

Critical roles of the activation of ethylene pathway genes mediated by DNA demethylation in *Arabidopsis* hyperhydricity

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21 **Abstract**

22 Hyperhydricity often occurs in plant tissue culture, seriously influencing the commercial
23 micropropagation and genetic improvement. DNA methylation has been studied for its
24 function in plant development and stress responses. However, its potential role in
25 hyperhydricity is unknown. In this study, we report the first comparative DNA
26 methylome analysis of normal and hyperhydric *Arabidopsis* seedlings using
27 whole-genome bisulfite sequencing. We found that the global methylation level
28 decreased in hyperhydric seedlings, and most of the differentially methylated genes were
29 CHH hypomethylated genes. Moreover, the bisulfite sequencing results showed that
30 hyperhydric seedlings displayed CHH demethylation patterns in the promoter of the
31 *ACSI* and *ETR1* genes, resulting in up-regulated expression of both genes and increased
32 ethylene accumulation. Furthermore, hyperhydric seedling displayed reduced stomatal
33 aperture accompanied by decreased water loss and increased phosphorylation of
34 aquaporins accompanied by increased water uptake. While AgNO₃ prevented
35 hyperhydricity by maintained the degree of methylation in the promoter regions of *ACSI*
36 and *ETR1* and down-regulated the transcription of both genes. AgNO₃ also reduced the
37 content of ethylene together with the phosphorylation of aquaporins and water uptake.
38 Taken together, this study suggested that DNA demethylation is a key switch that
39 activates ethylene pathway genes to enable ethylene synthesis and signal transduction,
40 which may subsequently influence aquaporin phosphorylation and stomatal aperture,

41 eventually cause hyperhydricity; thus, DNA demethylation plays a crucial role in
42 hyperhydricity. These results provide insights into the epigenetic regulation mechanism
43 of hyperhydricity, and confirm the role of ethylene and AgNO₃ in hyperhydricity control.

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49 **Introduction**

50 DNA methylation, which refers to the addition of a methyl group to the fifth position
51 of a cytosine in a DNA sequence, is one of the most widely investigated modes of
52 epigenetic regulation (He et al. 2011). In plants, DNA methylation occurs in three
53 different sequence contexts: CG, CHG and CHH (where H = A, C or T), and cytosine
54 methylation levels (MLs) are controlled by various pathways, including *de novo*
55 methylation, maintenance methylation, and demethylation pathways (Furner and Matzke
56 2011). DNA methylation is related to various genetic processes, including transcription
57 regulation, transposable element (TE) silencing, imprinting, and genome stability (Cedar
58 and Bergman 2012). The transcription of adjacent genes could also be influenced by the
59 methylation of protein-coding genes and TE (Gazzani et al. 2003; Song et al. 2013).
60 Several recent studies have revealed the crucial role of DNA methylation in the
61 modulation of gene expression involved in plant developmental processes (Saze et al.
62 2003; Gehring and Henikoff 2009; Hsieh et al. 2009; Zemach et al. 2010; Chen and Zhou
63 2013) and in response to environmental stresses, such as high salinity, heat, drought, and
64 cold (Mirouze and Paszkowski 2011; Sahu et al. 2013). Whole-genome bisulfite
65 sequencing (WGBS) is a particularly powerful tool that can determine methylation
66 patterns at single-nucleotide resolution (Cokus et al. 2008). WGBS has been widely
67 adopted for DNA methylation analyses in plants such as maize (Li et al. 2014), apple (Xu
68 et al. 2018), and oil palm (Ongabdullah et al. 2015).

As a common and powerful technique in agricultural industry practices and scientific research, tissue culture has been used for rapid propagation, virus-free seedling production and plant breeding improvements. However, the use of artificial medium and the exposure to extreme environments during *in vitro* culture may cause several physiological changes, among which the most universal is hyperhydricity (HH). Hyperhydric plantlets are morphologically and anatomically characterized by their translucent, thick and curled leaves; underdeveloped cuticles; malformations in stomatal morphology; accumulation of large starch grains within plastids; reduced numbers of chloroplasts per cell; and large intercellular spaces in the mesophyll (Dries et al. 2013; Gao et al. 2017a; Gao et al. 2017b). Hyperhydric cultures exhibit poor regeneration and survival abilities. Despite the availability of several approaches to ameliorate the negative effects of HH, such as adding ethylene biosynthesis inhibitors (Mensuali-Sodi et al. 1993), polyamines (Tabart et al. 2015), salicylic acid (SA) (Hassannejad et al. 2012) and K_2SiO_3 (Soundararajan et al. 2017) to the medium; optimizing the type and concentration of cytokinin (Ivanova and Staden 2011); using red and blue light-emitting diodes (Muneer et al. 2017); and enhancing the natural ventilation of culture vessels (Lai et al. 2005; Ivanova and Staden 2010), HH still leads to significant economic losses in agriculture, mainly because the molecular mechanism of HH is not yet clear.

Epigenetic alterations are more flexible than genetic variations. When environmental conditions change, epigenetic modifications allow species to more easily adapt to the new

environment (Xu et al. 2018). Many genome-scale methylome analyses have revealed that gene expression can be altered by changes in DNA methylation, which leads to visible phenotype under certain circumstances, especially when plants interact with different environmental factors to survive (Bräutigam et al. 2013; Sahu et al. 2013). HH is generally a result of the response of plants to stresses when explants are not placed in suitable *in vitro* environments, such as those with unusual growth regulator treatments, inefficient gas exchange, and high humidity. Various genetic, biochemical and physiological responses were involved in survival in response to abiotic stress (Hirayama and Shinozaki 2010). Previous studies have focused particularly on several physiological and biochemical responses of plantlets to HH. Changes in chlorophyll content, water content, antioxidant enzyme activity, reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation and plant hormones during HH have been reported (Saher et al. 2010; Tian et al. 2015; Sivanesan et al. 2016). Several transcriptomic and proteomic analyses have revealed changes that occur during HH and recovery from HH (Bakır et al. 2016; Muneer et al. 2016; Soundararajan et al. 2017). However, apparently, no studies have involved a global analysis of the extent and pattern of DNA methylation responses to HH. The potential roles of DNA methylation in HH development have barely been investigated.

An increasing amount of evidence has shown that excessive ethylene accumulation might be one of the key factors contributing to or promoting HH (Fal et al. 1999; Lai et al. 2005). Our previous studies (Gao et al. 2017b; Gao et al. 2017c) indicated that the

expression of ethylene signal transduction- and ethylene synthesis-associated genes increased in hyperhydric pink plantlets. Additionally, AgNO₃ could reduce the expression of ethylene signal transduction- and synthesis-associated genes, subsequently increasing water loss in hyperhydric plantlets and causing them to revert to a normal state. Despite these studies addressing some fundamental questions of the influences of ethylene on HH development, the possible role of DNA methylation in the regulation of gene expression during this process remains unknown.

Excessive water accumulation in plant tissue, especially in intercellular spaces, is the most characteristic symptom of HH. The overall water content increase is of great importance for the occurrence of HH (Dries et al. 2013). Although the mechanism of decreased water loss caused by stomatal closure mediated by excessive H₂O₂ accumulation in guard cells has been characterized by Gao et al. (Gao et al. 2017b), the water absorption mechanism has rarely been mentioned. Aquaporins play a key role in water uptake and transport. In our preliminary experiments, we found no alterations in the transcription level of aquaporin genes between hyperhydric and normal seedlings of both *Arabidopsis* and *Dianthus*. Qing et al. (Qing et al. 2016) recently proved that ethylene positively regulates water flux rates via activating aquaporin PIP2;1 phosphorylation in the leaves of *Arabidopsis* plants. However, the state of aquaporin phosphorylation in hyperhydric seedlings, as well as the function of aquaporins in water accumulation in hyperhydric tissue, is still unknown.

Here, we used RNA-seq and WGBS to explore the gene expression and cytosine methylation landscape of *Arabidopsis* hyperhydric seedlings on a genome-wide scale and to identify differentially methylated genes to reveal the epigenetic regulation mechanism of HH. The results showed that DNA methylation levels were significantly different between normal and hyperhydric seedlings. DNA demethylation of ethylene-related gene promoters may be a key switch that activates ethylene pathway genes to affect ethylene synthesis and signal transduction, which subsequently influence water metabolism, leading to HH. Together, these results advance our understanding of the function of DNA methylation and ethylene in HH development.

Results

Cultures with low concentrations of Gelrite induced HH in *Arabidopsis thaliana* seedlings

As shown in **Fig. 1**, seedlings maintained on medium solidified with 0.7% agar developed normally (**Fig. 1A**). However, seedlings cultured on medium solidified with 0.2% Gelrite exhibited a typical hyperhydric phenotype with elongated petioles and translucent, thick, and curled leaves (**Fig. 1A**), and the hyperhydricity rate reached 100%.

Comparison of global DNA methylation profiles between hyperhydric and normal *Arabidopsis* seedlings

To examine the overall methylation patterns of *Arabidopsis* responses to HH induced

by Gelrite, we performed WGBS on hyperhydric and normal seedlings, each with three replicates. As many as ~37 million sequencing reads were generated per replicate. In addition, up to ~80% and 75% of the total amount of cytosine was covered by more than 3 reads in the hyperhydric and normal seedlings, respectively (**Supplemental Table S1**), indicating good library quality and high sequencing depth. We calculated Pearson correlation coefficients for the three replicates of both samples; the coefficients were 0.995 and 0.992 for the hyperhydric and normal seedlings, respectively, indicating high reproducibility of our bisulfite sequencing (BS-seq) results.

To obtain further insight into the differences in DNA methylation status between the hyperhydric and normal seedlings, we analyzed the global ML of mC, mCG, mCHG and mCHH in the hyperhydric and normal seedlings. The genome of the normal seedlings comprised 11% (mC), 29% (mCG), 17% (mCHG) and 6% (mCHH) of the total sequenced C, CG, CHG and CHH sites, respectively. Accordingly, the genome of the HH seedlings comprised 10%, 28%, 17% and 5% of the C, CG, CHG and CHH sites, respectively (**Supplemental Table S2**). The results showed that the MLs of mC, mCG and mCHH in the hyperhydric seedlings were lower than those in the normal seedlings, indicating that DNA demethylation may play an important role in HH development.

The distributions of mC in three sequence contexts revealed that methylcytosine was most commonly found at CHH sites, and rarely occurred at CG and CHG sequences in both the hyperhydric and normal seedling genomes. Nevertheless, compared with the

normal seedlings, the hyperhydric seedlings exhibited a decrease in the proportion of CHH methylation and a slight increase in the proportions of CHG and CG methylation (**Fig. 1B**).

We further evaluated the DNA methylation status of different genic regions. From a global perspective, the ML of CG in the upstream 2 kb and downstream 2 kb regions was much lower than that in the gene body regions; however, both the mCHH and mCHG types were abundant in the upstream 2 kb and downstream 2 kb regions but were detected at low levels in the gene bodies (**Supplemental Figure S1**). On the other hand, the ML of CG in different genic regions did not differ between the hyperhydric and normal seedlings. However, with respect to the CHG context, the DNA MLs in all three genic regions were significantly higher in the hyperhydric seedlings than in the normal ones. In the CHH context, the hyperhydric seedlings presented a dramatically higher ML than did the normal seedlings in the gene body region but a lower ML in the upstream 2 kb and downstream 2 kb regions (**Supplemental Figure S1**).

These results indicated that DNA methylation status and levels were significantly different between normal and hyperhydric seedlings. The decrease of CHH methylation ratio of the whole genome and the decrease of CHH methylation level of gene regulatory region may be related to HH occurrence.

Differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in the genomes of hyperhydric and normal seedlings

To investigate the methylation variation in *Arabidopsis* seedlings in response to HH, we screened for DMRs between hyperhydric and normal seedlings. A total of 4066 significant DMRs, including 1016 hypermethylated and 3050 hypomethylated DMRs, were identified. Hypomethylation was more common in the hyperhydric plants (**Supplemental Figure S2**), and the number of DMRs was much greater in the CHH context than in the CHG and CG contexts (**Fig. 1C**).

We further analyzed the distribution discrepancy of DMR in CHH context in different gene regions. DMRs preferentially occurred in the promoter, repeat sequences regions, and secondly in exon regions, while the transcription start site (TSS), untranslated region (UTR) and transcription end site (TES) were less preferred (**Fig. 1C**). These data indicated that DNA demethylation, particularly in the promoter and repeat sequences in the CHH context, might be a key regulatory mechanism for HH occurrence.

The genes with DMRs within their body were considered DMR-associated genes (DMGs), and those with DMRs within their promoter region (upstream 2 kb from the TSS) were considered DMR-associated promoter genes (DMPs). We identified 1506 DMGs and 2980 DMPs in total. Notably, the number of DMGs and DMPs in the CHH context was the highest among all three contexts (**Fig. 1D**).

We subsequently categorized these CHH DMGs and DMPs during HH development by utilizing Gene Ontology (GO) analysis. The GO analysis revealed that DMGs enrichment in biological processes largely related to cellular process (e.g.,

phenylpropanoid metabolic process) and response to stimuli (e.g., response to stress, response to chemicals, response to abiotic stimulus and response to hormones) (**Supplemental Figure S3**). CHH DMPs were mostly enriched in cellular catabolic processes and proteolysis pathway (**Supplemental Figure S3**).

These results suggest that the changes in methylation of genes involved in stimuli response may participate in the occurrence and development of HH .

Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in hyperhydric and normal seedlings

To explore the potential transcriptional consequences of widespread methylation changes related to HH, we performed RNA-seq on the same normal and hyperhydric seedlings that were used for WGBS. A total of 2197 transcripts, including 1212 upregulated and 985 downregulated transcripts, were differentially expressed in the hyperhydric seedlings compared with the normal seedlings (**Supplemental Fig. S4**).

The detailed assignments of the DEGs and pathways as determined by MapMan are shown in **Fig. 2A**. We noticed that an abundance of DEGs were enriched in the ‘abiotic stress’ ‘signaling’ and ‘cell wall’ pathways. Numerous genes involved in hormone signaling pathways, including those of auxin, ethylene and jasmonic acid (JA), were found to be differentially expressed in hyperhydric seedlings compared with normal seedlings. Some genes encoding transcription factors (TFs) such as ethylene response factor (ERF), MYB and WRKY were also differentially expressed. Furthermore, a large

number of genes associated with redox equilibrium were significantly enriched in the hyperhydric seedlings. The above results indicated that the expression modulation of genes involved in various pathways, such as those involving abiotic stress, hormone signaling, and redox, might be correlated with physiological changes in hyperhydric seedlings.

Correlation analysis between genes with DMRs and DEGs

To explore the influence of DNA methylation on the expression of neighbouring genes, we assessed the relationship between genes with DMRs and transcript abundance on a genome-wide scale. Approximately 6.9% (153) of the DEGs were associated with DMGs; among these DEGs, 25 (16.3%) were hypermethylated with downregulated expression levels in hyperhydric seedlings compared with normal seedlings, and 64 (41.8%) were hypomethylated with upregulated expression levels. However, 27 (17.6%) upregulated and 38 (24.8%) downregulated genes were hypermethylated and hypomethylated, respectively (**Fig. 2B**). On the other hand, a total of 183 DEGs were associated with DMPs; among these DEGs, 14 (7.6%) were hypermethylated with downregulated expression levels in the hyperhydric seedlings compared with the normal seedlings, and 82 (44.8%) were hypomethylated with upregulated expression levels. Furthermore, 70 (38.2%) downregulated and 19 (10.4%) upregulated genes were hypomethylated and hypermethylated, respectively (**Fig. 2C**).

The correlation between gene transcription level and DNA methylation status in

different contexts was further analyzed. Significant negative correlations were revealed between gene expression level and CG hypo-ML in both the gene body ($\rho = -0.61$, $P = 0$) and promoter ($\rho = -0.43$, $P = 0$) regions (**Supplemental Fig. S5A**). The expression of DMR-associated DEGs was not significantly correlated with methylation status in the CHG context ($P > 0.05$) (**Supplemental Fig. S5B**). Gene expression changes were predominantly negatively correlated with CHH MLs in both the gene body and promoter regions, and hypomethylation tended to upregulate gene expression, while hypermethylation tended to downregulate gene expression (**Supplemental Fig. S5C**).

The above results indicated that the expression of most DMR-associated DEGs was negatively correlated with methylation levels. In general, the expression of genes associated to hypermethylated DMRs was downregulated, while the expression of genes associated to hypomethylated DMRs was upregulated. Some of the DMR-associated DEGs were positively correlated with methylation levels. Furthermore, compared with those in the other contexts, changes in methylation in the CHH context are more important in the regulation of DEG expression.

Ethylene plays a crucial role in *Arabidopsis* HH development

Excess ethylene accumulation is confirmed to be associated with HH in some studies (Kevers et al. 2004; Gao et al. 2017b). Our transcriptome and methylome analyses indicated that many genes involved in the ethylene synthesis and signaling pathway were identified as DMR-associated DEGs (**Supplemental Fig. S6** and **Table S3**). We further

explored the detailed function and the underlying mechanism of ethylene in the occurrence and development of HH.

We noticed that ethylene-insensitive mutants (*ein2-5*, *etr1-9*, *etr1-3*) cultured on HH induction medium containing low concentration of Gelrite (0.2%) did not develop HH, while ABA-insensitive mutants (*abi5-1*, *abi4-101*, *abi2-1*) did exhibit HH symptoms (**Supplemental Fig. S7**). We further explored the function of AgNO₃ on HH by adding AgNO₃ to the above HH induction medium. Most seedlings developed no symptoms of HH after 14 days of culture in medium supplemented with AgNO₃, attaining normal development as shown in **Fig. 3A**. Moreover, compared with that of seedlings grown on medium without AgNO₃, the endogenous water content and ethylene level in the seedlings grown on AgNO₃-supplemented medium decreased (**Fig. 3B and C**). These results indicated that ethylene plays a vital role in the occurrence and development of HH in *Arabidopsis* and that AgNO₃ can prevent HH and reduce the ethylene content.

The DNA ML of the *ACS1* and *ETR1* promoters decreased in hyperhydric seedlings, and the expression of ethylene signaling pathway genes increased

Based on the methylome and transcriptome analysis results, we selected the *ACS1* and *ETR1* genes, which are involved in the ethylene pathway, to analyse the differences of the methylation pattern in promoter and the transcript abundance between hyperhydric and normal seedlings. The DMRs existed in the promoter sequences of these two genes were subjected to bisulfite sequencing to detect methylation, and qPCR was performed to

examine mRNA levels. Seedlings cultured in agar ('Normal'), 0.2% Gelrite ('HH') and Gelrite supplemented with AgNO₃ ('HH +AgNO₃') media were used as materials. As shown in **Fig. 3D**, the *ACSI* and *ETR1* genes displayed hypomethylation patterns and increased transcription in 'HH' materials compared with 'Normal' materials. Nevertheless, these two genes displayed a hypermethylation pattern and exhibited decreased transcription in the 'HH+AgNO₃' materials compared with the 'HH' materials.

We further measured the dynamic changes in expression levels of the ethylene biosynthesis-associated genes *SAM*, *ACSI* and *ACO*; the ethylene receptor genes *ETR1* and *ETR2*; and the ethylene-responsive factor genes *ERF12* and *ERF113*. Our real-time qPCR results showed that the expression levels of ethylene pathway genes were increased in the 'HH' materials compared with the 'Normal' materials. However, decreased numbers of transcripts of ethylene-related genes and reduced ethylene content were detected in the 'HH+AgNO₃' materials (**Supplemental Figure S8**). The above results suggested that promoter hypomethylation of *ACSI* and *ETR1* may upregulate gene expression and active the ethylene signaling pathway and trigger HH and that AgNO₃ may suppress the ethylene signaling pathway and prevent HH development by hypermethylating the promoter and downregulating the expression of ethylene-related genes.

Phosphorylation of aquaporin PIP2;1 and water uptake rates increased in hyperhydric seedlings

The PIP2;1 protein from three types of seedlings was investigated via immunoblotting analysis (**Fig. 4A**). The results demonstrated that phosphorylation of PIP2;1 was significantly increased in the 'HH' materials. However, the phosphorylation levels of PIP2;1 in the 'HH+AgNO₃' materials were lower than those in the 'HH' materials and were similar to those in the 'Normal' materials after 14 days of culture.

Phosphorylation of plant aquaporin proteins directly affects water channel activity. Ethylene can enhance the phosphorylation of PIP2;1, increasing the water permeability of leaf protoplasts (Qing et al. 2016). Here, we used swelling assays to investigate the water permeability of different types of samples. Significant differences in relative volume (V/V_i) were detected among protoplasts from different samples. The protoplasts generated from the 'HH' materials exhibited faster swelling rates than did the 'Normal' materials after 14 days of culture. However, the swelling rate of the 'HH+AgNO₃' materials was slower than that of the 'HH' materials (**Fig. 4B**).

We also measured the osmotic water permeability coefficient (P_{os}) of the protoplasts to analyse their water uptake capacity in different seedlings. Our results showed that the P_{os} was higher in the 'HH' materials than in the other seedlings, but compared with that of the 'HH' materials, the P_{os} of the 'HH+AgNO₃' materials decreased after 14 days of culture (**Fig. 4C**). The incremental levels of osmotic water permeability were highly consistent with the altered phosphorylation levels measured by immunoblotting analysis. These results implied that ethylene may positively affects the phosphorylation of PIP2;1

and the water uptake capacity in hyperhydric seedlings.

Stomatal aperture and water loss decreased in hyperhydric seedlings

The H₂O₂ levels in the guard cells of ‘HH’ materials were markedly higher than those of ‘Normal’ materials, while the H₂O₂ levels in the ‘HH+AgNO₃’ materials were significantly lower than those in the ‘HH’ materials (**Fig. 5A**). Accompanied by an increase in the H₂O₂ levels in guard cells, both the water loss rate and stomatal aperture of the ‘HH’ materials significantly decreased. However, compared with the ‘HH’ materials, the ‘HH+AgNO₃’ materials exhibited an increase in the water loss rate and stomatal aperture (**Fig. 5B-D**). These results suggest that the decrease in the water loss rate and stomatal aperture in hyperhydric *Arabidopsis* seedlings might be mediated by the production of H₂O₂ in guard cells as a result of induction by excessive amounts of ethylene.

Discussion

HH is a consequence of plant responses to wounding or environmental stresses when transferring excised explants to unsuitable conditions (Kevers et al. 2004; Ivanova and Staden 2011). It has been shown that HH induces morphological and physiological changes in whole plantlets and results in significant economic losses in the commercial micropropagation industry (Gao et al. 2017a). DNA methylation is one of the main epigenetic mechanisms in higher eukaryotes and plays an important role in both

regulating plant growth and development and responding to abiotic stress (Gazzani et al. 2003; Hsieh et al. 2009; Mirouze and Paszkowski 2011; Xu et al. 2018). Nevertheless, the methylation regulatory mechanism of HH is still unknown. It is worth elucidating this issue to determine the epigenetic regulatory network of the occurrence and development of HH.

In the present study, we first analyzed the DNA methylation profiles of hyperhydric and normal seedlings using a WGBS approach. Compared with the normal seedlings, the hyperhydric seedlings showed decreased proportion of CHH methylation and reduced MLs percentage of CHH sites (**Fig. 1B and Supplemental Table S2**). We profiled the DNA methylome of the hyperhydric and normal seedlings, which revealed numerous HH-associated DMRs. Notably, the DMRs in the CHH context were more frequent than those in the CG and CHG contexts, and most of the DMRs were hypomethylated and occurred in regulatory regions, such as promoter and repeat regions (**Fig. 1C**). Furthermore, the combined analysis of the transcriptome and methylome revealed that the expression of most DMR-associated DEGs is negatively correlated with changes in methylation and that the changes in methylation, especially hypomethylation, in the CHH context are more important in the regulation of DEG expression (**Supplemental Figure S5**). These results suggest that CHH demethylation in gene regulatory regions may be predominantly responsible for activating the transcription of surrounding genes, such as functional regulators or signal response factors, that are involved in metabolism and

stress resistance; thus, CHH demethylation may play unique roles in the development of HH morphological characteristics and physiological response processes.

However, many DEGs were not regulated by methylation status of promoter or gene body (**Fig. 2B and C**). This phenomenon might be a result of methylation-dependent alterations to transcription networks, such as methylation of TFs, TEs and methylation of genes involved in hormone signaling pathways. Changes in TFs can further affect the expression levels of target genes together with abundant downstream genes. Changes in hormone signaling, such as that of SA, ethylene and JA, could mediate stress responses as well as numerous developmental processes. Our results showed that many CHH DMR-associated genes were involved in responses to hormone signals (**Supplemental Figure S3**). We observed that, in hyperhydric plants, many TF genes including members of the MYB and ERF classes, exhibited methylation changes (**Supplemental Table S3**). Consistent with this result, a global transcriptional analysis of the hyperhydric and normal seedlings revealed that numerous hormone signaling genes and TFs were differentially expressed (**Fig. 2A**). In addition, many repeats and TEs were also demethylated in the hyperhydric seedlings (**Fig. 1C and Supplemental Figure S2**). These results implied that DNA demethylation might also alter the transcription of TFs, TEs or genes involved in hormone pathways and further regulate biological processes that respond to environmental influences, consequently leading to the development of HH symptoms. However, further functional analysis is necessary. The role of ethylene in HH

is still debated. It has been reported that high concentrations of ethylene accumulate in hyperhydric culture in certain plant species (Franck et al. 2004; Gao et al. 2017b). Some researchers have shown that excess ethylene accumulation is one of the key factors that causes HH (Lentini et al. 1988; Kevers et al. 2004). It has also been reported that ethylene has no effect on the development of HH in *Arabidopsis* seedlings cultured on Gelrite (Dries et al. 2013). In our present study, ethylene-insensitive mutants (*ein2-5*, *etr1-9*, and *etr1-3*) cultured on Gelrite did not exhibit HH symptoms, which is in contrast with the results of Dries (Dries et al. 2013), while ABA-insensitive mutants (*abi5-1*, *abi4-101*, and *abi2-1*) displayed HH symptoms (**Supplemental Fig. S7**). Moreover, the seedlings cultured in AgNO₃-supplemented media did not exhibit HH symptoms (**Fig. 3A**). These results verify that ethylene plays a vital role in the development of HH caused by Gelrite in *Arabidopsis*.

To examine the regulatory function of methylation in ethylene signaling during HH development, we analyzed the DNA methylation patterns of the promoters of the *ACSI* and *ETR1* genes in three types of seedlings that were separately cultured in agar (Normal), Gelrite (HH) and Gelrite supplemented with AgNO₃ media. Bisulfite sequencing analysis revealed that, compared with those of the normal seedlings, the promoters of the *ACSI* and *ETR1* genes of the hyperhydric seedlings displayed demethylated patterns and upregulated transcription (**Fig. 3**). Nevertheless, AgNO₃ maintained the degree of methylation in the promoter regions of *ACSI* and *ETR1* and downregulated the

transcription of both genes. These results suggested that DNA methylation and demethylation might regulate ethylene signaling by acting as a control switch for *ACS1* and *ETR1* expression and that AgNO₃ can disrupt the ethylene signaling pathway by maintaining methylation of the *ACS1* and *ETR1* promoters.

Qing et al. (Qing et al. 2016) showed that ethylene positively regulates the water flux rate via the phosphorylation of the aquaporin PIP2;1 in the leaves of *Arabidopsis*. In the present study, the ethylene content in the normal seedlings was significantly lower than that in the hyperhydric seedlings. We hypothesize that ethylene-regulated phosphorylation of aquaporins might contribute to water accumulation in hyperhydric tissue. Consistent with our assumption, the phosphorylation of PIP2;1 significantly increased in the hyperhydric seedlings, which led to increased water uptake in those seedlings. Nevertheless, AgNO₃ reduced the content of ethylene together with the phosphorylation of the PIP2;1 isoform and water uptake (**Fig. 4**).

Taken together, we propose that the development of HH might occur via a mechanism that involves the regulation of DNA methylation and the expression of genes associated with the ethylene signaling pathway. As shown in **Fig. 6**, the unsuitable culture environment (such as low concentration Gelrite) and the process of separating the explants represents a considerable stress to plants and evokes stress responses within cells; these responses could potentially lead to the demethylation of genes involved in the ethylene pathway. Ethylene synthesis and signal transduction would subsequently

increase, which might induce both phosphorylation of aquaporins and stomatal closure, after which water loss would decrease and water uptake would increase. As a result, excessive amounts of water accumulate in the tissues, and HH symptoms occur. AgNO₃ prevents HH might by blocking the ethylene pathway by maintaining the ML of ethylene signaling pathway genes through a certain mechanism. The establishment of the possible mechanisms on HH occurrence and HH reversal is important in future efforts to reduce hyperhydricity in the tissue culture industry. Nevertheless, the specific functions of most related genes, such as ethylene pathway genes, aquaporin genes as well as other DMGs and DMPs, in the development and reversion of hyperhydricity remain unclear. Whether manipulation of some important genes will change the level of hyperhydricity remains to be studied.

Experimental procedures

Plant growth and treatments

Arabidopsis thaliana (Col-0) seeds were sterilized with 75% (v/v) ethanol for 1 min, after which they were subsequently sterilized three times for 1 min with 100% (v/v) ethanol. The sterilized seeds were transferred to Petri dishes that contained Murashige and Skoog (MS) media supplemented with 1.5% (w/v) sucrose and solidified with 0.7% (w/v) micro-agar (Sangon Biotech, Shanghai, China) or 0.2% (w/v) Gelrite (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA). The seeds were then cultured in the dark for 3 days at 4 °C and then

445 transferred to a growth chamber under a 16 h light ($30 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$)/8 h dark photoperiod
446 at 21 °C.

447 Four-day-old seedlings cultured on micro-agar were transferred to fresh MS media
448 supplemented with 0.7% (w/v) micro-agar; these seedlings were considered normal ones.
449 To induce HH, 4-day-old seedlings cultured on Gelrite were transferred to Petri dishes
450 (nine seedlings per dish) that contained MS media solidified with 0.2% (w/v) Gelrite. To
451 prevent the occurrence of HH, 4-day-old seedlings cultured on Gelrite were transferred to
452 MS media that was solidified with 0.2% (w/v) Gelrite and supplemented with $29.4 \mu\text{mol}$
453 $\text{L}^{-1} \text{AgNO}_3$.

454 At 10 days after being transferred, the seedlings were removed from the Petri dishes,
455 frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until further use. Three biological
456 replicates were used for the experimental setup.

457 Seeds of wild type, *ein2-5*, *etr1-9*, *etr1-3*, *abi5-1*, *abi4-101* and *abi2-1* were obtained
458 from the Nottingham *Arabidopsis* Stock Centre (Nottingham, UK; [http://www.](http://www.arabidopsis.info/)
459 [arabidopsis.info/](http://www.arabidopsis.info/)).

460 **RNA extraction and transcriptome sequencing**

461 A total amount of $3 \mu\text{g}$ of RNA per sample was used as input material for RNA
462 sample preparations. Sequencing libraries were generated using a NEBNext[®] Ultra[™]
463 RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina[®] (NEB, USA) in accordance with the manufacturer's

recommendations. To select cDNA fragments that were preferentially 150~200 bp in length, the library fragments were purified with an AMPure XP system (Beckman Coulter, Beverly, USA). Clustering of the index-coded samples was performed on a cBot Cluster Generation System using a TruSeq PE Cluster Kit v3-cBot-HS (Illumina) according to the manufacturer's instructions. After filtering and removing the adapters and low-quality reads, the clean reads were aligned to the *Arabidopsis* reference genome by TopHat v2.0.12. HTSeq v0.6.1 was then used to count the read numbers mapped to each gene, after which the fragments per kilobase of transcript sequence per millions base pairs sequenced (FPKM) of each gene was calculated according to its length and read count. The DESeq R package (v1.18.0) was used for differential gene expression analysis. The resulting *P*-values were adjusted by Benjamini and Hochberg's approach for controlling the false discovery rate. Genes with an adjusted *P*-value < 0.05 were considered differentially expressed.

DNA extraction and BS-seq library construction

The genomic DNA isolated from normal and hyperhydric seedlings was processed for bisulfite sequencing. DNA extraction and BS-seq library construction were conducted as previously described (Xu et al. 2018), with three biological replicates per sample. Bismark software (v0.16.3) (Krueger and Andrews 2011) was used to align the sequences of the bisulfite-treated reads to a reference genome, according to the method described previously (Jin et al. 2018). Read pairs that shared the same coordinates in genome were

484 considered duplicates and were removed before methylation state calling, thus avoiding
485 potential ML calculation bias. The results of the methylation extraction were transformed
486 to bigWig format for visualization using IGV browse.

487 To calculate the ML of the sequences, we divided the sequence into multiple bins that
488 were 10 kb in size. The sum of the methylated and unmethylated read counts in each
489 window was calculated. The ML for each window or C site shows the fraction of
490 methylated Cs and is defined as:

$$491 \quad ML(C) = \frac{reads(mC)}{reads(mC) + reads(C)}$$

492 In the end, the ML was further corrected with the bisulfite non-conversion rate. Given
493 the bisulfite non-conversion rate 'r', the corrected ML was estimated as:

$$494 \quad ML_{(corrected)} = \frac{ML - r}{1 - r}$$

495 The percentage of methylation was defined as the proportion of mCs on the total C
496 sites. The relative proportion of mCs in the three contexts was defined as the proportion
497 of mCG, mCHG and mCHH on the total mC sites (Xu et al. 2018).

498 **Analysis of DMRs**

499 The DMRs were identified using DSS software (Feng et al. 2014; Wu et al. 2015;
500 Park and Wu 2016), and the core of DSS is a new dispersion shrinkage method for
501 estimating the dispersion parameter from gamma-Poisson or beta-binomial distributions.

On the basis of the distribution of DMRs throughout the genome, we defined the genes related to DMRs as those whose gene body region (from the TSS to the TES) or promoter region (upstream 2 kb from the TSS) overlapped with the DMRs. A GO enrichment analysis of genes related to DMRs was implemented with the Goseq R package (Young et al. 2010); during this analysis, the gene length bias was corrected. GO terms with corrected P-values less than 0.05 were considered significantly enriched by DMR-related genes.

Bisulfite sequencing

One microgram of DNA was treated with sodium bisulfite using an EZ DNA Methylation-Gold Kit (Zymo Research, Orange, CA) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. The DNA was amplified by PCR with ExTaq (TaKaRa, Dalian, China). The sequences of *ACSI* (chromosome 3 sequence 22766812-22767126) and *ETRI* (chromosome 1 sequence 24732763-24733122) were analyzed. The sequences of primers used are shown in **Supplemental Table S4**. The PCR products were cloned into a pMD18-T simple vector (TaKaRa, Dalian, China), and the clones were sequenced.

Quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR)

RNA was isolated with an RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Sangon Biotech, China), and cDNA synthesis was performed with a PrimeScriptTM RT reagent kit in conjunction with gDNA Eraser (TaKaRa, Dalian, China). qRT-PCR analysis was performed with a

Rotor-Gene 3000 PCR instrument (Corbett Research, Australia) using a SYBR Premix Ex TaqTM Kit (TaKaRa, Dalian, China). The experiments were performed at least three times under identical conditions, and *actin* served as an internal control. The primers used are listed in **Supplemental Table S5**.

Measurements of the relative water content, ethylene content, water loss rate, stomatal aperture and H₂O₂ levels in guard cells

Seedlings were collected to measure their endogenous ethylene content by the ELISA method with an ethylene ELISA kit (Tsz Biosciences, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The rate of water loss (WLR), relative water content, stomatal aperture and H₂O₂ levels in guard cells were measured in accordance with our previous studies (Gao et al. 2017b).

Antibody preparation and immunoblot assays

The anti-PIP2;1 rabbit polyclonal antibodies and anti-*p*S283 polyclonal antibodies used in this study were made commercially (Sangon Biotech, Shanghai, China). The proteins were extracted from *Arabidopsis* tissue with a One Step Plant Active Protein Extraction Kit (Sangon Biotech, Shanghai, China) and used for the immunoblot analyses, fractionated on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel and immobilized onto a polyvinylidene fluoride membrane (Sangon Biotech, Shanghai, China), which was probed with anti-PIP2;1-specific polyclonal antibodies (anti-PIP2;1) and anti-*p*S283 polyclonal

540 antibodies.

541 **Protoplast swelling assays**

542 Leaf protoplasts from seedlings were prepared in accordance with the methods of Wu
543 et al. (Wu et al. 2013). Before the experiment, the protoplasts were stored for 15 min at
544 room temperature. The protoplast swelling assay method was performed according to
545 previously described methods (Qing et al. 2016).

546 ***Pos* values of the protoplast membrane calculations**

547 In accordance with previous results (Qing et al. 2016), the osmotic permeability
548 function was expressed as:

$$549 \quad \ln \frac{a - \beta + a\beta - V_r}{(1 - \beta)(a - 1)} + \frac{V_r - 1}{a(1 - \beta)} = - \frac{P_{os} v_w A C_f}{a V_i} t$$

550 where V_r is the relative volume of a protoplast (V/V_i), which is a function of the time (t)
551 needed for the protoplast to equilibrate with the initial environmental solution of
552 osmolality C_i after being quickly transferred to a final environmental solution with an
553 osmolality of C_f ; V_i is the initial volume of the protoplast; $a = C_i/C_f$; A is the initial
554 surface area of the protoplast; and v_w is the molar volume of water. β is the fraction of the
555 non-osmotic active volume of the whole protoplast volume at the initial state. The
556 unknown parameters β and P_{os} are obtained by fitting V_r at a series of time points t .

557 **Competing Interests**

558 The authors declare no competing interests.

559 **Author contributions:**

560 X.Y. Xia conceived and designed the experiments. H.Y. Gao performed the experiments
561 and analyzed the data. L.J. An provided technical assistance and helped with some
562 experiments. X.Y. Xia and H.Y. Gao wrote the manuscript.

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701

Supplemental Data

Supplemental Figure S1. ML of different genic regions in the context of CG, CHG and CHH. The X-axis represents different gene elements, and the Y-axis represents the ML.

Supplemental Figure S2. Circular plots of DMRs. Track order: hyper-DMR; density of TEs; gene density of each chromosome; hypo-DMR. The higher the density of the dot, the more significant the difference in DMR.

Supplemental Figure S3. The most enriched GO terms of genes with CHH DMRs (C) and genes whose promoters have DMRs (D) in normal and hyperhydric seedlings. (* represents statistical significance at the $P \leq 0.05$ level).

Supplemental Figure S4. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between HH and normal. Each dot represents one gene. The red dots represent up-regulated genes and the green dots represent down-regulated genes. The blue dots represent genes without differential expression. The X-axis is the \log_2 value of fold change and the Y-axis is the \log_{10} value of the P -value.

Supplemental Figure S5. Scatter and box plots of correlated DMR methylation and RNA expression affecting genes involved in HH. Scatter and box plots of correlated DMRs and RNA expression in CG (A), CHG (B) and CHH (C) contexts. Top left picture: box diagram of DMR-related gene expression levels. Top right picture: Comparison of the ML and expression level of DMR-related genes; the horizontal coordinates represent the gene ML, and the ordinate represents the gene expression level. Bottom left legend: promoter/gene body hyper/hypo represents the ML of the promoter/gene body region in

the hyper/hypo-DMR, rho represents the correlation coefficient between the gene ML and expression level in the scatter plot, and rho.p-val represents the correlation P-value. Bottom right picture: Comparison of the ML of the DMR-related genes in the form of a box diagram. The black colour represents hyperhydric seedlings, and the blue colour represents normal seedlings.

Supplemental Figure S6. Gene ontology (GO) analysis of ethylene-related CHH hypo DMR (A) and DMR promoter (B) genes between HH and normal.

Supplemental Figure S7. Development of HH in *Arabidopsis* mutants.

Supplemental Figure S8. Expression of genes associated with ethylene biosynthesis and signal transduction. *SAM*, *ACS1* and *ACO* are genes related to ethylene biosynthesis; *ETR1* and *ETR2* are ethylene receptor genes; and *ERF12* and *ERF113* are ethylene response genes. The expression levels of genes in whole seedlings were quantified by qRT-PCR and normalized against the expression level of *actin*. The data are the means \pm SEs, and the values are presented as fold changes in expression (hyperhydric seedlings cultured in Gelrite or Gelrite supplemented with AgNO₃ versus normal seedlings in normal culture media). Statistical significance was calculated by Student's t-test, '*' indicates a significant difference at the $P < 0.05$ level.

Supplemental Table S1. Data description of the BS-Seq reads for the three *Arabidopsis* samples with three replicates.

Supplemental Table S2. Percentage of methylation levels of normal and HH seedlings.

Supplemental Table S3. Ethylene-related CHH hypo genes between HH and normal

744 seedlings.

745 **Supplemental Table S4.** Primers used for the bisulphite sequencing analysis.

746 **Supplemental Table S5.** Primers used for the qRT-PCR analysis.

Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Phenotypic and DNA methylome differences between hyperhydric and normal seedlings of *Arabidopsis thaliana*. (A) Development of HH in *Arabidopsis* seedlings. Images were taken after 14 days of culture on 0.7% agar (Normal) or 0.2% Gelrite (HH). (B) Relative proportions of three sequence contexts (CG, CHG and CHH) for all mCs. (C) Analysis of DMRs in hyperhydric seedlings compared with normal seedlings. Numbers of DMR-overlapping promoter, TSS, 5'UTR, exon, intron, 3'UTR, TES, repeat and other regions. (D) Venn diagram of genes with DMRs and genes whose promoters have DMRs in normal and hyperhydric seedlings.

Fig. 2. Analysis of DEGs in hyperhydric versus normal seedlings. (A) Assignments of DEGs in hyperhydric and normal seedlings, as shown in MapMan bins. The red and blue squares indicate up- and downregulated genes, respectively. Venn diagram of DEGs with DMRs (B) and DEGs whose promoters have DMRs (C) in hyperhydric versus normal seedlings.

Fig. 3. Effects of AgNO₃ on the morphology and water content of *Arabidopsis* hyperhydric seedlings. (A) Effects of AgNO₃ on the morphology of seedlings cultured on Gelrite. (B) Changes in the water content of the different groups of seedlings after 14 days of culture. (C) Changes in endogenous ethylene accumulation of the different groups of seedlings in their respective media during the 14 days growth period. The data are the means \pm SEs of three leaf samples randomly taken from nine seedlings. The statistical significance was calculated by Student's t-test, '*' indicates a significant difference at the

P < 0.05 level. (D) Analysis of *ACSI* and *ETR1* promoter DNA methylation and expression. Analysis of the cytosine methylation of a 350 bp segment spanning the *ACSI* and *ETR1* promoter. Twenty clones per DNA sample were analyzed. The filled circles represent methylated cytosines, and the empty circles represent unmethylated contexts.

Fig. 4. Phosphorylation of PIP2;1 and protoplast swelling assay results. (A) Relative phosphorylation levels of endogenous PIP2;1 protein in normal seedlings, hyperhydric seedlings and seedlings grown in media supplemented with AgNO₃, as detected by anti-pS283 polyclonal antibodies. (B) V/V_i of protoplasts during swelling experiments. The means \pm SEs of volume change at each time point were obtained from the analysis of 20 protoplasts generated from five independent protoplast preparations. V/V_i is equal to the swelling volume divided by the initial volume. (C) Average *Pos* of protoplasts in different groups of seedlings. The data are the means \pm SEs (n = 20). Statistical significance was calculated by Student's t-test, '*' indicates a significant difference at the P < 0.05 level.

Fig. 5. Influence of HH on stomatal aperture and water loss in *Arabidopsis* seedlings. (A) Confocal micrographs of H₂DCFDA-stained guard cells and quantification of subcellular DCF fluorescence of normal seedlings, hyperhydric seedlings and seedlings grown in media supplemented with AgNO₃. The data are the means \pm SEs of 90 stomata from three independent replicates. (B) Microscopic images of the abaxial epidermis of leaves of normal seedlings, hyperhydric seedlings and seedlings grown in media supplemented with AgNO₃. Scale bar = 50 μ m. (C) Changes in stomatal aperture of the different groups

of seedlings. (D) Changes in water loss of the different groups of seedlings. The data are the mean \pm SEs from 10 leaf samples randomly taken from ten selected seedlings. Statistical significance was calculated by Student's t-test, '*' indicates a significant difference at the $P < 0.05$ level.

Fig. 6. Proposed mechanism for the ethylene-induced development of HH in *Arabidopsis*.