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Daniela Ramos Cruz

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ABSTRACT

As sessile organisms, plants have evolved a multitude of strategies to ensure survival in changing and competitive environments. One such strategy is allelopathy, which refers to the ability of some plant species to exudate specialized metabolites (allelochemicals) that inhibit the growth or development of other organisms in their vicinity. Although the phenomenon of allelopathy has been known for centuries, the underlying molecular principle and the molecular response of the affected target plants remain understudied. Here, I followed two different approaches to study the effects of allelochemicals belonging to benzoxazinoids (BX). First, I investigated the role of BX in the biotic interactions of a BX-producing species, wheat. To this end, I generated non-transgenic mutant lines deficient in BX biosynthesis, followed by a chemical and phenotypic characterization. Second, I studied the effects of the BX-derived allelochemical 2-amino-phenoxazin-3-one (APO) at the epigenetic and epigenomic level in the non-BX-producing target species *Thlaspi arvense*.

BX-deficient wheat mutants showed normal growth and development compared to wild-type. Contrary to our expectations, allelopathic interactions and defense response to pathogens were unaltered. These results suggest that BX are not essential for the response to these stresses in wheat. In whole-genome DNA methylation analyses, I observed that APO affected cytosine methylation, particularly in the asymmetric methylation context. I identified differentially methylated regions (DMRs), particularly in the promoters of genes related to cell growth and stress response. These results showed for the first time the effect of APO on the epigenome and pointed to potential APO target candidate genes. In summary, this work has generated relevant genetic material to comprehensively study the role of BX in wheat and provides new insights into the APO-mediated stress responses in dicotyledonous plants at the epigenomic level. Altogether, these findings improve our understanding of BX allelochemical physiology in both a producer crop species and a potential target weed.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Als sessile Organismen haben Pflanzen eine Vielzahl von Strategien entwickelt, um ihr Überleben in einer sich verändernden und konkurrenzbetonten Umwelt zu sichern. Eine dieser Strategien ist die Allelopathie, also die Fähigkeit einiger Pflanzenarten, bestimmte Sekundärmetabolite (Allelochemikalien) an die Umwelt abzugeben, die das Wachstum oder die Entwicklung anderer, benachbarter Organismen hemmen. Obwohl die Allelopathie seit Jahrhunderten bekannt ist, ist die funktionelle Charakterisierung der Biosynthese von Allelochemikalien sowie der molekularen Mechanismen, die allelopathische Stressreaktionen auf Zielpflanzenarten vermitteln, noch nicht ausreichend erforscht. Hier verfolgten wir zwei verschiedene Ansätze zur Untersuchung von Allelochemikalien aus der Familie der Benzoxazinoide (BX). Zunächst untersuchte ich die Rolle von BX in biotischen Interaktionen in Weizen. Hierzu erzeugte ich eine Mutante mit unterbrochener BX-Biosynthese, gefolgt von einer chemischen und phänotypischen Charakterisierung. Im zweiten Teil meiner Arbeit konzentrierte ich mich auf die von BX abgeleitete Allelochemikalie 2-Amino-Phenoxazin-3-on (APO) und ihren Einfluss auf das Epigenom in einer Pflanzenart ohne BX-Biosynthese, nämlich *Thlaspi arvense*.

Die Weizen-Mutanten zeigten gegenüber dem Wildtyp unverändertes Wachstum und vergleichbare Entwicklung; entgegen meiner Erwartungen waren die allelopathischen Interaktionen und die Abwehrreaktion gegen unterschiedliche Pathogene nicht beeinträchtigt. Diese Ergebnisse deuten darauf hin, dass BX für die Reaktion von Weizen auf diese Stressfaktoren nicht wesentlich ist. Im zweiten Teil zeigte die DNA-Methylierungsanalyse, dass APO die DNA-Methylierung beeinflusst, insbesondere im asymmetrischen Sequenzkontext. Darüber hinaus detektierte ich differentiell methylierte Regionen (DMRs) v.a. in Promotoren von Genen, die mit Zellwachstum und Stressreaktionen zusammenhängen. Diese Ergebnisse zeigen zum ersten Mal die Auswirkungen von APO auf das Epigenom und weisen auf potenzielle Zielgene von APO hin. Zusammenfassend lässt sich sagen, dass diese Arbeit wichtiges genetisches Material für die breit angelegte Untersuchung der Rolle von BX in Weizen liefert und ihre Bedeutung für die Pflanzenabwehr aufzeigt.

Darüber hinaus liefert die Arbeit neue Erkenntnisse über die APO-vermittelten Stressreaktionen in *T. arvense* auf der Ebene des Epigenoms. Alles in allem verbessern diese Ergebnisse unser Verständnis der BX-anhängigen allelopathischen Physiologie in einer BX-synthetisierenden Nutzpflanzenart sowie einer zweikeimblättrigen Zielpflanze, die häufig als Unkraut auf agrarischen Flächen zu finden ist.

SYNOPSIS

This thesis sets out to narrow the knowledge gap on the physiological role and the molecular effects of benzoxazinoid (BX) allelochemicals. I focused on the BX-producing species *Triticum aestivum*, also commonly known as bread wheat, and the often co-occurring and therefore potential target weed species *Thlaspi arvense*. In the first chapter, I aimed to facilitate the study of BX in wheat by generating a BX-loss-of-synthesis mutant and studied the role of BX in mediating plant allelopathic interactions and defense. This is the first BX-deficient mutant described in wheat and will serve as a valuable genetic resource for future studies of BX in this economically highly relevant crop. In the second chapter, I aimed to unravel the molecular effect of BX on a common weed plant species that itself cannot produce BX. Using whole-genome approaches, I studied the consequences of exposure of *T. arvense* to a potent phytotoxic BX derivative at the epigenetic level.

PUBLICATIONS

Genetic and environmental drivers of large-scale epigenetic variation in *Thlaspi arvense*.

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doi: 10.1371/journal.pgen.1010452.

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Free textbook. GitBook, <https://app.gitbook.com/@epidiverse/s/project/>

CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	2
ABSTRACT.....	4
ZUSAMMENFASSUNG.....	6
SYNOPSIS.....	9
PUBLICATIONS.....	11
CONTENTS.....	13
INTRODUCTION.....	15
1. Benzoxazinoids as allelopathic compounds in grass species.....	15
1.1 Allelopathy and its ecological relevance.....	15
1.2 Benzoxazinoids: functions and biological interactions.....	18
1.3 The role of benzoxazinoids in shaping the plant root microbiome.....	24
1.4 Benzoxazinoids biosynthesis.....	26
1.5 Evolution of Benzoxazinoid biosynthesis in grasses.....	28
1.6 Wheat importance and domestication history.....	30
1.7 Origin of bread hexaploid wheat.....	32
1.8 TILLING as a tool for functional genomics and crop improvement in wheat.....	34
2. Epigenetics in plant-environment interactions.....	36
2.1 Defining epigenetics.....	36
2.2 DNA methylation and histone modifications.....	37
2.3 Epigenetics and its role in biotic and abiotic stress.....	39
2.4 Priming and epigenetic stress memory.....	43
2.5 <i>Thlaspi arvense</i> as a new model organism.....	45
MATERIALS AND METHODS.....	47
1. Plant material.....	47
2. Growth conditions, genotyping and crosses.....	47
3. Analysis of benzoxazinoids in wheat lines.....	49
4. Wheat <i>bx3</i> mutants phenotyping.....	49
5. Competition assays.....	50
6. Pathogen bioassays.....	51
7. Growth inhibition assay in <i>Thlaspi arvense</i>	51
8. APO stress assay.....	52
9. Whole genome bisulfite (WGBS) library preparation and sequencing.....	52
10. Methylation analysis.....	53
11. Identification of differentially methylated regions (DMRs).....	53
RESULTS.....	55
1. Loss of benzoxazinoids synthesis in hexaploid wheat.....	55
1.1 Loss of BX3 affects benzoxazinoids biosynthesis in wheat.....	55

1.2 Growth and developmental effects on <i>bx3</i> mutants.....	57
1.3 BX effect on biotic interactions in wheat.....	58
2. Epigenetic stress response to the allelochemical APO in <i>Thlaspi arvense</i>	63
2.1 APO inhibits root growth in <i>Thlaspi arvense</i>	63
2.2 APO stress-induced DNA methylation dynamics in <i>T. arvense</i>	64
2.3 APO stress-induced DMRs occur mainly in CHH context.....	68
2.4 Candidate genes affected by APO stress.....	73
DISCUSSION.....	78
1. A BX loss of synthesis mutant in hexaploid wheat generated by a non-transgenic TILLING approach.....	78
2. Loss of BX does not affect biotic interactions in wheat.....	81
3. The BX-derived compound APO impairs the epigenome and affects stress-related genes in <i>T. arvense</i>	84
CONCLUSION.....	87
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS.....	88
LIST OF ACRONYMS.....	129
REFERENCES.....	132

INTRODUCTION

1. Benzoxazinoids as allelopathic compounds in grass species

1.1 Allelopathy and its ecological relevance

Plants have evolved a plethora of adaptive strategies to thrive in competitive and stressful environments. Among these strategies is allelopathy, which refers to the ability of certain plant species to produce and release secondary metabolites known as allelochemicals. These compounds inhibit the germination and/or growth of neighboring plants allowing the allelopathic plant to outcompete them and to increase its chance of survival and reproductive success. Allelochemicals also act as defense compounds against pests and pathogens[1]. In this way, allelopathy impacts ecological dynamics in competition, stress tolerance and plant fitness[2].

The phenomenon of allelopathy has been known for over 2000 years [3]; Molisch introduced the term allelopathy in 1937 [3,4]. It derives from the Greek words *allelon* (“of each other”) and *pathos* (“to suffer”) and means “the effect of one upon another” [3,4]. Today, in the context of plants, allelopathy is defined as both the inhibition and/or stimulation of the growth or development of an organism, through the biological action of allelochemicals produced by plant species [2]. Here, I will refer to allelopathy as the adverse and inhibitory effects that plant-derived allelochemicals exert on other organisms (plants, animals and microbes).

Allelochemicals are very diverse and can be classified into 14 categories based on their chemical similarities: 1) water-soluble organic acids, straight-chain alcohols, aliphatic aldehydes, and ketones; 2) simple unsaturated lactones; 3) long-chain fatty acids and polyacetylenes; 4) benzoquinone, anthraquinone and complex quinones; 5) simple phenols, benzoic acid but also its derivatives; 6) cinnamic acid and its derivatives; 7) coumarin; 8) flavonoids; 9) tannins; 10) terpenoids and steroids; 11) amino acids and peptides; 12) alkaloids and cyanohydrins; 13) sulfide and

glucosinolates; and 14) purines as well as nucleosides [5]. These phytochemicals are not essential for cell growth and development, but are preferentially allocated to tissues of great value or produced at early and vulnerable developmental stages, balancing a trade-off between growth, fecundity and defense [6]. Allelochemicals can be released into the environment via root exudation, leaching by precipitation (e.g. from leaves or stems), volatilization, or via decomposition of microbes and plant tissues [2].

As a consequence of allelochemical exudation, plants can impact the species community of their environment or invade new ecosystems. Examples of invasive species include *Alliaria petiolata*, which produces glucosinolate compounds such as allyl isothiocyanate and benzyl isothiocyanate, or *Sonchus oleraceus*, which produces several kinds of allelochemicals. It has been postulated that these species could become dominant in their new habitats because no tolerance or resistance to their so-called “novel weapons” existed in the native communities [7–9]. This opens new possibilities to study plant ecosystem dynamics and/or translate the use of allelopathy to agricultural setups.

In an agricultural context, it is of great interest to develop environmentally friendly practices that improve crop productivity through allelopathic control of weeds, insect pests, and crop diseases [5]). Its potential use has been extensively studied and special attention has been given to allelopathic crops [10,11]. Crops that have been investigated for their allelopathic properties include cucumber, rice, wheat, maize, rye, sorghum, sudan grass, tall and fine fescue, sunflower, and barley [12–14]. Examples of crop allelochemicals comprise: sorgoleone from *Sorghum* species, which is known for having weed-suppressive properties in the field [15]; momilactones A and B from rice, both allelochemicals but also phytoalexins [16,17]; and benzoxazinoids (BX), produced by many Poaceae species, including maize, wheat and rye [18]. Some of these allelopathic crops have been used in the field in rotational or combined cropping systems to provide a competitive advantage to non-producing species and to increase crop yield [11,13,19].

Allelopathic interactions are likely to be mediated by plant–plant recognition mechanisms that involve chemical signaling. However, such detailed interaction pathways are yet to be elucidated. Interestingly, growing evidence shows that

allelochemical synthesis or exudation is elevated in response to recognition of neighboring competing plant species in a species-specific manner. For instance, wheat production of the benzoxazinoid allelochemical DIMBOA (2,4-dihydroxy-7-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one) increases and varies depending on the competing weed species [20–22]. Such observations suggest that the molecular signaling has evolved in a species-specific manner, targeting most likely plants that are expected to grow in the same community.

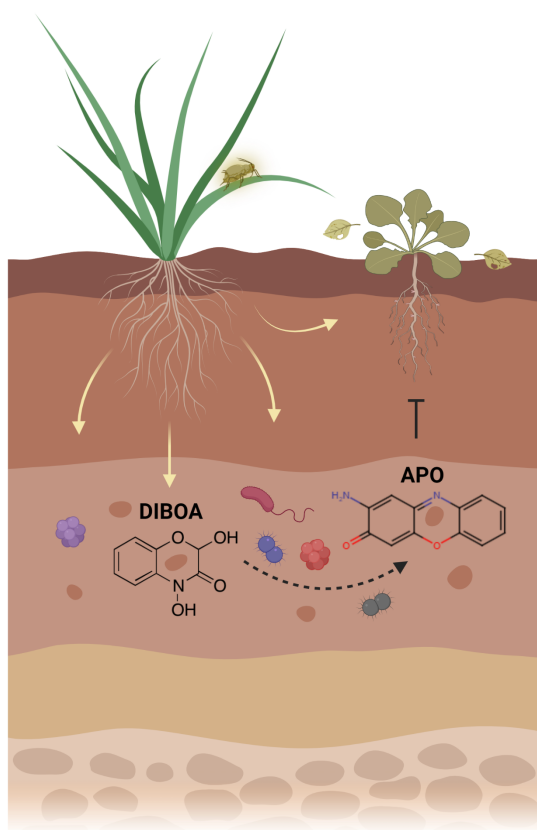


Figure 1. Biotic interactions mediated by benzoxazinoids. Upon pathogen and herbivore attack or in response to plant-plant competition, grass species release BX, such as DIBOA (2,4-dihydroxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one). DIBOA released into the rhizosphere (indicated by yellow arrows) is converted through microbial activity into APO (2-amino-phenoxazin-3-one). APO is a more stable and active compound with a stronger growth inhibition effect.

Another recently studied function of allelochemicals, particularly of BX, is their role in shaping the soil microbiome [23–27]. BX may promote beneficial plant-microbe interactions and provide a competitive advantage to the plant [28]. Microbes can, in turn, degrade BX and make them more stable in the soil. For example, in unsterilized

soil, microbes degrade DIBOA (2,4-dihydroxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one) into APO in ~43 h. APO (2-amino-phenoxazin-3-one) is a more stable and bioactive compound that can persist, depending on the environmental conditions, for more than 90 days in biologically active soil [29]. Figure 1.

In summary, allelopathy has evolved as a strategy for plants to influence their environment and as a defense mechanism against pathogens and competitors. The vast diversity of allelochemicals shows the complexity and diverse strategies that plants have used to achieve this competitive advantage. Additionally, the recent knowledge on the role of allelochemicals in structuring the soil microbiome, as well as new insights into the plant signaling mechanisms involved in allelopathic interactions will open new doors to explore allelopathic agro-ecological potential.

1.2 Benzoxazinoids: functions and biological interactions

Benzoxazinoids (BX) are secondary metabolites belonging to the family of cyclic hydroxamic acids that act as defense and allelopathic compounds. Their defense and allelopathic properties, but also the fact that many crops produce them, have made them one of the most agriculturally relevant metabolites. BX-producing crops include maize (*Zea mays*), wheat (*Triticum* spp.), rye (*Secale cereale*) and other cultivated Poaceae, but also wild species such as wild (but not cultivated) barley [30].

BX production has also been found in a few dicot species, such as *Acanthus mollis*, [31], *Aphelandra tetragona*, *Blepharis edulis*, *Aphelandra squarrosa* [32], *Consolida orientalis* [33], *Scoparia dulcis* [34], and *Lamium galeobdolon* [33], but their function in these species has been less explored.

The two main benzoxazinoids with allelopathic activity are DIMBOA and DIBOA [35]. In maize and wheat, DIMBOA is the main allelochemical [36], whereas in rye and wild barley, DIBOA is more prominent [18,37]. Different studies have shown that these compounds inhibit plant growth at concentrations in the range of 100-500 μM [2]. DIMBOA and DIBOA spontaneously degrade to MBOA (6-Methoxy-2-benzoxazolinone) and BOA (2-benzoxazolinone), respectively, which are further converted into AMPO (2-amino-7-methoxy-phenoxazin-3-one) and APO.

The degradation products of DIMBOA and DIBOA also exert allelopathic activities. Among them, APO is the most potent allelochemical; inhibitory effects in in vitro assays occur at concentrations as low as 3.25 μ M [38]. Compared to its precursors, APO is more stable in soil and remains active for several months [29].

BX are synthesized in shoot and root tissues in both monocot and dicot species, but biosynthesis mainly occurs in above-ground tissues in dicots [39,40]. These compounds are abundant in juvenile plant growth stages and decline as the plant ages [41,42]. However, upon biotic stress induction, such as pathogen attack, BX accumulation and release occur also in older leaves [43]. It is also possible that BX are transported to the site of damage, since they have been found in phloem exudates, and accumulation of these compounds has been observed in the seeds of wheat and rye [44,45]. Furthermore, not only biotic stresses induce BX accumulation, but also some abiotic stresses such as temperature, drought, nitrogen deficiency, photoperiod, light intensity and UV radiation [43].

Within the cell, BX are stored as a glucoside in the vacuole to avoid autotoxicity. Upon disintegration of the cell, due to pathogen as well as herbivore attack, glucosidases stored in the chloroplast cleave the glucosyl group and release the toxic aglucons [18,30]. Toxicity of aglucons results from the reactivity of the open ring structure of α -oxo-aldehyde, which reacts with nucleophiles, particularly thiols and amines, in amino acids and proteins. Some reported effects of BX in cell function include the oxidation of cell wall peroxidases with associated production of H₂O₂, accumulation of lignins, disruption of lipid metabolism but also of protein synthesis, reduction of transport and/or secretory capabilities, and decreased H⁺-ATPase activity [30,46]. Additionally, it has been observed that BX can intercalate with nucleic acids, which could modify the DNA and cause mutations [47]. Because BX can affect different conserved cell functions, they can impact several species among the different kingdoms.

Many biological interactions have been observed for benzoxazinoids with different target species, including herbivores, fungi, bacteria, and plants. Some of these interactions result in inhibitory effects on the target species, but others show the adaptive potential of some organisms to evolve resistance or the capacity to metabolize and/or use these compounds for their own benefit and growth (Table 1).

Table 1. Benzoxazinoids biological interactions

Organism	Effect	References
Herbivores		
<i>Spodoptera littoralis</i>	Strong BX induction in young leaves influences foraging behavior of this non-adapted species, which prefers to feed on WT plants or older leaves, where BX content is lower.	[48,49]
<i>S. littoralis</i> and <i>Ostrinia furnicalis</i>	Caterpillars grow more slowly on maize with prior insect damage. Such growth inhibition effects are absent in <i>bx1</i> mutants, indicating that the defense response requires BX.	[50,51]
<i>Ostrina furnicalis</i> , <i>Ostrinia nubilalis</i> , <i>Spodoptera frugiperda</i> , <i>S. exigua</i> and <i>S. littoralis</i>	Insect feeding induces the methylation of DIMBOA-Glc to form HDMBOA-Glc. This inducible conversion may enhance maize resistance because the HDMBOA aglucone is degraded to MBOA more rapidly than the DIMBOA aglucone. In another study, larval development of <i>Ostrinia nubilalis</i> was inhibited by DIMBOA and caused 25% mortality.	[50–55]
<i>S. frugiperda</i>	Detoxification of BX by re-glycosylation of activated BX, but the re-glycosylation is less effective in counteracting HDMBOA-Glc than DIMBOA-Glc in the insect.	[56]
<i>Schizaphis graminum</i>	Resistance of wheat to <i>S. graminum</i> correlated with the induction of DIMBOA, DIMBOA-Glc and HDMBOA-Glc.	[57]

<i>Rhopalosiphum maidis</i> <i>Rhopalosiphum padi</i>	Natural variation of different alleles of <i>BX12</i> that convert DIMBOA-Glc to HDMBOA-Glc were identified for resistance against <i>R. maidis</i>. Aphids growth was affected on plants with higher DIMBOA content, presumably because of the induction of callose deposition by DIMBOA. Similarly, differences in callose-dependent aphid resistance were observed in maize B73 and Mo17 inbred lines infected with <i>R. padi</i>. Another study showed mild resistance of wheat to <i>R. padi</i> that correlated with the induction of DIMBOA and DIMBOA-Glc.	[57–60]
<i>Diabrotica virgifera</i>	The specialized herbivore corn rootworm (<i>D. virgifera</i>) feeds on highly nutritious tissue with high amounts of BX. The resistance of <i>D. virgifera</i> is due to the stabilization of MBOA by N-glycosylation. In turn, <i>D. virgifera</i> also employs BX for its own defense against nematodes and bacteria.	[61,62]
<i>Mythimna separata</i>	<i>M. separata</i> is another serious pest in rice, maize, sorghum and wheat and seems resistant to BX. <i>M. separata</i> is able to glycosylate DIMBOA and HMBOA.	[63]
<i>Diuraphis noxia</i>	DIBOA in wild barley species negatively impacts the development of the aphid <i>D. noxia</i>.	[64]
<i>Meloidogyne incognita</i>	DIBOA exuded from rye inhibits egg development of the nematode <i>M. incognita</i>.	[65]
Fungi		
<i>Bipolaris maydis</i> <i>Curvularia lunata</i> <i>Alternaria alternate</i>	Increase of benzoxazinoids HDMBOA and MBOA caused by these phytopathogenic fungi inhibits conidia germination and tube growth. MBOA had the strongest antifungal properties.	[66]

<i>Fusarium nivale</i>	Growth inhibition of <i>Fusarium</i> by benzoxazolinones in rye seedlings.	[67]
<i>Fusarium verticillioides</i>	<i>F. verticillioides</i> can metabolize BOA into HPMA and cause disease symptoms in corn. FDB1 and FDB2 enzymes are involved in the detoxification mechanism. Another study showed that <i>FUG1</i> (<i>Fungal Unknown Gene 1</i>) gene is required for BX tolerance and successful maize kernel colonization as well as activation of the biosynthesis of fumonisins mycotoxins in <i>F. verticillioides</i> .	[68,69]
<i>Fusarium graminearum</i>	Biosynthesis of toxic trichothecenes produced by <i>F. graminearum</i> is inhibited by DIMBOA in wheat, due to the suppression of the key trichothecenes biosynthetic genes <i>Tri6</i> and <i>Tri5</i> .	[70]
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i> <i>Candida albicans</i>	Fungal growth inhibition by BX at a millimolar concentration.	[71–73]
Bacteria		
<i>Pseudomonas putida</i>	The soil bacteria are attracted to DIMBOA in the rhizosphere, which induce defense priming, as jasmonate-induced defenses are turned on faster in colonized plants.	[28,74]
<i>Pantoea stewartii</i> <i>Xanthomonas stewartii</i>	Bacterial growth inhibition caused by MBOA.	[75]
<i>Erwinia spp</i> <i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i>	Bacterial growth inhibition caused by DIMBOA in <i>Erwinia</i> and <i>Agrobacterium</i> .	[76,77]

<i>Escherichia coli</i> <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	BOA, MBOA and DIMBOA antimicrobial activity.	[71,73]
Algae		
<i>Chlorella xanthella</i>	Algal growth inhibition by DIBOA and DIMBOA at millimolar concentrations.	[72]
Plants		
<i>Chenopodium album</i>	Rye BX growth inhibition greater than 90% in <i>C. album</i> .	[78]
<i>Sinapis alba</i>	DIBOA and DIMBOA produced by wheat inhibit growth of <i>S. alba</i> .	[79]
<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	Detoxification of BOA in Arabidopsis through O-glycosylation of the intermediate BOA-6-OH. Transcriptional response also shows changes in expression of genes involved in tolerance to other xenobiotics. Moreover, expression of UGTs <i>BX8</i> or <i>BX9</i> confers DI(M)BOA tolerance to Arabidopsis. Arabidopsis is susceptible to the degradation products of DI(M)BOA, AMPO and APO, which directly inhibit histone deacetylases, inducing chromatin changes that alter gene expression and affect plant growth.	[80–82]
<i>Avena fatua</i> , <i>Avena ludoviciana</i> , <i>Descurainia sophia</i> , <i>Portulaca oleracea</i> and <i>Lolium rigidum</i>	A 500 μ m dose of DIMBOA is sufficient to inhibit root length in <i>Avena fatua</i> by $\approx$ 70% and <i>Lolium rigidum</i> by $\approx$ 55%. In a hydroponic system, wheat produced more BX in proximity to <i>Avena fatua</i> , <i>Descurainia sophia</i> , <i>Lolium rigidum</i> and <i>Portulaca oleracea</i> . Another study showed the allelopathic potential of leaf extracts from various wheat accessions against	[83–86]

	<i>Avena ludoviciana</i> . Allelopathic wheat accessions have high DIMBOA content.	
Various weeds	In cocultivation experiments, 9 different weeds that occur in wheat fields were inhibited by wheat.	[21]
<i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i> L and <i>Portulaca oleracea</i> L	These broadleaf weeds show resistance to BX mainly due to their detoxifying capacity of BOA through glycosylation. Interestingly, inhibition of seed germination and seedling growth of both weeds has been observed with rye mulches.	[19,87]
<i>Trifolium alexandrinum</i>	Co-cultivation of rye with berseem clover influences gene expression levels of BX biosynthesis genes and content of BX, particularly of GDIBOA and DIBOA.	[88]

Taken together, the production of BX has evolved in some plant species as a defense and allelopathic strategy against pathogens and competitors. BX are mainly produced at vulnerable young plant stages or as a consequence of both biotic and abiotic stresses. Their role in biotic interactions has received much attention because of the capabilities of BX to interfere with many biological cell functions and affect organisms from several kingdoms of life (Table 1). Notably, crops that produce BX are of great interest because of their agricultural potential in managing plant diseases.

1.3 The role of benzoxazinoids in shaping the plant root microbiome

Plants interact with a multitude of microorganisms in their environment. They have co-evolved with microbes to establish close associations that can be beneficial or detrimental to plant fitness and health. Some interactions assist the plant in nutrient

absorption, pathogen resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, and growth promotion, but others cause disease and in some cases death of the host [89].

Underground, beneficial microbe-plant associations are influenced by primary and secondary metabolites released by roots into the rhizosphere. The rhizosphere is the soil zone surrounding the roots that is directly impacted by plant exudates. Besides as carbon and nitrogen sources for bacterial growth, root exudates can act as signaling molecules to attract or repel specific microbes. The rhizosphere microbiome functions as a protective layer that provides plant protection by antibiosis or serving as a niche against competing pathogens and/or by enhancing the plant immune responses. In this way, root exudates shape the plant microbiome and promote plant health [90,91].

BX and their breakdown products are important players in structuring the plant soil microbiome [23–26]. They affect the rhizobiome metabolome and favor the colonization of some bacterial and fungal taxa of the rhizosphere [24–26]. For instance, DIMBOA secreted by maize roots attracts the plant-growth promoting bacteria *Pseudomonas putida* [28] (Table 1). In contrast, BX have been shown to inhibit the growth of certain bacterial and fungal pathogens or suppress their virulence [33,92–94].

As plants can shape their soil microbiome, they can also influence the performance of other plants growing subsequently in the same soil. This phenomenon, where soil legacies affect next plant generations, is known as plant-soil-feedbacks (PSFs); and the process in which plants change soil properties is often referred to as “soil conditioning” [95]. Negative PSFs occur when the previous plant generation enriched pathogens, released allelopathic compounds, or reduced the availability of nutrients. In contrast, positive PSFs are observed when the previous plant generation promoted beneficial symbionts and enhanced nutrient availability [27]. Farmers have recognized the PSF effect for a long time and have taken advantage of beneficial crop rotations. For example, *Brassicaceae* species that produce glucosinolates have been used to biofumigate fields against fungi, oomycetes and plant-parasitic nematodes [96,97]. Recently, it was shown that maize secretion of BX conditions different types of soil, including soil from agricultural fields. PSF were observed in

maize and wheat growing on BX conditioned soils. Both plant species showed reduced growth. Interestingly, in addition to the reduced growth phenotype in maize, a herbivore growth suppression phenotype was observed in maize growth on BX conditioned soil [23,27]. These results highlight the future possibility of using BX-mediated PSF for pest control in the field.

1.4 Benzoxazinoids biosynthesis

BX biosynthesis has been studied in monocots, including maize [18], wheat [98], wild barley [37], and partially in rye [99], but so far not in dicots [40]. The most detailed study has been done in maize, where the whole BX biosynthetic pathway has been revealed (Figure 2) [30,100].

BX biosynthesis starts in the chloroplast. It branches off the tryptophan biosynthesis pathway with the activity of the BX1 enzyme, a homologue of the tryptophan synthase (TSA) that converts indole-3-glycerol phosphate into indole [18,101].

The indole produced by BX1 is then oxidized in the endoplasmic reticulum by a series of Cytochrome P450-dependent monooxygenases (BX2-BX5) at four different positions, to produce the simplest functional benzoxazinoid, DIBOA (2,4-dihydroxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one) [18,100]. DIBOA is stabilized via glucosylation by the partially redundant UDP-glucosyltransferases (UGT) BX8 and BX9 [81]. DIBOA-Glc is further oxidized by a 2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase (2-ODD, BX6) and methylated by an O-methyltransferase (OMT, BX7) in the cytosol to produce DIMBOA-Glc (2,4-dihydroxy-7-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside) [102]. Glycosylated BX are stored in the vacuole, and upon cell wall disruption, specific beta-glucosidases cleave the glucosyl group and release the toxic aglucons [43].

DIMBOA-Glc can be further methylated in the cytosol by the OMTs BX10, BX11, BX12 and BX14 to produce HDMBOA-Glc (2-hydroxy-4,7-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside) [58]. Both BX10 and BX11 are particularly induced by herbivory [52]. Subsequently, BX13 can oxidize DIMBOA-Glc to produce TRIMBOA-Glc (2,4,7-trihydroxy-8-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside). Interestingly, the BX7

catalyzing the OMT step in DIMBOA-Glc acts again on TRIMBOA-Glc to produce DIM₂BOA-Glc (2,4-dihydroxy-7,8-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside), which is further methylated by BX14 to form HDM₂BOA-Glc (2,4-dihydroxy-7,8-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside) [103,104].

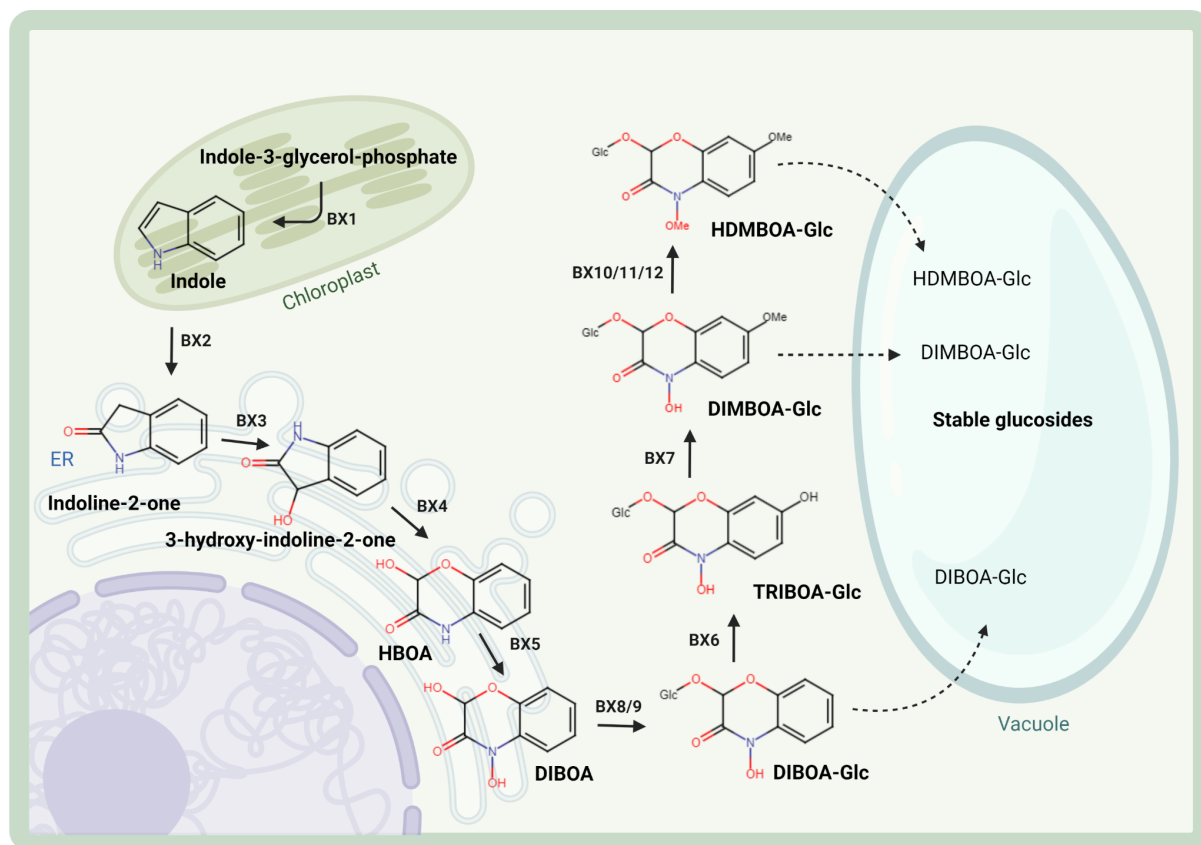


Figure 2. Biosynthesis of benzoxazinoids. Enzymes and intermediaries of BX biosynthesis as well as their subcellular localizations are depicted. The stable glucosides (Glc) are stored in the vacuole. In maize and wheat, the predominant benzoxazinoid is DIMBOA-Glc, while in many other plant species the final product is DIBOA-Glc.

Although BX biosynthesis has been studied for several years and resolved in detail in maize, little is known about the regulatory mechanisms that control the BX pathway. Different analyses of maize transcriptomic data have identified transcription factors (TFs) that correlate with BX abundance. However, most of those candidates have not been functionally validated [60,105,106]. Recently, two separate studies identified some transcriptional regulators of BX biosynthesis in maize and wheat. Gao et al. identified the basic helix–loop–helix ZmbHLH20 and ZmbHLH76 TFs in a protoplast system in maize, and [107,108]. found the MIB31 TF in wheat [107,108].

1.5 Evolution of Benzoxazinoid biosynthesis in grasses

Most of what we know about the genes involved in BX biosynthesis comes from studies in maize, but orthologs have been identified in other Poaceae species. The phylogenetic analysis suggests that BX biosynthesis has a monophyletic origin in Poaceae [30].

In contrast to other Poaceae species, the genes contributing to the BX pathway form a metabolic gene cluster in maize. Clustering is thought to facilitate co-transcription and co-inheritance of beneficial gene combinations by enabling localized changes in chromatin [109]. The core maize genes *ZmBX1* to *ZmBX5* and *ZmBX8* are located within 264 kb on the short arm of chromosome 4 [110]. *ZmBX1* expression is regulated by a distant enhancer element located in the middle of the cluster [111]. In maize, both *ZmBX1* and *ZmBX2* are tightly linked, separated only by 2.5 Kb. Such linkage is conserved in hexaploid wheat and rye, where wheat orthologs *TaBx1* and *TaBx2* localized on group 4 chromosomes (4A, 4B and 4D), while rye orthologs *ScBx1* and *ScBx2* are found in chromosome 7R. However, the rest of the cluster (*BX3* to *BX5* and *BX8*) is located on different chromosomes in these species. In hexaploid wheat, orthologues (*TaBx3-TaBx5*) are located in the short arm of group 5 chromosomes (5A, 5B and 5D), while in rye, they (*ScBx3-ScBx5*) are located on the short arm of chromosome 5R. *BX8* orthologs are localized on group 7 chromosomes in wheat and on chromosome 4R in rye [18,112,113] (Figure 3). Even though BX genes are not clustered in wheat and rye, they still seem to be coordinately expressed. Possibly, other *cis* regulatory elements as well as TFs common to all BX pathways ensure a coordinated gene transcription. [112].

Grasses are proposed to have evolved from a common ancestor with 5 proto-chromosomes [114]. According to this model, a part of chromosome 4 in maize, where *ZmBX1-ZmBX5* are located, originated from the A11 proto-chromosome. The same proto-chromosome gave origin to *TaBX1*, *TaBX2*, *TaBX3* and *TaBX5* from wheat. These observations suggest that *BX1* to *BX5* arose as a cluster that was split into two chromosomes during the evolutionary process of *Triticeae* [112,115]. Additionally, the *BX2-BX5* genes of wheat, maize, rye and wild barley share high homology, suggesting that their progenitor evolved before the

divergence of the *Triticeae* and the *Panicoideae* [30]. The genes encoding glucosyl transferases and glucoside glucosidases are thought to have originated from the ancestral proto-chromosomes A8 and A4, respectively. Wheat glucosyltransferases show synteny with parts of maize chromosome 1 (where *ZmBX9* is located) and 4 (where *ZmBX8* is located), and wheat glucoside glucosidases (*Taglu*) show synteny with a part of chromosome 10 (where *Zmglu1* and *Zmglu2* genes are located). These findings imply that the *UGT* and *glu* loci had not been included in the ancestral BX-pathway gene cluster. However, the fact that one of the maize *UGT* genes, *ZmBX8*, is situated only 44 kb apart from *ZmBX1* retains the possibility of an ancestral BX-pathway gene cluster [39,112].

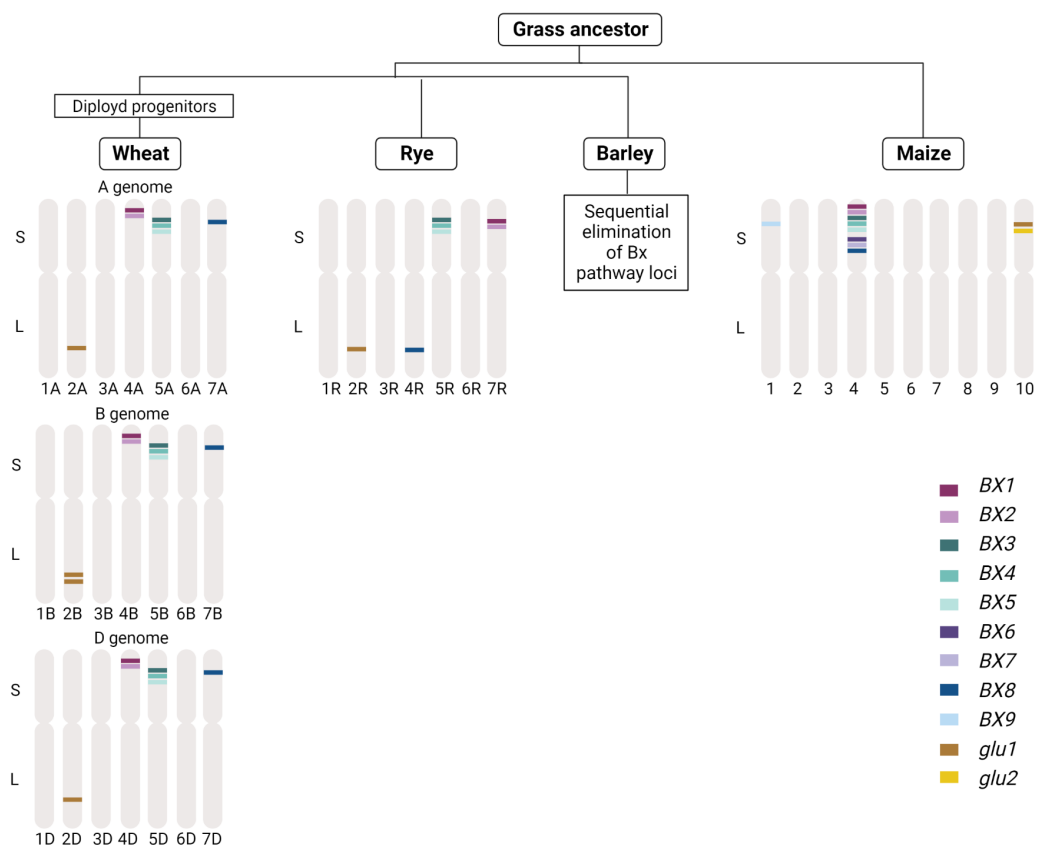


Figure 3. Chromosomal locations of BX-pathway loci identified in Triticeae species and in maize. *BX1-BX9* and glucosidase genes (*glu*) are represented as colored lines along the short (S) and long (L) chromosome arms of the three species. Note that orthologues of *BX7* haven't been determined in wheat and rye and that domesticated barley lost the BX biosynthetic cluster. Figure adapted from [112].

BX6 and *BX7* are separated by several centimorgans from the main cluster in the short arm of chromosome 4 in maize. *BX6* is located 1.7 Mbp upstream of the cluster

and *BX7* 15 Mbp downstream [110]. In rye, an ortholog of *BX6* has been identified (*ScBX6-like*) [99]. However, neither orthologs of *BX6* and *BX7* in wheat nor *BX7* orthologs in rye have so far been identified [30,99].

The remaining maize BX biosynthetic genes are located in different chromosomes. *BX10* to *BX12* are located within 200 kb on chromosome 1. They are most probably paralogues that resulted from gene duplications [58]. *BX13* and *BX14* are both distantly located in chromosome 2. The localization of some BX biosynthetic genes on chromosome 4, but set apart from the main cluster on that chromosome, may facilitate independent regulation of steps downstream of DIMBOA-Glc, or could be the result of later evolution of these DIMBOA-Glc modification reactions. In wheat, a distantly related *TaBX10* gene has been identified. *TaBX10* is induced by caterpillar feeding and likely evolved independently [49]. All other genes have not yet been identified in other species [104].

In dicots, research on the genes and evolution of the BX pathway is scarce. Like in monocots, it has been shown that indole is generated by a homologue of TSA, and that further steps lead to BX. The *BX1* genes of the Poaceae family and the dicots *A. squarrosa*, *C. orientalis*, and *L. galeobdolon* are results of individual convergent evolution [40]. Similarly, the *UGT* gene *CoBX8* and the specific glucosidases *CoGlu* and *LgGlu1* from *C. orientalis* and *L. galeobdolon* are the result of repeated evolution. Hence, BX biosynthesis most likely evolved independently several times [116,117].

1.6 Wheat importance and domestication history

Wheat is one of the most important cereal grains in the world and belongs to the *Triticeae* tribe of the grasses (*Poaceae*) family. It is produced in temperate, cool, arid and semi-arid regions. Wheat grain is mainly used for a variety of bread and pasta products that contribute greatly to the health and well-being of humans. Most of the cultivated wheat, roughly 95%, is common wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) used for making bread, cookies, and pastries; while the remaining 5% is durum wheat (*Triticum durum*), used for making pasta and other semolina products. Wheat-based foods contribute to about one fifth of the total calories consumed by humans, but it is

also an important source of dietary fibers, B vitamins, minerals, and other phytochemicals [118,119]. As one of the most important staple foods of humanity, its demand and production is increasing and expected to continue to rise. In 2020 and 2021, worldwide annual wheat production reached a record of ~770 million tonnes and it is predicted to be around the same amount for 2022 (FAO, 2022). Therefore, questions regarding its origin, domestication history, development, physiology and biological interactions have fascinated scientists for years, with the hope to increase its production and nutritious value in the face of climate change and an increasing population.

Crop domestication allowed humans to change from a nomad lifestyle to a sedentary one. In the case of wheat, the domestication origin remains obscure. Archaeological samples, as well as the genetic relationships between wild species with domesticated einkorn (*T. monococcum*, genomes AA) and emmer (*T. turgidum* ssp. *dicoccon*, genomes BBAA), point to the west region of Diyarbakir in southeastern Turkey as the most likely origin for its domestication. From this area, domesticated einkorn and emmer expanded to Asia, Europe and Africa [118,120,121] .

Expansion of domesticated emmer to the southwest allowed it to mix with wild emmer or with emmer populations domesticated in the southern region. This formed a center of emmer diversity in the Southern Levant and divided the populations from the north and the south [121]. Recent genetic evidence shows that a haplotype surrounding a major gene controlling spike fragility originated from wild emmer in the Southern Levant region [122]. Non-fragile spikes marked the origin of domesticated wheat because this phenotype prevented the grains from being scattered by the wind and facilitated harvesting [118]. Archaeological data suggest that wheat domestication was a gradual process. Both fragile and non-fragile spikes were found in early PPNB (Pre-Pottery Neolithic B, starting ~10,000 “Calibrated years before present” Cal-Y BP) and took 2-3 milenia for non-brittleness to be dominant among cultivated wheat [123]. The non-brittleness phenotype was due to a loss of function mutation in the *brittle rachis 1* loci on chromosomes 3A and 3B (*br-A1* and *br-B1*) [124]. By the middle PPNB, ~9800 Cal-Y BP, further expansion of domesticated emmer to the northeast occurred from Armenia to the southwestern coastal area of the Caspian Sea. This allowed domesticated emmer to mix with *Aegilops tauschii*

(genomes DD) giving rise to hexaploid common wheat (*T. aestivum*, genomes BBAADD) [118]. *T. aestivum* was probably selected due to the contribution of variable alleles of high molecular weight (HMW) glutenins in the D subgenome that gave wheat a superior baking quality [125,126].

Among other traits that were selected through domestication are: loss of tough glumes that form free-threshing wheat, increased seed size, reduced number of tillers, more erect growth, and reduced seed dormancy [118]. Seeds of free-threshing wheat began to appear in archeological sites about 10,000 Cal-Y BP from an already extinct ancestor of durum [127]. This phenotype was due to the recessive mutations at the *tenacious glume* (*Tg*) loci and the gain-of-function mutation at the Q locus, which encodes an *AP2*-like transcription factor. Such mutations lead to various pleiotropic effects, changing the shape and thickness of glumes and causing a more compact spike [128,129]. One gene affecting seed size and grain nutrient content is *GPC-B1*. During domestication, a nonfunctional allele of *GPC-B1* was selected and fixed in both tetraploid and hexaploid wheat [130]. Apart from the genes mentioned above, no other genes involved in domestication have been identified so far.

1.7 Origin of bread hexaploid wheat

Both durum and common wheat are allopolyploid species, i.e., having subgenomes (chromosome sets) that derived from natural genome hybridization events of closely related diploid species. Here, we will focus on common wheat (*T. aestivum*) as our model organism, due to its high importance in agriculture. *T. aestivum* is a hexaploid species, composed of 21 chromosome pairs organized in three subgenomes, A, B, and D, Genome BBAADD, $2n=6x=42$ [131,132]. The diploid species involved in the origin of *T. aestivum* have been identified through crossing and analysis of chromosome pairing, but only recently, a high quality genome assembly became available that corroborated these species [133].

Common wheat evolved through two main genome hybridization events. The first event led to the formation of wild emmer wheat (*T. turgidum* ssp. *dicoccon*), the wild progenitor of tetraploid wheat that contributed the A and B subgenomes of *T. aestivum*. This hybridization event occurred ~800,000 years ago between two diploid species: the male donor of the A subgenome, a species very similar to *T. urartu*, but

diverged from it ~1.3 MYA, and the female donor of the B subgenome, a species related to *Aegilops speltoides*, but diverged from it ~4.5 MYA [133–136]). The second hybridization event that led to the formation of hexaploid wheat occurred ~9000 YA and involved the hybridization of wild emmer as the female donor of the AB subgenome and *Ae. tauschii* as the male donor of the D subgenome (Figure 4).

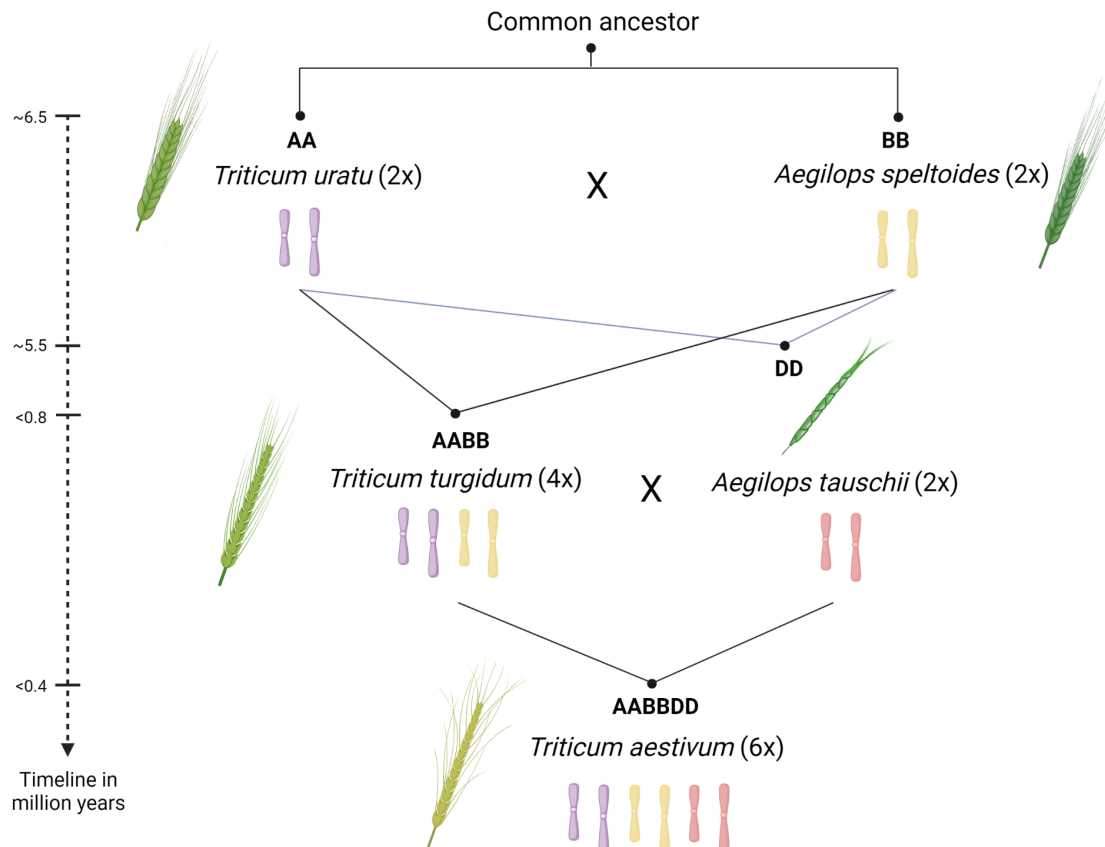


Figure 4. Evolution of hexaploid bread wheat (*T. aestivum* AABBDD). Approximate dates for divergence and the three hybridization events are given in the dashed line on the left. Differentiation of the A and B genome lineages began ~6.5 Ma from a common wheat ancestor. The first hybridization occurred ~5.5 Ma between the A (*T. uratu*) and B (a close relative of *Ae. speltoides*) genomes, leading to the homoploid hybrid that originated the D genome lineage (*Ae. tauschii*). The second hybridization happened <0.8 Ma by polyploidization of the A and B lineages, giving rise to the allotetraploid emmer wheat (*T. turgidum*). Hexaploid bread wheat originated by allopolyploidization from a third hybridization between the AB and D lineages.

Interestingly, the D subgenome is in itself an ancient homoploid hybrid resulting from the merge of the A and B genomes 5.5 MYA and, as mentioned before, the AB subgenome is the result of a new merge of genomes A and B, but this time to produce a tetraploid species. Additionally, a recent study highlighted the importance

of *Amblyopyrum muticum* as an ancestral contributor to both the B and D lineages. In summary, one can say that the evolution of common wheat is the result of a cycle of “diverge and merge” speciation events [133,135,136].

Through morphological, cytogenetic and genomic studies, the identity of the diploid donors for the A and D subgenomes of common wheat was determined as *T. urartu* and *Ae. tauschii*, respectively. However, no diploid species with high concordance to the B subgenome has been identified so far. This suggests that the progenitor of the cytoplasm donor of common wheat, a species closely related to *Ae. speltooides*, is either extinct or remains to be discovered [133].

Allopolyploidization leads to chromosome doubling and the generation of duplicated homeologous genes (homeologs). Consequently, the genome of hexaploid wheat has triplicated homeologs for most genes derived from the diploid progenitors. Nonetheless, homeologous genes do not always function equally, e.g. due to haplogenome-biased transcription, homeolog-specific silencing, and neofunctionalization [137–139]. For example, in wheat, the B genome contributes the largest share to BX biosynthesis [42].

The complexity of the wheat genome has limited the research on the physiological role of BX in this important crop. Further investigations and the creation of new genetic tools are needed to understand the importance of these secondary metabolites in wheat physiology and biotic interactions.

1.8 TILLING as a tool for functional genomics and crop improvement in wheat

Since the early 20th century, mutagenesis has become a powerful tool to achieve new genetic variation for crop improvement. Currently, more than 3,300 crop varieties obtained by mutagenesis have been registered and some of them officially released for commercialization (FAO-IAEA, Mutant Variety Database, <http://mvd.iaea.org/>). Historically, forward-genetic screenings of mutant phenotypes have proven to be very successful for identifying improved traits in crops. However, this approach has clear limitations, especially for polyploid species, where mutations might be masked by homeologous gene redundancy [140]. The increasing

availability of genome sequences has fostered reverse-genetic approaches and the mutation of individual target genes, allowing to link sequence variation information to traits and to investigate gene function [141,142].

TILLING (targeting induced local lesions in genomes) is a reverse-genetics approach that combines traditional random mutagenesis with high-throughput genome-wide screening to detect point mutations in desired genes. It was introduced by McCallum and collaborators in the late 1990s and uses the chemical mutagen ethyl methanesulfonate (EMS) to cause single base substitutions (G to A and C to T) [143,144]. TILLING has been used in more than 25 plant species with different ploidies [145], but it is more suitable for polyploids because the functional redundancy in their genomes makes them more tolerant to high mutation densities [146,147].

For wheat, an *in silico* TILLING resource has been developed, consisting of two mutagenised populations of tetraploid durum wheat (variety Kronos) and hexaploid bread wheat (variety Cadenza) [148]. Originally, sequence data from these mutant collections were aligned to the Chinese Spring Survey (CSS) reference genome and mutation effects were predicted based on CSS gene models. Later, the RefSeqv1.0 reference was used for alignment and mutation identification. Based on CSS gene models, deleterious mutations were predicted to occur in 90% of wheat genes, making this a powerful resource for rapidly identifying mutations in desired genes [148,149]. Currently, the updated data using RefSeqv1.0 reference is publicly available on Ensembl Plants (<https://plants.ensembl.org>).

When selecting a TILLING mutant line from this collection, it is important to corroborate the predicted gene mutation. Additionally, in most cases, it is necessary to combine homeologous mutations by crossing to obtain a complete null mutant. For tetraploid wheat, one cross is necessary to combine knock-out mutations in the two homoeologs, whereas in hexaploid wheat, 2 crosses are needed. Furthermore, TILLING lines harbor a lot of background mutations; typically, a mutant line has between 50 (tetraploid) and 110 (hexaploid) deleterious mutations; therefore, repeated backcrossing to wild type may be required before assessing the mutant phenotype [149].

Among the reverse-genetics approaches, TILLING has proven to be a convenient strategy for generating new genetic variation in crops. Although to date, no TILLING derived crop variety has been released for commercialization, some successful examples exist in both diploid and polyploid species [150]. Particularly in wheat, few improved varieties had been developed. These include the modified *Triticum aestivum* variety that shows an increased resistance to Powdery mildew [151] and the increased amylose content in *Triticum turgidum* subsp. *durum* [152]. In part, the complexity of the wheat genome has limited the creation of new genetic material to investigate wheat physiology and to create improved varieties. In future, it will be necessary to exploit TILLING as well as other reverse genetic approaches to overcome this limitation.

2. Epigenetics in plant-environment interactions

2.1 Defining epigenetics

In eukaryotes, the DNA is organized in a hierarchical manner as packed chromatin inside the nucleus [153]. At the base of this organization is the nucleosome. A nucleosome consists of an octamer of histone proteins, each composed of two copies of core histones (H2A, H2B, H3 and H4) and a linker histone H1, around which 147 bp of DNA are wrapped [154]. Besides DNA sequence, chromatin structure, together with epigenetic modifications on histones and DNA, affect gene expression by regulating the accessibility of the transcriptional machinery to the genes [153]. A coordinated regulation of gene expression ensures normal growth and development, as well as an optimal response to environmental stimuli [155].

The stable and inherited changes in gene expression that are independent of DNA sequence are known as epigenetic phenomena. It is important to note that not all epigenetic modifications on histones or DNA can be considered truly epigenetic phenomena. The reason for this is that many of these modifications are not stably

inherited through cell divisions; however, some, such as symmetric DNA methylation, might be [156].

2.2 DNA methylation and histone modifications

DNA methylation is a conserved epigenetic mark in both eukaryotes and prokaryotes [157,158]. In plant genomes, mostly two types of DNA methylation have been detected: 5-cytosine methylation and N6-adenosine methylation. Cytosine methylation occurs by the addition of a methyl group to the fifth position of the pyrimidine cytosine ring; adenosine methylation occurs at the sixth position of the adenine purine ring [155,159]. Cytosine methylation is associated with heterochromatin and silencing of transposable elements (TEs) and promoters, but also with gene expression when present in gene bodies [155]. The function of adenosine methylation has been less explored, but recent studies suggest that it is a mark enriched on gene bodies and associated with gene expression [160–162]. Because N6-adenosine methylation is very rare and has not been studied extensively, I will hereafter refer to 5-cytosine methylation as DNA-methylation (Figure 5A).

DNA methylation occurs in all three sequence contexts in plants: the symmetric CG and CHG contexts and the asymmetric CHH context (where H is any base but G) [163]. Symmetric DNA methylation is inherited through DNA replication and therefore considered truly epigenetic [156]. Apart from their heritability, these contexts also differ on their methylation levels and the genomic regions in which they occur. This is in part because they require different molecular machineries for their maintenance [155,157]. Figure 5B.

CG methylation is maintained by the DNA methyltransferase MET1, which recognizes hemi-methylated sites on the daughter strand during DNA replication [164,165]. CHG methylation is maintained by the plant-specific CHROMOMETHYLASE 3 (CMT3) and the H3K9 histone methyltransferase KRYPTONITE/SUVH4 (KYP) [166–168]. Together they establish a self-reinforcing regulatory loop. In the loop, CMT3 is recruited to CHG sites by the dimethylation of lysine 9 on histone 3 (H3K9me₂), this creates binding sites for KYP and its close homologs SUVH5 and SUVH6, which in turn induce H3K9me₂ to generate the

binding sites for CMT3 [157,169]. CHH methylation is established and maintained by CMT2 and is also associated with H3K9me2 [170]. Methylation in all contexts is maintained by the RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM) pathway, which involves guided small RNAs and the DOMAINS REARRANGED METHYLTRANSFERASE 2 (DRM2) [171]. The removal of DNA methylation occurs passively through dilution of 5mC during DNA replication, or actively through the base excision repair pathway (BER) that involves DNA glycosylases of the DEMETER family [155,172].

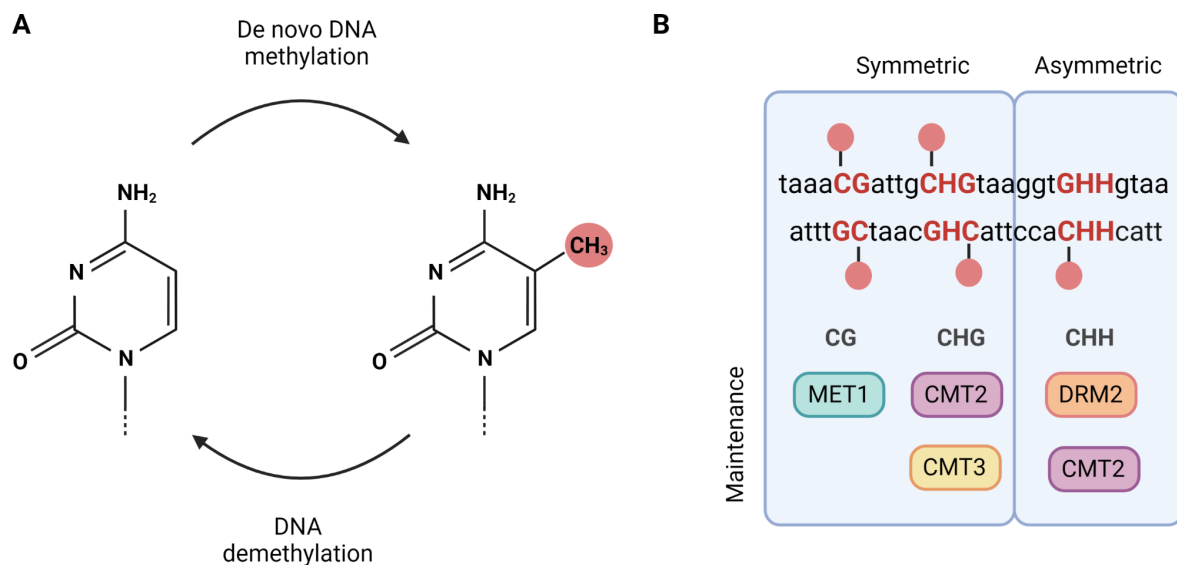


Figure 5. DNA methylation in plants. A) Schematic representation of 5-cytosine methylation. De novo DNA methylation can occur in all cytosine contexts (CG, CHG and CHH, where H is any base but G). DNA methylation can be removed by active or passive demethylation. **B)** DNA methylation maintenance in the three different contexts. After replication methylation in the symmetric CG context is maintained by MET1, whereas CHG methylation is maintained by CMT3 and CMT2 (together with a regulatory feedback loop with H3K9me2). Methylation in the asymmetric CHH context is maintained by DRM2 through RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM) or by CMT2.

As mentioned above, the abundance of mCs in each context varies along genomic regions. Protein coding genes are mainly methylated in CG context, while transposons (TE) and repetitive sequences are methylated in all contexts [173]. While TE methylation ensures genome integrity by maintaining TE silencing, the function of gene body methylation (gbM) is less clear. It has been observed that many constitutively expressed genes or long newly evolving genes harbor CG gbM [163,174,175]. However, mutants with decreased or increased DNA methylation in *Arabidopsis* do not display severely impaired phenotypes, making it more difficult to

understand the function, if any, of gbM [176]. Nevertheless, it has been hypothesized that in crop plants with larger and rich TE content genomes, which also harbor higher global DNA methylation levels, the role of DNA methylation in gene regulation might be more prominent [155,175,177]. This is supported by the observation that DNA methylation mutants in crop plants are generally either lethal or have severe growth and developmental defects [178–182].

Besides DNA methylation, histone modifications provide another set of epigenetic marks that regulate gene expression. Modifications on histones occur at the N-terminal tail, which is rich in basic amino acids that are prone to post-translational chemical modifications (PTMs). Some PTMs promote transcriptional activation, while others act as repressive marks. For instance, modifications such as acetylation and phosphorylation are generally associated with gene transcription. In contrast, sumoylation and deamination are related to repressive chromatin states. Others, such as ubiquitination and methylation, can have both activating and repressing functions [183]. However, histone regulation is much more complex, since histone PTMs can act sequentially or in combination to regulate different cellular functions. Such interplay constitutes the “histone code” that is read by downstream transcriptional regulators and the chromatin remodeling machinery [184].

2.3 Epigenetics and its role in biotic and abiotic stress

Plants live in constantly changing environments where they interact with a multitude of biotic and abiotic factors. Plant-environment interactions are necessary and/or beneficial for growth, development and reproduction. However, some of those interactions can cause stress and threaten plant survival [185]. To ensure an optimal response to environmental stimuli, plants have evolved high phenotypic plasticity. Phenotypic plasticity is driven by changes in gene expression that are in part regulated by epigenetic modifications. This has led to the hypothesis that epigenetic regulation of environmental responses could itself underlie selection and play a role in plant adaptation and evolution [186].

To date, several studies on different plant species have described the epigenetic contribution to different biotic and abiotic stresses. Such stresses include:

temperature (cold and heat), salinity, desiccation, nutrient deficiency, UV radiation, pathogen attack and herbivory (reviewed in [185,187,188]). Overall, such studies have approached the role of epigenetics in stress responses from two different perspectives. On the one hand, they assessed the effect of such stresses on DNA methylation either globally or at specific loci and on post-translational modifications on histones; on the other hand, they focussed on the effect of the epigenome on the plant response to the stress [189]. In other words, it has been shown that biotic/abiotic stresses can alter specific epigenetic marks or the epigenome, but also that a given specific epigenetic configuration can influence the response to the stress, making the plant either more susceptible or resistant.

Referring to the first approach, the effect of stress on the epigenome, the majority of studies have focused on abiotic stresses. In this regard and focusing on DNA methylation, many studies have shown that CHH context is often the most affected by abiotic stress [187]. For example, global CHH hypomethylation has been observed under heat, cold and drought stress in different plant species [190–194]. Additionally, CHH methylation changes at specific loci involved in the stress responses to cold and drought have been described. One example includes the drought responsive gene *ABSCISIC ACID STRESS RIPENING 2* (*SIAsr2*), which alleviates drought in tomato. *SIAsr2* has been shown to lose CHH methylation at the promoter region as well as gain CHH methylation in its coding sequence under drought conditions [195]. Another example is the gain of CHH methylation at the promoter region of *RhAG* (an *AGAMOUS* homolog), which causes decreased expression of *RhAG* and contributes to the cold-mediated phenotype in petal number in rose (*Rosa hybrida*) [196]. Additionally, DNA methylation changes have been observed in the promoter of genes involved in cold stress and acclimatation, such as *ALLANTOINASE* (*ALN*) and *MITOCHONDRIAL MALATE DEHYDROGENASE* (*BramMDH1*). Methylation in the *ALN* promoter represses *ALN* expression and promotes seed dormancy; methylation decrease in *BramMDH1* promoter causes *BramMDH1* upregulation, which might account for heat tolerance in Arabidopsis [197,198].

For biotic interactions, there are fewer studies on the impact of biotic stress on the epigenome. The few examples that exist are in the context of plant response to

pathogens and nematodes [199,200]. In the case of plant-pathogen interactions, most of what we know originated from studies of the bacterial pathogen *Pseudomonas syringae* (*Pst*). In *Arabidopsis*, plants infected with virulent *Pst* caused global DNA methylation changes across all sequence contexts. Such changes preferably occurred proximal to defense-related genes and correlated with their transcriptional activation upon infection, suggesting a role of DNA methylation in the plant response to pathogens [201]. In accordance with these findings, treatment with the bacterial elicitor FLG22 resulted in demethylation of transposable elements (TEs) in proximity to defense-related genes [202]. Similarly, in diploid wheat (*Aegilops tauschii*) infected with *Blumeria graminis* f. sp. *tritici* (*Bgt*), a reduction in AGO4 as well as in 24nt siRNAs and CHH methylation was observed in stress response genes close to TEs [203].

For plant-nematode interactions, examples include the methylome analysis of infected roots of tomato and *Arabidopsis* with cyst nematodes, soybean SCN *Heterodera glycines*, and beet SCN *Heterodera schachtii*, respectively. Both studies showed that cyst nematode infection causes hypomethylation in all sequence contexts [204,205]. Hypomethylation in tomato affected syncytial genes important for the establishment of the nematode-plant interaction [204]. On the other hand, hypomethylation in *Arabidopsis* was shown to be correlated with an abundance of 24nt siRNAs that impacted a considerable number of protein coding genes and TEs located near nematode-responsive genes [205].

In the context of histone modifications, mainly histone acetylation/deacetylation and methylation/demethylation had been analysed during abiotic stresses and pathogen attack (reviewed in [185,187]. In the context of plant-plant interactions, Venturelli et al. showed that APO and AMPO, breakdown products of the benzoxazinoids allelochemicals, inhibited histone deacetylase activity in *Arabidopsis*. This resulted in a hyper-acetylation of histone lysine residues, which caused misregulation of gene expression and coincided with root growth inhibition [82].

Conversely, several studies have addressed the influence of the epigenome on the plant stress response. Examples include the studies done with *Arabidopsis* DNA methylation maintenance mutants and on epigenetic recombinant inbred lines

(epiRILs) [189]. EpiRILs are near-isogenic lines with mosaic DNA methylation patterns that were obtained by crossing Arabidopsis wild-type Col-0 to mutants depleted in DNA methylation *met1* or *ddm1* (a loss of function mutant on the chromatin remodeler *DECREASE IN DNA METHYLATION 1*). In this way, different epigenetic patterns on epiRILs lead to different phenotypes [206,207].

For abiotic stress, it has been shown that DNA methylation is important for thermotolerance. DNA methylation maintenance mutants *nrpd2*, *rdr2*, *dcl3* and *AGO4* show hypersensitivity to acute heat stress [208]. In contrast; *cmt2* mutants and accessions with a *CMT2STOP* allele display decreased tolerance to heat stress. This suggests that DNA methylation is an important regulation of heat stress and that it can contribute to natural adaptation to variable temperatures [191]. Similarly, DNA demethylation is important to regulate cold stress tolerance in annual and perennial species [192,209–211]. For instance, *drm2* mutants show an enhanced tolerance to freezing temperatures in Arabidopsis [209].

In the case of biotic stress responses, the general trend seems to be that DNA hypomethylation enhances resistance to biotic stressors [212]. This is illustrated by the resistant phenotypes of Arabidopsis *met1-3*, *met1 nrpd2* and *drm1 drm2 cmt3* mutants infected with *Pseudomonas syringae* (*Pst*), which also showed an increased expression of defense-related genes [201,202,213]. Another example involves Arabidopsis infection with *Hyaloperonospora arabidopsidis* (*Hpa*), where hypomethylated *nrpe* mutants showed higher tolerance to pathogen infection, while the hypermethylated mutant *ros1* was more susceptible. However, the opposite effect was observed when plants were infected with the necrotrophic pathogen *Plectosphaerella cucumerina*, with *nrpe* being more susceptible [212]. This illustrates that the role of DNA methylation on biotic interactions is much more complex than a strict promotion of defense by hypomethylation. On the other hand, the studies on epiRILs showed considerable variation in their response to the defense-related hormones SA and JA, for growth under competitive pressure by weeds, and for resistance to *Pst* [214].

The studies on the epigenetic contribution of beneficial interactions are more scarce, but some examples include the role of DNA methylation in nodule formation [215–217], mycorrhizal establishment [218,219], microbiome assembly [220,221] and flower morphology to attract pollinators [222,223].

In summary, different studies have addressed the role of epigenetics in plant environment interactions following two approaches: first, by analyzing the effect of the environment on epigenetic modifications, either genome-wide or at specific loci, and secondly, by accounting for the plant genotype and phenotype on the response to environmental perturbations. From both approaches, it is clear that epigenetic factors are emerging as a new layer of regulation in plant-environment interactions. However a clear trend on the contribution of epigenetic modifications on certain biotic or abiotic stresses cannot be drawn yet, since responses may vary depending on the conditions of the stress. Further studies will help understand if there are common epigenetic modifications for certain environmental responses and if such responses are conserved among different plant species.

2.4 Priming and epigenetic stress memory

Exposure to the same or different stresses can occur multiple times in the course of a plant's lifetime. Priming can lead to stress memory, which optimizes the plant response to recurring stresses. The term priming was first coined in the context of plant immunity, but was later also applied to plant-abiotic interactions. Priming refers to the phenomenon by which a temporary environmental stimulus (priming stress cue) modifies a plant for future stress exposure (triggering stress cue). A plant in a primed state will respond more strongly or faster to a triggering stress compared to one in a naïve (unprimed) or reset state [156]. Priming response occurs at the transcriptional level independently of DNA sequence and is thus reversible [224,225]. Figure 6.

Memory formation after a priming event may be manifested by the activation or repression of stress response genes or a hyper-induction upon a second stimulus [226,227]. Other mechanisms, such as transcriptional feedback loops and

post-translational modifications, might also be involved in memory acquisition [228]. Plant memory may last for days to weeks (somatic memory) or even pass to the immediate progeny (intergenerational memory, also known as parental effect) or to subsequent generations (transgenerational memory) [156]. True transgenerational memory might have an epigenetic basis and potentially be important for plant adaptation. However, true transgenerational events have rarely been observed in plants [156], possibly due to the resetting mechanisms that take place during gamete formation and that prevent the inheritance of certain acquired epigenetic states [229,230]

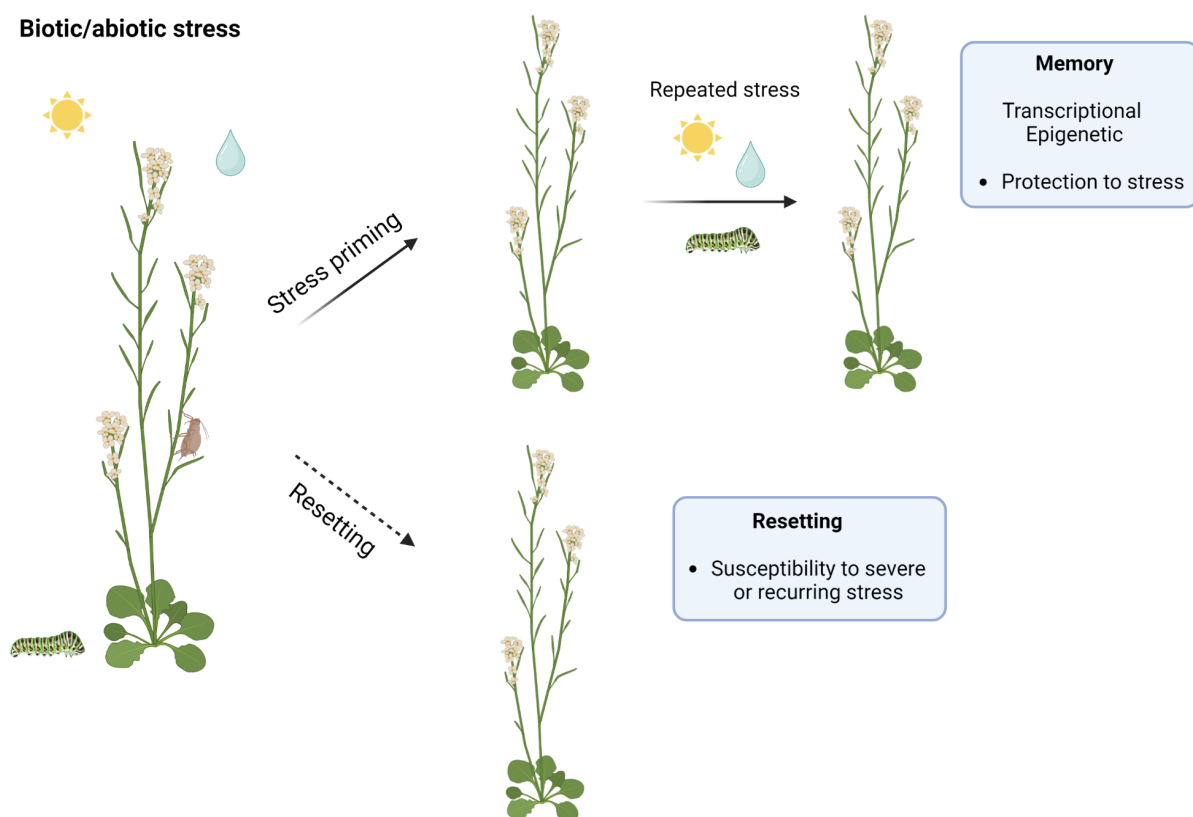


Figure 6. Stress priming and plant memory. Plant exposure to biotic or abiotic stress can trigger priming, which prepares the plant for future stress exposure and protects it from repeated stress via plant memory formation. Plant memory occurs at the transcriptional level and might have an epigenetic basis. Meanwhile, a plant which has not encountered or reset the response after the stress stimulus remains susceptible to future stress encounters.

Epigenetic memory has been observed for both biotic and abiotic stresses. Most examples are in the context of somatic memory formation to different abiotic stresses, including cold, heat, salinity, and drought (reviewed in [156]. For biotic stress, fewer examples exist and those include defense response to the pathogen

Pseudomonas syringae pv. *maculicola* (*Psm*) and to plant immunity elicitors [231]. Studies on somatic memory found histones as important regulators of priming and memory acquisition [156]. DNA methylation seems to be more relevant for inter- and trans-generational memory formation. Inter-generational memory related to changes in DNA methylation has been observed in response to different abiotic and biotic stresses such as salinity, iron deficiency, bacterial infection, and herbivory [232–235]. On the other hand, trans-generational memory after two stress-free generations has been observed in herbivory of caterpillars in *Arabidopsis* and under salt stress conditions in *Thlaspi arvense* [236,237]. In the first case, memory related to herbivory was associated with small interfering RNAs, because mutants affected in sRNA biogenesis did not exhibit inheritance resistance [236,237]. The second example In *T. arvense* used methylation-sensitive amplification polymorphism (MSAP) to determine epiloci variation under control and salt stress conditions. In this study, a heritable increase in epigenetic diversity was observed under salt stress for two stress-free generations [236,237].

In conclusion, epigenetics is emerging as a regulator of stress responses, priming and plant memory. Several studies have addressed the role of DNA and histone modifications in regulating plant environment interactions. However, a comprehensive mechanism on how different biotic or abiotic stresses shape the epigenome and how that influences stress memory is not yet well understood. Further studies on epigenetics and environmental interactions are needed to unveil such mechanisms in plants.

2.5 *Thlaspi arvense* as a new model organism

T. arvense, also known as field pennycress or stinkweed, is an annual, diploid ($2n = 2x = 14$), mostly selfing weed of the Brassicaceae family [238]. *T. arvense* is native to Eurasia, and is widely distributed in temperate regions of the northern hemisphere. The common habitats for *T. arvense* range from sea level to higher altitudes and include roadsides, fields, and grassy slopes [238] Recently, *T. arvense* has attracted much interest as an oilseed crop for biofuel production. The seeds contain an average of 30%-35% oil that is apt for biofuels but can also be developed into an edible oil [239–242]. Additionally, *T. arvense* is extremely winter hardy, which

makes it suitable as a winter cash cover crop. By growing *Thlaspi* in the cold months, farmers can prevent soil erosion and at the same time increase production and income [243–246].

From the research perspective, *T. arvense* is closely related to the model plant *A. thaliana* and can be used as a new dicotyledonous model for functional genetic studies. It is amenable to genetic transformation and has a short life cycle. Recently, a high-quality reference assembly of the 500 Gb genome became available, along with the methylome profile of 207 european accessions [243,247–250]. All in all, this makes *T. arvense* a new emerging crop and an accessible genetic model.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Plant material

Stop gain mutations on homeologous *BX3* genes were identified on the Cadenza-EMS mutant collection of the hexaploid bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) cv 'Cadenza' of the wheat TILLING project (www.wheat-tilling.com). Seeds were provided by the RRes-JIC Cadenza-EMS collection under the accession numbers: Cad1664, Cad0389 and Cad1491 (stop gain mutation in the *BX3* A, B and D genome, respectively) and Cad0000 as wild type (WT).

Arabidopsis thaliana Col-0 were obtained from the NASC collection under the accession number N1092. *Arabidopsis* accessions Rak-2 and Bor-4, accession numbers 8365 and 6903, respectively, were provided by the Nordborg lab at the Gregor Mendel Institute. *Thlaspi arvense* seeds of the reference accession MN106-Ref were provided by Dr. Ratan Chopra from the Department of Agronomy and Plant Genetics at the University of Minnesota, USA [248].

2. Growth conditions, genotyping and crosses

Wheat seeds (Cad1664, Cad0389, Cad1491, and Cad0000) were surface-sterilized with chlorine gas for 1 h and stratified on wet filter paper for 3 d at 4°C. Germinated seeds were transferred to pots containing a mixture of compost soil and 20% vermiculite and grown in a growth chamber under long-day conditions (16h light [21°C], 8-h dark [16°C], 140 $\mu\text{E}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$), with 60% relative air humidity. Plants were watered twice per week. DNA was extracted from 2-week-old frozen leaf tissue using the cetyl trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method [251]. Plant genotyping was performed using KASP genotyping assay following the manufacturer's protocol with the primer pairs listed in Supplemental Table 1, in individual PCR reactions for each genotype. Confirmed genotypes were used for subsequent seed propagation and crossing.

Seeds of selected genotypes were germinated in seedling starter trays on a mixture of compost and sand, following vernalization at 4°C with a 12/12h day/night light regime for 1 week. Four seedlings per line in two replicates were planted into 4 L pots (18 cm diameter, 21 cm height) filled with a mixture of potting soil (75% heat-sterilized recycled compost, 23% peat, 2% silica sand) and transferred to the greenhouse (14/10 °C day/night with 12 h photoperiod for the first 40 d). At spike emergence, greenhouse conditions were changed (22/18 °C day/night with a 16 h photoperiod at 15 000 lx) to ensure a healthy spike set.

Crosses were performed following the wheat training guidelines on ‘how to cross wheat’ (www.wheat-training.com). Selected genotypes of *BX3*+/- (aaBBDD, AAbbDD and AABBdd) were crossed in pairs to produce F1 double heterozygous genotypes AbBbDD, AABbDd and AaBBdd). Double heterozygous AbBbDD and AABbDd were crossed; in the resulting F2 population, segregant plants with the genotype AabbDd were selected for selfing and for backcrossing to the WT background (backcrossed two times). In the F3 population, two independent lines, *bx3-158* and *bx3-162*, with the triple homozygous mutant genotype *bx3* (aabbdd) were selected and used for further characterization. Both *bx3-158* and *bx3-162* were selfed for seed propagation and backcrossed to WT background twice.

To genotype crosses, leaf material of 2-week-old seedlings was collected and dried at 37°C degrees for 3-4 d. Dry tissue was ground on a tissue lyser and DNA extraction was performed with the CTAB method [251] as described previously. PCR amplification was done for 30 cycles with the primer pairs listed in Supplemental Table 1 for each genotype in individual 50 µl reactions. Amplification was performed as follows: pre-incubation at 98°C for 30 s, denaturation at 98°C for 30 s, primer annealing at 63°C for 30 s, extension at 72°C for 1 min and a final extension at 72°C for 8 min. 5 µl of PCR product was visualized on a 1% agarose gel; the remaining PCR product was purified with the MiniPEX PCR purification kit provided by the Molecular Biology Service at the Vienna Biocenter (VBC), followed by Sanger sequencing performed by the in house Molecular Biology Service at the VBC. SNP analysis of sequenced samples was done using CLC Main Workbench v7.7.3 software.

3. Analysis of benzoxazinoids in wheat lines

Wheat leaf tissue of two-week-old plants (WT, *bx3-158*, *bx3-162*, *BX3bd-154*, *BX3bd-167*, *BX3ab-155* and *BX3ab-189*) were harvested individually in 4 replicates and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Sample preparation and liquid chromatography-high resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS) measurements were carried out as described in [252]. Briefly, ~100 mg of sample were extracted with 10 x w/v of MeOH/H₂O 3:1 (v/v) + 0.1% formic acid (FA), vortexed and incubated in an ultrasonic bath for 15 min. Samples were then centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 10 min and the supernatant was recovered and diluted with H₂O + 0.1% FA to a final ratio of MeOH/H₂O 1:1 (v/v) + 0.1% FA. Sample measurements were carried out using an Orbitrap QExactive HF (Thermo Fischer Scientific) equipped with a heated electrospray ionization source coupled to a reverse-phase ultrahigh-performance liquid chromatography system (Vanquish UHPLC, Thermo Fischer Scientific). Samples of each genotype were analyzed in separate batches. Results were plotted in R studio version 4.2.2 using the ggplot2 package [253].

4. Wheat *bx3* mutants phenotyping

For root and shoot phenotyping of young plants, wheat seeds (WT, *bx3-158* and *bx3-162*) were surface-sterilized with chlorine gas for 1 h and pre-germinated in square plates on wet filter paper for 6 d in a growth chamber in long-day conditions (16 h light [21°C], 8 h dark [16°C], 140 μ E/m²s) with 60% relative air humidity. Ten germinated seedlings per genotype were manually transferred to our root phenotyping system (Supplemental Figure 2A) and placed in a randomized way in the greenhouse in long-day conditions (16 h light [24°C] and 8 h dark [18°C], 400 W). Briefly, our root phenotyping system consists of filter paper sheets; the area of root growth is covered with a black foil. Papers were stacked together in a rack-box filled with 5 L of half-strength Hoagland nutrient solution with 1 M phosphate [254]. Two-week-old plants were photographed using a SONY DSC-HX400V camera fixed to a tripod, and root and shoot length was measured using Fiji ImageJ software [255]. Data was plotted in R studio version 4.2.2 using the ggplot2 package and tested for statistical significance using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) test [253].

For shoot phenotyping and seed biomass measurements, sterile seeds (WT, *bx3-158* and *bx3-162*) were pre-germinated in pots (6.5 cm diameter, 7 cm height) filled with a mixture of field soil and 20% sand. Field soil was collected from an Agroscope field in Changins, Switzerland [23] and was provided by Dr. Klaus Schlaeppli (Institute of Plant Science, Bern University, Switzerland, and Agroscope, Zürich, Switzerland). Plants were grown in a greenhouse in a randomized way in long-day conditions (16 h light [24°C] and 8 h dark [18°C], 400 W) and watered twice per week. Four weeks after germination, 4 plants per genotype were transferred to 2-liter pots (17.7 cm diameter, 13.1 cm height) filled with soil substrate (Stender) in two replicates per genotype. When plants were dry and yellow (~6 months after sowing) they were harvested and dried at 37°C degrees for 7 d. Dry weight and seed biomass was measured on an analytical balance. Data was plotted in R studio version 4.2.2 using the ggplot2 package and analyzed using an ANOVA test for statistical significance [253], followed by Tukey post hoc test.

5. Competition assays

Wheat (WT, *bx3-158* and *bx3-162*) and Arabidopsis seeds (Col-0, *rak-2* and *Bor-4*) were surface-sterilized with chlorine gas for 1 h. Sterile seeds were planted into pots (5 cm diameter, 5 cm height) filled with a mixture of field soil and 20% sand [23]. Plants were grown in a greenhouse in a randomized way in long-day conditions (16 h light [24°C] and 8 h dark [18°C], 400 W) and watered twice per week. Experimental design was performed in 3 independent replicates with 1 wheat plant in the center of the pot (WT, *bx3-158* or *bx3-162*), surrounded by 3 Arabidopsis plants distributed at equal distance from the wheat plant and from each other. Control conditions included wheat (one plant) and Arabidopsis (three plants) growing alone, distributed in the pot in the same way as described above.

Mature Arabidopsis (8 weeks old) and wheat plants were harvested individually and dried at 37°C degrees for 7 d. Dry weight was measured on an analytical balance. Data was plotted in R studio version 4.2.2 using the ggplot2 package and analyzed using an ANOVA test for statistical significance [253], followed by Tukey post hoc test.

6. Pathogen bioassays

Magnaporthe oryzae (*M. oryzae*) isolate BR32 was kindly provided by Dr. D. Tharreau (CIRAD, Montpellier, France). Maintenance and sporulation of fungal cultures was done as described in [256]. Inoculation was performed as described in [256]. Briefly, two weeks after sporulation, conidia were harvested by rinsing the plates with water and filtering through three layers of gauze. For inoculation, the conidia were suspended in a spraying solution (2 g/L gelatin, 1 ml Tween/L) at a concentration range of 160,000-180,000 conidia/ml and sprayed onto wheat primary leaves (8 day old seedlings). Plants were then incubated at 24-26°C and 100% relative humidity in the dark. Inoculated plants were covered with a plastic hood and kept in a growth chamber in long day conditions (16 h light [26°C], 8 h dark [23°C], 200-250 $\mu\text{mol/m}^2\text{s}$). Leaf damage was analyzed six days post infection (dpi). *Puccinia graminis* f.sp. *tritici* (*P. graminis* f.sp. *tritici*) cultures were grown for 10 days as described in [257]. Inoculation was performed according to [258]. Spores were suspended in Fereon 131 and sprayed onto primary and secondary leaves at a concentration of ~50 mg spores/25 ml of Freon 131. After inoculation, plants were placed in a moist chamber for 24 h with an initial dark period of 16 h and then grown as described above. Evaluation of uredinia lesions was done 13 dpi. Data was plotted in R studio version 4.2.2 using the ggplot2 package and analyzed using an ANOVA test for statistical significance [253], followed by Tukey post hoc test.

7. Growth inhibition assay in *Thlaspi arvense*

T. arvense seeds were surface-sterilized with chlorine gas for 1 h. The growth inhibition assay was conducted as a concentration response experiment in square plates containing 0.5X Murashige and Skoog (MS) medium with 1% agar and supplemented with APO in a concentration range from 0 to 50 μM (APO was chemically synthesized by abcr Gute Chemie, Karlsruhe, Germany). Each plate contained 10 *T. arvense* seeds. Plates were kept at 4°C for 3 d and subsequently grown vertically in a growth chamber in long-day conditions (16 h light [21°C], 8 h dark [16°C], 140 $\mu\text{E/m}^2\text{s}$). Root length was measured after 8 d from scanned plate images using Fiji imageJ software [255]. Data was plotted in R studio version 4.2.2 using the drc package [259]. LC50 was determined at 3.3 μM .

8. APO stress assay

T. arvense seeds were surface-sterilized with chlorine gas for 1 h and stratified at 4°C for 3 d. Seeds were germinated on squared plates containing 0.5X MS with 0.8% agar and grown vertically in a randomized way in a growth chamber in long-day conditions (16 h light [21°C], 8 h dark [16°C], 140 $\mu\text{E}/\text{m}^2\text{s}$) for the whole experiment. To expose the seedlings to APO-induced stress, the medium was supplied with 3.5 μM of APO; as control, seedlings were exposed to the solvent DMSO in equal concentration as in the APO treatment. For recovery, seedlings were transferred to APO- and DMSO-free medium. Six days after germination (DAG), seedlings were manually transferred to 3 experimental replicates of 12 seedlings each to either of the following conditions: 1) Primed (two short APO stress for 24 h with a 24-h recovery period after each short APO stress, followed by a long APO stress of 6 d), 2) Non-primed (two short mock treatments with a 24 h recovery period after each mock treatment followed by a long APO stress of 6 d), 3) Control of priming (two short APO stress treatments for 24 h with a 24 h recovery period after each short APO stress, followed by a long mock treatment of 6 d), and 4) Control (two short mock treatments for 24 h with a 24 h recovery after each short mock treatment, followed by a long mock treatment of 6 d) (Figure 13).

9. Whole genome bisulfite (WGBS) library preparation and sequencing

Shoot and root tissue of 16 d old *T. arvense* plants from the APO stress assay was harvested separately using a razor blade and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Genomic DNA was extracted with the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (QIAGEN) from disrupted frozen tissues. For each sample, 100 ng of genomic DNA was sonicated (Covaris) to a mean fragment size of ~350 bp. Library preparation was done with the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs) following the manufacturer's protocol. Adapter-ligated DNA was treated with sodium bisulphite using the EpiTect Plus DNA Bisulfite Kit (QIAGEN) following the manufacturer's protocol and amplified using Kapa HiFi Uracil + ReadyMix (Roche) in 10 PCR cycles. WGBS libraries were sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500 instrument at a 10x coverage with 125-bp paired-end reads. All the sequencing data can be found in the

European Nucleotide Archive (ENA, www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/), under the project PRJEB51727.

10. Methylation analysis

Sequencing reads were analyzed using the EpiDiverse WGBS pipeline (<https://github.com/EpiDiverse/wgbs>) [260]. Briefly, the pipeline performed quality control (FastQC v.0.11.9), base quality and adaptor trimming (cutadapt v.3.5), bisulfite aware mapping (erne-bs5 v.2.1.1), duplicates detection (Picard MarkDuplicates), alignment statistics, and methylation calling (Methyldackel v.0.6.1). In the mapping step we only retained uniquely-mapping reads. Because plant chloroplasts are not methylated, reads originating from those sequences were used to evaluate the bisulfite conversion rate [261]. The pipeline outputs context-specific (CG, CHG and CHH) individual-sample bedGraph files which were combined in multisample unionbed files using bedtools [262]. We retained all cytosines with a minimum coverage of 3x and used this dataset for subsequent analysis (with the exception of the general methylation patterns analysis in *T. arvense*).

For describing general patterns of methylation in *T. arvense*, the control WGBS libraries were processed using the nf-core/methylseq v1.5 pipeline, combining bwa-meth v0.2.2 as an aligner and MethylDackel v0.5.0 for the methylation calling, as described in [248].

11. Identification of differentially methylated regions (DMRs)

DMR calling was done using the EpiDiverse DMR pipeline [260] with default parameters and a minimum coverage of 5 independent reads. The DMR pipeline calls DMRs in all pairwise comparisons, but we retained only DMRs of control vs stress (APO treated) comparisons for our analysis. From the DMR pipeline output, we joined all DMRs that were less than 146 bp apart (consistent with the pipeline fragmentation parameters) and that had the same direction of methylation divergence (hypomethylation or hypermethylation). We then merged DMRs for all specific comparisons using bedtools [262]. Lastly, we filtered DMRs with a minimum methylation difference of 15% and 0.001 FDR to select DMRs with variability in our dataset. Filtered DMRs were then intersected with the annotated *T. arvense* genome

using bedtools [262]. The DMRs that occurred in a 2kb window upstream or downstream of genes were selected as stress-related candidate DMRs.

RESULTS

1. Loss of benzoxazinoids synthesis in hexaploid wheat

1.1 Loss of *BX3* affects benzoxazinoids biosynthesis in wheat

Previous studies have shown that mutation in the genes encoding for BX1 and BX2 enzymes, involved in the early steps of benzoxazinoid biosynthesis, leads to loss of BX biosynthesis and an impaired defense response in maize [18,24,25,44]. To study the effect of loss of BX biosynthesis in wheat, I generated a loss of synthesis mutant in the *BX3* gene, which encodes for the third enzyme involved in BX biosynthesis (Figure 7A). To generate *bx3* mutants, we followed a reverse genetics approach using hexaploid Wheat TILLING mutant lines with stop gain mutations in *BX3* homeologous genes. I did not target BX1 because point mutation in *BX3A* gene could not be confirmed by sequencing and for the case of BX2, no mutant TILLING line for *BX2A* was available in the TILLING collection.

For *BX3*, I identified TILLING lines with point mutations in the third exon of *bx3A*, the first exon of *bx3B*, and the first exon of *bx3D* (Supplemental Figure 1A). All lines were crossed among them for two generations to obtain candidate segregant plants (Supplemental Figure 1B). In the F3 generation, I genotyped 70 plants from a segregant population of previously selected single homozygous line *bx3b-11* (genotype: *BX3 AabbDd*). From this screening, two independent triple homozygous mutant lines, *bx3a bx3b bx3d-158* and *bx3a bx3b bx3d-162* (subsequently referred to as *bx3-158* and *bx3-162*), and four independent double homozygous segregant lines *bx3b bx3d-154*, *bx3b bx3d-167*, *bx3a bx3b-155* and *bx3a bx3d-189* (subsequently referred to as *BX3bd-154*, *BX3bd-167*, *BX3ab-155* and *BX3ab-189* respectively) were selected along with wild-type (WT).

We then performed liquid chromatography–high-resolution mass spectrometry (LC-HRMS) on young leaf tissue to determine DIMBOA and DIMBOA-Glu content in *bx3* mutants, double homozygous lines and WT plants. No DIMBOA or DIMBOA-Glu could be detected by LC-HRMS in *bx3-158* and *bx3-162* mutants. In contrast,

DIMBOA and DIMBOA-Glu were detected in double homozygous and WT samples (Figure 7B).

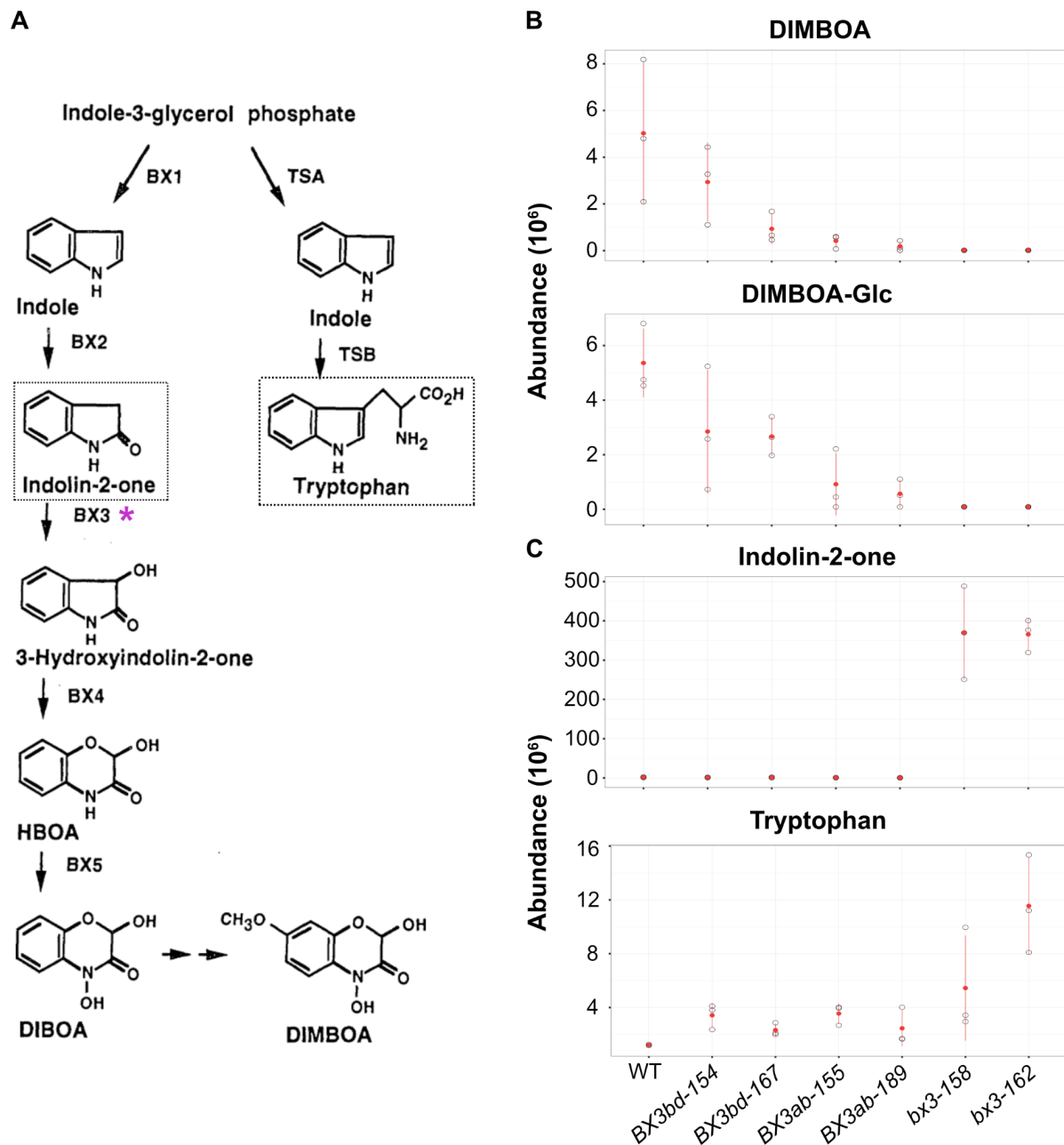


Figure 7. Impact of wheat *BX3* homeologous mutations in BX production. A) Benzoxazinoid biosynthetic pathway; pink asterisk indicates the position of the product mutated *BX3* gene in the biosynthesis cascade. Dashed contour indicates the intermediary compounds detected in this study in *bx3* mutants. **B)** Relative abundances of DIMBOA and DIMBOA-glucoside (Glc) detected by LC-HRMS in young leaf tissue of wheat wild type (WT) mutants. **C)** Relative abundances of intermediary compounds, indoline-2-one and tryptophan detected in young leaf tissue of wheat WT and mutants. Unfilled data points indicate biological replicates ($n = 3$). Mean and SD are depicted by red points and whiskers, respectively.

Interestingly, double homozygous segregants showed a decrease in DIMBOA and DIMBOA-Glu production compared to WT, indicating that all three sub-genomes contribute to BX biosynthesis. This is in accordance with previous observations that showed that all three sub-genomes were actively transcribed, albeit to different degrees and with different catalytic properties [42]. Taken together, these results demonstrate that an intact *BX3* gene is necessary for DIMBOA biosynthesis in wheat and that the triple homozygous mutant line generated here was incapable of producing either DIMBOA or its glucosinolated conjugate.

Because *BX3* mutation occurs downstream of the formation of indole in the biosynthetic pathway (Figure 7A), we checked for the accumulation of intermediary compounds in *bx3-158* and *bx3-162* mutant lines. LC-HRMS showed that the upstream intermediary compounds, indoline-2-one and tryptophan, accumulated in young leaf tissue of *bx3* mutants compared to WT (Figure 7C). The immediate substrate of *BX3*, indoline-2-one, was strongly accumulated in mutant plants and was not detected in WT or double homozygous mutant samples. In contrast, tryptophan, the synthesis of which branches off the BX pathway at the early TSA reaction step, was detectable at different levels in both *bx3* triple and double homozygous mutants, but not in WT (Figure 7A and 7C). These results indicate that upstream accumulation of intermediaries occurs in *bx3* mutants and suggest that precursors are redirected to tryptophan production when BX biosynthesis is impaired.

1.2 Growth and developmental effects on *bx3* mutants

I next sought to determine whether loss of BX biosynthesis would affect plant growth and development. Previous studies on BX deficient mutants in maize did not report any growth or developmental effect in such mutants [25]. Yet, considering the accumulation of intermediaries such as tryptophan (Figure 7C) that could affect plant phenotype, I decided to screen for any growth or developmental effect on seedlings and adult *bx3* mutant plants. For seedling phenotyping, I germinated and grew the plants on filter paper in our plant phenotyping system (Supplemental Figure 2A). Both *bx3* and WT plants germinated 3-4 d after sowing (Supplemental Figure 2B). In seedlings (two weeks old), I measured root and shoot length, as well as number of seminal roots. In adult plants (6 months old), I measured dry biomass of aerial tissue

excluding spikes, and fitness (scored as seed weight). We observed no significant difference between WT and *bx3* mutants in any of the phenotypes tested (Figure 8 and supplemental Figure 2C), indicating that, overall, *bx3* mutation does not affect plant growth, development and fitness.

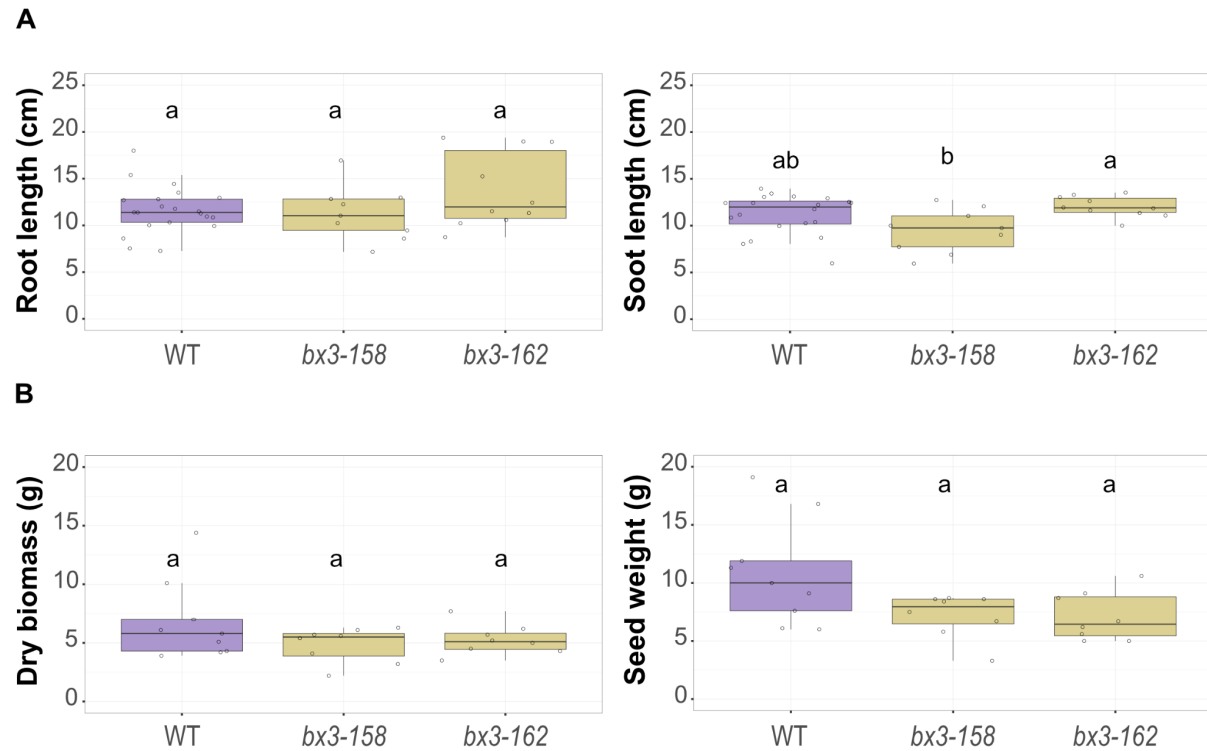


Figure 8. Effect of *BX3* mutation on plant phenotype. **A)** Root and shoot length of two week old wild type (WT) and *bx3* mutant plants (*bx3-158* and *bx3-162*). **B)** Dry biomass and seed weight of adult WT and *bx3* mutant plants. Individual data points indicate biological replicates [**A**] $n = 8-20$ and [**B**] $n = 8-9$. Different letters indicate different statistical groups (ANOVA, posthoc Tukey, $p \leq 0.05$).

1.3 BX effect on biotic interactions in wheat

BX compounds have been mainly recognized as defense compounds against a variety of biotic stressors in grasses (Table 1). For instance, maize *bx1* mutant plants show an impaired defense response against fungi and herbivores [44]. We hypothesized that a similar altered defense response would occur in our BX deficient mutants, *bx3-158* and *bx3-162*. To test this hypothesis, we investigated the basal resistance against the pathogenic fungus *Magnaporthe oryzae* (*M. oryzae*), responsible for head blast disease, and the stem rust pathogen *Puccinia graminis* f.sp. *tritici* (*P. graminis* f.sp. *tritici*); we then compared leaf area damage caused by the fungus between *BX3* WT and *bx3* mutant lines. Damage on the primary leaf was

measured six days after *M. oryzae* inoculation and thirteen days after *P. graminis* f.sp. *tritici* inoculation. For *M. oryzae* infection, we measured leaf area damage; for *P. graminis* f.sp. *tritici*, we measured the number of uredinia lesions per leaf. We observed no difference in the level of primary leaf damage after infection with both pathogens between *BX3* WT and *bx3* mutants (*bx3-158* and *bx3-162*) (Figure 9). These results indicate that benzoxazinoids do not play an essential role in the defense response to these pathogens; possibly, other defense mechanisms compensate for the defense response in absence of BX.

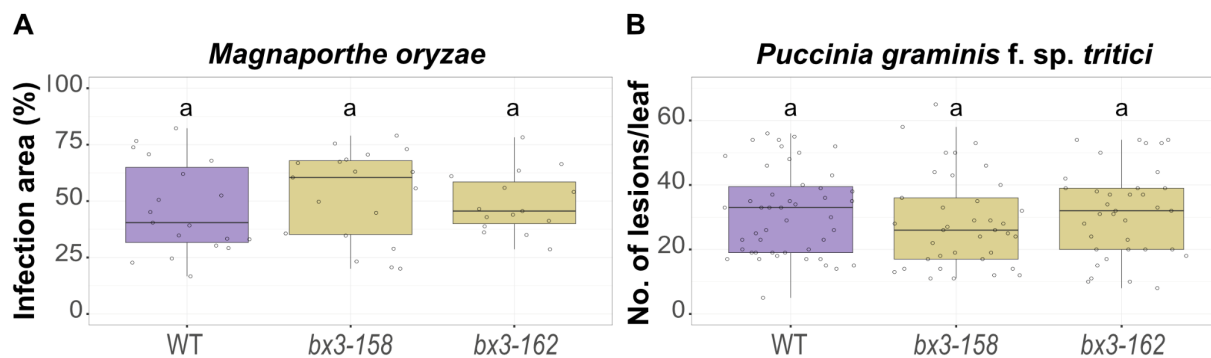


Figure 9. Effect of *BX3* mutation on wheat basal defense response to fungal pathogens. **A)** Leaf damage scored by percent of area of infection on primary leaves upon *Magnaporthe oryzae* infection in wild type (WT) and *bx3* mutants (*bx3-158* and *bx3-162*). **B)** Leaf damage scored by number of lesions per primary leaf upon *P. graminis* f.sp. *tritici* infection. Circles indicate biological replicates of two independent experiments [**A**) $n = 15-19$ and **B**) $n = 37-47$]. Different letters indicate different statistical groups (ANOVA, posthoc Tukey, $p \leq 0.05$).

Apart from its role on defense, BX are also known for their allelopathic properties in weed suppression [263]. We therefore sought to determine the effect of BX in wheat allelopathy. To study plant allelopathic interactions in wheat, I set up a plant-plant competition experiment in soil between *Arabidopsis* Col-0 and *BX3* WT or *bx3* mutant lines. I hypothesized that *Arabidopsis* growth would be affected when competing with WT plants due to the accumulation of BX exudates in the soil; conversely, no or moderate effect on *Arabidopsis* growth would be expected in plants growing together with BX deficient mutants.

Briefly, the plant-plant competition experiment involved one wheat plant from either WT or *bx3* genotype (*bx3-158* or *bx3-162*) growing in the centre of the pot, surrounded by three equidistant *Arabidopsis* plants (Figure 10A). Both wheat and

Arabidopsis seeds were planted at the same time and germinated between 3-4 days after sowing. Control conditions included wheat and Arabidopsis plants growing alone. At the end of the experiment (8 weeks after germination), we scored any growth effect by measuring Arabidopsis adult dry biomass. Overall, we observed a reduction of Arabidopsis dry biomass in our plant-plant competition conditions compared to the control (Figure 10B), suggesting that a space and/or nutrient competition is taking place and is affecting Arabidopsis growth. Interestingly, a more significant reduction in Arabidopsis biomass was observed in conditions when Arabidopsis grew together with WT wheat (Figure 10B). This suggests that in addition to a space/nutrient competition effect, BX synthesis and release by the wheat plant inhibited the growth of Arabidopsis.

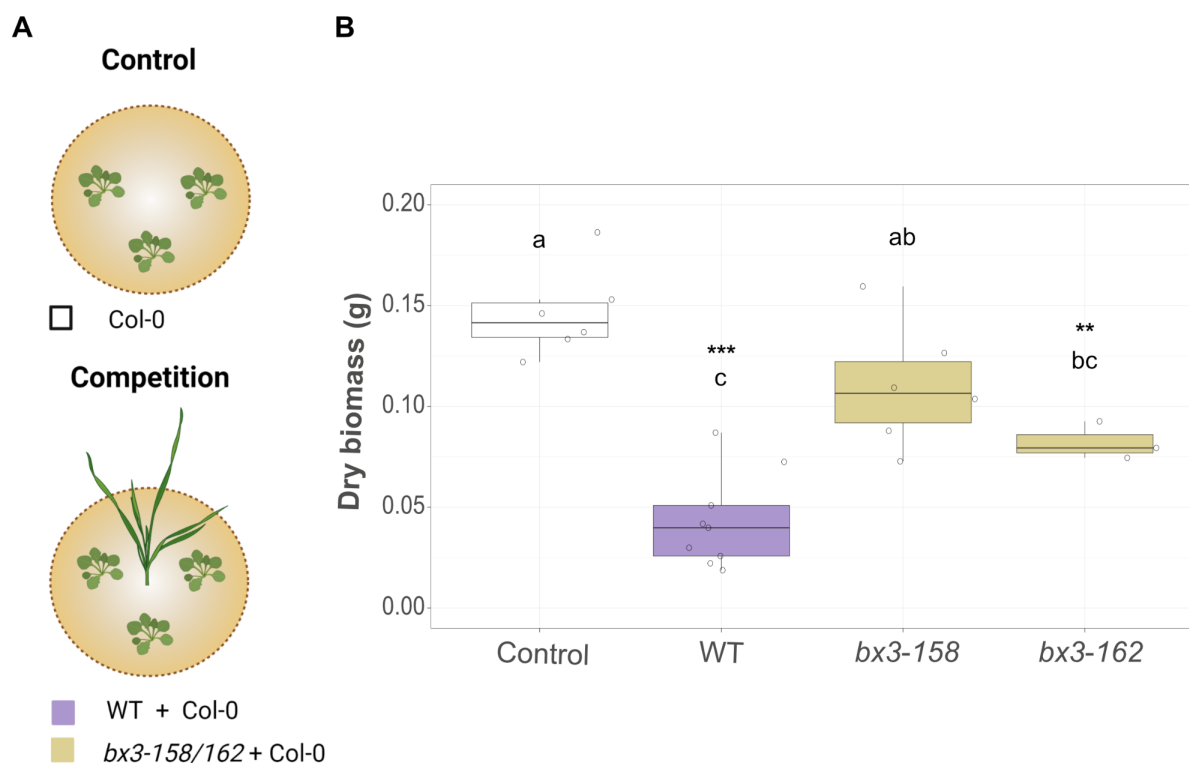


Figure 10. Effect of *BX3* mutation on plant-plant competition. **A)** Schematic representation of the plant-plant competition experiment. One wheat plant of either wild type (WT) or *bx3* mutant genotypes (*bx3-158* or *bx3-162*) was grown in the centre of the pot, surrounded by three equidistant Arabidopsis plants. The different competition scenarios are indicated by color as in B). The effect of competition on Arabidopsis was measured as dry biomass on adult Arabidopsis plants. **B)** Dry biomass of adult Arabidopsis plants after growing together with either wheat WT or *bx3* mutants (*bx3-158* or *bx3-162*) for eight weeks. Individual data points indicate biological replicates (n = 3-6). Different letters indicate different statistical groups (ANOVA, posthoc Tukey, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001).

To further test the contribution of BX production/release to plant growth in the plant-plant competition experiments, I performed a competition assay including Col-0 and previously selected APO-resistant (Bor-4) and APO-susceptible (Rak-2) *Arabidopsis* accessions (Supplemental Figure 3); these accessions had been tested for their response to BX-conditioned soil in a separate experiment (Niklas Schandry et al., unpublished data). I performed the competition experiments in the same way as described above (Figure 10 A) and measured *Arabidopsis* adult dry biomass to assess any growth effects. Contrary to the expectation, dry biomass of all *Arabidopsis* accessions decreased compared to control in all competition conditions and independently of wheat or *Arabidopsis* genotypes. No significant difference was observed between Col-0 plants growing together with WT wheat vs. the ones growing with *bx3* mutants and a similar behavior was observed for both BX resistant Bor-4 and susceptible Rak-2 accessions (Figure 11), in contrast to the initial experiment with only Col-0 (Figure 10 B).

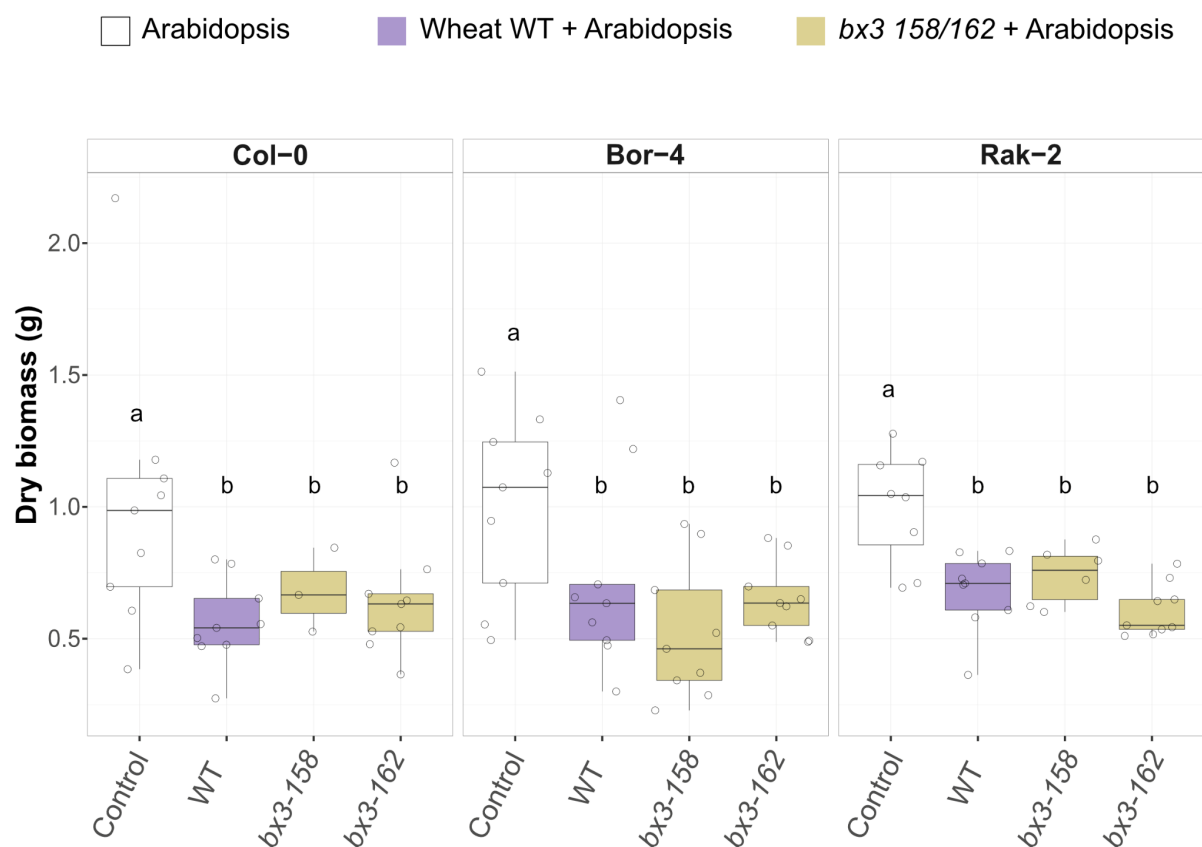


Figure 11. Effect of *BX3* mutation on plant-plant competition with different *Arabidopsis* accessions. Dry biomass of adult *Arabidopsis* accessions (Col-0, Bor-4 and Rak-2) after growing together for eight weeks with wheat plants of either wild type (WT) or *bx3* mutant genotypes (*bx3*-158 or *bx3*-162). Dry biomass differences are represented as

relative to control of Col-0 reference accession. Individual data points indicate biological replicates ($n = 3-9$). Different letters indicate different statistical groups (ANOVA, posthoc Tukey, $p \leq 0.05$).

Although the previously observed competition behavior for Col-0 could not be reproduced and the results for Bor-4 and Rak-2 were unexpected, these results support our previous observations which suggested that the main driver of plant-plant competition in our biological setup is space and/or nutrient availability. Since Bor-4 and Rak-2 were selected based on their growth performance on BX conditioned soil, it is possible that the BX related phenotype previously observed on both accessions gets masked in a plant-plant interaction scenario, where wheat outcompetes Arabidopsis over a short time. Overall, we conclude that plant-plant competition is occurring in our biological setup, but it is not due to an allelopathic effect.

In conclusion, BX does not appear to play an essential role in the response to the biotic interactions tested in this study. However, further studies are required to discern if the BX effect in wheat is specific to certain pathogens, herbivores, or plants.

2. Epigenetic stress response to the allelochemical APO in *Thlaspi arvense*

2.1 APO inhibits root growth in *Thlaspi arvense*

APO can inhibit *Arabidopsis* root growth at lower concentrations compared to other BX or BX-derived compounds, which makes it the most phytotoxic of the BX-derived allelochemicals [38,82]. I asked whether this APO effect was reproducible in other Brassicaceae and investigated growth inhibition on the distantly related *T. arvense*. To answer this question, we performed an APO concentration-response assay (0-50 μM APO) on *T. arvense* seedlings. We found that when germinated on APO containing media, *T. arvense* seedlings showed a dose dependent root growth inhibition effect, with an EC₅₀ determined at 3.3 μM (Figure 12). These results are in accordance with the previously observed inhibitory effect of APO in *Arabidopsis* root growth [38], indicating that both Brassicaceae respond similarly to APO stress treatment.

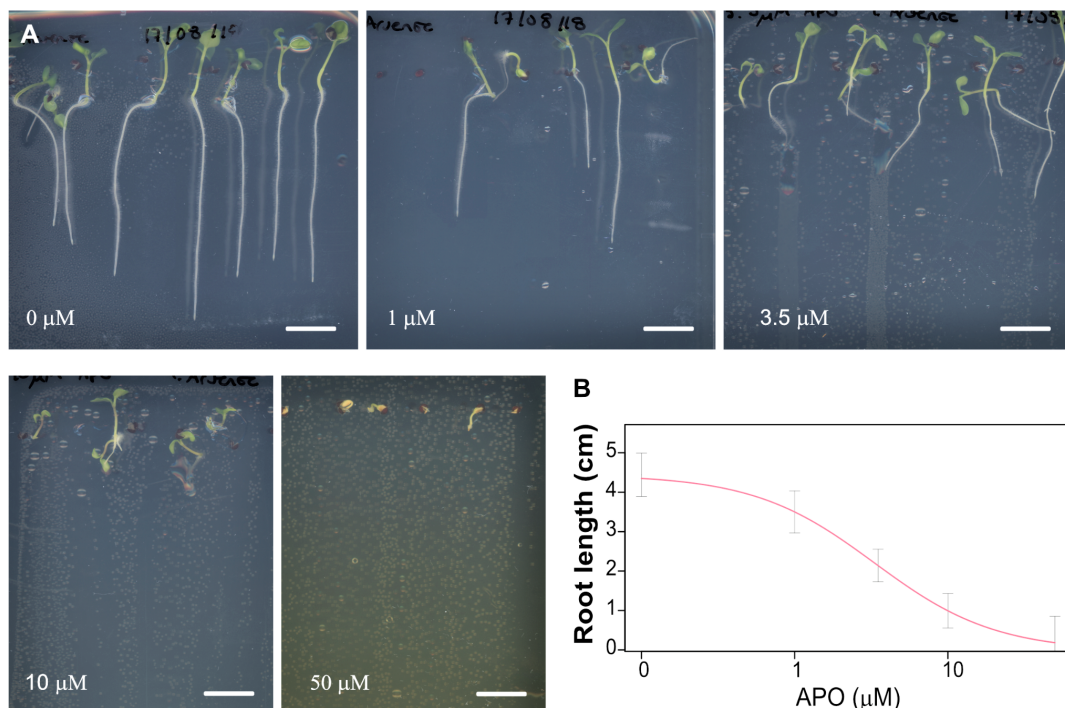


Figure 12. APO root growth inhibition in *T. arvense*. **A)** Representative seedlings (8 DAG) growing on media supplemented with increasing concentrations of APO. Scale bar = 1 cm. **B)** Dose response curve of root growth on media containing increasing concentrations of APO. The red line indicates a four-parameter log-logistic dose-response model with model-based averages and standard errors (95% confidence, n = 5-9).

2.2 APO stress-induced DNA methylation dynamics in *T. arvense*

Several studies have emphasized the importance of epigenetic mechanisms in regulating plant stress responses and priming [156,185,189]. In the context of allelopathy, Venturelli et al. showed that the allelochemical APO affects histone acetylation by inhibiting HDACs [82]. Additionally, a cross-talk between DNA methylation pathways and histone modifications, both methylation [264,265] and acetylation [266–268], exist to regulate gene function. However, the importance of DNA methylation in regulating allelopathic stress response has remained unexplored.

In order to investigate the role of DNA methylation in allelopathic stress response, I performed an APO stress assay in *T. arvense* seedlings and prepared whole genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) libraries of stressed root and shoot tissues. In brief, the stress assay was done with an APO concentration of 3.5 μ M and consisted of 4 experimental conditions: 1) Primed (involving 2 priming stimuli of 24 h of exposure each to APO and a subsequent long stress exposure of 6 d); 2) Non-primed (seedlings were exposed to only a long stress stimulus of 6 d in APO); 3) Control of the priming (seedlings were exposed to 2 priming stimuli of 24 h in APO, but no subsequent 6-day exposure) and 4) Control (treatment with the solvent DMSO only) (Figure 13). This experimental design was chosen to retrieve more stable and consistent changes in DNA methylation that could account for APO-related priming effects or somatic memory.

To gain insights into the genome-wide methylation profile of *T. arvense*, we first analyzed WGBS data of control samples. For this, I extracted genomic DNA from both shoot and root samples and prepared tissue-specific sequencing libraries. Genome-wide, around 70% of cytosines were methylated in the CG context, 47% in the CHG context, and 33% in the CHH context in both roots and shoots (Figure 14). This is in accordance with DNA methylation levels along the three different contexts reported for other Brassicaceae [248].

When we analyzed DNA methylation levels on different genomic features, we found that most DNA methylation colocalized with TEs and intergenic regions, specially for the CG context (Figure 15A). Conversely, DNA methylation seemed to be depleted

in gene bodies (Figure 15B). A similar pattern of lack of gbM has been reported for a close relative of *T. arvense*, *E. salsugineum*, which suggest that gbM was lost at the base of this clade [175,248,269].

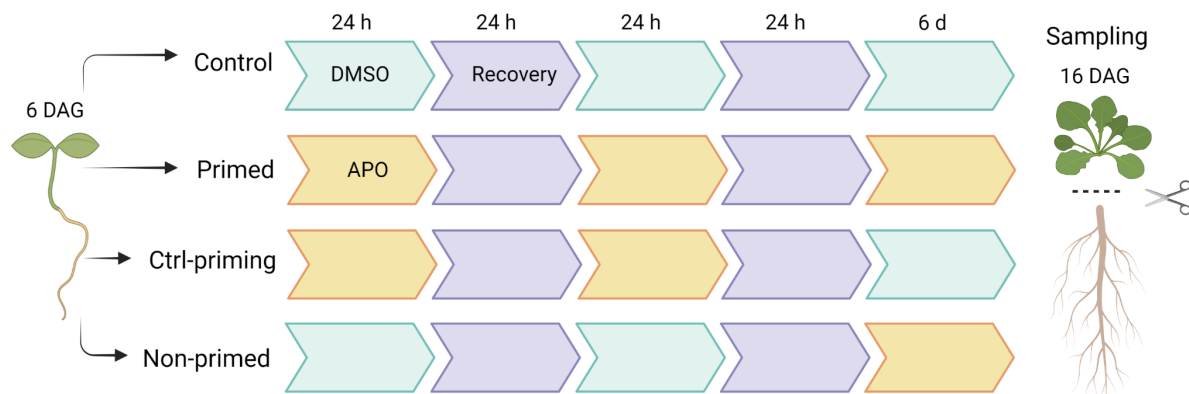


Figure 13. Schematic representation of APO stress experimental design in *T. arvense*. Six-d-old seedlings were sequentially transferred to any of the four experimental conditions (Control, primed, ctrl-priming and non-primed). Each treatment (represented as arrows) was performed on 1/2MS plates supplemented with 0.8% agar and a concentration of 3.5 μ M of either DMSO (blue arrows) or DMSO+APO (yellow arrows). Recovery condition was done on 1/2MS media with 0.8% agar. The duration of each treatment is given on the top of each arrow. After the last treatment for 6 d, both shoot and root tissue of 16 day old plants were harvested independently.

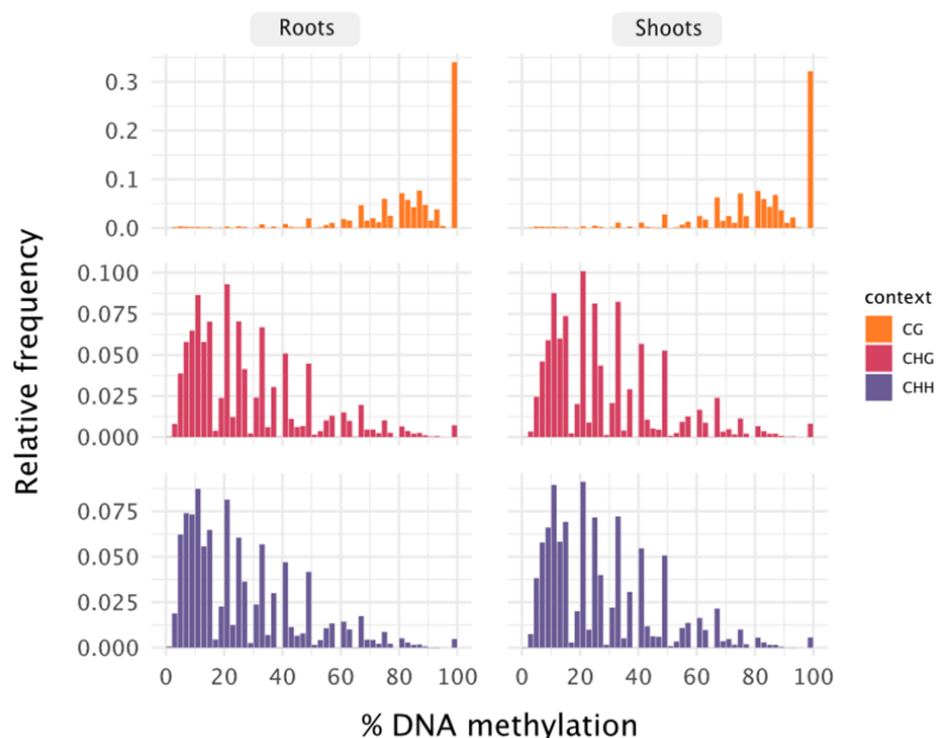


Figure 14. Genome wide DNA methylation profile in *T. arvense*. Methylation rate frequency distribution by sequence context in root (left) and shoot (right) tissues [248].

Interestingly, while the ortholog of the methyltransferase CMT3 seems to have been lost in *E. salsugineum*, which has been postulated as the possible cause for the lack of gbM in that species, the *CMT3* copy in the *T. arvense* genome annotation appears encode for a full-length enzyme [248,250]. However, functionality of *TaCMT3* will need to be validated in future studies.

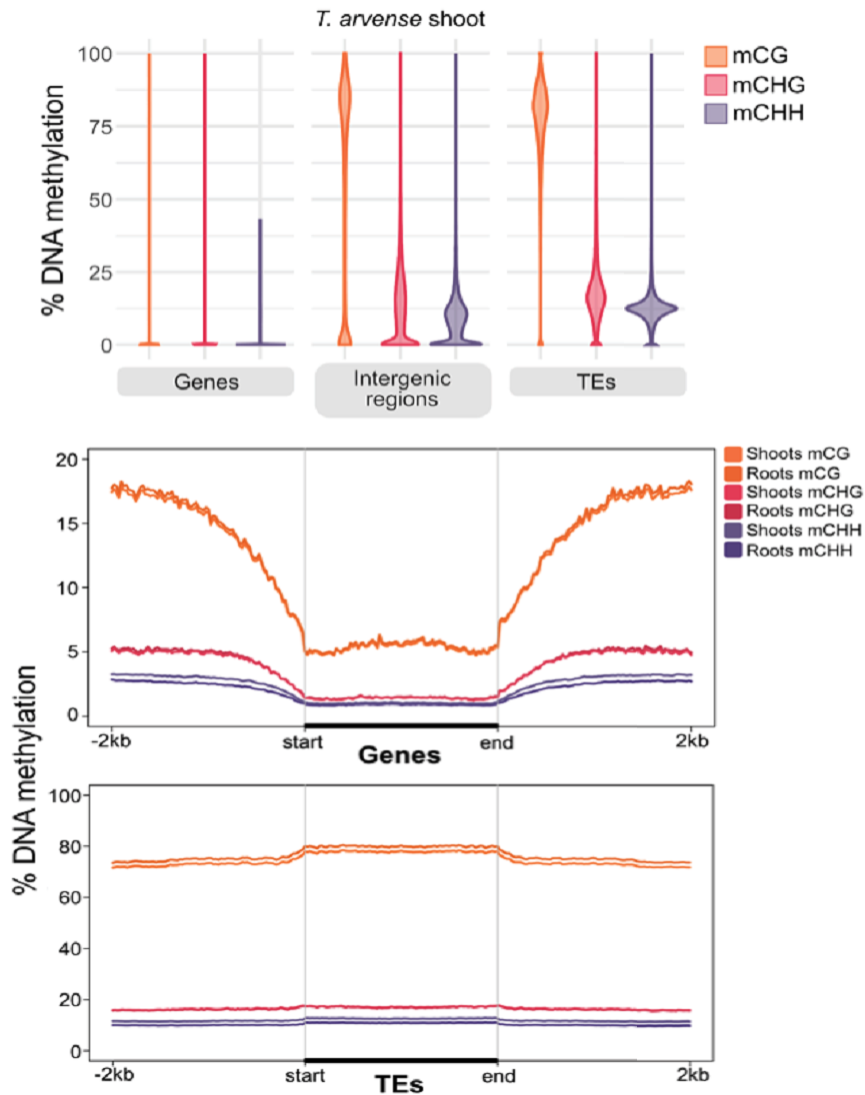


Figure 15. DNA methylation across different genomic features in *T. arvense*. **A)** Distribution of average DNA methylation by cytosine context on genes, intergenic regions and TEs. **B)** DNA methylation along genes (top) and TEs (bottom), including a 2-kb flanking sequence upstream and downstream. DNA methylation was averaged in non-overlapping 25-bp windows [248].

Next, to explore the dynamics of DNA methylation following APO stress, we analyzed WGBS libraries of stress and control samples. Principal component analysis (PCA) on global DNA methylation levels of stress and control samples

showed cluster separation according to tissue type in all the three methylation contexts (CG, CHG and CHH) (Figure 16A and supplemental figure 4), indicating that tissue type is the main driver of DNA methylation variation. In accordance with this, global DNA methylation levels of control and APO-treated root and shoot samples were more different between tissues than among treatments of the same tissue, particularly in non CG contexts. Shoot tissues showed higher DNA methylation levels in CHG and CHH contexts compared to roots (Figure 16B).

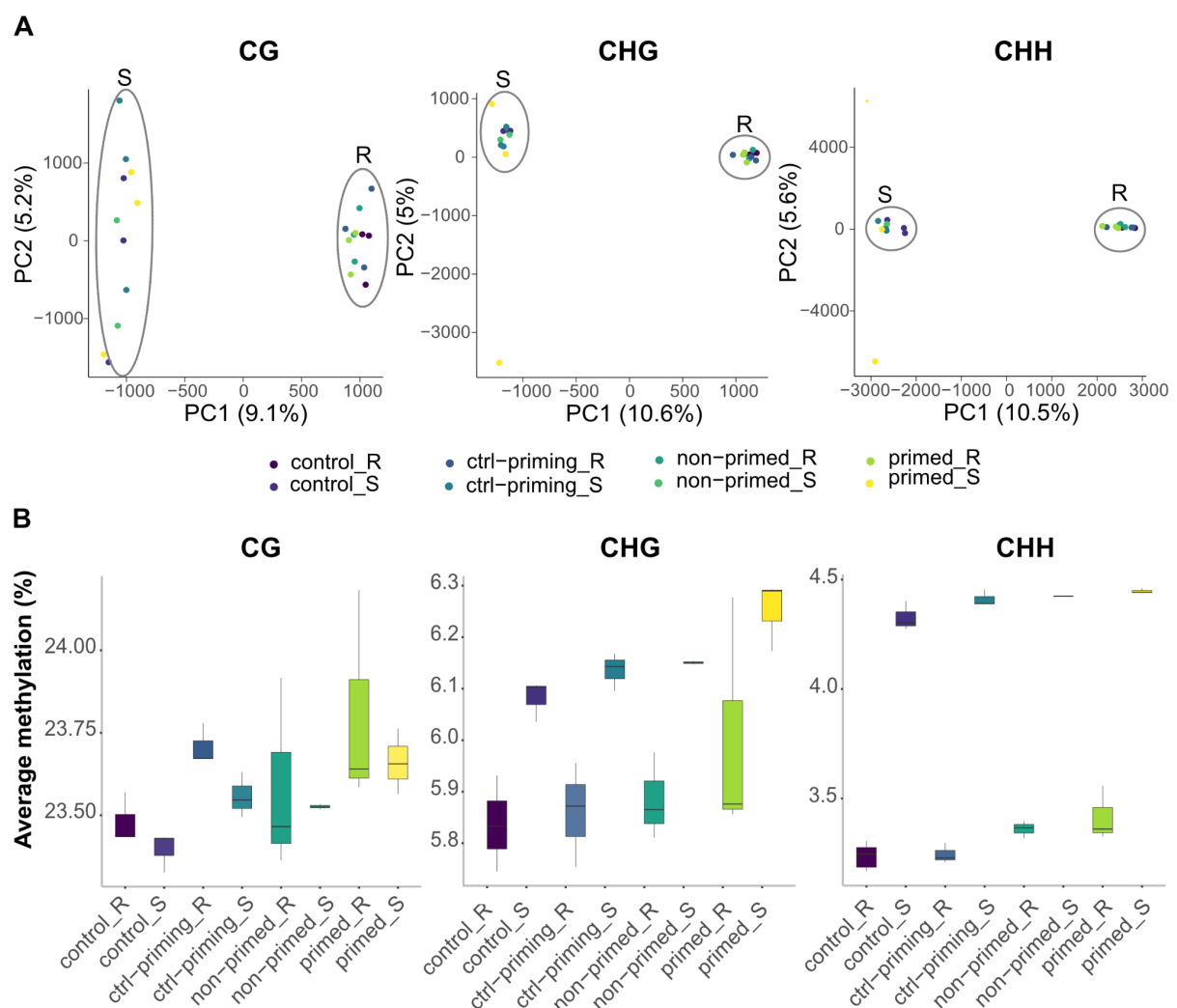


Figure 16. Dynamics of DNA methylation after APO stress. A) Principal component analysis (PCA) on DNA methylation levels by cytosine context (CG, CHG and CHH). Grouping of root and shoot samples are marked by R and S, respectively. **B)** Percent of average DNA methylation for each cytosine context in APO-treated root and shoot samples.

Overall, global DNA methylation level of primed, stressed and control samples of the same tissue were similar (Figure 16B). Nonetheless, there might be a small APO effect, since roots and shoots exposed to longer APO treatment (primed and

non-primed) showed a slight increase in DNA methylation in all sequence contexts. (Figure 16B).

Taken together, our results indicate that global DNA methylation is more variable by tissue type than it is upon exposure to APO, and that genome wide, there is low variation in DNA methylation across APO treated samples. Tissue-specific DNA methylation patterns have been observed in other Brassicaceae [270–272][273]. Although this epigenetic mark can be influenced by the environment, the overall tissue-specific DNA methylation signature seems to be quite stable [270,274] and changes in response to APO probably occur only in a few candidate regions.

2.3 APO stress-induced DMRs occur mainly in CHH context

To explore the dynamics of DNA methylation upon APO stress at specific loci, we determined differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in each sequence context (CG, CHG, and CHH, respectively). Due to the low variation in DNA methylation among samples of the same tissue type (Figure 16A), DMRs were obtained from comparisons between control and APO-treated samples for each tissue independently. In this way, we avoided selecting tissue-specific DMRs and increased the power of detection to obtain APO-dependent DMRs for each tissue, since memory related DMRs would be hard to identify in our low variation dataset.

We identified 6 CG and 4,205 CHH DMRs in shoots, and 51 CG and 2,353 CHH DMRs in roots. Hence, the majority of DMRs identified were in the asymmetric CHH context for both tissues and most of them were hypermethylated relative to the control samples (Figure 17 and Table 2). This is in line with our previous observation of an increase in global DNA methylation levels in APO-treated samples (Figure 16). Only very few DMRs were detected in the CG context and none in CHG. Overall, the longest stress treatment (primed condition) caused the most DNA methylation changes (Figure 17 and Table 2).

Because APO stress primarily affects methylation in the CHH context, we next focused on CHH DMRs. First, we selected and merged highly variable CHH DMRs filtered by a 15% methylation difference and a false discovery rate (FDR) <0.001.

This stringent filtering left us with 91 and 226 CHH DMRs in roots and shoots, respectively (Supplemental tables 2 and 3).

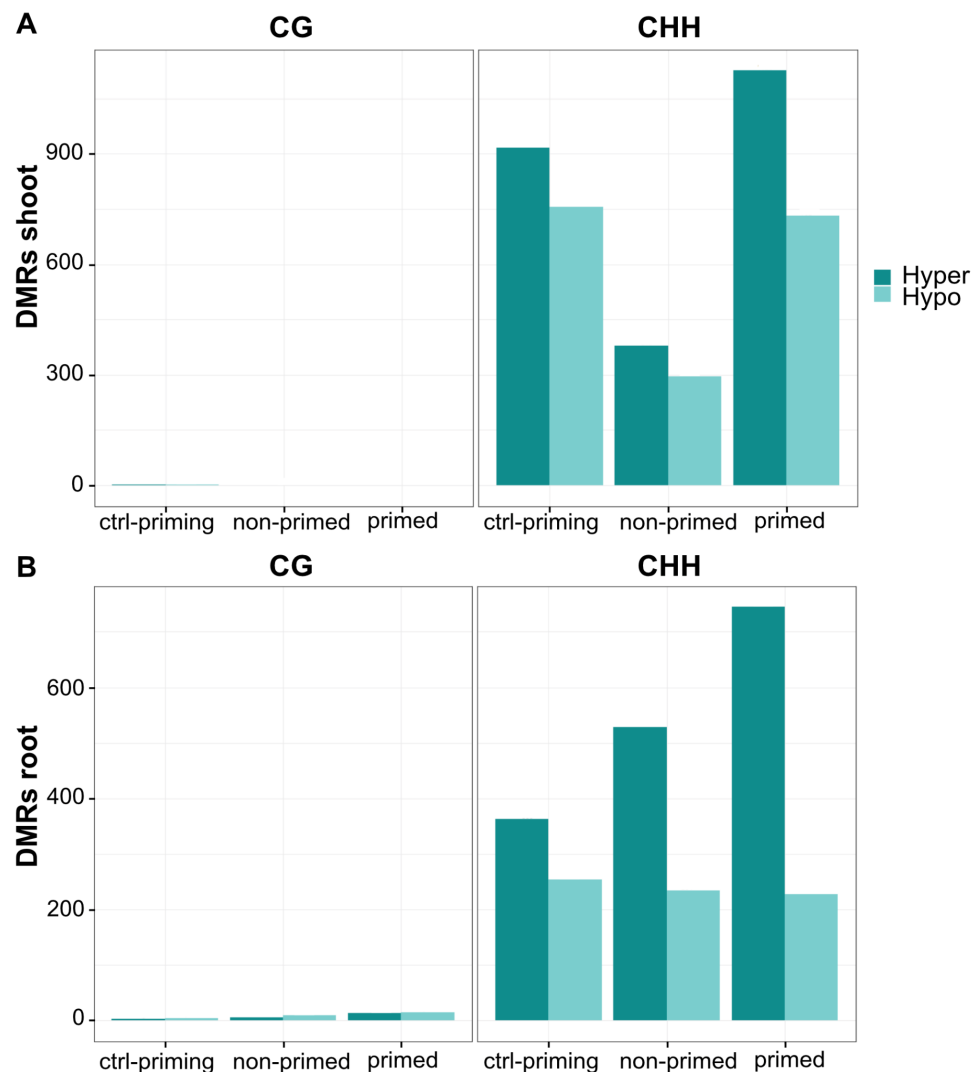


Figure 17. APO stress-induced differentially methylated regions (DMRs) in *T. arvense*. **A)** Amount of hyper and hypomethylated DMRs in shoot in CG and CHH contexts. **B)** Amount of hyper and hypomethylated DMRs in root tissues.

An analysis of mean methylation difference on these new DMRs datasets showed a clear cluster separation between control and APO-treated samples in roots, but not in shoots (Figure 18 and Figure 19). Roots are the tissue where APO is naturally perceived, we further focus on root DMRs to understand the epigenetic response to APO stress in *T. arvense*.

Table 2. Total number of hyper and hypomethylated DMRs in CG and CHH contexts in root and shoot samples.

	CG		CHH	
	Hyper	Hypo	Hyper	Hypo
DMRs Shoot	4	2	2422	1783
DMRs Root	23	28	1637	716

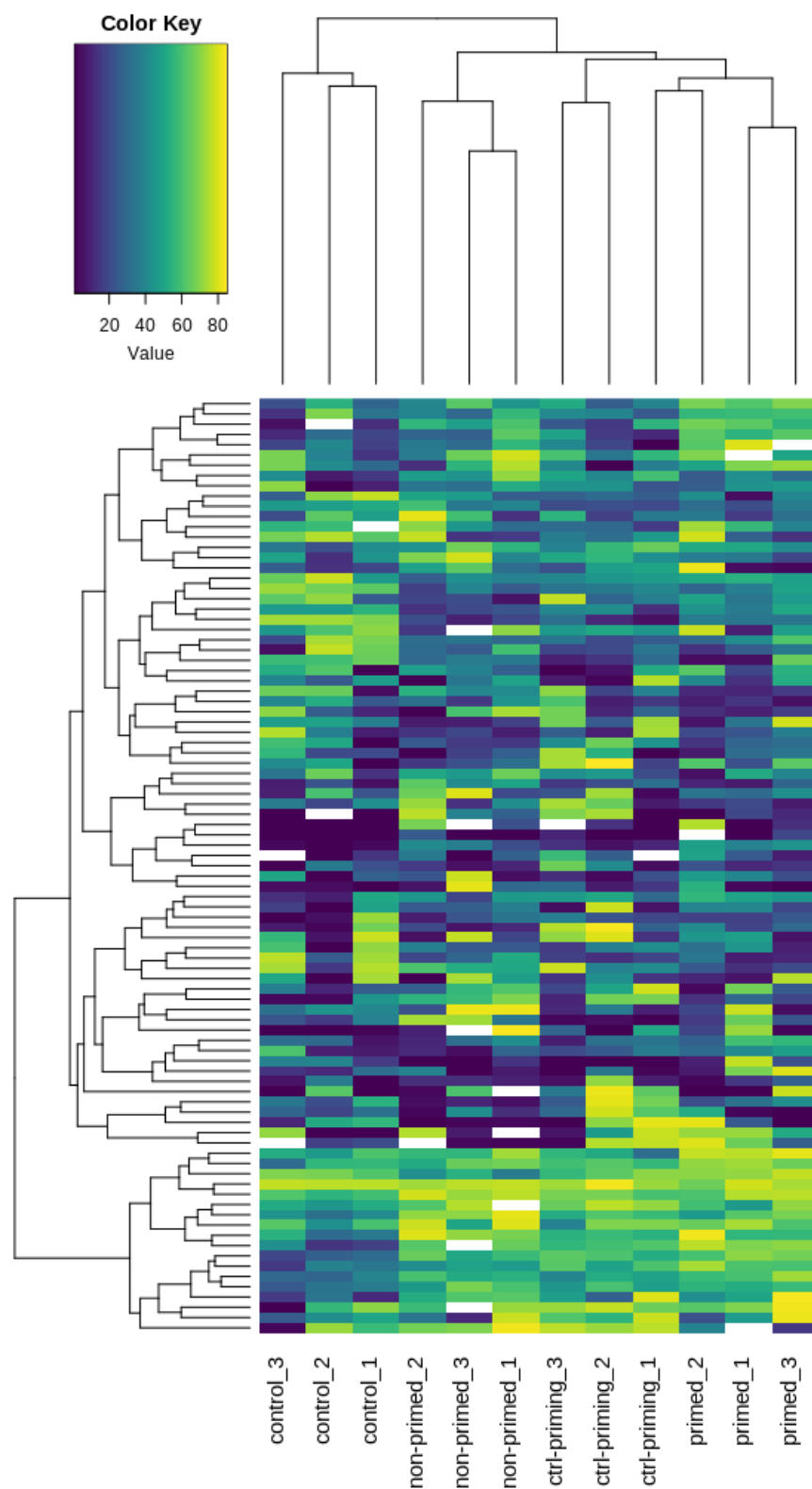


Figure 18. APO stress-induced CHH DMRs in roots. Heatmap of mean methylation level of filtered CHH DMRs (15% methylation difference, 0.001 FDR) in the three biological replicates of APO treated samples (non-primed, ctr-priming, primed) and control.

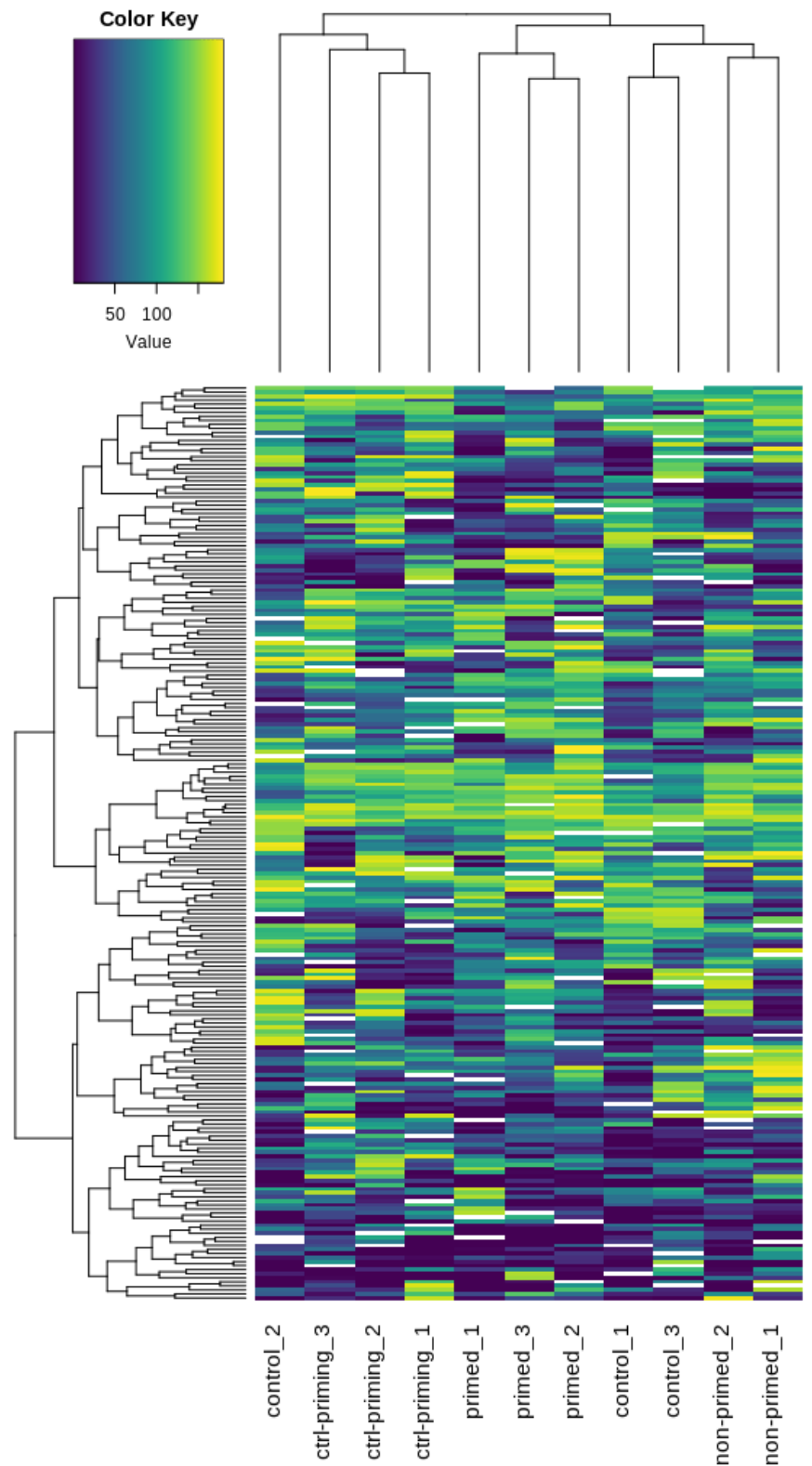


Figure 19. APO stress-induced CHH DMRs in shoots. Heatmap of mean methylation level of filtered CHH DMRs (15% methylation difference, 0.001 FDR) in the three biological replicates of APO treated samples (non-primed, ctrl-priming, primed) and control.

2.4 Candidate genes affected by APO stress

To better understand the potential functional role of the DMRs in APO stress response, we checked the root DMRs overlapping with TEs and gene promoters (defined as a 2 kb window). Our DMRs-genome intersection analysis yielded 58 candidate genes and 48 TEs in roots (Table 3 and Supplemental table 4). A functional annotation according to Arabidopsis orthologs revealed that many of these DMRs occur nearby genes related to cell growth and biotic/abiotic stress responses (Table 3). Examples are the Cyclin-dependent kinase A-1 (CDKA-1: Tarvense_01797, a core cell cycle regulator [275–277] and the B"ETA:Serin/threonine phosphatase 2A (Tarvense_14160), which is important in microtubule organization and cell elongation [278–281]. On the other hand, interesting stress related candidates included a subunit of the cytochrome c reductase complex (Tarvense_14345), important in oxidative stress [282,283], and the stress response regulator ERD7 (Tarvense_24043) [284–286].

To identify DMRs that generally affect the same set of genes, we searched for genes that appeared in all APO treatment conditions. No genes were shared between all APO stress conditions. However, three genes were shared between the long APO stress conditions; primed and non-primed (Table 3 and supplemental figure 5). Two of those genes encode for proteins of unknown function (Tarvense_08747 and Tarvense_14442), and one of them corresponds to the previously mentioned serine/threonine phosphatase 2A (Tarvense_14160), which is involved in microtubule arrangement and plays an important function in cell division and elongation [278–281]. The DMRs close to those genes varied between APO stress conditions. For Tarvense_08747 and Tarvense_14160 a slight increase in methylation was observed in all APO treated conditions with respect to control (Supplemental figure 6). In contrast, for Tarvense_14442 a slight decrease in methylation was observed in all APO treated conditions compared to control (Supplemental figure 6). All in all, our observations suggest that the epigenetic response to APO varies according to the duration and/or timing of the exposure to the chemical and point to interesting candidate genes which could mediate the APO stress response in *T. arvense*.

In conclusion, we observed that the allelochemical APO affects DNA methylation profiles in shoot and root tissues, with the CHH context being the most affected.

Additionally, we determine a small set of candidate genes that may be involved in the perception and response to APO stress in roots. Further investigation is needed to understand how these changes in DNA methylation affect gene expression and contribute to the APO growth inhibition related phenotype.

Table 3. Candidate genes and their putative functions according to Arabidopsis orthologs.

Candidate gene	Gene ID	Ortholog	Putative funtion
PYRR Riboflavin biosynthesis protein PYRR, chloroplastic	Tarvense_01654	AT3G47390	Photooxidative damage
CDKA-1 Cyclin-dependent kinase A-1	Tarvense_01797	AT3G48750	Cell cycle and allelopathy
Protein of unknown function	Tarvense_01871		
CID10:Polyadenylate-binding protein interacting protein 10	Tarvense_01872	AT3G49390	RNA-binding protein
UPL7:E3 ubiquitin-proteinligase	Tarvense_02196	AT3G53090	Trichome development
UPL7:E3 ubiquitin-proteinligase	Tarvense_02197	AT3G53090	Trichome development
ARF:ADP-ribosylation factor 2 (O.sativa subsp japonica)	Tarvense_02957	Os05g0489600	GTP-binding protein involved in protein trafficking
DUF7:DUF724 domain containing protein 7	Tarvense_02958	AT3G62300	DNA replication, transcription and chromatin remodeling
Protein of unknown function	Tarvense_04716		
ADK2: Adenylate kinase 3/ RCOM probable aspartylaminopeptidase	Tarvense_04810	AT5G50370	Adenylate kinase family protein
CIA1 protein	Tarvense_04954	AT2G26060	Embryo development and genome integrity
NDPK3: Nucleoside diphosphate kinase III; chloroplastic &mitochondrial	Tarvense_04958	AT4G11010	Oxidative stress
SPA2: Protein SPA1-Related 2	Tarvense_04977	AT4G11110	Photomorphogenesis
AT4G00893 F-box protein	Tarvense_05081	AT4G00893	F-box/kelch-repeat protein
ENT5:Equilibrative nucleotide transporter 5	Tarvense_05299	AT4G05140	Nucleoside transporter
AT2G29880 uncharacterized: Myb	Tarvense_05330	AT2G29880	Pollen germination and tube growth
LECRK44:L-type lectin-domain containing receptor kinase IV.4	Tarvense_05442	AT4G02420	Auxin regulated gene
LECRK44:L-type lectin-domain containing receptor kinase IV.4	Tarvense_05443	AT4G02420	Auxin regulated gene

WEB family protein	Tarvense_06021	AT5G16730	Microtubule-associated protein
SIED1: Protein salt-induced and EIN3/EI L1-dependent 1	Tarvense_06867	AT5G22270	Salinity tolerance
AAE16: acyl-activating enzyme 16, chloroplastic	Tarvense_07911	AT3G23790	Lipid metabolisms
RPL29B:60S ribosomal protein L29-2	Tarvense_08682	AT3G06680	Ribosomal L29e protein family involved in protein regulation
Unknown function	Tarvense_08747		
AT5G01750 LURP-one-related 15	Tarvense_09065	AT5G01750	Abiotic stress, root development
ARP1: RNA-binding protein	Tarvense_11448	AT3G54770	Seed germination under ABA or abiotic stress conditions
Unknown function	Tarvense_11555		
NPF5.2:NRT1/PTR Family 5.2	Tarvense_13266	AT5G46050	Biotic and abiotic stress
XRI1	Tarvense_13521	AT5G48720	Meiosis and gametogenesis
PHO1-H5 Phosphate transporter PHO1 homolog 5	Tarvense_13605	AT2G03240	EXS (ERD1/XPR1/SYG1) family protein, stress
B"beta: Serin/threonine protein phosphatase 2A regulatory subunit B"beta	Tarvense_14160	AT5G18580	Microtubule array, cell orientation and elongation
QCR7-2 Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 7-2, mitochondrial	Tarvense_14345	AT5G25450	Development, biotic and abiotic stress, allelopathy
Protein of unknown function	Tarvense_14442		
BASL:Breaking of asymmetry in the stomatal lineage	Tarvense_14526	AT5G60880	Assymetric cell division and stomatal development
MYB34: TF MYB34	Tarvense_14527	AT5G60890	Tryptophan pathway
SRK6:Putative serine/threonine-protein kinase receptor (Brassica oleracea)	Tarvense_17158	SRK6	
MFDX2:Adrenodoxin-like protein 2, mitochondrial	Tarvense_17183	AT4G21090	Mitochondrial ferredoxin, redox metabolic pathways
DOGL3: Protein DOG1-like 3	Tarvense_17409	AT4G18690	Seed dormancy
FTA: Protein farnesyltransferase/geranylgeranyltransferase type 1 subunit alpha	Tarvense_17829	AT3G59380	ABA stress response, drought, meristem and growth
AAE15:Long chain fatty acid (acyl-carrier-protein) ligase AEE15, chloroplastic	Tarvense_18022	AT4G14070	Elongation of exogenous medium-chain fatty acids

MAPKKK20: Mitogen activated protein kinase kinase kinase 20	Tarvense_18023	AT3G50310	Osmotic stress, cell division and cell elongation in the primary root
Protein of unknown function	Tarvense_18187		
Protein of unknown function	Tarvense_18306		
MKK3: Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 3	Tarvense_18328	AT5G40440	Suggestive role in signaling during microtubule organization.
CYCB1-3: Cyclin B1-3	Tarvense_18329	AT3G11520	Cell cycle
CAL1: Calmodulin (Medicago)	Tarvense_18729	ATCAL1	This is likely to be a pseudogene
Protein of unknown function	Tarvense_18766		
GLR2.8: Glutamate receptor 2.8	Tarvense_19251	AT2G29110	Member of Putative ligand-gated ion channel subunit family
GLR2.9 Glutamate receptor 2.9	Tarvense_19252	AT2G29100	Defense
F-box/LRR repeat protein	Tarvense_20374	AT3G03360	F-box/RNI-like superfamily protein involved in protein regulation
ALG11:GDP-Man:Man(3)GlcNAc(2)-P P_Dol alpha-1,2 mannosyltransferase	Tarvense_20375	AT2G40190	Cell-wall biosynthesis and abiotic stress response
ERD7: Early responsive to dehydration, chloroplastic	Tarvense_24043	AT2G17840	Abiotic stress responses
RNL: tRNA ligase 1	Tarvense_24137	AT1G07910	Zygote division, auxin
GLR3.1 Glutamate receptor 3.1	Tarvense_24138	AT2G17260	Involved in calcium-programmed stomatal closure.
THY-1: Bifunctional dihydrofolate reductase thymidylate synthase 1	Tarvense_24256	AT2G16370	Synthesis of DNA precursors and some amino acids, seed development
Protein of unknown function	Tarvense_24594		
AT2G22730 probable sphingolipid transporter spinster homolog 3	Tarvense_24719	AT2G22730	Major facilitator superfamily protein
NPY4:BTB/POZ domain containing protein NPY4	Tarvense_24753	AT2G23050	Auxin-mediated organogenesis
AT1G64840: F-box/Kelch repeat protein A	Tarvense_24984	AT1G64840	Mitochondrial protein

DISCUSSION

1. A BX loss of synthesis mutant in hexaploid wheat generated by a non-transgenic TILLING approach

It is well known that polyploidy has a positive impact on several important agronomic traits. Not surprisingly, many of the world's most important crops are polyploid [287]. Yet, the generation of genomic tools for plant breeding of polyploid crops remains a substantial challenge. The major bottleneck is the often highly heterozygous genome of polyploid species, which makes mutant identification and generation harder and time consuming. Here, I have generated a BX loss-of-synthesis mutant in hexaploid bread wheat by combining mutations on the three different homoeologous *BX3* genes.

TILLING is an optimal approach to identify mutations at desired loci in polyploid species, because random point mutations caused by EMS treatment occur at a relatively high frequency regardless of the genome size [140]. Additionally, it might be preferred to other mutagenesis strategies because it can be applied to any species and does not rely on plant transformation, which is only available for a few plants and has variable success rates [145]. In fact, TILLING resources have been developed for a number of crops other than wheat [146,288–290], including rice, maize, barley, soybean, sorghum, potato, peanut, oat, and tomato [140]. In spite of that, to date, no TILLING variety has been released for commercialization.

Along with TILLING, targeted mutagenesis using CRISPR-Cas technologies has also proven to be very successful for gene editing of polyploid genomes. As opposed to TILLING, target mutagenesis is more precise, faster, and allows gene modification without any background mutations [145,291]. However, it presents other limitations such as off-target effects, loss of mutations in the next generation when only somatic tissues are modified, and legal constraints regarding its use in breeding programs [145,292], especially in countries where genome-edited plants are subjected to

GMO's legislation [293]. In contrast, the mutations generated by TILLING are stably inherited and non-transgenic, which makes TILLING a promising strategy for crop breeding in the future [288,294].

The main drawback of TILLING lies in the time it takes to obtain a candidate mutant. This of course depends on ploidy level, species generation time, and number of backcrosses needed to reduce undesired mutation load. For polyploid species, it is often necessary to combine mutations in the different homoeologs, because single gene mutations could be masked due to gene redundancy. Indeed, this is the case for BX synthesis homoeologous genes in hexaploid wheat [42]. Therefore, to obtain the *bx3* loss of synthesis mutant, it was necessary to combine, by crossing and selfing over three generations, all *BX3* individual mutations on the A, B and D genomes (Supplemental figure 1 and Figure 7B).

Although redundant, not all three BX homoeologs contribute equally to BX biosynthesis. Nomura et al. showed that BX homoeologs are differentially expressed and their translational products also differ in their catalytic properties. Overall, BX homoeologs of the B genome seemed to contribute the most to BX biosynthesis. Particularly for BX3 proteins, the highest catalytic activity comes from the BX3-A, followed by the BX3-B and D enzymes [42]. This explains why *BX3-ab* double mutants showed a higher reduction in DIMBOA and DIMBOA-glc production, compared to *BX3-bd* double mutants (Figure 7B). However, although small, the contribution of BX3-D enzyme is still necessary to reduce DIMBOA and DIMBOA-glc to undetectable levels (Figure 7B). Our results further confirm *in planta* the previously observed unequal contribution of BX homoeologs to BX biosynthesis.

Additionally, *bx3* mutants showed accumulation of intermediary compounds upstream of BX3 enzymatic reaction, such as indoline-2-one and tryptophan (Figure 7C). We did not detect free indole, which might be due to its channeling to tryptophan synthesis. These results were somehow expected, as interruption of metabolic pathways usually leads to accumulation and redirection of intermediary metabolites [295]. Similarly, accumulation of upstream intermediaries has been observed in maize BX deficient mutants and in transgenic Arabidopsis plants that

synthesize DIBOA-Glc [296]. However, the effect of the accumulation of these metabolites on plant physiology is not well understood. In transgenic Arabidopsis, indoline-2-one is phytotoxic and affects plant growth [296]. In contrast, *bx3* mutants in maize [296] and wheat (Figure 8 and supplemental Figure 2C) are not distinguishable from their WT counterparts. These could be due to a higher tolerance to indoline-2-one and a more efficient detoxification mechanism in plants that naturally synthesize BX.

As a matter of fact, indoline-2-one can be recognized as a xenobiotic and detoxified by several species across the plant kingdom. Detoxification occurs via hydroxylation at position C5 by P450s, followed by glycosylation to form indoline-2-one-5-O- β -D-glucopyranoside (5HIONG), which seems to be a stable storage compound [296]. It is likely that excess indoline-2-one is being detoxified through this mechanism in *bx3* mutants. This is supported by the lack of a phytotoxic phenotype in *bx3* plants (Figure 8). However, further identification of 5HIONG accumulation in our BX deficient lines is required to corroborate this hypothesis.

On the other hand, tryptophan accumulation could affect the metabolism of aromatic compounds, including auxins. This metabolic shift could impact plant growth and development. However, we did not observe any significant effect on plant growth on *bx3* mutants (Figure 8 and supplemental Figure 2C). Similarly, other studies in rice [297,298], potato [299], soybean [300], azuki bean [301] and Arabidopsis [302] have shown that overproduction of tryptophan in these species has only minor effects on the entire metabolome as well as on plant growth and development. These observations suggest that the flow from tryptophan into secondary metabolism is strictly regulated and intermediaries are effectively utilized. In future studies, it will be interesting to analyze the metabolome of *bx3* plants and determine if other physiological changes happen in these mutants.

So far, BX loss of synthesis mutants have only been reported in maize [18,24,25,44,296]. Here, I report the first BX mutant in hexaploid wheat. It is important to note that both independent *bx3* mutant lines behaved similarly in the phenotypes tested in this study. These give us confidence that our observations are due to *BX3* mutation and not other background mutations. Nonetheless,

backcrossing to WT to remove excess EMS mutations that might affect additional traits is needed. Currently, the *bx3* plants have been backcrossed to WT two times. It will be necessary to phenotype the backcrossed *bx3* lines to confirm my current observations.

2. Loss of BX does not affect biotic interactions in wheat

Plants adjust the synthesis of secondary metabolites to defend themselves under environmental pressure. Benzoxazinoids are a class of secondary metabolites, mainly found in grass species, that protect plants against a multitude of biotic stressors [100]. Several studies have addressed the toxicity of BX on different target species, including bacteria, fungi, herbivores and plants [30,303]. However, its toxic effect on wheat fungal pathogens and especially its potential allelopathic effect in ecological setups is still unclear and requires more investigation. Here, we investigated the role of BX on wheat defense to stem rust and blast diseases and its allelopathic potential against *Arabidopsis* in soil.

Several studies have addressed the role of BX in defense against fungal pathogens in cereals. Their association with disease resistance is not obvious, some pathogens are susceptible to BX, while others can tolerate or even be stimulated by BX[30,43]. Particularly, a link between BX and head blast disease caused by *M. oryzae* has not been reported so far. On the other hand, a few studies on wheat infected with *P. graminis* suggest that BX content confers protection to stem rust infection [304–306]. In our wheat infection experiments with *M. oryzae* (head blast) and *P. graminis* f.sp. *tritici* (stem rust), we did not observe an effect of BX on disease symptoms (Figure 9), suggesting that, for these fungal diseases, BX are not a prevalent defense mechanism. Although contradictory to previous BX susceptibility phenotypes in *P. graminis*, these observations might be due to a wide range of possible explanations.

For instance, it is possible that the wheat variety (Cadenza) we used does not produce the amount of BX in leaves necessary to inhibit *M. oryzae* and *P. graminis*. Indeed, previous studies have shown that BX content varies across wheat varieties

and that high BX content correlates with disease resistance [86,304,307–309]. Alternatively, the type of damage caused by the fungus during infection might affect the chemical state of BX in the plant, their concentration and hence their antifungal activity [305,310]. In line with this idea, detoxification could occur in *M. oryzae* and *P. graminis* similar to BX detoxification by other fungal species [311,312]. However, this scenario is less likely to occur in *P. graminis*, which has been shown to be susceptible to BX ([86,304,307,308]; [311]). Furthermore, BX content can be influenced by the environment [43]; It is therefore possible that in our controlled environmental conditions, production and release of BX are reduced. Further investigations are necessary to resolve the defensive role of BX against these fungal pathogens.

I also studied the allelopathic function of BX in wheat. BX have been previously described as allelochemicals based on their growth inhibitory effects under laboratory conditions and in the field [263,313]. Contrary to our expectation, we did not find clear evidence of allelopathy occurrence in our experimental setup (Figure 10 and 11). One reason might simply be related to the BX exudation capacity of our wheat variety. Previous studies have shown that DIMBOA exudation is variety-specific and that only a few varieties release considerable amounts of DIMBOA in their root exudates [29,79,308,314,315]. In addition, exudation not only depends on plant genotype but also on the identity and density of the competing weed species, as well as on the timing of plant exposure to competition [20–22,85]. It is therefore likely that *Arabidopsis* does not induce BX exudation because it is not a naturally occurring competitor, or because a higher density and/or earlier exposure is needed to induce allelopathy in wheat. Hence, it is necessary to check if *cadenza* exudes BX at a relevant concentration needed for plant growth inhibition and if so, to optimize our experimental design.

Additionally, It is important to note that, while most studies on BX inhibitory effects were done with crude extracts *in vitro*, or were observed as a consequence of BX accumulation in soil (also known as plant soil feedback effects, PSF) [23,27,316,317], we used a plant-plant competition strategy. This is relevant because, even if *cadenza* exudes good amounts of BX and accumulation in soil reaches inhibitory levels, the compounds might not be as bioavailable for

Arabidopsis in our system as they are in an *in-vitro* experiment. This could happen for several reasons. For instance, compound stability might be affected by abiotic factors or simply be degraded through microbial activity or adhering to soil particles that immobilize them [318–320]. In such a scenario, Arabidopsis would most likely face low concentrations of BX and detoxification of the residual amounts might account for the lack of allelopathic effects. Previous studies have demonstrated that Arabidopsis is able to detoxify BX via o-glycosylation, most likely requiring the sequential action of cytochrome P450 and UDP-glucosyltransferase activities [80,321]. Yet, this detoxification mechanism may be useful to some extent, as higher concentrations of DIMBOA, DIBOA and its derivative products are still phytotoxic to Arabidopsis [38,81].

Another factor that comes into play in our plant-plant interaction scenario is resource competition. In fact, I believe that the reduced growth effect I observed in Arabidopsis when growing it together with wheat (Figure 10 and 11) is mainly due to resource competition. Differentiating between resource competition and allelopathy is very challenging, as both are probably integrated. One way to distinguish between these two phenomena is by exploring the dependency between plant density and allelopathy [322,323]. Accordingly, Weidenhamer et al. showed that density-dependent growth response occurs in Bahiagrass at low concentrations of gallic acid and hydroquinone allelochemicals, but not at high concentrations, suggesting that resource competition is important until strong suppressing effects of the chemical occur [322]. It would be interesting to explore the density dependency to allelopathic induction in our biological setup to disentangle these two factors.

Demonstrating the occurrence of allelopathy in natural conditions is not trivial and has proven to be rather challenging [316,317]. This is in part due to the difficulty in designing experiments that disentangle the contribution of other environmental factors to plant-plant interaction. Experimental approaches that use contrasting plant genotypes that differ in their allelochemical production are good strategies to tackle this problem, nonetheless this type of approaches are still rare [324]. We think that further optimization of our experimental design could help to understand allelopathic interactions in natural environments.

3. The BX-derived compound APO impairs the epigenome and affects stress-related genes in *T. arvense*

Epigenetic changes play an important role in regulating stress responses in plants. Particularly, DNA methylation has been implicated in the response to several biotic and abiotic stresses in different plant species [156,185,189]. However, the epigenetic response to allelopathic compounds has not been explored yet. Here, we investigated the effect of the BX-derived allelochemical APO on DNA methylation at the genome-wide level in *T. arvense*.

Genome-wide, DNA methylation in *T. arvense* is structured similarly to other Brassicaceae in the three different sequence contexts, with higher methylation in CG, followed by CHG and CHH (Figure 14) [175,248]. This context-dependent methylation difference might be explained by the different DNA methylation maintenance mechanisms that in part account for their stability [155,157]. Additionally, as observed in other plant species [175], DNA methylation in *T. arvense* was unevenly distributed across different genomic features, with TEs and intergenic regions harboring the higher levels of DNA methylation, particularly in CG context (Figure 15) [248].

On the other hand, gene body methylation, which is a common feature of constitutively expressed housekeeping genes in other species [175]; [163,325], seemed to be depleted in *T. arvense*. Similar lack of gbM has been observed in other Brassicaceae, in particular in the close relative *Eutrema salsugineum* [175,269], which suggest that gbM loss occurred before the speciation between *T. arvense* and *E. salsugineum* [248]. Previous studies have associated the loss of gbM with mutation in the *CHROMOMETHYLTRANSFERASE 3 (CMT3)* gene [269]. However, whether *CMT3* mutation accounts for the loss of gbM in *T. arvense* is unknown. A recent study analyzed the epigenomes of more than 200 *T. arvense* accessions and did not find any variant in proximity to *CMT3* associated with variation in the number of gbM genes. Instead, a genome wide association (GWA) pick was found closeby the uncharacterized gene *LOG2-LIKE UBIQUITIN LIGASE3 (LUL3)*, which could account for gbM variation [250,326,327]. Overall, these findings support the well-established role of DNA methylation in regulating gene transcription and TE

silencing and show that gbM in *T. arvense* differs from most previously studied plant species.

After having established a clear genome-wide DNA methylation pattern, I proceeded to analyze global DNA methylation changes upon APO treatment in *T. arvense* root and shoot tissues. Interestingly, most variation in global DNA methylation was explained by tissue type (Figure 16A), and only a small fraction of the variation was observed between control and APO-treated samples (Figure 16B). Epigenetic differences between roots and shoots have been found in other plant species [270–272,328,329]. These differences might be involved in regulating distinct developmental and environmental transcriptional responses in a tissue-specific manner [270,272]. Because most variation was observed between tissues, this indicates that the overall tissue-specific DNA methylation signature is quite stable [270,274]. Similarly, Seymour et al. observed that DNA methylation is more affected by tissue type than by environmental differences in 3 Brassicaceae species [270]. These observations suggest that, although DNA methylation is a mark associated with stress responses, the changes in response to environmental perturbations, and specifically to APO, must be local, probably occurring only on a few targeted genes related to the stress response.

While genome-wide I only observed slight variations between control and APO treated samples, I detected extensive differences at specific loci when investigating DMRs, especially in the CHH context (Figure 17 and table 2). This is in agreement with previous studies that described CHH methylation as the most dynamic mark in response to the environment [187,330]. For *T. arvense*, climate was found to be a strong predictor of CHH methylation variation in natural populations [250]. In addition, global changes in CHH DNA methylation have been observed in response to various abiotic and biotic stresses in different plant species [190–194,203]. However, a clear pattern in the response of DNA methylation to stress does not seem to exist; some stress signals causes DNA hypermethylation [194,196,203], while others are characterized by a hypomethylated state [190–194,331]. In particular, for the case of APO-induced stress in *T. arvense*, we observed more hypermethylated DMRs in both tissues across the different stress treatments (Figure 17). This suggests that DNA hypermethylation might be a specific APO stress

response in *T. arvense*. Whether this response is maintained in longer stress periods or if it is stable enough to give rise to epigenetic plant memory remains to be tested. Here, we did not find evidence of somatic epigenetic memory. However, this might be a limitation of our experimental design, which allowed for only a short stress exposure.

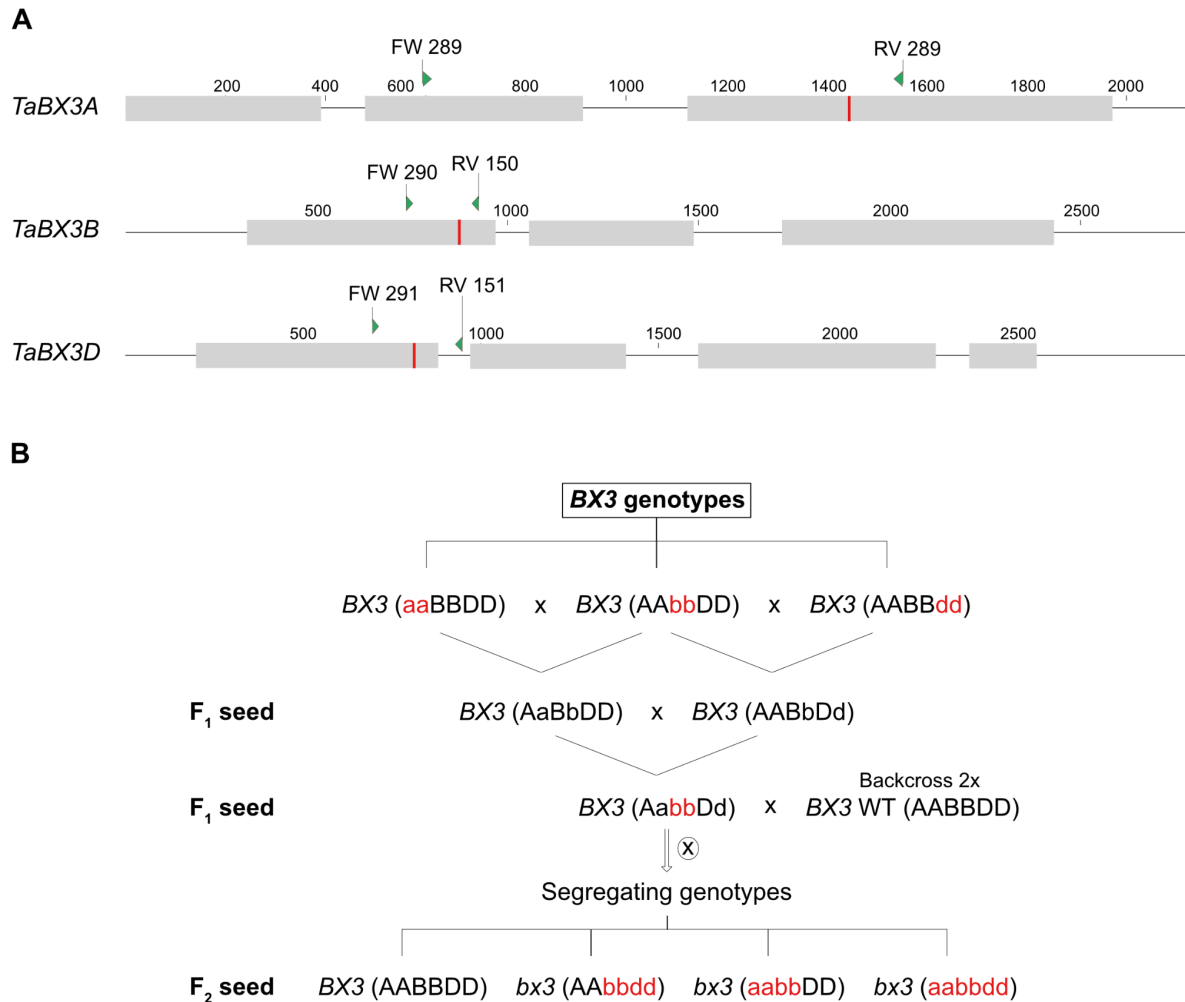
From our DMRs analysis, we found several DMRs close to genes with predicted functions in stress response, cell growth and plant development (Table 3). Some of the interesting candidate genes were Tarvense_01797, Tarvense_14345, Tarvense_24043, and Tarvense_14160. Previous studies in Arabidopsis have shown that the expression of the Arabidopsis ortholog of Tarvense_01797, AT3G48750, which encodes for a Cyclin-dependent kinase A-1 (CDKA-1), is affected upon exposure to allelochemicals from apple [332]. Similarly, the Arabidopsis ortholog of Tarvense_14345, AT5G25450, which encodes for a Ubiquinol–cytochrome c reductase subunit, has been shown to be induced in response to buckwheat allelochemicals [333]. Here, we found that DNA methylation changes occur in the neighboring region of these genes upon APO treatment in *T. arvense*, suggesting that epigenetic modifications might be involved in the transcriptional stress response to allelochemicals. In accordance with this, the expression of AT2G17840, the Arabidopsis ortholog of Tarvense_24043, which is also a stress related gene in Arabidopsis and *T. arvense* [286], is downregulated upon application of histone deacetylase and DNA methyltransferase inhibitors [334]. In addition, Tarvense_14160 (AT5G18580), which was shared between the long APO stress conditions (primed and non-primed), seems to be important for plant growth and development along with other candidates (AT4G11110, AT2G29880, AT3G50310, AT3G11520 and AT2G26060) found in our dataset [335,336]. All in all, we identified DNA methylation changes in candidate genes important for stress response as well as for plant growth and development, which could be related to the APO growth inhibition phenotype.

CONCLUSION

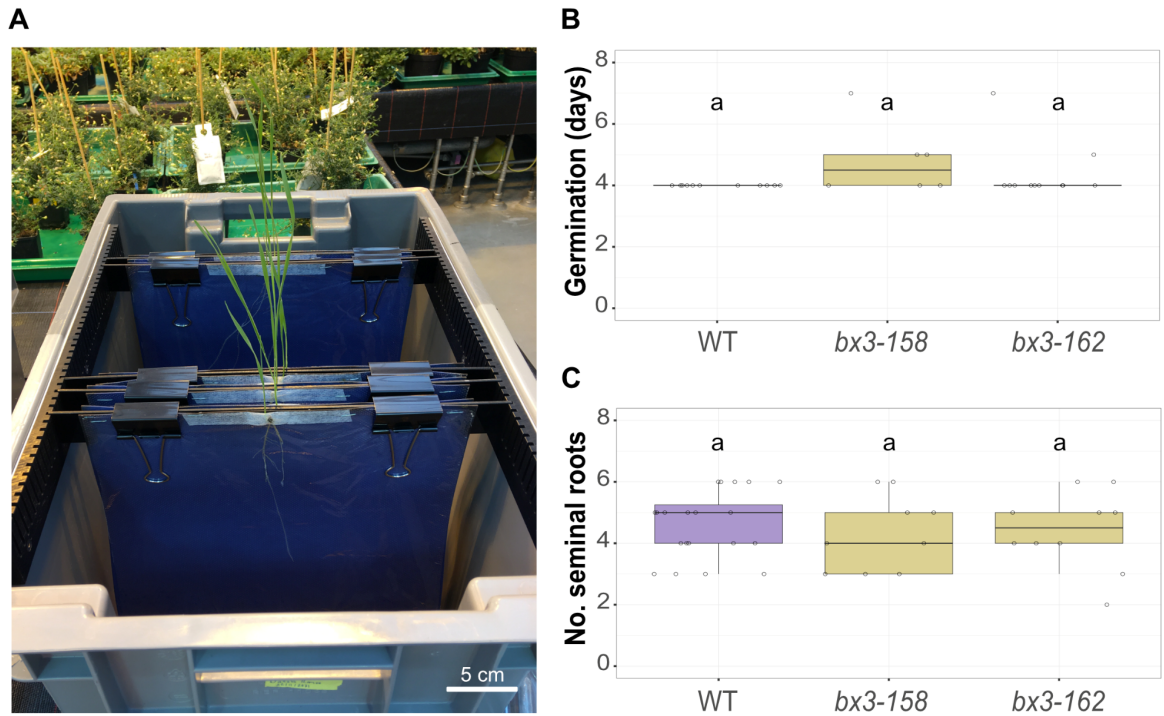
In summary, this study reports the first BX loss of synthesis mutant generated by TILLING technology in wheat. We found that the interruption of BX synthesis in *bx3* mutants leads to accumulation of upstream intermediary compounds without any striking effect in plant phenotype, indicating that intermediaries are effectively utilized and/or detoxified in wheat. Additionally, by making use of this new genetic resource, we determined that BX does not affect allelopathic interactions and plant defense of wheat in our biological setup. Further experimental research, in particular to optimize allelopathic experimental designs and to study the defense responses to other pathogens in wheat, is necessary to corroborate these observations. The wheat genetic material generated in this study will facilitate future research on BX biological functions in this highly relevant crop.

On the other hand, this study also provides new insights into the molecular role of the BX derived allelochemical APO at the epigenomic level. Here, we observed global DNA methylation changes, particularly in the CHH context, in *T. arvense* under APO stress. Our data also revealed local changes in DNA methylation proximal to genes with potential implication in APO stress response. Further studies will determine the functional implication of DNA methylation on these candidate genes. Over the last few years, efforts have been undertaken to develop *T. arvense* into a new model organism and a biofuel and winter cash cover crop [248,337,338]; thus, any insights into the molecular bases of environmental stress response in *T. arvense* would be of great value for this translational research.

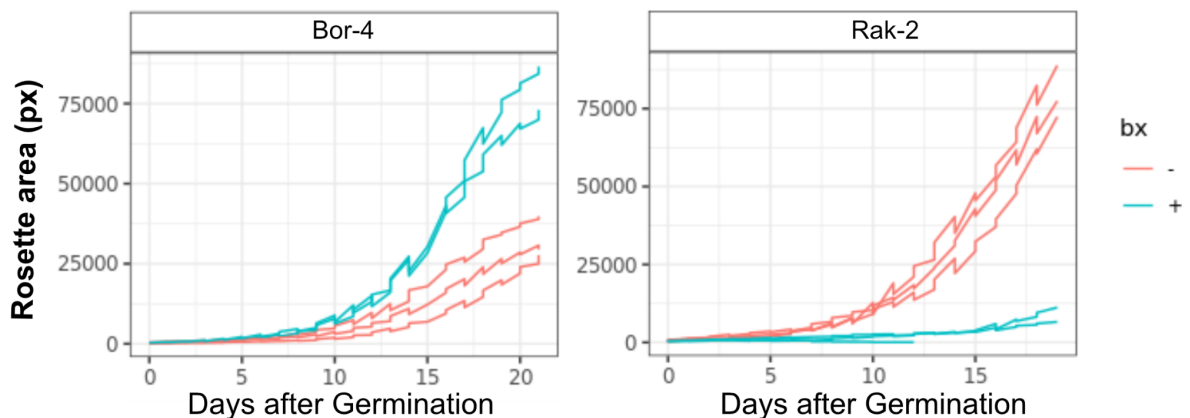
SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS



Supplemental figure 1. Generation of *bx3* mutant using wheat TILLING lines. A) Schematic representation of the *BX3* homeologous genes in wheat. Gray boxes represent exons and the red lines indicate the position of the mutation on the TILLIN lines used to generate *bx3* mutants. Primer pairs used for genotyping are indicated as green arrows. **B)** Crossing scheme between the three single homozygous mutant lines and genotypes selected on each generation to obtain triple homozygous *bx3* mutants. From the F₁ segregant population, plants with the AabbDd genotype were self-pollinated to produce *bx3* mutant lines and other segregating genotypes including wild type (WT), as well as backcrossed to (WT) to clean any background mutations. Self-pollination is represented by an X inside a circle.

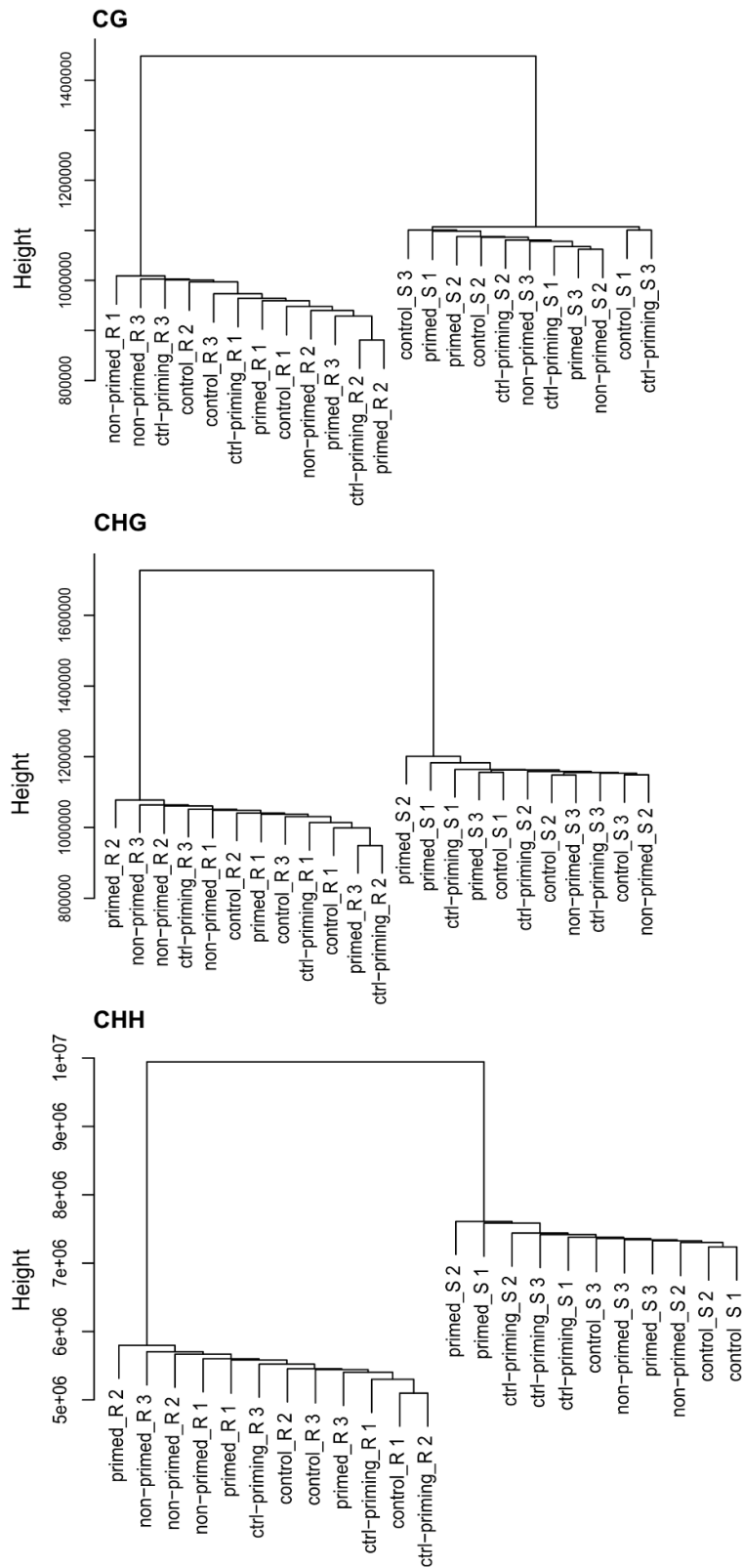


Supplemental figure 2. Plant phenotyping of wheat seedlings. **A)** Picture of the plant phenotyping system. Two filter papers (blue) are stacked together in a rack box filled with 5 L of half-strength Hoagland nutrient solution. Seeds are taped to the top of the filter paper. The root growth area is covered with a black foil (in the picture a transparent foil was used for visualization of the roots). **B)** Germination time of wild type (WT) and *bx3* wheat mutants (*bx3-158* and *bx3-162*). **C)** Number of seminal roots in 2.5-week-old wheat WT and *bx3* mutants (*bx3-158* and *bx3-162*). Circles indicate biological replicates [**A**] $n = 7-12$ and [**B**] $n = 9-20$. Different letters indicate different statistical groups (ANOVA, posthoc Tukey, $p \leq 0.05$).



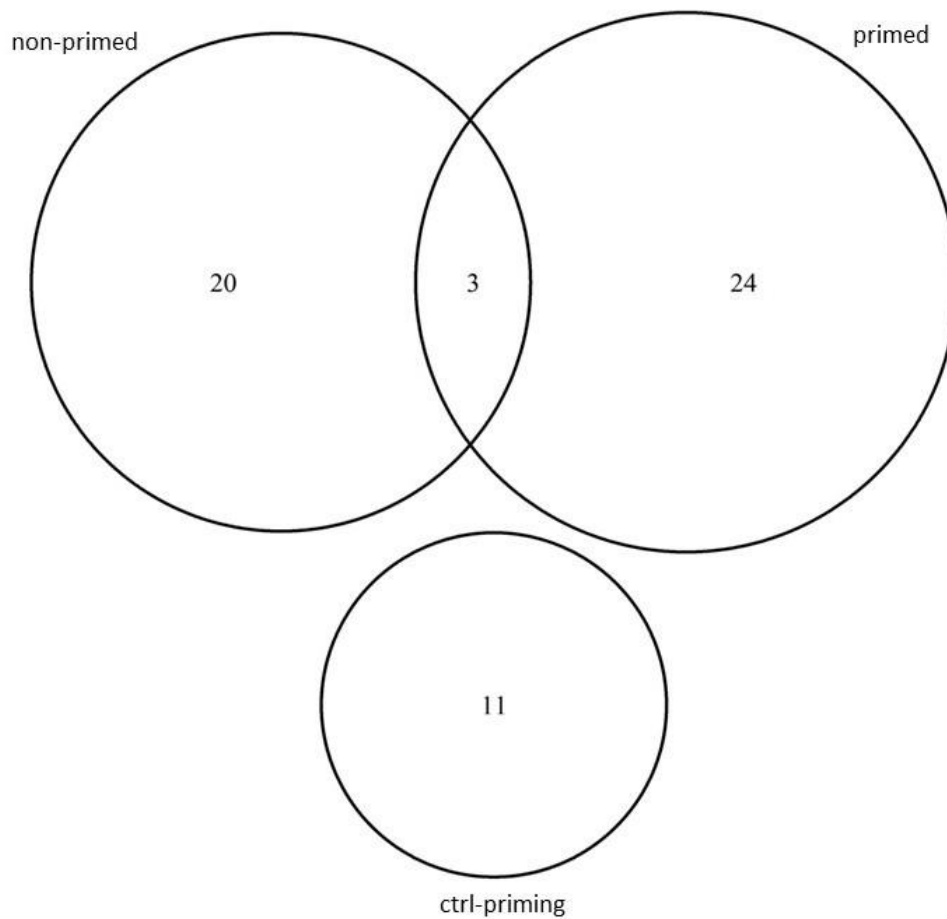
Supplemental figure 3. Arabidopsis growth in benzoxazinoid-conditioned soil. Temporal dynamics of rosette growth of the *Arabidopsis* accessions Bor-4 (left) and Rak-2 (right) growth on conditioned maize wild type (blue) and *bx1* mutant (red) soil. Data from an independent experiment by Dr. Niklas Schandry et al. unpublished.

Hierarchical Clustering



Supplemental figure 4. Dynamics on DNA methylation in stress samples. Hierarchical clustering on global levels of DNA methylation by sequence context in APO-treated and

control samples. The two main clusters correspond to root (R) and shoot (S) samples. The three biological replicates on each condition are enumerated from 1 to 3.

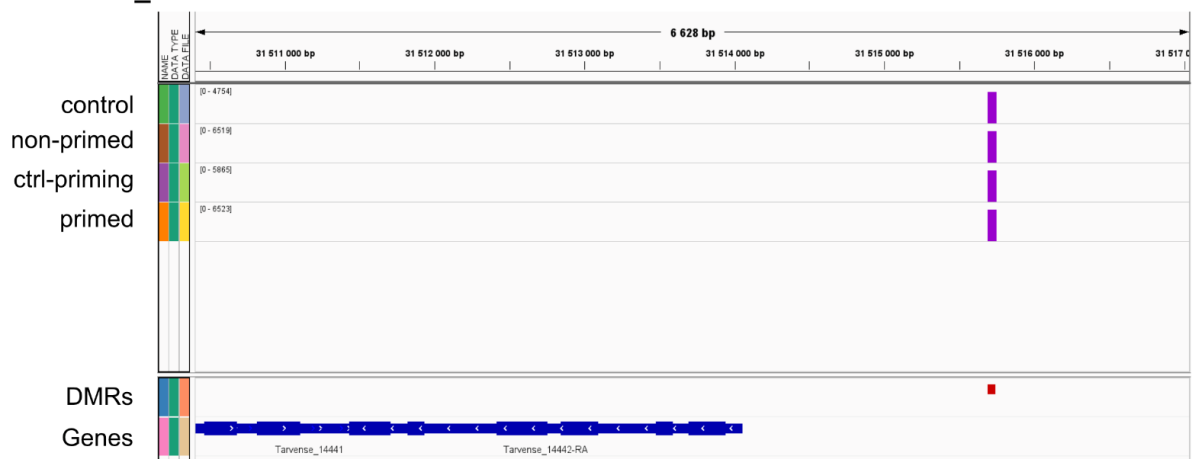


Supplemental figure 5. Shared APO stress-response candidate genes. Venn diagram of candidate genes separated by APO treatment condition. Note that only 3 genes are shared between the long APO treatment conditions “primed” and “non-primed”.

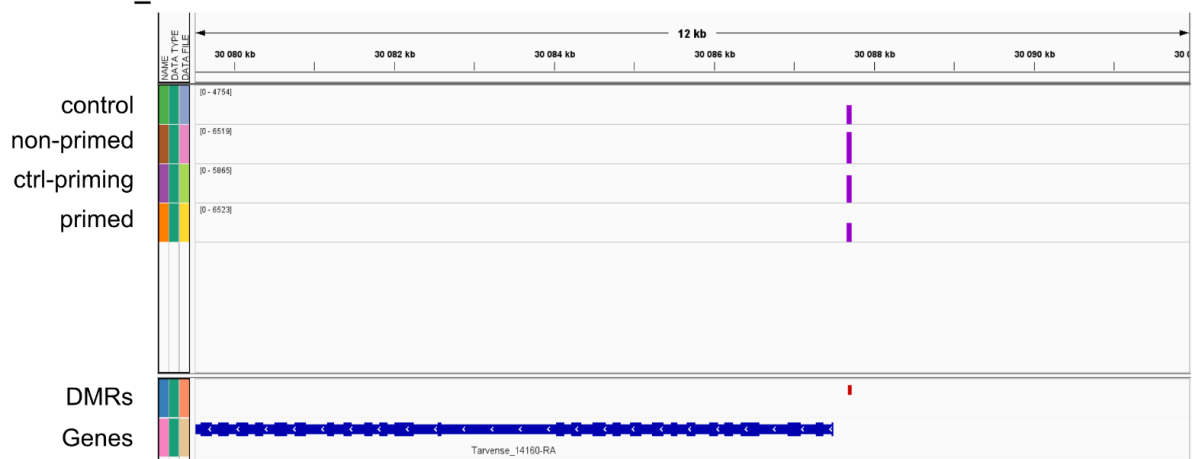
Tarvense_08747



Tarvense_14442



Tarvense_14160



Supplemental figure 6. Root DMRs close to candidate genes. Genome browser view (igv) of DMRs (display in red) located in promoter regions of three candidate genes (Tarvense_08747, Tarvense_14442 and Tarvense_14160) shown in blue in each panel on the bottom. Average methylation for each condition (control, non-primed, ctrl-priming and primed) is displayed as purple bars.

Supplemental Table 1. List of primer pairs used for genotyping wheat TILLING lines during crossing.

Gene	Primer No.	Primer name	Primer sequence (5'→ 3')	Tm (°C)	Fragment size (bp)	SNP WT	SNP mutant
BX3 A	529	FW 289	AGAATCCCACCGCAAGGAAG	64.6	962	tg G	tg A
	530	RV 289	GAACCCAAATGGCAGGAACC				
BX3 B	531	FW 290	CCGTACCCACCTTGTTCTGTG	64.8	265	t G g	t A g
	263	RV 150	TGAGCATATGCGTGGTTAAC				
BX3 D	532	FW 291	TGCGTACCCACGACCAAATC	63.3	255	tg G	tg A
	265	RV 151	TCAGATGATGAGTGACGGACTA				

Supplemental Table 2. List of filtered DMRs in roots of APO-treated samples (np:non-primed,cp: ctrl-priming, p: primed) and control (c). Chromosomal DMR position is indicated (chr:start-end) and methylation level is shown for each biological replicate (3).

DMR	chrom	start	end	c_1	c_2	c_3	np_1	np_2	np_3	cp_1	cp_2	cp_3	p_1	p_2	p_3
1	Chr1	8632	8663	0	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	14	0	NA	18
2	Chr1	4854138	4854191	3,21429	2,28571	3,14286	3,71429	0	25,42857	7,57143	0,57143	12,14286	16,85714	28,07143	4,5
3	Chr1	5087593	5087615	16,71429	32,14286	29,85714	11,42857	0	0	0	0	0	8,28571	14,16667	18,71429
4	Chr1	6382770	6382807	23,1	15,1	24,2	11	1,1	3,7	5	8,1	2,9	1,5	4	0
5	Chr1	31432950	31433006	10,17647	19,36364	10,75	30,72222	45,66667	29,66667	21,72222	15,66667	15,44444	12,94118	15	21,625
6	Chr1	31529382	31529448	21,9375	21,25	19,625	38,25	46,875	37,1875	41,875	46,9375	56,26667	55	48,5	50,75
7	Chr1	33667677	33667797	11	25,27273	25,54545	28,63636	13,27273	25,09091	22,5	19,63636	12,27273	43,18182	22,81818	41,09091
8	Chr1	35159639	35159812	5,34286	5,375	5,42857	24,1	23,03333	27,58621	21,11111	12,05714	12,6	10,42857	10,48387	5,71429

9	Chr1	35822156	35822183	0	4,4	5,7	11,7	2,3	13,9	3	5,1	3,2	21,5	18,5	22,5
10	Chr1	37653033	37653085	63	44	0	57	41	NA	58	76	70	50	50	88
11	Chr1	41215802	41215869	44	33,5	56,5	75,5	80	36,5	62,5	57,5	25	61,5	53	45
12	Chr1	47402810	47402897	30,5	33,16667	21,64286	7,92857	24,07143	11,07143	8,57143	4,64286	5,33333	34,25	21,5	8
13	Chr1	50734663	50734696	20,15385	0	39,30769	1,07692	2,15385	8,61538	17	1	14,66667	27,53846	32,38462	18,30769
14	Chr2	13301652	13301703	23,38462	7	14,92308	36,75	29	23,69231	18,38462	22,38462	28,30769	42,41667	43,61538	43,53846
15	Chr2	27910281	27910325	12,7	0	7	32,9	24,5	25,3	17,4	26,6	31	3,7	22,8	34,4
16	Chr2	28626401	28626444	6,8	8,6	2,7	20,5	23,33333	25,4	19,2	14,9	22,7	29,7	23,6	46,6
17	Chr2	32765806	32765941	32,55556	16,05	26,6	1,72222	1,4	10,85	6,2	8,5	19	23,25	20,6	31,75
18	Chr2	33075609	33075658	31,92308	34,84615	41,76923	NA	44,07692	75,92308	66,23077	74,15385	59,4	32,53846	46,61538	52,38462

19	Chr2	33139150	33139230	63	50	33	50	16	NA	30	33	33	14	88	35
20	Chr2	33417120	33417165	27	16,66667	26,71429	34,28571	32	55,16667	51,71429	43,14286	25	36,14286	39,14286	31
21	Chr2	34855287	34855416	6,86667	8	7,9	12,03333	19,8	10,7	11,86667	11,43333	20,86667	24,66667	25,86207	23,73333
22	Chr2	37028499	37028557	8,15	2,38462	9,85	32,85	17,75	23,05	15,4	11,65	15,95	13,55	24,7	13,5
23	Chr2	37840431	37840489	17	32,5	18,5	35	25	25	0	14,5	28	9	50	NA
24	Chr2	40687865	40687940	1,77778	0	1,55556	14	3	27,66667	12,66667	1,77778	14,77778	27,22222	32,5	32,22222
25	Chr2	44438131	44438243	20,66667	40,44444	20	28,88889	29,5	51,2	25,2	17	38,22222	46,55556	59,66667	51,88889
26	Chr3	5637365	5637430	2,75	4,9	3,3	28,8	24	13,4	14	11	5	16,88889	12,66667	12
27	Chr3	24082052	24082086	28	14	38	27	52	9	28	40	38	25	26	18
28	Chr3	27361352	27361422	3,26667	6,26667	2,8	11,13333	9,66667	5,44444	23,33333	13,86667	4,4	17,6	24,93333	22,53333

29	Chr3	31467038	31467090	NA	47,08333	48	20,66667	52,27273	32,75	14,75	18,83333	20,41667	42,25	7,5	26,5
30	Chr4	1065082	1065113	5,3	6,9	7,8	18	16,7	28,3	25,3	21,3	21,3	27,2	23,5	36
31	Chr4	12421385	12421524	0	3,33333	10,28571	10,85714	14	11,42857	12,42857	6,28571	11,14286	17,42857	10	21,14286
32	Chr4	14503989	14504020	25,53846	39,22222	34,30769	11,92308	12,69231	10,61538	7,38462	16,92308	6,66667	23,61538	11,76923	7,46154
33	Chr4	32748817	32748956	11,125	12,40625	5,9375	20,15625	13,3871	10,125	23,34375	16,90625	16,8125	29,03125	23,71429	35
34	Chr5	4586921	4586964	21	33	62	60	14	42	25	0	28	50	37	53
35	Chr5	9023591	9023620	48,4	60,2	62,5	24,8	30,8	40,85714	64,8	48,8	40,9	57,2	67,4	63,4
36	Chr5	9122774	9122819	18	16	5	20	0	14	0	4	8	23	12	25
37	Chr5	16735122	16735232	0	57	42	20	37	28	40	10	0	18	50	40
38	Chr6	556168	556215	1,25	0	0	9,25	13,25	NA	4,375	0	2,75	6	2,85714	1,75

39	Chr6	3599850	3599909	8,33333	0	4,16667	3,66667	0	7,33333	13,83333	26,33333	15	11,16667	15	6
40	Chr6	8920700	8920765	20	7,83333	6	10	17,16667	16,66667	25	18,16667	9,83333	24,66667	33	34,5
41	Chr6	9047413	9047450	0	0	0	14,5	5,5	NA	0	12	NA	0	8	15
42	Chr7	23001451	23001483	5,7	9,2	10	38,5	23,2	21,8	22,8	14,9	16,4	20,4	18	25,5
43	Chr7	25218116	25218215	10,15789	6,78947	6,89474	27,36842	39,8	29,33333	25,05263	14,4375	7,33333	14,57895	16,10526	16,21053
44	Chr7	26734344	26734380	2,66667	3	0	10,91667	16,58333	10,16667	10,66667	25,33333	6,16667	14,85714	22,25	15,66667
45	Chr7	27245590	27245667	0	0	7,28571	NA	7,42857	10,25	8,57143	3,57143	11,57143	6	7,28571	4
46	Chr7	27288648	27288766	37,53333	4,6	13,53333	1,06667	0	0,46667	9,66667	6	0	2,13333	9,6	0
47	Chr7	30087674	30087721	26,5625	27	32,75	77,30769	54,6875	62,125	45,375	47,3125	38,375	46,6875	31,33333	50,9375
48	Chr7	30944276	30944338	17	14,25	31	45	45	NA	49,25	45,25	40	50	80	52

49	Chr7	31515695	31515744	80	87,25	96,25	68,2	63	78,6	68,6	83,6	75	80	53,2	56,2
50	Chr7	31921062	31921171	43,75	40,83333	53,11111	61,38889	83,27273	68,41667	47,44444	57,05556	67,72222	69,6	48,61111	60,16667
51	Scaffold_2	8360251	8360311	16,58333	11,92857	3,63636	50,71429	36,92857	30,91667	46,71429	23,71429	37	29,71429	22,78571	21,78571
52	Scaffold_2	9725180	9725255	9,7	10,5	5,05263	12	10,2	8,25	13,5	8,3	7,8	34,95	30,75	12,2
53	Scaffold_2	11548358	11548464	2,7	5,86667	12,76667	13	5,3	9,26667	10,3	6,86667	18,3	22,86667	24,14815	31,86667
54	Scaffold_2	12836466	12836516	13,08333	28,33333	15,91667	40,66667	39,33333	51	9,33333	17,41667	35	36,08333	29,83333	9,5
55	Scaffold_2	14254645	14254733	7,13636	0	5,86364	17,90909	27,36364	20,41176	27,63636	22,22727	15,90909	30	24,11111	13,22727
56	Scaffold_2	17765173	17765240	17,21739	14,21739	23,69565	21,22222	37,21739	53,10526	39,95652	30,56522	18,13043	10	9,69565	10,6087
57	Scaffold_3	741710	741752	24,16667	30	15,33333	29,91667	30	35,83333	48,5	30,83333	50	44,58333	70,5	43,83333
58	Scaffold_3	914678	914738	26,28571	24,19048	24,33333	33,7619	43,19048	37,19048	35,42857	36,2381	27,71429	44,28571	45,33333	56,14286

59	Scaffold_3	1879031	1879100	4,95455	7,86364	0,95455	8,59091	5,40909	6,22727	7,59091	6,72727	9,09524	NA	27,63636	15,85714
60	Scaffold_3	2024272	2024322	0	1,77778	1,6	20,5	10,22222	9,6	14	10,5	20,6	1,77778	4,2	0
61	Scaffold_3	3346606	3346702	0	4,2	3,52941	22,5	16	17,70588	15,18182	9,94118	8	19	5,82353	5,17647
62	Scaffold_3	4840118	4840221	31,625	12,125	14,75	29,75	34	14,66667	20,25	33	33,75	35,625	43,28571	33
63	Scaffold_3	5145495	5145632	0	6,14286	0	NA	1,14286	5,71429	5,14286	8,85714	22,85714	0	0	7,42857
64	Scaffold_3	7592880	7593001	5,04348	8,68182	6,95455	11,82609	8,52381	11,86957	31,86957	19,47826	23,47826	21	9,04348	15,56522
65	Scaffold_3	7951148	7951205	24,21429	25,71429	45,71429	49,33333	85,27273	66,86667	43,25	44,4	38,5	42,06667	94,5	42,06667
66	Scaffold_3	8813968	8814009	14	30	62	75	27	55	45	21	44	NA	66	37
67	Scaffold_3	9663043	9663100	3,07692	1,625	1,55556	5,75	4,9375	5,4375	6,4375	5,4375	14	22,375	18	16,5625
68	Scaffold_3	10754459	10754504	0	NA	0	20	8	28	0	7	7	18	0	14

69	Scaffold_3	12524146	12524216	5,8	0,6	10,6	10,95	18,15	10,2	19,6	9,65	8,85	17,7	28,1	21,70588
70	Scaffold_3	12525567	12525700	26,41667	34,36364	25,70833	8,5	19,84211	9,7619	12,6087	21,41667	14,08333	8,63636	20,14286	11,58333
71	Scaffold_4	3321227	3321451	24,27273	27,3	21,38462	38,81818	36,61538	56	34,15385	45,53846	31,07692	40,61538	41,88889	42,53846
72	Scaffold_4	7995311	7995365	31,85714	38,28571	33,57143	26,57143	43,08333	27,21429	16	15,85714	16,85714	18,9	23,78571	25,78571
73	Scaffold_4	11076506	11076536	8,63636	14,27273	9	32,8	43,27273	40	26,45455	22,27273	9,90909	16,45455	22,27273	18,27273
74	Scaffold_4	13843958	13843999	45	35,28571	42	59,57143	40,57143	42,14286	21,4	33,14286	40	74,28571	81,42857	71,42857
75	Scaffold_5	9107991	9108063	12,8	21	7	6,8	0	5,6	2,8	11,2	6,66667	14	16,6	16,33333
76	Scaffold_5	11098147	11098287	27,27273	15,69231	28,15385	28,15385	6,58333	11,46154	12,15385	5,07692	8	18,15385	18,58333	12,4
77	Scaffold_6	1787919	1787988	9,29412	7,82353	24	19,64286	37,64706	34	19,52941	19,05882	19,64706	10	28,93333	28,14286
78	Scaffold_6	4616703	4616781	17,08333	26,66667	13,6	41,08333	22,91667	22,66667	12,9	12,91667	36	41,44444	51,33333	46,91667

79	Scaffold_6	6746469	6746555	3,11111	9,66667	6,55556	25,66667	20,22222	30,22222	33	28	28	40,77778	37,88889	35
80	Scaffold_6	10685303	10685367	14	0	NA	20	25	0	NA	17	42	20	33	13
81	Scaffold_7	576137	576232	11,4	3,52381	9,16	10,70833	15,95833	14,78947	7,44	11,08	19,12	19,83333	20,22222	26,48
82	Scaffold_7	1552024	1552169	13,2	NA	10	39,8	40,4	35	44,8	12,2	18,6	49,6	53,6	40,8
83	Scaffold_7	1691172	1691254	33,2	35,4	34	14,8	15,2	16,6	13,33333	25,8	28	25,25	30	37,8
84	Scaffold_7	1799126	1799255	39,51724	41,5	24,37931	48,43478	38,86207	54,15789	45,21739	47,44828	42,06897	61,03571	68,13793	50,65517
85	Scaffold_7	2974604	2974650	7,23077	1,84615	0	23,30769	13,23077	2,61538	15,84615	15,92308	24,84615	17,69231	2,76923	2,33333
86	Scaffold_7	4705687	4705725	20,13333	12,8	28,26667	4,92857	21,4	5,4	9,2	31,5	16,6	5,66667	10,16667	2,5
87	Scaffold_7	5524868	5524899	19,5	14,83333	NA	1	NA	1,75	8,25	7,5	1	5,41667	9,41667	2,83333
88	Scaffold_7	10142836	10142852	30	0	18	25	20	22	12	8	11	28	28	18

89	Scaffold_7	13240135	13240180	26,2	14,6	20,8	23,5	7,2	7	0	1,4	1,4	5,4	2	2,2
90	Scaffold_9	4143562	4143589	22,58333	13	15,16667	10,16667	28,16667	0	0,75	2,08333	0	5,83333	12	7,5
91	Scaffold_9	6945791	6945830	13,6	6,8	25,88889	46,66667	37,9	32,8	16,5	3,3	3,4	4,4	11	27,9

Supplemental Table 3. List of filtered DMRs in shoots of APO-treated samples (np:non-primed, cp:ctrl-priming, p: primed) and control (c). Chromosomal DMR position is indicated (chr:start-end) and methylation level is shown for each biological replicate (3).

DMR	chrom	start	end	c_1	c_2	c_3	np_1	np_2	cp_1	cp_2	cp_3	p_1	p_2	p_3
1	Chr1	1269096	1269125	37	7,4	18,6	25,2	12	39,8	28	40,2	7,5	2,7	7,7
2	Chr1	1324862	1324945	0	7,75	0	15	13	10	24,5	14,75	22,5	10	19
3	Chr1	1672259	1672308	0,46667	0,46667	0	14,26667	23	0	0	1	0	0	6,06667

4	Chr1	2257582	2257618	30,16667	38,66667	40,83333	10	20	13	29,5	28,66667	8	8,16667	13,33333
5	Chr1	3881337	3881367	49,14286	34,42857	54,85714	45,71429	88,28571	68,28571	46,42857	60,85714	73,57143	75,14286	NA
6	Chr1	4829450	4829542	66	75	NA	55	33	12	NA	66	0	66	36
7	Chr1	5243636	5243682	31,6	27,2	27,6	13,6	21,25	10,7	8,4	19,2	15	2,2	12,4
8	Chr1	6314197	6314244	14	30,66667	15,55556	20,33333	4,44444	6,44444	0	5,44444	16	23,11111	7,66667
9	Chr1	6521561	6521589	16	50	20	12	16	0	33	NA	20	14	37
10	Chr1	6769948	6769999	26,66667	29	38	12,33333	11,33333	20,66667	16,66667	0	6,66667	60	31
11	Chr1	7520505	7520547	15,5	11,83333	8,08333	16,08333	30,25	17,33333	26,14286	30,83333	13,9	17,45455	11,91667
12	Chr1	31180010	31180104	14,10345	8,93103	2,28571	11,35714	7,03448	3,75862	8,03448	12,93103	22,28	16,6087	34,71429
13	Chr1	33347697	33347766	28,33333	21,75	52,14286	13,5	9,25	6	8,375	1,5	0	5,625	25

14	Chr1	33660978	33661081	33,5	42,8125	44,46667	48,35294	82,64706	52,52941	38,72727	58,64706	58,47059	62,94118	76,47059
15	Chr1	34654224	34654316	0	2,875	1,125	13	14,5	18,125	19,75	19,75	8	13,625	12,375
16	Chr1	35078894	35078922	33,11111	16	21,11111	23,77778	11,77778	1,55556	8,44444	5,77778	20,66667	3,11111	15,33333
17	Chr1	36377584	36377622	28	6,76471	18,14286	41,52941	40,5	50	47,58824	57,17647	33,05882	50,4	26,05882
18	Chr1	37099249	37099514	8,57143	16,57895	6,95833	16,70833	9,83333	26,25	25,5	30,57895	14,1875	13,54167	19,54167
19	Chr1	38041165	38041234	22,2	28,2	29	6,4	57,7	52,6	81,3	45,7	25	42,4	56,5
20	Chr1	39988438	39988513	92,09091	84,54545	61,5	63,9	64,09091	61,66667	44,66667	46,72727	83,27273	70,1	52,81818
21	Chr1	41282590	41282628	NA	14	14	0	11	0	NA	16	0	20	0
22	Chr1	41830253	41830545	17,2	7,5625	10,6875	8,375	12,16667	13,75	11,9375	14,78571	8,8	46,61538	18,9375
23	Chr1	42293760	42293881	24,5	20,5	34	49,5	0	NA	18	60	50	36,5	53,5

24	Chr1	43660569	43660714	7	10	7,71429	5	10,28571	5,5	13	13,71429	9,42857	24,14286	19
25	Chr1	44034500	44034665	15	NA	13,5	50	12,5	20,5	29,75	24	17,66667	35,5	16,5
26	Chr1	45991211	45991330	32,83333	31,36364	7,90909	20,18182	23,63636	9,63636	7	3,63636	10,25	11,33333	12,72727
27	Chr1	46100427	46100494	2,90476	10,47619	7,33333	9,66667	9,47619	23,61905	27,88889	21,7619	21,61905	7,90476	16,76923
28	Chr1	47388006	47388043	10,93333	0,6	3,4	5,8	9,4	23,07692	4,66667	10,33333	14	22,93333	24,73333
29	Chr1	47712252	47712283	0	5,33333	6,66667	20	6,66667	11,11111	13,33333	8,55556	34,11111	NA	37,11111
30	Chr1	48200569	48200625	22,375	25,625	15,75	10,1875	31,625	2	24,125	28,2	9,16667	1	5,5
31	Chr1	48820346	48820420	38,70588	42,29412	35,17647	35,85714	26,18182	19,70588	36,66667	17,35294	20,92857	3,76471	8,0625
32	Chr1	49277160	49277221	22,23077	57	40	38,30769	36,92308	7,85714	9,42857	8,76923	3,07692	2,22222	20,46154
33	Chr1	49370688	49370786	20	8,90909	12,54545	38,36364	24,81818	25,81818	27	10,63636	29	17,72727	59,09091

34	Chr1	49429544	49429588	5,90909	3	1,45455	33,45455	37,36364	11,45455	12,72727	NA	20	6	13,33333
35	Chr1	49675162	49675366	15,43333	13,96667	16,62963	27,59259	31	32,61538	25,2	19,7931	9,83333	22,06667	30,37037
36	Chr1	50370395	50370443	39,66667	26,66667	39	20	17,66667	11	20	24,5	10	NA	9,33333
37	Chr1	51404310	51404390	28,57143	16,625	30,28571	46,66667	35,80952	35,75	36,52381	22,33333	50,09524	34,11111	46,52381
38	Chr1	52140932	52140963	23,9	17,2	12,5	43,4	33,8	19,4	10,5	18,9	20,5	14,5	9,6
39	Chr1	53067702	53067745	18,4	17,2	38,1	1,6	4,2	6	16,2	0	12	8,7	9,1
40	Chr1	53355530	53355576	1,6	1,2	22	3,5	21	10	12,2	2,6	20	14,3	14,5
41	Chr1	53396929	53396965	30,45455	23	36,72727	34,2	54	55	70,45455	54,72727	43	66,625	30,27273
42	Chr1	53516885	53516934	10	20,33333	6,66667	47	26	29,66667	27	NA	23,33333	24	15
43	Chr1	53726237	53726283	14	NA	16	NA	0	0	25	14	0	0	0

44	Chr1	55597746	55597778	13,6	14,6	28	16,8	4	3,2	2,8	NA	3,2	NA	5
45	Chr1	57496459	57496558	1,71429	2	4,66667	22,57143	10,42857	NA	16	4	0	5,71429	5,28571
46	Chr1	62257807	62257837	0	0	22	36	36	16	11	25	NA	38	18
47	Chr2	22984894	22985010	36,14286	33,5	50,14286	19	32,57143	24,57143	29,33333	40	6,66667	7	12,28571
48	Chr2	23797108	23797156	0	2,78571	2,85714	7,28571	5,71429	2,57143	6,85714	4,85714	29,69231	14,42857	28,28571
49	Chr2	24924518	24924592	25,33333	32,08333	33,28571	24,41667	16,33333	7	9,83333	3,58333	29,3	28,33333	NA
50	Chr2	27561219	27561257	57,625	22,23077	33,07692	30,69231	12,25	1,33333	5	11,23077	20	21	14,76923
51	Chr2	30052811	30052882	0	11,22222	9,55556	10,11111	NA	0	12,83333	30,11111	30	26,72222	29,77778
52	Chr2	30583108	30583139	6	7	19,66667	15	20,5	40	13,33333	23,33333	25	0	22
53	Chr2	32296652	32296813	39,83333	23,16667	20	26,83333	49,66667	11,5	2,66667	NA	27,66667	31,33333	30,83333

54	Chr2	37008206	37008252	21,75	17,14286	15,125	15	0	2,75	0	0	23,16667	6,25	13
55	Chr2	37830589	37830645	0	4,54545	3,72727	9,63636	1,45455	37,09091	19,72727	21,45455	0	20,81818	29,3
56	Chr2	37890079	37890186	4,73333	9,26667	5	14,53333	10,2	19,75	21,33333	25,73333	30,86667	22,33333	8,73333
57	Chr2	38770961	38771057	49,30769	39,25	34,76923	5,84615	30,84615	51,63636	34,375	26	20,76923	23,75	14,08333
58	Chr2	39674261	39674321	7	12	NA	12	30	7	10	0	0	25	13
59	Chr2	39687695	39687720	46,42857	31,28571	35,42857	25,14286	41,14286	17	32	26,42857	9,71429	NA	14,28571
60	Chr2	40461556	40461607	0	1,1	1	25,6	19,5	0	4,7	0	0	1,1	0
61	Chr2	45272884	45272907	10,5	12,75	20	8,25	NA	42	21,75	NA	17,25	18,5	15
62	Chr3	3268046	3268133	13,44828	15,03448	20	33,89655	24,2069	11,37931	3,65517	40,66667	31,65517	33,31034	36,04167
63	Chr3	10668157	10668322	23	28,57143	NA	18,28571	15,85714	2,28571	0	11,42857	15,28571	8	9,57143

64	Chr3	12364455	12364584	31,625	43,8125	29,85714	11	19,25	10,6875	11,75	11,125	34	13,625	20,625
65	Chr3	13014186	13014313	5,33333	19,33333	12,33333	14	6,66667	16,33333	33,33333	22,33333	0	0	0
66	Chr3	20903831	20903946	21	15,14286	26,05	4,38095	2,90476	1,55556	11,66667	19,57143	9	10,05882	18,3
67	Chr3	21002905	21002944	1,27273	0	0	1,81818	0	9,27273	6,8	3,45455	26,54545	23,18182	0
68	Chr3	22397184	22397293	21,25	8,5	18,25	12,75	25,66667	32,75	18,5	NA	35,5	53,75	51,75
69	Chr3	22421948	22421994	42,5	33,36364	25,18182	23	20,72727	52,09091	30,09091	19,33333	17	9,33333	15,90909
70	Chr3	23198273	23198311	2	1,2	8,5	9,2	24,33333	11,55556	8,33333	12,1	24,4	20,4	26,6
71	Chr3	24130312	24130415	19,33333	NA	23,16667	NA	35,5	30,5	18,83333	32,5	39,83333	39,66667	46,83333
72	Chr3	24657376	24657435	10,25	15,375	20	4,66667	0	0	0	2,75	1,5	0	14
73	Chr3	27360896	27360932	0	0	12,42857	1,71429	2,28571	24,75	0	15	NA	13,71429	37,14286

74	Chr3	29215841	29215874	11	10,875	6,5	9,25	22,125	38,5	18,375	22	33,125	36,375	27
75	Chr3	30667776	30667993	25,45833	16,34783	16,68421	31,30435	14,47826	36,04762	33,04167	44,91667	38,33333	49,54167	44,25
76	Chr3	31551783	31551853	19,57895	21,40909	10,8	6,27273	8,86364	3,4	3	6,95455	9,86364	9,18182	15,54545
77	Chr3	33034767	33034847	12	4	NA	0	7,5	26	33	18	40,5	26,5	NA
78	Chr3	33627492	33627613	27,61905	28	22,2381	21,85	30,14286	19,71429	16,66667	14,83333	19,61538	7,10526	9,875
79	Chr3	33744652	33744706	17,28571	23	13	23,625	11,5	3,25	20	14,42857	0	0	0
80	Chr3	33949193	33949259	21,61538	28,44444	36,875	51	57,6	65	51,30769	44,84615	54,63636	39,38462	32,72727
81	Chr3	34876497	34876571	23,38462	12,46154	21,30769	42,85714	16,69231	37,92308	66,84615	46,3	24,15385	41,2	60,625
82	Chr3	39220576	39220651	NA	30,66667	18,75	4	19	2,5	4	19	0	20	5
83	Chr3	41408018	41408144	17,15789	28,89474	11,5	13,63636	13,66667	3,94737	6,05556	5,15789	7,72222	4	7,55556

84	Chr3	41410923	41410968	27,55556	10,08333	30,16667	3,22222	3,77778	6,30769	11,44444	13,38889	0	7,9375	16,05556
85	Chr4	111578	111655	24,57143	17,35714	30,21429	20	10,78571	28,5	2	6	6,92857	2,5	10,42857
86	Chr4	811445	811467	33	25	18	20	57	33	22	33	40	NA	16
87	Chr4	3967767	3967902	7,5625	16,53333	13,6875	30,0625	24,3125	21	36,125	4,54545	19,375	37,71429	43,15385
88	Chr4	32433390	32433497	28,28571	40,57143	41,85714	31,375	25,625	15,35714	24,21429	14,78571	21,53846	30,92857	25,64286
89	Chr4	35728637	35728770	4,44444	3,33333	3,06667	12,41667	11	33,33333	3,46667	14	13,8	18,14286	33,13333
90	Chr4	36938619	36938681	10,25	8,9375	1,75	10,0625	20,61538	13,33333	6,5	15,8	23,625	24,5	36,875
91	Chr5	1277312	1277389	NA	56	46,5	30	52,5	25	20	0	41	NA	56,5
92	Chr5	3094016	3094099	44	41,66667	45,75	63	31,375	22,22222	14,66667	30,22222	22	10,44444	20,66667
93	Chr5	4109097	4109136	0	2	0	11,4	3,2	35	20,6	20,4	12	13,33333	17

94	Chr5	4245953	4246074	26,58824	30,3125	20,11765	17,88235	12,33333	5,58824	16,23529	10,57143	10,17647	8,64706	8,11765
95	Chr5	7373320	7373414	NA	32,85714	28,35714	45,64286	42	49,14286	44,92857	47,92857	51,78571	67,85714	62,14286
96	Chr5	9123812	9123851	22	0	11,88889	6,33333	2,44444	1	5	6,88889	0	1,75	0,66667
97	Chr5	9345833	9345907	0	21,9	37,14286	11,85714	8,7	13,5	0	15,8	15,7	20,2	6
98	Chr5	11841370	11841431	18,18182	14	29,54545	12,09091	3,27273	16,88889	8,54545	2,88889	4,90909	2,54545	4
99	Chr5	31364003	31364041	23,61538	11,30769	19,57143	0,92308	5,07692	4,07692	2,07692	0	6,07692	4,76923	8,14286
100	Chr5	32674155	32674212	0	17,25	2,25	14,25	21,5	2,5	5	2,25	8,25	3,75	0
101	Chr6	2600194	2600217	12	50	15	17,8	7,6	7,2	23,7	6,9	NA	29,5	32,5
102	Chr6	3093307	3093357	1,75	12,07143	6,71429	14,5	7,5	17,14286	17,14286	7,28571	24,88889	23,2	13,42857
103	Chr6	3506344	3506384	0	7	0	0	7	0	9	14	11	0	28

104	Chr6	4287698	4287749	11	0	12	14	12	20	16	NA	0	25	25
105	Chr6	4303781	4303865	60	NA	80	10	20	40	18	12	29	14	29
106	Chr6	4720671	4720699	15,83333	18,75	NA	28,16667	26	29,91667	41	58,16667	43,66667	48,33333	13,91667
107	Chr6	5224040	5224136	59,33333	43,5	NA	30,5	31	53,5	57	40,66667	30	20,33333	NA
108	Chr6	5453776	5453946	20,7931	20,82353	28,54286	20,86111	23,77778	8,05556	9,61111	10,13889	20,36111	8,38889	8,33333
109	Chr6	5500171	5500339	7,6	15,9	9,3	16,4	8,4	17,9	4,2	11,2	30,1	23,33333	19
110	Chr6	6357838	6357872	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	25	11	14	0
111	Chr6	8245479	8245672	NA	11,6	33,8	22	11,2	0	0	0	0	0	6,6
112	Chr6	16834532	16834563	20	12	0	14	NA	30	28	40	NA	20	28
113	Chr6	20276236	20276254	0	2,77778	2,22222	9,77778	34,28571	NA	17,11111	18,66667	15	5	2,22222

114	Chr6	23949629	23949654	0	3,3	6,8	12,6	3,3	9,8	3,4	11,4	17,9	24,5	13,33333
115	Chr6	25746121	25746278	2	2,625	6,05882	9,11765	2,47059	18,75	2,25	10,4375	13,17647	26,88235	18,52941
116	Chr6	30837200	30837465	17,55814	12,275	23,60465	19,90698	26,11628	25,48718	28,32	21,2973	37,05405	38,5	28,53488
117	Chr6	31029400	31029464	4,53846	4,69231	6	8	15,53846	6,85714	26,38462	22,22222	8,33333	8,4	4,84615
118	Chr6	31029520	31029597	13,17647	11,70588	2,94118	7,6	5,41176	24,85714	22,8	24,76471	7,11765	6,625	6,41176
119	Chr7	4638863	4639028	12,9	3,10526	9,28571	15,26316	22,6	29,84615	21,95	17,11765	10,25	11,94118	6,1
120	Chr7	4873462	4873515	1,8	0	5	6,2	3,2	18	20	33,2	3,2	13,8	0
121	Chr7	5194418	5194438	NA	17,9	16	6	4	0	0	4,8	16,85714	2,1	0
122	Chr7	8713895	8714098	14,83784	8,43243	12,18919	15,16667	32,16667	21,16216	17,82353	23,19444	21,37838	20,62857	45,45946
123	Chr7	10878643	10878709	16,33333	30,6	22,66667	38,93333	44,66667	48,26667	39,53333	55,8	46,33333	51,44444	53,4

124	Chr7	16596013	16596093	24,25	19,11111	12	6,77778	0	6,88889	14,33333	12,44444	0	4,71429	0
125	Chr7	20444032	20444092	7,1	1,6	0	28,2	24,1	31,5	8,7	13,5	10,22222	16	12,1
126	Chr7	21711990	21712021	4	0	0	15,76923	19,30769	24	3,84615	3,33333	0	2,30769	16,57143
127	Chr7	22576569	22576588	11,5	0	20	40	16,5	NA	20	14	NA	55	38,5
128	Chr7	24039000	24039071	12	NA	25	0	16	0	33	16	NA	0	0
129	Chr7	24103867	24103908	0	7,75	NA	6	NA	8,125	9,375	15,375	20,75	16,25	24,625
130	Chr7	24107273	24107318	40	NA	16	NA	22	14	14	28	14	16	40
131	Chr7	24495589	24495816	9,76923	3,92308	9	23,68421	18,16	30,69231	20	16,38462	26,53846	34,42857	36,23077
132	Chr7	25738766	25738789	0	5,5	0	NA	0	10	20	NA	18	25	40
133	Chr7	27159314	27159344	0	0	0	11	13	3,5	20	15	9,25	19,25	NA

134	Chr7	27365000	27365201	15,3	12,65385	5,30769	15,08	10,76923	29,44	27,42308	20,85714	23,84615	24,88462	14,64
135	Chr7	31845302	31845348	20	NA	NA	42	30	80	25	28	11	20	28
136	Chr7	33439390	33439434	29,54545	29,71429	14,76923	21,28571	41,46154	37,5	46,28571	25,42857	54,78571	52,85714	53,375
137	Scaffold_1	4889611	4889827	11,125	17,4375	11,13333	14,6875	27,1875	41,125	20,5625	10	18,42857	21,7	43,93333
138	Scaffold_1	5424347	5424387	0	1,81818	1,09091	16,54545	15,54545	12,54545	23,09091	22,72727	17,18182	2,36364	2,72727
139	Scaffold_1	6227902	6227997	14	14	40	40	62	33	20	14	NA	33	55
140	Scaffold_1	7989655	7989713	9,71429	7,14286	20	21,71429	2	28,85714	29	NA	5	18,85714	6,28571
141	Scaffold_1	19308850	19308903	10,5	13,3	8,9	5,4	8	8,1	11,1	7,42857	0	0	2,7
142	Scaffold_10	2068190	2068247	26	30,33333	36,33333	18	11,33333	26	15	28,66667	90	21	17,33333
143	Scaffold_2	1770327	1770383	14	4,66667	0	10	5,8	14,16667	9,33333	6,16667	29	22,66667	19

144	Scaffold_2	5285259	5285306	13	0	39	30	10	29	13,5	0	17	10	28
145	Scaffold_2	5553157	5553188	14	10	13,6	25,6	28,3	21,2	22,9	12,3	54,75	26,1	39,9
146	Scaffold_2	5857054	5857108	10,46154	18,76923	12,92308	20,72727	25,53846	48,46154	50,92308	21,30769	47,61538	35,33333	46,23077
147	Scaffold_2	7153416	7153726	45,69231	16	33,38462	18,38462	26,33333	10,66667	3,33333	23,16667	20,44444	26	38,61538
148	Scaffold_2	7229614	7229655	2,22222	6,6	0	12	10	9,84615	9,15385	3,61538	13,5	23,53846	18,36364
149	Scaffold_2	7970063	7970120	10	8,85714	16	16	21,71429	34	9	1,42857	33,14286	30,57143	37,57143
150	Scaffold_2	9109584	9109670	35,5	16,5	NA	31	22	24,5	NA	30	50	42,5	30
151	Scaffold_2	9346256	9346299	3,125	8,25	NA	27,375	20,5	34,25	52,5	12	0	13,33333	1,75
152	Scaffold_2	9728827	9728889	19,53846	21,4	11,26667	0	1,2	5,09091	8,13333	9,06667	13,2	11,11111	0,86667
153	Scaffold_2	9985094	9985128	42,57143	21,21429	33,07143	60,76923	56,85714	51,64286	44,21429	39,42857	60,625	60,66667	76,21429

154	Scaffold_2	10220741	10220765	0	11,9	13,8	18,6	NA	25	34,1	71,1	10,5	3,6	20,8
155	Scaffold_2	10442117	10442168	15,16667	20,16667	NA	NA	9,16667	0	0	0	0	1,83333	0
156	Scaffold_2	10503249	10503378	33,22222	37,33333	47,22222	41,22222	76,75	68	64	62,5	48	65,66667	49,875
157	Scaffold_2	11305097	11305129	11,125	3,5	0	13,71429	17,5	26,25	36,375	25,75	15,33333	11	22,5
158	Scaffold_2	12278561	12278598	45,57143	33,53846	36,84615	41,33333	25,6	12	21,53846	3,2	28,92308	44,38462	15,9
159	Scaffold_2	12329176	12329242	0	0	25	7	10	40	0	12	0	NA	11
160	Scaffold_2	12508532	12508590	18,23077	19,11111	17,92308	6,61538	40	34	27,07692	27,5	49,46154	17	29,61538
161	Scaffold_2	13579724	13579773	1,66667	9,75	4,66667	1,91667	6,5	3,27273	4	8,44444	16	36,5	26,08333
162	Scaffold_2	14073739	14073784	32,75	20	33,5	30,75	13,5	NA	7,5	9,75	33,5	40,75	29,75
163	Scaffold_2	14204516	14204569	5,21429	3,73333	10,2	23,4	4,8	17,53333	25,46667	27	6	18,53333	11,93333

164	Scaffold_2	14722564	14722611	3,25	3,5	0	10	14,875	20	20,25	18,375	18,4	3,75	18,66667
165	Scaffold_2	14894682	14894786	2,3125	6,125	14,5625	18,54545	15,33333	34,06667	21,5625	23,44444	1,07692	24,375	24,3125
166	Scaffold_2	16127961	16127990	28,9	36,5	43,6	3,3	2,4	14,4	20,2	45,2	27,8	22,8	11,6
167	Scaffold_2	17788917	17789093	17,05882	26,70588	34,63636	4,57143	5,45455	6,28571	3,66667	0,88889	11,42857	10,4	8,52381
168	Scaffold_2	18059522	18059617	32,66667	45,46667	51,33333	41,06667	36,76923	33	14,06667	23,66667	44,57143	22,23077	30,66667
169	Scaffold_2	18440324	18440366	0	0	NA	NA	0	9	0	16	0	28	0
170	Scaffold_2	19725454	19725502	3,44444	4	1,90909	8,63636	26	11	18,55556	13,75	24,09091	15	33
171	Scaffold_3	1491386	1491412	20	16,71429	30	22,57143	0	NA	3,14286	0	1,71429	1	12,28571
172	Scaffold_3	2404009	2404120	17,14286	6,28571	10	36,66667	25,54545	30,14286	35,57143	NA	13,27273	9,85714	11,85714
173	Scaffold_3	5945881	5946254	31,83333	16	27,2	15,83333	11,66667	NA	6,33333	3	14	8	13,66667

174	Scaffold_3	7259646	7259693	20,5	32,7	13	0	28	NA	12,4	20,6	3,7	0	0
175	Scaffold_3	10300553	10300600	45,75	40	59,75	13	40	NA	40	26,25	39,75	38,75	28
176	Scaffold_3	10566161	10566259	6,60714	13,5	13,67857	22,85714	28,51852	12,09091	10	1,3913	27,5625	30,80952	29,96429
177	Scaffold_3	11058085	11058192	10,5	6,66667	4,16667	6,66667	35	37,83333	30,5	10	34,16667	13,16667	16,5
178	Scaffold_3	13064879	13064935	3,2	4,71429	0,78571	14,42857	0	8,92857	11,92308	9	14,21429	17,5	19,57143
179	Scaffold_3	13865759	13865817	19	37,8	14,5	8	26,6	12	10,7	28,9	0	1,4	0
180	Scaffold_3	14445319	14445375	NA	31	NA	7	20,5	4	2,75	28	40,5	18,5	3,5
181	Scaffold_3	14873730	14873762	3,2	15,5	30	39,5	30,16667	19,33333	18	20	55,83333	45	39
182	Scaffold_3	15384359	15384381	20	11	14	0	NA	NA	10	25	27	37	0
183	Scaffold_4	2350931	2351012	32,90909	28,86364	33,04545	42,59091	47,5	55,63636	57,95455	54,27273	55,40909	57	30,77273

184	Scaffold_4	2539376	2539412	6,83333	27,91667	NA	0	8,16667	0	0,83333	2	16,58333	18,77778	5,5
185	Scaffold_4	2735252	2735323	19,16667	18,83333	25,44444	7,27273	9	6,16667	9	11,25	0	6	4,91667
186	Scaffold_4	3525019	3525042	10	18	42,25	16	0	21,5	32,75	55,25	45	48	46,25
187	Scaffold_4	6020012	6020138	0	13,14286	12,33333	19	11,42857	NA	40	17,71429	2,28571	19	18,57143
188	Scaffold_4	8372545	8372587	20,5	35,25	31	51,5	35,25	52,5	53,33333	46,25	11,25	50	30,25
189	Scaffold_4	9727674	9727706	6,11111	9,11111	14,66667	44,66667	3,11111	21,66667	27,11111	0	30,5	32,22222	33,44444
190	Scaffold_4	10056304	10056457	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	33	NA	25
191	Scaffold_4	14340979	14341045	3	2,1	6	5,63636	26	7,45455	3,81818	20,45455	16,63636	20,27273	34,27273
192	Scaffold_4	16040322	16040426	61,54545	58,81818	64,09091	68,5	45	27,72727	71,09091	69,36364	28,63636	44,36364	42,09091
193	Scaffold_5	1242940	1242969	61,33333	41,66667	53,5	39	34,5	24,5	18,83333	19,16667	22,16667	10,66667	23,83333

194	Scaffold_5	7839195	7839261	11,15385	18,15385	NA	3,53846	0	0	0	0	0	15	0
195	Scaffold_5	8204798	8204860	0	0	0	5	0	17	20,875	12,5	0	1,375	13,5
196	Scaffold_5	10043911	10043976	2,10526	13,05263	3,15789	2,31579	22,36364	22,63158	21,47368	17,78947	21,31579	32,4375	24,63158
197	Scaffold_5	12540557	12540619	0	5,63636	5,54545	17,66667	21,33333	24,83333	41	26,16667	29,08333	19	15
198	Scaffold_5	13653572	13653721	19,78571	12,8125	16,71429	32,84615	26,875	2,25	8	16,16667	42,64286	32	29,6875
199	Scaffold_5	14897565	14897661	2,75	4,875	2,33333	10	13	0	20	22,625	13,625	27,375	39,625
200	Scaffold_6	231368	231440	1,46154	0	2,66667	18,4	13,42857	0,71429	7,28571	3,14286	4	0	1,42857
201	Scaffold_6	252650	252697	0	16	28	0	16	40	NA	0	0	0	0
202	Scaffold_6	1688179	1688255	2,90909	4,25	11,91667	21,83333	16,25	16,5	24,91667	12,27273	18,55556	17,41667	32,5
203	Scaffold_6	2061247	2061278	15,66667	4,75	12	15,5	22,66667	43,16667	34,08333	43,54545	14,16667	8,83333	5,91667

204	Scaffold_6	2399582	2399696	10,06667	22,92857	17,5	32,92308	26,06667	28,8	26,46154	30,93333	48,14286	32,53333	42,6
205	Scaffold_6	2643979	2644046	0,8	0	0	12,6	9,6	8	11	12,125	10	15,1	16,7
206	Scaffold_6	2763973	2764037	22,54545	NA	23,54545	36,90909	29,18182	29,27273	32,45455	34,09091	6,2	12,45455	11,81818
207	Scaffold_6	3761344	3761386	0	4,6	4,6	4	16,6	22,8	15,6	23,2	0	2,4	4,8
208	Scaffold_6	4357936	4357965	0	0	NA	0	0	0	0	NA	0	0	0
209	Scaffold_6	5099024	5099061	10	4,66667	19,33333	0	0	6,66667	3	6,66667	0	0	8,33333
210	Scaffold_6	7212429	7212466	34,81818	16,90909	24,18182	29,27273	61,45455	46,25	31,18182	34,63636	48,90909	80	56,45455
211	Scaffold_6	11753382	11753464	11,44444	5,44444	14,11111	21,66667	28	26,22222	6,22222	13,25	32,4	30	35,88889
212	Scaffold_7	1026456	1026510	0	0,84615	1,81818	0	10	3	20	3,53846	22,92308	14,69231	10,84615
213	Scaffold_7	1556796	1556844	43,93333	58,71429	18,2	23,26667	35	12,4	1,33333	24,46667	20,66667	7,86667	12,53333

214	Scaffold_7	1690185	1690223	40,7	33,1	33,85714	14,2	46,3	20,9	21,8	42,16667	0	3,7	19,14286
215	Scaffold_7	3203229	3203261	65,3	55,4	NA	33,8	46,6	30,8	41	57,88889	33,33333	34,9	42,1
216	Scaffold_7	5780801	5780862	31,76923	28,15385	47	4,92308	8,72727	19,46154	52,92308	48,15385	23,27273	25,83333	22,69231
217	Scaffold_7	7283096	7283142	35	42,5	71	NA	33,5	NA	10	57,5	21	23,5	31
218	Scaffold_7	9158630	9158664	20,25	NA	0	38,5	35	46,5	34,75	60,5	62	NA	0
219	Scaffold_7	9590225	9590253	7,16667	3,75	1,16667	6,83333	18,66667	6	7,16667	9,91667	26,83333	14,16667	38,25
220	Scaffold_7	13306863	13306925	6	1,07692	8,46154	5,30769	20,46154	16,46154	12,33333	10,75	32,30769	29,38462	30,84615
221	Scaffold_8	385728	385791	0	8,4	11,6	29,8	31,2	18,2	25,2	38	0	NA	30,2
222	Scaffold_8	1570243	1570301	46,7	32,1	NA	9,9	6,4	10,1	5,6	0	7	7,77778	40
223	Scaffold_9	6345343	6345437	54,92857	50	41,64286	42,07143	25,21429	23,42857	18,35714	16,66667	44,78571	44,35714	40,78571

224	Scaffold_9	6553226	6553322	33,125	12,71429	29,53571	5,5	6,96429	26,53571	23,19231	20,82143	15,21429	17,17857	21,25
225	Scaffold_9	6728792	6728820	19,5	21,9	13,77778	14	14,2	4,8	17,9	1,7	3,3	0	0
226	Scaffold_9	7763266	7763379	2,72727	3,90909	0,90909	5,27273	7,90909	5,5	3,5	36,77778	10,22727	21,23077	17,06667

Supplemental Table 4. List of DMRs in roots that overlap with TEs.

Chr	start	end	TE family
Chr1	4854138	4854191	Mutator
Chr1	5087593	5087615	PIF-Harbinger
Chr1	6382770	6382807	hAT
Chr1	31432950	31433006	Helitron
Chr1	31529382	31529448	Helitron
Chr1	33667677	33667797	Copia
Chr1	49690319	49690391	Gypsy
Chr2	28626401	28626444	L1
Chr2	32699289	32699352	PIF-Harbinger
Chr2	33139150	33139230	Mutator
Chr2	33417120	33417165	Helitron
Chr2	37243732	37243832	PIF-Harbinger
Chr2	37840431	37840489	Copia
Chr2	44438131	44438243	CACTA
Chr3	19303811	19303889	Gypsy
Chr3	24082052	24082086	Helitron
Chr3	28715386	28715499	Gypsy
Chr4	1065082	1065113	
Chr4	12421385	12421524	hAT
Chr4	31745840	31745891	Gypsy
Chr5	9122774	9122819	Helitron
Chr6	3599850	3599909	PIF-Harbinger
Chr6	9047413	9047450	Gypsy
Chr7	23001451	23001483	Gypsy
Chr7	30087674	30087721	Gypsy
Scaffold_2	8360251	8360311	hAT
Scaffold_2	10204190	10204242	Gypsy
Scaffold_2	12836466	12836516	Mutator
Scaffold_2	14254645	14254733	R2
Scaffold_2	16165117	16165200	Mutator
Scaffold_3	741710	741752	Helitron
Scaffold_3	914678	914738	Helitron
Scaffold_3	1879031	1879100	PIF-Harbinger
Scaffold_3	4840118	4840221	hAT
Scaffold_3	7592880	7593001	PIF-Harbinger
Scaffold_3	8813968	8814009	Copia
Scaffold_3	9663043	9663100	hAT
Scaffold_4	7281145	7281242	Gypsy
Scaffold_4	11076506	11076536	Gypsy

Scaffold_6	6746469	6746555	Copia
Scaffold_6	10685303	10685367	Copia
Scaffold_7	1552024	1552169	Copia
Scaffold_7	1799126	1799255	Helitron
Scaffold_7	5351025	5351052	Gypsy
Scaffold_7	6060781	6060823	Gypsy
Scaffold_7	10142836	10142852	L1
Scaffold_7	13240135	13240180	Copia
Scaffold_9	6945791	6945830	Mutator

LIST OF ACRONYMS

2-ODD 2-oxoglutarate-dependent dioxygenase

5HIONG Indoline-2-one-5-O- β -D-glucopyranoside

AGO argonaute protein

AMPO 2-amino-7-methoxy-phenoxazin-3-one

ANOVA analysis of variance

APO 2-amino-phenoxazin-3-one

ATP Adenosine triphosphate

BER excision repair pathway

BOA 2-benzoxazolinone

Bor-4 borky-4

BX benzoxazinoids

Cal-Y BP calibrated years before present

CDKA Cyclin-dependent kinase A

CMT2 CHROMOMETHYLASE 2

CMT3 CHROMOMETHYLASE 3

Col-0 columbia-0

CRISPR-Cas clustered regularly interspaced short palindromic repeats

CSS Chinese Spring Survey

CTAB cetyl trimethylammonium bromide

DDM1 DECREASE IN DNA METHYLATION 1

DIBOA 2,4-dihydroxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one

DIMBOA 2,4-dihydroxy-7-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one

DIMBOA-Glc 2,4-dihydroxy-7-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside

DMR differentially methylated region

DMSO Dimethylsulfoxid

DNA deoxyribonucleic acid

DRM2 DOMAINS REARRANGED METHYLTRANSFERASE 2

DRM2 DOMAINS REARRANGED METHYLTRANSFERASE 2

EMS ethyl methanesulfonate

epiRILs epigenetic recombinant inbred lines

ERD7 EARLY RESPONSIVE TO DEHYDRATION 7

FAO food and agriculture organization of the united nations

FDR false discovery rate

gbM gene body methylation

GLU glycosyltransferases

GMO genetically modified organism

HDMBOA-Glc 2-hydroxy-4,7-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside

HMW high molecular weight

HMW high molecular weight

IAEA international atomic energy agency

JA jasmonic acid

KASP Kompetitive Allele Specific PCR

KYP H3K9 histone methyltransferase KRYPTONITE/SUVH4

LC50 half lethal dose

LC-HRMS liquid chromatography–high-resolution mass spectrometry

MBOA 6-Methoxy-2-benzoxazolinone

mC 5-cytosine methylation

MET1 DNA METHYLTRANSFERASE 1

MSAP methylation-sensitive amplification polymorphism

MYA million years ago

NASC Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre

OMT O-methyltransferase

PCA principal component analysis

PCR polymerase chain reaction

PPNB Pre-Pottery Neolithic B

PSF plant soil feedback

PTM post-translational chemical modification

Rak-2 raksice-2

RdDM RNA-directed DNA methylation

RNA ribonucleic acid

SA salicylic acid

Sc *Secale cereale*

SCN cyst nematode

siRNAs small interfering RNA

SNP single nucleotide polymorphism

SUVH5 H3K9 histone methyltransferase 5

SUVH6 H3K9 histone methyltransferase 6

Ta *Triticum aestivum*

TE transposable element

TF transcription factor

TILLING targeting induced local lesions in genomes

TRIMBOA-Glc 2,4,7-trihydroxy-8-methoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside

DIM₂BOA-Glc 2,4-dihydroxy-7,8-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside

HDM₂BOA-Glc 2,4-dihydroxy-7,8-dimethoxy-1,4-benzoxazin-3-one glucoside

TSA tryptophan synthase

UGT UDP-glucosyltransferase

WGBS whole genome bisulfite sequencing

WT wild type

Zm *Zea mays*

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