Decoupled genetic and epigenetic variation in the montane endemic *Erodium cazorlanum* (Geraniaceae) and a widespread congener

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Abstract

Epigenetic states offer an additional layer of variation besides genetic polymorphism that contribute to phenotypic variation and may arise either randomly or in response to environmental factors. We hypothesize that closely related species with different life-histories and habitat requirements could show distinct patterns of intraspecific epigenetic variation. We used Restriction-site Associated DNA sequencing (RADseq) and its bisulfite-converted variant (bsRADseq) to investigate in Sierra de Cazorla (SE Spain) the genetic and epigenetic population structure of two congeneric species, the endemic woody perennial *Erodium cazorlanum* and the widely distributed annual herb *E. cicutarium*. Population genomics analyses revealed no structure in either *E. cazorlanum* and *E. cicutarium,* suggesting substantial gene flow between the study populations. In contrast, we found that the mean proportion of global DNA methylation was different between populations and species, with *E. cazorlanum* DNA showing higher methylation average and across-individuals variation. For each species, we searched for the loci with the strongest epigenetic differentiation between populations (differentially methylated cytosines, DMCs), and summarized them across regions (differentially methylated regions, DMRs). Multivariate analysis and hierarchical clustering of single cytosines' methylation percentages did not group individuals by population, pointing to high epigenetic variation within populations. DMRs were enriched in *Copia* transposable elements, putatively associated with stress response in plants. Our results suggest that variation at both genetic and epigenetic levels in our study area occur mainly within natural populations of *E. cazorlanum* and *E. cicutarium,* with stronger population structure in *E. cicutarium,* and highlight the relevance of analyzing short distance spatial patterns.

39   **Keywords:** plant population epigenomics, bsRADseq, DNA methylation, epigenetic

40   variation, cytosine differential methylation

1. Introduction

Understanding the sources of natural phenotypic variation is a crucial question in ecology and evolution. The idea that epigenetic diversity can compensate for reduced genetic diversity, promoting phenotypic variation through trait plasticity in response to environmental changes is relatively new (Balao et al., 2018; Bossdorf et al. 2008; Richards et al., 2017; Richards, 2006; Williams et al., 2023). Trait plasticity can be particularly advantageous for sessile organisms such as plants, with limited escape strategies to face environmental perturbations and, thus, the magnitude and population structure of genetic and epigenetic diversities in plant species with disparate genomic and ecological features warrants comprehensive investigation (Anderson & Gezon, 2015; Herrera et al.,2022; Richards et al., 2017; Szukala et al., 2023). Such knowledge can help to optimize decisions in conservation (i.e. accurately evaluating the adaptive potential of populations, Lamka et al., 2022; Williams et al., 2023), or even predict how plant species would fare when introduced in foreign ecosystems (i.e., assess invasive potential, Hawes et al., 2018).

DNA methylation remains a focus of interest among the spectrum of plant epigenetic modifications. The mechanistic control and effects of DNA methylation, its relationship with other chromatin regulators such as histone tail modification and small RNAs, and the potential transgenerational transmission of different methylation-marker types have been mainly studied in model species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Cokus et al., 2008; Muyle et al., 2022; Stroud et al., 2014), and economically important species such as maize and rice (reviewed by Varotto et al., 2022; but see also Herrera et al., 2018). Several DNA-methyltransferases set methyl groups in the carbon-5' of cytosines followed by specific nucleotide motifs in the genome, referred to as methylation contexts. In plants, there are three cytosine methylation contexts: CpG, CHG and CHH (where H can be any

nucleotide but G), which are each regulated by the action of distinct enzyme complexes, and appear unevenly represented in plant genomes (Law & Jacobsen, 2010). Symmetrical methylation in CpGs can be preferentially found in promoters and exons within genes (referred to as gene body methylation; Bewick & Schmitz, 2017) and can be more frequently heritable compared to other contexts (Schmitz et al., 2011). In turn, methylated CHGs and CHHs are more abundant in heterochromatic and intergenic regions, and are often reset between generations or rapidly (de)methylated in response to changes in environmental conditions (Bouyer et al., 2017; Du et al., 2012). Furthermore, transposable elements (TEs) show DNA methylation in all three contexts, resulting in TE silencing and promoting genome stability (Matzke & Mosher, 2014). Given the wide range of genome sizes in plants, and the positive relationship between genome size and TE proportion in the genome (Kidwell, 2002), plant species show a broad variation in the level of DNA methylation, that was found to be related to phylogenetic relationships and species genome size (Alonsoet al., 2019a; Alonso et al., 2015; Vidalis et al., 2016).

The genomic and ecological features that could be associated to the broad variation in levels of DNA methylation mentioned above are still poorly understood. Particularly for non-model plant species, contrasting evidences have been found regarding their variation across natural populations and geographic-climatic gradients (see e. g. De Kort et al., 2020; Galanti et al., 2022; Lamka et al., 2022; Richards et al., 2017; Richards et al., 2010). In particular, global DNA methylation tends to be lower in woody plants than perennial herbs, as well as in genomes of widespread species compared to species with restricted geographic distributions (Alonso et al., 2019a). Relevance of such life history traits when controlling for phylogenetic relatedness remains largely unexplored and, thus, studies focused on analyzing natural variation in DNA methylation of related species with contrasting ecological features should be particularly valuable to better understand

epigenomic similarities and divergences within and across plant species (Medrano et al., 2020 and references therein; Noshay & Springer, 2021). Reduced representation bisulfite DNA sequencing (RRBS) allows characterization of DNA methylation from a reduced portion of the genome and can be applied to species even when no reference genome is available, as it is usually the case for plants with narrow distribution ranges (Paun et al., 2019). Despite limitations, RRBS can provide quantitative methylation information at the different sequence contexts (CpG, CHG, CHH), together with an estimate of methylation similarity across individuals and differentiation between populations and species, and may lead to some functional characterization of methylated regions when an annotated reference genome of close relatives and/or complementary RNAseq data is available (Chen et al., 2015; Hsu et al., 2017; Kreutz et al., 2020; Nunn et al., 2021; Paun et al., 2019).

In this study, we explore the DNA methylation variation in natural plant populations of two *Erodium* species co-occurring in Cazorla mountain ranges (South East Spain): the endemic woody perennial *E. cazorlanum*, and the widespread annual herb *E. cicutarium*. Given the differences in habitat specialization, distribution range and life history of these two congeneric species, we predict they could differ in their genome-wide DNA methylation level and in the way epigenetic variation is structured within and among populations throughout a geographical area where both species co-exist. In particular, we predict that (1) individuals of the endemic *E. cazorlanum* will exhibit higher diversity in genomic methylation levels than genetic variants, and (2) that epigenetic variability should be less structured in space in the endemic species compared to its widespread congener given the expected reduced range in suitable environmental conditions for the former. To address so, we generated Restriction site-Associated DNA sequencing (RADseq) data, both untreated and treated with bisulfite (bsRADseq, Trucchi et al.,

2016), from leaf DNA of the two *Erodium* species, each collected from three different

localities. First, we checked for population genetic structure in each species using the

single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) obtained from RADseq data. We then estimated

the percentage of DNA methylation per cytosine in the three methylation contexts to

search for quantitative and qualitative differences in genome-wide DNA methylation at

the species and locality levels using the bsRADseq data. Next, we identified differentially

methylated cytosines (DMCs), used them to estimate population epigenetic structure in

each species, and summarized them in differentially methylated regions (DMRs) to

characterize genomic loci potentially under divergent epigenetic regulation, at locality

and species level. Challenges derived from using a single incomplete reference genome

to analyze both species are discussed at the end.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study species and sample collection

Erodium cazorlanum (Heywood) is an endemic, long-lived woody perennial plant,

typically associated to a few dolomite outcrops in Sierra de Cazorla-Segura-Las Villas

Natural Park (Jaén, SE Spain) (Alonso & García-Sevilla, 2013). *Erodium cicutarium* (L.)

L'Hér. is a widespread, herbaceous annual plant species with a fast life-cycle, frequently

associated with ruderal habitats, and to more developed soils within the same study area

(Fiz-Palacios *et al.,* 2010). The genome size of *E. cicutarium* has been estimated to range

from 1.2 to 2.7 Gbps (Pustahija et al., 2013; Zonneveld, 2019), different ploidy levels

have been reported from different geographic regions, ranging from diploid to tetraploid

(Pustahija et al., 2013; Zonneveld, 2019), and preliminary data suggest our plants have

$2n = 40$ chromosomes. Genomic information about *E. cazorlanum* is scarce, but its

estimated genome size is 8.1 Gbps (Alonso *et al.* unpublished data), it is described as an

octoploid (Alonso & García-Sevilla, 2013; Blanca et al., 2009) and preliminary data

suggest our plants have $2n = 80$ chromosomes.

Young fully-developed leaves from 18 *E. cazorlanum* and 18 *E. cicutarium* individuals

were collected at flowering within three localities per species in Sierra de Cazorla-Segura-

Las Villas Natural Park (Jaén, Spain, **Figure 1**). The number of individuals per locality

was selected based on available information on minimum sample sizes required for

accurate estimates of intra- and inter-population genetic diversity based on high-

throughput DNA sequencing (Nazareno et al., 2017). The study localities (hereafter

populations) were Fuente Bermejo (FB), Puerto Lézar (PL), and Puerto del Tejo (PT) for

E. cazorlanum; and Nava Correhuelas (CH), Fuente Bermejo (FB), and Puerto del Tejo

(PT) for *E. cicutarium*. Horizontal distances between the nearest and farthest sampling

sites were 7.5 and 19.4 km for *E. cazorlanum* (FB-PL and PL-PT, respectively), and 2.1

and 11.5 km for *E. cicutarium* (CH-FB and FB-PT, respectively). Note that despite

sharing some sampling localities, the two species were located in separated patches due

to differences in soil requirements (Moreno, 2008). Sampling details are thoroughly

described in (Medrano et al., 2020).

2.2. DNA extraction, library preparation, sequencing and quality check

Total genomic DNA was extracted using Bioline ISOLATE II Plant DNA Kit and

quantified using a Qubit fluorometer 2.0 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).

The RADseq library preparation followed the general steps from (Balao et al., 2023) (see

Supplementary Materials & Methods for details). Half the DNA yield per sample was

treated with bisulfite to generate bsRADseq libraries (Trucchi et al., 2016), the other half

remained untreated for generating RADseq libraries.

Both untreated and bisulfite-treated DNA samples were sequenced at the VBCF Vienna

(https://www.viennabiocenter.org/vbcf/next-generation-sequencing/) as paired-end 2 x

150 bp reads, a single lane of an Illumina HiSeq 2500 machine was used for the untreated

samples of the two species (RADseq) and another lane was used for the bisulfite-treated

samples (bsRADseq). Reads are accessible through the sequence read archive (SRA)

from NCBI, under BioProject ID PRJNA1071520. The reads were demultiplexed with

deML (Renaud et al., 2015), and then STACKS v2.41 (Rochette & Catchen, 2017),

discarding reads with low quality scores according to default parameters. Demultiplexed

reads were trimmed and cleansed from Illumina adapter sequences with Trimmomatic

v0.39 (Bolger et al., 2014) using the options '*TrimmomaticPE -phred33*

ILLUMINACLIP:adapterList:2:30:10 *LEADING:28* *TRAILING:28*

SLIDINGWINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:30'.

2.3. Population genetics analysis

A draft genome of *E. cicutarium* based on PacBio single-molecule long-read sequencing

and Illumina short-reads sequencing was assembled and annotated (see **Supplementary**

Materials & Methods for the details). The draft genome v2 is available at NCBI

Genome, under accession JBDFRG000000000; PacBio reads are available at NCBI SRA,

under BioProject ID PRJNA984161. Trimmed reads from the RADseq libraries were

aligned to the *E. cicutarium* draft genome v2 using *bowtie2* v2.2.5 (Langmead &

Salzberg, 2012) with the '*--very-sensitive*' option. Mapped reads were analyzed with the

STACKS script *ref_map.pl*, and then single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were

filtered using STACKS binary *populations* with options '*-r 0.83 --min_maf 0.05 --*

max_obs_het 0.7 --vcf --write_single_snp'. For each species separately, remaining SNPs

were analyzed with PLINK v1.90b7 (Purcell et al., 2007) to perform Principal

Component Analysis (PCA) to summarize the genomic variation. Further, each SNP

dataset was analyzed with ADMIXTURE v1.3.0 (Alexander & Lange, 2011) to test the

population genetic structure of each species, testing for K values from 1 to 6, choosing

the best fit for the K value with the lowest cross-validation error. Pairwise genetic distance

matrices between individuals within a species were generated from the SNP dataset using

the *distance* function of PLINK, that calculates pairwise identity-by-state (IBS) distances

based on allele counts from alleles shared for each pairwise comparison. As an alternative

approach, additional analyses for SNP calling and population structure were performed

with different model assumptions as implemented in the genotype likelihood-based

methods of *ANGSD* (Korneliussen et al., 2014) and *NGSadmix* (Skotte et al., 2013) (see

Supplementary Materials & Methods for details). Despite being developed for diploid

organisms, ANGSD was suggested as a powerful approach to disentangle genetic patterns

in heteroploid datasets (Zaveska et al., 2019). Naturally occurring C/T polymorphic sites

found in any of the two RADseq dataset were masked in the *E. cicutarium* genome for

downstream analyses.

2.4. Alignment of bisulfite converted reads to genome

Trimmed reads from the bsRADseq were aligned to the same *E. cicutarium* draft genome

using *bismark* v0.23.1 (Krueger & Andrews, 2011), with *Bowtie2* as base aligner

(Langmead & Salzberg, 2012), using the following options: *'--bowtie2 --non_directional*

--most_valid_alignments 2 --L 32 --D 10 --R 1 --score_min L,0,0.2'. For each individual,

we checked the summary report recording the mapping efficiency, the number of

cytosines screened, and the distribution among the different contexts (CpG, CHG, and

CHH). The next step was to extract the methylation information of each cytosine position

using *bismark_methylation_extractor*, with the options *'--no_overlap --ignore 4 --report*

--bedGraph --counts --CX'. As in each read pair, the read corresponding to the sonicated

end incorporates an unmethylated cytosine in its first position during library construction,

which then is exposed to bisulfite treatment, bisulfite conversion rate (BCR) was

calculated for each sample using the formula $100 * T / (T + C)$, where T and C are the

respective percentage of thymines and cytosines in the first position of the 2nd paired read

(Krueger, 2013).

217 2.5. Global DNA methylation analysis

Unless otherwise stated, all statistical analyses were performed using R v4.1.2 (R Core

Team, 2023). The number of methylated cytosines and total number of genomic positions

analyzed per individual was extracted from *bismark* reports with a custom R script.

Global effects associated to species and population divergence on global genome

methylation levels were analyzed with a GLM with quasibinomial distribution and logit

link, using *emmeans* (Lenth, 2023) and *lme4* (Bates et al., 2015) R packages. The

dependent variable was the overall proportion of methylated to unmethylated cytosines

per individual, and the formula included species as fixed factor and populations of each

separate species as a nested fixed factor (formula: proportion of methylated cytosines ~

species + species : population). The same process was done for each methylation context

separately (CpG, CHG, CHH).

229 2.6. Differential methylation analysis

Detection of differentially methylated cytosines (DMCs) between populations was

conducted with *DSS* v2.46.0 R package (Feng et al., 2014; Park & Wu, 2016). *DSS* is

based on a beta-binomial regression model with arcsine link function, and it takes

advantage of shrinkage estimation of the dispersion parameter based on a Bayesian

hierarchical model to reduce the dependence of variance on mean. P-values were adjusted

for multiple testing using the Benjamini and Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR)

procedure, retaining those with FDR < 0.05 (Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995). Analyses

were conducted for each species separately. Although *DSS* allowed fitting a model with a single factor with three populations as levels, handling RRBS data reduces the probability of finding single cytosine positions well covered for all three populations (i.e., a position showing acceptable coverage for two populations, but not covered in the remaining population), which would discard potential DMCs due to insufficient coverage. Thus, differences in cytosine methylation between pairs of populations were calculated fitting the data to one-factor models consisting in pairs of populations, generating six datasets (FB x PL, FB x PT and PL x PT for *E. cazorlanum*; CH x FB, CH x PT and FB x PT for *E. cicutarium*). A position was considered a DMC when its FDR between populations was < 0.05, and the difference in methylation was > 20 % between any of the paired-population comparisons. This approach implies that the definition of hyper- and hypo-methylation is relative: a single DMC can be considered as hyper-methylated in one or more populations, and at the same time hypo-methylated in other population(s). Number of overlapping DMCs (either hyper- or hypo-methylated DMCs) from two populations were analyzed with a hypergeometric test to investigate whether overlaps were greater than expected by chance.

Hierarchical clustering and visualization based on methylation percentage per DMC was calculated and plotted using *pheatmap* R package (Kolde 2019). The variation observed in percentage of methylation across DMCs was also analyzed with non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) in *vegan* R package (Oksanen et al., 2022), with 100 random starting configurations and choosing the Manhattan distance method. Sets of DMCs which showed 100 % methylation in a single individual and methylation percentages close to zero in the rest of the individuals were named "drastic" DMCs, the rest of DMCs were named "gradual" DMCs. Hierarchical clustering and NMDS analyses were performed again with only "gradual" DMCs.

Epigenetic Euclidean distance matrices between individuals within a species were

calculated from the methylation percentage matrix of gradual DMCs using *vegan* R

package (Oksanen et al., 2022). The complete DMC set and only "gradual" DMC set

epigenetic matrices were compared with previously calculated genetic distance matrices

with a Mantel test, to test for intra-specific Spearman correlation between genetic and

epigenetic distance, with 9,999 permutations, using *vegan* R package. Additional

Mantel's tests to check the relationship between genetic and epigenetic distances were

also performed on each separated methylation context (CpG, CHG and CHH).

Differentially methylated regions (DMRs) between populations were detected using

callDMRs() function from the *DSS* package with default parameters. Methylation site

density (MSD) per DMR was calculated by dividing the number of DMCs found in the

DMR by the total length in base pairs of the respective DMR. After observing the MSD

frequency distribution, percentile 90 of each population comparison's MSD distribution

was calculated and used as threshold to filter potential false positive DMRs (i. e. long

DMRs with a relatively small number of DMCs). A DMR was retained when three or

more DMCs were present within a genomic region with a minimum length of 50 bps and

when its MSD value was higher than the percentile 90 of the MSD distribution for the

analyzed comparison. After considering the biological differences of CpG, CHG and

CHH methylation contexts, we opted to call DMRs as groups of DMCs from the same

methylation context (CpG, CHG and CHH).

2.7. Inter-species comparison

The mean percentage of uniquely mapped bsRADseq reads to *E. cicutarium* draft

reference genome was 19.00 % [13.6 % - 25.6 %] for *E. cazorlanum* samples, and 58.40

% [47.2 % - 72.6 %] for *E. cicutarium* samples (**Supplementary Table S1**), which

showed statistically significant differences (ANOVA F statistic = 515.91, df = 1, P-value

< 0.001). Given the different mapping rates, biases in differential methylation analysis

were expected when cytosine and methylated cytosine coverages were compared between

species. Thus, a normalization factor was applied to *E. cicutarium* read counts before

comparing methylation levels between species. The normalization factor was calculated

as the mean mapping efficiency from *E. cazorlanum* samples divided by the mean

mapping efficiency for *E. cicutarium*, and *E. cicutarium* read counts were normalized by

multiplying both the coverage and methylated cytosines counts per locus by the obtained

normalization factor. Raw read counts in *E. cazorlanum* and normalized read counts in *E.*

cicutarium were used for DMC and DMR calling analyses in the interspecies comparison.

Priors for considering a DMC and a DMR were the same as the ones explained in previous

sections above.

2.8. Functional characterization of differentially methylated regions

DMCs included in DMRs that overlapped either with exons, introns, 5' UTRs, 3' UTRs

or intergenic regions as described in the *E. cicutarium* draft genome were identified with

custom scripts. DMCs that overlapped with repeated elements from the *E. cicutarium*

genome, including transposable elements (TEs), were retrieved with the *CNEr* R package

(Tan et al., 2019). Fisher's exact test was used to test whether the proportion of TEs

overlapping with the *E. cicutarium* set of DMCs/DMRs was over- or under-represented

compared to the proportion of all the TEs present in the *E. cicutarium* draft genome.

GO terms were extracted from the gene annotation file of the *E. cicutarium* draft genome

with a custom script. Lists of DMRs overlapping with annotated genes were then analyzed

with *topGO* (Alexa & Rahnenfuhrer, 2023) to find enriched GO terms in each DMR list,

using a weighted Fisher's exact test and correcting the p-value with FDR. A GO term was

considered enriched/over-represented in a set when the FDR < 0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Sequencing quality and bisulfite treatment efficiency.

For the 36 samples, Illumina sequencing produced a total of 332.2 million 2 x 150 bp length paired-end reads for RADseq (ranging from 3.4 to 12.2 million per sample in *E. cazorlanum*, and from 4.4 to 33.8 million per sample in *E. cicutarium*), and a total of 323.4 million 2 x 150 bp length paired-end reads for bsRADseq (ranging from 3 to 13.6 million per sample in *E. cazorlanum*, and from 3.8 to 30 million per sample in *E. cicutarium*). After removing adapters and checking the distribution of sequencing quality per nucleotide, 315.3 million reads were retained in the RADseq, and 302.4 million reads remained in the bsRADseq. Mean bisulfite conversion rate per sample was 99.09 % [99.07 % - 99.13 %] (**Supplementary Table S1**).

3.2. Genetic polymorphism and population structure

A total of 24,977 SNPs in *E. cazorlanum* and 31,696 SNPs in *E. cicutarium* passed the filtering process. In the endemic *E. cazorlanum*, the PCA shows clustering by sampling locality mainly on PC1, but the position of the groups did not follow a geographical pattern, with some individuals from different localities positioned very close together in the multidimensional PCA. Individuals from the FB population appeared more clearly separated from the other two populations, although all principal components explained less than 10 % of the variance on their own (**Figure 1**). ADMIXTURE considered *E. cazorlanum* as a single genetic entity (K = 1) based on minimizing the cross-validation error, whereas higher numbers of potential populations did not differentiate between the different localities. For the widespread *E. cicutarium*, the PCA shows three separated groups: one with all the individuals from CH and FB populations, another with four individuals from PT population, and the third one with two individuals from PT

population (**Figure 1**); the difference between the first two groups is supported by PC1

(20.3 % of explained variance) and the difference between the first and third group is

described by PC2 (13.5 % of explained variance). ADMIXTURE again considered *E.*

cicutarium individuals as a single genetic entity (K = 1) based on the cross validation

error (**Supplementary Figure S1**). **Figure 1** shows assignment of *E. cazorlanum* and *E.*

cicutarium individuals to subpopulations, assuming models with two to six

subpopulations. **Supplementary Table S2** shows the cross-validation error values.

Alternative analyses performed with the genotype likelihood-based method of *ANGSD*

showed consistent results with the ones shown above (see **Supplementary Materials &**

Methods for details).

3.3. Global DNA methylation analysis.

Bismark analyzed a total of 11,921,613 cytosines in any methylation context (1.49 % of

E. cicutarium draft genome total length). Percentages of global DNA methylation ranged

from 6.66 % to 12.71 % in the endemic *E. cazorlanum* and from 7.76 % to 11.07 % in the

widespread *E. cicutarium* (**Supplementary Table S1**). Within species variance of global

methylation percentages was higher for *E. cazorlanum* (**Table 1**). **Figure 2** shows the

methylated cytosine percentages per sequence context by species and by population. On

average, there were significant differences between the two species in the ratio of

methylated to unmethylated cytosines per individual (**Table 2**) with the genomes of *E.*

cazorlanum being more methylated (mean $\pm$ SD $= 9.51 \pm 1.83$) compared to *E. cicutarium*

(mean $\pm$ SD $= 9.08 \pm 0.94$). Similar results were also obtained for each of the three

methylation contexts (**Table 2**, **Supplementary Figure S2**). Differences in percentages

of global DNA methylation were also statistically significant between the study

populations within a species, as were all pairwise within-species population contrasts

(**Table 2**, **Supplementary Figure S2**). Further, within species variance was always higher for *E. cazorlanum* global and context specific methylation percentages (**Table 1**).

3.4. Differential cytosine methylation analysis within species.

A total of 12,795 and 16,131 naturally occurring C/T polymorphic sites obtained from RADseq analyses were masked in bsRADseq data before analyses in *E. cazorlanum* (0.11 % of analyzed Cs) and *E. cicutarium* (0.14 % of analyzed Cs), respectively. For *E. cazorlanum*, a total of 13,643 DMCs (5,632 CpG, 2,605 CHG, 5,406 CHH) were detected between the three populations (ca. 0.11 % of total analyzed Cs), and 47,615 DMCs (ca. 0.40 % of total analyzed Cs) were detected between the three populations of *E. cicutarium* (20,670 CpG, 8,278 CHG, 18,667 CHH; **Supplementary Figure S3**, **Supplementary Tables S3, S4, S5**). In each of the two species, the number of overlapping hyper- or hypo-methylated DMCs between each population pair was never significantly greater than expected by chance (hypergeometric test, P-value = 1, **Supplementary Figures S4, S5**). The overlap of DMCs between species was also not greater than predicted by chance either (hypergeometric test, P-value = 1, **Supplementary Figure S6**).

Hierarchical clustering of DMCs showed that most clusters were defined by cytosines with "drastic" changes in methylation percentage within the study dataset (i. e., 100 % methylation for one individual and ca. 0 % methylation for the rest, **Supplementary Figure S7**). Removing these "drastic" DMCs and leaving only those with "gradual" change in methylation percentage still did not group samples following a clear population structure in any of the two species (**Figure 3, Supplementary Figure S7**). When analyzing the "gradual" DMCs by separated methylation context, the CpG context DMCs showed clusters with at least three samples from the same population for *E. cazorlanum*, and more patently for *E. cicutarium*; while CHG and CHH contexts did not group more

than three samples from the same population within any cluster (**Supplementary Figures S8, S9**).

Multivariate analysis based on all DMCs showed no clear population segregation in *E. cazorlanum* and a slight differentiation of the PT population for *E. cicutarium* (**Figure 3**). The same analysis, but performed only with gradual DMCs, marginally increased the differentiation of PT population from FB and CH in *E. cicutarium*, while not affecting *E. cazorlanum* grouping pattern (**Figure 3**). Performing multivariate analyses with DMCs separated by context did not improve segregation of populations (**Supplementary Figures S10, S11**).

Mantel tests revealed no statistically significant correlation between pairwise genetic and epigenetic distances across individuals in any of the two study species (*E. cazorlanum*: Mantel's $R = 0.104$, p-value $= 0.271$; *E. cicutarium*: Mantel's $R = 0.003$, p-value $= 0.471$). When considering epigenetic distances exclusively for each separate methylation context, Mantel tests also showed no statistical significance (p-value > 0.05).

3.5. Genomic and functional characterization of DMRs.

Only DMRs with high density of DMCs (defined as DMRs above the percentile 90 of the MSD distribution; **Supplementary Figure S12, Supplementary Table S6**) were selected for further characterization. **Supplementary Table S7** shows the full list of DMRs that passed the filter, including a total of 43 DMRs defined between populations of the endemic *E. cazorlanum* that vary in length between 53 and 165 bp, and 145 DMRs defined between populations of the widespread *E. cicutarium* that vary in length between 51 and 343 bp. GO term enrichment analysis did not reveal enriched GO terms in any set of DMRs. In *E. cazorlanum*, we found 19 DMRs whose available annotation was associated with genes involved in plant development, amino acid metabolism, or stress

response. In *E. cicutarium*, 49 out of 145 DMRs showed available annotation, and were

associated with plant development, stress response, signaling, and cell wall homeostasis,

among other biological processes.

The two species showed an overall similar pattern regarding DMR overlapping with

genomic features (**Figure 4**). DMRs in CpG context (17 in *E. cazorlanum*, 18 in *E.*

cicutarium) overlapped most frequently with exons in both species (93.8 % in *E.*

cazorlanum, 61.1 % in *E. cicutarium*), while DMRs in CHH context (24 in *E. cazorlanum*,

125 in *E. cicutarium*) overlapped evenly with exons, introns and intergenic regions. The

number of DMRs in CHG context (three in *E. cazorlanum*, two in *E. cicutarium*, all

overlapping with exons) is too low to reach any clear conclusion. Altogether, from the 43

DMRs found in *E. cazorlanum*, 29 (67.4 %) overlapped with exons, six (14.0 %) did so

with introns, four (9.3 %) with intergenic regions, two overlapped simultaneously with

an exon and an intron (4.7 %), one with a 5'UTR (2.3 %), and one (2.3 %) with a 3' UTR.

We found more evenly distributed overlaps in the 145 DMRs found between populations

of *E. cicutarium*: 44 (30.6 %) overlapped with intergenic regions, 42 (29.2 %) with exons,

41 (28.5 %) with introns, eleven with an exon and an intron (7.6 %), four (2.8 %) with a

3'UTR, one with an intron and a 3'UTR (0.7 %) and one with a 5'UTR and an exon (0.7

%). A higher proportion of DMRs was found in intergenic regions in *E. cicutarium* (30.56

%) compared to *E. cazorlanum* (9.30 %).

Regarding DMRs overlapping with transposable elements (TEs), most of them occurred

in DMRs associated to CHH methylation context: 14 out of 15 DMRs overlapping with

TEs involved methylation changes in CHH in *E. cazorlanum* (93.33 %), and all the 26

DMRs overlapping with TEs in *E. cicutarium* involved only methylation changes in CHH

(**Figure 4**). In *E. cazorlanum*, TEs with most overlaps with DMRs were LTRs (with

eleven *Copia* and two *Gypsy* elements overlapping with a DMR), followed by three DNA

TEs (one *MULE-MuDR*, one *CMC-EnSpm*, and one uncharacterized DNA element

overlapping with a DMR). For *E. cicutarium*, the most overlapped TE family was also

Copia with 13 DMRs, in addition, it showed six *LINE/L1*, three *PIF-Harbingers*, one

MULE-MuDR, one *hAT-Tag1*, one *CMC-EnSpm*, and one *Gypsy* element overlapping

with DMRs. **Supplementary Table S8** shows all overlaps between a DMR with a

genome feature, a TE, or both.

The set of DMRs from *E. cicutarium* showed a higher than expected proportion of

overlaps with *Copia* TEs compared with the proportion of *Copia* TEs in the genome of

E. cicutarium (χ^2 = 3.522, df = 1, p-value = 0.045, **Supplementary Figure S13,**

Supplementary Table S9). An analogous analysis in *E. cazorlanum* was not conducted

because the TE set in *E. cazorlanum* genome may be substantially different from *E.*

cicutarium genome, making the comparison between *E. cazorlanum* TEs in DMRs and

E. cicutarium TE genome set inadequate.

3.6. Comparative analysis between species.

Given the difference in read mapping efficiency between species (**Supplementary**

Figure 14), we used the ratio between mean mapping efficiencies (0.33) as normalization

factor when comparing *E. cicutarium* read coverage values with *E. cazorlanum*. First, we

compared samples from *E. cazorlanum* and *E. cicutarium* before normalization of *E.*

cicutarium read counts, detecting 10,765 DMCs (2,790 CpG, 2,272 CHG, 5,703 CHH)

and 113 DMRs (12 CpG, 24 CHG, 77 CHH). After normalization, we found 13,744

DMCs (6,739 CpG, 2,154 CHG, 4,851 CHH, **Supplementary Table S10,**

Supplementary Figure S14) and 183 DMRs (109 CpG, 23 CHG, 51 CHH), which were

reduced to 19 DMR (5 CpG, 2 CHG, 12 CHH) after filtering by MSD (**Supplementary**

Table S11, Supplementary Figures S14, S15). Similarity in the number of DMCs before

and after normalization was significantly greater than expected for all contexts

(hypergeometric test, P-value < 0.001), although the direction of the loss of DMCs was

not the same for the three sequence contexts: 3,961, 232, and 351 DMCs were gained,

while 12, 350 and 1,203 DMCs were lost after normalization in CpG, CHG and CHH

contexts, respectively. Before and after normalization, *E. cicutarium* showed more hyper-

methylated CpG sites compared to *E. cazorlanum*, while *E. cazorlanum* showed more

hyper-methylation in CHG and CHH contexts compared to *E. cicutarium*.

Hierarchical clustering based on methylation percentage of the DMCs did not show a

perfect divergence of species, but clades showed a species-like pattern rather than a

population-like pattern, and the use of "gradual" DMCs did not change this pattern

(**Supplementary Figure S16**). Multivariate analyses revealed a separation between

centroids of the two species, a higher dispersion in *E. cicutarium* samples, and little

within-species population variation, either using all DMCs or "gradual" DMCs

(**Supplementary Figure S17**).

Among the 19 inter-specific DMRs obtained, we found association with an endochitinase

(hydrolyses chitin and chitodextrins), *Cytohesin-2* (involved in regulation of protein

sorting and membrane trafficking) and *pre-mRNA-splicing factor CEF1* (involved in cell

cycle control) hyper-methylated in the CHH context in *E. cazorlanum*. The only DMR

hyper-methylated in *E. cicutarium* was associated to the *LTL1* gene (involved in salt

tolerance mechanisms) with increased methylation in the CpG context. Eleven DMRs

from the inter-species comparison overlapped with exons, five with introns, two with an

intergenic region, one with a 3' UTR, and another one with both an exon and an intron.

Ten DMRs from the inter-species comparison overlapped with fourteen TEs. They were

mostly unknown repeats (eight out of 14), but also included three *Copia*, one *Gypsy*, one

SINE/tRNA-V, and one *PIF-Harbinger* elements (**Supplementary Table S12**).

4. Discussion

This study analyzes variation in both DNA sequence (genetic) and cytosine methylation levels (epigenetic) at single-base resolution in natural populations of two *Erodium* species, the endemic *E. cazorlanum* and the widespread *E. cicutarium*, using bsRADseq and the structural and functional annotation provided by a draft reference genome developed *ad hoc* for the study species with the smallest genome (*E. cicutarium*). The two species exhibited sound differences in life history (woody perennial *vs*. annual), habitat specialization (dolomite specialist *vs*. ruderal) and geographic distribution range (local narrow endemic *vs*. world-wide widespread) that allowed us to test the hypothesis that population genetic and epigenetic structure within the region of coexistence would differ according to each species ecological features, with stronger epigenetic than genetic population structure in the least specialized (*E. cicutarium*). Besides, the use of methods that provide accurate genomic information of the methylation markers allowed the identification of a set of candidate genes whose epigenetic regulation might vary across the study localities of each species according to the recorded differences in DNA methylation, paving the avenue towards more specific analysis of adaptive strategies in species with contrasting genomic and ecological features. In the following paragraphs, we will first discuss the limitations of the reduced representation methodology used when applied to species with contrasting genome features and resources (see also Paun et al., 2019). Then, we will discuss the results obtained for our study system and how they reinforce the *a priori* prediction mentioned above.

4.1. Challenges and opportunities of RRBS analyses in plant ecological epigenetics

In absence of any high-quality gapless genome for any species in the *Erodium* genus, RRBS was the best available option to simultaneously detect natural genome and

methylome variants across populations and explore their genomic location. In retrospective, six samples per population were estimated sufficient to reach an appropriate level of representation of what occurs in wild plant populations in genomics studies (Nazareno et al., 2017), and by using RRBS we expected to generate informative methylation datasets when conjointly used with genomic data for the same individuals (Gawehns et al., 2022; Paun et al., 2019). In fact, several studies have successfully identified differentially methylated loci by optimizing RRBS and its downstream analysis in commercial plant species with available reference genome (e.g., *Brassica rapa,* Chen et al., 2015; maize, Hsu et al., 2017). In this study, we succeeded in obtaining differentially methylated cytosines (DMC) and regions (DMR) between populations in the two *Erodium* species with six individuals per population, despite the limited power for differential methylation analysis presumed for the afforded sample sizes (Lea et al., 2017).

Interpretation of the results obtained for the portion of genome here explored should take into account that due to the relatively high GC content in the recognition site of the specific enzyme we used (*Pst*I that cuts at CTGCAG), bsRADseq dataset is enriched for genic regions (Lea et al., 2017; Trucchi et al., 2016) and, thus, quantitative global estimates would be less accurate for genomes with a relative high content of repetitive elements (i.e., in *E. cazorlanum* according to its larger genome size). Nevertheless, percentages of cytosine methylation per sequence context in the two species were consistent among each other and also with those reported for other plant species with complete methylomes, i.e., CpG higher than CHG, CHH being the lowest (Cokus et al., 2008; De Kort et al., 2020; Hsu et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2020). The higher proportion of methylated to unmethylated cytosines obtained in *E. cazorlanum* is consistent with a marked difference in percentages obtained from independent analyses conducted by

HPLC to obtain global DNA methylation estimates for the two species (28.4 % *vs*. 18.2
%; Alonso unpublished data). The sign of divergence in estimates of global DNA
methylation per species could be associated to the largest genome size of *E. cazorlanum*
(Alonso et al., 2015; Vidalis et al., 2016). The higher heterogeneity in overall methylation
estimates of study individuals obtained for *E. cazorlanum* could be due to either genome
size, and some unmeasured micro-environmental features (Valverde et al., 2024) or a
combination of the two effects.

Further, using the reference genome from a close relative species generated a homology
bias during the alignment of the reads that may weaken the potential for functional
annotation of loci with divergent methylation in *E. cazorlanum*. Accordingly, the few
DMRs obtained in *E. cazorlanum* were located in exonic regions, likely due to a higher
similarity in the coding regions of the two species' genomes and not necessarily to
absence of methylation divergence in genomic regions that were not captured (Lea et al.,
2017).

Altogether, our study exemplifies the challenges of applying NGS markers to species with
limited genomic resources and complex genomes. However, conducting epigenomic
studies of such species is compulsory to improve our current understanding of ecological
factors behind the huge variation in global DNA methylation across plant species, that
require a broad phylogenetic perspective (Alonso et al., 2015), and might be useful to
better characterize the sources of variation in DNA methylation at plant ecosystem or
community levels (Alonso et al., 2019b; Boquete et al., 2021). Our results support the use
of RRBS for interspecific comparisons of natural variation in DNA methylation at
difference sequence contexts, and a more restricted power to explore candidate genes and
transposable elements potentially differentially regulated by DNA methylation when
high-quality reference genomes are not available (Paun et al., 2019).

4.2. Genetic and methylation variation in natural populations of *E. cazorlanum* and *E. cicutarium*

In the small geographic area here explored, selected populations of each of the two study species lack or show limited signs of genetic population structure, suggesting they are well connected to each other, showing most genetic variation between individuals from the same population. Whereas this fact should be taken with caution for extrapolation to broader geographic areas, all study individuals could be associated to a single genetic background eventually, making the investigation of methylation variants more straightforward. Spontaneous epimutations, i.e. random changes in methylation status of cytosines, are estimated to be four to five orders of magnitude higher than mutation rate in *Arabidopsis*, which may facilitate the decoupling of methylation variation from genetic variation and some specific contribution to heritable phenotypic variation (Banta & Richards, 2018; Denkena et al., 2021; van der Graaf et al., 2015; Weng et al., 2019). In this study, we found absence of correlation between genetic and epigenetic distances across individuals in the two study species, supporting it would be worth to experimentally exploring their relative contribution to individual phenotypes and their plasticities under controlled environmental conditions (see e.g. Williams et al., 2023).

4.3. Genomic characterization of DNA methylation variants and functional annotation of DMRs

In each of the two species, most methylation changes between individuals with different population of origin were found in CpG and CHH contexts compared to a much lower frequency in CHG. A high level of CHH methylation variation is expected given the sensitivity of this context to environmental changes (Dubin et al., 2015); in fact, there is evidence that epigenetic distance based in CHH methylation differences can be positively

correlated with climatic distance in *Thlaspi arvense* (Galanti et al., 2022). In the endemic *E. cazorlanum*, natural variation in methylation at those DMCs did not exhibit any population structure, regardless the analyses considered all or context-specific DMCs. In the widespread *E. cicutarium*, we found some epigenetic differentiation between the three study populations, supporting our expectation that, in absence of genetic population structure, the broader habitat conditions expected in a widespread species could contribute to larger methylation variance between study individuals at different scales (Valverde et al., 2024).

We only proceed with functional annotation of DMRs because solid experimental evidence has linked methylation gains and losses in large genomic regions (i.e., DMRs) with transcriptional variation and heritable phenotypic effects, whereas the functional relevance of single methylation changes (i.e., DMCs) might be more variable across plant species (De Kort et al., 2022; Denkena et al., 2021). Furthermore, although our analytical procedure based on *Bismark* concentrates exclusively on uniquely mapping reads that in turn will result in a depletion of representation of repetitive genomic elements, there was also a fair number of DMRs overlapping with TEs in our *E. cicutarium* data. As a rule, methylation levels in TEs are maintained high in plants to silence their expression and maintain genome stability (Matzke & Mosher, 2014). In our TE annotated bsRADseq data, the *Copia* family was the most abundant, and it was found overlapping with DMRs in a higher than expected proportion compared to the total number of TEs identified in the *E. cicutarium* draft genome. The expression of *Copia* TE family seems stress responsive in several plant species (Ito et al., 2011, 2016; Klein & Anderson, 2022), suggesting that *Copia* elements with CHH methylation islands in promoter regions that have shifted methylation between our study locations might be potentially linked to stress genes' expression regulation. Additional studies in *E. cicutarium*, in which changes in

DNA methylation caused by 5-azacytidine and the effect of recurrent drought were experimentally addressed, also found that induced DMRs were enriched with *Copia* elements (Balao et al., 2023), supporting the idea that this TE family may have a stress-related regulatory function in *E. cicutarium* too.

Finally, deep differences in read coverage obtained for the two species could cause biases in the direct inter-specific comparison of methylation landscapes offered by DMC detection. Following a normalization step to equilibrate coverage inspired in library size normalization for RNA-seq data (Conesa et al., 2016; Zeng & Mortazavi, 2012), we found that the overall number of detected DMCs between the two species was practically the same, although the relative frequency per sequence context changed and more significant methylation changes in CpG were retained after normalization. Further studies comparing two or more related species with a single available reference genome would be required to validate this methodology. Interestingly, main differences in genomic methylation profiles observed by DMC detection between the two study species involved hypermethylation in non-CpG sites in *E. cazorlanum* and hypomethylation of CpG sites, except when included in DMRs that were most frequently hypermethylated in all contexts.

4.4. Conclusions and future steps.

With limited genomic resources typically available for non-model plants of conservation concern, this study compared DNA methylation at single-base resolution in a reduced portion of the genomes of two congeneric species and explored their spatial structure in a small area of coexistence. We found support for (i) an overall higher global DNA methylation in the endemic *E. cazorlanum*, particularly associated to hypermethylation in non-CpG sites, and in agreement with its higher genome size compared to its widespread congener *E. cicutarium*. (ii) The absence of genetic population structure in

the endemic species, and (iii) the lack of correlation between genetic and epigenetic

variation across individuals of both species, suggest that they could have independent

effects on individual phenotypes. Finally, (iv) a slightly higher DNA methylation

divergence between study populations in *E. cicutarium* supports the hypothesis that a

stronger epigenetic, rather than genetic, population structure could be expected in

widespread generalist species (see also Valverde et al. 2024). Future studies should take

the advantage of the genomic resources generated here to link phenotypic, genetic and

epigenetic variation in experimental settings suitable to identify the epigenetic

contribution to plant adaptation to environmental variation.

Author contributions

640 CA obtained funding for the study. MM, FB, OP, CA designed the experimental setting.

641 MM and CA conducted fieldwork, PB performed molecular lab work. RM-B analyzed

642 the data. RM-B wrote the first draft of the paper, with feedback from FB, OP and CA. All

643 co-authors provided comments and suggestions on the final version of the manuscript and

644 approved it.

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Data accessibility and Benefit-generation statement

Illumina raw sequence reads are deposited in the SRA (BioProject PRJNA1071520).

PacBio long reads are also deposited in the SRA (BioProject PRJNA984161). Draft

genome assembly is deposited in NCBI Genome repository (accession JBDFRG

000000000). Scripts are available under personal request to RM-B and CA. Benefits

Generated: Benefits from this research accrue from the sharing of our data and results on

public databases as described above.

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Figures

Figure 1. Genetic population structure of the two study species. A: Study area and localities. Top: map of the Iberian Peninsula showing the area of the Parque Natural Sierras de Cazorla-Segura-Las Villas (delimited by a solid black line) and the sampling area (yellow square). Altitude (masl = meters above sea level) is represented as a grey scale. Bottom: Detail of the sampling area, showing the study localities of *Erodium cazorlanum* and *E. cicutarium*. CH = Nava Correhuelas, FB = Fuente Bermejo, PL = Puerto Lézar, PT= Puerto del Tejo. B: Principal component analysis for *E. cazorlanum* (top) and *E. cicutarium* (bottom) based on SNPs obtained by RADseq. Each biplot shows principal components PC1 and PC2 (together with their percentage of explained variance) in X- and Y-axis, respectively; data points are individuals; populations are shown with different colors and shapes. C: Admixture analysis for *E. cazorlanum* (top) and *E. cicutarium* (bottom) based on SNPs from RADseq. X-axis shows the K value chosen for

974   each model. Y-axis shows all study individuals, with populations enclosed in different

975   boxes. Colors represent different modeled genetic lineages according to the selected K

976   value. Each color within a tile indicates the proportion of SNPs from different modeled

977   lineages.

Figure 2. Variation in levels of DNA methylation in populations of *E. cazorlanum* and *E. cicutarium*. The plots show percent of all the sequenced cytosines that were methylated (top left) and estimates obtained for cytosines in the three methylation contexts: CpG (top right), CHG (bottom left) and CHH (bottom right). On each graph, symbols represent individuals, X-axis shows the study populations of the two *Erodium* species, and Y-axis shows the methylation percentage estimated. Each box shows the median (central line), quartiles 1 and 3 (bottom and top edges of the box), and maximum and minimum values (box whiskers) per population (represented by different colors and shapes). Note that Y-axes have different scales.

Figure 3. Epigenetic population structure of the two *Erodium* species. A: Hierarchical

individual clustering according to obtained differentially methylated cytosines (DMCs)

based on percentage of methylation per DMC locus. Top dendrograms correspond to *E.*

cazorlanum (N = 13,643 loci) and bottom dendrograms to *E. cicutarium* (N = 47,615

loci). Each column shows the resulting clustering of all DMCs (left) and gradual DMCs

(right), see text for details. Colored tiles attached to each sample ID show the population

of origin. B: Multilocus analysis of individual variation in methylation percentage of all

DMCs (left graphs) and gradual DMCs (right graphs) based on non-metric

multidimensional scaling (NMDS). Top graphs show data for *E. cazorlanum*, bottom

graphs for *E. cicutarium*. X and Y axes show non-linear multidimensional scaling

(NMDS) dimensions NMDS1 and NMDS2, respectively. Colors of data points show the

population of origin.

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Figure 4. Genomic characterization of differentially methylated regions (DMRs) obtained for the two *Erodium* species. A: Genomic features overlapping with DMRs. X-axis shows the species and DMR methylation context (*E. cazorlanum*: CpG = 16, CHG = 3, CHH = 24; *E. cicutarium*: CpG = 18, CHG = 2, CHH = 125). Y-axis shows the numbers of DMRs found overlapping with each of the five different genomic features distinguished (exon, intron, 5'UTR, 3'UTR and intergenic regions). B: Transposable elements overlapping with DMRs. X-axis shows the species and DMR methylation context (*E. cazorlanum*: CpG = 1, CHG = 0, CHH = 14; *E. cicutarium*: CpG = 0, CHG = 0, CHH = 27). Y-axis shows the number of DMRs found overlapping with each of the nine families of TEs distinguished.

1016 **Tables**

1017 **Table 1.** Coefficients of variation of global DNA methylation percentages. First column

1018 shows each methylation context. Each set of four columns shows information related to

1019 each species. The first column of each species set shows CV from all populations, the

1020 three remaining columns show CVs for each population.

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CVs	E. cazorlanum				E. cicutarium			
	Overall	FB	PL	PT	Overall	CH	FB	PT
Total Cs	18.72 %	22.54 %	13.59 %	12.54 %	9.74%	7.55%	12.30 %	5.41%
CpG	9.28%	10.77 %	9.79%	7.65%	6.51%	3.85%	5.42%	3.34%
CHG	42.69 %	52.90 %	26.94 %	28.58 %	27.24 %	25.79 %	32.99 %	17.68 %
CHH	35.50 %	47.68 %	22.61 %	23.31 %	17.93 %	13.91 %	20.25 %	13.14 %

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Table 2. Global cytosine methylation differences at species and population level. First

column shows the set of cytosines for which a binomial distribution model was run to

test whether the difference between the proportion of methylated to unmethylated

cytosines (mC / uC) was statistically significant. Columns two to four show log-ratio χ2,

degrees of freedom, and p-value for species. Columns five to seven show the same for

populations within species.

Proportion of mC / uC	Species			Species:Population		
	LR χ^2	d.f.	P-value	LR χ^2	d.f.	P-value
Total Cs	74,280	1	< 0.001	918,941	4	< 0.001
CpG	2,118	1	< 0.001	627,781	4	< 0.001
CHG	146,988	1	< 0.001	498,203	4	< 0.001
CHH	340,129	1	< 0.001	426,370	4	< 0.001

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