Domestication shaped the chromatin landscape of grain amaranth

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Plant domestication has had profound impacts on the morphology and genetic diversity of crops. Beyond sequence diversity, changes in chromatin structure can play an important role in plant adaptation. However, the interplay between the chromatin landscape and plant domestication remains unclear. We present a high-quality genome assembly and chromatin landscape map of the ancient pseudo-cereal, amaranth. Using ATAC-sequencing of multiple accessions of three grain amaranth species and two wild relatives, we show that the overall amount of accessible chromatin is highly conserved, about 2.5% of all chromatin switched states, with a higher fraction of the genome repeatedly opening during domestication processes. These differentially accessible chromatin regions, between the crops and their wild ancestor, were species-specific and significantly associated with selective sweeps - reflecting the repeated independent domestication of amaranth. Our findings reveal the dynamic interplay between domestication and the chromatin landscape, highlighting an additional layer of diversity in crops.

KEYWORDS Chromatin evolution, amaranth, domestication

Introduction

Plant domestication has had profound impacts on humans, plants, and even ecosystems [1, 2, 3]. The adaptation of plant populations to the human-made environments required numerous trait changes and imposed selective pressure on plant populations. Some of the traits that changed during domestication have been studied in recent years. These include morphological [4], physiological [5] and intrinsic traits such as metabolite composition [6] and gene expression [4]

While the impact of domestication on numerous traits and genetic diversity has been studied [7], the impact on physical properties of DNA has only recently started to receive attention. Methylation has been shown to vary genome-wide between domesticates and their wild relatives [8, 9] and the change has been associated with several phenotypic changes [10, 11, 12]. In addition, genome size has decreased in multiple domesticated species, even in the absence of whole genome duplications [13, 14, 15], and polyploidization has also been suggested to occur more frequently in species that harbor domesticates than in their relatives [16].

The chromatin landscape describes the physical constellation of the DNA molecule packed in the nucleus. DNA can be tightly packed as heterochromatin (closed), or not bound to histone proteins and therefore accessible to other molecules (euchromatin) [17]. The open state of euchromatin allows transcription factors and polymerases to bind to DNA and be transcribed. Through its regulation of DNA accessibility, the chromatin state influences gene expression, local recombination rate, transposable element (TE) activity, and genome structure [18, 19, 20]. While chromatin state changes can be plastic and vary between tissues and even between individual cells [21], heritable chromatin differences are observed on the species, population, and between-individual level [22, 23].

The importance of chromatin for gene expression and other essential functions suggests that chromatin and the chromatin landscape might be involved in adaptation. For instance, the increased capability of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and *Dekkera bruxellensis* to ferment glucose under aerobic conditions is caused by changes in the chromatin state of mitochondrial genes, which evolved independently in both species [24]. A few studies have looked at the impact of plant domestication on chromatin accessibility. In soybean a comparative genomic analysis revealed a 3.7% change in chromatin state [23] and approximately 21,000 chromatin loops were differentially formed between wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) and each of its wild relatives *Triticum durum* and *Aegilops tauschii* [25]. However, most studies to date have relied on comparative analysis between just a few accessions of the crop and the wild ancestor, limiting their power to detect chromatin state changes, since the variation can be high even between individuals of the same species [26]. Hence, a population-scale comparison along the domestication gradient should have the power to reveal the interplay between directional selection on morphological traits during domestication and the chromatin landscape.

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One model that is well-suited for this purpose are the grain amaranths. These nutritious diploid pseudo-cereals from the Americas that have been domesticated at least three times from one ancestral species (*A. hybridus*) [27]. The most commonly cultivated species, *A. hypochondriacus* and *A. cruentus*, were domesticated in Central and North America, respectively, whereas *A. caudatus* was domesticated in South America. The wild *Amaranthus* species, *A. quitensis*, has previously been suggested to have been involved in the domestication of *A. caudatus*. Indeed, strong signatures of gene flow are seen between these sympatric relatives [28]. The replicated domestication and parallel selection for domestication traits make the grain amaranth species complex an ideal system to study the impact of domestication and selection on the chromatin landscape.

We sequenced the pan-chromatin map of 42 samples representing the five *Amaranthus* species that were involved in the repeated domestication of the crop. We first assemble an improved reference genome, its methylome and high-resolution chromatin map through Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin (ATAC) sequencing for the domesticated species *A. hypochondriacus*. We show that a number of transposon families preferentially insert into open chromatin regions, but methylation silences a large proportion of retrotransposons in open chromatin regions. While chromatin accessibility is mostly conserved through the domestication process, a significant number of regions changed their chromatin state during domestication. Consistent with the previously identified independent domestications of the three grain amaranths, most chromatin changes are species specific. Interestingly, several key candidate regions have overlapping selection signals, suggesting an interplay between chromatin and selection during plant domestication.

Results

A. hypochondriacus reference genome and annotation

To facilitate our genomic analyzes, we generated an improved *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome assembly, using a sequencing depth of 30X HiFi (mean length: 13 Kb) and 32X ONT (mean length: 48 Kb, Extended Data S1), resulting in a total assembly length of 434,800,201 divided into 348 contigs (N50: 9,806,733 bp, L50: 16). The assembly was further scaffolded using Hi-C data and manually inspected to capture the 16 haploid chromosomes of *A. hypochondriacus*, producing the final 434,863,491 bp assembly consisting of 232 scaffolds (N50: 25,996,252 bp, L50: 7). The final assembly demonstrated high BUSCO completeness (99.3% complete BUSCOs, including 2.12 % duplicated) and an assembly length increase of 31 Mb compared to the previous, primarily short read based, reference genome [434,863,491 bp compared to 403,994,491 bp; 29, 30]. The new assembly was largely collinear to the previous reference genome, however, chromosome 11 featured a large inversion compared to the previous reference genome (Extended Data S2). A segment of chromosome 10 that is hypothesized to contain an erroneous assembly of organellar contigs in the previous assembly [30], shows considerable rearrangement in the new assembly, indicating correction of the misassembled region (Extended Data S3). The increased length and BUSCO completeness of the assembly in addition to the correction of putative misassembled regions demonstrate the high quality of the assembly.

To annotate genes in the genome assembly, we combined *ab initio* gene prediction (24,583 genes and 27,697 isoforms, 98.8% BUSCO completeness) with a set of high-quality full-length transcripts obtained from isoform sequencing (35,187 transcripts, 94.5% BUSCO completeness). We merged both computational annotation and protein coding transcripts from the full-length transcriptome into the final genome annotation that includes 25,167 annotated protein coding genes with a total of 30,529 annotated isoforms. The new annotation featured the highest annotation completeness for amaranth to date (98.8 % BUSCO completeness; supplementary Table S1). The annotation of 23,155 isoforms was based directly on full-length transcripts from isoform sequencing and, therefore, includes high-confidence annotation of untranslated regions. A total of 219 Mb (50.43%) of the assembly was annotated as repetitive elements. Large parts of the genome were annotated as DNA transposons (98 Mb, 22.62%) or retroelements (109 Mb, 25.17%), including a high fraction of LTR elements (97 Mb, 22.33%; supplementary Table S2). Corresponding to previous reports [31], LTRs and LINEs were mostly annotated in gene-sparse regions while DNA transposons were more evenly distributed along the genome (Extended Data S4).

We calculated the phylogenetic and syntenic relationship among species of *Amaranthus* genus and with closely related species to study their genome evolution (Extended Data E5, E2). Peaks in the distribution of synonymous substitutions (K_s) indicate a single whole-genome duplication in *Amaranthus* ($K_s \sim 0.5$) compared to *Beta vulgaris* ($K_s \sim 0.625$, Extended Data E5). Within the *Amaranthus* genus, genomes were highly co-linear with few large rearrangements (Extended Data E5).

The A. hypochondriacus chromatin map

We used the improved reference genome to investigate the general structure of the chromatin landscape of amaranth by creating the first genome-wide map of the chromatin landscape of *A. hypochondriacus* through ATAC sequencing (ATACome). We sequenced a total of 8 samples from leaf (n=5) and seedling (n=3) tissue from the reference accession PI 558499 (Plainsman), yielding a total of 308,579,996 read pairs. From the 269,667,484 read pairs that uniquely mapped to

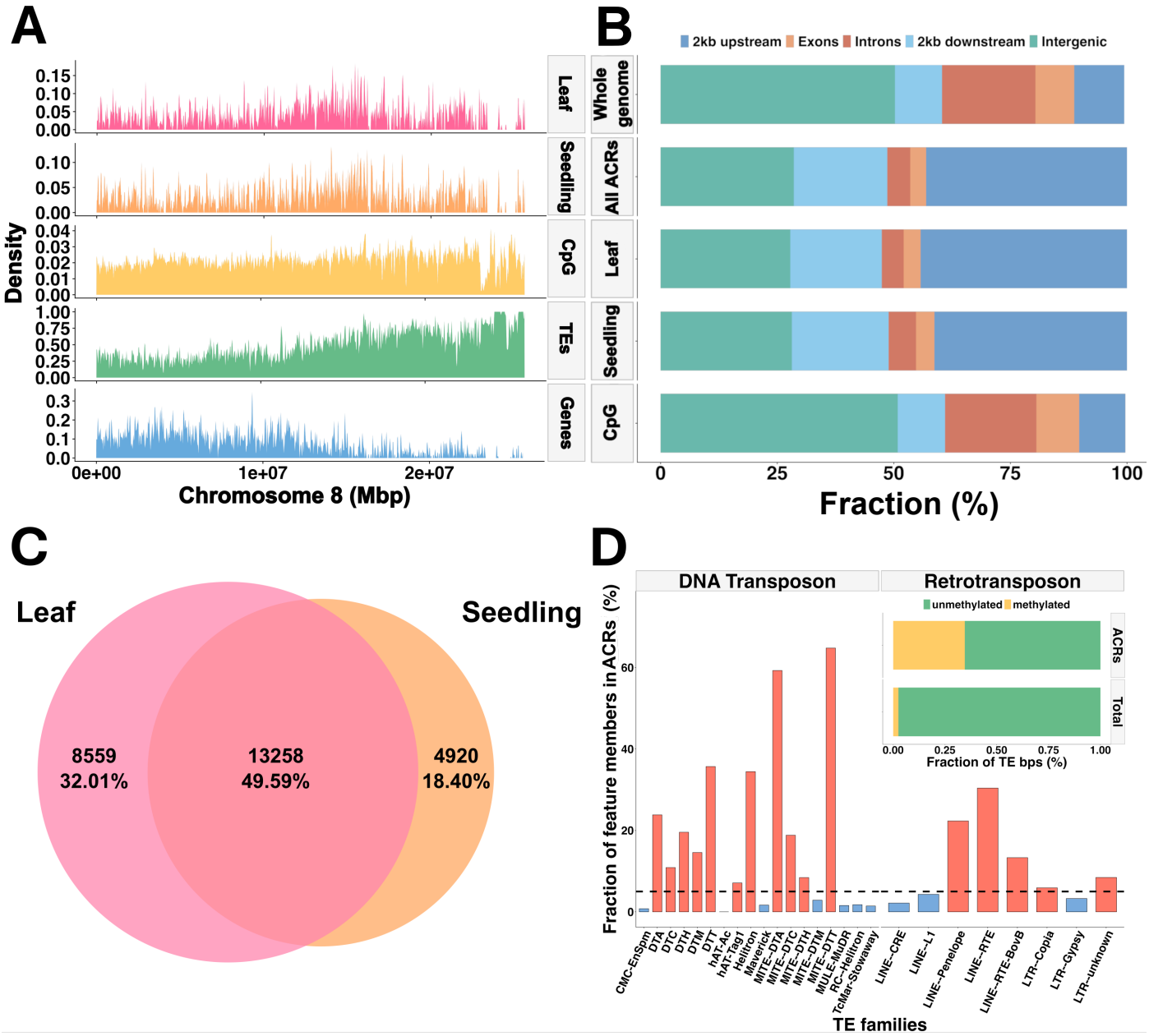

Figure 1 Genome and chromatin landscape of *A. hypochondriacus*. A. Overview of the distribution of the transposable content (green), gene content (blue), accessible chromatin content in seedling tissue (orange), and accessible chromatin content in leaf tissue (pink) along chromosome 8. **B.** Distribution of accessible chromatin regions (ACRs) among the genomic regions. **C.** Overlap of peaks called between seedling and leaf tissue samples. **D.** Number of occurrences in ACRs for each of the 26 TE families and whether the family is enriched (blue) or depleted (red) in open chromatin compared to the whole genome. **Inset:** Fraction of methylated (yellow) and unmethylated (green) base pairs for all TEs and TE base pairs within ACRs.

the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome (Extended Data E1), we identified a total of 150,728 accessible chromatin regions (ACRs) using the MACS3 pipeline [32]. Most ACRs were shorter than 1000 bp (Figure S5), with the largest at 6,438 bp. As ACRs larger than 4000 bp are more likely to be false positives, we exclude these ACRs from our analysis going forward, resulting in a total of 150,519 ACRs. On average we identified 22,156 ACRs per sample, covering about 11,238,400bp (2.56% of the reference genome, Extended Data S6). This fraction is similar to the range identified in other plant species and fits within the expected correlation between genome size and open chromatin [33, 34, Extended Data E4], suggesting that open chromatin can approximate functional space in the genome [35]. About 87.94% of ACRs physically overlapped between at least two samples (Extended Data S7). To reduce inherent variation in sequencing chromatin and create a

more robust set of ACRs, we fused overlapping ACRs and discarded ACRs that were found only in one sample. This left the completed ATACome with 29,188 unique ACRs covering 23,042,481bp or about 5.29% of the reference genome, representing the most complete overview of the functional space of amaranth and its genus to date.

Investigating the landscape of these ACRs, revealed a high association of ACRs with genes regardless of tissue (Fig. 1B). In total, 75.99% of ACRs were part of a gene body (intron: 4.32%, exon: 3.67%) or closely associated with it (2kb upstream of transcription start site (TSS): 40.27%, 2kb downstream of transcription termination site (TTS): 25.76%) (Fig. 1B). The distribution of ACRs among genome features was significantly different from a random distribution, likely reflecting the close association of ACRs with genes and their role in controlling gene expression [36]. Nearly half (49.59%) of the 30,304 ACRs were shared between the two tissues, documenting the within-plant variation in the chromatin landscape. Almost twice as many tissue-specific ACRs were identified in leaf tissue (8559) than in seedling tissue (4920), suggesting a higher differentiation of chromatin in leaves, compared to the 'mixed' seeding sample (Fig. 1C).

In addition to chromatin, methylation can control functional regions in the genome. As such, we generated a methylation map of *A. hypochondriacus* using methylation data obtained from whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) of young leaf tissue from Plainsman using Bismark [37]. Of the 85,240,870 reads, 77,502,531 uniquely mapped to the reference genome. In total, 16.98% of Cs in the genome were methylated. Of these, 8.07% were in a CpG context, 4.63% were in CHG context and 4.28% were in a CHH context. Of the Cs in a CpG context, 75.77% were methylated, while 41.64% of Cs in CHG context and 5.47% of Cs in CHH context were methylated. Methylation in CpG, CHG and CHH contexts were higher in amaranth than observed in *Arabidopsis* but similar to grapevine, which has a similar genome size as amaranth [10, 38]. About 50.82% of methylation was accumulated in intergenic regions, 9.85% upstream of genes and 10.15% in gene bodies (Fig. 1B). Methylation in ACRs was significantly depleted with only 3.17% of open chromatin being methylated, indicating that the majority of accessible chromatin allows binding. Accordingly, the lowest methylation density was at the TSS, aligning with the highest density of accessible chromatin (21 bp downstream from the TSS) and probably facilitating the expression of genes (Fig. 2A).

The increased accessibility of genes, particularly around the TSS, potentially leads to increased expression of genes with open chromatin upstream. Indeed, we found that genes associated with tissue-specific ACRs showed significantly higher expression in their corresponding tissues compared to randomly selected genes (Extended Data S8). This was the case for ACR genes in leaves and in seedlings (Fig. 2b). Despite the significantly higher expression of ACR genes, a gene ontology enrichment analysis did not find any significant terms that overlapped between tissues, but 26 enriched functions for seedling ACR genes and 13 enriched functions in leaf tissue ACR genes were identified (Extended Data S9). In leaf tissue, most enriched functions pertained to metabolic processes, while in seedling tissue 'signaling' and 'response to stimuli' were the most common.

The interaction of chromatin and transposable elements (TEs) is also important for the functionality of plant genomes. TEs pose a threat to the integrity of the genome, due to their ability to insert into functional regions of the genome, potentially disrupting vital genes or other important regulatory elements [39]. Hence, the suppression of TE transposition by 'locking' them into condensed (closed) chromatin, is likely one of the important functions of the chromatin state [40]. While most ACRs (78.83%) overlapped with TEs by at least 1bp, the chromatin landscape was overall depleted for TEs compared to the rest of the genome. Indeed, TEs made up 47.74% of the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome but only 35.23% of open chromatin (Extended Data S10). We found 11 DNA-transposon families and five retrotransposon families to be enriched in ACRs (Fig. 1D). This enrichment is potentially caused by the preference of these families to insert near gene bodies, creating an association with open chromatin, but also hindering their containment in closed chromatin [41]. Of the 63,782 TEs within open chromatin, 82.31% overlapped partially with ACRs while 15.48% were completely open, another 2.21% of the TEs were large enough to carry entire ACRs with them. Therefore, the majority of ACR associated TEs were not fully accessible and thus potentially not active. Furthermore, methylation within ACRs was higher in TE sections, where 78.29% of methylated Cs were part of TEs. The number of methylated base pairs of TEs within ACRs was higher than for TEs outside of ACRs (Fig. 1D).

Chromatin changes during amaranth domestication

To elucidate the role that adaptation played in the divergence of the chromatin landscape between species an accurate representation of the diversity within each species is needed. As such, we sequenced a total of 42 samples from leaf (n=22) and seedling (n=20) tissue from 18 accessions across five species, specifically *A. caudatus*, *A. cruentus*, *A. hypochondriacus*, *A. hybridus* and *A. quitensis*, yielding a total of 1,710,942,952 read pairs (supplementary Table S3).

Genome comparisons are often complicated by the alignment to a single reference that might be unevenly related to the studied individuals. To assess the potential of reference bias, we aligned our *A. hypochondriacus* ATAC-seq data to the *A. cruentus* reference genome [42]. We called a total of 1,238,524 ACRs on the *A. cruentus* genome, compared to 150,728 when mapping to *A. hypochondriacus*. By joining physically overlapping ACRs we confirmed 24,854 unique ACRs covering 4.89% of the reference genome, similar to the 5.29% of the *A. hypochondraicus* reference (Extended Data S11, S12). The association of ACRs with genes was also seen in *A. cruentus*, where 68.24% of ACRs were found in (exon

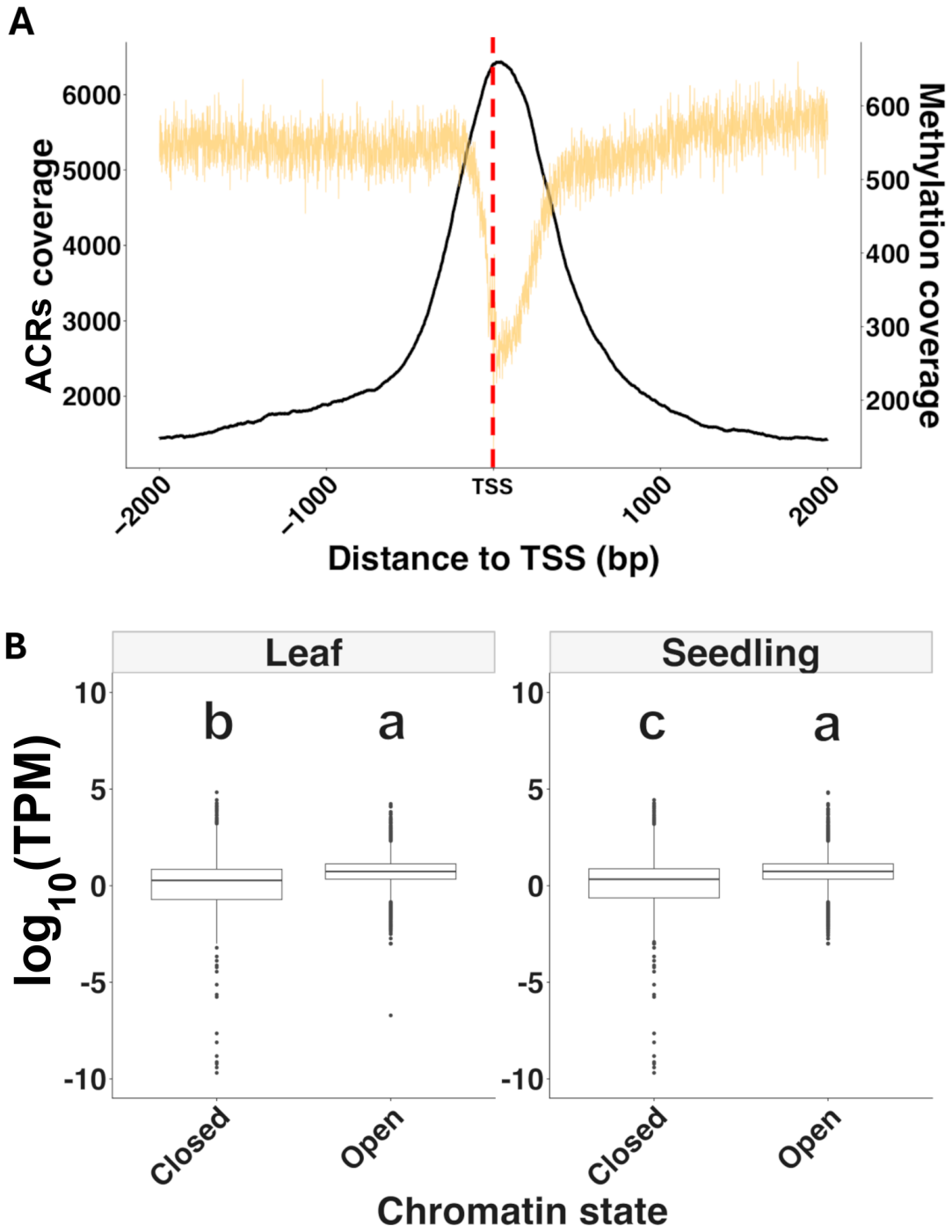

Figure 2 Association between chromatin and gene expression. A. Accessible chromatin region (ACR) coverage (black) and methylation coverage (yellow) near the transcription start site (TSS). The red line indicates the TSS. **B.** Mean gene expression across 8 tissues of genes in accessible chromatin regions (ACRs) (open) and equal number of random genes (closed). Letters indicate significant differences between groups based on an ANOVA
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5.26%, intron 6.63%) or near genes (2kb upstream 37.64%, 2kb downstream 18.68%) (Extended Data S13). As in *A. hypochondriacus*, nearly half (46.37%) of the unique ACRs were found in both tissues, with 7,579 and 5,746 being unique to leaf and seedling tissue, respectively (Extended Data S14). Chi-square tests comparing ACRs called from the two reference genomes showed that neither the number of ACRs called ($p = 0.2379$), the distribution of ACRs along the

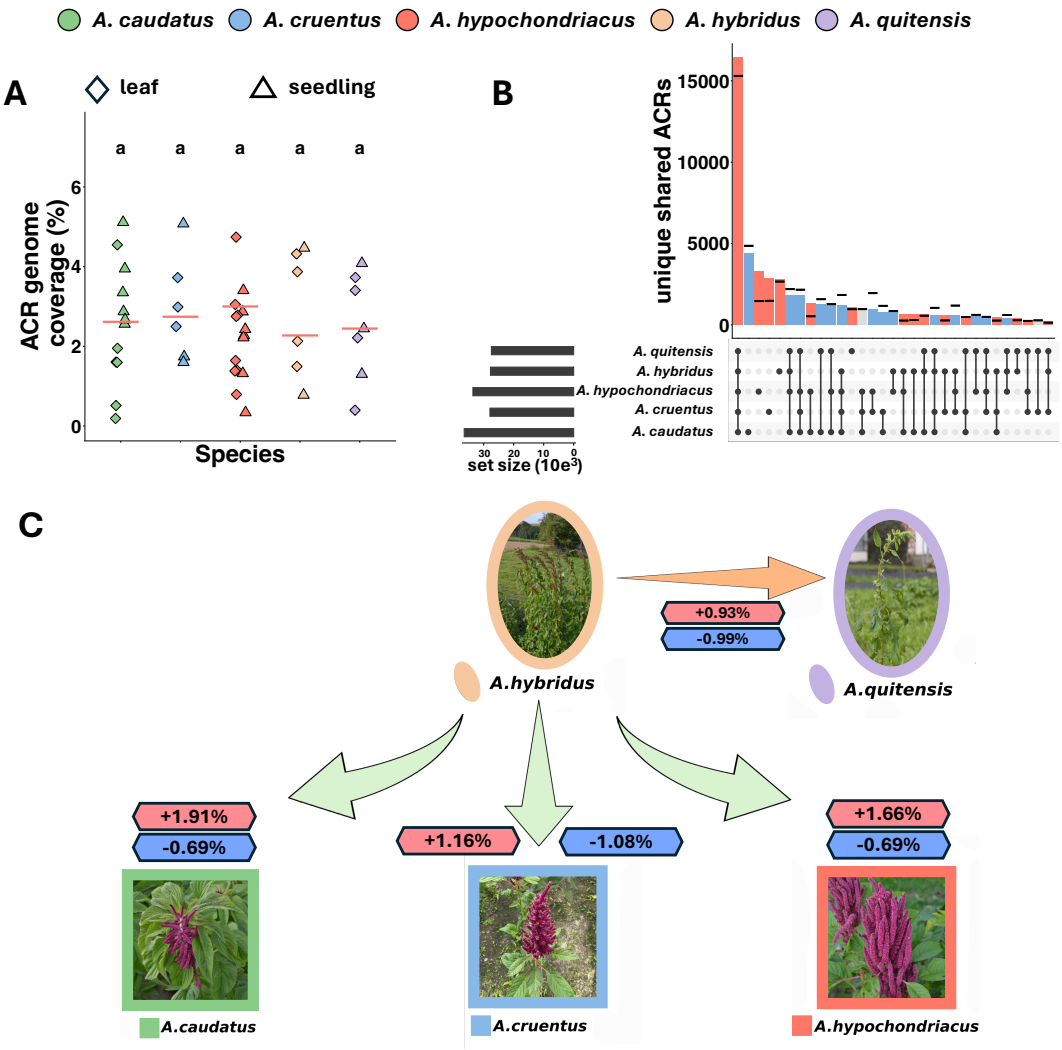

Figure 3 Chromatin changes during amaranth domestication. A. Fraction of genome covered by ACRs in each sample. Red lines indicates the mean coverage per species. **B.** Number of unique and shared ACRs across species. Colors indicate whether the groups are enriched (red), depleted (blue) in ACRs or within (gray) the confidence intervals (black lines). **C.** Fraction of genome in differentially accessible chromatin between wild *A. hybridus* and grain amaranth species that opened up (red boxes) or closed (blue boxes) compared to the chromatin landscape of *A. hybridus*

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genome (p = 0.882), nor the distribution among tissues (p = 0.1045) significantly differed between the different reference genomes. Together, these results suggest no significant impact of reference bias when calling ACRs of different grain amaranth species. Hence, we carried out our multiple species comparisons using the new *A. hypochondriacus* genome.

Across all samples of the five species, 79% of the reads uniquely mapped to the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome. A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of single nucleotide polymorphisms called from ATAC-seq data reconstructs the population structure similar to the whole genome sequencing data (Extended Data E3A). Calling coverage peaks to identify accessible chromatin from this data identified a total of 178,194 ACRs, covering an average of 2.38% to 2.67% of the reference genome (Fig. 3A). A PCA based on the ACRs separated the samples stronger by tissue than by species, contrary to the PCA on genotypic data, but aligning with the important developmental function of chromatin (Extended Data E3). An ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference in total amount of open chromatin (Fig. 3A) or total number of ACRs (Extended Data S15). The merging of disparate ACRs from all species resulted in 51,571 distinct ACRs covering a total of 10.2% of the reference genome. ACRs that were shared by all species were the most frequent (31.07%, Fig. 3B), similar to the large overlap between tissues (Fig. 1C). The next most common groups were ACRs unique to each of the three domesticates (5.61% to 10.32%) and unique to their wild ancestor (5.05%). This indicates

that most changes within the chromatin landscape that occurred during domestication were species specific (a total of 32.43% of all ACRs), reflecting the separate domestication processes. In addition, nearly 10 % of ACRs were shared between two or more domesticates, but not with a wild relative, indicating that a large fraction of the ACRs changed during domestication. To control the observed overlaps of ACRs between species for unequal sample size and structure, we permuted species assignments for every species combination (Fig. 3B). For 29 of the 31 species combinations the ACR count was outside the 95 % confidence interval, suggesting that they are not randomly overlapping. Comparing each of the domesticated species (*A. caudatus*, *A. cruentus*, and *A. hypochondriacus*) to the wild ancestor *A. hybridus*, we identified between 13,856 and 15,742 total ACRs that changed their state (closed-open and open-closed, respectively). These differentially accessible chromatin regions (dACRs) that were potentially altered during the domestication process made up between 2.24% to 2.6% of the reference genome (Fig. 3C). In all three of the domesticated species, more chromatin opened (*A. caudatus*: 1.91%, *A. cruentus*: 1.16%, *A. hypochondriacus*: 1.66%) than closed (*A. caudatus*: 0.69%, *A. cruentus*: 1.08%, *A. hypochondriacus*: 0.69%) during the speciation of the domesticates. In comparison, between the two wild relatives (*A. hybridus* and *A. quitensis* 0.93% opened and 0.99% closed, differing from the pattern observed during domestication (Fig. 3C). Together, this suggests that during the domestication more chromatin opened than closed, but not between the two wild species.

The significant number of dACRs identified suggests that specific chromatin regions might have been under selection during the domestication process (Fig. 4). To test for signals of selection, we analyzed ACR frequency changes between the wild *A. hybridus* and each of the crop species. In total, we found 1,600 dARCs that were fixed closed in the wild ancestor (*A. hybridus*) and fixed opened in the crop species (*A. caudatus*: 645, *A. cruentus*: 726, *A. hypochondriacus*: 229) and 1,293 dACRs that were closed and fixed during domestication (*A. caudatus*: 398, *A. cruentus*: 563, *A. hypochondriacus*: 332)(Fig. 4A). There was no significant overlap between fixed differences (wild-domesticated) across crops species (Extended Data S16), indicating that selected dACRs were species specific. This is agrees with the previous finding based on SNP-based selective sweeps, which also differed between the three domesticated species [27].

To further elucidate the selective role of dARC regions during the domestication, we investigated their association with selective sweeps. We found that between 3.41% to 6.63% of domestication dARCs overlapped with selective sweeps in the respective species (Fig. 4A). Of the dACRs within selective sweeps, 46 were associated with genes (within 2 Kb from TSS and TTS). Of these we found six that opened and nine that closed in *A. caudatus*, six opened, 11 that closed in *A. cruentus* and seven that opened and seven that closed in *A. hypochondriacus* (supplementary Table S4). A hyper-geometric test showed a significant enrichment of selective sweeps within dACRs in all three domesticates. While none of the genes that opened during domestication was shared between the species, one of the genes that closed was shared between *A. caudatus* and *A. hypochondriacus*, two were shared between *A. cruentus* and *A. hypochondriacus* (including a disease resistance gene AHq015015) and three that were shared among all three domesticates. One of the genes that closed in all three domesticates was also a disease resistance gene (AHq015012). Two of them belonged to the HAUS augmin-like complex (AHq020586 and AHq020587) coding for the subunit 1 (AUG1), which has an essential developmental function. The potential involvement of the HAUS augmin-like complex in crop domestication and the potential influence of chromatin state on its function should be further investigated through molecular assays.

Discussion

We present a population-scale investigation of chromatin-landscape changes during amaranth domestication. Our study provides the most complete genome assembly, methylome and chromatin map of grain amaranth (*A. hypochondriacus*) and the *Amaranthus* genus, enabling functional studies in the orphan-crop that were previously hindered by the lack of annotation of functional regions and gene models [29, 30, 43]. The quality of our assembly and chromatin map is comparable to that of major crops [23, 33, 34].

Our results highlight how chromatin is integrated into the broader genomic landscape and contributes to the genome ecosystem [44]. We show that approximately two-thirds of ACRs are closely associated with genes across tissues, with about 40% of ACRs associated with the promoter region alone.

The high density of ACRs upstream of genes emphasizes the functional significance of promoter regions and illustrates the utility of chromatin profiling in delineating functional genomic elements beyond coding sequences [45, 46]. Nonetheless, ACRs distant to genes might also be part of the functional space, as distal ACRs often contain enhancers, sRNAs and other regulatory regions [46, 47]. Accessible chromatin enables transcription factor binding and gene expression [34], but also increases the proliferation of TEs [48]. While we find a large overlap between TEs and ACRs, most TEs were only partially open (less than 25% of TE in ACRs). Of the TEs that were located in ACRs, a large fraction (32.4%, compared to 4.49% genome-wide) were methylated, which might lead to their silencing even when they were located in an ACR. Whether the over-representation of certain TE families in open chromatin regions results from their preferential insertion into gene-rich areas or is facilitated by the accessibility of the chromatin in those regions remains unclear [44]. Further characterization of the genomic landscape will be critical to understand the interplay between genetic elements

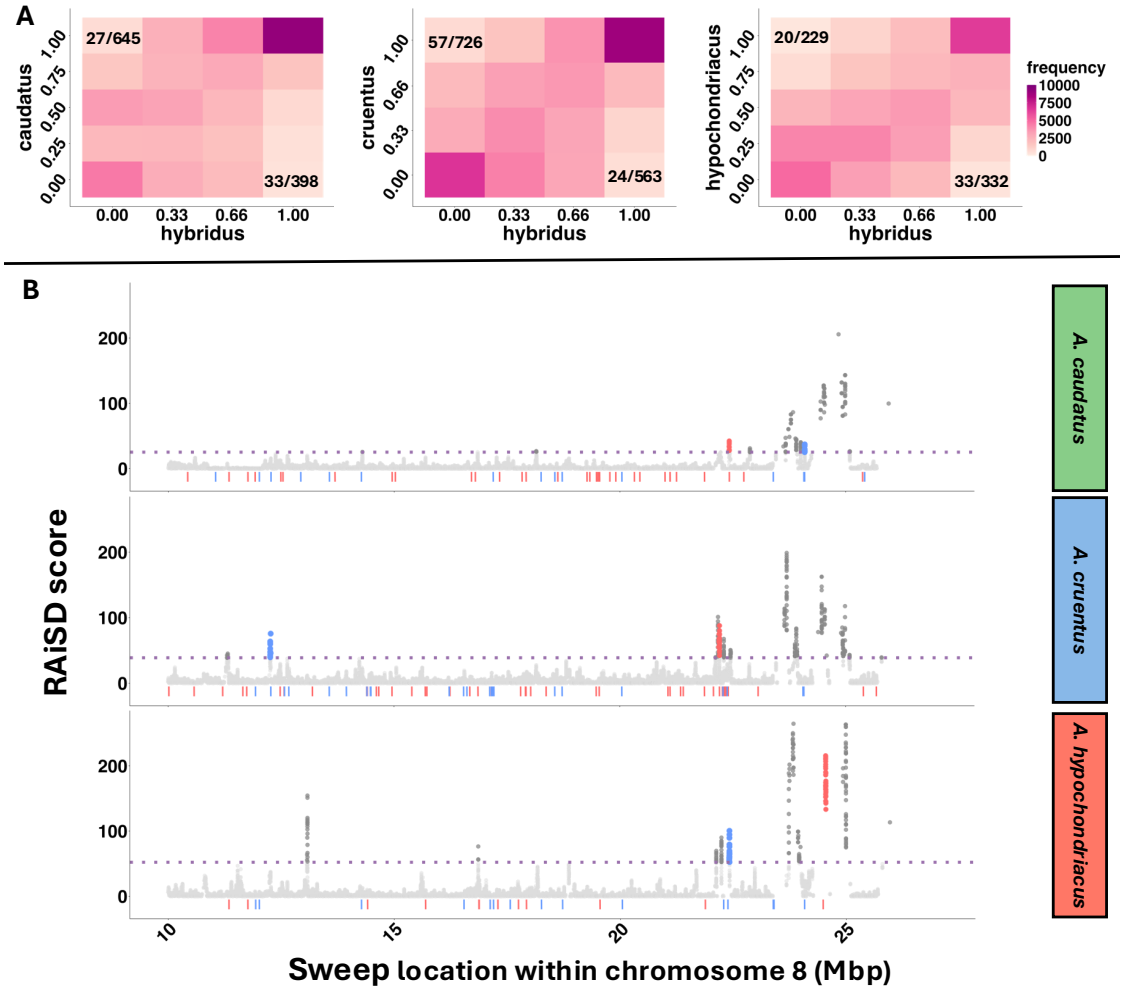

Figure 4 Selection on chromatin during domestication A. Joint frequency of ACRs in domesticates and *A. hybridus*. x and y axis indicate the ACR frequency across accessions in the respective species. **B.** Overlap of fixed dACRs that opened during domestication (red) or closed (blue) and selective sweeps in a subsection of chromosome 8. The purple dotted line indicates the significance threshold for selective sweeps.

and other genomic properties including methylation, chromatin state and recombination rates.

Characterizing the chromatin landscape at the population level provides insights into its role in evolutionary processes[46, 49]. During the domestication of the grain amaranths, the total amount of accessible chromatin remained roughly the same across the five species studied, however 2.5% of chromatin changed state in each of the three domestication processes. In all three transitions, a higher fraction of the chromatin opened, indicating a trend towards more open chromatin (Fig. 3C), consistent with findings in soybean [23], maize [50] and rice [9]. Genes associated with ACRs are expected to exhibit higher expression levels compared to non-associated genes [20][(Fig. 2B]. Considering the increased level of open chromatin accessibility, an overall increase in gene expression is expected during domestication. Similar patterns have been seen in other domesticated species, such as maize [51] and cotton [52], where an increase in overall gene expression has been observed. This effect is particular pronounced for genes governing traits that were directly under selection [53]. These regulatory modifications are reflected in the histone modification and DNA conformation [23].

The impact of chromatin accessibility changes on phenotypes could drive their selection, either through genomic mutations that lead to altered chromatin or through epigenetic remodeling. Our finding of a significant overlap between dACRs and selective sweeps indicates that chromatin did indeed play a role during domestication. Further research is needed to understand if selection acted on chromatin state with a causal trait change or if the chromatin change was simply a side-effect of mutations but did not alter the traits directly. The group of resistance genes and developmental regulators that we found might be promising candidates for investigating the complex interactions among genomic mutations, chromatin dynamics, trait expression, and selection processes during domestication.

Directional selection during the domestication of plants and animals has long served as model to understand evolutionary changes.Despite the clear impacts of domestication on phenotypes, intrinsic traits, such as the chromatin landscape seem to have responded to selection [54, 55, 56]. This response was either through the direct control of domestication traits by the chromatin state or through a pleiotropic relationship between phenotypes and chromatin state. Assessing the diversity of chromatin and their functional importance could unlock an additional set of variation for crop improvement.

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Online Methods

Genome assembly and annotation

High molecular weight (HMW) DNA was extracted from fresh leaf tissue of *A. hypochondriacus* (PI 558499; cv. "Plainsman") using a CTAB-Genomic-tip protocol as described by Vaillancourt and Buell [57]. The HMW DNA was quantified with the Nanodrop™ One/OneC Microvolume UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Waltham, MA), and screened for quality control parameters including DNA concentration (> 800 ng/mL) and contamination (260/280 and 260/230 ≅ 2.0). For PacBio HiFi sequencing, HMW DNA was sheared to 17 kb on a Diagenode Megaruptor (Denville, NJ) and then made into SMRTbell adapted libraries using a SMRTbell Express Template Prep Kit 2.0 (Pacific BioSciences, Menlo Park, CA) followed by size selection using a Sage Science BluePippin (Beverly, MA) for fragments greater than 10 kb. Sequencing was done at the Brigham Young University DNA Sequencing Center (Provo, UT, USA) using Sequel II Sequencing Kit 2.0 with Sequencing Primer v5 and Sequel Binding kit 2.2 for 30 h with adaptive loading using PacBio SMRT Link recommendations. For Oxford Nanopore Technology (ONT) sequencing, HMW DNA was sequenced using the default protocol for ultra-long DNA sequencing kit (SQK-ULK114; Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Oxford, UK) following the standard manufacture's protocol with a starting volume of 750 µL (250 ng/µL) on a R10.4.1 flow cell (FLO-MIN114) for 24 hours. Flow cells were washed and reloaded three times. Dorado v0.5.0+0d932c0 with the model 'dna_r10.4.1_e8.2_400bps_sup@v4.2.0' was used for base calling of POD5 files. Chopper v0.5.0 [58] was used for trimming (< 30 kb) and quality control (qv < 8.0). In total, approximately 30X coverage of both HiFi (N50 = 14 Kb) and ONT reads (N50 = 49 Kb) were generated and used for the primary contig assembly.

A primary contig assembly was generated using hifiasm v0.19.8 [59] with default parameters for an inbred species (-l0). Scaffolding of the primary assembly into pseudo-molecules was accomplished using Hi-C (high-throughput chromosome conformation capture). In short, fresh leaf tissue was sent to Phase Genomics (Seattle, Washington, USA) for Hi-C library preparation and sequenced at a rate of 100 million read pairs per genome Gb. Hi-C reads were then aligned to the primary contig assembly using the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner [60] following the Arima-HiC mapping pipeline (A160156_v03, Arima Genomics, Carlsbad, California, USA). Only uniquely aligned paired-end reads were retained for downstream analyzes. Contigs were then clustered, ordered, and oriented into scaffolds using YaHS [61] followed by manual inspection and correction using JuiceBox [62]. The corrected scaffolded assembly was evaluated and corrected with Inspector [61] to produce the final assembly. We named the assembled pseudochromosomes according to scaffold names of *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome v2 [29, 30] and ensured colinearity with the previous assembly version. To prepare the genome for genome annotation, we generated a repetitive element database using RepeatModeler [63] and softmasked the assembly using Repeatmasker [64].

To annotate the *A. hypochondriacus* assembly v3, we combined an *ab initio* gene prediction generated using BRAKER3 v3.0.8 [65] guided by protein and RNA-seq evidence with full-length PacBio Iso-Seq transcripts. As protein database, we used the protein sequences of 117 embryophyta species from ODB10 [66] in addition to annotated proteins of *A. cruentus* [42]. As RNA-seq evidence, we used a public dataset of 31.7 Gb of 90 bp paired-end HiSeq Illumina sequencing data from eight different tissues [BioProject Accession PRJNA263128; 67]. To aid the alignment of RNA-seq reads, we generated a preliminary BRAKER3 gene prediction guided only by protein evidence. We mapped the RNA-seq reads to the assembly

with STAR v2.7.8a [68] using the preliminary gene prediction as splice-junction database. We then generated a second BRAKER3 gene prediction guided by both protein and RNA-seq evidence.

For the assembly of full-length Iso-seq transcripts, we used two datasets, from multiple tissues of accession PI 558499: We used a total of 5,3 million circular consensus sequencing (CCS) reads (mean length: 1,441 bp) of public data from seven tissues [root, cotyledon, flower, leaf, pollen, developing seed and mature seed, BioProject ID PRJEB65083; 30]. We further generated 4.4 million CCS reads (mean length: 1,711 bp) from root, leaf, stem, inflorescence and whole seedling tissues of the *A. hypochondriacus* reference accession Plainsman (PI 558499). RNA samples were extracted from each tissue type independently using the Zymo Research (Tustin, CA, USA) Direct-zol RNA MiniPrep Plus kit. The quantity and quality of extracted RNA were evaluated for quality using a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, California, USA). After quality check, RNA from each of the different tissues was pooled in equal molar ratios to synthesize full length complementary DNA (cDNA) using a NEBNext® single cell/low input cDNA synthesis and amplification kit (E6421L), which uses a template switching method to generate full-length cDNAs (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). IsoSeq libraries were prepared from the cDNA of each species according to standard protocols using the SMRTbell v3.0 library prep kit (Menlo Park, CA, USA) and sequenced on a single SMRT cell 8M for each species using a PacBio Sequel II at the DNA sequencing center at Brigham Young University (Provo, Utah, USA).

For both datasets, we processed Iso-Seq CCS reads using Isoseq3 (https://github.com/PacificBiosciences/IsoSeq) and clustered full-length non-chimeric (FLNC) reads into transcripts using Isoseq3 *cluster*. To further deduplicate both datasets, we mapped clustered transcripts to the genome assembly using minimap2 v2.26 [69] with the *splice:hq* preset and collapsed them into sets of unique transcripts using cDNAcupcake 28.0.0 (https://github.com/Magdoll/cDNA_Cupcake) with minimum cutoffs for coverage 0.95 and identity 0.9 resulting in 53,150 and 57,731 transcripts from the public and newly generated datasets, respectively. We used the *chain_samples.py* script of cDNAcupcake to combine both datasets, allowing for a maximum 3′ end difference of 300 bp and a fuzzy splice junction distance of 5 bp. We used SQANTI3 v5.2 [70] to correct the combined transcript sequences based on the sequence of the genome assembly. To filter potential artifacts from the combined transcript set, we required transcripts not found in the BRAKER3 prediction to be supported by at least 5 CCS reads and at least 5 % of CCS reads per locus resulting in 35,187 transcripts (median length: 1,802 bp, 94.5 % BUSCO completeness). To combine full-length transcript sequencing data and BRAKER3 prediction, we predicted open reading frames in the filtered transcript set using GeneMarkS-T [71] and merged both datasets using TSEBRA v1.1.2.4 [72]. For functional annotation of annotated genes, we submitted the annotated protein sequences to Mercator4 v6.0 [73] and eggNOG-mapper v.2.1.12 [74]. To annotate repetitive elements in the genome assembly, we ran the annotation pipeline EDTA v2.2.1 [75] with the *sensitive* parameter and included annotated CDS for purging of gene sequences from the TE library with the *cds* parameter.

Phylogeny, whole genome duplication and synteny analysis

An orthogroup analysis was constructed with Orthofinder2 v.2.5.4 [76] from longest protein-coding gene models for six Amaranthus species with fully assembled genomes (*A. tricolor*, *A. tuberculatus*, *A. palmeri*, *A. retroflexus*, *A. cruentus* and *A. hypochondriacus*) and two outgroup species within the family Amaranthaceae (*Beta vulgaris* L. and *Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.). Orthofinder2 assigned 95.1% of all genes to an orthogroup, with a G50 and O50 of nine and 6,919, respectively. A rooted species tree phylogeny was produced using the multiple sequence alignment approach of OrthoFinder2, elicited with the "-M msa" option to produce bootstrap values. WGD v.2.0.38 [77] was employed to identify whole-genome duplications (WGDs) and speciation events by leveraging synteny inference and heuristic peak detection with 95% confidence intervals derived from anchor gene pairs. Synonymous substitution rates (Ks) were calculated between paralogous gene pairs to infer WGDs and between orthologous gene pairs to infer speciation events within and among species. Divergence times among species and WGD events were inferred using a synonymous substitution rate for Amaranthaceae of 9.6E-9 as reported by Wang et al. [78]. Syntenic relationships across the Amaranthus species were visualized in SynVisio (https://synvisio.github.io/#/) from orthologous genes in collinear blocks, identified with blastp and McScanX [79] using the parameters "-e 1e-50 -k 25 -s 50".

Methylation sequencing

Whole genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) was generated from young leaf tissue from a single plant from the *A. hypochondriacus* accession Plainsman (PI 558499). Tissue was collected, freeze-dried, and DNA extracted using a modified mini-salts extraction protocol [80]. Quality control parameters for concentration (> 300 ng/mL) and contamination (260/280 and 260/23 $\cong$ 2.0) were followed before sequencing. The DNA samples were sent to Novogene Corporation, Inc. (San Diego, CA) for WGBS. In brief, the genomic DNA (spiked with lambda DNA) was fragmented to 200-400 bp and then subjected to bisulfite to generate single strand DNA using a EZ DNA Methylation Gold Kit (Zymo Research; Irvine, CA). During the bisulfite treatment, unmethylated cytosine are converted into uracil, while methylated cytosine remained unchanged. Methylation sequencing adapters were ligated, followed by double strand DNA synthesis using the Accel-NGS Methyl-Seq DNA Library kit (Swift Biosciences, Ann Arbor, MI). The quality of the library was verified with

Qubit and real-time PCR and the size distribution was verified on a bioanalyzer. Libraries were pooled and sequenced on Illumina NovaSeq X Plus (PE150) instrument to produce a minimum of 30X coverage according to genome size.

We aligned the methylation data to the new reference genome by running Bismark [37] with following parameters "–bowtie2 -n 0 -l 20 methylation/". The reference genome methylation index was prepared using the bismark_genome_preparation function. The final summary of aligned ACRs was performed using bismarks methylation extractor function. Lastly, we calculated methylation density 2000 bp up- and downstream from the TSS using an in house script.

Chromatin accessibility

In order to assess chromatin accessibility changes during domestication, we performed Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin (ATAC) sequencing of a total of 42 samples. These consisted of 3 accession of *A. cruentus* L., 4 accessions of *A. caudatus* L., 4 accessions of *A. hypochondriacus* L., 3 accession of the wild ancestor *A. hybridus* L., and 4 accessions of the wild (potentially feral) *A. quitensis* Kunth. (supplementary Table S3). We sampled leaf tissue from plants grown for 32 days under short-day conditions (8h light, 16h dark) at 22 °C and seedlings tissue from plants grown on filter paper in petri dishes in the dark for 7 days for nuclei extraction.

We extracted nuclei from approximately 50 mg leaf tissue from the fourth fully developed leaf and 100 mg of whole seedlings, according to Wang et al. [81] with minor alterations. In brief, tissue samples were placed in 0.5 ml of chilled lysis buffer (15 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 20 mM NaCl, 80 mM KCl, 5 mM Dithiothreitol (DTT), 0.5 mM Spermine, 1x Cocktail (ThermoFischer: 78429), 0.2% Triton X-100) and finely chopped with a razor blade to release nuclei. The nuclei suspensions were stained with 2 μl of 1 mg/ml 4,6-Diamidino-2phenylindole (DAPI). After confirming the presence of intact nuclei under a fluorescence microscope at 20x magnification, we selected 50,000 intact nuclei based on their size and intensity of DAPI signal under 488 nm excitation using a FACSVantage SE (Beckon Dickinson) and collected them in 0.5 ml lysis buffer. We prepared the 50,000 nuclei for tagmentation by centrifuging them for 4min at 1000g and 4ºC and discarding the supernatant. Afterwards, we washed the pellet in 1 ml of wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 5 mM MgCl2, 1x Cocktail) and centrifuged for 4 min at 1,000g and 4°C and discarded the supernatant. We then mixed the nuclei with 25 µl of Tagment DNA Buffer and 2.5 µl TN5 (Illumina: 20034917) and incubated them at 37 °C for 30 minutes. The tagmented samples were purified using the QIAGEN MinElute kit (QIAGEN: 28004). The prepared libraries were sequenced for a minimum of 10 million 100 bp paired-end reads per library on a NovaSeq 6000 platform by the Cologne Center for Genomics (CCG).

ATAC-seq data processing

We aligned the sequencing reads to our new *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome using default parameters of bwa-mem2 (2.2.1) [82]. Duplicate reads were identified using picard (2.27.5) and removed with the REMOVE_DUPLICATES=TRUE setting [83]. To exclude overrepresented regions in the genome, we employed a read depth cutoff of 250. Accessible Chromatin Regions (ACRs) were called using the callpeak function of macs3 (v3.0.0) [32] in BAMPE mode with a reference genome size of 439Mbp and a false discovery rate of 0.01. We excluded peaks that only occurred in one library per species and that were longer than 4,000 bp from further analyses as potential false positive calls. To normalize the peak calling for mapability, we also called peaks for whole genome sequencing (WGS) data of each of the 18 accessions [27] and removed ARC peaks from our ATAC-seq data that were also called in the whole genome sequencing data.

ATACome for PI 558499

We assembled a high confidence ATACome for *A. hypochondriacus* from 8 samples of the reference accession PI 558499 consisting of 5 leaf and 3 seedling tissue samples. In addition to the filters above, we only considered ACRs, which could be called in at least two of the eight samples, to reduce false positives.

We overlapped the ACRs genome-wide with other genomic features, i.e., gene density, transposable elements (TEs) and methylation signatures using the genomicDensity function from the circlize package [84]. Genomic feature annotation of ACRs was performed using the assignChromosomeRegion function of the ChIPpeakAnno package in R [85]. Analysis of the distribution of genomic features for the whole reference genome using assignChromosomeRegion were performed using non-overlapping 10bp windows due to vector size constraints in R studio. Boundaries were set to 2,000bp for the upstream (upstream=2,000, downstream=0) of TSS and downstream (upstream=0, downstream=2,000 of TES) genomic features of assignChromosomeRegions. We discarded ACRs that were called in less than two samples of the same tissue to study tissue specific ACRs. We investigated overlaps between tissues with the findOverlapsOfPeaks function of the ChIPpeakAnno package [85] and identified tissue specific ACRs. ACR density 2,000bp up and downstream of the TSS was calculated using a custom script https://github.com/CorbinianGraf/chromatin_landscape_amaranth_2025. To investigate a potential enrichment of gene functions in open genes, we performed a GO-enrichment analysis, employing the goseq package in R [86]. Peak-length distribution for both tissues was calculated using a custom script https://github.com/CorbinianGraf/chromatin_landscape_amaranth_2025. To compare gene expression between genes with contrasting

chromatin states, We quantified gene expression in eight different tissues from the previously described dataset by Clouse et al. [67] using kallisto v0.48.0 [87]. We then determined all genes with ACRs within the gene body or their promoter region (2,000bp upstream), using the annotatePeakInBatch function of ChIPpeakAnno (output=overlapping, maxgap=2,000) [85]. The gene expression of ACR-associated genes (open genes) was then compared to the expression of an equal number of random genes without an associated ACR (closed genes) using an ANOVA. To study the association between TEs and accessible chromatin, we overlapped ACRs with our TE annotation using the annotatePeakInBatch function from the ChIPpeakAnno package [85]. Enrichment and depletion of TE families in accessible chromatin was determined by performing hypergeometric tests in R using the phyper function from the stats package [88]. Lastly, we calculated the fraction of methylation within ACRs, TEs and TEs within ACRs. Enrichment of methylated base pairs within each of these three groups was tested by performing a hypergeometric test.

Testing for reference bias

To explore whether aligning ATAC-seq data of multiple species to the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome causes a bias in peak calling towards data from *A. hypochondriacus* accessions, we also aligned all ATAC-seq data to the *A. cruentus* reference genome [42]. These alignments were subject to the same data processing parameters as for *A. hypochondriacus* aligned data, except for adjusting the genome size during peak calling to the 370.9Mbp of the *A. cruentus* assembly [42]. A chi-square test was performed to test whether the ratio of called peaks between the species is the same between the two alignments. Additionally, chi-square tests were performed to identify if the peak distribution between the two tissues or between genomic regions significantly differed between the two alignments.

Species comparison of open chromatin

To compare ACRs between species, we used only ACRs that occurred in at least two samples of a species regardless of tissue. Overlapping ACRs from different samples within a species were joined with the `reduce` function of the GenomicRanges package [89], to create five deduplicated lists of all ACRs within each species. To uniquely index ACRs across species, we combined the species-specific lists into one with unique ACRs for the *Amaranthus* family, by joining ACRs that overlapped between species with the `reduce` function of the GenomicRanges package. These IDs were then assigned to corresponding ACRs within each species-set. We determined ACR changes in pairwise comparisons between species, based on IDs. To test for statistical significance, we randomized the species identity of each ACR for each sample using the `sample` function in R and inferred the distribution of ACRs. We calculated confidence-intervals from 100 permutations, using the `t.test` function of the stats package [90] in R. Differential accessible chromatin regions (dACRs) for each of the three domesticated species compared to the wild *A. hybridus* were identified through a custom script https://github.com/CorbinianGraf/chromatin_landscape_amaranth_2025 and enrichment of gene functions in dACRs was tested using the goseq package.

Overlap between selection signals and accessible chromatin

We called selective sweeps for each of the five species based on whole genome sequencing data of 28 *A. caudatus*, 21 *A. cruentus*, 18 *A. hypochondriacus*, 9 *A. hybridus* and 12 *A. quitensis* accessions, respectively, taken from Gonçalves-Dias and Stetter [91]. We used RAiSD [92] to identify potential selective sweeps with a cut-off at 0.01% of the highest RAiSD scores. The overlap between selective sweeps and dACRs was determined using bedtools intersect [93]. The enrichment analysis on the selective sweep associated dACRs was performed using goseq. An enrichment of selective sweeps in dACRs was confirmed by testing the overlap of bp in selective sweep regions within ACRs compared to the whole genome, using a hypergeometric test [88].

Extended figures

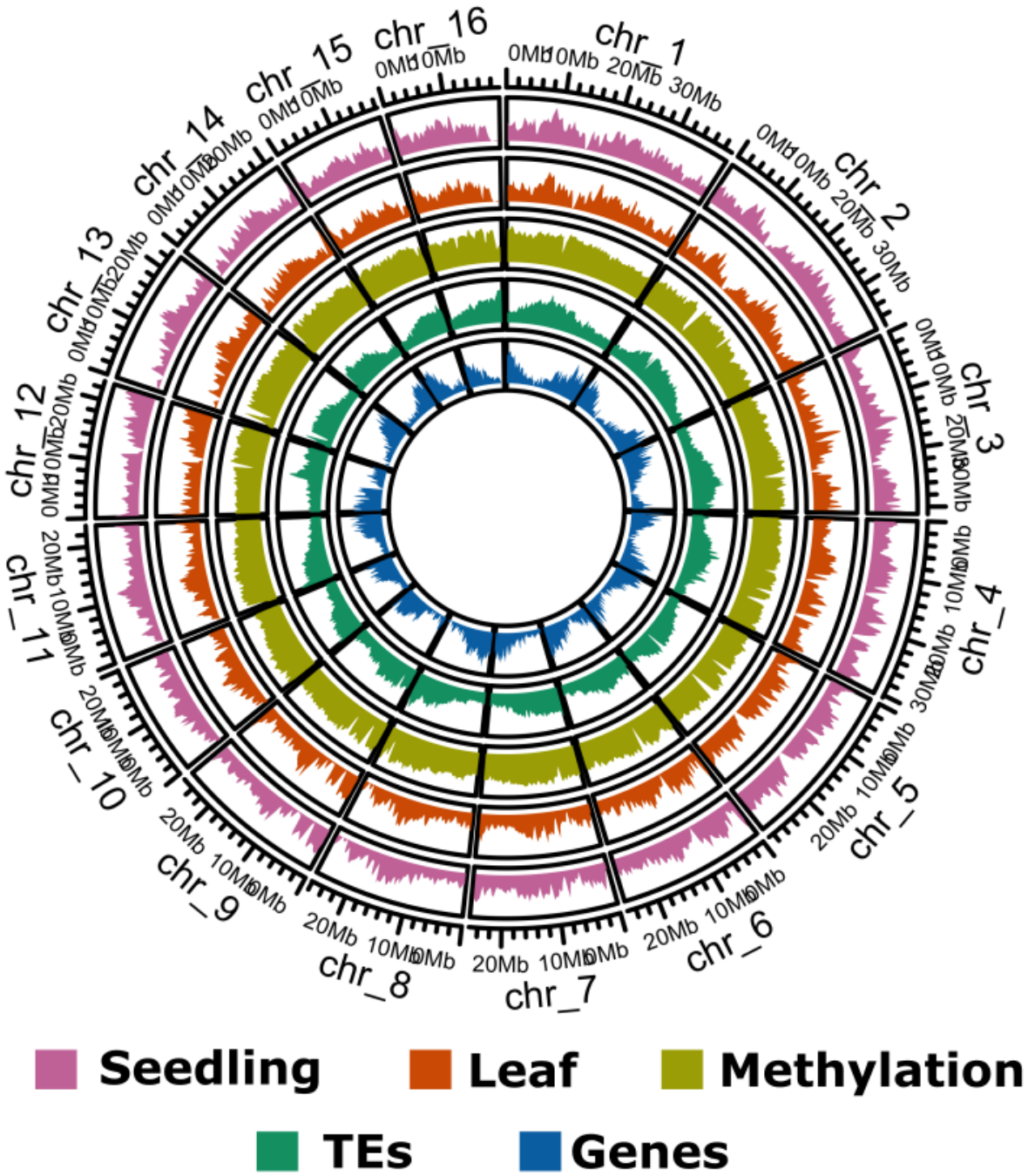

Figure E1 Genomic distribution of genes, methylation marks and ACRs in *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome v3. Tracks depict the genomic distribution of, from inside to outside, annotated genes, transposable elements, methylation in CpG context, ACRs found in leaf tissue, ACRs found in seedling tissue in *A. hypochondriacus*.

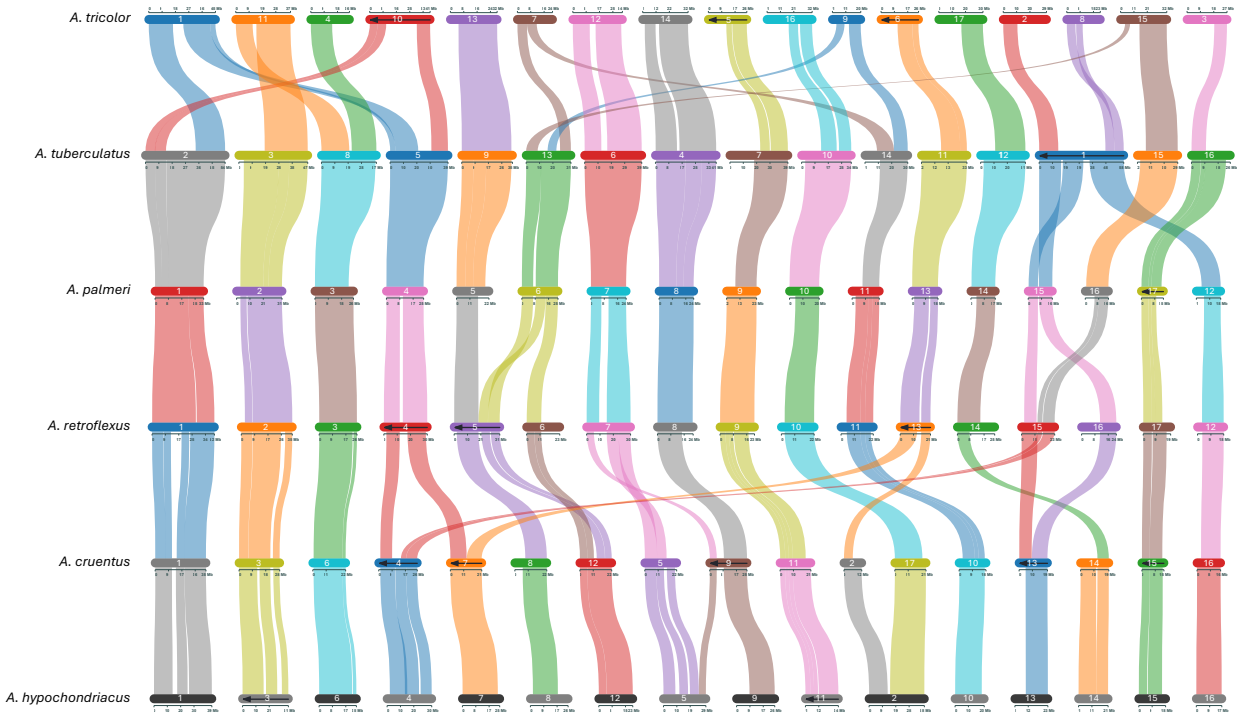

Figure E2 Syntenic relationships of orthologous regions among sequenced *Amaranthus* (*A. tricolor*, *A. tuberculatus*, *A. palmeri*, *A. retroflexus*, *A. cruentus* and *A. hypochondriacus*) genomes. Species are ordered vertically by phylogenetic positions. Chromosomes are ordered horizontally, and ribbons are color-coded to show syntenic relationships among chromosomes.

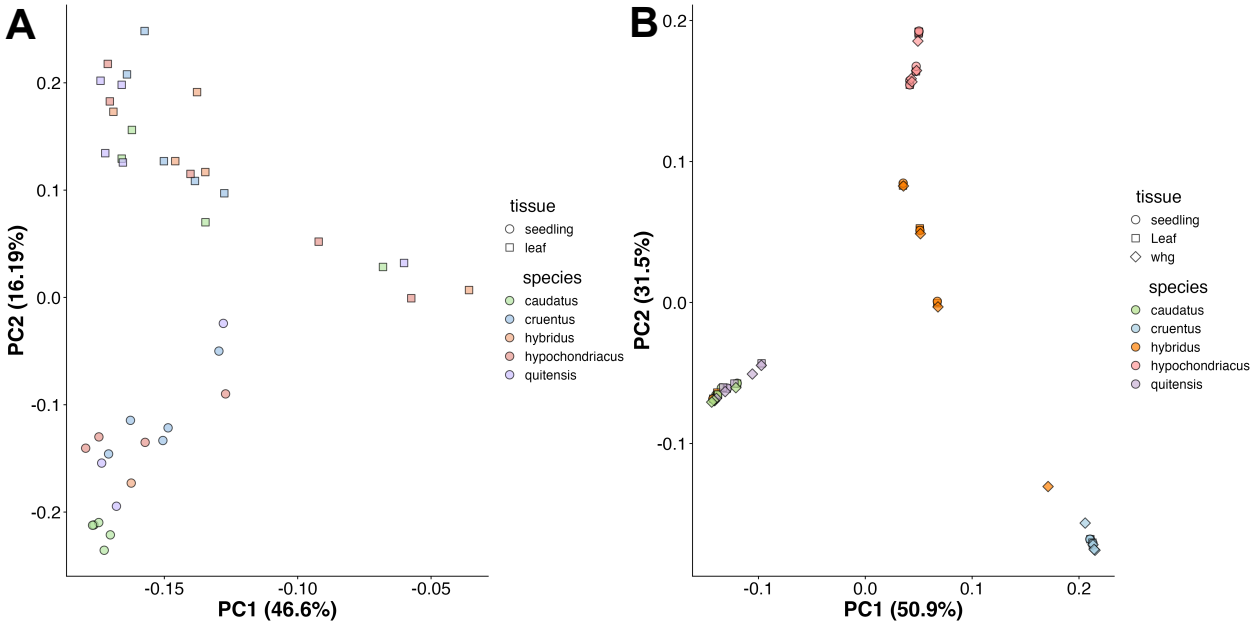

Figure E3 PCA showing relationship between ATAC-samples. The origin of the sample and its species is indicated by shape and color, respectively. **A.** Based on the 51571 ACRs merged from all samples. **B.** Alignments of ATAC-sequencing data to the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome were used to uncover the relationship between the samples. Additionally, whole genome sequencing data was included as a proof of concept.

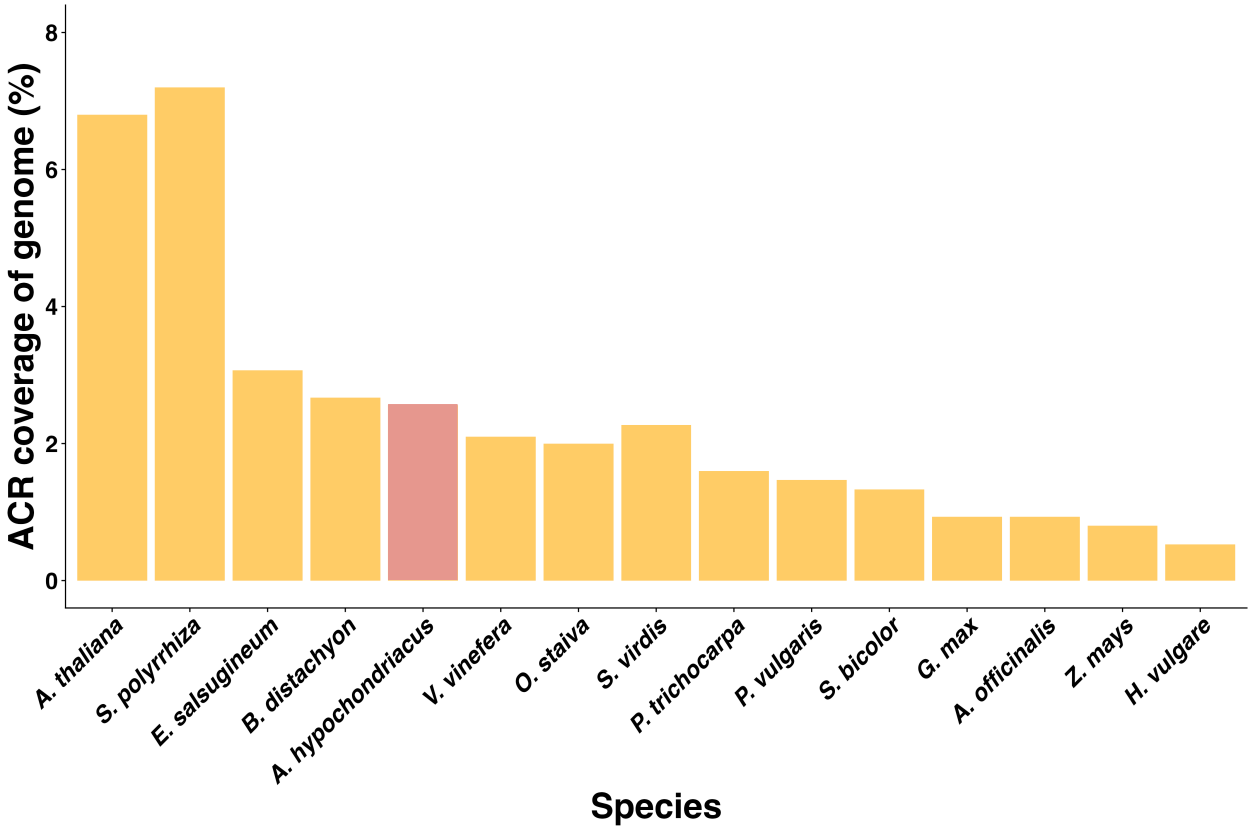

Figure E4 Fraction of genome covered by ACRs in 15 species. *A. hypochondriacus* highlighted in red.

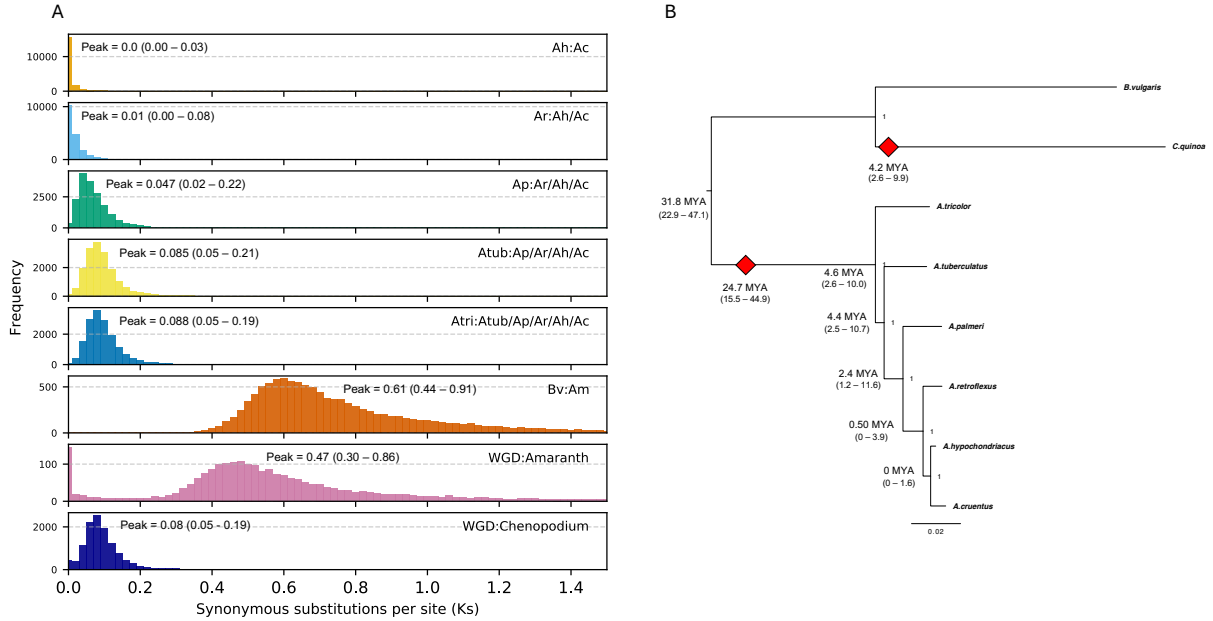

Figure E5 Synonymous substitutions per synonymous sites (K_s) distribution identifying whole-genome duplication and speciation and events. A Synonymous substitutions per sites (Ks) histograms. Ks values of syntenic orthologs (speciation events) and paralogs (whole genome duplications) were determined using wgd2 [77]. Species abbreviations are *A. tricolor* (Atri), *A. tuberculatus* (Atub), *A. palmeri* (Ap), *A. retroflexus* (Ar), *A. cruentus* (Ac), *A. hypochondriacus* (Ah). Whole genome duplications (WGD) were determined by averaging across all *Amaranthus* species, while the WGD for *Chenopodium* was based solely on *Chenopodium quinoa*. Confidence intervals (95%) are provided in parenthesis. **B** Rooted *Amaranthus* species tree based on conserved orthologs as identified by Orthofinder2 [76] showing speciation and whole genome duplications dates as inferred by Ks distributions (see panel A). *B. vulgaris* (Bv) and *C. quinoa* were included as outgroups.

Table S1 Comparison of genome annotation statistics between published grain amaranth reference genomes.

	A. cruentus	*A. hypochondriacus* v2.2	*A. hypochondriacus* v3
Protein coding genes	25,477	23,817	25,167
Total isoforms	25,477	28,074	30,529
BUSCO score	89.8 %	98.0 %	98.8 %
Mean CDS length (bp)	1,141	1,258	1,233
Mean exons per gene	4.86	5.39	5,21
Mean exon length (bp)	235	233	317

Supplement

Supplementary Tables

Table S2 Transposable element annotation summary statistics for the *A. hypochondriacus* genome annotation v3.0. Displayed are the repetitive element class (if applicable) and subclass, the number of elements identified and the fraction of the genome they make up.

Repeat class	Element	Count	Genome (bp)	Genome (%)
LINE	L1	8,124	5,264,065	1.21
LINE	RTE	23,240	7,073,658	1.63
LTR	Copia	28,028	22,320,587	5.13
LTR	Gypsy	49,929	26,475,431	6.09
LTR	unknown	87,328	48,307,902	11.11
SINE	tRNA	44	12,510	0.00
TIR	CACTA	21,120	10,348,543	2.38
TIR	Mutator	46,252	12,834,794	2.95
TIR	PIF/Harbinger	3,888	1,626,894	0.37
TIR	TCA1/Mariner	42,218	11,476,679	2.64
TIR	hAT	50,455	16,499,746	3.79
TIR	Polinton	78	40,051	0.01
non-LTR	Penelope	62	18,384	0.00
non-TIR	Helitron	193,159	45,587,284	10.48
rDNA	45S	4,634	4,388,499	1.01
-	repeat fragment	26,121	6,994,620	1.61
-	total interspersed	584,680	219,269,647	50.43

Table S3 Supp. Table 1. Overview of samples used in this study.

Accession ID	Species	Sample	Mapped Reads	Called Peaks
PI 490518	*A. caudatus*	seedling	26324188	25478
PI 490518	*A. caudatus*	leaf	44428081	37937
PI 490518	*A. caudatus*	leaf	44672690	31659
PI 490612	*A. caudatus*	seedling	37597522	36760
PI 490612	*A. caudatus*	leaf	24522965	18941
PI 490612	*A. caudatus*	seedling	51173694	45953
PI 608019	*A. caudatus*	leaf	40953093	39437
PI 608019	*A. caudatus*	seedling	42451784	37165
PI 642741	*A. caudatus*	seedling	28311405	31401
PI 642741	*A. caudatus*	seedling	37197967	30450
PI 642741	*A. caudatus*	leaf	19980225	27455
PI 642741	*A. caudatus*	leaf	19404739	18318
PI 511714	*A. cruentus*	leaf	48802567	43012
PI 511714	*A. cruentus*	seedling	45235760	44699
PI 511717	*A. cruentus*	leaf	35981869	33253
PI 511717	*A. cruentus*	seedling	29246205	26832
PI 643058	*A. cruentus*	leaf	46230710	39692
PI 643058	*A. cruentus*	seedling	22968690	25020
PI 490489	*A. hybridus*	leaf	34286717	40907
PI 490489	*A. hybridus*	seedling	41484966	43143
PI 511754	*A. hybridus*	leaf	10576068	24806
PI 511754	*A. hybridus*	leaf	34048324	28814
PI 652426	*A. hybridus*	seedling	42521074	38959
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	seedling	32315913	22582
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	39197764	36579
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	31477634	18787
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	seedling	36857940	35456
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	27272930	29685
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	31799201	16923
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	32799196	24569
PI 558499	*A. hypochondriacus*	seedling	38503380	30749
PI 604581	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	34501001	31206
PI 604581	*A. hypochondriacus*	seedling	32051291	20056
PI 604587	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	13469060	15592
PI 604587	*A. hypochondriacus*	seedling	19992232	25289
PI 643070	*A. hypochondriacus*	seedling	30173461	30695
PI 643070	*A. hypochondriacus*	leaf	32436428	32615
PI 643070	*A. hypochondriacus*	seedling	7483949	9187
PI 490466	*A. quitensis*	seedling	46005628	39647
PI 490466	*A. quitensis*	leaf	23810641	18909
PI 511745	*A. quitensis*	leaf	42416284	36863
PI 511745	*A. quitensis*	seedling	30666794	28014
PI 652426	*A. quitensis*	leaf	40889587	39656
PI 667158	*A. quitensis*	leaf	29416173	31427
PI 667158	*A. quitensis*	seedling	25003043	25489
PI 669836	*A. quitensis*	leaf	26293386	33185

Table S4 List of genes that were associated with dACRs with selective sweeps.

Gene ID	Gene function	Species	Domestication chromatin sta
AHq003723	Belongs to the disease resistance NB-LRR family	cau	open
AHq003925	Protein NRT1 PTR FAMILY	cau	open
AHq006858	serine-type endopeptidase activity	cau	open
AHq017595	Belongs to the peroxidase family. Classical plant (class III) peroxidase subfamily	cau	open
AHq021685	Domain of unknown function (DUF4220)	cau	open
AHq021796	Reversible hydration of carbon dioxide	cau	open
AHq001071	Belongs to the 'GDSL' lipolytic enzyme family	cau	open
AHq003286	NA	cru	open
AHq010508	NA	cru	open
AHq010508	NA	cru	open
AHq014726	NA	cru	open
AHq023736	F-Box protein	cru	open
AHq001064	ammonium transporter	hyp	open
AHq003820	Protein timeless homolog	hyp	open
AHq015137	NA	hyp	open
AHq015207	caffeoyl-CoA O-methyltransferase	hyp	open
AHq024811	NA	hyp	open
AHq024812	atrbl14,rbl14	hyp	open
AHq024812	L-threonine ammonia-lyase activity	hyp	open
AHq003623	NADH dehydrogenase ubiquinone 1 beta subcomplex subunit	cau	closed
AHq006315	isoform X1	cau	closed
AHq015012	Disease resistance protein	cau, cru, hyp	closed
AHq020586	HAUS augmin-like complex subunit	cau, cru, hyp	closed
AHq020587	HAUS augmin-like complex subunit	cau, cru, hyp	closed
AHq023997	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase SGR9	cau	closed
AHq024686	NA	cau	closed
AHq024807	NA	cau	closed
AHq024808	NA	cau, hyp	closed
AHq006411	LRR-repeat protein	cru	closed
AHq012177	NA	cru	closed
AHq015015	Disease resistance protein	cru, hyp	closed
AHq016153	NA	cru, hyp	closed
AHq016154	NA	cru, hyp	closed
AHq023818	2-dehydro-3-deoxyphosphooctonate aldolase	cru	closed
AHq023882	transcription factor	cru	closed

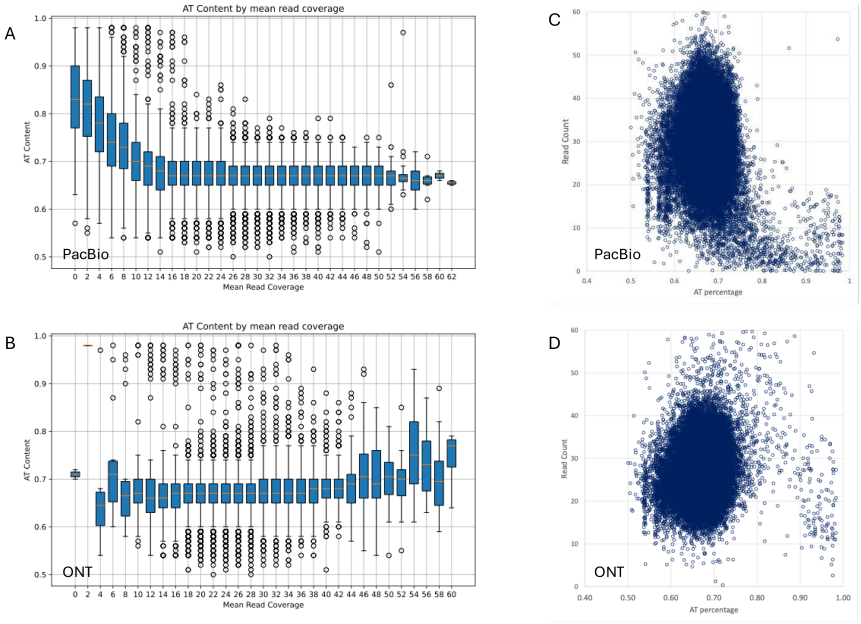

Figure S1 Read coverage relative to AT percentage with PacBio HiFi and ONT read types. Panels A (PacBio HiFi) and B (ONT) show the mean read depth (x-axis) at different AT percentage (y-axis) across 10 kb windows of the genome showing the AT bias of the PacBio reads, which leads to more fragmented primary assemblies. Similarly, panels C (PacBio HiFi) and D (ONT) show read count (y-axis) across 10 Kb genomic windows with varying AT percentages (x-axis). Note the reduction of PacBio HiFi reads (panel C) in windows with high AT percentage. Amaranths are potentially unique in that they have regions of high AT concentration – at these regions, PacBio HiFi reads often terminate prematurely which then fragments the primary contig assembly. Using a hybrid approach (both PacBio and ONT) successfully resolves this issue.

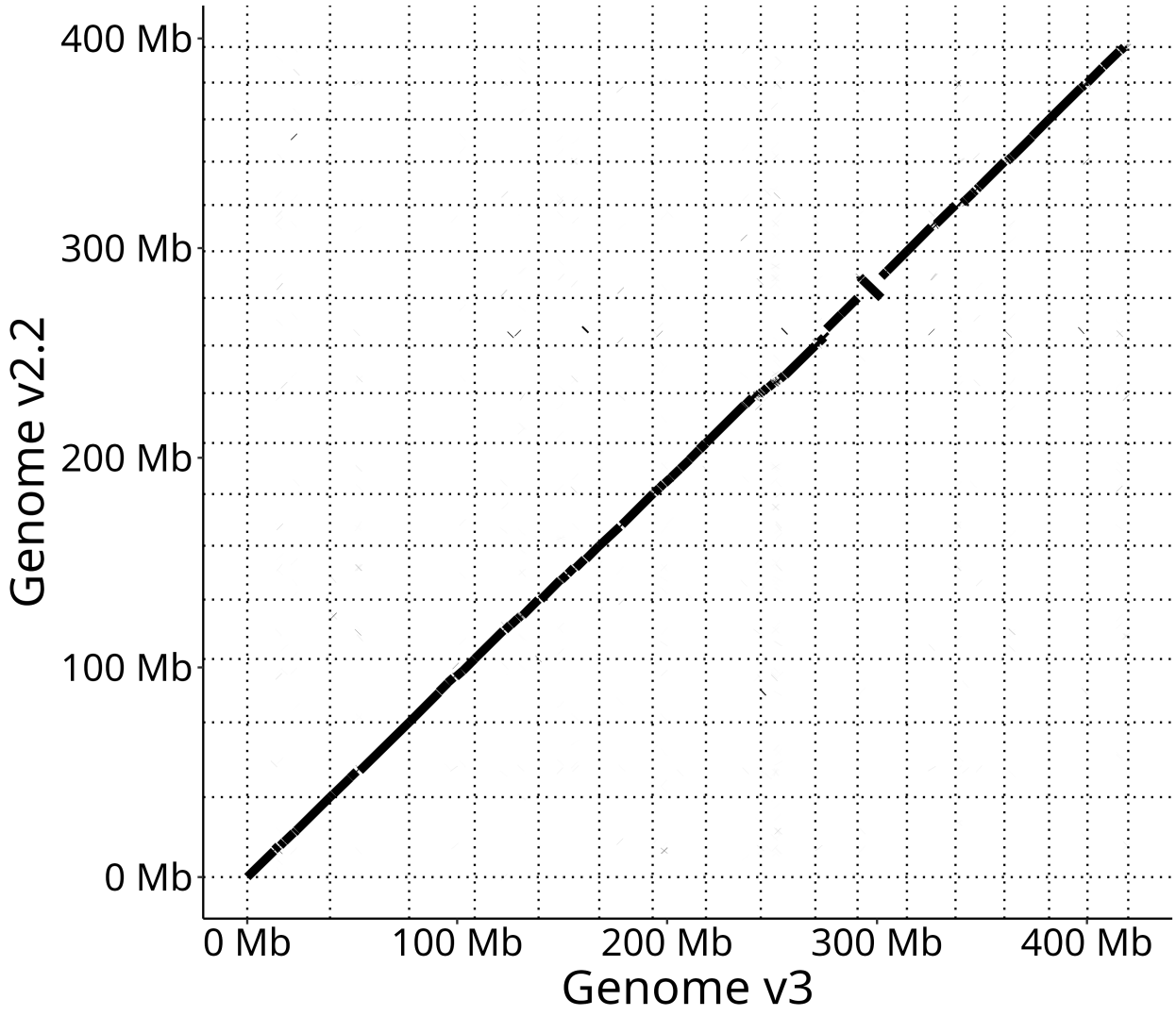

Figure S2 Dotplot of whole-genome alignment between *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome versions v2.2 and v3. Only scaffolds corresponding to the 16 chromosomes of *A. hypochondriacus* were depicted.

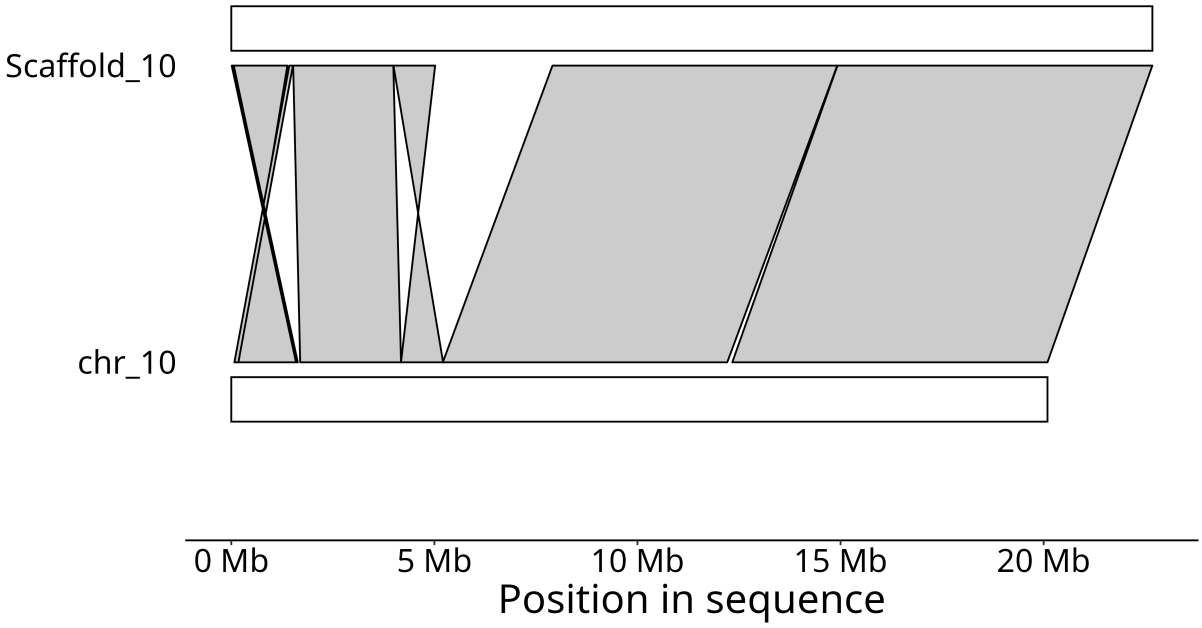

Figure S3 Synteny between *A. hypochondriacus* chromosome 10 scaffolds of reference genome versions v2.2 and v3. Alignment of scaffold 10 of reference assembly v2.2 and chromosome 10 of reference assembly v3 shows potentially misassembled region missing from the new chromosome assembly.

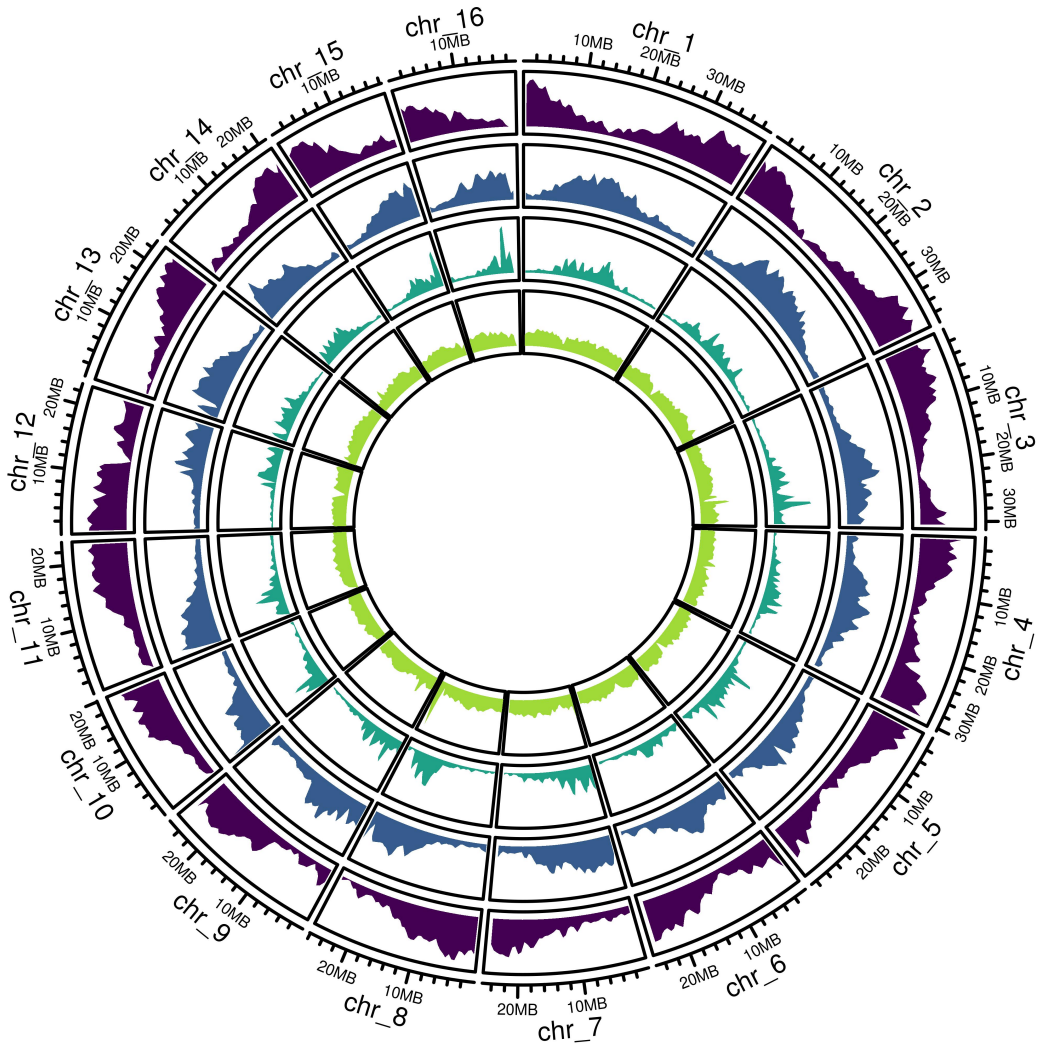

Figure S4 Genomic distribution of annotated genes and transposable element classes in *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome v3. Tracks depict (from outside to inside) density of genes, LTR elements, LINEs, and MITEs calculated in 1 Mb windows along the genome.

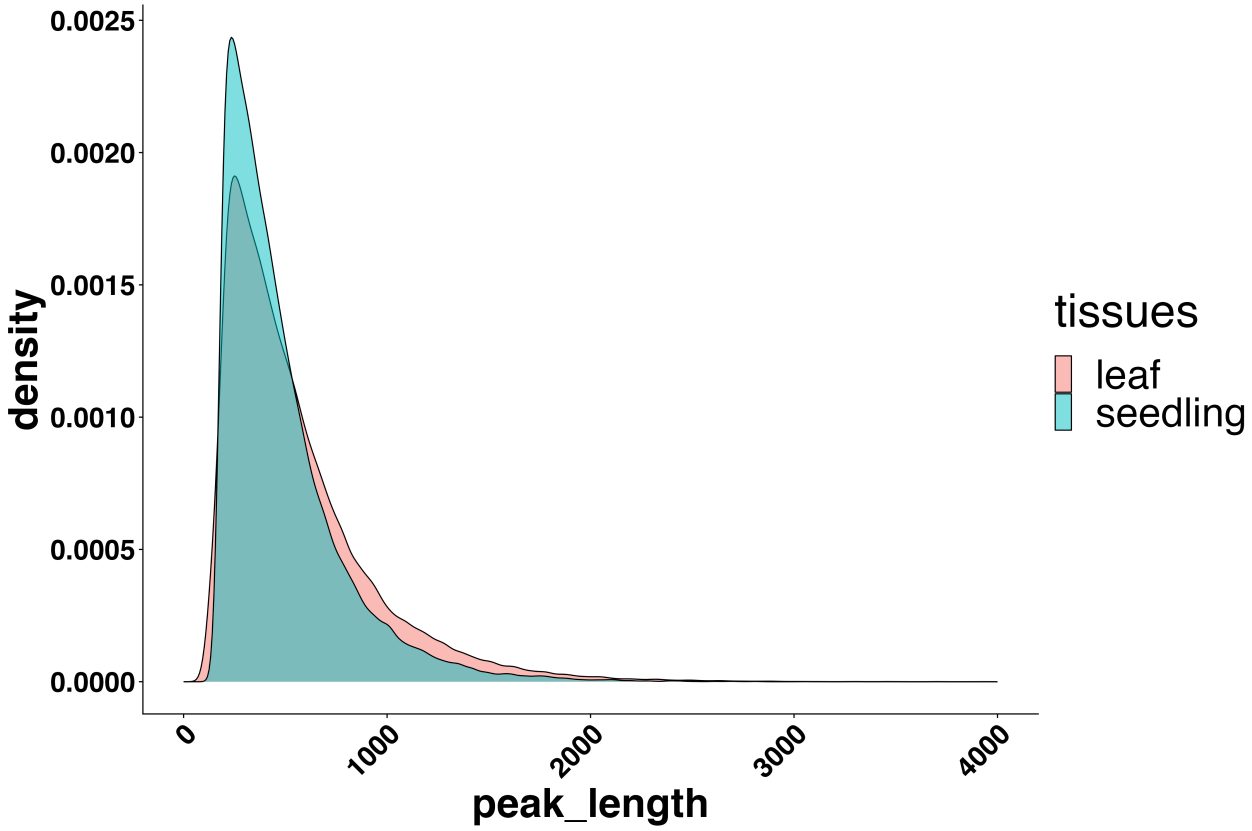

Figure S5 Distribution of ACR length in the ATACome. Length of both leaf tissues (pink) and seedling tissue (turquoise) ACRs from samples of PI 558499 aligned to the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome.

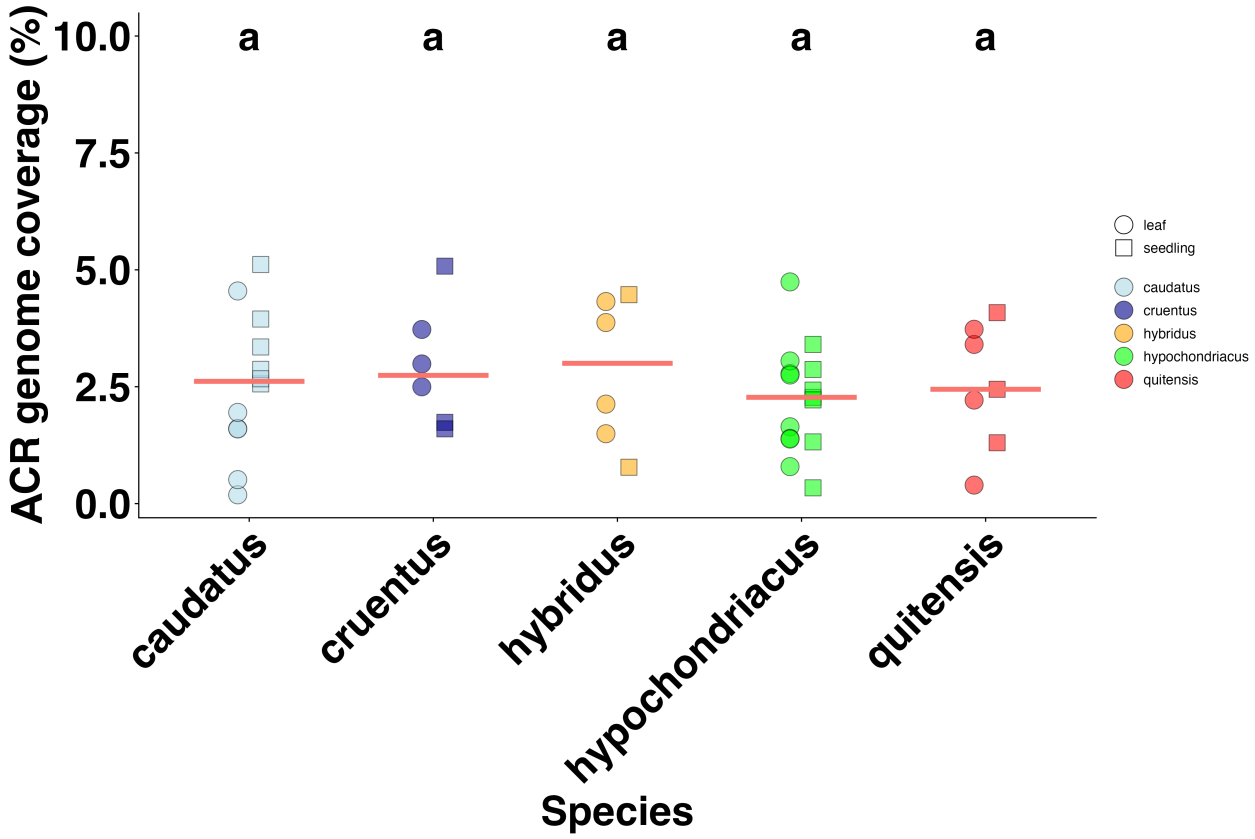

Figure S6 Fraction of the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome covered by the ACRs called in each sample. The tissue and species from which each sample originates is indicated by shape and color, respectively. The mean is indicated by a red line for each species, respectively. Species for which the mean does not significantly differ are indicated by the same letter atop their column.

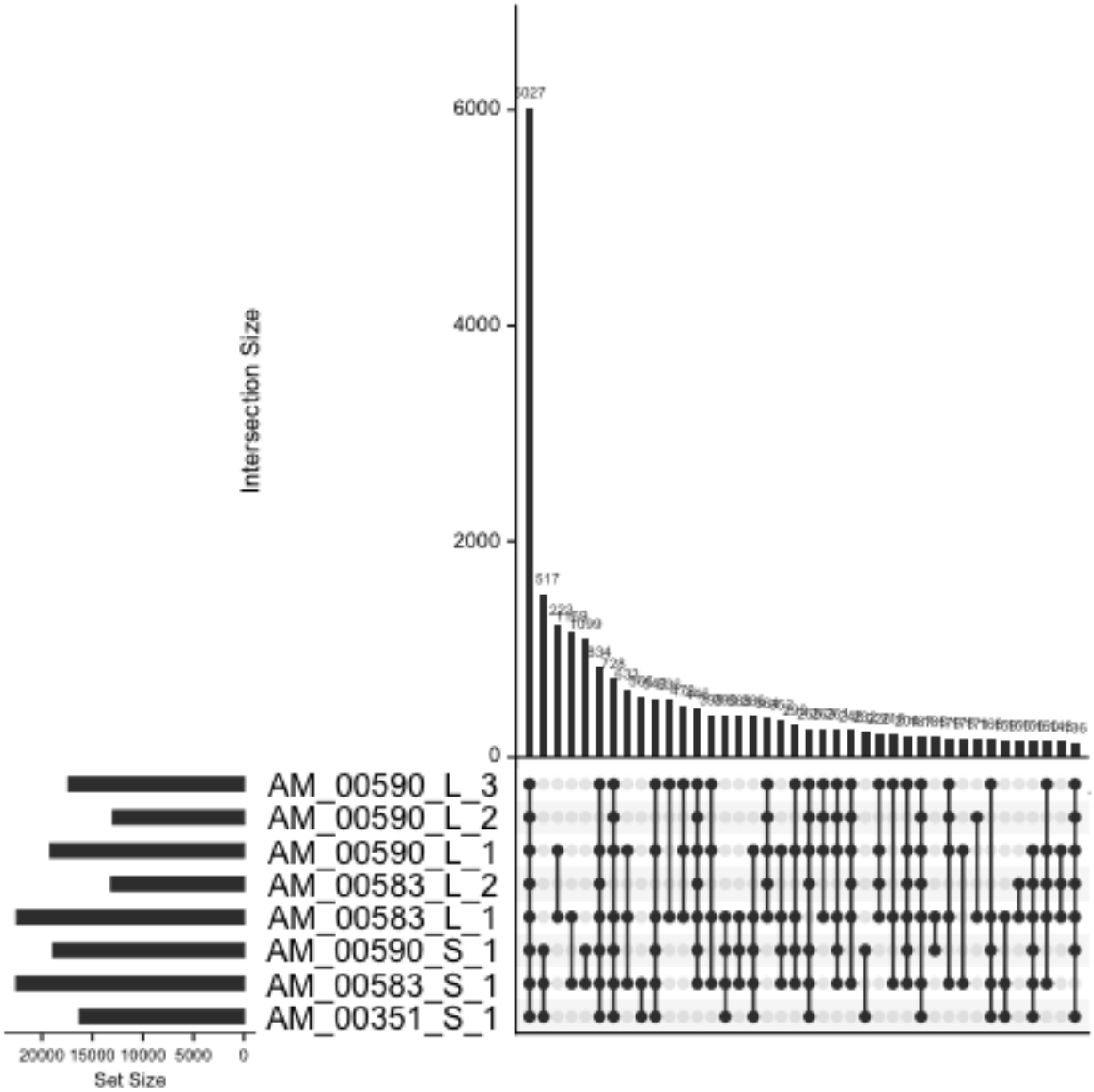

Figure S7 Overlap of ACRs between the samples of *A. hypochondriacus*. UpsetR plot of ACRs called in each of the eight samples from PI 558499. The Y-axis of the bar graph indicates number of ACRs are shared by samples indicated by dots in the corresponding column of the matrix below. ACRs are only part of one sample group. The second bar graph to the left of the sample names indicates total number of ACRs called in each sample.

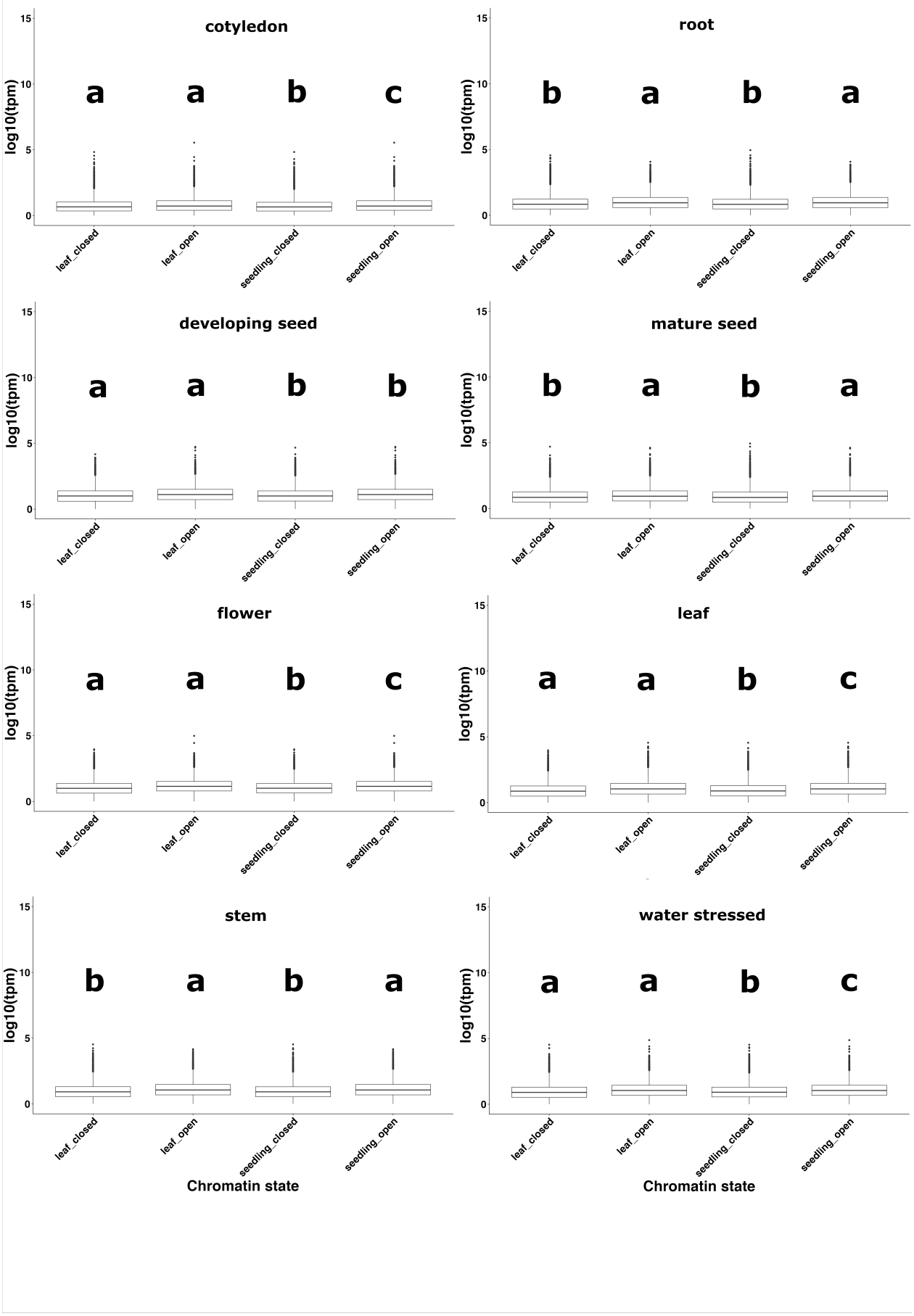

Figure S8 Expression comparison in eight tissues. Comparison of expression of genes within open chromatin and within closed chromatin in both leaf and seedling samples. Expression values for the genes in each of the eight tissues was taken from [67]. Letters on top of the boxplots indicate significant difference within each of the eight tissues.

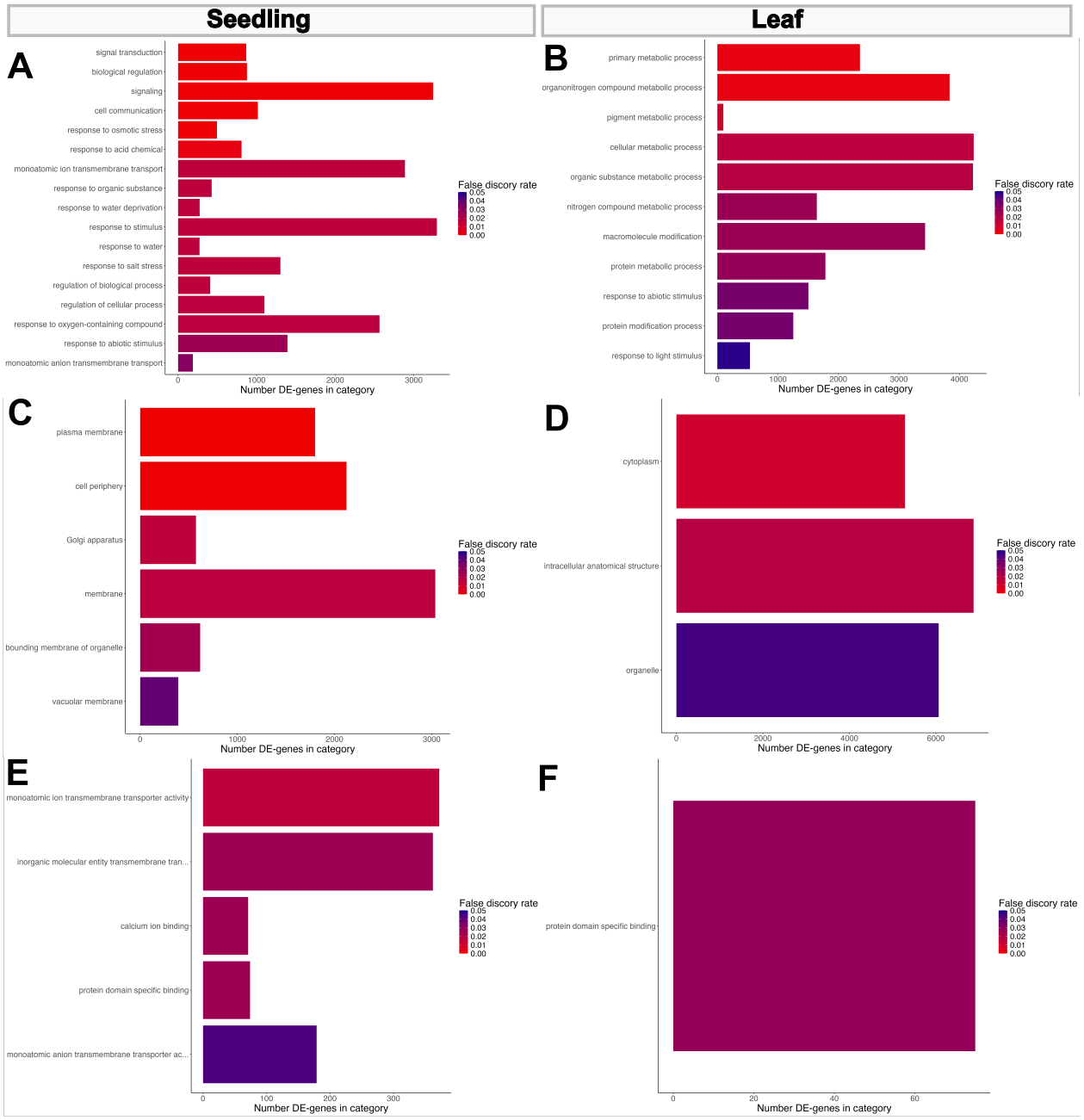

Figure S9 Functional categories enriched among genes associated with ACRs in *A. hypochondriacus*. GO-terms related to **A,B** biological processes, **C,D** cellular components and **E,F** molecular functions enriched among genes associated wit ACRs in seedling and leaf, respectively.

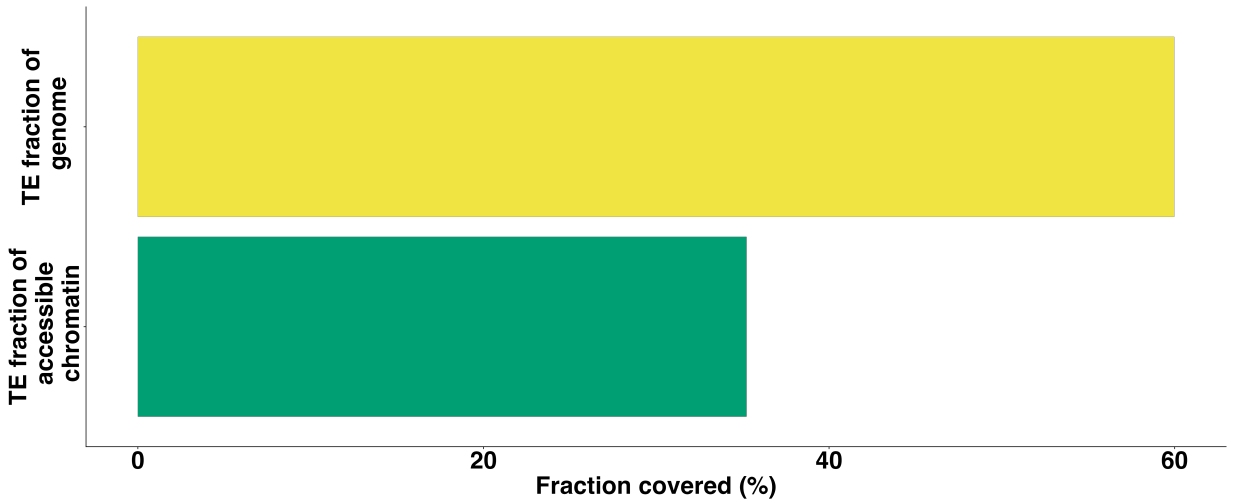

Figure S10 TE coverage of open chromatin and the genome. X-axis indicates the fraction of the whole genome (yellow) and accessible chromatin (green) that is occupied by TEs.

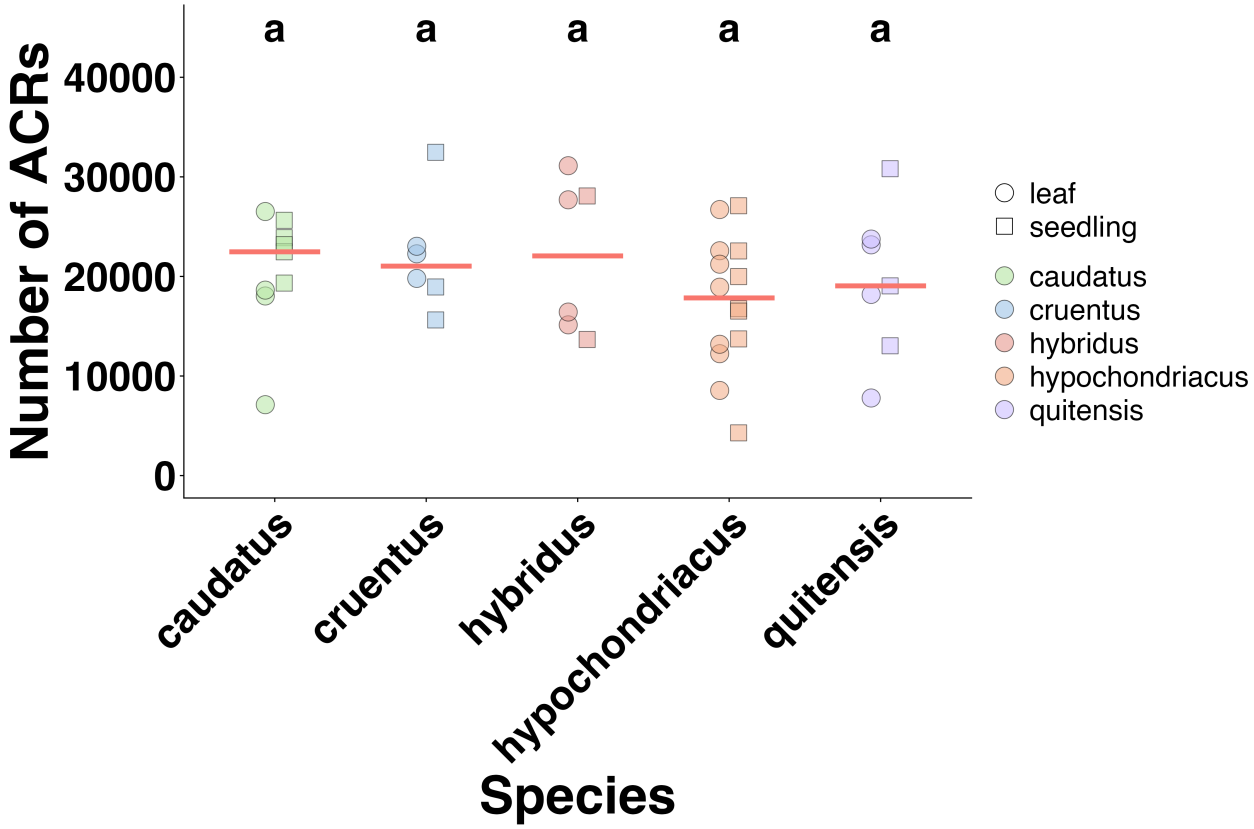

Figure S11 Number of ACRs called for each sample when aligned to the *A. cruentus* reference genome. The tissue and species from which each sample originates is indicated by shape and color, respectively. The mean is indicated by a red line for each species, respectively. Species for which the mean does not significantly differ are indicated by the same letter atop their column.

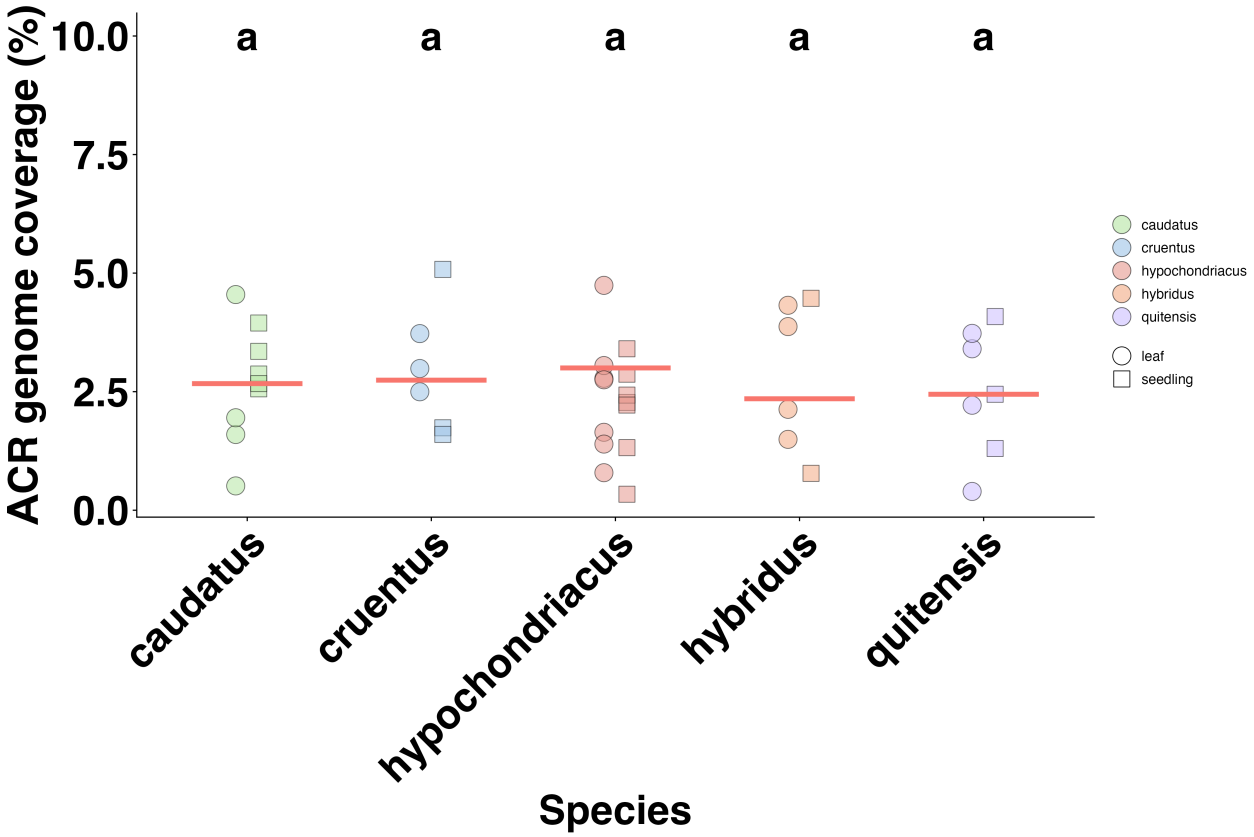

Figure S12 Fraction of the *A. cruentus* reference genome covered by the ACRs called in each sample. The tissue and species from which each sample originates is indicated by shape and color, respectively. The mean is indicated by a red line for each species, respectively. Species for which the mean does not significantly differ are indicated by the same letter atop their column.

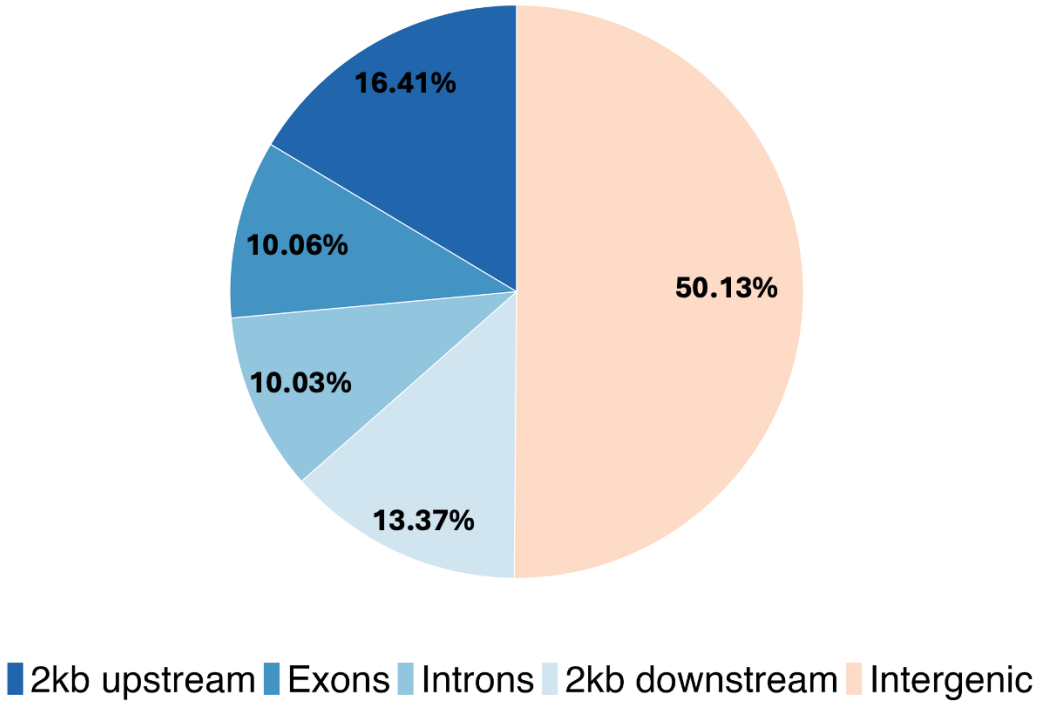

Figure S13 ACR distribution among the genomic regions in *A. cruentus*. Genomic distribution of ACRs called from eight *A. hypochondriacus* samples of the reference accession aligned to the *A. cruentus* reference genome to test for reference bias.

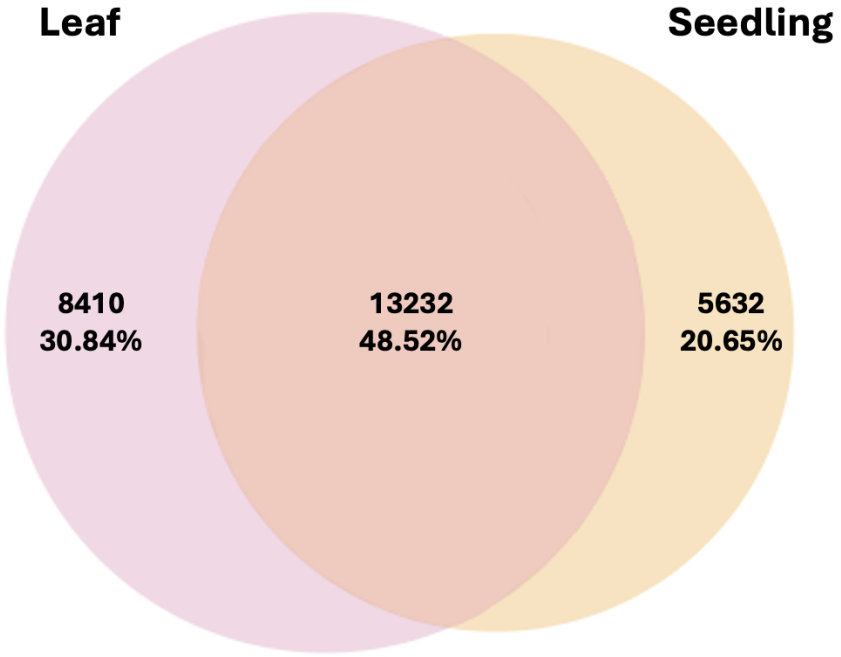

Figure S14 Overlap of ACRs between tissues in *A. cruentus*. ACRs called from eight samples of the *A. hypochondriacus* reference accession aligned to the *A. cruentus* reference genome to test for reference bias.

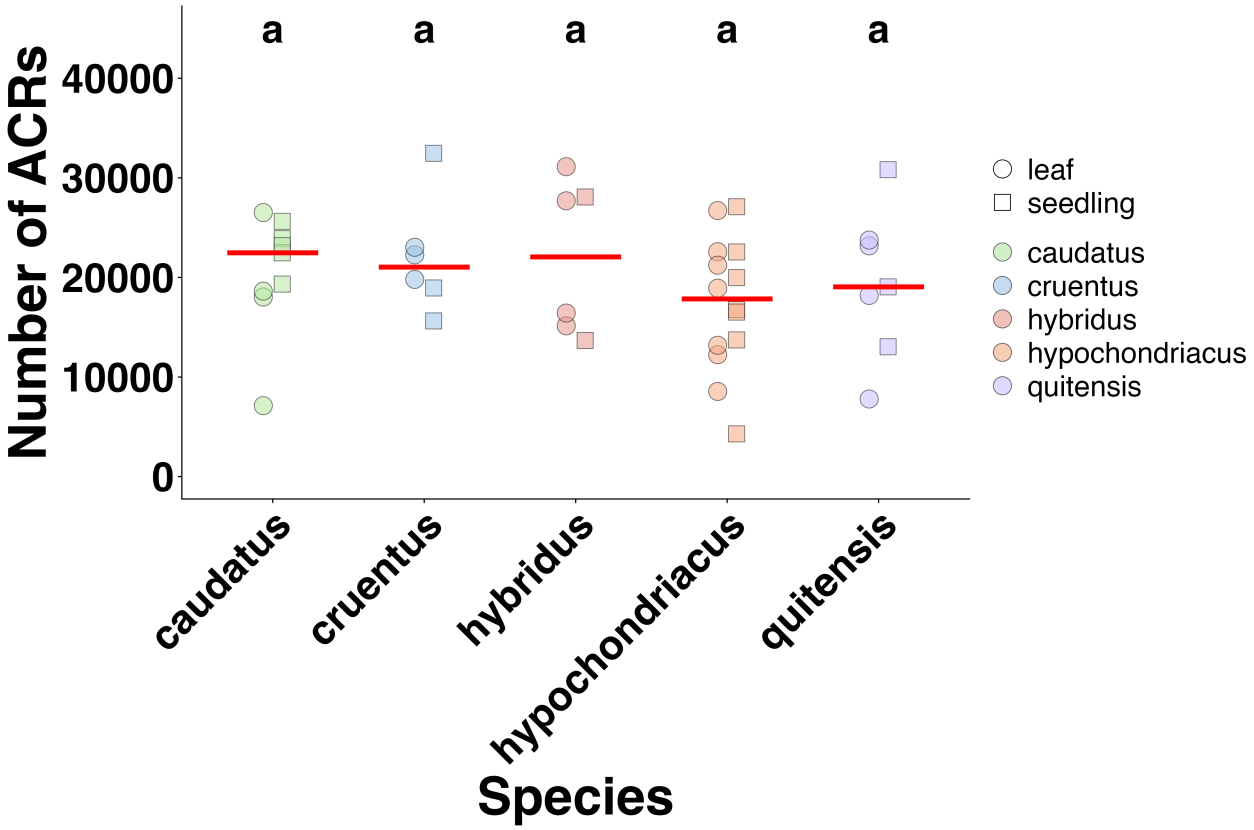

Figure S15 Number of ACRs called for each sample when aligned to the *A. hypochondriacus* reference genome. The tissue and species from which each sample originates is indicated by shape and color, respectively. The mean is indicated by a red line for each species, respectively. Species for which the mean does not significantly differ are indicated by the same letter atop their column.

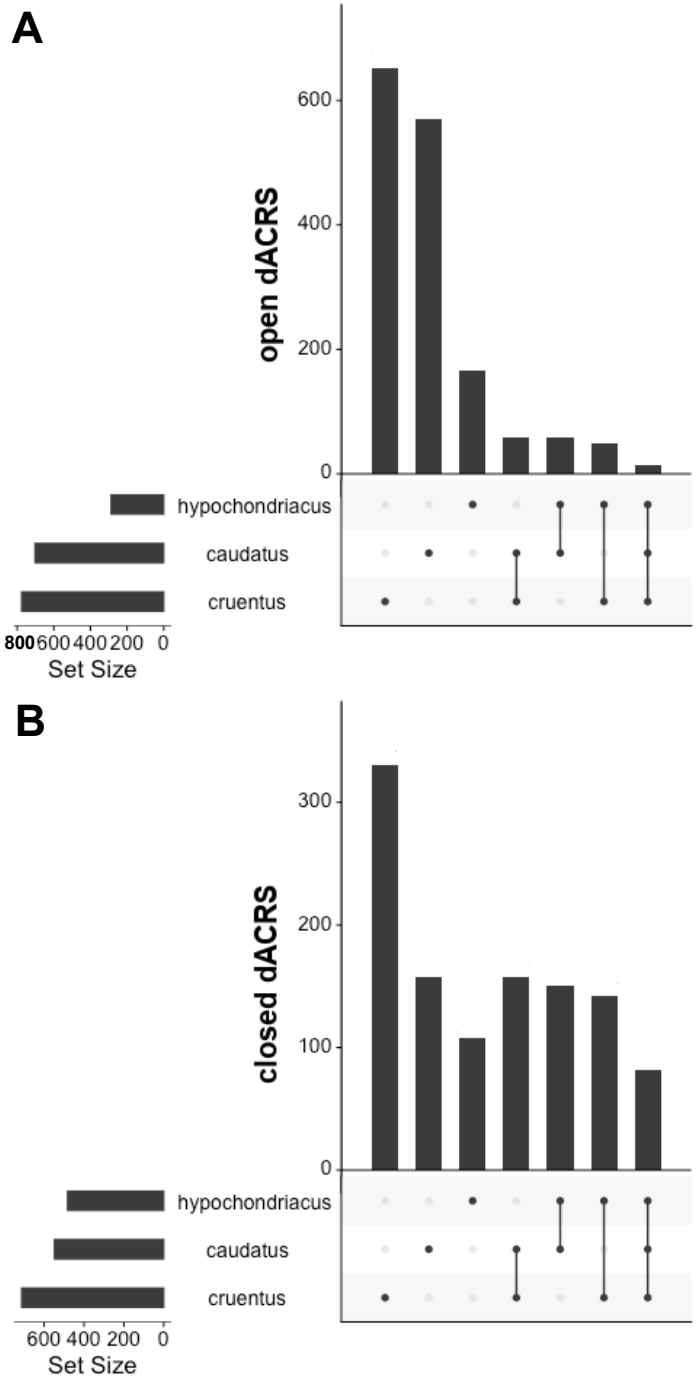

Figure S16 Shared and unique dACRs. Overlap between domesticate species of **A** dACRs that opened up during domestication and **B** dACRs that closed during domestication