Title

Developmental constraints modulate reproductive fate and plasticity within the
Arabidopsis ovule primordium

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Running title
Developmental canalization and germinal fate in plant ovules

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Summary

Sexual reproduction in multicellular organisms requires the separation of the germline from the soma. In flowering plants, the formation of spore mother cells (SMCs) marks the somatic-to-reproductive cell fate transition in floral organs. The female SMC differentiates at the apex of the ovule primordium, as a single, large, and elongated subepidermal cell. However, this singleness rule is not very robust: several SMC candidates develop in some *Arabidopsis* accessions and mutants. Yet, the basis of this plasticity is not understood. Here we investigate whether ovule primordium growth and overarching cellular architecture serve as an instructive cue to channel the formation of a single SMC. Combining quantitative analyses of 3D cell-based information, cell cycle reporters, and 2D growth simulations, we provide a comprehensive analysis of cell proliferation and growth events that shape ovule primordium development and SMC formation. This reveals that SMC characteristics emerge earlier than previously thought, and often for more than one cell. Thus, developmental constraints gradually canalize the fate of these cells, so that a single SMC enters meiosis ultimately. Among these constraints, we explore the contribution of dynamic cell division patterns and localized cell growth anisotropy. Consistent with 2D computational simulations, the reduction of anisotropy in *katanin* mutants leads to altered ovule shape and cell division patterns. Such disturbance of ovule morphology is sufficient to delay SMC canalization, as multiple cells express reproductive fate markers in *katanin* mutant ovules. In conclusion, we show that ovule growth and shape channel SMC fate for a single cell.

Keywords

ovule primordium, SMC, cell fate, canalization, *katanin*, growth, tissue mechanics, Arabidopsis

Highlights

1. SMC singleness emerges from a canalization process mediated by KATANIN.

2. Anisotropic cell growth and local, biphasic cell divisions patterns explain ovule primordium shape.

3. 2D-mechanical growth models relate ovule growth and SMC emergence.

4. A 3D image resource of developing ovule primordia at cellular resolution.

Introduction

A hallmark of sexual reproduction in multicellular organisms is the separation of the germline from the soma. In animals, primordial germ cells (PGCs) are set-aside during embryogenesis from a mass of pluripotent cells. The number of germ cells depends on the balance between proliferation (self-renewal) and differentiation, a process controlled by both intrinsic factors and the surrounding somatic tissue [1, 2]. In flowering plants, by contrast, the spore mother cells (SMCs), representing the germline precursors, differentiate late in development. SMCs arise multiple times, i.e., in each flower during the formation of reproductive organs. In *Arabidopsis*, the female SMC differentiates in the nucellus of the ovule primordium, a digit-shaped organ outgrowing from the placental tissue of the gynoecium. The SMC is recognizable as a single, large, and elongated subepidermal cell, in central position, at the nucellus, and displaying a prominent nucleus and nucleolus [3-6].

Although SMC singleness may appear to be robust, more than one SMC candidate *per* primordium can develop at variable frequencies depending on the *Arabidopsis* accession (9,6% in *Columbia* (*Col-0*), 27% in *Monterrosso* (*Mr-0*), [7]). Mutants in *Arabidopsis*, maize, and rice that compromise SMC singleness unveiled the role of regulatory pathways involving intercellular signaling, small RNAs, as well as DNA and histone methylation [8-16]. As the SMC forms, cell-cycle regulation contributes to the stabilization of its fate in a cell-autonomous manner through cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK) inhibitors and RETINOBLASTOMA-RELATED1 (RBR1) [17, 18]. SMC singleness thus appears to result from a two-step control: first, restricting differentiation to only one cell and second, preventing self-renewal before meiosis (reviewed in [19, 20]).

However, the precise mechanisms underlying the plasticity in the number of SMC candidates and SMC fate specification are still poorly understood. In principle, SMC singleness may be controlled by successive molecular cues. However, even in that scenario, such cues must be positional, at least to some extent, and thus involve a spatial component. In the last decade, many different molecular cues defining spatial patterns in the ovule primordium were identified [16, 19], however their coordination is unknown. Since SMCs emerge at the primordium apex concomitant with its elongation, we hypothesize that developmental constraints during ovule morphogenesis influence SMC singleness and differentiation. Such a scenario could explain variation in the number of SMC candidates, ultimately culminating in a single SMC entering meiosis, a process that was previously discussed as a possible canalization [7]. Canalization refers to the capacity of an organism to follow a given developmental

trajectory in spite of disturbances [21-23]. Yet, canalization as proposed by Waddington embraces a

broader meaning, including the nature of the developmental process itself to explain phenotypic

variability [21]. Answering the questions of whether SMC formation follows a stereotypical or plastic

developmental process and whether it is intrinsically linked to or independent of ovule primordium

growth would unravel fundamental principles connecting cell fate establishment and organ growth.

Such an analysis requires a high-resolution description of the ovule tissue topology and geometry in

time. Our current knowledge of ovule primordium growth in *Arabidopsis* is based on two-dimensional

(2D) micrographs from tissue sections or clearings. It is described in discrete developmental stages

capturing classes of primordia by their global shape and SMC appearance until meiosis and by the

presence of integument layers and ovule curvature later-on [24]. In addition, a 3D analysis of average

cell volumes during primordium growth was recently provided [25]. Yet, we lack a view of the patterning

processes shaping the early ovule primordium, the relation of cell layers and proliferation domains in

3D, and a temporally resolved description of primordium emergence. To address the question of SMC

singleness, we thus developed a resource where the growth of the ovule primordium is described and

quantified at cellular resolution in 3D. We combined 3D imaging, quantitative analysis of cell and tissue

characteristics, reporter gene analyses, 2D mechanical growth simulations, and genetic analyses. Using

the *katanin* mutant affecting anisotropic cell growth and cell division patterns [26, 27], we show that an

altered ovule morphology is sufficient to disrupt SMC singleness. We also uncovered that differentiation

of SMC candidates initiates earlier than previously thought. Finally, we provide evidence for a

developmental canalization process leading to the specification of a single SMC prior to meiosis.

Results

Building a reference collection of 3D images capturing developing ovule primordia in 3D at cellular resolution

To generate 3D reconstructions of ovule primordia with cellular resolution at consecutive different stages we imaged primordia stained for cell boundaries in intact carpels by confocal microscopy. Carpels were cleared and stained using a modified PS-PI staining [28] and mounting procedure preserving their integrity ([29],Figure 1A). We selected high signal-to-noise ratio images and segmented them based on cell boundary signals using a previously described pipeline ([29],Figure 1B). We manually curated 92 ovules representing seven consecutive developmental stages (7-21 ovules *per* stage, Figure 1B, Table 1, Data S1), classified according to an extended nomenclature explained in the STAR Methods. In order to gain temporal resolution, we defined new stages (stage 0-I to stage 0-III) covering primordium emergence, which occurs prior to the straight digit-shape organ stage 1-I where the SMC becomes distinguishable by its apparent larger size in longitudinal views [24].

To evaluate the distinct contribution of domain-, layer- and cell-specific growth dynamics, we assigned a label to each segmented cell enabling data classification (Figure 1B, STAR Methods). We defined cell labels to distinguish *domains*, *layers* and *cell types*: the apical and basal domains, the L1 and L2,L3 layers (L1, epidermis; and the underlying L2 and L3 layers taken together), and seven cell types intersecting with the domains and layers. The latter include the self-explanatory cell labels "L1 apical", "L1 basal", "L2,L3 apical", "L2,L3 basal", "SMC", and specific labels for the "L1 dome", the upmost apical L1 cells in contact with the SMC, and the "CC" or companion cells, the elongated L2 cells adjacent to the SMC.

To quantitatively analyze the data with respect to cell labels, layers, domains, ovule stage and genotype, we developed an interactive, R-based interface named OvuleViz. The script reads cell descriptors exported from segmented image files and enables multiple plot generation from a user-based selection of (sub)datasets (Figure S1A-C, STAR Methods). Collectively, our work generated a reference collection of annotated, 3D images capturing ovule primordium development at cellular resolution from emergence until the onset of meiosis. The collection of 92 segmented images associated with a total of 7763 annotated cells and five morphological cell descriptors (volume, area, sphericity, prolate and oblate ellipticity) provides a unique resource for morphodynamic analyses of ovule primordium growth.

To identify correlations between growth patterns and differentiation, we performed a principle
component analysis (PCA) based on the aforementioned cell descriptors, *per* cell type and stage,
considered together or separately (Figure S1D-E). In this global analysis, the SMC appears distinct at late
stages (2-I and 2-II) but clear conclusions are hampered by a crowding effect that is not resolved by this
approach. This prompted us to investigate in detail the contribution of different layers, domains, and
cell types to ovule primordium growth and in relation to SMC differentiation.

Ovule primordium morphogenesis involves domain-specific cell proliferation and anisotropic cell
shape patterns

The ovule primordium emerges from the placenta as a small dome-shaped protrusion and grows into a
digit-shaped primordium with nearly cylindrical symmetry (stage 1-I) before enlarging at the base
(Figure 1B). Using our segmented images, we first quantified global changes in cell number, cell volume,
and ovule primordium shape. Our analysis revealed two distinct phases of morphological events. Phase I
(stages 0-I to 0-III) is characterized by a 4.5-fold increase in total cell number but a moderate increase in
mean cell volume (10%, P=0.03). By contrast, Phase II (stages 1-I to 2-II) is characterized by a moderate
increase in cell number (50%) and the global mean cell volume is relatively constant (Figure 2A, S2A). To
quantify the resulting changes in organ shape, we extrapolated a continuous surface mesh of the ovule
outline and used it to compute its height and width at the base (Figure 2B-C, S2B, STAR Methods).
Anisotropic organ growth during Phase I was confirmed by a steady increase in height while primordium
width increased moderately (Figure 2C). This contrast in morphodynamic events between Phase I and II
is illustrated by the representation of fold-changes (FCs) in cell number and aspect ratio (Figure 2D)
which range between 1.5 and 2.0 in Phase I whereas drop to 1.4 and 1.2 in Phase II. These observations
confirmed that Phase I captures a distinct growth dynamic compared to Phase II.

Next, to capture possible specific patterns of growth, we analyzed cell number, cell size, and cell
shape using different viewpoints: one comparing the L1 and L2,L3 layers and one contrasting the apical
vs basal domains. Scoring cell number *per* viewpoint clearly showed a dominant contribution of the
epidermis (L1) relative to the subepidermal layers and of the basal relative to the apical domain (Figure
2E,F). To verify these findings with a cellular marker, we analyzed the M-phase-specific *CYCB1.1-dbGFP*
reporter [30]. We scored the number of GFP-expressing cells among 481 ovules and plotted relative
mitotic frequencies *per* cell layer and domain for each ovule stage to generate a cell-based mitotic
activity map (Figure 2G-H, Data S2, STAR Methods). In this approach, subepidermal cells beneath the

dome were distinguished from underlying L3 cells to gain resolution on the L2 apical domain where the

SMC differentiate. Consistent with our previous observation, in Phase I, a high proliferation activity was

scored in L1 cells at the primordium apex (scoring 64% of mitotic events). By contrast, the L2 apical

domain remains relatively quiescent (contributing only 3% of the mitotic events). During Phase II,

proliferation preferentially occurs in the basal domain with > 60% of mitotic events at all stages. It is

noteworthy that during this phase, L2 apical cells divide relatively rarely, with the exception of SMC

neighbors cells that show frequent divisions at stage 1-II. Thus, reporter analysis confirmed a biphasic,

temporal pattern of cell division with changing regional contributions, suggesting the L1 apical and L2,L3

basal domains as consecutive sites of increased proliferation, contributing to morphological changes in

Phase I and II, respectively.

Cell size analysis, by contrast, did not reveal significant changes during primordium development

with the notable exception of the SMC (Figure 2A, S2C). The SMC gradually attains a distinct size starting

at stage 0-III when compared to other L2,L3 cells (Figure 2I) or even earlier, at stage 0-I, when compared

to all other cells (Figure 2I inset). Size differentiation of the SMC is not uniform among ovules,

demonstrating plasticity in the process (Figure S2D). In addition, different cell sizes between L1 and

L2,L3 layers are already discernible at primordium emergence (Figure 2J, S2E). The presence of larger

L2,L3 cells is consistent with the low division frequency observed previously - likely stemming from

longer growth phases. We propose that cell size asymmetry established at early stages favors SMC

emergence.

We then investigated cell shape changes during primordium elongation, using ellipticity and

sphericity indices computed by Imaris (Bitplane, Switzerland) following segmentation. The analysis did

not reveal significant differences between domains or layers (Figure S2F, STAR Methods). This could

indicate either a highly variable cell shape or more localized, cell type-specific shape changes. We thus

more specifically analyzed the subepidermal niche where the SMC differentiates. We found that

companion cells showed an increasing ellipticity (and decreasing sphericity), starting at stage 1-I and

culminating at stage 2-I (Figure S2F). By contrast, the SMC only showed a moderate decrease in

sphericity at late stages and no distinctive ellipticity at early stages (Figure S2F). In order to get raw

information on anisotropy of cells shapes, we developed an extension for MorphoMechanX ([31],

www.morphomechanx.org) to (i) perform a semi-automatic labeling of cell layers and cell types from a

cellularized mesh and (ii) compute in each 3D cell the principal axes of shape anisotropy and the

corresponding indexes (Figure S2G, STAR Methods, Movie S1). The maximum anisotropy shape index of

the SMCs was, averaged *per* stage, consistently above the medium (and hence above the minimum)

anisotropy index (Figure 2K). This confirmed that the SMC has an anisotropic shape, with a
distinguishable major axis throughout ovule primordium development from early stages onwards
(Figure S2H). We measured the degree of alignment of the SMC major axis with the main growth axis of
the ovule during early stages (stage 0-II) and found a mean angle of 22° (+/- 11°, n=16) (Figure 2K, see
also Figure 2C showing main growth axis of the ovule along development). Thus, the SMC's anisotropic
shape emerges at the earliest stages and its orientation is aligned with the growth axis of the
primordium.

Taken together, these results suggest that anisotropic primordium growth is linked to domain-
specific cell proliferation combined with localized, anisotropic expansion.

2D mechanical simulations of ovule primordium development relate its coordinated growth to SMC
shape emergence

Organ shape is determined by the rate and direction of cell growth, the latter affected by signaling and
the mechanical state of the tissue and its geometry, with possible feedback interactions between them
[32, 33]. Mechanical constraints arise from the growth process in form of tensile and compressive forces
that, in turn, influence cell and tissue growth depending on their elastic/visco-plastic properties [33]. To
determine the role of ovule primordium growth on SMC differentiation, which involves early differential
cell growth, we sought to understand the contributions of growth rate and anisotropy and their relation
to signaling and mechanical constraints [34, 35]. Resolving this question would define fundamental
developmental principles linking organ growth and SMC differentiation.

We first sought to determine morphogenetic principles of primordium growth at the tissue level by
developing a 2D Finite Element Method (FEM)-based mechanical model, which considered two
uncoupled but complementary modes of growth: (i) signal-based growth in which an abstract
morphogen captures the cumulative effects of biochemical signals without considering its explicit mode
of action (i.e., cell wall loosening, increase in turgor pressure) [36]; and (ii) passive strain-based growth
in which relaxation accommodates excess of strain (and therefore also excess of stress) that
accumulated in the tissue by relaxing its reference configuration according to the amount of strain. The
mechanical equilibrium is computed to ensure compatibility with the tissue that is locally growing at
different rates and orientations. This introduces residual internal compressions and tensions to which
the action of turgor pressure is also added [37]. A polarization field is used to set the direction of
anisotropic growth for both growth mechanisms [34]. The simulation consists of iterations where the

mechanical equilibrium is computed before each growth step is specified by signal- and strain-based

growth. This strategy extends previous tissue growth models ([36, 38-40], STAR Methods).

We designed a starting template consisting of an L1 layer distinct from the underlying L2, L3

tissue based on different growth and material properties (Table 2, Figure S3, STAR Methods). We first

set the model components to produce a realistic elongated, digit-shaped primordium with a narrow

dome and an L1 layer of stable thickness during development (Reference Model, FEM-Model 1) (Figure

3A, S3A). This model combines the following hypotheses: a narrow domain of anisotropic, signal-based

growth, a broad domain competent for passive strain-based relaxation and material anisotropy.

Then, using the versatility of the modeling framework to vary initial conditions, we asked

whether primordium morphogenesis is driven primarily by growth of the epidermis (L1) or if it requires

active growth of inner tissues. In the first scenario, L1 growth is responsible for creating a dome shape,

enabling underlying tissue growth by pulling on the inner layers and inducing cell divisions as observed

in Phase I. In another scenario, active growth of the inner tissues forces the L1 to grow and create a

protrusion. We ran several simulations with varying initial distribution patterns of the growth signal

(Table 2). The shape aberrations produced by FEM-Models 4, 5, 6 and 7 (Figure S3B) suggested that an

inner tissue-driven growth principle (*vs* L1-driven), involving a narrow strip of initial growth signal

diffusing in the inner layers, was more plausible (Reference Model, FEM-Model 1, Figure 3A, S3A). Next,

through modulation of passive strain-based growth, we determined that a broad tissue domain

uniformly competent for strain accommodation is necessary to resolve the high accumulation of strain,

limiting primordium elongation (FEM-Model 8, Figure S3C). Yet, material anisotropy influencing the

relaxation response is not necessarily required broadly and it is sufficient to specify it in the L1 only to

achieve a dome with a realistic shape and constant L1 thickness (FEM-Model 2, Figure S3C). Finally, we

asked whether growth anisotropy must be specified in the model or if geometrical and mechanical

constraints are sufficient to specify primordium shape. Clearly, removing this component abolished the

digit shape of the primordium and produced a hemi-spherical protrusion (FEM-Model 3, Figure 3B).

In summary, we identified parsimonious growth principles shaping the ovule primordium: an

inner tissue-driven process promoted by a narrow domain of anisotropic, signal-based growth is

complemented by passive tissue growth in response to accumulated strain. Furthermore, material

anisotropy in the L1 is predicted to play a role in constraining L1 thickness as observed experimentally.

Next, we aimed to analyze how cell division and cell shape, particularly that of the SMC, are

connected to tissue growth patterns at cellular scale. For this, we developed a complementary model

with cellular resolution. This vertex-based model features cells as 2D polygons whose walls are mass

spring (MS) segments [41, 42]. This model integrates mechanics (Hooke's law for MSs) with signal- and

strain-based growth as before (STAR Methods). We simulated growth starting with a virtual grid of cells

representing a flat placenta and focused on early stages of ovule primordium formation until stage 1-I.

We tested the same combination of growth hypotheses as for the continuous model (Table 2), except

for material anisotropy that cannot easily be embedded in a vertex-based model. As we observed that

L1 cells do not divide periclinally, nor change in volume on average, we deduced that their growth

occurs mainly in direction of the main axis of the primordium. For this reason, we enforced this feature

in our model, preventing growth of the anticlinal walls (both for signal-based growth and passive strain-

based growth, STAR Methods). This constraint limits the ways an organ can grow in a digit-shaped

fashion, as the L1 does not progressively populate the inner tissues by division. Furthermore, our models

included assumes a slower division rate for L2,L3 apical cells, consistent with our previous observations

(Figure S3D).

We identified MS-Model 2 to best capture the characteristic shape and aspect ratio of ovules

(Figure 3C, S3D). This reference model confirmed the growth hypotheses from FEM-based simulations

regarding the distribution and orientation of signal-based growth (Figure S3B) and passive strain-based

growth (Figure S3C).

Finally, we were interested to determine whether SMC morphology is an emerging property of

primordium growth and how anisotropic growth influences the process. Remarkably, in the cell-based

reference model including anisotropic cell growth, an SMC candidate emerged early: a central L2 apical

cell that, beside its larger size, adopted a trapezoidal shape and a principal anisotropy axis aligned with

the main direction of ovule growth (Figure 3E). Such features are qualitatively comparable what we

observed for stage 0-II primordia (Figure 3E, S3D, Figure 2K).

The MS-Model 3 corresponds to a virtual mutant with isotropic cell growth. Under these

conditions, ovule primordia displayed an altered shape with a wider surface and flatter dome as in the

FEM-Model 3 (Figure 3D). Interestingly, a larger, central L2 cell still emerged but the elongated shape

typical of SMCs arose later in the simulation progression as compared to the reference model (Figure 3F,

Movie S3). Thus, 2D simulations predict that anisotropic cell growth does not only affect ovule

primordium shape but also the timing of SMC candidate emergence, hence connecting the growth

process with SMC differentiation. In these models, the candidate SMC eventually divided as they missed

a causative rule to differentially regulate cell division. When we prevented the SMC candidate to divide,

its enlargement overrode primordium shape control in our simulations, indicating an additional level of

control in real primordia (Figure S3E).

Altogether, the two complementary growth models of ovule primordium development confirm
at different scales a role for regional cell growth compatible with previous observations. They predict
that tissue accommodation, anisotropy in mechanical properties, and a specific pattern of signal-based
growth collectively influence the directional growth of the primordium. We showed that altered ovule
primordium growth affects size and shape of the SMC candidate, linking organ architecture to SMC fate.
Reciprocally, unleashing SMC growth leads to deformation of the primordium, suggesting the existence
of a compensatory feedback mechanism that coordinates cell and organ growth.

katanin **mutants show a distinct ovule primordium architecture primarily through altered cell division**
patterns

304
To test the model predictions experimentally, we analyzed the consequences of cell growth anisotropy
perturbation on ovule primordium growth and SMC fate establishment. *Arabidopsis* plants carrying a
defective microtubule-severing protein KATANIN exhibit organ shape defects, including increased round-
and bumpiness, as a consequence of disorganized cortical microtubules and isotropic cellulose
microfibril orientations [43, 44]. We thus analyzed the shape and cellular organization of ovule
primordia in *katanin* mutants using the *botero* (*bot1-7*) (*Ws* background), *lue1*, and *mad5* alleles (*Col*
background) [43, 45, 46], collectively referred to *katanin* - noted *kat*- mutants hereafter. We generated
and analyzed a new dataset of 59 annotated 3D digital *kat* and corresponding wild-type ovule primordia
at stages 0-III, 1-I, and 1-II (Data S4a). *kat* mutant primordia have an increased size and a more isotropic
shape (Figure 4A), being 1.5 times bigger in volume than wild-type primordia (*P*=0.007, stage 0-III, Figure
4B) with a smaller aspect ratio (*P*<0.01 stages 1-I, 1-II, Figure 4C). The width-to-height aspect ratio does
not inform on the shape at the flanks, hence does not discriminate straight digit *versus* plump organ
shapes. We estimated the "plumpiness" of the primordia by calculating the volume fraction of a fitting,
3D parallelepiped (bounding box) effectively occupied by the primordium (bounding box occupancy,
Figure 4D, S4A). In *kat* ovules, the relationship deviates from the wild type beginning at stage 1-I, when
the primodium normally starts elongating along the major growth axis. These measurements confirmed
a marked attenuation of anisotropic growth in *kat* ovule primordia as was observed in roots, shoot
organs, or seeds [43, 47-52]. Yet, at a global level, the mean cell number, cell volume, and sphericity are
not significantly different between *kat* and wild-type primordia (Figure S4B-C). Thus, these global
approaches did not resolve the origin of primordia mis-shaping.
To refine the analysis, we contrasted different layers as done for wild-type primordia and found
local alterations that provide an explanation for the formation of broader and more isotropic primordia

in *kat* mutants. Notably, the epidermis of *kat* primordia contains 17.5% more cells (47 L1 cells in *kat* vs

40 in wild-type at stage 0-III, *P*=0.03). Also, *kat* epidermal cells have a 20% larger volume than in the wild

type (*P*<0.001). Early in development (stage 0-III), the apical domain of *kat* primordia is populated by

larger (17%, *P*<0.001) and more spherical (2%, *P*<0.001) cells, than in wild type (Figure 4E,S4D), a

characteristic that extends to the basal domain at later stages (Figure S4D). To determine whether, in

kat primordia, the mitotic domains shifted in space and/or time, we scored *CYCB1.1-dbGFP* signals *per*

stage, layers, and equivalent domains as before, and expressed it as fold-changes relative to wild-type

primordia (Figure 4F, S4E). In Phase I (stage 0-II), we consistently scored 2.4 times less mitoses in the L1

dome domain, and 2.7 times more mitoses at the L1 basal domain of *kat* primordia. Hence, in *kat*

primordia, proliferation is mostly localized in the basal region and not higher in the early L1 dome as in

the wild type.

To elucidate whether these alterations affected the cellular domain where the SMC normally

differentiates, we interrogated L2 apical cells and specifically the L2 neighbors of the candidate SMC. At

stage 0-II, we scored 3.5 times more divisions in the L2 SMC neighbor cells in the apical domain, showing

that the relative mitotic quiescence is lost in this domain in *kat* primordia. Next, we focus on cells in

contact with the SMC (STAR methods). We found that in *kat* primordia, in contrast to the wild type and

to non-neighbor cells, SMC neighbors specifically enlarge as early as stage 0-III (Figure 4G, S4E) but

without a detectable increase in sphericity. Consistently, our *CYCB1.1-dbGFP* analysis showed that the

mitotic activity detected in SMC neighbors at stage 1-II in wild-type primordia significantly decreases in

kat primordia (Figure 4F, S4E).

In conclusion, the absence of *KAT*-mediated cell growth anisotropy is associated with major

changes in the domains of cell division, which can be linked to geometric changes or to a slow-down of

mitosis as previously shown in *kat* mutants [27, 53]. These alterations impact the shape of the ovule

primordium, but also the architecture of the subepidermal apical domain, where the SMC differentiates.

Altered ovule primordium architecture in *katanin* mutants induces ectopic SMC fate

We next investigated whether *kat* ovule growth defects also affect cell identity and SMC singleness. In

kat primordia, SMCs appear bigger in volume and more spherical than their wild-type counterparts at

stage 0-III; yet, no significant differences were detected at stages 1-I and 1-II. However, we observed

variability in volume at these stages (Figure 4G, 5A, S5A). When we analyzed the number of SMC

neighbors (Figure 5A-B), we found seven or more in *kat* primordia compared to an average of five in the

wild type. The *kat* SMC neighbors were 14% larger (*P*=0.006), 11% less ellipsoid (*P*=0.03), and 2% more

spherical (*P*<0.01) than in the wild type (Figure 5B), reminiscent of mutants affecting SMC singleness

[19].

To analyze the identity of these additional, enlarged cells, we quantified several SMC hallmarks.

First, we found that ~ 35% *kat* primordia harbor more than one SMC candidate at stage 1-II, decreasing

to 14.42% at stage 2-II (Figure 5C). Then, we assessed two complementary markers associated with SMC

fate in *kat* primordia. The first marker is a GFP-tagged linker histone variant (H1.1-GFP) that marks the

somatic-to-reproductive fate transition by its eviction in the SMC at stage 1-I [54]. H1.1-GFP eviction

occurred in more than one cell in 28.57% *kat* primordia (n=43, Figure 5D). The second marker reports

expression of the *KNUCKLES* transcription factor (KNU-YFP) expressed in the SMC [55]. Detectable as

early as stage 1-I in the wild type, it was ectopically expressed in 21% *kat* primordia at stage 1-II (n=43)

(Figure 5E, S5B). To test whether the ectopic SMC candidates have a meiotic competence, we analyzed

the AtDMC1-GUS reporter [56, 57], and indeed scored ectopic expression in 57% of *kat* primordia (n=56)

(Figure 5F). We also analyzed the pWOX2-CenH3-GFP marker labeling centromeres starting at the

functional megaspore stage [58] and found 20.7% *kat* primordia (n=29) with two labeled cells, as

compared to 3,8% (n=26) in the wild type (Figure S5C).

Taken together, these results show that ectopic, abnormally enlarged SMC neighbors in *kat*

primordia show at least some characteristics of SMC and/or functional megaspores and can thus adopt a

reproductive fate.

The growth of a single SMC emerges from a canalization process

Based on our analysis of *kat* primordia, it appeared that the frequency of ectopic SMC candidates was

high at early stages but decreased over time (Figure 5C). This is reminiscent of the phenotypic plasticity

in SMC differentiation observed, to a lesser degree, in different *Arabidopsis* accessions [7]. To

characterize this plasticity during development we analyzed 1276 wild-type primordia from stage 0-II to

2-II and scored the number of primordia with one or two enlarged, centrally positioned, subepidermal

cells (class A and B, respectively, Figure 6A-C). In the wild type, the majority of primordia showed a

single candidate SMC (class A) at the stage 0-II, but 27% primordia (n=289) had two SMC candidates

(class B), this frequency decreasing to 3% at stage 2-II (n=103). This finding is consistent with ~ 5%

primordia in wild-type at stage 1-II showing H1.1-GFP eviction (n=43) and KNU-YFP expression (n=88) in

more than one cell, respectively (Figure 5D-E).

Next, we quantified class A and B primordia in *kat* mutants by scoring 2587 ovules of three

alleles (Figure 6C, S6A). Clearly, the canalization process is delayed in *kat* mutant primordia with 33%

class B primordia at stage 1-II (n=113) compared to 12% in the wild type (n=281). Consistently, the two

previously used SMC markers are observed in ectopic cells in *kat* primordia already at stage 1-I (Figure

S6B-C), and more significantly at stage 1-II (28.5% ectopic eviction of H1.1-GFP and 21% ectopic

expression of KNU-YFP, Figure 5D-E). At stage 2-II, when 17% of cleared *kat* primordia (n=110) showed

ectopic SMCs, H1.1-GFP eviction and KNU-YFP expression was only found in 8% (n=25) and 6.7% (n=74)

of the primordia, respectively (Figure S5B-C). Therefore, developmental canalization is not only delayed

in *kat* ovules, but there is also a partial uncoupling of cellular morphology and marker expression.

Another outcome of this study is the early emergence of SMCs, confirming our former 3D cell-

based analysis that showed heterogeneity in cell volume of the L2,L3 apical cells already at stages 0-I/0-

II (Figure 2J). To corroborate this finding using a different criterion, we measured the nuclear area,

which is a distinctive feature of SMCs [7, 54]. We compared the nuclear area of SMC candidate to that of

surrounding L1 and L2 cells in both class A and B primordia at stages 0-II and 0-III. Wild-type class A and

B primordia showed an enlarged nucleus in the candidate SMCs from stage 0-II onwards. This correlation

was also true in *kat* primordia, where SMC candidates also showed a 1.37-fold increase in nuclear size

compared to the wild type (Figure 6D, S6D-E).

The commitment to SMC fate is difficult to resolve at early stages due to the lack of molecular

markers. Building on our previous findings, we rationalized that cells from the L2 apical domain with a

low frequency of mitotic events could have started to transit toward S-phase. To learn more about cell

cycle progress in this domain, we analyzed a GFP-tagged PCNA variant marking the replication

machinery [59]. When engaged at active replication forks, PCNA-GFP shows nuclear speckles

characteristic of S-phase [60]. By contrast, it remains in the nucleoplasm in G1- and G2-phase and is

undetectable in M-phase. We quantified the nuclear distribution patterns of PCNA-GFP in cells from the

L2 apical domain in wild type and *kat* primordia separately for class A and B ovules (Figure 6E-H). At

stages 0-II and 0-III, PCNA-GFP was always detectable in both classes, indicating that L2 apical cells are

rarely in M-phase, consistent with the *CYCB1.1-dbGFP* marker analysis. Although the majority of class A

and B ovules at these stages showed a nucleoplasmic pattern, a significant proportion exhibited the

speckled S-phase pattern (Figure 6F). At stage 0-II, 24% of class A ovules (n=112) showed the S-phase

pattern in a single, centrally positioned apical cell (candidate SMC), reaching nearly 40% at stage 0-III

(n=79) (Figure 6F). Conversely, SMC neighbors rarely showed the S-phase pattern (2 to 5%). In class B

ovules, 30% (n=41) and 28% (n=60) at stages 0-II and 0-III, respectively, exhibited the S-phase pattern in

at least one of the cells in the apical domain (Figure 6F). Together with our analysis of the *CYCB1.1-*
dbGFP marker, these data suggest a prolonged S-phase in SMC candidates in Phase I (stages 0-II, 0-III).
Although it is not possible to resolve mitotic *versus* meiotic S-phase, it is tempting to speculate that this
is typical for the latter.

At the onset of Phase II, PCNA-GFP showed a nucleoplasmic pattern in the SMC of class A ovules
and in the L2 apical cells of class B ovules (Figure 6G-H, S6G-H). This is consistent with the detection of
newly replicated DNA in the SMC at stage 1-I [54]. In contrast to the SMC, the SMC neighbors display the
S-phase pattern (Figure 6G-H), consistent with the late divisions reported for these cells in Phase II
(Figure 2D). In *kat* primordia, we found an higher frequency of S-phase patterns in SMC candidates in
both class A and B ovules in Phase II (Figure 6H, S6F,H) and a lower frequency for SMC neighbors in class
A ovules at stages 1-I and 1-II, consistent with the deregulation of *CYCB1.1-dbGFP* in these cells in *kat*
primordia.

Collectively, our data indicate a cellular heterogeneity in the L2 apical domain that leads to the
emergence of one or several SMC candidates as early as stage 0-II. The gradual decrease in the number
of primordia with ambiguous SMC candidates suggests developmental canalization associated with a
cell-cycle progression, cellular elongation, and robust expression of SMC fate markers. In *kat* primordia
displaying architecture alterations, SMC singleness is largely disrupted: the selection of a single SMC is
significantly delayed and several SMC candidates persist in an ambiguous cell fate state.

Discussion
442

Organogenesis involves coordinated cell division and cell expansion, complex growth processes
orchestrated by biochemical and mechanical cues [33]. How cell differentiation is coordinated in space
and time during organ growth and whether these processes are interrelated are core questions for the
elucidation of patterning principles [61].

Here, we tested the hypothesis that ovule primordium growth and overarching organ
architecture determines the differentiation of a single SMC, the precursor cell of the female germline,
per primordium. We established a reference collection of images capturing ovule primordia in 3D at
cellular resolution to study how SMC cell fate relates to organogenesis in space and time. This reference
set populates a growing number of 3D-segmented images of plant tissues and organs, produced as
described here or with new tools for automated analyses [62]. This is a pre-requisite to generate a

developmental atlas that will integrate organ morphology at cellular resolution and gene expression
[63].

We report on an exhaustive morphodynamic analysis at cellular resolution, *per* stage, domain, layer, and cell type of the ovule primordium. In combination with reporter gene analyses in wild-type and mutant ovules and tissue growth simulations, this approach aims to elucidate fundamental patterning principles. We found that cell division is not uniformly distributed in space and time and follows a biphasic pattern where proliferation frequencies in L1 and L2,L3 domains alternate between Phases I and II to shape the primordium. Strikingly, the L2 apical domain shows a low mitotic activity in Phase I (stages 0-II, 0-III) with a prolonged S-phase in the SMC candidate. This is reminiscent of the animal germline, where mitotic quiescence is a prerequisite to initiate meiosis [2, 64] and suggests a functional analogy between the L2,L3 apical domain in ovule primordia and the primordial germline niche in animals. Subsequently, the onset of Phase II coincides with the marked elongation and mitotic quiescence of the SMC, contrasting with active divisions in the basal domain. Thus, the fate of the SMC may be uncoupled early from that of the surrounding cells.

467 Tissue growth simulations allowed us to test the role of three main factors contributing to ovule primordium patterning: i) anisotropic cell growth, ii) spatially confined specified growth signal along the ovule axis, and iii) passive strain–based growth (*i.e.* the baseline competency of the tissue to accommodate to accumulated strain, independently of growth signal). Omitting any of these factors, the resulting models failed to shape a realistic primordium. In particular, isotropic growth produces hemispheric instead of digit-shaped primordia with a flat dome resembling *kat* primordia, in which anisotropic cell growth is altered [26]. Thus, the *kat* mutant phenotype provides an *in planta* confirmation of our theoretical models. Furthermore, the observation that abnormally shaped *kat* primordia contain cells with ectopic expression of SMC fate markers is consistent with the hypothesis that organ growth and ovule primordium architecture control SMC differentiation.

477 Moreover, our results highlight the developmental constraints for differentiation of a single SMC corresponding to a canalization process. The formation of a single SMC prevails in most angiosperms [65]. Yet, some *Arabidopsis* accessions develop ovule primordia with multiple SMC candidates but ultimately only one SMC is committed to meiosis [7, 24]. Our quantifications in two reference accessions (Col-0, Ws) suggest that natural variation affects the timing of the canalization process. Canalization, referring to a progressive constraint of cell fate choice, is well studied in animal systems where it is modulated by intercellular signal-based feedback mechanisms [66] and epigenetic regulation [67]. Possibly, the epigenetic and signal-based processes known to regulate SMC differentiation also operate

in SMC fate canalization. In addition, the contribution of morphogenetic processes on cell fate

specification was recently re-evaluated in the light of tissue mechanics and patterning processes [68].

Our results are consistent with a role of primordium growth constraints on SMC fate canalization.

Possibly, the prolonged cell cycle of subepidermal cells in Phase I leverages competitive cell growth on

which canalization can operate. Under this scenario, disturbance of growth homeostasis as in *kat*

mutants would render this process ineffective and lead to a higher frequency of primordia with

unresolved SMC candidates, unveiling a coupling of SMC fate canalization with organ growth (Figure 6I).

De-canalization observed in *kat* mutants is consistent with recent work in *Drosophila* embryos showing

that organ shape contributes to developmental canalization [69]. Interestingly, the formation of a

broader dome in *kat* ovule coincides with the formation of a broader inner domain with more cells with

an unresolved SMC fate. This is reminiscent of the shoot apical meristem where the shape of the dome

correlates with the size and position of domains expressing stem cell regulators, such as WUSCHEL and

CLAVATA3 [70].

Epidermal growth controls shoot apical meristem and shoot growth through the modulation of

the expression domains of key regulators in the underlying layers [70, 71]. Whether growth of the

epidermis similarly controls the cell cycle and SMC fate regulators in underlying layers of ovule

primordia is an exciting question for future investigation, particularly considering the role of mechanical

constraints on gene regulation [72, 73]. Reciprocally, the role of the underlying layers for epidermis

growth and dome shape remains to be determined. Our ovule growth simulations predicted a role for

inner tissue-driven growth, similar to what has been proposed for the emergence of leaf primordia [74],

although this remains debated [36]. Moreover, our simulations suggested that passive strain-based

growth in the L1 is necessary to achieve a normal primordium shape, and that anisotropic material

properties in this layer are required to constrain the relaxation along the main axis of the primordium. A

possible explanation for this is the requirement to resolve mechanical conflicts arising between tissue

layers that grow at different rates [75]. This would be consistent with the high proliferation activity in

the L1 dome at a stage of marked differential growth of the SMC. In this scenario, divisions in L1 may

release the mechanical stress generated by SMC growth, leading to anisotropic organ growth.

Consistent with this idea, we observed that reduced organ shape anisotropy in *kat* ovules is associated

with fewer divisions in the L1 dome. The higher division rate in the wild type might confer higher

flexibility for the L1 to bend and follow an anisotropic growth profile driven by the inner layers. By

contrast, in *katanin*, non-dividing and elongated cells in the L1 would be expected to transmit higher

tension preventing bending. Experimental alterations of properties in L1 or L2,L3 cells, together with 3D

modeling, would be required to explore such scenarios.

Cell-based models suggested that blocking divisions in the SMC enables it to grow and push on

the surrounding cells, affecting significantly the ovule morphology. Therefore, we speculate that, in

order to maintain ovule growth homeostasis, differential SMC growth must adapt to the constraints

provided by surrounding cells. A gradual reduction of SMC turgor pressure may provide a plausible

cause to limit SMC size and maintain correct ovule anisotropy. Due to the limitations of 2D MS-based

models, such predictions will need to be tested in 3D cell-based models able to properly reproduce a

mechanical scenario for a growing ovule primordium. Nonetheless, this prediction paves the way to

further investigate the potential role of turgor pressure gradients across a field of cells, which could

provide positional information through the directional movement of water and other molecules,

thereby linking organ growth homeostasis, cell growth, and cell fate [76, 77]. Such mechanisms could

participate in defining the specific pattern of a growth signal predicted by our simulations. However, the

nature of the growth signal(s) and the mechanism(s) establishing its pattern in the placenta prior to

primordium emergence remain to be identified. Candidate signals may be the many differentially

localized hormones, gene products, and small RNAs known to affect ovule primordium growth [16, 19].

For example, in Phase II, auxin responses are restricted to the L1 dome while cytokinin signaling is

confined to a region basal to the SMC [78]. Whether this pattern is established already in Phase I and

plays a causative role in primordium patterning and SMC differentiation remains to be determined.

Author contributions

CB, DA, GM, EHL, DG, OH, AB, CG: Conceptualization; EHL, GM, CB, DA, OH, AB, CG, DG: Methodology; GM, NP, AG: Softwares; EHL, GM, EMS, DA, CB: Validation; EHL, GM, AG, DA, CB: Formal analysis; EHL, EMS, DA, CB: Investigation; EMS, AF, OH: Ressources; EHL, GM, NP, DA, CB: Data curation; EHL, GM, EMS, DG, DA, CB: Writing – Original Draft; EHL, GM, OH, AB, CG, UG, DG, DA, CB: Writing – Reviewing and Editing; EHL, GM, DA, CB: Visualization; CB, DA, DG, OH, AB, UG: Supervision; CB, DA, DG: Project administration; CB, DA, DG, OH, AB, CG, UG: Funding Acquisition. All authors reviewed and revised the manuscript.

Data availability

All materials, scripts and datasets generated and analyzed in the current study are available at repositories (see Star Methods) or from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

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 Figures legends

Figure 1. Reference set of 3D segmented images capturing Arabidopsis ovule primordium growth at
cellular-resolution.

(A) 3D reconstruction of a whole gynoecium stained with PS-PI (cell wall dye) and visualized by
CSLM. The cross section allows showing the nascent ovule primordia attached to the placenta.
(B) Ovule primordium developmental stages (0-I to 2-II) and organ viewpoints (domains) defined for the
3D quantitative analysis. All segmented data can be analyzed by an interactive interface named
OvuleViz. See also Figure S1A-C.
n= number of ovules analyzed. Segmented images for all developmental stages are provided in Data S1. See
also Figure S1 D-E, STAR Methods.

Table 1. Classification criteria of Arabidopsis ovule primordia.

The table summarizes general characteristics of ovule primordia per stage: cell "layers" above the
placenta scored as the number of L1 cells in a cell file drawn from the basis to the top, range thereof,
total cell number, ovule shape including height, width, aspect ratio.

Figure 2. Ovule primordium morphogenesis involves domain-specific cell division and anisotropic cell
growth patterns.

(A) Mean cell number *per* ovule increases mainly during stages 0-I to 0-III (Phase I), whereas cell volume
per ovule remains constant on average across primordium development (stages 0-I to 2-II).
(B) Representative image of a continuous surface of an ovule primordium mesh and its projected
median plane. Dashed lines indicate the minimal and maximal curvature points used to measure organ
height and width. Color scale: minimal curvature mm-1 (see also Figure S2B).
(C) Anisotropic organ growth during Phase I and until stage 1-II. Mean width and height were quantified
per stage.
(D) Phase I captures a distinct growth dynamic compared to Phase II. Fold-change of cell number and
aspect ratio between stages are plotted.
(E) Mean cell number is increased at the L1 *versus* L2,L3 layers across developmental stages.
(F) Mean cell number is increased in the basal *versus* apical domain across developmental stages.
(G) Representative images of ovule primordia expressing the M-phase reporter *pCYCB1.1::db-GFP.*
White arrows indicate dividing cells*.* Magenta signal: Renaissance SR2200 cell-wall label. Scale bar:
10µm.
(H) Domain-specific map of mitotic activity during ovule primordium development, scored using the
pCYCB1.1::db-GFP reporter. The frequency of mitoses was calculated *per* ovule domain at each
developmental stage and color-coded as indicated in the bar (right). n: total number of scored ovules.
(I) Mean SMC volume (dark blue) is significantly increased as compared to L2,L3 cells (pale blue) from
stage 0-III onward, on even at earlier stages as compared to all other cells (inset).

(J) Mean cell volume is increased in L2,L3 cells as compared to L1 cells, at the two early developmental stages (st0-I, st0-II).

(K) The SMC consistently displays anisotropic shape with main axis of elongation aligned with ovule growth axis. The SMC anisotropy index (boxplot, left; stage 0-II, n=16 ovules) was calculated from the Maximum (dark blue), Minimum (light blue) and Medium (medium blue) covariance matrix eigenvalues, computed from 3D segmented cells (see Figure S2G). Image (middle): illustration of the SMC main anisotropy axis (orange arrow) related by an angle 'alpha' to the main axis of the ovule primordium (white arrow), stage 0-II. Radar plot (right): 'alpha' angle measured on z projections for n=16 ovule primordia at stage 0-II. See also Star Methods.

Error bars: Standard errors to the mean. Differences between cell types or primordium domains were assessed using a two-tailed Man Whitney U test in (A) and (I); a two-tailed Wilcoxon signed rank test in (J). *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also Figure S2, Data S2, STAR Methods.

Figure 3. Mechanical and cell-based 2D simulation models of ovule primordium development predict that ovule shape depends on cell growth anisotropy.

(A) Reference model for FEM-based simulation of ovule primordium growth. Growth stability is reached at T=24. The fine lines indicate principal strain directions (white: expansive strain, red: compressive strain).

(B) FEM-based simulation omitting the anisotropic growth parameter (FEM-model 3) showing abnormal ovule dome shape at T=24.

(C) Reference model for Mass Spring (MS) cell-based simulation of ovule primordium growth. Growth stability is reached at T=190.

(D) MS cell-based simulation with isotropic cell growth (MS-model 3), showing enlarged apex and dome shape and abnormal cell division planes in L1, at T=190.

(E) Reference model for MS cell-based simulation showing emergence of L2 cell anisotropy at T=58.

(F) MS cell-based simulation MS-Model 3 (see Table 2) showing reduced L2 cells anisotropy at T=58.

Heatmaps: strain levels (A-B), growth signal intensity (C-D), 2D anisotropy index (E-F). See also Figure S3, Table 2 for model hypotheses and STAR Methods.

Figure 4. *katanin* mutants show a distinct ovule primordium architecture, primarily through altered cell division patterns.

Comparison between wild-type (WT, Ws-4 accession) and *katanin (kat, bot1-7* allele)* ovule primordia unless indicated otherwise.

(A) 3D segmented images at stage 1-II. External organ view (top) and longitudinal sections (bottom) are shown. Scale bar 10µm. See Data S2a for full datasets.

(B-D) Morphological difference between WT and *kat* primordia measured by their volume (B), the aspect ratio (C), and aspect ratio to bounding box occupancy relationship (D). D, Left: scheme representing the bounding box capturing the primordium's 3D surface. See also Figure S4A.

(E) Quantification of cell number, cell volume, and sphericity in comparisons of L1 *versus* L2,L3 and apical *versus* basal domains at stage 0-III. See also Figure S4C.

(F) Mitotic activity domains are altered in *kat* primordia. Top: Heatmap of Log2 fold change of mitotic activity in the *kat* mutant (*lue1* allele) *versus* WT (Col-0) *per* domain, at two developmental stages. The frequency of mitoses was measured as in Figure 2. Full maps of mitotic activity in different mutant alleles are shown Figure S4E. Bottom: representative images of *kat* primordia (*lue1* allele) expressing *pCYCB1.1::db-GFP*. Dashed lines mark L2 apical cells. Magenta signal: Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bar 10μm.

(G) Mean cell volume and sphericity are increased in *katanin* L2 apical cells in contact with the SMC. SMC, cells in contact with the SMC, and cells not in direct contact with the SMC, are compared at stage 0-III.

Color code in all plots: Dark red: WT; Salmon: *kat* mutant. Error bars: standard error of the mean. Differences between WT and *kat* mutants in (B), (C), (E), and (G) were assessed using a Mann Whitney U test; a two-tailed Fischer's exact test was used in (F). P values: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also Figure S4 and Data S4.

Figure 5. Altered ovule primordium architecture in *katanin* mutants is associated with multiple SMCs.

(A) SMCs lose their typical pear shape in *katanin* mutants. 3D images of the apical-most cells according to top and side views as indicated, showing the SMC (yellow), SMC neighbors (purple), and the L1 dome (transparent red).

(B) Differential properties of L2,L3 apical domain cells (SMC and SMC neighbors) in terms of cell number, mean cell volume, ellipticity, and sphericity at stage 1-II. See also Figure S5A and Data S4b.

(C) Representative images of cleared wild-type (WT) and *kat* ovule primordia. The percentage indicate the frequency of ovules showing one SMC for WT primordia, or multiple SMC candidates (dashed lines) for *kat* primordia.

(D-E) Representative images and quantification of SMC fate markers in WT and *kat* primordia: eviction of the *H1.1::H1.1-GFP* marker (green, D) and ectopic expression of *KNU::nls-YFP* (yellow, E) in more than one cell *per* primordia, are increased in *kat* primordia. See also Figure S5B.

(F) The meiotic marker *AtDMC1::GUS* is ectopically expressed in *kat* ovules.

Mutant alleles: *bot1-7* (A-B), *mad5* (C-E), *lue1* (F). Additional *kat* alleles, stages and detailed quantifications are presented Figure S5 and Data S5. Magenta signal in (B) and (C): Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bars for (C), (D) and (E): 10μm. n: number of ovules scored. Error bar: standard error of the mean. Differences between WT and *kat* genotype*s* were assessed using a Mann Whitney U test in (B), and a two-tailed Fischer's exact test in (D), (E), and (F). P values: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also Figure S5 and Data S5.

Figure 6. The formation of a single SMC stems from a canalization process.

(A-B) In wild-type (WT) plants, ovule primordia harbour one (Class A) or occasionally two (Class B) SMC candidates with the frequency of class B gradually decreasing during development, reminiscent of developmental canalization. Typical images obtained by tissue clearing with SMC candidates highlighted in yellow (A) and plots showing the percentages of classes A and B (B). The frequency of class B ovules is significantly reduced from stage 1-I, suggesting that canalization (represented by the red dashed line) occur before that stage. The plot coloration is a visual aid only.

(C) Developmental canalization is delayed in *katanin* mutants (*kat*, *mad5* allele). The proportion of class
B ovules is significantly reduced from stage 2-II only. Quantifications for two additional mutants carrying
kat alleles are presented Figure S6A. The plot coloration is a visual aid only.
(D) The candidate SMCs initially identified as enlarged cells consistently show an enlarged nucleus in
both class A and class B primordia. Nuclear area is compared between the candidate SMCs (cSMC) and
surrounding L2 and L1 cells (see Figure S6D and STAR Methods for further details). Box plots include
jittered data points to visualize data variability. Red lines represent the median of cSMC nuclear area for
comparison with other cell types. Equivalent quantifications for stage 0-III are presented in Figure S6E.
(E-F) During Phase I (stages 0-II, 0-III), S-phase is detected in candidate SMCs at higher frequency than in
neighbors cells in class A ovules, and in both SMC candidates in class B ovules. Representative images of
ovule primordia showing the speckled S-phase pattern of the *pPCNA1::PCNA:sGFP* reporter (green) (E).
Magenta signal: Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bar 10µm. Quantification of speckled S-phase
pattern in the SMC candidate and L2 neighbors (class A ovules) or in both SMC candidates (class B) (F).
(G-H) During Phase II (stages 1-I to 2-II), in class A wild-type ovule primordia, SMC exits S-phase, and
neighbors cells re-enter S-phase; while *katanin* primordia show the opposite pattern.. Representative
images of class A ovule primordia primarily showing the nucleoplasmic G1/G2-phase pattern of
pPCNA1::PCNA:sGFP in SMCs at stages 1-II (left panel) and 2-II (middle panel); and of the speckled S-
phase pattern in neighbors cells (right panel). Quantification of speckled S-phase pattern in SMC
candidates and neighbors in Phase II wild-type and *katanin* primordia (I). Representative images and
quantifications of Phase I *katanin* primordia and of class B primodia are presented in Figure S6F-H. See
also Figure 2H.
(I) Model for the role of *KATANIN* in primordium growth and SMC differentiation (graphical abstract). In
WT primordia, SMC differentiation follows a developmental canalization process influenced by cell
growth anisotropy that shapes the primordium apex. In *kat* mutants, reduced anisotropy modifies the
cell proliferation pattern, enlarges the apex and the L2,L3 apical domain, leading to multiple SMC
candidates (delayed canalization). We propose that ovule primordium shape, controlled by anisotropic
cell growth, determines SMC singleness.
Images: scale bars : 10um*. Graphs*: n= total number of ovules. Error bar: standard error of the mean (F, I).
Differences between cell types, domains, or genotypes as indicated in the graphs were assessed using
Wilcoxon signed rank test in (D), and a two-tailed Fischer's exact test in B, C, F, and I. P values: *p≤0.05,
**p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. Quantifications for additional alleles and detailed quantifications are provided in
Figure S6 and Data S6.
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718 **Supplementary Figures Legends**
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Figure S1_Related to Figure 1. Approaches for morphodynamic analyses of ovule primordium
development using a reference set of 3D segmented images.
(A) OvuleViz, an interactive interface enabling the analysis of segmented data based on exported cell
statistics. The different snapshots display several features of OvuleViz, enabling the generation of plots
from chosen cell statistics for chosen ovule primordium stage, genotype, cell labels or groups thereof
(viewpoints).

(B) Examples of plot types that can be generated by OvuleViz.

(C) Possibility to export all or a subset of data as summary table or raw dataframe for further analyses
external to OvuleViz.

(D) PCA of cell descriptors from the wild-type reference dataset (*Arabidopsis* Col-0) (see DataS1), for all
cell types and all stages. PCA was performed on a dataset containing Sphericity, Ellipticity oblate,
Ellipticity prolate, Area, and Volume. Only the first and the second Principal Components (PCs) are
shown. The loading plot and table indicate the variables' contribution to each component.

(E) Same as (D) for all cell types grouped by stage: stage 0 (0-I; 0-II), stage 1 (1-I; 1-II), and stage 2 (2-I; 2-
II). Variables' contributions are presented by loading plots for each PC and summary table.

Figure S2_Related to Figure 2. Ovule primordium morphogenesis involves domain-specific cell division
and anisotropic cell growth patterns.

(A) Average cell number and cell volume in wild-type ovule *Col-0* primordium during development.
Mann Whitney U test was used to assess the difference of each stage relative to the previous stage.
Related to Figure 2A.

(B) Extraction of overall ovule height and width used in Figure 2B,C. (a) segmented stack imported in
MorphoGraphX [31], (b) continuous surface mesh created in MoprhoGraphX with the minimal curvature
projected, the clipping plane is shown (dashed grid), (c) comparison between cell-mesh and continuous
mesh, (d) Longitudinal section of the mesh showing maximal (1) and minimal (2 and 3) curvature points.
Heatmap: minimal curvature mm^{-1}. Related to Figure 2B-C.

(C) Box plots and line plot (error bar is standard error of the mean) showing the mean cell volume in
each ovule domain during all developmental time points. Mann Whitney U test was used to assess the
difference between stages (L1 apical). Related to Figure 2I.

(D) Scatter plots comparing the cell volume of SMC (yellow) to the average cell volume of other cells
types (same color code as in Figure 1) *per* ovule primordium, per stage. Related to Figure 2I.

(E) Comparison of cell volume between L1 and L2L3 cells in Phase I ovule primordia (stages 0-I to 0-III).
Wilcoxon Signed Rank test was used to assess the difference between domains. Related to Figure 2J.

(F) Quantification of cell sphericity and ellipticity (prolate and oblate, see STAR methods) at all ovule
primordium domains during development.

(G) Computation of covariance matrix eigenvalues for cell anisotropy analysis: Left: semi-automated cell
type classification showing labelled cells along a longitudinal cut of an ovule. L2 SMC neighbors (orange)
stands for all L2 cells sharing a portion of their wall with the SMC (yellow). Unlabelled cells (in red) are
not considered in the analysis. For the inner cells, the main anisotropy axis (the eigenvector of the
covariance matrix corresponding to the biggest eigenvalue) is shown with a white line. Right:
representation of eigenvectors of the covariance matrix (white lines) used for the PCA analysis on cell
anisotropy on a random cell. The eigenvectors are scaled by their own eigenvalue normalized over the
sum of the three eigenvalues. The longest eigenvector is aligned with the longest cell axis, the shortest
with the shortest cell axis and the mid eigenvector with the cell axis orthogonal to the other two (and of
intermediate length). Related to Figure 2K.

(H) SMC anisotropy index calculated from Maximum (dark blue), Mid (mid blue) and Minimum (pale blue) eigenvalues, normalized by the sum of all, from stage 0-I to stage 2-I. Related to Figure 2K. P values: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also DataS2.

Figure S3_Related to Figure 3. FEM- and MS-based simulations, reference models, and additional variations.

(A) *Time series of the FEM reference simulation: FEM-Model 1 and its preparation.* **Left***:* reference simulation progression; the lines represent the in-plane principal strains: white for extensive, red for compressive. The heatmap represents the trace of the Green-Lagrange strain tensor. **Right**: preparation of the reference template (a-c) and initial parameters (d). (a-c) the starting template is a flat tissue representation distinguishing L1 and inner layers on which anisotropic material (a, Young's modulus E2), material stiffness (b, Young's modulus E1E3), and the growth signal (c, Kpar) domain are set. The white lines indicate the direction of fiber reinforcement for the anisotropic material (a), the intensity of the stiffness in the isotropic component of the material (b), the direction of signal-based growth, which is orthogonal to the fiber reinforcement direction (c). In addition, all lateral boundaries of the simulation template (except the top one) were fixed in all degrees of freedom. The table (d) integrates the visual information with global parameters. See additional explanations in the STAR Methods.

(B) *Variation of the signal-based growth distribution with respect to the FEM- and MS-based reference models.* For all model variations, the result is shown for the continuous FEM-based simulations (top) and the MS-based simulations (bottom) at the simulation time point indicated (T). (**a**) Model 4: the signal is allowed to diffuse broadly. In both FEM- and MS-based simulations, the primordium is broader and the flanks are not orthogonal to the surface (arrow) as in the reference models. (**b**) Models 5: L1-driven growth hypothesis (1). Here the growth-specifying signal is set at a high and fixed (i.e., non-diffusing) concentration only in the L1. In both simulations, these conditions allow the formation of a protrusion but not a realistic primordium. For both simulations, the growth time went beyond the reference time to reach the same final height as in the reference models and to compensate for the prescribed reduced growth intensity. Specific observations are made for the different simulations: FEM-Model 5 shows high compression forces below the L1 (arrow: compressive areas are marked by the blue color and red lines). One interpretation is that these compressions may arise because the L1 "collapses" towards the center in the absence of inner tissue growth. Note the narrower apical, subepidermal domain than in the reference model. Furthermore, in the periclinal direction the L1 experiences significant compressions (indicated by the red lines). MS-Model 5: the growth is not balanced and generated an unstable apex (arrow, winding in different directions during growth, see Movie S2). (**c**) Models 6: L1-driven growth hypothesis (2). Here the growth signal is restricted solely to the L1. In this case, the difference is striking for both FEM- and MS-based simulations: the models are not able to create a significant buckle and, even if strain-based growth is permitted, the inner tissue is not pulled upwards. The growing part of the L1 ends being compressed by the non-growing counterpart (as shown by the compressive strain marked in blue in the image for the FEM-based simulation), causing the simulation to numerically fail earlier than the reference (FEM) or in any case not forming a primordium (MS). (**d**) Models 7: exclusive inner-tissue growth hypothesis. Here, the growth signal is absent in the L1. The L1 performs exclusively passive strain-based relaxation. In this model, we test whether it is plausible that growth can be entirely initiated by the inner tissues, provided the L1 has a higher ability to relax (compared to the remaining

tissue) due to induced strain. In such a scenario, the inner layer, which is prescribed to grow as in the
reference model, pushes the L1, causing accumulation of tensile strains in the periclinal direction that
get released due to passive strain-based relaxation. Both FEM- and MS-based simulations are able to
produce a digit-shaped protrusion, even if, in the FEM-based simulation, it is shorter with less straight
flanks (i.e., smoother transition from the placenta to the flanks; dotted arrow). This can be explained by
the absence of compressive strains at the base of the ovule (plain arrow) in comparison with the
reference model. The MS-based model displays a primordium with increased width at the apex. A
possible explanation for this may be the absence of growth constraints generated by the L1. In both
cases, the passive strain-based relaxation coefficient of the L1 was higher than in the reference model.
Whether this is biologically relevant remains to be addressed experimentally.
(C) *Models varying passive strain-based relaxation and material properties.* Results are shown for the
continuous FEM-based simulations (top) and the MS-based simulations (bottom) at the simulation time
point indicated (T). (**a**) Models 8: absence of passive strain-based relaxation in all the tissue. In both
simulations, this results in a poorly developed primordium (and numerically the simulation fail earlier
than the reference time), likely due to the accumulation of high strains (and stresses), particularly visible
in the FEM-based model (high accumulation of compressive and tensile strains near each other in the
inner tissue as well as in the L1, arrows). (**b**) Model 8a: variation of the previous model with absence of
passive strain-based relaxation only in the L1. In both simulations, the primordium is shorter than in the
reference case, although less severe in the FEM-based simulation. Specifically, in the L1 there is a high
accumulation of tensile stresses on the outer walls in the apical portion and in the inner walls at the
base (arrows). (**c**) FEM-Model 2: absence of anisotropic material properties in all tissues. Although the
simulation produced a well-shaped primordium, the L1 is slightly thicker (double sided arrow, 1.2-fold
compared to reference Model 1) and there is a larger L2,L3 apical domain characterized by a principal
strain oriented 90° to that in the reference model (insets). These morphological differences with the
reference model can be explained by the fact that passive strain-based relaxation in an isotropic
material has an equal effect in the periclinal and the anticlinal direction, producing a thicker L1 and a
rounder dome. In (**d**) FEM-based Model 2b: variation of previous Model 2. Here, only the L1 has
anisotropic material properties. This restores the L1 thickness control but the abnormally high intensity
and modified direction of compressive strains are similar to that in Model 2.
(D) *Mass spring reference model and initial template preparation, comparison with data from real*
ovules. Top left: MS-Model 2 simulation at four different time points. The heatmap indicates the
intensity of the growth-specifying signal. Bottom left: reference simulation performed on a template
obtained from a real ovule placenta (see also STAR Methods). Top right: Initial parameters at simulation
start. Field values as indicated (**a-g**) used to set up the reference configuration shown on the placenta at
simulation time 0 and MS global parameters (**h**). More details can be found in the STAR
Methods. Bottom right: comparison between simulation and real primordia. *Image*: 3D, segmented
ovule primordia stage 0-II from the wild-type reference set (see main text), longitudinal view: the SMC
(orange) is outlined in a white triangular mesh (color-code refers to cell volume). Its morphology is to be
compared to SMC candidates produced in the reference Model MS-Model 2 (e.g., T=134 for grid-based
simulation and T=108 for real-image template-based simulation): the cell is elongated, centrally located
in the apical dome and presents a broader upper periclinal wall surface compared to the bottom one.
Plot: comparison of height-width ratio along simulation progression in MS-Model 2 and developmental

progression in real (from segmented images of the wild-type reference set, see main text). For the
simulation, two equi-distanced time-points between the 1st (T = 0) and the last simulation time step (T =
190) have been used to compute the values for intermediate phases.
(E) *Model intervening on SMC division*. In the reference MS-Model 2, there is no explicit rule preventing
division of the SMC candidate. To analyze the consequence of SMC growth on primordium growth in our
models, we prevented the SMC candidate to divide at simulation time T = 110. Under the reference
conditions where the turgor pressure is the same among all subepidermal cells, this generates a gigantic
cell exerting a considerable tensile stretch on the surrounding cells, deforming the whole domain. This
suggests that, in reality, SMC growth might be compensated by a reduction in turgor pressure, a
hypothesis that needs to be tested. Note that the two direct adjacent cells have an elongated shape
reminiscent of companion cells.
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861 **Figure S4_Related to Figure 4. *katanin* ovule growth defects.**
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(A) *Ovule size, aspect ratio, bounding box, and bounding box occupancy.* Ovule volume was calculated as
the sum of cell volumes for individual ovules (OvuleViz data). For each ovule, the volume of their fitting
bounding box (represented Figure 4D) was calculated using box side lengths given in Imaris (Bitplane) on
ovule primordia treated as Surface objects (see STAR methods). Bounding box occupancy was calculated
as the ratio of the ovule volume relative to its bounding box volume. The aspect ratio was calculated as
the height (C length of the bounding box) divided by the mean of the width and depth lengths (A and B
lengths of the bounding box). Man Whitney U test was used to assess differences between genotypes.
Related to Figure 4B-D.
(B) Comparison of cell number, cell volume, and sphericity in WT (Ws-4) and *kat (bot1-7)* ovule
primordia. Man Whitney U test was used to assess the differences between genotypes.
(C) Global PCA analyses of cell's characteristics in *kat versus* WT ovules (Ws-4). PCA was performed on a
dataset containing Sphericity, Ellipticity oblate, Ellipticity prolate, Area, and Volume measurements of
WT and *kat* cells from ovules at the indicated stages (0-III, 1-I, 1-II). Cell types are labelled according to
colour code indicated. 95% confidence ellipses are indicated (dashed lines). Only the first and the
second Principal Components (PCs) are shown. The loading plots indicate the contributions of the
variables to each component. Related to Figure 4E.
(D) Comparison of mean cell number and volume in apical versus basal domains, and in L1 versus L2,L3
layers between WT (Ws-4) and *kat* (*bot1-7*) ovule primordia. Man Whitney U test was used to assess
differences between genotypes. Related to Figure 4E.
(D) Comparison of cell sphericity as in (C). Related to Figure 4E.
(E) Mitotic activity in distinct domains of the ovule primordium of WT (Col, Ws.4) and *kat* (*lue1, bot1-7*)
mutant plants. WT data are presented also in Figure 2 and shown here for better comparison only. The
frequency of mitoses was scored using the *pCYCB1.1::db-GFP* reporter. Dark gray regions mark Phase I
developmental stages. Two-tailed Fischer's exact test was used to assess differences between domains
in the genotypes. Significant P values (*p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001) are indicated for the different
domains in coloured boxes below the heatmaps. See also Data S2 and DataS4. Related to Figure 4F.
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890 **Figure S5_Related to Figure 5. Altered ovule primordium architecture in *katanin* mutants is associated**
891 **with multiple SMCs.**
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(A) Comparison of volume and sphericity of L2,L3 apical domain cells in wild-type (WT, Ws-4) and
katanin (*kat, bot1-7* allele). Mann Whitney U test was used to assess the differences between genotypes
for the mean cell volume and sphericity visualized by boxplots. Related to Figure 5B.
(B) Representative images and quantification of WT (WS-4) and *kat* (*bot1-7*) ovule primordia expressing
pKNU::nls-YFP (yellow signal), specifically expressed in the SMC. *kat* ovules show ectopic subepidermal
cells with YFP signal, confirming SMC fate acquisition. Related to Figure 5E.
(C) Representative images (10μm maximum intensity projections of image stacks) and quantification of
WT (WS-4) and *kat* (*bot1-7*) ovule primordia expressing the *pWOX2:CenH3-GFP* marker (green signal),
labeling centromeres from the functional megaspore (FM) stage onward. Cells ectopically expressing the
marker are detected in *kat* at both early (before centromeres condensation – left panel) and late (after
centromeres condensation – right panel) stages of FM formation. Note that ectopic FMs are aligned with
the normal, most basal (chalazal) FM, suggesting that they belong to the same tetrad. They also display
a similar number of centromeres (5) visible on the projections. Quantification was performed on pooled
early and late FM stages. Related to Figure 5D-F.
White signal: Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bar: 10μm. n: number of ovules scored. Error
bar: standard error of the mean. Two-tailed Fischer's exact test was used to assess differences between
domains in the distinct genotypes. P values: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also Data S5.
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Figure S6_ Related to Figure 6. The formation of a single SMC emerges from a canalization process
controlled by *KATANIN*.

(A) Canalization of SMC fate in different *katanin* alleles (*kat*; *lue1, bot1-7*) and respective wild-type
backgrounds (WT; Col, Ws-4). Percentages of class A and B primordia based on cleared tissue
preparations as shown Figure 6A. The proportion of primordia with several SMC candidates at stage 0-II
gradually decreases with developmental progression while the proportion of ovules with a single SMC
increases, suggesting canalization. A significant delay in canalization (dashed red line) in *kat* mutants
was confirmed by a two-tailed Fischer's exact test (see also DataS2). Related to Figure 6B-C.

(B-C) Ectopic expression of SMC fate in *kat* primordia (*mad5* allele) compared to wild-type (WT; Col).
Percentage of ovule primordia showing *H1.1-GFP* marker [54] eviction (B); and *KNU-nlsYFP* marker [55]
expression (C) in more than one SMC candidate at all developmental stages. Two-tailed Fischer's exact
test was used to assess differences between genotypes. Related to Figure 6B-C and Figure 6D-E.
(D-E) Nuclear area as a marker of SMC candidates. Illustration of the cells selected for nuclear area
measurements in representative class A and B ovules (D). We measured nuclei in two L1 cells types (L1a,
apical position and L1b, closer to the placenta), cSMC: candidate SMC; L2b: a neighbouring L2 cell.
Dashed circles mark the nuclei of these cells used in the measurements. Related to Figure 6D.
Quantification of nuclear area as shown in (D) for class A and B in WT and *kat* (*mad5* allele) ovule
primordia at stage 0-III (E). Box plot representations include jittered points to visualize data variability.
Red lines represent the median of cSMC nuclear area for comparison with the other cells. Wilcoxon

signed rank test was used to assess difference between SMC and the other cell types. Related to Figure 6D.

(F-H) Frequency of SMC showing an S-phase pattern in *kat* primordia. Representative images (F); green, *pPCNA1::PCNA:sGFP*, magenta: Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bar 10µm. Related to Figure 6F, 6H. Quantification of S-phase occurrence within the L2 apical domain cells of class A and class B *katanin* (*mad5*) ovule primordia in Phase I (stages 0-II to 0-III) (G). Quantification of S-phase occurrence at the cells of the L2 apical domain of class B WT and *kat* (*mad5 allele*) ovule primordia in Phase II (stages 1-I to 2-II) (H). The plotted frequencies refer to the number of primordia showing a speckled *pPCNA1::PCNA:sGFP* pattern in SMC candidates. Two-tailed Fischer's exact test was used to assess differences between genotypes. Related to Figure 6H.

All graphs: n= number of ovules scored. Error bar: standard error of the mean. P values: *$p \leq 0.05$, **$p \leq 0.01$, ***$p \leq 0.001$. See also Data S6.

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1151

Figure 1. Reference set of 3D segmented images capturing Arabidopsis ovule primordium growth at cellular resolution.

(A) 3D reconstruction of a whole gynoecium stained with PS-PI (cell wall dye) and visualized by CSLM. The cross section allows showing the nascent ovule primordia attached to the placenta.

(B) Ovule primordium developmental stages (0-I to 2-II) and organ viewpoints (domains) defined for the 3D quantitative analysis. All segmented data can be analyzed by an interactive interface named OvuleViz. See also Figure S1A-C.

n= number of ovules analyzed. Segmented images for all developmental stages are provided in Data S1. See also STAR Methods.

	0-I			0-II			0-III		
Cells above placenta*	2.5	(±3.5)	(n=21)	3.6	(±0.5)	(n=17)	5.9	(±1.0)	(n=11)
range (min-max)	2	-	3	3	-	4	5	-	8
total # cells	28	(±5.7)	(n=21)	38	(±8.0)	(n=17)	80	(±8.4)	(n=11)
width (μm) (W)	23	(±3.5)		26.3	(±2.4)		28.0	(±3.1)	
height (μm) (H)	5.3	(±1.2)		11.9	(±2.1)		22.5	(±3.6)	
H:W ratio	0.2	(±0.04)	(n=13)	0.45	(±0.06)	(n=14)	0.8	(±0.12)	(n=8)

	1-I			1-II		
cells above placenta*	7.3	(±1.3)	(n=15)	9.7	(±1.0)	(n=11)
range (min-max)	6	-	10	8	-	11
total # cells	105	(±10.6)	(n=15)	128	(±18.0)	(n=11)
width (μm) (W)	27	(±2.0)		27.8	(±3.5)	
height (μm) (H)	30	(±2.8)		39	(±5.9)	
H:W ratio	1.1	(±0.10)	(n=6)	1.4	(±0.22)	(n=8)

	2-I			2-II		
cells above placenta*	10	(±1.1)	(n=10)	12.6	(±1.0)	(n=7)
range (min-max)	9	-	12	11	-	14
total # cells	151	(±18.9)	(n=10)	165	(±19.8)	(n=7)

* scoring the length of L1 cell file above placenta

Table 1. Classification criteria of Arabidopsis ovule primordia

The table summarizes general characteristics of ovule primordia per stage: cell "layers" above the placenta scored as the number of L1 cells in a cell file drawn from the basis to the top, range thereof, total cell number, ovule shape including height, width, aspect ratio.

Figure 2. Ovule primordium morphogenesis involves domain-specific cell division and anisotropic cell growth patterns.

(A) Mean cell number *per* ovule increases mainly during stages 0-I to 0-III (Phase I), whereas cell volume *per* ovule remains constant on average across primordium development (stages 0-I to 2-II).
(B) Representative image of a continuous surface of an ovule primordium mesh and its projected median plane. Dashed lines indicate the minimal and maximal curvature points used to measure organ height and width. Color scale: minimal curvature mm-1 (see also Figure S2B). *Continued on next page*

Figure 2- continued

(C) Anisotropic organ growth during Phase I and until stage 1-II. Mean width and height were quantified *per* stage.

(D) Phase I captures a distinct growth dynamic compared to Phase II. Fold-change of cell number and aspect ratio between stages are plotted.

(E) Mean cell number is increased at the L1 *versus* L2,L3 layers across developmental stages.

(F) Mean cell number is increased in the basal *versus* apical domain across developmental stages.

(G) Representative images of ovule primordia expressing the M-phase reporter *pCYCB1.1::db-GFP.* White arrows indicate dividing cells. Magenta signal: Renaissance SR2200 cell-wall label. Scale bar: 10μm.

(H) Domain-specific map of mitotic activity during ovule primordium development, scored using the *pCYCB1.1::db-GFP* reporter. The frequency of mitoses was calculated *per* ovule domain at each developmental stage and color-coded as indicated in the bar (right). n: total number of scored ovules.

(I) Mean SMC volume (dark blue) is significantly increased as compared to L2,L3 cells (pale blue) from stage 0-III onward, on even at earlier stages as compared to all other cells (inset).

(J) Mean cell volume is increased in L2,L3 cells as compared to L1 cells, at the two early developmental stages (st0-I, st0-II).

(K) The SMC consistently displays anisotropic shape with main axis of elongation aligned with ovule growth axis. The SMC anisotropy index (boxplot, left; stage 0-II, n=16 ovules) was calculated from the Maximum (dark blue), Minimum (light blue) and Medium (medium blue) covariance matrix eigenvalues, computed from 3D segmented cells (see Figure S2G). Image (middle): illustration of the SMC main anisotropy axis (orange arrow) related by an angle 'alpha' to the main axis of the ovule primordium (white arrow), stage 0-II. Radar plot (right): 'alpha' angle measured on z projections for n=16 ovule primordia at stage 0-II. See also Star Methods.

Error bars: Standard errors to the mean. Differences between cell types or primordium domains were assessed using a two-tailed Man Whitney U test in (A) and (I); a two-tailed Wilcoxon signed rank test in (J). *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also Figure S2, Data S2, STAR Methods.

Modeling hypotheses		Models							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Growth anisotropy		●	●	-	●	●	●	●	●
Material anisotropy		●	-	○	○	○	○	○	○
Passive Strain-based relaxation		●	●	●	●	●	●	●	-
Signal-based growth									
Distribution	L1 only	-	-	-	-	-	●	-	-
	Inner tissue only (pit-shape)	-	-	-	-	-	-	●	-
	L1 + inner tissue (pit-shape)	●	●	●	-	●	-	-	●
	L1 + inner tissue (broad distribution)	-	-	-	●	-	-	-	-
Fixed high concentration	L1 only	-	-	-	-	●	●	-	-
	Inner tissue only	-	-	-	-	-	-	●	-
	L1 + inner tissue	●	●	●	●	-	-	-	●

Table 2. Hypotheses used to generate the mass-spring (MS) and continuous Finite Element Method (FEM) based simulations

Several growth and mechanical hypotheses were listed at start of modelling. To evaluate their effect on primordium growth each hypothesis was excluded (-) in at least one scenario. The FEM and mass-spring (MS) models presented in Figure 3 and S3 are numbered according to the scenarios (1-8) in the table. Since it is not possible for MS to simulate material anisotropy, Model 1 was only tested with FEM. Empty dots for "Material anisotropy" were considered only for the FEM models. See also STAR Methods.

Figure 3. Mechanical and cell-based 2D simulation models of ovule primordium development predict that ovule shape depends on cell growth anisotropy.

(A) Reference model for FEM-based simulation of ovule primordium growth. Growth stability is reached at T=24. The fine lines indicate principal strain directions (white: expansive strain, red: compressive strain).

(B) FEM-based simulation omitting the anisotropic growth parameter (FEM-model 3) showing abnormal ovule dome shape at T=24.

(C) Reference model for Mass Spring (MS) cell-based simulation of ovule primordium growth. Growth stability is reached at T=190.

(D) MS cell-based simulation with isotropic cell growth (MS-model 3), showing enlarged apex and dome shape and abnormal cell division planes in L1, at T=190.

(E) Reference model for MS cell-based simulation showing emergence of L2 cell anisotropy at T=58.

(F) MS cell-based simulation MS-Model 3 (see Table 2) showing reduced L2 cells anisotropy at T=58.

Heatmaps: strain levels (A-B), growth signal intensity (C-D), 2D anisotropy index (E-F). See also Figure S3, Table 2 for model hypotheses and STAR Methods.

Figure 4. katanin mutants show a distinct ovule primordium architecture, primarily through altered cell division patterns.

Comparison between wild-type (WT, Ws-4 accession) and *katanin (kat, bot1-7* allele*)* ovule primordia unless indicated otherwise.

(A) 3D segmented images at stage 1-II. External organ view (top) and longitudinal sections (bottom) are shown. Scale bar 10µm. See Data S2a for full datasets. *Continued on next page.*

Figure 4 - Continued.

(B-D) Morphological difference between WT and *kat* primordia measured by their volume (B), the aspect ratio (C), and aspect ratio to bounding box occupancy relationship (D). D, Left: scheme representing the bounding box capturing the primordium's 3D surface. See also Figure S4A.

(E) Quantification of cell number, cell volume, and sphericity in comparisons of L1 *versus* L2,L3 and apical *versus* basal domains at stage 0-III. See also Figure S4C.

(F) Mitotic activity domains are altered in *kat* primordia. Top: Heatmap of Log2 fold change of mitotic activity in the *kat* mutant (*lue1* allele) *versus* WT (Col-0) *per* domain, at two developmental stages. The frequency of mitoses was measured as in Figure 2. Full maps of mitotic activity in different mutant alleles are shown Figure S4E. Bottom: representative images of *kat* primordia (*lue1* allele) expressing *pCYCB1.1::db-GFP*. Dashed lines mark L2 apical cells. Magenta signal: Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bar 10µm.

(G) Mean cell volume and sphericity are increased in *katanin* L2 apical cells in contact with the SMC. SMC, cells in contact with the SMC, and cells not in direct contact with the SMC, are compared at stage 0-III.

Color code in all plots: Dark red: WT; Salmon: *kat* mutant. Error bars: standard error of the mean. Differences between WT and *kat* mutants in (B), (C), (E), and (G) were assessed using a Mann Whitney U test; a two-tailed Fischer's exact test was used in (F). P values: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also Figure S4 and Data S4.

Figure 5. Altered ovule primordium architecture in *katanin* mutants is associated with multiple SMCs.

(A) SMCs lose their typical pear shape in *katanin* (*kat*) mutants. 3D images of the apical-most cells according to top and side views as indicated, showing the SMC (yellow), SMC neighbors (purple), and the L1 dome (transparent red).

(B) Differential properties of L2,L3 apical domain cells (SMC and SMC neighbors) in terms of cell number, mean cell volume, ellipticity, and sphericity at stage 1-II. See also Figure S5A and Data S4b.

(C) Representative images of cleared wild-type (WT) and *kat* ovule primordia. The % indicate the frequency of ovules showing one SMC for WT primordia, or multiple SMC candidates (dashed lines) for *kat* primordia.

(D-E) Representative images and quantification of SMC fate markers in WT and *kat* primordia: eviction of the *H1.1::H1.1-GFP* marker (green, D) and ectopic expression of *KNU::nls-YFP* (yellow, E) in more than one cell *per* primordia, are increased in *kat* primordia. See also Figure S5B.

(F) The meiotic marker *AtDMC1::GUS* is ectopically expressed in *kat* ovules.

Mutant alleles: *bot1-7* (A-B), *mad5* (C-E), *lue1* (F). Additional *kat* alleles, stages and detailed quantifications are presented Figure S5 and Data S5. Magenta signal in (B) and (C): Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bars for (A): 5 µm ; for (C), (D), (E), (F): 10µm. n: number of ovules scored. Error bar: standard error of the mean. Differences between WT and *kat* genotypes were assessed using a Mann Whitney U test in (B), and a two-tailed Fischer's exact test in (C), (D), (E), and (F). P values: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. See also Figure S5 and Data S5.

Figure 6. The formation of a single SMC stems from a canalization process.

(A-B) In wild-type (WT) plants, ovule primordia harbour one (Class A) or occasionally two (Class B) SMC candidates with the frequency of class B gradually decreasing during development, reminiscent of developmental canalization. Typical images obtained by tissue clearing with SMC candidates highlighted in yellow (A) and plots showing the percentages of classes A and B (B). The frequency of class B ovules is significantly reduced from stage 1-I, suggesting that canalization (represented by the red dashed line) occur before that stage. The plot coloration is a visual aid only.

Continued on next page

Figure 6 - continued

(C) Developmental canalization is delayed in *katanin* mutants (*kat*, *mad5* allele). The proportion of class B ovules is significantly reduced from stage 2-II only. Quantifications for two additional mutants carrying *kat* alleles are presented Figure S6A. The plot coloration is a visual aid only.

(D) The candidate SMCs initially identified as enlarged cells consistently show an enlarged nucleus in both class A and class B primordia. Nuclear area is compared between the candidate SMCs (cSMC) and surrounding L2 and L1 cells (see Figure S6D and STAR Methods for further details). Box plots include jittered data points to visualize data variability. Red lines represent the median of cSMC nuclear area for comparison with other cell types. Equivalent quantifications for stage 0-III are presented in Figure S6E.

(E-F) During Phase I (stages 0-II, 0-III), S-phase is detected in candidate SMCs at higher frequency than in neighbors cells in class A ovules, and in both SMC candidates in class B ovules. Representative images of ovule primordia showing the speckled S-phase pattern of the *pPCNA1::PCNA:sGFP* reporter (green) (E). Magenta signal: Renaissance SR2200 cell wall label. Scale bar 10µm. Quantification of speckled S-phase pattern in the SMC candidate and L2 neighbors (class A ovules) or in both SMC candidates (class B) (F).

(G-H) During Phase II (stages 1-I to 2-II), in class A wild-type ovule primordia, SMC exits S-phase, and neighbors cells re-enter S-phase; while *katanin* primordia show the opposite pattern.. Representative images of class A ovule primordia primarily showing the nucleoplasmic G1/G2-phase pattern of *pPCNA1::PCNA:sGFP* in SMCs at stages 1-II (left panel) and 2-II (middle panel); and of the speckled S-phase pattern in neighbors cells (right panel). Quantification of speckled S-phase pattern in SMC candidates and neighbors in Phase II wild-type and *katanin* primordia (I). Representative images and quantifications of Phase I *katanin* primordia and of class B primodia are presented in Figure S6F-H. See also Figure 2H.

(I) Model for the role of *KATANIN* in primordium growth and SMC differentiation (graphical abstract). In WT primordia, SMC differentiation follows a developmental canalization process influenced by cell growth anisotropy that shapes the primordium apex. In *kat* mutants, reduced anisotropy modifies the cell proliferation pattern, enlarges the apex and the L2,L3 apical domain, leading to multiple SMC candidates (delayed canalization). We propose that ovule primordium shape, controlled by anisotropic cell growth, determines SMC singleness.

Images: scale bars: 10um. *Graphs*: n= total number of ovules. Error bars: standard error of the mean (F, I). Differences between cell types, domains, or genotypes as indicated in the graphs were assessed using Wilcoxon signed rank test in (D), and a two-tailed Fischer's exact test in B, C, F, and I. P values: *p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, ***p≤0.001. Quantifications for additional alleles and detailed quantifications are provided in Figure S6 and Data S6.