

1 **Divergent epigenetic profiles from two differentially impacted wild populations**
2 **of estuarine cordgrass (*Sporobolus alterniflorus*)**
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29
30 **Author Contributions**

31 All authors made critical contributions to this study, reviewed drafts, and agree on all aspects of
32 the work. In particular, MH, SK, ND, HM and RLC conceived of, and initiated the heat shock
33 study. LD, FM, MH, SK, HM, MN, NA, RB, NB, JB, LC, RC, ND, PF, BF, WH, LP, AR, YW,
34 AW, ZW, and RLC designed and executed heat shock experiments. LD, FM, RLC and DG
35 performed final analyses of heat shock data. LD, FM, RLC, MN, JB, LC, OC, RC, BF, DG, WH,
36 VM, LP and WW designed and executed methylation studies. LD, FM, MN, JB, LC, OC, RC,
37 BF, DG, WH, VM, FM, LP and RLC analyzed methylation data. LD, LC, OC, JF, DG, WH, VM
38 and WW designed and executed barcoding experiments. LD, OC, DG analyzed barcoding data.
39 LD, FM, LP, DG and RLC wrote the manuscript. MN reviewed the manuscript for important
40 intellectual content.

41
42 **Keywords:** % 5-mC; DNA methylation; ecosystem provider; epigenetic modification; heat
43 shock protein 70 (HSP70); marsh grass; *Sporobolus alterniflorus*; stress tolerance; urban estuary;
44 wild populations

45 **Highlights for manuscript submission:**

- 46 ▪ estuarine grasses native to the Bronx River, NY face stresses associated with low
47 dissolved oxygen and urbanization
- 48 ▪ differentially impacted populations of estuarine grasses exhibit inverse global DNA
49 methylation profiles in response to acute heat stress
- 50 ▪ DNA methylation may represent a mechanism by which plants transiently respond to
51 environmental stressors, and this may represent a form of rapid adaptive evolution
- 52 ▪ stress priming by transgenerational epigenetic modification may enhance fitness in
53 grasses native to the heavily impacted Bronx River estuary

54

55 **Abstract**

56 The effects of urbanization on watershed ecosystems present critical challenges to
57 modern survival. Organisms in urbanized areas experience high rates of evolutionary change, but
58 genetic adaptation alone cannot mitigate the rapid and severe effects of urbanization on
59 biodiversity. Highly resilient, foundation species are key to maintaining an ecosystem's integrity
60 in the face of urban stressors. However, the rapid collapse and disappearance of watershed
61 ecosystems calls into question the extent to which we can rely on such species for their services.
62 Our research investigates the molecular mechanisms by which the foundation ecosystems
63 provider, *Sporobolus alterniflorus*, adapts to life in an urbanized environment. To elucidate these
64 mechanisms, we quantified changes in global DNA methylation (% 5-mC) as a result of acute
65 heat stress. Specimens from two differentially impacted populations across an urban to suburban
66 geographical transect formed the basis of this study. These two populations of *Sporobolus*
67 *alterniflora* exhibit inverse global DNA methylation patterns when exposed to the same acute
68 heat stress. Our findings suggest that epigenetic mechanisms, such as DNA methylation, control
69 rapid and transient adaptation, in the form of differential stress responses, to distinct environment
70 challenges.

71

72 **1- Introduction**

73 Urban estuaries are highly productive ecosystems that provide critical services including
74 storm surge protection, water filtration and wildlife habitat (Barbier et al., 2011; Franca et al.,
75 2012). Coastal salt marshes comprise approximately 25% of the global soil carbon sink through

76 plant production and high carbon burial rates (Chmura et al., 2003). Human activity,
77 industrialization, and climate change continue to negatively impact estuarine ecosystems,
78 especially in urbanized areas (Limburg et al., 2005; Astaraié-Imani et al., 2012; Chin et al.,
79 2013). Estuarine species face stresses associated with adverse environmental conditions such as
80 low dissolved oxygen, combined sewage overflow, toxin contamination, bank destabilization,
81 habitat degradation, and extreme temperature fluctuation (Van Dolah, et al., 2008; Courrat et al.,
82 2009; Halem et al., 2014; Ravaschiere et al., 2017). Knowledge of the molecular mechanisms
83 underlying stress adaptation is essential if we hope to rehabilitate estuarine ecosystems adversely
84 affected by urbanization.

85 Urbanization is often associated with rapidly changing anthropogenic stressors (Alberti,
86 2015; Donihue and Lambert, 2015). As sessile organisms, plants must respond to these
87 environmental challenges by rapidly regulating gene expression, and this is often accomplished
88 via epigenetic alterations such as DNA methylation and histone modification (Arikan et al.,
89 2018; Wang et al., 2010). These transient and rapid modifications provide essential “on demand”
90 phenotypic variation (Rey et al., 2016), that may represent critical adaptive mechanisms for
91 species such as marsh grasses that provide essential ecological services to urban communities.

92 Here, we take an *in vivo* approach to the study of epigenetic adaptation in wild
93 populations of smooth cordgrass *Sporobolus alterniflorus* (formerly *Spartina alterniflora*), a
94 critical ecosystems provider and foundation species that is native to estuaries throughout the
95 North American east coast (Gedan and Bertness, 2010; Peterson, 2014). This halophyte species
96 is particularly resilient in the face of urbanization (Gedan and Bertness, 2010) and thus
97 represents a particularly suitable model for our study. In research findings presented here, we
98 track two robust mechanisms for transient stress response in plants: genomic DNA cytosine
99 methylation (% 5-mC) and heat shock protein 70 expression (HSP70). The methylation of 5-
100 cytosine (% 5-mC) occurs when a methyl group is enzymatically attached to the 5' carbon of
101 cytosine's pyrimidine ring, resulting in a decrease in gene expression at the methylation site.
102 This reversible chemical modification elicits transient phenotypic changes required for stress
103 response, especially in plants (Meyer, 2008; Boyko and Kovalchuk, 2011; Arikan et al., 2018).
104 HSP70 chaperone protein is a well-characterized and universal stress responder that facilitates
105 refolding of denatured proteins, and thus restoration of vital metabolic activities (Walter and
106 Ron, 2011).

107 We compared global DNA methylation (% 5-mC) in response to acute heat stress in two
108 differentially impacted wild populations: the Bronx River estuary, New York and the Greenwich
109 Cove estuary, Connecticut, using HSP70 as an indicator of acute stress response. These estuaries
110 are located about 25 miles from each other and share similar biota. However, their diametric
111 histories make these estuaries uniquely suited for a comparative analysis of urban stress
112 response. The Bronx River estuary has a history of factory waste and sewage dumping
113 (Crimmens and Larson, 2006). Construction of the Bronx River Parkway led to degradation of
114 water quality and a decrease in species diversity (Rachlin, 2007). Ongoing industrialization
115 eventually led to benzo-a pyrene (Litten et al., 2007) and sewage contamination (Rachlin, 2007;
116 Wang and Pant, 2010) of the Bronx River estuary. Whereas, the suburban Greenwich Cove
117 estuary lies at a greater geographic distance from urbanized centers and thus experiences
118 comparatively less impact from urbanization and industrialization (Halem et al., 2014;
119 Ravaschiere et al., 2017). Previous studies of the Bronx River estuary document endocrine
120 disruption (Halem et al., 2014) and altered heat shock response (Ravaschiere et al., 2017) in the
121 native ecosystem provider (Galimay et. al., 2017) Atlantic ribbed mussel (*Geukensia demissa*).
122 In addition, our nine-year longitudinal study, demonstrates that dissolved oxygen (DO)
123 concentrations in the Bronx River estuary remain consistently lower than those recorded from
124 the Greenwich Cove estuary (Table 1). This is likely a result of ongoing urbanization proximal to
125 the Bronx River estuary (Slattery, 2018). Consistent and long-lasting differences in dissolved
126 oxygen levels from these two estuaries lend quantitative support to our claim that salt marsh
127 grasses native to the Bronx River estuary are coping with challenges that rarely arise for their
128 Greenwich Cove conspecifics.

129 Ultimately, the health of urban wetlands will depend on phenotypic adaptation of native
130 species to the pressures introduced by anthropogenic processes (Alberti, 2015). Results of this
131 study provide insight into the molecular mechanisms deployed by a dominant and foundational
132 ecosystem provider that is facing consistent and long-term environmental challenge. Our results
133 will help to inform future conservation and management decisions regarding critical urban plant
134 species that must persist regardless of increasing urbanization and environmental degradation.

135

136 **2- Materials and Methods**

137

138 *2.1 Water Collection and analyses*

139 Concentrations of dissolved oxygen (DO) were obtained using the Winkler titration method.
140 Oxygen was fixed on site using manganous sulfate, alkaline potassium iodide azide, and
141 sulfamic acid. Sodium thio- sulfate was used to titrate the water sample with starch indicator to a
142 clear endpoint.

143

144 *2.2 Collection of plant material and heat shock*

145 *Sporobolus alterniflorus* (formerly *Spartina alterniflora*) plants were removed from their native
146 environments in Harding Lagoon near Soundview Park, Bronx River estuary, NY (40°48'35.6"N,
147 73°34'18.0"W), and at Todd's Point estuary in Greenwich Cove, CT (41°0' 30.8088"N,
148 73°34'14.1709"W). Plants were taken along with their roots, soil, and native water at low tide.
149 Plants were transported to the laboratory, where each plant was transplanted into native soil in a
150 separate plastic cup with holes punched in the sides and base to allow for adequate aeration. All
151 plants were equilibrated at approximately 23°C in a large basin of native water with aeration, for
152 at least 24 hours. For the initial heat shock, four individual plants from each were incubated in a
153 stand-up incubator at 42 ± 2°C for 30 minutes in pre-heated native water, and the incubator was
154 left dark. Water was not aerated during treatment. Concurrently, four individual plants from each
155 site (8 total plants), were incubated in their respective water at room temperature (21 ± 1°C) for
156 30 minutes in the dark without aeration to serve as controls. After treatments, all plants were
157 moved to room temperature (both air and native water), ambient light, with no aeration to rest for
158 30 minutes. After resting, plants underwent a second treatment, heat shock or control, as
159 described above. Post second treatment, all plants were moved to room temperature air and
160 native water and allowed to rest overnight in ambient light with aeration. Grass samples were
161 collected over multiple years, at the same time of year, and on the same tides, and as such
162 represent appropriate biological replicates.

163

164 *2.3 DNA extraction*

165 DNA was isolated using the Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, #69104). Leaves were cut
166 with clean dissecting scissors from near the stem of each individual plant and wiped clean of any
167 dirt or debris. Plant matter (0.5 g) was taken for each treatment from each of four plants. Plant
168 matter was pooled and cut into small pieces with clean dissecting scissors and crushed with a

169 mortar and pestle and 400 μ L AP1 (lysis buffer) + and 4 μ L RNase. All contents were transferred
170 to a micro centrifuge tube. Pipetting up and down further agitated samples. Samples were
171 vortexed and incubated in a heat block at 65°C for 10 minutes, vortexing 2-3 times during
172 incubation. The remaining steps were performed according to the Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini
173 Kit. DNA concentrations and quality were assessed using Nano Drop Microvolume
174 Spectrophotometer (ThermoFisher Scientific). DNA samples were stored at -20°C in AE buffer
175 from Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini Kit.

176

177 *2.4 Global DNA methylation analysis*

178 Global genomic methylation levels were determined using 100 ng of DNA for each sample using
179 the MethylFlash Methylated DNA Quantification Kit Colorimetric (Epigentek, #P-1034). The
180 absolute methylation level was determined using a standard curve. The percentage of globally
181 methylated DNA was calculated using absolute quantification from the Epigentek Protocol.

182

183 *2.5 Protein extraction and concentration determination*

184 Leaves were cut with clean dissecting scissors from near the stem of each individual plant and
185 wiped clean of any dirt or debris. Plant tissue (500 mg) was pooled from four individuals from
186 each site/condition. Tissue was immediately placed into lysis bags provided in the P-PER Plant
187 Protein Extraction Kit (Thermo Scientific, #89803, Rockford, IL) and lysed according to
188 provided instructions with the following modification: the volume of working solution was
189 reduced to half of the recommended volume per sample. Protein solutions were stored at -20 °C
190 for no longer than 4 weeks. Concentrations of proteins in plant leaves were determined according
191 to the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit-Reducing Agent Compatible (Thermo Scientific, #23250,
192 Rockford, IL).

193

194 *2.6 Quantification of heat shock protein*

195 Specific heat shock protein (HSP70) protein levels were quantified by Western blot (SDS-
196 PAGE) analysis. Plant leaf protein samples (30-100 μ g) were run on a 10% Mini-PROTEAN®
197 TGX™ Precast Protein Gel (Bio-Rad) and transferred to PVDF membranes, Ponceau stained to
198 visualize protein transfer and evenly loaded across samples. Membranes were blocked for 1 hour
199 at room temperature overnight at 4 °C in Superblock (Thermo-scientific, #37535, Rockford, IL).

200 After blocking, blots were incubated in mouse HSP70 monoclonal antibody (1:1000, Enzo,
201 #AZI-SPA-820, Plymouth Meeting, PA). After washing 3x 10min in TBS + Tween20,
202 membranes were incubated in goat anti-mouse secondary antibody (1:10,000, Thermo-scientific,
203 #31430, Rockford, IL) for 1 hour at room temperature. Membranes were washed 3 x 10min in
204 TBS + Tween 20 before proteins were detected by Immuno-Star luminol-peroxide (Bio-Rad,
205 #170-5070). Bio-Rad Chemi-doc was used to visualize and quantify proteins with densitometry.
206

207 *2.7 DNA barcoding*

208 DNA isolated from 12 organisms from each site (described above) was used to PCR amplify the
209 universal plant gene *rbcL* using the following primers:

210 *rbcLa*F 5'- TGTAACGACGGCCAGTATGTCACCACAAACAGAGACTAAAGC-3'

211 *rbcLa* rev 5' CAGGAAACAGCTATGACGTAAAATCAAGTCCACCRCG-3'

212 Primers were a generous gift from the DNA Learning Center, Harlem, NY. PCR reactions were
213 performed using GE illustra PURETaq Ready-To-Go PCR beads, 25µL of PCR reaction, 2µL of
214 template DNA, and 11.5µL of primers. Reactions were run for 50 cycles: 30 seconds
215 denaturation at 94°C, 45 seconds annealing at 54°C, and 45 seconds extending 72°C using
216 Techne Genius Thermal Cycler. PCR amplicons were visualized on a 2% agarose gel using
217 pBR322/BstNI molecular weight standards to ensure that products were the predicted size. PCR
218 products were sent to Genewiz Inc. for sequencing. Sequences were aligned using Nucleotide
219 BLAST. Percent similarity was ascertained using the CLUSTAL W (Thompson et al., 1994; Ni
220 et al., 2012).

221

222 *2.8 Statistical analysis*

223 All water analysis data are presented as mean ± SD. $p < 0.0001$ for dissolved oxygen
224 concentrations, $p=0.0063$ for pH values. Error bars and error ranges display ± S.E.M. as in Table
225 1 and Figure 2 respectively. P-values were determined through unpaired t-tests for statistical
226 comparisons of two discrete populations as in Table 1. ANOVA tests for statistical comparisons
227 of more than two experimental groups and/or discrete populations were performed as in Figure 2.
228 P-values less than or equal to 0.05 are assumed to display statistical significance.

229

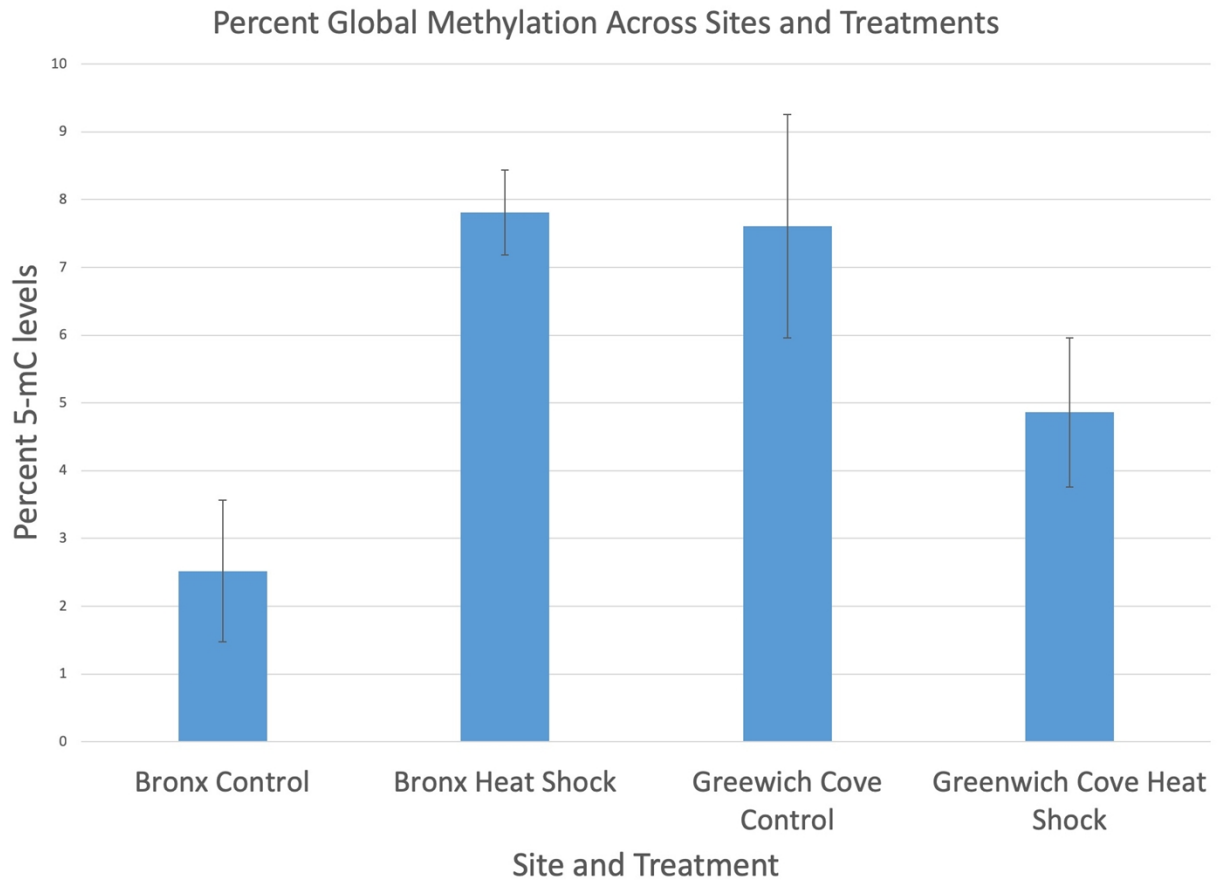
230 **3- Results**

231
232 *3.1 Water analyses*
233 Over a 9-year survey of the waters in the Bronx River estuary versus its less impacted
234 counterpart in Greenwich Cove estuary, we collected physicochemical data regarding pH,
235 temperature and dissolved oxygen levels. As shown in Table 1, the temperature and pH of the
236 two sites are comparable. Temperature and pH for Bronx River estuary are 21.93 ± 1.05 °C and
237 7.28 ± 0.05 , while Greenwich Cove estuary are 24.62 ± 0.807 °C and 7.89 ± 0.024 . However,
238 dissolved oxygen concentrations at the two sites consistently vary widely, with the Bronx River
239 estuary at 5.89 ± 0.30 mg/L and Greenwich Cove estuary at 9.69 ± 2.2 mg/L. This difference is
240 statistically significant ($p < 0.0001$). The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
241 (NOAA) National Estuarine Eutrophication Survey classifies water quality falling between 2 and
242 5 mg/L dissolved oxygen as stressed (Bricker et al., 1999). These data indicate that organisms
243 residing in the Bronx River estuary are exposed to chronic, low oxygen levels, a condition that
244 induces stress and metabolic dysfunction (Halem, et al., 2014; Ravaschiere et al., 2017).

Site	Dissolved O ₂ (mg/L)	Temperature (°C)	pH
Bronx River	$5.59 \pm .302$	21.93 ± 1.05	7.28 ± 0.05
Greenwich Cove	$9.10 \pm .492$	$24.62 \pm .807$	$7.89 \pm .024$

245
246 **Table 1. Estuarian water metrics.** Average levels of dissolved oxygen (DO) over a 9-year survey, water
247 temperature over a 7-year survey, and pH over a 5-year survey of the Bronx River estuary, NY and
248 Greenwich Cove, CT. All water collections occurred in June and July, around low tide. Data are presented
249 as mean \pm SD. $p < 0.0001$ for dissolved oxygen concentrations, $p=0.0063$ for pH values.
250

251 *3.2 Global methylation in response to stress for grasses from the differentially impacts sites*
252 As shown in Figure 2, acute heat stress, as monitored by heat shock protein levels, results in
253 inverse global DNA methylation profiles when comparing grasses collected from sites with
254 distinctly different levels of environmental challenge. Percent global DNA methylation is
255 increased by heat shock for grasses from the Bronx River estuary but is decreased by heat shock
256 for Greenwich Cove organisms. These results are statistically significant (p values < 0.05).
257 Interestingly, Bronx River grasses consistently demonstrate lower baseline global methylation
258 levels as compared with their Greenwich Cove conspecifics (in Figure 1, compare Bronx and
259 Greenwich controls).



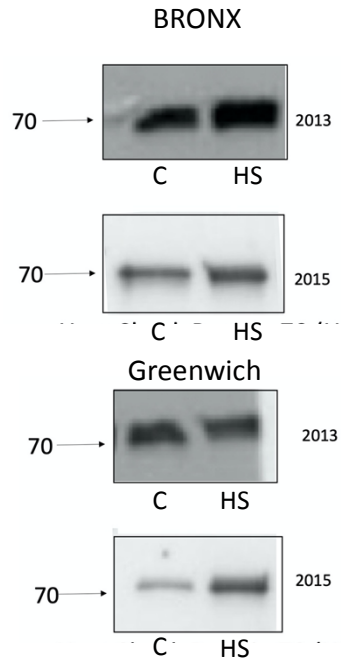
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261 **Figure 1:** Quantification of global DNA methylation over two years. Average percent 5-methylcytosine
262 (5-mC) of *S. alterniflorus* from the Bronx River and Greenwich Cove estuaries (n=4 for each group). The
263 two populations launch inverse methylation responses in acute heat stress. Bronx individuals increase
264 global methylation ($p < 0.05$), while Greenwich Cove individuals decrease global methylation, ($p < 0.05$).
265 Statistical results are based on ANOVA tests.

266

267 *3.3 HSP70 protein levels indicate acute stress*

268 Western blots analyses of heat shock immuno-reactive proteins bands (HSP70) across two years
269 (Figure 2) show that heat shock proteins were successfully elicited in controlled laboratory
270 settings in grasses from both sites.



271

272 **Figure 2:** HSP70 Western blot analyses, *S. alterniflorus* (2013 and 2015), collected from Bronx River
273 Estuary (top) and Greenwich Cove (bottom). Arrows point to 70 kDa HSP70 immunoreactive band. C=
274 control and HS = heat shocked.

275

276 3.4 Barcoding for species identification

277 Among *rbcL* chloroplast DNA gene sequences derived from individuals native to both the Bronx
278 River and Greenwich Cove, CLUSTAL W alignment revealed negligible heterogeneity (0 - 1%).

279 In addition, CLUSTAL W alignment also showed insignificant (0 - 1%) divergence in *rbcL*

280 sequence within both populations. These results indicate that all specimens used in this study

281 from both sites are members of the same species, either *Sporobolus alterniflorus* or *Sporobolus*

282 *maritimus*. Based on geographical data *Sporobolus maritimus* is not native to the Bronx or

283 Connecticut (USDA, plants database). Thus, we determined that *Sporobolus alterniflorus* is the

284 species we analyzed at both sites, Greenwich Cove and Bronx River estuaries.

285

286 4- Discussion

287 Rapid global urbanization and its impact on the environment are fundamentally changing

288 the course of evolution in organisms that represent our urban co-inhabitants (Hendry and

289 Kinnison, 1999; Alberti, 2015; Donihue and Lambert, 2015; Johnson and Munshi-South, 2017).
290 Plant life is critical to sustainable development of urban ecosystems (Barbier et al., 2011; Mexia
291 et al., 2018). Thus, an important challenge in ecology is to gain a fuller understanding of the
292 mechanisms by which plants cope with current unprecedented rates of environmental change.
293 Information presented here contributes to a growing field of research that documents key
294 molecular mechanisms by which plants adapt to the challenges of urbanization.

295 Studies that focus specifically on wild populations native to urban landscapes are
296 especially well suited for predicting and conserving life in urban ecosystems. To date, few
297 studies employ *in vivo* techniques to analyze the mechanisms of stress tolerance in wild
298 populations as they respond to urbanization in their native habitats (Thiebaut et al., 2019). For
299 this study, two distinct wild populations of estuarine grasses were chosen as the biological
300 models. *Sporobolus alterniflorus* was collected from two sites: the Bronx River, NY and
301 Greenwich Cove, CT. These estuaries are located along an urban to suburban gradient, that
302 features differential degrees of urbanization both quantitatively and historically (Rachlin et al.,
303 2007; Halem et al., 2014; Ravaschiere et al., 2017). Physio-chemical analyses of estuary water,
304 presented in Table 1, demonstrate that the Bronx River estuary consistently experiences long
305 term, comparatively low dissolved oxygen, and these results are statistically significant. Hypoxic
306 conditions in the Bronx River are associated with chronic stress response and metabolic
307 disruptions in a foundation molluscan species (Halem, et al., 2014; Ravaschiere et al., 2017).
308 Low dissolved oxygen primarily results from phosphorus and nitrogen run-off associated with
309 wastewater and urban run-off. In addition, gas exchange in *Sporobolus alterniflorus* relies on
310 direct access to dissolved oxygen from the aquatic environment via stems and roots that are often
311 tidally submerged. These submerged parts of the plant, exposed to chronically low dissolved
312 oxygen, must fulfill respiratory needs for the entire plant (Teal and Kanwisher, 1966). Thus, a
313 low dissolved oxygen concentration directly inhibits vital metabolic processes and serves as a
314 predictable indicator for urbanization and contamination.

315 Using estuarine grasses, from two distinct populations as described above, we simulated
316 an abiotic stressor (heat stress) that is commonly associated with urbanization and climate
317 change (Schlesinger et al., 2008; Fossog et al., 2013; Simon et al., 2016; Duarte et al., 2017). We
318 did this by experimentally delivering a controlled heat shock, and monitoring stress response via
319 immunochemical detection of the reliable stress indicator, heat shock protein 70 (HSP70). After

320 heat shock was applied and induction of heat shock protein was confirmed by Western Blot
321 analyses, we quantified changing levels of % 5-mC DNA methylation. This allowed us to
322 monitor epigenetic modification as a response to acute stress in two differentially impacted plant
323 populations. Figure 1 demonstrates that the Bronx River and Greenwich Cove grasses exhibited
324 statistically different inverse DNA methylation profiles in response to the controlled application
325 of acute heat stress. Western Blot analyses (Figure 2) confirm heat stress as indicated by the
326 predicted and significant increases in heat shock protein (molecular weight 70 kD), and this
327 response was documented across two years.

328 Results of our global DNA methylation analyses suggest that the two distinct populations
329 of grasses counter the same heat stress by eliciting DNA methylation profiles that differ
330 fundamentally and in biologically relevant ways. Our results show that grasses from the Bronx
331 River estuary counter an acute stress via DNA hyper-methylation. Further studies are necessary
332 to confirm our speculation that hyper-methylation may be an essential metabolic trade-off that
333 globally shuts down gene expression, sparing only the basic housekeeping functions that are
334 necessary for survival during acute stress. Whereas, for grasses native to the less impacted
335 Greenwich Cove, application of acute stress elicits a reverse pattern, a hypo-methylation of the
336 genome that may facilitate expression of those loci required for a successful acute stress
337 response. In support of our findings, multiple recent studies demonstrate that individual plant
338 populations counter similar environmental stressors in different ways, and this may be controlled
339 at the epigenetic level (Saez- Laguna et al., 2014; Thiebaut et al., 2019; Rehman and Tanti,
340 2020).

341 The inverse epigenetic profiling that we report here between Bronx and Greenwich Cove
342 grasses do not result from speciation. Our barcoding results demonstrate that grasses collected
343 from these two geographically distinct populations have negligible differences in chloroplast
344 *rbcL* gene sequence (Kress and Erikson, 2007). Very low rate of sequence divergence (1% or
345 less) between individuals from the Bronx River and Greenwich Cove estuaries indicates that
346 these individuals belong to the same species and are thus genetically identical. Differential DNA
347 methylation within a species is now recognized as a critical indicator of short-term ecological
348 experience (Rey et al., 2020). This notion of “ecological populations” will become essential in
349 conservation biology with the recognition that epigenetics offers a key link between
350 environmental change and phenotypic plasticity in wild populations (Rey et al., 2020).

351 Enhanced tolerance to stress could provide an evolutionary advantage for Bronx River
352 grasses when confronted with the unpredictable challenges inherent to their native habitat. A
353 phenomenon called defense priming conditions plants to better tolerate abiotic stressors, and this
354 constitutes an important evolutionary benefit (Matinez-Medina et al., 2011; Crisp et al., 2016).
355 This switch-like and reversible process offers sufficient genomic flexibility for sessile organisms,
356 like plants, to respond rapidly to fluctuating environmental challenges (Meyer, 2008; Boyko and
357 Kovalchuk, 2011; Arikan et al., 2018). Evidence suggests that defense priming improves fitness
358 (Conrath et al., 2006; Matinez-Medina et al., 2011), and is regulated by epigenetic modification
359 (Luna et al., 2012). In defense priming, a “stimulus” targets individual loci such that their
360 methylation states become altered. This affects future accessibility of transcriptional machinery
361 and gene expression eliciting a rapid and sustained response upon a later “triggering stimulus”.
362 We hypothesize that long term hypoxia, as well as potential additional environmental challenges
363 at the urbanized Bronx River estuary, constitute the priming “stimulus” for this particular
364 population of grasses. Chromatin restructuring, specifically changes to DNA methylation
365 patterns, is a mechanism by which plants engage in defense priming (Conrath et al., 2015;
366 Savvides et al., 2016; Pastor et al., 2013), and here we demonstrate that two distinct plant
367 populations deploy inverse patterns of global DNA methylation when encountering the same
368 acute stressor. These results suggest that grasses from the Bronx River Estuary may be engaged
369 in defense priming. Our research contributes to rapidly growing body of evidence demonstrating
370 that successful strategies for coping with rapid environmental change do not rely solely on
371 random heritable changes in DNA sequence. For sessile species such as plants, critical
372 evolutionary adaptations are propelled by epigenetic change (Youngson et al., 2008; Holeski et
373 al., 2012; Robertson et al., 2017; Thiebaut et al., 2019; Whittle et al., 2019; Rey et al., 2020).

374 In conclusion, current predictions regarding species tolerance to urbanization and climate
375 change are based on the assumption that all members of a species elicit the same, or similar
376 responses to an environmental stressor (Sih et al., 2011). However, data presented here
377 corroborate growing evidence suggesting that populations separated geographically or by
378 differential stressors indeed demonstrate key distinct coping mechanisms (Fossog et al., 2013;
379 Halem et al., 2014; Ravaschiere et al., 2017; De Almeida Duarte et al., 2017). In other words,
380 members of the same species may utilize diverging mechanisms in order to continue to thrive in
381 the face of rapid and challenging environmental stressors. In addition, results presented here

382 suggest that stress priming by epigenetic modification may enhance fitness in grasses native to
383 the heavily impacted Bronx River estuary. These complex molecular mechanisms of biological
384 adaptation deserve our attention so that we may better understand the ways in which particular
385 populations develop unique adaptive responses that are specifically suited to unique ecological
386 challenges.

387 As molecular ecologists and evolutionary biologists, we must accept the notion that
388 environmentally induced adaptation is a key feature to sustaining resilience and biodiversity in
389 rapidly expanding urban areas. As conservationists and urban planners, we must gain better
390 understandings of the unique epigenetic mechanisms by which foundational, ecological service
391 providers adapt and evolve to tolerate the pressures of urbanization. Future studies are required
392 in order to identify genes that are differentially methylated in response to stress in *Sporobolus*
393 *alterniflorus*, a species that is vital to urban sustainability. These studies await the full sequence
394 analysis and annotation of the *Sporobolus alterniflorus* genome. In addition, future studies
395 should be initiated to more fully understand the intricacies of adaptation in populations that
396 remain chronically exposed to low oxygen and other stressors associated with urbanization.
397

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