Transposable elements are prevalent vectors of transgenerational epigenetic inheritance in nature

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Abstract

Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance (TEI) mediated by transposable elements (TEs) is well established in plants. However, the molecular determinants and functional impact of this additional system of inheritance are poorly characterized. Through comprehensive analyses of severe DNA methylation loss over TEs in an experimental population and in >700 natural strains of *Arabidopsis thaliana*, we uncovered hundreds of TE epivariants in nature, most of which can be inherited independently of DNA sequence changes and thus are true epialleles. Furthermore, natural epivariants are enriched near genes and we uncovered a novel role for the Paf1 complex as a major facilitator of their prevalence. Conversely, related TE copies limit epiallelic variation, by producing the small RNAs that guide DNA methylation in *trans*. Crucially, natural epivariants mainly affect stress-responsive genes, making them unique targets for selection. Our findings therefore demonstrate that TEs are important mediators of transgenerational epigenetic variation in nature, with singular properties for plant adaptation.

Introduction

Transposable elements (TEs) are ubiquitous in eukaryotic genomes, contributing over 80 percent of nuclear DNA in some species[1]. Most TEs are ancestral copies that long lost their ability to transpose, hence their designation as "junk" DNA[2–4]. However, the rise of genomics has uncovered their key role as a source of biological innovations at the macroevolutionary scale[1,5–7]. In addition, the few mobile TEs contained within genomes can generate large-effect mutations (see[8–11] for examples) and within-species genomic studies have revealed that TE mobilization is widespread in natural settings[12,13]. Moreover, work in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* has shown that in this species, mobile TEs that are the most active in nature insert preferentially near or within genes[14–16], often leading to complete knock outs in the latter case. Hence, novel TE insertions tend to be rapidly purged by natural selection in *A. thaliana*[14,15], which in turn suggests that the vast majority of ancestral TE insertions present across the genome have accumulated by genetic drift because they were neutral or only mildly deleterious at the outset.

In plants and mammals, DNA methylation plays important roles in limiting transposition, yet this chromatin modification targets ancestral TEs too[17–19]. Thus, despite being mere fossils, these sequences may therefore still exert an influence on the expression of the surrounding genes[20,21] and contribute to phenotypic diversity, simply as a result of variation in DNA methylation and independently of DNA sequence changes. Moreover, because this modification is not extensively reset across generations in plants[22–24], unlike in mammals[25,26], plants may be particularly prone to TE-mediated transgenerational epigenetic inheritance (TEI)[27,28]. Indeed, a number of "pure" TE-mediated epialleles[29,30] involving fossil TEs and with striking phenotypes have been reported in plants, including *Bad Karma* in oil palm, which blocks fruit development[31] and *fwa* in *A. thaliana,* which delays flowering[32–34]. By contrast, similar examples are few in mammals and all exhibit complex inheritance patterns, which questions their epiallelic nature[35].

While the existence of TE-mediated TEI in plants is undisputed[36], its modalities, extent, and phenotypic impact remain poorly understood[27,29]. Here we aimed to provide answers to these questions using *A. thaliana*, where mutants with severe loss of DNA methylation at TEs and other repeated sequences are viable and fertile[37–39], unlike in other plants with a much higher TE content[40,41].

In *A. thaliana*, cytosine DNA methylation is carried out by four main DNA methyltransferases
(MTases), MET1, CMT3, CMT2 and DRM2, which all target TEs and contribute to the stable
epigenetic inheritance of heavy DNA methylation over TEs[18,42–44]. MET1 is the ortholog of
mammalian CG-maintenance MTase Dnmt1, while CMT2 and CMT3 are plant-specific
chromodomain-containing DNA MTases that catalyze respectively CHH and CHG methylation
(where H=A, C or T), in feedforward loops with histone MTases that deposit the heterochromatic
mark H3K9me2. In contrast to these three DNA MTases, DRM2, the ortholog of the mammalian
de novo DNA MTase Dnmt3, is responsible for RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM) in all
cytosine contexts, a process guided by 24-nt small RNAs that mainly serves to perpetuate CHH
methylation at TEs, especially those not targeted by CMT2. Maintenance of high levels of DNA
methylation of TEs requires many other factors, among which the Snf2-like chromatin remodeler
DDM1 is pivotal[18,42], by allowing DNA MTases to access heterochromatin[45]. Indeed, *ddm1*
mutants exhibit severe hypomethylation almost exclusively over TE and other repeat
sequences[34,45,46]. Moreover, early work showed that *ddm1*-induced loss of DNA methylation can
be stably inherited even in the absence of the inducing mutation[37]. Capitalizing on this property,
which results from the disruption of the intricate interplay between DDM1 and histone variants[47],
a population of *ddm1*-derived epigenetic recombinant lines (so-called epiRILs) was generated
that led to the discovery of a large reservoir of potential epialleles affecting complex traits[48–50]
and of the key role of RdDM in limiting TEI at some DDM1 targets[51].

In the present study, we produced DNA methylation data at single cytosine resolution for 120
epiRILs to dissect out the molecular determinants of TE-mediated TEI. We then combined this
new information with genome sequence, DNA methylome, transcriptome, phenotypic and geo-
bioclimatic data available for hundreds of *A. thaliana* strains taken from across the world[52–55] to
characterize comprehensively this additional system of inheritance in nature. By uncovering the
genetic and genomic features that may limit or promote heritable DNA methylation variation at
TEs in this setting and assess its functional impact, we illuminate the molecular underpinnings of
TE-mediated TEI in plants as well as its biological and evolutionary significance.

Results

Inheritance patterns of *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation differ markedly between TEs

To elucidate the molecular underpinnings of TE-mediated TEI in *A. thaliana*, we examined the inheritance patterns of *ddm1*-induced severe loss of DNA methylation in the *ddm1*-derived epiRIL population[48]. Briefly, this population was produced by crossing a *ddm1* parent with an isogenic WT parent of the reference strain Col-0 and by propagating through single seed descent over 500 backcross progeny without the *ddm1* mutant allele. Using WGBS-seq, we obtained DNA methylome data at single nucleotide resolution for 120 epiRILs taken at generation F9 as well as for the *ddm1* and WT parental lines. We identified in total 25,462 regions with marked differences in DNA methylation (DMRs) between the two parental lines (Fig. S1-2, Dataset S1-2; see Methods). Taking as genetic markers a subset of 1,092 regularly spaced DMRs that segregate in a manner compatible with Mendelian inheritance (Dataset S3; see Methods), we inferred for each epiRIL its epihaplotype along the five *A. thaliana* chromosomes (Fig. 1a, S2e, S3; see Methods). We then selected a stringent set of 7,023 DMRs (Table S1) that are fully contained within TE annotations (designated thereafter as TE-DMRs; see Methods) to avoid ambiguities. None of the TE-DMRs belong to TE copies with transposition activity in the epiRILs[16], thus limiting the risk of erroneous mapping of sequence reads.

For each TE-DMR, we measured its average CG methylation level in each of the parental lines and epiRILs (Fig. S1c; see Methods) and used these values to define one of three possible DNA methylation states in the epiRILs: WT-like, *ddm1*-like, or intermediate. TE-DMRs almost always (97.6% of cases) exhibit WT-like methylation when harbored on WT-derived chromosome intervals, with only few instances of intermediate or *ddm1*-like methylation instead (Fig. 1b). Exceptions mainly involve TE-DMRs belonging to the two DNA transposon superfamilies known to encode *trans* demethylation activities[56,57] (*VANDAL* or *MuDR*-like and *ATENSPM*, Fig. S1d, S2e). Thus, at almost all TE-DMRs, the parental WT methylation state is stably transmitted across generations in the epiRILs.

Figure 1. Inheritance patterns of *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation

(a) Epihaplotypic map of 120 F9 epiRILs. Centromeric regions are shaded. EpiRIL ID number is indicated on the
left. (b) Distribution of methylation states (*ddm1*-like, intermediate, or WT-like mCG levels) of TE-DMRs within
WT-derived or *ddm1*-derived intervals in the 120 F9 epiRILs. Black triangles point to the 10 contrasted epiRILs
selected for RNA-seq. (c) Distribution of methylation states in the 12 epiRILs with F9 and F21 data. (d) Distribution
of reversion frequencies measured at F9. Colors indicate the five categories of TE-DMRs we defined based on
reversion frequency (r-0% to r-100%) and the pie chart indicates their relative proportion.

In marked contrast, *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation is not systematically transmitted. Instead,
the vast majority of *ddm1*-derived TE-DMRs (N=6,311 or 89.1%) exhibit at least one instance of

WT-like or intermediate DNA methylation, indicative respectively of full or partial reversion in

the epiRILs (Fig. 1b). To assess these inheritance patterns across a larger number of generations,

we further propagated a random subset of 12 epiRILs and obtained DNA methylome data at

generation F21. Once restored in F9, WT-like DNA methylation over *ddm1*-derived TE-DMRs is

almost always (99%) stably transmitted to F21 (Fig. 1c). In addition, intermediate DNA

methylation at F9 usually translates into WT-like levels by F21 (Fig. 1c), consistent with

previous work indicating that restoration of DNA methylation often occurs in a stepwise manner

across several generations[51]. By performing for one epiRIL long-read ONT sequencing and

single-molecule analysis of DNA methylation of the same DNA sample used for BS-Seq, which

was obtained from a pool of six seedlings, we also confirmed that intermediate DNA methylation

does not usually reflect the presence of a mixture of progeny with or without reversion, but

rather incomplete restoration of WT-like levels in individual progeny (Fig. S1f-g).

While over 90% of TE-DMRs show evidence of reversion in at least one epiRIL, only 395 have

reverted across all epiRILs, which indicates that most TE-DMRs can sustain TEI, albeit with

different degrees of penetrance. To investigate the significance of this observation, we

considered respectively cases of intermediate and WT-like methylation as half- and full-

reversion events and defined three broad categories of TE-DMRs with non-systematic reversion

(r-low, r-mid, and r-high) by generation F9 in addition to the two categories of TE-DMRs with

no (r-0%) or systematic reversion (r-100%; Fig. 1d, see Methods). Crucially, some r-0% TE-

DMRs had reverted by generation F21 (Fig. 1b-c, S1e), confirming that reversion dynamics

differ greatly between individual TE-DMRs and suggesting that at most TE-DMRs, TEI cannot

be sustained indefinitely in the absence of selection.

RdDM-targeting in *trans* is the main determinant of reversion

To elucidate precisely the molecular underpinnings of reversion, which requires RdDM[51], we

first measured in WT and *ddm1* the average CHH methylation (mCHH) level of TE-DMRs for

each of the five reversion categories. Although similar in WT across all categories, averages in

ddm1 are much lower for the r-0%, r-low and r-mid categories and only mildly reduced for the r-

high and r-100% categories (Fig. 2a), consistent with the latter being enriched in RdDM targets

[58](Fig. S4a). Given the involvement of 23-24nt sRNAs in guiding RdDM, we sequenced sRNAs

extracted from the two parental lines, three *ddm1* compound mutant lines that affect to varying

degrees the production of 23-24nt sRNAs and 10 epiRILs (see Methods). The abundance in the

epiRILs of 23-24nt sRNAs that match *ddm1*-derived TE-DMRs correlates positively with

reversion and in this case, levels tend to be even higher than in the WT parental line (Fig. 2b).

Furthermore, reversion correlates most strongly with the abundance of 23-24nt sRNAs in *ddm1*

(Fig. 2c), as a result of the drastic reduction of 23-24nt sRNAs matching TE-DMRs that belong

to the r-0% or r-low categories in this mutant background (Fig. 2d, S4b-c). Correlations are also

markedly higher for multiple- than single-mapping 23-24nt sRNAs (Fig. 2b,c) and related TE-

DMRs often revert in concert (Fig. 2e). Moreover, a fraction of TE-DMRs (see Methods) that

lose most or all of their single-mapping 23-24nt sRNAs in *ddm1* revert without regaining

detectable levels of these (Fig. 2f, S4c-e; see example in Fig. 2g). Together, these findings reveal

a predominant role for non-allelic interactions in driving reversion, consistent with results of

numerous experiments with transgenes indicating that 23-24nt sRNAs can guide DNA

methylation ectopically[59–63].

Figure 2. RdDM-targeting is the main determinant of reversion

(a) Levels of mCHH in WT and *ddm1* over the five TE-DMR reversion categories. (b) Levels of 23-24nt single- and

multi-mapping sRNAs over TE-DMRs in 10 sequenced F9 epiRILs, depending on their parental origin and DNA

methylation state. Only TE-DMRs that reverted in at least one of the 10 epiRILs were considered. (c) Correlation

(Kendall τ) between single-mapping or multi-mapping sRNA levels (RPM) and reversion frequency in WT and

different mutant backgrounds. (d) 23-24nt-long multi-mapping sRNA levels in WT and *ddm1* over the five TE-

DMR reversion categories. (e) Reversion frequencies of TE-DMRs in relation to whether or not the epiRILs exhibit

reversion for at least one other TE-DMR of the same TE-family. (f) Changes in 23-24nt multi- vs single-mapping

sRNAs associated with reversion, over TE-DMRs that lose most or all of their single-mapping 23-24nt sRNAs in

WT-derived, methylated TEs are the main sources of *trans*-acting sRNAs driving reversion

To identify the origin of the *trans*-acting 23-24nt sRNAs guiding reversion, we took into account

the fact that RdDM can be driven by sRNAs with imperfect homology[64] and considered all

multimapping 23-24nt sRNAs that can be aligned with up to one mismatch onto target TE-

DMRs. We then identified the potential sources of these sRNAs by looking for perfect matches

in the reference genome sequence (see Methods). As expected, most (92%) potential sources are

TEs that belong to the same families or superfamilies as the target TE-DMRs (Fig. S5a) and their

number, which increases with family size as well as the percentage of sequence identity with

target TE-DMRs, correlates positively with reversion (Fig. 3a-b, S5b-c). In addition, the

proportion of potential sources that are inherited from the WT parent also correlates positively

with reversion (Fig. 3c), consistent with the drastic loss of 23-24nt sRNAs in *ddm1* (Fig. 2b), and

this correlation is even stronger if all copies of a given TE family are considered (Fig. 3c), which

suggests the presence of additional sources missed by our homology search.

To determine if some WT-derived TEs are predominant sources of *trans*-acting 23-24nt sRNAs,

we took an epigenetic quantitative trait locus (QTL^{epi}) mapping approach. For each of the 105

TE families with at least 10 non-systematically reverting TE-DMRs, we used the average CG

methylation level of TE-DMRs inherited from the *ddm1* parent as a quantitative measure of

reversion within an epiRIL and asked whether variation between epiRILs in family-wide

reversion correlates with the parental origin of specific chromosomal segments (see Methods).

For 99 TE families, interval mapping revealed the presence of one or two major QTL^{epi}, each

explaining on average 13% of variation (Fig. 3d). These tend to be pericentromeric (Fig. S5d),

consistent with their TE-richness. In addition, they are significantly overrepresented in the

pericentromeres of chromosomes 1 and 2, which suggests the presence of more or more efficient

sources of 23-24nt sRNAs in these pericentromeres compared to the other three.

As expected, the WT-derived epigenotype at each peak QTL^{epi} marker is associated with higher

average CG methylation at TE-DMRs inherited from the *ddm1* parent and effects are additive

(Fig. 3e, S5e-f). Moreover, most (>80%) QTL^{epi} encompass one or several of the TEs we

identified as potential sources of *trans*-acting sRNAs (Fig. S5d), suggesting causality. As

expected also, the QTL^{epi} do not impact methylation of the TE-DMRs inherited from the WT

parental line (Fig. 3e), except of course in the case of TE families with *trans*-demethylation

activity. Indeed, 16 of the 24 TE families for which the *ddm1* epigenotype at the QTL^{epi} is

associated with lower methylation of WT-derived TE-DMRs (Fig. S5d-e, see Methods) belong to

the *VANDAL* or *ATENSPM* superfamilies, for which *trans*-demethylating activities have been

documented [56,57] (Fig. S5d). Hence, the QTL^{epi} identified for these superfamilies have a dual

effect, favoring either reversion when WT-derived or *trans*-demethylation when *ddm1*-derived.

Figure 3. Reversion is driven mainly by *trans*-acting sRNAs

(a) Number of potential 23-24nt sRNA sources belonging to the same TE family as the focal TE-DMRs, for each of

the five reversion categories. (b) Genomic localization of three representative r-0%, r-mid, and r-100% TE-DMRs

(indicated by triangles) and of related TE copies, including those that are potential sources of 23-24nt sRNAs

(indicated by arcs). (c) Percentage of reverted TE-DMRs per TE-family relative to the proportion of potential 23-

24nt sRNA sources belonging to the same TE family and that are WT-derived (in green) or of all WT-derived copies

of that TE family (in black). Coefficient of correlation (R^2) is indicated. (d) Percentage of variance explained

iteratively by the first and the second QTL^{epi} in the average mCG levels of *ddm1*-derived, non-systematically

An important prediction from the above observations is that *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation at

non-systematically reverting TE-DMRs should be stably inherited in epiRILs where the main

producers of *trans*-acting 23-24nt sRNAs derive from the *ddm1* rather than the WT parental line.

To confirm this prediction, we grew >75 siblings of two randomly chosen F9 epiRILs (#92 and

#216) that harbor non-systematically reverting TE-DMRs in the *ddm1*-derived hypomethylated

state and measured DNA methylation of these in each sibling. We analyzed five TE-DMRs in

this manner, belonging to four distinct TE families and covering the range of population-wide

reversion frequencies (one r-low, two r-mid, and two r-high TE-DMRs). Moreover, three TE-

DMRs are members of TE families with at least one QTL^{epi} for family-wide reversion and as

expected, the top QTL^{epi} is inherited from *ddm1* in the epiRILs where they are hypomethylated

(Fig. S5g). Remarkably, even for the two r-high TE-DMRs, reversion was either extremely rare

or not detected at all (Fig. S5f). Thus, the epigenotype (WT- or *ddm1*-like) of trans-acting 23-

24nt sRNA sources is a key determinant of the transgenerational stability of *ddm1*-induced

hypomethylation of target TE-DMRs.

Antagonist effects of RdDM and transcriptional activity modulate the inheritance of *ddm1*-

induced TE hypomethylation

Although reversion is usually concerted within an epiRIL among TE-DMRs that belong to the

same TE family (Fig. 2d), we observed 369 TE-DMRs that remained hypomethylated even in

epiRILs where over >75% of related TE-DMRs have reverted (Fig. S6a, see Methods). Such

"stray" TE-DMRs tend to have higher levels of sequence divergence with their closest relative

and fewer close relatives altogether (Fig. 4a-b), in agreement with the known reduction of RdDM

efficiency when source and target exhibit sequence polymorphisms[65]. Furthermore, stray TE-

DMRs are enriched at or near RNA Pol II transcription units that are activated in *ddm1*

(EPigenetically Induced Consensus tAg clusTers or EPICATs[66]; Fig. S6b), in keeping with the

known hampering effect of Pol II transcription on RdDM[59,67,68]. The two closely related TE-

DMRs of the *ATGP2N* family located on chromosomes 1 and 4 provide a striking illustration of

the negative impact of these EPICATs on reversion. Specifically, despite an abundance of multi-

mapping 23-24nt sRNAs matching the two TE-DMRs in epiRIL #232, where both derive from

ddm1, the copy present on chromosome 1 reverted whereas that on chromosome 4, which

contains a strong and long EPICAT, did not (Fig. 4c). This pattern is in fact quite general, as

reversion of TE-DMRs associated with EPICATs is less frequent than that of other TE-DMRs of

the same family (Fig. S6c) and may require higher levels of matching multi-mapping 23-24nt

sRNAs (Fig. 4d). Thus, inheritance of *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation is favored when there is a

limited supply of *trans*-acting 23-24nt sRNAs and/or strong Pol II transcriptional activity at or

near the TE-DMR.

Figure 4. Inheritance and spontaneous occurrence of TE hypomethylation is modulated by two main

antagonistic features

(a) Phylogenetic distance to closest TE-DMR for all, stray, and non-stray TE-DMRs. Stray TE-DMRs with distance

lower and higher than the median are highlighted in orange ("low div.") and red ("high div."), respectively . (b)

Number of potential 23-24 nt sRNA sources belonging to the same TE family for all, non-stray, "low div." stray,

and "high div." stray TE-DMRs. (c) Levels of mRNAs [66], DNA methylation and 23-24 nt sRNAs, over a stray TE-

DMR (*AT4TE08985*) that contains a long and strong *ddm1* EPICAT and which does not revert in epiRIL232, despite

high levels of multi-mapping sRNAs and the presence in the same epiRIL of a closely related TE-DMR

(*AT1TTE51245*) that has reverted. (d) Levels of multi-mapping 23-24nt sRNAs over TE-DMRs in 10 sequenced

epiRILs (F9), in relation to their methylation state when they are WT- or *ddm1*-derived and as a function of their

distance relative to the nearest EPICAT. (e) Percentage of TE-DMRs with spontaneous *ddm1*-like hypomethylation

in the 120 epiRILs across the five reversion categories. The p-values indicate the cumulative binomial probability of

observing similar or more extreme representation from random sampling (dashed line). (f) Frequency of

spontaneous *ddm1*-like hypomethylation among all epiRILs, only those where no related TE-DMR is *ddm1*-derived,

or only those where at least one related TE-DMR is *ddm1*-derived. The presence of outliers and their numbers are

indicated by a gray triangle.

Weak RdDM targeting facilitates spontaneous TE epivariation

In addition to the 1426 TE-DMRs that belong to TE families with known *trans*-demethylation

activity, another 126 TE-DMRs exhibit *ddm1*-like methylation in at least one of the F9 epiRILs

in which they are inherited from the WT (Fig. 1b, see Methods), suggestive of spontaneous

ddm1-like hypomethylation. To investigate this observation further, we exploited additional

DNA methylation and epihaplotypic data that were independently obtained at generation F9 for a

set of 169 epiRILs that minimally overlaps with ours[69]. After discarding potential *trans*-

demethylation events as well as possible epihaplotyping errors (see Methods, Fig. S6e), we

identified another 161 TE-DMRs with spontaneous *ddm1*-like epivariation within WT-derived

intervals. Remarkably, the 287 TE-DMRs overwhelmingly (68%) belong to the r-0% and r-low

categories (Fig. 4e) and they epivary spontaneously far less (3.8-fold less) when the potential

sources of *trans*-acting 23-24nt sRNAs are all WT-derived (Fig. 4f). In contrast, we did not

detect any preferential association of these TE-DMRs with EPICATs (Fig. S6d). Thus, we

conclude that whereas RdDM limits the spontaneous occurrence as well as the inheritance of

severe loss of DNA methylation at TE-DMRs, EPICATs only favor the latter.

TE epivariants are common in nature and most are *bona fide* epialleles

Having elucidated the molecular underpinnings of the inheritance patterns of *ddm1*-induced

epivariation in the epiRILs as well as of the spontaneous occurrence of similar epivariants in this

setting, we asked whether any of the 7,023 experimentally defined TE-DMRs exhibit *ddm1*-like

hypomethylation in nature. To this end, we took advantage of the BS-seq data available from leaf

tissues for 720 natural strains[53] and calculated for each TE-DMR its average CG methylation

level in each of the strains where the corresponding reference TE is present[15,70] (see Methods).

The number of such strains is typically very high as most TE-DMRs belong to TEs that are either

fixed or widely shared at the species level (Fig. S7a-b), consistent with most TEs in any given

genome being molecular fossils[14,15,71]. However, because we applied stringent filters to ensure

that average CG methylation is calculated over a sufficient number of informative CG sites

across the entire length of the TE-DMR (see Methods), we obtained reliable estimates of DNA

methylation for only around half of the TE-DMRs in any given strain (Fig. S7c, Dataset S5).

Most (85%) of TE-DMRs that passed our stringent filtering are always heavily methylated in

nature (Fig. 5a), consistent with dense methylation being the default state for TEs in *A.*

thaliana[53,72]. Nevertheless, we observed 1,068 TE-DMRs, hereafter designated as naturally

epivariable TE-DMRs, that exhibit *ddm1*-like CG hypomethylation in at least one strain (Table

S4). Crucially, hypomethylation systematically extends to CHG and CHH sites, as in *ddm1* (Fig.

S7d,e), although visual inspection indicates that the exact boundaries may differ between strains

(e.g. Fig. S7f), presumably in part because of DNA sequence polymorphisms within or near the

TE-DMRs.

Given that structural variants are difficult to detect using short read-sequencing and may

generate false calls of *ddm1*-like hypomethylation, we produced *de novo* genome assemblies

using long-read ONT sequencing for 20 genetically diverse strains (Table S5, see Methods). We

then determined the location and integrity of the TE-DMRs which we deemed present in the

genome of these strains based on short-read sequencing (see Methods). Using this approach, we

determined that on average, 18% of TE-DMRs in any strain are either truncated or missing from

the reference location. However, this percentage drops to 13% for the set of TE-DMRs with

natural epivariation (Dataset S6) and, whether the BS-seq data are mapped onto the *de novo*

assemblies or TAIR10 (R^2=0.86), methylation calls for the 82% of TE-DMRs with no structural

rearrangement are highly congruent (>95%, Fig. 5b). Thus, thanks to stringent filtering, our

detection of natural epivariation is particularly robust to the issue of mismapping caused by

related TEs[73].

Natural epivariation may nonetheless be influenced or dictated by other types of DNA sequence

variation[30]. To assess the possible contribution of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in *cis*

(within 20kb), we carried out genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of natural epivariation

at each of the 490 TE-DMRs with sufficient epivariant counts (see Methods). Despite a few

significant associations (Fig. S9a-b), none were systematic (Fig. S9c), thus ruling out a strict

dependence of natural epivariation on the presence of sequence variants in *cis*.

We next leveraged the population of recombinant inbred lines (RILs) previously built between

Cvi-0 and Col-0 [74] to test directly the inheritance of natural epivariants and the potential

involvement of *cis* and *trans* sequence polymorphisms. Cvi-0 harbors the second largest number

of epivariants (113, Fig. S7c), all but three of which are also found in at least one other natural

strain (Table S6). These features therefore make the Cvi-0 x Col-0 RIL population particularly

informative. In a first step, we analyzed the segregation of 34 epivariable TE-DMRs distributed

across the genome and belonging to distinct TE superfamilies and reversion categories (Fig. 5c,

see Methods) in 36 RILs that together recapitulate most of the genetic differences between the

two parental lines[74]. Parental DNA methylation states systematically segregate together with

flanking sequence markers, except in one case (Fig. 5c). This exception is readily explained by

the absence of the TE-DMR in Cvi-0 and the presence of a closely related, unmethylated TE

copy elsewhere (Fig. S9d). Crucially, we also observed rare reversion for 19 TE-DMRs (Fig. 5c).

Together, these findings rule out any obligatory role of DNA sequence polymorphisms in *cis*

(including within the TE-DMRs) or *trans* in the inheritance of the 34 natural epivariants we

tested. Using whole-genome BS-seq data produced for a partially non-overlapping set of 10 Cvi-

0 x Col-0 RILs[75], we obtained for the vast majority (87%) of TE-DMRs similar evidence of

segregation of parental methylation differences independently of *cis* or *trans* sequence

polymorphisms (Fig. S9e). We therefore conclude that most natural epivariants at TE-DMRs are

bona fide epialleles.

Figure 5. TE epivariants are recurrent in nature

(a) Distribution of average mCG levels over TE-DMRs in 720 natural strains. TE-DMRs with mCG under 0.39 were considered *ddm1*-like and over 0.76 as WT-like (density of average mCG levels is represented in cyan over the colorbar). (b) Comparison in 20 strains of average mCG levels measured by aligning BS-seq data on the *de novo* genome assembly vs on the TAIR10 reference genome assembly over TE-DMRs that are found at the reference location neither truncated nor missing in these 20 strains. The black dashed line represents linear regression. Red lines represent upper and lower thresholds for *ddm1*-like and WT-like methylation, respectively. Congruence is indicated by the percentage in each rectangle defined by these two thresholds. (c) Heatmap of the mQTL mapping LOD scores in 36 Cvi-0 x Col-0 RILs for 34 TE-DMRs located across all five chromosomes. LOD score values are in shades of red or blue for associations in *cis* or trans, respectively. The non-reference TE insertion of *AT3TE90350 (ATCOPIA23)* present in Cvi-0 [15] is indicated with a white diamond. The number of reversion events is represented for each TE-DMR as a bar colored by the *ELF8* genotype of the RILs in which they occurred. Results are summarized in pie charts. (d) PCA of SNPs within 1kb windows of a representative r-high TE-DMR. Strains are colored by haplotype if at least one carrier strain has an epivariant for the TE-DMR considered and are in gray otherwise. (e) Proportion of TE-DMRs with natural epivariation across the five reversion categories. (f) Distance to nearest epivariant in the epiRILs and in natural strains.

Natural epivariation results from recurrent loss of DNA methylation at TEs

Naturally epivariable TE-DMRs belong to TEs with similarly high population frequencies as the full set (Fig. S7b), yet natural epivariants tend to have low population frequencies (Fig. 5a; Fig. S8a). These observations indicate that most natural epivariants affect ancient TEs and reflect rare

events of severe DNA methylation loss over these. Moreover, intermediate DNA methylation
levels are very rarely observed at TE-DMRs (Fig. 5a), suggesting that DNA methylation loss is
rapid rather than progressive across generations.

Natural epivariants found over the same TE-DMR in two or more strains could reflect identity by
descent or recurrent occurrence. To distinguish between these possibilities, we considered the
780 TE-DMRs with several instances of epivariation in nature and assessed the genetic
relatedness (kinship) of the corresponding strains (see Methods). While almost all (96%) TE-
DMRs show epivariation in at least two highly divergent strains (genome-wide kinship <0.25),
only half show it also in at least two closely related strains (genome-wide kinship >0.75; Fig.
S8b). Furthermore, local haplotyping of each of the corresponding TE-DMR-containing regions
(see Methods) indicates that the majority (66%) of epivariants are carried by at least two distinct
alleles (Fig. 5d, S8c-d). Thus, the patterns of epivariation observed in nature are shaped in large
part by recurrent occurrences.

Natural epivariation affects predominantly TE-DMRs that belong to the r-0% or r-low categories
(Fig. 5d), which tend to exhibit the highest population frequencies as well as (Fig. S8e). These
observations therefore indicate that the molecular determinants in the epiRILs (Fig. 1-4) of the
inheritance of *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation or of the spontaneous occurrence of similar
hypomethylation are also likely at play in nature. However, natural epivariants are typically few
and scattered in any given genome (49 on average, Fig. 5b, S7c) and tend to be uncorrelated,
except when close (<10kb) to each other (Fig. S8f-g),which is in marked contrast to their
distribution in the epiRILs. Thus, although natural epivariants are indistinguishable molecularly
from their *ddm1*-induced counterparts, they are unlikely to originate as a result of a *ddm1*-like
mutation.

Paf-1 activity favors natural epivariation near genes

Naturally epivariable TE-DMRs tend to be further away from the pericentromeres and closer to
genes than the whole set of *ddm1*-induced TE-DMRs (Fig. 6a) and their population frequencies
correlate positively with gene proximity (Fig. 6b). These observations suggest that the
occurrence or stable inheritance of natural epivariation at TE-DMRs is facilitated near genes or
else that it is selected for in this case.

Figure 6. Natural epivariants are enriched near genes

(a) Metaplot of the density of TEs, genes, *ddm1*-induced TE-DMRs in relation to their distance from centromeres (left
y-axis). The proportion of *ddm1*-induced TE-DMRs that are also epivariable in nature is represented in green (right
y-axis). (b) Distance to the nearest gene (+1bp for log representation) of all *ddm1*-induced TE-DMRs, naturally
epivariable TE-DMRs and those for which epivariation segregate at low or high frequency (LF, first two quartiles;
HF, last two quartiles). (c) Manhattan-plot of p-values of GWAS of prevalence of natural epivariation by genome. (d)
Prevalence of natural epivariation among strains carrying the reference *ELF8^ref* or non-reference *ELF8'* alleles. (e)

To look for genetic modifiers that may contribute to these distinctive properties of natural

epivariation, we performed a GWAS on their proportion relative to the total number of naturally

epivariable TE-DMRs present within a strain. This approach revealed one significant peak of

association (Fig. 6c-d), which encompasses *EARLY FLOWERING 8* (*ELF8*) and no other gene

(Fig. 6e). *ELF8* encodes a component of the highly conserved RNA polymerase-associated factor

1 (Paf-1) complex, which is involved in Pol II transcription[76], including in plants via

phosphorylation of Pol II[77] and deposition of the histone marks H3K4me2/me3[78]. The non-

reference *ELF8* allele (hereafter designated *ELF8'*) appears fully functional (Fig. 6e, S10a-f; see

Methods) but it is expressed at higher levels than *ELF8* (Fig. 6f), presumably causing its

association with a higher number of hypomethylated epialleles per strain (Fig. 6d) . Indeed, this

association is most pronounced for TE-DMRs located within 2kb of genes (Fig. S10g), a

configuration where RdDM targeting is strongly hampered by H3K4me2/me3-marking of

genes[79]. Together, these observations therefore suggest that ELF8 activity either promote or

stabilize epivariation at TE-DMRs near genes by antagonizing RdDM. However, examination of

the Cvi-0 x Col-0 RILs (see Methods), which segregate the *ELF8'* allele, effectively rules out a

major role of ELF8 activity on its own in promoting the occurrence of epivariants or in

stabilizing their inheritance (Fig. 5c, S10h-i). Thus, while allelic variation at *ELF8* is an

important determinant of the prevalence of epivariants between strains, additional factors, either

genetic or environmental, likely contribute alongside *ELF8* in nature.

RdDM targeting is the main factor limiting epivariation in nature

The epiRILs revealed that the number of methylated TE copies present in the genome is a major

factor limiting TEI as well as the occurrence of spontaneous epivariation (Figure 1-4). Although

most TEs are methylated in nature, their number can vary substantially between genomes[14],

which prompted us to ask if this variation may explain differences in the prevalence of

epivariants between strains. Specifically, we used a generalized linear model (GLM) and

performed a stepwise selection of ten parameters, including allelic variation at *ELF8* and

distance to genes, on the basis of their added explanatory power (see Methods). Results of the

GLM indicate that genetic or genomic factors explain almost 15% of variance in the proportion

of epivariants among the naturally epivariable TE-DMRs present in a strain (Fig. 6g), with allelic

variation at *ELF8* and TE copy-number and being the main parameters (respectively 3.5% and

5.5% of variance explained; Fig. 6g). Moreover, the negative correlation observed between the

latter parameter and epivariation prevalence is not as strong in strains that carry a weak allele of

the RdDM gene *NRPE1*[15,80], consistent with our finding in the epiRILs that RdDM strength,

which increases with TE copy-number[81,82], limits both the inheritance and the spontaneous

occurrence of hypomethylation at TE-DMRs (Fig. 3-4, S5-6). The stepwise GLM approach

revealed also that TE-DMRs containing or located near EPICATs (see above) are less frequently

present in the hypomethylated state (Fig. 6f), suggesting that the proportion of epivariants within

a strain is determined primarily by their rate of occurrence rather than their inheritance

properties. Finally, the GLM confirmed that natural epivariation is more frequent closer rather

than further away from genes, and that this effect tends to be stronger in strains carrying the

ELF8' rather than the *ELF8[ref]* allele, in line with our GWAS results (Fig. S10g). Together, these

findings highlight the pivotal and antagonistic roles of RdDM and Paf1 activity in shaping the

prevalence of natural epivariants.

Natural epivariation impacts gene expression and is associated with specific habitats

To assess the impact of natural epivariants on phenotypic diversity, we first used the RNA-seq

data obtained for 728 natural strains from leaf tissue of plants grown under standard conditions[53].

In line with the limited effects of *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation on gene expression overall[34,45],

most (>75%) natural epivariants are associated with minor (< 2-fold) expression changes of the

two nearest genes (Fig. S11a). However, 25% of epivariants are associated with major effects on

neighboring gene expression and typically with higher rather than lower expression, consistent

with the usually repressive impact of dense DNA methylation and suggesting causality. Indeed,

this bias is particularly strong for TE-DMRs located immediately upstream (≤500bp) or that

overlap with the coding region of genes (Fig. S11a-b) and causality was previously demonstrated

for the two genes *QQS* (Fig. S11c-d)[83] and *RPP7* (*AT1G58602;* Fig. S11e)[84].

To investigate further the impact of natural epivariants on gene expression, we produced RNA-

seq data for the same 10 F9 epiRILs that were used for the sRNA studies (Fig. 2e). For the 99

TE-DMRs that are differentially methylated among these epiRILs and for which meaningful

comparisons can be made (see Methods), we found that gene expression differences measured in

the epiRILs explain 40% of those observed in nature (Fig. 7a, Table S9). In addition, we

observed consistency in direction as well as magnitude in the majority of cases (59%) and almost

systematically when TE-DMRs are located upstream (≤500bp) or within genes (Fig. S11f).

Crucially, we also found that reversion to WT DNA methylation in the epiRILs is nearly always

(85%) accompanied by a partial or complete restoration of WT gene expression (Fig. S11g).

Thus, we conclude that most naturally epivariable TE-DMRs associated with gene expression

differences in cis are causal.

Causal TE-DMRs tend to be near or to overlap with genes of unknown function located in TE-

rich regions and that may be of recent origin, as was previously shown for three genes[83,85,86].

Therefore, whether epivariation at such TE-DMRs has any phenotypic impact is unclear, except

perhaps in the case of the *de novo* originated gene *QQS*[83], given its reported involvement in

starch metabolism[87]. Nonetheless, six genes have well-established functions (Table S9), among

which *AT2G05635 (RAD3)*, which encodes a DEAD helicase, stands out, as it has been

implicated in natural variation for root length as well as tolerance to acid mine drainage[88].

Moreover, *RAD3* lies within the major QTL[epi] interval identified for primary root length in the

epiRILs[50] and its expression is strongly upregulated when the three TEs positioned downstream

of it, which include two TE-DMRs, are all hypomethylated (Fig. S12a-c). Together, these

observations suggest that natural TE-mediated epiallic variation at *RAD3* impacts phenotypes in

an ecologically relevant manner.

To evaluate the functional impact of natural epivariation more directly, we searched for possible

correlations with a large set of environment variables. Specifically, we built for each of the 490

TE-DMRs with sufficient epivariant counts a GLM that accounts for population structure, the

potential *cis* modifiers we identified by GWAS (Fig. S9a-b) as well as the two main *trans*

modifiers of the prevalence of epivariants within strains, namely *ELF8* and TE copy-number. We

then tested whether any of the 196 AraClim variables compiled at the collection site of each

natural strain[55] bring additional explanatory power when included in the GLM (see Methods).

After correcting for multiple testing, we found 151 TE-DMRs where natural epivariation

correlates with at least one AraClim variable (Table S10). These "*araclim*" TE-DMRs comprise

the two located downstream of the *RAD3* gene, for which epivariation is enriched in habitats

with lower NO_2 emission levels in summer (Fig. 7b, S12d). As NO_2 emissions correlate

positively with levels of soil acidification[89], this last observation suggests that epivariation at

RAD3 is maladaptive in native habitats characterized by acidic soils. More generally, the top

environmental variable explains on average 9% of variance at *araclim* TE-DMRs, a percentage

similar to that explained by *trans* genetic modifiers (13%; Fig. S12e). Thus, we conclude that

natural epivariation is likely of broad ecological relevance.

To reinforce this conclusion, we asked whether the environmental associations we uncovered are

correlated with natural differences in quantitative traits. Specifically, we considered the 417

quantitative phenotypic variables compiled in the AraPheno database

(https://arapheno.1001genomes.org/) and built for each of these a GLM with population structure

and up to 5 of the top significant SNPs identified by GWAS for each phenotype (AraGWAS)[54]

as the first six predictors. Given that none of these SNPs corresponds to a *cis*-modifier of natural

epivariation (Fig. S9a-c), we then tested as a seventh predictor each of the 490 naturally

epivariable TE-DMRs used for the AraClim analysis (see Methods). Using this approach, we

found that 89 (18%) TE-DMRs explain a substantial proportion of variance (8% on average,

Table S11) for at least one AraPheno trait, which is of the same order of magnitude as that

explained by top SNPs (~25% on average, Fig. 7c). Remarkably, more than half of these

"*arapheno*" TE-DMRs correspond also to *araclim* TE-DMRs (Fig. S12f), a significant

enrichment compared to the random expectation (p<1e-6) and a strong indication that natural

epivariation at these TE-DMRs contributes to local adaptation.

Figure 7. Natural epivariation has functional consequences

(a) Comparison of the hypo/hyper $\log_{10}$ ratios measured in the epiRILs and in nature for each of the 99 naturally epivariable TE-DMR with ≥2-fold gene expression differences in nature and for which the 10 epiRILs are informative. Position of TE-DMRs relative to the affected genes is indicated by a color code. (b) Localization of Eurasian *A. thaliana* strains with epivariation at the *RAD3* locus against NO_2 atmospheric levels in June 2005 (AURA_NO2_M_2005-06-01 from neo.gsfc.nasa.gov) (c) Percentage of variance explained (MacFadden R^2 adjusted) by epivariation at 89 *arapheno* TE-DMRs in the GLM of their top AraPheno phenotype in comparison to that explained by population structure or by each of the top SNPs identified for each phenotype in AraGWAS. (d) Expression level of *HVA22E* measured in three independent pools of 8 F10 seedlings of each of the epiRIL229 and epiRIL558 (with and without *ddm1*-induced hypomethylation of the downstream TE-DMR, respectively) grown under control conditions or exposed for 24h to cold-stress. (e) Comparison of precipitable water in summer at the collection site of strains with or without epivariation at the fixed TE-DMR (NC=0) downstream of *HVA22E*. The presence of outliers and their numbers are indicated by a red triangle. (f) Comparison of stomata size of the same set of strains as in (i). (g) Comparison of the difference in daily growth rate (Delta RER) of epiRILs grown on the Phenoscope in mild-drought vs well-watered conditions depending on the epiallelic state of the *HVA22E* TE-DMR.

Natural epivariation can act as a specific enhancer of stress responses

Genes with naturally epivariable TE-DMRs are enriched in functions associated with responses to biotic or abiotic stress (Fig. S12g) and *araclim* as well as *arapheno* TE-DMRs tend to be the

closest to genes (Fig. S12h). However, based on the RNA-seq data of the epiRILs and natural

strains, which were all obtained from plants grown under standard conditions, only three of the

25 testable *arapheno/araclim* TE-DMRs have consistent and significant effects on neighboring

gene expression (Fig. S12f). This prompted us to test if some *arapheno/araclim* TE-DMRs could

exert their effect mainly or only in response to stress. To this end, we chose to investigate the

cold- and drought-stress responsive gene *HVA22E* (*AT5G50720*), which is located ~900bp

upstream of a r-mid category TE-DMR (Fig. S13a). We grew under standard conditions and cold

stress two of the four epiRILs that still harbor the TE-DMR in the *ddm1*-derived hypomethylated

state as well as two epiRILs that inherited it instead from the WT parental line (Fig. S13b) and

performed RT-qPCR on RNA extracted in each case (see Methods). While basal *HVA22E*

expression was similarly low across the four epiRILs tested, induction in response to cold was

much stronger for the two epiRILs with a *ddm1*-derived, hypomethylated TE-DMR (20-43-fold

vs 12-18-fold; Fig. 7d, S13c). Thus, epiallelic variation at *HVA22E* enables plants to

dramatically increase their response to cold stress without affecting basal expression.

While the TE-DMR downstream of *HVA22E* frequently reverts in the epiRILs, it is often

observed (24%) in the epivariant state in nature, which suggests the presence of stabilizing

genetic or genomic modifiers, or positive selection. Although discriminating between these

possibilities is beyond the scope of the present study, we exploited the fact that the TE-DMR is

in the epivariant state in Cvi-0 to assess its stability in the Cvi-0 x Col-0 RILs. Remarkably, we

observed reversion in 17% of the RILs that inherited it from Cvi-0 (Fig. S13d), which indicates a

strong destabilizing effect of the Col-0 genetic background on the epivariant form, consistent

with the frequent reversion observed in the epiRILs.

Strains containing the epivariant form of *HVA22E* are preferentially found in habitats

characterized by high summer frost and low summer precipitation (Fig. 7e, S13e). Furthermore,

analysis of the AraPheno data indicates that these strains tend to have smaller stomata (Fig. 7f).

On the basis of these observations, we compared the growth response of epiRILs depending on

the epiallelic state of the *HVA22E* TE-DMR using a high-throughput phenotyping platform that

is robust enough to establish physiologically-relevant mild drought stress conditions[90]. While all

epiRILs with a reverted *HVA22E* epiallele grew similarly to those where it is WT-derived under

both conditions, the epiRILs with an hypomethylated epiallele showed evidence of faster

recovery to mild drought (Fig. 7g, S13f). Thus, epiallelic variation at *HVA22E* likely acts as a

selectable engine of increased response to stress in nature.

Discussion

TE-mediated TEI is prevalent in nature

We have demonstrated that numerous TEs across the Arabidopsis genome are recurrently

subjected to heritable, severe loss of DNA methylation in nature. Furthermore, we have

demonstrated through comprehensive segregation analyses that most natural epivariants are *bona*

fide epialleles, as their inheritance is not strictly dictated by DNA sequence changes, neither in

cis nor in *trans*. Collectively, our findings establish TE-mediated TEI as an important additional

source of heritable variation in gene expression in nature, with unique properties for plant

adaptation.

Inheritance of TE epivariation is constrained by *trans*-acting RdDM

The in-depth characterization of TE-DMRs and their inheritance patterns in the epiRILs revealed

two key properties of TE-mediated TEI. First, we demonstrate that transgenerational inheritance

can vary markedly for the same TE-DMR between epiRILs (Fig. 1), because the 23-24nt sRNAs

required for RdDM-mediated reversion are mainly provided in *trans* by related TE copies

present elsewhere in the genome and which must be inherited in the methylated state (Fig. 2-3).

Incidentally, this observation confirms and extends to endogenous sequences the conclusion

reached using transgenes that efficient targeting of RdDM usually requires the production of

large amounts of 23-24nt sRNAs[59–63]. Second, we show that pericentromeric TEs play a

predominant role in limiting TEI, consistent with results obtained using a panel of F1

"epihybrids"[91]. In turn, this observation provides direct support to the proposition that the 23-24

nt sRNAs produced by pericentromeric TEs, which have little impact in *cis*, may mainly serve to

guide DNA methylation of related copies located in the chromosome arms[92–95].

More generally, the small number of TE-DMRs that systematically revert in the epiRILs (r-

100%) and the prevalence of non-allelic interactions in driving reversion in this setting provide

compelling proof that paramutation is an epigenetic process predominantly involving ectopic

rather than allelic interactions, as proposed over two decades ago[96–98]. In other words, classical

examples of paramutation between alleles or epialleles at the same locus[99] would be the

exception rather than the rule. In fact, numerous lines of evidence support the notion that a one-

to-one ratio of sources to targets of 23-24nt sRNAs is generally insufficient to trigger

paramutation[51], including the observation that RdDM-mediated paramutation at a transgenic

locus in *A. thaliana* can only be achieved in tetraploids with a three-to-one ratio of methylated to

unmethylated epialleles[68,100]. It is also consistent with the scarcity of paramutation events in the

F1 progeny of crosses between *A. thaliana* strains[101], which our analysis of the Cvi-0 x Col-0

RILs confirmed (Fig. 5, S9).

Paf1 is a major facilitator of natural epivariation at TEs near genes

Naturally epivariable TE-DMRs are enriched near genes (Fig. 6a-b) and we identified *ELF8*

(Fig. 6, S10), which encodes a component of the evolutionary conserved Paf1 complex, as the

second most important genetic or genomic modifier of the prevalence of epivariation in nature,

after the number of related TE copies (Fig. 6g). We also showed, in the epiRILs, that *ddm1*-

induced Pol II transcription at so-called EPICATs [66] located near or within a TE-DMR facilitates

the stable inheritance of hypomethylation, despite RdDM-targeting (Fig. 4). Therefore, gene

expression is likely a major *cis* determinant of the presence of epivariation at TEs, consistent

with the known antagonizing effect of Paf1 and active histone marks on small RNA-mediated

epigenetic silencing in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*[102] and *A. thaliana*[79], respectively.

Remarkably, our findings mirror the discovery in *S. pombe* that Paf1 activity is required to

prevent the establishment and epigenetic inheritance of the force silencing of a euchromatic

locus by *trans*-acting sRNAs[103]. Thus, we hypothesize that in addition to its many known

functions in facilitating Pol-II transcription, the Paf1 complex also plays an important role in

ensuring that gene expression is not affected by the silencing of neighboring TEs.

TE epivariation arises sporadically and recurrently in nature

In any given strain, natural epivariants are usually few and widely dispersed across the genome

(Fig. 5a,f, S7c), which rules out an *en masse* origin as in *ddm1*. Moreover, results of our

haplotyping and kinship analyses exclude identity by descent as the main determinant of the

presence of epivariants at the same TE across multiple strains (Fig. 5d, S8). Instead, all evidence

points to a spontaneous, non-coordinated and recurrent origin of TE epivariants in nature.

Given the frequent associations we uncovered with climate variables at collection sites (Fig. 7b,

S12d-f), it is tempting to speculate that the environment acts not only as a selective force but also

as an inducer of TE epivariation in nature. However, severe and heritable loss of DNA

methylation at TEs in response to environmental cues has not been reported so far, despite clear

effects of abiotic stresses on epimutation rates genome-wide[104–107] as well as anecdotal evidence

of transient and moderate loss of DNA methylation at some TEs induced by biotic or abiotic

stresses (e.g.[108–110]). Furthermore, our comparison of RNA-seq data obtained for natural strains

and the epiRILs indicates that epivariation often causes changes in nearby gene expression rather

than the opposite (Fig. 7, S11-13). Thus, which environmental factors, if any, favor the

recurrence of heritable *ddm1*-like epivariants in nature remains to be determined.

Natural TE epivariation exacerbates the induction of stress-response genes

Natural epivariation at TEs is usually not associated with large changes (>2-fold) in the

expression of surrounding genes, at least when plants are grown under standard conditions

(S11a-b). This finding is of course consistent with the fact that genomes are populated by TEs

that mainly correspond to ancestral insertions, most of which must have accumulated because

they have no or mild deleterious effects[16]. Thus, the 151 TE-DMRs for which we detected an

association between epivariation and at least one biogeoclimatic variable (Fig. S12e-f) would

simply represent neutral "bio-markers", similar to the metastable DNA methylation variants

described at some TEs in the mouse[111]. However, the observation that naturally epivariable TE-

DMRs are particularly enriched near stress-responsive genes (Fig. S12g) suggests a more

nuanced picture. As we showed for the gene *HVA22E* (Fig. 7d, S13a-c), which is involved in

cold- and drought-stress responses, many natural epivariants may in fact affect gene expression,

but specifically in response to stress. Furthermore, our observation that epivariation at *HVA22E*

correlates with climate of native habitats (Fig. 7e-f, S13e) suggests that it is adaptive. Such

epivariants would therefore represent unique targets of natural selection because they could

revert much more readily than sequence variants and also because most of them should not cause

fitness trade-offs when plants are unchallenged by stress.

TEI across the eukaryotic tree of life

Natural epivariation at TEs as an additional source of heritable phenotypes is unlikely to be limited to plants with small genomes and may be more significant as the genomic density of TEs increases. Consistent with this notion, *ddm1* knock-out mutants are either non-viable or sterile in maize and tomato[40,41], two crop species that have much larger, TE-laden genomes compared to *A. thaliana*. Although this situation complicates considerably the characterization of TE-mediated TEI at the genome- as well as population-wide scale, two studies in maize suggest that TE-mediated epialleles are abundant and phenotypically consequential in this species as well[112,113].

In mice, a number of TE-mediated, DNA methylation-based metastable epialleles have been identified, but their inheritance properties as well as their usually minimal contribution to gene expression differences suggest a minor role as a source of heritable phenotypes[35,111]. Nonetheless, experiments aimed at forcing DNA methylation or other chromatin changes at endogenous transgenic loci or genome-wide in the mouse[114], Drosophila[115] and *C. elegans[116–118]* indicated that such changes can be inherited across multiple generations in the absence of the trigger in these species. However, similar heritable chromatin alterations have not been reported in natural settings, leaving in doubt whether chromatin-based TEI plays any significant role in these species. Evidence in *S. pombe*[119,120] that exposure to caffeine can promote spontaneous chromatin changes that are adaptive but which cannot be sustained in the absence of the antifungal agent suggests a similar conclusion in this species as well. Plants, perhaps because they are sessile organisms, may therefore be relatively unique in exploiting chromatin-based TEI as an additional system of inheritance with important ecological roles in nature.

Limitations of the study

Our study likely underestimates the extent of natural *ddm1*-like epivariation at TEs given the stringent filters we used to define it. Moreover, we did not consider TEs not present in the reference Col-0 genome, which typically correspond to recent, large-effect insertions[15] and which can also epivary in nature[121]. Furthermore, *ddm1*-induced TE-DMRs do not include, by design, any of the ~25% of TEs that are already hypo- or un-methylated in WT Col-0[122]. This limitation effectively biased our GWAS and GLM approaches towards finding genetic modifiers

692 that increase rather than decrease the prevalence of epivariation. Also, while TEs are implicated
693 in most known examples of epiallelic variation with phenotypic consequences in plants, DNA
694 methylation variation affecting other types of sequences, such as non-coding RNA genes and
695 some protein-coding genes, may also contribute to phenotypic diversity in Arabidopsis[123–125].

Material and Methods

Genomic annotations

698 All genomic analyses were performed using the TAIR10 Col-0 reference genome sequence
699 assembly. The reference TE and gene annotations were used after removal from the latter of the
700 3,903 TE genes ('transposable_element_gene'; https://www.arabidopsis.org/download/).

Bisulfite-sequencing of 120 *ddm1*-derived epiRILs

Methylomes were produced for the *ddm1* and WT parental lines as well as for a set of 120 *ddm1*-
derived epiRILs[48] largely overlapping with those that were initially epihaplotyped using low-
resolution methods[49]. EpiRILs were taken one generation later (F9) than previously[49] and also at
generation F21 for 12 epiRILs. Whole-genome Bisulfite sequencing (WGBS-seq, Illumina
HiSeq X Ten) was performed on gDNA extracted from rosette leaves (pooled from six
individuals grown in long-days, 16h:8h light:dark, at 23°C and collected at bolting) of the 120 F9
epiRILs as well as 3 biological replicates of Col-0 WT and *ddm1* G4 parents. Numbers of
methylated and unmethylated reads over single cytosines were obtained using Bismark[126] and
pooled into single sites for Cs on opposite strands of CG and CWG sites (where W is A or T)
which we confirmed to be concordant (Fig. S2a) given the symmetry of both contexts (in
contrast to CCG where one of the strands is both a CHG and a CG site).

Identification of Mendelian and reverting differentially methylated sites (DMSs) in the epiRILs

Differentially methylated sites (DMSs) between the three replicates of *ddm1* and WT parents
were identified using a generalized linear model (GLM, R package *glm*): out of 2.35 millions CG
and CWG symmetric sites with sufficient coverage ($\geq$5 reads per site) in at least 20 epiRILs,

807,450 were found hypomethylated by at least 20% in *ddm1*. Consistent with previous

observations[45], most (72.8%) of these DMSs affect annotated TEs or their immediate flanks

(300bp on each side, Fig. S1a). Using the same GLM, we then determined the DNA methylation

status (i.e. WT-like, *ddm1*-like or intermediate) of these hypomethylated DMSs across the

informative epiRILs for each site by comparing the DNA methylation levels calculated at each

DMS in each epiRIL with the predictions from the GLM for each genotype (R function

predict.glm): all values below the upper 95% confidence interval (1.96 standard error) of *ddm1*

were considered *ddm1*-like, those above the lower 95% of WT were considered WT-like, and

those in between these two thresholds were considered intermediate. For each DMS, we then

compared to the expected ratio of Mendelian inheritance of 73-27% (F1 between *ddm1* and WT

is backcrossed to WT with 8% of selfing[48]) the ratio of WT-like epiRILs across all informative

epiRILs for the site. To take into account the number of informative epiRILs, we used a poisson-

binomial drawing from the selfing (50-50) or the backcrossing (75-25) distribution: for 20

informative epiRILs the 95% confidence interval of Mendelian segregation is 45%-95% while it

shrinks to 64%-82% when the full set of 120 epiRILs is informative (Fig. S1b). In total, 202,721

DMSs show WT-like methylation in a percentage of epiRILs consistent with Mendelian

inheritance, whereas for another 587,197 DMSs this percentage is instead indicative of either

partially or fully penetrant reversion, with some rare cases (2.2% of all DMSs) with either less

than 20 informative epiRILs or with a scarcity of epiRILs with WT-like methylation (Fig. S1b).

Identification of differentially methylated regions (DMRs)

As expected from previous analyses[49], parental DMSs close to each other show coherent

epiallelic inheritance across the epiRILs (Fig. S2b), a property that we used to iteratively merge

coherently-segregating DMSs into differentially methylated regions (DMRs) as long as they

were of the same class (Mendelian or reverting), separated by no more than one DMS of another

class, and within 207bp of each other. This threshold distance was chosen as the distance from

which the correlation between the methylation status of two adjacent DMSs across epiRILs starts

to significantly increase in variability (Fig. S2b). Out of these DMRs we removed those based on

less than 5 DMSs and thus obtained 9,422 Mendelian DMRs and 16,040 reverting (Dataset S1).

We then calculated the correlation between the methylation states of each pair of the 7,151

Mendelian DMRs that contain at least 5 DMSs covered in all 120 epiRILs (Dataset S2) to deduce

the rate of linkage decay across chromosome arms and pericentromeres (no decay observed in

pericentromeres given the scarcity of crossing-overs in these regions). Using a non-linear

regression model with variable variance to estimate the expectations of linkage decay as a

function of genomic distance - linear in pericentromeres where there is almost no decay (R

function nlme::gls) and exponential in chromosome arms (nlme::gnls) - we filtered out 1729

outlier DMRs for which methylation states are either too highly or too lowly correlated (outside

of 95% confidence intervals) with other DMRs across the epiRILs (Fig. S2c). High correlation at

a distance is observed notably for DMRs overlapping *VANDAL* and *ENSPM* TE annotations, in

line with the ability of TEs from these TE families to demethylate cognate TEs in *trans* [57] and we

therefore removed all the DMRs corresponding to these TE families. Redundant DMRs which

are closeby (<5kb) and highly correlated ($R^2>0.6$) were also trimmed down to one representative

DMR. For pericentromeric regions, given the high density of DMRs and the scarcity of crossing-

overs, we selected between 80 and 100 evenly distributed DMRs for each pericentromere. In

total, we obtained a subset of 1,092 evenly distributed and non-redundant Mendelian DMRs

(Dataset S3).

Building the epihaplotypic map of 120 F9 epiRILs

To infer the epihaplotypes from the 1,092 DMRs thus defined, we denoised the data using a

continuous-time Hidden Markov Model (HMM, R package MSM), with methylation status of

DMRs as observed states and the real parental haplotype as hidden states. The initial state

occupancy probabilities are the same as the Mendelian expectation (27% *ddm1* vs 73% WT).

Using recombination rates measured in female back-crosses[127] we calculated the expected

recombination rate in our F9 epiRIL population (assuming complete homozygosity by this

generation)[128]. From these recombination rates we calculated the expected transition matrix

(WT-derived to *ddm1*-derived and the opposite).

As pericentromeric regions rarely recombine, we used *ddm1*-like and WT-like pericentromeres

to calculate the distribution of methylation states of DMRs within *ddm1*-derived and WT-derived

intervals, respectively. We used these distributions as emission probability functions to optimize

the given transition matrix to adjust for the lack of recombination events in the pericentromeres.

Together with the initial state occupancy probabilities and the transition matrix, we used these

emission probability functions as parameters in our HMM to derive epihaplotypic intervals

delimited by DMRs. Short intervals (<1.5 Mb) were removed from further analysis as well as the

small fraction (2%) of larger intervals with DMRs mainly in the intermediate rather than in the

ddm1- or WT-like methylation state (see e.g. in Fig. S2e), which may correspond to regions of

residual heterozygosity. Finally, we noted five epiRILs (#62, #172, #323, #394 and #506) with a

high density of *ddm1*-like DMRs in the wild-type derived pericentromeric region of chromosome

4. Remarkably, *VANDAL* and *ENSPM* are also hypomethylated in these intervals, despite the

absence of a *trans*-demethylating copy present in a *ddm1*-derived interval. The most

parsimonious explanation is that these correspond to *ddm1*-derived intervals with high level or

reversion. These intervals were also removed from further analysis.

Overall, the new epihaplotypes (Dataset S3) are more resolutive and extend further than the

initial ones (Fig. 1a, S3). Indeed, despite excluding intervals that are poorly resolved or that

could reflect residual heterozygosity, we can nonetheless now infer unambiguously the WT or

ddm1 origin ~93% of the genome sequence of each epiRIL on average, compared to 82% before

(Fig. S3).

Analysis of DNA methylation levels at TE-DMRs in the epiRILs

To analyze the inheritance of DNA methylation variation at TEs in the epiRILs, we focused on

the 7,023 parental DMRs that are ≥100bp-long, comprise at least 10 DMSs (at least 75% of

which must be of the same class), overlap annotated TEs, and are located within the newly

defined WT and *ddm1*-derived epihaplotypic intervals. Average DNA methylation levels for

each C context (CG, CHG, or CHH) within each TE-DMR was calculated within each of the

parents and each of the 120 epiRILs as the total proportion of methylated reads summed over all

the sites of the given context within the TE-DMR that are covered by at least 5 reads.

To define lower and upper thresholds of WT-like and *ddm1*-like mCG levels, respectively, we

took the first percentile of average mCG levels over these TE-DMRs in the three WT replicates

and the last percentile in the three *ddm1* replicates (Fig. S1c). The methylation state of a TE-

DMR in an epiRIL was considered *ddm1*-like when its mCG level was strictly lower than the

former threshold (0.3944), WT-like when it was strictly higher than the latter (0.7586), and

intermediate otherwise (Dataset S4). Reversion frequency per TE-DMR was calculated as the

proportion of F9 epiRILs that inherited the TE-DMR from the *ddm1* parent and present WT-like

mCG levels (counted as 1 event of reversion) or intermediate mCG levels (counted as 0.5 event

of reversion). The thresholds between r-low, r-mid, and r-high were set arbitrarily at reversion

frequencies of 33 and 66%, respectively. "Stray" TE-DMRs were identified, for non-*VANDAL*

and non-*ENSPM* TE families with 4 or more TE-DMRs, as those that remain *ddm1*-like in

epiRILs where 75% or more of the TE-DMRs from the same TE family have fully reverted.

MRSE-based identification of TE-DMR revertants in large siblings panels

To determine the methylation states of different categories of TE-DMRs in individual siblings of

given F9 epiRILs, we obtained from NEB two methylation-sensitive restriction enzymes

(MSREs): MspI and AvaII, whose digestion is blocked by DNA methylation and whose

restriction sites are typically found once or twice per TE-DMR (MspI | NEB, AvaII | NEB). We

then selected TE-DMRs that represented a diversity of non-systematic reversion categories (r-

low to r-high) and i) for which we could design primers (Table S2) that specifically amplify a

100 to 200nt-long region containing a digest site of MspI and/or AvaII, ii) were present in

contrasted methylation states in the two epiRILs chosen (#92 and #216) and iii) for which we

could confirm their differential methylation between 4 Col-WT and 4 Col-*ddm1* plants by

comparing digested and non-digested samples using qPCR (Roche LightCycler 480). We then

measured methylation states using this method on DNA extracted using Macherey-Nagel 96-well

plate extraction kit (Macherey-Nagel, NucleoSpin 96 Plant II) from rosette leaf tissue from 96 F9

2-weeks old siblings of the two epiRILs. All qPCR measures were done in duplicates and

calculations were performed on the mean of the two duplicates unless inconsistent (standard

deviation >1 Ct), in which case they were discarded. Expected numbers of reversion events were

calculated on the basis of the frequency of reversion among *ddm1*-derived F9 epiRILs and

assuming a reversion rate per generation that is constant over generations and equal across lines

(frequency of non-reversion in F9 = (1-reversion rate)^8).

Single-molecule analysis of DNA methylation using ONT-sequencing.

In order to enrich the ONT sequencing power over regions of interest, we used the adaptive sampling option available on the GridION sequencer (Oxford Nanopore Technologies). High-molecular-weight genomic DNA (>20 kb-long fragments) was extracted from grinded leaves of the same pool of 6 epiRIL238 F9 plants used for BS-seq following a protocol adapted from *Mayjonade et al, 2016* [129] for bigger extraction volumes. In order to reduce the library size for adaptive sampling, DNA was first sheared at 10 ng.uL-1 by sonication for a single 30s interval at the lowest sonication intensity on a standard Bioruptor (Diagenode) to obtain a range of DNA fragments from 200 bp to >20 kb. Sonication was followed by size selection with Sera-Mag SpeedBeads Carboxylate (GE Healthcare)[130], to eliminate fragments smaller than ~1500 bp. Sequencing was performed on a LSK109 flow cell following manufacturer's procedures and using for adaptive sampling a 1.07 Mb-long set of target regions (~1% of reference genome) that overlap by at least 5 kb the 10 TE-DMRs localized in *ddm1*-derived intervals in epiRIL238 with intermediate DNA methylation levels as well as 45 TE-DMRs that have fully reverted (Table S3). mCG levels were calculated over TE-DMRs using DeepSignal-plant[131] either at the regional level or at the single-read level over the TE-DMR interval for reads that cover >50% of the TE-DMR.

Small RNA mapping and analysis

Total RNA was extracted with Trizol according to manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen) from pools of seedlings of *ddm1* and *ddm1rdr2*, *ddm1rdr6*, and *ddm1dcl2dcl3* compound mutants as well as from inflorescences collected from pools of 5-10 siblings of 10 F9 epiRILs selected for having contrasted epihaplotypic combinations (Fig. 1a, Dataset S3). sRNAs were sequenced by Fasteris with Illumina for the mutants and by the BGI with DNBseq for the 10 F9 epiRILs.

Reads were mapped using bowtie2[132] using the --very-sensitive mode (-L 15 -N 1 -p 4) from which unmapped reads and secondary alignments were removed using samtools view (-F 260)[133]. The total number of reads ranging in length from 15 to 30nt and mapping on nuclear chromosomes was extracted using samtools view to obtain the sRNA library size of each sample. Multi-mapping reads (attributed randomly to any of its mapping locations by bowtie2 in the default mode) were distinguished from unique-mapping reads based on the presence of an XS:i

field in the BAM output of bowtie2 and no-mismatch reads were selected based on the XM:i

field. For each category of mapping reads (multi- or single-mapping) the coverage over TE-

DMRs in reads of a given length (19 to 26nt-long) was normalized by the sRNA library size of

each sample in millions of reads (reads per million, RPM). TE-DMRs were considered to lose all

or almost all of their single-mapping no-mismatch 23-24nt sRNAs in *ddm1* when read counts

were >0 RPM in WT and in *ddm1* either 0 or at least 99% lower (Fig. S4c). For representation

purposes a pseudo-count of 0.001 was added to all read-counts.

To identify all potential sources of multi-mapping sRNAs, multi-mapping reads were aligned,

either allowing mismatches or not, at up to 50 locations using the --very-sensitive mode of

bowtie2 (-L 15 -N 1 -p 4 -k 50). 23 or 24nt-long reads mapping with or without mismatches over

each TE-DMR were then identified using BedTools intersect and their (up to 50) no-mismatch

alignments were counted across TE or gene annotations using htseq-count in the -m intersection-

strict mode.

QTL mapping of mCG levels per TE family

Out of 1092 DMRs used for epihaplotyping, we selected as genetic markers for interval mapping

a subset of 139 that are non-redundant, have no missing information, and are separated by

>250kb when located within chromosome arms and by >1Mb when within pericentromeric

regions (within 5Mb of centromeres) to take into account the lower recombination rates in these

regions. These 139 markers (Dataset S3), which cover ~84.4% of the *A. thaliana* genome and are

on average separated by 749.7kb, were then used as input for classical interval mapping as

implemented in the mqmscan function in R/qtl. For each of the 105 TE families with at least 10

non-systematically reverting TE-DMRs, we used as a trait the average CG methylation level in

each epiRIL of the subset of those TE-DMRs that are *ddm1*-derived. The mapping was

performed using a step size of 2, and significance was determined for each TE family using 1000

permutations of the data, with LOD significance thresholds corresponding to 5% genome-wide

false positive rates. For representation purposes, LOD scores were then normalized by the

significance threshold (Fig. S5d). The marker with the highest LOD score was used as top

^{epi}QTL and the second marker with the highest LOD score that is not within a continuous interval

of LOD scores above the significance threshold minus 1 with the top marker was used as second
[epi]QTL.

The percentage of variance explained by the epiallelic segregation at each of the [epi]QTLs was
estimated by adding iteratively their epihaplotypes as parameters in a logistic GLM. We also
used the epihaplotype at the top [epi]QTL in a logistic GLM of average CG methylation levels over
the same TE-DMRs but within WT-derived intervals to identify the 24 TE families where it is
significantly associated with the epihaplotypic segregation at this locus (p-value<0.05) and thus
where effects within *ddm1*-derived intervals may be the result of *trans*-demethylating effects
(Fig. S5e).

Phylogeny and divergence of TE sequences

898 Divergence between related TE-DMRs was calculated by building a phylogeny of all the TE-
899 DMRs within each TE family using phyml (v3.3.3)[134] with parameters -s SPR -d nt -a e -q --
900 no_memory_check after trimming the MAFFT (v7.487)[135] alignment of fasta sequences using
901 trimal[136] in -phylip3.2. For each TE-DMR the distance to the closest TE-DMR was retrieved
902 from the phylogeny of the corresponding TE family using the DendroPy-4.4.0 python library[137].

Identification of spontaneous hypomethylation events in the epiRILs

In a first step, we identified in the set of 120 F9 epiRILs all the cases where a TE-DMR, that do
not belong to any of the *VANDAL* or *ENSPM* TE families, present *ddm1*-like hypomethylation
within WT-derived epihaplotypic intervals. Then, we filtered out the 14 such TE-DMRs where
hypomethylation is observed at a TE-DMR that is separated from the edge of their WT-derived
interval by less than two TE-DMRs that are in a WT-like methylation state, in order to avoid
potentially confounding spontaneous hypomethylation with epihaplotyping errors at the edge of
epihaplotypic intervals.

Epihaplotyping of the 169 epiRILs that minimally overlaps with ours (37 epiRILs are in
common) for which single-cytosine resolution methylome data were obtained independently by
others[69] was performed following the method they described: i.e. based on the WT-like (>0.5) or
ddm1-like (<0.5) mCG levels of 140 of the 144 DMRs they identified as stably segregating (4
were removed as they deviate by more than 7% from the 75% of WT-like expected). Using this

epihaplotypic map, we identified 636 TE-DMRs with at least one event of *ddm1*-like mCG levels within WT-derived intervals that do not belong to the *VANDAL* and *ENSPM* superfamilies. However, we found events of hypomethylation within WT-derived intervals to occur almost systematically on the same epiRILs (pearson correlation > 0.8) for two blocks of 266 and 196 TE-DMRs on Chr3 and Chr5, respectively (Fig. S6e), suggestive of an epihaplotyping error over the corresponding intervals that are most likely *ddm1*-derived. 161 TE-DMRs remained after filtering out these 475 TE-DMRs.

Epivariation over TE-DMRs in natural strains

Processed bisulfite sequencing data (BS-seq) and paired-end short reads whole-genome sequencing (WGS) data from leaves of 720 genomes of *A.thaliana* were obtained from the 1,001 Genomes Project (1001genomes.org and signal.salk.edu/1001.php). For each strain, we calculated the average CG methylation weighted by the sequencing depth at each site over TE-DMRs within TEs that are present in the strain based on previous work[15]. In addition, WGS coverage was calculated using the tool bam-readcount[138] in order to detect potential structural variation unaccounted for by sole TE presence/absence polymorphisms. Specifically, for each TE-DMR in each genome, we filtered out regions that have not enough WG-seq coverage (>5% of TE-DMR with 0 coverage) or an excess of reads (median TE-DMR coverage > 2x genome wide median coverage). In addition, we filtered out TE-DMRs with a number of CG sites overly divergent from the reference genome (>50%) or with less than 5 BS-seq reads per CG on average.

Analysis of DNA methylation over TE-DMRs in 20 *de novo* assembled genomes

Long-read Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) sequencing data were produced for 20 strains (chosen to represent each genetic group; Table S5) out of the 720 for which BS-seq data is available. High-molecular-weight genomic DNA was extracted from grinded leaves[129] and sequenced at ~30X (N50=37kb, Table S5) following recommended guidelines on ONT MinION flow cell (R9.4.1).

Basecalling was performed using Guppy v6.4.6 with the dna_r9.4.1_450bps_sup_plant.cfg model. Long-read fastq files were used for *de novo* assembly using two different assembly tools:

Flye[139] and NextDenovo[140]. The assembly with the best N50 was selected. To fix base errors in

the assemblies, we polished the genomes using medaka with long-read data

(https://github.com/nanoporetech/medaka), and two rounds of NextPolish[141] with short-read data.

Finally, the contigs of assemblies are scaffolded using Ragtag[142] based on alignment on the

reference genome. The location of reference genes and TEs were transposed on each genome

using Liftoff[143], then TE-DMRs were located within their TE by blast. TE-DMRs were

considered to be located at a syntenic region in the *de novo* assembly when surrounded by the

same reference genes in the genome assembly as in TAIR10. For this analysis we required that at

least one the three nearest genes (restricted to TAIR10 IDs ending in 0 to avoid mis-annotated

TE-genes that are themselves likely to be translocated between strains) on each side of the TE-

DMRs in the *de novo* assemblies were also found surrounding the TE-DMRs in the reference

genome. When located in synteny, TE-DMRs were considered full-length when their length in

the *de novo* assembly was greater than 80% of that in TAIR10. BSseq data was then remapped

on each *de novo* assembly using Bismark[126] to calculate mCG levels over the TE-DMRs.

Kinship, local haplotyping, and GWAS

Genome wide IBS and aBN kinship matrix were calculated using the emmax-kin-intel64

function of EMMAX (https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/EMMAX) with parameters -v -s -d 10

and -v -d 10, respectively, on the PLINK-transposed (v1.90p)[144] vcf of the short variants

identified in the 1001 Genomes (1001genomes_snp-short-indel_with_tair10_only_ACGTN.vcf

from https://1001genomes.org/data/GMI-MPI/releases/v3.1/) out of which we only kept bi-allelic

SNPs with a minimum MAF of 0.05 and a minimum missing genotyping rate of 0.1 and found

within the 720 strains with BS-seq data (SNP720.MAF005.g01 vcf).

Local haplotyping of each TE-DMRs was calculated using BEAGLE[145] on the

SNP720.MAF005.g01 vcf in windows of 1 kb (500 bp on each side of the most central SNP

within each TE-DMR). Local PCAs (Fig. S7l-m) were performed on the SNPs from

SNP720.MAF005.g01 located within 1 kb around the TE-DMR.

GWASs were performed using emmax-intel64 with parameters -v -d 10 using the aBN kinship

matrix and the SNP720.MAF005.g01 vcf. For epivariation prevalence at each TE-DMR, we only

analyzed the 490 naturally epivariable TE-DMRs with at least 5 *ddm1*-like epivariants and with

low genomic inflation (λ_{GC}<1.1). For heatmap representation of the results (Fig. S9a) we

subsampled to the SNPs with the highest p-values within 20 kb windows across the genome. For

genome-wide epivariation prevalence, we used as phenotype the proportion of natural *ddm1*-like

epivariant per strain among all naturally epivariable TE-DMRs present in the strain.

McrBC-qPCR analysis of TE-DMR epivariation in Cvi-0 x Col-0 RILs

We selected for an extended segregation analysis 40 of the 115 naturally hypomethylated TE-

DMRs identified in Cvi-0 to represent a variety of superfamilies and reversion categories (Fig.

5c). Genomic DNA was extracted from frozen leaf tissue using Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini Kit,

and 30 to 100ng was used for McrBC (NEB) overnight digestion (15hr). Levels of unmethylated

DNA over a target region were calculated as the fraction of DNA concentration measured by

qPCR remaining following McrBC digestion compared to the same sample where McrBC is

replaced by water (undigested). Efficiency of digestion was confirmed using the *ddm1*-

independent DNA methylation at the 3' end of *AT5G13440* as a positive control, and the

unmethylated *AT5G13440* as a negative control (primers listed in Table S7).

Using primers designed with primer3 (https://github.com/primer3-org/primer3) to specifically

amplify each region (Table S7), we first confirmed for 34 out of the 38 TE-DMRs that they are

differentially methylated between Col-0 and Cvi-0 in freshly harvested tissue of two sibling

plants. The remaining 4 TE-DMRs either displayed WT-like methylation in Cvi-0 (1 TE-DMR),

hypomethylation in Col-0 (1 TE-DMR), or did not amplify in Cvi-0 (2 TE-DMRs), and we

therefore excluded them from further analysis. Using McrBC-qPCR, we then measured the

methylation levels of the 34 differentially methylated TE-DMRs across a diverse set of 36 F8

Cvi x Col RILs (Table S8), that include the 20 of the minimal set identified by Simon et al. [74] as

well as 16 additional with maximal genetic differences to the initial set of 20. TE-DMRs were

considered hypomethylated when McrBC-qPCR methylation levels were below 40%, WT-like

methylated when above 60%, and intermediate otherwise. TE-DMRs and ELF8 alleles were

considered as Cvi-derived when both bordering markers are of the Cvi-genotype (B), Col-

derived when both are A, and NA otherwise (C or D genotypes or non-agreeing bordering

markers). Reversion events were identified as Cvi-derived TE-DMRs with WT-like methylation

levels.

Genetic associations between TE-DMR methylation levels and the genetic maps of these RILs[74]

were computed using the mqmscan function of the qtl R package with a window.size of 10 and a

step.size of 2. The significance threshold at alpha = 0.05 was calculated using mqmpermutation

with the same parameters as well as n.perm = 10 and batchsize = 25. LOD scores were

normalized by the significance threshold for heatmap visualization (Fig. 5c). For one TE-DMR,

carried by an *ATCOPIA23* on chromosome 3 in Col-0, associations are strongest with markers in

trans on chromosome 5 which correspond to a TE insertion polymorphism of *ATCOPIA23*

identified at this location on chromosome 5 in Cvi-0[15]. By mapping BS-seq reads on the Cvi-0

ONT assembly *ATCOPIA23* was confirmed to be absent in Cvi-0 from its original location on

Chr3 and present on Chr5 in an hypomethylated state (Fig. S9d), thus explaining the *trans*

association of hypomethylation with markers bordering that locus.

For the 10 RILs for which BS-seq data was publicly available[75], mCG levels were calculated

over all naturally epivariable TE-DMRs with *ddm1*-like methylation in Cvi-0 (N=104, Fig. S9e,

S10i) or with WT-like methylation in Cvi-0 (N=465, Fig. S10h). Average mCG levels were

calculated over both replicates of each RIL and compared to each replicates of the Col-0 and

Cvi-0 parental lineages sequenced as part of the same study (Fig. S9e, S10h-i). Hypomethylation

and WT-like methylation were classified using the thresholds defined in the epiRILs (<0.3944

for *ddm1*-like and >0.7586 for WT-like). Genotypes were again determined using concordant

bordering markers, with reversion events identified as Cvi-derived TE-DMRs with WT-like

methylation levels, while spontaneous hypomethylation events as Col-derived TE-DMRs with

ddm1-like methylation levels. Correlations between methylation levels and genotypes were

calculated as a Pearson correlation coefficient.

Generalized linear modeling of genetic and environmental determinants

Association between the presence of *ddm1*-like epivariants over the 1068 naturally epivariable

TE-DMRs and a set of selected genetic parameters was calculated using a binomial Generalized

linear model (logit link) using R glm function. In order to limit the risk of overfitting, we

restricted our analysis to the following set of the genetic parameters which we deemed most

biologically relevant: copy number of each TE family in each genome, genotype at *ELF8* (using

the top SNP at 2:2431793 identified in our GWAS), genotype at *NRPE1* (using the top SNP at

2:16719082 identified in previous studies[15,80]), presence of an EPICAT as defined previously[66]

within, under 500bp, or >500bp from the TE-DMR, distance to the nearest gene, density of CG

sites, and length of the TE-DMR. TE family copy-numbers were estimated using average read-

depth after remapping short-read sequencing to a library of consensus TEs as described

previously[14]. For all 10 parameters, the variables were tested as fixed effects in the glm, and for

NRPE1 and *ELF8* genotypes we also included interaction effects with copy-number and gene

distance respectively. Discrete parameters such as genotypes or associations with EPICATs were

considered as categorical variables, while quantitative parameters were Z-scored (R scale

function) to avoid range effects. For each fixed or interaction effect, an individual GLM was

built to assess their significance in explaining the prevalence of *ddm1*-like epivariation over the

1068 naturally epivariable TE-DMRs after including the three first components of the PCA of

the aBN kinship matrix calculated from the `SNP720.MAF005.g01` vcf to take into account

population structure (together the three PCs explain ~55% of the variance). If significant

($p<0.05$), the variable with the largest R^2 (McFadden adjusted) was included in the GLM, to then

iteratively test the effect of the remaining variables. For significant interaction effects, the

variable was included along with its fixed effect.

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196 quantitative AraClim biovariables were downloaded from

https://gramene.org/CLIMtools/arabidopsis_v2.0/AraCLIM-V2/. After Z-scoring (R scale

function), they were included individually as an explanatory variable in individual binomial

GLMs (logit link) built for each of the 490 TE-DMRs with sufficient epivariant counts (see

GWAS methods) which included the first three PCs of the kinship matrix, the potential *cis*

modifiers identified by GWAS (Fig. S9a-b), and the two main *trans* modifiers of the number of

ddm1-like epivariation per strain, namely TE copy-number and *ELF8* (Fig. 6f). P values were

then corrected using the Benjamini and Hochberg correction for false discovery rate using the R

p.adjust function. When several AraClim variables were found to be significant (adjusted

$p<0.05$), the one explaining the largest fraction of variance (McFadden adjusted R^2) was

selected.

RNA-seq analyses in natural strains and in the epiRILs

For analysis of gene expression in natural strains, RNA-seq data of the 728 strains analyzed previously[53] was downloaded from GEO (Accession GSE80744). For analysis of gene expression in the epiRILs, total RNA was extracted with Trizol according to manufacturer's instructions (Invitrogen) from rosette leaves collected from pools of 5-10 siblings of the same set of 10 F9 epiRILs selected for sRNA analysis and sequenced by the BGI. Reads were mapped using STAR[146] with options --outFilterMultimapNmax 1 --alignIntronMax 10000. Coverage over exons was calculated using bedtools coverage and read counts were then normalized over entire transcripts using R package DEseq2. A pseudo count of 0.001 was added to all normalized expression levels to compute log ratios.

For each naturally epivariable TE-DMRs, expression levels of the two closest genes were compared between strains carrying the TE-DMR with *ddm1*-like or with WT-like methylation by computing the log10 ratio between the median expression in the first set over that in the second set of strains (hypo/hyper log ratios) as well as the p-value of a Wilcoxon rank-sum test between the two sets. To obtain random expectations of hypo/hyper log ratios (gray lines in Fig. 7a and S11a) we shuffled randomly the strain labels among all strains with RNA-seq data and repeated the reshuffling for a total of 10 times.

For TE-DMRs where epivariation in nature is associated with ≥2-fold expression changes at one of the two nearest genes, we searched in the set of 10 epiRILs sequenced for those that were stably inherited hypomethylated from the *ddm1* parent in at least one of the epiRILs. To limit the possibility of indirect epihaplotypic effects that could be due to the co-occurrence of multiple hypomethylated TE-DMRs in the epiRILs, we restricted our analysis to naturally epivariable TE-DMRs that are within 5kb of the nearest gene and which are not separated from it by another naturally epivariable TE-DMR. For the 99 TE-DMRs matching these criteria we then calculated hypo/hyper log10 ratios of gene expression averages between the epiRILs where they are *ddm1*-derived and hypomethylated and the epiRILs where they are WT-derived and WT-like methylated. For the TE-DMRs that have reverted to WT-like methylation in at least one but not all of the epiRILs where it is *ddm1*-derived, we also calculated the log10 ratio of gene expression averages between the epiRILs where they are *ddm1*-derived and hypomethylated and the epiRILs where they are *ddm1*-derived and WT-like methylated (rev/hypo log ratios, Fig. S11f).

Functional analysis of *ELF8* alleles

Although the coding-sequence of *ELF8'* differs from that of the reference allele by 40 SNPs (Fig. 6f), none of these are missense. To confirm that the frame-shifting single nucleotide deletion present in the TAIR10 sequence of *ELF8* (indicated with a * in Fig. 6f) is a sequencing error, we sequenced the cDNA of the Col-0 *ELF8* allele both upstream and downstream. RNA extractions were performed on flash-frozen ground tissue (shoots) from Col-0 WT using Macherey-Nagel Nucleospin RNA plant kit following manufacturer's instructions. Reverse-transcriptase was performed using SuperScript IV (ThermoFisher Scientific) with oligo d(T)$_{20}$ primers and cDNA was amplified by PCR using primers listed in Table S12.

Comparison of the predicted folding of the protein sequence of both alleles was performed using AlphaFold2[147,148] finding no appreciable alteration (Fig. S10a). *ELF8* expression levels in strains carrying either *ELF8* alleles were compared using matching published RNAseq data[53] and compared to the expression levels in the same sets of strains of *FLOWERING LOCUS C* and *GENERAL REGULATORY FACTOR11* (*GRF11*), for which a direct role for ELF8 in the establishment and maintenance of H3K4 methylation over promoter regions has been obtained[149–151] (Fig. S10b-c). *FLC* expression levels in the two sets of strains were compared to their flowering time (Fig. S10d) using published FT16 phenotypic data of an overlapping set of strains[52]. TEs that lose CHH methylation in the *jmj14 ldl1 ldl2* triple mutant were obtained from a previous study of this mutant line[79] to compare mCHH and mCG methylation levels in strains carrying either the *ELF8'* or the *ELF8^ref* allele (Fig. S10e-f).

Phenotypic associations with AraPheno

417 quantitative phenotypic variables were downloaded from the AraPheno database (https://arapheno.1001genomes.org/) and for each of them we retrieved from the SNP720.MAF005.g01 vcf the genotypes at up to the 5 top significant SNPs identified in araGWAS (https://aragwas.1001genomes.org/#/). For each Z-scored arapheno variable a gaussian GLM (identity link) was built with R glm function using as explanatory variables the first three principal components of the kinship matrix as well as the genotypes at the top significant SNPs if significant in the model. After confirming that none of these SNPs correspond to a *cis*-modifier of epivariation identified by GWAS (Fig. S9a-c), each of the 490

naturally epivariable TE-DMRs used for the AraClim analysis were then tested individually as a

seventh categorical predictor. P values were then corrected using the Benjamini and Hochberg

correction for false discovery rate using the R p.adjust function. When an epivariation was found

to be significantly associated (adjusted p <0.05) with multiple phenotypic variables, the one

where the epivariation explains the largest fraction of phenotypic variance (McFadden adjusted

R^2) was selected.

HVA22E **expression analysis in epiRILs**

F10 offsprings of epiRILs #150 and #229 (*ddm1*-like at *AT5TE74320*) as well as of epiRILs

#558 and #193 (WT-like at *AT5TE74320*) were obtained from F9 siblings propagated in bulk in

standard growth conditions. F10 progeny of each epiRIL was grown on MS-media in Petri dishes

in standard growth conditions (23°C) for 2 weeks. Cold-stress (CS) was performed by

transferring 2-weeks old F10 seedlings at 4°C for 24 hours. Shoots of seedlings exposed (CS) or

not (CTL) to the cold-stress were simultaneously collected at the end of the 24h cold-stress and

flash-frozen either individually for methylation analysis or in pools of 8 seedlings for *HVA22E*

expression. Methylation levels of *AT5TE74320* were measured in individual F10 seeldings using

McrBC-qPCR on flash-frozen shoot tissue as described above (primers listed in Table S7)

confirming that the TE-DMR is stably inherited in all F10 offsprings either in the *ddm1*-like

(epiRILs 150 and 229) or WT-like (epiRILs 558 and 193) methylation states independently of

the cold-stress (Fig. S13b).

RNA extractions were performed on flash-frozen ground tissue (shoots) from five pools of 8 F10

seedlings using Macherey-Nagel Nucleospin RNA plant kit following manufacturer's

instructions. Reverse-transcriptase was performed using SuperScript IV (ThermoFisher

Scientific) with oligo d(T)$_{20}$ primers and cDNA was cleaned up for qPCR using Macherey-Nagel

Nucleospin PCR Cleanup. Expression levels of *HVA22E* were normalized by the average of

three reference genes (*AT3G02065, AT2G41020, AT1G13320*). Primers used for qPCR are listed

in Table S12.

Phenotyping of epiRILs growth rates in mild-drought or well-watered conditions

Growth and phenotyping of epiRILs on the Phenoscope (https://phenoscope.versailles.inrae.fr/)

were performed as described previously[90]. Briefly, using seeds obtained from the Versailles

Arabidopsis Stock Center (https://publiclines.versailles.inrae.fr/), six plants per epiRIL were

grown in individual pots, three of which were maintained at 60% (control) of the maximum soil

water content (SWC) and the other three at 30% (mild-drought) of this maximum. First, seeds

were germinated at soil saturation (= 100% of the maximum SWC) and seedlings were set up on

the robot at 8 days after sowing (DAS). Control and mild-drought SWC were stably reached and

maintained from 12 and 16 DAS, respectively. Instant Relative Expansion Rates (RER instant)

were calculated as the relative growth rate of the projected rosette area, integrated over 3 days

windows. The projected rosette area was extracted by segmentation from daily zenithal images.

Statistical analyses

Unless specified otherwise, p-values are obtained by two-sided Wilcoxon rank sum test and

statistical analyses and graphics were performed and obtained in MATLAB.

Data availability

Raw BS-seq, RNA-seq, sRNA-seq, and ONT-seq read-data (fastq and fasta of 20 *de novo*

genome assemblies, fast5 of epiRIL238) generated and analyzed for this study are available in

the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) under project PRJEB77668.

WGS data was obtained in FASTQ format for the 1047 strains of the 1001genomes.org project

from NCBI SRA Project PRJNA273563. Raw RNA-seq data was obtained from NCBI GEO

Accession GSE80744. Processed BS-seq data was obtained from NCBI GEO Accession

GSE43857. Raw DAP-seq data was obtained from NCBI GEO Accession GSE60143.

Author contributions

PB and VC designed the study, supervised the work and wrote the manuscript. EC performed

DNA, RNA, and sRNA extractions of epiRILs as well as ONT-sequencing of 20 strains. LDO

performed analysis of WGBS-seq data, GWAS and GLM as well as de novo assembly of 20

genomes using ONT-sequencing data. VS contributed to the initial analysis of the WGBS-seq

data of the epiRILs. GBV performed epihaplotyping of F9 epiRILs. PB analyzed epivariation

segregation over TE-DMRs in the epiRILs and RILs. CX performed McrBC analysis of RILs.

AS and PB analyzed sRNA seq data. MEM and CX performed expression and DNA methylation

analysis at *HVA22E*. MBa performed single-read DNA methylation analysis using ONT. MBo

generated and extracted sRNAs of *ddm1* compound mutants. ADF and LQ estimated TE family

copy-numbers in the genomes of the 1001 Genomes Project.vEG and OL performed phenotyping

of epiRILs using the Phenoscope. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

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Declaration of interests

1195 The authors declare no competing interests.

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