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1 **Linking DNA methylation to localized genetic differentiation in *Timema cristinae***  
2 **stick insects**

3  
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20  
21 **Abstract**

22  
23 Understanding speciation is a fundamental goal in evolutionary biology. Genome scans of genetic  
24 differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ) have become a cornerstone of speciation research, helping identify genomic  
25 regions likely involved in population divergence and speciation. While such studies have advanced  
26 our understanding, the relationship between epigenetic mechanisms and genetic differentiation  
27 remains unclear. Here, we present evidence that DNA methylation is associated with regions  
28 exhibiting accentuated genetic differentiation between populations of *Timema cristinae* stick  
29 insects. We do so by integrating analyses of differentially methylated regions (DMRs) between  
30 individuals from different host-plant species with genomic sequencing. Our results reveal that  
31 DMRs often show greater  $F_{ST}$  than expected by chance. Strikingly, the magnitude of this  
32 accentuation of  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs increases with the geographical distance between populations. We  
33 present results evaluating the contributions of mutation, reduced recombination, gene flow and  
34 selection to these divergence patterns. The overall results are consistent with a role for a balance  
35 between selection and gene flow, a finding further supported by a previously-published survival  
36 field experiment. Nevertheless, details of our results suggest that selection on DMRs might be  
37 indirect and not strictly host-related. Our results establish associations between methylation and  
38 genetic change, but further work is required to clarify the causes of this association. Nonetheless,  
39 our results provide insight into how the interplay of epigenetic and genetic variation may influence  
40 population divergence and potentially contribute to speciation.

## 41 1. Introduction

42

43 Understanding the mechanisms underlying the origin of species is a central goal of evolutionary  
44 biology (Coyne & Orr, 2004; Darwin, 1859; Dobzhansky, 1937; Seehausen et al., 2014). The  
45 speciation process involves the accumulation of phenotypic and genetic differences (*i.e.*, genetic  
46 differentiation), which leads to population divergence and reproductive isolation (Coyne & Orr,  
47 2004; Mayr, 1963; Schluter, 2001; Seehausen et al., 2014). In this context, a key metric for  
48 quantifying genetic differentiation is the fixation index ( $F_{ST}$ ). Genome scans using  $F_{ST}$  have  
49 revealed that selection, recombination, and gene flow interact to produce heterogeneous  
50 landscapes of genetic differentiation across the genome (Feder et al., 2012; Wolf & Ellegren,  
51 2017). This is because divergent selection on locally adapted traits can create ‘peaks’ of high  $F_{ST}$ ,  
52 while gene flow typically homogenizes the genetic differences between populations, generating  $F_{ST}$   
53 ‘valleys’ (Hohenlohe et al., 2012; Via & West, 2008). It is important to note that  $F_{ST}$  peaks can also  
54 arise from other processes unrelated to adaptive divergence, such as background selection –  
55 accentuated in regions of reduced recombination (Cruickshank & Hahn, 2014). Given its ability to  
56 capture genome-wide patterns of divergence,  $F_{ST}$  has become a foundational metric in speciation  
57 research.

58

59 Genome scans based on  $F_{ST}$  have been instrumental in identifying candidate regions driving  
60 population divergence across the speciation continuum (e.g., Burri et al., 2015; Marques et al.,  
61 2018; Nadeau et al., 2012; Nosil et al., 2021; Poelstra et al., 2014; Turbek et al., 2021). For  
62 example, Poelstra et al. (2014) linked  $F_{ST}$  peaks to plumage differences between crow sub-species,  
63 maintained despite their gene flow. While such studies have deepened our understanding of  
64 speciation, a focus solely on peaks of genetic differentiation may overlook regulatory mechanisms  
65 that can also drive divergence (Pfennig et al., 2010). In this context, epigenetic mechanisms, such  
66 as DNA methylation, may play a key role by modulating gene expression and thereby potentially  
67 contributing to phenotypic differentiation and population divergence (Pavey et al., 2010; Smith &  
68 Ritchie, 2013). In particular, it remains unclear to what extent and why regions of differential  
69 methylation between populations are associated with accentuated genetic differentiation relative to  
70 the rest of the genome (accentuated  $F_{ST}$ , hereafter). This question is the focus of the present study.

71

72 DNA methylation – the addition of a methyl group to the fifth carbon of a cytosine (5mC) – is the  
73 most extensively studied epigenetic mechanism in ecological and evolutionary studies. DNA  
74 methylation can influence gene expression by modifying the accessibility of DNA to transcriptional  
75 machinery, often leading to the repression or activation of specific genes (Bird, 2002; Law &  
76 Jacobsen, 2010; Suzuki & Bird, 2008). Although much of the variation in DNA methylation among  
77 individuals reflects their genetic background (Dubin et al., 2015; Richards, 2006; Sepers et al.,  
78 2023; Taudt et al., 2016), DNA methylation patterns can be influenced by a variety of processes.  
79 For example, DNA methylation patterns can change due to errors in maintenance pathways, and in  
80 response to environmental changes, thereby mediating phenotypic plasticity (Duncan et al., 2014;  
81 Hu & Barrett, 2023; Husby, 2022). Consequently, variation in DNA methylation and associated  
82 phenotypic variation can arise not only from genetic factors, but also through environmental  
83 variation and genotype-environment interactions (*i.e.*,  $G \times E$ ) (Adrian-Kalchauer et al., 2020;  
84 Richards, 2006). Beyond its regulatory role, DNA methylation can influence mutation rates. This is  
85 because 5mCs are susceptible to deaminate into thymines (*i.e.*, C/T transitions) and mutate at  
86 rates that are higher than any other substitution – thus potentially contributing directly to genetic  
87 variation (Holliday & Grigg, 1993; Ossowski et al., 2010; Tomkova & Schuster-Böckler, 2018).  
88 Notably, DNA methylation has been shown to be transmitted across one or more generations in

89 several taxa, including flowering plants (Schmid et al., 2018; van der Graaf et al., 2015), fish  
90 (Heckwolf et al., 2020; Kelley et al., 2021), mammals (Fitz-James & Cavalli, 2022; Skvortsova et  
91 al., 2018), insects (Wang et al., 2016; Yagound et al., 2020), and yeast (Stajic et al., 2019).

92  
93 These processes indicate that DNA methylation can both influence and be influenced by genetic  
94 variation, raising the possibility that it may be associated with *genetic differentiation* between  
95 populations. Indeed, several studies have reported genome-wide correlations between genetic  
96 differentiation and differential methylation (Aagaard et al., 2022; Boman et al., 2024; de Carvalho  
97 et al., 2023; Foust et al., 2016; Herrera et al., 2016; Medrano et al., 2014; Platt et al., 2015;  
98 Venney et al., 2021). However, the extent to which methylation is associated with fine-scale  
99 patterns of genetic differentiation across different parts of the genome remains largely overlooked.  
100 That is, although genome-wide associations between DNA methylation variation and  $F_{ST}$  have  
101 been described, it remains unclear whether regions that differ in methylation also exhibit  
102 accentuated genetic differentiation – and, if so, what mechanisms might explain such a pattern (but  
103 see Heckwolf et al., 2020; Ord et al., 2023; Venney et al., 2024). In this study, we address this gap  
104 by investigating whether genomic regions that differ in DNA methylation between populations  
105 (specifically, insect populations adapted to different host-plant species) also tend to exhibit  
106 accentuated  $F_{ST}$ . Having identified such an association, we further explore the mechanisms that  
107 may underlie it (Table 1, Fig. 1).

108  
109 There are several non-mutually exclusive explanations for why genomic regions that differ in DNA  
110 methylation between populations might exhibit accentuated  $F_{ST}$ . For example, selection on  
111 phenotypes influenced by DNA methylation could indirectly affect genetic variation through linkage  
112 disequilibrium (LD) between epigenetic and genetic loci. As a result, when advantageous traits  
113 associated with DNA methylation are selected, genetic variants in LD with these methylation loci  
114 are more likely to be passed on to the next generation (Planidin et al., 2022; Platt et al., 2015).  
115 Conversely, selection acting on genetic variants could influence DNA methylation, either directly by  
116 controlling DNA methylation variation (Dubin et al., 2015), or via LD (Xu et al., 2020). In both  
117 cases, divergence in DNA methylation would exhibit higher  $F_{ST}$  in specific regions of the genome.  
118 Such an association between accentuated  $F_{ST}$  values in DMRs is expected to be even more  
119 pronounced with reduced gene flow and greater geographical isolation, which limits  
120 homogenization and allows selection to drive genetic and epigenetic differentiation (i.e., a selection-  
121 gene flow hypothesis).

122  
123 Beyond the selection-gene flow hypothesis, genomic regions that differ in DNA methylation  
124 between populations may also exhibit accentuated  $F_{ST}$  if they fall within regions of low  
125 recombination (e.g., as shown in plants; Melamed-Bessudo & Levy, 2012; Peñuela et al., 2022),  
126 where background selection is stronger. Background selection reduces local genetic diversity,  
127 which can inflate  $F_{ST}$  even in the absence of divergent selection (Booker et al., 2020; Cruickshank  
128 & Hahn, 2014; Noor & Bennett, 2009). Alternatively, the mutagenic potential of DNA methylation  
129 (i.e., 5mC → T transitions) could directly elevate  $F_{ST}$  in certain genomic regions by introducing  
130 directional (i.e., biased) mutations in one population relative to another (Ord et al., 2023; Venney et  
131 al., 2024). Because mutation rates would also influence methylation levels (Xia et al., 2012), this  
132 process could generate co-occurring patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  and differential methylation. In this  
133 work, we tested for a fine-scale relationship between population divergence in DNA methylation  
134 and accentuated  $F_{ST}$ , and examine potential explanations for such a pattern using genetically  
135 divergent populations of *Timema cristinae* stick insects (Vickery, 1993) – a model system for  
136 speciation studies.

137  
138 *Timema cristinae* are wingless, plant-feeding insects distributed throughout the Santa Ynez  
139 mountains in California, USA. These insects primarily live and feed on two host-plant species:  
140 *Adenostoma fasciculatum* (Rosaceae), and *Ceanothus spinosus* (Rhamnaceae) (Nosil & Crespi,  
141 2006; Sandoval, 1994). Divergent selection associated with these host plants contributes to partial  
142 reproductive isolation between the host-plant associated populations, resulting in distinct  
143 *Adenostoma* and *Ceanothus* ecotypes (Nosil, 2007). A previous study showed that genome-wide  
144 DNA methylation differences among *T. cristinae* populations are strongly positively correlated with  
145 genetic and geographical distance, while also exhibiting moderate host-plant effects (de Carvalho  
146 et al., 2023). Importantly, that study used methylome-environment association analyses to  
147 designate genomic regions that differ in DNA methylation between host-plant ecotypes – hereafter  
148 referred to as differentially methylated regions (DMRs). In the present study, we focus on these  
149 ecotype-associated DMRs, as these may reflect methylation responses to ecological differences  
150 between host-plant environments. This makes these DMRs plausible candidates for investigating  
151 patterns of accentuated genetic differentiation. Notably, previous work did not address the question  
152 of how locus-specific genetic differentiation relates to these ecotype-associated DMRs in *T.*  
153 *cristinae*, which forms our focus here.

154  
155 In this context, we here integrate previously published whole-methylome and whole-genome data  
156 from natural and experimental *T. cristinae* populations. We used methylome data from de Carvalho  
157 et al. (2023), and we leveraged whole-genome sequencing data from populations with varying  
158 degrees of divergence (Soria-Carrasco et al., 2014). We first tested the hypothesis that DMRs  
159 exhibit accentuated genetic differentiation (e.g., higher  $F_{ST}$  relative to the genome-wide levels;  
160 Table 1, Fig. 1). Having found such a pattern, we then tested different non-mutually exclusive  
161 hypotheses to explain it. Specifically, we explored whether a balance between selection and gene  
162 flow, along with the roles of mutation and reduced recombination, could explain these divergence  
163 patterns. By investigating the fine-scale associations between DNA methylation and genetic  
164 variation, our study provides new insights into whether and how epigenetic mechanisms may be  
165 associated with genetic differentiation during speciation.

## 166 167 **2. Material and Methods**

### 168 169 *2.1. Differentially methylated genomic regions between host-plant ecotypes*

170  
171 Here, we used data from de Carvalho et al. (2023), which examined DNA methylation differences  
172 between host-plant ecotypes of *T. cristinae*. That study conducted whole-genome bisulfite  
173 sequencing (WGBS) on individuals from 12 host-associated populations spanning nine geographic  
174 localities. These included four localities dominated by *Adenostoma*, two dominated by *Ceanothus*,  
175 and three ‘parapatric’ sites where the two host-plant species coexist in close proximity. Importantly,  
176 the sampled populations differed not only in host-plant habitat, but also in geographical proximity  
177 and climatic conditions (as summarized by WorldClim climatic variables; Harris et al., 2014).  
178 Although host-plant species and climatic variables are generally correlated, the sampling locations  
179 were deliberately selected to disentangle these factors. Consequently, there was little correlation  
180 between them in the sampled sites (Pearson correlation  $r=0.00$ ,  $P=0.847$ ; de Carvalho et al.,  
181 2023). From each population, two similarly-sized female specimens were selected for study ( $n = 24$   
182 samples; Fig. 2). The analysis pipeline involved mapping the methylation data to the reference  
183 genome v.1.3c2 (Nosil et al., 2018), and using whole-genome sequencing data (WGS; Soria-  
184 Carrasco et al., 2014) to minimize confounding single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP) that could

185 affect methylation calls. Specifically, C/T and G/A SNPs were removed to improve data accuracy  
186 (see de Carvalho et al., 2023 for details).

187

188 In the present study, we focused on DMRs between host-plant ecotypes identified by de Carvalho  
189 et al. (2023). These DMRs were delineated through a methylome-environment (i.e., host plant)  
190 association analysis using binomial mixed models (MACAU v1.0.0; Lea et al., 2015). This analysis  
191 was applied to 1kbp non-overlapping methylation tiling windows across the genome, requiring a  
192 minimum coverage of 10 reads per window (hereafter referred to as ‘1kbp methylation tiles’; see de  
193 Carvalho et al., 2023 for details on filtering criteria). The DMRs were designated by examining the  
194 tail of the empirical *p-value* distribution generated by MACAU, allowing the properties of DMRs to  
195 be assessed across various cut-off thresholds. Following de Carvalho et al. (2023), we here  
196 focused on DMRs that were defined based on empirical *p-value* percentiles, specifically from the  
197 0.04<sup>th</sup> to the 0.4<sup>th</sup> percentile (corresponding *p-values* from 0.0004 to 0.0061), resulting in DMR  
198 counts ranging from 25 to 258 DMRs. In more downstream analyses, we focused mainly on DMRs  
199 delimited by the *p-value* < 0.0004, the most stringent cut-off.

200

201 Previously, de Carvalho et al. (2023) identified several patterns across the range of *p-value* cut-offs  
202 for defining DMRs that are relevant to this study. For example, DNA methylation distances in DMRs  
203 were more closely associated with host-plant ecotype than with genetic, geographical or climatic  
204 differences. This ecotype-specific signal contrasted with genome-wide methylation patterns, which  
205 were primarily explained by geographical distance (Fig. 2C). Additionally, DMRs were distributed  
206 genome-wide across all chromosomes, with a mean of 72% overlapping annotated genes across  
207 cut-offs (range 70.6% – 73.4%, 95% confidence interval, CI). This proportion closely matched the  
208 73.5% genic overlap observed for the entire dataset used in the methylome-environment analyses.  
209 This indicates that genes did not harbor disproportionately more DMRs than expected by chance.  
210 This detailed characterization of DMRs provides a foundation for investigating the fine-scale  
211 association between DNA methylation and accentuated  $F_{ST}$ , the central focus of the present study.

212

## 213 2.2. $F_{ST}$ values in DMRs relative to the genomic background

214

215 We began by testing the hypothesis that DMRs exhibit accentuated genetic differentiation.  
216 Specifically, we tested whether DMRs exhibited significantly higher  $F_{ST}$  values compared to the  
217 genomic background, indicating accentuated differentiation. To this end, we estimated  $F_{ST}$  using  
218 WGS data originally published by Soria-Carrasco et al. (2014), and reanalyzed by Lucek et al.  
219 (2019), which aligned all data to the same reference genome (v1.3c2) used by de Carvalho et al.  
220 (2023) to estimate DMRs. This data comprised 160 specimens from eight populations (Fig. 2).  
221 These populations represent a subset of those analyzed in the WGBS study, plus one additional,  
222 more geographically distant population (R12). Including these populations allowed us to capture  
223 varying stages of population divergence in our study (see Supporting Information for details).

224

225 We estimated pairwise genetic differences between each population pair (n=28 comparisons)  
226 within the same 1kbp methylation tiles used in the methylome-environment association analysis –  
227 but here based on SNPs. We used allele-frequency estimates for 3,252,350 SNPs from the WGS  
228 data (see Lucek et al., 2019 for details on DNA sequencing, alignment, variant calling and allele-  
229 frequency estimation for these SNPs). Using the SNPs located within the 1kbp methylation tiles,  
230 we estimated mean heterozygosity ( $H_S$ ) and  $F_{ST}$  between each population pair.  $H_S$  was estimated  
231 as  $H_S = \sum [ p_1(1 - p_1) + p_2(1 - p_2) ] / L$ ; where  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  represent the non-reference allele

232 frequencies in the populations 1 and 2, respectively. The sum was divided by the number of loci ( $L$ )  
233 within the methylation tiles.

234

235 Multilocus  $F_{ST}$  was calculated as  $F_{ST} = \sum (H_T - H_S) / \sum (H_T)$  where  $H_S$  is the mean heterozygosity  
236 within populations, and  $H_T$  is the total heterozygosity across each population pair:  $H_T = 2\bar{p}(1 - \bar{p})$   
237 where  $\bar{p} = (p_1 + p_2) / 2$ . The 95% confidence intervals for multilocus  $F_{ST}$  estimates were obtained  
238 from 1,000 bootstrap replicates where individual DMRs were sampled with replacement. We then  
239 evaluated how  $F_{ST}$  varied according to different  $p$ -value thresholds for DMR designation, using cut-  
240 offs ranging from the 0.4<sup>th</sup> to the 0.04<sup>th</sup> percentile of  $p$ -values (0.0004 to 0.0061).

241

242 To test whether DMRs exhibited significantly greater  $F_{ST}$  values compared to the genomic  
243 background (*i.e.*, accentuated  $F_{ST}$ ), we analyzed the same 1kbp methylation tiles for both DMR  
244 identification and  $F_{ST}$  estimation. For each population pair, we calculated the mean  $F_{ST}$  across  
245 DMRs at multiple  $p$ -value cut-offs (ranging from 0.0004 to 0.0061). These observed means were  
246 compared against null distributions generated by 1,000 iterations of random sampling – with an  
247 equal number of 1kbp methylation tiles as defined for each  $p$ -value cut-off. To measure how  
248 elevated  $F_{ST}$  values were in DMRs relative to random expectations, we calculated the ratio of the  
249 observed mean  $F_{ST}$  to the mean of the null distribution (the 'x-fold difference'). Statistical  
250 significance was estimated using empirical  $p$ -value from the randomization tests. This analysis was  
251 performed separately for: (1) all genome-wide DMRs, and (2) only genic DMRs (*i.e.*, overlapping  
252 with annotated gene regions), and (3) only non-genic DMRs.

253

254 Our analyses provided initial evidence for the predicted greater  $F_{ST}$  values in DMRs relative to the  
255 genomic background, indicating accentuated genetic differentiation (see Results for details). This  
256 pattern was further corroborated by significant overlap between DMRs and 1kbp methylation tiles  
257 falling within the top 5% of  $F_{ST}$  values across and between population comparisons (see  
258 Supporting Information). Notably, both approaches – the quantification of  $F_{ST}$  values in DMRs and  
259 the overlap tests with regions in the top 5% of  $F_{ST}$  values – revealed that DMRs exhibited  
260 accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in some population comparisons, but not in others. As such, we next explored  
261 potential processes that could be underlying such a pattern of heterogeneity among population  
262 pairs. In the following sections, we tested three non-mutually exclusive hypotheses regarding the  
263 potential contributions of (1) selection-gene flow balance, (2) reduced recombination, and (3)  
264 mutagenic effects of DNA methylation to the pattern of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  observed in DMRs.

265

266 *2.3. The selection-gene flow balance hypothesis: genetic differentiation in DMRs across*  
267 *geographical distances*

268

269 We first tested whether accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs reflects a balance between selection and gene  
270 flow. Under this hypothesis, the magnitude to which DMRs exhibit higher  $F_{ST}$  relative to the rest of  
271 the genome is predicted to increase with the geographical distance between populations (Fig. 1,  
272 Prediction 1). In other words, we tested whether populations separated by greater geographical  
273 distances show a stronger association between DMRs and accentuated  $F_{ST}$  than populations that  
274 are geographically closer – an enrichment of the DMR- $F_{ST}$  association with geographical isolation.  
275 This expectation is based on evidence that populations separated by greater geographical isolation  
276 experience reduced gene flow, which weakens its homogenizing effect on genetic differentiation, a  
277 pattern previously documented in *T. cristinae* for morphological traits, cryptic coloration, and  
278 genome-wide differentiation (Lindtke et al., 2017; Nosil et al., 2012; Nosil & Sandoval, 2008;

279 Sandoval, 1994b). Because gene flow tends to constrain genetic differentiation, DMRs under direct  
280 or indirect selection – via LD with causal mutations or otherwise correlated with selected traits –  
281 should exhibit higher  $F_{ST}$  values relative to the background level in more geographically isolated  
282 populations. This effect likely requires moderate levels of gene flow, because, under very low gene  
283 flow rates, genome-wide divergence can obscure signatures of localized selection in DMRs.

284

285 To test our prediction, we estimated, for each population pair, the mean  $F_{ST}$  within DMRs (delimited  
286 by  $P < 0.0004$ ) and divided it by the mean of a null distribution generated by permutation tests as  
287 described above (the x-fold difference). Subsequently, we assessed the relationship between the  
288 x-fold difference of  $F_{ST}$  values in DMRs and the logarithm of geodesic geographical distances  
289 between each population pair using Mantel tests (10,000 permutations, R package *vegan* v2.6-6.1;  
290 Oksanen et al., 2022). This analysis was repeated for three distinct DMR sets: (1) all DMRs, (2)  
291 genic DMRs only, and (3) non-genic DMRs only.

292

293 Having found support for the main prediction from the selection-gene flow balance hypothesis (see  
294 Results), we then evaluated whether accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs could be explained by their location  
295 in gene-dense genomic regions – where a higher number of sites may be subject to selection. This  
296 scenario would align with the selection-gene flow balance hypothesis, as DMRs near selected  
297 regions in gene-rich areas could exhibit significantly greater genetic differentiation through genetic  
298 hitchhiking. However, our analyses did not support this explanation (see Supporting Information).

299

#### 300 *2.4. The selection-gene flow balance hypothesis: potential sources of selection underlying the* 301 *observed geographical pattern*

302

303 We next investigated potential sources of selection that could underlie the observed geographical  
304 pattern under the selection-gene flow balance hypothesis. We did so by examining two key  
305 environmental factors: host-plant species and climatic variation. Host-plant species – the  
306 environmental factor associated with differential methylation in DMRs (de Carvalho et al., 2023) –  
307 may also be linked to genetic differentiation in these regions, either through direct selection on  
308 DMRs, or indirect selection via LD with genetic loci. In addition, climate-associated loci in *Timema*  
309 are known targets of selection (Chaturvedi et al., 2022), suggesting that climatic variables could  
310 also contribute to the observed patterns of genetic differentiation. Similar to DMRs, these climate-  
311 associated loci are distributed genome-wide. The eight populations from which we obtained  $F_{ST}$   
312 data differ both in host-plant species (four *Adenostoma* and four *Ceanothus*, Fig. 2) climatic  
313 conditions (see Supporting Information).

314

315 To quantify these effects, we fit Bayesian linear mixed models (BLMMs) using Markov Chain Monte  
316 Carlo (MCMC) Clarke et al., 2002; Gompert, Lucas, et al., 2014). Our models incorporated all  
317 combinations of geographical, host-plant species and climatic distances to explain the log ratio of  
318 the x-fold difference of  $F_{ST}$  within DMRs. Host-plant distances were coded as 0 (same host plant) or  
319 1 (different host-plant species), while climatic variables were derived from WorldClim data (Harris  
320 et al., 2014), as summarized in (Nosil et al., 2018). Briefly, climate PC1 summarizes variation in  
321 annual temperatures, temperatures during the coldest and wettest periods, and overall  
322 temperature constancy across seasons (e.g. isothermality, seasonality). Climate PC2 primarily  
323 captures temperature extremes during the warmest month, and the warmest and driest quarters  
324 (Fig. S1; Supporting Information). We treated the two PCs separately, calculating standardized  
325 Euclidean distances for each. Model fit was assessed using the deviance information criterion  
326 (DIC), implemented in the *rjags* R package (Plummer, 2018). The model was run in three parallel

327 chains with 10,000 iterations, a burn-in of 2,000 iterations, and a thinning interval of 5. We used  
328 weakly informative priors for fixed effects (normal distributions with mean = 0 and precision =  
329 0.001) and vague gamma priors (shape = 1, rate = 0.01) for random effect and residual precisions.  
330 All analyses were performed using R v4.3.2 (R Core Team, 2023).

### 331 332 2.5. The selection-gene flow balance hypothesis: allele-frequency changes in DMRs 333

334 To further test the hypothesis that accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs reflects a selection-gene flow balance,  
335 we used a previously published release-recapture survival field experiment that compared the  
336 genetic composition of surviving versus non-surviving individuals (Gompert, Comeault, et al.,  
337 2014). In that study, 491 specimens were collected in *Adenostoma*, tissue-sampled (allowing  
338 WGS), and then transplanted onto either *Adenostoma* or *Ceanothus* bushes. Surviving individuals  
339 were recaptured eight days later, providing an opportunity to compare the genetic change between  
340 the released and surviving individuals (see Gompert, Comeault, et al., 2014 for details). The  
341 results, together with more recent studies, indicate that selection affected some genomic regions –  
342 either directly or indirectly via LD with such regions – although genetic drift also contributed to  
343 observed changes (Gompert, Comeault, et al., 2014; Gompert et al., 2022).

344  
345 Using this data, we predicted that allele-frequency changes within DMRs would be more extreme  
346 than that observed for other genomic regions (Fig. 1, Prediction 2). Such a pattern would be  
347 consistent with DMRs being influenced by selection, even if the specific targets and sources of  
348 selection remain unclear. Although the experiment took place in a different year from the de  
349 Carvalho et al. (2023) methylation survey, we assumed that genetic variation remained relatively  
350 stable across years, due to a balance between selection, gene flow, and other evolutionary  
351 processes. This assumption of ‘balance’ is supported by previous studies in *T. cristinae* (Nosil et  
352 al., 2018, 2021a, 2024; Riesch et al., 2017).

353  
354 We estimated the allele-frequency changes from WGS data based on estimates from (Nosil et al.,  
355 2018). This data set comprised 6,175,495 SNPs sequenced across 491 individuals (Nosil et al.,  
356 2018). Given that most allele-frequency changes in the original experiment were not host-related  
357 (Gompert, Comeault et al., 2014), we initially focused on overall allele-frequency shifts, calculated  
358 as the difference between release and recapture allele frequencies (pooled across host plants). If  
359 DMRs exhibited elevated allele-frequency changes relative to the genomic background, we then  
360 tested whether these changes were particularly pronounced in the context of host-plant shift.

361  
362 We used a standardized measure of change relative to initial genetic diversity, calculated as:  $\Delta p =$   
363  $( | p_1 - p_0 | ) / \sqrt{ p_0 ( 1 - p_0 ) }$ , where  $p_0$  and  $p_1$  represent allele frequencies before  
364 and after the selection event. We calculated the mean  $\Delta p$  for all SNPs within DMRs, and compared  
365 this to a null distribution generated from  $\Delta p$  values in SNPs within an equivalent number of random  
366 1kbp methylation tiles. We performed 1,000 randomizations to create this null distribution. We  
367 conducted these analyses in DMRs designated by the  $p$ -value cut-off  $P < 0.0004$ .

368  
369 To evaluate the robustness of our findings under more stringent criteria, we repeated the analyses  
370 using a stricter cut-off of  $P < 0.0001$ . We focused on DMRs located within genes, as gene bodies  
371 are the primary targets of DNA methylation in *Timema* and other insects (Bewick et al., 2017;  
372 Provataris et al., 2018). Additionally, results for non-genic DMRs were not significant (1.08x,  
373  $P = 0.388$ ). We further excluded chromosome 8 from this analysis because it harbors strong signals

374 of selection associated with color and color-pattern variation – traits that were not our focus of this  
375 present study.

376

## 377 2.6. The reduced recombination hypothesis

378

379 Accentuated  $F_{ST}$  values in specific genomic regions could arise from processes beyond the  
380 selection-gene flow balance, such as background selection in regions of reduced recombination  
381 (Booker et al., 2020; Cruickshank & Hahn, 2014; Noor & Bennett, 2009) (Fig. 1). To explore this  
382 possibility as well, we tested whether patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs could be affected by  
383 reduced recombination in the genomic regions where DMRs are located. We tested this hypothesis  
384 using three approaches based on different proxies for reduced recombination: (1) overlap with  
385 structural variants, (2) low heterozygosity, and (3) high linkage disequilibrium.

386

387 First, we investigated whether DMRs overlapped with structural variants (SVs) mapped in *Timema*  
388 (e.g., deletions, inversions, tandem duplications) (Lucek et al., 2019). Structural variants are known  
389 to suppress recombination rates by disrupting homologous chromosome pairing during meiosis,  
390 which interferes with crossover formation (Hoffmann & Rieseberg, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Noor et  
391 al., 2001). Thus, we predicted that DMRs would tend to overlap with SVs. To test this, we used SV  
392 data from (Lucek et al., 2019), which included 492 inversions, 223 tandem duplications and 194  
393 deletions across *T. cristinae* genome, using the same WGS data as the one used here. We  
394 assessed whether DMRs at various  $p$ -value cut-offs at least partially overlapped with these SVs  
395 using R (R Core Team, 2023). All SVs located in un-mapped scaffolds were excluded.

396

397 Next, we examined whether DMRs tended to display lower mean heterozygosity indices ( $H_S$ ) than  
398 the genomic background, given that reduced recombination regions often exhibit low  
399 heterozygosity (Begun & Aquadro, 1992). As such, we predicted that DMRs would show lower  
400 heterozygosity than the genomic average. To test this prediction, we used the same procedure  
401 described with  $F_{ST}$ , drawing 1kbp random samples from the methylation tiles 1,000 times at varying  
402  $p$ -value cut-offs.

403

404 Finally, we evaluated linkage disequilibrium (LD) levels within DMRs, as high LD levels relative to  
405 background may indicate reduced recombination. Thus, we predicted that LD within DMRs would  
406 be higher than the genome-wide average. To test this prediction, we used the WGS data (Lucek et  
407 al., 2019; Soria-Carrasco et al., 2014) for  $F_{ST}$  and  $H_S$  estimation to compute LD among SNPs within  
408 the DMRs, defined by a  $P < 0.0004$  cut-off for each population. We used an empirical Bayesian  
409 approach to estimate genotypes for each individual and locus. Specifically, we extracted the  
410 genotype likelihoods from the VCF file and then we estimated genotypes by applying an allele-  
411 frequency based prior to the genotype likelihoods (as in Comeault et al., 2014). For each  
412 population, we calculated a correlation matrix of SNP genotypes within DMRs, which was then  
413 squared and averaged. To ensure robust estimates of LD (the average squared correlation in a  
414 tile), we included only 1kbp methylation tiles with more than five SNPs. The LD distribution for  
415 DMRs was compared to a null distribution generated from random 1kbp windows within each  
416 population across 10,000 iterations to obtain  $p$ -values.

417

## 418 2.7. The methylation mutagenic effects hypothesis

419

420 Finally, we evaluated whether the direct mutagenic effects of DNA methylation could contribute to  
421 the patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  observed in DMRs. Methylated cytosines are significantly more

422 prone to mutate into thymines than unmethylated cytosines, with mutation rates exceeding those of  
423 most other point mutations (Holliday & Grigg, 1993; Ossowski et al., 2010). Such biased mutation  
424 rates could elevate  $F_{ST}$  by generating directional mutations in one population relative to another,  
425 particularly in genomic regions with marked methylation differences between populations (e.g.,  
426 DMRs). This long-standing hypothesis posits a direct link between DNA methylation and genetic  
427 differentiation (Guerrero-Bosagna, 2017), yet it has been rarely tested in natural populations (but  
428 see Venney et al., 2024). We thus here tested the hypothesis that the observed accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in  
429 DMRs results from mutagenic effects of DNA methylation. If this was the case, we expected  
430 accentuated  $F_{ST}$  values in DMRs' to be associated with CpG context genetic polymorphisms,  
431 specifically C/T transitions (or from G/A in the complementary strand; Fig. 1). In other words, in this  
432 context, differences in methylation could directly cause biased genetic differences between  
433 populations.

434  
435 To test our prediction, we used WGS data from Soria-Carrasco et al. (2014) and estimated  $F_{ST}$  for  
436 individual SNPs located within DMRs delimited by  $P < 0.0004$  ( $n = 283$  SNPs), rather than using 1  
437 kbp windows as in previous analyses. For each SNP, we identified the type of genetic  
438 polymorphism (i.e., C/T, A/T, etc.) and identified whether it occurred in CpG context – where  
439 *methylated cytosines are more likely prone to mutagenesis*. Note that SNPs in CpG context had  
440 been previously removed from the methylation tables to avoid spurious methylation calls (de  
441 Carvalho et al., 2023).

442  
443 Because  $F_{ST}$  is strongly correlated with minor allele frequency (MAF) – with a mean Spearman  
444 correlation of 0.68 across all population pairs (all  $P < 0.001$ ) – for each population pair, we binned  
445 the  $F_{ST}$  values based on MAF for each SNP within DMRs using *VCFtools* v0.1.15. Across the 28  
446 population pairs, at least 90% of the SNPs showed  $MAF \leq 0.05$  (mean 95.2% [92.3% – 98.1%;  
447 standard deviation]). Therefore, we focused on SNPs meeting this MAF criterion for each  
448 comparison. Using permutation tests, we tested whether C/T or G/A SNPs in CpG contexts (i.e.,  
449 those most likely to result from 5mC → T deamination) exhibited higher  $F_{ST}$  values than these  
450 mutations in non-CpG contexts. Finally, we used Mantel tests to evaluate the relationship between  
451  $F_{ST}$  in mutation-bias SNPs and geographical distance across 28 population comparisons,  
452 implemented in the R package *vegan* v2.6-6.1 (Oksanen et al., 2022).

453

### 454 **3. Results**

455

#### 456 *3.1. Accentuated genetic differentiation between populations in DMRs*

457

458 We predicted that DMRs would exhibit higher  $F_{ST}$  values than genome-wide levels (i.e.,  
459 accentuated  $F_{ST}$ ). Consistent with this prediction, DMRs (genic and non-genic combined) and genic  
460 DMRs tended to show significantly higher  $F_{ST}$  relative to background levels across various  $p$ -value  
461 cut-offs, whereas non-genic DMRs did not (see Figs. S2-S4). For example, among DMRs delimited  
462 by  $P < 0.0004$ , 24 out of 28 population pairs (86%) showed generally higher  $F_{ST}$  values for all DMRs  
463 (genic and non-genic combined) and genic DMRs compared to the null expectations ( $P < 0.001$ ,  
464 binomial test; Figs. S2-S3). Within this group, 14 individual population comparisons also exhibited  
465 significantly higher  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs relative to the genomic background ( $P < 0.05$ ; permutation tests;  
466 Figs. S2-S3). In these 14 comparisons, DMRs exhibited an average of 2.3-fold higher  $F_{ST}$  than the  
467 background (95% CI: 2.2x – 2.5x), while the remaining comparisons showed a mean of 1.3-fold  
468 (95% CI: 1.0x – 1.6x). Taken together, these results indicate that DMRs are associated with  
469 accentuated  $F_{ST}$ , but more strongly so for some population comparisons than others.

470

471 Similar patterns were observed when analyzing the overlap between DMRs and genomic regions  
472 within the top 5%  $F_{ST}$  values cross population comparisons (Fig. 3B; Supporting Information). The  
473 collective findings provide initial evidence that DMRs are associated with regions of accentuated  
474  $F_{ST}$ . We next examined three different hypotheses to explain such a pattern.

475

### 476 3.2. DMRs show increasing genetic differentiation with geographical distance

477

478 To explain the observed pattern of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs – particularly its presence in some  
479 some population comparisons but not others – we tested the hypothesis of a balance between  
480 selection and gene flow. Specifically, we predicted that the magnitude of higher  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs  
481 relative to the genomic background would increase with geographical distance between  
482 populations. This would indicate an enrichment of the association between DMRs and accentuated  
483  $F_{ST}$  at larger geographical distances (Fig. 1, Prediction 1). This expectation follows from the idea  
484 that reduced gene flow allows selection to drive greater genetic differentiation within localized  
485 regions of the genome.

486

487 Consistent with this prediction, the x-fold difference in  $F_{ST}$  between DMRs and the genomic  
488 background increased significantly with greater geographical distance between population pairs  
489 ( $r=0.76$ ,  $P<0.001$ ; Mantel test; Fig. 3). At the largest distances, DMRs exhibited threefold higher  $F_{ST}$   
490 than the genomic background ( $\sim 3.0x$ ), compared to  $\sim 1.0x$  at the smallest distances. This  
491 geographic pattern remained consistent when only genic DMRs were analyzed ( $r=0.75$ ,  $P=0.001$ ;  
492 Mantel test; Fig. S5), with similar  $\sim 3.0$ -fold higher  $F_{ST}$  at the largest distances. In contrast, non-  
493 genic DMRs displayed no such geographical pattern ( $r=-0.38$ ;  $P=0.963$ ; Mantel test), instead  
494 showing lower  $F_{ST}$  values than the genomic background at the largest distances ( $\sim 0.5x$ ; Fig. S6).

495

### 496 3.3. Host-plant ecotype and climatic differences are not strong predictors of the DMR- $F_{ST}$ 497 association

498

499 We subsequently evaluated the potential sources of selection acting on DMRs (either directly or  
500 indirectly). Specifically, we assessed whether environmental factors (e.g., host-plant ecotype and  
501 climate) were associated with patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs, beyond their association with  
502 geographical distance. Our BLMM results indicated that the model combining geographical and  
503 climatic PC1 distances best explained variation in x-fold  $F_{ST}$  difference in DMRs across population  
504 pairs. Among predictors, geographical distance had the strongest and most credible effects  
505 ( $\beta_{GEOG}=0.93$  [0.61, 1.24 95% equal-tail probability interval, ETPI]); while climatic distances showed  
506 a more moderate and negative effect ( $\beta_{PC1}=-0.30$  [-0.58, -0.02, 95% ETPI]; Table S1). In other  
507 words, whereas the association between accentuated  $F_{ST}$  and DMRs increased with geographical  
508 distance, it actually declines with climatic distance. The second best model combined  
509 geographical, PC1 and PC2 distances, with PC2 showing a weak effect, but in the same positive  
510 direction as geographical distance and with credible intervals crossing zero ( $\beta_{GEOG}=0.85$  [0.38,  
511 1.32];  $\beta_{PC1}=-0.30$  [-0.59, -0.02];  $\beta_{PC2}=0.10$  [-0.33, 0.50], 95% ETPI). Contrary to our expectations,  
512 these analyses further suggest that accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs is not associated with host-plant  
513 ecotype (Table S1; Figs. S7-S11).

514

### 515 3.4. DMRs exhibit marked allele-frequency changes in a survival field experiment

516

517 To further test the selection-gene flow hypothesis, we examined a complementary prediction: that  
518 allele-frequency changes within DMRs would be more extreme than genome-wide expectations in  
519 a field experiment. Consistent with this prediction, although only weakly, allele-frequency changes  
520 in DMRs (designated by a  $P < 0.0004$ ) were marginally higher than expected by chance (1.1x,  
521  $P = 0.091$ , randomization test). Applying a more stringent cut-off ( $P < 0.0001$ ) yielded a slightly  
522 stronger and statistically significant genetic response relative to null expectations (1.2x,  $P = 0.045$ ,  
523 randomization test; Fig. 4). Although modest, these effects are noteworthy, given that this  
524 short-term experiment at a single site likely under-represents the broader selective landscape  
525 experienced by these organisms. In contrast, we observed no significant allele-frequency change  
526 in DMRs when analyzing transplants between different host-plant species were analyzed  
527 separately (1.1x,  $P = 0.212$  in DMRs delimited by  $P < 0.0004$ ; 1.1x,  $P = 0.303$  in DMRs delimited by  
528  $P < 0.0001$ ; randomization test).

529

### 530 3.5. DMRs do not exhibit significant evidence of reduced recombination

531

532 To test the hypothesis that accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs is affected by reduced recombination, we  
533 employed three different proxies. First, we examined whether DMRs overlapped with SVs mapped  
534 in *Timema*, but found no overlap with any structural variants. Next, we tested if DMRs exhibited  
535 lower heterozygosity than expected by chance. Across all population comparisons and *p-value* cut-  
536 offs, mean heterozygosity within DMRs did not significantly differ from genome-wide expectations  
537 (all  $P > 0.10$ , randomization tests). Across the 28 population pairs and 10 *p-value* cut-offs, mean  
538 heterozygosity in DMRs ranged from 0.92x to 1.04x relative to the genomic background, with an  
539 overall mean of 0.98x (Fig. S12). Third, we estimated LD among the genetic variants within DMRs  
540 for each population. In seven of eight populations, LD within DMRs was comparable to null  
541 expectations (Table S2). Together, these findings do not support the hypothesis that reduced  
542 recombination strongly underlies the observed pattern of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs.

543

### 544 3.6. No significant evidence of methylation mutagenic effects explaining accentuated $F_{ST}$ in DMRs

545

546 Lastly, we tested the hypothesis that the mutagenic effects of methylation contribute to the  
547 association between accentuated  $F_{ST}$  and DMRs. Among 283 SNPs within DMRs, 28 were  
548 identified as C/T or G/A mutations in a CpG context – 24 of these had complete data across all  
549 population comparisons. These SNPs showed a marginally higher median  $F_{ST}$  than comparable  
550 mutations outside CpG context at  $MAF \leq 0.05$ , though this difference was not statistically  
551 significant (1.28x,  $P = 0.256$ , permutation tests; Fig. 5). Additionally, the  $F_{ST}$  values for these SNPs  
552 were not significantly associated with geographical distance (Table S3). One SNP  
553 (lg1\_scaf1290:791133) showed a significant association between  $F_{ST}$  and geographical distance  
554 (Mantel test  $r = 0.85$ ,  $P = 0.022$ ), but its  $F_{ST}$  values remained below 0.04, even at the largest  
555 geographical distances.

556

557 When *MAF* was not controlled for, median  $F_{ST}$  of SNPs putatively affected by methylation's  
558 mutagenic effect did not significantly differ from other C/T and G/A SNPs (1.0x,  $P = 0.643$ ,  
559 permutation tests). Notably, some C/T and G/A SNPs showed elevated  $F_{ST}$  values in some  
560 population comparisons, whereas SNPs subject to methylation's mutagenic effects did not (Fig. 5).  
561 Overall, our results do not support the hypothesis that methylation's mutagenic effects strongly  
562 explains the accentuated  $F_{ST}$  observed in DMRs.

563

## 564 4. Discussion

565  
566 Genetic differentiation underlies population divergence and speciation. Yet, genetic differentiation –  
567 often quantified by the  $F_{ST}$  metric – can widely vary across the genome. Influenced by factors such  
568 as the genetic architecture of adaptive traits, regional recombination rates, and mutation hotspots  
569 (Ellegren & Galtier, 2016),  $F_{ST}$  patterns are further shaped by extrinsic processes like selection and  
570 gene flow, creating a heterogeneous landscape of genetic differentiation (Ravinet et al., 2017; Wolf  
571 & Ellegren, 2017). While much research has focused on population genetic drivers of genetic  
572 differentiation, the association between DNA methylation and fine-scale genetic differentiation  
573 remains poorly studied. Our study bridges this gap by investigating associations between DNA  
574 methylation patterns and genomic regions of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  between populations of *T. cristinae*  
575 stick insects. Our findings demonstrate an association between genetic and epigenetic divergence,  
576 particularly for geographically distant population pairs. The results suggest a potential role for DNA  
577 methylation in speciation, though further research is needed to determine the underlying  
578 mechanisms. The results are summarized in Table 2, and discussion of our main findings follows.

#### 579 580 *4.1. DMRs tend to exhibit accentuated $F_{ST}$*

581  
582 We began our investigation by testing the hypothesis that genomic regions that differ in DNA  
583 methylation between populations are associated with regions of accentuated genetic  
584 differentiation. Our findings support this hypothesis, by showing that DMRs tended to show  
585 significantly higher  $F_{ST}$  values compared to the genomic background, but with effects that vary  
586 among populations spanning different degrees of geographical and baseline genetic divergence.  
587 This result suggests that regions exhibiting differential methylation could be more likely to diverge  
588 genetically than other regions of the genome. Our results are consistent with the few studies that  
589 highlight a link between DNA methylation and genetic differentiation, potentially contributing to  
590 evolution (Heckwolf et al., 2020; Ord et al., 2023; Venney et al., 2024).

591  
592 The significant association between DNA methylation differences and accentuated  $F_{ST}$  values in *T.*  
593 *cristinae* populations may suggest a role for epigenetic variation in the process of genetic  
594 differentiation and population divergence (Platt et al., 2015). For example, DNA methylation could  
595 act as a precursor or modulator of genetic differentiation by influencing gene expression levels and  
596 contributing to phenotypic variation, complementing the effects of genetic variation (Ord et al.,  
597 2023; Smith et al., 2016; Vernaz et al., 2022). This raises the possibility of an additional pathway  
598 for divergence: not only at the level of DNA sequences but also in environmentally-induced  
599 regulation of gene activity (Pavey et al., 2010; Smith & Ritchie, 2013).

#### 600 601 *4.2. Patterns of accentuated $F_{ST}$ in DMRs is best explained by selection-gene flow balance*

602  
603 We found that the magnitude of the association between DMRs and accentuated  $F_{ST}$  increased  
604 with greater geographical distance between population pairs – a pattern driven primarily by genic  
605 DMRs, but not observed in non-genic DMRs. This trend suggests that reduced gene flow and / or  
606 increased divergent selection in geographically isolated populations may facilitate genetic  
607 divergence in DMR-associated loci, consistent with the selection-gene flow balance hypothesis.  
608 Under this model, the effects of selection on differentially methylated genomic regions intensifies  
609 as gene flow declines or as divergent selection increases with greater geographical isolation. Past  
610 work has shown that gene flow declines with increased geographical distance, whereas the  
611 possibility of increased divergent selection with increased distance remains more speculative  
612 (Nosil et al., 2012). Consistent with this interpretation, we found that DMRs exhibited marked

613 allele-frequency changes in a single-generation selection experiment. Together, these findings  
614 suggest that reduced gene flow and selection may contribute to elevate  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs.

615

616 While genetic drift could theoretically elevate  $F_{ST}$ , it is unlikely to entirely explain the observed  
617 patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs because: (1) drift typically produces genome-wide  
618 differentiation, not localized patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$ ; (2) the notable patterns of accentuated  
619  $F_{ST}$  in genic DMRs (*i.e.*, functional regions) with geographical distance is unlikely under neutral  
620 processes; and (3) that non-genic DMRs did not show greater DMR- $F_{ST}$  association with  
621 geography, further supporting selective mechanisms. Therefore, while drift may contribute to some  
622 background signal, the observed patterns can be better explained by a selection-gene flow  
623 balance.

624

625 *4.3. DMR- $F_{ST}$  association is likely influenced by environmental factors beyond host plant and*  
626 *climate*

627

628 To identify potential sources of selection, we evaluated the contributions of host-plant and climatic  
629 variation in explaining the observed pattern of progressively higher  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs with increasing  
630 geographical distance. This pattern was best explained by a combination of geographical distance  
631 and climatic differences summarized by PC1. However, climate differences along PC1 were  
632 moderately but negatively associated with such a pattern (Table S1), suggesting that populations in  
633 divergent climates actually exhibit reduced genetic differentiation in DMRs. Thus, although climate  
634 variation may contribute to patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs, it does so in a direction  
635 inconsistent with expectations under a selection-gene flow balance. Additionally, while climate PC2  
636 showed a weak positive association with accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs, there was considerable  
637 uncertainty in its contribution as estimated by the BLMM.

638

639 Given that the DMRs are associated with host-plant ecotype, we expected host-plant species to  
640 contribute to the geographical pattern of genetic differentiation in DMRs. Unexpectedly, we found  
641 no significant association between that host-plant ecotype and this geographical pattern. One  
642 possibility is that methylation patterns in DMR are primarily induced by host-plant environments  
643 (*e.g.*, the nutritional content or the stress imposed by each habitat), independent of geography or  
644 gene flow. Alternatively, methylation differences in DMR could be driven by locally-adapted genetic  
645 variants (Dubin et al., 2015; Fargeot et al., 2021), or shaped by a combination of genetic and  
646 environmental factors (Adrian-Kalchhauser et al., 2020). In summary, while our results support a  
647 role of a selection-gene flow balance in shaping genetic differentiation in DMRs, the specific  
648 sources of selection remain unclear.

649

650 It is also important to note that selection may operate through multiple mechanisms. For example,  
651 it may act on methylation-influenced phenotypes (*e.g.*, Schmid et al., 2018) in LD with genetic  
652 variants. Alternatively, selection may primarily target genetic variation, with methylation changes  
653 arising secondarily (*e.g.*, Dubin et al., 2015). A third possibility involves selection acting on traits  
654 that emerge from genotype-methylation interactions – patterns that may not be detected through  
655 genetic data alone (Adrian-Kalchhauser et al., 2020; Morgan et al., 1999). These scenarios  
656 underscore the complexity of linking selection to DNA methylation patterns, a challenge even in the  
657 best-studied model organisms (Dubin et al., 2015; Heckwolf et al., 2020; Schmid et al., 2018). As  
658 such, future studies should focus in not only identifying the sources of selection in DMRs, but also  
659 the target of selection (see discussion below). Regardless of the underlying mechanisms, the

660 processes affecting DMRs appear to amplify – or at least better coincide with – genetic  
661 differentiation in the context of reduced gene flow.

#### 662 663 *4.3. Little support for the reduced recombination and mutagenic effects hypotheses* 664

665 We evaluated two alternative (but not mutually-exclusive) hypotheses to the selection-gene flow  
666 balance, but we did not find support for either. First, we found no significant association between  
667 DMRs and any proxy used to estimate reduced recombination. This suggests that the patterns of  
668 accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs are unlikely to result from background selection in reduced  
669 recombination regions. Studies in plants and vertebrates have established a link between DNA  
670 methylation and reduced recombination, providing a potential molecular mechanism to interpret the  
671 interplay between genetic and epigenetic variation (Boideau et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2017; Melamed-  
672 Bessudo & Levy, 2012). However, this relationship is unclear in invertebrates, in general, which  
673 can show very different genomic functions for DNA methylation. A high-resolution recombination  
674 map for *T. cristinae* would allow directly testing of how DNA methylation, genetic differentiation, and  
675 reduced recombination interact.

676  
677 Second, we found no evidence that potential mutagenic effects of methylation at CpG sites could  
678 underlie the observed accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs. If this hypothesis held, as shown in sticklebacks  
679 and *Coregonus* whitefish (Ord et al., 2023; Venney et al., 2024), we would expect C/T and G/A  
680 SNPs in CpG contexts (prone to deamination of methylated cytosines) to show elevated  $F_{ST}$ .  
681 However,  $F_{ST}$  in these SNPs did not differ significantly from other contexts, potentially due their low  
682 MAF. This suggests that while methylated CpGs may have a higher mutation rate (Holliday &  
683 Grigg, 1993; Ossowski et al., 2010), such mutations are likely rare and do not commonly reach  
684 high frequencies that would contribute significantly to genetic differentiation within DMRs. Thus, the  
685 resolution of our analysis was possibly constrained by the nature of the data in our study system  
686 (*i.e.*, low MAF). Future studies should pair WGS and WGBS from the same individuals to more  
687 precisely evaluate the association between DNA methylation and genetic mutations. Taken  
688 together, these results suggest that neither reduced recombination nor methylation-induced  
689 mutation sufficiently explain the patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs.

#### 690 691 *4.3. Absence of host-plant effects on the selection-gene flow patterns* 692

693 The selection-gene flow balance hypothesis emerged as the most consistent explanation for the  
694 patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  observed in DMRs. However, despite the fact that DMRs reflect  
695 methylation differences between host-plant ecotypes, we found no evidence that host-plant  
696 species explained the pattern of increased DMR- $F_{ST}$  association with greater geographical  
697 distance. Similarly, allele-frequency changes in DMRs during the transplant experiment were also  
698 unrelated to host-plant species. In this section, we explore potential explanations for these  
699 unexpected findings.

700  
701 One possible explanation is that DMRs overlap with pleiotropic genes involved in responding to  
702 multiple environmental cues. Host plants habitat may induce methylation changes in these  
703 pleiotropic genes via differences in chemical composition, nutrient availability, or stress signals  
704 (Chen et al., 2019; Gupta & Nair, 2022), leading to consistent methylation differences across  
705 ecotypes – regardless of geographical proximity or gene flow. While such changes might modulate  
706 gene expression and contribute to phenotypic plasticity, their effects may be transient or insufficient  
707 to drive significant allele-frequency changes (Roberts & Gavery, 2012). However, if these same

708 genes are also targets selection from broader environmental pressures (e.g., aspects of the  
709 climate or climatic impacts on host plants not captured by our climate variables), this could lead to  
710 genetic differentiation at DMR-associated loci. This way, the co-occurrence of methylation  
711 differences and accentuated  $F_{ST}$  may reflect a scenario in which pleiotropic genes integrate  
712 methylation responses to host plants with genetic adaptation to other environmental drivers.  
713 explaining the co-occurrence of methylation differences and accentuated.

714

715 An alternative explanation is that DMR-associated loci are in LD with regions under selection from  
716 environmental gradients unrelated to host-plant use. In other words, selective pressures acting on  
717 the loci unrelated to host plants could indirectly drive genetic divergence at the DMR-associated  
718 loci, creating a pattern where DMRs exhibit accentuated  $F_{ST}$ . While this mechanism could explain  
719 the patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs, it remains unclear why genetic variants associated with  
720 DMRs would consistently exhibit strong LD with selected loci unrelated to host-plant habitat.

721

722 Although these scenarios are plausible, it is also possible that the absence of host-plant effects in  
723 our results reflects limitations of the available data (de Carvalho et al., 2023). Despite capturing  
724 biologically meaningful methylation differences, the DMR dataset was based on small sample  
725 sizes, pooling different tissues, and had restricted genomic coverage, likely limiting the number of  
726 DMRs detected. Additionally, our analyses integrated data from three different sources and  
727 different geographical scales (i.e., DMRs, SNPs from WGS, and transplant experiment), which  
728 potentially complicates the identification of specific mechanisms. Future studies should address  
729 these limitations by using larger sample sizes and paired WGS and WGBS data from the same  
730 individuals to enable a clearer understanding of the mechanisms underlying the selection-gene  
731 flow balance and its role in linking DNA methylation to accentuated  $F_{ST}$ .

732

#### 733 *4.4. Future directions for understanding the relationship between DNA methylation and* 734 *accentuated genetic differences in speciation*

735

736 While our findings demonstrate that differences in DNA methylation are associated regions of  
737 pronounced genetic differentiation – and that a selection-gene flow balance best explains these  
738 patterns – several key questions remain. In particular, future studies in *Timema* should aim to (1)  
739 directly test the extent to which host-plant habitats induce methylation changes, and (2) determine  
740 how such changes influence phenotype and fitness. Even if these methylation differences reflect  
741 generalized stress responses (e.g., Gupta & Nair, 2025), they may still have ecological and  
742 evolutionary relevance, especially if they co-occur with loci under selection. To further clarify the  
743 relationship between DNA methylation and genetic differentiation, it is also essential to distinguish  
744 genetically controlled methylation (e.g., via cis-regulatory variants or local genetic context) and  
745 environmentally induced changes (Husby, 2022). Integrating methylation data with allele-frequency  
746 shifts and selection signals in the same individuals would provide a powerful framework for  
747 understanding causality and the role of epigenetic mechanisms in genetic differentiation and  
748 population divergence.

749

750 Moreover, future studies should evaluate whether the higher-level phenotypes associated with  
751 methylation variation are subject to selection, and clarify the form of such selection (e.g.,  
752 stabilizing, directional or divergent selection). The extent to which DNA methylation is stably  
753 inherited across generations will also influence its potential role in driving or reinforcing genetic  
754 differentiation. Depending on this stability, methylation may act as a short-term plastic response or  
755 become integrated into long-term evolutionary trajectories via genetic assimilation or epigenetic

756 selection (Gopalan-Nair et al., 2024; Schmid et al., 2018; Stajic et al., 2019). Pursuing these  
757 directions will deepen our understanding of the complex interplay between genetic and epigenetic  
758 variation and offer new perspectives on the roles of DNA methylation in population divergence,  
759 adaptation and speciation.

760

#### 761 4.5. Conclusion

762

763 DNA methylation can respond to environmental cues and modulate gene expression, potentially  
764 influencing traits under selection. This makes methylation a candidate mechanism contributing to  
765 population-level genetic differentiation. In this study, we establish an association between DNA  
766 methylation and accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in populations pairs with varying levels of divergence, showing  
767 evidence consistent with a balance between selection and gene flow. However, the specific targets  
768 of selection and underlying mechanisms remain unclear. While our results support that epigenetic  
769 variation contributes to genetic differentiation, the full understanding of how DNA methylation  
770 contributes to population divergence is still in its early stages, representing a key frontier in  
771 population epigenetics research. Overall, our results suggest that epigenetic variation may not only  
772 provide insights on regions of accentuated genetic differentiation, but also add new layers of  
773 complexity to our understanding of population divergence. Beyond serving as a marker of  
774 pronounced genetic differentiation, DNA methylation may facilitate or reinforce divergence between  
775 populations. Understanding the interaction between genetic and epigenetic variation can thus shed  
776 light on the mechanisms driving the accumulation of phenotypic and genetic differences across  
777 different stages of population divergence and speciation.

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781

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783 and ZG conducted analyses. All authors contributed to writing and revision.

784

785 **Competing Interest Statement:** The authors declare no competing interests.

786

787 **Data availability:** This manuscript does not contain new data, all of which is publicly archived as  
788 described in the Methods section. All scripts and code used for analysis has been archived at  
789 Zenodo (<https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.14566136>). The scripts can be accessed in the link:

790 [https://zenodo.org/records/14566136?](https://zenodo.org/records/14566136?token=eyJhbGciOiJIUzUxMiJ9.eyJpZCI6IjhhMGY0NzU4LWQ1NzctNDYwZi1hMDRmLTAwMDRkO)

791 [token=eyJhbGciOiJIUzUxMiJ9.eyJpZCI6IjhhMGY0NzU4LWQ1NzctNDYwZi1hMDRmLTAwMDRkO](https://zenodo.org/records/14566136?token=eyJhbGciOiJIUzUxMiJ9.eyJpZCI6IjhhMGY0NzU4LWQ1NzctNDYwZi1hMDRmLTAwMDRkO)  
792 [TFhZTA4NyIsImRhdGEiOnt9LCJyYW5kb20iOiI5OGEyY2QzYmJhMmFkYzNiYTUzZjExMGJjNzYy](https://zenodo.org/records/14566136?token=eyJhbGciOiJIUzUxMiJ9.eyJpZCI6IjhhMGY0NzU4LWQ1NzctNDYwZi1hMDRmLTAwMDRkO)  
793 [YjJlYiJ9.Z5GBI5UYSyQ0iXCwCuw5XYzUGnb\\_ZuB1ctynxZaouzvtMQu90JeGk4tiDKYFy9aC6rxdq](https://zenodo.org/records/14566136?token=eyJhbGciOiJIUzUxMiJ9.eyJpZCI6IjhhMGY0NzU4LWQ1NzctNDYwZi1hMDRmLTAwMDRkO)  
794 [yZu6cUJlwyjDKS23w](https://zenodo.org/records/14566136?token=eyJhbGciOiJIUzUxMiJ9.eyJpZCI6IjhhMGY0NzU4LWQ1NzctNDYwZi1hMDRmLTAwMDRkO)

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797

798 **Table 1. Hypotheses and predictions.**

799

Hypothesis	Predictions	Why to expect it
Selection-gene flow balance	1. DMRs exhibit progressively higher $F_{ST}$ compared to the genomic background with increasing geographical distance between populations	Gene flow homogenizes genetic variation; reduced gene flow in isolated populations allows selection to increase genetic differentiation in DMRs
	2. Allele-frequency changes within DMRs are more extreme than other genomic regions	Extreme allele-frequency changes following environmental shift suggest natural selection on DNA methylation and/or genetic variation (these results speak to the selection component of selection-gene flow balance).
Reduced recombination (i.e., higher background selection)	1. DMRs overlap with structural variants (SV)	Reduced recombination is associated with higher background selection and resists homogenization by gene flow – which leads to greater genetic differentiation. SVs suppress recombination; low heterozygosity and/or high LD indicates reduced recombination
	2. DMRs occurs with regions of low heterozygosity	
	3. DMRs occurs in regions of high linkage disequilibrium (LD)	
Direct mutagenic effects	4. Accentuated $F_{ST}$ in DMRs' are associated with C/T polymorphisms (in CpG context)	Methylated cytosines deaminate to thymine at high rates and changes methylation levels, increasing genetic differentiation in differentially methylated regions

800

801

802 **Table 2. Summary of findings on the association between DNA methylation and genetic**  
 803 **differentiation.** This table summarizes the evidence supporting each prediction from the  
 804 hypotheses tested in this study (Table 1), categorized as none, weak, moderate, or strong based  
 805 on statistical significance and pattern consistency.  
 806

<b>Predictions</b>	<b>Degree of evidence</b>
DMRs exhibit accentuated $F_{ST}$ between populations relative to genome-wide levels	moderate
The magnitude to which DMRs exhibit higher $F_{ST}$ relative to the genomic background increases with geographical distance between populations	strong
Patterns of accentuated $F_{ST}$ in DMRs are associated with host-plant ecotype	none
Patterns of accentuated $F_{ST}$ in DMRs are associated with climatic variables	weak
Allele-frequency changes within DMRs are more extreme than other genomic regions	weak
Patterns of accentuated $F_{ST}$ in DMRs are associated with reduced recombination	none
Patterns of accentuated $F_{ST}$ in DMRs are associated with C/T polymorphisms (in CpG context)	none

807

## 808 Figure Legends

809

810 **Figure 1. Patterns, hypotheses and predictions for investigating the association between**  
811 **accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in differentially methylated regions (DMRs).** (A) The selection-gene flow  
812 balance hypothesis posits that different levels of selection and gene flow on DMRs and associated  
813 loci could generate an association between accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs. Two predictions can be  
814 raised with this hypothesis. First, that the magnitude of the association between  $F_{ST}$  and DMRs  
815 increases with geographical isolation, reflecting stronger selection effects as gene flow decreases.  
816 Second, that DMRs will show greater allele-frequency (freq.) shifts in transplant experiments  
817 between environments compared to other methylation tiles. (B) The reduced recombination  
818 hypothesis posits that the patterns of accentuated  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs result from background selection in  
819 regions of reduced recombination. This predicts DMRs are concentrated in low-recombination  
820 regions. (C) The mutagenic DNA methylation hypothesis posits that DNA methylation elevates  
821  $F_{ST}$  by promoting specific mutations. Methylated cytosines (with the red dot) tend to mutate into  
822 thymines in higher rates than any other point mutation (Holliday & Grigg, 1993; Ossowski et al.,  
823 2010). This hypothesis predicts higher  $F_{ST}$  values for SNPs cytosine-to-thymine (C/T) SNPs in CpG  
824 contexts compared to other sequence contexts. Abbreviations: C=cytosine, T=thymine,  
825 G=guanine, A=adenine.

826

827 **Figure 2. The *T. cristinae* study system and ecotype-associated differentially methylated**  
828 **genomic regions (DMRs).** (A) *T. cristinae* and its two host-plant ecotypes: *Adenostoma*  
829 *fasciculatum* and *Ceanothus spinosus*. Illustrations by Rosa Ribas. (B) Sampling locations of study  
830 populations. The main map shows populations analyzed for differentially methylated regions  
831 (DMRs) using whole-genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS; de Carvalho et al., 2023). The inset  
832 depicts populations with whole-genome sequencing (WGS) data from Soria-Carrasco et al. (2014),  
833 used to assess genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ). WGS data covers a broader geographical range,  
834 including additional populations (R12; see Supplementary Information). (C) Methylation distance  
835 patterns across ecotypes. Pairwise Euclidean methylation distances reveal that DMRs (0.04th and  
836 0.4th p-value quantiles) are strongly associated with host ecotype, whereas genome-wide  
837 methylation follows an isolation-by-distance pattern (Figure from de Carvalho et al., 2023).  
838 Abbreviation: geog. = geographic

839

840 **Figure 3. Genetic differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ) in DMRs across populations.** (A) Map of the populations  
841 ( $n=8$  populations) used in this study, of both *Adenostoma* and *Ceanothus* ecotypes (orange and  
842 blue points, respectively). This includes parapatric populations (side by side), and with different  
843 levels of geographical isolation (Soria-Carrasco et al., 2014). (B) Percentage of genic DMRs  
844 overlapping with top 5%  $F_{ST}$  values, a magnitude that is marginally more elevated than expected by  
845 chance (expected values: 5%,  $P=0.077$ ). (C) Mean  $F_{ST}$  relative to the genomic background gets  
846 progressively higher with geographical distance between populations (logarithmically transformed).  
847 X-fold difference expresses relative  $F_{ST}$  values in DMRs compared to the background levels. (D)  
848  $F_{ST}$  values in DMRs between some population pairs separated by different degrees of geographical  
849 isolation. The black bar represents the mean  $F_{ST}$  across methylation tiles (null expectation) and the  
850 red dots represent the  $F_{ST}$  in DMRs. DMRs tend to exhibit particularly higher  $F_{ST}$  values with  
851 increasing levels of geographic isolation.

852

853 **Figure 4. Field experiment testing for allele-frequency changes in DMRs.** (A) Design of field  
854 experiment, where 491 *T. cristinae* specimens to experimental bushes of *Adenostoma* or  
855 *Ceanothus*. Individuals were collected, tissue-sampled, and then transplanted. Survivors were

856 recaptured after eight days, allowing comparison of genetic changes between the released and  
857 surviving individuals (Gompert, Comeault, et al., 2014). The analysis in this study focused on  
858 whether genetic changes were more pronounced in DMRs than expected by chance. Drawings  
859 from Rosa Ribas. **(B)** DMRs show a weak yet statistically significant enrichment in allele-frequency  
860 changes between release and recapture in a field survival experiment, compared to a null  
861 expectation obtained by random sampling (observed  $\Delta p=0.086$ ; null  $\Delta p=0.071$ ;  $P=0.045$ ). The  
862 analysis shown here was performed on 1kbp windows located within genes, and DMRs were  
863 delimited using the cut-off of  $P < 0.0001$ .

864

865 **Figure 5. Mutagenic effects of DNA methylation on SNPs within DMRs. (A)** C/T or G/A SNPs  
866 within DMRs and their corresponding  $F_{ST}$  between all pairwise comparisons, separated at different  
867 levels of geographic isolation. Geographical distance was logarithmically transformed. SNPs that  
868 could be caused by mutagenic effects of DNA methylation in cytosines (thus in cytosines followed  
869 by guanines, CpG, context) are represented in red. **(B)** Same graph as in (A), but controlling for  
870 minor-allele frequencies (MAF) below or equal to 0.05, since a mean of 95.2% of SNPs across all  
871 28 population pairs show  $MAF \leq 0.05$ . Abbreviations: C=cytosine, T=thymine, G=guanine,  
872 A=adenine.