N6-Methyladenine DNA modification regulates pathogen virulence in nematodes

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Abstract

The study of the global regulatory mechanisms controlling pathogen virulence gene
expression is key to understanding the underlying mechanisms of pathogenicity. 6mA plays a
critical role in regulating gene expression in response to various environmental stresses, but
its biological functions related to pathogen virulence remain largely unexplored. We report the
widespread presence of 6mA across 17 isolates of nematodes, along with an exploration of
the 6mA landscape in the genomes of six notorious agricultural pathogen root-knot nematodes
(RKNs). Our results indicate that 6mA has a conserved "GAG" motif in different nematodes but
exhibits different distribution patterns and effects on gene expression. The distribution of 6mA
in transposable elements differs between polyploid and diploid nematodes, suggesting
lineage-specific epigenetic regulation potentially associated with polyploidy. Importantly, we
identified two potential 6mA demethylases, MiNMAD-1 and MiNMAD-2, and confirmed their
catalytic activity and site. Subsequent host-induced gene silencing of minmad-1 resulted in a
significant increase in plant resistance to three polyploid RKNs species. A detailed functional
characterization revealed that knocking down minmad-1 impaired the expression patterns of
various virulence genes in the parasitic stage, thereby decreasing the virulence of RKNs on
hosts. Our findings suggest that 6mA demethylase may serve as an epigenetic marker linked
to pathogen virulence, enhancing our understanding of RKN biology and providing novel
resources for the development of RKN prevention and control strategies.

Significance Statement

6mA methyltransferase regulates the expression of virulence genes in certain pathogenic
bacteria and plays a critical role in their infectivity. However, the regulation of virulence gene
expression in eukaryotic pathogens, particularly plant pathogens, remains largely unexplored.
Most studies on pathogen virulence have focused on the function of individual effectors, with
limited research on the global regulation of virulence gene expression. Through an epigenetic
study of plant-parasitic nematodes, we found that 6mA globally regulates the expression
patterns of virulence genes in RKNs. Furthermore, we generated transgenic tobacco, tomato,
and rice plants expressing dsRNA targeting the nematode demethylase and found that these
transgenic plants exhibited significantly enhanced resistance to RKNs. Overall, 6mA
demethylase could be an efficient target for controlling plant-parasitic nematodes.

Main Text

Introduction

The regulation of pathogen virulence gene expression is crucial for uncovering the
mechanisms of pathogenicity. Current research primarily focuses on the functional analysis of
individual virulence genes, while little is known about the broader mechanisms governing the
global regulation of virulence gene expression in pathogens. DNA methylation is one of the
earliest discovered DNA modification pathways, leading to changes in chromatin structure,
DNA conformation, stability, and interactions with proteins, thereby controlling gene

expression(1, 2). The role of 6mA in controlling bacterial virulence has been well-documented.
DNA adenine methylase (Dam) is a crucial factor in *Salmonella* virulence(3). Dam(-) mutants
exhibit multiple virulence-related defects(4) and may regulate the expression of the effector
SpoA and SopB, which has phosphoinositide phosphatase activity(5, 6). Moreover, Dam has
also been reported to globally affect the expression of genes associated with the cariogenic
potential in *Streptococcus* mutans(7). Additionally, 6mA methyltransferase regulates the
expression of virulence genes in pathogenic bacteria responsible for pediatric osteoarticular
infections and enterocolitis(8, 9), as well as the virulence of the opportunistic pathogen
Pseudomonas aeruginosa, which causes both acute and chronic infections(10). Furthermore,
6mA affects the expression of Mga, a major transcriptional regulator of multiple virulence
genes in *Streptococcus pyogenes*(11). In eukaryotes, there are limited reports of
6mA-regulated virulence genes in fungi. 6mA methyltransferase is critical for the virulence of
plant pathogenic fungi *Cryphonectria parasitica*(12). However, most studies on the relationship
between 6mA and pathogen virulence have primarily focused on animal pathogens, leaving
the connection between 6mA and virulence in plant pathogens largely unexplored. Moreover,
while most functional studies of 6mA have focused on 6mA methyltransferases, the functions
of demethylases remain largely unknown.
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Recently, DNA 6mA modification has been reported in an increasing number of eukaryotes
including *Caenorahabiditis elegans*(13), *Bursaphelenchus xylophilus*(14), *Drosophila*(15),
Chlamydomonas reinhardtii(16), fungi(17, 18), plant(19-21), and mammal(22). In eukaryotes,
6mA methylation can occur in either symmetric or asymmetric contexts. However, studies in *C.*
elegans and other species have indicated that asymmetric 6mA methylation predominates,
especially in gene bodies or transposon-related regions. In our analysis, we observed a similar
pattern in RKNs, consistent with the prevalence of asymmetric 6mA distribution. It has been
shown that eukaryotic 6mA is transmitted via a semiconservative mechanism(23) and is
incorporated into mammalian genome by DNA polymerase(24, 25). Moreover, 6mA has been
reported to be associated with disease onset(26-28), embryonic development(15), and
responses to environmental stress(20, 29). As 6mA modulators, demethylases influences a
variety of biological processes such as spawning(13), ovary development(15), DNA replication
and repair(30), vascular calcification(31), fatty acid metabolism in humans and mice(28), and
neurodevelopment(32). The function of 6mA demethylase in pathogen infection process has
been preliminary reported in *Mucor lusitanicus*(33). However, many previously reported
eukaryotes with high levels of 6mA were later found most data from mammals and many other
eukaryotes was clearly shown to be erroneous, like originating from bacterial
contamination(34). Therefore, controlling bacterial contamination is particularly critical in the
detection of 6mA in eukaryotes.
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Nevertheless, the mechanism by which 6mA regulates the parasitism of eukaryotic pathogens,
particularly the connection between demethylases and virulence, remains to be established.
Plant-parasitic nematodes (PPNs) cause devastating economic losses, exceeding $100 billion
annually(35). Root-knot nematodes (RKNs) are the most damaging PPNs(36) and have
received increasing attention due to their broad host spectrum and complex ploidy status(37).
Infective second juveniles of RKNs enter the plants close to the root tip and migrate

intercellularly to reach the vascular cylinder where they establish several giant cells. These
giant cells are highly modified and are the only source of nutrients for nematode throughout
their lifecycle. A wide range of nematode effectors facilitate the establishment and functioning
of giant cells(38). Yet, the epigenetic regulation patterns of these effector genes remain largely
unexplored. Existing studies on RKNs epigenetics have primarily focused on histone
modifications(39-41) and microRNA(42). Homology analysis of methyltransferase and
demethylase suggest that the *Meloidogyne incognita* (Mi) lacks DNA 6mA modification(43),
raising questions about the presence of 6mA in the RKN genome. Alternatively, it is possible
that these enzymes have substantial sequence divergence from already known enzymes,
requiring further investigation.
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In this study, after eliminating bacterial DNA contamination, we explored the presence of 6mA
in 17 nematode isolates using LC-MS/MS and confirmed the presence of DNA 6mA
modification in 2 diploids (*M. graminicola* and *M. hapla*), 2 allotriploids (*M. incognita* and *M.*
arenaria 3n), and 2 allotetraploids (*M. arenaria* 4n and *M. javanica*) RKNs using SMRT-seq,
N6-Methyladenine DNA immunoprecipitation sequencing (6mA-DIP-seq), and DNA Dot blot
techniques. We discovered that 6mA primarily modifies active genes and found inconsistent
distribution landscapes of 6mA across different RKN species, especially in transposable
elements (TEs) between diploid and allopolyploid RKNs. Notably, low-methylation-level sites
in Mi were concentrated in the A2 subgenome, associated with genes involved in vital cell
functions, such as G protein-coupled receptors (GPCR). Importantly, we identified two putative
6mA demethylases (MiNMAD-1 and MiNMAD-2) and determined their catalytically active site
through structural prediction and biochemical experiments. Remarkably, host-induced gene
silencing of *minmad-1* significantly increased the resistance of transgenic host plants to 3
species of polyploid RKNs. Further study showed that the demethylase MiNMAD-1 globally
regulated the expression pattern of numerous virulence genes. Taken together, this work
establishes a link between eukaryotic pathogen epigenetics and virulence.
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Results
6mA widespread in nematode genome
To investigate the status of DNA 6mA in nematodes, we collected 17 isolates of nematodes
including 7 RKNs, 4 isolates *Heterodera glycines*, 3 migratory plant-parasitic nematodes, 1
animal-parasitic nematodes, and 2 free-living nematodes. To exclude bacterial DNA
contamination during liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry
(LC-MS/MS) detection, we used sterile eggs from which DNA was extracted and used 16S
primers (27F, 1492R) to exclude the possibility of bacterial DNA contamination in the extracted
DNA (see Method, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S1). Finally, we found a distinct 6mA signal across all
species (Fig. 1*A*).
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157 To further understand the role of 6mA methylation in the life history of PPNs, we focused on
158 several species of RKNs (*SI Appendix*, Tables S1 and 2). PacBio sequencing is widely used
159 for detecting 6mA modifications at single-base resolution; however, the issue of false positives
160 due to bacterial contamination is a significant concern. In this study, we employed the
161 6mASCOPE(34) approach to quantify bacterial contamination by aligning the PacBio sequel I

reads to the NCBI nt database. Our results showed that only 0.0004%-0.11% of reads originated from such contaminants (*SI Appendix*, Tables S3). To further assess the accuracy of these contamination ratios, we generated HiFi sequencing data for Mi, Ma, and Mj and analyzed them using 6mASCOPE. The results revealed that the proportions of reads originating from fungal and bacterial contamination were 0.018%, 0.011%, and 0.011% (*SI Appendix*, Tables S4-6), respectively. The results evaluated by 6mASCOPE support that the contamination rate in our data is extremely low. Subsequently, we analyzed the 6mA content of our previously constructed genome of *M. graminicola* (Mg), Mi, *M. arenaria* 3n (Ma 3n), *M. arenaria* 4n (Ma 4n), and *M. javanica*(44) by using PacBio sequel I data, and the results confirmed the LC-MS/MS data. In addition, we generated a chromosome-level genome assembly for the diploid *M. hapla* (Mh, *SI Appendix*, Tables S7) based on Pacbio, Illumina, and Hi-C data (*SI Appendix*, Tables S8). The genome size of this assembly closely matches with previous version(45) (53.1 Mb vs. 53.6 Mb), but shows a higher quality than previous version, as evidenced by an improved scaffold N50 (2.8 Mb vs. 0.08 Mb) and BUSCO 66.8%. We also identified the 6mA modifications at individual base level through PacBio sequel I data for Mh. To minimize false positives, we excluded 6mA sites with low sequencing coverage, using different minimum coverage thresholds (ranging from 15× to 50×) depending on the sequencing depth of each sample, as previously described(13, 17). After this filtering step, numerous 6mA sites were identified across the six genomes (*SI Appendix*, Tables S9). Subsequently, to further minimize false positives in 6mA analysis, we performed whole-genome amplification (WGA) on the genomic DNA of Mi, Ma, Mj, Mg, and Mh. To evaluate the reliability of 6mA site detection, we used WGA samples sequenced by PacBio HiFi as negative controls. The number of 6mA sites identified in these WGA samples, which should not contain true methylation, reflects the false-positive rate (*SI Appendix*, Tables S9 and S10). We observed that samples with minimal bacterial contamination—such as Ma 4n—had very few false-positive 6mA sites. In contrast, WGA samples with higher contamination levels yielded substantially more false-positive sites (*SI Appendix*, Tables S10 and S11). These findings highlight the importance of controlling for contamination when interpreting 6mA methylation data.

To further validate the presence of 6mA in RKNs genome, after excluding RNA m6A contamination (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S2, see **Method**), we conducted 6mA Dot blot on the egg genomic DNA of *M. incognita*, *M. arenaria* 3n, *M. arenaria* 4n, *M. javanica*, *M. graminicola*, and *M. hapla*, detecting a clear 6mA signal (Fig. 1*B*, *SI Appendix*, Fig. S3). However, no 6mA signal was detected in the negative control of nematode DNA after whole genome amplified (WGA) using phi29 polymerase (Fig. 1*B*) and 18S amplification (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S3). Next, we applied LC-MS/MS to distinguish 1mA from 6mA in these six genomic DNAs, with only 6mA signal being visible (Fig. 1*C*). Additionally, we performed 6mA-DIP-seq on Mi genomic DNA and Mi-WGA DNA (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4*A*). Pearson correlation analysis confirmed high reproducibility between replicates (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4*B*). The results verified the presence of 6mA in the Mi genome, with 53% of the peaks overlapping with those identified by SMRT sequencing (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4*C*, *D*). However, only dozens of peaks were identified in the 6mA-DIP-seq data of Mi-WGA (*SI Appendix*, Tables S12). Taken together, all the results support the presence of 6mA in RKN genomes.

6mA distribution landscape in nematodes genome

The distribution of DNA methylation sites were found related to the expression regulation of genes(46)**.** To comprehensively investigate regulatory effects of 6mA methylation on gene expression in RKNs and free-living nematode *C. elegans* (Ce, download form GEO database, GSE66504), we categorized all 6mA-modification-related genes based on their location at promoter, gene body, and distal intergenic positions. We found the most 6mA sites in the gene body and promoter, with the promoter region of Ce showing the highest proportion (59.93%) of 6mA distribution (Fig. 2*A*; *SI Appendix*, Fig. S5). Subsequently, we selectively extracted 6mA sites distributed in the promoter, gene body, and distal intergenic regions, and focused on the 8-base-pair sequence surrounding each 6mA site for motif analysis. Within the same species, the results indicate that the motifs of 6mA, whether located on the promoter, gene body, or distal intergenic regions are generally similar (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S6). However, when comparing those motifs between different species, there is a higher degree of conservation among RKNs, whereas the motifs between RKNs and Ce show significant differences (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S6). Additionally, the results demonstrated that the core motif in RKNs is GAG, whereas in Ce it is ApT, consistent with findings in fungi. This suggests potential differences in the patterns of 6mA-regulated gene expression between RKNs and Ce.

To investigate the functions of genes at different 6mA methylation levels, we classified the 6mA sites into 3 categories including low- (at a specific locus, less than 30% of reads in all sequencing data are detected as methylated), moderate- (30%-70%) and high- (70%-100%) methylation levels. We found that moderate-methylation-level 6mA sites exhibited the highest density in Ce, Mi, Ma 3n, and Mj, accounting for about 76% in total 6mA sites. In Ma 4n, Mg, and Mh, approximately 50% of the 6mA sites exhibited moderate-methylation-levels, while only a small proportion showed either high or low methylation levels (Fig. 2*B*). Analyzing the 8 bp sequence surrounding 6mA sites revealed three distinct motifs across the methylation categories in each nematode (Fig. 2*C*), respectively. The GAG motif was most represented in 6mA sites with high-methylation-level across the four RKNs (Mi, Mj, Mg, and Mh), similar with findings in *C. elegans*(13) and rice(19, 20). In contrast, motifs at moderate and low methylation levels varied among species (Fig. 2*C*), suggesting that different methylation levels of 6mA sites may require diverse modifying enzymes and fulfill varied regulatory functions.

Subsequently, we examined the distribution density of 6mA in the gene regions and transposable elements (TE) regions of these nematode genomes. The result shows that the gene regions displayed a low distribution density of 6mA in all nematodes, except Mh (Fig. 2*D*), which is similar to the 5mC distribution characteristics(19). TE regions showed significant differences in the distribution density of 6mA sites among the polyploidy nematodes and the diploid (Ce, Mg, and Mh) nematodes (Fig. 2*E*), indicating that 6mA and TE interactions might relate to polyploid RKNs' characteristics post-polyploidization.

To investigate the distribution patterns of 6mA in TE regions in polyploid and diploid nematodes, we scrutinized the abundance of 6mA across various types of TE in both polyploid and diploid nematodes. We found that 6mA in polyploid nematodes is densely distributed in

DNA TE, MITE, and LTR, with a low density in the Low_complexity region, which has a
low-density feature like the gene region (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S7-10). We noticed that the TE
content and type between polyploid and diploid RKNs are significantly difference (*SI Appendix*,
Tables S13). About 28%-33% of the genome sequences in polyploid RKNs are TE, of which
8%-10% types of TE are Low_complexity TE (including simple repeat). While in diploid RKNs,
only 8%-10% of the genome is comprised of TE, and 41%-81% of those TE are low complexity.
However, the differences in TE types cannot explain the significant difference in the
abundance of 6mA in polyploid and diploid nematodes' TE regions, even though diploid
nematodes contain a high proportion of DNA TE, MITE-type TEs still do not have the
high-density 6mA feature in these regions (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S11-13). For example, *C.
elegans* has the similar distribution of TE types as polyploid RKN (*SI Appendix*, Tables S13),
but the distribution of 6mA on TE exhibits the same characteristics as diploid nematodes. To
verify the authenticity of our data, we performed the same analysis on the false-positive 6mA
sites predicted in the WGA sample sequencing data. The results showed that these
false-positive 6mA sites did not have an increased density in the TE region, nor a decreased
density in the gene region (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S14), but were randomly distributed in the
genome. To further verify the authenticity of 6mA enrichment at TE positions, we compared
the overlap ratio of 6mA-DIP-seq peaks with the TE regions of Mi. We found that 74.8% of the
merged peaks identified by 6mA-DIP-seq overlapped with the TE region of *M. incognita*, while
Mi's TE region only accounted for 28.18% of the total genome. These results indicate that the
high-density 6mA feature of TEs in polyploid RKNs is not related to TE type and may be
related to TE outbreaks and maintenance of genome stability after polyploidization.
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6mA regulates gene expression of RKNs
To understand the impact of 6mA methylation on gene expression levels, we examined the
relationship between 6mA methylation and gene expression from multiple aspects. Firstly, we
compared the expression levels in egg stage (same stage as collecting SMRT sequencing
data) of 6mA-methylated genes and unmethylated genes in these six RKNs. The results
suggested that the expression levels of 6mA-methylated genes in almost all the RKNs were
significantly higher than those of unmethylated genes, while the opposite pattern was
observed in Mh (Fig. 3*A*). Among all polyploid RKNs, genes with an unmethylated status
predominantly exhibit a low expression level, measured by transcripts per million (TPM)<1.
Conversely, within methylated genes, there is a higher proportion showing an expression level
exceeding TPM>5 (Fig. 3*B*). In diploid RKNs, regardless of methylation status, most genes
demonstrate an expression level surpassing TPM>5. Conversely, in the free-living nematode
Ce, the predominant proportion of genes exhibit TPM<1 (Fig. 3*B*). These findings suggest that
genes modified by 6mA methylation tend to activate gene expression in polyploid species,
while no significant trend is observed in diploid nematodes.
288
Subsequently, to investigate whether there are differences in modification site motifs among
genes with different expression levels of genes modified by 6mA, we performed motif
enrichment analysis on the 6mA sites of genes (egg stage) with TPM<1, 1<TPM<5, and
TPM>5, respectively. The results indicate that genes with different expression levels within the
same species exhibit similar motif enrichment, and motifs among RKNs are relatively

conserved, with a core motif of GAG (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S15). In contrast, there is a significant
divergence in motifs between Ce and RKNs, with the core motif being ApT (*SI Appendix*, Fig.
S15). Notably, the motif patterns associated with genes of different expression levels are
similar to those observed for 6mA sites located in different genomic regions, such as
promoters, gene bodies, and distal intergenic regions (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S6).

Secondly, many previous studies have shown that differences in DNA methylation modification
sites (promoter, gene body, and distal intergenic regions) are often related to gene expression
regulation. Hence, we extracted the genes modified at one of these three positions alone and
simultaneously modified at three modification positions (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S16) to explore the
expression differences between genes modified at these different positions. The analysis of
gene expression levels revealed that genes modified by 6mA in the gene body position in
polyploid RKNs (Mi, Ma 3n, Ma 4n, and Mj) exhibited higher expression levels than the overall
average of all genes (Fig. 3*C*). While the genes modified by 6mA at promoter in diploid RKNs
presented a higher expression level than the overall average of all genes (Fig. 3*C*). Besides,
the expression levels of promoter-methylated genes and gene body-methylated genes in Ce
are both higher than the overall average of all genes (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S17), which is different
from the characteristics of RKNs. These results indicate that 6mA regulates gene expressions
differently in polyploid and diploid RKNs.

Thirdly, to explore the impact of methylation levels on gene expression regulation, we
investigated the expression levels of the genes at different 6mA methylation levels (low-,
moderate- and high-methylation levels). The results show that in Mi, Ma 3n, and Mg the
moderate-methylation-level related genes exhibited the highest expression level, while in Ce
and Mh, the high-methylation-level related genes displayed the highest one (Fig. 3*D*)**,**
suggesting that the effect of 6mA on gene expression levels is a divergence in different
nematodes.

Finally, we compared the expression levels of the transposable element-related genes (TEGs)
and 6mA-marked genes, as previously described(19). Interestingly, the genes unmodified by
6mA and TE displayed the lowest expression level in all six nematodes except Mh, and the
triploid RKNs (Mi and Ma 3n) have a similar expression signature, while diploid and tetraploid
RKNs do not (Fig. 3*E*). Further, we compared the TPM of 6mA-modified genes with and
without TE nearby and found the 6mA-modified genes with no TE nearby displayed a lower
expression level than those with TE nearby in Ma 3n, Ma 4n, Mj, Mg, and Ce, which was the
opposite in Mi and Mh (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S18). However, the 6mA-marked TEGs showed
significantly higher expression levels than the 6mA-unmarked ones in all nematodes (*SI*
Appendix, Fig. S18). These findings suggest that although 6mA is frequently enriched in
TE-rich genomic regions, its influence on gene expression differs depending on genomic
context and nematode lineage. This indicates that the regulatory role of 6mA is multifaceted,
functioning neither as strictly repressive nor exclusively activating, but instead showing
context-dependent associations with gene expression.

Low-methylation-level 6mA sites play a crucial role in Mi

In addition, we examined the abundance of 6mA on each chromosome in these six RKNs.
Notably, the distribution of 6mA was different on some chromosomes of Mi, Ma 3n, and Ma 4n,
but evenly distributed on the chromosomes of Mj, Mg and Mh (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S19). Overall,
A_2 subgenome showed a higher 6mA content in Mi genome. Additionally, the mitochondria
DNA in all six RKNs presented the highest 6mA abundance (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S19), which
was similar to that in human(22). Recent study has revealed that 6mA on *C. elegans*
mitochondria DNA responds to environmental stress(29, 47). We speculate that 6mA in RKNs
might be involved in their response to stress from host plants.

Subsequently, we investigated the distribution status of 6mA sites with different methylation
levels on the RKNs genome and plotted the data by Circos (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S20*A*). We
noticed that the three methylation-level 6mA sites presented an even distribution on the
chromosome of these six RKNs, except for the low-methylation-level 6mA sites in Mi (*SI
Appendix*, Fig. S20*A*, green circle of Mi). We found that 72% of the high-density-region (HDR,
6mA counting beyond 60 in a 50 kb genome window) of low-methylation-level 6mA sites were
in the A_2 subgenome. Further, we extracted the genes related to the HDR of low-methylation
sites from A_2 subgenome, and the genes located in the same region from A_1, and B_1
subgenomes to compare their expression level in egg stage. Notably, the genes from A_2
subgenome presented a higher expression level than those from A_1 and B_1 subgenomes (*SI
Appendix*, Fig. S21). Furthermore, these genes showed the higher expression level not only in
the egg stage (the stage we collected the information of 6mA sites) of Mi, but also in the other
stages of Mi (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S20*B*).

To reveal functional differences of the genes related to the HDR of low-methylation-level 6mA
sites between A_2 and A_1 or B_1 subgenome, we compared the enriched Pfam structure domain
of these genes. The results showed that the genes from A_2 subgenome were enriched in
GPCR (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S20*C*), which were consistent with the GO enrichment analysis
results of the genes with high methylation density in human(22). GPCR superfamily is one of
the larger chemoreceptors, and it acts as a center receptor in nematodes which will become
"blind" and "deaf" without GPCR(48). GPCR also plays an important role in fungal infection(49,
50), and it may play an extremely important role in finding hosts and secreting effectors for
RKNs(51). Moreover, we performed the GO analysis of these related genes in A_2, A_1, and B_1
subgenomes. The results showed that these genes from A_2 subgenome were mainly enriched
in important molecule function GO terms such as pharyngeal gland morphogenesis in Mi (*SI
Appendix*, Fig. S20*D*). These results suggested that the genes modified by
low-methylation-level 6mA sites from A_2 subgenome were involved in many important
biological processes in Mi, and these genes played a more important role in A_2 subgenome
than in A_1 and B_1 subgenomes.

MiNMAD-1/2 are involved in 6mA demethylation
A previous study identified three 6mA methyltransferases from Mi, while the 6mA demethylase
remained unidentified(43). To verify whether Mi has 6mA demethylase, we synthesized an
oligo DNA with 6mA and biotin labeling and uncovered its 6mA level after treating oligo DNA
with broken Mi eggs suspension. Compared with the broken egg suspension after heat

treatment control, and BSA control, the 6mA content in the treatment group was significantly
reduced (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S22a), suggesting that there are one or more potential 6mA
demethylases in Mi.
385
We collected 6 genes containing 2OG-FeII_Oxy_2 domain based on Pfam annotation and 3
genes with the highest sequence similarity to demethylase gene *nmad-1* of *C. elegans* from
our newly assembled Mi genome to identify the putative demethylase genes in Mi. The
phylogenetic tree showed that these 9 putative demethylase genes (three alleles) belonged to
alkbh1, alkbh6, and *alkbh7* family in Mi, Ma 4n, Mj, Mg, and Mh (Fig. 4*A*; *SI Appendix*, Fig.
S23). To investigate whether these genes had functions of 6mA demethylases, we detected
genomic DNA 6mA level after RNAi of these genes in Mi eggs by LC-MS/MS. The results
showed that *Mi_14752.1* and *Mi_00010.1* knock-down significantly increased 6mA level, while
Mi_23849.1 knock-down did not (Fig. 4*B*; SI Appendix, Fig. S22*B*).
395
We purified these three proteins and tested their demethylation activity *in vitro* and found that
both Mi_14752.1 and Mi_00010.1 demethylated genomic DNA in Mi (Fig. 4*C, D*; *Supplemental*
Fig. S24). To further examine the 6mA demethylation activity of these two proteins, we used
the oligo DNA with 6mA modification and treated it with these three proteins *in vitro* and
observed a significant demethylase activity in Mi_14752.1 and Mi_00010.1 (Fig. 4*E*).
Furthermore, we comparatively analyzed the sequence similarity between these two proteins
and the reported demethylases. We found that although the demethylases in these different
species have large sequence divergence, their catalytic active sites are highly conserved (*SI*
Appendix, Fig. S25*A*). We predicted the 3D structure of Mi_14752.1, Mi_00010.1, Mi_23849.1,
and Ce_NMAD-1 by using Alphafold2(52). The results show that Mi_14752.1 is highly like
human ALKBH7 in structure, showing root-mean-square deviations (RMSD) of 0.067 Å (*SI*
Appendix, Fig. S25*B*). In addition, the catalytic sites of Ce_NMAD-1 overlaps with the sites of
Mi_14752.1 and Mi_00010.1 in 3D structure (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S25*C, D*) but does not overlap
with the Mi_23849.1 sites (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S25*E*). Besides, the RMSD between Ce_NMAD-1
and Mi_14752.1, Mi_00010.1, and Mi_23849.1 are 2.392, 1.066, and 12.625 Å, respectively
(SI Appendix, Fig. S25*C-E*). To further elucidate whether the demethylating activity is intrinsic
to Mi_14752.1 and Mi_00010.1, we introduced mutations (H153A and D155A for Mi_14752.1,
and H104A and D106A for Mi_00010.1). Subsequently, we observed that these mutations led
to the abolition of their demethylation activity (Fig. 4*F*). Thus, we designated Mi_14752.1 as Mi
N6-methyl adenine demethylase 1 (MiNMAD-1) and Mi_00010.1 as MiNMAD-2 to reflect their
newly found demethylation functions.
417
Host-induced gene silencing (HIGS) of *minmad-1/2* reduces infectivity of Mi
Considering most stages of RKN life cycle are in plants, we constructed transgenic tobacco
expressing *minmad-1/2, Mi_23849.1* (verify whether it has demethylase activity during the Mi
infection period), and *gfp* dsRNA to study the regulation functions of 6mA in parasitic stage of
Mi. Three-week pot experiments showed that compared to *gfp*-HIGS and CK tobacco,
minmad-1/2-HIGS tobacco plants exhibited different resistances to Mi, while
Mi_23849.1-HIGS tobacco shows no significant difference (Fig. 5*A*). The eight-week pot
experiment showed that the galls number was dropped by 10 folds in high-expression line of

minmad-1/2-HIGS tobacco, compared to those in *gfp*-HIGS and CK tobacco (Fig. 5*B*; *SI*
Appendix, Fig. S26*A, B*). As expected, compared with that of control, the 6mA level of Mi
genomic DNA after infesting the *minmad-1/2*-HIGS tobacco displayed a significant increase
(Fig. 5*C*), confirming that MiNMAD-1/2 were the demethylases in Mi. Subsequently, according
to galls number, we divided the nematode-infested *minmad-1/2*-, and *Mi_23849.1*-HIGS
tobacco plants into three groups including multiple-, medium-, low-galls groups (*SI Appendix*,
Fig. S27*A-C*). After confirming that bacterial contamination has been eliminated (see Method),
the DNA of females and eggs was extracted from the three groups for 6mA level detection.
The results showed that the 6mA content was negatively correlated with galls number (Fig.
5*D*), indicating that demethylase silencing reduce virulence of Mi. Additionally, the 6mA level
of females was much higher than that of eggs (Fig. 5*D*), indicating a stage-specific difference
in 6mA levels during development. To further explore the RKNs resistance effect of
demethylase gene in different plants, we constructed *minmad-1*-HIGS tomato. The tomato pot
experiments also showed that RNAi with demethylase increased resistance of hosts to Mi (*SI*
Appendix, Fig. S28*A-C*), and the level of 6mA in Mi after fed on transgenic tomato increased
significantly (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S28*D*). These results suggest the feasibility of transgenic plants
expressing Mi demethylase dsRNA to confer Mi resistance in plants.
443
Additionally, the sequences of *minmad-1* are completely conserved among polyploid RKNs (*SI*
Appendix, Fig. S29), suggests that the transgenic plants expressing Mi demethylase gene
dsRNA may confer resistance to multiple polyploid RKNs. To verify this conjecture, we carried
out an experiment of measuring the pot infection ability of transgenic tobacco to other polyploid
RKNs. The results showed that the *minmad-1*-HIGS tobacco plants exhibited significant
resistance to tetraploid RKNs Mj and Ma 4n compared to the CK and *gfp*-HIGS control plants
(Fig. 5*E, F*; *SI Appendix*, Fig. S30*A, B*). In addition, the 6mA level of Mj and Ma 4n genomic
DNA was significantly increased in *minmad-1*-HIGS group (Fig. 5*G, H*). Finally, to examine the
role of demethylases in diploid RKN, we constructed transgenic rice expressing Mg putative
demethylase dsRNA. However, the result shows that transgenic rice has no resistance to Mg,
even though 6mA levels were significantly elevated in nematodes fed transgenic rice (*SI*
Appendix, Fig. S30*C-F*). These results suggest that demethylase may influence the virulence
of RKNs, but demethylases may have distinct effects on RKNs of varying ploidies.
457
6mA regulates the expression pattern of the Mi virulence gene effector
To further investigate the regulatory effect of 6mA demethylase on Mi, we grew 80
minmad-1-HIGS tobacco plants inoculated with Mi. According to the infestation by Mi, we
divided the 80 tobacco plants into 8 groups namely, 1-2 groups with multiple galls (less than
the gall number of control), 3-6 groups with medium galls, and 7-8 groups with few galls, and
then we collected the infestation J3J4 larvae from these 3 groups for RNA-seq (*SI Appendix*,
Tables S14). A total of 7198, 8978, and 8660 DEGs were obtained (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S31)
from multiple-, medium-, low-galls groups, respectively. The 4667 DEGs were shared by all
three galls groups (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S32*A*) and displayed two significantly different
expression patterns (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S32*B*). The number of DEGs unique to one of three gall
groups (multiple-, medium-, low-galls) was 832, 1685, and 1491, respectively (*SI Appendix*,
Fig. S32*A*). Functional analysis of DEGs showed that numerous enriched down-regulated

DEGs unique to medium galls group were ribosome genes (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S32*C*),
suggesting that demethylase might regulate ribosomal level, thus modulating the translation
efficiency of mRNA, ultimately reducing Mi infectivity.
473
To explore the major cause of the reduced infectivity of Mi in *minmad-1*-HIGS tobacco plants,
we examined Mi's virulence gene (effectors), which represent its most important weapons for
parasitizing the host. We compared the putative secreted proteins (including effectors, amount
to 2,324) from 4667 shared genes, and 520 secreted proteins have been screened (*SI*
Appendix, Fig. S32*A*). The secreted proteins in all the three gall groups had a lower
expression level than those in the control group (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S32*D*), and the few galls
group displayed the lowest expression level among three gall groups (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S32*E*),
indicating that the Mi resistance of transgenic plants was negatively correlated with the
expression of Mi effector.
483
Nematode invasion into plants requires many processes such as chemotaxis, host
identification, cell wall degradation, establishment and maintenance of feeding sites, and
defense against plant immunity(53). Different processes require different effectors, and the
correct expression patterns of effectors are essential for host infestation. The expression
profiles showed that all the putative secreted protein genes from control groups and RNAi
groups fell into 11 clusters, the RNAi group displayed an expression pattern completely
opposite to control group (Fig. 6*A*). These results indicated that demethylase might affect the
expression pattern of Mi effector globally, thereby regulating the ability of Mi to infest plants.
492
To further investigate the regulation effect of demethylase on the effector, we compared the
expression levels of some reported effectors of the nematodes from *minmad-1*-HIGS tobacco
and *gfp*-HIGS control tobacco by qRT-PCR. The results showed that compared with those in
gfp-HIGS control, effectors Mi-XYl1, Mi-CRT, Mi8D05, MiPFN3, 16D10, MiSGCR1, and
MiIDL1 were down-regulated 22, 126, 10, 28, 27, 5 and 13 folds in females, respectively (Fig.
6*B*; *SI Appendix*, Fig. S33; *SI Appendix*, Tables S15). To determine whether the effector
exhibited the same decrease at protein level, we prepared the antibody of Mi-CRT. Western
blot assay showed that *minmad-1* RNAi significantly reduced the protein accumulation of the
effector Mi-CRT compared to the gfp-HIGS and CK controls (Fig. 6*C*). In addition, Mi-CRT
expression was down-regulated in both the female and egg stages (Fig. 6*D*), suggesting that
6mA DNA methylation may affect effector expression, likely at the transcriptional level, which
in turn leads to reduced protein levels.
505
To determine whether the demethylase directly binds to and regulates polyploid RKNs
effectors, we generated a specific antibody against the enzyme and performed ChIP-seq
analysis on infective J2s (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S34*A*), the only stage capable of host invasion.
The results revealed that 40.4%–51.7% of the candidate effector genes were bound by the
demethylase (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S34*B*-*D*). We next performed 6mA-DIP-seq on Mi J2s to
further assess whether 6mA directly marks the candidate effector genes. Approximately 40%
of the candidate effector genes carried 6mA modifications, and notably, 47.4% of these
overlapped with demethylase ChIP-seq targets (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S35). Together, these

findings demonstrate that the enzyme directly acts on effector genes and may influence their transcriptional regulation.

Based on the above results, we speculate that the 6mA regulatory mechanism at the molecular level may be that 6mA methyltransferase and demethylase dynamically regulate the 6mA methylation level of effector in a spatiotemporal specific manner, thereby affecting its expression level at different stages (Fig. 6*E*). Our data suggested that epigenetic regulation could be one of the major factors responsible for the parasitic ability of RKNs by regulating the expression pattern of virulence effectors. Whether 6mA regulates transcription factors in this process and thus more broadly regulates the expression of effectors is worthy of further study.

Discussion

In recent years, there has been considerable controversy regarding 6mA modification in eukaryotes, mainly regarding the issue of bacterial DNA contamination. Considering these concerns, we eliminated the possibility of false positives through multiple methods. (i) Our sample of Fig. 1 were collected from axenic eggs after parasitizing axenic cultures of tobacco; (ii) Tissues extracted from all DNA samples (egg, J3J4, female) we tested for 6mA were passed through sodium hypochlorite to eliminate potential surface bacteria before being ground and plated on LB and PDA media to confirm the absence of commensal bacteria; (iii) We performed 16S amplification on the extracted nematode DNA and found no amplified bands of bacterial DNA; (iv) The SMRT-seq data were first aligned to the nematode genome, and reads with a coverage of at least more than 15× were screened out before being used to call 6mA sites, further eliminating the possibility that the signal came from bacterial contamination DNA. (v) We removed potential false-positive 6mA sites from our data by sequencing and analyzing WGA samples using PacBio and 6mA-DIP-seq. (vi) We used 6mASCOPE to assess the proportion of bacterial/fungal contamination in HiFi sequencing data, which was only about 0.01%. (vii) We confirmed the exclusion of RNA m6A contamination in DNA by LC-MS/MS (DNA 6mA: 266.1>150.0; RNA m6A: 282.1>150.0). However, the assessment of 6mA levels in other migratory parasitic nematodes, especially those that feed on both fungi and plants, and free-living nematodes that feed on bacteria, should be more cautious. We believe that the egg stage (the most stage used in this study) should be the period with the least bacterial contamination, because there is no intestinal tissue, which reduces the possibility of symbiotic bacteria. In addition, our WGA HiFi data show that the higher the proportion of bacterial contamination in the sample, the higher the proportion of false positive 6mA identified by ipdSummary, which is one of the reasons why many 6mA in many eukaryotic organisms have been proven to be erroneous (34). Our data has been verified to show that the contamination ratio is as low as 0.01%, so the credibility of the results is relatively high.

Methylation is an epigenetic modification of the genome that can affect gene expression and genome stability. The high density of 6mA methylated sites in TE regions may have an impact on their stability and expression, thereby affecting their function. In addition, highly methylated TE regions may also have an impact on the structure and compactness of chromatin, thereby affecting the three-dimensional structure of the genome and the accessibility of chromosomes.

TE regions often have highly repetitive sequences that may be prone to recombination and
insertion, leading to genomic instability and mutation(54). However, methylation of 6mA may
contribute to the stability of TE regions, thereby reducing the occurrence of these structural
changes. In addition, the high-density 6mA methylated TE region may help to maintain this
important genetic information and play an important role in the evolution and adaptability of
species. Interestingly, the high density of methylation in the TE region is considered to be
related to the reduced expression of TE neighboring genes (TEGs)(55), while our results found
that the expression level of TEGs with 6mA methylation was significantly higher than those
without methylation.
567
Our results reveal that transposable element (TE) regions in polyploid nematodes exhibit
high-density 6mA methylation, whereas diploid nematodes lack such enrichment. Given that
TEs are often associated with phenotypic diversity, stress responses (56), a comparative
analysis of 6mA distribution patterns between polyploid and diploid RKNs is warranted to
better understand the mechanistic basis underlying these differences. Additionally, examining
the relationship between infection ability and 6mA among RKNs of different ploidy may provide
further insights into the biological implications of 6mA. While we observed distinct genomic
and transcriptomic features between polyploid and diploid RKNs, we acknowledge that these
differences may not solely result from polyploidy. Notably, polyploid RKNs included in this
study are also more closely related to each other phylogenetically, which raises the possibility
that some of the observed features reflect shared evolutionary history rather than ploidy
effects per se. Disentangling the influence of polyploidy from lineage-specific adaptations will
require broader sampling of RKN species, including both closely and distantly related diploid
and polyploid taxa. Future studies incorporating independent polyploidization events and more
resolved phylogenies will be critical to clarify the relative contributions of genome duplication
and phylogenetic proximity to the traits observed.
584
The AlkB family, as dealkylating enzymes, is conserved from bacteria to humans(57, 58), and
there are 9 AlkB proteins in humans (AlkB1-8 and FTO), of which ALKBH1 and ALKBH4 are
mostly confirmed to have demethylase function. ALKBH1 has been demonstrated to be a
demethylase in human(22), mouse(59), and rice(19), while demethylase NMAD-1 in *C.*
elegans is a homologue of ALKBH4(13). In this study, we have identified three proteins
containing 2OG-FeII_Oxy_2 domain from Mi. Our *in vivo* and *in vitro* assays suggested that
two proteins homologous to ALKBH6 and ALKBH7 function as putative 6mA demethylases in
triploid Mi. Furthermore, we observed that sequences with varying methylation levels
corresponded to distinct motifs, and these motifs may correspond to different modifying
enzyme systems.
595
Finally, our data suggest that 6mA can directly affect the expression of nematode virulence
genes, but we believe that 6mA is also likely to regulate virulence indirectly by modulating the
expression of key transcription factors. In addition to these effects, it is important to note that
6mA methylation is a genome-wide epigenetic mark, and its influence on nematode biology is
not confined to virulence gene regulation. Rather, 6mA might contributes broadly to essential
physiological processes, including development, reproduction, and stress responses,

consistent with its role in shaping chromatin accessibility and transcriptional dynamics across
the genome. Besides, the *minmad-1*-HIGS of tomato and tobacco significantly enhanced the
resistance of transgenic plants to polyploid RKNs (Mi, Ma, and Mj), while rice with
Mg-demethylase HIGS had no significant effect on Mg infection, and knockout the
demethylase of *C. elegans* only slightly decreased average egg-laying rate(13). The functional
differentiation of demethylase between polyploid and diploid nematodes might be because
epigenetic regulation played a more important role in parthenogenetic organisms than in
sexually reproducing organisms. Further work of 6mA analysis in more parthenogenetic and
sexual propagation RKNs might provide more insights into the role of 6mA in different
reproductive modes and different ploidy species. In summary, the connection between
pathogen virulence and epigenetics has been established, in-depth biological function
research on 6mA may screen many target resources for the control of RKNs and might provide
new perspectives and methods for the prevention and control of other agricultural pathogens.
615

Materials and Methods

Nematode materials

Our previously work has constructed the telomere-to-telomere *Meloidogyne incognita* WHF4-1, *Meloidogyne arenria* SYMaF1-2, and *Meloidogyne javanica* LongYF2-1 genome, chromosome-level *M. graminicola* (Mg) genome, and *M. hapla* (Mh) genome assembled in this study were used for further 6mA DNA methylation studies. The nematodes were inoculated to Rutgers tomato in greenhouse, 25 degrees centigrade, after 6 weeks of culture, the eggs, J3J4, and female were collected for subsequent experiments. The DNA for SMRT-seq, LC-MS/MS and Dot blot experiments came from the sterilized J2 nematodes inoculated into aseptically cultured tobacco in MS medium (plant gel instead of agar powder). After 35 days, the sterile eggs were collected for the subsequent experiment. The nematode native DNA and WGA DNA used for HiFi sequencing and Mi-WGA 6mA-DIP-seq were collected from nematode eggs after infecting potted host plants. Before DNA extraction, the eggs were disinfected with 10% sodium hypochlorite to minimize bacterial contamination.

Nematode collection

Three stages of RKNs were used in this study. For egg collection, cut the nematode-infected tomato or tobacco roots into 0.5 cm size, put it into a 500 ml beaker, followed by adding 225 ml ddH2O and 25 ml sodium hypochlorite, and place it on a magnetic stirrer for 8 minutes at 1000 rpm. The suspension was successively passed through 18, 60, 100, 200 and 500 mesh sieves, rinsed five times with water to remove sodium hypochlorite, and the eggs were retained on the 500-mesh sieve. After sucrose gradient centrifugation with a final concentration of 35%, the sucrose was passed through a 3um filter membrane using a negative pressure suction filter, and the eggs retained on the 3 μm filter membrane were collected for the next experiment. For J1 collection, the purified eggs were incubated for 2-3 days at 20 °C, J1 larvae were manually picked out under a microscope until most of the eggs became intertwined worms. For J2 collection, the purified eggs were incubated on a 500-mesh sieve with water for 3-5 days at 20 °C, and the J2 larvae were collected from the water under the mesh. For J3J4 and female collection, the roots after treated with sodium hypochlorite to collect the egg were put into a mortar, then use a pestle to smash the roots lightly, suspend the roots with 100 ml of water, and pass them through 18, 60, 100, and 200 mesh sieves in sequence. The J3J4 were on the 200 mesh sieves, and the female were on the 60 mesh sieves. After most plant debris was removed by sucrose centrifugation, J3J4 were manually picked under a microscope, and the females were picked visually. For early female (eFemale) collection, the tobacco roots 21 days after nematode infestation were collected, and early females before oviposition were manually picked out with forceps.

Nematode gDNA Extraction

Genomic DNA was extracted from eggs of RKNs and cyst nematodes, as well as from mixed-stage individuals of *D. destructor*, *A. avenae*, *B. xylophilus*, *H. contortus*, *C. elegans*, and *C. nigoni* for subsequent experiments. Before DNA extraction, sodium hypochlorite was used to sterilize the nematodes and pass through a 3 μm filter to remove contamination such as bacteria. Genomic DNA was isolated using the CTAB method as follow: (1) eggs were

suspended in 200 μl SDS-EB lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl, 20 mM EDTA, 2% SDS, 1mg/ml proteinase K) and transfer into liquid nitrogen; (2) after homogenized, the powder was collected into 1.5 ml tube and add SDS-EB lysis buffer to 500 μl; (3) add 500 μl 65 °C preheat CTAB buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 20 mM EDTA, 1.4 M NaCl, 2% CTAB, 1% PVP 40000) and incubation at 65°C for 30 min; (4) equal volume phenol-chloroform-isoamyl alcohol mix (25:24:1) were added to separate the DNA and protein, mixture were spun at 13,000 rpm at 4 °C for 15 min, collect the supernatant; (5) 2 μl 10 mg/ml RNase A was added into the supernatant and incubated at 37 °C for 15 min; (6) 0.75 M final concentration ammonium acetate was added and DNA was sedimented in pre-cold isopropanol (0.9:1, v/v) and finally dissolution in 30 to 50 μl DNase-free water.

Eliminate bacterial DNA contamination and RNA m6A contamination

To ensure the accuracy of 6mA detection in nematode DNA, we took several steps to eliminate potential contamination from bacterial DNA and RNA-derived m6A. For initial tests, all nematode genomic DNA was extracted from eggs. In the case of root-knot nematodes, eggs were collected from parasitized roots grown under sterile tobacco culture conditions. To minimize the possibility of bacterial contamination on the egg surface, eggs were disinfected with sodium hypochlorite, followed by grinding and plating on LB and PDA media to test for the presence of cultivable endophytes. Additionally, PCR amplification using universal 16S rRNA primers (27F and 1492R) was performed on extracted DNA to screen for bacterial DNA.

To exclude RNA contamination in downstream 6mA detection methods such as dot blot and 6mA-IP-seq, RNase A treatment was applied to genomic DNA after extraction. RNA fragment size was monitored to ensure efficient digestion, with fragments reduced to less than 100 bp. DNA was then sonicated and size-selected using magnetic beads to retain fragments larger than 200 bp. Liquid chromatography–tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) was subsequently used to differentiate between DNA-derived 6mA (molecular mass 266.1 > 150.0) and RNA-derived m6A (282.1 > 150.0), allowing for confirmation that only 6mA signals originated from DNA.

6mA-DIP-seq and analysis

The 6mA-DIP-seq was performed following the published protocols. Briefly, we fragmented 7 ug WHF4-1 RNA removed gDNA to 200-400 bp. After end repaired and adapter ligation by using Vazyme ND607 VAHTS Universal DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina V3, DNA was heat-denatured and immunoprecipitated overnight at 4 °C with anti-6mA antibodies purchased from Abcam (ab151-230). Input and 6mA immunoprecipitated DNA was PCR amplified using Vazyme ND607 to construction the next generation sequencing library. The raw data were filtered by using Cutadapt (v3.3)(60) and aligned to WHF4-1 genome by using bowtie2 (v2.3.0)(61). The low quality and duplicate reads were removed by using SAMtools (v1.7)(62) and Picard (https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/). Then, macs2 (v2.1.1)(63) was introduced to give the enriched regions to call 6mA peaks by comparing the reads between 6mA-IP and Input sample, with the following options: -B -SPMR -nomodel. The post file was further transformed into bigwig format for the profile visualization by using deeptools (v3.5.1)(64) and IGV (v2.5.2)(65). The MEME-ChIP(66) (https://meme-suite.org/meme/tools/meme-chip) was

used to identify the conserved motifs enriched in 6mA peaks.

DNA/RNA library construction and sequencing
Approximately 100 µl eggs were purified and collected for DNA extraction, and the genomic
DNA was isolated using the CTAB method as described in previously. The DNA was sent to
the ANNOROAD Gene Technology Co., Ltd. (Beijing, China) for PacBio library construction
followed by sequel I platform sequencing. RNA extracting was using the TransZol Up Plus
RNA Kit (TransGen Biotech, Beijinng, China) and RNA Nano 6000 Assay Kit of the
Bioanalyzer 2100 system (Agilent Technologies, CA, USA) was using to assess the RNA
integrity and concentration. The RNA library preparation was followed the protocol of VAHTS®
Universal V8 RNA-seq Library Prep Kit for Illumina (Vazyme, Nanjing, China). Finally, the
library was pooled and sequenced on Illunima NovaSeq platform with 150 bp paired-end reads.
Each treat of RNA sequencing is performed by using three biological repetitions.

Hi-C library construction and sequencing
The eggs of Mh were used to construct the Hi-C library according to previously described
method with appropriate modifications(44). Briefly, approximately 50 thousand newly collected
eggs were pelleted and cross-linked in a 1.5% final concentration (v/v) formaldehyde (Sigma)
for 30 min, followed de-crosslinking, eggs were homogenized and digested by using MboI
(New England Biolabs). DNA was extracted after the addition of biotin, end-filling and ligation.
Subsequently, the DNA was sheared and removed from the unligated fragment ends biotin
mark by using T4 DNA polymerase. After biotinylated fragment pull-down, the target DNA was
used to construct the Hi-C library by using End Prep Mix 4 from VAHTSTM Universal DNA
Library Prep Kit for Illumina® ND607 (Vazyme, Nanjing, China), and then sequenced on
Illunima NovaSeq platform with 150 bp paired-end reads.

Chromosome-level genome assembly
To obtain a high quality Mh genome, through the Pacbio data, we performed de novo genome
assembly by using Canu (v1.9)(67) with default parameters. The initial assembled contigs
were polished with Illumina short reads for 5 rounds by using BWA (v0.7.17)(68), SAMtools,
sambamba (v0.7.1)(69), and pilon (v1.23)(70). Then, the Hi-C reads were aligned into the
corrected contigs by using Juicer (v1.5.7) pipeline(71). The 3D-DNA (v180419) pipeline(72)
was used to construct the chromosome-level scaffolds with parameter of -r 0, and we finally
obtained the MhF1-2 genome with 99.18% sequences clustered into 16 chromosomes.

Genome annotation
The egg, J2, J3J4, and female stages of Mh were collected to performed RNA-seq and
subsequently use to genome annotation. RepeatModeler(73) and RepeatMasker(74)
(http://www.repeatmasker.org) were used to soft-mask repetitive region of the assembled
genome. The RNA-seq data was aligned to the masked genome by using HISAT2 (v2.2.1)(75),
then, the BAM files were utilized to annotation based on ab initio prediction evidence by using
AUGUSTUS (v3.3.3)(76), GeneMark-ES (v4.64)(77), and BRAKER2 (v2.1.6)(78). On the
other hand, the RNA-seq data were de novo assembled using Trinity (v2.8.5)(79), and the
assembled transcripts were used to the following integrated by PASA (v2.4.1)(80). The file

augustus.hints.gff3 from Braker2 and the file pasa_assemblies.gff3 from PASA were used to
integrate all evidence to obtain a final gene structure information by using EVidenceModeler
(v1.1.1)(80). For the functional annotation, HMMER(81) was used to scan all the predicted
proteins conserve domains based on Pfam database, and eggNOG-mapper (v2.0.1)(82) was
used to perform the KEGG and GO annotation. For secreted protein prediction, we considered
the proteins with signal peptide but without transmembrane domain were secreted proteins.
The signal peptides were predicted by SignalP (v5.0)(83), and the transmembrane domains
were identified by using TMHMM (2.0c)(84). The transposable elements (TEs) were predicted
by using EDTA (v2.0.0) pipeline(85).
757

6mA identification and analysis by SMRT sequencing
We use SMRTLink-7.0.1 (http://www.pacb.com/support/software-downloads/) to identify the
6mA modification in WHF4-1, Mg, and Mh genome. The SMRT sequencing reads were
aligned to the genome by pbmm2, and the 6mA modification sites were identified by
ipdSummary with the following options: --methylFraction, --minCoverage 3, --identify m6A,
--bigwig, --csv. The 6mA sites with less than 50 or 15 coverage were filtered according to the
sequencing depth of each RKNs as described before(13, 17). For motifs identification, the
6mA sites were separated into three groups based on their methylation level (0-30%,
30%-70%, 70%-100%). We extracted 4 bp from the upstream and downstream sequences of
each 6mA site and used BEDtools (v2.29.2)(86) to acquire the fasta file and followed by using
MEME-ChIP to identify motifs for each group. 6mA peaks were loading to R package
ChIPseeker (v1.24.0)(87) for associated genes annotation. The genome-wide distribution of
6mA sites with different methylation levels was visualized using Circos (v0.69)(88). To
calculate the reads contamination rate of SMRT sequencing, we aligned the PacBio reads to
bacteria, fungi, and plant NCBI nt library, the aligned length more than 90% of the query reads
were considered as a valid alignment.
774

6mA distribution density analysis
The 6mA sites with different methylation levels were extracted into 6mAfilterHigh.bed,
6mAfilterMiddle.bed, and 6mAfilterLow.bed. We extended 4bp upstream and downstream of
the 6mA site to obtain the *_8bp.bed files for subsequent analysis. BEDtools bedtobam
utilized to convert the *_8bp.bed files to *_8bp.bam files, and deeptools bamCoverage was
used to generate *_8bp.bw files from *_8bp.bam files. Finally, the BED files containing exon
and TE information, along with the *_8bp.bw files, were used to calculate the distribution
density of 6mA in the gene or TE region using computeMatrix, and plotProfile was employed to
visualize the results.
784

DNA Dot blot
The Hybond+ membranes were fully soaked in double distilled water, then soaked in 20 SSC
for 1h, sandwiched between two layers of filter paper and dried at 37 °C for 30 min. The
purified genomic DNA was heated at 95 °C for 5 min to denature DNA and immediately placed
on ice for 5 min and then 15 ng, 30 ng, and 50 ng DNA were loaded per dot on Hybond+
membranes. Membranes were air dry and placed them in the oven at 80 °C for 1 h, and
transferred into boxes with damp paper towels.   DNA was then auto-crosslinked twice for 6

min in an Ultraviolet crosslinker (CL-100). The membrane was blocked for 2 h in 5% skim milk

TTBS. Membranes were incubated overnight at 4 °C with 6mA primary antibody (ab151-230,

Abcam) in 5% skim milk TTBS. After three times wash for 5 min with TTBS, the blots were

probed with secondary antibody in 5% skim milk TTBS for 1 h at room temperature. Blots were

washed three times for 5 min with TTBS and then performed chemiluminescence detection.

After the chemiluminescence is over, the membrane is directly used for methylene blue

staining. (I) Immerse the membrane in 10mL of 1× methylene blue solution, stain for 3min on a

shaker at room temperature, and wash the membrane twice with double distilled water for 5

minutes each time; stain again with methylene blue solution for 3min and wash the membrane

twice with double distilled water for 5 minutes each time. Soak in TBST overnight at 4℃; (II)

Stain with methylene blue solution for 5min, wash three times with double distilled water for 5

minutes each time. Take photos in the gel imaging instrument/camera.

LC–MS/MS analysis of 6mA

The LC-MS/MS was performed as described before(13). Briefly, the nematodes genomic DNA

was denatured at 100 °C for 3 min, and chilled in ice for 2 min immediately. Aspirate 26 μl of

denatured DNA, add 1 μl of S1 nuclease, 3.2 μl of buffer, and treated at 37 °C overnight.

One-tenth volume of 1M NH_4HCO_3 and 1 μl venom phosphodiesterase I (Sigma) was added to

the solution and incubation at 37 °C for 2h. Finally, 1 U of alkaline phosphatase from *E. coli*

(Sigma) was added to the solution at 37 °C for 2h. The digested genomic DNA was diluted

two-fold with nuclease-free H_2O and filtered through 0.22 μm filter. To determine the peak

position of each nucleoside, the nucleoside standards including N6-methyldeoxyadenosine

and deoxyadenosine nucleoside were used to perform the reverse-phase ultra-performance

liquid chromatography on a C18 column (Agilent), with online mass spectrometry detection

using triple-quadrupole tandem mass spectrometer (Shimadzu, LC-MS 8050) set to multiple

reaction monitoring (MRM) in positive electrospray ionization mode. Simultaneous detection of

standards and samples using established methods base ion mass transitions of 266.1-150.0

for 6mA and 252.1-136.0 for A, and calculate the ratio of 6mA/A.

RNA interference *in vitro*

We select about 300 bp conserved regions as RNAi target fragments. The PCR primers used

to amplify the RNAi target fragment template are as follows: minmad-1 F:

5'-GGTGGAATAATAAGTGGCTT-3', minmad-1 R: 5'-CTGATTGTGGAATTATTTTC-3';

minmad-2 F: 5'-CCTCAATTTATTTCGGAAGC-3', minmad-2 R:

5'-CCTGTCCAGGCAAATATTCA-3'; Mi_23849.1 F: 5'-GGATAGAAAAATGTCTGTTG-3',

Mi_23849.1 R: 5'-GCAGCATCAGGAAGGAAATC-3'; gfp F:

5'-GAGTGCCATGCCCGAAGGTTA-3', gfp R: 5'-GGTCTGCTAGTTGAACGCTTCC-3'.

Mg_06820 F: 5'-GAAACAGAAGAAGCAAAT-3', Mg_06820 R:

5'-AGTAGAAATCATTGGAAAG-3'; Mg_00565 F: 5'-GTATTGGATTAAATAATTTCTTC-3',

Mg_00565 R: 5'-TTTGTATAGATTCTTCACTAA-3'. We synthesized dsRNA using the T7

RNAi Transcription Kit-Box 1 (Vazyme, China, Cat. TR102-02). We followed the protocol for

dsRNA synthesis and diluted the concentration of dsRNA to 2 μg/μl. The potential 6mA

demethylase in vitro interference experiment was performed using WHF4-1 eggs. About

10,000 WHF4-1 eggs were sterilized and suspended in 100 μl of nuclease-free water, and an

equal volume of dsRNA solution was added to make the final concentration of dsRNA to 1
µg/µl. After 60 hours of incubation at room temperature with 15 rpm rotation, the disturbed
eggs were divided into two parts, one was used for qRT-PCR to detect the interference
efficiency of the target gene, and the other was used to extract DNA to detect 6mA content by
mass spectrometry. Three biological replicates were performed for each experiment, dsGFP
was used as control.
842

RNA-seq analysis
The RNA-seq data of *C. elegans* were downloaded from SRA database (accession number
SRR6125151-SRR6125153). The raw reads of RNA-seq were cleaned by Cutadapt, the PCR
duplications were removed by using Picard. We use STAR [84] to align the reads to RKNs
genome and use RSEM(89) to calculate the TPM and FPKM value of each gene. For
differentially expressed genes (DEGs) analysis, HISAT2 was used to align the RNA-seq data
to the RKNs genome, then use SAMtools to convert the SAM files to BAM files and sort them,
and finally use HTSeq-count (v0.13.5)(90) to calculate the expression count number of each
gene. The count number was input into DESeq2 (v1.28.1)(91) to standardize and acquire the
DEGs. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified using DESeq2, applying an
adjusted p-value (FDR) < 0.05 and an absolute log2foldchange > 1 as thresholds.
Comparisons of gene expression (TPM) between groups were performed using the Wilcoxon
rank sum test, as TPM values showed non-normal distributions and unequal variances. Each
treatment was analyzed with three biological replicates. The expression module analysis of
secreted proteins was performed by using Mfuzz (v2.48.0)(92) and visualization by using R
package pheatmap (v1.0.12). The GO and Pfam enrichment analysis were performed by
python script and visualization by using R package ggplot2 (v3.3.3).
860

Demethylase assays
In vitro demethylase activity experiments were performed using purified potential demethylase
proteins of MiNMAD-1/2. The demethylase assays were performed as previously
described(13). In brief, a triplicate of a 50 µl volumes containing 1 µg WHF4-1 gDNA and 1 mg
recombinant protein in a reaction mixture (50 mM HEPES (pH 7.0), 50 mM KCl, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 2
mM ascorbic acid, 1 mM α-KG, and 200 mM $(NH)_4Fe(SO)_4$) were used to perform the reaction.
After 1h hold at 37 °C, the reactions were stopped by adding 5mM EDTA and denatured at
100 °C for 3 min followed by chilling on ice for 2 min. The products of reactions were used to
Dot blot and LC-MS/MS to determine the 6mA contents after putative demethylase treated.
870

Verification of nematode endogenous 6mA demethylase
About 50 µl WHF4-1 eggs were collected and suspended in 200 µl nematode lysis buffer (50
mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1% Triton X-100, 1.5 mM $MgCl_2$, and 1 mM EGTA)
with proteinase inhibitor. After adding 100 mg of 1 mm diameter zirconia microspheres to the
suspension, the samples were crushed by a tissue grinder (JXFSTPRP-24L, Shanghaijingxin
Experimental technology, China), and the oscillation frequency was 70 Hz for 30 seconds, and
the repetition was repeated 5 times. Suck up 20 µl suspension into a new 1.5 ml centrifuge
tube, and add 64 µl ddH_2O, 10 µl reaction mixture, 1 µl protease inhibitor (Roche), 5 µl 20 µM
oligo DNA. The suspension was incubated with rotation at 12 rpm for 3-6 hours at 28 °C. To

separate the oligo DNA from Mi's own DNA, the biotin-labeled oligo DNA was pulled down
using Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin C1 beads (Thermo Fisher Scientific). 100 µl 2× BB (10
mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5); 1 mM EDTA; 2 M NaCl) suspended Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin C1
beads were mixed with the suspension and incubated at room temperature for 30 min with
rotation (15 rpm). The beads with biotin marked DNA were washed three times with 300 µl
TWB (5 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5); 0.5 mM EDTA; 1 M NaCl; 0.05% Tween 20) and incubated at
55 °C for 2 min. Added 27 µl ddH$_2$O to resuspend the beads, treat them in a dry bath at 98 °C
for 10 minutes, centrifuge and collect the supernatant after magnetic stand separation. The
experiment of treating oligo DNA with purified potential demethylase is the same as the above
method, and the eggs suspension should be replaced with purified protein.
890
We noticed that the 6mA content of the control group was as high as about 40%, which was
quite different from the 6mA content of the designed oligo DNA. We suspect that the increased
ratio of 6mA is due to the degradation of part oligo DNA by nucleases present in the
environment. Nevertheless, the experimental group and the control group still showed a
significant difference in 6mA content. The method of 6mA content detection is consistent with
that described above, and the oligo DNA sequence modified with 6mA, and biotin are shown
as below:

Oligo name	Oligo sequence
6mA_motif	GGGAATTTCCCGGCGATTTGA(N6-Me-dA)GGTAATCGCCGGGAAATT(biotin)CCC

898
Mi-CRT polyclonal antibody preparation and western blot assays
All the work of polyclonal antibody preparation was performed by Friendbio Science &
Technology (Wuhan, China). Briefly, the purified Mi-CRT protein was used to immunize rabbits
intradermally for antiserum production, and gel specific purification was used to purify the
antibody. For western blot, the WHF4-1 eggs and females were collected and homogenate as
above. The protein concentration of the suspended was determined by using the BCA Kit
(Beyotime, China). Proteins were separated on a 10% SDS-PAGE followed by blotting on
PVDF membranes (Biosharp, China). The membranes were blocked 2h in 5% skim milk TTBS
and probed with the Mi-CRT antibody or β-actin (Proteintech, China, Cat No.: 66009-1-Ig)
overnight. The secondary antibody and detection were performed as described in Dot blot.
909
Demethylase prediction
We aligned the proteins sequence of WHF4-1 to the protein NMAD-1 of *C. elegans* by using a
loose e-values by using blastp (v2.10.1)(93). The first three proteins on the alignment were
selected as candidate demethylases. On the other hand, we performed Pfam domain
annotation on all the proteins of WHF4-1 and found that 6 of them have the 2OG-FeII_Oxy_2
domain with potential 6mA demethylase function. Every three of these 9 candidate genes are
alleles of each other, the coverage between alleles is 100%, and the minimum identity is 96%,
therefore, we selected one of the three alleles for further validation studies.
918
919 **Transgenic plant construct**

Nicotiana benthamiana was used to generate transgenic tobacco following the method of Agrobacterium-mediated genetic transformation of leaf discs(94). We selected the same segment as the above *in vitro* RNA interference as the segment for constructing transgenic plants expressing dsRNA. The Agrobacterium EHA105 was inoculated into YEB medium and cultured at 28 °C until OD600 up to 0.6-0.8. Put the tobacco leaf discs for about 6-7 weeks into the Agrobacterium suspension and soak for 10min and culture in the dark at 28 °C for 2-4 days. The explants were transferred to the Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium (with 1.0 mg/L hormones Benzylaminopurine, 0.1 mg/L Indole acetic acid, 100 mg/L antibiotics kanamycin, and 500 mg/L cefotaxime), and cultured under a light intensity of 25 μmol m^{-2} s^{-1} at 25 °C. After 4-5 weeks of selective culture, the explants will regenerate shoot buds and then transferred to fresh selective medium. When the shoot buds grow to 3-4 cm, transfer to the rooting medium (1/2 MS medium with the same concentration of antibiotics), and the roots will grow about 2-3 weeks. Using qRT-PCR to confirm putative T0 transgenic plants with specific primers as below. Further, PCR-positive plant was cultured in glass house to obtain a homozygous T1 generation. Tomato transformation was performed using the 'Moneymaker' cultivar, following the same method as used for tobacco transformation. Cotyledons and hypocotyls from 5-day-old tomato seedlings were used for the transformation. The rice transgenic was completed by Wuhan Towin Biotechnology Co., Ltd.

Primer name	Primer sequence
MiNMAD-1 F	TACCTCAATAATGCGGCTTGTT
MiNMAD-1 R	ACTCTCTTCATTAGCCAGGATTTC
MiNMAD-2 F	CCTCAATTTATTTCGGAAGCAGAA
MiNMAD-2 R	TCTAACCACATCGGCAATTCTT
Mi_23849.1 F	TCCGAGACAATCTTTACCTGATGA
Mi_23849.1 R	AAATCGCCCAAGCCTAGACTA

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Figure 1. 6mA DNA methylation is widespread in nematode. (*A*), 6mA levels identified by LC-MS/MS in different nematodes. The green bar plot means 7 species of RKNs, the orange bar plot means 4 isolates of cyst nematodes, the yellow bar plot means migratory nematodes, the blue bar plot means animal-parasitic nematode, and the gray bar plot means free-living nematode. Three biological replicates per species. (*B*), The DNA 6mA Dot blot of *M. incognita,* the figure below shows the membrane after antibody hybridization and chemiluminescence, and then methylene blue staining. Whole genome amplified (WGA) DNA of the *M. incognita* genome, generated using Phi29 polymerase, was used as a negative control. (*C*), LC-MS/MS for 6mA standard and 6mA levels in genomic DNA purified from *M. incognita*, *C. elegans*, *M. hapla* (Mh), *M. graminicola* (Mg), *M. arenaria* 3n (Ma 3n), *M. arenaria* 4n (Ma 4n), and *M. javanica* (Mj), respectively. The WGA DNA was used as a negative control. All DNAs were extracted from nematode eggs.

Figure 2. The distribution landscape of 6mA in RKNs genome. (*A*), The distribution ratio of
6mA in three nematodes promoter, gene body, and intergenic. *M. incognita* (Mi), *M. arenaria*

3n (Ma 3n), *M. arenaria* 4n (Ma 4n), *M. javanica* (Mj), *M. graminicola* (Mg), *M. hapla* (Mh), and

C. elegans. The 1 kb region before the start codon is defined as the promoter. (*B*), Percentage

of the different modification level categories of 6mA in Mi, Ma 3n, Ma 4n, Mj, Mg, and Mh,

respectively. (*C*), The motif of different methylation categories of Mi, Ma 3n, Ma 4n, Mj, Mg,

and Mh. (*D*) The distribution density of 6mA on gene regions within 100bp genome window (Mi,

Ma 3n, Ma 4n, Mj, Ce, Mg, and Mh). (*E*) The distribution density of 6mA on transposable

element (TE) region within 100bp genome window. *p* values were calculated by two-sided

Wilcoxon rank sum tests. The y-axis represents the average number of 6mA per 100 bp

genome window.

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Figure 3. 6mA influences the genes expression level of nematodes. (*A*) The comparison of TPM value between 6mA-methylated (6mA) and unmethylated (Non-6mA) in Ce, Mi, Ma, Mj, Mg, and Mh. The gene with 6mA modification in the promoter, gene body, or intergenic region was defined as a 6mA-modified gene; otherwise, it was classified as an unmethylated gene. (*B*) The percentage of 6mA-methylated (6mA) and unmethylated (Non-6mA) genes at a given TPM level (<1, 1–5, and >5). (*C*) The comparison of expression levels between the genes modified by 6mA at different positions and total genes. (*D*) The comparison of genes expression level of different 6mA modification level categories in Mi, Ma 3n, Ma 4n, Mj, Ce, Mg, and Mh. (*E*) The gene expression comparing the gene only modified by 6mA (only 6mA), only TE nearby (only TE), and neither 6mA nor TE (only gene) in Mi, Mh, Mg, Ma 3n, Ma 4n, and Mj. In box plots, the central line represents the median, the box represents the 25% and 75% percentiles, and the whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range beyond the box. N numbers were shown upon the box. *p* values were calculated by two-sided Wilcoxon rank sum tests.

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Figure 4. MiNMAD-1/2 are involved in 6mA demethylation in *M. incognita*. (*A*), The
maximum-likelihood tree is constructed from the protein sequence of RKNs, *C. elegans*
demethylase, and human ALKBH family members, bootstraps are shown in green dot. (*B*),
Knockdown of 3 ALKBH family members present a significant increase of 6mA level in two of
them (Mi_14752.1, Mi_00010.1). (*C*), In vitro demethylation assay showing that purified
Mi_14752.1 and Mi_00010.1 proteins catalyze the removal of DNA methylation from Mi
WHF4-1 egg genomic DNA, with BSA included as a negative control. (*D*), The 6mA contents
of (*C*) were determined by LC-MS/MS. (*E*), LC-MSMS detected the oligo DNA with 6mA
modified (G**A**G) was demethylated by purified MiNMAD-1/2 proteins *in vitro*. (*F*), Mutation of
the catalytic domain of Mi_14752.1 and Mi_00010.1 abrogates the ability of them to
demethylate 6mA premethylated oligos. *p* values were calculated by two-tailed unpaired
Student's *t*-test. One star * means $p < 0.05$, two means $p < 0.01$, three means $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 5. Host-induced gene silencing of *minmad-1* reduces the infectivity of polyploid RKNs. (*A*) Three weeks pot experiment of transgenic plants show a resistance of Mi for *minmad-1/2* RNAi, but no difference for *Mi_23849.1* RNAi. (*B*) Eight weeks pot experiment show an extremely significant resistance of expression *MiNMAD-1/2* dsRNA transgenic tobacco to Mi. (*C*) The 6mA level of Mi is significantly increased after infection of transgenic tobacco expression *minmad-1/2* dsRNA. (*D*) The number of galls was proportional to the methylation content in the corresponding Mi, and the level of 6mA in females was much higher than in eggs. (*E*) The number of galls after 1000 *M. javanica* (Mj) J2 infection two months of transgenic tobacco expressing *minmad-1* dsRNA. (*F*) The number of root-knots after 1000 M. arenaria 4n (Ma 4n) J2 infection of two months of transgenic tobacco expressing minmad-1 dsRNA. (*G*) The genomic DNA 6mA content of the Mj after infecting the *minmad-1* transgenic tobaccos was significantly higher than that of the control. (*H*) The genomic DNA 6mA content of the Ma 4n after infecting the *minmad-1* transgenic tobaccos was significantly higher than that of the control. *p* values were calculated by two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-test. One star * means $p < 0.05$, two means $p < 0.01$, three means $p < 0.001$.

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Figure 6. 6mA regulation of the expression module of *M. incognita* effector. (*A*) The
Expression patterns of all secreted proteins at Mi J3J4 stage in dsGFP control group and
minmad-1/2 RNAi group. Group1: multiple-galls. Group2: medium-galls. Group3: low-galls. (*B*)
Relative fold down-regulation of some validated effectors after HIGS of *minmad-1*, assay was
performed by qRT-PCR in Mi female. (*C*) Western blot of the highest down-regulate effector
show that Mi-CRT was also significantly down-regulated at the protein level after *minmad-1/2*
RNAi. (*D*) Mi-CRT protein level down-regulate both at egg and female stage. (*E*) Schematic
illustration of the regulation of Mi virulence factor expression patterns by 6mA to affect the
ability of nematode infectivity.