



## Review

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# Dynamic DNA methylation landscapes in plants from the whole genome aspect: characteristics and future perspectives

Yurong HU, Wanmu ZHOU, Hui LU, Jiayan WU, Qinjie CHU✉

*Institute of Crop Science, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310058, China*

**Abstract:** DNA methylation, an important epigenetic modification, has been confirmed to act as an important regulator of gene expression and genome stability in plants. This review aimed to analyze DNA methylation landscapes in plants by integrating genome-wide DNA methylation data from 105 plant species, among which 53 species possess quantitative methylation levels for downstream analyses. We found that the levels of DNA methylation in plants are both interspecific and tissue-specific. Environmental stresses and evolutionary processes such as polyploidization, domestication and de-domestication can influence DNA methylation levels at the whole-genome level and single-gene level, respectively. Finally, we reviewed functional genes related to DNA methylation changes and highlighted the recent technological advances in multi-omics (e.g., scBS-seq, transcriptome, 3D chromatin architecture) for an improved interpretation of DNA methylation dynamics among plants and for environmental adaptation.

**Key words:** DNA methylation; Whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS); Tissue specificity; Stress treatment; Evolution

## 1 Introduction

DNA methylation, as the most extensively studied epigenetic modification in plants, dynamically regulates gene expression and genome stability by silencing transposable elements and stabilizing chromosomal structure (Ruden et al., 2003; Duan et al., 2018; Yung et al., 2024). Following DNA replication, methylation is established or maintained by DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs) that move a methyl group from S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) to cytosine residues, primarily forming 5-methylcytosine (5-mC) but also, to a lesser extent, N<sup>6</sup>-methyladenine (N<sup>6</sup>-mA) and 7-methylguanine (7-mG) (Moore et al., 2013). 5-mC occurs in three sequence contexts—CG, CHG and CHH (where H = A, T or C)—each governed by a distinct enzymatic machinery in plants. Methyltransferase 1 (MET1) is mainly responsible for maintaining CG methylation in the coding regions of genes. The maintenance of CHG methylation in *Arabidopsis* is catalyzed mainly by the DNA methyltransferases CMT3 (Chromomethylase3) and CMT2 (Lindroth et al., 2001; Stroud et al., 2014), whereas CHH methylation is maintained through two major pathways: the RNA-directed DNA methylation (RdDM) pathway mediated by domains rearranged methyltransferase 2 (DRM2) and a CMT2-dependent pathway involving histone H3K9 methylation in heterochromatin (Chan et al., 2005; Law and Jacobsen, 2010; Zhang et al., 2018b). The spatiotemporal distribution of 5-mC arises from a dynamic equilibrium among de novo methylation, maintenance methylation, and active demethylation (Tan et al., 2016), thereby precisely regulating

✉ Qinjie CHU, [qinjiechu@zju.edu.cn](mailto:qinjiechu@zju.edu.cn)

Qinjie CHU, <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1234-3396>

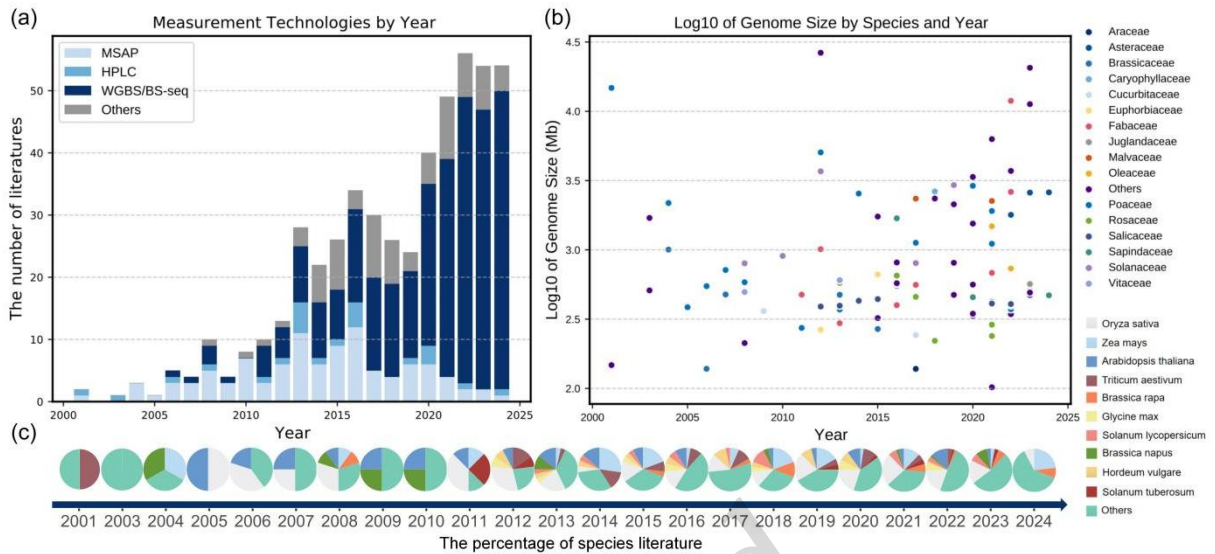
Yurong HU, <https://orcid.org/0009-0005-7948-6393>

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developmental transitions, environmental stress responses, and genome integrity (Ibarra et al., 2012; He et al., 2022).

The emergence of whole-genome DNA methylation profiling technologies has transformed plant epigenetics research. In 2006, *Arabidopsis thaliana* became the first plant species to be subjected to comprehensive genome-wide methylation analysis, revealing its methylome landscape (Zhang et al., 2006). This pioneering study of *A. thaliana* demonstrated that gene body methylation correlates with constitutively high expression, whereas promoter methylation associates with tissue-specific transcriptional repression, substantially advancing our understanding of the global coordination of methylation and gene regulation (Zhang et al., 2006). Over the past two decades, several methods have been derived for genome-wide DNA methylation mapping, including methylation sensitive amplification polymorphism (MSAP) (Francischini et al., 2017), high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Chang et al., 2021), whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) (Lister et al., 2009), methylated DNA immunoprecipitation sequencing (MeDIP-seq) (Ben Maamar et al., 2021), and reduced representation bisulfite sequencing (RRBS) (Meissner et al., 2005). Early approaches such as MSAP and HPLC provided initial insights into locus-specific or global methylation levels (Francischini, et al., 2017; Chang, et al., 2021). Subsequently, WGBS and MeDIP-seq enabled genome-scale profiling by converting unmethylated cytosine to uracil (Barros-Silva et al., 2018) and the specific enrichment of the 5'-methylcytosine antibody (Li et al., 2015), respectively. WGBS, currently regarded as the gold standard, achieves single-nucleotide resolution through bisulfite-mediated conversion of unmethylated cytosines to uracil (Saini et al., 2023). RRBS targets CpG-rich regions by MspI digestion (recognizing the CCGG motif) for cost-effective analysis (Nakabayashi et al., 2023). Nevertheless, each technique has their inherent limitations: MSAP and HPLC offer only low-resolution or global estimates, lacking base-resolution and locus specificity (Lisanti et al., 2013); WGBS is expensive and prone to bisulfite-induced artifacts and GC bias (Olova et al., 2018); MeDIP-seq suffers from antibody affinity bias and lower resolution (Weber et al., 2005); whereas RRBS is cost-effective but restricted to CpG-rich regions, leading to incomplete genome coverage (Gu et al., 2011).

In 2024, a systematic review of 456 published studies revealed that genome-wide methylome sequencing had been performed in 105 plant species (Fig. S1a, Table S1), encompassing major taxonomic groups such as grasses (17 species, 16.2%), legumes (10 species, 9.5%), and crucifers (6 species, 5.7%). Although early efforts focused predominantly on model species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* and *Oryza sativa*, recent years have seen a marked rise in the methylome profiling of non-model and wild plants (Fig. 1a). A bibliometric analysis of publications from 2000 to 2024 further indicates that research on plant DNA methylation has primarily addressed physiological processes (e.g., flowering and seed development) and abiotic/biotic stress responses (e.g., drought, salinity, and pathogen defence), highlighting their central role in plant adaptation and development (Fig. S1b). Methodologically, the field has progressed from locus-specific or low-resolution techniques (e.g., MSAP and HPLC) to high-resolution, epigenome-wide approaches, with WGBS now routinely applied to genomes ranging from 102 Mb (*Utricularia gibba*) to 14.4 Gb (*Triticum aestivum*) (Figs. 1a and 1b). This expansion has been facilitated by advances in sequencing technologies and computational epigenomics, enabling the precise, base-resolution quantification of DNA methylation even in complex, gigabase-scale plant genomes.



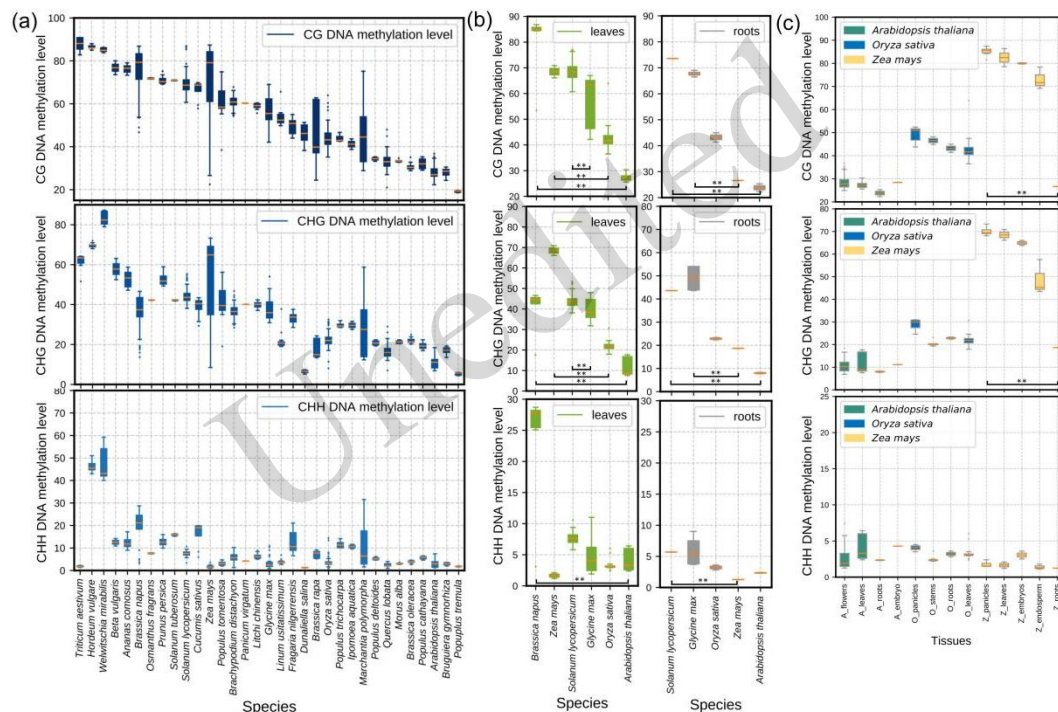
**Fig. 1 Current status of DNA methylation research in plant species**

(a) Stacked graph showing the number of papers published using different DNA methylation sequencing technologies between 2001 and 2024. The x-axis tabulates the year and the y-axis indicates the number of documents. (b) Scatterplot showing the species and their genome sizes for which genome-wide DNA methylation studies were first performed between 2001 and 2024. Colors are assigned according to the family to which the species belongs. The x-axis indicates the year and the y-axis indicates genome size (taken as  $\log_{10}$  in Mb). (c) Sector diagram showing the distribution of the major species in which DNA methylation studies were carried out during 2001-2024. MSAP, methylation sensitive amplification polymorphism; HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography; WGBS/BS-seq, whole-genome bisulfite sequencing/bisulfite sequencing.

## 2 Interspecific divergence and tissue specificity of DNA methylation landscapes across plant species

DNA methylation exhibits marked interspecific variation across plant genomes, with methylation levels in higher-order plants ranging from 4.16% to 30% globally (Leutwiler et al., 1984). This variation is strongly context-dependent: in 96% of the 53 species with quantitative whole-genome methylation data, methylation follows the order  $mCG > mCHG > mCHH$ , with the sole exception being *Mikania micrantha* ( $mCG > mCHH > mCHG$ , Table S2). Across species, methylation levels range from 9.41% to 90.60%, 3.37% to 83.15%, and 0.97% to 47.62%, respectively. *Lactuca sativa* (Asteraceae) and *Welwitschia mirabilis* (Welwitschiaceae) display the highest CG and non-CG (CHG/CHH) methylation levels, respectively, whereas *Spirodela polyrhiza* (Araceae) shows the lowest DNA methylation values in all three contexts (Fig. S2). Among the 53 species surveyed, members of the Poaceae family exceed 50% methylation in CG and CHG contexts more frequently than species from other families. Within Poaceae, hexaploid bread wheat (*T. aestivum*;  $2n=6x=42$ , AABBDD, ~14.5 Gb) exhibits exceptionally high CG methylation (Fig. 2a), likely due to its large, repeat-rich genome ( $2n=6x=42$ , AABBDD, with a genome size of about 14.5 Gb) and its abundance of repetitive sequences, which make up 85% of the genome (Walkowiak et al., 2020). Notably, CHG methylation is sharply reduced in *Triticum durum* (tetraploid wheat, AABB) compared to *T. aestivum* (hexaploid wheat, AABBDD) (Yuan et al., 2020). However, even diploid grass progenitors (*Triticum monococcum*, *Triticum urartu*) and other diploid grasses (*O. sativa*, *Sorghum bicolor*) already show substantially higher methylation than most dicots (Niederhuth et al., 2016). This pattern is largely attributable to the massive expansion of Gypsy and Copia retrotransposons in grass genomes and the sustained activity of CMT3- and RdDM-dependent methylation pathways, rather than ploidy alone (Takuno et al., 2016). In wheat, polyploidisation appears to amplify this pre-existing tendency, possibly through genome-shock responses.

In terms of tissue specificity, DNA methylation in plants displays striking differences, with considerable variation both within and between species. Comparative analyses of six plants (*O. sativa*, *Zea mays*, *A. thaliana*, *Brassica napus*, *Glycine max*, and *Solanum lycopersicum*) revealed that *S. lycopersicum* and *B. napus* had the highest CG/CHH methylation values in root and leaf tissues, respectively, while *A. thaliana* presented the lowest in both tissues (Fig. 2b). As for CHG methylation, *G. max* displayed the highest levels in roots and *Z. mays* in leaves. Intraspecific comparisons further underscored the developmental plasticity of DNA methylation across tissues (Fig. 2c). For instance, compared with other tissues, panicles retained high CG / CHG methylation patterns in both *O. sativa* and *Z. mays*. The DNA methylation level of maize roots was significantly lower than that of other tissues. Interestingly, flower tissues of *A. thaliana* also displayed the highest CG methylation values, indicating the conservation of a high DNA methylation level of plant reproductive tissues compared with vegetative tissues.



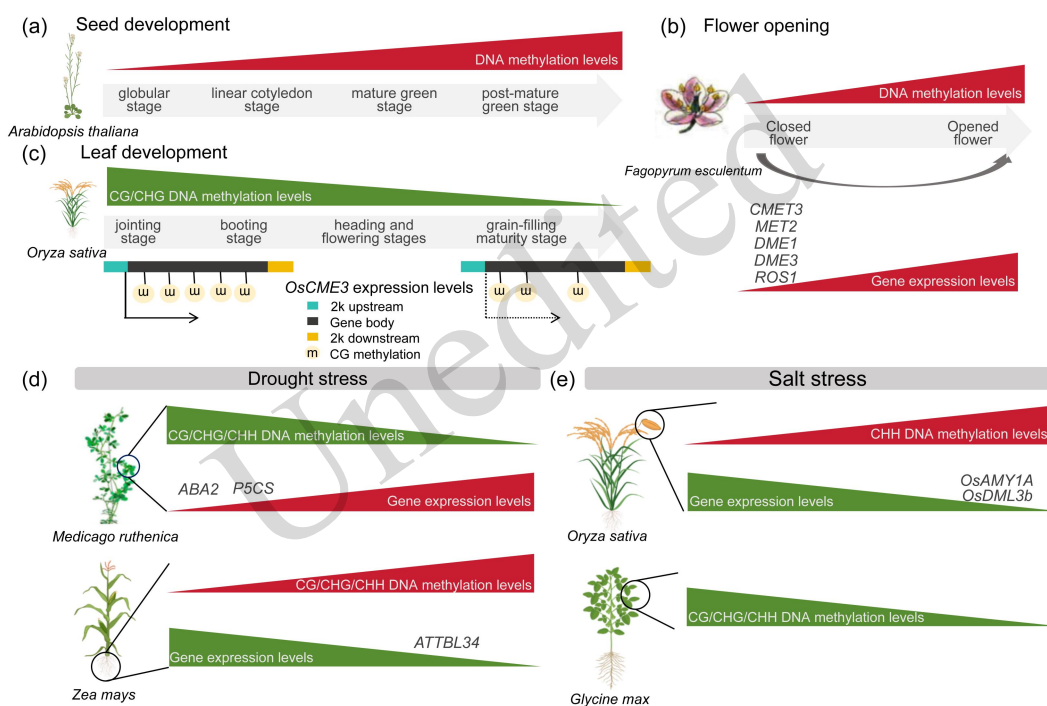
**Fig. 2 Distribution of DNA methylation levels in plant species from multiple samples**

(a) Distribution of DNA methylation values in 33 plant species based on multiple samples. The x-axis indicates the species name and the y-axis indicates the genome-wide CG/CHG/CHH DNA methylation level of that species. (b) Differences in CG/CHG/CHH DNA methylation levels in the roots of *S. lycopersicum*, *G. max*, *O. sativa*, *Z. mays*, and *A. thaliana*, and leaves of *B. napus*, *Z. mays*, *S. lycopersicum*, *G. max*, *O. sativa*, and *A. thaliana*. The x-axis denotes the name of the species and the y-axis denotes the corresponding CG/CHG/CHH DNA methylation levels. Significant differences are indicated by \*\* ( $P < 0.01$ , Student's t-test). (c) Differences in CG/CHG/CHH DNA methylation levels in different tissues of *A. thaliana*, *O. sativa*, and *Z. mays*. Tissues: flower, leaf, root, stem, embryo, endosperm, and spike. The x-axis denotes the name of the tissue and the y-axis denotes the CG/CHG/CHH DNA methylation level.

### 3 Developmental dynamics of DNA methylation

DNA methylation serves as a master regulatory switch coordinating plant developmental transitions. For example, during *A. thaliana* seed development (Fig. 3a), DNA methylation levels of seeds increase from the globular stage to the mature green stage (Kawakatsu et al., 2017). For the flower opening of *Fagopyrum*

*esculentum*, the DNA methylation of nectaries of open flowers exhibit higher levels than that of closed flowers (Sala-Cholewa et al., 2024), and expression values of genes associated with DNA methylation (*MET1*, *MET2*, *CMET3*) and demethylation (*DME1*, *DME3*, *ROS1*) are downregulated (Fig. 3b). The genomic DNA methylation levels of moso bamboo increase with physiological age (Yuan et al., 2014). In addition, *Populus alba* exhibits an overall trend toward hypermethylation during spring growth and hypomethylation during winter hibernation during spring growth and winter hibernation, respectively (Guarino et al., 2015). However, the DNA methylation levels also present a strong spectrum of fluctuations throughout the seed development of *O. sativa*, with the highest values observed at 6 DAP in *O. sativa ssp. indica* and at 2 DAP in *O. sativa ssp. japonica* (Xing et al., 2015). In contrast, the CG methylation of leaves decreases globally during the four stages of *O. sativa* development (Fig. 3c), with the reduction of CG methylation in the gene body of *OsCME3*, which plays a crucial role in leaf horn development (Zhou et al., 2024).



**Fig. 3 Dynamics of DNA methylation during plant development and under abiotic stress**

(a) Dynamics of DNA methylation levels during *A. thaliana* seed development. (b) Dynamics of DNA methylation levels in *F. esculentum* flowers (nectaries) from closed to developed state. (c) Dynamics of DNA methylation in leaves during four periods of *O. sativa* development, from the jointing stage, to the booting stage, to the heading and flowering stages to the grain-filling maturity stage. (d) DNA methylation changes of drought-resistant *Z. mays* and *Medicago ruthenica* under drought stress. (e) DNA methylation changes of salt-sensitive *O. sativa* IR29 and *G. max* C08 under salt stress.

#### 4 DNA methylation patterns in plants under biotic and abiotic stresses

The epigenetic regulation of plants in the face of adverse stresses is primarily mediated by biotic and abiotic stresses (Boyko and Kovalchuk, 2011). Plants respond to stress by silencing or activating stress-responsive genes through DNA methylation and demethylation, thereby adapting to harsh environments (Deleris et al., 2016). To this end, different species exhibit distinct DNA methylation dynamics in response to stress treatments (Table 1).

**Table 1 Whole-genome and gene changes of DNA methylation in plants responding to biotic and abiotic stresses**

Stress	Whole-genome changes		Gene changes	
	Increased	Decreased	Increased	Decreased
Biotic	Virus infection	tobacco (Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2024)	/	/
	Drought	<i>Populus trichocarpa</i> (leaf) (Liang <i>et al.</i> , 2014) <i>Sesamum indicum</i> (leaf) (Feng <i>et al.</i> , 2010) <i>Chloris virgata</i> (root) (Cao <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	/	drought resistance genes ( <i>O. sativa</i> ) (Xu <i>et al.</i> , 2021)
	Salt	<i>Medicago sativa</i> (Rosellini <i>et al.</i> , 2016) <i>O. sativa</i> (leaf, CHH) (Li and Guo, 2023)	<i>Solanum tuberosum</i> (Ai <i>et al.</i> , 2021) <i>G. max</i> (seedling) (Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2019)	/
Abiotic	Low-temperature	/	<i>Cucumis sativus</i> (leaf) (Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2023b)	/
	Heavy metal	<i>B. napus</i> (Filek <i>et al.</i> , 2008) <i>Raphanus sativus</i> (Yang <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	/	/
		/	<i>Trifolium repens</i> (Ding <i>et al.</i> , 2014) <i>Cannabis sativa</i> (Ding, <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	/

For example, under biotic stress, tobacco mosaic virus infection increases genomic DNA methylation levels in *Nicotiana tabacum* while reducing methylation in leucine-rich repeat sequences associated with disease resistance (Wang *et al.*, 2024). Under abiotic stress, drought elevates DNA methylation levels in *Populus trichocarpa* (Liang, *et al.*, 2014) and *Sesamum indicum* (Feng, *et al.*, 2010), as well as in drought-resistance genes of *O. sativa* (Xu, *et al.*, 2021). Meanwhile, salt stress induces a decrease in the total level of DNA methylation in *S. tuberosum* (Ai, *et al.*, 2021) and an increase in the total level of DNA methylation in *M. sativa* (Al-Lawati *et al.*, 2016), where the DNA methylase *OsDML3b* is significantly downregulated under salt stress and the level of CHH methylation is significantly elevated in rice IR29 (Li and Guo, 2023). Salt stress also triggers a decrease in DNA methyltransferase activity in the leaves of *G. max* seedlings (Chen, *et al.*, 2019), resulting in genome-wide hypomethylation that may enhance abscisic acid-dependent stress responses through the key transcription factors ABA2 and P5CS (Yung, *et al.*, 2024). Low-temperature stress progressively reduces DNA methylation levels in *C. sativus* leaves (Kumar *et al.*, 2016; Wang, *et al.*, 2023b). Heavy metal stress induces different trends in altering DNA methylation levels in plants (Giannelli *et al.*, 2024), where Cd<sup>2+</sup> and Cr<sup>6+</sup> treatments lead to an increase in genomic DNA methylation levels in *B. napus* (Filek, *et al.*, 2008) and *R. sativus* (Yang, *et al.*, 2007) but lead to a decrease in genomic DNA methylation levels in *T. repens* and *C. sativa*. While the changes in the methylation levels of relevant genes in *Z. mays* after Pb<sup>2+</sup> treatment were both high and low (Ding, *et al.*, 2014), there was also a dose effect in the alteration of genomic DNA methylation levels in *O. sativa* and *T. aestivum* treated with different concentrations of Cu<sup>2+</sup>, Cd<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup> (Kong *et al.*, 2020). In addition, plants may experience long-term methylation changes after abiotic stress (Chen *et al.*, 2022a), and these

changes can be “remembered” during the subsequent growth cycle and affect the plant's response to subsequent stresses (Quadrana and Colot, 2016).

## 5 Changes in DNA methylation levels during plant evolution

Over longer evolutionary timescales, species may undergo significant changes in genome-wide methylation levels (Wambui Mbichi et al., 2020). These changes are associated with several factors, including genome size, structural complexity and the number of transposons and repetitive sequences (Kenchanmane Raju et al., 2023).

DNA methylation serves as an important regulatory mechanism during plant evolution, including processes such as domestication and de-domestication, primarily via modulating the activity of transposons and repetitive sequences (Zhong, 2016). Gene duplication is a major source of evolutionary novelty, and DNA methylation can influence the fate of duplicated (paralogous) genes by affecting their expression (Kenchanmane Raju, et al., 2023). Studies exploring the relationship between DNA methylation and parallel evolution have revealed that methylation patterns differ according to repeat type, repeat age, sequence divergence, and gene expression levels (Feil and Berger, 2007).

It was found that, compared to diploid wheat *A. tauschii* (DD) and natural tetraploid wheat (NTW, AABB), the CG/CHG/CHH DNA methylation levels in the endosperm of natural hexaploid wheat (NHW, AABBDD) were increased (Yuan, et al., 2020). In hexaploid wheat, regions with high densities of differentially methylated regions (DMRs) were associated with elevated H3K9me2 levels and reduced expression of histone variant genes. These findings suggest synergistic epigenetic modifications following polyploidization, a pattern also observed during cotton polyploidization (Song et al., 2017). For polyploids, it was also found that the sub-genome dominant/balanced phenomenon of DNA methylation level was inherited from ancestors in *Echinochloa* species (Walkowiak, et al., 2020), wheat and cotton (Chu et al., 2025). On the other hand, the rate of change in DNA methylation exceeds that of neutral sequence substitutions during the evolution of cotton (Song, et al., 2017). It was also found that, during the evolution of peanut from diploid to tetraploid, CHG-type DNA methylation may be an important epigenetic modification mechanism for the differential expression of homologous genes (Li et al., 2023). During the domestication of rice from wild to cultivated rice, CG DNA methylation levels decreased significantly (Cao et al., 2023), which also occurred in the domestication process of *Echinochloa* species (Chu, et al., 2025). Notably, DNA methylation changes in different genomic regions by affecting chromatin accessibility, histone modification, transcription factor binding, and chromatin loop formation during the two opposite stages of rice domestication and de-domestication (Cao, et al., 2023). In addition, a study compared the level of methylation in three different sequence contexts (CG, CHG, and CHH) in the promoter region among haploid (1X), diploid (2X), and triploid (3X) seedlings, and found that relative levels of DNA methylation across different ploidy levels was in the order of diploid > triploid > haploid (Zhang et al., 2018a). The observed methylation changes may reflect regulatory responses to environmental conditions, potentially influencing gene expression and epigenetic memory, while their roles in adaptive evolution remain to be determined.

Beyond evolutionary patterns, DNA methylation is a highly dynamic process that plays a critical role in regulating gene expression in response to developmental and environmental cues. Hypermethylation in promoter regions is generally associated with transcriptional repression, whereas gene-body methylation (gbM) in actively transcribed genes is often positively correlated with expression levels, potentially by suppressing cryptic transcription or enhancing elongation efficiency (Bewick and Schmitz, 2017; Luo et al., 2018). Numerous studies have demonstrated that developmental transitions (e.g., seed germination, flowering) and abiotic/biotic stresses trigger the rapid reprogramming of methylation patterns that directly modulate stress-responsive or developmental genes. For instance, drought, salinity and cold stress frequently induce the hypermethylation of promoter regions in stress-responsive genes (e.g., RD29A, COR15A) leading to their

transcriptional repression under normal conditions, whereas demethylation under stress enables rapid activation (Wibowo et al., 2016). Conversely, loss of methylation in transposable elements near genes may increase expression variation or generate epialleles that affect phenotypic plasticity. Active DNA demethylation mediated by ROS1/DML family enzymes has also been shown to be essential for resetting methylation states and maintaining the proper expression of key developmental regulators (Gong et al., 2002; Lei et al., 2014).

## 6 Functional genes are influenced by DNA methylation

The altered methylation of promoter regions, exon regions, or gene body regions of functional genes in plants usually affects gene expression and produces specific phenotypes (Table 2).

**Table 2 DNA methylation-related functional genes in *A. thaliana* and *O. sativa***

Species	Gene name	Description
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RPT2a</i>	RPT2a promotes DNA METHYLTRANSFERASE1 degradation leading to DNA hypomethylation upstream of TFL1 (Yao et al., 2024)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>FVE, FY, FLD, PEP, HDA5, FLC, PRP39-1</i>	FY, PEP, PRP39-1, FVE, FLD, FLC, and HDA5 are involved in RNA processing, transcription, post-transcription, and chromatin modification, and the expression levels are negatively correlated with CG methylation levels (Xie et al., 2024)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>AtALKBH1A</i>	ALKBH1 is a DNA 6ma demethylase that effectively eliminates DNA 6ma methylation (Li et al., 2024)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>AGDP3</i>	AGDP3 is a cytokine required to prevent gene silencing and DNA hypermethylation (Zhou et al., 2022)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>ACD6, ACO3, GSTF14</i>	Abiotic stresses, including water deficit, cold and salt stress, induce demethylation of ACD6, ACO3 and GSTF14 promoter repeat sequences (Yang et al., 2022)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>MEM1</i>	Upregulation of a group of DNA methylation pathway genes in mem1 mutants leads to elevated global DNA methylation levels (Wang et al., 2022b)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>MET1</i>	MET1 inactivation is able to substantially reduce CG methylation (Srikant et al., 2022)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>BPM1</i>	Overexpression of BPM1 leads to elevated methylation levels of two RdDM-regulated gene promoters, FWA and CML41, and CHH methylation levels (Jagić et al., 2022)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RLL5 -1</i>	RLL5, an f-box-containing protein, is involved in preventing transgene silencing and maintaining global DNA methylation in <i>A. thaliana</i> (Hou et al., 2022)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>IDM3</i>	IDM3 is involved in the ROS1-mediated DNA demethylation pathway (Miao et al., 2021)



<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>ROS1</i>	ROS1-directed demethylation of the MG1 and RLP43 kinetochores affects both flagellin responsiveness and basal resistance (Halter et al., 2021)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>FWA</i>	Cytosine methylation of the FWA promoter is part of a regulatory system that regulates callus regenerative capacity and direct in vitro shoot regeneration (Dai et al., 2021)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>CFK1</i>	CFK1-mediated degradation of DRM2 protein leads to drm2-like DNA hypomethylation (Chen et al., 2021)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>TCX5</i>	TCX5 is a transcriptional repressor of genes required to maintain DNA methylation (Ning et al., 2020)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>Block C</i>	Inverted repeats of Block C induce localized DNA methylation and heterochromatin formation, leading to downregulation of FT in the induced photoperiod (Zicola et al., 2019)
<i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>AtICE1</i>	The expression levels of all members of the CBF pathway except the AtCBF2 gene were negatively correlated with the methylation level of the AtICE1 gene (Xie et al., 2019)
<i>O. sativa</i>	<i>OsAGO2</i>	OsAGO2 binds to 24-nt microRNA and to the promoter region of OsNAC300, leading to DNA methylation (Zheng et al., 2024)
<i>O. sativa</i>	<i>OsMYBX9</i>	The methylation levels of the promoter region (CHG) and exon region (CHH) of the negatively regulated gene OsMYBX9 negatively regulate its expression (Wang et al., 2023a)
<i>O. sativa</i>	<i>OsROS1a</i>	The rice genome contains four ROS1 paralogous genes (OsROS1a, OsROS1b, OsROS1c, and OsROS1d) that mediate DNA demethylation, and in the osros1a mutant, the CG and CHG methylation of the promoter of the OsPKS2 gene was significantly increased (Xu et al., 2022)
<i>O. sativa</i>	<i>OsRDR2</i>	Mutations in OsRDR2 eliminated the accumulation of 24-nt small interfering rna, thereby greatly reducing genome-wide CHH (H = A, C, or T) methylation (Wang et al., 2022a)
<i>O. sativa</i>	<i>NLR</i>	The rice NLR gene was severely methylated at the CG locus by 9311 and P427 at room and low temperatures (Chen et al., 2022b)
<i>O. sativa</i>	<i>IPA1</i>	Methylation of IPA1 promoter repeat sequences negatively regulates IPA1 expression at the transcriptional level (Zhang et al., 2017)
<i>O. sativa</i>	<i>MITE #1</i>	mit# 1 deletion leads to down-regulation of the D14 gene and increased tillering in rice (Arite et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2020)

RPT2a, REGULATORY PARTICLE AAA-ATPASE 2a; TFL1, TERMINAL FLOWER1; FY, FLOWERING LOCUS Y; PEP, PEPPER; PRP, 39-1PRE-MRNA PROCESSING PROTEIN 39-1; FVE, FLOWERING LOCUS VE; FLD, FLOWERING LOCUS D; FLC, FLOWERING LOCUS C; HDA5, HISTONE DEACETYLASE 5; ALKBH1A, ALKB HOMOLOG 1A; AGDP3, AGENET DOMAIN CONTAINING PROTEIN 3; ACD6, ACCELERATED CELL DEATH 6; ACO3, ACID OXIDASE 3; GSTF14, GLUTATHIONE S-TRANSFERASE 1; MEM1, METHYLATION ELEVATED MUTANT 1; MET1, METHYLTRANSFERASE 1; BPM1, MATH-BTB PROTEINS; RLL5 -1, REDUCED LUC LUMINESCENCE 5-1; IDM3, INCREASED DNA METHYLATION 3; ROS1, REPRESSOR OF SILENCING 1; RMG1, RESISTANCE METHYLATED GENE 1; RLP43, RECEPTOR-LIKE PROTEIN 43; FWA, FLOWERING WAGENINGEN; CFK1, COP9 INTERACTING F-BOX KELCH 1; TCX5, TSO1-LIKE CXC DOMAIN-CONTAINING PROTEIN 5; ICE1, INDUCER OF CBF EXPRESSION 1; AGO2, ARGONAUTE 2; MYBX9, MYELOBLASTOSIS X9; RDR2, RNA-DEPENDENT RNA POLYMERASE 2; NLR, NUCLEOTIDE-BINDING LEUCINE-RICH REPEAT; IPA1, IDEAL PLANT ARCHIECTURE; MITE #1, MINIATURE INVERTED-REPEAT TRANSPOSABLE ELEMENT #1.

For example, in *A. thaliana*, *FY*, *PEP*, *PRP39-1*, *FVE*, *FLD*, *FLC*, and *HDA5* are involved in RNA processing, transcription, post-transcription, and chromatin modification, and the expression levels of these seven upstream genes are negatively correlated with genome-wide CG methylation levels (Xie, et al., 2024), potentially playing a role in regulating flowering time. Abiotic stresses such as water deficit, cold and salt stress can induce the demethylation of promoter repeat sequences of upstream regulators of the salicylic acid (SA) defense pathway, and then transcriptionally activate the expression of *ACD6* (Small proteins modulate ion-channel-like), *ACO3* (ABA pathway-related gene), and *GSTF14* (Glutathione s-transferase superfamily endogenous gene) (Yang, et al., 2022).

In *O. sativa*, the expression of rice tillering regulator *IPAI* is negatively regulated at the transcriptional level by the methylation of repetitive sequences in the *IPAI* promoter (Zhang, et al., 2017). The expression of *D14* is downregulated by the hypomethylation of miniature inverted-repeat transposable elements (MITEs) in the downstream region of itself, which is involved in gibberellin biosynthesis and signaling and results in an increase in rice tillering (Arite, et al., 2009; Xu, et al., 2020). Variation in the DNA methylation of lignin synthesis-related *OsSWN1*, *OsMYBX9*, *OsPAL1*, and *Os4CL3* mediated the differences in their expression levels and affected the ratio of cellulose to lignin content (Wang, et al., 2023a). Collectively, these examples underscore the need for deeper investigations into how regional DNA methylation changes regulate gene expression.

## 7 Concluding remarks and future perspectives

This study compiled comparable genome-wide DNA methylation data from 105 plant species, with quantitative methylation levels available for a representative subset of 53 species, to examine plant DNA methylation patterns across species, tissues, environmental stresses, and evolutionary contexts. Our analyses revealed substantial variation in DNA methylation levels among plants, providing a valuable resource for understanding the regulatory roles of DNA methylation in plant biology. Future studies incorporating a broader range of species, tissue types and ecological conditions will be necessary to determine whether these observed methylation trends are generalizable across diverse plant lineages and biological contexts.

Advanced integrative multi-omics approaches that combine WGBS with RNA-seq, ChIP-seq, ATAC-seq, Hi-C, MeRIP-seq, and single-cell technologies are transforming plant DNA methylation research (Gu et al., 2024). DNA methylation and transcriptional reprogramming represent common stress responses in plants, mediated by transcription factors that recruit epigenetic regulators to remodel chromatin (Ouyang et al., 2020; Rimoldi et al., 2024). Evidence from *A. thaliana* and *Z. mays* shows that histone modifications and DNA methylation act dynamically during cell differentiation and stress adaptation, reverting once stress is relieved (Zhao et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2023). Novel tools such as ATAC-Me already enable the simultaneous profiling of chromatin accessibility and methylation (Zhu et al., 2023b), while Hi-C, combined with RNA-seq, ChIP-seq and WGBS, uncovers 3D chromatin-gene regulatory networks (Lieberman-Aiden et al., 2009; Burton et al., 2013; Zhu et al., 2023a). Emerging links between 5mC and RNA methylation (m6A) (Zhou et al., 2019), together with the recent adaptation of single-cell methylation profiling for plants (Tian et al., 2023), highlight the need for frameworks that connect DNA methylation to transcription factor networks, histone modifications, and 3D chromatin architecture as priority directions for future research.

### Data availability statement

The data will be made available upon request.

### Declaration on the Use of Generative AI Tools

No generative AI tools were used in the preparation of this manuscript.

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## Author contributions

Yurong Hu: Data Curation, Visualization, Formal Analysis, Writing - Original Draft. Wanmu Zhou: Data Curation. Hui Lu: Data Curation. Jiayan Wu, Data Curation. Qinjie Chu: Conceptualization, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. All authors read and approved the final manuscript and, therefore, had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity and security of the data.

## Compliance with ethics guidelines

The authors declare no competing interests.

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**Supplementary information**

Tables S1 and S2; Figs. S1 and S2

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