

Expansion and Functional Divergence of Jumonji C-Containing Histone Demethylases: Significance of Duplications in Ancestral Angiosperms and Vertebrates¹[OPEN]

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Histone modifications, such as methylation and demethylation, are crucial mechanisms altering chromatin structure and gene expression. Recent biochemical and molecular studies have uncovered a group of histone demethylases called Jumonji C (JmjC) domain proteins. However, their evolutionary history and patterns have not been examined systematically. Here, we report extensive analyses of eukaryotic *JmjC* genes and define 14 subfamilies, including the *Lysine-Specific Demethylase3* (*KDM3*), *KDM5*, *JMJD6*, *Putative-Lysine-Specific Demethylase11* (*PKDM11*), and *PKDM13* subfamilies, shared by plants, animals, and fungi. Other subfamilies are detected in plants and animals but not in fungi (*PKDM12*) or in animals and fungi but not in plants (*KDM2* and *KDM4*). *PKDM7*, *PKDM8*, and *PKDM9* are plant-specific groups, whereas *Jumonji*, *AT-Rich Interactive Domain2*, *KDM6*, and *PKDM10* are animal specific. In addition to known domains, most subfamilies have characteristic conserved amino acid motifs. Whole-genome duplication (WGD) was likely an important mechanism for *JmjC* duplications, with four pairs from an angiosperm-wide WGD and others from subsequent WGDs. Vertebrates also experienced *JmjC* duplications associated with the vertebrate ancestral WGDs, with additional mammalian paralogs from tandem duplication and possible transposition. The sequences of paralogs have diverged in both known functional domains and other regions, showing evidence of selection pressure. The increases of *JmjC* copy number and the divergences in sequence and expression might have contributed to the divergent functions of *JmjC* genes, allowing the angiosperms and vertebrates to adapt to a great number of ecological niches and contributing to their evolutionary successes.

Chromatin-based regulation is an important mechanism of modulating eukaryotic chromatin structure and gene expression by altering DNA and histone modifications rather than changing DNA sequences. The eukaryotic chromatin contains a group of highly conserved proteins called histones, including the core

histones H2A, H2B, H3, and H4, as well as the linker histone H1. The core histones, with two copies each, form an eight-subunit complex, which is wrapped by 146 bp of DNA to form the nucleosome, the basic unit of chromatin. In each nucleosome, the hydrophobic C-terminal regions of the eight subunits occupy the interior, whereas the hydrophilic N-terminal regions (the tails) extend outward (Luger et al., 1997). The covalent histone modifications occur on the tails of the core histone proteins and encode epigenetic information that can be passed through mitosis, sometimes even meiosis, and alter chromatin structure and modulate genomic functions. Specifically, histone modifications include methylation, acetylation, phosphorylation, ubiquitination, and sumoylation. Chromatin structure can be regulated by three classes of proteins: DNA methylase and demethylases, chromatin remodelers that regulate nucleosome positioning, and enzymes for histone modifications.

Among various histone modifications, the role of methylation varies in different species (Feng et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2010) but is relatively stable and suited for the transmission of epigenetic information (Strahl and Allis, 2000), sometimes even transgenerationally,

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as supported by a recent study in *Arabidopsis* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) showing that the vernalized state can be partially transgenerationally inherited due to a defect in the reduction of histone H3 lysine-27 trimethylation (H3K27me3) levels at *FLOWERING LOCUS C* (*FLC*; Crevillén et al., 2014). Histone methylation occurs on Arg and Lys residues and is involved in a wide range of biological processes, including gene expression, chromatin structure, dosage compensation, and epigenetic memory (Martin and Zhang, 2005). A Lys residue can be monomethylated, dimethylated, or trimethylated; however, an Arg residue can only be monomethylated or dimethylated. Different histone modifications regulate distinct functional outcomes within an epigenetic marking system: methylation at histone H3 Lys-4 (H3K4), H3K36, and H3K79 is correlated with higher gene expression, whereas methylation at H3K9, H3K27, and H4K20 is associated with lower gene expression, hence often termed activating or repressing marks, respectively, although the causal relationship between histone modification and transcriptional activity is still elusive (Martin and Zhang, 2005; Henikoff and Shilatifard, 2011; Dong and Weng, 2013).

Histone methylation has been regarded as an irreversible modification for a long time, because of the stable nature of the carbon-nitrogen bond; this idea is also supported by the similar half-lives of histone fractions and methyl Lys and methyl Arg marks (Byvoet et al., 1972). In 2004, the discovery of the first histone demethylase, known as LYSINE-SPECIFIC DEMETHYLASE1 (LSD1), provided experimental evidence for enzymatic demethylation (Shi et al., 2004). The single-copy LSD1 mediates oxidative demethylation on monomethylated or dimethylated H3K4 and/or H3K9 but not trimethylated H3K4 (Shi et al., 2004). Subsequently, a second and larger class of demethylases containing a Jumonji C (JmjC) domain was identified (Tsukada et al., 2006). Unlike LSD1, the JmjC proteins do not require a protonated nitrogen and can also reverse the trimethylated histone Lys state (Shi and Whetstone, 2007). Five amino acid residues within predicted cofactor-binding sites in the JmjC domain are conserved and important for enzymatic activity (Klose et al., 2006). Among these, three residues bind to the Fe (II) cofactor and two other residues are required for α -ketoglutarate (α KG) binding.

Several plant *JmjC* genes are known to have important functions in regulating development and environmental responses (Liu et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2011; Kooistra and Helin, 2012). For example, POLYCOMB REPRESSIVE COMPLEX2, a conserved and key transcriptional regulator in animals and plants, has been demonstrated to have H3K27me3 affinity (Cao et al., 2002). In *Arabidopsis*, *Relative of Early Flowering6* (*REF6*)/*AtPKDM9A* and *Early Flowering6* (*ELF6*)/*AtPKDM9B* are closely related *JmjC* paralogs and have H3K27me3 demethylase activities (Lu et al., 2011a; Crevillén et al., 2014) but have different roles in the regulation of flowering time (Noh et al., 2004). The *elf6* mutant flowers early and exhibits reduced

expression of the flowering repressor *FLC* (Noh et al., 2004), due to an elevated level of H3K27me3 at the *FLC* locus (Crevillén et al., 2014), but the *ref6* mutant shows an *FLC*-dependent late-flowering phenotype (Noh et al., 2004). In addition, a recent study showed that loss of H3K27me3 was observed after salt priming in *Arabidopsis* seedlings (Sani et al., 2013), suggesting that some *JmjC* genes may be induced upon salt stress. To date, many members of the *JmjC* gene family have not been characterized genetically or biochemically; nevertheless, sequence and evolutionary analyses can help predict their functions in histone demethylation. However, the expression and functional divergence of *JmjC* duplicates have not been studied extensively, especially in response to abiotic stresses, such as abscisic acid (ABA), salt, and drought. In addition, members of the *PKDM7* subfamily exhibited distinct expression patterns correlated with their different enzymatic activities (Lu et al., 2008), but the underlying sequence divergence and dynamic evolution are still unknown.

An early study of the *JmjC* gene family using sequences from *Arabidopsis*, rice (*Oryza sativa*), and human (*Homo sapiens*) defined 12 subfamilies according to phylogenetic relationships, with support from the presence of other domains (Zhou and Ma, 2008). These domains play potential regulatory roles in the demethylation process, such as the recognition of methylated histone marks (e.g. Plant homeodomain and Tudor domain), protein-protein interaction (e.g. F-box), and DNA binding (e.g. Cys2His2 zinc finger; Zhou and Ma, 2008). However, the previous reports have focused on a single species or a few species (Lu et al., 2008; Zhou and Ma, 2008); thus, there has not been a systematic study of the *JmjC* family in plants or animals. Recent progress in genome sequencing provides an opportunity to gain additional insights into the evolution of the *JmjC* family during the histories of angiosperms and vertebrates.

Histone methylation is mainly mediated by SET {for Suppressor of variegation [Su(var)3-9], Enhancer of zeste [E(z)] and Trithorax [Trx]} domain protein methyltransferase, and genome duplication has resulted in an increase of *SET* copy numbers. In *Arabidopsis*, five duplicated gene pairs are retained after recent genome duplication events, and 19 pairs are retained in poplar (*Populus trichocarpa*; Lei et al., 2012). It would also be helpful to learn whether the *JmjC* gene family has a similar evolutionary pattern to that of the *SET* genes. The evolutionary patterns of these two families could inform the balanced influence of demethylation and methylation on species evolution and divergence. In this study, we have characterized the evolution of *JmjC* genes in major eukaryotic lineages, including land plants, using phylogenetic and domain analyses, and we define 14 monophyletic subfamilies: *Jumonji*, *AT-Rich Interactive Domain2*, *JMJD6*, *KDM2*, *KDM3*, *KDM4*, *KDM5*, *KDM6*, *PKDM7*, *PKDM8*, *PKDM9*, *PKDM10*, *PKDM11*, *PKDM12*, and *PKDM13*. We show that some families underwent distinct gene duplication during evolution in angiosperms, especially in the ancestor of extant angiosperms.

RESULTS

Identification of *JmjC* Genes in Plants, Animals, and Fungi

The complete set of *JmjC* genes was identified from a comprehensive data set that contains selected plants, animals, and fungi based on HMMER software. In all, 434 sequences, each containing a *JmjC* domain, were retrieved from 35 different organisms: 11 plants, 16 metazoans, seven fungi, and *Monosiga brevicollis* (a unicellular choanoflagellate, a protist related to animals; Fig. 1; Supplemental Tables S1 and S2). The identified *JmjC* proteins range in size from 266 to 2,740 amino acids. Among major lineages of plants, *JmjC* genes are present in algae, Bryophyta, Pteridophyta, and angiosperms. The copy number of *JmjC* genes varies considerably among plants, ranging from two in the green algae *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* and *Volvox carteri* to 17 in rice (monocot) and 21 in Arabidopsis (eudicot), with the highest number of 27 in poplar (eudicot). *JmjC* genes are also widespread in animals, from simple invertebrates, such as the sponge *Amphimedon queenslandica*, to mammals, such as human, with the gene copy number ranging from six to 28, as well as in the unicellular *M. brevicollis*. Further investigation reveals that the copy number variation in animals is mainly due to gene duplications in vertebrates; also, the distribution of subgroup PKDM12 in different organisms

is complex. In fungi, there are fewer than six genes for each species, such as one in *Schizosaccharomyces pombe*, three in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, and five in *Agaricus bisporus* var *bisporus*; altogether, 27 *JmjC* gene sequences were retrieved from seven fungi.

In order to standardize gene names and be consistent with the literature, we adopted a common nomenclature system based on the names of human genes according to the chromatin-modifying enzyme activities of animal members and Arabidopsis genes designated in previous studies as well as our phylogenetic analysis (Allis et al., 2007; Zhou and Ma, 2008). First, for human and Arabidopsis genes with known functions or previous research, the published gene names were retained and used as a reference. Second, the orthologs of these genes from plants, animals, and fungi were named following established references. Ultimately, recent paralogs were distinguished with an uppercase letter after the number, using the same letter for orthologs between organisms whenever possible.

Phylogenetic Classification of *JmjC* Genes into 14 Subfamilies

To explore the evolutionary relationships of eukaryotic *JmjC* genes, we conducted phylogenetic analyses

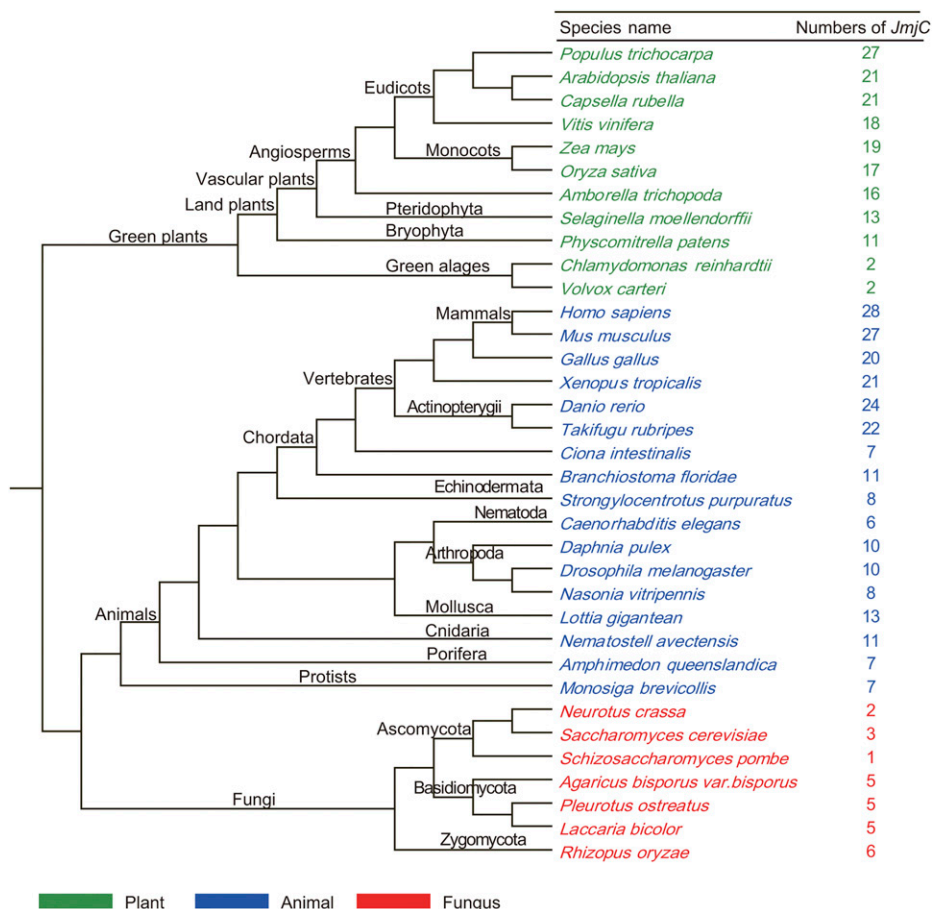


Figure 1. Phylogenetic relationships of species that were used in this study. The total number of *JmjC* proteins found in the genome of each species is indicated. The cladogram is based on the current view of plant and eukaryotic phylogeny (Gough et al., 2001).

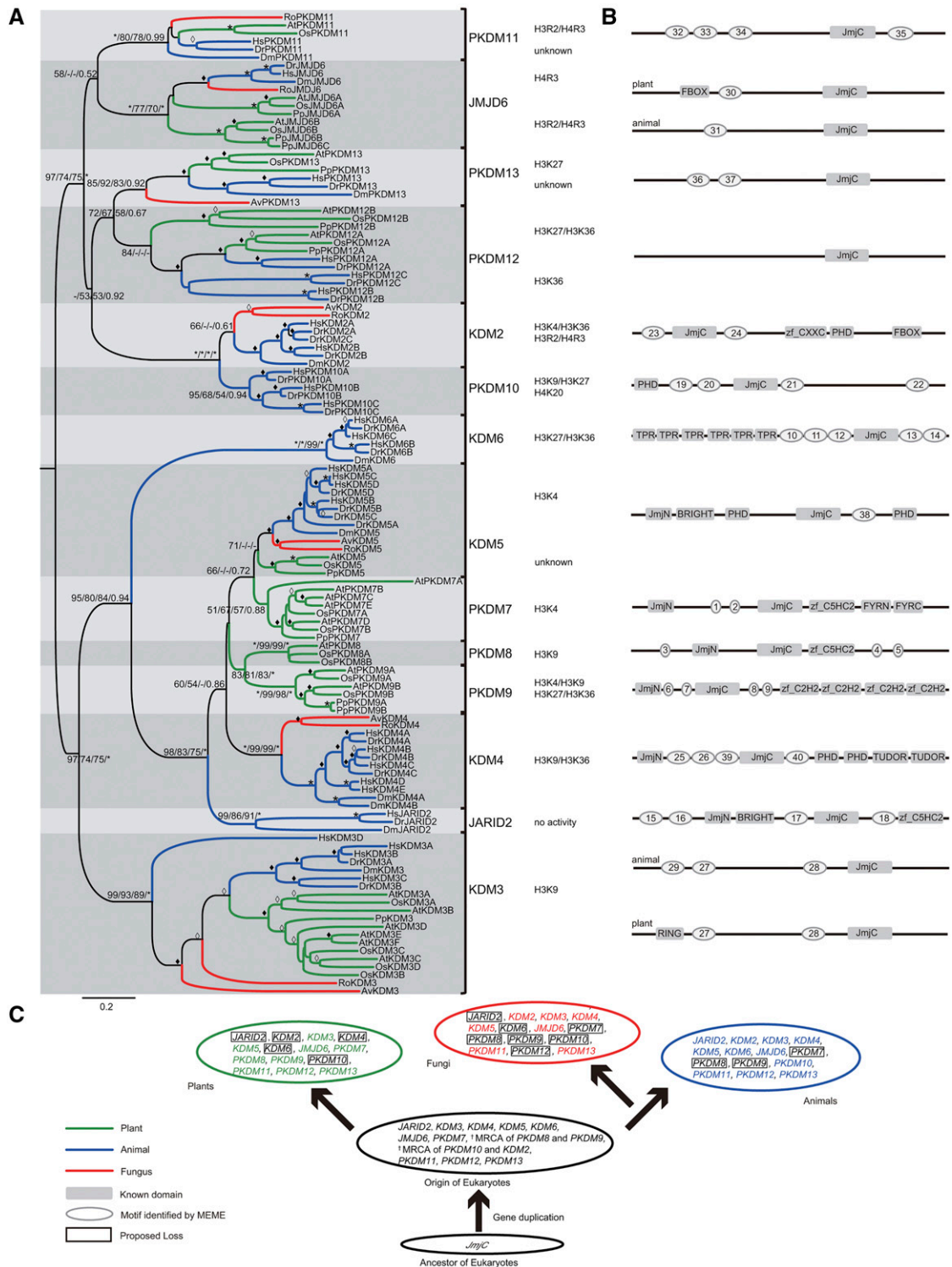


Figure 2. Phylogeny of representative *JmjC* genes from plants, animals, and fungi. **A**, Evolutionary relationship between *JmjC* genes from eight representative species (Chordata: Hs, *Homo sapiens*; Dr, *Danio rerio*. Arthropoda: Dm, *Drosophila melanogaster*. Basidiomycota: Av, *A. bisporus* var *bisporus*. Zygomycota: Ro, *Rhizopus oryzae*. Angiosperms: At, Arabidopsis; Os, rice. Bryophyta: Pp, *Physcomitrella patens*). Tree topology constructed using MEGA is shown here. For major nodes, NJ and ML (ML bootstrap [BS] values were generated by PhyML (version 3.0) and RAxML (version 7.0), respectively), BS values above 50%, followed by Bayesian posterior probability (PP) values are shown. For minor nodes, empty diamonds represent BS values of 50% to 69% and solid diamonds mark BS values of 70% to 99% from NJ analysis. For major and minor nodes, asterisks indicate BS/PP values of 100%/1. Substrate specificities for residues of histone tails are indicated for all subfamilies with demonstrated

with an alignment of the conserved JmjC domain from representative species using neighbor-joining (NJ), maximum likelihood (ML), and Bayesian methods. ML and Bayes analyses showed that proteins from different species cluster together in clades with high support values, with support from NJ analysis for most results. According to the results from phylogenetic and motif analyses, the eukaryotic *JmjC* genes can be divided into 14 subfamilies, designated as *JARID2*, *JMJD6*, *KDM2*, *KDM3*, *KDM4*, *KDM5*, *KDM6*, *PKDM7*, *PKDM8*, *PKDM9*, *PKDM10*, *PKDM11*, *PKDM12*, and *PKDM13* (Fig. 2). Among these subfamilies, *KDM3*, *KDM5*, *JMJD6*, *PKDM11*, and *PKDM13* each contain members from plants, animals, and fungi. On the other hand, *PKDM12* lacks fungal members, and *KDM2* and *KDM4* lack plant members. In addition, *PKDM7*, *PKDM8*, and *PKDM9* are plant-specific groups, and *JARID2*, *KDM6*, and *PKDM10* are animal specific.

The fact that *KDM3*, *KDM5*, *JMJD6*, *PKDM11*, and *PKDM13* subfamilies have members from major multicellular groups of eukaryotes, including plants, animals, and fungi, suggests that these clades originated from five respective ancestral genes in the most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of the three kingdoms. According to our phylogenetic analyses, *JMJD6*, *PKDM11*, and *PKDM13* cluster together with strong support, but some of the internal relationships of these clades are not clear. The *KDM2* and *KDM4* subfamilies both contain animal and fungal *JmjC* genes, indicating that the two clades are derived from ancestral genes that were present before the separation of animals and fungi. The *KDM4* clade is well supported by all phylogenetic methods, but the classification of *KDM2* also relied on the protein domain structures. The *PKDM7*, *PKDM8*, and *PKDM9* subfamilies are plant specific. According to the tree topology, the *PKDM8* subfamily forms a sister group to *PKDM9*, and together they are from an ancestral gene in the MRCA of plants, animals, and fungi, because they are sister to a large clade with genes from all three kingdoms. Both *PKDM7* and *PKDM9* subfamilies contain genes from major lineages of land plants, including Bryophyta, Pteridophyta, and angiosperms, revealing that they are retained in land plants, whereas *PKDM8* genes are conserved from Pteridophyta to angiosperms, suggesting a likely loss of this subfamily in nonvascular plants. The *JARID2*, *KDM6*, and *PKDM10* subfamilies are composed of only animal genes. However, the sisterhood of *JARID2* and *KDM6* to other clades containing genes from all three kingdoms suggests the origins of these subfamilies in the MRCA of three kingdoms; similarly, the ancestral gene of *PKDM10* was probably already present in the MRCA of animals and fungi. The early

origins of *JARID2* and *PKDM10* were further supported by the identification of their homologs in *M. brevicollis*.

In summary, eukaryotic *JmjC* genes form 14 subfamilies. These subfamilies can be grouped into four categories: five shared by all three major eukaryotic kingdoms; one shared by animals and plants; two found in both animals and fungi, with the counterparts lost from plants; and three plant specific and three animal specific. It is likely that there were at least 12 ancestral *JmjC* genes present in the MRCA of three major eukaryotic kingdoms, with subsequent duplications and losses in specific kingdoms (Fig. 2C). Additionally, within most subfamilies, except for *JARID2*, *PKDM11*, and *PKDM13*, there are two or more gene copies in plants or animals, suggesting further functional divergence of *JmjC* genes.

Different Domain Architecture and Conserved Non-JmjC Motifs in Subfamilies

According to the phylogenetic tree shown in Figure 2A, 14 monophyletic subfamilies were identified in the *JmjC* gene family. These 14 subfamilies represent 12 different domain architectures, as three subfamilies (*PKDM11*, *PKDM12*, and *PKDM13*) possess only the JmjC domain. Among these, the plant-specific *PKDM7*, *PKDM8*, and *PKDM9* subfamilies have similar domain architectures, but *PKDM7* proteins possess extra FYRN and FYRC domains. To determine whether motifs outside the JmjC and other known domains were conserved between members of the same subfamily, we searched for motifs in our data set of JmjC proteins. We found 40 motifs with lengths greater than 10 amino acids that are specific within subfamilies (Supplemental Table S3; Supplemental Fig. S1). The subfamilies exhibited various combinations of motifs; in addition, for subfamilies *KDM3* and *JMJD6*, different conserved motifs were found in plant and animal proteins (Fig. 2B). None of the 40 conserved motifs corresponded to known domains in the Pfam database. The highly conserved motifs shared by members of subfamilies of the JmjC domain proteins further support the classification presented here. The conservation of these additional domains in the respective subfamilies implies that they play important roles in the functions of these subfamilies.

Multiple Gene Duplication Events Identified in Angiosperms and Retention in Ancestral Angiosperms

To investigate the evolutionary history of the *JmjC* gene family, we analyzed the phylogeny of each

Figure 2. (Continued.)

demethylase activity. B, Highly conserved non-JmjC amino acid motifs in each *JmjC* subfamily. An idealized representation of a typical member of each *JmjC* subfamily is shown, with known domains drawn as shaded rectangles and other conserved motifs drawn as shaded ovals. The diagrams are not drawn to scale. The sequences of each motif in gene family members are given in Supplemental Table S3. C, Model of the evolutionary history of the *JmjC* gene family. In different kingdoms, the *JmjC* gene experienced several specific duplication events associated with the species divergence.

subfamily (Supplemental Figs. S2–S12). In the *PKDM7* subfamily, *AmPKDM7A* from *Amborella trichopoda* (sister to other angiosperms) and *AmPKDM7B* are in two sister groups, each of which contains genes from both monocots and eudicots (Fig. 3). The Bryophyta and Pteridophyta *PKDM7* genes constitute a clade separate from sister groups containing the *A. trichopoda* genes. Therefore, it is most likely that *AmPKDM7A* and *AmPKDM7B* were derived from gene duplication before the divergence of extant angiosperms but after the separation of angiosperms from other land plants. Additionally, in the *PKDM7* subfamily, each of the *PKDM7B*, *PKDM7C*, and *PKDM7E* genes forms a monophyletic group that includes genes from Brassicaceae species, whereas the homologous genes in *P. trichocarpa*

and *Vitis vinifera* form a separate basal clade. This topology is supported by multiple analyses and suggests that the duplication events likely occurred in the ancestor of the Brassicaceae. Similarly, in the *PKDM8* subfamily, grass *PKDM8A* and *PKDM8B* genes are sister groups likely generated by duplication in the ancestor of grasses (Fig. 3B).

Whole-genome duplications (WGDs) are thought to be common in angiosperms and are also associated with the origin of vertebrate animals (Panopoulou et al., 2003; Jiao et al., 2011). To further ascertain whether these *JmjC* genes are caused by genome duplication events, we examined genomic regions containing duplicated genes in different species. Most members of these duplicated gene pairs are located in

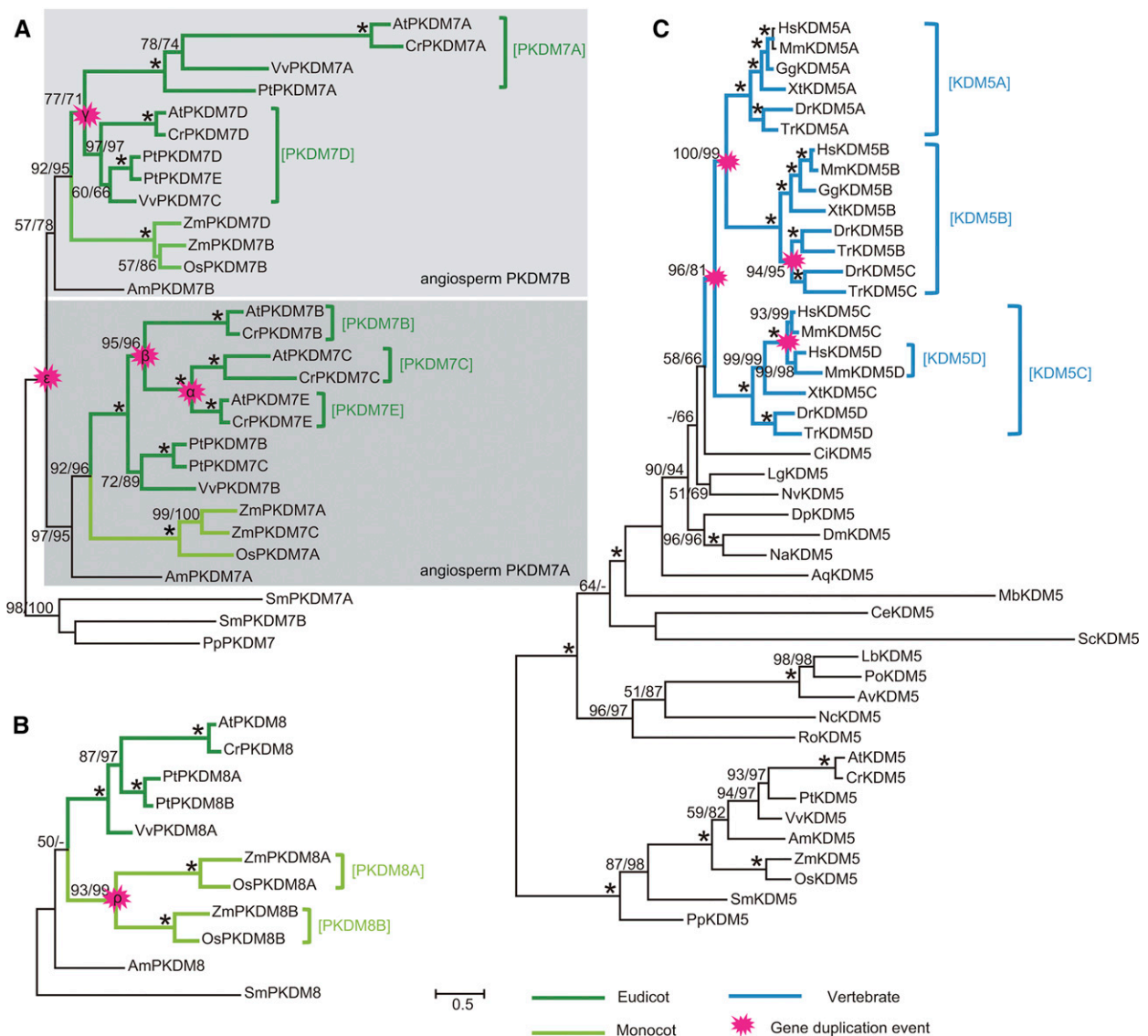


Figure 3. Phylogenies of the *PKDM7*, *PKDM8*, and *KDM5* subfamilies. Phylogenetic trees of the *PKDM7* (A) and *PKDM8* (B) genes from plants and *KDM5* from major eukaryotes (C) constructed by ML using the Jones, Taylor, and Thornton model for amino acid substitution and γ -parameters are shown. For each clade, PhyML (version 3.0) and RAxML (version 7.0) percentage bootstrap values no less than 50% are presented. Asterisks indicate both bootstrap values of 100%.

syntenic genomic regions, indicating that these *JmjC* gene copies are likely generated by chromosome segmental duplications or WGDs, such as α and β in Brassicaceae, γ in early core eudicots, ρ and σ in grasses, and ε in early angiosperms (Jaillon et al., 2007; Barker et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2010; Jiao et al., 2011). Specifically, in the *PKDM7* clade, the duplication of *PKDM7C* and *PKDM7E* in Brassicaceae is likely the result of α , and the

combined clade of *PKDM7C* and *PKDM7E* form a sister to *PKDM7B*, likely due to β (Fig. 3A; Supplemental Fig. S13). The duplication in core eudicots that generated *PKDM7A* and *PKDM7D* corresponds to γ (Supplemental Fig. S13C). A more ancient event, ε , is also detected in our results, generating the aforementioned pair of *AmPKDM7A* and *AmPKDM7B* belonging to the two angiosperm sister groups in the *PKDM7* subfamily. In

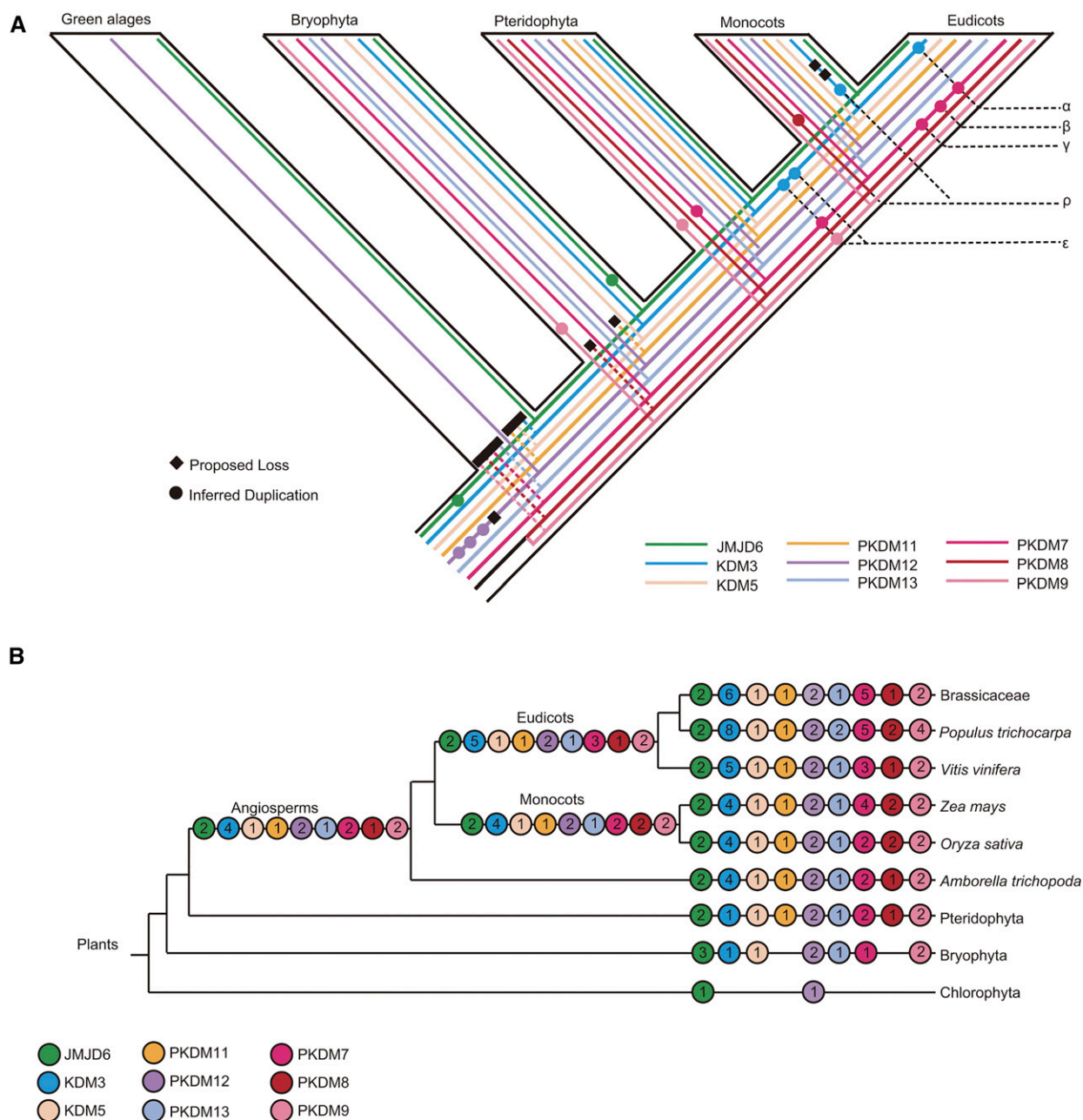


Figure 4. Duplication events in the plant *JmjC* family inferred from amino acid sequence analyses. A, Schematic depiction of the inferred history of gene duplication and loss within the green plants. Inferred duplications are marked with colored circles, and proposed losses are indicated with black diamonds. B, Schematic representation of the complement of *JmjC* proteins in major plant groups. A numbered circle represents the copy number of each *JmjC* subfamily. The numbers in the left-most circles represent the minimum inferred *JmjC* protein complement in the last common ancestor of each major plant group.

Table I. Number of human paralogous genes identified from the Synteny Database using *KDM3* loci as seed genes

The first number represents the number of paralogous genes obtained with a window of 100 genes, and the second number represents the number of paralogous genes obtained with a window of 200 genes.

Gene	HsKDM3A	HsKDM3B	HsKDM3C	HsKDM3D
	Hsa2	Hsa5	Hsa10	Hsa8
HsKDM3A				
HsKDM3B	6/52			
HsKDM3C	39/97	14/76		
HsKDM3D	13/70	32/32	59/63	

the *PKDM8* clade, the occurrence of the *PKDM8A* and *PKDM8B* is consistent with the ρ duplication within Poaceae (Fig. 3B; Supplemental Fig. S13D; Paterson et al., 2004). Additionally, we identified four duplicated gene pairs in the ancestral angiosperm (Fig. 4).

Multiple Gene Duplication Events Identified in Vertebrate Evolution and Lineage-Specific Losses

To better understand the evolutionary relationships of lineages within animals, we carried out similar analyses in subfamilies containing animal members. The *KDM5* subfamily has three vertebrate groups named *KDM5A*, *KDM5B*, and *KDM5C*, but invertebrates, plants, and fungi have a single copy (Fig. 3C). *KDM5A* and *KDM5B* genes formed two well-supported sister groups that coincide with one of two WGDs (1R and 2R) before the divergence of vertebrates (Dehal and Boore, 2005). The combined clade of vertebrate *KDM5A* and *KDM5B* is sister to *KDM5C*, probably due to the earlier of the two WGDs in early vertebrates (Dehal and Boore, 2005). Further support for the origin of these groups from the WGDs is provided by the finding that *HsKDM5A*, *HsKDM5B*, and *HsKDM5C* are located in syntenic regions of three different chromosomes (Supplemental Fig. S14). In the *KDM5B* clade, a high degree of conservation of synteny was found in the two chromosome segments *DrKDM5B* and *DrKDM5C* (Supplemental Fig. S14B). These two genes were members of two fish-specific sister groups in the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 3C). The duplication generating *DrKDM5B* and *DrKDM5C* corresponds to the WGD (3R WGD) that is specific to a fish lineage (Kasahara, 2007).

In addition, phylogenetic analyses were performed using full-length sequences of JmjC proteins in other orthologous subfamilies. Most orthologous groups exhibited duplication events that correspond to WGDs, and 15 duplication events were shared by at least two animal species, in the phylogenetic trees for *JMJD6*, *KDM2*, *KDM3*, *KDM4*, *KDM6*, *PKDM10*, and *PKDM12* (Supplemental Table S4; Supplemental Figs. S3–S9, S11, and S15). In addition to duplications produced by the 2R and 3R WGDs, a clade including only human and/or mouse genes was discovered in *KDM3*, *KDM4*,

KDM5, and *KDM6* groups, but the mechanisms of such mammal-specific duplication are unclear. Moreover, *JARID2* contains animal-specific single-copy genes, and *PKDM11* and *PKDM13* subfamily members are single-copy orthologs not only in animals but also in plants and fungi (Supplemental Figs. S2, S10, and S12). Additionally, some of the duplicates were lost in some lineages. In *KDM3*, four human paralogs were located in a syntenic region, namely *KDM3A*, *KDM3B*, *KDM3C*, and *KDM3D* (Table I), but *KDM3D* was lost from birds and fishes. A phylogeny tree supports the origin of the four paralogs as results of the vertebrate WGDs 1R and 2R (Supplemental Fig. S5).

The *KDM5* and *KDM6* subfamilies are unusual in that they possess paralogs located on X and Y chromosomes, respectively. Our phylogenetic analyses indicate that *KDM5D* and *KDM6C* each has a sister group in mammals. Synteny analysis shows that these two *JmjC* genes are located on the Y chromosome and their respective paralogs are located on the X chromosome. A previous study showed that *KDM5D* arose about 154 million years ago in the common ancestor of marsupial and placental mammals, and *KDM6C* differentiated before the placental mammal radiation about 116 million years ago (Cortez et al., 2014). The human sex chromosome evolved from autosomes about 240 to 320 million years ago, which is more ancient than the occurrence of *KDM5D* and *KDM6C* (Lahn and Page, 1999; Bellott et al., 2010), suggesting that these paralogs could be the result of transposition from one sex chromosome to the other. On the other hand, the origins of *KDM4D* and *KDM4E* are not clear. *KDM4D* was found in mammals but not in other classes of vertebrates, and the latter is only found in primates. *HsKDM4D* and *HsKDM4E* are located close together on the same chromosome, indicating that the two genes were likely generated by a tandem duplication (Table II). *KDM4D* is only found in mammals and is nested in a clade of vertebrate *KDM4B* genes (Supplemental Fig. S6); the weak support of the clade with the *KDM4D* and fish *KDM4B* genes allows the possibility that the *KDM4D* genes originated in early vertebrates but were lost in birds and fishes. *KDM4D* and *KDM4E* both possess an N terminus but lack the C-terminal sequence that is conserved in *KDM4B*. About

Table II. Number of human paralogous genes identified from the Synteny Database using *KDM4* loci as seed genes

The first number represents the number of paralogous genes obtained with a window of 100 genes, and the second number represents the number of paralogous genes obtained with a window of 200 genes.

Gene	HsKDM4A	HsKDM4B	HsKDM4C	HsKDM4D
	Hsa1	Hsa19	Hsa9	Hsa11
HsKDM4A				
HsKDM4B	93/203			
HsKDM4C	84/171	45/87		
HsKDM4D	2/10	5/6	3/3	

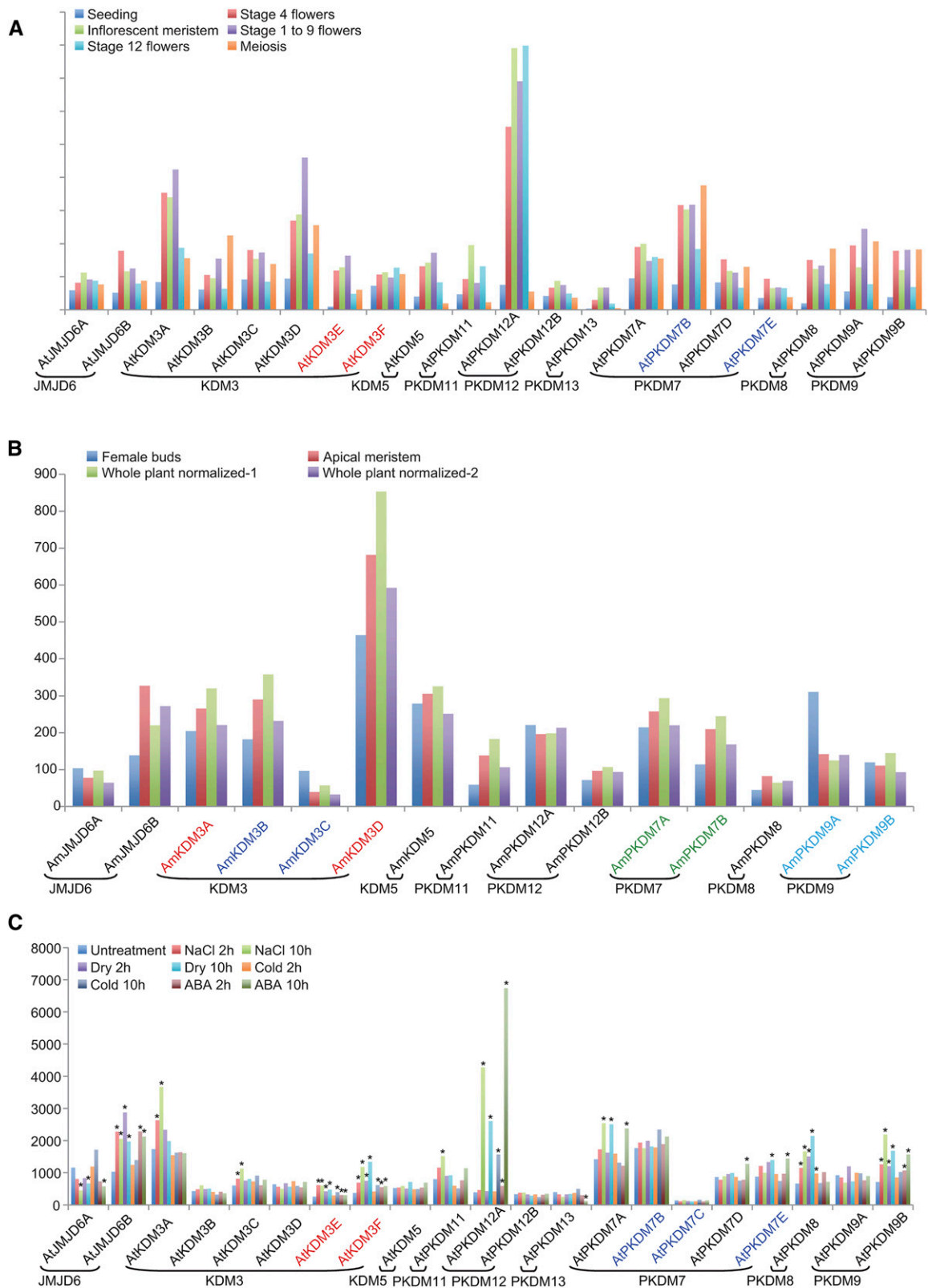


Figure 5. Expression of Arabidopsis and *A. trichopoda* *JmjC* genes. A, Expression of Arabidopsis *JmjC* genes in different stages or tissues. The x axis indicates different representative genes, and the y axis represents reads per kilobase of mRNA length per million mapped reads values. Genes resulting from recent duplications are shown in the same color. B, Expression of *A. trichopoda* *JmjC* genes in different tissues. C, Expression of Arabidopsis *JmjC* genes under drought, cold, high-salinity, and ABA treatment. Asterisks indicate differential expression under stress conditions compared with normal conditions.

20 introns were identified in *HsKDM4A*, *HsKDM4B*, and *HsKDM4C*, but only two in *HsKDM4D* and none in *HsKDM4E*, suggesting that the *HsKDM4B* to *HsKDM4D* genes derived from *HsKDM4B* by retroposition. It is possible that *KDM4A*, *KDM4B*, *KDM4C*, and *KDM4D* resulted from the vertebrate WGDs, if weakly supported relationships are not considered.

Expression and Functional Divergence of *JmjC* Duplicates

To obtain clues about possible functional divergence, we examined RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) data of *Arabidopsis* and *A. trichopoda* and found that most *JmjC* genes were expressed in the developing flower and different tissues, except *AtPKDM7C* and *AmPKDM12B* (Fig. 5; Supplemental Table S5). More interestingly, *AtKDM3D* and *AmKDM3D* are both expressed more highly than other genes in the same subfamily. Transcriptomic comparison of *Arabidopsis* and *A. trichopoda* *JmjC* genes indicated that most were expressed at similar levels in different tissues, suggesting functional conservation in angiosperms. In addition, public tiling array data of *Arabidopsis* under drought, cold, high-salinity, and ABA treatments were examined for *JmjC* gene expression (Fig. 5C; Supplemental Table S6). Some *JmjC* genes showed differential expression upon cold treatment, including *AtKDM3E*, *AtKDM3F*, *AtPKDM12A*, and *AtPKDM8*, and many were affected by other treatments. The number of differentially expressed genes in a 10-h treatment was greater than that found after a 2-h treatment. These results suggest that plant *JmjC* genes play potential roles in stress responses.

Gene duplication increases the quantity of genetic material and improves the chance of functional innovations during evolution. To obtain clues about functional divergence, we examined some of the recent duplicates for expression changes in different tissues and upon abiotic stresses. In *Arabidopsis*, a trio of paralogs are retained after the Brassicaceae WGDs, *AtPKDM7C*, *AtPKDM7E*, and *AtPKDM7B*. Among them, *AtPKDM7E* was differentially expressed under drought, but not *AtPKDM7B* and *AtPKDM7C* (Fig. 5C; Supplemental Table S6). Also, two duplicates are retained after the core eudicot WGDs, *AtPKDM7A* and *AtPKDM7D*. *AtPKDM7A* was induced by drought and NaCl treatments, but *AtPKDM7D* was not (Fig. 5C; Supplemental Table S6). In *A. trichopoda*, four pairs of duplicates, *AmKDM3A* and *AmKDM3D*, *AmKDM3B* and *AmKDM3C*, *AmPKDM7A* and *AmPKDM7B*, and *AmPKDM9A* and *AmPKDM9B*, are retained from the WGD in the ancestral angiosperm, but only the *AmPKDM7A* and *AmPKDM7B* pair exhibited a minor difference in expression. *AtPKDM9B*, the *Arabidopsis* ortholog of *AmPKDM9B*, is expressed differentially under drought, NaCl, and ABA treatments, but *AtPKDM9A*, the *Arabidopsis* ortholog of *AmPKDM9A*, is not significantly induced. In conclusion, duplicated genes in several pairs differ in the induction of expression upon abiotic stresses and/or in different tissues, suggesting functional divergence between these paralogs.

To further investigate functional divergence among *JmjC* genes, we examined transcriptomic data sets of the wild type and several anther mutants, including *dys-functional tapetum1* (*dyt1*), *basic helix-loop-helix10* (*bhlh10*), *bhlh89*, and *bhlh91* (E. Zhu, C. You, J. Cui, F. Chang, and H. Ma, unpublished data), as a case study of possible regulation of *JmjC* genes by such regulatory genes. The expression of most *JmjC* genes was not altered in these mutants, except for *AtMJJD6B*, *AtPKDM12A*, *AtPKDM7E*, and *AtPKDM8*, with 2-fold or greater changes (Fig. 6; Supplemental Table S7). *DYT1* encodes a bHLH-type transcription factor and is important for normal tapetum development (Zhang et al., 2006; Feng et al., 2012), as are the other bHLH transcription factors; thus, the expression change of several *JmjC* genes in these mutants suggests a potential role in tapetum development. Additionally, we also compared *JmjC* gene expression between the wild type and the *pkdm7d/jmj16* mutant (E. Zhu, C. You, J. Cui, F. Chang, and H. Ma, unpublished data) and found some *JmjC* genes with distinct expression patterns (Fig. 6; Supplemental Table S7), suggesting functional divergence among these genes. Specifically, *AtPKDM12A* was dramatically down-regulated in *pkdm7d/jmj16*, indicating that its transcription may be regulated by *PKDM7D* directly or indirectly. Together, *JmjC* gene expression from public and our own RNA-seq data strongly supports possible functional divergence.

Sequence Analysis for Functional Diversification of *JmjC* Duplicates

In addition to the expression divergence of *JmjC* genes, functional diversification (FD) of *JmjC* paralogs could also occur in coding regions. To estimate FD between two paralogs, we used the DIVERGE3.0 program with amino acid sequence data: FD I was based on evolutionary rate (Gu, 1999), and FD II was based on differences in biochemical properties of amino acids (Gu, 2006; Table III). We found that the angiosperm-wide duplicates, *PKDM7A* and *PKDM7B*, have FD I with the highest significance ($P = 1.9E-16$). In addition, two other pairs, Brassicaceae *PKDM7B* versus *PKDM7C* ($P = 3.1E-08$) and grass *PKDM8A* versus *PKDM8B* ($P = 8.9E-13$), also have highly significant FD I.

Using the same program, amino acid sites likely contributing to FD I could be identified. Between the angiosperm *PKDM7A* and *PKDM7B* following the ϵ WGD, 51 putative sites responsible for FD I were identified (Table III; Supplemental Table S8). In addition, 32 sites were found for the angiosperm pair *KDM3B* and *KDM3C*, also generated at the time of the ϵ WGD. The amino acid residues at these sites were highly conserved between plants within one paralogous group but diverse among the other group of paralogs. Some of the differences between paralogs involved functionally distinct amino acids, such as that at position 268, which is occupied by the hydrophobic Phe in *PKDM7A* proteins but by polar hydrophilic Ser in *PKDM7B*. Similarly, position 671 has a polar hydrophilic Arg in *PKDM7B* but hydrophobic amino acids (e.g. Ile, Trp, and Leu) in *PKDM7A*

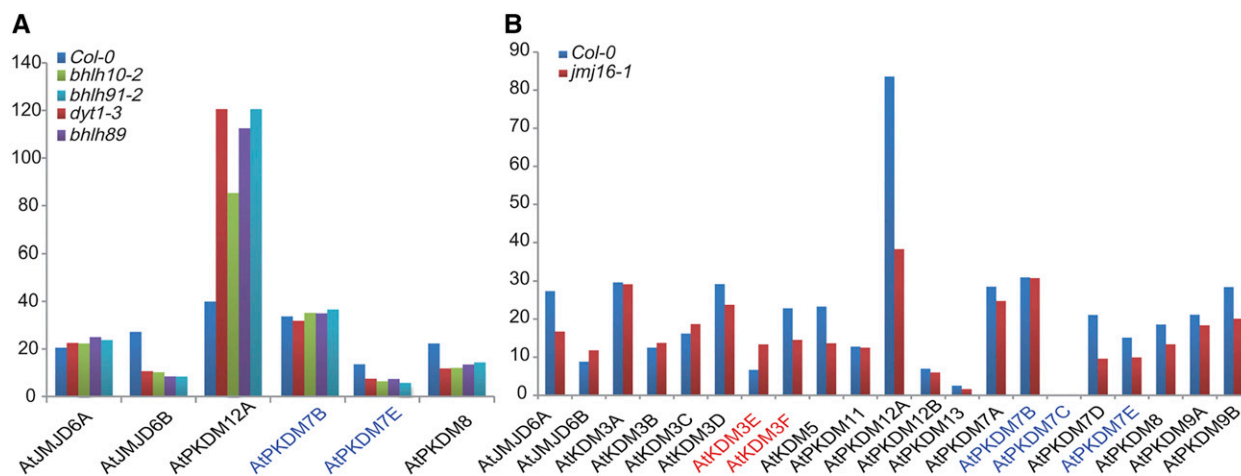


Figure 6. Expression of *JmjC* genes in Arabidopsis wild-type Columbia-0 (Col-0) and mutants by RNA-seq. A, Two-fold change in the expression of *JmjC* genes and their paralogs compared with *dyt1* (*bhlh22*), *bhlh10*, *bhlh89*, and *bhlh91* mutants and the wild type. B, Expression of *JmjC* genes in the *pkdm7d/jmj16* mutants. The x axis represents different genes, and the y axis indicates reads per kilobase of mRNA length per million mapped reads values. Genes resulting from recent duplications are shown in the same color.

proteins (Supplemental Fig. S16). Next, we examined the amino acid sites identified using FD analysis for known functions and found that many such FD I-associated amino acids are located in the JmjC or zinc finger domain, suggesting that functional specialization could have occurred in enzymatic and/or binding activities (Supplemental Table S8). At the same time, other sites showing FD I have no defined role; further experiments are needed to test the possible functional differences at these sites.

DISCUSSION

WGDs Contributed to *JmjC* Gene Expansion Especially Near the Origin of Angiosperms and Vertebrates

WGDs are found widely, including in both plants and animals, such as those associated with the origins of angiosperms (ϵ), core eudicots (γ), and Brassicaceae (α and β), and those in the ancestral vertebrates (2R) and supported by synteny, age estimates of gene duplications, and gene family phylogeny (Jaillon et al., 2007;

Table III. Analysis of FD by DIVERGE

FD	WGD	Subfamilies	Coefficient $\theta \pm SE (P)$	No. ^a
Type I	α/β	Brassicaceae PKDM7C versus PKDM7E	0.225383 \pm 0.101966 (2.23E-02)	0
		Brassicaceae PKDM7B versus PKDM7C	0.529252 \pm 0.101985 (3.09E-08)	16
		Brassicaceae PKDM7B versus PKDM7E	0.360678 \pm 0.117604 (1.45E-03)	1
	α/β	Brassicaceae KDM3E versus KDM3F	0.101601 \pm 0.074635	0
	γ	Eudicot PKDM7A versus PKDM7D	0.008360 \pm 0.152924	0
	ρ	Grass PKDM8A versus PKDM8B	0.547235 \pm 0.085772 (8.92E-13)	29
		Grass KDM3C versus KDM3D	0.333263 \pm 0.083005 (1.22E-05)	11
	ϵ	Angiosperm PKDM7A versus PKDM7B	0.401872 \pm 0.059802 (1.86E-16)	51
		Angiosperm PKDM9A versus PKDM9B	0.128948 \pm 0.038607 (3.21E-04)	22
		Angiosperm KDM3A versus KDM3D	0.349834 \pm 0.149399 (1.37E-02)	4
		Angiosperm KDM3B versus KDM3C	0.343037 \pm 0.089236 (1.04E-05)	32
		Angiosperm KDM3AD versus KDM3BC	0.115225 \pm 0.063442 (4.91E-02)	4
Type II	α/β	Brassicaceae PKDM7C versus PKDM7E	-0.055129 \pm 0.045874	
		Brassicaceae PKDM7B versus PKDM7C	0.027313 \pm 0.049140	
		Brassicaceae PKDM7B versus PKDM7E	0.139158 \pm 0.032327 (1.67E-05)	
	α/β	Brassicaceae KDM3E versus KDM3F	-0.008820 \pm 0.035777	
	γ	Eudicot PKDM7A versus PKDM7D	-0.167973 \pm 0.084460 (4.67E-02)	
	ρ	Grass PKDM8A versus PKDM8B	0.151855 \pm 0.040068 (1.51E-04)	
		Grass KDM3C versus KDM3D	-0.004414 \pm 0.061494	
	ϵ	Angiosperm PKDM7A versus PKDM7B	0.049528 \pm 0.100748	
		Angiosperm PKDM9A versus PKDM9B	-0.015586 \pm 0.068176	
		Angiosperm KDM3A versus KDM3D	-0.064805 \pm 0.133296	
Angiosperm KDM3B versus KDM3C		0.035761 \pm 0.132655		
Angiosperm KDM3AD versus KDM3BC		-0.181663 \pm 0.213708		

^aNumber of critical amino acid sites detected as related to FD.

Kasahara, 2007; Barker et al., 2009; Jiao et al., 2011; Amborella Genome Project, 2013). We have identified four pairs of *JmjC* paralogs likely due to the angiosperm ancestral ε WGD (Amborella Genome Project, 2013); these pairs of paralogous groups are also supported by genes from *A. trichopoda*, the sister of all other extant angiosperms (Fig. 4A). These results suggest that duplicate *JmjC* genes from ancient duplications were associated with the origin and early evolution of angiosperms.

Additionally, synteny analysis indicated that most *JmjC* duplicates in vertebrates were formed by WGD, with additional fish-specific contribution from the 3R WGD. Globally, most duplicates generated by the 2R WGD have been lost (Dehal and Boore, 2005); thus, the relatively high rate of retention of *KDM3* duplicates in vertebrates (Supplemental Fig. S5) suggests that this group might be important for chromatin-based regulation in vertebrates. Previous studies proposed that more than 90% of the increases in Arabidopsis regulatory genes were due to WGD during the last 150 million years (Maere et al., 2005). Consistently, our results suggest that WGDs could be the main mechanism for the expansion of the *JmjC* gene family in angiosperms and vertebrates.

This pattern of evolution is also very similar to that of the *SET* domain family of histone methylases (Lei et al., 2012). The *JmjC* and *SET* genes both control the methylation status of histones and are important regulators of chromatin structure; our study indicates that these regulators share evolutionary patterns and mechanisms with transcription factor genes and likely contribute to the evolution of regulatory networks. The expansion of genes for histone modification following WGDs near the origins of angiosperms and vertebrate animals and their major subgroups (core eudicots, Brassicaceae, and fish) suggests that epigenetic modulation of gene expression played an important role in the evolutionary successes of the dominating groups in both plants and animals.

Sequence Divergence of Specific *JmjC* Proteins Suggests Changes in Enzyme Activity and Biological Functions

The *JmjC* domain contains five conserved amino acid residues within cofactor-binding sites that are important for enzymatic activity. Among the five conserved residues, His, Glu, and His bind to the Fe(II) cofactor and Phe and Lys are required for binding to α KG. According to the phylogeny, *AtPKDM7C*, *JMJ14/AtPKDM7B*, *JMJ16/AtPKDM7D*, *JMJ18/AtPKDM7E*, and *JMJ19/AtPKDM7A* belong to an H3K4-specific demethylase group (Table IV); however, *AtPKDM7A* lacks the conserved residues for α KG binding, suggesting that enzymatic activity is lost in this protein (Lu et al., 2008). Similarly, the other proteins encoded by core eudicot members of the *PKDM7A* clade in the *PKDM7* subfamily, *CrPKDM7A*, *VvPKDM7A*, and *PtPKDM7A*, also lack the same conserved residues; in contrast, other

angiosperm proteins of the *PKDM7* subfamily have all five conserved amino acids within the cofactor-binding sites (Supplemental Fig. S17), suggesting that the ancestral core eudicot *PKDM7A* gene had lost the conserved residues. Specifically, the two clades (*PKDM7A* and *PKDM7D*) are due to the γ WGD in early core eudicots, and *PKDM7D* proteins still have the conserved residues, suggesting sequence and functional divergence following the γ WGD but before the divergence of extant core eudicots. We also found that members of the *KDM3A* clade, including *AmKDM3A*, lack the conserved residues for Fe(II) and α KG binding; their paralogs and other homologs still retain the conserved amino acids, showing that the lost and possible functional change occurred before the divergence of *A. trichopoda* from other angiosperms. The paralogs *KDM3A* and *KDM3D* (Supplemental Fig. S5) were due to the duplication in early angiosperms, indicating that *KDM3A* had lost the conserved residues after gene duplication. Moreover, these genes are differentially expressed in various tissues and in response to environmental signals, indicating that they might have lost the ancestral functions but gained new functions after gene duplication.

Increase in the Complexity of the *JmjC*-Mediated Histone Demethylation for Angiosperm and Vertebrate Evolution

The *SET* genes have experienced many duplication events, particularly in the *Suv*, *Absent*, *small*, or *homeotic discs1*, *Trx*, and *E(z)* subfamilies, which are responsible for catalyzing specific Lys methylation at H3K9, H4K36, H3K4, and H3K27 (Zhang and Ma, 2012). Our results showed that the *JmjC* genes share a similar evolutionary pattern, with expansion in many well-supported large clades, including lineage-specific subfamilies *KDM3* to *KDM6* and *PKDM7* to *PKDM9* (Fig. 2A). The *JmjC* gene family also has similar copy numbers to the *SET* family, suggesting that the two gene families might have coevolved, which is an important question for further investigation. In addition, the Arabidopsis *JMJ6A* and *PKDM11* proteins are histone Arg demethylases (Table III), and their genes exist as single-copy genes belonging to highly conserved subfamilies (Supplemental Figs. S3 and S10). Similarly, histone Arg methylation is catalyzed by a small group of protein Arg methyltransferases, including *PRMT5*, *PRMT10*, and *PRMT4* (Ahmad and Cao, 2012). The phylogenetic tree showed that members of these three subfamilies are also highly conserved and mostly single copy, except for two copies of *PRMT4* (*PRMT4A* and *PRMT4B*) due to the lineage-specific expansion in Brassicaceae (Supplemental Fig. S18). Together, the highly stable single/low copies of these genes suggest that Arg methylases and demethylases are more conserved than those for Lys modification. In addition to duplication patterns, the *JmjC* and *SET* proteins also share some domains, such as Plant homeodomain, Tudor domain, and Really Interesting Gene, suggesting that they might have similar interactive partners.

Table IV. Functionally characterized *JmjC* genes from *Arabidopsis*

Gene Name	Locus Tag	Other Names	Substrates	Biological Function	Reference
Subfamily JMJD6					
<i>AtJMJD6A</i>	AT5G06550	JMJ22	H4R3me2 ^a	Seed germination	Cho et al. (2012)
<i>AtJMJD6B</i>	AT1G78280	JMJ21			
Subfamily KDM3					
<i>AtKDM3A</i>	AT1G09060	JMJ24	No activity		
<i>AtKDM3B</i>	AT4G21430	JMJ28	No activity		
<i>AtKDM3C</i>	AT3G07610	JMJ25/IBM1	H3K9me1/2	RNA-directed DNA methylation	Saze et al. (2008); Fan et al. (2012)
<i>AtKDM3D</i>	AT4G00990	JMJ27			
<i>AtKDM3E</i>	AT1G11950	JMJ26			
<i>AtKDM3F</i>	AT1G62310	JMJ29			
Subfamily KDM5					
<i>AtKDM5</i>	AT1G63490	JMJ17			
Subfamily PKDM7					
<i>AtPKDM7A</i>	AT2G38950	JMJ19	No activity		
<i>AtPKDM7B</i>	AT4G20400	JMJ14	H3K4me1/2/3	Flowering time, repression of the floral transition, maintenance of DNA methylation	Deleris et al. (2010); Lu et al. (2010); Yang et al. (2010)
<i>AtPKDM7C</i>	AT2G34880	JMJ15/MEE27	H3K4me2/3	Salt tolerance, flowering time, female gametophyte development, early embryo and endosperm formation	Pagnussat et al. (2005); Day et al. (2008); Yang et al. (2012b); Shen et al. (2014)
<i>AtPKDM7D</i>	AT1G08620	JMJ16			
<i>AtPKDM7E</i>	AT1G30810	JMJ18	H3K4me2/3	Flowering time	Yang et al. (2012a)
Subfamily PKDM8					
<i>AtPKDM8</i>	AT5G46910	JMJ13			
Subfamily PKDM9					
<i>AtPKDM9A</i>	AT3G48430	JMJ12/REF6	H3K9me3, H3K27me2/3, H3K36me2/3	Flowering time, repression of FLC	Noh et al. (2004); Yu et al. (2008); Ko et al. (2010); Lu et al. (2011a)
<i>AtPKDM9B</i>	AT5G04240	JMJ11/ELF6	H3K4me1/2/3, H3K9me3, H3K27me3	Flowering time, photoperiod pathway, transgenerational inheritance of vernalized state, repression of flowering time	Noh et al. (2004); Yu et al. (2008); Jeong et al. (2009); Crevillén et al. (2014)
Subfamily PKDM11					
<i>AtPKDM11</i>	AT5G63080	JMJ20	H3R2me2, H4R3me2	Seed germination	Cho et al. (2012)
Subfamily PKDM12					
<i>AtPKDM12A</i>	AT3G20810	JMJ30/JMJD5	H3K27me3, H3K36me2/3	Circadian system, flowering time	Jones et al. (2010); Jones and Harmer (2011); Lu et al. (2011b); Gan et al. (2014); Yan et al. (2014)
<i>AtPKDM12B</i>	AT5G19840	JMJ31			
Subfamily PKDM13					
<i>AtPKDM13</i>	AT3G45880	JMJ32	H3K27me3	Flowering time	Gan et al. (2014)

^aThese terms are defined as follows: H, histone; R, Arg; K, Lys; and me1/2/3, monomethylation, dimethylation, or trimethylation.

It is worth noting that there are also some important differences between the *SET* and *JmjC* families. Among the *Arabidopsis SET* genes, the *SETD* and *SMYD* genes encode proteins with an insertion of 100 to 300 residues in the middle of the SET domain; however, the *JmjC* family does not have members with an insertion. Also, the human *SET* family has only 20 members in four subfamilies, due to fewer retained copies after the 2R WGD, compared with 28 human *JmjC* genes. Also,

as mentioned before, some *JmjC* duplicates were generated by tandem duplication and possibly transpositions, but such mechanisms have not been detected for *SET* genes.

In angiosperms, ancient duplication events created at least four duplicate gene pairs, contributing to the expansion of *JmjC* genes. Among these, two pairs belong to the *KDM3* subfamily for H3K9 demethylation related to heterochromatin. Histone H3 lysine-9

dimethylation (H3K9me2) is highly concentrated at the centromeric heterochromatin, and this modification is a prerequisite for DNA methylation and gene silencing in *Arabidopsis* (Jackson et al., 2004; Kavi and Birchler, 2009). In *Arabidopsis*, 15 SET domain-containing proteins are thought to mediate H3K9me2 deposition, but only six JmjC domain-containing proteins are related to H3K9 demethylation. During angiosperm evolution with additional WGDs, several duplicates in the *SET* family have been retained, but most of the recent JmjC duplicates have been lost. Our results also suggest that H3K9me2 modification and genome duplication are likely correlated. For instance, an elevated H3K9me2 level repressed redundant gene expression after WGD.

During the evolution of angiosperms with increasing species diversity, it is likely that greater complexity of the histone modification system, due to the expansion of both *JmjC* and *SET* genes, provided crucial functions for chromatin-based regulation. The rapidly advancing reverse genetic technologies, including the clustered regularly interspaced palindromic repeats (CRISPR)/CRISPR-associated protein-9 nuclease system, will allow functional tests of the hypotheses raised here on the divergence between paralogs. In particular, the biochemical similarity of closely related *JmjC* family members can be examined experimentally, whereas functional differences of more distantly related members can be similarly tested. These studies in the near future will likely further improve the understanding of the function and evolution of histone modification enzymes and their impact on development and physiology.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data Retrieval

To establish an initial data set with as many *JmjC* genes as possible, we used several resources. The sequenced genomes and predicted proteomes of plants and animals were downloaded from Phytozome (version 9.0; <http://www.phytozome.net/>) and Ensembl (release 66; <http://www.ensembl.org/>), respectively. The Joint Genome Institute (<http://genome.jgi.doe.gov/>) and the National Center for Biotechnology Information (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov>) databases were additional sources for fungal and partial animal sequences with genome annotation. The sequences for *Amborella trichopoda* and *Monosiga brevicollis* were retrieved from the Amborella Genome Database (<http://www.amborella.org/>) and the Joint Genome Institute, respectively. In proteome data sets, if two or more proteins are annotated for the same gene from alternative splicing, we selected the longest form. The numbers of genes in each *JmjC* subfamily in different organisms can be found in Supplemental Table S1.

Homolog Searches

Three steps were carried out to identify all recognizable *JmjC* family members. First, regardless of the origin of proteome data, the HMMER program (version 3.0; Eddy, 1998) with the hidden Markov model was employed to retrieve all eukaryotic *JmjC* homologs. The hidden Markov model profile of the JmjC domain (PF02373 in the Pfam database) was downloaded and used as a query to find homologous sequences in proteome data sets (Finn et al., 2014). Second, to search for potential *JmjC* genes from unannotated genomic regions, the sequences acquired in the first step were employed as queries to search genomic sequence data sets using a software called Phoenix (Protein Homolog Extraction), which is based on TBLASTN and GeneWise (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/psa/genewise/>; Altschul et al., 1990; Goujon et al., 2010). Additionally, the sequences

from the first and second steps were verified using the PFAM database (<http://pfam.xfam.org/search>), CDD (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/wrpsb.cgi>) available from the National Center for Biotechnology Information, and the SMART database (<http://smart.embl-heidelberg.de/>), with a threshold *e*-value of less than 1e-10 (Marchler-Bauer et al., 2011; Letunic et al., 2012; Finn et al., 2014). The genes verified by all three steps were then included in our study.

Sequence Alignment

Preliminary multiple sequence alignment was performed using MUSCLE (version 3.8.425) with default parameters (Edgar, 2004). The alignment was then used to generate a preliminary ML tree using FastTree (version 2.1.7; Price et al., 2009). According to the tree topology, the *JmjC* family was divided into several subgroups. A second round of multiple sequence alignment was carried out for sequences in each subgroup and then adjusted manually in Jalview (version 2.8; Waterhouse et al., 2009). Subsequently, these alignments were combined together using the profile alignment function of MUSCLE.

Phylogenetic Analysis

Systematic phylogenetic analysis of the *JmjC* family was performed using NJ, ML, and Bayesian methods. For NJ analysis, we used MEGA (version 5.0) with the pairwise deletion option and Poisson correction model (Tamura et al., 2011). The reliability of internal branches was evaluated with a bootstrap test of 1,000 replicates. In this study, ProtTest (version 2.4) was used for model selection, crucial for ML and Bayesian analysis (Abascal et al., 2005). PhyML (version 3.0) and RAXML (version 7.0) were employed to construct ML trees with the Whelan and Goldman amino acid substitution model, γ -distribution, and 100 nonparametric bootstrap replicates (Guindon and Gascuel, 2003; Stamatakis, 2006). Bayesian trees were constructed using MrBayes (version 3.2.1), with the fixed Whelan and Goldman model, four Markov chains, and an average SD of 0.01 (Ronquist and Huelsenbeck, 2003).

Motif and Synteny Analyses

All verified *JmjC* genes were used to search against the PFAM, CDD, and SMART databases to uncover other known domains or motifs apart from the JmjC domain. Additionally, to discover novel conserved patterns in the amino acid sequences of JmjC proteins, all sequences were analyzed using the software MEME (version 4.9.0; Bailey and Elkan, 1994). The length of a motif was set between 10 and 120 amino acids, and the number of motifs was limited to no more than 10. All sequences within each subfamily were analyzed separately by MEME to identify conserved motifs within the group. Every motif was screened against the PFAM database, and the majority of these motifs are not recorded in the database. In addition, genome synteny between duplicate gene pairs was examined by phylogenetic analysis using the Plant Genome Duplication Database (<http://chibba.agtec.uga.edu/duplication/>; last accessed in February 2015; Tang et al., 2008) and the Synteny Database (http://syntenydb.uoregon.edu/synteny_db/; last accessed in February 2015; Catchen et al., 2009) for plants and animals, respectively.

Expression Analysis

RNA-seq data were of the same sources and treatment as our previous work, including the following *Arabidopsis* (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) tissues: seedling, stage 4 flower, inflorescence meristem, stage 1 to 9 flowers, stage 12 flowers, and meiosis (Zhang and Ma, 2012; Zhang et al., 2015). RNA-seq data sets of the following *A. trichopoda* tissues (<ftp://amborella-project.huck.psu.edu/Public/Amborella/transcriptome/>) were mapped to the *A. trichopoda* genome sequences with Periodic Seed Mapping (<https://code.google.com/p/perm/>): apical meristem, female buds, whole-plant normalized-1, and whole-plant normalized-2. Only the uniquely mapped sequence reads were used further. The gene expression levels were measured by reads per kilobase of mRNA length per million mapped reads. Tiling array data of *Arabidopsis* JmjC homologs under drought, cold, high-salinity, and ABA treatment (Matsui et al., 2008) were also included in our analysis.

Functional Divergence Analysis

The analysis of FD between *JmjC* genes of paralogous clades was performed using DIVERGE version 3.0 software (Gu et al., 2013). DIVERGE used

the model free estimation calculation of the θ and se type I and II coefficients of FD, based on the occurrence of altered selective constraints or radical shifts of physiochemical properties, respectively (Gu, 1999, 2006). The program also estimates the posterior probabilities of amino acid sites to be responsible for FD. A value of 0.6 was chosen as a cutoff to measure the degree of FD at the amino acid level.

Accession numbers and gene identifiers for sequences used in this study are provided in Supplemental Table S2.

Supplemental Data

The following supplemental materials are available.

Supplemental Figure S1. Logos representing motifs conserved within each subfamily.

Supplemental Figure S2. The ML tree of the *JARID2* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S3. The ML tree of the *JMJD6* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S4. The ML tree of the *KDM2* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S5. The ML tree of the *KDM3* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S6. The ML tree of the *KDM4* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S7. The ML tree of the *KDM6* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S8. The ML tree of the *PKDM9* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S9. The ML tree of the *PKDM10* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S10. The ML tree of the *PKDM11* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S11. The ML tree of the *PKDM12* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S12. The ML tree of the *PKDM13* subfamily generated by RAxML.

Supplemental Figure S13. An illustration of plants with the syntenic regions containing representative duplicated gene pairs from recent polyploidy events.

Supplemental Figure S14. An illustration of animals with duplicated gene pairs generated by recent polyploidy events.

Supplemental Figure S15. Duplication events in the *JmjC* family inferred from amino acid sequence analyses.

Supplemental Figure S16. Multiple sequence alignments of angiosperm *PKDM7A* and *PKDM7B*.

Supplemental Figure S17. An ML tree and multiple sequence alignments of *PKDM7A* and *PKDM7D* in core eudicots.

Supplemental Figure S18. An ML tree of PRMT5, PRMT10, and PRMT4 in green plants.

Supplemental Table S1. The number of different *JmjC* subfamily members in representative species.

Supplemental Table S2. A list of all *JmjC* genes included in this study.

Supplemental Table S3. The sequences of conserved motifs within individual subfamilies.

Supplemental Table S4. Number of human paralogous genes identified from Synteny Database at Uoregon site using *KDM2* and *PKDM10*, *KDM5*, *KDM6* loci as seed genes and *Ciona intestinalis* as an out outgroup.

Supplemental Table S5. Expression profile of *JmjC* genes at different stages of flower development in *Arabidopsis* and *Amborella*.

Supplemental Table S6. Tiling array profile of *Arabidopsis JmjC* genes under drought, cold, high-salinity, and ABA treatments.

Supplemental Table S7. Expression of *JmjC* genes in the wild type and the *dyt1* (*bhlh22*), *bhlh10*, *bhlh89*, *bhlh91*, and *pkdm7d jmj16* mutants by RNA-seq.

Supplemental Table S8. A list of sites with Functional Divergence type I in plant *JmjC* genes.

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