1   **Enhancing resolution of natural methylome reprogramming behavior in plants**

3   Robersy Sanchez[1†] , Xiaodong Yang[1†] , Hardik Kundariya[2], Jose R Barreras[1], Yashitola Wamboldt[2], and

4   Sally A. Mackenzie[1*]

6   [1]Departments of Biology and Plant Science, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA

7   16802 and [2]Department of Agronomy and Horticulture, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE 68588

[†]Equal contributors

*Correspondence to: sam795@psu.edu

Sally Mackenzie

362 Frear North Bldg

Pennsylvania State University

University Park, PA 16802

Ph 814-863-8324, email sam795@psu.edu

Robersy Sanchez: rus547@psu.edu

Xiaodong Yang: xiaodongy86@gmail.com

Hardik Kundariya: kundariyahardik@gmail.com

Jose R Barreras: barreras@gmail.com

Yashitola Wamboldt: yashitola@yahoo.com

Sally Mackenzie: sam795@psu.edu

Abstract

We have developed a novel methylome analysis procedure, Methyl-IT, based on information thermodynamics and signal detection. Methylation analysis involves a signal detection problem, and the method was designed to discriminate methylation regulatory signal from background noise induced by thermal fluctuations. Comparison with three commonly used programs and various available datasets to furnish a comparative measure of resolution by each method is included. To confirm results, methylation analysis was integrated with RNAseq and network enrichment analyses. Methyl-IT enhances resolution of genome methylation behavior to reveal network-associated responses, offering resolution of gene pathway influences not attainable with previous methods.

Keywords

Epigenomics, DNA methylation, gene expression, information theory, Arabidopsis, tomato

Background

Most chromatin changes that are associated with epigenetic behavior are reprogrammed each generation, with the apparent exception of cytosine methylation, where parental patterns can be inherited through meiosis [1]. Genome-wide methylome analysis, therefore, provides one avenue for investigation of transgenerational and developmental epigenetic behavior. Complicating such investigations in plants is the dynamic nature of DNA methylation [2, 3] and a presently incomplete understanding of its association with gene expression. In plants, cytosine methylation is generally found in three contexts, CG, CHG and CHH (H=C, A or T), with CG most prominent within gene body regions [4]. Association of CG gene body methylation with changes in gene expression remains in question. There exist ample data associating chromatin behavior with plant response to environmental changes [5], yet, affiliation of genome-wide DNA methylation with these effects, or their inheritance, remains inconclusive [6, 7].

The epigenetic landscape is modulated by thermodynamic fluctuations that influence DNA stability. Most genome-wide methylome studies have relied predominantly on statistical approaches that ignore the subjacent biophysics of cytosine DNA methylation, offering limited resolution of those genomic regions with highest probability of having undergone epigenetic change. Jenkinson and colleagues [8] described the implementation of statistical physics and information theory to the analysis of whole genome methylome data to define sample-specific energy landscapes. Our group [9, 10] has proposed an information thermodynamics approach to investigate genome-wide methylation patterning based on the statistical mechanical effect of methylation on DNA molecules. The information thermodynamics-based

approach is postulated to provide greater sensitivity for resolving true signal from thermodynamic

background within the methylome [9]. Because the biological signal created within the dynamic

methylome environment characteristic of plants is not free from background noise, the approach,

designated Methyl-IT, includes application of signal detection theory [11-14].

A basic requirement for the application of signal detection is a probability distribution of the background

noise. Probability distribution, as a Weibull distribution model, can be deduced on a statistical

mechanical/thermodynamics basis for DNA methylation induced by thermal fluctuations [9]. Assuming

that this background methylation variation is consistent with a Poisson process, it can be distinguished

from variation associated with methylation regulatory machinery, which is non-independent for all

genomic regions [9]. An information-theoretic divergence to express the variation in methylation induced

by background thermal fluctuations will follow a Weibull distribution model, provided that it is

proportional to minimum energy dissipated per bit of information from methylation change.

The information thermodynamics model was previously verified with more than 150 Arabidopsis and

more than 90 human methylome datasets [9]. To test application of the Methyl-IT method to methylome

analysis, and to compare resolution of the Methyl-IT approach to publicly available programs DSS [15],

BiSeq [16] and Methylpy [17], we used three Arabidopsis methylome datasets. Genome-wide

methylation data from a Col-0 single-seed decent population [3], maintained over 30 generations under

controlled growth conditions, provides a measure of thermodynamic properties within an unperturbed

system. To assess resolution of methylation signal during plant development, we included previously

reported datasets from various stages of seed development and germination in Arabidopsis ecotypes Col-0

and Ws [18]. Both of these systems have been described for methylome behavior with Methylpy, and

direct comparison of the two datasets allowed estimation of developmental epigenetic signal above

background. For more detailed study of methylation and gene expression, and to provide empirical testing

of Methyl-IT predictions, we focused on the trans-generational 'memory' line derived by suppression of

the *MSH1* (*MUTS HOMOLOG 1*) gene [19, 20], which has not been previously described for methylome

features.

MSH1 is a plant-specific gene that encodes an organelle-localized protein [21, 22]. Plastid-depletion of

MSH1 conditions 'developmental reprogramming' in the plant [23]. The *msh1* mutant is altered in

expression of a broad array of environmental and stress response pathways [24], and the mutant

phenotype is also produced by *MSH1* RNAi knockdown [20]. Differentially expressed gene (DEG)

analysis of the *msh1* TDNA mutant identifies major components from numerous abiotic and biotic stress,

phytohormone, carbohydrate metabolism, protein translation and turnover, oxidative stress and

photosynthetic pathways [24]. Subsequent null segregation of the RNAi transgene restores *MSH1*

expression but leaves a heritably altered phenotype, with delayed flowering, reduced growth rate, delayed

maturity transition and pale leaves [20]. This condition is termed *msh1* 'memory', and provides for direct

investigation of transgenerational methylation variation and its association with altered gene expression.

Here, we report on Methyl-IT sensitivity relative to three commonly used methylome analysis programs.

We demonstrate resolution of methylome repatterning by Methyl-IT analysis, and empirical validation of

gene networks undergoing changes in methylation and gene expression as identified by the Methyl-IT

procedure.

Results

The Methyl-IT method

For resolution of DNA methylation signal, we employed Hellinger divergence (*H*) as a means of

quantifying dissimilarity between two probability distributions: that associated with a reference, defining

background changes, and that associated with treatment.

Signal detection is a critical step to increase sensitivity and resolution of methylation signal by reducing

the signal-to-noise ratio and objectively controlling the false positive rate and prediction accuracy/risk

(Fig. 1). Optimal detection of signals requires knowledge of the noise probability distribution that, from a

statistical mechanical basis, can be modeled for each individual sample by a Weibull distribution [9]. The

methylation regulatory signal does not hold Weibull distribution and, consequently, for a given level of

significance α (Type I error probability, eg. α = 0.05), cytosine positions with $H_{\alpha=0.05}$ can be selected as

sites carrying potential signals (shown as the blue region under the curve in Fig.1). Laws of statistical

physics can account for background methylation, a response to thermal fluctuations that presumably

function in DNA stability [9]. True signal is detected based on the optimal cutpoint [25], which can be

estimated from the area under the curve (AUC) of a receiver operating characteristic (ROC) built from a

logistic regression performed with the potential signals from controls and treatments. In this context, the

AUC is the probability to distinguish biological regulatory signal naturally generated in the control from

that induced by the treatment. In this context, the cytosine sites carrying a methylation signal are

designated *differentially informative methylated positions* (DIMPs). The probability that a DIMP is not

induced by the treatment is given by the probability of false alarm (P_{FA}, false positive). That is, the

biological signal is naturally present in the control as well as in the treatment.

Estimation of optimal cutoff from the AUC is an additional step to remove any remaining potential

methylation background noise that still remains with probability $\alpha = 0.05 > 0$. We define as methylation

signal (DIMP) each cytosine site with Hellinger divergence values above the cutoff ($H_{33}^{D_T}$), as shown in

Fig. 1. Each DIMP is a cytosine position carrying a significant methylation signal, which may or may not

be represented within a differentially methylated position (DMP) according to Fisher's exact test (or other

current tests, Fig. 1). The difference in resolution by current methods versus Methyl-IT is illustrated by

positioning H value sensitivity of the Fisher's exact test (FET) at greater than H_{min} for cytosine sites that

are DMP and DIMPs simultaneously. For example, the ROC curve that corresponds to logistic regression

for potential signals from the closest wild type control to *msh1* memory line (control 3 and treatment 1 in

Fig. 1) has an AUC cutpoint of $H = 1.028052$.

The probability of false alarm (estimated for best fit found for the Weibull cumulative distribution of H in

the mentioned control) for DIMP detection based on the mentioned cutpoint is $P_{FA} = 1.466 \times 10^{-6}$. Thus, in

the *msh1* memory line dataset under study, any cytosine position k with $H_k \geq 1.028052$ is a DIMP.

Although the probability $P_{FA} = 1.466 \times 10^{-6}$ is small, there is still an average of 44844 CG-DIMPs per wild

type sample. The average of CG-DIMPs in the memory line samples is 225835. We found that the

strength of biological regulatory signal (evaluated in terms of AUC) was different for each methylation

context. The strongest signal by Hellinger divergence found in our analyses was in CG context. A

parsimony decision to reduce the rate of false positives used the cutpoint estimated for the AUC from the

strongest signal. A flow chart of Methyl-IT analysis, with integration of these major procedures described

above, is shown in Fig. 2.

Relative sensitivity of the Methyl-IT method versus other procedures

Table 1 provides a critical but nonunique example for the 2x2 contingency table with read counts

$n_i^{mC_c} = 8$, $n_i^{C_c} = 2$, $n_i^{mC_t} = 350$, and $n_i^{C_t} = 20$. In this situation, and for any value $80 \leq n_i^{mC_t} \leq 350$,

there exists strong methylation signal in the treatment, significantly stronger than in the control, but a 2x2

contingency independence test cannot detect it. Even small genomes like Arabidopsis contain millions of

methylated cytosine sites, and situations analogous to the one presented in Table 1 are not rare. If this

hypothetical cytosine site were to occur in the memory line, with $n_i^{mC_t} = 350$, then, according to its *p*-

value estimate from the corresponding Weibull distribution, it would be a potential signal included in the

logistic regression and, since $H = 1.12$ in this example and AUC cutpoint $H_{cutpoint} = 1.028$, it would be a

DIMP ($H_{cutpoint} < H$).

In the memory line, 100% of differentially methylated cytosines ($TVD > 0.23$) in all methylation contexts

found by root-mean-square test (RMST, bootstrap test of goodness-of-fit [26] implemented in methylpy

[17]), Fisher exact test (FET), and HDT (bootstrap test of goodness-of-fit based on Hellinger divergence,

see methods) are also detected by Methyl-IT (Fig. 3). RMST does not detect 17.7% of CG-DIMPs, 47.8%

CHG-DIMPs, and 59.7% CHH-DIMPs. HDT does not detect 19.7% of CG-DIMPs, 51.5% CHG-DIMPs,

and 66.1% CHH-DIMPs, while FET does not detect 46.2% of CG-DIMPs, 73.9% CHG-DIMPs, and 84%

CHH-DIMPs. Together, RMST, HDT and FET do not detect 13.5% of CG-DIMPs, 43.2% CHG-DIMPs,

and 52.5% CHH-DIMPs. The DIMPs not detected by these alternative approaches come from situations

analogous to that presented in Table 1. RMST is a robust test of goodness-of fit for 2x2 contingency

tables. The statistic used in RMST is an information divergence. Results obtained with RMST were very

close to those estimated based on Hellinger divergence [26, 27](see Table 1). Therefore, the differences in

outcome between Methyl-IT and Methylpy do not reside in RMST but, rather, in the signal detection

limitation, which requires knowledge of the null distribution for methylation background variation. The

null distribution of the control sample testing statistic must be taken into account.

Relative sensitivity and resolution of the Methyl-IT method can also be assessed by parallel analyses of

the three datasets, generational, seed development and *msh1* memory. Fig. 4 shows a single-scale, direct

comparison of differential methylation behavior in these datasets. Rather than total DIMP number, we

present relative. The absolute DIMP counts and DIMP counts per genomic region are provided in the

Additional File 2 Table.S1 for seed development and germination dataset. In Fig. 4, DIMP number is

normalized to the corresponding local cytosine context number. The signal detection step of Methyl-IT

discriminates signal unique to the sample from background patterning changes shared within the control

without regard to DMP density. Consistent with expectations, the generational dataset displays lowest

level variation across lineages, with greater inter-lineage variation than generational, and highest DIMP

signal in CG context. Direct comparison between the generational and seed development studies

estimated pattern and magnitude differences between the two datasets. Methylation signal in the seed

development dataset taken from the original study by Kawakatsu et al. [18] was greater than that of the

generational study, with DIMP signal in all three CG, CHG, CHH contexts. CHG and CHH changes were

associated predominantly with non-genic and TE regions, and CG DIMPs showed higher density within

gene regions (Fig. 4). Analysis of *msh1* memory, when compared to the generational and seed

development data, showed significantly greater magnitude change and prevalent methylation DIMP signal

within genic CG context. Genome-wide analysis of methylation in the memory line, enhanced by signal

detection, revealed considerable CG, CHG and CHH DIMPs across all chromosomes. Results are shown

for data before (Fig. 3) and after (Fig. 4 and Additional file 1: Figure S1) normalization to demonstrate

that while the vast majority of methylation resides in CHH context, normalized for density, changes in

CG context predominated on chromosome arms (Additional file 1: Figure S1).

A hierarchical cluster based on AUC criteria, and built on the set of 7006 selected DIMPs associated

genes, permitted the classification of seed developmental stages into two main groups: morphogenesis

and maturation phases (Additional File 1 Figure. S2a). In this case, the methylation signal was expressed

in terms of *log2*(*DIMP-counts on gene*). Within the 7006-dimensional metric space generated by 7006

AUC-selected genes, the linear cotyledon (*COT*) and mature green (*MG*) stages (morphogenesis-

maturation phase) grouped into a cluster quite distant from the cluster of post mature green (*PMG*) and

dry seed (*DRY*) stages (Dormancy phase). The latter cluster was closer to the leaf dataset derived from 4-

week-old plants. Similar analysis was performed for the seed germination experiment from the mentioned

study, and a hierarchical cluster built on the set of 3864 selected genes based on AUC criteria permitted

the classification of seed developmental stages into two main groups: 1) dormancy and 2) germination-

emerging phases (Additional File 1 Figure S2b).

Differentially methylated genes (DMG)

Here we propose the concept of differentially methylated genes (DMGs) based on the comparison of

group DIMP counts by applying generalized linear regression model (GLM). In particular, the use of

DMRs (clusters of DMPs within a specified region), can be tested in a group comparison by applying

GLM.

Genes displaying a statistically significant difference in the number of DIMPs relative to control were

defined as DMGs. Additional File 3 Table.S2 shows the number of DMGs observed in the seed

development data, based on Methyl-IT analysis. In this case, the analysis included DIMPs, regardless of

hypo or hyper methylation direction, and from all cytosine methylation contexts. Genes were defined as

the region covered by gene body plus 2kb upstream of the gene start site.

The number of DMGs (1068 genes) is considerably lower than the number of genes associated with

DMRs derived in the original study by Kawakatsu et al. (2017) [18]. Methylpy-derived DMR number

reflects genomic intervals with a given density of cytosine methylation changes, defined relative to a

control. Methyl-IT DMG number reflects gene regions with highest probability of differential methylation

distinct from background activity in the control. For example, after combining the embryogenesis CG,

CHG, and CHH DMRs reported in Kawakatsu et al. [18] (Table S5 from [18]) into a single set of DMRs,

only 468 from 6433 DMR-associated genes (after removing duplicated genes and updating annotation)

were Methyl-IT DMGs that met our GLM criteria in the group comparison of maturation phase versus

morphogenesis phase (Additional File 1 Figure S3a). DMR-associated gene analysis was also performed

with the set of DMRs detected in the germination experiment from the same study [18]. Similarly, 53

from 7638 DMR-associated genes were identified DMGs that met our GLM criteria in the group

comparison of germination-emerging versus dormancy phases (Additional File 1 Figure S3b). In this

case, 7638 DMR-associated genes comprise the resulting set from pooling germin-CHG and germin-CHH

DMRs (as reported in Table S5 from reference [18]). Analysis for the set of all genes yielded 136 DMGs

(Additional File 1 Figure S3c).

To more generally investigate the relative efficacy of commonly used methylation analysis programs, we

applied DSS, BiSeq and Methylpy to the *msh1* memory line and corresponding Col-0 control methylome

datasets. The control line was acquired as a transgene-null within the same transformation experiment that

produced MSH1-RNAi lines from which the memory line derives, and has been grown in parallel each

subsequent generation. The overlaps of DMR-associated genes from DMRs found in the memory line by

the methylome analysis pipelines DSS, BiSeq, and Methylpy is presented in Fig. 5a. What is striking is

the degree of data non-conformity from the three methods. Because the subjacent algorithms of these

programs are based not only on different statistical and computational approaches and do not define

DMRs uniformly, the data output differs in sensitivity and methylation change criteria. The application of

GLM to estimate the DMG set by Methyl-IT and its overlap with DMR-associated genes retrieved from

DMRs identified by the mentioned programs is shown in Fig. 5b. For the group comparison counting only

gene-body DIMPs, a total of 9271 loci (from the entire set of genes) were identified as DMGs in the *msh1*

memory line (Additional file 4: Table S3), while 8798 DMGs were identified for the group comparison

counting DIMPs within gene body plus 2kb upstream and downstream (with $TVD > 0.15$). The

application of GLM in estimating DMGs is not implemented to identify DMRs, but to evaluate whether

or not a statistically significant difference exists between methylation signals observed in two individual

groups for an already defined DMR.

Methyl-IT identifies gene networks in seed development and germination dataset

If heightened sensitivity in methylome signal detection imparts added biological information, this should

be evident in tests for association of methylome signal with gene expression changes. Observed CG and

CHG signal implies that changes in methylation during seed development relate to gene expression and/or

developmental transitioning. To investigate this possibility further, we conducted a network enrichment

analysis test (NEAT) of the Methyl-IT output from seed development and germination datasets.

Analysis of data from stages of seed development, including cotyledonary, mature green and post-mature

green, contrasted to globular as reference, suggested a methylome repatterning following the mature

green stage (Additional File 1 Figure. S2). Data indicate that methylome patterns are more similar

between cotyledonary and mature green stages, transitioning to a distinguishable state for post-mature

green and dry seed. This methylome transition may relate to the dessication and dormancy shift that also

occurs with this timing [28, 29]. Further analysis of differentially methylated loci with NEAT detected

statistically significant network enrichment of links between genes from the set of DMGs (Ws-0 seed)

and the set of GO-biological process terms associated with seed functions (Table 2). The list of genes

found in networks includes genes known to participate in seed development such as, For example,

transcription factors *DPBF2* (*AT3G44460*) from an abscisic acid-activated signaling pathway expressed

during seed maturation in the cotyledons, *ABSCISIC ACID BINDING FACTOR (ABF1, AT1G49720),* and

WRKY22 (*AT4G01250*) a member of *WRKY* transcription factors involved mainly in seed development.

Other genes were found to be involved in seed dormancy, like *SLY1* (*SLEEPY1*), and seedling

development, like *EIN4* (AT3G04580), *CML16* (*AT3G25600*) (full gene list in Additional file 5: Table

S4). GeneMANIA (http://www.cytoscape.org/), identified interaction networks within the data, indicating

that many DMGs in the seed development dataset function together (Additional file 1: Figure S4).

Similar analysis of the seed germination and the Col-0 single-seed decent datasets did not detect DMGs

within networks. Results in the single-seed decent generational study are consistent with expectations,

since samples were grown under controlled conditions and sampled uniformly over generations. In the

case of the seed germination dataset, this outcome may be consistent with the fact that only CHG and

CHH DMRs were found in the original seed germination study by Kawakatsu et al. (2017) [18], while the

seed developmental experiment showed 60% of CG DMRs overlapping with protein-coding genes. These

data suggest that methylome signal may be more prominent under particular developmental transitions,

like seed preparation for dormancy and dessication, than during processes like germination.

The memory line phenotype

Transgene-null plants following segregation of the *MSH1*-RNAi transgene, termed *msh1* 'memory' lines,

display full penetrance and transgenerational inheritance of the altered phenotype, and the *msh1* memory

effect recapitulates in tomato [30]. Arabidopsis lines that have undergone silencing of *MSH1* segregate

for the *MSH1*-RNAi transgene by self-crossing to produce heritable phenotype changes in ca. 7-25% of

the resulting transgene-null progeny (Fig. 6a). The *msh1* memory phenotype is milder and more uniform

than that observed in *msh1* mutants derived by point mutation, T-DNA mutation or RNAi suppression [19,

20, 23] (Fig. 6b). Memory lines show normal *MSH1* transcript levels (Fig. 6c), but 100% penetrance and

heritability of the altered phenotype in subsequent self-crossed generations. Over 3,000 RNAi-null

memory line progeny under greenhouse conditions produced neither visible reversion to wild type nor

more severe *msh1* phenotypes (Additional file 1: Figure S5). In Arabidopsis, memory lines were stably

carried forward four generations and, in tomato, ten generations to date.

Memory line methylome changes detected by Methyl-IT associate with gene expression

The derived transgene-null *msh1* memory lines display gene expression changes in ca. 955 genes

(Additional file 6: Table S5), approximately 67% of which are shared with the *msh1* mutant (Additional

file 7: Tables S6, Additional file 6: Tables S5).

The memory line DEG profile is distinctive. Unlike the mutant, which shows widespread gene ontology

enrichment in nearly every stress response pathway (Additional file 7: Table S6), memory line gene

ontology enrichment shows skewing toward integrated pathways for circadian clock, starch metabolism,

and ethylene and abscisic acid response (Fig. 6d). These studies use the *msh1* TDNA insertion mutant

rather than transgenic MSH1-RNAi for comparisons to ensure that each plant is *msh1*-depleted.

Transgenic RNAi knockdown lines are variable for *MSH1* suppression across plants (Fig. 6c), potentially

confounding interpretation, and MSH1-RNAi and *msh1* TDNA mutant appear identical in phenotype (Fig.

6b).

Application of Network-Based Enrichment Analysis (NBEA) to the set of 955 DEGs in the memory line

detected over-enrichment in five pathways: "*circadian rhythm*", "*response to red or far red light*",

"*regulation of circadian rhythm*", "*long-day photoperiodism/flowering*", and "*regulation of

transcription*". The permutation test applied to these data indicates that the observed simultaneous over-

enrichment of these pathways by chance holds a probability of lower than 4×10^{-5}, reflecting a non-random

outcome (Additional file 8: Table S7).

The msh1 "memory" is a candidate system for non-genetic methylome reprogramming

Similar to investigation of methylation changes during seed development and germination, we followed

Methyl-IT analysis of *msh1* memory line data with NEAT and network-based enrichment analysis

(NBEA) to assess biologically meaningful data based on DMGs alone. Additional file 9: Table S8 shows

results classifying methylation signal into networks for circadian clock, abscisic acid-activated signaling,

and defense response. Approximately 32% of identified DEGs overlap with DMGs in the memory line

(Fig 7a). These differentially methylated and expressed loci are over-enriched for genes contributing to

circadian rhythm, plant hormone signal transduction, and MAPK signaling pathway (Fig. 7b-7d).

Network analysis of expression, shown in (Fig. 7b-7d). , suggests dysregulation of these pathways in

msh1 memory.

Integration of independently derived DEG, DMG and NBEA data from the memory lines converged on

16 loci (Fig. 7a and Table 3), of which 10 directly participate in circadian rhythm regulation and the

remainder, associated with light, ABA and ethylene response, are directly influenced by circadian clock

regulators (Table 3). Principal component (PC) analyses based on the mean of CG- Hellinger divergence

covering the gene regions delimited by DMGs (Fig. 8a), DMG/DEG intersection (Fig. 8b) and the

mentioned 16 loci (Fig. 8c) suggest a distinctive role of gene-associated CG methylation in *msh1*-memory

effect. For all analyses, more than 80% of variance among wild type, *msh1* memory and *msh1* TDNA

mutant was explained on the plane PC1-PC2, where *msh1* memory effect is clearly distinguishable from

control. Quantitative discriminatory power of CG methylation in the 16 signature loci is reflected in

hierarchical clustering based on their PC1-PC2 coordinates (Fig. 8d) and in their strong correlation with

the first two components (Fig. 8e). In particular, eight circadian rhythm genes strongly correlate with PC1,

which carries 65% of the whole sample variance. Thus, for these genes, CG methylation conveys enough

discriminatory power to distinguish individual wild type phenotypes from the *msh1* memory effect.

These observations are the first inference of association between CG methylation and gene expression

changes in the *msh1* memory line. DIMP distribution along the 16 signature loci showed most CG and

non-CG DIMPs located within exonic regions in memory lines with little individual CG-DIMP variation

(sometimes balanced with non-CG), suggesting that a programmed distribution pattern might exist

(Additional file 10: Table S9).

Predicted changes in methylation pattern at core circadian clock genes were subsequently confirmed by

sequence-specific bisulfite (BS) PCR analysis (Fig. 9a-9d). DIMPs were confirmed in the memory line at

GI, TOC1, LHY and *CCA1* genes. BS-PCR primer set BS-GI-P2, designed to bind to a predicted DIMP-

rich region, confirmed DIMPs within the region (Fig. 9e), while primer set BS-GI-P7, designed to bind to

a DIMP-free region, detected no changes (Fig. 9f). The DNA bisulfite conversion rate in this experiment

was confirmed by using *DDM1* as control, with a calculated bisulfite conversion rate of 99.47% for WT

and 100% for memory line sample (Additional file 1: Figure S6).

Germination of the memory line and isogenic Col-0 wild type on media containing 100 uM 5-azacytidine

alleviated the phenotype differences between the two lines, resulting in similar growth rates (Additional

file 1: Figure S7). Transfer to potting media to assess later growth showed wild type and memory lines to

be similar in phenotype following treatment (Additional file 1: Figure S7). Likewise, RNAseq analysis of

the treated and untreated memory and control lines showed 5-azacytidine treatment had genome-wide

effects on the gene expression pattern of both *msh1* memory line and wild type, and brought overall gene

expression patterns of treated *msh1* memory line and wild-type closer than before treatment (Additional

file 1: Figure S8). These observations reflect association between DNA methylation behavior and the

altered phenotype.

Wild type and memory line plants treated with 5-azacytidine were also tested for changes in expression of

the sixteen identified loci shown in Table 3. Quantitative RT-PCR assays confirmed previous RNAseq

results, showing significant differences in steady state transcript levels for 14 of the 16 loci in wild type

versus memory line plants growing under no treatment conditions (Additional file 1: Figure S9). Plants

germinated in 5-azacytidine prior to transfer to growth media, however, produced no significant

differences in gene expression for these loci in memory lines versus wild type (Additional file 1: Figure

S9). These data show a relationship between methylation state and gene expression changes in *msh1*-

induced memory, and provide evidence that altering methylation via chemical treatment can return gene

expression to nearly wild type steady state levels for these loci within the time period assayed.

The *msh1* memory effect is related to circadian rhythm changes

Both gene expression and methylome datasets, analyzed independently, indicated alteration in

components of the circadian clock. To test for modified circadian oscillation behavior in *msh1* memory,

gene expression levels for 4 core circadian clock genes in Arabidopsis and 2 genes in tomato were

evaluated over a 48-h time course under constant light (LL) and light-dark cycles (LD). Results confirmed

a degree of circadian rhythm dysregulation for all tested loci in both Arabidopsis memory lines, with

varying levels of altered expression (Fig 10). DEG analysis in Arabidopsis showed that the proportion of

genes regulated by *TOC1/CCA1* and altered in expression increased from 10.4% in the *msh1* T-DNA

mutant line to 33.1% in the *msh1* memory line (Fig 11a). Memory-associated processes identified in

Figure 6d, starch metabolism and cold, ethylene and abscisic acid response, are circadian clock output

pathways [31] (Fig 11b-e), again signifying that methylome repatterning influences genes that function

coordinately. The altered expression of three genes from these pathways was confirmed in Arabidopsis by

qRT-PCR (Additional file 1**:** Figure S10). Data to date suggest that circadian clock dysregulation

contributes to the memory line phenotype; it is not yet known whether clock dysregulation acts causally

in memory programming.

Comparable memory effects are detected in tomato

The *msh1* effect is recapitulated across plant species [23, 30]. We exploited this observation by

comparing *msh1* memory lines in Arabidopsis and tomato (cv 'Rutgers'). Genome-wide methylome

(BSseq) data were derived from Rutgers wild type and *MSH1*-RNAi transgene-null lines (fifth

generation). Similar to Arabidopsis, tomato memory lines are attenuated and more uniform in phenotype

relative to RNAi suppression lines, described by Yang et al. (2015)[30], and display reduced growth rate

and delayed flowering.

To test Methyl-IT analysis value in a dataset derived from another plant species, and to learn whether

signature pathways identified in Arabidopsis *msh1* memory line are shared in tomato *msh1* memory, we

conducted parallel analysis with the derived tomato memory line methylome dataset. Available gene

annotation in tomato is incomplete. Therefore, identified differentially methylated tomato loci were cross-

referenced to Arabidopsis orthologs. We identified 7802 tomato DMGs (Additional file 11: Table S10).

About 4277 of them were shared with Arabidopsis, accounting for ca. 55% of tomato DMGs and 46% of

Arabidopsis DMGs (Fig. 12a). With NBEA analysis, we identified 147 tomato genes predominantly

associated with phytohormone response, including auxin, salicylic acid, ethylene and ABA pathways,

together with circadian regulators, abiotic and biotic stress genes, and light response (Additional file 12:

Table S11). Arabidopsis homologs for 43% (63) of these 147 genes were found in Arabidopsis DMGs by

NBEA (Additional file 13: Table S12). Homologs for 6 of the 16 loci identified in Arabidopsis and listed

in Table 3 were present in the list of 147 tomato genes. Similar circadian clock dysregulation was

observed in tomato *msh1* memory as in its Arabidopsis counterparts. Gene expression levels for 2 core

circadian clock genes, *Sl_TOC1 (Solyc06g069690)* and *Sl_LHY (Solyc10g005080)* in tomato were

evaluated over a 48-h time course under light-dark cycles (LD) to confirm dysregulation (Fig. 12b), along

with downstream circadian clock-regulated genes (Fig. 12c). Together, these data reflect cross-species

conservation underlying *msh1* memory.

Discussion

Methyl-IT draws from the perspective that DNA methylation functions to stabilize DNA [32-34] and, as

such, may exist in "activated" versus "maintenance" states with regard to bioenergetics. We have begun

to investigate DNA methylation patterning as a "language" of sorts, identifying pattern changes that

comprise "signal" in response to treatment, without regard to density of methylation changes within a

given interval. While the theoretical premise underlying our approach, and based on Landauer's principle,

is detailed elsewhere [9, 10], the present study compares resolution of this methodology to current

methods for analysis of whole-genome methylation datasets.

Methyl-IT permits methylation analysis as a signal detection problem. Our model predicts that most

methylation changes detected, at least in Arabidopsis and tomato, represent methylation "background

noise" with respect to methylation regulatory signal, and are explainable within a statistical probability

distribution. Implicit in our approach is that DIMPs can be detected in the control sample as well. These

DIMPs are located within the region of false alarm in Fig. 1, and correspond to natural methylation signal

not induced by treatment. Thus, using the Methyl-IT procedure, methylation signal is not only

distinguished from background noise, but can be used to discern natural signal from that induced by the

treatment.

Whereas Methylpy, DSS and BiSeq provide essential information about methylation density, context and

positional changes on a genome-wide scale, Methyl-IT provides resolution of subtle methylation

repatterning signals distinct from background fluctuation. Data derived from analysis with Methylpy,

BiSeq or DSS alone could lead to an assumption that gene body methylation plays little or no role in gene

expression, or that transposable elements are the primary target of methylation repatterning. Yet ample

data suggest that this picture is incomplete [35]. Methyl-IT results show that these conclusions more

likely reflect inadequate resolution of the methylome system. GLM analysis applied to the identification

of DMR-associated genes by Methylpy, BiSeq and DSS indicates that DMRs (or DMR associated genes)

do not provide sufficient resolution to link them with gene expression.

Signal detected by Methyl-IT may reflect gene-associated methylation changes that occur in response to

local changes in gene transcriptional activity. Comparative analysis of the *msh1* memory line data with

msh1 T-DNA mutant, a more extreme phenotype, showed 42.3% of memory line DMGs (3921 out of

5354) to overlap with *msh1* T-DNA DEGs. With the memory line DEGs estimated to number only 935,

it is possible that methylation repatterning within the memory line serves to stabilize or re-establish gene

expression following the extreme, stress-related changes that accompany *MSH1* silencing [24]. Similarly,

the pathway-associated methylome changes detected in seed development data may reflect participation

of methylation in gene expression stage transitions, particularly prominent between green mature and

post-green mature stages.

Methyl-IT analysis of various stages in seed development and germination showed evidence of

methylation changes. Previous Methylpy output [18] defined predominant changes in non-CG

methylation residing within TE-rich regions of the genome, whereas Methyl-IT data resolved statistically

significant methylation signal within gene regions. With the complementary resolution provided by

Methyl-IT, it becomes possible to investigate the nature of chromatin response within identified genes in

greater detail during the various stages of a seed's development. Several of the identified DMGs in this

study involved genes that interact within known development pathways.

There is little detail available in plants of local intragenic methylation behavior during transitions in gene

activation, but transcription factor-associated recruitment of methylation machinery has been postulated

[35], and supported by data in other systems [36]. A large proportion of the intervals identified by this

study are components of signal transduction, so expression effects may be below the detection limits of

the assay. Among the 1717 transcription factors reported in PlantTFDB, 340 are identified as DMGs in

our list for memory line. Effects of alternative splicing in memory changes, also known to respond to

local methylation [37], would similarly have escaped detection in our gene expression analysis. However,

for a better comprehension of which genes would be controlled by the regulatory methylation machinery

in processes like seed developmental or the induced *msh1* memory effect, the network enrichment

analysis of DMGs and DEGs can reduce the number of potential regulators to a minimal number of genes

testable under lab conditions, as presented in our study. Analysis produced evidence of a relationship

between *msh1* memory line gene expression and differential methylation data for at least 16 regulatory

loci, 10 of which comprise components of the circadian clock.

Plants have the capacity to respond to a wide array of abiotic and biotic stresses and developmental cues

through overlapping gene networks. It is increasingly evident that phytohormone, light response, abiotic

and biotic stress response, photosynthesis and carbohydrate metabolism are integrated output pathways of

the plant's circadian clock [31]. A significant proportion of the plant's gene expression profile is

influenced by circadian regulation [38], introducing the concept of a master regulator of adaptation.

Numerous reports underscore extensive pathway integration under circadian clock control, with starch

metabolism, cold response and abscisic acid-mediated stress response, for example, as particularly

prominent pathways altered by *msh1* memory. The link between plant response to cold and epigenetic

memory involves histone modifications of the FLC locus during vernalization [39]. Cold temperature also

influences alterative splicing patterns of clock genes to alter their function [40]. ABA, a stress hormone,

shows rhythmic diel levels in plants [41], and associates with *TOC1* and an ABA-related gene, *ABAR*, in

a highly regulated feedback loop [42]. Epigenetic modification of circadian clock genes effect changes in

starch metabolism [43], and can educe enhanced growth vigor in hybrids and allopolyploids [44]. Studies

of classical heterosis in Arabidopsis also show association with changes in circadian clock behavior [45].

Data from this study indicate that *MSH1* suppression includes circadian clock, ABA and ethylene

dysregulation as components of the associated *msh1* global stress condition. Segregation of the *MSH1*-

RNAi transgene only partially reverts the phenotype, revealing loci that have apparently sustained

cytosine methylation repatterning, and producing a phenotypic memory effect, presumably methylation-

based, that is reproducible and heritable. If correct, the *msh1* memory phenomenon comprises a robust

medium for addressing epiallelic stability.

Identification of gene networks in both seed development and *msh1* memory was based on DNA

methylation data analysis with the enhanced resolution of Methyl-IT. In the case of *msh1* memory, gene

expression, phenotype and cross-species comparison served to confirm the identified networks. While

early in the process, these outcomes argue compellingly for the feasibility of genome-wide methylome

decoding of the gene space.

Conclusions

Methyl-IT is an alternative and complementary approach to plant methylome analysis that discriminates

DNA methylation signal from background and enhances resolution. Analysis of publicly available

methylome datasets showed enhanced signal during seed development and germination within genes

belonging to related pathways, providing new evidence that DNA methylation changes occur within gene

networks. Similarly, *msh1* transgenerational memory phenomena in Arabidopsis and tomato identified

methylation-altered gene networks involving circadian clock components and linked stress response

pathways altered in expression and connected to phenotype. Whereas, previous methylome analysis

protocols identify changes in methylome density and landscape, predominantly non-CG, Methyl-IT

reveals effects within gene space, mostly CG and CHG, for elucidation of methylome linkage to gene

effects.

Methods

Methylome analysis

The alignment of BS-Seq sequence data from *Arabidopsis thaliana* was carried out with Bismark 0.15.0

[46]. BS-Seq sequence data from tomato experiment were aligned using ERNE 2.1.1 [47]. The basic

theoretical aspects of methylation analysis applied in the current work are based on previous published

results [9]. Details on Methyl-IT steps are provided in the next sections.

Methylation level estimation

To estimate methylation levels at each cytosine position, we followed a Bayesian approach. In a Bayesian

framework assuming uniform priors, the methylation level p_i can be defined as:

$p_i = \left(n_i^{mC} + 1\right)\big/\left(n_i^{mC} + n_i^{C} + 2\right)$ (1), where n_i^{mC} and n_i^{C} represent the numbers of methylated and non-

methylated read counts observed at the genomic coordinate i, respectively. We estimate the shape

parameters α and β from the beta distribution $P(p|\alpha,\beta) = \dfrac{p^{\alpha-1}(1-p)^{\beta-1}}{B(\alpha,\beta)}$ (2) minimizing the

difference between the empirical and theoretical cumulative distribution functions (ECDF and CDF,

respectively), where $B(\alpha,\beta)$ is the beta function with shape parameters α and β. Since the beta

distribution is a prior conjugate of binomial distribution, we consider the *p* parameter (methylation level

p_i) in the binomial distribution as randomly drawn from a beta distribution. The hyper-parameters α and

β are interpreted as pseudo counts. Then, the mean $E[p_i|D] = \hat{p}_i$ of methylation levels p_i, given the

data *D*, is expressed by $\hat{p}_i = \dfrac{\alpha + n_i^{mC}}{\alpha + \beta + n_i^{mC} + n_i^{C}}$ (3). The methylation levels at the cytosine with genomic

coordinate i are estimated according to this equation.

Hellinger and Total Variation divergences of the methylation levels

The difference between methylation levels from reference and treatment experiments is expressed in

terms of information divergences of their corresponding methylation levels, $\hat{p}_i^{r}$ and $\hat{p}_i^{t}$, respectively. The

reference sample(s) can be additional experiment(s) fixed at specific conditions, or a virtual sample

created by pooling methylation data from a set of control experiments, e.g. wild type individual or group.

Hellinger divergence between the methylation levels from reference and treatment experiments is

defined as:

556
$$H\left(\hat{p}_i^{r}, \hat{p}_i^{t}\right) = w_i\left[\left(\sqrt{\hat{p}_i^{r}} - \sqrt{\hat{p}_i^{t}}\right)^2 + \left(\sqrt{1-\hat{p}_i^{r}} - \sqrt{1-\hat{p}_i^{t}}\right)^2\right] \qquad (4)$$

Where $w_i = 2\dfrac{m_i^t m_i^r}{m_i^t + m_i^r}$, $m_i^t = n_i^{mC_t} + n_i^{C_t} + 1$ and $m_r = n_i^{mC_r} + n_i^{C_r} + 1$. The total variation of the

methylation levels $TV\left(\hat{p}_i^r, \hat{p}_i^t\right) = \hat{p}_i^r - \hat{p}_i^t$ (5) indicates the direction of the methylation change in the

treatment, hypo-methylated $TV < 0$ or hyper-methylated $TV > 0$. TV is linked to a basic information

divergence, the total variation distance, defined as: $TVD\left(\hat{p}_i^r, \hat{p}_i^t\right) = \left|TV\left(\hat{p}_i^r, \hat{p}_i^t\right)\right|$ (6). Distance

$TVD\left(\hat{p}_i^r, \hat{p}_i^t\right)$ and Hellinger divergence hold the inequality: $TVD\left(\hat{p}_i^r, \hat{p}_i^t\right) \leq \dfrac{2}{\sqrt{2w_i}}\sqrt{H\left(\hat{p}_i^r, \hat{p}_i^t\right)}$ (7)

[48]. Under the null hypothesis of non-difference between distributions $\hat{p}_i^r$ and $\hat{p}_i^t$, Eq. 4 asymptotically

has a chi-square distribution with one degree of freedom. The term w_i introduces a useful correction for

the Hellinger divergence, since the estimation of $\hat{p}_i^t$ and $\hat{p}_i^r$ are based on counts (see Table 1).

Non-linear fit of Weibull distribution

The cumulative distribution functions (CDF) for $H_k\left(\hat{p}_k^r, \hat{p}_k^t\right)$ can be approached by a Weibull

distribution $P\left(H_k \leq H^0 \mid \alpha, \lambda, \mu\right) = 1 - e^{-\left(\frac{H_k - \mu}{\lambda(l)}\right)^\alpha}$ (8) [9]. Parameter $\hat{\alpha}, \hat{\lambda}$ and $\hat{\mu}$ were estimated by non-

linear regression analysis of the ECDF $\hat{F}_n\left(\hat{H}_k \leq H^0\right)$ versus $H_k\left(\hat{p}_k^r, \hat{p}_k^t\right)$ [9]. The ECDF of the variable

$\hat{H}_k$ is defined as:

$$\hat{F}_n\left(\hat{H}_k \leq H^0\right) = \frac{\text{number of CDMs in the samples with } \hat{H}_k \leq H}{n} = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^{n} 1_{\hat{H}_k \leq H^0} \quad (9)$$

, where $1_{\hat{H}_k \leq H^0} = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if } \hat{H}_k \leq H^0 \\ 0 \text{ if } \hat{H}_k > H^0 \end{cases}$ is the indicator function. Function $\hat{F}_n\left(\hat{H}_k \leq H^0\right)$ is easily computed

(for example, by using function "*ecdf*" of the statistical computing program "R"[49]).

A statistical mechanics-based definition for a potential/putative methylation signal (PMS)

Most methylation changes occurring within cells are likely induced by thermal fluctuations to ensure

thermal stability of the DNA molecule, conforming to laws of statistical mechanics [9]. These changes do

not constitute biological signals, but methylation background noise induced by thermal fluctuations, and

must be discriminated from changes induced by the treatment. Let $P\left(E_k^D \le E_k^{D_0}\right)$ be the probability that

energy E_k^D, dissipated to create an observed divergence D between the methylation levels from two

different samples at a given genomic position k, can be lesser than or equal to the amount of energy $E_k^{D_0}$.

Then, a single genomic position k shall be called a PMS at a level of significance α if, and only if, the

probability $P\left(E_k^D > E_k^{D_0}\right) = 1 - P\left(E_k^D \le E_k^{D_0}\right)$ to observe a methylation change with energy dissipation

higher than $E_k^{D_0}$ is lesser than α. The probability $P\left(E_k^D \le E_k^{D_0}\right)$ can be given by a member of the

generalized gamma distribution family and, in most cases, experimental data can be fixed by the Weibull

distribution [9]. Based on this dynamic nature of methylation, one cannot expect a genome-wide

relationship between methylation and gene expression. A practical definition of PMS based on Hellinger

divergence derives provided that H_k is proportional to E_k^H and using the estimated Weibull CDF for

H_k given by Eq. 8. That is, a single genomic position k shall be called a PMS at a level of significance

α if, and only if, the probability $\hat{P}\left(H_k > H^0 \,\middle|\, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\lambda}, \hat{\mu}\right) = 1 - \hat{P}\left(H_k \le H^0 \,\middle|\, \hat{\alpha}, \hat{\lambda}, \hat{\mu}\right)$ to observe a

methylation change with Hellinger divergence higher than H_k is lesser than α.

The PMSs reflect cytosine methylation positions that undergo changes without discerning whether they

represent biological signal created by the methylation regulatory machinery. The application of signal

detection theory is required for robust discrimination of biological signal from physical noise-induced

thermal fluctuations, permitting a high signal-to-noise ratio.

Robust detection of differentially informative methylated positions (DIMPs)

Application of signal detection theory is required to reach a high signal-to-noise ratio [50, 51]. To

enhance DIMP detection, the set of PMSs is reduced to the subset of cytosines with

$TVD\left(\hat{p}_i^r, \hat{p}_i^t\right) \le TVD_0$, where TVD_0 is a minimal total variation distance defined by the user, preferably

$TVD_0 > 0.1$. If we are interested not only in DIMPs but also in the full spectrum of biological signals,

this constraint is not required. Once potential DIMPs are estimated in the treatment and in the control

samples, a logistic regression analysis is performed with the prior binary classification of DIMPs, i.e., in

terms of PMSs (from treatment versus control), and a receiver operating curve (ROC) is built to estimate

the cutpoint of the Hellinger divergence at which an observed methylation level represents a true DIMP.

There are several criteria to estimate the optimal cutpoint, many of which are implemented in the R

package *OptimalCutpoints* [25]. The optimal cutpoint used in Methyl-IT corresponds to the *H* value that

maximizes Sensitivity and Specificity simultaneously [52, 53]. These analyses were performed with the R

package *Epi* [54].

Once all pairwise comparisons are done, a final decision of whether a DFMP is a DIMP is taken based on

the highest cutpoint detected in the ROC analyses (Fig. 1). That is, the decision is taken based on the

cutpoint estimated in the ROC analysis for the control sample with the closest distribution to treatment

samples. The position of the cutpoint will determine a final posterior classification for which we would

estimate the number of true positive, true negatives, false positives and false negatives. For each cutpoint

we would estimate, the accuracy and the risk of our predictions. We may wish to use different cutpoints

for different situations. For example, if our goal is the early detection of a terminal disease and high

values of the target variable indicates that a patient carries the disease, then to save lives we would prefer

the lowest meaningful cutpoint reducing the rate of false negative.

Estimation of differentially methylated genes (DMGs) using Methyl-IT

Our degree of confidence in whether DIMP counts in both control and treatment represent true biological

signal was set out in the signal detection step. To estimate DMGs, we followed similar steps to those

proposed in Bioconductor R package DESeq2 [55], but the test looks for statistical difference between the

groups based on gene body DIMP counts rather than read counts. The regression analysis of the

generalized linear model (GLMs) with logarithmic link was applied to test the difference between group

counts. The fitting algorithmic approaches provided by *glm* and *glm.nb* functions from the R packages

stat and MASS were used for Poisson (PR), Quasi-Poisson (QPR) and Negative Binomial (NBR) linear

regression analyses, respectively.

Likewise for DESeq2 we used the linear regression model $\log_2(q_{ij}) = \sum_k x_{jk}\beta_{ik}$, with design matrix

elements x_{jk}, coefficients β_{ik}, and mean $\mu_{kj} = s_j q_{kj}$, where s_j normalization constants are considered

constant within a group. Only two groups were compared at a time. The design matrix elements indicate

whether a sample *j* is treated or not, and the GLM fit returns coefficients indicating the overall

methylation strength at the gene and the logarithm base 2 of the fold change (log2FC) between treatment

and control [55]. In particular, in the case of NBR, the inverse of the variance was used as prior weight

$(\sigma_{jk}^{2} = \dfrac{1}{\mu_{ij} + \mu_{ij}disp}$, where *disp* is data dispersion computed by the *estimateDispersions* function from

DESeq2 R package).

To test difference between group counts we applied the fitting algorithmic approaches: PR and PQR if

$\rho < \dfrac{\mu_{ij}}{\sigma_{ij}} \leq 1$ ($0.9 < \rho < 1$), NBR and NBR with '*prior weights*'. Next, best model based on Akaike

information criteria (AIC). The Wald test for significance of the independent variable coefficient indicates

whether or not the treatment effect is significant, while the coefficient sign (*log2FC*) will indicate the

direction of such an effect.

Bootstrap goodness-of-fit test for 2x2 contingency tables

The goodness-of-fit RMST 2x2 contingency tables as implemented in methylpy [17] for the estimation of

DMSs (based on the root-mean-square (RMS) statistics) is explained in Perkins et al. in reference [26](a

complemental description is found at arXiv:1108.4126v2). The bootstrap heuristic to perform the test is

given in reference [56]. An analogous bootstrap goodness-of-fit test based on Hellinger divergence was

also applied to estimate DMPs (HDT). In this case, Hellinger divergence estimated according to the first

statistic given in Theorem 1 from reference [27].

Identification of differentially methylated regions by using BiSeq, DSS and MethyPy

For BiSeq, raw sequence reads were trimmed to remove both poor-quality calls and adapters using Trim

galore! (version 0.4.1) with options --paired --trim1 --gzip --phred33 --fastqc and Cutadapt (version 1.9.1)

with cutoff 20. Remaining sequences were mapped to the Arabidopsis TAIR10 genome using Bismark

(version v0.15.0) [46] and Bowtie2 (Version 2.2.9) [57].Duplicates were removed using the Bismark

deduplicate function, and methylation calls were extracted with Bismark methylation extractor, reading

methylation calls of overlapping parts of the paired reads from the first read (–no_overlap parameter).

Differentially methylated regions were detected with BiSeq (version 1.18.0) [16, 58] with clusters at least

15 methylated sites with 100 bp between clusters.

For DSS, raw sequence reads were trimmed to remove both poor-quality calls and adapters using Trim

galore! (version 0.4.1) with options --paired --trim1 --gzip --phred33 --fastqc and cutadapt (version 1.9.1)

with cutoff 20. Remaining sequences were mapped to the Arabidopsis TAIR10 genome using Bismark

(version v0.15.0) [46] and Bowtie2 (Version 2.2.9)[57]. Duplicates were removed using the Bismark

deduplicate function and methylation calls were extracted with Bismark methylation extractor, reading

methylation calls of overlapping parts of the paired reads from the first read (–no_overlap parameter).

Differentially methylated regions were detected with DSS (Dispersion shrinkage for sequencing data,

version 2.26.0) using the default parameters.

For MethylPy, differentially methylated regions (DMR) were identified using the MethylPy pipeline

(version v0.1.0) [17] and Bowtie2 (Version 2.3.3)[57]. This pipeline used Cutadapt (version >=1.9) to

trim the raw sequence reads to remove both poor-quality calls and adapters. Picard (>=2.10.8) was used

for PCR duplicate removal. Chloroplast DNA sequence was used as the unmethylated control; the

conversion rate observed was between 0.3% - 0.4%. Cytosine sites with less than four reads were

discarded. Adjacent differential methylated sites closer to 100bp were collapsed into DMRs. CNN DMRs,

CGN DMRs, CHG DMRs, and CHH DMRs with fewer than four, eight, four, and four DMSs,

respectively, were discarded in following analyses, and CNN DMRs, CGN DMRs, CHG DMRs, and

CHH DMR candidate regions with less than 0.1, 0.4, 0.2, and 0.1 differences between maximum and

minimum methylation levels were also discarded.

For Methyl-IT, raw sequence reads were trimmed to remove both poor-quality calls and adapters using

Trim galore! (version 0.4.1) with options --paired --trim1 --gzip --phred33 --fastqc and Cutadapt (version

1.9.1) with cutoff 20. Remaining sequences were mapped to the Arabidopsis TAIR10 genome using

Bismark (version v0.15.0) [46]; and Bowtie2 (Version 2.2.9) [57]. Duplicates were removed using the

Bismark deduplicate function and methylation calls were extracted with Bismark methylation extractor,

reading methylation calls of overlapping parts of the paired reads from the first read (–no_overlap

parameter). Differentially methylated regions were detected with Methyl-IT, using cytosine sites with at

least 4 reads, and with default parameters.

Since methods DSS, BiSeq and Methylpy do not provide an equivalent concept to DMGs, we adopted the

concept of *DMR associated genes* (DAGs) introduced in reference [18]. Basically, *a gene and a DMR are*

associated if the DMR is located within 2 kb of gene upstream regions, gene bodies and 2 kb of gene

downstream regions [18].

Available methylome datasets used in this work

Methylome datasets from Arabidopsis (Ws-0) major seed developmental phases, globular stage (GLOB), linear cotyledon stage (COT), mature green stage (MG), post mature green stage (PMG) and dry seed, and Arabidopsis (Col-0) germination datasets of dry seed and 0-4 days after imbibition were analyzed. Ws-0 seed development and germination datasets were obtained from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under accession numbers GSE68132 and GSE94710. Both dataset were original studied by Kawakatsu et al. (2017) [18].

Network enrichment analysis

Network based enrichment analysis (NBEA) was applied using the EnrichmentBrowser R package [59, 60] and the Network Enrichment Analysis Test (NEAT) was performed by using the R package "neat" version 1.1.1[60].

These network enrichment approaches permitted identification of main network regulators involved in the *msh1* memory transgenerational effect and in seed developmental and germination datasets.

Individual sample gene CG methylation principal component analysis (PCA) and classification

Individual samples were represented as vectors of variables carrying the mean of CG Hellinger divergence covering gene regions delimited by Arabidopsis *msh1*-memory DMGs. Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on the individual vector-spaces determined by the gene regions: 1) DMGs , 2) intersection DEGs (*msh1*-memory)/DMGs, and 3) intersection NBEA-DMG/NBEA-DEG between the subsets derived from independent NBEA on the subsets DMGs and DEGs, respectively. PCA and hierarchical cluster analysis were applied by using *prcomp* and *hclust* functions, respectively, from the R package *stats*.

Specific locus bisulfite sequencing PCR

To confirm our analysis for DIMP calling based on methylome sequencing, PCR-based bisulfite sequencing was performed. Genomic DNA from leaf tissue of 4-week-old plants was isolated by the DNeasy Plant Kit (Qiagen, Germany). 400 ng of genomic DNA was bisulfite-treated using EpiMark Bisulfite Conversion Kit (New England Biolabs, USA). Bisulfite-treated DNA was used as template for PCR in a 25 ul reaction system by using EpiMark Hot Start Taq DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs,

USA), in the PCR program: Initial denaturation 30 sec at 95 °C, 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 sec ,45°C for 30

sec, 68°C for 1 min, and final extension 5 min at 68 °C. PCR product was gel-purified using kit (Qiagen,

Germany) and ligated to TOPO TA cloning kit (Life, USA) for sequencing. At least 25 independent

clones were sequenced. Bisulfite DNA sequence methylation status was analyzed by the online program

"Kismeth". Methylation at locus AT5G66750 was used as a control for bisulfite conversion. Primers used

in this experiment are listed in the Additional file 14 Table S13.

Plant materials and growth conditions

734   For Arabidopsis plants used in this study, clean seeds were sown on peat mix in square pots, with

735   stratification at 4 °C for 2 days before moving to growth chamber (22 °C, 120-150 μ mol·m^{-2}·s^{-1} light).

736   Tomato seeds were germinated on MetroMix 200 medium (SunGro, USA) in square pots and grown in a

737   reach-in chamber (26 °C, 300 μ mol·m^{-2}·s^{-1} light).

5-azacytidine treatment

The 5-azacytidine treatment protocol was adopted from Griffin et al [57] and Yang et al [30]. Col-0 wild

type and *msh1* memory line seeds were surface-sterilized in 10% (v/v) sodium hypochlorite, rinsed

thoroughly with sterile water, and sown in 8-oz clear cups (Fabri-Kal, USA) containing 30 mL 0.5 M

Murashige and Skoog medium (Sigma, USA) supplemented with 1% (w/v) agar and 0 (control) or 100

μM 5-azacytidine (Sigma, USA). The 100 μM concentration was derived from a concentration gradient

experiment of 4 concentrations (0 μM, 30 μM ,50 μM ,100 μM) where 100 μM showed visible impact on

plant growth for both wild type Col-0 and *msh1* memory line plants. Seeds were germinated and grown at

24°C, 18-h day length, and 120-150 μ mol·m^{-2}·s^{-1} light intensity for 14 days. 10 days old seedling on the

MS medium were collected for RNAseq experiment. For longer observation, the treated plants were

transferred to square pots with soil and grow under standard conditions in the growth chamber. The

experiment was repeated three times, with at least 18 replicates per treatment each experiment.

Sample collection for circadian clock gene expression assays

To assess the expression pattern of core circadian clock genes under clock-driven free running conditions,

we adopted the protocol of [38]. Plants were entrained at LD condition (12 hr light/ 12 hr dark) for 4

weeks, then moved to LL (24 hr constant light) for 48 hours before sample collection was initiated.

For expression of core circadian clock genes under life-like conditions, plants were entrained at LD (12 hr

light/12 hr dark) for 4 weeks before samples were collected. The entire above-ground plant was collected

and placed into liquid nitrogen. Samples were taken every 4 hr (ZT6, ZT10, ZT14, ZT18, ZT22,

ZT26.ZT30, ZT34, ZT38, ZT42, ZT46, ZT50) in both LD and LL conditions. For each genotype at each

time point, at least 3 plants were collected and used in qPCR experiments as biological replicates.

An identical sample collection strategy, and LD, LL entrainment conditions, were used for tomato

circadian clock gene expression experiments.

Gene Expression Analysis by qPCR

The MIQE [61] was used as standard protocol for the qPCR experiments. Briefly, total RNA from each

sample was extracted by NucleoSpin RNA Plant kit (Macherey-Nagel, Germany) following

manufacturer's protocol, including genomic DNA removal. First-strand cDNA was synthesized from

400ng total RNA with oligo primers using iScript Reverse Transcription Supermix for RT-PCR (Bio-Rad,

USA). The qPCR was performed on the CFX real-time system (Bio-Rad, USA) with 95 °C for 3 min, 40

cycles of 95 °C for 30 sec and 60 °C for 1 min. Three biological replicates were performed. RNA

abundance of target genes was calculated from the average of four technical replicates using $\Delta \Delta Cq$

method, where Cq is the cycle number at which amplification signal reaches saturation in each PCR run.

The Cq values of AT4G05320 and AT5G15710 were used as normalization controls in the calculation.

Real-time PCR primers used in this study and their reference are listed in Supplemental Primers Table.

The PCR amplification efficiency was calculated based on a calibration standard curve specific for each

primer set, and only primers having amplification efficiency greater than 0.97 were used in the study.

Sample preparation and bisulfite DNA methylome sequencing

For Arabidopsis genome-wide bisulfite methylome sequencing experiments, three individual plants of

wild type *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotype Col-0 and three isogenic *msh1* memory line plants were used. All

wild type control plants selected from negative events of RNAi transformation and were maintained in

parallel with their msh1 memory counterparts. Whole plants at early bolting were flash frozen in liquid

nitrogen. Tissues were ground by motor and pestle in liquid nitrogen, and divided to two, with one half

processed by DNeasy Plant Kit (Qiagen, Germany) for genomic DNA (RNA removed) and subsequent

bisulfite sequencing. The other half was used for RNA extraction by NucleoSpin RNA Plant Kit

(Macherey-Nagel, Germany) following manufacturer's protocol, including genomic DNA removal, for

RNA-seq analysis.

For tomato bisulfite sequencing, wild type tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* cv Rutgers) and the

corresponding MSH1-RNAi transgene-null segregant (*msh1* memory line) were used. Phenotype and line

generation details can be found in [30]. The top three leaves from each four-week-old tomato plant were

collected and frozen in liquid nitrogen, followed by genomic DNA extraction using DNeasy Plant Kit

(Qiagen, Germany). Genomic DNA from three individual plants for both WT and *msh1* memory line

were used for BSseq.

All BSseq experiments were conducted on the Hiseq 4000 analyzer (Illumina, USA) at BGI-Tech

(Shenzhen, China) according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, Genomic DNA was sonicated to

100-300 bp fragments and purified with MiniElute PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Germany), and

incubated at $20^{o}C$ after adding End Repair Mix. DNA was purified, a single 'A' nucleotide added to the 3'

ends of blunt fragments, purified again and Methylated Adapter was added to 5' and 3' ends of each

fragment. Fragments of 300-400 bp size range were purified with QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen,

Germany) and subjected to bisulfite treatment by Methylation-Gold Kit (ZYMO). These steps were

followed by PCR and gel purification (350-400 bp fragments were selected). Qualified libraries were

paired-end sequenced on the HiSeq X-ten system.

RNA sequencing and analysis

RNA libraries were constructed as described in the TruSeq RNA Sample Preparation v2 Guide. These

libraries were sequenced with the 150-bp reads option, in Hi-Seq 4000 analyzer (Illumina, USA) at BGI-

Tech (Shenzhen, China). Alignments were performed using RUM 2.0.4 (default parameters) [62] keeping

only uniquely mapped reads. The read count data were generated from the SAM files by using QoRTs

software package[63]. DESeq2 [55] was used for gene count normalization and to identify differentially

expressed genes (FDR < 0.05, $|log2FC| > 0.5$.

Abbreviations

AUC: Area under the receiver operating characteristic curve

MSH1: MUTS HOMOLOG 1

CDM: Cytosine DNA methylation

DAGs: DMR associated genes

DEG: Differentially expressed gene

DIMPs: Differentially informative methylated positions

DMGs: Differentially methylated genes

DMPs: Differentially methylated positions

DMRs: differentially methylated regions

DSS: Dispersion Shrinkage for Sequencing

FET: Fisher's exact test

GLM: generalized linear regression model

HD: Hellinger divergence

HDT: goodness-of-fit test based on Hellinger divergence

NEAT: Network Enrichment Analysis Test

NBEA: Network based enrichment analysis

RMST: Root-mean-square test

ROC: Receiver operating characteristic curve

SD: Signal detection

TVD: total variation distance

PMS: Potential/putative methylation signal

Acknowledgments

838   We thank Ojus Jain and Kasim Hamo for technical assistance. We also thank Dr. Yingzhi Xu for valuable

839   conversations early in the study. The data presented in this manuscript are tabulated in the main text and

840   supplementary materials.

Funding

842   The work was supported by funding from NSF-SBIR (2015-33610-23428-UNL) and the Bill and Melinda

843   Gates Foundation (OPP1088661).

Availability of data and materials

The Methyl-IT pipeline source code is available at the GitLab: https://git.psu.edu/genomath/MethylIT

Seed development methylome data (accession number GSE68132) were obtained from the Gene

Expression Omnibus database.

All Next Generation Sequencing data generated by this study are deposited to Gene Expression Omnibus

database under accession numbers listed:

Arabidopsis methylome (GSE106309), Arabidopsis *msh1* memory 4 week old plant RNAseq

(GSE106536), Arabidopsis 10 days old seedling 5-azacytidine treatment RNAseq (GSE109164), Tomato

methylome (GSE105008).

Authors' contributions

R.S. developed the application of the information thermodynamic theory on cytosine DNA methylation

and conducted mathematical and computational biology analyses, XY, HK and YW designed and

conducted biological experiments, JRB conducted computation. SM designed experiments, participated in

data analysis and wrote manuscript.

Competing interests

S. Mackenzie has served as co-founder for a company that tests the MSH1 system for possible

agricultural commercial value.

Consent for publication

Not applicable

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable

Figures

Fig. 1 Diagrammatic representation of the theoretical principle behind Methyl-IT. Methyl-IT is designed
to identify a statistically significant cutoff between thermal system noise (conforming to laws of statistical
physics) and treatment signal (biological methylation signal), based on Hellinger divergence (H), to
identify "true" differentially informative methylation positions (DIMPs). Empirical comparisons allow
the placement of Fisher's exact test for discrimination of DMPs.

Fig. 2 Methyl-IT processing flowchart. Ovals represent input and output data, squares represent
processing steps, with signal detection processing steps highlighted in blue and DIMPs and DMGRs, as
main outputs of Methyl-IT, highlighted in yellow. The generalized linear model is incorporated for group
comparison of genomic regions (GRs) based on the number of DIMPs in the treatment group relative to
control group. DIMPs and DMGRs can be subjected to further statistical analyses to perform network
enrichment analysis and to identify potential signature genes, multivariate statistical analysis (and
machine learning applications) for individual and group classifications.

Fig. 3 Venn diagrams of overlapping DMSs (RMST implemented in Methylpy software), DMPs.adj
(obtained with Fisher Exact Test), DMPs (DMPs.HDT, obtained with HDT, see methods) and DIMPs
(obtained with Methyl-IT) in the memory line. Only methylated cytosine positions with total variation
distance (TVD) greater than 0.23 (23% of methylation level difference) are shown for the three
methylation contexts. Only DIMPs carry methylation signal (region within the dashed oval). Notice that
any DMPs and DMSs outside the dashed oval (if any would be found in a different dataset or for TVD <
0.23) follow a Weibull distribution on a statistical mechanical basis as described in Fig.1. In such a case,
with high probability, these DMPs and DMSs correspond to "background" methylation patterning and do
not correspond to signal. This background effects can be discriminated by application of a signal
detection step against a specific control (in this case, wild type Col-0 under the same experimental
conditions).

Fig. 4 Results of signal detection with Methyl-IT for genome-wide methylome data from the *msh1-*
memory line (ML), a Col-0 wildtype pool (WT), seed development data from Kawakatsu et al [18] at five
seed stages (GLOB, COT, MG, PMG, DRY) and leaf (globular (GLOB) stage used as control), and
various Col-0 generational lineage samples (L1-L119) taken from Becker et al [3]. The experimental

results provide a direct, scaled comparison of methylation signal between datasets. The relative frequency

of DIMPs was estimated as the number of DIMPs divided by the number of cytosine positions.

Fig. 5 Comparison of DMR associated genes identified by DSS, BiSeq, MethylPy and DMGs predicted

by Methyl-IT for *msh1* memory dataset. (**a**) Venn Diagram showing a comparison of DMR associated

genes (DAGs) identified with the three methylome analysis programs DSS, BiSeq and MethylPy. (**b**)

Venn Diagram showing a comparison of differentially methylated genes (DMGs) identified with Methyl-

IT and the DAGs with the methylome analysis programs DSS, BiSeq, MethylPy. DMGs for gene regions

plus 2kb upstream and downstream are shown, and only DIMPs with $TVD > 0.15$ were counted for DMG

estimations.

Fig. 6 *MSH1* disruption produces transgenerational memory. (**a**) Pedigree of *msh1* memory line. (**b**)

Phenotypic range in different types of *MSH1*-derived development reprogramming, with *msh1* memory

plants uniformly reduced in growth rate, delayed flowering and pale leaves. Seedling stage photo at 4

weeks and floral stage at 6 weeks. (**c**) *MSH1* expression levels in *msh1* memory and *MSH1*- RNAi line.

Each column represents one individual plant, error bars represent ± SD of 9 technical replicates. (**d**)

Functional enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes in *msh1* memory line and *msh1* T-DNA

mutant. GO enrichment categories (above cutoff FDR<0.01) are shown.

Fig. 7 Application of network-based enrichment analysis (NBEA) on Methyl-IT-based differentially

methylated genes (DMGs) identifies signature pathways associated with *msh1* memory phenotype. (**a**)

Venn diagram showing intersection between independent assays of *msh1* memory-associated gene

expression and methylation changes. The main intersection from DMGs and DEGs datasets, and their

corresponding result with the application of NBEA, identified 16 putative regulatory loci. (**b-d**) Examples

of identified regulatory genes and the network in which they participate. The expression change (up,

green or down, red) is indicated, as well as the inconsistent change trends, marked as blue lines.

Fig. 8 Principal component analysis (PCA) and classification of individual samples based on genic CG

methylation identifies primary contributors to the memory effect. (**a**) A three-dimensional representation

of PCA outcomes with the set of all differentially methylated genes (DMGs). Samples are color-coded;

"wild type segregant" (WTS) represents a wild type plant derived from crossing of the *msh1* T-DNA

mutant with wild type Col-0, while "wild type" (WT) represents Col-0. The centroid from each group is

represented by a large sphere connected by straight lines to smaller ones representing individual groups.

Red arrows represent the magnitude and direction of the contributions to each PC by the first two genes

with the greatest loadings. The square of the loadings reveals the proportion of variance of one variable

explained by one principal component, while its sign gives the direction of gene contribution to a given

component. (**b**) PCA performed at the intersection of DEGs and DMGs. (**c**) PCA performed at the

intersection of the DMG and DEG subsets derived from independent network-based enrichment analyses

(NBEA-DMG/NBEA-DEG) (see Fig. 7). These are genes involved in regulatory pathways. Since the two

first PCs carry most of the total explained variance, panels A, B, and C, suggest that the weight of the

sample classification rests on the planes defined by PC1 and PC2 (PC1-PC2), as observed in the

projections of the spheres (shadows) on these planes. A straight-line can be drawn on the planes PC1-PC2

(black dashed-line) to clearly classify the samples into two groups, wild type versus msh1 effect (WTS,

DW, and MM). Thus, there is a discriminant function or a support vector to accomplish the classification.

(**d**) Hierarchical clustering with individual PC coordinates from the PCA on the intersection subset

NBEA-DMG/NBEA-DEG. (**e**) Correlation of genes from the subset NBEA-DMG/NBEA-DEG with the

first three principal components. All the genes reported in (e) carry a negative contribution to PC1 (which

carries a total explained variance of about 65%). The effect of these genes significantly separates the

msh1 effect (DW, WTS, and ML) from the wildtype control (WT). Asterisks indicate genes included in

the list of 16 signatures for msh1 memory.

Fig. 9 Altered methylation was assayed at circadian clock loci. DIMP calling by Methyl-IT (only CG

shown) in the *msh1* memory line at *GI* (**a**), *TOC-1*(**b**), *LHY*(**c**) and *CCA1*(**d**) regions is represented by

black vertical bars. The gene structure and coordinates were adopted from TAIR10, with thickest bar for

exons, medium bar for UTRs, and dotted line for introns. DIMP calling was further confirmed by specific

bisulfite-PCR sequencing. The green bar represents the amplification interval designed to detect DIMPs

within the *GI* gene, and the blue bar represent the interval used as negative control (no DIMPs predicted).

The PCR result is presented in (**e**) for primer set BS-GI-P2 and (**f**) for primer set BS-GI-P7. Dot-plot

analysis was applied to bisulfite sequencing result. Red, blue, and green circles represent CG, CHG and

CHH respectively (methylation solid, no methylation blank). Each line represents one clone sequenced,

and at least 15 clones were sequenced for each PCR reaction.

Fig. 10 Test of altered circadian behavior in the Arabidopsis *msh1* memory line. Relative transcript levels

of indicated genes in wild type (dashed line) and *msh1* memory (solid line) grown under LL (24 hours

light) following entrainment for 4 weeks under LD (12 hours light,12 hours dark) (a, b, c, d) or retained

under LD (e, f, g, h). Zeitgeber time (ZT) indicates the sampling time (with ZT0 when light starts).

Transcript levels were measured by qPCR, and expression levels were normalized to the highest peak of

WT control. Error bars represent mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates.

Fig. 11 RNA-seq analysis of expression in circadian clock-regulated genes in the Arabidopsis *msh1*

memory line. (**a**) Genes under *TOC1* and *CCA1* regulation are represented at 10.4% in *msh1* TDNA

DEGs, increasing to 33.1% in *msh1* memory line DEGs. The analysis used published *CCA1* and *TOC1*

binding site CHIP-seq data [38, 64] and RNA-seq data from *msh1* TDNA and *msh1* memory line.

Selected, significantly altered, circadian clock-regulated pathways in *msh1* memory line are shown as (**b**)

response to ethylene, (**c**) response to abscisic acid, (**d**) response to cold, and (**e**) starch metabolic process.

Important genes in each pathway are listed with expression level, compared to wild type, indicated by

color boxes. The full list of DEGs can be found in Additional File 6: Table S5 for *msh1* memory, and

Additional File 7: Table S8 for *msh1* TDNA.

Fig. 12 Testing altered methylation pattern, circadian rhythm core genes and downstream gene expression

behavior in the tomato *msh1* memory line. (**a**) Venn Diagram for DMGs in tomato *msh1* memory (SL.

DMGs) versus Arabidopsis *msh1* memory (AT. DMGs) and their corresponding NBEA subsets. For SL.

DMGs, only the best two mappings of each tomato gene to an Arabidopsis locus, obtained with BLAST

aligner, were taken into account. (**b**) Expression patterns of tomato *TOC1* and *LHY* in wild type (circle,

dashed line) and *msh1* memory (circle, solid line) grown under LD (12 hours light,12 hours dark) were

assayed by quantitative real-time PCR. (**c**) The expression patterns of three circadian clock-regulated

genes, *SlABF* (Solyc11g044560)*, SlERFC.5*(Solyc02g077370), and *SlWRKY31*(Solyc06g066370) were

assayed by quantitative real-time PCR under LD (12 hours light, 12 hours day) conditions. For both (**b**)

and (c), relative expression was calculated by normalizing to the highest value of corresponding wild type

in each biological replicate. Error bars represent mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates.

1000

1001

1002

1003 **Tables**

1004 **Table 1.** Relative sensitivity differences between several statistical tests applied to identify differentially

1005 methylated cytosines. P-values for the 2x2 contingency table with read counts $n_i^{mC_c} = 8$, $n_i^{C_c} = 2$,

1006 $n_i^{mC_t} = 350$, and $n_i^{C_t} = 20$.

Approach	*p*-value
FET	0.108615
FET one tail	0.108615
FET *p*.value MC 3k[1]	0.1086
RMST Boot 3k[2]	0.051
HT Boot 3k [3]	0.050667
Weibull ML1 CG[4]	0.000118
Weibull ML2 CG[4]	1.67E-05
Weibull ML3 CG[4]	2.21E-05

[1]*p*.value simulated with Monte Carlo (MC) simulation with 3000 resamplings (3k). [2]Bootstrap goodness-of-fit

RMST as implemented in Methylpy [17]. [3]Bootstrap goodness-of-fit test based on Hellinger divergence estimated

according to the first statistic given Theorem 1 from reference [27]. [3]*p*-value based on the Weibull distribution for

memory lines (ML 1 to 3). n_i^{mCc} refers to methylated cytosine counts in control, n_i^{Cc} refers to non-methylated

cytosine counts in control, n_i^{mCt} refers to methylated cytosine counts in treatment and n_i^{Ct} refers to non-methylated

cytosine counts in treatment.The R script to compute RMST and *H* MC estimation is provided in GitLab:

https://git.psu.edu/genomath/MethylIT

1014

1015

1016

1017 **Table 2.** Network enrichment analysis test (NEAT) on the set of GO-biological process (BP-GO) for the

1018 differentially methylated genes in Ws-0 seed development dataset.

1019

BP-GO	NAB	Expected NAB	Adj. *p*-value
GO:0000902 cell morphogenesis	3	0.2492	0.00280
GO:0006623 protein targeting to vacuole	4	0.299	< 0.001
GO:0006891 intra-Golgi vesicle-mediated transport	4	0.3323	< 0.001
GO:0009723 response to ethylene	8	2.9072	0.00873
GO:0009740 gibberellic acid mediated signaling pathway	5	0.9802	0.00375
GO:0009845 seed germination	6	1.3456	0.00301
GO:0009938 negative regulation of gibberellic acid mediated signaling pathway	4	0.2658	< 0.001
GO:0010162 seed dormancy process	5	1.03	0.00434
GO:0010187 negative regulation of seed germination	3	0.4319	0.00916
GO:0010325 raffinose family oligosaccharide biosynthetic process	5	0.3323	0.00102
GO:0016049 cell growth	3	0.3655	0.00640
GO:0016192 vesicle-mediated transport	5	0.3987	< 0.001
GO:0016197 endosomal transport	2	0.0665	0.00280
GO:0048444 floral organ morphogenesis	5	0.3323	< 0.001
GO:2000033 regulation of seed dormancy process	3	0.1994	0.0017
GO:2000377 regulation of reactive oxygen species metabolic process	4	0.4153	0.00154

1020

1021 Only over-enriched pathways are included

1022 NAB: observed number of (network) links from DMG list to GO term gene list

1023 Expected NAB: expected number of links from DMG list to GO term gene list (in absence of enrichment)

1024 Enrichment Fold: the ratio of NAB (observed number of network links) / expected nab (expected number of links)

1039   **Table 3.** Putative signature genes for *msh1* memory line

	Gene ID	Alias	Short functional involving
1*	AT1G01060	LHY	Myb-related transcription factor involved in circadian rhythm
2*	AT1G22770	GI	GIGANTEA, circadian clock-controlled flowering pathway
3*	AT5G60100	PRR3	Affects the period of the circadian clock and seedlings
4*	AT1G04400	CRY2	Blue light signaling pathway (circadian rhythm). Positive flowering-time regulator
5*	AT5G61380	TOC1	involved in the generation of circadian rhythms
6*	AT2G46830	CCA1	Circadian clock associated 1, a transcriptional repressor.
7*	AT1G09570	PHYA	Phytochrome A. involved in the regulation of photomorphogenesis
8*	AT2G25930	ELF3	Required component of the core circadian clock regardless of light conditions
9*	AT5G62430	CDF1	Circadian regulator of flowering time
10*	AT1G68050	ADO3	FKF1 protein clock-controlled. Regulates transition to flowering (circadian rhythm)
11	AT3G50500	SRK2D	ABA signaling, activated by salt and non-ionic osmotic stress
12	AT5G25350	EBF2	EIN3-binding F-box protein involved in ethylene-activated signaling pathway
13	AT1G49720	ABF1	Positive regulator of transcription in abscisic acid-activated signaling pathway
14	AT3G50500	SRK2D	ABA signaling during seed germination
15	AT5G03730	CTR1	Negative regulator in the ethylene signal transduction pathway
16	AT2G27050	EIL1	Transcription factor activity involved in ethylene mediated signaling pathway

1040   Genes directly associated with plant circadian core component are indicated with "*****"

1041

Additional files

1043   **Additional file 1: Figures S1 to S10**

1044

1045   **AddItional file 2: Table S1** Absolute DIMPs counts and DIMPs counts per genomic region for seed

1046   development and germination datasets

1047

1048   **Additional file 3: Table S2** DMGs Arabidopsis (ws-0) seed development dataset

1049

1050   **Additional file 4: Table S3** DMGs from Arabidopis memory line

1051

1052   **Additional file 5 Table S4** List of seed development DMGs found in networks based on NEAT

1053

1054   **Additional file 6: Table S5** Total 955 of DEGs of Arabidopsis msh1-memory-line

1055

1056   **Additional file 7: Table S6** Total 9867 DMGs of Arabidopsis TDNA mutant

1057

1058   **Additional file 8: Table S7** NBEA analysis of DEGs in Arabidopsis msh1 memory line

1059

1060   **Additional file 9: Table S8** NEAT and NBEA analysis on DMGs from arabidopsis msh1 memory line

1061

1062   **Additional file 10: Table S9** DIMPs distribution in 16 regulatory genes in msh1 memory individual
1063   plants

1064

1065   **Additional file 11: Table S10** DMGs in tomato msh1 memory line

1066

1067   **Additional file 12: Table S11** NBEA analysis of DMGs in tomato msh1 memory line

1068

1069   **Additional file 13: Table S12** Main intersection between Arabidopsis and tomato DMGs NBEA list

1070

1071   **Additional file 14: Table S13** Primers used in this paper

1072

References

1.   Calarco JP, Borges F, Donoghue MTA, Van Ex F, Jullien PE, Lopes T, Gardner R,
Berger F, Feijo JA, Becker JD, Martienssen RA: Reprogramming of DNA Methylation
in Pollen Guides Epigenetic Inheritance via Small RNA. Cell 2012. 151:194-205.
2.   Schmitz RJ, Schultz MD, Lewsey MG, O'Malley RC, Urich MA, Libiger O, Schork NJ,
Ecker JR: Transgenerational Epigenetic Instability Is a Source of Novel Methylation
Variants. Science 2011. 334:369-373.
3.   Becker C, Hagmann J, Muller J, Koenig D, Stegle O, Borgwardt K, Weigel D:
Spontaneous epigenetic variation in the Arabidopsis thaliana methylome. Nature
2011. 480:245-U127.
4.   Matzke MA, Mosher RA: RNA-directed DNA methylation: an epigenetic pathway of
increasing complexity (vol 15, 394, 2014). Nature Reviews Genetics 2014. 15.
5.   Crisp PA, Ganguly D, Eichten SR, Borevitz JO, Pogson BJ: Reconsidering plant
memory: Intersections between stress recovery, RNA turnover, and epigenetics.
Science Advances 2016. 2.

6.   Kinoshita T, Seki M: Epigenetic Memory for Stress Response and Adaptation in

Plants. Plant and Cell Physiology 2014. 55:1859-1863.

7.   Colaneri AC, Jones AM: Genome-Wide Quantitative Identification of DNA

Differentially Methylated Sites in Arabidopsis Seedlings Growing at Different Water

Potential. Plos One 2013. 8.

8.   Jenkinson G, Pujadas E, Goutsias J, Feinberg AP: Potential energy landscapes identify

the information-theoretic nature of the epigenome. Nature Genetics 2017. 49:719-+.

9.   Sanchez R, Mackenzie SA: Information Thermodynamics of Cytosine DNA

Methylation. Plos One 2016. 11.

10.   Sanchez R, Mackenzie SA: Genome-Wide Discriminatory Information Patterns of

Cytosine DNA Methylation. International Journal of Molecular Sciences 2016. 17.

11.   Greiner M, Pfeiffer D, Smith RD: Principles and practical application of the receiver-

operating characteristic analysis for diagnostic tests. Prev Vet Med 2000. 45:23-41.

12.   Carter JV, Pan J, Rai SN, Galandiuk S: ROC-ing along: Evaluation and interpretation of

receiver operating characteristic curves. Surgery 2016. 159:1638-1645.

13.   Harpaz R, DuMouchel W, LePendu P, Bauer-Mehren A, Ryan P, Shah NH:

Performance of pharmacovigilance signal-detection algorithms for the FDA adverse

event reporting system. Clin Pharmacol Ther 2013. 93:539-546.

14.   Kruspe S, Dickey DD, Urak KT, Blanco GN, Miller MJ, Clark KC, Burghardt E, Gutierrez

WR, Phadke SD, Kamboj S, et al: Rapid and Sensitive Detection of Breast Cancer Cells

in Patient Blood with Nuclease-Activated Probe Technology. Mol Ther Nucleic Acids

2017. 8:542-557.

15.   Wu H, Xu T, Feng H, Chen L, Li B, Yao B, Qin Z, Jin P, Conneely KN: Detection of

differentially methylated regions from whole-genome bisulfite sequencing data

without replicates. Nucleic Acids Res 2015. 43:e141.

16.   Hebestreit K, Dugas M, Klein HU: Detection of significantly differentially methylated

regions in targeted bisulfite sequencing data. Bioinformatics 2013. 29:1647-1653.

17.   Schultz MD, He Y, Whitaker JW, Hariharan M, Mukamel EA, Leung D, Rajagopal N,

Nery JR, Urich MA, Chen H, et al: Human body epigenome maps reveal noncanonical

DNA methylation variation. Nature 2015. 523:212-216.

18.   Kawakatsu T, Nery JR, Castanon R, Ecker JR: Dynamic DNA methylation

reconfiguration during seed development and germination. Genome Biol 2017.

18:171.

19.   Virdi KS, Laurie JD, Xu YZ, Yu JT, Shao MR, Sanchez R, Kundariya H, Wang D,

Riethoven JJM, Wamboldt Y, et al: Arabidopsis MSH1 mutation alters the epigenome

and produces heritable changes in plant growth. Nature Communications 2015. 6.

20.   Virdi KS, Wamboldt Y, Kundariya H, Laurie JD, Keren I, Kumar KRS, Block A, Basset

G, Luebker S, Elowsky C, et al: MSH1 Is a Plant Organellar DNA Binding and

Thylakoid Protein under Precise Spatial Regulation to Alter Development. Molecular

Plant 2016. 9:245-260.

21.   Davila JI, Arrieta-Montiel MP, Wamboldt Y, Cao J, Hagmann J, Shedge V, Xu YZ,

Weigel D, Mackenzie SA: Double-strand break repair processes drive evolution of

the mitochondrial genome in Arabidopsis. Bmc Biology 2011. 9.

22.   Xu YZ, Arrieta-Montiel MP, Virdi KS, de Paula WBM, Widhalm JR, Basset GJ, Davila JI,

Elthon TE, Elowsky CG, Sato SJ, et al: MutS HOMOLOG1 Is a Nucleoid Protein That

Alters Mitochondrial and Plastid Properties and Plant Response to High Light. Plant

Cell 2011. 23:3428-3441.

23.   Xu YZ, Santamaria RD, Virdi KS, Arrieta-Montiel MP, Razvi F, Li SQ, Ren GD, Yu B,

Alexander D, Guo LN, et al: The Chloroplast Triggers Developmental

Reprogramming When MUTS HOMOLOG1 Is Suppressed in Plants. Plant Physiology

2012. 159:710-+.

24.   Shao MR, Raju SKK, Laurie JD, Sanchez R, Mackenzie SA: Stress-responsive pathways

and small RNA changes distinguish variable developmental phenotypes caused by

MSH1 loss. Bmc Plant Biology 2017. 17.

25.   Mónica López-Ratón MXR-Á, Carmen Cadarso-Suárez, Francisco Gude-Sampedro:

OptimalCutpoints: An R Package for Selecting Optimal Cutpoints in Diagnostic Tests.

Journal of statistical software 2014.61:4896.

26.   William Perkins MT, Rachel Ward: Computing the confidence levels for a root-mean-

square test of goodness-of-fit. Applied Mathematics and Computation 2011.

217:9072-9084.

27.   F. Liese IV: On Divergences and Informations in Statistics and Information Theory.
IEEE Transactions on Information Theory 2006. 52:4394 - 4412.

28.   Le BH, Cheng C, Bui AQ, Wagmaister JA, Henry KF, Pelletier J, Kwong L, Belmonte M,
Kirkbride R, Horvath S, et al: Global analysis of gene activity during Arabidopsis
seed development and identification of seed-specific transcription factors. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A 2010. 107:8063-8070.

29.   Bassel GW, Lan H, Glaab E, Gibbs DJ, Gerjets T, Krasnogor N, Bonner AJ, Holdsworth
MJ, Provart NJ: Genome-wide network model capturing seed germination reveals
coordinated regulation of plant cellular phase transitions. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A
2011. 108:9709-9714.

30.   Yang XD, Kundariya H, Xu YZ, Sandhu A, Yu JT, Hutton SF, Zhang MF, Mackenzie SA:
MutS HOMOLOG1-Derived Epigenetic Breeding Potential in Tomato. Plant
Physiology 2015. 168:222-U390.

31.   Sanchez SE, Kay SA: The Plant Circadian Clock: From a Simple Timekeeper to a
Complex Developmental Manager. Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology 2016,
8.

32.   Lefebvre A, Mauffret O, el Antri S, Monnot M, Lescot E, Fermandjian S: Sequence
dependent effects of CpG cytosine methylation. A joint 1H-NMR and 31P-NMR study.
Eur J Biochem 1995. 229:445-454.

33.   Nathan D, Crothers DM: Bending and flexibility of methylated and unmethylated
EcoRI DNA. J Mol Biol 2002. 316:7-17.

34.   Severin PM, Zou X, Gaub HE, Schulten K: Cytosine methylation alters DNA
mechanical properties. Nucleic Acids Res 2011. 39:8740-8751.

35.   Huang SC, Ecker JR: Piecing together cis-regulatory networks: insights from
epigenomics studies in plants. Wiley Interdiscip Rev Syst Biol Med 2017.

36.   Marchal C, Miotto B: Emerging concept in DNA methylation: role of transcription
factors in shaping DNA methylation patterns. J Cell Physiol 2015. 230:743-751.

37.   Naftelberg S, Schor IE, Ast G, Kornblihtt AR: Regulation of Alternative Splicing
Through Coupling with Transcription and Chromatin Structure. Annual Review of
Biochemistry, Vol 84 2015. 84:165-198.

38.   Nagel DH, Doherty CJ, Pruneda-Paz JL, Schmitz RJ, Ecker JR, Kay SA: Genome-wide

1179   identification of CCA1 targets uncovers an expanded clock network in Arabidopsis.

1180   Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America

1181   2015. 112:E4802-E4810.

1182   39.   De Lucia F, Crevillen P, Jones AME, Greb T, Dean C: A PHD-Polycomb Repressive

1183   Complex 2 triggers the epigenetic silencing of FLC during vernalization. Proceedings

1184   of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2008.

1185   105:16831-16836.

1186   40.   Grundy J, Stoker C, Carre IA: Circadian regulation of abiotic stress tolerance in

1187   plants. Frontiers in Plant Science 2015. 6.

1188   41.   Lee KH, Piao HL, Kim HY, Choi SM, Jiang F, Hartung W, Hwang I, Kwak JM, Lee IJ,

1189   Hwang I: Activation of glucosidase via stress-induced polymerization rapidly

1190   increases active pools of abscisic acid. Cell 2006. 126:1109-1120.

1191   42.   Legnaioli T, Cuevas J, Mas P: TOC1 functions as a molecular switch connecting the

1192   circadian clock with plant responses to drought. Embo Journal 2009. 28:3745-3757.

1193   43.   Graf A, Schlereth A, Stitt M, Smith AM: Circadian control of carbohydrate availability

1194   for growth in Arabidopsis plants at night. Proceedings of the National Academy of

1195   Sciences of the United States of America 2010. 107:9458-9463.

1196   44.   Ni ZF, Kim ED, Ha MS, Lackey E, Liu JX, Zhang YR, Sun QX, Chen ZJ: Altered circadian

1197   rhythms regulate growth vigour in hybrids and allopolyploids. Nature 2009.

1198   457:327-U327.

1199   45.   Miller M, Song QX, Shi XL, Juenger TE, Chen ZJ: Natural variation in timing of stress-

1200   responsive gene expression predicts heterosis in intraspecific hybrids of

1201   Arabidopsis. Nature Communications 2015. 6.

1202   46.   Krueger F, Andrews SR: Bismark: a flexible aligner and methylation caller for

1203   Bisulfite-Seq applications. Bioinformatics 2011. 27:1571-1572.

1204   47.   Prezza N, Vezzi F, Kaller M, Policriti A: Fast, accurate, and lightweight analysis of BS-

1205   treated reads with ERNE 2. Bmc Bioinformatics 2016. 17.

1206   48.   Steerneman T: On the Total Variation and Hellinger Distance between Signed

1207   Measures - an Application to Product Measures. Proceedings of the American

1208   Mathematical Society 1983. 88:684-688.

1209   49.   R Core Team: A language and environment for statistical computing. 2016.

1210   50.   Hippenstiel RD: Detection Theory: Applications and Digital Signal Processing. CRC

1211   Press 2001.

1212   51.   Stanislaw H, Todorov N: Calculation of signal detection theory measures. Behavior

1213   Research Methods Instruments & Computers 1999. 31:137-149.

1214   52.   Youden WJ: Index for rating diagnostic tests. Cancer 1950. 3:32-35.

1215   53.   Perkins NJ, Schisterman EF: The inconsistency of "optimal" cutpoints obtained using

1216   two criteria based on the receiver operating characteristic curve. Am J Epidemiol

1217   2006. 163:670-675.

1218   54.   Carstensen B, Plummer, M., Laara, E. & Hills, M.: Epi:A Package for Statistical

1219   Analysis in Epidemiology. R package version 27 2016.

1220   55.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S: Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion

1221   for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biology 2014. 15.

1222   56.   He Y, Gorkin DU, Dickel DE, Nery JR, Castanon RG, Lee AY, Shen Y, Visel A,

1223   Pennacchio LA, Ren B, Ecker JR: Improved regulatory element prediction based on

1224   tissue-specific local epigenomic signatures. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 2017.

1225   114:E1633-E1640.

1226   57.   Langmead B, Salzberg SL: Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nature

1227   Methods 2012. 9:357-U354.

1228   58.   Wang XF, Yu XQ, Zhu W, McCombie WR, Antoniou E, Powers RS, Davidson NO, Li E,

1229   Williams J: A trimming-and-retrieving alignment scheme for reduced representation

1230   bisulfite sequencing. Bioinformatics 2015. 31:2040-2042.

1231   59.   Geistlinger L, Csaba G, Zimmer R: Bioconductor's EnrichmentBrowser: seamless

1232   navigation through combined results of set- & network-based enrichment analysis.

1233   Bmc Bioinformatics 2016. 17.

1234   60.   Signorelli M, Vinciotti V, Wit EC: NEAT: an efficient network enrichment analysis

1235   test. Bmc Bioinformatics 2016. 17.

1236   61.   Bustin SA, Benes V, Garson JA, Hellemans J, Huggett J, Kubista M, Mueller R, Nolan T,

1237   Pfaffl MW, Shipley GL, et al: The MIQE Guidelines: Minimum Information for

1238   Publication of Quantitative Real-Time PCR Experiments. Clinical Chemistry 2009.

1239   55:611-622.

1240   62.   Grant GR, Farkas MH, Pizarro AD, Lahens NF, Schug J, Brunk BP, Stoeckert CJ,

1241   Hogenesch JB, Pierce EA: Comparative analysis of RNA-Seq alignment algorithms

1242   and the RNA-Seq unified mapper (RUM). Bioinformatics 2011. 27:2518-2528.

1243   63.   Hartley SW, Mullikin JC: QoRTs: a comprehensive toolset for quality control and data

1244   processing of RNA-Seq experiments. Bmc Bioinformatics 2015. 16.

1245   64.   Huang W, Perez-Garcia P, Pokhilko A, Millar AJ, Antoshechkin I, Riechmann JL, Mas

1246   P: Mapping the Core of the Arabidopsis Circadian Clock Defines the Network

1247   Structure of the Oscillator. Science 2012. 336:75-79.

1248

1249

1250