- 1 Rhythms of Transcription in Field-Grown Sugarcane Are Highly Organ Specific
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Summary

- We investigated whether different specialized organs in field-grown sugarcane follow the same temporal rhythms in transcription.
- We assayed the transcriptomes of three organs during the day: leaf, a source organ; internodes 1 and 2, sink organs focused on cell division and elongation; and internode 5, a sink organ focused on sucrose storage.
- The leaf had twice as many rhythmic transcripts (>68%) as internodes, and the rhythmic transcriptomes of the two types of internodes were more similar to each other than to those of the leaves. More transcripts were rhythmic under field conditions than under circadian conditions and most of their peaks were during the day. Among the transcripts that were considered expressed in all three organs, only 7.4% showed the same rhythmic time course pattern. The central oscillators of these three organs the networks that generate circadian rhythms had similar dynamics with different amplitudes.
- The differences between the rhythmic transcriptomes in circadian conditions
 and field conditions highlight the importance of field experiments to understand
 how the plant circadian clock works in natura. The highly specialized nature of
 the rhythmic transcriptomes in sugarcane organs probably arises from
 amplitude differences in the circadian clock and different sensitivities to
 environmental cues.
- **Keywords:** circadian clock, field conditions, natural conditions, organ-specific,
- 47 rhythms, Saccharum, sugarcane, tissue-specific

Introduction

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The circadian clock is an endogenous signaling network that allows organisms to adapt 50 to rhythmically changing environments. Plants with a circadian clock synchronized with 51 52 environmental rhythms accumulate more biomass and have better fitness than plants 53 with defective or no circadian clocks (Green et al., 2002; Dodd et al., 2005). In crops, 54 changes in the circadian clock have been indirectly selected through traditional 55 breeding to change photoperiodic responses, such as the transition to flowering. For 56 example, the circadian clocks of European tomatoes have longer periods than those of 57 native American tomatoes, as such periods allow these crops to adapt better to the long summer days occurring at the high latitudes of much of Europe (Muller et al., 58 2016). Similarly, some genotypes of Hordeum vulgare L. (barley) and Triticum 59 60 aestivum L. (wheat) carry mutations in their circadian clock genes that reduce flowering 61 induced by photoperiodic triggers, allowing cultivation in higher latitudes in Europe 62 (Turner et al., 2005; Gawroński et al., 2014). The circadian clock is conceptually divided into three associated parts: the *Input* 63 64 Pathways, the Central Oscillator, and the Output Pathways. The Input Pathways detect 65 entraining cues that keep the circadian clock continuously synchronized to the 66 environment. In plants, these cues include light, temperature, and sugar levels 67 (Oakenfull & Davis, 2017; Frank et al., 2018; Webb et al., 2019). The Central Oscillator 68 is a series of interlocking transcriptional-translational feedback loops that can generate 69 24-h rhythms independently of the environment. In Arabidopsis thaliana (L.) Heynh. 70 (Arabidopsis), one loop, called the morning loop, starts with the light induction of 71 CIRCADIAN CLOCK ASSOCIATED1 (CCA1) and LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL 72 (LHY) at dawn. Next, PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR7 (PRR7) and PRR9 are 73 activated by CCA1 and LHY. In turn, CCA1 and LHY are repressed by PRR7 and PRR9. In the core loop, CCA1 and LHY are repressed, and this represses TIME FOR 74 75 CAB EXPRESSION1 (TOC1), also known as PRR1. During the night, TOC1 forms an 76 interaction known as the evening loop with the EVENING COMPLEX (EC). The EC is a 77 protein complex formed by EARLY FLOWERING3 (ELF3), ELF4, and LUX ARRHYTHMO (LUX) that also inhibits the expression of PRR7 and PRR9 the next 78 79 morning. Other essential components of the oscillator include GIGANTEA (GI), 80 REVEILLE8 (RVE8), and CCA1 HIKING EXPEDITION (CHE) (Hsu et al., 2013; Millar, 81 2016; Henriques et al., 2018; Webb et al., 2019). The Output Pathways transduce the temporal information generated by the interaction between the Central Oscillator and 82 83 the *Input Pathways* to a plethora of biochemical pathways. The circadian clock thus

84 has a broad impact throughout the plant, regulating processes such as photosynthesis, cell elongation, stomata opening, and flowering (Hotta et al., 2007). 85 86 Even though the plant circadian clock is highly conserved, there are a few differences 87 between the circadian clocks of Arabidopsis and grasses (Poales). For instance, CCA1 88 is absent from grasses, as it was created by a duplication exclusive to Brassicaceae. 89 The grass PRRs consist of TOC1, PRR37, PRR73, PRR59, and PRR95, and it is not 90 clear whether they have the same functions as their Arabidopsis counterparts, even 91 though they are capable of complementing Arabidopsis mutations (Kusakina et al., 92 2015; Calixto et al., 2015). In sugarcane, a highly polyploid crop that accumulates 93 sucrose in the culm, the circadian clock has high-amplitude rhythms and regulates a 94 large proportion of the leaf transcriptome (>30%) (Hotta et al., 2013; Glassop & Rae, 95 2019). 96 Most research to date on plant circadian rhythms has been done in controlled 97 conditions, inside a growth room or growth chamber. Under such circumstances, plants 98 can be grown either under circadian conditions, in which they are kept under constant 99 abiotic conditions as a means to separate endogenous rhythms from rhythms driven by 100 the environment, or under diel conditions, in which they are subjected to abiotic 101 rhythms such as light/dark and warm/cold. Abiotic changes in controlled conditions are usually stepwise, in contrast to the gradients found in natural or field conditions, which 102 103 can lead to significant changes in plant physiology (Shalit-Kaneh et al., 2018; 104 Annunziata et al., 2018; Song et al., 2018). For example, simulations of natural 105 conditions in growth chambers showed that the clock-controlled gene FLOWERING 106 LOCUS T (FT) has a different phase under such conditions than it does under 107 controlled conditions (Song et al., 2018), highlighting the need for adjustments in the 108 current models to reflect events in natural conditions. In another study, the period and 109 phase of the circadian clock affected shoot and rosette branch numbers in multiple Arabidopsis mutants in natural, but not controlled, conditions (Rubin et al., 2017). 110 Finally, the rice mutant osqi, which has a late-flowering phenotype in controlled 111 112 conditions, flowered at the same time as the wild type in field conditions (Izawa et al., 113 2011). 114 Only two plant species have had their rhythmic transcripts identified in field conditions: rice and pineapple (Izawa et al., 2011; Nagano et al., 2012; Matsuzaki et al., 2015; 115 116 Ming et al., 2015). However, these studies focused on the leaves. To better understand how the plant circadian clock regulates transcription under natural conditions in 117 118 different organs, we measured transcription in three organs of field-grown sugarcane

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150 151 grown during the day. We harvested leaf +1 (L1), a source organ, and two sink organs: internodes 1 and 2 (I1), organs focused on cell division and cell elongation that includes the shoot apical meristem; and internode 5 (I5), an organ focused on sucrose accumulation. We describe in detail one cycle (24 h) with 14 time points, starting 2 h before dawn. This approach allowed us to obtain a better resolution to describe transcripts with fast dynamics. We found that the rhythmic transcripts of the L1, I1, and Is are widely specialized and likely to respond differently to environmental cues. **Materials and Methods** Plant growth and harvesting Commercial sugarcane (Saccharum hybrid SP80-3280) was planted in a field in Araras, Brazil (22°18'41.0"S, 47°23'05.0"W, at an altitude of 611 m), in April 2012 (autumn) (Fig. S1). The soil on the site was a Typic Eutroferric Red Latosol. Plants were harvested 9 months later, in January 2013 (summer), after an unusually dry winter and spring. Harvest started 2 h before dawn and continued every 2 h until the next dawn (so that each expression time course had 14 time points in total). Dawn was at 5:45, and dusk was at 19:00 (13.25 h light/10.75 h dark) (Fig. S1). At each time point, leaf +1 (the first leaf from the top with clearly visible dewlap), internodes 1 and 2, and internode 5 of nine individuals were harvested (Fig. S2), frozen in liquid N₂, and stored in three pools of three individuals each. Two pools were used as biological replicates for oligoarrays, and one pool was used for validation using the reversetranscription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). Oligoarray hybridizations All frozen samples were pulverized in dry ice using a coffee grinder (Model DCG-20, Cuisinart, China). One hundred milligrams of each pulverized sample was used for extraction of total RNA using Trizol (Life Technologies), following the supplier's instructions. The RNA was treated with 2 U DNase I (Life Technologies) for 30 min at 37°C and cleaned using the RNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen). The quality and quantity of RNA were assayed using an Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit Bioanalyzer chip (Agilent Technologies). Sample labeling was done following the Low Input Quick Amp Labelling protocol of the Two-Color Microarray-Based Gene Expression Analysis system (Agilent

Technologies). Hybridizations were done using a custom 4x44 k oligoarray (Agilent 152 Technologies) that was previously described (Lembke et al., 2012; Hotta et al., 2013). 153 154 Two hybridizations were done for each time point against an equimolar pool of all 155 samples of each organ. Each duplicate was prepared independently using dye swaps. Data were extracted using the Feature Extraction software (Agilent Technologies). 156 Background correction was applied to each dataset. A nonlinear LOWESS 157 158 normalization was also applied to the datasets to minimize variations due to 159 experimental manipulation. Signals that were distinguishable from the local background 160 signal were taken as an indication that the corresponding transcript was expressed. The GenBank ID and Sugarcane Assembled Sequences (SAS) numbers for sugarcane 161 162 genes are listed in Table S1. The complete dataset can be found at the Gene 163 Expression Omnibus public database under the accession number GSE129543. 164 Data analysis 165 166 For the purposes of further analysis, only transcripts that were found to be expressed in more than 7 of the 14 time points were considered to be expressed. All of the time 167 courses were grouped in coexpressed modules using the R package weighted 168 169 correlation network analysis (WGCNA) to identify rhythmic transcripts (Langfelder & 170 Horvath, 2008). Network adjacency was calculated using a soft thresholding power of 171 18 for all organs. Modules that had a dissimilarity value of ≤0.25 were merged. Final 172 modules were generated using a 0.175 adjacency threshold. As WGCNA groups 173 together time courses that have a positive or a negative correlation, we normalized 174 each time course using a Z-score, separated these time courses into two new modules, 175 and generated a typical time course for each module by finding the median of all transcripts. Then, each representative time course was classified as rhythmic or 176 177 nonrhythmic using JTK-CYCLE (Hughes et al., 2010). Modules that had an adjusted P-178 value of <0.75 were considered rhythmic. Finally, we filtered out noisy time courses, 179 defined as those that had a Spearman correlation of <0.3 when compared against the 180 representative time course. Phase was assigned using the phase estimated by JTK-181 CYCLE corrected against a dendrogram with the representative time courses of all 182 modules of all organs. Modules that clustered together in the dendrogram were considered to have the same phase. The phase of a time course is defined as the time 183 184 between dawn and the peak of the time course. Euler diagrams were done using the R package *eulerr*. Chi-squared (χ^2) tests were used to compare Euler diagrams. 185 186 Heatmaps were created using the R packages circlize (Gu et al., 2014) and

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ComplexHeatmap (Gu et al., 2016). To evaluate if a group of transcripts were under- or overrepresented, we used a hypergeometric test (phyper function in R). With this test, a P-value < 0.05 suggests that the analyzed group is overrepresented in the dataset, while a P-value > 0.95 suggests that the analyzed group is underrepresented in the dataset. Code to fully reproduce our analysis is available on GitHub (https://github.com/LabHotta/sugarcane field rhytms) and archived on Zenodo (http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.2636813). RT-qPCR analysis As described for the oligoarray hybridizations, 100 mg of the pulverized frozen samples for all three organs was used for total RNA extractions following the same Trizol (Life Technologies) protocol and then were treated with DNase I (Life Technologies) and cleansed using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen). RNA quality and concentration of each sample were checked using an Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit Bioanalyzer chip (Agilent Technologies). Five micrograms of total purified RNA was enough for the reverse transcription reactions using the SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Life Technologies). The RT-qPCR reactions for all samples were done using Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems), 10x diluted cDNA, and specific primers described by Hotta et al. (2013) (Figure S8). Reactions were placed in 96-well plates and read with the Fast 7500/7500 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). Data analysis was performed using the Fast 7500/7500 Real-Time PCR System built-in software (Applied Biosystems). Results A significant proportion of the sugarcane transcriptome is rhythmic in diel conditions We planted a field of commercial sugarcane (Saccharum hybrid SP80-3280) in autumn 2012 in Araras (Brazil, 22°18'41.0"S, 47°23'05.0"W). Nine months later (summer 2013), after a dry winter and spring (Fig. S1), we harvested leaf +1 (L1), internodes 1 and 2 (I1), and internode 5 (I5) every 2 h for 26 h, starting 2 h before dawn. Thus, a time course had 14 time points. On the day of harvest, the stalks were 76 ± 0.16 cm, with 11

219 \pm 2 internodes, and their sugar content was 12.0 \pm 1.4°Bx (mean \pm SD; n = 20). The 220 temperature varied throughout the day from 17°C to 30°C, with the maximum occurring 221 at 11 h after dawn (ZT11); the maximum light intensity was 2.67 MJ/m² at ZT07, and dusk occurred 13.25 h after dawn (ZT13.25) (Fig. S1B and D). 222 223 RNA extracted from each organ was hybridized in 44k custom oligoarrays (Lembke et 224 al., 2012; Hotta et al., 2013). Of the 14,521 probes in the array, 12,501 resulted in time 225 courses considered to be expressed in at least one organ (Fig. 1). L1 had 9,822 226 expressed time courses, which was similar to a result obtained in a previous circadian 227 experiment from our group, in which we measured transcripts from 3-month-old leaves 228 (9.932) (Hotta et al., 2013). These datasets shared 94.3% of the expressed time 229 courses (Fig. 1b). I1 had the highest number of expressed time courses (12,053), 230 followed by I5 (10,448). A total of 9,380 time courses were expressed in all three 231 organs (75.0%, Fig. 1e). I1 and I5 shared the most substantial proportion of the time 232 courses considered to be expressed (89.3%), and I1 had the most substantial 233 proportion of unique expressed time courses (7.5%). 234 We identified rhythmic time courses by combining a weighted correlation network 235 analysis (WGCNA) that grouped time courses in coexpression modules (Langfelder & 236 Horvath, 2008) with JTK_CYCLE, which identified which of the modules contained rhythmic time courses (Hughes et al., 2010). This method identified 6,705 rhythmic 237 238 time courses in L1 (68.3%), 3,755 in I1 (31.2%), and 3,242 in I5 (28.8%) (Fig. 1a and 239 Fig. S3). As a comparison, 32.1% of the time courses were rhythmic in L1 under 240 circadian conditions (Hotta et al., 2013). The overlap between circadian time courses 241 and rhythmic time courses in the field (in diel conditions) was 2,623, representing 242 76.4% of circadian time courses and 60.1% of diel time courses (Fig. 1c).

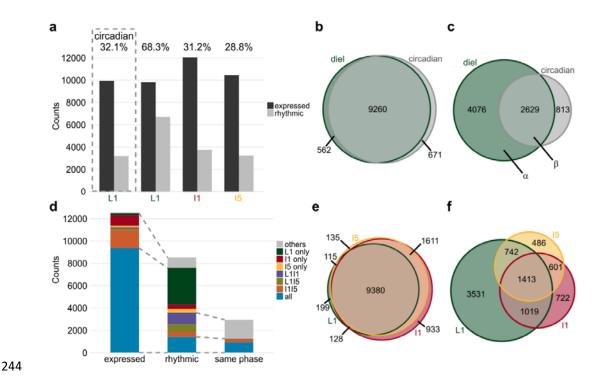


Figure 1 – Different organs have specific sets of rhythmic transcripts in sugarcane. (a) The numbers of expressed and rhythmic time courses detected in leaf +1 (L1), internodes 1 and 2 (I1), and internode 5 (I5) in field-grown (diel) conditions, and in leaf +1 in circadian conditions (Hotta *et al.*, 2013). (b,c) Euler diagrams of expressed time courses (b) and rhythmic time courses (c) in L1 in sugarcane in diel (green) and circadian (gray) conditions. (d) Number of expressed time courses, rhythmic time courses, and rhythmic time courses with the same phase that were found specifically in L1, I1, or I5; in both L1 and I1 (L1I1, purple); in both L1 and I5 (L1I5, light green); in both I1 and I5 (I1I5, orange); and in all three organs (L1I1I5, blue). In the second bar, the gray area corresponds to rhythmic time courses that are expressed in only one or two organs. In the third bar, the gray area corresponds to rhythmic time courses in only two organs that have the same phase. The gray dashed lines show the associations among bars. (e,f) Euler diagram of expressed and rhythmic time courses in L1, I1, and I5 in field-grown sugarcane in diel conditions.

Different sets of transcripts are rhythmic in different sugarcane organs

Although most expressed time courses were found in all three organs, only 1,413 of the expressed time courses were rhythmic in all three organs (16.6%) (Fig. 1d,f). L1 had the largest proportion of unique rhythmic time courses (41.5%), followed by I1 (8.5%)

264 and then I5 (5.7%) (Fig. 1f). Time courses that were expressed only in one organ were 265 less likely to be rhythmic (60.3% for L1, 8.6% for I1, and 8.4% for I5) (Fig. 1h). We estimated the phase of the transcripts by combining the phase calculated using 266 JTK CYCLE with a dendrogram of the representative time course of each module. 267 268 Among the time courses that were rhythmic in more than one organ, 27% had rhythms 269 with phase differences >2 h (Fig. 1d). Overall, among the 12,501 unique expressed 270 time courses in the three organs, only 7.4% (923) showed rhythms with the same 271 phase in the three organs. Most of the time courses peaked during the day: this was 272 true of 80.3% in L1, 90.4% in I1, and 96.3% in I5 (the photoperiod was 13.25 h, or 273 56.3% of a cycle) (Fig. 1g). In L1, 2,363 time courses peaked between dawn (ZT00) 274 and 2 h after dawn (ZT02) (35.2%), and 1,232 time courses peaked at ZT12 (18.4%) 275 (Fig. 2a). When we separated rhythmic L1 time courses into those that were also 276 rhythmic in circadian conditions (Fig. 2b, α) and those that were not (Fig. 2b, β), two 277 different phase distributions could be observed (Fig. 2c). The α group had most time 278 courses peaking at ZT00-02 (39.1%), followed by ZT12 (14.0%), while the β group 279 peaked at ZT12 (25.1%), followed by ZT02 (19.1%), In I1, 1,201 time courses peaked 280 at ZT0 (32.0%) and 716 peaked at ZT8 (19.1%). In I5, 1,373 time courses peaked at 281 ZT0 (42.4%) and 894 peaked at ZT8 (27.6%) (Fig. 2a). The majority of time courses from L1 (65.8%) grown in diel conditions had the same 282 283 phase (±2 h) in leaves grown under circadian conditions (Fig. S4a). More time courses 284 showed a delayed peak (19.6%) rather than an advanced peak (13.9%) under diel 285 conditions than under circadian conditions. When we compared L1 and I1 time 286 courses, 65.8% had the same phase, with the remainder divided roughly evenly between delayed and advanced phases (16.1% and 14.9%, respectively) (Fig. S4b). 287 288 Similarly, 67.1% of the L1 time courses had the same phase as I5, 14.2% had a 289 delayed phase, and 14.8% had an advanced phase (Fig. S4c). The phases were most 290 similar between I1 and I5 time courses: 93.8% had the same phases, 2.8% a phase 291 delay, and 3.1% a phase advance (Fig. S4d).

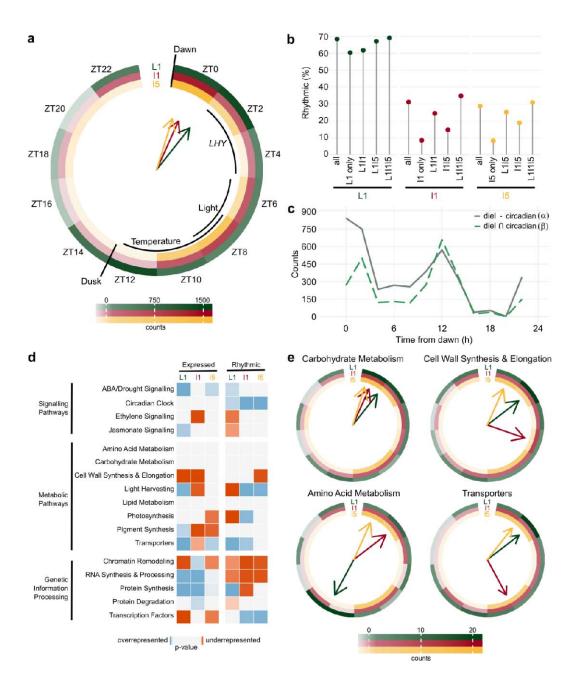


Figure 2 – Transcripts have unique phases in different sugarcane organs. (a) Circular heatmap of the rhythmic transcript peak time (ZT0 = 0 h after dawn) distribution in leaf +1 (L1), internodes 1 and 2 (I1), and internode 5 (I5). The colored arrows show the times at which the most transcripts are found in each organ. The times of dawn, dusk, *LHY* transcription peak, maximum light intensity, and maximum temperatures are indicated by black arcs. (b) Proportions of transcripts that were rhythmic in L1, I1, and I5 among all expressed transcripts in each organ (All), among the transcripts expressed only in one organ (L1 only, I1 only, or I5 only), among the transcripts expressed in two organs (L1I1, L1I5, or I1I5), and among transcripts

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expressed in all three organs (L1I1I5). (c) Distribution of rhythmic transcript peak time in time courses that were rhythmic in L1 but not in circadian conditions (α in Fig. 1c) and rhythmic transcripts in time courses that were rhythmic in L1 and circadian conditions (β). (d) Heatmap of functional categories that are overrepresented (shades of blue) or underrepresented (shades of red) among the expressed and rhythmic transcripts of L1, I1, and I5. The P-value was calculated using a hypergeometric test. (e) Circular heatmap with the distribution of the peak times of rhythmic transcripts associated with the pathways Carbohydrate Metabolism, Cell Wall Synthesis & Elongation, Amino Acid Metabolism, and Transporters. Biochemical pathways have different rhythms in sugarcane organs We used a hypergeometric test to detect if a pathway was over- or underrepresented by comparing the frequency of transcripts associated with a Biochemical Pathway among the expressed time courses and all the unique transcripts in the oligoarray (Fig. 2d and Fig. S5). We used the same test comparing the frequency of transcripts associated with a Biochemical Pathway among the rhythmic time courses and the expressed time courses (Fig. 2d and Fig. S5). The transcript annotations were based on the SUCEST database annotation (http://sucest-fun.org). Among expressed time courses, each organ has a distinct profile. For example, L1 was the only organ that had the Pigment Synthesis, Light Harvesting, and Jasmonate Signaling pathways considered to be overrepresented. I1 had Chromatin Remodeling and Protein Synthesis pathways overrepresented and Ethylene Signaling underrepresented. Transcription Factors was underrepresented and ABA/Drought Signaling and Transporters were overrepresented in L1 and I5, but not in I1. I5 is the only organ in which Cell Wall Synthesis & Elongation was not underrepresented among the expressed time courses (Fig. 2d). Among rhythmic time courses, Circadian Clock was overrepresented, while Chromatin Remodeling and RNA Synthesis & Processing were underrepresented in all organs. Protein Synthesis was overrepresented in L1. Transcription Factors was overrepresented in I1 and I5, and Transporters was overrepresented among rhythmic time courses in L1 and I1 (Fig. 2d). When we analyzed time courses associated with important pathways for sugarcane growth, we found further organ-specific patterns; these differences could be seen in both expressed and rhythmic time courses, as well as the phase of the rhythmic time courses (Fig. 2e and Fig. S6). Time courses associated with Carbohydrate Metabolism

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369 370 tended to peak in the morning. Almost half (48.0%) of the time courses had a peak at ZT00 in L1, while the majority peaked between ZT00 and ZT04 in both I1 (53.2%) and I5 (58%) (Fig. 2e). Amongst the individual time courses, a putative ortholog of SUCROSE SYNTHASE4 (SuSy4) had a similar rhythmic pattern in all three organs. A putative ortholog of SUCROSE-PHOSPHATE SYNTHASE II (SPSII) was rhythmic only in L1, while a putative ortholog of a CELL WALL INVERTASE (CWI) exhibited a sharp peak at ZT04 in L1 but a very broad peak at ZT08 in I1 and I5 (Fig. 6i, m and q). Time courses associated with Cell Wall Synthesis & Elongation had a more diverse phase distribution: in L1, 55% had a peak between ZT00 and ZT04 in L1; in I1, 73.4% had a peak between ZT00 and ZT08; and in I5, 45.8% had a peak between ZT08 and ZT10 and 37.8% had one at ZT00 (Fig. 2e). There was also a higher proportion of time courses associated with Cell Wall Synthesis & Elongation that are expressed only in I1 and I5 (Fig. S6). Time courses associated with Amino Acid Metabolism peaked between ZT12 and ZT14 in L1 (50%). In I1 and I5, they had two peaks: between ZT00 and ZT02 (37.5% and 57.1%) and between ZT08 and ZT10 (37.5% and 42.9%) (Fig. 2b). Time courses associated with *Transporters* peaked at ZT02 (35.7%) and ZT12 (15.7%) in L1. In I1, most of the time courses peaked 2 h earlier, at ZT00 (24.2%) and ZT10 (24.2%). I5 displayed a similar pattern to I1, with 53.6% peaking between ZT00 and ZT02 and 46.4% between ZT08 and ZT10 (Fig. 2b). This tendency for L1 to have later phases than I1 and I5 can be seen in the putative ortholog SWEET2, which peaked at ZT02 in L1 and at ZT18-20 in I1 and I5 (Fig. 6I). Circadian clock transcripts have similar dynamics in different sugarcane organs The differences in the rhythmic time courses of the three organs could be explained by the presence of organ-specific circadian clocks that could generate different patterns of rhythmic transcription. The circadian clocks can be divided into three parts: *Input* Pathways, Central Oscillator, and Output Pathways (Henriques et al., 2018). Most of the known Input Pathways to the circadian clock are associated with Light Signaling (Oakenfull & Davis, 2017). Light Signaling is underrepresented among the transcripts expressed in I5 and the rhythmic time courses in I1 (Fig. S5). Among the red light receptor genes, PHYTOCHROME A.1 (PHYA.1) was rhythmic in L1, with a peak at ZT23, while PHYB was not rhythmic in any organ (Fig. S7a,b). In I1 and I5, both PHYs had two peaks: one near dawn (ZT00-02) and another at night (ZT18-20). Among the blue light receptors, CRYPTOCHROME1.1 (CRY1.1) was rhythmic in L1,

peaking at ZT03. CRY2.1 was rhythmic in I5, peaking at ZT19. ZEITLUPE (ZTL.1) was 371 rhythmic in L1 and I5, peaking at ZT01 and ZT21, respectively (Fig. S7d-f). 372 373 The Central Oscillator generates rhythms that can run independently from environmental rhythms. In general, the time courses associated with the Central 374 375 Oscillator displayed rhythms with similar dynamics (Fig. 3). LHY peaked early in the 376 morning, between ZT02 and ZT04, with overlapping dynamics in all three organs (Fig. 3a). Similarly, TOC1 peaked around dusk, between ZT10 and ZT12, in all three organs 377 378 (Fig. 3d). The normalizations used to analyze the oligoarray data do not allow the 379 comparison of expression levels, so we used RT-qPCR to show that LHY varied during 380 the day by 750× in L1 and 150× in I1 and I5 (Fig. S8a). In contrast, TOC1 differed 30× in L1 and 18× in I1 and I5 (Fig. S8b). The other PRR genes, PRR59, PRR73, and 381 382 PRR95 (referred to as ScPRR3, ScPRR7, and ScPRR59, respectively, in Hotta et al., 383 2011), peaked between ZT06 and ZT10 (Fig. 3b, c, and e). GI peaked between ZT08 384 and ZT10 in all three organs (Fig. 3f). Finally, ELF3 was rhythmic only in L1, with a peak at ZT14. In the internodes, ELF3 had a similar pattern, but it was not regarded as 385 386 rhythmic due to high noise (Fig. S7c). Among the possible pathways that can be recruited by the circadian clock that are 387 388 considered part of the Output Pathways are those associated with Chromatin 389 Remodeling, Transcription Factors, and Protein Synthesis (Fig. 4). Time courses associated with Chromatin Remodeling peaked at ZT00-02 and ZT10-12 in L1 (32.5% 390 and 36.5%, respectively). In I1 and I5, they peaked at ZT00 (40.7% and 40.8%, 391 respectively) and ZT08-10 (33.99% and 51.2%, respectively) (Fig. 4a). Time courses 392 393 associated with Transcription Factors tended to peak near dawn, at ZT00-02, in all three organs (57.5% in L1, 46.4% in i1, and 50.3% in I5). A higher proportion (22.6%) 394 of time courses associated with Transcription Factors were rhythmic when compared to 395 all rhythmic (16.6%) time courses, χ^2 (6, n = 341) = 15.1, P = 0.02 (chi-square test, Fig. 396 397 4e). These time courses also peaked similarly in all organs: 79.3% peaked in the same 398 interval in L1 as in I1, 72.2% peaked in the same interval in L1 and I5, and 93.1% in I1 399 and I5.

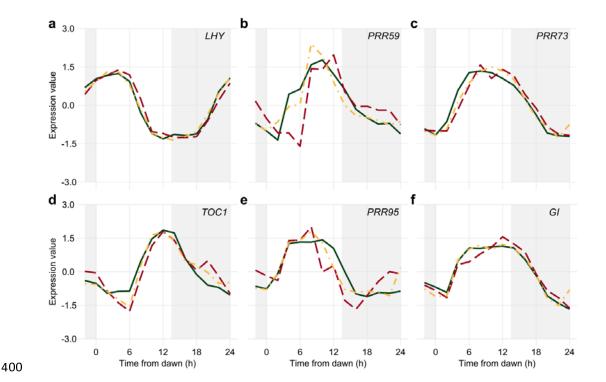


Figure 3 – Diel rhythms of *Central Oscillator* transcripts in sugarcane organs. *LHY* (a), *PRR59* (b), *PRR73* (c), *TOC1* (d), *PRR95* (e), and *GI* (f) rhythms were measured in leaf +1 (L1, green continuous line), internodes 1 and 2 (I1, red dashed line), and internode 5 (I5, yellow dash-dotted line) of field-grown sugarcane using oligoarrays. Time courses were normalized using *Z*-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night periods.

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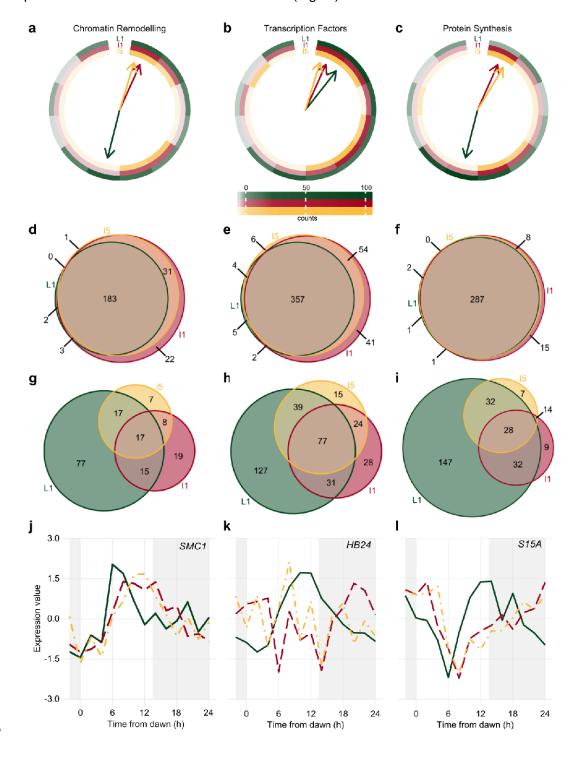
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Time courses associated with *Protein Synthesis* tended to peak at dusk in L1 (ZT12. 408 49.0%), at dawn and afternoon in I1 (ZT00, 36.1%; ZT10, 32.5%), and at dawn in I5 409 410 (ZT00, 61.7%) (Fig. 4c). A higher proportion of time courses associated with *Protein* Synthesis were expressed in all three organs (91.4%) than for all time courses (75.0%), 411 412 χ^2 (6, n = 314) = 48.7, P < 0.001 (Fig. 4f). In contrast, more than half of the time courses 413 (54.6%) were rhythmic only in L1, whereas a lower frequency (41.5%) of total rhythmic time courses were seen only in L1, $\chi^2(6, n = 269) = 34.8, P < 0.001$ (Fig. 4i). 414 Other time courses showed a wide variety of oscillations amongst the three organs 415 (Fig. 4j-I, and S9). The putative STRUCTURAL MAINTENANCE OF 416 CHROMOSOMES1 (SMC1), associated with Chromatin Remodeling, peaked at ZT06 417 in L1 and ZT11 in I1 and I5 (Fig. 4j). Two putative JUMONJI-C (JMJC) DOMAIN-418 419 CONTAINING PROTEIN5 (JMJD5) genes, encoding proteins that can act as histone

demethylases, were found in sugarcane. *JMJD5.1* is expressed only in I1 and I5 and has a phase at ZT10 (Fig. S9a,d); *JMJD5.2* is expressed in all organs with similar rhythmic patterns (Fig. S9a). The transcription factor gene *HOMEOBOX PROTEIN24* (*HB24*) is rhythmic only in L1, with a peak at ZT10 (Fig. 4k). Another rhythmic gene, *40S RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN S15* (*S15A*), associated with *Protein Synthesis*, has a peak at ZT14 in L1 and at ZT00 in I1 and I5 (Fig. 4l).



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457 458 Figure 4 – Transcripts associated with Genetic Information Processing have different rhythms in sugarcane organs. (a-c) Circular heatmap of the distribution of the peak time of rhythmic transcripts related to Chromatin Remodeling (a), Transcription Factors (b), and Protein Synthesis (c) in leaf +1 (L1, green), internodes 1 and 2 (I1, red), and internode 5 (I5, yellow). The colored arrows show the time at which the most transcripts are found in each organ. (d-i) Euler diagrams of all expressed transcripts (d-f) and rhythmic transcripts (g-i) in L1, I1, and I5 in field-grown sugarcane in diel conditions. (j-l) SMC1 (j), HB24 (k), and S15A (l) rhythms measured in L1 (continuous green line), I1 (red dashed line), and I5 (vellow dash-dotted line) of fieldgrown sugarcane using oligoarrays. Time courses were normalized using Z-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night periods. Discussion Organ-specific rhythms of transcription can be found in highly productive and intensively selected commercial sugarcane. The specialization of the rhythmic transcriptome may help the plant cells to adapt to local environmental rhythms, as well as to generate rhythms that are compatible with their specialized needs. Specialized rhythms may also be essential to rhythmic processes that require organ-to-organ coordination, such as sucrose transport from the leaves to the internodes (Wang et al., 2013). Rhythms in field conditions are different from those in controlled conditions Sugarcane leaves in field conditions had twice as many time courses identified as rhythmic than plants assayed under circadian conditions. This difference is expected because some rhythms are driven by environmental oscillations, such as light and temperature. Also, some circadian-clock-driven rhythms may undergo amplitude increases due to a general increase in the amplitude of the Central Oscillator. In L1, the transcriptional rhythms of LHY vary by up to 60x in a day in circadian conditions and 750× in field conditions, while those of TOC1 vary up to 5× in a day in circadian conditions and 40× in field conditions (Hotta et al., 2013, and Fig. S8). In circadian conditions, most time courses peaked at subjective dusk (ZT12, 29.0%), which resulted in 60.5% of the time courses peaking during subjective night.

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By contrast, in field conditions, most time courses peaked near dawn (ZT00-02, 35.2%) in L1, which resulted in 80.3% of the time courses peaking during the day. This reinforces the role of the light/dark transition as the driving force of rhythms in leaves in field conditions. A high proportion (64.1%) of the time courses that peaked during the subjective night in circadian conditions showed phase changes that resulted in higher expression during the day in field conditions. This might suggest the existence of dampening mechanisms that actively decrease nocturnal peaks. A similar mechanism keeps cytoplasmic calcium concentration lower during the night under diel conditions (day/night) than during the subjective night under circadian conditions (Xu et al., 2007). Most of the time courses associated with the Central Oscillator maintained their core phases, except LHY, which had a later peak (ZT01 in circadian conditions; ZT04 in field conditions). As a comparison, LHY is induced by light in Arabidopsis and is mostly insensitive to temperature in rice (Kim et al., 2003; Nagano et al., 2012). The differences between the rhythmic transcriptomes in circadian conditions and field conditions highlight the importance of experiments done under field conditions to understanding how the circadian clock can affect the plant transcriptome in natura. Rhythmic transcripts are organ-specific The time courses in L1, I1, and I5 have very different rhythmic patterns, even though most of the expressed time courses were found in all three organs. Rhythms in I1 and I5 were more similar to each other than to those in L1, and only 7.4% of the time courses expressed in all three organs showed the same rhythms. Thus, we conclude that these three organs have vastly different and specialized circadian clocks. These specialized circadian clocks could be the result of multiple organ sensitivities to environmental cues, of organ-specific Core Oscillators, and of organ-specific interactions of Output Pathways with environmental signals. In Arabidopsis, different sensitivities to environmental cues are found in the vascular phloem companion cells, which are more sensitive to photoperiodism, and the epidermis cells, which are more sensitive to temperature (Shimizu et al., 2015). In sugarcane, most L1 time courses peak at ZT00-02 and ZT12, following dawn and dusk, while most I1 and I5 time courses peak at ZT00 and ZT08, following dawn and the daily light and temperature maxima. Thus, the circadian clocks of these organs respond differently to environmental cues such as photoperiod, light/dark transition, or temperature, as in Arabidopsis. In rice, a significant proportion of rhythmic transcripts are regulated either by the circadian clock or by temperature oscillations (Nagano et

al., 2012). In sugarcane, rhythmic L1 time courses that were also rhythmic in circadian 494 495 conditions had peaks that follow LHY or TOC1 expression. On the other hand, rhythmic 496 L1 time courses that were not rhythmic in circadian conditions peaked at dawn and 497 dusk. In internodes, time courses peaked at dawn and at the light and temperature 498 maximum. Such organ-specific sensitivity to environmental cues was previously described in the vasculature and epidermis (Shimizu et al., 2015). 499 500 The Central Oscillators of mesophyll and vasculature in Arabidopsis have similar components but with different amplitudes. AtELF4 rhythms have an amplitude 10× 501 502 higher in the vasculature, AtPRR7 and AtPRR9 amplitudes are 2× higher in the 503 mesophyll, and AtTOC1 amplitude is similar in both tissues (Endo et al., 2014). In 504 sugarcane, LHY amplitude is 6× higher and TOC1 amplitude is 2× higher in L1 505 compared to I1 and I5. As leaves are exposed to direct sunlight, whereas internodes 506 are protected by layers of leaf sheaths, it is probable that sunlight is responsible for 507 these amplitude differences. The dynamics of LHY, TOC1, and GI during the day were very similar in the three organs. Indeed, they were considered to be coexpressed when 508 509 analyzed together (data not shown). As the three organs have different levels of 510 exposure to the environment, the existence of a common environmental signal is 511 unlikely. Alternatively, the oscillators of the three organs could be coupled. There is evidence in Arabidopsis of root oscillators being regulated by the oscillators of the 512 513 aerial parts of the plants, either the leaves or the shoot apical meristem (SAM) (James 514 et al., 2008; Takahashi et al., 2015). As the leaves are a source signal to both 515 internodes, it is possible that synchronizing signals are transported with sucrose and 516 other sugars. In Arabidopsis, sugars can also act as an entrainment signal (Haydon et 517 al., 2013; Frank et al., 2018). 518 Even though there is much evidence for tissue-specific circadian clocks in Arabidopsis (Para et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2007; Kim et al., 2011; Endo et al., 2014; Endo, 2015), less 519 520 is known about their effect on the rhythmic regulation of transcripts. In contrast, tissue-521 specific rhythms have been widely studied in mammals (Storch et al., 2002; Panda et 522 al., 2002; Zhang et al., 2014; Ruben et al., 2018). Sampling of 12 different mouse 523 organs over time showed that 43% (~8,500) of all transcripts had circadian rhythms in 524 at least one organ, but only 10 transcripts were rhythmic in all organs (Zhang et al., 525 2014). As in sugarcane leaves, the rhythmic transcripts in mammalian organs tended to 526 peak at dawn and dusk. In general, the only transcripts that had similar phases across 527 all organs were the ones associated with the mammalian Core Oscillator (Zhang et al., 528 2014).

529 At least two regulatory pathways are required to generate tissue-specific sets of 530 rhythmic transcripts: one that confers organ specificity and one that confers rhythmicity. 531 These pathways can be organized in different nonexclusive ways: they could act on a 532 gene independently, the tissue specificity pathways could regulate the rhythmicity pathways, or the rhythmicity pathways could regulate the organ specificity pathways 533 534 (Fig. S10). The rhythmicity pathways can be dependent on the circadian clock, on 535 environmental rhythms, or both. The tissue specificity pathways can include 536 transcription factors, protein-protein interactions, alternative promoter usage, chromatin interactions, and topologically associating domains (TADs) (Yeung & Naef, 2018). 537 538 In our datasets, time courses that were expressed only in one organ or only in the 539 internodes were less likely to be considered rhythmic (Fig. 2b). Thus, it is possible that 540 rhythmic pathways regulate only a small proportion of organ-specific pathways. Time 541 courses associated with Transcription Factors were more likely to be rhythmic in all 542 three organs, and these time courses had a higher probability of having the same phase. However, just a few tissue-specific rhythms in transcription factors can have a 543 544 sizeable cascading effect (Yeung et al., 2018). Tissue-specific transcription factors, even if nonrhythmic, could also change the phase of rhythmic transcripts through 545 546 protein-protein interactions or by changing the promoter usage (Smieszek et al., 2014; 547 Yeung & Naef, 2018). Finally, chromatin remodeling could be a significant regulatory pathway in the generation of the tissue-specific rhythmic transcriptome. In Arabidopsis, 548 549 chromatin remodeling can regulate the Central Oscillator, but little is known about how 550 the plant circadian clock can use chromatin remodeling to generate rhythms (Lu et al., 551 2011; Malapeira et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2018). In sugarcane, 552 rhythms in time courses associated with *Chromatin Remodeling* were 553 underrepresented among the rhythmic time courses. However, chromatin remodeling 554 tends to be regulated post-transcriptionally through histone modifications. Transcription 555 can also be regulated at the chromatin level through TADs. In mammals, TADs can be 556 regulated to generate tissue-specific transcription and even rhythms (Aguilar-Arnal et 557 al., 2013; Kim et al., 2018; Mermet et al., 2018). In plants, TADs are maintained by cohesins, but there are still no known CCCTC-binding factors (CTCF) counterparts 558 (Schubert et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2017). In sugarcane, the cohesin subunit SMC1 has 559 560 different phases in leaves and internodes. Specialized tissue-specific circadian clocks allow the different tissues to be more 561 efficient according to their function and local environmental rhythms (Yeung & Naef, 562 563 2018). In mammals, rhythms in fibroblasts allow wound healing to occur faster during 564 the active phase than the rest phase (Hoyle et al., 2017). Furthermore, rhythms in the

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liver lead to larger cell sizes and protein levels during the active phase and after feeding, making detoxification more efficient during the active and post-feeding periods (Sinturel et al., 2017). In sugarcane, expressed time courses associated with Transporters were overrepresented in L1 and I5, while rhythmic time courses associated with Transporters were overrepresented in L1 and I1. Nutrient and photosynthate transportation inside the plant are essential for rhythmic processes and may also be part of organ-to-organ coordination (Wang et al., 2013; Xu, 2018; López-Salmerón et al., 2019). Sucrose accumulation in the internodes inhibits leaf photosynthesis in sugarcane (Ribeiro et al., 2017). Furthermore, time courses associated with Transporters tended to peak 2 h later in L1 than in the internodes, which may indicate that the latter is the driving force of this process. Other processes, such as Pigment Synthesis and Light Harvesting in L1, Chromatin Remodeling and Protein Synthesis in I1, and Cell Wall Synthesis & Elongation in I5, also suggest a functional specialization to the organ-specific circadian clock. The vast differences found in the rhythmic transcriptomes of different plant organs provide important clues to understanding the way that tissue-specific circadian clocks are generated and their impact on plant physiology. However, little is still known about the molecular mechanisms that control this specialization. The combination of organ- or tissue-specific studies with the observation of rhythms in the field, where conditions are fluctuating and variable as is normal in natural environments, is essential to understanding the nuances of how the plant circadian clock increases the fitness of plants and, in turn, crop productivity. **Acknowledgments** This work was supported by the São Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP) (grant nos. 11/00818-8 and 15/06260-0; BIOEN Program) and by the Serrapilheira Institute (grant no. Serra-1708-16001). L.L.B.D, C. A. L., and N. O. L. were supported by FAPESP scholarships (grants 11/08897-4, 13/05301-9, and 16/06740-4, respectively). **Author Contributions** Conceptualization, L.L.B.D., M.S.C., G.M.S., C.T.H; Methodology, L.L.B.D., C.T.H; Software, M.Y.N., C.T.H; Validation, L.L.B.D., N.O.L.; Investigation, L.L.B.D., N.O.L., C.A.L., C.T.H; Resources, M.S.C., G.M.S.; Data Curation, M.Y.N., C.T.H; Writing –

Original Draft, L.L.B.D., C.T.H; Writing – Review & Editing, L.L.B.D., C.A.L., C.T.H; 598 Visualization; C. T. H.; Project Administration, C. T. H.; Funding Acquisition, C.T.H 599 600 601 References 602 Aguilar-Arnal L, Hakim O, Patel VR, Baldi P, Hager GL, Sassone-Corsi P. 2013. Cycles in spatial 603 and temporal chromosomal organization driven by the circadian clock. Nature Structural & 604 Molecular Biology 20: 1206-1213. 605 Annunziata MG, Apelt F, Carillo P, Krause U, Feil R, Koehl K, Lunn JE, Stitt M. 2018. Response 606 of Arabidopsis primary metabolism and circadian clock to low night temperature in a natural 607 light environment. *Journal of Experimental Botany* **69**: 4881–4895. 608 Calixto CPG, Waugh R, Brown JWS. 2015. Evolutionary relationships among barley and 609 Arabidopsis core circadian clock and clock-associated genes. Journal of Molecular Evolution 80: 610 108-119. 611 Dodd AN, Salathia N, Hall A, Kevei E, Toth R, Nagy F, Hibberd JM, Millar AJ, Webb AA. 2005. 612 Plant circadian clocks increase photosynthesis, growth, survival, and competitive advantage. 613 Science 309: 630-3. 614 Endo M. 2015. Tissue-specific circadian clocks in plants. Current Opinion in Plant Biology 29: 615 44-49. 616 Endo M, Shimizu H, Nohales MA, Araki T, Kay SA. 2014. Tissue-specific clocks in Arabidopsis 617 show asymmetric coupling. *Nature* **515**: 419–22. 618 Frank A, Matiolli CC, Viana AJC, Hearn TJ, Kusakina J, Belbin FE, Wells Newman D, Yochikawa 619 A, Cano-Ramirez DL, Chembath A, et al. 2018. Circadian entrainment in Arabidopsis by the 620 sugar-responsive transcription factor bZIP63. Current Biology 28: 2597-2606.e6. 621 Gawroński P, Ariyadasa R, Himmelbach A, Poursarebani N, Kilian B, Stein N, Steuernagel B, 622 Hensel G, Kumlehn J, Sehgal SK, et al. 2014. A distorted circadian clock causes early flowering 623 and temperature-dependent variation in spike development in the Eps-3Am mutant of einkorn 624 wheat. Genetics 196: 1253-1261. 625 Glassop D, Rae AL. 2019. Expression of sugarcane genes associated with perception of 626 photoperiod and floral induction reveals cycling over a 24-hour period. Functional Plant 627 Biology 46: 314-327. 628 Green RM, Tingay S, Wang Z-Y, Tobin EM. 2002. Circadian rhythms confer a higher level of 629 fitness to Arabidopsis plants. Plant Physiology 129: 576-584. 630 Gu Z, Eils R, Schlesner M. 2016. Complex heatmaps reveal patterns and correlations in 631 multidimensional genomic data. Bioinformatics 32: 2847–2849. 632 Gu Z, Gu L, Eils R, Schlesner M, Brors B. 2014. circlize Implements and enhances circular 633 visualization in R. Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) 30: 2811–2812.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1 – Different organs have specific sets of rhythmic transcripts in sugarcane. (a) The numbers of expressed and rhythmic time courses detected in leaf +1 (L1), internodes 1 and 2 (I1), and internode 5 (I5) in field-grown (diel) conditions, and in leaf +1 in circadian conditions (Hotta *et al.*, 2013). (b,c) Euler diagrams of expressed time courses (b) and rhythmic time courses (c) in L1 in sugarcane in diel (green) and circadian (gray) conditions. (d) Number of expressed time courses, rhythmic time courses, and rhythmic time courses with the same phase that were found specifically in L1, I1, or I5; in both L1 and I1 (L1I1, purple); in both L1 and I5 (L1I5, light green); in both I1 and I5 (I1I5, orange); and in all three organs (L1I1I5, blue). In the second bar, the gray area corresponds to rhythmic time courses that are expressed in only one or two organs. In the third bar, the gray area corresponds to rhythmic time courses in only two organs that have the same phase. The gray dashed lines show the associations among bars. (e,f) Euler diagram of expressed and rhythmic time courses in L1, I1, and I5 in field-grown sugarcane in diel conditions.

Figure 2 – Transcripts have unique phases in different sugarcane organs. (a)

Circular heatmap of the rhythmic transcript peak time (ZT0 = 0 h after dawn) distribution in leaf +1 (L1), internodes 1 and 2 (I1), and internode 5 (I5). The colored arrows show the times at which the most transcripts are found in each organ. The times of dawn, dusk, LHY transcription peak, maximum light intensity, and maximum temperatures are indicated by black arcs. (b) Proportions of transcripts that were rhythmic in L1, I1, and I5 among all expressed transcripts in each organ (All), among the transcripts expressed only in one organ (L1 only, I1 only, or I5 only), among the transcripts expressed in two organs (L1I1, L1I5, or I1I5), and among transcripts expressed in all three organs (L1I1I5). (c) Distribution of rhythmic transcript peak time in time courses that were rhythmic in L1 but not in circadian conditions (α in Fig. 1c) and rhythmic transcripts in time courses that were rhythmic in L1 and circadian conditions (β). (d) Heatmap of functional categories that are overrepresented (shades of blue) or underrepresented (shades of red) among the expressed and rhythmic transcripts of L1, I1, and I5. The P-value was calculated using a hypergeometric test. (e) Circular heatmap with the distribution of the peak times of rhythmic transcripts

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associated with the pathways Carbohydrate Metabolism, Cell Wall Synthesis & Elongation, Amino Acid Metabolism, and Transporters. Figure 3 – Diel rhythms of *Central Oscillator* transcripts in sugarcane organs. LHY (a), PRR59 (b), PRR73 (c), TOC1 (d), PRR95 (e), and GI (f) rhythms were measured in leaf +1 (L1, green continuous line), internodes 1 and 2 (I1, red dashed line), and internode 5 (I5, yellow dash-dotted line) of field-grown sugarcane using oligoarrays. Time courses were normalized using Z-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night periods. Figure 4 – Transcripts associated with Genetic Information Processing have different rhythms in sugarcane organs. (a-c) Circular heatmap of the distribution of the peak time of rhythmic transcripts related to Chromatin Remodeling (a), Transcription Factors (b), and Protein Synthesis (c) in leaf +1 (L1, green), internodes 1 and 2 (I1, red), and internode 5 (I5, yellow). The colored arrows show the time at which the most transcripts are found in each organ. (d-i) Euler diagrams of all expressed transcripts (d-f) and rhythmic transcripts (g-i) in L1, I1, and I5 in field-grown sugarcane in diel conditions. (j-l) SMC1 (j), HB24 (k), and S15A (l) rhythms measured in L1 (continuous green line), I1 (red dashed line), and I5 (yellow dash-dotted line) of fieldgrown sugarcane using oligoarrays. Time courses were normalized using Z-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night periods.

Supporting Information (SI)

Supplemental Figure 1

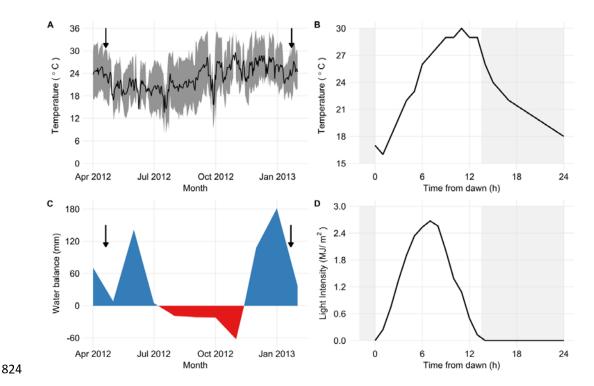


Figure S1 – Environmental conditions in Araras (SP, Brazil). Environmental conditions during the growth period and harvesting day. (a) Average temperature variation during the growth period (black line). The gray area shows the temperature variation (maximum and minimum) during each day. The arrows show the day of planting and the day of harvesting. (b) Temperature during the harvesting day. The light-gray boxes represent the night period. (c) Water balance during growth period. (d) Light intensity during the harvesting day.

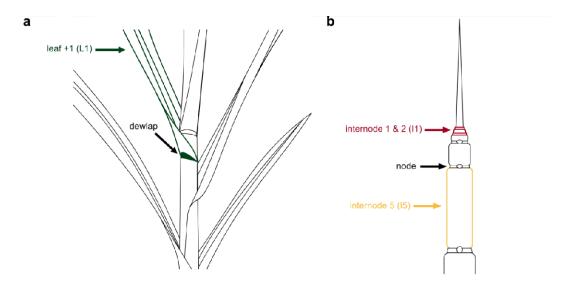


Figure S2 – Three sugarcane organs were harvested. (a) The leaf +1 (L1, green) harvested for this study is the first leaf from the top with a clearly visible dewlap. (b) After all of the leaves are peeled off and removed, the full stalk is exposed, so that all nodes and internodes can be seen. The top two internodes (internodes 1 and 2, I1, red) and the fifth internode (internode 5, I5, yellow) were also harvested.

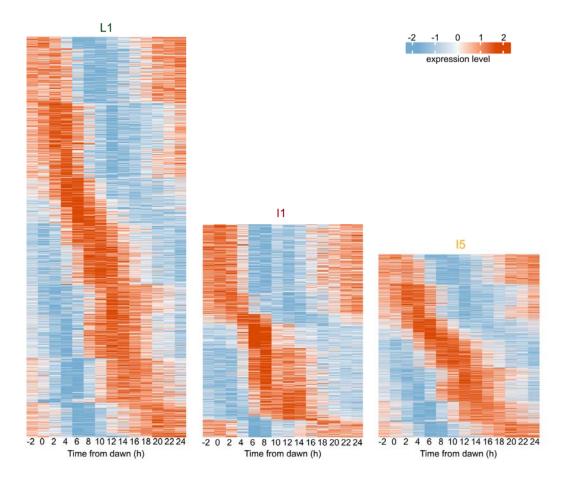


Figure S3 – Heatmap of the expression levels of the rhythmic transcripts in sugarcane organs. Each line represents the time course of each rhythmic transcript in leaf +1 (I1), internodes 1 and 2 (I1), and internode 5 (I5). The transcripts were separated by their phase. High transcription levels are in shades of red, and low transcription levels are in shades of blue. Transcription levels were normalized by *Z*-score.

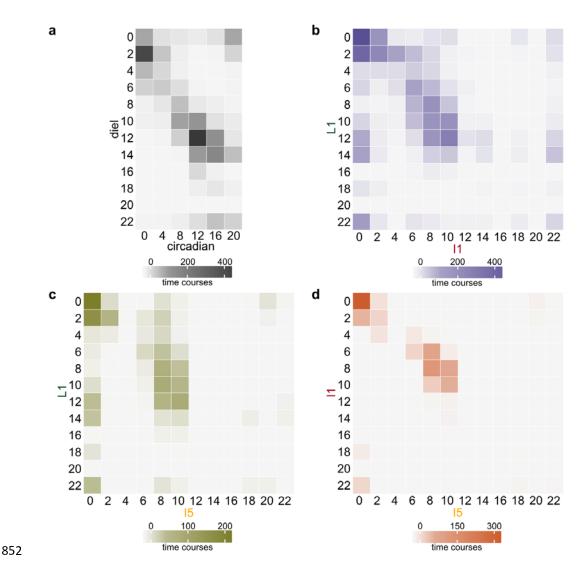


Figure S4 – **Heatmap of the phase distribution of rhythmic transcripts shared between pairs of datasets. (a)** Phase distribution of transcripts found in leaf +1 (L1) of field-grown sugarcane and L1 of sugarcane grown under circadian conditions (Hotta *et al.*, 2013). **(b)** Phase distribution of transcripts found in L1 and internodes 1 and 2 (I1) of field-grown sugarcane. **(c)** Phase distribution of transcripts found in L1 and internode 5 (I5) of field-grown sugarcane. **(d)** Phase distribution of transcripts found in I1 and I5 of field-grown sugarcane.

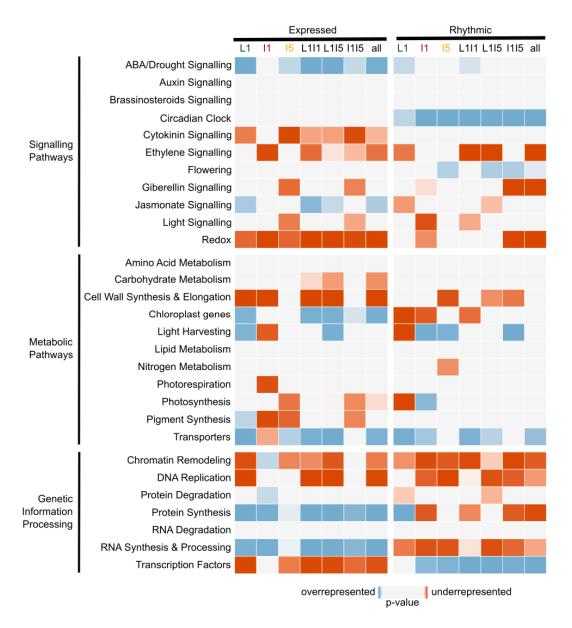


Figure S5 – Heatmap of functional categories that are overrepresented (shades of blue) or underrepresented (shades of red) among the expressed and rhythmic transcripts of L1, I1, I5, L1I1, L1I5, I1I5, and all three organs. The *P*-values were calculated using a hypergeometric test.

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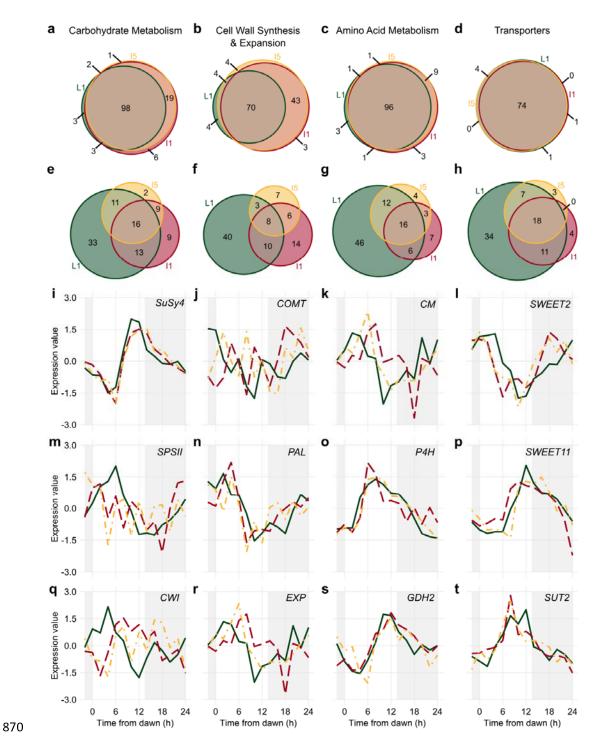


Figure S6 – Transcripts associated with metabolic pathways have different rhythms in sugarcane organs. (a-h) Euler diagram of (a-d) expressed and (e-h) rhythmic transcripts in leaf +1 (L1, green), internodes 1 and 2 (I1, red), and internode 5 (I5, yellow) in field-grown sugarcane in diel conditions. (i-t) Rhythms of (i) SUCROSE

875 SYNTHASE4 (SuSy4), (j) CATECHOL-O-METHYLTRANSFERASE (COMT), (k) CHORISMATE MUTASE (CM), (I) SWEET2, (m) SUCROSE-PHOSPHATE 876 877 SYNTHASE II (SPSII), (n) PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA LYASE (PAL), (o) PROLYL 4-HYDROXYLASE (P4H), (p) SWEET11, (q) CELL WALL INVERTASE (CWI), (r) 878 EXPANSIN (EXP), (s) GLUTAMATE DEHYDROGENASE2 (GDH2), and (t) SUCROSE 879 TRANSPORT PROTEIN2 (SUT2) measured in the L1 (continuous green line), I1 (red 880 881 dashed line), and I5 (yellow dash-dotted line) of field-grown sugarcane by oligoarrays. Time courses were normalized using Z-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night 882 883 period.

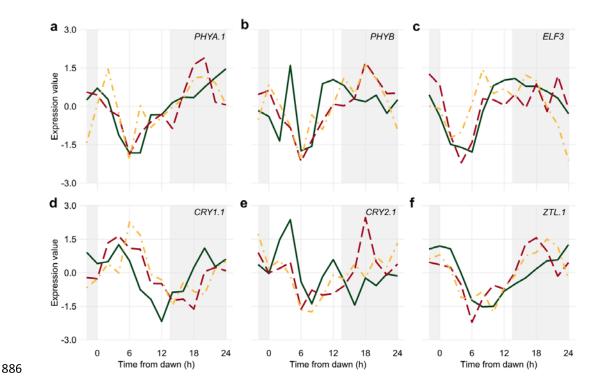


Figure S7 – Diel rhythms of *Light Signalling* and *Central Oscillator* transcripts in sugarcane organs. Rhythms of (a) *PHYTOCHROME A.1* (*PHYA.1*), (b) *PHYB*, (c) *EARLY FLOWERING3* (*ELF3*), (d) *CRYPTOCHROME 1.1* (*CRY1.1*), (e) *CRY2.1*, and (f) *ZEITLUPE* (*ZTL*) measured in leaf +1 (L1; continuous green line), internodes 1 and 2 (I1; red dashed line), and internode 5 (I5; yellow dash-dotted line) of field-grown sugarcane using oligoarrays. Time courses were normalized using *Z*-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night period.

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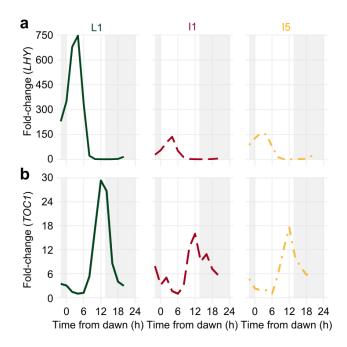


Figure S8 - Diel rhythms of transcripts associated with the circadian clock have different amplitudes in different sugarcane organs. Rhythms of (a) LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL (LHY) and (b) TIME OF CAB EXPRESSION1 (TOC1) were measured in the leaf +1 (L1, continuous green line), internodes 1 and 2 (I1, red dashed line), and internode 5 (I5, yellow dash-dotted line) of field-grown sugarcane measured using RT-qPCR. GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE (GAPDH) was used as a reference gene. Time courses were normalized by their minimum value (minimum value = 1) using Z-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night period. LHY primers: FWD 5'-CCACCACGGCCTAAAAGAAA-3', RVS TGGTTTTGTTGACTTGTCATTTGG-3'; TOC1 **FWD** 5'primers: **RVS** TTCTGCCTGAATTTGGCAAGTG-3', 5'-GGCATCGAGCACCAATGC-3'; *GAPDH* primers: **FWD** 5'-GGCATCGAGCACCAATGC-3', 5'-TCCTCAGGGTTCCTGATGC-3'.

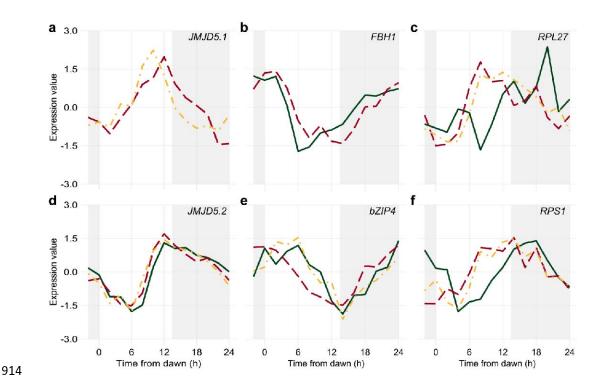


Figure S9 – Diel rhythms of *Output Pathways* transcripts in sugarcane organs. Rhythms of **(a)** *JUMONJI-C (JMJC) DOMAIN-CONTAINING PROTEIN 5.1 (JMJD5.1)*, **(b)** *FLOWERING BASIC HELIX-LOOP-HELIX1 (FBH1)*, **(c)** *RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN L27 (RPL27)*, **(d)** *JMJD5.2*, **(e)** *BASIC LEUCINE ZIPPER4 (bZIP4)*, and **(f)** *30S RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN S1 (RPS1)* measured in the leaf +1 (L1, continuous green line), internodes 1 and 2 (I1, red dashed line), and internode 5 (I5, yellow dash-dotted line) of field-grown sugarcane by oligoarrays. Time courses were normalized using *Z*-score. The light-gray boxes represent the night period.

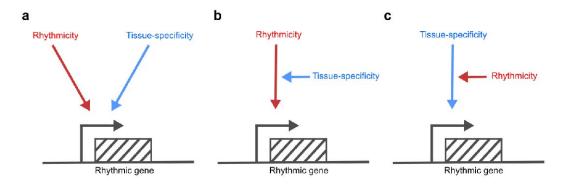


Figure S10 – At least two different pathways are necessary to regulate tissue-specific rhythmic transcription. One pathway confers rhythmicity to the transcript levels (red), while the other pathway confers tissue specificity (blue). These two pathways could regulate transcription independently (a), or one could regulate the other (b,c).

Table S1 – Sugarcane genes and GenBank IDs

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Gene	Gene Name	SAS	GenBank ID
Symbol			
bZIP4	BASIC LEUCINE ZIPPER 4	SCCCCL4005C09.g	CA094172.1
CM	CHORISMATE MUTASE	SCCCCL4006E08.g	CA094273.1
CRY1.1	CRYPTOCHROME 1.1	SCRUAD1133D10.b	CA217707.1
CRY2.1	CRYPTOCHROME 2.1	SCRFST1042F05.g	CA178248.1
COMT	CATECHOL-O-METHYLTRANSFERASE	SCEQLB2018G06.g	CA262225.1
ELF3	EARLY FLOWERING 3	SCEZLB1009F09.g	CA113166.1
EXP	EXPANSIN	SCCCCL5072C04.g	CA095540.1
FBH1	FLOWERING BASIC HELIX-LOOP-HELIX 1	SCCCLR1022C05.g	CA119653.1
GAPDH	GLYCERALDEHYDE-3-PHOSPHATE DEHYDROGENASE	SCQGAM2027G09.g	CA086777.1
GDH2	GLUTAMATE DEHYDROGENASE 2	SCJLRT1021C04.g	CA135753.1
GI	GIGANTEA	SCJFAD1014B07.b	CA067312.1
HB24	HOMEOBOX PROTEIN 24	SCEQRT2095E01.g	CA139249.1
INV	INVERTASE	SCVPRT3086D06.g	CA269857.1
JMJD5.1	JUMONJI-C (JMJC) DOMAIN-CONTAINING PROTEIN 5.1	SCEPRZ3086F09.g	CA156744.1
JMJD5.2	JUMONJI-C (JMJC) DOMAIN-CONTAINING PROTEIN 5.2	SCCCLB1002G12.g	CA110901.1
LHY	LATE ELONGATED HYPOCOTYL	SCCCLR1048E10.g	CA167119.1
P4H	PROLYL 4-HYDROXYLASE	SCCCST3006H07.g	CA180585.1
PAL	PHENYLALANINE AMMONIA LYASE	SCEQRT1024E12.g	CA132523.1
PHYA.1	PHYTOCHROME A.1	SCCCCL3080H06.g	CA093547.1
PHYB	PHYTOCHROME B	SCQSLR1040D12.g	CA124822.1
PRR59	PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 59	SCACLR1057G02.g	CA116370.1
PRR73	PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 73	SCACLR1057C07.g	CA116387.1
PRR95	PSEUDO-RESPONSE REGULATOR 95	SCCCLR1077F09.g	CA120437.1
RPL27	RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN L27	SCAGLR2026E10.g	CA128063.1
RPS1	30S RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN S1	SCBFST3135D12.g	CA181688.1
S15A	40S RIBOSOMAL PROTEIN S15	SCJFRZ2007B06.g	CA151179.1
SMC1	STRUCTURAL MAINTENANCE OF CHROMOSOMES 1	SCEZLB1008B03.g	CA113041.1
SPSII	SUCROSE-PHOSPHATE SYNTHASE II	SCAGRT2037G07.g	CA137278.1
SuSy4	SUCROSE SYNTHASE 4	SCEPCL6023F02.g	CA097247.1
SUT2	SUCROSE TRANSPORT PROTEIN 2	SCEPLR1008A12.g	CA120749.1
SWEET11	SWEET 11	SCCCRT2002G08.g	CA137196.1
SWEET2	SWEET2	SCSGRT2065C08.g	CA145445.1
TOC1	TIME OF CAB EXPRESSION 1	SCCCSB1002H04.g	CA167119.1
ZTL.1	ZEITLUPE	SCCCLR1C07F05.g	CA190027.1
933 * Sugarcane Assembled Sequence			

933 * Sugarcane Assembled Sequence.