

DNA methylation signatures of duplicate gene evolution in angiosperms

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ABSTRACT

Gene duplications have greatly shaped the gene content of plants. Multiple factors, such as the epigenome, can shape the subsequent evolution of duplicate genes and are the subject of ongoing study. We analyze genic DNA methylation patterns in 43 angiosperm species and 928 *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotypes to finding differences in the association of whole-genome and single-gene duplicates with genic DNA methylation patterns. Whole-genome duplicates were enriched for patterns associated with higher gene expression and depleted for patterns of non-CG DNA methylation associated with gene silencing. Single-gene duplicates showed variation in DNA methylation patterns based on modes of duplication (tandem, proximal, transposed, and dispersed) and species. Age of gene duplication was a key factor in the DNA methylation of single-gene duplicates. In single-gene duplicates, non-CG DNA methylation patterns associated with silencing were younger, less conserved, and enriched for presence-absence variation. In comparison, DNA methylation patterns associated with constitutive expression were older and more highly conserved. Surprisingly, across the phylogeny, genes marked by non-CG DNA methylation were enriched for duplicate pairs with evidence of positive selection. We propose that DNA methylation has a role in maintaining gene-dosage balance and silencing by non-CG methylation and may facilitate the evolutionary fate of duplicate genes.

Keywords: Whole-genome duplication, gene duplication, epigenomics, evolution, DNA methylation, angiosperms

Introduction

Gene and genome duplication increases organismal gene content, genome size, and generates a repertoire for functional novelty (Flagel and Wendel 2009; Ohno 1970). Polyploidy or whole-

genome duplication (WGD) is much more pervasive in plants than other eukaryotic lineages (Otto and Whitton 2000). Multiple WGDs over the past 200 million years of angiosperm evolution has led to higher diversity in plant genomes evident from larger differences in genome size between closely related plant species than in other eukaryotes (Panchy, Lehti-Shiu, and Shiu 2016). Small-scale or single-gene duplications (SGDs) (Jiang, Bao, et al. 2004; W. Wang et al. 2006; Bailey et al. 2002; Zhang 2003) contribute to this gene repertoire and have been linked to environmental adaptation and domestication in plants (Michael Freeling 2009; Cuevas et al. 2016; Xiyin Wang et al. 2009; Hanada et al. 2008). Tandem duplicates (TD) are thought to occur through unequal crossing-over, creating clusters of two or more genes adjacent to each other on the same chromosome (Zhang 2003). Proximal duplicates (PD) are gene copies separated by several intervening genes and arose either through the action of local transposition or interruption of ancient tandem duplication (Zhao et al. 1998; M. Freeling et al. 2008). Transposed duplication (TRD) creates a paralogous gene copy from the ancestral location to a novel location either by retrotransposition or DNA-based duplication (Cusack and Wolfe 2007). Finally, dispersed duplication (DSD) generates copies of genes that are neither adjacent to each other nor colinear and are produced through mechanisms that are not well understood (Michael Freeling 2009; Ganko, Meyers, and Vision 2007; Qiao et al. 2019).

Following gene duplication, paralogs are retained or lost (e.g., genome fractionation), and this loss or retention is biased depending on the mode of duplication and gene function (Wendel 2015; Michael Freeling 2009). Products of WGDs are preferentially retained and tend to be enriched for genes involved in macromolecular complexes such as transcription factors, protein kinases, ribosomal proteins, and signal transduction. Multiple models have been proposed to explain the emergence and retention of gene duplicates. Prominent among them, the gene balance hypothesis posits that the stoichiometric imbalance of macromolecular complexes and regulatory networks leads to dosage-dependent phenotypic consequences (Veitia, Bottani, and Birchler 2008). However, comprehensive molecular mechanisms of duplicate gene retention and determining their functional fate remain largely unexplored (F. Cheng et al. 2018; Panchy, Lehti-Shiu, and Shiu 2016).

DNA methylation is an important chromatin modification, altering transcription, and helping to delineate heterochromatin and euchromatin (Law and Jacobsen 2010). DNA methylation plays a

critical role in diverse biological processes such as genome imprinting, X-inactivation, silencing of transposons (TEs) and repetitive regions, and the regulation of gene expression (A. Bird 2002; Edwards and Ferguson-Smith 2007; Finnegan, Peacock, and Dennis 1996). Methylation of cytosines in the CG dinucleotide context can be found throughout plants, animals, and fungi; while non-CG methylation occurring at trinucleotide CHG and CHH (where H is A, T or C) contexts is widespread in plants and known to be associated with repression of transposable elements (Gruenbaum et al. 1981; Meyer, Niedenhof, and ten Lohuis 1994; Zemach et al. 2010). In plants, maintenance of CG methylation (mCG) is carried out by METHYLTRANSFERASE 1 (MET1), a homolog of the highly conserved mammalian DNA METHYLTRANSFERASE 1 (DNMT1) (Finnegan and Dennis 1993). The establishment and maintenance of non-CG methylation involve the plant-specific CHROMOMETHYLASE (CMT) family of DNA methyltransferases and the RNA-directed DNA Methylation (RdDM) pathway (Stroud et al. 2014; Raju et al. 2019).

The functional consequence of DNA methylation is dictated by its location and sequence context and differs for TEs and genes (Law and Jacobsen 2010; Zemach et al. 2010; Sigman and Slotkin 2016). TE repression is an ancient function of DNA methylation (Goll and Bestor 2005; Henderson and Jacobsen 2007) and transcriptional silencing usually involves ubiquitous methylation in CG and non-CG contexts (Roudier, Teixeira, and Colot 2009; Zemach et al. 2010). Even though genes and TEs are methylated distinctly, DNA methylation from adjacent TEs can spread to nearby genes affecting its regulation. Such DNA methylation in gene promoters is usually associated with transcriptional repression (Suzuki and Bird 2008; Ahmed et al. 2011), however, there are notable exceptions (Gent et al. 2013; Harris et al. 2018).

Patterns of DNA methylation in coding regions of plants show strong associations with gene expression patterns. Gene body methylated (gbM) genes are characterized by enrichment of mCG in the transcribed region and depletion at the transcription start site and transcription termination sites. GbM genes comprise the bulk of methylated genes in many plant species, are often housekeeping genes with medium to high expression levels, and evolve slowly compared to unmethylated genes (UM) (Bewick et al. 2016; Takuno and Gaut 2013). UM genes have insignificant amounts of DNA methylation in coding regions, tend to be shorter in length and

number of exons (Takuno and Gaut 2012) and show more variable expression levels (Niederhuth et al. 2016). TE-like genes with persistent methylation of CHG and CHH nucleotide contexts within coding sequences, similar to transposons typically have low expression levels, show little to no conservation in DNA methylation between orthologous genes, and are typically associated with local TEs (Niederhuth et al. 2016; D. K. Seymour et al. 2014; El Baidouri et al. 2018). It is possible in some cases that these genes are mis-annotated transposons (Schnable 2019; Bennetzen et al. 2004), however, TE-like methylation has been observed in many genes of known function (Niederhuth et al. 2016; Schmitz, He, et al. 2013; Schmitz, Schultz, et al. 2013), including species-specific genes (Silveira et al. 2013).

DNA methylation may decrease genetic redundancy through silencing of duplicated gene copies (El Baidouri et al. 2018). Expression reduction models suggest that heavy DNA methylation immediately after duplication buffers the expression levels of duplicate genes (Rodin and Riggs 2003; Chang and Liao 2012). Comprehensive analysis of DNA methylation, gene expression, and chromatin accessibility in humans and mouse have shown that duplicate genes display stronger signatures of DNA methylation distinguishing younger and older duplicates, and corresponding functional divergence in chromatin accessibility and gene expression levels (Keller and Yi 2014; Chang and Liao 2012). Promoters of young duplicates were highly methylated compared to promoters of older duplicates, and gene duplicates from retrotransposition displayed more noticeable DNA methylation divergence compared to other gene pairs (Keller and Yi 2014). However, gene-body methylation did not show a relationship with evolutionary age as promoter methylation. This was in contrast to studies in rice and zebrafish that showed an association between gbM and evolutionary age (Keller and Yi 2014; Y. Wang et al. 2013; Zhong et al. 2016). Recent studies in cassava and soybean showed a strong correlation between gbM genes and expression of WGD genes (H. Wang et al. 2015; Kim et al. 2015). Moreover, gene duplicates derived from different duplication origins in rice showed different correlation directions for gbM and expression divergence of duplicates (Y. Wang et al. 2013). Although the role of DNA methylation in differential expression of gene duplicates have been explored in a few plant taxa (El Baidouri et al. 2018; C. Xu et al. 2018; H. Wang et al. 2015; Y. Wang et al. 2013; Xutong Wang et al. 2017; J. Wang, Marowsky, and Fan 2014), the complex interaction of the genome and epigenome on duplicate gene evolution remains poorly

121 understood at a broad phylogenetic scale. Here, we examine DNA methylation divergence of
122 duplicate genes across 43 diverse angiosperm species to identify general trends in the
123 relationship between DNA methylation and duplicate gene evolution.

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Results:

Patterns and distribution of genic DNA methylation

Annotated gene models from 43 angiosperm species were classified based on their genic DNA methylation patterns (Niederhuth et al. 2016; Takuno and Gaut 2012) as gene body methylated (gbM), transposable element-like (TE-like), or unmethylated (UM) (Table S1). We then explored the genomic distributions of each genic DNA methylation class for each species. It has been shown that DNA methylation tends to be higher in the centromere and pericentromeric regions (Cokus et al. 2008; Lister et al. 2008) and non-CG methylation of genes is associated with local TE content and genome size (Niederhuth et al. 2016; Takuno, Ran, and Gaut 2016). Previously, El Baidouri et al. took advantage of high-resolution genetic maps in soybean to delineate pericentromeric regions to show that TE-like genes are enriched in the TE-rich pericentromeric regions (El Baidouri et al. 2018). Lacking such detail for most species, we used the number genes, TEs, and TE-base pairs in sliding windows as a proxy for regions of euchromatin and heterochromatin (Figure 1, Figure S1). Chromosomal plots of the distributions of methylated genes and TEs, helped visualize these distributions (Figure S2) It should be noted that this analysis does not capture TE content in the immediate vicinity of genes, but instead reflects large distribution patterns of both genes and TEs across chromosomes. All three classes of genic methylation classifications (gbM, TE-like, and UM genes) showed positive correlation with the distribution of genes in all species (Table-S2), except for TE-like genes in *Arabidopsis thaliana*, that showed a negative correlation with gene distribution (Pearson's $r = -0.31$, $p < .001$). The distribution of gbM and UM genes was negatively correlated with TE content across the majority of species (gbM: 34/43 species; UM: 30/43 species). Those species which showed a positive correlation between gbM/UM genes and TE content also showed a positive correlation between TE content and gene distribution. TE-like genes were positively correlated with TE distribution in *A. thaliana* (Figure 1A, Figure S1,S2) and most other species (28/43). Surprisingly, a number of species did not show this expected pattern (Figure 1B-F, Figure S1,S2).

We observed that many of the species deviating from this expected pattern were located in the legumes and grasses, which could suggest that there may be lineage-specific effects on the distributions. We used Pagel's lambda (λ) to test for phylogenetic signals under a 'Brownian

Motion' model of trait evolution (Münkemüller et al. 2012; Pagel 1999). The correlation between TE-like genes and TEs showed a strong phylogenetic signal (Pagel's lambda (λ) = 0.61, $p = .01$). Similarly, correlation between gbM genes and TEs also showed evidence of phylogenetic signal (Pagel's lambda (λ) = 0.82, $p = .02$; Table-S3). For gbM genes, it was previously shown that there is a lineage-specific reduction of gbM in the Brassicaceae, which could explain the observed signal for gbM. To test this, we reanalyzed the data by excluding *Eutrema salsugineum*, *Brassica rapa*, and *Brassica oleracea* from the analysis and still found significant evidence of phylogenetic signal for gbM genes and TEs (Pagel's lambda (λ) = 0.76, $p = .04$). As genome size correlates with genic non-CG methylation (Niederhuth et al. 2016; Takuno and Gaut 2012), we analyzed genome size data from the Plant DNA C-values database (release 7.1; (Pellicer and Leitch 2020)) for all the species used in our study and did not find a phylogenetic signal for genome size (Pagel's lambda (λ) = 0.21, $p = .52$). The lack of phylogenetic signal for genome size in these species suggests that the lineage-specific changes in distribution of gbM and TE-like genes are unlikely to be derived from genome size variation.

Associations of genic DNA methylation with mode of gene duplication

To understand the relationship between genic DNA methylation and gene duplication we identified and classified duplicate genes based on their mode of duplication (Table-S4) using *DupGen_finder-unique* (Qiao et al. 2019). We then performed a two-sided Fisher's exact test to obtain an odds ratio for each mode of gene duplication with each DNA methylation classification (Figure 2, Table-S5). WGDs are depleted of TE-like genes across all species and enriched for gbM genes in most species, except *B. rapa* (odds.ratio = 0.53, $p < .001$). Several other species showed under-representation of gbM genes at a lower p-value cutoffs ($0.001 < p < 0.05$), *E. salsugineum* (odds.ratio = 0.29, $p = .009$), *Cucumis sativus* (odds.ratio = 0.91, $p = .03$) and *Citrullus lanatus* (odds.ratio = 0.88, $p = .008$) (Table-S5). WGDs showed enrichment for unmethylated genes in 26 out of 43 species. Of the remaining species, *Gossypium raimondii* (odds.ratio = 0.92, $p = .003$), *Populus trichocarpa* (odds.ratio = 0.73, $p < .001$) and *Glycine max* (odds.ratio = 0.63, $p < .001$) showed significant depletion of UM genes in WGDs.

For single-gene duplications (SGDs), association with genic DNA methylation differed significantly from WGD and between modes of SGD. Tandem and proximal duplicates were depleted of gbM genes and often enriched in TE-like and UM genes (Figure 2). There were

exceptions, with members of Fabaceae (except *Phaseolus vulgaris*) and Poaceae (except *Sorghum bicolor*) showing depletion of TE-like genes in tandem duplicates (Table-S5). Dispersed genes showed clear depletion of UM genes and enrichment of TE-like genes. Patterns of gbM in dispersed genes were mixed. While members of Poaceae (except *Zea mays* and *Panicum virgatum*) showed enrichment of gbM genes, Fabaceae (except *P. vulgaris*) showed depletion of gbM genes (Table-S5). Transposed genes were depleted in UM and TE-like genes while showing enrichment for gbM genes. Exceptions are *Z. mays*, *Malus domestica*, *Fragaria x ananassa* and *G. max*, which showed depletion of gbM genes and enrichment of TE-like genes. Singletons are depleted in gbM genes and enriched in UM genes (Figure 2). These findings enable us to determine the contributions of genic DNA methylation patterns on the evolutionary fates of gene duplicates.

Stasis and switching in genic DNA methylation states

Duplicate gene pairs may have different methylation profiles. Multiple factors can influence these differences, such as methylation of parent-of-origin gene, evolutionary constraints, and chromatin environment of the new duplicate copy. We first compared duplicate pairs where each gene in the pair could be conclusively classified into one of the three genic methylation classes (Figure 3A, Table-S6). WGD pairs tend to resemble each other, with ~63% to 96% gene pairs (median - 87%) having the same methylation profiles. Similarly, tandem (~71%-94%, median - 82%), proximal (~63%-95%, median - 76%), and dispersed (~66-95%, median - 82%) duplicates also showed a higher proportion of gene pairs with similar methylation profiles. Transposed duplicates had the broadest range, from 54% gene pairs showing similar methylation profiles in *Z. mays* to 90% in *E. salicigineum* (median - 77%). This suggests that regardless of the mode of duplication, most duplicate copies retain similar DNA methylation profiles, however, switching is not infrequent. For most modes of duplication, the original and derived copies cannot be determined, so we cannot determine the directionality of switching. For transposed duplicates, however, it is possible to identify a parental and transposed copy indicating the direction of switching. A higher proportion of transposed copies were TE-like genes compared to their parental gene in all species except *C. lanatus* (Table-S7, Figure 3B). Transposed copies also showed a lower proportion of gbM (40/43 species) and UM genes (32/43 species) compared to their parent gene in most species (Table-S7, Figure 3B). While the

majority of transposed duplicates retain the same genic DNA methylation status as their parental copy, TE-like transposed copies showed a higher frequency of having switched from their original methylation status, with higher proportions of the parental copies being either gbM or UM (Figure 3C).

Genic DNA methylation patterns associate with gene age

We hypothesized that there may be a relationship between the age of gene duplication and patterns of genic DNA methylation and so used two different approaches to address this question. In the first approach, we examined the distribution of synonymous mutations (Ks) based on both the mode of gene duplication and the class of genic DNA methylation (Figure 4A,B,D,E, Figure S3). Ks distributions have been widely used to date gene duplication events, as synonymous mutations are expected to have less of an impact on gene function and so can accumulate with evolutionary age. A lower Ks, therefore suggests a more recent duplication event (Lynch and Conery 2000). We find distinct associations between WGDs and SGD, their genic DNA methylation profiles, and the age of gene duplication (Figure 4A,B,D,E; Figure S3; Table S8). TE-like SGD were clearly younger, while gbM SGD were older. For WGD, the situation is more complex. In some species, WGD gbM genes were younger, while in others, they were older. These differences likely reflect differences since the last WGD and/or a history of nested WGDs.

In the second approach, we used *MCSscanX-transposed* to detect transposed gene duplication events that occurred at different periods (epochs) in the phylogenetic tree since species divergence (Table-S9) based on sequential exclusion of the closest outgroup (Y. Wang, Li, and Paterson 2013). This approach is independent of the Ks-based approach used above. We then tested transposed genes in each epoch for enrichment or depletion of genic DNA methylation (Figure 4C,F; Figure S4, Table S10). Younger transposed duplicates were depleted in gbM genes and enriched for TE-like genes, while more ancient transposed duplicates were depleted of TE-like genes and enriched for gbM genes. The trend in UM genes was unclear. *B. oleracea* and *P. virgatum* did not show a significant depletion in gbM genes in younger transposed genes, while *B. rapa* (odds.ratio = 2.45, $p < .001$), and *E. salisugineum* (odds.ratio = 13.08, $p = 0.004$) showed significant enrichment of gbM genes in younger transposed genes (Table-S10). This deviation from the depletion of gbM genes in younger transposed genes for Brassicaceae is likely due to

the known low number of gbM in these species (Bewick et al. 2016; Niederhuth et al. 2016), while we cannot explain this effect in *P. virgatum*.

We reasoned that some of the variation in the enrichment of genic DNA methylation classes amongst SGD's might be due to variation in the age of SGD's. To test this, we plotted the distribution of Ks for transposed, tandem, and proximal genes, ordered based on their median Ks (Figure S5). For transposed duplicates, species enriched for TE-like genes tended to be younger, while species depleted for TE-like genes tended to be older. For tandem and proximal genes, however, the pattern was not as clear, suggesting a much more complex scenario where other factors contribute to the enrichment or depletion of TE-like genes amongst these duplicates.

Genic DNA methylation and duplicate gene evolution

There are multiple possible evolutionary fates of duplicate genes (Panchy, Lehti-Shiu, and Shiu 2016). The ratio of nonsynonymous (Ka) to synonymous mutations (Ks) is commonly used to test for selection (Kreitman 2000). A $Ka/Ks < 1$ is indicative of purifying selection, $Ka/Ks \sim 1$ suggests a protein is evolving neutrally, while $Ka/Ks > 1$ is suggestive of positive selection. Comparing the Ka/Ks distributions for duplicate gene pairs (Figure 5A-D, Figure S6, Table-S11) shows that the vast majority of duplicate pairs have a $Ka/Ks < 1$, indicating purifying selection. However, the distribution of TE-like genes, particularly for single-gene duplicates, is strongly shifted toward higher values, which suggests relaxed selective constraints on many TE-like genes. This trend was true of all TE-like gene duplicates, regardless of mode of duplication, but was particularly pronounced for transposed and dispersed SGD's (Figure S6). Interestingly, the distribution of TE-like genes in many species also shows a shift toward $Ka/Ks > 1$ (Figure 5, Figure-S6). Limiting our analysis to duplicate genes with a $Ka/Ks > 1.1$, TE-like genes were significantly overrepresented in 38/43 species (Figure 5E,F, Table-S12). Of the other five, the number of only *L. japonicus* appeared to show an opposite pattern, but this was non-significant given the low number of genes with $Ka/Ks > 1.1$. GbM genes, in contrast, were significantly underrepresented in 39/43 species and of the remaining four, only *E. salisugineum* showed an opposite pattern (Figure 5E,F, Table-S12). UM genes were significantly overrepresented in 18 species, and significantly underrepresented in 14 species (Figure 5E,F, Table-S12).

Larger-impact mutations besides nonsynonymous substitutions can impact genes. For instance,

differentially methylated regions in all three sequence contexts (C-DMRs) are enriched amongst structural variation in *A. thaliana* (Kawakatsu et al. 2016). Presence absence variation (PAV) is a type of structural variation where entire gene copies may be present or absent between individuals in a species. We used previously published PAV data from four species (*B. oleracea*, *Solanum lycopersicum*, *Solanum tuberosum*, and *Z. mays*) to examine whether there was a relationship between PAV and genic DNA methylation. We initially examined the relationship between genic DNA methylation for all genes (duplicate and non-duplicate) and PAVs in all four species (Figure S8; Table-S13). TE-like genes showed a significant enrichment amongst PAVs ($p < 0.001$) in all species, while gbM genes were significantly depleted ($p < 0.001$) in all but *B. oleracea*. UM genes showed conflicting patterns, being enriched in both *B. oleracea* and *S. lycopersicum* ($p < 0.001$), depleted in *Z. mays* ($p < 0.001$) and no-significant enrichment in *S. tuberosum*. These same observations held up when the analysis was limited to duplicate genes (Figure S8, Table-S13).

Population scale genic DNA methylation of duplicate genes

Within a species DNA methylation can vary across the population (Schmitz, He, et al. 2013; Kawakatsu et al. 2016; Vaughn et al. 2007; Eichten et al. 2013, 2016). We leveraged methylome data from the *A. thaliana* 1001 Epigenomes Project (Kawakatsu et al. 2016) to examine the relationship between gene duplication and DNA methylation at a population level. Genes from 928 *A. thaliana* accessions were classified as before. For each genic methylation classification, we binned the genes based on the frequency of each classification (0%, <25%, 25%-50%, 50%-75%, >75%) across all 928 accessions (see methods). Looking at the distribution of synonymous substitutions (Ks), we see clear differences in the frequency of methylation states and the age of duplication. GbM genes increase in frequency across the population with increasing age of duplication, while more recently duplicated genes are less likely to be gbM (Figure 6A). TE-like and unmethylated genes show the opposite pattern (Figure 6B,C), with increased frequency in younger duplicates

Increasing frequency of gbM across the population corresponds with an increase in Ks, while increasing frequency of both TE-like and UM corresponds to a decrease in Ks (Figure 6D-F). This suggests a relationship between the age of duplication and population-level frequencies of genic DNA methylation. We further explored how each duplication mode affects genic

methylation variation across diverse *A. thaliana* accessions. While dispersed duplicates with gbM in <25% of accession are equally distributed among young and old genes, duplicates with gbM in more accession tend to be older dispersed duplicates (Figure S9A). In contrast, we see exactly the opposite trend in TE-like genes where younger dispersed genes have higher proportion of TE-like methylation across the accessions. We also see a similar pattern in the transposed duplicates, with older transposed duplicates with TE-like methylation showing <25% accession with TE-like methylation (Figure S9B). These results suggest that DNA methylation plays an important role in the evolution of duplicate gene retention through inter- and intra-species variation in genic methylation patterns.

Discussion:

We have characterized DNA methylation patterns and modes of gene duplication across 43 Angiosperm species. Our findings show that different patterns of genic methylation are associated with different modes (WGD vs SGD) and features (e.g. duplicate age) of gene duplication. The role of the epigenome, in particular, DNA methylation, in the evolution of duplicate genes has been explored in a handful of taxa (Keller and Yi 2014; Xutong Wang et al. 2017; Kim et al. 2015; C. Xu et al. 2018; Y. Wang et al. 2013; Zhong et al. 2016; Rodin and Riggs 2003; Chang and Liao 2012; El Baidouri et al. 2018). Lineage-specific differences in DNA methylation pathways, rates of gene duplication, and how the data are analyzed can all contribute to differences in the observed associations between DNA methylation and gene duplication. We focused on DNA methylation within coding regions as these have shown consistent associations with gene expression and other genic features in plants (Takuno and Gaut 2012; Niederhuth et al. 2016; D. K. Seymour et al. 2014; Takuno, Ran, and Gaut 2016).

For most species, TE-like genes are enriched in TE-rich regions, while gbM and UM genes are depleted. However, we find a number of exceptions to these trends and evidence of phylogenetic signals for the correlations of TE-like and gbM genes with TE-content. This suggests that there are lineage-specific differences in how these genes are distributed. The underlying cause(s) of these differences remains to be determined, but we suspect that it may reflect differences in chromosomal architecture and the distributions of genes and TEs. For instance, rice is known to have a high content of MITEs near genes not found in other species (Jiang, Feschotte, et al. 2004). In soybean, we found that TE-like genes were negatively correlated with TE content, which appears to contradict the enrichment of soybean TE-like genes in pericentromeres found by El Baidouri et al (2018). This discrepancy could be due to differences in classifying genes and chromosome binning between the two papers. It must be emphasized that our gene classification was very conservative, and thus, a large proportion of genes for which methylation data was ambiguous remained ‘unclassified.’

We find distinct patterns between genic DNA methylation and different modes of gene duplication. WGD genes are consistently depleted in TE-like genes and commonly enriched in gbM and unmethylated genes. A notable exception of this is *E. salsugineum* and *B. rapa*, where

it has been shown that gbM has been lost or reduced due to the evolution of the DNA methyltransferase *CHROMOMETHYLASE 3* (Bewick et al. 2016). The story is more complicated for SGD. El Baidouri et al. (2018) found that in soybean, non-collinear genes, excluding tandem duplicates (e.g., transposed, dispersed), were enriched for TE-like DNA methylation and that this was due to translocation to heterochromatin rich regions. We find that when examined across species, SGDs show high variance in their enrichment or depletion of different types of genic DNA methylation. Certainly the local context of TEs is a major factor, but contrary to this, even transposed duplicates showed enrichment of gbM and depletion of TE-like methylation in some species. Variance in the correlation between TEs and genic DNA methylation patterns all suggest that there are other factors that contribute to determining DNA methylation in duplicate genes.

While we see evidence of switching of genic DNA methylation states between duplicates, the majority have the same state as its duplicate. While the high degree of correspondence between duplicates, might be most easily explained by the duplicated copy retaining the methylated state of its parent, this is not a given. Correspondence of DNA methylation states could arise by multiple mechanisms. For instance, in the *PAI* genes of Arabidopsis, an inverted tandem duplicate, *PAI4*, results in silencing in *trans* of all four members of this gene family by the RdDM pathway (Luff, Pawlowski, and Bender 1999; Melquist, Luff, and Bender 1999). So in this example, the methylation of all genes is altered but still correspond to each other. Divergence in duplicate pairs could arise immediately, when a duplicated copy is translocated to a different chromatin context (El Baidouri et al. 2018), but could also arise much later due to localized TE insertions. From our comparative analyses, we cannot with confidence determine the directionality or timing in changes of genic methylation state.

Our results show a significant relationship between the age of gene duplication and genic DNA methylation. This is especially evident for SGDs, where TE-like genes were consistently younger, and gbM genes were older. These patterns differ for WGDs, depending on the species. The consistency of the patterns observed in SGDs vs WGDs might be explained by lineage-specific differences in the number of WGDs and time since last WGD for each lineage (Garsmeur et al. 2014; Van de Peer, Mizrachi, and Marchal 2017). Within a species, there is an association between the frequency of genic DNA methylation and duplicate gene age across the population. In the case of TE-like duplicate genes with high-frequency in the population, it

seems most likely that such DNA methylation was established very early in the history of *A. thaliana*, rather than being due to multiple independent instances of silencing. This would suggest then that despite being evolutionarily younger, these genes still duplicated early enough to be present throughout the population, rather than being limited to specific lineages. In contrast, those genes with intermediate frequencies of gbM, UM, or TE-like methylation patterns indicate ongoing switching of genic DNA methylation states in *Arabidopsis*. Much of this variance in DNA methylation can be directly explained by local genetic variation such as novel TE insertions (Schmitz, He, et al. 2013; Kawakatsu et al. 2016; Vaughn et al. 2007; Eichten et al. 2013, 2016).

Duplicate gene sequences evolve differently based on their genic DNA methylation class. GbM duplicate genes are highly expressed in plants and enriched for housekeeping gene functions, and in comparisons of orthologous genes are more highly conserved ((Niederhuth et al. 2016; Takuno and Gaut 2012). Consistent with such a role, gbM duplicate genes, had a $Ka/Ks < 1$, indicative of purifying selection. In contrast, if a gene were transcriptionally silenced in all tissues, it would be expected to have little impact on phenotype and so might be expected to evolve neutrally. However, the posits that heavy DNA methylation immediately following duplication is a means to suppress duplicate gene expression, thereby shielding it from accumulating deleterious mutations and ‘pseudogenization’(Chang and Liao 2012; Rodin and Riggs 2003). Similarly, Adams et al. have also proposed that silenced gene duplicates in cotton are protected from mutational loss (Adams et al. 2003). Our data shows that TE-like genes had a higher Ka/Ks than gbM or UM genes, suggestive of relaxed selection, and were enriched amongst PAVs. This would suggest that in contrast to the ‘expression reduction model’, most TE-like duplicates are or are on their way to becoming pseudogenes and lost. This also fits with the observed lack of conservation of TE-like methylation patterns between species(B. Seymour, Andreosso, and Seymour 2015; Niederhuth et al. 2016). However, we did find that there was an enrichment of TE-like genes with a $Ka/Ks > 1$, suggestive of positive selection. This would suggest that silencing by DNA methylation could facilitate functional divergence, as suggested by Rodin and Riggs (2003). SGDs, in particular, have been linked to adaptation to environmental conditions (Dassanayake et al. 2011; Hanada et al. 2008). Most TE-like genes are of unknown function or enriched in functions related to defense (e.g., chitinases, proteinases) (Niederhuth et al. 2016). Interestingly, a previous search for plant genes under positive selection primarily

identified gene families with unknown function and many of the same defense-related genes (Roth and Liberles 2006). Others have observed that genes associated with C-DMRS (differentially methylated regions in all three sequence contexts) are often specifically expressed in specific tissues, especially pollen (Schmitz, Schultz, et al. 2013). So while the evidence strongly suggests most duplicate genes with TE-like methylation are on their way to extinction, there is some evidence to support models whereby silencing facilitates functional divergence, but much more extensive study and evidence is needed to support this possibility.

DNA methylation outside of coding regions could also affect the fate of gene duplicates. In animals, promoter DNA methylation divergence increases with evolutionary age and correlates with tissue-specific expression and chromatin accessibility profiles (Keller and Yi 2014). Promoter DNA methylation of younger duplicates was also found in zebrafish and was suggested to offset detrimental mutations and pseudogenization (Chang and Liao 2012; Zhong et al. 2016). DNA methylation of upstream regions does show some associations with gene expression in some plants and is typically thought of being repressive. However, the actual effects can be quite complex, sometimes contradictory, and poorly understood. For instance, methylated CHH-islands in promoter regions are associated with increased gene expression (Li et al. 2015; Gent et al. 2013; Niederhuth et al. 2016). The exact impact of DNA methylation on transcription factor (TF) binding is often unknown; as depending on the TF it may inhibit, have no impact, or even facilitate TF binding (Medvedeva et al. 2014; O'Malley et al. 2016). Finally, *cis*-regulatory regions for most genes in most plant species are unknown or poorly defined. To fully understand how DNA methylation of regulatory regions affects duplicate gene evolution will require integration of DNA methylation, known TF binding sites, and their target genes.

We propose the following model for gene duplication and genic DNA methylation. While WGD doubles genome size and, in the case of allopolyploidy, can bring distinct genomes and their *trans* regulatory factors together, the local sequence context (*cis*-regulatory elements, neighboring TEs, etc.) for most genes does not change. For most WGD genes, it is unlikely that their genic DNA methylation states will change either. Supporting this is the high correspondence of DNA methylation between duplicates. In resynthesized allopolyploids, there has been little evidence of extensive changes to genic DNA methylation, however, generational changes are observed in flanking regions (Edger et al. 2017; K. A. Bird et al., n.d.). Features of

gbM genes, such as enriched functional categories, are consistent with features of retained WGD pairs. The enrichment of gbM and depletion of TE-like genes in WGDs, therefore, fits with expectations of the gene balance hypothesis that postulates retained WGD pairs are dosage-sensitive genes, enriched in specific functions or part of protein complexes (Veitia, Bottani, and Birchler 2008). SGD can change the local sequence and chromatin context of a gene, by moving that gene to regions of euchromatin or heterochromatin, but also increases the dosage of that gene relative to the whole. There are, therefore, more mechanistic opportunities for silencing SGD, and the fitness effects dosage-sensitive genes may further promote this. In most cases, these genes are destined for the dustbins of evolution. However, in rare circumstances, silencing of duplicate genes may help facilitate evolutionary novelty (Rodin and Riggs 2003). In both WGDs and SGD, we suspect that genic DNA methylation states are typically established immediately or very soon after duplication, however, ongoing novel TE insertions or selection for functional novelty can result in DNA methylation shifts at any point in a gene's evolutionary history.

In summary, this study demonstrates that whole-genome duplication and single gene duplications show distinct patterns of genic DNA methylation suggesting the action of different chromatin-based mechanisms leading to contrasting evolutionary trajectories for duplicate gene retention and loss.

Methods:

Genomes and annotations

We used the public genomes and gene annotations of 43 species with methylome data (Table-S13) and an additional 11 species duplicate gene identification (Garcia-Mas et al. 2012; Guo et al. 2013; Ming et al. 2008; Wu et al. 2018; Dohm et al. 2014; Parkin et al. 2014; Initiative and The International Brachypodium Initiative 2010; Amborella Genome Project 2013; Lamesch et al. 2012; C.-Y. Cheng et al. 2017; Bertoli et al. 2016; Hu et al. 2011; Sato et al. 2008; Paterson et al. 2012; Schmutz et al. 2010; Edger et al. 2019, 2018; Singh et al. 2013; Bartholomé et al. 2015; Li et al. 2019; Slotte et al. 2013; D'Hont et al. 2012; R. Yang et al. 2013; Daccord et al. 2017; Bredeson et al. 2016; Hellsten et al. 2013; Tang et al. 2014; Kawahara et al. 2013; Lovell et al. 2018; Verde et al. 2017; Tuskan et al. 2006; Schmutz et al. 2014; Xue et al. 2018; McCormick et al. 2018; Bennetzen et al. 2012; Hosmani et al., n.d.; Sharma et al. 2013; Mamidi et al., n.d.; Motamayor et al. 2013; Jiao et al. 2017; Hibrand Saint-Oyant et al. 2018; VanBuren et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2014; Colle et al. 2019; VanBuren et al. 2015; Harkess et al. 2017; Hulse-Kemp et al. 2018; S. Xu et al. 2017; Bombarely et al. 2016). These were downloaded from multiple databases (Table-S13). Only the primary transcript for each gene was used. As there were differences in the availability and quality of transposon annotations, we re-identified TEs *de novo* for each species using the Extensive *de-novo* TE Annotator (EDTA) pipeline (Ou et al. 2019) provided with gene annotations and coding sequences.

DNA methylation data and analyses

We used previously published whole-genome bisulfite sequencing from forty-three Angiosperm species (Amborella Genome Project 2013; D. K. Seymour et al. 2014; Picard and Gehring 2017; Bertoli et al. 2016; Niederhuth et al. 2016; Bewick et al. 2016; Lü et al. 2018; Ong-Abdullah et al. 2015; J. Cheng et al. 2018; Kim et al. 2015; Song et al. 2017; Daccord et al. 2017; Secco et al. 2015; Dong et al. 2017; Y. Yang et al. 2019; L. Wang et al. 2018; Turco et al. 2017; Noshay et al. 2019). To the extent that was possible we chose datasets from leaf tissue, with high-sequencing coverage, a low non-conversion rate, and from the same accession as the reference genome (Table-S14). Data were mapped to their respective genomes using methylpy v1.2.9 (Schultz et al. 2015) and the non-conversion rate calculated based on either unmethylated spiked-

id phage lambda DNA or endogenous chloroplast genomes (Table-S14). Individual cytosines were called as methylated or unmethylated by methylpy. The genic DNA methylation of each gene was then classified using custom python scripts as previously done (Niederhuth et al. 2016). First a background rate of DNA methylation for coding sequences was determined by calculating the average number of methylated CG, CHG, and CHH sites for all genes in all species. A binomial test was then applied to each gene to test for enrichment of CG, CHG, or CHH methylation against the background DNA methylation rate. GbM genes had a minimum of 20 CG sites covered by three or more reads each, a significant enrichment of methylated CG sites (FDR corrected p-value < 0.05), and non-significant amounts of non-CG methylation. TE-like genes had a minimum of 20 CHG sites covered by three or more reads and significantly enriched for CHG or 20 CHH sites covered by three or more reads and significantly enriched for CHH. Unmethylated genes had a minimum of 20 cytosines covered by three reads or more each and no sites called as methylated. All other genes were classified as either ‘unclassified’ or if missing data, considered NA.

Genomic distribution and phylogenetic comparisons

To determine the genomic distribution of methylated genes we calculated the total number of genes, genes belonging to each of the genic DNA methylation classes, the number of TEs, and number of TE nucleotides in 100 kb sliding windows, sliding every 50 kb. Pearson correlation coefficients (r) were calculated using the ‘*rcorr*’ function in the R package ‘*corrplot*’ (Wei et al. 2017). These correlations were tested for phylogenetic signals using the function *phylosig* (method="lambda") in the R package *phytools* (Revell 2012). Pagel’s lambda measures phylogenetic signal under a Brownian motion model of trait evolution where a value of ‘0’ indicates no phylogenetic signal and ‘1’ as a strong phylogenetic signal (Münkemüller et al. 2012; Pagel 1999). The genome size of all species were extracted from the Plant DNA C-value database as the amount in picograms of DNA contained within a haploid nucleus of the plant species (Pellicer and Leitch 2020). These were then tested for the phylogenetic signal as above. The input phylogenetic tree and branch lengths (Dataset-S1) used in *phylosig* was created with orthofinder (Emms and Kelly 2015) with default parameters.

Gene duplication classification

For each species, DIAMOND (Buchfink, Xie, and Huson 2015) was used to perform a blastp search of all genes against itself and *A. trichopoda*. A maximum of 5 hits per gene, with a e-value $< 1e-10$ were kept. Duplicate genes were identified and classified by *DupGen_finder-unique* (Qiao et al. 2019). *MCSanX-transposed* (Y. Wang, Li, and Paterson 2013) was used to detect transposed duplicates occurring within different epochs since species divergence (Table-S9). Custom R scripts were used to determine the frequencies of each of the different modes of gene duplication, as well as genic methylation classification (gbM, TE-like, unmethylated, and unclassified). A two-sided Fisher's exact test was used to determine whether there was any statistically significant association between modes of duplication and genic methylation classification. A stringent p-value threshold of $<.001$ was set for all comparisons, however, we do report p-value significance between .001 to .05 in the heatmap. Heatmaps were plotted using the function *heatmap.2* in the R package *gplots*. The Phylogenetic tree in Figure S2 was created in R using the packages 'V.PhyloMaker' and 'phytools' (Jin and Qian, 2019).

Nucleotide evolution

Nonsynonymous substitutions (Ka), synonymous substitutions (Ks) and the ratio of Ka/Ks for each duplicate pair was determined using the *calculate_Ka_Ks_pipeline.pl* (Qiao et al. 2019). Briefly each pair of protein sequences are aligned using MAFFT (v7.402)(Katoh and Standley 2013) and converted into a codon alignment using PAL2NAL (Suyama, Torrents, and Bork 2006). A modified version of the Yang-Nielsen method, γ -MYN was used to calculate Ka and Ks values using the Tamura-Nei model (D. Wang et al. 2010; Qiao et al. 2019). For a subset of duplicate genes, multiple possible duplicate pairs are possible. To minimize bias in these cases, we randomly selected one set of Ka & Ks values to represent that gene. We tested the distribution of Ks and Ka/Ks for gbM, TE-like, and UM genes for divergence from the distribution of an equal number of randomly selected genes using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Massey 1951), a non-parametric test. Gene pairs with a $Ka/Ks > 1.1$ were considered as candidates undergoing positive selection and were tested for enrichment or depletion amongst gbM, TE-like, and UM genes using a two-sided Fisher's exact test (Fisher 1935) and an FDR-corrected p-value < 0.05 .

Presence absence variation

Previously published PAV variants were downloaded for *B. oleracea* (Golicz et al. 2016), *S. lycopersicum* (Gao et al. 2019), *S. tuberosum* (Hardigan et al. 2016), and *Z. mays* (Hirsch et al. 2014). For both *S. tuberosum* and *Z. mays*, genes with an average read coverage of < 0.2 in at least one accession were considered to be PAVs. In all species, only genes present in the reference accession were considered for analyses, as DNA methylation data was not available for non-reference genes. PAVs were merged with genic DNA methylation data in R and tested for enrichment or depletion using a two-sided Fisher's Exact test (Fisher 1935) and an FDR-corrected p-value < 0.05 .

Arabidopsis diversity

Processed WGBS data from the previously published *Arabidopsis thaliana* 1001 Epigenomes Project (Kawakatsu et al. 2016) was downloaded from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO Accession GSE43857). Of these, 928 accessions had been called using methylpy and were compatible with our methods. Genes were classified as done above for the 43 species using the same background methylation rates. These data were imported into R and the frequency of each genic DNA methylation class for each gene in the population binned into 0%, $<25\%$, 25-50%, 50-75%, and $>75\%$. Ks & Ka/Ks data were the same as those computed above.

Data availability and research reproducibility

All data used in this study are from publicly available genomes and methylomes (Table-S13). Classified gene lists, gene DNA methylation levels, Ka/Ks data, and formatted genomes and annotations suitable for reproducing our results are available at [data dryad](#). Conda environments with exact software versions and all custom scripts are available at both <https://github.com/niederhuth/DNA-methylation-signatures-of-duplicate-gene-evolution-in-angiosperms>.

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Author contributions:

S.K.K.R and C.E.N conceptualized and designed the work and analysis. S.K.K.R, C.E.N. and S.M.L performed data analysis. S.K.K.R made figures and wrote the original draft; C.E.N wrote and edited the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Correlations of genomic features with genic DNA methylation classifications. Pearson’s correlation coefficient ‘r’ was measured to determine the distribution of gbM, TE-like, and UM genes across the genome using TE content and TE nucleotides as a proxy for heterochromatin. Shades of blue indicate enrichment, while red indicates depletion. Correlations not significant at $p < 0.001$ are marked with ‘X’. (A) *Arabidopsis thaliana*, (B) *Glycine max*, (C) *Medicago truncatula*, (D) *Panicum virgatum*, (E) *Solanum lycopersicum*, and (F) *Zea mays*.

Figure 2: Patterns of genic DNA methylation across different modes of gene duplication across 43 angiosperms. Heatmap shows enrichment/depletion of each genic DNA methylation class (gbM, TE-like, and UM) for each mode of gene duplication (WGD, tandem, proximal, dispersed, transposed). Singletons are single-copy genes (non-duplicates) present in the species and the outgroup. Unless indicated, all associations are statistically significant at a p-value < 0.001 . *significant association at a lower p-value cut-off ($0.001 < p < 0.05$). ‘NS’ – not significant. Cyan indicates depletion, while pink denotes enrichment.

Figure 3: Stasis and switching of genic DNA methylation profiles between duplicate gene pairs. (A) The number of genes for each mode duplication with the same or different genic DNA methylation profile in *A. thaliana* and *Z. mays*. (B) Percentage of parental and transposed genes with gbM, TE-like, and UM classification for *A. thaliana* and *Z. mays* shows enrichment of TE-like methylation in the transposed copy. (C) Proportion of parental genes in each genic DNA methylation class based on the genic DNA methylation in *A. thaliana* and *Z. mays*. This indicates

the direction of genic DNA methylation switching.

Figure 4: Relationship between genic DNA methylation class and the age of gene duplication. Density plots (A,B, D,E) show the distribution of synonymous substitutions (Ks) for each genic DNA methylation class, while bar plots (C and F) show the percentage of gene copies in each genic DNA methylation class for transposed genes that have duplicated during that ‘epoch’ since divergence from the species on the x-axis. For example, in *B. distachyon* transposed genes that have duplicated since *B. distachyon* diverged from *O. sativa* are shown on the x-axis under *O. sativa*. Those shown for *Z. mays*, duplicated in the period since the common ancestor of *B. distachyon* and *O. sativa* diverged from their common ancestor with *Z. mays*, but before the divergence of *B. distachyon* and *O. sativa*. Horizontal dotted lines indicate the percentage of each genic DNA methylation class in the whole genome. (A) *B. distachyon* WGD Ks distributions (B) *B. distachyon* SGD Ks distributions. (C) Percentage of *B. distachyon* transposed duplicates in each genic DNA methylation class at each ‘epoch’. (D) *G. raimondii* WGD Ks distributions (E) *G. raimondii* SGD Ks distributions (F) Percentage of *G. raimondii* transposed duplicates in each genic DNA methylation class at each ‘epoch’.

Figure 5: Differences in sequence evolution correspond to different genic DNA methylation classes. TE-like methylation genes are under relaxed selection compared to gbM and UM genes as indicated by density plots showing the ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous mutations (Ka/Ks) for (A) *B. distachyon* WGDs, (B) *B. distachyon* SGDs, (C) *G. raimondii* WGDs and (D) *G. raimondii* SGDs. However, TE-like methylated genes are also enriched in genes showing evidence of positive selection. Bar graphs indicate the proportion of genes for each genic DNA methylation class with a Ka/Ks > 1.1 for (E) *B. distachyon* and (F) *G. raimondii*. ***FDR-corrected p-value < 0.001, **FDR-corrected p-value < 0.01, *FDR-corrected p-value < 0.05, NS – not significant.

Figure 6: The frequency of genic DNA methylation across 928 *A. thaliana* ecotypes differs by the age of gene duplication. Density plots showing the Ks distribution of genes at different frequencies (0%, <25%, 25%-50%, 50%-75%, >75%) in the population for (A) gbM, (B) TE-like, and (C) UM genes. Boxplots of Ks distributions show that Ks increases with increasing frequency of (D) gbM in the population, but decreases with the increasing frequency of (E) TE-like and (F) UM genes.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Table S1: Classification of genic DNA methylation of all genes in each species. Genes were classified as gene body methylated (gbM), transposable element-like (TE-like), unmethylated (UM), or remained unclassified. 'NA' represents genes with missing methylation data.

Table S2: Correlations between genic DNA methylation class (gbM, TE-like, UM) and genomic features (number of genes, TEs, and TE nucleotides) in 100kb sliding windows with a 50kb step size. Positive correlations are marked in blue, negative correlations in red. P-value significance is indicated by shades of blue, dark blue for $p\text{-value} < .001$ and light blue for $p\text{-value} < .05$.

Table S3: Pagel's lambda test for phylogenetic signal of trait correlations in Table S2. A lambda value of '0' indicates no phylogenetic signal, while '1' indicates a strong phylogenetic signal. Correlations in blue show a statistically significant phylogenetic signal.

Table S4: Number of genes derived from different modes of duplications in each species.

Table S5: Fisher's Exact test results for enrichment and depletion of genic DNA methylation classifications across different modes of duplication. Odds ratios of enriched associations are colored green, depleted associations are in orange. $P\text{-value} < .001$ are in dark blue, while $p\text{-value} < .05$ are in light blue.

Table S6: Number of duplicate pairs with different or the same genic DNA methylation status for each mode of duplication for each species.

Table S7: Proportions of each genic DNA methylation class genes for parental genes and transposed copies for each species.

Table S8: Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results for differences in the distribution of synonymous substitution rates (K_s) for gbM, TE-like and UM genes compared to a random distribution. Blue indicates distribution is significantly different at a FDR adjusted $p\text{-value} < 0.05$.

Table S9: Outgroup species used for each epoch as part of MCscanX-transposed.

Table S10: Fisher's Exact test results for enrichment and depletion of genic DNA methylation classifications across different epochs of transposed duplicates for all species. Odds ratios of

enriched associations are colored green, depleted associations are in orange. Blue indicates distribution is significantly different at a FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05 .

Table S11: Kolmogorov-Smirnov test results for differences in the distribution of non-synonymous substitution to synonymous substitution ratios (Ka/Ks) for gbM, TE-like and UM genes compared to a random distribution. Blue indicates distribution is significantly different at a FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05 .

Table S12: Fisher's Exact Test results for enrichment and depletion of gbM, TE-like, and unmethylated genes with Ka/Ks ratio > 1.1 . Odds ratios of enriched associations are colored green, depleted associations are in orange. Blue indicates distribution is significantly different at a FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05 .

Table S13: Fisher's Exact Test results for enrichment and depletion of known presence-absence variants for gbM, TE-like, and unmethylated genes. Odds ratios of enriched associations are colored green, depleted associations are in orange. Blue indicates distribution is significantly different at a FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05 .

Table S14: Data source and mapping statistics for all methylome data used in the study.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

Figure S1: Correlations between genes, transposons (TEs), and different classes of methylated genes. Increasing blue indicates a positive correlation, increasing red indicates a negative correlation. Boxes marked with an X are statistically non-significant.

Figure S2: Distribution of genic methylation classified genes and genomic features across the largest chromosomes in representative species.

Figure S3: Distribution of genic methylation classified genes based on synonymous substitution rates (Ks) across different modes of gene duplication. WGD = whole-genome duplication. SGD = single-gene duplication and combines data from tandem, proximal, transposed, and dispersed modes of duplication.

Figure S4: The percentage of gene copies in each genic DNA methylation class for transposed

genes that have duplicated during that ‘epoch’ since divergence from the species on the x-axis. For example, in *B. distachyon* transposed genes that have duplicated since *B. distachyon* diverged from *O. sativa* are shown on the x-axis under *O. sativa*. Those shown for *Z. mays* duplicated in the period since the common ancestor of *B. distachyon* and *O. sativa* diverged from their common ancestor with *Z. mays*, but before the divergence of *B. distachyon* and *O. sativa*. Horizontal dotted lines indicate the percentage of each genic DNA methylation class in the whole genome.

Figure S5: Synonymous substitution rate (Ks) plots of TE-like genes in 43 species. Species are ordered by median Ks of TE-like genes for transposed (A), tandem (B), and proximal duplicates (C). Magenta boxplots = species enriched for TE-like genes, blue = depleted, white = NS. Significance at p-value < 0.05

Figure S6: Distribution of genic methylation classified genes based on the ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous substitutions (Ka/Ks) across different modes of gene duplication. WGD = whole-genome duplication. SGD = single-gene duplication and combines data from tandem, proximal, transposed, and dispersed modes of duplication.

Figure S7: Percentage of genes for each genic DNA Methylation class with a Ka/Ks > 1.1. *FDR adjusted p-value < 0.05, **FDR adjusted p-value < 0.01, ***FDR adjusted p-value < 0.001, NS = Not Significant.

Figure S8: Percentage of Total (all genes), gbM, TE-like, and unmethylated genes with known presence absences variation. A two-sided Fisher's Exact test was used to test for depletion or enrichment of PAVs amongst each category of genic DNA methylation. *FDR corrected p-value < 0.05, **FDR corrected p-value < 0.01, ***FDR corrected p-value < 0.001, NS – Not significantly different.

Figure S9: Genic methylation variation across different modes of gene duplication and its relationship with age (Ks).

Dataset S1: Rooted species tree with branch lengths.

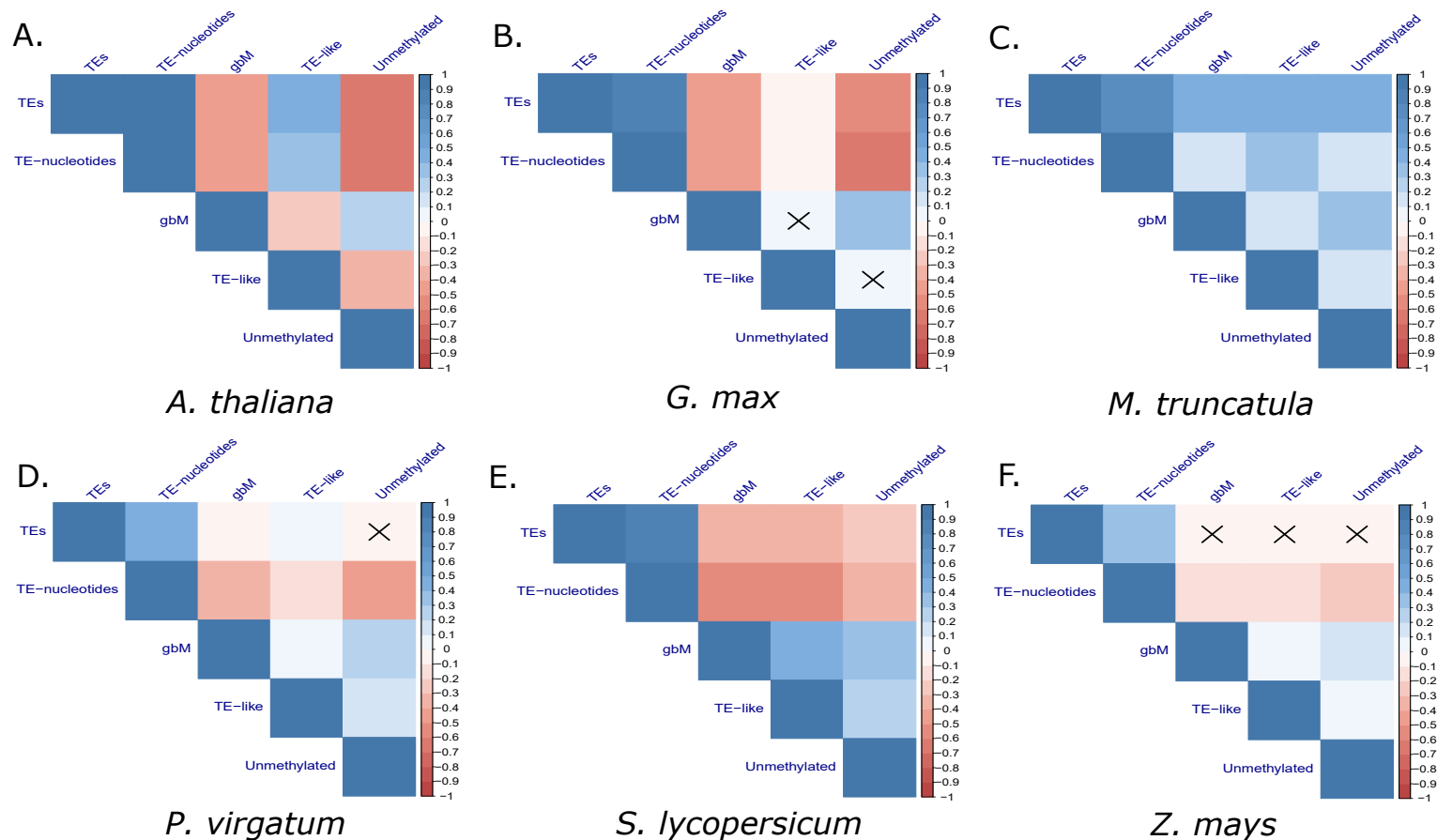


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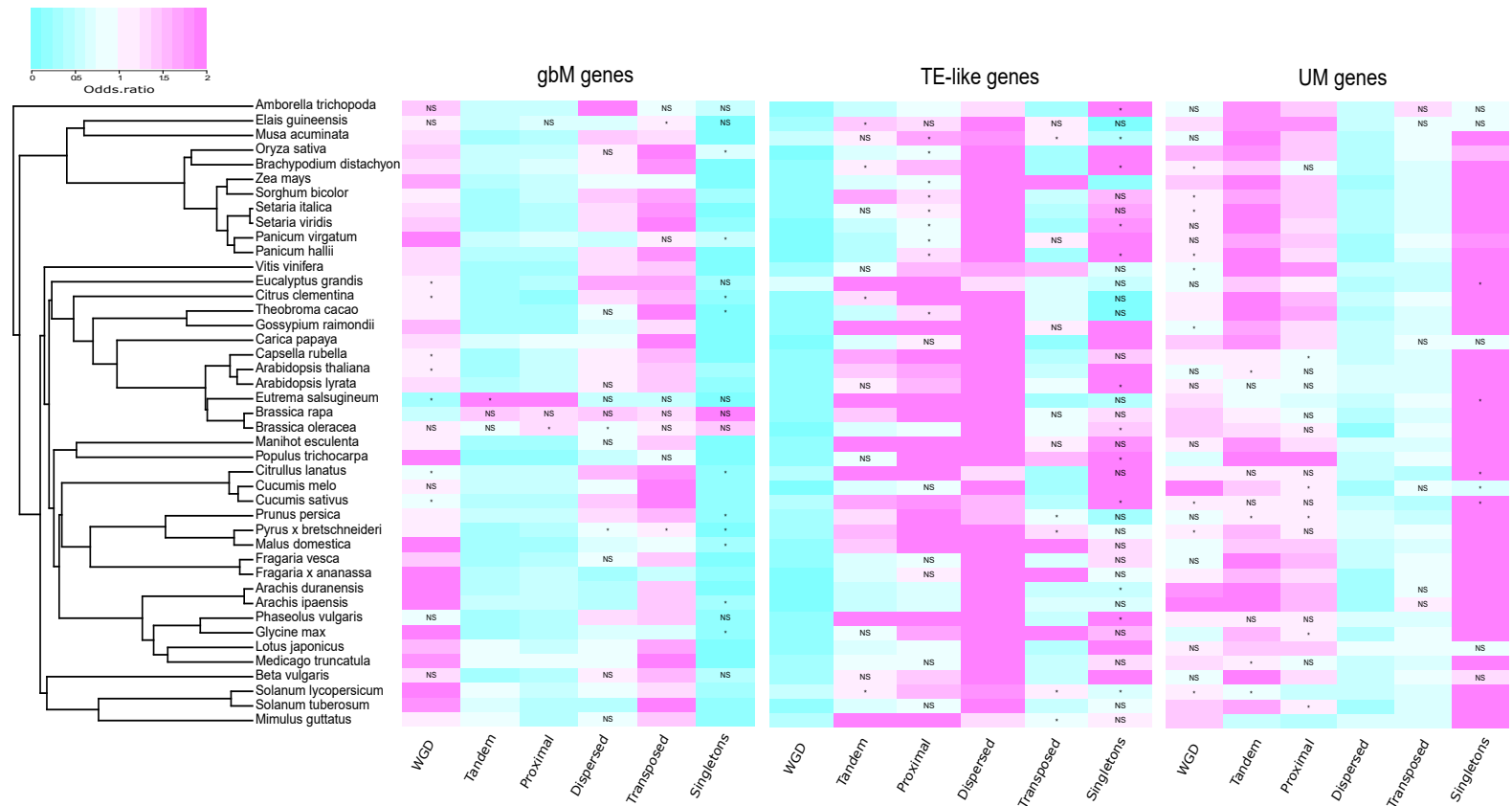


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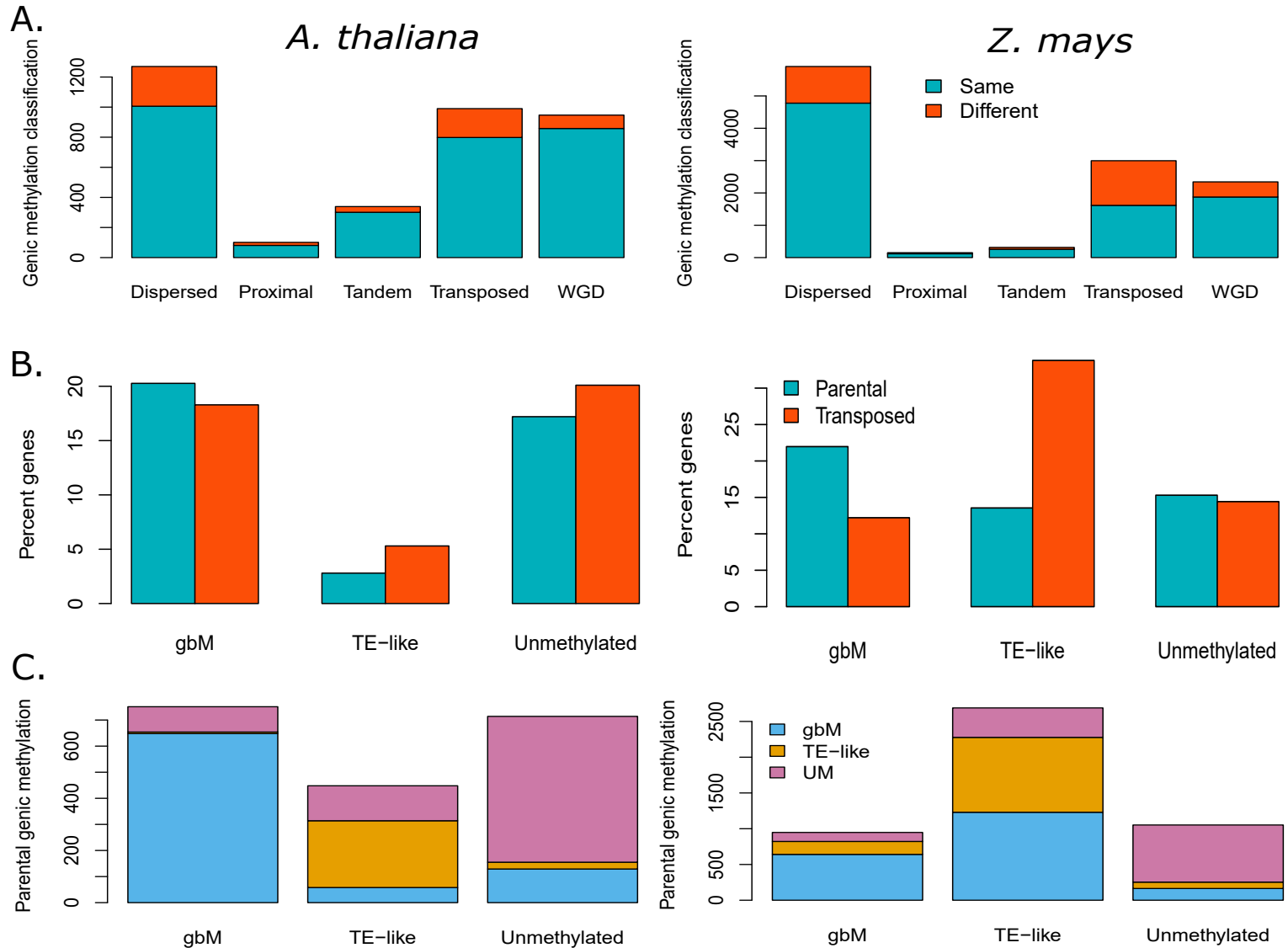


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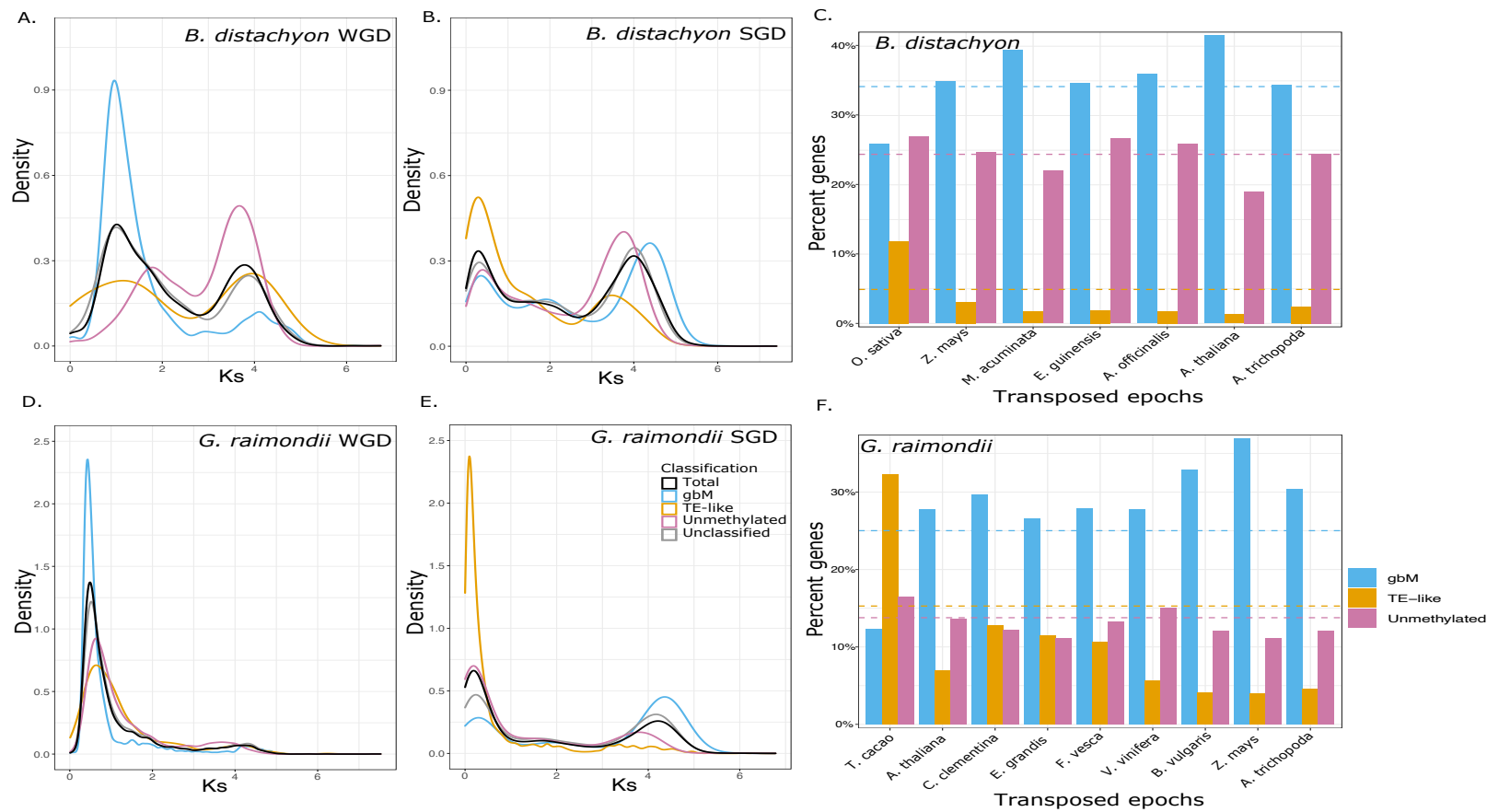


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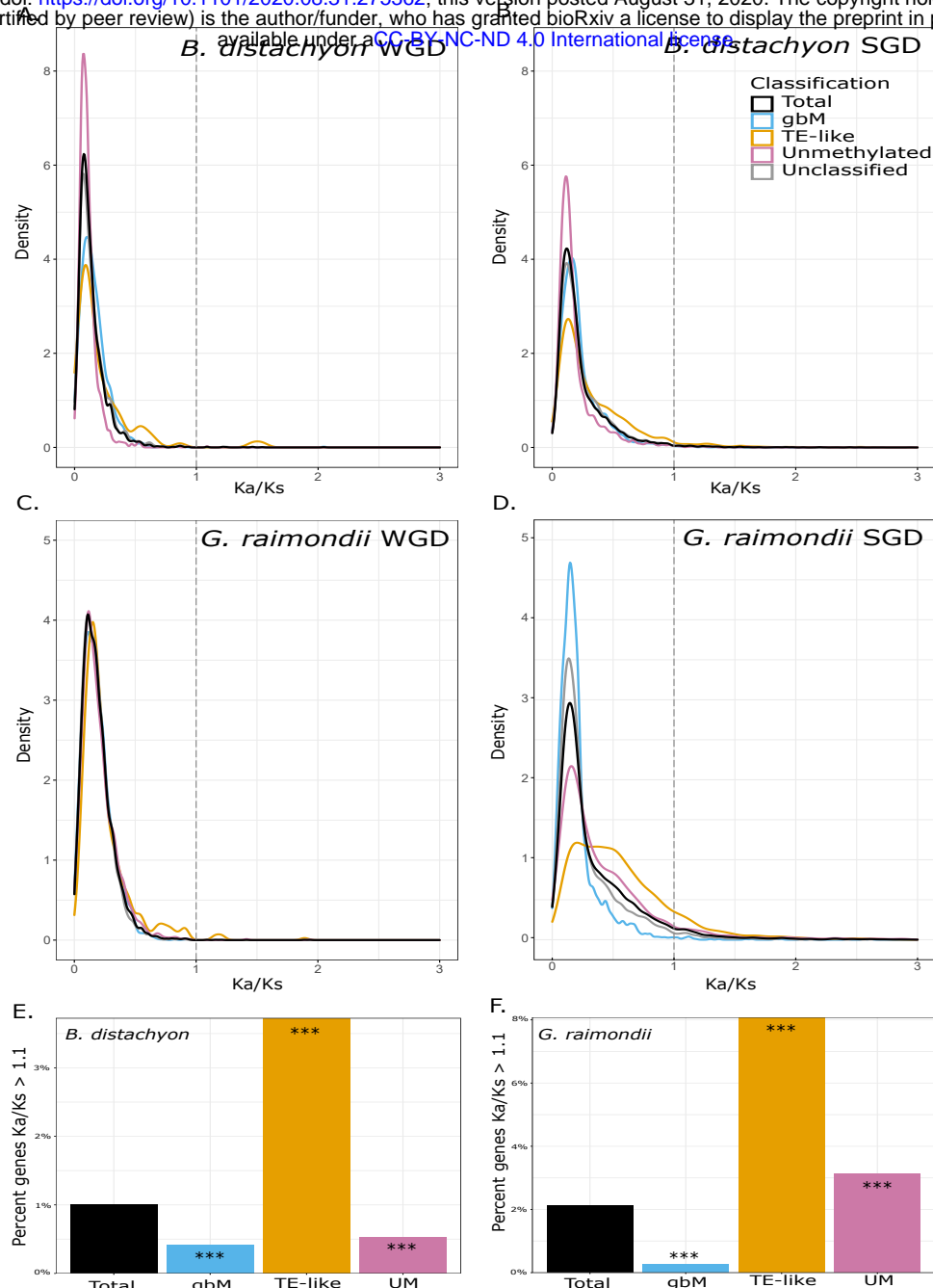


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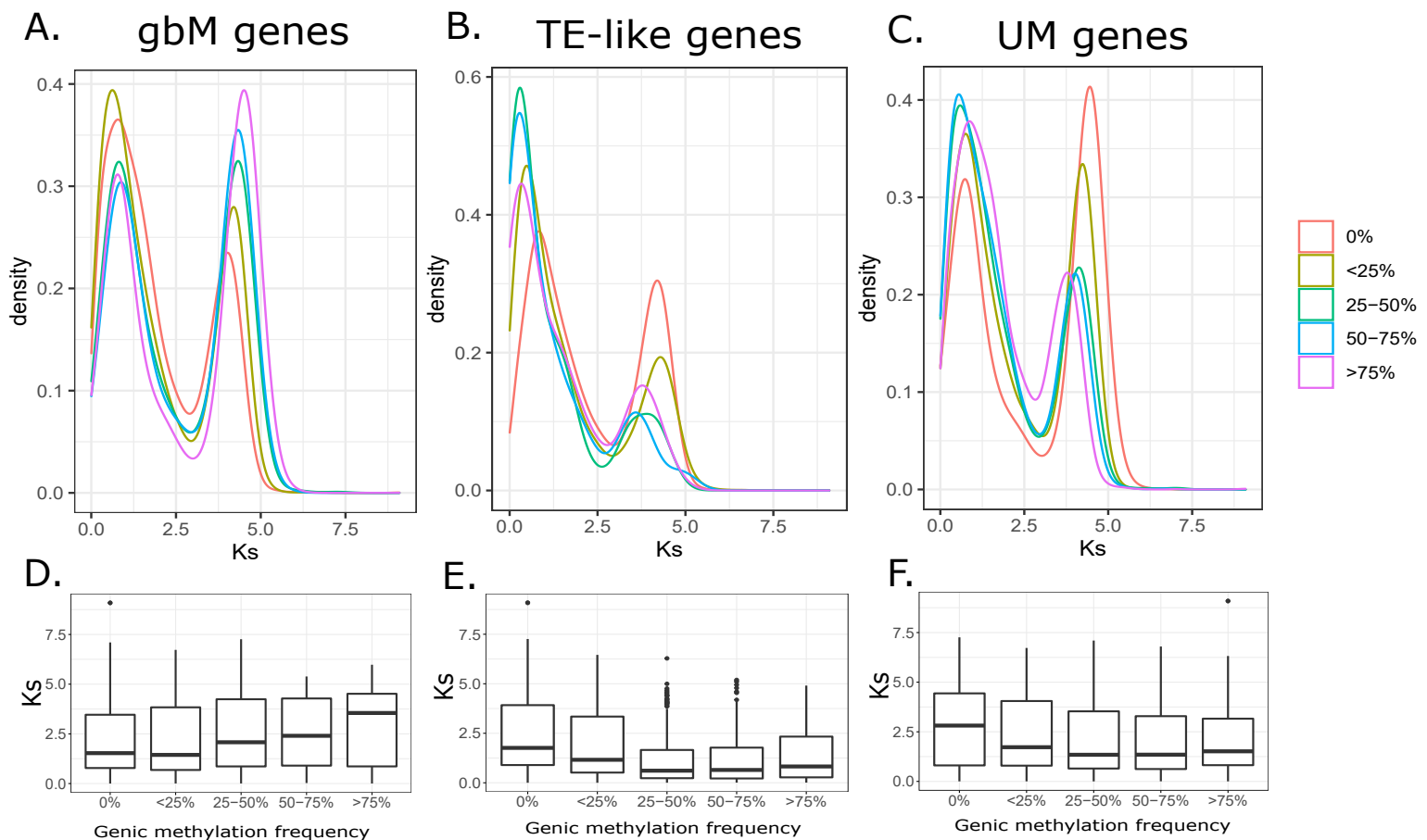


Figure 6: The frequency of genic DNA methylation across 928 *A. thaliana* ecotypes differs by the age of gene duplication. Density plots showing the Ks distribution of genes at different frequencies (0%, <25%, 25%-50%, 50%-75%, >75%) in the population for (A) gbM, (B) TE-like, and (C) UM genes. Boxplots of Ks distributions show that Ks increases with increasing frequency of (D) gbM in the population, but decreases with the increasing frequency of (E) TE-like and (F) UM genes.

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