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The methylomes of Lake Malawi cichlids reveal epigenetic variation associated with phenotypic diversification

AUTHORS

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ABSTRACT

Epigenetic variation modulates gene expression and can be heritable. However, knowledge of the contribution of epigenetic variation to diversification and speciation in nature remains limited. Here, we present the first genome-wide methylome study in a large vertebrate evolutionary radiation, focussing on liver and muscle tissues in six genetically similar but eco-morphologically divergent cichlid fishes from Lake Malawi. In both tissues we find substantial methylome divergence in DNA sequences conserved between species and differentially methylated regions (DMR) are significantly enriched in recently active transposable elements. DMRs in the liver are associated with transcription changes of genes with hepatic functions, pointing to a link between dietary ecology and methylome divergence. Unexpectedly, DMRs shared across adult tissues are enriched in genes involved in embryonic and developmental processes, suggesting roles in early embryogenesis. Our study provides initial evidence for DNA methylation contributing to phenotypic diversification of cichlids, and represents an important resource for further work.

MAIN

Trait inheritance and phenotypic diversification are primarily explained by the transmission of genetic information encoded in the DNA sequence. In addition, a variety of epigenetic processes have recently been reported to mediate heritable transmission of phenotypes in animals and plants^{1–6}. However, current understanding of the evolutionary significance of epigenetic processes, and of their roles in organismal diversification, is in its infancy.

DNA methylation, or the covalent addition of a methyl group onto the 5th carbon of cytosine (mC) in DNA, is a reversible epigenetic mark present across multiple kingdoms⁷⁻⁹, can be heritable, and has been linked to transmission of acquired phenotypes in plants and animals^{2,5,6,10-12}. The importance of this mechanism is underlined by the fact that proteins involved in the deposition of mC ('writers', DNMTs), in mC maintenance during cell division, and in the removal of mC ('erasers', TETs), are mostly essential and show high degrees of conservation across vertebrates species 13-16. In addition, some ancestral functions of methylated cytosines are highly conserved, such as in the transcriptional silencing of exogenous genomic elements (transposons)^{17,18}. In vertebrates, DNA methylation functions have evolved to play an important role in the orchestration of cell differentiation during normal embryogenesis/development through complex interactions with histone post-translational modifications (DNA accessibility) and mC-sensitive readers (such as transcription factors)¹⁸⁻²⁴ in particular at cis-regulatory regions (i.e. promoters, enhancers). Early-life establishment of stable DNA methylation patterns can thus affect transcriptional activity in the embryo and persist into fully differentiated cells²⁵. DNA methylation variation has also been postulated to have evolved in the context of natural selection by promoting phenotypic plasticity and thus possibly facilitating adaptation, speciation and adaptive radiation^{2,4,11,26}.

Studies in plants have revealed how covarying environmental factors and DNA methylation variation underlying stable and heritable transcriptional changes in adaptive traits^{2,6,10–12,27}. Some initial evidence is also present in vertebrates ^{2,5,28–30}. In the cavefish for example, an early developmental process - eye degeneration - has been shown to be mediated by DNA methylation, suggesting mC variation as an evolutionary factor generating adaptive phenotypic plasticity during development and evolution^{28,31}. However, whether correlations between environmental variation and DNA methylation patterns promote phenotypic diversification more widely among natural vertebrate populations remains unknown.

In this study we sought to quantify and characterise natural variability in DNA methylation in the context of the Lake Malawi haplochromine cichlid adaptive radiation, one of the most spectacular examples of rapid vertebrate phenotypic diversification³². In total, the radiation comprises over 800 endemic species³³, that are estimated to have evolved from common ancestry approximately

800,000 years ago³⁴. Species within the radiation can be grouped into seven distinct ecomorphological groups based on their ecology, morphology and genetic differences: (1) shallow benthic, (2) deep benthic, (3) deep pelagic zooplanktivorous/piscivorous *Diplotaxodon*, (4) the rock-dwelling 'mbuna', (5) zooplanktivorous 'utaka', (6) *Astatotilapia calliptera* specialised for shallow weedy habitats (also found in surrounding rivers and lakes), and (7) the midwater pelagic piscivores *Rhamphochromis*^{35,36}. Recent large-scale genetic studies have revealed that the Lake Malawi cichlid flock is characterised by an overall very low genetic divergence among species (0.1-0.25%), combined with a low mutation rate, a high rate of hybridisation and extensive incomplete lineage sorting (shared retention of ancestral genetic variation across species)^{33,35,37,38}. Multiple molecular mechanisms may be at work to enable such an explosive phenotypic diversification. Therefore, investigating the epigenetic mechanisms in Lake Malawi cichlids represents a remarkable opportunity to expand our comprehension of the processes underlying adaptation, phenotypic diversification and speciation.

Here we describe, quantify and assess the divergence in methylomes in six cichlid species spanning five of the seven ecomorphological groups of the Lake Malawi haplochromine radiation. To this end, high-coverage whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) and total RNA sequencing (RNAseq) from livers and muscle tissues were undertaken. We find that Lake Malawi haplochromine cichlids exhibit substantial methylome divergence, despite conserved underlying DNA sequences, and is enriched in evolutionary young transposable elements. Differential transcriptional activity is significantly associated with between-species methylome divergence, most prominently in genes involved in key hepatic metabolic functions. Furthermore, we show that a large fraction of methylome divergence between species pertains to embryonic and developmental processes, possibly contributing to early establishment of phenotypic diversity. This represents the first comparative analysis of natural methylome variation in Lake Malawi cichlids and provides initial evidence for a role of DNA methylation in adaptive phenotypic diversification in cichlids. Our study represents an important resource for future research in the context of adaptive diversification.

RESULTS

The methylomes of Lake Malawi cichlids feature conserved vertebrate characteristics

To characterise the methylome variation and assess possible functional relationships in natural populations of Lake Malawi cichlids, we performed high-coverage whole-genome sequencing of methylomes (WGBS) and total transcriptomes (RNAseq) simultaneously from liver and muscle tissues for wild-caught male specimens from each of six cichlid species (Fig. 1a-c, SUPP Fig. S1, SUPP Tables S1-2). The species selected were: *Rhamphochromis longiceps* (RL), a pelagic piscivore (Rhamphochromis group); *Diplotaxodon limnothrissa* (DL), a deep-water pelagic carnivore (Diplotaxodon group); *Maylandia zebra* (MZ) and *Petrotilapia genalutea* (PG), two rock-dwelling algae eaters (Mbuna group); *Aulonocara stuartgranti* (AS), a benthic invertebrate-eating sand/rock-dweller that is genetically part of the deep-benthic group; *Astatotilapia calliptera* (AC), a species of rivers and lake margins³⁹ (Fig. 1b).

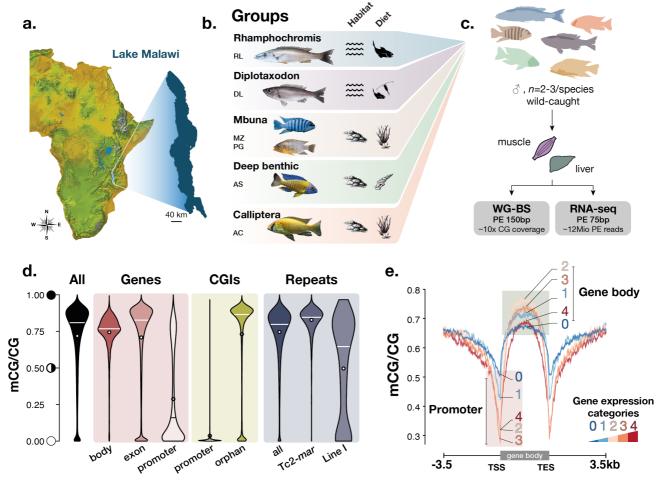


Fig. 1. The methylome of Lake Malawi cichlids. a. Satellite map of Africa and magnification of Lake Malawi. **b.** Photographs (not to scale) of the six Lake Malawi cichlid species of this study spanning five of the seven described eco-morphological groups. The symbols represent the different habitats (pelagic/benthic [wave symbol], rock/sand-dwelling/littoral [rock symbol]) and the type of diet (fish, fish/zooplankton, algae, invertebrates) for each group. The species representing each group are indicated by their initials. **c.** Diagram summarising the sampling and sequencing strategies: liver and muscle tissues from wild-caught male specimens for each species were used to generate simultaneously whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WG-BS) and total RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) data. See Methods and SUPP Fig. S1. **d.** Violin plots showing the distribution of liver DNA methylation levels in CG sequence context (mCG/CG) in different genomic regions. Average mCG levels over different genomic regions: genome-wide (50bp non-overlapping windows), gene bodies, exons, promoter regions (TSS±500bp), CpG-islands in promoters and

outside (orphan) and in repeat/transposon regions. mC levels for two different repeat classes are given: DNA transposon superfamily Tc2-Mariner (n=5,378) and LINE I (n=407). **e.** Average liver mCG profiles across genes differ depending on their transcriptional activity in liver: from non-expressed (0) to genes showing low (1), intermediate (2), high (3) and highest (4) expression levels (Methods). Results shown in **d.** and **e.** are for Mbuna MZ (liver, n=3) and are representative of the results for all other species, and are based on average mC/C in 50bp non-overlapping windows. *RL*, *Rhamphochromis longiceps*; *DL*, *Diplotaxodon limnothrissa*; *MZ*, *Maylandia zebra*; *PG*, *Petrotilapia genalutea*; *AS*, *Aulonocara stuartgranti*; *AC*, *Astatotilapia calliptera*. Credits - Fish photographs: Hannes Svardal and M. Emília Santos. Satellite map, NASA WorldView.

On average, 285.51±55.6 million paired-end reads (See SUPP Table S1) for liver and muscle methylomes were generated with WGBS, yielding ~10-15x per-sample coverage at CG dinucleotide sites (SUPP Fig. S2a; see Methods and Supplementary notes). All sequenced reads were mapped to two different Lake Malawi cichlid genome assemblies in parallel (*Maylandia zebra* UMD2a for all analyses and *Astatotilapia calliptera* fAstCal1.2 for mapping comparison; see Methods) without significant mapping rate differences (SUPP Fig. S2e), reflecting the high level of conservation at the DNA sequence level across the Malawi radiation (SUPP Fig. S3a, b). In parallel, liver and muscle transcriptomes were generated for the same specimens as used for WGBS, yielding on average 11.9±0.7 million paired-end reads (SUPP Table S1 and Methods).

We first characterised global features of the methylome of Lake Malawi cichlids. The genome of Lake Malawi cichlid was found to have copies of DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs) and ten-eleven translocation methylcytosine dioxygenases (TETs), the 'readers' and 'erasers' of DNA methylation respectively (SUPP Fig. S4a-c). Like that of mammals and other teleost fish, the genomes of Lake Malawi cichlids have high levels of DNA methylation genome-wide in the CG dinucleotide sequence context, consistent across all samples in both tissues analysed (Fig. 1d and SUPP Fig. S2a-c). Gene bodies generally show higher methylation levels than the genome-wide average, while the majority of promoter regions are unmethylated (Fig. 1d). CpG island (CGIs; i.e. CpG-rich regions - abundant in Lake Malawi cichlid genomes; Fig S5a-c, e; Supplementary notes and Methods), are almost entirely devoid of methylation in promoters, while 'orphan' CGIs, residing outside promoters, are mostly highly methylated (Fig. 1d and SUPP Fig. S5 f, g). While 70% of mammalian promoters contain CGIs⁴⁰, only 15-20% of promoters in Lake Malawi cichlids harbour CGIs (SUPP Fig. S5d), similar to frog and zebrafish genomes⁴⁰. Notably, orphan CGIs which may have important cis-regulatory functions⁴¹ compose up to 80% of all predicted CGIs in Lake Malawi cichlids (SUPP Fig. S5e). Furthermore, repetitive regions as well as transposable elements are particularly enriched for cytosine methylation, suggesting a methylation-mediated silencing of their transcription (Fig. 1d, SUPP Fig. S6d), similar to that observed in zebrafish and other animals^{7,17}. Interestingly, certain transposon families, such as LINE I and Tc2-Mariner, part of the DNA transposon family - the most abundant TE family predicted in Lake Malawi cichlid genome (SUPP Fig. S6a-b, Supplementary notes and Ref.³⁷) - have recently expanded considerably in the Mbuna genome (Fig S6c and Refs. 37,42). While Tc2-Mar show the highest median methylation levels, LINE I elements have some of the lowest, yet most variable, methylation levels of all transposon families, which correlates with their evolutionary recent expansion in the genome (Fig. 1d-e and. Fig S6d-e). Finally, transcriptional activity in liver and muscle tissues of Lake Malawi cichlids was negatively correlated with methylation in promoter regions (Spearman's correlation test, $\rho = -0.40$, p < 0.002), while being weakly positively correlated with methylation in gene bodies ($\rho = 0.1$, p < 0.002; Fig. 1e and SUPP Fig. S7 a-d and SUPP Table S3). This is consistent with previous studies highlighting high methylation levels in bodies of active genes in plants and animals, and high levels of methylation at promoters of weakly expressed genes in vertebrates^{7,23}. We conclude that the methylomes of Lake Malawi cichlids share many regulatory features, and possibly associated functions, with those of other vertebrates, which renders Lake Malawi cichlids a promising model system in this context.

Methylome divergence in Lake Malawi cichlids

To assess the possible role of DNA methylation in phenotypic diversification, we then sought to quantify and characterise the variation in liver and muscle methylomes across the genomes of Lake Malawi haplochromine cichlids. Despite overall very low sequence divergence³⁵ (SUPP Fig. S3a-b), Lake Malawi cichlids were found to show substantial methylome divergence across species within each tissue type, while within-species biological replicates always clustered together (Fig. 2a, SUPP Fig. S8, Methods). The species relationships inferred by clustering of the liver methylomes at conserved individual CG dinucleotides closely recapitulate the genetic relationship inferred from DNA sequence³⁵, with one exception – the methylome clusters *A. calliptera* samples as an outgroup, not a sister group to Mbuna. This is consistent with its unique position as a riverine species, while all species are obligate lake dweller (Fig. 2a and SUPP Fig. S3a, b), and the same pattern was observed irrespective of whether the *M. zebra* or *A. calliptera* reference genome was used (SUPP Fig. S9).

As DNA methylation variation tends to correlate over genomic regions consisting of several neighbouring CG sites, we defined and sought to characterise differentially methylated regions (DMRs) among Lake Malawi cichlid species (\geq 50bp-long, \geq 4 CG and \geq 25% methylation difference across any pair of species, p<0.05; see Methods). In total, 13,190 between-species DMRs were found among the liver methylomes and 4,236 among the muscle methylomes. By contrast, 26,459 within-species DMRs were found in the between-tissue comparisons (SUPP Fig. S10a, b). Overall, DMRs in Lake Malawi cichlids were predicted to be as long as 5,000bp (95% CI of median size: 282-298bp). While the methylation differences between liver and muscle were the most prominent at single GC dinucleotide resolution (Fig. 2a), and also resulted in the highest number of DMRs, we found DMRs to be slightly larger and methylation differences within them substantially stronger among species than between tissues (Dunn's test, p<2.2×10⁻¹⁶; SUPP Fig. S10 c-d).

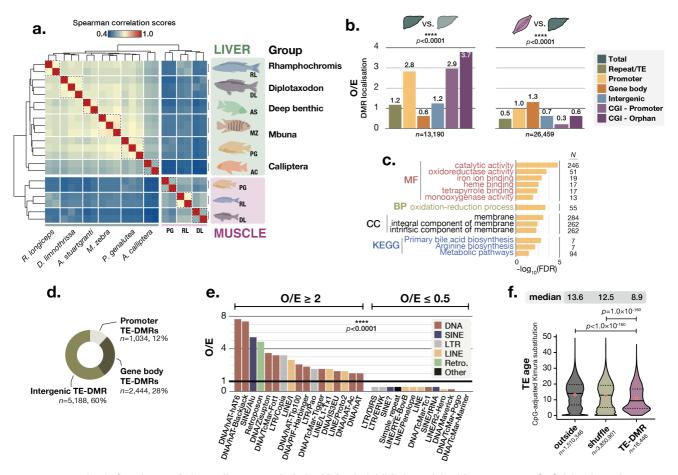


Fig. 2. Species methylome divergence in Lake Malawi cichlids is enriched in promoters, CpG-islands and young transposons. a. Unbiased hierarchical clustering and heatmap of Spearman correlation scores for genome-wide methylome variation in Lake Malawi cichlids at conserved CG dinucleotides. Dotted boxes groups samples by species within each tissue. b. Observed/Expected ratios for genomic localisation of differentially methylated regions (DMRs) predicted between liver tissues of Lake Malawi cichlids (between-species, left) and between tissues (within-species, right) - χ^2 tests, p<0.0001. Expected values were determined by randomly shuffling DMR coordinates across the genome (1000 iterations). Categories are not mutually exclusive. c. Gene ontology (GO) enrichment for species DMRs localised in promoters. GO terms: Kyoto Encyclopaedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG), molecular functions (MF), cellular component (CC) and biological processes (BP). Only GO terms with FDR<0.05 shown. N indicates the number of genes associated with each GO term. d. Genomic localisation of liver TE-DMRs. e. O/E ratios for species TE-DMRs for each TE family. Only $O/E \ge 2$ and ≤ 0.5 shown. χ^2 tests, p<0.0001. f. Boxplots showing TE sequence divergence (namely, CpG-adjusted Kimura substitution level as given by RepeatMasker) in M. zebra genome for species TE-DMRs, TEs outside species DMRs ('outside') and randomly shuffled TE-DMRs (270 iterations, 'shuffle'). Mean values indicated by red dots, median values by black lines and shown above each graph. Total DMR counts indicated below each graph. DMR, differentially methylated region; TE, repeat/transposon regions; CGI, predicted CpG islands. p-values for Dunn's multiple comparison tests shown.

Next, we characterised the genomic features enriched for between-species methylome divergence. In the liver, promoter regions and orphan CGIs have 2.8- and 3.7-fold enrichment respectively for between-species liver DMRs over random expectation (χ^2 test, p<0.0001; Fig. 2b and SUPP Fig. S10a, e). Methylome variation at promoter regions has been shown to affect transcription activity via a number of mechanisms (e.g. transcription factor binding affinity)^{20,43} and, in this way, may participate in phenotypic adaptive diversification in Lake Malawi cichlids. In particular, genes with promoter DMRs show enrichment for enzymes involved in hepatic metabolic functions (Fig. 2c). Furthermore, the high enrichment of DMRs in intergenic orphan CGIs (less so in promoter CGIs; Fig. 2b),

accounting for n=1,611 (12.2%) of total liver DMRs (SUPP Fig. S10a), suggests that intergenic CGIs may have DNA methylation-mediated regulatory functions.

The majority of between-species liver DMRs (66%, n=8,666) are within TE regions (TE-DMRs; SUPP Fig. S10 a-b), approximately two-thirds of which are located in unannotated intergenic regions (Fig. 2d). However, a small fraction of TE-DMRs are located in gene promoters (12% of all TE-DMRs) and are significantly enriched in genes associated with metabolic pathways (Fig. 2d and SUPP Fig. S10f). While there is only a 1.2-fold enrichment of DMRs globally across all TEs (Fig. 2b), some TE families are particularly enriched for DMRs, most notably the DNA transposons hAT (hAT6, >7-fold) and the retrotransposons SINE/Alu (>5-fold) and LINE/I (>3.5-fold). On the other hand, the degree of methylation in a number of other TE families shows unexpected conservation among species, with substantial DMR depletion (e.g., LINE/R2-Hero, DNA/Maverick; Fig. 2e). Overall, we observe a pattern whereby between-species methylome differences are significantly localised in younger transposon sequences (Dunn's test, p=2.2×10⁻¹⁶; Fig. 2f). Differential methylation in TE sequences may affect their transcription and transposition activities, possibly altering or establishing new transcriptional activity networks via cis-regulatory functions⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶. Indeed, movement of transposable elements has recently been shown to contribute to phenotypic diversification in Lake Malawi cichlids⁴⁷.

In contrast to the between-species liver DMRs, within-species DMRs based on comparison of liver against muscle methylomes show much less variation in enrichment across genomic features. Only gene bodies show weak enrichment for methylome variation. Moreover, both CGI classes, as well as repetitive and intergenic regions show considerable tissue-DMR depletion, suggesting a smaller DNA methylation-related contribution of these elements to tissue differentiation (Fig. 2b).

We hypothesised that adaptation to different diets in Lake Malawi cichlids could be associated with distinct hepatic functions, manifesting as differences in transcriptional patterns which, in turn, could be influenced by divergent methylation patterns. To investigate this, we first performed differential gene expression analysis (Fig. 1c). In total, 3,437 genes were found to be differentially expressed between livers of the four Lake Malawi cichlid species investigated (RL, DL, MZ and PG; Walt test,

Methylation divergence is associated with changes in transcriptional activity of hepatic genes

false discovery rate adjusted *p*-value using Benjamini-Hochberg (FDR)<0.01; Fig. 3a and SUPP Fig. S11a-c; see Methods and Supplementary notes). As with methylome variation, transcriptome variation clustered individuals by species (SUPP Fig. S11d), consistent with species specific functional

liver transcriptome activity.

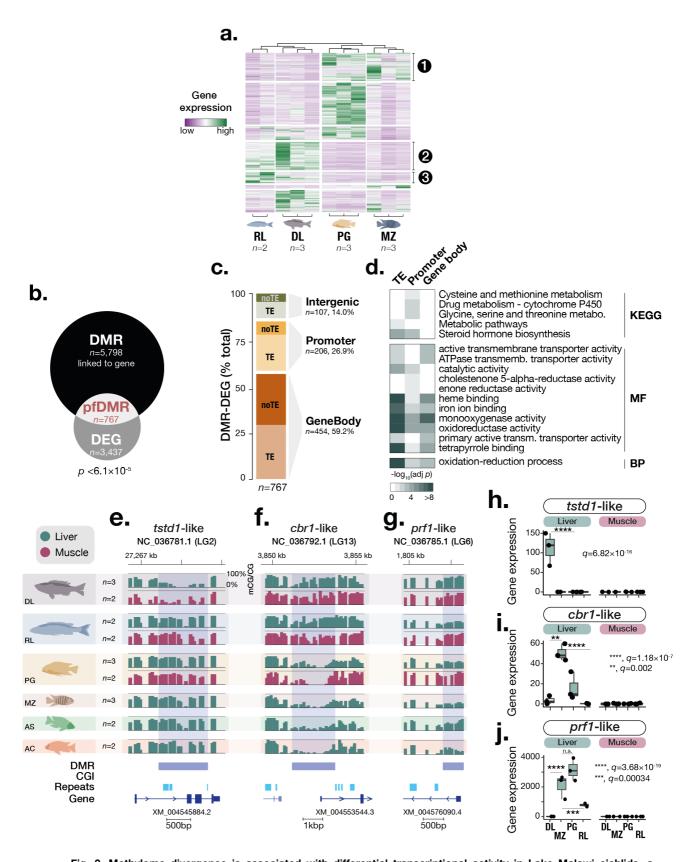


Fig. 3. Methylome divergence is associated with differential transcriptional activity in Lake Malawi cichlids. a. Heatmap and unsupervised hierarchical clustering of gene expression values of all differentially expressed genes (DEGs) found among livers of Lake Malawi cichlids (false discovery rate adjusted p-value using Benjamini-Hochberg (FDR)<0.01). GO enrichment analysis for three different DEG clusters are shown in SUPP Fig. S11c. b. Overlap between DEG (FDR<0.01) and differentially expressed regions (DMRs; p<0.05) that could be linked to a gene (exact hypergeometric test). c. Bar plot showing the percentage of DMRs associated with significant gene expression (putative functional DMRs, pfDMRs) localised in either promoters, intergenic regions (0.4-4kbp away from genes) or in gene bodies, with proportion of TE content for each group (TE/noTE). d. Heatmap

representing significant GO terms for differentially expressed gene associated with DMRs, given for each DMR genomic feature. GO categories: BP, Biological Process; MF, Molecular Function. Only GO terms with p adj<0.05 shown. **e-g.** Examples of DMRs (highlighted in pale blue) with significant association with liver species-specific transcriptional changes for the genes thiosulfate:glutathione sulfurtransferase tstd1-like (LOC101468457) (**e.**), carbonyl reductase [NADPH] 1 cbr1-like (LOC101465189) (**f.**) and perforin-1 prf1-like (LOC101465185) (**g.**). Liver and muscle methylome profiles in green and purple, respectively (averaged % mCG/CG levels in 50bp bins for ≥ 2 samples per tissue; scale indicated above each graph). **h-j.** Boxplots showing gene expression values for each of the genes in **e-g.** in livers (green) and muscle (pink). Averaged tpm values per tissue per species. Walt-test, sleuth: q values are shown in graphs. CGI, CpG islands; Repeats, transposons and repetitive regions.

Next, we checked for association between liver DMRs and transcriptional change. Of the 5,798 among-species DMRs that could be assigned to a specific gene (i.e., DMRs within promoters, gene bodies or within 0.5-4kbp away from a gene; see Methods), 767 were associated with differentially expressed genes, which is greater than expected by chance (Fig. 3a, b; p<6.1×10⁻⁵), suggesting that DMRs may affect liver gene expression. Of these 767 putative functional DMRs (pfDMRs), the majority (59%) are localised over gene bodies, equally distributed between exons and introns, hinting at possible intronic cis-regulatory elements⁴⁸. The remaining pfDMRs are in promoters (27%) or intergenic (14%) (Fig. 3c). The majority of pfDMRs contain younger TE sequences, in particular in intronic regions, while only few contain CGIs (SUPP Fig. S12a, b). In promoters and intergenic regions, >75% of pfDMR sequences contain TEs (Fig. 3c).

Genomic regions containing pfDMRs are significantly enriched in genes involved in hepatic and metabolic oxidation-reduction processes (Fig. 3d and SUPP Fig. S12c). These include genes encoding haem-containing cytochrome P450 enzymes (such as cyp3a4, cy7b1; SUPP Fig. S12c), which are important metabolic factors in steroid and fatty acid metabolism, as well as genes encoding other hepatic enzymes involved in energy balance processes. This enrichment is associated with significant methylome divergence among species, in particular in promoter regions and gene bodies (Fig. 3d). For example, the gene sulfurtransferase tstd1-like, an enzyme involved in energy balance and mitochondrial metabolism is expressed exclusively in the liver of the deep-water pelagic species D. limnothrissa where it shows ~80% reduced methylation levels in a gene-body DMR compared to all the other species (Fig. 3e, h). Another example is the promoter of the enzyme carbonyl reductase [NADPH] 1 (cbr1) which shows significant hypomethylation (2.2kbp-long DMR) in the algae-eaters MZ and PG, associated with up to ~60-fold increased gene expression in their livers compared to the predatory Rhamphochromis and Diplotaxodon (Fig. 3f, i). Interestingly, cbr1 is involved in the metabolism of various fatty acids in the liver and has been associated with fatty acid-mediated cellular signalling in response to environmental perturbation⁴⁹. As a final example, we highlight the cytotoxic effector perforin 1-like (prf1-like), an important player in liver-mediated energy balance and immune functions⁵⁰. Its promoter is hypermethylated (>88% mC/C) exclusively in the liver of the deep-water species DL, while having low methylation levels (~25%) in the four other species (Fig.

3g). This gene is not expressed in DL livers but is highly expressed in the livers of the other species that all show low methylation in the promoter (Fig. 3j). Taken together, these results suggest that transcriptional remodelling associated with significant epigenetic divergence might participate in the adaptation to different diets.

Multi-tissue methylome divergence is enriched for early developmental processes

We further hypothesised that between-species DMRs that are found in both the liver and muscle methylomes could relate to functions associated with early development/embryogenesis. Given that liver is endoderm-derived and muscle is mesoderm-derived, such shared multi-tissue DMRs could be involved in processes that find their origins prior to or early in gastrulation. Such DMRs could also have been established early on during embryogenesis and may have core cellular functions. Therefore, we focussed on the three species for which we had methylomes from both tissues to explore the overlap between muscle and liver DMRs (Fig. 4a). Based on pairwise species comparisons (SUPP Fig. S13a-b), we identified 'species' DMRs showing a unique pattern of DNA methylation in one of the three species. We found that >42% of these were found in both tissues ('multi-tissue' DMRs), while >37% were liver-specific and only ~13% were muscle-specific (Fig. 4b).

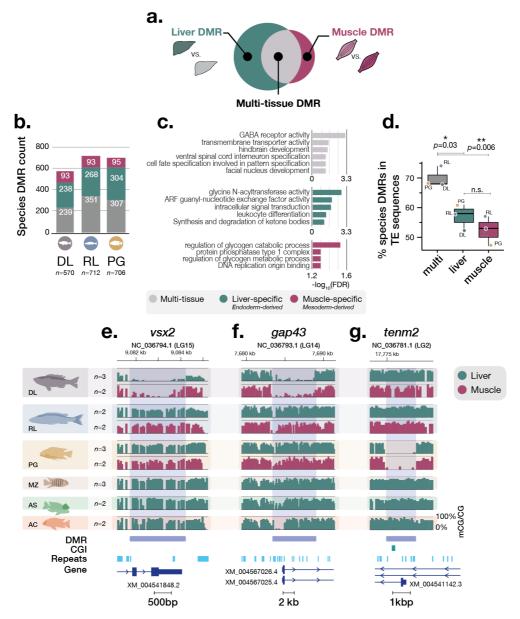


Fig. 4 Multi-tissue methylome divergence in Lake Malawi cichlids is associated with early development/embryogenesis. a. Methylome divergence in Lake Malawi cichlids can found in liver- or muscle-tissues, or in both tissues ('multi-tissue'). b. Histograms showing the total counts of 'species' DMRs that are either liver-, muscle-specific or present in both (multi). Only 'species' DMRs showing a unique DNA methylation pattern in one species are shown. c. GO enrichment plots for each DMR class. d. Boxplots of the percentage of species-specific DMRs (over total species-specific DMRs) localised in transposable elements (TE) for each DMR class. ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison compared to multi, n.s p>0.05. e.-g. Examples of 'species' multi-tissue DMRs in genes related to embryonic developmental processes. Namely in the genes coding for visual system homeobox 2 vsx2 (LOC101486458), growth associated protein 43 gap43 (LOC101472990) and teneurin transmembrane protein 2 tenm2 (LOC101470261). Liver and muscle methylome profiles in green and purple, respectively (averaged % mCG/CG levels in 50bp bins for ≥2 samples per tissue; scale indicated above each graph).

The relatively high proportion of multi-tissue DMRs suggests there may be extensive among-species divergence in core cellular or metabolic pathways. To investigate this further, we performed GO enrichment analysis. As expected, liver-specific DMRs are particularly enriched for hepatic metabolic functions, while muscle-specific DMRs are significantly associated with muscle-related functions, such as glycogen catabolic pathways (Fig. 4c). Multi-tissue DMRs, however, are significantly

enriched for genes involved in development and embryonic processes, in particular related to cell differentiation and brain development (Fig. 4 c, e-g). In all the three species, multi-tissue DMRs are significantly longer on average (936 \pm 72bp vs 388 \pm 29 bp; Dunn's test, p<0.0001; SUPP Fig. S13c), are more often localised in promoter regions (SUPP Fig. S13d) and are significantly enriched for TE sequences (Dunn's test, p<0.002; Fig. 4d) compared to liver and muscle DMRs.

Several examples of multi-tissue DMRs are worth highlighting as generating hypotheses for potential future functional studies (Fig. 4e-g). The visual system homeobox 2 (vsx2) gene in the offshore deepwater species Diplotaxodon limnothrissa is almost devoid of methylation in both liver and muscle, in contrast to the other species (1.9kbp-long DMR; Fig. 4e and SUPP Fig. S13e). vsx2 has been reported to play an essential role in the development of the eye and retina in zebrafish with embryonic and postnatal active transcription localised in bipolar cells and retinal progenitor cells⁵¹. D. limnothrissa populates the deepest parts of the lake of all cichlid species (down to approximately 250m, close to the limits of oxygenation) and features morphological adaptations to dimly-lit environments, such as larger eye size⁵². vsx2 may therefore participate in the visual adaptation of *Diplotaxodon* to the dimmer parts of the lake via DNA methylation-mediated gene regulation during development. Another example of a multi-tissue DMR specific to D. limnothrissa is located in the promoter of the gene coding for growth associated protein 43 (gap43) involved in neural development and plasticity, and also neuronal axon regeneration⁵³. The promoter of gap43 is largely devoid of methylation (overall <5% average mC/C levels across this 5.2kbp-long DMR) in both muscle and liver tissues of D. limnothrissa, while being highly methylated (>86%) in the other species (Fig. 4f). In A. calliptera, the transcription of gap43 is restricted to the brain and embryo (SUPP Fig. S13f), consistent with a role in neural development and in the adult brain. Finally, another multi-tissue DMR potentially involved in neural embryonic functions is located in the promoter region of the gene tenm2, coding for teneurin transmembrane protein (Fig. 4q). tenm2 is a gene expressed early on during zebrafish embryogenesis and is involved in neurodevelopment and neuron migration-related cell signalling⁵⁴. This 2.7kbplong DMR is completely unmethylated in the algae-eating rock-dweller Petrotilapia genalutea (almost 80% reduction of methylation overall compared to the other species) and may mediate species specific adaptive phenotypic plasticity related to synapse formation and neuronal networks.

DISCUSSION

The molecular mechanisms underlying adaptive phenotypic diversification are subject of intense interest^{33,35,37,55,56} and the extent of the role of epigenetic processes is hotly debated^{2,4,57}. However, indepth molecular epigenetic studies remain rare in evolutionary genomics and its key model systems^{2,4,28,57}. Here, we focussed on the genetically closely-related haplochromine cichlids of Lake Malawi, representing a unique system to investigate the epigenetic basis for phenotypic diversification^{35,38,58}. Specifically, we describe genome-wide methylome variation at a single CG dinucleotide

resolution as well as transcriptomes of two adult tissues of different embryonic origins in six ecomorphologically divergent species (Fig. 1b). This work represents the first study investigating epigenetic marks as a potential basis for diversification and adaptation in natural populations of cichlid fishes, and provides evidence of a role for DNA methylation in rewiring the transcriptional network and transposon element landscape in this context. Given the resemblances we found between cichlid methylomes and those of warm-blooded vertebrates (Fig. 1. d, e), suggesting evolutionarily conserved functions, our findings are likely to be relevant to other vertebrate evolutionary model systems.

Recent large-scale epigenetic studies in natural populations of *Arabidopsis* have highlighted a functional link between local environments and methylation divergence, with possible adaptive phenotypic functions^{10,12}. Yet, epigenetic variation in natural populations of vertebrates and its possible functions in the context of adaptive phenotypic diversification have scarcely been studied. Our finding of considerable among-species methylome divergence at conserved underlying DNA sequences, despite overall low among-species genome differentiation, is suggestive of a functional link between DNA methylation and local environments. The methylome divergence we found may be driven directly by the environmental differences but is also likely to have a genetic component. Our study lays the groundwork for deciphering any genetically encoded component underlying the epigenetic differences, as well as determining the degree of inheritance of such epigenetic patterns that can vary among teleost fishes. Indeed, recent studies have highlighted important differences in the mechanisms of DNA methylation reprogramming during embryogenesis in teleost fishes. While the genome of the embryo in zebrafish retains the sperm methylome configuration with no global DNA methylation resetting, extensive and global DNA methylation reprogramming instead occurs upon fertilisation in medaka embryos (similar to mammals)^{29,59-61}.

We found that that regions of methylome divergence between species (DMRs) were enriched in promoters and orphan CGIs (Fig. 2b). Methylation variation in promoter regions is known to have important *cis*-regulatory functions in vertebrates, in particular during development ^{19,20,23,28,30}. Such *cis*-regulatory activity is also apparent in Lake Malawi cichlids, with methylation at promoters negatively correlated with transcriptional activity (Fig. 1e and SUPP Fig. S7a-d). This is likely mediated by the tight interaction of DNA methylation with 5mC-sensitive DNA-binding proteins, such as transcription factors²¹. On the other hand, the functional roles of orphan CGIs are less well understood⁴¹. However, orphan CGIs have by far the highest enrichment for species methylome divergence (4.4-fold over chance; Fig. 2b) - most of which are located in unannotated genomic regions. Orphan CGIs, as well as intergenic TEs (Fig. 2d), might include ectopic promoters, enhancers and other distal regulatory elements^{40,41} that may participate in adaptive diversification. Such putative *cis*-regulatory regions

could be validated against a full functional annotation of the genome of Lake Malawi cichlid, which is currently lacking.

We identified that in some species methylome divergence was significantly associated with differential liver transcriptome activity, especially pertaining to hepatic functions involved in steroid hormone and fatty acid metabolism (Fig. 3b, d, e-j). Consistent with a functional role of DNA methylation in *cis*-regulatory regions ^{20,43}, we revealed significant methylation divergence in the promoters of differentially transcribed genes involved in liver-mediated energy expenditure processes and metabolism, such as gene *prf1*-like (>60-fold increase in expression; Fig. 3g, j), associated with obesity in mouse ⁴⁴. Such a functional link may promote phenotypic diversification via adaptation to different diets. Our understanding of this would benefit from knowledge of the extent to which environmental or diet perturbation might result in adaptation-associated functional methylome changes. Additionally, the characterisation of the methylomes of Lake Malawi cichlid species from different ecomorphological groups but sharing the same habitat/diet, would inform on the specificity and possible functions of methylome divergence at metabolic genes.

TE and repetitive sequences present on average higher methylation levels than the genome-wide average (Fig. 1d), although some specific TE classes show more variable and lower levels (SUPP Fig. S1e). DNA methylation-mediated transcriptional repression of mostly deleterious TE elements is crucial to the integrity of most eukaryote genomes, from plants to fish and mammals, and can be mediated in both animals and plants by small non-coding RNAs, such as piwi-interacting RNAs (piRNAs) in zebrafish and mammals^{17,18,62}. Notably, the majority (~60%) of species differences in methylation patterns associated with transcriptional changes in liver was localised in evolutionary young transposon/repeat regions (Fig. 3c and SUPP Fig. S12a). Even though most of TE activity is under tight cellular control to ensure genome stability, transposition events have also been associated with genome evolution and phenotypic diversification. Indeed, TE insertion may represent a source of functional genomic variation and novel cis-regulatory elements, underlying altered transcriptional network^{44,46,47,63}. In haplochromine cichlids, variation in anal fin egg-spots patterns associated with courtship behaviour, has been linked to a novel cis-regulatory element, derived from TE sequences⁴⁵. Additionally, Brawand and colleagues have revealed that most TE insertions near genes in East African cichlids were associated with altered gene expression patterns³⁷. Moreover, genes in piRNArelated pathways have been reported to be under positive selection in Lake Malawi cichlid flock, in line with a fast evolving TE sequence landscape observed in cichlids 35, and these genes may also be associated with TE-related methylome variation, similar to *Arabidopsis*^{10,64}.

Not only can novel TE insertions participate in genome evolution, DNA methylation at TE-derived *cis*-regulatory elements has been shown to affect transcriptional activity of nearby genes^{11,44}. In

rodents, the insertion of one IAP (intra-cisternal A particle) retrotransposon in the upstream *cis*-regulatory region of the agouti gene is associated with considerable phenotypic variation of coat colours and metabolic changes. Differential methylation levels at this TE-derived ectopic promoter directly impacts the activity of the agouti gene^{5,27}, and such epigenetic patterns of methylation are transmitted to the offspring along with the altered phenotypes in a non-genetic manner². Similarly, in toadflax, the flower symmetry is associated with the variable and heritable methylation patterns in the TE-derived promoter of the *Lcyc* gene, resulting in symmetrical or asymmetrical flowers⁶. Also, in a population-scale study of more than a thousand natural *Arabidopsis* accessions, epigenetic variation was found to be associated with phenotypes, mostly arising from methylation-mediated TE silencing that was significantly associated with altered transcription of adaptive genes such as those determining flowering time^{10,64}. Our work adds to this by providing further evidence that interactions between TE sequences and between-species methylome divergence lead to altered transcriptional networks. This lays groundwork for further investigation of this issue in cichlid fishes.

Finally, we revealed that between-species methylome differences in liver tissues were greater than differences between muscle tissues (Fig. 4b), possibly highlighting a higher dependence of hepatic functions on natural epigenetic divergence. This indicates that a significant portion of the betweenspecies methylome divergence in liver may contribute to adaptive phenotypic divergence, in particular by affecting the genes involved in tissue-specific functions, such as hepatic metabolic processes (Fig. 3c, e-j). However, almost half of the methylome divergence we observed that was driven by a single species was consistently found in both liver and muscle (Fig. 4b). This multi-tissue methylome divergence is consistent with epigenetic influences on core cellular functions, and may also be relevant to early-life biological processes such as development, cellular differentiation and embryogenesis (Fig. 4c, d-g). For example, we identified a large hypomethylated region in the visual homeobox gene vsx2 in both liver and muscle tissues in the deep-water Diplotaxodon (Fig. 4e). This gene is involved in eye differentiation and may participate in long-lasting visual adaptive phenotypic divergences required to populate dimly parts of the lake, similar to the DNA methylation-mediated adaptive eye degeneration in cavefish²⁸. Notably, recent studies have highlighted signatures of positive selection and functional substitutions in genes related to visual traits in D. limnothrissa^{35,52}. If multitissue methylome divergence has been established very early during differentiation, and has important regulatory functions pertaining to early developmental stages 25 and possibly core cellular functions, then it may promote long-lasting phenotypic divergence unique to each species' adaption. Our observations suggest further characterisation of the methylomes and transcriptomes in the different cells of developing embryos may be valuable, to investigate when between-species methylome divergence is established, as well as any functional roles in early-life phenotypic diversification.

To conclude, recent large-scale genomic studies have highlighted that several mechanisms may participate in the phenotypic diversification of Lake Malawi haplochromine cichlids, such as hybridisation and incomplete lineage sorting 33,35,58,65. Our study adds to these observations by providing initial evidence of a possible role for DNA methylation in adaptation and species divergence. Altogether, we have demonstrated substantial divergence in methylation patterns and transcriptomes among closely related Lake Malawi cichlid fish species representing distinct ecomorphological groups, despite low levels of genome sequence differentiation. This raises the possibility that variation in methylation patterns can play a major role in phenotypic divergence in these rapidly evolving species. Further work is required to elucidate the extent to which this might result from plastic responses to the environment in addition to any basis in sequence divergence. This study represents the first epigenomic study investigating natural methylome variation in the context of phenotypic diversification in genetically similar but ecomorphologically divergent cichlid species part of a large vertebrate radiation and provides an important resource for further work.

Methods

Overview sampling

All Malawi cichlid fish were collected with local fishermen by G. F. Turner, M. Malinsky, H. Svardal, A. M. Tyers, M. Mulumpwa and M. Du in 2016 in Malawi in collaboration with the Fisheries Research Unit of the Government of Malawi), or in 2015 in Tanzania in collaboration with the Tanzania Fisheries Research Institute (various collaborative projects). Upon collection, tissues were immediately placed in RNA/ater (Sigma), and were then stored at -80°C upon return. Information about the collection type, species ID and the GPS coordinates for each collection in SUPP Table S1.

Whole-genome bisulfite sequencing WGBS

Extraction of high-molecular-weight genomic DNA (HMW-gDNA)

The main method to generate WGBS data is summarised in SUPP Fig. S1. In detail, high-molecular-weight genomic DNA (HMW-gDNA) was extracted from homogenised liver and muscle tissues (<25mg) using QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen 51304) according the manufacturer's instructions. HMW-gDNA was then fragmented to the target size of ~400bp (Covaris, S2 and E220). Fragments were then purified with PureLink PCR Purification kit (ThermoFisher). Before any downstream experiments, quality and quantity of gDNA fragments were both assessed using NanoDrop, Qubit and Tapestation (Agilent). Before NGS library preparation, unmethylated lambda DNA (Promega, D1521) was spiked in (0.5% w/w) to assess bisulfite conversion efficiency.

NGS library preparation for WGBS

For each sample, 200ng of sonicated fragments were used to make NGS sequencing libraries using NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Prep (New England BioLabs, E7645S) in combination with methylated adaptors (NEB, E7535S), following manufacturer's instructions. Adaptor-ligated fragments were then purified with 0.8x Agencourt AMPure Beads (Beckman Coulter, Inc). Libraries were then treated with sodium bisulfite according to the manufacturer's instructions (Imprint DNA Modification Kit; Sigma, MOD50) and amplified by PCR (10 cycles) using KAPA HiFi HS Uracil+ RM (KAPA Biosystems) and NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (NEB E7335S). Bisulfite-converted libraries were finally size-selected and purified using 0.7x Agencourt AMPure Beads. Size and purity of libraries were determined using Tapestation and quantified using Qubit (Agilent). Libraries were sequenced on HiSeq 4000 (High Output mode, v.4 SBS chemistry) to generate paired-end 150 bp-long reads. *A. stuartgranti* samples were sequenced on HiSeq 2500 to generate paired-end 125bp-long reads.

Mapping of WGBS reads

TrimGalore (options: --paired --fastqc --illumina; v0.6.2; github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) was used to determine the quality of sequenced read pairs and to remove Illumina adaptor sequences and low-quality reads/bases (Phred quality score <20). All adaptor-trimmed paired reads were then aligned to three reference genomes: *M. zebra* (UMD2a, NCBI_Assembly: GCF_000238955.4; SUPP Table S1), *A. calliptera* (fAstCal1.2, NCBI_Assembly: GCF_900246225.1) and to the lambda genome (to determine bisulfite non-conversion rate) using Bismark⁶⁶ (v0.20.0). The alignment parameters were as follows: 0-1 mismatch allowed with a maximum insert size for valid paired-end alignments of 500bp (options: -p5 -N 1 –X 500). Clonal mapped reads (i.e. PCR

duplicates) were removed using deduplicate_bismark (see SUPP Table S1). Mapped reads for the same samples generated on multiple HiSeq runs were also merged.

DMR calling and genome-wide methylome variation analysis

Methylation at CpG sites was called using bismark_methylation_extractor (options: -p --multicore 9 --comprehensive --no_overlap --merge_non_CpG). DMRs (>25% methylation difference, ≥50bp, ≥4 CG and *p*<0.05) were predicted using DSS⁶⁷ (v2.32.0). samtools (v1.9) and bedtools (v2.27.1) were used to handle mapped reads and generate averaged methylation levels across non-overlapping windows of various sizes genomewide. ggplot2 (v3.3.0) and pheatmap (v1.0.12) were used to visualise methylome data and to produce unbiased hierarchal clustering. Spearman's correlation matrices, Euclidean distances and principal component analyses (scaled and centred) were produced using R (v3.6.0) functions cor, dist and prcom, respectively. Minimum read overage requirement at any CpG sites for all analyses - except for DSS-predicted DMRs, for which all read coverage was used - was as follows: >4 and ≤100 non-PCR-duplicate mapped paired-end reads. mCG % levels over 50bp-long non-overlapping windows for all annotations were averaged across samples for each tissue of each species. Violin plots were generated using ggplot2 and represent rotated and mirrored kernel density plots. The genome browser IGV (v2.5.2) was used to visualise DNA methylation genome-wide (% mCG/CG in 50bp windows). One outlier sample for *R. longiceps*, seemingly coming from a spleen instead of liver, was removed (SUPP Fig. S8).

Additional statistics

Kruskal-Wallis H and Dunn's multiple comparisons tests (Benjamini-Hochberg correction unless otherwise specified) were performed using FSA (v0.8.25). Box plots represent interquartile range (IQR) with minimal and maximal values (black lines) and outliers (black circles).

Genome-wide annotations

The reference genome of *M. zebra* (UMD2a; NCBI genome build: GCF_000238955.4 and NCBI annotation release 104) was used to generate all annotations. Custom annotation files were generated and defined as follows: promoter regions, TSS±500 bp unless otherwise indicated; gene bodies included both exons and introns and other intronic regions, and excluded the first 500bp regions downstream of TSS to avoid any overlap with promoter regions; transposable elements and repetitive elements were modelled and annotated, as well as their sequence divergence analysed using RepeatModeler (v1.0.11) and RepeatMasker (v4.0.9.p2), respectively. Intergenic regions were defined as genomic regions more than 5kbp from genes. CpG-rich regions, or CpG islands (CGI), were predicted and annotated using makeCGI⁶⁸. The following genomes were used to compare genomic CG contents across different organisms (SUPP Fig. S5a): honey bee (*A. melifera*, Amel_4.5), nematode (*C. elegans*, WBcel235), *Arabidopsis* (*A. thaliana*, TAIR10), zebrafish (*D. rerio*, GRCz10), Mbuna cichlid *Maylandia zebra* (*M. zebra*, UMD1), West Indian Ocean coelacanth (*L. chalumnae*, LatCha.1), red junglefowl (*G. gallus*, Gall_5), grey whale (*E. robustus*, v1), human (*H. sapiens*, GRCh38.p10), mouse (*M. musculus*, GRCm38.p5), tammar wallaby (*N. eugenii*, Meug1.1). pfDMRs and TE/repeat elements were assigned to a gene when they were located within gene bodies (from 0.5kbp downstream TSS), within promoter regions (TSS±500bp) and in the vicinity of genes (within 0.5-4kbp away from genes).

Enrichment analysis

Enrichment analysis was calculated by shuffling each type of DMRs (liver, muscle, tissue) across the *M.zebra* UMD2a genome (accounting for the number of DMRs and length; 1000 iterations). The expected values were determined by intersecting shuffled DMRs with each genomic category (1000 iterations). Chi-square tests were then performed for each O/E distribution. The same process was performed for TE enrichment analysis.

Gene Ontology enrichment analysis

All GO enrichments analyses were performed using g:Profiler (https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/gost; version Sept 2020). Only annotated genes for *Maylandia zebra* were used with a statistical cut-off of FDR<0.05 (unless otherwise specified).

Sequence divergence

A pairwise sequence divergence matrix was generated using a published dataset³⁵. Phylogenetic unrooted trees and heatmap were generated using the following R packages: phangorn (v.2.5.5), ape_5.4-1 and pheatmap (v.1.0.12).

RNAseq

Total RNA extraction and NGS library for long (>200nt) RNA sequencing

In brief, for each species, three biological replicates of liver and muscle tissues were used to sequence total RNA (see SUPP Fig. S1 for a summary of the method and SUPP Table S2 for sampling size). The same specimens were used for both RNAseq and WGBS.

RNAseq libraries for both liver and muscle tissues were prepared using ~5-10mg of RNA/ater-preserved homogenised liver and muscle tissues. Total RNA was isolated using a phenol/chloroform method following manufacturer's instructions (TRIzol, ThermoFisher). RNA samples were treated with DNase (TURBO DNase, ThermoFisher) to remove any DNA contamination. Quality and quantity of total RNA extracts were determined using NanoDrop spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher), Qubit (ThermoFisher) and BioAnalyser (Agilent). Following ribosomal RNA depletion (RiboZero, Illumina), stranded rRNA-depleted RNA libraries (Illumina) were prepped according to the manufacturer's instructions and sequenced (paired-end 75bp-long reads) on HiSeq2500 V4 (Illumina) by the sequencing facility of the Wellcome Sanger Institute.

Published RNAseq data for all the tissues of A. calliptera sp. Itupi was taken from 35.

Mapping and gene quantification

TrimGalore (options: --paired --fastqc --illumina; v0.6.2; https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) was used to determine the quality of sequenced read pairs and to remove Illumina adaptor sequences and low-quality reads/bases (Phred quality score <20). Reads were then aligned to the *M. zebra* transcriptome (UMD2a; NCBI genome build: GCF_000238955.4 and NCBI annotation release 104) and the expression value for each transcript was quantified in transcripts per million (TPM) using kallisto quant⁶⁹ (--bias -b 100 -t 1; v0.46.0). For all downstream analyses, gene expression values for each tissue were averaged for each species.

A Spearman's rank correlation matrix was produced with R function cor, and the gene expression matrix to assess transcription variation across samples. Graphs, unsupervised clustering and heatmaps were produced with R packages ggplot2 (v3.3.0) and pheatmap (v1.0.12). Heatmaps of gene expression show scaled TPM values.

Differential gene expression (DEG)

Differential gene expression (DE) analysis was performed using sleuth⁷⁰ (v0.30.0; Wald test, FDR <0.01). Only DEGs with gene expression difference of ≥50 TPM between at least one species pairwise comparison were analysed further.

Methylation variation in promoters/gene bodies associated with transcriptional activity

To study the correlation between methylome and gene expression (Fig. 1e and SUPP Fig. S4b), genes were binned into 11 categories based on their expression levels (increasing gene expression levels, from category 1 to 10; cat "OFF" groups silent/not expressed genes, i.e., TPM=0 in all replicates for a particular species. RL liver (n=2): 10 'ON' categories, n=2,129; 1 'silent' category, n=5,331. MZ liver (n=3): 10 'ON' categories, n=2,199; 1 'silent' category, n=4,704. RL muscle (n=2): 10 'ON' categories , n=2,101; 1 'silent' category, n=4,622). Promoter (500bp±TSS) and gene bodies were also binned into 10 categories according to methylation levels (0-100% methylation, by 10% DNA methylation increment; RL liver (n=2), 11 categories, n ranging from 34 to 11,202. MZ liver (n=3), 11 categories, n ranging from 28 to 11,192. RL muscle (n=2), 11 categories, n ranging from 60 to 9,946). Categories were generated using the R script tidyverse (v1.3.0) and graphs were generated using deepTools v.3.2.1. TPM values and methylation levels were averaged for each tissue and each species.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Supplementary notes SUPP Fig. S1 – S13

SUPP Table S1 – S3

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