1   **DNA methylation regulates transcriptional homeostasis of algal endosymbiosis**
2   **in the coral model *Aiptasia***

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Abstract: The symbiotic relationship between cnidarians and dinoflagellates is the cornerstone

of coral reef ecosystems. Although research is focusing on the molecular mechanisms underlying

this symbiosis, the role of epigenetic mechanisms, which have been implicated in transcriptional

regulation and acclimation to environmental change, is unknown. To assess the role of DNA

methylation in the cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis, we analyzed genome-wide CpG

methylation, histone associations, and transcriptomic states of symbiotic and aposymbiotic

anemones in the model system *Aiptasia*. We find methylated genes are marked by histone

H3K36me3 and show significant reduction of spurious transcription and transcriptional noise,

revealing a role of DNA methylation in the maintenance of transcriptional homeostasis. Changes

in DNA methylation and expression show enrichment for symbiosis-related processes such as

immunity, apoptosis, phagocytosis recognition and phagosome formation, and unveil intricate

interactions between the underlying pathways. Our results demonstrate that DNA methylation

provides an epigenetic mechanism of transcriptional homeostasis during symbiosis.

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Introduction

Coral reefs are ecologically important marine ecosystems, which cover less than 0.2% of our oceans but sustain an estimated ~25% of the world's marine species and 32 of 33 animal phyla [1, 2, 3]. Coral reefs are also economically important by providing food and livelihood opportunities to at least 500 million people; worldwide, they have a net present value of almost USD 800 billion, and they generate USD 30 billion in net economic benefits annually [3]. Unfortunately, these ecosystems are under severe threat from anthropogenic stressors including global warming and water pollution, among others, which can cause coral bleaching (loss of intracellular endosymbionts from coral) and overall coral reef decline. Despite increasing efforts on studying the mechanisms underlying the regulation and environmental stress related breakdown of this symbiotic association [4, 5], we still lack knowledge on basic molecular processes, for instance whether epigenetic mechanisms are involved in symbiosis regulation and could potentially contribute to increased resilience in response to environmental stress as reported in other organisms [6, 7].

DNA methylation plays an important role in many biological processes of plants and animals [8, 9, 10, 11]. It has been proposed as a mechanism for organisms to adjust their phenotype in response to their environment in order to optimize organismal response to changing environmental conditions [7, 12]. For instance, recent findings in mice show an important function for DNA methylation in inhibiting spurious transcription along the gene body, allowing for reduction of nonsense transcripts from highly expressed loci [13]. However, its role and function in cnidarians is, at present, unknown [14]. The sea anemone *Aiptasia* is an emerging model to study the cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis. Like corals, it establishes a stable but temperature sensitive symbiosis with dinoflagellates of the genus Symbiodinium but, unlike corals, can also be naturally maintained in an aposymbiotic state. Its ease of culture and facultative symbiosis provides a tractable system to study the molecular mechanism underlying symbiosis without the impeding stress responses associated with coral bleaching stress [15, 16].

Using the model system *Aiptasia* (strain CC7, sensu *ExAiptasia pallida*), we obtained whole-genome CpG DNA methylation, ChIP-Seq and RNA-Seq data from aposymbiotic (Apo) and symbiotic (Sym) individuals to study the function of DNA methylation in transcriptional regulation and its role in the cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis.

Results

Aiptasia DNA Methylation patterns change with symbiotic states

To assess changes in DNA methylation in response to symbiosis, we performed whole-genome bisulfite sequencing with an average coverage of 53× per individual on 12 anemones, providing 6 biological replicates per treatment (symbiotic vs. aposymbiotic). Methylation calling using the combined dataset identified 710,768 CpGs (6.37% of all CpGs in *Aiptasia* genome), i.e. methylated sites in the *Aiptasia* genome. Notably, the percentage of CpGs is much lower than in mammals (60–90%) [17], but comparable to the coral *Stylophora pistillata* (7%) [18]. We identified 10,822 genes (37% of all 29,269 gene models identified in the *Aiptasia* genome) with at least 5 methylated positions that were subsequently defined as methylated genes. On average, these genes had 18.4% CpGs methylated, 3-fold higher than the average methylation density across the entire genome (Chi-squared test p value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) and 167-fold higher than the methylation levels in non-coding regions. These findings indicate that the distribution of CpG methylation is non-random and mainly located in gene bodies, similar to corals [18, 19] and other invertebrate species [20, 21].

To analyze the relationship between methylation density (percentage of CpGs) and gene density (the number of genes per 10,000 bp), we ran a sliding window (window size: 40 kb, step: 30 kb) and visualized the results in a Circos plot (Fig. S1) [22]. The correlation of CpG content and distribution of methylation showed a negative correlation (Pearson correlation coefficient: r = -0.31, p value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) suggesting that methylation tends to preferentially occur in CpG-poor regions (Fig. S2). Gene density had a positive correlation with methylation density (r = 0.21, p value $< 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) consistent with the finding that methylation is predominantly located in gene bodies (Fig. 1). We also observed that within gene bodies, introns showed significantly higher methylation densities than exons (Fig. 1B).

Fig. 1. DNA methylation landscape

(**A**) Distribution of CpG across intergenic (18%), genic (82%), intronic (42%) and exonic (40%)
regions in the *Aiptasia* sp. genome. (**B**) Normalized percentage of methylated CpGs in different
regions. Chi-squared test shows significant differences between intergenic and genic regions, and
between exons and intron (****p<0.0001). (**C**) Relative frequencies of methylated positions
across a normalized gene model.

Methylated genes are marked by H3K36me3

Analysis of methylation patterns (see above) within gene bodies showed rapidly
increasing methylation levels after the transcription start site (TSS) that are maintained before
slowly decreasing towards the transcription termination site (TTS) (Fig. S3A). Interestingly, we
found that gene body methylation in *Aiptasia* is positively correlated with expression (Fig. 2A),

suggesting that DNA methylation either increases the expression of genes or that DNA

methylation is established as a consequence of transcription whereby increased expression

results in increasing methylation levels. The latter interpretation would be in line with recent

findings in mouse embryonic stem cells [13], which demonstrated that gene body methylation is

established and maintained as a result of active transcription by RNA polymerase II (Pol II) and

recruitment of the histone modifying protein SetD2 that trimethylates histone H3 at lysine 36

(H3K36me3). This histone mark is specifically bound via the PWWP domain present in the

DNA methyltransferase Dnmt3b, which in turn methylates the surrounding DNA accordingly,

resulting in the inhibition of transcription initiation from cryptic promoters within the gene body

and thus a significant reduction of spurious transcription.

Analysis of the *Aiptasia* gene set identified a DNMT3 gene (AIPGENE24404) that also

encodes a PWWP domain as reported for the mouse homolog. In order to test if the previously

described mechanism is conserved in *Aiptasia*, we performed a ChIP-Seq experiment using a

validated antibody against H3K36me3 (Fig. S4). As predicted, our analysis confirmed a

significantly higher association of H3K36me3 with methylated genes ($p = 2.48 \times 10^{-20}$ for highly

methylated genes and all methylated genes, Fig. 2B and C). We then analyzed if methylated

genes also exhibited significantly lower levels of spurious transcription in *Aiptasia*. Analysis of

transcriptional profiles of methylated and unmethylated genes indeed showed significantly lower

levels of spurious transcription along the gene body of methylated genes ($p < 2 \times 10^{-6}$, Fig. 3A).

A dampening effect of DNA methylation on transcription was also observed with regard

to transcriptional noise similar to findings in the coral *Stylophora pistillata* [18]. Regression

analysis of median methylation levels and the coefficient of transcriptional variation of genes

showed that, given the same expression level, methylated genes always exhibited lower levels of

transcriptional variation (Fig. 3B).

Fig. 2. DNA methylation is associated with higher expression
(**A**) Gene expression is positively correlated with median methylation levels, *t*-test *p* values are
7.65×10^{-21}, 3.75×10^{-14} and 1.75×10^{-13} for the first quartile (Q1) and the second quartile (Q2)
of methylation levels, Q2 and Q3, and Q3 and Q4, respectively. (**B**) ChIP-Seq analysis of
H3K36me3 signals show significant enrichment in methylated genes (*t*-test *p* values: 2.48×10^{-20}
for highly methylated genes (HM) and all methylated genes (allM), and 1.06×10^{-72} for
unmethylated genes (UM) and allM). Highly methylated genes show the strongest enrichment
with H3K36me3 followed by all methylated genes. In contrast unmethylated genes show only
weak enrichment of H3K36me3 over input controls. (**C**) Distribution of H3K36me3 enrichment
and DNA methylation levels across two exemplary gene models. H3K36me3 and DNA
methylation show coinciding distribution patterns over genes.

Fig. 3. DNA methylation regulates transcriptional homeostasis
(A) Spurious transcription in gene bodies is significantly lower in methylated and highly
methylated genes. The *y*-axis shows the natural logarithm of the coverage fold change of exons
1–6 vs. exon 1. *: $p < 0.05$; **: $p < 0.01$; ***: $p < 0.001$; ****: $p < 0.0001$. (B) There is a linear
relationship between the inverse of transcriptional noise (CV^{-1}) and log expression level
(log$_{10}$fpkm). Given same expression level, methylated genes always show lower levels of

141   transcriptional noise. For methylated genes, n = 8,561, r^2 = 0.46, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$, for
142   unmethylated genes, n = 2,491, r^2 = 0.52, $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$.
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DNA methylation regulates transcriptional homeostasis during symbiosis

Based on our previous findings, we investigated if DNA methylation is also involved in

the regulation of symbiosis by identifying differentially methylated genes (DMGs) between

symbiotic and aposymbiotic *Aiptasia*. Comparison of DNA methylation patterns using Principal

Component Analysis (PCA) clearly separated symbiotic and aposymbiotic individuals by the

first principal component, which accounted for ~18% of the variance (Fig. 4A). This analysis

echoed the findings from a PCA analysis on gene expression where symbiosis state was

separated by the second principal component accounting for ~21% of the variance (Fig. 4B) [23]

and highlighted that specific changes in DNA methylation patterns occurred in response to

symbiosis.

Subsequently we analyzed changes in DNA methylation and gene expression between

symbiotic and aposymbiotic *Aiptasia* to assess their correlation on potential biological functions

in symbiosis. We determined differentially methylated genes using a generalized linear model

from Foret *et al*. [24] that was modified to allow for replicate-aware analysis. This approach

identified 2,133 DMGs (FDR ≤ 0.05, Supplement Table S1) that specifically changed their

methylation status in response to symbiosis. To verify these results, we sequenced a subset of 14

DMGs using bisulfite PCRs. The results show a strong correlation (r^2 = 0.815 and $p = 1 \times 10^{-5}$ for

Apo, r^2 = 0.922 and $p = 5.2 \times 10^{-8}$ for Sym) to our WGBS and confirm the observed methylation

changes within these loci (Fig. S5).

Analysis of gene expression changes in the same 12 samples (i.e., 6 symbiotic and 6

aposymbiotic anemones) identified 1,278 differentially expressed genes (DEGs, FDR ≤ 0.05,

Supplement Table S2), of which 14 genes were subsequently confirmed via qPCR (Fig. S6).

However, analysis of the overlap between DMGs and DEGs showed only 103 genes that were

shared, suggesting that differentially expressed genes are not necessarily the same cohort of

genes that are differentially methylated. Functional enrichment analyses based on Gene Ontology

(GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathways of all DMGs and

DEGs identified several symbiosis relevant functions and pathways in both groups (Supplement

Table S3-S10).

Based on the finding that gene body DNA methylation is likely a consequence of active

transcription, we hypothesized that changes in DNA methylation patterns might also provide a

record of transcriptional activity over longer periods of time. We therefore tested if differential

methylation and acute transcriptional changes, obtained from our RNA-Seq analysis, provide a

complementary view of the processes underlying symbiosis. For this we compared enrichment of

symbiosis-specific pathways across the sets of 2,133 DMGs, 1,278 DEGs, and the combined set

of both DMGs and DEGs (3,308 DEMGs). Interestingly, we observed that the combined data set

(DEMGs) provided significantly lower p-values for previously identified symbiosis-related

pathways, including apoptosis, phagosome, nitrogen metabolism, and arginine biosynthesis,

among others (paired *t*-test: DEMG vs. DEG $p = 0.015$; DEMG vs. DMG $p = 0.009$) (Fig. 4C

and Supplement Table S11). This suggested that changes in methylation and transcription indeed

provide complementary information with regard to transcriptional adjustments in response to

symbiosis.

Fig.4. PCA and KEGG pathway enrichment analysis

(**A**, **B**) PCA (Principal Component Analysis) of gene expression and median methylation levels

of *Aiptasia* genes. Both gene expression and DNA methylation separate samples by symbiosis

state. (**C**) KEGG pathway enrichment analysis. The combined sets of differentially expressed

and differentially methylated genes (DEMG) provides significant lower *p* values (front ranks) for

symbiosis related pathways.

DMGs and DEGs are involved in all stages of symbiosis

Analysis of the combined DMG and DEG gene set showed significant enrichment of

genes involved in the distinct phases of symbiosis, that is symbiosis establishment, maintenance,

and breakdown [4]. Using an integrated pathway analysis based on known molecular interactions

between proteins we found that these processes are linked through several DMGs and/or DEGs

(Fig. S7 and Fig. S8, and see Supplement Table S11-S12 and Supplementary discussion).

For instance, we found numerous symbiosis-related receptors to respond to symbiosis on

a transcriptional and/or methylation level (Fig. S7), including C-type lectins (Fig. S7.3), Toll-like

receptors (Fig. S7.5), and the scavenger receptor SRB1 (Fig. S7.2) that has previously been

implicated in symbiont recognition in the sea anemone *Anthopleura elegantissima* [25]. Following

symbiont recognition, we also found several known engulfment and sorting-related genes to

change in methylation and/or expression such as Rab5 (Fig. S7.10), sorting nexin (Fig. S7.17),

Rac1 (Fig. S7.6), the lysosomal-associated membrane protein 1/2 (Fig. S7.22), and many genes

related to the cytoskeleton and movement (Fig. S7.33-39).

As expected in a metabolic symbiosis [4, 26] we also identified a large number of genes involved in

nutrient exchange. These included genes involved in the provision of inorganic carbon in the

form of CO_2 or bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) to fuel symbiont driven photosynthesis [27] (Fig. S8.1) as well

as genes involved in the exchange of fixed carbon in the form of lipids (Fig. S8.11), sugars and

amino acids (Fig. S8.10, S8.4) [28]. Concordantly, we also found that genes involved in nitrogen

acquisition, such as ammonium transporter (Fig. S8.2) and genes involved in glutamate

metabolism (Fig. S8.5-7), respond to symbiosis.

Finally, our analysis also highlighted genes putatively involved in the expulsion or
degradation of symbionts in response to environmental stress or as a means to control symbiont
densities. Autophagy is of interest in this regard because it links to other membrane trafficking
pathways and to apoptosis, and evidence suggests that autophagy also plays a role in removal of
symbionts during bleaching [29, 30]. Intracellular degradation of the symbiont is a result of
reengagement of the phagosomal maturation process or autophagic digestion of the symbiont by
the host cell [4], and we find both apoptosis- and autophagy-related genes to significantly change
in their methylation and/or expression level. These include the apoptosis genes RAC
serine/threonine-protein kinase (Fig. S7.25), Caspase 7 (Fig. S7.31), Caspase 8 (CASP8) (Fig.
S7.30), Nitric oxide synthase (Fig. S7.21) and Bcl2 (Fig. S7.27), as well as the Autophagy
proteins 5 and 10 (Fig. S7.14-15), among others.

Discussion
To assess the role of CpG methylation in the cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis, we
undertook a global analysis of changes in the DNA methylomes and transcriptomes of
aposymbiotic and symbiotic *Aiptasia*. In contrast to their vertebrate counterparts, only 6.37% of
the CpGs in the *Aiptasia* genome are methylated, but their distribution is highly non-random ($p <$
3×10^{-300}) and that methylated CpGs are most highly localized in gene bodies (18.4% of CpGs).
Analysis of the distribution of the histone modification H3K36me3 further showed significant
enrichment of this epigenetic mark in methylated genes, echoing findings in mammals and
invertebrates [31]. More importantly, we find that methylated genes show significant reduction of
spurious transcription and transcriptional noise (Fig. 2B), suggesting that both the underlying
mechanism of epigenetic crosstalk as well as the biological function of DNA methylation is
evolutionary conserved throughout metazoans. These results highlight a tight interaction of
transcription and epigenetic mechanisms in optimizing gene expression in response to changing
transcriptional needs [13]. Further support for such a role is provided by the analysis of
differentially methylated and differentially expressed genes, which, when combined, showed
significant increase in enrichment of symbiosis relevant processes. This suggests that DNA
methylation and transcriptome analyses provide complementary views of cellular responses to

symbiosis whereby methylation changes provide a transcriptional record of longer-term

transcriptional adjustments.

While our analysis identified several genes, processes, and pathways previously reported

to be involved in symbiosis, it further highlights their intricate molecular interactions. Symbiosis

recognition, sorting and breakdown are interconnected processes, which is reflected in the

observed changes in methylation and expression. The molecular machinery involved in

phagosome maturation is tightly linked to autophagy and apoptosis enabling the host to respond

to potential pathogen invasion but also to degrade and remove dead or unsuitable symbionts.

This is strongly supported by immunofluorescence examinations of *Aiptasia pulchella*

gastrodermal cell macerates, showing that Rab5 appears around healthy, newly ingested and

already established *Symbiodinium*, but is replaced by Rab7 in heat-killed or DCMU-treated

newly ingested *Symbiodinium*. Conversely, Rab7 is absent from untreated newly infected or

already-established *Symbiodinium* [32, 33].

Rab5 is also required for the exosomal release of CD63 [34], which mediates the

endocytotic sorting process and transport to lysosomes [35]. This process is further regulated by

Rac1 [36] in conjunction with sorting nexin and the GTPase Rho, all of which were also identified

in our analyses. The sorting of phagocytosed *Symbiodinium* is critical to symbiosis establishment

as *Symbiodinium* is phagocytosed at the apical end and transported to the base of the cell, where

they are protected from digestion. In contrast, *Symbiodinium* staying at the apical end of the cell

are degraded [37].

Similar to the processes of symbiosis initiation and breakdown, we also found significant

enrichment of genes involved in nutrient exchange and many of these transporters have

previously been implicated in symbiosis maintenance [4, 38]. Notably, this also included genes

involved in the transport and assimilation of ammonium. Nitrogen is a main limiting nutrient in

coral reefs [39, 40, 41], and the coral-dinoflagellates symbiosis has been proposed to increase the

efficiency of nitrogen utilization by both partners [42] whereby the underlying nature of this

mechanism is currently debated [43, 44].

Conclusions

This study provides the first analysis of the function and role of DNA methylation in a symbiotic anthozoan. Our results show that the epigenetic crosstalk between the histone mark H3K36me3 and gene body methylation is conserved in cnidarians and reveal a role of gene body methylation in reducing of spurious transcription and transcriptional noise. Furthermore, we show that changes in DNA methylation patterns are specific to symbiosis and imply a functional in the establishment, maintenance, and breakdown of this important symbiotic association. Our findings therefore provide evidence for a role of DNA methylation as epigenetic mechanism involved in the maintenance of transcriptional homeostasis during the cnidarian-dinoflagellate symbiosis. The premise that epigenetic mechanisms play a role in organismal acclimation warrants future experiments targeted to investigate if DNA methylation could also contribute to resilience through the epigenetic adjustment of transcription in response to environmental stress in *Aiptasia* and corals.

Author contributions

M.A. conceived and coordinated the project. Y.L., G.C., M.J.C. and N.Z. performed experiments. M.A., C.R.V. and Y.J.L. provided tools and/or data. C.T.M. constructed libraries for whole genome bisulfite sequencing, ChIP-Seq and RNA-Seq. Y.L., Y.J.L. and M.A. analyzed expression, methylation and ChIP-Seq data. M.A. and Y.L. wrote the manuscript with input from Y.J.L. and C.R.V. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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Supplementary Materials for

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Supplementary information

***Aiptasia* Culture and DNA/RNA Extraction**

Aiptasia sp. of the clonal strain CC7 [1] was used for this study. Anemones were maintained

in polycarbonate tubs with autoclaved seawater at ~25 °C on a 12 h: 12 h light: dark cycle at 20-

40 µmol m^{-2} s^{-1} light intensity and fed freshly hatched *Artemia nauplii* (brine-shrimp)

approximately twice per week. To generate aposymbiotic anemones, animals were subjected to

multiple cycles of cold-shock treatment and photosynthesis inhibitor diuron (Sigma-Aldrich, St.

Louis, MO) as described in Baumgarten (2015) [2]. Aposymbiotic *A. pallida* were kept

individually in 15 ml autoclaved seawater in 6-well plates and inspected by fluorescence

stereomicroscopy to confirm complete absence of dinoflagellates. Four separate batches of

aposymbiotic anemones were generated and maintained for a period of 1 year before beginning

of the experiment described below.

To generate symbiotic anemones, we separately infected aposymbiotic CC7 individuals

from each of the four aposymbiotic cultures described above using the compatible Clade B

Symbiodinium strain SSB01, originally isolated from *Aiptasia* strain H2 [2,3]. The four batches of

symbiotic anemones were maintained for further 12 months under regular culture condition as

described above. The corresponding four aposymbiotic cultures were maintained in dark until 3
months before collection. For the last 3 months individuals from these aposymbiotic cultures
were subjected to the same culture conditions as the symbiotic cultures in order to monitor for
unwanted spontaneous re-establishment of symbiosis under light.

After the 12-month experimental period, we collected six biological replicates from each of
the four aposymbiotic and symbiotic cultures (one additional replicate was taken from batches 1
and 2 of each treatment) for subsequent DNA and RNA extraction as described below.

For each treatment, 6 biological replicates, weighing 20-28 mg (wet weight), were extracted
using the AllPrep DNA/RNA/miRNA Universal Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). The
manufacturers protocol was followed with the omission of the optional step 4 (temporal storage
at 4°C if not performing DNA purification immediately). DNA concentrations were determined
using a Qbit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). RNA
concentrations and integrity were determined using a Bioanalyzer Nano RNA Kit (Agilent
Technologies, Santa Clara, CA).

RNA-Seq and Bisulfite Sequencing

Directional mRNA libraries were produced using the NEBNext[®] Ultra™ Directional RNA
Library Prep Kit for Illumina[®] (NEB) following the manufacturer's protocol.

Bisulfite DNA libraries were prepared following a modified version of the NEBNext[®]
Ultra™ II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina[®] (NEB). Methylated TruSeq Illumina[®] adapters
(Illumina) were used during the adapter ligation step followed by bisulfite conversion with the
EpiTect Bisulfite kit (QIAGEN), with the following cycling conditions (95°C – 5 min, 60°C – 25
min, 95°C – 5 min, 60°C – 85 min, 95°C – 5 min, 60°C – 175 min, and 3 cycles of 95°C – 5 min,
60°C – 180 min, hold at 20°C $\leq$ 5 hours) (reference is Illumina Bisulfite).

The final libraries were enriched with the KAPA HiFi HotStart Uracil+ ReadyMix (2X)
(KAPA Biosystems) following the standard protocol for bisulfite-converted NGS library
amplification. Final libraries were quality checked using the Bioanalyzer DNA 1K chip
(Agilent), and quantified using Qubit 2.0 (Thermo Fisher Scientific), then pooled in equimolar
ratios and sequenced on the HiSeq2000.

Identification of methylated CpGs

Sequencing of the 12 libraries (2 conditions, 6 biological replicates each) resulted in 819 million read pairs from 8 lanes of the Illumina HiSeq2000 platform. Adapters were trimmed from the raw sequences using cutadapt v1.8 [4]. Subsequently, trimmed reads were mapped to the *Aiptasia* genome [2] using Bowtie2 v2.2.3 [5], and methylation calls was performed using Bismark v0.13 [6].

Three filters were used to reduce false positives. Firstly, for each position with k methylated reads mapping to it, the probability of it occurring through sequencing error (i.e. unmethylated position appearing as methylated) was modelled using a binomial distribution $B(n, p)$, where n is the coverage (methylated + unmethylated reads) and p the probability of sequencing error (set to 0.01). We kept positions with k methylated reads if $P(X \geq k) < 0.05$ (post-FDR correction). Secondly, retained methylated positions had to have ≥ 1 methylated read in all six biological replicates of at least one growth condition. Finally, median coverage of retained positions across all 12 samples had to be ≥ 10.

Assignment of genomic context to methylated cytosines

Based on the gene annotation of the *Aiptasia* genome (GFF3 file) [2] and the positional coordinates of the methylated cytosines produced by Bismark, we annotated every methylated cytosine based on the genomic context, including whether the methylated position resides in a genic or intergenic region, and the distances to the 5' and 3' end of each genomic feature (gene/intergenic region/exon/intron).

CpG bias

Methylated cytosines are frequently spontaneously deaminated to uracil which can be subsequently converted to thymine after DNA repair. As a result of this process, methylated CpGs are expected to decrease in abundance over evolutionary time, and the ratio of observed to expected CpGs (CpG O/E) has previously been used to predict putatively methylated and unmethylated genes [7, 8]. CpG O/E of *Aiptasia* protein coding genes were calculated according to

546   J. Zeng *et al* [9].

Identification of differentially methylated genes

549   Using the methylation level of aposymbiotic genes as a control, generalized linear models (GLMs) [10] were implemented in R [11] to identify genes that were differentially methylated in the symbiotic treatment. The general formula used was:

glm(methylated, non_methylated ~ treatment * position, family="binomial")

where "methylated, non_methylated" was a two-column response variable denoting the number of methylated and non-methylated reads at a particular position. For predictor variables, "position" denoted relative position of the methylated site in the gene, while "treatment" denoted symbiotic or aposymbiotic conditions. Data from individual replicates were entered separately to assign equal weightage to each replicate, as pooling results in a disproportionate skew towards the replicate with the highest coverage. Genes with < 5 methylated positions were filtered out to reduce type I errors; and genes with FDR ≤ 0.05 were considered as differentially methylated genes (DMGs).

Identification of differentially expressed genes

563   RNA-Seq generated 889 million raw read pairs from six lanes on the Illumina Hiseq2000 platform. Adaptors, primers and low quality bases were removed from the ends of raw reads using Trimmomatic v0.33 (ILLUMINACLIP:TruSeq2-PE.fa:4:25:9 LEADING:28 TRAILING:28 SLIDINGWINDOW:4:30 MINLEN:50). The resulting trimmed reads were mapped to the *Aiptasia* genome using HISAT v2.0.1 [12] and transcripts were assembled based on the *Aiptasia* gene models (GFF3 file) using StringTie v1.2.2 [13]. Trinity (align_and_estimate_abundance.pl – Bowtie2 v2.2.7/RSEM v1.2.22/edgeR v3.10.5) [5, 14, 15, 16, 17] was run against the transcripts using trimmed reads for expression abundance estimation, then differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified with FDR ≤ 0.05.

Spurious transcription analysis

574　　　Trimmed reads were mapped to the *Aiptasia* genome using HISAT2 v2.1.0 and mapping

575　　coverage per position was extracted using BEDtools v2.17.0. Coverage per exon was calculated

576　　and normalized across all 6 replicates (assuming every replicate had 1 million coverage in total),

577　　then average coverage ratios of exon 2 to 6 versus exon 1 per gene were calculated to determine

578　　spurious transcription levels.

GO enrichment of DMGs and DEGs

GO (Gene Ontology) [18] annotation was based on the previously published *Aiptasia* genome

[2]. Functional enrichment of DMGs and DEGs were carried out with topGO respectively [19] using

default settings. GO terms with $p \leq 0.05$ were considered significant, and the occurrence of at

least ≥ 5 times in the background set was additionally required for DMGs. Multiple testing

correction was not applied on the resulting p-values as the tests are considered to be non-

independent [19].

KEGG enrichment of DMGs and DEGs

KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes)[20, 21] orthology (KO) annotation was

carried out by combining the KEGG annotations provided in the original *Aiptasia* genome

publications and a separate set of annotations based on the KAAS (KEGG Automatic Annotation

Server, http://www.genome.jp/tools/kaas/) (parameters: GHOSTZ, Eukaryotes, Bi-directional

Best Hit) [22]. A KEGG pathway enrichment analysis of both DMGs and DEGs was carried out

using Fisher exact test and pathways with $p \leq 0.05$ were considered significant.

Validation of gene expression changes from RNA-Seq by qPCR

597　　　Three randomly picked RNA libraries per treatment were used for qPCR validation of

598　　RNA-Seq results. cDNA was synthesized using Invitrogen SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis

599　　SuperMix kit. A total of 14 genes were validated for differential expression using qPCR

600　　(Supplement Table S13-S15). RPS7, RPL11 and NDH5 were used as internal reference

601　　standards [23]. qPCR was carried out using Invitrogen Platinum SYBR Green qPCR SuperMix-

602 UDG kit on Applied Biosystems 7900HT Fast Real-Time PCR System. All protocols were

603 strictly followed.

605 **Validation of methylation changes using bisulfite PCR**

606  Three randomly picked DNA libraries per treatment were used for methylation validation.

607 Bisulfite conversion was done using the EZ-96 DNA Methylation-Gold Kit (Zymo Research). 18

608 genes were used to design primers, 14 of 18 obtained effective amplifications (Supplement Table

609 S16), then the fragments were enriched by PCR amplification using Promega PCR Master Mix.

610 Sequencing indexes were added to enriched fragments using Illumina Nextera XT Index Kit.

611 Enriched fragments were sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq platform. All protocols were strictly

612 followed. 1,870x data per replicate were obtained, methylated CpGs were identified using

613 Bismark as described above. The correlations between whole genome bisulfite conversion and

614 bisulfite PCR were calculated using generalized linear model.

616 **Chromatin Immunoprecipitation – ChIP**

617  We used the Zymo-Spin ChIP Kit to conduct histone bound chromatin extraction, with

618 minor adjustments to manufacturers protocol. Briefly, three biological replicates, each consisting

619 of two symbiotic anemones, were used for this experiment. Each anemone was first washed with

620 PBST (phosphate-buffered saline with 0.1% triton). Anemones were then fixed in 1X PBS with

621 1% formaldehyde for 15 minutes. To stop cross-linking reactions glycine was added to the

622 solution and left to rest for 10 more minutes. Following manufacturers protocol, we centrifuged

623 and washed whole anemones. We prepared the Nuclei Prep Buffer according to protocol and

624 crushed the two anemones of each replicate together using a douncer for homogenization.

625 Samples were then sonicated for 15 cycles on ice (15 sec ON, 30 sec cooling) to ensure

626 fragmentation to 200-500 bp. Thereafter the protocol was followed without further

627 modifications.

628  Immunoprecipitation was achieved using a target specific antibody to histone 3 lysine 36

629 tri-methylation (H3K36me3) (ab9050, Abcam). Corresponding input controls for each of the 3

630 replicates were generated as suggested by the manufacturer. DNA fragment quality and quantity

was confirmed using High Sensitivity DNA Reagents (Agilent Technologies, California, United

States) on a bioanalyzer, after which ChIP libraries were constructed using NEBNext® ChIP-Seq

Library Prep Master Mix Set (#E7645, New England Biolabs, Massachusetts, United States).

Sequencing resulted in 10M read pairs per replicate. These read pairs were trimmed using

Trimmomatic and mapped to the *Aiptasia* genome using HISAT2 as described above.

H3K36me3 enrichments were calculated as $\log_2$(average signal/average input control) for all

genes, unmethylated genes and highly methylated genes (methylation level > 70 and methylation

density > 40). P-values were calculated using t-test.

Antibody affinity validation through Western blotting

Total protein was extracted from a snap-frozen anemone crushed in 10% TCA

(Trichloroacetic acid). The homogenized sample was left to incubate overnight at -20 °C to allow

proteins to precipitate. The solution was centrifuged at 20,000g at 4 °C for 20 minutes to collect

suspended proteins. The pellet was then washed three times in 80% acetone and then spun down

again as previously. The final pellet was then air-dried for 10-15 minutes to remove residual

acetone. The final protein was suspended in Urea lysis buffer (7 M urea, 2 M thiourea, pH 7.5)

by vortexing for 2 hours.

Samples were then prepared for western blot by adding 4x sampling buffer (0.38 M Tris

base, 8% SDS, 4mM EDTA, 40% glycerol, 4mg/ml bromphenol blue) to a final concentration of

1X. After a 2 minutes incubation at 90°C samples were ready to be run gel at 10-12 mA. The gel

was transferred to a PVDF nitrocellulose membrane, rinsed with TBS buffer (150mM NaCl,

25mM Tris pH7.4, 0.1% Triton X-100) and blocked for 30 min at RT in TBS containing 5% fat-

free powder milk. The primary antibody was diluted in TBS/milk and incubated on an undulating

orbital shaker overnight at 4 °C. After three washes in TBS for 10 minutes each, the membrane

was again blocked in TBS/milk for 20 minutes at RT before proceeding with secondary antibody

staining. The horseradish peroxidase-linked-antibody (Anti-Rabbit IgG HRP conjugate W4011

and Anti-Mouse IgG HRP conjugate W4031, Promega. Wisconsin, United States) was diluted in

TBS/milk (1:10000) and incubated for 2 hours at RT. After final triplicate 10 minute washes in

TBS, membranes were developed.

Supplementary Figures

Fig. S1. Circos visualization of different data at the genome-wide level

(**a**) TE density. (**b**) Gene density. (**c**) Fraction of methylated CpGs in symbiotic treatment. (**d**)

Fraction of methylated CpGs in aposymbiotic treatment. (**e**) CpG content.

Fig. S2. Methylated genes in *Aiptasia* have lower CpG O/E

CpG distribution of methylated genes (represented by red curve) peaks at around 0.5, which is lower than in unmethylated genes (represented by green curve) peaking at around 0.9. mC to T conversion skews the CpG O/E distribution of all genes as expected (represented by blue curve), but methylated and unmethylated genes still show a large overlap of their CpG O/E distributions. These results indicate that gene body methylation cannot be accurately inferred from CpG O/E in *Aiptasia*.

Fig. S3. Methylation patterns

(**A**) DNA methylation is mainly located in the proximal part of gene bodies with slightly decreasing levels towards the end. (**B**) Methylation pattern over intergenic regions. (**C**) Methylation pattern around splice donor sites show increasing levels immediately after donor sites. (**D**) Methylation pattern around acceptor sites show decreasing levels immediately after splice acceptor sites. (**E**) Methylation pattern over initial exons show increasing methylation levels (3,147 exons with 35,885 methylation sites were used). (**F**) Methylation pattern over internal exons show decreasing methylation levels (7,977 exons with 139,009 methylation sites were used). (**G**) Methylation pattern over terminal exons show decreasing methylation levels (7,905 exons with 102,162 methylation sites were used). (**H**) Methylation pattern over introns from single-exon genes follow a similar trend as observed for multi exon genes with increasing methylation levels in the proximal and decreasing levels in the posterior part of the exon (298 exons with 4,735 methylation sites were used). (**I**) Methylation pattern over initial introns show increasing methylation levels (3,381 introns with 39,262 methylation sites were used). (**J**) Methylation pattern over internal introns maintain stable methylation levels (7,371 introns with

695 211,950 methylation sites were used). (**K**) Methylation levels over terminal introns decrease

696 slightly (3,959 introns with 34,246 methylation sites were used). (**L**) Methylation levels over

697 introns from one-intron genes change gently with initial increase followed by a decrease (1,055

698 introns with 10,709 methylation sites).

Fig. S4. Western blot

Western blot result for antibody affinity validation, target band is 15kDa in size as expected from

molecular weight analysis.

Fig. S5. Validation of methylation level

Validation of methylation level using bisulfite PCR on selected genes. (**A**, **B**) validation of
methylation level on genes (median methylation levels of methylated CpGs were used to
represent genes). (**C**, **D**) validation of methylation level on locus (methylated CpGs). WGBS:
whole genome bisulfite sequencing; Amplicon: MiSeq sequencing results of bisulfite PCR
amplicons on selected genes.

Fig. S6. qPCR validation of gene expression levels

724 Validation of gene expression changes using qPCR. Expression levels are shown as $\log_{10}$(fold

725 change). All genes show similar expression changes as determined by RNA-seq and q-PCR.

Fig. S7. Schematic diagram of symbiosis establishment and breakdown associated genes. Every node represents a category of genes, and generally has multiple corresponding genes. The inside colors of nodes represent the expression changes of corresponding genes, including non-DEGs (cyan), up-regulated (red), down-regulated (blue) and up- and down-regulated DEGs (light red). The colors of node edges represent the methylation level changes of corresponding genes, including non-DMGs (light blue), hypermethylated (red), hypomethylated (blue) and hyper- and hypo-methylated DMGs (light red). Numbers in circles denote genes/proteins as detailed below.

1. Complement receptor
2. Scavenger receptor
3. C-type lectin
4. Integrin
5. Toll-like receptor
6. Ras-related C3 botulinum toxin substrate 1 - rho family (RAC1)
7. Collagen
8. Vesicle-associated membrane protein (VAMP)
9. Autophagy-related protein 16 (ATG16)
10. Ras-related protein 5 (Rab5)
11. Ras-related protein 7 (Rab7)
12. NADPH oxidase (NOX)
13. Syntaxin 12
14. Autophagy-related protein 5 (ATG5)
15. Autophagy-related protein 10 (ATG10)
16. Programmed cell death 6-interacting protein
17. Sorting nexin (SNX)
18. Cytoplasmic dynein
19. Tubulin alpha chain (TUBA)
20. Tubulin beta chain (TUBB)
21. Nitric oxide synthase (NOS)
22. Lysosome-associated membrane glycoprotein/Cluster of differentiation (LAMP/CD)
23. Cathepsin L
24. Kinesin
25. Phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase (PI3K)
26. RAC serine/threonine-protein kinase (AKT)
27. Bcl-2-antagonist of cell death (BAD)
28. TNF receptor-associated factor (TRAF)
29. Nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene (NFKB)
30. Caspase 8 (CASP8)
31. Caspase 7 (CASP7)
32. Apoptosis regulator/Bcl-2 (BCL2)
33. Ras homolog (RHO)
34. Rho-associated protein kinase (ROCK)
35. Phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate 5-kinase / Phosphatidylinositol 5-phosphate 4-kinase / Phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate 5-kinase (PI4P5K/ PI5P4K/ PI3P5K)
36. Vinculin
37. Radixin
38. Profilin
39. Actin
40. CD63
41. Lysosomal-associated transmembrane protein
42. V-type proton ATPase

PI3P: phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate
PIP3: Phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate

Fig. S8. Schematic diagram of symbiosis maintenance associated genes. Every node represents a category of genes, and generally has multiple corresponding genes. The inside colors of nodes represent the expression changes of corresponding genes, including non-DEGs (cyan), up-regulated (red), down-regulated (blue) and up- and down-regulated DEGs (light red). The colors of node edges represent the methylation level changes of corresponding genes, including non-DMGs (light blue), hypermethylated (red), hypomethylated (blue) and hyper- and hypo-methylated DMGs (light red).

1. Carbonic anhydrase (CA)
2. Ammonium transporter
3. Glucose transporter
4. Amino acid transporter
5. Glutamine synthetase (GS)
6. Glutamate synthase
7. Glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH)
8. Phosphate transporter
9. V-type proton ATPase
10. Sugar transporter
11. Lipid transfer protein
12. Aquaporin 3 (Glycerol transporter)

13. Monocarboxylate transporter
14. Alcohol dehydrogenase
15. Aldehyde dehydrogenase
16. Nitric oxide synthase (NOS)
17. Arginase
18. Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase / Aspartate carbamoyltransferase / Dihydroorotase (CAD)
19. Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase (ammonia) (CPS1)
20. ABC transporter

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