes with peak

expression at a certain time of day influence clustering and obfuscate cell-type-specific signatures

(44, 47). Core clock components, such as *CCA1*, are widely expressed across cell types (27). We

reasoned that our experimental design might introduce phase-specific biases not captured in single

time point single cell experiments. We observed that a large portion of cluster specific cell-type-

markers identified in previous experiments have been shown to be circadian regulated (Fig. 1B),

with a handful of cell types defined by a majority of genes previously observed to cycle (48, 49).

We found that we could achieve cell-type-specific clustering by masking ~7,000 circadian

regulated genes from integration anchoring, and subsequently using a large set of 15,000 variable

genes as integration anchors (Fig. 1C). To construct our circadian gene list, we combined the full

set of cycling genes previously identified through bulk RNA-seq (48), and merged this list with

genes identified as cycling in our own pseudo-bulk data (see methods). Our time course captured

~30,000 high quality nuclei, with predicted identities from all the major tissue types found in the

Arabidopsis leaf. A majority of the nuclei captured were identified as actively photosynthetic or

of mesophyll origin, with relatively smaller numbers of well described cell types, such as guard

cells, phloem companion cells, and dividing cells (Fig. 1D). This includes many cell types with a

high proportion of circadian regulated marker genes, such as guard cells, which were often missing

or unresolved when integrated without masking.

Tissue and cell-type-assignments were confirmed by examining expression of previously reported

marker genes (Table S2), and further refined by Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analyses and

cluster-specific biomarker analysis (Fig. 1E-H, Table S3). Cluster-specific expression of

previously reported marker genes identified Clusters 6, 9 and 14 as phloem companion cells,

dividing cells, and guard cells, respectively (Fig. 1E). Examining the most significantly enriched

GO terms in each cluster highlighted tissue of origin very effectively for mesophyll, epidermal,

and photosynthetic cells, with GO terms associated with water use, fatty acid biosynthesis, and

light harvesting among the most enriched terms for each cell type (Fig. 1F, Table S1). Finally, we

used cluster-specific biomarkers to refine our cell-type-assignments in many clusters (Fig. S1).

Expression of *FAMA*, a bHLH transcription factor involved in stomatal development (50), was

highly specific to Cluster 14, with moderate expression only found in Cluster 13 (Fig. 1G).

Expression of *NPCC6* (*NUCLEAR-ENRICHED PHLOEM COMPANION CELL GENE 6*) was

previously reported to be highly specific to phloem companion cells (51), and was identified as a

highly significant Cluster 6 biomarker in our dataset (Fig. 1H). Together our detailed analytical

approach of leveraging marker gene expression, GO enrichment analysis and cluster-specific

biomarkers has successfully identified all major leaf cell types in our snRNA-seq circadian time

course.

Cycling gene expression is widespread across all cell types of the mature Arabidopsis leaf

To explore circadian regulation in our dataset, we examined pseudo-bulk expression profiles of

circadian clock components and outputs over our single nucleus time course (Fig. 2A). We saw

robust oscillations coinciding with previously reported expression patterns in all of the examined

components (48, 52, 53). We next examined whether these expression patterns persisted within

and across clusters for a suite of circadian clock components (Fig. 2B, S2). We observed similar

expression patterns across most clusters for *CCA1* and *TOC1*, showing robust and similar cycling

across a large number of clusters. In contrast, many clock components were only identified as

cycling in a subset of clusters. In most cases, such as with *GI, LUX*, and *PRR5*, patterns were

consistent across clusters in which they were called cycling; however, a handful of clock

components were observed with shifted phase in one or more clusters. One striking example of

this is *ELF3*, which has an earlier phase in guard cells (Fig. 2B). In order to better characterize

these expression patterns, we utilized JTKcycle (54) to identify cycling genes using both pseudo-

bulk and cluster-resolved expression values with p adj < 0.05. We identified 4,769 genes with

cycling gene expression patterns in our pseudo-bulked dataset (Table S4). Our analysis revealed

that ~68% (3264/4769) of our rhythmic genes from the pseudo-bulk data set overlap with a

previous bulk-RNAseq circadian regulated gene list (48).

Cluster-specific cycling genes were identified for all clusters other than Cluster 16, where tissue

sampling variability likely drove non-uniform distribution of root hair cell type across the time

course (Fig. S3). The total number of genes identified with cluster-specific cycling patterns ranged

from ~1,800 in Cluster 0, to ~300 in Cluster 8_1 (Fig. 2D, Table S5). While we noted that the

clusters with the fewest identified cycling genes were also relatively small clusters, our ability to

consistently capture robust rhythms for key clock TFs such as CCA1 and TOC1 was encouraging

(Fig. 2B). We observed 4,825 genes cycling within at least one cluster, and noted that more than

half of all cycling genes were identified as cycling in only a single cluster (Fig. 2E). Examination

of the phase of cycling markers in each cluster identified that most clusters contain genes with

peak expression across our time course; however, a handful of clusters have clear biases towards

cycling genes at key time periods, including an apparent over-representation of morning-phased

cycling genes in guard cells (Fig. S4). Many core clock components were identified as cycling in

many clusters, with *CCA1* and *TOC1* significantly cycling in 18 and 14 clusters across the dataset

respectively, and found that the shifted expression observed in *ELF3* in guard cells met our

threshold for significance (Fig. 2B). Due to our decision to process nuclei from fresh tissue at

every time point, a 48-h time course was not feasible. To limit the false-negatives associated with

capturing a single cycle we included a biological replicate at every time point to help reduce this

concern, and have adopted a stringent significance threshold for cycling status (55). As a

consequence of this, we are confident that genes that exceed our cutoffs are truly cycling; however,

we refrain from making strong claims about the set of non-cycling genes without examining

individual gene expression patterns.

Our analysis revealed 7,417 rhythmic genes across clusters with 59% overlapping with previous

bulk RNA-seq data (Fig. S5) (48). Furthermore, we observed a significant overlap of cycling genes

between our data set and a recent 24 h and 48 h circadian snRNA-seq data set (44), with 41% of

genes identified as cycling genes in the 24 h dataset and 63% overlapping with the 48 h dataset

(Fig. S5). The high overlap with the 48 h time course supports our inclusion of a second replicate

and indicates that we have identified a significant number of genes that have been previously

reported as circadian regulated at bulk and at the single cell level.

Coexpression network analysis identifies five major temporal expression patterns across all

cell types

Due to the limitations inherent in calling phase from a single 24 hour cycle (54) we confirmed the

cycling and phase using the weighted gene correlation network analysis (WGCNA) package in R

(56). The method has been previously applied for grouping cycling genes with similar phases into

modules (57, 58). This resulted in clustering of genes based on expression pattern into 26 modules.

To remove genes with weak correlations with the module eigengene pattern, we filtered the

modules by kME (Module Eigengene connectivity) value; only genes with kME $\geq$ 0.6 were

retained. We next calculated correlation metrics for the modules identified by using the average

zScore of each module for the time course. We then used the metrics to perform hierarchical

clustering of the modules. Euclidean distance calculated from the correlation values, where shorter

distance indicates strong relationship and more similarity between the modules, identified five

major clades among all modules. Representative expression patterns for each clade was calculated

by averaging the zScore of all the genes and resulted in five major gene expression patterns

throughout the day: early morning (clade 3), morning (clade 2), mid day (clade 1), evening (clade

4) and late night (clade 5) phased genes (Fig. 3A, Table S6). Additionally, we examined the

distribution of the five clades across our clusters and each cell type had representation of all five

expression patterns (Fig. 3B). Some cell types were more enriched in certain expression patterns,

for example C5 (Vasculature) and C14 (GC) clusters had a larger proportion of genes with morning

expression pattern (clade 2).

To analyze the biological processes enriched for the clades identified, we performed GO

enrichment analysis (Table S3). The GO analysis identified some common and unique enrichment

terms among the clades; the early morning clade (clade 3) had genes involved in auxin response,

tropism and regulation of stomatal closure. Similarly, we saw enrichment of genes for indole-

containing compound catabolic/biosynthesis processes and cellular response to ABA enriched in

the midday clade (clade 2). The GO terms related to preparation for photosynthetic machinery

were enriched in the second half of the day indicating the plant's strategy to prepare for the energy

harvesting processes of the next day (Fig. 3A).

To examine whether genes cycling across clusters exhibited similar phase patterns we identified

genes that were found in multiple clades. The majority of genes (5611) were exclusive to one clade

only, whereas 1540, 114, and 1 gene were found in 2, 3, and 4 clades respectively. For the genes

present in two clades, we find most shifts occurred between adjacent clades (Fig. 3C; grey

ribbons); however, a small fraction of genes exhibited more dramatic phase changes (Fig. 3C;

yellow ribbons). Examining these genes at the cluster level revealed similar changes between

clusters suggesting a common regulatory mechanism (Fig. 3D). Notably, we identified a handful

of genes in our photosynthesizing cluster that showed phase changes when compared to phloem

companion cell (PCC) or guard cell (GC), resulting in their segregation into different clades (Fig.

3D). As our analysis revealed that the same genes can have cell-type-specific expression patterns,

we next aimed to construct cell-type-specific gene regulatory networks to enhance our

understanding of the unique regulatory mechanism at play in each cell type.

Single cell gene regulatory networks uncover cell-type-specific circadian regulation of gene expression

We next constructed circadian single cell gene regulatory networks (scGRNs) to better characterize the ways in which circadian genes are differentially regulated across tissues. We implemented the GENIE3 algorithm on individual clusters while simultaneously limiting our input dataset to genes which were cycling in that specific cluster. In parallel, we iteratively shuffled each cluster's data and ran GENIE3 to identify null distributions of each dataset. The weight value corresponding to the 95th percentile was used as a weight cutoff for the unshuffled connections, leaving ~156,000 TF-target connections spread across all clusters (Fig. 4A, Table S7). Approximately 25% of the edges had TFs and targets assigned to the same WGCNA clade, while the remaining 75% were assigned to different WGCNA clades (Fig. 4B). Given the number of clades identified, the amount of WGCNA same-clade co-assignment is significantly higher than would be expected by chance (z-score ~49). The enrichment for similar expression patterns within TF-target edges suggests we have captured more instances of transcriptional activation than repression, as TF and target expression patterns which would naturally fall into different clades under repressive activity.

GRN target sets in individual clusters were broadly enriched for photosynthetic and circadian GO terms (Fig. 4C), reflective of the strong regulatory control the clock exerts on the timing of photosynthetic activity and other rhythmic processes (52, 59–61). Comparison of the GRNs between clusters identified generally larger target overlaps between clusters of similar cell types (Fig. 4D), supporting that different cell types within a common tissue maintain some amount of shared network structure. Enrichment was also identified for a number of environmental

responsive terms, including temperature and light responses. Given that both light and temperature

are key zeitgebers in plant circadian entrainment (62), examining the specific interactions

underlying these enrichments could provide new insights into how clock entrainment is maintained

in diverse cell types.

Many TFs had targets identified across multiple clusters, including CCA1, which had predicted

targets in 18 of the 19 analyzed clusters. We observed that CCA1-centered networks were also

more similar within similar cell types, with Jaccard index based hierarchical clustering

highlighting the similarity within mesophyll clusters and vascular clusters (Fig. 4E). This

relationship was also seen in other clock components, such as LNK2, PRR7, and TOC1; however,

clock components identified as cycling in fewer clusters, such as LNK3 or ELF3, tended to only

share overlap in mesophyll associated clusters (Fig. S6).

To validate our approach for generating TF-resolved scGRNs, we first investigated overlap of

CCA1 and PRR7 edges with previously published ChIP-seq datasets, identifying many

overlapping targets and highlighting a subset of interactions for evaluation (Fig. 5A). Examination

of shared targets of CCA1 between pairs of clusters revealed that the similarity between CCA1-

centered networks was largely driven by which and how many photosynthesis-associated targets

were identified (Fig. 5B). A suite of 11 light-harvesting chlorophyll a/b-binding proteins (LHCB)

with CCA1 edges spanned at least 3 clusters, whereas 7 of the 9 CCA1 edges found in only one or

two clusters were associated with Photosystem II repair, with 6 of these 20 CCA1-target pairs (Fig.

5B) supported by ChIP-seq binding (63). The combined action of broad light harvesting influence

and cell-type-specific PSII repair targets of CCA1 highlight the complex and layered regulation

by the clock to fine-tune photosynthetic activity.

In addition to the similarity of photosynthesis-associated targets across clusters, we also noted that

auxin responsive genes in CCA1-centered networks contained a high proportion of edges restricted

to a single cluster (Fig. 5C). More than 20% of all genes assigned to auxin-responsive GO

categories were identified in CCA1-centered networks in at least one cluster, with edges called

between CCA1 and 64 unique targets. A majority of these CCA1-target pairs were identified in

Photosynthetic Clusters c0 and c1; however, 13 pairs were unique to clusters other than c0 or c1,

and an additional 21 pairs were present in at least one non-Photosynthetic cluster. To further

support these TF-target connections, we again leveraged previously published CCA1 ChIP-seq

experiments (63), identifying a subset of 18 TF-target edges supported by bulk ChIP-seq binding

(Fig. 5C). Given the single cell nature of our dataset, we were curious if we could identify instances

of cell-type-specific CCA1 activity. While many of these ChIP-validated edges were only found

in Photosynthetic cells, more than half were also present in at least one other cell type. Because

our initial scGRN construction was constrained to only cycling genes in each specific cluster, we

noted genes which were included in network construction in at least one other cluster (Fig. S7),

identifying a total of 10 CCA1 target genes that were included in scGRN construction for more

clusters than included an identified CCA1 edge.

Examination of the PRR7-centered networks identified many edges associated with red light

signaling and abscisic acid signaling (Fig. 5D-E). Similar to the CCA1 photosynthesis network,

we observed predicted regulation of light harvesting complex (LHC) components by PRR7 across

many clusters (Fig. 5D). A majority of these PRR7-*LHC* edges were supported by previously

published ChIP-seq binding data (64), again highlighting the strong connection between the

circadian clock and the daily timing of photosynthetic capacity. Among edges detected only in one

or two clusters, we observed several well-described light signaling components, including targets

implicated as PRR7 bound in the referenced ChIP-seq dataset, such as *ELONGATED*

HYPOCOTYL5 (HY5) and *SUPPRESSOR OF PHYA-105 1 (SPA1)*. Similar to CCA1-centered

networks, a majority of the edges identified in more than two clusters were associated with light

harvest and capture, again highlighting the fundamental role of the clock in properly timing

photosynthetic capacity.

The ABA-associated *PRR7* network, again similar to the photosynthesis-associated *CCA1*

network, contained a large proportion of edges identified in only one cluster. Of note is an edge

identified between *PRR7* and *GIBBERELLIC ACID INSENSITIVE (GAI)* in the Epidermal Cluster

2, where GA has well defined roles in regulating organ growth and physiology (65, 66).   More

than half of the multi-cluster edges were also identified as PRR7 bound promoters in the referenced

ChIP-seq dataset, including robust, wide-spread regulation of a suite of expected clock

components (Fig. 5E). These *PRR7* links to *CCA1, LHY, RVE2, RVE8,* and *ELF3* support that the

scGRNs constructed and analyzed in this work have captured biologically relevant interactions

between circadian regulated TFs and their varied targets across cell types.

Discussion

Unlike animals, plants lack a central nervous system, leading to a long-standing effort to uncover

the nature of intercellular communication of circadian clocks in plants. Prior studies have

demonstrated that Arabidopsis certain cell types have autonomous clocks that can anticipate

environmental inputs and regulate responses (34, 35, 37, 67, 68). To understand the nuances of the

cell specific role of the circadian oscillator we conducted a single-nucleus RNA-sequencing

(snRNA-seq) time course experiment and constructed cell-type-specific circadian scGRNs. In this

study we captured ~30,000 nuclei and were able to identify all major cell types that have been

identified in previous single cell/nuclei expression studies of leaf tissue (49, 69, 70). This allowed

us to identify cell-type-specific circadian regulated gene expression. As reported in earlier

investigations, around 30% of the Arabidopsis transcriptome is circadian regulated with time of

day dependent expression patterns (48, 52, 53, 71). Not surprisingly, many of the marker genes

commonly used for cell-type-identification during cluster annotation (49, 69, 70) have been shown

to be circadian regulated (48). The substantial proportion of marker genes with circadian

expression patterns affected our ability to integrate the time course data into cell-type-specific

clusters (Fig. 1B). To resolve the cell-type-identities of the clusters, we decided to mask rhythmic

genes from integration anchors to identify and annotate clusters in our time series experiment.

Following cell-type-clustering, we resolved 20 cluster populations, identified by previously

reported marker genes and validated by GO analysis (Fig. 1D-F). The clusters were further

grouped into five major cell types (Fig. 1D): Mesophyll (M), Epidermis (E), Dividing cells (D),

Vasculature (V) and Root Hair (RH). Although in our sampling approach we aimed to enrich the

above ground tissue, identification of low numbers of RH cells supports our annotation strategy

and its ability to pull out even small populations of cells with distinct identity. Our pseudo-bulk

analysis shows cycling of *CCA1*, *LHY*, *PRRs*, *RVEs*, *LNKs* and other clock genes (Fig. 2A) with

peak expression at their expected time of the day based on previous bulk RNA-seq studies (72).

Our cycling analysis of individual clusters revealed that many of these core clock genes cycle in

many clusters (Fig. 2B). For example, *CCA1* cycled in all but one cluster, and *TOC1* and *LHY*

cycled in the vast majority of clusters (Fig. 2D). Therefore, our data suggest that a subset of core

clock components oscillate robustly in all cell types and support the presence of a functional clock

across leaf cell types.

To be confident in the set of genes defined as rhythmic in our clusters we used WGCNA (56) to

group genes with similar temporal expression patterns. We generated 26 network modules which

were further grouped into five clades. All five-clades had distinct expression patterns and captured

major phases of circadian rhythmic expression pattern throughout the day. Clades 5 and 3 capture

the phase of morning expressed genes, clade 2 and 1 consist of genes that have midday expression

patterns and clade 4 consists of evening expressed genes. Both *CCA1* and *LHY* were found in

clade 3 and 5, consistent with their known dawn/morning phase of expression (18, 73). Similarly,

PRR9 and *PRR7* in clade 2/3, *PRR5* in clade 2/1, *PRR3* in clade 1/2 and *TOC1* in clade 4/1.

The GO enrichment of our temporal clades further validates previously known circadian regulation

of physiological processes. Early morning clades were enriched for auxin response coinciding with

previous findings that auxin responses are clock gated and that the amplitude of expression of

auxin response genes declines from morning to dusk and then increases from dusk to dawn (74,

75). Similarly, the clock plays an important role in regulating ABA and stomatal responses (76).

We found enrichment of these responses particularly in the late night clade (Fig. 3A). We also

identified enrichment of salicylic acid (SA) mediated signalling pathways in our morning clade in

accordance with previous findings that SA peaks in the middle of night and prepares plants for the

immune response at dawn when plants are highly vulnerable to pathogen infection (77–79).

In our analysis, we identified genes cycling across multiple clusters that were segregated into two

or more clades, suggesting altered circadian regulation of the same gene across cell types (Fig. 3C-

D). Our approach to scGRN construction was to develop individual networks for each cluster using

only cycling gene expression (Fig. 4A). This allowed us to temporarily mask the influence of cell-

type-specific regulation during network construction, and then regain it through comparison of

cluster-resolved networks. We observed that many of the edges for CCA1 and PRR7 overlapped

with ChIP-seq predicted targets for each TF, supporting the fact that we have captured biologically

relevant interactions in our networks (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, when comparing genes that were

regulated across multiple clusters to genes regulated only in a single cluster, we identified broad

regulation by CCA1 on light harvesting components, compared to more limited regulation by

CCA1 on photosystem II repair components (Fig. 5B). One possible explanation is that the distinct

mesophyll clusters we have identified are being clustered at least in part by their photosynthetic

status; however, GO enrichment on cluster biomarker sets identified a significant enrichment for

PSII repair terms in only one of five mesophyll clusters (Cluster 1, Table S1).

Direct links tying the circadian clock to steady state PSII repair cycles are largely missing;

however, endogenous cycling of phosphorylation status of repair components has been

documented, with the key phosphorylation status regulators *STATE TRANSITION8 (STT8), STT8*

HOMOLOG7 (STN7), and *psbO* all showing circadian expression patterns (71, 80, 81).

Additionally, clock gating of PSII repair components has been described in response to stress

conditions, including gating of *SIGMA FACTOR5 (SIG5)*, a key regulator of the psbDC operon

that is involved in D protein cycling (82–84). The nuclear encoded protease *DEGRADATION OF*

PERIPLASMIC PROTEINS 8 (DEG8) which is also involved in D protein cycling, was identified

as a CCA1 target through scGRN predictions, and is supported by previously published CCA1

ChIP-seq binding. Further examination of the relationship between CCA1 and DEG8 could

solidify a regulatory link between the clock and steady state PSII repair cycles.

Alongside a significant role in optimizing the timing of expression of photosynthetic genes, the

circadian clock is also intimately linked with auxin (Fig. 5C), having been shown to gate the

biosynthesis, transport, and sensitivity to auxin within the plant (75, 85). This relationship between

the clock and auxin occurs across many cell types (75, 86), but details of cell-type-specific clock

regulation of auxin signalling remains largely unknown. A recent study examined circadian gene

expression in Arabidopsis seedlings at the single nucleus resolution, identifying a subset of six

SAUR genes cycling exclusively in the shoot epidermis (44). Our scGRN-based approach

identified 64 auxin-associated CCA1 targets across all clusters, including a subset of 21 genes

previously identified as potential CCA1 targets through bulk ChIP-seq. Many of these genes

robustly cycle in multiple clusters, yet lack predicted CCA1 regulation outside of a single cluster,

suggesting a cell-type-specific regulatory function that has been missed in bulk analyses. One

example matching these criteria is *SMALL AUXIN UPREGULATED 15* (*SAUR15*) (63, 87), a

ChIP-seq validated CCA1 target that is predicted to be CCA1 regulated in Photosynthetic c1, but

not in Vascular c5 or Phloem Companion Cells c6. Similarly, *FLAVODOXIN-LIKE QUINONE*

REDUCTASE 1 (*FQR1*) is a ChIP-seq validated CCA1 target, and edges between the two were

predicted in Photosynthetic c0 and Mesophyll c4, but not in Vascular c5 or Guard Cell c14. These

interactions capture potential CCA1 regulation of target genes in a cell-type-specific manner, and

begin to describe the multifaceted ways in which the clock coordinates auxin signaling across the

mature Arabidopsis leaf.

We closely examined a handful of PRR7-centered networks due to the promising overlap between

PRR7 scGRN targets and previously published target promoters of PRR7 identified through ChIP

(Fig. 5A). *PRR7* serves as a crucial link between the circadian clock and light signaling pathways.

Along with *PRR9*, *PRR7* participates in clock entrainment by red light, where *PHYTOCHROME*

B (PHYB) provides input into the clock partially through the PRRs (64, 88, 89). Consistent with

this, our snGRN analysis revealed that PRR7 regulatory targets contain many red light response

components (Fig. 5D). *PRR7* was predicted to regulate numerous light-responsive genes across

cell types, including key photomorphogenic regulators such as *HY5* and *SPA1*, which are central

to red/far-red light signaling and cell elongation in the hypocotyl (90, 91). *PRR7* connections to

HY5 were identified in both mesophyll and epidermal clusters, while *SPA1* connections were

exclusively found in mesophyll clusters, suggesting additional regulators might contribute to

circadian control of *SPA1* transcription. Many of the *PRR7* target interactions were supported by

prior *PRR7* ChIP-seq binding data (Fig. 5A), indicating that PRR7 directly links the clock to genes

governing light perception and response. The presence of PRR7–*LHC* (light-harvesting

chlorophyll complex) edges in multiple clusters further highlights a role for *PRR7* in gating

photosynthetic light capture to specific times of day. Together, these findings suggest *PRR7*

enhances environmental responsiveness by synchronizing red light signal transduction with the

circadian schedule, thereby optimizing light-dependent processes in a time-of-day specific

manner.

Circadian regulation of hormone signaling pathways, including abscisic acid (ABA) responses, is essential for plant stress adaptation, and PRR7 has emerged as a key clock TF involved in ABA and stress responses (92–94). In our scGRNs, *PRR7*-centered interactions were significantly associated with "response to abscisic acid" gene sets, and these interactions were often highly tissue-specific. For instance, *PRR7* was linked to the DELLA protein gene *GAI* in an epidermis-specific network. *GAI* modulates growth and intersects with ABA in controlling stomatal aperture (95), and an epidermis-only PRR7-*GAI* edge suggests that *PRR7* may gate ABA/GA-dependent stress responses (such as transpiration or growth) in a cell-type-specific manner. These insights align with functional studies showing circadian clock components influence the ABA pathway where the PRR5/7/9 trio negatively regulates ABA biosynthesis and signaling, as a *prr5prr7prr9* triple mutant accumulates more ABA and alters drought responses (96). Indeed, loss of *PRR7* (alone or with other PRRs) affects stress tolerance – for example, *prr5prr7prr9* mutants show enhanced drought and salinity tolerance, reflecting a clock loosened from its usual restraint on stress pathways (97). Thus, PRR7 is a likely candidate to integrate circadian timing with ABA signaling to modulate stress-response genes at the right time and place, optimizing stress resilience without compromising daily growth rhythms.

This study provides a comprehensive cell-type-resolved view of circadian gene regulation in mature Arabidopsis leaves. Through snRNA-seq profiling across a full 24-hour time course, we reveal widespread circadian regulation across all major tissue types, uncovering over 7,000 genes with rhythmic expression and demonstrating that core oscillator components are active and cycling in nearly all clusters. By integrating coexpression-based phase assignment and constructing

cluster-specific gene regulatory networks, we identified both broadly shared and cell-type–

restricted transcriptional programs. In particular, we show that key clock regulators such as CCA1

exhibit distinct regulatory wiring across tissues, targeting photosynthesis- and auxin-associated

genes in a cell-type-specific manner. Ultimately, our work highlights the importance of cell-type-

context in shaping circadian outputs and lays a foundation for future efforts to manipulate temporal

regulation in a tissue-targeted manner.

Material and Methods

Plant Growth and Sampling

Arabidopsis Col seeds were surface sterilized for four hours by vapor phase sterilization (98).

Sterilized seeds were imbibed with water. Seeds were plated on half strength Murashige Skoog

(MS) agar with 1% sucrose and a pH of 5.7 buffered with Potassium Hydroxide (KOH). Seeds

were then stratified at 4°C for two days in complete darkness. Following stratification plates were

placed in a chamber with 12L/12D photoperiod (light intensity 130 μmol s^{-1}) at 22°C. Seedlings

were entrained to 12L/12D conditions for 11 days. On the 11th day, starting at subjective dawn,

seedlings were grown in constant light for 48 hours before the start of the time course. Leaf samples

of 180-250 seedlings were harvested by cutting across the root-shoot junction in 2 replicates for

single-nuclei RNA-seq every 4 hours over a 24-hour period starting at the subjective dawn of the

13th day.

Nuclei Isolation

Leaf tissue was collected in a petri plate containing 5 ml of pre chilled NIB (10mM Tris-HCL-pH

7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl, 0.5mM Spermidine, 0.2 mM Spermine, 0.5% Bovine Serum

Albumin with 1:1000 Roche Complete Protease Inhibitor and 0.03 U/μl of RNase inhibitor but

without detergents). Leaf samples were chopped at 4°C for 3 min on a petri plate containing 5 ml

of NIB, with a razor blade. Finely chopped leaf samples were then shifted to 50 ml falcon tubes,

~ 15 ml of NIB was added to make the final volume of sample 20 ml. Samples were incubated on

a rotating platform for 5 min to facilitate cell release. After the first incubation, samples were

filtered via 70 μm and 40 μm cell strainers to remove leaf debris. Triton X-100 and NP-40 were

added to final concentration of 0.05% and extracts were incubated on a rotating platform at 4°C

for 10 min. The nuclei suspension was then centrifuged at 500 x g for 5 min at 4°C. The nuclei

pellet was then resuspended in 5 ml of NIB without detergents and was again pelleted at 500 x g

for 5 min at 4°C. The pellet was resuspended in 750 μl of resuspension buffer (1X PBS + 1% BSA

+ 0.03 U/ul RNaseI). Nuclei suspension was then shifted to the Nuclei Isolation column and

collection tube of the Chromium nuclei isolation kit (PN-10000494, 10X Genomics, Pleasanton

CA). Samples were then centrifuged at 16000 x g for 40 seconds. Pelleted nuclei were finally

resuspended in 500 μl of resuspension buffer. Nuclei were counted manually with a

hemocytometer. The 32k nuclei were loaded onto the 10x Genomics Chip M, which was then

processed with 10x Genomics Chromium X controller, and sequencing libraries were constructed

following manufacturer's instructions except for cDNA amplification step where 13 cycles were

used i.e. 2 additional cycles to prepare cDNA from nuclei (PN-1000268 number for the kit, 10X

Genomics, Pleasanton CA). Total time from leaf harvest to loading was 30-40 min.

Data Analysis

Cell Ranger (v7.0.1) was used to generate gene by cell matrices from Demultiplexed FASTQ files

by aligning with Arabidopsis TAIR10 genome. Downstream analyses were performed with Seurat

(v5.1.0). Cells with low numbers of UMIs or plastid contamination were removed using Median

Absolute Deviation filtering (filterbyMAD.R), and potential doublets were identified and removed

through scDblFinder version 1.2 (99).

After initial filtering and discarding low quality cells, the data were normalized by using the

"LogNormalize" global scaling method. Following normalization, highly variable features were

computed for cells of the dataset. We then used Principal Component Analysis for linear

transformation and linear dimensionality reduction. After identifying the significant PCs, we

implemented a graph-based clustering algorithm. Cells were embedded in a K-nearest neighbor

graph structure, with cells of similar expression patterns having edges drawn to connect them

followed by partitioning into communities. For clustering the cells, the Louvain algorithm was

applied based on 30 top PCs.

Pseudo bulk samples were generated by aggregating the raw counts at sample and cluster level to

identify oscillating gene expression. We used DeSeq2 to generate the normalized count matrix.

For detecting expression of genes that oscillate throughout the time course we used METACYCLE

(100). METACYCLE uses three different cycling detection algorithms i.e. meta2d: integrated

ARSE, JTK-CYCLE and LS. We utilized JTK-CYCLE output to identify genes whose expression

oscillates by setting cut-off Adj p-value < 0.05. The number of oscillating genes that were either

specific to a cluster or shared between different clusters were illustrated by UpSet plots using the

package UpSetR implemented under the *R* environment (101). JTK-CYCLE accurately measures

the phase, period, and amplitude. We used phase information for each gene and calculated phase

difference of genes that were shared between different clusters to identify genes that were

oscillating with different phases in between different clusters.

WGCNA analysis

To validate the phase difference observed, we used the WGCNA package (56) to analyze genes

for all clusters together by including a cluster identifier appended to the gene name. A total of

13,552 genes were fed into WGCNA. To identify module based correlation, a soft threshold of 30

was used. WGCNA identified 26 modules, genes with similar expression patterns were clustered

together in the same module, whereas those with different phases segregated out into different

modules. We further filtered the modules based on Module Eigengene connectivity (kME),

removing any gene with a kME $\geq$ 0.6. Additionally, to group similar modules together, we

calculated the correlation matrix of the average zScores of all the modules and performed

hierarchical clustering to identify major clades or expression patterns. This resulted in five

modules with distinct temporal expression patterns. All code used for this analysis can be found

on github (https://github.com/GreenhamLab/Arabidopsis_snRNAseq_Circadian_Transcriptome).

scGRN Construction

Single cell GRNs were built with SCENIC implementation of GENIE3 (102, 103) by subsetting

the single nucleus dataset into individual clusters and proceeding only with data from cycling

genes. Several steps of the scGRN construction were adapted from the scPlant R package (104).

To identify an appropriate weight threshold for each network, we shuffled and permuted our gene

expression matrix into ten iterations, and identified the weight value corresponding to the 95th

percentile for each cluster's aggregated network. This weight was used as a cutoff for our

unshuffled networks. Networks were visualized and annotated in Cytoscape (105).

Declarations

Availability of data and materials

All code used to process and analyze the reported data is available at

https://github.com/GreenhamLab/Arabidopsis_snRNAseq_Circadian_Transcriptome. Raw

sequencing data is available upon publication through SRA through BioProject accession

#PRJNA1277851.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' contributions

AZ, ZAM, and KG designed the experiments. AZ, ZAM, AM, and KG performed the experiments.

AZ and ZAM analyzed the data. AZ, ZAM, and KG interpreted the results and wrote the

manuscript. All authors read, provided feedback, and approved the final manuscript.

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Figures

Figure 1. Major cell and tissue types can be resolved in the mature Arabidopsis leaf over a circadian time course. (**A**) Growth and sampling schematic used to generate the snRNA-seq dataset. (**B**) The proportion of cell type marker genes identified that are under circadian regulation. (**C**) UMAP projection of the fully integrated, cycling-masked snRNA-seq dataset (top), and the number of nuclei identified in each cluster (bottom). (**D**) UMAP projection, highlighting broader tissue types alongside more specialized cell types (top), and the violin plots describing the distribution of genes expressed in each group (bottom). (**E**) Scaled expression heatmap of a suite of previously identified cell-type-specific genes across the snRNA-seq time course. (**F**) Gene Ontology biological process enrichments of cluster biomarkers support expected cell-type-specific activities. (**G-H**) Expression feature plots for *FAMA* (FMA, AT3G24140) and *NUCLEAR-*

659   *ENRICHED PHLOEM COMPANION CELL GENE 6* (NPCC6, AT5G02600), significant cluster

660   biomarkers for guard cells (Cluster 14) and phloem companion cells (Cluster 6) respectively. D,

661   Dividing; E, Epidermis; GC, Guard Cell; M, Mesophyll; M/E, Mesophyll/Epidermis; P,

662   Photosynthesizing; PCC, Phloem Companion Cell; PP, Phloem Parenchyma; R, Root; RH, Root

663   Hair; T/E, Trichome/Epidermis; V, Vascular; X, Xylem.

Figure 2. Single nucleus RNA-sequencing captures circadian gene expression across diverse

cell types of the mature Arabidopsis leaf. (**A**) Pseudo-bulk expression levels of key clock

components and outputs over a circadian day. (**B**) Cluster-resolved expression of *CCA1* (top

left), *TOC1* (bottom left), and *LUX* (top center), *GI* (bottom center), *ELF3* (top right), and *PRR5*

(bottom right) over a circadian day. Asterisks indicate a significant cycling call in the associated

cluster. (**C**) Number of cycling genes identified through CycleJTK in each cluster. (**D**)

Distribution of genes based on how many clusters in which they were called cycling. The

presence of key clock TFs are indicated above the relevant groups.

Figure 3. Identification of temporal expression patterns across cell types through WGCNA and characterization of cell-type-specific phase changes in circadian expression. (A) Hierarchical clustering of WGCNA modules identified five major temporal clades. The average zScore for genes in each clade was plotted to get the representative expression pattern across clades. The ribbon represents the standard deviation. A selection of significantly GO enriched terms is included below each clade. **(B)** Proportional distribution of clades across clusters. **(C)** The circos plot shows the genes with a change in phase across two clusters resulting in placement in two different clades. The width of the ribbon signifies the number of genes with a phase change. The grey ribbon shows shifts to the adjacent clades, while the yellow ribbon represents shifts across clades **(D)** Expression pattern differences of sets of genes found cycling across different tissue types. The average zScore of the genes within each cluster is shown to highlight the phase difference. Ribbons represent standard deviation.

Figure 4. Construction and evaluation of circadian, cluster-resolved single cell gene regulatory networks (scGRNs). (**A**) Schematic detailing the steps used to generate and filter scGRNs. (**B**) Number of scGRN edges where the TF and target are assigned to the same or different WGCNA clades. (**C**) Gene ontology biological process enrichment, showing the top 5 most enriched categories for each cluster. Photo, Photosynthetic; Meso, Mesophyll; Epi, Epidermis; GC, Guard Cell; Div, Dividing; Vasc, Vascular; PCC, Phloem Companion Cell; PP, Phloem Parenchyma. (**D**) Jaccard Index similarity matrix between pairs of clusters, using all significant edges identified. (**E**) Jaccard Index similarity matrix between pairs of clusters, restricted to significant CCA1-centered networks.

Figure 5. Examination of TF-resolved scGRNs for CCA1 and PRR7. (**A**) Overlap between scGRN edges identified in this study, and targets of CCA1 (left) or PRR7 (right) in previously published ChIP-seq experiments. (**B-E**) Node color indicates how many clusters an edge was identified in. Red edges and borders indicate support for an interaction through previously published ChIP-seq data. (**B**) CCA1-centered network built from all significant edges associated with the Photosynthesis GO:0015979 category. (**C**) CCA1-centered network built from all significant edges associated with the Response to Auxin GO:0009733 category. (**D**) PRR7-centered network built from all significant edges associated with the Response to Red Light

732   GO:0010114 category. (**E**) PRR7-centered network built from all significant edges associated with

733   the Response to Abscisic Acid GO:0009737 category.

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Figure S1. Top cluster biomarkers for all identified clusters. Expression feature plots (top) and cluster-based expression violin plots (bottom) for two genes with the highest average expression fold change between clusters.

Fig S2. Cluster-resolved expression of key clock components and outputs. Expression is plotted as a Z-score over a circadian day, as in Fig 2B.

Fig S3. Distribution of root hair cells inadvertently captured across each library. These cell types were not specifically targeted during collection and are expected in low abundance.

Fig S4. Distribution of peak expression for cycling genes in each cluster. LAG represents peak expression or phase across the circadian day, as determined through CycleJTK.

Fig S5. Overlap in cycling gene identification across studies. (A) Overlap of the cluster based cycling genes in our study with genes identified as cycling in Romanowski et al. (B) Overlap of cluster-resolved cycling genes in our study with genes identified as cycling in both the 24- and 48-hour Qin et al datasets.

Fig S6. Jaccard similarity indices for several circadian clock component centered scGRNs. Similarity indices were calculated between all pairs of cluster specific scGRNs for LNK2, PRR7, TOC1, LNK3, and ELF3, with darker blue indicating more similar scGRNs.

Fig S7. Cluster-resolved expression for genes identified as *CCA1* targets through scGRN prediction and supported by previously published ChIP-seq binding data. Cluster-resolved circadian expression patterns for ELF3 and BT2, split by presence or absence of a scGRN-derived CCA1 edge.